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## 4. Continuous Linear Functions

### 4.1 Definitions and General Properties

Recall that a function $f$ from a topological space $X$ into topological space $Y$ (i.e. $f: X \rightarrow Y$ ) is called continuous at a point $x \in X$ if for every neighborhood $U$ of $f(x)$ in $Y$ there is a neighborhood $V$ of $x$ in $X$ such that $f(V) \subseteq U$. If $f$ is continuous at every point, it is called continuous. A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous iff each open (rsp. closed) set $U$ in $Y$ the set $f^{-1}(U)$ is open (rsp. closed) set in $X$. A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ from a linear space $X$ into linear space $Y$ is called a linear if $f(\alpha x+\beta y)=\alpha f(x)+\beta f(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{X}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in F$. - Linear function of a linear space $X$ into its field $F$ is called linear functional on $X$.

- Let $C(X, Y)$ denote the set of all continuous linear functions from a topological linear space $X$ into a topological linear space $Y$. Then $C(X, Y)$ is a linear space. If $Y=X$, we write $C(X)$ instead of $C(X, X)$. The space of all continuous linear functionals defined on a topological linear space $X$ is called the dual space and denoted by $X^{*}$,i.e. $X^{*}=C(X, F)$. If $X$ is finite dimensional, then $X^{\prime}=X^{*}$


## Definition(4.1.1)

Let $(X, d)$ and $\left(Y, d^{*}\right)$ be metric spaces. A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is called an Isometry if (1) $f$ is bijective, i.e. one -one and onto (2) $d^{*}(f(x), f(y))=d(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$

Theorem(4.1.2) Completion theorem
Let $(X, d)$ be an arbitrary metric space. There exists a complete metric space
$\left(X^{*}, d^{*}\right)$ in which $(X, d)$ can be isometrically embedded in such a way that $X$ is dense in $X^{*}$, i.e. $(X, d)$ is isometric to a dense subspace of $\left(X^{*}, d^{*}\right)$.
Note that : All completions of metric space are isometric.

## Definition(4.1.3)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces, An isometric isomorphism of $X$ into $Y$ is a one-one linear function $f$ of $\mathcal{X}$ into $Y$ such that $\|f(x)\|=\|x\|$ for every $x \in X$. Also we say that $X$ is isometrically isomorphic (or congruent) to $Y$ if there exists an isomorphism of $X$ onto $Y$.

## Remark

Let $f$ be an isometric isomorphism of $X$ into $Y$ where $X$ and $Y$ are normed spaces. Let $x, y \in X$
Then $\|f(x)-f(y)\|=\|f(x-y)\|=\|x-y\|$
Thus $f$ preserves distances and so it is an Isometry.

## Definition(4.1.4)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces. A topological isomorphism of $X$ into $Y$ is a one-one linear function $f$ of $X$ into $Y$ such that $f$ and $f^{-1}$ are continuous on their respective domains. Also

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we say that $X$ is topological isomorphic to $Y$ if there exists a topological isomorphism of $X$ onto $Y$. In other words, $X$ and $Y$ are topologically isomorphic provided there exists a homeomorphism of $X$ onto which is also a linear function.

## Remark

Topological isomorphism space need not be isometrically isomorphic . In fact there do exists examples of pairs op spaces which are topologically isomorphic but not congruent.

## Theorem(4.1.5)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces. Then $X$ and $Y$ are topologically isomorphic iff there exists a linear function of $X$ onto $Y$ and positive constants $\alpha, \beta$ such that $\alpha\|x\| \leq\|f(x)\| \leq \beta\|x\|$.

## Proof :

Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are topologically isomorphic, then there exists a linear function $f$ of $X$ onto $Y$ such that $f$ and $f^{-1}$ are continuous. But $f$ is continuous iff there exists a positive constant $\beta$ such that $\|f(x)\| \leq \beta\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$.
Again $f^{-1}$ is continuous iff there exists a positive constant $\alpha$ such that $\alpha\|x\| \leq\|f(x)\|$ for all $x \in X$. It follows that $X$ and $Y$ are topologically isomorphic iff there exists a linear function of $X$ onto $Y$ and positive constants $\alpha, \beta$ such that $\alpha\|x\| \leq\|f(x)\| \leqslant \beta\|x\|$.

