

Real Analysis Qualifying Exam Notes

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1 Inequalities and Equalities

AM-GM Inequality:

$$\sqrt{ab} \leq \frac{a+b}{2}.$$

Reverse Triangle Inequality

$$||x| - |y|| \leq \|x - y\|.$$

Chebyshev's Inequality

$$\mu(\{x : |f(x)| > \alpha\}) \leq \left(\frac{\|f\|_p}{\alpha} \right)^p.$$

Holder's Inequality:

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \implies \|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q.$$

Application: For finite measure spaces,

$$1 \leq p < q \leq \infty \implies L^q \subset L^p \quad (\text{and } \ell^p \subset \ell^q)$$

Proof .

Fix p, q , let $r = \frac{q}{p}$ and $s = \frac{r}{r-1}$ so $r^{-1} + s^{-1} = 1$. Then let $h = |f|^p$:

$$\|f\|_p^p = \|h \cdot 1\|_1 \leq \|1\|_s \|h\|_r = \mu(X)^{\frac{1}{s}} \|f\|_q^{\frac{q}{r}} \implies \|f\|_p \leq \mu(X)^{\frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{q}} \|f\|_q.$$

■

Note: doesn't work for ℓ spaces, but just note that $\sum |x_n| < \infty \implies x_n < 1$ for large enough n , and thus $p < q \implies |x_n|^q \leq |x_n|^p$.

Cauchy-Schwarz:

$$|\langle f, g \rangle| = \|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_2 \|g\|_2 \quad \text{with equality} \iff f = \lambda g.$$

Relates inner product to norm, and only happens to relate norms in L^1 .

Proof .
?

■

Minkowski's Inequality:

$$1 \leq p < \infty \implies \|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$$

Note: does not handle $p = \infty$ case. Use to prove L^p is a normed space.

Young's Inequality:

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{r} + 1 \implies \|f * g\|_r \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q.$$

Application: Some useful specific cases:

$$\begin{aligned}\|f * g\|_1 &\leq \|f\|_1 \|g\|_1 \\ \|f * g\|_p &\leq \|f\|_1 \|g\|_p, \\ \|f * g\|_\infty &\leq \|f\|_2 \|g\|_2 \\ \|f * g\|_\infty &\leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q.\end{aligned}$$

Bessel's Inequality:

For $x \in H$ a Hilbert space and $\{e_k\}$ an orthonormal sequence,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_k \rangle|^2 \leq \|x\|^2.$$

Note: this does not need to be a basis.

Parseval's Identity:

Equality in Bessel's inequality, attained when $\{e_k\}$ is a *basis*, i.e. it is complete, i.e. the span of its closure is all of H .

2 Basics

Useful Technique: $\lim f_n = \limsup f_n = \liminf f_n$ iff the limit exists, so $\limsup f_n \leq g \leq \liminf f_n$ implies that $g = \lim f$. Similarly, a limit does not exist iff $\liminf f_n > \limsup f_n$.

Lemma 2.1 (Convergent Sums Have Small Tails).

$$\sum a_n < \infty \implies a_n \longrightarrow 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=N}^{\infty} N \xrightarrow{\infty} 0$$

Theorem 2.2 (Heine-Borel).

$X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact $\iff X$ is closed and bounded.

Lemma 2.3 (Geometric Series).

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x} \iff |x| < 1.$$

Corollary: $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = 1.$

Definition 2.3.1.

A set S is **nowhere dense** iff the closure of S has empty interior iff every interval contains a subinterval that does not intersect S .

Definition 2.3.2.

A set is **meager** if it is a *countable* union of nowhere dense sets.

Note that a *finite* union of nowhere dense is still nowhere dense.

Lemma 2.4.

The Cantor set is closed with empty interior.

Proof.

Its complement is a union of open intervals, and can't contain an interval since intervals have positive measure and $m(C_n)$ tends to zero. ■

Corollary: The Cantor set is nowhere dense.

Definition 2.4.1.

An F_σ set is a union of closed sets, and a G_δ set is an intersection of opens.

Mnemonic: “ F ” stands for *ferme*, which is “closed” in French, and σ corresponds to a “sum”, i.e. a union.

Lemma 2.5.

Singleton sets in \mathbb{R} are closed, and thus \mathbb{Q} is an F_σ set.

Theorem 2.6 (Baire).

\mathbb{R} is a **Baire space** (countable intersections of open, dense sets are still dense). Thus \mathbb{R} can not be written as a countable union of nowhere dense sets.

Lemma 2.7.

There is a function discontinuous precisely on \mathbb{Q} .

Proof .

$f(x) = \frac{1}{n}$ if $x = r_n \in \mathbb{Q}$ is an enumeration of the rationals, and zero otherwise. The limit at every point is 0. ■

Lemma 2.8.

There *do not* exist functions that are discontinuous precisely on $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof: D_f is always an F_σ set, which follows by considering the oscillation ω_f . $\omega_f(x) = 0 \iff f$ is continuous at x , and $D_f = \bigcup_n A_{\frac{1}{n}}$ where $A_\varepsilon = \{\omega_f \geq \varepsilon\}$ is closed.

Lemma 2.9.

Any nonempty set which is bounded from above (resp. below) has a well-defined supremum (resp. infimum).

3 Uniform Convergence

Theorem 3.1 (Egorov).

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be measurable with $m(E) > 0$ and $\{f_k : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ be measurable functions such that $f(x) := \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(x) < \infty$ exists almost everywhere.

Then $f_k \rightarrow f$ *almost uniformly*, i.e.

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists F \subseteq E \text{ closed such that } m(E \setminus F) < \varepsilon \text{ and } f_k \xrightarrow{u} f \text{ on } F.$$

Proposition 3.2.

The space $X = C([0,1])$, continuous functions $f : [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, equipped with the norm $\|f\| = \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)|$, is a **complete** metric space.

Proof .

1. Let $\{f_k\}$ be Cauchy in X . ■

2. Define a candidate limit using pointwise convergence:

Fix an x ; since

$$|f_k(x) - f_j(x)| \leq \|f_k - f_j\| \rightarrow 0$$

the sequence $\{f_k(x)\}$ is Cauchy in \mathbb{R} . So define $f(x) := \lim_k f_k(x)$.

