

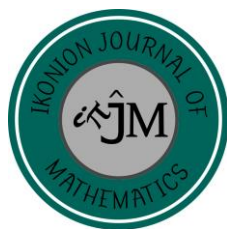
## PAPER DETAILS

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# An Investigation on The Behaviour of Unbounded Operators in $\Gamma$ -Hilbert Space

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## Keywords:

$\Gamma$ -Hilbert space, Closed operator, Densely defined operator, Self-adjoint of densely defined operator, Symmetric of densely defined operator.

**Abstract** — In this paper, we investigate about the behavior of unbounded operators in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert Space. Here we discussed about the adjoint, self-adjoint, symmetric and other related properties of densely defined operator. We proof some related theorems and corollaries and will show the characterizations of these operators in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space.

**Subject Classification (2020):** 46CXX, 46C05, 46C07, 46C15, 46C99, 47L06.

## 1. Introduction

$\Gamma$ -Hilbert space plays an important role in generalization of general linear quadratic control problems in an abstract space [1] which was motivated from the work of L. Debnath and Pitor Mikusinski [8] but there not enough literature found to study about the unbounded operators in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space. The definition of  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space was introduced by Bhattacharya D.K. and T.E. Aman in their paper “ $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space and linear quadratic control problem” in 2003 [9]. Further development was made in 2017 by A. Ghosh, A. Das and T.E. Aman in their research paper [1]. In [6] S. Islam and A. Das discussed about the properties of bounded operators in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert Space. Boundedness of an operator is a great tool to elaborate  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert Space. We often deal with operators which are not bounded. In this paper, we will briefly discuss the concept, methods and theory of unbounded operators in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert Space. In this paper, after consulting the main author, we have made some changes in the main definition of  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space [9].

First, we recall the definitions of  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert Space.

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $E$  be the linear space over the field  $F$  and  $\Gamma$  be a semi group with respect to addition. A mapping  $\langle \cdot, \cdot, \cdot \rangle: E \times \Gamma \times E \rightarrow F$  ( $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) is called a  $\Gamma$ -Inner product on  $(E, \Gamma)$  if

- (i)  $\langle \cdot, \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is linear in first variable and additive in second variable.
- (ii)  $\langle u, \gamma, v \rangle = \langle v, \gamma, u \rangle \forall u, v \in E$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ .
- (iii)  $\langle u, \gamma, u \rangle > 0 \forall u \neq 0$ .
- (iv)  $\langle u, \gamma, u \rangle = 0$  if at least one of  $u, \gamma$  is zero.

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$[(E, \Gamma), \langle \cdot, \cdot, \cdot \rangle]$  is called a  $\Gamma$ -inner product space over  $F$ .

A complete  $\Gamma$ -inner product space is called  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space.

Using the  $\Gamma$ -inner product, we may define three types of norm in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space, namely (i)  $\gamma$ -norm (ii)  $\Gamma_{\inf}$ -norm and (iii)  $\Gamma$ -norm.

**Definition 1.2.** Now if we write  $\|u\|_{\gamma}^2 = \langle u, \gamma, u \rangle$ , for  $u \in H$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  then  $\|u\|_{\gamma}^2$  satisfy all the conditions of norm.

**Definition 1.3.** If we define  $\|u\|_{\Gamma_{\inf}} = \inf \{\|u\|_{\gamma} : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ . Clearly  $\Gamma_{\inf}$ -norm satisfy all the conditions of the norm for  $u \in H$ .

**Definition 1.4.** If we write  $\|u\|_{\Gamma} = \{\|u\|_{\gamma} : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  then this norm is called the  $\Gamma$ -norm of the  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space.

**Definition 1.5.** Let  $L$  be a non-empty subset of a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_{\Gamma}$ . Two elements  $x$  and  $y$  are said to be  $\gamma$ -orthogonal if their inner product  $\langle x, \gamma, y \rangle = 0$ . In symbol, we write  $x \perp_{\gamma} y$ .

## 2. Basic Concepts

In this section, we briefly discuss about the definition of densely defined operator and the adjoint, self-adjoint, symmetric etc of that operator. Also, related examples and theorem are mentioned in this part.

