# MA5206 GRADUATE ANALYSIS II OUTLINE

## NOTATION AND REVIEW

# A. Vector spaces

All vector spaces considered in this course will be over the real field  $\mathbb{R}$  or the complex field  $\mathbb{C}$ . The symbol  $\mathbb{K}$  is often used to refer to either of these fields.

Let A and B be subsets of a vector space E and let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$ . The sets A + B and  $\alpha A$  are defined by

$$A + B = \{a + b : a \in A, b \in B\}, \qquad \alpha A = \{\alpha a : a \in A\}.$$

We also let A - B = A + (-1)B. If  $x \in E$ , then  $\{x\} + B$  is also written as x + B.

A subset C of a vector space is **convex** if  $\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y \in C$  for all  $x, y \in C$  and all  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ . Let A be a subset of a vector space. The **convex hull** of A is the set co A consisting of all points of the form  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k x_k$ , where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x_k \in A$ ,  $a_k \geq 0$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k = 1$ . The convex hull of A is the smallest convex set containing A.

Let X and Y be vector spaces over the same field ( $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ). The **direct** sum or product vector space of X and Y is the vector space

$$X \oplus Y = \{(x, y) : x \in X, y \in Y\}$$

with the operations

$$(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2), \ \alpha(x, y) = (\alpha x, \alpha y).$$

Suppose that Y is a vector subspace of a vector space X. Define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on X by  $x \sim y$  if and only if  $x-y \in Y$ . The equivalence classes are precisely the sets x+Y, where  $x \in X$ . Note that this representation is not unique, i.e., there may be distinct x and y such that x+Y=y+Y. The **quotient vector space** X/Y is defined as follows. The elements (points) of X/Y are the equivalence classes of  $\sim$ . If  $x+Y,y+Y \in X/Y$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$ , define

$$(x + Y) + (y + Y) = (x + y) + Y,$$
  $\alpha(x + Y) = \alpha x + Y.$ 

These operations are well defined (independent of the representation of the equivalence classes) and X/Y is a vector space under these operations.

## B. Metric spaces

A **metric space** is a pair (X, d) where X is a nonempty set and  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function such that

- (1)  $d(x,y) \ge 0$  for all  $x, y \in X$ ;
- (2) d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y;
- (3) d(x,y) = d(y,x) for all  $x, y \in X$ ;
- (4)  $d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in X$ .

For example,  $\mathbb{K}$  can be given the **standard metric** d(x,y) = |x-y| for all  $x,y \in \mathbb{K}$ . A sequence  $(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  in a metric space (X,d) is **convergent** if there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d(x_k,x) = 0$ . The sequence is **Cauchy** if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(x_j,x_k) < \varepsilon$  for all  $j,k \geq k_0$ . (X,d) is **complete** if every Cauchy sequence in X is convergent.

A metric space is a special case of a *topological space*, which will be discussed below.

### 1. A CRASH COURSE ON GENERAL TOPOLOGY

A topology on a set X is a collection  $\mathcal{T}$  of subsets of X such that

- (1)  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$ ;
- (2)  $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$  if  $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$ ;
- (3)  $\cup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}$  if  $(U_{\alpha})$  is any collection of sets in  $\mathcal{T}$ .

Elements of the topology  $\mathcal{T}$  are called **open sets** in X. A **closed set** in X is a set W such that its complement  $W^c$  is open. A **topological space** is a set X together with a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on X. A topological space  $(X,\mathcal{T})$  is **Hausdorff** if for every pair of distinct points x and y in X, there are open sets U, V such that  $x \in U$ ,  $y \in V$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .

Let A be a set in a topological space X. The **interior of** A, denoted by int A, is the union of all open subsets of A. The **closure of** A, denoted by  $\overline{A}$ , is the intersection of all closed sets in X containing A.  $\overline{A}$  is a closed set.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space.

- (1) The sets  $\emptyset$  and X are closed.
- (2) If  $F_1, \ldots, F_n$  are closed sets in X, then  $F_1 \cup \cdots \cup F_n$  is a closed set,
- (3) If  $F_{\alpha}$  is a closed set for each  $\alpha$ , then  $\cap F_{\alpha}$  is a closed set.
- (4) For any subset A of X, a point  $x \in \overline{A}$  if and only if for any open set U containing  $x, U \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .

A basis for a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on a set X is a subset  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\mathcal{T}$  such that for all  $x \in X$  and all  $U \in \mathcal{T}$  with  $x \in U$ , there exists  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq U$ .

**Proposition 2.** Suppose that  $\mathcal{B}$  is a collection of subsets of X such that (i) every  $x \in X$  is contained in some set  $U \in \mathcal{B}$ , (ii) for all  $x \in X$  and all  $U, V \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in U \cap V$ , there exists  $W \in \mathcal{B}$  with  $x \in W \subseteq U \cap V$ . Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be the collection of all arbitrary unions of members of  $\mathcal{B}$ . (Including the empty set, which is taken to be the union of an empty collection.) Then  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology on X and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{T}$ . Moreover,  $\mathcal{T}$  is the only topology on X that has  $\mathcal{B}$  as a basis.

**Remark.** Proposition 2 says that any basis generates only one topology. However, a topology may have more than one basis.

As an example, let us specify a basis for the topology on a metric space. Let (X,d) be a metric space. If  $x \in X$  and r > 0, the **ball** centered at x with radius r is the set

$$B(x,r) = \{ y \in X : d(x,y) < r \}.$$

The set  $\mathcal{B}$  of all balls in X is a basis for a topology on X (Check!), called the **metric topology**. The metric topology on a metric space is Hausdorff.

1.1. Subspace topology. Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let Y be a subset of X. Then

$$\mathcal{T}_Y = \{U \cap Y : U \in \mathcal{T}\}$$

is a topology on Y (Check!), called the **subspace topology** on Y.

**Proposition 3.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let Y be a subset of X. A subset F of Y is closed in the subspace topology if and only if there is a closed set H in X such that  $F = H \cap Y$ .

1.2. **Product topology.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_1)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_2)$  be two topological spaces. Define a basis for a topology on  $X \times Y$  by  $\mathcal{B} = \{U \times V : U \in \mathcal{T}_1, V \in \mathcal{T}_2\}$  (Check!). The topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$  is called the **product topology** on  $X \times Y$ .

Let  $(X_{\alpha}, \mathcal{T}_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I}$  be a collection of topological spaces. Take X to be the Cartesian product  $X = \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_{\alpha}$ . Thus  $X = \{(x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I} : x_{\alpha} \in X_{\alpha} \text{ for all } \alpha\}$ . If J is a finite subset of I and  $U_{\alpha}$  is a set in  $\mathcal{T}_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha \in J$ , let

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_{\alpha} = \{ (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I} \in X : x_{\alpha} \in U_{\alpha} \text{ for all } \alpha \in J \}.$$

The collection of all such sets is a basis for a topology on X (Check!), called the **product topology**. The product topology is Hausdorff if each  $(X_{\alpha}, \mathcal{T}_{\alpha})$  is Hausdorff.

1.3. Quotient topology. Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let  $q: X \to Y$  be a surjective map from X onto a set Y. Define

$$\mathcal{T}_Y = \{ U \subseteq Y : q^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{T} \}.$$

Then  $\mathcal{T}_Y$  is a topology on Y called the **quotient topology** (induced by q).

1.4. **Continuous functions.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_1)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_2)$  be topological spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be **continuous** at a point  $x_0 \in X$  if for any open set V in Y containing  $f(x_0)$ , there exists an open set U in X containing  $x_0$  such that  $f(U) \subseteq V$ . f is continuous on X if it is continuous at every point in X.

**Proposition 4.** If  $\mathcal{T}_1$  and  $\mathcal{T}_2$  are metric topologies generated by metrics  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  respectively, then f is continuous at  $x_0$  if and only if  $(f(x_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $f(x_0)$  for every sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in X that converges to  $x_0$ .

