



Applied Functionalanalysis

Script of "Applied Functionalanalysis" by Prof. Peter Kumlin

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foreword — cooperation

This document is a transcript of the lecture "Applied Functionalanalysis, WiSe 2016/2017, Term 1", by Prof. Peter Kumlin. It mainly contains the written content of the lecture. I will not assume any responsibility for the correctness of the content! For questions, remarks and mistakes please write an email to keil.menden@web.de. I'm grateful for every email.



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1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction example

We have

$$\begin{cases} f'' + f = g, & \text{in } I = [0, 1] \\ f(0) = 1, \ f'(0) = 1 \end{cases},$$

where g is a known continous function on I. We will now consider different cases:

1. g = 0

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = A\cos(x) + B\sin(x), x \in I,$$

where $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$.

2. g arbitrary. We will now introduce the Method of variation of constants. Set

$$f(x) = A(x)\cos(x) + B(x)\sin(x).$$

Differentiate

$$f'(x) = A'(x)\cos(x) + B'(x)\sin(x) - A(x)\sin(x) + B(x)\cos(x).$$

Assume (this is part of the method)

$$A'(x)\cos(x) + B'(x)\sin(x) = 0, \qquad x \in I.$$

Differentiate f'(x) and get

$$f''(x) = \underbrace{-A(x)\cos(x) - B(x)\sin(x)}_{=-f(x)} - A'(x)\sin(x) + B'(x)\cos(x).$$

We get

$$g(x) = f''(x) + f(x) = -A'(x)\sin(x) + B'(x)\cos(x).$$

Now:

$$\begin{cases} A'(x)\cos(x) + B'(x)\sin(x) = 0, & x \in I \\ -A'(x)\sin(x) + B'(x)\cos(x) = g(x), & x \in I . \\ A(0) = 1, & B(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

We get

$$A'(x) = -g(x)\sin(x),$$

$$A(0) = 1,$$

$$B'(x) = g(x)\cos(x),$$

$$B(0) = 0.$$

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This implies

$$A(x) = A(0) + \int_0^x A'(t) dt = 1 - \int_0^x g(t) \sin(t) dt,$$

$$B(x) = B(0) + \int_0^x B'(t) dt = 0 + \int_0^x g(t) \cos(t) dt.$$

Hence

$$f(x) = \cos(x) - \int_0^x g(t)\sin(t) dt \cos(x) + \int_0^x g(t)\cos(t) dt \sin(x)$$

$$= \cos(x) + \int_0^x (\underbrace{\sin(x)\cos(t) - \sin(t)\cos(x)}_{=\sin(x-t)})g(t) dt$$

$$= \cos(x) + \int_0^x \sin(x-t)g(t) dt \qquad (*).$$

Check that f(x) in (*) satisfies the PDE.

special case:

Assume for $x \in I$

$$g(x) = k(x)f(x).$$

Here k is a known continous function on I. Insert this in (*). We obtain

$$f(x) = \cos(x) + \int_0^x \sin(x - t)k(t)f(t) dt, \qquad x \in I \qquad (**).$$

Observe that f appears both in LHS and RHS. (**) is a reformulation of the PDE with g=kf. Pick a continous function in I. call it f_0 . Set

$$f_1(x) = \cos(x) + \int_0^x \sin(x - t)k(t)f_0(t) dt,$$

$$f_2(x) = \cos(x) + \int_0^x \sin(x - t)k(t)f_1(t) dt,$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$f_{n+1}(x) = \cos(x) + \int_0^x \sin(x - t)k(t)f_n(t) dt, \qquad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

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Hope:

 f_n tends to some continous function f on I, denoted $f_n \to f$. 'Tends to' has to be more precis!

$$f_{n+1}(x) = \cos(x) + \int_0^x \sin(x-t)k(t)f_n(t) dt$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \downarrow$$

$$f(x) = \cos(x) + \int_0^x \sin(x-t)k(t)f(t) dt$$

for $x \in I$. Simplify notation set for $v \in C(I)$

$$\begin{cases} u(x) &= \cos(x) \\ kv(x) &= \int_0^x \sin(x-t)k(t)v(t) dt \end{cases}.$$

We have $f_0 \in C(I)$, $f_{n+1} = u + kf_n$ for n = 0, 1, 2, ... (!) Facts from previous calculus classes:

Definition (Sequenze of continous functions).

$$v_n \in C(I), \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

We say that $(v_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges uniformly in I if

$$\max_{x \in I} |v_n(x) - v_m(x)| \to 0, \qquad n, m \to \infty,$$

i.e.

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N : \forall n, m \ge N : \max_{x \in I} |v_n(x) - v_m(x)| < \varepsilon.$$

Lemma . Suppose that $(v_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ converges uniformly on I. then there exists $v \in C(I)$ such that

$$\max_{x \in I} |v_m(x) - v(x)| \to 0 \qquad \text{ as } m \to \infty.$$

Back to (!):

More Notation:

$$k(kv) = k^2 v, \qquad v \in C(I)$$

and

$$k^{n+1}v = k(k^n v), \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

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We have

$$f_0 \in C(I)$$

$$f_1 = u + kf_0$$
 and
$$f_2 = u + kf_1 = u + k(u + kf_0)$$

and so on. Note that

$$k(v+w) = kv + kw.$$

Then

$$f_2 = u + k(u + kf_0) = k + ku + k(kf_0) = u + ku + k^2 f_0$$

$$f_3 = u + kf_2 = u + ku + k^2 u + k^3 f_0$$

and in general for $n = 1, 2, \dots$

$$f_n = ku + \ldots + k^{n-1}u + k^n f_0, \qquad n = 1, 2, \ldots$$

Assume n > m then

$$f_n - f_m = k^m u + \dots + k^{n-1} u + k^n f_0 - k^m f_0.$$

Set for $v \in C(I)$

$$||v|| = \max_{x \in I} |v(x)|.$$

Note

$$||v + w|| \le ||v|| + ||w||$$
 for $v, w \in C(I)$

and

$$||-v|| = ||v||.$$

We have

$$||f_n - f_m|| = ||k^m u + \dots + k^{n-1} u + k^n f_0 - k^m f_0||$$

$$\leq ||k^m u|| + \dots + ||k^{n-1} u|| + ||k^n f_0|| + ||-k^m f_0||.$$

Assumption:

$$\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \left\| k^l v \right\| < \infty \qquad \text{for all } v \in C(I) \qquad (***).$$

Under this assumption

$$\|f_n - f_m\| \to 0$$
 as $n, m \to \infty$

since

$$\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \left\| k^l u \right\| < \infty \qquad (u(x) = \cos(x))$$

$$\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \left\| k^l f_0 \right\| < \infty \qquad (f_0 \in C(I)).$$



Conclusion: $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges uniformly on I. By lemma above there exists $f \in C(I)$ such that

$$\max_{x \in I} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty,$$

i.e.

$$||f_n - f|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

'Back hope': f_n tends to f, denoted $f_n \to f$ shall be interpretated as

$$||f_n - f|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

Remember

$$f_{n+1}(x) = u(x) + kf_n(x) \to ?.$$

For $x \in I$ there is

$$|kf_{n}(x) - kf(x)| = \left| \int_{0}^{x} \sin(x - t)k(t)f_{n}(t) dt - \int_{0}^{x} \sin(x - t)k(t)f(t) dt \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{0}^{x} |\sin(x - t)k(t)| \underbrace{\left| f_{n}(t) - f(t) \right|}_{\leq \|f_{n} - f\|} dt$$

$$\leq \int_{0}^{x} |\sin(x - t)k(t)| dt \|f_{n} - f\|.$$

In particular

$$||kf_n - kf|| \le \max_{x \in I} \int_0^x \underbrace{|\sin(x - t)|}_{\max_{t \in I} |k(t)| < \infty} \underbrace{|k(t)|}_{\max_{t \in I} |k(t)| < \infty} dt ||f_n - f||$$

$$\le ||k|| ||f_n - f||.$$

We have, provided (***) holds, shown

$$f_{n+1} = u + kf_n$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$f = u + kf.$$

Let us try to prove (***). For $v \in C(I)$ arbitrary and for $x \in I$

$$||kv(x)|| = |\int_0^x \sin(x-t)k(t)v(t) dt|$$

$$\leq \int_0^x \underbrace{|\sin(x-t)||k(t)|}_{\leq 1} |v(t)| dt$$

$$\leq \int_0^x \underbrace{|v(t)|}_{\leq ||v||} dt ||k||$$

$$\leq ||k|| ||v||x.$$

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In particular

$$||kv|| \le ||k|| ||v||$$

and

$$|k^{2}v(x)| \leq \int_{0}^{x} |kv(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t \|k\|$$

$$\leq \int_{0}^{x} \|k\| \|v\| t \, \mathrm{d}t \cdot \|k\|$$

$$= \|k\|^{2} \|v\| \frac{x^{2}}{2}.$$

In particular

$$||k^2v|| \le ||k||^2 ||v|| \frac{1}{2}.$$

By induction we get

$$|k^n v(x)| \le ||k||^n ||v|| \frac{x^m}{m!}$$
 $x \in I$
 $||k^n v|| \le ||k||^n ||v|| \frac{1}{n!}.$

So

$$\begin{split} \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} & \left\| k^{l} v \right\| \leq \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \|k\|^{l} \|v\| \frac{1}{l!} \\ &= \|v\| \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \frac{\|k\|^{l}}{l!} \\ &\leq \|v\| e^{\|k\|} < \infty. \end{split}$$

Consider Taylor expansion. \Rightarrow (***) holds true. We have now shown that f = u + kf where $u(x) = \cos(x)$ and

$$kv = \int_0^x \sin(x - t)k(t)v(t) dt.$$

 $x \in I$ for $v \in C(I)$, has a solution $f \in C(I)$.

Question:

Is the solution unique?

Assume $f, \tilde{f} \in C(I)$ such that f = u + kf and $\tilde{f} = u + k\tilde{f}$. Set

$$v = f - \tilde{f} \in C(I)$$

$$\Rightarrow v = (u + kf) - (u + k\tilde{f})$$

$$= kf - k\tilde{f}$$

$$= k(f - \tilde{f})$$

$$= kv.$$



We have v = kv, implies that $kv = k(kv) = k^2v$. So for n = 1, 2, ...

$$v = kv = k^2v = \dots = k^nv.$$

We know

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lVert k^n \hat{v} \rVert < \infty \qquad \text{for all } \hat{v} \in C(I).$$

Apply this to $\hat{v} = v$:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{\|k^n v\|}_{=\|v\|} < \infty.$$

So $\|v\|=0$ with implies v(x)=0 for all $x\in I$. So we have $f(x)=\tilde{f}(x)$ for $x\in I$. \Rightarrow Answer to the question above: YES!

We have more or less proved the following theorem:

Theorem 1.1. Set I = [0,1]. Suppose $u \in C(I)$ and $k \in C(I \times I)$. Consider

$$f(x) = u(x) + \int_0^x k(x,t)f(t) dt, \qquad x \in I$$
 (1).

Then (1) has a unique solution $f \in C(I)$

With the same technology we can prove:

Theorem 1.2. Set I=[0,1]. Suppose $u\in C(I)$, $k\in C(I\times I)$ and $\max_{(x,t)\in I\times I}|k(x,t)|<1$. Consider

$$f(x) = u(x) + \int_0^1 k(x, t)f(t) dt, \qquad x \in I$$
 (2).

Then (2) has a unique solution $f \in C(I)$.

Different notions: see introductional example.

Definition (vector space). C(I) with the operations for $x \in I$:

addition
$$v, w \in C(I)$$
: $(v+w)(x) = v(x) + w(x)$,

mult. by scalar
$$v \in C(I)$$
, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$: $(\lambda v)(x) = \lambda v(x)$.

Note that $v + w, \lambda v \in C(I)$.

Definition (norm). Norm on C(I) for instance

$$||v|| = \max_{x \in I} |v(x)|$$

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with norm given we can talk about convergence and continuity.

Definition (Cauchy sequence). In our example a sequence $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is called Cauchy sequence if $||f_n - f_m|| \to 0$ for $n, m \to \infty$.

Definition . $\ C(I)$ with the max-norm. Lemma above says that every Cauchy sequence converges i.e.

$$||v_n - v_m|| \to 0, \qquad n, m \to \infty.$$

This applies

$$\exists v \in C(I) : ||v_n - v|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

This is the defining property of a Banach space.

K linear mapping $C(I) \rightarrow C(I)$ with

$$K(v + w) = K(v) + K(w)$$
$$K(\lambda v) = \lambda K(v)$$

for $v, w \in C(I)$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

K bounded linear:

$$||Kv|| \le M||v|| \quad \forall v \in C(I),$$

where M > 0 independent of v.

Definition (operator norm). Define

$$||K|| := \inf\{M > 0 \mid ||Kv|| \le M||v|| \text{ for all } v \in C(I)\}.$$

fixed point results:

Our example: f = u + kf =: T(f) and $f_0 \in C(I)$ fixed.

Form sequence of iterants $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $f_n = T(f_{n-1})$, n = 1, 2, ... if

$$||T(v) - T(w)|| \le c||v - w||$$

for all $v,w\in C(I)$ for some c<1. Then there is a unique $v\in C(I)$ such that v=T(v). This is Banach's fixed point theorem.

Definition (Green's function). Our example:

$$L = \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)^2 + 1$$

differential operator. Boundary conditions

$$f(0) = f'(0) = 0.$$

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Then

$$f(x) = \int_0^1 g(x, t)h(t) dt$$

is a solution to

$$\begin{cases} f'' + f &= h, \\ f(0) = f'(0) &= 0. \end{cases}$$

Definition (real vector space). We say that E is a real vector space if it is a non-empty set with the operations

addition $E \times E \to E$, $(x,y) \mapsto x + y$

mult. with scalar $\mathbb{R} \times E \to E$, $(\lambda, x) \mapsto \lambda x$

satisfying the axioms:

(1) x + y = y + x, for all $x, y \in E$,

(2) x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z, for all $x, y, z \in E$,

(3) For all $x, y \in E$ there exists $z \in E$ such that x + z = y,

(4) $\alpha(\beta x) = (\alpha \cdot \beta)x$, for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, x \in E$,

(5) $\alpha(x+y) = \alpha x + \alpha y$, for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, x, y \in E$,

(6) $(\alpha + \beta)x = \alpha x + \beta x$, for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, x \in E$,

(7) $1 \cdot x = x$, for all $x \in E$.

Remark. E is a complex vector space if all \mathbb{R} in the definition above are replaced by \mathbb{C} .

Remark. (1)

$$\exists \, ! 0 \in E : \qquad x + 0 = x \qquad \text{ for all } x \in E.$$

Since: Fix $x \in E$, by (3), $\exists 0_x$ such that $0_x + x = x$.

Fix $y \in E$. We want to show that $y + 0_y = y$. By (3), there exists $z \in E$ such that x + z = y. So

$$y + 0_x = (x + z) + 0_x$$

$$\stackrel{(1)}{=} (z + x) + 0_x$$

$$\stackrel{(2)}{=} z + (x + 0_x)$$

$$= z + x$$

$$\stackrel{(1)}{=} x + z$$

$$= y.$$



Assume $x + 0_1 = x$, $x + 0_2 = x$ for all $x \in E$. We want to show $0_1 = 0_2$:

$$0_1 = 0_1 + 0_2 = 0_2 + 0_1 = 0_2$$

(2)

$$\forall x \in E : \exists ! -x \in E : x + (-x) = 0.$$

proof: exercise.

(3)

$$0x = 0$$
 for all $x \in E$
$$(-1)x = -x$$
 for all $x \in E$.

Examples (Examples of real vector spaces). 1) \mathbb{R} with standard addition and mult. by scalar.

2)
$$\mathbb{R}^n$$
, $n=2,3,\ldots$
addition $(x_1,x_2,\ldots)+(y_1,y_2,\ldots)=(x_1+y_1,x_2+y_2,\ldots)$
mult. $\lambda(x_1,x_2,\ldots)=(\lambda x_1,\lambda x_2,\ldots)$

3)
$$\mathbb{R}^{\infty} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots) \mid x_n \in \mathbb{R}, n = 1, 2, \dots \}$$

4) $1 \le p < \infty$,

$$l^p = \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots) \in \mathbb{R}^{\infty} \left| \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty \right. \right\}$$

with the same addition and mult. by scalar as in \mathbb{R}^{∞} . We have to check:

(1)
$$x, y \in l^p$$
 \Rightarrow $x + y \in l^p$

(2)
$$x \in l^p, \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \implies \lambda x \in l^p$$
.

For (1) we assume $x=(x_1,\ldots,x_n,\ldots)$ and $y=(y_1,\ldots,y_n,\ldots)$.

$$x \in l^p$$
 \Rightarrow $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p < \infty$
 $y \in l^p$ \Rightarrow $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^p < \infty$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x+y=(x_1+y_1,\ldots)\stackrel{?}{\in} l^p?$$



$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p \le \{|x_n + y_n| \le |x_n| + |y_n| \le 2 \max\{|x_n|, |y_n|\}\}$$

$$\{|x_n + y_n|^p \le 2^p (|x_n|^p + |y_n|^p)\}$$

$$\le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^p (|x_n|^p + |y_n|^p)$$

$$= 2^p \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p + 2^p \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^p < \infty$$

and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\lambda x_n|^p = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\lambda|^p \cdot |x_n|^p = |\lambda|^p \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p < \infty.$$

5) Function spaces, say real-valued functions on I.

addition: $(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x), \qquad x \in I$

mult. by scalar: $(\lambda f)(x) = \lambda f(x)$ for functions f and g

- 6) C(I): addition and mult. by scalar as in (5). f,g continuous in I implies that f+g is continuous in I. Also if f is continuous and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ then (λf) is continuous in I.
- 7) P(I) = polynomials in I.
- 8) $P_k(I) = \text{polynomials of degree at most } k \text{ in } I.$

Theorem 1.3 (Hölder's inequality). Assume $1 and <math>\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$. Let (x_1,\ldots,x_n,\ldots) and $(y_1,y_2,\ldots,y_n,\ldots)$ be sequences of complex numbers. Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n y_n| \le \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdot \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

Remark there the LHS can be infinity, but the RHS can also be infinity.

proof. Step 1 We're going to proof

$$ab \le \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}, \qquad \text{for all } a, b > 0.$$

$$\int_0^a x^{p-1} \, \mathrm{d}x = \frac{a^p}{p}.$$

Note $y = x^{p-1}$ gives

$$x = y^{\frac{1}{p-1}} = y^{\frac{1}{\frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{q}}-1}} = y^{\frac{1}{\frac{q}{q-1}-1}} = y^{q-1}$$

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SO

$$\int_0^b y^{q-1} \, \mathrm{d}y = \frac{b^q}{q}.$$

We get

$$ab \le \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}.$$

(You also get condition for =)

Step 2 It is enough to consider the cases LHS > 0 and RHS $< \infty$. There exists an integer N such that

$$0 < \sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_n|^p, \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n|^q < \infty.$$

Set

$$a = \frac{|x_k|}{\left(\sum_{n=1}^N |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}}, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

$$b = \frac{|y_k|}{\left(\sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}}, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

Insert into

$$ab \leq \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}.$$

$$\frac{|x_k y_k|}{\left(\sum_{n=1}^N |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}} \leq \frac{|x_k|^p}{p \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n|^p} + \frac{|y_k|^q}{q \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q}, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

We sum over k from 1 to N:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} |x_k y_k| \le \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdot \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

Let $N \to \infty$. First in RHS and then in LHS.

Theorem 1.4 (Minkowski's inequality). Assume $1 \le p < \infty$. and $X, Y \in l^p$. Then

$$||X + Y||_{l^p} \le ||X||_{l^p} + ||Y||_{l^p}.$$

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proof. p=1:

$$||X + Y||_{l^{1}} = ||(x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots, x_{n}, \dots) + (y_{1}, y_{2}, \dots, y_{n}, \dots)||_{l^{1}}$$

$$= ||(x_{1} + y_{1}, \dots, x_{n} + y_{n}, \dots)||_{l^{1}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_{n} + y_{n}|$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (|x_{n}| + |y_{n}|)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_{n}| + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_{n}|$$

$$= ||X||_{l^{1}} + ||Y||_{l^{1}}$$

1 :

$$||X + Y||_{l^p}^p = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n| |x_n + y_n|^{p-1}$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n| |x_n + y_n|^{p-1} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n| |x_n + y_n|^{p-1}.$$

Use Hölder to get

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n| |x_n + y_n|^{p-1} \le \underbrace{\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}}_{=\|X\|_{l^p}} \cdot \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^{(p-1)q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

$$= \left\{ (p-1)q = (p-1)\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p}} = p \right\}$$

$$= \|X\|_{l^p} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

We have

$$||X + Y||_{l^p}^p \le (||X||_{l^p} + ||Y||_{l^p}) ||X + Y||_{l^p}^{\frac{p}{q}}.$$

If $||X + Y||_{l^p} \neq 0$ then

$$||X + Y||_{l^p}^{p - \frac{p}{q}} \le ||X||_{l^p} + ||Y||_{l^p}$$

there

$$p - \frac{p}{q} = p(1 - \frac{1}{q}) = p\frac{1}{p} = 1.$$

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Remark. $f \in C([0,1])$ then for $1 \le p < \infty$

$$||f||_{L^p} = \left(\int_0^1 |f(t)|^p dt\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

Claim:

$$\|fq\|_{L^1} = \int_0^1 |f(t)\cdot g(t)| \,\mathrm{d}t \leq \|f\|_{L^p} \cdot \|g\|_{L^q},$$

where $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$. Also we have

$$||f + q||_{L_p} \le ||f||_{L_p} + ||g||_{L_p}.$$

This is proven with the same technique as we used for l^p . $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is replaced by $\int_0^1 \mathrm{d}t$. E real/complex vector space. $x_1,\ldots,x_n\in E$, $\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_n$ scalar. We say that

$$\lambda_1 x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n x_n$$

is a linear combination of x_1, \ldots, x_n . We say that x_1, \ldots, x_n are linear independent if

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n x_n = 0$$
 \Rightarrow $\alpha_1 = \ldots = \alpha_n = 0.$

If $A \subset E$, we say that A is linear independant if every linear combination of vectors in A is linear independent.

Examples. (1) Set E=P([0,1]) and $A=\left\{p_k\,\middle|\, p_k(x)=x^k, x\in[0,1], k=0,1,\ldots\right\}$. A is linear independant since:

Consider

$$\alpha_0 p_0 + \alpha_1 p_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n p_n = 0,$$

i.e.

$$\alpha_0 p_0(x) + \alpha_1 p_1(x) + \ldots + \alpha_n p_n(x) = 0(x), \qquad x \in [0, 1],$$

i.e.

$$\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \ldots + \alpha_n x^n = 0, \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

If x = 0 then $\alpha_0 = 0$

$$\alpha_1 x + \ldots + \alpha_n x^n = 0, \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

Differentiate

$$\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 x + \ldots + n\alpha_n x^{n-1} = 0$$

gives $\alpha_1 = 0$. Continue and get

$$\alpha_0 = \alpha_1 = \ldots = \alpha_n = 0.$$

Set $B \subset E$ where

 $\operatorname{span} B = \{ \text{set of all linear combinations of elements in B} \}$

$$= \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{n} lambda_k x_k \,\middle|\, x_k \in B, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{R}, k = 1, 2, \dots, n \text{ where n is a positive integer} \right\}.$$



Remark.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_k x_k \in E,$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k x_k$$
 has no meaning.

 $C \subset E$ is called a basis for E if

- 1) C linear independent,
- 2) span C = E.

Continue of the example above:

Claim: A is a basis for E.

(2) Set $E=l^2$ and

$$A = \{X_k \mid k = 1, 2, \ldots\},\$$

$$X_k = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, 0, \dots).$$

Claim: A is linear independent since

$$\alpha_1 X_1 + \alpha_2 X_2 + \ldots + \alpha_n X_n = 0.$$

Here

$$\alpha_1 X_1 = (\alpha_1, 0, 0, \ldots), etc$$

and

$$0 = (0, 0, \ldots).$$

So

$$(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n, 0, \dots) = (0, 0, \dots).$$

So $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \ldots = \alpha_n = 0$.

Question: Is A a basis for l^2 ? We note: If $X \in \operatorname{span} A$ then

$$X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, 0, 0, \dots)$$

for some positive integer n, i.e. X has only finitely many nonzero positions. Consider:

$$X := (1, \frac{1}{2}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots),$$

$$||X||_{l^2} = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} < \infty.$$

So $X \in l^2 \setminus \operatorname{span} A$.



Remark. Every vector space has a basis (if we are allowed to use Axiom of Choice/ zorns lemma).

Basis = vector space basis = Hamel basis

Assume x_1, \ldots, x_n is a basis for E. Then every basis for E must contain n different elements.

$$n = \dim E$$

is well-defined. (System of linear equations, homogeneous with more unknowns than equations. Then there exists a nontrivial solution.)

2 Normed Spaces and Banach Spaces

Definition (norm). E vector space. We say that $\|.\|:E\to[0,\infty)$ is a norm on E if

1)
$$||x|| = 0$$
 $\Rightarrow x = 0$,

2)
$$\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$$
 for all $x \in E, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$,

3)
$$||x+y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$$
 for all $x, y \in E$.

