

1.2. Mathematics Toolbox

Assumed prerequisites:

* Analysis in \mathbb{R}^d , $d \geq 1$.

* Topology in metric spaces:

open sets, closed sets and closure,
dense sets, compact sets, neighbourhood

Continuity: Let X, X' be metric spaces with metrics d, d' .

$f: X \rightarrow X'$ is continuous if and only if $\forall \varepsilon > 0, x \in X \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. (such that)
 $d(x, y) < \delta \Rightarrow d'(f(x), f(y)) < \varepsilon$.

Completeness: Every Cauchy sequence converges.

* Linear algebra:

vector space, linear mappings, subspaces. In \mathbb{R}^d : matrices.

* Basic measure theory:

Positive measures, Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}^d , (L^p -spaces)

Recap of basic results, for proofs see for instance: Rudin, Real and complex analysis.

a) Dominated convergence theorem:

Let μ be positive measure on X .

Suppose $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of measurable functions, $f_n: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, s.t. for almost every (a.e.) $x \in X$
 $f_n(x) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ exists.

If $\exists g: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$, measurable

s.t. $\int_{\mathbb{X}} \mu(dx) g(x) < \infty$ and

$$|f_n(x)| \leq g(x) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in \mathbb{X}$$

then the limit function f is measurable,
 $\int_{\mathbb{X}} \mu(dx) |f(x)| < \infty$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} d\mu f_n = \int_{\mathbb{X}} d\mu f.$$

b) Hölder's inequality: Let $1 < p < \infty$,
 and define $q = (1 - \frac{1}{p})^{-1}$. Let μ be
 a positive measure on \mathbb{X} .

Then for all $f, g: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ measurable

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} \mu(dx) f(x) g(x) \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$$

where $\|f\|_p := \left[\int_{\mathbb{X}} \mu(dx) |f(x)|^p \right]^{1/p} \in [0, \infty]$.

Note: usually applied to $F, G: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
 with $f = |F|$, $g = |G|$ to estimate
 $\left| \int_{\mathbb{X}} \mu(dx) F(x) G(x) \right| \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} d\mu f g.$

c) Suppose $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ and μ is a positive measure
 on \mathbb{X} . Then $\|f\|_p$ defines a norm on
 $L^p(\mu)$ which makes it into a complete
 normed space. In addition,

a) If $f_n \rightarrow f$ in norm, then \exists subseq.
 $(n_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_{n_k}(x) = f(x)$
 for a.e. $x \in \mathbb{X}$.

d) If $1 \leq p < \infty$, $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$, $\mu = \text{Lebesgue}$, then
 $C_c(\mathbb{R}^d) = \{ f: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ continuous and } \text{supp } f \text{ compact} \}$
 is dense in $L^p(\mu) \equiv L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

e) Fubini's Theorem:

Let μ, ν be positive measures on $\underline{X}, \underline{Y}$, respectively. Assume that $\underline{X}, \underline{Y}$ are σ -finite: $\exists (\underline{X}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, (\underline{Y}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ s.t. $\mu(\underline{X}_n), \nu(\underline{Y}_n) < \infty \forall n$ and $\underline{X} = \bigcup_n \underline{X}_n, \underline{Y} = \bigcup_n \underline{Y}_n$.

- If $F: \underline{X} \times \underline{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is measurable (with respect to $\mu \times \nu$) and

$$\int_{\underline{X}} \mu(dx) \left[\int_{\underline{Y}} \nu(dy) |F(x,y)| \right] < \infty \quad (*)$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\underline{X}} \mu(dx) \left[\int_{\underline{Y}} \nu(dy) F(x,y) \right] \\ &= \int_{\underline{Y}} \nu(dy) \left[\int_{\underline{X}} \mu(dx) F(x,y) \right]. \quad (**) \end{aligned}$$

- If $F: \underline{X} \times \underline{Y} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ is measurable, $(**)$ holds also if $(*)$ is not true, in the sense that both iterated integrals are infinite.

Remarks: - Lebesgue measures μ_d on \mathbb{R}^d are σ -finite, and

- $\mu_{d_1+d_2} = \mu_{d_1} \times \mu_{d_2}$ (more precisely, need to add some sets of measure 0.)
- Any function $F: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, which is a.e. a pointwise limit of a sequence of continuous functions, is Lebesgue measurable.

* If any of the above concepts or results sounds unfamiliar, look them up in Wikipedia or in a textbook (Rudin).

2. Hilbert spaces

2.1. Definition

\mathcal{H} is called a Hilbert space if it satisfies all of the following:

* \mathcal{H} is a complex vector space.

* \mathcal{H} has a scalar product:

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \text{ s.t.}$$

$$a) (\phi, \psi)^* = (\psi, \phi)$$

$$b) (\phi, \psi_1 + \psi_2) = (\phi, \psi_1) + (\phi, \psi_2)$$

$$c) (\phi, \alpha\psi) = \alpha(\phi, \psi) \\ \forall \phi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}, \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$$

$$d) (\psi, \psi) \geq 0 \quad \forall \psi \in \mathcal{H}.$$

$$e) (\psi, \psi) = 0 \Rightarrow \psi = 0.$$

* \mathcal{H} is complete in the norm-topology given by

$$(N) \quad \|\psi\| := \sqrt{(\psi, \psi)} \quad \forall \psi \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Notes: • a) + b) + c) imply that (\cdot, \cdot) is sesquilinear: it is linear in the second argument and conjugate-linear in the first argument.

