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1 Hahn-Banach Extension Theorems

Lecture 1 We start with setting up some notation.

- Let X be a normed space. The dual space of X is denoted by X^* and is the space of all bounded linear functionals on X . Observe that X^* is always a Banach space in the operator norm

$$\|f\| = \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in B_X\}, \quad f \in X^*.$$

Recall that $B_X = \{x \in X : \|x\| \leq 1\}$ (the unit ball in X), and $S_X = \{x \in X : \|x\| = 1\}$ (the unit sphere in X).

- Let X, Y be normed spaces. We write $X \sim Y$ if X, Y are *isomorphic*, i.e. there exists a linear bijection $T : X \rightarrow Y$ s.t. T, T^{-1} are continuous in the norm topologies.
- Let X, Y be normed spaces. We write $X \cong Y$ if X, Y are *isometrically isomorphic*, i.e. there exists a surjective linear map $T : X \rightarrow Y$ s.t. $\|Tx\| = \|x\|$ for all $x \in X$.
- For $x \in X$, we write $\langle x, f \rangle = f(x)$. Note that $\langle x, f \rangle = |f(x)| \leq \|f\| \cdot \|x\|$.

Examples 1.1. 1. For $1 < p, q < \infty$ with $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, then $\ell_p^* \cong \ell_q$ (isometrically isomorphic)

2. If H is a Hilbert space, then $H^* \cong H$ (conjugate linear in the complex case).

Definition 1.2. Let X be a real vector space. A functional $p : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is:

- (i) positive homogeneous if $p(tx) = tp(x)$ for all $x \in X$ and $t > 0$
- (ii) sub-additive if $p(x + y) \leq p(x) + p(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$.

Theorem 1.3. Let X be a real vector space and $p : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be positive homogeneous and sub-additive. Let $Y \leq X$ and $g : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a linear functional s.t. $g(y) \leq p(y)$ for all $y \in Y$. Then, there exists linear $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and $f(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Recall now Zorn's lemma, which is needed to prove Theorem 1.3 in complete generality. Let (P, \leq) be a poset.

- If $A \subset P$, $x \in P$, then x is an *upper bound* for A if for all $a \in A$, $a \leq x$.
- x is a *maximal element* if for all $y \in P$, $y \geq x$ implies $y = x$
- A collection of subsets \mathcal{C} of P is called a *chain* if for any two subsets $C, D \in \mathcal{C}$, either $C \subseteq D$ or vice versa.

Lemma 1.4 (Zorn). If $P \neq \emptyset$ and every non-empty chain has an upper bound, then P has a maximal element.

Proof of Theorem 1.3. Let P be the set of pairs (Z, h) where Z is a subspace of X with $Y \subseteq Z$, $h : Z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ linear, $h|_Y = g$ and for all $z \in Z$, $h(z) \leq p(z)$. Observe that P is partially ordered by

$$(Z_1, h_1) \leq (Z_2, h_2) \iff Z_1 \subseteq Z_2, \quad h_2|_{Z_1} = h_1.$$

Also, we have $P \neq \emptyset$ since (Y, g) is in P . If $\{(Z_i, h_i)\}_{i \in I}$ is a chain in P with $I \neq \emptyset$, then setting $Z = \bigcup_{i \in I} Z_i$ and $h : Z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by requiring that $h|_{Z_i} = h_i$, for $i \in I$, we have that (Z, h) is in P and it is an upper bound for the chain. So by Zorn, P has a maximal element (Z, h) .

It suffices to show that $Z = X$. Suppose not, and fix $x \in X/Z$. Let $W = \text{span}(Z \cup \{x\})$ and $f : W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(z + \lambda x) = h(z) + \lambda\alpha$, for $z \in Z$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. We seek $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. for all $w \in W$, $f(w) \leq p(w)$. Then, $(W, f) \in P$ and (W, f) is strictly bigger than (Z, h) , which would establish a contradiction.

Need: $h(z) + \lambda\alpha \leq p(z + \lambda x)$ for all $z, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Since p is positive homogeneous, this is equivalent to:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} h(z) + \alpha \leq p(z + x) \\ h(z) - \alpha \leq p(z - x) \end{array} \right\} \text{ for all } z \text{ in } Z.$$

That is, $h(y) - p(y - x) \leq \alpha \leq p(z + x) - h(z)$ for all $y, z \in Z$. This holds since, for $y, z \in Z$:

$$h(y) + h(z) = h(y + z) \leq p(y + z) = p(y - x + z + x) \leq p(y - x) + p(z + x).$$

□

Definition 1.5. Let X be a real or complex vector space. A semi-norm on X is a functional $p : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t.:

- for all $x \in X$, $p(x) \geq 0$
- for all $x \in X$ and all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $p(\lambda x) = |\lambda| \cdot p(x)$
- for all $x, y \in X$, $p(x + y) \leq p(x) + p(y)$.

Note: Norm \implies seminorm \implies (sub-additive & positive homogeneous)

Theorem 1.6 (Hahn Banach). *Let X be a real or complex vector space and p be a semi-norm on X . Let Y be a subspace of X and $g : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ linear s.t. for all $y \in Y$ $|g(y)| \leq p(y)$. Then there exists linear functional f on X s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and for all $x \in X$ $|f(x)| \leq p(x)$.*

Lecture 1: *Proof.* Real case: for all $y \in Y$ $g(y) \leq |g(y)| \leq p(y)$. By Theorem 1.3 there exists linear functional $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and for all $x \in X$ $f(x) = p(x)$. For $x \in X$, we have also $-f(x) = f(-x) \leq p(-x) = p(x)$, so $|f(x)| \leq p(x)$.

Complex case: $\text{Re}(g) : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $(\text{Re})(y) = \text{Re}(g(y))$, is real linear. For all $y \in Y$ $|\text{Re}(g)(y)| \leq |g(y)| \leq p(y)$. By the real case, there exists a real linear map $h : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $h|_Y = \text{Re}(g)$ and for all $x \in X$ $|h(x)| \leq p(x)$.

Claim: there exists unique complex linear map $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $h = \text{Re}(f)$.

Proof of claim: Uniqueness If we have such an f , then for any $x \in X$, $f(x) = h(x) + \text{Im}(f) = h(x) + \text{Im}(-if(ix)) = h(x) - ih(ix)$. Existence define $f(x) = h(x) - ih(ix)$, for $x \in X$. Then f is real linear and $f(x) = if(x)$ for all $x \in X$. Hence, f is complex linear and $\text{Re}(f) = h$, by definition.

We have $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ linear s.t. $\text{Re}(f) = h$. Then $\text{Re}(f)|_Y = h|_Y = \text{Re}(g)$, so by uniqueness $f|_Y = g$. Given $x \in X$, write $|f(x)| = \lambda f(x)$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $|\lambda| = 1$; now, $|f(x)| = \lambda f(x) = f(\lambda x) = \text{Re}(f)(\lambda x) \stackrel{a}{=} h(\lambda x) \leq p(\lambda x) = |\lambda| p(x) = p(x)$. \square

^a $|f(x)| \in \mathbb{R}$.

Remark. For a complex vector space Y , let $Y_{\mathbb{R}}$ be Y viewed as a real vector space. The proof above shows that for a normed space, X , the map $f \mapsto \text{Re}(f) : (X^*) \rightarrow (X_{\mathbb{R}}^*)$ is an isometric isomorphism.

Corollary 1.7. *Let X be a real or complex vector space, p a semi-norm on X and $x_0 \in X$. Then there exists linear functional f on X s.t. $f(x_0) = p(x_0)$ and for all $x \in X$ $|f(x)| \leq p(x)$.*

Proof. Let $Y = \text{span}\{x_0\}$, define $g : Y \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$ $g(\lambda x_0) = \lambda p(x_0)$. Then g is linear and $g(x_0) = p(x_0)$, $|g(\lambda x_0)| = |\lambda| \cdot |p(x_0)| = p(\lambda x_0)$. So for all $y \in Y$ $|g(y)| \leq p(y)$. By Theorem 1.6, there exists linear function f on X s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and for all $x \in X$ $|f(x)| \leq p(x)$. Note that $f(x_0) = g(x_0) = p(x_0)$. \square

Theorem 1.8 (Hahn-Banach). *Let X be a real or complex normed space.*

- *If Y is a subspace of X and $g \in Y^*$ then there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and $\|f\| = \|g\|$*
- *Given $x_0 \in X/\{0\}$, there exists $f \in S_{X^*}$ s.t. $f(x_0) = \|x_0\|$.*

^aunit sphere.

Proof. (i) let $p(x) = \|g\| \cdot \|x\|$, for $x \in X$. Then p is a semi-norm on X and for all $y \in Y$, $|g(y)| \leq \|g\| \cdot \|y\|$. By Theorem 1.6 there exists linear functional $f : X \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$ s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and for all $x \in X$ $|f(x)| \leq p(x) = \|g\| \cdot \|x\|$, which implies $\|f\| \leq \|g\|$; since $f|_Y = g$, we also have $\|f\| \geq \|g\|$, so we have the desired equality $\|f\| = \|g\|$.

(ii) Apply Corollary 1.7 with $p(x) = \|x\|$, to get a linear functional f on X s.t. for all $x \in X$ $|f(x)| \leq \|x\|$ and $f(x_0) = \|x_0\|$. It follows that $\|f\| = 1$. \square

Remark. 1. part (i) is a sort of linear version of Tietze's extension theorem: given K compact, Hausdorff, $L \subseteq K$ closed, $g : K \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$ continuous, there exists continuous $f : K \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$

- s.t. $f|_L = g$ and $\|f\|_\infty = \|g\|_\infty$.
2. part (i) shows that for all $x \neq y \in X$ there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(x) \neq f(y)$ (use $x_0 = x - y$). X^* separates points of X . (This is a sort of linear version of Uryshon's lemma: $C(K)$ separates points of K , K compact, Hausdorff).
 3. The f in part (ii) is called a norming functional for x_0 . It shows that $\|x_0\| = \max\{|\langle x_0, g \rangle| : g \in B_{X^*}\}$. Another name for f : support functional at x_0 . Assume X is real, $\|x\| = 1$. Then, $B_X \subseteq \{x \in X : f(x) \leq 1\}$.

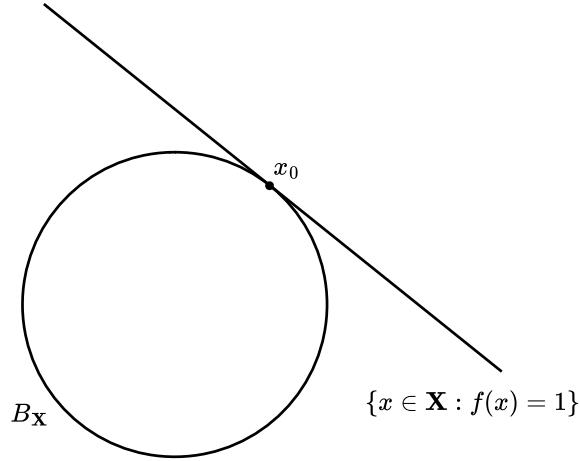


Figure 1: Illustration of support a functional, see the remark above. The pre-image of 1 under f is tangent to B_X at x_0 .

Bidual Let X be a normed space. Then $X^{**} = (X^*)^*$ is called the bidual or second dual of X . For $x \in X$, we define $\hat{x} : X^* \rightarrow \text{scalar}$, by $\hat{x}(f) = f(x)$, for all $f \in X^*$ (evaluation at x). Then \hat{x} is linear, and $|\widehat{(f)}| = |f(x)| \leq \|f\| \cdot \|x\|$, so $\hat{x} \in X^{**}$ and $\|\hat{x}\| \leq \|x\|$. The map $x \mapsto \hat{x} : X \rightarrow X^{**}$ is called the canonical embedding of X into X^{**} .

Theorem 1.9. *The canonical embedding of X into X^{**} is an isometric isomorphism into X^{**} .*

Proof. Linearity: $(\widehat{\lambda x + \mu y})(f) = f(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lambda f(x) + \mu f(y) = \lambda \hat{x}(f) + \mu \hat{y}(f)$ for all $x, y \in X$, λ, μ scalars and $f \in X^*$

Isometry: if $x \in X \setminus \{0\}$, then there exists norming functional f of x and so $\|\hat{x}\| \geq |\hat{x}(f)| = |f(x)| = \|x\|$. \square

- Remark.**
1. In bracket notation: $\langle f, \hat{x} \rangle = \langle x, f \rangle$ (for $x \in X$ and $f \in X^*$).
 2. Let $\widehat{X} = \{\hat{x} : x \in X\}$ -the image of $X \in X^*$. Then, Theorem 1.9 says that $X \cong \widehat{X} \subseteq X^{**}$. We often identify \widehat{X} with X and think of X isometrically as a subspace of X^{**} . Note that X is complete $\iff \widehat{X}$ is closed in X^{**} .
 3. More generally, $\overline{\widehat{X}}$ is a Banach space (closed in X^{**}) containing an isometric copy of X as a dense subspace. We thus proved that normed spaces have completions.

Definition 1.10 (Reflexivity). *A normed space X is called reflexive if the canonical embedding $X \hookrightarrow X^{**}$ is surjective.*

Examples 1.11. Examples: (Reflexivity)

1. $\ell_p, 1 < p < \infty$
Hilbert spaces
finite-dimensional normed spaces
 $L_p(\mu), 1 < p < \infty$ (later!)
2. $c_0, \ell_1, \ell_\infty, L_1[0, 1]$ are not reflexive.

Remark. If X is reflexive, then $X \cong X^{**}$. Note however that there exist Banach spaces X s.t. $X \cong X^{**}$ but X is not reflexive.

1.1 Dual Operators

Lecture 3 Let X, Y be normed spaces. Recall

$$\mathcal{B}(X, Y) = \{T : X \rightarrow Y : T \text{ is linear and bounded}\}.$$

This is a normed space in the operator norm:

$$\|T\|_{X \rightarrow Y} = \sup_{\|x\|_X \leq 1} \|Tx\|_Y.$$

If Y is complete, then so is $(\mathcal{B}(X, Y), \|\cdot\|_{X \rightarrow Y})$. For $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, the dual operator of T , is the map $T^* : X^* \rightarrow Y^*, T^*g = g \circ T$ for $g \in Y^*$ ¹. In the bracket notation;

$$\langle x, T^*g \rangle = \langle Tx, g \rangle, \quad \text{for } x \in X, g \in Y^*.$$

T^* is linear:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, T^*(\lambda g + \mu h) \rangle &= \langle Tx, \lambda g + \mu h \rangle \\ &= \lambda \langle Tx, g \rangle + \mu \langle Tx, h \rangle \\ &= \lambda \langle x, T^*g \rangle + \mu \langle x, T^*h \rangle \\ &= (\lambda T^*g + \mu T^*h)(x) \\ &= \langle x, \lambda T^*g + \mu T^*h \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

T^* is bounded:

$$\begin{aligned} \|T^*\| &= \sup_{\|g\|_{Y^*} \leq 1} \|T^*g\| \\ &= \sup_{\|g\|_{Y^*} \leq 1} \sup_{\|x\|_X \leq 1} \|g \circ T(x)\| \\ &= \sup_{\|x\|_X \leq 1} \sup_{\|g\|_{Y^*} \leq 1} \|g \circ T(x)\| \\ &= \sup_{\|x\|_X \leq 1} \|Tx\| = \|T\|. \end{aligned}$$

Remark. If X, Y are Hilbert spaces, and identify X, Y with X^* and Y^* respectively, then $T^* : Y \rightarrow X$ is the adjoint of T .

Examples 1.12. Example: $1 < p, q < \infty, \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, $R : \ell_p \rightarrow \ell_q$, the right shift $R(x_1, x_2, \dots) = (0, x_1, x_2, \dots)$ then $R^* : \ell_q \rightarrow \ell_p$ is the left shift.

Properties:

1. $(\text{Id}_X)^* = \text{Id}_X^*$.
2. $(\lambda S + \mu T)^* = \lambda S^* + \mu T^*$ for $S, T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, and λ, μ scalars.
3. $(ST)^* = T^*S^*$ for $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and $S \in \mathcal{B}(Y, Z)$
 $(ST)^*(h \in Z^*) = h \circ S \circ T = T^*h \circ S = T^*S^*(h)$

¹well-defined.

4. $T \mapsto T^* : \mathcal{B}(X, Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(Y^*, X^*)$ is an into isometric isomorphism.
5. Let $x \in X$ then $\langle g, T^* \hat{x} \rangle = \langle T^* g, \hat{x} \rangle = \langle x, T^* g \rangle = \langle Tx, g \rangle = \langle g, \widehat{Tx} \rangle$ for all $g \in Y^* \implies T^{**} \hat{x} \equiv \widehat{Tx}$. In other words, the following diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{T} & Y \\ \downarrow \iota_X & & \downarrow \iota_Y \\ X^{**} & \xrightarrow{T^{**}} & Y^{**} \end{array}$$

commutes (vertical arrows are canonical embeddings).

Remark. From the (above) properties, if $X \sim Y$ then $X^* \sim Y^*$.

1.2 Quotient Spaces

Let X be a normed space and Y be a closed subspace. Then the quotient space X/Y becomes a normed space in the quotient norm:

$$\|x + Y\|_{X/Y} = d(x, Y) = \inf_{y \in Y} \|x + y\|.$$

The quotient map : $q : X \rightarrow X/Y, q(x) = x + Y$ is linear and bounded with $\|q(x)\|_{X/Y} \leq \|x\|_X$ for all $x \in X$, so $\|q\| \leq 1$. It maps the open unit ball $B_X = \{x \in X : \|x\| < 1\}$ onto $B_{X/Y}^\circ$. Indeed, for $x \in B_X^\circ$, then $\|q(x)\| \leq \|x\| < 1$. Conversely, if $z \in B_{X/Y}^\circ$ and $z = q(x)$, then $\|z\| < 1 \implies \inf_{y \in Y} \|x + y\| < 1 \implies$ there exists $y \in Y$ s.t. $\|x + y\| < 1 \implies x + y \in B_X^\circ$ and $q(x + y) = q(x) = z$. It follows that q is an open map and $\|q\| = 1$ (provided $Y \neq X$).

If Z is another normed space, $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Z)$ and $Y \subseteq \ker(T)$, then there exists a unique map $\tilde{T} : X/Y \rightarrow Z$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{T} & Z \\ \downarrow q & \nearrow \tilde{T} & \\ X/Y & & \end{array}$$

commutes. Hence, $T = \tilde{T} \circ q$; moreover, \tilde{T} is linear and $\tilde{T}(B_{X/Y}^\circ) = \tilde{T}(q(B_X^\circ)) = T(B_X^\circ)$ and so it follows that $\|\tilde{T}\| = \|T\|$.

Theorem 1.13. *Let X be a normed space. If X^* is separable, then so is X .*

Remark. The converse is false in general. For instance, $X = \ell_1, X^* = \ell_\infty$.

Proof. Since X^* is separable, then so is S_{X^*} . Let $\{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a dense subset of S_{X^*} . For all n there exists $x_n \in B_X$ s.t. $f_n(x_n) > 1/2$. Let $Y = \text{span}\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Claim: suffices to show $Y = X$.

Suppose not: Then, by Theorem 1.8 we can pick $g \in (X/Y)^*$ with $\|g\| = 1$, that is a norming functional. Let $f = g \circ q$ ($q : X \rightarrow X/Y$ is the quotient map). Then $\|f\| = \|g\| = 1 \implies f \in S_{X^*}$. By density, we have that there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\|f - f_n\| < \frac{1}{10}$ (something small). So

$$|(f - f_n)(x_n)| \leq \|f - f_n\| \cdot \|x_n\| < \frac{1}{10},$$

but

$$|(f - f_n)(x_n)| = |f_n(x_n)| > \frac{1}{2}, \quad n \rightarrow \infty,$$

a contradiction. \square

Theorem 1.14. Let X be a separable normed space. Then X embeds isometrically into ℓ_∞ .

Proof. Let $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be dense in X and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ let $f_n \in S_{X^*}$ with $f_n(x_n) = \|x_n\|$ (wlog $X \neq \{0\}$). Define $T : X \rightarrow \ell_\infty, Tx = (f_n(x_n))$. It is clear that T is linear.

Well-defined: $|f_n(x)| \leq \|f_n\| \cdot \|x\| \leq \|x\|$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ which implies $\|Tx\|_\infty \leq \|x\| < \infty$, hence $Tx \in \ell_\infty$.

T isometric: already $\|Tx\|_\infty \leq \|x\|$ for all x . Also, $\|Tx_n\|_\infty = \|x_n\|$ for all n . By density and continuity, $\|Tx\|_\infty = \|x\|$ for all $x \in X$. \square

Lecture 4 Remark.

1. The result says ℓ_{infty} is isometrically universal for the class of separable Banach spaces, \mathcal{SB} .
2. Dual result: every separable Banach space is a quotient of ℓ_1 (see the Example sheets).

Theorem 1.15 (Vector-valued Liouville). Let X be a complex Banach space and $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow X$ be holomorphic and bounded, then f is constant.

Proof. We have that there exists $M \geq 0$, s.t. for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $\|f(z)\| \leq M$. Also, for $w \in \mathbb{C}$, $\lim_{z \rightarrow w} \frac{f(z) - f(w)}{z - w}$ exists in X and we denote this by $f'(z)$. Fix $\phi \in X^*$ and consider $\phi \circ f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. This is holomorphic and bounded.

Bounded: $|\phi(f(z))| \leq \|\phi\| \cdot \|f(z)\| \leq \|\phi\| \cdot \|z\|$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

Holomorphic:

$$\frac{\phi(f(z)) - \phi(f(w))}{z - w} = {}^a\phi \left(\frac{f(z) - f(w)}{z - w} \right) \rightarrow \phi(f'(z)), \quad \text{as } w \rightarrow {}^b z.$$

Now, by scalar Liouville, $\phi \circ f$ is constant. Hence, $\phi \circ f(z) = \phi(f(0))$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Fix $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $\phi(f(z)) = \phi(f(0))$, for all $\phi \in X^*$. Since X^* separates points of X , $f(z) = f(0)$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. \square

^alinearity.

^b ϕ is continuous.

1.3 Locally Convex Spaces

Definition 1.16 (Locally convex space (LCS)). A locally convex space is a pair (X, \mathcal{P}) , where X is a real/complex vector space and \mathcal{P} is a family of semi-norms on X that separate points of X in the sense that for all $x \in X \neq \{0\}$ there exists semi-norm $P_x \in \mathcal{P}$ s.t. $P_x \neq 0$. The family \mathcal{P} defines a topology on X :

$$\mathcal{U} \subseteq X \text{ is open} \iff \forall x \in \mathcal{U} \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \exists p_1, \dots, p_n \in \mathcal{P} \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \{y \in X : p_k(y - x) < \epsilon, 1 \leq k \leq n\} \subseteq \mathcal{U}.$$

Remark. 1. Vector addition and scalar multiplication are continuous.

2. This topology is Hausdorff.

3. $x_n \rightarrow x \in X \iff$ for all $p \in \mathcal{P}$, $p(x - x_n) \rightarrow 0$.

4. Let Y be a subspace of X . Let $\mathcal{P}_Y = \{p|_Y : p \in \mathcal{P}\}$. Then the pair (Y, \mathcal{P}_Y) is a LCS and its topology is the subspace topology induced by (X, \mathcal{P}) .
5. Let \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q} be families of semi-norms on X both separating points of X . We say \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q} are equivalent, write $\mathcal{P} \sim \mathcal{Q}$ if they define the same topology on X . Then (X, \mathcal{P}) is metrisable iff there exists countable family $\mathcal{Q} \sim \mathcal{P}$.

Definition 1.17 (Fréchet space). A Fréchet space is a complete metrisable locally convex space.

Examples 1.18. 1. A normed space $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ is a LCS (here $\mathcal{P} = \{\|\cdot\|\}$).

2. Let $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be non-empty open. Let $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}) = \{f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : f \text{ holomorphic}\}$. For $K \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ define $\mathcal{P}_K(f) = \sup_{z \in K} |f(z)|$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathcal{P}_K : K \subseteq \mathcal{U}, K \text{ compact}\}$. Then $(\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}), \mathcal{P})$ is a LCS. Note further that there exists $K_n, n \in \mathbb{N}$, a sequence of compact subsets of \mathcal{U} s.t. $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} K_n$ and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ $K_n \subset (K_{n+1})^\circ$ (a compact exhaustion of \mathcal{U}). Montel's Theorem from complex analysis gives that $(\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}), \mathcal{P})$ is not normable: there is no norm on $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ that gives the same topology, that is the topology of local uniform convergence. To see this, suppose for a contradiction that there exists norm s.t. $\|\cdot\| \sim \mathcal{P}$, then for all $f \in B_{\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})}$, for all $p \in \mathcal{P}$, $p(f) \leq C_p \cdot \|f\| := C_p < \infty$ (since $\tau_{\mathcal{P}} = \tau_{\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})}$) which implies that that unit ball is compact (by the above and Montel's Theorem), hence sequentially compact due to the metrisability of the norm topology on $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$. So we conclude that $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ is finite-dimensional, a contradiction.
3. Fix $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and a non-empty open set $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$. Let $\mathcal{C}^\infty = \{f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d : f \text{ is infinitely differentiable}\}$. Given a multi-index, namely, a d -tuple $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^d$, it defines a differential operator:

$$D^\alpha = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \right)^{\alpha_1} \cdots \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right)^{\alpha_n}.$$

For a compact set $K \subset \Omega$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^d$, define $p_{k,\alpha}(f) = \sup\{|D^\alpha f(z)| : z \in K\}$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{p_{k,\alpha} : K \subset \Omega, K \text{ compact}, \alpha \in \mathbb{N}^d\}$. Then $(\mathcal{C}^\infty(\Omega), \mathcal{P})$ is a LCS. It's a Fréchet space and non-normable.

Lemma 1.19. Let $(X, \mathcal{P}), (Y, \mathcal{Q})$ be LCS and $T : X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear map. Then the following are equivalent (TFAE):

- (i) T is continuous.
- (ii) T is continuous at 0.
- (iii) For all $q \in \mathcal{Q}$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $p_1, \dots, p_n \in \mathcal{P}$, $c > 0$ s.t.

$$q(Tx) \leq C \cdot \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} p_k(x) \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

Proof. (i) \iff (ii): translation is continuous since vector addition is continuous.

(ii) \iff (iii): given $q \in \mathcal{Q}$, let $\mathcal{V} = \{y \in Y : q(y) \leq 1\}$. Then \mathcal{V} is a neighbourhood of zero in Y , so there exists a nbhd of zero in X s.t. $T(X) \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. Then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $p_1, \dots, p_n \in \mathcal{P}$, $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. wlog $\mathcal{U} = \{x \in X : p_k(x) \leq \epsilon, 1 \leq k \leq n\}$. Let $p(x) = \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} p_k(x)$, for $x \in X$. If $p(x) = 1$ then $p(\epsilon x) = \epsilon \implies \epsilon x$ is in \mathcal{U} . So $q(Tx) \leq 1 \implies q(Tx) \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon} p(x)$ by homogeneity for any x s.t. $p(x) > 0$. If $p(x) = 0 \implies p(\lambda x) = 0$ for all λ scalars giving $q(T(\lambda x)) \leq 1$ for all λ scalars. Hence, $q(Tx) \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon} p(x)$, concluding the proof of this equivalence.

(iii) \iff (ii): Let \mathcal{V} be a nbhd of zero in Y . Then, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $q_1, \dots, q_n \in \mathcal{Q}$ and $\epsilon > 0$

s.t. wlog $\mathcal{V} = \{y \in Y : q_j(y) \leq \epsilon \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq n\}$. For each $1 \leq j \leq n$, there exists $m_j \in \mathbb{N}$, $p_{j1}, \dots, p_{jm_j} \in \mathcal{P}$, $C_j > 0$ s.t. $q_j(Tx) \leq C_j \cdot \max_{1 \leq i \leq m_j} p_{ji}(x)$ for all $x \in X$. Finally, let $\mathcal{U} = \{x \in X : p_{ji}(x) < \frac{\epsilon}{C_j}, 1 \leq i \leq m_j, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ so then $T(\mathcal{U}) \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. \square

Definition 1.20. Let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a LCS. The dual space of X is the space X^* of all linear functionals which are continuous wrt the topology (X, \mathcal{P}) .

