# THE ABSTRACT THEORY OF SCATTERING 

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1. Introduction. This paper deals with the construction and properties of the wave operators $W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$ and the scattering operator S associated with two selfadjoint operators $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ in a Hilbert space 4 . We shall also consider the wave operators $W_{ \pm}\left(U_{2}, U_{1}\right)$ for unitary operators $U_{1}, U_{2}$. More generally, we shall construct wave operators for two spectral measures $E_{1}, E_{2}$ defined on a certain measure space.
There are two main approaches to these problems, called the stationary method and the time-dependent method. The time-dependent method is more convenient for the introduction of the wave and scattering operators. However the stationary method gives more detailed results with fewer assumptions. This paper begins with a summary of the time-dependent approach. The main part of the paper presents an exposition of the stationary method.
2. A summary of the time-dependent theory of scattering. Let $H_{1}$ and $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ be selfadjoint operators and consider the associated unitary groups $e^{-i t H_{1}}, e^{-i t H_{2}},-\infty<t<\infty$. The limits

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{ \pm}=\underset{t \rightarrow \pm \infty}{ } \operatorname{slim}_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

are called the wave operators. Of course such limits will exist only under strong restrictions.
A specific situation, which is typical for applications and to which reference is made frequently below, is the following:

$$
A=L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right), \quad H_{1}=-\Delta, \quad H_{2}=-\Delta+V, \quad V=q(x),
$$

where $q$ is a real-valued measurable function. $H_{1}$ is selfadjoint under the standard interpretation of $\Delta$ [12, p. 299] and $H_{2}$ is selfadjoint under rather mild conditions on $q$ (it suffices if $q \in L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)+L^{\infty}\left(R^{3}\right)$ (vector sum)) [12, p. 302]. These operators correspond to quantum mechanical Hamiltonians for a free particle and a particle moving in the potential field $q(x)$ respectively. In this case $W_{ \pm}$exist if $q(x)$ is sufficiently small for large $|x|$ (precise conditions are given below).
(2.1) implies that

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$$
\begin{equation*}
e^{-i t H_{2}} \phi \sim e^{-i t H_{1}} \phi_{ \pm} \text {as } t \rightarrow \pm \infty, \quad \text { with } \phi=W_{ \pm} \phi_{ \pm} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A \sim B$ means $\|A-B\| \rightarrow 0$. Thus the "perturbed motion" $e^{-i t H_{2}} \phi$ looks like a free motion $e^{-i t H_{1}} \phi_{ \pm}$. (2.2) implies $\|\phi\|=\left\|\phi_{+}\right\|$ $=\left\|\phi_{-}\right\|$. The map $S: \phi_{-} \rightarrow \phi_{+}=S \phi_{-}$is the scattering operator. For physical reasons $S$ should be unitary (i.e., be defined everywhere on 4 and map $\&$ onto $H)$. This implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{+} \mathcal{H}=W_{-} \mathcal{A} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

(More details about the physical background of the wave and scattering operators are given in the paper by Dollard in this issue.)

In the preceding discussion two problems have arisen, namely to establish

1. the existence of $W_{ \pm}$;
2. Range $W_{+}=$Range $W_{-}$.

Strong assumptions on $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ are necessary for these two results to be true.

Example. To illustrate these problems, consider the following example. Let

$$
H_{1}=\frac{1}{i} \frac{d}{d x}, \quad H_{2}=\frac{1}{i} \frac{d}{d x}+q(x)
$$

where $q(x)$ is real valued and $\neq L^{2}(-\infty, \infty)$. Then

$$
\left(e^{-i t H_{1}} u\right)(x)=u(x-t)
$$

If $p(x)=\int_{0}^{x} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime}$ and $W=e^{i p(x)}$ (a unitary operator of multiplication), then

$$
H_{2}=W^{-1} H_{1} W
$$

and

$$
e^{-i t H_{2}}=W^{-1} e^{-i t H_{1}} W
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H} u\right)(x) & =\left(W^{-1} e^{i t H_{1}} W e^{-i t H_{1}}\right) u(x) \\
& =e^{i\{p(x+t)-p(x)\}} u(x)=\exp \left(i \int_{x}^{x+t} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime}\right) u(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then one obtains $W_{ \pm}=\exp \left[i \int_{x}^{ \pm \infty} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime}\right]$ (unitary operators of multiplication), assuming that $\int_{x}^{ \pm a} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime}$ exist, and

$$
S=W^{-1} W_{-}=\exp \left(-i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime}\right)
$$

Thus $S$ is multiplication by a constant with absolute value 1 . Since the existence of $W_{+}$and $W_{-}$depends on the existence of

$$
\int^{+\infty} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime} \text { and } \int_{-\infty} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime} \quad \text { respectively }
$$

it is clear that one of $W_{ \pm}$may exist while the other does not.
Remark. The inverse scattering problem is to determine $H_{2}$ given $H_{1}$ and S. More precisely, the question is the uniqueness and/or the existence of $H_{2}$ (in a certain class) for a given pair $H_{1}, S$. In the above example, the uniqueness does not hold because the function $q$ only affects the scattering operator through its integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime}$. (This was noted by G. Schmidt in a slightly different form.) The inverse scattering problem for a similar situation with second order operators is different and has a nice solution (Gel 'fand-Levitan [5] ).

The problems of the existence of $W_{ \pm}$and Range $W_{+}=$Range $W_{-}$ are investigated in a more general situation below by modifying the definitions of the wave operators, using the decomposition of a selfadjoint operator into its absolutely continuous and singular parts. The (generalized) wave operators are defined by

$$
W_{ \pm}=W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)=\underset{t \rightarrow \pm \infty}{s-\lim _{i}} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} P_{1},
$$

where $P_{1}$ is the orthogonal projection on $H_{1, \mathrm{ac}} \subset \mathcal{H}$. Here $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}$ is the subspace of absolute continuity for $H_{1}$, defined by

$$
\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}=\left\{u \in \mathcal{H} \mid\left(E_{1}(\lambda) u, u\right) \text { is absolutely continuous in } \lambda\right\},
$$

where $E_{1}(\lambda)$ is the spectral family of $H_{1}, H_{1}=\int \lambda d E_{1}(\lambda)$. $H_{1, \text { ac }}$ is a closed subspace of $\&$ and reduces $H_{1}\left[12\right.$, p. 516]. $H_{2, \text { ac }}$ and $P_{2}$ are defined similarly.

Because of the factor $P_{1}$ generalized wave operators $W_{ \pm}$are more likely to exist than the operators (2.1). Their effect is to exclude the singular part of the operator $H_{1}$.

Theorem. If $W_{+}$exists then $W_{+}$is a partial isometry with initial set $\mathcal{H}_{1, a c}$ and final set $W_{+} \notin \subset \dot{H}_{2, \text { ac. }} . W_{+} \not+$ reduces $H_{2}$. We have the intertwining relation $W_{+} H_{1} \subset H_{2} W_{+}$. In particular we have the unitary equivalence

$$
\left.\left.H_{1}\right|_{\boldsymbol{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}} \approx H_{2}\right|_{\mathrm{w}_{+} \boldsymbol{\alpha}} .
$$

A similar result holds for $W_{-}$if it exists. If both $W_{+}$and $W_{-}$exist, $S=W_{+}^{*} W_{-}$commutes with $H_{1}$.

For a proof of this theorem see the paper of Dollard. Also cf. Kato [12, Chapter 10].

From the theorem one can obtain information about the spectrum of $H_{2}$. If one can prove that $W_{+}\left(W_{-}\right)$exists, then $H_{2}$ contains a part
that is unitarily equivalent to $H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}$, the part of $H_{1}$ in $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}$.
$W_{+}\left(W_{-}\right)$is said to be complete if $W_{ \pm} \mathcal{A}=\boldsymbol{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$. If both $W_{ \pm}$ exist and are complete then Range $W_{+}=\boldsymbol{d}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}=$ Range $W_{-}$. Thus $S=W_{+}^{*} W_{-}$is unitary in $\boldsymbol{d}_{1, \text { ac }}$.

The following theorem gives a sufficient condition for the existence of wave operators.
Theorem (Cook, Kuroda). Suppose there exists $D \subset \mathcal{A}_{1, \text { ac }}$ which is a fundamental set in $\mathcal{H}_{1, \text { ac }}$ and which has the property that if $u \in D$ there exists $t_{0}$ such that

$$
e^{-i t H_{1} u} u D\left(H_{1}\right) \cap D\left(H_{2}\right) \text { for } t_{0} \leqq t<\infty,
$$

$\left(H_{2}-H_{1}\right) e^{-i t H_{1}} u$ is continuous int $\operatorname{in}\left(t_{0}, \infty\right)$ and

$$
\int_{t_{0}}^{\infty}\left\|\left(H_{2}-H_{1}\right) e^{-i t H_{1} u}\right\| d t<\infty .
$$

Then $W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$ exists. A similar result holds for $W_{-}$.
Proof. For $u \in D$ and $s, t \geqq t_{0}$

$$
\frac{d}{d t} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} u=i e^{i t H_{2}\left(H_{2}-H_{1}\right) e^{-i t H_{1}} u .}
$$

Thus $e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} u-e^{i s H_{2}} e^{-i s H_{1}} u=i \int_{s}^{t} e^{i t H_{2}}\left(H_{2}-H_{1}\right) e^{-i t H_{1}} u d t$. Hence

$$
\left\|e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} u-e^{i s H_{2}} e^{-i s H_{1}} u\right\| \leqq \int_{s}^{t}\left\|\left(H_{2}-H_{1}\right) e^{-i t H_{1}} u\right\| d t
$$

Since $\int_{t_{0}}^{\infty}\left\|\left(H_{2}-H_{1}\right) e^{-i t H_{1}} u\right\| d t<\infty$ the right side of the preceding inequality tends to 0 as $s, t \rightarrow+\infty$. Hence the left side also tends to 0 as $s, t \rightarrow+\infty$. Hence

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \pm \infty} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} u \quad \text { exists for } u \in D
$$

Since the operators $e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}}$ are uniformly bounded, the above limit exists for all $u \in \mathcal{H}_{1, \text { ac }}$.

Example. Consider the example we mentioned at the beginning where

$$
H_{1}=-\Delta, \quad H_{2}=-\Delta+V, \quad V=q(x)
$$

and $H^{\prime}=L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. In this case $P_{1}=1$, since $H_{1}$ is absolutely continuous. For $t \neq 0$ the operators $e^{-i t H_{1}}$ are integral operators whose kernels are the Green's functions for the Schrödinger equation for a free particle. If $u \in L^{2} \cap L^{1}$ then

$$
\left(e^{-i t H_{1}} u\right)(x)=\frac{1}{(4 \pi i t)^{3 / 2}} \int_{R^{3}} \exp \left(|x-y|^{2} / 4 i t\right) u(y) d y .
$$

Thus

$$
\left|\left(e^{-i t H_{1}} u\right)(x)\right| \leqq \frac{1}{(4 \pi t)^{3 / 2}} \int_{\mathbf{R}^{3}}|u(y)| d y,
$$

whence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{1}^{\infty}\left\|\left(H_{2}-H_{1}\right) e^{-i t H_{1}} u\right\| d t & \leqq \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{\|u\|_{L^{1}}\|q\|_{L^{2}}}{(4 \pi t)^{3 / 2}} d t \\
& =\text { const } \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{d t}{t^{3 / 2}}<\infty
\end{aligned}
$$

provided $q \in L^{2}$. Hence in the case $q \in L^{2}$ the wave operator $W_{+}$ exists and in the same way $W_{-}$exists. The assumption that $q \in L^{2}$ also guarantees that $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ is a well defined selfadjoint operator. The argument above uses the convergence of $\int_{1}^{\infty} d t t^{3 / 2}$. Since $\int_{1}^{\infty} d t t^{\infty}$ converges for $\alpha>1$ the above estimates can be modified, and the assumption on $q$ can be weakened to

$$
\int_{R^{3}} \frac{|q(x)|^{2} d x}{(1+|x|)^{1-\epsilon}}<\infty \quad(\epsilon>0) .
$$

A sufficient condition for this is $q \in L_{\text {loc }}^{2}$ and $|q| \sim c|x|^{-1-\epsilon}$ for large $|x|$. In particular it is seen that $H_{2}=-\Delta+q$ has a part which is unitarily equivalent to $H_{1}$, and hence the spectrum of $H_{2}$ contains the positive real axis.
Nothing is said about completeness in the above example. In fact, the wave operators are complete under conditions almost the same as above. For example the condition $|q(x)| \leqq c /(1+|x|)^{1+\epsilon}$ is shown below to be sufficient for completeness.

Theorem (Chain Rule). If $W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$ and $W_{+}\left(H_{3}, H_{2}\right)$ both exist then $W_{+}\left(H_{3}, H_{1}\right)$ exists and is equal to $W_{+}\left(H_{3}, H_{2}\right) W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$.
Proof. We can multiply strong limits so that

$$
W_{+}\left(H_{3}, H_{2}\right) W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)=s-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{i t H_{3}} e^{-i t H_{2}} P_{2} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} P_{1} .
$$

$P_{2}$ commutes with $H_{2}$ and hence with $e^{i H_{2}}$, so

$$
W_{+}\left(H_{3}, H_{2}\right) W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)=s-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{i t H_{3} P_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1} P_{1}}
$$

Thus it suffices to show

$$
s-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{i t H_{3}}\left(1-P_{2}\right) e^{-i t H_{1} P_{1}}=0
$$

Since $e^{i t H_{3}}$ and $e^{i t H_{2}}$ are unitary this is equivalent to

$$
\underset{t \rightarrow \infty}{s-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}} e^{i t H_{2}}\left(1-P_{2}\right) e^{-i t H_{1}} P_{1}=0
$$

Again since $P_{2}$ and $e^{i t H_{2}}$ commute, we must show

$$
\left(1-P_{2}\right) s-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} P_{1}=0
$$

or

$$
\left(1-P_{2}\right) W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)=0
$$

This is true since Range $W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right) \subset \mathcal{H}_{2, \text { ac }}$.
If we use the chain rule taking $H_{3}=H_{1}$ we get
Corollary. If $W_{+}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$ and $W_{+}\left(H_{1}, H_{2}\right)$ exist then they are complete. Similarly for $W_{-}$.

So far most of the results have not been very deep. The following theorem which gives a sufficient condition for the existence and completeness of the wave operators is more difficult.

Theorem (Birman, de Branges, Kato). $W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$ exist and are complete if $\left(\mathrm{H}_{2}-\zeta\right)^{-1}-\left(H_{1}-\zeta\right)^{-1}$ belongs to the trace class for $\operatorname{Im} \zeta \neq 0$.

This theorem has been proved using time-dependent methods. However, we shall postpone the proof until later when it will be proved using stationary methods. (Cf. M. Sh. Birman [2]; L. de Branges [4] ; T. Kato [11].)

Remark. The condition is satisfied either for all $\zeta$ with $\operatorname{Im} \zeta \neq 0$ or for no such $\zeta$.

Example. Consider the problem of potential scattering which we discussed earlier. We have

$$
H_{1}=-\Delta, \quad H_{2}=-\Delta+V, \quad V=q(x)
$$

Then the above theorem can be applied when $q \in L^{1}\left(R^{3}\right) \cap L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. This assumption on $q$ is weakened below by means of the stationary method.

Note that the above conditions concerning the existence and completeness of the wave operators are symmetric in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. This symmetry would not hold without the introduction of generalized wave operators.

The invariance principle. It states:
If $\phi$ is real valued and piecewise monotone increasing, with a certain mild smoothness, then

$$
W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)=W_{ \pm}\left(\phi\left(H_{2}\right), \phi\left(H_{1}\right)\right) .
$$

It would be nice if the existence of $W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$ implied the existence of $W_{ \pm}\left(\phi\left(H_{2}\right), \phi\left(H_{1}\right)\right)$ and the invariance principle. However, this has not been shown in general. If $\left(H_{2}-\zeta\right)^{-1}-\left(H_{1}-\zeta\right)^{-1}$ is of trace class the invariance principle does hold, and it is known to hold in many other cases.

Suppose $H_{1} H_{2} \geqq 0$ in addition to $\left(H_{2}-\zeta\right)^{-1}-\left(H_{1}-\zeta\right)^{-1}$ belonging to the trace class. Then the choice $\phi(\lambda)=\lambda^{2}$ in the invariance principle gives that $W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}{ }^{2}, H_{1}{ }^{2}\right)$ exists and equals $W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)$. If we take $\phi(\lambda)=-1 / \lambda$ then we have

$$
W_{ \pm}\left(H_{2}, H_{1}\right)=W_{ \pm}\left(-H_{2}^{-1},-H_{1}^{-1}\right)=W_{\mp}\left(H_{2}^{-1}, H_{1}^{-1}\right)
$$

3. Formulas for the wave operators in the stationary theory. A formal derivation of the formula for the wave operators which forms the basis of the stationary theory is given next. The definition of the wave operators in the time-dependent theory is simpler and clearer than the definition in the stationary theory, and the following argument gives a formal link between the two.