**Theorem 5.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a function from a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T}_1)$  to a topological space  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_2)$ . The following are equivalent.

- (1) f is continuous on X.
- (2)  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open for every open set V in Y.
- (3)  $f^{-1}(W)$  is closed for every closed set W in Y.

**Proposition 6.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let  $(Y_{\alpha}, \mathcal{T}_{\alpha})$ ,  $\alpha \in I$ , be topological spaces. Set  $Y = \prod_{\alpha \in I} Y_{\alpha}$  and let  $\mathcal{T}'$  be the product topology on Y. For each  $\beta \in I$ , let  $\pi_{\beta} : Y \to Y_{\beta}$  be the map  $\pi_{\beta}((y_{\alpha})) = y_{\beta}$ . A function  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous if and only if  $\pi_{\beta} \circ f$  is continuous for each  $\beta \in I$ .

**Proposition 7.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let  $q: X \to Y$  be a surjective map from X onto a set Y. Let  $\mathcal{T}_Y$  be the quotient topology induced by q. For any topological space  $(Z, \mathcal{T}_Z)$ , a function  $f: Y \to Z$  is continuous if and only if  $f \circ q$  is continuous from X to Z.

1.5. Compact spaces. Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. A subset K of X is compact if given any collection of open sets  $\mathcal{U}$  in X such that  $K \subseteq \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U$ , there are finitely many sets  $U_1, \ldots, U_k \in \mathcal{U}$  such that  $K \subseteq U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_k$ .

**Proposition 8.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a Hausdorff topological space. If K is a compact subset of X, then K is closed.

The following result is well known.

**Theorem 9.** Let (X, d) be a metric space and let K be a subset of X. The following are equivalent.

- (1) K is compact in the metric topology.
- (2) Every sequence in K has a subsequence that converges to an element of K.
- (3) K is complete and totally bounded.

Recall that a subset K of a metric space X is **totally bounded** if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exist finitely many points  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  in X (or, equivalently, in K) such that  $K \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n B(x_i, \varepsilon)$ .

**Theorem 10.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_1)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_2)$  be topological spaces. If K is a compact subset of X and  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous, then the image f(K) is compact.

**Corollary 11.** (Extreme value theorem) Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_1)$  be a topological space. If K is a compact subset of X and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, then there exist  $x_1, x_2 \in K$  such that  $f(x_1) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_2)$  for all  $x \in K$ .

The following theorem is an important result in general topology. We assume it without proof.

**Theorem 12.** (Tychonoff's Theorem) Let  $(X_{\alpha}, \mathcal{T}_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I}$  be a collection of compact topological spaces. Then the product space  $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_{\alpha}$  is compact in the product topology.

## 2. Normed spaces and inner product spaces

It is well known that on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , one can define an inner product and the length (or norm) of a vector, as follows:

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k \overline{y_k}$$
 and  $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k|^2}$ ,

where  $x = (x_k)_{k=1}^n$  and  $y = (y_k)_{k=1}^n$ . We wish to generalize these notions to any vector space.

**Definition 13.** Let X be a vector space over  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . An inner **product** on X is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : X \times X \to \mathbb{K}$  that satisfies the following properties.

- (1)  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x \in X$ ,
- (2)  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$  if and only if x = 0,
- (3)  $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$  for all  $x, y \in X$ ,
- (4)  $\langle \alpha x + y, z \rangle = \alpha \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$  and all  $x, y, z \in X$ .

A vector space together with an inner product defined on it is called an inner product space.

**Example 14.** (1)  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $\mathbb{C}^n$  are inner product spaces with the inner product defined above.

(2) Let  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be a measure space. Define  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : L^2(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu) \times L^2(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu) \to \mathbb{K}$  by

$$\langle f,g\rangle = \int f\overline{g}\,d\mu \text{ for all } f,g\in L^2(\Omega,\Sigma,\mu).$$

 $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  satisfies properties (1), (3) and (4) in Definition 13. However,  $\langle f, f \rangle = 0$  only implies that f = 0 a.e. It is customary to adopt the convention that two functions in  $L^2(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  are treated as the same element if f = g a.e. In particular, f = 0 a.e. means that f is the 0 element in  $L^2(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ . Then condition (2) in Definition 13 is satisfied as well.

- (3) Take  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be the set  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  with the counting measure. Then  $L^2(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  with the inner product in (2) coincides with  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $\mathbb{C}^n$  with the inner product in (1).
- (4) Take  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  to be  $\mathbb{N}$  with the counting measure.  $L^2(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is usually called  $\ell^2$  in this case. The inner product defined in (2), when applied to  $\ell^2$ , is given by

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \overline{y_k},$$

where  $x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}, y = (y_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  are elements in  $\ell^2$ .

All examples above are essentially of the same kind:  $L^2$ . We will see later on that this is not a coincidence.

**Definition 15.** Let X be a vector space over  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . A norm on X is a function  $\|\cdot\|: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies the following properties.

- (1)  $||x|| \ge 0$  for all  $x \in X$ ,
- (2) ||x|| = 0 if and only if x = 0,
- (3) (Homogeneity)  $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$  and all  $x \in X$ ,
- (4) (Triangle inequality)  $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$  for all  $x, y \in X$ .

A vector space together with a norm defined on it is called a **normed space**.

**Example 16.** (1) Let  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be a measure space and let  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ . Consider the space  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ , where once again two functions that are equal a.e. are treated as the same element in  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ . Define

$$\|\cdot\|_p: L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu) \to \mathbb{R} \ by \|f\|_p = (\int |f|^p d\mu)^{1/p}, 1 \le p < \infty$$

or  $||f||_{\infty} = essential supremum of |f|$ . Then  $||\cdot||_p$  is a norm on  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ . (The triangle inequality is Minkowski's inequality).

(2) If  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is the set  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  with the counting measure, then  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is also denoted as  $\ell^p(n)$ . Thus  $\ell^p(n)$  is the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $\mathbb{C}^n$  endowed with the p-norm

$$||x|| = (\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k|^p)^{1/p} \text{ or } \max_{k} |x_k| \text{ for } p = \infty, \text{ if } x = (x_k)_{k=1}^m.$$

- (3) If  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is the set  $\mathbb{N}$  with the counting measure, then  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is usually denoted by  $\ell^p$ .
- (4) Let K be a compact Hausdorff topological space and let C(K) be the space of all scalar valued (i.e., real or complex valued) functions on K. Then C(K) is a normed space with the norm

$$||f|| = \sup_{t \in K} |f(t)|.$$

**Proposition 17.** (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality) Let X be an inner product space. For any  $x, y \in X$ ,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle|^2 \le \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle.$$

**Example 18.** Let X be an inner product space with inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ . Then the equation  $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$  defines a norm on X.

Example 18 tells us that every inner product space is a normed space. In turn, every normed space is a metric space.

**Proposition 19.** Let X be a normed space with norm  $\|\cdot\|$ . Define  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $d(x,y) = \|x-y\|$ . Then d is a metric on X.

Thus we have the inclusions

inner product spaces  $\subseteq$  normed spaces  $\subseteq$  metric spaces.

If a normed space is complete with respect to the metric generated by the norm, then it is called a **Banach space**. If an inner product space is

complete with respect to the metric generated by the norm generated by the inner product, then it is called a **Hilbert space**. Similar to the inclusions above, we have

Hilbert spaces  $\subseteq$  Banach spaces  $\subseteq$  complete metric spaces.

- **Example 20.** (1) If  $1 \le p \le \infty$  and  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is a measure space, then  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is a Banach space. This follows from the Riesz-Fischer Theorem.
  - (2) In particular,  $L^2(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is a Hilbert space.
  - (3) The space C(K) from Example 16(4) is a Banach space. (Check!)
- 2.1. Subspaces, direct sums and quotient spaces. It is possible to construct new inner product spaces/normed spaces from existing ones. We describe here two basic constructions.

