

0.1 Def: Tensor

Let M and N be two R -modules. Then exists an R -module denoted by $M \otimes_R N$ and a bilinear mapping

$$t : M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes_R N$$

having the following properties:

- (1) For any R -module P and any bilinear mapping $s : M \times N \rightarrow P$. There exists a unique linear mapping $f_s : M \otimes_R N \rightarrow P$ such that $s = f_s \circ t$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M \times N & \xrightarrow{s} & P \\ \downarrow t & \nearrow f_s & \\ M \otimes_R N & & \end{array}$$

- (2) If T, t' is another couple that satisfies (1) with $s \mapsto g_s$ then there exists a unique isomorphism

$$T \cong M \otimes_R N$$

Let \mathcal{F} be the free R -module generated by $M \times N$

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ \sum_{finite} a_{ij}(m_i, n_i) : a_{ij} \in R, m_i \in M, n_i \in N \right\}$$

let \mathcal{G} be the R -submodule generated by the elements of the following shape
 $m, m' \in M \quad n, n' \in N \quad \mathfrak{z} \in R$

$$\begin{aligned} &(m + m', n) - (m, n) - (m', n) \\ &(m, n + n') - (m, n) - (m, n') \\ &(\mathfrak{z}m, n) - \mathfrak{z}(m, n) \\ &(m, \mathfrak{z}n) - \mathfrak{z}(m, n) \end{aligned}$$

$$M \otimes_R N := \mathcal{F} / \mathcal{G}$$

0.2 Def

$$f_s(\mathcal{G} + (m, n)) := s(m, n)$$

Extend this mapping to linearity. This makes the diagram commutative. It's clearly the unique mapping

0.3 Def

The R -module $M \otimes_R N$ constructed above is called the tensor product of M and N . An element of $M \otimes_R N$ is called tensor. We denote

$$t(m, n) := m \otimes n$$

and any elements of this form is called pure tensor.

0.4 Remark

Pure tensors generate $M \otimes_R N$. In particular any tensor can be written as sum of pure tensors.

0.5 tensor product and duality

0.5.1 product

Let V_1, \dots, V_n be vector spaces as above. Then

$$(V_1^\vee \otimes \dots \otimes V_n^\vee) \cong (V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_n)^\vee$$

0.5.2 duality

Let V and W be vector spaces of finite dimension. Then

$$\mathcal{L}(V, W) \cong V^\vee \otimes W^\vee$$

0.6 Def

We want to define the tensor product of linear mappings. let M_1, M_2, N_1, N_2 be R -modules and let $f_i : M_i \rightarrow N_i$ be linear mappings. Then we define

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 \otimes f_2 : M_1 \otimes M_2 &\rightarrow N_1 \otimes N_2 \\ m_1 \otimes m_2 &\mapsto f_1(m_1) \otimes f_2(m_2) \end{aligned}$$

This is a linear mapping

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M_1 \times M_2 & \xrightarrow{f_1 \times f_2} & N_1 \times N_2 \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ M_1 \otimes M_2 & \xrightarrow{f_1 \otimes f_2} & N_1 \otimes N_2 \end{array}$$

0.7 Extension of scalars

Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ be a commutative unitary ring homomorphism. Let M be a R -module. Goal is to give to M also a structure of S -module "conveyed by φ "

Note that S has a structure of R -module $s \in S, r \in R$

$$rs := \varphi(r)s$$

Now take the tensor product $M \otimes_R S$. Now we give a structure of S -module to $M \otimes_R S$.

Take $s \in S$

$$s(\underbrace{m \otimes s'}_{\in M \otimes_R S}) := m \otimes ss'$$

note that ss' is a multi in S and we cannot product sm .

Notice we've a mapping

$$\begin{aligned} i : M &\rightarrow M \otimes_R S \\ m &\mapsto m \otimes s \end{aligned}$$

Be careful, in general the mapping i is NOT injective.

0.8 Prop

Let $K \subseteq L$ be a field extension and let V be a K -vector space. Moreover let's denote $V_L = V \otimes_K L$. If $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is a basis of V then $\{e_i \otimes 1\}_{i=1}^n$ is a L -basis of V_L . (V_L has the same dim of V)

0.9 Def

We denote

$$\begin{aligned} T_p^q &:= (V^\vee)^{\otimes p} \otimes V^{\otimes q} \quad p, q \in \mathbb{N} \\ &= \underbrace{V^\vee \otimes \cdots \otimes V^\vee}_{p \text{ times}} \otimes \underbrace{V \otimes \cdots \otimes V}_{q \text{ times}} \end{aligned}$$

An element of $T_p^q(V)$ is called a tensor of type (p, q) (or a mixed tensor which is p -covariant and q -contravariant)

Let's denote:

$$T(V) := \bigoplus_{q \in \mathbb{N}} T_0^q(V)$$

On $T(V)$ we have following operation:

$$\begin{aligned} T_0^l(V) \times T_0^q(V) &\rightarrow T_0^{l+q}(V) \\ ((x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_l), (y_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes y_q)) &\mapsto x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_l \otimes y_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes y_q \end{aligned}$$

With this operation $T(V)$ becomes a K -algebra. It called the tensor algebra associated to V

0.10 Def

The quotient algebra

$$\bigwedge(V) := T(V) / \left\{ \sum_{i \text{ (finite)}} (y_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes y_{m_i}) \otimes (x_i \otimes x_i) \otimes (z_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes z_{n_i}) \right\}$$

is a K-algebra, which called the exterior algebra of V

$$\begin{aligned} \pi : T(V) &\rightarrow \bigwedge(V) \\ x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_n &\mapsto x_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_n \end{aligned}$$

0.11 Notation

$$\bigwedge(V) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \bigwedge^n(V)$$

$$\bigwedge^n(V) := T_0^n(V) / (W \cap T_0^n(V))$$

this is called n -fold exterior product

0.12 Prop

Fix a vct space V. For any alternating multi-linear mapping

$$s : \underbrace{V \times \cdots \times V}_{n \text{ times}} \rightarrow W$$

when W is another vct space, there exists a unique linear mapping

$$g_s : \bigwedge^n(V) \rightarrow W$$

such that the following diagram commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V^n & \xrightarrow{s} & W \\ \downarrow t & \nearrow f_s & \\ T_0^n(V) & & \\ \downarrow & \nearrow g_s & \\ \bigwedge^n(V) & & \end{array}$$

0.13 Prop

Let V be a vct space of dimension n with a basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$. Then $\bigwedge^k(V)$ is a vct space with a basis given by

$$\mathcal{B} = \{e_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge e_{i_k} \mid 1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq n\}$$

In particular, $\bigwedge^k(V)$ has dimension $\binom{n}{k}$

0.14 Def

Let V be a vct space of dimension n , then

$$\det(V) = \bigwedge^n(V)$$

is called the determinant of V . It is a vct space of dimension $1 = \binom{n}{n}$ and a basis is given by

$$e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n$$

when $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is a basis of V .

0.15 Def

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\tilde{f}} = \bigwedge^k f : \bigwedge^k(V) &\rightarrow \bigwedge^k(V) \\ v_1 \wedge \dots \wedge v_k &\mapsto f(v_1) \wedge \dots \wedge f(v_k) \end{aligned}$$

0.16 Def

Let $F : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear mapping. A subspace $V_0 \subseteq V$ is said to be an invariant subspace of F if $F(V_0) \subseteq V_0$

0.17 Def

A linear mapping $f : V \rightarrow V$ (finite dim) is diagonalizable if the following equivalent conditions are satisfied

- 1 V decomposes as a direct sum of one-dimensional invariant subspace of f
- 2 There exists a basis of V , in which the matrix A_f is diagonal.

0.18 Def

V a vector space over K $\dim(V) = n$, $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$ let A_f be an associated matrix (in any basis) the mapping

$$\begin{aligned} P : K &\rightarrow K \\ t &\mapsto \det(tI_n - A_f) \end{aligned}$$

This is a polynomial in $K[t]$ (with degree n)

0.19 Def

Let $a_0 + a_1t + \cdots + a_nt^n = Q(t) \in K[t]$, then for $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$ we define

$$Q(f) := a_0id_V + a_1f + a_2f^{\circ 2} + \cdots + a_nf^{\circ n}$$

Remark From now on we write

$$f^{\circ k} = f^k$$

these are operations in $\mathcal{L}(V; V)$, $+$, \circ

we say that Q annihilates f if $Q(f) = 0$

0.20 Prop

Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$. There exists a polynomial $Q \in K[t] \setminus \{0\}$ that annihilates f (i.e. $Q(f) = 0$)

Remark

The proof of this proposition also gives the degree of a polynomial that annihilates ($\leq n^2$)

0.21 Def

Let $m(t) \in K[t] \setminus \{0\}$ be a monic polynomial of minimal degree that annihilates $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$. Then $m(t)$ is called minimal polynomial of f And by prop above (0.20), $m(t)$ exists.