3. Show that $\|f_k - f\| \rightarrow 0$:

$$|f_k(x) - f_j(x)| < \varepsilon \forall x \implies \lim_j |f_k(x) - f_j(x)| < \varepsilon \forall x$$

Alternatively, $\|f_k - f\| \leq \|f_k - f_N\| + \|f_N - f_j\|$, where N, j can be chosen large enough to bound each term by $\varepsilon/2$.

4. Show that $f \in X$:

The uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous. (Note: in other cases, you may need to show the limit is bounded, or has bounded derivative, or whatever other conditions define X .)

Lemma 3.3.

Metric spaces are compact iff they are sequentially compact, (i.e. every sequence has a convergent subsequence).

Corollary: The unit ball in $C([0, 1])$ with the sup norm is not compact.

Proof: Take $f_k(x) = x^n$, which converges to a dirac delta at 1. The limit is not continuous, so no subsequence can converge.

Lemma 3.4.

A uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous.

Lemma (Testing Uniform Convergence): $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly iff there exists an M_n such that $\|f_n - f\|_\infty \leq M_n \rightarrow 0$.

Negating: find an x which depends on n for which the norm is bounded below.

Useful Technique: If f_n has a global maximum (computed using f'_n and the first derivative test) $M_n \rightarrow 0$, then $f_n \rightarrow 0$ uniformly.

Lemma 3.5 (Baby Commuting Limits with Integrals).

If $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly, then $\int f_n = \int f$.

Lemma 3.6 (Uniform Convergence and Derivatives).

If $f'_n \rightarrow g$ uniformly for some g and $f_n \rightarrow f$ pointwise (or at least at one point), then $g = f'$.

Lemma 3.7 (Uniform Convergence of Series).

If $f_n(x) \leq M_n$ for a fixed x where $\sum M_n < \infty$, then the series $f(x) = \sum f_n(x)$ converges pointwise.

Lemma 3.8.

If $\sum f_n$ converges then $f_n \rightarrow 0$ uniformly.

Useful Technique: For a fixed x , if $f = \sum f_n$ converges *uniformly* on some $B_r(x)$ and each f_n is continuous at x , then f is also continuous at x .

****Lemma (M-test for Series)** If $|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$ which does not depend on x , then $\sum f_n$ converges uniformly.

Lemma (p-tests): Let n be a fixed dimension and set $B = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum \frac{1}{n^p} < \infty &\iff p > 1 \\ \int_{\varepsilon}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} < \infty &\iff p > 1 \\ \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^p} < \infty &\iff p < 1 \\ \int_B \frac{1}{|x|^p} < \infty &\iff p < n \\ \int_{B^c} \frac{1}{|x|^p} < \infty &\iff p > n \end{aligned}$$

4 Measure Theory

Useful Technique: $s = \inf \{x \in X\} \implies$ for every ε there is an $x \in X$ such that $x \leq s + \varepsilon$.

Useful Techniques: Always consider bounded sets, and if E is unbounded write $E = \bigcup_n B_n(0) \cap E$ and use countable subadditivity or continuity of measure.

Lemma 4.1.

Every open subset of \mathbb{R} (resp \mathbb{R}^n) can be written as a unique countable union of disjoint (resp. almost disjoint) intervals (resp. cubes).

Definition: The outer measure of a set is given by

$$m_*(E) = \inf_{\substack{\{Q_i\} \Rightarrow E \\ \text{closed cubes}}} \sum |Q_i|.$$

Lemma 4.2 (Properties of [Outer].

Measure]

- Monotonicity: $E \subseteq F \implies m_*(E) \leq m_*(F)$.
- Countable Subadditivity: $m_*(\bigcup E_i) \leq \sum m_*(E_i)$.
- Approximation: For all E there exists a $G \supseteq E$ such that $m_*(G) \leq m_*(E) + \varepsilon$.
- Disjoint* Additivity: $m_*(A \amalg B) = m_*(A) + m_*(B)$.

Note: this holds for outer measure **iff** $\text{dist}(A, B) > 0$.

Lemma 4.3 (Subtraction of Measure):.

$m(A) = m(B) + m(C)$ and $m(C) < \infty$ implies that $m(A) - m(C) = m(B)$.

Lemma 4.4 (Continuity of Measure).

$$E_i \nearrow E \implies m(E_i) \rightarrow m(E)$$

$$m(E_1) < \infty \text{ and } E_i \searrow E \implies m(E_i) \rightarrow m(E).$$

Proof .

1. Break into disjoint annuli $A_2 = E_2 \setminus E_1$, etc then apply countable disjoint additivity to $E = \coprod A_i$. ■

2. Use $E_1 = (\coprod E_j \setminus E_{j+1}) \coprod (\bigcap E_j)$, taking measures yields a telescoping sum, and use countable disjoint additivity.

Lemma 4.5.

Lebesgue measure is translation and dilation invariant.

Proof .

Obvious for cubes; if $Q_i \rightrightarrows E$ then $Q_i + k \rightrightarrows E + k$, etc. ■

Theorem 4.6 (Non-Measurable Sets).

There is a non-measurable set.

Proof .

- Use AOC to choose one representative from every coset of \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q} on $[0, 1)$, which is countable, and assemble them into a set N
- Enumerate the rationals in $[0, 1]$ as q_j , and define $N_j = N + q_j$. These intersect trivially.
- Define $M := \coprod N_j$, then $[0, 1) \subseteq M \subseteq [-1, 2)$, so the measure must be between 1 and 3. By translation invariance, $m(N_j) = m(N)$, and disjoint additivity forces $m(M) = 0$, a contradiction. ■

Lemma (Borel Characterization of Measurable Sets)

If E is Lebesgue measurable, then $E = H \coprod N$ where $H \in F_\sigma$ and N is null.

Useful technique: F_σ sets are Borel, so establish something for Borel sets and use this to extend it to Lebesgue.

Proof: For every $\frac{1}{n}$ there exists a closed set $K_n \subset E$ such that $m(E \setminus K_n) \leq \frac{1}{n}$. Take $K = \bigcup K_n$, wlog $K_n \nearrow K$ so $m(K) = \lim_n m(K_n) = m(E)$. Take $N := E \setminus K$, then $m(N) = 0$.

