

Lecture 0: Summary (Part 3)

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1 Normed Linear Space

- **Remark** Note that the definition of a *metric space* is only about the *topology* of the space. In the field of functional analysis, we are mostly concerned about *the vector space*, i.e. a space that equipped with algebraic operations such as vector addition and scalar multiplications. In order to make the *metric topological structure compatible* with *the algebraic structure of vector space*, we need to introduce additional function such as the *norm*.

- **Definition** (*Normed Linear Space*)

A normed linear space is a vector space, V , over \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C}) and a function, $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies:

1. (**Non-Negativity**): $\|v\| \geq 0$ for all v in V ;
2. (**Positive Definiteness**): $\|v\| = 0$ if and only if $v = 0$;
3. (**Absolute Homogeneity**) $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$ for all v in V and α in \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C})
4. (**Subadditivity / Triangle Inequality**) $\|v + w\| \leq \|v\| + \|w\|$ for all v and w in V

We denote the normed linear space as $(V, \|\cdot\|)$.

- **Remark** If the function $p : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ only satisfies the condition 1, 3 and 4 (without *positive definiteness*), it is called a semi-norm. The 1. *non-negativity* condition can be derived by the 3. *homogeneity* and 4. *subadditivity* conditions.
- **Remark** A normed linear space $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is a *metric space* with *induced metric*

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\|, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in V$$

2 Banach Space

2.1 Definition and Examples

- **Definition** A normed linear space $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete if it is *complete* as a *metric space* in the *induced metric*.
- **Definition** A *complete normed linear space* is called a Banach space.
- **Example** $\mathcal{C}(X)$ and its subspace $\mathcal{C}_{\mathbb{R}}(X)$
Let $\mathcal{C}(X)$ be the set of all *complex-valued continuous functions* on X and $\mathcal{C}_{\mathbb{R}}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(X)$ be the set of all *real-valued continuous functions* on X . Also define $\mathcal{C}^b(X)$ as the set of all *complex-valued bounded continuous functions* on X . When X is a *compact space*, $\mathcal{C}^b(X) = \mathcal{C}(X)$. Define the norm as

$$\|f\|_{\infty} = \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)|.$$

Then for compact Hausdorff space X , $\mathcal{C}(X)$ is a (complex) Banach space and $\mathcal{C}(X)$ is a (real) Banach space.

- **Example** $(L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \text{ and its subspace } \mathcal{BC}(\mathbb{R}))$
Let $L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of (equivalence classes of) *complex-valued measurable functions* on \mathbb{R}

such that $|f(x)| \leq M$ a.e. with respect to Lebesgue measure for some $M < \infty$ ($f = g$ means $f(x) = g(x)$ a.e.). Let $\|f\|_\infty$ be **the smallest such M** . $L^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ is a **Banach space** with norm $\|\cdot\|_\infty$.

The **bounded continuous functions** $\mathcal{BC}(\mathbb{R})$ is a **subspace** of $L^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ and restricted to $\mathcal{BC}(\mathbb{R})$ the $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ -norm is just the usual **supremum norm** under which $\mathcal{BC}(\mathbb{R})$ is **complete** (since the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous). Thus, $\mathcal{BC}(\mathbb{R})$ **is a closed subspace of $L^\infty(\mathbb{R})$** .

Consider the set $\kappa(\mathbb{R})$ of **continuous functions with compact support**, that is, the continuous functions that *vanish outside of some closed interval*. $\kappa(\mathbb{R})$ is a **normed linear space** under $\|\cdot\|_\infty$; but **is not complete**. The **completion** of $\kappa(\mathbb{R})$ is **not all of $\mathcal{BC}(\mathbb{R})$** ; for example, if f is the function which is identically equal to one, then *I cannot be approximated by a function in $\kappa(\mathbb{R})$* since $\|f - g\|_\infty \geq 1$ for all $g \in \kappa(\mathbb{R})$. The **completion** of $\kappa(\mathbb{R})$ is just $\mathcal{C}_\infty(\mathbb{R})$, the continuous functions which **approach zero at ∞** .

Some of the most powerful theorems in functional analysis (*Riesz-Markov, Stone-Weierstrass*) are generalizations of properties of $\mathcal{BC}(\mathbb{R})$. ■

- **Example (L^p spaces)**

Let (X, μ) be a measure space and $p \geq 1$. We denote by $L^p(X, \mu)$ **the set of equivalence classes** of measurable functions which satisfy:

$$\|f\|_p := \left(\int_X |f(x)|^p d\mu(x) \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty$$

Two functions are *equivalent* if they differ only on a *set of measure zero*.

The following theorem collects many of the standard facts about L^p spaces.

Theorem 2.1 *Let $1 \leq p < \infty$, then*

1. **(The Minkowski Inequality)**: *If $f, g \in L^p(X, \mu)$, then*

$$\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$$

2. **(Riesz-Fisher)**: *$L^p(X, \mu)$ is **complete**.*

3. **(The Hölder Inequality)** *Let p, q , and r be positive numbers satisfying $p, q, r \geq 1$ and $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = r^{-1}$. Suppose $f \in L^p(X, \mu)$, $g \in L^q(X, \mu)$. Then $fg \in L^r(X, \mu)$ and*

$$\|fg\|_r \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$$

Remark *The Minkowski inequality shows that $L^p(X, \mu)$ is a vector space and $\|\cdot\|_p$ satisfies the triangle inequality. This together with *Riesz-Fisher theorem* shows that $L^p(X, \mu)$ **is a Banach space**.*

- **Example (Sequence Spaces)**

There is a nice class of spaces which is easy to describe and which we will often use to illustrate various concepts. In the following definitions,

$$a := (a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$$

always denotes a sequence of complex numbers.

$$\begin{aligned}\ell^\infty &:= \left\{ a : \|a\|_\infty := \sup_n |a_n| < \infty \right\} \\ c_0 &:= \left\{ a : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0 \right\} \\ \ell^p &:= \left\{ a : \|a\|_p := \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty \right\} \\ s &:= \left\{ a : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^p a_n = 0 \text{ for all positive integers } p \right\} \\ f &:= \{ a : a_n = 0 \text{ for all but a finite number of } n \}\end{aligned}$$

It is clear that as sets $f \subseteq s \subseteq \ell^p \subseteq c_0 \subseteq \ell^\infty$.

The spaces ℓ^∞ and c_0 are Banach spaces with the $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ norm; ℓ^p is a Banach space with the $\|\cdot\|_p$ norm (note that $\ell^p = L^p(\mathbb{R}, \mu)$ where μ is the measure with mass one at each positive integer and zero everywhere else). It will turn out that s **is a Frechet space**.

One of the reasons that these spaces are easy to handle is that f is dense in ℓ^p (in $\|\cdot\|_p$; $p < \infty$ and f is dense in c_0 (in the $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ norm)). Actually, the set of elements of f with only rational entries is also dense in ℓ^p and c_0 . Since this set is countable, ℓ^p and c_0 are separable. ℓ^∞ is not separable.

- **Example (Hilbert Space)**

All Hilbert spaces $(\mathcal{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ are Banach spaces with induced norm as

$$\|x\| = (\langle x, x \rangle)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

2.2 Isomorphism and Equivalence of Norms

- **Definition (Absolutely Summable)**

A sequence of elements $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ in a normed linear space X is called **absolutely summable** $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \|x_n\| < \infty$. It is called **summable** if $\sum_{n=1}^N x_n$ converges as $N \rightarrow \infty$ to an $x \in X$.

- **Proposition 2.2 (Criterion of Completeness for Normed Linear Space)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

A normed linear space is **complete** if and only if every **absolutely summable** sequence is **summable**.

- **Definition (Isomorphism between Normed Linear Spaces)**

A **bounded linear operator** from a normed linear space X to a normed linear space Y is called an **isomorphism** if it is a **bijection** which is **continuous** and which has a **continuous inverse**.

If it is **norm preserving**, it is called **an isometric isomorphism** (any norm preserving map is called an **isometry**).

- **Definition (Norm Equivalence)**

Two norms, $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$, on a normed linear space X are called **equivalent** if there are

positive constants C and C' such that, for all $x \in X$,

$$C \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1 \leq C' \|x\|_2$$

- **Remark** This concept is motivated by the following fact.

Equivalent norms on X define the same topology for X .

- **Proposition 2.3** *The **completions** of the space in the two norms will be **isomorphic** if and only if the norms are **equivalent**.*
- **Proposition 2.4** *Two norms, $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$, on a normed linear space X are **equivalent** if and only if the **identity map** is an **isomorphism**.*
- **Remark** An example is provided by the sequence spaces. The **completion** of f in the $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ norm is c_0 while the completion in the $\|\cdot\|_p$ norm is ℓ^p .

2.3 Subspace of a Banach Space

- **Definition** A **subspace** Y of a normed space X is a subspace of X considered as a vector space, with the norm obtained by **restricting** the norm on X to the subset Y . This norm on Y is said to be **induced** by the norm on X .

If Y is closed in X , then Y is called a **closed subspace** of X .

- **Remark** A subspace Y of a **Banach space** X is a subspace of X considered as a normed space. Hence we do not require Y to be complete.
- **Proposition 2.5 (Subspace of a Banach space).** [Kreyszig, 1989]
A subspace Y of a Banach space X is **complete** if and only if the set Y is **closed** in X .