In the time-dependent theory the wave operator $W_{+}$is defined by

$$
W_{+}=s-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} P_{1}
$$

We first replace $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}$ by the Abel limit.

$$
\begin{aligned}
W_{+} & =\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} 2 \epsilon \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2 \epsilon t} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} P_{1} d t \\
& =\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} 2 \epsilon \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\epsilon t+i t H_{2}}\left(e^{-\epsilon t+i t H_{1}}\right)^{*} d t P_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Roughly speaking the link between the two definitions of the wave operator is by means of the Fourier transform. We have

$$
\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\epsilon t} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t \lambda} d t=\frac{i}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}}\left(H_{2}-\lambda+i \epsilon\right)^{-1}
$$

and similarly for $e^{-\epsilon t+i t H_{1}}$.
We apply Parseval's relation between the Fourier transforms to get

$$
W_{+}=\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{2 \epsilon}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left(H_{2}-\lambda+i \epsilon\right)^{-1}\left(H_{1}-\lambda-i \epsilon\right)^{-1} d \lambda P_{1}
$$

We let $R_{k}(\zeta)=\left(H_{k}-\zeta\right)^{-1}$ be the resolvent of $H_{k}$ for $k=1,2$ and $\zeta=\lambda+i \epsilon$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
W_{+} & =\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{2}(\zeta) R_{1}(\zeta) d \lambda P_{1} \\
& =\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{2}(\bar{\zeta}) R_{2}(\zeta)\left(H_{2}-\zeta\right) R_{1}(\zeta) d \lambda P_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $E_{2}(\lambda)$ is the spectral family associated with $H_{2}$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} R_{2}(\bar{\zeta}) R_{2}(\zeta) & =\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d E_{2}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)}{\left(\lambda^{\prime}-\bar{\zeta}\right)\left(\lambda^{\prime}-\zeta\right)}=\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d E_{2}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)}{\left(\lambda^{\prime}-\lambda\right)^{2}+\epsilon^{2}} \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(\lambda^{\prime}-\lambda\right) d E_{2}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)=\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\delta_{\epsilon}(\mu)=\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \frac{1}{\left(\mu^{2}+\epsilon^{2}\right)}
$$

If we let $G(\zeta)=\left(H_{2}-\zeta\right) R_{1}(\zeta)$ then

$$
\mathrm{W}_{+}=\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right) G(\zeta) d \lambda P_{1}
$$

If we let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ then $\delta_{\epsilon}$ tends to the $\delta$ measure and

$$
W_{+}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right) G(\lambda+i 0) d \lambda P_{1}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d E_{2}(\lambda)}{d \lambda} G(\lambda+i 0) d \lambda P_{1}
$$

In the corresponding formula for $W_{-}$the factor $G(\lambda+i 0)$ is replaced by $G(\lambda-i 0)$. Thus

$$
W_{ \pm}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d E_{2}(\lambda)}{d \lambda} G(\lambda \pm i 0) d \lambda P_{1}
$$

One should note that the derivative of the spectral measure does not exist if one considers it in the usual operator topologies, and the boundary values of $G$ may not exist in the usual sense. However in the stationary theory below we interpret the last formula directly in order to define the operators $W_{ \pm}$. Then we show that $W_{ \pm}$have certain properties that hold for the wave operators in the time-dependent theory. Under quite general assumptions we show that $W_{ \pm}$are partial isometries with initial set $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}$ and final set $\mathcal{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$ and that $W_{ \pm}$have the intertwining property. We also show under more restrictive assumptions that $W_{ \pm}$are identical with the wave operators in the time-dependent theory, i.e. $e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} P_{1} \rightarrow W_{+}$. Under the most
general assumptions it may only be possible to show that the timedependent wave operators exist as an Abel limit. We also prove the invariance principle. The assumptions will be sufficiently general to include most known results.
Another important relation which is related to the derivation above is the following:

$$
G(\lambda+i 0)^{*} \frac{d E_{2}(\lambda)}{d \lambda} G(\lambda+i 0)=\frac{d E_{1}(\lambda)}{d \lambda} .
$$

We establish this as follows: we have

$$
R_{2}(\zeta) G(\zeta)=R_{1}(\zeta) .
$$

So

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right) & =\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} R_{1}(\bar{\zeta}) R_{1}(\zeta)=\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} R_{1}(\zeta)^{*} R_{1}(\zeta) \\
& =\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} G(\zeta)^{\star} R_{2}(\zeta)^{*} R_{2}(\zeta) G(\zeta)=G(\zeta)^{*} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right) G(\zeta) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Letting $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ we get the desired relation. The same relation holds with $G(\lambda+i 0)$ replaced by $G(\lambda-i 0)$. From these relations we get the following formulas for $W_{+}$and $W_{-}$

$$
W_{ \pm}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left[G(\lambda \pm i 0)^{\infty}\right]-\frac{d E_{1}(\lambda)}{d \lambda} d \lambda P_{1} .
$$

Remark. Why do we define $P_{1}$ to be the projection onto $\dot{H}_{1, \text { ac }}$ rather than $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{c}}$ (the subspace of continuity, consisting of all $u \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $\left(E_{1}(\lambda) u, u\right)$ is continuous in $\lambda$ ), for example? The formal properties of $W_{ \pm}$would not have been much different even if we used $\mathcal{H}_{1, \text { c. }}$. But $W_{ \pm}$are more likely to exist when we use $\mathcal{H}_{1, \text { ac }}$ as we do. This is closely related to the fact that the absolutely continuous spectrum is rather stable under perturbation while the continuous spectrum is not.

## 4. The stationary theory of scattering.

1. Spectral representations. The rest of this paper is devoted to an exposition of a method in the stationary theory and its applications to Schrödinger operators. We restrict most of our attention to a simplified version of this method which is broad enough to include a considerable part of the applications and has shorter proofs than the general version. In order to indicate the content in the general case, some theorems are presented in two ways-a "simplified version"
and a "general version." All proofs are given for the simplified version.
In what follows the theory is developed for a pair of selfadjoint operators $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Similar considerations apply as well to unitary operators $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$. In some respects the unitary case is simpler because all operators involved are bounded. Furthermore, the selfadjoint case can be discussed in terms of the unitary case by using the Cayley transform. In this paper, however, we feel it convenient for the purpose of application to deal with the selfadjoint case directly. For a more complete treatment the reader is referred to T. Kato and S. T. Kuroda [14].

As was discussed above, the motivation for the stationary theory lies in the heuristic formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{ \pm}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d E_{2}(\lambda)}{d \lambda} G(\lambda \pm i 0) d \lambda P_{1} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the following arguments consist in interpreting the terms in the integrand correctly and constructing them as boundary values of resolvents and related quantities. Let

$$
H_{j}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda d E_{j}(\lambda), \quad j=1,2
$$

be selfadjoint operators in a Hilbert space 4 . By abuse of notation, $E_{i}$ is used to denote both the spectral family $\left\{E_{j}(\lambda) ;-\infty<\lambda<\infty\right\}$ and the spectral measure $\left\{E_{j}(\Delta) ; \Delta \subset R^{1}\right\}$ associated with $H_{j}$.

Decomposition of $E_{j}$. The spectral measures $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ may be decomposed as

$$
E_{j}=E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}+E_{j, \mathrm{~s}}, \quad j=1,2
$$

where $E_{j, \text { ac }}$ and $E_{j, \mathrm{~s}}$ are characterized by the property that they are absolutely continuous and singular, respectively, with respect to the Lebesgue measure. Namely, for every $u \in \notin$, the nonnegative measure $\left(E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Delta) u, u\right)$ and $\left(E_{j, \mathrm{~s}}(\Delta) u, u\right)$ are absolutely continuous and singular, respectively, with respect to the Lebesgue measure. Such a decomposition exists and is unique.

The uniqueness of the decomposition is trivial.
If $H$ is separable, the existence may be inferred as follows. Let $\left\{u_{k}\right\}$ be a countable fundamental set of $\not \mathcal{H}$. For each $k$ we apply the Lebesgue decomposition theorem to the nonnegative measure $\rho_{k}(\Delta)$ $=\left(E(\Delta) u_{k}, u_{k}\right), \quad \Delta \subset R^{1}$, so that $\rho_{k}=\rho_{k}^{\text {ac }}+\rho_{k}^{s} \quad$ (dropping the subscript $j$ for the moment). Here and in what follows, a subset $\Delta$ of $R^{1}$ is always assumed to be Borel measurable and $|\Delta|$ stands for the

Lebesgue measure of $\Delta$. Now, there exists $\Delta_{k} \subset R^{1},\left|\Delta_{k}\right|=0$, such that $\rho_{k}^{s}(\Delta)=\rho_{k}\left(\Delta \cap \Delta_{k}\right)$ for all $\Delta$. Put $\Delta_{0}=\cup_{k=1}^{\infty} \Delta_{k}$. Then, $\left|\Delta_{0}\right|=0$. It is now easy to see that

$$
E_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Delta) \stackrel{d}{=} E\left(\Delta \cap\left(R^{1}-\Delta_{0}\right)\right)
$$

and

$$
E_{\mathrm{s}}(\Delta) \stackrel{d}{=} E\left(\Delta \cap \Delta_{0}\right)
$$

satisfy the requirement of the decomposition.
This shows that $E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Delta)$ and $E_{j, s}(\Delta)$ are mutually orthogonal, their ranges reduce $H_{j}$, and they commute with any bounded operator commuting with $E_{j}$.

When $d$ is not separable, one may not be able to find such $\Delta_{0}$. Nevertheless, the statements made in the last paragraph remain true.

The following notation is used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{j, \mathrm{ac}}=E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}\left(R^{1}\right) \mathcal{H}^{\prime}=\text { the subspace of absolute continuity of } H_{j} \text {; } \\
& \mathcal{H}_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)=E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) \mathcal{H}, \quad \Gamma \subset R^{1} \text {; } \\
& H_{j, \mathrm{ac}}=H_{j}\left|\psi_{j, \mathrm{ac}}, \quad H_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)=H_{j}\right| \text { H }_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Localization. For later developments it will be convenient to introduce a "localization" of the problem. Let $\Gamma \subset R^{1}$ be a fixed Borel set. Then, $d$ can be decomposed as

$$
\mathcal{H}=E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) H \oplus E_{j, s}(\Gamma) H \oplus E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right) \not H \oplus E_{j, s}\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right) \mathcal{H}
$$

and $H_{j}$ is decomposed accordingly, where $\Gamma^{\prime}=R^{1}-\Gamma$. The localized problem is to restrict our attention to the set $\Gamma$ and discuss the unitary equivalence of $H_{1, \text { ac }}(\Gamma)$ and $H_{2, \text { ac }}(\Gamma)$. Although we are most interested in the case $\Gamma=R^{1}$, it is convenient even in this case to have results for the localized problem.
Outline of a construction of intertwining operators. The Hilbert spaces $\psi_{1, a c}(\Gamma)$ and $H_{2, a c}(\Gamma)$ may be represented by spaces of direct integrals $\mathcal{H}_{1, \text { ac }}(\Gamma) \sim \int_{\Gamma} \oplus H_{1}(\lambda) d \lambda, H_{2, \text { ac }}(\Gamma) \sim \int_{\Gamma} \oplus H_{2}(\lambda) d \lambda$ in such a way that $H_{1, \text { ac }}(\Gamma)$ and $H_{2, \text { ac }}(\Gamma)$ are transformed into multiplication by $\lambda$ in the corresponding direct integral spaces. Suppose that there is given a family of unitary operators $G^{\prime}(\lambda): \mathcal{H}_{1}(\lambda) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{2}(\lambda), \lambda \in \Gamma$. Then the correspondence $\{u(\lambda)\} \rightarrow\left\{G^{\prime}(\lambda) u(\lambda)\right\}$ determines a (decomposable) unitary operator from $\int_{\Gamma} \oplus H_{1}(\lambda) d \lambda$ onto $\int_{\Gamma} \oplus H_{2}(\lambda) d \lambda$. This operator commutes with multiplication operators. Going back to the spaces $\mathcal{H}_{j, a c}(\Gamma)$, this gives a "wave" operator which intertwines $H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$ and $H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$. This argument is legitimate provided that
$G^{\prime}(\lambda)$ satisfies a certain measurability requirement associated with the direct integral spaces $\int_{\Gamma} \oplus \psi_{j}(\lambda) d \lambda$.

A spectral representation. For the moment we drop the subscript $j$. We fix $\Gamma \subset R^{1}$.

Definition 4.0. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a (not necessarily closed) subspace of $\not \subset$. A function $f(\lambda ; x, y): \Gamma \times X \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow C^{1}(=$ complex numbers $)$ is called a spectral form with respect to $E(\lambda)$ if:
(i) for every $\lambda \in \Gamma, f(\lambda ; \cdot, \cdot)$ is a nonnegative Hermitian form on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$;
(ii) for every $x, y \in X$ we have $f(\lambda ; x, y)=(d / d \lambda)(E(\lambda) x, y)$ for a.e. $\lambda \in \Gamma$ (the exceptional null set may depend on $x$ and $y$ ).

Example. Suppose there is a way of determining $(d / d \lambda)(E(\lambda) x, y)$ pointwise for every $\lambda \in \Gamma^{\prime},\left|\Gamma-\Gamma^{\prime}\right|=0$, and every $x, y \in \mathscr{X}$ (note that $\Gamma^{\prime}$ does not depend on $x$ and $y$ ). Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(\lambda ; x, y) & =(d / d \lambda)(E(\lambda) x, y), & & \lambda \in \Gamma^{\prime} \\
& =0, & & \lambda \in \Gamma-\Gamma^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

is an example of a spectral form. For example, this is realized if $H=L^{2}\left(R^{1}\right), E(\lambda)=$ multiplication by $\chi_{(-\infty, \lambda)}$ ( $\chi$ denotes the characteristic function), and $X=L^{2}\left(R^{1}\right) \cap C\left(R^{1}\right)$. Another example is a finite-dimensional $\mathscr{X}$.

Now, starting with a spectral form, we construct a representation space. Fix $\lambda \in \Gamma$. Then, $f(\lambda ; \cdot, \cdot)$ is a semi-inner product on $X$ and induces naturally an inner product on the quotient space $\mathcal{X} / \mathcal{N}(\lambda)$, where $\mathcal{N}(\lambda)=\{x \mid f(\lambda ; x, x)=0\}$. Let $X(\lambda)$ be the completion of $\mathcal{X} / \mathcal{N}(\lambda)$. Thus, $\mathcal{X}(\lambda)$ is a Hilbert space. The norm and the inner product in $X(\lambda)$ are denoted by $\left\|\|_{\lambda}\right.$ and $(,)_{\lambda}$, respectively. We have a natural map

$$
J(\lambda): X \rightarrow X(\lambda)
$$

which is the composite of two canonical homomorphisms $X \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{N}(\lambda) \rightarrow X(\lambda)$.

Let $\prod_{\lambda \in \Gamma} \mathcal{X}(\lambda)$ be the (algebraic) product space of the $\mathcal{X}(\lambda)$. We need a concept of measurability for $\{g(L)\} \in \prod_{\lambda \in \Gamma} \mathcal{X}(\lambda)$. An $X$ valued simple function on $\Gamma$ is a mapping $\Gamma \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ having the form ${ }^{1}$

$$
\sum C_{k} x_{\Delta_{k}}(\lambda) x_{k}, \quad C_{k} \in C^{1}, \Delta_{k} \subset \Gamma, x_{k} \in X
$$

Definition 4.1. $\{g(\lambda)\} \in \prod_{\lambda \in 1} X(\lambda)$ is said to be $f$-measurable if there exists a sequence of $\chi$-valued simple functions $x^{(n)}(\lambda)$ such that as $n \rightarrow \infty$

[^0]$$
\left\|g(\lambda)-J(\lambda) x^{(n)}(\lambda)\right\|_{\lambda} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { for a.e. } \lambda \in \Gamma .
$$

Definition 4.2. $\mathfrak{M}$ is the set of all $\{g(\lambda)\} \in \prod_{\lambda \in \Gamma} \mathcal{X}(\lambda)$ such that $\{g(\lambda)\}$ is $f$-measurable and

$$
\|g\|_{\dddot{W}}^{2} \stackrel{d}{=} \int_{\Gamma}\|g(\lambda)\|_{\lambda}^{2} d \lambda<\infty .
$$

Then we have the following proposition, whose proof is straightforward and is omitted.

Proposition 4.3. (i) If $g_{n}$ is f-measurable and

$$
\left\|g_{n}(\lambda)-g(\lambda)\right\|_{\lambda} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { a.e. as } n \rightarrow \infty,
$$

then g is f -measurable.
(ii) $\mathfrak{M}$ with the inner product

$$
(g, h)_{\mathfrak{M}} \stackrel{d}{=} \int_{\Gamma}(g(\lambda), h(\lambda))_{\lambda} d \lambda
$$

is a Hilbert space.
(iii) If $x(\lambda)$ is an $\mathcal{X}$-valued simple function, then $\{J(\lambda) x(\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \Gamma} \in \mathfrak{M}$ and the totality of these $\{J(\lambda) x(\lambda)\}$ is dense in $\mathfrak{M}$.
$\mathfrak{M}$ may be denoted as $\mathfrak{M}=\int_{\Gamma} \oplus X(\lambda) d \lambda$, but we shall not use this notation.

