

ON ASYMPTOTIC DECAY OF THE EIGENFUNCTIONS
OF ELLIPTIC OPERATORS

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Communicated by T.V. Tararykova

Key words: eigenfunctions of elliptic operators, asymptotic decay.

AMS Mathematics Subject Classification: 35J10, 35P99.

Abstract. It is known that eigenfunctions of many elliptic operators such as Schrödinger operators decrease exponentially. In this paper we suggest a different idea of the proof of this fact. This idea is based on a special transformation Ψ_ε .

1 Introduction

We consider the operator

$$(Au)(x) = -\operatorname{div}(p(x)\operatorname{grad}u) + q(x)u(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

We assume that the function $p: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuously differentiable and satisfies the estimates $0 < p_0 \leq p(x) \leq P_0 < \infty$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\|\operatorname{grad}p(x)\| \leq P_0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for some p_0 and P_0 ; the function $q: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ belongs to $L_\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ if $n > 3$ and q belongs to $L_{2\infty}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ if $n = 1, 2, 3$ (the space $L_{2\infty}$ is defined in Section 2).

The main result is Theorem 2. It states that the eigenfunctions of A associated with isolated eigenvalues of finite multiplicity decrease exponentially. Similar results were proved by many authors (see, e. g., [2, 1, 5]). In this paper we present a different idea of the proof. It is based on a simple special transformation Ψ_ε , described in Section 4. Sections 2 and 3 contain some general auxiliary statements.

2 Spaces and operators

In this section we describe the operator (1), which is the main object of our investigation. We also introduce notation and define some function spaces.

For $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we set

$$|x| = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|, \quad \|x\| = \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2}.$$

Let $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$, where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. For a function (or a distribution) $u: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ we denote by $D^\alpha u$ the partial derivative $D_1^{\alpha_1} D_2^{\alpha_2} \dots D_n^{\alpha_n} u$, where $D_j = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}$.

We denote by \mathcal{D} the space of all infinitely continuously differentiable functions $u: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, and we denote by \mathcal{D}' the adjoint of \mathcal{D} , i. e. the space of distributions, see, e. g., [12, 11, 15] for details.

We denote by $L_2 = L_2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ the space of all measurable functions $u: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with the finite norm

$$\|u\|_{L_2} = \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |u(x)|^2 dx}.$$

We denote by $L_{2\infty} = L_{2\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ the space of all measurable functions $u: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with the finite norm

$$\|u\|_{L_{2\infty}} = \sup_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \sqrt{\int_{k+[0,1]^n} |u(x)|^2 dx}.$$

We denote by $L_{\infty 2} = L_{\infty 2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ the space of all measurable functions $u: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with the finite norm

$$\|u\|_{L_{\infty 2}} = \sqrt{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^n} (\text{ess sup}_{x \in k+[0,1]^n} |u(x)|)^2}.$$

We note that L_2 , $L_{2\infty}$, and $L_{\infty 2}$ can be considered as subspaces of \mathcal{D}' , and \mathcal{D} is contained in L_2 , $L_{2\infty}$, and $L_{\infty 2}$. See [4, 8] for further information about the spaces L_{pq} .

Let $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. We denote by $H^m = H^m(\mathbb{R}^n)$ the Sobolev space of all functions $u: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $D^\alpha u$ (considered as a distribution), $|\alpha| \leq m$, belongs to L_2 , with the norm

$$\|u\| = \|u\|_{H^m} = \sqrt{\sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |D^\alpha u(x)|^2 dx}.$$

For $s \geq 0$ the space H^s is defined as the space of all functions $u \in L_2$ such that the function $\xi \mapsto (1 + |\xi|)^s \hat{u}(\xi)$, where \hat{u} is the Fourier transform of u , belongs to L^2 , with the norm

$$\|u\| = \|u\|_{H^s} = \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (1 + |\xi|)^{2s} |\hat{u}(\xi)|^2 d\xi}.$$