### 2.1. Extension of operators

Let  $S$  and  $T$  be two operators in a vector space  $E$ .  $D_S$  and  $D_T$  are the domains of  $S$  and  $T$  respectively. If

$$D_S \subset D_T \quad \text{and} \quad Sx = Tx \quad \text{for every } x \in D_S$$

then  $T$  is called an extension of  $S$  and we write  $S \subset T$ .

### 2.2. Densely defined operator

An operator  $T$  defined a linear map  $T$  from a subspace of  $H_{\Gamma}$  to  $H_{\Gamma}$  is called an operator in  $H_{\Gamma}$  and the subspace denoted by  $D_T$ , is called the domain of  $T$ . Now an operator  $T$  is defined in a normed space  $E$  is called densely defined if its domain  $D_T$  is a dense subset of  $E$ , that is  $\text{cl } D_T = E$ .

**Example 2.2.1.** The differential operator  $\frac{d}{dx}$  is densely defined in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ , because the subspace of differentiable functions is dense in  $L(\mathbb{R})^2$ .

**Theorem 2.2.2.** Let  $T$  be a densely defined operator in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_{\Gamma}$  and let  $E$  be the set of all  $y \in H_{\Gamma}$  for which  $\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle$  where  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  is a continuous functional on  $D_T$ . There exists a unique operator  $S$  defined on  $E$  such that

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, Sy \rangle \text{ for all } x \in D_T \text{ and } y \in E.$$

**Proof:** For any  $y \in E$ , consider the functional  $f_{\gamma}(x) = \langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle$  where  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . Being continuous on a dense subspace of  $H_{\Gamma}$ , has a unique extension to a continuous functional  $\tilde{f}_{\gamma}$  on  $H_{\Gamma}$ .

By Riesz representation theorem, there exists a unique  $Z_y \in H_\Gamma$  such that  $\tilde{f}_y(x) = \langle x, \gamma, Z_y \rangle \forall x \in H_\Gamma$ . Now if we define  $S(y) = Z_y$ , then we will have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle &= f_y(x) = \tilde{f}_y(x) \\ &= \langle x, \gamma, Z_y \rangle \\ &= \langle x, \gamma, Sy \rangle \text{ for all } x \in D_T, y \in E \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma. \end{aligned}$$

Also the linearity of  $S$  is obvious.

### 2.3. Adjoint of densely defined operator

Let  $T$  be an operator which is densely defined in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$ . The adjoint  $T^*$  of  $T$  is the operator defined on the set of all  $y \in H_\Gamma$  for which  $\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle$  where  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  is a continuous function on  $D_T$  and such that

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, T^*y \rangle \text{ for all } x \in D_T \text{ and } y \in D_{T^*}$$

**Example 2.3.1.** Let  $C^1_0(\mathbb{R})$  denote the space of all continuously differentiable functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ . This is also a dense subspace of  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Now consider the differentiable operator  $D$  which defined on  $C^1_0(\mathbb{R})$ . Since

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Dx, \gamma, y \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \frac{d}{dt} x(t) \right) \gamma \overline{y(t)} dt \\ &= - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \left( \frac{d}{dt} \overline{y(t)} \right) \gamma dt \quad \text{for all } \gamma \in \Gamma. \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \langle Dx, \gamma, y \rangle$  is a continuous functional on  $C^1_0(\mathbb{R})$ .

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Dx, \gamma, y \rangle &= - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \left( \frac{d}{dt} \overline{y(t)} \right) \gamma dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \overline{\left( - \frac{d}{dt} (y(t)) \right)} \gamma dt. \end{aligned}$$

Here it is not correct to write  $D^* = -D$ , since the domain of  $D^*$  is not  $C^1_0(\mathbb{R})$ .

### 2.4. Self -adjoint of densely defined operator

Let  $T$  be a densely defined operator in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$ . Then  $T$  is called self-adjoint if  $T = T^*$ .

**Note.**  $T = T^*$  implies that  $D_{T^*} = D_T$  and  $T(x) = T^*(x)$  for all  $x \in D_T$ . If  $T$  is a densely defined operator in  $H_\Gamma$  which is bounded then  $T$  has a unique extension to a bounded operator in  $H_\Gamma$ . Then the domain of  $T$  as well as its adjoint  $T^*$ , is the whole space  $H_\Gamma$ . If  $T$  is unbounded operators, then  $T$  has an adjoint  $T^*$  such that  $T(x) = T^*(x)$  whenever  $x \in D_T \cap D_{T^*}$ , but  $D_{T^*} \neq D_T$  and thus  $T$  is not self-adjoint.

