

• **Theorem** (Baire) Let X be a complete metric space and let  $(X_n)_{n\geq 1}$  be a sequence of closed subsets in X. Assume that

Int 
$$X_n = \emptyset$$
 for every  $n \ge 1$ .

Then

$$\operatorname{Int}\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty}X_{n}\right)=\emptyset.$$

Remark The Baire category theorem is often used in the following form. Let X be a nonempty complete metric space. Let  $(X_n)_{n\geq 1}$  be a sequence of closed subsets such that

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n = X.$$

Then there exists some  $n_0$  such that Int  $X_{n_0} \neq \emptyset$ .

• Theorem (Banach–Steinhaus, uniform boundedness principle). Let E and F be two Banach spaces and let  $(T_i)_{i \in I}$  be a family (not necessarily countable) of continuous linear operators from E into F. Assume that

$$\sup_{i\in I} \|T_i x\| < \infty \quad \forall x\in E.$$

Then

$$\sup_{i\in I} \|T_i\|_{\mathscr{L}(E,F)} < \infty.$$

In other words, there exists a constant c such that

$$||T_i x|| \le c||x|| \quad \forall x \in E, \quad \forall i \in I.$$

*Proof.* For every  $n \ge 1$ , let

$$X_n = \{x \in E; \quad \forall i \in I, \ \|T_i x\| \le n\},$$

so that  $X_n$  is closed, and by (1) we have

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n = E.$$

It follows from the Baire category theorem that  $\operatorname{Int}(X_{n_0}) \neq \emptyset$  for some  $n_0 \geq 1$ . Pick  $x_0 \in E$  and r > 0 such that  $B(x_0, r) \subset X_{n_0}$ . We have

$$||T_i(x_0 + rz)|| \le n_0 \quad \forall i \in I, \quad \forall z \in B(0, 1).$$

This leads to

$$r \|T_i\|_{\mathcal{L}(E,F)} \leq n_0 + \|T_i x_0\|,$$

which implies (2).

Remark. From the proof, we need only to assume that E is a Banach space.

**Corollary** Suppose that X is a Banach space, Y a normed space, and that  $T_n \in B(X, Y)$ . Suppose that

$$Tx := \lim_{n \to \infty} T_n x$$

exists for every  $x \in X$ . Then  $T \in B(X, Y)$ .

*Proof* The operator T is linear, since if  $x, y \in X$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}$ , then

$$T(\alpha x + \beta y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} T_n(\alpha x + \beta y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \alpha T_n x + \beta T_n y$$
$$= \alpha \lim_{n \to \infty} T_n x + \beta \lim_{n \to \infty} T_n y$$
$$= \alpha T x + \beta T y.$$

To show that T is bounded, observe that since

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\|T_nx\|_Y$$

exists it follows that for every  $x \in X$  the sequence  $(T_n x)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded. The Principle of Uniform Boundedness now shows that  $||T_n||_{B(X,Y)} \leq M$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . It follows that

$$||Tx||_Y = \lim_{n \to \infty} ||T_n x||_Y \le M ||x||_X$$

and so T is bounded.

• **Theorem 2.6 (open mapping theorem).** Let E and F be two Banach spaces and let T be a continuous linear operator from E into F that is **surjective** (= onto). Then there exists a constant c > 0 such that

(7) 
$$T(B_E(0,1)) \supset B_F(0,c).$$

Remark 5. Property (7) implies that the image under T of any open set in E is an open set in F (which justifies the name given to this theorem!). Indeed, let us suppose U is open in E and let us prove that T(U) is open. Fix any point  $y_0 \in T(U)$ , so that  $y_0 = Tx_0$  for some  $x_0 \in U$ . Let r > 0 be such that  $B(x_0, r) \subset U$ , i.e.,  $x_0 + B(0, r) \subset U$ . It follows that

$$y_0 + T(B(0, r)) \subset T(U)$$
.

Using (7) we obtain

$$T(B(0,r)) \supset B(0,rc)$$

and therefore

$$B(y_0, rc) \subset T(U)$$
.

• **Corollary 2.7.** Let E and F be two Banach spaces and let T be a continuous linear operator from E into F that is **bijective**, i.e., injective (= one-to-one) and surjective. Then  $T^{-1}$  is also continuous (from F into E).

