# Lecture 4: Compactness in Function Spaces

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## 1 Complete Metric Spaces and Function Spaces

## 1.1 Complete Metric Space

- Definition (Cauchy Net in Topological Vector Space) A net  $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in I}$  in toplogocial vector space X is called <u>Cauchy</u> if the net  $\{x_{\alpha} - x_{\beta}\}_{(\alpha,\beta) \in I \times I}$ converges to zero. (Here  $I \times I$  is directed in the usual way:  $(\alpha, \beta) \prec (\alpha', \beta')$  if and only if  $\alpha \prec \alpha'$  and  $\beta \prec \beta'$ .)
- **Definition** (*Completeness*)
  A toplogocial vector space X is *complete* if every Cauchy net converges.
- Proposition 1.1 (Complete First Countable Topological Vector Space)

  If X is a first-countable topological vector space and every Cauchy sequence in X converges, then every Cauchy net in X converges.
- Proposition 1.2 (Completeness of Euclidean Space) [Munkres, 2000]
   Euclidean space R<sup>k</sup> is complete in either of its usual metrics, the euclidean metric d or the square metric ρ.
- Lemma 1.3 (Convergence in Product Space is Weak Convergence) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be the product space  $X = \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ ; let  $x_n$  be a sequence of points of X. Then  $x_n \to x$  if and only if  $\pi_{\alpha}(x_n) \to \pi_{\alpha}(x)$  for each  $\alpha$ .
- Proposition 1.4 (Completeness of Countable Product Space) [Munkres, 2000] There is a metric for the product space  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  relative to which  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  is complete.
- Definition (Uniform Metric in Function Space) Let (Y,d) be a metric space; let  $\bar{d}(a,b) = \min\{d(a,b),1\}$  be the standard bounded metric on Y derived from d. If  $x = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  and  $y = (y_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  are points of the cartesian product  $Y^J$ , let

$$\bar{\rho}(x,y) = \sup \{\bar{d}(x_{\alpha},y_{\alpha}) : \alpha \in J\}.$$

It is easy to check that  $\bar{\rho}$  is a metric; it is called <u>the uniform metric</u> on  $Y^J$  corresponding to the metric d on Y.

Note that **the space of all functions**  $f: J \to Y$ , **denoted** as  $Y^J$ , is a subset of the product space  $J \times Y$ . We can define uniform metric in the function space: if  $f, g: J \to Y$ , then

$$\bar{\rho}(f,g) = \sup \left\{ \bar{d}(f(\alpha),g(\alpha)) : \alpha \in J \right\}.$$

- Proposition 1.5 (Completeness of Function Space Under Uniform Metric) [Munkres, 2000]
   If the space Y is complete in the metric d, then the space Y<sup>J</sup> is complete in the uniform metric ρ̄ corresponding to d.
- Definition (Space of Continuous Functions and Bounded Functions) Let  $Y^X$  be the space of all functions  $f: X \to Y$ , where X is a topological space and Y is a metric space with metric d. Denote the **subspace** of  $Y^X$  consisting of all **continuous** functions f as C(X,Y).

Also denote the set of all **bounded functions**  $f: X \to Y$  as  $\mathcal{B}(X,Y)$ . (A function f is said to be **bounded** if its image f(X) is a **bounded subset** of the metric space (Y,d).)

• Proposition 1.6 (Completeness of C(X,Y) and B(X,Y) Under Uniform Metric) [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a topological space and let (Y, d) be a metric space. The set C(X, Y) of **continuous** functions is **closed** in  $Y^X$  under the **uniform metric**. So is the set  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  of **bounded** functions. Therefore, if Y is **complete**, these spaces are **complete** in the **uniform metric**.

• Definition (Sup Metric on Bounded Functions)

If (Y,d) is a metric space, one can define another metric on the set  $\mathcal{B}(X,Y)$  of **bounded** functions from X to Y by the equation

$$\rho(x,y) = \sup \{ d(f(x), g(x)) : x \in X \}.$$

It is easy to see that  $\rho$  is well-defined, for the set  $f(X) \cup g(X)$  is **bounded** if both f(X) and g(X) are. The metric  $\rho$  is called **the sup metric**.

