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# Banach Spaces

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We have seen that many interesting spaces of functions, such as  $C^o(K)$  for  $K$  compact, and  $C^k[a, b]$ , have natural structures of Banach spaces.

Abstractly, Banach spaces are less convenient than Hilbert spaces, but still sufficiently simple so many important properties hold. Several standard results true in greater generality have simpler proofs for Banach spaces.

Riesz' lemma is an elementary result often an adequate substitute in Banach spaces for the lack of sharper Hilbert-space properties. We include a natural counter-example in the Banach space  $C^o[a, b]$  to the *minimum principle* valid in Hilbert spaces, but not generally valid in Banach spaces.

The Banach-Steinhaus/uniform-boundedness theorem, open mapping theorem, and closed graph theorem are not elementary, since they invoke the Baire category theorem. The Hahn-Banach theorem is non-trivial, but does *not* use completeness.

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## 1. Basic Definitions

A real or complex<sup>[1]</sup> vectorspace  $V$  with a real-valued function, the *norm*,

$$| \cdot | : V \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

with properties

$$|x + y| \leq |x| + |y| \quad (\text{triangle inequality})$$

$$|\alpha x| = |\alpha| \cdot |x| \quad (\alpha \text{ complex, } x \in V)$$

$$|x| = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0 \quad (\text{positivity})$$

is a *normed complex vectorspace*, or simply *normed space*. Because of the triangle inequality, the function

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

is a *metric*. The *symmetry* comes from

$$d(y, x) = |y - x| = |(-1) \cdot (x - y)| = |-1| \cdot |x - y| = |x - y| = d(x, y)$$

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[1] In fact, for many purposes, the scalars need not be  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ , need not be locally compact, and need not even be commutative. Many of the basic results hold for Banach spaces over non-discrete, complete, normed division rings.

When  $V$  is *complete* with respect to this metric,  $V$  is a *Banach space*.

Hilbert spaces are Banach spaces, but many natural Banach spaces are *not* Hilbert spaces, and may fail to enjoy useful properties of Hilbert spaces. *Riesz' lemma* below is sometimes a sufficient substitute.

Most norms on Banach spaces do *not* arise from inner products. Norms arising from inner products recover the inner product via the *polarization identities*

$$4\langle x, y \rangle = |x + y|^2 - |x - y|^2 \quad (\text{real vector space})$$

$$4\langle x, y \rangle = |x + y|^2 - |x - y|^2 + i|x + iy|^2 - i|x - iy|^2 \quad (\text{complex vector space})$$

Given a norm on a vector space, *if* the polarization expression gives an inner product, *then* the norm is produced by that inner product. However, checking whether the polarization expression is bilinear or hermitian, may be awkward or non-intuitive.

## 2. Riesz' Lemma

The following essentially elementary inequality is sometimes an adequate substitute for corollaries of the Hilbert-space minimum principle and its corollaries. Once one sees the proof, it is not surprising, but,

**[2.0.1] Lemma:** (*Riesz*) For a non-dense subspace  $X$  of a Banach space  $Y$ , given  $r < 1$ , there is  $y \in Y$  with  $|y| = 1$  and  $\inf_{x \in X} |x - y| \geq r$ .

*Proof:* Take  $y_1$  not in the closure of  $X$ , and put  $R = \inf_{x \in X} |x - y_1|$ . Thus,  $R > 0$ . For  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $x_1 \in X$  be such that  $|x_1 - y_1| < R + \varepsilon$ . Put  $y = (y_1 - x_1)/|x_1 - y_1|$ , so  $|y| = 1$ . And

$$\inf_{x \in X} |x - y| = \inf_{x \in X} \left| x + \frac{x_1}{|x_1 - y_1|} - \frac{y_1}{|x_1 - y_1|} \right| = \frac{\inf_{x \in X} |x - y_1|}{|x_1 - y_1|} = \frac{R}{R + \varepsilon}$$

By choosing  $\varepsilon > 0$  small,  $R/(R + \varepsilon)$  can be made arbitrarily close to 1. ///

## 3. Counter-example: non-existence of norm-minimizing element

The (provable) *minimum principle* for Hilbert spaces is that a closed, convex subset has a unique element of minimum norm. This has many important elementary corollaries special to Hilbert spaces, such as existence of orthogonal complements to subspaces, and often fails for Banach spaces.

To see that a norm does *not* come from an inner product, it is often most intuitive to check for failure of corollaries of the minimum principle.

