

# Functional Analysis

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These are preparation notes for a course on Functional Analysis at IMPA, summer 2024.

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## 1 Measure theory

A measure should surely satisfy:

1. If  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  is a finite or infinite sequence of disjoint sets,

$$\mu(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots) = \mu(E_1) + \mu(E_2) + \dots$$

2. If  $E$  is congruent to  $F$ ,

$$\mu(E) = \mu(F)$$

3. If  $Q$  is the unit cube,

$$\mu(Q) = 1$$

## 1.1 $\sigma$ -algebras

Let  $X$  be a nonempty set.

- An **algebra of sets** on  $X$  is a nonempty collection  $\mathcal{A}$  of subsets of  $X$  that is closed under finite unions and complements, that is,
  1. If  $E_1, \dots, E_n \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i \in \mathcal{A}$ .
  2. If  $E \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $E^c \in \mathcal{A}$ .
- A  **$\sigma$ -algebra** is an algebra of sets closed under countable unions.
- The intersection of all  $\sigma$ -algebras containing any subset  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is the  **$\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{E}$** .
- The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open sets of a topological (or metric) space  $X$  is the **Borel algebra**  $\mathcal{B}_X$ .
- Let  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  is a collection of nonempty sets,  $X = \prod_{\alpha} X_\alpha$  and  $\pi_\alpha : X \rightarrow X_\alpha$  the coordinate functions. If  $\mathcal{M}_\alpha$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $X_\alpha$ , the **product  $\sigma$ -algebra** on  $X$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by

$$\{\pi_\alpha(E_\alpha) : E_\alpha \in \mathcal{M}_\alpha, \alpha \in A\}$$

We denote this  $\sigma$ -algebra by  $\bigotimes_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{M}_\alpha$ .

**Proposition 1.1.**  $\bigotimes_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{M}_\alpha$  is generated by  $\{\prod_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha : E_\alpha \in \mathcal{M}_\alpha\}$ .

**Proposition 1.2.** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be metric spaces and let  $X = \prod_i X_i$  be equipped with the product metric. Then  $\bigotimes_i \mathcal{B}_i \subset \mathcal{B}_X$ . If every  $X_i$  is separable equality holds.

**Corollary 1.3.**  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ .

## 1.2 Measures

Let  $X$  be a set equipped with a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$ .

- A **measure** on  $\mathcal{M}$  (or on  $(X, \mathcal{M})$ , or simply on  $X$ ) is a function  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  such that
  1.  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ .
  2. if  $\{E_j\}_1^\infty$  is a sequence of disjoint sets in  $\mathcal{M}$ , then  $\mu(\bigcup_1^\infty E_j) = \sum_1^\infty \mu(E_j)$ .
- If  $X$  is a set and  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra,  $(X, \mathcal{M})$  is called a **measurable space** and the sets in  $\mathcal{M}$  are **measurable sets**. If  $\mu$  is a measure on  $(X, \mathcal{M})$ , then  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  is called a **measure space**.
- If  $\mu(X) < \infty$  (and hence  $\mu(E) < \infty$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ ),  $\mu$  is called  **$\sigma$ -finite**. If  $X = \bigcup_1^\infty E_j$ , with  $\mu(E_j) < \infty$ ,  $\mu$  is called  **$\sigma$ -finite**. If for every  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  with  $\mu(E) = \infty$  there exists  $F \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $F \subset E$  and  $0 < \mu(F) < \infty$ ,  $\mu$  is called **semifinite**.

**Theorem 1.4 (Properties of measure spaces).** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space.

1. **(Monotonicity.)** If  $E, F \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $E \subset F$ , then  $\mu(E) \leq \mu(F)$ .
  2. **(Subadditivity.)** If  $\{E_j\}_1^\infty \subset \mathcal{M}$ , then  $\mu(\bigcup_1^\infty E_j) \leq \sum_1^\infty \mu(E_j)$ .
  3. **(Continuity from below.)** If  $\{E_j\}_1^\infty \subset \mathcal{M}$ ,  $E_1 \subset E_2 \subset \dots$ , then  $\mu(\bigcup_1^\infty E_j) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \mu(E_j)$ .
  4. **(Continuity from above.)** If  $\{E_j\}_1^\infty \subset \mathcal{M}$ ,  $E_1 \supset E_2 \supset \dots$ , and  $\mu(E_1) < \infty$ , then  $\mu(\bigcap_1^\infty E_j) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \mu(E_j)$ .
- If  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\mu(E) = 0$ ,  $E$  is called a **null set**. If a statement about points in  $X$  is true except for points in a null set, we say it is true **almost everywhere**.
  - If  $\mu(E) = 0$  and  $F \subset E$ , then  $\mu(F) = 0$  provided  $F \in \mathcal{M}$ . A measure whose domain contains all subsets of null sets is **complete**. Completeness may help avoid technical difficulties, and it can always be achieved by enlarging the domain of  $\mu$ :

**Theorem 1.5.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure. Let  $\mathcal{N} = \{N \in \mathcal{M} : \mu(N) = 0\}$  and  $\bar{\mathcal{M}} = \{E \cup F : E \in \mathcal{M} \text{ and } F \subset N \text{ for some } N \in \mathcal{N}\}$ . Then  $\bar{\mathcal{M}}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, and there is a unique extension  $\bar{\mu}$  of  $\mu$  to a complete measure on  $\bar{\mathcal{M}}$ , called the **completion of  $\mu$** .

- Exercises
  1. If  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n$  are measures on  $(X, \mathcal{M})$  and  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in [0, \infty)$ , then  $\sum_1^n a_j \mu_j$  is also a measure on  $(X, \mathcal{M})$ .
  2.  $\mu(E \cup F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F) - \mu(E \cap F)$ .
  3. A set  $E \subset X$  is called **locally measurable** if  $E \cap A \in \mathcal{M}$  whenever  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\mu(A) < \infty$ . If  $\mathcal{M}$  equals the collection of the saturated sets  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$ , it is called **saturated**. The saturated measure  $\tilde{\mu}$  on  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  defined by  $\tilde{\mu}(E) = \mu(E)$  for  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\tilde{\mu}(E) = \infty$  otherwise is called the **saturation of  $\mu$** .