Lemma 4.7.

$$\limsup_n A_n = \bigcap_n \bigcup_{j \geq n} A_j = \left\{ x \mid x \in A_n \text{ for inf. many } n \right\}$$

$$\liminf_n A_n = \bigcup_n \bigcap_{j \geq n} A_j = \left\{ x \mid x \in A_n \text{ for all except fin. many } n \right\}$$

Lemma 4.8.

If A_n are all measurable, $\limsup A_n$ and $\liminf A_n$ are measurable.

Proof: Measurable sets form a sigma algebra, and these are expressed as countable unions/intersections of measurable sets.

Theorem 4.9 (Borel-Cantelli).

Let $\{E_k\}$ be a countable collection of measurable sets. Then

$$\sum_k m(E_k) < \infty \implies \text{almost every } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ is in at most finitely many } E_k.$$

Application:

$$m\left(\left\{x \text{ such that } \exists \text{ inf. many } \frac{p}{q} \text{ with } \left|x - \frac{p}{q}\right| \leq \frac{1}{q^3}\right\}\right) = 0.$$

Proof.

Idea: write E_j to be the above set with p, q replaced by p_j, q_j where $r_j = \frac{p_j}{q_j}$ is an enumeration

of \mathbb{Q} , then $m(E_j) \leq \frac{2}{q_j^3}$ and $\sum \frac{1}{q_j^3} < \infty$.

- If $E = \limsup_j E_j$ with $\sum m(E_j) < \infty$ then $m(E) = 0$.
- If E_j are measurable, then $\limsup_j E_j$ is measurable.
- If $\sum_j m(E_j) < \infty$, then $\sum_{j=N}^{\infty} m(E_j) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} 0$ as the tail of a convergent sequence.
- $E = \limsup_j E_j = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j=k}^{\infty} E_j \implies E \subseteq \bigcup_{j=k}^{\infty} E_j$ for all k
- $E \subseteq \bigcup_{j=k}^{\infty} E_j \implies m(E) \leq \sum_{j=k}^{\infty} m(E_j) \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} 0$.

■

Lemma 4.10.

- Characteristic functions are measurable
- If f_n are measurable, so are $|f_n|$, $\limsup f_n$, $\liminf f_n$, $\lim f_n$,
- Sums and differences of measurable functions are measurable,

-
- Cones $F(x, y) = f(x)$ are measurable,
 - Compositions $f \circ T$ for T a linear transformation are measurable,
 - “Convolution-ish” transformations $(x, y) \mapsto f(x - y)$ are measurable

Proof (Convolution): Take the cone on f to get $F(x, y) = f(x)$, then compose F with the linear transformation $T = [1, -1; 1, 0]$.

5 Integration

Definition: $f \in L^+$ iff f is measurable and non-negative.

Useful techniques:

- Break integration domain up into disjoint annuli.
- Break real integrals up into $x < 1$ and $x > 1$.

Definition: A measurable function is integrable iff $\|f\|_1 < \infty$.

Useful facts about C_c functions:

- Bounded almost everywhere
- Uniformly continuous

5.1 Convergence Theorems

Monotone Convergence Theorem (MCT):

If $f_n \in L^+$ and $f_n \nearrow f$ a.e., then

$$\lim \int f_n = \int \lim f_n = \int f \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \int f_n \longrightarrow \int f.$$

Needs to be positive and increasing.

Dominated Convergence Theorem (DCT):

If $f_n \in L^1$ and $f_n \longrightarrow f$ a.e. with $|f_n| \leq g$ for some $g \in L^1$, then

$$\lim \int f_n = \int \lim f_n = \int f \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \int f_n \longrightarrow \int f,$$

and more generally,

$$\int |f_n - f| \longrightarrow 0.$$

Positivity *not* needed.

Generalized DCT: can relax $|f_n| < g$ to $|f_n| < g_n \longrightarrow g \in L^1$.

Lemma: If $f \in L^1$, then

$$\int |f_n - f| \longrightarrow 0 \iff \int |f_n| \longrightarrow \int |f|.$$

Proof: Let $g_n = |f_n| - |f_n - f|$, then $g_n \rightarrow |f|$ and

$$|g_n| = ||f_n| - |f_n - f|| \leq |f_n - (f_n - f)| = |f| \in L^1,$$

so the DCT applies to g_n and

$$\begin{aligned} \|f_n - f\|_1 &= \int |f_n - f| + |f_n| - |f_n| = \int |f_n| - g_n \\ &\rightarrow_{DCT} \lim \int |f_n| - \int |f|. \end{aligned}$$

Fatou's Lemma:

If $f_n \in L^+$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \liminf_n f_n &\leq \liminf_n \int f_n \\ \limsup_n \int f_n &\leq \int \limsup_n f_n. \end{aligned}$$

Only need positivity.

Theorem (Tonelli): For $f(x, y)$ **non-negative and measurable**, for almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

- $f_x(y)$ is a **measurable** function
- $F(x) = \int f(x, y) dy$ is a **measurable** function,
- For E measurable, the slices $E_x := \{y \mid (x, y) \in E\}$ are measurable.
- $\int f = \int \int F$, i.e. any iterated integral is equal to the original.

Theorem (Fubini): For $f(x, y)$ **integrable**, for almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

- $f_x(y)$ is an **integrable** function
- $F(x) = \int f(x, y) dy$ is an **integrable** function,
- For E measurable, the slices $E_x := \{y \mid (x, y) \in E\}$ are measurable.
- $\int f = \int \int f(x, y)$, i.e. any iterated integral is equal to the original

Theorem (Fubini/Tonelli): If any iterated integral is **absolutely integrable**, i.e. $\int \int |f(x, y)| < \infty$, then f is integrable and $\int f$ equals any iterated integral.

Differentiating under the integral:

If $\left| \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(x, t) \right| \leq g(x) \in L^1$, then letting $F(t) = \int f(x, t) dx$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F(t) &:= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int \frac{f(x, t+h) - f(x, t)}{h} dx \\ &\stackrel{\text{DCT}}{=} \int \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(x, t) dx. \end{aligned}$$

To justify passing the limit, let $h_k \rightarrow 0$ be any sequence and define

$$f_k(x, t) = \frac{f(x, t + h_k) - f(x, t)}{h_k},$$

so $f_k \xrightarrow{\text{pointwise}} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f$.