- Theorem 1.7 (Existence of Completion) [Munkres, 2000] Let (X,d) be a metric space. There is an isometric embedding of X into a complete metric space.
- Definition (Completion)

Let X be a metric space. If  $h: X \to Y$  is an **isometric embedding** of X into a **complete** metric space Y, then the **subspace** h(X) of Y is a complete metric space. It is called **the completion of** X.

#### 1.2 Compactness in Metric Spaces

• Remark (Compactness and Completeness)

How is compactness of a metric space X related to completeness of X?

The followings is from the sequential compactness and definition of completeness:

**Proposition 1.8** Every compact metric space is complete.

The converse does not hold – a complete metric space need not be compact. It is reasonable to ask what extra condition one needs to impose on a complete space to be assured of its compactness. Such a condition is the one called total boundedness.

- Definition (Total Boundedness)
  - A metric space (X, d) is said to be <u>totally bounded</u> if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a **finite** covering of X by  $\epsilon$ -balls.
- Theorem 1.9 [Munkres, 2000]
  A metric space (X, d) is compact if and only if it is complete and totally bounded.
- Remark We now apply this result to find the compact subspaces of the space  $C(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$ , in the uniform topology. We know that a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

One might hope that an analogous result holds for  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$ . **But** it does not, even if X is *compact*. One needs to assume that the subspace of  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$  satisfies an **additional** 

condition, called equicontinuity.

• **Definition** (*Equicontinuity*) [Reed and Simon, 1980, Munkres, 2000] Let (Y, d) be a *metric space*. Let  $\mathscr{F}$  be a *subset* of the function space  $\mathscr{C}(X, Y)$  (i.e.  $f \in \mathscr{F}$  is continuous). If  $x_0 \in X$ , the set  $\mathscr{F}$  of functions is said to be *equicontinuous at*  $x_0$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a neighborhood U of  $x_0$  such that for all  $x \in U$  and **all**  $f \in \mathscr{F}$ ,

$$d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$$
.

If the set  $\mathscr{F}$  is equicontinuous at  $x_0$  for each  $x_0 \in X$ , it is said simply to be <u>equicontinuous</u> or  $\mathscr{F}$  is an <u>equicontinuous family</u>.

We say  $\mathscr{F}$  is a *uniformly equicontinuous family* if and only if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\overline{d(f(x), f(x'))} < \epsilon$  whenever  $p(x, x') < \delta$  for all  $x, x' \in X$  and *every*  $f \in \mathscr{F}$ .

- Remark An equicontinuous family of functions is a family of continuous functions.
- Remark Continuity of the function f at  $x_0$  means that given f and given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a neighborhood U of  $x_0$  such that  $d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$  for  $x \in U$ . Equicontinuity of  $\mathscr{F}$  means that a single neighborhood U can be chosen that will work for all the functions f in the collection  $\mathscr{F}$ .
- Lemma 1.10 (Total Boundedness  $\Rightarrow$  Equicontinuous) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space; let (Y, d) be a metric space. If the subset  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$  is totally bounded under the uniform metric corresponding to d, then  $\mathscr{F}$  is equicontinuous under d.
- Lemma 1.11 (Equicontinuous + Compactness ⇒ Total Boundedness) [Munkres, 2000]
  Let X be a space; let (Y, d) be a metric space; assume X and Y are compact. If the subset F of C(X,Y) is equicontinuous under d, then F is totally bounded under the uniform and sup metrics corresponding to d.
- **Definition** (*Pointwise Bounded*) If (Y, d) is a *metric space*, a *subset*  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$  is said to be *pointwise bounded* under d if for each  $x \in X$ , the subset

$$F_a = \{ f(a) : f \in \mathscr{F} \}$$

of Y is **bounded** under d.

