Functional Analysis

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Balanced Sets

1.1 Definitions

Definition (Balanced Sets). Let X be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Let S be a subset of X. We say that S is **balanced** if

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{F} : |a| \le 1, \quad aS \subseteq S.$$

Definition (Balanced Hull). Let X be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Let S be a subset of X. We define the **balanced hull** of S, denoted by $\operatorname{balhull}(S)$, to be the smallest balanced set containing S.

Definition (Balanced Core). Let X be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Let S be a subset of X. We define the **balanced core** of S, denoted by $\operatorname{balcore}(S)$, to be the largest balanced set contained in S.

1.2 Properties

Proposition 1.2.1. Let X be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Let B be a balanced subset of X. Then

$$\forall a,b \in \mathbb{F}: |a| \leq |b|, \quad aB \subseteq bB.$$

Proposition 1.2.2. Balanced sets are path connected.

Proposition 1.2.3 (Act on Other Properties). • The balanced hull of a compact set is compact.

- The balanced hull of a totally bounded set is totally bounded.
- The balanced hull of a bounded set is bounded.

Proposition 1.2.4 (Act on Other Properties). • The balanced core of a closed set is closed.

Proposition 1.2.5. Let X be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Let a be a scalar in field \mathbb{F} . Then $a \operatorname{balhull}(S) = \operatorname{balhull}(aS)$.

1.3 Stability of Balance

Proposition 1.3.1 (Set Operations). • The union of balanced sets is also balanced.

• The intersection of balanced sets is also balanced.

Proposition 1.3.2 (Linear Mappings). • The scalar multiple of a balanced set is also balanced.

- The (Minkowski) sum of two balanced sets is also balanced.
- The image of a balanced set under a linear operator is also balanced.
- The inverse image of a balanced set under a linear operator is also balanced.

Proposition 1.3.3 (Topological Operations). The closure of a balanced set is also balanced.

Proposition 1.3.4. The convex hull of a balanced set is also balanced (and also convex).

1.4 Absorbing Sets

Definition (Absorbing Sets). Let X be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Let S be a subset of X. We say that S is **absorbing** if

$$\forall x \in X, \quad \exists r \in \mathbb{R} : r > 0, \quad \forall c \in \mathbb{F} : |c| \ge r, \quad x \in cA.$$

Proposition 1.4.1. Every absorbing set contains the origin.

Inner Product Spaces

2.1 Inner Products

2.1.1 Definitions

Definition (Inner Product). Let V be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . We define an inner **product** on V, denoted by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$, to be a scalar-valued function defined on $V \times V$ such that

(1) Positive Definiteness

$$\forall x, y \in V, \quad \langle x, x \rangle \ge 0, \text{ and}$$

$$\forall x \in V, \quad \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = O_V.$$

(2) Sesqui-Linearity

$$\forall x,y,z,w \in V, \quad \langle x+y,z+w \rangle = \langle x,z \rangle + \langle y,z \rangle + \langle x,w \rangle + \langle y,w \rangle, \ \ and$$

$$\forall a,b \in \mathbb{F}, \forall x,y \in V, \quad \langle ax,by \rangle = a\bar{b}\langle x,y \rangle.$$

(3) Conjugate Symmetry

$$\forall x, y \in V, \quad \langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}.$$

Definition (Norm). Let V be an inner product space over field \mathbb{F} . We define the **norm**, denoted by $\|\cdot\|$, to be a function from V to \mathbb{R}_+ given by

$$||x|| := \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$

Definition (Orthogonal Vectors). Let V be an inner product space. Let x and y be vectors in V. We say that x and y are **orthogonal** if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Definition (Orthogonal Sets). Let S be a subset of V. We say that S is **orthogonal** if

$$\forall x, y \in S, \quad \langle x, y \rangle = 0.$$

2.1.2 Examples

Definition (Standard Inner Product). For $V = \mathbb{F}^n$, we define the **standard inner product** by

$$\langle x, y \rangle := \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \overline{y_i}.$$

Definition (Frobenius Inner Product). For $V = \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$, we define the **Frobenius inner** product by

$$\langle M_1, M_2 \rangle := \operatorname{tr}(M_2^* M_1).$$

Definition. Let V be the space of continuous scalar-valued functions on $[0, 2\pi]$. We define the inner product on V by

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx.$$

2.1.3 Properties

Proposition 2.1.1. Let V be a finite dimensional inner product space. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for V. Let x and y be vectors in V. Then

$$x = y \iff \forall b \in \mathcal{B}, \quad \langle x, b \rangle = \langle y, b \rangle.$$

2.2 Inequalities

Theorem 1 (Minkowski).

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i + y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Proposition 2.2.1 (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality). Let V be an inner product space. Then

$$\forall x, y \in V, \quad |\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| \cdot ||y||$$

Proposition 2.2.2 (Triangle Inequality). Let V be an inner product space. Then

$$\forall x, y \in V, \quad ||x + y|| < ||x|| + ||y||$$

Proposition 2.2.3 (Parallelogram Law). Let V be an inner product space. Then

$$\forall x, y \in V, \quad \|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2$$

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2.3 Orthogonality

2.3.1 Orthogonal Sets

Definition (Orthogonality). Let V be an inner product space. We say that points x and y in V are **orthogonal** if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Definition (Orthogonal Sets). Let V be an inner product space and S be a subset of V. We say that S is **orthogonal** if any two vectors in S are orthogonal.

Proposition 2.3.1. Orthogonal sets are linearly independent.

2.3.2 Orthogonal Bases

Definition (Orthogonal Basis). Let V be an inner product space and S be a subset of V. We say that S is an **orthogonal basis** for V if it is an ordered basis for V and orthogonal.

Proposition 2.3.2. Let V be an inner product space. Let $S = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be an orthogonal subset of V where each v_i is non-zero. Then

$$\forall y \in \text{span}(S), \quad y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\langle y, v_i \rangle}{\|v_i\|^2} v_i.$$

Theorem 2 (Gram-Schmidt Process). Let V be an inner product space. Let $S = \{v_0, ..., v_n\}$ be a linearly independent subset of V. Then the set $S' = \{v'_0, ..., v'_n\}$ given by $v'_0 := v_0$ and

$$\forall i \in \{1, ..., n\}, \quad v_i' := v_i - \sum_{i=1}^{i-1} \frac{\langle v_i, v_j' \rangle}{\|v_j'\|} v_j'$$

is an orthogonal subset of V consisting of non-zero vectors. Furthermore, we have $\operatorname{span}(S') = \operatorname{span}(S)$.

Proposition 2.3.3. Let V be an inner product space and $S = \{v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ be an orthogonal subset of V. Then the set S' derived from the Gram-Schmidt process is exactly S.

Theorem 3 (Parseval's Identity). Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be an orthogonal basis for V. Then

$$\forall x, y \in V, \quad \langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \langle x, v_i \rangle \overline{\langle y, v_i \rangle}.$$

Theorem 4 (Bessel's Inequality). Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be an orthogonal subset for V. Then

$$\forall x \in V, \quad ||x||^2 \ge \sum_{i=1}^n |\langle x, v_i \rangle|^2.$$

2.3.3 Orthogonal Complements

Definition (Orthogonal Complement). Let V be an inner product space and S be a non-empty subset of V. We define the **orthogonal complement** of S, denoted by S^{\perp} , to be the set of all points in V that are orthogonal to all vectors in S.