Apply the MVT to f_k to get $f_k(x, t) = f_k(\xi, t)$ for some $\xi \in [0, h_k]$, and show that $f_k(\xi, t) \in L_1$.

Lemma (Swapping Sum and Integral) If f_n are non-negative and $\sum \int |f|_n < \infty$, then $\sum \int f_n = \int \sum f_n$.

Proof: MCT. Let $F_N = \sum_{n=1}^N f_n$ be a finite partial sum; then there are simple functions $\phi_n \nearrow f_n$ and so $\sum \phi_n \nearrow F_N$, so apply MCT.

Lemma: If $f_k \in L^1$ and $\sum \|f_k\|_1 < \infty$ then $\sum f_k$ converges almost everywhere and in L^1 .

Proof: Define $F_N = \sum_{k=1}^N f_k$ and $F = \lim_N F_N$, then $\|F_N\|_1 \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \|f_k\|_1 < \infty$ so $F \in L^1$ and $\|F_N - F\|_1 \rightarrow 0$ so the sum converges in L^1 . Almost everywhere convergence: ?

5.2 L^1 Facts

Lemma (Translation Invariance): The Lebesgue integral is translation invariant, i.e. $\int f(x) dx = \int f(x + h) dx$ for any h .

Proof:

- For characteristic functions, $\int_E f(x + h) = \int_{E+h} f(x) = m(E + h) = m(E) = \int_E f$ by translation invariance of measure.
- So this also holds for simple functions by linearity
- For $f \in L^+$, choose $\phi_n \nearrow f$ so $\int \phi_n \rightarrow \int f$.
- Similarly, $\tau_h \phi_n \nearrow \tau_h f$ so $\int \tau_h f \rightarrow \int f$
- Finally $\left\{ \int \tau_h \phi \right\} = \left\{ \int \phi \right\}$ by step 1, and the suprema are equal by uniqueness of limits.

Lemma (Integrals Distribute Over Disjoint Sets):

If $X \subseteq A \cup B$, then $\int_X f \leq \int_A f + \int_{A^c} f$ with equality iff $X = A \amalg B$.

Lemma (L^1 functions may Decay Rapidly):

If $f \in L^1$ and f is uniformly continuous, then $f(x) \xrightarrow{|x| \rightarrow \infty} 0$.

Doesn't hold for general L^1 functions, take any train of triangles with height 1 and summable areas.

Lemma (L^1 functions have Small Tails):

If $f \in L^1$, then for every ε there exists a radius R such that if $A = B_R(0)^c$, then $\int_A |f| < \varepsilon$.

Proof: Approximate with compactly supported functions. Take $g \xrightarrow{L^1} f$ with $g \in C_c$, then choose N large enough so that $g = 0$ on $E := B_N(0)^c$, then $\int_E |f| \leq \int_E |f - g| + \int_E |g|$.

Lemma (L^1 functions have absolutely continuity):

$$m(E) \rightarrow 0 \implies \int_E f \rightarrow 0.$$

Proof: Approximate with compactly supported functions. Take $g \xrightarrow{L^1} f$, then $g \leq M$ so $\int_E f \leq \int_E f - g + \int_E g \rightarrow 0 + M \cdot m(E) \rightarrow 0$.

Lemma (L^1 functions are finite almost everywhere):

If $f \in L^1$, then $m(\{f(x) = \infty\}) = 0$.

Proof (Split up domain2): Let $A = \{f(x) = \infty\}$, then $\infty > \int f = \int_A f + \int_{A^c} f = \infty \cdot m(A) + \int_{A^c} f \implies m(A) = 0$.

Lemma (Continuity in L^1): $\|\tau_h f - f\|_1 \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$.

Proof: Approximate with compactly supported functions. Take $g \xrightarrow{L^1} f$ with $g \in C_c$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \int |f(x+h) - f(x)| \\ & \leq \int |f(x+h) - g(x+h)| + \int |g(x+h) - g(x)| + \int |g(x) - f(x)| \\ & \rightarrow 2\varepsilon + \int |g(x+h) - g(x)| \\ & = \int_K |g(x+h) - g(x)| + \int_{K^c} |g(x+h) - g(x)| \rightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

which follows because we can enlarge the support of g to K where the integrand is zero on K^c , then apply uniform continuity on K .

Theorem (Integration by Parts, Special Case):

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &:= \int_0^x f(y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad G(x) := \int_0^x g(y) dy \\ \implies \int_0^1 F(x)g(x)dx &= F(1)G(1) - \int_0^1 f(x)G(x)dx. \end{aligned}$$

Proof: Fubini-Tonelli, and sketch region to change integration bounds.

Theorem (Lebesgue Density):

$$A_h(f)(x) := \frac{1}{2h} \int_{x-h}^{x+h} f(y) dy \implies \|A_h(f) - f\| \xrightarrow{h \rightarrow 0} 0.$$

Proof: Fubini-Tonelli, and sketch region to change integration bounds, and continuity in L^1 .

5.3 L^p Spaces

Lemma: The following are dense subspaces of $L^2([0, 1])$:

- Simple functions
- Step functions
- $C_0([0, 1])$
- Smoothly differentiable functions $C_0^\infty([0, 1])$
- Smooth compactly supported functions C_c^∞

Dual Spaces: In general, $(L^p)^\vee \cong L^q$

- For $p=1$, supposed to know the $p=1$ case, i.e. $(L^1)^\vee \cong L^\infty$
 - For the analogous $p=\infty$ case: $L^1 \subset (L^\infty)^\vee$, since the isometric mapping is always injective, but *never* surjective. So this containment is always proper (requires Hahn-Banach Theorem).
- The $p=2$ case: Easy by the Riesz Representation for Hilbert spaces.

6 Fourier Series and Convolution

Definition (Convolution)

$$f * g(x) = \int f(x-y)g(y)dy.$$

Definition (Dilation)

$$\phi_t(x) = t^{-n} \phi(t^{-1}x).$$

Definition (The Fourier Transform):

$$\widehat{f}(\xi) = \int f(x) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} dx.$$

Lemma: $\widehat{f} = \widehat{g} \implies f = g$ almost everywhere.

Lemma (Riemann-Lebesgue)

$$f \in L^1 \implies \widehat{f}(\xi) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } |\xi| \rightarrow \infty.$$

Motto: Fourier transforms decay.