Clearly, $H^0 = L_2$. It is easy to see that \mathcal{D} is a dense subspace in H^s . Clearly, $H^{s+\varepsilon} \subset H^s$, $\varepsilon > 0$. See, e. g., [15, 13, 9, 14, 3] for more details about the spaces H^s . We denote by H_{loc}^s (in particular, by $L_{2,\text{loc}}$) the subspace of distributions that on any open bounded set coincide with a function belonging to H^s . Let m be a non-negative integer. We say that a sequence $u_n \in H_{\text{loc}}^m$ converges to $u \in H_{\text{loc}}^m$ if u_n converges to u in the norm

$$\|u\|_{H^m(\Omega)} = \sqrt{\sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} \int_{\Omega} |D^\alpha u(x)|^2 dx}$$

for any bounded open set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Clearly, $H_{\text{loc}}^2 \subset H_{\text{loc}}^1 \subset L_{2,\text{loc}}$, and D_j , $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ continuously acts from H_{loc}^2 to H_{loc}^1 and from H_{loc}^1 to $L_{2,\text{loc}}$, i. e. D_j maps convergent sequences to convergent ones.

Proposition 1. For any $u, v \in H_{\text{loc}}^1$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ one has

$$D_j(uv) = D_j u \cdot v + u \cdot D_j v.$$

For any $u, v \in H_{\text{loc}}^2$ and $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ one has

$$D_i D_j(uv) = D_i D_j u \cdot v + D_i u \cdot D_j v + D_j u \cdot D_i v + u \cdot D_i D_j v.$$

Here the dot means the multiplication of measurable functions.

Corollary 1. The subspace H^m is dense in H_{loc}^m , $m = 0, 1, 2$. Consequently, the subspace \mathcal{D} is dense in H_{loc}^m , $m = 0, 1, 2$, as well.

Corollary 2. Let $\vartheta: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an infinitely continuously differentiable function. Then the operator

$$(\Theta u)(x) = \vartheta(x)u(x)$$

acts continuously from H_{loc}^m to H_{loc}^m , $m = 0, 1, 2$.

In this article we consider the operator

$$(Au)(x) = -\operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u) + q(x)u(x), \quad (1)$$

where $p, q: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We assume that the following assumption holds.

- (H) The function $p: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuously differentiable and satisfies the estimates $0 < p_0 \leq p(x) \leq P_0 < \infty$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\|\operatorname{grad} p(x)\| \leq P_0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for some p_0 and P_0 . The function $q: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ belongs to $L_\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ if $n > 3$ and q belongs to $L_{2\infty}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ if $n = 1, 2, 3$.

By Proposition 1 formula (1) defines a measurable function Au for $u \in H_{\text{loc}}^2$ and the representation

$$(Au)(x) = -p(x)\Delta u(x) - \langle \operatorname{grad} p(x), \operatorname{grad} u(x) \rangle + q(x)u(x), \quad u \in H_{\text{loc}}^2, \quad (2)$$

holds.

3 Self-adjoint operators

In this section we recall some results of the theory of self-adjoint operators and prove that the operator (1) is self-adjoint.

Let H be a Hilbert space with the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and $T: D(T) \subset H \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator with the domain $D(T)$. The operator T is called *closed* if its graph $\Gamma(T) = \{(u, Tu) \in H \times H: u \in D(T)\}$ is a closed subspace of $H \times H$.

Let the domain $D(T)$ be dense in H . In this case the domain $D(T^*)$ of the adjoint operator T^* is the set of all $v \in H$ such that the functional $u \mapsto \langle Tu, v \rangle$ is continuous in the norm of H . For such v the *adjoint operator* T^* is defined uniquely by the identity $\langle Tu, v \rangle = \langle u, T^*v \rangle$.

A linear operator $T: D(T) \subset H \rightarrow H$ is called *symmetric* if $\langle Tu, v \rangle = \langle u, Tv \rangle$ for all $u, v \in D(T)$. Equivalently, T is symmetric if $T \subset T^*$, i. e., T^* is an extension of T . A linear operator $T: D(T) \subset H \rightarrow H$ is called *self-adjoint* if $T^* = T$.