0.22 Prop

If $m(t)$ is minimal polynomial of f , then $m(t)$ is unique.

0.23 Prop

Let $Q \in K[t] \setminus \{0\}$ be a polynomial that annihilates f . Then $m_f \mid Q$

0.24 Theorem: Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

The characteristic polynomial P_f annihilates f

0.25 Theorem

Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$ when V is a vector space of dim n , over an algebraically closed field.

Then

- (1) f can be represented by a Jordan matrix
- (2) This above matrix is unique up to permutation of the Jordan blocks

0.26 Def

Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$ and let $\lambda \in K$. A vector $w \in V \setminus \{0\}$ is called a root vector of f corresponding to λ , if there exists $\tau \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$(f - \lambda id_V)^\tau(w) = 0$$

Remark

Eigenvectors are root vectors (corresponding to their eigenvalues) take $\tau = 1$

Remark

Let $J_\tau(\lambda)$ be a Jordan block. Then any $\sigma \in V$ is a root vector of f corresponding to λ . In fact:

$$(J_\tau(\lambda) - \lambda I_n)^m = 0 \quad \text{if } m \geq \tau$$

0.27 Prop

Let K be an algebraically closed field. Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ be all of distinct eigenvalues of f ($k \geq 1$), then

$$V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k V(\lambda_i)$$

0.28 Def

Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$. Then f is said to be nilpotent if there exists $t \in \mathbb{N}$ that $f^t = 0$

0.29 Lemma

Let f be a nilpotent mapping, then $\text{Ker}(f) \neq \{0\}$

Proof

Let τ be the minimal integer s.t. $f^\tau = 0$ then

$$f^{\tau-1}(V) \subseteq \text{Ker}(f)$$

but $f^{\tau-1}(V) \neq \{0\}$ because of the minimality of τ

0.30 Theorem

Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(V; V)$ be a nilpotent mapping, then there exists a Jordan basis for f that gives a Jordan matrix made of blocks of the type $J_\tau(0)$

0.31 Theorem

Let K be an algebraically closed field. Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then f admits a Jordan basis (namely there exists a basis s.t. A_f is a Jordan matrix).

0.32 Def

Let λ be an eigenvalue of $f \in \mathcal{L}(V)$

$$E(\lambda) := \ker(f - \lambda Id)$$

This $E(\lambda)$ is called the eigenspace of λ

$$\text{mult}(\lambda)_{geo} = \dim(E(\lambda))$$

is called the geometric multiplicity of λ

Moreover

$$\text{mult}(\lambda)_{alg} = \max \{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid (t - \lambda)^k \mid P_f(t)\}$$

is called the algebraic multiplicity of λ

0.33 Prop

Let K be algebraically closed. Then $\forall \lambda$ eigenvalues of f

$$\text{mult}(\lambda)_{geo} \leq \text{mult}(\lambda)_{alg}$$

0.34 Corollary

Let K be an algebraically closed field. Let $f \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. f is diagonalizable iff

$$\forall \lambda_i \quad \text{mult}(\lambda_i)_{geo} = \text{mult}(\lambda_i)_{alg}$$

0.35 Def

Two matrices $G, G' \in M_{n \times n}(K)$ are said conjugate if $\exists A \in \mathcal{Q}_{n \times n}(K)$ s.t.
 $G = G'^T$

0.36 Def

Let $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be a fixed point

$$\mathbb{R}_p^n := \{p\} \times \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$(p, a) \in \mathbb{R}_p^n, a \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$(p, a) + (p, b) = (p, a + b)$$

$$\alpha(p, a) = (p, \alpha a) \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$

With these operation \mathbb{R}_p^n is a vector space, which is called the tangent space of \mathbb{R}^n at p .

The dual space is

$$(\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee = \{p\} \times (\mathbb{R}^n)^\vee$$

A basis of \mathbb{R}_p^n is denoted by

$$(e_1|_p, \dots, e_n|_p)$$

$\bigsqcup_p \mathbb{R}_p^n$ is called the tangent bundle of \mathbb{R}^n

0.36.1 Notation

$$a|_p := (p, a)$$

0.37 Def

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$$(p, a) \in \mathbb{R}_p^n, a \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

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$\bigsqcup_p \mathbb{R}_p^n$ is called the tangent bundle of \mathbb{R}^n

We have a projection mapping:

$$\begin{aligned} \bigsqcup_p \mathbb{R}_p^n &\xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{R}^n \\ (p, a) &\mapsto p \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n &\cong \bigsqcup_p \mathbb{R}_p^n \\ (p, a) &\mapsto (p, a) \end{aligned}$$

Take $\{e_1|_p, \dots, e_n|_p\}$ as a basis of \mathbb{R}_p^n . The dual basis is denoted by

$$\{dx_1|_p, \dots, dx_n|_p\} = \{(e_1|_p)^\vee, \dots, (e_n|_p)^\vee\} \in (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee$$

$$\begin{aligned} dx_i|_p : \mathbb{R}_p^n &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ v = (\sum \alpha_i e_i|_p) &\mapsto \alpha_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_j} = dx_i|_p(e_j|_p) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Recalled the wedge algebra:

$$\bigwedge (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee := T(\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee / I = \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \bigwedge^k (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee$$

Consider

$$\bigwedge^k (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee$$

what's a basis of this vector space?

$$\{dx_{i_1}|_p \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}|_p \mid 1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq n\}$$

and

$$\dim(\bigwedge^k (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee) = \binom{n}{k}$$

Proved.

0.38 Do Carmo Differential forms

0.39 Def

An exterior k -form in \mathbb{R}^n is a mapping:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega : \mathbb{R}^n &\rightarrow \bigsqcup_p \bigwedge^k (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee \\ p &\mapsto \omega(p) \end{aligned}$$

that's a section of the projection π

$$(\pi \circ \omega = id_{\mathbb{R}}) = (\omega(p) \in \bigwedge^k (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee)$$

$$\omega(p) = \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq n} a_{i_1, \dots, i_k}(p) dx_{i_1} \big|_p \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k} \big|_p \in \bigwedge^k (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \bigsqcup_p \bigwedge^k (\mathbb{R}_p^n)^\vee &\xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{R}^n \\ f \big|_p &\mapsto p \\ \omega &\leftrightarrow \{a_{i_1}, \dots, a_{i_k}\} \end{aligned}$$

if all a_{i_j} are of class $C^m(\mathbb{R})$ the ω is called a C^m -differential k -form. If $m = +\infty$ *omega* is called a smooth k -form.

0.40 Notation

$$\omega = \sum_I a_I dx_I$$

where $I = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$

0.41 Notation

When $k = 0$ a 0-form of class C^m -differential 0-form is $f \in C^m(\mathbb{R}^n)$

$$C^m(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ of class } C^m\}$$

0.42 Notation

$$\Omega_{(m)}^k(\mathbb{R}^n) := \{\text{set of } C^m\text{-diff } k\text{-forms}\}$$

$$\Omega_{(m)}^0(\mathbb{R}^n) = C^m(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

m could be omitted if no confusion.

0.43 Def

Now we have

$$\Omega(\mathbb{R}^n) = \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \Omega^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

a \mathbb{R} -algebra with the \wedge -product

And it's also a $\Omega^0(\mathbb{R}^n)$ module and $\Omega^0(\mathbb{R}^n)$ -algebra

0.44 Def: Pullback of forms

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a mapping of C^∞ , then it induces a mapping

$$f^* : \Omega_{(x)}^k(\mathbb{R}^m) \rightarrow \Omega_{(x)}^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\omega \mapsto f^*\omega$$

and

$$f^*(\omega)(p)(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \omega(f(p))(df|_p(v_1), \dots, df|_p(v_k))$$

recalling

$$df|_p : \mathbb{R}_p^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{f(p)}^m \Rightarrow df|_p(v_i) \in \mathbb{R}_{f(p)}^m$$

0.45 Remark

$$f \in \Omega^0(\mathbb{R}^n), \omega \in \Omega^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$f \wedge \omega = f\omega$$

0.46 Prop

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable mapping. Then

(1) for any two forms in \mathbb{R}^m

$$f^*(\omega \wedge \eta) = (f^*\omega) \wedge (f^*\eta)$$

(2) for $g : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ differentiable

$$(f \circ g)^*\omega = g^*(f^*\omega)$$

0.47 Def: Path integral

Let γ and ω be as above.

