

# Linear Analysis

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## Course schedule

Normed and Banach spaces. Linear mappings, continuity, boundedness, and norms. Finite-dimensional normed spaces. [4]

The Baire category theorem. The principle of uniform boundedness, the closed graph theorem and the inversion theorem; other applications. [5]

The normality of compact Hausdorff spaces. Urysohn's lemma and Tietze's extension theorem. Spaces of continuous functions. The Stone–Weierstrass theorem and applications. Equicontinuity: the Ascoli–Arzelá theorem. [5]

Inner product spaces and Hilbert spaces; examples and elementary properties. Orthonormal systems, and the orthogonalization process. Bessel's inequality, the Parseval equation, and the Riesz–Fischer theorem. Duality; the self duality of Hilbert space. [5]

Bounded linear operations, invariant subspaces, eigenvectors; the spectrum and resolvent set. Compact operators on Hilbert space; discreteness of spectrum. Spectral theorem for compact Hermitian operators. [5]

## Recommended books

B. Bollobas *Linear Analysis*. Cambridge University Press 1999.

G.J.O. Jameson *Topology and Normed Spaces*. Chapman and Hall 1974.

G. Allan *Introduction to Banach Spaces and Algebras*. Oxford University Press 2010.

W. Rudin *Real and Complex Analysis*. McGraw–Hill International Edition 1987.

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# 1 Normed spaces and bounded linear maps

## 1.1 Definitions and examples

Let  $X$  be a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . For ease of notation and discussion, we will sometimes just take our scalars to be in  $\mathbb{R}$ , although the statement may be easily generalised to  $\mathbb{C}$ -vector spaces.

**Definition** Norm

A norm on  $X$  is a function  $\|\cdot\|: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

- (i)  $\|x\| \geq 0$  for all  $x \in X$ , with  $\|x\| = 0$  iff  $x = 0$
- (ii)  $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$  for all  $x \in X$  and any scalar  $\lambda$
- (iii)  $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$  for all  $x, y \in X$

**Definition** Normed space

A normed space is a pair  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  where  $X$  is a vector space and  $\|\cdot\|$  is a norm on  $X$ .

**Example** Some finite-dimensional normed spaces

- (1)  $\ell_2^n = (\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_2)$  or  $(\mathbb{C}^n, \|\cdot\|_2)$ , where the norm is given by

$$\|x\|_2 = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2}, \quad x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

This is called the  $\ell_2$ -norm or euclidean norm.

(i),(ii) are easy to check, whereas (iii) follows from Cauchy-Schwarz.

- (2)  $\ell_1^n = (\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_1)$  where  $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$  (called the  $\ell_1$ -norm)

- (3)  $\ell_\infty^n = (\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_\infty)$  where  $\|x\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i|$  (called the  $\ell_\infty$ -norm or the sup-norm)

Given a normed space  $X$ , its norm  $\|\cdot\|$  induces a metric on  $X$ :

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$$

Indeed,  $d$  is a metric:

- $d(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $x, y \in X$ , with  $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x - y = 0 \iff x = y$
- $d(x, y) = \|x - y\| = \|y - x\| = d(y, x)$
- $d(x, z) = \|x - z\| \leq \|x - y\| + \|y - z\| = d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

This metric, in turn, induces a topology on  $X$ , called the *norm topology*. This allows us talk about open/closed sets, convergence, and continuity, as we illustrate in the following examples.

**Example**

The algebraic operations are continuous:

- if  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $y_n \rightarrow y$  in  $X$ , then  $x_n + y_n \rightarrow x + y$
- if  $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $X$  and  $\lambda_n \rightarrow \lambda$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\lambda_n x_n \rightarrow \lambda x$

**Example**

The norm  $\|\cdot\|: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous: by the triangle inequality, we have

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

so  $\|\cdot\|$  is, in fact, Lipschitz.

**Definition** Banach space

A Banach space is a complete normed space, i.e., a normed space that is complete in its norm topology.

**Example**

$\ell_2^n, \ell_1^n, \ell_\infty^n$  are complete: for any of these spaces,

- $x^{(k)} \rightarrow x \iff x_i^{(k)} \rightarrow x_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$
- $(x_i^{(k)})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy  $\iff (x_i^{(k)})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$

In a normed space, a useful object is the *unit ball*

$$B_X := \{x \in X : \|x\| \leq 1\}$$

**Remarks**

- $B_X$  defines a norm on  $X$ :

$$\|x\| = \inf\{t \geq 0 : x \in tB_X\}$$

- $B_X$  is symmetric ( $x \in B_X \implies -x \in B_X$ ), convex, and closed
- If  $B \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a closed, convex, symmetric, bounded neighbourhood of 0, then  $B$  is the unit ball of  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$  for some norm  $\|\cdot\|$
- ‘Geometry of Banach spaces’

Previously, we gave  $\ell_2, \ell_1, \ell_\infty$  as examples of finite-dimensional normed spaces. More generally, we have the following family of examples

**Example**

(4)  $\ell_p^n = (\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_p)$  for  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , where  $\|x\|_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$  (called the  $\ell_p$ -norm)

Again, (i) and (ii) are easy to check, whereas (iii) is not obvious.<sup>1</sup>

Now, let  $S$  denote the set of all scalar sequences. This is a vector spaces under the coordinate operations  $(x_n) + (y_n) = (x_n + y_n)$  and  $\lambda(x_n) = (\lambda x_n)$ .

**Example Sequence spaces**

$$(5) \quad \ell_1 = \left\{ (x_n) \in S : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n| < \infty \right\}, \quad \|(x_n)\|_1 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n| \quad (\ell_1\text{-norm})$$

(i) and (ii): easy to check.

(iii): Given  $(x_n), (y_n) \in \ell_1$ , we have  $|x_n + y_n| \leq |x_n| + |y_n|$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Summing over all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we deduce that  $(x_n) + (y_n) \in \ell_1$  and  $\|(x_n) + (y_n)\|_1 \leq \|(x_n)\|_1 + \|(y_n)\|_1$ .

Hence,  $\ell_1$  is a subspace of  $S$  and  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is a norm on  $\ell_1$ .

$$(6) \quad \ell_2 = \left\{ (x_n) \in S : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^2 < \infty \right\}, \quad \|(x_n)\|_2 = \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^2 \right)^{1/2} \quad (\ell_2\text{-norm})$$

(i) and (ii): easy to check.

(iii): Given  $(x_n), (y_n) \in \ell_2$ , the triangle inequality in  $\ell_2^N$  gives us

$$\left( \sum_{k=1}^N |x_k + y_k|^2 \right)^{1/2} \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^N |x_k|^2 \right)^{1/2} + \left( \sum_{k=1}^N |y_k|^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

Taking  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , we get  $(x_n) + (y_n) \in \ell_2$  and  $\|(x_n) + (y_n)\|_2 \leq \|(x_n)\|_2 + \|(y_n)\|_2$

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<sup>1</sup>We will return to this later in the next subsection.

More generally, for  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , the set

$$\ell_p = \left\{ (x_n) \in S : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p < \infty \right\}$$

is a subspace of  $S$ , and

$$\| (x_n) \|_p = \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p} \quad (\ell_p\text{-norm})$$

is a norm on  $\ell_p$ . [(iii) follows from the triangle inequality on  $\ell_p^n$ , which we will see later.]

**Example More sequence spaces**

$$(7) \quad \ell_\infty = \{ (x_n) \in S : \exists M \geq 0 \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ |x_n| \leq M \}, \quad \| (x_n) \|_\infty = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x_n| \quad (\ell_\infty\text{-norm})$$

(i) and (ii): easy to check.

(iii): Given  $x = (x_n), y = (y_n) \in \ell_\infty$ ,

$$|x_n + y_n| \leq |x_n| + |y_n| \leq \|x\|_\infty + \|y\|_\infty \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

so  $x + y \in \ell_\infty$  and  $\|x + y\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_\infty + \|y\|_\infty$ .

$$(8) \quad c_0 = \{ (x_n) \in S : x_n \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \}$$

$$c = \{ (x_n) \in S : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n \text{ exists} \}$$

Both  $c_0$  and  $c$  are subspaces of  $\ell_\infty$  and are hence normed spaces in the  $\ell_\infty$ -norm.

## 1.2 Inequalities of Minkowski and Hölder

Recall that a function  $f: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is *convex* if

$$f((1-t)x + ty) \leq (1-t)f(x) + tf(y) \quad \forall x, y \in (0, \infty) \ \forall t \in [0, 1]$$

and *concave* if the above holds with  $\leq$  replaced by  $\geq$ .

**Lemma 1.1**

Let  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . Then the map

$$\begin{aligned} (0, \infty) &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\mapsto x^p \end{aligned}$$

is convex.

*Proof.* Fix  $y > 0, t \in [0, 1]$ , and define

$$g(x) = [(1-t)x + ty]^p - [(1-t)x^p + ty^p], \quad x > 0.$$

Differentiating, we get

$$g'(x) = p(1-t)[(1-t)x + ty]^{p-1} - p(1-t)x^{p-1}.$$

Observe that  $0 < x < y \implies g'(x) \geq 0$  and that  $x > y \implies g'(x) \leq 0$ . By the MVT, we deduce that  $g(x) \leq g(y) = 0$  for all  $x \in (0, \infty)$ .  $\blacksquare$

**Theorem 1.2** Minkowski's inequality

Let  $1 \leq p < \infty, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . For  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\|x + y\|_p \leq \|x\|_p + \|y\|_p.$$

**Remark.** This shows that  $\ell_p^n$  and  $\ell_p$  are normed spaces.

**Exercise.** Show that  $\ell_p, 1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , is complete.<sup>2</sup>

*Proof of Theorem 1.2.* Let  $B = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\|_p \leq 1\}$ . We first show that  $B$  is convex. Let  $x, y \in B$  and  $t \in [0, 1]$ . For  $1 \leq k \leq n$ ,

$$|(1-t)x_k + ty_k|^p \leq ((1-t)|x_k| + t|y_k|)^p \leq (1-t)|x_k|^p + t|y_k|^p$$

by Lemma 1.1 for  $x_k \neq 0, y_k \neq 0$ ; the inequality holds trivially if  $x_k = 0$  or  $y_k = 0$ . Summing over  $k$ , we then get

$$\|(1-t)x + ty\|_p^p \leq (1-t)\|x\|_p^p + t\|y\|_p^p \leq 1,$$

so  $(1-t)x + ty \in B$ .

We then complete the proof as follows. Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . WLOG,  $x, y, x+y$  are nonzero. By convexity of  $B$ , we have

$$\frac{x+y}{\|x\|_p + \|y\|_p} = \frac{\|x\|_p}{\|x\|_p + \|y\|_p} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{x}{\|x\|_p}}_{\in B} + \frac{\|y\|_p}{\|x\|_p + \|y\|_p} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{y}{\|y\|_p}}_{\in B} \in B.$$

Thus, it follows that

$$\left\| \frac{x+y}{\|x\|_p + \|y\|_p} \right\| \leq 1 \implies \|x+y\|_p \leq \|x\|_p + \|y\|_p,$$

as required. ■

Let  $x = (x_n) \in \ell_1$  and  $y = (y_n) \in \ell_\infty$ . We then write  $x \cdot y = (x_n y_n)$ . Note that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|x_n y_n| = |x_n| |y_n| \leq |x_n| \|y\|_\infty$ . Thus,  $x \cdot y \in \ell_1$  and  $\|x \cdot y\|_1 \leq \|x\|_1 \|y\|_\infty$ .

**Definition** Conjugate index

Let  $p \in (1, \infty)$ . The conjugate index of  $p$  is the unique  $q \in (1, \infty)$  such that  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ .

**Lemma 1.3**

Let  $1 < p, q < \infty$  such that  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ . Then, for  $a, b \geq 0$ , we have

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

*Proof.* The inequality holds trivially if  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ , so it remains to consider the case  $a, b > 0$ . A proof similar to that of Lemma 1.1 shows that  $\log: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is concave. Hence,

$$\log\left(\frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}\right) \geq \frac{1}{p} \log(a^p) + \frac{1}{q} \log(b^q) = \log(ab).$$

We then apply exp to get the required result. ■

**Theorem 1.4** Hölder's inequality

Let  $1 < p, q < \infty$  such that  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ . If  $x \in \ell_p$  and  $y \in \ell_q$ , then  $x \cdot y \in \ell_1$  and

$$\|x \cdot y\|_1 \leq \|x\|_p \|y\|_q.$$

**Remark.** As discussed above,  $p = 1, q = \infty$  also works. Moreover, setting  $p = q = 2$ , we recover Cauchy-Schwarz.

**Exercise.** Deduce Minkowski's inequality from Hölder's inequality.

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<sup>2</sup>A slick proof of this will be provided later.

*Proof of Theorem 1.4.* WLOG,  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$ . By homogeneity, we may also take  $\|x\|_p = \|y\|_q = 1$  WLOG. Now, by Lemma 1.3, we have  $|x_n y_n| \leq |x_n|^p/p + |y_n|^q/q$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Summing over  $n$ , we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n y_n| \leq \frac{\|x\|_p^p}{p} + \frac{\|y\|_q^q}{q} = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 = \|x\|_p \|y\|_q,$$

as required. ■

### 1.3 More examples: function spaces

#### Example

$$(9) C[0, 1] = \{f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ cts}\}, \quad \|f\|_{\infty} = \sup_{[0,1]} |f| \quad (\text{sup norm or uniform norm})$$

By the uniform limit theorem, this is a Banach space.

$$(10) \text{ More generally, given a compact, Hausdorff topological space } K,$$

$$C(K) = \{f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ cts}\}$$

is a Banach space in the sup norm  $\|f\|_{\infty} = \sup_K |f|$ .

$$(11) (C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_1), \quad \|\cdot\|_1 = \int_0^1 |f(t)| dt \quad (L_1\text{-norm})$$

This is an *incomplete* normed space — see Example Sheet 1.

More generally,  $C[0, 1]$  is incomplete in the  $L_p$ -norm,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , given by

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

In II Probability and Measure, you will encounter the completion of  $(C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_p)$ , which is the Lebesgue space  $L_p[0, 1]$ .

$$(12) C^1[0, 1] = \{f \in C[0, 1] \mid f \text{ continuously differentiable}\} \text{ is a subspace of } C[0, 1], \text{ so it is a normed space in } \|\cdot\|_{\infty} \text{ but incomplete, i.e. not closed in } C[0, 1]. \text{ However, it is complete in the norm } \|f\| = \|f\|_{\infty} + \|f'\|_{\infty} \text{ — see Example Sheet 1.}$$

$$(13) \text{ Let } \Delta = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| \leq 1\}. \text{ The set}$$

$$A(\Delta) = \{f \in C(\Delta) \mid f \text{ analytic on } \text{int } \Delta\}$$

is a subspace of  $C(\Delta)$ . In fact, it is closed in  $C(\Delta)$  and hence a Banach space in  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ .

### 1.4 More on the normed topology

Let  $X$  be a normed space and  $A \subset C$ . Recall that the *closure* of  $A$  in  $X$  is

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in X \mid \exists (a_n) \text{ in } X \text{ s.t. } a_n \rightarrow x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty\}.$$

We then say that  $A$  is *dense* in  $X$  if  $\overline{A} = X$ . Moreover,  $A$  is *separable* if it has a countable dense subset.

If  $Y \subset X$  is a subspace, then so is  $\overline{Y}$ : if  $x, y \in \overline{Y}$ , then there exists  $(x_n), (y_n)$  in  $Y$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $y_n \rightarrow y$ . So  $\lambda x_n + \mu y_n \rightarrow \lambda x + \mu y \in \overline{Y}$ . Similarly, if  $A \subset X$  is convex, then so is  $\overline{A}$ .

For a subset  $A \subset X$ , the *closed linear span* of  $A$ , denoted by  $\overline{\text{span}} A$ , is the closure of  $\text{span} A$ .

**Remarks**

- If  $A$  is countable, then  $\overline{\text{span}} A$  is separable.
- The set of all rational linear combinations of elements of  $A$  is countable and dense in  $\overline{\text{span}} A$ .

**Example**

- $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}$ , so  $\mathbb{R}$  is separable.
- $\ell_p, 1 \leq p < \infty$ , is separable.

Let  $e_n = (0, \dots, 0, \underset{n}{1}, 0, \dots)$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  (unit vector basis)

Let  $c_{00} = \text{span}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{(x_n) \in S : \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n > N x_n = 0\}$

We then show that  $\ell_p = \overline{\text{span}}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ : if  $x = (x_n) \in \ell_p$ , then

$$\left\| x - \sum_{i=1}^N x_i e_i \right\|_p = \left( \sum_{i>n} |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

- Similarly, in  $\ell_\infty$ , we have  $\overline{\text{span}}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = c_0$ . Moreover,  $c$  is separable, whereas  $\ell_\infty$  is not.

**Exercise.** Prove the claims in the last example above.

**1.5 Bounded linear maps****Theorem 1.5**

Let  $X, Y$  be normed spaces and  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  be a linear map. The following are equivalent:

- (i)  $T$  is continuous at 0
- (ii)  $T$  is continuous
- (iii)  $T$  is Lipschitz
- (iv)  $T$  is bounded, i.e.,  $\exists C \geq 0 \forall x \in X \|Tx\| \leq C\|x\|$ .

*Proof.* (iv)  $\implies$  (iii): Observe that

$$d(Tx, Ty) = \|Tx - Ty\| = \|T(x - y)\| \leq C\|x - y\| = Cd(x, y)$$

(iii)  $\implies$  (ii): Given  $\varepsilon > 0$  take  $\delta = \varepsilon/(C + 1)$ .

(ii)  $\implies$  (i): Trivial.

(i)  $\implies$  (iv):  $\exists \delta > 0 \forall x \in X d(x, 0) = \|x\| \leq \delta \implies d(Tx, T0) = \|Tx\| \leq 1$ . For  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\|\delta x/\|x\|\| = \delta$ , so  $\|T(\delta x/\|x\|\)\| \leq 1$ . Hence,  $\|Tx\| \leq \delta^{-1}\|x\|$ .  $\blacksquare$

For normed spaces  $X, Y$ , let  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y) = \{T: X \rightarrow Y \mid T \text{ linear and bounded}\}$ . For  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ , its *operator norm* is

$$\|T\| = \sup\{\|Tx\| : x \in B_X\}.$$

**Remark.** Since  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ , we have  $C \geq 0$  such that  $\|Tx\| \leq C\|x\|$  for all  $x \in X$ . So if  $\|x\| \leq 1$ , then  $\|Tx\| \leq C$ . Thus, by definition,  $\|T\| \leq C$ . Conversely, for all  $x \in B_X$ , we have  $\|Tx\| \leq \|T\|$ , so by homogeneity,  $\|Tx\| \leq \|T\|\|x\|$ . Hence,  $\|T\|$  is the least  $C$  such that (iv) in Theorem 1.5 above holds.

The operator norm is a norm on  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ : given  $S, T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ , we have, for all  $x \in X$ ,

$$\|(S + T)x\| = \|Sx + Tx\| \leq \|Sx\| + \|Tx\| \leq \|S\|\|x\| + \|T\|\|x\| \leq (\|S\| + \|T\|)\|x\|,$$

from which it follows that  $S + T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  and  $\|S + T\| \leq \|S\| + \|T\|$ .

**Notation.** We write  $\mathcal{B}(X)$  for  $\mathcal{B}(X, X)$ .

**Proposition 1.6**

Let  $X, Y, Z$  be normed spaces,  $S \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ ,  $T \in \mathcal{B}(Y, Z)$ . Then  $TS \in \mathcal{B}(X, Z)$  and  $\|TS\| \leq \|T\| \|S\|$ .