## Theorem(4.1.6)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological linear spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. If $f$ is continuous at 0 , then it is continuous

## Proof:

Let $x \in X$ and let $U$ be a neighborhood of $f(x)$ in $Y$, then $U=f(x)+W$, where $W$ is a neighborhood of 0 in $Y$
Since $f$ is continuous at 0 in $\vec{X}$, then there exist a neighborhood $V$ of 0 in $X$ such that $f(V) \subset W \Rightarrow x+V$ is a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$.
To show that $f(x+V)$ C $U$
Let $z \in f(x+V) \Rightarrow \forall \quad y \in x+V$ such that $z=f(y)$
Since $y \in x+V \Rightarrow y-x \in V \Rightarrow f(y-x) \in f(V)$
$f(y)-f(x) \in f(V) \Rightarrow z-f(x) \in f(V) \Rightarrow \quad z \in f(x)+f(V) \Rightarrow z \in U$
$\Rightarrow f$ is continuous at $x$, then $f$ is continuous.

## Theorem(4.1.7)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. Then $f$ is continuous either at every point of $X$ or at no point of $X$.

## Proof :

Let $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ be any two points of $X$ and suppose $f$ is continuous at $x_{1}$. Then to each $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that

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$$
\left\|x-x_{1}\right\|<\delta \Rightarrow\left\|f(x)-f\left(x_{1}\right)\right\|<\varepsilon
$$

Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|x-x_{2}\right\|<\delta \Rightarrow\left\|\left(x+x_{1}-x_{2}\right)-x_{1}\right\|<\delta & \Rightarrow\left\|f\left(x+x_{1}-x_{2}\right)-f\left(x_{1}\right)\right\|<\varepsilon \\
\Rightarrow\left\|f(x)+f\left(x_{1}\right)-f\left(x_{2}\right)-f\left(x_{1}\right)\right\|<\varepsilon & \Rightarrow\left\|f(x)-f\left(x_{2}\right)\right\|<\varepsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Rightarrow \quad f$ is continuous at $x_{2}$, then $f$ is continuous.

## Lemma (4.1.8)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be Banach spaces and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous, linear and onto function. Then the image of each open ball centered on the origin in $X$ contains an open ball centered on the origin in $Y$.

## Proof : H.W

Theorem(4.1.9) The open mapping theorem
Let $X$ and $Y$ be Banach spaces. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous, linear and onto function, then $f$ is open
Proof :
Let $G$ be open set in $X$. We want to show that $f(G)$ is open in $Y$
Let $y \in f(G)$, then $y=f(x)$ for some $x \in G$
Since $G$ is open set in $X$, there exist $r>0$ such that $\beta_{r}(x) \subseteq G \Rightarrow f\left(\beta_{r}(x)\right) \subseteq f(G)$
Since $\beta_{r}(x)=x+\beta_{r}(0) \Rightarrow x+\beta_{r}(0) \subseteq G$
By our lemma, there exists an open sphere $\beta_{r}^{\prime}(0)$ in $Y$ centered at origin such that
$\beta_{r}^{\prime}(0)_{r} \subseteq f\left(\beta_{r}(0)\right)$
$\Rightarrow \quad y+\beta_{r}^{\prime}(0) \subseteq y+f\left(\beta_{r}(0)\right)=f(x)+f\left(\beta_{r}(0)\right)=f\left(x+\beta_{r}(0)\right)=f\left(\beta_{r}(x)\right) \subseteq f(G)$
Since $y+\beta_{r}^{\prime}(0)=\beta_{r}^{\prime}(y) \Rightarrow \beta_{r}^{\prime}(y) \subseteq f(G) \Rightarrow f(G)$ is open, thus $f$ is an open .
The following special case of the above theorem is very important.

## Theorem(4.1.10)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be Banach spaces. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a bijection continuous linear function, then $f$ is homeomorphism.
Proof :
Since $f$ is bijection continuous function, we need only prove that $f$ is an open function.

## Definition(4.1.11)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be any non-empty sets and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. The set

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

is called the graph of $f$. We shall denote the graph of $f$ by $f_{G}$.i.e.

