# Mathematics

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# Chapter 1

# Sets and Classes

## 1.1 Classes

Our language is the language of first-order logic with equality over one primitive binary predicate  $\in$ . We call all the objects we reason about *sets*. When  $a \in b$ , we say a is a *member* or *element* of b, or b contains a. We write  $b \ni a$  for  $a \in b$ , and  $a \notin b$  for  $\neg(a \in b)$ . We write  $\forall x \in a.\phi$  as an abbreviation for  $\forall x(x \in a \to \phi)$ , and  $\exists x \in a.\phi$  as an abbreviation for  $\exists x(x \in a \land \phi)$ .

We shall speak informally of *classes* as an abbreviation for talking about predicates. A *class* is determined by a unary predicate  $\phi[x]$  (possibly with parameters). We write  $\{x \mid \phi[x]\}$  or  $\{x : \phi[x]\}$  for the class determined by  $\phi[x]$ . We write 'a is an element of  $\{x \mid \phi[x]\}$ ' or ' $a \in \{x \mid \phi[x]\}$ ' for  $\phi[a]$ .

We say two classes **A** and **B** are *equal*, and write  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$ , iff  $\forall x (x \in \mathbf{A} \leftrightarrow x \in \mathbf{B})$ .

The following are all valid formulas of first-order logic:

**Proposition Schema 1.1.1.** For any classes A, B and C, the following are theorems:

- 1.  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$
- 2. If  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$  then  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}$ .
- 3. If  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}$  then  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{C}$ .

**Definition 1.1.2** (Subclass). We say a class **A** is a *subclass* of **B**, or **B** is a *superclass* of **A**, or **B** *includes* **A**, and write  $\mathbf{A} \subseteq \mathbf{B}$  or  $\mathbf{B} \supseteq \mathbf{A}$ , iff every element of **A** is an element of **B**. Otherwise we write  $\mathbf{A} \nsubseteq \mathbf{B}$  or  $\mathbf{B} \nsupseteq \mathbf{A}$ .

We say **A** is a *proper* subclass of **B**, **B** is a *proper* superclass of **A**, or **B** properly includes **A**, and write  $\mathbf{A} \subsetneq \mathbf{B}$  or  $\mathbf{B} \supsetneq \mathbf{A}$ , iff in addition  $\mathbf{A} \ne \mathbf{B}$ .

The following are all valid formulas of first-order logic:

**Proposition Schema 1.1.3.** For any classes A, B and C, the following are theorems:

- 1.  $\mathbf{A} \subseteq \mathbf{A}$
- 2. If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$  then A = B.
- 3. If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq C$  then  $A \subseteq C$ .

**Definition 1.1.4** (Empty Class). The *empty class*  $\emptyset$  is  $\{x \mid \bot\}$ .

**Proposition 1.1.5.** For any class **A**, we have  $\emptyset \subseteq \mathbf{A}$ .

PROOF: Vacuously, every element of  $\emptyset$  is an element of **A**.  $\square$ 

**Definition 1.1.6** (Universal Class). The universal class V is  $\{x \mid \top\}$ .

**Proposition 1.1.7.** For any class A, we have  $A \subseteq V$ .

PROOF: Trivially, every element of **A** is an element of **V**.

**Definition 1.1.8** (Union). The *union* of two classes **A** and **B** is the class  $\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B} = \{x \mid x \in \mathbf{A} \lor x \in \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

Proposition 1.1.9. For any classes A, B, C, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{B} \cup \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{A} \cup (\mathbf{B} \cup \mathbf{C}) &= (\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) \cup \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{A} \cup \emptyset &= \mathbf{A} \end{aligned}$$

Proof: These are valid formulas of first-order logic.  $\square$ 

**Definition 1.1.10** (Intersection). The *intersection* of two classes **A** and **B** is the class  $\{x \mid x \in \mathbf{A} \land x \in \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

Proposition 1.1.11. For any classes A, B, C, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{B} \cap \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{A} \cap (\mathbf{B} \cap \mathbf{C}) &= (\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) \cap \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{A} \cap \emptyset &= \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

PROOF: These are valid formulas of first-order logic.  $\Box$ 

Proposition 1.1.12 (Distributive Laws). For any classes A, B, C, we have

$$\mathbf{A} \cup (\mathbf{B} \cap \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) \cap (\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{C})$$
$$\mathbf{A} \cap (\mathbf{B} \cup \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) \cup (\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{C})$$

PROOF: These are valid formulas of first-order logic.  $\square$ 

**Definition 1.1.13** (Union). The *union* of a class **A** is  $\{x \mid \exists X \in \mathbf{A}.x \in X\}$ . We write  $\bigcup_{P(x)} t(x)$  for  $\bigcup \{t(x) \mid P(x)\}$ .

**Proposition 1.1.14.** For any classes A and B, if  $A \subseteq B$  then  $\bigcup A \subseteq \bigcup B$ .

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Proof: First-order logic.

**Definition 1.1.15** (Intersection). The *intersection* of a class **A** is  $\{x \mid \forall X \in \mathbf{A}.x \in X\}$ . We write  $\bigcap_{P(x)} t(x)$  for  $\bigcap \{t(x) \mid P(x)\}$ .

**Definition 1.1.16** (Relative Complement). Let **A** and **B** be classes. The *relative complement* of **B** in **A** is the class  $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \{x \in \mathbf{A} \mid x \notin \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

Proposition 1.1.17 (De Morgan's Laws). For any classes A, B, C, we have

$$\mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{B} \cup \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}) \cap (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{C})$$
$$\mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{B} \cap \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}) \cup (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{C})$$

Proof: First-order logic.  $\square$ 

Proposition 1.1.18. If  $A \subseteq B$  then  $C - B \subseteq C - A$ .

Proof: First-order logic.  $\square$ 

**Definition 1.1.19** (Symmetric Difference). The *symmetric difference* of classes **A** and **B** is the class  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} := (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}) \cup (\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A})$ .

Proposition 1.1.20. For any classes A, B, C, we have

$$\mathbf{A} \cap (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) + (\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{C})$$
$$\mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C}$$

Proof: First-order logic.

## 1.2 Axioms

**Axiom 1.2.1** (Extensionality). If two sets have exactly the same members, they are equal.

Thanks to this axiom, we may identify a set a with the class  $\{x \mid x \in a\}$ . Our use of the symbols  $\in$  and = is consistent. We say a class  $\mathbf{A}$  is a set iff there exists a set a such that  $a = \mathbf{A}$ ; that is,  $\{x \mid \phi[x]\}$  is a set iff  $\exists a \forall x (x \in a \leftrightarrow \phi[x])$ . Otherwise,  $\mathbf{A}$  is a proper class.

Axiom 1.2.2 (Union). The union of a set is a set.

**Axiom 1.2.3** (Power Set). For any set A, the class  $PA = \{x \mid x \subseteq A\}$  is a set, called the power set of A.

**Axiom 1.2.4** (Infinity). There exists a set I such that:

- There exists an element of I that has no members
- For every  $x \in I$ , there exists a set  $y \in I$  such that the elements of y are exactly x and the members of x.

**Axiom 1.2.5** (Choice). For any set A of pairwise disjoint, nonempty sets, there exists a set C such that, for all  $x \in A$ ,  $x \cap C$  has exactly one element.

**Axiom Schema 1.2.6** (Replacement). For any predicate P(x, y), the following is an axiom:

Let A be a set. Assume that, for all  $x \in A$ , there exists at most one y such that P(x,y). Then  $\{y \mid \exists x \in A.P(x,y)\}$  is a set.

**Axiom 1.2.7** (Regularity). For any nonempty set A, there exists  $m \in A$  such that  $m \cap A = \emptyset$ .

## 1.3 Basic Constructions on Sets

## 1.3.1 Consequences of the Axioms

**Proposition 1.3.1.** The class  $\emptyset = \{x \mid \bot\}$  is a set.

PROOF: Immediate from the Axiom of Infinity.

**Proposition 1.3.2** (Pairing). For any sets a and b, the class  $\{a,b\} = \{x \mid x = a \lor x = b\}$  is a set.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $x \in \mathcal{PP}\emptyset$ , there exists at most one y such that P(x,y).  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \mathcal{PP}\emptyset$   $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: y and y' be sets.

(1)1. Let: P(x,y) be the predicate  $(x = \emptyset \land y = a) \lor (x = \mathcal{P}\emptyset \land y = b)$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. Let: y and y be sets.  $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Assume: P(x,y) and P(x,y')
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ (x = \emptyset \land y = a) \lor (x = \mathcal{P} \emptyset \land y = b)$

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ (x = \emptyset \land y' = a) \lor (x = \mathcal{P}\emptyset \land y' = b)$ 

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \emptyset \neq \mathcal{P} \emptyset$ 

PROOF: Since  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{P}\emptyset$  and  $\emptyset \notin \emptyset$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y = y'$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: A be the set  $\{ y \mid \exists x \in \mathcal{PP}\emptyset.P(x,y) \}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ A = \{a, b\}$

**Proposition 1.3.3.** The union of two sets is a set.

PROOF: The union of two sets A and B is  $\bigcup \{A, B\}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition Schema 1.3.4.** For any sets  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , the class  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\} = \{x \mid x = a_1 \lor \cdots \lor x = a_n\}$  is a set.

PROOF: The case n=1 follows from Pairing since  $\{a\}=\{a,a\}$ . If we have proved the theorem for n we have  $\{a_1,\ldots,a_n,a_{n+1}\}=\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\}\cup\{a_{n+1}\}$ .  $\square$ 

## 1.3.2 Comprehension

**Proposition Schema 1.3.5** (Comprehension). For any predicate P(x), the following is a theorem:

For any set A, the class  $\{x \in A \mid P(x)\}\$  is a set.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A be a set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: Q(x,y) be the predicate  $P(x) \wedge y = x$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $x \in A$ , there exists at most one y such that Q(x,y).
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: y and y' be sets.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: Q(x,y) and Q(x,y')
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in A \land P(x) \land y = x \land y' = x$

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y = y'$ 

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let: B be the set  $\{ y \mid \exists x \in A.Q(x,y) \}$ 

PROOF: This is a set by an Axiom of Replacement and  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ B = \{ y \in A \mid P(y) \}$ 

Proof:

$$y \in B \Leftrightarrow \exists x \in A.Q(x,y) \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 4)$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow \exists x \in A(P(x) \land y = x) \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 2)$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow P(y)$$

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**Corollary 1.3.5.1.** The intersection of a set and a class is a set.

Corollary 1.3.5.2. The intersection of a nonempty class is a set.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: **A** be a nonempty class.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick $A \in \mathbf{A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \cap \mathbf{A} = \{ x \in A \mid \forall X \in \mathbf{A}. x \in X \}$  which is a set.

Corollary 1.3.5.3. The relative complement of a class in a set is a set.

Corollary 1.3.5.4 (Russell's Paradox). V is a proper class.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathbf{R} = \{ x \mid x \notin x \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . **R** is a proper class.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction **R** is a set
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbf{R}$  iff  $\mathbf{R} \notin \mathbf{R}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . This is a contradiction.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . **V** is a proper class.

PROOF: From Comprehension and  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .

**Definition 1.3.6.** For any sets A and B, the relative complement A-B is the set  $\{x \in A \mid x \notin B\}$ .

Proposition 1.3.7 (Distributive Laws). For any set A and class B, we have

$$A \cup \bigcap \mathbf{B} = \bigcap \{A \cup X \mid X \in \mathbf{B}\}$$
$$A \cap \bigcup \mathbf{B} = \bigcup \{A \cap X \mid X \in \mathbf{B}\}$$

Proof: First-order logic.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 1.3.8** (De Morgan's Laws). For any set C and class A, we have

$$C - \bigcap \mathbf{A} = \bigcup \{C - X \mid X \in \mathbf{A}\}\$$
$$C - \bigcup \mathbf{A} = \bigcap \{C - X \mid X \in \mathbf{A}\}\$$

Proof: First-order logic.  $\square$ 

**Definition 1.3.9** (Transitive Set). A set A is a *transitive set* iff whenever  $x \in y \in A$  then  $x \in A$ .

# Chapter 2

# Relations

## 2.1 Ordered Pairs

**Definition 2.1.1** (Ordered Pair). For any sets a and b, the *ordered pair* (a, b) is defined to be  $\{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}.$ 

**Theorem 2.1.2.** For any sets a, b, c, d, we have (a,b) = (c,d) if and only if a = c and b = d.

#### Proof:

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\langle 1 \rangle 1. If (a, b) = (c, d) then a = c and b = d.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\} = \{\{c\}, \{c, d\}\}
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \cap \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\} = \bigcap \{\{c\}, \{c, d\}\}\
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \{a\} = \{c\}
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. a = c
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \bigcup \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\} = \bigcup \{\{c\}, \{c, d\}\}\
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \{a,b\} = \{c,d\}
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. b = c or b = d
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. a = d or b = d
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. If b = c and a = d then b = d
        Proof: By \langle 2 \rangle 4.
    \langle 2 \rangle 10. b=d
        PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 7, \langle 2 \rangle 8, \langle 2 \rangle 9.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If a = c and b = d then (a, b) = (c, d).
    PROOF: First-order logic.
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**Definition 2.1.3** (Cartesian Product). The *Cartesian product* of classes **A** and **B** is the class  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} := \{(x,y) \mid x \in \mathbf{A}, y \in \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

**Proposition 2.1.4.** If A and B are sets then  $A \times B$  is a set.

PROOF: It is a subset of  $\mathcal{PP}(A \cup B)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.1.5.** For any classes A, B and C, we have  $A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$ .

Proof:

$$(x,y) \in \mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \cup \mathbf{C}) \Leftrightarrow x \in \mathbf{A} \wedge (y \in \mathbf{B} \vee y \in \mathbf{C})$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (x \in \mathbf{A} \wedge y \in \mathbf{B}) \vee (x \in \mathbf{A} \wedge y \in \mathbf{C})$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (x,y) \in (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \cup (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C})$$

**Proposition 2.1.6.** If  $A \times B = A \times C$  and A is nonempty then B = C.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Pick $a \in \mathbf{A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all x we have  $x \in \mathbf{B}$  iff  $x \in \mathbf{C}$ .

Proof:

$$x \in \mathbf{B} \Leftrightarrow (a, x) \in \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow (a, x) \in \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in \mathbf{C}$ 

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**Proposition 2.1.7.** For any set A and class **B**, we have  $A \times \bigcup \mathbf{B} = \bigcup \{A \times X \mid X \in \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

Proof:

$$(x,y) \in A \times \bigcup \mathbf{B} \Leftrightarrow x \in A \land \exists Y \in \mathbf{B}.y \in Y$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \exists Y \in \mathbf{B}(x \in A \land y \in Y)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (x,y) \in \bigcup \{A \times X \mid X \in \mathbf{B}\}$$

## 2.2 Relations

**Definition 2.2.1** (Relation). A relation is a class of ordered pairs.

**Definition 2.2.2** (Domain). The *domain* of a class  $\mathbf{R}$  is the class

$$\operatorname{dom} \mathbf{R} := \{ x \mid \exists y . (x, y) \in \mathbf{R} \} .$$

**Definition 2.2.3** (Range). The range of a class **R** is the class

$$\operatorname{ran} \mathbf{R} := \{ x \mid \exists y . (y, x) \in \mathbf{R} \} .$$

**Definition 2.2.4** (Field). The *field* of a class  $\mathbf{R}$  is the class

$$\operatorname{fld} \mathbf{R} := \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{R} \cup \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{R} .$$

**Proposition 2.2.5.** For any set R, the classes dom R, ran R, fld R are sets.

PROOF: They are all subsets of  $\bigcup \bigcup R$ .

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**Definition 2.2.6** (Single-Rooted). A class **R** is *single-rooted* iff, for all  $y \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{R}$ , there is exactly one x such that  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{R}$ .

**Definition 2.2.7** (Inverse). The *inverse* of a class **F** is the class

$$\mathbf{F}^{-1} := \{(x, y) \mid (y, x) \in \mathbf{F}\}$$
.

**Proposition 2.2.8.** For any class  $\mathbf{F}$ , we have dom  $\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}$ 

Proof:

$$y \in \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \exists x. (y, x) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists x. (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow y \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}$ 

**Proposition 2.2.9.** For any class  $\mathbf{F}$ , we have ran  $\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}$ .

Proof:

$$y \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \exists x. (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists x. (y, x) \in \mathbf{F}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow y \in \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}$ 

**Proposition 2.2.10.** For any relation  $\mathbf{F}$ , we have  $(\mathbf{F}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{F}$ .

Proof:

$$(x,y) \in (\mathbf{F}^{-1})^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (y,x) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$
  
  $\Leftrightarrow (x,y) \in \mathbf{F}$ 

**Definition 2.2.11** (Composition). The composition of classes  ${\bf F}$  and  ${\bf G}$  is the class

$$\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G} := \{(x, z) \mid \exists y.(x, y) \in \mathbf{G} \land (y, z) \in \mathbf{F}\}$$
.

Proposition 2.2.12. For any classes F and G,

$$(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})^{-1} = \mathbf{G}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{F}^{-1} .$$

Proof:

$$(z,x) \in (\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (x,z) \in \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists y.(x,y) \in \mathbf{G} \wedge (y,z) \in \mathbf{F}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists y.(y,x) \in \mathbf{G}^{-1} \wedge (z,y) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (z,x) \in \mathbf{G}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$

**Definition 2.2.13** (Restriction). The *restriction* of the class **F** to the class **A** is the class  $\mathbf{F} \upharpoonright \mathbf{A} := \{(x,y) \mid x \in \mathbf{A}, (x,y) \in \mathbf{F}\}.$ 

**Definition 2.2.14** (Image). The *image* of the class **A** under the class **F** is the set  $F(A) := \operatorname{ran}(F \upharpoonright A) = \{y \mid \exists x \in \mathbf{A}.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}\}.$ 

Proposition 2.2.15. For any classes F, A and B, we have

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \cup \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B}) \ .$$

Proof:

$$y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \in \mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists x \in \mathbf{A}.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F} \lor \exists x \in \mathbf{B}.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \cup \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$ 

**Proposition 2.2.16.** For any classes  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{A}$  we have  $\mathbf{F}(\bigcup \mathbf{A}) = \bigcup \{\mathbf{F}(X) \mid X \in \mathbf{A}\}.$ 

Proof:

$$y \in \mathbf{F}(\bigcup \mathbf{A}) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \in \bigcup \mathbf{A}.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists x.\exists X.X \in \mathbf{A} \land x \in X \land (x,y) \in \mathbf{F}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists X \in \mathbf{F}.y \in \mathbf{F}(X)$ 

**Proposition 2.2.17.** For any classes  $\mathbf{F}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , we have  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \cap \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$ . Equality holds if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \cap \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B})$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $x \in \mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}$  such that  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A})$

PROOF: Since  $x \in \mathbf{A}$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$ 

PROOF: Since  $x \in \mathbf{B}$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If **F** is single-rooted then  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \cap \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: **F** is single-rooted.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \cap \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $x \in \mathbf{A}$  such that  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $x' \in \mathbf{B}$  such that  $(x', y) \in \mathbf{F}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x = x'$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in \mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B})$

Proposition 2.2.18. For any classes F and A we have

$$\mathbf{F}\left(\bigcap \mathbf{A}\right) \subseteq \bigcap \{\mathbf{F}(X) \mid X \in \mathbf{A}\}$$
.

Equality holds if **F** is single-rooted and **A** is nonempty.