Remark.

$$||0|| = ||0 \cdot 0|| = \underbrace{|0|}_{=0} ||0|| = 0.$$

Examples. (1) 1 and

$$||X||_{l^p} = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

is a norm on l^p . Check 1),2) and 3) above:

1)
$$0 = ||X||_{l^p} = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

It follows

$$x_n = 0,$$
 $n = 1, 2, ...,$
 $\Rightarrow X = (x_1, x_2, ...) = (0, 0, ...) = 0.$

2)
$$\|\lambda X\|_{l^p} = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\lambda x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \left(|\lambda|^p \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = |\lambda| \|X\|_{l^p}$$



3)

$$\|X+Y\|_{l^p} \leq \{ \text{Minkowski's inequality} \} \leq \|X\|_{l^p} + \|Y\|_{l^p}$$

(2) E = C([0,1]) and $f \in E$

$$||f|| = \max_{t \in [0,1]} |f(t)| \in [0,\infty).$$

Check the axioms above

1) If ||f|| = 0 it follows

$$|f(t)| = 0$$
 for all $t \in [0, 1]$, $\Rightarrow f = 0$

2)

$$\|\lambda f\| = \max_{t \in [0,1]} \underbrace{|\underbrace{(\lambda f)(t)}_{\lambda f(t)}|}_{|\lambda||f(t)|} = |\lambda| \max_{t \in [0,1]} |f(t)| = |\lambda| \|f\|$$

3)

$$\|f+g\| = \max_{t \in [0,1]} |\underbrace{(f+g)(t)}_{f(t)+g(t)}| = \max_{t \in [0,1]} \left(|f(t)| + |g(t)|\right) \leq \max_{t \in [0,1]} |f(t)| + \max_{t \in [0,1]} |g(t)| = \|f\| + \|g\|$$

(3) E = C([0,1]) and $f \in E$.

$$||f||_{L^1} = \int_0^1 |f(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t$$

defines also a norm on E.

3)

$$\begin{split} \|f+g\|_{L^{1}} &= \int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{|(f+g)(t)|}_{f(t)+g(t)} \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &\leq \int_{0}^{1} (|f(t)|+|g(t)|) \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &= \int_{0}^{1} |f(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t + \int_{0}^{1} |g(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &= \|f\|_{L^{1}} + \|g\|_{L^{1}} \end{split}$$

2)

$$\|\lambda f\| = \int_0^1 \underbrace{|(\lambda f)(t)|}_{=|\lambda||f(t)|} dt = |\lambda| \|f\|_{L^1}$$

1)

$$0 = ||f||_{L^1} = \int_0^1 |f(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t$$

This implies f(t) = 0 for $t \in [0, 1]$ since f is continuous! i.e. f = 0.



Theorem 2.1 (equivalent norm). E vector space with norms $\|.\|$ and $\|.\|_*$. We say that $\|.\|$ and $\|.\|_*$ are equivalent if there exists $\alpha, \beta > 0$ such that

$$\alpha \|x\|_{\star} \le \|x\| \le \beta \|x\|_{\star}$$
 for all $x \in E$.

Example.

E = C([0,1]). Choose y = f(t) and y = |f(t)|

$$\|f\| = \max_{t \in [0,1]} \lvert f(t) \rvert, \qquad \|f\|_* = \|f\|_{L^1} = \mathsf{area}.$$

Question: Are these norms equivalent?

Claim: $f \in C([0,1])$

$$||f||_* = \int_0^1 \underbrace{|f(t)|}_{\leq ||f||} dt \leq ||f||.$$

Choose $f_n(t)$ such that

$$||f_n|| = 1, \qquad ||f_n||_* = \frac{1}{2n}.$$

So

$$\frac{\|f_n\|_*}{\|f_n\|} = \frac{1}{2n} \to 0 \qquad n \to \infty.$$

The norms are not equivalent! Answer: NO!

Theorem 2.2. E vector space with $\dim E < \infty$.

 \Rightarrow All norms on E are equivalent.

proof. Assume $n=\dim E$ with a positive integer n. Let x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n be a basis for E. For every $x\in E$

$$x = \alpha_1(x)x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n(x)x_n,$$

where $\alpha_1(x), \ldots, \alpha_n(x)$ unique. Set

$$||x||_{*} = |\alpha_{1}(x)| + \ldots + |\alpha_{n}(x)|, \quad x \in E$$

Claim: $\|.\|_*$ defines a norm on E (easy proof)

Fix an arbitrary norm $\|.\|$ on E.

Claim: $\|.\|_{*}$ and $\|.\|$ are equivalent.

Note for $x \in E$

$$||x|| = ||\alpha_1(x)x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n(x)x_n||$$

$$\leq |\alpha_1(x)|||x_1|| + \ldots + |\alpha_n(x)|||x_n||$$

$$\leq \max_{k=1,2,\ldots,n} ||x_k|| (\underbrace{|\alpha_1(x)| + \ldots + |\alpha_n(x)|}_{=||x||_*}).$$



Set
$$\beta = \max_{k=1,2,\dots,n} ||x_k||$$
.

Then

$$||x|| \le \beta ||x||_*$$
 for all $x \in E$.

Remains to prove: There exists $\alpha>0$ such that

$$\|\alpha\|x\|_* \le \|x\|$$
 for all $x \in E$ (*).

Let E be a vector space with norm $\|.\|$ and $(v_m)_{m=1}^\infty$ a sequence in E. We say that $(v_m)_{m=1}^\infty$ converges in $(E,\|.\|)$ if there exists $v\in E$ such that $\|v_m-v\|\to 0$ for $n\to\infty$. Notation: $v_m\to v$ in $(E,\|.\|)$.

Note: If we have $\|.\|$ and $\|.\|_*$ are equivalent, then

$$v_n \to v \text{ in } (E, \|.\|) \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad v_n \to v \text{ in } (E, \|.\|_*).$$

Back to (*): Argue by contradiction. Assume there is no $\alpha>0$ such that

 $\alpha \|x\|_* \leq \|x\|$ for all $x \in E$.

For $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ there are $y_k \in E$ such that

$$\frac{1}{k} ||y_k||_* > ||y_k||. \qquad (**).$$

We have

$$y_k = \alpha_1^{(k)} x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n^{(k)} x_n,$$

where $\alpha_1^{(k)},\dots,\alpha_n^{(k)}$ are unique scalars and $k=1,2,\dots$ (**) implies that

$$k||y_k|| < |\alpha_1^{(k)}| + \ldots + |\alpha_n^{(k)}|,$$

WLOG we can assume $|lpha_1^{(k)}|+\ldots+|lpha_n^{(k)}|=1.$ (If not consider

$$\lambda z = \lambda(\alpha_1(z)x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n(z)x_n)$$

= $(\lambda \alpha_1(z))x_1 + \ldots + (\lambda \alpha_n(z))x_n$
= $\alpha_1(\lambda z)x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n(\lambda z)x_n$.

We have

$$\alpha_k(\lambda z) = \lambda \alpha_k(z), \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots, n).$$

We have

$$k||y_k|| < 1$$
 $k = 1, 2, \dots$

which implies $y_k \to 0$ in (E, ||.||).

IF:

$$\alpha_1^{(k)} \to \bar{\alpha_1}$$

$$\alpha_2^{(k)} \to \bar{\alpha_2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\alpha_n^{(k)} \to \bar{\alpha_n}$$



for $k \to \infty$. Then set

$$\bar{y} = \bar{\alpha_1}x_1 + \ldots + \bar{\alpha_n}x_n$$

and get

$$||y_k - \bar{y}|| = \left\| (\alpha_1^{(k)} - \bar{\alpha_1})x_1 + \ldots + (\alpha_n^{(k)} - \bar{\alpha_n})x_n \right\|$$

$$\leq \underbrace{|\alpha_1^{(k)} - \bar{\alpha_1}| ||x_1||}_{\to 0} + \ldots + \underbrace{|\alpha_n^{(k)} - \bar{\alpha_n}| ||x_n||}_{\to 0} \to 0, \qquad k \to \infty$$

$$||\bar{y}|| = ||\bar{y} - y_k + y_k|| \leq \underbrace{\bar{y} - y_k}_{\to 0} + \underbrace{||y_k||}_{\to 0} \to 0, \qquad k \to \infty.$$

So $\|\bar{y}\|=0$ hence $\bar{y}=0$. But

$$|\bar{\alpha_1}| + |\bar{\alpha_2}| + \ldots + |\bar{\alpha_n}| = 1.$$

This contradicts x_1, \ldots, x_n is a basis.

We have for $k=1,2,\ldots$ the vector $(\alpha_1^{(k)},\alpha_2^{(k)},\ldots,\alpha_n^{(k)})$ where

$$|\alpha_1^{(k)}| + \ldots + |\alpha_n^{(k)}| = 1.$$

We focus on the first one and we have

$$|\alpha_1^{(k)}| \le 1, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

By Bolzano-Weierstraß then there exists a converging subsequence $(\alpha_{1,1}^{(k)})_{k=1}^\infty$ of $(\alpha_1^{(k)})_{k=1}^\infty$. Set

$$\bar{\alpha_1} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_{1,1}^{(k)}$$

and consider

$$(\alpha_{1,1}^{(k)}, \alpha_{2,1}^{(k)}, \dots, \alpha_{n,1}^{(k)}), \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

We have

$$|\alpha_{2,1}^{(k)}| \le 1, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots.$$

Bolzano-Weierstraß implies that there exists a converging subsequenz $(\alpha_{2,2}^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ of $(\alpha_{2,1}^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$. Set

$$\bar{\alpha_2} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_{2,2}^{(k)}.$$

Definition (normed space). Let E be a vector space over $\mathbb R$ or $\mathbb C$. $\|.\|:E\to\mathbb R$ a norm on E if

(i)
$$\|x\| > 0$$
 for any $x \in E \setminus \{0\}$,

(ii)
$$\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda x|$$
 for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}, x \in E$,

(iii)
$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$$
 for any $x, y \in E$.

Obs. ||x|| = 0 if x = 0. (E, ||.||) is called a normed space. A norm generates a distance



function (metric)

$$L(x,y) := \|x-y\| \qquad \text{ for any } x,y \in E.$$

Examples. • \mathbb{R}^n with $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2}$ is the eukledian norm.

• C([0,1]) continuous functions in [0,1] with

$$L(f,g) = \|f - g\|_{\infty} := \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x) - g(x)|$$

Definition (balls). Let $x \in E$, r > 0. Define

$$B(x,r) := \{ y \in E \, | \, \|x-y\| < r \}$$
 open ball, $ar{B}(x,r) := \{ y \in E \, | \, \|x-y\| \le r \}$ closed ball.

Definition (open/closed). A subset $A \subset E$ of a normed space $(E, \|.\|)$ is called open of any point x of A is inner, i.e

$$\exists r > 0 : B(x,r) \subset A$$
.

It is called <u>closed</u> if the complement $E \setminus A$ is open.

Remark. • open balls are open sets.

- · closed balls are closed.
- $(C([0,1]),\|.\|_{\infty})$ with $\|f\|_{\infty}=\max_{x\in[0,1]}|f(x)|.$

$$A := \{g \in C([0,1])\} | f(x) < g(x), \forall x \in [0,1]$$

is an open set C([0,1]).

$$B := \{ g \in C([0,1]) \} | f(x) \le g(x), \, \forall \, x \in [0,1]$$

is a closed set.

Properties

- Any union of open sets is an open set.
- Any finite intersection of open sets is open.
- \emptyset , E are both closed and open.
- · Normed spaces are topological spaces.



Definition (convergence in normed spaces). Let (E, ||.||) be a normed space $\{x_n\}_n \subset E$. We say that x_n converges to $x \in E$ if

$$||x_n - x|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

One can define open and closed using the definition of convergence:

Statement 2.3. $A \subseteq E$ is closed if any convergent sequence in A has a limit in A, i.e

$$for \underset{x_n \in A}{n \to \infty} \Rightarrow x \in A.$$

proof. \Rightarrow : Assume that A is closed and $x_n \to x$. $x_n \in A$, but $x_n \notin A$. (try to get a contradiction).

A is closed $\Rightarrow E \setminus A$ is open and hence $\exists r > 0$ such that

$$B(x,r) \subset E \setminus A$$
.

Hence $||x_n - x|| \ge r$ for any n. This is a contradiction because in that case $x_n \not\to x$.

 \Leftarrow : Assume that for any sequence $\{x_n\} \subset A$ such that $x_n \to x$ we have $x \in A$. We try to get a contradiction and assume that A is not closed. Hence $E \setminus A$ is not open and therefore $\exists x \in E \setminus A$ which is not inner.

$$\Rightarrow \forall B(x, \frac{1}{n})$$
 containts points outside $E \setminus A$,

i.e.

$$\exists x_n \in B(x, \frac{1}{n}), x_n \in A.$$

We get a sequence $\{x_n\} \subset A$ such that

$$||x_n - x|| < \frac{1}{n} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x_n \to x.$$

This is a contradiction.

Definition (closure). $A \subset E$. The closure of A is the minimal closed subset containing A. We write \bar{A} .

Proposition 2.4. \bar{A} is the set of all limit points of A which means

$$\bar{A} := \{x \in E \mid \text{there exists } \{x_n\} \subseteq A \text{ such that } x_n \to x\}.$$

proof. Exercise.



Definition (dense). $A \subset E$ is dense in E if

$$\bar{A} = E$$
.

Remark. This definition of dense is equivalent to the following definition:

$$\forall x \in E, \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists y \in A \text{ such that } ||x - y|| < \varepsilon.$$

Examples. 1) $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ with |.| usual absolut value function. \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} .

2) C([a,b]). The <u>Weierstraß-Theorem</u> says that the set of all polynomials are dense in $(C([a,b],\|.\|_{\infty}))$:

$$\forall\, f\in C([a,b]),\, \forall\, \varepsilon>0\, \exists\, p-\text{polynomial such that } \max_{x\in[a,b]} |f(x)-p(x)|<\varepsilon.$$

Another example is $(C_0, \|.\|_{\infty})$ where

$$C_0 = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots) \mid x_k \to 0 \text{ as } k \to \infty\},$$

$$\|x\|_{\infty} = \sup_i |x_i|.$$

 $(C_0, \|.\|_{\infty})$ is a normed space.

$$C_F = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \mid \text{only a finite number of } x_i \neq 0\} \subset C_0.$$

Statement 2.5. C_F is dense in C_0 .

proof.

$$\begin{split} \forall\, x \in C_0 \,\forall\, \varepsilon > 0 \text{ must find } y \in C_F \text{ such that } \|y - x\|_\infty < \varepsilon. \\ x \in C_0 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x_k \to 0 \text{ for } k \to \infty \\ \Rightarrow \qquad \forall\, \varepsilon > 0 \,\exists\, K \text{ such that } |x_k| < \varepsilon \,\forall\, k \ge K. \end{split}$$

Let now $y=(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_K,0,\ldots)\in C_F$. Then

$$||x - y||_{\infty} = ||(0, 0, \dots, 0, x_{K+1}, x_{K+2}, \dots)||_{\infty} = \sup_{k > K} |x_k| < \varepsilon.$$

Definition (separable). A normed space $(E, \|.\|)$ is called <u>separable</u> if it contains a countable dense subset.

Examples. • $(\mathbb{R}, |.|)$ is separable as \mathbb{Q} is countable and dense in \mathbb{R} .

• $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|.\|_2)$ is separable, \mathbb{Q}^n is countable and dense in \mathbb{R} .



Definition (compact set). For a normed space (E, ||.||) is $A \subset E$ a compact set if any sequence $\{x_n\} \subset A$ has a subsequence convergent to an element $x \in A$.

Example. Any bounded and closed subset in $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}^n$ is compact. A sequence $\{x_n\}$ of a bounded set is bounded. From real Analysis one knows it has a subsequence that is convergent. If the subset is closed then the limit point is inside the set.

Lemma . $S\subset \text{compact in }(E,\|.\|)$ implies that S is closed and bounded. (Bounded means that $S\subset B(0,R)$ for some R>0).

proof. Let S be a compact subset of E. Assume that S is not bounded. Hence for any n > 0 there exists points in S which are outside B(0, n), i.e.

$$\exists x_n \in S : ||x_n|| > n.$$

Then $\{x_n\}$ can not have a convergent subsequence as if $x_{n_k} \to x$ then

$$n_k < ||x_{n_k}|| = ||x_{n_k} - x + x|| \le ||x_{n_k} - x|| + ||x|| \to ||x||$$

but $n_k \to \infty$. This is a contradiction, hence S must be bounded.

S must be closed, because if $x_n \to x$ then any subsequence converges to x. From the definition of compactness and uniqueness of the limit we have $x \in S$.

Remark. In general, S bounded and closed doesn't imply that S is compact.

For instance let E=C([0,1]). Then $S=\{g\in C([0,1\,|\,)\}]\|g\|_{\infty}\leq 1$ is closed and bounded, but not compact.

Take $x_n(t) := t^n$. Then $x_n \in S$. $\{x_n\}$ does not have a subsequence convergent to a continuous function.

Theorem 2.6. $(E,\|.\|)$ normed space and $\dim E < \infty$ iff

 $\forall A \subset E, A \text{ compact } \Leftrightarrow A \text{ is closed and bounded.}$

proof. \Rightarrow : If dim $E < \infty$ then A is compact iff A is bounded and closed (exsercise).

Enough to prove the following:

If dim $E = \infty$ then the unit ball $S = \{x \in E \mid ||x|| \le 1\}$ is not compact.

Lemma 2.7 (Riesz's lemma). If X is a proper closed subspace of a normed space $(E, \|.\|)$ then for every $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ there exists an $x_{\varepsilon} \in E$ with $\|x_{\varepsilon}\| = 1$ such that

$$||x_{\varepsilon} - x|| \ge \varepsilon \quad \forall x \in X.$$



proof. Let $z \in E \setminus X$ (X proper and hence $E \setminus X \neq \emptyset$). Set

$$d := \inf_{x \in X} ||z - x||.$$

As X is closed, d>0, otherwise z is a limit point in $E\setminus X$. Fix $\varepsilon\in(0,1)$. Then there exists $x_0\in X$ such that

$$d \le ||z - x_0|| < \frac{d}{\varepsilon}.$$

Let $x_{arepsilon}:=rac{z-x_0}{\|z-x_0\|};$ We have $\|x_{arepsilon}\|=1$ and

$$\|x - x_{\varepsilon}\| = \left\| x - \frac{z - x_0}{\|z - x_0\|} \right\|$$

$$= \frac{\|x\|z - x_0\| - z + x_0\|}{\|z - x_0\|}$$

$$= \frac{\left\| \underbrace{x\|z - x_0\| + x_0}_{\|z - x_0\|} - z \right\|}{\|z - x_0\|}$$

$$\geq \frac{d}{d}\varepsilon = \varepsilon.$$

Continue now the proof of the theorem above:

Let $x_1 \in S$. Consider $X = \text{span}\{x_1\}$ which is a proper closed subspace of E. Hence by Riesz's lemma exists x_2 with $||x_2|| = 1$ such that

$$||x_2 - x_1|| \ge \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$||x_2 - x|| \ge \frac{1}{2} \qquad \forall x \in X.$$

Now consider span $\{x_1, x_2\}$ which is a proper closed subspace of E. By Riesz's lemma follows

$$\exists x_3 \in E, ||x_3|| = 1 : ||x_3 - x_1|| \ge \frac{1}{2}, ||x_3 - x_2|| \ge \frac{1}{2}.$$

Continuing in the same fashion we get $\{x_n\}$, $||x_n|| = 1$ such that

$$||x_n - x_m|| \ge \frac{1}{2}$$
 $\forall n, m, n \ne m.$

Clearly $\{x_n\} \subset S$ has no convergent subsequence. Hence S is not compact.



Definition (Cauchy sequence). $(E,\|.\|)$ normed space. $\{x_n\}\subseteq E$ is called Cauchy if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \,\exists \, N : \, ||x_n - x_m|| < \varepsilon \, \text{ for any } n, m \ge N.$$

Example. $(C_F,\|.\|_{\infty})$, $\|x\|_{\infty}=\sup_{k\in\mathbb{N}}|x_k|$ where $x=(x_1,x_2,\ldots)$. Define

$$x_n = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, 0, \dots).$$

Then $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy, as for n > m

$$||x_n - x_m||_{\infty} = \left\| (0, \dots, 0, \frac{1}{m+1}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, 0, \dots) \right\|_{\infty}$$

= $\frac{1}{m+1}$.

Observe that x_n is convergent in $(C_0, \|.\|_{\infty})$

$$\underbrace{x_n}_{\in C_F} \to (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots) \in C_0 \setminus C_F.$$

Statement 2.8. A convergent sequence is always a Cauchy sequence.

Definition (complete space). A normed vector space $(E, \|.\|)$ is called <u>complete</u> if any Cauchy sequence in E is convergent in E.

 $(C_F, \|.\|_{\infty})$ is not complete.

Definition (Banach space). A complete normed space is called Banach space.

Examples. • $(\mathbb{R}, |.|)$ is a Banach space.

- $(\mathbb{C}, |.|)$ is a Banach space.
- $(l^2, ||.||_2)$ where

$$l^{2} = \left\{ (x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots) \middle| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_{i}|^{2} < \infty, x_{i} \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

and

$$\|(x_1, x_2, \ldots)\|_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

 $(l^2, \|.\|_2)$ is complete.



proof. Let $x_n = (x_1^n, x_2^n, \ldots)$ be a Cauchy sequence in l^2 . We must show that it has a limit in l^2 . We will do it in a few steps:

Step 1: Find a candidate for a limit a.

Step 2: Show that $a \in l^2$.

Step 3: $||x_n - a||_2 \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Step 1: Let

$$x_1 = (x_1^1, x_2^1, \dots)$$

$$x_2 = (x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots)$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$x_n = (x_1^n, x_2^n, \dots).$$

For each k consider sequence $\{x_k^n\}\subset \mathbb{C}$ (k-th coordinates in each x_n). Each sequence is Cauchy, as for all $n,m\geq N$

$$|x_k^n - x_k^m| < \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k^n - x_k^m|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = ||x_n - x_m||_2 < \varepsilon.$$

As $(\mathbb{C},|.|)$ is complete, $\{x_k^n\}_n$ has a limit $a_k\in\mathbb{C}$. Candidate for limit of x_n is

$$a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k, \dots).$$

Step 2: Write

$$a = \underbrace{x_n}_{\in l^2} - (x_n - a).$$

In order to show that $a \in l^2$ it is enough to see that $x_n - a \in l^2$ for some n. $\{x_n\}$ Cauchy implies

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \,\exists \, N : \forall n, m \ge N : \|x_n - x_m\|_2 < \varepsilon.$$

Consider for some u > 0

$$\sum_{i=1}^{u} |x_i^n - x_i^m|^2 \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i^n - x_i^m|^2 = ||x_n - x_m||_2^2 < \varepsilon^2.$$

Let $m \to \infty$. We get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} |x_i^n - a_i|^2 \le \varepsilon^2.$$

This holds for any $u \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence for any $n \geq \mathbb{N}$

$$\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i^n - a_i|^2}_{=\|x_n - a\|_2^2} \le \varepsilon^2.$$

Hence $x_n - a \in l^2$ and moreover $||x_n - a|| \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.



- $(C([a,b]), \|.\|_{\infty})$ is a Banach space.
- $(l^p, \|.\|_{l^p})$ for $1 \le p < \infty$ are all Banach spaces.
- $(C([a,b]), \|.\|_2)$ with

$$||f||_2 = \left(\int |f(t)|^2 dt\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

One can prove that $(C([a,b]), \|.\|_2)$ is not a Banach space.

Exercise:

[a, b] = [0, 1] and

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{falls } t < \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \\ 1, & \text{falls } t > \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}.$$

Show that $\{f_n\}$ is Cauchy in $C([0,1],\|.\|_2)$ but $f_n \not\to f \in C([0,1])$.

Definition (Convergent and absolutely convergent series). A series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$ in E is called convergent if $\{\sum_{n=1}^m x_n\}_m$, a sequence of partial sums, is convergent in E. If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|\overline{x_n}\| < \infty$ then we say that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$ converges absolutely.

Theorem 2.9. A normed space E is complete iff every absolutely convergent series converges in E.

proof. \Rightarrow : Suppose X is complete and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ||x_n|| < \infty$. Let

$$S_N := \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \in E.$$

For M > N:

$$\|S_N - S_M\| = \left\| \sum_{n=N+1}^M x_n \right\|$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=N+1}^M \|x_n\|$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=N+1}^\infty \|x_n\| \to 0 \quad \text{as } N \to \infty.$$

Hence $\{S_N\}$ is Cauchy. As E is complete, S_N has a limit in E i.e. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$ converges in E.



 \Leftarrow : Assume that every absolut convergent series is convergent in E. We want to see that E is complete.

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy sequence. We want to prove that $\{x_n\}$ has a limit in E. We know that

$$\forall k \exists n_k : ||x_n - x_m|| < \frac{1}{2^k} \qquad \forall n, m \ge n_k.$$

We can assume that $\{n_k\}$ is an increasing sequence. Write

$$x_{n_k} = (x_{n_k} - x_{n_{k-1}}) + (x_{n_{k-1}} - x_{n_{k-2}}) + \dots + (x_{n_1} - \underbrace{x_{n_0}}_{=0}) = \sum_{l=1}^k (x_{n_l} - x_{n_{l-1}}).$$

$$\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} ||x_{n_l} - x_{n_{l-1}}|| \le \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^l} < \infty.$$

Hence $\sum_{l=1}^{\infty}(x_{n_l}-x_{n_{l-1}})$ is absolutely convergent. By assumption

$$\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} (x_{n_l} - x_{n_{l-1}})$$

is convergent in E. Hence the partial sums is convergent. Subsequence is convergent. $\{x_{n_k}\}$ is convergent to some $x \in E$.