**Proposition 21.** (Subspaces) Let X be an inner product space (respectively, a normed space) and let Y be a vector subspace of X. Then Y is an inner product space (respectively, a normed space) with the inner product (respectively, norm) inherited from X.

Let X be a Hilbert space (respectively, a Banach space) and let Y be a subspace of X. Then Y (as a subspace of X) is a Hilbert space (respectively, a Banach space) if and only if it is a closed set in X.

**Example 22.** Let  $X = \ell^{\infty}$ , the space of all bounded scalar sequences with the sup-norm  $||x|| = \sup_k |x_k|$ , where  $x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ . Then X is a Banach space

- (1) Define c to be the subspace of X consisting of all  $x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\lim_k x_k$  exists (in  $\mathbb{K}$ ). Then c is a closed subspace of X and hence it is also a Banach space.
- (2) Define  $c_0$  to be the subspace of X consisting of all  $x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\lim_k x_k = 0$ . Then  $c_0$  is a closed subspace of c and also of X. Hence it is also a Banach space.
- (3) Define  $c_{00}$  to be the subspace of X consisting of all  $x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that the set  $\{k : x_k \neq 0\}$  is finite. Then  $c_{00}$  is <u>not</u> a closed subspace of X and hence it is <u>not</u> a Banach space.

**Proposition 23.** (Direct sums) Let X and Y be normed spaces and let  $1 \le p \le \infty$ . Then  $X \oplus_p Y$  is the vector space direct sum

$$X \oplus Y = \{(x, y) : x \in X, y \in Y\}$$

with the norm

$$\|(x,y)\| = (\|x\|^p + \|y\|^p)^{1/p} \text{ or } \max\{\|x\|,\|y\|\} \text{ if } p = \infty.$$

 $X \oplus_p Y$  is a Banach space if and only if both X and Y are Banach spaces.

**Proposition 24.** (Quotient spaces) Let X be a normed space and let Y be a <u>closed</u> subspace of X. Define  $\|\cdot\|_{X/Y}$  on the quotient vector space X/Y

 $(see\ part\ A\ of\ "Notation\ and\ Review")\ by$ 

$$\|x+Y\|_{X/Y} = \inf\{\|x+y\| : y \in Y\}.$$

Then  $\|\cdot\|_{X/Y}$  defines a norm on X/Y. It is called the **quotient norm**. If X is a Banach space, then X/Y is also a Banach space under the quotient norm.

## 3. Bounded linear operators

Let X and Y be normed spaces. We characterize the continuous linear operators  $T: X \to Y$ . We will also define a norm on the space of L(X,Y) all continuous linear operators from X into Y.

**Proposition 25.** Let X and Y be normed spaces and let  $T: X \to Y$  be a linear operator. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) T is continuous on X,
- (2) T is continuous at 0,
- (3) There exists  $C \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $||Tx|| \leq C||x||$  for all  $x \in X$ .

A linear operator T that satisfies condition (3) of Proposition 25 is called a **bounded linear operator**. Thus a bounded linear operator between normed spaces is the same as a continuous linear operator between normed spaces.

**Definition 26.** Let X and Y be normed spaces. A linear operator  $T: X \to Y$  is called an **isomorphism** if T is a bijection and both T and  $T^{-1}$  are continuous. If  $T: X \to Y$  is an isomorphism from X onto a subspace Z of Y, we say that T is an **into isomorphism** from X into Y. X and Y are said to be **isomorphic** if there is an isomorphism T from X onto Y.

**Corollary 27.** Let X and Y be normed spaces and let  $T: X \to Y$  be a linear operator. Then T is an into isomorphism if and only if there are constants  $0 < c \le C < \infty$  so that

$$c||x|| \le ||Tx|| \le C||x||$$
 for all  $x \in X$ .

**Definition 28.** Let X and Y be normed spaces. A linear operator  $T: X \to Y$  is called an **into isometry** if ||Tx|| = ||x|| for all  $x \in X$ . X and Y are said to be **isometric** if there is an isometry T from X onto Y.

**Example 29.** Let  $c_0$  and c be the Banach spaces given in Example 22. Define a map  $T: c_0 \to c$  by

$$Tx = (x_1 + x_{k+1})_{k=1}^{\infty}, \text{ where } x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}.$$

Then T is an isomorphism from  $c_0$  onto c. Thus  $c_0$  and c are isomorphic. T is not an isometry. In fact,  $c_0$  and c are not isometric, i.e., there is no isometry that maps  $c_0$  onto c.

**Proposition 30.** (Operator norm) Let X and Y be normed spaces. Denote by L(X,Y) the space of all bounded linear operators from X to Y. For any  $T \in L(X,Y)$ , let

$$||T|| = \sup_{\|x\| \le 1} ||Tx||.$$

This defines a norm on L(X,Y), called the **operator norm**. If Y is a Banach space, then L(X,Y) is complete with respect to the operator norm and thus is a Banach space.

The operator norm can also be expressed in the following ways.

$$||T|| = \sup_{||x|| < 1} ||Tx|| = \sup_{||x|| = 1} ||Tx||.$$

For any  $T \in L(X,Y)$  and any  $x \in X$ , we have  $||Tx|| \le ||T|| \, ||x||$ .

**Example 31.** The supremum in the definition of the operator norm:  $||T|| = \sup_{\|x\| \le 1} ||Tx||$  cannot be replaced by a maximum in general. That is, the supremum may not be attained. Consider the operator  $T: c_0 \to \mathbb{K}$  defined by  $Tx = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_k}{2^k}$ , where  $x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ . Then  $T \in L(c_0, \mathbb{K})$ , ||T|| = 1 and ||Tx|| < 1 for all  $x \in c_0$  with  $||x|| \le 1$ .

A subset Z of a normed space X is **dense** if the closure of Z,  $\overline{Z}$ , is X.

**Proposition 32.** Let X be a normed space, Y be a Banach space and let Z be a dense subspace of X. Suppose that  $S:Z\to Y$  is a bounded linear operator. There is a unique bounded linear operator  $T:X\to Y$  such that  $S=T_{|Z}$ . Furthermore, ||T||=||S||. If S is an isometry, then so is T.

**Example 33.** Consider the complex Hilbert space  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ , where  $\mathbb{R}$  is endowed with Lebesgue measure. Recall that the Schwartz class S is the space of all  $C^{\infty}$  functions f on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\sup |x^k f^{(j)}(x)| < \infty$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and all  $j \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ . We may regard S as a subspace of  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . In particular S contains  $C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ , the space of all  $C^{\infty}$  functions with compact support, which is dense in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Hence S is dense in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ .

For  $f \in \mathcal{S}$ , define the Fourier transform  $\hat{f}$  by

$$\widehat{f}(x) = \int f(y)e^{-ixy} d\lambda(y).$$

Then  $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{S}$ . The map  $S: \mathcal{S} \to \mathcal{S} \subseteq L^2(\mathbb{R}, \frac{\lambda}{2\pi})$  given by  $Sf = \hat{f}$  is an isometry from  $\mathcal{S}$  (with the  $L^2$ -norm) into  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, \frac{\lambda}{2\pi})$ . By Proposition 32, S extends uniquely to an isometry  $T: L^2(\mathbb{R}) \to L^2(\mathbb{R}, \frac{\lambda}{2\pi})$ . Furthermore, T maps  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  onto  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, \frac{\lambda}{2\pi})$ . For any  $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ , we call Tf the Fourier transform of f.

**Remark.** It is clear that the Fourier transform defines a bounded linear operator of norm  $\leq 1$  from  $L^1(\mathbb{R})$  to  $L^\infty(\mathbb{R},\frac{\lambda}{2\pi})$ . Example 33 shows that it also defines a bounded linear operator of norm 1 from  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  to  $L^2(\mathbb{R},\frac{\lambda}{2\pi})$ . Using an interpolation method, it is possible to show that the Fourier transform defines a bounded linear operator of norm 1 from  $L^p(\mathbb{R})$  into  $L^q(\mathbb{R},\frac{\lambda}{2\pi})$ , where 1 and <math>q = p/(p-1). This result is called the Hausdorff-Young inequality. The Hausdorff-Young inequality cannot be extended to the range 2 .

