Gaussian measures, Hermite polynomials, and the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup

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1 Definitions

For a topological space X, we denote by \mathscr{B}_X the Borel σ -algebra of X.

We write $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$. With the order topology, $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is a compact metrizable space, and \mathbb{R} has the subspace topology inherited from $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$, namely the inclusion map is an embedding $\mathbb{R} \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$. It follows that¹

$$\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}} = \{ E \cap \mathbb{R} : E \in \mathscr{B}_{\overline{\mathbb{R}}} \}.$$

If \mathscr{F} is a collection of functions $X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ on a set X, we define $\bigvee \mathscr{F} : X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ and $\bigwedge \mathscr{F} : X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ by

$$\left(\bigvee\mathscr{F}\right)(x) = \sup\{f(x): f\in\mathscr{F}\}, \qquad x\in X$$

and

$$\left(\bigwedge\mathscr{F}\right)(x)=\inf\{f(x):f\in\mathscr{F}\},\qquad x\in X.$$

If X is a measurable space and \mathscr{F} is a countable collection of measurable functions $X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$, it is a fact that $\bigwedge \mathscr{F}$ and $\bigvee \mathscr{F}$ are measurable $X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$.

2 Kolmogorov's inequality

Kolmogorov's inequality is the following.²

Theorem 1 (Kolmogorov's inequality). Suppose that (Ω, \mathcal{S}, P) is a probability space, that $X_1, \ldots, X_n \in L^2(P)$, that $E(X_1) = 0, \ldots, E(X_n) = 0$, and that X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent. Let

$$S_k(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^k X_j(\omega), \qquad \omega \in \Omega,$$

 $^{^1{\}rm Charalambos}$ D. Aliprantis and Kim C. Border, Infinite Dimensional Analysis: A Hitchhiker's Guide, third ed., p. 138, Lemma 4.20.

²Gerald B. Folland, *Real Analysis: Modern Techniques and Their Applications*, second ed., p. 322, Theorem 10.11.

for $1 \le k \le n$. Then for any $\lambda > 0$,

$$P\left(\left\{\omega \in \Omega : \bigvee_{k=1}^{n} |S_k(\omega)| \ge \lambda\right\}\right) \le \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} V(X_j) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2} V(S_n).$$

3 1-dimension

For real a and $\sigma > 0$, one computes that

$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp\left(-\frac{(t-a)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dt = 1. \tag{1}$$

Suppose that γ is a Borel probability measure on \mathbb{R} . If

$$\gamma = \delta_a$$

for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$ or has density

$$p(t, a, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(t-a)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad t \in \mathbb{R},$$

for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and some $\sigma > 0$, with respect to Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} , we say that γ is a **Gaussian measure**. We say that δ_a is a Gaussian measure with **mean** a and **variance** 0, and that a Gaussian measure with density $p(\cdot, a, \sigma^2)$ has **mean** a and **variance** σ^2 . A Gaussian measure with mean 0 and variance 1 is said to be **standard**.

One calculates that the **characteristic function** of a Gaussian measure γ with density $p(\cdot, a, \sigma^2)$ is

$$\widetilde{\gamma}(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp(iyx) d\gamma(x) = \exp\left(iay - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 y^2\right), \quad y \in \mathbb{R}.$$
 (2)

The **cumulative distribution function** of a standard Gaussian measure γ is, for $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\Phi(t) = \gamma(-\infty, t] = \int_{-\infty}^{t} d\gamma(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} p(s, 0, 1) ds = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds.$$

We define $\Phi(-\infty) = 0$ and also define

$$\Phi(\infty) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds = 1,$$

using (1)

 $\Phi: \stackrel{\leftarrow}{\mathbb{R}} \to [0,1]$ is strictly increasing, thus $\Phi^{-1}: [0,1] \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ makes sense, and is itself strictly increasing. Then $1 - \Phi$ is strictly decreasing. By (1),

$$1 - \Phi(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds - \int_{-\infty}^{t} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds$$
$$= \int_{t}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds.$$

The following lemma gives an estimate for $1 - \Phi(t)$ that tells us something substantial as $t \to +\infty$, beyond the immediate fact that $(1 - \Phi)(\infty) = 1 - \Phi(\infty) = 0.3$

Lemma 2. For t > 0,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{t} - \frac{1}{t^3} \right) e^{-t^2/2} \le 1 - \Phi(t) \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{t} e^{-t^2/2}.$$

Proof. Integrating by parts,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \Phi(t) &= \int_t^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds \\ &= \int_t^\infty \frac{1}{s\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot s \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds \\ &= -\frac{1}{s\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) \Big|_t^\infty - \int_t^\infty \frac{1}{s^2\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds \\ &\leq \frac{1}{t\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right). \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, using the above work and again integrating by parts,

$$1 - \Phi(t) = \frac{1}{t\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) - \int_t^\infty \frac{1}{s^3\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot s \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds$$

$$= \frac{1}{t\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{s^3\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) \Big|_t^\infty$$

$$+ \int_t^\infty \frac{3}{s^4\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{s^2}{2}\right) ds$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{t\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) - \frac{1}{t^3\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right).$$

The following theorem shows that if the variances of a sequence of independent centered random variables are summable then the sequence of random variables is summable almost surely. 4

Theorem 3. Suppose that $\xi_j \in L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{S}, P)$, $j \geq 1$, are independent random variables each with mean 0. If $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} V(\xi_j) < \infty$, then $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \xi_j$ converges almost surely.