2.4 Basis and Separability

- **Definition (Basis of Normed Space)**

If a normed space X contains a sequence (e_i) with the property that for every $x \in X$ there is a **unique** sequence of scalars (u^i) such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\| x - \sum_{i=1}^n u^i e_i \right\| = 0, \quad (1)$$

then (e_i) is called a **Schauder basis (or basis)** for X . The series $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} u^i e_i$ which has the sum x is then called the **expansion** of x with respect to (e_i) , and we write

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} u^i e_i$$

- **Example** The (Schauder) basis of ℓ^p is (e_n) and

$$e_n := (\delta_{n,i}) = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$$

where the i -th component is 1 and the others are all zeros.

- **Proposition 2.6** *If a normed space X has a Schauder basis, then X is **separable**.*
- **Theorem 2.7 (Completion).** [Kreyszig, 1989]
*Let $X = (X, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space. Then there is a Banach space X and an isometry A from X onto a subspace W of X which is **dense** in X . The space X is **unique**, except for isometries.*

2.5 Direct Sum of Banach Spaces

- **Definition (Direct Sum of Banach Spaces)**
 Let A be an index set (not necessarily countable), and suppose that for each $\alpha \in A$, X_α is a Banach space. Let

$$X := \left\{ (x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in A} : x_\alpha \in X_\alpha, \sum_{\alpha \in A} \|x_\alpha\|_{X_\alpha} < \infty \right\}.$$

Then X with the norm

$$\|(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in A}\|_X := \sum_{\alpha \in A} \|x_\alpha\|_{X_\alpha}$$

is a Banach space. It is called **the direct sum** of the spaces X_α and is often written as $X = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$.

- **Remark (Banach Spaces Direct Sum \neq Hilbert Spaces Direct Sum)**
 Note that *the direct sum of Banach spaces* is **not** necessarily *the direct sum of Hilbert spaces*.
 For instance, if we take countable numbers of copies of \mathbb{C} , *the Banach space direct sum* is ℓ_1 , while *the Hilbert space direct sum* is ℓ_2 .
 However, if only **finite number of Hilbert spaces** are involved, then both *Hilbert space direct sum* and *their Banach space direct sum* are *isomorphic* to each other.

2.6 Finite Dimensional Case

- **Remark (Finite Dimensional Normed Space is Simple)**
 We summarize the **unique** simple structure of finite dimensional normed space in terms of various concepts we discussed in this chapter:
 1. **Completeness**: Every finite dimensional normed vector space is **complete** so it is a **Banach space**;
 2. **Norm Equivalence**: All norms in a finite dimensional normed space are **equivalent**; therefore, **convergence** in one norm means convergence in all other norms.
 3. **Topological Equivalence**: There exists **only one distinct norm topology** in a finite dimensional normed space;
 4. **Compactness**: In a finite dimensional normed space, **compactness** is equivalent to **closedness** and **boundedness**.

5. **Bounded Linear Operator:** *Every linear operator* between finite dimensional normed spaces is **bounded**. Thus in finite dimensional space, every linear operator is **continuous**.

- **Lemma 2.8 (Linear combinations).** [Kreyszig, 1989]

Let (x_1, \dots, x_n) be a **linearly independent** set of vectors in a normed space X (of any dimension). Then there is a number $c > 0$ such that for every choice of scalars $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ we have

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i \right\| \geq c \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|. \quad (2)$$

- **Theorem 2.9 (Completeness).** [Kreyszig, 1989]

Every finite dimensional subspace Y of a normed space X is **complete**. In particular, every **finite dimensional** normed space is **complete**.

- **Remark** In other words, every finite dimensional normed vector space is a Banach space.

- **Proposition 2.10 (Closedness).** [Kreyszig, 1989]

Every finite dimensional subspace Y of a normed space X is **closed** in X .

- **Theorem 2.11 (Equivalent Norms).** [Kreyszig, 1989]

If a vector space X is **finite dimensional**, all norms are equivalent.

- **Remark** This theorem is of considerable practical importance. For instance, it implies that **convergence** or **divergence** of a sequence in a **finite dimensional** vector space **does not depend** on the particular **choice of a norm** on that space. There is no ambiguity when we say $x_n \rightarrow x$ in **finite dimensional** space.

In fact, there exists only one distinct norm topology for finite dimensional space.

- **Definition (Compactness).**

A metric space X is said to be **(sequentially) compact** if every sequence in X has a **convergent subsequence**. A subset M of X is said to be **compact** if M is **compact** considered as a subspace of X , that is, if every sequence in M has a convergent subsequence *whose limit is an element of M* .

- **Lemma 2.12 (Compactness).**

A **compact** subset M of a metric space is **closed** and **bounded**.

- **Remark** The **converse** of this lemma is in general **false**. But for **finite dimensional** space, the converse is true:

- **Theorem 2.13 (Compactness).** [Kreyszig, 1989]

In a **finite dimensional** normed space X , any subset $M \subseteq X$ is **compact** if and only if M is **closed** and **bounded**.

- **Remark** In **finite dimensional** space, the **compact** subsets are precisely the **closed** and **bounded** subsets, so that this property (**closedness** and **boundedness**) can be used for **defining compactness**.

However, *this can no longer be done* in the case of an **infinite dimensional** normed space.

- **Lemma 2.14 (F. Riesz's Lemma).** [Kreyszig, 1989]

Let Y and Z be **subspaces** of a normed space X (of any dimension), and suppose that Y is **closed** and is a **proper subset** of Z . Then for every real number θ in the interval $(0, 1)$ there is a $z \in Z$ such that

$$\|z\| = 1, \quad \|z - y\| \geq \theta, \quad \text{for all } y \in Y.$$

- **Theorem 2.15 (Bounded Linear Operator)**

If a normed space X is finite dimensional, then every linear operator on X is **bounded**.

3 Bounded Linear Operators on Banach Space

3.1 Definitions and Examples

- **Definition (Bounded Linear Operator)**

A **bounded linear transformation** (or **bounded operator**) is a mapping $T : (X, \|\cdot\|_X) \rightarrow (Y, \|\cdot\|_Y)$ from a normed linear space X to a normed linear space Y that satisfies

1. (**Linearity**) $T(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha T(x) + \beta T(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$, $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C}
2. (**Boundedness**) $\|Tx\|_Y \leq C \|x\|_X$ for small $C \geq 0$.

The smallest such C is called the norm of T , written $\|T\|$ or $\|T\|_{X,Y}$. Thus

$$\|T\| := \sup_{\|x\|_X=1} \|Tx\|_Y$$

- **Remark** A linear operator T is a **homomorphism** of a vector space (its domain) into another vector space, that is, T **preserves the two operations** of vector space.

- **Proposition 3.1** [Reed and Simon, 1980, Kreyszig, 1989]

Let T be a linear transformation between two **normed linear spaces**. The following are **equivalent**:

1. T is **continuous** at **one** point.
2. T is **continuous** at **all** points.
3. T is **bounded**.

- **Definition (The Bounded Operators)**

In above we defined the concept of a **bounded linear transformation** or **bounded operator** from one normed linear space, X , to another Y ; we will denote the set of all bounded linear operators from X to Y by $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$. We can introduce a **norm** on $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ by defining

$$\|A\| := \sup_{x \neq 0, x \in X} \frac{\|Ax\|_Y}{\|x\|_X}.$$

This norm is often called the operator norm.

- We have the following proposition

Proposition 3.2 If Y is **complete**, $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ is a **Banach space**.

- **Theorem 3.3 (The B.L.T. Theorem)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Suppose T is a bounded linear transformation from a normed linear space $(V_1, \|\cdot\|_1)$ to a **complete** normed linear space $(V_2, \|\cdot\|_2)$. Then T can be **uniquely extended** to a bounded linear transformation (with the same bound), \tilde{T} , from the **completion** of V_1 to $(V_2, \|\cdot\|_2)$.

3.2 Dual Space

- **Definition (Dual Space)**

The space $\mathcal{L}(X, \mathbb{C})$ of all **bounded linear functionals** on a normed linear space X is called the **dual space of X** . This space $\mathcal{L}(X, \mathbb{C})$ is denoted as X^* .

The dual space X^* is a Banach space if X is a Banach space (See Proposition 3.2). The **norm** of dual space is

$$\|\lambda\| := \sup_{x \neq 0, \|x\| \leq 1} |\lambda(x)|,$$

for all $\lambda \in X^*$.

- **Remark (Cauchy-Schwartz inequality)**

By definition, we have the *dual norm inequality*

$$|\lambda(x)| \leq \|\lambda\|_{X^*} \|x\|_X. \quad (3)$$

In Hilbert space, since $\lambda(x) = \langle y_\lambda, x \rangle$ for some y_λ , it becomes **the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality**.

$$|\langle y_\lambda, x \rangle| \leq \|y_\lambda\| \|x\|$$

- **Example (Hilbert Space)**

Any **Hilbert space** \mathcal{H} is **isomorphic** to its **dual** \mathcal{H}^* according to the *Riesz Representation Theorem*. For instance $L^2(X, \mu) = (L^2(X, \mu))^*$.

- **Example ($L^p(X, \mu)$ Spaces, $1 < p < \infty$)**

Suppose that $1 < p < \infty$ and $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$. If $f \in L^p(X, \mu)$ and $g \in L^q(X, \mu)$ then, according to the *Hölder inequality*, fg is in $L^1(X, \mu)$. Thus,

$$\int_X f(x) \overline{g(x)} d\mu(x) < \infty$$

makes sense, Let $g \in L^q(X, \mu)$ be fixed and define

$$G(f) := \int_X f \bar{g} d\mu$$

for each $f \in L^p(X, \mu)$. The Hölder inequality shows that $G(f)$ is a **bounded linear functional** on $L^p(X, \mu)$ with *norm* less than or equal to $\|g\|_q$; actually **the norm $\|G\|$ is equal to $\|g\|_q$** .