*Proof of Corollary* 2.7. Property (7) and the assumption that T is injective imply that if  $x \in E$  is chosen so that ||Tx|| < c, then ||x|| < 1. By homogeneity, we find that

$$||x|| \le \frac{1}{c} ||Tx|| \quad \forall x \in E$$

and therefore  $T^{-1}$  is continuous.

**Corollary 2.8.** Let E be a vector space provided with two norms,  $\| \|_1$  and  $\| \|_2$ . Assume that E is a Banach space for **both** norms and that there exists a constant  $C \ge 0$  such that

$$||x||_2 \leq C||x||_1 \quad \forall x \in E.$$

Then the two norms are **equivalent**, i.e., there is a constant c > 0 such that

$$||x||_1 \le c||x||_2 \quad \forall x \in E.$$

Proof of Corollary 2.8. Apply Corollary 2.7 with

$$E = (E, \| \ _1), F = (E, \| \ _2), \text{ and } T = I.$$

*Proof of Theorem* 2.6. We split the argument into two steps:

**Step 1.** Assume that T is a linear surjective operator from E onto F. Then there exists a constant c > 0 such that

(8) 
$$\overline{T(B(0,1))} \supset B(0,2c).$$

*Proof.* Set  $X_n = n\overline{T(B(0, 1))}$ . Since T is surjective, we have  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n = F$ , and by the Baire category theorem there exists some  $n_0$  such that  $\operatorname{Int}(X_{n_0}) \neq \emptyset$ . It follows that

Int 
$$\overline{[T(B(0,1))]} \neq \emptyset$$
.

Pick c > 0 and  $y_0 \in F$  such that

$$(9) B(y_0, 4c) \subset \overline{T(B(0, 1))}.$$

In particular,  $y_0 \in \overline{T(B(0, 1))}$ , and by symmetry,

$$(10) -y_0 \in \overline{T(B(0,1))}.$$

Adding (9) and (10) leads to

$$B(0, 4c) \subset \overline{T(B(0, 1))} + \overline{T(B(0, 1))}.$$

On the other hand, since  $\overline{T(B(0, 1))}$  is convex, we have

$$\overline{T(B(0,1))} + \overline{T(B(0,1))} = 2\overline{T(B(0,1))},$$

and (8) follows.

**Step 2.** Assume T is a continuous linear operator from E into F that satisfies (8). Then we have

(11) 
$$T(B(0,1)) \supset B(0,c)$$
.

*Proof.* Choose any  $y \in F$  with ||y|| < c. The aim is to find some  $x \in E$  such that

$$||x|| < 1$$
 and  $Tx = y$ .

By (8) we know that

(12) 
$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists z \in E \text{ with } ||z|| < \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } ||y - Tz|| < \varepsilon.$$

Choosing  $\varepsilon = c/2$ , we find some  $z_1 \in E$  such that

$$||z_1|| < \frac{1}{2}$$
 and  $||y - Tz_1|| < \frac{c}{2}$ .

By the same construction applied to  $y - Tz_1$  (instead of y) with  $\varepsilon = c/4$  we find some  $z_2 \in E$  such that

$$||z_2|| < \frac{1}{4}$$
 and  $||(y - Tz_1) - Tz_2|| < \frac{c}{4}$ .

Proceeding similarly, by induction we obtain a sequence  $(z_n)$  such that

$$||z_n|| < \frac{1}{2^n}$$
 and  $||y - T(z_1 + z_2 + \dots + z_n)|| < \frac{c}{2^n}$   $\forall n$ .

It follows that the sequence  $x_n = z_1 + z_2 + \cdots + z_n$  is a Cauchy sequence. Let  $x_n \to x$  with, clearly, ||x|| < 1 and y = Tx (since T is continuous).

• **Theorem 2.9** (closed graph theorem). Let E and F be two Banach spaces. Let T be a linear operator from E into F. Assume that the graph of T, G(T), is closed in  $E \times F$ . Then T is continuous.

*Remark* 6. The converse is obviously true, since the graph of any continuous map (linear or not) is closed.

*Proof of Theorem* 2.9. Consider, on E, the two norms

$$||x||_1 = ||x||_E + ||Tx||_F$$
 and  $||x||_2 = ||x||_E$ 

(the norm  $\| \|_1$  is called the *graph norm*).