An important historical example of failure of functionals to attain their infimums on closed, convex subsets of Banach spaces is the falsity of the *Dirichlet principle* as originally naively proposed. <sup>[2]</sup>

[2] The *Dirichlet principle*, invoked by Riemann but observed by Weierstraß to be false as stated, would assert that a solution of  $\Delta u = f$  on an open set  $\Omega$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , with boundary condition  $u|_{\partial\Omega} = g$  on  $\partial\Omega$ , is a minimizer of the *energy integral*

$$E(u) = \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{2} |\nabla u|^2 + u \cdot f$$

on the Banach subspace of  $C^2(\Omega)$  functions  $u$  satisfying  $u|_{\partial\Omega} = g$ . However, the infimum need not be attained in that Banach space. Hilbert justified Dirichlet's principle in certain circumstances. Beppo Levi (1906) observed that using energy integrals to form the norm (squared) of a pre-Hilbert space in  $C^2(\Omega)$ , and *completing* to a Hilbert space, *does* guarantee existence of a solution *in that Hilbert space*.

For example, for non-dense subspace  $W$  of a Hilbert space  $V$ , there is  $v \in V$  with  $|v| = 1$  and  $\inf_{w \in W} |v - w| = 1$ , by taking  $v$  to be a unit-length vector in the *orthogonal complement* to  $W$ . This minimization property typically *fails* in Banach spaces:

[3.0.1] **Example:** In the Banach space  $Y = C^o[0, 2]$ , with closed subspace

$$Z = \{f \in C^o[0, 2] : \int_0^1 f(x) dx - \int_1^2 f(x) dx = 0\}$$

we claim that, for all  $0 \neq y \in Y$ , there is  $z \in Z$  with  $|z - y| < |y|$ . It *suffices* to show that for every  $y \notin Z$  there is no element of least norm in the translate

$$Z - y = \{z - y : z \in Z\} = \{y' \in Y : \lambda(y') = \lambda(y)\}$$

since the infimum is at most  $|0 - y| = |y|$ . Since  $y \notin Z$ , without loss of generality it suffices to show that there is no element of minimum norm in

$$E = \{f \in Y : \int_0^1 f(x) dx - \int_1^2 f(x) dx = 1\}$$

To this end, let

$$s(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{(for } 0 \leq x \leq 1) \\ -1 & \text{(for } 1 \leq x \leq 2) \end{cases}$$

and

$$\lambda(f) = \int_0^2 f(x) \cdot s(x) dx$$

Certainly  $C^o[0, 2] \subset L^2[0, 2]$ , so by Cauchy-Schwarz-Bunyakowsky,

$$|\lambda(f)| = |\langle f, s \rangle| \leq |f|_{L^2[0,2]} \cdot |s|_{L^2[0,2]} = |f|_{L^2[0,2]} \cdot \sqrt{2}$$

with equality only for  $f$  a scalar multiple of  $s$ . Also, certainly

$$|f|_{L^2[0,2]} \leq \left( \int_0^2 |f|_Y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |f|_Y \cdot \sqrt{2} \quad (\text{for } f \in C^o[0, 2])$$

Since  $s$  is not continuous, non-zero  $f \in Y$  is never a constant multiple of  $s$ , so Cauchy-Schwarz-Bunyakowsky gives a *strict* inequality

$$|\lambda(f)| < |f|_{L^2[0,2]} \cdot \sqrt{2} \leq |f|_Y \cdot 2 \quad (\text{for all } 0 \neq f \in Y)$$

Thus,

$$\frac{1}{2} < |f|_Y \quad (\text{for } f \in E)$$

Yet it is easy to arrange continuous functions  $f$  with  $\lambda(f) = 1$  and sup-norm  $|f|_Y$  *approaching*  $1/2$  from above, by approximating  $\frac{1}{2}s(x)$  by continuous functions. For example, form a continuous, piecewise-linear function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & \text{(for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 - \varepsilon) \\ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{x - (1 - \varepsilon)}{2\varepsilon} & \text{(for } 1 - \varepsilon \leq x \leq 1 + \varepsilon) \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \text{(for } 1 + \varepsilon \leq x \leq 2) \end{cases}$$

The sup-norm of  $g$  is obviously  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\lambda(g) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$ . Thus, functions  $f = g/(1 - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)$  have  $\lambda(f) = 1$  and sup norms approaching  $\frac{1}{2}$  from above. This proves the claimed failure. ///

## 4. Normed spaces of linear maps

There is a *natural norm* on the set of continuous linear maps  $T : X \rightarrow Y$  from one normed space  $X$  to another normed space  $Y$ . Even when  $X, Y$  are Hilbert spaces, the set of continuous linear maps  $X \rightarrow Y$  is generally only a *Banach* space.

