

Appendix A

Prerequisites

This appendix recalls some notation and results that are needed throughout the book.

A.1 Linear Algebra

We first review some facts from linear algebra and matrix analysis, see [151] for an advanced course.

For a $(m \times d)$ -matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ we denote by A_k^j the element in the j 'th row and k 'th column ($j = 1, \dots, m; k = 1, \dots, d$). In this book the matrix space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ always comes equipped with the **Frobenius matrix (inner) product**

$$A : B := \text{tr}(A^T B) = \text{tr}(AB^T) = \sum_{j,k} A_k^j B_k^j, \quad A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d},$$

which is just the Euclidean product if we identify such matrices with vectors in \mathbb{R}^{md} . This inner product induces the **Frobenius matrix norm**

$$|A| := \sqrt{\sum_{j,k} (A_k^j)^2}, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}.$$

While of course all norms on the finite-dimensional space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ are equivalent, some finer arguments require us to specify a matrix norm; if nothing else is stated, we always use the Frobenius norm.

The Frobenius norm can also be expressed as

$$|A| = \sqrt{\sum_i \sigma_i(A)^2}, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d},$$

where $\sigma_i(A) \geq 0$ is the i 'th singular value of A , $i = 1, \dots, \min\{d, m\}$. For this, recall that every matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ has a **(real) singular value decomposition**

$$A = P \Sigma Q^T$$

for orthogonal matrices $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ ($P^{-1} = P^T$, $Q^{-1} = Q^T$), and a diagonal matrix

$$\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{\min\{d, m\}}) = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \sigma_{\min\{d, m\}} & & \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & & \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$$

with only positive diagonal entries

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0 = \sigma_{r+1} = \sigma_{r+2} = \dots = \sigma_{\min\{d, m\}},$$

called the **singular values** of A , where r is the rank of A .

From the above expression using the singular values, it follows immediately that the Frobenius norm is orthogonally invariant, that is, for all $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ and all orthogonal $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ it holds that

$$|PA| = |A| = |AQ|.$$

A special matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ is the **tensor product** of the vectors $a \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^d$, which is defined as

$$a \otimes b := ab^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}.$$

Occasionally, we will also use $a \otimes b$ for a a column vector and b a row-vector to denote the matrix product ab . While technically incorrect, this notation emphasizes that the result is a *matrix*. We recall the following elementary fact: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$. Then, $\text{rank } A \leq 1$ if and only if there exist vectors $a \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $A = a \otimes b$. The tensor product also interacts well with the Frobenius norm:

$$|a \otimes b| = |a| \cdot |b|, \quad a \in \mathbb{R}^m, \quad b \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

where in \mathbb{R}^m and \mathbb{R}^d we use the usual Euclidean norm.

A fundamental inequality involving the determinant is the **Hadamard inequality**: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ with columns $A_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ($j = 1, \dots, d$). Then,

$$|\det A| \leq \prod_{j=1}^d |A_j| \leq |A|^d.$$

An analogous formula holds with the rows of A .

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ the **cofactor matrix** $\text{cof } A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ of A is the matrix whose (j, k) 'th entry is $(-1)^{j+k} M_{-k}^{-j}(A)$ with $M_{-k}^{-j}(A)$ being the (j, k) -**minor** of A , i.e., the determinant of the matrix that originates from A by deleting the j 'th row and the k 'th column. For

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

we have

$$\text{cof } A = \begin{pmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

One important formula (and another way to define the cofactor matrix) is

$$\frac{d}{dA} \det A = \text{cof } A.$$

Furthermore, **Cramer's rule** entails that

$$A(\text{cof } A)^T = (\text{cof } A)^T A = (\det A)\text{Id}, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d},$$

where Id denotes the identity matrix. In particular, if A is invertible,

$$A^{-1} = \frac{(\text{cof } A)^T}{\det A}. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

From this we deduce that $\text{cof } A$ is invertible if A is. Sometimes, the matrix $(\text{cof } A)^T$ is called the **adjugate matrix** to A in the literature (we will not use this terminology here, however).

One particular consequence of Cramer's rule is **Jacobi's formula**, which says that for any continuously differentiable function $A(t): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ it holds that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \det A(t) = \text{cof } A(t) : \frac{dA(t)}{dt} = \text{tr} \left[(\text{cof } A(t))^T \frac{dA(t)}{dt} \right].$$

In particular, if $A(t) = A_0 + tB$ ($A_0, B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$), we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} \det[A_0 + tB] = \text{tr}[(\text{cof } A_0)^T B + t(\text{cof } B)^T B] = (\text{cof } A_0) : B + t d \det B.$$

As a consequence, we derive that if $\frac{d}{dt} \det[A_0 + tB]$ is constant, then necessarily $\det B = 0$.

The **special orthogonal group** $\text{SO}(d)$ is defined as

$$\text{SO}(d) := \{ Q \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} : Q \text{ invertible, } Q^{-1} = Q^T, \det Q = 1 \}.$$

It has the following useful property, which can be verified via (A.1):

$$\text{cof } Q = Q \quad \text{for all } Q \in \text{SO}(d).$$

Any $Q \in \text{SO}(2) \subset \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ (a rotation) has the form

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

for some $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$. For the convex hull $\text{SO}(2)^{**}$ of $\text{SO}(2)$ one may compute

$$\text{SO}(2)^{**} = \left\{ A = \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix} : a^2 + b^2 \leq 1 \right\}.$$

Moreover, a Taylor expansion and the fact that the Lie algebra of the Lie group $\text{SO}(2)$ is the vector space of all skew-symmetric matrices yields

$$\text{dist}(\text{Id} + A, \text{SO}(2)) \leq \frac{1}{2}|A + A^T| + C|A|^2 \quad (\text{A.2})$$

for some $C > 0$.

We also recall a special case of the theorem on the **Jordan normal form** for real (2×2) -matrices: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$. Then, there exists an invertible matrix $S \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ such that

$$S^{-1}AS = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad S^{-1}AS = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}$$

with $a, c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b \in \{0, 1\}$

Finally, any square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ has a real **polar decomposition**

$$A = QS,$$

where Q is orthogonal ($Q^{-1} = Q^T$) and S is symmetric and positive definite.

In a few instances we also deal with fourth-order **tensors** $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}_{jl}^{ik}$ ($i, k = 1, \dots, m; j, l = 1, \dots, d$). They define bilinear forms on $\mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ via

$$A : \mathbf{T}B := \sum_{i,k} \sum_{j,l} \mathbf{T}_{jl}^{ik} A_j^i B_l^k.$$

We call \mathbf{T} symmetric and positive definite if the corresponding bilinear form has these properties.

A.2 Functional Analysis

We assume that the reader has a solid foundation in the basic notions of functional analysis such as Banach spaces and their duals, weak/weak* convergence (and topology), reflexivity, and weak/weak* compactness. Note that in this book we mostly only need convergence of sequences and rarely more advanced topological concepts. One very thorough reference for most of this material is [74].