Proposition 2 ([11, Theorem 13.8]). *Let $T: D(T) \subset H \rightarrow H$ be a linear operator, and $D(T)$ be dense in H . Then the graph $\Gamma(T^*)$ of T^* is the orthogonal complement of $V\Gamma(T)$ in $H \times H$, where $V: H \times H \rightarrow H \times H$ is defined by the formula $V(u, v) = (-v, u)$. Consequently, the adjoint operator is closed. In particular, any self-adjoint operator is closed.*

Proposition 3 ([7, Ch. 5, § 5.2]). *The operator $-\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$ is self-adjoint.*

Let H be a Hilbert space and $T: D(T) \subset H \rightarrow H$ and $B: D(B) \subset H \rightarrow H$ be linear operators. The operator B is called *bounded with respect to T* if $D(B) \subset D(T)$ and

$$\|Bu\| \leq \varepsilon\|Tu\| + M\|u\|$$

for some $\varepsilon > 0$ and $M > 0$. We say that B is *completely bounded with respect to T* if for each $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $M > 0$ such that this inequality holds.

Proposition 4 ([7, Ch. 4, Theorem 1.1]). *Let H be a Hilbert space, and $T: D(T) \subset H \rightarrow H$ and $B: D(B) \subset H \rightarrow H$ be linear operators. Let B be completely bounded with respect to T . If T is closed, then $T + B$ is also closed.*

Proposition 5. *Let $0 \leq s < 2$. Then for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists M such that for any $u \in H^s$*

$$\|u\|_{H^s} \leq \varepsilon\|-\Delta u\|_{L_2} + M\|u\|_{L_2}.$$

The following Proposition is known as the Sobolev embedding theorem.

Proposition 6 ([15, Ch. 4, Proposition 1.3]). *If $s > n/2$, then each $u \in H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is equivalent to a continuous bounded function v . Moreover $|v(x)| \leq M\|u\|_{H^s}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for some M independent of u and x .*

Corollary 3 ([7, Ch. 5, § 5.3]). *Let $s > n/2$. Then $H^s \subset L_{\infty 2}$, and the natural imbedding of H^s into $L_{\infty 2}$ is continuous.*

Proof. For the sake of completeness we give the proof. Let $\chi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be an infinitely continuously differentiable function such that

$$\chi(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } x \in [0, 1]^n, \\ 0, & \text{for } x \notin [-1, 2]^n. \end{cases}$$

We set $\chi_k(x) = \chi(x - k)$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. For $k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ one has

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{ess\,sup}_{x \in k+[0,1]^n} |u(x)| &\leq \operatorname{ess\,sup}_{x \in k+[0,1]^n} |\chi_k(x)u(x)| \\ &\leq \operatorname{ess\,sup}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} |\chi_k(x)u(x)| \leq M\|\chi_k u\|_{H^s} \end{aligned}$$

(the last inequality follows by Proposition 6). Therefore

$$\|u\|_{L_{\infty 2}} = \sqrt{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^n} (\operatorname{ess\,sup}_{x \in k+[0,1]^n} |u(x)|)^2} \leq M \sqrt{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \|\chi_k u\|_{H^s}^2}.$$

We denote by $l_2^s = L_2(\mathbb{Z}^n, H^s)$ the space of all families $v = \{v_k \in H^s : k \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$ with the finite norm $\|v\| = \sqrt{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \|v_k\|_{H^s}^2}$. We consider the operator $Tu = \{\chi_k u\}$. It is easy to verify that for $s = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ the operator T continuously acts from H^s to l_2^s . From the method of complex interpolation [6, p. 116], [14, Ch. 1, § 4] it follows that the operator T continuously acts from H^s to l_2^s for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$, i. e.

$$\sqrt{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \|\chi_k u\|_{H^s}^2} \leq N \|u\|_{H^s}$$

for some N . Combining the obtained estimates one arrives at the desirable inequality

$$\|u\|_{L_{\infty 2}} \leq MN \|u\|_{H^s}.$$

□

Proposition 7. *Let n be arbitrary and $q \in L_{\infty}$. Then the operator*

$$(Qu)(x) = q(x)u(x) \tag{3}$$

is completely bounded with respect to the operator $-\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$.

