

# Functional Analysis

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# Chapter 1

## Normed Linear Space

### 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)  $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \nu(x) \geq 0.$
- (2)  $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}, \forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \nu(\lambda x) = |\lambda|\nu(x).$
- (3)  $\forall x, y \in \mathfrak{X}, \quad \nu(x + y) \leq \nu(x) + \nu(y).$

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:

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

### 1.2 Properties

**PROPOSITION 1.2.1.** 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  $\text{ball}(x_0, r) \subseteq \mathcal{M}$  where  $\text{ball}(x_0, r)$  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  $y \in \text{ball}(x_0, r)$ . 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 1.2.2.** 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,  $\text{cl}(\mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{M}$ . So  $\text{cl}(\mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{M}$  is a closed proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Since  $\text{cl}(\mathcal{M})$  is a proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ ,  $\text{int}(\text{cl}(\mathcal{M})) = \emptyset$ . So  $\mathcal{M}$  is nowhere dense. ■

**PROPOSITION 1.2.3.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space over field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is complete if and only if the closed unit ball  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  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. ■

### 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

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

Or equivalently,

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

**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  $V$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \|v\| &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n v_i e_i \right\| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i| \|e_i\| \\ &\leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \|e_i\|^{\frac{p}{p-1}} \right)^{1-\frac{1}{p}} \\ &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \|e_i\|^{\frac{p}{p-1}} \right)^{1-\frac{1}{p}} \|v\|_p \\ &:= c_1 \|v\|_p. \end{aligned}$$

■

**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  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_2)$ . Suppose that  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  are equivalent. Then the identity map  $\iota$  is continuous, and in fact, a homeomorphism between  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_1)$  and  $(\mathfrak{X}, \|\cdot\|_2)$ .

## 1.4 Finite-Dimensional Subspace

**PROPOSITION 1.4.1.** A finite-dimensional subspace of a normed linear space is closed.

**PROPOSITION 1.4.2.** Finite-dimensional normed linear spaces are complete.

**PROPOSITION 1.4.3.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a finite-dimensional normed linear space. Let  $S$  be a set in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Then  $S$  is norm-compact if and only if  $S$  is closed and bounded.

**LEMMA 1.1** (Riesz's Lemma). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathfrak{Y}$  be a closed proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $\alpha$  be an element of the open interval  $(0, 1)$ . Then there is some  $x_0 \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}$  such that  $\|x_0\| = 1$  and  $\forall y \in \mathfrak{Y}$ , we have  $\|x_0 - y\| \geq \alpha$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\mathfrak{Y} \subsetneq \mathfrak{X}$ ,  $\mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y} \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $x$  be an element of  $\mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}$ . Let  $d$  denote the distance  $d := \inf\{\|x - y\| : y \in \mathfrak{Y}\}$ . Since  $x \notin \mathfrak{Y}$  and  $\mathfrak{Y}$  is closed,  $d > 0$ . Since  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\alpha^{-1} > 1$ . Since  $d > 0$  and  $\alpha^{-1} > 1$ , we get  $d\alpha^{-1} > d$ . So  $\exists y_0 \in \mathfrak{Y}$  such that  $\|x - y_0\| \leq d\alpha^{-1}$ . Define a point  $x_0$  by  $x_0 := \frac{x - y_0}{\|x - y_0\|}$ . Since  $y_0 \in \mathfrak{Y}$  and  $x \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}$ , we get  $x_0 \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}$ . It is clear that  $\|x_0\| = 1$ . Let  $y$  be an arbitrary element of  $\mathfrak{Y}$ . Then

$$\|x_0 - y\| = \left\| \frac{x - y_0}{\|x - y_0\|} - y \right\| = \frac{\|x - (y_0 + \|x - y_0\|y)\|}{\|x - y_0\|}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\geq \frac{d}{\|x - y_0\|}, \text{ since } y_0 + \|x - y_0\|y \in \mathfrak{Y} \\
&\geq \frac{d}{d\alpha^{-1}}, \text{ since } \|x - y_0\| \leq d\alpha^{-1} \\
&= \alpha.
\end{aligned}$$

That is,  $\|x_0 - y\| \geq \alpha$ . ■

**PROPOSITION 1.4.4.** A normed linear space is finite-dimensional if and only if its closed unit ball is norm-compact.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Let  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  denote the closed unit ball in  $\mathfrak{X}$ .

**Forward Direction:** Assume that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is finite-dimensional. I will show that  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  is norm-compact. Since  $\mathfrak{X}$  is finite-dimensional, being compact is equivalent to being closed and bounded. Clearly  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  is closed and bounded. So  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  is compact.

**Backward Direction:** Assume that  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  is norm-compact. I will show that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is finite-dimensional. Assume for the sake of contradiction that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is infinite-dimensional. Since  $\dim(\mathfrak{X}) = \infty$ ,  $\mathfrak{X} \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $x_1$  be an element of  $\mathfrak{X}$  such that  $\|x_1\| = 1$ . Define a subspace  $\mathfrak{Y}_1$  by  $\mathfrak{Y}_1 := \text{span}\{x_1\}$ . Then  $\mathfrak{Y}_1$  is a finite-dimensional subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Since  $\dim(\mathfrak{Y}_1) < \infty$ ,  $\mathfrak{Y}_1$  is closed. Since  $\dim(\mathfrak{Y}_1) < \infty$  and  $\dim(\mathfrak{X}) = \infty$ ,  $\mathfrak{Y}_1 \subsetneq \mathfrak{X}$ . So  $\mathfrak{Y}_1$  is a closed proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . By the Riesz's Lemma, there is some  $x_2 \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}_1$  such that  $\|x_2\| = 1$  and  $\|x_2 - x_1\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ . Define a subspace  $\mathfrak{Y}_2$  by  $\mathfrak{Y}_2 := \text{span}\{x_1, x_2\}$ . Similarly,  $\mathfrak{Y}_2$  is a closed proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . By the Riesz's Lemma, there is some  $x_3 \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}_2$  such that  $\|x_3\| = 1$  and both  $\|x_3 - x_1\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\|x_3 - x_2\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ . In general, define a subspace  $\mathfrak{Y}_n$  by  $\mathfrak{Y}_n := \text{span}\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . Then  $\mathfrak{Y}_n$  is a closed proper subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . By the Riesz's Lemma, there is some  $x_{n+1} \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}_n$  such that  $\|x_{n+1}\| = 1$  and  $\forall i = 1..n$ , we have  $\|x_{n+1} - x_i\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ . Define a sequence  $x \in \mathfrak{X}^{\mathbb{N}}$  by  $x := (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ . Then by the construction of  $x$ , we have that  $x \in \mathfrak{X}_1$  and that  $\forall i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\|x_i - x_j\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ . Since  $\forall i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\|x_i - x_j\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $x$  contains no convergent subsequence. Since  $x \in \mathfrak{X}_1$  and  $x$  contains no convergent subsequence,  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  is not compact. This contradicts to the assumption that  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  is compact. So  $\mathfrak{X}$  is finite-dimensional. ■

## 1.5 Dual Norms

**DEFINITION (Dual Norm).** Let  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a 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 1.5.1.** Dual norms of norms are indeed norms.