Every metric space X has a *completion*; that is, a complete metric space Y containing X as a dense subspace. The same is true for normed and inner product spaces.

**Proposition 34.** (Completion) Let X be a normed space (respectively, an inner product space). There is a Banach space (respectively, Hilbert space) Y so that X is isometric to a dense subspace of Y. If Z is another completion of X, then Y and Z are isometric.

## 4. Finite dimensional normed spaces

A finite dimensional normed space is a normed space that is finite dimensional as a vector space.

**Theorem 35.** (1) Let X be an n-dimensional normed space, where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then X is isomorphic to  $\ell^1(n)$ .

- (2) Any two n-dimensional normed spaces are isomorphic.
- (3) Let X be a finite dimensional normed space and let Y be any normed space. Then any linear operator  $T: X \to Y$  is bounded.
- (4) Let Y be a finite dimensional subspace of a normed space X. Then Y is closed in X.

**Example 36.** Suppose that  $1 \le p < q \le \infty$ . The formal identity  $I : \ell^p(n) \to \ell^q(n)$  is an isomorphism. For any  $x \in \ell^p(n)$ ,

$$n^{\frac{1}{q} - \frac{1}{p}} ||x||_p \le ||Ix||_q \le ||x||_p.$$

Let X be a normed space. The set  $B_X = \{x \in X : ||x|| \le 1\}$  is called the (closed unit) ball of X.

**Theorem 37.** Let X be a normed space. Then X is finite dimensional if and only if  $B_X$  is compact (with respect to the metric generated by the norm).

**Thought question**. From Theorem 37, if X is an infinite dimensional normed space, then there is a sequence  $(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  in  $B_X$  with no convergent subsequence. Produce such sequences in  $\ell^p, L^p[0,1], 1 \le p \le \infty$ , and C[0,1].

### 5. Hilbert space

**Proposition 38.** (Parallelogram Law) Let X be an inner product space. Then

$$||x + y||^2 + ||x - y||^2 = 2(||x||^2 + ||y||^2)$$
 for all  $x, y \in X$ .

**Example 39.** Consider the space  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ , where  $p \neq 2$  and  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is at least 2-dimensional. Then the p-norm  $\|\cdot\|_p$  fails the Parallelogram Law and hence  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  cannot be an inner product space with any inner product.

**Proposition 40.** (Polarization identity) Let X be an inner product space. For any  $x, y \in X$ ,

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} (\|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2) & \text{for real scalars} \\ \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=1}^4 i^k \|x + i^k y\|^2 & \text{for complex scalars.} \end{cases}$$

Let X be an inner product space. Two vectors  $x, y \in X$  are said to be **orthogonal**, written  $x \perp y$ , if  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ . A set of vectors A is orthogonal if  $x \perp y$  whenever,  $x, y \in A$  and  $x \neq y$ . A set of vectors A is **orthonormal** if it is orthogonal and ||x|| = 1 for all  $x \in A$ .

**Proposition 41.** Let A be an orthogonal set in an inner product space X such that  $x \neq 0$  for all  $x \in A$ . Then A is linearly independent in X.

**Proposition 42.** (Gram-Schmidt process) Let  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$  be a linearly independent set of vectors in an inner product space X. There is an orthonormal set  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$  in X such that  $\operatorname{span}\{x_1, \ldots, x_k\} = \operatorname{span}\{e_1, \ldots e_k\}$  for all  $1 \leq k \leq n$ .

Corollary 43. Every finite dimensional inner product space has an orthonormal basis, i.e., a basis (in the vector space sense) that is an orthonormal set. Every finite dimensional inner product space X is isometric to  $\ell^2(n)$ , where n is the dimension of X.

**Lemma 44.** Let  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$  be an orthonormal set in an inner product space X. For any  $x \in X$  and any scalars  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ ,

$$||x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k e_k||^2 = ||x||^2 - 2\operatorname{Re}(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \overline{a_k}\langle x, e_k \rangle) + \sum_{k=1}^{n} |a_k|^2.$$

**Proposition 45.** (Bessel's inequality) Let  $(e_{\gamma})_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$  be an orthonormal set in an inner product space X. For any  $x \in X$ ,

$$\sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} |\langle x, e_{\gamma} \rangle|^2 \le ||x||^2$$

Here the sum on the left is defined to be  $\sup_F \sum_{\gamma \in F} |\langle x, e_{\gamma} \rangle|^2$ , with the supremum taken over all finite subsets F of  $\Gamma$ .

If S is a subset of a metric space X and  $x \in X$ , then the distance from x to set S is

$$d(x,S) = \inf\{d(x,y) : y \in S\}.$$

**Proposition 46.** (Nearest point) Let C be a closed convex set in a Hilbert space X and let  $x \in X$ . There is a unique point  $u \in C$  such that ||x - u|| = d(x, C).

**Proposition 47.** Let Y be a finite dimensional subspace of a Hilbert space X. Suppose that  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_k\}$  is an orthonormal basis for Y. For any  $x \in X$ ,

$$||x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, e_k \rangle e_k|| = d(x, Y).$$

**Proposition 48.** (Orthogonal complement and orthogonal decomposition) Let Y be a closed subspace of a Hilbert space X. Define

$$Y^{\perp} = \{ x \in X : x \perp y \text{ for all } y \in Y \}.$$

Then  $Y^{\perp}$  is a closed subspace of X, called the **orthogonal complement** of Y. For any  $x \in X$ , there is a unique representation x = y + z with  $y \in Y$  and  $z \in Y^{\perp}$ .

**Theorem 49.** (Riesz Representation Theorem) Let X be a Hilbert space and let f be a bounded linear functional on X, i.e., f is a bounded linear operator from X to  $\mathbb{K}$ . There is a unique  $y \in X$  such that

$$f(x) = \langle x, y \rangle$$
 for all  $x \in X$ .

**Corollary 50.** (Hilbert adjoint operator) Let X be a Hilbert space and let T be a bounded linear operator from X to itself. There is a unique bounded linear operator  $T^*: X \to X$  so that

$$\langle T^*x, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle \text{ for all } x, y \in X.$$

Moreover,  $||T^*|| = ||T||$ .

**Corollary 51.** (Lax-Milgram) Let X be a Hilbert space and let  $B: X \times X \to \mathbb{K}$  be a function that satisfies the following conditions.

(1) (Sesquilinear form) For all  $x, y, z \in X$  and any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$ ,

$$B(\alpha x + y, z) = \alpha B(x, z) + B(y, z)$$
 and  $B(x, \alpha y + z) = \overline{\alpha} B(x, y) + B(x, z)$ .

(2) There is a constant  $C < \infty$  so that

$$|B(x,y)| \le C||x|| ||y|| \text{ for all } x,y \in X.$$

(3) There is a constant c > 0 so that

$$|B(x,x)| \ge c||x||^2$$
 for all  $x \in X$ .

Then there is an isomorphism from T from X onto X so that

$$B(x,y) = \langle Tx, y \rangle \text{ for all } x, y \in X.$$

For any bounded linear functional f on X, there is a unique  $y \in X$  such that f(x) = B(x,y) for all  $x \in X$ . Moreover,  $||y|| \leq \frac{||f||}{c}$ .

**Theorem 52.** (Characterization of orthonormal basis in Hilbert space) Let X be a Hilbert space and let  $(e_{\gamma})_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$  be an orthonormal set in X. The following are equivalent.