The *converse* of this statement is also *true*. That is, **every bounded linear functional on L^p is of the form $G(f)$ for some $g \in L^q$** . Furthermore, **different functions in L^q give rise to different functionals on L^p** . Thus, the mapping

$$L^q(M, \mu) \rightarrow (L^p(X, \mu))^*, \quad g \mapsto G_g(\cdot)$$

is a (conjugate linear) isometric isomorphism.

In this sense, $L^q(M, \mu)$ **is the dual of** $L^p(X, \mu)$. Since the roles of p and q in the expression $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$ are *symmetric*, it is clear that $L^p(X, \mu) = (L^q(X, \mu))^* = (L^p(X, \mu))^{**}$. That is, the **dual** of the **dual** of $L^p(X, \mu)$ is again $L^p(X, \mu)$. ■

- **Remark** Note that $L^\infty(X, \mu)$ space and $L^1(X, \mu)$ space are **not dual** spaces to each other. The dual space of $L^\infty(X, \mu)$ space is much larger than $L^1(X, \mu)$ space. In fact, $L^1(X, \mu)$ **space is not dual to any Banach space**. This is different from ℓ^∞ and ℓ^1 .

- **Example** ($\ell^\infty = (\ell^1)^*$, $\ell^1 = (c_0)^*$)
Suppose that $(\lambda_k)_{k=1}^\infty \in \ell^1$. Then for each $(a_k)_{k=1}^\infty \in c_0$,

$$\Lambda((a_k)_{k=1}^\infty) = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \lambda_k a_k$$

converges and $\Lambda(\cdot)$ is a **continuous linear functional** on c_0 with **norm** equal to $\sum_{k=1}^\infty |\lambda_k|$.

- **Remark** We see that $c_0 \subseteq (c_0)^{**} = (\ell^1)^* = \ell^\infty$.
- **Definition (Double Dual)**
Since the **dual** X^* of a *Banach space* is itself a *Banach space*, it also has a **dual space**, denoted by X^{**} . X^{**} is called the second dual, the bidual, or the double dual of the space X .
- **Proposition 3.4** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let X be a Banach space. For each $x \in X$, let $\tilde{x}(\cdot)$ be the linear functional on X^* which assigns to each $\lambda \in X^*$ the number $\lambda(x)$. Then the map $J : x \mapsto \tilde{x}$ is an **isometric isomorphism** of X onto a (possibly proper) subspace of X^{**} .
- **Remark** From above proposition, we see that there exists an *embedding* from X to a subset of X^{**}

$$X \subseteq X^{**}, \quad X \hookrightarrow X^{**}$$

- **Definition** If the map $J : x \mapsto \tilde{x}$ is **surjective**, then X is said to be reflexive. In other word, X is reflexive if and only if $X = X^{**}$.
- **Example** $L^p(X, \mu)$ spaces are **reflexive** for $1 < p < \infty$. Note that $L^p(X, \mu) = (L^q(X, \mu))^* = (L^p(X, \mu))^{**}$
- **Example** All Hilbert spaces \mathcal{H} are **reflexive**.
- **Example** Since $c_0 \subseteq (c_0)^{**} = (\ell^1)^* = \ell^\infty$, c_0 is *not reflexive*.

3.3 Dual Space of Compact Supported Continuous Functions

3.3.1 Radon Measure

- **Definition (Outer Regularity)** [Folland, 2013]
Let μ be a **Borel** measure on X and E a *Borel subset* of X . The measure μ is called

outer regular on E if

$$\mu(E) = \inf \{ \mu(U) : U \supseteq E, U \text{ is open} \}$$

- **Definition (*Inner Regularity*)** [Folland, 2013]

Let μ be a **Borel** measure on X and E a *Borel subset* of X . The measure μ is called inner regular on E if

$$\mu(E) = \sup \{ \mu(C) : C \subseteq E, C \text{ is compact} \}$$

- **Definition** If μ is *outer* and *inner regular* on all *Borel sets*, μ is called regular.
- **Remark *Baire measure*** is equivalent to a **regular Borel measure** (*Randon measure*) in the context of **compact space** X .
- **Definition (*Radon Measure*)** [Folland, 2013]
A Radon measure μ on X is a *Borel measure* that is

1. **finite** on all **compact sets**; i.e. for any **compact subset** $K \subseteq X$,

$$\mu(K) < \infty.$$

2. **outer regular** on all *Borel sets*; i.e. for any *Borel set* E

$$\mu(E) = \inf \{ \mu(U) : E \subseteq U, U \text{ is open} \}.$$

3. **inner regular** on all *open sets*; i.e. for any *open set* E

$$\mu(E) = \sup \{ \mu(C) : C \subseteq E, C \text{ is compact and Borel} \}.$$

- **Remark *Randon measure*** is called regular Borel measure.

3.3.2 The Riesz-Markov Representation Theorem

- **Definition (*Positive Linear Functional*)**

Let $\mathcal{C}(X)$ be the space of **continuous functions** on X . A positive linear functional on $\mathcal{C}(X)$ is a (not necessarily a priori continuous) *linear functiona* I with $I(f) > 0$ for all f with $f(x) \geq 0$ pointwise.

- **Lemma 3.5 (*Bounded by Unit Ball in Uniform Metric*)** [Folland, 2013]

If I is a *positive linear functional* on $\mathcal{C}_c(X)$, for each compact $C \subseteq X$ there is a constant κ_C such that $|I(f)| < \kappa_C \|f\|_u$ for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_c(X)$ such that $\text{supp}(f) \subset C$.

- **Remark** If μ is a *Borel measure* on X such that $\mu(C) < \infty$ for every compact subset $C \subseteq X$, then $\mathcal{C}_c(X) \subseteq L^1(X, \mu)$. Therefore, $f \mapsto \int f d\mu$ is a **positive linear functional** on $\mathcal{C}_c(X)$.

The following theorem shows that the every positive linear functionals on $\mathcal{C}_c(X)$ can be **represented** as the *integral with respect to* some Radon measure μ .

- **Theorem 3.6** (*The Riesz-Markov Representation Theorem*). [Folland, 2013]
Let X be a **locally compact Hausdorff** space, if I is a **positive linear functional** on $\mathcal{C}_c(X)$, there is a **unique Radon measure** μ on X such that

$$I(f) = \int f d\mu$$

for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_c(X)$. Moreover, μ satisfies the following conditions:

1. for all **open** sets $U \subseteq X$,

$$\mu(U) = \sup \{I(f) : f \in \mathcal{C}_c(X), \text{supp}(f) \subseteq U, 0 \leq f \leq 1\}.$$

2. for all **compact** sets $K \subseteq X$

$$\mu(K) = \inf \{I(f) : f \in \mathcal{C}_c(X), f \geq \mathbb{1}_K\}.$$

- **Remark** Following the *Riesz-Markov Theorem*

$$\mu(X) = \sup \left\{ \int_X f d\mu : f \in \mathcal{C}_c(X), 0 \leq f \leq 1 \right\}.$$

- The following theorem is another version of the *Riesz representation theorem*:

Theorem 3.7 (*The Riesz-Markov Theorem*) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let X be a **compact Hausdorff** space. For any **positive linear functional** I on $\mathcal{C}(X)$, there is a **unique Baire measure** μ on X with

$$I(f) = \int f d\mu$$

- **Remark** (**Radon Measures** \Leftrightarrow **Positive Linear Functionals on $\mathcal{C}_c(X)$**)
The Riesz-Markov theorem relates **linear functionals** on spaces of **continuous functions** on a **locally compact** space to **measures** in **measure theory**.
- **Remark Not to be confused** with another Riesz representation theorem, which related **linear functions on Hilbert space** as inner product with some element in Hilbert space

$$I(f) = \langle f, g_I \rangle$$

for some $g_I \in \mathcal{H}$.

- **Remark** (**Duality between $\mathcal{C}_0(X)$ and $\mathcal{M}(X)$**)
The Riesz representation theorem establishes the **foundation** of the **the duality** between the space of compactly supported continuous functions and the space of all Radon **measures** on X .

In particular, for **locally compact Hausdorff** X ,

$$\{\mu : \mu \text{ is a Radon measure on } X\} \simeq \{I \in \mathcal{C}_0(X)^* : I \text{ is positive}\}$$

3.3.3 Dual Space of $\mathcal{C}_0(X)$

- **Theorem 3.8 (Monotone Convergence Theorem for Nets)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let μ be a **regular Borel** measure on a **compact Hausdorff** space X . Let $\{f_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be an **increasing net** of continuous functions. Then

$$f_\alpha \rightarrow f \in L^1(X, \mu), \quad \text{a.e.}$$

if and only if $\sup_\alpha \|f_\alpha\|_1 < \infty$ and in that case

$$\|f_\alpha - f\|_1 \rightarrow 0.$$

- **Lemma 3.9** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let $f, g \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ with $f, g \geq 0$. Suppose $h \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ and $0 \leq h \leq f + g$. Then, we can write $h = h_1 + h_2$ with $0 \leq h_1 \leq f$, $0 \leq h_2 \leq g$, $h_1, h_2 \in \mathcal{C}(X)$.
- **Theorem 3.10 (Decomposition of Real Linear Functional)** [Reed and Simon, 1980, Folland, 2013]
Let X be a **compact** space, $I \in (\mathcal{C}(X))^*$ be any continuous linear functional on $\mathcal{C}(X)$. Then I can be written

$$I = I_+ - I_-$$

with I_+ and I_- **positive linear functionals**. Moreover,

$$I_+ + I_- = \|I\|$$

and this **uniquely determines** I_+ and I_- .