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

In the case $X$ and $Y$ are normed spaces.Then $X \times Y$ is a normed spaces We will now generalize the above notion of graph

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## Closed Linear Function

## Definition(4.1.12)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed Spaces and let $D$ be a subspace of $X$.The linear function $f: D \rightarrow Y$ is called closed if for every sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ such that $x_{n} \rightarrow x \in X$ and $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow y$, then $x \in D$ and $y=f(x)$.

## Theorem(4.1.13)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed Spaces and let $D$ be a subspace of $X$. The linear function $f: D \rightarrow Y$ is closed iff its graph $f_{G}$ is closed subspace.

## Proof:

Suppose that $f: D \rightarrow Y$ is closed to show that $f_{G}$ is closed subspace.
Let $(x, y)$ be any limit point of $f_{G}$,i.e. $(x, y) \in \overline{f_{G}}$, then there exists a sequence of points in $f_{G},\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right.$ ) where, $x_{n} \in D$ such that $\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right) \rightarrow(x, y)$ $\Rightarrow\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)-(x, y) \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left\|\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)-(x, y)\right\| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left\|\left(x_{n}-x, f\left(x_{n}\right)-y\right)\right\| \rightarrow 0$
$\left\|x_{n}-x\right\|+\left\|f\left(x_{n}\right)-y\right\| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left\|x_{n}-x\right\| \rightarrow 0$ and $\left\|f\left(x_{n}\right)-y\right\| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow x_{n} \rightarrow x$ and $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow y$
Since $f: D \rightarrow Y$ is closed, then $x \in D$ and $y=f(x) \Rightarrow(x, y) \in f_{G} \Rightarrow f_{G}$ is closed.
Conversely, let the graph $f_{G}$ is closed. To show that The linear function $f: D \rightarrow Y$ is closed.
Let $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ be a sequence in $D$ such that $x_{n} \rightarrow x \in X$ and $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow y \Rightarrow\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right) \rightarrow(x, y)$
$\Rightarrow(x, y) \in \overline{f_{G}}$, since $f_{G}$ is closed $\Rightarrow \overline{f_{G}}=f_{G} \Rightarrow(x, y) \in f_{G} \Rightarrow x \in D$ and $y=f(x)$.
Therefore The linear function $f: D \rightarrow K$ is closed.
Theorem(4.1.14) Closed Graph Theorem
Let $X$ and $Y$ be Banach spaces .If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear function, then $f$ is continuous iff its graph is closed

## Proof :

Suppose that $f$ is continuous. To show that $f_{G}=\{(x, f(x)): x \in X, f(x) \in Y\}$ is closed Let $(x, y)$ be any limit point of $f_{G}$, i.e. $(x, y) \in \overline{f_{G}}$, then there exists a sequence $\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)$ in $f_{G}$ such that $\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right) \rightarrow(x, y)$
$\Rightarrow\left(x_{n}, f_{s}\left(x_{j}\right)\right)-(x, y) \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left\|\left(x_{n}, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)-(x, y)\right\| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left\|\left(x_{n}-x, f\left(x_{n}\right)-y\right)\right\| \rightarrow 0$
$\left\|x_{n}-x\right\|+\left\|f\left(x_{n}^{s}\right)-y\right\| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left\|x_{n}-x\right\| \rightarrow 0$ and $\left\|f\left(x_{n}\right)-y\right\| \rightarrow 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_{n} \rightarrow x$ and $f\left(x_{n}\right) \leftrightarrow y$
Since $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous and $x_{n} \rightarrow x$, then $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow f(x)$
Since $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow y$, then $y=f(x) \Rightarrow(x, y)=(x, f(x)) \in f_{G} \Rightarrow f_{G}$ is closed.
Conversely, let $f_{G}$ be closed. To show that $f$ is continuous(H.w)

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### 4.2 Boundedeness

## Definition(4.2.1)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological linear spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. We say that $f$ is bounded if $f(A)$ is bounded subset of $Y$ for every bounded subset $A$ of $X$.

## Theorem(4.2.2)

Let $X$ be a topological linear spaces over $F$. Then $f: X \rightarrow F$ is continuous at 0 in $X$. If for every $r>0$, there exists a neighborhood $V$ at 0 in $X$ such that $|f(x)|<r$ for all $x \in V$.