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \mathbf{F} (\bigcap \mathbf{A}) \subseteq \bigcap \{ \mathbf{F}(X) \mid X \in \mathbf{A} \}$$

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\langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: y \in \mathbf{F}(\bigcap \mathbf{A})
     \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK x \in \bigcap \mathbf{A} such that (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: X \in \mathbf{A}
                Prove: y \in \mathbf{F}(X)
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in X
     \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(X)
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If F is single-rooted then \mathbf{F} (\bigcap \mathbf{A}) = \bigcap \{ \mathbf{F}(X) \mid X \in \mathbf{A} \}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: F is single-rooted.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: A is nonempty.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: y \in \bigcap \{ \mathbf{F}(X) \mid X \in \mathbf{A} \}
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick X_0 \in \mathbf{A}
    \langle 2 \rangle5. Pick x \in X_0 such that (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in \bigcap \mathbf{A}
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: X \in \mathbf{A}
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK x' \in X such that (x', y) \in \mathbf{F}.
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x = x'
              Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1
          \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x \in X
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(\bigcap \mathbf{A})
```

Proposition 2.2.19. For any classes F, A and B, we have

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})$$
 .

Equality holds if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})
     \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick x \in \mathbf{A} such that (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}
     \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x \notin \mathbf{B}
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}
     \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If F is single-rooted then \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: F is single-rooted.
     \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})
     \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick x \in \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} such that (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A})
     \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \notin \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})
          \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})
          \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick x' \in \mathbf{B} such that (x', y) \in \mathbf{F}
          \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x = x'
               Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1
          \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x \in \mathbf{B}
          \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
               PROOF: This contradicts \langle 2 \rangle 3.
```

П

**Definition 2.2.20** (Reflexive). Let **R** be a binary relation on **A**. Then **R** is *reflexive* on **A** iff  $\forall x \in \mathbf{A}.(x,x) \in \mathbf{R}$ .

**Definition 2.2.21** (Irreflexive). A relation **R** is *irreflexive* iff there is no x such that  $(x, x) \in \mathbf{R}$ .

**Definition 2.2.22** (Symmetric). A relation **R** is *symmetric* iff, whenever  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{R}$ , then  $(y, x) \in \mathbf{R}$ .

**Definition 2.2.23** (Transitive). A relation **R** is *transitive* iff, whenever  $(x, y), (y, z) \in \mathbf{R}$ , then  $(x, z) \in \mathbf{R}$ .

**Proposition 2.2.24.** If R is transitive then  $R^{-1}$  is transitive.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $(x,y), (y,z) \in \mathbf{R}^{-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ (y, x), (z, y) \in \mathbf{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ (z, x) \in \mathbf{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ (x,z) \in \mathbf{R}^{-1}$

## 2.3 *n*-ary Relations

**Definition Schema 2.3.1.** For any sets  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , define the *ordered n-tuple*  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  by

$$(a_1) := a_1$$
  
 $(a_1, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}) = ((a_1, \dots, a_n), a_{n+1})$ 

**Definition Schema 2.3.2.** An n-ary relation on A is a class of ordered n-tuples all of whose components are in A.

# 2.4 Equivalence Relations

**Definition 2.4.1** (Equivalence Relation). An *equivalence relation* on a class **A** is a relation on **A** that is reflexive on **A**, symmetric and transitive.

**Proposition 2.4.2.** If  $\mathbf{R}$  is a symmetric and transitive relation, then  $\mathbf{R}$  is an equivalence relation on fld  $\mathbf{R}$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \operatorname{fld} \mathbf{R}$ 

PROVE:  $(x, x) \in \mathbf{R}$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK y such that either  $(x,y) \in \mathbf{R}$  or  $(y,x) \in \mathbf{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ (x,y) \in \mathbf{R} \text{ and } (y,x) \in \mathbf{R}$

PROOF: Symmetry.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ (x,x) \in \mathbf{R}
    PROOF: Transitivity.
```

**Definition 2.4.3** (Equivalence Class). Let **R** be an equivalence relation on **A** and  $a \in \mathbf{A}$ . The equivalence class of a modulo  $\mathbf{R}$  is

$$[a]_{\mathbf{R}} := \{x \mid (a, x) \in \mathbf{R}\} .$$

**Proposition 2.4.4.** Let **R** be an equivalence relation on **A** and  $a, b \in \mathbf{A}$ . Then  $[a]_{\mathbf{R}} = [b]_{\mathbf{R}}$  if and only if  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{R}$ .

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If [a]_{\mathbf{R}} = [b]_{\mathbf{R}} then (a, b) \in \mathbf{R}.
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: [a]_{\mathbf{R}} = [b]_{\mathbf{R}}
     \langle 2 \rangle 2. (b,b) \in \mathbf{R}
           PROOF: Reflexivity
      \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ b \in [b]_{\mathbf{R}}
      \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ b \in [a]_{\mathbf{R}}
     \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ (a,b) \in \mathbf{R}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If (a,b) \in \mathbf{R} then [a]_{\mathbf{R}} = [b]_{\mathbf{R}}.
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. For all x, y \in \mathbf{A}, if (x, y) \in \mathbf{R} then [y]_{\mathbf{R}} \subseteq [x]_{\mathbf{R}}
           \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in \mathbf{A}
           \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: (x,y) \in \mathbf{R}
           \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: t \in [y]_{\mathbf{R}}
           \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ (y,t) \in \mathbf{R}
                Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 3
           \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ (x,t) \in \mathbf{R}
                PROOF: Transitivity, \langle 3 \rangle 2, \langle 3 \rangle 4.
           \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ t \in [x]_{\mathbf{R}}
                Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 5
      \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: (a,b) \in \mathbf{R}
      \langle 2 \rangle 3. [b]_{\mathbf{R}} \subseteq [a]_{\mathbf{R}}
           Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 2.
      \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ (b,a) \in \mathbf{R}
           Proof: Symmetry, \langle 2 \rangle 2.
      \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ [a]_{\mathbf{R}} \subseteq [b]_{\mathbf{R}}
           Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 4.
     \langle 2 \rangle 6. [a]_{\mathbf{R}} = [b]_{\mathbf{R}}
           Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 5.
```

**Definition 2.4.5** (Partition). A partition  $\Pi$  of a set A is a set of nonempty subsets of A that is disjoint and exhaustive, i.e.

- 1. no two different sets in  $\Pi$  have any common elements, and
- 2. each element of A is in some set in  $\Pi$ .

**Definition 2.4.6.** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The *quotient* set A/R is the set of all equivalence classes.

**Proposition 2.4.7.** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. Then A/R is a partition of A.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every member of A/R is nonempty.
```

PROOF: Since  $a \in [a]_R$  by reflexivity.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . No two different sets in A/R have any common elements.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $[a]_R, [b]_R \in A/R$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $c \in [a]_R \cap [b]_R$ Prove:  $[a]_R = [b]_R$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (a,c) \in R$

PROOF:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ (b,c) \in R$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ (c,b) \in R$ 

Proof: Symmetry,  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ (a,b) \in R$ 

Proof: Transitivity,  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ .  $[a]_R = [b]_R$ 

PROOF: Proposition 2.4.4,  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Each element of A is in some set in A/R.

PROOF: Since  $a \in [a]_R$  by reflexivity.

П

# 2.5 Ordering Relations

**Definition 2.5.1** (Linear Ordering). Let **A** be a class. A *linear ordering* or *total ordering* on **A** is a relation **R** on **A** such that:

- 1. **R** is transitive.
- 2. Trichotomy. For all  $x, y \in \mathbf{A}$ , exactly one of the following holds:

$$(x,y) \in \mathbf{R}, \qquad (y,x) \in \mathbf{R}, \qquad x = y.$$

We often use the symbol < for a linear ordering, and then write x < y for  $(x,y) \in <$ .

**Theorem 2.5.2.** Any linear ordering on a class is irreflexive.

PROOF: Immediate from trichotomy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.5.3.** If  $\mathbf{R}$  is a linear ordering on  $\mathbf{A}$  then  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}$  is also a linear ordering on  $\mathbf{A}$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}$  is transitive.

Proof: Proposition 2.2.24.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}$  satisfies trichotomy.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in \mathbf{A}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Exactly one of  $(x,y) \in \mathbf{R}, (y,x) \in \mathbf{R}, x = y$  holds.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Exactly one of  $(y,x) \in \mathbf{R}^{-1}, (x,y) \in \mathbf{R}^{-1}, x=y$  holds.

**Definition 2.5.4** (Lexicographic Ordering). Let A and B be linearly ordered sets. The *lexicographic ordering* < on  $A \times B$  is defined by:

$$(a,b) < (a',b') \Leftrightarrow a < a' \lor (a = a' \land b < b')$$
.

**Proposition 2.5.5.** Let A and B be linearly ordered sets. Then the lexicographic ordering on  $A \times B$  is a linear ordering.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . < is transitive.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(a_1, b_1) < (a_2, b_2) < (a_3, b_3)$

PROVE:  $(a_1, b_1) < (a_3, b_3)$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Case:  $a_1 < a_2$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ .  $a_2 < a_3$  or  $a_2 = a_3$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $a_1 < a_3$ 

**PROOF:** Transitivity

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ (a_1, b_1) < (a_3, b_3)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Case:  $a_1 = a_2$  and  $b_1 < b_2$  and  $a_2 < a_3$

PROOF: We have  $a_1 < a_3$  so  $(a_1, b_1) < (a_3, b_3)$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $a_1=a_2$  and  $b_1 < b_2$  and  $a_2=a_3$  and  $b_2 < b_3$ 

PROOF: We have  $a_1 = a_3$  and  $b_1 < b_3$  so  $(a_1, b_1) < (a_3, b_3)$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . < satisfies trichotomy.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in A \times B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Exactly one of  $a_1 < a_2$ ,  $a_1 = a_2$ ,  $a_2 < a_1$  holds.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Case:  $a_1 < a_2$

PROOF: We have  $(a_1, b_1) < (a_2, b_2), (a_1, b_1) \neq (a_2, b_2), \text{ and } (a_2, b_2) \not < (a_1, b_1).$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $a_1 = a_2$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Exactly one of  $b_1 < b_2$ ,  $b_1 = b_2$ ,  $b_2 < b_1$  holds.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Exactly one of  $(a_1, b_1) < (a_2, b_2), (a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2), (a_2, b_2) < (a_1, b_1)$  holds.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Case:  $a_2 < a_1$

PROOF: We have  $(a_2, b_2) < (a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \neq (a_1, b_1), \text{ and } (a_1, b_1) \not < (a_2, b_2).$ 

# Chapter 3

# **Functions**

## 3.1 Functions

**Definition 3.1.1** (Function). A function is a relation **F** such that, for all  $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ , there is only one y such that  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}$ . We denote this y by  $\mathbf{F}(x)$ .

We say that **F** is a function from **A** into **B**, or that **F** maps **A** into **B**, and write  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{B}$ , iff **F** is a function, dom  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{A}$  and ran  $\mathbf{F} \subseteq \mathbf{B}$ .

**Proposition 3.1.2.** For any class  $\mathbf{F}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is a function if and only if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 3.1.3.** For any relation  $\mathbf{F}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}$  is a function if and only if  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is single-rooted.

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 3.1.4.** Let F and G be functions. Then  $F \circ G$  is a function, its domain is

$$\{x \in \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{G} \mid \mathbf{G}(x) \in \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}\}\$$
,

and for x in this domain,  $(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(x))$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . **F**  $\circ$  **G** is a function.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(x,z), (x,z') \in \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK y, y' such that  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{G}, (y, z) \in \mathbf{F}, (x, y') \in \mathbf{G}, (y', z') \in \mathbf{F}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y = y'$

PROOF: G is a function.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ z = z'$ 

PROOF:  $\mathbf{F}$  is a function.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . dom( $\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}$ ) = { $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{G} \mid \mathbf{G}(x) \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ }

 $(\langle 1 \rangle 5)$ 

Proof:

```
x \in \text{dom}(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}) \Leftrightarrow \exists z.(x,z) \in \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}
                                                                                      \Leftrightarrow \exists y, z((x,y) \in \mathbf{G} \land (y,z) \in \mathbf{F})
                                                                                      \Leftrightarrow \exists y ((x,y) \in \mathbf{G} \land y \in \mathrm{dom}\,\mathbf{F})
                                                                                      \Leftrightarrow x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{G} \wedge \mathbf{G}(y) \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall x \in \text{dom}(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}).(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(x))
     Proof:
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in \text{dom}(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})
     \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ (x, (\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x)) \in \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}
     \langle 2 \rangle 3. PICK y such that (x,y) \in \mathbf{G} and (y,(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x)) \in \mathbf{F}
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y = \mathbf{G}(x)
     \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(x)) = (\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x)
```

**Proposition 3.1.5.** For any set A there exists a function  $F: \mathcal{P}A - \{\emptyset\} \to A$  (a choice function for A) such that, for every nonempty  $B \subseteq A$ , we have  $F(B) \in B$ .

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: A be a set.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{A} = \{ \{B\} \times B \mid B \in \mathcal{P}A - \{\emptyset\} \}
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Every member of \mathcal{A} is nonempty.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Any two distinct members of \mathcal{A} are disjoint.
\langle 1 \rangle5. PICK a set C such that, for all X \in \mathcal{A}, we have C \cap X is a singleton.
   Proof: Axiom of Choice.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Let: F = C \cap \bigcup \mathcal{A}
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ F : \mathcal{P}A - \{\emptyset\} \to A
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. F is a function.
        (3)1. Let: (B, b), (B, b') \in F
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (B, b), (B, b') \in \{B\} \times B
            PROOF: Since (B, b), (B, b') \in \bigcup A.
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ (B, b), (B, b') \in C \cap (\{B\} \times B)
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ (B,b) = (B,b')
            PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 5.
        \langle 3 \rangle 5. b = b'
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. dom F = \mathcal{P}A - \{\emptyset\}
       Proof:
        B \in \operatorname{dom} F \Leftrightarrow \exists b.(B,b) \in F
                            \Leftrightarrow \exists b.((B,b) \in \bigcup A \land (B,b) \in C)
                            \Leftrightarrow \exists b. \exists B' \in \mathcal{P}A - \{\emptyset\}. ((B,b) \in \{B'\} \times B' \land (B,b) \in C)
```

 $\Leftrightarrow B \in \mathcal{P}A - \{\emptyset\} \land \exists b \in B.(B,b) \in C$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . ran  $F \subseteq A$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . For every nonempty  $B \subseteq A$  we have  $F(B) \in B$ 

 $\Leftrightarrow B \in \mathcal{P}A - \{\emptyset\}$ 

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**Proposition 3.1.6.** For any relation R there exists a function  $H \subseteq R$  with dom H = dom R.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: R be a relation.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a choice function G for ran R.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Define  $H : dom R \to ran R$  by  $H(x) = G(\{y \mid xRy\})$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ H \subseteq R$ 

Proposition 3.1.7. For any function G and nonempty class A, we have

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1}\left(\bigcap \mathbf{A}\right) = \bigcap \{\mathbf{G}^{-1}(X) \mid X \in \mathbf{A}\}$$
.

Proof: Propositions 2.2.18 and 3.1.3.  $\square$ 

Proposition 3.1.8. For any function G and classes A and B, we have

$$G^{-1}(A - B) = G^{-1}(A) - G^{-1}(B)$$
.

PROOF: Proposition 2.2.19 and 3.1.3.  $\square$ 

**Definition 3.1.9** (Identity Function). For any class **A**, the *identity function* on **A** is  $I_{\mathbf{A}} = \{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbf{A}\}.$ 

**Definition 3.1.10** (Injective). A function is *one-to-one*, *injective* or an *injection* iff it is single-rooted.

**Proposition 3.1.11.** Let **F** be a one-to-one function. Let  $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{F}(x)) = x$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is a function.

Proof: Proposition 3.1.2.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ (x, \mathbf{F}(x)) \in \mathbf{F}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ (\mathbf{F}(x), x) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$ 

**Proposition 3.1.12.** Let **F** be a one-to-one function. Let  $y \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{F}^{-1}(y)) = y$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is a function.

Proof: Proposition 3.1.2.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ y \in \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}^{-1}$ 

Proof: Proposition 2.2.8.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ (y, \mathbf{F}^{-1}(y)) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ (\mathbf{F}^{-1}(y), y) \in \mathbf{F}$ 

**Proposition 3.1.13.** Let  $F: A \to B$  where A is nonempty. There exists  $G: B \to A$  (a left inverse) such that  $G \circ F = I_A$  if and only if F is one-to-one.

#### Proof

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If there exists G: B \to A such that G \circ F = I_A then F is one-to-one.
```

```
\langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: G: B \to A and G \circ F = I_A
```

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: F(x) = F(y)
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x = y$

PROOF: 
$$x = G(F(x)) = G(F(y)) = y$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If F is one-to-one then there exists  $G: B \to A$  such that  $G \circ F = I_A$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F is one-to-one.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $a \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Let:  $G: B \to A$  be the function defined by:  $G(b) = F^{-1}(b)$  if  $b \in \operatorname{ran} F$ , G(b) = a otherwise.

Prove: 
$$G \circ F = I_A$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $x \in A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ G(F(x)) = x$

**Definition 3.1.14** (Surjective). Let  $F: A \to B$ . We say that F is *surjective*, or maps A onto B, and write  $F: A \twoheadrightarrow B$ , iff for all  $y \in B$  there exists  $x \in A$  such that F(x) = y.

**Proposition 3.1.15.** Let  $F: A \to B$ . There exists  $H: B \to A$  (a right inverse) such that  $F \circ H = I_B$  if and only if F maps A onto B.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If F has a right inverse then F is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F has a right inverse  $H: B \to A$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y \in B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . F(H(y)) = y
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . There exists  $x \in A$  such that F(x) = y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If F is surjective then F has a right inverse.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK a function H such that  $H \subseteq F^{-1}$  and dom  $H = \operatorname{dom} F^{-1} = B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ H: B \to A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $F \circ H = I_B$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in B$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (y, H(y)) \in F^{-1}$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . F(H(y)) = y

**Definition 3.1.16** (Function Set). Given a set A and a class  $\mathbf{B}$ , we write  $\mathbf{B}^A$  for the class of all functions  $A \to \mathbf{B}$ .

**Proposition 3.1.17.** If A and B are sets then  $A^B$  is a set.

PROOF: It is a subset of  $\mathcal{P}(A \times B)$ .  $\square$ 

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**Definition 3.1.18** (Natural Map). Let A be a set and R an equivalence relation on A. The natural map  $A \to A/R$  is the function that maps  $a \in A$  to  $[a]_R$ .

**Definition 3.1.19** (Respects). Let **R** be an equivalence relation on **A** and  $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{B}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}$  respects  $\mathbf{A}$  iff, whenever  $(x,y) \in \mathbf{R}$ , then  $\mathbf{F}(x) = \mathbf{F}(y)$ .

**Theorem 3.1.20.** Let A be a set and B a class. Let R be an equivalence relation on A and  $F: A \to \mathbf{B}$ . Then F respects R if and only if there exists  $\hat{F}: A/R \to \mathbf{B}$  such that

$$\forall a \in A.\hat{F}([a]_R) = F(a)$$
.

In this case,  $\hat{F}$  is unique.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If F respects R then there exists \hat{F}: A/R \to \mathbf{B} such that \forall a \in A.\hat{F}([a]_R) =
         F(a).
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F respects R.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\hat{F} = \{([a]_R, F(a)) \mid a \in A\}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\hat{F}$  is a function.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $a, a' \in A$  and  $[a]_R = [a']_R$ PROVE: F(a) = F(a')

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (a, a') \in R$ 

Proof: Proposition 2.4.4.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . F(a) = F(a')Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . dom  $\hat{F} = A/R$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . ran  $\hat{F} \subseteq \mathbf{B}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \forall a \in A. \hat{F}([a]_R) = F(a)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If there exists  $\hat{F}: A/R \to \mathbf{B}$  such that  $\forall a \in A.\hat{F}([a]_R) = F(a)$  then Frespects R.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\hat{F}: A/R \to \mathbf{B}$  and  $\forall a \in A.\hat{F}([a]_R) = F(a)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $a, a' \in A$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $(a, a') \in R$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $[a]_R = [a']_R$ 

Proof: Proposition 2.4.4.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . F(a) = F(a')

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $G, H : A/R \to \mathbf{B}$  and  $\forall a \in A.G([a]_R) = H([a]_R)$  then G = H.

**Definition 3.1.21** (Strictly Monotone). Let  $(A, <_A)$  and  $(B, <_B)$  be linearly ordered sets. A function  $f: A \to B$  is strictly monotone iff, whenever  $x <_A y$ , then  $f(x) <_B f(y)$ .

**Proposition 3.1.22.** A strictly monotone function is injective.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(A, <_A)$  and  $(B, <_B)$  be linearly ordered sets.