**PROPOSITION 1.5.2.** Let  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed vector space. Let  $v, w$  be vectors in the space. Then

$$|v \cdot w| \leq \|v\| \cdot \|w\|_\circ.$$

## 1.6 $p$ -norms

**DEFINITION** ( $p$ -norm). Let  $V$  be a finite-dimensional normed vector space over field  $\mathcal{F}$ . Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$  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 1.6.1.** 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  $\nu = \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} \nu_x$ .

**PROPOSITION 1.6.2.**  $p$ -norms are indeed norms.

**PROPOSITION 1.6.3.** For any vector  $v$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

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

i.e.,

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

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

$$|v_k| \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p \right)^{1/p} = \|v\|_p.$$

So

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

So

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|v\|_p \geq \|v\|_\infty. \quad (1)$$

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

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

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

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

So

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

From (1) and (2) we get

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

■

**PROPOSITION 1.6.4.** 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 1.6.5.** Let  $p$  and  $q$  be numbers in  $[1, +\infty]$ . Let  $v$  be a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then if  $p \leq q$ ,

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

**PROPOSITION 1.6.6.** Let  $w$  and  $z$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{E}^d$ . Then

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

## Chapter 2

# Inner Product Space

### 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:

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

(2) Sesqui-Linearity:

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

(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

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

**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



**THEOREM 2.1** (Minkowski).

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

**PROPOSITION 2.3.1** (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality). Let  $V$  be an inner product space. Then

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

**PROPOSITION 2.3.2** (Triangle Inequality). Let  $V$  be an inner product space. Then

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

**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.*

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

That is,

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

■



## Chapter 3

# 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  $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  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 3.1** (Gram-Schmidt Process). Let  $V$  be an inner product space. Let  $S = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$  be a linearly independent subset of  $V$ . Then the set  $T = \{y_0, \dots, y_n\}$  given by  $y_0 := x_0$  and

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

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

**PROPOSITION 3.2.2.** Let  $V$  be an inner product space and  $S = \{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  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  $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  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

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

**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  $F_0 := \{e_1, \dots, e_N\}$ . Let  $F$  and  $G$  be arbitrary elements in  $\mathcal{F}$  such that  $F_0 \leq F$  and  $F_0 \leq G$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|y_F - y_G\|^2 &= \left\| \sum_{e \in F \setminus G} \langle x, e \rangle e - \sum_{e \in G \setminus F} \langle x, e \rangle e \right\|^2 \\ &= \sum_{e \in F \cup G \setminus F \cap G} |\langle x, e \rangle|^2 \\ &= \sum_{e \in F \cup G} |\langle x, e \rangle|^2 - \sum_{e \in F \cap G} |\langle x, e \rangle|^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{i=N+1}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_i \rangle|^2 \\ &< \varepsilon^2. \end{aligned}$$

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. ■





## Chapter 4

# 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  $|x_m^{(i)} - x_n^{(i)}| \leq \|x_m - x_n\|_p$  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  $x_0 = \{x_0^{(i)}\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ .

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

■

## 4.2 $c_0$ Space and $c_{00}$ Space

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

$$c_0 := \left\{ \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0 \right\}.$$

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

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

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  $(\mathbf{r}_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  by  $\mathbf{r}_i^j := \frac{1}{j^2}$  for  $j \in \{1..i\}$  and  $\mathbf{r}_i^j := 0$  for  $j > i$ . Then  $(\mathbf{r}_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  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  $\text{cl}(c_{00}) \subseteq \ell_1$ . Let  $x$  be an arbitrary element in  $\text{cl}(c_{00})$ . Since  $x \in \text{cl}(c_{00})$ , 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

$$\begin{aligned} d_1(x, y) &< 1 \\ \iff \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n - y_n| &< 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\Longleftrightarrow \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n - y_n| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n - y_n| < 1 \\
&\Longleftrightarrow \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n - y_n| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1 \\
&\implies \sum_{n=1}^N ||x_n| - |y_n|| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1 \\
&\implies \sum_{n=1}^N (|x_n| - |y_n|) + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1 \\
&\implies \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n| - \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n| + \sum_{n>N} |x_n| < 1 \\
&\Longleftrightarrow \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n| - \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n| < 1 \\
&\Longleftrightarrow \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n| < 1 + \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|.
\end{aligned}$$

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

For the reverse direction, we are to prove that  $\ell_1 \subseteq \text{cl}(c_{00})$ . 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

$$\begin{aligned}
&\lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} d_1(x^i, x) \\
&= \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_j^i - x_j| \\
&= \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j>i} |x_j^i - x_j| \\
&= \lim_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j>i} |x_j| \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

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

**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  $\text{cl}(c_{00}) \subseteq c_0$ . Let  $x$  be an arbitrary element in  $\text{cl}(c_{00})$ . Let  $\varepsilon$  be an arbitrary positive real number. Since  $x \in \text{cl}(c_{00})$ , 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  $c_0 \subseteq \text{cl}(c_{00})$ . Let  $x$  be an arbitrary element in  $c_0$ . For  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , define  $x^i$  as  $x_j^i = x_j$  for  $j \leq i$  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

$$\begin{aligned} d_\infty(x^i, x) &= \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_j^i - x_j| \\ &= \sup_{j > i} |x_j^i - x_j| \\ &= \sup_{j > i} |x_j| \\ &\leq \varepsilon/2 < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

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 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.  $\text{cl}(A) = A$  in  $(\ell^1, d_1)$ .

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

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  $x^\infty \in c_{00}$ ,

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\exists i_0 > M_0, \quad |y_{i_0}| \geq \varepsilon_0. \quad (3)$$

That is,

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^N x_j^{i_0} \right| \geq \varepsilon_0. \quad (3')$$

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

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

From statement (4) we can derive:

$$\begin{aligned} & d_1(x^{i_0}, x^\infty) < \varepsilon_0 \\ \iff & \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_j^{i_0} - x_j^\infty| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \iff & \sum_{j=1}^N |x_j^{i_0} - x_j^\infty| + \sum_{j>N} |x_j^{i_0} - x_j^\infty| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \implies & \sum_{j>N} |x_j^{i_0} - x_j^\infty| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \iff & \sum_{j>N} |x_j^{i_0} - 0| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \iff & \sum_{j>N} |x_j^{i_0}| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \implies & \left| \sum_{j>N} x_j^{i_0} \right| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \implies & \left| \sum_{j>N} x_j^{i_0} \right| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \iff & \left| \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} x_j^{i_0} - \sum_{j=1}^N x_j^{i_0} \right| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \iff & \left| 0 - \sum_{j=1}^N x_j^{i_0} \right| < \varepsilon_0 \\ \iff & \left| \sum_{j=1}^N x_j^{i_0} \right| < \varepsilon_0. \end{aligned}$$

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  $\forall p, q \in (1, +\infty) : 1/p + 1/q = 1$ ,  $\|xy\|_1 \leq \|x\|_p \|y\|_q$ . i.e.,


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

## Chapter 5

# Function Spaces

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

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

 the instructors' answer, where instructors collectively construct a single answer

In the sup norm, convergence coincides with uniform convergence. Moreover,  $C[a, b]$  is complete in this norm. It is not complete in any of the  $L^p$  norms for  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . The completion in these norms is called  $L^p(a, b)$ .