Proof. Define $S_n: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$S_n(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j(\omega),$$

 $^{^3 \}mbox{Vladimir I. Bogachev}, \ Gaussian \ Measures, p. 2, Lemma 1.1.3.$

⁴Karl R. Stromberg, *Probability for Analysts*, p. 58, Theorem 4.6.

define $Z_n: \Omega \to [0, \infty]$ by

$$Z_n = \bigvee_{j=1}^{\infty} |S_{n+j} - S_n|,$$

and define $Z:\Omega\to[0,\infty]$ by

$$Z = \bigwedge_{n=1}^{\infty} Z_n.$$

If $S_n(\omega)$ converges and $\epsilon > 0$, there is some n such that for all $j \geq 1$, $|S_{n+j}(\omega) - S_n(\omega)| < \epsilon$ and so $Z_n(\omega) \leq \epsilon$ and $Z(\omega) \leq \epsilon$. Therefore, if $S_n(\omega)$ converges then $Z(\omega) = 0$. On the other hand, if $Z(\omega) = 0$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there is some n such that $Z_n(\omega) < \epsilon$, hence $|S_{n+j}(\omega) - S_n(\omega)| < \epsilon$ for all $j \geq 1$. That is, $S_n(\omega)$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} , and hence converges. Therefore

$$\{\omega \in \Omega : S_n(\omega) \text{ converges}\} = \{\omega \in \Omega : Z(\omega) = 0\}.$$
 (3)

Let $\epsilon > 0$. For any n and k, using Kolmogorov's inequality with $X_j = \xi_{n+j}$ for $j = 1, \ldots, k$,

$$P\left(\bigvee_{j=1}^{k}|S_{n+j}-S_n|\geq\epsilon\right)\leq\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}\sum_{j=1}^{k}V(X_j)\leq\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}\sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty}V(\xi_j).$$

Because this is true for each k, it follows that

$$P(Z_n \ge \epsilon) \le \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} V(\xi_j),$$

hence, for each n,

$$P(Z \ge \epsilon) \le P(Z_n \ge \epsilon) \le \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} V(\xi_j).$$

Because $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} V(\xi_j) < \infty$, $\sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} V(\xi_j) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, so

$$P(Z > \epsilon) = 0.$$

Because this is true for all $\epsilon > 0$, we get P(Z > 0) = 0, i.e. P(Z = 0) = 1. By (3), this means that S_n converges almost surely.

The following theorem gives conditions under which the converse of the above theorem holds. $^5\,$

⁵Karl R. Stromberg, *Probability for Analysts*, p. 59, Theorem 4.7.

Theorem 4. Suppose that $\xi_j \in L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{S}, P)$, $j \geq 1$, are independent random variables each with mean 0, and let $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j$. If

$$P\left(\bigvee_{n=1}^{\infty} |S_n| < \infty\right) > 0 \tag{4}$$

and there is some $\beta \in [0,\infty)$ such that $\bigvee_{j=1}^{\infty} |\xi_j| \leq \beta$ almost surely, then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} V(\xi_j) < \infty.$$

Proof. By (4), there is some $\alpha \in [0, \infty)$ such that P(A) > 0, for

$$A = \left\{ \omega \in \Omega : \bigvee_{n=1}^{\infty} |S_n(\omega)| \le \alpha \right\}.$$

For $p \geq 1$, let

$$A_p = \left\{ \omega \in \Omega : \bigvee_{n=1}^p |S_n(\omega)| \le \alpha \right\},\,$$

which satisfies $A_p \downarrow A$ as $p \to \infty$. For each p, the random variables $\chi_{A_p} S_p$ and ξ_{p+1} are independent and the random variables χ_{A_p} and ξ_{p+1}^2 are independent, whence

$$\begin{split} E(\chi_{A_p}S_{p+1}^2) &= E(\chi_{A_p}(S_p + \xi_{p+1})(S_p + \xi_{p+1})) \\ &= E(\chi_{A_p}S_p^2 + 2\chi_{A_p}S_p\xi_{p+1} + \chi_{A_p}\xi_{p+1}^2) \\ &= E(\chi_{A_p}S_p^2) + 2E(\chi_{A_p}S_p)E(\xi_{p+1}) + E(\chi_{A_p})E(\xi_{p+1}^2) \\ &= E(\chi_{A_p}S_p^2) + P(A_p)V(\xi_{p+1}) \\ &\geq E(\chi_{A_p}S_p^2) + P(A)V(\xi_{p+1}). \end{split}$$

Set $B_p = A_p \setminus A_{p+1}$. For $\omega \in A_p$, $|S_p(\omega)| \leq \alpha$, and for almost all $\omega \in \Omega$, $|\xi_{p+1}(\omega)| \leq \beta$, so for almost all $\omega \in B_p$,

$$|S_{p+1}(\omega)| \le |S_p(\omega)| + |\xi_{p+1}(\omega)| \le \alpha + \beta,$$

hence

$$P(A)V(\xi_{p+1}) \leq E((\chi_{B_p} + \chi_{A_{p+1}})S_{p+1}^2) - E(\chi_{A_p}S_p^2)$$

$$= E(\chi_{B_p}S_{p+1}^2) + E(\chi_{A_{p+1}}S_{p+1}^2) - E(\chi_{A_p}S_p^2)$$

$$\leq P(B_p)(\alpha + \beta)^2 + E(\chi_{A_{p+1}}S_{p+1}^2) - E(\chi_{A_p}S_p^2).$$

Adding the inequalities for p = 1, 2, ..., n - 1, because B_p are pairwise disjoint,

$$P(A) \sum_{p=1}^{n-1} V(\xi_{p+1}) = (\alpha + \beta)^2 \sum_{p=1}^{n-1} P(B_p) + E(\chi_{A_n} S_n^2) - E(\chi_{A_1} S_1^2)$$

$$\leq (\alpha + \beta)^2 + E(\chi_{A_n} S_n^2)$$

$$\leq (\alpha + \beta)^2 + \alpha^2.$$

Because this is true for all n and P(A) > 0,

$$\sum_{p=1}^{\infty} V(\xi_{p+1}) < \infty,$$

and with $V(\xi_1) < \infty$ this completes the proof.

4 *n*-dimensions

If μ is a finite Borel measure on \mathbb{R}^n , we define the **characteristic function of** μ by

$$\widetilde{\mu}(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{i\langle y, x \rangle} d\mu(x), \qquad y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

A Borel probability measure γ on \mathbb{R}^n is said to be **Gaussian** if for each $f \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$, the pushforward measure $f_*\gamma$ on \mathbb{R} is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R} , where

$$(f_*\gamma)(E) = \gamma(f^{-1}(E))$$

for E a Borel set in \mathbb{R} .

We now give a characterization of Gaussian measures on \mathbb{R}^n and their densities.⁶ In the following theorem, the vector $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called the **mean of** γ and the linear transformation $K \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is called the **covariance operator** of γ . When $a = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $K = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$, we say that γ is **standard**.

