

# Several Important Theorems

by

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## 1 The Projection Theorem

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. When  $V$  is a finite dimensional subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ , we can always find a unique  $p \in V$  such that  $\|f - p\| = \min_{v \in V} \|f - v\|$ . This fact is the foundation of least-squares approximation. What happens when we allow  $V$  to be infinite dimensional? We will see that the minimization problem can be solved if and only if  $V$  is closed.

**Theorem 1.1** (The Projection Theorem). *Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space and let  $V$  be a subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ . For every  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  there is a unique  $p \in V$  such that  $\|f - p\| = \min_{v \in V} \|f - v\|$  if and only if  $V$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ .*

To prove this, we need the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.2** (Polarization Identity). *Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. For every pair  $f, g \in \mathcal{H}$ , we have*

$$\|f + g\|^2 + \|f - g\|^2 = 2(\|f\|^2 + \|g\|^2).$$

*Proof.* Adding the  $\pm$  identities  $\|f \pm g\|^2 = \|f\|^2 \pm \langle f, g \rangle \pm \langle g, f \rangle + \|g\|^2$  yields the result.  $\square$

The polarization identity is an easy consequence of having an inner product. It is surprising that if a *norm* satisfies the polarization identity, then the norm *comes* from an inner product<sup>1</sup>.

*Proof.* (Projection Theorem) Showing that the existence of minimizer implies that  $V$  is closed is left as an exercise. So we assume that  $V$  is closed. For  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ , let  $\alpha := \inf_{v \in V} \|v - f\|$ . It is a little easier to work with this in an equivalent form,  $\alpha^2 = \inf_{v \in V} \|v - f\|^2$ . Thus, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $v_\varepsilon \in V$  such that  $\alpha^2 \leq \|v_\varepsilon - f\|^2 < \alpha^2 + \varepsilon$ . By choosing  $\varepsilon = 1/n$ , where  $n$  is a positive integer, we can find a sequence  $\{v_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  in  $V$  such that

$$0 \leq \|v_n - f\|^2 - \alpha^2 < \frac{1}{n} \tag{1.1}$$

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<sup>1</sup>Jordan, P. ; Von Neumann, J. On inner products in linear, metric spaces. Ann. of Math. (2) 36 (1935), no. 3, 719–723.

Of course, the same inequality holds for a possibly different integer  $m$ ,  $0 \leq \|v_m - f\|^2 - \alpha^2 < \frac{1}{m}$ . Adding the two yields this:

$$0 \leq \|v_n - f\|^2 + \|v_m - f\|^2 - 2\alpha^2 < \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m}. \quad (1.2)$$

By polarization identity and a simple manipulation, we have

$$\|v_n - v_m\|^2 + 4\|f - \frac{v_n + v_m}{2}\|^2 = 2(\|f - v_n\|^2 + \|f - v_m\|^2).$$

We can subtract  $4\alpha^2$  from both sides and use (1.2) to get

$$\|v_n - v_m\|^2 + 4(\|f - \frac{v_n + v_m}{2}\|^2 - \alpha^2) = 2(\|f - v_n\|^2 + \|f - v_m\|^2 - 2\alpha^2) < \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{m}.$$

Because  $\frac{1}{2}(v_n + v_m) \in V$ ,  $\|f - \frac{v_n + v_m}{2}\|^2 \geq \inf_{v \in V} \|v - f\|^2 = \alpha^2$ . It follows that the second term on the left is nonnegative. Dropping it makes the left side smaller:

$$\|v_n - v_m\|^2 < \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{m}. \quad (1.3)$$

As  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$ , we see that  $\|v_n - v_m\| \rightarrow 0$ . Thus  $\{v_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathcal{H}$  and is therefore convergent to a vector  $p \in \mathcal{H}$ . Since  $V$  is closed,  $p \in V$ . Furthermore, taking limits in (1.1) implies that  $\|p - f\| = \inf_{v \in V} \|v - f\|$ . The uniqueness of  $p$  is left as an exercise.  $\square$

There are two important corollaries to this theorem; they follow from problem 4 of Assignment 1, 2021, and Theorem 1.1. We list them below.

**Corollary 1.3.** *Let  $V$  be a subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ . There exists an orthogonal projection  $P : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow V$  for which  $\|f - Pf\| = \min_{v \in V} \|f - v\|$  if and only if  $V$  is closed.*

**Corollary 1.4.** *Let  $V$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then,  $\mathcal{H} = V \oplus V^\perp$  and  $(V^\perp)^\perp = V$ .*

