

# Lecture 2: Banach Space

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# 1 Normed Linear Space

- **Definition** A *metric space* is a set  $M$  and a real-valued function  $d(\cdot, \cdot) : M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  which satisfies:

1. (**Non-Negativity**)  $d(x, y) \geq 0$
2. (**Definiteness**)  $d(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $x = y$
3. (**Symmetric**)  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
4. (**Triangle Inequality**)  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

The function  $d$  is called a **metric** on  $M$ . The metric space  $M$  equipped with metric  $d$  is denoted as  $(M, d)$ .

- **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  $\alpha$  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*

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

- **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 1.1** [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** A normed linear space  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  is **complete** if it is *complete* as a metric space in the induced metric.
- **Theorem 1.2 (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  $(V_2, \|\cdot\|_2)$ .

## 2 Banach Space

### 2.1 Definition and Examples

- **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**  $L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$  and its subspace  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$   
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**  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$  is a **subspace** of  $L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$  and restricted to  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$  the  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ -norm is just the usual **supremum norm** under which  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$  is **complete** (since the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous See proof in chapter 1.). Thus,  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$  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  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$ ; 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  $\infty$ .

Some of the most powerful theorems in functional analysis (*Riesz-Markov, Stone-Weierstrass*) are generalizations of properties of  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$ . ■

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

Let  $(X, \mu)$  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  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{r}$ . 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.

$$\ell^\infty := \left\{ a : \|a\|_\infty := \sup_n |a_n| < \infty \right\}$$

$$c_0 := \left\{ a : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0 \right\}$$

$$\ell^p := \left\{ a : \|a\|_p := \left( \sum_{n=1}^\infty |a_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty \right\}$$

$$s := \left\{ a : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^p a_n = 0 \text{ for all positive integers } p \right\}$$

$$f := \{ a : a_n = 0 \text{ for all but a finite number of } n \}$$

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

The spaces  $\ell^\infty$  and  $c_0$  are Banach spaces with the  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  norm;  $\ell^p$  is a Banach space with the  $\|\cdot\|_p$  norm (note that  $\ell^p = L^p(\mathbb{R}, \mu)$  where  $\mu$  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  $\ell^p$**  (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  $\ell^p$  and  $c_0$ . Since this set is **countable**,  $\ell^p$  and  $c_0$  are **separable**.  $\ell^\infty$  is not separable.

- **Example (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 2.2** *If  $Y$  is complete,  $\mathcal{L}(X, Y)$  is a Banach space.*

- **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 2.3 (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**).

- **Remark** The *isomorphism* is defined in above way is essentially a **linear homomorphism**.

- **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 2.4** *The **completions** of the space in the two norms will be **isomorphic** if and only if the norms are **equivalent**.*
- **Proposition 2.5** *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  $\ell^p$ .

### 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 2.6 (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  $\ell^p$  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 2.7** *If a normed space  $X$  has a Schauder basis, then  $X$  is **separable**.*
- **Theorem 2.8 (Completion).** [Kreyszig, 1989]  
*Let  $X = (X, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed space. Then there is a Banach space  $\tilde{X}$  and an isometry  $A$  from  $X$  onto a subspace  $W$  of  $\tilde{X}$  which is **dense** in  $\tilde{X}$ . The space  $\tilde{X}$  is **unique**, except for isometries.*

## 2.5 Finite Dimensional Normed Spaces and Subspaces

- **Lemma 2.9 (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 2.10 (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 2.11 (Closedness).** [Kreyszig, 1989]  
*Every finite dimensional subspace  $Y$  of a normed space  $X$  is **closed** in  $X$ .*
- **Theorem 2.12 (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 2.13 (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 2.14 (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 2.15 (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  $\theta$  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 2.16 (Bounded Linear Operator)**  
If a normed space  $X$  is finite dimensional, then every linear operator on  $X$  is **bounded**.
- **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**.

## 2.6 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  $\alpha \in A$ ,  $X_\alpha$  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  $X_\alpha$  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  $\ell_1$ , while the Hilbert space direct sum is  $\ell_2$ .

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.

## 2.7 Dual Space and Double 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 2.2). The **norm** of dual space is

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

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

- **Remark** 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  $y_\lambda$ , 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

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

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  $\ell^\infty$  and  $\ell^1$ .
- **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  $\sum_{k=1}^\infty |\lambda_k|$ .