[undo](#) [thanks](#) | 1

Updated 1 day ago by Kenneth Davidson





## Chapter 6

# Quotient Space

### 6.1 Definitions

**DEFINITION** (Quotient Space). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space. Let  $\mathcal{W}$  be a subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ . We define a **quotient space** of  $\mathcal{V}$  mod  $\mathcal{W}$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$ , to be a set given by  $\{v + \mathcal{W} : v \in \mathcal{V}\}$  with addition and scalar multiplication defined by

$$(v_1 + \mathcal{W}) + (v_2 + \mathcal{W}) := (v_1 + v_2) + \mathcal{W} \text{ and}$$

$$\kappa(v + \mathcal{W}) := (\kappa v) + \mathcal{W}.$$

**DEFINITION** (The Canonical Quotient Map). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a vector space. Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a linear manifold in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . We define the **canonical 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

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

**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 Topology). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological vector space. Let  $\mathcal{W}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ . We define the **quotient topology**  $\mathcal{T}_q$  on the quotient space  $\mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  as

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

**PROPOSITION 6.3.1.** The quotient space with the quotient topology is a topological vector space.

**PROPOSITION 6.3.2.** The canonical quotient map is a continuous map.

**PROPOSITION 6.3.3.** The canonical quotient map is an open map.



## Chapter 7

# Dual Space

### 7.1 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 topological 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 continuous linear functionals on  $\mathfrak{X}$ .

**PROPOSITION 7.1.1.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Then there exists a contractive map from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to its double dual  $\mathfrak{X}^{**}$ .

### 7.2 Examples of Dual Spaces

**EXAMPLE 7.2.1.**  $(c_0(\mathbb{N}))^*$  is isometrically isomorphic to  $\ell^1(\mathbb{N})$ .

**EXAMPLE 7.2.2.**  $(\ell^1(\mathbb{N}))^*$  is isometrically isomorphic to  $\ell^\infty(\mathbb{N})$ .

### 7.3 Properties

**PROPOSITION 7.3.1.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space. Suppose that  $\mathcal{V}^*$  is separable. Then  $\mathcal{V}$  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 7.3.2.** 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

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

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  $g \in \text{span}\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . 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  $F_i : \mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$  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  $G : \mathcal{V}/\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$  by

$G(x + \mathcal{N}) := g(x)$ . Then clearly,  $G$  is linear. So  $\exists k_1 \dots k_n \in \mathbb{K}$  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 7.3.3.** 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  $\rho \in \mathcal{V}^*$ ,  $\rho$  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  $\varphi : \mathcal{V}/\ker(\rho) \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$  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. ■

## 7.4 Annihilator

**DEFINITION** (Annihilator). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a . Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a subset of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . We define the **annihilator** of  $\mathfrak{M}$ , denoted by  $\mathfrak{M}^0$ , to be the subset of  $\mathfrak{X}^*$  given by  $\mathfrak{M}^0 := \{x^* \in \mathfrak{X}^* : x^*|_{\mathfrak{M}} = 0\}$ .

**DEFINITION** (Pre-Annihilator). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a . Let  $\mathfrak{N}$  be a subset of  $\mathfrak{X}^*$ . We define the **pre-annihilator** of  $\mathfrak{N}$ , denoted by  ${}^0\mathfrak{N}$ , to be the subset of  $\mathfrak{X}$  given by  ${}^0\mathfrak{N} := \{x \in \mathfrak{X} : \hat{x}|_{\mathfrak{N}} = 0\}$ .

**PROPOSITION 7.4.1.** Annihilators are weakly closed.

**PROPOSITION 7.4.2.** Pre-annihilators are normed closed.

**PROPOSITION 7.4.3.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $q$  denote the canonical quotient map. Define a map  $\Theta$  from  $(\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{M})^*$  to  $\mathfrak{M}^0$  by  $\Theta(\xi) := \xi \circ q$ . Then  $\Theta$  is an isometric isomorphism.

**PROPOSITION 7.4.4.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Define a map  $\Theta$  from  $\mathfrak{X}^*/\mathfrak{M}^0$  to  $\mathfrak{M}^*$  by  $\Theta(x^* + \mathfrak{M}^0) := x^*|_{\mathfrak{M}}$ .



## Chapter 8

# Banach Space

### 8.1 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.

### 8.2 Examples of Banach Space

**EXAMPLE 8.2.1.**  $(\mathcal{C}([0, 1], \mathbb{F}), \|\cdot\|_\infty)$  is a Banach space.

**EXAMPLE 8.2.2** (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 8.2.3.** Let  $(X, \Omega, \mu)$  be a measure space. Let  $p$  be a number in  $[1, +\infty)$ . Define

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

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 8.2.4.** 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

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

### 8.3 Properties

**PROPOSITION 8.3.1.** 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. Forward Direction:* Assume that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a Banach space. I will show 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  $y_n := \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ . 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

$$\begin{aligned} \|y_n - y_m\| &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \right\| = \left\| \sum_{i=m+1}^n x_i \right\| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=m+1}^n \|x_i\| < \sum_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \|x_i\| \\ &< \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

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.

**Backward Direction:** Assume that every absolutely summable series in  $\mathfrak{X}$  is summable. I will show 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

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

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 8.3.2** (Quotient Spaces of Banach Spaces are Banach Spaces). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Then the quotient space  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathcal{M}$  is also 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  $\mathfrak{X}/\mathcal{M}$ . Since  $\|q(x_n)\|$  is defined to be  $\|q(x_n)\| := \inf\{\|x_n + m\| : m \in \mathcal{M}\}$ ,  $\exists m_n \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\|x_n + m_n\| < \|q(x_n)\| + \frac{1}{2^n}$ . Then

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

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

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

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

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

**PROPOSITION 8.3.3.** 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

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

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

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

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

**PROPOSITION 8.3.4** (Dual Spaces of Banach Spaces are Banach Spaces). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Then the dual space  $\mathfrak{X}^*$  is also a Banach space.