## Theorem(4.2.3)

Let $X$ be a Hausdorff topological linear spaces over $F$ and $f \in X^{\prime}$. Assume $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in X$. Then the following statements are equivalent
(1) $f$ is continuous
(2) $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is closed
(3) $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is not dense in $X$.
(4) $f$ is bounded in some neighborhood $V$ of 0 in $X$

## Proof :

$$
(1) \Rightarrow(2)
$$

Since $\{0\}$ is closed in $F$ and $f: X \rightarrow F$ is continuous, then $f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed in $X$
$\Rightarrow \operatorname{ker}(f)=f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed in $X$
(2) $\Rightarrow$ (3)

Since $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is closed in $X \Rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{ker}(f)}=\operatorname{ker}(f)$
Since $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in X$, then $x \notin \operatorname{ker}(f) \Rightarrow \operatorname{ker}(f) \neq X \Rightarrow \operatorname{ker}(f)$ is not dense in X
(3) $\Rightarrow$ (4)

Let $A=X \mid \overline{\operatorname{ker}(f)}$. Since $\overline{\operatorname{ker}(f)} \neq X \Rightarrow A \neq \phi$
Since $\overline{\operatorname{ker}(f)}$ is closed in $X$, then $A$ is open set in $X \Rightarrow \operatorname{int}(A)=A \neq \phi$, then there is $x \in \operatorname{int}(A) \Rightarrow x+V \subseteq A$ for some balanced neighborhood $V$ of is 0 in $X$, since $f$ is a linear, then $f(\bar{V})$ is balanced set in $F \Rightarrow$ either $f(V)$ is bounded or $f(V)=F$.
If $f(V)=\tilde{F}$, then there is $y \in V$ such that $f(y)=-f(x) \Rightarrow f(x+y)=0 \Rightarrow x+y \in \operatorname{ker}(f)$
$\Rightarrow \quad(x+V) \cap \operatorname{ker}(f) \neq \phi$. This contradiction, so that $f(V)$ is bounded
(4) $\Rightarrow$ (1)

Since $f$ is bounded in some neighborhood $V$ of 0 in $X$.
$\exists M>0$, such that $|f(x)|<M$ for all $x \in V$
Let $r>0$, take $W=\frac{r}{M} V \Rightarrow W$ is a neighborhood of 0 in $X$

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Let $y \in W \Rightarrow y=\frac{r}{M} x \quad$ where $x \in V$
$|f(y)|=\left|f\left(\frac{r}{M} x\right)\right|=\left|\frac{r}{M} f(x)\right|=\frac{r}{M}|f(x)|<\frac{r}{M} \cdot M=r$
$|f(y)|<r$ for all $y \in W \Rightarrow f$ is continuous at 0 in $X$, then $f$ is continuous.

## Example(4.2.4)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. If $f$ is continuous, then $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is closed, but the converse is not true.
Ans :
Since $\{0\}$ is closed in $Y$ and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous, then $f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed in $X$
$\Rightarrow \operatorname{ker}(f)=f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed in $X$
The counter example
Let $X=C^{1}[0,1]$ and $Y=C[0,1]$ with the same norm $\|\Psi\|=\sup \{\Psi(x): 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$
Define $f: X \rightarrow Y$ by $f(\Psi)=\frac{d \Psi}{d x}$
Then $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is the set of all constant functions, then $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is closed, but $f$ is not continuous because, if $\Psi_{n}(x)=x^{n}$ for all $x \in[0,1]$, then $\left\|\Psi_{n}\right\|=1$, but $\left\|f\left(\Psi_{n}\right)\right\|=\left\|n x^{n-1}\right\|=n$ for all $n=0,1,2, \cdots$

## Theorem(4.2.5)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological linear spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. Among the following four properties of $f$, the implications (1) $\Rightarrow(2) \Rightarrow(3)$ hold, If $X$ is metrizable, then also $(3) \Rightarrow(4) \Rightarrow(1)$
So that all four properties are equivalent.
(1) $f$ is continuous
(2) $f$ is bounded
(3) If $x_{n} \rightarrow 0$, then $\left\{f\left(x_{n}\right)\right\}$ is bounded
(4) If $x_{n} \rightarrow 0$, then $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$