To see that *all continuous linear functionals on  $c_0$  arise in this way*, we proceed as follows. Suppose  $\lambda \in c_0^*$  and let  $e^k$  be the sequence in  $c_0$  which has *all its terms equal to zero except for a one in the  $k$ -th place*. Define  $\lambda_k = \lambda(e^k)$  and let  $f^l = \sum_{k=1}^l (|\lambda_k| / \lambda_k) e^k$ . If some  $\lambda_k$  is zero, we simply omit that term from the sum. Then for each  $l$ ,  $f^l \in c_0$  and  $\|f^l\|_{c_0} = 1$ . Since,

$$\lambda(f^l) = \sum_{k=1}^l |\lambda_k|, \quad \left| \lambda(f^l) \right| \leq \|\lambda\|_{c_0^*} \|f^l\|_{c_0}$$

we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^l |\lambda_k| \leq \|\lambda\|_{c_0^*}$$

Since this is true for all  $l$ ,  $\sum_{k=1}^\infty |\lambda_k| < \infty$  and

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

is a *well-defined linear functional* on  $c_0$ . However,  $\Lambda(\cdot)$  and  $\lambda(\cdot)$  agree on *finite linear combinations* of the  $e^k$ . Because such *finite linear combinations* are **dense** in  $c_0$  we conclude that  $\lambda = \Lambda$ . Thus every functional in  $c_0$  arises from a sequence in  $\ell^1$ , and the **norms** in  $\ell^1$  and  $c_0$  coincide. Thus  $\ell^1 = c_0^*$ . A similar proof shows that  $\ell^\infty = (\ell^1)^*$ . ■

- **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 2.17** [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 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*.

#### 3.1 Extension Form of 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 3.1 (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  $f$ .)

**Proof:** The *idea* of the proof is the following.

1. First we will show that if  $x \in X$  but  $x \notin M$ , then we can **extend**  $f$ , to a functional  $g$  having the property  $g(x) \leq p(x)$  on **the space spanned by  $x$  and  $M$**  (i.e. the affine subspace  $M + \mathbb{R}x$ ).
2. We then use a **Zorn's Lemma** argument to show that *this process can be continued to extend*, to the whole space  $X$ .

(Step 1). If  $y_1, y_2 \in M$ , by linearity of functional  $f$  and  $f \leq p$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(y_1) + f(y_2) &= f(y_1 + y_2) \\ &\leq p(y_1 + y_2) = p(y_1 - x + y_2 + x) \\ &\leq p(y_1 - x) + p(y_2 + x) \\ \Rightarrow f(y_1) - p(y_1 - x) &\leq p(y_2 + x) - f(y_2) \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\sup_{y \in M} \{f(y) - p(y - x)\} \leq \inf_{y \in M} \{p(y + x) - f(y)\}$$

Let  $\alpha$  be any number satisfying

$$\sup_{y \in M} \{f(y) - p(y - x)\} \leq \alpha \leq \inf_{y \in M} \{p(y + x) - f(y)\}$$

and define  $g : M + \mathbb{R}x \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $g(y + \gamma x) := f(y) + \gamma \alpha$ . Then  $g$  is *linear*, and  $g|_M = f$ , so that  $g(y) \leq p(y)$  for  $y \in M$ . Moreover, if  $\gamma > 0$  and  $y \in M$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} g(y + \gamma x) &= \gamma(\gamma^{-1}f(y) + \alpha) \\ &= \gamma \left( f\left(\frac{y}{\gamma}\right) + \alpha \right) \\ &\leq \gamma \left[ f\left(\frac{y}{\gamma}\right) + p\left(\frac{y}{\gamma} + x\right) - f\left(\frac{y}{\gamma}\right) \right] \quad (\text{upper bound of } \alpha) \\ &= \gamma p\left(\frac{y}{\gamma} + x\right) = p(y + \gamma x), \end{aligned}$$

where if  $\gamma = -\mu < 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} g(y + \gamma x) &= \mu \left[ f\left(\frac{y}{\gamma}\right) - \alpha \right] \\ &\leq \mu \left[ f\left(\frac{y}{\gamma}\right) + p\left(\frac{y}{\gamma} - x\right) - f\left(\frac{y}{\gamma}\right) \right] \quad (\text{lower bound of } \alpha) \\ &\leq \mu p\left(\frac{y}{\gamma} - x\right) = p(y + \gamma x). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $g(z) \leq p(z)$  for all  $z \in M + \mathbb{R}x$ .