Theorem 5. A Borel probability measure γ on \mathbb{R}^n is Gaussian if and only if there is some $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and some positive semidefinite $K \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that

$$\widetilde{\gamma}(y) = \exp\left(i\langle y, a \rangle - \frac{1}{2}\langle Ky, y \rangle\right), \qquad y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$
 (5)

If γ is a Gaussian measure whose covariance operator K is positive definite, then the density of γ with respect to Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}^n is

$$x \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det K}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left\langle K^{-1}(x-a), x-a \right\rangle\right), \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Proof. Suppose that (5) is satisfied. Let $f \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$, i.e. a linear map $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, and put $\nu = f_* \gamma$. Using the change of variables formula, the characteristic function of ν is

$$\widetilde{\nu}(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{its} d\nu(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{itf(x)} d\gamma(x), \qquad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

⁶Vladimir I. Bogachev, *Gaussian Measures*, p. 3, Proposition 1.2.2; Michel Simonnet, *Measures and Probabilities*, p. 303, Theorem 14.5.

Let v be the unique element of \mathbb{R}^n such that $f(x) = \langle v, x \rangle$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$\widetilde{\nu}(t) = \int_{\mathbb{D}^n} e^{i\langle tv, x \rangle} d\gamma(x) = \widetilde{\gamma}(tv).$$

so by (5),

$$\widetilde{\nu}(t) = \exp\left(i\left\langle tv, a\right\rangle - \frac{1}{2}\left\langle Ktv, tv\right\rangle\right) = \exp\left(if(a)t - \frac{1}{2}\left\langle Kv, v\right\rangle t^2\right).$$

This implies that ν is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R} with mean f(a) and variance $\langle Kv, v \rangle$: if $\langle Kv, v \rangle = 0$ then $\nu = \delta_{f(a)}$, and if $\langle Kv, v \rangle > 0$ then ν has density

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle Kv,v\rangle}\sqrt{2\pi}}\exp\left(-\frac{(s-f(a))^2}{2\,\langle Kv,v\rangle}\right), \qquad s\in\mathbb{R},$$

with respect to Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} . That is, for any $f \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$, the push-forward measure $f_*\gamma$ is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R} , which is what it means for γ to be a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n .

Suppose that γ is Gaussian and let $f \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$. Then the pushforward measure $f_*\gamma$ is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R} . Let a(f) be the mean of $f_*\gamma$ and let $\sigma^2(f)$ be the variance of $f_*\gamma$, and let v_f be the unique element of \mathbb{R}^n such that $f(x) = \langle x, v_f \rangle$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Using the change of variables formula,

$$a(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} t d(f_* \gamma)(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) d\gamma(x)$$

and

$$\sigma^{2}(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (t - a(f))^{2} d(f_{*}\gamma)(t)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} (f(x) - a(f))^{2} d\gamma(x)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} (f(x)^{2} - 2f(x)a(f) + a(f)^{2}) d\gamma(x).$$

Because $f \mapsto a(f)$ is linear $(\mathbb{R}^n)^* \to \mathbb{R}$, there is a unique $a \in \mathbb{R}^n = (\mathbb{R}^n)^{**}$ such that

$$a(f) = \langle v_f, a \rangle, \qquad f \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*.$$

For $f, g \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$,

$$\sigma^{2}(f+g) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} (f(x)^{2} + 2f(x)g(x) + g(x)^{2} - 2f(x)a(f) - 2f(x)a(g) - 2g(x)a(f) - 2g(x)a(g) + a(f)^{2} + 2a(f)a(g) + a(g)^{2})d\gamma(x),$$

$$\sigma^{2}(f+g) - \sigma^{2}(f) - \sigma^{2}(g) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} (2f(x)g(x) - 2f(x)a(g) - 2g(x)a(f) + 2a(f)a(g))d\gamma(x).$$

 $B(f,g)=\frac{1}{2}(\sigma^2(f+g)-\sigma^2(f)-\sigma^2(g))$ is a symmetric bilinear form on \mathbb{R}^n , and

$$B(f,f) = 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (f(x) - a(f))^2 d\gamma(x) \ge 0,$$

namely, B is positive semidefinite. It follows that there is a unique positive semidefinite $K \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $B(f,g) = \langle Kv_f, v_g \rangle$ for all $f,g \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$. For $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and for $v_f = g$, using the change of variables formula, using the fact that $f_*\gamma$ is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R} with mean

$$a(f) = \langle v_f, a \rangle = \langle y, a \rangle$$

and variance

$$\sigma^2(f) = B(f, f) = \langle Kv_f, v_f \rangle = \langle Ky, y \rangle$$

and using (2),

$$\widetilde{\gamma}(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{if(x)} d\gamma(x)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{it} d(f_* \gamma)(t)$$

$$= \exp\left(i \langle y, a \rangle \cdot 1 - \frac{1}{2} \langle Ky, y \rangle \cdot 1^2\right)$$

$$= \exp\left(i \langle y, a \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \langle Ky, y \rangle\right),$$

which shows that (5) is satisfied.

Suppose that γ is a Gaussian measure and further that the covariance operator K is positive definite. By the spectral theorem, there is an orthonormal basis $\{e_1,\ldots,e_n\}$ for \mathbb{R}^n such that $\langle Ke_j,e_j\rangle>0$ for each $1\leq j\leq n$. Write $\langle Ke_j,e_j\rangle=\sigma_j^2$, and for $y\in\mathbb{R}^n$ set $y_j=\langle y,e_j\rangle$, with which $y=y_1e_1+\cdots+y_ne_n$ and then

$$\langle Ky, y \rangle = \langle y_1 K e_1 + \dots + y_n K e_n, y_1 e_1 + \dots + y_n e_n \rangle$$
$$= \langle y_1 \sigma_1^2 e_1 + \dots + y_n \sigma_n^2 e_n, y_1 e_1 + \dots + y_n e_n \rangle$$
$$= \sigma_1^2 y_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2 y_n^2.$$

And

$$\langle y, a \rangle = \langle y_1 e_1 + \dots + y_n e_n, a_1 e_1 + \dots + a_n e_n \rangle = a_1 y_1 + \dots + a_n y_n.$$