- **Definition (Complex Radon Measure)**
A **signed Radon measure** is a **signed Borel measure** whose **positive** and **negative variations** are **Radon**, and a **complex Radon measure** is a **complex Borel measure** whose real and imaginary parts are **signed Radon measures**.
- **Remark** In [Reed and Simon, 1980], one defines **the complex Baire measure** as a **finite linear complex combination** of **Baire measures**.
- **Definition (Space of Complex Radon Measures)**
On **locally compact Hausdorff** space X , We denote the space of complex Radon measures on X by $\mathcal{M}(X)$. For $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$ we define

$$\|\mu\| = |\mu|(X),$$

where $|\mu|$ is the **total variation** of μ .

- **Proposition 3.11 ($\mathcal{M}(X)$ is Normed Linear Space)** [Folland, 2013]
If μ is a **complex Borel measure**, then μ is **Radon** if and only if $|\mu|$ is **Radon**. Moreover, $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is a vector space and $\mu \mapsto \|\mu\|$ is a **norm** on it.
- **Theorem 3.12 (The Riesz-Markov Theorem, Locally Compact Version)** [Reed and Simon, 1980, Folland, 2013]
Let X be a **locally compact Hausdorff** space. For any continuous linear functional I

on $\mathcal{C}_0(X)$, (the space of continuous functions on X that vanishes at infinity), there is a unique regular countably additive complex Borel measure μ on X such that

$$I(f) = \int_X f d\mu, \quad \text{for all } f \in \mathcal{C}_0(X).$$

The norm of I as a linear functional is the total variation of μ , that is

$$\|I\| = |\mu|(X).$$

Finally, I is **positive** if and only if the measure μ is **non-negative**.

- **Remark** In other word, the map $\mu \mapsto I_\mu$, is an **isometric isomorphism** from $\mathcal{M}(X)$ to $(\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*$, or

$$\mathcal{M}(X) \simeq (\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*.$$

- **Corollary 3.13** [Reed and Simon, 1980, Folland, 2013]
Let X be a **compact Hausdorff** space. Then the dual space $\mathcal{C}(X)^*$ is **isometric isomorphism** to $\mathcal{M}(X)$.
- **Definition** Given $\mathcal{M}(X) \simeq (\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*$, we define subspaces of \mathcal{M} :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}_+(X) &= \{I \in \mathcal{M}(X) : I \text{ is a positive linear functional}\}, \\ \mathcal{M}_{+,1}(X) &= \{I \in \mathcal{M}(X) : \|I\| = 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\mathcal{M}_+(X)$ is identified with **the space of all positive Radon measures on X** .

- **Remark (Isometric Embedding of $L^1(\mu)$ into $M(X)$)**
Let μ be a fixed **positive Radon measure** on X . If $f \in L^1(\mu)$, the complex measure

$$d\nu_f = f d\mu$$

is easily seen to be **Radon**, and $\|\nu\| = \int |f| d\mu = \|f\|_1$. Thus $f \mapsto \nu_f$ is an **isometric embedding** of $L^1(\mu)$ into $M(X)$ whose range consists precisely of those $\nu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$ such that $\nu \ll \mu$.

- **Remark (Two Perspectives of Measures)**
For **regular Borel measure** μ or in general, **Radon measures** on **locally compact** space X , there are two perspectives:

1. **Nonegative set function on the σ -algebra \mathcal{A}** : as a **measure of the volume** of a subset in X ;
2. **Positive linear functional on $\mathcal{C}_0(X)$** : as a **integral** of compactly supported continuous functions with respect to **given measure**.

In some cases, it is important to think of **measures** not merely as individual objects but instead as **elements of $(\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*$** , so that we can employ **geometric** ideas.

- **Proposition 3.14 (Criterion for Weak* (Vague) Convergence on $\mathcal{M}(X)$)** [Folland, 2013]
Suppose $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R})$, and let $F_n(x) = \mu_n((-\infty, x])$ and $F(x) = \mu((-\infty, x])$.

1. If $\sup_n \|\mu_n\| < \infty$ and $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$ for **every** x at which F is **continuous**, then $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$ **vaguely**.
2. If $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$ **vaguely**, then $\sup_n \|\mu_n\| < \infty$. If, in addition, the μ_n s are **positive**, then $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$ at **every** x at which F is **continuous**.

- Finally, we tends to the geometrical properties of subspace of $\mathcal{M}(X)$

Definition (Convex Cone)

A set A in a vector space Y is called **convex** if x and $y \in A$ and $0 \leq t \leq 1$ implies $tx + (1-t)y \in A$. Thus A is **convex** if the **line segment** between x and y is in A whenever x and y are in A . A is called a **cone** if $x \in A$ implies $tx \in A$ for all $t > 0$. If A is **convex** and a **cone**, it is called a **convex cone**.

- **Proposition 3.15 (Geometry of $\mathcal{M}_+(X)$ and $\mathcal{M}_{+,1}(X)$)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let X be a **compact Hausdorff** space. Then $\mathcal{M}_{+,1}(X)$ is **convex** and $\mathcal{M}_+(X)$ is a **convex cone**.

3.4 Adjoints of Bounded Operator

- **Definition (Banach Space Adjoint)**

Let X and Y be *Banach spaces*, T a **bounded linear operator** from X to Y . The **Banach space adjoint of T** , denoted by T' , is the **bounded linear operator** from Y^* to X^* defined by

$$(T'f)(x) = f(Tx)$$

for all $f \in Y^*$, $x \in X$.

- **Example (Adjoint of Right Shift Operator)**

Let $X = \ell^1 = Y$ and let T be **the right shift operator**

$$T(\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots) = (0, \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots)$$

Then $T' : \ell^\infty \rightarrow \ell^\infty$ is **the left shift operator**

$$T'(\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots) = (\xi_2, \xi_3, \dots).$$

- **Proposition 3.16 (Isomorphism between Bounded Operator and its Adjoint)**. [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let X and Y be **Banach spaces**. The map $T \rightarrow T'$ is an **isometric isomorphism** of $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ into $\mathcal{L}(Y^*, X^*)$.

- **Remark (Hilbert Space Adjoint)**

Let $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}) := \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{H})$ be the space of bounded linear operators on \mathcal{H} . The Banach space adjoint of T^* then a mapping of \mathcal{H}^* to \mathcal{H}^* . Let $C : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^*$ be the map which assigns to each $y \in \mathcal{H}$, the bounded linear functional $\langle y, \cdot \rangle$ in \mathcal{H}^* . C is a **conjugate linear isometry** which is **surjective** by the *Riesz Representation theorem* (so it is **unitary**). Now define a map $T^* : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ by

$$T^* = C^{-1}T'C$$

Then T^* satisfies

$$\langle x, Ty \rangle = (Cx)(Ty) = (T'Cx)(y) = \langle C^{-1}T'Cx, y \rangle = \langle T^*x, y \rangle,$$

T^* is called **the Hilbert space adjoint of T** , but usually we will just call it the adjoint and let the T^* distinguish it from T' . Notice that the map $T \rightarrow T^*$ is **conjugate linear**, that is, $\alpha T \rightarrow \bar{\alpha}T^*$. This is because C is conjugate linear.

- **Proposition 3.17** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

The map $T \rightarrow T^$ is always **continuous** in the **weak** and **uniform operator topologies** but is only continuous in the **strong operator topology** if \mathcal{H} is **finite dimensional**.*

4 Compactness in Banach Space

Remark (*Compactness in Function Space*)

The importance of **compactness** in analysis is well-known, and the fact that *closed bounded sets are compact in finite dimensional spaces* lies at the heart of much of the analysis on these spaces. **Unfortunately**, as we have seen, this is *not true* in *infinite dimensional spaces*.

There are **two main compactness results** in *function space*:

1. The **Ascoli's theorem**: Let X be a *compact Hausdorff space*; let d denote either the square metric or the euclidean metric on \mathbb{R}^n ; give $\mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$ the corresponding **uniform topology**. A subspace \mathcal{F} of $\mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$ is **compact** if and only if it is **closed, bounded** under the **sup metric ρ** , and **equicontinuous** under d .
2. The **Banach-Alaoglu theorem**: Let X be a *Banach space*. The **unit ball** in X^* , $\{f \in X^* : \|f\| \leq 1\}$ is **compact** in the **weak* topology**.

In this section we will show that a *partial analogue* of this result can be obtained in **infinite dimensions** if we adopt a *weaker definition of the convergence* of a sequence than the usual definition.

4.1 Strong and Weak Convergence

- **Definition (*Strong Convergence*)**. [Kreyszig, 1989]

A sequence (x_n) in a normed space X is said to be **strongly convergent** (or **convergent in the norm**) if there is an $x \in X$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x_n - x\| = 0.$$

This is written $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ or simply $x_n \rightarrow x$ is called **the strong limit** of (x_n) , and we say that (x_n) **converges strongly** to x .