- Theorem 1.12 (Ascoli's Theorem, Classical Version). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a compact space; let  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d)$  denote euclidean space in either the square metric or the euclidean metric; give  $C(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$  the corresponding uniform topology. A subspace  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $C(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$  has <u>compact closure</u> if and only if  $\mathscr{F}$  is <u>equicontinuous</u> and pointwise bounded under d.
- Corollary 1.13 Let X be compact; 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  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$  is compact if and only if it is closed, bounded under the sup metric  $\rho$ , and equicontinuous under d.
- Remark (Ascoli's Theorem, Sequence Version) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a family of uniformly bounded equicontinuous functions on [0,1]. Then some subsequence  $\{f_{n,m}\}$  converges uniformly on [0,1].

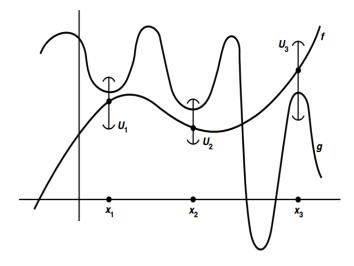


Figure 1: The function q in neighborhood of f in topology of pointwise convergence. [Munkres, 2000]

#### 1.3 Pointwise and Compact Convergence

• Definition (Topology of Pointwise Convergence / Point-Open Topology) Given a point x of the set X and an open set U of the space Y, let

$$S(x, U) = \{f : f \in Y^X \text{ and } f(x) \in U\}.$$

The sets S(x,U) are a **subbasis** for topology on  $Y^X$ , which is called **the topology** of **pointwise convergence** (or **the point-open topology**)

- Remark (Basis of Point-Open Topology)

  The general basis element for this topology is a finite intersection of subbasis elements S(x, U).

  Thus a typical basis element about the function f consists of all functions g that are "close" to f at finitely many points. Such a neighborhood is illustrated in Figure 1; it consists of all functions g whose graphs intersect the three vertical intervals pictured.
- Remark The topology of pointwise convergence on  $Y^X$  is the product topology. If we replace X by J and denote the general element of J by  $\alpha$  to make it look more familiar, then the set  $S(\alpha, U)$  of all functions  $x: J \to Y$  such that  $x(\alpha) \in U$  is just the subset  $\pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(U)$  of  $Y^J$ , which is the standard subbasis element for the product topology.
- Proposition 1.14 (Pointwise Convergence Topology)[Munkres, 2000] A sequence  $f_n$  of functions converges to the function f in the topology of pointwise convergence if and only if for each x in X, the sequence  $f_n(x)$  of points of Y converges to the point f(x).
- Remark Compare the subbasis of the point-open topology on function space  $Y^X$  and the weak topology on space X

$$S(x,U) = \{f : f \in Y^X \text{ and } f(x) \in U\}$$
 point-open topology.  
 $B(f,U) = \{x : x \in X \text{ and } f(x) \in U\}$  weak topology.

• Example (Pointwise Convergence Does Not Preserve Continuity)

Consider the space  $\mathbb{R}^I$ , where I = [0, 1]. The sequence  $(f_n)$  of continuous functions given by  $f_n(x) = x^n$  converges in the **topology of pointwise convergence** to the function f defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } 0 \le x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{for } x = 1 \end{cases},$$

This example shows that the subspace  $C(I,\mathbb{R})$  of continuous functions is **not closed** in  $\mathbb{R}^I$  in the topology of pointwise convergence. Note that  $C(I,\mathbb{R})$  is **closed** in  $\mathbb{R}^I$  under **uniform** topology due to Uniform Limit theorem.

• Definition (Topology of Compact Convergence) Let (Y,d) be a metric space; let X be a topological space. Given an element f of  $Y^X$ , a compact subspace C of X, and a number  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $B_C(f,\epsilon)$  denote the set of all those elements g of  $Y^X$  for which

$$\sup\{d(f(x), g(x)) : x \in C\} < \epsilon.$$

The sets  $B_C(f, \epsilon)$  form a **basis** for a topology on  $Y^X$ . It is called the **topology of compact** convergence (or sometimes the "topology of uniform convergence on compact sets").