Let γ_j be the Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R} with mean a_j and variance σ_j^2 . Because $\sigma_j^2 > 0$, the measure γ_j has density $p(\cdot, a_j, \sigma_j^2)$ with respect to Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} , and thus

$$\begin{split} \widetilde{\gamma}(y) &= \exp\left(i \left\langle y, a \right\rangle - \frac{1}{2} \left\langle Ky, y \right\rangle\right) \\ &= \exp\left(i \sum_{j=1}^n a_j y_j - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \sigma_j^2 y_j^2\right) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^n \exp\left(i a_j y_j - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_j^2 y_j^2\right) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^n \widetilde{\gamma_j}(y_j) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp(i y_j t) d\gamma_j(t) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp(i y_j t) p(t, a_j, \sigma_j^2) dt \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \prod_{j=1}^n \exp(i y_j x_j) p(x_j, a_j, \sigma_j^2) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{i \left\langle y, x \right\rangle} \prod_{j=1}^n p(x_j, a_j, \sigma_j^2) dx. \end{split}$$

This implies that γ has density

$$x \mapsto \prod_{j=1}^{n} p(x_j, a_j, \sigma_j^2), \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

with respect to Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}^n . Moreover,

$$\langle K^{-1}(x-a), x-a \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^n \sigma_j^{-2}(x_j - a_j)e_j, \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - a_j)e_j \right\rangle$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{(x_j - a_j)^2}{\sigma_j^2},$$

so we have, as det $K = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i^2$,

$$\prod_{j=1}^{n} p(x_j, a_j, \sigma_j^2) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sigma_j \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_j - a_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det K}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left\langle K^{-1}(x - a), x - a \right\rangle\right).$$

Because \mathbb{R} is a second-countable topological space, the Borel σ -algebra $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ is equal to the product σ -algebra $\bigotimes_{j=1}^n \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$. The density of the standard Gaussian measure γ_n with respect to Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}^n is, by Theorem 5,

$$x \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\langle x, x \rangle\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

It follows that γ_n is equal to the product measure $\prod_{j=1}^n \gamma_1$, and thus that the probability space $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n}, \gamma_n)$ is equal to the product $\prod_{j=1}^n (\mathbb{R}, \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}, \gamma_1)$.

For $f_1, \ldots, f_n \in L^2(\gamma_1)$, we define $f_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes f_n \in L^2(\gamma_n)$, called the **tensor** product of f_1, \ldots, f_n , by

$$(f_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes f_n)(x) = \prod_{j=1}^n f_j(x_j), \qquad x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

It is straightforward to check that for $f_1, \ldots, f_n, g_1, \ldots, g_n \in L^2(\gamma_1)$,

$$\langle f_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes f_n, g_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes g_n \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_n)} = \prod_{j=1}^n \langle f_j, g_j \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)}.$$

One proves that the linear span of the collection of all tensor products is dense in $L^2(\gamma_n)$, and that $\{v_k : k \ge 0\}$ is an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\gamma_1)$, then

$$\{v_{k_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes v_{k_n} : (k_1, \dots, k_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^n\}$$
 (6)

is an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\gamma_n)$.

We will later use the following statement about centered Gaussian measures.⁷

Theorem 6. Let γ be a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n with mean 0 and let $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the pushforward of the product measure $\gamma \times \gamma$ on $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ under the mapping $(u, v) \mapsto u \sin \theta + v \cos \theta$, $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, is equal to γ .

Proof. Let μ be the pushforward of $\gamma \times \gamma$ under the above mapping. and let $K \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be the covariance operator of γ . For $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, using the change of variables formula,

$$\begin{split} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \exp\left(i \left\langle y, x \right\rangle\right) d\mu(x) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} \exp\left(i \left\langle y, u \sin \theta + v \cos \theta \right\rangle\right) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(u, v) \\ &= \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \exp\left(i \left\langle y \sin \theta, u \right\rangle\right) d\gamma(u)\right) \\ &\cdot \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \exp\left(i \left\langle y \cos \theta, v \right\rangle\right) d\gamma(v)\right) \\ &= \widetilde{\gamma}(y \sin \theta) \widetilde{\gamma}(y \cos \theta). \end{split}$$

⁷Vladimir I. Bogachev, Gaussian Measures, p. 5, Lemma 1.2.5.

By Theorem 5,

$$\begin{split} \widetilde{\gamma}(y\sin\theta)\widetilde{\gamma}(y\cos\theta) &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left\langle Ky\sin\theta,y\sin\theta\right\rangle\right)\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left\langle Ky\cos\theta,y\cos\theta\right\rangle\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\sin^2(\theta)\left\langle Ky,y\right\rangle - \frac{1}{2}\cos^2(\theta)\left\langle Ky,y\right\rangle\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left\langle Ky,y\right\rangle\right). \end{split}$$

Thus, the characteristic function of μ is

$$\widetilde{\mu}(y) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\langle Ky, y\rangle\right), \qquad y \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

which implies that μ is equal to the Gaussian measure with mean 0 and covariance operator K, i.e., $\mu = \gamma$.

5 Hermite polynomials

For $k \geq 0$, we define the **Hermite polynomial** H_k by

$$H_k(t) = \frac{(-1)^k}{\sqrt{k!}} \exp\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right) \frac{d^k}{dt^k} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right), \qquad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

It is apparent that $H_k(t)$ is a polynomial of degree k.

Theorem 7. For real λ and t,

$$\exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}} H_k(t)\lambda^k.$$

Proof. For $u \in \mathbb{C}$, let $g(u) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}u^2\right)$. For $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$g(u) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(k)}(t)}{k!} (u - t)^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{k!}}{(-1)^k} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) H_k(t) \frac{1}{k!} (u - t)^k$$

$$= \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{\sqrt{k!}} H_k(t) (u - t)^k.$$

Therefore, for real λ and t,

$$\begin{split} \exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right) &= \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}t^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\lambda - t)^2\right) \\ &= \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}t^2\right)g(\lambda - t) \\ &= \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}t^2\right)g(t - \lambda) \\ &= \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}t^2\right)\exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right)\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^k}{\sqrt{k!}}H_k(t)(-\lambda)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}}H_k(t)\lambda^k. \end{split}$$

Theorem 8. Let γ_1 be the standard Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R} , with density $p(t,0,1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2}\right)$. Then

$$\{H_k: k \ge 0\}$$

is an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\gamma_1)$.