- (1) For any  $x \in X$ ,  $\sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \langle x, e_{\gamma} \rangle e_{\gamma}$  converges to x, in the sense that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a finite set  $F_0 \subseteq \Gamma$  so that
- $\|\sum_{\gamma\in F}\langle x,e_{\gamma}\rangle e_{\gamma}-x\|<\varepsilon \text{ for any finite set }F\text{ such that }F_{0}\subseteq F\subseteq \Gamma,$
- (2) span $\{e_{\gamma} : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is dense in X,
- (3) If  $x \in X$  and  $x \perp e_{\gamma}$  for all  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , then x = 0,
- (4) (Parseval's identity) For any  $x \in X$ ,  $||x||^2 = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} |\langle x, e_{\gamma} \rangle|^2$ .

If an orthonormal set  $(e_{\gamma})_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$  satisfies any of the equivalent conditions of Theorem 52, it is said to be an **orthonormal basis** of X.

Caution. If X is an infinite dimensional Hilbert space, then an orthonormal basis of X is not a basis of X in the vector space sense. Specifically, an orthonormal basis of X does not span X if X is an infinite dimensional Hilbert space.

Proposition 53. Every Hilbert space has an orthonormal basis.

If  $\Gamma$  is an arbitrary set, let  $\ell^2(\Gamma)$  be the  $L^2$  space on  $\Gamma$  with respect to the counting measure.

Corollary 54. Let X be a Hilbert space and let  $(e_{\gamma})_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$  be an orthonormal basis for X. Then the linear operator  $T: X \to \ell^2(\Gamma)$  defined by  $Tx = (\langle x, e_{\gamma} \rangle)_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$  is an isometry from X onto  $\ell^2(\Gamma)$ .

### 6. Hahn-Banach Theorem

**Definition 55.** Let X be a real vector space. A function  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a sublinear functional if  $p(x+y) \le p(x) + p(y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ , and  $p(\alpha x) = \alpha p(x)$  for all  $0 \le \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and all  $x \in X$ .

**Lemma 56.** Let X be a real vector space and let  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a sublinear functional on X. Suppose that Y is a vector subspace of X and  $g: Y \to \mathbb{R}$  is a linear functional such that  $g(y) \le p(y)$  for all  $y \in Y$ . If  $u \in X$ , then there exists a linear functional  $f: \operatorname{span}(Y \cup \{u\}) \to \mathbb{R}$  such that f(y) = g(y) for all  $y \in Y$  and that  $f(x) \le p(x)$  for all  $x \in \operatorname{span}(Y \cup \{u\})$ .

**Proposition 57.** (General Hahn-Banach extension theorem) Let X be a real vector space and let  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a sublinear functional on X. Suppose that Y is a vector subspace of X and  $g: Y \to \mathbb{R}$  is a linear functional such that  $g(y) \leq p(y)$  for all  $y \in Y$ . Then there exists a linear functional  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  such that f(y) = g(y) for all  $y \in Y$  and that  $f(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ .

**Definition 58.** Let X be a normed space. The space  $L(X, \mathbb{K})$  (the space of all bounded linear functionals) is called the dual space of X and is denoted by X'. (In many books, the symbol  $X^*$  is also used.) It is a Banach space under the operator norm

$$||f|| = \sup_{\|x\| \le 1} |f(x)| \text{ for all } f \in X'.$$

**Theorem 59.** (Hahn-Banach extension theorem for normed spaces) Let  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed space and let Y be a subspace of X. If  $g \in Y'$ , then there exists  $f \in X'$  such that f(y) = g(y) for all  $y \in Y$  and that  $\|f\| = \|g\|$ .

In the final equation of the theorem, ||f|| refers to the norm of f in X' and ||g|| refers to the norm of g in Y'.

**Corollary 60.** Let Y be a closed subspace of a normed space X and let  $x \in X \setminus Y$ . There exists  $f \in X'$  of norm 1 such that f(x) = ||x||.

**Corollary 61.** Let Y be a subspace of a normed space X. Suppose that the only  $f \in X'$  such that f(y) = 0 for all  $y \in Y$  is the 0 functional. Then Y is dense in X.

**Proposition 62.** (Adjoint operator) Let X and Y be normed spaces and let  $T: X \to Y$  be a bounded linear operator. For each  $g \in Y'$ , define  $f_g: X \to \mathbb{K}$  by  $f_g(x) = g(Tx)$ . Then  $f_g \in X'$ . The map  $T': Y' \to X'$  defined by  $T'g = f_g$  is a bounded linear operator from Y' to X'. It is called the adjoint of T. Thus

$$(T'g)(x) = g(Tx)$$
 for all  $x \in X$  and all  $g \in Y'$ .

Furthermore, ||T'|| = ||T||.

**Proposition 63.** (Duality between subspaces and quotients) Let X be a normed space and let Y be a closed subspace.

### 6. Hahn-Banach Theorem

**Definition 55.** Let X be a real vector space. A function  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a sublinear functional if  $p(x+y) \le p(x) + p(y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ , and  $p(\alpha x) = \alpha p(x)$  for all  $0 \le \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and all  $x \in X$ .

**Lemma 56.** Let X be a real vector space and let  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a sublinear functional on X. Suppose that Y is a vector subspace of X and  $g: Y \to \mathbb{R}$  is a linear functional such that  $g(y) \le p(y)$  for all  $y \in Y$ . If  $u \in X$ , then there exists a linear functional  $f: \operatorname{span}(Y \cup \{u\}) \to \mathbb{R}$  such that f(y) = g(y) for all  $y \in Y$  and that  $f(x) \le p(x)$  for all  $x \in \operatorname{span}(Y \cup \{u\})$ .

**Proposition 57.** (General Hahn-Banach extension theorem) Let X be a real vector space and let  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a sublinear functional on X. Suppose that Y is a vector subspace of X and  $g: Y \to \mathbb{R}$  is a linear functional such that  $g(y) \leq p(y)$  for all  $y \in Y$ . Then there exists a linear functional  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  such that f(y) = g(y) for all  $y \in Y$  and that  $f(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ .

**Definition 58.** Let X be a normed space. The space  $L(X, \mathbb{K})$  (the space of all bounded linear functionals) is called the dual space of X and is denoted by X'. (In many books, the symbol  $X^*$  is also used.) It is a Banach space under the operator norm

$$||f|| = \sup_{\|x\| \le 1} |f(x)| \text{ for all } f \in X'.$$

**Theorem 59.** (Hahn-Banach extension theorem for normed spaces) Let  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed space and let Y be a subspace of X. If  $g \in Y'$ , then there exists  $f \in X'$  such that f(y) = g(y) for all  $y \in Y$  and that  $\|f\| = \|g\|$ .

In the final equation of the theorem, ||f|| refers to the norm of f in X' and ||g|| refers to the norm of g in Y'.

**Corollary 60.** Let Y be a closed subspace of a normed space X and let  $x \in X \setminus Y$ . There exists  $f \in X'$  of norm 1 such that f(y) = 0 for all  $y \in Y$  and that f(x) = d(x, Y).

**Corollary 61.** Let Y be a subspace of a normed space X. Suppose that the only  $f \in X'$  such that f(y) = 0 for all  $y \in Y$  is the 0 functional. Then Y is dense in X.

**Proposition 62.** (Adjoint operator) Let X and Y be normed spaces and let  $T: X \to Y$  be a bounded linear operator. For each  $g \in Y'$ , define  $f_g: X \to \mathbb{K}$  by  $f_g(x) = g(Tx)$ . Then  $f_g \in X'$ . The map  $T': Y' \to X'$  defined by  $T'g = f_g$  is a bounded linear operator from Y' to X'. It is called the adjoint of T. Thus

$$(T'g)(x) = g(Tx) \text{ for all } x \in X \text{ and all } g \in Y'.$$

Furthermore, ||T'|| = ||T||.