### 1.3 Outer measures

This is used to construct measures. The key idea is to approximate the measure of a set by simpler enclosing sets, like with the Riemann integral.

- An **outer measure** on a nonempty set  $X$  is a function  $\mu^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  that satisfies
  1.  $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$ ,
  2.  $\mu^*(A) \leq \mu^*(B)$  if  $A \subset B$ , and
  3.  $\mu^*(\bigcup_1^\infty A_j) \leq \sum_1^\infty \mu^*(A_j)$ .

**Proposition 1.6.** Let  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  and  $\rho : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be such that  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{E}$ ,  $X \in \mathcal{E}$  and  $\rho\emptyset = 0$ . For any  $A \subset X$ , define

$$\mu^*(A) = \inf \left\{ \sum_1^\infty \mu(E_j) : E_j \in \mathcal{E} \text{ and } A \subset \bigcup_1^\infty E_j \right\} \quad (1)$$

then  $\mu^*$  is an outer measure.

- A set  $A \subset X$  is called  $\mu$ -*measurable* if

$$\mu^*(E) = \mu^*(E \cap A) + \mu^*(E \cap A^c) \quad \text{for all } E \subset X$$

Which makes sense if we think  $E$  is a *well-behaved* set such that  $A \subset E$ , so that  $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(E) - \mu^*(E \cap A^c)$ .

**Theorem 1.7 (Carathéodory).** If  $\mu^*$  is an outer measure on  $X$ , the collection  $\mathcal{M}$  of  $\mu^*$ -measurable sets is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, and the restriction of  $\mu^*$  to  $\mathcal{M}$  is a complete measure.

- If  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is an algebra, the function  $\mu_0 : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a *premeasure* if
  - $\mu_0(\emptyset) = 0$ ,
  - If  $\{A_j\}_1^\infty$  is a sequence of disjoint sets in  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $\bigcup_1^\infty A_j \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\mu_0(\bigcup_1^\infty A_j) = \sum_1^\infty \mu_0(A_j)$ .

**Proposition 1.8.** If  $\mu_0$  is a premeasure on  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mu^*$  is defined by eq. (1) by taking  $\rho = \mu_0$ , then

1.  $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{A}} = \mu_0$ ,
2. every set in  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\mu^*$  measurable.

**Theorem 1.9.** Let  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  be an algebra,  $\mu_0$  a premeasure on  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{M}$  the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{A}$ . There exists a measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$  whose restriction to  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\mu_0$ —namely  $\mu = \mu^*|_{\mathcal{M}}$ , where  $\mu^*$  is given by eq. (1). (This is a consequence of Carathéodory's theorem and the last proposition.)

If  $\nu$  is another measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  that extends  $\mu_0$ , then  $\nu(E) \leq \mu(E)$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  with equality when  $\mu(E) < \infty$ . If  $\mu_0$  is  $\sigma$ -finite, then  $\mu$  is the unique extension of  $\mu_0$  to a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ .

- A **Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}$**  is a measure on  $\mathbb{R}$  whose domain is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ .

**Proposition 1.10.** Let  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be increasing and right continuous. If  $(a_j, b_j]$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, n$  are disjoint *half-open intervals*, so that  $0 \leq a_j, b_j \leq \infty$ , or  $(a_j, \infty)$ , or they are empty, define

$$\mu_0 \left( \bigcup_1^n (a_j, b_j] \right) = \sum_1^n [F(b_j) - F(a_j)]$$

and let  $\mu_0(\emptyset) = 0$ . Then  $\mu_0$  is a premeasure on the algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  of finite disjoint unions of half-open intervals.

**Theorem 1.11.** If  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is any increasing, right continuous function, there is a unique Borel measure  $\mu_F$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mu_F((a, b]) = F(b) - F(a) \forall a, b$ .

If  $G$  is another such function,  $\mu_F = \mu_G$  if and only if  $F - G$  is constant. Conversely, given a  $\mu$  Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}$  that is finite on all bounded Borel sets we may define an increasing right continuous function  $F$  such that  $\mu = \mu_F$ .

- By theorem 1.9, there is a complete measure  $\bar{\mu}_F$  whose domain includes  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ . In fact  $\bar{\mu}_F$  is the completion of  $\mu_F$  and its domain is strictly larger than  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ . This complete measure is called the **Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure** and is also denoted by  $\mu_F$ .

In the following  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure associated to some increasing, right-continuous function  $F$ , and  $\mathcal{M}_{\mu}$  is the domain of  $\mu$ .

**Theorem 1.12.** If  $E \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(E) &= \inf\{\mu(U) : E \subseteq U \text{ and } U \text{ is open}\} \\ &= \sup\{\mu(K) : K \subseteq E \text{ and } K \text{ is compact}\}\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 1.13.** If  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ , the following are equivalent:

1.  $E \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu}$ .
2.  $E = V \setminus N_1$  where  $V$  is a  $G_{\delta}$  (countable intersection of open sets) and  $\mu(N_1) = 0$ .
3.  $E = H \cup N_2$  where  $H$  is an  $F_{\sigma}$  (countable union of closed sets) set and  $\mu(N_2) = 0$ .

**Proposition 1.14.** If  $E \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu}$  and  $\mu(E) < \infty$ , then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a set  $A$  that is a finite union of open intervals such that  $\mu(E \triangle A) < \varepsilon$ .

- The **Lebesgue measure** is the Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure of  $F(x) = x$ . We denote it by  $m$  and its domain by  $\mathcal{L}$ .

**Theorem 1.15.** Is  $E \in \mathcal{L}$ , then  $E + s \in \mathcal{L}$  and  $rE \in \mathcal{L}$  for all  $s, r \in \mathbb{R}$ . Moreover,  $m(E + s) = m(E)$  and  $m(rE) = |r|m(E)$ .

**Proposition 1.16.** Let  $C$  be the Cantor set.  $C$  is compact, nowhere dense and totally disconnected (ie. the only connected subsets of  $C$  are single points).  $C$  has no isolated points.  $m(C) = 0$ .  $\text{card}(C) = \mathfrak{c}$ .