**PROPOSITION 8.3.5.** Any Banach space with a Schauder basis has to be separable.

## 8.4 Direct Sums and Direct Products 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 8.4.1.**  $\|\cdot, \cdot\|_p$  is a norm on  $\mathfrak{X} \oplus_p \mathfrak{Y}$ .

**PROPOSITION 8.4.2.**  $\mathfrak{X} \oplus_p \mathfrak{Y}$  is complete with respect to  $\|\cdot, \cdot\|_p$ .

## 8.5 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 8.5.1** (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  $(\alpha_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n$  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

$$\left\| \sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n \right\| \geq \varepsilon_0. \quad (*)$$

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  $k_1 < l_1 < k_2 < l_2 < \dots$ . 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

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n \right\| &= \left\| \sum_{n=k_N}^{m_N} \alpha_n x_n + \sum_{n=m_N+1}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n \right\| \\ &= \left\| \sum_{n=k_N}^{m_N} x_n - \sum_{n=m_N+1}^{l_N} x_n \right\| \\ &\leq \left\| \sum_{n=k_N}^{m_N} x_n \right\| + \left\| \sum_{n=m_N+1}^{l_N} x_n \right\| \\ &< \varepsilon_0/2 + \varepsilon_0/2 = \varepsilon_0. \end{aligned}$$

That is,

$$\left\| \sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} \alpha_n x_n \right\| < \varepsilon_0. \quad (**)$$

Notice (\*) and (\*\*) contradict. So the assumption that there is some  $(\alpha_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n$  diverges does not hold. i.e., for any sequence  $(\alpha_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n$  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  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_n$  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  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \alpha_n x_n = \sum_{n \in \{k_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}} x_n - \sum_{n \notin \{k_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}} x_n$  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  $\forall j > i > N$ ,

$$\left\| \sum_{n=i}^j x_{k_n} \right\| < \varepsilon_0. \quad (*)$$

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

$$\left\| \sum_{n \in F} x_n \right\| \geq \varepsilon_0.$$

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  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n\| \geq \varepsilon_0$  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  $\|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} x_{\pi(n)}\| \geq \varepsilon_0$ . 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  $\|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} x_{\pi(n)}\| \geq \varepsilon_0$ . Define a set  $F$  as  $F := \{\pi(n)\}_{n=k_N}^{l_N}$ . So  $F \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1.. \mu\}$ . Then  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n\| = \|\sum_{n=k_N}^{l_N} x_n\| \geq \varepsilon_0$ . 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  $\|\sum_{n \in F} x_n\| \geq \varepsilon_0$ . 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. ■



## Chapter 9

# Hilbert Space

### 9.1 Definition

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

### 9.2 Examples of Hilbert Space

**EXAMPLE 9.2.1.** 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 9.2.2.**  $\ell^2(\mathbb{K}) = \{(x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{K}^\infty : \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |x_i|^2 < +\infty\}$  is a Hilbert space with inner product given by

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

### 9.3 Properties of Hilbert Space

**PROPOSITION 9.3.1.** 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  $\text{clspan}(S) \subseteq S^{\perp\perp}$ .

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

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

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

**THEOREM 9.1** (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,  $\|\Theta(y)\| \leq \|y\|$ . So  $\|\Theta\| \leq 1$ . On the other hand, consider an arbitrary point  $y_0 \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $y_0 \neq 0$ :

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

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{\|\Theta(y_0)\|}{\|y_0\|} \\
&= \frac{\|\beta_{y_0}\|}{\|y_0\|} \\
&= \frac{1}{\|y_0\|} \sup \left\{ \frac{\|\beta_{y_0}(y)\|}{\|y\|} : y \neq 0 \right\} \\
&\geq \frac{1}{\|y_0\|} \frac{\|\beta_{y_0}(y_0)\|}{\|y_0\|} \\
&\geq \frac{1}{\|y_0\|} \frac{\|y_0\|^2}{\|y_0\|} \\
&= 1.
\end{aligned}$$

That is,  $\|\Theta\| \geq 1$ . 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  $\text{codim } \mathcal{M} = \dim \mathcal{M}^\perp = 1$ . 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  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

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

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

**PROPOSITION 9.3.2** (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.



# Chapter 10

## Operators

### 10.1 Bounded Operators

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

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

**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

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

**PROPOSITION 10.1.1.**

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

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

## 10.2 Examples of Bounded Operators

**EXAMPLE 10.2.1** (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

$$\begin{aligned} \|M_f g\|_\infty &= \|fg\|_\infty \\ &= \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x)g(x)| \\ &= \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x)| |g(x)| \\ &\leq \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x)| \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |g(x)| \\ &= \|f\|_\infty \|g\|_\infty. \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_\infty \|g_0\|_\infty &= \|M_f g_0\|_\infty \\ &\leq k \|g_0\|_\infty \\ &< \|f\|_\infty \|g_0\|_\infty. \end{aligned}$$

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

**EXAMPLE 10.2.2** (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  $\forall x \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |Vf(x)| &= \left| \int_0^x f(t)dt \right| \\ &\leq \int_0^x |f(t)|dt \\ &\leq \int_0^x \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} |f(t)|dt \\ &= \int_0^x \|f\|_\infty dt \\ &= \int_0^x 1dt \\ &= x. \end{aligned}$$

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

**EXAMPLE 10.2.3** (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.

$$\begin{aligned} \|Dx\|_2^2 &= \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |d_i x_i|^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \|(d_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}\|_\infty |x_i|^2 \\ &= \|(d_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}\|_\infty \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |x_i|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \|(d_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}\|_\infty \|x\|_2^2.$$

Case 2.

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

$$\begin{aligned} \|De_{n_i}\|_2 &= \|d_{n_i}e_{n_i}\|_2 \\ &= |d_{n_i}| \|e_{n_i}\|_2 \\ &= |d_{n_i}|. \end{aligned}$$

So  $\|D\| \geq \|De_{n_i}\|_2 \rightarrow \infty$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 10.2.4** (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

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

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

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

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

**EXAMPLE 10.2.5** (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.*

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

■

### 10.3 The Space of Bounded Operators

**PROPOSITION 10.3.1.** 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 10.3.2.** 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 10.3.3.** 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  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Y}, \|\cdot\|_2)$ .

### 10.4 Invertible Bounded Operators

**PROPOSITION 10.4.1.** 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 10.4.2.** 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.*

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

That is,

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

■

## Chapter 11

# 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

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

**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  $\text{balhull}(S)$ , 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  $\text{balcore}(S)$ , to be the largest balanced set contained in  $S$ .

### 11.2 Properties

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

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

**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

$$a \text{ balhull}(S) = \text{balhull}(aS).$$

## 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.

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

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

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



## Chapter 12

# 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 Hausdorff topology.

### 12.2 Properties

**PROPOSITION 12.2.1** (Normed Linear Spaces are Topological Vector Spaces). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a topological vector space with the topology induced by the norm.