It is easy to check, using the assumption that G(T) is closed, that E is a Banach space for the norm  $\| \|_2$  and  $\| \|_2 \le \| \|_1$ . It follows from Corollary 2.8 that the two norms are equivalent and thus there exists a constant c > 0 such that  $\|x\|_1 \le c\|x\|_2$ . We conclude that  $\|Tx\|_F \le c\|x\|_E$ .

Let X be a normed space and  $X^{**}$  be the set of bounded linear functionals from

$$X^*$$
 to  $\mathbb{K}$ , i.e.  $X^{**} := B(X^*; \mathbb{K})$ .

**Lemma** For any normed space X we can isometrically map X onto a subspace of  $X^{**}$  via the canonical linear mapping  $x \mapsto x^{**}$ , where  $x^{**}$  is the element of  $X^{**}$  defined by setting

$$x^{**}(f) = f(x)$$
 for each  $f \in X^*$ .

We denote this mapping by  $J: X \to X^{**}$ .

*Proof* We have to show that for any  $x \in X$ ,  $x^{**}$  defines a linear functional on  $X^*$  (i.e. an element of  $X^{**}$ ) with the same norm as x. Given  $x \in X$  we set

$$x^{**}(f) := f(x)$$
 for every  $f \in X^*$ .

Then, since

$$|x^{**}(f)| = |f(x)| \le ||f||_{X^*} ||x||_X,$$

it certainly follows that  $x^{**} \in X^{**}$  and that  $||x^{**}||_{X^{**}} \le ||x||_X$ .

Let  $f \in X^*$  be such that

||f|| = 1 and f(x) = ||x||, then we have

$$|x^{**}(f)| = |f(x)| = ||x||_X = ||x||_X ||f||_{X^*}$$

(since  $||f||_{X^*} = 1$ ) and it follows that  $||x^{**}||_{X^{**}} \ge ||x||_X$ , which yields the required equality of norms.

*Proof* If  $(F_n) \in J(X)$  with  $F_n \to F$  in  $X^{**}$ , then  $(F_n)$  must be Cauchy in  $X^{**}$ . Since there exist  $x_n \in X$  such that  $F_n = x_n^{**}$  and the map J is a linear isometry, we have

$$||x_n - x_m||_X = ||F_n - F_m||_{X^{**}},$$

so  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy in X. It follows that there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $x_n \to x$  in X, and so

$$||F_n - x^{**}||_{X^{**}} = ||x_n - x||_X \to 0$$
 as  $n \to \infty$ .

By uniqueness of limits it follows that  $F = x^{**}$ , so J(X) is closed.

**Definition** A Banach space X is *reflexive* if  $J: X \to X^{**}$  is onto, i.e. if every  $F \in X^{**}$  can be written as  $x^{**}$  for some  $x \in X$ .

**Proposition** All Hilbert spaces are reflexive.

**Theorem** Let X be a Banach space. Then X is reflexive if and only if  $X^*$  is reflexive.

*Proof* Suppose first that X is reflexive; we want to show that  $X^*$  is reflexive, i.e. that for any  $\Phi \in (X^*)^{**}$  we can find an  $f \in X^*$  such that  $f^{**} = \Phi$ , i.e. such that

$$\Phi(F) = F(f)$$
 for every  $F \in X^{**}$ .

This actually tells us what f should be. Since any  $F \in X^{**}$  can be written as  $x^{**}$  for some  $x \in X$ , we require

$$\Phi(x^{**}) = x^{**}(f)$$
 for every  $x \in X$ .

But since, by definition,  $x^{**}(f) = f(x)$ , this says that we must have

$$f(x) = \Phi(x^{**})$$
 for every  $x \in X$ ,

and we now use this as the definition of f. We just have to check that f really is an element of  $X^*$ , i.e. is a bounded linear map from X into  $\mathbb{K}$ . But this follows immediately, as it is the composition of J, a bounded linear map from X into  $X^{**}$ , with  $\Phi$ , which is a bounded linear map from  $X^{**}$  into  $\mathbb{K}$ .