Let X be a Banach space. The application of $x^* \in X^*$ to $x \in X$ is often expressed via the **duality pairing** $\langle x, x^* \rangle := x^*(x)$. We write $x_j \rightharpoonup x$ in X for **weak convergence**, that is, $\langle x_j, x^* \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, x^* \rangle$ for all $x^* \in X^*$, and $x_j^* \overset{*}{\rightharpoonup} x^*$ in X^* for **weak* convergence**, that is, $\langle x, x_j^* \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, x^* \rangle$ for all $x \in X$. The weak* topology is metrizable on norm-bounded sets in the dual to a separable Banach space. Likewise, in reflexive and separable Banach spaces the weak topology is metrizable on norm-bounded sets. In this context we note that in Banach spaces topological weak compactness is equivalent to sequential weak compactness by the Eberlein–Šmulian theorem. Also recall that the norm in a Banach space is lower semicontinuous with respect to weak convergence: If $x_j \rightharpoonup x$ in X , then $\|x\| \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \|x_j\|$.

Theorem A.1 (Hahn–Banach separation theorem). *Let X be a Banach space and let $K, F \subset X$ be disjoint, non-empty, and convex subsets of X such that K is compact and F is closed. Then, K and F can be separated by a hyperplane, that is, there exists an $x^* \in X^*$ such that*

$$\sup_{x \in K} \langle x, x^* \rangle < \inf_{x \in F} \langle x, x^* \rangle.$$

Theorem A.2 (Weak compactness). *Let X be a separable, reflexive Banach space. Then, norm-bounded sets in X are sequentially weakly precompact.*

Theorem A.3 (Banach–Alaoglu). *Let X be a separable Banach space. Then, norm-bounded sets in the dual space X^* are weakly* sequentially precompact.*

Weak convergence can be “improved” to strong convergence in the following way (see Section I.1.2 in [106] for a proof):

Lemma A.4 (Mazur). *Let $x_j \rightharpoonup x$ in a Banach space X . Then, there exists a sequence $(y_j) \subset X$ of convex combinations,*

$$y_j = \sum_{n=j}^{N(j)} \theta_n^{(j)} x_n, \quad \theta_n^{(j)} \in [0, 1], \quad \sum_{n=j}^{N(j)} \theta_n^{(j)} = 1$$

such that $y_j \rightarrow x$ in X .

A.3 Measure Theory

We assume that the reader is familiar with the notion of Lebesgue- and Borel-measurability, negligible sets, and L^p -spaces; a good introduction is [236]. For the d -dimensional Lebesgue measure we write \mathcal{L}^d or \mathcal{L}_x^d if we want to stress the integration variable. Often, however, the Lebesgue measure of a Borel- or Lebesgue-measurable set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is simply denoted by $|A|$. We also write ω_d for the volume of the d -dimensional unit ball.

The **indicator function** of a subset $A \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is

$$\mathbb{1}_A(x) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

In the following we recall some basic results that are needed throughout the book.

Lemma A.5 *Let $B \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a Borel set. A function $f: B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ is Lebesgue-measurable if and only if there exists a sequence of simple functions*

$$f_j := \sum_{k=1}^{K(j)} v_k^{(j)} \mathbb{1}_{E_k^{(j)}}$$

such that

$$f_j \rightarrow f \quad \text{pointwise} \quad \text{as } j \rightarrow \infty,$$

where $K(j) \in \mathbb{N}$, the $E_k^{(j)} \subset B$ are Lebesgue-measurable sets with $\bigcup_{k=1}^{K(j)} E_k^{(j)} = B$, and $v_k^{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ for all j, k .

Lemma A.6 (Fatou). *Let $f_j: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$, be Lebesgue-measurable functions. Then,*

$$\int \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j(x) \, dx \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int f_j(x) \, dx.$$

Lemma A.7 (Monotone convergence). *Let $f_j: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$, be Lebesgue-measurable functions with $f_j(x) \uparrow f(x)$ for almost every $x \in \Omega$. Then, $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ is measurable and*

$$\int f(x) \, dx = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int f_j(x) \, dx.$$

Lemma A.8 *If $f_j \rightarrow f$ (strongly) in $L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $p \in [1, \infty]$, that is,*

$$\|f_j - f\|_{L^p} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } j \rightarrow \infty,$$

then there exists a subsequence (not explicitly labeled; we do not choose different indices for subsequences if the original sequence is discarded at the same time) such that $f_j \rightarrow f$ pointwise almost everywhere.

Theorem A.9 (Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem). Let $f_j: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$, be Lebesgue-measurable functions such that there exists an L^p -integrable majorant $g \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$ for some $p \in [1, \infty)$, that is,

$$|f_j| \leq g \quad \text{for all } j \in \mathbb{N}.$$

If $f_j \rightarrow f$ pointwise almost everywhere for some $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then also $f_j \rightarrow f$ in L^p ; in particular, $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

The following strengthening of Lebesgue's theorem is often useful in the calculus of variations:

Theorem A.10 (Pratt). Let $f_j: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$, be Lebesgue-measurable functions. If $f_j \rightarrow f$ pointwise almost everywhere (or in measure) and there exists a sequence $(g_j) \subset L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ with $g_j \rightarrow g$ in L^1 such that $|f_j| \leq g_j$, then $f_j \rightarrow f$ in L^1 .

The following convergence theorem is of fundamental significance:

Theorem A.11 (Vitali). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be bounded and let $(f_j) \subset L^p(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^m)$, $p \in [1, \infty)$. Assume furthermore that the following two conditions hold:

(i) No oscillations: $f_j \rightarrow f$ in measure, that is, for all $\delta > 0$,

$$\left| \left\{ x \in \Omega : |f_j(x) - f(x)| > \delta \right\} \right| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } j \rightarrow \infty.$$

(ii) No concentrations: the family $\{f_j\}_j$ is L^p -equiintegrable.

Then, $f_j \rightarrow f$ in L^p .

Here, $\{f_j\}_j \subset L^p(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^m)$ is called L^p -**equiintegrable** if one of the following equivalent conditions is satisfied:

- (i) $\lim_{R \uparrow \infty} \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\{|f_j| > R\}} |f_j|^p \, dx = 0$;
- (ii) $\lim_{R \uparrow \infty} \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\{|f_j| > R\}} |f_j|^p \, dx = 0$;
- (iii) for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that for all Borel sets $B \subset \Omega$ with $|B| < \delta$ we have

$$\sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_B |f_j|^p \, dx < \varepsilon.$$

Theorem A.12 (Dunford–Pettis). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be bounded and open. A norm-bounded family $\{f_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subset L^1(\Omega)$ is equiintegrable if and only if it is weakly sequentially precompact in $L^1(\Omega)$.

We remark that the usual formulation of the Dunford–Pettis theorem only mentions *topological* precompactness. The statement above follows by also utilizing the Eberlein–Šmulian theorem (see Chapter V in [74]).

Theorem A.13 (Egorov). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a bounded Borel set and let $f_j : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$, be Lebesgue-measurable functions. If $f_j \rightarrow f$ pointwise almost everywhere, then for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a compact set $K_\varepsilon \subset \Omega$ with $|\Omega \setminus K_\varepsilon| \leq \varepsilon$ and such that $f_j \rightarrow f$ uniformly in K_ε .