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega := \sum_i \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \gamma_j^* \omega$$

this is the integral of ω along the parametric curve γ with

$$\gamma = t \mapsto (x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t))$$

where $x_i(t) = \frac{dx_i}{dt}$

0.48 Def(σ -finite)

Let (X, Σ_X, μ) be a measure space. WE say that it's σ -finite if there exists a sequence $\{E_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of measurable sets. (namely $E_n \in \Sigma_X$) such that

$$X = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \text{ and } \mu(E_n) < +\infty, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

0.49 Notation

Take sets $A \subseteq X \times Y$ For $x \in X$, we define

$$A_x := \{u \in Y \mid (x, u) \in A\}$$

called a **vertical section** of A or x -fiber of A

For $y \in Y$ we define

$$A_y := \{x \in X \mid (x, y) \in A\}$$

called a **horizontal section** of A , or y -fiber of A

0.50 Def

Let X be a set. then $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \wp(X)$ is a **Dynkin system** if

- $X \in \mathcal{D}$ and $\emptyset \in \mathcal{D}$
- $\forall D \in \mathcal{D} \quad X \setminus D \in \mathcal{D}$
- If $\{D_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence in \mathcal{D} of pairwise disjoint sets, then

$$\bigsqcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} D_n \in \mathcal{D}$$

Remark

A σ -algebra is a Dynkin system

0.51 Def

Let $(\mathcal{G} \subseteq \wp(X))$ then $\delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \wp(X)$ is called the Dynkin system generated by \mathcal{G} if

- $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \delta(\mathcal{G})$
- If \mathcal{D} is a Dynkin system containing \mathcal{G} , then $\delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \mathcal{D}$

0.52 Prop

If \mathcal{D} is a Dynkin system closed under the intersection, then it's a σ -algebra, namely

$$\forall (D, E) \in \mathcal{D}^2, D \cap E \in \mathcal{D} \Rightarrow \forall \{D_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{D}^{\mathbb{N}} \quad \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} D_n \in \mathcal{D}$$

0.53 Prop

Let X be a set and let $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \wp(X)$. Assume that \mathcal{G} is closed under the finite intersection. Then

$$\delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{G})$$

0.54 Theorem

Let (X, Σ_X, μ) and (Y, Σ_Y, ν) be σ -finite measure spaces. Then $\forall E \in \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y$, the functions

$$\begin{aligned} f_E : X &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\} \\ x &\mapsto \nu(E_x) \\ g_E : Y &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\} \\ y &\mapsto \mu(E_y) \end{aligned}$$

are respectively Σ_X -measurable and Σ_Y -measurable

0.55 Theorem

Let (X, Σ_X, μ) and (Y, Σ_Y, ν) be σ -finite measure spaces. There exists a unique σ -finite measure $\mu \times \nu$ on $(X \times Y, \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y)$ such that

$$\mu \times \nu(S_1 \times S_2) = \mu(S_1)\nu(S_2) \quad \forall (S_1, S_2) \in \Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y$$

and moreover, we have

$$(\mu \times \nu)(E) = \int_X f_E d\mu = \int_Y g_E d\nu$$

0.56 Def: Push-forward measure

Let (X, Σ_X, μ) be a measure space, and let (Y, Σ_Y) be a measurable space. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a measurable function, then define:

$$f_*\mu(E) = \mu(f^{-1}(E)) \quad \forall E \in \Sigma_Y$$

This is a measure on Y , called the push forward of μ through f

0.57 Fubini-Tobelli Theorem

Let (X, Σ_X, μ) and (Y, Σ_Y, ν) be two σ -finite measure spaces. Let $(X \times Y, \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y, \mu \times \nu)$ be the product space. Let $f : X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, +\infty\}$ be a measurable function. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{X \times Y} |f| d(\mu \times \nu) &= \int_X \left(\int_Y |f(x, y)| d\nu(y) \right) d\mu(x) \\ &= \int_Y \left(\int_X |f(x, y)| d\mu(x) \right) d\nu(y) \end{aligned}$$

0.58 Notation

For any mapping $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow U$

- γ is called a closed curve if $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$ and γ is a curve
- γ is called a path if γ is of class C^0
- γ is called a loop if γ is a closed path

0.59 Def: Lebesgue number

Let (X, ρ) be a metric space and $\mathcal{U} = \{U_i\}$ be an open covering X

A **Lebesgue number** $\delta = \delta_{\mathcal{U}}$ (of the open covering \mathcal{U}) is a non-negative number that:

If $Z \subseteq X$ is a subset with $\text{diam}(Z) < \delta$, then $Z \subseteq U_j$ for some $U_j \in \mathcal{U}$

Remark

- $\delta' < \delta$ is also a Lebesgue number
- In principle, a Lebesgue number δ can be 0

0.60 Lemma

If X is compact, then for any open covering there exists a positive Lebesgue number.

0.61 Theorem(homotopy invariance of the integrals)

Let ω be a closed form on an open set U . Let γ_0, γ_1 be homotopy paths in U , then

$$\int_{\gamma_0} \omega = \int_{\gamma_1} \omega$$

0.62 Def: Free Homotopy

Let $\gamma_0, \gamma_1 : [a, b] \rightarrow U$ be two loops (namely $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$)

A **free homotopy** between γ_0 and γ_1 is a continuous mapping:

$$\begin{aligned} H : [a, b] \times [0, 1] &\rightarrow U \\ (s, t) &\mapsto H(s, t) \end{aligned}$$

such that

•

$$H(\cdot, 0) = \gamma_0 \quad H(\cdot, 1) = \gamma_1$$

• For any fixed t_0

$$H(\cdot, t_0)$$

is a loop

0.63 Notation

A path $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow I$ is said simple if $\gamma|_{]a, b[}$ is injective (No self-cross this is)

0.64 Jordan Theorem

Let γ be a simple loop $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow U$, then $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \gamma([a, b])$ consists exactly of two connected components. One of this is bounded (interior), the other one unbounded (exterior). Moreover $\gamma([a, b])$ is the boundary of two components.

0.65 Def

Let $c : [a, b] \rightarrow S^1$ be a closed curve. Let φ be the angular function of c . We define the winding number of c as:

$$n(c) = \frac{1}{2\pi}(\varphi(b) - \varphi(a))$$

Since c is a closed curve, $n(c) \in \mathbb{Z}$

0.66 Def

Let $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p\}$ be a closed curve. $(\gamma_p + \rho(t)c(t))$, when $c(t) \in S^1$

$$\gamma(t) = p + \rho(t)(\cos(\theta(t)) + \sin(\theta(t)))$$

Then we define the winding number of γ at p

$$n_p(\gamma) := n(c)$$

0.67 Prop

Let $\gamma = p + \rho(t)c(t)$ be a closed curve $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p\}$ then

$$n_p(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \omega_0$$

where

$$\omega_0 = -\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}dx + \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}dy$$

0.68 Prop

Let $\gamma_0, \gamma_1 : [0, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p\}$ be two closed curves. Then they're freely homotopic iff

$$n_p(\gamma_0) = n_p(\gamma_1)$$

0.69 Def

Let $F : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be a differential mapping. We say that $p \in U$ is a zero of F if $F(p) = 0$. If then exists a neighborhood V of p such that V contains no zero of F other than p , then p is called isolated zero.

If p is a zero of F and $dF|_p$ is non singular at p , then we say that p is a simple zero.

0.70 Def

The index of F in D , is defined as

$$n(F, D) := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C \theta$$

See that $\theta = F^* \omega_0$, $\omega_0 = \frac{-ydx + xdy}{x^2 + y^2}$

$$\begin{aligned} n(F, D) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C \theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C F^* \omega_0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{F \circ C} \omega_0 \\ &= (\text{winding number of } F \circ C \text{ at the center of } FD) \end{aligned}$$

0.71 Remark

$$n(F, D) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C \theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{F \circ C} \omega_0$$

0.72 Prop

If $n(F, D) \neq 0$ then $\exists q \in D$ s.t. $F(q) = 0$

0.73 Def

A simple zero p of F is said **positive** if $\det(d_p F) > 0$, otherwise is said **negative** (what's =0?)

0.74 Kronecker Index Theorem

Assume that $F; U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ has only finite simple zeros in a disk $D \subseteq U$ and none of them in ∂D . Then

$$n(F, D) = P - N$$

where P is the number of positive simple zeros and N is the number of negative simple zeros.