## Proof :

(1) $\Rightarrow(2)$

Let $A$ be a bounded set in $X$ and let $W$ be a neighborhood of 0 in $Y$ (since $(f(0)=0)$
Since $f$ is continuous, then $f$ is continuous at 0 , there is a neighborhood $V$ of 0 in $X$ such that $f(V) \subset W$.
Since $A$ is bounded, then there is $\lambda>0$ such that $A \subset \lambda V$
$\Rightarrow f(A) \subset f(\lambda V)=\lambda f(V) \subset \lambda W \Rightarrow f(A)$ is bounded in $Y \Rightarrow f$ is bounded.

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(2) $\Rightarrow$ (3)

Since $x_{n} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is bounded (because every converge sequence is bounded)
Since $f$ is bounded $\Rightarrow\left\{f\left(x_{n}\right)\right\}$ is bounded.
(3) $\Rightarrow$ (4)

Since $X$ is metrizable and $x_{n} \rightarrow 0$, by theorem () there are positive scalar $\alpha_{n}$ such
that $\alpha_{n} \rightarrow \infty$ and $\alpha_{n} x_{n} \rightarrow 0$, we have $\left\{f\left(\alpha_{n} x_{n}\right)\right\}$ is bounded
Since $\alpha_{n} \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \lambda_{n}=\frac{1}{\alpha_{n}} \rightarrow 0$, then $f\left(x_{n}\right)=\lambda_{n} f\left(\alpha_{n} x_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$
(4) $\Rightarrow$ (1)

Assume $f$ is not continuous
There exists a neighborhood $W$ of 0 in $Y$ such that $f^{-1}(W)$ contains no neighborhood of 0 in $X$.
If $X$ has a countable local base, there is a sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ in $X$, so that $x_{n} \rightarrow 0$ but $f\left(x_{n}\right) \notin W$ (i.e. $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$ ). Thus (4) fails, so that $f$ is continuous.

## Remark

Recall that, a subset $A$ of a normed space $X$ is bounded iff there is $k>0$ such that $\|x\| \leq k$ for all $x \in A$.

## Theorem(4.2.6)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. Then $f$ is bounded iff there is $k>0$ such that $\|f(x)\| \leq k\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$.

## Proof :

Suppose that $f$ is bounded, since $A=\{x \in X:\|x\| \leq 1\}$ is bounded in $X \Rightarrow A$ is bounded in $X$.
Since, then $f$ is bounded, then $f(A)$ is bounded in $Y$
There is $k>0$ such that $\mid f(x) \| \leq k$ for all $x \in A$.
Let $x \in X$
If $x \neq 0$, put $y=\frac{x}{\|x\|} \Rightarrow \quad\|y\|=1 \Rightarrow y \in A$
$\|f(y)\| \leq k \stackrel{y}{\Rightarrow}\left\|f\left(\frac{x}{\|x\|}\right)\right\| \leq k \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\|x\|}\|f(x)\| \leq k \Rightarrow\|f(x)\| \leq k\|x\|$
either if $x=0$, then $f(x)=f(0)=0$, so $\|f(x)\| \leq k\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$
Conversely
There is $k>0$ such that $\|f(x)\| \leq k\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$.
Let $A$ be a bounded set in $X$, then there is $k_{1}>0$ such that $\|x\| \leq k_{1}$ for all $x \in A$
$\Rightarrow k|x| \leq k k_{1}=k_{2}$ for all $x \in A$

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Since $\|f(x)\| \leq k\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$, then $\|f(x)\| \leq k\|x\|$ for all $x \in A$
$\Rightarrow\|f(x)\| \leq k_{2}$ for all $x \in A \Rightarrow f(A)$ is bounded in $Y$, then $f$ is bounded.