Proof. For $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$, on the one hand, using (1) with $a = \lambda + \mu$ and $\sigma = 1$,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right) \exp\left(\mu t - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2\right) d\gamma_1(t)$$

$$= e^{\lambda\mu} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(t - (\lambda + \mu))^2\right) dt$$

$$= e^{\lambda\mu}.$$

On the other hand, using Theorem 7,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right) \exp\left(\mu t - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2\right) d\gamma_1(t)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}} H_k(t) \lambda^k\right) \left(\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{l!}} H_l(t) \mu^l\right) d\gamma_1(t)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \sum_{k,l \ge 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!} l!} \lambda^k \mu^l H_k(t) H_l(t) d\gamma_1(t)$$

$$= \sum_{k,l \ge 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!} l!} \lambda^k \mu^l \langle H_k, H_l \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)}.$$

Therefore

$$\sum_{k,l \geq 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!l!}} \lambda^k \mu^l \langle H_k, H_l \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \lambda^k \mu^k.$$

From this, we get that if $k \neq l$ then $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k!l!}} \langle H_k, H_l \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = 0$, i.e.

$$\langle H_k, H_l \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = 0.$$

If k=l, then $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k!l!}}\langle H_k, H_l\rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)}=\frac{1}{k!}$, i.e.

$$\langle H_k, H_k \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = 1.$$

Therefore, $\{H_k : k \geq 0\}$ is an orthonormal set in $L^2(\gamma_1)$.

Suppose that $f \in L^2(\gamma_1)$ satisfies $\langle f, H_k \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = 0$ for each $k \geq 0$. Because $H_k(t)$ is a polynomial of degree k, for each $k \geq 0$ we have

$$span\{H_0, H_1, H_2, \dots, H_k\} = span\{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^k\}.$$

Hence for each $k \geq 0$, $\langle f, t^k \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = 0$. One then proves that span $\{1, t, t^2, \ldots\}$ is dense in $L^2(\gamma_1)$, from which it follows that the linear span of the Hermite polynomials is dense in $L^2(\gamma_1)$ and thus that they are an orthonormal basis. \square

Lemma 9. For $k \geq 1$,

$$H'_k(t) = \sqrt{k}H_{k-1}(t), \qquad H'_k(t) = tH_k(t) - \sqrt{k+1}H_{k+1}(t).$$

Proof. Theorem 7 says

$$\exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}} H_k(t) \lambda^k.$$

On the one hand,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right) = \lambda \exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right)$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}} H_k(t) \lambda^{k+1}$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(k-1)!}} H_{k-1}(t) \lambda^k.$$

On the other hand,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \exp\left(\lambda t - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}} H'_k(t)\lambda^k.$$

Therefore, $H'_0(t) = 0$, and for $k \ge 1$,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{(k-1)!}}H_{k-1}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}}H'_k(t),$$

i.e.,

$$H_k'(t) = \sqrt{k}H_{k-1}(t).$$

For $\alpha = (k_1, \dots, k_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}^n$, we define the **Hermite polynomial** H_{α} by

$$H_{\alpha}(x) = H_{k_1}(x_1) \cdots H_{k_n}(x_n), \qquad x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Because the collection of all Hermite polynomials H_k is an orthonormal basis for the Hilbert space $L^2(\gamma_1)$, following (6) we have that the collection of all Hermite polynomials H_{α} is an orthonormal basis for the Hilbert space $L^2(\gamma_n)$.

Theorem 10. For γ_n the standard Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n , with mean $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and covariance operator $\mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$, the collection

$$\{H_{\alpha}: \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}^n\}$$

is an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\gamma_n)$.

For $\alpha = (k_1, \dots, k_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}^n$, write $|\alpha| = k_1 + \dots + k_n$. For $k \geq 0$, we define

$$\mathcal{X}_k = \operatorname{span}\{H_\alpha : |\alpha| = k\},\$$

which is a subspace of $L^2(\gamma_n)$ of dimension

$$\binom{k+n-1}{k}$$
.

As \mathcal{X}_k is a finite dimensional subspace of $L^2(\gamma_n)$, it is closed. $L^2(\gamma_n)$ is equal to the orthogonal direct sum of the \mathcal{X}_k :

$$L^2(\gamma_n) = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{X}_k.$$

Let

$$I_k: L^2(\gamma_n) \to \mathcal{X}_k$$

be the orthogonal projection onto \mathcal{X}_k .

6 Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup

Let γ be a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n with mean 0 and covariance operator K. For $t \geq 0$, we define $M_t : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ by

$$M_t(u,v) = e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v, \qquad (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n.$$

By Theorem 6, $M_{t*}(\gamma \times \gamma) = \gamma$. Therefore, for $p \geq 1$ and $f \in L^p(\gamma)$, using the change of variables formula,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x)|^p d\gamma(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} |f(M_t(u,v))|^p d(\gamma \times \gamma)(u,v).$$

Applying Fubini's theorem, the function

$$u \mapsto \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(M_t(u,v))|^p d\gamma(v) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}v})|^p d\gamma(v)$$

belongs to $L^1(\gamma)$. We define the **Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup** $\{T_t : t \geq 0\}$ on $L^p(\gamma), p \geq 1$, by

$$T_t(f)(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(M_t(u, v)) d\gamma(v) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f\left(e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v\right) d\gamma(v),$$

for $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Theorem 11. Let γ be a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n with mean 0. If $f \in L^1(\gamma)$, then

 $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (T_t f)(x) d\gamma(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) d\gamma(x).$

Proof. Using Fubini's theorem, then the change of variables formula, then Theorem 6,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (T_t f)(u) d\gamma(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(M_t(u, v)) d\gamma(v) \right) d\gamma(u)
= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} f(M_t(u, v)) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(u, v)
= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) d(M_{t*}(\gamma \times \gamma))(x)
= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) d\gamma(x).$$

Theorem 12. Let γ be a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n with mean 0. For $p \geq 1$ and $t \geq 0$, T_t is a bounded linear operator $L^p(\gamma) \to L^p(\gamma)$ with operator norm 1.