Proposition 2.3.4. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space. Then

- (1) $V^{\perp} = \{O_V\}$
- $(2) \{O_V\}^{\perp} = V$

Proposition 2.3.5. Orthogonal complements are always linear subspaces.

Proposition 2.3.6. Let V be an inner product space and W be a subspace of V with basis β . Then a vector in V is also in W^{\perp} if and only if it is orthogonal to all vectors in β .

Proposition 2.3.7 (Extension). Let V be an n-dimensional inner product space and $S = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ be an orthogonal subset of V. Then S can be extended to an orthogonal basis $B = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k, v_{k+1}, \ldots, v_n\}$ for V.

2.3.4 Properties of the Orthogonal Complement Operator

Proposition 2.3.8. Let V be an inner product space. Then

- (1) $S \subseteq T$ implies $T^{\perp} \subseteq S^{\perp}$ for any subsets S and T of V.
- (2) $S \subseteq (S^{\perp})^{\perp}$ for any subset S of V.

Proposition 2.3.9. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space and W be a subspace of V. Then

- (1) $W = (W^{\perp})^{\perp}$
- (2) $V = W \oplus W^{\perp}$

Proposition 2.3.10. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space and W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V. Then

(1)
$$(W_1 + W_2)^{\perp} = W_1^{\perp} \cap W_2^{\perp}$$

(2)
$$(W_1 \cap W_2)^{\perp} = W_1^{\perp} + W_2^{\perp}$$

2.3.5 Orthogonal Projection

Definition (Orthogonal Projection). Let V be a vector space. Let W be a finite-dimensional subspace of V. Let x be a vector in V. We define the **orthogonal projection** of x on W, denoted by (x), to be the vector u in W such that x = u + v where v is another vector in W^{\perp} .

Normed Linear Spaces

3.1 Definitions

Definition (Seminorm). Let \mathfrak{X} be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . We define a **seminorm** on \mathfrak{X} , denoted by ν , to be a map from \mathfrak{X} to \mathbb{R} that satisfies the following conditions.

- (1) $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \nu(x) \ge 0.$
- (2) $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}, \forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \nu(\lambda x) = \lambda \nu(x).$
- (3) Triangle Inequality.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \nu(x+y) \le \nu(x) + \nu(y).$$

The idea behind the seminorm is that we are trying to give our vector space a notion of "length" of vectors.

Definition (Norm). Let \mathfrak{X} be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . We define a **norm** on \mathfrak{X} , denoted by ν , to be a seminorm on \mathfrak{X} that satisfies the additional condition:

$$\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \mu(x) = 0 \iff x = 0.$$

3.2 Properties

Proposition 3.2.1. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$ be a normed vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Then $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete if and only if $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is complete.

Proof.

For one direction, assume that $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete.

We are to prove that $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is complete.

Since $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is a closed subspace of $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ and $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete, $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is also complete.

For the reverse direction, assume that $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is complete.

We are to prove that $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is complete.

Let $\{x_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ be an arbitrary Cauchy sequence in $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$.

Since $\{x_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$, $\{x_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is bounded in $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$.

Let λ be a positive upper bound for $\{\|x_i\|_V\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$.

Since $\{x_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$, $\{x_i/\lambda\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$.

Since $\{x_i/\lambda\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$ and $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is complete, $\{x_i/\lambda\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges in $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V)$.

Since $\{x_i/\lambda\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges in $(\overline{B(0,1)}, \|\cdot\|_V), \{x_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges in $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$.

Since any Cauchy sequence in $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$ converges in $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$, $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$ is complete.

3.3 Equivalence of Norms

Definition (Equivalence of Norms). Let \mathfrak{X} be a vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Let $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ be two norms on V. We say that $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ are **equivalent** if

$$\exists c_1, c_2 > 0, \quad \forall v \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad c_1 \|v\|_1 \le \|v\|_2 \le c_2 \|v\|_2.$$

Or equivalently,

$$c_1||v||_2 \le ||v||_1 \le c_2||v||_2.$$

Proposition 3.3.1. The equivalence of norms is an equivalence relation.

Theorem 5. Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over field $\mathbb{F} = \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$. Then any two norms on V are equivalent.

Proof.

Let $\|\cdot\|_p$ be an arbitrary p-norm on V and $\|\cdot\|$ be an arbitrary norm on V.

Let \mathcal{B} be the standard basis for V. Say $\mathcal{B} = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$.

Let v be an arbitrary vector in V.

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$$||v|| = ||\sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i e_i||$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i| ||e_i||$$

$$\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} ||e_i||^{\frac{p}{p-1}}\right)^{1-\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} ||e_i||^{\frac{p}{p-1}}\right)^{1-\frac{1}{p}} ||v||_p$$

$$:= c_1 ||v||_p.$$

Proposition 3.3.2. Let X be a vector space. Let $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ be two norms on X. Then $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ are equivalent if and only if they generate the same metric topology.

Proof. Convergence to 0 is equivalent under either $\|\cdot\|_1$ or $\|\cdot\|_2$. i.e., equivalent norms give rise to the same set of sequences that are convergent. Convergence of sequences defines the topology.

Proposition 3.3.3. Let \mathfrak{X} be a vector space. Let $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ be two norms on \mathfrak{X} . Let i be the identity map from $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_1)$ to $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_2)$. Then if $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ are equivalent, i is continuous.

3.4 Dual Norms

Definition (Dual Norm). Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be an normed vector space. We define the **dual** norm of $\|\cdot\|$, denoted by $\|\cdot\|_{\circ}$, to be a function given by

$$||v||_{\circ} := \max_{||w||=1} v \cdot w = \max_{||w|| \neq 0} \frac{|v \cdot w|}{||w||}.$$

Proposition 3.4.1. The dual norms of norms are indeed norms.

Proposition 3.4.2. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. Let v, w be vectors in the space. Then

$$|v \cdot w| \le ||v|| \cdot ||w||_{\circ}.$$

3.5 p-norms

Definition (p-norm). Let V be a finite-dimensional normed vector space over field \mathcal{F} . Let $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, ..., b_n\}$ be a basis for V where $n = \dim(V)$. Let v be a vector in a normed vector space. For $p \in [1, +\infty)$, we define the p-norm of v, denoted by $||v||_p$, to be the number given by

$$||v||_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |(v_{\mathcal{B}})_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

Definition (Infinity Norm - 1). Let $\mathfrak{X} = \mathbb{K}^n$ where \mathbb{K} is a field and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We define the *infinity norm* on \mathfrak{X} , denoted by $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$, to be a function given by

$$||v||_{\infty} := \max\{|v_i|\}_{i=1}^n$$
.