```
\langle 1 \rangle2. Let: f: A \to B be strictly monotone. \langle 1 \rangle3. Let: x,y \in A \langle 1 \rangle4. Assume: f(x) = f(y) \langle 1 \rangle5. f(x) \not< f(y) and f(y) \not< f(x) Proof: Trichotomy. \langle 1 \rangle6. x \not< y and y \not< x \langle 1 \rangle7. x = y Proof: Trichotomy.
```

**Proposition 3.1.23.** Let A and B be linearly ordered sets. Let  $f: A \to B$ . Let  $x, y \in A$ . If f is strictly monotone and f(x) < f(y) then x < y.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. f(x) \neq f(y) and f(y) \not< f(x)
PROOF: Trichotomy.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. x \neq y and y \not< x
\langle 1 \rangle 3. x < y
PROOF: Trichotomy.
```

**Definition 3.1.24** (Closed). Let **F** be a function and  $\mathbf{A} \subseteq \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ . Then **A** is *closed* under **F** iff  $\forall x \in \mathbf{A}.\mathbf{F}(x) \in \mathbf{A}$ .

# 3.2 Dependent Product Sets

**Definition 3.2.1.** Let I be a set and let  $\mathbf{H}(i)$  be a class for all  $i \in I$ . We write  $\prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{H}(i)$  for the class of all functions f with dom f = I and  $\forall i \in I$ .  $f(i) \in \mathbf{H}(i)$ .

**Proposition 3.2.2.** If I is a set and H(i) is a set for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i)$  is a set.

## Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \{H(i) \mid i \in I\} is a set.
PROOF: Axiom of Replacement.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \prod_{i \in I} H(i) \subseteq \bigcup \{H(i) \mid i \in I\}^I
```

**Proposition 3.2.3.** Let I be a set. Let H(i) be a set for all  $i \in I$ . If  $\forall i \in I. H(i) \neq \emptyset$  then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i) \neq \emptyset$ .

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: \forall i \in I.H(i) \neq \emptyset

\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: R = \{(i,x) \mid i \in I, x \in H(i)\}

\langle 1 \rangle 3. Pick a function f \subseteq R such that dom f = \text{dom } R

\langle 1 \rangle 4. f \in \prod_{i \in I} H(i)
```

# Chapter 4

# **Natural Numbers**

## 4.1 Inductive Sets

**Definition 4.1.1** (Successor). The *successor* of a set a is the set  $a^+ := a \cup \{a\}$ .

**Definition 4.1.2.** We write 0 for  $\emptyset$ , 1 for  $\emptyset^+$ , 2 for  $\emptyset^{++}$ , etc.

**Definition 4.1.3** (Inductive). A set I is *inductive* iff  $\emptyset \in I$  and  $\forall x \in I.x^+ \in I$ .

**Definition 4.1.4** (Natural Number). A *natural number* is a set that belongs to every inductive set.

**Theorem 4.1.5.** The class  $\mathbb{N}$  of natural numbers is a set.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. PICK an inductive set I. PROOF: Axiom of Infinity. \langle 1 \rangle 2. \mathbb{N} \subseteq I
```

**Theorem 4.1.6.**  $\mathbb{N}$  is inductive, and is a subset of every other inductive set.

## Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \mathbb{N} is inductive.
\langle 2 \rangle 1. 0 \in \mathbb{N}
PROOF: Since 0
```

PROOF: Since 0 is a member of every inductive set.

```
\begin{split} \langle 2 \rangle 2. & \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. n^+ \in \mathbb{N} \\ & \langle 3 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } n \in \mathbb{N} \\ & \langle 3 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } I \text{ be any inductive set.} \\ & \text{Prove: } n^+ \in I \\ & \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ n \in I \\ & \text{Proof: } \langle 3 \rangle 1, \ \langle 3 \rangle 2 \\ & \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ n^+ \in I \end{split}
```

Proof:  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ 

$\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . N is a subset of every inductive set. Proof: Immediate from definitions.
Corollary 4.1.6.1 (Induction Principle for $\mathbb{N}$ ). Any inductive subset of $\mathbb{N}$ coincides with $\mathbb{N}$ .
<b>Theorem 4.1.7.</b> Every natural number except 0 is the successor of some natural number.
Proof: Trivially by induction.

# Chapter 5

# Complex Analysis

**Definition 5.0.1.** For  $p \ge 1$ , let  $l^p$  be the set of all sequences of complex numbers  $(x_n)$  such that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p < \infty$ .

**Proposition 5.0.2.** If  $(x_n), (y_n) \in l^p$  then  $(x_n + y_n) \in l^p$ .

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } (x_n), (y_n) \in l^p \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p \leq 2^p (\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^p) \\ \text{PROOF:} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ For all } n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ we have } |x_n + y_n|^p \leq 2^p (|x_n|^p + |y_n|^p). \\ \text{PROOF:} \\ |x_n + y_n|^p \leq (|x_n| + |y_n|)^p \end{array} \qquad \text{(Triangle Inequality)}$$

(Triangle Inequality)  $\leq (2\max(|x_n|,|y_n|))^p$  $\leq 2^p(|x_n|^p + |y_n|^p)$ 

**Theorem 5.0.3** (Hölder's Inequality). Let p and q be reals such that p > 1, q > 1 and 1/p + 1/q = 1. Let  $(x_n) \in l^p$  and  $(y_n) \in l^q$ . Then

$$\sum_{n} |x_n y_n| \le \left(\sum_{n} |x_n|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{n} |y_n|^q\right)^{1/q}$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. neither  $(x_n)$  nor  $(y_n)$  are all zero.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For  $0 \le x \le 1$  we have

1)2. For 
$$0 \le x \le 1$$
 we have 
$$x^{1/p} \le \frac{1}{p}x + \frac{1}{q}.$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } f(x) = x/p + 1/q - x^{1/p}$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ f'(x) = 1/p(1 - x^{(1-p)/p})$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ f'(x) \ge 0 \text{ for all } x \in [0, 1]$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f \text{ is a monotonically decreasing function on}$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
.  $f'(x) = 1/p(1 - x^{(1-p)/p})$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . f is a monotonically decreasing function on [0, 1]

$$\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ f(0) = 1/q$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ f(1) = 0$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 7$$
.  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in [0,1]$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any  $a, b \geq 0$  we have

$$ab \leq \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}$$
.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Case:  $a^p < b^q$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ ab^{-q/p} \le \frac{1}{p} \frac{a^p}{b^q} + \frac{1}{q}$$

$$\langle 3 \rangle 2$$
.  $ab^{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{p} \frac{a^p}{b^q} + \frac{1}{q}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Case: } a^p \leq b^q$   $\langle 3 \rangle 1. ab^{-q/p} \leq \frac{1}{p} \frac{a^p}{b^q} + \frac{1}{q}$ Proof: Substituting  $x = a^p/b^q$  in  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\langle 3 \rangle 2. ab^{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{p} \frac{a^p}{b^q} + \frac{1}{q}$ Proof: From  $\langle 3 \rangle 1$  since 1 - q = -q/p.  $\langle 3 \rangle 3. ab \leq \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}$ Proof: Multiplying  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$  by  $b^q$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ ab \leq \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}$$

PROOF: Multiplying  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$  by  $b^q$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Case:  $b^q \leq a^p$ 

Proof: Similar.

TROOF. Similar. 
$$\langle 1 \rangle 4$$
. For any integers  $1 \le j \le n$ , we have 
$$\frac{|x_j|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p\right)^{1/p}} \frac{|y_j|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n |y_k|^q\right)^{1/q}} \le \frac{1}{p} \frac{|x_j|^p}{\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p} + \frac{1}{q} \frac{|y_j|^q}{\sum_{k=1}^n |y_k|^q}$$
PROOF: From  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$  substituting 
$$a = \frac{|x_j|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p\right)^{1/p}} \text{ and } b = \frac{|y_j|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n |y_k|^q\right)^{1/q}}$$
/1\(\frac{5}{5}\). For any positive integer  $n$  we have

$$a = \frac{|x_j|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p\right)^{1/p}}$$
 and  $b = \frac{|y_j|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n |y_k|^q\right)^{1/q}}$ 

(1)5. For any positive integer 
$$n$$
 we have
$$\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k| |y_k|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |y_k|^q\right)^{1/q}} \le 1$$
Proof:

Proof:

FROOF: 
$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_j| |y_j|}{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |y_k|^q\right)^{1/q}} \le \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \quad \text{(Summing } \langle 1 \rangle 4 \text{ from } j = 1 \text{ to } n\text{)}$$

$$= 1$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .

$$\sum_{n} |x_n y_n| \le \left(\sum_{n} |x_n|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{n} |y_n|^q\right)^{1/q}$$

PROOF: Taking the limit  $n \to \infty$  in  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ 

**Theorem 5.0.4** (Minkowski's Inequality). Let  $p \ge 1$ . Let  $(x_n), (y_n) \in l^p$ . Then

$$\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p\right)^{1/p} \le \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{1/p} + \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^p\right)^{1/p}$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Case: p = 1

PROOF: This is just the Triangle Inequality.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Case: p > 1

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $q = p/(p-1)$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p \le \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^{q(p-1)}\right)^{1/q} + \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^{q(p-1)}\right)^{1/q}$$

Proof:

$$\langle 3 \rangle 1. (|x_n + y_n|^{p-1}) \in l^q$$

PROOF:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^{(p-1)q} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p$$

$$< \infty \qquad (\text{Proposition 5.0.2})$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF:
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n| |x_n + y_n|^{p-1}$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n| |x_n + y_n|^{p-1} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n| |x_n + y_n|^{p-1}$$

$$\leq \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^{q(p-1)}\right)^{1/q}$$

$$+ \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^{q(p-1)}\right)^{1/q}$$
(Hölder's Inequality,  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ )

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p \le \left\{ \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p} + \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^p \right)^{1/p} \right\} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n + y_n|^p \right)^{1/q}$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ q(p-1) = p$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ .

# Part I Linear Algebra

# Chapter 6

# Vector Spaces

# 6.1 Vector Spaces

**Definition 6.1.1** (Vector Space). Let K be either  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . A vector space over K is a triple  $(V, +, \cdot)$  such that:

- $\bullet$  V is a nonempty set, whose elemnts are called *vectors*;
- ullet  $+: V^2 o V$
- $\bullet : K \times V \to V$

such that the following hold for all  $u, v, w \in V$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in K$ :

- 1. u + v = v + u
- 2. u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w
- 3. For every  $u, v \in V$  there exists  $w \in V$  such that u + w = v
- 4.  $\alpha(\beta v) = (\alpha \beta)v$
- 5.  $(\alpha + \beta)v = \alpha v + \beta v$
- 6.  $\alpha(u+v) = \alpha u + \alpha v$
- 7. 1v = v

Elements of K are called *scalars*.

We write real vector space for 'vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ ', and complex vector space for 'vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ '.

**Proposition 6.1.2.** Let K be either  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$ . The set  $\{0\}$  is a vector space over K under the unique functions  $+: \{0\}^2 \to \{0\}, :: K \times \{0\} \to \{0\}$ .

PROOF: Each axiom holds trivially because x = y holds for all  $x, y \in \{0\}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.1.3.** The set  $\mathbb{R}$  is a real vector space under real addition and real multiplication.

PROOF: TODO — after we have proved these facts about  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.1.4.** The set  $\mathbb{C}$  is a real vector space under complex addition and complex multiplication.

PROOF: TODO

**Proposition 6.1.5.** The set  $\mathbb{C}$  is a complex vector space under complex addition and complex multiplication.

PROOF: TODO

**Proposition 6.1.6.** Let K be either  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let  $\{V_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of vector spaces over K. Then  $\prod_{i\in I} V_i$  is a vector space over K under the operations given by

$$\{x_i\}_{i \in I} + \{y_i\}_{i \in I} = \{x_i + y_i\}_{i \in I}$$
$$\alpha\{x_i\}_{i \in I} = \{\alpha x_i\}_{i \in I}$$

PROOF: Each axiom follows from the corresponding axiom in  $V_i$ .

**Corollary 6.1.6.1.** Let V be a vector space over K. For any set I, we have  $V^I$  is a vector space over K.

**Corollary 6.1.6.2.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Then  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a real vector space, and  $\mathbb{C}^n$  is both a real and a complex vector space, under

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$
  
 $\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_n)$ 

**Proposition 6.1.7.** Let V be a vector space over K. Then there exists a unique  $0 \in V$  such that, for all  $v \in V$ , we have v + 0 = v.

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . There exists  $0 \in V$  such that  $\forall v \in V.v + 0 = v$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $v \in V$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $0 \in V$  such that v + 0 = v

Proof: Axiom 3.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $u \in V$ , we have u + 0 = u
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $u \in V$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $u' \in V$  such that v + u' = u

Proof: Axiom 3.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . u + 0 = u

$$u + 0 = v + u' + 0 \tag{\langle 3 \rangle 2}$$

$$= v + u' \tag{222}$$

$$=u$$
  $(\langle 3 \rangle 2)$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
. If  $0, 0' \in V$  are such that  $\forall v \in V.v + 0 = v$  and  $\forall v \in V.v + 0' = v$ , then  $0 = 0'$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $0, 0' \in V$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall v \in V.v + 0 = v$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $\forall v \in V.v + 0' = v$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \ 0 = 0'$

$$0 = 0 + 0' \tag{\langle 2 \rangle 2}$$

$$=0' \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 3)$$

**Proposition 6.1.8.** Let V be a vector space. For any  $v \in V$ , there exists a unique  $-v \in V$  such that v + (-v) = 0.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $v \in V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . There exists  $-v \in V$  such that v + (-v) = u

PROOF: Axiom 3.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If v + x = 0 and v + y = 0 then x = y
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: v + x = 0
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: v + y = 0
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x = y$

Proof:

$$x = x + 0$$
 (Proposition 6.1.7)  
=  $x + v + y$  ( $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ )

$$= 0 + y \tag{\langle 2 \rangle 1}$$

$$= y$$
 (Proposition 6.1.7)

**Proposition 6.1.9.** Let V be a vector space. For any  $u, v \in V$ , there exists a unique  $u - v \in V$  such that v + (u - v) = u, namely u - v = u + (-v).

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $u, v \in V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ v + (u + (-v)) = u$

Proof:

$$v + u + (-v) = u + 0$$
 (Proposition 6.1.8)

$$= u$$
 (Proposition 6.1.7)

(Proposition 6.1.7)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $x \in V$ , if v + x = u then x = u + (-v).

= x

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in V$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: v + x = u
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . x = u + (-v)

Proof:

$$u + (-v) = v + x + (-v)$$
 ( $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ )  
=  $x + 0$  (Proposition 6.1.8)

П

**Proposition 6.1.10.** Let V be a vector space over K. Let  $u, v, w \in V$ . If u + v = u + w then v = w.

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. Assume:  $u + v = u + w$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ v = w$$

Proof:

$$v = v + 0$$
 (Proposition 6.1.7)  
 $= v + u + (-u)$  (Proposition 6.1.8)  
 $= w + u + (-u)$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ )  
 $= w + 0$  (Proposition 6.1.8)  
 $= w$  (Proposition 6.1.7)

**Proposition 6.1.11.** Let V be a vector space over K. Let  $\lambda \in K$ . Then  $\lambda 0 = 0$ .

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
.  $\lambda 0 + \lambda 0 = \lambda 0 + 0$ 

Proof:

$$\lambda 0 + \lambda 0 = \lambda (0 + 0)$$
 (Axiom 6)  
=  $\lambda 0$  (Proposition 6.1.7)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\lambda 0 = 0$ 

Proof: Proposition 6.1.10.

П

**Proposition 6.1.12.** Let V be a vector space over K. Let  $\lambda \in K$  and  $v \in V$ . If  $\lambda v = 0$  then  $\lambda = 0$  or v = 0.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\lambda \neq 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\lambda v = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ v = 0$

PROOF:

$$v = 1v$$
 (Axiom 7)  
 $= \lambda^{-1} \lambda v$   
 $= \lambda^{-1} 0$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ )  
 $= 0$ 

**Proposition 6.1.13.** Let V be a vector space over K. For all  $v \in V$  we have 0v = 0.

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
.  $0v + 0 = 0v + 0v$ 

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$$0v+0=0v \qquad \qquad \text{(Proposition 6.1.7)}$$
 
$$= (0+0)v \qquad \qquad = 0v+0v \qquad \qquad \text{(Axiom 5)}$$
 
$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 0v=0 \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{Proof: Proposition 6.1.10, } \langle 1 \rangle 1.$$

**Proposition 6.1.14.** Let V be a vector space over K. Let  $v \in V$ . Then (-1)v = -v.

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ v + (-1)v = 0$$
  
PROOF:

$$v + (-1)v = 1v + (-1)v$$
 (Axiom 7)  
=  $(1 + (-1))v$  (Axiom 5)  
=  $0v$   
=  $0$  (Proposition 6.1.13)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: Proposition 6.1.8.

# 6.2 Subspaces

**Definition 6.2.1** (Subspace). Let V be a vector space over K and  $U \subseteq V$ . Then U is a *subspace* of V iff  $\forall \alpha, \beta \in K. \forall u, v \in U. \alpha u + \beta v \in U$ . It is a *proper* subspace iff in addition  $U \neq V$ .

**Proposition 6.2.2.** Let V be a vector space over K and U a subspace of V. Then U is a vector space over K under the restrictions of the operations of V.

PROOF: Each of the axioms follows from the corresponding axiom in V. For axiom 3, we have if  $u, v \in U$  then  $v - u = 1v + (-1)u \in U$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 6.2.3. Every vector space is a subspace of itself.

Proof: Trivial.

**Proposition 6.2.4.** Let  $\Omega$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$  be the set of all continuous functions  $\Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^{\Omega}$ .

PROOF: If  $f, g: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  are continuous then so is  $\alpha f + \beta g$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.2.5.** Let  $\Omega$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}^k(\Omega)$  be the set of all continuous functions  $\Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  with continuous partial derivatives of order k. Then  $\mathcal{C}^k(\Omega)$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^{\Omega}$ .

PROOF: If  $f,g:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$  have continuous partial derivatives of order k then so does  $\alpha f+\beta g$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.2.6.** Let  $\Omega$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}^{\infty}(\Omega)$  be the set of all infinitely differentiable functions  $\Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $\mathcal{C}^{\infty}(\Omega)$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^{\Omega}$ .

PROOF: If  $f, g: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  are infinitely differentiable then so is  $\alpha f + \beta g$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.2.7.** Let  $\Omega$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Let  $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$  be the set of all polynomials in N variables considered as functions  $\Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^{\Omega}$ .

PROOF: If  $f, g: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  are polynomials in N variables then so is  $\alpha f + \beta g$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.2.8.** Let V be a vector space and  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$  subspaces of V. If  $U_1 \subseteq U_2$  then  $U_1$  is a subspace of  $U_2$ .

PROOF: Trivial.

**Proposition 6.2.9.** Let V be a vector space over K. The intersection of a set of subspaces of V is a subspace of V.

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be a set of subspaces of V.  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $u, v \in \bigcap \mathcal{U}$  and  $\lambda, \mu \in K$   $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\lambda u + \mu v \in \bigcap \mathcal{U}$   $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $U \in \mathcal{U}$   $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $u, v \in U$ PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\lambda u + \beta v \in U$ PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

**Proposition 6.2.10.** The set of all bounded complex sequences is a proper subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

PROOF: If  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  are bounded then so is  $(\lambda x_n + \mu y_n)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.2.11.** The set of all convergent complex sequences is a proper subspace of the space of all bounded complex sequences.

PROOF: If  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  converge then so does  $(\lambda x_n + \mu y_n)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.2.12.** The set  $l^p$  of all sequences  $(x_n)$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  such that  $\sum_n |x_n|^p < \infty$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

PROOF: It is closed under addition by Proposition 5.0.2, and it is easy to see that it is closed under scalar multiplication.  $\Box$ 

# 6.3 Linear Independence and Bases

**Definition 6.3.1** (Linear Combination). Let V be a vector space over K. Let  $v, v_1, \ldots, v_n \in V$ . Then v is a *linear combination* of  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  iff there exist scalars  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in K$  such that

$$v = \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n .$$

**Definition 6.3.2** (Linearly Independent). Let V be a vector space over K. Let  $A \subseteq V$ . Then A is *linearly independent* iff, for all  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in K$  and  $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in A$ , if  $\lambda_1 v_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n v_n = 0$  then  $\lambda_1 = \cdots = \lambda_n = 0$ .

**Definition 6.3.3** (Span). Let V be a vector space over K and  $A \subseteq V$ . The *span* of A, or the subspace of V spanned by A, is the set of all linear combinations of vectors in A.