Lemma: If $f \in L^1$, then \widehat{f} is continuous and bounded.

Proof: $|\widehat{f}| \leq \int |f| \cdot |e^{i\cdot}| \leq \|f\|_1$, and the DCT shows that $|\widehat{f}(\xi_n) - \widehat{f}(\xi)| \rightarrow 0$.

Todo: search qual alerts.

7 Exam 2 (Practice)

Link to PDF File

Proving uniform continuity: show

$$\|f - \tau_h f\|_1 \xrightarrow{h \rightarrow 0} 0$$

Notation: C_0 is the set of functions that vanish at infinity.

7.1 1: Fubini-Tonelli

Theorem (Fubini):

Suppose

- $f : \mathbb{R}^{n_1+n_2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is measurable on its domain
- f is non-negative

Then for almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$,

1. Every slice

$$\begin{aligned} f_x : \mathbb{R}^{n_2} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ y &\mapsto f(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

is measurable on \mathbb{R}^{n_2} .

2. The function

$$\begin{aligned} F : \mathbb{R}^{n_1} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\mapsto \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_2}} f_x(y) \, dy \end{aligned}$$

is measurable on \mathbb{R}^{n_1}

3. The function

$$G(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_1}} F(x) \, dx$$

is measurable and

$$G(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_1}} f = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_1}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_2}} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx$$

for any iterated version of this integral.

Corollary (Measurable Slices):

Let E be a measurable subset of \mathbb{R}^n . Then

- For almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$, the slice $E_x := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2} \mid (x, y) \in E\}$ is measurable in \mathbb{R}^{n_2} .
- The function

$$F : \mathbb{R}^{n_1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$x \mapsto m(E_x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_2}} \chi_{E_x} dy$$

is measurable and

$$m(E) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_1}} m(E_x) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_1}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n_2}} \chi_{E_x} dy dx$$

$\implies :$

- Let f be measurable on \mathbb{R}^n .
- Then the cylinders $F(x, y) = f(x)$ and $G(x, y) = f(y)$ are both measurable on \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .
- Write $\mathcal{A} = \{G \leq F\} \cap \{G \geq 0\}$; both are measurable.

$\impliedby :$

- Let A be measurable in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .
- Define $A_x = \{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid (x, y) \in A\}$, then $m(A_x) = f(x)$.
- By the corollary, A_x is measurable set, $x \mapsto A_x$ is a measurable function, and $m(A) = \int f(x) dx$.
- Then explicitly, $f(x) = \chi_A$, which makes f a measurable function.

7.1.1 b

- Define $A_y = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid (x, y) \in A\}$, and notice that $A_y = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid 0 \leq y \leq f(x)\}$.
- By the corollary, A_y is measurable and

$$m(A) = \int m(A_y) dy = \int_0^y m(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid f(x) \geq y\}) dy$$

7.2 2: Convolutions and the Fourier Transform

7.2.1 a

Definition (Convolution):

$$(f * g)(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x - y)g(y) dy.$$

Facts:

- $f, g \in L^1 \implies f * g \in L^1$
- $f \in L^1, g \leq M \implies f * g \leq M'$ and is uniformly continuous.
- $f, g \in L^1, f \leq M, g \leq M' \implies f * g \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow \infty} 0$
- $\|f * g\|_1 \leq \|f\|_1 \|g\|_1$
- $f \in L^1, g'$ exists, $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i}$ all bounded $\implies \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(f * g) = f * \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i}$
- $f, g \in C_c^\infty \implies f * g \in C^\infty$ and $f * g \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow \infty} 0$.

7.2.2 b**Definition (Approximation to the Identity):**

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(x) &= e^{-\pi x^2} \\ \phi_t(x) &= t^{-n} \phi\left(\frac{x}{t}\right).\end{aligned}$$

Facts:

- $\int \phi = \int \phi_t = 1$
- f bounded and uniformly continuous $\implies f * \phi_t \rightrightarrows f$

Theorem (Norm Convergence of Approximate Identities):

$$\|f * \phi_t - f\|_1 \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow 0} 0.$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\|f - f * \phi_t\|_1 &= \int |f(x) - \int f(x-y)\phi_t(y) dy| dx \\ &= \int |f(x)| \int \phi_t(y) dy - \int |f(x-y)\phi_t(y)| dy dx \\ &= \int \int \phi_t(y) |f(x) - f(x-y)| dy dx \\ &=_{FT} \int \int \phi_t(y) |f(x) - f(x-y)| dx dy \\ &= \int \phi_t(y) \int |f(x) - f(x-y)| dx dy \\ &= \int \phi_t(y) \|f - \tau_y f\|_1 dy \\ &= \int_{y < \delta} \phi_t(y) \|f - \tau_y f\|_1 dy + \int_{y \geq \delta} \phi_t(y) \|f - \tau_y f\|_1 dy \\ &\leq \int_{y < \delta} \phi_t(y) \varepsilon + \int_{y \geq \delta} \phi_t(y) (\|f\|_1 + \|\tau_y f\|_1) dy \quad \text{by continuity in } L^1 \\ &\leq \varepsilon + 2\|f\|_1 \int_{y \geq \delta} \phi_t(y) dy \\ &\leq \varepsilon + 2\|f\|_1 \varepsilon \quad \text{since } \phi_t \text{ has small tails} \\ &\longrightarrow 0 \blacksquare.\end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Convolutions Vanish at Infinity)

$$f, g \in L^1 \text{ and bounded } \implies \lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} (f * g)(x) = 0.$$

Proof:

- Choose $M \geq f, g$.
- By small tails, choose N such that $\int_{B_N^c} |f|, \int_{B_N^c} |g| < \varepsilon$

- Note

$$|f * g| \leq \int |f(x-y)| |g(y)| dy := I$$

- Use $|x| \leq |x-y| + |y|$, take $|x| \geq 2N$ so either

—

$$|x-y| \geq N \implies I \leq \int_{\{x-y \geq N\}} |f(x-y)| M dy \leq \varepsilon M \longrightarrow 0$$

—

$$|y| \geq N \implies I \leq \int_{\{y \geq N\}} M |g(y)| dy \leq M\varepsilon \longrightarrow 0$$

■

7.2.3 c

Definition (The Fourier Transform):

$$\hat{f}(\xi) = \int f(x) e^{-2\pi i x \cdot \xi} dx.$$

Facts:

- *Riemann-Lebesgue lemma:* \hat{f} vanishes at infinity
- $f \in L^1 \implies \hat{f}$ is bounded and uniformly continuous
- $f, \hat{f} \in L^1 \implies f$ is bounded, uniformly continuous, and vanishes at infinity
- $f \in L^1$ and $\hat{f} = 0$ almost everywhere $\implies f = 0$ almost everywhere.