Definition (Infinity Norm - 2). Let $\mathfrak{X} = \mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{N}}$. We define the **infinity norm** on \mathfrak{X} , denoted by $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$, to be a function given by

$$||v||_{\infty} := \sup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |v_i|.$$

Definition (Infinity Norm - 3). Let $\mathfrak{X} = \mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C})$. We define the **infinity norm** on \mathfrak{X} , denoted by $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$, to be a function given by

$$\nu(f) := \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)|.$$

Proposition 3.5.1. Let $\mathfrak{X} := \mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C})$. Let x be an arbitrary number in [0,1]. Define a function ν_x on \mathfrak{X} by $\nu_x(f) := |f(x)|$. Define a function ν on \mathfrak{X} by $\nu(f) := \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)|$. Then ν_x is a seminorm on \mathfrak{X} for each x and ν is a norm on \mathfrak{X} and we have $\nu = \sup_{x \in [0,1]} \nu$.

Proposition 3.5.2. *p-norms are indeed norms.*

Proposition 3.5.3. For any vector v in \mathbb{R}^n , we have

$$\lim_{p \to \infty} \|v\|_p = \|v\|_{\infty}.$$

i.e.,

$$\lim_{p\to\infty}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n|v_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}=\max\{|v_i|\}_{i=1}^n.$$

Proof. Let p be an arbitrary number in $[1, +\infty)$. Let k be an arbitrary index in $\{1, ..., n\}$. Then

$$|v_k| \le (\sum_{i=1}^n |v_k|^p)^{1/p} = ||v||_p.$$

So

$$\max\{|v_k|\} = ||v||_{\infty} \le ||v||_p.$$

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So

$$\lim_{p \to \infty} \|v\|_p \ge \|v\|_{\infty}. \tag{1}$$

On the other hand, note that

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^p\right) / \|v\|_{\infty}^p = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{|v_i|}{\|v\|_{\infty}}\right)^p$$

decreases as p increases. So it is bounded above. Say

$$(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^p) / \|v\|_{\infty}^p \le C$$

for some $C \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i|^p\right)^{1/p} = ||v||_p \le C^{1/p} ||v||_{\infty}.$$

So

$$\lim_{p \to \infty} \|v\|_p \le \lim_{p \to \infty} C^{1/p} \|v\|_{\infty} = \|v\|_{\infty}.$$
 (2)

From (1) and (2) we get

$$\lim_{p \to \infty} \|v\|_p = \|v\|_{\infty}.$$

Proposition 3.5.4. Let p be an arbitrary number in $[1, +\infty)$. Then the dual norm of the p-norm $\|\cdot\|_p$ is the q-norm $\|\cdot\|_q$ where q is such that satisfies

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

Proposition 3.5.5. Let p and q be numbers in $[1, +\infty]$. Let v be a vector in \mathbb{R}^n . Then if $p \leq q$,

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

Proposition 3.5.6. Let w and z be vectors in \mathbb{E}^d . Then

$$||w + z||_2^2 + ||w - z||_2^2 = 2(||w||_2^2 + ||z||_2^2).$$

3.6 Banach Spaces

Definition (Banach Space). Let $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed linear space. Let d be the metric induced by $\|\cdot\|$. We say that \mathfrak{X} is a **Banach space** if (\mathfrak{X}, d) is a complete metric space. i.e., we define a Banach space to be a complete normed linear space.

Proposition 3.6.1. Let $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space over field \mathbb{F} . Then $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|)$ is a Banach space if and only if every absolutely summable series in X is summable.

Example 3.6.1. $(\mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{F}),\|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ is a Banach space.

Example 3.6.2 (Disc Algebra). Define $\mathbb{D}:=\{z\in\mathbb{C}:|z|<1\}$. Define $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D}):=\{f\in\mathcal{C}(\overline{\mathbb{D}}):f|_{\mathbb{D}}\text{ is holomorphic }\}$. Define $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ by $\|f\|_{\infty}:=\sup_{z\in\overline{\mathbb{D}}}|f(z)|$. Then $(\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D}),\|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ is a Banach space.

Example 3.6.3. Let (X, Ω, μ) be a measure space. Let p be a number in $[1, +\infty)$. Define

$$\mathcal{L}^p(X,\mu) := \operatorname{span}\{f: X \to [0,+\infty] \mid f \text{ is measurable and } \int_X |f|^p < +\infty\}.$$

Define an equivalence relation on $\mathcal{L}^p(X,\mu)$ by $f \equiv g$ if and only if

$$\mu(\{x \in X : f(x) \neq g(x)\}) = 0.$$

Define a space $L^p(X,\mu) := \mathcal{L}^p(X,\mu)/\equiv$. Then $L^p(X,\mu)$ is a Banach space when equipped with the norm

$$||[f]||_p := \left(\int_X |f|^p\right)^{1/p}.$$

Example 3.6.4. Let $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{C}}[0,1]$ denote the set of all polynomials with complex coefficients. For each $p \in [1, +\infty)$, define a norm

$$||f||_p := \left(\int_0^1 |f|^p\right)^{1/p}.$$

For $p = +\infty$, define a norm

$$||f||_{\infty} := \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(z)|.$$

3.7 Construction of Banach Spaces

Definition. Let $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_{\mathfrak{X}})$ and $(\mathfrak{Y}, \|\cdot\|_{\mathfrak{Y}})$ be two Banach spaces over field \mathbb{K} . Let $p \in [1, +\infty)$. We define

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

and

$$\|(x,y)\|_p := (\|x\|_{\mathfrak{X}}^p + \|y\|_{\mathfrak{Y}}^p)^{1/p}.$$

For $p = +\infty$, we define

$$\mathfrak{X} \oplus_{\infty} \mathfrak{Y} := \{(x,y) : x \in \mathfrak{X}, y \in \mathfrak{Y}\}$$

and

$$||(x,y)||_{\infty} := \max(||x||_{\mathfrak{X}}, ||y||_{\mathfrak{Y}}).$$

• Note that the norms behave similarly to what the p norm would do.

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• We can similarly define the direct sum of finitely many Banach spaces.

Proposition 3.7.1. $\|\cdot,\cdot\|_p$ is a norm on $\mathfrak{X} \oplus_p \mathfrak{Y}$.

Proposition 3.7.2. $\mathfrak{X} \oplus_p \mathfrak{Y}$ is complete with respect to $\|\cdot, \cdot\|_p$.