Lecture 5 **Lemma 1.21.** Let f be a linear functional on a LCS (X, \mathcal{P}) . Then f is in $X^* \iff \ker f$ is closed.

Proof. \iff : $\ker f = f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed if f is continuous.

\implies : If $\ker f = X$, then $f \equiv 0$ is continuous.

Assume $\ker f \neq X$ and fix $x_0 \in X \setminus \ker f$. Since $X \setminus \ker f$ is open, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}, p_1, \dots, p_n \in \mathcal{P}$ and $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\{x \in X : p_k(x - x_0) < \epsilon, 1 \leq k \leq n\} \subseteq X \setminus \ker f$. Let $\mathcal{U} = \{x \in X : p_k(x) < \epsilon, 1 \leq k \leq n\}$. Then \mathcal{U} is a nbhd of zero in X , and $(x_0 + \mathcal{U}) \cap \ker f = \emptyset$.

Note that \mathcal{U} is convex and, in the real case, symmetric ($x \in \mathcal{U}$ implies $-x \in \mathcal{U}$). In the complex case, balanced ($x \in \mathcal{U}, |\lambda| \leq 1$ implies $\lambda x \in \mathcal{U}$), and hence so is $f(\mathcal{U})$ as f is linear. If $f(\mathcal{U})$ is not bounded, then $f(\mathcal{U})$ is the whole scalar field, and hence so is $f(x_0 + \mathcal{U}) = f(x_0) + f(\mathcal{U})$, a contradiction as zero is not in $f(x_0 + \mathcal{U})$. So there exists $M > 0$ s.t. $|f(x)| < M$ for all $x \in \mathcal{U}$. So given $\delta > 0$, $\frac{\delta}{M}\mathcal{U}$ is a nbhd of zero in X and $f(\frac{\delta}{M}\mathcal{U}) \subseteq \{\lambda \text{ scalar}, \lambda < \delta\}$. Thus, f is continuous at zero, hence everywhere. Thus f is in X^* . \square

Theorem 1.22. Let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a LCS.

- (i) Given a subspace Y of X and $g \in Y^*$, there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f|_Y = g$.
- (ii) Given a closed subspace Y of X and $x_0 \in X \setminus Y$, there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f|_Y = 0$ and $f(x_0) \neq 0$.

Remark. So X^* separates the points of X .

Proof. (i) by lemma 1.19, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}, p_1, \dots, p_n \in \mathcal{P}$ and $C > 0$ s.t. for all $y \in Y$ $|g(y)| \leq C \cdot \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} p_k(y)$. Let $p(x) = C \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} p_k(x)$, for $x \in X$. Then, p is a semi-norm on X and for all $y \in Y$ $|g(y)| \leq p(y)$. By Theorem 1.6, there exists a linear functional f on X s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and for all $x \in X$, $|f(x)| \leq p(x)$. Now, finally observe that by lemma 1.19, f is in X^* .

(ii) Let $Z = \text{span}(Y \cup \{x_0\})$ and define a linear functional g on Z by $g(y + \lambda x_0) = \lambda$, for $y \in Y$ and λ scalar. Then $g|_Y = 0, g(x_0) = 1 \neq 0$ and $\ker g = Y$ is closed, so $g \in Z^*$ by lemma 1.21. By part (i), there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f|_Z = g$ and this works. \square

2 Dual Spaces of $L_p(\mu)$ and $\mathcal{C}(K)$

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space. For $1 < p < \infty$,

$$L_p(\mu) = \left\{ f : \Omega \rightarrow \text{scalar} : f \text{ is measurable and } \int_{\Omega} |f|^p d\mu < \infty \right\}$$

This is a normed space in the L_P norm $\|f\|_p = (\int_{\Omega} |f|^p d\mu)^{\frac{1}{p}}$.

$p = \infty$: A measurable function $f : \Omega \rightarrow \text{scalar}$ is essentially bounded if there is $N \in \mathcal{F}, \mu(N) = 0$, and $f|_{\Omega \setminus N}$ is bounded.

$L_\infty(\mu) = \{f : \Omega \rightarrow \text{scalar} : f \text{ measurable and essentially bounded}\}$. This is again a normed space in the L^∞ -norm:

$$\|f\|_\infty = \text{essup } |f| = \inf \left\{ \sup_{\Omega \setminus N} |f| : N \in \mathcal{F}, \mu(N) = 0 \right\}.$$

The inf is attained: there exists $N \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mu(N) = 0$, $\|f\|_\infty = \sup_{\Omega \setminus N} |f|$.

In all the cases, we identify functions f, g if $f = g$ a.e.

Theorem 2.1. $L_p(\mu)$ is complete for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$.

Proof. Can be found in any standard reference in measure theory, see the literature provided. \square

2.1 Complex Measures

Let Ω be a set, \mathcal{F} a σ -field on Ω . A complex measure on \mathcal{F} is a countably additive function $\nu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. For $A \in \mathcal{F}$, the total variation measure $|\nu|$ of ν is defined as follows:

$$|\nu(A)| = \sup \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n : A = \bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k \text{ is a measurable partition of } A \right\}^2.$$

Then, $|\nu| : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ is a positive measure. Later we see that $|\nu|$ is a finite measure. The total variation of ν is $\|\nu\|_1 = |\nu|(\Omega)$.

Continuity: if ν is a complex measure on \mathcal{F} and $(A_n) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, then:

- (i) if $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$, then $\nu(\bigcup_n A_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n)$
- (ii) if $A_{n+1} \subseteq A_n$, then $\nu(\cap_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n)$.

Signed measure: Ω a set, \mathcal{F} a σ -algebra on Ω .

A signed measure on \mathcal{F} is a countably additive set function $\nu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 2.2 (Hahn decomposition). *Let Ω be a set, \mathcal{F} a σ -algebra on Ω , ν a signed measure on \mathcal{F} . Then there exists a measurable partition $P \cup N$ of Ω s.t. for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $A \subseteq P$ implies $\nu(A) \geq 0$ and for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $A \subseteq N$ implies $\nu(A) \leq 0$.*

Remark. 1. The decomposition $\Omega = P \cup N$ is called the Hahn decomposition of ν (or of Ω).

2. Lets us define $\nu^+(A) = \nu(A \cap P)$, $\nu^-(A) = -\nu(A \cap N)$, for $A \in \mathcal{F}$. Then ν^+, ν^- are finite positive measures such that $\nu = \nu^+ - \nu^-$ and $|\nu| = \nu^+ + \nu^-$. These determine ν^+, ν^- uniquely and $\nu = \nu^+ - \nu^-$ is the Jordan decomposition of ν .
3. If ν is a complex measure on \mathcal{F} then $\text{Re}(\nu), \text{Im}(\nu)$ are signed measures with Jordan decompositions $\nu_1 - \nu_2 + i(\nu_3 - \nu_4)$ -the Jordan decomposition of ν . Then $\nu_k \leq |\nu|$, $1 \leq k \leq 4$ and $|\nu| \leq \nu_1 + \nu_2 + \nu_3 + \nu_4$. So $|\nu|$ is a finite measure.
4. If ν is a signed measure on \mathcal{F} with Jordan decomposition $\nu^+ - \nu^-$, then $\nu^+(A) = \sup\{\nu(B) : B \in \mathcal{F}, B \subseteq A\}$, for $A \in \mathcal{F}$.

Proof of Theorem 2.2. The strategy is to define $\nu^+(A) = \sup\{\nu(B) : B \in \mathcal{F}, B \subseteq A\}$ for $A \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $\nu^+ \geq 0$ and ν^+ is finitely additive.

Key step: $\nu^+(\Omega) \geq 0$.

By contradiction, assume not; construct sequences $(A_n), (B_n)$ with $A_0 = \Omega$, $\nu^+(A_n) = \infty$,

² $A_k \in \mathcal{F}, A_j \cap A_k = \emptyset \forall j \neq k$.

$B_n \subset A_n$ and $\nu(B_n) > n$. Now by the finite additivity of ν^+ , pick $A_{n+1} = B_n$ or $A_n \setminus B_n$, to ensure the initial condition ($\nu^+(A_{n+1}) = \infty$) is satisfied.

Claim: this will contradict σ -additivity.

To see this, note that (A_n) is by construction a decreasing sequence wrt inclusion. By σ -additivity of ν , $\nu(\cap_n A_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n)$. Thus, it cannot be the case that $A_{n+1} = B_n$ infinitely often, since $\nu(\cap_n A_n) < \infty$ (being a signed measure). Thus, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. for all $n \geq N$, $A_{n+1} = A_n \setminus B_n$. Now, $\nu(A_k) = \nu(A_k \setminus B_k) + \nu(B_k) > \nu(A_{k+1}) + k > \nu(A_{k+1})$ for $k \geq N$ and so $\nu(A_k) < \nu(A_{k-1}) - k < \nu(A_N) - k, k \rightarrow -\infty$, a contradiction.

Claim: there exists $P \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $\nu^+(\Omega) = \nu(P)$.

By approximation, take (A_n) s.t. $\nu(A_n) > \nu^+(\Omega) - 2^{-n}$. We will see that the choice $P = \bigcup_n \bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m$ works. Let $N = \Omega \setminus P$. By σ -additivity of ν , have that $\nu(P) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu\left(\bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m\right)$. Now, for $j \geq n$, consider $\bigcap_{n \leq m \leq j} A_m$, we first see that

$$\begin{aligned} \nu\left(\bigcap_{n \leq m \leq n+1} A_m\right) &= -\nu(A_n \cup A_{n+1}) + \nu(A_n) + \nu(A_{n+1}) \\ &> -\nu^+(\Omega) + 2\nu^+(\Omega) - 2^{-n} - 2^{-n-1} > \nu^+(\Omega) - 2^{-n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

By inducting, we see that:

$$\nu\left(\bigcap_{n \leq m \leq n+p} A_m\right) > \nu^+(\Omega) - \sum_{m=0}^p 2^{-n-m}.$$

and so

$$\nu\left(\bigcap_{n \leq m} A_m\right) = \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \nu\left(\bigcap_{n \leq m \leq n+p} A_m\right) > \nu^+(\Omega) - \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} 2^{-n-m} = \nu^+(\Omega) - 2^{-n}.$$

which allows us to conclude that $\nu(P) = \nu^+(\Omega)$ upon taking limits.

Now, with $N = \Omega \setminus P$, define the set functions $\bar{\nu}_\pm : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\bar{\nu}_+(E) = \nu(E \cap P)$ and $\bar{\nu}_-(E) = \nu(E \cap N)$ for $E \in \mathcal{F}$.

Observe first that $\bar{\nu}_- \leq 0$. Indeed, suppose there exists $E \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $\nu(E \cap N) > 0$. Then, we see that $\nu^+(\Omega) = \nu^+(P) < \nu(E \cap N) + \nu(P) = \nu((E \cap N) \cup P) \leq \nu^+(\Omega)$, a contradiction. Thus, $\bar{\nu}_-$ is a negative measure.

Claim: $\nu(N) = \inf\{\nu(E) : E \in \mathcal{F}\}$.

Suppose otherwise, then there exists $E \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $\nu(E) < \nu(N)$, which implies $\nu(\Omega \setminus E) = \nu(\Omega) - \nu(E) > -\nu(N) + \nu(\Omega) = \nu(P)$ and so $\nu(\Omega \setminus E) > \nu(P)$, a contradiction.

Now, we can prove $\bar{\nu}_+ \geq 0$. Indeed, suppose there exists $E \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $\nu(E \cap P) < 0$. Then, we see that $\nu(N) \leq \nu((E \cap P) \cup N) = \nu(N) + \nu(E \cap P) < \nu(N)$, a contradiction. Thus, $\bar{\nu}_+$ is a positive measure.

Claim: $\bar{\nu}_-(E) = \inf\{\nu(A) : A \subseteq E, A \in \mathcal{F}\}$.

Suppose otherwise, then there exists $E \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $\nu(A) < \nu(E \cap N)$, which implies $\nu(A \cap N) < \nu(A \cap P) + \nu(A \cap N) = \nu(A) < \nu(E \cap N)$ and so $\nu(A \cap N) < \nu(E \cap N)$ and so $\nu((E \setminus A) \cap N) = \nu(E \cap N \setminus A \cap N) > 0$ a contradiction.

Finally, we observe that

Claim: $\bar{\nu}_+(E) = \sup\{\nu(A) : A \subseteq E, A \in \mathcal{F}\}$.

Suppose otherwise, then there exists $E \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $\nu(A) > \nu(E \cap P)$, which implies $\nu(E \cap P) < \nu(A) = \nu(A \cap P) + \nu(A \cap N) < \nu(A \cap P)$ and so $\nu(E \cap P) < \nu(A \cap P)$ and so $\nu((E \setminus A) \cap P) = \nu(E \cap P \setminus A \cap) < 0$ a contradiction, and we finally obtain the desired decomposition. \square

Lecture 6 **Definition 2.3** (Absolute Continuity). *Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space, and let $\nu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a complex measure. ν is absolutely continuous wrt μ , written $\nu \ll \mu$ if for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mu(A) = 0 \implies \nu(A) = 0$.*

Remark. 1. $\nu \ll \mu \implies |\nu| \ll \mu$. So if ν has Jordan decomposition $\nu = \nu_1 - \nu_2 + i(\nu_3 - \nu_4)$ and $\nu \ll \mu$, then $\nu_k \ll \mu, 1 \leq k \leq 4$.

2. If $\nu \ll \mu$, then for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$ $\mu(A) < \delta \implies |\nu(A)| < \epsilon$.

Examples 2.4. Example: For f in $L_1(\mu)$ define $\nu(A) = \int_A f d\mu$, $A \in \mathcal{F}$. By the Theorem of Dominated Convergence (DCT), ν is a complex measure and $\mu(A) = 0 \implies \nu(A) = 0$, i.e. $\nu \ll \mu$.

Definition 2.5. A set in \mathcal{F} is said to be a σ -finite set (wrt μ) if there is a sequence $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $A = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$ and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mu(A_n) < \infty$. We say μ is σ -finite if Ω is a σ -finite set.

Theorem 2.6 (Radon-Nikodym). Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a σ -finite emasure space and $\nu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a complex measure s.t. $\nu \ll \mu$. Then there exists a unique $f \in L_1(\mu)$ s.t. $\nu(A) = \int_A f d\mu$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$. Moreover, f takes values in $\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{R}^+$ according to whether ν is a complex, signed or positive measure respectively.

Proof. Uniqueness: standard.

Existence: wlog ν is a finite positive measure (Jordan decomposition) and wlog μ is a finite measure (σ -finiteness).

Let $\mathcal{H} = \{h : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ : h \text{ integrable and } \int_A h d\mu \leq \nu(A) \forall A \in \mathcal{F}\}$. $\mathcal{H} \neq \emptyset$ ($0 \in \mathcal{H}$) and $h_1, h_2 \in \mathcal{H}$ implies $h_1 \vee h_2 = \max\{h_1, h_2\}$ is in \mathcal{H} . Also, if (h_n) are in \mathcal{H} s.t. $h_n \uparrow h$, then h is in \mathcal{H} . Let $\alpha = \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \int_\Omega h d\mu, 0 \leq \alpha \leq \nu(\Omega)$.

Claim: there exists $f \in \mathcal{H}$ s.t. $\alpha = \int_\Omega f d\mu$.

We construct such an $f \in \mathcal{H}$. Take $f_n \in \mathcal{H}$ s.t. $\int_A g_n d\mu \leq \nu(A)$, for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\int_\Omega f_n d\mu \rightarrow \alpha$. The same holds if we replace f_n by $f_1 \vee \dots \vee f_n$, and so wlog we can assume the sequence is non-decreasing. Now, by induction, there exists sets $E_1, \dots, E_n \in \mathcal{F}$ pairwise disjoint s.t. $\bigcup_{k=1}^n E_k = \Omega$ and $g_n = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k \mathbf{1}_{E_k}$ and $\int_A g_n d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{E_j \cap A} f_j d\mu \leq \sum_{j=1}^n \nu(E_j \cap A) = \nu(A)$. Since g_n is non-decreasing, take the pointwise supremum to obtain $f_0 := \sup_n g_n$, which is in \mathcal{H} by the above, and is seen to work by inspection.

Now consider the signed measures $\nu_1, \nu_2, (\lambda_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, s.t. $\nu_1 = \nu - \nu_2, \nu_2(A) = \int_A f_0 d\mu$ and $\lambda_n(A) = \nu_1(A) - \frac{1}{n} \mu(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$. Then there exist (Hahn decomposition) $(P_n), (N_n)$ in \mathcal{F} s.t. $\Omega = P_n \cup N_n, P_n = \Omega \setminus N_n$, s.t. $\lambda_n(E) \geq 0$ for all $E \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $E \subseteq P_n$. Now, for such

E , we have $\lambda_n(E) = \nu_1(E) - \frac{1}{n}\mu(E) \geq 0$ and so $\nu(E) = \nu_1(E) + \nu_2(E) \geq \int_E f_0 d\mu + \frac{1}{n} \int_E d\mu$. Let $\tilde{f}_n = f_0 + \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{1}(P_n)$. Observe that for all $E \in \mathcal{F}$, $\int_E \tilde{f}_n d\mu = \int_E f_0 d\mu + \frac{1}{n} \int_{E \cap P_n} d\mu \leq \nu(E)$ by the above and the fact that μ is a positive measure. We have by the above that \tilde{f}_n is in \mathcal{H} for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha \leq \int_{\Omega} \tilde{f}_n d\mu \leq \alpha$ and so $\mu(P_n) = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus, by σ -additivity, $\mu\left(\bigcup_n P_n\right) = 0$.

Let $N = \Omega \setminus \bigcup_n P_n$, then for all $E \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $E \subseteq N$, $\lambda_n(E) = \nu_1(E) - \frac{1}{n}\mu(E) \leq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and so $\nu_1(E) \leq 0$, i.e. $\nu(E) \leq \nu_2(E)$. The reverse inequality is obtained by observing that f_0 is in \mathcal{H} and so we see that $\nu(E) = \nu_2(E)$ for such E . Finally, since $\nu \ll \mu$, for all $E \in \mathcal{F}$, $\nu(E) = \nu(E \cap N) = \nu_2(E \cap N) = \nu_2(E) = \int_E f_0 d\mu$, which concludes the proof. \square

- Remark.**
1. Without assuming $\nu \ll \mu$, the proof shows that there exists a decomposition (Lebesgue decomposition) $\nu = \nu_1 + \nu_2$, where $\nu_2(A) = \int_A f d\mu$, and $\nu_2 \perp \mu$ (orthogonal), i.e. there exists a measurable partition $\Omega = P \cup N$, s.t. $\mu(P) = 0$ ($\mu(A) = 0$, for all $A \subseteq P$), $|\nu_2(P)| = 0$ ($\nu_2(A) = 0$, for all $A \subseteq N$).
 2. The unique f in Theorem 2.6 is the Radon-Nikodym derivative of ν wrt μ , denoted $\frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$. The result says that $\nu(A) = \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{1}_A d\nu = \int_A f d\mu = \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{1}_A \frac{d\nu}{d\mu} d\nu$. Hence a measurable function g is ν -integrable iff $g \frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$ is μ -integrable and then $\int_{\Omega} g d\nu = \int_{\Omega} g \frac{d\nu}{d\mu} d\nu$.

2.2 The dual space of L_p

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space. Let $1 \leq p < \infty$ and $1 < q \leq \infty$ s.t. $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$. For $g \in L_q = L_q(\mu)$, define $\phi_g : L_p \rightarrow \text{scalars}$ by $\phi_g(f) = \int_{\Omega} f g d\mu$, for $f \in L_p$. By Hölder, the product fg is in $L_1(\mu)$ and $|\phi_g(f)| \leq \|f\|_p \cdot \|g\|_q$. So ϕ_g is well-defined and clearly linear, also bounded with $\|\phi_g\| \leq \|g\|_q$ and so ϕ_g is an element of L_p^* . So we have the map

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : L_q &\rightarrow L_p^* \\ g &\mapsto \phi_g. \end{aligned}$$

This map is linear and bounded with $\|\phi\| \leq 1$.

Theorem 2.7. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu), p, q, \phi$ be as above.

- (i) If $1 < p < \infty$, then ϕ is an isometric isomorphism. So $L_p^* \cong L_q$.
- (ii) If $p = 1$ and μ is a σ -finite, then $L_1^* \cong L_{\infty}$.

Proof. Proof of (i): ϕ is isometric. Fix $g \in L_q$. We know $\|\phi_g\| \leq \|g\|_q$. Let λ be a measurable function s.t. $|\lambda| = 1$ and $\lambda g = |g|$. Let $f = \lambda|g|^{q-1}$. Then, $\|f\|_p^p = \int_{\Omega} |f|^p d\mu = \int_{\Omega} |g|^{p(q-1)} d\mu = \int_{\Omega} |g|^q d\mu = \|g\|_q^q$. Hence, $\|g\|_q^{\frac{q}{p}} \cdot \|\phi_g\| \geq |\phi_g(f)| = \int_{\Omega} |g|^q d\mu = \|g\|_q^q$, so $\|\phi_g\| \geq \|g\|_q^{q-\frac{q}{p}} = \|g\|_q$.

ϕ is onto: Fix $\psi \in L_p^*$. We seek $g \in L_q$ s.t. $\psi = \phi_g$ (Idea: $\psi(\mathbf{1}_A) = \int_A g d\mu$).

Case 1: μ is finite.

Then for $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathbf{1}_A \in L_p$ so can define $\nu(a) = \psi(\mathbf{1}_A)$. It is an easy check using the DCT that $\nu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is indeed a complex measure and $\nu \ll \mu$. If $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mu(A) = 0$, then $\mathbf{1}_A = 0$ almost everywhere (a.e.) in $L_p(\mu)$, so $\nu(A) = \psi(\mathbf{1}_A) = 0$. Then $\nu \ll \mu$. By Theorem 2.6, there exists $g \in L_1(\mu)$ s.t. $\nu(A) = \int_A g d\mu$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$. So $\psi(\mathbf{1}_A) = \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{1}_A g d\mu$, for $A \in \mathcal{F}$. Hence, $\psi(f) = \int_{\Omega} f g d\mu$ for all simple functions f . Now given $f \in L_{\infty}(\mu)$, there exists simple $f_n \rightarrow f \in L_{\infty}(\mu)$ (hence in $L_p(\mu)$ since μ is finite). So $\psi(f_n) \rightarrow \psi(f)$ and $f_n g \rightarrow f g \in L_1(\mu)$, using Hölder for $p = 1, \infty$. So $\psi(f) = \int_{\Omega} f g d\mu$ for all $f \in L_{\infty}(\mu)$. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $A_n = \{|g| \leq n\}$ and $f_n = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{1}_{A_n} |g|^{q-1}$, where $|\lambda| = 1$, $\lambda g = |g|$.

Now, $\int_{\Omega} f_n g d\mu = \int_{A_n} |g|^q d\mu = \psi(f_n)$ (as f_n is in L_{∞}). $\psi(f_n) \leq \|\psi\| \cdot \|f_n\|_p = \|\psi\| \left(\int_{A_n} |g|^q \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$.

By monotone convergence, we deduce that $\left(\int_{A_n} |g|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \leq \|\psi\|$ and hence that g is in L_q . Given $f \in L_p$, there exists $f_n \rightarrow f$ simple in L_p . So $\psi(f_n) \rightarrow \psi(f)$ and $f_n g \rightarrow fg \in L_1$ (Hölder for the pair (p, q)). Hence, $\psi(f) = \int_{\Omega} f g d\mu$, concluding the case where μ is finite.

Before we treat the more general case, observe that for $A \in \mathcal{F}$, let $\mathcal{F}_A = \{B \in \mathcal{F} : B \subseteq A\}$ and $\mu_A = \mu|_{\mathcal{F}_A}$, $(A, \mathcal{F}_A, \mu_A)$ is a measure space. Then $L_p(\mu_A) \subseteq L_p(\mu)$ (where we identify $f \in L_p(\mu_A)$ with $f \cdot \mathbf{1}_A \in L_p(\mu)$; this is an isometric embedding). Let $\psi_* = \psi|_{L_p(\mu_A)}$.

Lecture 1

Claim: If A, B are in \mathcal{F} s.t. $A \cap B$ is empty, then $\|\psi_{A \cup B}\| = (\|\psi_A\|^q + \|\psi_B\|^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}$. Observe that ^a

$$\begin{aligned} (\|\psi_A\|^q + \|\psi_B\|^q)^{\frac{1}{q}} &= \sup\{a \|\psi_A\| + b \|\psi_B\| : a, b \geq 0, a^p + b^p \leq 1\} \\ &= \sup\{|a\psi_A(f)| + b|\psi_B(g)| : a, b \geq 0, a^p + b^p \leq 1, f \in B_{L_p(\mu_A)}, g \in B_{L_p(\mu_B)}\} \\ &= \sup\{|a\psi_A(f) + b\psi_B(g)| : a, b \geq 0, a^p + b^p \leq 1, f \in B_{L_p(\mu_A)}, g \in B_{L_p(\mu_B)}\}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, $a\psi_A(f) + b\psi_B(g) = \psi_{A \cup B}(af + bg)$ (embed $f, g \in L_p(\mu)$ by extending f, g to zero outside A, B respectively). Now, continuing the above we obtain

$$= \sup\{|\psi_{A \cup B}(h)| : h \in B_{L_p(\mu_A \cup B)}\} = \|\psi_{A \cup B}\|$$

as required, concluding the proof of the finite case.

Case 2: μ is σ -finite.

There exists a measurable partition $\Omega = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$, of Ω , s.t. $\mu(A_n) < \infty$ for all n . By Case 1, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $g_n \in L_q(\mu_A)$ s.t. $\psi_{A_n} = \psi_{g_n}$, i.e. $\psi(f) = \int_{A_n} f g_n d\mu$, for all $f \in L_p(\mu_{A_n})$. By Claim 2, $\sum_{k=1}^n \|g_k\|_q^q = \sum_{k=1}^n \|\psi_{A_n}\|^q = \|\psi_{\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k}\|^q \leq \|\psi\|^q$. If we define g on Ω by setting $g = g_n$ on A_n , then g is in L_q . Thus, $\psi(f) = \psi_g(f)$ for all $f \in L_p(\mu_n)$, for all n . Hence, $\psi(f) = \phi_g(f)$ on $\text{span}\{\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} L_p(\mu_n)\} = L_p(\mu)$.

Case 3: general μ .

First assume that for $f \in L_p(\mu)$, $\{f \neq 0\}$ is σ -finite. Indeed, $\{f \neq 0\} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{|f| > \frac{1}{n}\}$ and $\mu(\{|f| > \frac{1}{n}\}) \leq n^p \cdot \|f\|_p^p < \infty$ by Markov's inequality.

Chose $(f_n) \in B_{L_p}$ s.t. $\psi(f_n) \rightarrow \|\psi\|$. Then $A = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{f_n \neq 0\}$ is σ -finite and $\|\psi_A\| = \|\psi\|$. By the claim previously established, $\|\psi\| = (\|\psi_A\|^q + \|\psi_{\Omega \setminus A}\|^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}$. By case 2, there exists a $g \in L_q(\mu_A) \subseteq L_q(\mu)$ s.t. $\phi_A = \phi_g$. So for all $f \in L_p(\mu)$, $\psi(f) = \psi_A(f|_A) + \psi_{\Omega \setminus A}(f|_{\Omega \setminus A}) = \int_A f|_A g d\mu = \int_{\Omega} f g d\mu$ (extend g in the usual sense.).

Proof of (ii) (μ is σ -finite).

ϕ is isometric: Let $g \in L_{\infty}$. We know already that $\|\phi_g\| \leq \|g\|_{\infty}$ (Hölder). Fix $s < \|g\|_{\infty}$. Then $\mu(\{|g| > s\}) > 0$. Since μ is σ -finite, there exists $A \subseteq \{|g| > s\}$ s.t. $0 < \mu(A) < \infty$. Choose a measurable function λ s.t. $|\lambda| = 1$ and $\lambda g = |g|$. Then λg is in $L_1(\mu)$, $\|\lambda g\|_1 = \mu(A)$. Now, $\mu(A) \cdot \|\phi_g\| \geq |\phi_g(\lambda \mathbf{1}_A)| = \int_A |g| \geq s \mu(A)$. We deduce $\|\phi_g\| > s$ and so $\|\phi_g\| \geq s$ and hence $\|\phi_g\| \geq \|g\|_{\infty}$.

