# **Functional Analysis**

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# Normed Linear Spaces

#### 1.1 Definitions

**DEFINITION** (Seminorm). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{F}$ . We define a **seminorm** on  $\mathfrak{X}$ , denoted by  $\nu$ , 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)  $\forall x, y \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \nu(x+y) \le \nu(x) + \nu(y).$

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  $\nu$ , to be a seminorm on  $\mathfrak{X}$  that satisfies the additional condition:

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

### 1.2 Properties

**PROPOSITION 1.2.1.** 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  $\lambda$  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.

**PROPOSITION 1.2.2.** Proper subspaces of a normed linear space has empty interior.

Proof. Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Assume for the sake of contradiction that  $\mathcal{M}$  has non-empty interior. Then  $\exists x_0 \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\exists r > 0$  such that  $\operatorname{ball}(x_0, r) \subseteq \mathcal{M}$  where  $\operatorname{ball}(x_0, r)$  denotes the open ball centered at point  $x_0$  with radius r. Let x be an arbitrary point in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Define a point y(x) as  $y(x) := x_0 + \frac{r}{2\|x\|}x$ . Then  $x = \frac{2\|x\|}{r}(y - x_0)$ . It is easy to verify that  $\|y - x_0\| = \frac{r}{2} < r$ . So  $y \in \operatorname{ball}(x_0, r)$ . So  $y \in \mathcal{M}$ . Since  $y, x_0 \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\mathcal{M}$  is a subspace, we get  $\frac{2\|x\|}{r}(y - x_0) \in \mathcal{M}$ . That is,  $x \in \mathcal{M}$ . So  $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, x \in \mathcal{M}$ . So  $\mathcal{M} = \mathfrak{X}$ . This contradicts to the assumption that  $\mathcal{M}$  is a proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . So  $\mathcal{M}$  has empty interior.

**PROPOSITION 1.2.3.** Closed proper subspaces of a normed linear space are nowhere dense.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a closed proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Since  $\mathcal{M}$  is closed,  $cl(\mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{M}$ . So  $cl(\mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{M}$  is a closed proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Since  $cl(\mathcal{M})$  is a proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ ,  $int(cl(\mathcal{M})) = \emptyset$ . So  $\mathcal{M}$  is nowhere dense.

**PROPOSITION 1.2.4.** Finite dimensional subspace of a normed linear space is closed.

**PROPOSITION 1.2.5.** Finite-dimensional normed linear spaces are complete.

### 1.3 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 1.3.1. The equivalence of norms is an equivalence relation.

**THEOREM 1.1.** 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.

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

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

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

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

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

**PROPOSITION 1.3.2.** 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 1.3.3.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector space. Let  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  be two norms on  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $\iota$  be the identity map from  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_1)$  to  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_2)$ . Then if  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  are equivalent,  $\iota$  is continuous, and in fact, a homeomorphism between  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_1)$  and  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_2)$ .

#### 1.4 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 1.4.1. Dual norms of norms are indeed norms.

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**PROPOSITION 1.4.2.** Let  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed vector space. Let v, w be vectors in the space. Then

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

#### 1.5 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 1.5.1.** Let  $\mathfrak{X} := \mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C})$ . Let x be an arbitrary number in [0,1]. Define a function  $\nu_x$  on  $\mathfrak{X}$  by  $\nu_x(f) := |f(x)|$ . Define a function  $\nu$  on  $\mathfrak{X}$  by  $\nu(f) := \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)|$ . Then  $\nu_x$  is a seminorm on  $\mathfrak{X}$  for each x and  $\nu$  is a norm on  $\mathfrak{X}$  and we have  $\nu = \sup_{x \in [0,1]} \nu$ .

**PROPOSITION 1.5.2.** *p*-norms are indeed norms.

**PROPOSITION 1.5.3.** 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

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

So

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

On the other hand, note that

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

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

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

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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 1.5.4.** 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 1.5.5.** 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 1.5.6.** Let w and z be vectors in  $\mathbb{E}^d$ . Then

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

## 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:

$$\forall x \in V, \langle x, x \rangle \ge 0 \text{ and } \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0.$$

(2) Sesqui-Linearity:

$$\forall x,y,z,w \in V, \quad \langle x+y,z+w \rangle = \langle x,z \rangle + \langle y,z \rangle + \langle x,w \rangle + \langle y,w \rangle, \text{ and }$$
 
$$\forall a,b \in \mathbb{F}, \forall x,y \in V, \quad \langle ax,by \rangle = a\overline{b}\langle x,y \rangle.$$

(3) Conjugate Symmetry:

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

**DEFINITION** (Induced Norm). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be an inner product space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . We define the **norm induced by**  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ , denoted by  $\| \cdot \|$ , to be a function from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to  $\mathbb{R}_+$  given by

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

#### 2.1.2 Examples of Inner Products

**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 Inner Product Space

**DEFINITION** (Inner Product Space). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  be an inner product on  $\mathfrak{X}$ . We define an **inner product space** to be the pair  $(\mathfrak{X}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ .

## 2.3 Inequalities

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THEOREM 2.1 (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 2.3.1** (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 2.3.2** (Triangle Inequality). Let V be an inner product space. Then

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

**PROPOSITION 2.3.3** (Parallelogram Law). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be an inner product space. Then

$$\forall x, y \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2.$$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} \|x+y\|^2 + \|x-y\|^2 &= \langle x+y, x+y \rangle + \langle x-y, x-y \rangle \\ &= \langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \\ &+ \langle x, x \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle - \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \\ &= 2\langle x, x \rangle + 2\langle y, y \rangle \\ &= 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2. \end{split}$$

That is,

$$||x + y||^2 + ||x - y||^2 = 2||x||^2 + 2||y||^2.$$

# Orthogonality

#### 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 Set). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be an inner product space. Let S be a subset of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . We say that S is **orthogonal** if

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

i.e., if any two distinct vectors are orthogonal.

**DEFINITION** (Orthonormal Set). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be an inner product space. Let S be a set in the space. We say that S is **orthonormal** if S is orthogonal and  $\forall x \in S$ , ||x|| = 1 where  $||\cdot||$  is the norm induced by the inner product.

PROPOSITION 3.1.1. Orthogonal sets are linearly independent.

### 3.2 Orthogonal Bases

**DEFINITION** (Orthogonal Basis). Let V be an inner product space. Let S be a set in the space. We say that S is an **orthogonal basis** for V if it is an ordered basis for V and orthogonal.

**DEFINITION** (Orthonormal Basis). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be an inner product space. Let S be a set in the space. We say that S is an **orthonormal basis** for  $\mathfrak{X}$  if it is the maximal, with respect to inclusion, in the collection of all orthonormal sets in the space.

**PROPOSITION 3.2.1.** 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

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

**THEOREM 3.1** (Gram-Schmidt Process). Let V be an inner product space. Let  $S = \{x_0, ..., x_n\}$  be a linearly independent subset of V. Then the set  $T = \{y_0, ..., y_n\}$  given by  $y_0 := x_0$  and

$$\forall i \in \{1, ..., n\}, \quad y_i := x_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \frac{\langle x_i, y_j \rangle}{\|y_j\|} y_j$$

is an orthogonal subset of V consisting of non-zero vectors such that  $\mathrm{span}(S) = \mathrm{span}(S')$ .

**PROPOSITION 3.2.2.** 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 3.2** (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

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

**PROPOSITION 3.2.3.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. Let  $\mathcal{E}$  be an orthonormal set in  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then  $\mathcal{E}$  is an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$  if and only if

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{H}, \quad x = \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}} \langle x, e \rangle e.$$

#### 3.3 Orthogonal Complements

**DEFINITION** (Orthogonal Complement). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be an inner product space. Let S be a non-empty subset of V. We define the **orthogonal complement** of S, denoted by  $S^{\perp}$ , to be a set given by

$$S^{\perp} := \{ x \in \mathfrak{X} : \forall s \in S, \langle x, s \rangle = 0 \}.$$

i.e., the set of all points in  $\mathfrak{X}$  that are orthogonal to all vectors in S.

**PROPOSITION 3.3.1.** Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space. Then

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

PROPOSITION 3.3.2. Orthogonal complements are always linear subspaces.

**PROPOSITION 3.3.3.** Let V be an inner product space and W be a subspace of V with basis  $\beta$ . Then a vector in V is also in  $W^{\perp}$  if and only if it is orthogonal to all vectors in  $\beta$ .

**PROPOSITION 3.3.4** (Extension). Let V be an n-dimensional inner product space and  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$  be an orthogonal subset of V. Then S can be extended to an orthogonal basis  $B = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$  for V.

**PROPOSITION 3.3.5.** 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 3.3.6.** 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 3.3.7.** Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space and  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  be subspaces of V. Then

- $(1) (W_1 + W_2)^{\perp} = W_1^{\perp} \cap W_2^{\perp}$
- $(2) \ (W_1 \cap W_2)^{\perp} = W_1^{\perp} + W_2^{\perp}$

### 3.4 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  $W^{\perp}$ .

## 3.5 Inequalities in Hilbert Spaces

**THEOREM 3.3** (Bessel's Inequality). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. Let  $\mathcal{E}$  be an orthonormal set in the space. Then

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}} |\langle x, e_i \rangle|^2 \le ||x||^2.$$

**PROPOSITION 3.5.1.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. Let  $\mathcal{E}$  be an orthonormal set in  $\mathcal{H}$ . Let x be a point in the space. Then the net  $\sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}} \langle x, e \rangle e$  converges in  $\mathcal{H}$ .