Quotient Spaces

4.1 Definitions

Definition. Let \mathfrak{V} be a vector space. Let \mathfrak{W} be a subspace of \mathfrak{V} . We define a **quotient** space, denoted by $\mathfrak{V}/\mathfrak{W}$, to be a set $\{v + \mathfrak{W} : v \in \mathfrak{V}\}$ with operations

$$(v_1 + \mathfrak{W}) + (v_2 + \mathfrak{W}) := (v_1 + v_2) + \mathfrak{W}$$
 and
$$\kappa(v + \mathfrak{W}) := (\kappa v) + \mathfrak{W}.$$

Definition (Quotient Map). Let $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed linear space. Let \mathfrak{M} be a linear manifold in \mathfrak{X} . We define the **quotient map** on \mathfrak{X} with respect to \mathfrak{M} , denoted by $q_{\mathfrak{M}}$, to be a function from \mathfrak{X} to $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$ given by

$$q_{\mathfrak{M}}(x) := x + \mathfrak{M}$$

Proposition 4.1.1. Quotient maps are contractive. i.e.,

$$\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \|x + \mathfrak{M}\|_{\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}} \le \|x\|_{\mathfrak{X}}.$$

Proposition 4.1.2. Let \mathfrak{X} be a normed linear space. Let \mathfrak{M} be a closed subspace of \mathfrak{X} . Let q be the canonical quotient map from \mathfrak{X} to $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$. Then

• q is a continuous map. i.e.,

$$\forall open \ set \ W \subseteq \mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}, \quad q^{-1}(W) \ is open \ in \ \mathfrak{X}.$$

• q is an open map. i.e.,

$$\forall$$
 open set $G \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, $q(G)$ is open in $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$.

Proof. Since q is contractive, q is continuous and hence (1).

Definition (Seminorm on Quotient Spaces). Let $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed linear space. Let \mathfrak{M} be a linear manifold in \mathfrak{X} . We define a **seminorm** on $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$ to be a function from $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$ to \mathbb{R} given by

$$p(x+\mathfrak{M}) := \inf\{\|x+m\| : m \in \mathfrak{M}\}.$$

Proposition 4.1.3. Seminorms on quotient spaces are indeed seminorms.

Proposition 4.1.4. A seminorm on a quotient space $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$ is a norm if and only if \mathfrak{M} is closed.

Topological Vector Spaces

5.1 Definitions

5.2 Topological Vector Spaces

Definition (Vector Topology). Let X be a vector space over a topological field \mathbb{K} . We define a **vector topology** on X to be a topology on X such that vector addition and scalar multiplication are continuous.

Proposition 5.2.1 (Stability under Linear Combinations). Let X be a normed vector space over \mathbb{F} . Let K be a compact set in the space. Let C be a closed set in the space. Then $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}, S := \alpha K + \beta C is \ closed$.

Proof.

The case where $\beta = 0$ is trivial. I will assume $\beta \neq 0$.

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ be arbitrary.

Let $\{s_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ be an arbitrary sequence in S that converges.

Say the limit is s_{∞} .

Since $s_i \in S$ for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and $S = \alpha K + \beta C$, $s_i = \alpha k_i + \beta c_i$ for some $k_i \in K$ and some $c_i \in C$, for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$.

Since $\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence in K and K is compact, there exists a convergent subsequence $\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ in K.

Say $\{k_i\}_{i\in I}$ converges to $k_\infty \in K$.

Since $\{s_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to s_{∞} , $\{s_i\}_{i\in I}$ also converges to s_{∞} .

Since $s_i = \alpha k_i + \beta c_i$, $c_i = \beta^{-1}(s_i - \alpha k_i)$.

Define $c_{\infty} := \beta^{-1}(s_{\infty} - \alpha k_{\infty})$

Since $\{s_i\}_{i\in I}$ converges to s_{∞} and $\{k_i\}_{i\in I}$ converges to k_{∞} and $c_i = \beta^{-1}(s_i - \alpha k_i)$, $\{c_i\}_{i\in I}$ converges to c_{∞} .

Since $\{c_i\}_{i\in I}$ is a sequence in C and converges to c_∞ and C is closed, $c_\infty\in C$.

Since $s_{\infty} = \alpha k_{\infty} + \beta c_{\infty}$ and $k_{\infty} \in K$ and $c_{\infty} \in C$, $s_{\infty} \in \alpha K + \beta C$.

Since for any sequence in S that converges, the limit is also in S, S is closed.

Remark. The sum of two closed sets may not be closed.

Proof.

Counter-example 1

Consider $A := \{n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $B := \{n + \frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$

(https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/124130/sum-of-two-closed-sets-in-mathbb-r-is-closed) Their sum contains the sequence $\{\frac{1}{n}\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ but does not contain 0.

Counter-example 2

Consider $A:=\mathbb{R}\times\{0\}$ and $B:=\{(x,y)\in\mathbb{R}^2: x,y>0, xy\geq 1\}.$

Their sum is $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_{++}$.

5.3 Neighborhoods

Sequence Spaces

6.1 ℓ_p Space

Definition ($\ell_p^{(n)}$ Space). We define the $\ell_p^{(n)}$ space to be the set of all sequences $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{i=n}$ such that

Definition (ℓ_p Space). We define the ℓ_p space to be the set of all sequences x such that $||x||_p$ is finite, equipped with the p-norm $||\cdot||_p$.

Proposition 6.1.1. For $p \in [1, +\infty)$, $(\ell_p, ||\cdot||_p)$ is complete.

Proof.

Let $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be an arbitrary Cauchy sequence in ℓ_p .

Since $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in ℓ_p , $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\exists N(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall m, n > N$, we have $||x_m - x_n||_p < \varepsilon$.

Since $||x_m - x_n||_p < \varepsilon$ and $|x_m^{(i)} - x_n^{(i)}| \le ||x_m - x_n||_p$ for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $|x_m^{(i)} - x_n^{(i)}| < \varepsilon$ for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$.

Since for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and any positive number ε , there exists an integer $N(\varepsilon)$ such that for any indices m, n > N, we have $|x_m^{(i)} - x_n^{(i)}| < \varepsilon$, by definition, $\{x_n^{(i)}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in \mathbb{F} .

Since $\{x_n^{(i)}\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in \mathbb{F} and \mathbb{F} is complete, $\{x_n^{(i)}\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges.

Let $x_0^{(i)} = x_n^{(i)}$. Let $x_0 = \{x_0^{(i)}\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$.

$$||x_0||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_0^{(i)}|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

6.2 c_0 Space and c_{00} Space

Definition (c_0 Space). We define c_0 to be

$$c_0 := \big\{ \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = 0 \big\}.$$

Definition (c_{00} Space). We define c_{00} to be

$$c_{00} := \{(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > N, x_n = 0\}.$$

i.e., the set of all eventually zero sequences of real numbers. i.e., the set of all sequences with finite support.

Proposition 6.2.1. The c_{00} is not complete in $(\ell_1, \|\cdot\|_1)$.

Proof. Define a sequence of vectors $(\mathfrak{x}_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ by $\mathfrak{x}_i^j:=\frac{1}{j^2}$ for $j\in\{1..i\}$ and $\mathfrak{x}_i^j:=0$ for j>i. Then $(\mathfrak{x}_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to something that is not in c_{00} .

Proposition 6.2.2. The closure of c_{00} in the space $(\mathbb{R}^{\omega}, d_1)$ is ℓ_1 .