## 1.4 Integration

Now we construct integrals from simple functions.

- **(Measurable maps.)** Recall that a mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  between two sets induces a mapping  $f^{-1} : \mathcal{P}(Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$  defined by the inverse image, which preserves unions, intersection and complements, so that if  $\mathcal{N}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $Y$ , then  $\{f^{-1}(E) : E \in \mathcal{N}\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $X$ .

If  $(X, \mathcal{M})$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N})$  are measurable spaces, a mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is called *measurable* if  $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{N}$ .

**Proposition 1.17.** A function whose codomain is a product measure space is measurable if precomposing with every projection is measurable.

**Corollary 1.18.** A function  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is  $\mathcal{M}$ -measurable if and only if  $\operatorname{Re} f$  and  $\operatorname{Im} f$  are  $\mathcal{M}$ -measurable.

**Proposition 1.19.** If  $\mathcal{N}$  is generated by  $\mathcal{E}$ , then  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is measurable if and only if  $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{E}$ .

**Corollary 1.20.** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are metric (or topological spaces), every continuous function is  $(\mathcal{B}_X, \mathcal{B}_Y)$ -measurable.

**Proposition 1.21.** If  $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  are  $\mathcal{M}$ -measurable, then so are  $f + g$  and  $fg$ .

**Proposition 1.22.** If  $\{f_j\}$  is a sequence of  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ -valued measurable functions on  $(X, \mathcal{M})$ , then the functions

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_j f_j(x) & \quad \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j(x) \\ \inf_j f_j(x) & \quad \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j(x) \end{aligned}$$

are measurable. If

$$f(x) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j(x)$$

exists for every  $x \in X$ , then  $f$  is measurable.

**Corollary 1.23.** If  $f, g : X \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  is measurable, then so are  $\max(f, g)$  and  $\min(f, g)$ .

If  $f : X \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  we define the *positive* and *negative* parts of  $f$  as:

$$f^+(x) = \max(f(x), 0) \quad f^-(x) = \max(-f(x), 0)$$

Then  $f = f^+ - f^-$ , and if  $f$  is measurable, so are  $f^+$  and  $f^-$  by corollary 1.23.

- Let  $(X, \mathcal{M})$  be a measurable space. If  $E \subset X$ , the *characteristic or indicator function*  $\chi_E$  of  $E$  is

$$\chi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in E \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin E \end{cases}$$

A *simple function* is . The *integral of a simple function* is . The *integral of a measurable function* .

[Theorem 1.24 \(Monotone convergence\)](#). content...

[Theorem 1.25 \(Dominated convergence\)](#). content...

**Proposition 1.26 (Additivity of the integral)**. content...

- The *Lebesgue integral* is the integral we have developed then the measure is the Lebesgue measure.

[Theorem 1.27 \(Fubini-Tonelli\)](#).

1.

$$\int f d(\mu \times \nu) = \int \left( \int f(x, y) d\nu(y) \right) d\mu(x) = \int \left( \int f(x, y) d\mu(x) \right) d\nu(y)$$

2.

[Theorem 1.28 \(2.44\)](#).

$$\int \int f(x) dx = |\det T| \int f \circ T(x) dx$$

[Theorem 1.29 \(2.47, diffeomorphisms\)](#). content...

## 2 Point set topology

### 2.1 Metric spaces

A **metric** on a set  $X$  is a function  $\rho : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  such that

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

Two metrics  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  on a set  $X$  are **equivalent** if  $C\rho_1 \leq \rho_2 \leq C'\rho_1$  for some  $C, C' > 0$ .

**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $(X, d)$  and  $(Y, d')$  be metric spaces. If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ , the following are equivalent conditions for  $f$  to be **continuous**:

1.  $\forall x \in X \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 : f(B_\delta(x)) \subseteq B_\varepsilon(f(x))$
2.  $\forall x \in X \forall x_n \rightarrow x : f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ .
3.  $\forall F \subseteq Y$  open,  $f^{-1}(F)$  is open.
4.  $\forall F \subseteq Y$  closed,  $f^{-1}(F)$  is closed.

If  $f : (X, \rho) \rightarrow (Y, \rho')$  is such that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \forall x \in X : f(B_\delta(x)) \subseteq B_\varepsilon(f(x))$$

we say  $f$  is **uniformly continuous**.

**Exercise.** If  $(Y, \rho')$  is complete and  $f : A \rightarrow Y$  is uniformly continuous on  $A \subset X$  and  $\overline{A} = X$ , then  $f$  has a unique continuous extension  $g : X \rightarrow Y$  which is uniformly continuous on  $X$ . Show that this is not true in general if  $Y$  is not complete.

If  $f : (X, \rho) \rightarrow (Y, \rho')$  is a bijective function such that for any  $x, y \in X$ ,  $\rho(x, y) = \rho'(f(x), f(y))$  we say  $f$  is an **isometry** and the two spaces are **isometric**. A function  $f : (X, \rho) \rightarrow (X, \rho)$  is a **contraction** if there exists a  $0 < a < 1$  such that  $\rho(f(x), f(y)) \leq a\rho(x, y)$  for any  $x, y \in X$ . Every contraction is continuous, and if  $X$  is complete then any contraction has a unique fixed point.

A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in  $X$  **converges** to  $x$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(x_n, x) = 0$ . A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in  $X$  is called **Cauchy** if  $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow \infty} \rho(x_n, x_m) = 0$ , that is

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n, m > N : \rho(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon.$$

A subset  $E \subseteq X$  is **complete** if every Cauchy sequence in  $E$  converges to its limit in  $E$ . If  $(X, \rho)$  and  $(X^*, \rho^*)$  are metric spaces and

1.  $(X, \rho)$  is isometric to a subspace  $(X, \rho^*)$  of  $(X^*, \rho^*)$ ,
2. The closure of  $X_0$  is all of  $X^*$  ( $X_0$  is **everywhere dense** or simply **dense**),



we say  $(X^*, \rho^*)$  is the *completion* of  $(X, \rho)$ .