Proof. Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the collection of all finite subsets of  $\mathcal{E}$ , partially ordered by inclusion. Define for each  $F \in \mathcal{F}$  a vector  $y_F$  as  $y_F := \sum_{e \in F} \langle x, e \rangle e$ . Let  $\varepsilon$  be an arbitrary positive number. Since  $\mathcal{E}$  is an orthonormal set, the set  $\{e \in \mathcal{E} : \langle x, e \rangle \neq 0\}$  is countable. Let  $\{e_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  denote the set. By the Bessel's inequality,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sum_{i=N+1}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_i \rangle|^2 < \varepsilon^2$ . Define a set  $F_0$  as  $F_0 := \{e_1, ..., e_N\}$ . Let F and G be arbitrary elements in  $\mathcal{F}$  such that  $F_0 \leq F$  and  $F_0 \leq G$ . Then

$$||y_F - y_G||^2 = \left| \sum_{e \in F \setminus G} \langle x, e \rangle e - \sum_{e \in G \setminus F} \langle x, e \rangle e \right|^2$$

$$= \sum_{e \in F \cup G \setminus F \cap G} |\langle x, e \rangle|^2$$

$$= \sum_{e \in F \cup G} |\langle x, e \rangle|^2 - \sum_{e \in F \cap G} |\langle x, e \rangle|^2$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=N+1}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_i \rangle|^2$$

$$\leq \varepsilon^2$$

So  $\{y_F\}_{F\in\mathcal{F}}$  is Cauchy. Since  $\mathcal{H}$  is complete and  $\{y_F\}_{F\in\mathcal{F}}$  is Cauchy,  $\{y_F\}_{F\in\mathcal{F}}$  converges.

## Sequence Spaces

### 4.1 $\ell^p$ Space

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

**DEFINITION** (Weighted  $\ell^p$  Space). Let  $(r_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of positive integers. We define the **weighted**  $\ell^p$  space to be the set given by

$$\ell^p := \{(x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{N}} : \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} r_i |x_i|^p < +\infty.$$

**PROPOSITION 4.1.1.** 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  $\ell^p$ .

Since  $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy in  $\ell^p$ ,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  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  $\varepsilon$ , 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  $x_0 = \{x_0^{(i)}\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ .

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

#### 4.2 $c_0$ 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 4.2.1.** 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 4.2.2.** The closure of  $c_{00}$  in the space  $(\mathbb{R}^{\omega}, d_1)$  is  $\ell_1$ .

*Proof.* For one direction, we are to prove that  $cl(c_{00}) \subseteq \ell_1$ . Let x be an arbitrary element in  $cl(c_{00})$ . Since  $x \in cl(c_{00})$ , 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

$$d_1(x,y) < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n - y_n| < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_n - y_n| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n - y_n| < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_n - y_n| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||x_n| - |y_n|| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n=1}^{N} (|x_n| - |y_n|) + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_n| - \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} |x_n| - \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n| < 1$$

$$\iff \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} |x_n| < 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n|.$$

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  $\ell_1$ . For  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , define  $x^i = \{x^i_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$  as  $x^i_j = x_j$  for  $j \leq i$  and  $x^i_j = 0$  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 4.2.3.** 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  $cl(c_{00}) \subseteq c_0$ . Let x be an arbitrary element in  $cl(c_{00})$ . Let  $\varepsilon$  be an arbitrary positive real number. Since  $x \in cl(c_{00})$ , 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  $x_j^i = x_j$  for  $j \le i$  and  $x_j^i = 0$  for j > i. Then  $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x^i \in c_{00}$ . Let  $\varepsilon$  be an arbitrary positive real number. Since  $x \in c_0$ ,

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

Let i > N. Then

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

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

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

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

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

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  $x \in cl(c_{00})$ .

**PROPOSITION 4.2.4.** 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  $\ell^1$  and is closed in  $(\ell^1, d_1)$ . i.e.  $\operatorname{cl}(A) = A$  in  $(\ell^1, d_1)$ .

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

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

Now I claim that  $\sum_{j\in\mathbb{N}} x_j^{\infty} = 0$ . 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:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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.

### 4.3 Hölder's Inequality

**THEOREM 4.1** (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**

#### 5.1 The $\mathcal{L}^p$ Norm

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



## **Quotient Spaces**

#### 6.1 Definitions

**DEFINITION** (Quotient Space). 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  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector 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

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

### 6.2 Quotient Spaces with Seminorms

**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 6.2.1. Seminorms on quotient spaces are indeed seminorms.

**PROPOSITION 6.2.2.** A seminorm on a quotient space  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$  is a norm if and only if  $\mathfrak{M}$  is closed.

**PROPOSITION 6.2.3** (Quotient maps are contractive). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a closed linear subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Then

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

**PROPOSITION 6.2.4.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a closed linear subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let q denote the canonical quotient map from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M}$ . Then q is a continuous under the norm topology.

*Proof.* Since q is contractive, q is continuous.

### 6.3 Quotient Spaces with Topologies

**DEFINITION** (Quotient Toplogy). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological vector space. Let  $\mathcal{W}$  be a <u>closed</u> subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ . We define the **quotient topology** on the quotient space  $\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  as

$$\{G \subseteq \mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W} : q^{-1}(G) \in \mathcal{T}\}.$$

**PROPOSITION 6.3.1.** The quotient topology is compatible with the quotient space.

PROPOSITION 6.3.2. The quotient topology is Hausdorff.

PROPOSITION 6.3.3. The quotient map is continuous under the quotient topology.

#### PROPOSITION 6.3.4. Then

• map. i.e.,

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

• q is an open map. i.e.,

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

# Banach Space

### 7.1 Definition

**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.

## 7.2 Examples of Banach Space

**EXAMPLE 7.2.1.**  $(\mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{F}),\|\cdot\|_{\infty})$  is a Banach space.

**EXAMPLE 7.2.2** (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 7.2.3.** Let  $(X, \Omega, \mu)$  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 7.2.4.** 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

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

## 7.3 Properties

**PROPOSITION 7.3.1.** 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  $\mathfrak{X}$  is summable.

*Proof.* For one direction, assume that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a Banach space. We are to prove that any absolutely summable series in  $\mathfrak{X}$  is summable. Let  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}x_n$  be an absolutely summable series. i.e.,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\|x_n\|<+\infty$ . Define for each  $n\in\mathbb{N}$  a vector  $y_n$  as  $y_n:=\sum_{i=1}^nx_i$ . Let  $\varepsilon>0$  be arbitrary. Then  $\exists N\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall n>N$ ,  $\sum_{i=n}^{\infty}\|x_i\|<\varepsilon$ . Let n>m>N be arbitrary. Then

$$||y_n - y_m|| = ||\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \sum_{i=1}^m x_i|| = ||\sum_{i=m+1}^n x_i||$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=m+1}^n ||x_i|| < \sum_{i=m+1}^\infty ||x_i||$$

$$< \varepsilon.$$

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That is,  $||y_n - y_m|| < \varepsilon$ . So  $(y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy. Since  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a Banach space and  $(y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy, it converges. So  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_n$  is summable.

For the reverse direction, assume that every absolutely summable series in  $\mathfrak X$  is summable. We are to prove that  $\mathfrak X$  is a Banach space. Let  $(y_n)_{n\in\mathbb N}$  be an arbitrary Cauchy sequence in  $\mathfrak X$ . Then  $\forall n\in\mathbb N, \, \exists N_n\in\mathbb N$  such that  $\forall k,l\geq N_n, \, \|y_k-y_l\|<\frac{1}{2^n}$ . Assume that  $N_1< N_2<\dots$  Define  $x_1:=y_{N_1}$ . Define for each  $n\in\mathbb N$  a vector  $x_{n+1}$  as  $x_{n+1}:=y_{N_{n+1}}-y_{N_n}$ . Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ||x_n|| = ||x_1|| + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ||y_{N_{n+1}} - y_{N_n}|| < ||x_1|| + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$$
$$= ||x_1|| + 1 < +\infty.$$

So  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_n$  is absolutely summable. By assumption, it is summable. i.e.,  $(y_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges. Since any Cauchy sequence in  $\mathfrak{X}$  converges,  $\mathfrak{X}$  is complete and hence a Banach space.

**PROPOSITION 7.3.2** (Stability of Banach Spaces Under Quotients). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{M}$ . Then the quotient space  $\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{M}$  is again a Banach space.

#### Proof. Proof Approach 1.

Let  $(q(x_n))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be an arbitrary Cauchy sequence in  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathcal{M}$ . We are to prove that it converges.

#### Proof. Proof Approach 2.

Let q denote the canonical quotient map. Let  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} q(x_n)$  be an arbitrary absolutely summable series in  $\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{M}$ . Since  $||q(x_n)||$  is defined to be  $||q(x_n)|| := \inf\{||x_n + m|| : m \in \mathbb{M}\}$ ,  $\exists m_n \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $||x_n + m_n|| < ||q(x_n)|| + \frac{1}{2^n}$ . Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|x_n + m_n\| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ \|q(x_n)\| + \frac{1}{2^n} \right] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|q(x_n)\| + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|q(x_n)\| + 1 < +\infty.$$

So  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}(x_n+m_n)$  is absolutely summable. Since  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a Banach space,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}(x_n+m_n)$  is summable. Say  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}(x_n+m_n)=x_{\bullet}$ . Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} q(x_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} q(x_n + m_n) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} q(x_n + m_n) = \lim_{N \to \infty} q(\sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n + m_n))$$

$$= q(\lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n + m_n)) = q(x_{\bullet}).$$

So  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} q(x_n)$  is summable. Since any absolutely summable series in  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathcal{M}$  is summable,  $\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{M}$  is complete.