0.75 Def

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{t = t_a, t_1, \dots, t_n = b\}$, $p_i = \gamma(t_i)$

$$l_{\mathcal{P}}(\gamma) = \sum_{i=0}^n \|p_{i+1} - p_i\|$$

The length of γ is

$$l(\gamma) := \sup_p \{l_p(\gamma)\}$$

If $l(\gamma) < +\infty$, then path γ is said rectifiable.

0.76 Prop

Let $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be of class C^1 , then γ is rectifiable and

$$l(\gamma) = \int_a^b \|\gamma'(t)\| dt$$

moreover $l(\gamma)$ doesn't depend on the parametrization of γ

0.77 Corollary(exercise)

If γ is a curve (piecewise C^1), then γ is rectifiable and the length is the sum of the length of it's C^1 pieces.

0.78 Def

A C^1 -curve is **regular** if $\gamma'(t) \neq 0$ for any $t \in [a, b]$ A piecewise C^1 -path (curve) is regular if all its pieces are regular

0.79 Def

$$N := \frac{T}{\|T\|}$$

is **normal vector** of T

0.80 Def

Let $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a C^1 curve; Let l be the length of γ (by theorem proved $l(\gamma) < +\infty$) Let's define the following function:

$$s(t) := \int_a^t \|\gamma'(u)\| du$$

$s(t)$ is the length of $\gamma|_{[a,t]}$ The function $\|\gamma'(u)\|$ is continuous, hence

$$s'(t) = \|\gamma'(t)\|$$

Now assume that γ is C^1 and $\gamma'(t) \neq 0, \forall t \in [a, b]$, then $s'(t) > 0$

So $s : [a, b] \rightarrow [0, l]$ is a C^1 -diffeomorphism, the inverse is

$$t : [0, l] \rightarrow [a, b]$$

$$\frac{dt}{ds} = \frac{1}{\|\gamma'(t)\|}$$

We reparameterize γ with t and get

$$\tilde{\gamma}(s) = (\gamma \circ t)(s)$$

$\tilde{\gamma} : [0, l] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ we say that $\tilde{\gamma}$ is the reparameterization of γ with respect to its **curvilinear coordinate** $s(t)$

0.81 Def

$f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ f is a $C^{(k)}$ -diffeo if

- f is of class $C^{(k)}$
- f is bijection, and the inverse is $C^{(k)}$

0.82 Def

In general

$$\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \rightsquigarrow \tilde{\gamma} : [0, l] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

regular and C^1

$$\frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{ds} = \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \frac{dt}{ds} = \frac{\gamma'(t)}{\|\gamma'(t)\|}$$

$$\left\| \frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{ds} \right\| = 1$$

$$T(t) := \frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{ds} = \frac{\gamma'(t)}{\|\gamma'(t)\|}$$

tangent: (vector) \rightarrow vector of norm 1

$$0 = \frac{d}{dt} \|T(t)\|^2 = \frac{d}{dt} \langle T(t), T(t) \rangle = 2 \langle T(t), T'(t) \rangle \Leftrightarrow T'(t) \perp T(t)$$

use the fact that in \mathbb{R}^n , $u, v : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ differentiable

$$\frac{d}{dt} \langle u(t), v(t) \rangle = \left\langle \frac{du}{dt}, v(t) \right\rangle + \left\langle u(t), \frac{dv}{dt} \right\rangle$$

then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2\tilde{\gamma}}{ds^2} &= \frac{d}{ds}\left(\frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{ds}\right) \\ &= \frac{d}{ds}(T(t)) \\ &= \frac{dT}{dt} \frac{dt}{ds} \\ &= \frac{T'(t)}{\|\gamma'(t)\|}\end{aligned}$$

$N(t) = \frac{d^2\tilde{\gamma}}{ds^2} / \left\| \frac{d^2\tilde{\gamma}}{ds^2} \right\|$. If $n = 2$ Along the curve we have a 'moving' canonical basis of

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{R}_{\gamma(t)}^2 &= \{T(t), N(t)\} \\ &= \{\alpha T(t) + \beta N(t) \mid \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}\}\end{aligned}$$

$\{T(t), N(t)\}$ is a orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}_{\gamma(t)}^2$

0.83 Def:isometry

$$(V, g) \xrightarrow{f} (W, g')$$

a morphism f of vector space with inner product is **isometry** if

$$g(x, y) = g'(f(x), f(y))$$

0.84 Def:isometric

$V \xrightarrow{\cong} W$ up to isomorphism.

Then (V, g) and (W, g') are **isometric** if there are two isometry

$$\begin{aligned}f : (V, g) &\rightarrow (W, g') \\ f' : (W, g') &\rightarrow (V, g)\end{aligned}$$

such that

$$f \circ f' = f' \circ f = Id$$

0.85 Def: Semilinear

If V and W are two complex vector sapce, then a **semilinear mapping** is a mapping $f : V \rightarrow W$ such that

- $f(v_1 + v_2) = f(v_1) + f(v_2)$
- $f(\alpha v) = \alpha * f(v) = \bar{\alpha} f(v)$

So a semilinear mapping is a linear mapping: $f : V \rightarrow W$

For sesquilinear forms, the theory is similar to the theory of bilinear forms.

$$g \rightsquigarrow G (\text{fix a basis}) \quad g(x, y) = xG\bar{y}$$

If you change basis, then the Gram matrix changes in the following way:

$$G \rightsquigarrow A^T G \bar{A}$$

If g is bilinear

$$g \rightsquigarrow \tilde{g} : V \rightarrow V^\vee$$

and

$$g \rightsquigarrow \tilde{g} : V \rightarrow \overline{V^\vee}$$

linear if g is sesquilinear ($\tilde{g} : V \rightarrow V^\vee$ is semilinear)

0.86 Def

A sesquilinear form $g : V \times \overline{V} \rightarrow K$ is **hermitian** if

$$g(x, y) = \overline{g(y, x)}$$

And note that inner product is any of symmetric symplectic or hermitian.

Chapter 1

Classification (up to isometry) of vector spaces of small dim

Let (V, g) be vector space over $K (= \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$ with inner product.

1.1 $\dim V = 1$ and g is symmetric

choose $v \in V \setminus \{0\}$ if $g(v, v) = 0$, then g is degenerated $\Rightarrow g = 0$
If g is non-deg (non-degenerate) $\exists v$ s.t. $g(v, v) = a \neq 0$

$$\forall x \in K \quad g(xv, xv) = ax^2$$

Any v s.t. $g(v, v) = a \neq 0$ induce a set

$$\mathcal{C}(v) := \{ax^2 : x \in K^*\}$$

this is an element in $K^*/\{x^2 \mid x \in K^*\}$

1.1.1 Prop

Let $(V_1, g_1), (V_2, g_2)$ be two vector spaces of dim 1 s.t. g_1 and g_2 are symmetric. Then (V_1, g_1) and (V_2, g_2) are isometric iff

$$\exists v_1 \in V_1, v_2 \in V_2 \text{ s.t. } \mathcal{C}_{g_1}(v_1) = \mathcal{C}_{g_2}(v_2)$$

1.1.2 Theorem

(V, g) has dim 1, g symmetric. Then (V, g) is isometric to one of the following

- $K = \mathbb{R}$

$$(\mathbb{R}, g(x, y) = xy) \quad (\mathbb{R}, g(x, y) = -xy) \quad (\mathbb{R}, g(x, y) = 0)$$

- $K = \mathbb{C}$

$$(\mathbb{C}, g(x, y) = xy) \quad (\mathbb{C}, g(x, y) = 0)$$

1.2 $\dim V = 1$ g is hermitian

Again g degenerate $\Rightarrow g = 0$ We use that same reason as above. $v \in V$:
 $g(v, v) = a \neq 0, \forall a \in \mathbb{C}^*$

$$g(av, av) = \|a\|^2 g(v, v)$$

So any element $v \in V \setminus \{0\}$ s.t. $g(v, v) = a$ induces a coset in $\mathbb{C}^*/\mathbb{R}_{>0}$

Inside \mathbb{C}^* , $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$ is a (mult) subgroup

For any $z \in \mathbb{C}^*$ can be written uniquely as $z = re^{i\theta}$, hence

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{C}^* &\cong \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times S^1 \rightarrow S^1 \\ z &\mapsto (r, e^{i\theta}) \mapsto e^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

The kernel is $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$ and $S^1 \cong \mathbb{C}^*/\mathbb{R}_{>0}$.