ϕ is onto: Fix $\psi \in L_1^*$. Seek $g \in L_{\infty}$ s.t. $\psi = \phi_g$.

Case 1: μ is finite. Define $\nu(A) = \psi(\mathbf{1}_A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and proceed in the same way as for $p > 1$.

Case 2: μ is σ -finite. This time we prove

Claim: If A, B are in \mathcal{F} s.t. $A \cap B$ is empty, then $\|\psi_{A \cup B}\| = \max\{\|\psi_A\|, \|\psi_B\|\}$. Observe like before that^b

$$\begin{aligned} \max\{\|\psi_A\|, \|\psi_B\|\} &= \sup\{a\|\psi_A\| + b\|\psi_B\| : a, b \geq 0, a^p + b^p \leq 1\} \\ &= \sup\{a|\psi_A(f)| + b|\psi_B(g)| : a, b \geq 0, a + b \leq 1, f \in B_{L_1(\mu_A)}, g \in B_{L_1(\mu_B)}\} \\ &= \sup\{|a\psi_A(f) + b\psi_B(g)| : a, b \geq 0, a + b \leq 1, f \in B_{L_1(\mu_A)}, g \in B_{L_1(\mu_B)}\} \\ &= \sup\{|\psi_{A \cup B}(h)| : h \in B_{L_1(\mu_{A \cup B})}\} \\ &= \|\psi_{A \cup B}\| \end{aligned}$$

as required.

To conclude, proceed in an entirely analogous way using a measurable partition of $\Omega = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$, s.t. μ_{A_n} is a finite measure for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. By Case 1, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $g_n \in L_\infty(\mu_{A_n})$ s.t. $\psi_{A_n} = \psi_{g_n}$, i.e. $\psi(f) = \int_{A_n} f g_n d\mu$, for all $f \in L_1(\mu_{A_n})$. Now, by the previous claim,

$$\left\| \sum_{k=1}^n g_k \mathbf{1}_{A_k} \right\|_\infty = \|\psi_{\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k}\| = \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} \|\psi_{A_k}\| \leq \|\psi\|.$$

If we define g on Ω by setting $g = g_n$ on A_n , then g is in L_∞ with $\|g\|_\infty \leq \|\psi\|$. Thus, $\psi(f) = \psi_g(f)$ for all $f \in L_1(\mu_{A_n})$, for all n . Hence, $\psi(f) = \phi_g(f)$ on $\text{span}\{\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} L_1(\mu_n)\} = L_1(\mu)$. \square

^ausing the fact that $(\ell_q^2)^* \equiv \ell_p^2$.

^busing the fact that $(\ell_1^2)^* \equiv \ell_\infty^2$.

Corollary 2.8. For $1 < p < \infty$, for a measure space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ $L_p(\mu)$ is reflexive.

Proof. Let ψ be in L_p^{**} . then $g \mapsto \psi(\phi_g) : L_q \rightarrow \text{scalars}$ is in L_q^* ($\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$). By Theorem 2.7(i), there exists $f \in L_p$ s.t. $\langle \phi_g, \psi \rangle = \int_\Omega f g d\mu = \langle f, \phi_g \rangle = \langle \phi_g, \hat{f} \rangle$ for all $g \in L_q$. Then $\psi = \hat{f}$, since $L_p^* = \{\phi_g : g \in L_q\}$. \square

2.3 $\mathcal{C}(K)$ spaces

Throughout, K is a compact, Hausdorff topological space. Define

$$\mathcal{C}(K) = \{f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : f \text{ continuous}\},$$

a complex Banach space in the sup-norm: $\|f\|_\infty = \sup_K |f|$.

$$\mathcal{C}^\mathbb{R}(K) = \{f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f \text{ continuous}\}$$

is a real Banach space with norm $\|f\|_\infty = \sup_K |f|$.

$$\mathcal{C}^+(K) = \{f \in \mathcal{C}(K) : f \geq 0\}.$$

Moreover,

$$\mathcal{M}(K) = \mathcal{C}(K)^*,$$

is a complex Banach space in the operator norm.

$$\mathcal{M}^\mathbb{R}(K) = \{\phi \in \mathcal{M}(K) : \phi(f) \in \mathbb{R}, \forall f \in \mathcal{C}^\mathbb{R}(K)\},$$

is a closed, real-linear subspace of $\mathcal{M}(K)$.

$$\mathcal{M}^+(K) = \{\phi : \mathcal{C}(K) \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : \phi \text{ is linear, } \phi(f) \geq 0, \forall f \in \mathcal{C}^+(K)\}.$$

Elements of $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$ are called positive linear functionals.

Aim: identify $\mathcal{M}(K), \mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$.

Lemma 2.9. (i) For all $\phi \in \mathcal{M}(K)$, there exist unique $\phi_1, \phi_2 \in \mathcal{M}^R(K)$, $\phi = \phi_1 + i\phi_2$

(ii) $\phi \mapsto \phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)} : \mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K) \rightarrow (\mathcal{C}^R(K))^*$ is an isometric isomorphism.

(iii) $\mathcal{M}^+(K) \subset \mathcal{M}(K)$ and $\mathcal{M}^+(K) = \{\phi \in \mathcal{M}(K) : \|\phi\| = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)\}$.

(iv) For all $\phi \in \mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$, there exist unique $\phi^+, \phi^- \in \mathcal{M}^+(K)$ s.t. $\phi = \phi^+ - \phi^-$ and $\|\phi\| = \|\phi^+\| + \|\phi^-\|$.

Proof. (i) Let ϕ be in $\mathcal{M}(K)$. Define $\bar{\phi} : \mathcal{C}(K) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, by $\bar{\phi}(f) = \phi(\bar{f})$. Then, $\bar{\phi}$ is in $\mathcal{M}(K)$ and ϕ is in $\mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K) \iff \phi = \bar{\phi}^a$.

Uniqueness: assume $\phi = \phi_1 + i\phi_2$ where $\phi_1, \phi_2 \in \mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$. Then $\bar{\phi} = \phi_1 - i\phi_2$ so $\phi_1 = \frac{\phi + \bar{\phi}}{2}, \phi_2 = \frac{\phi - \bar{\phi}}{2}$.

Existence: check that the above works.

(ii) Let ϕ be in $\mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$. The fact that $\|\phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)}\| \leq \|\phi\|_{\mathcal{C}(K)}$ is clear. Let f be in $B_{\mathcal{C}(K)}$. Choose $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}, |\lambda| = 1$ and $\lambda\phi(f) = |\phi(f)|$. So $|\phi(f)| = \phi(\lambda f) = \phi(\operatorname{Re}(\lambda f)) + i\phi(\operatorname{Im}(\lambda f)) = \phi(\operatorname{Re}(\lambda f)) \leq \|\phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)}\| \cdot \|\operatorname{Re}(\lambda f)\|_{\infty} \leq \|\phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)}\|$. Hence, $\|\phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)}\| \geq \|\phi\|$. Finally, given $\psi \in (\mathcal{C}^R(K))^*$, define $\phi(f) = \psi(\operatorname{Re}(f)) + i\psi(\operatorname{Im}(f))$, for $f \in \mathcal{C}(K)$. Then ϕ is in $\mathcal{M}(K)$ and $\phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)} = \psi$.

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(iii) $\mathcal{M}^+(K) \subset \mathcal{M}(K)$: let ϕ be in $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$.

For $f \in \mathcal{C}^R(K)$, $\|f\|_{\infty} \leq 1$ we have $\mathbf{1}_K \pm f \geq 0$, so $\phi(\mathbf{1}_K \pm f) \geq 0$. So $\phi(f)$ is in \mathbb{R} and $|\phi(f)| \leq \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)$. So $\phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)}$ is in $(\mathcal{C}^R(K))^*$ and $\|\phi|_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)}\| = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)$. By (ii), ϕ is in $\mathcal{M}(K)$, $\|\phi\| = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)$.

$\mathcal{M}^+(K) = \{\phi \in \mathcal{M}(K) : \|\phi\| = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)\}$ (" \supseteq ": let ϕ be in $\mathcal{M}(K)$ with $\|\phi\| = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)$. Wlog, $\|\phi\| = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K) = 1$. Fix $f \in B_{\mathcal{C}^R(K)}$, let $\phi(f) = \alpha + i\beta$, with $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$.

Need: $\beta = 0$. For $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $|\phi(f + it\mathbf{1}_K)|^2 = \alpha^2 + (\beta + t)^2 = \alpha^2 + \beta^2 + 2\beta t \leq \|f + it\mathbf{1}_K\|_{\infty}^2 \leq 1 + t^2$, so $\beta = 0$. Given $f \in \mathcal{C}^+(K)$, with $0 \leq f \leq 1$ on K it follows that $|2f - \mathbf{1}_K| \leq 1$, so $\|2f - \mathbf{1}_K\|_{\infty} \leq 1$. So $|\phi(2f - \mathbf{1}_K)| \leq 1$, i.e. $-1 \leq 2\phi(f) \leq 1$, which implies $\phi(f) \geq 0$.

(iv) Let ϕ be in $\mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$. Assume $\phi = \psi_1 - \psi_2$, where $\psi_1, \psi_2 \in \mathcal{M}^+(K)$. For $f, g \in \mathcal{C}^+(K)$ with $0 \leq g \leq f$, $\psi_1(f) \geq \psi_1(g) = \phi(g) + \psi_2(g) \geq \phi(g)$. So $\psi_1(f) \geq \sup\{\phi(g) : 0 \leq g \leq f\}$. Define for f in $\mathcal{C}(K)$

$$\phi^+(K) = \sup\{\phi(g) : 0 \leq g \leq f\}$$

Note that $\phi^+(f) \geq 0$, $\phi^+(f) \leq \|\phi\| \cdot \|f\|_{\infty}$, $\phi^+(f) \geq \phi(f)$. Furthermore, it is easy to check that $\phi^+(t_1 f_1 + t_2 f_2) = t_1 \phi^+(f_1) + t_2 \phi^+(f_2)$ for all $f_1, f_2 \in \mathcal{C}^+(K)$, $t_1, t_2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Next, for $f \in \mathcal{C}^R(K)$, write $f = f_1 - f_2$, both in $\mathcal{C}^+(K)^b$ and define $\phi^+(f) = \phi^+(f_1) - \phi^+(f_2)$. This is well-defined and \mathbb{R} -linear (check). Finally, for f in $\mathcal{C}(K)$, let $\phi^+(f) = \phi^+(\operatorname{Re} f) + i\phi^+(\operatorname{Im} f)$. Then ϕ^+ is \mathbb{C} -linear and since $\phi^+(f) \geq 0$ for all $f \in \mathcal{C}^+(K)$, we have ϕ^+ is in $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$. Define $\phi^- = \phi^+ - \phi$. For $f \in \mathcal{C}^+(K)$, $\phi^+(f) \geq \phi(f)$ implies that ϕ^- is in $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$ and $\phi = \phi^+ - \phi^-$. $\|\phi\| \leq \|\phi^+\| + \|\phi^-\| = \phi^+(\mathbf{1}_K) + \phi^-(\mathbf{1}_K) = 2\phi^+(\mathbf{1}_K) - \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)$. Given $f \in \mathcal{C}^+(K)$ with $0 \leq f \leq 1$, $-1 \leq 2f - 1 \leq 1$, so $2\phi(f) - \phi(\mathbf{1}_K) = \phi(2f - \mathbf{1}_K) \leq \|\phi\|$. Taking the supremum over f , we deduce that $2\phi^+(\mathbf{1}_K) - \phi(\mathbf{1}_K) = \phi(2f - \mathbf{1}_K)$. So $\|\phi\| = \|\phi^+\| + \|\phi^-\|$.

Uniqueness: Assume $\phi = \psi_1 - \psi_2$, where ψ_1, ψ_2 are in $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$ and $\|\phi\| = \|\psi_1\| + \|\psi_2\|$. From initial observation, $\psi_1 \geq \phi^+$ on $\mathcal{C}^+(K)$ and so $\psi_2 = \psi_1 - \phi \geq \phi^+ - \phi = \phi^-$ on $\mathcal{C}^+(K)$. Hence, $\psi_1 - \psi^+ = \psi_2 - \phi^-$ is in $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$. By (iii), $\|\psi_1 - \psi^+\| + \|\psi_2 - \phi^-\| = \psi_1(\mathbf{1}_K) - \phi^+(\mathbf{1}_K) + \psi_2(\mathbf{1}_K) - \phi^-(\mathbf{1}_K) = \|\psi_1\| + \|\psi_2\| - \|\phi^+\| - \|\phi^-\| = \|\phi\| - \|\phi\| = 0$. Thus, $\psi_1 = \phi^+, \psi_2 = \phi^-$.

□

^acheck!^be.g. $f_1 = f \vee 0, f_2 = (-f) \vee 0$.

2.4 Topological Preliminaries

We begin with some definitions and key topological results that will be useful in obtaining the characterisation of the dual spaces $(\mathcal{C}(K))^*$.

1. K being compact, Hausdorff is normal: given disjoint closed sets E, F there exists disjoint open sets $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \in K$ s.t. $E \subset \mathcal{U}, F \subset \mathcal{V}$. Equivalently, given $E \subset \mathcal{U} \subseteq K$, E closed, \mathcal{U} open, there exists \mathcal{V} open s.t. $E \subset \mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ (use normality in $E, K \setminus \mathcal{U}$).
2. Urysohn Lemma: given disjoint closed sets $E, F \in K$, there exists a continuous function $f : K \rightarrow [0, 1]$ s.t. $f|_E = 0$ and $f|_F = 1$.
3. Notation: $f < \mathcal{U}$ means $\mathcal{U} \subseteq K$ open $f : K \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is continuous and the support of f $\text{supp}(f) = \overline{\{x \in K : f(x) \neq 0\}} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. $E < \mathcal{U}$ means E is a closed subset of K , $f : K \rightarrow [0, 1]$ continuous and $f|_E = 1$.
Urysohn says: $E \subseteq \mathcal{U} \subseteq K$, E closed, \mathcal{U} open, then there exists a continuous function f s.t. $E < f < \mathcal{U}$ ($E \subseteq \mathcal{V} \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{V}} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, \mathcal{V} open and apply Urysohn to $E, F = K \setminus \mathcal{V}$).

Lemma 2.10. Let $E, \mathcal{U}_1 \dots \mathcal{U}_n$ be subsets of K ($n \in \mathbb{N}$), E closed, \mathcal{U}_j open for $1 \leq j \leq n$ s.t. $E \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^n \mathcal{U}_j$. Then

(i) there exist open sets $\mathcal{V}_j, 1 \leq j \leq n$, s.t. $\overline{\mathcal{V}}_j \subseteq \mathcal{U}_j$ for all j and $E \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^n \mathcal{V}_j$.

(ii) there exist $f_j < \mathcal{U}_j, 1 \leq j \leq n$, s.t. $0 \leq \sum_{j=1}^n f_j \leq 1$ on K and $\sum_{j=1}^n f_j = 1$ on E .

Proof. (i) We proceed by induction on n .

$n = 1$: is just a restatement of normality of K .

$n > 1$: $E \setminus \mathcal{U}_n \subseteq \bigcup_{j < n} \mathcal{U}_j$, so by induction there exist open sets $\mathcal{V}_j, j < n$, s.t. $\overline{\mathcal{V}}_j \subseteq \mathcal{U}_j$ and $E \setminus \mathcal{U}_n \subseteq \bigcup_{j < n} \mathcal{V}_j$. So $E \setminus \bigcup_{j < n} \mathcal{V}_j \subseteq \mathcal{U}_n$ and so by normality, there exists open \mathcal{V}_n s.t. $E \setminus \bigcup_{j < n} \mathcal{V}_j \subseteq \mathcal{V}_n \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{V}}_n \subseteq \mathcal{U}_n$.

(ii) Let \mathcal{V}_j be as in part (i). By Urysohn, there exists h_j s.t. $\overline{\mathcal{V}}_j < h_j < \mathcal{U}_j$ for $1 \leq j \leq n$, and there exists h_0 s.t. $K \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^n \mathcal{V}_j < h_0 < K \setminus E$.

Let $h = h_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n h_j$. Then $h \geq 1$ on K . Let $f_j = \frac{h_j}{h}$ for all j . Then $0 \leq \sum_{j=1}^n f_j \leq 1$ on K

and $\sum_{j=1}^n f_j = 1$ on E where $f_j < \mathcal{U}_j$ for all j .

□

2.5 Borel Measures

Let X be a Hausdorff space. Let \mathcal{G} be the family of open sets in X . The Borel σ -algebra of X is $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\mathcal{G})$, the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{G} . members of \mathcal{B} are called Borel sets. A Borel measure on X is a (positive) measure μ on \mathcal{B} . we say μ is regular if

- (i) $\mu(E) < \infty$ for all $E \subseteq X$, E compact.
- (ii) $\mu(A) = \inf\{\mu(\mathcal{U}) : A \subseteq \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{G}\}$ for all $A \in \mathcal{B}$.
- (iii) $\mu(\mathcal{U}) = \sup\{\mu(E) : E \subseteq \mathcal{U}, E \text{ compact}\}$.

A complex Borel measure ν is regular if $|\nu|$ is regular. If X is compact, Hausdorff, then a Borel measure μ on X is regular

$$\begin{aligned} &\iff \mu(X) < \infty \text{ and } \mu(A) = \inf\{\mu(\mathcal{U}) : A \subseteq \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{G}\} \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{B}. \\ &\iff \mu(X) < \infty \text{ and } \mu(A) = \sup\{\mu(E) : E \subseteq A, E \text{ closed}\} \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{B}. \end{aligned}$$

2.6 Integration with respect to complex measures

Let Ω be a set, \mathcal{F} a σ -algebra on Ω and ν a complex measure on \mathcal{F} . Then ν has Jordan decomposition $\nu = \nu_1 - \nu_2 + i(\nu_3 - \nu_4)$. Say a measurable function $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is ν -integrable if f is $|\nu|$ -integrable (i.e. $\int_{\Omega} |f|d|\nu| < \infty$) iff f is ν_k -integrable for all k . So we define

$$\int_{\Omega} f d\nu = \int_{\Omega} f d\nu_1 - \int_{\Omega} f d\nu_2 + i \int_{\Omega} f d\nu_3 - i \int_{\Omega} f d\nu_4.$$

Lecture 9 Properties:

1. $\int_{\Omega} \mathbf{1}_A d\nu = \nu(A)$, for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$.
2. Linearity: if $f, g : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ are ν -integrable, $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$, then $af + bg$ is ν -integrable and $\int_{\Omega} (af + bg) d\nu = a \int_{\Omega} f d\nu + b \int_{\Omega} g d\nu$.
3. Dominated Convergence (DC): let $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, f, g , be measurable functions s.t. $f_n \rightarrow f$ a.e. (wrt $|\nu|$) and g is in $L_1(|\nu|)$ and for all n $|f_n| \leq g$ then f is ν -integrable and $\int_{\Omega} f_n d\nu \rightarrow \int_{\Omega} f d\nu$ (True for ν_k for all k , so true for ν).
4. $|\int_{\Omega} f d\nu| \leq \int_{\Omega} |f| d|\nu|$ for all $f \in L_1(\nu)$ (True for simple functions by 1&2 and for general f , use DCT).

Let ν be a complex Borel measure on K (compact, hausdorff). Then for f continuous, then

$$\int_K |f| d|\nu| \leq \|f\| \cdot |\nu|(K).$$

So, f is ν -integrable. Define $\phi : \mathcal{C}(K) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by $\phi(f) = \int_K f d\nu$. Then ϕ is in $\mathcal{M}(K)$ and $\|\phi\| \leq |\nu|(K) = \|\nu\|_1$ (TV norm). If ν is a signed measure, then ϕ is a member of $\mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$. If ν is a positive measure, then ϕ is in $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$.

Theorem 2.11 (Riesz Representation Theorem). *For every $\phi \in \mathcal{M}^+(K)$, there exists a unique regular Borel measure μ on K that represents ϕ , i.e. $\phi(f) = \int_K f d\mu$ for all continuous f . Moreover,*

$$\|\phi\| = \mu(K) = \|\mu\|_1 \text{ TV norm of } \mu.$$

Proof. Uniqueness: Assume μ_1, μ_2 both represent ϕ . Let $E \subseteq \mathcal{U} \subseteq K$, where E is closed and \mathcal{U} is open, then by Urysohn, there exists f continuous s.t. $E < f < \mathcal{U}$. Now, $\mu_1(E) \leq \int_K f d\mu_1 = \phi(f) = \int_K f d\mu_2 \leq \mu_2(\mathcal{U})$. Take infimum over \mathcal{U} open and use regularity to deduce that $\mu_1(E) \leq \mu_2(E)$, and by symmetry $\mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E)$ agree on closed sets, and we conclude that $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$ by regularity from below.

Existence: Define for $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{G}$ (i.e. \mathcal{U} open), $\mu^*(\mathcal{U}) = \sup\{\phi(f) : f < \mathcal{U}\}$. Note that $\mu^*(\mathcal{U}) \geq 0$, and for $\mathcal{V} \supseteq \mathcal{U}$, $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{G}$, then $\mu^*(\mathcal{V}) \geq \mu^*(\mathcal{U})$ and hence $\mu^*(\mathcal{U}) \leq \mu^*(\mathcal{K})$ but $\mu^*(K) = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K)$ ($f < K$ implies $f \leq \mathbf{1}_K$ and ϕ is in $\mathcal{M}^+(K)$). It follows that for $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{G}$, $\mu^*(\mathcal{U}) = \inf\{\mu^*(\mathcal{U}) : A \subseteq \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{G}\}$. Extend the definition of μ^* : for $A \subseteq K$ let $\mu^*(A) = \inf\{\mu^*(\mathcal{U}) : A \subseteq \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{G}\}$.

Claim: μ^* is an outer measure.

We easily have that $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$ and for all $A \subseteq B \subseteq K$ $\mu^*(A) \leq \mu^*(B)$. It remains to show

that if for all n in \mathbb{N}

$$(A_n) \subseteq K, \text{ then } \mu^*\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right) \leq \sum_n \mu^*(A_n).$$

To see this, first fix $\mathcal{U}_n \in \mathcal{G}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{U}_n$. Fix $f < \mathcal{U}$ and let $E = \text{supp } f$.

Then $E \subseteq \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{U}_n$, by compactness, $E \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^n \mathcal{U}_k$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. By lemma 2.10, there exist

$h_j < \mathbf{U}_j$, $1 \leq j \leq n$, $\sum_{j=1}^n h_j \leq 1$ on K and is equal to 1 on E . So $f = \sum_{j=1}^n fh_j$ and hence

$$\phi(f) = \sum_{j=1}^n \phi(fh_j) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n \mu^*(\mathcal{U}_j) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(\mathcal{U}_j) \text{ as } fh_j < \mu^*(\mathcal{U}_j) \text{ for all } j.$$

Taking the supremum of f , we deduce $\mu^*(\mathcal{U}) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(\mathcal{U}_j)$. It follows easily that

$$\mu^*\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right) \leq \sum_n \mu^*(A_n) \text{ for arbitrary sets (just approximate using an } \frac{\epsilon}{2^n} \text{ argument).}$$

We now let \mathcal{M} be the set of μ^* -measurable subsets of K , then \mathcal{M} is a σ -algebra and $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{M}}$ is a measure on \mathcal{M} .

Next we show that $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. Enough to show that $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$. Let \mathcal{U} be in \mathcal{G} . We need to show: $\mu^*(A) \geq \mu^*(A \cap \mathcal{U}) + \mu^*(A \setminus \mathcal{U})$ for all $A \subseteq K$. First let $A = \mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{G}$. Fix $f < \mathcal{V} \cap \mathcal{U}$, fix $g < \mathcal{V} \setminus \text{supp } f$. Then $f + g < \mathcal{V}$, and thus $\mu^*(\mathcal{V}) \geq \phi(f + g) = \phi(f) + \phi(g)$. Taking the supremum over g , we get $\mu^*(\mathcal{V}) \geq \phi(f) + \mu^*(\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{supp } f) \geq \phi(f) + \mu^*(\mathcal{V} \cap \mathcal{U})$. Now let $A \subseteq K$ be arbitrary. Fix $\mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{G}$ s.t. $A \subseteq \mathcal{V}$, then $\mu^*(\mathcal{V}) \geq \mu^*(\mathcal{V} \cap \mathcal{U}) + \mu^*(\mathcal{V} \setminus \mathcal{U}) \geq \mu^*(A \cap \mathcal{U}) + \mu^*(A \setminus \mathcal{U})$. Taking the infimum over all such \mathcal{V} , we have that $\mu^*(A) \geq \mu^*(A \cap \mathcal{U}) + \mu^*(A \setminus \mathcal{U})$.

Now, $\mu := \mu^*|_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a Borel measure on K . We have that $\mu(K) = \phi(\mathbf{1}_K) = \|\phi\| < \infty$ and by definition, μ is regular. It remains to show that

$$\phi(f) = \int_K f d\mu$$

for all continuous f . It is enough to check that for all $f \in \mathcal{C}^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$ and then to show that $\phi(f) \leq \int_K f d\mu$ (by applying the it to $-f$).

Fix $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $f(K) \subseteq [a, b]$. Wlog, $a > 0$, since $\phi(\mathbf{1}_K) = \int_K \mathbf{1}_K d\mu$. Let $\epsilon > 0$; choose $0 \leq y_0 < a \leq y_1 < \dots < y_n = b$ s.t. $y_j < y_{j+1} + \epsilon$ for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. Let $A_j = f^{-1}((y_{j-1}, y_j])$.

Then, $K = \bigcup_{j=1}^n A_j$ and this is a measurable partition. Choose closed sets E_j and open sets \mathcal{U}_j

s.t. $E_j \subseteq A_j \subseteq \mathcal{U}_j$ and $\mu(\mathcal{U}_j \setminus E_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{n}$ (by regularity) and $f(\mathcal{U}_j) \subseteq (y_{j-1}, y_j + \epsilon)$. By lemma

2.10 there exist $h_j < \mathcal{U}_j$, $1 \leq j \leq n$, $\sum_{j=1}^n h_j \leq 1$ on K . Now ^a

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(f) &= \sum_{j=1}^n \phi(fh_j) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n (y_j + \epsilon)\phi(h_j) \\ &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n (y_j + \epsilon)\mu(\mathcal{U}_j) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n (y_{j-1} + 2\epsilon) \left(\mu(\mathcal{U}_j) + \frac{\epsilon}{n} \right) \\ &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n y_{j-1}\mu(\mathcal{U}_j) + \epsilon(b + \epsilon) + 2\epsilon\mu(K) + 2\epsilon^2 \\ &= \int_K \sum_{j=1}^n y_{j-1} \mathbf{1}_{E_j} d\mu + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon) \\ &\leq \int_K f d\mu + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\phi(f) \leq \int_K f d\mu$, since $\epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary.

□

^ausing that $f \leq y_j \leq \epsilon$ and $h_j < \mathcal{U}_j$ and $\phi \in \mathcal{M}^+(K)$.

Corollary 2.12. For every $\phi \in \mathcal{M}(K)$, there exists a unique regular complex Borel measure ν on K that represents ϕ , namely, $\phi(f) = \int_K f d\nu$ for all continuous f . Moreover, $\|\phi\| = \|\nu\|_1$ and if ϕ is in $\mathcal{M}^\mathbb{R}(K)$, then ν is a signed measure.

Proof. Existence: Apply lemma 2.9 and theorem 2.11 to obtain a regular complex Borel measure ν that represents ϕ .

Need: $\|\nu\|_1 = \|\phi\|$.