Proof. For one direction, we are to prove that $\operatorname{cl}(c_{00}) \subseteq \ell_1$. Let x be an arbitrary element in $\operatorname{cl}(c_{00})$. Since $x \in \operatorname{cl}(c_{00})$, there exists another element $y \in c_{00}$ such that $d_1(x,y) < 1$. Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $\forall n > N, y_n = 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} d_1(x,y) &< 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n - y_n| < 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n - y_n| + \sum_{n > N} |x_n - y_n| < 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n - y_n| + \sum_{n > N} |x_n| < 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n=1}^N ||x_n| - |y_n|| + \sum_{n > N} |x_n| < 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n=1}^N \left(|x_n| - |y_n|\right) + \sum_{n > N} |x_n| < 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n| - \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n| + \sum_{n > N} |x_n| < 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n| - \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n| < 1 \\ \iff & \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n| < 1 + \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|. \end{aligned}$$

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Since $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} |x_n|$ is bounded, $x\in\ell_1$.

For the reverse direction, we are to prove that $\ell_1 \subseteq \operatorname{cl}(c_{00})$. Let x be an arbitrary element in ℓ_1 . For $i \in \mathbb{N}$, define $x^i = \{x_j^i\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ as $x_j^i = x_j$ for $j \leq i$ and $x_j^i = 0$ for j > i. Then $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}, x^i \in c_{00}$. Then

$$\lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} d_1(x^i, x)$$

$$= \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_j^i - x_j|$$

$$= \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j > i} |x_j^i - x_j|$$

$$= \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j > i} |x_j|$$

$$= 0.$$

That is, $\lim_{i\in\mathbb{N}} d_1(x^i, x) = 0$. So $\lim_{i\in\mathbb{N}} x^i = x$. So $x \in cl(c_{00})$.

Proposition 6.2.3. The closure of c_{00} in the space $(\mathbb{R}^{\omega}, d_{\infty})$ is c_0 .

Proof. For one direction, we are to prove that $\operatorname{cl}(c_{00}) \subseteq c_0$. Let x be an arbitrary element in $\operatorname{cl}(c_{00})$. Let ε be an arbitrary positive real number. Since $x \in \operatorname{cl}(c_{00})$, there exists another element y in c_{00} such that $d_{\infty}(x,y) < \varepsilon$. That is, $\forall j \in \mathbb{N}, |x_j - y_j| < \varepsilon$. Since $y \in c_{00}$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall j > N, y_j = 0$. So $\forall j > N, |x_j| < \varepsilon$. That is,

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall j > N, \quad |x_j| < \varepsilon.$$

By definition of convergence of limits, $\lim_{j\in\mathbb{N}} x_j = 0$. So $x \in c_0$.

For the reverse direction, we are to prove that $c_0 \subseteq \operatorname{cl}(c_{00})$. Let x be an arbitrary element in c_0 . For $i \in \mathbb{N}$, define x^i as $x^i_j = x_j$ for $j \le i$ and $x^i_j = 0$ for j > i. Then $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}$, $x^i \in c_{00}$. Let ε be an arbitrary positive real number. Since $x \in c_0$,

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall i > N, \quad |x_i| < \varepsilon/2.$$

Let i > N. Then

$$d_{\infty}(x^{i}, x)$$

$$= \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_{j}^{i} - x_{j}|$$

$$= \sup_{j > i} |x_{j}^{i} - x_{j}|$$

$$= \sup_{j > i} |x_{j}|$$

$$< \varepsilon/2 < \varepsilon.$$

That is,

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall i > N, \quad d_{\infty}(x^i, x) < \varepsilon.$$

By definition of convergence of sequences, $\lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} x^i = x$. So $x \in \text{cl}(c_{00})$.

Proposition 6.2.4. Let $A := \{ \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in c_{00} : \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_n = 0 \}$. Then A is a subset of ℓ^1 and is closed in (ℓ^1, d_1) . i.e. cl(A) = A in (ℓ^1, d_1) .

Proof. Let $x = \{x^i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in ℓ^1 , where each $x^i = \{x^i_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an element in A, that converges in (ℓ^1, d_1) . Say $\lim_{i \to \infty} x^i = x^{\infty}$.

First I claim that $x^{\infty} \in c_{00}$.

Now I claim that $\sum_{i\in\mathbb{N}} x_i^{\infty} = 0$. i.e. $x^{\infty} \in A$. Since $x^{\infty} \in c_{00}$,

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall j > N, \quad x_i^{\infty} = 0.$$

Define $y_i := \sum_{j=1}^N x_j^i$. Define $y_\infty := \sum_{j=1}^N x_j^\infty$. It is easy to see that $\lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} y_i = y_\infty$. Assume for the sake of contradiction that $y_\infty \neq 0$. i.e. $\{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ does not converge to 0. Then

$$\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0, \quad \forall M \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \exists i_0 > M, \quad |y_{i_0} - 0| = |y_{i_0}| \ge \varepsilon_0.$$
 (1)

Since $\lim_{i\to\infty} x^i = x^{\infty}$,

$$\exists M_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall i > M_0, \quad d_1(x^i, x^\infty) < \varepsilon_0.$$
 (2)

Consider statement (1) for a particular M, M_0 , we have

$$\exists i_0 > M_0, \quad |y_{i_0}| \ge \varepsilon_0. \tag{3}$$

That is,

$$\left|\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_j^{i_0}\right| \ge \varepsilon_0. \tag{3'}$$

Consider statement (2) for a particular i, i_0 , we have

$$d_1(x^{i_0}, x^{\infty}) < \varepsilon_0. \tag{4}$$

From statement (4) we can derive:

$$d_{1}(x^{i_{0}}, x^{\infty}) < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_{j}^{i_{0}} - x_{j}^{\infty}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff \sum_{j=1}^{N} |x_{j}^{i_{0}} - x_{j}^{\infty}| + \sum_{j>N} |x_{j}^{i_{0}} - x_{j}^{\infty}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff \sum_{j>N} |x_{j}^{i_{0}} - x_{j}^{\infty}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff \sum_{j>N} |x_{j}^{i_{0}} - 0| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff \sum_{j>N} |x_{j}^{i_{0}}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff |\sum_{j>N} x_{j}^{i_{0}}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff |\sum_{j>N} x_{j}^{i_{0}}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff |\sum_{j\in\mathbb{N}} x_{j}^{i_{0}} - \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_{j}^{i_{0}}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff |0 - \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_{j}^{i_{0}}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff |\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{j}^{i_{0}}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

$$\iff |\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{j}^{i_{0}}| < \varepsilon_{0}$$

This contradicts to statement (3'). So the original assumption that $y_{\infty} \neq 0$ is false. i.e. $y_{\infty} = 0$. It follows that $\sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} x_j^{\infty} = 0$. This completes the proof.

6.3 Hölder's Inequality

Theorem 6 (Hölder's Inequality). Let $\mathfrak{X} = \mathbb{R}^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $x = (x_i)_{i=1}^n$ and $y = (y_i)_{i=1}^n$ be vectors in \mathfrak{X} . Then $\forall p, q \in (1, +\infty) : 1/p + 1/q = 1$, $||xy||_1 \le ||x||_p ||y||_q$. i.e.,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i y_i| \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i|^q\right)^{1/q}.$$

Function Spaces

7.1 The \mathcal{L}^p Norm

$$||f||_p = \left(\int_a^b |f(x)|^p dx\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$



Hilbert Space

8.1 Hilbert Spaces

Definition (Hilbert Space). We define a **Hilbert space** to be a complete inner product space.