But g is hermitian, so

$$g(v, v) \in \mathbb{R}$$

It follows that the coset

$$\{\|a\|^2 g(v, v) \mid a \in \mathbb{C}^*\} \in (\mathbb{C}^*/\mathbb{R}_{>0}) \cap (\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{R}_{>0}) \cong \{\pm 1\}$$

We repeat the proposition before with g hermitian and the following theorem

1.2.1 Theorem

(V, g) if $\dim V = 1$, with g hermitian. Then (V, g) is isometry to one of the following

$$(\mathbb{C}, g(x, y) = x\bar{y}) \quad (\mathbb{C}, g(x, y) = -x\bar{y}) \quad (\mathbb{C}, g(x, y) = 0)$$

1.3 $\dim V = 1$ g symplectic

With $\dim V = 1 \forall v_1, v_2 \in V$ can be write as $v_1 = ae, v_2 = be$ with $e \in K^*$

$$g(v_1, v_2) = ab \cdot g(v, v) = 0$$

1.3.1 Theorem

(V, g) of $\dim V = 1$, g symplectic, then

$$(V, g) \cong (K, g = 0)$$

1.4 $\dim V = 2$ g symplectic

Assume that g is degenerated, then $\exists x \in V$ s.t. $g(x, y) = 0, \forall y \in V$

Extend x to a basis $\{x, x'\}$ of V

$$g(ax + a'x', bx + b'x') = ab \cdot g(x, x) + ab' \cdot g(x, x') - a'b \cdot g(x, x') + a'b' \cdot g(x', x') = 0$$

So when g degenerated $g = 0$

Take g non-degenerated $\exists v_1, v_2 \in V$ s.t. $g(v_1, v_2) = a \neq 0$.

For $g(a^{-1}v_1, v_2) = a^{-1}a = 1$, we may assume that $a = 1$

Let's show that v_1, v_2 are linearly independent. Assume by contraction:

$$v_1 = \lambda v_2$$

$$1 = g(v_1, v_2) = g(\lambda v_2, v_2) = \lambda \cdot g(v_2, v_2) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \{v_1, v_2\}$ is a basis of V . Then

$$\alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1 = g(\alpha_1v_1 + \alpha_2v_2, \beta_1v_1 + \beta_2v_2) = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{(?)}{=} \begin{pmatrix} \overline{\beta_1} \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

1.4.1 Theorem

(V, g) is $\dim 2$, g symplectic. Then (V, g) is isometric to one of the following

$$(K^2, g(x, y) = 0) \quad (K^2, g(x, y) = x_1y_2 - x_2y_1)$$

Chapter 2

Compliment

2.1 Def: non-degenerate

Let (V, g) be an inner product space. Let $V_0 \subseteq V$ be a subspace. We say that V_0 is non-degenerate if $g|_{V_0}$ is non-degenerate.

Moreover, V_0 is isotropic if $g|_{V_0} = 0$

Remark

Isotropic means degenerate

2.2 Def

Let (V, g) be an inner product space. Let $V_0 \subseteq V$ be a subspace. The orthogonal complement of V_0 is defined as

$$V_0^\perp := \{v \in V \mid g(v, v_0) = 0, \forall v_0 \in V_0\}$$

2.3 Prop

Let (V, g) be an inner product space. Let $V_0 \subseteq V$ be a non-degenerate subspace. Then

$$V = V_0 \oplus V_0^\perp$$

2.4 Theorem

Let (V, g) be a finite dimensional inner product space. If both V_0 and V_0^\perp are non-degenerate, then $(V^\perp)^\perp = V_0$

2.5 Theorem

Let (V, g) be an finite dimensional inner product space. Then There exists a decomposition

$$V = V_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_n$$

such that $\{V_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are pairwise orthogonal and

- 1 They are 1-dim if g is symmetric or hermitian
- 2 They are 1-dim but degenerated or 2-dim non-degenerate if g is symplectic.

Chapter 3

Signature

Now we discuss the uniqueness of such decomposition

3.1 Def

Let (V, g) be an inner product space with $\dim V = 1$. Moreover, assume that g is symmetric or hermitian. We say that (V, g) is **positive** if (V, g) is isometry to either $(\mathbb{R}, g(x, y) = xy)$ or $(\mathbb{C}, g(x, y) = x\bar{y})$

We say that (V, g) is **negative** if (V, g) is isometry to either $(\mathbb{R}, g(x, y) = -xy)$ or $(\mathbb{C}, g(x, y) = -x\bar{y})$

3.2 Notation

By theorem 2.5, we can count the number of positive subspace of any inner product space.

- $r_0 := \dim \ker g$
- $r_+ :=$ the number of positive subspaces
- $r_- :=$ the number of negative subspaces

3.3 Def

Let (V, g) be an inner product space.

- 1 If g is real symmetric or, hermitian, then (r_0, r_+, r_-) is signature of V
- 2 If g is symplectic or complex symmetric, then $(\dim V, r_0)$ is the signature of V

3.4 Theorem

Let (V, g) and (V', g') be two inner product spaces, with g, g' that are either (both) symplectic or complex symmetric.

Then (V, g) and (V', g') are isometric iff

$$(n, r_0) = (n', r'_0)$$

3.5 Theorem

Let (V, g) and (V', g') be two inner product spaces, with g, g' that are either (both) hermitian or real symmetric.

Then (V, g) and (V', g') are isometric iff

$$(r_0, r_+, r_-) = (r'_0, r'_+, r'_-)$$

Chapter 4

Orthonormal

4.1 Def

Let (V, g) be an inner product space. The basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is said **orthogonal** if $g(v_i, v_j) = 0, \forall i \neq j$

Moreover, g is said **orthonormal** if $g(v_i, v_i) \in \{0, -1, 1\}, \forall i$

Remark

If g is hermitian or symmetric. We can always find an orthonormal basis from an orthogonal basis.

4.2 Def

Let V be a vector space over K ($\text{char} K \neq 2$). A **quadratic form** on V is a mapping $q : V \rightarrow K$ such that

- $q(\alpha v) = \alpha^2 q(v) \forall \alpha \in K, v \in V$
- $f = (u, v) \mapsto q(u + v) - q(u) - q(v)$ is bilinear

Remark

Any symmetric bilinear form $h : V^2 \rightarrow K$ is a quadratic form. Given a quadratic form $q : V \rightarrow K$, we can define a symmetric bilinear form

$$h_p(u, v) = \frac{1}{2} (q(u + v) - q(u) - q(v))$$

4.3 Gram-Schmidt algorithm

Let (V, g) be an inner product space with g symmetric or hermitian. Let $\{v'_1, \dots, v'_n\}$ be a basis of V such that $V_i = \langle v'_1, \dots, v'_i \rangle \ \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ is non-degenerate.

Then there exists an orthogonal basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ such that $V_i = \langle v_1, \dots, v_i \rangle \ \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ is non-degenerate.

Chapter 5

Euclidean and Unitary Spaces

5.1 Def:Euclidean vector space

A euclidean vector space is a finite dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{R} (E, g) with g symmetric and positive definite ($g(x, x) > 0, \forall x \neq 0$)

We denote

$$\langle x, y \rangle := g(x, y)$$

Remark

Any non-zero subspace of $(E, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ is non-degenerated:

The signature of E is of the type $(0, \tau_+, \tau_-)$ denoted by (P, Q) ($P = \tau_+, Q = \tau_-$)

An euclidean space is a normed vector space

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$

($\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ positive defined required)

Any euclidean vector admits an orthonormal basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, \langle v_i, v_i \rangle = 1$
So orthonormal means

$$\|v_1\| = 1$$

In a euclidean space we have a distance

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$$

5.2 Prop

A euclidean space $(E, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ of dim n is isometric to $(\mathbb{R}^n, \underbrace{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle}_{\text{usual scalar product}})$

5.3 Remark

Cauchy-Schwartz inequality

$$\langle x, y \rangle \leq \|x\| \|y\|$$

Triangle inequality

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$$

5.4 Pythagoras's Theorem

If x_1, \dots, x_k are pairwise orthogonal, then

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^k x_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \|x_i\|^2$$

5.5 Def:Angles

By Cauchy-Schwartz inequality:

$$-1 \leq \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|} \leq 1$$

Then there exists a element $\phi \in [0, \pi]$ such that

$$\cos \phi = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|}$$

ϕ is defined as the angle between x and y

Notice that ϕ is not an oriented angle.

5.6 Notation

Let $U, V \subseteq E$ be two subspace, then

$$d(U, V) := \inf\{\|u - v\| \mid u \in U, v \in V\}$$

5.7 Def

$V \subsetneq E$ a vector subspace, $x \in E \setminus \{0\}$. Then $E = V \oplus V^\perp$ (proved) Then we write (uniquely)

$$x = x_0 + x'_0$$

where $x_0 \in V, x'_0 \in V^\perp$.