**Proposition 6.3.4.** Let V be a vector space over K and  $A \subseteq V$ . Then span A is a subspace of V.

PROOF: Given  $\alpha, \beta \in K$  and  $\lambda_1 u_1 + \cdots + \lambda_m u_m, \mu_1 v_1 + \cdots + \mu_n v_n \in \operatorname{span} A$ , we have

$$\alpha(\lambda_1 u_1 + \dots + \lambda_m u_m) + \beta(\mu_1 v_1 + \dots + \mu_n v_n)$$

$$= \alpha \lambda_1 u_1 + \dots + \alpha \lambda_m u_m + \beta \mu_1 v_1 + \dots + \beta \mu_n v_n$$

$$\in \operatorname{span} A$$

**Definition 6.3.5** (Basis). Let V be a vector space over K and  $B \subseteq V$ . Then B is a *basis* for V iff B is linearly independent and span B = V.

**Definition 6.3.6** (Finite Dimensional). A vector space is *finite dimensional* iff there exists a finite basis; otherwise it is *infinite dimensional*.

**Proposition 6.3.7.** In a finite dimensional space, any two bases have the same size.

TODO

**Definition 6.3.8** (Dimension). The *dimension* of a finite dimensional vector space V, dim V, is the number of vectors in any basis.

**Proposition 6.3.9.** Let K be either  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then  $K^n$  as a vector space over K has dimension n.

PROOF: The vectors with one component 1 and all other components 0 form a basis.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 6.3.10.** As a real vector space,  $\mathbb{C}^n$  has dimension 2n.

PROOF: The vectors with one component either 1 or i and all other components 0 form a basis.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.3.11.** Let  $\Omega$  be a nonempty open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The space  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$  is infinite dimensional.

PROOF: Let  $\pi_1 : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be the first projection. The functions  $1, \pi_1(x), \pi_1(x)^2, \pi_1(x)^3, \ldots$  form an infinite linearly independent set in  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.3.12.** The spaces  $C^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  are infinite dimensional.

PROOF: The monomials 1, x,  $x^2$ , ... form an infinite linearly independent set.

# 6.4 Linear Mappings

**Definition 6.4.1** (Kernel). Let U and V be vector spaces and  $T: U \to V$ . The kernel of T is

$$\ker T := \{ u \in U \mid T(u) = 0 \}$$
.

**Definition 6.4.2** (Linear Mapping). Let U and V be vector spaces over K. A function  $L: U \to V$  is a linear mapping iff  $\forall x, y \in U. \forall \alpha, \beta \in K. L(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha L(x) + \beta L(y)$ .

**Proposition 6.4.3.** Let U and V be vector spaces over K. The set of linear mappings from U to V is a subspace of  $V^U$ .

# 6.5 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

**Definition 6.5.1** (Eigenvalue and Eigenvector). Let V be a vector space over K. Let  $A: V \to V$  be a linear transformation. Let  $v \in V$  and  $\lambda \in K$ . Then v is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  iff  $A(v) = \lambda v$ .

# Chapter 7

# Normed Spaces

**Definition 7.0.1** (Norm). Let K be either  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let V be a vector space over K. A *norm* on V is a function  $\| \ \| : V \to \mathbb{R}$  such that, for all  $u, v \in V$  and  $\lambda \in K$ :

- 1. If ||v|| = 0 then v = 0.
- $2. \|\lambda v\| = |\lambda| \|v\|$
- 3. (Triangle Inequality)  $||u+v|| \le ||u|| + ||v||$

A normed space over K is a pair (V, || ||) where V is a vector space over K and || || is a norm on V.

**Proposition 7.0.2.** In a normed space, ||0|| = 0.

PROOF: 
$$||0|| = |0|||0|| = 0$$
 by Axiom 2.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.0.3.** Let V be a normed vector space over K. For all  $v \in V$  we have  $||v|| \ge 0$ .

Proof:

$$0 = ||0||$$
 (Proposition 7.0.2)  

$$= ||v - v||$$
 (Triangle Inequality)  

$$= 2||v||$$
 (Axiom 2)

**Proposition 7.0.4.** Let V be a normed space. Let  $u, v \in V$ . Then

$$|||u|| - ||v||| \le ||u - v||$$
.

Proof:

$$||u|| \le ||u - v|| + ||v||$$
 (Triangle Inequality)  

$$\therefore ||u|| - ||v|| \le ||u - v||$$
 (Triangle Inequality)  

$$= ||u - v|| + ||u||$$
 (Axiom 2)  

$$\therefore ||v|| - ||u|| \le ||u - v||$$

**Definition 7.0.5** (Euclidean Norm). The Euclidean norm on  $K^n$  is defined by

$$||(x_1,\ldots,x_n)|| = \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + \cdots + |x_n|^2}$$
.

**Proposition 7.0.6.** The Euclidean norm on  $K^n$  is a norm.

PROOF

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. If  $\|\vec{x}\| = 0$  then  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$   
PROOF: If  $\sqrt{|x_1|^2 + \cdots + |x_n|^2} = 0$  then  $x_1 = \cdots = x_n = 0$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\|\lambda \vec{x}\| = |\lambda| \|\vec{x}\|$ 

PROOF:  $||\lambda L|| = |\lambda|$ 

$$\|\lambda \vec{x}\| \sqrt{|\lambda x_1|^2 + \dots + |\lambda x_n|^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{|\lambda|^2 |x_1|^2 + \dots + |\lambda|^2 |x_n|^2}$$

$$= |\lambda| \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2}$$

$$= |\lambda| \|\vec{x}\|$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \le \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$$

Proof:

$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 = |u_1 + v_1|^2 + \dots + |u_n + v_n|^2$$

$$= |u_1|^2 + \dots + |u_n|^2 + |v_1|^2 + \dots + |v_n|^2$$

$$+ 2|u_1||v_1| + \dots + 2|u_n||v_n|$$

$$\leq \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2 + 2|u_1v_1 + \dots + u_nv_n|$$

$$\leq \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{u}\|\|\vec{v}\|$$
(Cauchy-Schwarz)
$$= (\|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|)^2$$

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Corollary 7.0.6.1. The absolute value function | | is a norm on K.

**Proposition 7.0.7.** The function  $\|\vec{x}\| = |x_1| + \cdots + |x_n|$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. If  $\|\vec{x}\| = 0$  then  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$   
PROOF: If  $|x_1| + \cdots + |x_n| = 0$  then  $x_1 = \cdots = x_n = 0$ .  
 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\|\lambda \vec{x}\| = |\lambda| \|\vec{x}\|$   
PROOF:  $\|\lambda \vec{x}\| |\lambda x_1| + \cdots + |\lambda x_n|$ 

$$||\lambda x|| ||\lambda x_1| + \dots + ||\lambda x_n||$$

$$= |\lambda|(|x_1| + \dots + |x_n|)$$

$$= |\lambda|||\vec{x}||$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \le \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$$
  
PROOF:

$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 = |u_1 + v_1| + \dots + |u_n + v_n|$$

$$\leq |u_1| + |v_1| + \dots + |u_n| + |v_n|$$

$$= \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$$

**Proposition 7.0.8.** The function  $\|\vec{x}\| = \max(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|)$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. If  $||\vec{x}|| = 0$  then  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$   
PROOF: If  $\max(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|) = 0$  then  $x_1 = \dots = x_n = 0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $||\lambda \vec{x}|| = |\lambda| ||\vec{x}||$ 

Proof:

$$\|\lambda \vec{x}\| = \max(|\lambda x_1|, \dots, |\lambda x_n|)$$
$$= |\lambda| \max(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|)$$
$$= |\lambda| \|\vec{x}\|$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \le \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$$

Proof:

$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| = \max(|u_1 + v_1|, \dots, |u_n + v_n|)$$

$$\leq \max(|u_1| + |v_1|, \dots, |u_n| + |v_n|)$$

$$\leq \max(|u_1|, \dots, |u_n|) + \max(|v_1|, \dots, |v_n|)$$

**Definition 7.0.9** (Uniform Convergence Norm). Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The *uniform convergence norm* on  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$  is the function defined by  $||f|| = \max_{x \in \Omega} |f(x)|$ .

**Proposition 7.0.10.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The uniform convergence norm is a norm on  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ .

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. If  $||f|| = 0$  then  $f = 0$ 

PROOF: If  $\max_x |f(x)| = 0$  then f(x) = 0 for all x.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
.  $||\lambda f|| = |\lambda| ||f||$ 

$$\begin{split} \|\lambda f\| &= \max_{x} |\lambda f(x)| \\ &= |\lambda| \max_{x} |f(x)| \\ &= |\lambda| \|f\| \end{split}$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \| f + g \| \le \| f \| + \| g \|$$

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Proof:

$$||f + g|| = \max_{x} |f(x) + g(x)|$$

$$\leq \max_{x} (|f(x)| + |g(x)|)$$

$$\leq \max_{x} |f(x)| + \max_{x} |g(x)|$$

$$= ||f|| + ||g||$$

**Proposition 7.0.11.** Let  $p \ge 1$ . The function  $||(z_n)|| = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n|^p\right)^{1/p}$  is a norm on  $l^p$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $||(z_n)|| = 0$  then  $(z_n) = (0)$ PROOF: If  $(\sum_n |z_n|^p)^{1/p} = 0$  then  $\sum_n |z_n|^p = 0$  so  $|z_n|^p = 0$  for all n, and so  $z_n = 0$  for all n.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \|(\lambda z_n)\| = |\lambda| \|(z_n)\|$ 

Proof:

$$\|(\lambda z_n)\| = \left(\sum_n |\lambda z_n|^p\right)^{1/p}$$
$$= |\lambda| \left(\sum_n |z_n|^p\right)^{1/p}$$
$$= |\lambda| |(z_n)|$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . The triangle inequality holds.

PROOF: This is Minkowski's Inequality.

**Proposition 7.0.12.** Let V be a normed space and U a vector subspace of V. Then U is a normed space under the restriction of the norm to U.

PROOF: Each axiom follows from the fact it holds in V.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.0.13.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  be linearly independent elements of V. Then there exists a real number c > 0 such that, for all  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$ , we have

$$\|\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n\| \ge c(|\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n|)$$
.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Define  $f: K^n \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \|\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n\|$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . f is continuous.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in K^n$  and  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\delta = \epsilon/(\|x_1\| + \cdots + \|x_n\|)$

PROOF:  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are not all zero because they are linearly independent.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$  with  $|\alpha_i \beta_i| < \delta$  for all i
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \| (\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n) (\beta_1 x_1 + \beta_n x_n) \| < \epsilon$

```
Proof:
                 \|(\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n) - (\beta_1 x_1 + \beta_n x_n)\|
              \leq |\alpha_1 - \beta_1| ||x_1|| + \dots + |\alpha_n - \beta_n| ||x_n||
                                                                                     (Axioms 2 and 3)
              <\delta(||x_1||+\cdots+||x_n||)
                                                                                                       (\langle 2 \rangle 3)
                                                                                                       (\langle 2 \rangle 2)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. PICK (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n) \in \{(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n) \in K^n \mid |\beta_1| + \cdots + |\beta_n| = 1\} at which
         f attains its minimum.
   PROOF: Extreme Value Theorem.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let c = f(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ c > 0
   PROOF: Linear independence.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Let: \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \|\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n\| \ge c(|\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n|)
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: w.l.o.g. \alpha_1 \ldots, \alpha_n are not all zero.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: \beta_i = \alpha_i/(|\alpha_1| + \cdots + |\alpha_n|) for i = 1, \ldots, n
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. |\beta_1| + \cdots + |\beta_n| = 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n) \geq c
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
       PROOF: Multiply both sides by |\alpha_1| + \cdots + |\alpha_n|.
Proposition 7.0.14. Let V be a normed space over K. Define d: V^2 \to \mathbb{R} by
d(x,y) = ||x-y||. Then d is a metric on V.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. For all x, y \in V we have d(x, y) \geq 0
   Proof: Proposition 7.0.3.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For all x, y \in V we have d(x, y) = 0 iff x = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. If d(x,y) = 0 then x = y
       Proof: Axiom 1.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. If x = y then d(x, y) = 0
       Proof: Proposition 7.0.2.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall x, y \in V.d(x,y) = d(y,x)
   Proof: By Axiom 2.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \forall x, y, z \in V.d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, z)
   PROOF: By Axiom 3.
```

Henceforth we identify any normed space with this metric space.

# 7.1 Convergence

**Proposition 7.1.1.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in V and  $l \in V$ . Then  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  in V if and only if  $||x_n - l|| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 7.1.2. In a normed space, a sequence has at most one limit.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a vector space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $x_n \to l$  and  $x_n \to m$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $l \neq m$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\epsilon = ||l m||/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK N such that  $\forall n \geq N. ||x_n l|| < \epsilon$  and  $\forall n \geq N. ||x_n m|| < \epsilon$  PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \|l m\| < \|l m\|$

Proof:

$$||l-m|| \le ||x_N - l|| + ||x_N - m||$$
 (Triangle Inequality)  
 $< 2\epsilon$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ )

$$= ||l - m|| \tag{\langle 1 \rangle 4}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

Proof: This is a contradiction.

**Definition 7.1.3** (Bounded). Let V be a normed space over K. A sequence  $(x_n)$  in V is bounded iff there exists B such that  $\forall n \leq N . ||x_n|| < B$ .

Proposition 7.1.4. Every convergent sequence is bounded.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick N such that  $\forall n \geq N . ||x_n l|| < 1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $B = \max(||x_1||, ||x_2||, \dots, ||x_{N-1}||, ||l|| + 1)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \|x_n\| \leq B$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Case: n < N

PROOF:  $||x_n|| \leq B$  from  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Case: n > N

PROOF:

$$||x_n|| \le ||l|| + ||x_n - l||$$
 (Triangle Inequality)  
 $< ||l|| + 1$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ )  
 $\le B$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ )

**Proposition 7.1.5.** Let V be a normed space over K. If  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  in V, and  $\lambda_n \to \lambda$  as  $n \to \infty$  in K, then  $\lambda_n x_n \to \lambda l$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\lambda_n \to \lambda$  as  $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$

$$\langle 1 \rangle$$
5. PICK  $N$  such that, for all  $n \geq N$ , we have  $||x_n - l|| < \epsilon/2|\lambda|$  and  $||\lambda_n - \lambda|| < \sqrt{\epsilon/2}$  and  $||x_n|| < \sqrt{\epsilon/2}$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 6$$
. Let:  $n \geq N$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 7. \|\lambda_n x_n - \lambda l\| < \epsilon$$

Proof:

$$\|\lambda_n x_n - \lambda l\| \le \|\lambda_n x_n - \lambda x_n\| + \|\lambda x_n - \lambda l\|$$
 (Triangle Inequality)  

$$= |\lambda_n - \lambda| \|x_n\| + |\lambda| \|x_n - l\|$$
 (Axiom 2)  

$$< \sqrt{\epsilon/2} \sqrt{\epsilon/2} + |\lambda| \epsilon/2 |\lambda|$$
 (\lambda 1\rightarrow 5)  

$$= \epsilon$$

**Proposition 7.1.6.** Let V be a normed space over K. If  $x_n \to l$  and  $y_n \to m$  as  $n \to \infty$ , then  $x_n + y_n \to l + m$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that, for all  $n \geq N$ , we have  $||x_n l|| < \epsilon/2$  and  $||y_n m|| < \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $n \geq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $||(x_n + y_n) (l+m)|| < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$\|(x_n+y_n)-(l+m)\| \leq \|x_n-l\|+\|y_n-m\|$$
 (Triangle Inequality) 
$$<\epsilon/2+\epsilon/2$$
 (\langle 1\rangle 2) 
$$=\epsilon$$

**Definition 7.1.7** (Uniform Convergence). Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$  and  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ . Then  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to f iff, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N such that  $\forall x \in \Omega. \forall n \geq N. |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ .

**Proposition 7.1.8.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence in  $C(\Omega)$  and  $f \in C(\Omega)$ . Then  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to f iff  $f_n$  converges to f under the uniform convergence norm.

Proof:

$$(f_n)$$
 converges to  $f$  under the uniform convergence norm  $\Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0. \exists N. \forall n \geq N. ||f_n - f|| < \epsilon$   $\Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0. \exists N. \forall n \geq N. \forall x \in X. |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ 

**Definition 7.1.9** (Pointwise Convergence). Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{C}([0,1])$  and  $f \in \mathcal{C}([0,1])$ . Then  $(f_n)$  converges pointwise to f iff, for all  $t \in [0,1]$ , we have  $|f_n(t) - f(t)| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

**Proposition 7.1.10.** There is no norm n on C([0,1]) such that, for every sequence  $(f_n)$  and function f in C([0,1]), we have  $(f_n)$  converges pointwise to f if and only if  $(f_n)$  converges to f under n.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $\| \|$  is a norm on  $\mathcal{C}([0,1])$  such that, for every sequence  $(f_n)$  and function f in  $\mathcal{C}([0,1])$ , we have  $(f_n)$  converges pointwise to f if and only if  $(f_n)$  converges to f under  $\| \|$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , define  $g_n \in \mathcal{C}([0,1])$  by

$$g_n(t) = \begin{cases} 2^n t & \text{if } 0 \le t \le 2^{-n} \\ 2 - 2^n t & \text{if } 2^{-n} \le t \le 2^{1-n} \\ 0 & \text{if } 2^{1-n} \le t \le 1 \end{cases}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all n,  $||g_n|| \neq 0$ 

Proof: Axiom 1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , define  $f_n \in \mathcal{C}([0,1])$  by  $f_n = g_n/\|g_n\|$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For all n,  $||f_n|| = 1$ 

Proof: Axiom 2.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $(f_n)$  does not converge under  $\| \|$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $(f_n)$  converges pointwise to 0.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . This is a contradiction.

**Definition 7.1.11** (Equivalence of Norms). Let  $\| \|_1$  and  $\| \|_2$  be two norms on the same vector space V. Then the norms are *equivalent* if and only if, for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in V and  $l \in V$ , we have that  $(x_n)$  converges to l under  $\| \|_1$  if and only if  $(x_n)$  converges to l under  $\| \|_2$ .

**Theorem 7.1.12.** Let  $\| \ \|_1$  and  $\| \ \|_2$  be two norms on the same vector space E over K. Then  $\| \ \|_1$  and  $\| \ \|_2$  are equivalent if and only if there exist positive real numbers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  such that, for all  $x \in E$ ,

$$\alpha ||x||_1 \le ||x||_2 \le \beta ||x||_1$$
.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $\| \|_1$  and  $\| \|_2$  are equivalent then there exist positive real numbers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  such that, for all  $x \in E$ ,  $\alpha \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \beta \|x\|_1$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\| \|_1$  and  $\| \|_2$  are equivalent.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . There exists  $\alpha > 0$  such that, for all  $x \in E$ , we have  $\alpha \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_2$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction there is no  $\alpha > 0$  such that, for all  $x \in E$ , we have  $\alpha ||x||_1 \le ||x||_2$ .
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , PICK  $x_n \in E$  such that  $1/n ||x_n||_1 > ||x||_2$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , Let:

$$y_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{x_n}{\|x_n\|_2}$$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $(y_n)$  converges to 0 under  $\| \|_2$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 5.$   $(y_n)$  converges to 0 under  $\| \|_1$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , we have  $||y_n|| > \sqrt{n}$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 7$ . This is a contradiction.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. There exists  $\beta > 0$  such that, for all  $x \in E$ , we have  $||x||_2 \le \beta ||x||_1$  PROOF: Similar.