Example 8.1.1. ℓ^2 is a Hilbert space.

Equicontinuity in Metric Spaces

9.1 Definitions

Definition ((Pointwise) Equicontinuity). Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. Let \mathcal{F} be a collection of functions from X to Y. Let x_0 be a point in X. We say that \mathcal{F} is (pointwise) equicontinuous at point x_0 if for any positive number ε , there exists some number $\delta(x_0, \varepsilon)$ such that for any function f in \mathcal{F} and any point x in X, we have

$$d_{Y}(f(x), f(x_{0})) < \varepsilon$$

whenever $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta(x_0, \varepsilon)$ is satisfied.

Definition (Uniform Equicontinuity). Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. Let \mathcal{F} be a collection of functions from X to Y. We say that \mathcal{F} is uniformly equicontinuous if for any positive number ε , there exists some number $\delta(\varepsilon)$ such that for any function f in \mathcal{F} and any points x_1 and x_2 in X, we have

$$d_Y(f(x_1), f(x_2)) < \varepsilon$$

whenever $d_X(x_1, x_2) < \delta(\varepsilon)$ is satisfied.

9.2 Sufficient Conditions

Proposition 9.2.1. The closure of an equicontinuous family of functions is equicontinuous.

Proof.

Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces.

Let \mathcal{F} be an equicontinuous family of functions from X to Y.

We are to prove that $cl(\mathcal{F})$ is equicontinuous.

Let x_0 be an arbitrary point in X.

Let ε be an arbitrary positive number.

Since \mathcal{F} is equicontinuous at point x_0 , there exists some $\delta(x_0, \varepsilon)$ such that for any function f in \mathcal{F} and any point x in X such that $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta(x_0, \varepsilon)$, we have $d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon/3$. Let f be an arbitrary function in $cl(\mathcal{F})$.

Let x be an arbitrary point in X such that $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta(x_0, \varepsilon)$.

Since $f \in cl(\mathcal{F})$, there exists some function $f_0 \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $d_{\infty}(f, f_0) < \varepsilon/3$.

Since $d_{\infty}(f, f_0) < \varepsilon/3$, $d_Y(f(x), f_0(x)) < \varepsilon/3$ and $d_Y(f(x_0), f_0(x_0)) < \varepsilon/3$.

Since $f_0 \in \mathcal{F}$ and $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta(x_0, \varepsilon), d_Y(f_0(x), f_0(x_0)) < \varepsilon/3$.

Since $d_Y(f(x), f_0(x)) < \varepsilon/3$ and $d_Y(f(x_0), f_0(x_0)) < \varepsilon/3$ and $d_Y(f_0(x), f_0(x_0)) < \varepsilon/3$, $d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$.

Since for any positive number ε , there exists some $\delta(x_0,\varepsilon)$ such that for any function f in $cl(\mathcal{F})$ and any point x in X such that $d_X(x,x_0) < \delta(x_0,\varepsilon)$, we have $d_Y(f(x),f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$, by definition of equicontinuous, $cl(\mathcal{F})$ is equicontinuous at point x_0 .

Since $cl(\mathcal{F})$ is equicontinuous at point x_0 for any point x_0 in X, $cl(\mathcal{F})$ is equicontinuous.

Operators

10.1 Bounded Operators

Definition (Bounded Operator). Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be normed linear spaces. Let T be a linear map from \mathfrak{X} to \mathfrak{Y} . We say that T is a **bounded operator** if

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \|Tx\|_{\mathfrak{Y}} \le k\|x\|_{\mathfrak{X}}.$$

Definition (Operator Norm). Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be normed linear spaces. Let T be a bounded operator from \mathfrak{X} to \mathfrak{Y} . We define the **operator norm** of T, denoted by ||T||, to be the number given by

$$||T|| := \inf\{k \in \mathbb{R} : \forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, ||Tx||_{\mathfrak{Y}} \le k||x||_{\mathfrak{X}}\}.$$

Proposition 10.1.1.

$$||T|| = \sup\{||Tx||_{\mathfrak{Y}} : x \in \mathfrak{X}, ||x||_{\mathfrak{X}} = 1\}.$$

Proposition 10.1.2. Let X and Y be normed linear spaces. Let T be a linear map from X to Y. Then T is bounded if and only if T is continuous.

Example 10.1.1 (The Multiplication Operator). Let $\mathfrak{X} = (\mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C}), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$. Let f be a function in \mathfrak{X} . We define the **multiplication operator** on \mathfrak{X} , w.r.t. f, denoted by M_f , as

$$M_f(g) = fg.$$

Then M_f is bounded and $||M_f|| = ||f||_{\infty}$.

Proof. Let g be an arbitrary function in \mathfrak{X} . Then

$$||M_f g||_{\infty} = ||fg||_{\infty}$$

$$= \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)g(x)|$$

$$= \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)||g(x)|$$

$$\leq \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)| \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |g(x)|$$

$$= ||f||_{\infty} ||g||_{\infty}.$$

That is, $||M_f g||_{\infty} \leq ||f||_{\infty} ||g||_{\infty}$. So $||f||_{\infty}$ is an element of the set $S = \{k \in \mathbb{R} : \forall g \in \mathfrak{X}, ||M_f g||_{\mathfrak{Y}} \leq k ||g||_{\mathfrak{X}}\}$. So $||M_f|| = \inf(S) \leq ||f||_{\infty}$. Consider g_0 given by $g_0(x) = 1$. Then g_0 in \mathfrak{X} . Then

$$||M_f g_0||_{\infty} = ||f g_0||_{\infty} = ||f||_{\infty} = ||f||_{\infty} ||g_0||_{\infty}.$$

Let k be an arbitrary element in S. Assume for the sake of contradiction that $k < ||f||_{\infty}$. Then

$$||f||_{\infty} ||g_0||_{\infty} = ||M_f g_0||_{\infty}$$

 $\leq k ||g_0||_{\infty}$
 $< ||f||_{\infty} ||g_0||_{\infty}.$

This leads to a contradiction. So $\forall k \in S, \ k \geq \|f\|_{\infty}$. So $\|f\|_{\infty}$ is a lower bound for the set S. So $\|M_f\| = \inf(S) \geq \|f\|_{\infty}$. Since $\|M_f\| \leq \|f\|_{\infty}$ and $\|M_f\| \geq \|f\|_{\infty}$, we get $\|M_f\| = \|f\|_{\infty}$.

Example 10.1.2 (The Volterra Operator). Let $\mathfrak{X} = (\mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C}), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$. Define

$$Vf := x \mapsto \int_0^x f(t)dt.$$

Then the Volterra Operator is bounded and $||V|| \leq 1$.