*Proof. Part 1:* Show that the norm topology is compatible with the vector space structure.

Let  $\sigma$  denote the addition operation in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $((x_\alpha, y_\alpha))_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$  be an arbitrary net in  $\mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{X}$  that converges to  $(x, y) \in \mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{X}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \|\sigma(x_\alpha, y_\alpha) - \sigma(x, y)\| &= \|(x_\alpha + y_\alpha) - (x + y)\| = \|(x_\alpha - x) + (y_\alpha - y)\| \\ &\leq \|x_\alpha - x\| + \|y_\alpha - y\|, \text{ by the triangle inequality} \end{aligned}$$

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

That is,  $\|\sigma(x_\alpha, y_\alpha) - \sigma(x, y)\| < \varepsilon$ . So  $\sigma$  is continuous.

Let  $\mu$  denote the scalar multiplication operation in  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Let  $((k_\alpha, x_\alpha))_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$  be an arbitrary net in  $\mathbb{K} \times \mathfrak{X}$  that converges to  $(k, x) \in \mathbb{K} \times \mathfrak{X}$ .

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

That is,  $\|\mu(k_\alpha, x_\alpha) - \mu(k, x)\| < \varepsilon$ . So  $\mu$  is continuous.

**Part 2:** Show that the norm topology is Hausdorff.

Let  $x$  and  $y$  be arbitrary elements of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Suppose that  $x \neq y$ . Define a number  $r$  by  $r := \|x - y\|/2$ . Then  $\text{ball}(x, r) \in \mathcal{U}_x$  and  $\text{ball}(y, r) \in \mathcal{U}_y$  and  $\text{ball}(x, r) \cap \text{ball}(y, r) = \emptyset$ . So any two distinct points in  $\mathfrak{X}$  are separated by the norm topology. So  $\mathfrak{X}$  is Hausdorff. ■

**PROPOSITION 12.2.2** (Neighborhood Improvements). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \tau)$  be a topological vector space. Let  $U \in \mathcal{U}_0$  be a neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then we have the followings.

- (1)  $\exists N \in \mathcal{U}_0$  such that  $N + N \subseteq U$ .
- (2)  $\exists M \in \mathcal{U}_0$  and  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall 0 < |k| < \varepsilon$ , we have  $kM \subseteq U$ .
- (3)  $\mathcal{V} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} nU$ .

**PROPOSITION 12.2.3.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Every neighborhood of 0 contains a open balanced neighborhood of 0.

*Proof.* Let  $U$  be an arbitrary element of  $\mathcal{U}_0$ . 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 open neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}$  of 0 such that  $\text{ball}(0, r) \times \mathcal{N} \subseteq \mu^{-1}(U)$ . Define a set  $\mathcal{M}$  by  $\mathcal{M} := \mu(\text{ball}(0, r), \mathcal{N}) = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{K}: |k| < r} k\mathcal{N}$ . Then  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq U$ . Notice  $0 \in \mathcal{N}$  and hence  $0 \in k\mathcal{N}$  for any  $k \in \mathbb{K}$ . So  $0 \in \mathcal{M}$ .

**Open:** Since  $\mathcal{N}$  is open and scalar multiplication is a homeomorphism, we get  $k\mathcal{N}$  is open for any  $k \in \mathbb{K}$ . So  $\bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{K}: |k| < r} k\mathcal{N}$  is open. That is,  $\mathcal{M}$  is open.

**Balanced:** Let  $a$  be an arbitrary element of  $\mathbb{K}$  such that  $|a| < 1$ . Then

$$a\mathcal{M} = a \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{K}: |k| < r} k\mathcal{N}, \text{ by definition of } \mathcal{M}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{K}: |k| < r} ak\mathcal{N} = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{K}: |k| < |a|r} k\mathcal{N} \\
&\subseteq \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{K}: |k| < r} k\mathcal{N}, \text{ since } a < 1 \\
&= \mathcal{M}, \text{ by definition of } \mathcal{M}.
\end{aligned}$$

That is,  $\forall a \in \mathbb{K} : |a| < 1$ , we have  $a\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ . So  $\mathcal{M}$  is balanced. ■

**PROPOSITION 12.2.4.** Closure of a linear subspace is a linear subspace.

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

Let  $x$  and  $y$  be arbitrary elements of  $\text{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ . 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  $x + y \in \text{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ .

Let  $x$  be an arbitrary element of  $\text{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ . 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  $kx \in \text{cl}(\mathcal{W})$ . ■

## 12.3 Operation on Sets in a Topological Vector Space

**PROPOSITION 12.3.1** (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  $\{k_i\}_{i \in I}$  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  $s_i = \alpha k_i + \beta c_i$ ,  $c_i = \beta^{-1}(s_i - \alpha k_i)$ . 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  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_{++}$ . ■

**PROPOSITION 12.3.2.** 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)  $p + \text{int}(S) = \text{int}(p + S)$ ,
- (2)  $p + \text{cl}(S) = \text{cl}(p + S)$ .

*Proof of (1).* For one direction, let  $x$  be an arbitrary point in the set  $p + \text{int}(S)$ . 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  $B(x - p, r) \subseteq p + S$ . Since there exists a radius  $r$  such that  $B(x - p, r) \subseteq p + S$ , by definition of interior,

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

For the reverse direction, let  $x$  be an arbitrary point in  $\text{int}(p + S)$ . We are to prove that  $x \in p + \text{int}(S)$ . Since  $x \in \text{int}(p + S)$ , 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  $p + \text{cl}(S)$ . We are to prove that  $x \in \text{cl}(p + S)$ . Since  $x \in (p + \text{cl}(S))$ , we get  $(x - p) \in \text{cl}(S)$ . Since  $(x - p) \in \text{cl}(S)$ , 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

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

For the reverse direction, let  $x$  be an arbitrary point in  $\text{cl}(p + S)$ . We are to prove that  $x \in (p + \text{cl}(S))$ . Since  $x \in \text{cl}(p + S)$ , 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

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

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

**PROPOSITION 12.3.3.** Let  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed vector space. Let  $S$  be a subset of  $V$ . Let  $\lambda$  be a non-zero real number. Then

$$(1) \quad \lambda \text{int}(S) = \text{int}(\lambda S).$$

$$(2) \quad \lambda \text{cl}(S) = \text{cl}(\lambda S).$$

*Proof of (1).* For one direction, let  $x$  be an arbitrary point in  $\lambda \text{int}(S)$ . We are to prove that  $x \in \text{int}(\lambda S)$ . Since  $x \in \lambda \text{int}(S)$ , we get  $x/\lambda \in \text{int}(S)$ . Since  $x/\lambda \in \text{int}(S)$ , 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  $\|y - x\| \leq \lambda r$ . Since  $\|y - x\| \leq \lambda r$ , we get  $\|y/\lambda - x/\lambda\| \leq r$ . Since  $\|y/\lambda - x/\lambda\| \leq r$ , 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

$$x \in \text{int}(\lambda S).$$
■

## 12.4 Finite-Dimensional Topological Vector Spaces

**PROPOSITION 12.4.1.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  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.