Proof. Clearly for all $\varepsilon > 0$

$$\|Qu\|_{L_2} = \|qu\|_{L_2} \leq \|q\|_{L_{\infty}} \cdot \|u\|_{L_2} \leq \varepsilon \|-\Delta u\|_{L_2} + \|q\|_{L_{\infty}} \cdot \|u\|_{L_2}.$$

□

Proposition 8. *Let $n = 1, 2, 3$ and $q \in L_{2\infty}$. Then the operator (3) is completely bounded with respect to the operator $-\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$.*

Proof. Let $u \in H^2$. Let $s = 7/4$, thus $3/2 < s < 2$. By Proposition 5

$$\|u\|_{H^s} \leq \varepsilon \|-\Delta u\|_{L_2} + M \|u\|_{L_2}.$$

By Corollary 3 one has

$$\|u\|_{L_{\infty 2}} \leq N \|u\|_{H^s}$$

for some N . Finally, it is easy to see that

$$\|qu\|_{L_2} \leq \|q\|_{L_{2\infty}} \cdot \|u\|_{L_{\infty 2}}.$$

Combining all these estimates one obtains the desirable inequality

$$\|Qu\|_{L_2} \leq \|q\|_{L_{2\infty}} N (\varepsilon \|-\Delta u\|_{L_2} + M \|u\|_{L_2}).$$

□

Example 1. Let $n = 3$. Then the operator

$$(Qu)(x) = \frac{u(x)}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}},$$

where $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ (which is a part of the simplest Schrödinger operator), is completely bounded with respect to the operator $-\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$, because the coefficient $q(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}}$ belongs to $L_{2\infty}$.

Proposition 9. Let $p: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuously differentiable function satisfying the estimate $\|\text{grad } p(x)\| \leq P_0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for some P_0 . Then the operator

$$(Gu)(x) = \langle \text{grad } p(x), \text{grad } u(x) \rangle$$

is completely bounded with respect to the operator $-\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$.

Proof. Let $u \in H^2$. By Proposition 5

$$\|u\|_{H^1} \leq \varepsilon \|\Delta u\|_{L_2} + M\|u\|_{L_2}.$$

It is easy to see that

$$\|Gu\|_{L_2} \leq N \cdot \|u\|_{H^1}$$

for some N . Combining these estimates one obtains the desirable inequality

$$\|Gu\|_{L_2} \leq N(\varepsilon \|\Delta u\|_{L_2} + M\|u\|_{L_2}).$$

□

Proposition 10. The operator $A: H^2 \rightarrow L_2$ defined by the formula (1) is bounded. Namely, for some M

$$\|A: H^2 \rightarrow L_2\| \leq M \left(\|p\|_{L_\infty} + \sum_{j=1}^n \left\| \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_j} \right\|_{L_\infty} + \|q\|_{L_\infty} \right)$$

or

$$\|A: H^2 \rightarrow L_2\| \leq M \left(\|p\|_{L_\infty} + \sum_{j=1}^3 \left\| \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_j} \right\|_{L_\infty} + \|q\|_{L_{\infty 2}} \right)$$

provided that $n = 1, 2, 3$ and $q \in L_{\infty 2}$.

Proof. The estimate of the norm follows by representation (2). We also recall that by the proof of Proposition 8 that

$$\|qu\|_{L_2} \leq \|q\|_{L_{2\infty}} \cdot \|u\|_{L_{\infty 2}}$$

and by Corollary 3 $H^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \subset L_{\infty 2}(\mathbb{R}^3)$. □

Corollary 4. Operator (1) continuously maps H_{loc}^2 into $L_{2,\text{loc}}$, i. e. it maps convergent sequences to convergent ones.

Proof. The proof is evident. \square

Proposition 11. *The operator $A: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$ defined by the formula (1) is symmetric.*

Proposition 12. ([11, Theorem 13.16]) *Let T be a symmetric operator on a Hilbert space H . Then T is a closed operator if and only if $\text{Im}(T \pm i\mathbf{1})$ is closed, where $\mathbf{1}$ is the identity operator.*

Proposition 13. ([10, Theorem VIII.3]) *Let T be a symmetric operator on a Hilbert space H . Then the operator T is self-adjoint if and only if $\text{Im}(T \pm i\mathbf{1}) = H$.*

Theorem 1. *Let assumption (H) hold. Then the operator $A: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$ defined by formula (1) is self-adjoint.*

Proof. By Proposition 3 the operator $-\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$ is self-adjoint. Hence $-\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$ is closed. By the assumption $0 < p_0 \leq p(x) \leq P_0 < \infty$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, it follows that the operator $p\Delta: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$, where $(p\Delta u)(x) = p(x)\Delta u(x)$, is closed as well.