For the converse, suppose that  $X^*$  is reflexive but X is not, i.e. there is an element  $F \in X^{**}$  such that  $F \neq x^{**}$  for any  $x \in X$ . Then the set

$$J(X) = \{x^{**} : x \in X\}$$

is a proper closed linear subspace of  $X^{**}$  and so there is some non-zero  $\Phi \in (X^{**})^*$  such that  $\Phi = 0$  on J(X), i.e.

$$\Phi(x^{**}) = 0$$
 for all  $x \in X$ .

Since  $(X^{**})^* = (X^*)^{**}$  and  $X^*$  is reflexive, we know that  $\Phi = f^{**}$  for some  $f \in X^*$ , and so if  $x \in X$ , we have

$$f(x) = x^{**}(f) = f^{**}(x^{**}) = \Phi(x^{**}) = 0.$$

But this means that f = 0, which in turn implies that  $\Phi = 0$ , a contradiction.

**Lemma** Any closed subspace Y of a reflexive Banach space X is reflexive.

*Proof* Take  $f \in X^*$  and let  $f_Y$  denote the restriction of f to Y, so that  $f_Y \in Y^*$ . Because of the Hahn–Banach Theorem, any element of  $Y^*$  can be obtained as such a restriction.

To show that Y is reflexive we need to show that for any  $\Psi \in Y^{**}$  there exists a  $y \in Y$  such that

$$\Psi(f_Y) = y^{**}(f_Y)$$
 for every  $f \in X^*$ .

First define an element  $\hat{\Psi} \colon X^* \to \mathbb{R}$  by setting

$$\hat{\Psi}(f) = \Psi(f_Y),$$

and then

$$|\hat{\Psi}(f)| \le \|\Psi\| \|f_Y\| \le \|\Psi\| \|f\|$$
 for any  $f \in X^*$ ,

so  $\hat{\Psi} \in X^{**}$ . Now we can use the fact that X is reflexive to find an  $x \in X$  such that

$$\hat{\Psi} = x^{**}.$$

We only need now show that  $x \in Y$ .

Suppose that  $x \notin Y$ . Then the distance functional provides an  $f \in X^*$  such that  $f(x) \neq 0$  and f(y) = 0 for every  $y \in Y$ , i.e. such that  $f_Y = 0$ . Then

$$f(x) = x^{**}(f) = \hat{\Psi}(f) = \Psi(f_Y) = 0,$$

a contradiction.

**Definition 27.1** We say that a sequence  $(x_n) \in X$  converges weakly to  $x \in X$ , and write  $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ , if

$$f(x_n) \to f(x)$$
 for all  $f \in X^*$ .

Note that in a Hilbert space, where every linear functional is of the form  $x \mapsto (x, y)$  for some  $y \in H, x_n \rightarrow x$  if

$$(x_n, y) \to (x, y)$$
 for all  $y \in H$ .

This observation allows us to provide an example of a sequence that converges weakly but does not converge strongly. Pick any countable orthonormal sequence  $(e_j)_{j=1}^{\infty}$  in H; then for any  $y \in H$  Bessel's inequality

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |(y, e_j)|^2 \le ||y||^2$$

shows that the sum converges; it follows that  $(y, e_j) \to 0$  as  $j \to \infty$  for any  $y \in H$ , and hence that  $e_j \to 0$ .

## Lemma 27.2 Weak convergence has the following properties.

- (i) Strong convergence implies weak convergence;
- (ii) in a finite-dimensional normed space weak convergence and strong convergence are equivalent;
- (iii) weak limits are unique;
- (iv) weakly convergent sequences are bounded; and
- (v) if  $x_n \rightarrow x$ , then

$$||x|| \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} ||x_n||. \tag{27.1}$$

*Proof* (i) If  $x_n \to x$ , then for any  $f \in X^*$ 

$$|f(x_n) - f(x)| \le ||f||_{X^*} ||x_n - x||_X \to 0$$
 as  $n \to \infty$ ,

so  $f(x_n) \to f(x)$ , and hence  $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ .

(ii) Due to part (i) we need only show that if V is a finite-dimensional normed space, then weak convergence in V implies strong convergence in V. If  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$  is a basis for V, then for each  $i = 1, \ldots, n$  the map

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j e_j \mapsto x_i$$

is an element of  $V^*$ , so if  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \to \mathbf{x}$  it follows that  $x_j^{(k)} \to x_j$  for each  $j = 1, \ldots, n$ , and so

$$x^{(k)} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j^{(k)} e_j \to \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j e_j = x.$$

(iii) Suppose that  $x_n \rightharpoonup x$  and  $x_n \rightharpoonup y$ . Then for any  $f \in X^*$ ,

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = f(y),$$

(iv) Since  $f(x_n)$  converges, it follows that  $f(x_n)$  is a bounded sequence (in  $\mathbb{K}$ ) for every  $f \in X^*$ . If we consider the sequence  $(x_n^{**}) \in X^{**}$ , then, since

$$x_n^{**}(f) = f(x_n),$$

it follows that  $(x_n^{**}(f))_n$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{K}$  for every  $f \in X^*$ . We can now use the Principle of Uniform Boundedness to deduce that  $(x_n^{**})$  is

bounded in  $X^{**}$ . Since  $||x^{**}||_{X^{**}} = ||x||_X$ , it follows that  $(x_n)$  is bounded in X.

(v) Choose  $f \in X^*$  with  $||f||_{X^*} = 1$  such that f(x) = ||x||, then

$$||x|| = f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n),$$

SO

$$||x|| \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} |f(x_n)| \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} ||f||_{X^*} ||x_n||_X;$$

the result follows since  $||f||_{X^*} = 1$ .

**Lemma 27.3** Let H be a Hilbert space. If  $(x_n) \in H$  with  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $||x_n|| \rightarrow ||x||$ , then  $x_n \rightarrow x$ .

*Proof* Observe that

$$||x - x_n||^2 = (x - x_n, x - x_n) = ||x||^2 - (x, x_n) - (x_n, x) + ||x_n||^2.$$

Since  $x_n \to x$ , we have  $(x_n, x) \to (x, x) = ||x||^2$  and  $||x_n||^2 \to ||x||^2$  by assumption; so  $||x - x_n||^2 \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

**Lemma 27.4** Suppose that  $T: X \to Y$  is a compact linear operator. If  $(x_n) \in X$  with  $x_n \rightharpoonup x$  in X, then  $Tx_n \to Tx$  in Y.

*Proof* We first show that  $Tx_n \rightarrow Tx$  in Y; indeed, if  $f \in Y^*$ , then  $f \circ T$  is an element of  $X^*$ , so that  $x_n \rightarrow x$  implies that

$$f(Tx_n) \to f(Tx)$$
.

Now, suppose that  $Tx_n \not\to Tx$ ; then there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  and a subsequence  $(x_{n_i})_j$  such that

$$||Tx_{n_j} - Tx|| > \varepsilon$$
 for every  $j$ . (27.2)

Since  $x_{n_j}$  converges weakly, it is a bounded sequence in X (by part (iv) of Lemma 27.2); since T is compact it follows that  $(Tx_{n_j})$  has a subsequence  $(Tx_{n_j'})_j$  that converges to some  $z \in Y$ . Since strong convergence implies weak convergence (Lemma 27.2 (i)), we also have  $Tx_{n_j'} \to z$ ; but weak limits are unique (part (iii) of Lemma 27.2) and we already know that  $Tx_{n_j'} \to Tx$  (since  $x_{n_j'}$  is a subsequence of  $x_n$  and we know that  $Tx_n \to Tx$ ), so we must have z = Tx and

$$\lim_{j\to\infty} \|Tx_{n'_j} - Tx\| \to 0 \quad \text{as } j\to\infty.$$

Since  $x_{n'_j}$  is a subsequence of  $x_{n_j}$  the preceding equation contradicts (27.2), and therefore  $Tx_n \to Tx$  as claimed.

**Definition 27.8** If  $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in X^*$ , then  $f_n$  converges weakly-\* ('weakly star') to f if

$$f_n(x) \to f(x)$$
 for all  $x \in X$ ;

we write  $f_n \stackrel{*}{\rightharpoonup} f$ .

Note that weak-\* convergence is a very natural way to define convergence of sequences in  $X^*$ : it is the equivalent of pointwise convergence for continuous functions.