Lecture 10 This will give uniqueness, if ν_1, ν_2 represent ϕ , then $\nu_1 - \nu_2$ represents $\phi - \phi = 0$, then $\|\nu_1 - \nu_2\|_1 = 0$, hence $\nu_1 = \nu_2$. $\|\phi\| \leq \|\nu\|_1$, was already done before Theorem 2.11. Take a measurable partition $K = \bigcup_{j=1}^n A_j$. Fix $\epsilon > 0$ and closed sets E_j , open sets \mathcal{U}_j s.t. $E_j \subseteq A_j \subseteq \mathcal{U}_j$, $|\nu|(\mathcal{U}_j \setminus E_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{n}$ ($|\nu|$ is regular). Can also assume that $\mathcal{U}_j \subseteq K \setminus \bigcup_{i \neq j} E_i$, for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. Fix $\lambda_j \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $|\lambda_j| = 1$, $\lambda_j \nu(E_j) = |\nu(E_j)|$, $1 \leq j \leq n$. By lemma 2.10, there exist $h_j < \mathcal{U}_j$, $1 \leq j \leq n$, $\sum_{j=1}^n h_j \leq 1$ on K . then for all j $E_j < h_j$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_K \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \mathbf{1}_{E_j} - \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j h_j \right) d\nu \right| &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n \int_K |\mathbf{1}_{E_j} - \sum_{j=1}^n h_j| d|\nu| \\ &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n |\nu|(\mathcal{U}_j \setminus E_j) < \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^n |\nu(A_j)| &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n |\nu(E_j)| + \epsilon = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \nu(E_j) + \epsilon \\ &= \int_K \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \mathbf{1}_{E_j} d\nu + \epsilon \leq \left| \int_K \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j h_j \right) d\nu \right| + 2\epsilon \\ &= \left| \phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j h_j \right) \right| + 2\epsilon \\ &= \|\phi\| \cdot \left\| \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j h_j \right\|_\infty + 2\epsilon \leq \|\phi\| + 2\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

using the fact the the expression in the second to last line is a convex combination of function with sup norm equal to one. Hence, it follows that $\|\nu\|_1 \leq \|\phi\|$. \square

Corollary 2.13. The space of regular complex Borel measures is a complex Banach space in the $\|\nu\|_1$ (total variation norm) and is isometrically isomorphic $\mathcal{M}(K)$.

The space of regular real Borel measures is a real Banach space in the $\|\nu\|_1$ (total variation norm) and is isometrically isomorphic $\mathcal{M}^\mathbb{R}(K)$.

3 Weak Topologies

Let X be a set and \mathcal{F} be a family of function s.t. each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ is a function $f : X \rightarrow Y_f$, where Y_f is a topological space.

The weak topology $\sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$ on X generated by \mathcal{F} is the smallest topology on X s.t. each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ is continuous (is easily see to exist).

Remark. 1. $\mathcal{S} = \{f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) : f \in \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{U} \subseteq Y_f \text{ open}\}$ is a sub-base of $\sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$. So $\mathcal{V} \subseteq X$ is open,

i.e. it is in $\sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$ iff for all $x \in \mathcal{V}$, there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $f_1, \dots, f_n \in \mathcal{F}$ and open sets $\mathcal{U}_j \subseteq Y_{f_j}$ (open nbhds of $f_j(x)$) for $1 \leq j \leq n$ s.t. x is in $\bigcap_{j=1}^n f_j^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_j) \subseteq \mathcal{V}$.

2. If \mathcal{S}_f is a sub-base in Y_f , then $\{f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) : f \in \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{S}_f\}$, is a sub-base for $\sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$.
3. If Y_f is Hausdorff for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and \mathcal{F} separates points in X (i.e., for all $x \neq y$, there exists $f \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $f(x) \neq f(y)$). Then $\sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$ is Hausdorff (easy to check).
4. $Y \subseteq X$, let $\mathcal{F}_Y = \{f|_Y : f \in \mathcal{F}\}$. Then $\sigma(Y, \mathcal{F}_Y) = \sigma(X, \mathcal{F})|_Y$ (check!).
5. Universal property: let Z be a topological space and $g : Z \rightarrow X$ be a function. Then g is continuous iff $f \circ g : Z \rightarrow Y_f$ is continuous for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$.

Examples 3.1. 1. Let X be a topological space, let $Y \subseteq X$ and $\iota : Y \rightarrow X$ be the inclusion map. Then, $\sigma(Y, \{\iota\})$ is the subspace topology of Y .

2. let Γ be a set, X_γ a topological space for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and $X = \prod_{\gamma \in \Gamma} X_\gamma = \{X : X \text{ is a function on } \Gamma \text{ s.t. } \forall \gamma \in \Gamma, x(\gamma) \in X_\gamma\}$. For $x \in X$, $\gamma \in \Gamma$ we often write x_γ for $x(\gamma)$. We think of x as the " Γ -tuple", $(x_\gamma)_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$. For each γ we have $\pi_\gamma : X \rightarrow X_\gamma, x \mapsto x_\gamma$ ($(x_\delta)_{\delta \in \Gamma}$) the evaluation at γ , or projection onto X_γ . The weak topology $\sigma(X, \{\pi_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma\})$ is called the product topology on X . \mathcal{V} is open iff for all $x = (x_\gamma)_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \in \mathcal{V}$, there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n \in \Gamma$ and open neighbourhoods \mathcal{U}_j of x_{γ_j} in X_{γ_j} s.t.

$$\{y = (y_\gamma)_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \in X : y_{\gamma_j} \in \mathcal{U}_j, 1 \leq j \leq n\} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$$

Proposition 3.2. Let X be a set. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let (Y_n, d_W) be a metric space and $f_n : X \rightarrow Y_n$ be a function s.t. $\mathcal{F} = \{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ separates points of X . Then $\sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$ is metrisable.

Proof. Define

$$d(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \min(|f_n(x) - f_n(y)|, 1) \cdot 2^{-n}, \text{ for } x, y \text{ in } X.$$

This is a metric on X (easy to check) (\mathcal{F} separating points implies that for $x \neq y$, $d(x, y) > 0$). Given $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$ and $d(x, y) < \frac{\epsilon}{2^n}$, then $|f_n(x) - f_n(y)| < \epsilon$. So each f_n is continuous wrt the topology τ induced by d . So $\sigma = \sigma(X, \mathcal{F}) \subseteq \tau$. Fix $x \in X$, then $y \mapsto \min(|f_n(x) - f_n(y)|, 1) \cdot 2^{-n}$ is σ -continuous. By the Weierstrass M-test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \min(|f_n(x) - f_n(y)|, 1) \cdot 2^{-n}$ is uniformly convergent, hence σ -continuous. So, $\{y \in X : d(y, x) < \epsilon\}$ is σ -open. Hence, $\tau \subseteq \sigma$ and $\tau = \sigma$. \square

Theorem 3.3 (Tychonov). The product of compact topological spaces is compact in the product topology.

Proof. We have $X = \prod_{\gamma \in \Gamma} X_\gamma$ as in examples 3.1. Assume each X_γ is compact. Let \mathcal{F} be a family of closed subsets of X with the finite intersection property (FIP). We need to show that $\bigcap_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F \neq \emptyset$ (equivalent to compactness).

By Zorn, there exists a maximal family \mathcal{A} of subsets of X s.t. $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ and \mathcal{A} has the FIP ($\mathcal{M} = \{\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X) : \mathcal{A} \supseteq \mathcal{F} \text{ & } \mathcal{A} \text{ has the FIP}\}$, and every chain has a maximal element. Check!).

We will show that $\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \overline{A} \neq \emptyset$.

Note:

1. $A_1, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ implies that $A = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i$ is in \mathcal{A} .
Indeed, for all $B_1, \dots, B_m \in \mathcal{A}$, s.t. $A \cap B_1 \cap \dots \cap B_m \neq \emptyset$ so $\mathcal{A} \cup \{A\}$ has the FIP.
Hence, A is in \mathcal{A} .
2. $B \subseteq X$, $B \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ implies B is in \mathcal{A} . Indeed, for $A_1, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ s.t. $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \neq \emptyset$ and $B \cap \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \neq \emptyset$, then $A \cup \{B\}$ has the FIP and using maximality, we conclude that B is in \mathcal{A} .

Let $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Then $\{\pi_\gamma(A) : A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ has the FIP. Since X_γ is compact, $\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \overline{\pi_\gamma(A)} \neq \emptyset$. Fix $x_\gamma \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \overline{\pi_\gamma(A)} \neq \emptyset$. Let $x = (x_\gamma)_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$ and \mathcal{U} be an open neighbourhood of \underline{x} . We show that $\mathbf{U} \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $x \in A$, for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$. Wlog, $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{j=1}^n \pi_{\gamma_j}^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_j)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n \in \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{U}_j$ is an open neighbourhood of $x_{\gamma_j} \in X_{\gamma_j}$. So $\mathcal{U}_j \cap \bigcup_{j=1}^n \pi_{\gamma_j}^{-1}(A_j) \neq \emptyset$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$, so $\pi_{\gamma_j}^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_j) \in \mathcal{A}$ by note 2 above. By 1 above, $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{A}$ and hence, $\mathcal{U} \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$. We have thus demonstrated that for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$, $x \in \overline{A}$, which concludes the proof. \square

Lecture 11

3.1 Weak topologies on vector spaces

Let E be a real or complex vector space. Let F be a subspace of the space of all linear functionals on E that separates points, i.e. for all $x \in E, x \neq 0$, then there exists $f \in F, f(x) \neq 0$. Consider the weak topology $\sigma(E, F)$. So $\mathcal{U} \subseteq E$ is open iff for all $x \in \mathcal{U}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}, f_1, \dots, f_n \in F, \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\{y \in E : |f_j(y - x)| < \epsilon, 1 \leq j \leq n\} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. For $f \in F, x \in E, p_f(x) = |f(x)|$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{p_f : f \in F\}$. Then (E, \mathcal{P}) is a locally convex space (LCS) whose topology is $\sigma(E, F)$. So $\sigma(E, F)$ is Hausdorff and vector addition and scalar multiplication are continuous.

Lemma 3.4. Let E be as above, let f, g_1, \dots, g_n be linear functionals on E s.t. $\bigcup_{j=1}^n \ker g_j \subseteq \ker f$. Then $f \in \text{span}\{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$.

Proof. Let \mathbb{K} be the scalar field. Define $T : E \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^n$ by $Tx = (g_j(x))_{j=1}^n$. Then $\ker(T) = \bigcup_{j=1}^n \ker g_j \subseteq \ker f$ and hence we have a factorisation

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathbb{K} \\ & \downarrow T & \nearrow h \\ & \mathbb{K}^n & \end{array}$$

with h linear, $f = h \circ T$. Then there exists $(a_j(x))_{j=1}^n \in \mathbb{K}^n$ s.t. $h(y) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j y_j$ for all $y \in \mathbb{K}^n$.

So for all $x \in E, f(x) = h(Tx) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j g_j(x)$. So $f = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j g_j$ as required. \square

Proposition 3.5. Let E, F be as above, let f be a linear function on E . Then f is $\sigma(E, F)$ -continuous iff $f \in F$. So, $(E, \sigma(E, F))^* = F$.

Proof. \Leftarrow : holds by definition.

\Rightarrow : there exists an open neighbourhood \mathcal{U} of 0 in E s.t. for all $x \in \mathcal{U}$, $|f(x)| < 1$. Wlog, (shrink \mathcal{U} if necessary) $\mathcal{U} = \{x \in E : |g_j(x)| < \epsilon, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}, g_1, \dots, g_n \in F, \epsilon > 0$. If $x \in \bigcup_{j=1}^n \ker g_j$, then $ambx \in \mathcal{U}$ for all scalars λ and hence $|f(x)| = |\lambda| \cdot |f(x)| < 1$ for all λ . So $f(x) = 0$. By lemma 3.4, $f \in \text{span}\{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$. \square

Examples 3.6. 1. Let X be a normed space. The weak topology on X is the topology $\sigma(X, X^*)$ on X . (X^* annihilates points of X by Hahn-Banach). We sometimes write, (X, w) for $(X, \sigma(X, X^*))$. Open sets in $\sigma(X, X^*)$ are called weak open, or w -open. $\mathcal{U} \subseteq X$ is w -open \Leftrightarrow for all $x \in \mathcal{U}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}, f_1, \dots, f_n \in X^*, \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\{y \in X : |f_j(y - x)| < \epsilon, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$.

2. Let X be a normed space. The weak star topology or w^* -topology on X^* is the topology $\sigma(X^*, X)$ on X^* . Here, we are identifying X with its image in X^{**} under the canonical embedding. Open sets in $\sigma(X^*, X)$ are called w^* -open and $\mathcal{U} \subseteq X^*$ is weak-* open iff for all $f \in \mathcal{U}$, there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}, x_1, \dots, x_n \in X, \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\{y \in X^* : |g(x_j) - f(x_j)| < \epsilon, 1 \leq j \leq n\} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$.

Properties:

1. (W, w) and (X^*, w^*) (this is $(X^*, \sigma(X^*, X))$) are LSC and hence Hausdorff with continuous vector space operations.
2. $\sigma(X, X^*) \subseteq \|\cdot\|$ -topology with equality iff $\dim X < \infty$.
3. $\sigma(X, X^*) \subseteq \sigma(X^*, X) \subseteq \|\cdot\|$, where equality in the first inclusion is achieved iff X is reflexive, and for the latter iff $\dim X^* = \dim X < \infty$.
4. Let Y be a subspace of X . Then, $\sigma(X, X^*)|_Y = \sigma(Y, \{f \in X^* : f|_Y\}) = \sigma(Y, Y^*)$ by Hahn-Banach. Similarly, $\sigma(X^{**}, X^*)|_X = \sigma(X, X^*)$. So in other words, the canonical embedding $X \rightarrow X^{**}$ is also a weak-to-weak-* homeomorphism between X and \widehat{X} .

Proposition 3.7. Let X be a normed space.

- (i) A linear functional f on X is continuous in the weak topology iff $f \in X^*$. So $(X, w)^* = X^*$.
- (ii) A linear functional f on X^* is w^* -continuous iff $f \in X$, i.e. $f = \hat{x}$ for some $x \in X$. So $(X^*, w^*)^* = X$. It follows that $\sigma(X^*, X) = \sigma(X^*, X^{**})$ iff X is reflexive.

Definition 3.8 (Weak Boundedness). Let X be a normed space, then a subset $A \subseteq X$ is weakly bounded if $\{f(x) : x \in A\}$ is bounded for all $f \in X^*$ (iff for all w -neighbourhood of 0 in X , there exists $\lambda > 0$ s.t. $A \subseteq \lambda\mathcal{U}$).

A subset $B \subseteq X^*$ is weak-* bounded if $\{f(x) : x \in B\}$ is bounded for all $x \in X$ (iff iff for all w^* -neighbourhood of 0 in X^* , there exists $\lambda > 0$ s.t. $B \subseteq \lambda\mathcal{U}$).

3.2 Principle of Uniform Boundedness (PUB)

Let X be a Banach space, Y be a normed space and $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{Y})$. If \mathcal{T} is pointwise bounded $\left(\sup_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \|Tx\| \text{ for all } x \in X \right)$, then T is uniformly bounded $\left(\sup_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \|T\| < \infty \right)$.

Proposition 3.9. (i) $A \subseteq X$ is weakly bounded implies that A is $\|\cdot\|$ -bounded.

(ii) $B \subseteq X^*$ is weak-* bounded and X is complete implies that B is $\|\cdot\|$ -bounded.

Proof. (ii) $B \subseteq X^* = \mathcal{B}(X, \text{scalars})$, B weak-* bounded says B is pointwise bounded. So done by PUB.

(i) $\hat{A} = \{\hat{x} : x \in A\} \subseteq X^{**} = \mathcal{B}(X^*, \text{scalars})$. A weakly bounded iff \hat{A} is pointwise bounded and so can conclude again by PUB. \square

Notation: We write $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$ if $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to x in the weak topology (in some normed space). Note that $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$ in X iff $\langle x_n, f \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, f \rangle$ for all $f \in X^*$. We write $f_n \xrightarrow{w^*} f$ in X^* if $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to f in the weak-* topology (in some dual space) iff $\langle x, f_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, f \rangle$ for all $x \in X$.

Consequences of PUB: Let X be a Banach space, Y a normed space, (T_n) a sequence in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$. If $T : X \rightarrow Y$ is a function s.t. $T_n \rightarrow T$ pointwise on X (i.e. $T_n x \rightarrow T x$ for all $x \in X$), then $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, $\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|T_n\| < \infty$ and $\|T\| \leq \liminf_n \|T_n\|$.

Proposition 3.10. Let X be a normed space.

(i) If $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$ in X , then $\sup_n \|x_n\| < \infty$ and $\|x\| \leq \liminf_n \|x_n\|$.

(ii) If $f_n \xrightarrow{w^*} f$ in X^* and X is complete, then $\sup_n \|f_n\| < \infty$ and $\|f\| \leq \liminf_n \|f_n\|$.

Proof. (ii) We have that $f_n \rightarrow f$ pointwise in $X^* = \mathcal{B}(X, \text{scalars})$. Result follows by PUB.

(i) Since $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$, $\hat{x}_n \rightarrow \hat{x}$ pointwise in $X^{**} = \mathcal{B}(X^*, \text{scalars})$ and we conclude by PUB again. \square

Lecture 12 For the above, the converse is not true. We can find a sequence that converges weakly but not in the norm topology. For instance,

Examples 3.11. Example: In ℓ_p , $1 < p < \infty$, $e_n = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$, $e_n \xrightarrow{w} 0$, but clearly $e_n \not\xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} 0$.

3.3 Hahn-Banach Separation Theorems

Let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a LCS. Let \mathcal{C} be a convex subspace of X , s.t. $0 \in \text{int } \mathcal{C}$. Then define $\mu_{\mathcal{C}} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\mu_{\mathcal{C}} = \inf\{t > 0 : x \in t\mathcal{C}\}$.

Well-defined: $\frac{1}{n}x \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{n}x \in \mathcal{C}$. $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}$ is the Minkowski functional (gauge functional) of \mathcal{C} .

Examples 3.12. Example: If X is a normed space and $\mathcal{C} = B_X$, then $\mu_{\mathcal{C}} = \|\cdot\|$.

Lemma 3.13. $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}$ is positive homogeneous and sub-additive. Moreover, $\{x : \mu_{\mathcal{C}} < 1\} \subset \mathcal{C} \subset \{x : \mu_{\mathcal{C}} \leq 1\}$. The first inclusion is an equality if \mathcal{C} open.

Proof. Positive homogeneous: for $x \in X, s, t > 0$ we have $sx \in st\mathcal{C} \iff x \in t\mathcal{C}$. Hence, $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}(sx) = s\mu_{\mathcal{C}}(x)$. Also holds for $s = 0$, since $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}(0) = 0$.

Subadditivity: First an observation: $\mu_{\mathcal{C}} < t$ implies $x \in t\mathcal{C}$. Indeed, there exists $t' < t$ s.t. $x \in t'\mathcal{C}$. Then, $\frac{x}{t} = (1 - \frac{t'}{t}) \cdot 0 + \frac{t'}{t} \cdot \frac{x}{t'} \in \mathcal{C}$ by the convexity of \mathcal{C} .

Now, let $x, y \in X$. Fix $s > \mu_C(x)$, $t > \mu_C(y)$. Then $x \in s\mathcal{C}$, $y \in t\mathcal{C}$. So, $x + y = \left(\frac{s}{s+t} \cdot \frac{x}{s} + \frac{t}{s+t} \cdot \frac{y}{t}\right)(s+t) \in (s+t)\mathcal{C}$ by convexity. So $\mu_C(x+y) \leq s+t$, and hence $\mu_C(x+y) \leq \mu_C(x) + \mu_C(y)$.

Next, if $\mu_C(x) < 1$, then $x \in \mathcal{C}$ by above. If \mathcal{C} is open and $x \in \mathcal{C}$, then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $(1 + \frac{1}{n})x \in \mathcal{C}$, since $(1 + \frac{1}{n})x \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} x$ and \mathcal{C} open. Hence, $\mu_C(x) \leq \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{n}} < 1$.

Finally, $x \in \mathcal{C}$ implies that $\mu_C(x) \leq 1$. Then, by homogeneity, $\mu_C((1 - \frac{1}{n})x) < 1$ for all n , so $(1 - \frac{1}{n})x \in \mathcal{C}$ for all n , since $(1 - \frac{1}{n})x \rightarrow x$, the in case \mathcal{C} is closed $x \in \mathcal{C}$.

Positive homogeneous: for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n, s, t > 0$ we have $sx \in st\mathcal{D} \iff x \in t\mathcal{D}$. Hence, $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(sx) = s\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x)$. A;so holds for $s = 0$, since $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(0) = 0$.

Subadditivity: First an observation: $\mu_{\mathcal{D}} < t$ implies $x \in t\mathcal{D}$. Indeed, there exists $t' < t$ s.t. $x \in t'\mathcal{D}$. Then, $\frac{x}{t} = (1 - \frac{t'}{t}) \cdot 0 + \frac{t'}{t} \cdot \frac{x}{t'} \in \mathcal{D}$ by the convexity of \mathcal{D} .

Now, let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Fix $s > \mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x)$, $t > \mu_{\mathcal{D}}(y)$. Then $x \in s\mathcal{D}$, $y \in t\mathcal{D}$. So, $x + y = \left(\frac{s}{s+t} \cdot \frac{x}{s} + \frac{t}{s+t} \cdot \frac{y}{t}\right)(s+t) \in (s+t)\mathcal{D}$ by convexity. So $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x+y) \leq s+t$, and hence $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x+y) \leq \mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x) + \mu_{\mathcal{D}}(y)$.

Next, if $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x) < 1$, then $x \in \mathcal{D}$ by above. If \mathcal{D} is open and $x \in \mathcal{D}$, then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $(1 + \frac{1}{n})x \in \mathcal{D}$, since $(1 + \frac{1}{n})x \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} x$ and \mathcal{D} open. Hence, $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x) \leq \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{n}} < 1$.

Finally, $x \in \mathcal{D}$ implies that $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}(x) \leq 1$. Then, by homogeneity, $\mu_{\mathcal{D}}((1 - \frac{1}{n})x) < 1$ for all n , so $(1 - \frac{1}{n})x \in \mathcal{D}$ for all n , since $(1 - \frac{1}{n})x \rightarrow x$, the in case \mathcal{D} is closed $x \in \mathcal{D}$. \square

Remark. If \mathcal{C} is symmetric (in real case) or balanced (in complex case)m then $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}$ is a semi-norm. If, in addition \mathcal{C} is bounded, then $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}$ is a norm.

Theorem 3.14. *Hahn-Banach Separation Theorem* Let $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{P})$ be a LCS and \mathcal{C} be an open convex subset of X with $0 \in \text{int } \mathcal{C}$. let $x_0 \in X \setminus \mathcal{C}$. Then there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(x_0) > f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{C}$. (In complex case: $\text{Re}(f(x_0)) > \text{Re}(f(x))$ for all $x \in \mathcal{C}$).

Remark. From now on we work with real scalars and the complex case will follow, since

$$f \mapsto \text{Re } f : X^* \rightarrow X_{\mathbb{R}}^*$$

is a real linear injection.

Proof. Consider $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}$. By lemma 3.13, $\mathcal{C} = \{s : \mu_{\mathcal{C}}(x) < 1\}$ and so $\mu_{\mathcal{C}}(x_0) \geq 1$. Let $Y = \text{span}\{x_0\}$ and $g : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(\lambda x_0) = 1 \leq \mu_{\mathcal{C}}(x_0)$. Hence, $g \leq \mu_{\mathcal{C}}$ on Y .

By Theorem 1.3, there exists linear $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $f|_Y = g$ and $f \leq \mu_{\mathcal{C}}$ on X . For all $x \in \mathcal{C}$, $f(x) \leq \mu_{\mathcal{C}}(x) < 1 = f(x_0)$. We also gave $f(x) < 1$ on \mathcal{C} and so $|f(x)| < 1$ on $\mathcal{C} \cap (-\mathcal{C})$. Since $\mathcal{C} \cap (-\mathcal{C})$ is an open neighbourhood of 0, we have that $f \in X^*$. \square

Theorem 3.15. Let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a LCS. Let $A, B \neq \emptyset$, disjoint convex subsets of X .

- (i) If A is open, there exists $f \in X^*$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $f(x) < \alpha \leq f(y)$ for all $x \in A, y \in B$.
- (ii) If A is compact, and B is closed, then there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $\sup_A f < \inf_B f$.

Proof. (i) Fix $\alpha \in A, b \in B$. Let $\mathcal{C} = A - B + b - \alpha$ and $x_0 = b - \alpha$. Then \mathcal{C} is open, convex, $0 \in \mathcal{C}$ and $x_0 \notin \mathcal{C}$ ($A \cap B = \emptyset$). By Theorem 3.14, there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(z) < f(x_0)$ for all $z \in \mathcal{C}$. So for all $x \in A, y \in B$ $f(x - y + x_0) < f(x_0)$, i.e $f(x) < f(y)$. In particular, $f \neq 0$. Let $\alpha = \inf f$. Then $\alpha \leq f(y)$ for all $y \in B$. Since $f \neq 0$, there exists $u \in X$ s.t. $f(u) > 0$. Now, given $x \in A$, $x + \frac{1}{n}u \rightarrow x$ and since A is open, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $x + \frac{1}{n}u \in A$. Then $f(x) < f(x + \frac{1}{n}u) \leq \alpha$.

(ii) Claim: there exists open, convex neighbourhood of 0 in X, \mathcal{U} s.t. $(A + \mathcal{U}) \cap B = \emptyset$

Indeed, for $x \in A$, there exists open neighbourhood \mathcal{U}_x of 0 s.t. $(x + \mathcal{U}_x) \cap B = \emptyset$ (B is closed). Since $0 + 0 = 0$ and "+" is continuous, there exists open neighbourhood \mathcal{V}_x of 0 s.t. $\mathcal{V}_x + \mathcal{V}_x \subseteq \mathcal{U}_x$. Wlog, \mathcal{V}_x is convex and symmetric. By compactness, there exist $x_1, \dots, x_n \in A$ s.t. $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n (x_i + \mathcal{V}_{x_i})$. Let $\mathcal{U} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \mathcal{V}_{x_i}$. Given $x \in A$, there exists i s.t. $x \in x_i + \mathcal{V}_{x_i}$. So, $x + \mathcal{U} \subseteq x \in x_i + \mathcal{V}_{x_i} + \mathcal{U} \subseteq x \in x_i + \mathcal{V}_{x_i} + \mathcal{V}_{x_i} \subseteq x_i + \mathcal{U}_{x_i}$ is disjoint from B . So, $A + \mathcal{U}$ is disjoint from B .

Now, apply part (i) with $A + \mathcal{U}, B$ to show that there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(x + u) < f(y)$ for all $x \in A, y \in B, u \in \mathcal{U}$. In particular, $f \neq 0$ so there exists $z \in X$ s.t. $f(z) > 0$. Also, $\frac{1}{n}z \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$, so there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{n}z \in \mathcal{U}$. So $f(x) + \frac{1}{n}f(z) < f(y)$ for all $x \in A, y \in B$. It follows that $\sup_A f < \inf_B f$.

□

Theorem 3.16 (Mazur). *Let \mathcal{C} be a convex subset of a normed space X . Then $\overline{\mathcal{C}}^{\|\cdot\|} = \overline{\mathcal{C}}^w$. In particular, \mathcal{C} is $\|\cdot\|$ -closed iff \mathcal{C} is weakly closed.*

Proof. Wlog, $\mathcal{C} \neq \emptyset$.

" $\overline{\mathcal{C}}^{\|\cdot\|} \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{C}}^w$ ": is true since the weak topology is weaker than the $\|\cdot\|$ -topology.

" $\overline{\mathcal{C}}^{\|\cdot\|} \supseteq \overline{\mathcal{C}}^w$ ": If $x \notin \overline{\mathcal{C}}^{\|\cdot\|}$, then apply Theorem 3.14 (ii) to $A = \{x\}, B = \overline{\mathcal{C}}^{\|\cdot\|}$ to obtain $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(x) < \inf_B f := \alpha$. Then, $\{y : f(y) < \alpha\}$ is a weakly open neighbourhood of x , disjoint from B (and hence from \mathcal{C}). So $x \notin \mathcal{C}$.

□

Corollary 3.17 (Mazur). *If $x_n \xrightarrow{w} 0$ in a normed space X , then for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $x \in \text{conv}\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ s.t. $\|x\| \leq \epsilon$.*

Proof. $0 \in \overline{\text{conv}\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}}^w = \overline{\text{conv}\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}}^{\|\cdot\|}$ by Mazur.

□

Remark. It follows from this that there exist $p_1 < q_1 < p_2 < q_2 \dots$ and convex combinations $z_n = \sum_{i=p_n}^{q_n} t_i x_i$ s.t. $z_n \rightarrow 0$ in $\|\cdot\|$.