## Chapter 13

# Complete Space

### 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  $\mathcal{V}$ .

# Chapter 14

## Locally Convex Space

### 14.1 Preliminaries

#### 14.1.1 Seminorms

**PROPOSITION 14.1.1.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space. Let  $p$  be a seminorm on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $p$  is continuous if and only if  $p$  is bounded above on some neighborhood of 0.

#### 14.1.2 Sublinear Functions

**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:

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

- Positive Homogeneity:

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

**PROPOSITION 14.1.2.** Every seminorm is a sublinear functional.

**DEFINITION** (Minkowski Functional). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space. Let  $E$  be a convex 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 14.1.3.** Every Minkowski functional for a convex neighborhood of 0 is a sublinear functional.

**PROPOSITION 14.1.4.** Every Minkowski functional for a balanced convex neighborhood of 0 is a seminorm.

**PROPOSITION 14.1.5.** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a topological vector space. Let  $E$  be an open convex neighborhood of 0. Let  $p_E$  denote the Minkowski functional for  $E$ . 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  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$  by  $f(t) := tx$ . Then  $f$  is continuous. Since  $E$  is open in  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$  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  $p_E(x) \leq \frac{1}{1+\delta}$ , 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  $x \in r_0E$ , which further, is  $\subseteq E$ . So  $x \in E$ . ■

### 14.1.3 Separating Families

**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  $q := \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}/\mathcal{W}$  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  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space. Let  $\Gamma$  be a separating family of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$ . 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 locally convex space. Then there exists a separating family  $\Gamma$  of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$  that generates the original topology  $\mathcal{T}$ .

The above two theorems say that separating families of seminorms on vector spaces give rise to locally convex topologies, and that all locally convex topologies arise in this manner.

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

### 14.3 Relation to Other Topologies

**PROPOSITION 14.3.1.** A locally convex topology is equivalent to a metric topology if and only if it can be generated by a countable family of seminorms.

**PROPOSITION 14.3.2.** A locally convex topology is equivalent to a norm topology if and only if it can be generated by a finite family of seminorms.

### 14.4 Continuity in Locally Convex Spaces

**PROPOSITION 14.4.1.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a locally convex space. Let  $\Gamma$  be a separating family of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$  that generates the original topology  $\mathcal{T}$ . Let  $p$  be a seminorm on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $p$  is continuous if and only if  $\exists \kappa > 0$  and  $p_1, \dots, p_m \in \Gamma$  where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, \quad p(x) \leq \kappa \max\{p_i(x)\}_{i=1}^m.$$

*Proof. Forward Direction:* Assume that  $p$  is continuous. I will show that  $\exists \kappa > 0$  and  $p_1, \dots, p_m \in \Gamma$  where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, p(x) \leq \kappa \max\{p_i(x)\}_{i=1}^m$ . Notice  $[0, 1]$  is open in

$[0, +\infty)$ . Since  $p$  is a continuous function from  $\mathcal{V}$  to  $[0, +\infty)$  and  $[0, 1)$  is open in  $[0, +\infty)$ , we get  $\mathcal{M} := p^{-1}([0, 1))$  is open in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Note that  $p(0) = 0 \in [0, 1)$ . So  $0 \in \mathcal{M}$ . So  $\mathcal{M}$  is an open neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $\mathcal{M}$  contains some basic neighborhood  $\mathcal{N} := \mathcal{N}(0, \{p_i\}_{i=1}^m, \varepsilon)$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $p_1..p_m \in \Gamma$ , and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Consider an arbitrary element  $x$  of  $\mathcal{V}$ . Let  $r_x$  denote the number  $\max\{p_i(x)\}_{i=1}^m$ .

- **Case 1:**  $r_x = 0$ . Then for any  $k > 0$ , we have

$$\forall i = 1..m, \quad p_i(kx) = kp_i(x) \leq kr_x = k \cdot 0 = 0 < \varepsilon.$$

So  $kx \in \mathcal{N}$  and hence  $kx \in \mathcal{M}$ . So  $p(kx) < 1$ . So

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{k}p(kx) < \frac{1}{k} \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{k}.$$

Since  $k > 0$  was chosen arbitrarily, we get  $p(x) = 0$ . So  $p(x) = r_x \leq 1 \cdot r_x$ .

- **Case 2:**  $r_x > 0$ . Then we have

$$\forall i = 1..m, \quad p_i\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2r_x}x\right) = \frac{\varepsilon}{2r_x}p_i(x) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2r_x}r_x = \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \varepsilon.$$

So  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2r_x}x \in \mathcal{N}$  and hence  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2r_x}x \in \mathcal{M}$ . So  $p(\frac{\varepsilon}{2r_x}x) < 1$ . So

$$p(x) = \frac{2r_x}{\varepsilon}p\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2r_x}x\right) < \frac{2r_x}{\varepsilon} \cdot 1 = \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \cdot r_x.$$

Take  $\kappa := \max\{1, \frac{2}{\varepsilon}\}$ . Then  $p(x) \leq \kappa r_x$ . That is,

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, \quad p(x) \leq \kappa \max\{p_i(x)\}_{i=1}^m.$$

**Backward Direction:** Assume that  $\exists \kappa > 0$  and  $p_1..p_m \in \Gamma$  where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, p(x) \leq \kappa \max\{p_i(x)\}_{i=1}^m$ . I will show that  $p$  is continuous. Note that  $\mathcal{N} := \mathcal{N}(0, \{p_i\}_{i=1}^m, 1)$  is an open neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Consider an arbitrary element  $x$  of  $\mathcal{N}$ . Then  $\forall i = 1..m, p_i(x) < 1$ . So

$$p(x) \leq \kappa \max\{p_i(x)\}_{i=1}^m < \kappa \cdot 1 = \kappa.$$

So  $p$  is bounded above by  $\kappa$  on an open neighborhood of 0. So  $p$  is continuous. ■

**PROPOSITION 14.4.2.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{V}})$  and  $(\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{W}})$  be two locally convex spaces. Let  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{V}}$  be a separating family of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$  that generates the topology  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{V}}$ . Let  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{W}}$  be a separating family of seminorms on  $\mathcal{W}$  that generates the topology  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{W}}$ . Let  $T$  be a linear map from  $\mathcal{V}$  to  $\mathcal{W}$ . Then  $T$  is continuous if and only if

$$\forall q \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{W}}, \quad \exists \kappa > 0, \exists p_1..p_m \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{V}} \text{ where } m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that}$$