*Proof.* For all  $x \in X$ , we have  $\|TSx\| \leq \|T\| \|Sx\| \leq \|T\| \|S\| \|x\|$ . ■

**Example**

- (1)  $T: \ell_2^n \rightarrow \ell_2^n, (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_r, 0, \dots, 0)$

$$\|Tx\|_2 = \left( \sum_{i=1}^r |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \leq \|x\|_2 \implies \|T\| \leq 1$$

But  $Te_1 = e_1$  so  $\|T\| = 1$ .

More generally, if  $T$  is represented by a matrix  $A$  wrt the standard basis, then Cauchy-Schwarz gives us

$$\|T\| \leq \left( \sum_{i,j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

- (2) Let  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ;  $R: \ell_p \rightarrow \ell_p, (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) \mapsto (0, x_1, x_2, \dots)$  (right shift)

For all  $x \in \ell_p$ ,  $\|Rx\|_p = \|x\|_p$ , so  $R$  is isometric and  $\|R\| = 1$ . Note that  $R$  is injective but not surjective.

- (3) Let  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ;  $L: \ell_p \rightarrow \ell_p, (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) \mapsto (x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots)$  (left shift)

For all  $x \in \ell_p$ ,  $\|Lx\|_p \leq \|x\|_p$ , so  $L \in \mathcal{B}(\ell_p)$  with  $\|L\| \leq 1$ . Since  $Le_2 = e_1$  and  $\|e_1\|_p = \|e_2\|_p = 1$ , we in fact have  $\|L\| = 1$ . Note that  $L$  is surjective but not injective.

- (4)  $T: \ell_1 \rightarrow \ell_2, x \mapsto x$

► **Claim.**  $\ell_1 \subset \ell_2$ , and  $\forall x \in \ell_2 \quad \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1$

*Proof.* WLOG assume  $\|x\|_1 = 1$  by homogeneity. Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_i| = 1$ , we have  $|x_i| \leq 1$  for all  $i$ . Thus,

$$|x_i|^2 \leq |x_i| \quad \forall i \implies \|x\|_2^2 \leq \|x\|_1 = 1 \implies \|x\|_2 = 1 = \|x\|_1$$

as claimed. ■

Using the above claim, we have  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\ell_1, \ell_2)$  and  $\|T\| = 1$ .

- (5)  $T: \ell_2 \rightarrow \ell_1, (x_n) \mapsto (x_n/n)$

By Cauchy-Schwarz,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{x_i}{n} \right| \leq \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_i^2 \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \right)^{1/2}$$

so  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\ell_2, \ell_1)$  with  $\|T\| \leq \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \right)^{1/2}$ . In fact, we can replace  $\leq$  with  $=$ .

- (6)  $D: (C^1[0, 1], \|\cdot\|) \rightarrow (C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty}), f \mapsto f'$

Note that  $\|Df\|_{\infty} = \|f'\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_{\infty} + \|f'\|_{\infty} = \|f\|$ , so  $\|D\| \leq 1$ . But taking  $f(x) = \sin(n\pi x)$ , we have

$$\|Df\|_{\infty} = n\pi, \quad \|f\| = n\pi + 1,$$

so in fact  $\|D\| = 1$ . Note also that, for  $f \neq 0$ ,  $\|Df\|_\infty < \|f\|$ , so  $\|D\|$  is not attained.

- (7) On a normed space  $X$ , the identity  $x \mapsto x$  is denoted by  $\text{Id}$ ,  $I$ ,  $\text{Id}_X$  or  $I_X$ . This map is isometric, i.e.,  $\|\text{Id}(x)\| = \|x\| \forall x \in X$ .

- (8) For normed spaces  $X, Y$ , we let

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

with norm  $\|(x, y)\|_1 = \|x\| + \|y\|$ . The corresponding norm topology is the product topology.

Define  $P: X \oplus Y \rightarrow X, (x, y) \mapsto x$  (projection onto  $X$ ). Note that  $P \in \mathcal{B}(X \oplus Y, X)$  with  $\|P\| = 1$ .

Let  $X, Y$  be normed spaces. We introduce some terminology:

- An *isomorphism*  $X \rightarrow Y$  is a linear homeomorphism  $T: X \rightarrow Y$ , i.e.,  $T$  is a linear bijection such that  $T$  and  $T^{-1}$  are bounded. Equivalently,  $T$  is a linear bijection<sup>3</sup> such that

$$\exists a, b > 0 \forall x \in X a\|x\| \leq \|Tx\| \leq b\|x\|$$

If such  $T$  exists, we say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are *isomorphic*, and we write  $X \sim Y$ .

- An *isometric isomorphism* is a linear bijection  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  such that

$$\forall x \in X \|Tx\| = \|x\|$$

If such  $T$  exists, we say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are *isometrically isomorphic*, and we write  $X \cong Y$ .

The Banach-Mazur distance is defined as

$$d(X, Y) = \begin{cases} \infty, & \text{if } X \not\sim Y \\ \inf\{\|T\| \|T^{-1}\| \mid T: X \rightarrow Y \text{ is an isomorphism}\}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that  $\|T\| \|T^{-1}\| \geq \|TT^{-1}\| = 1$ . If  $X \cong Y$ , then  $d(X, Y) = 1$ . Does the converse hold?

- An *isomorphic embedding*  $X \rightarrow Y$  is a linear map  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $T: X \rightarrow TX = \text{im } T$  is an isomorphism. If such  $T$  exists, we say that  $X$  (*isomorphically*) *embeds into*  $Y$ , and we write  $X \hookrightarrow Y$ .

### Definition Equivalent norms

Let  $X$  be a normed space. Two norms  $\|\cdot\|, \|\cdot\|'$  are equivalent if

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Id}: (X, \|\cdot\|) \rightarrow (X, \|\cdot\|') \text{ is an isomorphism} \\ \iff & \|\cdot\|, \|\cdot\|' \text{ induce the same norm topology on } X \\ \iff & \exists a, b > 0 \forall x \in X a\|x\| \leq \|x\|' \leq b\|x\| \\ \iff & \exists a, b > 0 aB'_X \subset B_X \subset bB'_X \end{aligned}$$

### Remarks

- If  $X \sim Y$ , then  $X$  is complete iff  $Y$  is complete.

If  $\|\cdot\|, \|\cdot\|'$  are equivalent norms on a vector space  $X$ , then  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  is complete iff  $(X, \|\cdot\|')$  is complete.

<sup>3</sup>We can actually replace ‘bijection’ with ‘surjection’.

- Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be normed spaces. On  $X \oplus Y$ , the norm  $\|(x, y)\|_1 = \|x\| + \|y\|$  is equivalent to  $\|(x, y)\|_p = (\|x\|^p + \|y\|^p)^{1/p}$  for all  $1 \leq p < \infty$  and to  $\|(x, y)\|_\infty = \max\{\|x\|, \|y\|\}$ .
- $(C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_\infty)$  is complete whereas  $(C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_1)$  is incomplete. Thus, we can use the first remark above to deduce that  $\|\cdot\|_\infty \not\sim \|\cdot\|_1$  (but this can easily be proven directly as well). However,  $\|f\|_1 = \int_0^1 |f(t)| dt \leq \|f\|_\infty$ , so

$$\text{Id}: (C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_\infty) \rightarrow (C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_1)$$

is a continuous linear bijection but its inverse is not continuous.

- On  $c_{00}$ ,  $\|\cdot\|_1 \not\sim \|\cdot\|_2$ . To see why, consider  $x = (\underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_n, 0, 0, \dots)$  and note that  $\|x\|_1 = n$ ,  $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{n}$ .

Finally, we discuss convergence and completeness. Let  $X, Y$  be normed spaces. In  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ , convergence implies pointwise convergence, i.e., if  $T_n \rightarrow T$  in  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ , then, for all  $x \in X$ ,  $T_n x \rightarrow T x$  in  $Y$ . To see why, note that, for fixed  $x \in X$ , we have  $\|T_n x - T x\| \leq \|T_n - T\| \|x\| \rightarrow 0$ . However, the converse is false in general, e.g.,  $T_n: \ell_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x \mapsto x_n$ . We have  $T_n \rightarrow 0$  pointwise, but  $\|T_n\| = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### Theorem 1.7

*Let  $X, Y$  be normed spaces. If  $Y$  is complete, then  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  is complete.*

*Proof.* Let  $(T_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ . Fix  $x \in X$ . Then

$$\|T_m x - T_n x\| \leq \|T_m - T_n\| \|x\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } m, n \rightarrow \infty$$

So  $(T_n x)$  is Cauchy in  $Y$  and thus convergent. Now, define  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  by  $x \mapsto \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n x$ . Observe that

- $T$  is linear

$$T(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\lambda T_n x + \mu T_n y] = \lambda T x + \mu T y$$

- $T$  is bounded

$(T_n)$  is Cauchy implies  $(T_n)$  is bounded, i.e., there exists  $M \geq 0$  such that  $\|T_n\| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Fix  $x \in X$ . Then, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $\|T_n x\| \leq \|T_n\| \|x\| \leq M \|x\|$ . Letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we obtain  $\|T x\| \leq M \|x\|$ .

- $T_n \rightarrow T$  in  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\|T_m - T_n\| \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $m, n \geq N$ . Fix  $x \in X$ . Note that, for all  $m, n \geq N$ , we have

$$\|T_m x - T_n x\| \leq \|T_m - T_n\| \|x\| \leq \varepsilon \|x\|$$

Letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$  with  $m \geq N$  fixed yields  $\|T_m x - T x\| \leq \varepsilon \|x\|$ . Hence,  $\|T_m - T\| \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $m \geq N$ . ■

## 2 Dual spaces

### 2.1 Basics

Let  $X$  be a normed space. A *functional* on  $X$  is a map  $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The *dual space*  $X^*$  of  $X$  is the space of all bounded linear functionals on  $X$ , i.e.,  $X^* = \mathcal{B}(X, \mathbb{R})$  equipped with the operator norm. Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete, Theorem 1.7 gives us the following result.

#### Theorem 2.1

For any normed space  $X$ , its dual  $X^*$  is a Banach space.

**Notation.** For  $x \in X$  and  $f \in X^*$ , we let  $\langle x, f \rangle = f(x)$ .

Now, we know that  $0 \in X^*$ . Are there other elements?

#### Theorem 2.2 Hahn-Banach theorem

Let  $X$  be a normed space,  $Y \subset X$  be a subspace and  $g \in Y^*$ . Then  $f \in X^*$  such that  $f|_Y = g$  and  $\|f\| = \|g\|$ .

*Proof.* See II Analysis of Functions. ■

#### Corollary 2.3

Let  $X$  be a normed space,  $x_0 \in X \setminus \{0\}$ . Then there exists  $f \in S_{X^*} = \{f \in X^* : \|f\| = 1\}$  such that  $f(x_0) = \|x_0\|$ .

#### Remarks

- For any  $g \in B_{X^*}$ ,  $|g(x_0)| \leq \|g\| \|x_0\| \leq \|x_0\|$ . Corollary 2.3 says that there exists  $f \in B_{X^*}$  such that  $f(x_0) = \|x_0\|$ , so

$$\|x_0\| = \sup\{g(x_0) : g \in B_{X^*}\} = \max\{g(x_0) : g \in B_{X^*}\}.$$

We call  $f$  a *norming functional* at  $x_0$ .

- Given  $x \neq y$  in  $X$ , we can set  $x_0 = x - y$  and Corollary 2.3 implies that there exists  $f \in X^*$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ . Thus,  $X^*$  separates the points of  $X$ .

*Proof of Corollary 2.3.* Set  $Y = \text{span}\{x_0\}$  and define  $g(\lambda x_0) = \lambda \|x_0\|$ . Then  $g \in S_{Y^*}$  with  $g(x_0) = \|x_0\|$ . Finally, apply Theorem 2.2. ■

## 2.2 Dual space of $\ell_p$

*Motivation:* Recall that, for  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , we have  $\ell_p = \overline{\text{span}}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \overline{c_{00}}$ . Given  $\varphi \in \ell_p^*$  and  $x = (x_n) \in \ell_p$ ,

$$\varphi(x) = \varphi \left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k e_k \right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \varphi(e_k)$$

so  $\varphi$  corresponds to the sequence  $y = (\varphi(e_n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ . We may then ask: is  $\ell_p^* \cong \ell_q$  for some  $q$ ?

Fix  $1 < p < \infty$ , and let  $q$  be the conjugate index of  $p$ . Fix  $y = (y_n) \in \ell_q$ . Define

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_y : \ell_p &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\mapsto \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n y_n \end{aligned}$$

By Holder's inequality (Theorem 1.4), this is well-defined and  $|\varphi_y(x)| \leq \|x\|_p \|y\|_q$ . So  $\varphi_y$  is linear and bounded:  $\|\varphi_y\| \leq \|y\|_q$ . Thus,  $\varphi_y \in \ell_p^*$ , which means that we have a map

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi: \ell_q &\rightarrow \ell_p^* \\ y &\mapsto \varphi_y\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\varphi$  is linear and bounded with  $\|\varphi\| \leq 1$ .

### Theorem 2.4

Let  $p, q, \varphi$  be as above. Then  $\varphi$  is an isometric isomorphism  $\ell_q \rightarrow \ell_p^*$ .

*Proof.* It remains to check that  $\varphi$  is isometric and surjective:

- $\varphi$  is isometric

Fix  $y \in \ell_q$ . WLOG  $y \neq 0$ . Define

$$x_n = \begin{cases} \frac{|y_n|^q}{y_n}, & y_n \neq 0 \\ 0, & y_n = 0 \end{cases}$$

Observe that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^{(q-1)p} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^q = \|y\|_q^q < \infty$ , so  $x \in \ell_p$  with  $\|x\|_p^p = \|y\|_q^q$ .

Since  $y \neq 0$ , we have  $x \neq 0$ , so  $x/\|x\|_p \in B_{\ell_p}$ . Note that

$$\|\varphi_y\| \geq \varphi_y \left( \frac{x}{\|x\|_p} \right) = \frac{1}{\|x\|_p} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n y_n = \frac{\|y\|_q^q}{\|y\|_q^{q/p}} = \|y\|_q.$$

Hence,  $\|\varphi_y\| = \|y\|_q$ .

- $\varphi$  is surjective

Fix  $f \in \ell_p^*$ . Define  $y_n = f(e_n)$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $y = (y_n)$ . For some fixed  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , set

$$x_n = \begin{cases} \frac{|y_n|^q}{y_n}, & y_n \neq 0, n \leq N \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then  $x = (x_n) \in \ell_p$ , so

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= \sum_{n=1}^N x_n f(e_n) = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n = \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q \leq \|f\| \|x\|_p \\ \|x\|_p &= \left( \sum_{n=1}^N |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p} = \left( \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^{(q-1)p} \right)^{1/p} = \left( \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q \right)^{1/p}\end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q \leq \|f\| \left( \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q \right)^{1/p}$ , i.e.

$$\left( \sum_{n=1}^N |y_n|^q \right)^{1/q} \leq \|f\|$$

Let  $N \rightarrow \infty$  to deduce that  $y \in \ell_q$ . Finally, observe that

$$\begin{aligned}f(e_n) &= y_n = \varphi_y(e_n) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \\ \implies f(x) &= \varphi_y(x) \quad \forall x \in \text{span}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = c_{00} \quad \text{by linearity}\end{aligned}$$

$$\implies f(x) = \varphi_y(x) \quad \forall x \in \overline{\text{span}}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \ell_p \quad \text{by continuity}$$

Thus,  $f = \varphi_y$ , so  $\varphi$  is surjective. ■

### Remarks

- We also have  $\ell_1^* \cong \ell_\infty$  and  $c_0^* \cong \ell_1$ . The proof also shows that  $\ell_1 \hookrightarrow \ell_\infty^*$  isometrically. However, the proof of surjectivity breaks down since  $\overline{\text{span}}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  in  $\ell_\infty$  in  $c_0 \subsetneq \ell_\infty$ .
- From the proof, we can show Corollary 2.3 holds for  $\ell_p$ .
- We've shown that  $\ell_p, 1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , is complete as they are dual spaces. For  $c_0$ , one simply has to show that  $c_0$  is closed in  $\ell_\infty$ .

## 2.3 Bidual

Let  $X$  be a normed space. Then  $X^{**} = (X^*)^* = \mathcal{B}(X^*, \mathbb{R})$  is the *bidual* or *second dual* of  $X$ .

For each  $x \in X$ , define the map

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x} : X^* &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ f &\mapsto f(x) \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\hat{x}$  is linear and bounded:  $|\hat{x}(f)| = |f(x)| \leq \|f\| \|x\|$ . So  $\hat{x} \in X^{**}$  with  $\|\hat{x}\| \leq \|x\|$ . Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\cdot} : X &\rightarrow X^{**} \\ x &\mapsto \hat{x} \end{aligned}$$

This is linear:  $\widehat{\lambda x + \mu y}(f) = f(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lambda f(x) + \mu f(y) = (\lambda \hat{x} + \mu \hat{y})(f)$ .

For  $x \neq 0$ , let  $f \in X^*$  be a norming functional at  $x$ . Then

$$\hat{x}(f) = f(x) = \|x\| \implies \|\hat{x}\| = \|x\|$$

so the canonical map  $X \rightarrow X^{**}, x \mapsto \hat{x}$  is an isometric embedding into  $X^{**}$ . If  $f$  is surjective, we say that  $X$  is *reflexive*.

## 2.4 Dual operators

Let  $X, Y$  be normed spaces and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ . The *dual operator*  $T^*$  of  $T$  is the map

$$\begin{aligned} T^* : Y^* &\rightarrow X^* \\ g &\mapsto g \circ T \end{aligned}$$

By Proposition 1.6,  $T^*(g) = g \circ T \in X^*$  and  $\|T^*(g)\| \leq \|g\| \|T\|$ , so  $T^*$  is well-defined. Moreover, it is clearly linear and bounded with  $\|T^*\| \leq \|T\|$ .

**Remark.** Note that  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : X \times X^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is bilinear. Moreover, for  $x \in X$  and  $g \in Y^*$ , we have  $\langle x, T^*(g) \rangle = \langle T(x), g \rangle$ .

It turns out that  $\|T^*\| = \|T\|$ :

$$\|T^*\| = \sup_{g \in B_{Y^*}} \|T^* g\| = \sup_{g \in B_{Y^*}} \sup_{x \in B_X} |\langle x, T^*(g) \rangle| = \sup_{x \in B_X} \sup_{g \in B_{Y^*}} |\langle T x, g \rangle| = \sup_{x \in B_X} \|T x\| = \|T\|,$$

where the penultimate equality follows from Corollary 2.3.

**Example**

Let  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  with  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ . Consider the right-shift map  $R: \ell_p \rightarrow \ell_p$ . What is  $R^*: \ell_p^* \rightarrow \ell_p^*$ ? Recall that  $\ell_p^* \cong \ell_q$ . Thought of as a map  $\ell_q \rightarrow \ell_q$ , it turns out that  $R^* = L$ , the left-shift map.