## **Lemma 27.9** Weak-\* convergence has the following properties.

- (i) Strong convergence in  $X^*$  implies weak-\* convergence in  $X^*$ ;
- (ii) weak-\* limits are unique;
- (iii) weakly-\* convergent sequences are bounded; (Assume X is Banach)
- (iv) if  $f_n \stackrel{*}{\rightharpoonup} f$ , then

$$||f||_{X^*} \leq \liminf_{n \to \infty} ||f_n||_{X^*};$$

- (v) weak convergence in  $X^*$  implies weak-\* convergence in  $X^*$ ;
- (vi) if X is reflexive, then weak-\* convergence in  $X^*$  implies weak convergence in  $X^*$ .

*Proof* (i) If  $f_n \to f$  in  $X^*$ , i.e.  $||f_n - f||_{X^*} \to 0$ , then for any  $x \in X$  we have

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |(f_n - f)(x)| \le ||f_n - f||_{X^*} ||x||_X \to 0$$

and so  $f_n \stackrel{*}{\rightharpoonup} f$ .

(ii) If  $f_n \stackrel{*}{\rightharpoonup} f$  and  $f_n \stackrel{*}{\rightharpoonup} g$ , then

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = g(x)$$
 for every  $x \in X$ ,

so f = g.

(iii) We have  $f_n \in B(X; \mathbb{K})$  for each n, and if  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  for every  $x \in X$ , then

$$\sup_{n} |f_n(x)| < \infty \qquad \text{for every } x \in X,$$

so it follows from the Principle of Uniform Boundedness that  $\sup_n \|f_n\|_{X^*} < \infty$ .

(iv) Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$  we can find an  $x \in X$  with ||x|| = 1 such that  $f(x) > ||f||_{X^*} - \varepsilon$ ; then

$$||f||_{X^*} - \varepsilon < f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} ||f_n||_{X^*} ||x|| = \liminf_{n \to \infty} ||f_n||_{X^*},$$

which yields the result since  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary.

(v)  $f_n \rightharpoonup f$  in  $X^*$  means that for every  $F \in X^{**}$  we have

$$F(f_n) \to F(f)$$
.

Given any element  $x \in X$  we can consider the corresponding  $x^{**} \in X^{**}$ . Since  $f_n \rightharpoonup f$  in  $X^*$ , we have

$$f_n(x) = x^{**}(f_n) \to x^{**}f = f(x),$$

and so  $f_n \stackrel{*}{\rightharpoonup} f$ .

(vi) When X is reflexive any  $F \in X^{**}$  is of the form  $x^{**}$  for some  $x \in X$ . So if  $f_n \stackrel{*}{\rightharpoonup} f$  in  $X^*$  we have

$$F(f_n) = x^{**}(f_n) = f_n(x) \to f(x) = x^{**}(f) = F(f),$$

using the weak-\* convergence of  $f_n$  to f to take the limit. So  $f_n \rightharpoonup f$  in  $X^*$ .

**Lemma 27.10** Suppose that  $(f_n)$  is a bounded sequence in  $X^*$ , so that  $||f_n||_{X^*} \leq M$  for some M > 0, and suppose that  $f_n(a)$  converges as  $n \to \infty$  for every  $a \in A$ , where A is a dense subset of X. Then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x)$  exists for every  $x \in X$ , and the map  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by setting

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x)$$
, for each  $x \in X$ 

is an element of  $X^*$  with  $||f||_{X^*} \leq M$ .

*Proof* We first prove that if  $f_n(a)$  converges for every  $a \in A$ , then  $f_n(x)$  converges for every  $x \in X$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $x \in X$ , first choose a such that

$$||x - a||_X \le \varepsilon/3M$$
.

Now, using the fact that  $f_n(a)$  converges as  $n \to \infty$ , choose  $n_0$  sufficiently large that  $|f_n(a) - f_m(a)| < \varepsilon/3$  for all  $n, m \ge n_0$ . Then for all  $n, m \ge n_0$  we have

$$|f_{n}(x) - f_{m}(x)|$$

$$\leq |f_{n}(x) - f_{n}(a)| + |f_{n}(a) - f_{m}(a)| + |f_{m}(a) - f_{m}(x)|$$

$$\leq ||f_{n}||_{X^{*}} ||x - a|| + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + ||f_{m}||_{X^{*}} ||a - x||$$

$$\leq \varepsilon.$$

It follows that  $(f_n(x))$  is Cauchy and hence converges.