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, \quad q(Tx) \leq \kappa \max\{p_i(x)\}_{i=1}^m.$$

**COROLLARY 14.1.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a locally convex space. Let  $f$  be a linear functional on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $f$  is continuous if and only if there is a continuous seminorm  $p$  on  $\mathcal{V}$  such that

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, \quad |f(x)| \leq p(x).$$

## 14.5 Convergence in Locally Convex Spaces

**PROPOSITION 14.5.1.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a locally convex space. Let  $\Gamma$  be a separating family of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$  that generates the original topology  $\mathcal{T}$ . Let  $(x_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  be a net in  $\mathcal{V}$ . Then  $(x_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  converges to a point  $x \in \mathcal{V}$  if and only if

$$\forall p \in \Gamma, \quad \lim_{\lambda \in \Lambda} p(x_\lambda - x) = 0.$$

## 14.6 Strong Operator Topology

## 14.7 Weak Operator Topology

## Chapter 15

# The Hahn-Banach Theorem

### 15.1 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  $g|_{\mathcal{M}} = f$  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  $\mathcal{Y} := \bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(\rho_i)$ . 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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**COROLLARY 15.5.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a normed linear space. Then the canonical embedding

$\mathfrak{J} : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}^{**}$  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

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

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

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

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

**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  $\|q\| \leq 1$ . So  $\|x^*\| \leq \|\xi^*\| \|q\| \leq 1$ . 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  $\|t_n\| \leq 1$  and  $1 - \frac{1}{n} < |\xi^*(t_n)| \leq 1$ . 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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x^*(x_n + y_n)| &= \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(q(x_n + y_n))| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(x_n + y_n + \mathfrak{Y})| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x_n + y_n + \mathfrak{Y}\| \\ &= \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|x_n + \mathfrak{Y}\| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(x_n + \mathfrak{Y})| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(q(x_n))| \\ &= \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left| \xi^*\left(\frac{n}{n+1} t_n\right) \right| = \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left| \frac{n}{n+1} \xi^*(t_n) \right|, \text{ by linearity of } \xi^* \\ &= \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{n}{n+1} \cdot \lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\xi^*(t_n)| = 1 \cdot 1 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

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  $\|x^*\| \geq 1$ . Recall that we have proved  $\|x^*\| \leq 1$ . 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

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**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  $f : \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(kx_0) := kp_H(x_0)$ . Then  $f$  is a linear functional on  $\mathcal{W}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} f(kx_0) &= kp_H(x_0) = p_H(kx_0), \text{ for } k \geq 0, \text{ and} \\ f(kx_0) &= kp_H(x_0) < 0 \leq p_H(kx_0), \text{ for } k < 0. \end{aligned}$$
■

not finished

**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  $\exists f \in \mathcal{V}^*$ ,



$\exists \kappa \in \mathbb{R}$  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

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

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

**Backward Direction:**

Let  $z$  be an arbitrary element outside  $\text{clconv}(A)$ . Then  $\text{clconv}(A)$  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

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

Define a set  $\mathcal{S}_0$  by  $\mathcal{S}_0 := \{x \in \mathcal{V} : \Re f(x) \geq \alpha\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{S}_0$  is a closed half-space of  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $z \notin \mathcal{S}_0$ . So  $z \notin \bigcap_{\mathcal{S} \in \Omega} \mathcal{S}$ . So  $\bigcap_{\mathcal{S} \in \Omega} \mathcal{S} \subseteq \text{clconv}(A)$ . ■



## Chapter 16

# Reflexive Banach Space

### 16.1 Definitions

**DEFINITION** (Reflexive). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $\mathfrak{J}$  denote the canonical embedding of  $\mathfrak{X}$  into  $\mathfrak{X}^{**}$ . We say that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is **reflexive** if  $\mathfrak{J}$  is an isometric isomorphism between  $\mathfrak{X}$  and  $\mathfrak{X}^{**}$ .

### 16.2 Properties

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**PROPOSITION 16.2.1** (Closed Subspace). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a reflexive Banach space. Let  $\mathfrak{Y}$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ . Then  $\mathfrak{Y}$  is a reflexive Banach space.

*Proof.* Since  $\mathfrak{X}$  is a Banach space and  $\mathfrak{Y}$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$ ,  $\mathfrak{Y}$  is a Banach space. Let  $\mathfrak{J}$  denote the canonical embedding of  $\mathfrak{Y}$  into  $\mathfrak{Y}^{**}$ . By the Hahn-Banach Theorem (Corollary 15.5),  $\mathfrak{J}$  is an isometry and hence automatically injective.

To see that  $\mathfrak{J}$  is surjective, consider an arbitrary element  $y^{**} \in \mathfrak{Y}^{**}$ . Define a map  $x^{**} : \mathfrak{X}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$  by  $x^{**}(z^*) := y^{**}(z^*|_{\mathfrak{Y}})$ . Then it is easy to check that  $x^{**}$  is linear and continuous. So  $x^{**} \in \mathfrak{X}^{**}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{X}$  is reflexive,  $\exists x \in \mathfrak{X}$  such that  $\hat{x} = x^{**}$ .

Assume for the sake of contradiction that  $x \notin \mathfrak{Y}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{Y}$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathfrak{X}$  and  $x \in \mathfrak{X} \setminus \mathfrak{Y}$ , By the Hahn-Banach Theorem,  $\exists g \in \mathfrak{X}^*$  such that  $g|_{\mathfrak{Y}} = 0$  and  $g(x) \neq 0$ . Now we have  $\hat{x}(g) = g(x) \neq 0$  and  $x^{**}(g) = y^{**}(g|_{\mathfrak{Y}}) = y^{**}(0) = 0$ . So  $\hat{x}(g) \neq x^{**}(g)$ . However, this contradicts to the previous conclusion that  $\hat{x} = x^{**}$ . So  $x \in \mathfrak{Y}$ .

Now I will show that  $\mathfrak{J}(x) = y^{**}$ . Consider an arbitrary element  $w^* \in \mathfrak{Y}^*$ . Let  $v^* \in \mathfrak{X}^*$  be a Hahn-Banach extension of  $w^*$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 y^{**}(w^*) &= y^{**}(v^*|_{\mathfrak{Y}}), \text{ since } v^* \text{ is an extension of } w^* \\
 &= x^{**}(v^*), \text{ by definition of } x^{**} \\
 &= \hat{x}(v^*), \text{ by the choice of } x \\
 &= v^*(x), \text{ by definition of } \hat{x} \\
 &= w^*(x), \text{ since } v^* \text{ is an extension of } w^* \\
 &= \mathfrak{J}(x)(w^*), \text{ by definition of } \mathfrak{J}(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

That is,  $y^{**}(w^*) = \mathfrak{J}(x)(w^*)$ . So  $\mathfrak{J}(x) = y^{**}$ . So  $\mathfrak{J}$  is surjective. This completes the proof. ■

**PROPOSITION 16.2.2** (Dual Space). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is reflexive if and only if  $\mathfrak{X}^*$  is reflexive.