Now, let's note some properties of dual operators:

- (1)  $(\text{Id}_X)^* = \text{Id}_{X^*}$
- (2)  $(\lambda S + \mu T)^* = \lambda S^* + \mu T^*$  for all  $S, T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  and all scalars  $\lambda, \mu$

Indeed, for  $g \in Y^*$ ,  $x \in X$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, (\lambda S + \mu T)^* g \rangle &= \langle (\lambda S + \mu T)x, g \rangle \\ &= \langle \lambda Sx + \mu Tx, g \rangle \\ &= \lambda \langle Sx, g \rangle + \mu \langle Tx, g \rangle \\ &= \lambda \langle x, S^* g \rangle + \mu \langle x, T^* g \rangle \\ &= \langle x, (\lambda S^* + \mu T^*)g \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Since  $x$  is arbitrary,  $(\lambda S + \mu T)^* g = (\lambda S^* + \mu T^*)g$  for all  $g \in Y^*$ , and we are done.

- (3)  $(ST)^* = T^*S^*$  for all  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  and all  $S \in \mathcal{B}(Y, Z)$

$$\langle x, (ST)^* g \rangle = \langle STx, g \rangle = \langle S(Tx), g \rangle = \langle Tx, S^* g \rangle = \langle x, T^*S^* g \rangle$$

- (4) Let  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ . We have  $T^* \in \mathcal{B}(Y^*, X^*)$  and  $T^{**} \in \mathcal{B}(X^{**}, Y^{**})$ . The diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{T} & Y \\ \downarrow \wedge & & \downarrow \\ X^{**} & \xrightarrow{T^{**}} & Y^{**} \end{array}$$

commutes, i.e.,  $\hat{T}x = T^{**}\hat{x}$  for all  $x \in X$ . For  $x \in X, g \in Y^*$ ,

$$\langle g, T^{**}\hat{x} \rangle = \langle T^*g, \hat{x} \rangle = \langle x, T^*g \rangle = \langle Tx, g \rangle = \langle g, \hat{Tx} \rangle$$

**Remark.** Properties (1) and (3) imply that  $X \sim Y \implies X^* \sim Y^*$ .

### 3 Finite-dimensional normed spaces

Recall that norms  $\|\cdot\|$  and  $\|\cdot\|'$  on a vector space  $X$  are equivalent if  $\text{Id}: (X, \|\cdot\|) \rightarrow (X, \|\cdot\|')$  is an isomorphism or, equivalently, if  $\exists a, b > 0 \forall x \in X a\|x\| \leq \|x\|' \leq b\|x\|$ .

#### Example

On  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the norms  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  are equivalent. We've already seen that  $\|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Moreover, by Cauchy-Schwarz, we have

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \leq \sqrt{n} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} = \sqrt{n}\|x\|_2.$$

#### Theorem 3.1

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

*Proof.* Let  $X$  be a f.d. vector space. Fix a basis  $(e_1, \dots, e_n)$  of  $X$ . For  $x = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k e_k \in X$ , define  $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|$ . Let  $\|\cdot\|$  be an arbitrary norm on  $X$ .

We show that  $\|\cdot\|$  is equivalent to  $\|\cdot\|_1$ . For  $x = \sum_{k=1}^m x_k e_k \in X$ , we have

$$\|x\| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k| \|e_k\| \leq M \|x\|_1$$

where  $M = \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} \|e_k\|$ .

Now, let  $S = \{x \in X : \|x\|_1 = 1\}$ , the unit sphere of  $(X, \|\cdot\|_1)$ . We have the following result:

► **Claim.**  $S$  is compact.

*Proof.* Let  $(x^{(r)})_{r \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in  $S$ . Write  $x^{(r)} = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k^{(r)} e_k$ . For each  $1 \leq k \leq n$ ,  $|x_k^{(r)}| \leq \|x^{(r)}\| = 1$  for all  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ . By repeated application of Bolzano-Weierstrass, there exists  $r_1 < r_2 < r_3 < \dots$  in  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $(x_k^{(r_\ell)})_{\ell \in \mathbb{N}}$  is convergent for each  $1 \leq k \leq n$ . Let  $x_k = \lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} x_k^{(r_\ell)}$  and  $x = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k e_k$ . Note that

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k| = \lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k^{(r_\ell)}| = 1$$

so  $x \in S$ . Moreover,

$$\|x^{(r_\ell)} - x\|_1 = \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k^{(r_\ell)} - x_k| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } \ell \rightarrow \infty$$

so  $x^{(r_\ell)} \rightarrow x$  in  $S$ . Thus,  $S$  is sequentially compact and hence compact. ■

For any  $x, y \in S$ ,  $\| \|x\| - \|y\| \| \leq \|x - y\| \leq M \|x - y\|_1$ . So  $\|\cdot\|$  is continuous on  $S$  with respect to  $\|\cdot\|_1$ . So  $c = \inf\{\|x\| : x \in S\}$  is achieved:  $\exists x \in S \ \|x\| = c$ . Since  $0 \notin S$  and  $c > 0$ , we have  $\|y\| \geq c = c\|y\|_1$  for all  $y \in S$ . By homogeneity,  $\|y\| \geq c\|y\|_1$  for all  $y \in X$ . ■

#### Corollary 3.2

*Let  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  be a linear map between two normed spaces. If  $X$  is f.d., then  $T$  is continuous.*

*Proof.* Let  $\|\cdot\|$  denote the norm on  $X$  and  $Y$ . Define  $\|x\|' = \|Tx\| + \|x\|$  for all  $x \in X$ . It is easy to check that this is a norm on  $X$ . By Theorem 3.1, there exists  $b > 0$  such that, for all  $x \in X$ ,  $\|x\|' \leq b\|x\|$ . In particular,  $\|Tx\| \leq b\|x\|$  for all  $x \in X$ . ■

**Corollary 3.3**

If  $\dim X = \dim Y < \infty$ , then  $X \sim Y$ .

*Proof.* We have a linear bijection  $T: X \rightarrow Y$ . By Corollary 3.2,  $T$  and  $T^{-1}$  are continuous. ■

**Remark.** Corollary 3.3 does *not* imply that the theory of f.d. normed spaces is uninteresting.

Recall that, for  $X$  a metric space and  $Y \subset X$ , we have

- $Y$  complete  $\implies Y$  is closed in  $X$
- $Y$  closed in  $X$  and  $X$  complete  $\implies Y$  complete

**Corollary 3.4**

- (i) A f.d. normed space  $X$  is complete.
- (ii) A f.d. subspace  $X$  of a normed space  $Y$  is closed in  $Y$ .

*Proof.* (i) Let  $n = \dim X$ . By Corollary 3.3,  $X \sim \ell_2^n$  which is complete. (ii) follows from above properties of metric spaces. ■

**Corollary 3.5**

Let  $X$  be a f.d. normed space and  $A \subset X$ . Then

$$A \text{ is compact} \iff A \text{ is closed and bounded}$$

*Proof.* If  $X = \ell_2^n$ , then this is simply Heine-Borel. For general  $X$ , the result follows by invoking Corollary 3.3 to deduce that  $X \sim \ell_2^n$  and noting isomorphisms map compact subsets to compact subsets (ditto for closed and bounded subsets). ■

In particular,  $B_X = \{x \in X : \|x\| = 1\}$  is compact. How about if  $\dim X = \infty$ ? Note that, in  $\ell_p$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ,  $\|e_n\|_p = 1$  for all  $n$  and  $\|e_m - e_n\| = 2^{1/p}$  for all  $m \neq n$ , so  $(e_n)$  has no convergent subsequence. Hence,  $B_{\ell_p}$  is not compact.

A similar obstruction does, in fact, hold for any infinite-dimensional normed space. To show this, we need the following lemma:

**Proposition 3.6** Riesz's lemma

Let  $Y$  be a proper, closed subspace of a normed space  $X$ . Then

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists x \in B_X \quad d(x, Y) = \inf\{\|x - y\| : y \in Y\} > 1 - \varepsilon.$$

*Proof.* WLOG,  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ . Fix  $z \in X \setminus Y$ . Since  $Y$  is closed,  $d = d(z, Y) > 0$ . Pick  $y \in Y$  such that  $d \leq \|z - y\| < d/(1 - \varepsilon)$ . Set  $x = \frac{(z-y)}{\|z-y\|}$ . Note that  $d(x, Y) > 1 - \varepsilon$ : for  $y' \in Y$ ,

$$\|x - y'\| = \left\| \frac{z - y - \|z - y\|y'}{\|z - y\|} \right\| \geq \frac{d}{\|z - y\|} > 1 - \varepsilon$$

so  $d(x, Y) \geq d/\|z - y\| > 1 - \varepsilon$ . ■

**Theorem 3.7**

Let  $X$  be a normed space. Then  $B_X$  is compact if and only if  $\dim X < \infty$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Corollary 3.5

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Similar to the  $\ell_p$  case, we construct  $(x_n)$  in  $B_X$  such that  $\|x_m - x_n\| > 1/2$  for all  $m \neq n$ . As before, we then deduce that  $(x_n)$  has no convergent subsequence and so  $B_X$  is not compact.

Pick any  $x_1 \in B_X$ . Suppose we have already picked  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We then set  $Y = \text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Then  $Y$  is a proper ( $\dim X = \infty$ ) and closed (Corollary 3.4) subspace of  $X$ . By Proposition 3.6, we can then pick  $x_{n+1} \in B_X$  such that  $d(x_{n+1}, Y) > 1/2$ . In particular,  $\|x_{n+1} - x_m\| > 1/2$  for  $1 \leq m \leq n$ .  $\blacksquare$

## 4 The Baire category theorem and its applications

Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. In this course, we will denote closed and open balls as

$$\begin{aligned} B_r(x) &= \{y \in X : d(x, y) \leq r\} \\ D_r(x) &= \{y \in X : d(x, y) < r\} \end{aligned}$$

Recall that, for  $A \subset X$ , the *closure of A in X* is

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{A} &:= \bigcap_{\substack{F \text{ closed in } X \\ A \subset F}} F \\ &= \{x \in X : \forall r > 0 \ D_r(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset\} \\ &= \{x \in X : \exists (a_n) \text{ in } A \text{ s.t. } a_n \rightarrow x\} \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\overline{D_r(x)} \subset B_r(x)$ . In general, this inclusion can be strict. But normed spaces are nice:

**Exercise.** Show that, in a normed space,  $\overline{D_r(x)} = B_r(x)$ .

Recall also that, for  $A \subset X$ , we say that  $A$  is *dense in X* if

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{A} &= X \\ \iff \forall x \in X \ \forall r > 0 \ D_r(x) \cap A &\neq \emptyset \\ \iff \forall \text{ non-empty open } U \subset X \ U \cap A &\neq \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

### Example

$\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$  and so is  $\sqrt{2} + \mathbb{Q}$ . But  $\mathbb{Q} \cap (\sqrt{2} + \mathbb{Q}) = \emptyset$ .

### 4.1 Baire category theorem

#### Theorem 4.1 Baire category theorem

Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space and  $U_n \subset X$  be open and dense in  $X$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n$  is dense in  $X$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $x_0 \in X$  and  $r_0 > 0$ . Since  $U_1$  is dense,  $U_1 \cap D_{r_0}(x_0) \neq \emptyset$ . Then we can pick  $x_1 \in U_1 \cap D_{r_0}(x_0)$ . Since  $U_1 \cap D_{r_0}(x_0)$  is open, there exists  $r_1 > 0$  such that  $B_{r_1}(x_1) \subset U_1 \cap D_{r_0}(x_0)$ . WLOG, we can pick  $r_1 < 1$ . We then continue inductively. At the  $n^{\text{th}}$  stage, density of  $U_n$  implies that  $U_n \cap D_{r_{n-1}}(x_{n-1}) \neq \emptyset$ , so we can pick  $x_n \in U_n \cap D_{r_{n-1}}(x_{n-1})$ . Since  $U_n \cap D_{r_{n-1}}(x_{n-1})$  is open, there exists  $r_n > 0$  such that  $B_{r_n}(x_n) \subset U_n \cap D_{r_{n-1}}(x_{n-1})$ . WLOG,  $r_n < 1/n$ .

We end up with  $(x_n)_{n=0}^\infty$  in  $X$  and  $(r_n)_{n=0}^\infty$  with  $0 < r_n < 1/n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and, for all  $n > N \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} B_{r_n}(x_n) &\subset U_n \cap D_{r_{n-1}}(x_{n-1}) \\ &\subset U_n \cap U_{n-1} \cap D_{r_{n-2}}(x_{n-2}) \\ &\vdots \\ &\subset U_n \cap U_{n-1} \cap \cdots \cap U_{N+1} \cap D_{r_N}(x_N) \end{aligned}$$

so, for all  $m, n \geq N$ , we have  $d(x_m, x_n) \leq 2r_N < 2/N$ . Thus,  $(x_n)_{n=0}^\infty$  is Cauchy and thus convergent in  $X$ . Write  $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ . Note that, for  $n \geq m$ ,  $x_n \in B_{r_m}(x_m)$  so  $x \in B_{r_m}(x_m)$ .

By fixing  $N = 0$  above and taking  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we get

$$x \in \left( \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n \right) \cap D_{r_0}(x_0)$$

as required. ■

**Remark.** A countable intersection of open sets is called a  $G_\delta$ -set. Theorem 4.1 then says that a countable intersection of open dense sets in a complete metric space is a dense  $G_\delta$ -set.

### Application Uncountability of $\mathbb{R}$

Suppose, on the contrary, that  $\mathbb{R}$  is countable, so we can write  $\mathbb{R} = \{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots\}$ . Let  $U_n = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{r_n\}$ . Then  $U_n$  is open and dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete, Theorem 4.1 tells us that  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ . But  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n = \emptyset$  — a contradiction!

Observe that, if  $U \subset X$  is open and dense in  $X$ , then  $F = X \setminus U$  is closed in  $X$  and  $\text{int } F = \emptyset$ .

### Definition Nowhere dense

Let  $(X, d)$  be a topological space. We say that  $A \subset X$  is nowhere dense in  $X$  if  $\text{int } \overline{A} = \emptyset$ .

### Remarks

- For  $A \subset Y \subset X$ , it is possible that  $A$  is nowhere dense in  $X$  but not in  $Y$  (e.g. take  $A = Y \neq \emptyset$ )
- $A$  is nowhere dense in  $X$  if and only if  $U \not\subset \overline{U \cap A}$  for any nonempty open  $U \subset X$ .  
 $A$  is dense in  $X$  if and only if  $U \subset \overline{U \cap A}$  for every open  $U \subset X$ .

### Example

- In  $\mathbb{R}$ , any finite set and the Cantor set are nowhere dense.
- Write  $\mathbb{Q} = \{q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots\}$  and let  $(\delta_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $(0, 1)$ . Then  $U = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (q_n - \delta_n, q_n + \delta_n)$  is open and dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ . So  $\mathbb{R} \setminus U$  is closed and nowhere dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

### Theorem 4.1'

Let  $(X, d)$  be a non-empty complete metric space. Suppose  $X = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$  for some  $A_n \subset X$ . Then there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\text{int } \overline{A_n} \neq \emptyset$ .

*Proof.* Suppose, on the contrary, that  $\text{int } \overline{A_n} = \emptyset$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\forall x \in X \ \forall r > 0 \ D_r(x) \not\subset \overline{A_n}$  and thus  $D_r(x) \cap U_n = \emptyset$ . Thus,  $U_n = X \setminus \overline{A_n}$  is open and dense in  $X$ . Hence, by Theorem 4.1,  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n$  is dense in  $X$ . But note that  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n = (\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \overline{A_n})^c = \emptyset$  — a contradiction! ■

**Exercise.** Deduce Theorem 4.1 from Theorem 4.1'.

### Definition First and second category

Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $A \subset X$ .

- We say that  $A$  is meagre in  $X$  or is of first category in  $X$  if  $A = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$  where  $A_n$  is nowhere dense in  $X$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- We say that  $A$  is of second category in  $X$  if  $A$  is not of first category.

### Remarks

- Intuition: Think of meagre sets as ‘small’.
- Typical Baire argument: Theorem 4.1' is useful as, to find some element  $x \in X$  (in a non-empty complete metric space) with some property  $P$ , we just have to show that  $A = \{x \in X : x \text{ fails } P\}$  is meagre.

**Application** Existence of a nowhere differentiable function in  $C[0, 1]$ 

Note that  $(C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_\infty)$  is a nonempty complete metric space. Let

$$A = \{f \in C[0, 1] : \exists x \in [0, 1] \text{ s.t. } f \text{ differentiable at } x\}$$

Observe that, if  $f'(x)$  exists, i.e.  $[f(y) - f(x)]/(y - x) \rightarrow f'(x)$  as  $y \rightarrow x$ , then there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that, for all  $y \in X$ ,

$$|y - x| < \frac{1}{N} \implies \left| \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} \right| \leq N$$

Thus, for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , consider the set

$$A_n = \left\{ f \in C[0, 1] : \exists x \in [0, 1] \forall y \in [0, 1] |y - x| < \frac{1}{n} \implies |f(y) - f(x)| \leq n|y - x| \right\}$$

and note that  $A \subset \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$ .

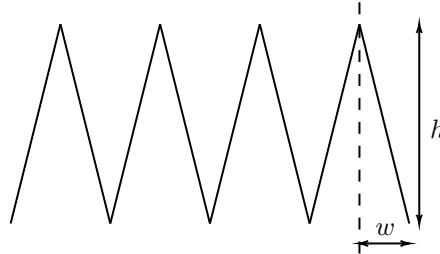
It then remains to show that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $A_n$  is closed and  $\text{int } A_n = \emptyset$ .

- $A_n$  is closed: Consider  $(f_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $A_n$  with  $f_k \rightarrow f$  in  $C[0, 1]$ . For each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , we can pick  $x_k \in [0, 1]$  such that, for all  $y \in [0, 1]$ ,  $|y - x_k| < 1/n \implies |f_k(y) - f_k(x_k)| \leq n|y - x_k|$ . Passing to a subsequence if necessary,  $x_k \rightarrow x$  in  $[0, 1]$  WLOG. By IB Analysis and Topology Example Sheet 1 Q5 (2024),  $f_k(x_k) \rightarrow f(x)$  and hence

$$\forall y \in [0, 1] |y - x| < \frac{1}{n} \implies |f(y) - f(x)| \leq n|y - x|$$

as required.

- Fix  $f \in A_n$  and  $r > 0$ . To get  $D_r(f) \not\subset A_n$ , the idea is to consider a small but rapidly oscillating perturbation of  $f$ . Let  $0 < \varepsilon < r/4$ . Pick  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|y - x| < \delta \implies |f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . Choose  $h, w$  such that  $4\varepsilon < h < r$  and  $w = \min\{\varepsilon/n, \delta\}$ . Set  $g$  to be the function



We can check that  $f + g \in D_r(f) \setminus A_n$ .

*Direct proof:* Take  $g_n$  similar to above with height  $h_n$  and width  $w_n$ , where  $h_n \searrow 0$  fast and  $h_n/w_n \rightarrow \infty$  fast. Then  $\sum g_n$  is nowhere differentiable.

## 4.2 Consequences for Banach spaces

### Theorem 4.2 Principle of uniform boundedness<sup>4</sup>

Let  $X$  be a Banach space,  $Y$  a normed space and  $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ . If  $T$  is pointwise bounded (i.e.,  $\forall x \in X \sup_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \|Tx\| < \infty$ ), then  $T$  is uniformly bounded (i.e.,  $\sup_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \|T\| < \infty$ ).

