## Abstract Hilbert Spaces (lecture 13, 22. Feb)

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Assume  $\mathcal{H}$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 26.27.** A pre-inner product on  $\mathcal{H}$  is a map  $(\cdot, \cdot) : H \times H \to \mathbb{C}$  which is

(i) Sesquilinear: linear in the first variable and antilinear in the second:

$$(\alpha u + \beta v, w) = \alpha(u, w) + \beta(v, w),$$
  
$$(w, \alpha u + \beta v) = \bar{\alpha}(u, w) + \bar{\beta}(v, w), \ u, v, w \in H \text{ and } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}.$$

- (ii) Hermitian:  $(u, v) = \overline{(u, v)}$ .
- (iii) Positive semidefinite:  $(u, v) \ge 0$ .

It is called an **inner product**, or a scalar product, if instead of (iii) the map is positive definite; (u, v) > 0. This definition also works for  $\mathbb{R}$  instead of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Cauchy-Schwartz inequality If  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a pre-inner product, then  $|(u, v)| \le (u, u)^{1/2} (v, v)^{1/2}$ .

**Corollary 26.28.** Assume we have a seminorm  $||u|| := (u, u)^{1/2}$ . It is a norm iff  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  is an inner product.

**Definition 26.29** (Hilbert space). A Hilbert space is a complex vector space  $\mathcal{H}$  with an inner product  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  s.t.  $\mathcal{H}$  is complete with respect to the norm  $||u|| = (u, u)^{1/2}$ .

- 1. The norm on a Hilbert space is determined by the inner product, but the inner product can also be recovered by the norm by the polarization identity:  $(u,v) = \frac{||u+v||^2 ||u-v||^2}{4} + i \frac{||u+iv||^2 ||u-iv||^2}{4}$ .
- $2. \ \ Parallelogram \ \ law: \ ||u+v||^2 + ||u-v||^2 = 2||u||^2 + 2||v||^2.$
- 3. A norm on a vector space is given by an inner product iff it satisfies the parallelogram law, and then the scalar product is uniquely determined by the polarization identity.

**Example 26.30.** Assume  $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  is a measure space. Then  $\mathcal{L}^2(X, d\mu)$  is a Hilbert space with inner product

$$(f,g) = \int_X f\bar{g}d\mu.$$

This is well-defined, as  $|f\bar{g}| \leq \frac{1}{2}(|f|^2 + |g|^2)$ .

In particular, if  $\mathscr{B} = \mathcal{P}(X)$  and  $\mu$  is the counting measure, then  $L^2(X, d\mu)$  is denoted by  $l^2(X)$ ; for  $X = \mathbb{N}$  we write simply  $l^2$ . Note that in this case for  $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$  we have

$$\int_X f d\mu = \sum_{x \in X} f(x) := \sup_{\substack{F \subset X \\ F \text{ is finite}}} \sum_{x \in F} f(x),$$

and if  $\sum_{x \in X} f(x) < \infty$ , then  $\{x : f(x) > 0\}$  is at most countable, so  $\sum_{x \in X} f(x) = \sum_{x : f(x) > 0} f(x)$  is the usual sum of a series.

Recall that a subset C of a vector space is called *convex* if

$$u, w \in \mathcal{C} \to tu + (1-t)w \in \mathcal{C} \ \forall t \in (0,1).$$

The following is one of the key properties of the Hilbert space

**Theorem 26.31** (projection theorem). Assume  $\mathcal{H}$  is a Hilbert space and  $\mathcal{C} \subset H$  is a closed convex subset. Then for every  $u \in H$  there is a unique  $u_0 \in \mathcal{C}$  (minimizer) s.t.

$$||u - u_0|| = d(u, C) (= \inf_{v \in C} ||u - x||).$$

*Proof.* Let  $d=d(u,\mathcal{C})$ . Choose  $u_n\in\mathcal{C}$  s.t.  $||u-u_n||\to d$ . We claim that  $(u_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is a Cauchy sequence. As  $\frac{u_n+u_2}{2}\in\mathcal{C}$ , we have

$$d^{2} \leq ||u - \frac{u_{n} + u_{m}}{2}||^{2} = \frac{1}{4}||(u - u_{m}) + (u - u_{m})||^{2}$$

$$= \sup_{\text{parallelogram law}} = \frac{1}{4} \left(2||u - u_{n}||^{2} + 2||u - u_{m}||^{2} - ||u_{n} - u_{m}||^{2}\right),$$

so

$$||u_n - u_m||^2 \le 2(||u - u_n||^2 - d^2) + 2(||u - u_m||^2 - d^2).$$

Thus,  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is indeed Cauchy, hence  $u_n\to u_0\in\mathcal{C}$  for some  $u_0$  and

$$||u - u_0|| = \lim_{n \to \infty} ||u - u_m|| = d = d(u, \mathcal{C}).$$

If  $u_0'$  is another such point, we can take  $u_{2n}=u_0, u_{2n+1}=u_0'$  and conclude that  $u_0=u_0'$ .