We now define  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  by setting

$$f(x) := \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x).$$

Then f is linear since

$$f(x + \lambda y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x + \lambda y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) + \lambda f_n(y) = f(x) + \lambda f(y)$$

and f is bounded since

$$|f(x)| = \lim_{n \to \infty} |f_n(x)| \le M||x||.$$

**Theorem 27.11** Suppose that X is separable. Then any bounded sequence in  $X^*$  has a weakly-\* convergent subsequence.

*Proof* Let  $\{x_k\}$  be a countable dense subset of X, and  $(f_j)$  a sequence in  $X^*$  such that  $||f_j||_{X^*} \le M$ . As in the proof of Theorem 15.3 we will use a diagonal argument to find a subsequence of the  $(f_j)$  (which we relabel) such that  $f_j(x_k)$  converges for every k.

Since  $|f_n(x_1)| \leq M ||x_1||$ , we can use the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem to find a subsequence  $f_{n_{1,i}}$  such that  $f_{n_{1,i}}(x_1)$  converges. Now, since  $|f_{n_{1,i}}(x_2)| \leq M ||x_2||$  we can find a subsequence  $f_{n_{2,i}}$  of  $f_{n_{1,i}}$  such that  $f_{n_{2,i}}(x_2)$  converges;  $f_{n_{2,i}}(x_1)$  will still converge since it is a subsequence of  $f_{n_{1,i}}(x_1)$  which we have already made converge. We continue in this way to find successive subsequences  $f_{n_{m,i}}$  such that

$$f_{n_{m,i}}(x_k)$$
 converges as  $i \to \infty$  for every  $k = 1, \ldots, m$ .

By taking the diagonal subsequence  $f_m^* := f_{n_{m,m}}$  (as in the proof of the Arzelà–Ascoli Theorem) we can ensure that  $f_m^*(x_k)$  converges for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

The proof concludes using Lemma 27.10.

**Theorem 27.12** Let X be a reflexive Banach space. Then any bounded sequence in X has a weakly convergent subsequence.

*Proof* Take a bounded sequence  $(x_n) \in X$  and let

$$Y := \operatorname{clin}\{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}.$$

Then, Y is separable. Since  $Y \subseteq X$  and X is reflexive, so is Y (Lemma 26.10). Therefore  $Y^{**} \equiv Y$ , which implies that  $Y^{**}$  is separable. Lemma 20.5 implies that  $Y^{*}$  is separable.

Now,  $x_n^{**}$  is a bounded sequence in  $Y^{**}$ , so using Theorem 27.11 there is a subsequence  $x_{n_k}$  such that  $x_{n_k}^{**}$  is weakly-\* convergent in  $Y^{**}$  to some limit  $\Phi \in Y^{**}$ . Since Y is reflexive,  $\Phi = x^{**}$  for some  $x \in Y \subseteq X$ .

Now for any  $f \in X^*$  we have  $f_Y := f|_Y \in Y^*$ , so

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} f(x_{n_k}) = \lim_{k \to \infty} f_Y(x_{n_k}) = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k}^{**}(f_Y)$$
$$= x^{**}(f_Y) = f_Y(x) = f(x),$$

i.e. 
$$x_{n_k} \rightharpoonup x$$
.

**Lemma 27.13** Let X be a reflexive Banach space, and  $T: X \to X$  a compact linear operator. Suppose that  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in X such that there exist  $c_1, c_2$  with  $0 < c_1 \le c_2$  so that  $c_1 \le ||x_n|| \le c_2$  and

$$||Tx_n - x_n|| \to 0$$
 (27.9)

as  $n \to \infty$ . Then there exists a non-zero  $x \in X$  such that Tx = x.

*Proof* Since  $(x_n)$  is a bounded sequence in a reflexive Banach space, by Theorem 27.12 it has a weakly convergent subsequence,  $x_{n_j} \rightarrow x$ . Since T is compact, it follows from Lemma 27.4 that  $Tx_{n_j} \rightarrow Tx$  strongly in X. Since

$$\lim_{j\to\infty}Tx_{n_j}-x_{n_j}=0,$$

it follows that  $x_{n_j} \to Tx$ . Since strong convergence implies weak convergence, we have  $x_{n_j} \to Tx$ , and since weak limits are unique and we already have  $x_{n_j} \to x$  it follows that x = Tx.