- **Definition (*Weak Convergence*)**. [Kreyszig, 1989]

A sequence (x_n) in a normed space X is said to be **weakly convergent** if there is an $x \in X$ such that for **every** $f \in X^*$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x).$$

This is written $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$ or $x_n \rightharpoonup x$. The element x is called **the weak limit** of (x_n) , and we say that (x_n) **converges weakly** to x .

- **Remark** For weak convergence, we see it as convergence of *real numbers* $s_n = f(x_n)$ in \mathbb{R} .
- **Remark (Weak Convergence Analysis is Common)**
Weak convergence has various applications throughout analysis (for instance, in the *calculus of variations*, the *general theory of differential equations* and *probability theory*).

The concept illustrates **a basic principle of functional analysis**, namely, the fact that **the investigation of spaces is often related to that of their dual spaces**, i.e. *probing a variable by using a test functional*.

- **Remark** In *Hilbert space* \mathcal{H} , we say $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$ if there exists an $x \in \mathcal{H}$ such that for all $y \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_n, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle.$$

Note that given a set of orthonormal basis (e_n) , we have $f(e_n) := \langle e_n, y \rangle$ and from Bessel inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle e_n, y \rangle|^2 &\leq \|y\|^2 < \infty \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\langle e_n, y \rangle| &\rightarrow 0 \\ \Rightarrow e_n &\xrightarrow{w} 0. \end{aligned}$$

But $\|e_n - e_m\| \not\rightarrow 0$, (e_n) does not converge in norm (strongly).

- **Lemma 4.1 (Weak Convergence).**
Let (x_n) be a **weakly convergent** sequence in a normed space X , say, $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$. Then:
 1. The weak limit x of (x_n) is **unique**.
 2. Every **subsequence** of (x_n) converges weakly to x .
 3. The sequence $(\|x_n\|)$ is **bounded**.
- **Proposition 4.2 (Strong and Weak Convergence).** [Kreyszig, 1989]
Let (x_n) be a sequence in a normed space X . Then:
 1. **Strong convergence** implies **weak convergence** with the same limit.
 2. The converse of (1) is **not** generally true.
 3. If $\dim X < \infty$, then **weak convergence** implies **strong convergence**.
- **Remark** From above, we see that in **finite dimensional normed spaces** the distinction between **strong** and **weak convergence** disappears completely.

4.2 Weak Topology

- **Remark** The weak convergence, $x_n \xrightarrow{w} x$, can be considered as *convergence of net* $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in the **weak topology**.

- **Definition (Weak Topology on a Set S)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let \mathcal{F} be a family of functions from a set S to a topological vector space (X, \mathcal{T}) . The \mathcal{F} -weak (or simply weak) topology on S is the weakest topology for which *all the functions* $f \in \mathcal{F}$ are *continuous*.

- **Remark (Construction of Weak Topology)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

To construct a \mathcal{F} -weak topology on S , we take the family of *all finite intersections of sets* of the form $f^{-1}(U)$ where $f \in \mathcal{F}$ and $U \in \mathcal{T}$. The collections of these finite intersections of sets *form a basis of the \mathcal{F} -weak topology*.

In other word, *the subbasis* for the \mathcal{F} -weak topology on S is of form

$$\mathcal{S} = \{f^{-1}(U) : f \in \mathcal{F}, \text{ and } U \in \mathcal{T}\}$$

And the basis of \mathcal{T}

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{B} &= \{f_1^{-1}(U_1) \cap \dots \cap f_k^{-1}(U_k) : f_1, \dots, f_k \in \mathcal{F}, U_1, \dots, U_k \in \mathcal{T}, 1 \leq k < \infty\} \\ B \in \mathcal{B} &\Rightarrow B = \{x : f_1(x) \in U_1, \dots, f_k(x) \in U_k\}, 1 \leq k < \infty \\ &= \{x : (f_1(x), \dots, f_k(x)) \in U\}. \end{aligned}$$

The basis element is called a *k-dimensional cylinder set*.

- **Remark** Given a topology on Y and a family of functions in $Y^X = \{f : X \rightarrow Y\}$, \mathcal{F} -weak topology is *a natural topology* on X without additional information.

A product topology on Y^ω can be seen as a \mathcal{F} -weak topology when $\mathcal{F} = \{\pi_\alpha : \prod_i Y_i \rightarrow Y_\alpha\}$.

- **Remark** A set S equipped with \mathcal{F} -weak topology *has little knowledge on itself besides the output of functions* $f \in \mathcal{F}$ from a family \mathcal{F} . The induced topology through a family of functions thus does not tell much besides the behavior of its output.

For instance, S is the space of hidden states, $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, \dots, f_n\} \subset 2^S$ is a series of binary statistical tests, the weak topology on S *partition the domain according to the output of each test*.

- **Remark** By construction, the *neighborhood base* of each point $x \in S$ under the \mathcal{F} -weak topology is contained in the pre-images $\{f_n^{-1}(U_n)\}$ for *finitely many* of $(f_n) \in \mathcal{F}$.

- **Definition (Weak Topology on Banach Space)**

Let X be a **Banach space** with dual space X^* . The *weak topology* on X is the *weakest topology* on X so that *$f(x)$ is continuous for all $f \in X^*$* .

- **Remark** For infinite dimensional Banach spaces, *the weak topology does not arise from a metric*. This is one of the main reasons we have introduced topological spaces.
- **Remark** Thus a *neighborhood base at zero* for *the weak topology* is given by the sets of the form

$$N(f_1, \dots, f_n; \epsilon) = \{x : |f_j(x)| < \epsilon; j = 1, \dots, n\}$$

that is, neighborhoods of zero contain *cylinders with finite-dimensional open bases*. A net $\{x_\alpha\}$ converges *weakly* to x , written $x_\alpha \xrightarrow{w} x$, if and only if $f(x_\alpha) \rightarrow f(x)$ for all $f \in X^*$.

- **Proposition 4.3** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

1. The weak topology is **weaker** than **the norm topology**, that is, every weakly open set is norm open.
2. Every **weakly convergent** sequence is **norm bounded**.
3. The weak topology is a **Hausdorff** topology.

- **Proposition 4.4 (Weak Topology on Hilbert Space)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
 Let \mathcal{H} be a **Hilbert space**. Let $\{\varphi_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ be an **orthonormal basis** for \mathcal{H} . Given a sequence $\psi_n \in \mathcal{H}$, let

$$\psi_n^{(\alpha)} = \langle \psi_n, \varphi_\alpha \rangle$$

be the coordinates of ψ_n . Then $\psi_n \rightarrow \psi$ in the **weak topology** (or $\psi_n \xrightarrow{w} \psi$) **if and only if**

1. $\psi_n^{(\alpha)} \rightarrow \psi^{(\alpha)}$ for each α ; and
2. $\|\psi_n\|$ is **bounded**.

Proof: Suppose $\psi_n \xrightarrow{w} \psi$; then (1) follows by definition and (2) comes from the fact that every weakly convergent sequence is norm bounded.

On the other hand, let (1) and (2) hold and let $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{H}$ be the subspace of *finite linear combinations* of the φ_α . By (1), $\langle \psi_n, \varphi_\alpha \rangle \rightarrow \langle \psi, \varphi_\alpha \rangle$ if $\varphi \in \mathcal{F}$. Using the fact that \mathcal{F} is dense, (2), and an $\epsilon/3$ argument, the weak convergence follows. ■

- **Proposition 4.5 (Weak Topology of $\mathcal{C}(X)$ on Compact Hausdorff Space)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
 Let X be a **compact Hausdorff** space and consider the **weak topology** on $\mathcal{C}(X)$ (i.e. $\mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R})$). Let $\{f_n\}$ be a sequence in $\mathcal{C}(X)$. Then $f_n \rightarrow f$ in the **weak topology** (or $f_n \xrightarrow{w} f$) **if and only if**

1. $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ for each $x \in X$; and
2. $\|f_n\|$ is **bounded**.

Proof: For if $f_n \xrightarrow{w} f$, then (1) holds since $f \rightarrow f(x)$ is an element of $\mathcal{C}(X)^*$ and (2) comes from the fact that every weakly convergent sequence is norm bounded.

On the other hand, if (1) and (2) hold, then

$$|f_n(x)| \leq \sup_n \|f_n\|_\infty$$

which is L^1 with respect to any *Baire measure* μ . Thus, by the *dominated convergence theorem*, for any $\mu \in \mathcal{M}_+(X)$, $\int f_n d\mu \rightarrow \int f d\mu$. Since any $\lambda \in \mathcal{M}(X) = \mathcal{C}(X)^*$ is a *finite linear combination* of measures in $\mathcal{M}_+(X)$, we conclude that $f_n \rightarrow f$ weakly. ■

- **Proposition 4.6 (Banach Space Weak Continuity = Norm Continuity)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
 A linear functional f on a **Banach space** is **weakly continuous** if and only if it is **norm continuous**.

4.3 Weak* Topology

- **Definition (Weak* Topology on Banach Space)**

Let X be a *normed vector space* and X^* be its dual space. The weak* topology on X^* is the *weakest topology on X^** so that $f(x)$ is **continuous for all $x \in X$** .

- **Remark** The *weak* topology* can be considered as a topology induced by $x \in X$ on dual space X^* , i.e. a topology on functional space on X induced by point in X .