*Proof.* Let  $A_n = \{x \in X : \sup_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \|Tx\| \leq n\}$ . By hypothesis,  $X = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$ . By Theorem 4.1', there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\text{int } \overline{A_n} \neq \emptyset$ . Note that  $A_n = \bigcap_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \{x \in X : \|Tx\| \leq n\}$  is closed as

<sup>4</sup>This result is also known as the *Banach-Steinhaus theorem*.

the map  $x \mapsto \|Tx\|$  is continuous. Thus, there exists  $r > 0$  and  $x \in A_n$  such that  $B_r(x) \subset A_n$ . Given  $y \in B_X$ ,  $T \in \mathcal{T}$ , we have  $x + ry, x - ry \in B_r(x)$  and thus

$$\|Ty\| = \left\| \frac{T(x+ry) - T(x-ry)}{2r} \right\| \leq \frac{2n}{2r} = \frac{n}{r}$$

Hence,  $\|T\| \leq n/r$  for all  $T \in \mathcal{T}$ . ■

### Corollary 4.3

Let  $X$  be a Banach space,  $Y$  a normed space, and  $(T_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  a sequence in  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  that pointwise converges to  $T$ . Then  $T$  is linear and bounded. Moreover,  $\sup_n \|T_n\| < \infty$ .

*Proof.* For all  $x \in X$ ,  $(T_n x)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is convergent and thus bounded. So  $\{T_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is pointwise bounded. Hence, by Theorem 4.2, there exists  $M \geq 0$  such that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $\|T_n\| \leq M$ .

- $T$  linear:  $T(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(\lambda x + \mu y) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\lambda T_n(x) + \mu T_n(y)] = \lambda T(x) + \mu T(y)$
- $T$  bounded:  $\forall x \in B_X \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \|T_n x\| \leq \|T_n\| \leq M$ , so  $\|Tx\| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T_n x\| \leq M$  for all  $x \in B_X$ . Hence,  $T$  is bounded with  $\|T\| \leq M$ . ■

**Exercise.** Show that  $\|T\| \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|T_n\|$ .

### Definition $\delta$ -dense

Let  $A, B$  be subsets of a metric space  $(X, d)$  and  $\delta > 0$ . We say that  $A$  is  $\delta$ -dense in  $B$  if  $\forall b \in B \ \exists a \in A \ d(a, b) \leq \delta$ .

**Remark.** If  $\overline{A} \supset B$ , then  $A$  is  $\delta$ -dense in  $B$  for all  $\delta > 0$ .

### Lemma 4.4 Open mapping lemma

Let  $X$  be a Banach space,  $Y$  a normed space,  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ . Suppose that  $T(MB_X)$  is  $\delta$ -dense in  $B_Y$  for some  $M \geq 0$  and  $0 \leq \delta < 1$ . Then  $T(\frac{M}{1-\delta}B_X) \supset B_Y$ .

### Remarks

- Another way to think of the open mapping lemma is as follows.  
*Condition:* for all  $y \in B_Y$ ,  $y = Tx$  has a  $\delta$ -approximate solution in  $MB_X$   
*Conclusion:* for all  $y \in B_Y$ ,  $y = Tx$  has an exact solution in  $\frac{M}{1-\delta}B_X$
- For any  $M \geq 0$ ,  $T(MB_X)$  is 1-dense in  $B_Y$  since  $0 = T(0) \in T(MB_X)$  and  $\forall y \in Y \ \|y - T(0)\| = \|y\| \leq 1$
- Lemma 4.4 implies that  $T$  is surjective
- Lemma 4.4 shows that  $\overline{T(B_X)} \supset B_Y \implies T(D_X) \supset D_Y$ .

*Proof of Lemma 4.4.* The strategy is to use ‘successive approximations’. Fix  $y \in B_Y$ . Pick  $x_1 \in MB_X$  such that  $\|y - Tx_1\| \leq \delta$ . Note that  $\frac{y-Tx_1}{\delta} \in B_X$ , so we can pick  $x_2 \in MB_X$  such that  $\|\frac{y-Tx_1}{\delta} - Tx_2\| \leq \delta$ . Note that  $\frac{y-T(x_1+\delta x_2)}{\delta^2} \in B_Y$ , so we can pick  $x_3 \in MB_X$  such that  $\|\frac{y-T(x_1+\delta x_2)}{\delta^2} - Tx_3\| \leq \delta$ . Continuing inductively, we obtain a sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $MB_X$  such that

$$\left\| y - T \left( \sum_{k=1}^n \delta^{k-1} x_k \right) \right\| \leq \delta^n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Note that  $\|\delta^{n-1} x_n\| \leq M\delta^{n-1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \delta^{n-1} x_n$  converges absolutely and hence converges since  $X$  is complete (cf. Example Sheet 1 Q8). Let  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \delta^{n-1} x_n$ . Then  $\|x\| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \delta^{n-1} M = \frac{M}{1-\delta}$ , so  $x \in \frac{M}{1-\delta}B_X$ . Since  $T$  is continuous,  $Tx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} T(\delta^{n-1} x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T(\sum_{k=1}^n \delta^{k-1} x_k) = y$ . ■

**Theorem 4.5** Open mapping theorem

Let  $X, Y$  be Banach spaces and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ . If  $T$  is surjective, then  $T$  is open.

**Remark.** In particular, we have  $T(B_X) \supset T(D_X) \supset rB_Y$  for some  $r > 0$ . Equivalently,  $T(MB_X) \supset B_Y$  for some  $M > 0$ . So the conclusion of Theorem 4.5 is that, for all  $y \in Y$ ,  $y = Tx$  has a solution such that  $\|x\| \leq M\|y\|$ .

*Proof of Theorem 4.5.* Observe that it suffices to show that  $T(MB_X) \supset B_Y$  for some  $M > 0$ . Indeed, it would mean that, given open  $U \subset X$  and  $y \in T(U)$ , we can pick  $x \in U$  such that  $y = Tx$ . As  $U$  is open,  $B_r(x) \subset U$  for some  $r > 0$ . Then  $T(U) \supset T(B_r(x)) = T(x + rB_X) = T(x + \frac{r}{M}MB_X) \supset y + \frac{r}{M}B_Y = B_{r/M}(y)$ .

Note that  $Y = T(X) = T(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} nB_X) = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} T(nB_X)$ . As  $Y$  is non-empty and complete, Theorem 4.1 implies that there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\text{int } \overline{T(nB_X)} \neq \emptyset$ . So there exists  $y \in Y$  and  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(y) \subset \overline{T(nB_X)}$ . Moreover, since  $B_X$  is convex and symmetric, so is  $\overline{T(nB_X)}$ . Thus, given  $z \in B_Y$ , we have  $y \pm rz \in B_r(y) \subset \overline{T(nB_X)}$  and also  $-y \pm rz \in \overline{T(nB_X)}$ . Now, note that  $rz = \frac{1}{2}(y+rz) + \frac{1}{2}(-y+rz) \in \overline{T(nB_X)}$ . Thus,  $rB_Y \subset \overline{T(nB_X)}$  or  $B_Y \subset \overline{T(\frac{n}{r}B_X)}$ . So  $T(\frac{n}{r}B_X)$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$ -dense in  $B_Y$ . By Lemma 4.4,  $T(\frac{2n}{r}B_X) \supset B_Y$ . ■

**Theorem 4.6** Inversion theorem

Let  $X, Y$  be Banach spaces and  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  a continuous linear bijection. Then  $T^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$  is also continuous.

*Proof 1.*  $T$  is surjective so it is open by Theorem 4.5. So for open  $U \subset X$ ,  $(T^{-1})^{-1}(U) = T(U)$  is open in  $Y$ . So  $T^{-1}$  is continuous. ■

*Proof 2.* By Theorem 4.5, we have  $T(MB_X) \supset B_Y$  for some  $M > 0$ . Given  $y \in Y$ , there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $y = Tx$  and  $\|x\| \leq M\|y\|$ , i.e.,  $\|T^{-1}y\| \leq M\|y\|$ . So  $T^{-1}$  is bounded. ■

**Corollary 4.7**

Let  $\|\cdot\|$  and  $\|\cdot\|'$  be complete norms on a vector space  $X$ . If there exists  $b > 0$  such that  $\|x\|' \leq b\|x\|$  for all  $x \in X$ , then  $\|\cdot\|$  and  $\|\cdot\|'$  are equivalent.

*Proof.*  $\text{Id}: (X, \|\cdot\|) \rightarrow (X, \|\cdot\|')$  is a linear bijection and bounded by hypothesis. ■

**Remark.** This gives us another proof that the  $L_1$ -norm on  $C[0, 1]$  is complete.

Recall that, for a function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  between sets, the *graph of  $f$*  is the set

$$\Gamma(f) = \{(x, y) \in X \times Y : y = f(x)\}.$$

If  $X, Y$  are topological spaces with  $Y$  Hausdorff and  $f$  continuous, then  $\Gamma(f)$  is closed.<sup>5</sup>

**Theorem 4.8** Closed graph theorem

Let  $X, Y$  be Banach spaces and  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  a linear map. If  $\Gamma(T)$  is closed, then  $T$  is continuous.

**Remark.** Note that continuity of  $T$  means:

$$x_n \rightarrow x \text{ in } X \implies (Tx_n) \text{ converges in } Y \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Tx_n = Tx$$

But by Theorem 4.8, to prove continuity of  $T$ , it suffices to show that

$$x_n \rightarrow x \text{ in } X \text{ and } Tx_n \rightarrow y \text{ in } Y \implies y = Tx$$

---

<sup>5</sup>You may recognise this from Tripos 2025 Paper 2 Section II Question 10G

*Proof of Theorem 4.8.* Consider the map  $S: X \rightarrow \Gamma(T)$ ,  $x \mapsto (x, Tx)$ . This is a linear bijection with  $S^{-1}: \Gamma(T) \rightarrow X$ ,  $(x, y) \mapsto x$ . So  $S^{-1} = P_X|_{\Gamma(T)}$  is continuous. Since  $\Gamma(T)$  is a closed subspace of the Banach space  $X \oplus Y$ ,  $\Gamma(T)$  is complete. By Theorem 4.6,  $S = (S^{-1})^{-1}$  is continuous. Hence,  $T = P_Y \circ S$  is continuous.  $\blacksquare$

**Remark.** Note that the condition ‘ $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $X$  and  $Tx_n \rightarrow y$  in  $Y \implies y = Tx$ ’ is equivalent to ‘ $x_n \rightarrow 0$  in  $X$  and  $Tx_n \rightarrow y$  in  $Y \implies y = 0$ ’. The latter version will be quite useful for applications.

**Exercise.** Deduce Theorem 4.6 from Theorem 4.8.

### 4.3 Applications

#### Application

Let  $X$  be a closed subspace of  $\ell_2$ . We further assume that  $X \subset \ell_1$ .

► **Claim.** There exists  $C > 0$  such that, for all  $x \in X$ ,  $\|x\|_1 \leq C\|x\|_2$ .

**Remark.** We know that  $\ell_1 \subset \ell_2$  with  $\|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1$  for all  $x \in \ell_1$ . We might want to use Corollary 4.7, but we don't know if  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is complete on  $X$ . Similarly,  $\text{Id}: (X, \|\cdot\|_1) \rightarrow (X, \|\cdot\|_2)$  is a continuous linear bijection. However, we cannot use Theorem 4.6 to deduce that  $\text{Id}^{-1}$  is continuous since we don't know if  $(X, \|\cdot\|_1)$  is complete.

*Proof of Claim.* Consider  $T: (X, \|\cdot\|_1) \rightarrow \ell_1$ ,  $x \mapsto x$ . Since  $X$  is closed in  $\ell_2$ ,  $(X, \|\cdot\|_2)$  is complete and so is  $\ell_1$ . Moreover,  $T$  is linear, so by Theorem 4.8, it suffices to show that  $\Gamma(T)$  is closed. To do this, suppose  $x^n \rightarrow 0$  in  $(X, \|\cdot\|_2)$  and  $Tx^n = x^n \rightarrow y \in \ell_1$ . Write  $x^n = (x_k^n)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  and  $y = (y_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ . For  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|x_k^n| \leq \|x^n\|_2 \rightarrow 0$  and  $|x_k^n - y_k| \leq \|x^n - y\|_1 \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . So  $y = 0$  which means that  $\Gamma(T)$  is closed.  $\blacksquare$

#### Application

Let  $X$  be a normed space and  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  a sequence in  $X$  such that  $\forall f \in X^* \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f(x_n)| < \infty$ .

► **Claim.** There exists  $C \geq 0$  such that, for all  $f \in X^*$ ,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f(x_n)| \leq C\|f\|$ .

*Proof of Claim.* Define  $T: X^* \rightarrow \ell_1$ ,  $f \mapsto f(x_n)$ . This is well-defined by hypothesis and also linear. Moreover,  $X^*$  and  $\ell_1$  are complete, so we can again use Theorem 4.8. Suppose  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  in  $X^*$  and  $Tf_n \rightarrow y = (y_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $\ell_1$ . As before, for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_n(x^k) \rightarrow y(x^k)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . But  $|f_n(x_k)| \leq \|f_n\| \|x^k\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence,  $y = 0$  as required.  $\blacksquare$

**Exercise.** Prove the above claims using Theorem 4.2 and Corollary 4.3.

#### Application

► **Claim.** An infinite-dimensional Banach space  $X$  has no countable (algebraic) basis.

*Proof.* Suppose  $B = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots\}$  is a countable basis of  $X$ . Note that  $B$  is countably infinite since  $\dim X = \infty$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $F_n = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$ . Since  $\dim F_n < \infty$ , we know from Corollary 3.2 that  $F_n$  is closed in  $X$ . Let  $x \in F_n$ ,  $r > 0$ . Then

$$x + \frac{r}{\|e_{n+1}\| + 1} e_{n+1} \in D_r(x) \setminus F_n$$

So  $D_r(x) \not\subseteq F_n$  and thus  $\text{int } F_n \neq \emptyset$ , i.e.,  $F_n$  is nowhere dense. Since  $X = \text{span}B$ , we have  $X = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n$  — a contradiction to Theorem 4.1'.  $\blacksquare$

### Application

Let  $X$  be a vector space. Suppose  $Y$  and  $Z$  are subspaces of  $X$  such that  $X = Y + Z$  and  $Y \cap Z = \{0\}$ , i.e.,  $X$  is an algebraic direct sum of  $Y$  and  $Z$ . Then  $T: Y \times Z \rightarrow X, (y, z) \mapsto y + z$  is a linear bijection. Note that  $P: X \rightarrow Y, x = y + z \mapsto y$  is linear with  $\text{im } P = Y$  and  $\ker P = Z$ . This is called the *projection of  $X$  onto  $Y$  along  $Z$* . On the other hand,  $I - P$  is the projection of  $X$  onto  $Z$  along  $Y$ .

Now, suppose  $X$  is a normed space. Recall that  $Y \times Z$  is a normed space when equipped with the norm  $\|(y, z)\| = \|y\| + \|z\|$ . We denote this normed space by  $Y \oplus Z$ . The norm topology on  $Y \oplus Z$  is the product topology. Note that  $T: Y \oplus Z \rightarrow X$  is a continuous linear bijection:

$$\|T(y, z)\| = \|y + z\| \leq \|y\| + \|z\| = \|(y, z)\|$$

If  $T^{-1}$  is also continuous (i.e.,  $\|T^{-1}(y + z)\| = \|(y, z)\| = \|y\| + \|z\| \leq C\|y + z\|$  for some  $C > 0$ ), then  $X \sim Y \oplus Z$  and we write  $X = Y \oplus Z$  and say that  $X$  is the (*topological*) *direct sum of  $Y$  and  $Z$* .

► **Claim.** Suppose  $X$  is a Banach space, with subspaces  $Y$  and  $Z$  such that  $X = Y + Z$  and  $Y \cap Z = \{0\}$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i)  $Y$  and  $Z$  are closed subspaces
- (ii)  $X = Y \oplus Z$
- (iii)  $P$  is continuous

*Proof.* (i)  $\implies$  (ii):  $Y$  and  $Z$  are Banach spaces and hence so is  $Y \oplus Z$ . Since  $T: Y \oplus Z \rightarrow X$  is a continuous linear bijection,  $T^{-1}$  is continuous by Theorem 4.6.

(ii)  $\implies$  (iii):  $\|P(y + z)\| = \|y\| \leq \|y\| + \|z\| \leq C\|y + z\|$

(iii)  $\implies$  (i):  $Z = \ker P = P^{-1}(\{0\})$  and  $Y = \ker(I - P) = (I - P)^{-1}(\{0\})$  ■

**Exercise.** Show that (i)  $\implies$  (iii) directly using the closed graph theorem.

## 5 $C(K)$ spaces

Let  $K$  be a set, and let  $\ell_\infty(K) := \{f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ bdd}\}$ . This is a Banach space in the sup-norm  $\|f\|_\infty = \sup_{x \in K} |f(x)|$ .

**Example.** For  $K = \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\ell_\infty(K) = \ell_\infty$ .

Let  $K$  be a topological space. Let  $C_b(K) := \{f \in \ell_\infty(K) \mid f \text{ cts}\}$ . By the uniform limit theorem, this is a closed subspace of  $\ell_\infty(K)$  and hence a Banach space. In the case that  $K$  is a *compact* topological space, we also consider  $C(K) = \{f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ cts}\} = C_b(K)$ .

**Remark.** We can replace  $\mathbb{R}$  by  $\mathbb{C}$  in all of the above.

### Interlude: Completions

Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space. A *completion* of  $(M, d)$  is a complete metric space  $(\tilde{M}, \tilde{d})$  with an isometric map  $j: M \rightarrow \tilde{M}$  such that  $j(M)$  is dense in  $\tilde{M}$ .

#### Theorem 5.1

*Every metric space  $(M, d)$  has a completion.*

*Proof.* WLOG,  $M \neq \emptyset$  (result is trivial in that case). For  $x \in M$ , define  $f_x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $y \mapsto d(x, y)$ . Fix  $x_0 \in M$ . Define  $j: M \rightarrow \ell_\infty(M)$ ,  $x \mapsto f_x - f_{x_0}$ . Then, for every  $y \in M$ ,

$$|f_x(y) - f_{x_0}(y)| = |d(x, y) - d(x_0, y)| \leq d(x, x_0)$$

so  $j(x) \in \ell_\infty(M)$  for all  $x \in M$ . Moreover, for any  $x, z \in M$ , we have

$$\|j(x) - j(z)\|_\infty = \sup_{y \in M} |d(x, y) - d(z, y)| \leq d(x, z)$$

with equality attained when  $y = z$ , so  $j$  is an isometric map. Let  $\tilde{M} = \overline{j(M)}$  with  $\tilde{d}(f, g) = \|f - g\|_\infty$ . Since  $\tilde{M}$  is a closed subset of the complete space  $\ell_\infty(M)$ , it is complete. ■

**Remark.** Completions are unique. Suppose  $(\tilde{M}_1, \tilde{d}_1)$  and  $(\tilde{M}_2, \tilde{d}_2)$  are completions of  $(M, d)$  with isometric maps  $j_1: M \rightarrow \tilde{M}_1$  and  $j_2: M \rightarrow \tilde{M}_2$ . Then there exists an isometry  $\theta: \tilde{M}_1 \rightarrow \tilde{M}_2$  such that  $\theta \circ j_1 = j_2$ . Indeed, given  $x \in \tilde{M}_1$ , pick a sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $M$  such that  $j_1(x_n) \rightarrow x$  and then define  $\theta(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} j_2(x_n)$ .