**PROPOSITION 7.3.3.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . If  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathcal{M}$  are both complete, then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a Banach space.

Proof. Let  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be an arbitrary Cauchy sequence in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . We are to prove that it converges. Let q denote the canonical quotient map. Since  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy in  $\mathfrak{X}$ ,  $(q(x_n))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy in  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathcal{M}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathcal{M}$  is a Banach space and  $(q(x_n))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy,  $(q(x_n))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges. Say  $\lim_{n\in\mathbb{N}} q(x_n) = q(x_{\bullet})$  for some  $x_{\bullet} \in \mathfrak{X}$ . By definition of norms in the quotient space, for  $n\in\mathbb{N}$ , we can choose  $m_n\in\mathcal{M}$  such that  $\|x_{\bullet}-x_n-m_n\| \leq \|q(x_{\bullet})-q(x_n)\| + \frac{1}{n}$ . So

$$\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} ||x_{\bullet} - x_n - m_n|| \le \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} ||q(x_{\bullet}) - q(x_n)|| + \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{n} = 0 + 0 = 0.$$

So  $(x_n + m_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges to  $x_{\bullet}$ . So  $(x_n + m_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy. Since  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  and  $(x_n + m_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  are both Cauchy,  $(m_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy. Since  $\mathcal{M}$  is a Banach space and  $(m_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy,  $(m_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges. Say  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} m_n = m_{\bullet}$ . So

$$\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_n = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} ((x_n + m_n) - m_n) = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (x_n + m_n) - \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} m_n$$
$$= x_{\bullet} - m_{\bullet}.$$

So  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges. Since any Cauchy sequence in  $\mathfrak X$  converges,  $\mathfrak X$  is a Banach space.

**PROPOSITION 7.3.4.** Any Banach space with a Schauder basis has to be separable.

## 7.4 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.
- We can similarly define the direct sum of finitely many Banach spaces.

**PROPOSITION 7.4.1.**  $\|\cdot,\cdot\|_p$  is a norm on  $\mathfrak{X} \oplus_p \mathfrak{Y}$ .

**PROPOSITION 7.4.2.**  $\mathfrak{X} \oplus_p \mathfrak{Y}$  is complete with respect to  $\|\cdot, \cdot\|_p$ .

## 7.5 Unconditional Convergence in Banach Spaces

**DEFINITION** (Unconditional Convergence). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $(x_{\lambda})_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  be a set of vectors in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the collection of all finite subsets of  $\Lambda$ , partially ordered by inclusion. Define a net  $(y_F)_{F \in \mathcal{F}}$  on  $\mathcal{F}$  by  $y_F := \sum_{\lambda \in F} x_{\lambda}$ . We say that the series  $\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} x_{\lambda}$  is **unconditional convergent** if the net  $(y_F)_{F \in \mathcal{F}}$  converges.

**PROPOSITION 7.5.1** (Equivalent Formulations of Unconditional Convergence). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of vectors in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent.

- (1) For any permutation  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{\pi(n)}$  converges.
- (2) For any subsequence indexing  $(k_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{k_n}$  converges.
- (3)  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \mu \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all finite subsets F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$ , we have  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n\| < \varepsilon$ .
- (4)  $\exists y \in \mathfrak{X}$  such that  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ , there is a finite subset  $F_0$  of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that for all finite F

such that  $F_0 \subseteq F \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n - y\| < \varepsilon$ .

- (5) For any sequence  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\in\{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\alpha_nx_n$  converges.
- (6) For any bounded sequence  $(\beta_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \beta_n x_n$  converges.

#### *Proof.* Proof of $(1) \implies (5)$ .

Assume that for any permutation  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{\pi(n)}$  converges. We are to prove that for any sequence  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n$  converges. Assume for the sake of contradiction that there is some  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n$  diverges. i.e.,  $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $\forall N \in \mathbb{N}, \exists k_N > l_N > N$  such that

$$\|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n\| \ge \varepsilon_0. \tag{*}$$

For N=1, find  $k_1$  and  $l_1$ . For  $N=l_1$ , find  $k_2$  and  $l_2$ . In general, for  $N=l_n$ , find  $k_{n+1}$  and  $l_{n+1}$ . Then we have  $k_1 < l_1 < k_2 < l_2 < \ldots$  For each n, there is an  $m_n \in [k_n, l_n]$  and a permutation  $\pi_n$  of  $[k_n, l_n]$  such that  $\pi_n(i) \in [k_n, m_n]$  if  $\alpha_i = 1$  and  $\pi_n(i) \in (m_n, l_n]$  if  $\alpha_i = -1$ . Define a permutation  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb N$  as  $\pi(i) := i$  if  $\forall n \in \mathbb N$ ,  $i \notin [k_n, l_n]$ ; and  $\pi(i) := \pi_n(i)$  if  $i \in [k_n, l_n]$ . By assumption, for  $\pi$ ,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb N} x_{\pi(n)}$  converges. So for  $\varepsilon_0$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb N$  such that  $\forall j > i > N$ ,  $\|\sum_{n=i}^j x_n\| < \varepsilon_0/2$ . So

$$\| \sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n \| = \| \sum_{n=k_N}^{m_N} \alpha_n x_n + \sum_{n=m_N+1}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n \|$$

$$= \| \sum_{n=k_N}^{m_N} x_n - \sum_{n=m_N+1}^{l_N} x_n \|$$

$$\leq \| \sum_{n=k_N}^{m_N} x_n \| + \| \sum_{n=m_N+1}^{l_N} x_n \|$$

$$< \varepsilon_0 / 2 + \varepsilon_0 / 2 = \varepsilon_0.$$

That is,

$$\|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n\| < \varepsilon_0. \tag{**}$$

Notice (\*) and (\*\*) contradict. So the assumption that there is some  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\in\{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\alpha_nx_n$  diverges does not hold. i.e., for any sequence  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\in\{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\alpha_nx_n$  converges.

#### *Proof.* Proof of $(5) \implies (2)$ .

Assume that for any sequence  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n$  converges. We are to prove that for any subsequence indexing  $(k_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{k_n}$  converges. Let  $(k_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be an arbitrary

subsequence indexing. Consider  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be given by  $\alpha_n:=1$  for all  $n\in\mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\alpha_nx_n=\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}x_n$  converges. Consider  $(\alpha_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be given by  $\alpha_n:=1$  for  $n\in\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ ; and  $\alpha_n:=-1$  for  $n\notin\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ . Then  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\alpha_nx_n=\sum_{n\in\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}}x_n-\sum_{n\notin\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}}x_n$  converges Notice

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_{k_n} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_n + \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{n \in \{k_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}} x_n - \sum_{n \notin \{k_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}} x_n \right).$$

So  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{k_n}$  converges.

#### *Proof.* Proof of $(2) \implies (3)$ .

Assume that for any subsequence indexing  $(k_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{k_n}$  converges. We are to prove that  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \mu \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all finite subsets F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$ , we have  $\|\sum_{n\in F} x_n\| < \varepsilon$ . Assume for the sake of contradiction that  $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $\forall \mu \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is some finite subset F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$  such that  $\|\sum_{n\in F} x_n \geq \varepsilon_0$ . For  $\mu = 1$ , find  $F_1 \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$  finite. For  $\mu = \max\{F_1\}$ , find  $F_2 \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$  finite. In general, for  $\mu = \max\{F_n\}$ , find  $F_{n+1} \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$  finite. Then we have that the  $F_n$ 's are disjoint. Define a subsequence indexing  $(k_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  as  $(k_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}} := \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} F_n$ . By assumption, for  $(k_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{k_n}$  converges. So for  $\varepsilon_0$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall j > i > N$ ,

$$\|\sum_{n=i}^{j} x_{k_n}\| < \varepsilon_0. \tag{*}$$

So for N, there is some finite subset F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$  such that

$$\|\sum_{n\in F} x_n\| \ge \varepsilon_0.$$

Notice  $F = \{k_n\}_{n=i_N}^{j_N}$  for some  $i_N$  and  $j_N$ . So (\*) and (\*\*) contradict. So the assumption that  $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $\forall \mu \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is some finite subset F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1...\mu\}$  such that  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n \ge \varepsilon_0$  does not hold. i.e.,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \mu \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all finite subsets F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1...\mu\}$ , we have  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n\| < \varepsilon$ .

#### *Proof.* Proof of $(3) \implies (1)$ .

Assume that  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \mu \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all finite subsets F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$ , we have  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n\| < \varepsilon$ . We are to prove that for any permutation  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_{\pi(n)}$  converges. Assume for the sake of contradiction that there is some permutation  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_{\pi(n)}$  diverges. i.e.,  $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $\forall N \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\exists l_N > k_N > N$  such that  $\|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} x_{\pi(n)}\| \ge \varepsilon_0$ . Let  $\mu$  be an arbitrary element of  $\mathbb{N}$ . Define N as  $N := \max\{\pi^{-1}(n)\}_{n=1}^{\mu}$ . For N, find  $l_N > k_N > N$  such that  $\|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} x_{\pi(n)}\| \ge \varepsilon_0$ . Define a set F as  $F := \{\pi(n)\}_{n=k_N}^{l_N}$ . So  $F \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$ . Then  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n\| = \|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} x_n\| \ge \varepsilon_0$ . So  $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $\forall \mu \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is some finite subset F of  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1..\mu\}$  such that

 $\|\sum_{n\in F} x_n\| \ge \varepsilon_0$ . This contradicts to the assumption. So the assumption that there is some permutation  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{\pi(n)}$  diverges does not hold. So for any permutation  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_{\pi(n)}$  converges.