Proof. For $f \in L^p(\gamma)$, using Jensen's inequality and then Theorem 11,

$$||T_t f||_{L^p(\gamma)}^p = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(M_t(u, v)) d\gamma(v) \right|^p d\gamma(u)$$

$$\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(M_t(u, v))|^p d\gamma(v) \right) d\gamma(u)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} T_t(|f|^p)(u) d\gamma(u)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f|^p (u) d\gamma(u)$$

$$= ||f||_{L^p(\gamma)}^p,$$

i.e. $||T_t f||_{L^p(\mu)} \le ||f||_{L^p(\mu)}$. This shows that the operator norm of T_t is ≤ 1 . But, as γ is a probability measure,

$$T_t 1 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} 1 d\gamma(v) = 1,$$

so T_t has operator norm 1.

For a Banach space E, we denote by $\mathscr{B}(E)$ the set of bounded linear operators $E \to E$. The **strong operator topology on** E is the coarsest topology on E such that for each $x \in E$, the map $A \mapsto Ax$ is continuous $\mathscr{B}(E) \to \mathbb{E}$. To say that a map $Q : [0, \infty) \to \mathscr{B}(E)$ is **strongly continuous means** that for each $t \in [0, \infty)$, $Q(s) \to Q_t$ in the strong operator topology as $s \to t$, i.e., for each $x \in E$, $Q(s)x \to Q(t)x$ in E.

A one-parameter semigroup in $\mathscr{B}(E)$ is a map $Q:[0,\infty)\to\mathscr{B}(E)$ such that (i) $Q(0)=\mathrm{id}_E$ and (ii) for $s,t\geq 0,\ Q(s+t)=Q(s)\circ Q(t)$. For a one-parameter semigroup to be strongly continuous, one proves that it is equivalent that $Q(t)\to\mathrm{id}_E$ in the strong operator topology as $t\downarrow 0$, i.e. for each $x\in E$, $Q(t)x\to x$.

We now establish that the $\{T_t : t \ge 0\}$ is indeed a one-parameter semigroup and that it is strongly continuous.⁹

Theorem 13. Suppose μ is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n with mean 0 and let $p \geq 1$. Then $\{T_t : t \geq 0\}$ is a strongly continuous one-parameter semigroup in $\mathscr{B}(L^p(\gamma))$.

Proof. For $f \in L^p(\gamma)$, because γ is a probability measure,

$$T_0(f)(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(u)d\gamma(v) = f(u),$$

hence $T_0 = \mathrm{id}_{L^p(\mu)}$. For $s, t \geq 0$, define $P : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ by

$$P(u,v) = e^{-s} \frac{\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}}{\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t - 2s}}} u + \frac{\sqrt{1 - e^{-2s}}}{\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t - 2s}}} v.$$

⁸Walter Rudin, Functional Analysis, second ed., p. 376, Theorem 13.35.

⁹Vladimir I. Bogachev, Gaussian Measures, p. 10, Theorem 1.4.1.

By Theorem 6, $P_*(\gamma \times \gamma) = \gamma$, whence

$$(T_{t}(T_{s}f))(x)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} (T_{s}f) \left(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y\right) d\gamma(y)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} f\left(e^{-s}\left(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y\right) + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2s}}w\right) d\gamma(w)\right) d\gamma(y)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}} f\left(e^{-s - t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t - 2s}}P(y, w)\right) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(y, w)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}} (f \circ M_{s+t})(x, P(y, w)) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(y, w)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} (f \circ M_{s+t})(x, z) d\gamma(z)$$

$$= T_{s+t}(f)(x),$$

hence $T_t \circ T_s = T_{s+t}$. This establishes that $\{T_t : t \geq 0\}$ is a semigroup. For $f \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^n)$, $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, as $t \downarrow 0$ we have

$$f\left(e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v\right) - f(u) \to 0,$$

thus by the dominated convergence theorem, since

$$\left| f\left(e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v \right) - f(u) \right| \le 2 \|f\|_{\infty}$$

and γ is a probability measure, we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left(f\left(e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v\right) - f(u) \right) d\gamma(v) \to 0,$$

and hence

$$(T_t f - T_0 f)(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f\left(e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v\right) d\gamma(v) - \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(u) d\gamma(v)$$
$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left(f\left(e^{-t}u + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v\right) - f(u)\right) d\gamma(v)$$
$$\to 0.$$

Because this is true for each $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and

$$|(T_t f - T_0 f)(u)| \le \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} 2 \|f\|_{\infty} d\gamma(v) = 2 \|f\|_{\infty},$$

by the dominated convergence theorem we then have

$$||T_t f - T_0 f||_{L^p(\gamma)} \to 0.$$
 (7)

Now let $f \in L^p(\gamma)$. There is a sequence $f_j \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^n)$ satisfying $||f_j - f||_{L^p(\gamma)} \to 0$, with $||f_j||_{L^p(\gamma)} \le 2 ||f||_{L^p(\gamma)}$ for all j. For any $t \ge 0$,

$$||T_{t}f - T_{0}f||_{L^{p}(\gamma)} \leq ||T_{t}f - T_{t}f_{j}||_{L^{p}(\gamma)} + ||T_{t}f_{j} - T_{0}f_{j}||_{L^{p}(\gamma)} + ||T_{0}f_{j} - T_{0}f||_{L^{p}(\gamma)}$$

$$= ||T_{t}(f - f_{j})||_{L^{p}(\gamma)} + ||T_{t}f - T_{0}f_{j}||_{L^{p}(\gamma)} + ||f_{j} - f||_{L^{p}(\gamma)}$$

$$\leq ||f - f_{j}||_{L^{p}(\gamma)} + ||T_{t}f - T_{0}f_{j}||_{L^{p}(\gamma)} + ||f_{j} - f||_{L^{p}(\gamma)}.$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$ and let j be so large that $||f - f_j||_{L^p(\gamma)} < \epsilon$. Because $f_j \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^n)$, by (7) there is some $\delta > 0$ such that when $0 < t < \delta$, $||T_t f_j - f_j||_{L^p(\gamma)} < \epsilon$. Then when $0 < t < \delta$,

$$||T_t f - T_0 f||_{L^p(\gamma)} \le \epsilon + \epsilon + \epsilon,$$

which shows that for each $f \in L^p(\gamma)$, $||T_t f - T_0 f||_{L^p(\gamma)}$ as $t \downarrow 0$, which suffices to establish that $\{T_t : t \geq 0\}$ is strongly continuous $[0, \infty) \to \mathcal{B}(L^p(\gamma))$.