## Theorem(4.2.7)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. Then $f$ is bounded iff it is continuous.

## Proof:

Let $f$ be a bounded, then there is $k>0$ such that $\|f(x)\| \leq k\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$.
Let $x_{0} \in X$. For any $\varepsilon>0$, choose $\delta=\frac{\varepsilon}{k}$
$\left\|x-x_{0}\right\|<\delta$, we have $\left\|f(x)-f\left(x_{0}\right)\right\|=\left\|f\left(x-x_{0}\right)\right\| \leq k\left\|x-x_{0}\right\| \Rightarrow\left\|f(x)-f\left(x_{0}\right)\right\|<k . \delta=\varepsilon$, hence $f$ is continuous at $x_{0}$. Since $x_{0}$ is arbitrary $\Rightarrow f$ is continuous
Conversely : Assume that $f$ is unbounded
For each positive integer $n$, we can find a vector $x_{n}$ such that $\left\|f\left(x_{n}\right)\right\|>n \| x_{n} \mid$
$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n\left\|x_{n}\right\|}\left\|f\left(x_{n}\right)\right\|>1 \Rightarrow\left\|f\left(\frac{x_{n}}{n\left\|x_{n}\right\|}\right)\right\|>1$
Put $y_{n}=\frac{x_{n}}{n\left\|x_{n}\right\|} \Rightarrow\left\|y_{n}\right\|=\frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow\left\|y_{n}\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \overbrace{i}^{\infty} \Rightarrow y_{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$
Since $f$ is continuous, then $f\left(y_{n}\right) \rightarrow f(0)=0$
$\Rightarrow\left\|f\left(y_{n}\right)\right\| \rightarrow 0$. This contradiction, because $\left\|f\left(y_{n}\right)\right\|>1$, then $f$ is bounded.

## Theorem(4.2.8)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. If $X$ is finite dimensional, then $f$ is bounded (continuous).

## Proof:

Let $\operatorname{dim} X=n$, and let $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be a basis for $X$, then every $x \in X$ has a unique representation,

$$
x=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} x_{i}, \quad \lambda_{i} \in F, \quad i=1,2, \cdots, n
$$

$f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{\prime} f\left(x_{i}\right) \quad \Rightarrow \quad\|f(x)\|=\left\|\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} f\left(x_{i}\right)\right\| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\lambda_{i}\right|\left\|f\left(x_{i}\right)\right\|$
Put $k=\max \left\{\left\|f\left(x_{1}\right)\right\|, \ldots,\left\|f\left(x_{n}\right)\right\|\right\}$, then $\quad\|f(x)\| \leq k \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\lambda_{i}\right| \quad \cdots \quad$ (1)

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Since the set $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is linear independent, by lemma of combination, there is $c>0$
such that $\|x\|=\left\|\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} x_{i}\right\| \geq c \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\lambda_{i}\right| \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\lambda_{i}\right| \leq \frac{1}{C}\|x\|$
From (1), (2), we have $\quad\|f(x)\| \leq \frac{k}{C}\|x\|$, so that $f$ is bounded.

### 4.3 Spaces of Bounded Linear Functions

Let $B(X, Y)$ denote the set of all bounded linear functions from a normed space $X$ into a normed space $Y$.

## Definition(4.3.1)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces over $F$ and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. We define the norm of $f$ by $\|f\|=\sup \{\|f(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\|x\| \leq 1\}$
Theorem(4.3.2)
Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces over $F$ and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function. If $a=\sup \{\|f(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\|x\|=1\}, b=\sup \left\{\frac{\|f(x)\|}{\|x\|}: x \in X, \quad x \neq 0\right\}$,
$c=\inf \{\lambda>0:\|f(x)\| \leq \lambda\|x\| \quad \forall x \in X\}$. Then $\|f\|=a=b=c$ and $\|f(x)\| \leq\|f\|\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$