(Step 2). Apparently the same reasoning can be applied to *any linear functional  $F$  of  $f$  satisfying  $F \leq p$  on its domain* and we shows that the *domain* of a **maximal** linear extension  $F$  satisfying  $F \leq p$  must be the whole space  $X$ .

Define  $\mathcal{F}$  as the family of **all linear extensions**  $F$  of  $f$  satisfying  $F \leq p$ . By construction in *Step 1* we see that  $\mathcal{F}$  is **partially ordered by inclusion** where  $F_1 \preceq F_2$  if  $F_2$  is defined on a **larger set** than  $F_1$  and  $F_2(x) = F_1(x)$  where they are both defined.

Let  $\{F_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  be a **linearly ordered subset** of  $\mathcal{F}$ ; let  $X_\alpha$  be the subspace on which  $F_\alpha$  is defined. Define  $F$  on  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$  by setting  $F(x) = F_\alpha(x)$  if  $x \in X_\alpha$ . Clearly  $F_\alpha \preceq F$  so **each linearly ordered subset of  $\mathcal{F}$  has an upper bound**. By **Zorn's lemma**,  $\mathcal{F}$  has a **maximal element**  $\Lambda$ , defined on some set  $X'$ , satisfying  $\Lambda(x) \leq p(x)$  for  $x \in X'$ . But,  $X'$  must be all of  $X$ , since otherwise we could extend  $\Lambda$  to a  $\tilde{\Lambda}$  on a larger space by adding one dimension as above. Since this **contradicts the maximality** of  $\Lambda$ , we must have  $X = X'$ . Thus, the extension  $\Lambda$  is *everywhere defined*. ■

- **Theorem 3.2 (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 3.3 (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 3.4** 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 3.5 (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**.

- **Remark (Convex Analysis)**

Note that any sublinear functional  $p$  is **convex**, i.e. for all  $x, y \in X$ ,  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$

$$p(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) \leq \alpha p(x) + (1 - \alpha)p(y).$$

So the Hahn-Banach theorem can be stated as extension of linear functional  $f(x) \leq p(x)$  bounded by a convex functional  $p$ . Then the inequality in the proof becomes

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \sup_{y \in M} \{f(y) - p(y - \alpha x)\} \leq \frac{1}{\beta} \inf_{y \in M} \{p(y + \beta x) - f(y)\}$$

where the left-hand side in Hilbert space becomes

$$\sup_{y \in M} \{ \langle x_f, \alpha^{-1}y \rangle - p(\alpha^{-1}y - x) \}$$

This is *the Legendre transformation* for convex function  $h(y) := p(y - x)$

$$h^*(x) := \sup_{y \in \alpha^{-1}M} \{ \langle x, y \rangle - h(y) \}$$

- **Proposition 3.6** *Let  $X$  be a Banach space. If  $X^*$  is **separable**, then  $X$  is **separable**.*

### 3.2 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 3.7** [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 passes the origin.

**Proposition 3.8 (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 3.9** 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**.

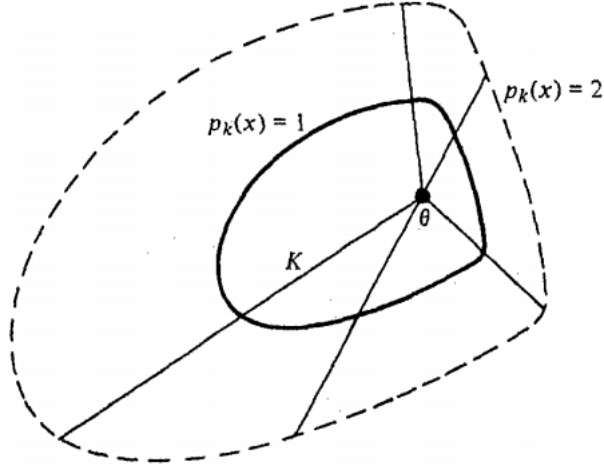


Figure 1: The Minkowski functional of a convex set [Luenberger, 1997]

- **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 3.10** 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.  $\bar{K} = \{x : p(x) \leq 1\}$  and  $\overset{\circ}{K} = \{x : p(x) < 1\}$ .

That is, the Minkowski functional is a sublinear functional.

- **Theorem 3.11 (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  $k \in K$ .