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\langle 1 \rangle 2. If there exist positive real numbers \alpha and \beta such that, for all x \in E, \alpha \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \beta \|x\|_1, then \| \cdot \|_1 and \| \cdot \|_2 are equivalent.
```

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are positive reals with  $\forall x \in E.\alpha ||x||_1 \leq ||x||_2 \leq \beta ||x||_1$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in E and  $l \in E$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . If  $(x_n)$  converges to l under  $\| \|_1$  then  $(x_n)$  converges to l under  $\| \|_2$ .
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $(x_n)$  converges to l under  $\| \|_1$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . PICK N such that  $\forall n \geq N . ||x_n l||_1 < \epsilon/\beta$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ \forall n \geq N. ||x_n l||_2 < \epsilon$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . If  $(x_n)$  converges to l under  $|| ||_2$  then  $(x_n)$  converges to l under  $|| ||_1$ . PROOF: Similar.

**Theorem 7.1.13.** Any two norms on a finite dimensional vector space are equivalent.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a finite dimensional vector space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. dim V > 0
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK a basis  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$  for V.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\| \|_0 : V \to \mathbb{R}$  be the function:  $\| \alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n \|_0 = |\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n|$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $\| \|_0$  is a norm.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . If  $||v||_0 = 0$  then v = 0

PROOF: If  $|\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n| = 0$  then  $\alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0$  so  $\alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\|\lambda v\|_0 = |\lambda| \|v\|_0$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\lambda(\alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n)\|_0 &= \|\lambda \alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \lambda \alpha_n e_n\|_0 \\ &= |\lambda \alpha_1| + \dots + |\lambda \alpha_n| \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 4) \\ &= |\lambda|(|\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n|) \\ &= |\lambda|\|\alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n\|_0 \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 4) \end{split}$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \|u + v\|_0 \le \|u\|_0 + \|v\|_0$ 

Proof:

$$\|(\alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n) + (\beta_1 e_1 + \dots + \beta_n e_n)\| = |\alpha_1 + \beta_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n + \beta_n|$$

$$\leq |\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n| + |\beta_1| + \dots + |\beta_n|$$

$$= \|\alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n\|_0 + \|\beta_1 e_1 + \dots + \beta_n e_n\|_0$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Any norm on V is equivalent to  $\| \|_0$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\| \|$  be any norm on V.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $\alpha > 0$  such that, for all  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$ , we have  $\|\alpha_1 e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n e_n\| \ge \alpha(|\alpha_1| + \cdots + |\alpha_n|)$

Proof: Proposition 7.0.13,  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\beta = \max(\|e_1\|, \dots, \|e_n\|)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \beta > 0$

PROOF:  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  cannot all be zero by  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . For all  $x \in V$  we have  $\alpha ||x||_0 \le ||x|| \le \beta ||x||_0$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in V$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $\alpha ||x||_0 \leq ||x||$

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $||x|| \leq \beta ||x||_0$ 

 $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x = \alpha_1 e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n e_n$ 

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . Q.E.D.

Proof:

$$||x|| = ||\alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n|| \qquad (\langle 4 \rangle 1)$$

$$\leq |\alpha_1| ||e_1|| + \dots + |\alpha_n| ||e_n|| \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 1)$$

$$\leq \beta(|\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n|) \tag{(2)3}$$

$$= \beta \|x\|_0 \tag{\langle 1 \rangle 4}$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: Theorem 7.1.12,  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .

**Definition 7.1.14** (Open Ball). Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $x \in V$ . Let r > 0. The *open ball* with *centre* x and *radius* r is

$$B(x,r) := \{ y \in V \mid ||y - x|| < r \} .$$

**Definition 7.1.15** (Closed Ball). Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $x \in V$ . Let r > 0. The *closed ball* with *centre* x and *radius* r is

$$\overline{B}(x,r) := \{ y \in V \mid ||y - x|| \le r \}$$
.

**Definition 7.1.16** (Sphere). Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $x \in V$ . Let r > 0. The *sphere* with *centre* x and *radius* r is

$$S(x,r) := \{ y \in V \mid ||y - x|| = r \} .$$

**Definition 7.1.17** (Open Set). Let V be a normed space over K. A set  $S \subseteq V$  is *open* iff, for all  $x \in S$ , there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq S$ .

Proposition 7.1.18. Equivalent norms define the same set of open sets.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\| \|_1$  and  $\| \|_2$  be equivalent norms on V.
- (1)3. PICK reals  $\alpha, \beta > 0$  such that, for all  $x \in V$ , we have  $\alpha ||x||_1 \le ||x||_2 \le \beta ||x||_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $S \subseteq V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . If S is open under  $\| \|_1$  then S is open under  $\| \|_2$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: S is open under  $\| \|_1$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\{ y \in V \mid \|x y\|_1 < \epsilon \} \subseteq S$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\delta = \alpha \epsilon$

$$\langle 2 \rangle$$
5.  $\{ y \in V \mid \|x - y\|_2 < \delta \} \subseteq S$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. If  $S$  is open under  $\| \ \|_2$  then  $S$  is open under  $\| \ \|_1$ .  
PROOF: Similar.

Proposition 7.1.19. Every open ball is open.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $c \in V$  and r > 0Prove: B(c, r) is open.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in B(c,r)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\epsilon = r - ||x - c||$ Prove:  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq B(c, r)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Let:  $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$ Prove:  $y \in B(c, r)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \|y - c\| < r$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|y-c\| &\leq \|y-x\| + \|x-c\| & \text{(Triangle Inequality)} \\ &< \epsilon + \|x-c\| & \text{($\langle 1 \rangle 5$)} \\ &= r & \text{($\langle 1 \rangle 4$)} \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 7.1.20.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ . Then  $U = \{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. g(x) < f(x)\}$  is open.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $g \in U$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\epsilon = \max_{x \in \Omega} (f(x) - g(x))$ Prove:  $B(g, \epsilon) \subseteq S$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \epsilon > 0$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $h \in B(g, \epsilon/2)$ 

Prove:  $h \in S$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $x \in \Omega$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ h(x) < f(x)$ 

Proof:

$$h(x) \le g(x) + \epsilon/2 \tag{\langle 1 \rangle 4}$$

$$\langle g(x) + \epsilon \rangle$$
 ( $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ )

$$\leq f(x)$$
  $(\langle 1 \rangle 2)$ 

**Proposition 7.1.21.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ . Then  $U = \{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. g(x) > f(x)\}$  is open.

PROOF: Given  $g \in U$ , let  $\epsilon = \max_x (g(x) - f(x))/2$ . Then  $B(g, \epsilon) \subseteq U$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.1.22.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$  be such that f(x) > 0 for all  $x \in \Omega$ . Then  $U = \{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. |g(x)| < f(x)\}$  is open.

PROOF: Given  $g \in U$ , let  $\epsilon = \max_x (f(x) - |g(x)|)/2$ . Then  $B(g, \epsilon) \subseteq U$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.1.23.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$  be such that f(x) > 0 for all  $x \in \Omega$ . Then  $U = \{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. |g(x)| > f(x)\}$  is open.

PROOF: Given  $g \in U$ , let  $\epsilon = \max_{x} (|g(x)| - f(x))/2$ . Then  $B(g, \epsilon) \subseteq U$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.1.24.** The union of a set of open sets is open.

# Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be a set of open sets in V.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in \bigcup \mathcal{U}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $U \in \mathcal{U}$  such that  $x \in U$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Pick  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{U}$

**Proposition 7.1.25.** The intersection of two open sets is open.

# **PROOF**

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  be open sets in V.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $\epsilon_1 > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon_1) \subseteq U_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Pick  $\epsilon_2 > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon_2) \subseteq U_2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $\epsilon = \min(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ B(x,\epsilon) \subseteq U_1 \cap U_2$

**Proposition 7.1.26.** In any normed space,  $\emptyset$  is open.

Proof: Vacuous.

**Proposition 7.1.27.** In any normed space V, the whole space V is open.

PROOF: For any  $x \in V$  we have  $B(x,1) \subseteq V$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 7.1.28** (Closed Set). Let V be a normed space over K. A set  $S \subseteq V$  is *closed* iff V - S is open.

Proposition 7.1.29. Every closed ball is closed.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $c \in V$  and r > 0Prove:  $\overline{B}(c, r)$  is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in V \overline{B}(c, r)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\epsilon = ||x c|| r$ Prove:  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq V - \overline{B}(c, r)$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \epsilon > 0$$

PROOF: Since ||x - c|| > r by  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . ||y - c|| > r

Proof:

$$||y-c|| \ge ||x-c|| - ||x-y||$$
 (Triangle Inequality)  
>  $||x-c|| - \epsilon$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ )

 $= r \tag{\langle 1 \rangle 4}$ 

**Proposition 7.1.30.** The intersection of a set of closed sets is closed.

Proof: From Proposition 7.1.24.  $\square$ 

Proposition 7.1.31. The union of two closed sets is closed.

Proof: From Proposition 7.1.25.  $\Box$ 

Proposition 7.1.32. Every sphere is closed.

PROOF:  $S(c,r) = \overline{B}(c,r) - B(c,r)$ .

**Proposition 7.1.33.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ . Then  $\{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. g(x) \leq f(x)\}$  is closed.

PROOF: It is  $C(\Omega) - \{g \mid \forall x \in \Omega. g(x) > f(x)\}.$ 

**Proposition 7.1.34.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ . Then  $\{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. g(x) \geq f(x)\}$  is closed.

PROOF: It is  $\mathcal{C}(\Omega) - \{g \mid \forall x \in \Omega. g(x) < f(x)\}.$ 

**Proposition 7.1.35.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ . Then  $\{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. |g(x)| \leq f(x)\}$  is closed.

PROOF: It is  $C(\Omega) - \{g \mid \forall x \in \Omega . |g(x)| > f(x)\}.$ 

**Proposition 7.1.36.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ . Then  $\{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid \forall x \in \Omega. |g(x)| \geq f(x)\}$  is closed.

PROOF: It is  $C(\Omega) - \{g \mid \forall x \in \Omega . |g(x)| < f(x)\}.$ 

**Proposition 7.1.37.** Let  $\Omega$  be a closed bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x_0 \in \Omega$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $C = \{g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) \mid g(x_0) = \lambda\}$  is closed.

PROOF: Given  $g \in \mathcal{C}(\Omega) - C$ , let  $\epsilon = |g(x_0) - \lambda|/2$ . Then  $B(g, \epsilon) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(\Omega) - C$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.1.38.** In any normed space V, we have  $\emptyset$  is closed.

PROOF: Since  $V - \emptyset = V$  is open.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.1.39.** In any normed space V, the whole space V is closed.

PROOF: Since  $V - V = \emptyset$  is open.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 7.1.40.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let S be a subset of V. Then S is closed if and only if, for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in S, if  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  then  $l \in S$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If S is closed then, for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in S, if  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  then  $l \in S$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: S is closed.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in S.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $l \notin S$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(l, \epsilon) \subseteq V S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Pick N such that  $\forall n \geq N.x_n \in B(l, \epsilon)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ x_N \in V S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If, for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in S, if  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  then  $l \in S$ , then S is closed.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in S, if  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  then  $l \in S$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in V S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: for a contradiction there is no  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq V S$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , Pick  $x_n \in B(x, 1/n) \cap S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x_n \to x \text{ as } n \to \infty$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

**Definition 7.1.41** (Closure). Let V be a normed space over K. Let S be a subset of V. The *closure* of S,  $\operatorname{cl} S$ , is the intersection of the set of closed sets that include S.

**Proposition 7.1.42.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let S be a subset of V. Then the closure of S is the smallest closed set that includes S.

Proof: Proposition 7.1.30.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 7.1.43.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let S be a subset of V. Then

$$\operatorname{cl} S = \{ l \in V \mid \exists \text{ a sequence } (x_n) \text{ in } S.x_n \to l \text{ as } n \to \infty \} .$$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $l \in \operatorname{cl} S$ , there exists a sequence  $(x_n)$  in S such that  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $l \in \operatorname{cl} S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , pick  $x_n \in B(l, 1/n) \cap S$

PROOF: There must be such an  $x_n$  otherwise S - B(l, 1/n) would be a smaller closed set that includes S.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x_n \to l \text{ as } n \to \infty$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any sequence  $(x_n)$  in S, if  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  then  $l \in \operatorname{cl} S$ .

PROOF: Theorem 7.1.40.

**Definition 7.1.44** (Dense). Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $S \subseteq V$ . Then S is dense if and only if cl S = V.

**Theorem 7.1.45** (Weierstrass Approximation Theorem). Let a and b be real numbers with a < b. In C([a,b]), the set of polynomials is dense.

PROOF:TODO

**Proposition 7.1.46.** Let  $p \ge 1$ . The set of all sequences that have only finitely many non-zero terms is dense in  $l^p$ .

# Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(z_n) \in l^p$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$ 

PROVE: There exists a sequence  $(x_n)$  with only finitely many non-zero terms such that  $(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}|z_n-x_n|^p)^{1/p}<\epsilon$   $\langle 1\rangle 3$ . PICK N such that  $|\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}|z_n|^p-\sum_{n=1}^{N}|z_n|^p|<\epsilon^p$   $\langle 1\rangle 4$ . Let:  $(x_n)$  be the sequence that agrees with  $(z_n)$  up to term N, and then

zeros after that.  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5.  $(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n - x_n|^p)^{1/p} < \epsilon$ 

Proof:

$$\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n - x_n|^p\right)^{1/p} = \left(\sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} |z_n|^p\right)^{1/p}$$

$$< \epsilon$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 4)$$

**Theorem 7.1.47.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $S \subseteq V$ . Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. S is dense.
- 2. For all  $l \in V$ , there exists a sequence  $(x_n)$  in S such that  $x_n \to l$  as
- 3. Every nonempty open subset of V intersects S.

# Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$ 

PROOF: Theorem 7.1.43.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 1 \Rightarrow 3$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: S is dense.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: U be a nonempty open subset of V.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . X U does not include S.

```
PROOF: Lest we have \operatorname{cl} S \subseteq X - U. \langle 2 \rangle 4. U intersects S. \langle 1 \rangle 3. 3 \Rightarrow 1 \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: Every nonempty subset of V intersects S. \langle 2 \rangle 2. Every closed proper subset of V does not include S. \langle 2 \rangle 3. \operatorname{cl} S = V
```

**Definition 7.1.48** (Compact). Let V be a normed space over K and  $S \subseteq V$ . Then S is *compact* if and only if every sequence in S has a convergent subsequence whose limit is in S.

**Proposition 7.1.49.** In  $K^n$ , a set is compact if and only if it is bounded and closed.

PROOF: TODO

**Definition 7.1.50** (Bounded). Let V be a normed space over K and  $S \subseteq V$ . Then S is bounded iff there exists r > 0 such that  $V \subseteq B(0, r)$ .

Theorem 7.1.51. Every compact set is closed and bounded.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: V be a normed space over K.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: S \subseteq V be compact.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. S is closed.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: (x_n) be a sequence in S that converges to l
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK a sequence (x_{n_r}) that converges to x \in S
       Proof: \langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 1
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x_{n_r} \to l \text{ as } n \to \infty
       Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 2
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ l = x
       Proof: Proposition 7.1.2.
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ l \in S
       Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 4
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
       Proof: Theorem 7.1.40.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. S is bounded.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction S is unbounded.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. For n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, PICK x_n \in S - B(0, n)
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick a convergent subsequence (x_{n_r}) that converges to l, say.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick N \in \mathbb{Z}_+ such that ||l|| < N
    \langle 2 \rangle5. PICK r such that n_r > N and ||x_{n_r} - l|| < N - ||l||
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \|x_{n_r}\| < N < n_r
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. This contradicts \langle 2 \rangle 2.
```

**Proposition 7.1.52.** In C([0,1]), the closed ball  $\overline{B}(0,1)$  is closed and bounded but not compact.

PROOF: The sequence of functions  $(x^n)$  is in  $\overline{B}(0,1)$  but has no convergent subsequence.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 7.1.53** (Riesz's Lemma). Let V be a normed vector space over K. Let X be a closed proper subspace of V. Let  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ . Then there exists  $x \in V$  such that ||x|| = 1 and  $\forall y \in X. ||x - y|| \ge \epsilon$ .

# Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. Pick  $z \in V - X$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
. Let:  $d = \inf_{x \in X} ||z - x||$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ d > 0$$

PROOF: Since X is closed, there exists e > 0 such that  $B(z,d) \subseteq V - X$  and hence  $||z - x|| \ge d$  for all  $x \in X$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $x_0 \in X$  such that  $d \leq ||z - x_0|| \leq d/\epsilon$ 

PROOF: One exists since  $d/\epsilon$  is not a lower bound for  $\{||z-x|| \mid x \in X\}$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5$$
. Let:  $x = (z - x_0) / ||z - x_0||$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 6$$
. Let:  $y \in X$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 7. \|x - y\| \ge \epsilon$$

Proof:

$$||x - y|| = \left\| \frac{z - x_0}{||z - x_0||} - y \right\|$$

$$= \frac{1}{||z - x_0||} ||z - (x_0 + ||z - x_0||y)||$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{||z - x_0||} d$$

$$\geq \epsilon$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 2)$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 4)$$

**Theorem 7.1.54.** Let V be a normed space over K. Then V is finite dimensional if and only if  $\overline{B}(0,1)$  is compact.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If V is finite dimensional then  $\overline{B}(0,1)$  is compact.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: V is finite dimensional.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick a basis  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $\|\alpha_1 e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n e_n\| = |\alpha_1| + \cdots + |\alpha_n|$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $(\alpha_{k1}e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{kn}e_n)$  be a sequence in  $\overline{B}(0,1)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. PICK a convergent subsequence  $(\alpha_{k_r 1})$  of  $(\alpha_{k1})$ , a convergent subsequence  $(\alpha_{k'_r} 2)$  of  $(\alpha_{k_r 2}), \ldots,$  a convergent subsequence  $(\alpha_{k''_r} n)$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $(\alpha_{k_r''1}e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{k_r''n})$  converges.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If V is infinite dimensional then  $\overline{B}(0,1)$  is not compact.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: V is infinite dimensional.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Choose a sequence  $(x_n)$  with  $||x_n|| = 1$  and  $||x_m x_n|| \ge 1/2$  for  $m \ne n$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  satisfy  $||x_i|| = 1$  and  $||x_i x_j|| \ge 1/2$  for  $i \ne j$
    - (3)2. PICK  $x_{n+1} \in V$  such that  $||x_{n+1}|| = 1$  and for all  $y \in \text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  we have  $||x_{n+1} y|| \ge 1/2$

```
\langle 4 \rangle 1. span\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} is closed.
              \langle 5 \rangle 1. Let: S = \operatorname{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}
              \langle 5 \rangle 2. Let: (a_n) be a sequence in S that converges to a \in V
                      Prove: a \in S
              \langle 5 \rangle 3. (a_n) is a Cauchy sequence in V.
              \langle 5 \rangle 4. (a_n) is a Cauchy sequence in S.
              \langle 5 \rangle 5. A finite dimensional normed space is a Banach space.
              \langle 5 \rangle 6. S is complete.
              \langle 5 \rangle 7. \ a \in S
          \langle 4 \rangle 2. span\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} is a proper subspace of V.
             Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1
          \langle 4 \rangle3. Q.E.D.
             Proof: Riesz's Lemma.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: for a contradiction (x_{n_r}) is a subsequence that converges to l
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. For all r \in \mathbb{N}, we have ||x_{n_r} - l|| + ||x_{n_{r+1}} - l|| \ge 1/2
    \langle 2 \rangle5. This is a contradiction.
```