Exercise:

Show that the whole $\{x_n\} \to x$.

Recall:

converging squences $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in $(E, \|.\|)$. $\|x_n - x\| \to 0$ for $n \to \infty$ for some $x \in E$. (Notation: $x_n \to x$ in $(E, \|.\|)$)

Remark. Assume $x_n \to x$ in $(E, \|.\|)$. Then

- 1) $||x_n|| \to ||x||$ in (E, ||.||).
- $2) \sup_{n} ||x_n|| < \infty.$

because

1)

$$||x_n|| \le ||x_n - x|| + ||x||,$$

so

$$||x_n|| - ||x|| \le ||x_n - x||.$$

It follows

$$-(\|x_n\| - \|x\|) \le \|x_n - x\|.$$



So

$$|||x_n|| - ||x||| \le ||x_n - x|| \to 0,$$
 for $n \to \infty$.

Cauchy sequence in $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ in $(E,\|.\|)$ if $\|x_n-x_m\|\to 0$ for $n,m\to\infty$. We obtain: $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ converges in $(E,\|.\|)$ \Rightarrow $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ Cauchy sequence in $(E,\|.\|)$. ($\not =$ in general). If $\not =$ then we call $(E,\|.\|)$ a Banach space.

 $\begin{array}{l} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_m \text{ converges in } (E,\|.\|) \text{ if } \left(\sum_{n=1}^k x_n\right)_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{ converges in } (E,\|.\|). \\ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_m \text{ converges absolutely in } (E,\|.\|) \text{ if } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|x_n\| \text{ converges } (\mathbb{R},\|.\|). \end{array}$

2.1 Mappings between normed spaces

Definition. Let $(E_1, \|.\|_1)$, $(E_2, \|.\|_2)$ be normed spaces. $T: E_1 \to E_2$ (not necessarily linear) is called continuous at $x_0 \in E_1$, if

$$x_n \to x_0 \text{ in } (E_1, \|.\|_1) \Rightarrow T(x_n) \to T(x_0) \text{ in } (E_2, \|.\|_2).$$

T is called <u>continuous</u> if it is continuous at $x_0 \in E_1$ for all $x_0 \in E_1$. We say that $T: E_1 \to E_2$ is <u>linear</u> if

$$T(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2) = \lambda_1 T(x_1) + \lambda_2 T(x_2)$$

for all scalars λ_1 , λ_2 and $x_1, x_2 \in E_1$.

 $T:E_1 \to E_2$ linear is called <u>bounded</u> if there exists M>0 such that

$$||T(x)||_2 \le M||x||_1$$
 for all $x \in E_1$.

If T is bounded linear $E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ define

$$||T|| = ||T||_{E_1 \to E_2} := \inf\{M \ge 0 \mid ||T(x)||_2 \le M ||x||_1 \text{ for all } x \in E_1\}.$$

Lemma.

$$\|T\| = \sup_{\substack{x \in E_1 \\ x \neq 0}} \frac{\|T(x)\|_2}{\|x\|_1} = \sup_{\substack{x \in E_1 \\ \|x\|_1 = 1}} \|T(x)\|_2.$$

Proposition 2.10. Assume $T:E_1\to E_2$ linear. Then all the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) T continuous at $0 \in E_1$.
- (2) T continuous at $x_0 \in E_1$ for some $x_0 \in E_1$.
- (3) T continuous at $x_0 \in E_1$ for all $x_0 \in E_1$.



(4) T is bounded.

proof. $(1) \Rightarrow (4)$: Assume T is continuous at $0 \in E_1$, i.e.

$$x_n \to 0 \text{ in } (E_1, \|.\|_1) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad T(x_n) \to T(\underbrace{0}_{\in E_1}) = \underbrace{0}_{\in E_2} \text{ in } (E_2, \|.\|_2).$$

We want to prove that T is bounded. We search a M>0 such that

$$||T(x)||_2 \le M||x||_1.$$

We assume that this doesn't hold true.

For n = 1, 2, ... there exists $x_n \in E_1$ such that

$$||T(x_n)||_2 > n||x_n||_1$$
.

Set for $n = 1, 2, \dots$

$$z_n := \frac{1}{n \|x_n\|_1} x_n.$$

(Note that $\|x_n\|_1 > 0$. Otherwise we would get a contradiction.) Note

$$||z_n||_1 = \left\|\frac{1}{n||x_n||_1}\right\|_1 = \frac{1}{n||x_n||_1} ||x_n||_1 = \frac{1}{n} \to 0, \quad \text{for } n \to \infty.$$

We have $z_n \to 0$ in $(E_1, \|.\|_1)$. But

$$\|T(z_n)\|_2 = \left\|\frac{1}{n\|x_n\|_1}T(x_n)_2\right\| = \frac{1}{n\|x_n\|_1}\|T(x_n)\|_2 > 1 \qquad \text{ for all } n$$

Hence

$$T(z_n) \not\to 0$$
 in $(E_2, ||.||_2)$.

This is a contradiction.

 $(1) \Leftarrow (4)$: Assume T is bounded. For some M > 0

$$||T(x)||_2 \le M||x||_1,$$
 for all $x \in E_1$.

We need to show that T is continuous at $0 \in E_1$, i.e.

$$x_n \to 0 \text{ in } (E_1, \|.\|_1) \Rightarrow T(x_n) \to T(0) = 0 \text{ in } (E_2, \|.\|_2).$$

From

$$||T(x_n)||_2 \le M||x_n||_1 \to 0$$

SO

$$T(x_n) \to \underbrace{0}_{=T(0)} \text{ in } (E_2, \|.\|_2).$$



Examples. (A) $E_1 = E_2 = C([0,1])$, $\|.\|_1 = \|.\|_2 = \|.\|_{\infty} =: \|.\|$, i.e.

$$||f|| := \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)|.$$

$$T(f)(x) = \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y, \qquad \text{for } f \in C([0, 1]), x \in [0, 1].$$

- (1) $T(f) \in C([0,1])$ for $f \in C([0,1])$,
- (2) T linear,
- (3) T bounded,
- (4) Calculate ||T||.

proof. (1) Fix $f \in C([0,1])$ arbitrary and fix $x \in [0,1]$. Show that T(f) is continuous at x. Consider a sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in [0,1] such that $x_n \to x$ in $(\mathbb{R},|.|)$. To show $T(f)(x_n) \to T(f)(x)$ in $(\mathbb{R},|.|)$.

$$\begin{split} |T(f)(x_n) - T(f)(x)| &= \{ \text{assume that } x_n \leq x \} \\ &= |\int_0^{1-x_n} \min(x_n, y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y - \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y | \\ &\leq |\int_0^{1-x} (\min(x_n, y) - \min(x, y)) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y | \\ &+ |\int_{1-x}^{1-x_n} \min(x_n, y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y | \\ &\leq \underbrace{\int_0^{1-x} \underbrace{|\min(x_n, y) - \min(x, y)||f(y)|}_{\leq |x_n - x|} \, \mathrm{d}y}_{\leq |x_n - x| ||f||} \\ &+ \underbrace{\int_{1-x}^{1-x_n} \underbrace{\min(x_n, y)|f(y)|}_{0 \leq \dots \leq |x_n - x| \cdot ||f||} \, \mathrm{d}y}_{0 \leq \dots \leq |x_n - x| \cdot ||f||} \, \mathrm{as } \, n \to \infty \end{split}$$

If $x_n > x$ we get a similar calculation. Conclusion:

$$T(f)(x_n) \to T(f)(x)$$
 in $(\mathbb{R}, |.|)$ as $n \to \infty$.

(2) Fix $f_1, f_2 \in C([0,1])$ and λ_1, λ_2 scalars. Then

$$T(\lambda_1 f_1 + \lambda_2 f_2)(x) = \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) \underbrace{(\lambda_1 f_1 + \lambda_2 f_2)(y)}_{=\lambda_1 f_1(y) + \lambda_2 f_2(y)} dy$$

$$= \lambda_1 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f_1(y) dy + \lambda_2 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f_2(y) dy$$

$$= \lambda_1 T(f_1)(x) + \lambda_2 T(f_2)(x) \quad \text{for } x \in [0, 1]$$



(3) Fix $f \in C([0,1])$. For $x \in [0,1]$

$$|T(f)(x)| = |\int_{0}^{1-x} \underbrace{\min(x, y)f(y)}_{\geq 0} dy|$$

$$\stackrel{(*_1)}{\leq} \int_{0}^{1-x} \min(x, y) \underbrace{|f(y)|}_{\leq ||f||} dy$$

$$\stackrel{(*_2)}{\leq} \int_{0}^{1-x} \min(x, y) dy ||f||.$$

Clearly

$$\max_{x \in [0,1]} \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) \, \mathrm{d}y \le 1.$$

This gives:

$$\|T(f)\| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} \lvert T(f)(x) \rvert \leq 1 \cdot \|f\|, \qquad \text{for all } f \in C([0,1]).$$

Conclusion: T is bounded with (M = 1)

(4) Consider the unequality above. $(*_1)$ is an equality if f has a constant sign. $(*_2)$ is an equality if f is a constant function. So we have to calculate

$$\int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) \, \mathrm{d}y \qquad \text{for } x \in [0, 1].$$

case 1: $1-x \le x$ i.e. $\frac{1}{2} \le x$ and we get

$$\int_0^{1-x} \underbrace{\min(x,y)}_{=y} dy = \left[\frac{1}{2}y^2\right]_0^{1-x}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}(1-x)^2.$$

case 2: x < 1 - x i.e. $x < \frac{1}{2}$ and we get

$$\int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) \, dy = \int_0^x y \, dy + \int_x^{1-x} x \, dy$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}x^2 + x(1 - 2x)$$
$$= x - \frac{3}{2}x^2.$$

Claim:

$$||T|| = \max\left(\max_{x \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1]} \frac{1}{2} (1 - x)^2, \max_{x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]} \left(x - \frac{3}{2} x^2\right)\right) = \dots = \frac{1}{6}.$$

Note



- $\|T(f)\| \le \|T\| \cdot \|f\|$ for all $f \in C([0,1])$,
- $||T(1)|| = ||T|| \cdot ||1||$ where 1(x) = 1 for $x \in [0, 1]$.

(B) $E_1=C([0,1])$ with maximumnorm, $E_2=\mathbb{R}$ with absolut value. $T:E_1\to E_2$ with

$$T(f) = \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} f(y) \, dy - \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 f(y) \, dy$$
 for $f \in E_1$

$$|T(f)| = \left| \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} f(y) \, dy - \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 f(y) \, dy \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} f(y) \, dy \right| + \left| \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 f(y) \, dy \right|$$

$$\leq \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \underbrace{|f(y)|}_{\leq ||f||} \, dy + \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 \underbrace{|f(y)|}_{\leq ||f||} \, dy$$

$$\leq 1 ||f||.$$

Hence T is bounded and $||T|| \leq 1$.

$$T(f) = \int_0^1 k(y)f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y,$$

where

$$T(f_n) = \Big\{ ext{to be completed}, \quad ext{falls } case \ .$$

$$T(f_n) \le 1\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Note

$$k(y)f_n(y) \ge 0$$
 for $y \in [0, 1]$.

Hence $\|T\| \leq 1 - \frac{1}{n}$ for $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ Note $\|f_n\| = 1$ for all n. Conclusion $\|T\| = 1$. Here

$$|T(f)| \leq \underbrace{\|T\|}_{<1} \|f\| \text{ for all } f \in C([0,1])$$

but

$$|T(f)|<\|T\|\|f\|\qquad \text{ for all } f\in C([0,1]).$$

Statement 2.11. T_1,T_2 bounded linear mappings $(E_1,\|.\|_1) \to (E_2,\|.\|_2)$ and λ scalar. Set

$$(T_1 + T_2)(x) = T_1(x) + T_2(x)$$
 $x \in E_1$
 $(\lambda T_1)(x) = \lambda T_1(x)$ $x \in E_1$.



Claim:

- (1) $T_1 + T_2$ and λT_1 are both linear mappings $(E_1, \|.\|_1) \to (E_2, \|.\|_2)$,
- (2) T_1+T_2 and λT_1 are both bounded mappings $(E_1,\|.\|_1) \to (E_2,\|.\|_2)$. $B(E_1,E_2)$ denote the vector space of all bounded linear mappings $(E_1,\|.\|_1) \to (E_2,\|.\|_2)$.

(3) $\|T\|_{E_1\to E_2}:=\inf\{M>0\,|\,\|T(x)\|_2\leq M\|x\|_1 \text{ for all } x\in E_1\}$ defines a norm in $B(E_1,E_2).$

proof. (1) ||T|| = 0 implies that $||T(x)||_2 = 0$ for all $x \in E_1 \implies T(x) = 0 \in E_2$.

$$T=0\in B(E_1,E_2)$$

(2) $T \in B(E_1, E_2)$ and λ scalar.

$$\begin{split} \|\lambda T\| &= \inf\{M>0 \,|\, \|(\lambda T)(x)\|_2 \leq M \|x\|_1 \text{ for all } x \in E_1\} \\ &= \inf\{M>0 \,|\, |\lambda| \|T(x)\|_2 \leq M \|x\|_1 \text{ for all } x \in E_1\} \\ &= \{\text{if } \lambda \neq 0\} \\ &= \inf\left\{\underbrace{M}_{=|\lambda|\tilde{M}}>0 \,\bigg|\, \|T(x)\|_2 \leq \underbrace{\frac{M}{|\lambda|}}_{=\tilde{M}} \|x\|_1 \text{ for all } x \in E_1\right\} \\ &= |\lambda| \inf\left\{\tilde{M}>0 \,\bigg|\, \|T(x)\|_2 \leq \tilde{M} \|x\|_1 \text{ for all } x \in E_1\right\} \\ &= |\lambda| \|T\| \end{split}$$

(3) Set $T_1, T_2 \in B(E_1, E_2)$.

$$\begin{split} \|T_1 + T_2\| &= \inf\{M > 0 \, | \, \|(T_1 + T_2)(x)\|_2 \leq M \|x\|_1 \text{ for all } x \in E_1\} \\ &\leq \inf\{M_1 + M_2 > 0 \, | \, \|T_1(x)\|_2 \leq M_1 \|x\|_1, \, \|T_2(x)\|_2 \leq M_2 \|x\|_1 \text{ for all } x \in E_1\} \\ &= \|T_1\| + \|T_2\| \end{split}$$

Conclusion: $(B(E_1, B_2), ||.||_{E_1 \to E_2})$ is a normed space.

Statement 2.12. $(B(E_1,B_2),\|.\|_{E_1\to E_2})$ is a Banach space if $(E_2,\|.\|_2)$ is a Banach space.



proof. Assume $(T_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(B(E_1,B_2),\|.\|_{E_1\to E_2})$ where $(E_2,\|.\|_2)$ is a Banach space. Fix $x\in E_1$

$$||T_n(x) - T_m(x)||_2 = ||(T_n - T_m)(x)||_2$$

$$\leq \underbrace{||T_n - T_m||_{E_1 \to E_2}}_{\substack{n \to \infty \\ n \text{ } m \to \infty}} \cdot ||x||_1 \to 0, \qquad n, m \to \infty.$$

Hence $(T_n(x))_{n=1}^\infty$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(E_2,\|.\|_2)$. This is a Banach space which implies that $(T_n(x))_{n=1}^\infty$ converges in $(E_2,\|.\|_2)$. Call the limit $T(x)\in E_2$ for all $x\in E_1$. Show now

- (1) $T: E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ is linear,
- (2) T is bounded,
- (3) $||T_n T||_{E_1 \to E_2} \to 0 \text{ for } n \to \infty.$
- (1) Observe

$$T(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 + x_2) \leftarrow T_n(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2) = \{T \text{ linear}\} = \underbrace{\lambda_1 T_n(x_1)}_{\rightarrow T(x_1)} + \underbrace{\lambda_2 T_n(x_2)}_{\rightarrow T(x_2)} \underbrace{\lambda_1 T(x_1)}_{\rightarrow \lambda_1 T(x_1) + \lambda_2 T(x_2)}$$

So for $n \to \infty$ it is

$$T(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 + x_2) = \lambda_1 T(x_1) + \lambda_2 T(x_2)$$
 in $(E_2, \|.\|_2)$.

(2) Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exists N such that:

$$||T_n - T_m||_{E_1 \to E_2} < \varepsilon$$
 for $n, m \ge N$

So for $x \in E_1$

$$||T_n(x) - T_m(x)||_2 \le ||T_n - T_m||_{E_1 \to E_2} ||x||_1 < \varepsilon ||x||_1$$
 for $n, m \ge N$.

Let $m \to \infty$.

$$\|T_n(x) - T(x)\|_2 \le \varepsilon \|x\|_1$$
 for $n \ge N$

So

$$\begin{split} \left\| T(x) \right\|_2 & \leq \left\| T(x) - T_N(x) \right\|_2 + \left\| T_N(x) \right\|_2 \\ & \leq \varepsilon \|x\|_1 + \left\| T_N \right\|_{E_1 \to E_2} \cdot \left\| x \right\|_1 \\ & = \left(\varepsilon + \left\| T_N \right\|_{E_1 \to E_2} \right) \|x\|_1 \quad \text{ for } x \in E_1. \end{split}$$

(3) Look above and get

$$||T_n - T||_{E_1 \to E_2} \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$



Theorem 2.13 (Banach-Steinhaus Theorem (uniform boundedness principle)). Set $(E_1, \|.\|_1)$ Banach space, $(E_2, \|.\|_2)$ normed space and $\mathcal{F} \subset B(E_1, E_2)$. Assume

$$\sup_{T \in \mathcal{F}} \|T(x)\|_2 < \infty \qquad \text{for all } x \in E_1$$

then

$$\sup_{T\in\mathcal{F}}||T||_{E_1\to E_2}<\infty.$$

Remark. The implication \Leftarrow is easy to prove. If \mathcal{F} is a finite set, the theorem is trivial. **proof.** Step 1: Assume

$$\exists x_0 \in E_1 \exists r > 0 \exists M > 0 : \forall x \in \overline{B(x_0, r)} \forall T \in \mathcal{F} : ||T(x)||_2 \le M.$$

We have to show that

$$\sup_{T \in \mathcal{F}} ||T||_{E_1 \to E_2} < \infty.$$

Fix $T \in \mathcal{F}$. For $||x||_1 \le r$

$$||T(x_0+x)||_2 \leq M.$$

Note that $x_0 + x \in \overline{B(x_0, r)}$.

$$\begin{split} \|T(x)\|_2 &= \|T(x_0 + x - x_0)\|_2 \\ &= \{T \text{ linear}\} \\ &= \|T(x_0 + x) - T(x_0)\|_2 \\ &\leq \|T(x_0 + x)\|_2 + \|T(x_0)\|_2 \\ &\leq 2M. \end{split}$$

For $0 \neq x \in E_1$

$$\left\| T\left(\frac{r}{\|x\|_1}x\right) \right\|_2 \le 2M.$$

 $\frac{r}{\|x\|_1}$ has the $\|.\|_1$ -norm equal to r. This implies, since T linear,

$$\frac{r}{\|x\|_1} \|T(x)\|_2 \le 2M,$$

i.e.

$$||T(x)||_2 \le \frac{2M}{r} ||x||_1$$
 for all $0 \ne x \in E_1$.

We have

$$\|t\|_{E_1 \to E_2} \leq \underbrace{\frac{2M}{r}}_{\mbox{independant of } T} < \infty$$

$$\sup_{T\in\mathcal{F}} \lVert T\rVert_{E_1\to E_2} \leq \frac{2M}{r} < \infty.$$



Step 2: Justify the assumption in step 1. This assumption is equivalent to

$$\exists x_0 \in E_1 \exists r > 0 \exists M > 0 : \forall x \in B(x_0, r) \forall T \in \mathcal{F} : ||T(x)||_2 \le M.$$

(Note $\overline{B(x_0, r_1)} \subset B(x_0, r) \subset B(x_0, r_2)$ for $0 < r_1 < r < r_2$).

Argue by contradiction. Assume that the assumption is false. Then it holds

$$\forall x_0 \in E_1 \, \forall r > 0 \, \forall M > 0 : \, \exists x \in B(x_0, r) \, \exists T \in \mathcal{F} : \, ||T(x)||_2 > M.$$

Idea: Find a converging sequence $x_n \in E_1$, $x_n \to x$ in $(E_1, \|.\|_1)$ and a sequence $(T_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathcal{F}$ such that

$$||T_n(x_n)||_2 > n$$
 for all n , and $||T_n(x)||_2 > n$ for all n .

We have from above $x_1 \in B(0,1)$ and $T_1 \in \mathcal{F}$ such that

$$||T_1(x_1)||_2 > 1.$$

 T_1 is bounded linear, hence continuous. This implies that there exists $0 < r_1 < \frac{1}{2}$ such that

$$||T_1(x)||_2 > 1$$
 for $x \in B(x_1, r_1)$

and

$$\overline{B(x_1,r_1)} \subset B(0,1).$$

2.2 Fixed point theory

Example. Consider

$$f(x) + 5 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f(y) dy = g(x), \qquad x \in [0, 1]$$
 (*)

where $g \in C([0,1])$.

Claim: There exists an unique solution $f \in C([0,1])$ that (*).

Idea:

$$f(x) = f(x) - 5 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f(y) dy, \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

Set for $x \in [0, 1]$

$$\tilde{T}(f)(x) = RHS(x).$$

To find a solution to (*) is the same finding $f \in C([0,1])$ such that

$$f = \tilde{T}(f)$$
.

Clearly $\tilde{T}:C([0,1])\to C([0,1])$. (continual later).



Theorem 2.14 (Banach's fixed point theorem). (E, ||.||) Banach space. $T: E \to E$ (no assumption on linearity) is a contraction on E, i.e. there exists c > 1 such that

$$||T(x) - T(\tilde{x})|| \le c||x - \tilde{x}||$$
 for all $x, \tilde{x} \in E$.

Then there exists a unique $\bar{x} \in E$ such that

$$\bar{x} = T(\bar{x}).$$

(\bar{x} is a fixed point)

proof. Uniqueness: Assume $T(\bar{x}) = \bar{x}$ and $T(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$. Then

$$\underbrace{\|\bar{x} - \tilde{x}\|}_{>0} = \|T(\bar{x}) - T(\tilde{x})\| \le \underbrace{c}_{<1} \|\bar{x} - \tilde{x}\|.$$

Thus $\|\bar{x} - \tilde{x}\| = 0$, i.e. $\bar{x} = \tilde{x}$.

Existence: Pick an arbitrary $x_0 \in E$. Set

$$x_{n+1} = T(x_n), \qquad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Claim: $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(E, \|.\|)$. Note:

$$||x_{n+1} - x_n|| = ||T(x_n) - T(x_{n-1})||$$

$$\leq c||x_n - x_{n-1}||$$

$$\leq \dots$$

$$\leq c^n ||x_1 - x_0||, \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

For n > m

$$\begin{aligned} \|x_n - x_m\| &= \|x_n - x_{n-1} + x_{n-1} - \ldots + x_{m+1} - x_m\| \\ &\leq \|x_n - x_{n-1}\| + \|x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}\| + \ldots + \|x_{m+1} - x_m\| \\ &\leq (c^{n-1} + c^{n-2} + \ldots c^m) \|x_1 - x_0\| \\ &\leq \frac{c^m}{1 - c} \|x_1 - x_0\| \to 0 \quad \text{as } n, m \to \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(E, \|.\|)$. $(E, \|.\|)$ is a Banach space. So $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges in $(E, \|.\|)$. Call the limit \bar{x} .

Claim: \bar{x} is a fixed point for T.

$$\|\bar{x} - T(\bar{x})\| = \|\bar{x} - x_{n+1} + x_{n+1} - T(\bar{x})\|$$

$$\leq \|\bar{x} - x_{n+1}\| + \left\|\underbrace{x_{n+1}}_{T(x_n)} - T(\bar{x})\right\|$$

$$\leq \underbrace{\|\bar{x} - x_{n+1}\|}_{\to 0} + c\underbrace{\|x_n - \bar{x}\|}_{\to 0} \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty$$



Remark. (1) $x_n \to \bar{x}$ for $n \to \infty$ independend of the choice of x_0

(2) Fix $z \in E$

$$\begin{split} \|\bar{x} - z\| &= \|T(\bar{x}) - T(z) + T(z) - z\| \\ &\leq \|T(\bar{x}) - T(z)\| + \|T(z) - z\| \\ &\leq c\|\bar{x} - z\| + \|T(z) - z\|. \end{split}$$

Hence

$$\|\bar{x} - z\| \le \frac{1}{1 - c} \|T(z) - z\|.$$

Example. Consider now the example from above: $(C([0,1]),\|.\|)$ with $\|f\|=\max_{x\in[0,1]}|f(x)|\|$ is a Banach space! To apply Banach's fixed point theorem we need \tilde{T} to be a contraction. Fix $f_1, f_2 \in C([0,1])$ and get for $x \in [0,1]$

$$|(\tilde{T}(f_1) - \tilde{T}(f_2))(x)| = |5 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f_2(y) \, dy - 5 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) f_1(y) \, dy|$$

$$= |5 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) (f_2(y) - f_1(y)) \, dy|$$

$$\leq 5 \int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) \underbrace{|f_2(y) - f_1(y)|}_{\leq ||f_2 - f_1||} \, dy$$

$$\leq 5 \underbrace{\int_0^{1-x} \min(x, y) \, dy}_{0 \leq \dots \leq \frac{1}{6}} \|f_2 - f_1\|.$$

Hence

$$\|\tilde{T}(f_1) - \tilde{T}(f_2)\| \le \frac{5}{6} \|f_1 - f_2\|.$$

We conclude that \tilde{T} is a contraction. We can take $c=\frac{5}{6}$. By Banach's fixed point theorem \tilde{T} has a unique fixed point. Finally (*) has a unique solution $f\in C([0,1])$ which is the fixed point.