Proof. Let f be an arbitrary function in \mathfrak{X} with $||f||_{\infty} = 1$. Then $\forall x \in [0,1]$,

$$|Vf(x)| = \left| \int_0^x f(t)dt \right|$$

$$\leq \int_0^x |f(t)|dt$$

$$\leq \int_0^x \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |f(t)|dt$$

$$= \int_0^x ||f||_{\infty} dt$$

$$= \int_0^x 1dt$$

$$= x.$$

That is, $\forall x \in [0,1], |Vf(x)| \le 1$. So $||Vf||_{\infty} \le 1$. Since $\forall f \in \mathfrak{X} : ||f||_{\infty} = 1, ||Vf||_{\infty} \le 1$, we get $||V|| \le 1$.

Example 10.1.3 (The Diagonal Operator). Let $\mathfrak{X} = \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$. Let

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & & \\ & d_2 & & \\ & & d_3 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then D is bounded if and only if $(d_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ is bounded and $||D|| = ||(d_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}||_{\infty}$.

Proof. Case 1.

$$||Dx||_{2}^{2} = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |d_{i}x_{i}|^{2}$$

$$= \leq \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} ||(d_{j})_{j \in \mathbb{N}}||_{\infty} |x_{i}|^{2}$$

$$= ||(d_{j})_{j \in \mathbb{N}}||_{\infty} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |x_{i}|^{2}$$

$$= ||(d_{j})_{j \in \mathbb{N}}||_{\infty} ||x||_{2}^{2}.$$

Case 2.

If $(d_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \notin \ell^{\infty}$, $\exists (d_{n_i})_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \to \infty$.

$$||De_{n_i}||_2 = ||d_{n_i}e_{n_i}||_2$$
$$= |d_{n_i}|||e_{n_i}||_2$$
$$= |d_{n_i}|.$$

So
$$||D|| \ge ||De_{n_i}||_2 \to \infty$$
.

Example 10.1.4 (Weighted Shifts).

• Let $\mathcal{H} = \ell_{\mathbb{N}}^2$. Let $(w_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \ell_{\mathbb{N}}^{\infty}$. We define an unilateral forward weighted shift W on \mathcal{H} as

$$W(x_n) := (0, w_1x_1, w_2x_2, w_3x_3, ...).$$

i.e.,

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & & \\ w_1 & 0 & & & & \\ & w_2 & 0 & & & \\ & & w_3 & 0 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then W is bounded and $||W|| = \sup\{|w_n| : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$

• Let $\mathcal{H} = \ell_{\mathbb{N}}^2$. Let $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \ell_{\mathbb{N}}^{\infty}$. We define an unilateral backward weighted shift V on \mathcal{H} as

$$V(x_n) := (v_1x_2, v_2x_3, v_3x_4, ...).$$

Then V is bounded and $||V|| = \sup\{|v_n| : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$

• Let $\mathcal{H} = \ell_{\mathbb{Z}}^2$. Let $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \in \ell_{\mathbb{Z}}^{\infty}$. We define a **bilateral weighted shift** U on \mathcal{H} as

$$U(x_n) := (u_{n-1}x_{n-1})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

Then U is bounded and $||U|| = \sup\{|u_n| : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

Example 10.1.5 (The Composition Operators). Let $\mathfrak{X} = \mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C})$. Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{C}([0,1],[0,1])$. We define the **composition operator** on \mathfrak{X} , denoted by C_{φ} as

$$C_{\varphi}(f) := f \circ \varphi.$$

Then C_{φ} is contractive.

Proof.

$$||C_{\varphi}(f)|| = \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |(f \circ \varphi)(x)|$$

$$\leq ||f||_{\infty}.$$

10.2 Space of Bounded Operators

Proposition 10.2.1. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be normed linear spaces. Then $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y})$ is a vector space and the operator norm is a norm on $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y})$.

Proposition 10.2.2. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be normed linear spaces. Let $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ be two equivalent norms on $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y})$. Then $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y},\|\cdot\|_1)$ if and only if $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y},\|\cdot\|_2)$.

Proposition 10.2.3. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be normed linear spaces. Let $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y})$ be the space of bounded linear operators from \mathfrak{X} to \mathfrak{Y} . Then if \mathfrak{Y} is complete, $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y})$ is complete.

10.3 Dual Spaces

Definition ((Topological) Dual Space). Let \mathfrak{X} be a normed linear space over field \mathbb{K} . We define the (topological) dual space of \mathfrak{X} , denoted by \mathfrak{X}^* , to be the space $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X}, \mathbb{K})$.

Definition (Linear Functionals). We call the elements of \mathfrak{X}^* linear functionals.

Proposition 10.3.1. Let X be a normed linear space. Then there exists a contractive map from X to its double dual X^{**} .

Adjoint Operator

11.1 Definitions

Definition (Adjoint Matrix). Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. We define the **adjoint** of A, denoted by A^* , to be an $n \times m$ matrix given by

$$(A^*)_{ij} := \overline{(A)_{ji}}.$$

Definition (Adjoint Operator). Let V and W be inner product spaces. Let T be a linear map from V to W. We define the **adjoint** of T, denoted by T^* , to be a map from W to V such that

$$\forall x \in V, \forall y \in W, \quad \langle T(x), y \rangle_W = \langle x, T^*(y) \rangle_V.$$

Proposition 11.1.1 (Existence). Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space and T be a linear operator on V. Then the adjoint of T exists.

Proposition 11.1.2 (Uniqueness). Let V be an inner product space and T be a linear operator on V. Then the adjoint of T is unique, provided that it exists.

11.2 Properties of the Adjoint Operator

Proposition 11.2.1. Let V be an inner product space. Then

- (1) $(I_V)^* = I_V$ where I_V is the identity operator on V.
- (2) $T^{**} = T$ for any linear operator T on V.

Proposition 11.2.2. Let V be an inner product space and T be a linear operator on V. Then T^* is also linear.

Proposition 11.2.3. Let V be an inner product space. Then

(1) For any linear operators T and U,

$$(T+U)^* = T^* + U^*.$$

(2) For any linear operator T,

$$(cT)^* = \overline{c} \cdot T^*.$$

(3) For any linear operator T and U,

$$(TU)^* = U^*T^*.$$

Proposition 11.2.4. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space and T be a linear operator on V. Then if T is invertible, T^* is also invertible.

Proposition 11.2.5. Let V be an inner product space and T be an invertible linear operator on V. Then $(T^{-1})^* = (T^*)^{-1}$.

11.3 Normal Operators

Definition (Normal). Let V be an inner product space and T be a linear operator on V. We say that T is **normal** if $TT^* = T^*T$.

11.4 Self-adjoint

Convolution

Definition (Convolution). Let f and g be functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} . We define the **convolution** of f and g, denoted by f * g, to be a function on \mathbb{R} given by

$$(f*g)(t) := \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(\tau)g(t-\tau)dt.$$

Coercive Functions

13.1 Definitions

Definition (Coercive). Let f be a function from \mathbb{R}^d to \mathbb{R}^* . We say that f is coercive if $\lim_{\|x\|\to\infty} f(x) = +\infty$.

13.2 Properties

Proposition 13.2.1. Let f be a proper lower semi-continuous function from \mathbb{R}^d to \mathbb{R}^* . Let K be a compact set in \mathbb{R}^d . Assume $K \cap \text{dom}(f) \neq \emptyset$. Then f attains its minimum over K.