We represent the operator A in the form (2) or, more briefly, $A = -p\Delta + G + Q$, where

$$(Gu)(x) = \langle \text{grad } p(x), \text{grad } u(x) \rangle, \quad (Qu)(x) = q(x)u(x), \quad u \in H^2.$$

We recall that by Propositions 7, 8, and 9 the operators Q and G are completely bounded with respect to Δ . By Proposition 4 this implies that A is a closed operator for any p and q satisfying assumption (H).

Next, we consider the homotopy

$$(A\{t\}u)(x) = -\text{div}((1-t+tp(x))\text{grad } u) + tq(x)u(x), \quad u \in H^2, t \in [0, 1].$$

Clearly, $A\{0\} = -\Delta$ and $A\{1\} = A$. By the above $A\{t\}: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$ is a closed operator for all $t \in [0, 1]$.

By Proposition 10 it follows that $A\{t\}: H^2 \rightarrow L_2$ is continuous for all $t \in [0, 1]$. By Proposition 12 $\text{Im}(A\{t\} \pm i\mathbf{1})$ is closed for all t . At the same time by Propositions 3 and 13 $\text{Im}(A\{0\} \pm i\mathbf{1}) = L_2$. By [8, Theorem 1.3.2(b) and Proposition 1.3.5] it follows that $\text{Im}(A\{t\} \pm i\mathbf{1}) = L_2$ for all t . By Proposition 11 $A\{t\}: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$ is symmetric. Finally, by Proposition 13, this implies that $A\{t\}$ is self-adjoint. In particular, $A\{1\} = A$ is self-adjoint. \square

4 The transformation Ψ_ε

We denote by $\eta: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a fixed infinitely continuously differentiable function satisfying the property

$$\eta(x) = \|x\| \quad \text{for } \|x\| \geq 1. \quad (4)$$

For any $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ we consider the operator

$$(\Psi_\varepsilon u)(x) = e^{\varepsilon\eta(x)}u(x).$$

By Corollary 2 Ψ_ε acts in H_{loc}^m , $m = 0, 1, 2$. It is interesting to note that Ψ_ε forms a representation of the group \mathbb{R} , i. e. $\Psi_\varepsilon\Psi_\delta = \Psi_{\varepsilon+\delta}$.

For any $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $s \geq 0$ we denote by $H_\varepsilon^s = H_\varepsilon^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ the space of all functions of the form $\Psi_\varepsilon u$, where $u \in H^s$. In particular, $(L_2)_\varepsilon = (L_2)_\varepsilon(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is the space of all functions of the form $\Psi_\varepsilon u$, where $u \in L_2$. It is easy to see that the definition of H_ε^2 does not depend on the choice of a function η with the property (4). Evidently, H_0^2 coincides with H^2 and $(L_2)_0$ coincides with L_2 . Obviously, $H_\varepsilon^2 \subset H_{\text{loc}}^2$ for all $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$.

We set

$$A[\varepsilon] = \Psi_\varepsilon A \Psi_{-\varepsilon}, \quad \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}.$$

By Corollary 4 the operator $A[\varepsilon]$ acts from H_{loc}^2 to $L_{2, \text{loc}}$.

Proposition 14. *Let assumption (H) hold. Then for $u \in H_{\text{loc}}^2$ one has*

$$\begin{aligned} (A[\varepsilon]u)(x) &= -\operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)) + q(x)u(x) \\ &+ \varepsilon \langle u(x) \operatorname{grad} p(x) + 2p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x), \operatorname{grad} \eta(x) \rangle \\ &+ \varepsilon p(x)u(x) \Delta \eta(x) - \varepsilon^2 p(x)u(x) \|\operatorname{grad} \eta(x)\|. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Proof. For $u \in \mathcal{D}$ one has