**Proof:** By an appropriate translation we may assume that  $0$  is an interior point of  $K$ . Let  $M$  be the subspace of  $X$  generated by  $V$ . Then  $V$  is a **hyperplane** in  $M$  and does not contain  $0$ ; thus there is a **linear functional**  $f$  on  $M$  such that  $V = \{x : f(x) = 1\}$ .

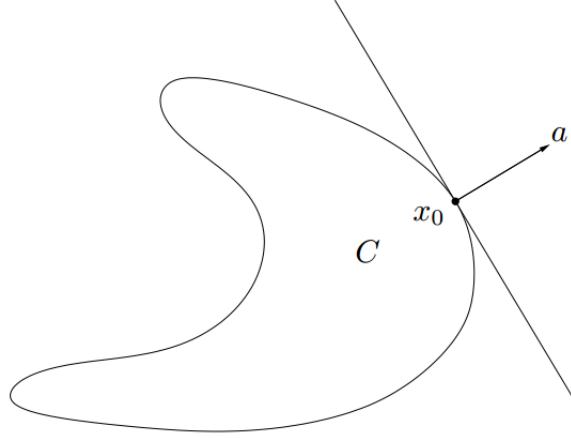


Figure 2: The supporting hyperplane of a convex set [Boyd et al., 2004]

We then show that  $f(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in M$ , where  $p(x)$  is *the Minkowski functional* (a sublinear functional). Since  $V$  contains no interior point of  $K$ , we have  $f(x) = 1 \leq p(x)$  for  $x \in V$ . By homogeneity,  $f(\alpha x) = \alpha \leq p(\alpha x)$  for  $x \in V$  and  $\alpha > 0$ . While for  $\alpha < 0$ ,  $f(\alpha x) \leq 0 \leq p(\alpha x)$ . Thus  $f(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in M$ .

Then by the *Hahn-Banach Theorem*, there is an *extension*  $F$  of  $f$  from  $M$  to  $X$  with  $F(x) \leq p(x)$ . Let  $H = \{x : F(x) = 1\}$ . Since  $F(x) \leq p(x)$  on  $X$  and since by Lemma 1  $p$  is *continuous*,  $F$  is *continuous*,  $F(x) < 1$  for  $x \in K$ , therefore,  $H$  is the desired closed hyperplane. ■

- **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  $K$ .

- **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  $\partial K$ , 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 3.12 (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 3.13 (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



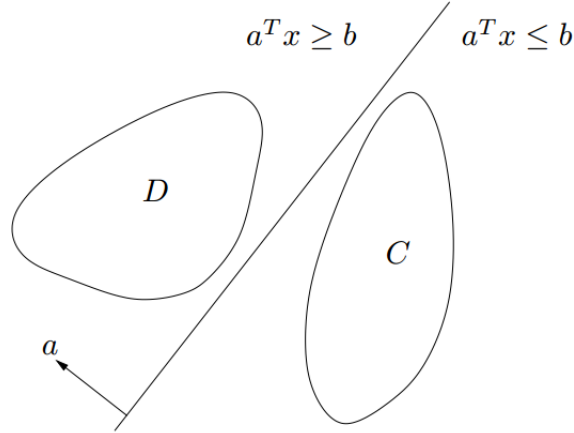


Figure 3: The existence of a separating hyperplane between two convex sets that does not overlap in interior set. [Boyd et al., 2004]

*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 3.14** *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 3.15 (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)

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

## 4 Linear Operators in Banach Space

### 4.1 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 4.1** (*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 4.2** [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**.

## 4.2 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 4.3** (*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 4.4** (*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 4.5** [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 4.6** [Munkres, 2000]  
Any **open** subspace  $Y$  of a Baire space  $X$  is itself a Baire space.
- **Theorem 4.7 (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  $G_\delta$  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.

### 4.3 Uniform Boundedness Theorem

- **Proposition 4.8** [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**.

**Proof:** Suppose that  $T$  is given and the set in question contains the ball

$$\{x : \|x - x_0\|_X < \epsilon\}$$

Then  $\|x\| < \epsilon$  implies  $x + x_0$  is in the ball of radius  $\epsilon$  about  $x_0$ . Thus  $\|T(x + x_0)\|_Y \leq 1$  and

$$\|Tx\|_Y \leq \|T(x + x_0)\|_Y + \|T(x_0)\|_Y \leq 1 + \|T(x_0)\|_Y.$$

Thus for all  $x \in X$ ,

$$\|Tx\|_Y \leq \epsilon^{-1} (1 + \|T(x_0)\|_Y) \|x\|_X$$

so  $T$  is bounded. The converse is easy. ■

- **Theorem 4.9 (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.