In fact, the weak* topology is the topology of pointwise convergence:

$$f_\alpha \rightarrow f \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad f_\alpha(x) \rightarrow f(x) \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

Moreover, the weak* topology is the product topology on product space \mathbb{R}^X .

- **Definition (Y -Weak Topology $\sigma(X, Y)$)**

Let X be a *vector space* and let Y be a *family of linear functionals* on X which **separates points** of X . That is, for any $x_1 \neq x_2$ in X , there exists a $f \in Y$ so that $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$. Then the Y -weak topology on X , written $\sigma(X, Y)$, is the *weakest topology on X* for which all the *functionals in Y* are *continuous*.

- **Remark** Y -weak topology $\sigma(X, Y)$ is the \mathcal{F} -weak topology when domain of \mathcal{F} is a vector space and \mathcal{F} is a family of linear functionals.

- **Remark** Because Y is assumed to *separate points*, $\sigma(X, Y)$ is a **Hausdorff topology** on X . Note that

1. the weak topology on X is the $\sigma(X, X^*)$ topology
2. the weak* topology on X^* is the $\sigma(X^*, X)$ topology

The $\sigma(X, Y)$ topology depends only on **the vector space generated by Y** so we henceforth suppose that Y is a vector space.

- **Remark** Notice that *the weak* topology is even weaker than the weak topology*.

$$\text{the norm topology} \subset \text{the weak topology} \subseteq \text{the weak* topology}$$

- **Example (Weak* Topology on $\mathcal{M}(X)$)**

The weak* topology on $\mathcal{M}(X)$, X a **compact Hausdorff** space, is often called **the vague topology**. Note that $\mu_n \xrightarrow{w^*} \mu$ if and only if $\int f d\mu_n \rightarrow \int f d\mu$ for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_0(X)$.

It can be shown that *the linear combinations of point masses* are **weak* dense** in $\mathcal{M}(X)$. That is, for given $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$, $f_1, \dots, f_n \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ and $\epsilon > 0$, that we can find $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m \in \mathbb{C}$ and $x_1, \dots, x_m \in X$ so that

$$\left| \mu(f_i) - \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j f_i(x_j) \right| < \epsilon, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n,$$

i.e. $\sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j \delta_{x_j} \rightarrow \mu$ where $\delta_x(f) = f(x)$ is the **evaluation map** and $\delta_x(\cdot) \mapsto \delta_x$ is identified with the **point mass**.

- **Remark** As one might expect, X is **reflexive** if and only if the **weak** and **weak*** topologies **coincide**, and many *characterizations* of *reflexivity* depend on relations involving the *weak* and *weak** topologies.
- **Proposition 4.7** ($\sigma(X, Y)$ **Topology = Pointwise Convergence Topology on X**) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
The $\sigma(X, Y)$ -**continuous** linear functionals on X are **precisely** Y , in particular the only **weak*** continuous functionals on X^* are the **elements** of X .
- **Theorem 4.8** (**The Banach-Alaoglu Theorem**) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let X^* be the dual of some Banach space, X . Then **the unit ball** in X^* , $\{f \in X^* : \|f\| \leq 1\}$ is **compact** in the **weak*** topology.
- **Corollary 4.9** (**The Banach-Alaoglu Theorem, Sequential Version**) [Rynne and Youngson, 2007]
If X is **separable** and $\{f_n\}$ is a **bounded** sequence in X^* , then $\{f_n\}$ has a **weak*** convergent subsequence.
- **Theorem 4.10** (**Kakutani's Theorem**) [Rynne and Youngson, 2007]
 X is **reflexive** Banach space **if and only if** **the unit ball** in X , $\{x \in X : \|x\| \leq 1\}$ is **compact** in the **weak topology**.
- **Corollary 4.11** [Rynne and Youngson, 2007]
If X is **reflexive** Banach space and $\{x_n\}$ is a **bounded** sequence in X , then $\{x_n\}$ has a **weakly convergent subsequence**.
- **Corollary 4.12** [Rynne and Youngson, 2007]
If X is **reflexive** Banach space and $M \subseteq X$ is **bounded, closed and convex**, then any sequence in M has a **subsequence** which is **weakly convergent** to an element of M .
- **Exercise 4.13** [Rynne and Youngson, 2007]
Suppose that X is **reflexive** Banach space, M is a **closed, convex** subset of X , and $y \in X \setminus M$. Show that there is a point $y_M \in M$ such that

$$y - y_M = \inf \{y - x : x \in M\}.$$

Show that this result is **not true** if the assumption that M is **convex** is omitted.

- **Example** (**Convergence in Distribution**)
Convergence in distribution is also called **weak convergence** in probability theory [Folland, 2013]. In functional analysis, however, **weak convergence** is actually reserved for a different mode of convergence, while **the convergence in distribution** is **the weak*** **convergence** on $\mathcal{M}(X)$.

In general, it is actually **not** a mode of **convergence of functions f_n itself** but instead is **the convergence of bounded linear functionals** $\int f d\mu_n$. Equivalently, it is **the convergence of measures F_n on $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$** .

weak convergence	$\int f_n d\mu \rightarrow \int f d\mu, \quad \forall \mu \in \mathcal{M}(X),$
convergence in distribution	$\int f d\mu_n \rightarrow \int f d\mu, \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{C}_0(X)$

Definition (Cumulative Distribution Function) [Van der Vaart, 2000]

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a probability space. Given any real-valued measurable function $\xi : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we define the **cumulative distribution function** $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ of ξ to be the function

$$F_\xi(\lambda) := \mu(\{x \in X : \xi(x) \leq \lambda\}) = \int_X \mathbb{1}\{\xi(x) \leq \lambda\} d\mu(x).$$

Definition (Converge in Distribution) [Van der Vaart, 2000]

Let $\xi_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a sequence of real-valued *measurable functions*, and $\xi : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be another measurable function. We say that ξ_n **converges in distribution** to ξ if *the cumulative distribution function* $F_n(\lambda)$ of ξ_n **converges pointwise** to the cumulative distribution function $F(\lambda)$ of ξ at all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ for which F is continuous. Denoted as $\xi_n \xrightarrow{F} \xi$ or $\xi_n \xrightarrow{d} \xi$ or $\xi_n \rightsquigarrow \xi$.

$$\xi_n \xrightarrow{d} \xi \Leftrightarrow F_n(\lambda) \rightarrow F(\lambda), \text{ for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

Theorem 4.14 (The Portmanteau Theorem). [Van der Vaart, 2000]

The following statements are equivalent.

1. $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$.
2. $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ for all **continuous functions** $h : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that are non-zero only on a **closed and bounded set**.
3. $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ for all **bounded continuous functions** $h : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
4. $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ for all **bounded measurable functions** $h : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for which $\mathbb{P}(X \in \{x : h \text{ is continuous at } x\}) = 1$.

We can reformulate the definition of *convergence in distribution* as below:

Definition [Wellner et al., 2013]

Let (\mathcal{X}, d) be a *metric space*, and $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$ be a *measurable space*, where \mathcal{B} is **the Borel σ -field on \mathcal{X}** , the smallest σ -field containing *all the open balls* (as the basis of *metric topology* on \mathcal{X}). Let $\{\mathcal{P}_n\}$ and \mathcal{P} be **Borel probability measures** on $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$.

Then the sequence \mathcal{P}_n **converges in distribution** to \mathcal{P} , which we write as $\mathcal{P}_n \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{P}$, if and only if

$$\int_{\Omega} f d\mathcal{P}_n \rightarrow \int_{\Omega} f d\mathcal{P}, \quad \text{for all } f \in \mathcal{C}_b(\mathcal{X}).$$

Here $\mathcal{C}_b(\mathcal{X})$ denotes the set of *all bounded, continuous, real functions on \mathcal{X}* .

We can see that **the convergence in distribution** is actually **a weak* convergence**. That is, it is **the weak convergence of bounded linear functionals** $I_{\mathcal{P}_n} \xrightarrow{w^*} I_{\mathcal{P}}$ on the space of all probability measures $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X}) \simeq (\mathcal{C}_b(\mathcal{X}))^*$ on $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$ where

$$I_{\mathcal{P}} : f \mapsto \int_{\Omega} f d\mathcal{P}.$$

Note that the $I_{\mathcal{P}_n} \xrightarrow{w^*} I_{\mathcal{P}}$ is equivalent to $I_{\mathcal{P}_n}(f) \rightarrow I_{\mathcal{P}}(f)$ for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_b(\mathcal{X})$.

5 Fundamental Theorems

5.1 The Hahn-Banach Theorem

5.1.1 Extension Form of The Hahn-Banach Theorem

- **Remark** In dealing with Banach spaces, one often needs to *construct linear functionals* with *certain properties*. This is usually done in two steps:

1. one *defines the linear functional* on a *subspace* of the Banach space where it is easy to verify the desired properties;
2. one appeals to (or proves) a general theorem which says that *any such functional* can be *extended to the whole space* while *retaining the desired properties*.

One of the basic tools of the second step is the *Hahn-Banach theorem*.

- **Definition (Sublinear Functional)**

If X is a vector space, a sublinear functional on X is a map $p : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

1. (**Homogeneity**): $p(\lambda x) = \lambda p(x)$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$ and $x \in X$;
2. (**Sublinearity**): $p(x + y) \leq p(x) + p(y)$,

- **Example** Every *semi-norm* is a *sublinear functional*. If p is a semi-norm, then the condition $f \leq p$ is equivalent to $|f| \leq p$.