Then x_0 is called the orthogonal projection of x on V , x'_0 is called the orthogonal projection of x on V^\perp

5.8 Prop

Use the above notation:

$$d(x, V) = \|x'_0\|$$

5.9 Prop

Use the previous notations. Assume that $m = \dim V$, $V \subseteq E$, $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ ($m \leq n = \dim E$) is an orthonormal basis of V . Then

$$x_0 = \sum_{i=1}^m \langle x, v_i \rangle v_i$$

5.10 Relationship with calculus

$(E, \langle, \rangle) = (\mathbb{R}^n, \langle, \rangle)$ on \mathbb{R}^n we have the notion of volumes

$$\text{vol}(B) := \lambda^n(B)$$

where B is a Borel set.

A n -dimensional parallelepiped is :

$$P_n = \{t_1 v_1 + \dots + t_n v_n \mid t_i \in [0, 1] \forall i\}$$

Consider a linear mapping

$$\begin{aligned} A_{P_n} &= A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ x &\mapsto Ax \end{aligned}$$

where $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$, $A = (v_1 \mid \dots \mid v_n)$

A is invertible iff $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis. Let $\Pi_n = [0, 1]^n$ then

$$A\left(\prod_n\right) = P_n$$

If A invertible

$$\begin{aligned} \text{vol}(P_n) &= \lambda^n(P_n) \\ &= \int_{A(\Pi_n)} \chi_{P_n} d\lambda^n \\ \text{change of variables} &= \int_{A(\Pi_n)} |\det A| d\lambda^n \\ &= |\det A| \\ \text{by the prop of det} &= \sqrt{\det A^T A} \end{aligned}$$

5.11 Prop

$$\text{vol}(P_n) = \sqrt{\det G}$$

Chapter 6

Unitary Space

6.1 Def

A complex inner vector space (H, h) where h is hermitian and positive define then it's called **unitary space**

As in the Euclidean space, we have orthonormal basis and define a norm, then a distance.

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{h(x, x)}$$

6.2 Decomplexification

Let V be a complex vector space of dimension n . We resist the module structure $\mathbb{C} \times V \rightarrow V$ to $\mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$

The \mathbb{R} -vector space denoted by $V_{\mathbb{R}}$ has the same vector of V . For any \mathbb{C} -linear mapping $f : V \rightarrow W$, the module induces a mapping

$$f_{\mathbb{R}} \rightarrow W_{\mathbb{W}}$$

6.3 Theorem

Let V be a complex vector of dim n

- Let V be a complex vector basis of V , then $\{v_1, \dots, v_n, iv_1, \dots, iv_n\}$ is a real basis of $V_{\mathbb{R}}$
- $f : V \rightarrow W$ is a linear mapping. Assume that it's metric representation with respect to the basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of V and $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ of W is

$$A = B + iC$$

where $B, C \in \mathbb{R}$ Then the metric representation of $f_{\mathbb{R}}$ with respect to the basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n, iv_1, \dots, iv_n\}$ and $\{w_1, \dots, w_n, iw_1, \dots, iw_n\}$ is

$$\begin{pmatrix} B & -C \\ C & B \end{pmatrix}$$

6.4 Corollary

Let $f : V \rightarrow V$ be a \mathbb{C} -linear mapping. Then

$$\det f_{\mathbb{R}} = \det f \overline{\det f}$$

Chapter 7

Complexification

7.1 Def: Complex structure

Let W be a real vector space of dim n . Consider $J : W \rightarrow W$ a linear mapping such that $J^{\circ 2} = -Id$. Then J is called the **complex structure** of W . Then couple (W, J) is a vector space with a complex structure.

Example

$$\begin{aligned} J : V_{\mathbb{R}} &\rightarrow V_{\mathbb{R}} \\ v &\mapsto iv \\ iv &\mapsto -v \end{aligned}$$

7.2 Theorem

Let (W, J) be a real vector space with a complex structure. Then on W we introduces the following complex module:

$$(a + bi)w := aw + bJ(w)$$

We obtain a complex vector space W such that $(W)_{\mathbb{R}} = W$

7.3 Corollary

If (W, J) is a vector space with a complex structure, then $\dim W$ is even. Assume that if it's even, then it's possible to find a basis on W such that J is represented by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -I_n \\ I_n & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Consider a orthonormal basis on $H\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$. $G_h : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ is the Gram matrix of h with respect to $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

$$G_h = B_i C$$

Now

$$G_{\mathbb{R}} = \begin{pmatrix} B & -C \\ C & B \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $G_{\mathbb{R}}$ defines an inner product and $(H_{\mathbb{R}}, \langle, \rangle)$ is Euclidean.

7.4 Notation

Now fix a inner product space. Then

$$h(x, y) = a(x, y) + ib(x, y)$$

when $a, b : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

7.5 Prop

In the above notation the following structure holds:

- 1 $a(x, y)$ and $b(x, y)$ are inner products on $V_{\mathbb{R}}$, with a symmetric and b skew-symmetric. In addition:

$$a(ix, iy) = a(x, y) \quad b(ix, iy) = b(x, y)$$

In other word a, b are invariant by the multiplication by i Invariance w.r.t. the complex structure of $H_{\mathbb{R}}$

- 2 The following relations hold.

$$a(x, y) = b(ix, y) \quad b(x, y) = -a(ix, y)$$

- 3 Any pair of J -invariant bilinear forms on $V_{\mathbb{R}}$ $a, b : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that are symmetric and symplectic, respectively and s.t. (2) is satisfied. Define an hermitian inner product

$$h(x, y) := a(x, y) + ib(x, y)$$

Moreover h is positive define iff a is positive define.

7.6 Complex Cauchy-Schwartz inequality

(H, h) is a unitary space with finite dim. Then the inequality

$$|h(x, y)| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$$

holds iff x and y are propositional ($x = ty$)

7.7 Corollary:Complex triangle inequality

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$$

7.8 Def:Angle for unitary space

For

$$0 \leq \frac{|h(x, y)|}{\|x\| \cdot \|y\|}$$

$\exists! \phi \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$

$$\cos \phi = \frac{|h(x, y)|}{\|x\| \cdot \|y\|}$$

The physical application is that ϕ can be considered as probability.

7.9 Prop

Let (V, g) be an inner product space with a non-degenerate inner product hermitian or real symm and $f : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear mapping. Then the following statements are equivalent:

0 f is isometry

1 $g(f(x), f(x)) = g(x, x) \forall x \in V$

2 Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for V and let G be a Gram matrix of g w.r.t. such basis. If A is the matrix of f w.r.t. $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, then

$$A^T G A = G \text{ or } A^T G \bar{A} = G$$

3 f transforms orthonormal basis into orthonormal basis

4 If the signature of g is (p, q) ($\epsilon_0 = 0$), then the matrix of f w.r.t. any orthonormal basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_p, v_{p+1}, \dots, v_{p+q}\}$ where

$$(v_i, v_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \leq p \\ -1 & \text{if } p < i \leq p + q \end{cases}$$

satisfies the following property:

symm case

$$A^T \begin{pmatrix} I_p & 0 \\ 0 & -I_q \end{pmatrix} A = \begin{pmatrix} I_p & 0 \\ 0 & I_q \end{pmatrix}$$

hermitian case

$$A^T \begin{pmatrix} I_p & 0 \\ 0 & -I_q \end{pmatrix} \bar{A} = \begin{pmatrix} I_p & 0 \\ 0 & I_q \end{pmatrix}$$

Chapter 8

Special operators

8.1 Def

(E, \langle, \rangle) is a Euclidean space, then an isometry $f : E \rightarrow E$ is called an **orthogonal operator**

(H, h) a unitary space, then an isometry $f : H \rightarrow H$ is said a **unitary operator**

8.2 Corollary

Orthogonal and unitary operators have the following properties:
w.r.t. an (all) orthonormal basis, they are represented by a matrix U

$$UU^T = I_n \text{ or } UU^\dagger = I_n$$

8.3 Def: orthogonal matrices

$$O(n) := \{A \in GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid AA^T = I_n\}$$

8.4 Def: unitary matrices

$$U(n) := \{A \in GL_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid AA^\dagger = I_n\}$$

Remark

By the corollary 8.2, we have

- $O(n)$ is the set of orthogonal operators of $(\mathbb{R}^n, \langle, \rangle)$
- $U(n)$ is the set of unitary operators of $(\mathbb{C}^n, \langle, \rangle)$

Remark

$$\begin{array}{ccc} O(n) & \subseteq GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq & M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R}) \\ \text{isometry} & & \text{endomorphism} \end{array}$$