**Theorem 2.2.** Every metric space  $(X, \rho)$  has a completion  $(X^*, \rho^*)$ . If  $(X^{**}, \rho^{**})$  is also a completion of  $(X, \rho)$ , then  $(X^*, \rho^*)$  is isometric to  $(X^{**}, \rho^{**})$ ; that is, the completion of a space is unique up to isometry.

*Proof.* Consider equivalence classes of Cauchy sequences. □

**Proposition 2.3.** A closed subset of a metric space is complete, and a complete subset of an arbitrary metric space is closed.

**Theorem 2.4.** If  $E$  is a subset of a metric space  $(X, \rho)$ , the following are equivalent:

1.  $E$  is complete and **totally bounded** (it can be covered by finitely many balls of radius  $\varepsilon$ ).
2. **(Bolzano-Wierstrass Property.)** Every sequence in  $E$  has a subsequence that converges to a point in  $E$ .
3. **(Heine-Borel Property)** If  $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  is an open cover of  $E$ , then there is a finite subset  $F \subseteq A$  such that  $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in F}$  covers  $E$ .

A set that satisfies any of these conditions is called *compact*.

**Theorem 2.5.** If  $(X, \rho)$  is a metric space and  $A$  is compact, then  $A$  is closed and bounded.

If  $(X, \rho)$  is a metric space,  $A \subseteq X$  is **relatively compact** if  $\overline{A}$  is compact. If  $\varepsilon > 0$ , a subset  $N \subset X$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -*net with respect to*  $A$  if  $\forall x \in A \exists n \in N : \rho(x, n) < \varepsilon$ .  $A$  is **totally bounded** if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a finite  $\varepsilon$ -net with respect to  $A$ .

**Theorem 2.6.** Let  $(X, \rho)$  be a metric space and  $A \subseteq X$ . If for every sequence of points from  $A$  one can select a convergent subsequence, then  $A$  is totally bounded.

A set  $A$  is **countably compact** if every infinite subset of  $A$  has a limit point in  $A$ . All compact sets are countably compact.  $A$  is **sequentially compact** if every sequence in  $A$  has a subsequence that converges to a point in  $A$ . In a metric space, compactness is equivalent to countable and sequential compactness.

**Theorem 2.7.** Let  $(X, \rho)$  be a metric space and  $A \subseteq X$ .

1.  $A$  is relatively compact if and only if a convergent subsequence can be selected from every sequence of points in  $A$ . (We do not claim that the limit point is a member of  $A$ .)
2. If  $A$  is relatively compact, it is also totally bounded.
3. If  $(X, \rho)$  is complete and  $A$  is totally bounded, then  $A$  is relatively compact.
4. If  $A$  is compact then  $A$  is closed and totally bounded.

## 2.2 Topological spaces

If  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  are two topologies on a set  $X$ , we say  $\tau_1$  is *weaker* (or *coarser*) and  $\tau_2$  *stronger* (or *finer*).  $E \subseteq X$  is called *dense* if  $\overline{E} = X$  and *nowhere dense* if  $\overline{E}$  has empty interior.  $X$  is called *separable* if it has a countable dense subset.

- $T_0$  If  $x \neq y$ , there is an open set containing  $x$  but not  $y$ , or an open set containing  $y$  but not  $x$ .
- $T_1$  If  $x \neq y$ , there is an open set containing  $y$  but not  $x$ . Equivalently,  $\{x\}$  is closed for every  $x \in X$ .
- $T_2$  (**Hausdorff**.) If  $x \neq y$  there are disjoint open sets  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $x \in U$  and  $y \in V$ .
- $T_3$  (**Regular**.)  $X$  is  $T_1$  and for any closed set  $A \subset X$  and any  $x \in A^c$  there are disjoint open sets  $U, V$  with  $x \in U$  and  $A \subseteq V$ .
- $T_{3\frac{1}{2}}$  (**Tychonoff, Completely regular**.)  $X$  is  $T_1$  and for each closed  $A \subseteq X$  and each  $x \notin A$  there exists  $f \in C(X, [0, 1])$  such that  $f(x) = 1$  and  $f = 0$  on  $A$ .
- $T_4$  (**Normal**.)  $X$  is  $T_1$  and for any disjoint closed sets  $A, B$  in  $X$  there are disjoint open sets  $U, V$  with  $A \subseteq U$  and  $B \subseteq V$ .

If  $X$  is any set and  $\{f_\alpha : X \rightarrow Y_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  is a family of maps from  $X$  into some topological spaces  $Y_\alpha$ , there is a unique weakest topology  $\tau$  on  $X$  that makes all the  $f_\alpha$  continuous called the *weak topology generated by  $\{f_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$* . An example of this topology is the *product topology* on  $X = \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$  with the projections.

### Proposition 2.8.

- If  $X_\alpha$  is Hausdorff for each  $\alpha \in A$  then  $X = \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$  is Hausdorff.
- If  $X_\alpha$  and  $Y$  are topological spaces, a function  $f : Y \rightarrow X = \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$  is continuous if and only if  $\pi_\alpha \circ f$  is continuous for each  $\alpha$ .
- If  $X$  is a topological space,  $A$  is a nonempty set and  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence in  $X^A$ , then  $f_n \rightarrow f$  in the product topology if and only if  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise.

If  $X$  is any set and  $K = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ , denote by  $B(X, K)$  the *set of bounded  $K$ -valued functions on  $X$* ,  $C(X, K)$  the set of *continuous  $K$ -valued functions on  $X$* , and  $BC(X, K)$  the *set of bounded continuous functions on  $X$* . If no field is specified we take it to be  $\mathbb{C}$ .

For  $f \in B(X)$  define the *uniform norm* of  $f$  to be

$$\|f\|_u = \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\}$$

Then the function  $\rho(f, g) = \|f - g\|_u$  is a metric on  $B(X)$ . Convergence in this metric is simply uniform convergence:

$$\{f_n\} \xrightarrow{u} f \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n > N \forall x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$$

$B(X)$  is complete with this metric since  $\mathbb{C}$  is complete.