Let  $\text{Hom}^o(X, Y)$  denote<sup>[3]</sup> the collection of continuous linear maps from the normed vectorspace  $X$  to the normed vectorspace  $Y$ . Use the same notation  $||$  for the norms on both  $X$  and  $Y$ , since context will make clear which is meant.

A linear (not necessarily continuous) map  $T : X \rightarrow Y$  from one normed space to another has *uniform operator norm*

$$|T| = |T|_{\text{uniform}} = \sup_{|x| \leq 1} |Tx|$$

where we allow the value  $+\infty$ . Such  $T$  is called *bounded* if  $|T| < +\infty$ . There are several obvious variants of the expression for the uniform norm:

$$|T| = \sup_{|x| \leq 1} |Tx| = \sup_{|x| < 1} |Tx| = \sup_{|x| \neq 0} \frac{|Tx|}{|x|}$$

**[4.0.1] Proposition:** For a linear map  $T : X \rightarrow Y$  from one normed space to another, the following conditions are equivalent:

- $T$  is *continuous*.
- $T$  is *continuous at 0*.
- $T$  is *bounded*.

*Proof:* First, show that continuity *at a point*  $x_o$  implies continuity *everywhere*. For another point  $x_1$ , given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , take  $\delta > 0$  so that  $|x - x_o| < \delta$  implies  $|Tx - Tx_o| < \varepsilon$ . Then for  $|x' - x_1| < \delta$

$$|(x' + x_o - x_1) - x_o| < \delta$$

By linearity of  $T$ ,

$$|Tx' - Tx_1| = |T(x' + x_o - x_1) - Tx_o| < \varepsilon$$

which is the desired continuity at  $x_1$ .

Now suppose that  $T$  is continuous at 0. For  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  so that  $|x| < \delta$  implies  $|Tx| < \varepsilon$ . For  $x \neq 0$ ,

$$\left| \frac{\delta}{2|x|} x \right| < \delta$$

so

$$\left| T \frac{\delta}{2|x|} \cdot x \right| < \varepsilon$$

Multiplying out and using the linearity, boundedness is obtained:

$$|Tx| < \frac{2\varepsilon}{\delta} \cdot |x|$$

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[3] Another traditional notation for the collection of continuous linear maps from  $X$  to  $Y$  is  $B(X, Y)$ , where  $B$  stands for *bounded*.

Finally, prove that boundedness implies continuity at 0. Suppose there is  $C$  such that  $|Tx| < C|x|$  for all  $x$ . Then, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , for  $|x| < \varepsilon/C$

$$|Tx| < C|x| < C \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{C} = \varepsilon$$

which is continuity at 0. ///

The space  $\text{Hom}^o(X, Y)$  of continuous linear maps from one normed space  $X$  to another normed space  $Y$  has a natural structure of vectorspace by

$$(\alpha T)(x) = \alpha \cdot (Tx) \quad \text{and} \quad (S + T)x = Sx + Tx$$

for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $S, T \in \text{Hom}^o(X, Y)$ , and  $x \in X$ .

**[4.0.2] Proposition:** With the uniform operator norm, the space  $\text{Hom}^o(X, Y)$  of continuous linear operators from a normed space  $X$  to a Banach space  $Y$  is *complete*, whether or not  $X$  itself is complete. Thus,  $\text{Hom}^o(X, Y)$  is a Banach space.

*Proof:* Let  $\{T_i\}$  be a Cauchy sequence of continuous linear maps  $T : X \rightarrow Y$ . Try defining the limit operator  $T$  in the natural fashion, by

$$Tx = \lim_i Tx_i$$

First, check that this limit exists. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , take  $i_o$  large enough so that  $|T_i - T_j| < \varepsilon$  for  $i, j > i_o$ . By the definition of the uniform operator norm,

$$|T_i x - T_j x| < |x| \varepsilon$$

Thus, the sequence of values  $T_i x$  is Cauchy in  $Y$ , so has a limit in  $Y$ . Call the limit  $Tx$ .