#### Theorem 5.2

*The completion  $(\tilde{X}, \tilde{d})$  of a normed space  $X$  is a normed space. Moreover, the isometric map  $j: X \rightarrow \tilde{X}$  is linear.*

*Proof.* Given  $x, y \in \tilde{X}$  and scalar  $\lambda$ , pick sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  and  $(y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $X$  such that  $j(x_n) \rightarrow x$  and  $j(y_n) \rightarrow y$  in  $\tilde{X}$ . Then define  $x + y = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} j(x_n + y_n)$ ,  $\lambda x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} j(\lambda x_n)$  and  $\|x\| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x_n\|$ . It is routine to verify that these are well-defined, that  $\tilde{X}$  becomes a normed space with  $\tilde{d}$  the metric induced by the norm, and that  $j$  is linear. ■

Note that we have the canonical embedding  $X \rightarrow X^{**}$ ,  $x \mapsto \hat{x}$ , which is isometric and linear. We can thus take  $\tilde{X} = \overline{\{\hat{x}: x \in X\}}$ .

## 5.1 Normal spaces: Urysohn and Tietze

**Definition** Normal space

Let  $X$  be a topological space. We say that  $X$  is normal if, for every  $E, F \subset X$  such that  $E, F$  are closed and  $E \cap F = \emptyset$ , there exist open sets  $U, V \subset X$  such that  $E \subset U$ ,  $F \subset V$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .

**Proposition 5.3**

- (i) Metric spaces are normal.
- (ii) Compact Hausdorff spaces are normal.

*Proof.* (i): Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space. For  $x, y \in M$ ,  $|d(x, A) - d(y, A)| \leq d(x, y)$ . For  $x \in M$ ,  $d(x, A) = 0 \iff x \in \overline{A}$ . Let  $E, F$  be disjoint closed subsets of  $M$ , and let

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \{x \in X : d(x, E) < d(x, F)\} \\ V &= \{x \in X : d(x, E) > d(x, F)\} \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $U \cap V = \emptyset$  and that  $U, V$  are open since  $x \mapsto d(x, E) - d(x, F)$  is continuous. Finally, for  $x \in E$ , we have  $x \notin F = \overline{F}$  so  $d(x, E) = 0 < d(x, F)$ . Thus  $E \subset U$  and, similarly,  $F \subset V$ .

(ii): Let  $K$  be a compact Hausdorff topological space. Let  $E, F$  be disjoint closed subsets of  $K$ .

STEP 1: We first prove that we can separate  $x \in E$  and  $F$ .

For all  $y \in F$ , there exist disjoint open sets  $U_y, V_y \subset K$  such that  $x \in U_y$  and  $y \in V_y$ .

Note that  $\{V_y\}_{y \in F}$  is an open cover for  $F$ . As a closed subset of a compact space,  $F$  is compact, which implies that there exists  $y_1, \dots, y_n \in F$  such that  $F \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{y_i}$ .

Now, let  $\tilde{U} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{y_i}$  and  $\tilde{V} = \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{y_i}$ . Note that  $\tilde{U}, \tilde{V}$  are open and disjoint, with  $x \in \tilde{U}$  and  $F \subset \tilde{V}$ .

STEP 2: Separate  $E$  and  $F$

Using STEP 1, for each  $x \in E$ , we can pick disjoint open sets  $U_x, V_x \subset K$  such that  $x \in U_x$  and  $F \subset V_x$ . Note that  $\{U_x\}_{x \in E}$  is an open cover of  $E$ . As a closed subset of a compact space,  $E$  is compact, so we can pick  $x_1, \dots, x_m \in E$  such that  $E \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^m U_{x_i}$ .

Let  $U = \bigcup_{i=1}^m U_{x_i}$  and  $V = \bigcap_{i=1}^m V_{x_i}$ . Notably,  $U$  and  $V$  are open and disjoint, with  $E \subset U$  and  $F \subset V$ . ■

**Theorem 5.4** Urysohn's lemma

Let  $K$  be a normal topological space. Then, for disjoint closed subsets  $E, F \subset K$ , there exists a continuous function  $f: K \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that  $f|_E = 0$  and  $f|_F = 1$ .

**Remark.** In a metric space, we can take

$$f(x) = \frac{d(x, E)}{d(x, E) + d(x, F)}$$

Of course, for a general topological space, we need a different construction. In that case, we use the following lemma.

**Lemma 5.5**

Let  $K$  be a topological space and  $F_t, t \in \mathbb{Q}^+$  be open subsets of  $K$  such that

- (i)  $K = \bigcup_{t \in \mathbb{Q}^+} F_t$
- (ii) for every  $s < t$  in  $\mathbb{Q}^+$ ,  $\overline{F}_s \subset F_t$

Then  $f: K \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ ,  $x \mapsto \inf\{t \in \mathbb{Q}^+ : x \in F_t\}$  is continuous.

*Proof.* Note that (i) implies that  $f$  is well-defined. It is easy to check that, for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(x) < t \iff \exists s \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \text{ with } s < t \text{ s.t. } x \in F_s$$

Moreover, observe that, for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(x) \leq t \iff (\forall s \in \mathbb{Q}^+, t < s \implies x \in \overline{F}_s)$$

Indeed,  $(\implies)$  follows from the definition of inf:

$$t < s \text{ in } \mathbb{Q}^+ \implies \exists u \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \cap (t, s) \text{ s.t. } x \in F_u \subset F_s \subset \overline{F}_s$$

To see  $(\iff)$ , note that, if  $t < s$ , we can pick  $u \in \mathbb{Q}^+$  such that  $u \in (t, s)$ . Then  $x \in \overline{F}_u \subset F_s$ , so  $f(x) \leq s$ . This is true for all  $s \in \mathbb{Q}^+$  with  $s > t$ , so we have  $f(x) \leq t$ .

Putting everything together, we have that, for all  $a < b$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\{x \in K : f(x) \in (a, b)\} = \left( \bigcup_{\substack{t \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \\ t > b}} F_t \right) \setminus \left( \bigcap_{\substack{t \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \\ t > a}} \overline{F}_t \right)$$

is open, so  $f$  is continuous. ■

**Remark.** Suppose  $E \subset W$  in some normal space, with  $E$  closed in  $K$  and  $W$  open in  $K$ . Observe that there exists open  $U \subset K$  such that  $E \subset U \subset \overline{U} \subset W$ . Indeed,  $E$  and  $K \setminus W$  are disjoint closed sets, so there exist disjoint open sets  $U, V$  such that  $E \subset U$  and  $K \setminus W \subset V$ . Then  $U \subset K \setminus V$ , so  $\overline{U} \subset K \setminus V$  and thus  $E \subset U \subset \overline{U} \subset K \setminus V \subset W$ .

With the above lemma established, we can now prove Urysohn's lemma.

*Proof of Theorem 5.4.* Enumerate  $\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$  as  $q_0 = 0, q_1 = 1, q_2, q_3, \dots$ . Let  $F_0 = E$  and  $F_1 = K \setminus E$ ,  $F_t = K$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{Q}_{>1}$ . We have  $\overline{F}_0 = F_0 \subset F_1$  and  $\overline{F}_1 \subset F_t$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{Q}_{>1}$ . We then construct open sets  $F_{q_n}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , inductively as follows: Suppose we have  $F_{q_0}, F_{q_1}, \dots, F_{q_n}$  for some  $n \geq 2$  such that, letting  $\pi$  be a permutation of  $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$  such that  $q_{\pi(0)} < q_{\pi(1)} < \dots < q_{\pi(n)}$ , we have  $\overline{F}_{q_{\pi(i-1)}} \subset F_{q_{\pi(i)}}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . To define  $F_{q_{n+1}}$ , pick  $1 \leq i \leq n$  such that  $q_{\pi(i-1)} < q_{n+1} < q_{\pi(i)}$ . Since  $\overline{F}_{q_{\pi(i-1)}} \subset F_{q_{\pi(i)}}$ , the Remark above tells us that we can pick an open set  $F_{q_{n+1}}$  such that  $\overline{F}_{q_{\pi(i-1)}} \subset F_{q_{n+1}} \subset \overline{F}_{q_{n+1}} \subset F_{q_{\pi(i)}}$ , completing the inductive construction.

By Lemma 5.5,  $f(x) = \inf\{t \in \mathbb{Q}^+ : x \in F_t\}$  is a continuous function on  $K$ . On  $K$ ,  $f \geq 0$  and, for  $x \in K$ ,  $x \in F_t$  for  $t \in \mathbb{Q}_{>1}$  and so  $f(x) \leq 1$ . Thus,  $f$  is a continuous function  $K \rightarrow [0, 1]$ . On  $E$ ,  $x \in F_t \forall t \in \mathbb{Q}^+$ , so  $f(x) = 0$ . On  $F$ ,  $x \notin F_1$ , so  $x \in F_t \iff t \in \mathbb{Q}_{>1}$ . Thus,  $f(x) = 1$  for  $x \in F$ . ■

**Remark.** If  $K$  is compact Hausdorff, then  $C(K)$  separates points of  $K$ : given  $x \neq y$  in  $K$ , there exists  $f \in C(K)$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

### Theorem 5.6 Tietze's extension theorem

Let  $K$  be a normal topological space and  $L$  a closed subset of  $K$ . Then, for all  $g \in C_b(L)$ , there exists  $f \in C_b(K)$  such that  $f|_L = g$  and  $\|f\|_\infty = \|g\|_\infty$ .

*Proof.* Let  $X = C_b(K)$  and  $Y = C_b(L)$ . Recall that these are Banach spaces in  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ . Define  $R: X \rightarrow Y$ ,  $f \mapsto f|_L$ . Then  $R$  is a bounded linear map with  $\|R\| \leq 1$ . By homogeneity, it suffices to show that  $R(B_X) \supset B_Y$ .

Let  $G \subset B_Y$ . So  $g: L \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ . Let  $E = g^{-1}([-1, -\frac{1}{3}])$  and  $F = g^{-1}([\frac{1}{3}, 1])$ . Then  $E, F$  are disjoint and closed in  $K$ . By Theorem 5.4, there exists a continuous function  $h: K \rightarrow [0, 1]$  with

$h|_E = 0$  and  $h|_F = 1$ . Let  $f = \frac{2}{3}(h - \frac{1}{2})$ . Then  $f: K \rightarrow [-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}]$  is continuous and  $f|_E = -\frac{1}{3}$  and  $f|_F = \frac{1}{3}$ . Now, it is easy to check that, for all  $x \in L$ ,  $|f(x) - g(x)| \leq \frac{2}{3}$ . Then  $f \in \frac{1}{3}B_X$  and  $\|R(f) - g\| \leq \frac{2}{3}$ , i.e.,  $R(\frac{1}{3}B_X)$  is  $\frac{2}{3}$ -dense in  $B_Y$ . By 4.4, we conclude that

$$R\left(\frac{\frac{1}{3}}{1-\frac{2}{3}}B_X\right) = R(B_X) \supset B_Y.$$

as required. ■

**Remark.** The above proof is for the real case.

**Exercise.** Deduce the complex case from Theorem 5.6.

## 5.2 Stone-Weierstrass theorem

In this subsection, we take  $K$  to be a compact topological space. We know that  $C(K)$  is a Banach space in  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ . As well as being a vector space,  $C(K)$  is an algebra: there exists a ‘multiplication’ binary operation  $(f, g) \mapsto fg$  such that, for all  $f, g, h \in C(K)$  and scalars  $\lambda$ ,

- (i)  $(fg)h = f(gh)$
- (ii)  $f(g+h) = fg + fh$  and  $(f+g)h = fh + gh$
- (iii)  $f(\lambda g) = (\lambda f)g = \lambda(fg)$

In fact, it is a commutative unital algebra. Moreover, for all  $f, g \in C(K)$ ,  $\|fg\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_\infty \|g\|_\infty$  since for all  $x \in K$ ,  $|(fg)(x)| = |f(x)||g(x)| \leq \|f\|_\infty \|g\|_\infty$ .

An algebra  $A$  which is also a normed space such that  $\|ab\| \leq \|a\|\|b\|$  for all  $a, b \in A$  is called a *normed algebra*. If  $A$  is complete, then it is a *Banach algebra*. For instance,  $C(K)$  is a commutative unital Banach algebra.

**Notation.** In  $C(K)$ ,  $|f|$ ,  $f \geq g$ ,  $\max\{f, g\}$  are understood pointwise.

**Definition** Separates points

We say that  $A \subset K$  separates points of  $K$  if, for every  $x \neq y$  in  $K$ , there exists  $f \in A$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

**Remarks**

- If  $C(K)$  separates points of  $K$ , then  $K$  is Hausdorff.
- By Urysohn’s lemma, if  $K$  is compact Hausdorff, then  $C(K)$  separates points of  $K$ .

**Definition** Strongly separates points

We say that  $A \subset K$  strongly separates points of  $K$  if  $A$  separates points of  $K$  and, for all  $x \in K$ , there exists  $f \in A$  such that  $f(x) \neq 0$ .

**Definition** Subalgebra

We say that  $A \subset C(K)$  is a subalgebra if it is a subspace such that

$$\forall f, g \in A \quad f \cdot g \in A$$

If, in addition,  $1 \in A$ , then we say that  $A$  is a unital subalgebra.

**Remark.** If  $A \subset C(K)$  is a subalgebra, then so is  $\overline{A}$ . This is because multiplication is continuous.

Thus far,  $C(K)$  denotes both the real and complex case. In what follows, we will differentiate between these by letting

$$C^{\mathbb{R}}(K) = \{f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ cts}\}, \quad C^{\mathbb{C}}(K) = \{f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ cts}\}$$

**Theorem 5.7** Stone-Weierstrass theorem

If  $A$  is a subalgebra of  $C^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$  that strongly separates points of  $K$ , then  $\overline{A} = C^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$ .

**Remark.** The condition in the Stone-Weierstrass theorem implies that  $K$  is Hausdorff.

**Lemma 5.8**

For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a real polynomial  $p$  such that  $p(0) = 0$  and

$$\forall t \in [-1, 1] \quad |p(t) - |t|| \leq \varepsilon$$

To get an idea for how to prove this, note that  $|t| = (t^2)^{1/2}$ . On  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $z \mapsto z^{1/2}$  has a holomorphic branch, so it has Taylor expansions on sufficiently small neighbourhoods about  $z_0 \in (0, \infty)$ . We can achieve this by perturbing  $t^2 \mapsto t^2 + \varepsilon$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ . Consider  $f(t) = (t^2 + \varepsilon^2)^{1/2}$  for  $t \in [-1, 1]$ . For every  $t \in [-1, 1]$ , we have

$$|t| \leq \sqrt{t^2 + \varepsilon^2} \leq |t| + \varepsilon$$

so  $|f(t) - |t|| \leq \varepsilon$ . On  $\mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\forall t \in [-1, 1] \quad t^2 + \varepsilon^2 \in [\varepsilon^2, 1 + \varepsilon^2] \subset D_1(1) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - 1| < 1\}$$

Let  $z^{1/2}$  be the holomorphic branch on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$  such that, for  $x \geq 0$ ,  $x^{1/2} \geq 0$ . This has Taylor expansion  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - 1)^n$  on  $D_1(1)$  (with  $a_n \in \mathbb{R}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) which converges uniformly on any compact subset of  $D_1(1)$ , e.g. on  $[\varepsilon^2, 1 + \varepsilon^2]$ .

Now, choose  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that, for all  $s \in [\varepsilon^2, 1 + \varepsilon^2]$ , we have

$$\left| s^{1/2} - \sum_{n=0}^N a_n(s - 1)^n \right| < \varepsilon$$

Then, for all  $t \in [-1, 1]$ ,

$$\left| f(t) - \sum_{n=0}^N a_n(t^2 + \varepsilon^2 - 1)^n \right| < \varepsilon$$

so  $q$  is a real polynomial such that, for all  $t \in [-1, 1]$ ,  $||t| - q(t)|| \leq 2\varepsilon$ . Setting  $t = 0$ , we see that  $|q(t)| \leq 2\varepsilon$ . Then  $p(t) = q(t) - q(0)$  is a real polynomial such that  $p(0) = 0$  and  $||t| - p(t)|| \leq 4\varepsilon$ . ■

**Corollary 5.9**

If  $A$  is a closed subalgebra of  $C^{\mathbb{R}}(K)$ , then  $A$  is a lattice:

$$\forall f, g \in A \quad \max\{f, g\} \in A, \min\{f, g\} \in A$$

*Proof.* Note that

$$\max\{f, g\} = \frac{1}{2}(f + g) + \frac{1}{2}|f - g|, \quad \min\{f, g\} = \frac{1}{2}(f + g) - \frac{1}{2}|f - g|$$

It suffices to show that  $f \in A \implies |f| \in A$ . Fix  $f \in A$ . WLOG, we may assume that  $\|f\|_{\infty} \leq 1$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $p$  a real polynomial as in Lemma 5.8. Write  $p = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k t^k$ . Then  $p(f) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k f^k \in A$ . But for every  $x \in K$ ,  $f(x) \in [-1, 1]$ , so

$$\left| |f(x)| - \sum_{k=1}^n a_k f(x)^k \right| \leq \varepsilon,$$

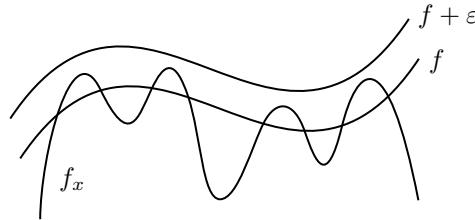
i.e.,  $\| |f| - p(f) \|_{\infty} \leq \varepsilon$ . Thus,  $|f| \in \overline{A} = A$ . ■

*Proof of Theorem 5.7.* We observe that, for any  $x \neq y$  in  $K$  and for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists  $f \in A$  such that  $f(x) = a$  and  $f(y) = b$ . To see this, consider the linear map  $T: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, f \mapsto (f(x), f(y))$ . Choose  $f \in A$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If  $f(x) \neq 0$  and  $f(y) \neq 0$ , then  $Tf$  and  $Tf^2$  are linearly independent (note that  $f^2$  means squaring pointwise). If WLOG  $f(x) = 0$ , then choose  $g \in A$  such that  $g(x) \neq 0$ . Then  $Tf$  and  $Tg$  are linearly independent. In either case, we get that  $T$  is surjective as claimed.

Fix  $f \in C^\mathbb{R}(K)$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Fix  $x \in K$ . For any  $y \in K$ , pick  $f_{x,y} \in A$  such that  $f_{x,y}(x) = f(x)$  and  $f_{x,y}(y) = f(y)$ .

STEP 1: Approximate  $f$  within  $\varepsilon$  above

Let  $U_y = \{z \in K : f_{x,y}(z) < f(z) + \varepsilon\}$ . This is open and  $y \in U_y$ , so  $\{U_y\}_{y \in K}$  is an open cover for  $K$ . By compactness, there exists  $y_1, \dots, y_n \in K$  such that  $K = \bigcup_{j=1}^n U_{y_j}$ . Set  $f_x = \min_{1 \leq j \leq n} f_{x,y_j}$ . Then  $f_x \in \overline{A}$  (by Corollary 5.9), with  $f_x(x) = f(x)$ . Given  $z \in K$ , there exists  $1 \leq j \leq n$  so that  $z \in U_{y_j}$ . Thus,  $f_x(z) \leq f_{x,y_j}(z) \leq f(z) + \varepsilon$ .