Theorem A.14 (Radon–Riesz). Let $p \in (1, \infty)$ and let $(f_j) \subset L^p(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^m)$ with $f_j \rightarrow f$ (weak convergence) as well as $\|f_j\|_{L^p} \rightarrow \|f\|_{L^p}$. Then, $f_j \rightarrow f$ in L^p .

The following covering theorem is a handy tool for several constructions, see Theorem 2.19 in [15] for a proof:

Theorem A.15 (Vitali covering theorem). Let $\Omega, D \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be open and bounded. Then, there exist $a_k \in \Omega$, $r_k > 0$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}$, such that we may write Ω as the disjoint union

$$\Omega = Z \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \overline{D(a_k, r_k)}, \quad D(a_k, r_k) := a_k + r_k D,$$

with $Z \subset \Omega$ a Lebesgue-negligible set ($|Z| = 0$). Moreover, if for almost every $x \in \Omega$ we are given a real number $r(x) > 0$, then we may additionally require of the cover that $r_k < r(a_k)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem A.16 (Lusin). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a bounded Borel set and let $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ be Lebesgue-measurable. Then, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a compact set $K \subset \Omega$ such that $|\Omega \setminus K| \leq \varepsilon$ and $f|_K$ is continuous.

Theorem A.17 (Sard). Let $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be d times continuously differentiable. Then,

$$\mathcal{L}^1(f(S)) = 0, \quad \text{where } S := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \nabla f(x) = 0\}.$$

We also need other measures than Lebesgue measure on subsets of \mathbb{R}^N (this will usually be either \mathbb{R}^d or a matrix space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$, which is identified with \mathbb{R}^{md}). All of these abstract measures will be **Borel measures**, that is, they are defined on the **Borel σ -algebra** $\mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}^N)$ of \mathbb{R}^N , which is the smallest σ -algebra that contains all the open sets. All positive Borel measures defined on \mathbb{R}^N that do not take the value $+\infty$ are collected in the set $\mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$ of **(finite) positive Radon measures**; its subclass of **probability measures** is $\mathcal{M}^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$. We remark that all σ -finite measures on \mathbb{R}^N are in fact **inner regular**, meaning that for every Borel set $B \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ it holds that

$$\mu(B) = \sup\{\mu(K) : K \subset B \text{ compact}\}.$$

A **local Radon measure** μ is a set function $\mu : \mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}^N) \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ such that μ restricted to (subsets of) any compact set is a finite Radon measure. In this case we write $\mu \in \mathcal{M}_{\text{loc}}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$. We also use $\mathcal{M}^+(U)$, $\mathcal{M}_{\text{loc}}^+(U)$, $\mathcal{M}^1(U)$ for the subset of measures that only charge $U \subset \mathbb{R}^N$, that is, the measure of the complement of U is zero. A good reference for (advanced) measure theory is [15].

For $h: \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$ we define the **duality pairing**

$$\langle h, \mu \rangle := \int h(A) \, d\mu(A)$$

whenever this integral makes sense. The following notation is convenient for the **barycenter** of a (finite, positive) Borel measure $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$:

$$[\mu] := \langle \text{id}, \mu \rangle = \int A \, d\mu(A).$$

We also define the **support** of $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$ by

$$\text{supp } \mu := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^N : \mu(B(x, r)) > 0 \text{ for all } r > 0 \},$$

where $B(x_0, r) \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ is the ball with center x_0 and radius $r > 0$. The **restriction** of a Borel measure $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$ to a Borel set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ is

$$(\mu \lfloor A)(B) := \mu(A \cap B) \quad \text{for any Borel set } B \subset \mathbb{R}^N.$$

Probability measures and convex functions interact well:

Lemma A.18 (Jensen inequality). *For all probability measures $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$ and all convex $h: \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ it holds that*

$$h([\mu]) \leq \int h(A) \, d\mu(A).$$

We say that a sequence $(\mu_j) \subset \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$ **converges weakly*** in $\mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$ to $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$, in symbols “ $\mu_j \xrightarrow{*} \mu$ ”, if $\langle \psi, \mu_j \rangle \rightarrow \langle \psi, \mu \rangle$ for all $\psi \in C_0(\mathbb{R}^N)$. We speak of **local weak* convergence** if $\langle \psi, \mu_j \rangle \rightarrow \langle \psi, \mu \rangle$ for all $\psi \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^N)$. A sequence $(\mu_j) \subset \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$ with $\sup_j \mu_j(\mathbb{R}^N) < \infty$ has a weakly* converging subsequence by Theorem A.2.

We also recall a useful convergence lemma:

Lemma A.19 *Let $\mu_j \xrightarrow{*} \mu$ in $\mathcal{M}_{\text{loc}}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$. Then for every lower semicontinuous function $g: \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ it holds that*

$$\int g \, d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int g \, d\mu_j,$$

and for every upper semicontinuous function $h: \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ with compact support it holds that

$$\int h \, d\mu \geq \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int h \, d\mu_j.$$

In particular, for $U \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ open and $K \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ compact,

$$\mu(U) \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \mu_j(U) \quad \text{and} \quad \mu(K) \geq \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} \mu_j(K).$$

Similar definitions and statements apply to $\mathcal{M}^+(U)$, $\mathcal{M}_{\text{loc}}^+(U)$, $\mathcal{M}^1(U)$.

Finally, we recall a very useful “continuity” property of measurable functions:

Theorem A.20 *Let $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^N, \mu)$, that is, f is μ -integrable, where $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^N)$. Then, μ -almost every $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is a **Lebesgue point** of f with respect to μ , that is,*

$$\lim_{r \downarrow 0} \int_{B(x_0, r)} |f(x) - f(x_0)| \, d\mu(x) = 0,$$

where $\int_{B(x_0, r)} := |B(x_0, r)|^{-1} \int_{B(x_0, r)}$.

We denote by \mathcal{H}^s the s -dimensional Hausdorff measure, $0 \leq s < \infty$. For the definition of this measure and the associated notion of \mathcal{H}^s -**rectifiable sets** (which is not important for most of this book), we refer to [15].

A.4 Vector Measures

In this section we exhibit a few aspects of the theory of **vector (Radon) measures** (often just called “measures” in this book), which are σ -additive set functions $\mu: \mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ (in particular, $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$). All such μ are collected in the space $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)$; likewise define $\mathcal{M}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^N)$ and $\mathcal{M}(\overline{\Omega}; \mathbb{R}^N)$ for an open set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. We will also use **local vector measures**, defined analogously to the above, which are collected in the set $\mathcal{M}_{\text{loc}}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^N)$.

If for the target dimension we have $N = 1$, then we simply write $\mathcal{M}(\Omega)$ instead of $\mathcal{M}(\Omega; \mathbb{R})$; the elements of this space are called **signed (Radon) measures**, but in this case we also usually just speak of “measures”.