For t > 0, we define $L_t \in \mathcal{B}(L^p(\gamma))$ by

$$L_t f = \frac{1}{t} (T_t f - f), \qquad f \in L^p(\gamma).$$

We define $\mathcal{D}(L)$ to be the set of those $f \in L^p(\gamma)$ such that $L_t f$ converges to some element of $L^p(\gamma)$ as $t \downarrow 0$, and we define $L : \mathcal{D}(L) \to L^p(\gamma)$. This is the **infinitesimal generator** of the semigroup $\{T_t : t \geq 0\}$, and the infinitesimal generator L of the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup is called the **Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator**. Because the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup is strongly continuous, we get the following.¹⁰

Theorem 14. Suppose μ is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n with mean 0, let $p \geq 1$, and let L be the infinitesimal generator of the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup $\{T_t : t \geq 0\}$. Then:

- 1. $\mathscr{D}(L)$ is a dense linear subspace of $L^p(\gamma)$ and $L: \mathscr{D}(L) \to L^p(\gamma)$ is a closed operator.
- 2. For each $f \in \mathcal{D}(L)$ and for each $t \geq 0$,

$$\frac{d}{dt}(T_t f) = (L \circ T_t)f = (T_t \circ L)f.$$

- 3. For $f \in L^p(\gamma)$ and K a compact subset of $[0, \infty)$, $(\exp(tL_{\epsilon})f \to T_t f)$ as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ uniformly for $t \in K$.
- 4. For $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\operatorname{Re} \lambda > 0$, $R(\lambda) : L^p(\gamma) \to L^p(\gamma)$ defined by

$$R(\lambda)f = \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda t} T_t f dt, \qquad f \in L^p(\gamma),$$

 $^{^{10} \}mbox{Walter Rudin}, \textit{Functional Analysis}, second ed., p. 376, Theorem 13.35.$

belongs to $\mathscr{B}(L^p(\gamma))$, the range of $R(\lambda)$ is equal to $\mathscr{D}(L)$, and

$$((\lambda I - L) \circ R(\lambda))f = f, \quad f \in L^p(\gamma), \qquad (R(\lambda) \circ (\lambda I - L))f = \mathcal{D}(L),$$

where I is the identity operator on $L^p(\gamma)$.

We remind ourselves that if H is a Hilbert space with inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$, an element A of $\mathcal{B}(H)$ is said to be a **positive operator** when $\langle Ax, x \rangle \geq 0$ for all $x \in H$. We prove that each T_t is a positive operator on the Hilbert space $L^2(\gamma)$.

Theorem 15. Suppose μ is a Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n with mean 0. For each $t \geq 0$, $T_t \in \mathcal{B}(L^2(\mu))$ is a positive operator.

Proof. For $t \geq 0$, define $N_t : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ by

$$O_t(x,y) = \left(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y, -\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}x + e^{-t}y\right), \quad (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n,$$

whose transpose is the linear operator $N_t^*: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by

$$O_t^*(u,v) = \left(e^{-t}u - \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v, \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}u + e^{-t}v\right), \qquad (u,v) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n.$$

For $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$, we calculate

$$\begin{split} &\int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} e^{i \langle (x,y),(u,v) \rangle} d(O_{t*}(\gamma \times \gamma))(u,v) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} e^{i \langle (x,y),O_t(u,v) \rangle} d(\gamma \times \gamma)(u,v) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} e^{i \langle O_t^*(x,y),(u,v) \rangle} d(\gamma \times \gamma)(u,v) \\ &= \widetilde{\gamma} \times \gamma(O_t^*(x,y)) \\ &= \widetilde{\gamma} \times \gamma(e^{-t}x - \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y, \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}x + e^{-t}y) \\ &= \widetilde{\gamma}(e^{-t}x - \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y) \widetilde{\gamma}(\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}x + e^{-t}y) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left\langle K(e^{-t}x - \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y), e^{-t}x - \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y \right\rangle \right) \\ &\cdot \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left\langle K(\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}x + e^{-t}y), \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}x + e^{-t}y \right\rangle \right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left\langle Kx, x \right\rangle - \frac{1}{2} \left\langle Ky, y \right\rangle \right) \\ &= \widetilde{\gamma}(x) \widetilde{\gamma}(y) \\ &= \widetilde{\gamma} \times \gamma(x,y), \end{split}$$

¹¹Vladimir I. Bogachev, Gaussian Measures, p. 10, Theorem 1.4.1.

which shows that $O_{t*}(\gamma \times \gamma)$ and $\gamma \times \gamma$ have equal characteristic functions and hence are themselves equal.

For $f, g \in L^2(\gamma)$ and $t \ge 0$,

$$\langle T_t f, g \rangle_{L^2(\gamma)} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (T_t f)(x) g(x) d\mu(x)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} f\left(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y\right) g(x) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(x, y)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} (f \circ \pi_1 \circ O_t)(x, y) (g \circ \pi_1 \circ O_t^{-1} \circ O_t)(x, y) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(x, y)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} (f \circ \pi_1)(u, v) (g \circ \pi_1 \circ O_t^{-1})(u, v) d(O_{t*}(\gamma \times \gamma))(u, v)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} (f \circ \pi_1)(u, v) (g \circ \pi_1 \circ O_t^{-1})(u, v) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(u, v)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} f(u) g\left(e^{-t}u - \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}v\right) d(\gamma \times \gamma)(u, v)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(u) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g(M_t(u, -v)) d\gamma(v)\right) d\gamma(u)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(u) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g(M_t(u, v)) d\gamma(v)\right) d\gamma(u)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(u) (T_t g)(u) d\gamma(u)$$

$$= \langle f, T_t g \rangle_{L^2(\gamma)},$$

which establishes that T_t is a self-adjoint operator on $L^2(\gamma)$.

Furthermore, using that $T_t = T_{t/2} \circ T_{t/2}$ and that $T_{t/2}$ is self-adjoint,

$$\langle T_t f, f \rangle_{L^2(\gamma)} = \langle T_{t/2} T_{t/2} f, f \rangle_{L^2(\gamma)} = \langle T_{t/2} f, T_{t/2}^* f \rangle_{L^2(\gamma)} = \langle T_{t/2} f, T_{t/2} f \rangle_{L^2(\gamma)},$$

which is ≥ 0 , which establishes that T_t is a positive operator on $L^2(\gamma)$.