We can now proceed to a representation theorem. What is going to be represented is not the entire $H$ but its part in the subspace of $d$ generated by the subsets $\left\{E_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Delta) x \mid x \in \mathcal{\chi}, \Delta \subset \Gamma\right\}$. Thus, we consider $u \in \mathcal{H}$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=\sum_{k=1}^{r} C_{k} E_{\mathrm{ac}}\left(\Delta_{k}\right) x_{k}, \quad C_{k} \in C^{1}, \quad \Delta_{k} \subset \Gamma, x_{k} \in \not . \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corresponding to it is the $\mathcal{X}$-valued simple function

$$
\tilde{u}^{\prime}(\lambda)=\sum_{k=1}^{r} C_{k} x_{\Delta_{k}}(\lambda) x_{k} .
$$

Let

$$
\tilde{u}(\lambda)=J(\lambda) \tilde{u}^{\prime}(\lambda)=\sum_{k=1}^{r} C_{k} X_{\Delta_{k}}(\lambda) J(\lambda) x_{k} .
$$

It is easily seen that $\tilde{u}=\{\tilde{u}(\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in r}$ is $f$-measurable. Let us compute the $\mathfrak{M}$-norm of $\tilde{u}$.

$$
\|\tilde{u}(\lambda)\|_{\mathcal{R}}^{2}=\int_{\Gamma}\|\tilde{u}(\lambda)\|_{\lambda}^{2} d \lambda=\sum_{k, \ell} C_{k} \bar{C}_{\ell} \int_{\Delta_{k} \cap_{\Delta_{\ell}}}\left(J(\lambda) x_{k}, J(\lambda) x_{\ell}\right)_{\lambda} d \lambda .
$$

Since $\left(J(\lambda) x_{k}, J(\lambda) x_{\ell}\right)=f\left(\lambda ; x_{k}, x_{\ell}\right)=(d / d \lambda)\left(E(\lambda) x_{k}, x_{\dot{\ell}}\right)$, as is immediate from the definition of $J(\lambda)$, the right-hand side is equal to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k, \ell} C_{k} \bar{C}_{\ell} \int_{\Delta_{k} \cap \Delta_{\ell}} & \frac{d}{d \lambda}\left(E(\lambda) x_{k}, x_{\ell}\right) d \lambda \\
& =\sum_{k, \ell} C_{k} \bar{C}_{\ell}\left(E_{\mathrm{ac}}\left(\Delta_{k} \cap \Delta_{\ell}\right) x_{k}, x_{\ell}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k, \ell} C_{k} \bar{C}_{\ell}\left(E_{\mathrm{ac}}\left(\Delta_{k}\right) x_{k}, E_{\mathrm{ac}}\left(\Delta_{\ell}\right) x_{\ell}\right)=\|u\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\stackrel{\circ}{G}$ be the set of all elements in $\mathcal{H}$ of the form (4.2) and $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$ be the closure of $\dot{\mathscr{G}}$. Although the right-hand side of (4.2) is not uniquely determined by $u$, the considerations made above show that the correspondence $u \rightarrow \tilde{u}(\lambda)$ determines a well-defined, linear, and isometric mapping $\stackrel{\circ}{\pi}: \stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{G}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}$. Obviously, $\{\{J(\lambda) x(\lambda)\} \mid x(\lambda)$ is an $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$-valued simple function $\}$ is contained in the range of $\stackrel{\circ}{\pi}$. Since this set is dense in $M$ (cf. Proposition 4.3), $\frac{\pi}{\pi}$ extends to a unitary operator

$$
\pi: \mathcal{G}(\Gamma) \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}
$$

From the construction above it is clear that $E_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Delta)$ corresponds to multiplication by $\chi_{\Delta}$, i.e.

$$
\left(\pi\left(E_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Delta) u\right)\right)(\lambda)=\chi_{\Delta}(\lambda)(\pi u)(\lambda), \text { a.e. }
$$

for every $u \in \mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$. Thus, $\pi$ gives a spectral representation of $\left\{E_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Delta)\right\}$ (or equivalently $\{E(\Delta)\}$ ) restricted to $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$.
The following is characterization of the space $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$.
Proposition 4.4. $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$ is the smallest closed subspace of $\&+$ which contains $E_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) \mathcal{X}$ and remains invariant under $E(\Delta)$ for every $\Delta \subset \Gamma$.
2. General theorems. Next we apply the spectral representation theorem discussed above to prove an abstract theorem concerning the existence and completeness of wave operators. Then we will use the abstract theorem to prove the first in a series of more concrete and applicable theorems.

General assumptions. Before going on, we make a comment about the two versions of our presentation, the "simplified version" and the "general version," which were introduced above. We shall be working in a Hilbert space and shall have a subspace $\mathcal{X}$ of $\not 4$. We suppose that $\mathcal{X}$ has its own topology. In the "simplified version," it is assumed that $\mathcal{X}$ is a Banach space. In the "general version," $\mathcal{X}$ may be just a normed space or even a linear topological space. Simplification of
the proof in the simplified version stems from the completeness of $\mathcal{X}$. In the general version one has to consider the completion of $\mathcal{X}$. Except for Theorem 4.5 and Theorem 4.6 where a general situation is indicated, we assume that $X$ is a Banach space. However, in the first part of the discussion the topological properties of $\chi$ play little role.

Now consider two selfadjoint operators $H_{j}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda d E_{j}(\lambda), j=1,2$, in $\mathcal{H}$. Further, assume $X$ is sufficiently large in the sense that the two sets

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{r} E_{j}\left(\Delta_{k}\right) x_{k} \mid \Delta_{k} \subset R^{1}, x_{k} \in \not \subset\right\}, \quad j=1,2 \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

are both dense in $\mathcal{H}$. (This does not restrict the generality in an essential way.) Under this assumption on $\mathcal{X}$ we have

$$
G_{j}(\Gamma)=E_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) H=H_{j, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) .
$$

In applications the subspace $X$ will frequently be dense in $H$ in which case $\mathcal{X}$ is trivially seen to be sufficiently large. As usual $B(X, \mathcal{Y})$ is the set of all bounded linear operators from $X$ to $\mathscr{Y}$ and $B(X)$ $=B(X, X)$.

Existence of an intertwining operator.
Theorem 4.5 (Simplified Version). Suppose that:
(1) for $j=1,2$ there exists. $f_{j}: \Gamma \times \mathcal{X} \times X \rightarrow C^{1}$ which is spectral with respect to $E_{j}$;
(2) for each $\lambda \in \Gamma$ there exists $G(\lambda) \in B(X)$ such that
(a) $G(\lambda)$ is one-to-one and onto;
(b) $f_{1}(\lambda ; x, y)=f_{2}(\lambda ; G(\lambda) x, G(\lambda) y)$ for every $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$;
(c) for every $x \in \mathcal{X}, G(\lambda) x$ and $G(\lambda)^{-1} x$ are strongly measurable as $\mathcal{X}$-valued functions of $\lambda$ in $\Gamma$. Then there exists a unique $W \in$ $B\left(\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma), \mathcal{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)\right)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(W E_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Delta) x, E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\left(\Delta^{\prime}\right) y\right)=\int_{\Delta \cap \Delta} f_{1}(\lambda ; G(\lambda) x, y) d \lambda \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $x, y \in \mathcal{X}, \Delta, \Delta^{\prime} \subset \Gamma$. This $W$ is unitary, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
W H_{1}=H_{2} W \quad \text { on } \mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) . \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular $H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$ and $H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$ are unitarily equivalent via $W$. (Formula (4.4) corresponds to the heuristic formula (4.1).)

Proof. Using $f_{1}(\lambda ; x, y)$ and $f_{2}(\lambda ; x, y)$, the spectral representations discussed above can be constructed for $E_{1, \text { ac }}$ and $E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$. All quantities introduced there will carry a subscript 1 or 2 corresponding to $E_{1}$ or $E_{2}$ respectively, e.g. $X_{1}(\lambda), \mathfrak{M}_{2},(\cdot, \cdot)_{1 \lambda}, \pi_{1}$, etc.

We have


We want to construct a unitary operator from $X_{1}(\lambda)$ to $X_{2}(\lambda)$ that completes the above diagram. By the assumption (2)-(b) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(J_{1}(\lambda) x, J_{1}(\lambda) y\right)_{1 \lambda} & =f_{1}(\lambda ; x, y) \\
& =f_{2}(\lambda ; G(\lambda) x, G(\lambda) y) \\
& =\left(J_{2}(\lambda) G(\lambda) x, J_{2}(\lambda) G(\lambda) y\right)_{2 \lambda} .
\end{aligned}
$$

According to this there exists an isometric operator $\tilde{G}(\lambda): \chi_{1}(\lambda)$ $\rightarrow X_{2}(\lambda)$ such that $J_{2}(\lambda) G(\lambda)=\tilde{G}(\lambda) J_{1}(\lambda)$. One sees that $J_{2}(\lambda) \chi$ $\subset$ Range of $\tilde{G}(\lambda)$ (note that $G(\lambda)$ is onto), and since $J_{2}(\lambda) \mathcal{X}$ is dense in $X_{2}(\lambda)$ this means that $\tilde{G}(\lambda)$ is onto and hence unitary. We use the assumption (2)-(c) to show that $\{\tilde{G}(\lambda) g(\lambda)\}$ is $f_{2}$-measurable whenever $\{g(\lambda)\}$ is $f_{1}$-measurable. Therefore the mapping

$$
\tilde{W}:\{g(\lambda)\} \rightarrow\{\tilde{G}(\lambda) g(\lambda)\}
$$

determines an isometric operator : $\mathfrak{M}_{1} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{2}$. Similarly we see that the mapping

$$
\tilde{W}^{\prime}:\{h(\lambda)\} \rightarrow\left\{\tilde{G}(\lambda)^{-1} h(\lambda)\right\}
$$

determines an isometric operator $\tilde{W}_{\tilde{\prime}}^{\prime}: \mathfrak{M}_{2} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{1}$. One sees easily that $\tilde{W}^{\prime} \tilde{W}=I$ on $\mathfrak{M}_{1}$. Therefore, $\tilde{W}$ is unitary. Furthermore, $\tilde{W}$ commutes with multiplication operators.

We now go back to $H_{1, \text { ac }}(\Gamma)$ and $H_{2, \text { ac }}(\Gamma)$ by means of the unitary maps $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$. Namely, we put

$$
W=\pi_{2}^{-1} \tilde{W} \pi_{1} .
$$

Then it is easy to check that $W$ satisfies all the assumptions of the theorem. In fact, $W$ intertwines with the spectral measures since $\tilde{W}$ commutes with multiplication operators and each $\pi_{j}$ converts $E_{j}(\Delta)$ into multiplication by $\chi_{\Delta}$. Hence, (4.5) follows. An easy verification of (4.4) is skipped, because it is not used here.

Construction of $f_{j}$ and $G$ as boundary values. Until a later stage when a generalization is discussed, it is assumed that $D\left(H_{1}\right)=D\left(H_{2}\right)$. In other words, we think of the situation

$$
H_{2}=H_{1}+V, \text { where } V \text { is symmetric with } D(V) \supset D\left(H_{1}\right) .
$$

As before, let
$R_{j}(\zeta)=\left(H_{j}-\zeta\right)^{-1}$,
$\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{j}-\lambda\right)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i}\left\{R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon)-R_{j}(\lambda-i \epsilon)\right\}=\frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \overline{R_{j}(\lambda-i \epsilon) R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon)}$
and let

$$
f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; u, v)=\left(\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{j}-\lambda\right) u, v\right), \quad u, v \in \mathcal{H}
$$

Theorem 4.6 (Simplified Version). Suppose that:
(1) for every $\lambda \in \Gamma$ and $\epsilon>0$ the Hermitian form $f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; \cdot, \cdot)$ is continuous on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$ (with respect to the $\mathcal{X}$-topology) and for every $x, y \in X$ the limit

$$
\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y) \stackrel{d}{=} f_{1}(\lambda ; x, y) \quad \text { exists }
$$

(2) the following conditions (a), (b), and (c) hold for $j=1,2$;
(a) for every $\lambda \in \Gamma$ and $\epsilon>0$ the operator $V R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon)$ maps $X$ into $\mathcal{X}$ and is continuous (with respect to the $\mathcal{X}$-topology);
(b) for every $\lambda \in \Gamma$ the limit

$$
s-\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} V R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) \stackrel{d}{=} \tilde{Q}_{j}^{+}(\lambda) \text { exists in } B(X) ;
$$

(c) for every $\epsilon>0$ and every $x \in \mathcal{X}, V R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) x$ is strongly measurable as an $\mathcal{X}$-valued function of $\lambda$.

Then the following two conclusions hold:
(i) the statements of (1) in the assumption also hold for $f_{2 \epsilon}$ instead of $f_{1 \epsilon}$ (and hence $f_{2}(\lambda ; x, y)$ is defined correspondingly).
(ii) $f_{1}(\lambda ; x, y), f_{2}(\lambda ; x, y)$ and $G(\lambda) \stackrel{d}{=} 1+\tilde{Q}_{1}^{+}(\lambda)$ satisfy the assumptions of Theorem 4.5.

Proof. For $\zeta=\lambda+i \epsilon$ put

$$
\begin{aligned}
G(\zeta) & =\left(H_{2}-\zeta\right) R_{1}(\zeta)=1+V R_{1}(\zeta) \\
G^{\prime}(\zeta) & =\left(H_{1}-\zeta\right) R_{2}(\zeta)=1-V R_{2}(\zeta)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(\zeta) G^{\prime}(\zeta)=G^{\prime}(\zeta) G(\zeta)=1 \quad \text { on } d . \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2)-(a) $G(\zeta)$ and $G(\zeta)$ map $\mathcal{X}$ into $X$, and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(\zeta) G^{\prime}(\zeta)=G^{\prime}(\zeta) G(\zeta)=1 \quad \text { in } X \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Put

$$
G(\lambda)=1+\tilde{Q}_{1}^{+}(\lambda), \quad G^{\prime}(\lambda)=1-\tilde{Q}_{2}^{+}(\lambda)
$$

Then taking the limit in (4.7) above as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ we get $G(\lambda) G^{\prime}(\lambda)$ $=G^{\prime}(\lambda) G(\lambda)=1$ on $\mathcal{X}$. Thus $G(\lambda): X \rightarrow X$ is one-to-one and onto. Since we have taken strong limits we have $G(\lambda) \in B(X)$. The measurability assumption (2)-(c) of Theorem 4.5 follows from the measurability assumption (2)-(c) in this theorem. Thus, (2)-(a) and (2)-(c) of Theorem 4.5 are verified.

It was shown in $\S 3$ that

$$
\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right)=G(\lambda+i \epsilon)^{*} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right) G(\lambda+i \epsilon)
$$

Hence,

$$
\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right)=G^{\prime}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon})^{*} \delta_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right) G^{\prime}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon})
$$

where *is taken as an operator in $\psi$. We therefore have

$$
f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)=f_{1 \epsilon}\left(\lambda ; G^{\prime}(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, G^{\prime}(\lambda+i \epsilon) y\right)
$$

We let $\in \downarrow 0$. Because of (1) and (2)-(a) (not that $f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda)$ is then uniformly bounded in $\epsilon$ ) the right side tends to $f_{1}\left(\lambda ; G^{\prime}(\lambda) x, G^{\prime}(\lambda) y\right)$. Therefore the limit of the left side exists and

$$
f_{2}(\lambda ; x, y) \stackrel{d}{=} \lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)=f_{1}\left(\lambda ; G^{\prime}(\lambda) x, G^{\prime}(\lambda) y\right)
$$

This proves the first assertion. Since $G^{\prime}(\lambda)=G(\lambda)^{-1}$ in $X$ we have

$$
f_{1}(\lambda ; x, y)=f_{2}(\lambda ; G(\lambda) x, G(\lambda) y)
$$

for $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$. This yields (2)-(b) of Theorem 4.5.
What is left to be checked is that $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are spectral. For $j=1$, 2 we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{j}(\lambda ; x, y) & =\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)=\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0}\left(\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{j}-\lambda\right) x, y\right) \\
& =\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\left(\lambda^{\prime}-\lambda\right)^{2}+\epsilon^{2}} d\left(E_{j}\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right) x, y\right) \\
& =\frac{d}{d \lambda}\left(E_{j}(\lambda) x, y\right) \quad \text { for a.e. } \lambda \in \Gamma .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof of Theorem 4.6.
Remark 4.7. In Theorem 4.6 an analogous statement holds if $\boldsymbol{\lambda}+\boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ is replaced by $\lambda-i \epsilon$ in assumption (2). Thus, if assumption (2) holds for $\lambda-i \epsilon$ as well as $\lambda+i \epsilon$, then there exist two intertwining operators which we denote by $W_{ \pm}$. So far, the definition of $W_{ \pm}$depends on the choice of $X$. However, it is shown below that $W_{ \pm}$can be expressed as the Abel limit as $t \rightarrow \pm \infty$ of $e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}}$ on $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$, and hence $W_{ \pm}$ are essentially independent of $\mathscr{X}$.