### 2.5. Symmetric Operator

We now consider a special kind of operator in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space. An operator  $T$  which is densely defined in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$  is called symmetric if for all  $x, y \in D_T$ , we have

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, Ty \rangle \text{ for all } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

It is clear that if  $T$  is symmetric, then  $\langle T(x), \gamma, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$  for every  $x \in D_T$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . Also, it follows that a densely defined operator  $T$  is symmetric if and only if  $T^*$  extends  $T$ . If  $T$  is symmetric and  $D_T = H_\Gamma$ , then  $T$  is in fact a bounded operator on  $H_\Gamma$ . This leads as follows,

Let  $E = \{T(x) : x \in H_\Gamma, \|x\|_\gamma \leq 1\}$ . Then for a fixed  $y \in H_\Gamma$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle T(x), \gamma, y \rangle| &= |\langle x, \gamma, T(y) \rangle| \\ &\leq \|x\|_\gamma \|T(y)\|_\gamma \\ &\leq \|T(y)\|_\gamma \text{ for all } x \in H_\Gamma \text{ with } \|x\|_\gamma \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

Also clearly every self-adjoint operator is symmetric.

**Example 2.5.1.** Suppose we consider an operator  $A = \frac{id}{dt}$  with the domain  $D_A = \{f \in L^2([a, b]) : f' \text{ is continuous and } f(a) = f(b) = 0\}$ .

Now, since for all  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}\langle Af, \gamma, g \rangle &= \int_a^b i f'(t) \gamma \overline{g(t)} dt \\ &= \int_a^b f(t) \gamma \overline{i g'(t)} dt \\ &= \langle f, \gamma, Ag \rangle\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \langle Af, \gamma, g \rangle = \langle f, \gamma, Ag \rangle$$

for all  $f, g \in D_A$ ,  $A$  is symmetric.

$\langle Af, \gamma, g \rangle$  is a continuous functional on  $D_A$  for any function  $g$  continuously differentiable, no need to satisfying  $g(a) = g(b)$ .

Consequently,  $D_{A^*} \neq D_A$  and  $A$  is not self-adjoint.

## 2.6. Closed Operator

A linear operator  $T : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$  is said to be closed when the graph  $G(T) = \{(x, \gamma, Tx) : x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is a closed subspace of  $E_1 \times E_2$  that is

$$x_n \in D_T, x_n \rightarrow x \text{ and } Tx_n \rightarrow y$$

implies  $x \in D_T$  and  $Tx = y$ .

## 3. Main Results

**Theorem 3.1.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be densely defined operators in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$ .

- (a) If  $A \subset B$ , then  $B^* \subset A^*$ .
- (b) If  $D_{B^*}$  is dense in  $H_\Gamma$ , then  $B \subset B^{**}$ .

**Proof.** (a) Let us consider  $y \in D_{B^*}$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . Then as a function of  $x$ ,  $\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle$  is a continuous functional on  $D_B$ . Also  $\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle$  is a continuous functional on  $D_A$  since  $D_A \subset D_B$ .

Now,  $Bx = Ax$  for  $x \in D_A$ , so  $\langle Ax, \gamma, y \rangle$  is a continuous functional on  $D_A$ . This proves that  $y \in D_{A^*}$ . Then the equality  $A^*y = B^*y$  for  $y \in D_{B^*}$  follows from the uniqueness of the adjoint operator.

(b) Let  $x \in D_B$ . Then for every  $y \in D_{B^*}$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , we have

$$\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, B^*y \rangle$$

It can be rewrite as

$$\langle B^*y, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle y, \gamma, Bx \rangle.$$

Since  $D_{B^*}$  is dense in  $H_\Gamma$ ,  $B^{**}$  exists and we have

$$\langle B^*y, \gamma, x \rangle = \langle y, \gamma, B^{**}x \rangle \text{ for all } y \in D_{B^*}, x \in D_{B^{**}} \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

Now, by the proof of (a), we can show that  $D_B \subset D_{B^{**}}$  and  $B(x) = B^{**}(x)$  for any  $x \in D_B$ . Thus  $B \subset B^{**}$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** If  $T$  is a one-to-one operator in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space and both  $T$  and its inverse  $T^{-1}$  are densely defined, then  $T^*$  is also one-to-one and  $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$ .