## Orthogonal Projections (lecture 14, 26. Feb.)

For a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  and a subset  $A \subset H$ , let

$$A^{\perp} := \{ x \in H : x \perp y \ \forall y \in A \} \,,$$

where  $x \perp y$  means that (x, y) = 0.  $A^{\perp}$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Proposition 26.32.** Assume  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is a closed subspace of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then every  $u \in H$  uniquely decomposes as

$$u = u_0 + u_1$$
, with  $u_0 \in H$  and  $u_1 \in \mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}$ .

Moreover, 
$$||u - u_0|| = d(u, \mathcal{H}_0)$$
 and  $||u||^2 = ||u_0||^2 + ||u_1||^2$ .

For a closed subspace  $\mathcal{H}_0 \subset \mathcal{H}$ , consider the map  $P: H \to \mathcal{H}_0$  s.t.  $Pu \in \mathcal{H}_0$  is the unique element satisfying  $u - Pu = H_0^{\perp}$ . The operator P is linear. It is also contractive, meaning that  $||Pu|| \leq ||u||$ , since  $||u||^2 = ||Pu||^2 + ||u - Pu||^2$ . It is called the orthogonal projection onto  $\mathcal{H}_0$ .

If  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is finite dimensional with an orthonormal basis  $u_1, ..., u_n$  then

$$Pu = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (u, u_k) u_k.$$

Orthonormal bases can be defined for arbitrary Hilbert spaces.

**Definition 26.33** (orthonormal system). An orthonormal system in  $\mathcal{H}$  is a collection of vectors  $h_i \in H$   $(i \in I)$ s.t.

$$(u_i, u_j) = \delta_{ij} \ \forall i, j \in I.$$

It is called an *orthonormal basis* if span $\{u_i\}_{i\in I}$  denotes the linear span of  $\{u_i\}_{i\in I}$ , the space of finite linear combinations of the vectors  $u_i$ .

**Definition 26.34.** A Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is said to be *separable* if  $\mathcal{H}$  contains a countable dense subset  $G \subset \mathcal{H}$ .

**Theorem 26.35.** Every Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  has an orthonormal basis. If  $\mathcal{H}$  is separable, then there is a countable orthonormal basis.

**Proposition 26.36.** Assume  $\{u_i\}_{i\in I}$  is an orthonormal system in a Hilbert space H. Take  $u\mathcal{H}$ . Then

- (i) Bessel's inequality:  $\sum_{i \in I} |(u, u_i)|^2 \le ||u||^2$ , in particular,  $\{i : (u, u_i) \ne 0\}$  is countable.
- (ii) Parseval's identity: If  $\{u_i\}_{i\in I}$  is an orthonormal basis, then  $\sum_{i\in I} |(u,u_i)|^2 = ||u||^2$ .

If  $(u_i)_{i\in I}$  is an orthonormal basis, then the numbers  $(u, u_i)$  are called the **Fourier coefficients** of u with respect to  $(u_i)_{i\in I}$ . The Parseval identity then suggests that u is determined by its Fourier coefficients. This is true, and even more, we have:

**Proposition 26.37.** Assume  $(u_i)_{i\in I}$  is an orthonormal basis in a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then for every vector  $(c_i)_{i\in I} \in l^2(I)$  there is a unique vector  $u \in \mathcal{H}$  with Fourier coefficients  $c_i$ , and we write

$$u = \sum_{i \in I} c_i u_i.$$

**Remark.** Equivalently, the element  $u = \sum_{i \in I} c_i u_i$  can be described as the unique element in  $\mathcal{H}$  s.t.  $\forall \epsilon > 0$  there is a finite  $F_0 \subset I$  s.t.  $||u - \sum_{i \in F} c_i u_i|| < \epsilon \ \forall$  finite  $F \supset F_0$ .

**Corollary 26.38.** We have a linear isomorphism  $U: l^2(I) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathcal{H}$ ,  $U((c_i)_{i \in I}) = \sum_{i \in I} c_i u_i$ . By Parseval's identity this isomorphism is isometric, that is,  $||Ux|| = ||x|| \ \forall x \in l^2(I)$ . By the polarization identity this is equivalent to

$$(Ux, Uy) = (x, y) \ \forall x, y \in l^2(I).$$

Therefor U is unitary.

