There is One Separable Hilbert Space (of Each Dimension)

Arav Bhattacharya

Euler Circle

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Introduction

Linear algebra, which studies vector spaces and their properties, offers many mathematical insights into these spaces. However, many results of linear algebra do not apply to all vector spaces.

In this presentation, we will introduce various concepts from functional analysis, a field of math which generalizes many results from linear algebra.

Definition (Vector Space)

A vector space V over a field $\mathbb F$ is a set (whose elements are called vectors), together with the associative and commutative operation of addition of vectors, and the associative and distributive operation of multiplication of vectors by elements of $\mathbb F$ (called scalars).

Example (Euclidean Space \mathbb{R}^n)

The space \mathbb{R}^n is a vector space under componentwise addition and multiplication by real scalars. Vectors in \mathbb{R}^n are *n*-tuples (x_1, \ldots, x_n) , where $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Example (Unitary Space \mathbb{C}^n)

Similarly, \mathbb{C}^n under componentwise addition and scalar multiplication is also a vector space. Vectors \mathbb{C}^n are *n*-tuples (x_1, \ldots, x_n) , where $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{C}$.

Example (Sequence Space ℓ^{∞})

The space of all bounded sequences under termwise addition and scalar multiplication, denoted ℓ^{∞} , is a vector space. Vectors in this space are sequences $(x_n) = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots)$, where $x_n \in \mathbb{C}$.

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Example (Function Space $\mathcal{P}[a, b]$)

The space of real-valued polynomials under pointwise addition and scalar multiplication, denoted $P[a, b]$, is a vector space. Vectors in this space are polynomials with real coefficients.

Definition (Basis)

A basis of a vector space V is the smallest set of vectors B such that each element of V can be written in the form

 $a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$

for some scalars a_1, \ldots, a_n and vectors $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in B$.

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All bases of a finite-dimensional vector space have the same number of vectors. Intuitively, this makes sense because bases allow us to creates coordinates for a vector space via the coefficients a_1, \ldots, a_n as above.

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Here are the dimensions of the spaces mentioned before:

$$
\dim \mathbb{R}^{n} = n,
$$

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$$
\dim \mathbb{C}^{n} = n,
$$

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$$
\dim \ell^{\infty} = \infty,
$$

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$$
\dim \mathcal{P}[a, b] = \infty.
$$

With the framework of dimension in hand, we now turn to a key theorem in linear algebra.

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Theorem

A finite-dimensional vector space V over a field $\mathbb F$, with dim $V = n$, is isomorphic to \mathbb{F}^n .

Proof.

Choose a basis v_1, \ldots, v_n of V. Then we can write any vector $v \in V$ as

 $v = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$.

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Now take a basis e_1, \ldots, e_n of \mathbb{F}^n . Then there exists a unique element $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$ where

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x=a_1e_1+\cdots+a_ne_n.
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We will spend the rest of the talk developing a way to generalize this theorem to infinite-dimensional spaces.

Definition (Inner product)

An inner product space is a vector space V equipped with an inner product written $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ that satisfies the following properties for all $x, y, z \in V$ and scalars α :

$$
\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle \qquad \langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle
$$

$$
\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}
$$

$$
\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0 \qquad \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \Longleftrightarrow x = 0
$$

Example $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}^n)$

On \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{C}^n , we define the standard inner product (also known as the dot product) for vectors $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n)$ by

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\langle x,y\rangle=\sum_{i=1}^n x_i\overline{y_i}.
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Example $(\mathcal{P}[a, b])$

On P[a, b], we define an inner product for vectors $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$ by

$$
\langle x,y\rangle=\int_a^b x(t)y(t)\,dt.
$$

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Note that we cannot extend our definition of the standard inner product on \mathbb{C}^n to ℓ^{∞} .

For example, if we tried to find the dot product of the sequence

$$
x=(1,1,1,\ldots)
$$

with itself, we would get

$$
\langle x, x \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 1,
$$

which doesn't converge.

To fix this issue, we will impose a further restriction on the sequences we allow.

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Definition (Sequence space ℓ^2)

The sequence space $\ell^{\,2}\subseteq \ell^\infty$ is defined to be the space of all sequences $(x_n) = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots)$, where $x_n \in \mathbb{C}$, such that

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converges.

The space ℓ^2 , under termwise addition and scalar multiplication, is a vector space. Furthermore, this space is an inner product space with the inner product of vectors $x = (x_n)$ and $y = (y_n)$ being

$$
\langle x,y\rangle=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}x_n\overline{y_n}.
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Hilbert Spaces

Before we can continue to results about infinite-dimensional spaces, we must take a quick "pit-stop" to loosely review some concepts from real analysis.

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The spaces \mathbb{R}^n , \mathbb{C}^n , and ℓ^2 are Hilbert spaces while $\mathcal{P}[a,b]$ is not.

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Example

The space \mathbb{Q}^n is dense in \mathbb{R}^n and thus \mathbb{R}^n is separable. By a similar argument, \mathbb{C}^n is separable.

Theorem

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Thank you for your time.

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