# Hilbert Space

### 8.1 Definition

**DEFINITION** (Hilbert Space). We define a **Hilbert space**, denoted by  $\mathcal{H}$ , to be a complete inner product space.

### 8.2 Examples of Hilbert Space

**EXAMPLE 8.2.1.** Let  $(X, \mu)$  be a measure space. Then  $L^2(X, \mu)$  is a Hilbert space with inner product given by

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_X f(x) \overline{g(x)} d\mu(x).$$

**EXAMPLE 8.2.2.**  $\ell^2(\mathbb{K}) = \{(x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{K}^{\infty} : \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |x_i|^2 < +\infty \}$  is a Hilbert space with inner product given by

$$\langle (x_i)i \in \mathbb{N}, (y_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \rangle := \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} x_n \overline{y_n}.$$

## 8.3 Properties of Hilbert Space

**PROPOSITION 8.3.1.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. Let S be a non-empty set in the space. Then  $S^{\perp\perp} = \text{clspan}(S)$ .

*Proof.* For one direction, we are to prove that  $\operatorname{clspan}(S) \subseteq S^{\perp \perp}$ .

For the reverse direction, we are to prove that  $S^{\perp\perp} \subseteq \operatorname{clspan}(S)$ . Assume for the sake of contradiction that  $\exists x \in S^{\perp\perp}$  with  $x \neq 0$  such that  $x \notin \operatorname{clspan}(S)$ . Say  $x = m_1 + m_2$  for some  $m_1 \in \operatorname{clspan}(S)$  and some  $m_2 \in \operatorname{clspan}(S)^{\perp}$ . Note that  $\operatorname{clspan}(S)^{\perp} = S^{\perp}$ . So  $m_2 \in S^{\perp}$ . Since  $x \in S^{\perp\perp}$  and  $m_2 \in S^{\perp}$ , we should have  $\langle x, m_2 \rangle = 0$ . However,

$$\begin{split} \langle x, m_2 \rangle &= \langle m_1 + m_2, m_2 \rangle \\ &= \langle m_1, m_2 \rangle + \langle m_2, m_2 \rangle \\ &= 0 + \langle m_2, m_2 \rangle \\ &> 0, \text{ since } m_2 \neq 0. \end{split}$$

This leads to a contradiction. So  $S^{\perp\perp} \subseteq \text{clspan}(S)$ .

**THEOREM 8.1** (The Riesz Representation Theorem). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space over field  $\mathbb{K} \in \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$ . Suppose that  $\mathcal{H} \neq \{0\}$ . Then for any  $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}^*$ ,  $\exists y \in \mathcal{H}$  such that

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \varphi(x) = \langle x, y \rangle.$$

*Proof.* Define for each  $y \in \mathcal{H}$  a function  $\beta_y \in \mathcal{H}^*$  by  $\beta_y(x) := \langle x, y \rangle$ . We are to prove that  $\mathcal{H}^* = \{\beta_y : y \in \mathcal{H}\}$ . It is easy to verify that each  $\beta_y$  is linear and bounded. So  $\forall y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\beta_y \in \mathcal{H}^*$ . i.e.,  $\{\beta_y : y \in \mathcal{H}\} \subseteq \mathcal{H}^*$ . Define a map  $\Theta$  from  $\mathcal{H}$  to  $\mathcal{H}^*$  as  $\Theta(y) := \beta_y$ . It is easy to verify that  $\Theta$  is linear.

$$\begin{aligned} \|\Theta(y)\| &= \|\beta_y\| = \sup\{\beta_y(x) : \|x\| = 1\} \\ &= \sup\{\langle x, y \rangle : \|x\| = 1\} \\ &\leq \sup\{\|x\| \|y\| : \|x\| = 1\} \\ &= \|y\|. \end{aligned}$$

That is,  $\|\Theta(y)\| \le \|y\|$ . So  $\|\Theta\| \le 1$ . On the other hand, consider an arbitrary point  $y_0 \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $y_0 \ne 0$ :

$$\begin{split} \|\Theta\| &= \sup \left\{ \frac{\|\Theta(y)\|}{\|y\|} : y \neq 0 \right\} \\ &\geq \frac{\|\Theta(y)\|}{\|y\|} \bigg|_{y=y_0} \end{split}$$

$$= \frac{\|\Theta(y_0)\|}{\|y_0\|}$$

$$= \frac{\|\beta_{y_0}\|}{\|y_0\|}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\|y_0\|} \sup \left\{ \frac{\|\beta_{y_0}(y)\|}{\|y\|} : y \neq 0 \right\}$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{\|y_0\|} \frac{\|\beta_{y_0}(y_0)\|}{\|y_0\|}$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{\|y_0\|} \frac{\|y_0\|^2}{\|y_0\|}$$

$$= 1.$$

That is,  $\|\Theta\| \ge 1$ . So  $\|\Theta\| = 1$ . So  $\Theta$  is isometric. It immediately follows that  $\Theta$  is injective. Now it remains to prove that  $\Theta$  is surjective. Let  $\varphi \in \mathcal{H}^*$ . If  $\varphi = 0$ , then  $\varphi = \Theta(0)$  and we are done. Otherwise, let  $\mathcal{M} := \ker(\varphi)$ . Then we have  $\operatorname{codim} \mathcal{M} = \dim \mathcal{M}^{\perp} = 1$ . Take  $e \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$  such that  $\|e\| = 1$ . Let P denote the orthogonal projection onto  $\mathcal{M}$ . Then 1 - P is the orthogonal projection onto  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ .

$$x = Px + (1 - P)x = Px + \langle x, e \rangle e.$$

So for  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$\varphi(x) = \varphi(Px) + \langle x, e \rangle \varphi(e) = \langle x, \overline{\varphi(e)}e \rangle = \beta_y(x)$$

where  $y := \overline{\varphi(e)}e$ . Hence  $\varphi = \beta_y$ . So  $\Theta$  is surjective. This completes the proof.

**PROPOSITION 8.3.2** (Stability of Hilbert Spaces Under Quotients). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then the quotient space  $\mathcal{H}/\mathcal{M}$  is again a Hilbert space.

# **Operators**

### 9.1 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 9.1.1.

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

**PROPOSITION 9.1.2.** 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.

### 9.2 Examples of Bounded Operators

**EXAMPLE 9.2.1** (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

$$||M_f g_0||_{\infty} = ||fg_0||_{\infty} = ||f||_{\infty} = ||f||_{\infty} ||g_0||_{\infty}.$$

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 9.2.2** (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 9.2.3** (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  $||D|| \geq ||De_{n_i}||_2 \to \infty$ .

#### EXAMPLE 9.2.4 (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

$$W(x_n) := (0, w_1 x_1, w_2 x_2, w_3 x_3, \dots).$$

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

$$V(x_n) := (v_1 x_2, v_2 x_3, v_3 x_4, \dots).$$

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 9.2.5** (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  $C_{\varphi}$  as

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

Then  $C_{\varphi}$  is contractive.

Proof.

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

### 9.3 The Space of Bounded Operators

**PROPOSITION 9.3.1.** 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 9.3.2.** 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.

**PROPOSITION 9.3.3.** 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  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X},\mathfrak{Y},\|\cdot\|_2)$ .

## 9.4 Invertible Bounded Operators

**PROPOSITION 9.4.1.** Let  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_1)$  be a Banach space. Let  $S \in \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X})$  be a bounded linear map that is invertible. Define a norm  $\|\cdot\|_2$  on  $\mathfrak{X}$  as

$$||x||_2 := ||Sx||_1.$$

Then  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  are equivalent.

*Proof.* On one hand, since S is bounded,  $\exists c_1$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}$ ,  $||Sx||_1 \leq c_1 ||x||_1$ . That is,  $||x||_2 \leq c_1 ||x||_1$ .

On the other hand, since S is invertible,  $S^{-1}$  exists and is also bounded. Since  $S^{-1}$  is bounded,  $\exists c_2$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \|S^{-1}x\|_1 \leq c_2\|x\|_1$ . Consider x = Sx, we get  $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \|S^{-1}Sx\|_1 \leq c_2\|Sx\|_1$ . That is,  $\|x\|_1 \leq c_2\|x\|_2$ .

So  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  are equivalent.

**PROPOSITION 9.4.2.** Let  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|)$  be a Banach space. Let S be a map in  $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X})$  that is invertible. Then

$$||S^{-1}|| = (\inf\{||Sx|| : ||x|| = 1\})^{-1}.$$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} \|S^{-1}\| &= \sup\{\|S^{-1}x\| : \|x\| = 1\} \\ &= \sup\left\{\frac{\|S^{-1}x\|}{\|x\|} : \|x\| \neq 0\right\} \\ &= \sup\left\{\frac{\|S^{-1}Sx\|}{\|Sx\|} : \|x\| \neq 0\right\} \\ &= \sup\left\{\frac{\|x\|}{\|Sx\|} : \|x\| \neq 0\right\} \\ &= \sup\left\{\frac{1}{\|Sx\|} : \|x\| = 1\right\} \\ &= (\inf\{\|Sx\| : \|x\| = 1\})^{-1}. \end{split}$$

That is,

$$||S^{-1}|| = (\inf\{||Sx|| : ||x|| = 1\})^{-1}.$$

# **Dual Space**

### 10.1 Definitions

**DEFINITION** (Linear Functional). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . We define a linear functional on  $\mathfrak{X}$  to be a linear map from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to  $\mathbb{K}$ .

**DEFINITION** (Algebraic Dual). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . We define the **algebraic dual** of  $\mathfrak{X}$ , denoted by  $\mathfrak{X}^{\#}$ . to be the vector space of all linear functionals on  $\mathfrak{X}$ .