Theorem (Fourier Inversion):

$$f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \hat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} d\xi.$$

Proof: Idea: Fubini-Tonelli doesn't work directly, so introduce a convergence factor, take limits, and use uniqueness of limits.

Use the following facts:

- $f, g \in L^1 \implies \int \hat{f}g = \int f\hat{g}$.
- $g(x) := e^{-\pi|t|^2} \implies \hat{g}(\xi) = g(\xi)$
- $g_t(x) = t^{-n}g(x/t) = t^{-n}e^{-\pi|x|^2/t^2}$
- $\hat{g}_t(x) = g(tx) = e^{-\pi t^2|x|^2}$
- $\phi(\xi) := e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} \hat{g}_t(\xi)$
- $\phi(\xi) = \mathcal{F}(\hat{g}_t(\xi - x)) = g_t(x - \xi)$
- $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \phi(\xi) = e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi}$

Take the modified integral:

$$\begin{aligned}
I_t(x) &= \int \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} e^{-\pi t^2 |\xi|^2} \\
&= \int \widehat{f}(\xi) \phi(\xi) \\
&= \int f(\xi) \widehat{\phi}(\xi) \\
&= \int f(\xi) \widehat{g}(\xi - x) \\
&= \int f(\xi) g_t(x - \xi) d\xi \\
&= \int f(y - x) g_t(y) dy \quad (\xi = y - x) \\
&= (f * g_t) \\
&\longrightarrow f \text{ in } L^1 \text{ as } t \longrightarrow 0,
\end{aligned}$$

but we also have

$$\begin{aligned}
\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} I_t(x) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \int \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} e^{-\pi t^2 |\xi|^2} \\
&= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \int \widehat{f}(\xi) \phi(\xi) \\
&=_{DCT} \int \widehat{f}(\xi) \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \phi(\xi) \\
&= \int \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi}
\end{aligned}$$

So

$$I_t(x) \longrightarrow \int \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} \text{ pointwise and } \|I_t(x) - f(x)\|_1 \longrightarrow 0.$$

So there is a subsequence I_{t_n} such that $I_{t_n}(x) \longrightarrow f(x)$ almost everywhere, so $f(x) = \int \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi}$ almost everywhere by uniqueness of limits. ■

7.3 3: Hilbert Spaces

7.3.1 a

Theorem (Bessel's Inequality):

$$\left\| x - \sum_{n=1}^N \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n \right\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2$$

and thus

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \leq \|x\|^2$$

Proof: Let $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n$

$$\begin{aligned}
\|x - S_N\|^2 &= \langle x - S_N, x - S_N \rangle \\
&= \|x\|^2 + \|S_N\|^2 - 2\Re \langle x, S_N \rangle \\
&= \|x\|^2 + \|S_N\|^2 - 2\Re \left\langle x, \sum_{n=1}^N \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n \right\rangle \\
&= \|x\|^2 + \|S_N\|^2 - 2\Re \sum_{n=1}^N \langle x, \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n \rangle \\
&= \|x\|^2 + \|S_N\|^2 - 2\Re \sum_{n=1}^N \overline{\langle x, u_n \rangle} \langle x, u_n \rangle \\
&= \|x\|^2 + \left\| \sum_{n=1}^N \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n \right\|^2 - 2 \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \\
&= \|x\|^2 + \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 - 2 \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \\
&= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2.
\end{aligned}$$

And by continuity of the norm and inner product, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|x - S_N\|^2 &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \\
\Rightarrow \left\| x - \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N \right\|^2 &= \|x\|^2 - \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \\
\Rightarrow \left\| x - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n \right\|^2 &= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2.
\end{aligned}$$

Then noting that $0 \leq \|x - S_N\|^2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &\leq \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \\
\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 &\leq \|x\|^2 \blacksquare.
\end{aligned}$$

7.3.2 b

- Take $\{a_n\} \in \ell^2$, then note that $\sum |a_n|^2 < \infty \implies$ the tails vanish.
- Define $x = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N$ where $S_N = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k u_k$

- $\{S_N\}$ is Cauchy and H is complete, so $x \in H$.
- By construction, $\langle x, u_n \rangle = \left\langle \sum_k a_k u_k, u_n \right\rangle = \sum_k a_k \langle u_k, u_n \rangle = a_n$ since the u_k are all orthogonal.
- $\|x\|^2 = \left\| \sum_k a_k u_k \right\|^2 = \sum_k \|a_k u_k\|^2 = \sum_k |a_k|^2$ by Pythagoras since the u_k are normal.

7.3.3 c

Let x and u_n be arbitrary. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left\langle x - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_k \rangle u_k, u_n \right\rangle &= \langle x, u_n \rangle - \left\langle \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_k \rangle u_k, u_n \right\rangle \\
 &= \langle x, u_n \rangle - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle \langle x, u_k \rangle u_k, u_n \rangle \\
 &= \langle x, u_n \rangle - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_k \rangle \langle u_k, u_n \rangle \\
 &= \langle x, u_n \rangle - \langle x, u_n \rangle = 0 \\
 \implies x - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_k \rangle u_k &= 0 \quad \text{by completeness.}
 \end{aligned}$$

So

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_k \rangle u_k \implies \|x\|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_k \rangle|^2. \blacksquare$$

7.4 4: Lp Spaces

p-test for integrals:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^1 x^{-p} < \infty &\iff p < 1 \\
 \int_1^{\infty} x^{-p} < \infty &\iff p > 1.
 \end{aligned}$$

Yields a general technique: break integrals apart at $x = 1$.