**Corollary 26.39.** Up to a unitary isomorphism, there is only one infinite dimensional separable Hilbert space, namely,  $l^2$ .

## Dual spaces (lecture 15, 29. Feb.)

Given two orthonormal bases  $(u_i)_{i\in I}$  and  $(v_i)_{i\in I}$  in a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , we can decompose

$$u_i = \sum_{j \in I} (u_i, v_j) v_j$$

and using that the sets  $\{j: (u_i, v_j) \neq 0\}$  are countable proove the following: Claim: Any two orthonormal bases in a Hilbert space have the same cardinality.

**Example 26.40** (classical Fourier series). Consider  $\mathcal{H} = L^2(0, 2\bar{\mu}) = L^2((0, 2\bar{\mu}), d\lambda)$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , define  $e_n(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\bar{\mu}}e^{int}$ . By a version of Weierstrass' theorem it is known that span $\{e_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$  is dense in the supremum-norm in

$$\{f \in C[0, 2\bar{\mu}] : f(0) = f(2\bar{\mu})\}.$$

As  $C[0, 2\bar{\mu}]$  is dense in  $L^2(0, 2\bar{\mu})$ , from this one can deduce that span $\{e_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$  is dense in  $L^2(0, 2\bar{\mu})$ . We then see that  $(e_n)_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$  is an orthonormal basis in  $L^2(0, 2\bar{\mu})$ . We therefor have a unitary isomorphism

$$l^2(\mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\sim} L^2(0,2\bar{\mu}), (c_n)_{n\in\mathbb{Z}} \mapsto \sum_{n\in\mathbb{Z}} c_n e_n.$$

The Fourier coefficients at  $f \in L^2(0, 2\bar{\mu})$  are denoted by  $\hat{f}(n)$ , so

$$\hat{f}(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\bar{\mu}}} \int_0^{2\bar{\mu}} f(t)e^{-int}dt,$$

more practically

$$\hat{f}(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\bar{\mu}}} \int_{[0,2\bar{\mu})} f(t)e^{-int} d\lambda(t).$$

Therefor we have  $f = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n)e_n$  in  $L^2(0, 2\bar{\mu})$ . Fact: For every  $f \in L^2(0, 2\bar{\mu})$ , we have  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\bar{\mu}}} \sum_{n=-N}^N \hat{f}(n)e^{int} \xrightarrow[N \to \infty]{} f(t)$  for a.e. t.

**Lemma 26.41.** Assume V is a normed space over  $K = \mathbb{R}$  or  $K = \mathbb{C}$ . Consider a linear functional  $f: V \to K$ . The following are equivalent (TFAE):

- (i) f is continuous;
- (ii) f is continuous at  $\theta$ ;
- (iii) There is a  $c \ge 0$  s.t.  $|f(x)| \le c||x|| \ \forall x \in V$ .

If (i)-(iii) are satisfied, then f is called a bounded linear functional. The constant c in (iii) is denoted by ||f||. We have  $||f|| = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{|f(x)|}{||x||} = \sup_{||x|| = 1} |f(x)| =$  $\sup_{||x||<1} |f(x)|.$ 

**Proposition 26.42.** For every normed vector space V over  $K = \mathbb{R}$  or  $K = \mathbb{C}$ , the bounded linear functionals on V form a Banach space  $V^*$ .

**Remark.** The sequence  $\{||f_n - f_m||\}_{m=1}^{\infty}$  actually converges, since

$$\left| ||f_n - f_m|| \right| \le ||f_m - f_n||.$$

When we study/use normed spaces, it is often important to understand the dual spaces. For Hilbert spaces this is particularly easy:

**Theorem 26.43** (Riesz). Assume  $\mathcal{H}$  is a Hilbert space. Then every  $f \in \mathcal{H}^*$ has the form

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

for a uniquely defined  $u \in \mathcal{H}$ . Moreover, we have ||f|| = ||y||.

For every Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  we can define the *conjugate Hilbert space*  $\bar{\mathcal{H}}$ , which has its elements as the symbols  $\bar{x}$  for  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ , with the linear structure and inner product defined by

$$\bar{x} + \bar{y} = \overline{x + y}, c \cdot \bar{x} = \overline{c}x, (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \overline{(x, y)} = (y, x).$$

Corollary 26.44. For every Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , we have an isometric isomorphism  $\bar{\mathcal{H}} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathcal{H}^*, \ \bar{x} \mapsto (\cdot, x).$