The **total variation measure** of $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)$ is the positive measure $|\mu| \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^d)$ defined as

$$|\mu|(B) := \sup \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\mu(B_k)| : B = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k \text{ as a disjoint union of Borel sets} \right\}.$$

It can be shown that for all open sets $U \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ it holds that

$$|\mu|(U) = \sup \left\{ \int \psi \cdot d\mu : \psi \in C_c(U; \mathbb{R}^N), \|\psi\|_{\infty} \leq 1 \right\}, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

where the dot “ \cdot ” indicates that μ 's values are to be scalar-multiplied with the values of ψ (e.g. $\int (v_0 \mathbb{1}_B) \cdot d\mu = v_0 \cdot \mu(B)$ for $v_0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and B a Borel set). See Proposition 1.47 in [15] for a proof. We also set $\text{supp } \mu := \text{supp } |\mu|$.

There is an alternative, dual, view on vector measures, expressed in the following important theorem:

Theorem A.21 (Riesz representation theorem). *The space of vector Radon measures $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)$ is isometrically isomorphic to the dual space $C_0(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)^*$ via the duality pairing*

$$\langle \varphi, \mu \rangle = \int \varphi \cdot d\mu, \quad \varphi \in C_0(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N), \quad \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N).$$

As an easy, often convenient, consequence, we can *define* measures through their *action* on $C_0(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)$. Note, however, that we then need to check the boundedness $|\langle \varphi, \mu \rangle| \leq \|\varphi\|_\infty$ for all $\varphi \in C_0(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)$.

If an element $\mu \in C_0(\mathbb{R}^d)^*$ is additionally positive, that is, $\langle \varphi, \mu \rangle \geq 0$ for $\varphi \geq 0$, and normalized, that is, $\langle \mathbb{1}, \mu \rangle = 1$ (here, $\mathbb{1} = 1$ on the whole space), then the μ from the Riesz representation theorem is a *probability measure*, $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^1(\mathbb{R}^N)$.

The weak* convergence of vector measures is defined exactly as for positive measures, namely by considering vector measures as elements of $C_0(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)^*$. Sometimes, for a norm-bounded sequence $(v_j) \subset L^1(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^N)$, we will say that “ $v_j \xrightarrow{*} \mu$ in $\mathcal{M}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^N)$ ” when really we mean $v_j \mathcal{L}^d \llcorner \Omega \xrightarrow{*} \mu$ in $\mathcal{M}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^N)$. A sequence $(\mu_j) \subset \mathcal{M}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^N)$ with $\sup_j |\mu_j|(\Omega) < \infty$ has a weakly* converging subsequence by Theorem A.2.

The following lemma is proved in Proposition 1.62 (b) of [15].

Lemma A.22 *Let $\mu_j \xrightarrow{*} \mu$ in $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)$ and assume that $|\mu_j| \xrightarrow{*} \Lambda \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^d)$. If $K \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is compact and $\Lambda(\partial K) = 0$, then $\mu_j(K) \rightarrow \mu(K)$. Moreover, if $h: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded Borel function with compact support and a Λ -negligible set of discontinuity points, then*

$$\int h d\mu_j \rightarrow \int h d\mu.$$

Of fundamental importance is the following theorem:

Theorem A.23 (Besicovitch differentiation theorem). *Given $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^N)$ and $\nu \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathbb{R}^d)$, for ν -almost every $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ in the support of ν , the limit*

$$\frac{d\mu}{d\nu}(x_0) := \lim_{r \downarrow 0} \frac{\mu(B(x_0, r))}{\nu(B(x_0, r))}$$

*exists in \mathbb{R}^N and is called the **Radon–Nikodým derivative** of μ with respect to ν . Moreover, the **Lebesgue–Radon–Nikodým decomposition** of μ is given as*

$$\mu = \frac{d\mu}{dv} \nu + \mu^s.$$

Here, $\mu^s = \mu \llcorner E$ is **singular** with respect to ν (that is, μ^s is concentrated on a ν -negligible set), where

$$E := (\mathbb{R}^d \setminus \text{supp } \nu) \cup \left\{ x \in \text{supp } \nu : \lim_{r \downarrow 0} \frac{|\mu|(B(x, r))}{\nu(B(x, r))} = \infty \right\}.$$

Finally, for a Borel measure $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^N)$ and a surjective Borel map $\varphi: \Omega \rightarrow \Omega' \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, we define the **push-forward measure** of μ under φ via

$$\varphi\#\mu := \mu \circ \varphi^{-1} \in \mathcal{M}(\Omega'; \mathbb{R}^N).$$

We have the following transformation formula for any $g: \Omega' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:

$$\int_{\Omega'} g \, d(\varphi\#\mu) = \int_{\Omega} g \circ \varphi \, d\mu,$$

provided these integrals are defined.

A.5 Sobolev and Other Function Spaces

We give a brief overview of Sobolev spaces, see [176] or [111] for more detailed accounts and proofs.

In all of the following we assume that $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is a Lipschitz domain, that is, Ω is open, bounded, connected, and has a boundary that is the union of finitely many Lipschitz manifolds. We also let $p \in [1, \infty]$, unless otherwise indicated. As usual, we denote by $C(\Omega) = C^0(\Omega)$, $C^k(\Omega)$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$, the spaces of continuous and k times continuously differentiable functions. The spaces $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ contain the $C^k(\Omega)$ -functions such that all l 'th-order derivatives for $l \leq k$ can be continuously extended to $\overline{\Omega}$. As norms in these spaces we have

$$\|u\|_{C^k} := \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \|\partial^\alpha u\|_\infty, \quad u \in C^k(\Omega), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

where $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ is the supremum norm. Here, the sum is over all **multi-indices** $\alpha \in (\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\})^d$ with $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_d \leq k$, and

$$\partial^\alpha := \partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_d^{\alpha_d}$$

is the α -derivative operator.

Similarly, we define the linear space $C^\infty(\Omega)$ of infinitely-often differentiable functions, but this cannot be equipped with a complete norm. A subscript “ c ” indicates that all functions u in the respective function space (e.g. $C_c^\infty(\Omega)$) must have their **support**

$$\text{supp } u := \overline{\{x \in \Omega : u(x) \neq 0\}}$$

compactly contained in Ω (so, $\text{supp } u \subset \Omega$ and $\text{supp } u$ compact). For the compact containment of a bounded set A in an open set B we write $A \Subset B$, which means that $\bar{A} \subset B$. In this way, the previous condition could be written as $\text{supp } u \Subset \Omega$. We denote by $C_0^k(\Omega)$ the closure of $C_c^\infty(\Omega)$ in $C^k(\Omega)$. All the spaces $C_0^k(\Omega)$ are separable.

