

5.13. Suppose the map $Q: I \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ interval, is strongly continuous. $Q(t)$ is said to be strongly differentiable at t_0 for $\psi_0 \in \mathcal{H}$, if the following norm-lim. exists

$$\exists \lim_{\substack{t \rightarrow t_0 \\ t \in I}} \frac{1}{t-t_0} (Q(t)\psi_0 - Q(t_0)\psi_0) =: \frac{d}{dt} Q(t)\psi_0 \Big|_{t=t_0}$$

Defn. Suppose $(U(t))_{t \geq 0}$ is a strongly continuous unitary semi-group. Its infinitesimal generator is a map $A: D(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ defined using

$$D(A) := \{ \psi \in \mathcal{H} \mid U(t) \text{ is strongly differentiable at } t=0 \text{ for } \psi \}$$

and for any $\psi \in D(A)$

$$A\psi := \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{i}{\varepsilon} (U(\varepsilon)\psi - \psi) = i \frac{d}{dt} U(t)\psi \Big|_{t=0}$$

5.14. Theorem (Stone)

Suppose $(U(t))_{t \geq 0}$ is a strongly continuous unitary semigroup, and let A denote its infinitesimal generator, defined as above. Then A is a densely defined self-adjoint operator on \mathcal{H} and $\forall t \geq 0$:

(Exp) $U(t) = e^{-itA}$ (defined via spectral decomposition of A)

Denote $\psi(t) := U(t)\psi$ for $\psi \in \mathcal{H}$, $t \geq 0$. Then

- a) $t \mapsto \psi(t)$ is norm-continuous.
- b) If $\psi(0) \in D(A)$, then $\psi(t) \in D(A) \forall t \geq 0$ and

$$i \frac{d}{dt} \psi(t) = A\psi(t) = U(t)A\psi(0).$$

c) $\forall \psi(0) \in \mathcal{X} : \psi(t) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \exp(-it \frac{1}{\epsilon}(U(\epsilon) - 1)) \psi(0)$

Conversely, if A is self-adjoint, and $U(t) = e^{-itA}$, then $(U(t))_{t \geq 0}$ is a strongly continuous semigroup and A is its infinitesimal generator.

Proof: Functional calculus with spectral representations. (See the Appendix on page 55.) For complete proofs, see Rudin, Funct. Anal. Th. 13.35 and Th. 13.37 or Reed & Simon I, chapter VIII.4. or Teschl, chapter 3. \square

Remarks: * The spectrum of a self-adjoint operator A , is a set $\sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{R}$. The spectral representation assigns to every Borel subset $\omega \subset \sigma(A)$ an orthogonal projection P_ω . so that for any $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{X}$ the map $\mu_{\phi, \psi} : \omega \mapsto (\phi, P_\omega \psi)$ is a Borel measure, and $\forall \phi \in \mathcal{X}, \psi \in D(A)$

$$(\phi, A\psi) = \int_{\sigma(A)} \lambda \mu_{\phi, \psi}(d\lambda) =: \int_{\sigma(A)} \lambda d(\phi, P_\lambda \psi)$$

The definition in (Exp) means

$$\forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \phi, \psi \in \mathcal{X} :$$

$$(\phi, e^{-itA} \psi) := \int_{\sigma(A)} e^{-it\lambda} d(\phi, P_\lambda \psi)$$

and the basic results of functional calculus show that then $D(e^{-itA}) = \mathcal{X}$ and e^{-itA} is unitary operator.

* If $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{C}^N$, A is a self-adjoint matrix, with eigenvalues $\lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and (orthonormal) collection of eigenvectors $e_n \in \mathbb{C}^N \dots$



... and the spectral definition means

$$(\phi, e^{-itA} \psi) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-it\lambda_n} (\phi, e_n)(e_n, \psi).$$

* If A is a bounded operator,

$$e^{-itA} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (-itA)^n, \quad (*)$$

but for unbounded operators, using the sum is usually not a good idea. For instance, if A is self-adj, usually $D(A^2) \subset D(A)$ is a proper subset, and the sum in (*) makes sense only for so called analytic vectors; for ψ s.t.

$$\psi \in C^\infty(A) := \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} D(A^n) \quad \text{and} \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \|A^n \psi\| t^n < \infty \quad \text{for some } t > 0.$$

* It is possible, that S is essentially self-adjoint, i.e., S is symmetric and \bar{S} is self-adjoint, but although $C^\infty(\bar{S})$ is dense, $C^\infty(S)$ is empty.

* However, by c), e^{-itA} is a strong limit of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (-itA_\epsilon)^n$ where $A_\epsilon = \frac{d}{\epsilon}(U(\epsilon) - I)$ is a bounded operator.

5.15 Remark: Stone's theorem shows that the best we can do to understand the original Schrödinger equation $i \frac{d}{dt} \psi(t) = S\psi(t)$ on page 3 is to find a dense subspace of \mathcal{X} for which the right hand side makes sense, and then look for self-adjoint extensions of S. As we will see later, even if S is symmetric, any of the following can happen:
1) \bar{S} is the unique self-adjoint extension (S.A.E.)
2) There are (infinitely) many S.A.E.
3) There are no S.A.E.

- * If 1) happens, we should just be happy.
- * 2) means that we forgot to "put in all the physics" in the Schrödinger equation. Typical examples are boundary conditions.
- * 3) means that the (physical) system is not closed, and we are either forced to "leak" or "inject probability". (roughly speaking)

5.16. Examples: Three standard ways of defining operators on $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\Omega)$ when $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, open subset: multiplication, integral, and differential operators.

1) Multiplication operators (potentials)

Let $V: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be Lebesgue measurable.

The corresponding multiplication operator

M_V (also denoted \hat{V} or simply V)

is a mapping $D(M_V) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$

defined by

$$(M_V \psi)(x) = V(x)\psi(x), \quad x \in \Omega$$

on

$$D(M_V) := \{\psi \in \mathcal{H} \mid \forall x \in \Omega, V(x)\psi(x) \in L^2(\Omega)\}.$$

M_V has the following properties: (Ex. 5.2.)

a) M_V is a closed, densely defined operator.

b) $(M_V)^* = M_{\bar{V}}$

c) M_V self-adjoint $\Leftrightarrow V(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ a.e. $x \in \Omega$.

* Thus every $V: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, which is Lebesgue measurable, generates a strongly cont. USG.

with $U_t = e^{-itM_V} = M_V(e^{-itV})$.