**DEFINITION** (Topological Dual). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a <u>topological</u> vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . We define the **topological dual** of  $\mathfrak{X}$ , denoted by  $\mathfrak{X}^*$ , to be the vector space of all <u>continuous</u> linear functionals on  $\mathfrak{X}$ .

**PROPOSITION 10.1.1.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Then there exists a contractive map from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to its double dual  $\mathfrak{X}^{**}$ .

## 10.2 Examples of Dual Spaces

**EXAMPLE 10.2.1.**  $(c_0(\mathbb{N}))^*$  is isometrically isomorphic to  $\ell^1(\mathbb{N})$ .

**EXAMPLE 10.2.2.**  $(\ell^1(\mathbb{N}))^*$  is isometrically isomorphic to  $\ell^\infty(\mathbb{N})$ .

### 10.3 Properties

**PROPOSITION 10.3.1.** Let V be a vector space. Suppose that  $V^*$  is separable. Then V is also separable.

**Remark.** Note that  $\ell_1(\mathbb{N})$  is separable but its dual  $\ell^{\infty}(\mathbb{N})$  is not. So the converse of the above is false.

**PROPOSITION 10.3.2.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Let  $g, f_1...f_n \in \mathcal{V}^{\#}$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $g \in \text{span}\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$  if and only if  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(f_i) \subseteq \ker(g)$ .

*Proof.* Forward Direction: Assume that  $g \in \text{span}\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . We are to prove that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(f_i) \subseteq \ker(g)$ . Let x be an arbitrary element of  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(f_i)$ . Since  $g \in \text{span}\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , there exist scalars  $\lambda_1...\lambda_n$  such that  $g = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i f_i$ . Then

$$g(x) = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i f_i)(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i f_i(x)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \cdot 0, \text{ since } \forall i = 1..n, x \in \ker(f_i)$$
$$= 0.$$

That is, g(x) = 0. So  $x \in \ker(g)$ . So  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \ker(f_i) \subseteq \ker(g)$ .

**Backward Direction**: Assume that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(f_i) \subseteq \ker(g)$ . We are to prove that  $g \in \operatorname{span}\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . Assume without loss of generality that  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are linearly independent. Define a set  $\mathcal{N}$  by  $\mathcal{N} := \bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(f_i)$ . Then  $\dim(\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N}) \leq n$ . Define for each i=1..n a function  $F_i : \mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N} \to \mathbb{K}$  by  $F_i(x+\mathcal{N}) := f_i(x)$ . Then clearly each  $F_i$  is linear. Since  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are linearly independent,  $\{F_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are linearly independent. So  $\dim(\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N}) \geq n$ . So  $\dim(\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N}) = n$ . So  $\{F_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is a basis for  $(\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N})^\#$ . Define a function  $G : \mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N} \to \mathbb{K}$  by

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 $G(x + \mathcal{N}) := g(x)$ . Then clearly, G is linear. So  $\exists k_1...k_n \in \mathbb{K}$  such that  $G = \sum_{i=1}^n k_i F_i$ . It follows that  $g = \sum_{i=1}^n k_i f_i$ . So  $g \in \text{span}\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$ .

**PROPOSITION 10.3.3.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Let  $\rho \in \mathcal{V}^{\#}$ . Then  $\rho \in \mathcal{V}^{*}$  if and only if  $\ker(\rho)$  is a closed set.

*Proof.* Forward Direction: Assume that  $\rho \in \mathcal{V}^*$ . I will show that  $\ker(\rho)$  is closed. Notice  $\{0\}$  is closed in  $\mathbb{K}$ . Since  $\rho \in \mathbb{V}^*$ ,  $\rho$  is continuous. So  $\rho^{-1}(\{0\})$  is closed. Note that  $\rho^{-1}(\{0\}) = \ker(\rho)$ . So  $\ker(\rho)$  is closed.

**Backward Direction**: Assume that  $\ker(\rho)$  is a closed set. I will show that  $\rho \in \mathcal{V}^*$ . If  $\rho = 0$ , then we are done. Otherwise, assume that  $\rho \neq 0$ . Define a map  $\varphi : \mathcal{V}/\ker(\rho) \to \mathbb{K}$  by  $\varphi(x + \ker(\rho)) := \rho(x)$ . Then clearly  $\varphi$  is linear. Since  $\dim(\mathcal{V}/\ker(\rho)) = 1$  and  $\dim(\mathbb{K}) = 1$ ,  $\varphi$  is continuous. Let q denote the canonical quotient map from  $\mathcal{V}$  to  $\mathcal{V}/\ker(\rho)$ . Then q is continuous. Note that  $\rho = \varphi \circ q$ . So  $\rho$  is continuous.

# Balanced Sets and Absorbing Sets

### 11.1 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 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 balcore(S), to be the largest balanced set contained in S.

## 11.2 Properties

**PROPOSITION 11.2.1.** Let X be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let B be a balanced subset of X. Then

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

PROPOSITION 11.2.2. Balanced sets are path connected.

**PROPOSITION 11.2.3** (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 11.2.4 (Act on Other Properties).The balanced core of a closed set is closed.

**PROPOSITION 11.2.5.** Let X be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let a be a scalar in field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then

a balhull(S) = balhull(aS).

## 11.3 Stability of Balance

**PROPOSITION 11.3.1** (Set Operations). • The union of balanced sets is also balanced.

• The intersection of balanced sets is also balanced.

PROPOSITION 11.3.2. The convex hull of a balanced set is also a balanced set.

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**PROPOSITION 11.3.3** (Topological Operations). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space. Let E be a balanced set. Then  $\operatorname{cl}(E)$  is also a balanced set.

**PROPOSITION 11.3.4** (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.

### 11.4 Absorbing Sets

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

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

i.e.,

$$\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} nS = \mathfrak{X}.$$

PROPOSITION 11.4.1. Every absorbing set contains the origin.

**PROPOSITION 11.4.2.** Let V be a topological vector space. Let  $U \in \mathcal{U}_0$ . Then U is absorbing.

# Topological Vector Space

### 12.1 Definitions

**DEFINITION** (Compatible). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a topology on  $\mathcal{V}$ . We say that  $\mathcal{T}$  is **compatible** with the vector space structure on  $\mathcal{V}$  if the addition and scalar multiplication operations on  $\mathcal{V}$  are continuous.

**DEFINITION** (Topological Vector Space). We define a **topological vector space** to be a vector space with a compatible <u>Hausdorff</u> topology.

## 12.2 Examples

**EXAMPLE 12.2.1.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a topological vector space with the topology induced by the norm.

Proof.

$$\|\sigma(x_{\alpha}, y_{\alpha}) - \sigma(x, y)\| = \|(x_{\alpha} + y_{\alpha}) - (x + y)\|$$

$$= \|(x_{\alpha} - x) + (y_{\alpha} - y)\|$$

$$\leq \|x_{\alpha} - x\| + \|y_{\alpha} - y\|$$

$$< \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$$

So  $\sigma$  is continuous.

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mu(k_{\alpha}, x_{\alpha}) - \mu(k, x)\| &= \|k_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} - kx\| \\ &= \|k_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} - kx_{\alpha} + kx_{\alpha} - kx\| \\ &\leq \|k_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} - kx_{\alpha}\| + \|kx_{\alpha} - kx\| \\ &= |k_{\alpha} - k| \|x_{\alpha} + |k| \|x_{\alpha} - x\| \\ &< \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

So  $\mu$  is continuous.

PROPOSITION 12.2.1. Normed linear spaces are Hausdorff.

### 12.3 Properties

**PROPOSITION 12.3.1.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \tau)$  be a topological vector space. Let  $U \in \mathcal{U}_0$  be a neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then

- $\exists N \in \mathcal{U}_0$  such that  $N + N \subseteq U$ .
- $\exists M \in \mathcal{U}_0$  and  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall 0 < |k| < \varepsilon$ , we have  $kM \subseteq U$ .

•

**PROPOSITION 12.3.2.** Let V be a topological vector space. Every neighborhood of 0 contains a open balanced neighborhood of 0.

Proof. Let U be an arbitrary element of  $\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}}$ . Let  $\mu$  denote the multiplication operation on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $\mu$  is continuous and hence  $\mu^{-1}(U)$  is a neighborhood of  $(0,0) \in \mathbb{K} \times \mathcal{V}$ . So there exist an r>0 and an element  $N\in \mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}}$  that is open such that  $\mathrm{ball}(0,r)\times N\subseteq \mu^{-1}(U)$ . Define a set M as  $M:=\bigcup_{k:0<|k|< r}kN$ . Since  $\mathrm{ball}(0,r)\times N\subseteq \mu^{-1}(U)$ , we have  $M\subseteq U$ . Since  $M=\bigcup_{k:0<|k|< r}kN$  and  $N\in \mathcal{T}$ , we have  $M\in \mathcal{T}$ . Since  $M\supseteq \frac{r}{2}N, \frac{r}{2}N\in \mathcal{T}$ , and  $0\in \frac{r}{2}N$ , we have  $M\in \mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}}$ . Let a be an arbitrary element in  $\mathbb{K}$  such that |a|<1. Then

$$aM = a \bigcup_{k:0 < |k| < r} kN = \bigcup_{k:0 < |k| < r} akN = \bigcup_{k:0 < |k| < ar} kN \subseteq \bigcup_{k:0 < |k| < r} kN = M.$$

So M is balanced.

**PROPOSITION 12.3.3.** Closure of a linear subspace is a linear subspace.

*Proof.* Let (V, T) be a topological vector space. Let W be a linear subspace of V. We are to prove that cl(W) is a linear subspace.