**Proposition 2.9.** If  $X$  is a topological space,  $BC(X)$  is a closed subspace of  $B(X)$  in the uniform metric; in particular  $BC(X)$  is complete.

**Lemma 2.10 (Urysohn).** Let  $X$  be a normal space. If  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint closed sets in  $X$ , there exists  $f \in C(X, [0, 1])$  such that  $f = 0$  on  $A$  and  $f = 1$  on  $B$ .

**Theorem 2.11 (Tietze Extension Theorem).** Let  $X$  be a normal space. If  $A$  is a closed subset of  $X$  and  $f \in C(A, [a, b])$ , there exists  $F \in C(X, [a, b])$  such that  $F|_A = f$ .

**Corollary 2.12.** If  $X$  is normal,  $A \subseteq X$  is closed and  $f \in C(A)$ , there exists  $F \in C(X)$  such that  $F|_A = f$ .

Urysohn's lemma shows that every  $T_4$  space is completely regular ( $T_{3\frac{1}{2}}$ ).

**Theorem 2.13 (Dugundji).** Sea  $X$  un espacio metrizable,  $A = \bar{A} \subset X$  y  $L$  un espacio vectorial localmente convexo, y  $V \subset L$  convexo. Entonces cualquier función  $f : A \rightarrow V$  admite una extensión  $F$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & V \\ \downarrow & \nearrow F & \\ X & & \end{array}$$

Además  $\text{img } F \subset \text{conv img } f$ .

## 2.3 Compact spaces

A topological space  $X$  is called **compact** if whenever  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  is an open cover of  $X$  there is a finite subset  $B$  of  $A$  such that  $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in B} U_\alpha$ . A subset  $Y \subseteq X$  is called **compact** if it is compact in the relative topology and **precompact** if its closure is compact.

A family  $\{F_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  of subsets of  $X$  has the **finite intersection property** if  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in B} F_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  for all finite  $B \subseteq A$ .

### Proposition 2.14.

- A topological space  $X$  is compact if and only if for every family  $\{F_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  of closed sets with the finite intersection property,  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} F_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ .
- A closed subset of a compact space is compact.
- If  $K$  is a compact subset of a Hausdorff space  $X$  and  $x \notin K$  then there are disjoint open sets  $U, V$  such that  $x \in U$  and  $K \subseteq V$ .
- Every compact subset of a Hausdorff space is closed.
- Every compact Hausdorff space is normal.
- If  $X$  is compact and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous then  $f(X)$  is compact.
- If  $X$  is compact, then  $C(X) = BC(X)$ .
- If  $X$  is compact and  $Y$  is Hausdorff, then any continuous bijection  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is an homeomorphism.

A topological space  $X$  is *countably compact* if every countable open cover of  $X$  has a finite subcover, and *sequentially compact* if every sequence in  $X$  has a convergent subsequence. For metric spaces compactness and sequential compactness are the equivalent. There exists no general relation between compactness and sequential compactness.

## 2.4 Locally Compact Hausdorff spaces

A topological space is called *locally compact* if every point has a compact neighbourhood (a set  $A \subset X$  such that  $x \in A^\circ$ ). We call locally compact Hausdorff spaces *LCH* for short.

**Proposition 2.15.** Let  $X$  be a LCH space.

- If  $U \subseteq X$  is open and  $x \in U$ , there is a compact neighbourhood  $K$  of  $x$  such that  $K \subset U$ .
- If  $K \subseteq U \subseteq X$ , with  $K$  compact and  $U$  open, there exists a precompact open  $V$  such that  $K \subseteq V \subset \bar{V} \subset U$ .
- **(Urysohn's Lemma, Locally Compact Version.)** If  $K \subset U \subseteq X$ , there exists  $f \in C(X, [0, 1])$  such that  $f = 1$  on  $K$  and  $f = 0$  outside a compact subset of  $U$ .
- Every LCH space is completely regular.
- **(Tietze Extension Theorem, Locally Compact Version)** If  $K \subseteq X$  is compact and  $f \in C(K)$ , there exists  $F \in C(X)$  such that  $F|_K = f$ .  $F$  may be taken to vanish outside a compact set.

If  $f \in C(X)$ , the *support of  $f$*  is the closure of  $\{x \in X : f(x) \neq 0\}$  and denote  $C_c(X) := \{f \in C(X) : \text{supp } f \text{ is compact}\}$ . We say  $f$  *vanishes at infinity* if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  the set  $\{x : |f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\}$  is compact and define  $C_0(X) := \{f \in C(X) : f \text{ vanishes at infinity}\}$ .

**Proposition 2.16.** If  $X$  is an LCH space,  $C_0(X)$  is the closure of  $C_c(X)$  in the uniform metric.

If  $X$  is a topological space, there are many ways of topologizing  $\mathbb{C}^X$ . One way is the product topology, that is, the topology of pointwise convergence. Another is the *topology of uniform convergence*, which is generated by the sets

$$\left\{ g \in \mathbb{C}^X : \sup_{x \in X} |g(x) - f(x)| < n^{-1} \right\} \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, f \in \mathbb{C}^X.$$

In view of a previous proposition (cite?), we know  $C(X)$  is a closed subset of  $\mathbb{C}^X$  with the topology of uniform convergence. Another topology is the *topology of uniform convergence on compact sets*, generated by the sets

$$\left\{ g \in \mathbb{C}^X : \sup_{x \in K} |g(x) - f(x)| < n^{-1} \right\} \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, f \in \mathbb{C}^X, K \subseteq X \text{ compact}.$$

**Proposition 2.17.** Let  $X$  be an LCH space.

- If  $E \subseteq X$ , then  $E$  is closed if and only if  $E \cap K$  is closed for every compact  $K \subseteq X$ .
- $C(X)$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^X$  in the topology of uniform convergence on compact sets.
- If  $\{U_j\}_{j=1}^n$  is an open cover of a compact subset  $K$  of  $X$ , then there is a partition of unity on  $K$  subordinate to  $\{U_j\}_{j=1}^n$  consisting of compactly supported functions.