Example, Perturbation of Rank 1. Suppose that

$$
H_{2}=H_{1}+c P_{\phi},
$$

where $c$ is real, $\phi \in \&$ with $\|\phi\|=1$, and $P_{\phi}$ is the projection on the 1 -dimensional subspace determined by $\phi: P_{\phi} u=(u, \phi) \phi$. We take this subspace to be $X: \mathcal{X}=\left\{\alpha \phi \mid \alpha \in C^{1}\right\}$.
Let $x=a \phi$ and $y=\beta \phi$ be two arbitrary elements of $X$. Then,

$$
\left(R_{j}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon) x, y\right)=\alpha \bar{\beta} \rho_{j}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon),
$$

where

$$
\rho_{j}(\xi)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\mu-\xi} d\left(E_{j}(\mu) \phi, \phi\right) .
$$

It is well known that $\rho_{j}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon)$ has boundary values for a.e. $\lambda \in R^{1}$ as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$. Let $\Gamma \subset R^{1}$ be such that $\left|R^{1}-\Gamma\right|=0$ and $\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \rho_{j}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon)$ exists for every $\lambda \in \Gamma$ and $j=1,2$. Then,
and

$$
f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)=\frac{\alpha \bar{\beta}}{2 \pi i}\left\{\rho_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon)-\rho_{1}(\lambda-i \epsilon)\right\}
$$

$$
V R_{j}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon) x=c\left(R_{j}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon) x, \phi\right) \phi=c \alpha \rho_{j}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon) \phi
$$

both converge for $\lambda \in \Gamma$ as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$. The other assumptions of Theorem 4.6 are trivially verified because $\mathcal{X}$ is one-dimensional.

Finally, consider the question of whether or not $\mathcal{X}$ is sufficiently large. The answer is no, because the condition stated in the paragraph containing (4.3) need not be true in general. However, this does not cause any real difficulty, as we shall now show.

Lemma 4.8. Denoting the closed linear hull by $\overline{\mathrm{sp}}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{\operatorname{sp}}\left\{E_{1}(\Delta) \phi \mid \Delta \subset R^{1}\right\}=\overline{\operatorname{sp}}\left\{E_{2}(\Delta) \phi \mid \Delta \subset R^{1}\right\} \stackrel{d}{=} H_{0} . \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Note that $H_{0}$ reduces both $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$.) Furthermore, on $H \Theta H_{0}$ one has $H_{2}=H_{1}$.
On $H \ominus H_{0}$ nothing interesting happens. On $H_{0}$ the space $\chi$ is sufficiently large precisely in the sense stated in the paragraph containing (4.3). Thus, Theorem 4.6 can be applied to $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ in $H_{0}$. It must be noted that, since $\left|\boldsymbol{R}^{1}-\Gamma\right|=0$, there is no difference between $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$ and $H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}\left(R^{1}\right)=\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}$. Thus, Theorem 4.6 asserts that $H_{1, \text { ac }}$ in $H_{0}$ and $H_{2, \text { ac }}$ in $H_{0}$ are unitarily equivalent. But one can drop the phrase "in $H_{0}$ " from this statement, because $H_{2}=H_{1}$ on НӨ $H_{0}$.

For the sake of completeness we include the proof of Lemma 4.8. Let $\mathcal{M _ { 1 }}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ be the first and the second members of (4.8). It
 because $X \subset \mathcal{M}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ is the smallest subspace containing $X$ and reducing $H_{2}$. The opposite inclusion $\subset \mathcal{M}_{1} \subset \subset M_{2}$ is proved by symmetry. To show that $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ reduces $H_{2}$ let $P$ be the projection on $\mathcal{M _ { 1 }}$, and take an arbitrary $u \in D\left(H_{2}\right)=D\left(H_{1}\right)$. Since $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ reduces $H_{1}$, we have $P u \in D\left(H_{1}\right)=D\left(H_{2}\right)$. Furthermore, $H_{2} P u=H_{1} P u+c(P u, \phi) \phi$ $=P H_{1} u+c(u, \phi) P \phi=P H_{2} u$. Thus, $=M_{1}$ reduces $H_{2}$.

Using the same argument we can prove the same result for perturbations of finite rank. Alternatively, one may regard a perturbation of finite rank as a succession of perturbations of rank 1 and make a step-by-step construction of the intertwining operators.

The argument in the proof can also be extended to perturbations of trace class. Namely, $H_{2}=H_{1}+V$, where $V$ is of trace class. To do this, take $\mathcal{X}$ to be the range of $|V|^{1 / 2}$ with the norm $\|x\|_{x}=$ $\inf \left\{\|u\|\right.$ н: $\left.|V|^{1 / 2} u=x\right\}$ (cf. the factorization method discussed below). In verifying the hypotheses of Theorem 4.6 it is necessary to show the existence in the strong operator topology of the boundary values of $\int_{a}^{b}(1 /(\mu-(\lambda+i \epsilon))) T(\mu) d \rho(\mu)$ for a trace class valued, integrable function $T(\mu)$ and a finite Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure $\rho$. This is by no means evident and the proof of the existence of such boundary values constitutes a central part of the argument. As a matter of fact, it can be shown that the boundary values exist in the Hilbert-Schmidt norm (de Branges [4], Asano [1]). Therefore, Theorem 4.6 can be applied and it follows that the absolutely continuous parts of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ are unitarily equivalent.

Some Remarks.
Remark 4.9. A connection with time-dependent wave operators is discussed below. The main results are as follows.

1. Assume all the assumptions of Theorem 4.6 and let $W_{+}$be the stationary wave operator constructed in Theorem 4.5. Then, $W_{+}$can be expressed as the strong Abel limit of $e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}}$ on $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$ (see Theorem 6.1).
2. Assume in addition that: (i) $\mathcal{X}$ is a Hilbert space; and (ii) assumption (2) in Theorem 4.6 is satisfied for $\lambda-i \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ as well as $\lambda+\boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$. Then, the time-dependent wave operators s- $\lim _{t \rightarrow \pm \infty} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} E_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$ exist, they coincide with the stationary wave operators $W_{ \pm}$, and hence they are complete. Furthermore, the invariance principle holds (see Theorem 6.3).

Statement 1 shows in particular that under Theorem 4.6 the stationary operator $W$ does not depend on $\mathcal{X}$ in an essential way. Namely, if $u \in \mathcal{H}$ belongs to the initial set of $W$, then $W u$ is unique irrespective of the $\mathcal{X}$ used in the construction.

Statement 2 can be applied to perturbations of trace class, because
$x=$ the range of $|V|^{1 / 2}$ is a Hilbert space. Thus, we recapture the theorem of Rosenblum and Kato [12, p. 540].

Remark 4.10. The assumption that $\mathcal{X}$ is complete is sometimes too restrictive. We shall describe how Theorems 4.5 and 4.6 can be modified when $\mathcal{X}$ is not complete. $\mathcal{X}$ can be a general linear topological space, but to fix the idea let us suppose $\mathcal{X}$ is a normed space. Let $\bar{x}$ be the completion of $\bar{\chi}$. (Note that in general there is no inclusion relation between $\&$ and $\bar{X}$.)

Theorem 4.5' (A General Version). Suppose that:
(1) condition (1) of Theorem 4.5 holds and $f_{j}(\lambda ; \cdot, \cdot)$ is continuous on $\chi \times \mathcal{X}$ for every $\lambda \in \Gamma ;$
(2) for each $\lambda \in \Gamma$ there exists $G(\lambda) \in B(\bar{X})$ satisfying (a), (b), (c) of Theorem 4.5 with $f_{2}$ replaced by $\overline{f_{2}}$, the continuous extension of $f_{2}$ to $\overline{\mathbb{X}} \times \overline{\mathrm{X}}$. Then, the conclusion of Theorem 4.5 holds with $f_{2}$ in (4.5) replaced by $\overline{f_{2}}$.

Theorem 4.6' (A General Version). Suppose that:
(1) condition (1) of Theorem 4.6 holds, and for every $\lambda \in \Gamma$ the family $f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; \cdot, \cdot)$ is equicontinuous in $\epsilon$.
(2) condition (2) of Theorem 4.6 holds with the following changes: (i) the equicontinuity of $V R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon)$ in $\epsilon>0$ is added; (ii) condition (b) is replaced by ( $\mathrm{b}^{\prime}$ ) for every $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $\lambda \in \Gamma, V R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) x$ is a Cauchy net in $\mathcal{X}$ as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$. Then, the conclusion of Theorem 4.6 holds with obvious changes.
In applications to Schrödinger operators, where $\not \forall=L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right), \mathcal{X}$ may be a weighted $L^{2}$-space. In this case $\mathbb{X} \subset \mathcal{H}$ will be complete. As another possibility $\chi$ may be $L^{6 / 5}\left(R^{3}\right) \cap L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. Then $\bar{\chi}$ is $L^{6 / 5}\left(R^{3}\right)$.

Remark 4.11. As can be seen from the proof, the argument leading to Theorem 4.5 can be applied to a pair of spectral measures $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ on an arbitrary ( $\sigma$-finite) measure space ( $\Gamma, B, m$ ). In particular $\Gamma$ can be a subset of the unit circle with the Lebesgue measure. Accordingly, an analogue of Theorem 4.6 holds for a pair of unitary operators $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}, U_{j}=\int_{0}{ }^{2 \pi} e^{i \theta} d E_{j}(\theta)$. Here, $\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{j}-\lambda\right)$ is replaced by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{r}\left(U_{j}-\theta\right) & =\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{1-r^{2}}{1-2 r \cos \left(\theta^{\prime}-\theta\right)+r^{2}} d E_{j}\left(\theta^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2 \pi}\left(1-r^{2}\right)\left(1-r e^{-i \theta} U_{j}\right)^{-1}\left(1-r e^{i \theta} U_{j}^{*}\right)^{-1} \\
& =\frac{1}{2 \pi}\left\{\left(1-r e^{i \theta} U_{j}^{*}\right)^{-1}-\left(1-r^{-1} e^{i \theta} U_{j}^{*}\right)^{-1}\right\}, \quad 0<r<1
\end{aligned}
$$

and $1+V R_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon)$ is replaced by
$\left(1-r e^{i \theta} U_{2}{ }^{*}\right)\left(1-r e^{i \theta} U_{1}{ }^{*}\right)^{-1}=1+r e^{i \theta}\left(U_{1}{ }^{*}-U_{2}{ }^{*}\right)\left(1-r e^{i \theta} U_{1}{ }^{*}\right)^{-1}$.
Furthermore, the connections with the time-dependent wave operators, including the invariance principle, which were described in Remark 4.9, also hold for unitary operators (more details are given in §6).

Applying these considerations, one can see that, if $U_{2}-U_{1}$ belongs to the trace class, then $U_{1, \mathrm{ac}}$ and $U_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$ are unitarily equivalent, the time-dependent wave operators exist, and they are complete. Let $H_{j}$ be the inverse Cayley transform of $U_{j}$. Then, " $U_{2}-U_{1} \in$ trace class" is equivalent to " $R_{2}(\zeta)-R_{1}(\zeta) \in$ trace class, $\operatorname{Im} \zeta \neq 0$." This proves the theorem of Birman-de Branges-Kato stated in §3.

Remark 4.12. If $f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; \cdot, \cdot)$ is uniformly bounded in $\{\lambda+i \in \mid \lambda \in \Gamma$, $\epsilon>0\}$ and $\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)$ exists for all $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$, then $H_{j}$ is absolutely continuous on $\Gamma$ (i.e. in $\left.E_{j}(\Gamma) \not \subset\right)$-provided of course that $X$ is sufficiently large. In particular, there is no singular spectrum of $H_{j}$ in $\Gamma$. This is proved in a standard way by using the formula that gives the spectral measure in terms of the resolvent.

If the hypotheses of Theorem 4.6 are fulfilled and if $f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)$ and $V R_{2}(\lambda+i \epsilon)$ are both uniformly bounded then $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ are both absolutely continuous on $\Gamma$. The fact that $H_{2}$ is absolutely continuous on $\Gamma$ follows from the fact that

$$
f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)=f_{1 \epsilon}\left(\lambda ;\left\{1-V R_{2}(\lambda+i \epsilon)\right\} x,\left\{1-V R_{2}(\lambda+i \epsilon)\right\} y\right)
$$

which shows that $f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x, y)$ is uniformly bounded.
3. Some specific situations.

The factorization method. In more specific situations Theorem 4.6 can be simplified. Namely, we can eliminate $\mathcal{X}$ and/or $R_{2}$ from the assumptions. Let us first describe the elimination of $X$ by the factorization method.

Suppose that $H_{2}$ can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{2}=H_{1}+V=H_{2}+A B \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A \in B(み)$ and $B$ is closed with $D(B) \supset D\left(H_{1}\right)$.
Examples. Suppose $V$ is of trace class. We let $A=|V|^{1 / 2}$ and $B=(\operatorname{sgn} V)|V|^{1 / 2}$. In the case of Schrödinger operators $H_{2}=-\Delta$ $+q(x)$ we shall use the factorization $q(x)=\left(1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha}\right) q_{1}(x)$. Another possibility is to factor $q$ as $q(x)=|q(x)|^{1 / 2}\left\{\operatorname{sgn} q(x)|q(x)|^{1 / 2}\right\}$. In this factorization $A$ might not be bounded. However, the method described below can be generalized to such a case.

Returning to the general theory, let $\bar{X}$ be the range of $A$ with the norm

$$
\|x\|_{x}=\inf _{A u=x}\|u\|_{A} .
$$

$\mathcal{X}$ is a Hilbert space. (Note that $A$ maps $\not \subset \Theta \delta(A)$ isometrically onto $X$, where $\mathcal{N}(A)$ is the kernel of $A$.)
Theorem 4.13. Suppose that A and B in (4.9) satisfy the following conditions:

$$
\begin{gather*}
\mathrm{w}-\lim _{\epsilon 10} A^{\circ} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right) A \text { exists for all } \lambda \in \Gamma ;  \tag{F-1}\\
\mathrm{s}-\lim _{\in \downarrow 0} B R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) A \stackrel{d}{=} Q_{j}^{+}(\lambda) \text { exists for all } \lambda \in \Gamma . \tag{F-2}
\end{gather*}
$$

Then, all the assumptions of Theorem 4.6 are satisfied.
Proof. We shall indicate how (F-2) implies that hypothesis (2) in Theorem 4.6 is satisfied. That (F-1) implies (1) in Theorem 4.6 can be seen similarly. (2)-(a) follows from the fact that $B R_{j}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon}) A$ $\in B(\not \subset)$. Namely, let $x \in X$ be expressed as $x=A u$. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|V R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) x\right\|_{x} & =\left\|A B R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) A u\right\|_{x} \\
& \leqq\left\|B R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) A u\right\|_{\mu} \\
& \leqq\left\|B R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) A\right\|\|u\|^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since this is true for every $u$ such that $A u=x$, we get $\left\|V R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon) x\right\|_{x}$ $\leqq\left\|B R_{j}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon}) A\right\|\|x\|_{x}$. Thus (2)-(a) of Theorem 4.6 is verified. (2)-(b) follows from (F-2) by a similar estimate. (2)-(c) is an easy consequence of the continuity of $R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon)$ in $\lambda$.

Some remarks on perturbations of trace class. By means of the factorization method the problem is reduced to the investigation of the boundary values of the integral

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\mu-(\lambda+i \epsilon)} d\left(A E_{1}(\lambda) A\right), \quad A=|V|^{1 / 2} .
$$

It can be shown that this integral can be written as

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\mu-(\lambda+i \epsilon)} M(\lambda) d \rho(\lambda), \quad M(\lambda) \in \text { trace class, } M(\lambda) \geqq 0 .
$$

Since the imaginary part, $\left(T+T^{*}\right) / 2 i$, of this integral is nonnegative, it suffices to investigate the boundary value of $T(\zeta)$, where $T(\zeta)$ is defined and holomorphic in $\{|\zeta|<1\}$, with its value taken in the trace class, and satisfies $T(\zeta)+T(\zeta)^{*} \geqq 0$. By means of the determinant theory for operators of the type $1+T, T \in$ trace class, we argue as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\operatorname{det}\{1+T(\zeta)\}|^{2} & =\operatorname{det}\left(1+T^{*}\right) \operatorname{det}(1+T) \\
& =\operatorname{det}\left(1+T+T^{*}+T^{*} T\right) \\
& \geqq \operatorname{det}\left(1+T^{*} T\right)=\prod\left(1+\left|\lambda_{n}\right|^{2}\right) \\
& \geqq\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\sum\left|\lambda_{n}\right|^{2}=\|T(\zeta)\|_{\text {H.S. }}^{2} \\
1,
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\left\{\lambda_{n}\right\}$ are the eigenvalues of $|T|$ and $\left\|\|_{\text {h.s. }}\right.$ denotes the HilbertSchmidt norm. Thus

$$
\left\|\frac{T(\xi)}{\operatorname{det}(1+T(\xi))}\right\|_{11.5 .} \leqq 1, \quad\left|\frac{1}{\operatorname{det}(1+T(\xi))}\right| \leqq 1
$$

Therefore, both of these functions have boundary values almost everywhere and so does $T(\zeta)$ in the Hilbert-Schmidt norm. This is due to de Branges, [4]. Asano [1] later published his result that $\int_{a}^{b}(1 /(\mu-\zeta)) x(\mu) d \rho(\mu)$, where $x(\mu)$ is $\chi$-valued, has boundary values almost everywhere if $X$ is a Hilbert space. This can also be applied here.