Proof.

Define $m := \inf_{x \in K} f(x)$.

Since $m = \inf_{x \in K} f(x)$, there exists a sequence $\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in K such that $\lim_{i \to \infty} f(x_i) = m$.

Since K is compact and $\{x_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq K$, there exists a convergent subsequence $\{x_i\}_{i\in I}$ in K where I is an infinite subset of \mathbb{N} .

Say the limit is x_{∞} where $x_{\infty} \in K$.

Since $\lim_{i\to\infty} f(x_i) = m$, we get $\lim_{i\in I, i\to\infty} f(x_i) = m$.

Since $\lim_{i \in I, i \to \infty} f(x_i) = m$, we get $\lim \inf_{i \in I, i \to \infty} f(x_i) = m$.

Since f is lower semi-continuous and $\lim_{i \in I, i \to \infty} x_i = x_\infty$, we get $f(x_\infty) \le \liminf_{i \in I, i \to \infty} x_i$.

That is, $f(x_{\infty}) \leq m$.

Since $m = \inf_{x \in K} f(x)$, we have $\forall x \in K, f(x) \geq m$.

In particular, $f(x_{\infty}) \geq m$.

Since $f(x_{\infty}) \geq m$ and $f(x_{\infty}) \leq m$, $f(x_{\infty}) = m$.

Since f is proper, $f(x_{\infty}) = m \neq -\infty$.

So f attains its minimum at point x_{∞} .

Proposition 13.2.2. Let f be a proper, lower semi-continuous, and coercive function from \mathbb{R}^d to \mathbb{R}^* . Let C be a closed subset of \mathbb{R}^d . Assume $C \cap \text{dom}(f) \neq \emptyset$. Then f attains its minimum over C.

Proof.

Since $C \cap \text{dom}(f) \neq \emptyset$, take $x \in C \cap \text{dom}(f)$.

Since f is coercive, $\exists R$ such that $\forall y, ||y|| > R$, we have $f(y) \geq f(x)$.

Since $x \in C \cap \text{dom}(f)$ and $\forall y, ||y|| > R$, we have $f(y) \geq f(x)$, the set of minimizers of f over C is the same as the set of minimizers of f over $C \cap \text{ball}[0, R]$.

Since C and ball [0, R] are both closed, $C \cap \text{ball}[0, R]$ is closed.

Since ball[0, R] is bounded, $C \cap \text{ball}[0, R]$ is bounded.

Since $C \cap \text{ball}[0, R]$ is closed and bounded, by the Heine-Borel Theorem, $C \cap \text{ball}[0, R]$ is compact.

Since f is proper and lower semi-continuous and $C \cap \text{ball}[0, R]$ is compact, f attains its minimum over $C \cap \text{ball}[0, R]$.

So f attains its minimum over C.

Unclassified Results

Proposition 14.0.1. Let (X,d) be a compact metric space. Let L(X) be the set of all Lipschitz functions from X to \mathbb{R} . Let C(X) be the set of all continuous functions from X to \mathbb{R} . Then L(X) is dense in C(X).

Proposition 14.0.2. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. Let S be a subset of V. Let p be a vector in V. Then we have the followings.

(1)
$$p + int(S) = int(p + S)$$
,

(2)
$$p + cl(S) = cl(p + S)$$
.

Proof.

Proof of (1).

For one direction, let x be an arbitrary point in the set (p + int(S)).

We are to prove that $x \in int(p+S)$.

Since $x \in (p + int(S)), (x - p) \in int(S)$.

Since $(x-p) \in int(S)$, by definition of interior, there exists a radius r such that

$$B(x-p,r) \subseteq S$$
.

It follows that $B(x,r) \subseteq p + S$.

Since there exists a radius r such that $B(x,r) \subseteq p+S$, by definition of interior,

$$x \in int(p+S)$$
.

For the reverse direction, let x be an arbitrary point in int(p+S).

We are to prove that $x \in p + int(S)$.

Since $x \in int(p+S)$, by definition of interior, there exists a radius r such that

$$B(x,r) \subseteq (p+S).$$

It follows that $B(x-p,r) \subseteq S$.

Since there exists a radius r such that $B(x-p,r) \subseteq S$, by definition of interior,

$$(x-p) \in int(S)$$
.

Since $(x - p) \in int(S)$, we get $x \in (p + int(S))$.

Proof of (2).

For one direction, let x be an arbitrary point in the set (p + cl(S)).

We are to prove that $x \in cl(p+S)$.

Since $x \in (p + cl(S))$, we get $(x - p) \in cl(S)$.

Since $(x-p) \in cl(S)$, by definition of closure, for any radius r, we have

$$B(x-p,r) \cap S \neq \emptyset$$
.

It follows that $B(x,r) \cap (p+S) \neq \emptyset$.

Since for any radius r, $B(x,r) \cap (p+S) \neq \emptyset$, by definition of closure, we get

$$x \in cl(p+S)$$
.

For the reverse direction, let x be an arbitrary point in cl(p+S).

We are to prove that $x \in (p + cl(S))$.

Since $x \in cl(p+S)$, by definition of closure, for any radius r, we have

$$B(x,r) \cap (p+S) \neq \emptyset$$
.

It follows that $B(x-p,r) \cap S \neq \emptyset$.

Since for any radius r, $B(x-p,r) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, by definition of closure, we get

$$(x-p) \in cl(S)$$
.

Since $(x - p) \in cl(S)$, we get $x \in (p + cl(S))$.

Proposition 14.0.3. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. Let S be a subset of V. Let λ be a non-zero real number. Then

- (1) $\lambda int(S) = int(\lambda S)$.
- (2) $\lambda \operatorname{cl}(S) = \operatorname{cl}(\lambda S)$.

Proof.

Proof of (1).

For one direction, let x be an arbitrary point in $\lambda int(S)$.

We are to prove that $x \in int(\lambda S)$.

Since $x \in \lambda int(S)$, we get $x/\lambda \in int(S)$.

Since $x/\lambda \in int(S)$, by definition of interior, there exists a radius r such that

$$B(x/\lambda, r) \subseteq S$$
.

Let y be an arbitrary point in $B(x, \lambda r)$.

Since $y \in B(x, \lambda r)$, we get $||y - x|| \le \lambda r$.

Since $||y - x|| \le \lambda r$, we get $||y/\lambda - x/\lambda|| \le r$.

Since $||y/\lambda - x/\lambda|| \le r$, we get $y/\lambda \in B(x/\lambda, r)$.

Since $y/\lambda \in B(x/\lambda, r)$ and $B(x/\lambda, r) \subseteq S$, we get $y/\lambda \in S$.

Since $y/\lambda \in S$, we get $y \in \lambda S$.

Since any point in $B(x, \lambda r)$ is also in λS , we get $B(x, \lambda r) \subseteq \lambda S$.

Since there exists a radius r such that $B(x, \lambda r) \subseteq \lambda S$, by definition of interior, we get

$$x \in int(\lambda S)$$
.

For the reverse direction,