For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ a positive integer and $p \in [1, \infty]$, the **Sobolev space** $W^{k,p}(\Omega)$ is defined to contain all functions $u \in L^p(\Omega)$ such that the **weak derivative** $\partial^\alpha u$ exists and lies in $L^p(\Omega)$ for all multi-indices $\alpha \in (\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\})^d$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$. This means that for every such α , there is a (unique) function $v_\alpha \in L^p(\Omega)$ satisfying

$$\int v_\alpha \cdot \psi \, dx = (-1)^{|\alpha|} \int u \cdot \partial^\alpha \psi \, dx \quad \text{for all } \psi \in C_c^\infty(\Omega),$$

and we write $\partial^\alpha u$ for this v_α . The uniqueness follows from the Fundamental Lemma 3.10 of the calculus of variations. Clearly, if $u \in C^k(\Omega)$, then all k 'th-order weak derivatives coincide with their classical counterparts. As norm in $W^{k,p}(\Omega)$, $p \in [1, \infty)$, we use

$$\|u\|_{W^{k,p}} := \left(\sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \|\partial^\alpha u\|_{L^p}^p \right)^{1/p}, \quad u \in W^{k,p}(\Omega).$$

For $p = \infty$, we set

$$\|u\|_{W^{k,\infty}} := \max_{|\alpha| \leq k} \|\partial^\alpha u\|_{L^\infty}, \quad u \in W^{k,\infty}(\Omega).$$

Under these norms, the sets $W^{k,p}(\Omega)$ become Banach spaces.

For $u \in W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ we further define the **weak gradient** and **weak divergence**,

$$\nabla u := (\partial_1 u, \partial_2 u, \dots, \partial_d u), \quad \text{div } u := \partial_1 u + \partial_2 u + \dots + \partial_d u.$$

Concerning the boundary values of Sobolev functions we have:

Theorem A.24 (Trace). *For $p \in [1, \infty]$ there exists a linear **trace operator***

$$\text{tr}_\Omega : W^{1,p}(\Omega) \rightarrow L^p(\partial\Omega)$$

such that

$$\text{tr}_\Omega(\varphi) = \varphi|_{\partial\Omega} \quad \text{if } \varphi \in C(\bar{\Omega}).$$

We write $\text{tr}_\Omega(u)$ simply as $u|_{\partial\Omega}$. For $p \in (1, \infty)$ the operator tr_Ω is bounded and weakly continuous between $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ and $L^p(\partial\Omega)$.

For $p \in (1, \infty)$ denote the image of $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ under tr_Ω by $W^{1-1/p,p}(\partial\Omega)$, which is called the **trace space** of $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$. The norms on $W^{1-1/p,p}(\partial\Omega)$ involve fractional derivatives, see [176] for details. For $p = 1$, the trace space is $L^1(\partial\Omega, \mathcal{H}^{d-1} \llcorner \partial\Omega)$, which we will denote by just $L^1(\partial\Omega)$.

We write $W_0^{1,p}(\Omega)$ for the linear subspace of $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ consisting of all $W^{1,p}$ -functions with zero boundary values (in the sense of trace). More generally, we use $W_g^{1,p}(\Omega)$ with $g \in W^{1-1/p,p}(\partial\Omega)$ (with the convention $W^{0,1}(\partial\Omega) = L^1(\partial\Omega)$ in the case $p = 1$), for the affine subspace of all $W^{1,p}$ -functions with boundary trace g .

The following are some properties of Sobolev spaces, stated for simplicity only for the first-order space $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$.

Theorem A.25 (Extension). *Every $u \in W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ can be extended to $\bar{u} \in W^{1,p}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ with $\|\bar{u}\|_{W^{1,p}(\mathbb{R}^d)} \leq C \|u\|_{W^{1,p}(\Omega)}$, where $C = C(\Omega, p) > 0$ is a constant.*

Theorem A.26 (Poincaré inequalities). *Let $u \in W^{1,p}(\Omega)$.*

(i) *If $u|_{\partial\Omega} = 0$, then*

$$\|u\|_{L^p} \leq C \|\nabla u\|_{L^p},$$

where $C = C(\Omega, p) > 0$ is a constant.

(ii) *Setting $[u]_\Omega := \int_\Omega u \, dx$, it furthermore holds that*

$$\|u - [u]_\Omega\|_{L^p} \leq C \|\nabla u\|_{L^p},$$

where $C = C(\Omega, p) > 0$ is a constant.

Theorem A.27 (Sobolev embedding). *Let $u \in W^{1,p}(\Omega)$.*

(i) *If $p < d$, then $u \in L^{p^*}(\Omega)$, where*

$$p^* := \frac{dp}{d-p},$$

and there is a constant $C = C(\Omega, p) > 0$ such that

$$\|u\|_{L^{p^*}} \leq C \|u\|_{W^{1,p}}.$$

(ii) *If $p = d$, then $u \in L^q(\Omega)$ for all $1 \leq q < \infty$ and*

$$\|u\|_{L^q} \leq C \|u\|_{W^{1,p}},$$

where $C = C(\Omega, p, q) > 0$ is a constant.

(iii) *If $p > d$, then $u \in C(\Omega)$ and*

$$\|u\|_\infty \leq C \|u\|_{W^{1,p}},$$

where $C = C(\Omega, p) > 0$ is a constant.

The second part can in fact be made more precise by considering embeddings into Hölder spaces, see Section 5.6.3 in [111] for details.

Theorem A.28 (Rellich–Kondrachov). *Let $(u_j) \subset W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ with $u_j \rightharpoonup u$ in $W^{1,p}$.*

- (i) *If $p < d$, then $u_j \rightarrow u$ in $L^q(\Omega)$ for any $q < p^* = dp/(d - p)$.*
- (ii) *If $p = d$, then $u_j \rightarrow u$ in $L^q(\Omega)$ for any $q < \infty$.*
- (iii) *If $p > d$, then $u_j \rightarrow u$ uniformly (i.e., in the supremum norm).*

Theorem A.29 (Density). *For every $p \in [1, \infty)$, $u \in W^{1,p}(\Omega)$, and all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a map $v \in (W^{1,p} \cap C^\infty)(\Omega)$ with $v|_{\partial\Omega} = u|_{\partial\Omega}$ and $\|u - v\|_{W^{1,p}} < \varepsilon$. Moreover, there also exists a countably piecewise affine $w \in (W^{1,p} \cap C)(\Omega)$ with $w|_{\partial\Omega} = u|_{\partial\Omega}$ and $\|u - w\|_{W^{1,p}} < \varepsilon$.*

Here, a map $w: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called **countably piecewise affine** if there exists a disjoint partition of Ω into countably many open sets D_k ($k \in \mathbb{N}$), up to a negligible set, i.e., $\Omega = Z \cup \bigcup_k D_k$, where $|Z| = 0$, such that $w|_{D_k}$ is affine.

For $0 < \gamma \leq 1$ a function $u: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **γ -Hölder-continuous function**, in symbols $u \in C^{0,\gamma}(\Omega)$, if

$$\|u\|_{C^{0,\gamma}} := \|u\|_\infty + \sup_{\substack{x,y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{|u(x) - u(y)|}{|x - y|^\gamma} < \infty.$$

Functions in $C^{0,1}(\Omega)$ are called **Lipschitz continuous**. We construct the higher-order spaces $C^{k,\gamma}(\Omega)$ analogously.