Next we discuss how to eliminate the assumption involving $R_{2}$. The results can be formulated either in the general scheme of Theorem 4.6 (or Theorem $4.6^{\prime}$ ) or in the factorization situation. Here we work entirely in the factorization situation, since the results are simpler. The first application to Schrödinger operators is also given.

As before, we have $H_{2}=H_{1}+A B$ and use the notation $Q_{j}(\zeta)$ $=B R_{j}(\zeta) A$. In what follows we formulate the results for the upper half plane $(\operatorname{Im} \zeta>0$ or $\lambda+i \epsilon$ with $\epsilon>0)$. The same results hold for the lower half plane $(\operatorname{Im} \zeta<0$ or $\lambda+i \epsilon$ with $\epsilon<0)$ as well.

Small perturbations.
Proposition 4.14. Suppose that: (a) there exist $\eta, 0 \leqq \eta<1$, and $\epsilon_{0}>0$ such that $\left\|Q_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon)\right\| \leqq \eta$ for every $\lambda \in \Gamma$ and $\epsilon, 0<\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}$; (b) for every $\lambda \in \Gamma$ the limit $\mathrm{s} \lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} Q_{1}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon})=Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda)$ exists. Then condition (F-2) of Theorem 4.13 is satisfied.

Proof. We first note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-Q_{2}(\zeta)=\left(1+Q_{1}(\zeta)\right)^{-1}, \quad \operatorname{Im} \zeta>0 \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact, this can be verified by a direct computation using the second resolvent equation. On the other hand, assumptions (a) and (b) imply $\left\|Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda)\right\| \leqq \eta<1$. Hence, there exists $\left(1+Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda)\right)^{-1} \in B(み)$. Then, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{1-Q_{2}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon})\right\}-\left(1+Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda)\right)^{-1} \\
& \quad=\left(1+Q_{1}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon})\right)^{-1}\left\{Q_{1}(\lambda)-Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon})\right\}\left(1+Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda)\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

On the right-hand side the norm of the first factor is majorized by $(1-\eta)^{-1}$ and the second factor converges strongly to 0 by (b). Hence, we see that $s-\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} Q_{2}(\lambda+i \epsilon)=1-\left(1+Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda)\right)^{-1}$, which implies $(\mathrm{F}-2)$ for $j=2$. ( $\mathrm{F}-2$ ) for $j=1$ is assumed as (b).

Remark 4.15. Suppose that ( $\mathrm{F}-1$ ) and (a), (b) above are satisfied. If in additon $A^{*} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right) A$ is uniformly bounded for $\lambda \in \Gamma$ and $\epsilon>0$, then $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ are absolutely continuous on $\Gamma$ (provided that the range of $A$ is sufficiently large).

Application to Schrödinger operators. Consider the Schrödinger operator

$$
H_{2}=-\Delta+q(x), \quad H_{1}=-\Delta
$$

in $\mathcal{H}=L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. Suppose that the potential $q(x)$ is factored as

$$
\begin{equation*}
q(x)=\frac{1}{(1+|x|)^{\alpha}} q_{1}(x) . \tag{4.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

We assume $\alpha>3 / 2$ for simplicity. Let $A$ and $B$ be multiplication operators by $1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha}$ and $q_{1}(x)$, respectively. The operator $Q_{1}(\zeta)$, $\operatorname{Im} \zeta>0$, then has the kernel

$$
k(x, y ; \zeta)=\frac{1}{4 \pi} q_{1}(x) \times \frac{e^{i V}(\zeta|x-y|)}{|x-y|} \times \frac{1}{(1+|y|)^{\alpha}}
$$

We first investigate this kernel for $\operatorname{Im} \zeta \geqq 0$ and estimate its HilbertSchmidt norm.

Lemma 4.16. We have

$$
h(x) \stackrel{d}{=} \int_{R^{3}} \frac{1}{|x-y|^{2}} \times \frac{1}{(1+|y|)^{2 \alpha}} d y \leqq \frac{c}{1+|x|^{2}} \quad\left(\alpha>\frac{3}{2}\right) .
$$

Proof. Since $h(x)$ is continuous, we need only to take care of the behavior of $h(x)$ as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$. Divide the integral into two parts:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{R^{3}} & =\int_{|y|<|x| / 2}+\int_{|y|>|x| / 2} . \\
\int_{|y|<|x| / 2} \leqq & \frac{4}{|x|^{2}} \int_{|y|<|x| / 2} \frac{1}{(1+|y|)^{2 \alpha}} d y \leqq \frac{C_{1}}{|x|^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $|x|>1$. Then with constants $c_{2}, c_{3}$ independent of $x$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{|y|>|x| / 2} & \leqq c_{2} \int_{|y|>|x| / 2} \frac{1}{|x-y|^{2}|y|^{2 \alpha}} d y \\
& =\frac{c_{2}}{|x|^{2+2 \alpha-3}} \int_{|z|>1 / 2} \frac{1}{\left|e_{x}-z\right|^{2}|z|^{2 \alpha}} d z \leqq \frac{c_{3}}{|x|^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $z=y /|x|$ and $e_{x}$ is the unit vector in the direction of $x$.
This lemma shows that $h \in L^{r}\left(R^{3}\right)$ for $3 / 2<r \leqq \infty$. On the other hand,

$$
\int_{R^{3}} \int_{R^{3}}|k(x, y ; \zeta)|^{2} d x d y \leqq \frac{1}{(4 \pi)^{2}} \int_{R^{3}}\left|q_{1}(x)\right|^{2} h(x) d x
$$

The right-hand side is finite if $\left|q_{1}\right|^{2} \in L^{s}$ for a certain $s, 1 \leqq s<3$. This is satisfied if $q_{1} \in L^{p}, 2 \leqq p<6$, or more generally if $q_{1}$ is the sum of such functions. This leads us to introduce the following condition on $q(x)$.

$$
\begin{cases}q(x)=\frac{1}{(1+|x|)^{\alpha}} \times q_{1}(x), \text { where } & q_{1}(x)=q_{11}(x)+q_{12}(x)  \tag{4.12}\\ q_{11} \in L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right), \quad q_{12} \in L^{p}\left(R^{3}\right), & 2 \leqq p<6, \quad \alpha>3 / 2\end{cases}
$$

Proposition 4.17. Suppose that (4.12) is satisfied. Then, the kerne, $k(x, y ; \zeta), \operatorname{Im} \zeta \geqq 0$, determines a Hilbert-Schmidt operator $Q_{1}(\zeta)$ ir $L^{2}\left(\boldsymbol{R}^{3}\right)$ and we have: (1) $\left\|Q_{1}(\zeta)\right\|_{\text {H.S. }} \leqq c\left(\left\|q_{11}\right\|_{L^{2}}+\left\|q_{12}\right\|_{L^{p}}\right)$, where $c$ is independent of $\zeta$; and (2) $Q_{1}(\zeta)$ is a continuous function (witl respect to the Hilbert-Schmidt norm) of $\zeta$ in $\{\zeta \mid \operatorname{Im} \zeta \geqq 0\}$.

The estimate (1) follows from the discussion made above. (2) is obtained by the Lebesgue Convergence Theorem.
Remark 4.18. Roughly speaking $q_{11}$ takes care of the local singularities of $q$ and $q_{12}$ the rate of decay of $q$ at infinity. (4.12) is satisfied it $q \in L^{2}$ and $|q(x)| \leqq|x|^{-(2+\epsilon)}, \epsilon>0,|x|>R$. In particular this con tains Ikebe's condition (Ikebe, [8]).

Under assumption (4.12) it is fairly easy to see that: (i) $q \in L^{2}$ anc hence $H_{2}=-\Delta+q(x)$ is selfadjoint; (ii) $D(B) \supset D\left(H_{1}\right)$. Thus, thi factorization method is applicable. Consider $H_{2}^{c}=-\Delta+c q(x$ where $c$ is a real constant. Proposition 4.17 shows that the assump tions of Proposition 4.14 are satisfied provided $|c|$ is sufficiently small Furthermore, the argument leading to Proposition 4.17 tells us tha $A^{*} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right) A$ is of Hilbert-Schmidt type and depends continuousl on $\zeta=\lambda+i \epsilon$ up to the real axis. To see this it suffices to replac $q_{1}(x)$ by $1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha}$ and note that $1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha} \in L^{p}\left(R^{3}\right)$ for $3 / 2<p<\alpha$ (we deal with $A^{*} R_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon) A$ and $A^{*} R_{1}(\lambda-i \epsilon) A$ separately). As matter of fact we have the situation mentioned in Remark 4.15. Thus $H_{2}$ is unitarily equivalent to $H_{1}$ if $|c|$ is sufficiently small.
Proposition 4.17 asserts much more than we need to apply the smal perturbation argument. What is important is the complete continuit of $Q_{1}(\zeta)$ and the fact that $Q_{1}(\zeta)$ is continuous in $\zeta$ up to the real axi with respect to the operator norm. This leads us to another way $c$
eliminating $R_{2}(\zeta)$ which does not involve any smallness assumption on $V$.

## Smooth or gentle perturbations.

Theorem 4.19. In addition to condition (F-1) with $\Gamma=R^{1}$ suppose that the following (1) and (2) are satisfied: (1) $Q_{1(\zeta)}$ ) is completely continuous for any $\zeta, \operatorname{Im} \zeta>0$; and (2) for every $\lambda \in R^{1}$ the limit $\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} Q_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon)=Q_{1}^{+}(\lambda)$ exists in the norm topology of operators in 4 and the convergence is uniform for $\lambda$ lying in a compact set of $R^{1}$. Then there exists a closed set $\Gamma_{0} \subset R^{1}$ with $\left|\Gamma_{0}\right|=0$ such that (F-2) holds for $\Gamma=R^{1}-\Gamma_{0}$. In particular, $H_{1, \text { ac }}$ and $H_{2, \text { ac }}$ are unitarily equivalent. Similar statements hold for the lower half plane too.
The essential part of the proof lies in the following lemma.
Lemma 4.20. Let $\mathscr{Y}$ be a Banach space and let $T(\zeta):\{\zeta \mid \operatorname{Im} \zeta \geqq 0\}$ $\rightarrow B(\mathcal{Y})$ satisfy the following conditions (a) - (c): (a) $T(\zeta)$ is holomorphic in $\{\zeta \mid \operatorname{Im} \zeta>0\}$ and continuous (in the norm topology) in $\{\zeta \mid \operatorname{Im} \zeta \geqq 0\} ;$ (b) $T(\zeta)-1$ is completely continuous for every $\zeta$; (c) $T(\zeta)$ has an inverse in $B(\mathcal{Y})$ for every $\zeta, \operatorname{Im} \zeta>0$. Let $\Gamma_{0}$ $=\left\{\lambda^{-} \in R^{1} \mid T(\lambda)\right.$ is not invertible $\}$. Then, $\Gamma_{0}$ is a closed set with $\left|\Gamma_{0}\right|=0$.

Let us take this lemma for granted for the time being. We apply it to $G_{1}(\zeta)=1+Q_{1}(\zeta)$. The holomorphic property and continuity in $\{\zeta \mid \operatorname{Im} \zeta>0\}$ follow immediately from the corresponding properties of $R_{1}(\zeta)$. This combined with assumption (2) of the theorem yields condition (a). Condition (b) is nothing but assumption (1). Condition (c) has been verified (see (4.10)).

We now show that condition (F-2) is satisfied for $\Gamma$. Since $Q_{1}(\zeta)$, $\operatorname{Im} \zeta>0$, is completely continuous, $G_{1}(\zeta)^{-1} \in B(\alpha)$ once $G_{1}(\zeta)$ is invertible. Hence, by the continuity of the inverse operation in $B(\mathcal{A})$ one sees that $G_{2}(\zeta)=G_{1}(\zeta)^{-1}, \operatorname{Im} \zeta>0$, extends continuously to $\{\operatorname{Im} \zeta \geqq 0\}-\Gamma_{0}$. This implies (F-2).

Remark 4.21. In practical situations it frequently occurs that $H_{1}$ is absolutely continuous and that the assumptions of Theorem 4.19 hold. In such a case it is likely that we also have the uniform boundedness of $A^{*} \delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right) A$ near a compact portion of $R^{1}$. Then, one sees that $H_{2}$ is absolutely continuous on $\Gamma=R^{1}-\Gamma_{0}$. To show this it suffices to apply Remark 4.12 to an arbitrary closed interval contained in $\Gamma$ (note that $G_{2}(\zeta)$ is uniformly bounded near such an interval as can be seen from the proof given above).

Let us return to the Schrödinger operator for a moment. By virtue of Proposition 4.17 it is clear that the situation described in Remark
4.21 is realized under condition (4.12). Thus, we recapture Ikebe's theorem (see Ikebe [8]) as far as the unitary equivalence of the absolutely continuous parts of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ is concerned. More information is obtained in the following sections.

An indication of the proof of Lemma 4.20. Put $K(\zeta)=T(\zeta)-1$. Let $\lambda \in \Gamma_{0}$. This is equivalent to assuming that -1 is in the spectrum of $K(\lambda)$. Take a sufficiently small circle $C$ around -1 in the complex plane in such a way that -1 is the only point of the spectrum of $K(\lambda)$ lying on and inside $C$. Then, there exists $\eta>0$ such that $C$ lies in the resolvent of $K(\zeta)$ if $|\zeta-\lambda|<\eta$. Put

$$
P(\zeta)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{C}(w-K(\zeta))^{-1} d w .
$$

Then, $P(\zeta)$ is a finite-dimensional (oblique) projection and the range of $P(\zeta)$ reduces $K(\zeta)$ and hence $T(\zeta)$. Confining our attention to the range of $P(\zeta)$, we see easily that $\lambda^{\prime} \in \Gamma_{0},\left|\lambda^{\prime}-\lambda\right|<\eta$, is equivalent to

$$
\operatorname{det} T\left(\lambda^{\prime}\right)=0
$$

On the other hand, $\operatorname{det} T(\zeta)$ is a complex function holomorphic in $\{\operatorname{Im} \zeta>0\}$, continuous in $\{\operatorname{Im} \zeta \geqq 0\}$, and not identically zero (by condition (c)). But it is known that such a function cannot vanish on $R^{1}$ except for a set of measure zero (theorem of F. and M. Riesz). This concludes the proof.
5. Eigenfunction expansions in abstract scattering theory. In this section we discuss the perturbation of eigenfunction expansions using the scheme of Gel'fand-Silov-Vilenkin. We suppose that an eigenfunction expansion is given in a concrete form for the unperturbed problem (imagine, e.g., the Fourier transform) and try to construct an expansion of a similar type for the perturbed problem.