**Proposition 7.1.55.** Let V be a normed space. The closure of a subspace of V is a subspace.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle1. Let: U be a subspace of V \langle 1 \rangle2. Let: x, y \in \operatorname{cl} U and \alpha, \beta \in K \langle 1 \rangle3. Pick sequences (x_n), (y_n) in U that converge to x and y respectively. \langle 1 \rangle4. \alpha x_n + \beta y_n \to \alpha x + \beta y as n \to \infty \langle 1 \rangle5. \alpha x + \beta y \in \operatorname{cl} U
```

# 7.2 Continuous Linear Mappings

**Definition 7.2.1** (Continuous). Let U and V be normed spaces. Let  $f: U \to V$  and  $x \in U$ . Then f is *continuous at* x iff, for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in U, if  $x_n \to x$  as  $n \to \infty$  then  $f(x_n) \to f(x)$  as  $n \to \infty$ . The function f is *continuous* iff f is continuous at every point.

**Proposition 7.2.2.** Let V be a normed space. Then the norm is a continuous function  $V \to \mathbb{R}$ .

Proof: From Proposition 7.0.4.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.2.3.** Let U and V be normed space. Let  $f: U \to V$ . Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. f is continuous.
- 2. For any open set S in V, we have  $f^{-1}(S)$  is open in U.

3. For any closed set C in V, we have  $f^{-1}(C)$  is closed in U.

**Proposition 7.2.4.** Let U and V be normed spaces over K. Let  $T: U \to V$  be a linear transformation. If T is continuous at some point, then it is continuous.

# Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: T is continuous at  $u_0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  in U
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $x_n l + u_0 \to u_0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $T(x_n l + u_0) \to T(u_0)$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $T(x_n) T(l) + T(u_0) \to T(u_0)$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ T(x_n) \to T(l) \text{ as } n \to \infty.$

**Definition 7.2.5** (Bounded). Let U and V be normed spaces over K. Let  $T:U\to V$  be a linear transformation. Then T is bounded iff there exists  $\alpha>0$  such that, for all  $x\in U$ , we have  $\|T(x)\|\leq \alpha\|x\|$ .

**Theorem 7.2.6.** Let U and V be normed spaces over K. Let  $T:U\to V$  be a linear transformation. Then T is continuous if and only if it is bounded.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If T is continuous then T is bounded.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: T is not bounded.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , PICK  $x_n \in U$  such that  $||T(x_n)|| > n||x_n||$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , LET:

$$y_n = \frac{x_n}{n||x_n||}$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y_n \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $T(y_n) \not\to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . T is not continuous.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If T is bounded then T is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: T is bounded.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $\alpha > 0$  such that  $\forall x \in U ||T(x)|| \leq \alpha ||x||$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . T is continuous at 0.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(x_n)$  be a sequence that converges to 0 in U
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $T(x_n) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$

Proof:

$$||T(x_n)|| \le \alpha ||x_n||$$
  $(\langle 2 \rangle 2)$   
  $\to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . T is continuous.

Proof: Proposition 7.2.4.

**Proposition 7.2.7.** Let U and V be normed spaces over K where U is finite dimensional. Let  $T: U \to V$  be a linear transformation. Then T is bounded.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK a basis  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$  of unit vectors for U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $M = \max(||T(e_1)||, \dots, ||T(e_n)||)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Pick C > 0 such that, for all  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$ , we have  $|\alpha_1| + \cdots + |\alpha_n| \leq$  $C\|\alpha_1e_1+\cdots+\alpha_ne_n\|$

PROOF: Theorem 7.1.13.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $x \in U$ 

PROVE:  $||T(x)|| \le CM||x||$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $x = \alpha_1 e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n e_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $||T(x)|| \leq CM||x||$

Proof:

$$||T(x)|| = ||\alpha_1 T(e_1) + \dots + \alpha_n T(e_n)||$$
 (T linear)  

$$\leq |\alpha_1|||T(e_1)|| + \dots + |\alpha_n|||T(e_n)||$$
 (Triangle inequality)  

$$\leq M(|\alpha_1| + \dots + |\alpha_n|)$$
 (\lambda 1\rangle 2)  

$$\leq CM||x||$$
 (\lambda 1\rangle 3)

Corollary 7.2.7.1. Let U and V be normed spaces over K where U is finite dimensional. Let  $T: U \to V$  be a linear transformation. Then T is continuous.

**Proposition 7.2.8.** Let U and V be normed spaces over K. Let  $T: U \to V$  be a linear transformation. If T is continuous, then T is uniformly continuous.

# Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: T is continuous
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick B > 0 such that  $\forall x \in U ||T(x)|| \leq B||x||$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\delta = \epsilon/B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $x, y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Assume:  $||x y|| < \delta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $||T(x) T(y)|| < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$||T(x) - T(y)|| = ||T(x - y)||$$

$$\leq B||x - y||$$

$$< B\delta$$

$$= \epsilon$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 2)$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 6)$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 4)$$

**Proposition 7.2.9.** Let U and V be normed spaces over K. The set  $\mathcal{B}(U,V)$  of all bounded linear maps from U to V forms a subspace of the space of all linear maps from U to V.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $S, T : U \to V$  be bounded linear maps and  $\alpha, \beta \in K$ . PROVE:  $\alpha S + \beta T$  is bounded.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK B, C > 0 such that  $\forall x \in U ||S(x)|| \leq B||x||$  and  $||T(x)|| \leq C||x||$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall x \in U. \|(\alpha S + \beta T)(x)\| \le (|\alpha|B + |\beta|C)\|x\|$

**Proposition 7.2.10.** Let U and V be normed spaces over K. Define the operator norm  $\| \|$  on  $\mathcal{B}(U,V)$  by  $\|T\| := \sup\{\|T(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\| = 1\}$ . Then  $\| \|$  is a norm on  $\mathcal{B}(U,V)$ .

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. For all T \in \mathcal{B}(U, V), the set \{ ||T(x)|| \mid x \in U, ||x|| = 1 \} is bounded above.
```

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $T \in \mathcal{B}(U, V)$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. PICK B such that  $\forall x \in U . ||T(x)|| \leq B||x||$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3$$
. B is an upper bound for  $\{ ||T(x)|| \mid x \in U, ||x|| = 1 \}$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
. If  $||T|| = 0$  then  $T = 0$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Assume:  $||T|| = 0$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. Let:  $x \in U$ 

Prove: 
$$T(x) = 0$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3$$
. Assume: w.l.o.g.  $||x|| \neq 0$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 4$$
. Let:  $y = x/||x||$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 5$$
.  $||y|| = 1$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 6$$
.  $||T(y)|| = 0$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 7$$
.  $T(y) = 0$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ T(x) = 0$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3$$
. For all  $\lambda \in K$  and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(U,V)$ , we have  $\|\lambda T\| = |\lambda| \|T\|$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $\lambda \in K$  and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(U, V)$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
.  $||\lambda T|| = |\lambda|||T||$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\lambda T\| &= \sup\{\|\lambda T(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\| = 1\} \\ &= \sup\{|\lambda| \|T(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\| = 1\} \\ &= |\lambda| \sup\{\|T(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\| = 1\} \\ &= |\lambda| \|T\| \end{split}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For all  $S, T \in \mathcal{B}(U, V)$ , we have  $||S + T|| \le ||S|| + ||T||$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $S, T \in \mathcal{B}(U, V)$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2. \|S + T\| \le \|S\| + \|T\|$$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|S+T\| &= \sup\{\|S(x)+T(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\|=1\} \\ &\leq \sup\{\|S(x)\| + \|T(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\|=1\} \\ &\leq \sup\{\|S(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\|=1\} + \sup\{\|T(x)\| \mid x \in U, \|x\|=1\} \\ &= \|S\| + \|T\| \end{split}$$

**Proposition 7.2.11.** Let U and V be normed spaces. Let  $T \in \mathcal{B}(U,V)$ . Then ||T|| is the least number such that  $\forall u \in U.||T(u)|| \leq ||T|| ||u||$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \forall u \in U. ||T(u)|| \le ||T|| ||u||$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $u \in U$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. Let:  $v = u/||u||$ 

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \|T(v)\| \leq \|T\| \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \|T(u)\| \leq \|T\| \|u\| \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \text{If } \alpha \ \text{satisfies} \ \forall u \in U. \|T(u)\| \leq \alpha \|u\|, \ \text{then} \ \|T\| \leq \alpha \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Assume:} \ \forall u \in U. \|T(u)\| \leq \alpha \|u\| \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \text{For all} \ x \in U, \ \text{if} \ \|x\| = 1 \ \text{then} \ \|T(x)\| \leq \alpha \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \|T\| \leq \alpha \end{array}
```

**Proposition 7.2.12.** Let V be a normed space. Then  $id_V$  is a bounded linear function  $V \to V$ , and  $\|id_V\| = 1$ .

**Proposition 7.2.13.** Let U and V be normed spaces. The constant zero function  $U \to V$  is a bounded linear transformation with norm 0.

**Proposition 7.2.14.** Let  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $T : \mathbb{C}^N \to \mathbb{C}^N$  be a linear transformation with matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$ . Then T is bounded and

$$||T|| \le \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} |a_{ij}|^2}$$
.

**Definition 7.2.15** (Uniform Convergence). Let U and V be normed spaces. Let  $(T_n)$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{B}(U,V)$  and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(U,V)$ . Then  $(T_n)$  converges uniformly to T iff  $(T_n)$  converges to T under the standard norm defined above.

**Theorem 7.2.16.** Let U and V be normed spaces. Let  $T:U\to V$  be a continuous linear function. Then ker T is a closed subspace of U.

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . ker T is a subspace of U

PROOF: If  $x, y \in \ker T$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in K$  then  $T(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha T(x) + \beta T(y) = 0$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\ker T$  is closed.

PROOF: Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in ker T and  $x_n \to l$ . Then  $T(l) = \lim_{n \to \infty} T(x_n) = 0$ .

**Theorem 7.2.17.** Let U and V be normed spaces. Let W be a closed subspace of U and  $T: W \to V$  be a continuous linear mapping. Then the graph  $G = \{(x, T(x)) \mid x \in W\}$  is closed in  $U \times V$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $T \neq 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(x,y) \in (U \times V) G$ , i.e.  $y \neq T(x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon = ||y T(x)|| > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $x' \in W$  with  $||x x'|| < \epsilon/3||T||$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $y' \in V$  with  $||y y'|| < \epsilon/3$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ y' \neq T(x')$

Proof:

$$||y' - T(x')|| \ge ||y - T(x)|| - ||y - y'|| - ||T(x) - T(x')||$$

$$> \epsilon/3$$

$$> 0$$

**Theorem 7.2.18** (Diagonal Theorem). Let E be a normed space over K. Let  $(x_{ij})$  be an infinite matrix of elements of V. If:

- 1. For all  $j \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , we have  $x_{ij} \to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$ ;
- 2. Every increasing sequence of positive integers  $(p_j)$  has a subsequence  $(p_{j_r})$ such that

$$\sum_{s=1}^{\infty} x_{p_{j_r} p_{j_s}} \to 0 \text{ as } r \to \infty$$

then  $x_{ii} \to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $x_{ii} \not\to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $\epsilon > 0$  such that, for all N, there exists  $n \geq N$  such that  $||x_{nn}|| \geq \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK an increasing sequence of integers  $(p_j)$  such that  $||x_{p_jp_j}|| \geq \epsilon$  for all j.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick a subsequence  $(q_i)$  such that  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{q_i q_j} \to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. For all i, we have  $x_{q_i q_j} \to 0$  as  $j \to \infty$   $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. For all j, we have  $x_{q_i q_j} \to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Define a subsequence  $(r_n)$  of  $(q_i)$  by  $r_1 = q_1$  and, for all  $n, r_{n+1}$  is the first entry such that  $r_{n+1} > r_n$ ,  $||x_{q_i r_n}|| < \epsilon/2^{n+1}$  for all  $q_i \ge r_{n+1}$ , and  $||x_{r_j r_{n+1}}|| < \epsilon/2^{n+2}$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, n$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ .  $||x_{r_i r_j}|| < \epsilon/2^{j+1}$  for all i, j such that  $i \neq j$   $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . PICK a subsequence  $(s_j)$  of  $(r_j)$  such that  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{s_i s_j} \to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$   $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . For all i we have  $||\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{s_i s_j}|| \geq \epsilon/2$

Proof

$$\left\| \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{s_{i}s_{j}} \right\| = \left\| x_{s_{i}s_{i}} + \sum_{i \neq j} x_{s_{i}s_{j}} \right\|$$

$$\geq \left\| \|x_{s_{i}s_{i}}\| - \left\| \sum_{i \neq j} x_{s_{i}s_{j}} \right\|$$

$$\geq \left\| \|x_{s_{i}s_{i}}\| - \sum_{i \neq j} \|x_{s_{i}s_{j}}\| \right\|$$

$$\geq \epsilon/2 \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 8)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 9$  and  $\langle 1 \rangle 10$  form a contradiction.

# 7.3 Banach Spaces

**Definition 7.3.1** (Cauchy Sequence). Let V be a normed space over K. A Cauchy sequence is a sequence of points  $(x_n)$  such that, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N$ .  $||x_m - x_n|| < \epsilon$ .

**Theorem 7.3.2.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in V. The following are equivalent.

- 1.  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy.
- 2. For every pair of increasing sequences of positive integers  $(p_n)$  and  $(q_n)$ , we have  $||x_{p_n} x_{q_n}|| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- 3. For every increasing sequence of positive integers  $(p_n)$ , we have  $||x_{p_n} x_n|| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(p_n)$  and  $(q_n)$  are increasing sequences of positive integers.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||x_m x_n|| < \epsilon$
  - $$\begin{split} \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \forall n \geq N. \|x_{p_n} x_{q_n}\| < \epsilon \\ \text{PROOF: Since } p_n, q_n \geq n \geq N. \end{split}$$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$

PROOF: Trivial.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $(x_n)$  is not Cauchy
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $\epsilon > 0$  such that, for every  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , there exist  $m_N, n_N \geq N$  such that  $||x_{m_N} x_{n_N}|| \geq \epsilon$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $(m_N)$  and  $(n_N)$  are increasing sequences.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $||x_{m_N} x_{n_N}|| \not\to 0$  as  $N \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 3 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: 3
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(p_n)$  and  $(q_n)$  be increasing sequences of positive integers.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 2\rangle 4.$  Pick N such that  $\forall n\geq N.\|x_{p_n}-x_n\|<\epsilon/2$  and  $\forall n\geq N.\|x_{q_n}-x_n\|<\epsilon/2$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \forall n \ge N. \|x_{p_n} x_{q_n}\| < \epsilon$

Proposition 7.3.3. Every convergent sequence is Cauchy.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK N such that  $\forall n \geq N . ||x_n l|| < \epsilon/2$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For all  $m, n \geq N$  we have  $||x_m - x_n|| < \epsilon$ .

**Proposition 7.3.4.** In  $\mathcal{P}([0,1])$ , let

$$P_n(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!}$$
.

Then  $(P_n)$  is Cauchy but does not converge.

PROOF: It converges to  $e^x$  in  $\mathcal{C}([0,1])$ , therefore it is Cauchy in  $\mathcal{C}([0,1])$ , hence Cauchy in  $\mathcal{P}([0,1])$ . Since  $e^x \notin \mathcal{P}([0,1])$ , it does not converge in that space.  $\sqcup$ 

**Proposition 7.3.5.** Let V be a normed space over K. Let  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in V. Then  $(\|x_n\|)$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . ( $||x_n||$ ) is Cauchy.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||x_m x_n|| < \epsilon$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \forall m, n \geq N. ||x_m|| ||x_n||| < \epsilon$

Proof: Proposition 7.0.4.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since every Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  converges.

**Proposition 7.3.6.** Every Cauchy sequence is bounded.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in V.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||x_m x_n|| < 1$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $B = \max(\|x_1\|, \dots, \|x_{N-1}\|, \|x_N\| + 1)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \forall n. ||x_n|| \le B$

**Definition 7.3.7** (Banach Space). A normed space V over K is complete or a Banach space iff every Cauchy sequence converges.

**Proposition 7.3.8.**  $l^2$  is complete.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(a_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $l^2$  where  $a_n = (\alpha_{n1}, \alpha_{n2}, \ldots)$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $\forall m, n \geq n_0$ .  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_{mk} \alpha_{mk}| = 1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For every  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $\forall m, n \geq 1$  $n_0.|\alpha_{mk}-\alpha_{nk}|<\epsilon.$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For every  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $(\alpha_{nk})$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For every  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $(\alpha_{nk})$  converges in  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . For  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,

```
Let: \alpha_k = \lim_{n \to \infty} \alpha_{nk}
\langle 1 \rangle 7. Let a be the sequence (\alpha_k)
(1)8. For all \epsilon > 0, there exists n_0 such that \forall n \geq n_0. \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_k - \alpha_{nk}|^2 \leq \epsilon^2.
   PROOF: Letting m \to \infty in \langle 1 \rangle 2.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ a \in l^2
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. PICK n_0 such that \forall n \geq n_0. \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_k - \alpha_{nk}|^2 \leq 1
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ (\alpha_k - \alpha_{n_0 k}) \in l^2
\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (\alpha_{n_0 k}) \in l^2
       PROOF: By \langle 1 \rangle 1 since the sequence is a_{n_0}.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ (\alpha_k) \in l^2
       Proof: Proposition 5.0.2.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ a_n \to a \text{ as } n \to \infty
   PROOF: By \langle 1 \rangle 8 since ||a - a_n|| = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_k - \alpha_{nk}|^2}.
Proposition 7.3.9. Let a and b be real numbers with a < b. The space C([a,b])
is complete.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X = [a, b]
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: (f_n) be a Cauchy sequence in \mathcal{C}([a,b]).
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For all \epsilon > 0, there exists n_0 such that \forall n, m \geq n_0 . ||f_n - f_m|| < \epsilon.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. For all \epsilon > 0, there exists n_0 such that \forall n, m \geq n_0 . \forall x \in X. | f_n(x) - f_n(x)| = 0
          |f_m(x)| < \epsilon.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. For all x \in [a, b], (f_n(x)) is Cauchy.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Define f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{C} by f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x).
\langle 1 \rangle 7. For all \epsilon > 0, there exists n_0 such that \forall n \geq n_0 . \forall x \in X . |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon
   PROOF: Letting m \to \infty in \langle 1 \rangle 4.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. f is continuous
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x_0 \in X
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: \epsilon > 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. PICK n_0 such that \forall n \geq n_0 . \forall x \in X . |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3
       PROOF: By \langle 1 \rangle 7.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick \delta > 0 such that \forall x \in X | |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow |f_{n_0}(x) - f_{n_0}(x_0)| < \epsilon/3
       PROOF: Since f_{n_0} is continuous.
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. Let: x \in X
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. Assume: |x - x_0| < \delta
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon
       Proof:
       |f(x) - f(x_0)| \le |f(x) - f_{n_0}(x)| + |f_{n_0}(x) - f_{n_0}(x_0)| + |f_{n_0}(x_0) - f(x_0)| (Triangle Inequality)
                                 <\epsilon/3+\epsilon/3+\epsilon/3
                                                                                                                                                       (\langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 4)
\langle 1 \rangle 9. (f_n) converges to f uniformly.
    Proof: From \langle 1 \rangle 7
```

**Definition 7.3.10** (Series). Let V be a normed space over K. A convergent series in V is a sequence  $(x_n)$  in V such that  $(x_1 + \cdots + x_n)$  is a convergent sequence, in which case we write  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$  for its limit.

**Definition 7.3.11** (Absolutely Convergent Series). Let V be a normed space over K. An absolutely convergent series in V is a sequence  $(x_n)$  such that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|x_n\| < \infty.$ 

**Proposition 7.3.12.** In  $\mathcal{P}([0,1])$ , the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n/n!$  is absolutely convergent but not convergent.

Proof: Proposition 7.3.4.

**Theorem 7.3.13.** A normed space is complete if and only if every absolutely convergent series is convergent.

# Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If V is complete then every absolutely convergent series is convergent.

  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: V is complete.  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be absolutely convergent in V.  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , Let:  $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $(s_n)$  is Cauchy.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle$ 2. PICK k such that  $\sum_{n=k+1}^{\infty} ||a_n|| < \epsilon$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let: m > n > k
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $||s_m s_n|| < \epsilon$

$$||s_m - s_n|| = \left\| \sum_{i=n+1}^m a_i \right\|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=s+1}^m ||a_i||$$
(Triangle inequality)
$$\leq \sum_{i=k+1}^\infty ||a_i||$$

$$< \epsilon$$
(\lambda 3\rangle 2, \lambda 3\rangle 3)

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $(s_n)$  converges.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If every absolutely convergent series is convergent then V is complete.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: Every absolutely convergent series in V is convergent.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(a_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in V.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK a strictly increasing sequence of positive integers  $(p_n)$  such that  $\forall k. \forall m, n \ge p_k. ||x_m - x_n|| < 2^{-k}.$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (x_{p_{k+1}} x_{p_k})$  is absolutely convergent.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ||x_{p_{k+1}} - x_{p_k}|| < \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^{-k}$$
 (\langle 2\rangle 3)

$$\langle 2 \rangle 5$$
.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (x_{p_{k+1}} - x_{p_k})$  is convergent. PROOF:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 6$$
. Let:  $s = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (x_{p_{k+1}} - x_{p_k})$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 7$$
.  $x_{n_k} \to s + x_{n_k}$  as  $k \to \infty$ .

PROOF: 
$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
,  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$   
 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $s = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (x_{p_{k+1}} - x_{p_k})$   
 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ .  $x_{p_k} \to s + x_{p_1}$  as  $k \to \infty$ .  
 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ .  $\sum_{i=1}^{k} (x_{p_{i+1}} - x_{p_i}) \to s$  as  $k \to \infty$   
PROOF:  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 2$$
.  $x_{p_{k+1}} - x_{p_1} \to s \text{ as } k \to \infty$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ x_n \to s + x_{p_1} \text{ as } k \to \infty.$$

Proof:

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that  $\forall k \geq N . ||x_{p_k} - (s + x_{p_1})|| < \epsilon/2$  and  $\forall m, n \geq 1$  $N.\|x_m - x_n\| < \epsilon/2$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \geq N. \|x_n - (s + x_{p_1})\| < \epsilon$ 

Theorem 7.3.14. A closed vector subspace of a Banach space is a Banach space.

# Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a Banach space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: U be a closed vector subspace of V.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $(a_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $(a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in V.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $l = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ l \in U$

PROOF: Theorem 7.1.40.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $a_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  in U.

**Definition 7.3.15** (Completion). Let V be a normed space over K. A completion of V consists of a normed space W over K and an injection  $\phi: V \to W$ such that:

- 1.  $\forall x, y \in V. \forall \alpha, \beta \in K. \phi(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha \phi(x) + \beta \phi(y)$
- 2.  $\forall x \in V || \phi(x) || = ||x||$
- 3.  $\phi(V)$  is dense in W.
- 4. W is complete.

**Proposition 7.3.16.** Every normed space has a completion.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: V be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let us say two Cauchy sequences  $(x_n)$ ,  $(y_n)$  ore equivalent iff  $x_n y_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Equivalence is an equivalence relation on the set of Cauchy sequences.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let: W be the set of Cauchy sequences in V quotiented by equivalence.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Define addition and multiplication on W by

$$[(x_n)] + [(y_n)] = [(x_n + y_n)]$$
  
 $\lambda[(x_n)] = [(\lambda x_n)]$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Define a norm on W by  $||[(x_n)]|| = \lim_{n \to \infty} ||x_n||$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Define  $\phi: V \to W$  by  $\phi(v) = [v]$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ .  $\phi$  is injective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ \forall x, y \in V. \forall \alpha, \beta \in K. \phi(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha \phi(x) + \beta \phi(y)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ \forall x \in V. \| \phi(x) \| = \| x \|$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ .  $\phi(V)$  is dense in W.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $[(a_n)] \in W$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ .

PROVE:  $B([(a_n)], \epsilon)$  intersects  $\phi(V)$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||a_m a_n|| < \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \phi(a_N) \in B([(a_n)], \epsilon)$

Proof:

$$\|[(a_n)] - \phi(a_N)\| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \|a_n - a_N\|$$

$$\leq \epsilon/2$$

$$< \epsilon$$

$$(\langle 2 \rangle 2)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ . W is complete.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(X_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in W.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , PICK  $x_n \in V$  such that

$$\|\phi(x_n) - X_n\| < 1/n.$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy in V.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||X_n X_m|| < \epsilon/3$  and  $1/N < \epsilon/3$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m, n \geq N$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $||x_m x_n|| < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$||x_m - x_n|| = ||\phi(x_m) - \phi(x_n)||$$

$$\leq ||\phi(x_m) - X_m|| + ||X_m - X_n|| + ||X_n - \phi(x_n)||$$

$$< ||X_m - X_n|| + 1/m + 1/n$$

$$< \epsilon$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $X = [(x_n)]$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ X_n \to X \text{ as } n \to \infty$

$$||X_n - X|| \le ||X_n - \phi(x_n)|| + ||\phi(x_n) - X||$$
  
 $< ||\phi(x_n) - X|| + 1/n$   
 $\to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ 

**Proposition 7.3.17.** Let U be a normed space and V a Banach space. Then  $\mathcal{B}(U,V)$  is a Banach space.