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

**Proof:** Let

$$B_n := \{x : \|Tx\|_Y \leq n, \forall T \in \mathcal{F}\}.$$

By the hypothesis each  $x$  is in some  $B_n$ , that is,  $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n$ . Moreover each  $B_n$  is **closed** since each  $T$  is continuous. By the *Baire category theorem*, some  $B_n$  has a **nonempty interior**. By proposition 4.8, we conclude that the  $\|T\|$ 's are *uniformly bounded*. ■

- **Corollary 4.10** (*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  $B(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow 0$ .

#### 4.4 Open Mapping Theorem

- **Theorem 4.11** (*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  $Y$ .

**Proof:** We need only show that, for every neighborhood  $N$  of  $x$ ,  $T(N)$  is a neighborhood of  $T(x)$ . Since  $T(x+N) = T(x) + T(N)$ , we need only show this for  $x = 0$ . Since neighborhoods contain balls it is sufficient to show that  $T(B_X(0, r)) \supseteq B_Y(0, r')$ , for some  $r'$  where

$$B_X(0, r) = \{x \in X : \|x\|_X < r\}.$$

However, since  $T(B_X(0, r)) = rT(B_X(0, 1))$ , we need only show that  $T(B_X(0, r))$  is a neighborhood of zero for some  $r$ . Finally, by the “translation argument” of the proposition, it is sufficient to show that  $T(B_X(0, r))$  has a **nonempty interior** for *some*  $r$ .

Since  $T$  is **onto**,

$$Y = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} T(B_X(0, n))$$

so some  $\overline{T(B_X(0, n))}$  has a **nonempty interior**.

Now the hard work begins, since we want  $T(B_X(0, n))$  to have a **nonempty interior**. By scaling and translating, we can suppose that  $B_Y(0, \epsilon)$  is contained in  $\overline{T(B_X(0, 1))}$ ; we will show that  $\overline{T(B_X(0, 1))} \subset T(B_X(0, 2))$  which will complete the proof.

Let  $y \in \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$ . Pick  $x_1 \in B_X(0,1)$  so  $y - Tx_1 \in B_Y(0, \epsilon/2) \subset \overline{B_Y(0, 1/2)}$ . Now pick  $x_2 \in B_X(0, 1/2)$  so that

$$y - Tx_1 - Tx_2 \in B_Y(0, \epsilon/4)$$

By induction, we choose  $x_n \in B_X(0, 2^{1-n})$  so that

$$y - \sum_{j=1}^n Tx_j \in B_Y(0, 2^{1-n}\epsilon)$$

Then  $x = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j$  exists and is in  $B_X(0, 2)$  and

$$y = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} Tx_j = Tx.$$

Thus  $y \in T(B_X(0, 2))$ . ■

- **Corollary 4.12 (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 4.13 (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  $\overline{T(E)}$ .

## 4.5 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 4.14 (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**.

**Proof:** Suppose that  $\Gamma(T)$  is **closed**. Then, since  $T$  is linear,  $\Gamma(T)$  is a **subspace** of **the Banach space direct sum**  $X \oplus Y$ . By assumption  $\Gamma(T)$  is **closed** and thus is a **Banach space** in the norm

$$\|(x, Tx)\| = \|x\|_X + \|Tx\|_Y$$

Consider the **continuous projection maps**  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$ ,

$$\pi_1 : (x, Tx) \mapsto x, \quad \pi_2 : (x, Tx) \mapsto Tx.$$

$\pi_1$  is a **bijection** so by **the inverse mapping theorem**  $\pi_1^{-1}$  is **continuous**. But  $T = \pi_2 \circ \pi_1^{-1}$ , so  $T$  is **continuous**. The converse is *trivial*. ■

- **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 4.15** (**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**.

**Proof:** We will prove that  $\Gamma(A)$  is **closed**. Suppose that  $\langle x_n, Ax_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle$ . We need only prove that  $\langle x, y \rangle \in \Gamma(A)$ , that is, that  $y = Ax$ . For any  $z \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle z, y \rangle &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle z, Ax_n \rangle = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle Az, x_n \rangle \\ &= \langle Az, x \rangle = \langle z, Ax \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $y = Ax$  and  $\Gamma(A)$  is **closed**. ■

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