Theorem 2.15 (Banach's fixed point theorem (generalization)). $(E, \|.\|)$ Banach space. $T: F \to F$ where F is a closed set in E. N positive integer. Assume $T^N = \underbrace{T \circ T \circ \ldots \circ T}_{N \text{ times}}$

is a contraction on F, i.e. there exists c > 1 such that

$$\left\|T^N(x)-T^N(\tilde{x})\right\|\leq c\|x-\tilde{x}\|,\qquad \text{for all } x,\tilde{x}\in F.$$



Then T has unique fixed point \bar{x} , i.e.

$$\bar{x} = T(\bar{x}) \in F$$
.

proof. N=1: Fix $x_0\in F$ and consider $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ where $x_{n+1}=T(x_n)$ for $n=0,1,2,\ldots$ There $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is a Cauchy sequence and hence this converges in E since this is a Banach space. Call the limit \bar{x} . Note

$$\underbrace{x_n}_{\in F} \to \bar{x} \text{ in } E \text{ and } F \text{ is closed}$$

implies $\bar{x} \in F$. The rest of the argument is the same as before.

N>1: By previous result we know that T^N has a unique fixpoint $\bar{x}\in F$, i.e. $\bar{x}=T^N(\bar{x})$. Claim: \bar{x} is a fixed point for T.

$$||T(\bar{x}) - \bar{x}|| = ||T(T^N(\bar{x})) - T^N(\bar{x})||$$

$$= ||T^N(T(\bar{x})) - T^N(\bar{x})||$$

$$< c||T(\bar{x}) - \bar{x}||.$$

This gives

$$||T(\bar{x} - \bar{x})|| = 0,$$
 i.e. $\bar{x} = T(\bar{x}).$

Existence of a fixed point for T done. For the uniqueness assume $\bar{x}=T(\bar{x})$ and $\tilde{x}=T(\tilde{x})$. Then

$$\bar{x} = T(\bar{x}) = T^2(\bar{x}) = \dots = T^N(\bar{x})$$

 $\tilde{x} = T(\tilde{x}) = T^2(\tilde{x}) = \dots = T^N(\tilde{x}).$

But T^N has a unique fixed point so

$$\bar{x} = \tilde{x}$$
.

Remark. (1) $T:(0,1]\to (0,1]$ where $T(x)=\frac{x}{2}$. Clearly T is a contraction on (0,1] but has no fixed point. Note that (0,1] is not a closed intervall.

(2) $T:[0,\infty)\to [0,\infty)$, where $T(x)=x+\frac{1}{x}$. Clearly $[0,\infty)$ is a closed intervall in $\mathbb R$ but T has no fixed point.

Claim: T is not a contraction but 'close' to be a contraction.

$$|T(x)-T(\tilde{x})|<|x-\tilde{x}|\qquad \text{ for } x,\tilde{x}\in[1,\infty), x\neq\tilde{x}$$

Note

$$|T(x)-T(\tilde{x})| = |\underbrace{T'(x)}_{\substack{(1-\frac{1}{t}) \leq 1 \\ \text{for } t \in [1,\infty)}} ||x-\tilde{x}|$$

for some t betweeen x and \tilde{x} .



Example. $(E, \|.\|)$ Banach space. K compact set in E and $T: K \to K$ where

$$||T(x) - T(\bar{x})|| < ||x - \bar{x}||$$
 for all $x, \bar{x} \in K, x \neq \bar{x}$.

Show: T has a unique fixed point in K.

Uniqueness: Assume $\bar{x}=T(\bar{x})$ and $\tilde{x}=T(\tilde{x})$ and $\bar{x}\neq\tilde{x}$ for $\bar{x},\tilde{x}\in K$. Then

$$\|\bar{x} - \tilde{x}\| = \|T(\bar{x}) - \tilde{x}\| < \|\bar{x} - \tilde{x}\|.$$

Contradiction because then $\bar{x} = \tilde{x}$.

Existence: To show: There exists $x \in K$ such that x = T(x), i.e.

$$||T(x) - x|| = 0.$$

Set $d := \inf_{x \in K} ||T(x) - x||$. Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence in K such that

$$||T(x_n) - x_n|| \to d$$
, as $n \to \infty$.

K compact implies that there exists a subsequence $(\tilde{x}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ of $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ such that $(\tilde{x}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ converges in K. Call the limit element $\bar{x} \in K$. We know

$$\tilde{x}_n \to \bar{x}$$
 in K

and

$$||T(\tilde{x}_n) - \tilde{x}_n|| \to d.$$

Question:

$$T(\tilde{x}_n) \to T(\bar{x})$$
 in K ?

But since

$$||T(x) - T(\tilde{x})|| \le ||x - \tilde{x}||$$
 for all $x, \tilde{x} \in K$

we have

$$\tilde{x}_n \to \bar{x}$$
 in K

which implies

$$T(\tilde{x}_n) \to T(\bar{x})$$
 in K .

Hence:

$$||T(\bar{x}) - \bar{x}|| \leftarrow ||T(\tilde{x}_n) - \tilde{x}_n|| \to d, \quad n \to \infty.$$

We obtain

$$||T(\bar{x}) - \bar{x}|| = d.$$

Question: Is d = 0?

If d > 0 then $\bar{x} \neq T(\bar{x})$, $\bar{x}, T(\bar{x}) \in K$

$$||T(\bar{x}) - T(T(\bar{x}))|| < ||\bar{x} - T(\bar{x})|| = d = \inf_{x \in K} ||x - T(x)||.$$

This is a contradiction which gives d=0 and so $\bar{x}=T(\bar{x})$.



Example. Consider

$$f(x) = \int_0^x k(x, y)h(y, f(y)) \, dy + g(x), \qquad x \in [0, 1]$$
 (*)

where $g \in C([0,1])$, $k \in C([0,1] \times [0,1])$ and $h:[0,1] \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ continuous and satisfies: There exists M>0 such that

$$|h(x, z_1) - h(x, z_2)| \le M|z_1 - z_2|$$
 for all $x \in [0, 1], z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$T(f)(x) = \int_0^x k(x, y)h(y, f(y)) dy + g(x)$$
 $x \in [0, 1].$

Here $T(f)(x) \in C([0,1])$.

Want to show: $T: C([0,1]) \to C([0,1])$ has a unique fixed point.

Start with the Banach space (C([0,1]), max-norm). Check if T is a contraction in C([0,1]). Fix $f_1, f_2 \in C([0,1])$

$$T(f_1)(x) - T(f_2)(x) = \int_0^x k(x, y)(h(y, f_1(y)) - h(y, f_2(y))) \, dy.$$

k is continuous on the compact set $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ so

$$\sup_{(x,y)\in[0,1]\times[0,1]} \lvert k(x,y) \rvert =: N < \infty.$$

We obtain

$$|(T(f_1) - T(f_2))(x)| \le \int_0^x \underbrace{|k(x,y)|h(y, f_1(y)) - h(y, f_2(y))}_{\le N} dy$$

$$\le M\underbrace{f_1(y) - f_2(y)}_{\le \|f_1 - f_2\|}$$

$$\le \int_0^x NM \, dy \|f_1 - f_2\|$$

$$\le NM \|f_1 - f_2\|.$$

This yields

$$||T(f_1) - T(f_2)|| \le NM||f_1 - f_2||.$$

IF: NM < 1 Then T is a contaction.

Trick: For a>0 set

$$||f||_a = \max_{x \in [0,1]} e^{-ax} |f(x)|$$

for $f \in C([0,1])$.

Claim: $\|.\|_a$ defines a norm on C([0,1]). This is easy to check.



Claim: $\|.\|$ and $\|.\|_a$ are equivalent.

This follows from

$$e^{-a}||f|| \le ||f||_a \le ||f||$$

for all $f \in C([0,1])$ (note that $\|.\|$ is the max-norm).

 $\textbf{Claim:} \quad (C([0,1]),\|.\|_a) \text{ is a Banach space.}$

This follows from the fact that $\|.\|$ und $\|.\|_a$ are equivalent and $(C([0,1]),\|.\|)$ is a Banach space.

Claim: T is a contraction on $(C([0,1]), \|.\|_a)$ for a > 0 large enough.

For $f_1, f_2 \in C([0,1])$ and $x \in [0,1]$ we have

$$|(T(f_1) - T(f_2))(x)| \le \int_0^x NM |(f_1 - f_2)(y)| \, dy$$

$$= \int_0^x NM e^{ay} \cdot \underbrace{e^{-ay} |(f_1 - f_2)(x)|}_{\le ||f_1 - f_2||_a} \, dy$$

$$\le NM \underbrace{\int_0^x e^{ay} \, dy}_{\frac{1}{a}(e^{ax} - 1)} ||f_1 - f_2||_a.$$

So

$$e^{-ax}|(T(f_1)-T(f_2))(x)| \le \frac{NM}{a}(1-e^{-ax})||f_1-f_2||_a$$

and

$$||T(f_1) - T(f_2)||_a \le \frac{NM}{a} ||f_1 - f_2||_a$$

For a>NM is T a contraction on $(C([0,1]),\|.\|_a)$. Banach fixed point theorem implies that there is a unique $f\in C([0,1])$ that solves (*).

Theorem 2.16. $(E, \|.\|)$ Banach space, $(Y, \|.\|)$ normed space. $T: E \times Y \to E$ where

(1) There exists a C > 1 such that

$$||T(x,y) - T(\tilde{x},y)|| \le C||x - \tilde{x}||$$
 for all $x, \tilde{x} \in E, y \in Y$.

- (2) $T_x: Y \to E$ where $T_x(y) = T(x,y)$ is continuous for all $x \in E$.
- \Rightarrow For every $y \in Y$ there exists a unique $g(y) \in E$ such that

$$g(y) = T(g(y), y)$$

and $g: Y \to E$ is continuous.

proof. The existence of a unique element $g(y) \in E$ for every $y \in Y$ follows from Banach's fixed point theorem.

Assume $y_n \to \tilde{y}$ in $(Y, \|.\|_*)$, i.e.

$$\|y_n - \tilde{y}\|_* \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$



Remains to show

$$g(y_m) \to g(\tilde{y})$$
 in $(E(, \|.\|))$.

$$||g(y_n) - g(\tilde{y})|| = ||T(g(y_n), y_n) - T(g(\tilde{y}), \tilde{y})||$$

$$\leq \underbrace{||T(g(y_n), y_n) - T(g(\tilde{y}), y_n)||}_{\leq c||g(y_n) - g(\tilde{y})||} + \underbrace{||T(g(\tilde{y}), y_n) - T(g(\tilde{y}), \tilde{y})||}_{(2) \to 0, n \to \infty}$$

We obtain

$$||g(y_n) - g(\tilde{y})|| \le \frac{1}{1 - c} ||T(g(\tilde{y}), y_n) - T(g(\tilde{y}), \tilde{y})|| \to 0, \quad n \to \infty.$$

Theorem 2.17 (Brouwer's fixed point theorem). K compact (= closed and bounded) convex subset of \mathbb{R}^n and $T:K\to K$ continuous. Then T has a fixed point, i.e. there exists $\bar{x}\in K$ with

$$T(\bar{x}) = \bar{x}$$
.

Remark. • No uniqueness! Consider the case $T = id_K$.

• Set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ (in general) is convex if

$$x, \tilde{x} \in K \text{ and } \lambda \in [0, 1]$$
 \Rightarrow $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)\tilde{x} \in K$.

Theorem 2.18 (Perron's theorem). A real-valued $n \times n$ -Matrix with positive entries. $A = [a_{ij}]_{i,j=1,...,n}$ all $a_{ij} > 0$. \Rightarrow The mapping for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$x \mapsto Ax$$

has an eigenvalue >0 with an eigenvecto with positive entries, i.e. there exists $\lambda>0$ and $\tilde{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n$ with $A\tilde{x}=\lambda\tilde{x}$ and all entries in \tilde{x} are positive.

proof. We use Brouwer's fixed point theorem. Set

$$K := \left\{ (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \,\middle|\, x_k \ge 0, \, \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1 \right\}.$$

Claim: K is closed, bounded and a convex set in \mathbb{R}^n . Thus K is compact (since $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$). Set

$$T(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\|Ax\|_{l^1}} A \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\in K} \quad \text{for all } (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in K$$



Claim: $T: K \to K$ is continuous.

Since

$$x_k \to x$$
 in K w.r.t. l^1 – norm.

To show:

$$T(x_k) \to T(x)$$
 in K w.r.t. l^1 – norm.

Set

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

 $x_k = (x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}, \dots, x_n^{(k)})$ $k = 1, 2, \dots$

Consider

$$\begin{split} \|T(x_k) - T(x)\|_{l^1} &= \left\| \frac{1}{\|Ax_k\|_{l^1}} Ax_k - \frac{1}{\|Ax\|_{l^1}} Ax \right\|_{l^1} \\ &\leq \left\| \frac{1}{\|Ax_k\|_{l^1}} Ax_k - \frac{1}{\|Ax\|_{l^1}} Ax_k \right\|_{l^1} + \left\| \frac{1}{\|Ax\|_{l^1}} Ax_k - \frac{1}{\|Ax\|_{l^1}} Ax \right\|_{l^1} \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{\|Ax_k\|_{l^1}} - \frac{1}{\|Ax\|_{l^1}} \|Ax_k\|_{l^1} + \frac{1}{\|Ax\|_{l^1}} \|A(x - x_k)\|_{l^1} \end{split}$$

and

$$||A(x - x_k)||_{l^1} = \sum_{i=1}^n |\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} (x_j - x_j^{(k)})|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} |x_j - x_j^{(k)}|$$

$$\leq \underbrace{n \cdot \max_{i,j} a_{ij}}_{<\infty} ||x - x_k||_{l^1} \to 0, \qquad k \to \infty.$$

So

$$Ax_k \to Ax$$
 in l^1 .

This implies

$$||Ax_k||_{l^1} \to ||Ax||_{l^1}$$
 in \mathbb{R} .

Brouwer's fixed point theorem implies that T has a fixed point $\bar{x} \in K$.

$$\bar{x} = (\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots, \bar{x}_n)$$
$$\bar{x} = T(\bar{x}) = \frac{1}{\|A\bar{x}\|_{l^1}} A\bar{x}$$

Hence $A\bar{x}=\|A\bar{x}\|_{l^1}\bar{x}$ where $|A\bar{x}|_l^1>0$ and \bar{x} has all entries >0.



Theorem 2.19 (Schander's fixed point theorem). $(E, \|.\|)$ Banach space. K compact, convex set in $E. T: K \to K$ continuous. $\Rightarrow T$ has a fixed point in K.

Example.

$$S = \{f \in C([0,1\,|\,)\}] \\ f(0) = 0, \ f(1) = 1, \ \|f\| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)| \le 1$$

 $T:S \to S$ defined by

$$T(f)(x) = f(x^2), \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

C([0,1]) is equipped with the max-norm.

Claim:

- S is closed, bounded and convex in C([0,1]).
- $T: S \rightarrow S$ is continuous.
- T has no fixed point in S.
- S bounded: $f \in S$ implies $||f|| \le 1$.
- S closed: $f_n \to f$ in $(C([0,1]),\|.\|)$. To show: $f \in S$.

Note

$$\max_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

This implies

$$|f(0)| = |f_n(0) - f(0)| \to 0, \quad n \to \infty.$$

So f(0) = 0.

$$|1 - f(1)| = ||f_n(1) - f(1)|| \to 0, \quad n \to \infty.$$

So f(1) = 1. For $x \in [0, 1]$ we get

$$|f(x)| \le ||f(x) - f_n(x)|| + |f_n(x)||$$

 $\le \underbrace{||f - f_n||}_{\to 0} + \underbrace{||f_n||}_{\le 1}.$

Conclusion $f \in S$

$$||f|| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)| \le 1.$$

• $f, \tilde{f} \in S$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. To show:

$$\lambda f + (1 - \lambda)\tilde{f} \in S.$$

Trivial since

$$(\lambda f + (1 - \lambda)\tilde{f})(0) = 0$$



$$(\lambda f + (1 - \lambda)\tilde{f})(1) = \lambda f(1) + (1 - \lambda)\tilde{f}(1) = 1$$

and

$$\left\|\lambda f + (1-\lambda)\tilde{f}\right\| \le |\lambda| \|f\| + |1-\lambda| \|\tilde{f}\| \le 1.$$

We want to show that $T:S\to S$ is continuous. (obvious that $T(S)\subseteq S$) Assume $f_n\to f$ in S in max-norm, i.e.

$$\max_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

To show: $T(f_n) \to T(f)$ in S in max-norm.

$$||T(f_n) - T(f)|| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} |T(f_n)(x) - T(f)(x)|$$

$$= \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x^2) - f(x^2)|$$

$$= ||f_n - f|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

 $T: S \to S$ has no fixed point. If $f \in S$ is a fixed point for T then

$$f(x^2) = T(f)(x) = f(x), \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

To show: there can be no such $f \in S$.

Set $a=\inf\{x\in[0,1\,|\,]\}f(x)=\frac{1}{2}\neq\emptyset$ since f is continuous. $a\in(0,1)$ since if a=0 then there exists a sequence

$$a_n \in \{x \in [0, 1 \mid]\} f(x) = \frac{1}{2}$$

such that $a_n \to a$ in \mathbb{R} as $n \to \infty$. Contradiction since

$$\frac{1}{2} = f(a_n) \to f(a) = f(0) = 0$$

since f is continuous.

But $0 < a^2 < a$ and $f(a^2) = f(a) = \frac{1}{2}$. This is a contradiction.

If we believe in Schauder then we can conclude that $S \subseteq C([0,1])$ is not compact.

Theorem 2.20 (Arzela-Ascoli theorem). Assume K is a compact set in \mathbb{R}^n (e.g. K=[0,1] in \mathbb{R} n n=1) and $S\subseteq C(K)$ where C(K) is equipped with the max-norm. \Rightarrow S is relatively compact in C(K) iff

- (1) S uniformly bounded.
- (2) S is equicontinuous.



Definition . (i) S is uniformly bounded if

$$\sup_{f \in S} ||f|| < \infty.$$

(ii) S is equicontinuous if: for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that

$$|x - \tilde{x}| < \delta, \ x, \tilde{x} \in K$$
 \Rightarrow $|f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| < \varepsilon.$

 $\delta = \delta(\varepsilon)$ must not depend on f.

S is relatively compact in C(K) if for every sequence $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in S there exists a converging subsequence in C(K).

To show: S is relatively compact in C(K) iff the closure \bar{S} is compact in C(K).

Things to do:

- (1) Proof of Schander's theorem.
- (2) Proof of Arzela-Ascoli theorem.
- (3) Application with Schander.
- (4) Proof of Brouwer's thereom (special case).
- (5) Completion of normed spaces.

For (4) wie consider the following lemma.

Lemma 2.21 (Sperner's lemma). Big triangle T

$$T = \bigcup_{a \in A} T_a.$$

 $\{T_a\}_{a\in A}$ is triangle of T, i.e. for any pair T_a , $T_{\tilde{a}}$ in the triangulation

 $T_a \cup T_{\tilde{a}} = \{\emptyset \text{ or common vertrex or common side or } T_a = T_{\tilde{a}}\}.$

 \Rightarrow There must exists a triangle T_a with all vertices colored differently. MISSING FIGURE!

Proof of Schander's fixed point theorem: To prove: $(E, \|.\|)$ Banach space, K compact convex set in E and $T: K \to K$ continuous.

Claim: T has a fixed point.



Lemma . Assume $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ sequence in K such that

$$||T(x_n) - x_n|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

T has a fixed point in K.

proof. Consider $(T(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in K. K compact implies that there exists a $z \in K$ and a subsequence $(T(\tilde{x}_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of $(T(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ such that

$$T(\tilde{x}_n) \to z$$
 in K as $n \to \infty$.

Then

$$\left\| \underbrace{T(\tilde{x}_n)}_{\to z} - \tilde{x}_n \right\| \to 0, \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.$$

So $\tilde{x}_n \to z$ for $n \to \infty$. But T continuous implies

$$z \leftarrow T(\tilde{x}_n) \to T(z), \qquad n \to \infty.$$

Conclusion: z = T(z) so z is a fixed point.

Lemma. K compact set in E. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exists a finite set $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in K$ such that for all $x \in K$

$$\min_{k=1,\dots,N} ||x - x_k|| < \varepsilon.$$

proof. Assume there is no finite sequence x_1,\ldots,x_N . Then there exists a sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ such that

$$||x_k - x_l|| \ge \varepsilon$$
, for $k \ne l$.

Clearly $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has no converging subsequence. This contradicts K beeing compact. \Box

Fix positive integer n. Apply previous lemma with $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. then there exists a finite set x_1, \ldots, x_N such that

$$K \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^{N} B\left(x_k, \frac{1}{n}\right).$$

Set

 $K_n = \{ ext{set of all convex combinations of } x_1, \dots, x_N \}$

$$= \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k x_k \, \middle| \, \lambda_k \ge 0 \text{ for all } k, \, \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k = 1 \right\}.$$

This set is a closed and bounded set in span (K_n) finite dimensional. Also K_n is convex. (want $T_n: K_n \to K_n$ where T_n close to T).



Set $f_k(x) = \max\left(0, \frac{1}{n} - \|x - x_k\|\right)$ for $x \in K$ and $k = 1, 2, \dots, N$. For each $x \in K$ there exists a k such that $f_k(x) > 0$. Set

$$P_n(x) = \frac{f_1(x)x_1 + f_2(x_2) + \ldots + f_N(x_N)}{f_1(x) + f_2(x) + \ldots + f_N(x)}, \quad x \in K.$$

 P_n is a convex combination of x_1, \ldots, x_N for every $x \in K$. So $P_n(x) \in K_n$ for every $x \in K$.

Claim: $||P_n(x) - x|| < \frac{1}{n}$ for all $x \in K$. Set T_n to be defined like

$$T_n := P_n T : K_n \to K_n.$$

Here T_n is continuous since T and P_n are continuous. K_n is compact and convex in a finite dimensional space. Brouwer's fixed point theorem implies that T_n has a fixed point in K_n ,i.e. there exists $x_n \in K_n$ such that

$$x_n = T_n(x_n) = P_n(x_n).$$

But then

$$||x_n - T(x_n)|| \le \underbrace{\left\|x_n - \underbrace{P_n T(x_n)}_{=T_n}\right\|}_{=0} + \underbrace{\left\|P_n T(x_n) - T(x_n)\right\|}_{<\frac{1}{n}}.$$

The first lemma above gives that T has a fixed point in K.

Example. Assume k(x,y) continuous on $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ and h(y,z) continuous on $[0,1] \times \mathbb{R}$ and

$$\sup_{(y,z)\in[0,1]\times\mathbb{R}} \lvert h(y,z)\rvert \equiv B < \infty.$$

Then there exists a solution $f \in C([0,1])$ to

$$f(x) = \int_0^1 k(x, y)h(y, f(y)) dy, \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

Method: Set $f \in C([0,1])$ and

$$T(f)(x) = \int_0^1 k(x, y)h(y, f(y)) \, \mathrm{d}y, \qquad x \in [0, 1] \qquad (*).$$

We want to apply (a generalized version of) Schander's fixed point theorem. Assume $(E, \|.\|)$ is a Banach space and F closed convex subset of E. Moreover assume $T: E \to E$ continuos and T(F) relatively compact in $(E, \|.\|)$. Then T has a fixed point in F.

Step 1: T as in (*).

Claim: $T(C([0,1])) \subseteq C([0,1]).$

To proof this we note that k is continuous on $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ whicht is compact in \mathbb{R}^2 .



This implies that k is uniformly continuous on $[0,1]\times[0,1]$. Fix now $\varepsilon>0$. Then there exists $\delta=\delta(\varepsilon)>0$ such that

$$|k(x_1, y_1) - k(x_2, y_2)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{B}$$

for $|(x_1, y_1) - (x_2, y_2)| < \delta$. Fix $f \in C([0, 1])$

$$\begin{split} |T(f)(x_1) - T(f)(x_2)| &= |\int_0^1 (k(x_1,y) - k(x_2,y))h(y,f(y)) \,\mathrm{d}y| \\ &\leq \int_0^1 \underbrace{|k(x_1,y) - k(x_2,y)||h(y,f(y))|}_{<\frac{\varepsilon}{B} \text{ if } |x_1 - x_2| < \delta} \,\mathrm{d}y < \varepsilon, \qquad \text{provided } |x_1 - x_2| < \delta \end{split}$$

Conclusion: $T(f) \in C([0,1])$ for $f \in C([0,1])$

Step 2: Choose F.

k is a continuous function on a compact set $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ implies

$$\sup_{(x,y)\in[0,1]\times[0,1]}\lvert k(x,y)\rvert\equiv A<\infty.$$

Hence

$$|T(f)(x)| \le AB$$
 for all $f \in C([0,1])$.

Set

$$F := \{ f \in C([0,1\,|\,)\}] \|f\| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)| \le AB.$$

Clearly F is closed convex in $(C([0,1]), \|.\|)$ which is a Banach space.