We need to prove that the map  $x \rightarrow Tx$  is *continuous* and *linear*. The arguments are inevitable. Given  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $x \in X$ , for given  $\varepsilon > 0$  choose index  $i$  so that for  $j > i$  both  $|Tx - T_j x| < \varepsilon$  and  $|Tcx - T_j cx| < \varepsilon$ . Then

$$|Tcx - cTx| \leq |Tcx - T_j cx| + |cT_j x - cTx| = |Tcx - T_j cx| + |c| \cdot |T_j x - Tx| < (1 + |c|)\varepsilon$$

This is true for every  $\varepsilon$ , so  $Tcx = cTx$ . Similarly, given  $x, x' \in X$ , for  $\varepsilon > 0$  choose an index  $i$  so that for  $j > i$   $|Tx - T_j x| < \varepsilon$  and  $|Ty - T_j y| < \varepsilon$  and  $|T(x + y) - T_j(x + y)| < \varepsilon$ . Then

$$|T(x + y) - Tx - Ty| \leq |T(x + y) - T_j(x + y)| + |T_j x - Tx| + |T_j y - Ty| < 3\varepsilon$$

This holds for every  $\varepsilon$ , so  $T(x + y) = Tx + Ty$ .

For continuity, show that  $T$  is *bounded*. Choose an index  $i_o$  so that for  $i, j \geq i_o$

$$|T_i - T_j| \leq 1$$

This is possible since the sequence of operators is Cauchy. For such  $i, j$

$$|T_i - T_j x| \leq |x|$$

for all  $x$ . Thus, for  $i \geq i_o$

$$|T_i x| \leq |(T_i - T_{i_o})x| + |T_{i_o} x| \leq |x|(1 + |T_{i_o}|)$$

Taking a limsup,

$$\limsup_i |T_i x| \leq |x|(1 + |T_{i_o}|)$$

This implies that  $T$  is bounded, and so is continuous.

Finally, we should see that  $Tx = \lim_i T_i x$  is the operator-norm limit of the  $T_i$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $i_o$  be sufficiently large so that  $|T_i x - T_j x| < \varepsilon$  for all  $i, j \geq i_o$  and for all  $|x| \leq 1$ . Then  $|Tx - T_{i_o} x| \leq \varepsilon$  and

$$\sup_{|x| \leq 1} |Tx - T_{i_o} x| \leq \sup_{|x| \leq 1} \varepsilon = \varepsilon$$

giving the desired outcome. ///

## 5. Functionals, duals of normed spaces

This section considers an important special case of continuous linear maps between normed spaces, namely continuous linear maps from Banach spaces to *scalars*. All assertions are special cases of those for continuous linear maps to general Banach spaces, but deserve special attention.

For  $X$  a normed vectorspace with norm  $|\cdot|$ , a *continuous* linear map  $\lambda : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a (*continuous linear*) *functional* on  $X$ . Let

$$X^* = \text{Hom}^o(X, \mathbb{C})$$

denote the collection of all such (continuous) functionals.

As more generally, for *any* linear map  $\lambda : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  of a normed vectorspace to  $\mathbb{C}$ , the *norm*  $|\lambda|$  is

$$|\lambda| = \sup_{|x| \leq 1} |\lambda x|$$

where  $|\lambda x|$  is the absolute value of the value  $\lambda x \in \mathbb{C}$ . We allow the value  $+\infty$ . Such a linear map  $\lambda$  is *bounded* if  $|\lambda| < +\infty$ .

As a special case of the corresponding general result:

**[5.0.1] Corollary:** For a  $k$ -linear map  $\lambda : X \rightarrow k$  from a normed space  $X$  to  $k$ , the following conditions are equivalent:

- The map  $\lambda$  is *continuous*.
- The map  $\lambda$  is *continuous at one point*.
- The map  $\lambda$  is *bounded*.

*Proof:* These are special cases of the earlier proposition where the target was a general Banach space. ///

The *dual space*

$$X^* = \text{Hom}^o(X, \mathbb{C})$$

of  $X$  is the collection of *continuous* linear functionals on  $X$ . This dual space has a natural structure of vectorspace by

$$(\alpha\lambda)(x) = \alpha \cdot (\lambda x) \quad \text{and} \quad (\lambda + \mu)x = \lambda x + \mu x$$

for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\lambda, \mu \in X^*$ , and  $x \in X$ . It is easy to check that the norm

$$|\lambda| = \sup_{|x| \leq 1} |\lambda x|$$

really is a norm on  $X^*$ , in that it meets the conditions

- *Positivity:*  $|\lambda| \geq 0$  with equality only if  $\lambda = 0$ .
- *Homogeneity:*  $|\alpha\lambda| = |\alpha| \cdot |\lambda|$  for  $\alpha \in k$  and  $\lambda \in X^*$ . As a special case of the discussion of the uniform norm on linear maps, we have

**[5.0.2] Corollary:** The dual space  $X^*$  of a normed space  $X$ , with the natural norm, is a Banach space. That is, with respect to the natural norm on continuous functionals, it is *complete*. ///

## 6. Banach-Steinhaus/uniform-boundedness theorem

This result is *non-trivial* in the sense that it uses the *Baire category theorem*.