- Proposition 1.15 (Topology of Uniform Convergence in Compact Sets) [Munkres, 2000]
  - A sequence  $f_n: X \to Y$  of functions converges to the function f in the **topology of compact** convergence if and only if for each compact subspace C of X, the sequence  $f_n|_C$  converges uniformly to  $f|_C$ .
- **Definition** A space X is said to be <u>compactly generated</u> if it satisfies the following condition: A set A is **open** in X if  $A \cap C$  is **open** in C for each **compact subspace** C of X.
- Lemma 1.16 [Munkres, 2000]
  If X is locally compact, or if X satisfies the first countability axiom, then X is compactly generated.
- The crucial fact about compactly generated spaces is the following:
  - Lemma 1.17 (Continuous Extension on Compact Generated Space) [Munkres, 2000] If X is compactly generated, then a function  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous if for each compact subspace C of X, the restricted function  $f|_C$  is continuous.
- Theorem 1.18 (C(X,Y)) on Compact Generated Space) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a compactly generated space: let (Y,d) be a metric space. Then C(X,Y) is <u>closed</u> in  $Y^{\overline{X}}$  in the topology of compact convergence.
- Corollary 1.19 (Compact Convergence Limit) [Munkres, 2000]
   Let X be a compactly generated space; let (Y, d) be a metric space. If a sequence of continuous functions f<sub>n</sub>: X → Y converges to f in the topology of compact convergence, then f is continuous.
- Remark (Useful Topologies on  $Y^X$ )

1. *Uniform Topology*: generated by the *basis* 

$$B_U(f,\epsilon) = \left\{ g \in Y^X : \sup_{x \in X} \bar{d}(f(x), g(x)) < \epsilon \right\}$$

It corresponds to **the uniform convergence** of  $f_n$  to f in  $Y^X$ . C(X,Y) is **closed** in  $Y^X$  under the uniform topology, following the Uniform Limit Theorem.

2. Topology of Pointwise Convergence: generated by the basis

$$B_{U_1, \dots, U_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n, \epsilon) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n S(x_i, U_i)$$
  
=  $\{ f \in Y^X : f(x_1) \in U_1, \dots, f(x_n) \in U_n \}, \quad 1 \le n < \infty.$ 

It corresponds to **the pointwise convergence** of  $f_n$  to f in  $Y^X$ . C(X,Y) is **not closed** in  $Y^X$  under the topology of pointwise convergence

3. Topology of Compact Convergence: generated by the basis

$$B_C(f,\epsilon) = \left\{ g \in Y^X : \sup_{x \in C} d(f(x), g(x)) < \epsilon \right\}.$$

It corresponds to **the uniform convergence** of  $f_n$  to f in  $Y^X$  for  $x \in C$ . C(X,Y) is **closed** in  $Y^X$  under the topology of compact convergence **if** X **is compactly generated**.

• Theorem 1.20 (Relationship between Topologies on  $Y^X$ ) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space; let (Y,d) be a metric space. For the function space  $Y^X$ , one has the following inclusions of topologies:

 $(uniform)\supseteq (compact\ convergence)\supseteq (pointwise\ convergence).$ 

If X is compact, the first two coincide, and if X is discrete, the second two coincide.

• **Remark** Note that both *uniform topology* and *topology of compact convergence* rmade specific use of the metric d for the space Y, i.e. it can only be defined when the image of function Y is a metric space.

But the topology of pointwise convergence does not use the definition of metric d in Y. In fact, it is defined for any image space Y.

• Definition (Compact-Open Topology on Continuous Function Space)
Let X and Y be topological spaces. If C is a compact subspace of X and U is an open subset of Y, define

$$S(C,U) = \left\{ f \in \mathcal{C}(X,Y) : f(C) \subseteq U \right\}.$$

The sets S(C, U) form a **subbasis** for a **topology** on C(X, Y) that is called **the compact-open topology**.