Step 3: Claim: T(F) is relatively compact.

To prove this we use the Arzela-Ascoli Theorem.

Let K be a compact set in \mathbb{R}^n . Let $\mathcal{S} \subset C(K)$ (realvalued continuous functions on K). Then \mathcal{S} is relatively compact in $(C(K), \|.\|_{\infty})$ if

(1) S uniformly bounded, i.e.

$$\sup_{f\in\mathcal{S}}||f||<\infty.$$

(2) Equicontinuity of $f \in \mathcal{S}$, i.e.

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \,\exists \, \delta = \delta(\varepsilon) > 0 : \, \forall \, f \in \mathcal{S} :$$
$$|x_1 - x_2| < \delta, \, x_1, x_2 \in K \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad |f(x_2) - f(x_1)| < \varepsilon.$$

In our example it is S = F, K = [0, 1] in \mathbb{R} . Check that (1) and (2) in AA-Theorem are satisfied.



(1) F is uniformly bounded since

$$\sup_{f \in F} ||f|| \le AB < \infty.$$

(2) Equicontinuity follows from calculations in Step 1.

Conclusion: T(F) is relatively compact.

Step 4: Claim: $T: F \rightarrow F$ continuous

In step 1 we had $f \in F$ and $x_n \to x$ in [0,1]. We have shown that $T(f)(x_n) \to T(f)(x)$ in \mathbb{R} . So T(f) is a continuous function.

Now we want to show that for $f_n \to f$ in F we've got $T(f_n) \to T(f)$ in C([0,1]).

Note that $h:[0,1]\times[-AB,AB]\to\mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $[0,1]\times[-AB,AB]$ is compact set in \mathbb{R}^2 . So $h:[0,1]\times[-AB,AB]\to\mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous.

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exists a $\delta = \delta(\varepsilon) > 0$ such that

$$|h(y_1, z_1) - h(y_2, z_2)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{A}$$

for $|(y_1, z_1) - (y_2, z_2)| < \delta$. For $f_1, f_2 \in F$ with

$$||f_1 - f_2|| < \delta.$$

We have

$$|T(f_1)(x) - T(f_2)(x)| = |\int_0^1 k(x, y)(h(y, f_1(y)) - h(y, f_2(y))) dy|$$

$$\leq \int_0^1 \underbrace{|k(x, y)||h(y, f_1(y)) - h(y, f_2(y))|}_{\leq A} dy < \varepsilon.$$

Conclusion: $T: F \to F$ is continuous.

Step 5: Apply Schander's fixed point theorem.

2.3 Completion of normed spaces

 $(E,\|.\|)$ normed spaces. We say that $(\tilde{E},\|.\|_*)$ is a completion of $(E,\|.\|)$ if $(\tilde{E},\|.\|_*)$ is a normed space such that

- (1) $\exists \Phi : E \to \tilde{E}$ injective and linear.
- (2) $||x|| = ||\Phi(x)||_*$ for all $x \in E$.
- (3) $\Phi(E)$ is dense in \tilde{E} .
- (4) $(\tilde{E}, \|.\|_*)$ is a Banach space.



Construction:

Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ and $(y_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ be Cauchy sequences in $(E,\|.\|)$. We say that $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ and $(y_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ are equivalent, denoted by $(x_n)\sim (y_n)$, if

$$||x_n - y_n|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

Set

$$\tilde{E} = \{((x_n))_N \, | \, (x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \text{ Cauchy sequence in } (E, \|.\|)\}.$$

Vector space structure:

$$\begin{cases} [(x_n)]_N + [(\tilde{x}_n)]_N &= [(x_n + \tilde{x}_n)]_N \\ \lambda [(x_n)]_N &= [(\lambda x)_n]_N. \end{cases}$$

Show that these definitions are well-defined, i.e. independent of the choice of representative norm

$$\|[(x_n)]_N\|_* = \lim_{n \to \infty} \|x_n\|.$$

Note

$$(x_n) \sim (y_n)$$

implies

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} ||x_n|| = \lim_{n \to \infty} ||y_n||.$$

Since

$$|||x_n|| - ||y_n||| \le ||x_n - y_n|| \to 0, \quad n \to \infty$$

Check that the axioms for being a norm are satisfied.

Now we have $(\tilde{E}, \|.\|_*)$ is a normed space.

Define Φ : For $x \in E$ set $\Phi(x) = [(x)_{n=1}^{\infty}]_N$ where

$$(x)_{n=1}^{\infty} = (x, x, x, \ldots).$$

Claim 1 & 2: easy to prove.

Claim 3: item $\Phi(E)$ dense in $(\tilde{E}, \|.\|_*)$. Fix $[(x_n)]_N \in \tilde{E}$. Consider $\Phi(x_k)$ where x_k is the element in the k-th position in the sequence $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n, \ldots)$.

$$\|[(x_n)]_N - \Phi(x_k)\|_* = \lim_{n \to \infty} \|x_n - x_k\| \to 0 \qquad k \to \infty.$$

Since $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Claim 4: item $(\tilde{E}, \|.\|_*)$ is a Banach space.

Consider a Cauchy sequence $z_n \in \tilde{E}$ such that $||z_n - z|| \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

To show: There exists $z \in \tilde{E}$ such that

$$||z_n - z|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$



By 3 we have that $\Phi(E)$ is dense in \tilde{E} so for $n=1,2,\ldots$ there exists $x_n\in E$, $n=1,2,\ldots$ such that

$$||z_n - \Phi(z_n)|| < \frac{1}{n}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Set $z =: [(x_n)]_N$.

Need to show that $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence

$$||x_n - x_m|| = ||\Phi(x_n) - \Phi(x_m)||_*$$

$$\leq ||\Phi(x_n) - z_n||_* + ||z_n - z_m||_* + ||z_m - \Phi(x_m)||_*$$

$$< \frac{1}{n} + ||z_n - z_m|| + \frac{1}{m} \to 0, \qquad n, m \to \infty.$$

Conclusion: $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(E, \|.\|)$. Remains to show:

$$||z_n - z||_* \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty$$

$$||z_n - z||_* \le \underbrace{||z_n - \Phi(x_n)||_*}_{<\frac{1}{n}} + \underbrace{||\Phi(x_n) - z||_*}_{=\lim_{n \to \infty} ||x_n - x_m||} \to 0, \quad n \to \infty.$$

Consider $f \in C([0,1])$

- max-norm: $||f|| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)|$. Then (C([0,1]), ||.||) is a Banach space.
- $p \ge 1$:

$$||f||_{L^p} = \left(\int_0^1 |f(x)|^p dx\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

defines a norm for C([0,1]).

Remark. • Consider piecewise linear $f_n \in C([0,1])$ for $n=1,2,\ldots$

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le x \le 1\\ 0, & \text{if } x \le \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n} \end{cases}$$

with

$$||f_n - f_m||_{L^1} \le \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\min(m, n)} \to 0, \quad n, m \to \infty.$$

So $(f_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(C([0,1]),\|.\|_{L^1})$ but $(f_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ does not converge in $(C([0,1]),\|.\|_{L^1})$ since if $\|f_n-f\|_{L^1}\to 0$ as $n\to\infty$ and $f\in C([0,1])$ then

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}) \\ 1, & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1] \end{cases}.$$

Conclusion: $(C([0,1]), \|.\|_{L^1})$ is not a Banach space.



· Consider:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \setminus \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \right\} \end{cases}.$$

Then

$$||f||_{L^1} = 0 = ||0||_{L^1}.$$

Compare this with the first axiom for a norm function.

• Replace [0,1] with \mathbb{R} . For $f:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$ set

$$\operatorname{supp}(f) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \,|\, f(x) \neq 0 \}.$$

Set

$$C_0(\mathbb{R}) = \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) \mid \text{supp}(f) \text{ is compact in } \mathbb{R} \}.$$

Claim: $C_0(\mathbb{R})$ forms a vector space and for every $p \geq 1$ and $f \in C_0(\mathbb{R})$

$$||f||_{L^p} = \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(x)|^p \, \mathrm{d}x\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

defines a norm on $C_0(\mathbb{R})$.

Problem: $(C_0(\mathbb{R}), \|.\|_{L^p})$ for $p \ge 1$ are not Banach spaces.

 $(L^1(\mathbb{R}), \|.\|_{L^1})$ is a completion of $(C_0(\mathbb{R}), \|.\|_{L^1})$.

Note $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ and A bounded. Define

$$f_A(x)$$
 $\begin{cases} 1, & x \in A \\ 0, \text{ elsewhere} \end{cases}$.

Lebesguesmeasure of $A=\|f_A\|_{L^1}=\mu(f_A).$ $A\subset\mathbb{R}$ and A unbounded

$$\mu(A) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(A \cap [-n, n]).$$

We say that $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is a 0- set if for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exist open intervals I_n , n = 1, 2, ... such that

- (1) $A \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$,
- (2) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$ lenghts of $I_m < \varepsilon$.

In particular

$$A = \mathbb{Q} = \{r_n \mid n = 1, 2, \ldots\}$$
 is a 0-set.



3 Hilbert spaces

Example. Consider $\mathbb{C}^n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{C}\}$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ with $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$. Define the inner product of x, y (scalar product)

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \bar{y}_i \in \mathbb{C}.$$

We have a map

$$\mathbb{C}^n \times \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}$$
$$(x, y) \mapsto \langle x, y \rangle.$$

This mapping has properties:

- $x \neq 0$ folgt $\langle x, x \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \bar{x}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^2 > 0$
- $\langle \lambda x \,,\, y \rangle = \lambda \langle x \,,\, y \rangle$ for $x,y \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
- $\langle x\,,\,y\rangle=\sum_{i=1}^n x_i\bar{y}_i=\overline{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i\bar{x}_i} \text{ for } x,y\in\mathbb{C}^n.$ In particular $\langle x\,,\,\lambda y\rangle=\bar{\lambda}\langle x\,,\,y\rangle$ for $\lambda\in\mathbb{C}.$
- $\langle x+y\,,\,z\rangle=\langle x\,,\,z\rangle+\langle y\,,\,z\rangle$ for $x,y,z\in\mathbb{C}^n$.

Definition . An inner product space V is a complex vector space with an inner product which is a map

$$\langle ., . \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{C}.$$

Satisfying

- $\langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \lambda \langle x, y \rangle$ for any $x, y \in V, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
- $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$ for any $x, y, z \in V$.
- $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle x, y \rangle}$ for any $x, y \in V$.
- $\langle x, x \rangle > 0$ for any $x \in V, x \neq 0$.

Can we generalize \mathbb{C}^n ?

$$\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{N}}\{(x_1, x_2, \ldots) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{C}\}\$$

with

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i.$$

This is not necessarily convergent.



Examples. (1)

$$l^2 = \left\{ (x_1, x_2, \ldots) \left| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^2 < \infty \right. \right\}.$$

We have with Cauchy Schwarz

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i \bar{y}_i| \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

if $x \in l^2$ and $y \in l^2$ we get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i \bar{y}_i| \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |y_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} < \infty.$$

It follows that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i$ converges absolutely and hence it is convergent. The following

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i$$

is well-defined for vectors $x,y\in l^2$. Like for \mathbb{C}^n one can easily check that $\langle .\,,\,.\rangle$ satisfies the axioms for inner products.

 $(l^2, \langle ., . \rangle)$ is an inner product space.

(2) Consider C([0,1]) with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} \, \mathrm{d}t \qquad \forall f, g \in C([0, 1]).$$

 $\langle \lambda f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 \lambda f(t) \overline{g(t)} \, \mathrm{d}t = \lambda \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} \, \mathrm{d}t = \lambda \langle f, g \rangle.$

 $\langle f, f \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{f(t)} \, dt = \int_0^1 |f(t)|^2 \, dt > 0.$

•

If we take \mathbb{R}^3 with the Eukledian norm on \mathbb{R}^3

$$\|(x_1, x_2, x_3)\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^3 |x_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \langle x, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Let V be an inner product space with $\langle .\,,\,.\rangle$ as the inner product. Let for $x\in V$

$$||x|| := \langle x \,,\, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$



Statement 3.1. The $x \mapsto ||x||$ with ||.|| defined above is a norm.

We are going to prove the norm axioms but first we need another theorem.

Theorem 3.2 (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality). For any $x, y \in V$ (inner product space)

$$|\langle x\,,\,y\rangle| \leq \langle x\,,\,x\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} \langle y\,,\,y\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

The equality holds iff x, y are linearly dependent.

proof. Assume x,y linearly dependent. We can assume that $x=\lambda y$ for some $\lambda\in\mathbb{C}$.

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| = |\langle \lambda y, y \rangle| = |\lambda| \langle y, y \rangle$$

and

$$\langle x , x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} \langle y , y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} = \langle \lambda y , \lambda y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} \langle y , y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
$$= |\lambda| \langle y , y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} \langle y , y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
$$= |\lambda| \langle y , y \rangle.$$

Hence

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| = \langle x, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} \langle y, y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Assume x,y are linearly independent. Hence $x+\lambda y\neq 0$ for any $\lambda\in\mathbb{C}$. By an axiom for inner product we get

$$0 < \langle x + \lambda y, x + \lambda y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \lambda \langle y, x \rangle + \overline{\lambda} \langle x, y \rangle + |\lambda|^2 \langle y, y \rangle.$$

Pick now

$$\lambda = -\frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\langle y, y \rangle}.$$

(Note that $y \neq 0$ as x, y linearly independent.) We have

$$0 < \langle x , x \rangle - \frac{\overbrace{\langle x , y \rangle \langle y , x \rangle}^{=|\langle x, y \rangle|^{2}}}{\langle y , y \rangle} - \frac{\overbrace{\langle x , y \rangle \langle x , y \rangle}^{=|\langle x, y \rangle|^{2}}}{\langle y , y \rangle} + \frac{|\langle x , y \rangle|^{2}}{\langle y , y \rangle^{2}} \langle y , y \rangle$$
$$= \langle x , x \rangle - \frac{|\langle x , y \rangle|^{2}}{\langle y , y \rangle}.$$

This gives

$$\frac{\left|\left\langle x\,,\,y\right\rangle\right|^{2}}{\left\langle y\,,\,y\right\rangle} < \left\langle x\,,\,x\right\rangle$$

and it follows

$$\left|\langle x\,,\,y\rangle\right|^2 < \langle x\,,\,x\rangle\langle y\,,\,y\rangle.$$

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Now we can use this inequality to proof the statement above:

proof. (i) ||x|| > 0 for all $x \neq 0$ in V (Exercise).

- (ii) $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$ for all $x \in V$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ (Exercise).
- (iii) Let $x, y \in V$. Then

$$\begin{split} \left\|x+y\right\|^2 &= \langle x+y\,,\, x+y\rangle \\ &= \langle x\,,\, x\rangle + \langle x\,,\, y\rangle + \langle y\,,\, x\rangle + \langle y\,,\, y\rangle \\ &= \langle x\,,\, x\rangle + 2\mathrm{Re}(\langle x\,,\, y\rangle) + \langle y\,,\, y\rangle \\ &\leq \langle x\,,\, x\rangle + 2|\langle x\,,\, y\rangle| + \langle y\,,\, y\rangle \\ &\leq \langle x\,,\, x\rangle + 2\langle x\,,\, x\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}\langle y\,,\, y\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} + \langle y\,,\, y\rangle \\ &= \left(\langle x\,,\, x\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} + \langle y\,,\, y\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^2. \end{split}$$

So

$$||x + y||^2 \le (||x|| + ||y||)^2$$
.

Theorem 3.3 (The Parallelogram Law). Let $(V, \langle ., . \rangle)$ be an inner product space. Let $||x|| = \langle x, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Then

$$||x + y||^2 + ||x - y||^2 = 2(||x||^2 + ||y||^2) \quad \forall x, y \in V.$$

Statement 3.4. l^p has inner product $\langle .\,,\,.\rangle_{l^p}$ such that

$$\left\|x\right\|_{p} = \sqrt{\langle x\,,\,x\rangle_{l^{p}}}$$

iff p=2.

proof. Enough to show that $\|.\|_p$ -norm does not satisfy the parallelogram law for some $x,y\in l^p$ if $p\neq 2$. Take for example $x=(1,0,0,\ldots)$ and $y=(0,1,0,\ldots)$. Note that $\|x\|_{l^p}=\|y\|_{l^p}=1$

$$||x+y||_{l^p}^2 = ||(1,1,0,\ldots)||_{l^p} = 2^{\frac{2}{p}}$$

$$||x-y||_{l^p}^2 = ||(1,-1,0,\ldots)||_{l^p} = 2^{\frac{2}{p}}$$

$$||x+y||_{l^p}^2 + ||x-y||_{l^p}^2 = 2 \cdot 2^{\frac{2}{p}} = 2(||x||_{l^p}^2 + ||y||_{l^p}^2) = 2 \cdot 2.$$

All l^p with $p \neq 2$ are not inner product spaces.

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Exercise:

Show that $(C([0,1]), \|.\|_{\infty})$ is not an inner product space.

Remark. Whenever a norm satisfies the parallelogram law then there exists an inner product on V such that

$$||x|| = \langle x \,,\, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Theorem 3.5 (The Polarization Identity). Let $(V, \langle ., . \rangle)$ be an inner product space. Then

$$4\langle x, y \rangle = \|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2 + i\|x + iy\|^2 - i\|x - iy\|^2.$$

Definition 3.6. Let $(V, \langle ., . \rangle)$ be an inner product space. We say that x, y in V are othogonal if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ (We write $x \perp y$). Let $M \subseteq V$ Define the orthogonal complement

$$M^{\perp} = \{ x \in V \mid x \perp y \text{ for any } y \in M \}.$$

Proposition 3.7. If $M \subseteq V$ then M^{\perp} is a subspace of V.

Theorem 3.8 (Pythagorean formula). $x, y \in V$ (inner product space). Then

$$x \perp y$$
 iff $||x + y||^2 = ||x||^2 + ||y||^2$.

3.1 Orthogonal Systems

Let $(V, \langle ., . \rangle)$ be an inner product space $\{u_n\} \subseteq V$ is called orthogonal system (with n finite or infinite) if $u_n \perp u_m$ for all $n \neq m$. It is an orthonormal system if in addition $||u_n|| = 1$.

Examples. 1) $\{e_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq l^2$ with

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i$$

with

$$e_k = (0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots).$$

 $\Rightarrow \{e_k\}$ is an ON-system.

2) $C([-\pi,\pi])$ with

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \overline{g(t)} \, dt.$$

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-int} \, \middle| \, n \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

is an orthonormal system.



Definition 3.9. Let $\{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be an orthonormal system in V. The formal series

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

is called a fourier series of x corresponding $\{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $\langle x, a_n \rangle$ are called fourier coefficients of x corresponding to $\{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Theorem 3.10 (Bessel's Equality and Inequality). If $\{u_n\}$ orthonormal system in an inner product space V, then for all $x \in V$

$$\left\| x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x \,,\, a_k \rangle a_k \right\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x \,,\, a_k \rangle|^2$$

and

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\langle x \,,\, a_k \rangle|^2 \le ||x||^2.$$

proof.

$$\left\| x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, a_k \rangle a_k \right\|^2 = \langle x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, a_k \rangle a_k, x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, a_k \rangle a_k \rangle$$

$$= \langle x, x \rangle - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \overline{\langle x, a_k \rangle} \langle x, a_k \rangle - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, a_k \rangle \langle a_k, x \rangle$$

$$+ \langle \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, a_k \rangle a_k, \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, a_k \rangle a_k \rangle$$

$$= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, a_k \rangle|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, a_k \rangle|^2 + \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, a_k \rangle|^2$$

$$= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, a_k \rangle|^2.$$

This gives also:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, a_k \rangle|^2 = ||x||^2 - \left| |x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, a_k \rangle a_k \right| \le ||x||^2$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\langle x \,,\, a_k \rangle|^2 \le ||x||^2.$$



Definition 3.11 (Hilbert space). A Hilbert space is an inner product space which is complete w.r.t. the norm is defined through the inner product.

Examples. • \mathbb{C}^n is an inner product space and complete w.r.t the Eukledean norm. Hence \mathbb{C}^n is a Hilbert space.

• l^2 is a Banach space w.r.t.

$$||x||_{l^2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

and

$$||x||_{l^2} = \langle x \,,\, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

where

$$\langle x \,,\, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i.$$

- $(C([0,1]),\|.\|_{\infty})$ is a Banach space but not an inner product space. Hence it is no Hilbert space.
- $(C([0,1]), \langle ., . \rangle)$ is an inner product space $f, g \in C([0,1])$ with

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} \, \mathrm{d}t$$

and the corresponding

$$||f||_2 = \langle f, f \rangle = \int_0^1 |f(t)|^2 dt.$$

Remark. Other l^p spaces are not Hilbert spaces!!!! They are not inner product spaces.

Statement 3.12. $(C([0,1]),\langle.\,,\,.\rangle)$ is not a Hilbert space since $(C([0,1]),\|.\|_2)$ is not complete.

proof. Sketch: Show that $f_n(t)$, which is defined as a piecewise continuous function for example

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}] \\ 0, & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n}] \\ \text{continuous}, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

is a Cauchy sequence w.r.t $\|.\|_2$ but has no limit in C([0,1]).

Consider

$$C_F = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots) \mid \text{only finite } x_i \neq 0\}$$

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with

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i.$$

Show that $(C_F, \langle ., . \rangle)$ is not a Hilbert space.

Definition 3.13 (strongly and weakly convergent). A sequence $\{x_n\} \subseteq H$, where H is a Hilbert space, is called strongly convergent $(x_n \to x \in H)$ if

$$||x_n - x|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

(Norm induced by an inner product)

We say that x_n is weakly convergent $(x_n \rightharpoonup x)$ if

$$\langle x_n, y \rangle \to \langle x, y \rangle, \quad \forall y \in H.$$

Statement 3.14. $x_n \to x \Rightarrow x_n \rightharpoonup x$.

proof. Assume strong convergence for $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$. Then

$$|\langle x_n, y \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle| = |\langle x_n - x, y \rangle|$$

$$\leq \underbrace{\langle x_n - x, x_n - x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}}_{=\|x_n - x\|} \underbrace{\langle y, y \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}}_{=\|y\|}$$

$$= \underbrace{x_n - x}_{\to 0} \|y\| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

Hence $\langle x_n, y \rangle \to \langle x, y \rangle$.

Remark. The converse is not true in general: Take $H=l^2$ and

$$x_n = e_n = (0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots)$$

 $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots) \in l^2.$

We have for all $y \in H$

$$\langle e_n, y \rangle = y_n \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty$$

as

$$||e_n - 0||_{l^2} = ||e_n||_{l^2} = 1.$$

Statement 3.15. $x_n \to x$ and $y_n \to y$ yields

$$\langle x_n, y_n \rangle \to \langle x, y \rangle$$
.



In particular

$$x_n \to x \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad ||x_n|| \to ||x||.$$

proof.

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle x_n \,,\, y_n \rangle - \langle x \,,\, y \rangle| &= |\langle x_n \,,\, y_n \rangle - \langle x \,,\, y_n \rangle + \langle x \,,\, y_n \rangle - \langle x \,,\, y \rangle| \\ &= |\langle x_n - x \,,\, y_n \rangle + \langle x \,,\, y_n - y \rangle| \\ &\leq |\langle x_n - x \,,\, y \rangle| + |\langle x \,,\, y_n - y \rangle| \\ &\leq \underbrace{\|x_n - x\| \|y_n\|}_{\to 0} + \underbrace{\|x\| \|y_n - y\|}_{\to 0} \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Check $\{||y_n||\}$ is bounded

$$||y_n|| = ||y_n - y + y|| \le \underbrace{\longrightarrow}_{||y_n - y||} + \underbrace{||y||}_{<\infty} \to 0, \quad n \to \infty.$$

Statement 3.16. $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ and $\|x_n\| \to \|x\|$ yields

$$x_n \to x$$
.

proof.

$$||x_{n} - x||^{2} = \langle x_{n} - x, x_{n} - x \rangle$$

$$= \underbrace{\langle x_{n}, x_{n} \rangle}_{=||x_{n}||^{2}} - \langle x, x_{n} \rangle - \langle x_{n}, x \rangle + \langle x, x \rangle$$

$$= ||x_{n}||^{2}$$

$$= ||x_{n}||^{2} - \overline{\langle x_{n}, x \rangle} - \langle x_{n}, x \rangle + ||x||^{2}$$

$$\to ||x||^{2} - ||x||^{2} - ||x||^{2} + ||x||^{2} = 0.$$

We have proved

$$x_n \to x \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \{\|x_n\|\} \text{ is bounded.}$$

Theorem 3.17.

$$x_n \rightharpoonup x \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} ||x_n|| < \infty.$$

proof. Let $x_n \rightharpoonup x$. Consider $f_n : H \to \mathbb{C}$ where

$$f_n(y) = \langle y, x_n \rangle, \quad y \in H.$$

• f_n is a linear functional for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



• $\forall\,n\in\mathbb{N}\ f_n$ is a bounded (\Leftrightarrow continuous) linear functional as if

$$y_k \stackrel{k \to \infty}{\to} y \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad f_n(y_k) = \langle y_k, x_n \rangle \to \langle y, x_n \rangle = f_n(y), \qquad k \to \infty.$$

• $f_n(y) \to \langle y, x \rangle$.

 $\{f_n(y)\}_n$ is a convergent sequence in $\mathbb C$ and hence bounded for all $y\in H.$ Hence it exists M_y such that

$$|f_n(y)| \leq M_y$$
.