$$(\operatorname{grad} \Psi_{-\varepsilon} u)(x) = \operatorname{grad}(e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} u(x)) = u(x) \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} + e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{grad} u(x)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} \Psi_{-\varepsilon} u)(x) &= \operatorname{div}(p(x)(u(x) \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} + e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{grad} u(x))) \\ &= \operatorname{div}(p(x)u(x) \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} + e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)) \\ &= u(x) \langle \operatorname{grad} p(x), \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \rangle + p(x) \langle \operatorname{grad} u(x), \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \rangle \\ &+ p(x)u(x) \operatorname{div} \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} + p(x) \langle \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)}, \operatorname{grad} u(x) \rangle \\ &+ e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)) \\ &= \langle u(x) \operatorname{grad} p(x) + 2p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x), \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \rangle \\ &+ p(x)u(x) \operatorname{div} \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} + e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)) \\ &= -\varepsilon e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \langle u(x) \operatorname{grad} p(x) + 2p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x), \operatorname{grad} \eta(x) \rangle \\ &- \varepsilon p(x)u(x) \operatorname{div}(e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{grad} \eta(x)) + e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)) \\ &= -\varepsilon e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \langle u(x) \operatorname{grad} p(x) + 2p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x), \operatorname{grad} \eta(x) \rangle \\ &- \varepsilon p(x)u(x) \langle \operatorname{grad} e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)}, \operatorname{grad} \eta(x) \rangle - \varepsilon e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} p(x)u(x) \Delta \eta(x) \\ &+ e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)) \\ &= -\varepsilon e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \langle u(x) \operatorname{grad} p(x) + 2p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x), \operatorname{grad} \eta(x) \rangle \\ &+ \varepsilon^2 e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} p(x)u(x) \|\operatorname{grad} \eta(x)\| - \varepsilon e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} p(x)u(x) \Delta \eta(x) \\ &+ e^{-\varepsilon \eta(x)} \operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned}
 (A[\varepsilon]u)(x) &= -\Psi_\varepsilon \operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} \Psi_{-\varepsilon} u)(x) + q(x)u(x) \\
 &= -\operatorname{div}(p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x)) + q(x)u(x) \\
 &\quad + \varepsilon \langle u(x) \operatorname{grad} p(x) + 2p(x) \operatorname{grad} u(x), \operatorname{grad} \eta(x) \rangle \\
 &\quad + \varepsilon p(x)u(x) \Delta \eta(x) - \varepsilon^2 p(x)u(x) \|\operatorname{grad} \eta(x)\|.
 \end{aligned}$$

Clearly (cf. Proposition 10), the right-hand side of the last formula defines a continuous operator, acting from H_{loc}^2 to $L_{2,\text{loc}}$. By Corollary 1 it coincides with $A[\varepsilon]: H_{\text{loc}}^2 \rightarrow L_{2,\text{loc}}$. \square

Proposition 15. *The operator $A[\varepsilon]$ continuously acts from H^2 to L_2 for all $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$. The operator $A[\varepsilon]: H^2 \rightarrow L_2$ continuously depends on the parameter ε .*

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Proposition 10. \square

Corollary 5. *The operator A maps H_ε^2 to $(L_2)_\varepsilon$ for all $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$.*

Proof. The proof is evident. \square

5 Exponential decay of eigenfunctions

Proposition 16. *Let X and Y be Banach spaces and $A, B: X \rightarrow Y$ be bounded linear operators. If the operator A is invertible and*

$$\|B\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\| < 1$$

then the operator $A - B$ is also invertible. Moreover

$$\|(A - B)^{-1}\| \leq \frac{\|A^{-1}\|}{1 - \|B\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\|}.$$

Proof. The proof follows by the representation

$$(A - B)^{-1} = A^{-1} + A^{-1}BA^{-1} + A^{-1}BA^{-1}BA^{-1} + \dots$$

\square

Theorem 2. *Let assumption (H) hold. Let λ_0 be an isolated eigenvalue of the operator A defined by formula (1), and the eigenspace E_{λ_0} associated with λ_0 be finite dimensional. Then $E_{\lambda_0} \subset H_\varepsilon^2$ for some $\varepsilon < 0$.*

Proof. Let Γ be a circumference with the centre λ_0 oriented anticlockwise. We assume that the radius of the circumference Γ is sufficiently small, so it does not surround points of the spectrum of A different from λ_0 . We consider the resolvent $R(\lambda, A) = (\lambda \mathbf{1} - A)^{-1}: L_2 \rightarrow H^2$, where $\mathbf{1}$ is the identity operator. By Proposition 16 the resolvent $R(\lambda, A)$ continuously depends on $\lambda \in \Gamma$. Hence the maximum of $\|R(\lambda, A): L_2 \rightarrow H^2\|$ over $\lambda \in \Gamma$ is finite.