Take $T \in O(n)$, $TT^T = I_n$

$$(\det T)^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \det T = \pm 1$$

8.5 Notation

$$\begin{aligned} SL_n(\mathbb{R}) &:= \{A \in GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det A = 1\} \\ SO(n) &:= \{A \in O_n \mid \det A = 1\} \end{aligned}$$

Chapter 9

Classification of operators

$$U(1) = \{a \in \mathbb{C} \mid a\bar{a} = 1\} = \{e^{i\phi} \mid \phi \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$O(1) = \{1, -1\} = U(1) \cap \mathbb{R}$$

Let's study $O(2)$ and classify all its elements

$O(n)/SO(n) = \{\pm 1\}$ $SO(n)$ is a normal subgroup of $O(n)$ of index 2, namely

$$\#(O(n)/SO(n)) = 2$$

Take $T \in O(2)$, we have two cases: $\begin{cases} T \in SO(2) \\ T \in O(2) \setminus SO(2) \end{cases}$

9.0.1 $T \in SO(2)$

Assume $T = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, and $TT^T = Id_2$

$$\begin{cases} \det T = ad - bc = 1 \\ a^2 + b^2 = 1 \\ c^2 + d^2 = 1 \\ ac + bd = 0 \end{cases}$$

This implies $\exists \alpha$ unique op to add by $2k\pi$ s.t.

$$a = \cos \alpha \quad b = \sin \alpha$$

We have shown that

$$SO(2) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \mid \alpha \in [0, 2\pi[\right\}$$

Note that T doesn't have eigenvalues for $\alpha \neq 0, \pi$

9.0.2 $T \in O(2) \setminus SO(2)$

$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the reflection with respect to the line $y = 0$

$$TA \in SO(2)$$

since

$$\det(TA) = \det T \cdot \det A = 1$$

By the previous reasoning,

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ -\sin \alpha & -\cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

The set $O(2) \setminus SO(2)$ represents reflections.

Consider the mapping

$$\begin{aligned} U(1) &\xrightarrow{\cong} SO(2) \\ e^{i\phi} &\mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$O(2) \cong U(1) \cup (O(2) \setminus SO(2))$$

Remark

Reflections are diagonalizable with eigenvalues $\{\pm 1\}$ and the corresponding eigenvectors are orthogonal.

9.1 Theorem

- 1 Let (H, h) be a unitary space. A linear mapping $f : H \rightarrow H$ is unitary iff it's diagonalizable in an orthonormal basis and with eigenvalues in S^1
- Let (E, \langle, \rangle) be a Euclidean space. A linear mapping $f : E \rightarrow E$ is orthogonal iff in some orthonormal basis f is represented by matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} R(\phi_1) & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & R(\phi_n) & & \\ & & & Id_1 & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & Id_m \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$R(\phi_i) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi_i & -\sin \phi_i \\ \sin \phi_i & \cos \phi_i \end{pmatrix} \quad \phi_i \in [0, 2\pi[$$

- 3 The eigenvectors of orthogonal/unitary operators corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

Chapter 10

Fourier Coefficient

Goal We have an infinite dim vector space (usually a space of function) we want to express the elements as combinations of "orthogonal" vectors. (w.r.t. some nice inner product)

10.1 Def: Orthogonal and Orthonormal System

V is a vector space over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , \langle, \rangle is an inner product which either symm or hermitian.. Moreover, \langle, \rangle is non-degenerate and positive define.

A set of vectors $\{l_k \mid k \in I\}$ (where I be the set of indexes) is said to be an orthogonal system if

$$\langle l_j, l_k \rangle = 0 \text{ iff } j \neq k$$

Moreover $\{l_k\}$ is an orthonormal system if

$$\langle l_j, l_k \rangle = \delta_{jk}$$

10.2 Prop

Let $\{l_k\}$ be an orthogonal system, then $\{l_k\}$ is a set of non-zero linearly independent vectors.

10.3 Prop

The inner product \langle, \rangle is continuous (w.r.t. the Euclidean topology in the co-domain, and the product topology on the domain, where on V we put the topology induced by \langle, \rangle)

If $\{f_k\}$ is orthogonal system and $x \in V = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k l_k$, then $\forall y \in V$

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x_k, y \rangle$$

If $\{f_k\}$ is orthonormal system and $x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k l_k$, $y = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} y_k l_k$, then

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \bar{y}_k$$

or

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k y_k$$

10.4 Corollary: Pythagoras

1 If $\{v_k\}$ is an orthogonal system and $v = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} v_k$, then

$$\|v\|^2 = \sum_i |v_i|^2$$

2 If $\{l_k\}$ is an orthonormal system and $x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k l_k$, then

$$\|x\|^2 = \sum_i |x_i|^2$$

10.5 Def: Fourier coefficient

Let $\{l_k\}$ be an orthogonal system in V . Assume that $x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k l_k$, then

$$x_k := \frac{\langle x, l_k \rangle}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle}$$

is called a **Fourier coefficient** of x in $\{l_k\}$

Consider $x \in V$, then the Fourier series of x in $\{l_k\}$ is

$$x \sim \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k l_k$$

We don't know whether it converges to x yet.

10.6 Main example

$$V = L^2(X, \mathbb{K}) / \sim$$

where $X \in \mathbb{K}^n$ a measurable subset (w.r.t. λ^n), $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C}

$$L^2(X, \mathbb{K}) := \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{K} \mid \int_X |f|^2 dx < +\infty\}$$

We define a equivalence relation on $L^2(X, \mathbb{K})$ by

$$f \sim g \text{ iff } \lambda^n(\{x \in X \mid f(x) \neq g(x)\}) = 0$$

we identify two functions equal if they're equal on almost everywhere (only diff on set that measures zero) From now on, we write elements in V simply by representatives.

We define an inner product on V :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle, \rangle : V \times V &\rightarrow \mathbb{K} \\ (f, g) &\mapsto \int_X f \bar{g} d\lambda^n \end{aligned}$$

(Well defined w.r.t. \sim ?) Check that is $\int_X f \bar{g} d\lambda^n$ well defined? Recall that

$$\left\| f(x) \overline{g(x)} \right\| = \|f(x)\| \|g(x)\|$$

Then inequality:

$$\begin{aligned} \|f(x)\| \|g(x)\| &\leq \frac{1}{2} (\|f(x)\|^2 + \|g(x)\|^2) \\ \Leftrightarrow 0 &\leq (\|f(x)\| + \|g(x)\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$

We always have $\|f(x)\| \|g(x)\| \leq \frac{1}{2} (\|f(x)\|^2 + \|g(x)\|^2)$ It follows that $\langle f, g \rangle$ is well-defined. It easy to show that \langle, \rangle is hermitian. The only non-trivial thing is:

$$0 = \langle f, f \rangle \Leftrightarrow f(x) = 0 \text{ almost everywhere}$$

This means that if we don't use \sim that we cannot say \langle, \rangle is positive defined.

Consider the following Integral:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{imx} e^{-inx} dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \\ 2\pi & \text{if } m = n \end{cases}$$

So $\{x \mapsto e^{imx} \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is an orthogonal system for $V = L^2([-\pi, \pi], \mathbb{C}) / \sim$. To make it orthonormal, consider

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{imx} \mid m \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

If you want to replace $[-\pi, \pi]$ by $[-a, a]$, consider:

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{imx}{a}} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

This is an orthonormal system for $L^2([-a, a], \mathbb{C}) / \sim$. In the real case, consider the following integrals:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(mx) \cos(nx) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \\ \pi & \text{if } m = n \neq 0 \\ 2\pi & \text{if } m = n = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nx) \sin(nx) dx = 0$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nx) \sin(mx) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \text{ or } mn = 0 \\ \pi & \text{if } m = n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

It follows that $\{1, \cos(nx), \sin(mx) \mid (m, n) \in \mathbb{N}^2\}$ is an orthogonal system for $L^2([-\pi, \pi], \mathbb{R})$

$$f \sim \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \cos(kx) + b_k(f) \sin(kx)$$

$$\begin{cases} a_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(kx) dx \\ b_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(kx) dx \end{cases}$$

For instance if $f = Id$ then $a_k = 0, b_k = (-1)^{k+1} \frac{2}{k}$

Chapter 11

Convergence

Always assume that the orthogonal system countable this chapter

11.1 Prop

Take $x \in V$ and let

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle x, l_k \rangle}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} l_k$$

Then if we write $x = \bar{x} + h$ then h is orthogonal to \bar{x} and h is orthogonal to the topological closure of $\langle \{l_k\} \rangle$

Remark

By Pythagoras Theorem 10.4, since $x = \bar{x} + h$

$$\|x\|^2 = \|\bar{x}\|^2 + \|h\|^2 \geq \|\bar{x}\|^2$$

If we write that inequality with respect to the Fourier coefficients, we get

Bessel's inequality

Note that

$$\|x\|^2 = \sum_k \left| \frac{\langle x, l_k \rangle}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} \right|^2 \langle l_k, l_k \rangle = \sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle}$$

$$\sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} \leq \|x\|^2 \quad (\text{Bessel's inequality})$$

So far we have assumed that the Fourier series converges to prove Bessel's inequality. But we DON'T NEED this assumption

11.2 Theorem

Assume $\{l_k\}$ is orthonormal. Let $x_k = \langle x, l_k \rangle$. If V is complete, then $\sum_k x_k l_k$ converges.