[6.0.1] **Theorem:** (*Banach-Steinhaus/uniform boundedness*) For a family of continuous linear maps  $T_\alpha : X \rightarrow Y$  from a Banach space  $X$  to a normed space  $Y$ , either there is a uniform bound  $M < \infty$  so that  $|T_\alpha| \leq M$  for all  $\alpha$ , or there is  $x \in X$  such that

$$\sup_\alpha |T_\alpha x| = +\infty$$

In the latter case, in fact, there is a dense  $G_\delta$  of such  $x$ .

*Proof:* Let  $p(x) = \sup_\alpha |T_\alpha x|$ . We allow the possibility that  $p(x) = +\infty$ . Being the sup of continuous functions,  $p$  is *lower semi-continuous*: for each integer  $n$ , the set  $U_n = \{x : p(x) > n\}$  is *open*.

On one hand, if every  $U_n$  is dense in  $X$ , by Baire category the intersection is dense, so is *non-empty*. By definition, it is a dense  $G_\delta$ . On that set  $p$  is  $+\infty$ .

On the other hand, if one of the  $U_n$  is *not* dense, then there is a ball  $B$  of radius  $r > 0$  about a point  $x_o$  which does not meet  $U_n$ . For  $|x - x_o| < r$  and for all  $\alpha$

$$|T_\alpha(x - x_o)| \leq |T_\alpha x| + |T_\alpha x_o| \leq 2n$$

As  $x - x_o$  varies over the open ball of radius  $r$  the vector  $x' = (x - x_o)/r$  varies over the open ball of radius 1, and

$$|T_\alpha x'| = \left| T_\alpha \frac{(x - x_o)}{r} \right| \leq 2n/r$$

Thus,  $|T_\alpha| \leq 2n/r$ , which is the uniform boundedness. ///

## 7. Open mapping theorem

The open mapping theorem is non-trivial, since it invokes the Baire category theorem.

[7.0.1] **Theorem:** (*open mapping*) For a continuous linear *surjection*  $T : X \rightarrow Y$  of Banach spaces, there is  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $y \in Y$  with  $|y| < \delta$  there is  $x \in X$  with  $|x| \leq 1$  such that  $Tx = y$ . In particular,  $T$  is an *open map*.

[7.0.2] **Corollary:** A *bijective* continuous linear map of Banach spaces is an *isomorphism*. ///

*Proof:* In the corollary the non-trivial point is that  $T$  is *open*, which is the point of the theorem. The linearity of the inverse is easy.

For every  $y \in Y$  there is  $x \in X$  so that  $Tx = y$ . For some integer  $n$  we have  $n > |x|$ , so  $Y$  is the union of the sets  $TB(n)$ , with usual open balls

$$B(n) = \{x \in X : |x| < n\}$$

By Baire category, the *closure* of some one of the sets  $TB(n)$  contains a non-empty open ball

$$V = \{y \in Y : |y - y_o| < r\}$$

for some  $r > 0$  and  $y_o \in Y$ . Since we are in a metric space, the conclusion is that every point of  $V$  occurs as the limit of a Cauchy sequence consisting of elements from  $TB(n)$ .

Certainly

$$\{y \in Y : |y| < r\} \subset \{y_1 - y_2 : y_1, y_2 \in V\}$$

Thus, every point in the ball  $B'_r$  of radius  $r$  centered at 0 in  $Y$  is the sum of two limits of Cauchy sequences from  $TB(n)$ . Thus, surely every point in  $B'_r$  is the limit of a single Cauchy sequence from the image  $TB(2n)$  of the open ball  $B(2n)$  of twice the radius. That is, the *closure* of  $TB(2n)$  contains the ball  $B'(r)$ .

Using the linearity of  $T$ , the *closure* of  $TB(\rho)$  contains the ball  $B'(r\rho/2n)$  in  $Y$ .

