# **Functional Analysis**

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## **Balanced Sets**

### 1.1 Definitions

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

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

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

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

### 1.2 Properties

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

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

Proposition 1.2.2. Balanced sets are path connected.

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

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

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

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

### 1.3 Stability of Balance

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

• The intersection of balanced sets is also balanced.

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

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

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

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

### 1.4 Absorbing Sets

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

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

**Proposition 1.4.1.** Every absorbing set contains the origin.

# Inner Product Spaces

### 2.1 Inner Products

#### 2.1.1 Definitions

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

(1) Positive Definiteness

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

(2) Sesqui-Linearity

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

(3) Conjugate Symmetry

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### 2.1.2 Examples

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### 2.1.3 Properties

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

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

### 2.2 Inequalities

Theorem 1 (Minkowski).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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### 2.3 Orthogonality

#### 2.3.1 Orthogonal Sets

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

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

Proposition 2.3.1. Orthogonal sets are linearly independent.

#### 2.3.2 Orthogonal Bases

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### 2.3.3 Orthogonal Complements

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

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

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

**Proposition 2.3.5.** Orthogonal complements are always linear subspaces.

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

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

#### 2.3.4 Properties of the Orthogonal Complement Operator

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### 2.3.5 Orthogonal Projection

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

# Normed Linear Spaces

### 3.1 Definitions

**Definition** (Seminorm). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector space over field  $\mathbb{F}$ . We define a **seminorm** on  $\mathfrak{X}$ , denoted by  $\nu$ , 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) Triangle Inequality.

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

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

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

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

## 3.2 Properties

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

Proof.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Let  $\lambda$  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.

### 3.3 Equivalence of Norms

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

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

Or equivalently,

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

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

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

Proof.

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

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

Let v be an arbitrary vector in V.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 3.4 Dual Norms

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

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

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

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

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

### 3.5 p-norms

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Proposition 3.5.1.** Let  $\mathfrak{X} := \mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C})$ . Let x be an arbitrary number in [0,1]. Define a function  $\nu_x$  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 3.5.2.** *p-norms are indeed norms.* 

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

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

i.e.,

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

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

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

So

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

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So

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

On the other hand, note that

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

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

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

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

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

So

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

From (1) and (2) we get

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 3.6 Banach Spaces

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

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

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

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

**Example 3.6.3.** Let  $(X, \Omega, \mu)$  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 3.6.4.** Let  $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{C}}[0,1]$  denote the set of all polynomials with complex coefficients. For each  $p \in [1, +\infty)$ , define a norm

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

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

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

## 3.7 Construction of Banach Spaces

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

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

and

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

For  $p = +\infty$ , we define

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

and

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

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

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

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

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

# **Quotient Spaces**

### 4.1 Definitions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

• q is a continuous map. i.e.,

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

• q is an open map. i.e.,

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

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

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

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

**Proposition 4.1.3.** Seminorms on quotient spaces are indeed seminorms.

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

# Topological Vector Spaces

### 5.1 Definitions

### 5.2 Topological Vector Spaces

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

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

Proof.

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

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

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

Say the limit is  $s_{\infty}$ .

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  $\{k_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$  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  $s_i = \alpha k_i + \beta c_i$ ,  $c_i = \beta^{-1}(s_i - \alpha k_i)$ .

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof.

#### Counter-example 1

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

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

#### Counter-example 2

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

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

### 5.3 Neighborhoods

# Sequence Spaces

## 6.1 $\ell_p$ Space

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

**Definition** ( $\ell_p$  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  $||\cdot||_p$ .

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

Proof.

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

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

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

### 6.2 $c_0$ Space and $c_{00}$ Space

**Definition** ( $c_0$  Space). We define  $c_0$  to be

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Proposition 6.2.2.** The closure of  $c_{00}$  in the space  $(\mathbb{R}^{\omega}, d_1)$  is  $\ell_1$ .

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$= 0.$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Let i > N. Then

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

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

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

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

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

That is,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

That is,

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

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

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

From statement (4) we can derive:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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.

# **Function Spaces**

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

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



# Hilbert Space

## 8.1 Hilbert Spaces

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

**Example 8.1.1.**  $\ell^2$  is a Hilbert space.

# Equicontinuity in Metric Spaces

### 9.1 Definitions

**Definition** ((Pointwise) Equicontinuity). Let  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces. Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a collection of functions from X to Y. Let  $x_0$  be a point in X. We say that  $\mathcal{F}$  is (pointwise) equicontinuous at point  $x_0$  if for any positive number  $\varepsilon$ , 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.

### 9.2 Sufficient Conditions

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

Proof.

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

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

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

Let  $x_0$  be an arbitrary point in X.

Let  $\varepsilon$  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.

# **Operators**

### 10.1 Bounded Operators

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

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall x \in X, \quad ||Tx||_Y \le k||x||_X.$$

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

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

**Proposition 10.1.1.** Let X and Y be normed linear spaces. Let T be a linear map from X to Y. Then T is bounded if and only if T is continuous.

**Example 10.1.1** (Multiplication Operator). Let  $X = (\mathcal{C}([0,1],\mathbb{C}), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ . Let f be a function in X. We define the **multiplication operator** on 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 X. Then

$$||M_f g||_{\infty} = ||fg||_{\infty} \le ||f||_{\infty} ||g||_{\infty}.$$

So  $||f||_{\infty}$  is an element of the set  $S = \{k \in \mathbb{R} : \forall x \in X, ||Tx||_Y \le k||x||_X\}$ . So  $||M_f|| \le ||f||_{\infty}$ . Consider  $g_0$  given by  $g_0(x) = 1$ . Then

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

For any  $k \in S$ , if  $k < \|f\|_{\infty}$ ,  $k \notin S$ . So  $\forall k \in S$ ,  $k \ge \|f\|_{\infty}$ . So  $\|f\|_{\infty}$  is a lower bound for the set S. So  $\|M_f\| \ge \|f\|_{\infty}$ . Since  $\|M_f\| \le \|f\|_{\infty}$  and  $\|M_f\| \ge \|f\|_{\infty}$ , we get  $\|M_f\| = \|f\|_{\infty}$ .

Example 10.1.2 (Weighted Shifts).

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

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

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

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

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

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  $||U|| = \sup\{|u_n| : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$ 

### 10.2 Space of Bounded Operators

**Proposition 10.2.1.** Let X and Y be normed linear spaces. Let  $\mathcal{B}(X,Y)$  be the space of bounded linear operators from X to Y. Then if Y is complete,  $\mathcal{B}(X,Y)$  is complete.

### 10.3 Dual Spaces

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

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

## **Adjoint Operator**

#### 11.1 Definitions

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 11.2 Properties of the Adjoint Operator

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

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

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

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

(1) For any linear operators T and U,

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

(2) For any linear operator T,

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

(3) For any linear operator T and U,

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

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

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

### 11.3 Normal Operators

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

### 11.4 Self-adjoint

# Convolution

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

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

## Coercive Functions

### 13.1 Definitions

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

### 13.2 Properties

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

Proof.

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

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

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

Say the limit is  $x_{\infty}$  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  $f(x_\infty) \leq \liminf_{i \in I, i \to \infty} x_i$ .

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof.

#### Proof of (1).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### Proof of (2).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof.

#### Proof of (1).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

For the reverse direction,