STEP 2: Approximate  $f$  within  $\varepsilon$  below

Let  $V_x = \{z \in K : f_x(z) > f(z) - \varepsilon\}$ . Again this is an open cover with a finite subcover  $\{V_{x_i}\}_{i=1}^m$ . Let  $g = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} f_{x_i}$ . Then  $g \in \overline{A}$  with

$$\forall z \in K \quad g(z) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} f_{x_i}(z) < f(z) + \varepsilon$$

Given  $z \in K$ , there exists  $1 \leq i \leq m$  such that  $z \in V_{x_i}$ . So  $g(z) \geq f_{x_i}(z) > f(z) - \varepsilon$ . Thus,  $\|f - g\|_\infty < \infty$  and hence  $f \in \overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$ . ■

**Remark.** The above result does not hold for the complex case. Consider  $C^\mathbb{C}(\Delta)$  and  $A = A(\Delta) = \{f \in C^\mathbb{C}(\Delta) : f \text{ holomorphic on } \text{int } \Delta\}$ .  $A$  is a subalgebra, strongly separates points of  $\Delta$  ( $1, z \in A$ ). However,  $\overline{A} = A \neq C^\mathbb{C}(\Delta)$  since  $z \mapsto \bar{z}$  is in  $C^\mathbb{C}(\Delta) \setminus A$ .

**Theorem 5.10** Complex Stone-Weierstrass theorem

Let  $A$  be a subalgebra of  $C^\mathbb{C}(K)$  that strongly separates points of  $K$  and closed under complex conjugation. Then  $\overline{A} = C^\mathbb{C}(K)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $A^\mathbb{R} = A \cap C^\mathbb{R}(K)$ . This is a subalgebra of  $C^\mathbb{R}(K)$ .  $A^\mathbb{R}$  strongly separates points of  $K$ .  $A$  is also closed under complex conjugation, so  $\operatorname{Re} f \in A^\mathbb{R}$  and  $\operatorname{Im} f \in A^\mathbb{R}$ . By Theorem 5.7,  $\overline{A^\mathbb{R}} = C^\mathbb{R}(K)$ . Noting that  $A \supset A^\mathbb{R} + iA^\mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$\overline{A} \supset \overline{A^\mathbb{R} + iA^\mathbb{R}} = \overline{A^\mathbb{R}} + i\overline{A^\mathbb{R}} = C^\mathbb{R}(K) + iC^\mathbb{R}(K) = C^\mathbb{C}(K)$$

as required. ■

Now, let us explore some applications of the Stone-Weierstrass theorem.

**Example.** The polynomials are dense in  $C[a, b]$  for any  $a < b$  in  $\mathbb{R}$

**Example.** Let  $K$  be a compact space of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  ( $d \in \mathbb{N}$ ). Then the polynomials are dense in  $C(K)$ .

**Example.** Let  $\mathbb{T} = \{z \in \mathbb{C}: |z| = 1\}$ . Then the trigonometric polynomials, i.e., maps of the form

$$z \mapsto \sum_{k=-n}^n a_k z^k, \quad z \in \mathbb{T}, \quad a_{-n}, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{C}$$

are dense in  $C^\mathbb{C}(\mathbb{T})$ . (A key observation in the proof is that  $\bar{z} = z^{-1}$  in  $\mathbb{T}$ .)

**Example.** Let  $K$  and  $L$  be compact Hausdorff. Then the continuous functions on  $K \times L$  of the form

$$(x, y) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) g_i(y)$$

where  $f_i \in C(K)$  and  $g_i \in C(L)$  are dense in  $C(K \times L)$ .

**Example.** If  $K$  is a compact metric space, then  $C(K)$  is separable.

### 5.3 Application to Fourier analysis

Let  $\mathbb{T} = \{z \in \mathbb{C}: |z| = 1\}$ . As usual, we also identify  $\mathbb{T}$  with  $\mathbb{R}/2\pi\mathbb{Z}$ . Recall that  $C(\mathbb{T}) = \{f: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ cts}\}$  is a Banach space in  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  — in fact, its a Banach algebra. We saw above that the trigonometric polynomials are dense in  $C(\mathbb{T})$ , which you may recall from IB Methods is exactly what partial sums of Fourier series are.

For  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we call

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) e^{-in\theta} d\theta$$

the  $n^{\text{th}}$  Fourier coefficient of  $f$ . The series  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n e^{in\theta}$  is called the Fourier series of  $f$ . Immediately, it is natural to ask: Does it converge? If so, in what sense?

Defines the *partial sums* by

$$S_N(f)(z) = \sum_{n=-N}^N \hat{f}_n z^n = \sum_{n=-N}^N \hat{f}_n e^{int}, \quad (z = e^{it})$$

Note that

$$S_N(f)(e^{-it}) = \sum_{n=-N}^N \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) e^{-in\theta} d\theta e^{int} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{in(t-\theta)} d\theta$$

Now, define the  $N^{\text{th}}$  Dirichlet kernel

$$D_N(t) = \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{int}$$

Observe that  $S_N(f) = f * D_N$  and that

$$\begin{aligned} D_N(t) &= e^{-iNt} (1 + e^{it} + e^{2it} + \dots + e^{2iNt}) \\ &= e^{-iNt} \cdot \frac{e^{i(2N+1)t} - 1}{e^{it} - 1} \cdot \frac{e^{-it/2}}{e^{-it/2}} \\ &= \frac{e^{i(N+\frac{1}{2})t} - e^{-i(N+\frac{1}{2})t}}{e^{it/2} - e^{-it/2}} \\ &= \frac{\sin[(N + \frac{1}{2})t]}{\sin(\frac{1}{2}t)} \end{aligned}$$

Moreover,  $D_N(0) = 2N + 1$  and  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_N(t) dt = 1$ .

Now, consider the linear functional

$$\begin{aligned} T_N : C(\mathbb{T}) &\rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ f &\mapsto (f * D_N)(0) \end{aligned}$$

Note that, by symmetry of  $D_N$ , we can write

$$T_N(f) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) D_N(\theta) d\theta$$

### Lemma 5.11

$T_N \in C(\mathbb{T})^*$  and  $\|T_N\| = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D_N(t)| dt \rightarrow \infty$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .

Before we prove this lemma, let us quickly observe a corollary that immediately follows.

### Corollary 5.12

There exists  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$  such that  $(T_N(f))_{N=0}^{\infty}$  is not convergent. In particular,  $S_N(f)(0) \not\rightarrow f(0)$ .

*Proof.* If  $T_N(f)$  is convergent for all  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , then  $(T_N(f))_{N=0}^{\infty}$  is pointwise bounded and hence uniformly bounded by the principle of uniform boundedness (Theorem 4.2). ■

*Proof of Lemma 5.11.* For  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ ,

$$|T_N(f)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(\theta)| |D_N(\theta)| d\theta \leq \|f\|_{\theta} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D_N(\theta)| d\theta$$

so  $T_N$  is bounded with  $\|T_N\| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D_N(\theta)| d\theta$ .

Consider a dissection  $-\pi = a_0 < a_1 < \dots < a_k = \pi$  of  $[-\pi, \pi]$  such that  $D_N(\theta)$  has constant sign on  $(a_{i-1}, a_i)$  for all  $i$ . Fix  $\delta > 0$ . Let  $f(\theta) = \text{sign}(D_N(\theta))$  on  $[a_{i-1} + \delta, a_i - \delta]$ ,  $f(\pi) = f(-\pi) = 0$ , and extend linearly. Then  $\|f\|_{\infty} = 1$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} \|T_N\| \geq T_N(f) &\geq \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{a_{i-1} + \delta}^{a_i - \delta} |D_N(\theta)| d\theta - \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{[-\pi, \pi] \setminus \cup_{i=1}^k [a_{i-1} + \delta, a_i - \delta]} |D_N(\theta)| |f(\theta)| d\theta \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D_N(\theta)| d\theta - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{[-\pi, \pi] \setminus \cup_{i=1}^k [a_{i-1} + \delta, a_i - \delta]} |D_N(\theta)| d\theta \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D_N(\theta)| d\theta - \frac{1}{\pi} (k+1)(2\delta)(2N+1) \end{aligned}$$

Taking  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ , we get  $\|T_N\| \geq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D_N(\theta)| d\theta$ .

Proving that  $\|T_N\| \rightarrow \infty$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$  is left as an exercise. ■

Despite this, it turns out that, thanks to Fejér, we can remedy this by taking averages. Define

$$\sigma_N(f) = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{n=0}^{N+1} S_N(f) = f * \left( \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{n=0}^N D_n \right)$$

We call

$$K_N = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{n=0}^N D_n$$

the  $N^{\text{th}}$  Fejér kernel. Note that

$$K_N(t) = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{n=0}^N e^{-int} \frac{e^{i(2n+1)t} - 1}{e^{it} - 1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{N+1} \frac{1}{e^{it}-1} \sum_{n=0}^N [e^{i(n+1)t} - e^{-int}] \\
 &= \frac{1}{N+1} \frac{1}{e^{it}-1} \left( e^{it} \cdot \frac{e^{i(N+1)t} - 1}{e^{it}-1} - e^{-iNt} \frac{e^{i(N+1)t} - 1}{e^{it}-1} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{N+1} \frac{1}{(e^{it}-1)^2} \left[ e^{i(N+2)t} - 2e^{it} + e^{-iNt} \right] \cdot \frac{e^{-it}}{e^{-it}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{N+1} \frac{e^{i(N+1)t} - 2 + e^{-i(N+1)t}}{(e^{it/2} - e^{-it/2})^2} \\
 &= \frac{1}{N+1} \left[ \frac{\sin\left(\frac{N+1}{2}t\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{1}{2}t\right)} \right]^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Some other properties of  $K_N$  are

- (1)  $K_N \geq 0$  on  $[-\pi, \pi]$
- (2)  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K_N(t) dt = 1$
- (3) for every  $\delta > 0$ ,  $K_N \rightarrow 0$  uniformly on  $[-\pi, \pi] \setminus (-\delta, \delta)$

### Theorem 5.13

For every  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $f * K_N \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $\mathbb{T}$

*Proof.* Let  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $f$  is uniformly continuous, we can pick  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\forall s, t \in \mathbb{T} \quad |s - t| < \delta \implies |f(s) - f(t)| < \varepsilon$$

By (3) above, we can pick  $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall N \geq N_0 \quad \forall s \in [-\pi, \pi] \setminus (-\delta, \delta) \quad K_N(s) < \varepsilon \quad (\dagger)$$

For  $N \geq N_0$  and  $t \in \mathbb{T}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 |(f * K_N)(t) - f(t)| &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K_N(s) f(t-s) ds - f(t) \right| \\
 &\stackrel{(2)}{=} \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} K_N(s) [f(t-s) - f(t)] ds \right| \\
 &\leq \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} K_N(s) [f(t-s) - f(t)] ds \right| \\
 &\quad + \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{[-\pi, \pi] \setminus (-\delta, \delta)} K_N(s) [f(t-s) - f(t)] ds \right| \\
 &\stackrel{(1), (\dagger)}{\leq} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} K_N(s) ds + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{[-\pi, \pi] \setminus (-\delta, \delta)} \varepsilon \cdot 2||f||_{\infty} ds \\
 &\leq (1 + 2||f||_{\infty}) \varepsilon
 \end{aligned}$$

as required. ■

**Remark.** This gives us another proof (a direct one) that the trigonometric polynomials are dense in  $C(\mathbb{T})$ .

Now, recall that  $\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) e^{-int} dt$ , so  $|\hat{f}_n| \leq ||f||_{\infty}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Thus,  $(\hat{f}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \in \ell_{\infty}(\mathbb{Z})$ .

### Proposition 5.14 Riemann-Lebesgue lemma

For every  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\hat{f}_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $|n| \rightarrow \infty$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By density, we can choose a trigonometric polynomial  $g$  such that  $\|f - g\|_\infty < \varepsilon$ . Write  $g(z) = \sum_{n=-N}^N a_n z^n$ . Note that

$$\hat{g}_n = \begin{cases} a_n & |n| \leq N \\ 0 & |n| > N \end{cases}$$

This implies that, for  $|n| > N$ , we have  $|\hat{f}_n| \leq |\hat{f}_n - \hat{g}_n| = |(\widehat{f-g})_n| \leq \|f - g\|_\infty < \varepsilon$ . ■

Thus,  $(\hat{f}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \in c_0(\mathbb{Z}) = \{(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \in \mathbb{C}^\mathbb{Z} : a_n \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } |n| \rightarrow \infty\}$ , which is a closed subspace of  $\ell_\infty(\mathbb{Z})$ .

Next, define the *Fourier transform* as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F} : C(\mathbb{T}) &\rightarrow c_0(\mathbb{Z}) \\ f &\mapsto (\hat{f}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \end{aligned}$$

This is a linear and bounded ( $\|\mathcal{F}(f)\|_\infty = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |\hat{f}_n| \leq \|f\|_\infty$ ). Moreover,  $\text{im } \mathcal{F}$  contains all finite sequences and hence dense in  $c_0(\mathbb{Z})$ .

### Theorem 5.15

*The Fourier transform  $\mathcal{F}$  is injective but not surjective.*

*Proof.* We first prove injectivity. Let  $f \in \ker \mathcal{F}$ . Then for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) e^{-int} dt = 0$ , so  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) g(t) dt = 0$  for all trigonometric polynomials  $g$ . Given  $h \in C(\mathbb{T})$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , pick a trigonometric polynomial  $g$  such that  $\|g - h\|_\infty < \varepsilon$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) h(t) dt \right| &\leq \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) (h(t) - g(t)) dt \right| \\ &\leq 2\pi \|f\|_\infty \|g - h\|_\infty \\ &< 2\pi \|f\|_\infty \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

So  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) h(t) dt = 0$  for all  $h \in C(\mathbb{T})$ . Take  $h = \tilde{f}$  to get  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f|^2 dt = 0$ , which implies that  $f = 0$ .

Next, suppose, on the contrary, that  $\mathcal{F}$  is surjective. Then by Theorem 4.5,  $\mathcal{F}^{-1}$  is continuous, i.e., there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\|\mathcal{F}(f)\|_\infty \geq \delta \|f\|_\infty$  for all  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ . Note that

$$D_N(t) = \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{int}, \quad \mathcal{F}(D_N) = \mathbf{1}_{\{-N, -N+1, \dots, N-1, N\}}$$

so  $1 = \|\mathcal{F}(D_N)\|_\infty \geq \delta \|D_N\|_\infty \geq \delta D_N(0) = \delta(2N + 1)$  for all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  — a contradiction! ■

For those doing II Probability and Measure, you may wonder whether we can get surjectivity by extending the domain to  $L^1(\mathbb{T})$ . Since  $C(\mathbb{T})$  is dense in  $L^1(\mathbb{T})$ , the trigonometric polynomials are still dense in  $L^1(\mathbb{T})$ . However,  $\mathcal{F}$  is still not surjective since we still have  $\|D_N\|_1 \rightarrow \infty$ .

## 5.4 Arzelà-Ascoli theorem

The aim of this subsection is to characterise compact subsets of  $C(K)$  for a compact topological space  $K$ .

Before proceeding, let us recall some relevant concepts from IB Analysis and Topology. Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space.

- The *diameter* of a nonempty subset  $A \subset M$  is

$$\text{diam } A = \sup\{d(x, y) : x, y \in A\}$$

For instance,  $\text{diam } B_r(x) \leq 2r$ . If  $\text{diam } A \leq r$ , then for any  $x \in A$ ,  $A \subset B_r(x)$ . Moreover,  $\text{diam } \bar{A} = \text{diam } A$ .

- For  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $F \subset M$ , we say that  $F$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -net for  $M$  if

$$\forall x \in M \exists y \in F \quad d(x, y) \leq \varepsilon$$

Equivalently,  $M = \bigcup_{y \in F} B_\varepsilon(y)$ .

- We say that  $M$  is *totally bounded* if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \text{ finite } \varepsilon\text{-net for } M$$

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \text{ nonempty subsets } A_1, \dots, A_n \text{ of } M \text{ s.t. } M = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \text{ and } \text{diam } A_i \leq \varepsilon \forall i$$

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \text{ closed subsets } A_1, \dots, A_n \text{ of } M \text{ s.t. } M = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \text{ and } \text{diam } A_i \leq \varepsilon \forall i$$

**Example.**  $(0, 1)$  is totally bounded but not compact.

### Lemma 5.16

Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space and  $N \subset M$ .

- (i) If  $M$  is totally bounded, then so is  $N$ .
- (ii) If  $N$  is totally bounded, then so is  $\bar{N}$ .

*Proof.* (i): Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $M = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  with  $\text{diam } A_i \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $i$ . Then  $N = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (A_i \cap N)$ . Discard  $A_i \cap N$  if empty; otherwise,  $\text{diam } (A_i \cap N) \leq \varepsilon$ .

(ii): Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $N = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  with  $\text{diam } A_i \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $i$ . Then  $N \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bar{A}_i$  (closure in  $M$ ) with  $\text{diam } \bar{A}_i \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $i$ . Finite union of closed sets is closed, so  $\bar{N} \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bar{A}_i$ . ■

### Theorem 5.17

For a metric space  $(M, d)$ , the following are equivalent:

- (i)  $M$  is compact
- (ii)  $M$  is sequentially compact
- (iii)  $M$  is totally bounded and complete

*Proof.* Recall from IB Analysis and Topology. ■

Now, we introduce some new topological concepts.

**Definition** Relatively compact

We say that  $N \subset M$  is relatively compact in  $M$  if  $\bar{N}$  is compact.

### Corollary 5.18

Let  $(M, d)$  be a complete metric space and  $N \subset M$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i)  $N$  is relatively compact in  $M$
- (ii) Every sequence in  $N$  has a subsequence that converges in  $M$
- (iii)  $N$  is totally bounded

*Proof.* (i)  $\implies$  (ii):  $\bar{N}$  is compact and hence sequentially compact.

(ii)  $\implies$  (iii): Given a sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $\bar{N}$ , for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we can choose  $y_n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(x_n, y_n) < \frac{1}{n}$ . By (ii), there exists  $n_1 < n_2 < \dots$ , there exists  $z \in M$  such that  $y_{n_k} \rightarrow z$ . Then  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow z \in \bar{N}$ . Thus,  $\bar{N}$  is sequentially compact and hence totally bounded.

(iii)  $\implies$  (i): Note that  $\bar{N}$  is totally bounded and complete, so it is compact.  $\blacksquare$

**Definition** Equicontinuity and uniform boundedness

Let  $K$  be a compact topological space and  $\mathcal{F} \subset C(K)$ .

- We say that  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous if, for every  $x \in K$  and every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an open neighbourhood  $U$  of  $x$  such that, for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $y \in U$ , we have  $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ .
- We say that  $\mathcal{F}$  is uniformly bounded if  $\mathcal{F}$  is bounded with respect to  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ .

**Theorem 5.19** Arzelà-Ascoli theorem

$\mathcal{F}$  is relatively compact if and only if  $\mathcal{F}$  is uniformly bounded and equicontinuous.

**Remark.**  $\implies$  is trivial for finite  $\mathcal{F}$ , and compact is ‘almost’ finite.

*Proof.* By Corollary 5.18,  $\mathcal{F}$  is relatively compact iff  $\mathcal{F}$  is totally bounded.

( $\implies$ )  $\mathcal{F}$  equicontinuous: Fix  $x \in K$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  be an  $\varepsilon$ -net for  $K$ . For  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $f_i$  is continuous (at  $x$ ), so there exists an open neighbourhood  $U_i$  of  $x$  such that  $y \in U_i \implies |f_i(y) - f_i(x)| < \varepsilon$ . Then  $U = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$  is an open neighbourhood of  $x$ . Given  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $y \in U$ , pick  $1 \leq i \leq n$  such that  $\|f - f_i\| < \varepsilon$ . Then

$$|f(y) - f(x)| \leq |f(y) - f_i(y)| + |f_i(y) - f_i(x)| + |f_i(x) - f(x)| < 3\varepsilon$$

$\mathcal{F}$  uniformly bounded: Let  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  be an 1-net for  $K$ . Let  $M = 1 + \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \|f_i\|_\infty$ .