Let x and y be arbitrary elements of  $\operatorname{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ . Then there exists a net  $(x_{\lambda}, y_{\lambda})_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  that converges to (x, y). Since the addition operation  $\sigma$  is continuous, we have  $\lim_{\lambda \in \Lambda} (x_{\lambda} + y_{\lambda}) = x + y$ . Since  $\mathcal{W}$  is a linear subspace,  $x_{\lambda} + y_{\lambda} \in \mathcal{W}$ . So  $x + y \in \operatorname{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ .

Let x be an arbitrary element of  $\operatorname{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ . Let k be an arbitrary element in  $\mathbb{K}$ . Then there exists a net  $(k\lambda, x_{\lambda})_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  that converges to (k, x). Since the scalar multiplication operation  $\mu$  is continuous, we have  $\lim_{\lambda \in \Lambda} (k_{\lambda} x_{\lambda}) = kx$ . Since  $\mathcal{W}$  is a linear subspace,  $k_{\lambda} x_{\lambda} \in \mathcal{W}$ . So  $kx \in \operatorname{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ .

### 12.4 Operation on Sets in a Topological Vector Space

**PROPOSITION 12.4.1** (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  $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ , the set S given by  $S := \alpha K + \beta C$  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  $s_{\infty}$ . 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  $\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{I}}$  of  $\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$  in K. Say  $\{k_i\}_{i\in I}$  converges to  $k_{\infty} \in K$ . Since  $\{s_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges to  $s_{\infty}$ ,  $\{s_i\}_{i\in I}$  also converges to  $s_{\infty}$ . Since  $s_i = \alpha k_i + \beta c_i$ ,  $s_i = \beta^{-1}(s_i - \alpha k_i)$ . Define  $s_i = \beta^{-1}(s_i - \alpha k_i)$  and  $s_i = \beta^{-1}(s_i - \alpha k_i)$ ,  $\{s_i\}_{i\in I}$  converges to  $s_{\infty}$  and  $\{s_i\}_{i\in I}$  converges to  $s_{\infty}$  and  $\{s_i\}_{i\in I}$  is a sequence in S and converges to S and S and 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  $\mathbb{R}\times\mathbb{R}_{++}$ .

**PROPOSITION 12.4.2.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed vector space. Let S be a subset of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let p be a vector in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Then we have the followings.

- (1) p + int(S) = int(p+S),
- $(2) p + \operatorname{cl}(S) = \operatorname{cl}(p+S).$

Proof of (1). For one direction, let x be an arbitrary point in the set p + int(S). We are to prove that  $x \in \text{int}(p+S)$ . Since  $x \in (p+\text{int}(S))$ ,  $(x-p) \in \text{int}(S)$ . Since  $(x-p) \in \text{int}(S)$ , 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,

$$x \in \operatorname{int}(p+S)$$
.

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,

$$(x-p) \in \text{int}(S)$$
.

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

Proof of (2). For one direction, let x be an arbitrary point in the set  $p + \operatorname{cl}(S)$ . We are to prove that  $x \in \operatorname{cl}(p+S)$ . Since  $x \in (p+\operatorname{cl}(S))$ , we get  $(x-p) \in \operatorname{cl}(S)$ . Since  $(x-p) \in \operatorname{cl}(S)$ , 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

$$x \in \operatorname{cl}(p+S)$$
.

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

$$(x-p) \in \operatorname{cl}(S)$$
.

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

**PROPOSITION 12.4.3.** Let  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed vector space. Let S be a subset of V. Let  $\lambda$  be a non-zero real number. Then

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

Proof of (1). For one direction, let x be an arbitrary point in  $\lambda \operatorname{int}(S)$ . We are to prove that  $x \in \operatorname{int}(\lambda S)$ . Since  $x \in \lambda \operatorname{int}(S)$ , we get  $x/\lambda \in \operatorname{int}(S)$ . Since  $x/\lambda \in \operatorname{int}(S)$ , 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  $\lambda S$ , we get  $B(x, \lambda r) \subseteq \lambda S$ . Since there exists a radius  $x \in S$  such that  $B(x, \lambda r) \subseteq \lambda S$ , by definition of interior, we get

$$x \in \operatorname{int}(\lambda S)$$
.

## 12.5 Finite-Dimensional Topological Vector Spaces

**PROPOSITION 12.5.1.** Let V be an n-dimensional topological vector space where

 $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\mathcal{V}$  is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{K}^n$  via the map

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} k_i e_i \mapsto (k_i)_{i=1}^{n}.$$

**COROLLARY 12.1.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a finite-dimensional vector space. Then there is a unique topology  $\mathcal{T}$  which makes  $\mathcal{V}$  a topological vector space.

# Completeness

## 13.1 Cauchy Nets

**DEFINITION** (Cauchy Net). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \tau)$  be a topological vector space. Let  $(x_{\lambda})_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  be a net in  $\mathcal{V}$ . We say that  $(x_{\lambda})_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  is a **Cauchy net** if  $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_0, \exists \lambda_0 \in \Lambda$  such that  $\forall \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \geq \lambda_0$ , we have  $x_{\lambda_1} - x_{\lambda_2} \in U$ .

#### PROPOSITION 13.1.1. Convergent nets are Cauchy.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space. Let  $(x_{\lambda})_{{\lambda} \in \Lambda}$  be a convergent net with limit point x. Let U be an arbitrary element in  $\mathcal{U}_0$ . Let N be an element in  $\mathcal{U}_0$  that is balanced and open and that  $N - N \subseteq U$ . Since  $\lim_{{\lambda} \in \Lambda} x_{\lambda} = x$ ,  $\exists {\lambda}_0 \in {\Lambda}$  such that  $\forall {\lambda} \geq {\lambda}_0$ ,  $x_{\lambda} - x \in N$ . Let  ${\lambda}_1$  and  ${\lambda}_2$  be arbitrary elements that are  $\geq {\lambda}_0$ . Then

$$x_{\lambda_1} - x_{\lambda_2} = (x_{\lambda_1} - x) - (x_{\lambda_2} - x) \in N - N \subseteq U.$$

That is,  $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_0$ ,  $\exists \lambda_0$  such that  $\forall \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \geq \lambda_0$ ,  $x_{\lambda_1} - x_{\lambda_2} \in U$ . So  $(x_{\lambda})_{{\lambda} \in \Lambda}$  is Cauchy.

## 13.2 Complete Topological Vector Spaces

**DEFINITION** (Cauchy Complete). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \tau)$  be a topological vector space. We say that  $\mathcal{V}$  is **Cauchy complete** if every Cauchy net in  $\mathcal{V}$  converges in  $\mathcal{V}$ .

**PROPOSITION 13.2.1.** Let  $\mathcal V$  be a topological vector space. Let  $\mathcal K$  be a complete set in  $\mathcal V$ . Then  $\mathcal K$  is closed in  $\mathcal V$ .

# Seminorms and Locally Convex Spaces

#### 14.1 Preliminaries

**DEFINITION** (Sublinear Functional). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Let f be a function from  $\mathcal{V}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . We say that f is **sublinear** if it satisfies:

• Subadditivity:

$$\forall x, y \in \mathcal{V}, \quad f(x+y) \le f(x) + f(y).$$

• Positive Homogeneity:

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, \forall \lambda \ge 0, \quad f(\lambda x) = \lambda f(x).$$

PROPOSITION 14.1.1. Every seminorm is a sublinear functional.

**DEFINITION** (Minkowski Functional). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space. Let E be a <u>convex</u> neighborhood of 0. We define the **Minkowski functional** for E, denoted by  $p_E$ , to be a function from  $\mathcal{V}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  given by

$$p_E(x) := \inf\{r > 0 : x \in rE\}.$$

**PROPOSITION 14.1.2.** Every Minkowski functional for a convex neighborhood of 0 is a sublinear functional.

**PROPOSITION 14.1.3.** Every Minkowski functional for a <u>balanced</u> convex neighborhood of 0 is a seminorm.

**PROPOSITION 14.1.4.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space. Let E be an <u>open</u> convex neighborhood of 0. Then

$$E = \{x \in \mathcal{V} : p_E(x) < 1\}.$$

*Proof.* Let F denote the set  $\{x \in \mathcal{V} : p_E(x) < 1\}$ .

#### Forward Direction:

Let x be an arbitrary element of E. I will show that  $x \in F$ . Define a map  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathcal{V}$  by f(t) := tx. Then f is continuous. Since E is open in  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathcal{V}$  is continuous, we get  $f^{-1}(E)$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Notice  $x = f(1) \in E$ . So  $1 \in f^{-1}(E)$ . Since  $f^{-1}(E)$  is open and  $1 \in f^{-1}(E)$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $1 + \delta \in f^{-1}(E)$ . So  $f(1 + \delta) \in E$ . So  $(1 + \delta)x \in E$ . So  $x \in \frac{1}{1+\delta}E$ . So  $p_E(x) \le \frac{1}{1+\delta}$ , which further, is < 1. So  $x \in F$ .

#### **Backward Direction:**

Let x be an arbitrary element of F. I will show that  $x \in E$ . Since  $x \in F$ ,  $p_E(x) < 1$ . So  $\exists r_0 < 1$  such that  $x \in r_0 E$ , which further, is  $\subseteq E$ . So  $x \in E$ .

**DEFINITION** (Separating Family of Seminorms). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space. Let  $\Gamma$  be a family of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$ . We say that  $\Gamma$  is **separating** if  $\forall x \in \mathcal{V}$  such that  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\exists p \in \Gamma$  such that  $p(x) \neq 0$ .