Theorem A.30 (Rademacher). *Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be an open, bounded, and convex set. Then, the space $W^{1,\infty}(\Omega)$ consists precisely of all Lipschitz maps on Ω , the Lipschitz constant is equal to the $W^{1,\infty}$ -norm, and for $u \in W^{1,\infty}(\Omega)$ the classical gradient ∇u exists almost everywhere in Ω and agrees with the weak gradient.*

Next, we define a **family of mollifiers** as follows: Let $\eta \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ be radially symmetric and positive. Then, the family $(\eta_\delta)_{\delta>0}$ is defined as follows:

$$\eta_\delta(x) := \frac{1}{\delta^d} \eta\left(\frac{x}{\delta}\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

For $u \in W^{k,p}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, where $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, and $p \in [1, \infty]$, we define the **mollification** $u_\delta \in W^{k,p}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ of u as the **convolution** between η_δ and u , i.e.,

$$u_\delta(x) := (\eta_\delta \star u)(x) := \int \eta_\delta(x - y)u(y) \, dy, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Lemma A.31 *For every $p \in [1, \infty)$, if $u \in W^{1,p}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, then $u_\delta \rightarrow u$ in $W^{1,p}$ as $\delta \downarrow 0$.*

Analogous results also hold for continuously differentiable functions.

Lemma A.32 (Young's inequality for convolutions). Let $u \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $v \in L^q(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and let $p, q, r \in [1, \infty]$ be such that

$$1 + \frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q}.$$

Then,

$$\|u \star v\|_{L^r} \leq \|u\|_{L^p} \cdot \|v\|_{L^q}.$$

Finally, all the above notions and theorems continue to hold for vector-valued functions $u = (u^1, \dots, u^m)^T : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and in this case we set

$$\nabla u := \begin{pmatrix} \partial_1 u^1 & \partial_2 u^1 & \dots & \partial_d u^1 \\ \partial_1 u^2 & \partial_2 u^2 & \dots & \partial_d u^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \partial_1 u^m & \partial_2 u^m & \dots & \partial_d u^m \end{pmatrix}.$$

We use the spaces $C(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^m)$, $C^k(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^m)$, $W^{k,p}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^m)$, $C^{k,\gamma}(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^m)$ with analogous definitions as in the scalar-valued case; for matrices like ∇u we use the Frobenius matrix norm and similarly for higher-order tensors.

Occasionally, we employ *local* versions of the spaces defined above, namely $C_{\text{loc}}(\Omega)$, $C_{\text{loc}}^k(\Omega)$, $W_{\text{loc}}^{k,p}(\Omega)$, $C_{\text{loc}}^{k,\gamma}(\Omega)$, where the defining norm is only finite on every compact subset of Ω .

Finally, we quote the following two classical results about extensions of functions:

Theorem A.33 (Tietze). Let X be a metric space, let $F \subset X$ be closed, and assume that $f : F \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous. Then, f can be extended to a continuous $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. If f is bounded, then \tilde{f} can also be chosen as bounded.

Theorem A.34 (Kirszbraun). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and let $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a Lipschitz continuous map. Then, f can be extended to $\tilde{f} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ with the same Lipschitz constant as f .

A.6 Harmonic Analysis

In this book we only need a few basics of Fourier analysis and the Mihlin multiplier theorem. A thorough introduction can be found in [138, 139].

Define for $u \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ (or vector-valued u) the **Fourier transform** $\hat{u} = \mathcal{F}u \in L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ as follows:

$$\hat{u}(\xi) := \mathcal{F}u(\xi) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} u(x) e^{-2\pi i x \cdot \xi} dx, \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

We also define the **inverse Fourier transform** $\check{v} = \mathcal{F}^{-1}v$ for $v \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ to be

$$\check{u}(x) := \mathcal{F}^{-1}v(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} v(\xi)e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} dx, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

One can extend \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F}^{-1} to the space $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ via the **Plancherel identity**,

$$\|\hat{u}\|_{L^2} = \|u\|_{L^2}. \tag{A.4}$$

Moreover, we have the **Parseval relation**

$$\int u \cdot \bar{v} dx = \int \hat{u} \cdot \bar{\hat{v}} d\xi \tag{A.5}$$

for all $u, v \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$; the same relations hold for \mathbb{C}^N -valued functions.

The following is a classical result concerning the $(L^p \rightarrow L^p)$ -boundedness of Fourier multiplier operators, see, for instance, [38, 138] (Theorem 6.1.6) for a proof.

Theorem A.35 (Mihlin multiplier theorem). *Let $m \in C^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor + 1}(\mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{0\}; \mathbb{C})$ satisfy*

$$|\partial^\alpha m(\xi)| \leq K |\xi|^{-|\alpha|}, \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{0\},$$

for all multi-indices $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^d$ with $|\alpha| := |\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_d| \leq \lfloor d/2 \rfloor + 1$ ($\lfloor t \rfloor$ denotes the largest integer less than or equal to $t \in \mathbb{R}$) and some $K > 0$. Then,

$$Tu := \mathcal{F}^{-1}[m(\xi)\hat{u}(\xi)],$$

which for $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ is well-defined via the Plancherel identity (A.4), extends to a bounded operator $T : L^p(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$ for all $p \in (1, \infty)$, which satisfies the estimate

$$\|T\|_{L^p \rightarrow L^p} \leq C \max\{p, (p-1)^{-1}\}K,$$

where $C = C(d) > 0$ is a constant. Furthermore, for $p = 1$ the weak-type estimate

$$|\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : |(Tu)(x)| \geq t\}| \leq \frac{CK}{t} \|u\|_{L^1}$$

holds for all $t > 0$ and a constant $C = C(d) > 0$.

As a special case, the conclusions of the preceding theorem hold for any positively 0-homogeneous smooth multiplier $m : \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

We will also use the (centered) **maximal function** $Mf : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ of $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$, which is defined as

$$(Mf)(x_0) := \sup_{r>0} \int_{B(x_0,r)} |f(x)| dx, \quad x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

We quote the following results about the maximal function, whose proofs can be found in [138, 177, 247] (in particular, (iii) is essentially contained in Lemma 1.68 of [177]):

Theorem A.36 *The following statements are true:*

(i) *If $p \in (1, \infty]$, then*

$$\|Mf\|_{L^p} \leq C \|f\|_{L^p},$$

where $C = C(d, p) > 0$ is a constant.

(ii) *If $p \in [1, \infty)$, then the weak-type estimate*

$$|\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : |Mf| \geq t\}| \leq \frac{C}{t^p} \int_{\{|f| \geq t/2\}} |f|^p dx \leq \frac{C}{t^p} \|u\|_{L^p}^p$$

holds for all $t > 0$ and a constant $C = C(d) > 0$.