```
Proof:
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(T_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathcal{B}(U,V)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $u \in U$ ,  $(T_n(u))$  is a Cauchy sequence in V.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $u \in U$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$

PROVE: 
$$\exists N. \forall m, n \geq N. ||T_m(u) - T_n(u)|| < \epsilon$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $u \neq 0$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||T_m T_n|| < \epsilon / ||u||$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $m, n \geq N$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $||T_m(u) T_n(u)|| < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$||T_m(u) - T_n(u)|| \le ||T_m - T_n|| ||u||$$
 (Proposition 7.2.11)

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Define  $T: U \to V$  by  $T(u) = \lim_{n \to \infty} T_n(u)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ T \in \mathcal{B}(U, V)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $x, y \in U$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in K$  we have  $T(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha T(x) + \beta T(y)$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in U$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\alpha, \beta \in K$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $T(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha T(x) + \beta T(y)$

Proof:

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . T is bounded.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . PICK N such that  $\forall n \geq N . ||T_n T|| < 1$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick B > 0 such that  $\forall x \in U . ||T_N(x)|| \leq B||x||$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in U$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ \|T(x)\| \le (B+1)\|x\|$

Proof:

$$||T(x)|| \le ||T_N(x) - T(x)|| + ||T(x)||$$
 (Triangle inequality)  
 $\le ||T_N - T||||x|| + ||T||||x||$  (Proposition 7.2.11)  
 $< ||x|| + B||x||$  ( $\langle 3 \rangle 1, \langle 3 \rangle 2$ )  
 $= (B+1)||x||$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ T_n \to T \text{ as } n \to \infty$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||T_m T_n|| < \epsilon/2$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $n \geq N$ Prove:  $||T_n - T|| < \epsilon$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $x \in U$  with ||x|| = 1
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $||T_n(x) T(x)|| < \epsilon/2$

PROOF: Let  $n \to \infty$  in  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

**Corollary 7.3.17.1.** For any normed space V over K, the space  $\mathcal{B}(V,K)$  is a Banach space.

**Theorem 7.3.18.** Let U be a normed space and V a Banach space. Let W be a subspace of U. Let  $T: W \to V$  be a continuous linear transformation. Then T has a unique extension to a continuous linear transformation  $\operatorname{cl} W \to V$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Define  $S: \operatorname{cl} W \to V$  by:  $S(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} T(x_n)$ , where  $(x_n)$  is any sequence in W that converges to x.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $x \in \operatorname{cl} W$ , there exists a sequence  $(x_n)$  in W that converges to x. PROOF: Theorem 7.1.43.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . If  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in W then  $(T(x_n))$  is Cauchy in V.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $T \neq 0$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in W.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick B > 0 such that  $\forall x \in W . ||T(x)|| \leq B||x||$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . PICK N such that  $\forall m, n \geq N . ||x_m x_n|| < \epsilon / ||T||$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $m, n \geq N$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \|T(x_m) T(x_n)\| < \epsilon$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. If  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  are sequences in W that converge to the same element in cl W then  $(T(x_n))$  and  $(T(y_n))$  have the same limit in V.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $T \neq 0$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $x_n \to l$  and  $y_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $T(x_n) \to a$  and  $T(y_n) \to b$  as  $n \to \infty$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $a \neq b$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $\epsilon = ||a b||$
    - (3)6. PICK N such that  $\forall n \geq N. \|x_n l\| < \epsilon/3 \|T\|$  and  $\forall n \geq N. \|y_n l\| < \epsilon/3 \|T\|$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \ \forall n \geq N. ||T(x_n) T(y_n)|| < 2\epsilon/3$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 8. \ \|a b\| \le 2\epsilon/3$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 9$ . This contradicts  $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . S extends T
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $w \in W$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $w \to w$  as  $n \to \infty$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $T(w) \to T(w)$  as  $n \to \infty$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . S(w) = T(w)
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . S is bounded.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \operatorname{cl} W$

PROVE:  $||S(x)|| \le ||T|| ||x||$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK a sequence  $(x_n)$  in W that converges to x.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $||T(x_n)|| \le ||T|| ||x_n||$  for all n.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \| S(x) \| \le \| T \| \| x \|$

PROOF: Taking the limit as  $n \to \infty$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . S is linear.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in \operatorname{cl} W$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in K$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK sequences  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  in W that converge to x and y.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $T(\alpha x_n + \beta y_n) = \alpha T(x_n) + \beta T(y_n)$  for all n.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $S(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha S(x) + \beta S(y)$

PROOF: Taking the limit as  $n \to \infty$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . S is unique.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: S' be a continuous linear extension of S defined on cl W.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in W$ Prove: S(x) = S'(x)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK a sequence  $(x_n)$  in W that converges to x.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $T(x_n) = S'(x_n) \to S'(x)$  as  $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ S'(x) = S(x)$

**Corollary 7.3.18.1.** Let U be a normed space and V a Banach space. Let W be a dense subspace of U. Let  $T:W\to V$  be a continuous linear transformation. Then T has a unique extension to a continuous linear transformation  $U\to V$ .

**Definition 7.3.19** (Functional). Let V be a normed space over K. A functional on V is a bounded linear mapping  $V \to K$ . The dual space of V is the space  $\mathcal{B}(V,K)$  of all functionals.

**Theorem 7.3.20** (Banach-Steinhaus Theorem). Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a family of bounded linear mappings from a Banach space X into a normed space Y. If, for every  $x \in X$ , there exists a constant  $M_x$  such that  $\forall T \in \mathcal{T}. ||T(x)|| \leq M_x$ , then there exists a constant M > 0 such that  $\forall T \in \mathcal{T}. ||T|| \leq M$ .

# Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction no such M exists.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , PICK  $T_n \in \mathcal{T}$  such that  $||T_n|| > n2^n$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , Pick  $x_n \in X$  such that  $||x_n|| = 1$  and  $||T_n(x_n)|| > n2^n$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,

$$\left\| \frac{1}{n} T_n \left( \frac{x_n}{2^n} \right) \right\| > 1 .$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For  $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , LET:  $y_{ij} = \frac{1}{i} T_i(\frac{x_j}{2^j})$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . For all  $j \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $y_{ij} \to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $j \in \mathbb{Z}_+$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick M such that  $\forall T \in \mathcal{T} . ||T(x_i/2^j)|| \leq M$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $i, ||y_{ij}|| \leq M/i$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. For any increasing sequence of positive integers  $(p_i)$ , we have  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_{p_i p_j} \to 0$  as  $i \to \infty$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(p_i)$  be an increasing sequence of positive integers.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $z = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{p_j}/2^{p_j}$

PROOF: This converges by Theorem 7.3.13.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK C such that  $\forall T \in \mathcal{T} . ||T(z)|| \leq C$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For all i,  $\|\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_{p_i p_j}\| \leq C/p_i$ .

PROOF: 
$$\left\|\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}y_{p_{i}p_{j}}\right\| = \left\|\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\frac{1}{p_{i}}T_{p_{i}}\left(\frac{x_{p_{j}}}{2^{p_{j}}}\right)\right\| \qquad (\langle 1\rangle 5)$$

$$= \frac{1}{p_{i}}\left\|T_{p_{i}}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\frac{x_{p_{j}}}{2^{p_{j}}}\right)\right\| \qquad (T_{p_{i}} \text{ continuous})$$

$$= \frac{1}{p_{i}}\left\|T_{p_{i}}(z)\right\| \qquad (\langle 2\rangle 2)$$

$$\leq \frac{C}{p_{i}} \qquad (\langle 2\rangle 3)$$

$$\langle 2\rangle 5. \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}y_{p_{i}p_{j}} \to 0 \text{ as } i \to \infty$$

$$\langle 1\rangle 8. \ y_{ii} \to 0 \text{ as } i \to \infty$$
PROOF: Diagonal Theorem,  $\langle 1\rangle 6$ ,  $\langle 1\rangle 7$ .
$$\langle 1\rangle 9. \ \text{Q.E.D.}$$

PROOF: Diagonal Theorem,  $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .

PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$  and  $\langle 1 \rangle 8$  form a contradiction.

#### 7.4 Contraction Mappings

**Definition 7.4.1** (Contraction Mapping). Let E be a normed space over K. Let  $A \subseteq E$ . A function  $f: A \to E$  is a contraction (mapping) iff there exists a real  $\alpha$  such that  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and

$$\forall x, y \in A. ||f(x) - f(y)|| \le \alpha ||x - y||.$$

**Proposition 7.4.2.** Contraction mappings are uniformly continuous.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: E be a normed space over K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $A \subseteq E$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $f: A \to E$  be a contraction mapping.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $\alpha$  such that  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and  $\forall x, y \in A . || f(x) f(y) || \le \alpha || x y ||$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $\delta = \epsilon / \alpha$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . For all  $x, y \in A$ , if  $||x y|| < \delta$  then  $||f(x) f(y)|| < \epsilon$ .

**Theorem 7.4.3** (Banach Fixed Point Theorem). Let E be a Banach space over K. Let F be a nonempty closed subset of E. Let  $f: F \to F$  be a contraction mapping. Then there exists a unique  $z \in F$  such that f(z) = z.

## Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK  $\alpha$  such that  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and

$$\forall x, y \in F. ||f(x) - f(y)|| \le \alpha ||x - y||.$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $x_0 \in F$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3$$
. For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  
LET:  $x_n = f^n(x_0)$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  we have  $||x_{n+1} x_n|| \le \alpha^n ||x_1 x_0||$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  with m < n we have  $||x_n x_m|| < \alpha^m ||x_1 x_0||/(1-\alpha)$ .

$$||x_{n} - x_{m}|| \le ||x_{n} - x_{n-1}|| + ||x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}|| + \dots + ||x_{m+1} - x_{m}|| \quad \text{(Triangle inequality)}$$

$$\le (\alpha^{n-1} + \alpha^{n-2} + \dots + \alpha^{m}) ||x_{1} - x_{0}||$$

$$< \frac{||x_{1} - x_{0}||}{1 - \alpha} \alpha^{m}$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \text{ Let: } \epsilon > 0$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK N such that  $\alpha^N ||x_1 x_0||/(1 \alpha) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . For all  $m, n \geq N$ , we have  $||x_n x_m|| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $z = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ f(z) = z$

Proof:

$$f(z) = f\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n\right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) \qquad \text{(Proposition 7.4.2)}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n+1}$$

$$= z$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . For any  $w \in F$ , if f(w) = w then w = z.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $w \in F$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: f(w) = w
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \|z w\| \le \alpha \|z w\|$

PROOF: 
$$||z - w|| = ||f(z) - f(w)|| \le \alpha ||z - w||$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \|z w\| = 0$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ z = w$

## Chapter 8

# Inner Product Spaces

**Definition 8.0.1** (Inner Product Space). Let E be a complex vector space. An inner product on E is a function  $\langle \ , \ \rangle : E^2 \to \mathbb{C}$  such that, for all  $x,y,z \in E$  and  $\alpha,\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ , we have:

- 1.  $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$
- 2.  $\langle \alpha x + \beta y, z \rangle = \alpha \langle x, z \rangle + \beta \langle y, z \rangle$
- 3.  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$
- 4. If  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$  then x = 0

An inner product space consists of a complex vector space V and an inner product on V.

**Proposition 8.0.2.** Let E be an inner product space. For any  $x \in E$ , we have  $\langle x, x \rangle$  is real.

Proof: Since  $\langle x, x \rangle = \overline{\langle x, x \rangle}$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 8.0.3.

$$\langle x,\alpha y+\beta z\rangle=\overline{\alpha}\langle x,y\rangle+\overline{\beta}\langle x,z\rangle$$

Proposition 8.0.4.

$$\langle 0, y \rangle = \langle x, 0 \rangle = 0$$

**Proposition 8.0.5.** The function  $\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \overline{y_i}$  is an inner product on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

**Proposition 8.0.6.** The function  $\langle (x_n), (y_n) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \overline{y_i}$  is an inner product on  $l^2$ .

**Proposition 8.0.7.** The function  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx$  is an inner product on C([a, b]).

**Proposition 8.0.8.** Let p > 1 and  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^N$ . Let  $L^p(\Omega)$  be the set of all functions  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  such that  $|f|^p$  is Lebesgue integrable.

The function  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx$  is an inner product on  $L^2(\Omega)$ .

**Proposition 8.0.9.** Let  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  be inner product spaces. Then the function  $\langle (e_1, e_2), (e'_1, e'_2) \rangle = \langle e_1, e'_1 \rangle + \langle e_2, e'_2 \rangle$  is an inner product on  $E_1 \times E_2$ .

**Definition 8.0.10** (Norm). In an inner product space, define  $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ .

Proposition 8.0.11 (Schwarz's Inequality). In any inner product space,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| ||y||$$
.

Equality holds iff x and y are linearly dependent.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $y \neq 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ |\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| ||y||$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  we have  $\langle x, x \rangle + \overline{\alpha} \langle x, y \rangle + \alpha \langle y, x \rangle + |\alpha|^2 \langle y, y \rangle$ PROOF: The right-hand side is  $\langle x + \alpha y, x + \alpha y \rangle$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle |\langle x, y \rangle|^2 \ge 0$

Proof: Taking  $\alpha = -\langle x, x \rangle / \langle y, y \rangle$  in  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $|\langle x, y \rangle| = ||x|| ||y||$  then x and y are linearly dependent.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $|\langle x, y \rangle| = ||x|| ||y||$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \langle x, y \rangle \langle y, x \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \langle y, y \rangle x \langle x, x \rangle y = 0$

PROOF:

$$\langle \langle y, y \rangle x - \langle x, y \rangle y, \langle y, y \rangle x - \langle x, y \rangle y \rangle = \langle y, y \rangle^2 \langle x, x \rangle - \langle y, y \rangle \langle y, x \rangle \langle x, y \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle \langle y, y \rangle \langle y, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle \langle y, x \rangle = 0$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If x and y are linearly dependent then  $|\langle x, y \rangle| = ||x|| ||y||$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: x and y are linearly dependent.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y = \alpha x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ |\langle x, y \rangle| = ||x|| ||y||$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle x, y \rangle| &= |\langle x, \alpha x \rangle| \\ &= |\alpha| |\langle x, x \rangle| \\ &= |\alpha| ||x||^2 \\ &= ||x|| ||\alpha x|| \\ &= ||x|| ||y|| \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 8.0.11.1 (Triangle Inequality). In any inner product space,

$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$$

$$||x + y||^{2} = \langle x + y, x + y \rangle$$

$$= \langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle$$

$$\leq \langle x, x \rangle + 2|\langle x, y \rangle| + \langle y, y \rangle$$

$$\leq ||x||^{2} + 2||x|| ||y|| + ||y||^{2} \qquad \text{(Schwarz's Inequality)}$$

$$= (||x|| + ||y||)^{2} \qquad \Box$$

Corollary 8.0.11.2. The norm in an inner product space is a norm.

**Theorem 8.0.12** (Parallelogram Law). In any inner product space,

$$||x + y||^2 + ||x - y||^2 = 2(||x||^2 + ||y||^2)$$

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \|x+y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \langle x,y \rangle + \langle y,x \rangle + \|y\|^2 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \|x-y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \langle x,y \rangle - \langle y,x \rangle + \|y\|^2 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \mathrm{Q.E.D.} \end{array}$$

Proof: Add  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$  and  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .

**Proposition 8.0.13.** Let E be a normed space over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then there exists an inner product on E that induces the norm of E iff E satisfies the Parallelogram Law.

Proof: If E satisfies the parallelogram law, define

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{4} (\|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2 + i\|x + iy\|^2 - i\|x - iy\|^2)$$
.

**Definition 8.0.14** (Orthogonal). Vectors x and y in an inner product space are *orthogonal*,  $x \perp y$ , iff  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ .

**Theorem 8.0.15** (Pythagorean Formula). If x and y are orthogonal then

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

**Definition 8.0.16** (Weak Convergence). Let E be an inner product space. Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in E and  $l \in E$ . Then  $(x_n)$  weakly converges to l,  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} l$  as  $n \to \infty$ , iff  $\forall y \in E. \langle x_n, y \rangle \to \langle l, y \rangle$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

**Proposition 8.0.17.** In any inner product space E, the inner product  $\langle \ , \ \rangle : E^2 \to \mathbb{C}$  is continuous.

PROOF:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $x_n \to x$  and  $y_n \to y$  in  $E$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \langle x_n, y_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle$$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} |\langle x_n, y_n \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle| &\leq |\langle x_n, y_n \rangle - \langle x_n, y \rangle| + |\langle x_n, y \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle| \\ &= |\langle x_n, y_n - y \rangle| + |\langle x_n - x, y \rangle| \\ &\leq \|x_n\| \|y_n - y\| + \|x_n - x\| \|y\| \qquad \qquad \text{(Schwarz's Inequality)} \\ &\rightarrow 0 \end{split}$$

using the fact that  $(x_n)$  is bounded.