**Proposition 63.** (Duality between subspaces and quotients) Let X be a normed space and let Y be a closed subspace.

- (1) Let  $q: X \to X/Y$  be the quotient map given by q(x) = x + Y. Then the adjoint q' is an isometry from (X/Y)' into X'.
- (2) Let  $i: Y \to X$  be the inclusion map i(y) = y. Set

$$Z = \ker i' = \{ f \in X' : i'(f) = 0 \}.$$

Then Z is a closed subspace of X'. Let  $Q: X' \to X'/Z$  be the quotient map Qf = f + Z. There is an isometry j from X'/Z onto Y' such that  $i' = j \circ Q$ . In particular, Y' is isometric to a quotient space of X'.

Let X be a normed space. Since X' is also a normed space (in fact, a Banach space), it has a dual X'' = (X')'. X'' is the space of bounded linear functionals on X'.

**Proposition 64.** (Canonical embedding of X in X") Let X be a normed space. For each  $x \in X$ , define

$$F_x: X' \to \mathbb{K} \ by \ F_x(f) = f(x).$$

Then  $F_x \in X''$ . Moreover, the map  $J: X \to X''$  defined by  $Jx = F_x$  is an isometry from X into X''.

The map  $J_X$  is called the **canonical embedding of** X **into** X''. A normed space X is **reflexive** if  $J_X$  maps X onto X''.

**Proposition 65.** Let X and Y be normed spaces and let  $T: X \to Y$  be a bounded linear map. Denote the canonical embeddings from X into X'' and Y into Y'' by  $J_X$  and  $J_Y$  respectively. Then  $J_YT = T''J_X$ .

**Proposition 66.** (1) Any finite dimensional normed space is reflexive.

- (2) If X is a reflexive normed space, then X is complete and hence a Banach space.
- (3) A normed space is reflexive if and only if all of its closed subspaces are reflexive.
- (4) Let X and Y be isomorphic normed spaces. Then either both X and Y are reflexive or neither one is reflexive.
- (5) A Banach space X is reflexive if and only if X' is reflexive.

**Proposition 67.** The spaces  $c_0$  and  $\ell^1$  are not reflexive.

**Proposition 68.** Let  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be a measure space. Both  $L^1(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  and  $L^{\infty}(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  are nonreflexive unless finite dimensional.

**Proposition 69.** Let K be an infinite compact Hausdorff space. Then C(K) is not reflexive.

**Proposition 70.** Any Hilbert space is a reflexive Banach space.

We will return to consider the reflexivity of  $L^p$  spaces for 1 .

**Example 78.** It is known that if  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  with respect to Lebesgue measure, then the Fourier transform

$$\widehat{f}(x) = \int f(y)e^{-ixy} d\lambda(y)$$

is a continuous function on  $\mathbb R$  such that  $\lim_{|x|\to\infty}\widehat f(x)=0$ . However: There exists a continuous function g on  $\mathbb R$  with  $\lim_{|x|\to\infty}g(x)=0$  so that g is not the Fourier transform of any function in  $L^1(\mathbb R)$ .

8. Weak and weak\* topologies. Locally convex spaces. Separation theorems.

**Proposition 79.** (Weak and weak\* topologies) Let X be a normed space with dual space X'.

(1) Let I be a finite subset of X',  $x \in X$  and r > 0. Define

$$B_I(x,r) = \{ y \in X : |f(x) - f(y)| < r \text{ for all } f \in I \}.$$

Then the family

$$\mathcal{B} = \{B_I(x,r) : I \text{ is a finite subset of } X', x \in X, r > 0\}$$

is a basis for a topology on X, called the **weak topology**.

(2) Let I be a finite subset of X,  $f \in X'$  and r > 0. Define

$$B_I(f,r) = \{ g \in X' : |f(x) - g(x)| < r \text{ for all } x \in I \}.$$

Then the family

$$\mathcal{B} = \{B_I(f,r) : I \text{ is a finite subset of } X, f \in X', r > 0\}$$

is a basis for a topology on X', called the **weak\* topology**.

It is easy to check that every weakly open set in X is norm open and every weak\* open set in X' is norm open. I will denote the weak topology on X by w and the weak\* topology on X' by  $w^*$ . These topologies are locally convex vector topologies in the following sense.

**Definition 80.** Let X be a vector space and let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a topology on X.  $\mathcal{T}$  is a vector topology and  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is a topological vector space (TVS) if the maps

$$+: X \times X \to X, +(x,y) = x + y \text{ and} : \mathbb{K} \times X \to X, \cdot (\alpha,x) = \alpha x$$

are continuous. Here, X is given the topology  $\mathcal{T}$ ,  $\mathbb{K}$  is given the norm topology, and  $X \times X$  and  $\mathbb{K} \times X$  are given the respective product topologies. A vector topology  $\mathcal{T}$  is locally convex if for any  $x \in X$  and any  $U \in \mathcal{T}$  with  $x \in U$ , there exists a convex set  $V \in \mathcal{T}$  such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ . If  $\mathcal{T}$  is a locally convex vector topology on X, we say that  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is a locally convex topological vector space (LCTVS).

**Proposition 81.** Let X be a normed space. Then (X, w) and  $(X', w^*)$  are locally convex topological vector spaces. Both topologies are Hausdorff.

**Proposition 82.** Let X be a normed space.

- (1) (X, w)' = X', i.e., a linear functional f on X is norm continuous if and only if it is continuous with respect to the weak topology.
- (2)  $(X', w^*)' = X$ , i.e., a linear functional F on X' is continuous with respect to the weak\* topology if and only if there exists (unique)  $x \in X$  such that F(f) = f(x) for all  $f \in X'$ .

**Proposition 83.** Let X and Y be normed spaces. Suppose that  $T: X \to Y$  is a bounded linear operator. Then T is continuous with respect to the weak topologies on X and Y respectively.

The following geometric versions of the Hahn-Banach Theorem are extremely useful. We will see some applications shortly.

**Theorem 84.** (First separation theorem) Let A and B be disjoint, nonempty, convex sets in a TVS X. Suppose that A is open. Then there exist  $f \in X'$  and  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\operatorname{Re} f(x) < \gamma \leq \operatorname{Re} f(y)$$
 for all  $x \in A$  and all  $y \in B$ .

**Theorem 85.** (Second separation theorem) Let A and B be disjoint, nonempty, convex sets in an LCTVS X. Suppose that A is compact and B is closed. Then there exist  $f \in X'$  and  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\operatorname{Re} f(x) \leq \gamma_1 < \gamma_2 \leq \operatorname{Re} f(y)$$
 for all  $x \in A$  and all  $y \in B$ .

**Theorem 86.** (Mazur) Let X be normed space and let C be a convex subset of X. Then the norm closure of C and the weak closure of C coincide.

**Corollary 87.** Let X be a normed space and let  $(x_k)$  be a sequence in X. Suppose that there exists  $x_0 \in X$  so that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} f(x_k) = f(x_0)$  for all  $f \in X'$ . Then there is a sequence  $(y_k)$  in  $\operatorname{co}\{x_k : k \in \mathbb{N}\}$  so that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} y_k = x_0$  in norm.

**Example 88.** Let  $X = L^2[0, 2\pi]$ . Fix a sequence  $(c_k)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  so that  $\lim c_k = \infty$ . Set  $g_k(x) = e^{ic_k x}$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $g_k \in X$ . For any  $f \in L^2[0, 2\pi]$ , extend it to a function on  $\mathbb{R}$  be defining it to be 0 outside the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$ . Then we may regard f as a function in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . The value of its Fourier transform at  $c_k$  is

$$\widehat{f}(c_k) = \int_0^{2\pi} f(y)e^{-ic_k y} d\lambda(y) = \int f\overline{g_k} d\lambda = \langle f, g_k \rangle,$$

where the last inner product is the standard inner product on  $L^2[0,\pi]$ . Since  $L^2[0,2\pi]$  is a Hilbert space, by the Riesz Representation Theorem (Theorem 49), any  $F \in X'$  is determined by some function  $f \in L^2[0,2\pi]$  so that

$$F(h) = \langle h, f \rangle \text{ for all } h \in L^2[0, 2\pi].$$

Then

$$F(g_k) = \langle g_k, f \rangle = \overline{\widehat{f}(c_k)} \to 0$$
 by the Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma.