• Proposition 1.21 (Compact-Open on  $C(X,Y) = Compact\ Convergence)$  [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a space and let (Y,d) be a metric space. On the set C(X,Y), the **compact-open** topology and the topology of compact convergence coincide.

- Corollary 1.22 (Compact Convergence on C(X,Y) Need Not d) [Munkres, 2000] Let Y be a metric space. The compact convergence topology on C(X,Y) does not depend on the metric of Y. Therefore if X is compact, the uniform topology on C(X,Y) does not depend on the metric of Y.
- Remark The fact that the definition of *the compact-open topology* does not involve a *metric* is just one of its useful features.

Another is the fact that it satisfies the requirement of "joint continuity. Roughly speaking, this means that the expression f(x) is continuous not only in the single "variable x, but is continuous jointly in both the x and f.

• Theorem 1.23 (Compact-Open Topology  $\Rightarrow$  Joint Continuity for x and f) Let X be locally compact Hausdorff; let C(X,Y) have the compact-open topology. Then the map

$$e: X \times \mathcal{C}(X,Y) \to Y$$

defined by the equation

$$e(x, f) = f(x)$$

is continuous. The map e is called the evaluation map.

• **Definition** Given a function  $f: X \times Z \to Y$ , there is a corresponding function  $F: Z \to \mathcal{C}(X,Y)$ , defined by the equation

$$(F(z))(x) = f(x, z).$$

Conversely, given  $F: Z \to \mathcal{C}(X,Y)$ , this equation defines a corresponding function  $f: X \times Z \to Y$ . We say that F is the map of Z into  $\mathcal{C}(X,Y)$  that is induced by f.

- Proposition 1.24 Let X and Y be spaces; give C(X,Y) the compact-open topology. If  $f: X \times Z \to Y$  is continuous, then so is the induced function  $F: Z \to C(X,Y)$ . The converse holds if X is locally compact Hausdorff.
- Theorem 1.25 (Ascoli's Theorem, General Version). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space and let (Y, d) be a <u>metric</u> space. Give C(X, Y) the <u>topology of compact</u> convergence; let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a subset of C(X, Y).
  - 1. If  $\mathcal{F}$  is <u>equicontinuous</u> under d and the set

$$F_a = \{ f(a) : f \in \mathcal{F} \}$$

has <u>compact closure</u> for each  $a \in X$ , then  $\mathcal{F}$  is <u>contained</u> in a <u>compact subspace</u> of  $\mathcal{C}(X,Y)$ .

- 2. The converse holds if X is locally compact Hausdorff.
- **Remark** Compare with classical version, we see generalizations:
  - 1. X need not to be compact;  $\Rightarrow$  does not even need X to be topological.  $\Leftarrow$  holds when X is  $locally\ compact\ Hausdorff$ .

- 2. C(X,Y) is under **compact-open topology** which is **weaker** than **uniform topology**, i.e. we does not require convergence of sequence uniformly but only uniformly in a compact subset.
- 3.  $\mathcal{F}$  does not need to be **pointwise bounded** under d. In other word, the set

$$F_a = \{ f(a) : f \in \mathcal{F} \}$$

need not to be **bounded** but need to have **compact closure** for each  $a \in X$ . Note that for metric space Y, if Y is finite dimensional, it is the same requirement as boundness. But compact closure is stronger than bounded.

• Proposition 1.26 (Equicontinuity + Pointwise Convergence  $\Rightarrow$  Compact Convergence) [Munkres, 2000] Let (Y,d) be a metric space; let  $f_n: X \to Y$  be a sequence of continuous functions; let

Let (Y, a) be a metric space; let  $f_n : X \to Y$  be a sequence of **continuous** functions; let  $f : X \to Y$  be a function (not necessarily continuous). Suppose  $f_n$  converges to f in the **topology of pointwise convergence**. If  $\{f_n\}$  is **equicontinuous**, then f is **continuous** and  $f_n$  converges to f in the **topology of compact convergence**.