**Proof.** Let  $y \in D_{T^*}$ . Then for every  $x \in D_{T^{-1}}$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , we have  $T^{-1}x \in D_T$  and hence

$$\begin{aligned}\langle T^{-1}x, \gamma, T^*y \rangle &= \langle TT^{-1}x, \gamma, y \rangle \\ &= \langle x, \gamma, y \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

This follows that  $T^*y \in D_{(T^{-1})^*}$ .

And also,

$$(T^{-1})^* T^* y = (T T^{-1})^* y = y \quad (3.1)$$

Now we take an arbitrary  $y \in D_{(T^{-1})^*}$ . Then for each  $x \in D_T$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , we have

$$Tx \in D_{T^{-1}}.$$

Hence

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, (T^{-1})^* y \rangle = \langle T^{-1}Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, y \rangle \quad (3.2)$$

This shows that  $(T^{-1})^* y \in D_{T^*}$ . And  $T^*(T^{-1})^* y = (T^{-1}T)^* y = y$ . Now, from (3.1) and (3.2) it follows that  $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$ .

**Theorem 3.3.** If  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $AB$  are densely defined operators in  $H_\Gamma$ , then  $B^* A^* = (AB)^*$ .

**Proof.** Let  $x \in D_{AB}$  and  $y \in D_{B^* A^*}$ . Since  $x \in D_B$  and  $A^* y \in D_{B^*}$ , it follows that

$$\langle Bx, \gamma, A^* y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, B^* A^* y \rangle \text{ for all } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

On the other side, since  $Bx \in D_A$  and  $y \in D_{A^*}$ , we have

$$\langle ABx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle Bx, \gamma, A^* y \rangle \text{ for all } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

Hence

$$\langle ABx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, B^* A^* y \rangle.$$

Since this holds for all  $x \in D_{AB}$ , we have  $y \in D_{(AB)^*}$  and  $(B^* A^*)y = (AB)^* y$ . This implies,  $B^* A^* = (AB)^*$ .

**Theorem 3.4.** A densely defined operator  $T$  in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$  is symmetric if and only if  $T = T^*$ .

**Proof:** Let us suppose  $T = T^*$ . Since for all  $x \in D_T$  and  $y \in D_{T^*}$  we have

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, T^* y \rangle \text{ where } \gamma \in \Gamma \quad (3.3)$$

Again we have

$$\langle Tx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, Ty \rangle \text{ for all } x, y \in D_T \quad (3.4)$$

Thus,  $T$  is symmetric. If  $T$  is symmetric then combining (3.3) and (3.4) we can conclude  $T = T^*$ .

**Corollary 3.5.** If  $T$  is a densely defined symmetric operator, then  $T^*$  is the maximal symmetric extension of  $T$ .

**Proof.** Let  $S$  be a symmetric operator in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$  such that  $T \subset S$ . Then by the Theorem 3.3, we have

$$S^* \subset T^* .$$

Hence,  $T \subset S \subset S^* \subset T^*$ .

**Theorem 3.6.** If  $T$  is closed and invertible, then  $T^{-1}$  is closed.

**Proof.** Let us suppose that graph of  $T$  that is  $G(T)$  is closed and  $G(T) = \{(x, \gamma, Tx) : x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ . Then obviously

$$G(T^{-1}) = \{(Tx, \gamma, x) : x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\} \text{ is closed.}$$

**Theorem 3.7.** If  $T$  is densely defined operator, then  $T^*$  is closed.

**Proof:** If  $y_n \in D_{A^*}$ ,  $y_n \rightarrow y$  and  $A^*y_n \rightarrow z$ , then for any  $x \in D_A$  &  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Ax, \gamma, y \rangle &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle Ax, \gamma, y_n \rangle \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x, \gamma, A^*y_n \rangle \\ &= \langle x, \gamma, z \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $y \in D_{A^*}$  and  $A^*y = z$ .