By Corollary 87, there is a sequence  $(h_k)$  in  $\operatorname{co}\{g_k: k \in \mathbb{N}\}$  such that  $||h_k||_2 \to 0$ .

**Remark.** If  $c_k$ 's are taken to be integers (diverging to  $\infty$ ), then  $(g_k)$  is a bounded orthogonal sequence. So the averages  $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^n g_k$  converge to 0 in  $L^2[0,2\pi]$ .

It is an important observation that the weak and weak\* topologies are manifestations of certain product topologies.

**Proposition 89.** Let X be a normed space.

- (1) The map  $i_X: X \to \mathbb{K}^{X'}$  defined by  $i_X(x) = (f(x))_{f \in X'}$  is injective. If X is given the weak topology and  $\mathbb{K}^{X'}$  is given the product topology, then  $i_X: X \to i_X(X)$  is a continuous function with a continuous inverse.
- (2) The map  $j_{X'}: X' \to \mathbb{K}^X$  defined by  $j_{X'}(f) = (f(x))_{x \in X}$  is injective. If X' is given the weak\* topology and  $\mathbb{K}^X$  is given the product topology, then  $j_{X'}: X' \to j_{X'}(X')$  is a continuous function with a continuous inverse.

**Theorem 90.** (Banach-Alaoglu) Let X be a normed space. Then  $B_{X'}$  is compact in the weak\* topology.

**Theorem 91.** (Gantmacher) Let X be a normed space and let  $J: X \to X''$  be the canonical embedding. (See Proposition 64.) Then the closure of  $J(B_X)$  in the weak\* topology on X'' (generated by X') is equal to  $B_{X''}$ .

The next result should be compared with Theorem 37.

**Theorem 92.** Let X be a normed space. Then X is reflexive if and only if  $B_X$  is compact in the weak topology.

#### 9. Radon-Nikodym Theorem and the dual of $L^p$

Let  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be a finite measure space and let  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . Set q = p/(p-1)  $(q = \infty \text{ if } p = 1)$ . The main point of this section is to show that the dual space of  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  can be represented as the space  $L^q(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ . The main tool needed is the Radon-Nikodym Theorem. Let  $\Sigma$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of a set  $\Omega$  and let  $\mu, \nu$  be measures defined on  $\Sigma$ . We say that  $\nu$  is **absolutely continuous with respect to**  $\mu$  if  $\nu(E) = 0$  for all  $E \in \Sigma$  with  $\mu(E) = 0$ .

**Theorem 93.** (Radon-Nikodym Theorem) Let  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  be finite measures defined on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\Sigma$  of subsets of  $\Omega$ . Assume that  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$ . Then there exists a nonnegative  $\Sigma$ -measurable function f such that  $\nu(E) = \int_E f \, d\mu$  for all  $E \in \Sigma$ . Moreover, f is uniquely determined up to equality  $\mu$ -a.e.

Suppose that  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ . A functional  $F \in (L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu))'$  is said to be **positive** if  $F(f) \geq 0$  for any  $f \in L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  such that  $f \geq 0$   $\mu$ -a.e.

**Lemma 94.** Suppose that  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$  and that  $F \in (L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu))'$ . There exists a positive  $G \in (L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu))'$  such that both G - F and G + F are positive. G can be chosen so that ||G|| = ||F||.

**Theorem 95.** (The dual of  $L^p$ ) Let  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be a finite measure space. Suppose that  $1 \leq p < \infty$  and q = p/(p-1)  $(1/0 = \infty)$ . Any  $g \in L^q(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  determines a bounded linear functional  $F_g$  on  $L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  by  $F_g(f) = \int fg \, d\mu$ . Moreover,  $||F_g|| = ||g||_q$ . Conversely, for any  $F \in (L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu))'$ , there is a unique  $g \in L^q(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  such that  $F = F_g$ . The map  $T : g \mapsto F_g$  is an isometry from  $L^q(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  onto  $(L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu))'$ .

**Corollary 96.** (Reflexivity of  $L^p$ ) Let  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be a finite measure space and let  $1 . Then <math>L^p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is a reflexive Banach space.

**Remark**. Theorem 93 continues to hold if  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are only assumed to be  $\sigma$ -finite. Theorem 95 and Corollary 96 hold for all measure spaces if 1 . If <math>p = 1, Theorem 95 still holds if  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite. Theorem 95 never holds if  $p = \infty$  and  $L^{\infty}(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is infinite dimensional.

10. The space 
$$C(K)$$

In this section, we study the space C(K) as a Banach space, where K is a compact Hausdoff topological space. Recall that the norm on C(K) is the sup-norm:  $||f|| = \sup_{t \in K} |f(t)|$ . For notational convenience, I will assume that  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$  in this section.

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  denote the Borel sets in K, i.e, the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open sets in K. A measure defined on the measurable space  $(K, \mathcal{B})$  is called a **Borel measure**. A Borel measure  $\mu$  is **regular** if for every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ,

$$\mu(E) = \sup\{\mu(F) : F \subseteq E, F \text{ compact}\} = \inf\{\mu(O) : E \subseteq O, O \text{ open}\}.$$

**Proposition 97.** Let  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  be regular Borel measures on  $(K, \mathcal{B})$ . Define

$$F: C(K) \to \mathbb{R} \ by \ F(f) = \int f \, d\mu_1 - \int f \, d\mu_2.$$

Then  $F \in (C(K))'$  and  $||F|| \le \mu_1(K) + \mu_2(K)$ .

A functional  $F \in C(K)'$  is said to be **positive** if  $F(f) \ge 0$  for any  $f \in C(K)$  with  $f \ge 0$ .

**Lemma 98.** Let  $F \in C(K)'$ . There is a positive  $G \in C(K)'$  such that G - F and G + F are both positive. G can be chosen so that ||F|| = ||G||.

**Theorem 99.** Let  $F \in C(K)'$  be a positive functional. There is a unique regular Borel measure on  $(K, \mathcal{B})$  so that

$$F(f) = \int f d\mu \text{ for all } f \in C(K).$$

Moreover,  $||F|| = \mu(K)$ .

If H is a general element of C(K)', there is a unique pair of regular Borel measures  $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  on  $(K, \mathcal{B})$  so that  $||H|| = \mu_1(K) + \mu_2(K)$  and that

$$H(f) = \int f d\mu_1 - \int f d\mu_2 \text{ for all } f \in C(K).$$

We give several applications of Theorem 99 below. Recall that two topological spaces V and W are **homeomorphic** if there is a continuous bijection  $h: V \to W$  so that  $h^{-1}$  is also continuous.

**Proposition 100.** For each  $t \in K$ , define  $\delta_t : C(K) \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $\delta_t(f) = f(t)$ . Then  $\delta_t \in C(K)'$  and  $\|\delta_t\| = 1$ .

Give the set  $S = \{\delta_t : t \in K\}$  the weak\* topology (as a subset of C(K)'). The function  $h : K \to S$  defined by  $h(t) = \delta_t$  is a homeomorphism.  $B_{C(K)'}$  is the weak\*-closure of the convex hull  $co\{\pm \delta_t : t \in K\}$ .

A normed space is said to be **separable** if it contains a countable dense subset.

**Theorem 101.** Let K be a compact Hausdorff topological space. The space C(K) is separable if and only if the topology on K is given by a metric.

Let  $\Delta$  be the Cantor set. We will use the following result from the theory of metric spaces.

**Theorem 102.** Let K be a compact metric space. There is a continuous function  $\pi$  from  $\Delta$  onto K.

**Theorem 103.**  $(C(\Delta))$  as a universal separable Banach space) Let X be a separable Banach space. Then X is isometric to a subspace of  $C(\Delta)$ .