We shall work in the situation described in Theorem 4.5. Thus we have a Banach space $X \subset \mathcal{H}$. There are spectral forms $f_{j}: \Gamma \times \mathscr{X}$ $\times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow C^{1}, j=1,2$, and a family of operators $G(\lambda) \in B(\mathcal{X}) . G(\lambda)$ is one-to-one and onto and related to $f_{j}$ by the formula

$$
f_{1}(\lambda ; x, y)=f_{2}(\lambda ; G(\lambda) x, G(\lambda) y) .
$$

In addition $G(\lambda)$ and $G(\lambda)^{-1}$ are measurable in a suitable sense. Then, there exists a family of unitary operators $\tilde{G}(\lambda): \mathcal{X}_{1}(\lambda) \rightarrow \chi_{2}(\lambda)$ : $\lambda \in \Gamma$, satisfying

$$
J_{2}(\lambda) G(\lambda)=\tilde{G}(\lambda) J_{1}(\lambda) .
$$

This $\tilde{G}(\lambda)$ determines a (decomposable) unitary operator

$$
\tilde{W}: \mathfrak{M}_{1} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{2} \quad \text { such that } \quad\{g(\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \Gamma} \rightarrow\{\tilde{G}(\lambda) g(\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \Gamma} .
$$

Let $\pi_{j}$ be the unitary operator $\mathcal{H}_{j \text {,ac }}(\Gamma) \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{j}$ which gives the spectral representation. Our "wave" operator $W$ is then defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
W=\pi_{2}^{-1} \tilde{W} \pi_{1} \tag{5.0}
\end{equation*}
$$

A formulation of eigenfunction expansions. We now suppose that associated with $\mathcal{X}$ there is given another spectral representation of $H_{1, a c}(\Gamma)$ in a somewhat more refined sense. Namely, we assume the following:
(5.1) There are a $\sigma$-finite measure space $(\Omega, \Sigma, \rho)$, a partial isometry $\Phi_{1}$ of $\mathcal{H}$ onto $L^{2}(\rho)$ with initial set $H_{1, a c}(\Gamma)$, and a measurable function $\omega: \Omega \rightarrow \Gamma$ such that
$\left(^{*}\right) \quad\left(\Phi_{1} E_{1}(\Delta) u\right)(\zeta)=\chi_{\Delta}(\omega(\zeta))\left(\Phi_{1} u\right)(\zeta), \quad \rho$ - a.e. $\quad \zeta \in \Omega$,
for each $u \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\Delta \subset R^{1}$. (The measurability of $\omega$ means that $\omega^{-1}(\Delta) \in \Sigma$ for every Borel set $\Delta \subset \Gamma$.)
(5.2) There is a mapping $\phi_{1}: \Omega \rightarrow \chi^{*}$ such that

$$
\left(\Phi_{1} x\right)(\zeta)=\left\langle x, \phi_{1}(\zeta)\right\rangle, \quad \rho-\text { a.e. } \quad \zeta \in \Omega
$$

for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
Example 5.1. Consider the Schrödinger operator. The factorization scheme used above is equivalent to taking

$$
X=R(A)=\left\{u(x) \mid(1+|x|)^{\alpha} u(x) \in L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)\right\}, \quad \alpha>3 / 2
$$

Hence, $L^{\infty}\left(R^{3}\right) \subset \mathcal{X}^{*}$. Let $(\Omega, \Sigma, \rho)$ be $R^{3}$ with the field of all Borel sets and the Lebesgue measure, $\Phi_{1}$ the Fourier transform, and $\omega(\zeta)$ $=|\zeta|^{2}$. Let $\phi_{1}(\zeta) \in X^{*}$ be determined by

$$
\left\langle u, \phi_{1}(\zeta)\right\rangle=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{3 / 2}} \int_{R^{3}} u(x) e^{-i \zeta \cdot x} d x .
$$

Then (5.1) and (5.2) are clearly satisfied.
Remark 5.2. Formula ( ${ }^{*}$ ) in (5.1) can be replaced by a more general one:

$$
\left(\Phi_{1} \alpha\left(E_{1}\right) u\right)(\zeta)=\alpha(\omega(\zeta))\left(\Phi_{1} u\right)(\zeta), \quad \rho \text { - a.e. } \quad \zeta \in \Omega
$$

for each $u \in \mathcal{H}$ and Borel measurable, bounded function $\alpha$.
Remark 5.3. In the above formulation $\phi_{1}(\zeta)$ is an "eigenfunction" only in the sense that it is a pointwise evaluation functional for $\Phi_{1}$ on the subset $\mathcal{X}$. Under additional conditions, however, $\phi_{1}(\zeta)$ will look more like an eigenfunction. This will be discussed below.

## Perturbations.

Theorem 5.4. Suppose that in addition to all the assumptions of Theorem 4.5 conditions (5.1) and (5.2) are satisfied. Let $W$ be the "wave" operator constructed in Theorem 4.5. Let $\Phi_{2} \in B\left(\mathcal{H}, L^{2}(\rho)\right)$ be defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi_{2} & =\Phi_{1} W^{-1} & & \text { on } \mathcal{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma), \\
& =0 & & \text { on } \mathcal{H} \ominus \mathcal{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Furthermore, put

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{2}(\zeta)=\left[G(\omega(\zeta))^{*}\right]^{-1} \phi_{1}(\zeta) \in X^{*}, \quad \zeta \in \Omega \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, (5.1) and (5.2) hold true with $\Phi_{1}, E_{1}$, and $\phi_{1}$ replaced by $\Phi_{2}$, $E_{2}$, and $\phi_{2}$.

Remark 5.5. Let us write $G(\lambda)=1+\tilde{Q}(\lambda)$. Then (5.3) can be written as

$$
\phi_{2}(\zeta)=\phi_{1}(\zeta)-\tilde{Q}(\omega(\zeta))^{*} \phi_{2}(\zeta) .
$$

In the situation of Theorem 4.6 we have two G's which are formally given as

$$
G^{ \pm}(\lambda)=1+V R_{1}(\lambda \pm i 0)
$$

Thus, the above equation formally gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{2}(\zeta)=\phi_{1}(\zeta)-R_{1}(\omega(\zeta) \mp i 0) V \phi_{2}(\zeta) \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This equation is known as the Lippmann-Schwinger equation. Physically, one may regard $\zeta$ as the momentum and $\omega(\zeta)$ the energy of the system.

The proof of Theorem 5.4 depends on the following lemma which gives a connection between the two representations $\pi_{1}$ and $\Phi_{1}$. Since this applies also to the system 2 once the theorem is proved, we omit the subscripts $1,2$.

Lemma 5.6. Let $u \in \not \mathcal{H}_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$. Let $\tilde{u}^{\prime}: \Gamma \rightarrow \chi$ be a strongly measurable $\mathcal{X}$-valued function on $\Gamma$ such that:
(i) $\tilde{u} \stackrel{d}{=}\left\{J(\lambda) \tilde{u}^{\prime}(\lambda)\right\} \in \mathfrak{M}$; and
(ii) $\pi u=\tilde{u}$ as an element of $\mathfrak{M}$.

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\Phi u)(\zeta)=\left\langle\tilde{u}^{\prime}(\omega(\zeta)), \phi(\zeta)\right\rangle, \quad \rho-\text { a.e. } \quad \zeta \in \Omega \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. It can be shown that there exists a sequence of $\mathcal{X}$-valued simple functions

$$
\tilde{u}_{n}^{\prime}(\lambda)=\sum c_{k} \chi_{n k}(\lambda) x_{n k}, \quad \chi_{n k}=\chi_{\Delta_{n k}}^{-}, \quad \Delta_{n k} \subset \Gamma, \quad x_{n k} \in \mathcal{X},
$$

such that: (i) $\tilde{u}_{n}^{\prime}(\lambda) \rightarrow \tilde{u}^{\prime}(\lambda)$ a.e. in $\Gamma$; and (ii) $\tilde{u}_{n} \rightarrow \tilde{u}$ in $\mathfrak{M}$ where $\tilde{u}_{n}=\left\{J(\lambda) \tilde{u}_{n}^{\prime}(\lambda)\right\}$. Put $u_{n}=\pi^{-1} \tilde{u}_{n} \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$. Then, the definition of $\pi$ tells us that $u_{n}=\sum c_{k} E_{\mathrm{ac}}\left(\Delta_{n k}\right) x_{n k}$. Hence, by (5.1) and (5.2) we get

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\Phi u_{n}\right)(\zeta) & =\sum c_{k} \chi_{n k}(\omega(\zeta))\left(\Phi x_{n k}\right)(\zeta)=\sum c_{k} \chi_{n k}(\omega(\zeta))\left\langle x_{n k}, \phi(\zeta)\right\rangle  \tag{5.6}\\
& =\left\langle\tilde{u}_{n}^{\prime}(\omega(\zeta)), \phi(\zeta)\right\rangle .
\end{align*}
$$

Since $\tilde{u}_{n} \rightarrow \tilde{u}$ in $\mathfrak{M}$, the left-hand side converges to $(\Phi u)(\zeta)$ in $L^{2}(\rho)$. Since $\tilde{u}_{n}^{\prime}(\lambda) \rightarrow \tilde{u}_{n}^{\prime}(\lambda)$ a.e., the right-hand side converges to $\left\langle\tilde{u}^{\prime}(\omega(\zeta)), \phi(\zeta)\right\rangle, \rho-$ a.e. in $\Omega$. (Here, we used the fact that $\omega^{-1}(\Delta)$ is a $\rho$-null set whenever $\Delta \subset \Gamma$ is a Lebesgue null set. This fact is an immediate consequence of (5.1).) Hence, (5.5) is obtained by taking the limit of (5.6) along a suitable subsequence.
Proof of Theorem 5.4. (5.1) is a direct consequence of the definition of $\Phi_{2}$ and the intertwining property $E_{1}(\Delta) W^{-1}=W^{-1} E_{2}(\Delta)$. Let us prove (5.2). Formula (5.0) shows that $\pi_{1} W^{-1}=W^{-1} \pi_{2}$. Apply both sides to $E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) x, x \in \mathcal{X}$. Since $\pi_{2} E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) x=\left\{J_{2}(\lambda) x\right\}$, we get

$$
\pi_{1} W^{-1} E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) x=\left\{\widetilde{G}(\lambda)^{-1} J_{2}(\lambda) x\right\}=\left\{J_{1}(\lambda) G(\lambda)^{-1} x\right\} .
$$

Hence, the assumptions of Lemma 5.6 are satisfied with $u=W^{-1}$ $E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) x$ and $\tilde{u}^{\prime}(\lambda)=G(\lambda)^{-1} x$. Hence, (5.5) yields
$\left(\Phi_{1} W^{-1} E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) x\right)(\zeta)=\left\langle G(\omega(\zeta))^{-1} x, \phi_{1}(\zeta)\right\rangle=\left\langle x, \phi_{2}(\zeta)\right\rangle, \rho-$ a.e. $\zeta \in \Omega$.
Since $\Phi_{1} W^{-1} E_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) x=\Phi_{2} x$, (5.2) is proved.
Generalized eigenfunctions. We show that in the special case the $\phi(\xi)$ may be interpreted as generalized eigenfunctions. The subscripts 1 and 2 are omitted.
In discussing eigenfunction expansions it is rather natural to assume that $\mathcal{X}$ is dense in $\mathcal{H}$ and the injection: $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is continuous. Then, in a canonical way we have the inclusion relation $X \subset \mathscr{A} \subset X^{*}$. Suppose further that there exists a subspace $\mathcal{Y} \subset \mathcal{X}$ such that: (i) $\mathscr{Y}$ is dense in $\mathcal{H}$; (ii) $\mathscr{Y}$ is a linear topological space, and the injection : $\mathscr{Y} \rightarrow X$ is continuous; and (iii) $\mathscr{Y} \subset D(H), H=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda d E(\lambda)$, and $H$ maps $\mathscr{Y}$ continuously into $\mathcal{X}$. Thus, canonically $\mathscr{Y} \subset \mathcal{X} \subset \not \subset \mathcal{X}$ * $\subset \mathscr{Y}^{*}$. Let $H^{\dagger}: \mathcal{X}^{*} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}^{*}$ be the adjoint operator to $H$ where $H$ is considered as an operator in $B(\mathscr{Y}, \mathcal{X})$. Then, (5.1) and (5.2) show that for any $y \in \mathcal{Y}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle y, H^{\dagger} \phi(\zeta)\right\rangle & =\langle H y, \phi(\zeta)\rangle=(\Phi H y)(\zeta)=\omega(\zeta)(\Phi y)(\zeta) \\
& =\omega(\zeta)\langle y, \phi(\zeta)\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $H^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\zeta) \in X^{*}$ and we have

$$
H^{\dagger} \phi(\zeta)=\omega(\zeta) \phi(\zeta) .
$$

Then, $\phi(\zeta)$ may be interpreted as a generalized eigenfunction of $H$.
Application to Schrödinger operators. Let us consider the Schrödinger operator $H_{2}=-\Delta+q(x)$, under the assumption (4.12). We know that the assumptions of Theorem 4.5 are satisfied with $X$ being the weighted $L^{2}$ :

$$
\mathcal{X}=\mathcal{X}_{\alpha} \stackrel{d}{=}\left\{u \mid(1+|x|)^{\alpha} u(x) \in L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)\right\},
$$

where $\boldsymbol{\alpha}>3 / 2$. We also know that the Fourier transform can be taken as an eigenfunction expansion in the sense of (5.1) and (5.2). Thus, the previous considerations can be applied. As a result we obtain the following theorem.

Theorem 5.7. Assume that (4.12) is satisfied. Then there exists a closed null set $\Gamma_{0} \subset R^{+}$such that the following statements are true. For every $\zeta \in R^{3}$ with $|\zeta|^{2} \notin \Gamma_{0}$, the integral equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\phi}_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)=e^{i z \cdot x}-\frac{1}{4 \pi} \int_{R^{3}} \frac{e^{i k| | x-y \mid}}{|x-y|} q(y) \phi_{ \pm}(y, \zeta) d y \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a unique solution $\phi_{ \pm}(\cdot, \zeta)$ in $\chi_{\alpha}$. For each of $\pm$ the family $\left\{\phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)\right\}$ forms a complete orthonormal system of eigenfunctions of $\mathrm{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$ in the following sense.

For every $u \in \mathcal{H}_{2, \text { ac }}$

$$
\hat{u}_{ \pm}(\zeta)=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{3 / 2}} \operatorname{li.i.m.~}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|x|<N} u(x) \overline{\phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)} d x
$$

exists in the sense of convergence in $L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. The mapping $W_{ \pm}: u$ $\rightarrow \hat{u}_{ \pm}$is a unitary operator from $H_{2, \text { ac }}$ onto $L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. Let $\left\{\Gamma_{N}\right\}$ be an increasing sequence of closed subsets of $\Gamma=R^{1}-\Gamma_{0}$ such that $\Gamma_{N} \rightarrow \Gamma$. Then the inversion formula

$$
u(x)=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{3 / 2}} \operatorname{li.i.m.}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega_{N}} \hat{u}_{ \pm}(\zeta) \phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta) d \zeta
$$

holds for $u \in \mathcal{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$, where $\Omega_{N}=\left\{\left.\zeta| | \zeta\right|^{2} \in \Gamma_{N}\right\}$. If $u \in \mathcal{H}_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$ $\cap D\left(H_{2}\right)$, then $\left(H_{2} u\right)_{ \pm}(\zeta)=|\zeta|^{2} \hat{u}_{ \pm}(\zeta) . \phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta_{x} \phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)+q(x) \phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)=|\zeta|^{2} \phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta) \tag{5.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Delta_{x}$ is taken in the sense of distributions.
The integral equation (5.7) is obtained in the same manner that (5.4) was derived. In fact it is easy to see that $\left(1-G^{ \pm}(\lambda)\right)^{*}$ has the
kernel appearing in (5.7). The inversion formula may be derived as a consequence of an abstract inversion formula. In any event its derivation is easy. To get the differential equation (5.8), we use the result of the previous subsection. Namely, it is easy to see that $\mathscr{y}=\delta\left(R^{3}\right)$ satisfies the requirement. Then, $H_{2}^{+}: \delta\left(R^{3}\right)^{\prime} \rightarrow X_{\alpha}$ can be interpreted in the distribution sense.

We might note that the unitarity of the mapping $u \rightarrow \hat{u}: \mathcal{H}_{2}$,ac $\rightarrow L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$ is obtained without the aid of time-dependent theory. The decay rate of $q$ given by (4.12) is $O\left(|x|^{-(2+\epsilon)}\right)$. This is improved below to $O\left(|x|^{-(1+\epsilon)}\right)$ as far as the existence of $W$ is concerned. (Cf. §7.)

Remark 5.8. A detailed study (an elliptic type argument) reveals that $\phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)$ is a bounded, continuous function of $x$. Furthermore, as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)-e^{i \zeta} \cdot x & =O\left(|x|^{-\left(1+\alpha-3 / p^{\prime}\right)}\right), \quad \alpha p^{\prime}<3 \\
& =O\left(|x|^{-1}\{\log |x|\}^{1 / p^{\prime}}\right), \quad \alpha p^{\prime}=3 \\
& =O\left(|x|^{-1}\right), \quad \alpha p^{\prime}>3
\end{aligned}
$$

where $p^{\prime-1}+p^{-1}=1$ with $p$ appearing in (4.12). If $|q(x)|$ decays as $|x|^{-(2+\epsilon)}$, then $\phi_{ \pm}(x, \zeta)-e^{i \zeta \cdot x}$ decays as $|x|^{-\epsilon}$ for $0<\epsilon<1$ and $|x|^{-1}$ for $1<\epsilon$. (See Kuroda, [15].)

A generalization of these results to the $n$-dimensional case is mentioned in $\$ 7$.
6. The relationship of the stationary and time-dependent theories. In this section we discuss the relation between the stationary wave operators, $W_{ \pm}$, and those in the time-dependent theory. In general the way of constructing $W$ in Theorem 4.5 is too general to have any relation to the time-dependent method. However, with the additional hypotheses of Theorem 4.6 the operators $W_{ \pm}$are the strong Abel limits of $e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}}$ as $t \rightarrow \pm \infty$.