For every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , choose  $1 \leq i \leq n$  such that  $\|f - f_i\|_\infty < 1$ . Then we have

$$\|f\|_\infty \leq \|f - f_i\|_\infty + \|f_i\|_\infty \leq M$$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . For each  $x \in K$ , pick a neighbourhood  $U_x$  of  $x$  such that, for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and every  $y \in U_x$ ,  $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . Note that  $\{U_x : x \in K\}$  is an open cover for  $K$ , so we can pick  $x_1, \dots, x_m \in K$  such that  $K = \bigcup_{i=1}^m U_{x_i}$ . For  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , let  $Tf = (f(x_i))_{i=1}^m$  and  $S = \{Tf : f \in \mathcal{F}\} \subset \ell_\infty$  (norms of finite-dimensional spaces are equivalent).  $\mathcal{F}$  is uniformly bounded, so there exists  $M \geq 0$  such that, for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $\|f\|_\infty \leq M$ . So  $\|Tf\|_\infty \leq M$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . Thus,  $S$  is bounded in  $\ell_\infty^m$  and hence totally bounded. This implies that we can pick  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  in  $\mathcal{F}$  such that  $\{Tf_1, \dots, Tf_n\}$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -net for  $S$ . Finally, we show that  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  is a  $3\varepsilon$ -net for  $\mathcal{F}$ . Fix  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . Pick  $1 \leq j \leq n$  such that  $\|Tf - Tf_j\| < \varepsilon$ . Given  $y \in K$ , choose  $1 \leq i \leq m$  such that  $y \in U_{x_i}$ . Then

$$|f(y) - f_j(y)| \leq |f(y) - f(x_i)| + |f(x_i) - f_j(x_i)| + |f_j(x_i) - f_j(y)| < 3\varepsilon$$

as required.  $\blacksquare$

## 5.5 Application to compact operators

Let  $X, Y$  be Banach spaces, and  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  be a linear map. We say that  $T$  is *compact* if  $\overline{T(B_X)}$  is compact. Let  $\mathcal{K}(X, Y) = \{T: X \rightarrow Y \mid T \text{ linear and compact}\}$ .

### Remarks

- $\mathcal{K}(X, Y) \subset \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ , i.e., compact  $\implies$  bounded
- For linear  $T: X \rightarrow Y$ , the following are equivalent:

- $T$  is compact
- $T(B_X)$  is totally bounded
- For every bounded sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $X$ ,  $Tx_n$  has a convergent subsequence in  $Y$
- $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ .

Indeed, we have

$$- S, T \in \mathcal{K}(X, Y) \implies S + T \in \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$$

Given a bounded sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $X$ , compactness of  $S$  implies that we can pick infinite subset  $L \subset \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(Sx_n)_{n \in L}$  is convergent in  $Y$ . Since  $T$  is compact, we can pick an infinite subset  $M \subset L$  such that  $(Tx_n)_{n \in M}$  is convergent in  $Y$ . Hence,  $((S+T)x_n)_{n \in M} = (Sx_n + Tx_n)_{n \in M}$  is convergent in  $Y$ , implying that  $S+T \in \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ .

$$- \text{For any sequence } (T_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ in } \mathcal{K}(X, Y) \text{ with } T_n \rightarrow T \text{ in } \mathcal{B}(X, Y), \text{ we have } T \in \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$$

Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Pick  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\|T_n - T\| \leq \varepsilon$ . Since  $T_n$  is compact,  $T_n(B_X)$  is totally bounded. Thus, we can pick  $x_1, \dots, x_m \in B_X$  such that  $\{T_n x_1, \dots, T_n x_m\}$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -net for  $T_n(B_X)$ .

Given  $x \in B_X$ , pick  $1 \leq i \leq m$  such that  $\|T_n x - T_n x_i\| \leq \varepsilon$ . Then  $\|Tx - T x_i\| \leq \|Tx - T_n x\| + \|T_n x - T_n x_i\| + \|T_n x_i - Tx_i\| \leq 3\varepsilon$ . Thus,  $\{Tx_1, \dots, Tx_m\}$  is a  $3\varepsilon$ -net for  $T(B_X)$ . Thus,  $T \in \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ .

- $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$  has the *ideal property*: given bounded linear maps

$$W \xrightarrow{B} X \xrightarrow{T} Y \xrightarrow{A} Z$$

between Banach spaces,  $T \in \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$  implies that  $ATB \in \mathcal{K}(W, Z)$ . Indeed, given a bounded sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $W$ ,  $(Bx_n)$  is bounded in  $X$ , so there exists an infinite subset  $M \subset \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(Tx_n)_{n \in M}$  is convergent in  $Y$  and thus  $(ATBx_n)_{n \in M}$  is convergent in  $Z$ .

### Example

- (1) Every finite-rank operator is compact.

Recall that  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  is *of finite rank* if  $\text{rk}(T) = \dim T(X) < \infty$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}(X, Y) = \{T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y) : \text{rk}(T) < \infty\}$ . If  $T \in \mathcal{F}(X, Y)$ , then  $T(B_X)$  lies in the finite-dimensional  $T(X)$ , so  $\overline{T(B_X)}$  is compact (Heine-Borel). Thus,  $\mathcal{F}(X, Y) \subset \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ . But  $\mathcal{K}(X, Y)$  is closed, so  $\overline{\mathcal{F}(X, Y)} \subset \mathcal{K}(X, Y)$ .

- (2)  $T: \ell_2 \rightarrow \ell_2, (x_n) \mapsto (x_n/n)$  is compact.

Consider  $T_n: \ell_2 \rightarrow \ell_2, (x_n) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} x_i e_i$ . Then  $\|T_n - T\| \leq \frac{1}{n+1}$ , so  $T_n \rightarrow T$  with  $\text{rk}(T_n) = n$ . Hence,  $T$  is compact.

- (3) If  $\dim X = \infty$ , then  $\text{Id}_X$  is not compact:  $\overline{\text{Id}(B_X)} = B_X$ , which is not compact. More generally, if  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  is surjective and  $\dim Y = \infty$ , then  $T$  is not compact. Indeed, by Theorem 4.5, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $T(B_X) \supset \delta B_Y$ .

- (4) Let  $K: [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous. Define

$$\begin{aligned} T: C[0, 1] &\rightarrow C[0, 1] \\ f &\mapsto \left( x \mapsto \int_0^1 f(y) K(x, y) dy \right) \end{aligned}$$

We first show that this is well-defined. Since  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  is compact,  $K$  is uniformly continuous. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\|(x_1, y_1) - (x_2, y_2)\|_2 < \delta \implies$

$|K(x_1, y_1) - K(x_2, y_2)| < \varepsilon$ . Then, for  $|x - z| < \delta$ , we have

$$(Tf)(x) - (Tf)(z) = \left| \int_0^1 f(y)[K(x, y) - K(z, y)] dy \right| \leq \int_0^1 |f(y)|\varepsilon dy = \varepsilon \|f\|_\infty$$

Next, we note that  $T$  is manifestly linear. Moreover, for any  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$|(Tf)(x)| \leq \int_0^1 |f(y)||K(x, y)| dy \leq \|f\|_\infty \|K\|_\infty$$

so  $\|Tf\|_\infty \leq \|K\|_\infty \|f\|_\infty$ . Hence,  $T$  is bounded with  $\|T\|_\infty \leq \|K\|_\infty$ .

### Theorem 5.20

Let  $X, Y$  be Banach spaces and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ . Then  $T$  is compact if and only if  $T^*$  is compact.

**Remark.** Note that  $T^*(B_{Y^*}) = \{T^*g : g \in Y^*, \|g\| \leq 1\}$ . For  $g \in B_{Y^*}$ , we have

$$\|T^*g\| = \sup_{x \in B_X} |(T^*g)(x)| = \sup_{x \in B_X} |g(Tx)| = \sup_{y \in T(B_X)} |g(y)| = \sup_{y \in \overline{T(B_X)}} |g(y)|$$

Thus,  $T^*(B_{Y^*}) \hookrightarrow C(\overline{T(B_X)})$ , which motivates the use of Arzelà-Ascoli in the proof of the Theorem.

*Proof of Theorem 5.20.*

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $K = \overline{T(B_X)}$ , which is a compact metric space with  $K \subset Y$ . Define  $\theta : T^*(B_{Y^*}) \rightarrow C(K), T^*g \mapsto g|_K$ . By the computation in the Remark above,  $\|T^*g\| = \|g|_K\|_\infty$ . So  $\theta$  is well-defined and isometric. Thus,  $T^*(B_{Y^*})$  is totally bounded iff  $\text{im } \theta$  is totally bounded. Now, we show that  $\text{im } \theta$  is uniformly bounded and equicontinuous:

- As  $K$  is compact, it is bounded, so we can pick  $M \geq 0$  such that  $\|y\| \leq M$  for all  $y \in K$ . For  $g \in B_{Y^*}$  and  $y \in K$ ,  $|g(y)| \leq \|g\|\|y\| \leq M$ , so  $\|g|_K\| \leq M$ . So  $\text{im } \theta$  is uniformly bounded.
- For  $g \in B_{Y^*}$  and  $y, z \in K$ ,

$$|g(y) - g(z)| \leq \|g\|\|y - z\| \leq \|y - z\|$$

Given  $y \in K$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have  $|g(y) - g(z)| < \varepsilon$  for every  $z \in K$  with  $\|y - z\| < \varepsilon$  and every  $g \in B_{Y^*}$ . Thus,  $\text{im } \theta$  is equicontinuous.

By Arzelà-Ascoli,  $\text{im } \theta$  is totally bounded and hence so is  $T^*(B_{Y^*})$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $T^*$  is compact, By ( $\Rightarrow$ ),  $T^{**}$  is compact. But recall that we have the commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{T} & Y \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ X^{**} & \xrightarrow[T^{**}]{} & Y^{**} \end{array}$$

Suitably interpreted via identifications,  $T = T^{**}|_X$ . Previously, we used Hahn-Banach to deduce that the canonical map  $\hat{\cdot} : X \rightarrow X^{**}$  is an isometric embedding, which completes the proof. ■

## 6 Hilbert spaces

### 6.1 Basics

**Definition** Inner product space

Let  $X$  be a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ ). An inner product on  $X$  is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : X \rightarrow X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (resp.  $\mathbb{C}$ ) such that

- (i)  $\langle \lambda x + \mu y, z \rangle = \lambda \langle x, z \rangle + \mu \langle y, z \rangle$  (linearity in the first variable)
- (ii)  $\langle y, x \rangle = \overline{\langle x, y \rangle}$  (conjugate symmetry)
- (iii)  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$  with equality iff  $x = 0$  (positive-definiteness)

The pair  $(X, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  is called an inner product space.

**Remark.** Of course (i) and (ii) above imply conjugate linearity in the second variable.

#### Example

The following are inner product spaces:

- $\ell_2^n$  with  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \bar{y}_i$
- $\ell_2$  with  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i \bar{y}_i$
- $C[0, 1]$  with  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt$
- $C(\mathbb{T})$  with  $\langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt$
- $L^2(\Omega)$  with  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f \overline{g} d\mu$  where  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$  is a measure space

**Definition** Norm

Let  $(X, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  be an inner product space. The norm of  $x \in X$  is  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ .

### Theorem 6.1

Let  $X$  be an inner product space and  $x, y \in X$ .

- (i)  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$  (Cauchy-Schwarz)
- (ii)  $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$  (triangle)

#### Remarks

- The above result tells us that the object we called ‘norm’ is indeed a norm.
- $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is continuous: if  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $y_n \rightarrow y$  in  $X$ , then  $\langle x_n, y_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle$

*Proof of Theorem 6.1.* (i): For  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$0 \leq \langle x + ty, x + ty \rangle = \|x\|^2 + t^2 \|y\|^2 + 2t \operatorname{Re}\langle x, y \rangle$$

Choose  $\theta$  such that  $e^{i\theta} \langle x, y \rangle = |\langle x, y \rangle|$ . Apply above to  $x, e^{-i\theta} y$ :

$$0 \leq \|x\|^2 + t^2 \|y\|^2 + 2t |\langle x, y \rangle|$$

We must have discriminant  $\leq 0$ , which gives us the result.

(ii): We have

$$\|x + y\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}\langle x, y \rangle + \|y\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 + 2|\langle x, y \rangle| + \|y\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 + 2\|x\| \|y\| + \|y\|^2$$

as required. ■

**Definition** Hilbert space

A Hilbert space is a complete inner product space.

#### Example

$\ell_2^n$ ,  $\ell_2$  and  $L^2$  are Hilbert spaces, whereas  $C[0, 1]$  and  $C(\mathbb{T})$  are not.

**Proposition 6.2** Polarisation identity

Let  $X$  be an inner product space and  $x, y \in X$ . Then

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{4}(\|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2) \quad (\mathbb{R})$$

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{4}(\|x + y\|^2 + i\|x + iy\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2 - i\|x - iy\|^2) \quad (\mathbb{C})$$

*Proof.* Expand the RHS. ■

**Remark.** The polarisation identity implies that, if a norm  $\|\cdot\|$  arises from an inner product, then that is the unique inner product that gives rise to  $\|\cdot\|$ . This, for instance, allows us to talk about *the* inner product space  $(C[0, 1], \|\cdot\|_2)$ .

**Theorem 6.3**

The completion  $\tilde{X}$  of an inner product space  $X$  is a Hilbert space.

*Proof.* Given  $x, y \in \tilde{X}$ , choose sequences  $(x_n), (y_n)$  in  $X$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $y_n \rightarrow y$ . Define the inner product  $\langle x, y \rangle = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_n, y_n \rangle$ . It is routine to verify that this is well-defined and defines an inner product on  $\tilde{X}$  that extends the one on  $X$ . Given  $x \in \tilde{X}$ , choose  $(x_n)$  in  $X$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x$ . Then

$$\|x\| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x_n\| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\langle x_n, x_n \rangle} = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$

as required. ■

**Proposition 6.4** Parallelogram law

Let  $X$  be an inner product space and  $x, y \in X$ . Then

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

*Proof.*  $\|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = \langle x + y, x + y \rangle + \langle x - y, x - y \rangle = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2$  ■

**Remarks**

- There is a converse: if a normed space  $X$  satisfies the parallelogram law, then  $X$  is an inner product space. This gives another proof of Theorem 6.3.
- We also have the *generalised parallelogram law*: Given  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  in an inner product space  $X$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{\varepsilon \in \{\pm 1\}^n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i x_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i\|^2$$

**Definition** Orthogonal

Let  $X$  be an inner product space and  $x, y \in X$ . We say that  $x$  and  $y$  are orthogonal and write  $x \perp y$  if  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ .

**Proposition 6.5** Pythagoras' theorem

$$x \perp y \implies \|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$$

*Proof.*  $\|x + y\|^2 = \langle x + y, x + y \rangle = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}\langle x, y \rangle = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$  ■

**Remark.** We can generalise the above result. For  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in X$  pairwise orthogonal,

$$\left\| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i\|^2$$

Note that, for  $S = \{(1 + \frac{1}{n})e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subset \ell_2$ ,  $d(0, S) = \inf_{s \in S} \|0 - s\| = 1$  is not attained by any  $s \in S$ .

**Theorem 6.6** Closed point theorem

Let  $Y$  be a closed subspace of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , and let  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . Then there is a unique  $y \in Y$  for which  $\|x - y\| = d(x, Y)$ .

*Proof.* Pick a sequence  $(y_n)$  in  $Y$  such that  $\|x - y_n\| \rightarrow d(x, Y)$ . Applying Proposition 6.4 to  $x - y_m$  and  $x - y_n$ , we get

$$\|2x - y_m - y_n\|^2 + \|y_m - y_n\|^2 = 2\|x - y_m\|^2 + 2\|x - y_n\|^2$$

Rearranging, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \|y_m - y_n\|^2 &= 2\|x - y_m\|^2 + 2\|x - y_n\|^2 - 4\left\|x - \underbrace{\frac{y_m + y_n}{2}}_{\in Y}\right\|^2 \\ &\leq 2\|x - y_m\|^2 + 2\|x - y_n\|^2 - 4d(x, Y)^2 \end{aligned}$$

which implies that  $(y_n)$  is Cauchy. Since  $Y$  is a closed subspace of a complete metric space, it is complete and thus  $(y_n)$  converges to some  $y \in Y$ . Finally, note that  $\|x - y\| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x - y_n\| = d(x, Y)$ .

Now, suppose  $z \in Y$  also satisfies  $\|x - z\| = d(x, Y)$ . By Proposition 6.4, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|2x - y - z\|^2 + \|y - z\|^2 &= 2\|x - y\|^2 + 2\|x - z\|^2 \\ \implies \|y - z\|^2 &= 4d(x, Y)^2 - 4\left\|x - \frac{y+z}{2}\right\|^2 \leq 0 \\ \implies y &= z \end{aligned}$$

as required. ■

## 6.2 Riesz representation theorem

In this subsection, we are concerned with identifying  $\mathcal{H}^*$  given a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ .

Let  $X$  be an inner product space and  $y \in X$ . Define  $\theta_y: X \rightarrow \{\text{scalars}\}, x \mapsto \langle x, y \rangle$ . Note that  $\theta_y$  is linear, and by Cauchy-Schwarz,  $|\theta_y(x)| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$ , so  $\theta_y \in X^*$  and  $\|\theta_y\| \leq \|y\|$ . In fact, taking  $x = y$  shows that  $\|\theta_y\| = \|y\|$ .

### Definition

Let  $X$  be an inner product space. For  $y \in X$ , let

$$y^\perp = \{x \in X : \langle x, y \rangle = 0\} = \ker \theta_y$$

For  $S \subset X$ , let

$$S^\perp = \{x \in X : \forall y \in S \quad \langle x, y \rangle = 0\} = \bigcap_{s \in S} s^\perp$$

### Remarks

- We read the above as ‘ $y$  perp’ and ‘ $S$  perp’.
- Both are closed subspaces of  $X$ .

### Theorem 6.7

Let  $Y$  be a closed subspace of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then  $\mathcal{H} = Y \oplus Y^\perp$ .

**Remark.** We say that  $\mathcal{H}$  is the *orthogonal direct sum* of  $Y$  and  $Y^\perp$  and that  $Y^\perp$  is the *orthogonal complement* of  $Y$ .

*Proof of Theorem 6.7.* Since  $Y$  and  $Y^\perp$  are closed subspaces and  $\mathcal{H}$  is complete, it suffices (by one of our applications of the Baire category theorem) to show that  $\mathcal{H}$  is the algebraic direct sum of  $Y$  and  $Y^\perp$ :

- $Y \cap Y^\perp = \{0\}$
- $x \in Y \cap Y^\perp \implies \|x\|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \implies x = 0$
- $Y + Y^\perp = \mathcal{H}$

Fix  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . Let  $y \in Y$  be the unique closest point of  $Y$  to  $x$ . Let  $z = x - y$ . It remains to show that  $z \in Y^\perp$ .

Suppose, on the contrary, that  $z \notin Y^\perp$ . Then we can pick  $w \in Y$  such that  $\langle z, w \rangle \neq 0$ . By rotating  $w \mapsto e^{i\theta}w$  if necessary, we may assume WLOG that  $\langle z, w \rangle \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ . Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - y - tw\|^2 &= \|z - tw\|^2 \\ &= \langle z - tw, z - tw \rangle \\ &= \|z\|^2 + t^2\|w\|^2 - 2t\langle z, w \rangle \\ &= \|z\|^2 - t(2\langle z, w \rangle - t\|w\|^2) \\ &< \|z\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

for small  $t > 0$ , contradicting the fact that  $y$  is the unique closest point. ■

**Remark.** The projection onto  $Y$  along  $Y^\perp$

$$\begin{aligned} P: \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathcal{H} \\ y + z &\mapsto y \quad (y \in Y, z \in Y^\perp) \end{aligned}$$

is called the *orthogonal projection onto  $Y$* . For  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ , we have

$$x = \underbrace{Px}_{\in Y} + \underbrace{(x - Px)}_{\in Y^\perp}$$

so  $Px$  is the unique closest point of  $Y$  to  $x$ .