- **Theorem 5.1 (The Hahn-Banach Theorem, Extension Form)** [Kreyszig, 1989, Reed and Simon, 1980, Luenberger, 1997, Folland, 2013]

Let X be a real normed linear space and p a sublinear functional on X . Let f be a **linear functional** defined on a subspace M of X satisfying $f(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in M$. Then there exists a **linear functional** F on X such that $F(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$ and $F|_M = f$. (F is called an extension of f .)

- **Theorem 5.2 (The Complex Hahn-Banach Theorem, Extension Form)** [Kreyszig, 1989, Reed and Simon, 1980, Luenberger, 1997, Folland, 2013]

Let X be a complex normed linear space and p a semi-norm on X . Let f be a **complex linear functional** defined on a subspace M of X satisfying $|f(x)| \leq |p(x)|$ for all $x \in M$. Then there exists a **complex linear functional** F on X such that $|F(x)| \leq |p(x)|$ for all $x \in X$ and $F|_M = f$. (F is called an extension of f .)

- **Corollary 5.3 (The Existence of Minimum Norm Extension)**

Let $f \in M^*$ be a bounded linear functional defined on a subspace M of a real normed vector space X . Then there is a bounded linear functional $F \in X^*$ defined on X which is an extension of f satisfying $\|F\|_{X^*} = \|f\|_{M^*}$.

Note let $p(x) = \|f\|_{M^*} \|x\|$.

- **Corollary 5.4** Let y be an element of a normed linear space X . Then there is a nonzero $F \in X^*$ such that $F(y) = \|F\|_{X^*} \|y\|_X$.

- **Corollary 5.5 (The Existence of Distance Functional)**

Let Z be a subspace of a normed linear space X and suppose that y is an element of X whose

distance from Z is $d = \inf_{z \in Z} \|y - z\|$. Then there exists a $F \in X^*$ so that $\|F\| \leq 1$, $F(y) = d$, and $F(z) = 0$ for all z in Z .

- **Remark** The *Hahn-Banach theorem*, particularly *Corollary 3.3*, is perhaps most profitably viewed as **an existence theorem for a minimization problem**. Given an f on a subspace M of a normed space, it is not difficult to extend f to the whole space. **An arbitrary extension**, however, will in general be **unbounded** or have norm greater than the norm of f on M . We therefore pose the problem of *selecting the extension of minimum norm*. The Hahn-Banach theorem both guarantees **the existence of a minimum norm extension** and tells us **the norm of the best extension**.
- **Proposition 5.6** Let X be a Banach space. If X^* is **separable**, then X is **separable**.

5.1.2 Geometric Form of The Hahn-Banach Theorem

- **Definition** The **translation** of a subspace is called a **linear variety**. It is written as $x + M$ where $x \in X$ is a fixed point and $M \subseteq X$ is a subspace of X .
- **Remark** A *linear variety* is also called an **affine subspace**.
- **Definition** A **hyperplane** H in a linear vector space X is a **maximal proper linear variety**, that is, a linear variety H such that $H \neq X$, and if V is any linear variety containing H , then either $V = X$ or $V = H$.
- **Remark** A *hyperplane* $H = x + M$ where M has **codimension** 1 in X , i.e.

$$X = \text{span}\{x, \text{basis of } M\}.$$

- **Proposition 5.7** [Luenberger, 1997]
Let H be a **hyperplane** in a linear vector space X . Then there is a **linear functional** f on X and a constant c such that $H = \{x : f(x) = c\}$. **Conversely**, f is a nonzero linear functional on X , the set $\{x : f(x) = c\}$ is a **hyperplane** in X .
- There exists an **one-to-one correspondence** between linear functional and hyperplane that does not pass the origin.

Proposition 5.8 (Unique Linear Functional for Hyperplane) [Luenberger, 1997]

Let H be a hyperplane in a linear vector space X . If H **does not contain the origin**, there is a **unique** linear functional f on X such that $H = \{x : f(x) = 1\}$.

- **Proposition 5.9** Let f be a nonzero linear functional on a normed space X . Then the hyperplane $H = \{x : f(x) = c\}$ is **closed** for every c if and only if f is **continuous**.
- **Remark** If f is a nonzero linear functional on a linear vector space X , we associate with the hyperplane $H = \{x : f(x) = c\}$ the four sets

$$\{x : f(x) \leq c\}, \quad \{x : f(x) < c\}, \quad \{x : f(x) \geq c\}, \quad \{x : f(x) > c\}$$

called **half-spaces determined by H** . The first two of these are referred to as **negative half-spaces determined by f** and the second two as **positive half-spaces**.

If f is *continuous*, the first and the third half-spaces are **closed** and the second and fourth are **open**.

- **Definition (The Minkowski Functional)** [Luenberger, 1997]

Let K be a **convex set** in a **normed linear vector space** X and suppose 0 is an **interior point** of K . Then the Minkowski functional (or gauge) p of K is defined on X by

$$p(x) := \inf \left\{ r : \frac{x}{r} \in K, r > 0 \right\} = [\sup \{ t : tx \in K, t > 0 \}]^{-1}.$$

We note that for K equal to the unit sphere in X , the Minkowski functional is $\|x\|$. In the general case, $p(x)$ defines a kind of **distance** from the origin to x measured with respect to K ; it is the factor by which K must be expanded so as to include x .

- **Lemma 5.10** Let K be a convex set containing 0 as an interior point. Then the Minkowski functional p of K satisfies:

1. $0 \leq p(x) < \infty$ for all $x \in X$;
2. (**Homogeneity**): $p(\lambda x) = \lambda p(x)$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$ and $x \in X$;
3. (**Sublinearity**): $p(x + y) \leq p(x) + p(y)$,
4. p is **continuous**;
5. $\overline{K} = \{x : p(x) \leq 1\}$ and $\overset{\circ}{K} = \{x : p(x) < 1\}$.

That is, the Minkowski functional is a sublinear functional.

- **Theorem 5.11 (Mazur's Theorem, Geometric Hahn-Banach Theorem)** [Luenberger, 1997]

Let K be a **convex set** having a **nonempty interior** in a real normed linear vector space X . Suppose V is a **linear variety** in X containing no interior points of K . Then there is a **closed hyperplane** in X containing V but **containing no interior points** of K ; i.e., there is an element $f \in X^*$ and a constant c such that $f(v) = c$ for all $v \in V$ and $f(k) < c$ for all $k \in K$.

- **Remark (Geometric Interpretation of the Hahn-Banach theorem)**

The **geometric form** of the **Hahn-Banach theorem**, in simplest form, says that given a **convex set** K containing an **interior point**, and given a point x_0 not in $\overset{\circ}{K}$, there is a **closed hyperplane** containing x_0 but **disjoint** from $\overset{\circ}{K}$.

- **Definition (Supporting Hyperplane)**

A **closed hyperplane** H in a normed space X is said to be a supporting hyperplane (or a **support**) for the **convex set** K if K is contained in one of the **closed half-spaces** determined by H and H contains a point of \overline{K} .

- **Remark** Suppose $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and x_0 is a point in its boundary ∂K , i.e.,

$$x_0 \in \partial K = \overline{K} \setminus \overset{\circ}{K}.$$

If $a \neq 0$ satisfies $\langle a, x \rangle \leq \langle a, x_0 \rangle$ for all $x \in K$, then the hyperplane $\{x : \langle a, x \rangle = \langle a, x_0 \rangle\}$ is called a **supporting hyperplane** to K at the point x_0 .

- **Theorem 5.12 (Supporting Hyperplane Theorem)** [Luenberger, 1997, Rockafellar, 1970]

If x is **not an interior point** of a convex set K which contains interior points, there is a **closed hyperplane** H containing x such that K lies on one side of H .

- As a consequence of the above theorem, it follows that, for a convex set K with interior points, **a supporting hyperplane can be constructed containing any boundary point of \overline{K} .**

Theorem 5.13 (Eidelheit's Separation Theorem) [Luenberger, 1997, Rockafellar, 1970]
Let K_1 and K_2 be **convex sets** in X such that K_1 has interior points and K_2 **contains no interior point of K_1** . Then there is a **closed hyperplane H separating K_1 and K_2** ; i.e., there exists $f \in X^*$ such that

$$\sup_{x \in K_1} f(x) \leq \inf_{x \in K_2} f(x) \quad (4)$$

In other words, K_1 and K_2 lie in **opposite half-spaces** determined by H .

Proof: Let $K = K_1 - K_2 = \{x_1 - x_2 : x_1 \in K_1, x_2 \in K_2\}$; then K contains an interior point and 0 not one of them. Also K is a convex set. By *The Supporting Hyperplane Theorem*, there is an $f \in X^*$, $f \neq 0$, such that $f(x) \leq 0$ for $x \in K$. Thus for $x_1 \in K_1$, $x_2 \in K_2$, $f(x_1) \leq f(x_2)$. Consequently, there is a real number c such that $\sup_{x \in K_1} f(x) \leq c \leq \inf_{x \in K_2} f(x)$. The desired hyperplane is $H = \{x : f(x) = c\}$. ■

- **Corollary 5.14** If K is a **closed convex set** and $x \notin K$, there is a **closed halfspace** that contains K but does not contain x .

- **Theorem 5.15 (Dual Representation of Convex Set)** [Luenberger, 1997, Rockafellar, 1970]

If K is a **closed convex set** in a normed space, then K is equal to the **intersection** of all the **closed half-spaces** that contain it.