Given  $|y| < 1$ , choose  $x_1 \in B(2n/r)$  so that  $|y - Tx_1| < \varepsilon$ . Choose  $x_2 \in B(\varepsilon \cdot \frac{2n}{r})$  so that

$$|(y - Tx_1) - Tx_2| < \varepsilon/2$$

Choose  $x_3 \in B(\frac{\varepsilon}{2} \cdot \frac{2n}{r})$  so that

$$|(y - Tx_1 - Tx_2) - Tx_3| < \varepsilon/2^2$$

Choose  $x_4 \in B(\frac{\varepsilon}{2^2} \cdot \frac{2n}{r})$  so that

$$|(y - Tx_1 - Tx_2 - Tx_3) - Tx_4| < \varepsilon/2^3$$

and so on. The sequence

$$x_1, x_1 + x_2, x_1 + x_2 + x_3, \dots$$

is Cauchy in  $X$ . Since  $X$  is complete, the limit  $x$  of this sequence exists in  $X$ , and  $Tx = y$ . We find that

$$x \in B\left(\frac{2n}{r}\right) + B\left(\varepsilon \frac{2n}{r}\right) + B\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2} \cdot \frac{2n}{r}\right) + B\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2^2} \cdot \frac{2n}{r}\right) + \dots \subset B\left((1 + 2\varepsilon) \frac{2n}{r}\right)$$

Thus,

$$TB\left((1 + \varepsilon) \frac{2n}{r}\right) \supset \{y \in Y : |y| < 1\}$$

This proves open-ness at 0. ///

## 8. Closed graph theorem

The closed graph theorem uses the open mapping theorem, so invokes Baire category, so is non-trivial.

It is straightforward to show<sup>[4]</sup> that a *continuous* map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  of Hausdorff topological spaces has *closed graph*

$$\Gamma_f = \{(x, y) : f(x) = y\} \subset X \times Y$$

Similarly, a topological space  $X$  is Hausdorff if and only if the diagonal  $X^\Delta = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$  is closed in  $X \times X$ .<sup>[5]</sup>

**[8.0.1] Theorem:** A linear map  $T : V \rightarrow W$  of Banach spaces is continuous if it has closed graph

$$\Gamma = \Gamma_T = \{(v, w) : Tv = w\}$$

[4] To show that a continuous map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  of topological spaces with  $Y$  Hausdorff has closed graph  $\Gamma_f$ , show the complement is open. Take  $(x, y) \notin \Gamma_f$ . Let  $V_1$  be a neighborhood of  $f(x)$  and  $V_2$  a neighborhood of  $y$  such that  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ , using Hausdorff-ness. By continuity of  $f$ , for  $x'$  in a suitable neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ , the image  $f(x')$  is inside  $V_1$ . Thus, the neighborhood  $U \times V_2$  of  $(x, y)$  does not meet  $\Gamma_f$ .

[5] To show that closed-ness of the diagonal  $X^\Delta$  in  $X \times X$  implies  $X$  is Hausdorff, let  $x_1 \neq x_2$  be points in  $X$ . Then there is a neighborhood  $U_1 \times U_2$  of  $(x_1, x_2)$ , with  $U_i$  a neighborhood of  $x_i$ , not meeting the diagonal. That is,  $(x, x') \in U_1 \times U_2$  implies  $x \neq x'$ . That is,  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$ .



*Proof:* It is routine to check that  $V \times W$  with norm  $|v \times w| = |v| \cdot |w|$  is a Banach space. Since  $\Gamma$  is a closed subspace of  $V \times W$ , it is a Banach space itself with the restriction of this norm.

The projection  $\pi_V : V \times W \rightarrow V$  is a continuous linear map. The restriction  $\pi_V|_\Gamma$  of  $\pi_V$  to  $\Gamma$  is still continuous, and still *surjective*, because it  $T$  is an everywhere-defined function on  $V$ . By the open mapping theorem,  $\pi_V|_\Gamma$  is *open*. Thus, the bijection  $\pi_V|_\Gamma$  is a *homeomorphism*. Letting  $\pi_W : V \times W \rightarrow W$  be the projection to  $W$ ,

$$T = \pi_W \circ (\pi_V|_\Gamma)^{-1} : V \longrightarrow W$$

expresses  $T$  as a composite of continuous functions. ///

[8.0.2] **Remark:** The proof introduced two readily verifiable, useful ideas: a product of Banach spaces is a Banach space, and a closed vector subspace of a Banach space is a Banach space.