## 2 Compactness in Banach Space

## Remark (Compactness in Function Space)

The importance of *compactness* in analysis is well-known, and the fact tha *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 <u>Ascoli's theorem</u>: 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  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$  is compact if and only if it is <u>closed</u>, bounded under the sup metric  $\rho$ , and equicontinuous under d.
- 2. The **Banach-Alaoglu theorem**: Let X be a Banach space. The **unit ball** in  $X^*$ ,  $\{f \in X^* : \|f\| \le 1\}$  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.

## 2.1 Strong and Weak Convergence

• Definition (Strong Convergence). [Kreyszig, 1989] A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a normed space X is said to be <u>strongly convergent</u> (or <u>convergent</u> in <u>the norm</u>) if there is an  $x \in X$  such that

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

This is written  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x$  or simply  $x_n \to x$  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 <u>weakly convergent</u> if there is an  $x \in X$  such that for every  $f \in X^*$ ,

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

This is written  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} x$  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  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} x$  if there exists an  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  such that for all  $y \in \mathcal{H}$ 

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

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

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle e_n, y \rangle|^2 \le ||y||^2 < \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} |\langle e_n, y \rangle| \to 0$$

$$\Rightarrow e_n \xrightarrow{w} 0.$$

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

- Lemma 2.1 (Weak Convergence). Let  $(x_n)$  be a weakly convergent sequence in a normed space X, say,  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} x$ . 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 2.2 (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.

## 2.2 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 <u>finite intersections</u> 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

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

And the basis of  $\mathcal{T}$ 

$$\mathscr{B} = \{ f_1^{-1}(U_1) \cap \ldots \cap f_k^{-1}(U_k) : f_1, \ldots, f_k \in \mathscr{F}, \ U_1, \ldots, U_k \in \mathscr{T}, \ 1 \le k < \infty \}$$

$$B \in \mathscr{B} \Rightarrow B = \{ x : f_1(x) \in U_1, \ldots, f_k(x) \in U_k \}, \ 1 \le k < \infty$$

$$= \{ x : (f_1(x), \ldots, f_k(x)) \in U \}.$$

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

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

A product topology on  $Y^{\omega}$  can be seen as a  $\mathscr{F}$ -weak topology when  $\mathscr{F} = \{\pi_{\alpha} : \prod_{i} Y_{i} \to Y_{\alpha}\}.$ 

• 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,  $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, \ldots, f_n\} \subset 2^S$  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 <u>weak topology</u> on X is the weakest topology on X so that f(x) is continuous for all  $f \in \overline{X^*}$ .
- 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  $f(x_{\alpha}) \to f(x)$  for all  $f \in X^*$ .

- Proposition 2.3 [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 2.4 (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  $\psi_n$ . Then  $\psi_n \to \psi$  in the **weak topology** (or  $\psi_n \stackrel{w}{\to} \psi$ ) **if and only if** 

- 1.  $\psi_n^{(\alpha)} \to \psi^{(\alpha)}$  for each  $\alpha$ ; 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  $\varphi_{\alpha}$ . By (1),  $\langle \psi_n, \varphi_{\alpha} \rangle \to \langle \psi, \varphi_{\alpha} \rangle$  if  $\varphi \in \mathcal{F}$ . Using the fact that  $\mathcal{F}$  is dense, (2), and an  $\epsilon/3$  argument, the weak convergence follows.

- Proposition 2.5 (Weak Topology of C(X) on Compact Hausdorff Space) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
  - Let X be a **compact Hausdorff** space and consider the **weak topology on** C(X) (i.e.  $C(X,\mathbb{R})$ ). Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence in C(X). Then  $f_n \to f$  in the **weak topology** (or  $f_n \stackrel{w}{\to} f$ ) if and only if
    - 1.  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  for each  $x \in X$ ; and
    - 2.  $||f_n||$  is **bounded**.