Theorem 6.1. Suppose that all the assumptions of Theorem 4.6 are fulfilled, and let $W_{+}$be the operator constructed in Theorem 4.6. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{+}=\mathrm{s}-\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} 2 \epsilon \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2 \epsilon t} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} d t E_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) \quad \text { on } H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) . \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 6.2. If assumption (2) of Theorem 4.6 is assumed for $\lambda-i \epsilon$ instead of $\lambda+i \epsilon$, the operator $W_{-}$satisfies

$$
W_{-}=\mathrm{s}-\lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} 2 \epsilon \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{2 \epsilon t} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} d t E_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) \quad \text { on } \mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)
$$

These formulas show that $W_{ \pm}$are independent of the choice of $X$.
Under a more restrictive situation the Abel limit can be replaced
by the strong limit, and, moreover, the invariance principle holds. Namely, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 6.3. Suppose that $\mathcal{X}$ in Theorem 4.6 is a Hilbert space and assume all the hypotheses of Theorem 4.6. In addition suppose that assumption (2) of Theorem 4.6 is also satisfied for $\lambda-i \epsilon$ in place of $\lambda+i \epsilon$. Let $W_{ \pm}$be the operators constructed in Theorem 4.5 corresponding to $\lambda \pm i \epsilon$. Let $\phi$ be a real valued, Borel measurable function on $\Gamma$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{\infty}\left|\int_{\Gamma} f(\lambda) e^{-i t \phi(\lambda)-i s \lambda} d \lambda\right|^{2} d s \rightarrow 0, \quad t \rightarrow+\infty \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $f \in L^{2}(\Gamma)$. Then, the strong limits in the following formula exist and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underset{t \rightarrow \pm \infty}{s-\lim _{t}} e^{i t \phi\left(H_{2}\right)} e^{-i t \phi\left(H_{i}\right)} E_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)=W_{ \pm} \quad \text { on } \mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma) . \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 6.4. Let us verify (6.2) for $\phi(\lambda)=\lambda$. Let $f$ be extended to be zero outside $\Gamma$ and let $F f$ be its Fourier transform. Then, (6.2) is equivalent to $\int_{0}^{\infty}|(F f)(t+s)|^{2} d s \rightarrow 0$. But this is certainly true. More generally, (6.3) holds if $\phi$ is piecewise differentiable with $\phi^{\prime}(\lambda)$ piecewise continuous, locally of bounded variation, and positive. ( $\phi(\lambda)$ may tend to $\pm \infty$ at a discrete set of points (Kato, [12]).) Thus, in the situation of Theorem 6.3 the (time-dependent) wave operators exist and are complete. Moreover, the invariance principle holds. For Schrödinger operators this is true under (4.12) (or (7.0)).

Remark 6.5. If (6.2) holds with $\int_{0}^{\infty}$ replaced by $\int_{-\infty}^{0}$, then (6.3) holds with $\lim _{t \rightarrow \pm \infty}$ replaced by $\lim _{t \rightarrow \mp \infty}$.

We shall give a proof of Theorem 6.1 under more restrictive assumptions. Namely we suppose that: (i) $\mathcal{X}$ is dense in $\mathcal{H}$; (ii) $\Gamma=R^{1}$; and (iii) $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ are absolutely continuous. For the complete proof see Kato and Kuroda [14].

First recall that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{j}-\lambda\right) & \stackrel{d}{=} \frac{1}{2 \pi i}\left\{R_{j}(\lambda+i \epsilon)-R_{j}(\lambda-i \epsilon)\right\} \\
f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; u, v) & \stackrel{d}{=}\left(\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{j}-\lambda\right) u, v\right) \\
f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; u, v) & =f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; G(\lambda+i \epsilon) u, G(\lambda+i \epsilon) v)
\end{aligned}
$$

and put

$$
W_{\epsilon}=2 \epsilon \int_{0} e^{-2 \epsilon t} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} d t
$$

As is easily seen, it suffices to show that

$$
\left(W_{\epsilon} x, y\right) \rightarrow\left(W_{+} x, y\right), \epsilon \downarrow 0, \quad \text { for all } x, y \in \bar{X}
$$

(note that $W_{+}$is known to be unitary). Now, the formal computation concerning the formal transition to the stationary formulas given in $\$ 3$ can be carried out legitimately to give

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(W_{\epsilon} x, y\right) & =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left(\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right) G(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, y\right) d \lambda \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; G(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, y) d \lambda
\end{aligned}
$$

The integrand converges pointwise to $f_{2}\left(\lambda ; G^{+}(\lambda) x, y\right)$. So, in view of (4.4) it suffices to see that we can take the limit as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ under the integral sign. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; G(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, y)\right|^{2} & \leqq f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; G(\lambda+i \epsilon) x) f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; y) \\
& =f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x) f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; y)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; z) \stackrel{d}{=} f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; z, z)$. Hence, for any $\Delta \subset \Gamma$

$$
\left[\int_{\Delta}\left|f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; G(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, y)\right| d \lambda\right]^{2} \leqq \int_{\Delta} f_{1 \epsilon}(\lambda ; x) d \lambda \int_{\Delta} f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; y) d \lambda
$$

On the other hand,

$$
f_{j \epsilon}(\lambda ; x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(\mu-\lambda)^{2}+\epsilon^{2}} \cdot \frac{d}{d \mu}\left(E_{j}(\mu) x, x\right) d \mu \rightarrow \frac{d}{d \lambda}\left(E_{1}(\lambda) x, x\right)
$$

pointwise for a.e. $\lambda$ and in $L^{1}\left(R^{1}\right)$. By virtue of the Vitali convergence theorem (see e.g. N. Dunford and J. T. Schwartz, Linear operators, Part 1, Interscience, New York, 1958, III.6.15) it is now easy to establish the $L^{1}$-convergence of $f_{2 \epsilon}(\lambda ; G(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, y)$ to $f_{2}\left(\lambda ; G^{+}(\lambda) x, y\right)$.

The proof for the general case is complicated because we have to replace $y$ by $u=\alpha\left(H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\right) y\left(\alpha \in L^{2}(\Gamma)\right)$ which is not necessarily in $X$. Thus, even the pointwise convergence is not true and one has to take a subsequence.

Proof of Theorem 6.3. For simplicity suppose that $X$ is separable. We put

$$
D(\lambda+i \epsilon)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i}\{G(\lambda+i \epsilon)-G(\lambda-i \epsilon)\}
$$

which converges strongly in $X$ to

$$
D(\lambda)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i}\left\{G^{+}(\lambda)-G^{-}(\lambda)\right\} .
$$

Remembering $R_{1}(\zeta)=R_{2}(\zeta) G(\zeta)$, we get

$$
\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right)=\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{2}-\lambda\right) G(\lambda+i \epsilon)+R_{2}(\lambda-i \epsilon) D(\lambda+i \epsilon)
$$

Hence, for any $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ and $\alpha \in L^{2}(\Gamma)$ we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\delta_{\epsilon}\left(H_{1}-\lambda\right) x, \alpha\left(H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\right) y\right)= & f_{2 \epsilon}\left(\lambda ; G(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon}) x, \alpha\left(H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\right) y\right)  \tag{6.4}\\
& +\left(D(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon}) x, R_{2}(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon}) \boldsymbol{\alpha}\left(H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\right) y\right),
\end{align*}
$$

where we regard $\alpha$ to be extended as 0 outside $\Gamma$. We want to let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ in this formula.

The left-hand side converges to $(d / d \lambda)\left(E_{1}(\lambda) x, \alpha\left(H_{2, \text { ac }}\right) y\right)$.
The first term on the right-hand side converges to

$$
\overline{\alpha(\lambda)} f_{2}\left(\lambda ; G^{+}(\lambda) x, y\right)
$$

a.e. along a certain sequence $\left\{\epsilon_{n}\right\}$. This follows from the following lemma.

Lemma 6.6. There exists a sequence $\left\{\epsilon_{n}\right\}, \epsilon_{n} \downarrow 0$, such that $f_{2 e_{n}}\left(\lambda ; \cdot \alpha\left(H_{2, \text { ac }}\right) \boldsymbol{y}\right)$ belongs to $X^{*}$ and converges weak ${ }^{*}$ in $X^{*}$ to $\boldsymbol{\alpha}(\lambda) f_{2}(\lambda ; \cdot, y)$ for a.e. $\lambda \in \Gamma$.

Incidentally, this lemma plays an important role in the proof of Theorem 6.1 for the general case.
Now we note that $f_{2}$ can be expressed as $f_{2}(\lambda ; x, y)=\left(F_{2}(\lambda) x, y\right)_{x}$ with $F_{2}(\lambda) \in B(X), F_{2}(\lambda) \geqq 0$. Then, the second term on the righthand side of (6.4) is equal to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\overline{\alpha(\mu)}}{\mu-(\lambda-i \epsilon)} \frac{d}{d \mu}\left(E_{2}(\mu) D(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, y\right) d \mu \\
& \quad=\left(D(\lambda+i \epsilon) x, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha(\mu)}{\mu-(\lambda+i \epsilon)} F_{2}(\mu) y d \mu\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Take $\alpha$ in such a way that $\alpha$ has compact support in $\Gamma$ and $\alpha(\mu)\left\|F_{2}(\mu)\right\|$ is bounded in $\Gamma$. Then, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}(\cdot) \boldsymbol{F}(\cdot) \boldsymbol{y} \in L^{2}\left(\boldsymbol{R}^{1} ; \mathcal{X}\right)$. Since $\mathcal{X}$ is a Hilbert space, we can use the theory of Fourier transforms to see that the limit

$$
h(\lambda ; y, \alpha) \stackrel{d}{=} \lim _{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha(\mu)}{\mu-(\lambda+i \boldsymbol{\epsilon})} F_{2}(\mu) y d \mu
$$

exists in $L^{2}\left(R^{1} ; \mathcal{X}\right)$. Furthermore, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\|h(\lambda ; y, \alpha)\|^{2} d \lambda=\text { const } \int_{0}^{\infty} d s\left\|\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha(\lambda) e^{-i s s} F(\lambda) y d \lambda\right\|^{2} . \tag{6.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

By taking the limit as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ in (6.4) we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{d \lambda}\left(E_{1}(\lambda) x, \alpha\left(H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\right) y\right)= & \overline{\alpha(\lambda)} f_{2}\left(\lambda ; G^{+}(\lambda) x, y\right) \\
& +(D(\lambda) x, h(\lambda ; y, \alpha))_{\chi}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\beta \in L^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ be such that $\|\beta(\lambda) D(\lambda)\|$ is bounded in $\Gamma$. Multiplying both sides by $\beta$ and integrating over $\Gamma$ we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\left(W_{+}-I\right) \beta\left(H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}\right) x\right. & \left., \alpha\left(H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\right) y\right) \\
& =-\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \beta(\lambda)(D(\lambda) x, h(\lambda ; y, \alpha))_{x} d \lambda . \tag{6.6}
\end{align*}
$$

The conditions imposed on $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are satisfied by $e^{-i t \phi} \alpha$ and $e^{-i t \phi} \beta$ as well. Therefore, replacing $\alpha$ and $\beta$ by $e^{-i t \phi} \alpha$ and $e^{-i t \phi} \beta$ in (6.6) and estimating the right-hand side by (6.5) we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\|\left(\left(W_{+}-I\right) e^{-i \phi \phi\left(H_{1}\right)} \boldsymbol{\beta}\left(H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}\right) x, e^{-i \phi \phi\left(H_{2}\right)} \alpha\left(H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}\right) y\right)\right\|^{2} \\
& \leqq \mathrm{const} \int_{0}^{\infty} d s\left\|\int_{\mathbf{r}} \alpha(\lambda) e^{-i t \phi(\lambda)-i s \lambda} F(\lambda) y d \lambda\right\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

(recall that $\alpha$ has compact support in $\Gamma$ ). Now, it is easy to see that (6.2) implies the same statement for $f \in L^{2}(\Gamma ; X)$. Hence, the righthand side of the above inequality tends to 0 as $t \rightarrow+\infty$.

By the intertwining property of $W_{+}$this means that

$$
\left(\left(W_{+}-e^{i t \phi\left(H_{2}\right)} e^{-i t \phi\left(H_{1}\right)}\right) u, v\right) \rightarrow 0, \quad \text { as } t \rightarrow \infty,
$$

for every $u, v$ of the form $u=\beta\left(H_{1, \text { ac }}\right) x, v=\alpha\left(H_{2, \text { ac }}\right) y$. However, the set of all such $u$ (or $v)$ forms a fundamental set in $H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)\left(\right.$ or $H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$ ), provided of course that $X$ is sufficiently large. Therefore $e^{i \phi \phi\left(H_{2}\right)} e^{-u \phi\left(H_{1}\right)}$ converges weakly to $W_{+}$on $\mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$. Since $W_{+}$is known to be unitary the strong convergence follows. The proof for $W_{-}$is similar.

Invariance principle for unitary operators. Analogues of Theorems 6.1 and 6.3 hold in the case of unitary operators. (6.1) takes the form

$$
W_{+}=s-\lim _{r \uparrow 1}\left(1-r^{2}\right) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^{2 k} U_{2}^{k} U_{1}^{-k} \quad \text { on } \mathcal{H}_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)
$$

where $\Gamma$ is now a subset of the unit circle. The invariance principle also holds. (6.2) is replaced by

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\left|\int_{\Gamma} e^{-i t \phi(\theta)-i k \theta} f(\theta) d(\theta)\right|^{2} \rightarrow 0 ; \quad t \rightarrow \infty
$$

for any $f \in L^{2}(\Gamma)$. Two examples of such $\phi$ are $\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta})=\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ $=i\left(1+e^{i \theta}\right)\left(1-e^{i \theta}\right)^{-1}$. The former gives $W_{+}=s-\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} U_{2}^{k} U_{1}^{-k}$ on $H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$. The latter gives $W_{+}=s-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{i t H_{2}} e^{-i t H_{1}} \quad$ on $\quad H_{1, \mathrm{ac}}(\Gamma)$, provided that $U_{j}$ is the Cayley transform of $H_{j}$.
7. Applications of the abstract theory to Schrödinger operators. In this section we consider further applications of the general theory to Schrödinger operators. In all cases we use the factorization method. The previous results which we use are summarized in the following

Theorem 7.1. Let $H_{2}=H_{1}+A B$ where $H_{1}$ is absolutely continuous, $A \in B(み)$ and $B$ is closed with $D(B) \supset D\left(H_{1}\right)=D\left(H_{2}\right)$. Suppose

1. $A^{*}\{R(\lambda+i \epsilon)-R(\lambda-i \epsilon)\} A$ converges weakly as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ for all $\lambda \in R^{1}$.
2. (a) The operators $B R_{1}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon) A$ are completely continuous for all $\lambda \in R^{1}$ and for $0<\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}$;
(b) $B R_{1}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon) A$ have boundary values in the operator norm topology as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, the convergence being uniform for $\lambda$ belonging to any compact interval of $R^{1}$.

Then there exists $\Gamma=R^{1}-\Gamma_{0}$ where $\Gamma_{0}$ is closed and has measure 0 such that

1. the singular spectrum of $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ is contained in $\Gamma_{0}$;
2. $H_{2, \mathrm{ac}}$ is unitarily equivalent to $H_{1}$;
3. the time-dependent wave operators $W_{ \pm}$exist and are complete;
4. the invariance principle holds;
5. if there is a generalized eigenfunction expansion for $H_{1}$, then there is also a similar one for $\mathrm{H}_{2}$.

We now consider applications of this theorem to Schrödinger operators. We have $H_{1}=-\Delta, H_{2}=-\Delta+q(x)$ in $\mathcal{H}=L^{2}\left(R^{n}\right)$.

1. We have considered above the case $n=3$ and $q(x)$ $=\left(1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha}\right) q_{1}(x) \quad$ with $\quad \alpha>3 / 2, \quad$ and $\quad q_{1}(x) \in L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)+L^{p}\left(R^{3}\right)$ with $2 \leqq p<6$. Under these assumptions we proved that the hypotheses of Theorem 7.1 were satisfied. The above assumption on $q$ roughly means that $q \in L_{\text {loc }}^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$ and $q(x)=O\left(|x|^{-2-\epsilon}\right)$ for $|x|$ large.
2. The results of the above example can be generalized to $n$ dimensions. We consider now that case $n \geqq 4$; the cases $n=1$ and 2 can be treated similarly. If we assume

$$
q(x)=\frac{1}{(1+|x|)^{\alpha}} q_{1}(x) \quad \text { with } \alpha>\frac{n}{2}
$$

and $q_{1}(x) \in L^{p_{1}}\left(R^{n}\right)+L^{p_{2}}\left(R^{n}\right)$ with $n / 2<p_{1}, \quad p_{2}<n$, then the hypotheses of Theorem 7.1 are satisfied. These assumptions on $q$ correspond roughly to $q \in L_{\text {loc }}^{2}\left(R^{n}\right)$ and $q(x)=\left(|x|^{-(n+1) / 2-\epsilon}\right)$ for $|x|$ large.