2.2. Diversion: Norm and norm-topology.

Let V be a vector space. $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a norm if

$$a) \|\psi\| \geq 0 \quad \forall \psi \in V$$

$$b) \|\psi\| = 0 \Rightarrow \psi = 0.$$

$$c) \|\alpha\psi\| = |\alpha| \|\psi\| \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{K}, \psi \in V$$

$$d) \|\psi + \phi\| \leq \|\psi\| + \|\phi\| \quad \forall \psi, \phi \in V.$$

Norm-topology is the topology defined using the metric

$$d(\psi, \phi) := \|\psi - \phi\|.$$

Continuity: Let \bar{X}, \bar{Y} be normed spaces.
Then $F: \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{Y}$ is continuous iff

$$\forall \psi \in \bar{X}, \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t.} \\ \|\phi - \psi\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|F(\phi) - F(\psi)\| < \varepsilon.$$

* If V is complete in the norm-metric, it is called a Banach space.

* Theorem a) - e) \Rightarrow $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on \mathcal{X} .

Pf. d) \Rightarrow $\|\psi\| \geq 0$ & e) \Rightarrow $\|\psi\| = 0$ only if $\psi = 0$,
 $\|\alpha\psi\|^2 = (\alpha\psi, \alpha\psi) = \alpha^* \alpha (\psi, \psi) = |\alpha|^2 \|\psi\|^2$.
The triangle inequality is proven in Th. 2.3. \square

* The set of bounded linear transformations of a normed space V is defined as

$$\mathcal{B}(V) := \{ \Lambda: V \rightarrow V \mid \Lambda \text{ linear and } \|\Lambda\| < \infty \}$$

$$\text{where } \|\Lambda\| := \sup \{ \|\Lambda\psi\| \mid \psi \in V, \|\psi\| = 1 \}.$$

- $\Lambda: V \rightarrow V$ linear is called bounded whenever $\|\Lambda\| < \infty$.

- $\mathcal{B}(V)$ is also a normed space with the above norm $\|\cdot\|$.

2.3. Theorem Assume a) - e). Then

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

- (i) $|(\phi, \psi)| \leq \|\phi\| \|\psi\|$ (Cauchy-Schwarz)
- (ii) $\|\phi + \psi\| \leq \|\phi\| + \|\psi\|$
- (iii) $\|\psi\| \leq \|\psi + \lambda\phi\| \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$
 $\Leftrightarrow (\phi, \psi) = 0$.

Proof: Let $\alpha = (\psi, \phi) \in \mathbb{C}$. Then $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$

$$(*) \left\{ \begin{aligned} 0 &\leq \|\psi + \lambda\phi\|^2 = (\psi + \lambda\phi, \psi + \lambda\phi) \\ &= (\psi, \psi) + (\lambda\phi, \psi) + (\psi, \lambda\phi) + (\lambda\phi, \lambda\phi) \\ &= \|\psi\|^2 + |\lambda|^2 \|\phi\|^2 + \lambda(\psi, \phi) + \lambda^* (\psi, \phi)^* \\ &= \|\psi\|^2 + |\lambda|^2 \|\phi\|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}(\lambda\alpha) \end{aligned} \right.$$

If $\phi = 0 \Rightarrow (\psi, \phi) = 0 \quad \forall \psi \in \mathcal{X} \quad (c)$

$\Rightarrow \|\phi\|^2 = (\phi, \phi) = 0 \Rightarrow (i)$ holds.

If $\phi \neq 0$, choose $\lambda = -\frac{\alpha^*}{\|\phi\|^2}$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq \|\psi\|^2 + \frac{|\alpha|^2}{\|\phi\|^4} \|\phi\|^2 - 2 \frac{|\alpha|^2}{\|\phi\|^2}$$

$$= \|\psi\|^2 - \frac{|\alpha|^2}{\|\phi\|^2} \Rightarrow |\alpha|^2 \leq \|\psi\|^2 \|\phi\|^2$$

$\Rightarrow (i)$ holds.

Thus (i) has been proven. \Rightarrow

$$(\|\phi\| + \|\psi\|)^2 = \|\phi\|^2 + \|\psi\|^2 + 2\|\phi\|\|\psi\|$$

$$\stackrel{(i)}{\geq} \|\phi\|^2 + \|\psi\|^2 + 2|(\phi, \psi)|$$

But $\|\phi + \psi\|^2 = (\phi + \psi, \phi + \psi)$

$$= \|\psi\|^2 + \|\phi\|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}(\psi, \phi)$$

$$\leq \|\psi\|^2 + \|\phi\|^2 + 2|\operatorname{Re}(\psi, \phi)|$$

$$\leq \|\psi\|^2 + \|\phi\|^2 + 2|(\psi, \phi)|$$

Thus (ii) holds, as well.

To prove (iii), note that if $\alpha = 0 \Rightarrow$ (by $(*)$)

$$\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C}: \|\psi + \lambda\phi\|^2 = \|\psi\|^2 + |\lambda|^2 \|\phi\|^2$$

$$\geq \|\psi\|^2 \Rightarrow (iii) \text{ holds.}$$

If $\alpha \neq 0 \Rightarrow \phi \neq 0$ and thus by (i) and $(*)$

$$\|\psi + \lambda\phi\|^2 = \|\psi\|^2 - \frac{|\alpha|^2}{\|\phi\|^2} < \|\psi\|^2, \text{ for } \lambda = -\frac{\alpha^*}{\|\phi\|^2}.$$

$\Rightarrow (iii)$ does not hold. \square

2.4. Definitions : * From now on \mathcal{X} denotes a Hilbert space.

* $\psi, \phi \in \mathcal{X}$ are orthogonal; denoted $\psi \perp \phi$, iff. $(\psi, \phi) = 0$.

* If $E \subset \mathcal{X}$ any set, its orthogonal complement is defined as

$$E^\perp = \{ \psi \in \mathcal{X} \mid (\phi, \psi) = 0 \quad \forall \phi \in E \}$$