We now write the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup using the orthogonal projections $I_k: L^2(\gamma_n) \to \mathcal{X}_k$, where γ_n is the standard Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^n . 12

Theorem 16. For each $t \geq 0$ and $f \in L^2(\gamma_n)$,

$$T_t f = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-kt} I_k(f).$$

Proof. Define $S_t: L^2(\gamma_n) \to L^2(\gamma_n)$ by $S_t f = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-kt} I_k(f)$, which satisfies, using that the subspaces \mathcal{X}_k are pairwise orthogonal,

$$||S_t f||_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-kt} ||I_k(f)||_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ||I_k(f)||_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 = ||f||_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2,$$

¹²Vladimir I. Bogachev, Gaussian Measures, p. 11, Theorem 1.4.4.

so $S_t \in \mathcal{B}(L^2(\gamma_n))$. To prove that $T_t = S_t$, it suffices to prove that $T_t H_\alpha = S_t H_\alpha$ for each Hermite polynomial, which are an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\gamma_n)$. For $\alpha = (k_1, \ldots, k_n)$ with $k = |\alpha| = k_1 + \cdots + k_n$,

$$S_t H_{\alpha} = e^{-kt} H_{\alpha},$$

and

$$(T_t H_\alpha)(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} H_\alpha \left(e^{-t} x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} y \right) d\gamma_n(y)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \prod_{j=1}^n H_{k_j} \left(e^{-t} x_j + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} y_j \right) d\gamma_n(y)$$

$$= \prod_{j=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{R}} H_{k_j} \left(e^{-t} x_j + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} y_j \right) d\gamma_1(y_j).$$

To prove that $T_t H_{\alpha} = e^{-kt} H_{\alpha}$, it thus suffices to prove that for any t, for any k_j , and for any x_j ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} H_{k_j} \left(e^{-t} x_j + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} y_j \right) d\gamma_1(y_j) = e^{-k_j t} H_{k_j}(x_j). \tag{8}$$

For $k_j = 0$, as $H_0 = 1$ and γ_1 is a probability measure, (8) is true. Suppose that (8) is true for $\leq k_j$. That is, for each $0 \leq h \leq k_j$, $T_t H_h = e^{-ht} H_h$. For any l, because the Hermite polynomial H_l is a polynomial of degree l, one checks that $T_t H_l(x_j)$ is a polynomial of degree l: using the binomial formula,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} (e^{-t}x_j + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y_j)^l \exp\left(-\frac{y_j^2}{2}\right) d\gamma_1(y_j)$$

is a polynomial in x_j of degree l. Hence T_tH_l a linear combination of H_0, H_1, \ldots, H_l . For $0 \le h \le k_j$,

$$\langle T_t H_{k_j+1}, H_h \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = \langle H_{k_j+1}, T_t H_h \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = \langle H_{k_j+1}, e^{-ht} H_h \rangle_{L^2(\gamma_1)} = 0.$$

Therefore there is some $c \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $T_t H_{k_j+1} = c H_{k_j+1}$. Then check that $c = e^{-(k_j+1)t}$.

We now give an explicit expression for the domain $\mathcal{D}(L)$ of the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator L and for L applied to an element of its domain.¹³

Theorem 17.

$$\mathscr{D}(L) = \left\{ f \in L^2(\gamma_n) : \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 \|I_k(f)\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 < \infty \right\}.$$

For $f \in \mathcal{D}(L)$,

$$Lf = -\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kI_f(f).$$

¹³Vladimir I. Bogachev, Gaussian Measures, p. 12, Proposition 1.4.5.

Proof. Let $f \in \mathcal{D}(L)$, i.e. $\frac{T_t f - f}{t} \to L f$ in $L^2(\gamma_n)$ as $t \downarrow 0$. For any $k \geq 0$, using Theorem 16,

$$\begin{split} I_k L f &= I_k \left(\lim_{t \downarrow 0} \frac{T_t f - f}{t} \right) \\ &= \lim_{t \downarrow 0} \frac{I_k T_t f - I_k f}{t} \\ &= \lim_{t \downarrow 0} \frac{T_t I_k f - I_k f}{t} \\ &= \lim_{t \downarrow 0} \frac{e^{-kt} I_k f - I_k f}{t} \\ &= \left(\lim_{t \downarrow 0} \frac{e^{-kt} - 1}{t} \right) I_k f \\ &= \left(e^{-kt} \right)' \big|_{t=0} I_k f \\ &= -k I_k f. \end{split}$$

Using this,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^{2} \|I_{k}f\|_{L^{2}(\gamma_{n})}^{2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|I_{k}Lf\|_{L^{2}(\gamma_{n})}^{2}$$

$$= \left\|\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} I_{k}Lf\right\|_{L^{2}(\gamma_{n})}^{2}$$

$$= \|Lf\|_{L^{2}(\gamma_{n})}^{2}$$

$$< \infty.$$

Moreover,

$$Lf = L\left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} I_k f\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} LI_k f = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} I_k Lf = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} -kI_f.$$

Let $f \in L^2(\gamma_n)$ satisfy

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 \|I_k f\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 < \infty.$$

For t > 0,

$$\left\| \frac{T_t f - f}{t} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k I_k f \right\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 = \left\| \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{e^{-kt} I_k f - I_k f}{t} + k I_k f \right) \right\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{e^{-kt} - 1}{t} + k \right|^2 \|I_k f\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2.$$

For t > 0 and $k \ge 0$,

$$|t^{-1}(e^{-kt} - 1)| \le k,$$

and thus

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{e^{-kt} - 1}{t} + k \right|^2 \|I_k f\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (2k)^2 \|I_k f\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 < \infty.$$

For each $k \geq 0$, as $t \downarrow 0$,

$$\frac{e^{-kt} - 1}{t} + k \to 0,$$

thus as $t \downarrow 0$,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{e^{-kt} - 1}{t} + k \right|^2 \|I_k f\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 \to 0$$

and hence

$$\left\| \frac{T_t f - f}{t} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k I_k f \right\|_{L^2(\gamma_n)}^2 \to 0.$$

This means that $\frac{T_t f - f}{t}$ converges in $L^2(\gamma_n)$ to $-\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k I_k f$ as $t \downarrow 0$, and since $\frac{T_t f - f}{t}$ converges, $f \in \mathcal{D}(L)$.