**Proof:** For if  $f_n \stackrel{w}{\to} f$ , then (1) holds since  $f \to f(x)$  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

$$|f_n(x)| \le \sup_n ||f_n||_{\infty}$$

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

• Proposition 2.6 (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.

## 2.3 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:

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

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

- Definition  $(Y ext{-}Weak ext{ Topology } \sigma(X, Y))$ 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  $Y ext{-}Weak ext{ topology on } X$ , 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  $\mathscr{F}$ -weak topology when domain of  $\mathscr{F}$  is a vector space and  $\mathscr{F}$  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.

  the norm topology  $\subset$  the weak topology  $\subseteq$  the weak\* topology
- 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 2.7 (σ(X,Y) Topology = Pointwise Convergence Topology on X) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
   The σ(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 2.8 (The Banach-Alaoglu Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let  $X^*$  be the dual of some Banach space, X. Then the unit ball in  $X^*$ ,  $\{f \in X^* : ||f|| \le 1\}$  is compact in the weak\* topology.
- Corollary 2.9 (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 <u>weak\* convergent</u> subsequence.

- Theorem 2.10 (Kakutani's Theorem) [Rynne and Youngson, 2007] X is reflexive Banach space if and only if the unit ball in X,  $\{x \in X : ||x|| \le 1\}$  is compact in the weak topology.
- Corollary 2.11 [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 2.12 [Rynne and Youngson, 2007]
  If X is reflexive Banach space and M ⊆ X is bounded, closed and convex, then any sequence in M has a subsequence which is weakly convergent to an element of M.
- Exercise 2.13 [Rynne and Youngson, 2007] Suppose that X is **reflexive** Banach space, M is a <u>closed</u>, <u>convex</u> subset of X, and  $y \in X \setminus M$ . Show that there is a point  $y_M \in M$  such that

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

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

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

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

$$F_{\xi}(\lambda) := \mu \left( \left\{ x \in X : \xi(x) \le \lambda \right\} \right) = \int_{X} \mathbb{1} \left\{ \xi(x) \le \lambda \right\} d\mu(x).$$

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

Let  $\xi_n: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  be a sequence of real-valued measurable functions, and  $\xi: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  be another measurable function. We say that  $\xi_n$  converges in distribution to  $\xi$  if the cumulative distribution function  $F_n(\lambda)$  of  $\xi_n$  converges pointwise to the cumulative distribution function  $F(\lambda)$  of  $\xi$  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  $\xi_n \leadsto \xi$ .

$$\xi_n \stackrel{d}{\to} \xi \iff F_n(\lambda) \to F(\lambda), \text{ for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

**Theorem 2.14** (The Portmanteau Theorem). [Van der Vaart, 2000] The following statements are equivalent.

- 1.  $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$ .
- 2.  $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$  for all **continuous functions**  $h : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  that are non-zero only on a **closed** and **bounded** set.
- 3.  $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$  for all bounded continuous functions  $h : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ .
- 4.  $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$  for all **bounded measurable functions**  $h : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  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**  $\sigma$ -field **on**  $\mathcal{X}$ , the smallest  $\sigma$ -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  $\mathcal{P}_n$  <u>converges in distribution</u> to  $\mathcal{P}$ , which we write as  $\mathcal{P}_n \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{P}$ , if and only if

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

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

We can see that <u>the convergence</u> in distribution is actually a weak\* convergence. That is, it is the weak convergence of bounded linear functionals  $I_{\mathcal{P}_n} \stackrel{w^*}{\to} I_{\mathcal{P}}$  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  $I_{\mathcal{P}_n} \stackrel{w^*}{\to} I_{\mathcal{P}}$  is equivalent to  $I_{\mathcal{P}_n}(f) \to I_{\mathcal{P}}(f)$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{C}_b(\mathcal{X})$ .

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