Remark

In the proof we assumed $\{l_k\}$ orthogonal. But this is not essential. **We have studied the existence of the limit \bar{x} . What about the relation between \bar{x} and x**

11.3 Prop

Let $\{l_k\}$ be an orthogonal system. Take $x \in V$ and assume that

$$V \ni \bar{x} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle x, l_k \rangle \langle l_k, l_k \rangle}{\|l_k\|^2} l_k$$

Then for any $y = \sum_k d_k l_k$ ($d_k \in \mathbb{F}$) it holds that:

$$\|x - \bar{x}\| \leq \|x - y\|$$

The equality is true iff $\bar{x} = y$

11.4 Def

A family of vectors $\mathcal{F} = \{x_\alpha \mid \alpha \in A\}$ in a normed vector space V is **complete** in a subset $E \subseteq V$ if every vector $x \in E$ can be approximated with arbitrary accuracy by a **finite** linear combination of elements in \mathcal{F}

Another statement

Let $L = \{\mathcal{F}\}$, then \mathcal{F} is complete in E if $E \subseteq \overline{L}$

11.5 Weierstrass Approximation Theorem

Let $f \in \mathcal{C}([a, b])$. For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a polynomial $p \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ such that for any $x \in [a, b]$, we have

$$|f(x) - p(x)| < \epsilon$$

In fact

$$\|f - p\| = \sqrt{\int_a^b |f - p|^2 d\lambda} < \epsilon \sqrt{b - a}$$

11.6 Prop

Let V be a complete vector space over \mathbb{F} with inner product \langle, \rangle hermitian or real symm, and positive definite and non-degenerate.

Moreover, $\{l_k\}$ is an orthogonal system at most countable. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1 $\{l_k\}$ is complete in $E \subseteq V$
- 2 For any $x \in E$, we have $x = \sum_k \frac{\langle x, l_k \rangle}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} l_k$
- 3 Any vector $x \in E$ satisfies

$$\|x\|^2 = \sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle}$$

11.7 Def: Hamal basis

A countable family of vectors $\{b_k\}$ is a **Hamal basis** of V if any $v \in V$ there exists a unique sequence $\{\alpha_k\}$ in \mathbb{K} with $\alpha_k = 0$ for all but finitely many k s.t.

$$v = \sum_k \alpha_k b_k$$

(In this def we don't need to use the topological properties of V)

11.8 Def: Schauder basis

A countable family of vectors $\{b_k\}$ is a **Schauder basis** for V if for any $v \in V$ there exists a unique sequence $\{\alpha_k\}$ such that

$$v = \sum_k \alpha_k b_k \quad (\text{as convergent series})$$

A Hamal basis is a Schauder basis(? to prove an element in basis can't be represented by others). In particular, a Schauder basis is a complete family of vectors (in $E = V$)

In pervious, we've proved that if $\{l_k\}$ is an orthogonal complete system (in $E = V$) with V complete, then any $x \in V$ can be written as

$$x = \sum_k \alpha_k l_k$$

when α_k are the Fourier coefficients.

In general it's FALSE that a complete family $\{b_k\}$ is a Schauder ($x \in \overline{\langle \{b_k\} \rangle}$)

11.9 Important Result

1

$L^2([-\pi, \pi[, \mathbb{K}])$ is complete as topological vector space.

2

$\{1, \cos kx, \sin kx \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}\}$ is a complete family.

11.10 Def

$f : X \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow [0, +\infty[$ we say that f is **unbounded** at x_0 if $\forall U \ni x_0, M > 0$

$$\exists x \in U \text{ s.t. } f(x) > M$$

11.11 Def: extend by periodicity

Let $f : [-\pi, \pi[\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ extend this func by periodicity.

$$\tilde{f} = f(x - 2k\pi) \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

11.12 Theorem

$L^p(X, \mu)$ is complete w.r.t the topology induced by $\|\cdot\|_p$

11.13 Def: Dirichlet kernel

$$D_n(x) := \sum_{k=-n}^n e^{iku} = \frac{\sin(n + \frac{u}{2})}{\sin \frac{u}{2}}$$

this is called **Dirichlet kernel**, which has the prop

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_n(u) du = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} D_n(u) du = 1$$

Back to T_n putting $u = x - t$

$$\begin{aligned} T_n(x) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x - u) D_n(u) du \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x - u) \frac{\sin(n + \frac{u}{2})}{\sin \frac{u}{2}} du \end{aligned}$$

Now use that D_n is an even function

$$T_n(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (f(x - u) + f(x + u)) D_n(u) du = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (f(x - u) + f(x + u)) \frac{\sin(n + \frac{u}{2})}{\sin \frac{u}{2}} du$$

11.14 Riemann-Lebesgue's Lemma

Let $f :: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an integrable function. Then

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) e^{i\lambda x} dx = 0$$

11.15 Corollary

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) \cos \lambda x dx &= 0 \\ \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) \sin \lambda x dx &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

11.16 Localization Principle

Let $f, g \in L^2([-\pi, \pi], \mathbb{K})$. If f, g coincide in a neighborhood of $x_0 \in]-\pi, \pi[$ ($f = g$), the Fourier series

$$f \sim \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_k(f) e^{i\lambda x} \quad g \sim \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_k(g) e^{i\lambda x}$$

either both diverges or both converges. Moreover if they converges at x_0 , then their limits are the same (NOT to be $f(x_0) = g(x_0)$)

11.17 Def: Dini's Condition

Let $U_x^0 = [-\delta, x[\cup]x, \delta[$ and $f : U_x^0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. We say that f satisfies **Dini's Condition** at x if

- $f(x_-)$ and $f(x_+)$ exists and finite
- $\exists > 0$ s.t.

$$\int_0^\epsilon \left| \frac{(f(x-t) - f(x_-)) + (f(x+t) - f(x_+))}{t} \right| dt < +\infty$$

11.18 Theorem: pointwise convergence of Fourier series

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a periodic function of period 2π , such that f is integrable in $[-\pi, \pi]$. If f satisfies the Dini's condition at $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then its Fourier series converges at x and

$$\sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_k(f) e^{i\lambda x} = \frac{f(x_-) + f(x_+)}{2}$$

11.19 Lemma

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \sin\left(k + \frac{1}{2}\right)t = \frac{\sin^2\left(\frac{n+1}{2}t\right)}{\sin \frac{t}{2}}$$

$$F_n(t) = \frac{\sin^2 \frac{n+1}{2}t}{(n+1) \sin^2 \frac{t}{2}}$$

What happens when $t = 2k\pi$? Use Taylor's expansion:

$$F_n(t) = \frac{\left(\frac{(n+1)}{2}t + o(t)\right)^2}{(n+1) \left(\frac{t}{2} + o(t)\right)^2} \quad t \rightarrow 0$$

$$F_n(t) = n+1$$

So we can extend F_n at all points $2l\pi$ by putting $F_n(2k\pi) = n+1$

11.20 Def: approximated identity(delta function)

A family of functions $\{K_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ with $K_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a **approximated identity** if

- $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K_n(t) dt = 1 \quad \forall n \geq 0$
- $K_n(t) \geq 0, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}, n \geq 0$
- For any $\delta > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{|t| > \delta} K_n(t) dt = 0$$

11.21 Prop

Consider

$$\delta_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} F_n(x) & \text{if } |x| \leq \pi \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then $\{\delta_n\}$ is an approximated identity

11.22 Fejer Theorem

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ continuous and with period of 2π and integrable in $[-\pi, \pi]$. Then $\sigma_{f,n}$ converges uniformly to f

11.23 Weierstrass approximation

Let $f : [-\pi, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a continuous functions s.t. $f(-\pi) = f(\pi)$. Then such function can be approximated uniformly by σ_n arbitrarily