**Theorem 6.8** Riesz representation theorem

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space and  $f \in \mathcal{H}^*$ . Then there exists  $y \in \mathcal{H}$  such that  $f = \theta_y$ .

*Proof.* The result is trivial when  $f = 0$ , so it remains to carefully consider the case  $f \neq 0$ . Let  $Y = \ker f$ , which is a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ . By Theorem 6.7,  $\mathcal{H} = Y \oplus Y^\perp$  and  $Y^\perp \neq \{0\}$  as  $f \neq 0$ . For  $z, w \in Y^\perp$ ,  $f(w)z - f(z)w \in Y$ , so  $\dim Y^\perp = 1$ . Fix  $y \in Y^\perp$  such that  $f(y) = \|y\|^2$ . Given  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $x = u + \lambda y$  for some  $u \in Y$  and scalar  $\lambda$ . Then  $f(x) = f(u) + \lambda f(y) = \lambda\|y\|^2$  and  $\theta_y(x) = \langle x, y \rangle = \lambda\|y\|^2 = f(x)$ . ■

**Corollary 6.9**

For a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , the map

$$\begin{aligned} \theta: \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathcal{H}^* \\ y &\mapsto \theta_y \end{aligned}$$

is an isometric, conjugate-linear isomorphism.

*Proof.* From Theorem 6.8 and our computation at the start of this subsection, it remains to show that  $\theta$  is conjugate-linear:  $\theta_{y+\lambda z}(x) = \langle x, y + \lambda z \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \bar{\lambda} \langle x, z \rangle = (\theta_y + \bar{\lambda} \theta_z)(x)$ . ■

**Remark.** In Chapter 2, we had  $\varphi: \ell_2 \rightarrow \ell_2^*$  is an isometric isomorphism, given by  $\varphi_y(x) = \sum x_i y_i$ . On the other hand,  $\theta_y(x) = \langle x, y \rangle = \sum x_i \bar{y}_i$ .

### 6.3 Orthonormal bases

**Definition** Orthonormal sequence and basis

Let  $X$  be an inner product space. A sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $X$  is called an orthonormal sequence if  $\langle x_m, x_n \rangle = 0$  for all  $m \neq n$  and  $\|x_n\| = 1$  for all  $n$ . If, in addition,  $\overline{\text{span}}\{x_n\} = X$ , then  $(x_n)$  is called an orthonormal basis.

**Example**

- In  $\ell_2$ ,  $(e_n)$  is an orthonormal basis
- In  $\ell_2$ ,  $(e_{2n})$  is an orthonormal sequence but not an orthonormal basis
- In  $C(\mathbb{T})$ , define  $e_n(z) = z^n$  ( $n \in \mathbb{Z}, z \in \mathbb{T}$ ). Note that  $(e_n)$  is an orthonormal sequence:

$$\langle e_m, e_n \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e_m(t) \overline{e_n(t)} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i(m-n)t} dt = \begin{cases} 0 & m \neq n \\ 1 & m = n \end{cases}$$

Moreover,  $\text{span}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is the space of trig polynomials. Given  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , there exists a trigonometric polynomial  $g$  such that  $\|f - g\|_\infty < \varepsilon$ . Then

$$\|f - g\|_2 = \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(t) - g(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2} \leq \varepsilon$$

Hence,  $(e_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$  is an orthonormal basis.

### Remarks

- If  $(x_n)$  is an orthonormal sequence, then it is linearly independent. If  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i = 0$ , then  $a_j = \langle \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i, x_j \rangle = 0$  for all  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .
- If  $\dim X < \infty$ , then any orthonormal basis of  $X$  is an algebraic basis. If  $\dim X = \infty$ , then an orthonormal basis need not be an algebraic basis.
- If  $X$  has an orthonormal basis, then  $X$  is separable — the finite rational combinations of the basis vectors is countable and dense in  $X$ .

### Theorem 6.10 Gram-Schmidt process

Let  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  (possibly finite) be a linearly independent sequence in  $X$ . Then there exists an orthonormal sequence  $(e_n)$  in  $X$  such that  $\text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} = \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ .

*Proof.* Set  $e_1 = x_1/\|x_1\|$ . Suppose we already have constructed  $e_1, \dots, e_n$ . Let  $e'_{n+1} = x_{n+1} - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle x_{n+1}, e_i \rangle e_i$ . Then for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $\langle e'_{n+1}, e_i \rangle = 0$ . Let  $e_{n+1} = e'_{n+1}/\|e'_{n+1}\|$  (note that  $e'_{n+1} \neq 0$ ; otherwise,  $x_{n+1} \in \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n\} = \text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  contradicting linear independence). Finally, we have

$$\text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}\} = \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n, x_{n+1}\} = \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n, e_{n+1}\}$$

as required. ■

### Corollary 6.11

If  $X$  is a separable inner product space, then  $X$  has an orthonormal basis.

*Proof.* Let  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$  be a countable dense set. Pass to a subsequence  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  such that, for all  $n$ ,  $y_n \notin \text{span}\{x_i : i < n\}$ . Note that  $\{y_1, y_2, \dots\}$  is a linearly independent set whose span contains all the  $x_n$ 's, so  $X = \overline{\text{span}}\{y_1, y_2, \dots\}$ . By Theorem 6.10, we can pick an orthonormal sequence  $e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots$  in  $X$  such that  $\text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n\} = \text{span}\{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$  for all  $n$ . Hence,  $(e_n)$  is an orthonormal basis of  $X$ .  $\blacksquare$

### Corollary 6.12

Let  $X$  be an inner product space with  $\dim X = n$ . Then  $X \cong \ell_2^n$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis of  $X$ . Then  $T: \ell_2^n \rightarrow X, (a_i)_{i=1}^n \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n a_i e_i$  is a linear bijection. By Pythagoras,

$$\forall a = (a_i)_{i=1}^n \in \ell_2^n \quad \|Ta\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|a_i e_i\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|^2 = \|a\|_2^2$$

so  $T$  is isometric.  $\blacksquare$

### Theorem 6.13

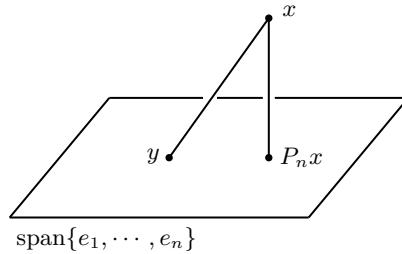
Let  $(e_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be an orthonormal basis of an inner product space  $X$ . Then for every  $x \in X$ ,  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, e_n \rangle e_n$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $x \in X$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $P_n x = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle x, e_i \rangle e_i$ . So  $x - P_n x \perp e_j$  for all  $1 \leq j \leq n$  and hence  $x - P_n x \perp z$  for all  $z \in \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ . Since  $X = \overline{\text{span}}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , it follows that, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $y \in \text{span}\{e_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  such that  $\|x - y\| < \varepsilon$ . Pick  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $y \in \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_N\}$ . Then for  $n \geq N$ ,  $P_n x - y \in \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  and so  $x - P_n x \perp P_n x - y$ . By Pythagoras,

$$\|x - P_n x\|^2 \leq \|x - P_n x\|^2 + \|P_n x - y\|^2 = \|x - y\|^2 \leq \varepsilon^2$$

Hence, for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $\|x - P_n x\| \leq \varepsilon$ .  $\blacksquare$

**Remark.**  $P_n: X \rightarrow X$  is the orthogonal projection onto  $\text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ .



**Definition** Fourier coefficients and Fourier series

We call  $\langle x, e_n \rangle$  the  $n^{\text{th}}$  Fourier coefficient of  $x$  wrt  $(e_n)$ . The sum  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, e_n \rangle e_n$  is called the Fourier series of  $x$ .

**Example.** In  $C(\mathbb{T})$ ,

$$\langle f, e_n \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) e^{-int} dt = \hat{f}_n$$

Moreover, by Theorem 6.13,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n e_n$  converges to  $f$  in  $\|\cdot\|_2$ .

### Theorem 6.14 Parseval's identities

Let  $(e_n)$  be an orthonormal basis of an inner product space  $X$ .

- (i) For every  $x \in X$ ,  $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_n \rangle|^2$ .
- (ii) For every  $x, y \in X$ ,  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle x, e_n \rangle \overline{\langle y, e_n \rangle}$ .

*Proof.* (i): We have

$$\|x\|^2 \stackrel{6.13}{=} \left\| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle x, e_i \rangle e_i \right\|^2 \stackrel{\text{cty of } \|\cdot\|}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \langle x, e_i \rangle e_i \right\|^2 \stackrel{6.5}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n |\langle x, e_i \rangle|^2$$

(ii): Using Theorem 6.13 and continuity of the inner product,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, y \rangle &= \left\langle \sum_n \langle x, e_n \rangle e_n, \sum_m \langle y, e_m \rangle e_m \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{m,n} \langle x, e_n \rangle \overline{\langle y, e_m \rangle} \langle e_n, e_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_n \langle x, e_n \rangle \overline{\langle y, e_n \rangle} \end{aligned}$$

■

By Parseval above, we see that  $(\langle x, e_n \rangle)_n$  is in  $\ell_2$ . Does every  $c \in \ell_2$  arise in this way?

### Theorem 6.15 Riesz-Fischer theorem

Let  $(e_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be an orthonormal basis of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then, for every  $c = (c_n) \in \ell_2$ , there exists  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  such that  $\langle x, e_n \rangle = c_n$  for all  $n$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $c \in \ell_2$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $s_n = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i e_i$ . For  $n \geq m$ ,

$$\|S_n - S_m\|^2 = \left\| \sum_{i=m+1}^n c_i e_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=m+1}^n |c_i|^2 \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } m \rightarrow \infty$$

so  $(s_n)$  is Cauchy and hence converges to some  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . Finally, observe that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad \langle x, e_n \rangle = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\langle s_k, e_n \rangle}_{=c_n \ \forall k \geq n} = c_n$$

as required. ■

### Theorem 6.16

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a separable, infinite-dimensional Hilbert space. Then  $\mathcal{H} \cong \ell_2$ .

*Proof.* Consider  $T: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \ell_2, x \mapsto (\langle x, e_n \rangle)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ . By Parseval,  $T$  is well-defined and an isometric linear map. By Theorem 6.15,  $T$  is surjective. ■

## 6.4 Operators on Hilbert spaces

Let  $(e_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be an orthonormal basis of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Let  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ . Define  $a_{ij} = \langle Te_j, e_i \rangle$ . Then  $A = (a_{ij})_{i,j=1}^{\infty}$  is the matrix of  $T$  wrt  $(e_n)$ . If  $x = \sum x_i e_i$  and  $y = Tx = \sum y_j e_j$ , then

$$y_i = \langle Tx, e_i \rangle = \left\langle \sum_j x_j Te_j, e_i \right\rangle = \sum_j x_j \langle Te_j, e_i \rangle = \sum_j a_{ij} x_j$$

### Example

- The matrix of  $T = I$  wrt any orthonormal basis is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

- The matrix of the right shift operator  $R \in \mathcal{B}(\ell_2)$  with respect to the unit vector basis is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & 1 & 0 & \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

- For  $a = (a_i) \in \ell_\infty$ , the matrix of  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\ell_2)$  defined by  $T(\sum x_i e_i) = \sum a_i x_i e_i$  is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & & & \\ & a_2 & & \\ & & a_3 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

**Remark.** Not every matrix is a matrix of an operator. A necessary (but *not* sufficient) condition is that each column and row is in  $\ell_2$ . However, the matrix of  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  does uniquely determine  $T$ .

### Theorem 6.17

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ . Then there exists a unique map  $T^* : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  such that

$$\forall x, y \in \mathcal{H} \quad \langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$$

Moreover,  $T^* \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ .

**Remark.** We call  $T^*$  the *adjoint* of  $T$ .

*Proof of Theorem 6.17.* We first prove uniqueness. Suppose  $S_1, S_2 : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  are such that, for every  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, S_1 y \rangle = \langle x, S_2 y \rangle$ . Setting  $x = S_1 y - S_2 y$ , we get  $\langle S_1 y - S_2 y, S_1 y \rangle = \langle S_1 y - S_2 y, S_2 y \rangle$ , which implies that  $\|S_1 y - S_2 y\|^2 = 0$ . Hence,  $S_1 = S_2$ .

Next, we show existence. Fix  $y \in \mathcal{H}$ . For each  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ , define  $f(x) = \langle Tx, y \rangle$ . Note that  $f$  is linear and bounded:

$$|f(x)| \leq \|Tx\| \|y\| \leq \|T\| \|x\| \|y\|$$

so  $f \in \mathcal{H}^*$  with  $\|f\| \leq \|T\| \|y\|$ . By Riesz representation theorem, there exists  $z \in \mathcal{H}$  such that

$$f(x) = \langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . Set  $T^*y = z$ . This defines a map  $T^* : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  such that, for every  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$ .

Finally, we check linearity and boundedness:

- $T^*$  linear

$$\langle x, T^*(\lambda y + z) \rangle = \langle Tx, \lambda y + z \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle Tx, y \rangle + \langle Tx, z \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle x, T^*y \rangle + \langle x, T^*z \rangle = \langle x, \lambda T^*y + T^*z \rangle$$

This holds for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ , so  $T^*(\lambda y + z) = \lambda T^*y + T^*z$ .

- $T^*$  bounded

$$\|T^*y\|^2 = \langle T^*y, T^*y \rangle = \langle TT^*y, y \rangle \leq \|TT^*y\|\|y\| \leq \|T\|\|T^*y\|\|y\|$$

which implies that  $\|T^*y\| \leq \|T\|\|y\|$ . Hence,  $T^*$  is bounded with  $\|T^*\| \leq \|T\|$ .  $\blacksquare$

### Remarks

- We had the dual operator  $T^*: \mathcal{H}^* \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^*$  sending  $f \mapsto f \circ T$ . After identifying  $\mathcal{H}$  with  $\mathcal{H}^*$  via the Riesz representation theorem, we get that  $T^*$  is the adjoint.
- If  $(e_n)$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathcal{H}$ , then

$$\langle T^*e_j, e_i \rangle = \overline{\langle e_i, T^*e_j \rangle} = \overline{\langle Te_i, e_j \rangle}$$

Thus, if  $A$  is the matrix of  $T$  wrt  $(e_n)$ , then the matrix of  $T^*$  wrt  $(e_n)$  is  $\overline{A}^{\text{tr}}$ .

### Example

- $I^* = I$  since  $\lambda Ix, y\rangle = \langle x, y\rangle = \langle x, Iy\rangle$
- Recall that right-shift operator  $R$  and left-shift operator  $L$  on  $\ell_2$ . By considering the matrix representations, we have  $R^* = L$ .
- On  $\mathcal{H} = \ell_2$ , the adjoint of  $T(\sum x_i e_i) = \sum a_i x_i e_i$  ( $a \in \ell_\infty$ ) is  $T^*(\sum x_i e_i) = \sum \overline{a}_i x_i e_i$ .

### Proposition 6.18

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space,  $S, T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  and  $\lambda, \mu$  scalars.

- (i)  $(\lambda S + \mu T)^* = \overline{\lambda}S^* + \overline{\mu}T^*$
- (ii)  $(ST)^* = T^*S^*$
- (iii)  $(T^*)^* = T$
- (iv)  $\|T^*\| = \|T\|$
- (v)  $\|T^*T\| = \|T\|^2$

*Proof.* (i) to (iii) are easy to prove via similar manipulations we've done.

(iv): The proof of Theorem 6.17 gives us  $\|T^*\| \leq \|T\|$ . But then  $\|T\| = \|(T^*)^*\| \leq \|T^*\|$ .

(v):  $\|T^*T\| \leq \|T^*\|\|T\| = \|T\|^2$  and, for  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$\|Tx\|^2 = \langle Tx, Tx \rangle = \langle x, T^*Tx \rangle \leq \|x\|\|T^*Tx\| \leq \|T^*\|\|T\|\|x\|^2$$

which gives us  $\|T\|^2 \leq \|T^*\|\|T\|$ .  $\blacksquare$

### Definition Hermitian operator

We say that  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  is hermitian or self-adjoint if  $T^* = T$ .

**Remark.** If  $A$  is the matrix of  $T$  wrt some orthonormal basis, then

$$T \text{ hermitian} \iff \overline{A}^{\text{tr}} = A$$

### Example Some hermitian operators

- $I$  is hermitian
- On  $\mathcal{H} = \ell_2$ ,  $T(\sum x_i e_i) = \sum a_i x_i e_i$  with  $a \in \ell_\infty$  is hermitian iff  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$  for all  $i$
- Let  $Y$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $P: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  the orthogonal projection onto  $Y$  along  $Y^\perp$ . This is hermitian since

$$\langle Px, x' \rangle = \langle y, y' + z' \rangle = \langle y, y' \rangle = \langle y + z, y' \rangle = \langle x, Px' \rangle$$

- For any  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ , we have  $(T^*T)^* = T^*T^{**} = T^*T$ , so  $T^*T$  is hermitian.

**Proposition 6.19**

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a complex Hilbert space and  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ . Then there exists unique hermitian operators  $T_1, T_2$  such that  $T = T_1 + iT_2$ .

*Proof.* We first prove uniqueness. Suppose  $T = T_1 + iT_2$  with  $T_1, T_2$  hermitian. Then  $T^* = T_1^* - iT_2^*$ , so

$$T_1 = \frac{1}{2}(T + T^*), \quad T_2 = \frac{1}{2i}(T - T^*)$$

To prove uniqueness, we simply define  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  as above. It is easy to check that they are hermitian and satisfy  $T = T_1 + iT_2$ .  $\blacksquare$

**Definition** Unitary operator

We say that  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  is unitary if  $T^*T = TT^* = I$ .

**Example.** On  $\mathcal{H} = \ell_2$ , the operator  $T(\sum x_i e_i) = \sum a_i x_i e_i$  is unitary iff  $|a_i| = 1$  for all  $i$ .

**Proposition 6.20**

Let  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ . Then  $T$  is unitary iff  $T$  is isometric and surjective.

*Proof.*

( $\implies$ )  $\|Tx\|^2 = \langle Tx, Tx \rangle = \langle x, T^*Tx \rangle = \|x\|^2$  so  $T$  is isometric. Moreover,  $T$  is invertible and thus surjective.

( $\impliedby$ )  $\langle Tx, Tx \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . By the polarisation identities,  $\langle Tx, Ty \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$  for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ . So  $\langle x, T^*Ty \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$  for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$  and thus  $T^*T = I$ . Thus,  $T$  is injective. But we are given that  $T$  is also surjective. Since  $T$  is a continuous linear bijection, we deduce from the inversion theorem that  $T$  is invertible with  $T^{-1} = (T^*T)T^{-1} = T^*$ .  $\blacksquare$

**Remark.** In general,  $T^*T = I$  does not imply  $T$  is invertible, e.g., the right-shift operator.

**Definition** Normal operator

We say that  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  is normal if  $T^*T = TT^*$ .

**Example.** Hermitian and unitary operators are normal.