**DEFINITION** (Separating Family of Linear Functionals). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space. Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be a collection of linear functionals on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Define for each  $\varphi \in \mathcal{L}$  a seminorm  $\tau_{\varphi}$  on  $\mathcal{V}$  by  $\tau_{\varphi}(x) := |\varphi(x)|$ . We say that  $\mathcal{L}$  is **separating** if the set  $\Gamma$  given by  $\Gamma := \{\tau_{\varphi} : \varphi \in \mathcal{L}\}$  is a separating family of seminorms.

#### 14.2 Locally Convex Space

**DEFINITION** (Locally Convex Space). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological vector space. We say that  $\mathcal{T}$  is **locally convex** if it admits a base consisting of only convex sets.

**PROPOSITION 14.2.1.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a locally convex topological vector space. Let  $\mathcal{W}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  is a locally convex topological vector space in the quotient topology.

Proof. Clearly  $\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  is a topological vector space. It suffices to show that  $\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  admits a neighborhood base at 0 consisting of only convex sets. Let  $q:=\mathcal{V}\to\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  denote the canonical quotient map. Then q is linear, continuous and open. Let U be an arbitrary element in  $\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}}$ . Then  $q^{-1}(U)\in\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}}$ . Since  $\mathcal{V}$  is locally convex,  $\exists N\in\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}}$  that is convex and that  $N\subseteq q^{-1}(U)$ . Define a set M as M:=q(N). Since q is open and  $N\in\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}}$ , we have  $M\in\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}}$ . Since q is linear and N is convex, M is convex. Since  $N\subseteq q^{-1}(U)$ ,  $M\subseteq U$ . So  $\forall U\in\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}}$ ,  $\exists M\in\mathcal{U}_0^{\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}}$  that is convex and that  $M\subseteq U$ . So  $\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  admits a neighborhood base at 0 consisting of only convex sets.

**THEOREM 14.1.** Let V be a vector space. Let  $\Gamma$  be a separating family of seminorms on V. Define a set  $\mathcal{B}$  as

$$\mathcal{B} := \{ N(x, F, \varepsilon) : x \in \mathcal{V}, \varepsilon > 0, F \subseteq \mathcal{F} \text{ is finite } \}$$

where  $N(x, F, \varepsilon)$  is defined as

$$N(x, F, \varepsilon) := \{ y \in \mathcal{V} : \forall p \in F, p(x - y) < \varepsilon \}.$$

Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is a base for a locally convex topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Moreover, each  $p \in \Gamma$  is continuous.

**THEOREM 14.2.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological vector space. Then there exists a separating family  $\Gamma$  of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$  that can generate  $\mathcal{T}$ .

**EXAMPLE 14.2.1.** The norm topology is exactly the locally convex topology generated by  $\Gamma = \{\|\cdot\|\}$ .

- 14.3 Strong Operator Topology
- 14.4 Weak Operator Topology

## The Hahn-Banach Theorem

#### 15.1 The Extension Results

**THEOREM 15.1** (The Hahn-Banach Theorem - 2). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a linear manifold of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Let p be a seminorm on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Let f be a linear functional on  $\mathcal{M}$ . Suppose that  $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}, |f(m)| \leq p(m)$ . Then there exists a linear functional g on  $\mathcal{V}$  such that  $g|_{\mathcal{M}} = f$  and that  $\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, |g(x)| \leq p(x)$ .

**COROLLARY 15.1.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a linear manifold of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{M}^*$ . Then  $\exists g \in \mathcal{V}^*$  such that  $g|_{\mathcal{M}} = f$ .

**THEOREM 15.2** (The Hahn-Banach Theorem - 3). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a linear manifold of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{M}^*$ . Then  $\exists g \in \mathfrak{X}^*$  such that  $g|_M = f$  and that ||g|| = ||f||.

**COROLLARY 15.2.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Let  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^m$  be a linearly independent set of vectors in  $\mathcal{V}$  where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $k_1..k_m$  be arbitrary elements of  $\mathbb{K}$ . Then  $\exists g \in \mathcal{V}^*$  such that  $\forall i = 1..m, g(x_i) = k_i$ .

**COROLLARY 15.3.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a finite-dimensional linear manifold of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $\mathcal{M}$  is topologically complemented.

Proof. Let  $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^n$  be a basis for  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $n = \dim(\mathcal{M})$ . Then  $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is a linearly independent set of vectors in  $\mathcal{V}$ . By Corollary 15.2, for each i = 1..n,  $\exists \rho_i \in \mathcal{V}^*$  such that  $\rho_i(m_j) = \delta_{i,j}$ . Define  $\mathcal{Y} := \bigcap_{i=1}^m \ker(\rho_i)$ . Since the  $\rho_i$ 's are continuous, the  $\ker(\rho_i)$ 's are closed. So  $\mathcal{Y}$  is closed. Since  $\dim(\mathcal{M}) < \infty$ ,  $\mathcal{M}$  is closed.

Now I will show that  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{M} + \mathcal{Y}$ . Let v be an arbitrary element of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Define for i = 1..n a scalar  $k_i$  as  $k_i := \rho_i(v)$ . Define a point m as  $m := \sum_{i=1}^n k_i m_i$ . Then  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ . Define a point y as y := v - m. Then  $\forall i = 1..n$ , we have

$$\rho_i(y) = \rho_i(v - m) = \rho_i(v - \sum_{j=1}^n k_j m_j) = \rho_i(v) - \sum_{j=1}^n k_j \rho_i(m_j)$$
$$= k_i - \sum_{j=1}^n k_j \delta_{i,j} = k_i - k_i = 0.$$

That is,  $\rho_i(y) = 0$ . So  $\forall i = 1..n, y \in \ker(\rho_i)$ . So  $y \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(\rho_i) = \mathcal{Y}$ . So  $\forall v \in \mathcal{V}, v = m + y$  where  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ . So  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{M} + \mathcal{Y}$ .

Now I will show that  $\mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{Y} = \{0\}$ . Note that  $0 \in \mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{Y}$ . Let z be an arbitrary element of  $\mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{Y}$ . Since  $z \in \mathcal{M}$ , there exist scalars  $\{r_j\}_{j=1}^n$  such that  $z = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j m_j$ . On one hand, since  $z = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j m_j$ ,  $\forall i = 1..n$ , we have

$$\rho_i(z) = \rho_i(\sum_{j=1}^n r_j m_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j \rho_i(m_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j \delta_{i,j} = r_i.$$

That is,  $\rho_i(z) = r_i$ . On the other hand, since  $z \in \mathcal{Y} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(\rho_i)$ ,  $\forall i = 1..n$ , we have  $\rho_i(z) = 0$ . So  $\forall i = 1..n$ ,  $r_i = 0$ . So  $z = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j m_j = 0$ . So  $\mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{Y} = \{0\}$ .

So  $\mathcal{M}$  is topologically complemented by  $\mathcal{Y}$ .

**COROLLARY 15.4.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ . Then

$$||x|| = \max\{|x^*(x)| : x^* \in \mathfrak{X}^*, ||x^*|| < 1\}.$$

i.e.,  $\exists x^* \in \mathfrak{X}^* \text{ with } ||x^*|| = 1 \text{ such that } ||x|| = |x^*(x)|.$ 

**COROLLARY 15.5.** The canonical embedding  $\mathfrak{J}:\mathfrak{X}\to\mathfrak{X}^{**}$  is an isometry.

*Proof.* Let x be an arbitrary element of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . We are to prove that  $||x||_{\mathfrak{X}} = ||\mathfrak{J}x||_{\mathfrak{X}^{**}}$ . Let  $\hat{x}$  denote  $\mathfrak{J}x$ . On one hand, for any  $y^* \in \mathfrak{X}^*$ , we have

$$|\hat{x}(y^*)| = |y^*(x)| \le ||y^*|| ||x||.$$

So  $\|\hat{x}\| \leq \|x\|$ . On the other hand, by Corollary 15.4, there exists  $x^* \in \mathfrak{X}^*$  with  $\|x^*\| \leq 1$  such that  $|x^*(x)| = \|x\|$ . So

$$\|\hat{x}\| \ge |\hat{x}(x^*)| = |x^*(x)| = \|x\|.$$

That is,  $\|\hat{x}\| \ge \|x\|$ . Since  $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}$ ,  $\|x\| = \|\mathfrak{J}x\|$ , we have that  $\mathfrak{J}$  is an isometry.

**COROLLARY 15.6.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathfrak{Y}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $z \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}$ . Then  $\exists x^* \in \mathfrak{X}^*$  with  $||x^*|| = 1$  such that  $x^*|_{\mathfrak{Y}} = 0$  and  $x^*(z) = d(z, \mathfrak{Y})$ .

*Proof.* Since  $z \notin \mathfrak{Y}$ ,  $\mathfrak{Y} \neq z + \mathfrak{Y}$ . By Corollary 15.4,  $\exists \xi^* \in (\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{Y})^*$  with  $\|\xi^*\| = 1$  such that  $|\xi^*(z+\mathfrak{Y})| = \|z+\mathfrak{Y}\| = d(z,\mathfrak{Y})$ . Let q be the canonical quotient map from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{Y}$ . Define a map from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to  $\mathbb{K}$  as  $x^* := \xi^* \circ q$ .

#### Show that $x^* \in \mathfrak{X}^*$ :

Clearly  $x^*$  is linear. Recall that  $\|\xi^*\| = 1$  and that q is a contraction map and hence  $\|q\| \le 1$ . So  $\|x^*\| \le \|\xi^*\| \|q\| \le 1$ . So  $x^* \in \mathfrak{X}^*$ .