**Theorem 2.18 (Urysohn Metrization Theorem).** Every second countable normal space is metrizable.

## 2.5 Three compactness theorems

Recall that if  $X = \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$ , an element  $x \in X$  is just a mapping from  $A$  to  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$ , with  $x(\alpha)$  the  $\alpha$ th coordinate of  $x$ .

**Theorem 2.19.** If  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  is a family of compact topological spaces, then  $X = \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$  is compact with the product topology.

Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq C(X)$  a family of complex-valued continuous functions on  $X$ . We say  $\mathcal{F}$  is **equicontinuous at**  $x \in X$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a neighbourhood  $U$  of  $x$  such that  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $y \in U$  and all  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ; and **equicontinuous** if it is equicontinuous at every  $x \in X$ . Also,  $\mathcal{F}$  is **pointwise bounded** if  $\{|f(x)| : f \in \mathcal{F}\}$  is bounded for all  $x \in X$ .

**Theorem 2.20 (Arzelà-Ascoli I).** Let  $X$  be a compact Hausdorff space. If  $\mathcal{F}$  is an equicontinuous, pointwise bounded subset of  $C(X)$ , then  $\mathcal{F}$  is totally bounded in the uniform metric, and the closure of  $\mathcal{F}$  in  $C(X)$  is compact.

**Theorem 2.21 (Arzelà-Ascoli II).** Let  $X$  be a locally compact Hausdorff space. If  $\{f_n\}$  is an equicontinuous, pointwise bounded sequence in  $C(X)$ , then there exists  $f \in C(X)$  and a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  that converges to  $f$  uniformly on compact sets.

## 2.6 The Stone-Weierstrass Theorem

Recall that the Weierstrass theorem states that any continuous function on a compact interval  $[a, b]$  is the uniform limit of polynomials on  $[a, b]$ . Throughout this subsection,  $X$  will denote a compact Hausdorff space, and  $C(X)$  is equipped with the uniform metric.

A subset  $\mathcal{A}$  of  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  of  $C(X)$  is said to **separate points** if for every  $x, y \in X$  with  $x \neq y$  there exists  $f \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ .  $\mathcal{A}$  is called an **algebra** if it is a real (resp. complex) vector subspace of  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  (resp.  $C(X)$ ) such that  $fg \in \mathcal{A}$  whenever  $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ .  $\mathcal{A}$  is called a **lattice** if  $\max(f, g)$  and  $\min(f, g)$  are in  $\mathcal{A}$  whenever  $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $\mathcal{A}$  is an algebra or a lattice, so is its closure in the uniform metric.

**Theorem 2.22 (Stone-Weierstrass Theorem).** Let  $X$  be a compact Hausdorff space. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a closed subalgebra of  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  that separates points, then either  $\mathcal{A} = C(X, \mathbb{R})$  or  $\mathcal{A} = \{f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}) : f(x_0) = 0\}$  for some  $x_0 \in X$ . The first alternative holds if and only if  $\mathcal{A}$  contains the constant functions.

**Corollary 2.23.** Suppose  $\mathcal{B}$  is a subalgebra of  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  that separates points. If there exists  $x_0 \in X$  such that  $f(x_0) = 0$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{B}$ , then  $\mathcal{B}$  is dense in  $\{f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}) : f(x_0) = 0\}$ . Otherwise,  $\mathcal{B}$  is dense in  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$ .

The classical Weierstrass approximation theorem is the special case of this corollary where  $X$  is the compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  is the algebra of polynomials on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (restricted to  $X$ ); here  $\mathcal{B}$  contains the constant functions, so it is dense in  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$ .

The Stone-Weierstrass theorem, as stated, is false for complex-valued functions. We may show that  $f(z) = \bar{z}$  cannot be approximated uniformly by polynomials on the unit circle.

**Theorem 2.24 (Complex Stone-Weierstrass Theorem).** Let  $X$  be a compact Hausdorff space. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a closed complex subalgebra of  $C(X)$  that separates points and is closed under complex conjugation, then either  $\mathcal{A} = C(X)$  or  $\mathcal{A} = \{f \in C(X) : f(x_0) = 0\}$  for some  $x_0 \in X$ .

Finally, there is a version of the Stone-Weierstrass theorem for noncompact LCH spaces. We state for real functions; the complex analogue is an immediate consequence.

**Theorem 2.25 (LCH Stone-Weierstrass Theorem).** Let  $X$  be a noncompact LCH space. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a closed complex subalgebra of  $C_0(X, \mathbb{R})$  that separates points, then either  $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X, \mathbb{R})$  or  $\mathcal{A} = \{f \in C_0(X, \mathbb{R}) : f(x_0) = 0\}$  for some  $x_0 \in X$ .

### 3 Inner product spaces

Let  $X$  be a real or complex vector space.

#### 3.1 Inner products

An *inner product* on  $X$  is a mapping

$$\langle -, - \rangle : X \times X \rightarrow F$$

with the following properties:

- (I<sub>1</sub>) if  $x, y \in X$  then  $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$ ;
- (I<sub>2</sub>) if  $\alpha, \beta$  are scalars,  $\langle \alpha x + \beta y, z \rangle = \alpha \langle x, z \rangle + \beta \langle y, z \rangle$ ;
- (I<sub>3</sub>)  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x \in X$  and equal to zero if and only if  $x$  is the zero vector. (Since, by I<sub>1</sub>,  $\langle x, x \rangle$  must be real.)

##### Examples.

1. Let  $X = C[a, b]$  be complex-valued continuous functions on the closed interval  $[a, b]$  with pointwise addition and scalar product. As the inner product of any two vectors  $f$  and  $g$  in this space take

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx$$

2. Let  $X = l_2$ , the set of all sequences of complex numbers  $(a_1, a_2, \dots)$  with the property that  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|^2 < \infty$ . As the inner product of any two vectors  $x = (a_i)$  and  $y = (b_i)$  in this space take

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i \bar{b}_i$$

which converges by the Hölder inequality.