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## 9. Hahn-Banach Theorem

Hahn-Banach does *not* use completeness, much less Baire category. The salient feature is *convexity*, and the scalars must be  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . Indeed, the Hahn-Banach theorem seems to be a result about *real* vectorspaces. Note that a  $\mathbb{C}$ -vector space may immediately be considered as a  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space simply by forgetting some of the structure.

For  $Y$  a vector subspace of  $X$ , and for  $S : Y \rightarrow Z$  a linear map to another vector space  $Z$ , a linear map  $T : X \rightarrow Z$  is an *extension* of  $S$  to  $X$  when the restriction  $T|_Y$  of  $T$  to  $Y$  is  $S$ .

[9.0.1] **Theorem:** (*Hahn-Banach*) Let  $X$  be a normed vector space with scalars  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $Y$  be a subspace, and  $\lambda$  be a continuous linear functional on  $Y$ . Then there is an extension  $\Lambda$  of  $\lambda$  to  $X$  such that

$$|\Lambda| = |\lambda|$$

[9.0.2] **Corollary:** Given  $x \neq y$  in a normed space  $X$ , neither a scalar multiple of the other, there is a continuous linear functional  $\lambda$  on  $X$  so that  $\lambda x = 1$  while  $\lambda y = 0$ . ///

[9.0.3] **Corollary:** Let  $Y$  be a closed subspace of a normed space  $X$ , and  $x_o \notin Y$ . Then there is a continuous linear functional  $\lambda$  on  $X$  which is 0 on  $Y$ , has  $|\lambda| = 1$ , and  $\lambda(x_o) = |x_o|$ . ///

*Proof:* We treat the case that the scalars are  $\mathbb{R}$ , and reduce the complex case to this.

The critical part is to extend a linear functional by just one dimension. That is, for given  $x_o \notin Y$  make an extension  $\lambda'$  of  $\lambda$  to  $Y' = Y + \mathbb{R}x_o$ . Every vector in  $Y'$  has a unique expression as  $y + cx_o$  with  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , so define functionals by

$$\mu(y + cx_o) = \lambda y + c\ell \quad (\text{for arbitrary } \ell \in \mathbb{R})$$

The issue is to choose  $\ell$  so that  $|\mu| = |\lambda|$ .

Certainly  $\lambda = 0$  is extendable by  $\Lambda = 0$ , so we consider the case that  $|\lambda| \neq 0$ . We can divide by  $|\lambda|$  to suppose that  $|\lambda| = 1$ .

The condition  $|\mu| = |\lambda|$  is a condition on  $\ell$ :

$$|\lambda y + c\ell| \leq |y + cx_o| \quad (\text{for every } y \in Y)$$

We have simplified to the situation that we know this *does* hold for  $c = 0$ . So for  $c \neq 0$ , divide through by  $|c|$  and replace  $y \in Y$  by  $cy$ , so that the condition becomes

$$|\lambda y + \ell| \leq |y + x_o| \quad (\text{for every } y \in Y)$$

Replacing  $y$  by  $-y$ , the condition on  $\ell$  is that

$$|\ell - \lambda y| \leq |y - x_o| \quad (\text{for every } y \in Y)$$

For a single  $y \in Y$ , the condition on  $\ell$  is that

$$\lambda y - |y - x_o| \leq \ell \leq \lambda y + |y - x_o|$$

To have a common solution  $\ell$ , it is exactly necessary that every *lower* bound be less than every *upper* bound. To see that this is so, start from

$$\lambda y_1 - \lambda y_2 = \lambda(y_1 - y_2) \leq |\lambda(y_1 - y_2)| \leq |y_1 - y_2| \leq |y_1 - x_o| + |y_2 - x_o|$$

by the triangle inequality. Subtracting  $|y_1 - x_o|$  from both sides and adding  $\lambda y_2$  to both sides,

$$\lambda y_1 - |y_1 - x_o| \leq \lambda y_2 + |y_2 - x_o|$$

as desired. That is, we have proven the existence of at least one extension from  $Y$  to  $Y' = Y + \mathbb{R}x_o$  with the same norm.