**Theorem 8.0.18.**  $x_n \to l$  if and only if  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} l$  and  $||x_n|| \to ||x||$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $x_n \to l$  then  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} l$  and  $||x_n|| \to ||l||$ .

PROOF: Easy using the fact that the inner product is continuous.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} l$  and  $||x_n|| \to ||l||$  then  $x_n \to l$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Assume:  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} l$  and  $||x_n|| \to ||l||$   
 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\langle x_n, l \rangle \to ||l||^2$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \|x_n - l\| \to 0$ 

Proof:

$$||x_n - l||^2 = \langle x_n - l, x_n - l \rangle$$

$$= \langle x_n, x_n \rangle - \langle x_n, l \rangle - \langle l, x_n \rangle + \langle l, l \rangle$$

$$= ||x_n||^2 - \langle x_n, l \rangle - \overline{\langle x_n, l \rangle} + ||l||^2$$

$$\to ||l||^2 - 2||l||^2 + ||l||^2$$

$$= 0$$

**Theorem 8.0.19.** Let S be a subset of an inner product space E such that span S is dense in E. If  $(x_n)$  is a bounded sequence in E and, for all  $y \in S$ , we have  $\langle x_n, y \rangle \to \langle x, y \rangle$  then  $x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} x$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $y \in \operatorname{span} S$ , we have  $\langle x_n, y \rangle \to \langle x, y \rangle$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $z \in E$ 

Prove:  $\langle x_n, z \rangle \to \langle x, z \rangle$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$ 

PROVE: There exists  $n_0$  such that  $\forall n \geq n_0 . |\langle x_n, z \rangle - \langle x, z \rangle| < \epsilon$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK M > 0 such that  $||x|| \leq M$  and  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ . ||x_n|| \leq M$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Pick  $y_0 \in \operatorname{span} S$  such that  $||z y_0|| < \epsilon/3M$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that, for all  $n \geq n_0$ , we have  $|\langle x_n, y_0 \rangle \langle x, y_0 \rangle| < \epsilon/3$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Let:  $n \geq n_0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ |\langle x_n, z \rangle \langle x, z \rangle| < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} |\langle x_n, z \rangle - \langle x, z \rangle| &\leq |\langle x_n, z \rangle - \langle x_n, y_0 \rangle| + |\langle x_n, y_0 \rangle - \langle x, y_0 \rangle| + |\langle x, y_0 \rangle - \langle x, z \rangle| \\ &< \|x_n\| \|z - y_0\| + \epsilon/3 + \|x\| \|y_0 - z\| \\ &< M(\epsilon/3M) + \epsilon/3 + M(\epsilon/3M) \\ &= \epsilon \end{split}$$

#### 8.1 Orthonormal Bases

**Definition 8.1.1** (Orthogonal). Let V be an inner product space and  $S \subseteq V$ . Then S is *orthogonal* iff any two distinct elements of S are orthogonal.

**Definition 8.1.2** (Orthonormal). Let V be an inner product space and  $S \subseteq V$ . Then S is orthonormal iff it is orthogonal and  $\forall x \in S. ||x|| = 1$ .

**Proposition 8.1.3.** Orthonormal sets are linearly independent.

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: S be orthonormal

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\alpha_1 e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n e_n = 0$  where  $e_1, \dots, e_n \in S$   $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $|\alpha_1|^2 + \cdots + |\alpha_n|^2 = 0$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ |\alpha_1|^2 + \dots + |\alpha_n|^2 = 0$$

Proof:

$$0 = \sum_{m=1}^{n} \langle 0, \alpha_m e_m \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{n} \langle \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_k e_k, \alpha_m e_m \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_k \overline{\alpha_m} \langle e_k, e_m \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\alpha_k|^2$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0$$

**Proposition 8.1.4.** In  $l^2$ , let  $e_n$  be the sequence whose nth element is 1 and whose other elements are 0. Then  $\{e_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$  is orthonormal.

**Proposition 8.1.5.** In  $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$ , let  $\phi_n(x) = e^{inx}/\sqrt{2\pi}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\{\phi_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}\ is\ orthonormal.$ 

**Definition 8.1.6** (Legendre Polynomials). The Legendre polynomials  $P_n \in$  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  are defined by

$$P_0 = 1$$

$$P_n = \frac{1}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^2 - 1)^n$$

**Proposition 8.1.7.** Let  $P_n$  be the nth Legendre polynomial. Then  $\{P_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is orthogonal in  $L^2([-1,1])$ .

**Definition 8.1.8** (Hermite Polynomial). The Hermite polynomials  $H_n \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  are defined by

$$H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} e^{-x^2}$$
.

**Proposition 8.1.9.** Let  $H_n$  be the nth Hermite polynomial. Then  $\{e^{-x^2/2}H_n(x)\mid$  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is orthogonal in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ .

**Theorem 8.1.10.** Let V be an inner product space. If  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$  are orthogonal then

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \|x_i\|^2.$$

**Theorem 8.1.11** (Bessel's Equality). Let V be an inner product space. Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$  be orthonormal. Let  $x \in V$ . Then

$$\left\| x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k \right\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, x_k \rangle|^2.$$

PROOF:

PROOF: 
$$\left\| x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k \right\|^2 = \left\langle x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k, x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k \right\rangle$$

$$= \langle x, x \rangle - \left\langle x, \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k \right\rangle - \left\langle \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k, x \right\rangle$$

$$+ \left\langle \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k, \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle x_k \right\rangle$$

$$= \langle x, x \rangle - 2 \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle x, x_k \rangle \langle x_k, x \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \langle x, x_i \rangle \langle x_j, x \rangle \langle x_i, x_j \rangle$$

$$= \|x\|^2 - 2 \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, x_k \rangle|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \langle x, x_i \rangle \langle x_i, x \rangle$$

$$= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, x_k \rangle|^2$$

**Corollary 8.1.11.1** (Bessel's Inequality). Let V be an inner product space. Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$  be orthonormal. Let  $x \in E$ . Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} |\langle x, x_k \rangle|^2 \le ||x||^2.$$

Corollary 8.1.11.2. Orthonormal sequences are weakly convergent to 0.

PROOF: Let  $(x_n)$  be an orthonormal sequence. Taking the limit in Bessel's inequality we have  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, x_k \rangle|^2 \leq ||x||^2 < \infty$  and so  $\langle x, x_k \rangle \to 0$  as  $k \to \infty$ .

**Corollary 8.1.11.3** (Generalized Fourier Series). Let V be an inner product space. Let  $(e_n)$  be an orthonormal sequence in V. For any  $x \in V$ , the generalized Fourier series of x is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, e_n \rangle e_n ,$$

and  $\langle x, e_n \rangle$  is called the nth generalized Fourier coefficient of x with respect to  $(e_n)$ . We have  $(\langle x, e_n \rangle e_n)_n \in l^2$ .

**Definition 8.1.12** (Complete Orthonormal Sequence). Let E be an inner product space. Let  $(x_n)$  be an orthonormal sequence in E. Then  $(x_n)$  is *complete* iff, for all  $x \in E$ , we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n = x .$$

## Chapter 9

# Hilbert Spaces

**Definition 9.0.1** (Hilbert Space). A *Hilbert space* is a complete inner product space.

**Proposition 9.0.2.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}^n$  is a Hilbert space.

**Proposition 9.0.3.**  $l^2$  is a Hilbert space.

**Proposition 9.0.4.**  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  is a Hilbert space.

**Proposition 9.0.5.**  $L^2([a,b])$  is a Hilbert space.

**Proposition 9.0.6.** Let  $\rho$  be a measurable function on [a,b] such that  $\rho(x) > 0$  almost everywhere. Let  $L^{2\rho}([a,b])$  be the set of all measurable functions  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{C}$  such that

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)|^{2} \rho(x) dx < \infty .$$

Define an inner product on  $L^{2\rho}([a,b])$  by

$$\langle f,g\rangle = \int_a^b f(x)\overline{g(x)}\rho(x)dx \ .$$

Then  $L^{2\rho}([a,b])$  is a Hilbert space.

**Proposition 9.0.7.** Let m and N be positive integers. Let  $\Omega$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Let  $\tilde{H}^m(\Omega)$  be the set of all  $f \in \mathcal{C}^m(\Omega)$  such that, for every  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_N) \in \mathbb{Z}^N_+$  with  $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_N \leq m$ , we have

$$D^{\alpha} f := \frac{\partial^{|\alpha|} f}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1} \partial x_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots \partial x_N^{\alpha_N}} \in L^2(\Omega) .$$

Define an inner product on  $\tilde{H}^m(\Omega)$  by

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_{\Omega} \sum_{\alpha} D^{\alpha} f \overline{D^{\alpha} g} .$$

Let  $H^m(\Omega)$  be the completion of  $\tilde{H}^m(\Omega)$ . Then  $H^m(\Omega)$  is a Hilbert space.

**Theorem 9.0.8.** Weakly convergent sequences in a Hilbert space are bounded.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: H be a Hilbert space.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(x_n)$  be a weakly convergent sequence in H.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , Let:  $f_n: H \to \mathbb{C}, f_n(x) = \langle x, x_n \rangle$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $f_n$  is a bounded linear functional.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For every  $x \in H$ , the sequence  $(f_n(x))$  is bounded.

Proof: Since it converges.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Pick M > 0 such that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , we have  $||f_n|| \leq M$ . PROOF: Banach-Steinhaus Theorem,  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+. ||f_n|| = ||x_n||$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $||f_n|| \leq ||x_n||$ 

PROOF: Since for all  $x \in H$  we have  $|f_n(x)| = |\langle x, x_n \rangle| \le ||x|| ||x_n||$  by Schwarz's Inequality.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $||x_n|| \leq ||f_n||$ 

PROOF: Since  $||x_n||^2 = |\langle x_n, x_n \rangle| = |f_n(x_n)| \le ||f_n|| ||x_n||$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+. ||x_n|| \leq M$ 

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ 

**Theorem 9.0.9.** Let H be a Hilbert space. Let  $(x_n)$  be an orthonormal sequence in H and let  $(\alpha_n)$  be a sequence of complex numbers. Then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n x_n$  converges in H if and only if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n|$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ , in which case

$$\left\| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n x_n \right\|^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n|^2.$$

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For m > k > 0 we have

$$\left\| \sum_{n=k}^{m} \alpha_n x_n \right\|^2 = \sum_{n=k}^{m} |\alpha_n|^2.$$

PROOF: Theorem 8.1.10.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n|^2 < \infty$  then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n x_n$  converges.  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . ASSUME:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n|^2 < \infty$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $(\sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n x_n)_m$  is Cauchy. PROOF: From  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n x_n$  converges.  $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ If } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n x_n$  converges then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n|^2 < \infty$ .

PROOF: From  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n|^2 < \infty$  then

$$\left\| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n x_n \right\|^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n|^2.$$

Proof: From  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .

**Proposition 9.0.10.** Every complete orthonormal sequence in a Hilbert space is a basis.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: E be an inner product space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(e_n)$  be a complete orthonormal sequence in E.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $x \in E$ , there exists a sequence  $(\alpha_n)$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  such that  $x = \sum_n \alpha_n e_n$ . PROOF: Immediate from  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If  $\sum_{n} \alpha_{n} e_{n} = \sum_{n} \beta_{n} e_{n}$  then  $\alpha_{n} = \beta_{n}$  for all n.  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x = \sum_{n} \alpha_{n} e_{n} = \sum_{n} \beta_{n} e_{n}$   $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\sum_{n} |\alpha_{n} \beta_{n}|^{2} = 0$

Proof:

$$0 = \|x - x\|^{2}$$

$$= \left\| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_{n} e_{n} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \beta_{n} e_{n} \right\|^{2}$$

$$= \left\| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\alpha_{n} - \beta_{n}) e_{n} \right\|^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_{n} - \beta_{n}|^{2}$$
(Theorem 9.0.9)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\alpha_n = \beta_n$  for all n.

**Theorem 9.0.11.** An orthonormal sequence  $(x_n)$  in a Hilbert space H is complete if and only if, for all  $x \in H$ , if  $\forall n.\langle x, x_n \rangle = 0$  then x = 0.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $(x_n)$  is complete then, for all  $x \in H$ , if  $\forall n. \langle x, x_n \rangle = 0$  then x = 0.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $(x_n)$  is complete.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in H$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $\forall n. \langle x, x_n \rangle = 0$  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n = 0$  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If, for all  $x \in H$ , if  $\forall n. \langle x, x_n \rangle = 0$  then x = 0, then  $(x_n)$  is complete.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: For all  $x \in H$ , if  $\forall n. \langle x, x_n \rangle = 0$ , then x = 0.  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y = x \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n$   $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $n, \langle y, x_n \rangle = 0$

  - - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ \langle y, x_n \rangle = 0$

$$\langle y, x_n \rangle = \left\langle x - \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_m \rangle x_m, x_n \right\rangle$$
$$= \langle x, x_n \rangle - \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_m \rangle \langle x_m, x_n \rangle$$
$$= \langle x, x_n \rangle - \langle x, x_n \rangle$$
$$= 0$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y = 0$$
  
 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n$ 

**Theorem 9.0.12** (Parseval's Formula). Let H be a Hilbert space. Let  $(x_n)$  be an orthonormal sequence in H. Then  $(x_n)$  is complete if and only if, for all  $x \in H$ ,

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $(x_n)$  is complete then for all  $x \in H$  we have  $||x||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $(x_n)$  is complete.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in H$   $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $||x||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2$ PROOF:

$$||x||^2 = \left\| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n \right\|^2$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2$$
(Theorem 9.0.9)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If, for all  $x \in H$ , we have  $||x||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2$ , then  $(x_n)$  is complete.  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: For all  $x \in H$ , we have  $||x||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, x_n \rangle|^2$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. Let:  $x \in H$   
 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, x_n \rangle x_n$ 

**Proposition 9.0.13.** For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $\pi_n(x) = e^{inx}/\sqrt{2\pi}$ . Then  $\{\pi_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a complete orthonormal set in  $L^2([-\pi,\pi])$ .

TODO

**Proposition 9.0.14.**  $B = \{1/\sqrt{2\pi}\} \cup \{\cos nx/\sqrt{\pi} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\} \cup \{\sin nx/\sqrt{$  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  is a complete orthonormal set in  $L^2([-\pi, \pi])$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $f \in B$  we have ||f|| = 1 $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \|1/\sqrt{2\pi}\| = 1$ 

$$||1/\sqrt{2\pi}|| = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dx/2\pi$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  we have  $\|\cos nx/\sqrt{\pi}\| = 1$  Proof:

$$\|\cos nx/\sqrt{\pi}\| = 1/\pi \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2 nx \, dx$$

$$= 1/2\pi \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos 2nx + 1) dx$$

$$= 1/2\pi \left[ 1/2n \sin 2nx + x \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$

$$= (1/2\pi)(2\pi)$$

$$= 1$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  we have  $\|\sin nx/\sqrt{\pi}\| = 1$  PROOF:

$$\|\sin nx/\sqrt{\pi}\| = 1/\pi \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2 nx \, dx$$

$$= -1/2\pi \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos 2nx - 1) dx$$

$$= -1/2\pi \left[ 1/2n \sin 2nx - x \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$

$$= (-1/2\pi)(-2\pi)$$

$$= 1$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $f,g \in B$  with  $f \neq g$  we have  $\langle f,g \rangle = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \langle 1, \cos nx \rangle = 0$ PROOF:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos nx \, dx = \left[1/n \sin nx\right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\langle 1, \sin nx \rangle = 0$ 

PROOF:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin nx \, dx = \left[ -1/n \cos nx \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= -1/n \cos n\pi + 1/n \cos n\pi$$
$$= 0$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . If  $m \neq n$  then  $\langle \cos mx, \cos nx \rangle = 0$ 

PROOF: 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos mx \cos nx \, dx = 1/2 \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos(n+m)x - \cos(n-m)x) dx$$
$$= 1/2 \left[ \frac{1}{n+m} \sin(n+m)x - \frac{1}{n-m} \sin(n-m)x \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= 0$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \langle \cos mx, \sin nx \rangle = 0$ 

PROOF: 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos mx \sin nx \, dx = 1/2 \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\sin(n+m)x - \sin(n-m)x) dx$$
$$= 1/2 \left[ -\frac{1}{n+m} \cos(n+m)x + \frac{1}{n-m} \cos(n-m)x \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= 0$$
 (cos is odd)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . If  $m \neq n$  then  $\langle \sin mx, \sin nx \rangle = 0$ 

PROOF:  

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin mx \sin nx \, dx = 1/2 \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos(n-m)x - \cos(n+m)x) dx$$

$$= 1/2 \left[ \frac{1}{n-m} \sin(n-m)x - \frac{1}{n+m} \sin(n+m)x \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$  For all  $f \in L^2([-\pi,\pi]),$  if  $\forall g \in B. \langle f,g \rangle = 0$  then f=0  $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Let:  $f \in L^2([-\pi,\pi])$ 

  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall g \in B. \langle f, g \rangle = 0$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\langle f, e^{inx} \rangle = 0$ PROOF: Since  $e^{inx} = \cos nx + i \sin nx$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . f = 0

PROOF: From Proposition 9.0.13.

**Proposition 9.0.15.**  $\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}\} \cup \{\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cos nx \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$  is a complete orthonormal set in  $L^{2}([0,\pi])$ .

**Proposition 9.0.16.**  $\{\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\sin nx \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$  is a complete orthonormal set in  $L^2([0,\pi]).$ 

**Definition 9.0.17** (Signum). The *signum* function  $\operatorname{sgn}: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is defined by

$$\operatorname{sgn} x = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

**Definition 9.0.18** (Rademacher Functions). The Rademarcher functions R:  $\mathbb{N} \times [0,1] \to \{-1,0,1\}$  are defined by

$$R(m,x) = \operatorname{sgn}(\sin(2^m \pi x)) .$$

**Proposition 9.0.19.** The Rademacher functios  $\{R(m,-) \mid m \in \mathbb{N}\}$  are orthonormal in  $L^2([0,1])$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \forall m \in \mathbb{N}. ||R(m, -)|| = 1$ 

PROOF:  $\int_0^1 \operatorname{sgn}(\sin(2^m \pi x))^2 dx = 1$  since the integrand is 1 except for finitely many points in [0,1].

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Given natural numbers  $m \neq n$ , we have  $\langle R(m,-), R(n,-) \rangle = 0$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Given reals a, b and a natural number m, we have  $\int_a^b R(m,x)dx = 0$  whenever  $2^m(b-a)$  is an even integer.

PROOF: If m > 0, or if m = 0 and b - a is an even integer, then the regions where R(m, x) = 1 are isometric with the regions where R(m, x) = -1.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: m and n be natural numbers with n < m.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \langle R(m,-), R(n,-) \rangle = 0$

Proof:

$$\int_{0}^{1} R(m,x)R(n,x)dx = \sum_{k=1}^{2^{n}} \int_{\frac{k-1}{2^{n}}}^{\frac{k}{2^{n}}} R(m,x)R(n,x)dx$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{2^{n}} (-i)^{k+1} \int_{\frac{k-1}{2^{n}}}^{\frac{k}{2^{n}}} R(m,x)dx$$

$$= 0 \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 1, 2^{m} \left(\frac{k}{2^{n}} - \frac{k-1}{2^{n}}\right) = 2^{m-n} \text{ is an even integer})$$

**Proposition 9.0.20.** The set of Rademacher functions is not complete.

Proof:

⟨1⟩1. Define 
$$f:[0,1]\to\mathbb{C}$$
 by  $f(x)=0$  if  $0\le x<1/4,\ f(x)=1$  if  $1/4\le x\le 3/4,\ f(x)=0$  if  $3/4< x\le 1.$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ f \in L^2([0,1])$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \langle R(0, -), f \rangle = 1/2$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4$$
.  $\langle R(m, -), f \rangle = 0$  for  $m \ge 1$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ f \neq 1/2R(0,-)$$

**Definition 9.0.21** (Walsh Functions). Define the Walsh functions  $W: \mathbb{N} \times [0,1] \to \{-1,0,1\}$  as follows. Given  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $m = \sum_{k=1}^{n} 2^{k-1} a_k$  where each  $a_k$  is either 0 or 1. Then

$$W(m,x) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} R(k,x)^{a_k}$$
.

**Proposition 9.0.22.** The set of Walsh functions  $\{W(m,-) \mid m \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is a compete orthonormal set.

TODO