3. Let  $Y$  be the closed interval  $[a, b]$ ,  $S$  the Lebesgue measurable sets and  $\mu$  the Lebesgue measure. Then, for the equivalence classes of square-integrable functions (complex-valued) on  $[a, b]$  we can take as the inner product of two classes  $f$  and  $g$ ,

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx$$

where the integral is the Lebesgue integral. This space is denoted by  $L_2(a, b)$ .

**Theorem 3.1 (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality).** Let  $X$  be an inner product space and let  $x, y \in X$ . Then

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$$

with equality holding if and only if  $x$  and  $y$  are linearly independent.

### 3.2 Orthogonal projections

Two vectors  $x, y \in X$  are **orthogonal** if  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ .

**Examples.**

1. In  $L_2(-\pi, \pi)$ , the collection (or any subset thereof)

$$x_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{int}, \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \dots$$

is an orthonormal set of vectors.

*Proof.* For any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x_n \bar{x}_n dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{int} \overline{e^{int}} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \|e^{int}\|^2 dt = 1,$$

and if  $m$  is another integer,

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x_n \bar{x}_m dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{int} \overline{e^{imt}} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{(n-m)it} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{e^{(n-m)it}}{(n-m)i} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} = 0.$$

□

2. If we restrict our attention to only real-valued functions that are square-integrable on the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ , then the collection (or any subset thereof)

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cos t, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cos 2t, \dots \\ & \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin t, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin 2t, \dots \end{aligned}$$

is an orthonormal set.

**Theorem 3.2.** If  $S$  is an orthonormal subset of an inner product space, then it is linearly independent (where linear independence is defined as finite sums).

**Theorem 3.3 (Gram-Schmidt process).** Let  $X$  be an inner product space. If  $\{y_1, y_2, \dots\}$  is a linearly independent set of vectors, then there exists an orthonormal set of vectors  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$  such that, for any  $n$ ,

$$\langle y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n \rangle = \langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle$$

where the brackets indicate the subspace spanned by the vectors enclosed.

If  $S$  is any subset of  $X$ , the **orthogonal complement of  $S$  in  $X$**  is the linear space  $S^\perp := \{x \in X : x \perp s \text{ for all } s \in S\}$ .

**Theorem 3.4.** If  $M$  is a finite-dimensional subspace of  $X$ , then  $X = M \oplus M^\perp$ .



### 3.3 Riesz representation theorem

**Theorem 3.5 (Riesz).** If  $X$  is a finite-dimensional inner product space and  $f$  is a linear functional on  $X$ , then there exists a unique vector  $y \in X$  such that  $f(x) = \langle x, y \rangle$  for all  $x \in X$ .

*Proof.* Given an orthonormal basis  $e_i$  of  $X$ , consider  $y = \sum_i \overline{f(e_i)} e_i$ . □

In Riemannian geometry this is called *raising an index* of a 1-form. Indeed,  $\omega_p \in \Lambda^1(T_p M)$  is just a linear functional on  $T_p M$ , and  $(\omega)^{\sharp} = g^{ij} \omega_j E_i$  at  $p$  is just a vector  $y$  such that  $\omega_p(x) = \langle x, y \rangle$  for all  $x \in T_p M$ . So the former theorem may also be stated as “ $y = f^{\sharp}$  exists”. Recall this is given by viewing the inner product as a nonsingular matrix.

### 3.4 Adjoint operator

Let  $A : X \rightarrow X$  be a linear transformation in a finite-dimensional inner product space  $X$ . For a given  $y \in X$ , define the linear functional

$$\begin{aligned} f^y : X &\rightarrow F \\ x &\mapsto \langle Ax, y \rangle \end{aligned}$$

which, by the Riesz representation theorem yields a unique  $z \in X$  such that

$$f^y(x) = \langle x, z \rangle$$

Then the *adjoint of  $A$*  is the linear map

$$\begin{aligned} A^* : X &\rightarrow X \\ y &\mapsto z \end{aligned}$$

so that  $\langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle$ .

**Proposition 3.6 (Properties of the adjoint).**

1.  $(\alpha A)^* = \overline{\alpha} A^*$ .
2.  $(A + B)^* = A^* + B^*$ .
3.  $(AB)^* = B^* A^*$ .
4.  $(A^*)^* = A$ .

If  $A = A^*$  we say  $A$  is *self-adjoint*, and if  $AA^* = A^*A$  we say  $A$  is *normal*.

**Theorem 3.7.** If  $A$  is self-adjoint, its eigenvalues are real. Eigenvectors associated to distinct eigenvalues of a self-adjoint operator are orthogonal.

**Theorem 3.8.** If  $M$  is an invariant subspace of  $X$  under  $A$ , then  $M^{\perp}$  is invariant under  $A^*$ .

**Theorem 3.9.** If  $A$  is a linear transformation on a finite-dimensional inner product space  $X$ , then  $\text{range}(A)^{\perp} = \text{null}(A^*)$ .

### 3.5 Spectral theorem for normal transformations

**Theorem 3.10.** Let  $A$  be a self-adjoint transformation in a finite-dimensional inner product space  $X$ . Then there exists an orthonormal basis of  $X$  consisting of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

**Lemma 3.11.** Let  $A$  be a normal transformation in a finite-dimensional inner product space  $X$ . Then  $\|Ax\| = \|A^*x\|$  for all  $x \in X$ .

**Theorem 3.12.** Let  $A$  be a normal transformation in a complex finite-dimensional inner product space  $X$ . Then there exists an orthonormal basis of  $X$  consisting of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

**Theorem 3.13.** If  $A$  is a normal transformation on a finite-dimensional inner product space. Eigenvectors associated to distinct eigenvalues of a self-adjoint operator are orthogonal.

Recall that the notation  $X = M_1 \oplus \dots \oplus M_k$  means that  $X$  is the **direct sum** of the  $M_i$ , which means that  $X = M_1 + \dots + M_k$  and  $M_i \cap \{M_1 + \dots + M_i + \dots + M_k\} = \{0\}$ , (every element in  $X$  is expressed as a unique sum of elements in  $M_i$ ). If  $M_i \perp M_j$  for all  $i \neq j$ , we say this is an **orthogonal direct sum decomposition of  $X$** , and the **orthogonal projection to  $M_j$**  is just taking the corresponding component of a given element in its decomposition.