An equivalent of the Axiom of Choice will extend to the *whole* space while preserving the norm, as follows. Consider the set of pairs  $(Z, \zeta)$  where  $Z$  is a subspace containing  $Y$  and  $\zeta$  is a continuous linear functional on  $Z$  extending  $\lambda$  and with  $|\zeta| \leq 1$ . Order these by

$$(Z, \zeta) \leq (Z', \zeta')$$

when  $Z \subset Z'$  and  $\zeta'$  extends  $\zeta$ . For a totally ordered collection  $(Z_\alpha, \zeta_\alpha)$  of such,

$$Z' = \bigcup_{\alpha} Z_{\alpha}$$

is a subspace of  $X$ . In general, of course, the union of a family of subspaces would not be a subspace, but these are *nested*.

We obtain a continuous linear functional  $\zeta'$  on this union  $Z'$ , extending  $\lambda$  and with  $|\zeta'| \leq 1$ , as follows. Any *finite* batch of elements already occur inside some  $Z_\alpha$ . Given  $z \in Z'$ , let  $\alpha$  be any index large enough so that  $z \in Z_\alpha$ , and put

$$\zeta'(z) = \zeta_\alpha(z)$$

The family is totally ordered, so the choice of  $\alpha$  does not matter so long as it is sufficiently large. Certainly for  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\zeta'(cz) = \zeta_\alpha(cz) = c\zeta_\alpha(z) = c\zeta'(z)$$

For  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  and  $\alpha$  large enough so that *both*  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  are in  $Z_\alpha$ ,

$$\zeta'(z_1 + z_2) = \zeta_\alpha(z_1 + z_2) = \zeta_\alpha(z_1) + \zeta_\alpha(z_2) = \zeta'(z_1) + \zeta'(z_2)$$

proving linearity. Thus, there is a *maximal* pair  $(Z', \zeta')$ . The earlier argument shows that  $Z'$  must be all of  $X$ , since otherwise we could construct a further extension, contradicting the maximality. *This completes the proof for the case that the scalars are the real numbers.*

To reduce the complex case to the real case, the main trick is that, for  $\lambda_o$  a *real*-linear *real*-valued functional, the functional

$$\lambda x = \lambda_o(x) - i\lambda_o(ix)$$

is *complex-linear*, and has the *same norm* as  $\lambda_o$ . In particular, when

$$\lambda_o(x) = \operatorname{Re} \lambda(x) = \frac{\lambda x + \overline{\lambda x}}{2}$$

is the real part of  $\lambda$  we recover  $\lambda$  itself by this formula.

Granting this, given  $\lambda$  on a complex subspace, take its real part  $\lambda_o$ , a real-linear functional, and extend  $\lambda_o$  to a real-linear functional  $\Lambda_o$  with the same norm. Then the desired extension of  $\lambda$  is

$$\Lambda x = \Lambda_o(x) - i\Lambda_o(ix)$$

proving the theorem in the complex case.

Consider the construction

$$\lambda x = \lambda_o(x) - i\lambda_o(ix)$$

Since  $\lambda_o(x+y) = \lambda_o x + \lambda_o y$  it follows that  $\lambda$  also has this additivity property. For  $a, b$  real,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda((a+bi)x) &= \lambda_o((a+bi)x) - i\lambda_o(i(a+bi)x) = \lambda_o(ax) + \lambda_o(ibx) - i\lambda_o(iax) - i\lambda_o(-bx) \\ &= a\lambda_o x + b\lambda_o(ix) - ia\lambda_o(ix) + ib\lambda_o x = (a+bi)\lambda_o x - i(a+bi)\lambda_o(ix) = (a+bi)\lambda(x) \end{aligned}$$

This gives the linearity.

Regarding the norm: since  $\lambda_o$  is real-valued, always

$$|\lambda_o(x)| \leq \sqrt{\lambda_o(x)^2 + \lambda_o(ix)^2} = |\lambda x|$$

On the other hand, given  $x$  there is a complex number  $\mu$  of absolute value 1 so that  $\mu\lambda(x) = |\lambda x|$ . And

$$\lambda_o(x) = \lambda(x) + \overline{\lambda(x)}$$

Then

$$|\lambda(x)| = \mu\lambda(x) = \lambda(\mu x) = \lambda_o(\mu x) - i\lambda_o(i\mu x)$$

Since the left-hand side is real, and since  $\lambda_o$  is real-valued,  $\lambda_o(i\mu x) = 0$ . Thus,

$$|\lambda(x)| = \lambda_o(\mu x)$$

Since  $|\mu x| = |x|$ , we have equality of norms of the functionals  $\lambda_o$  and  $\lambda$ . This completes the justification of the reduction of the complex case to the real case. ///