By Banach-Steinhaus-Theorem it holds

$$||f_n|| \leq M$$
 for some $M > 0$.

We are done if we proof that $||f_n|| = ||x_n||$.

$$|f_n(y)| = |\langle y, x_n \rangle| \le ||y|| ||x_n||, \qquad \forall y \in H.$$

Hence

$$||f_n|| \le ||x_n|| \tag{1}.$$

On the other Hand we have

$$f_n(x_n) = \langle x_n , x_n \rangle = ||x_n||^2$$

and thus

$$||f_n|| = \sup_{x \in H} \frac{|f_n(x)|}{||x||} \ge \frac{|f_n(x_n)|}{||x_n||} = ||x_n||$$
 (2)

With (1) and (2) we are finished.

3.2 Orthogonal decomposition in Hilbert spaces

Remember Linear Algebra. Take \mathbb{R}^n and a subspace $M\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad x = z + y, \quad \text{where } z \in M, y \in M^{\perp}.$$

This can be done in a unique way

$$M = \operatorname{span}\{e_z\}$$
$$M^{\perp} = \operatorname{span}\{e_y\}$$

and

$$z = \operatorname{proj}_{M^{\perp}} x, \qquad \qquad \|x - \operatorname{proj}_{M} x\| = \min_{y \in M} \|x - y\|.$$

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Proposition 3.18. $M \subseteq H$, then M^{\perp} is a closed subspace and

$$\left(M^{\perp}\right)^{\perp} = \overline{\operatorname{span} M}.$$

Statement 3.19. H Hilbert space and M-closed subspace of H and $x \in H$. Then there exists a unique $z \in M$ such that

$$||x - z|| = \operatorname{dist}(x, M) := \inf_{y \in M} ||x - y||.$$

 $(z \text{ analog of the } \text{proj}_{M}x \text{ in the other case}).$

Proposition 3.20. Taking $z \in M$ from the previous proposition. We have $x - z \in M^{\perp}$, i.e.

$$x = \underbrace{z}_{\in M} + \underbrace{(x - z)}_{\in M^{\perp}}.$$

Theorem 3.21 (Orthogonal Decompostion Theorem). Let $(E, \langle . , . \rangle)$ be a Hilbert space and S be a closed subspace of E.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $E = S \oplus S^{\perp}$

which means that for every $x \in E$ there exists an unique decomposition

$$x = y + z$$

with $y \in S$ and $z \in S^{\perp}$.

Example. Let $A \subseteq E$ where E is a Hilbert space. It follows

$$\overline{\operatorname{span} A} = \left(A^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}.$$

Note

$$A\subseteq\underbrace{\left(A^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}}_{\text{subspace of }E}\qquad\Rightarrow\qquad \operatorname{span}A\subseteq\underbrace{\left(A^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}}_{\text{closed}}\qquad\Rightarrow\qquad \overline{\operatorname{span}A}\subseteq\left(A^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}$$

$$A\subseteq \overline{\operatorname{span} A} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \overline{\operatorname{span} A}^\perp \subseteq A^\perp \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \left(A^\perp\right)^\perp \subseteq \left(\overline{\operatorname{span} A}^\perp\right)^\perp.$$

Hence

$$\overline{\operatorname{span} A} \subseteq \left(A^{\perp}\right)^{\perp} \subseteq \left(\overline{\operatorname{span} A}^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}.$$

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By the Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem we get

$$E = \overline{\operatorname{span} A} \oplus \overline{\operatorname{span} A}^{\perp} = \overline{\operatorname{span} A}^{\perp} \oplus \left(\overline{\operatorname{span} A}^{\perp}\right)^{\perp},$$

which implies

$$\overline{\operatorname{span} A} = \left(\overline{\operatorname{span} A}^{\perp}\right)^{\perp},$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(A^{\perp}\right)^{\perp} = \overline{\operatorname{span} A}.$$

Now we are going to prove the Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem. **Step 1:** S is a closed convex set in a Hilbert space E. This implies that

$$\forall x \in E \exists ! y \in S : \qquad ||x - y|| \le ||x - \tilde{y}|| \qquad \forall \tilde{y} \in S$$

which means

$$||x - y|| = \inf_{\tilde{y} \in S} ||x - \tilde{y}||.$$

Fix $x \notin S$ with

$$\inf_{\tilde{y} \in S} ||x - \tilde{y}|| = d > 0.$$

Take a sequence $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in S such that

$$||x - y_n|| \to d, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

Claim: This is a Cauchy sequence. (use Parallelogram-law for $\|.\|$)

Step 2: S as in ODT.

Note: S must be convex. Fix $x \in E$, choose $y \in S$ with

$$||x - y|| < ||x - \tilde{y}||, \quad \forall \, \tilde{y} \in S.$$

Set

$$\underbrace{x}_{\in E} = \underbrace{y}_{\in S} + (x - y).$$

To show: $x - y \in S^{\perp}$. A variational argument of this is

$$\langle x - y, v \rangle = 0, \quad \forall v \in S.$$

We know

$$\begin{split} \|x-y\|^2 &\leq \|x-y+\alpha v\|^2 & \forall \operatorname{scalars} \, \alpha \\ \|x-y\|^2 &\leq \langle x-y+\alpha v \,,\, x-y+\alpha v \rangle \\ &= \|x-y\|^2 + \alpha \langle v \,,\, x-y \rangle + \bar{\alpha} \langle x-y \,,\, v \rangle + |\alpha|^2 \|v\|^2 \end{split}$$



and

$$0 \le 2\operatorname{Re}(\alpha \langle x + y, v \rangle) + |\alpha|^2 ||v||.$$

Set

$$\alpha = t \overline{\langle x - y, v \rangle}, \qquad t \in \mathbb{R},$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad 0 \le 2t |\langle x - y, v \rangle|^2 + t^2 |\langle x - y, v \rangle|^2 ||v||^2.$$

Assume $\langle x-y\,,\,v\rangle\neq 0$: We have

$$0 \le 2t + t^2 ||v||^2 \qquad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad -2t \le t^2 ||v||^2, \qquad \text{Let } t < 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad 2 \le -t ||v||^2, \qquad t < 0.$$

Let $t \to 0$, then

$$2 \leq 0$$

which is a contradiction.

3.3 Bounded linear functionals on Hilbert spaces

Consider $(H, \langle ., . \rangle)$ - Hilbert space (inner product space which is complete w.r.t. to a norm $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$).

Let M be a closed subspace of H.

$$\mathcal{M}^{\perp} = \{ y \in H \, | \, \langle x \,, \, y \rangle = 0, \, \forall \, x \in M \}.$$

Then we know $H=M+M^{\perp}$, i.e. for any $x\in H$ there exists a unique $y\in M$ and $z\in M^{\perp}$ such that

$$x = y + z$$
.

Theorem 3.22 (Riesz-Frechét represantation theorem). Let $(H, \langle . , . \rangle)$ be a Hilbert space. Let f be a bounded linear functionall on H. Then there exists a unique $x_f \in H$ such that

$$f(x) = \langle x, x_f \rangle, \quad \forall x \in H.$$

Moreover

$$||f|| = ||x_f||_H.$$

Remark. If $f:H\to\mathbb{C}$ is of the form

$$f(x) = \langle x, y \rangle$$
, for all $x \in H$ and some $y \in H$.

Then f is bounded and linear (easy with Cauchy-Schwarz and properties of the scalar product).



proof. Existence of x_f : If f is a zero linear functional, i.e. f(x) = 0 for all $x \in H$ take $x_f = 0$. Assume now that f is not the zero functional. Consider

$$N(f) := \ker f = \{ x \in H \, | \, f(x) = 0 \}.$$

Then N(f) is a closed subspace of H: For $x_1, x_2 \in N(f)$, $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ it holds

$$f(\alpha x_1, \beta x_2) \stackrel{\text{lin}}{=} \alpha f(x_1) + \beta f(x_2).$$

Hence $\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2 \in N(f)$ and N(f) is a subspace. N(f) is closed since if $x_n \in N(f)$ with $x_n \to x$ strongly. Then

$$f(x_n) \to f(x)$$

because of bounded and hence continuous. But we know that $f(x_n)=0$ so the limit has to be f(x)=0, i.e $x\in N(f)$. N(f) is a proper closed subspace. $(N(f)\neq H)$. Consider now $N(f)^{\perp}$ which is non-zero.

• $\dim N(f)^{\perp}=1$. Assume that $x_1\neq 0, x_2\neq 0\in N(f)^{\perp}$. Then we have $f(x_1), f(x_2)\neq 0$. It exists $a\in\mathbb{C}$ such that

$$f(x_1) + af(x_2) = 0.$$

And also

$$f(x_1 + ax_2) = 0$$

which gives

$$x_1 + ax_2 \in N(f) \cap N(f)^{\perp} = \{0\}.$$

Hence

$$x_1 + ax_2 = 0.$$

Any two vectors are linearly dependent in $N(f)^{\perp}$ which gives

$$\dim N(f)^{\perp} = 1.$$

Take $y' \in N(f)^{\perp}$ with ||y'|| = 1 and let

$$x_f = \overline{f(y')}y'.$$

We get

$$\langle x \,,\, x_f \rangle = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \in N(f) \\ \langle \lambda y' \,,\, \overline{f(y')}y' \rangle = f(y')\lambda \underbrace{\langle y' \,,\, y' \rangle}_{=1}, & \text{if } x = \lambda y' \end{cases}.$$

Furthermore

$$\langle x \,,\, x_f \rangle = \begin{cases} f(x), & \text{if } x \in N(f) \\ f(\lambda y') = f(x), & \text{if } x = \lambda y' \end{cases}.$$

Since every element in H is given by $x + \lambda y'$. For $x \in N(f)$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Using linearity we get

$$f(x + \lambda y') = f(x) + f(\lambda y') = \langle x, x_f \rangle + \langle \lambda y', x_f \rangle = \langle x + \lambda y', x_f \rangle$$



uniqueness: Assume there exists $x_1, x_2 \in H$ such that

$$f(x) = \langle x, x_1 \rangle = \langle x, x_2 \rangle, \quad \forall x \in H.$$

We get

$$\langle x, x_1 - x_2 \rangle = 0, \quad \forall x \in H.$$

It holds in particular for $x = x_1 - x_2$ the following equality

$$\langle x_1 - x_2, x_1 - x_2 \rangle = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x_1 - x_2 = 0.$$

norm equality We must see that

$$||f|| = ||x_f||_H.$$

From remark we have

$$f(x) = \langle x, x_f \rangle \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad ||f|| \le ||x_f||.$$

We have for $x_f \neq 0$:

$$||f|| = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{|f(x)|}{||x||} \ge \frac{|f(x_f)|}{||x_f||} = \frac{||x_f||^2}{||x_f||} = ||x_f||.$$

This gives the desired result.

Example.

$$E = C_F = \{(x_1, x_2, \ldots) \mid \text{only finite number of } x_i \neq 0\} \subseteq l^2.$$

On C_F consider l^2 -inner-product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i$$
 for $x, y \in C_F$.

1. C_F is not a Hilbert space as it is not complete w.r.t

$$||x||_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Find a Cauchy sequence that is not convergent to an element in C_F .

Find a proper closed subspace M such that $M^{\perp}=\{0\}$ (This would mean in particular that $C_F\neq M+M^{\perp}$)

Consider

$$M = \left\{ (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in C_F \left| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \frac{1}{k} = 0 \right\}, \right.$$
$$x_f = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots) \in l^2,$$



$$M = \ker f \cap C_F$$

where

$$f: l^2 \to \mathbb{C}$$

$$f(x) = \langle x, x_f \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \frac{1}{k},$$

 M^{\perp} = all elements in C_F which are in $(\ker f)^{\perp}$.

From the proof of Riesz-Frechet theorem we have $(\ker f)^{\perp}$ is 1-dimensional and

$$x_f \in (\ker f)^{\perp}$$
.

Hence

$$(\ker f)^{\perp} = \{ \lambda x_f \, | \, \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \}.$$

We have

$$\underbrace{(\ker f)^{\perp} \cap C_F}_{=M^{\perp}} = \{0\}.$$

2. $(H, \langle ., . \rangle)$ Hilbert space and $\{u_i\} \subseteq H$ finite or infinite i. $\{u_i\}$ is an orthogonal system if

$$\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = 0, \quad \forall i \neq j$$

and an orthonormal system if

$$\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1, & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}.$$

Proposition 3.23. Orthogonal system of non-zero vectors are linearly independent. (See linear algebra)

Having linearly independent family of vectors we can make it orthogonal with for example using Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure. (See linear algebra for details). Recall that we can write a Fourier series of x with $\langle x\,,\,u_i\rangle$ Fourier coefficients

$$x \in H$$
 \Rightarrow $x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_i \rangle u_i$

with $\{u_i\}$ -ON-system.

 $C([-\pi,\pi])$ and $\{u_k\}=\left\{rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{ikt}\,\Big|\,k\in\mathbb{Z}
ight\}$ equipped with the scalar product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \overline{g(t)} \, \mathrm{d}t.$$



It holds for the Fourier-series

$$\langle f, u_k \rangle = \hat{f}(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t)e^{-ikt} dt.$$

We want to see when

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

is convergent to x.

Definition 3.24. \mathcal{A}_n ON-system is called an ON-basis for H if its span is dense in H. We say that an ON-system is complete if every $x \in H$ is

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

Theorem 3.25. $(H, \langle ., . \rangle)$ - Hilbert space, $\{u_k\}$ is ON-system in H. The following statements are equivalent.

- (1) $\{u_n\}$ is a complete ON-system.
- (2) $\{u_n\}$ is an ON-basis for H.
- (3) (Parsevals's Identity)

$$||x|| = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_k \rangle|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \forall x \in H.$$

- (4) $\langle x\,,\,y\rangle=\sum_{k=1}^\infty\langle x\,,\,u_k\rangle\overline{\langle y\,,\,u_k\rangle}$ for all $x,y\in H$.
- (5) $\langle x, u_k \rangle = 0$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ follows x = 0.

proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): We have

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

it means

$$x = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \langle x, u_i \rangle w_i \in \text{span}\{u_i \mid i \ge 1\}.$$

This is implies that any $x \in H$ is in $\overline{\operatorname{span}\{u_i \mid i \geq 1\}}$, i.e. $\{w_i\}$ is ON-basis.

(2) \Rightarrow (5): Let $\{u_i\}$ be a ON-basis. Assume

$$\langle x, u_k \rangle = 0, \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}.$$



Then

$$\langle x, u \rangle = 0, \quad \forall u \in \text{span}\{u_k \mid k \ge 1\}.$$

By the property that strong convergence implies weak convergence we will have

$$\langle x, u \rangle = 0, \quad \forall u \in \text{span}\{u_k \mid k \ge 1\} = H.$$

In particular

$$\langle x, u \rangle = 0, \quad \text{for } u = x$$

which means

$$\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad x = 0.$$

(5) \Rightarrow (1) Recall Bessel's equality. For $\{u_k\}$ - ON-system then

$$\left\| x - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \langle x, u_k \rangle u_k \right\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{k} |\langle x, u_k \rangle|^2$$

Assume (5), i.e.

$$\langle x, u_k \rangle = 0, \qquad \forall k \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x = 0$$

We must see

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, u_k \rangle w_k \qquad \forall x \in H.$$

From Bessel's equality we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x \,, \, w_k \rangle| = \|x\|^2 - \left\| x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x \,, \, u_k \rangle w_k \right\|^2 \le \|x\|^2, \qquad \forall \, k \in \mathbb{N}$$

and hence $\sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, w_k \rangle|^2$ is convergent. It implies that for n > m we have

$$\begin{split} \left\| \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x \,,\, u_k \rangle w_k - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x \,,\, u_k \rangle w_k \right\|^2 &= \left\| \sum_{k=m+1}^{n} \langle x \,,\, u_k \rangle w_k \right\|^2 \\ &= \sum_{k=m+1}^{n} |\langle x \,,\, u_k \rangle|^2 \|w_k\|^2 \\ &\to 0, \qquad n,m \to 0 \qquad (*). \end{split}$$

Note that if $\{x_i\}$ are paarwise orthogonal it holds

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \|x\|^2.$$

From (*) we know that the partial sum

$$S_n := \sum_{k=1}^n \langle x \,, \, u_k \rangle w_k$$



is a Cauchy sequence. As H is a Hilbert space, H is complete and hence S_n has a limit in H. Write

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

for the limit. We must see that the limit is x. Consider

$$y := x - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_i \rangle w_i.$$

Then

$$\langle y, u_i \rangle = \langle x, w_i \rangle - \langle x, w_i \rangle = 0, \quad \forall i.$$

By assumption (5) it follows

$$y = 0$$
 \Leftrightarrow $x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_i \rangle w_i.$

(1) \Rightarrow (3): From Bessel's equality we have again

$$\left\| x - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \langle x, u_i \rangle w_i \right\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\langle x, u_i \rangle|^2.$$

By assumption (1) the LHS tends to 0 as $n \to \infty$. On the other hand the RHS goes to

$$\to ||x||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_i \rangle|^2, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

This gives

$$||x||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_i \rangle^2| = 0.$$

- (3) \Rightarrow (5) trivial.
- (4) \Rightarrow (5) trivial (take y = x).
- $(1) \Rightarrow (4)$ We have

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_k \rangle u_k.$$

Then

$$\langle x , y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x , w_k \rangle \langle u_k , y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x , u_k \rangle \overline{\langle y , u_k \rangle}.$$



Example. $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$ with

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{int} \,\middle|\, n \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

is an ON-system in $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$ where

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \overline{g(t)} \, \mathrm{d}t.$$

Statement 3.26. The system above is an ON-basis for $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$. In particular, for any $f \in L^2([-\pi,\pi])$

$$f = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(k)e^{ikt}$$

convergent in the L^2 -norm.

$$||f||_{L^2} = \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(t)|^2 dt\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

which is equivalent to

$$\left\| f - \sum_{k=-n}^{n} \hat{f}(k)e^{ikt} \right\|_{L^{2}}^{2} \to 0.$$

Sketch of the proof:

- (1) Stein-Weierstraß-Theorem. X compact set $C(X,\mathbb{C})$ continuous functions with complex values. Let $M\subseteq C(X,\mathbb{C})$ be a subspace that satisfies:
 - (a) it seperates points of X, i.e.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, x_1 \neq x_2 \,\exists \, f \in M : \qquad f(x_1) \neq f(x_2).$$

- (b) M contains the constant function 1 (f(x) = 1 for all $x \in X$).
- (c) It is closed under complex conjugation, i.e.

$$f \in M \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \bar{f} \in M$$

and closed under product, i.e.

$$f_1, f_2 \in M \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad f_1 \cdot f_2 \in M.$$

Then M is dense in $C(X,\mathbb{C})$ w.r.t. $\|.\|_{\infty}$ (Continuous function by Polynomials) From this it follows

$$M = \{all complex polynomials\}$$

are dense in C([a, b]).

(2) C([a,b]) is dense in $L^2([a,b])$ w.r.t. $\|.\|_{L^2}$ -norm.



We will use (1) and (2) to show that $\operatorname{span}\Bigl\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{int}\,\Big|\,n\in\mathbb{Z}\Bigr\}$ is dense in $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$. proof. Let

$$M := \operatorname{span} \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{int} \,\middle|\, n \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} \subseteq \{ f \in C([-\pi, \pi \,|\,) \}] f(\pi) = f(-\pi).$$

M seperates points, it contains the constant function 1 and it is closed under complex conjugation. Furthermore M is closed under taking products. With Stein-Weierstraß it follows that M is dense in

$$\{f \in C([-\pi, \pi \mid))\}|f(\pi) = f(-\pi).$$

By (2) we have $C([-\pi,\pi])$ is dense in $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$ w.r.t. the L^2 -norm. From this one can see that even $\{f \in C([-\pi,\pi])\}]f(\pi) = f(-\pi)$ is dense in $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$:

$$\forall \, \varepsilon > 0, \, \forall \, f \in L^2 \, \exists \, g \in C([-\pi, \pi]) : \qquad \|f - g\|_{L^2}^2 = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(t) - g(t)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}t < \varepsilon.$$

Define g_{ε} such that it has a pike in $x=\pi-\varepsilon$ but it is continuous and is equal to g for $x<\pi-\varepsilon$. Then

$$g_{\varepsilon} \in C([-\pi, \pi]), g_{\varepsilon}(-\pi) = g_{\varepsilon}(\pi).$$

It holds

$$\begin{split} \|f - g_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^{2}} &\leq \underbrace{\|f - g\|_{L^{2}}}_{<\sqrt{\varepsilon}} + \|g - g_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^{2}} \\ &\leq \sqrt{\varepsilon} + \left(\int_{\pi - \varepsilon}^{\pi} |g(t) - g_{\varepsilon}(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &\leq \sqrt{\varepsilon} + \sqrt{\max_{x \in [-\pi - \varepsilon, \pi]} |g - g_{\varepsilon}| \varepsilon} \\ &= \sqrt{\varepsilon} + \sqrt{C} \sqrt{\varepsilon}. \end{split}$$

We conclude: any $f=L^2$ -limit g_n with $g_n\in C([-\pi,\pi])$ and $g_n(-\pi)=g_n(\pi)$. Each $g_n=\|.\|_\infty$ -norm limit of an element in $\operatorname{span}\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{int}\,\Big|\,n\in\mathbb{Z}\right\}$ as

$$||g - f||_{L^2} \le ||g - f||_{\infty}^{\frac{1}{2}} (2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Note that

$$\left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |g(t) - f(t)|^2 dt \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \le \max_{x \in [-\pi, \pi]} |g(t) - f(t)| \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dt \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

We get that each g_n can be approximated in the L^2 -norm by elements in $\mathrm{span}\Big\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{int}\ \Big|\ n\in\mathbb{Z}\Big\}$ hence

$$\operatorname{span}\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{int}\,\middle|\,n\in\mathbb{Z}\right\}\subseteq L^2([-\pi,\pi]).$$



3.4 Linear operators on Hilbert spaces

Set $(H_1,\langle.\,,\,.\rangle_1)$ and $(H_2,\langle.\,,\,.\rangle_2)$ Hilbert spaces. A bounded linear mapping $A:H_1\to H_2$ is called bounded linear operator.

Bounded means in our case

$$||Ax||_2 \le C||x||_1$$
 $\forall x \in H$ and some constant C

Example. Set $H_1=H_2=L^2([0,1])$ and $K:[0,1]\times[0,1]\to\mathbb{C}$. Assume that K is continuous. Consider

$$(Af)(x) = \int_0^1 K(x, y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y.$$

A is linear (trivial). Show that A is bounded:

$$\begin{split} \|Af\|_2 &= \int_0^1 |\int_0^1 K(x,y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y|^2 \, \mathrm{d}x \\ & \stackrel{\mathsf{CS}}{\leq} \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^1 |K(x,y)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}y \cdot \int_0^1 |f(y)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}y \right) \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &= \underbrace{\int_0^1 \left(\int_0^1 |K(x,y)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}y \right) \, \mathrm{d}x}_{<\infty} \cdot \underbrace{\int_0^1 |f(y)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}y}_{=\|f\|_2^2}. \end{split}$$

Hence

$$||A|| \le \left(\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |K(x,y)|^2 dx dy\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Products $(A \cdot B)$ of operators $H \to H$ with $A : H \to H$ and $B : H \to H$ are defined by $(A \cdot B)(f) := A(Bf).$

Statement 3.27. If A and B are bounded, then $A \cdot B$ is also bounded and

$$||AB|| \le ||A|| ||B||.$$

In particular: for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ A^n is bounded and

$$||A^n|| \le ||A||^n.$$

Example. $E = L^2([0,1])$ and $f, g \in E$ with

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{L^2} = \int_0^1 f(x) \overline{g(x)} \, \mathrm{d}x, \qquad \|f\|_{L^2} = \left(\int_0^1 |f(x)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}x \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$



Set $h \in C([0,1] \times [0,1])$ and for $f \in L^2([0,1])$

$$A(f)(x) = \int_0^1 h(x, y) f(y) dy, \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

Then

$$||A|| \le \left(\int_0^1 \left(\int_0^1 |h(x,y)|^2 dy\right) dx\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} < \infty.$$

Example. Let (E, ||.||) be a normed space. Then there are no $A, B \in B(E, E)$ such that

$$AB - BA = I$$

where I is the identity (I(x) = x for $x \in E$).

Remark. Consider $f \in E = C^{\infty}([0,1])$ and

$$A = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}, \qquad B = x.$$

Then

$$(AB - BA)(f)(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(x(f(x))) - x\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}f(x) = f(x).$$

Argue by contradiction.

Assume $A, B \in B(E, E)$ with AB - BA = I.

Hint: Consider $A^nB - BA^n$ for n = 1, 2, ... For n = 2 we have

$$A^{2}B - BA^{2} = A^{2}B - ABA + ABA - BA^{2}$$
$$= A(AB - BA) + (AB - BA)A$$
$$= 2A.$$

For n=3 we have

$$A^{3}B - BA^{3} = A^{3}B - A^{2}BA + A^{2}BA - BA^{3}$$
$$= A^{2}(AB - BA) + (A^{2}B - BA^{2})A$$
$$= 3A^{2}.$$

In general

$$A^n B - B A^n = n A^{n-1}, \qquad n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$$
 (*)

Check using an induction argument. We obtain

$$n \left\| A^{n-1} \right\| = \|A^n B - BA^n\| \leq \|A^n B\| + \|BA^n\| \leq 2 \left\| A^{n-1} \right\| \|A\| \|B\|$$

Hence

$$(2||A||||B|| - n)||A^{n-1}|| \ge 0, \quad \forall n = 2, 3, \dots$$

We conclude that $||A^{n-1}|| = 0$ for n large enough. Clearly the same for $||A^n||$. This yields $A^n = 0$ for n large enough. Repeated use of (*) gives A = 0. This contradicts AB - BA = I so the implication in the example is proven.