Lecture 13 **Theorem 3.18** (Banach-Alaoglu). *For any normed space X , (B_{X^*}, w^*) is compact.*

Proof. For $x \in X$, let $K_x = \{\lambda : \lambda \text{ scalar}, |\lambda| \leq \|x\|\}$. Let $K = \prod_{x \in X} K_x$ in the product topology. Let $\pi_x : K \rightarrow K_x$ be the projection $(\lambda_y)_{y \in X} \mapsto \lambda_x$.

Note $K = \{\lambda : X \rightarrow \text{scalars} : |\lambda(x)| \leq \|x\|\}$, so $B_{X^*} \subseteq K$.

The subspace topology on B_{X^*} is $\sigma(K, \{\pi_x : x \in X\})|_{B_{X^*}} = \sigma(B_{X^*}, \{\pi_x|_{B_{X^*}} : x \in X\}) = \sigma(B_{X^*}, \{\widehat{x}|_{B_{X^*}} : x \in X\}) = \sigma(X^*, X)|_{B_{X^*}}$, the weak-* topology. By Theorem 3.3, K is compact. So all we need to show is that B_{X^*} is closed in K . Now,

$$\begin{aligned} B_{X^*} &= \{\lambda \in K : \lambda_{ax+by} = a\lambda_x + b\lambda_y \forall x, y \in X, \forall a, b \in \text{scalars}\} \\ &= \bigcap_{x, y, a, b} \{\lambda \in K : \pi_{ax+by}(\lambda) = a\pi_x(\lambda) + b\pi_y(\lambda)\} \\ &= \bigcap_{x, y, a, b} \{\lambda \in K : \pi_{ax+by}(\lambda) - a\pi_x(\lambda) - b\pi_y(\lambda)^{-1}(\{0\})\} \end{aligned}$$

closed in K as each π_x is continuous. \square

Proposition 3.19. *Let X be a normed space and K be a compact, Hausdorff space.*

- (i) X is separable (in the $\|\cdot\|$ -top) iff (B_{X^*}, w^*) is metrisable.
- (ii) $\mathcal{C}(K)$ is separable iff K is metrisable.

Proof. (i) \implies : Fix a dense sequence (x_n) in X . Let $\mathcal{F} = \{\widehat{x_n}|_{B_{X^*}} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then \mathcal{F} separates the points of X , so $\sigma(B_{X^*}, \mathcal{F})$ is Hausdorff and is contained in the weak-* topology. So

$$\text{Id} : (B_{X^*}, w^*) \rightarrow (B_{X^*}, \sigma(B_{X^*}, \mathcal{F}))$$

is a continuous bijection from a compact space to a Hausdorff space, and hence a homeomorphism. So $\sigma(B_{X^*}, \mathcal{F})$ is the weak-* topology on B_{X^*} . This is metrisable by proposition 3.2.

(ii) \implies : By above, $(B_{\mathcal{C}(K)^*}, w^*)$ is metrisable. For $k \in K$, define $\delta_k : \mathcal{C}(K) \rightarrow \text{scalars}$ by $\delta_k(f) = f(k)$ for all $f \in \mathcal{C}(K)$. Then $\delta_k \in B_{\mathcal{C}(K)^*}$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \delta &: \rightarrow (B_{\mathcal{C}(K)^*}, w^*) \\ k &\mapsto \delta_k \end{aligned}$$

δ is continuous: let $f \in \mathcal{C}(K)$. Is $\widehat{f} \circ \delta$ continuous? For $k \in K$, $(\widehat{f} \circ \delta)(k) = \delta_k(f) = f(k)$. Then, $\widehat{f} \circ \delta = f$. This is continuous on K . By the universal property of the weak topology, δ is continuous.

δ is injective: $\mathcal{C}(K)$ separates points of K by Urysohn.

Now, $\delta : K \rightarrow (\delta(K), w^*)$ is a continuous bijection from compact to Hausdorff, and hence a homeomorphism. Hence K is metrisable.

(ii) \Leftarrow : K compact metrisable, so K is separable. Fix a dense sequence (x_n) in K . Let $(f_n) = d(x, x_n)$ (d is a metric inducing the topology of K). Let A be the sub-algebra of $\mathcal{C}(K)$ generated by $f_n, n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbf{1}_K$. The A is separable, A separates points of K , $\mathbf{1}_K \in A$ and in complex case, closed under complex conjugate. By Stone Weierstrass, $\overline{A} = \mathcal{C}(K)$, so $\mathcal{C}(K)$ is separable.

(i) \Leftarrow : let $K = (B_{X^*}, w^*)$. This is compact, by Theorem 3.18. Since K is metrisable, $\mathcal{C}(K)$ is separable. We prove that $X \hookrightarrow \mathcal{C}(K)$ isometrically. Then done. Let $T : X \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(K)$ be $Tx = \widehat{x}|_{B_{X^*}}$. then T is linear and $\|Tx\|_\infty = \|\widehat{x}\| = \|x\|$. \square

Remark. 1. If X is separable, then (B_{X^*}, w^*) is compact, metrisable and hence weak-* sequentially compact (+separable).

2. X is separable implies that X^* is weak-* separable ($X^* = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} nB_{X^*}$).

By mazur, X is separable iff X is weakly separable (weak closure of span of some (x_n) weakly dense in X is $\|\cdot\|$ -closure by Mazur, since it is convex).

So X weakly separable implies X^* is weak-* separable. The converse is not true in general (e.g. ℓ_∞).

3. The proof shows $(B_{\mathcal{C}(K)^*}, w^*)$ contains a homeomorphic copy of K .
4. Proof also shows that for every normed space X there exists compact, hausdorff K s.t. $X \hookrightarrow \mathcal{C}(K)$ isometrically ($K = (B_{X^*}, w^*)$).

Proposition 3.20. *Let X be a normed space. Then X^* is separable iff (B_X, w) is metrisable.*

Proof. \Rightarrow : By proposition 3.19 (i), $(B_{X^{**}}, w^*)$ is metrisable. Hence, $(B_X, w) = (B_{X^{**}}, w^*)|_{B_X}$ is metrisable.

\Leftarrow : let d metrise (B_X, w) . Then for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists finite $F_n \subseteq X^*$ and $\epsilon_n > 0$ s.t. $\mathcal{U}_n = \{x \in B_X : |f(x)| < \epsilon_n \forall f \in F_n\} \subseteq \{x : d(x, 0) < \frac{1}{n}\}$. Let $Z = \text{span} \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n$.

Claim: $\overline{Z} = X^*$, then done.

Indeed, let $g \in X^*$ and fix $\epsilon > 0$. Then $\{x \in B_X : |g(x)| < \epsilon\}$ is a weak neighbourhood of 0 in B_X and hence contains \mathcal{U}_n for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $Y = \bigcap_{f \in F_n} \ker f$, then for $x \in B_Y, x \in \mathcal{U}_n$, so, $g(x) < \epsilon$. So $\|g|_{Y^*}\| \leq \epsilon$. Now $Y = \bigcap_{f \in F_n} \ker f \subseteq \ker(g - h)$, so by lemma 3.4 $g - h \in \text{span } F_n \subseteq Z$ implies $d(g, z) \leq \epsilon$ which gives $g \in \overline{Z}$. \square

Theorem 3.21 (Goldstine). *For any normed space X , $\overline{B_X}^{w^*} = B_{X^{**}}$ ($\overline{B_X}^{w^*}$ is the closure in (X^{**}, w^*) of B_X).*

Proof. $B_{X^{**}}$ is weak-* closed (follows from Theorem 3.18) and $B_X \subseteq B_{X^{**}}$ so $\overline{B_X}^{w^*} \subseteq B_{X^{**}}$. Now let $\phi \in X^{**} \setminus \overline{B_X}^{w^*}$. Apply Theorem 3.15 (ii) to (X^{**}, w^*) , $A = \{\phi\}, B = \overline{B_X}^{w^*}$ (show weak-* closure of convex set is closed). Now, there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $\phi(f) > \sup_B \hat{f}$ (real case), $[\text{Re}(\phi(f))] > \sup_B \text{Re}(\hat{f})$, $\|\phi\| \cdot \|f\| > \sup_{B_X} f$. So $\|\phi\| > 1$. \square

Examples 3.22. Example: Note that $\overline{X}^{w^*} = X^{**}$. So X separable implies X^* is weak-* separable. For instance, $\ell_\infty^* = \ell_1^{**}$ is weak-* separable, but ℓ_∞ is NOT separable.

Indeed, we have that the map

$$\begin{aligned} \psi : \ell_\infty &\rightarrow \ell_1^* \\ x &\mapsto \left(f_x : \ell_1 \rightarrow \text{scalars} : y \mapsto \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_n y_n \right) \end{aligned}$$

is an isometric isomorphism (in the norm topologies). It suffices to show that

$$(\ell_\infty^*, \sigma(\ell_\infty^*, \ell_\infty)) \xrightarrow{\phi} (\ell_1^{**}, \sigma(\ell_1^{**}, \ell_1^*))$$

is a homeomorphism. Observe that $\phi = (\psi^{-1})^*, \phi^{-1} = (\psi)^*$, both dual maps. ψ being an isometric isomorphism in the norm topology implies that the same holds for ϕ . By the previous observation, it suffices to show that for all $y \in \ell_1^*$, $\widehat{y} \circ \phi : (\ell_\infty^*, \sigma(\ell_\infty^*, \ell_\infty)) \rightarrow \text{scalars}$ is continuous. Indeed, observe that for $f \in \ell_\infty^*$, $\widehat{y} \circ \phi(f) = \phi(f)(y) = (\psi^{-1})^*(f)(y) = f(\psi^{-1}(y)) = \widehat{\psi^{-1}(y)}(f)$, and so $\widehat{y} \circ \phi = \widehat{\psi^{-1}(y)}$, which is weak-* continuous by the universal property of the weak topology, hence we are done.

Lecture 14

Theorem 3.23. *Let X be a Banach space. Then TFAE:*

- (i) X is reflexive.
- (ii) (B_X, w) is compact.
- (iii) X^* is reflexive.

Proof. (i) \implies (ii): using the canonical embedding (a $w - w^*$ homeomorphism), $(B_X, w) = (B_{X^{**}}, w^*)$ B_X is compact by Banach-Alaoglu (Theorem 3.18).

(ii) \implies (i): $(B_X, w) = (B_{X^{**}}, w^*)$, so B_X is compact in the weak-* topology of X^{**} . So B_X is weak-* closed in X^{**} . By Goldstine, $B_{X^{**}} \supseteq \overline{B_X}^{w^*} = B_X$.

$\frac{(i) \implies (iii): (B_{X^*}, w) = (B_{X^*}, w^*) \text{ by reflexivity and is compact by Theorem 3.18. By } (ii) \implies (i), X^* \text{ is reflexive.}}$

(iii) \implies (i): By what we have just proved, X^{**} is reflexive. By the implication (i) \implies (ii), $\overline{(B_X, w)}$ is compact. Since, X is complete, X is closed in X^{**} , and hence weakly closed in X^{**} (by Mazur). Hence, $B_X = X \cap B_{X^{**}}$ is a weakly closed subset of $B_{X^{**}}$ and thus weakly compact^a. By (ii) \implies (i), X is reflexive. \square

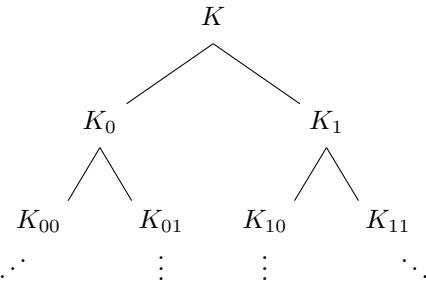
${}^a B_X^{**}$ is weak-* compact by Banach-Alaoglu and the map $\iota : (B_X, w) \rightarrow (\widehat{B}_X, w^*)$ is a homeomorphism.

Remark. If X is separable and reflexive, then (B_X, w) is compact, metrisable. Hence, B_X is weakly sequentially compact.

Lemma 3.24. Let (K, d) be a non-empty compact metric space. Then there exists a continuous surjection $\phi : \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow K$, where $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ is given the product topology.

Proof. Since compact and metric imply totally bounded, that is if $A \subseteq K$ is non-empty, closed and $\epsilon > 0$, then there exist non-empty closed sets B_1, \dots, B_n s.t. $A = \bigcup_{j=1}^n B_j$ and $\text{diam}(B_j) < \epsilon$ for all j .

Applying this^a, there exists a non-empty closed subset K_ϵ of K for all $\epsilon \in \Sigma = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\}^n$ s.t. $K_\emptyset = K$, $K_\epsilon = K_{\epsilon,0} \cup K_{\epsilon,1}$ and $\max_{\epsilon \in \{0,1\}^n} \text{diam } K_\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Imagine some picture like the one below:



Define $\phi : \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow K$, $\phi((\epsilon_i)_{i=1}^{\infty})$ = the unique point in $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_{\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n}$ (is well-defined by compactness and nestedness of K_{ϵ} 's).

ϕ is onto: given $x \in K$, inductively construct $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$ s.t. for all n $x \in K_{\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n}$.

ϕ is continuous: for $\epsilon = (\epsilon_i)_{i=1}^\infty \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then for all $\delta = (\delta_i)_{i=1}^\infty \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ if $\delta_i = \epsilon_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, then $d(\phi(d), \phi(\epsilon)) \leq \text{diam } K_{\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. \square

^aat each branching point $\epsilon \in \Sigma$, can cover K_ϵ by balls of diameter $\text{diam } K_\epsilon/2$, ‘shedding balls’ until only the intersection with one remains, hence halving the diameter in a finite depth and proceed like so recursively.

Remark. $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ is homeomorphic to the middle third Cantor set Δ via the map

$$(\epsilon_i)_{i=1}^{\infty} \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (2\epsilon_i) \cdot 3^{-i}.$$

Theorem 3.25. Every separable Banach space X embeds isometrically into $\mathcal{C}[0,1]$. So $\mathcal{C}[0,1]$ is isometrically universal for the class of separable Banach spaces (\mathcal{SB}).

Proof. From the proof of proposition 3.19 that $X \hookrightarrow \mathcal{C}(K)$ isometrically where $K = (B_{X^*}, w^*)$. Since X is separable, K is metrisable. By lemma 3.24, there exists a continuous surjection $\phi : \Delta \rightarrow K$. Hence, $\mathcal{C}(K) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{C}(\Delta)$ isometrically via $f \mapsto f \circ \phi$. Also have $\mathcal{C}(\Delta) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{C}([0,1])$ isometrically via $f \mapsto \tilde{f}_1$.

Write $[0,1] \setminus \Delta$ as a disjoint union $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n, b_n)$. Then $\tilde{f}|_{\Delta} = f$ for all n , \tilde{f} is linear on $[a_n, b_n]$ with $\tilde{f}(a_n) = f(a_n)$, $\tilde{f}(b_n) = f(b_n)$. \square

4 Convexity

Let X be a real or complex vector space and $K \subseteq X$ be a convex set. A point $x \in K$ is an extreme point of K if whenever $x = (1-t)y + tz$ for $t \in (0,1)$, $y, z \in K$, we have $y = z = x$. Let $\text{Ext } K$ be the set of extreme points of K .

Examples 4.1.

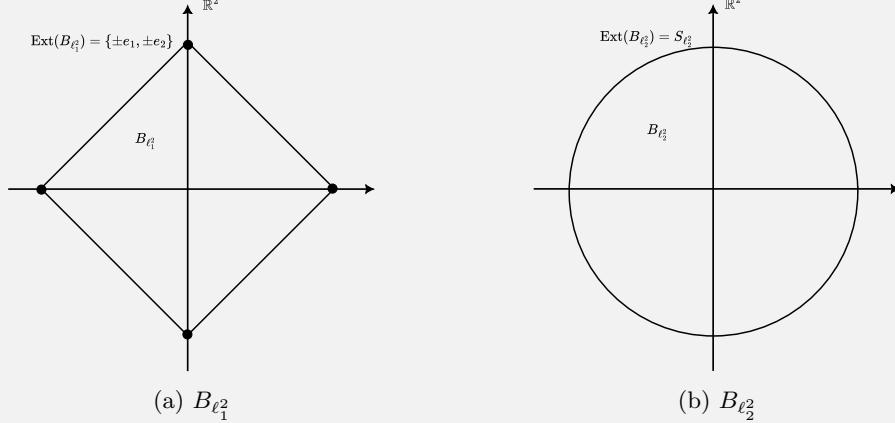


Figure 2: Above are displayed balls and their extreme points in ℓ_1^2, ℓ_2^2 respectively.

Furthermore, for the sequence space c_0 , have that $\text{Ext}(B_{c_0}) = \emptyset$.

Indeed, given $x = (x_n) \in B_{c_0}$. Fix $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $|x_N| < \frac{1}{2}$. Let $y_n = z_n = x_n$ for all $n \neq N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y_N = x_N + \frac{1}{2}, z_N = x_N - \frac{1}{2}$. Then $y = (y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, z = (z_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in B_{c_0}$ and $x = \frac{1}{2}y + \frac{1}{2}z, y \neq x, z \neq x$.

Theorem 4.2 (Krein-Milman). Let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a LCS. Let K be a compact, convex subset of X . Then $K = \overline{\text{conv}}(\text{Ext } K)$. In particular, $\text{Ext } K \neq \emptyset$ provided $K \neq \emptyset$.

Corollary 4.3. If X is a normed space, then $B_{X^*} = \overline{\text{conv}}^{w^*}(\text{Ext } K)$ and $\text{Ext } B_{X^*} \neq \emptyset$. Note c_0 is not a dual space isometrically, i.e. there exists no normed space X s.t. $c_0 \cong X^*$.

Definition 4.4. Let K be a compact convex set in a LCS (X, \mathcal{P}) . A face of K is a non-empty, compact convex set $E \subseteq K$ s.t. if $y, z \in K$, $t \in (0,1)$, $(1-t)y + tz \in E$, then $y, z \in E$.

Examples 4.5. 1. K is a face of K . For $x \in K$, $x \in \text{Ext } K \iff \{x\}$ is a face of K .

2. let $f \in X^*$, $\alpha = \sup_K f$, $E = \{x \in K : f(x) = \alpha\}$ is a face.

($E \neq \emptyset$, convex, compact and if $y, z \in K$, $t \in (0, 1)$ and $(1-t)y + tz \in E$, then $\alpha = f((1-t)y + tz) = (1-t)f(y) + tf(z) \geq \alpha$ giving equality, hence $f(y) = f(z) = \alpha$, hence $y, z \in E$).

[In the complex case, use $\operatorname{Re} f$. From now on, we only use real scalars.]

3. Let E be a face of K . If F is a face of E , then F is a face of K . So if $x \in \text{Ext } E$, then $x \in \text{Ext } K$.

Proof. Proof of Theorem 4.2 Let E be a face of K . We show $\text{Ext } E \neq \emptyset$.

By Zorn, lemma 1.4, there exists a minimal (wrt inclusion) face F of E . If $|F| > 1$, then pick $x \neq y \in F$ and $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(x) > f(y)$ (by Hahn-Banach). Then $\mathbb{G} = \{z \in F : f(z) = \sup_F f\}$ is a face of F , $y \notin \mathbb{G}$ so $\mathbb{G} \not\subseteq F$, a contradiction. So F is a singleton which means $\text{Ext } E \neq \emptyset$.

Now, let $L = \overline{\text{conv}} \text{Ext } K$. then $L \neq \emptyset$, convex, compact, $L \subseteq K$. Assume $x_0 \in K \setminus L$. By Theorem 3.14, there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(x_0) > \sup_L f$. Let $\alpha = \sup_K f$, then $E = \{x \in K : f(x) = \alpha\}$ is a face of K . So there's an extreme point z of K with $Z \in E$. Since $\alpha \geq f(x_0)$, $E \cap L \neq \emptyset$, a contradiction. So $z \notin L$. \square

Lecture 15 **Lemma 4.6.** let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a LCS, let $K \subseteq X$ be compact and $x_0 \in K$. Then for a neighbourhood \mathcal{V} of x_0 in X , there exist $f_1, \dots, f_n \in X^*$, $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x_0 \in \{x \in X : f_i(x) < \alpha_i, 1 \leq i \leq n\} \cap K \subseteq \mathcal{V}$.

Proof. let τ be the topology of X defined by \mathcal{P} let $\sigma = \sigma(X, X^*)$. Then $\text{Id} : (K, \tau) \rightarrow (K, \sigma)$ is a continuous bijection ($\sigma \subseteq \tau$) from compact to Hausdorff (as X^* separates points of X by Hahn-Banach), so it is a homeomorphism, i.e. $\sigma = \tau$ on K . \square

Lemma 4.7. let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a LCS, let $K \subseteq X$ be compact and convex. $x_0 \in \text{Ext } K$. Then for a neighbourhood \mathcal{V} of x_0 in X , there exists $f \in X^*$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x_0 \in \{x \in X : f(x) < \alpha\} \cap K \subseteq \mathcal{V}$.

Proof. Let $n, f_1, \dots, f_n \in X^*$, $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ be as in lemma 4.6 and $K_1 = \{x \in K : f_i(x) \geq \alpha_i\}$.

This is compact and convex. Observe $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i \supseteq K \setminus \mathcal{V}$ and $x_0 \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$. Also,

$$\text{conv} \bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n t_i x_i : x_i \in K_i, t_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^n t_i = 1 \right\}.$$

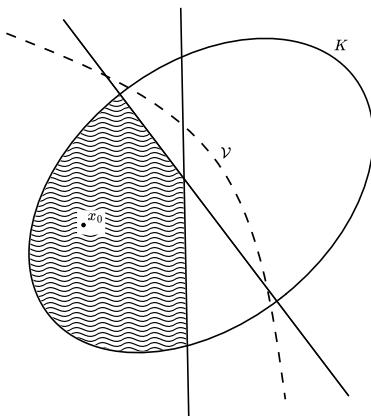
Since x_0 is an extreme point of K , $x_0 \notin \text{conv} \bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$ (the case $n = 2$ is true by definition, and use induction to arrive at the general case).

Furthermore,

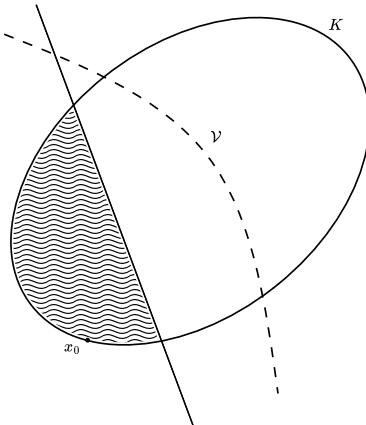
$$K_1 \times \dots \times K_n \times \left\{ (t_i) \in \mathbb{R}^n : t_i \geq 0 \forall i, \sum_{i=1}^n t_i = 1 \right\}$$

is compact and $(x_1, \dots, x_n, (t_i)_{i=1}^n) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n t_i x_i$ is continuous (algebraic operations "+, \times " are

continuous in LCS), so the image $B = \text{conv} \bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$ is compact. By Theorem 3.14, there exists $f \in X^*$ s.t. $f(x_0) < \inf_B f$. Choose $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x_0) < \alpha < \inf_B f$. Then $x_0 \in \{x \in X : f(x) < \alpha\} \cap K$, which is disjoint from B and hence from $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$ and so is contained in \mathcal{V} . \square



(a) Illustration of lemma 4.6.

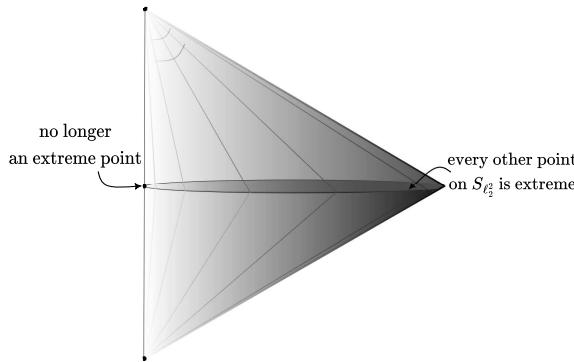


(b) Illustration of lemma 4.7.

Figure 3

Theorem 4.8. Let (X, \mathcal{P}) be a locally convex space, $K \subseteq X$ compact, convex and $S \subseteq K$. If $K = \overline{\text{conv}}S$, then $\overline{S} \supseteq \text{Ext } K$.

Remark. The closure is necessary. For instance, let S be a dense subset of $S_{\ell_2^2}$. Then $\overline{\text{conv}}S_{\ell_2^2} = B_{\ell_2^2}$ and $\text{Ext } B_{\ell_2^2} = S_{\ell_2^2}$. Also, $\text{Ext } K$ need not be closed. E.g. in \mathbb{R}^3 ,

Figure 4: Illustration of extreme points of a double cone in \mathbb{R}^3 (which include top and bottom vertices).

Proof. Proof of Theorem 4.8 Assume $x_0 \in \text{Ext } K \setminus \overline{S}$. Apply lemma 4.7 with $\mathcal{V} = X \setminus \overline{S}$. So, $f \in X^*$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x_0 \in \{x \in X : f(x) < \alpha\} \cap K \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. Then, $L = \{x \in K : f(x) \geq \alpha\}$ is compact, convex with $L \supseteq S$. Hence, $L \supseteq \overline{\text{conv}}S = K$, a contradiction since $x_0 \notin L$. Thus, $x_0 \in S$. \square

Remark. One can show that $\text{Ext } B_{C(K)^*} = \{\lambda \delta_k : |\lambda| = 1, k \in K\}$ ($\delta_k(f) = f(k)$), where K is compact, Hausdorff. Can use Theorem 4.8 for " \subseteq ".

Theorem 4.9 (Banach-Stone). Let K, L be compact, Hausdorff spaces, then $C(K) \cong C(L)$
 $\iff L$ and K are homeomorphic.

Proof. " \Leftarrow ": If $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ is a homeomorphism then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi^* : \mathcal{C}(L) &\cong \mathcal{C}(K) \\ f &\mapsto f \circ \phi\end{aligned}$$

is an isometric isomorphism.

" \Rightarrow ": let $T : \mathcal{C}(L) \cong \mathcal{C}(K)$ be an isometric isomorphism. Then so is its dual $T^* : \mathcal{C}(K)^* \cong \mathcal{C}(L)^*$. So $T^*(B_{\mathcal{C}(K)}^*) = B_{\mathcal{C}(L)}^*$ and $T^*(\text{Ext } B_{\mathcal{C}(K)}^*) = \text{Ext } B_{\mathcal{C}(L)}^*$. Thus, for each $k \in K$, $T^*(\delta_k) = \lambda(k) \cdot \delta_{\phi(k)}$ for some scalar $\lambda(k), |\lambda(k)| = 1$ and some $\phi(k) \in L$. So we have functions

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda : K &\rightarrow \text{scalars} \\ \phi : K &\rightarrow L\end{aligned}$$

Now, for all $k \in K$, $\lambda(k) = T^*(\delta_k)(\mathbf{1}_L) = T(\mathbf{1}_L)(k)$, which means $\lambda = T(\mathbf{1}_L) \in \mathcal{C}(K)$, so λ is continuous. Recall, $\delta : K \rightarrow (\mathcal{C}(L)^*, w^*)$ is continuous (indeed, it is a homeomorphism between K and $\delta(K)$). Also, $T^* : \mathcal{C}(K)^* \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(L)^*$ is $w^* - w^*$ continuous. hence, $h \mapsto \overline{\lambda(k)} \cdot T^*(\delta_k) = \delta_{\phi(k)} : K \rightarrow (\mathcal{C}(L)^*, w^*)$ is continuous. Since $\phi : K \xrightarrow{T^*} (\delta(L), w^*) \xrightarrow{\delta^{-1}} L$ is a composition of continuous maps, hence continuous.

ϕ is into: Assume $\phi(k_1) = \phi(k_2)$. So $\overline{\lambda(k)} \cdot T^*(\delta_{k_1}) = \overline{\lambda(k)} \cdot T^*(\delta_{k_2})$. Evaluate at $T^{-1}(\mathbf{1}_K)$ to get $\overline{\lambda(k_1)} = \overline{\lambda(k_2)}$ and so $\delta_{k_1} = \delta_{k_2}$ (as T^* is injective) which finally gives $k_1 = k_2$.