**Theorem 3.14 (Spectral decomposition theorem for normal transformations).** To every normal transformation  $A$  on a complex finite-dimensional inner product space there correspond scalar  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ , the distinct eigenvalues of  $A$ , and orthogonal projections  $E_1, \dots, E_k$  with  $k \leq \dim X$ , such that

1.  $E_i$  is the orthogonal projection on  $\text{Null}(A - \lambda_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .
2.  $E_i \neq 0$  and  $E_i E_j = 0$  for  $i, j = 1, \dots, k$ .
3.  $\sum_{j=1}^k E_j = 1$ .
4.  $\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j E_j = A$ .

If  $A$  was self-adjoint, we could weaken the hypotheses to a real inner product space.

### 3.6 Unitary and orthogonal transformations

Let  $X$  be a finite-dimensional inner product space, and  $U : X \rightarrow X$  a linear transformation with  $U^*U = 1$ . We say  $U$  is **unitary** if  $X$  is complex and **orthogonal** if  $X$  is real. The condition  $U^*U = 1$  implies that  $UU^* = 1$ .

**Theorem 3.15.** Let  $X$  be a finite-dimensional inner product space, and  $U : X \rightarrow X$  a linear transformation. The following statements are equivalent:

1.  $U^*U = 1$ .
2.  $\langle Ux, Uy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ .

3.  $\|Ux\| = \|x\|$  for all  $x \in X$ .

**Theorem 3.16.** If  $U$  is a unitary transformation on the finite-dimensional inner product space  $X$ , then each of the eigenvalues of  $U$  must have an absolute value equal to 1.

To summarize:

**Theorem 3.17.** Let  $A$  be a normal transformation on a complex finite-dimensional inner product space. Then

1.  $A$  is self-adjoint if and only if each eigenvalue of  $A$  is real.
2.  $A$  is unitary if and only if each eigenvalue of  $A$  has absolute value equal to 1.

## 4 Normed spaces

1. Let  $X$  be a real or complex vector space. A **norm** on  $X$  is a function  $\|\cdot\| : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that
  - (a)  $\|x\| \geq 0$  and  $\|x\| = 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$ .
  - (b)  $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda|\|x\|$  for all  $x \in X$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .
  - (c) **(Triangle inequality.)**  $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$  for all  $x, y \in X$ .

## 5 Exercises

**Exercise 5.1.** Let  $A : (C[-1, 1], \|\cdot\|_\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by

$$Ax = x(0)$$

Show  $A$  is linear, bounded and find its norm.

*Solution.*

1.  $A(x + \lambda y) = (x + \lambda y)(0) = x(0) + \lambda y(0) = Ax + \lambda Ay$ .
2.  $|Ax| = |x(0)| \leq \|x\|_\infty$ , so 1 is a bound.
3. The bound is attained with  $\|1\|_\infty = 1$ , so  $\|A\|$  cannot be lower than 1.

□

**Exercise 5.2.** Let  $A : (C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by

$$Ax = \int_a^b x(t)\varphi(t)dt$$

where  $\varphi \in C[a, b]$  is a fixed function. Show that  $\|A\| = \int_a^b |\varphi(t)|dt = \|\varphi\|_1$ .

*Solution.* See [here](#). First we show  $A$  is bounded:

$$\begin{aligned} |Ax| &= \left| \int_a^b x(t)\varphi(t)dt \right| \\ &\leq \int_a^b |x(t)||\varphi(t)|dt \\ &\leq \|x\|_\infty \int_a^b |\varphi(t)|dt \\ &= \|x\|_\infty \|\varphi\|_1. \end{aligned}$$

Which proves that  $\|A\| \leq \|\varphi\|_1$ . To show the reverse inequality, define the sequence

$$x_n(t) := \frac{\varphi(t)}{|\varphi(t)| + \frac{1}{n}}$$

so that

$$\|x_n\|_\infty = \frac{\|\varphi\|_\infty}{\|\varphi\|_\infty + \frac{1}{n}} \rightarrow 1$$

And also

$$Ax_n = \int_a^b \frac{\varphi(t)^2}{|\varphi(t)| + \frac{1}{n}} dt \rightarrow \int_a^b |\varphi(t)|dt$$

since

And since  $Ax_n = |Ax_n| \leq \|x_n\|_\infty \|A\|$ , we have

$$\|A\| \geq \frac{Ax_n}{\|x_n\|_\infty} \longrightarrow \frac{\int_a^b |\varphi(t)| dt}{1} = \|\varphi\|_1,$$

so  $\|A\| \geq \|\varphi\|_1$  and we are finished.

□

**Exercise 5.3.** Sejam  $(C([0, 1]), \|\cdot\|_\infty)$  um espaço vetorial normado com  $\|f\|_\infty = \max_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x)|$  e  $T : (C([0, 1]) \rightarrow (C([0, 1]))$  dado por

$$(Tf)(x) = x \int_0^x f(y) dy$$

1. Mostre que  $T$  é linear, limitado e calcule  $\|T\|$ .
2. Mostre que  $T^{-1} : \mathcal{R}(T) \rightarrow C([0, 1])$  existe mais não é limitado.

*Solução.*

1.  $T$  é linear, pois  $T(f + \lambda g) = x \int_0^1 (f(y) + \lambda g(y)) dy = x \int_0^1 f(y) dy + \lambda x \int_0^1 g(y) dy$ .

$T$  é limitado, pois

$$\begin{aligned} Tf(x) &= x \int_0^1 f(y) dy \leq x \int_0^1 \|f\|_\infty dy = x((x - 0)\|f\|_\infty) = \|f\|_\infty x^2 \\ \implies \|Tf\|_\infty &\leq \|f\|_\infty \|x^2\|_\infty = \|f\|_\infty \end{aligned}$$

Assim que 1 é uma cota. Para ver que de fato  $\|T\| = 1$ , basta considerar a função constante  $f \equiv 1$ , caso em que a cota é alcançada:  $\|Tf\|_\infty = \|x^2\|_\infty = 1 = \|f\|_\infty$ .

- 2.

□