- **Remark (Duality for Convex Set)**

Theorem above is often regarded as **the geometric foundation of duality theory for convex sets**. By associating **closed hyperplanes** (or **half-spaces**) with elements of X^* , the theorem expresses **a convex set in X as a collection of elements in X^*** . See more in [Rockafellar, 1970].

- **Definition** Let K be a convex set in a real normed vector space X . The functional

$$h(f) := \sup_{x \in K} f(x)$$

defined on X^* is called **the support functional** of K . $h \in X^{**}$.

- **Remark** The **support functional** of a convex set K completely specifies the set (to within **closure**)

$$\overline{K} = \bigcap_{f \in X^*} \{x : f(x) \leq h(f)\}.$$

5.2 Baire Category Theorem

- **Remark (Empty Interior = Complement is Dense)**

Recall that if A is a subset of a space X , the **interior** of A is defined as **the union of all open sets of X that are contained in A** .

To say that A has **empty interior** is to say then that A **contains no open set of X other than the empty set.** **Equivalently**, A has **empty interior** if every point of A is a **limit point of the complement** of A , that is, if **the complement of A is dense in X .**

$$\overset{\circ}{A} = \emptyset \Leftrightarrow A^c \text{ is dense in } X$$

In [Reed and Simon, 1980], if a subset \overline{A} of X has *empty interior*, A is said to be **nowhere dense** in X .

- **Example** Some examples:

1. The set \mathbb{Q} of *rational*s has **empty interior** as a subset of \mathbb{R}
2. The *interval* $[0, 1]$ has **nonempty interior**.
3. The *interval* $[0, 1] \times 0$ has **empty interior** as a *subset of the plane* \mathbb{R}^2 , and so does the *subset* $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{R}$.

- **Definition (*Baire Space*)**

A space X is said to be a **Baire space** if the following condition holds: Given **any countable** collection $\{A_n\}$ of **closed** sets of X each of which has **empty interior** in X , their **union** $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ also has **empty interior** in X .

- **Example** Some examples:

1. The space \mathbb{Q} of *rational*s is **not** a **Baire space**. For each one-point set in \mathbb{Q} is *closed* and has *empty interior* **in** \mathbb{Q} ; and \mathbb{Q} is *the countable union of its one-point subsets*.
2. The space \mathbb{Z}_+ , on the other hand, does form a **Baire space**. Every subset of \mathbb{Z}_+ is *open*, so that there exist *no subsets* of \mathbb{Z}_+ having *empty interior*, except for the empty set. Therefore, \mathbb{Z}_+ satisfies the Baire condition vacuously.
3. The *interval* $[0, 1] \times 0$ has **empty interior** as a *subset of the plane* \mathbb{R}^2 , and so does the *subset* $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{R}$.

- **Definition (*Baire Category*)**

A subset A of a space X was said to be of **the first category in X** if it **was contained in the union of a countable collection of closed sets of X having empty interiors in X** ; **otherwise**, it was said to be of **the second category in X** .

- **Remark** A space X is a **Baire space** if and only if every **nonempty open** set in X is of **the second category**.

- **Lemma 5.16 (*Open Set Definition of Baire Space*)** [Munkres, 2000]

X is a **Baire space** if and only if given any **countable** collection $\{U_n\}$ of **open** sets in X , each of which is **dense** in X , their **intersection** $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$ is also **dense** in X .

- **Theorem 5.17 (*Baire Category Theorem*)**. [Munkres, 2000]

If X is a **compact Hausdorff** space or a **complete metric space**, then X is a **Baire space**.

- **Remark** In other word, neither **compact Hausdorff** space or a **complete metric space** is a *countable union of closed subsets with empty interior* (that are nowhere dense).

- **Lemma 5.18** [Munkres, 2000]

Let $C_1 \supset C_2 \supset \dots$ be a **nested** sequence of **nonempty closed sets** in the **complete metric space** X . If $\text{diam } C_n \rightarrow 0$, then $\bigcap_n C_n = \emptyset$.

- **Lemma 5.19** [Munkres, 2000]

Any **open** subspace Y of a Baire space X is itself a Baire space.

- **Theorem 5.20 (Discontinuity Point of Pointwise Convergence Function)** [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a space; let (Y, d) be a metric space. Let $f_n : X \rightarrow Y$ be a sequence of continuous functions such that $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ for all $x \in X$, where $f : X \rightarrow Y$. If X is a **Baire space**, the set of points at which f is **continuous** is **dense** in X .

- **Remark (Use Baire Category Theorem as Proof by Contradiction)**

The **Baire category theorem** is used to prove a certain subset C is **dense** in X by stating that X is a Baire space and C is countable intersection of dense open subsets in X (C is a G_δ sets).

On the other hand, if $M = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ has **nonempty interior**, then **some** of the sets \bar{A}_n **must have nonempty interior**. Otherwise, it contradicts with the Baire space definition.

5.3 Uniform Boundedness Theorem

- **Proposition 5.21** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let X and Y be normed linear spaces. Then a linear map $T : X \rightarrow Y$ is **bounded** if and only if

$$T^{-1}\{y : \|y\|_Y \leq 1\}$$

has a **nonempty interior**.

- **Theorem 5.22 (The Uniform Boundedness Theorem)**. [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let X be a **Banach space**. Let \mathcal{F} be a family of **bounded** linear transformations from X to some **normed linear space** Y . Suppose that for each $x \in X$, $\{\|Tx\|_Y : T \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is **bounded**, i.e.

$$\sup_{T \in \mathcal{F}} \|Tx\|_Y < \infty.$$

Then $\{\|T\| : T \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is **bounded**, i.e.

$$\sup_{T \in \mathcal{F}} \|T\| < \infty.$$

- **Corollary 5.23 (Separately Continuity of Bilinear Form on Banach Space = Joint Continuity)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let X and Y be Banach spaces and let $B(\cdot, \cdot)$ be a **separately continuous bilinear mapping** from $X \times Y$ to \mathbb{C} , that is, it is a **bounded** linear transformation if one of the two arguments is fixed. Then $B(\cdot, \cdot)$ is **jointly continuous**, that is, if $x_n \rightarrow 0$ and $y_n \rightarrow 0$ then $B(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow 0$.

5.4 Open Mapping Theorem

- **Theorem 5.24 (Open Mapping Theorem)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let $T : X \rightarrow Y$ be a surjective **bounded linear transformation** of one **Banach space**

onto another **Banach** space Y . Then if M is an **open** set in X , $T(M)$ is **open** in Y .

- **Corollary 5.25 (Inverse Mapping Theorem)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
A **continuous bijection** of one Banach space onto another has a **continuous inverse**.
- **Remark** Note T is an open map and $A = T^{-1}(T(A))$ for surjective map, then T^{-1} is *continuous*.
- **Theorem 5.26 (Banach-Schauder Theorem)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let T be a **continuous** linear map, $T : E \rightarrow F$, where E and F are Banach spaces. Then either $T(A)$ is **open** in $T(E)$ for **each open** $A \subseteq E$, or $T(E)$ is of **first category** in $T(E)$.

5.5 Closed Graph Theorem

- **Definition (Graph of Function)**
Let T be a mapping of a normed linear space X into a normed linear space Y . The **graph of T** , denoted by $\Gamma(T)$, is defined as

$$\Gamma(T) := \{(x, y) \in X \times Y : y = Tx\}.$$

- **Theorem 5.27 (Closed Graph Theorem)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let X and Y be Banach spaces and T a linear map of X into Y . Then T is **bounded** if and only if the **graph** of T is **closed**.
- **Remark** To avoid future confusion, we emphasize that the T in this theorem is implicitly assumed to be **defined on all of X** .
- **Remark** Consider the following statements:
 1. x_n converges to some element x ;
 2. Tx_n converges to some element y ;
 3. $Tx_n = y$.

Usually to prove T is continuous, one need to show that given statement 1, the statement 2 and 3 are true. That is, we need to **prove convergence** of Tx_n and need to show **identification** of Tx and the limit of Tx_n .

With **close graph theorem**, we just need to show that given statement 1 **and** 2, statement 3 is true; that is, we just need to prove the identification part.

- **Corollary 5.28 (The Hellinger-Toeplitz Theorem)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
Let A be an **everywhere defined** linear operator on a **Hilbert space** \mathcal{H} with

$$\langle x, Ay \rangle = \langle Ax, y \rangle$$

for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$; that is A is **self-adjoint**. Then A is **bounded**.

6 Spectrum of Bounded Linear Operator in Banach Space

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- **Definition** (*Spectral Radius of Linear Operator*)

Let

$$r(T) = \sup_{\lambda \in \sigma(T)} |\lambda|$$

$r(T)$ is called the spectral radius of T .

- **Proposition 6.1** (*Spectral Radius Calculation*) [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let X be a **Banach space**, $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T^n\|^{1/n}$$

exists and is equal to $r(T)$.

- **Theorem 6.2** (*Spectrum and Resolvent of Adjoint*) (*Phillips*) [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let X be a **Banach space**, $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$. Then

$$\sigma(T) = \sigma(T') \quad \text{and} \quad R_\lambda(T') = (R_\lambda(T))'.$$

- **Proposition 6.3** (*Spectrum of Adjoint*) [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let X be a Banach space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$. Then,

1. If λ is in the **residual spectrum** of T , then λ is in the **point spectrum** of T' .
2. If λ is in the **point spectrum** of T , then λ is in **either** the **point** or the **residual spectrum** of T' .

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