Show that  $||x^*|| = 1$ :

Since  $\|\xi^*\| = 1$ , we can find a sequence  $(t_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{Y}$  such that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $\|t_n\| \le 1$  and  $1 - \frac{1}{n} < |\xi^*(t_n)| \le 1$ . So  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(t_n)| = 1$ . Define for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  a point  $x_n \in \mathfrak{X}$  to be such that  $q(x_n) = \frac{n}{n+1}t_n$ . Then  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$||x_n + \mathfrak{Y}|| = ||q(x_n)|| = ||\frac{n}{n+1}t_n|| = \frac{n}{n+1}||t_n|| < ||t_n|| \le 1.$$

That is,  $||x_n + \mathfrak{Y}|| < 1$ . So  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\exists y_n \in \mathfrak{Y}$  such that  $||x_n + y_n|| < 1$ . On the other hand, we have

$$\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x^*(x_n + y_n)| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(q(x_n + y_n))| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(x_n + y_n + \mathfrak{Y})| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} ||x_n + y_n + \mathfrak{Y}||$$

$$= \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} ||x_n + \mathfrak{Y}|| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(x_n + \mathfrak{Y})| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(q(x_n))|$$

$$= \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(\frac{n}{n+1}t_n)| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\frac{n}{n+1}\xi^*(t_n)|, \text{ by linearity of } \xi^*$$

$$= \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{n}{n+1} \cdot \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(t_n)| = 1 \cdot 1 = 1.$$

That is,  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x^*(x_n + y_n)| = 1$ . Since  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $||x_n + y_n|| < 1$  and  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x^*(x_n + y_n)| = 1$ , we get  $||x^*|| \ge 1$ . Recall that we have proved  $||||x^*|| \le 1$ . So  $|||||x^*|| = 1$ .

Show that  $x^*|_{\mathfrak{Y}} = 0$ :

Let y be an arbitrary element of  $\mathfrak{Y}$ . Then we have

$$x^*(y) = \xi^*(q(y)) = \xi^*(y + \mathfrak{Y}) = d(y, \mathfrak{Y}) = 0.$$

So  $x^*|_{\mathfrak{Y}} = 0$ .

Show that  $x^*(z) = d(z, \mathfrak{Y})$ :

Note that

$$x^*(z) = |\xi^*(q(z))| = |\xi^*(z + \mathfrak{Y})| = d(z, \mathfrak{Y}).$$

That is,  $x^*(z) = d(z, \mathfrak{Y})$ .

#### 15.2 Separation Results

(bug)

**PROPOSITION 15.2.1.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Let G be a non-empty, open, and convex set in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Suppose that  $0 \notin G$ . Then there exists a closed hyperplane  $\mathcal{M}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$  such that  $G \cap \mathcal{M} = \emptyset$ .

Proof.

Case 1:  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ .

Since  $G \neq \emptyset$ , take  $x_0 \in G$ . Define a set H as  $H := x_0 - G$ . Then H is non-empty, open, convex, and  $0 \in H$ . Let  $p_H$  denote the Minkowski functional on H. Since H is an open convex neighborhood of 0,  $H = \{x \in \mathcal{V} : p_H(x) < 1\}$ . Define a set  $\mathcal{W}$  by  $\mathcal{W} := \mathbb{R}x_0$ . Then  $\mathcal{W}$  is a linear manifold of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Define a map  $f : \mathcal{W} \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(kx_0) := kp_H(x_0)$ . Then f is a linear functional on  $\mathcal{W}$ . Note that

$$f(kx_0) = kp_H(x_0) = p_H(kx_0)$$
, for  $k \ge 0$ , and  $f(kx_0) = kp_H(x_0) < 0 \le p_H(kx_0)$ , for  $k < 0$ .

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**THEOREM 15.3** (The Hahn-Banach Theorem - 4). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Let A and B be two non-empty, open, convex, and disjoint sets in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $\exists f \in \mathcal{V}^*$ ,

 $\exists \kappa \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that }$ 

$$\forall a \in A, b \in B, \quad \Re f(a) > \kappa > \Re f(b).$$

**THEOREM 15.4** (The Hahn-Banach Theorem - 5). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Let A and B be two non-empty, closed, convex, and disjoint sets in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Suppose B is compact. Then  $\exists f \in \mathcal{V}^*, \exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\forall a \in A, b \in B, \quad \Re f(a) \ge \alpha > \beta \ge \Re f(b).$$

**COROLLARY 15.7.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Let A be a non-empty set in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then the closed convex hull  $\operatorname{clconv}(A)$  equals the intersection of all closed half-spaces that contain A.

*Proof.* Let  $\Omega$  denote the set of all closed half-spaces that contain A.

#### Forward Direction:

Note that  $\forall S \in \Omega$ , S is closed and convex. So  $\bigcap_{S \in \Omega} S$  is closed and convex. Note also that  $A \subseteq \bigcap_{S \in \Omega} S$ . So  $\operatorname{clconv}(A) \subseteq \bigcap_{S \in \Omega} S$ .

#### **Backward Direction:**

Let z be an arbitrary element outside  $\operatorname{clconv}(A)$ . Then  $\operatorname{clconv}(A)$  and  $\{z\}$  are two non-empty, closed, convex, and disjoint sets and we have that  $\{z\}$  is compact. By the Hahn-Banach theorem, version 5,  $\exists f \in \mathcal{V}^*$ ,  $\exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\forall a \in \operatorname{clconv}(A), \quad \Re f(a) \ge \alpha > \beta \ge \Re f(z).$$

Define a set  $S_0$  by  $S_0 := \{x \in \mathcal{V} : \Re f(x) \geq \alpha\}$ . Then  $S_0$  is a closed half-space of  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $z \notin S_0$ . So  $z \notin \bigcap_{S \in \Omega} S$ . So  $\bigcap_{S \in \Omega} S \subseteq \operatorname{clconv}(A)$ .

## Weak Topologies

#### 16.1 Definitions

**DEFINITION** (Dual Pair). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be a separating family of linear functionals on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Suppose  $\mathcal{L}$  is a linear manifold of  $\mathcal{V}^{\#}$ . We define a **dual pair** to be the pair  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{L})$ .

**DEFINITION** (Weak Topology). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Then by the Hahn-Banach theorem,  $\mathcal{V}^*$  separates points. So  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^*)$  is a dual pair. We define the **weak topology** on  $\mathcal{V}$  to be the topology  $\sigma(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^*)$  induced by the family  $\mathcal{V}^*$ .

**DEFINITION** (Weak\* Topology). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a locally convex space. Then  $\hat{\mathcal{V}}$  is a separating family of linear functionals on  $\mathcal{V}^*$  and a linear manifold of  $(\mathcal{V}^*)^{\#}$ . So  $(\mathcal{V}^*, \hat{\mathcal{V}})$  is a dual pair. We define the **week\* topology** on  $\mathcal{V}^*$  to be the topology  $\sigma(\mathcal{V}^*, \hat{\mathcal{V}})$  induced by the family  $\hat{\mathcal{V}}$ .

### 16.2 Properties

(bug)

**PROPOSITION 16.2.1.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a finite-dimensional Banach space. Then the norm, weak, and weak\* topologies on  $\mathfrak{X}$  all coincide.

**PROPOSITION 16.2.2.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $\mathfrak{X}^*$  denote the dual space of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $\tau_*$  denote the weak topology on  $\mathfrak{X}^*$  induced by elements of  $\mathfrak{X}$  as

$$\lim_{\alpha} x_{\alpha}^* = x^* \iff \forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \lim_{\alpha} x_{\alpha}^*(x) = x^*(x).$$

Then  $(\mathfrak{X}^*, \tau_*)$  is a topological vector space.

**THEOREM 16.1.** Let  $V, \mathcal{L}$ ) be a dual pair. Then  $\mathcal{L} = (V, \sigma(V, \mathcal{L}))^*$ .

*Proof.* Forward Direction: Let  $f \in \mathcal{L}$ . I will show that  $f \in (\mathcal{V}, \sigma(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{L}))^*$ . Backward Direction: Let  $f \in (\mathcal{V}, \sigma(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{L}))^*$ . I will show that  $f \in \mathcal{L}$ .

not finished

## Equicontinuity in Metric Spaces

#### 17.1 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  $\varepsilon$ , 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  $\varepsilon$ , 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.

#### 17.2 Sufficient Conditions

**PROPOSITION 17.2.1.** 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  $\varepsilon$  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  $\varepsilon$ , 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.

## Adjoint Operator

#### 18.1 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 18.1.1** (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 18.1.2** (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.

#### 18.2 Properties of the Adjoint Operator

**PROPOSITION 18.2.1.** 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 18.2.2.** Let V be an inner product space and T be a linear operator on V. Then  $T^*$  is also linear.

**PROPOSITION 18.2.3.** 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 18.2.4.** 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 18.2.5.** Let V be an inner product space and T be an invertible linear operator on V. Then  $(T^{-1})^* = (T^*)^{-1}$ .

#### 18.3 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  $TT^* = T^*T$ .

### 18.4 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

#### 20.1 Definitions

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

#### 20.2 Properties

**PROPOSITION 20.2.1.** 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.
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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  $x_{\infty}$  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.
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In particular,  $f(x_{\infty}) \geq m$ .

Since  $f(x_{\infty}) \ge m$  and  $f(x_{\infty}) \le m$ ,  $f(x_{\infty}) = m$ .

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

So f attains its minimum at point  $x_{\infty}$ .

**PROPOSITION 20.2.2.** 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  $f(y) \ge f(x)$ .

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 21.0.1.** 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).