Let X be a Banach space. An element  $x \in B_X$  is an **extreme point** of  $B_X$  if  $x = \frac{y+z}{2}$ ,  $y, z \in B_X$  implies that y = z = x.

**Theorem 104.** (Banach-Stone Theorem) Let K and L be compact Hausdorff spaces. Then C(K) is isometric to C(L) if and only if K and L are homeomorphic.

11. Compact operators. Spectral theorem of compact self-adjoint operators on Hilbert space.

Let X and Y be normed spaces. A linear map  $T: X \to Y$  is **compact** if  $\overline{TB_X}$  is a compact set in Y. A compact map is always bounded. (Verify!) The set of compact linear maps from X to Y is denoted by K(X,Y). A bounded linear operator  $T: X \to Y$ , where X and Y are normed spaces, is a **finite rank** operator if range T is finite dimensional.

**Proposition 105.** Let X and Y be normed spaces. Any finite rank operator  $T \in L(X,Y)$  is compact.

K(X,Y) has the following properties which are similar to those of an "ideal" in the sense of abstract algebra.

**Proposition 106.** Let W, X, Y and Z be normed spaces.

- (1) If  $T, S \in K(X, Y)$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$ , then  $\alpha T + S \in K(X, Y)$ .
- (2) If  $T \in K(X,Y)$ ,  $R \in L(Y,Z)$ ,  $S \in L(W,X)$ , then  $RT \in K(X,Z)$  and  $TS \in K(W,Y)$ .

**Proposition 107.** Let X be a normed space and let Y be a Banach space. Let  $(T_n)$  be a sequence in K(X,Y) and suppose that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} ||T_n - T|| = 0$  for some bounded linear map  $T \in L(X,Y)$ . Then  $T \in K(X,Y)$ .

**Theorem 108.** (Schauder) Let  $T: X \to Y$  be a bounded linear map between Banach spaces X and Y. Then T is compact if and only if T' is compact.

Let X be a Banach space. Denote the identity operator on X by  $I: X \to X$ .

**Proposition 109.** Let X be a Banach space and let  $K: X \to X$  be a compact linear map. If  $\ker(I - K) \neq \{0\}$ , then I - K cannot be surjective.

Let Y be a closed subspace of a Banach space X. Y is said to have **finite** codimension in X if X/Y is finite dimensional. In this case,  $\dim(X/Y)$  is called the codimension of Y in X and is denoted by  $\operatorname{codim} Y$ .

**Theorem 110.** (Fredholm alternative) Let X be a Banach space and let  $K: X \to X$  be a compact linear map. Define T = I - K, where I is the identity map on X.

- (1) The kernel of T,  $\ker T = \{x \in X : Tx = 0\}$ , is a finite dimensional subspace of X.
- (2) The range of T, range  $T = \{Tx : x \in X\}$ , is a closed subspace of X with finite codimension.
- (3) The kernel of T' is a finite dimensional subspace of X'.
- (4) The range of T' is a closed subspace of X' with finite codimension.
- (5) A vector x belongs to range T if and only if f(x) = 0 for all  $f \in \ker T'$ .
- (6)  $\dim \ker T = \operatorname{codim} \operatorname{range} T = \dim \ker T' = \operatorname{codim} \operatorname{range} T'$ .

**Definition 111.** Let X be a Banach space and let  $T: X \to X$  be a bounded linear map. A scalar  $\lambda$  is in the **spectrum of** T,  $\sigma(T)$ , if  $\lambda I - T$  does

not have an inverse in L(X). An **eigenvalue** of T is a scalar  $\lambda$  such that  $\ker(\lambda I - T) \neq \{0\}$ . The subspace  $\ker(\lambda I - T)$  is called the **eigenspace** of T corresponding to  $\lambda$ . We denote it by  $X_{\lambda}$ .

**Theorem 112.** Let X be a Banach space and  $K: X \to X$  a compact linear map.

- (1)  $\sigma(K) = \sigma(K')$ .
- (2) If  $\lambda$  is a nonzero number in  $\sigma(K)$ , then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of K and and eigenvalue of K'.
- (3) The spectrum of K is either a finite set or of the form  $\{\lambda_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{0\}$  for a sequence  $(\lambda_n)$  that converges to 0. If X is infinite dimensional,  $0 \in \sigma(K)$ .
- 11.1. Compact operators on Hilbert space. Spectral theorem. Let X be a Hilbert space and let T be a bounded linear operator on X. Recall from Corollary 50 that the Hilbert adjoint operator  $T^*$  is the bounded linear operator on X determined by the equation

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$$

for all  $x, y \in X$ . Moreover,  $||T^*|| = ||T||$ .

<u>Caution</u>. A Hilbert space X may be regarded as a Banach space. Then any bounded linear operator on X also has a Banach adjoint T'. (See Proposition 62.) The Banach and Hilbert adjoints act on different spaces, so they cannot be equal.

**Proposition 113.** Let S and T be bounded linear operators on a Hilbert space X and let  $\alpha$  be a scalar. Then

- $(1) ||T|| = ||T^*||,$
- (2)  $(S+T)^* = S^* + T^*$ ,
- (3)  $(\alpha T)^* = \overline{\alpha} T^*$ ,
- (4)  $(ST)^* = T^*S^*$ ,
- (5)  $T^{**} = T$ .

**Definition 114.** Let X be a Hilbert space. An bounded linear operator  $T: X \to X$  is said to be **self-adjoint** if  $T^* = T$ .

**Definition 115.** A linear map  $P: X \to X$  on a Hilbert space X is an **orthogonal projection** if there is a closed subspace Y of X so that Py = y for all  $y \in Y$  and Pz = 0 for all  $z \in Y^{\perp}$ .

**Proposition 116.** Let X be a Hilbert space. Every closed subspace Y is the range of an orthogonal projection. A bounded linear map  $P: X \to X$  is an orthogonal projection if and only if  $P^2 = P$  and  $P^* = P$ .

**Proposition 117.** Let T be a bounded self-adjoint operator on a Hilbert space X. Then

(1) Any eigenvalue of T is a real number.

- (2) If  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are distinct eigenvalues of T, then  $X_{\lambda} \perp X_{\mu}$ , i.e.,  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$  if  $x \in X_{\lambda}$  and  $y \in X_{\mu}$ .
- (3) If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of T and  $P_{\lambda}$  denotes the orthogonal projection onto  $X_{\lambda}$ , then  $TP_{\lambda} = P_{\lambda}T$ .
- $(4) ||T|| = \sup\{|\langle Tx, x \rangle| : ||x|| \le 1\}.$
- (5) Either ||T|| or -||T|| belongs to  $\sigma(T)$ .

**Theorem 118.** (Spectral theorem for compact self-adjoint operators) Let T be a compact self-adjoint operator on a Hilbert space X.

- (1) The spectrum of T is either a finite set or of the form  $\{\lambda_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{0\}$  for a real sequence  $(\lambda_n)$  that converges to 0. If X is infinite dimensional,  $0 \in \sigma(T)$ .
- (2) Each  $\lambda \in \sigma(T) \setminus \{0\}$  is an eigenvalue of T. Denote the orthogonal projection onto the eigenspace  $\ker(\lambda I T)$  by  $P_{\lambda}$ .
- (3)  $T = \sum_{\lambda \in \sigma(T) \setminus \{0\}} \lambda P_{\lambda}$ , where the sum converges in operator norm.

If  $\sigma(T)$  is a finite set, then the sum in (3) has only finitely many terms and convergence does not come into play. If  $\sigma(T)$  is an infinite set, then  $\sigma(T) \setminus \{0\}$  is an infinite sequence  $(\lambda_n)$  that converges to 0. Then the sum in (3) is defined to be  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n P_{\lambda_n}$ .