(iii) *For every $K > 0$ and $f \in W^{1,p}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^m)$, $p \in (1, \infty]$, the maximal function Mf is Lipschitz continuous on the set $\{M(|f| + |\nabla f|) < K\}$ and its Lipschitz constant is bounded by CK , where $C = C(d, m, p) > 0$ is a constant.*

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Index

A

Acerbi–Fusco theorem, 128
Adjugate matrix, 411
Alberti’s rank-one theorem, 283
Ambrosio–Dal Maso–Fonseca–Müller theorem, 310
Approximate continuity point, 281
Approximate differentiability point, 281
Approximate discontinuity set, 281
Approximate gradient, 280
Area functional, 280
Area-strict convergence
 in BV, 280
 for measures, 307
Asymptotic homogenization formula, 389
Austenite phase, 17
Averaging lemma, 98

B

Baire category theorem, 254
Baire-one function, 254
Balanced cone, 299
Ball existence theorem, 145
Ball invertibility theorem, 147
Ball–James rigidity theorem, 119
Banach–Alaoglu theorem, 413
Barycenter, 83, 417
Besicovitch differentiation theorem, 419
Bessel potential, 287
Bhattacharya–Dolzmann theorem, 239
Biconjugate, 42
Biting convergence, 101, 340
Biting lemma, 101
Blow-up sequence, 274
Blow-up technique, 123
Bootstrapping, 61

Borel σ -algebra, 416
Borel measure, 416
Bounded deformation, 299
Bounded variation, 279
Brachistochrone curve, 4, 72
Braides–Müller theorem, 389
Brouwer fixed point theorem, 132
BV-derivative, 279
BV-Young measure, 348

C

Caccioppoli inequality, 57
Cantor function, 350
Cantor part of a BV-derivative, 280
Carathéodory integrand, 23, 26
Cauchy–Riemann equations, 224
Cell problem, 400
Cell problem formula, 398
Characteristic function, 38
Chaudhuri–Müller theorem, 216
Chlebík–Kirchheim theorem, 205
Ciarlet–Nečas condition, 147
Closed convex hull, 38
Closed-quasiconvexity, 133
Coarea formula, 384
Coercivity, 24
Cofactor matrix, 411
Compactness method of Γ -convergence, 405
Compactness principle
 for generalized Young measures, 337
 for Young measures, 84
Compactness theorem in BV, 280
Compensated compactness, 130, 217
Composite material, 21
Concentration measure, 333
Concentration-direction measure, 333

Conformal coordinates, 234
 Conjugate exponents, 41
 Conjugate function, 40
 Conti–Dolzmann–Kirchheim theorem, 251
 Conti–Faraco–Maggi theorem, 261
 Conti–Fonseca–Leoni theorem, 387
 Conti–Schweizer theorem, 388
 Continuum mechanics, 12
 Convex hull, 38
 Convex integration, 228, 241
 Convexity
 strict, 31
 strong, 56
 Convex, lower semicontinuous envelope, 42
 Convolution, 423
 Cramer’s rule, 411
 Critical point, 50
 Critical temperature, 18
 Cubic-to-orthorhombic phase transition, 17
 Cubic-to-tetragonal phase transition, 17, 252

D

Dacorogna’s formula, 180
 De Giorgi regularity theorem, 63
 De Giorgi–Nash–Moser regularity theorem, 63
 Density theorem for Sobolev spaces, 423
 Difference quotient, 58, 211
 Differential inclusion, 16, 185
 approximate solution, 186
 exact solution, 186
 five-gradient problem, 207
 four-gradient problem, 205
 linear, 189
 multi-well problem in 2D, 211
 one-well problem, 209
 polar, 192
 three-gradient problem, 197
 two-gradient problem, 186
 two-well problem in 3D, 215
 Dirac mass, 84
 Directional derivative, 48
 Direct method, 24
 with side constraint, 36
 for weak convergence, 26
 Dirichlet functional, 29, 68
 Disintegration theorem, 85
 Distributional cofactors, 141
 Distributional determinant, 142
 Div-curl lemma, 222
 Dolzmann–Kirchheim–Müller–Šverák 3D hull theorem, 239

Dolzmann–Kirchheim–Müller–Šverák 3D rigidity theorem, 216
 Dolzmann–Müller theorem, 250
 Double-well potential, 12, 18, 153
 Duality pairing, 413, 417
 for generalized Young measures, 334
 for Young measures, 83
 Dunford–Pettis theorem, 415

E

Effective domain, 38
 Egorov theorem, 416
 Elasticity tensor, 15
 Ellipticity, 52, 189
 Energy, 3
 Entropy, 3
 Epigraph, 38
 Equicoercivity, 372
 Equiintegrability, 415
 Euler–Lagrange equation, 49
 Evans partial regularity theorem, 129
 Extension–relaxation, 167, 168

F

Fatou lemma, 414
 Federer’s coarea formula, 384
 Fenchel inequality, 40
 First variation, 47
 Fleming–Rishel coarea formula in BV, 380
 Fourier transform, 424
 Frame-indifference, 14, 106
 Frieeseke–James–Müller theorem, 210
 Frobenius matrix (inner) product, 409
 Frobenius matrix norm, 409
 Fundamental Lemma, 55
 Fundamental Theorem
 for generalized Young measures, 339
 for Young measures, 82

G

Gâteaux-differentiable, 75
 Γ -limit, 370
 Γ -lower limit, 373
 Γ -upper limit, 373
 Gradient schematic, 187
 Green–St. Venant strain tensor, 13
 Gromov convex integration theorem, 244

H

Hadamard inequality, 410
 Hadamard's jump condition, 223
 Hahn–Banach separation theorem, 413
 Harmonic map, 51, 192
 Helmholtz decomposition, 201
 (H_n) -condition, 266
 Hölder-continuity, 423
 Homogenization theorem, 389, 398
 Hull
 lamination-convex, 228
 lamination-convex (of open set), 244
 polyconvex, 230
 quasiconvex, 194
 rank-one-convex, 229
 Hyperelasticity, 14

I

In-approximation, 244, 265
 Incompatibility relation, 196
 Indicator function, 414
 Injectivity almost everywhere, 146
 Inner regular measure, 416
 Invariance, 69
 Isoperimetric problem, 6, 323

J

Jacobi's formula, 411
 Jensen inequality, 417
 Jensen-type inequality
 in **BVY**, 352
 in **GY^p**, 118
 Jordan normal form, 412
 Jump part of a BV-derivative, 280
 Jump set, 280

K

Kinderlehrer–Pedregal theorem, 172
 Kinderlehrer's conjecture, 215
 Kirchheim convex integration theorem, 253
 Kirchheim–Kristensen theorem, 293
 Kirchheim–Preiss theorem, 207
 Kirszbraun theorem, 424
 Korn inequality, 210
 Kristensen theorem, 166
 Kronecker delta, 70

L

Lagrange multiplier, 66
 Lamé constants, 140

Laminate, 109, 228
 of infinite order, 229
 unbounded, 261
 Lamination method, 232
 Laplace equation, 51
 Lavrentiev gap phenomenon, 35
 Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem, 415
 Lebesgue point, 418
 Lebesgue–Radon–Nikodým decomposition, 419
 Legendre–Fenchel transform, 40
 Legendre–Hadamard condition, 165
 Lim inf-inequality, 370
 Lim sup-inequality, 371
 Linear growth, 112
 Linearized strain tensor, 14
 Lipschitz continuity, 423
 Lipschitz domain, 23
 Localization principle
 in **BVY**, regular, 353
 in **BVY**, singular, 356
 in **GY^p**, 123
 Local operator, 166
 Local Radon measure, 416
 Local weak* convergence for measures, 417
 Lower semicontinuity, 24
 Lower semicontinuity theorem
 convex, 28
 in BV, 361
 in BV, 310
 quasiconvex, 124
 Lusin theorem, 416