## 2 The Riesz Representation Theorem

Let  $V$  be a Banach space. A bounded linear transformation  $\Phi$  that maps  $V$  into  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$  is called a *linear functional* on  $V$ . The linear functionals form a Banach space  $V^*$ , called the *dual space* of  $V$ , with norm defined by

$$\|\Phi\|_{V^*} := \sup_{v \neq 0} \frac{|\Phi(v)|}{\|v\|_V}.$$

## 2.1 The linear functionals on Hilbert space

**Theorem 2.1** (The Riesz Representation Theorem). *Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space and let  $\Phi : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  (or  $\mathbb{R}$ ) be a bounded linear functional on  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then, there is a unique  $g \in \mathcal{H}$  such that, for all  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\Phi(f) = \langle f, g \rangle$ .*

*Proof.* The functional  $\Phi$  is a bounded operator that maps  $\mathcal{H}$  into the scalars. It follows from our discussion of bounded operators that the null space of  $\Phi$ ,  $N(\Phi)$ , is closed. If  $N(\Phi) = \mathcal{H}$ , then  $\Phi(f) = 0$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ , hence  $\Phi = 0$ . Thus we may take  $g = 0$ . If  $N(\Phi) \neq \mathcal{H}$ , then, since  $N(\Phi)$  is closed, we have that  $\mathcal{H} = N(\Phi) \oplus N(\Phi)^\perp$ . In addition, since  $N(\Phi) \neq \mathcal{H}$ , there exists a nonzero vector  $h \in N(\Phi)^\perp$ . Moreover,  $\Phi(h) \neq 0$ , because  $h$  is not in the null space  $N(\Phi)$ . Next, note that for  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ , the vector  $w := \Phi(h)f - \Phi(f)h$  is in  $N(\Phi)$ . To see this, observe that

$$\Phi(w) = \Phi(\Phi(h)f - \Phi(f)h) = \Phi(h)\Phi(f) - \Phi(f)\Phi(h) = 0.$$

Because  $w = \Phi(h)f - \Phi(f)h \in N(\Phi)$ , it is orthogonal to  $h \in N(\Phi)^\perp$ , we have that

$$0 = \langle \Phi(h)f - \Phi(f)h, h \rangle = \Phi(h)\langle f, h \rangle - \Phi(f)\underbrace{\langle h, h \rangle}_{\|h\|^2}.$$

Solving this equation for  $\Phi(f)$  yields  $\Phi(f) = \langle f, \frac{\overline{\Phi(h)}}{\|h\|^2}h \rangle$ . The vector  $g := \frac{\overline{\Phi(h)}}{\|h\|^2}h$  then satisfies  $\Phi(f) = \langle f, g \rangle$ . To show uniqueness, suppose  $g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{H}$  satisfy  $\Phi(f) = \langle f, g_1 \rangle$  and  $\Phi(f) = \langle f, g_2 \rangle$ . Subtracting these two gives  $\langle f, g_2 - g_1 \rangle = 0$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ . Letting  $f = g_2 - g_1$  results in  $\langle g_2 - g_1, g_2 - g_1 \rangle = 0$ . Consequently,  $g_2 = g_1$ .  $\square$

## 2.2 Adjoints of bounded linear operators

We now turn the problem of showing that an adjoint for a bounded operator always exists. This is just a corollary of the Riesz Representation Theorem.

**Corollary 2.2.** *Let  $L : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  be a bounded linear operator. Then there exists a bounded linear operator  $L^* : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ , called the adjoint of  $L$ , such that  $\langle Lf, h \rangle = \langle f, L^*h \rangle$ , for all  $f, h \in \mathcal{H}$ .*

*Proof.* Fix  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  and define the linear functional  $\Phi_h(f) = \langle Lf, h \rangle$ . Using the boundedness of  $L$  and Schwarz's inequality, we have  $|\Phi_h(f)| \leq \|L\|\|f\|\|h\| = K\|f\|$ , and so  $\Phi_h$  is bounded. By Theorem 2.1, there is a

unique vector  $g$  in  $\mathcal{H}$  for which  $\Phi_h(f) = \langle f, g \rangle$ . The vector  $g$  is uniquely determined by  $\Phi_h$ ; thus  $g = g_h$  a function of  $h$ . We claim that  $g_h$  is a linear function of  $h$ . Consider  $h = ah_1 + bh_2$ . Note that  $\Phi_h(f) = \langle Lf, ah_1 + bh_2 \rangle = \bar{a}\Phi_{h_1}(f) + \bar{b}\Phi_{h_2}(f)$ . Since  $\Phi_{h_1}(f) = \langle f, g_1 \rangle$  and  $\Phi_{h_2}(f) = \langle f, g_2 \rangle$ , we see that

$$\Phi_h(f) = \langle f, g_h \rangle = \bar{a}\Phi_{h_1}(f) + \bar{b}\Phi_{h_2}(f) = \langle f, ag_{h_1} + bg_{h_2} \rangle.$$

It follows that  $g_h = ag_{h_1} + bg_{h_2}$  and that  $g_h$  is a linear function of  $h$ . It is also bounded. If  $f = g_h$ , then  $\Phi_h(g_h) = \|g_h\|^2$ . From the bound  $|\Phi_h(f)| \leq \|L\|\|f\|\|h\|$ , we have  $\|g_h\|^2 \leq \|L\|\|g_h\|\|h\|$ . Dividing by  $\|g_h\|$  then yields  $\|g_h\| \leq \|L\|\|h\|$ . Thus the correspondence  $h \rightarrow g_h$  is a bounded linear function on  $\mathcal{H}$ . Denote this function by  $L^*$ . Since  $\langle Lf, h \rangle = \langle f, g_h \rangle$ , we have that  $\langle Lf, h \rangle = \langle f, L^*h \rangle$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 2.3.**  $\|L^*\| = \|L\|$ .