ϕ is onto: Given $l \in L$, since T^* is onto, there exists a scalar $\mu, |\mu| = 1, k \in K$ s.t. $T^*(\mu \delta_k) = \delta_l$. So $\mu \lambda(k) \delta_{\phi(k)} = \delta_l$. Evaluate at $\mathbf{1}_L$ to get $\mu \lambda(k) = 1$ and so $\phi(k) = l$. \square

5 Banach Algebras

A real or complex algebra is a real or resp. complex vector space A with multiplication $A \times A \rightarrow A, (a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b$ s.t.

- (i) $a(bc) = (ab)c$
- (ii) $a(b + c) = ab + ac, (a + b) \cdot c = ac + bc$
- (iii) $\lambda(ab) = (\lambda a)b = a(\lambda b)$

for all $a, b, c \in A, b$ scalar.

A is unital if there exists $\mathbf{1} \in A$ s.t. $1 \neq 0$ and for all $x \in A$ $\mathbf{1}x = x\mathbf{1} = x$. This element is unique, called the unit of A .

An algebra norm on A is a norm on A s.t. for all $a, b \in A$, $\|ab\| \leq \|a\| \cdot \|b\|$. A normed algebra is an algebra with an algebra norm. note that multiplication is continuous (as well as addition and scalar multiplication). A Banach algebra (BA) is a complete normed algebra.

A unital normed algebra is a normed algebra, A with an element $\mathbf{1} \in A$ s.t. for all $x \in A$, $\mathbf{1}x = x\mathbf{1} = x$ and s.t. $\|\mathbf{1}\| = 1$ ($\|\mathbf{1}\| \leq \|\mathbf{1}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{1}\|$ and $1 \leq \|\mathbf{1}\|$). If A is a normed algebra which is also a unital algebra (but not assuming $\|\mathbf{1}\| = 1$), then $\|a\| = \sup\{\|ab\| : \|b\| \leq 1\}$ defines an equivalent norm on A that makes A a unital normed algebra.

A unital Banach algebra is a complete unital normed algebra. A linear map $\theta : A \rightarrow B$ between algebras is a homomorphism if for all $a, b \in A$ $\theta(ab) = \theta(a) \cdot \theta(b)$. If in addition A and B are unital with units $\mathbf{1}_A$ and $\mathbf{1}_B$ and $\theta(\mathbf{1}_A) = \mathbf{1}_B$, then θ is a unital homomorphism. In the category of normed algebras, an isomorphism will mean a continuous homomorphism with continuous inverse. BUT, homomorphisms are not assumed continuous.

Lecture 16 Note: from now on, the scalar field is \mathbb{C} .

Examples 5.1. 1. $\mathcal{C}(K)$, K compact Hausdorff, is a commutative, unital BA with pointwise multiplication in the uniform norm.

2. Let K be compact, Hausdorff, A uniform algebra on K is a closed sub-algebra of $\mathcal{C}(K)$ that separates points of K and contains the constant functions.

3. The disk algebra $A(\Delta) = \{f \in \mathcal{C}(\Delta) : f \text{ holomorphic on the interior of } \Delta\}$, $\Delta = \overline{\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| \leq 1\}}$.

More generally, let $K \subseteq \mathbb{C}$, $K \neq \emptyset$ compact. We have the following uniform algebras on K : $\mathcal{P}(K) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(K) \subseteq \mathcal{O}(K) \subseteq A(K) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(K)$, where $\mathcal{P}(K), \mathcal{R}(K), \mathcal{O}(K)$ are the closures in $\mathcal{C}(K)$ of respectively, polynomials, rational functions with no pole in K , functions holomorphic on some open neighbourhood of K . $A(K) = \{f \in \mathcal{C}(K) : f \text{ holomorphic on } \text{int}(K)\}$. Later, $\mathcal{R}(K) = \mathcal{O}(K)$ say, $\mathcal{R}(K) = \mathcal{R}(K)$ if and only if $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$ is connected. In general $A(K) \neq \mathcal{O}(K)$, $A(K) = \mathcal{C}(K) \iff \text{int}(K) = \emptyset$.

4. $L_1(\mathbb{R})$ with the L_1 -norm and convolution $f * g(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y)g(x-y)dy$ is a commutative Banach algebra without a unit (Riemann-Lebesgue lemma).

5. If X is a Banach space, then $\mathcal{B}(X)$ with composition an operator norm is a unital Banach algebra. It is not commutative if $\dim X > 1$.

special case: if X is a Hilbert space, then $\mathcal{B}(X)$ is a C^* -algebra (see later).

5.1 Elementary constructions

1. If A is a unital algebra with unit $\mathbf{1}$, then a unital sub-algebra is a sub-algebra B of A s.t. $\mathbf{1} \in B$. If A is a normed algebra, then the closure of a sub-algebra of A is a sub-algebra of A .
2. Unitisation: The unitisation of an algebra A is the vector space direct sum $A_+ = A \oplus \mathbb{C}$ with multiplication $(a, \lambda) \cdot (b, \mu) = (ab + \lambda b + \mu a, \lambda, \mu)$. Then A_+ is a unital algebra with unit $\mathbf{1} = (0, 1)$.

The ideal $\{(a, 0) : a \in A\}$ is isomorphic to A and will always be identified with A . We can write $A = \{a + \lambda \mathbf{1} : a \in A, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}\}$. If A is a normed algebra, then A_+ becomes a unital normed algebra with $\|a + \lambda \mathbf{1}\| = \|a\| + |\lambda|$. Then A is a closed ideal of A_+ . If A is a Banach algebra, then A_+ is a unital Banach algebra.

3. The closure of an ideal of a normed algebra is an ideal. If \mathcal{J} is a closed ideal of the normed algebra of A , then $A \setminus \mathcal{J}$ is a normed algebra in the quotient norm. If A is a unital normed algebra and \mathcal{J} is a proper closed ideal of A ($\mathcal{J} \neq A$), then $A \setminus \mathcal{J}$ is a unital normed algebra with $\mathbf{1} + \mathcal{J}$ ($\|\mathbf{1} + \mathcal{J}\| \leq \|\mathbf{1}\| = 1$ and $\|\mathbf{1} + \mathcal{J}\| \geq 1$ from an earlier observation).
4. let \tilde{A} be the Banach space completion of a normed algebra. Then \tilde{A} is a Banach algebra with the following multiplication: given $a, b \in \tilde{A}$, choose sequences $(a_n), (b_n)$ in A s.t. $a_n \rightarrow a, b_n \rightarrow b$ and define $a \cdot b = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \cdot b_n$.
5. Let A be a unital Banach algebra. Let $X = A$ thought of as a Banach space. For $a \in A$, define $L_a : X \rightarrow X$, $L_a(x) = a \cdot x$. Then $L_a \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\|L_a\| = \|a\|$. The map $L : A \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(X)$, $a \mapsto L_a$, is an isometric unital HM (homomorphism).

Lemma 5.2. Let A be a unital Banach algebra and $a \in A$. If $\|\mathbf{1} - a\| < 1$, then a is invertible (there exists $b \in A$ s.t. $ab = ba = \mathbf{1}$) and $\|a^{-1}\| \leq \frac{1}{1 - \|\mathbf{1} - a\|}$.

Proof. For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\|(\mathbf{1} - a)^n\| \leq \|\mathbf{1} - a\|^n$, so $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \|(\mathbf{1} - a)^n\| < \infty$. Hence, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 - a)^n$ converges

$$((1-a)^0 = 1).$$

Let $b = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{1} - a)^n$. Then $(\mathbf{1} - a)b = b(\mathbf{1} - a) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\mathbf{1} - a)^n = b - 1$, and so $ab = ba = \mathbf{1}$. So, $b = a^{-1}$ and $\|a^{-1}\| = \|b\| \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \|(\mathbf{1} - a)^n\| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|(\mathbf{1} - a)^n\| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|\mathbf{1} - a\|^n = \frac{1}{1 - \|\mathbf{1} - a\|}$. \square

Notation: we let $\mathcal{G}(A)$ denote the group of invertibles of a unital algebra A .

Corollary 5.3. *Let A be a unital Banach algebra.*

(i) $\mathcal{G}(A)$ is open in A .

(ii) $x \mapsto x^{-1}$ is a continuous function on $\mathcal{G}(A)$.

(iii) Assume $(x_n) \subseteq \mathcal{G}(A)$, $x_n \rightarrow x \in A \setminus \mathcal{G}(A)$. Then $\|x_n^{-1}\| \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iv) If $x \in \partial\mathcal{G}(A) = \overline{\mathcal{G}(A)} \setminus \mathcal{G}(A)$, then there exists (z_n) in A s.t. $\|z_n\| = 1$ for all n and $z_n \cdot x \rightarrow 0$ and $x \cdot z_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. It follows that x has no left or right inverse in A , not even in any unital algebra B containing A as a (not necessarily unital) sub-algebra.

Proof. (i) Let $x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$. If $y \in A$ and $\|y - x\| \leq \frac{1}{\|x^{-1}\|}$, then $\|\mathbf{1} - x^{-1}y\| = \|x^{-1}(x - y)\| \leq \|x^{-1}\| \cdot \|x - y\| < 1$. Hence, by lemma 5.2, $x^{-1}y \in \mathcal{G}(A)$, which implies that $y = x \cdot x^{-1}y \in \mathcal{G}(A)$.

(ii) Let us fix $x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$. For $y \in \mathcal{G}(A)$ $y^{-1} - x^{-1} = y^{-1}(x - y)x^{-1}$ so $\|y^{-1} - x^{-1}\| \leq \|y^{-1}\| \cdot \|x^{-1}\| \cdot \|x - y\|$. If $\|x - y\| < \frac{1}{2\|x^{-1}\|}$, then $\|y^{-1} - x^{-1}\| \leq 2 \cdot \|x^{-1}\|^2 \cdot \|x - y\| \rightarrow 0$ as $y \rightarrow x$.

(iii) From proof of (i), if $\|x - x_n\| < \frac{1}{x_n^{-1}}$, then $x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$, a contradiction. So $\|x - x_n\| \geq \frac{1}{x_n^{-1}}$. Since, $\|x - x_n\| \rightarrow 0$, the result follows.

(iv) Given $x \in \partial\mathcal{G}(A)$, there exists a sequence $(x_n) \subseteq \mathcal{G}(A)$, $x_n \rightarrow x$. By part (iii) $\|x_n\| \rightarrow \infty$, let $z_n = \frac{x_n^{-1}}{\|x_n^{-1}\|}$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $z_n x = z_n x_n + z_n(x - x_n) = \frac{1}{\|x_n^{-1}\|} + z_n(x - x_n) \rightarrow 0$, by the above and since $\|z_n(x - x_n)\| \leq \|z_n\| \cdot \|x - x_n\| \rightarrow 0$. Similarly, $x z_n \rightarrow 0$.

Assume that B is a unital BA and A is a sub-algebra of B . If $y \in A$ and $yx = \mathbf{1}_B$, then $yxz_n = z_n$. So $\|z_n\| = 1 = \|yxz_n\| \leq \|y\| \cdot \|xz_n\|$, $n \rightarrow \infty$, a contradiction. Similarly, there is no $y \in B$ s.t. $xy = \mathbf{1}_B$. \square

Lecture 17 **Definition 5.4.** *Let A be an algebra (always complex) and let $x \in A$. The spectrum $\sigma_A(x)$ of x in A is defined as follows: if A is unital, then $\sigma_A(x) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \lambda \mathbf{1} - x \notin \mathcal{G}(A)\}$ and if A is non-unital then $\sigma_A(x) := \sigma_{A+}(x)$.*

- Examples 5.5.**
1. $A = M_n(\mathbb{C})$, $x \in A$, $\sigma_A(x)$ is the set of eigenvalues (evals) of x .
 2. $A = \mathcal{C}(K)$, K compact Hausdorff, $f \in A$, $\sigma_A(f) = f(K)$.
 3. X a Banach space, $A = \mathcal{B}(X)$, $T \in A$, then
 $\sigma_A(T) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \lambda \text{Id} - T \text{ not an isomorphism}\}$.

Theorem 5.6. Let A be a Banach algebra, $x \in A$. Then $\sigma_A(x)$ is a non-empty, compact subset of $\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| \leq \|x\|\}$.

Proof. Wlog, A is a unital Banach algebra. If $|\lambda| > \|x\|$, then $\|x\| < 1$, so by lemma 5.2, $\mathbf{1} - \frac{x}{\lambda} \in \mathcal{G}(A)$ and so $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x = \lambda(\mathbf{1} - \frac{x}{\lambda}) \in \mathcal{G}(A)$. Hence, $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| \leq \|x\|\}$. Also, $\sigma_A(x)$ is the inverse image of the closed set $A \setminus \mathcal{G}(A)$ (corollary 5.3(i)) under the continuous function $\lambda \mapsto \mathbb{C} \rightarrow A : \lambda\mathbf{1} - x$ and hence $\sigma_A(x)$ is closed. It follows that $\sigma_A(x)$ is compact.

$\sigma_A(x)$ is non-empty: consider $f : \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_A(x) \rightarrow A$, $f(\lambda) = (\lambda\mathbf{1} - x)$. By corollary 5.3(ii) f is continuous and for $\lambda \neq \mu$:

$$\begin{aligned} f(\lambda) - f(\mu) &= f(\lambda)((\mu\mathbf{1} - x) - (\lambda\mathbf{1} - x))f(\mu) \\ &= f(\lambda)(\mu - \lambda)f(\mu) \\ &= (\mu - \lambda)f(\lambda)f(\mu). \end{aligned}$$

So $\frac{f(\lambda) - f(\mu)}{\lambda - \mu} = -f(\lambda)f(\mu) \rightarrow -f(\mu)^2$ as $\lambda \rightarrow \mu$ because f is continuous. Thus, f is holomorphic. If $|\lambda| > \|x\|$ then $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$ and $\|(\lambda\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1}\| = \frac{1}{|\lambda|} \left\| \left(\mathbf{1} - \frac{x}{\lambda} \right)^{-1} \right\| \leq \frac{1}{|\lambda|} \frac{1}{1 - \left\| \frac{x}{\lambda} \right\|} = \frac{1}{|\lambda| - \|x\|} \rightarrow 0$ as $|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty$. If $\sigma_A(x)$ were empty, then f is a bounded entire function, so by vector-valued Liouville, f is constant, and since $f(\lambda) \rightarrow 0$ as $|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty$, $f \equiv 0$, a contradiction. \square

Corollary 5.7 (Gelfand-Mazur). A complex unital normed division ($\mathcal{G}(A) = A \setminus \{0\}$) algebra is isometrically isomorphic to \mathbb{C} .

Proof. Let us define the map $\theta : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow A$, $\theta(\lambda) = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{1}$. then θ is an isometric homomorphism. To show that it is onto, fix any $x \in A$. Let B be the completion of A . Then B is a unital Banach algebra. Then by Theorem 5.6, $\sigma_B(x)$ is non-empty which implies that there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x$ is NOT invertible in B , hence $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x$ is not in $\mathcal{G}(A)$ which means that $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x = 0$ and so $\theta(\lambda) = x$. \square

Definition 5.8 (Spectral radius). Let A be a Banach algebra and $x \in A$. The spectral radius $r_A(x)$ of x in A is $r_A(x) = \sup\{|\lambda| : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\}$. From Theorem 5.6, $r_A(x)$ is well-defined and $r_A(x) \leq \|x\|$.

Note: let x, y be commuting elements of a unital algebra A . Then $x \cdot y \in \mathcal{G}(A) \iff x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$ and $y \in \mathcal{G}(A)$ (use the fact that $z(xy) = (xy)z = 1$ gives $yzx = yzx \cdot yxz = yxz = 1$).

Lemma 5.9 (Spectral Mapping Theorem for polynomials). Let A be a unital Banach algebra and $x \in A$. Then for a complex polynomial $p = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k$ we have

$$\sigma_A(p(x)) = \{p(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\} = p(\sigma_A(x))$$

where $p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ and $x^0 = \mathbf{1}_A$.

Proof. Wlog $n \neq 1$ and $a_n \neq 0$ ($\sigma_A(\lambda\mathbf{1}) = \{\lambda\}$). Fix $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$. Write $\mu - p(z) = c \cdot \prod_{k=1}^n (\lambda_k - z)$ for some $c, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{C}$, $c \neq 0$. note that $\{\lambda : p(\lambda) = \mu\} = \{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\}$. Now $\mu \notin \sigma_A(p(x)) \iff \mu\mathbf{1} - p(x) = \prod_{k=1}^n (\lambda_k\mathbf{1} - x)$ is invertible $\iff \lambda_k - x\lambda_k\mathbf{1} - x$ is invertible (use previous note on commutativity and invertibility) \iff there exists no $\lambda \in \sigma_A(x)$ s.t. $p(\lambda) = \mu$. The result now follows. \square

Theorem 5.10 (Beurling-Gelfand Spectral Radius Formula (SRF)). *Let A be a unital Banach algebra, $x \in A$. Then*

$$r_A(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

Proof. Wlog A is unital. By lemma 5.9, if $\lambda \in \sigma_A(x)$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\lambda^n \in \sigma(x^n)$. By Theorem 5.6, $|\lambda^n| \leq \|x^n\|$ and $|\lambda| \leq \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$. It thus follows that $r_A(x) \leq \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$.

Consider $f : \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_A(x) \rightarrow A$, $f(\lambda) = (\lambda\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1}$, by the proof of Theorem 5.6, f is holomorphic. Note that $\mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_A(x) \supseteq \{|\lambda| > r_A(x)\} \supseteq \{\lambda : |\lambda| > \|x\|\}$. If $|\lambda| > \|x\|$, then $f(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \left(1 - \frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{\lambda^n}$ (by the proof of lemma 5.2).

Fix $\phi \in A^*$ (Banach space dual). Then $\phi \circ f$ is holomorphic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_A(x)$ and if $|\lambda| > \|x\|$, then $\phi \circ f(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\phi(x^n)}{\lambda^n}$. This Laurent expansion must also be valid on $\{|\lambda| > r_A(x)\}$. So for $|\lambda| > r_A(x)$ and for $\phi \in A^*$, $\phi\left(\frac{x^n}{\lambda^n}\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. So for $|\lambda| > r_A(x)$, $\frac{x^n}{\lambda^n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$. By proposition 3.10, there exists $M > 0$ s.t. for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\left\| \frac{x^n}{\lambda^n} \right\| \leq M^{\frac{1}{n}}$ and so $\limsup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq |\lambda|$. We have thus proved that $r_A(x) \leq \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \liminf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \limsup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq r_A(x)$. \square

Theorem 5.11. *Let A be a unital Banach algebra and B be a closed, unital sub-algebra of A . Let $x \in B$. Then, $\sigma_B(x) \supseteq \sigma_A(x)$ and $\partial\sigma_B(x) \subseteq \sigma_A(x)$. It follows that $\sigma_B(x)$ is the union of $\sigma_A(x)$ and some of the bounded components of $\mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_A(x)$.*

Before we proceed with the proof of the above, we prove a topological lemma.

Lemma 5.12. *Suppose \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{W} are open sets in some topological space X s.t. $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{W}$ and \mathcal{W} contains non boundary points of \mathcal{V} . Then \mathcal{V} is a union of components of \mathcal{W} .*

Proof. Let Ω be a component of \mathcal{W} that intersects \mathcal{V} . Let \mathcal{U} be the complement of $\overline{\mathcal{V}}$. Since \mathcal{W} contains no boundary point of \mathcal{V} , Ω is the union of two disjoint open sets $\Omega \cap \mathcal{V}$ and $\Omega \cap \mathcal{U}$. Since Ω is connected, $\Omega \cap \mathcal{U}$ is empty and so it follows that $\Omega \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. \square

Proof of Theorem 5.11. $\sigma_B(x) \supseteq \sigma_A(x)$ holds since an element invertible in B is also invertible in A . Let $\lambda \in \partial\sigma_B(x)$. then, there exist $(\lambda_n) \subseteq \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_B(x)$ s.t. $\lambda_n \rightarrow \lambda$. So $\lambda_n\mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(B)$ and $\lambda_n\mathbf{1} - x \rightarrow \lambda\mathbf{1} - x \in B \setminus \mathcal{G}(B)$, which means $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x \in \partial\mathcal{G}(B)$. By corollary 5.3(iv), $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x$ is not invertible in A , that is $\lambda \in \sigma_A(x)$.

To conclude, let Ω_A, Ω_B be the complements in \mathbb{C} of $\sigma_A(x), \sigma_B(x)$ respectively. The preceding discussion implies that $\partial\Omega_B \subseteq \sigma_A(x)$ and so can use the topological lemma with $\mathcal{V} = \Omega_B, \mathcal{W} = \Omega_A$. Thus, Ω_B is the union of components of Ω_A . This means that $\sigma_B(x)$ is the union of $\sigma_A(x)$ and some bounded components of $\Omega_A = \sigma_A(x) \setminus \sigma_A(x)$. \square

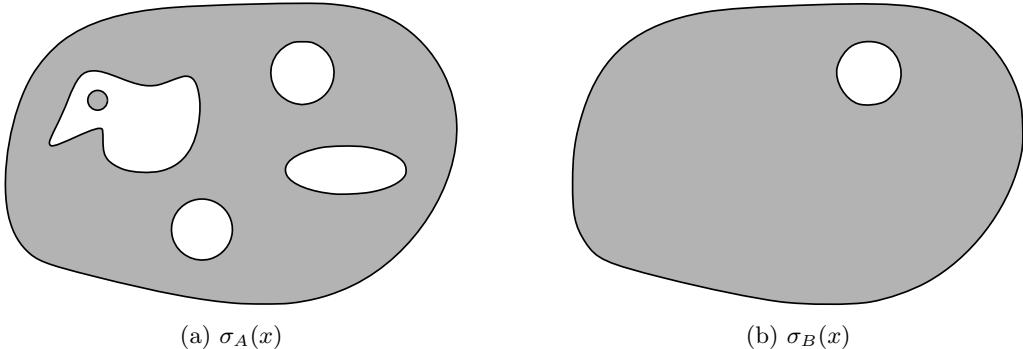


Figure 5: Illustration of Theorem 5.11 for a sub-algebra $B \subseteq A$, $x \in B$.

Proposition 5.13. Let A be a unital Banach algebra and C a maximal commutative sub-algebra of A (wrt inclusion). Then C is a unital closed sub-algebra of A . Moreover, for all $x \in C$, $\sigma_C(x) = \sigma_A(x)$.

Proof. \overline{C} is a commutative sub-algebra of A . $\overline{C} \supseteq C$ and by maximality $\overline{C} = C$ is closed. $C + \mathbb{C} \cdot \mathbf{1}$ is a commutative sub-algebra of A contains C , so by maximality $C = C + \mathbb{C} \cdot \mathbf{1}$, i.e. $\mathbf{1} \in C$. Fix $x \in C$. We know that $\sigma_C(x) \supseteq \sigma_A(x)$. Assume $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_A(x)$. Let $y = (\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)^{-1}$ (in A). Have for all $z \in C$, $z(\lambda \mathbf{1} - x) = (\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)z$ as C is commutative and hence $yz = zy$. It follows that the sub-algebra generated by $C \cup \{y\}$ is commutative, so by maximality it is in C and so $y \in C$ and $\lambda \notin \sigma_C(x)$. Hence, $\sigma_C(x) \subseteq \sigma_A(x)$. \square

Definition 5.14. A non-zero homomorphism $\phi : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ on an algebra A is called a character on A . Let Φ_A be the set of all characters on A . If A is unital, then $\phi(\mathbf{1}_A) = 1$ for all characters ϕ .

Lemma 5.15. Let A be a Banach algebra and $\phi \in \Phi_A$. Then ϕ is continuous and $\|\phi\| \leq 1$. Moreover, if A is a unital Banach algebra, then $\|\phi\| = 1$.

Proof. Wlog, A is a unital Banach algebra: can define $\phi_+ : A_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by $\phi_+(a + \lambda \mathbf{1}) = \phi(a) + \lambda$. Then $\phi_+ \in \Phi_{A_+}$ and $\phi_+|_A = \phi$. Now assume that A is a unital Banach algebra and $\phi \in \Phi_A$. Let $x \in A$ and assume $\phi(x) > \|x\|$. By Theorem 5.6, $\phi(x) \notin \sigma_A(x)$. So $\phi(x)\mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$. So $1 = \phi(x) = \phi((\phi(x)\mathbf{1} - x) \cdot (\phi(x)\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1}) = (\phi(x)\mathbf{1} - x) = 0$, a contradiction. So $|\phi(x)| \leq \|X\|$, giving $\|\phi\| \leq 1$. In fact $\|\phi\| = 1$ since $\phi(\mathbf{1}) = 1$. \square

Lemma 5.16. Let A be a unital Banach algebra and \mathcal{J} be a proper ideal of A . Then $\overline{\mathcal{J}}$ is also a proper ideal. In particular, maximal ideals are closed.

Proof. Since \mathcal{J} is proper, $\mathcal{J} \cap \mathcal{G}(A)$ is empty. By corollary 5.3, $\mathcal{G}(A)$ is open giving that $\overline{\mathcal{J}} \cap \mathcal{G}(A)$ is empty, hence $\overline{\mathcal{J}}$ is proper. We have shown that if \mathcal{M} is a maximal ideal of A , then \mathcal{M} is proper and hence so is $\overline{\mathcal{M}}$. By maximality, $\mathcal{M} = \overline{\mathcal{J}}$ is closed. \square

Notation: For an algebra A , we let \mathcal{M}_A be the set of all maximal ideals of A .

Theorem 5.17. Let A be a commutative unital Banach algebra. Then the map

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_A &\rightarrow \mathcal{M}_A \\ \phi &\mapsto \ker \phi\end{aligned}$$

is a bijection.

Proof. Well-defined: let $\phi \in \Phi_A$. Since ϕ is a homomorphism, $\ker \phi$ is an ideal of A . Since ϕ is a non-zero linear functional, $\ker \phi$ is a 1-codimensional sub-space. So $\ker \phi$ is a maximal ideal.

Injective: assume $\phi, \psi \in \Phi_A$ and $\ker \phi = \ker \psi$. For $x \in A$, $\phi(x)\mathbf{1} - x \in \ker \phi = \ker \psi$, which implies $\psi(\phi(x)\mathbf{1} - x) = 0$ giving $\phi(x) \cdot \psi(\mathbf{1}) = \psi(x) = \phi(x)$.

Surjective: let $\mathcal{M} \in \mathcal{M}_A$. By lemma 5.16, \mathcal{M} is closed, so $A \setminus \mathcal{M}$ is a unital Banach algebra in the quotient norm. From algebra, $A \setminus \mathcal{M}$ is a field, so a division algebra. By corollary 5.7 (Gelfand-Mazur), $A \setminus \mathcal{M} \cong \mathbb{C}$. So the quotient map $q : A \rightarrow A \setminus \mathcal{M}$ "is" a character and $\ker q = \mathcal{M}$. \square

Corollary 5.18. Let A be a commutative unital Banach algebra and $x \in A$. Then

- (i) $x \in \mathcal{G}(A) \iff$ for all $\phi \in \Phi_A$, $\phi(x) \neq 0$.
- (ii) $\sigma_A(x) = \{\phi(x) : \phi \in \Phi_A\}$.
- (iii) $r_A(x) = \sup\{|\phi(x)| : \phi \in \Phi_A\}$

Proof. (i) If $x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$, then for all characters ϕ , $1 = \phi(\mathbf{1}) = \phi(x \cdot x^{-1}) = \phi(x) \cdot (\phi(x))^{-1}$ implying that $\phi(x) \neq 0$.

Assume that $x \notin \mathcal{G}(A)$, then $\mathcal{J} = xA = \{xa : a \in A\}$ is a proper ideal of A , and so is contained in a maximal ideal which is $\ker \phi$ for some character ϕ by Theorem 5.17. So $\phi(x) = 0$ since $x \in \mathcal{J} \subseteq \ker \phi$.

(ii) $\lambda \in \sigma_A(x) \iff (\lambda\mathbf{1} - x) \notin \mathcal{G}(A) \iff$ (by (i)) there exists $\phi \in \Phi_A$ s.t. $\phi(\lambda\mathbf{1} - x) = 0$, i.e. $\lambda = \phi(x)$.