*Proof.* **Forward Direction:** Assume that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is reflexive. I will show that  $\mathfrak{X}^*$  is reflexive. ■

not finished

**PROPOSITION 16.2.3** (Image under Isometric Isomorphism). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  and  $\mathfrak{Y}$  be normed linear spaces. Suppose that  $\mathfrak{X}$  is reflexive and that there is an isometric isomorphism between  $\mathfrak{X}$  and  $\mathfrak{Y}$ .

**PROPOSITION 16.2.4.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is reflexive if and only if  $\mathfrak{X}_1$  is weakly compact.

*Proof.* ■

# Chapter 17

## Weak Topology

### 17.1 Definitions

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

**DEFINITION** (Topology Generated by Linear Functionals). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{L})$  be a dual pair. Define for each  $\varphi \in \mathcal{L}$  a function  $p_\varphi : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $p_\varphi(x) := |\varphi(x)|$ . Then each  $p_\varphi$  is a seminorm on  $\mathcal{V}$ . Define a family  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{L}}$  of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$  by  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{L}} := \{p_\varphi : \varphi \in \mathcal{L}\}$ . Then  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{L}}$  is a separating family of seminorms on  $\mathcal{V}$ . We define the **topology generated by  $\mathcal{L}$** , denoted by  $\sigma(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{L})$ , to be the locally convex topology generated by  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{L}}$ .

**DEFINITION** (Weak Topology). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a locally convex space. Then  $\mathcal{V}^*$  is a linear manifold of  $\mathcal{V}^\#$ . By the Hahn-Banach theorem, we get  $\mathcal{V}^*$  is separating. 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  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{T})$  be a locally convex space. Then  $\hat{\mathcal{V}}$  is a linear manifold of  $(\mathcal{V}^*)^\#$  and a separating family of linear functionals on  $\mathcal{V}^*$ . So  $(\mathcal{V}^*, \hat{\mathcal{V}})$  is a dual pair. We define the **weak\* topology** on  $\mathcal{V}^*$  to be the topology  $\sigma(\mathcal{V}^*, \hat{\mathcal{V}})$ .

induced by the family  $\hat{\mathcal{V}}$ .

## 17.2 Properties

(bug)

**PROPOSITION 17.2.1.** The weak\* topology is a weaker topology than the weak topology.

*Proof Idea.* The weak\* topology is a topology induced by the pre-dual and the weak topology is a topology induced by the dual. But the pre-dual sits inside the dual. Therefore it is harder to converge in the weak topology because there are more functionals that have to be continuous. You'll need more open sets to make those extra functionals continuous. ■

**PROPOSITION 17.2.2.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a finite-dimensional Banach space. Then the norm, weak, and weak\* topologies on  $\mathfrak{X}$  all coincide.

**PROPOSITION 17.2.3.** 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 17.1.** Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{L})$  be a dual pair. Then  $\mathcal{L} = (\mathcal{V}, \sigma(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{L}))^*$ .

*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

## 17.3 The Uniform Boundedness Principle

**THEOREM 17.2** (The Uniform Boundedness Principle - Metric Space). Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space. Let  $H$  be a non-empty family of continuous functionals on  $X$ . Suppose that  $\forall x \in X, \sup_{h \in H} |h(x)| < +\infty$ . Then there is some open set  $G$  and some constant  $M$  such that

$$\forall x \in G, \quad \sup_{h \in H} |h(x)| \leq M.$$

## 17.4 The Banach-Steinhaus Theorem

**THEOREM 17.3** (The Banach-Steinhaus Theorem). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  and  $\mathfrak{Y}$  be Banach spaces. Let  $(T_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Y})$ . Suppose that  $\forall x \in \mathfrak{X}, \exists y_x \in \mathfrak{Y}$  such that  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} T_n x = y_x$ . Then we have the followings:

- (1)  $\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|T_n\| < +\infty$ .
- (2) The map  $T : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$  given by  $Tx := y_x$  is bounded and linear.
- (3)  $\|T\| \leq \liminf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|T_n\|$ .

## 17.5 The Banach-Alaoglu Theorem

**THEOREM 17.4** (The Banach-Alaoglu Theorem). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Then the closed unit ball  $\mathfrak{X}_1^*$  of  $\mathfrak{X}^*$  is weak\*-compact.

**COROLLARY 17.1.** Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is isometrically isomorphic to a subspace of  $(\mathcal{C}(L, \mathbb{K}), \|\cdot\|_\infty)$  where  $L$  is some compact Hausdorff space.

## 17.6 Goldstine's Theorem

**THEOREM 17.5** (Goldstine's Theorem). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a Banach space. Let  $\mathfrak{J}$  denote the canonical embedding of  $\mathfrak{X}$  into  $\mathfrak{X}^{**}$ . Then  $\mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{X}_1)$  is weak\*-dense in  $\mathfrak{X}_1^{**}$ .





## Chapter 18

# Locally Compact Space

### 18.1 The F. Riesz's Theorem

**THEOREM 18.1** (The F. Riesz's Theorem). Let  $\mathfrak{X}$  be a topological vector space over field  $\mathbb{K}$ . Then  $\mathfrak{X}$  is finite-dimensional if and only if it is locally compact.



## Chapter 19

# Equicontinuity in Metric Spaces

### 19.1 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.

### 19.2 Sufficient Conditions

**PROPOSITION 19.2.1.** 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. ■

## Chapter 20

# Adjoint Operator

### 20.1 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 20.1.1** (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 20.1.2** (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.

## 20.2 Properties of the Adjoint Operator

**PROPOSITION 20.2.1.** 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 20.2.2.** Let  $V$  be an inner product space and  $T$  be a linear operator on  $V$ . Then  $T^*$  is also linear.

**PROPOSITION 20.2.3.** 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  $T$ ,

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

- (3) For any linear operator  $T$  and  $U$ ,

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

**PROPOSITION 20.2.4.** 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 20.2.5.** Let  $V$  be an inner product space and  $T$  be an invertible linear operator on  $V$ . Then  $(T^{-1})^* = (T^*)^{-1}$ .

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

## 20.4 Self-adjoint





## Chapter 21

# 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

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



## Chapter 22

# Coercive Functions

### 22.1 Definitions

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

### 22.2 Properties

**PROPOSITION 22.2.1.** 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  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} f(x_i) = m$ .

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

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

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

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

*Proof.*

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

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

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

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

Since  $\text{ball}[0, R]$  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  $C$ . ■

## Chapter 23

# Unclassified Results

**PROPOSITION 23.0.1.** 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  $C(X)$ .