To ensure that  $x \neq 0$ , note that since  $Tx_{n_j}$  converges strongly to Tx = x, it follows from (27.9) that  $x_{n_j}$  also converges strongly to x, and so  $||x|| \geq c_1$ .  $\square$ 

**Lemma 27.14** Suppose that X is reflexive and that K is closed convex subset of X. Then for any  $x \in X \setminus K$  there exists at least one  $k \in K$  such that

$$||x - k|| = \text{dist}(x, K) = \inf_{y \in K} ||x - y||.$$

*Proof* Let  $(y_n)$  be a sequence in K such that  $||x - y_n|| \to \operatorname{dist}(x, K)$ . Then  $(y_n)$  is a bounded sequence in X, so has a subsequence  $y_{n_k}$  that converges weakly to some  $k \in X$ . Since K is closed and convex, it is also weakly closed (Theorem 27.7), and so  $k \in K$ . Since  $y_{n_k} \to k$ ,  $x - y_{n_k} \to x - k$ , and so we have

$$||x - k|| \le \liminf_{k \to \infty} ||x - y_{n_k}|| = \operatorname{dist}(x, K)$$

using (27.1). Since  $||x - k|| \ge \operatorname{dist}(x, K)$ , we have  $||x - k|| = \operatorname{dist}(x, K)$  as required.

Banach space X possesses the Banach–Saks property if every norm bounded sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in X contains a subsequence  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  such that the sequence of arithmetic means

$$\frac{x_{n_1} + \dots + x_{n_k}}{k}$$

converges in norm.

## **Example.** Hilbert spaces possess the Banach–Saks property.

PROOF. Passing to a subsequence we can assume that  $\{x_n\}$  converges weakly to some vector x. In addition, we can assume that x=0. Set  $n_1=1$ . Since  $(x_{n_1},x_n)\to 0$ , there exists a number  $n_2>n_1$  with  $|(x_{n_1},x_{n_2})|\leqslant 1$ . If numbers  $n_1< n_2< \cdots < n_k$  are already chosen, we find a number  $n_{k+1}>n_k$  such that

$$|(x_{n_j}, x_{n_{k+1}})| \le k^{-1}, \quad j = 1, \dots, k.$$

This is obviously possible by weak convergence of  $\{x_n\}$  to zero. We observe that  $\sup_n ||x_n|| = M < \infty$ . Hence

$$\frac{\|x_{n_1} + \dots + x_{n_k}\|^2}{k^2} \leqslant \frac{kM^2 + 2 \cdot 1 + \dots + 2(k-1)(k-1)^{-1}}{k^2} \leqslant \frac{M^2 + 2}{k},$$

which shows norm convergence of the arithmetic means.

Theorem. All uniformly convex Banach spaces possess the Banach–Saks property. Any space with the Banach–Saks property is reflexive.

**Theorem.** (The Fredholm Alternative) Let K be a compact operator on a complex or real Banach space X. Then

$$Ker(K-I) = 0 \iff (K-I)(X) = X,$$

i.e., either the equation

$$Kx - x = y$$

is uniquely solvable for all  $y \in X$  or for some vector  $y \in X$  it has no solutions and then the homogeneous equation

$$Kx - x = 0$$

has nonzero solutions.

PROOF. If  $\operatorname{Ker}(K-I)=0$ , then we have  $1\not\in\sigma(K)$ . Hence (K-I)(X)=X. Conversely, suppose that

$$(K-I)(X) = X$$
, but  $Ker(K-I) \neq 0$ .

As we know, the operator  $K^*$  on  $X^*$  is also compact We observe that  ${\rm Ker}\,(K^*-I)=0.$  Indeed, if  $f\in X^*$  and  $(K^*-I)f=0$ , then

$$f((K-I)x) = (K^* - I)f(x) = 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in X.$$

Since (K-I)(X)=X, we have f=0. It follows that the operator  $K^*-I$  is invertible. We now take a nonzero element  $a\in \mathrm{Ker}(K-I)$ . By the Hahn–Banach theorem there is a functional  $f\in X^*$  with f(a)=1. Let  $g=(K^*-I)^{-1}f$ . Then  $(K^*-I)g(a)=f(a)=1$ . On the other hand,  $(K^*-I)g(a)=g((K-I)a)=0$ , which is a contradiction.