Recall a important theorem:



Theorem 3.28 (Riesz representation theorem). $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ Hilbert space $f \in B(E, \mathbb{C})$. f is bounded linear functional on E. This yields

$$\exists ! x_f \in E : \qquad f(x) = \langle x, x_f \rangle, \qquad \forall x \in E.$$

Also it holds

$$\underbrace{\|f\|}_{\text{operator norm}} = \underbrace{\|x_f\|}_{normofx_f \text{ in } E}.$$

Definition 3.29. $\varphi: E \times E \to \mathbb{C}$ is called:

• Bilinear, if for scalars α and β it holds

$$\varphi(\alpha x, \beta y, z) = \alpha \varphi(x, z) + \beta \varphi(y, z) \qquad \forall x, y, z \in E$$

$$\varphi(x, \alpha y + \beta z) = \bar{\alpha} \varphi(x, z) + \bar{\beta} \varphi(y, z) \qquad \forall x, y, z \in E.$$

• Bounded, if there exists M>0 such that

$$|\varphi(x,y)| \leq M \|x\| \|y\|, \qquad \forall \, x,y \in E.$$

• Coercive, if there exists K > 0 such that

$$\varphi(x,x) \ge K ||x||^2, \quad \forall x \in E.$$

Clearly $\langle . , . \rangle$ in E is a bilinear, bounded and coercive functional in E (with M=K=1). We will now introduce a Generalization of the Riesz representation theorem.

Theorem 3.30 (Lax-Milgram). $(E,\langle .\,,.\rangle)$ Hilbert space. Let $\varphi:E\times E\to\mathbb{C}$ be a bilinear, bounded and coercive functional. $f:E\to\mathbb{C}$ bounded linear functional in E. Then there exists an unique $x_f\in E$ such that

$$f(x) = \varphi(x, x_f), \quad \forall x \in E.$$

proof. Step 1: $\exists ! A \in B(E, E)$ with

$$\varphi(x,y) = \langle x, A(y) \rangle, \quad \forall x, y \in E.$$

Step 2: A is injective and surjective.

Step 3: Apply RRT with $\tilde{x}_f = A^{-1}(x_f)$

$$f(x) = \langle x, x_f \rangle$$

$$= \langle x, A(A^{-1}(x_f)) \rangle$$

$$= \varphi(x, \tilde{x}_f), \quad \forall x \in E.$$



Step 1: Fix $y \in E$ and consider for $x \in E$

$$x \stackrel{f_y}{\mapsto} \varphi(x, y) \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Claim: $f_y:E\to\mathbb{C}$ is a bounded linear functional. For $x,y,z\in E$ and α,β scalars we have

$$f_y(\alpha x + \beta z) = \varphi(\alpha x + \beta z, y)$$
$$= \alpha \varphi(x, y) + \beta \varphi(z, y)$$
$$= \alpha f_y(x) + \beta f_y(z).$$

Hence f_y is linear. It is bounded because of

$$|f_y(x)| = |\varphi(x, y)| \le (M||y||)||x||, \quad \forall x \in E.$$

So f_y is bounded.

RRT implies $f_y(x) = \langle x, A(y) \rangle$ for all $x \in E$ for some $A(y) \in E$.

Now we have $A: E \to E$. Claim: $A \in B(E, E)$.

For $x, y, z \in E$ and scalars α, β we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x \,,\, A(\alpha y + \beta z) \rangle &= \varphi(x, \alpha y + \beta z) \\ &= \bar{\alpha} \varphi(x, y) + \bar{\beta} \varphi(x, z) \\ &= \bar{\alpha} \langle x \,,\, A(y) \rangle + \bar{\beta} \langle x \,,\, A(z) \rangle \\ &= \langle x \,,\, \alpha A(y) \rangle + \langle x \,,\, \beta A(z) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

This is equivalent to

$$\langle x, A(\alpha y + \beta z) - \alpha A(y) - \beta A(z) \rangle = 0, \quad x \in E.$$

This implies

$$||A(\alpha y + \beta z) - \alpha A(y) - \beta A(z)|| = 0.$$

So

$$A(\alpha y + \beta z) = \alpha A(y) + \beta A(z)$$
 $\forall y, z \in E \text{ and scalars } \beta, \alpha.$

Hence, A is linear. We will now show that A is bounded: We know because φ is continuous that for all $x,y\in E$

$$|\langle x, A(y)\rangle| = |\varphi(x, y)| \le M||x|| ||y||.$$

Take x = A(y) and get

$$||A(y)||^2 \le M||A(y)|||y|| \quad \forall y \in E$$

which implies

$$||A(y)|| \le M||y|| \qquad \forall y \in E.$$

Hence $||A|| \leq M < \infty$.



Step 2: Note $\varphi(x,y) = \langle x, A(y) \rangle$ for alle $x,y \in E$.

Claim: A is injective, i.e.

$$A(x_1) = A(x_2) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x_1 = x_2.$$

 φ is coercive so

$$||x||^2 \le \frac{\varphi(x,x)}{K} = \frac{1}{K} \underbrace{> 0}_{|\langle x, A(x)\rangle|} \le \frac{1}{K} ||x|| ||A(x)|| \quad \forall x \in E.$$

Hence

$$||x|| \le \frac{1}{K} ||A(x)||, \quad \forall x \in E.$$

If $A(x_1) = A(x_2)$ we have $A(x_1 - x_2) = 0 \in E$ then

$$||x_1 - x_2|| \le \frac{1}{K} ||A(x_1 - x_2)|| = 0.$$

We get $x_1 = x_2$.

Claim: *A* is surjective, i.e. the image of *A* is *E*:

$$\Re(A) = \{A(x) \mid x \in E\} = E.$$

We first show that $\Re(A)$ is a closed subspace of E.

- $\Re(A)$ is a subspace in E since A is linear.
- $\Re(A)$ is closed since

$$y_n \to y$$
 in $(E, \|.\|)$ $\Rightarrow y \in \Re(A)$.

 $\Re(A)$ is linear. Take $y_1,y_2\in\Re(A)$ with preimages x_1,x_2 and yield

$$\alpha_1 y_1 + \alpha_2 y_2 = \alpha_1 A(x_1) + \alpha_2 A(x_2) = A(\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2).$$

So

$$\alpha_1 y_1 + \alpha_2 y_2 \in \Re(A)$$
.

Assume

$$y_n \to y$$
 in $(E, \|.\|)$.

For $n=1,2,\ldots$ there are x_1,x_2,\ldots such that $y_n=A(x_n)$ for $n=1,2,\ldots$ Claim: $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence in E since

$$||x_n - x_m|| \le \frac{1}{K} ||A(x_n - x_m)||$$

$$= \frac{1}{K} ||A(x_n) - A(x_m)||$$

$$= \frac{1}{K} ||y_n - y_m|| \to 0, \qquad n, m \to \infty$$



since $(y_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges.

Since $(E, \|.\|)$ is a Banach space $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges in $(E, \|.\|)$. Call the limit $x \in E$. Hence

$$A(x_n) \to y$$

since A is bounded, continuos and linear. So y=A(x) and we get $y\in\Re(A)$. Secondly A is surjective, i.e. $\Re(A)=E$.

Assume that this is not true. The Orthogonal decomposition theorem gives

$$E = \Re(A) \oplus \Re(A)^{\perp}$$
.

The first one is a closed subspace in E and the second one is not empty by assumption. Fix $z \in \Re(A)^{\perp} \setminus \{0\}$. Note

$$\varphi(x,y) = \langle x, A(y) \rangle$$
 $x, y \in E$

With x = y = z we get

$$\varphi(z,z) = \langle z, A(z) \rangle = 0$$

and

$$\varphi(z,z) \ge K ||z||^2 \ge 0 \qquad \Rightarrow z = 0.$$

This is a contradiction.

The Conclusion is

$$\Re(A)^{\perp} = \{0\} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \Re(A) = E.$$

We have $\varphi(x,y) = \langle x, A(y) \rangle$ for all $x,y \in E$ and $A \in B(E,E)$ surjective.

Step 3: see above.

3.5 Adjoint operator

 $(E,\langle .,.\rangle)$ Hilbert space and $A\in B(E,E)$ with adjoint A^* , i.e.

$$\langle A(x), y \rangle = \langle x, A^*(y) \rangle, \quad \forall x, y \in E.$$

Fix $y \in E$ and consider

$$x \stackrel{f_y}{\mapsto} \langle A(x), y \rangle \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Claim: f_y is a bounded linear functional on E

- linear since A is linear.
- bounded since A is bounded with

$$|f_y(x)| \le (||A||||y||)||x||, \quad x \in E.$$



RRT implies

$$f_y(x) = \langle x, A^*(y) \rangle, \quad x \in E.$$

We have $A^*: E \to E$ such that

$$\langle A(x), y \rangle = \langle x, A^*(y) \rangle, \quad \forall x, y \in E.$$

Proposition 3.31. $A \in B(E, E)$. Then $A^* \in B(E, E)$ and $||A^*|| = ||A||$.

proof. A^* linear:

$$\langle x, A^*(\alpha y + \beta z) \rangle = \langle x, \alpha A^*(y) + \beta A^*(z) \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in E.$$

 A^* bounded:

Take $x = A^*(y)$ and get

$$\begin{aligned} \|A^*(y)\|^2 &= |\langle A(A^*(y)) \,,\, y \rangle| \\ &\leq \|A(A^*(y))\| \|y\| \\ &\leq \|A\| \|A^*(y)\| \|y\|, \qquad y \in E. \end{aligned}$$

We get

$$||A^*(y)|| \le ||A|| ||y||, \quad y \in E.$$

Conclucion: $A^* \in B(E, E)$. We also get

$$||A^*|| \le ||A||.$$

But we also know that $A^{**} = A$ since

$$\langle x, A^{**}(y) \rangle = \langle A^{*}(x), y \rangle$$

$$= \overline{\langle y, A^{*}(x) \rangle}$$

$$= \overline{\langle A(y), x \rangle}$$

$$= \langle x, A(y) \rangle, \qquad x, y \in E.$$

So

$$||A|| = ||A^{**}|| \le ||A^*||$$

which impllies

$$||A|| = ||A^*||.$$

Remark. $A, B \in B(E, E)$ then

$$(A+B)^* = A^* + B^*$$
$$(AB)^* = B^*A^*$$
$$(\alpha A)^* = \bar{\alpha}A^*$$
$$A^{**} = A$$
$$I^* = I.$$



Example. Continuity of the example above: For $f \in L^2([0,1])$ consider

$$A(f)(x) = \int_0^1 h(x, y) f(y) dy, \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

For $g \in L^2([0,1])$ it holds

$$\begin{split} \langle A(f)\,,\,g\rangle_{L^2} &= \int_0^1 A(f)(x)\overline{g(x)}\,\mathrm{d}x\\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 h(x,y)f(y)\,\mathrm{d}x\overline{g(x)}\,\mathrm{d}x\\ &= \int_0^1 f(y)\cdot \int_0^1 h(x,y)\overline{g(x)}\,\mathrm{d}x\,\mathrm{d}y\\ &= \int_0^1 f(y)\cdot \overline{\int_0^1 \overline{h(x,y)}g(x)\,\mathrm{d}x}\,\mathrm{d}y\\ &= \langle f\,,\,A^*(g)\rangle_{L^2}. \end{split}$$

This gives us

$$A^*(f)(x) = \int_0^1 \overline{h(y,x)} f(y) \, dy, \qquad x \in [0,1].$$

Example. $A \in B(E, E)$. It follows

$$\Re(A)^{\perp} = N(A^*) = \{ x \in E \mid A^*(x) = 0 \}$$

since $x \in \Re(A)^{\perp}$. It is equivalent that

$$\langle x, A(y) \rangle = 0, \qquad \forall y \in E$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad \langle A^*(x), y \rangle = 0, \qquad \forall y \in E$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad A^*(x) = 0 \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad x \in N(A^*).$$

We get

$$N(A^*)^{\perp} = \overline{\Re(A)}$$

since

$$N(A^*)^{\perp} = \left(R(A)^{\perp}\right)^{\perp} = \overline{\operatorname{span}(\Re(A))} = \overline{\Re(A)}.$$

Remark. $A \in B(E, E)$ is called self adjoint if $A^* = A$.

For $A \in B(E, E)$ we have

$$||A|| = \sup_{\substack{||x||=1\\||y||=1}} |\langle A(x), y \rangle|$$

since

$$\|\langle A(x)\,,\,y\rangle\| \leq \underbrace{\|A(x)\|}_{\leq \|A\|\|x\|} \leq \|A\|, \qquad \text{for } \|x\| = \|y\| = 1.$$



If A(x) = 0 for all $x \in E$ then ||A|| = 0 and also

$$\sup_{\begin{subarray}{c} \|x\|=1 \\ \|y\|=1 \end{subarray}} |\langle A(x)\,,\,y\rangle| = 0.$$

For x with $A(x) \neq 0$ then it is

$$A\left(\frac{1}{\|x\|}x\right) \neq 0.$$

For such an x with ||x|| = 1 we have

$$|\langle A(x), \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x) \rangle| = \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} \|A(x)\|^2 = \|A(x)\|$$

and

$$||A|| \le \sup_{\|x\|=1} ||A(x)|| \le \sup_{\substack{\|x\|=1 \ \|y\|=1}} |\langle A(x), y \rangle| \le ||A||.$$

Proposition 3.32. Let $A \in B(E, E)$ be self-adjoint. Then

$$||A|| = \sup_{||x||=1} |\langle A(x), x \rangle|.$$

proof. Set

$$M = \sup_{\|x\|=1} |\langle A(x) \,,\, x\rangle|.$$

For ||x|| = 1 we have

$$|\langle A(x), x \rangle| \le ||A(x)|| ||x|| \le ||A||.$$

Furthermore

$$M < ||A||$$
.

It remains to prove: $||A|| \leq M$.

For $x, z \in E$ consider:

$$\begin{split} \langle A(x+z)\,,\,x+z\rangle - \langle A(x-z)\,,\,x-z\rangle &= 2\langle A(x)\,,\,z\rangle + 2\langle A(z)\,,\,x\rangle \\ &= 2\left(\langle A(x)\,,\,z\rangle + \langle z\,,\,A^*(x)\rangle\right) \\ &= 2(\langle A(x)\,,\,z\rangle + \langle z\,,\,A(x)\rangle) \\ &= 4\operatorname{Re}(\langle A(x)\,,\,z\rangle). \end{split}$$

Assume now $A(x) \neq 0$ and set

$$z = \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x).$$

Hence

$$\|A(x)\| = \frac{1}{4} \left(\left\langle A(x + \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x)), x + \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x) \right\rangle - \left\langle A(x - \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x)), x - \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x) \right\rangle \right).$$



Note

$$|\langle A(y), y \rangle| = ||y||^2 |\langle A(\frac{1}{||y||}y), \frac{1}{||y||}y \rangle| \le M||y||^2.$$

We now obtain

$$||A(x)|| \le \frac{1}{4} \left(M \left\| x + \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x) \right\|^2 + M \left\| x - \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x) \right\|^2 \right)$$

$$= \frac{M}{4} 2 \left(||x||^2 + \left\| \frac{1}{\|A(x)\|} A(x) \right\|^2 \right)$$

$$= \frac{M}{2} (||x||^2 + 1).$$

So

$$||A|| = \sup_{||x||=1} ||A(x)|| \le M$$

and this yields

$$||A|| = M.$$

Definition 3.33 (compact). If $A: E \to E$ is linear, then we say that A is compact if for all bounded sequences $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E, $(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a bounded subsequence in E.

Lemma 3.34. A is compact and linear \Rightarrow A is bounded.

proof. If A is not bounded then there exists a sequence $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E such that

$$||A(y_n)|| \ge n||y_n||,$$
 for $n = 1, 2,$

Set $x_n = \frac{y_n}{\|y_n\|}$ for $n=1,2,\ldots$ Here $\|x_n\|=1$ for all $n\in\mathbb{N}$ and

$$||A(x_n)|| = ||A(\frac{1}{||y_n||}y_n)|| = \frac{1}{||y_n||}||A(y_n)|| > n, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

 $(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has no converging subsequence since $||A(x_n)|| \to \infty$ for $n \to \infty$.

Remark. • $A \in B(E, E)$ and $F \subset E$ where F is bounded. Then

$$A(F) = \{A(x) \mid x \in F\}$$

is bounded.

• $A \in B(E,E)$ compact and $F \subset E$, F bounded. Then $\overline{A(F)}$ is compact.



Lemma 3.35. A,B compact linear operators $E \to E$ and α and β scalars. Then $\alpha A + \beta A$ is compact.

proof. Fix an arbitrary bounded sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E. Since A is compact there exists a converging subsequence $(A(x_{n_k}))_{k=1}^{\infty}$ of $(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Clearly $(\alpha A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges in E.

Since B is compact there exists a converging subsequence $(B(x_{n_k}))_{k=1}^{\infty}$ of $(B(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Clearly $(\beta B(x_{n_k}))_{k=1}^{\infty}$ converges in E. Hence

$$(\alpha A(x_{n_k}) + \beta B(x_{n_k}))_{k=1}^{\infty} = ((\alpha A + \beta B)(x_{n_k}))_{k=1}^{\infty}$$

converges in E.

Set

 $K(E, E) := \text{set of all compact linear mappings } E \to E.$

We have K(E,E) is a subspace in $(B(E,E),\|.\|_{E\to E})$.

Proposition 3.36. K(E,E) is a <u>closed</u> subspace in $(B(E,E), \|.\|_{E\to E})$.

Before the proof we note:

1. Assume $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ to be a Hilbert space and $A \in B(E, E)$.

$$x_n \to x \text{ in } E \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad A(x_n) \to A(x) \text{ in } E$$

 $x_n \to x \text{ in } E \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad A(x_n) \to A(x) \text{ in } E$

since for $y \in E$ we have

$$\langle A(x_n), y \rangle = \langle x_n, A^*(y) \rangle \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\to} \langle x, A^*(y) \rangle = \langle A(x), y \rangle.$$

2. $A \in K(E, E)$ and $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ in E

$$\Rightarrow A(x_n) \to A(x)$$
 in E .

3. $A \in B(E, E)$ finite-rank operator, i.e.

$$\dim \mathcal{R}(A) < \infty \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad A \in K(E, E)$$

since: Let e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_N be an ON-basis for $\mathcal{R}(A)$ with $N = \dim(\mathcal{R}(A))$. We have

$$A(x) = \langle A(x), e_1 \rangle e_1 + \ldots + \langle A(x), e_N \rangle e_N.$$

Fix an arbitrary bounded sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E. A is bounded which implies that $(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a bounded sequence. Furthermore

$$(\langle A(x_n), e_1 \rangle)_{n=1}^{\infty}$$



is a bounded sequence in $\mathbb C$. Bolzano Weierstrass theorem implies that $(\langle A(x_n)\,,\,e_1\rangle)_{n=1}^\infty$ has a converging subsequence $(\langle A(x_{n_k})\,,\,e_1\rangle)_{k=1}^\infty$. Clearly $(\langle A(x_{n_k})\,,\,e_1\rangle e_1)_{k=1}^\infty$ converges in E.

Hence

$$A(x) = \langle A(x), e_1 \rangle e_1 + \ldots + \langle A(x), e_N \rangle e_N$$

is a compact mapping since K(E, E) is a subspace of B(E, E).

proof. Assume $(A_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq K(E,E)$ such that $A_n \to A$ in $(B(E,E), \|.\|_{E\to E})$. We have to show: $A \in K(E,E)$

Fix an arbitrary bounded sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E. We want to show that $(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a converging subsequence in E. Set

$$M = \sup_{n} ||x_n|| < \infty.$$

$$A_1 \in K(E,E)$$
 \Rightarrow $(A_1(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a converging subsequence $(A_1(x_{n_k}))_{k=1}^{\infty}$ $A_2 \in K(E,E)$ \Rightarrow $(A_2(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a converging subsequence $(A_2(x_{n_k}))_{k=1}^{\infty}$

proceed inductively:

$$A_k \in K(E,E)$$
 \Rightarrow $(A_k(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a converging subsequence $(A_k(x_{n_l}))_{l=1}^{\infty}$

Also: $(A_l(x_{n,k})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges in E for $l=1,2,\ldots,k$.

Here $(A_k(y_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges for $k=1,2,\ldots$

So since (E, ||.||) is a Banach space it is enough to show that $(A(y_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (E, ||.||).

Fix an arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$. We have

$$||A(y_n) - A(y_m)|| \le \underbrace{||A(y_n) - A_k(y_n)||}_{\le ||A - A_k||_{F \to F} ||y_n||} + ||A_k(y_n) - A_k(y_m)|| + ||A_k(y_m) - A(y_m)||.$$

Fix k large enough such that

$$||A_k - A|| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3M}.$$

Then

$$||A(y_n) - A(y_m)|| < \frac{2}{3}\varepsilon + ||A_k(y_n) - A_k(y_m)||$$

 $(A_k(y_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges in E. This implies the existence of N such that

$$\forall n, m \geq N: \qquad ||A_k(y_n) - A_k(y_n)|| < \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow ||A(y_n) - A(y_m)|| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall n, m \ge N$$

and thus $(A(y_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence.



Proposition 3.37. Let $(E, \langle . , . \rangle)$ be a seperable Hilbert space and $A \in K(E, E)$. then there exist finite-ranked operators $A_n \in K(E, E)$ such that

$$||A - A_n||_{E \to E} \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

proof. Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be an ON-basis for E. For

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k, \quad x \in E.$$

Set

$$A_n(x) = A\left(\sum_{k=1}^n \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \langle x, x_k \rangle A(x_k), \qquad x \in E, \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Here $\dim(\mathcal{R}(A_n)) \leq n$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$

So A_n is a finite ranked operator in E for $n = 1, 2, \ldots$

Fix $x \in E$ with ||x|| = 1 and consider:

$$\|(A - A_n)(x)\|^2 = \left\| A(\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k) \right\|^2 \le \sup_{\substack{\|y\|=1, \\ y \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}^{\perp}}} \|A(y)\|^2$$

and thus

$$||A - A_n||_{E \to E}^2 \le \sup_{\substack{||y||=1, \\ y \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}^{\perp}}} ||A(y)||^2.$$

Set

$$u_n := \sup_{\substack{\|y\|=1,\\y\in\{x_1,\dots,x_n\}^{\perp}}} \|A(y)\|^2 < \infty, \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Here $a_n \ge a_{n+1} \ge 0$ for n = 1, 2, ...

Clearly $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges in \mathbb{R} . Set $a=\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n$. It remains to prove a=0. Assume a>0. Then there exists $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E such that

1.
$$||y_n|| = 1$$
,

2.
$$y \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}^{\perp}$$
,

3.
$$||A(y_n)||^2 \ge \frac{1}{2}a$$
.

Claim: $y_n \rightharpoonup 0$ in $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ since:



Fix an arbitrary $x \in E$ and

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle y_n \,, \, x \rangle| &= |\langle y_n \,, \, \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x \,, \, x_k \rangle x_k \rangle| \\ &= |\langle y_n \,, \, \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \langle x \,, \, x_k \rangle x_k \rangle| \\ &\leq \|y_n\| \cdot \left\| \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \langle x \,, \, x_k \rangle x_k \right\| \\ &= \sqrt{\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} |\langle x \,, \, x_k \rangle|^2} \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty. \end{aligned}$$

(Note that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}|\langle x\,,\,x_k\rangle|^2=\|x\|^2<\infty$) We have $y_n\rightharpoonup 0$ in $(E,\langle.\,,\,.\rangle)$ and

$$A \in B(E, E)$$
 \Rightarrow $A(y_n) \to A(0) = 0.$

Contradiction to (3) above which gives us a = 0.

Proposition 3.38. $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ Hilbert space and $A \in K(E, E)$. Then

$$x_n \rightharpoonup x \text{ in } (E, \langle ., . \rangle) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad A(x_n) \rightarrow A(x) \text{ in } (E, \langle ., . \rangle).$$

proof. $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ in $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ implies that $\sup_n \|x_n\| < \infty$ (according to important theorem). Since $A \in K(E, E)$, we know that $(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a converging subsequence $(A(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ since $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded.

Say $A(x_{n_k}) \to y$ in E. $A \in K(E,E) \subset B(E,E)$ and $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ in $(E,\langle .,.\rangle)$. This implies

$$A(x_n) \rightharpoonup A(x)$$
 in $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$.

We get that y = A(x). We have $A(x_{n_k}) \to A(x)$ in E.

Assume that $A(x_n) \not A(x)$ in E.

Then there exists an $\varepsilon > 0$ and a subsequence $(A(\tilde{x}_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of $(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ such that

$$||A(\tilde{x}_n) - A(x)|| \ge \varepsilon, \quad \forall n.$$

But $\tilde{x}_n \rightharpoonup x$ in $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ and to be compact implies that $(A(\tilde{x}_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a converging subsequence $(A(\tilde{x}_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ that converges to A(x) (same argument as before) Conclusion: $A(x_n) \to A(x)$ in $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$.