**Note.** If the given operator  $A$  is not closed then is it possible to extend  $A$  to a closed operator? Answer to that problem is to use the closure of  $G(A)$  in  $H_\Gamma \times H_\Gamma$  to define an operator. If closure of  $G(A)$  defines an operator, then extension of  $A$  is closed.

**Theorem 3.8.** Every symmetric and densely defined operator in  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space has a closed symmetric extension.

**Proof.** Let  $A$  be a densely defined, symmetric operator in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$ . At first, we will show that condition  $x_n \in D_A$ ,  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ , as  $Ax_n \rightarrow y$  which implies that  $y = 0$ , is satisfied.

Let  $x_n \rightarrow 0$  and  $Ax_n \rightarrow y$ . Since  $A$  is symmetric then for all  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y, \gamma, z \rangle &= \lim_{n \rightarrow 0} \langle Ax_n, \gamma, z \rangle \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow 0} \langle x_n, \gamma, Az \rangle \\ &= 0, \text{ for any } z \in D_A . \end{aligned}$$

This implies  $y = 0$ , as  $D_A$  is dense in  $H_\Gamma$ .

Now we have that there exists a closed operator  $B$  such that  $G(B) = \text{Cl}G(A)$  and hence  $A \subset B$ . We have to prove that  $B$  is symmetric. If  $x, y \in D_B$ , then there exists  $x_n, y_n \in D_A$  such that

$$x_n \rightarrow x, \quad Ax_n \rightarrow Ax$$

and

$$y_n \rightarrow y, \quad Bx_n \rightarrow Bx .$$

Since  $A$  is a symmetric operator, we have

$$\langle Ax_n, \gamma, y_n \rangle = \langle x_n, \gamma, Ay_n \rangle \text{ for all } \gamma \in \Gamma .$$

Then by letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\langle Bx, \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, By \rangle.$$

Hence  $B$  is symmetric.

**Theorem 3.9.** Let  $T$  be a closed densely defined operator in a  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_\Gamma$ . Then

- (a) For any  $v, w \in H_\Gamma$ , there exist unique  $x \in D_T$  and  $y \in D_{T^*}$  such that  $T(x) + y = v$  and  $x - T^*(y) = w$ .  
 (b) For any  $w \in H_\Gamma$ , there exist unique  $x \in D_{T^*T}$  such that  $x + T^*T(x) = w$ .

**Proof.** (a) Consider the  $\Gamma$ -Hilbert space  $H_{\Gamma_1} = H_\Gamma \times H_\Gamma$ . Since  $T$  is closed,  $G(T) = \{(x, \gamma, T(x)) : x \in D_T \text{ and } \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is a closed subspace of  $H_{\Gamma_1}$ . Then by the projection theorem we have

$$H_{\Gamma_1} = G(T) + G(T)^{\perp_\gamma},$$

with

$$G(T) \cap G(T)^{\perp_\gamma} = \{0\}.$$

Now,  $(u, y) \in G(T)^{\perp_\gamma}$  if and only if  $\langle (x, T(x), \gamma), (u, y) \rangle = 0$  for all  $x \in D_T$  and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . This implies,  $\langle x, \gamma, u \rangle + \langle T(x), \gamma, y \rangle = 0$ . That is  $(u, y) \in G(T)^{\perp_\gamma}$  if and only if  $\langle T(x), \gamma, y \rangle = \langle x, \gamma, -u \rangle$  for all  $x \in D_T$ . In other way,

$$(u, y) \in G(T)^{\perp_\gamma} \text{ if and only if } y \in D_{T^*} \text{ and } u = -T^*(y).$$

Since  $(w, v) \in H_\Gamma \times H_\Gamma$ , then there exist unique  $x \in D_T$  and  $y \in D_{T^*}$  such that

$$(w, \gamma, v) = (x, \gamma, T(x)) + (-T^*(y), \gamma, y) \text{ for all } \gamma \in \Gamma.$$

That is,  $w = x - T^*(y)$  and  $v = T(x) + y$ .

- (b) Letting  $v = 0$  in (a), then there exist unique  $x \in D_T$  and  $y \in D_{T^*}$  such that  $T(x) + y = 0$  and  $x - T^*(y) = w$ . Thus  $x - T^*(-T(x)) = 0$  implies,  $x + T^*T(x) = w$ , as desired.

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