We can take the Fourier expansion to be a generalized eigenfunction expansion of $H_{1}$, and we get a similar generalized eigenfunction expansion for $\mathrm{H}_{2}$.

The verification of the hypotheses of Theorem 7.1 is somewhat different in the case $n \geqq 4$ than it was for $n=3 . R_{1}(\zeta)$ is an integral operator with the kernel

$$
R_{1}(x, y, \zeta)=\text { const } \frac{1}{|x-y|^{(n / 2-1)}} \quad H_{n / 2-1}^{(1)}(\sqrt{\zeta}|x-y|)
$$

where $H_{n / 2-1}^{(1)}$ is the Hankel function. We want to show that the kernel $q_{1}(x) R_{1}(x, y, \zeta) /(1+|y|)^{\alpha}$ corresponds to a completely continuous operator. We have

$$
R_{1}(x, y, \zeta) \sim \begin{cases}\frac{\text { bounded function }}{|x-y|^{n-2}}, & |x-y| \rightarrow 0, \\ \frac{\text { bounded function }}{|x-y|^{n-1) / 2}}, & |x-y| \rightarrow \infty .\end{cases}
$$

Because of the nature of the local singularity of $R_{1}(x, y, \zeta)$ it does not seem possible to show that the operator $B R_{1}(\zeta) A$ is of Hilbert-Schmidt type. However, by using a Sobolev type argument it is still possible to show that $B R_{1}(\zeta) A$ is completely continuous. (For the details see Kuroda [15].)
3. We can improve the results in the above two examples with respect to the rate of decay at $\infty$ (cf. Kato [13]). Suppose $n \geqq 2$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
|q(x)| \leqq \frac{a}{(1+|x|)^{1+\epsilon}} \quad \text { for } x \in R^{n} \tag{7.0}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\epsilon>0$ and $a$ is a constant. For simplicity we deal with bounded $q$, but the following argument can be modified to allow certain unbounded $q$. We write $q(x)=1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha} \cdot c(x) /(1+|x|)^{\alpha}$ where $\alpha$ $=(1+\epsilon) / 2$ and $c(x)$ is bounded. Then $V=A B=A C A$ where $A$ $=1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha}$ and $C=c(x)$. We shall use the following

Lemma 7.2. Suppose $H_{2}=H_{1}+A C A$ where $H_{1}$ is absolutely continuous, $A$ and $C$ are bounded and selfadjoint, and

1. $A\left(H_{1}-\zeta\right)^{-1} A$ is completely continuous for $\operatorname{Im}(\zeta) \neq 0$.
2. $A E_{1}(\cdot)$ A admits a locally Hölder continuous derivative. Namely, there exists $M: R^{1} \rightarrow B(\not)$ which is locally Hölder continuous in the operator norm such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A E_{1}(I) A=\int_{I} M_{1}(\lambda) d \lambda \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every compact I.
Then the hypotheses of Theorem 7.1 are satisfied with $B=C A$.
Proof. We have

$$
A\left(H_{1}-(\lambda \pm i \epsilon)\right)^{-1} A=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\mu-(\lambda \pm i \epsilon)} M_{1}(\mu) d \mu .
$$

Using Privalov's theorem for vector valued functions, we see that the Hölder continuity of $M_{1}(\lambda)$ implies that the boundary values, $K^{ \pm}(\lambda)$, of the above integral exist as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, and they are Hölder continuous. Hence, we have $A\left\{R_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon)-R_{1}(\lambda-i \epsilon)\right\} A \rightarrow K^{+}(\lambda)-K^{-}(\lambda)$ and $B R_{1}(\lambda \pm i \epsilon) A \rightarrow C K^{ \pm}(\lambda)$ as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, both converging in the operator norm. The complete continuity of $B R_{1}(\zeta) A=C A R_{1}(\zeta) A$ follows from assumption 1 .

Now we apply this lemma.
Theorem 7.3. Suppose $|q(x)| \leqq$ const $(1+|x|)^{-(1+\epsilon)}$. Then the hypotheses of the lemma are satisfied with $A=(1+|x|)^{-(1+\epsilon) / 2}$ and

$$
C=(1+|x|)^{1+\epsilon} q(x)
$$

Proof. We first note that the complete continuity of $A\left(H_{1}-\zeta\right)^{-1} A$ follows easily since $q \rightarrow 0$ as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$. We shall prove condition 2 of Lemma 7.2 in the case $n=3$; the proof is almost the same in the general case. We use spherical coordinates.

$$
H=\sum_{\ell, m} \oplus \mathcal{H}_{\ell m}, \text { where } \ell=0,1, \ldots \text { and } m=0, \pm 1, \ldots, \pm \ell
$$

and $H_{\ell m} \simeq L^{2}(0, \infty)$. If $u \in み$ then $u(x)=\Sigma_{\ell m}(1 /|x|) u_{\ell m}(|x|)$ $\cdot \boldsymbol{Y}_{\ell m}(\omega)$ where $u_{\ell m} \in L^{2}(0, \infty)$ and $Y_{\ell m}$ are the spherical harmonics. We have

$$
\int_{R^{3}}|u(x)|^{2} d x=\sum_{\ell, m} \int_{0}^{\infty}\left|u_{\ell m}(r)\right|^{2} d r
$$

Each $H_{\ell m}$ reduces $H_{1}$, and $H_{1}$ corresponds to $-d^{2} / d r^{2}+\ell(\ell+1) / r^{2}$ in $H_{\ell m} . H_{1}$ in $H_{l m}$ has the generalized eigenfunction

$$
j_{\ell m}(r, \lambda)=\left(\frac{r}{2}\right)^{1 / 2} J_{\ell+1 / 2}\left(\lambda^{1 / 2} r\right) \quad \text { for } \lambda>0
$$

where the $J_{\ell+1 / 2}$ are the Bessel functions.
Let

$$
f_{\ell m}(r, \lambda)=\frac{\text { const }}{(1+r)^{\alpha}} j_{\ell m}(r, \lambda)
$$

$f_{\ell m}(\cdot, \lambda) \in L^{2}(0, \infty)$ since $\alpha>1 / 2$ and $j_{\ell m}(r, \lambda)$ is bounded. Hence, we can define an operator $M_{1, \ell m}(\lambda)$ in $H_{\ell m}$ by

$$
M_{1, \ell m}(\lambda)=f_{\ell m}(\cdot, \lambda) \otimes f_{\ell m}(\cdot, \lambda)
$$

i.e.

$$
\left(M_{1, \ell m}(\lambda) u\right)(r)=\left(u, f_{\ell m}(\cdot, \lambda)\right) f_{\ell m}(r, \lambda)
$$

$M_{1, \ell m}$ is an operator of rank 1 whose range is spanned by $f_{\ell m}(r, \lambda)$. On
the other hand $A\left\{R_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon)-R_{1}(\lambda-i \epsilon)\right\} A$ is reduced by $H_{\ell m}$. Restricting ourselves to $H_{l m}$ and letting $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
A\left\{R_{1}(\lambda+i \epsilon)-R_{1}(\lambda-i \epsilon)\right\} A \rightarrow M_{1, \ell m}(\lambda) \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

at least weakly.
It now suffices to show that for every compact interval $I$,

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left\|M_{1, \ell m}(\lambda)\right\| \leqq c_{l} \quad \text { for } \lambda \in I,  \tag{7.3}\\
\left\|M_{1, \ell m}(\lambda)-M_{1, \ell m}(\mu)\right\| \leqq c_{l}|\lambda-\mu|^{\theta} \quad \text { for } \lambda, \mu \in I, \tag{7.4.}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $c_{1}$ is independent of $\ell$ and $m$. Then by (7.3) we see that $M_{1}(\lambda)=$ $=\Sigma_{\ell, m} \oplus M_{1, \ell m}$ is bounded, and by (7.4) we see that $M_{1}(\lambda)$ is Hölder continuous in the operator norm with exponent $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. (7.1) is an immediate consequence of (7.2). In order to show (7.3) and (7.4) it suffices to show

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left\|f_{l m}(\cdot, \lambda)\right\| \leqq c_{l}  \tag{7.5}\\
\left\|f_{l m}(\cdot, \lambda)-f_{l m}(\cdot, \mu)\right\| \leqq c_{l}|\lambda-\mu|^{\theta} \tag{7.6}
\end{gather*}
$$

for $\lambda, \mu \in I$, where $c_{1}$ is independent of $\ell, m$.
The proof of (7.5) and (7.6) involves a detailed analysis concerning Bessel functions and cannot be given here (see Kuroda [15]). We have not been able to establish the eigenfunction expansion by distorted plane waves $\phi_{2}(x, \zeta)=e^{i \zeta x}+\cdots$ if $|q(x)|=O\left(|x|^{-(1+\epsilon)}\right)$ with $0<\epsilon \leqq 1$. This is because for $0<\epsilon \leqq 1$ the space $X^{*}$ is not big enough to contain bounded functions such as $e^{i \xi \cdot x}$. The eigenfunction expansions in terms of spherical waves will be discussed elsewhere.
We can weaken the assumptions on $q$ so that $q$ may be unbounded. The conclusions remain true if $|q(x)| \leqq q^{*}(|x|)$ where $q^{*}(r) \in L^{2}(0, R)$ and $q^{*}(r) \leqq a / r^{1+\epsilon}$ for $r \geqq R$. For more details see the work of Kato [13].
4. We can make an improvement in the assumptions on $q$ with regard to local singularities. Suppose $n=3$ and $q \in L^{3 / 2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. Then we factor $q=|q(x)|^{1 / 2}\left\{\operatorname{sgn} q(x)|q(x)|^{1 / 2}\right\}$, and an argument similar to the first example can be made based on the fact that

$$
\iint|q(x)| \frac{1}{|x-y|^{2}}|q(y)| d x d y<\infty .
$$

This integral is finite by Sobolev's inequality. This suggests that conclusions similar to those in the previous examples would hold for $q \in L^{3 / 2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. Under this assumption, however, $H_{2}$ cannot be defined in general as $H_{1}+V$. To get the correct definition of $H_{2}$ we use the theory of quadratic forms. Then, a modified form of the previous
argument can be applied. For $n>3$ we have to assume $q \in L^{p}\left(R^{n}\right)$ $\cap L^{q}\left(R^{n}\right), p>n / 2, q<n / 2$. For details see Kato and Kurado [14].
5. We now consider two additional questions concerning the singular spectrum of $H_{2}$. By Theorem 7.1 we know that the singular spectrum of $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ is contained in a closed set of measure 0 . We would like to know

1. Does $H_{2}$ have any singular continuous spectrum?
2. Does $(0, \infty)$ consist only of absolutely continuous spectrum?

Note that question 2 is stronger than question 1 , because under any of the previous assumptions on $q$, the spectrum of $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ is discrete in $(-\infty, 0)$ due to the stability of the essential spectrum under relatively compact perturbations.

A general principle for answering question 2 is to show that $1+Q^{ \pm}(\lambda), \lambda>0$, is not invertible if and only if $-\Delta u+q u=\lambda u$ has a nontrivial solution in a certain class of functions, say $L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$. Then, one uses a theorem of Kato [10] to show that such $u$ does not exist. Kato [13] showed that if $|q(x)| \leqq(1+|x|)^{-(1+\epsilon)}$ with $\epsilon>1 / 4$ then the answer to question 2 is yes. We shall omit the details.
6. We shall consider problems where the perturbation includes second order terms. Let $H_{1}=-\Delta$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(H_{2} u\right)(x)= & \sum_{j, k}\left(i \partial_{j}+b_{j}(x)\right) a_{j k}(x)\left(i \partial_{k}+b_{k}(x)\right) u(x)+c(x) u(x) \\
= & -\Delta u(x)+\sum_{j, k}\left(a_{j k}(x)-\delta_{j k}\right) D_{j} D_{k} u(x) \\
& +\sum_{j} \beta_{j}(x) D_{j} u(x)+\gamma(x) u(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{i} & =i \partial_{j}, \quad \beta_{j}(x)=\sum_{k}\left(D_{k} a_{j k}(x)+2 a_{j k}(x) b_{k}(x)\right), \\
\gamma(x) & =\sum_{j, k}\left(D_{j}\left(a_{j k}(x) b_{k}(x)\right)+a_{j k}(x) b_{j}(x) b_{k}(x)\right)+c(x), \\
V & =\sum_{j, k}\left(a_{j k}-\delta_{j k}\right) D_{j} D_{k}+\sum_{j} \beta_{j} D_{j}+\gamma
\end{aligned}
$$

is considered as the perturbation. In order for the wave operators to exist we should have

$$
\left|a_{j k}(x)-\delta_{j k}\right|, \quad\left|\boldsymbol{\beta}_{j}(x)\right|, \quad|\gamma(x)| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as }|x| \rightarrow \infty
$$

In some sense the $a_{j k}, b_{j}$ and $\gamma$ are assumed to be suitably nice so that $D\left(H_{2}\right)=D\left(H_{1}\right)$. For convenience we assume $\mathcal{H}=L^{2}\left(R^{3}\right)$, but some results mentioned below hold for $R^{n}$.

Case 1. $a_{j k}=\delta_{j k}$. Recently Ushijima [17] treated this case in the
same way that the operator $H_{2}=-\Delta+q$ was handled in 1 and $2 . V$ is factored as $V=A B$ where

$$
A=1 /(1+|x|)^{\alpha} \quad \text { and } \quad B=(1+|x|)^{\alpha} V
$$

$B$ is a first order differential operator. Therefore, if we compute the kernel of $B R_{1}(\zeta) A$ by formal differentiation, its local singularity will be of the type $1 /|x-y|^{2}$. Therefore, there is still room to apply a Sobolevtype argument. To accomplish this one has to assume that the coefficients of $B$ tend to zero sufficiently rapidly. We omit the detailed result.

Case 2. $a_{j k} \neq \delta_{j k}$. If we use the same factorization as in the case where $a_{j k}=\delta_{j k}$ then the operator $B$ will be a second order differential operator and the kernel of $B R_{1}(\zeta) A$ obtained by formal differentiation has the local singularity of the type $1 /|x-y|^{3}$. Thus, the best one can hope is that this is a singular integral operator.

Recently, Ikebe and Toyoshi [9] treated this case by a method based on perturbations of trace class. Because of the high singularity of the kernel of $B R_{1}(\zeta) A$, one cannot hope to prove that $R_{1}(\zeta)-R_{2}(\zeta) \in$ trace class to apply the theorem of Birman et al. mentioned in $\S 3$. However, a generalization of that theorem gives that if $R_{1}(\zeta)^{2}-R_{2}(\zeta)^{2}$ $\in$ trace class, $\operatorname{Im} \zeta \neq 0$, then the same conclusion holds.

Under the assumption that $a_{j k}-\delta_{j k}, \beta_{j}, \gamma$ all belong to $L^{1}\left(R^{3}\right)$ (plus other minor conditions) Ikebe and Toyoshi showed that $R_{1}(\zeta)^{2}$ $-R_{2}(\zeta)^{2} \in$ trace class. In particular, the wave operators exist and are complete under this condition. Using Cook's method they also showed the existence of the wave operators under a weaker assumption. The main assumptions are

$$
\int_{R^{3}}(1+|x|)^{-1+\epsilon}|f(x)|^{2} d x<\infty, f=a_{j k}-\delta_{j k}, \beta_{j}, \text { or } \gamma, \quad \epsilon>0 .
$$

The method developed above also seems to be applicable to this problem if a small modification is made. Although this has not yet been fully investigated, we would like to mention something to indicate a possibility. In the factorization situation a key role was played by the behavior near the real axis of the operator valued function $\tilde{G}(\zeta)=1+B R_{1}(\zeta) A$. If we use the resolvent equation here, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{G}(\zeta) & =1+B R_{1}(i) A+(\zeta-i) B R_{1}(i) R_{1}(\zeta) A \\
& =K\left(1+(\zeta-i) K^{-1} B R_{1}(i) R_{1}(\zeta) A\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $K=1+B R_{1}(i) A . K$ is invertible in $B(\not)$. Therefore, in order to apply Lemma 4.20 to show the invertibility of $\tilde{G}^{+}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ it suffices to establish the complete continuity etc. of $B R_{1}(i) R_{1}(\zeta) A$. Now, we have
a product of the resolvent. Therefore, the local singularity will become weaker and room will be recovered to apply a Sobolev type argument.

Our tentative result is that the wave operators will be complete if, roughly, $\left|a_{j k}(x)-\delta_{j k}\right|=O\left(|x|^{-(2+\epsilon)}\right), \quad|x| \rightarrow \infty, \epsilon>0$, etc. This will be discussed elsewhere.

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References. Most of the material presented in $\S \S 2$ and 3 can be found in the book of T. Kato [12]. References to original papers can be found there. P. A. Rejto and J. S. Howland have also developed stationary methods for gentle or smooth perturbations (see their papers in the following list). Besides these, the following list contains only those papers which were quoted in the notes.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Note added in proof. Here and in the sequel, coefficients $C_{k}$ and $C_{\boldsymbol{\ell}}$ are redundant and may be deleted.