By Propositions 15 and 16 the operator $\lambda\mathbf{1} - A[\varepsilon]$ is invertible for $\lambda \in \Gamma$ and $|\varepsilon|$ small enough and the inverse operator $R(\lambda, A[\varepsilon]) = (\lambda\mathbf{1} - A[\varepsilon])^{-1}: L_2 \rightarrow H^2$ continuously depends on ε .

For sufficiently small $|\varepsilon|$ we consider the Riesz projector

$$P[\varepsilon] = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\lambda\mathbf{1} - A[\varepsilon])^{-1} d\lambda.$$

It acts from L_2 to H^2 and continuously depends on ε . The image of $P[\varepsilon]$ is the eigenspace associated with the part of the spectrum of $A[\varepsilon]$ surrounded by Γ . In particular, the image of $P[0]$ is E_{λ_0} . Since E_{λ_0} is finite-dimensional and $P[\varepsilon]$ continuously depends on ε , the dimension of the image of $P[\varepsilon]$ does not depend on ε .

We consider the operator

$$A\{\varepsilon\} = \Psi_{-\varepsilon} A[\varepsilon] \Psi_{\varepsilon}.$$

It acts from H_{ε}^2 to $(L_2)_{\varepsilon}$ (cf. Corollary 5). Clearly, it coincides with the restriction of the operator A to H_{ε}^2 . We notice that the operator $\lambda\mathbf{1} - A\{\varepsilon\}: H_{\varepsilon}^2 \rightarrow (L_2)_{\varepsilon}$ coincides with $\Psi_{-\varepsilon}(\lambda\mathbf{1} - A[\varepsilon])\Psi_{\varepsilon}$. Therefore the spectrum of $A\{\varepsilon\}: H_{\varepsilon}^2 \subset (L_2)_{\varepsilon} \rightarrow (L_2)_{\varepsilon}$ coincides with the spectrum of $A[\varepsilon]: H^2 \subset L_2 \rightarrow L_2$. Next we consider the operator

$$\begin{aligned} P\{\varepsilon\} &= \Psi_{-\varepsilon} P[\varepsilon] \Psi_{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \Psi_{-\varepsilon} (\lambda\mathbf{1} - A[\varepsilon])^{-1} \Psi_{\varepsilon} d\lambda \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\Psi_{-\varepsilon} (\lambda\mathbf{1} - A[\varepsilon]) \Psi_{\varepsilon})^{-1} d\lambda \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\lambda\mathbf{1} - A\{\varepsilon\})^{-1} d\lambda. \end{aligned}$$

By this representation it follows that $P\{\varepsilon\}$ is the spectral projector associated with the part of the spectrum of $A\{\varepsilon\}$ surrounded by Γ . Since $P[\varepsilon]$ and $P\{\varepsilon\}$ are similar projectors (namely, $P\{\varepsilon\} = \Psi_{-\varepsilon} P[\varepsilon] \Psi_{\varepsilon}$), their images are isomorphic spaces and the dimensions of their images are the same.

Let ε be less than zero. In this case the operator $A\{\varepsilon\}: H_{\varepsilon}^2 \rightarrow (L_2)_{\varepsilon}$ is a restriction of the operator $A: H^2 \rightarrow L_2$ to the subspace $H_{\varepsilon}^2 \subset H^2$. Consequently, the operator $(\lambda\mathbf{1} - A\{\varepsilon\})^{-1}: (L_2)_{\varepsilon} \rightarrow H_{\varepsilon}^2$ is the restriction of the operator $(\lambda\mathbf{1} - A)^{-1}: L_2 \rightarrow H^2$. Therefore by the representation

$$P\{\varepsilon\} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\lambda\mathbf{1} - A\{\varepsilon\})^{-1} d\lambda$$

it follows that the operator $P\{\varepsilon\}: (L_2)_{\varepsilon} \rightarrow H_{\varepsilon}^2$ is the restriction of the operator $P\{0\} = P[0]: L_2 \rightarrow H^2$. The operators $P\{\varepsilon\}$ and $P[0]$ are projectors and dimensions of their images coincide. This implies that the images of $P\{\varepsilon\}$ and $P[0]$ coincide. But the image of $P\{\varepsilon\}$ is contained in H_{ε}^2 . Therefore the image of $P[0]$ is also a subspace of H_{ε}^2 with $\varepsilon < 0$. \square

Acknowledgements. The author would like to thank V.I. Burenkov for his helpful comments and suggestions.

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