Proposition 3.39. $A \in K(E, E)$ and $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ Hilbert space $\Rightarrow A^* \in K(E, E)$.



proof. Fix any bounded sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E.

$$||A^*(x_n) - A^*(x_m)|| = \langle A^*(x_n) - A^*(x_m), A^*(x_n) - A^*(x_m) \rangle$$

= $\langle x_n - x_m, A(A^*(x_n)) - A(A^*(x_m)) \rangle$

then use $A \in K(E, E)$.

Proposition 3.40.
$$A \in K(E, E), B \in B(E, E) \Rightarrow AB, BA \in K(E, E).$$

Example. We already know this example: $k \in C([0,1] \times [0,1])$ with

$$A(f)(x) = \int_0^1 k(x, y) f(y) \, dy, \qquad x \in [0, 1], \qquad f \in L^2([0, 1]).$$

We know that $A \in B(L^2([0,1]), L^2([0,1]))$

$$\|A\|_{L^2\to L^2} \leq \|k\|_{L^2([0,1]\times[0,1])}.$$

Claim: $A \in K(L^2([0,1]), L^2([0,1])).$

Approximate A by finite-ranked operators.

Note: set $A = A_k$ and $B = A_{k_n}$ where k_n is a nice function on $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ and

$$A - B = A_k - A_{k_n} = A_{k-k_n}.$$

So

$$||A - B||_{L^2 \to L^2} \le ||k - k_n||.$$

Set

$$I_f = [x_j - \frac{1}{N}, x_j],$$
 $j = 1, ..., N,$ $x_j = \frac{j}{N}$
 $\tilde{I}_l = [y_l - \frac{1}{N}, y_j],$ $l = 1, ..., N,$ $y_l = \frac{l}{N}.$

Set

$$k_n(x,y) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{N} k(x_j, y_l) \chi_{I_j}(x) \chi_{\tilde{I}_l}(y)$$

where

$$\chi_{I_j}(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in I_j \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Since $k \in C([0,1] \times [0,1])$ and $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ compact in \mathbb{R}^2 then k is uniformly continous on $[0,1] \times [0,1]$. We fix $\varepsilon > 0$.

Claim: It exists an N such that

$$\sup_{\substack{(x,y)\in\\[0,1]\times[0,1]}} |k(x,y) - k_n(x,y)| < \infty,$$



$$A_{k_N}(f)(x) = \int_0^1 k_N(x, y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y = \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^N k(x_i, y_l) \int_0^1 \chi_{\tilde{I}_l}(y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y \chi_{I_j}(x).$$

$$\dim(\mathcal{R}(A_{k_N})) = N < \infty.$$

Hence $A_{k_N} \in K(L^2([0,1]), L^2([0,1]))$ for all N.

$$||A - A_{k_N}||_{L^2 \to L^2} \le ||k - k_N||_{L^2([0,1] \times [0,1])} < \varepsilon$$

for N large enough. K(E,E) is a closed set in $(B(E,E),\|.\|_{L^2\to L^2})$ so $A\in K(L^2,L^2)$.

Example. $(E,\langle.\,,\,.\rangle)$ Hilbert space, $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ ON-basis and $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ sequence of scalars. Set

$$T(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n, \quad x \in E.$$

Claim:

- 1) $T \in B(E, E)$ \Leftrightarrow $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a bounded sequence in \mathbb{C} .
- 2) $T \in K(E, E)$ \Leftrightarrow $\lambda_n \to 0 \text{ for } n \to \infty$.

Note $x \in E$ and the Parseval's formula

$$||x||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2.$$

For $T(x) \in E$ we have

$$||T(x)||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\lambda_n|^2 |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2.$$

If $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ bounded sequence in \mathbb{C} . Then $\sup |\lambda_n| \equiv M < \infty$ and

$$||T(x)||^2 \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M^2 |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2 = M^2 ||x||^2.$$

If $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is not bounded then there exists a sequence $(\lambda_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ such that $|\lambda_{n_k}| \to \infty$ as $k \to \infty$. But

$$||T(x_{n_k})|| = |\lambda_{n_k}|||x_{n_k}|| = |\lambda_{n_k}| \to \infty, \qquad k \to \infty$$

$$\sup_{||x||=1} ||T(x)|| = \infty.$$

So 1) is done. For 2) we assume $\lambda_n \to 0$ for $n \to \infty$. Set

$$T_k(x) = \sum_{n=1}^k \lambda_n \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n, \qquad x \in E$$



 T_k is a finite rank operator for $k=1,2,\ldots$ SO $T_k\in K(E,E)$ for all k.

$$||T - T_k||_{E \to E} = \sup_{\|x\|=1} ||(T - T_k)(x)||$$

$$= \sup_{\|x\|=1} \left\| \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n \right\|$$

$$\leq \sup_{n=k+1, k+2, \dots} |\lambda_n| \to 0, \quad k \to \infty$$

Assume $\lambda_n \not\to 0$ for $n\to\infty$. Then there exists $\varepsilon>0$ and a sequence $(\lambda_{n_k})_{k=1}^\infty$ such that

$$|\lambda_{n_k}| \geq \varepsilon$$
.

Note

$$T(x_{n_k}) = \lambda_{n_k} x_{n_k}, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

 $||T(x_{n_k})|| = |\lambda_{n_k}| ||x_{n_k}|| = |\lambda_{n_k}| \ge \varepsilon, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$

 $x_{n_k} \stackrel{\mathsf{w}}{\to} 0 \text{ in } (E, \langle ., . \rangle) \text{ since for } y \in E$

$$\langle x_{n_k}, y \rangle = \langle x_{n_k}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle y, x_n \rangle x_n \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x_{n_k} \rangle} \to 0$$

since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle y, x_n \rangle|^2 = ||y||^2 < \infty.$$

If $T \in K(E,E)$ then $T(x_{n_k}) \to T(0) = 0$ but

$$||T(x_{n_k})|| \ge \varepsilon$$
, for all k .

Hence

$$T \notin K(E, E)$$
.

Example. $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ Hilbert space, $A \in K(E, E)$ and I(x) = x for all $x \in E$. It follows $\Rightarrow R(I - A)$ closed in E.

Remark.

$$R(I-A)^{\perp} = \mathcal{N}((I-A)^*) = \mathcal{N}(I-A^*)$$
$$\overline{R(I-A)} = R(I-A)^{\perp \perp} = \mathcal{N}(I-A^*)^{\perp}.$$

If $A \in K(E, E)$ then

$$\overline{R(I-A)} = R(I-A).$$

Solve

$$x = A(x) + y \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad (I - A)(x) = y$$

Compare 'Fredholm alternative'.



proof. Take a sequence $(y_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq R(I-A)$ such that $y_n\to y$ in $(E,\|.\|)$. To show: $y\in R(I-A)$, i.e. y=(I-A)(x) for some $x\in E$ and $y_n=(I-A)(x_n)$ for some $x_n\in E$.

$$x_n \in E = \mathcal{N}(I - A) + \mathcal{N}(I - A)^{\perp}$$

such that

$$x_n = \tilde{x}_n + \hat{x}_n$$

with

$$||x_n||^2 = ||\tilde{x}_n||^2 + ||\hat{x}_n||^2.$$

Step 1: Show $(\hat{x}_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ bounded in E.

Step 2: $y_n = (I - A)(\hat{x}_n) = \hat{x}_n - A(\hat{x}_n)$.

recall:

 $(E,\langle.\,,\,.\rangle)$ Hilbert space and $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ ON-basis and $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ sequence of complex numbers. Set

$$A(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n.$$

We have:

• $A: E \to E$ if $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^\infty \in l^\infty$ if $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is not bounded, there exists a subsequence $(\lambda_{n_k})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that

$$|\lambda_{n_k}| \ge k, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots.$$

Set

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} x_{n_k}.$$

Clearly $x \in E$ since $\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)_{k=1}^{\infty} \in l^{\infty}$. But

$$T(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{n_k} \frac{1}{k} x_{n_k} \notin E$$

since $(\lambda_{n_k} \cdot \frac{1}{k})_{k=1}^{\infty} \notin l^2$.

$$A \in B(E, E)$$
 \Leftrightarrow $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in l^{\infty}$

and $||A|| = \sup_n |\lambda_n|$.

- $A \in K(E, E)$ iff $\lambda_n \to 0$ for $n \to \infty$.
- A is self adjoint iff $\lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



Basis facts:

Set $A \in B(E,E)$ where $(E,\langle .\,,.\rangle)$ is a Hilbert space. Then:

If A is self-adjoint we have

$$||A|| = \sup_{||x||=1} |\langle A(x), x \rangle|.$$

If A is self-adjoint it follows

$$\langle A(x), x \rangle \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall x \in E$$

since

$$\langle A(x)\,,\,x\rangle = \langle x\,,\,A^*(x)\rangle \stackrel{\mathsf{self-adjoint}}{=} \langle x\,,\,A(x)\rangle = \overline{\langle A(x)\,,\,x\rangle}.$$

- K(E,E) (Set of all compact linear operators) closed subspace in $(B(E,E),\|.\|_{E\to E})$.
- $A \in K(E, E)$ and $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ in E. Then

$$A(x_n) \to A(x)$$
, in E .

- $A \in K(E, E)$ and $B \in B(E, E)$. Then
 - $AB, BA \in K(E, E)$,
 - $A^* \in K(E, E),$
 - $-\frac{\mathcal{R}(B)^{\perp}}{\mathcal{R}(B)} = \mathcal{N}(B^*)^{\perp},$
 - $\mathcal{R}(I-A)$ is a closed subspace in E.
- $E = \mathcal{R}(I A) \oplus \mathcal{R}(I A)^{\perp} = \mathcal{R}(I A) \oplus \mathcal{N}(I A^*).$
- For any $A \in K(E, E)$

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(I-A)) = \dim(\{x \in E \mid x - A(x) = 0\}) < \infty$$

since: if $\dim(\mathcal{N}(I-A)) = \infty$ then there exists an ON- sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in $\mathcal{N}(I-A)$. Then

$$x_n \rightharpoonup E$$
, since $\langle x_n, y \rangle \to 0, n \to \infty$

since for $y \in \overline{\operatorname{span}\{x_n \mid n=1,2,\ldots\}}$ then

$$||y||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x_n, y \rangle|^2 < \infty.$$

 $A \in K(E,E)$ implies that $A(x_n) \to A(0) = 0$ in E. But

$$x_n = A(x_n) \to 0$$
 in E , $||x_n|| = 1$ for all n

This is a contradiction.

Conclusion: $\dim(I - A) < \infty$.



From above we have for $A \in K(E, E)$

$$E = \mathcal{R}(I - A) \oplus \mathcal{N}(I - A^*).$$

Consider the equation

$$x = A(x) + y \tag{1}.$$

(1) has a solution provided by $y \in \mathcal{R}(I-A)$. That is the case if $y \perp z$ for all $z \in \mathcal{N}(I-A^*)$. Since $\dim(\mathcal{N}(I-A^*)) < \infty$, this is just finitely many conditions.

Theorem 3.41 (Fredholm alternativ). $A \in K(E, E)$ where E is a Hilbert space. then exactly one of the statements below holds:

- 1. x = A(x) + y is solvable for every $y \in E$.
- 2. x = A(x) has a non trivial solution $x \in E$, i.e. $x \neq 0$.

(No assumption on A being self-adjoint.)

Remark. The statement in Fredholm Alternativ also holds if $(E, \|.\|)$ is a Banach space.

proof. (1) $\Rightarrow \neg$ (2): We want to show that there are no non-trivial solutions for x = A(x). Assume that there exists a non-trivial solution $x_1 \in E$ to x = A(x), i.e.

$$(I - A)(x_1) = 0$$
, with $x_1 \neq 0$.

If (1) holds true there exists a $x_2 \in E$ such that

$$(I-A)(x_2) = x_1 \neq 0.$$

But

$$(I - A)(x_1) = (I - A)^2(x_2) = 0.$$

With (1) there exists $x_3 \in E$ such that

$$(I - A)(x_3) = x_2$$

which implies

$$(I-A)^2(x_3) = (I-A)(x_2) = x_1 \neq 0.$$

But once again

$$(I-A)^3(x_3) = 0.$$

Proceed inductively gives us a sequence $(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ such that

$$(I-A)^k(x_k) = 0,$$
 but $(I-A)^{k-1}(x_k) \neq 0.$

We obtain

$$\mathcal{N}(I-A) \subsetneq \mathcal{N}((I-A)^2) \subsetneq \mathcal{N}((I-A)^3) \subsetneq \dots$$



This is a sequence of proper closed subspaces.

Apply now Riesz-Lemma:

There exists a sequence $(y_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ with $||y_k|| = 1$ and $||y_k - x|| \ge \frac{1}{2}$ for all $x \in \mathcal{N}((I - A)^{k-1})$ and $y_k \in \mathcal{N}((I - A)^k)$.

Claim: $||A(y_n) - A(y_m)|| \ge \frac{1}{2}$ for all n > m.

$$||A(y_m) - A(y_n)|| = \left\| \underbrace{(I - A)(y_n) - y_n + \underbrace{A(y_m)}_{\in \mathcal{N}((I - A)^{n-1})}} \right\|$$
$$= \left\| y_n - \underbrace{((I - A)(y_n) + A(y_m))}_{\in \mathcal{N}((I - A)^{n-1})} \right\| \ge \frac{1}{2}.$$

So $(A(y_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ can not converge in E. But A is compact and $||y_n|| = 1$ for all n. This is a contradiction.

Conclusion: There is no non-trivial solution of A(x) = x.

 \neg (2) \Rightarrow (1) Assume that x = A(x) has a no non-trivial solution $x \in E$. We want to show that (1) holds.

$$E = \mathcal{R}(I - A^*) \oplus \mathcal{N}(I - A), \quad \text{with } \mathcal{N}(I - A) = \{0\}.$$

Hence

$$x = A^*(x) + y$$

is solvable for every $y \in E$. From the first part of the proof it follows that

$$\mathcal{N}(I - A^*) = \{0\}.$$

But then

$$E = \mathcal{R}(I - A) \oplus \mathcal{N}((I - A^*)) = \mathcal{R}(I - A).$$

Conclusion: x = A(x) + y is solvable for all $y \in E$.

Example. $L^2([0,1]), k \in C([0,1] \times [0,1])$ and

$$A(f)(x) = \int_0^1 k(x, y) f(y) dy, \qquad x \in [0, 1].$$

Then

- $A \in B(L^2, L^2)$ with $\|A\|_{L^2 \to L^2} \le \|k\|_{L^2([0,1] \times [0,1])}$,
- A self-adjoint if $k(x,y) = \overline{k(y,x)}$ for all $x,y \in [0,1]$,
- $A \in K(E, E)$ (by approximation by finite rank operators).

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Theorem 3.42 (Hilbert-Schmidt-Theorem). $(E, \langle . , . \rangle)$ Hilbert spaces and $A \in K(E, E)$ self adjoint. Then there exists a sequence of non-zero eigenvalues of A denoted $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^N$ for N finite or infinite, corresponding to Eigenvectors $(u_n)_{n=1}^N$. Respectively where $(u_n)_{n=1}^N$ is an ON-sequence, and

$$|\lambda_1| \ge |\lambda_2| \ge \dots$$

with

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n = 0, \quad \text{if } N = \infty$$

such that for $x \in E$

$$x = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n + v, \qquad v \in \mathcal{N}(A).$$

Moreover

$$A(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n.$$

Remark. With notation from the theorem above we have

1.

$$A^{k}(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_{n}^{k} \langle x, u_{n} \rangle u_{n}, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

2. If A is injective, i.e. $\mathcal{N}(A)=\{0\}$ then the Eigenvectors $(u_n)_{n=1}^N$ form an ON-basis for E.

Definition (Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors for $A \in B(E,E)$). $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is called an eigenvalue of A if there exists an $0 \neq x \in E$ such that

$$A(x) = \lambda x$$
.

Remark (properties for Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors). 1. $|\lambda| \leq ||A||$ since

$$|\lambda|||x|| = ||\lambda x|| = ||A(x)|| \le ||A|| \cdot ||x||.$$

2. A self-adjoint and λ eigenvalue. Then

$$\Rightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$



since

$$\lambda \langle x , x \rangle = \langle \lambda x , x \rangle$$

$$= \langle A(x) , x \rangle$$

$$= \langle x , A^*(x) \rangle$$

$$= \langle x , A(x) \rangle$$

$$= \langle x , \lambda x \rangle$$

$$= \overline{\lambda} \langle x , x \rangle.$$

So

$$\lambda = \bar{\lambda}, \qquad \Rightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{R}.$$

3. A self-adjoint, $A(x) = \lambda x$ and $A(y) = \mu y$, where $x, y \neq 0$ and $\lambda \neq \mu$.

$$\Rightarrow x \perp y$$

since

$$\lambda \langle x, y \rangle = \ldots = \bar{\mu} \langle x, y \rangle.$$

So

$$\underbrace{(\lambda - \mu)}_{\neq 0} \langle x \,,\, y \rangle = 0.$$

4. $A \in K(E, E)$ and $\lambda \neq 0$ eigenvalue of A. Then

$$\dim E_{\lambda} = \dim\{x \in E \mid A(x) = \lambda x\} < \infty.$$

Proposition 3.43. $(E, \langle ., . \rangle)$ Hilbert space and $A \in K(E, E)$ self-adjoint. Then

$$\Rightarrow \|A\|$$
 or $-\|A\|$

is an eigenvalue of A.

proof. A = 0 then the statement is trivial.

Assume $A \neq 0$.

A self-adjoint implies that

$$||A|| = \sum_{||x||=1} |\langle A(x), x \rangle|.$$

Also self-adjoint implies that for all $x \in E$ we have

$$\langle A(x), x \rangle \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Hence there exists a sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in E with $||x_n|| = 1$ for all n such that

$$\langle A(x_n), x_n \rangle \to \lambda, \qquad n \to \infty.$$



where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $|\lambda| = ||A||$.

Claim: $A(x_n) - \lambda x_n \to 0$ in E.

$$||A(x_{n}) - \lambda x_{n}||^{2} = \langle A(x_{n}) - \lambda x_{n}, A(x_{n}) - \lambda x_{n} \rangle$$

$$= \underbrace{\langle A(x_{n}), A(x_{n}) \rangle}_{=||A(x_{n})||^{2}} - \underbrace{\overline{\lambda} \langle A(x_{n}), x_{n} \rangle}_{\rightarrow \lambda} - \underbrace{\lambda \langle x_{n}, A(x_{n}) \rangle}_{\rightarrow \lambda} + \underbrace{|\lambda|}_{=||A||^{2}} \underbrace{\langle x_{n}, x_{n} \rangle}_{=||A||^{2}}$$

$$= ||A||^{2}$$

$$\rightarrow 0, \quad n \rightarrow \infty.$$

 $A \in K(E,E)$ and $||x_n|| = 1$ for all n we get that

$$(A(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

has a converging subsequence $(A(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ in E. Call the limit element $y \in E$ so

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A(x_{n_k}) \to y & \text{ in } E. \\ \begin{cases} A(x_n) - \lambda x_n & \to 0 \\ A(x_{n_k}) & \to y \end{cases} & \text{ in } E \end{array}$$

implies

$$x_{n_k} \to \frac{1}{\lambda} y$$
 in E

(note $|\lambda| > 0$ since $A \neq 0$).

Set $x = \frac{1}{\lambda}y$. So $x_{n_k} \to x$ in E. Consider

$$||A(x) - \lambda x|| \le ||A(x) - A(x_{n_k})|| + ||A(x_{n_k}) - y|| \to 0, \quad k \to \infty$$

Conclusion:

$$A(x) = \lambda x.$$

where ||x|| = 1 since $1 = ||x_{n_k}|| \to ||x||$ as $k \to \infty$.

We are now going to prove the Hilbert-Schmidt theorem:

proof. If A = 0 the theorem is trivial.

Assume $A \neq 0$.

By the proposition above there exists an eigenvalue λ_1 of A with $|\lambda_1| = ||A||$ and an eigenvector u_1 with $||u_1|| = 1$ corresponding to the eigenvalue λ_1 .

Set $Q_1 = \{u_1\}^{\perp}$. Q_1 is a closed subspace of E and hence Q_1 is a Hilbert space.

For $x \in Q_1$ we have $A(x) \in Q_1$ since for $x \in Q_1$ we have

$$\langle A(x), u_1 \rangle = \langle x, A^*(u_1) \rangle$$

$$= \langle x, A(u_1) \rangle$$

$$= \langle x, \underbrace{\lambda_1}_{\in \mathbb{R}} u_1 \rangle$$

$$= \lambda_1 \langle x, u_1 \rangle = 0.$$



Now

$$A|_{Q_1}:Q_1\to Q_1$$

is compact and also self-adjoint. By proposition above there exists an eigenvalue λ_2 of $A\big|_{Q_1}$ and a corresponding eigenvector u_2 with $\|u_2\|=1$ where

$$|\lambda_2| = ||A|_{Q_1}|| \le ||A|| = |\lambda_1|.$$

Here $A(u_2) = \lambda_2 u_2$ so λ_2 is an eigenvalue of A. Set $Q_2 = \{u_1, u_2\}^{\perp}$. Q_2 is a closed subspace of E and we have

$$x \in Q_2 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad A(x) \in Q_2$$

since $x \in Q_2$ we have

$$\langle A(x), u_1 \rangle = \langle x, A(u_1) \rangle = \langle x, \lambda_1 u_1 \rangle = 0$$

 $\langle A(x), u_2 \rangle = \langle x, A(u_2) \rangle = \langle x, \lambda_2 u_2 \rangle = 0.$

Proceed inductively.

Case 1: For a positive integer k we have

$$|\lambda_1| \ge |\lambda_2| \ge \ldots \ge |\lambda_k| > 0$$

with corresponding eigenvectors u_1,u_2,\ldots,u_k but $A\big|_{Q_k}$ with $Q_k=\{u_1,u_2,\ldots,u_k\}^\perp$, then is the zero-mapping $Q_k\to Q_k$. This corresponds to N=k and

$$x = \sum_{n=1}^{k} \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n + v,$$
 where $v \in \mathcal{N}(A)$.

Case 2: The process never terminates. We get

$$|\lambda_1| \ge |\lambda_2| \ge \ldots \ge |\lambda_n| \ge \ldots$$

with corresponding eigenvectors $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n, \ldots$

We have $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ON-sequence in E corresponding to the non-zero EW $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$. $A \in K(E,E)$ und $w_n \to 0$ in E since $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is ON-sequence.

Then this implies $A(u_n) \to 0$ in E. So

$$|\lambda_n| = ||\lambda_n u_n|| = ||A(u_n)|| \to 0, \qquad n \to \infty.$$

Hence

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \lambda_n = 0.$$

Set

$$S := \overline{\operatorname{span}\{u_1, \dots, u_n, \dots\}} = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha u_k \mid (a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in l^{\infty} \right\}.$$



S is a closed subspace of E.

We have $E=S \oplus S^{\perp}$ where $S^{\perp} \subseteq Q_k=\{u_1,\ldots,u_k\}^{\perp}$ for all $k\in\mathbb{N}$. For $x\in E$ we have

$$\underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x \,,\, u_k \rangle u_k}_{\in S} + \underbrace{v}_{\in S^{\perp}}$$

since $(\langle x\,,\,u_k\rangle)_{k=1}^\infty\in l^\infty$ by Bessel's inequality. To show: A(u)=0. Clearly, $v\in Q_k$ for all k. If v=0 there is nothing to prove. For $v\neq 0$ set $w=\frac{1}{\|v\|}v$ and get

$$\begin{split} |\langle A(v)\,,\,v\rangle| &= \|v\|^2 |\langle A(w)\,,\,w\rangle| \\ &\leq \|w\|^2 \sup_{\substack{\|z\|=1\\z\in Q_k\\}} |\langle A(z)\,,\,z\rangle| \\ &= \left\|A\right|_{Q_k} \left\|=|\lambda_{k+1}|\to 0\right. \end{split}$$

Claim: $A\big|_{S^{\perp}}=0$ and hence $v\in S^{\perp}$ implies A(v)=0.

Theorem 3.44 (Spectral mapping theorem). $(E,\langle.\,,\,.\rangle)$ seperable Hilbert space and ∞ -dimensional $A\in K(E,E)$ self-adjoint. Then there exists a ON-basis of eigenvectors $(\tilde{u}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ corresponding to the eigenvalues $(\tilde{\lambda}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ if A where $\lim_{n\to\infty}\tilde{\lambda}_n=0$.

proof (consequence of HS-theorem). We have by HS-theorem an ON-sequence $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of eigenvectors corresponding to the non-zero eigenvalues $(\lambda_n)_{n=1}^N$. Set

$$S = \overline{\operatorname{span}\{u_1, \dots, u_n, \dots\}}.$$

E is seperable implies E has an ON-basis $(v_n)_{n=1}^\infty$. By Gram-Schmidt Orthoganlization procedure we can obtain an ON-basis $(w_n)_{n=1}^M$ for S^\perp . Have M finite or infinite.

$$S: u1, u_2, \ldots$$
 ON-basis finite or infinite $S^{\perp}: w1, w_2, \ldots$ ON-basis finite or infinite

Consider the ON-sequence $u_1, w_1, u_2, w_2, \ldots = \tilde{u}_1, \tilde{u}_2, \ldots$ This gives an ON-basis for E consisting of eigenvectors to A. Also

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\tilde{\lambda}_n=0.$$