M

Manià example, 35
 Marcellini theorem, 398
 Martensite phase, 17
 Matos theorem, 215
 Maximal function, 96, 425
 Mazur lemma, 413
 Microstructure, 15
 Mihlin multiplier theorem, 425
 Minimizing sequence, 24
 Minor, 114, 411
 Modica–Mortola theorem, 376
 Modulus of continuity, 92
 Mollification, 423
 Monotone convergence lemma, 414
 Montel's theorem, 224
 Mooney–Rivlin material, 14, 137
 Morrey theorem, 124

Morrey's conjecture, 164
 strong version, 260
 Morse covering theorem, 321
 Müller–Šverák non-regularity theorem, 251
 Müller–Šverák convex integration theorem, 250
 Multi-index, 420
 ordered, 114
 Multiple-gradient problem, 196

N

Neo-Hookean material, 14, 136
 Noether theorem, 70
 Normal cone, 74
 Normal integrand, 131
 Null-Lagrangian, 78, 115

O

Ogden material, 14, 137
 1-homogeneous, 41
 Orientation-preserving, 13
 Ornstein's non-inequality, 262
 Oscillation, 113
 Oscillation measure, 333

P

Parseval relation, 425
 Partial regularity, 129
 Partial regularization, 407
 p -coercivity, 27
 Penalty term, 324
 Perimeter, 249
 Periodic homogenization problem, 370
 Perspective integrand, 307
 p -growth, 27
 Piecewise affine map, 241, 423
 Piecewise affine reduction, 241
 Piola identity, 116
 Plancherel identity, 425
 Poincaré inequality, 422
 Poincaré inequality in BV, 282
 Poisson equation, 7, 51
 Polar decomposition, 412
 Polar of a measure, 272
 Polyconvex envelope, 163
 Polyconvex measure, 230
 Polyconvexity, 136
 Pratt theorem, 415
 Precise representative, 281
 Probability measure, 416
 Proper function, 38
 Push-forward measure, 420

Q

Quasiaffinity, 117
 Quasiconvex envelope, 154
 Quasiconvexity, 106
 on symmetric matrices, 200
 periodic, 131
 strong, 129
 Quasiconvexity at the boundary, 131

R

Rademacher theorem, 423
 Radon measure, 416
 Radon–Nikodým derivative, 419
 Radon–Riesz theorem, 416
 Rank of a minor, 114
 Rank-one connected matrices, 93
 Rank-one convex envelope, 163
 Rank-one convex measure, 229
 Rank-one convexity, 109
 Rank-one diagram, 187
 RC-in-approximation, 250
 Recession function
 lower weak, 306
 strong, 305
 upper weak, 306
 Recovery sequence, 167, 370
 Regular variational integral, 56
 Relaxation, 159, 325, 374
 Relaxation theorem
 abstract, 159
 in BV, 325
 for integral functionals, 160
 with Young measures, 168
 Rellich–Kondrachov theorem, 423
 Representation integrand, 342
 Reshetnyak continuity theorem, 272
 Reshetnyak lower semicontinuity theorem, 297
 Reshetnyak rigidity theorem, 209
 Restriction of a measure, 417
 Riemann–Lebesgue lemma, 100
 Riesz representation theorem, 419
 Rigid body motion, 13
 Rigidity
 for approximate solutions, 188
 for exact solutions, 188
 strong, 188

S

Saddle point, 50
 Sard theorem, 416

- Schauder estimate, 63
 - Scorza Dragoni theorem, 86
 - Self-accommodation, 18
 - Separate convexity, 45
 - Separation method, 199
 - Set of finite perimeter, 249
 - Shape-memory effect, 18, 252
 - Shift of a Young measure, 177
 - Sierpiński triangle, 284
 - Signed measure, 418
 - Signum function, 74
 - Singular density theorem, 286
 - Singularly-perturbed problem, 369
 - Singular measure, 420
 - Singular part of BV-derivative, 280
 - Singular set, 129
 - Singular value, 410
 - Singular value decomposition, 410
 - Sobolev embedding theorem, 422
 - Sobolev extension theorem, 422
 - Sobolev space, 421
 - Solution of PDE
 - classical, 54
 - strong, 54
 - weak, 49
 - Special orthogonal group, 412
 - Sphere compactification, 366
 - Stability of microstructure, 266
 - Stability point (weak-to-strong), 255
 - Stability (piecewise affine), 253
 - Strict convergence
 - for measures, 270
 - in BV, 280
 - Strong incompatibility, 216
 - St. Venant–Kirchhoff material, 140
 - Subcone, 294
 - Subdifferential, 74
 - Subgradient, 74
 - Support
 - of a function, 421
 - of a measure, 417
 - Support function, 41
 - Švėrak multi-well rigidity theorem, 211
 - Švėrak three-gradient rigidity theorem, 197
 - Švėrak two-well hull theorem, 235
 - Symbol of a PDE operator, 217
 - principal, 285
 - Symmetric difference, 377
 - Symmetries of minimizers, 68
 - Symmetry breaking, 252
 - Symmetry-invariance, 16
- T**
- T_4 -configuration, 205
 - Tangent measure, 274
 - Tangent Young measure, generalized
 - regular, 353
 - singular, 356
 - Tartar theorem, 218
 - Tartar’s conjecture, 207
 - Tensor, 412
 - Tensor product, 410
 - Tietze extension theorem, 424
 - Tightness condition, 83
 - Tonelli–Serrin theorem, 28
 - Total variation measure, 418
 - Trace, 421
 - in BV, 281
 - Truncation, 96
 - Two-gradient inclusion
 - approximate, 120
 - exact, 119
- U**
- Underlying deformation, 95, 349
 - Uniqueness of microstructure, 266
 - Uniqueness of minimizer, 31
 - Utility function, 10
- V**
- Variation, 47
 - Variational inequality, 76
 - Variational principle, 3
 - Vector measure, 418
 - Vectorial problem, 31
 - Vitali convergence theorem, 415
 - Vitali covering theorem, 416
- W**
- Wave cone, 217, 285
 - Wave equation, 54
 - Weak compactness in Banach spaces, 413
 - Weak continuity, 37
 - Weak continuity of minors, 117
 - Weak convergence, 413
 - Weak derivative, 421
 - Weak divergence, 421
 - Weak gradient, 421
 - Weak lower semicontinuity, 26
 - Weak* convergence, 413
 - for measures, 417
 - in $\mathbf{Y}^{\mathcal{M}}$, 334
 - in \mathbf{Y}^p , 84

in BV, 280
Weak* measurability, 82
Well, 208
 $W_{\text{loc}}^{2,2}$ -regularity theorem, 57

Y

Young inequality, 41
Young measure, 82
 elementary, 84
 gradient, 95
 gradient, homogeneous, 98

homogeneous, 91
homogeneous gradient, 194
Young measure, generalized, 333
 characterization, 352
 barycenter, 334
 elementary, 338
 generation, 338

Z

Zhang's lemma, 178