(iii) Is immediate from (ii). \square

Corollary 5.19. Let x, y be commuting elements of a Banach algebra A . Then

$$\begin{aligned} r_A(x+y) &\leq r_A(x) + r_A(y) \\ r_A(x \cdot y) &\leq r_A(x) \cdot r_A(y). \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Wlog, A is a commutative unital Banach Algebra. ($A \rightarrow A_+$ if necessary and then replace A by a maximal commutative sub-algebra containing x, y and use proposition 5.13). Then for all characters ϕ , $|\phi(x+y)| \leq |\phi(x)| + |\phi(y)| \leq r_A(x) + r_A(y)$ by corollary 5.18. Taking supremum over all characters ϕ gives $r_A(x+y) \leq r_A(x) + r_A(y)$. Argue analogously for the remaining inequality. \square

Examples 5.20. 1. $A = \mathcal{C}(K)$, K compact, Hausdorff. $\Phi_A = \{\delta_k : k \in K\}$ ($\delta_k(f) = f(k)$). " \supseteq " is easy to check.

" \subseteq ": let $\mathcal{M} \in \mathcal{M}_A$. Seek $k \in K$ s.t. $\mathcal{M} = \ker \delta_k$. Assume there is non such A . Then for all $k \in K$, there exist $f_k \in \mathcal{M}$ s.t. $f_k(k) \neq 0$. By continuity, there exists open neighbourhoods \mathcal{U}_k of k s.t. $f_k|_{\mathcal{U}_k} \neq 0$. By compactness, there exist $k_1, \dots, k_n \in K$ s.t.

$\bigcup \mathcal{U}_{k_j} = K$. Then $g = \sum_{j=1}^n |f_{k_j}|^2 > 0$ on K . So $\frac{1}{g} \in \mathcal{C}(K)$. Also, $g = \sum_{j=1}^n f_{k_j} \cdot \bar{f}_{k_j} \in \mathcal{M}$, a contradiction.

2. Let $K \subseteq \mathbb{C}$, K compact and non-empty. Then $\Phi_{\mathcal{R}(K)} = \{\delta_w : w \in K\}$.

3. $\Phi_{A(\Delta)} = \{\delta_w : w \in \Delta\}$ where $A(\Delta)$ is the disc algebra.

4. Wiener algebra: $W = \{f \in \mathcal{C}(S^1) : \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |\hat{f}_n| < \infty\}$, where $S^1 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$,

$\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(e^{i\theta}) e^{-in\theta} d\theta$. W is a commutative unital Banach algebra with pointwise operations in the norm $\|f\|_1 = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |\hat{f}_n|$. [It is isometrically isomorphic to $\ell_1(\mathbb{Z})$ which

is a Banach algebra in the ℓ_1 -norm and convolution product. That is for $a = (a_n), b = (b_n)$, $(a * b)_n = \sum_{j+k=n} a_k b_j, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The isomorphism is given by $f \mapsto (\hat{f}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$. Have

$\Phi_W = \{\delta_w : w \in S^1\}$, so $\sigma_W(f) = f(S^1)$. So if $f \in \mathcal{C}(S^1)$ has absolutely convergent Fourier series and is nowhere zero, then $\frac{1}{f} \in W$ and so has an absolutely convergent Fourier series and is nowhere zero (Wiener's Theorem).

Lecture 19 **Definition 5.21.** Let A be a commutative unital Banach algebra. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_A &= \{\phi \in B_{A*} : \phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b) \forall a, b \in A, \phi(\mathbf{1}_A) = 1\} \\ &= B_{A*} \cap (\widehat{ab} - \widehat{a} \cdot \widehat{b})^{-1}(\{0\}) \cap \mathbf{1}_A^{-1}(\{1\}) \end{aligned}$$

is weak-* closed. (Here for $x \in A$, $\widehat{x} \in A^{**}$ is its canonical image in A^{**}). Hence, Φ_A is w^* -compact. The w^* -topology on Φ_A is called the Gelfand topology. Φ_A with the Gelfand topology is the spectrum of A OR the character space of A OR the maximal ideal space of A . For $x \in A$, $\widehat{x}|_{\Phi_A}$ is continuous on Φ_A wrt the Gelfand topology; we denote $\widehat{x}|_{\Phi_A}$ by \widehat{x} . So $\widehat{x} \in \mathcal{C}(\Phi_A)$ -called the Gelfand transform of x . The map

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow \mathcal{C}(\Phi_A) \\ x &\mapsto \widehat{x} \end{aligned}$$

is the Gelfand map.

Theorem 5.22 (Gelfand Representation Theorem). Let A be a commutative unital Banach algebra, then the Gelfand map is a continuous unital homomorphism $A \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(\Phi_A)$. For $x \in A$

- (i) $\|\widehat{x}\|_\infty = r_A(x) \leq \|x\|$.
- (ii) $\sigma_{\mathcal{C}(\Phi_A)}(\widehat{x}) = \sigma(x)$.
- (iii) $x \in \mathcal{G}(A) \iff \widehat{x} \in \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{C}(\Phi_A))$.

Proof. The Gelfand map is linear since $x \mapsto \widehat{x} : A \rightarrow A^{**}$ is linear.

Homomorphism: for $x, y \in A$ $\widehat{xy}(\phi) = \phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y) = \widehat{x} \cdot \widehat{y}$ for all $\phi \in \Phi_A$, so $\widehat{xy} = \widehat{x}\widehat{y}$.

Unital: $\widehat{\mathbf{1}}_A(\phi) = \phi(\mathbf{1}_A) = 1$ for all $\phi \in \Phi_A$, so $\widehat{\mathbf{1}}_A = \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_{\Phi_A}$.

Continuity: follows once we prove (i).

$$(i) \quad \|\widehat{x}\|_{\infty} = \sup\{|\widehat{x}(\phi)| : \phi \in \Phi_A\} \stackrel{Cor5.18(iii)}{=} r_A(x) \stackrel{Thm5.6}{\leqslant} \|x\|.$$

$$(ii) \quad \sigma_{C(\Phi_A)}(\widehat{x}) = \{\widehat{x}(\phi) : \phi \in \Phi_A\} \stackrel{Cor5.18(ii)}{=} \sigma_A(x).$$

(iii) Immediate.

□

Note: the Gelfand map need not be injective or surjective. Using Theorem, 5.10 its kernel is

$$\begin{aligned} \{x \in A : \sigma_A(x) = \{0\}\} &= \{x \in A : \overbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}}^{\text{quasi-nilpotent}=0}\} \\ &= \bigcap_{\phi \in \Phi_A} \ker \phi \\ &= \underbrace{\bigcap_{M \in \mathcal{M}_A}_{\substack{\text{Jacobson radical of } A, \mathcal{J}(A)}} \mathcal{M} . \end{aligned}$$

Say A is semi-simple if $\mathcal{J}(A) = \{0\}$.

6 Holomorphic Functional Calculus (HFC)

Recall For a non-empty open set $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$, $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}) = \{f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : f \text{ holomorphic}\}$ is a LCS with the topology of local uniform convergence induce by the family of semi-norms: $f \mapsto \|f\|_K = \sup_K |f|$ for non-empty compact $K \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ is also an algebra with pointwise multiplication which is continuous wrt the topology of $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ [a Fréchet algebra].

Notation: Define $e, u \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ by $e(z) = 1$ and $u(z) = z$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ is a unital algebra with unit e .

Theorem 6.1 (Holomorphic Function Calculus). *Let A be a commutative unital Banach algebra, $x \in A$, $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ open and $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. Then there exists a unique unital homomorphism $\Theta_x : \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow A$ s.t. $\Theta_x(u) = x$. Moreover, $\phi(\Theta_x(f)) = f(\phi(x))$ for all $\phi \in \Phi_A$, $f \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ and $\sigma_A(\Theta_x(f)) = \{f(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\}$.*

Note: Think of Θ_x as "evaluation at x "-write $f(x)$ for $\Theta_x(f)$. Then $e(x) = 1$, $u(x) = x$. If p is a polynomial, there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}, a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $p(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k$, then $p = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k u^k$.

So $\Theta_x(p) = p(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k (\Theta_x(u))^k = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k = p(x)$ as defined in lemma 5.9.

Also, $\phi(f(x)) = f(\phi(x))$ for all $f \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$, $\phi \in \Phi_A$ and $\sigma_A(f) = \{f(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\} = f(\sigma_A(x))$.

Theorem 6.2 (Runge's Approximation Theorem). *Let K be non-empty and compact. Then $\mathcal{O}(K) = \mathcal{R}(K)$, i.e. if f is a function holomorphic on some open neighbourhood of K then for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists ration function r with no poles in K s.t. $\|f - r\|_K < \epsilon$.*

More precisely, given a set Λ consisting of one point from each bounded component of $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$, r can be chosen s.t. all its poles are in Λ . If $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$ is connected, then Λ is empty so in fact we get $\mathcal{O}(K) = \mathcal{P}(K)$.

6.1 Vector-valued integration

Let $a < b$ in \mathbb{R} , X be a Banach space and $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$ continuous. We define " $\int_a^b f(t)dt$ ". We choose dissections $\mathcal{D}_n := a = t_0^{(n)} < t_1^{(n)} < \dots < t_{k_n}^{(n)} = b$ s.t. $|\mathcal{D}_n| = \max_{1 \leq j \leq k_n} (t_j^{(n)} - t_{j-1}^{(n)}) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Since f is uniformly continuous, the limit of

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k_n} f(t_j^{(n)})(t_j^{(n)} - t_{j-1}^{(n)})$$

exists and is independent of (\mathcal{D}_n) . We define $\int_a^b f(t)dt$ to be this limit. It follows that for all $\phi \in X^*$

$$\phi \left(\int_a^b f(t)dt \right) = \int_a^b \phi(f(t))dt.$$

Taking ϕ to be a norming functional for $\int_a^b f(t)dt$, we get

$$\left\| \int_a^b f(t)dt \right\| \leq \int_a^b \|f(t)\| dt, \quad (\|\phi\| \leq 1).$$

Let γ be a path in \mathbb{C} (continuously differentiable), $f : [\gamma] \rightarrow X$ be continuous³. Define

$$\int_\gamma f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t))\gamma'(t)dt$$

Given a chain $\Gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n)$ ⁴ and continuous $f : [\gamma] \rightarrow X$ define

$$\int_\Gamma f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_a^b f(\gamma(t))\gamma'(t)dt$$

and have for all $\phi \in X^*$

$$\phi \left(\int_\Gamma f(z) dz \right) = \int_\Gamma \phi(f(z)) dz.$$

and

$$\left\| \int_\Gamma f(z) dz \right\| \leq \ell(\Gamma) \cdot \sup_{z \in [\gamma]} \|f(z)\|.$$

Theorem 6.3 (Vector-valued Cauchy's Theorem). *Let $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be open, Γ a cycle^a in \mathcal{U} , s.t. $n(\Gamma, w) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\gamma \frac{1}{z-w} dz = 0$ for all $w \notin \mathcal{U}$ and $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow X$ holomorphic. Then*

$$\int_\Gamma f(z) dz = 0.$$

^aa cycle is a chain $\Gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n), n \in \mathbb{N}$ of paths $\gamma_j : [a_j, b_j] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ s.t. there exists a permutation $\rho \in S_n$ s.t. $\gamma_j(b_j) = \gamma_{\rho(j)}(a_{\rho(j)})$ for all $j = 1, \dots, n$.

Proof. For $\phi \in X^*$, apply the scalar version of Cauchy's Theorem to deduce

$$\phi \left(\int_\Gamma f(z) dz \right) = 0, \quad \text{for all } \phi \in X^*$$

³ $[\gamma]$ denotes the path itself in \mathbb{C} .

⁴any finite collection of paths defined as above.

and then apply Hahn-Banach to conclude. \square

Lemma 6.4. Let K be a non-empty compact s.t. $K \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ open. Then there is a cycle Γ such that

$$n(\Gamma, w) = \begin{cases} 1, & w \in K \\ 0, & w \notin \mathcal{U}. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Note that K being compact means that $\text{dist}(K, \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathcal{U}) = \delta > 0$. Thus, there exists an $n \in \mathbb{N}^a$, s.t. K is covered by finitely many (by compactness) boxes in the dyadic lattice $2^{-n}\mathbb{Z}^2$ where any adjacent to them boxes are also $\subseteq \mathcal{U}$, see figure 6. More precisely, $\mathcal{A} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : [x \cdot 2^{-n}, x \cdot 2^{-n} + 2^{-n}] \times [y \cdot 2^{-n}, y \cdot 2^{-n} + 2^{-n}] \cap K \neq \emptyset\}$. Have $|\mathcal{A}| < \infty$. Now, define $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A} \cup \{(x \pm 1, y \pm 1) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : (x, y) \in \mathcal{A}\}$. Let Γ be the boundary of the boxes above, that is

$$\Gamma = \partial \bigcup_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{B}} [x \cdot 2^{-n}, x \cdot 2^{-n} + 2^{-n}] \times [y \cdot 2^{-n}, y \cdot 2^{-n} + 2^{-n}]$$

oriented counter-clockwise (black curve in figure 6), and note that $\Gamma \subseteq \mathcal{U} \setminus K$.

Now, for any $w \in K$, w is either in the interior of a box or the interior of the union of boxes adjacent to it. Regardless, one computes the winding number around such a curve $\tilde{\Gamma}$ (red in figure 6), which is seen to be the same as the winding number of Γ around w , by homotopy invariance (Cauchy's Theorem). One argues similarly for $w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathcal{U}$ to obtain $n(\Gamma, w) = 0$. \square

^afor instance, take $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $2\sqrt{2} \cdot 2^{-n} < \frac{\delta}{2}$.

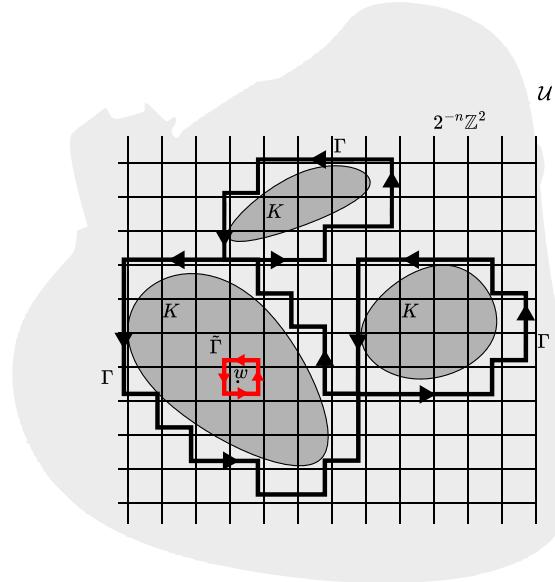


Figure 6: Illustration of proof of Lemma 6.4, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $w \in K$ and K, \mathcal{U}, Γ (in black) as in the lemma.

Lecture 20 **Lemma 6.5.** Let A, x, \mathcal{U} be as in Theorem 6.1. $K = \sigma_A(x)$ and fix a cycle (guaranteed to exists by Lemma 6.4) Γ in $\mathcal{U} \setminus K$ s.t.

$$n(\Gamma, w) = \begin{cases} 1, & w \in K \\ 0, & w \notin \mathcal{U}. \end{cases}$$

Define the map

$$\Theta_x : \mathcal{O}(K) \rightarrow A$$

$$f \mapsto \Theta_x(f) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} f(z)(z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1} dz.$$

Then,

- (i) Θ_x is well-defined, linear, continuous.
- (ii) For a rational function r with no poles in \mathcal{U} , $\Theta_x(r) = r(x)$ in the usual sense.
- (iii) $\phi(\Theta_x(f)) = f(\phi(x))$ for all $\phi \in \Phi_A$, $f \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ and $\sigma_A(\Theta_x(f)) = \{f(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\}$.

Remark. So we can think of the HFC as a Banach algebra valued Cauchy integral formula. Lemma 6.5 almost proves the theorem (6.1). It remains to show that Θ_x is a homomorphism and it is unique.

Proof. (i) If $z \in [\Gamma]$ then $z \notin K = \sigma_A(x)$. So $z\mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$. By the proof of Theorem 5.6, the map $z \mapsto (z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1}$ is continuous (indeed, holomorphic). So, Θ_x is well-defined. It's also linear by linearity of integration. We also have the estimate

$$\|\Theta_x(f)\| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \ell(\Gamma) \cdot \sup_{z \in [\gamma]} |f(z)| \cdot \| (z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1} \|.$$

Since the map $z \mapsto \| (z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1} \|$ is continuous on the compact set $[\Gamma]$, it is bounded. So there exists $M > 0$ s.t. for all $f \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ $\|\Theta_x(f)\| \leq M \cdot \|f\|_{[\Gamma]}$.

By Lemma 1.21, Θ_x is continuous.

(ii) First we show $\Theta_x(e) = 1$.

Fix $R > \|x\|$ and let γ be the anticlockwise boundary of $D(0, R)$. Then γ and Γ are homologous in $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$. So, by Cauchy's Theorem and the proof of Lemma 5.2,

$$\begin{aligned} \Theta_x(e) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} (z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x}{z}\right)^n dz \\ &= \underbrace{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{x^n}{z z^{n+1}} dz}_{\text{sum conv. absolutely and uniformly on } \gamma} \\ &= x^0 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Let $r \in \mathcal{O}(K)$ be a rational function. So $r = \frac{p}{q}$, for polynomials p, q s.t. for all $z \in \mathcal{U}$, $q(z) \neq 0$. By Lemma 5.9, $\sigma_A(q(x)) = \{q(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\}$ and so $0 \notin \sigma_A(q(x))$. We define $r(x) = p(x) \cdot q(x)^{-1}$ ("usual sense"). For $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$, $r(z) - r(w) = q(z)^{-1} q(w)^{-1} (q(w)p(z) - q(z)p(w)) = q(z)^{-1} q(w)^{-1} (z - w)s(z, w)$, where s is a polynomial in z, w . Hence, $r(z)\mathbf{1} -$

$r(x) = q(z)^{-1}q(w)^{-1}(z\mathbf{1} - w)s(z, w)$ and

$$\begin{aligned}\Theta_x(r) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \underbrace{\frac{r(z)}{r(z)\mathbf{1} - r(x) + r(x)}}_{=0 \text{ by Cauchy}} (z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \underbrace{\int_{\gamma} q(z)^{-1}q(w)^{-1}s(z, w) dz}_{=0 \text{ by Cauchy}} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} (z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1} dz \cdot r(x) \\ &= r(x) \cdot \Theta_x(e) = r(x).\end{aligned}$$

(iii) $\phi(\Theta_x(f)) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z)(z\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1} dz = f(\phi(x))$ by Cauchy's integral formula. and so

$$\sigma_A(\Theta_x(f)) \stackrel{\text{Cor 5.18}}{=} \{\phi(\Theta_x(f)): \phi \in \Phi_A\} = \{f(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\}.$$

□

Proof. Proof of Theorem 6.2 Let $A = \mathcal{R}(K)$. Let $x \in A$ be the element $x(z) = z$ for all $z \in K$. $\sigma_A(x) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\} = K$ (for $\lambda \notin K$, $\frac{1}{\lambda-z}$ is the inverse to $\lambda\mathbf{1} - x$).

Let f be holomorphic on some open set $\mathcal{U} \supseteq K$. Let $\Theta_x : \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow A$ be given by Lemma 6.5. $\Theta_x(f)(w) = \delta_w(\Theta_x(f)) = f(\delta_w(x)) = f(w)$ for all $w \in K$. So $\Theta_x(f) = f|_K \in \mathcal{R}(K)$. So $\mathcal{O}(K) = \mathcal{R}(K)$.

Let us now fix Λ as in the statement of Theorem 6.2. Let B be the closed sub-algebra of A generated by $1, x, (\lambda\mathbf{1} - x)^{-1}, \lambda \in \Lambda$. So $B =$ closure in $\mathcal{C}(K)$ of rational functions with poles in Λ . By Theorem 5.11, $\sigma_B(x)$ is the union of $\sigma_A(x)$ and some of the bounded components of $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$. Since for any such component D there exists $\lambda \in \Lambda \cap D$, so $\lambda \cdot \mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(A)$. So $\sigma_B(x) = \sigma_A(x)$. So $\Theta_x(f)$ takes values in B , i.e. $f|_K \in B$. □

Corollary 6.6. Let $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be non-empty and open. Then the algebra $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{U})$ of rational functions with no poles in \mathcal{U} is dense in $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$.

Proof. Let $f \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ and \mathcal{V} be a neighbourhood of f in $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$. We need $\mathcal{V} \cap \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{U}) \neq \emptyset$.

Wlog, $\mathcal{V} = \{g \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}) : \|g - f\|_K < \epsilon\}$ for some non-empty, compact $K \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ and $\epsilon > 0$. Let \hat{K} be the union of K and those bounded components \mathcal{D} of $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$ that are combined in \mathcal{U} .

If D is a bounded component of $\mathbb{C} \setminus \hat{K}$, then D is a bounded component of $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$ s.t. $D \setminus \mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset$ so we can fix $\lambda_0 \in D \setminus \mathcal{U}$. Let Λ be the set of all these λ_0 's. By Theorem 6.2, there exists rational function r s.t. $\|r - f\|_{\hat{K}} < \epsilon$ and the poles of r are in Λ . Hence, $r \in \mathcal{V} \cap \mathcal{R}(K)$. □

Combining the above results, we can now embark on a proof of Theorem 6.1, which we started this section with.

Proof. Let Θ_x be as in lemma 6.5. Then for all $f, g \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{U})$, $\Theta_x(fg) \stackrel{\text{Lemma 6.5(ii)}}{=} (f \cdot g)(x) = f(x)g(x) = \Theta_x(f) \cdot \Theta_x(g)$ and conclude by density of $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{U})$ in $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U})$ and continuity that Θ_x is a homomorphism.

For uniqueness, assume $\Psi : \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow A$ is a continuous unital homomorphism and $\psi(x) = x$. Then for all polynomials p , $\Psi(p) = p(x) = \Theta_x(p)$ and so for all rational $r \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{U})$ $\Psi(r) = r(x) = \Theta_x(r)$ and hence $\Psi \equiv \Theta_x$ by density and continuity. □

7 C^* -algebras

A C^* -algebra is a complex algebra A with an involution: a map $A \rightarrow A$, $x \mapsto x^*$ s.t.

$$(i) \quad (\lambda x + \mu y)^* = \bar{\lambda}x^* + \bar{\mu}y^*$$

$$(ii) \quad (xy)^* = y^*x^*$$

$$(iii) \quad x^{**} = x$$

for all $x, y \in A, \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$. If A is unital, then $\mathbf{1}^* = \mathbf{1}$. A C^* -algebra is a Banach algebra with an involution s.t. the C^* -equation holds:

$$\|x^*x\| = \|x\|^2, \quad \text{for all } x \in A.$$

A complete algebra norm on a $*$ -algebra that satisfies the C^* -equation is a C^* -norm. So a C^* -algebra is a $*$ -algebra with a C^* -norm on it.

Lecture 21

Remark.

1. If A is a C^* -algebra, and $x \in A$, then $\|x^*\| = \|x\| (\|x\|^2 = \|x^*x\| \leq \|x^*\| \cdot \|x\| \text{ so } \|x\| \leq \|x^*\| \text{ and hence } \|x^*\| \leq \|x^{**}\| = \|x\|)$. So the involution is continuous.

A Banach algebra with an involution s.t. $\|x^*\| = \|x\|$ for all x .

2. If A is a C^* -algebra and if A has a multiplicative identity $\mathbf{1} \neq 0$, then automatically A is a unital C^* -algebra, $\|\mathbf{1}\| = 1 (\|\mathbf{1}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{1}^*\mathbf{1}\| = \|\mathbf{1}\|)$.

Definition 7.1. A $*$ -sub-algebra of a $*$ -algebra A is a sub-algebra B of A s.t. for all $x \in B$, $x^* \in B$. A C^* -sub-algebra of a C^* -algebra is a closed $*$ -algebra. So a C^* -sub-algebra of a C^* -algebra is a C^* -algebra. The closure of a $*$ -algebra of a C^* -algebra is a $*$ -sub-algebra, so a C^* -algebra.

A $*$ -homomorphism between $*$ -algebras is a homomorphism $\theta : A \rightarrow B$ s.t. $\theta(x^*) = \theta(x)^*$ for all $x \in A$. A $*$ -isomorphism is a bijective $*$ -homomorphism.

Examples 7.2. 1. $\mathcal{C}(K)$, K compact Hausdorff, is a commutative, unital C^* -algebra with involution $f \mapsto f^*$, where $f^*(k) = \overline{f(k)}$ for all $k \in K$, $f \in \mathcal{C}(K)$.

2. $\mathcal{B}(H)$, H Hilbert space is a unital C^* -algebra with involution $T \mapsto T^*$ where T^* is the adjoint.

3. Any C^* -sub-algebra of $\mathcal{B}(H)$, (H any Hilbert space) is a C^* -algebra.

... And that's all folks!

Remark. the Gelfand-Naimark Theorem says that if A is a C^* -algebra then there exists a Hilbert space H s.t. A is isometrically $*$ -isomorphic to some C^* -sub-algebra of $\mathcal{B}(H)$. We will prove the commutative version.

Definition 7.3. Let A be a C^* -algebra and $x \in A$. We say x is

- (i) hermitian or self-adjoint if $x^* = x$
- (ii) unitary if (A is unital and) $x^*x = xx^* = \mathbf{1}$
- (iii) normal if $x^*x = xx^*$

Examples 7.4. 1. $\mathbf{1}$ is both hermitian and unitary. In general, hermitian and unitary are normal.

2. $f \in \mathcal{C}(K)$ is Hermitian $\iff f(K) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and unitary $\iff f(K) \subseteq S^1$. (Recall: $f(K) = \sigma_{\mathcal{C}(K)}(f)$).

Remark. 1. If A is a C^* -algebra and $x \in A$. Then there exist unique hermitian $h, k \in A$ s.t. $x = h + ik$. [If $x = h + ik$ then $x^* = h - ik$, so $h = \frac{x+x^*}{2}$, $k = \frac{x-x^*}{2i}$ and conversely, this choice for h, k works].

2. If A is a unital C^* -algebra and $x \in A$, then $x \in \mathcal{G}(A) \iff x^* \in \mathcal{G}(A)$ and in this case $(x^*)^{-1} = (x^{-1})^*$.

It follows that $\sigma_A(x^*) = \{\bar{\lambda} : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x)\}$ ($\lambda \mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(A) \iff (\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)^* = \bar{\lambda} \cdot \mathbf{1} - x^* \in \mathcal{G}(A)$) so $\sigma_A(x^*) = \sigma_A(x)$.

Lemma 7.5. Let A be a C^* -algebra and $x \in A$. Then $r_A(x) = \|x\|$ provided x is normal.

Proof. Assume x is hermitian. Then $\|x\|^2 = \|x^2\|$ and inductively, $\|x\|^{2^n} = \|x^{2^n}\|$ for all n . By the spectral radius formula (Theorem 5.10), $r_A(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x^{2^n}\|^{\frac{1}{2^n}} = \|x\|$.

If x is normal, then $\|x^*x\| = r_A(x^*x)$ because x^*x is hermitian.

Now, $r_A(x^*x) \leq r_A(x^*)r_A(x) \stackrel{(Cor 5.19)}{\leq} \|x^*\| \cdot \|x\|$. But $\|x\|^2 = \|x^*x\|$. So we have equality throughout and so $\|x\| = r_A(x)$. \square

Lemma 7.6. Let A be a unital C^* -algebra and $x \in A$. Then $\phi(x^*) = \overline{\phi(x)}$ for all $\phi \in \Phi_A$.

Proof. Wlog we can assume that x is hermitian. [For general x , write $x = h + ik$, h, k hermitian. Then $\phi(x^*) = \phi(h - ik) = \phi(h) - i\phi(k) = \overline{\phi(x)}$ ($\phi(h), \phi(k)$ real)]. Now assume x is hermitian $\phi \in \Phi_A$ and write $\phi(x) = a + ib$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Need: For $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\begin{aligned} |\phi(x + it\mathbf{1})|^2 &= |a + i(b + t)|^2 \\ &= a^2 + (b + t)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2bt + t^2 \\ &\leq \|x + it\mathbf{1}\|^2 = \|(x + it)^*(x + it)\| \\ &= \|(x - it)^*(x + it)\| = \|x^2 + t^2\mathbf{1}\| \leq \|x^2\| + t^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $b = 0$. \square

Corollary 7.7. Let A be a unital C^* -algebra.