Inclusions and relationships:

$$\begin{aligned}
 m(X) < \infty &\implies L^\infty \subset L^2 \subset L^1 \\
 \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}) &\subset \ell^1(\mathbb{Z}) \subset \ell^\infty(\mathbb{Z}).
 \end{aligned}$$

7.4.1 a**Theorem (Holder's Inequality):**

$$\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q.$$

Proof:

It suffices to show this when $\|f\|_p = \|g\|_q = 1$, since

$$\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q \iff \int \frac{|f|}{\|f\|_p} \frac{|g|}{\|g\|_q} \leq 1.$$

Using $AB \leq \frac{1}{p}A^p + \frac{1}{q}B^q$, we have

$$\int |f| |g| \leq \int \frac{|f|^p}{p} \frac{|g|^q}{q} = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \blacksquare.$$

Theorem (Minkowski's Inequality):

$$\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p.$$

Proof:

We first note

$$|f + g|^p = |f + g| |f + g|^{p-1} \leq (|f| + |g|) |f + g|^{p-1}.$$

Note that if p, q are conjugate exponents then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{q} &= 1 - \frac{1}{p} = \frac{p-1}{p} \\ q &= \frac{p}{p-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Then taking integrals yields

$$\begin{aligned}
\|f + g\|_p^p &= \int |f + g|^p \\
&\leq \int (|f| + |g|) |f + g|^{p-1} \\
&= \int |f| |f + g|^{p-1} + \int |g| |f + g|^{p-1} \\
&= \|f(f + g)^{p-1}\|_1 + \|g(f + g)^{p-1}\|_1 \\
&\leq \|f\|_p \|(f + g)^{p-1}\|_q + \|g\|_p \|(f + g)^{p-1}\|_q \\
&= (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \|(f + g)^{p-1}\|_q \\
&= (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \left(\int |f + g|^{(p-1)q} \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \\
&= (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \left(\int |f + g|^p \right)^{1 - \frac{1}{p}} \\
&= (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \frac{\int |f + g|^p}{(\int |f + g|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}} \\
&= (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \frac{\|f + g\|_p^p}{\|f + g\|_p}
\end{aligned}$$

and canceling common terms yields

$$\begin{aligned}
1 &\leq (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \frac{1}{\|f + g\|_p} \\
&\implies \|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p \blacksquare.
\end{aligned}$$

7.4.2 c

Definition (Infinity Norm):

$$L^\infty(X) = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \|f\|_\infty < \infty\}$$

where

$$\|f\|_\infty = \inf_{\alpha \geq 0} \left\{ \alpha \mid m\{|f| \geq \alpha\} = 0 \right\}.$$

Theorem:

$$m(X) < \infty \implies \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|f\|_p = \|f\|_\infty.$$

Proof: Let $M = \|f\|_\infty$. For any $L < M$, let $S = \{|f| \geq L\}$. Then $m(S) > 0$ and

$$\begin{aligned}
\|f\|_p &= \left(\int_X |f|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
&\geq \left(\int_S |f|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
&\geq L \, m(S)^{\frac{1}{p}} \xrightarrow{p \rightarrow \infty} L \\
&\implies \liminf_p \|f\|_p \geq M.
\end{aligned}$$

We also have

$$\begin{aligned}
\|f\|_p &= \left(\int_X |f|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
&\leq \left(\int_X M^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
&= M \, m(X)^{\frac{1}{p}} \xrightarrow{p \rightarrow \infty} M \\
&\implies \limsup_p \|f\|_p \leq M \blacksquare.
\end{aligned}$$

Note: this doesn't help with this problem at all.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}
\int f^p &= \int_{x \leq 1} f^p + \int_{x=1} f^p + \int_{x \geq 1} f^p \\
&= \int_{x \leq 1} f^p + \int_{x=1} 1 + \int_{x \geq 1} f^p \\
&= \int_{x \leq 1} f^p + m(\{f = 1\}) + \int_{x \geq 1} f^p \\
&\xrightarrow{p \rightarrow \infty} 0 + m(\{f = 1\}) + \begin{cases} 0 & m(\{x \geq 1\}) = 0 \\ \infty & m(\{x \geq 1\}) > 0. \end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$

7.5 5: Dual Spaces

Definition: A map $L : X \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a linear functional iff

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \alpha L(\mathbf{x}) + L(\mathbf{y}).$$

Theorem (Riesz Representation for Hilbert Spaces): If Λ is a continuous linear functional on a Hilbert space H , then there exists a unique $y \in H$ such that

$$\forall x \in H, \quad \Lambda(x) = \langle x, y \rangle.$$

Proof:

- Define $M := \ker \Lambda$.
- Then M is a closed subspace and so $H = M \oplus M^\perp$
- There is some $z \in M^\perp$ such that $\|z\| = 1$.
- Set $u := \Lambda(x)z - \Lambda(z)x$
- Check

$$\Lambda(u) = \Lambda(\Lambda(x)z - \Lambda(z)x) = \Lambda(x)\Lambda(z) - \Lambda(z)\Lambda(x) = 0 \implies u \in M$$

- Compute

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle u, z \rangle \\ &= \langle \Lambda(x)z - \Lambda(z)x, z \rangle \\ &= \langle \Lambda(x)z, z \rangle - \langle \Lambda(z)x, z \rangle \\ &= \Lambda(x)\langle z, z \rangle - \Lambda(z)\langle x, z \rangle \\ &= \Lambda(x)\|z\|^2 - \Lambda(z)\langle x, z \rangle \\ &= \Lambda(x) - \Lambda(z)\langle x, z \rangle \\ &= \Lambda(x) - \langle x, \overline{\Lambda(z)}z \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

- Choose $y := \overline{\Lambda(z)}z$.
- Check uniqueness:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, y \rangle &= \langle x, y' \rangle \quad \forall x \\ \implies \langle x, y - y' \rangle &= 0 \quad \forall x \\ \implies \langle y - y', y - y' \rangle &= 0 \\ \implies \|y - y'\| &= 0 \\ \implies y - y' &= \mathbf{0} \implies y = y'. \end{aligned}$$

7.5.1 b

Theorem (Continuous iff Bounded): Let $L : X \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a linear functional, then the following are equivalent:

1. L is continuous
2. L is continuous at zero
3. L is bounded, i.e. $\exists c \geq 0 \mid |L(x)| \leq c\|x\|$ for all $x \in H$

2 \implies 3: Choose $\delta < 1$ such that

$$\|x\| \leq \delta \implies |L(x)| < 1.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} |L(x)| &= \left| L \left(\frac{\|x\|}{\delta} \frac{\delta}{\|x\|} x \right) \right| \\ &= \frac{\|x\|}{\delta} \left| L \left(\delta \frac{x}{\|x\|} \right) \right| \\ &\leq \frac{\|x\|}{\delta} 1, \end{aligned}$$

so we can take $c = \frac{1}{\delta}$. ■

3 \implies 1:

We have $|L(x - y)| \leq c\|x - y\|$, so given $\varepsilon \geq 0$ simply choose $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{c}$.