*Proof.* By problem 7 in Assignment 7, 2021,  $\|L\| = \sup_{f,h} |\langle Lf, h \rangle|$ , where  $\|h\| = \|f\| = 1$ . On the other hand,  $\|L^*\| = \sup_{f,h} |\langle L^*h, f \rangle|$ . Since  $\langle L^*h, f \rangle = \overline{\langle f, L^*h \rangle}$ , we have that  $\sup_{f,h} |\langle L^*h, f \rangle| = \sup_{f,h} |\langle Lf, h \rangle|$ . It immediately follows that  $\|L^*\| = \|L\|$ .  $\square$

**Example 2.4.** Let  $R = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  and suppose that  $k$  is a Hilbert-Schmidt kernel. If  $Lu(x) = \int_0^1 k(x, y)u(y)dy$ , then  $L^*v(x) = \int_0^1 \overline{k(y, x)}v(y)dy$ .

*Proof.* We will use  $s, t$  as the integration variables and switch back, to avoid confusion. We begin with  $\langle Lu, v \rangle = \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^1 k(s, t)u(t)dt \right) \overline{v(s)}ds$ . By Fubini's theorem, we may switch the variables of integration to get this:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^1 k(s, t)u(t)dy \right) \overline{v(s)}ds &= \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^1 k(s, t)\overline{v(s)}ds \right) u(t)dt \\ &= \int_0^1 \left( \underbrace{\int_0^1 \overline{k(s, t)}v(s)ds}_{L^*v} \right) u(t)dt. \\ &= \langle u, L^*v \rangle \end{aligned}$$

The result follows by changing variables from  $t, s$  to  $x, y$  in the second equation above.  $\square$

### 3 The Fredholm Alternative

**Theorem 3.1** (The Fredholm Alternative). *Let  $L : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  be a bounded linear operator whose range,  $R(L)$ , is closed. Then, the equation  $Lf = g$*

and be solved if and only if  $\langle g, v \rangle = 0$  for all  $v \in N(L^*)$ . Equivalently,  $R(L) = N(L^*)^\perp$ .

*Proof.* Let  $g \in R(L)$ , so that there is an  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  such that  $g = Lh$ . If  $v \in N(L^*)$ , then  $\langle g, v \rangle = \langle Lh, v \rangle = \langle h, L^*v \rangle = 0$ . Consequently,  $R(L) \subseteq N(L^*)^\perp$ . Let  $f \in N(L^*)^\perp$ . Since  $R(L)$  is closed, the projection theorem, Theorem 1.1, and Corollary 1.3, imply that there exists an orthogonal projection  $P$  onto  $R(L)$  such that  $Pf \in R(L)$  and  $f' = f - Pf \in R(L)^\perp$ . Moreover, since  $f$  and  $Pf$  are both in  $N(L^*)^\perp$ , we have that  $f' \in R(L)^\perp \cap N(L^*)^\perp$ . Hence,  $\langle Lh, f' \rangle = 0 = \langle h, L^*f' \rangle$ , for all  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ . Setting  $h = L^*f'$  then yields  $L^*f' = 0$ , so  $f' \in N(L^*)$ . But  $f' \in N(L^*)^\perp$  and is thus orthogonal to itself; hence,  $f' = 0$  and  $f = Pf \in R(L)$ . It immediately follows that  $N(L^*)^\perp \subseteq R(L)$ . Since we already know that  $R(L) \subseteq N(L^*)^\perp$ , we have  $R(L) = N(L^*)^\perp$ .  $\square$

We want to point out that  $R(L)$  being closed is crucial for the theorem to be true. If it is not closed, then the projection  $P$  will not exist and the proof breaks down. In that case, one actually has  $\overline{R(L)} = N(L^*)^\perp$ , but *not*  $R(L) = N(L^*)^\perp$ .

The theorem is stated in a variety of ways. The form that emphasizes the “alternative” is given in the result below, which follows immediately from Theorem 3.1.

**Corollary 3.2.** *Let  $L : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  be a bounded linear operator whose range,  $R(L)$ , is closed. Then, either the equation  $Lf = g$  has a solution or there exists a vector  $v \in N(L^*)$  such that  $\langle g, v \rangle \neq 0$ .*

Previous: bounded operators and closed subspaces

Next: an example of the Fredholm Alternative and a resolvent