- (i) If $x \in A$ is hermitian, then $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.
- (ii) If $x \in A$ is unitary, then $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq S^1$.
- (iii) If B is a unital C^* -sub-algebra of A and $x \in B$ is normal then $\sigma_B(x) = \sigma_A(x)$.

Proof. (i) Let $B = C^*$ -algebra generated by $\mathbf{1}, x$ (check $*$ -sub-alg) $p(x) : p \text{ poly}$. B is commutative, so $\sigma(B) = \{\phi(x) : \phi \in \Phi_B\}$. By Lemma 7.6, $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \sigma_B(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

(ii) Let $B = C^*$ -algebra generated by $\mathbf{1}, x, x^* = \{p(x, x^*) : p \text{ poly in two variables}\}$. B is commutative, so $\sigma_B(x) = \{\phi(x) : \phi \in \Phi_B\}$. By Lemma 7.6, $1 = \phi(\mathbf{1}) = \phi(x^*x) = \overline{\phi(x)}\phi(x)$, hence $|\phi(x)|^2 = 1$. So $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \sigma_B(x) \subseteq S^1$.

(iii) For the last part, assume $x \in B$ is hermitian. Then $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, so $\mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_A(x)$ is connected. So it follows by Theorem 5.11 that $\sigma_A(x) = \sigma_B(x)$.

Now assume $x \in B$ is normal. Then for $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(A) &\iff \lambda \mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(A) \& (\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)^* \in \mathcal{G}(A) \\ &\stackrel{\text{commuting elements}}{\iff} (\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)(\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)^* \in \mathcal{G}(A) \\ &\stackrel{\text{hermitian}}{\iff} (\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)(\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)^* \in \mathcal{G}(B) \\ &\stackrel{\text{commuting elements}}{\iff} \lambda \mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(B) \& (\lambda \mathbf{1} - x)^* \in \mathcal{G}(B) \\ &\iff \lambda \mathbf{1} - x \in \mathcal{G}(B). \end{aligned}$$

\square

Remark. $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$, T hermitian or unitary, then $\sigma(T) = \partial\sigma(T) \subseteq \sigma_{\text{ap}}(T)$ = set of approximate evals. So $\sigma(T) = \sigma_{\text{ap}}(T)$ (also holds for normal operators).

Lecture 22 **Theorem 7.8.** Let A be a commutative unital C^* -algebra. Then there exists compact, Hausdorff K s.t. A is isometrically isomorphic to $\mathcal{C}(K)$. In particular, the Gelfand map

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow \mathcal{C}(\Phi_A) \\ x &\mapsto \hat{x} \end{aligned}$$

is an isometric *-isomorphism.

Proof. By Theorem 5.22, the Gelfand map $G : A \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(\Phi_A)$ where $G(x) = \hat{x}|_{\Phi_A}$, is a unital homomorphism. It remains to check the following three properties:

G is a *-homomorphism: $\widehat{x^*}(\phi) = \phi(x^*) \stackrel{\text{Lemma 7.6}}{=} \overline{\phi(x)} = \overline{\widehat{x}(\phi)} = (\widehat{x})^*(\phi)$ for all $\phi \in \text{Phi}_A$.

G is isometric: $\|G(x)\| = \|\widehat{x}\|_\infty \stackrel{\text{Thm 5.22(i)}}{=} r_A(x) \stackrel{A \text{ commutative}}{=} \text{Lemma 7.5}$ for all $x \in A$.

G is surjective: let \widehat{A} be the image of G . So $\widehat{A} = \{\widehat{x} : x \in A\}$. Since G is an isometric unital *-homomorphism, it follows that \widehat{A} is a closed sub-algebra of $\mathcal{C}(\Phi_A)$ containing the constant functions and closed under conjugation. Also \widehat{A} separates points of Φ_A : if $\phi \neq \psi$ in Φ_A , then there exists $x \in A$ s.t. $\phi(x) \neq \psi(x)$, i.e. $\widehat{x}(\phi) \neq \widehat{x}(\psi)$. By Stone-Weierstrass, $\widehat{A} = \mathcal{C}(\Phi_A)$. \square

Applications:

1. Let A be a unital C^* -algebra and let $x \in A$. Say x is positive if x is hermitian and $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq [0, \infty)$. We show there exists a unique positive $y \in A$ s.t. $y^2 = x$, called the square root of x , denoted $x^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Existence: $B = C^*$ -sub-algebra generated by $1, x = \{p(x) : p \text{ poly}\}$. B is a commutative unital C^* -algebra. By Theorem 7.8, the Gelfand map

$$\begin{aligned} B &\rightarrow \mathcal{C}(\Phi_B) \\ w &\mapsto \widehat{w} \end{aligned}$$

is an *-isomorphism. Now, we compute $\sigma_{\mathcal{C}(\Phi_B)}(\widehat{x}) \stackrel{\text{Cor 5.18(ii)}}{=} \sigma_B(x) \stackrel{\text{Cor 7.7}}{=} \sigma_A(x) \subseteq [0, \infty)$.

The map $\phi \in \Phi_B$, $\phi \mapsto \sqrt{\widehat{x}(\phi)} \in \mathcal{C}(\Phi_B)$, so there exists a $y \in B$ s.t. $\widehat{y}(\phi) = \sqrt{\widehat{x}(\phi)}$ for all $\phi \in \Phi_B$. $\widehat{y}^* = (\widehat{y})^* = \sqrt{\widehat{x}} = \sqrt{\widehat{x}} = \widehat{y}$. The Gelfand map is injective, so $y^* = y$, i.e. y is hermitian. Now, $\sigma_A(y) = \sigma_B(y) = \sigma_{\mathcal{C}(\Phi_B)}(\widehat{y}) \subseteq [0, \infty)$, so y is positive. Finally, $\widehat{y}^2 = (\widehat{y})^2 = \widehat{x}$, so $y^2 = x$. Note that y is a limit of sequence of polynomials in x .

Uniqueness: Assume $z \in A$ is positive and $z^2 = x$. Have $zx = xz = z^3$, so $zp(x) = p(x)z$ for all polynomials p , so $yz = zy$. Let $\tilde{B} = C^*$ -sub-algebra generated by $1, y, z$. Then \tilde{B} is a commutative unital C^* -algebra containing $y, z, x = y^2 = z^2$. Theorem 7.8 gives that the

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{B} &\rightarrow \mathcal{C}(\Phi_{\tilde{B}}) \\ w &\mapsto \widehat{w} \end{aligned}$$

is an isometric *-isomorphism. $\sigma_{\mathcal{C}(\Phi_{\tilde{B}})}(\widehat{y}) = \sigma_{\tilde{B}}(y) = \sigma_A(y) \subseteq [0, \infty)$. Also, $\widehat{z}^2 = \widehat{z}^2 = \widehat{x} = \widehat{y}^2 = \widehat{y}^2$ and hence $\widehat{y} = \widehat{z}$ and thus $y = z$.

This applies to a positive operator $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$, where H is a Hilbert space (T is positive \iff for all $x \in H \langle Tx, x \rangle \geq 0$).

2. Polar decomposition: let H be a Hilbert space, and $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ invertible. Then there exists unique operators \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{U} s.t. \mathcal{R} is positive, \mathcal{U} is unitary and $T = \mathcal{R}\mathcal{U}$.

Existence: TT^* is positive ($\langle TT^*x, x \rangle = \|T^*x\|^2 \geq 0$). Let $\mathcal{R} = (TT^*)^{\frac{1}{2}}$. So $\mathcal{R}^2 = TT^*$ is invertible, and hence so is \mathcal{R} (being the product of \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{R} , commuting elements is invertible $\iff \mathcal{R}$). Let $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{R}^{-1}T$. Then \mathcal{U} is invertible and $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{U}^* = \mathcal{R}^{-1}TT^*(\mathcal{R}^{-1})^* \mathcal{R}^{-1} TT^* \mathcal{R}^{-1} = \text{Id}$.

Uniqueness: if $T = \mathcal{R}\mathcal{U}$, \mathcal{R} positive, \mathcal{U} unitary, then $TT^* = \mathcal{R}\mathcal{U}\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R}^2$ so $\mathcal{R} = \sqrt{TT^*}$ and $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{R}^{-1}T$.

8 Borel Functional Calculus and Spectral Theory

Throughout we fix:

H non-zero, complex Hilbert space.

$\mathcal{B}(H)$ a bounded linear operator on H .

K compact, Hausdorff.

\mathcal{B} Borel σ -field on K .

8.1 Operator-valued measures

Definition 8.1 (A resolution of the identity of H over K). A resolution of the identity of H over K (roti of H over K) is a map $P : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(H)$ s.t.

- (i) $P(\emptyset) = 0$ and $P(K) = \text{Id}$.
- (ii) For all $E \in \mathcal{B}$ $P(E)$ is an orthogonal projection.
- (iii) For all $E, F \in \mathcal{B}$ $P(E \cap F) = P(E) \circ P(F) = P(F) \circ P(E)$.
- (iv) For all $E, F = \emptyset$. Then, $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F)$.
- (v) For all $x, y \in H$ the map $P_{x,y} : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by $P_{x,y}(E) = \langle P(E)x, y \rangle$, $E \in \mathcal{B}$, is a regular complex Borel measure.

Examples 8.2. Example: $H = L_2[0, 1]$, $K = [0, 1]$, $P(E)f = \mathbf{1}_E f$.

Simple Properties:

- (i) For all $E, F \in \mathcal{B}$ $P(E \cap F), P(F)$ commute (directly follows from (ii) above).
- (ii) If $E \cap F = \emptyset$, then $P(E)(H) \perp P(F)(H)$. That is for all $x, y \in H$ $\langle P(E)x, P(F)y \rangle = \langle P(F) \cdot P(E)x, y \rangle \langle P(E \cap F)x, y \rangle = 0$.
- (iii) For $x \in H$, $P_{x,x}$ is a positive measure of total mass $P_{x,x}(K) = \|x\|^2$. ($P_{x,x}(E) = \langle P(E)x, x \rangle = \langle P(E)^2x, x \rangle \langle P(E)x, P(E)x \rangle = \|P(E)x\|^2 \geq 0$, which equals $\|x\|^2$ if $E = K$).
- (iv) p is finitely additive and for $x \in H$, $E \mapsto P(E)x : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow H$ is countably additive. That is, for $E_n \in \mathcal{B}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $E_n \cap E_m = \emptyset$ for all $m \neq n$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P(E_n)x, y \right\rangle &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \langle P(E_n)x, y \rangle = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P_{x,y}(E_n) \\ &= P_{x,y} \left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \right) = \left\langle P \left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \right) x, y \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

for all $y \in H$ so

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P(E_n)x = P\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n\right)x.$$

Note that $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|P(E_n)\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2$ be Bessel's inequality since $\left(P\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n\right)x\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are pairwise orthogonal.

(v) P need not be countably additive, but if $P(E_n) = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $P\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n\right) = 0$.

(vi) For $(E_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, consider the sequence $F_1 = E_1$, $F_n = E_n \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} E_i$, for $n > 1$, then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n\right)x = P\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n\right)x = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P(F_n)x = 0, \quad \text{for all } x \in H.$$

Lecture 23 **Definition 8.3** (The algebra $L_\infty(P)$). Let P be a resolution of H over K . Say a Borel function $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is called P -essentially bounded if there exists $E \in \mathcal{B}$ s.t. $P(E) = 0$ and f bounded on $K \setminus E$.

Then define

$$\|f\|_\infty = \inf\{\|f\|_{K \setminus E} : E \in \mathcal{B}, P(E) = 0\},$$

which is attained (check!).

Let $L_\infty(P)$ be the set of all P -essentially bounded Borel functions $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. This is a commutative, unital C^* -algebra with pointwise operations and $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ [As usual, we identify $f, g \in L_\infty(P)$ P -a.e., if there exists $E \in \mathcal{B}$ s.t. $P(E) = 0$, $f = g$ on $K \setminus E$].

Lemma 8.4. Let P be as above. Then there exists an isometric, unital *-homomorphism $\Phi : L_\infty(P) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(H)$ s.t.

$$(i) \langle \Phi(f)x, y \rangle = \int_K f dP_{x,y} \text{ for all } f \in L_\infty(P) \text{ for all } x, y \in H.$$

$$(ii) \|\Phi(f)x\|^2 = \int_K |f|^2 dP_{x,x} \text{ for all } f \in L_\infty(P) \text{ for all } x, y \in H.$$

$$(iii) \text{ For } S \in \mathcal{B}(H), S \text{ commutes with all } \Phi(f), f \in L_\infty(P) \iff S \text{ commutes with all } P(E), E \in \mathcal{B}.$$

Note: $\Phi(f)$ is uniquely determined by (i). We denote $\Phi(f)$ by $\int_K f dP$. So it says

$$\left\langle \int_K f dP_x, y \right\rangle = \int_K f dP_{x,y}.$$

Proof. Sketch Define $\Phi(\mathbf{1}_E) = \int_K \mathbf{1}_E dP = P(E)$.

$$\text{For simple functions } s = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \mathbf{1}_{E_j}, \Phi(s) = \int_K s dP = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j P(E_j).$$

Φ is an isometric *-isomorphism, unital, on simple functions. Extend by density. \square

Definition 8.5. let $L_\infty(K)$ be the set of all bounded Borel functions $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. This is a commutative unital C^* -algebra with pointwise operations and the sup-norm $\|f\|_K = \sup_{z \in K} |f(z)|$. If P is a resolution of the identity of H over K , then $L_\infty(K) \subseteq L_\infty(P)$ and the inclusion is a norm decreasing unital *-homomorphism.

Theorem 8.6 (Spectral Theorem for commutative C^* -algebras). *Let $A \subseteq \mathcal{B}(H)$ be a commutative unital C^* -algebra of $\mathcal{B}(H)$. Let $K = \Phi_A$. Then there exists a unique resolution of the identity of H over K , s.t.*

$$\int_K \hat{T} dP = T, \quad \text{for all } T \in A.$$

Moreover,

- (i) $P(\mathcal{U}) \neq \emptyset$ for any $\mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset$, open $\mathcal{U} \subseteq K$.
- (ii) $S \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ commutes with all $T \in A \iff S$ commutes with all $P(E)$, $E \in \mathcal{B}$.

Proof. By Theorem 7.8 the Gelfand map

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow \mathcal{C}(K) \\ x &\mapsto \hat{x} \end{aligned}$$

is an isometric *-isomorphism and hence so is its inverse

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G}^{-1} : \mathcal{C}(K) &\rightarrow A \\ \hat{T} &\mapsto T. \end{aligned}$$

We see a roti P over K which represents $\mathcal{G}^{-1}(\hat{T}) = \int_K \hat{T} dP$.

This is an operator version of the Riesz Representation Theorem, Theorem 2.11.

Uniqueness: $T = \int_K \hat{T} dP$ for all T means

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \int_K \hat{T} dP_{x,y}, \quad \text{for all } T \in A, x, y \in H.$$

By uniqueness in the Riesz Representation Theorem (RRT), $P_{x,y}$ is uniquely determined for all $x, y \in H$. Since $P_{x,y}(E) = \langle P(E)x, y \rangle$, $P(E)$ is uniquely determined for all $E \in \mathcal{B}$.

Existence: For $x, y \in H$, $\hat{T} \mapsto \langle Tx, y \rangle : \mathcal{C}(K) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is in $\mathcal{M}(K) = \mathcal{C}(K)^*$ with norm at most $\|x\| \cdot \|y\|$. By RRT, there exists a unique $\mu_{x,y} \in \mathcal{M}(K)$ s.t.

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \int_K \hat{T} d\mu_{x,y}, \quad \text{for all } T \in A.$$

$\|\mu_{x,y}\|_1 \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$. Now, by linearity

$$= \lambda \int_K \hat{T} d\mu_{x,z} + \int_K \hat{T} d\mu_{y,z}.$$

By uniqueness in the RRT, $\mu_{\lambda x+y, z} = \lambda \mu_{x,z} + \mu_{y,z}$. If \hat{T} is real-valued, then T is hermitian, so

$$\int_K \hat{T} d\mu_{x,y} = \langle Ty, x \rangle = \overline{\langle Tx, y \rangle} = \int_K \hat{T} d\overline{\mu_{x,y}}.$$

By uniqueness in the RRT, $\mu_{y,x} = \overline{\mu_{x,y}}$.

Fix $f \in L_\infty(K)$. Then $\Theta : H \times H \times \mathbb{C}$, $\Theta(x, y) = \int_K f d\mu_{x,y}$ is a sesquilinear form and $|\Theta(x, y)| \leq \|f\|_\infty \cdot \|\mu_{x,y}\|_1 \leq \|f\|_\infty \cdot \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$. So there exists $\Psi(f) \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ s.t. $\langle \psi(f)x, y \rangle = \Theta(x, y) = \int_K f d\mu_{x,y}$ and $\|\Psi(f)\| = \|\Theta\| \leq \|f\|_K$.

We now have a map $\Psi : L_\infty(K) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(H)$ s.t.

Ψ is linear: clear by the linearity of $\int_K f d\mu_{x,y}$.

Ψ is bounded: $\|\Psi(f)\| \leq \|f\|_K$.

Ψ is a *-map:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \Psi(\bar{f})x, y \rangle &= \int_K \bar{f} d\mu_{x,y} = \overline{\int_K f d\mu_{y,x}} \\ &= \overline{\langle \Psi(f)y, x \rangle} = \langle x, \Psi(f)y \rangle \\ &= \langle \Psi^*(f)x, y \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in H.\end{aligned}$$

So $\Psi(\bar{f}) = \Psi(f)^*$.

$\Psi|_{C(K)} = \mathcal{G}^{-1}$: have $\langle \Psi(\hat{T})x, y \rangle = \int_K \hat{T} d\mu_{x,y} = \langle Tx, y \rangle$ for all x, y . So $\Psi(\hat{T}) = T = \mathcal{G}^{-1}$.

Ψ is multiplicative: for $S, T \in A$.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_K \hat{S} \cdot \hat{T} d\mu_{x,y} &= \int_K \hat{S}\hat{T} d\mu_{x,y} \\ &= \langle \hat{S}\hat{T}x, y \rangle \\ &= \int_K \hat{S} d\mu_{Tx,y}, \quad S \in A.\end{aligned}$$

By uniqueness in RRT, $\hat{T} d\mu_{x,y} = d\mu_{Tx,y}$ as measures. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_K f \hat{T} d\mu_{x,y} &= \int_K f d\mu_{Tx,y} = \langle \Psi(f)Tx, y \rangle \\ &= \langle Tx, \Psi(f)^*y \rangle = \int_K \hat{T} d\mu_{x,\Psi(f)^*y}, \quad \text{for all } T \in A, f \in L_\infty(K).\end{aligned}$$

By uniqueness in RRT, $f d\mu_{x,y} = d\mu_{x,\Psi(f)^*y}$. Finally, for $g \in L_\infty(K)$,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_K g f d\mu_{x,y} &= \int_K g d\mu_{x,\Psi(f)^*y} \\ &= \langle \Psi(gf)x, y \rangle \\ &= \langle \Psi(g)x, \Psi(f)^*y \rangle \\ &= \langle \Psi(f)\Psi(g)x, y \rangle, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in H.\end{aligned}$$

So $\Psi(fg) = \Psi(f) \cdot \Psi(g)$.

Define $P(E) = \Psi(\mathbf{1}_E)$. Easy to check P is a roti of H over K . $P_{x,x}(E) = \langle P(E)x, y \rangle = \int_K \mathbf{1}_E d\mu_{x,y} = \mu_{x,y}(E)$ for all $E \in \mathcal{B}$. So $P_{x,y} = \mu_{x,y}$. Also,

$$\begin{aligned}\left\langle \int_K \hat{T} dP_{x,y} \right\rangle &= \int_K \hat{T} dP_{x,y} \\ &= \langle \Psi(\hat{T})x, y \rangle \\ &= \langle Tx, y \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

So $\int_K \hat{T} dP = T$. (Without Lemma 8.4, could define $\int_K f dP = \Psi(f)$ for $f \in L_\infty(K)$).

(i) Fix $\mathcal{U} \subseteq K$, \mathcal{U} open. By Urysohn, there exists $f : K \rightarrow [0, 1]$ continuous, s.t. $\text{supp } f \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, $f \neq 0$.

There exists $T \in A$, $\sqrt{f} = \hat{T}$. Then $T \neq 0$ so there exists $x \in H$ s.t. $Tx \neq 0$. $0 < \|Tx\|^2 = \langle T^2x, x \rangle = \int_K \hat{T}^2 dP_{x,x} = \int_K f dP_{x,x} \leq P_{x,x}(\mathcal{U}) = \langle P(\mathcal{U}x), x \rangle$. So $P(\mathcal{U}) \neq 0$.

(ii) Let $\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{B}(H)$. $\langle STx, y \rangle = \langle Tx, \mathcal{S}^*y \rangle = \int_K \hat{T} dP_{x,\mathcal{S}^*y}$ and $\langle T\mathcal{S}x, y \rangle = \int_K \hat{T} dP_{\mathcal{S}x,y}$.

So

$$\begin{aligned}ST = T\mathcal{S} \text{ for all } T \in A &\iff P_{x,\mathcal{S}^*y} = P_{\mathcal{S}x,y} \text{ for all } x, y \in H. \\ &\iff \langle P(E)x, \mathcal{S}^*y \rangle = \langle P(E)\mathcal{S}x, y \rangle \text{ for all } x, y \in H, E \in \mathcal{B}. \\ &\iff \mathcal{S}P(E) = P(E)\mathcal{S} \text{ for all } E \in \mathcal{B}.\end{aligned}$$

□

Lecture 24

Let A be a unital Banach algebra and $x \in A$. We define $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ ($x^0 = 1$) (converges absolutely, so converges in A). If $xy = yx$ in A , then $e^{x+y} = e^x \cdot e^y$.

Lemma 8.7 (Fuglede-Putman-Rosenblum). *Let A be a unital C^* -algebra, $x, y, z \in A$ with x, y normal. If $xz = zy$, then $x^*z = zy^*$.*

■ *Proof.* None given. □

Theorem 8.8 (Spectral Theorem for normal operators). *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ be normal. Then there exists a unique resolution of the identity of H over $\sigma(T) = \sigma_{\mathcal{B}(H)}(T)$, P s.t. $T = \int_{\sigma(T)} \lambda dP$ (i.e. the spectral decomposition of T). Moreover, $\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ commutes with T*

$$\iff \mathcal{S} \text{ commutes with all } P(E)^{\text{spectral projections}}, E \in \mathcal{B}.$$

Proof. Let A be the unital C^* -sub-algebra of $\mathcal{B}(H)$ generated by T .

So $A = \overline{\{p(T, T^*): p \text{ poly in two variables}\}}$. T normal implies that A is a commutative C^* -sub-algebra. $\sigma_A(T) = \sigma(T)$ by Corollary 7.7. By Lemma 7.6, every $\phi \in \Phi_A$ is uniquely determined by $\phi(T)$. $[\phi(T^*) = \phi(\overline{T}), \phi(p(T, T^*)) = p(\phi(T), \phi(T^*))]$. Thus, the map

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_A &\rightarrow \sigma(T) \\ \phi &\mapsto \phi(T) \end{aligned}$$

is a continuous bijection (Corollary 5.18) and thus a homeomorphism. $\widehat{T}, \widehat{T^*}$ in $\mathcal{C}(\Phi_A)$ correspond to $\lambda \mapsto \lambda$, $\lambda \mapsto \bar{\lambda}$ in $\mathcal{C}(\sigma(T))$ respectively.

Existence of P : follows from Theorem 8.6.

Uniqueness: if $T = \int_{\sigma(T)} \lambda dP$, then $p(T, T^*) = \int_{\sigma(T)} p(\lambda, \bar{\lambda}) dP$ (Lemma 8.4). So $\langle p(T, T^*)x, y \rangle = \int_{\sigma(T)} p(\lambda, \bar{\lambda}) dP_{x,y}$. Since, $\lambda \mapsto p(\lambda, \bar{\lambda})$ are dense in $\mathcal{C}(\sigma(T))$, by uniqueness in RRT, $P_{x,y}$ are uniquely determined and hence so is P .

If $ST = TS$, then $ST^* = T^*S$ by Lemma 8.7. Finally, $ST = TS \iff \mathcal{S}$ commutes with all elements of A , $\iff \mathcal{S}$ commutes with $P(E)$, for all in $E \in \mathcal{B}$ (Theorem 8.6). □

Theorem 8.9 (Borel Functional Calculus). *Let T be a normal operator, let $K = \sigma(T)$ and P be the roti of H over K given by Theorem 8.8. The map*

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\infty}(K) &\rightarrow \mathcal{B}(H) \\ f &\mapsto f(T) := \int_{\sigma(T)} f(\lambda) dP \end{aligned}$$

has the following properties:

- (i) it is a unital *-homomorphism s.t. $z(T) = T$ (where $z(\lambda) = \lambda$ for all $\lambda \in K$).
- (ii) $\|f(T)\| \leq \|f\|_K$ for all $f \in L_{\infty}(K)$ with equality if $f \in \mathcal{C}(K)$.
- (iii) For $\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{B}(H)$, $ST = TS \iff \mathcal{S}f(T) = f(T)\mathcal{S}$ for all $f \in L_{\infty}(K)$.
- (iv) $\sigma(f(T)) \subseteq \overline{f(K)}$ for all $f \in L_{\infty}(K)$.

Proof. Everything follows from Lemma 8.4, Theorems 8.6 and 8.9. (Note that $f(T) = \Psi(f)$ from Theorem 8.6). For (iv), $\sigma(f(T)) \subseteq \sigma_{L_\infty(K)}(f) = \overline{f(K)}$. \square

Theorem 8.10 (Polar Decomposition). *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ be normal. Then, there exists a positive operator \mathcal{R} , unitary \mathcal{U} s.t. $T = \mathcal{R}\mathcal{U}$. Also, $T, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{U}$ pointwise commute.*

Proof. Define r, u on $\sigma(T)$:

$$r(\lambda) = |\lambda|, \quad u(\lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda}{|\lambda|}, & \lambda \neq 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \in \sigma(T). \end{cases}$$

Then, $r, u \in L_\infty(\sigma(T))$ and $ru = z$ ($z(\lambda) = \lambda$ for all $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$) let $\mathcal{R} = r(T), \mathcal{U}$. Then $T = Z(T) = \mathcal{R}\mathcal{U}$. r is positive, u is unitary in $L_\infty(\sigma(T))$ and hence \mathcal{R} is positive, \mathcal{U} is unitary in $\mathcal{B}(H)$. Since $L_\infty(K)$ is commutative, $\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{U}, T$ must commute. \square

Theorem 8.11 (Unitaries as exponentials). *Let $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ be unitary. Then there exists hermitian Q s.t. $\mathcal{U} = e^{iQ}$.*

Proof. By Corollary 7.7, $\sigma(u) \subseteq S^1$. Let $f : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be in $L_\infty(S^1)$ s.t. $e^{if(t)} = t$ for all $t \in S^1$. Let $Q = f(\mathcal{U})$. Then Q is hermitian since f is hermitian in $L_\infty(K)$.

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(if(t))^k}{k!} \rightarrow t, \quad \text{uniformly on } S^1.$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(iQ)^k}{k!} \rightarrow \mathcal{U},$$

i.e. $\mathcal{U} = e^{iQ}$. \square

Theorem 8.12 (Connectedness of $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{B}(H))$). *Fix $T \in \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{B}(H))$. $T = \mathcal{R}\mathcal{U}$, \mathcal{R} positive, \mathcal{U} unitary (Theorem 8.10) where $\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{B}(H))$.*

Proof. Since \mathcal{R} is invertible, $\sigma(\mathcal{R}) \subseteq (0, \infty)$. Let $\mathcal{S} = \log(\mathcal{R}) = \int_{\sigma(\mathcal{R})} \log \lambda dP$ (P is a roti of H over K).

$$e^{\mathcal{S}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(\mathcal{S})^k}{k!} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(\log \lambda)^k}{k!}}_{\rightarrow \text{ uniformly on } \sigma(\mathcal{R})} (\mathcal{R}) = z(\mathcal{R}) = \mathcal{R}.$$

So $T = e^{\mathcal{S} \cdot e^{iQ}}$. The map $[0, 1] \rightarrow \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{B}(H)) : t \mapsto e^{t\mathcal{S}} \cdot e^{itQ}$ is a continuous path from Id to T . Hence $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{B}(H))$ is connected. \square

End of lecture course.