7.5.2 c

Definition (Dual Space):

$$X^\vee := \left\{ L : X \longrightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid L \text{ is continuous} \right\}$$

Definition (Operator Norm):

$$\|L\|_{X^\vee} := \sup_{\substack{x \in X \\ \|x\|=1}} |L(x)|$$

Theorem: (Operator Norm is a Norm)

Proof: The only nontrivial property is the triangle inequality, but

$$\|L_1 + L_2\| = \sup |L_1(x) + L_2(x)| \leq \sup L_1(x) + \sup L_2(x) = \|L_1\| + \|L_2\|.$$

Theorem (Completeness in Operator Norm):

X^\vee equipped with the operator norm is a Banach space.

Proof:

- Let $\{L_n\}$ be Cauchy in X^\vee .
- Then for all $x \in C$, $\{L_n(x)\} \subset \mathbb{C}$ is Cauchy and converges to something denoted $L(x)$.
- Need to show L is continuous and $\|L_n - L\| \longrightarrow 0$.
- Since $\{L_n\}$ is Cauchy in X^\vee , choose N large enough so that

$$n, m \geq N \implies \|L_n - L_m\| < \varepsilon \implies |L_m(x) - L_n(x)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall x \mid \|x\| = 1.$$

- Take $n \longrightarrow \infty$ to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} m \geq N &\implies |L_m(x) - L(x)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall x \mid \|x\| = 1 \\ &\implies \|L_m - L\| < \varepsilon \longrightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

-
- Continuity:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |L(x)| &= |L(x) - L_n(x) + L_n(x)| \\
 &\leq |L(x) - L_n(x)| + |L_n(x)| \\
 &\leq \varepsilon \|x\| + c \|x\| \\
 &= (\varepsilon + c) \|x\| \blacksquare.
 \end{aligned}$$

8 Exam 2 (2018)

[Link to PDF File](#)

9 Exam 2 (2014)

[Link to PDF File](#)

10 Qual: Fall 2019

10.1 1

See phone photo?

10.2 2

DCT?

10.3 3

“Follow your nose.”

10.4 4

See Problem Set 8.

Bessel’s Inequality: For any orthonormal set in a Hilbert space (not necessarily a basis), we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \leq \|x\|^2$$

Proof:

$$0 \leq \left\| x - \sum_{k=1}^n \langle x, e_k \rangle e_k \right\|^2$$

Corollary (Parseval’s Identity): If $\text{span}\{u_n\}$ is dense in \mathcal{H} , so it is a basis, then this is an equality.

Riesz-Fischer: Let $U = \{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be an orthonormal set (not necessarily a basis), then

1. There is an isometric surjection

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{H} &\longrightarrow \ell^2(\mathbb{N}) \\ \mathbf{x} &\mapsto \{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_n \rangle\}_{n=1}^{\infty}\end{aligned}$$

i.e. if $\{a_n\} \in \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$, so $\sum |a_n|^2 < \infty$, then there exists a $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$a_n = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_n \rangle \quad \forall n.$$

2. \mathbf{x} can be chosen such that

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = \sum |a_n|^2$$

Note: the choice of \mathbf{x} is unique $\iff \{u_n\}$ is **complete**, i.e. $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_n \rangle = 0$ for all n implies $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.

Proof:

- Given $\{a_n\}$, define $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n \mathbf{u}_n$.
- S_N is Cauchy in \mathcal{H} and so $S_N \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$ for some $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{H}$.
- $\langle x, u_n \rangle = \langle x - S_N, u_n \rangle + \langle S_N, u_n \rangle \rightarrow a_n$
- By construction, $\|x - S_N\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N |a_n|^2 \rightarrow 0$, so $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|^2$.

10.5 5

See Problem Set 5.

Heine-Cantor theorem: Every continuous function on a compact set is uniformly continuous.

Uniform continuity:

$$\begin{aligned}\forall \varepsilon \quad \exists \delta(\varepsilon) \quad & \left| \quad \forall x, y, \quad |x - y| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon \right. \\ \iff \forall \varepsilon \quad \exists \delta(\varepsilon) \quad & \left| \quad \forall x, y, \quad |y| < \delta \implies |f(x - y) - f(y)| < \varepsilon \right.\end{aligned}$$

Fubini-Tonelli interchange of integrals, where the change of bounds becomes very important.

Continuity in L^1 :

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \|\tau_y f - f\|_1 = 0.$$

10.6 Definitions

- Banach Space
- L^p

10.7 Useful Results

- Cauchy-Schwarz
- Young's Inequality
- Holder's Inequality
- Minkowski's Inequality
- Jensen's Inequality:

$$r^{-1} := p^{-1} + q^{-1} - 1 \implies \|f * g\|_r \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$$

- Useful variant - take $q = 1$ to get $\|f * g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_1$
- Take $p = 1$ to show L_1 is closed under $*$.
- The Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma
- Proving that $\delta \notin L_1(\mathbb{R})$ and that there is no such identity
 - Rather, is a distribution or measure that *acts* on f and satisfies $f(x) \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) \delta(t - x) dt$
- Fubini's Theorem
- Density Results:
 - $C_c(\mathbb{R}) \subset C_0(\mathbb{R})$
- $C_c(\mathbb{R}) \cap C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \neq \emptyset$, e.g. take $f(x) = e^{\frac{-1}{x^2}} \chi_{(0, \infty)}(x)$.
- The Banach Algebra $L^1(\mathbb{R})$ is not a principal ideal domain.
- Every locally compact abelian group G has a unique Borel measure (up to scaling) that is positive, regular, translation-invariant (the Haar measure).
 - For $\mathbb{R}, (S_1)^2$, equal to the Lebesgue measure. For \mathbb{Z} , the counting measure.