## Proof :

By definition of norm $\|f\|=\sup \left\{\|f(x)\|: x^{x} \in X, \quad\|x\| \leq 1\right\}$, by definition of $c$, we have
$\|f(x)\| \leq c\|x\|$ for $x \in X$
if $\|x\| \leq 1 \Rightarrow c\|x\| \leq c$ for $x \in X \quad \Rightarrow\|f(x)\| \leq c$ for $x \in X$ and $\|x\| \leq 1$
$\Rightarrow \sup \{\|f(x)\|: x \in X,\|x\| \leq 1\} \leq c \quad \Rightarrow\|f\| \leq c$
Also by definition of $b$, we have $\|f(x)\| \leq b\|x\|$ for all $x \neq 0$
Since $c=\inf \{\lambda>0:\|f(x)\| \leq \lambda\|x\| \forall x \in X\}$, we have $c \leq b$
let $x \in X, \quad x \neq 0$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\|f(x)\|}{\|x\|}=\frac{1}{\|x\|}\|f(x)\|=\left\|f\left(\frac{x}{\|x\|}\right)\right\| \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Put $y=\frac{x}{\|x\|} \Rightarrow\|y\|=1 \Rightarrow y \in X \quad \Rightarrow \quad b \leq a$
It is clear to show that $a \leq\|f\|$, so that $\|f\|=a=b=c$.
Finally definition of $b$, shows that
$b \geq \frac{\|f(x)\|}{\|x\|} \Rightarrow\|f(x)\| \leq b\|x\| \quad$ for all $x \in X$
But $\|f\|=b \Rightarrow\|f(x)\| \leq\|f\|\|x\|$ for all $x \in X$

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## Theorem(4.3.3)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces over $F$. Then $B(X, Y)$ is normed space with respect to the norm defined by $\|f\|=\sup \{\|f(x)\|: x \in X,\|x\| \leq 1\}$ for all $f \in B(X, Y)$.

## Proof :

(1) Since $\|f(x)\| \geq 0$ for all $x \in X$, then $\|f\| \geq 0$ for all $x \in X$
(2) $\|f\|=0 \Leftrightarrow \sup \{\|f(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\|x\| \leq 1\}=0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.\Leftrightarrow \sup : \frac{\|f(x)\|}{\|x\|}: x \in X, \quad x \neq 0\right\}=0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\|f(x)\|}{\|x\|}=0: x \in X, \quad x \neq 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow\|f(x)\| \\
& \Leftrightarrow f(x)=0: x \in X \Leftrightarrow f=0
\end{aligned}
$$

(3) Let $f \in B(X, Y)$ and $\lambda \in F$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|\lambda f\| & =\sup \{| | \lambda f)(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\| x \| \leq 1\}=\sup \{\lambda\| \| f(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\| x \| \leq 1\} \\
& =|\lambda| \sup \{| | f(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\| x \| \leq 1\} \mid \lambda\|f\|
\end{aligned}
$$

(4) Let $f, g \in B(X, Y)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|f+g\| & =\sup \{\|(f+g)(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\|x\| \leq 1\} \\
& =\sup \{\|f(x)+g(x)\|: x \in X,\|x\| \leq 1\} \\
& \leq \sup \{\|f(x)\|+\|g(x)\|: x \in X,\|x\| \leq 1\} \\
& \leq \sup \{\|f(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\|x\| \leq 1\}+\sup \{\|g(x)\|: x \in X, \quad\|x\| \leq 1\} \\
& =\|f\|+\|g\| \\
\Rightarrow & B(X, Y) \text { normed space }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Theorem(4.3.4)

Let $X$ and $Y$ be normed spaces over $F$.If $Y$ is Banach space, then $B(X, Y)$ is also Banach space.

## Proof:

$B(X, Y)$ is a normed space (by above theorem)
Let $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ be a Cauchy sequence in $B(X, Y)$, then $\left\|f_{n}-f_{m}\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow \infty$
For all $x \in X$, then $\left\|f_{n}(x)-f_{m}(x)\right\|=\left\|\left(f_{n}-f_{m}\right)(x)\right\| \leq\left\|f_{n}-f_{m}\right\|\|(x)\|$
$\Rightarrow\left\|f_{n}(x)-f_{m}(x)\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow\left\{f_{n}(x)\right\}$ is Cauchy sequence in $Y$ for all $x \in X$ Since $\bar{Y}$ is complete, then $f(x) \in Y$ such that $f_{n}(x) \rightarrow f(x)$, then $f \in B(X, Y)$ why?, so that $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ converge, then $B(X, Y)$ is Banach

## Corollary(4.3.5)

If $X$ is a normed space over $F$, then $X^{*}$ is a Banach space.

## Example (4.3.6)

The dual space of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, i.e. $\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)^{*} \approx \mathbb{R}^{n}$

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## Ans :

Since $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is finite dimensional, then $\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)^{*}=\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)^{\prime}$
let $\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right\}$ be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, then every $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ has a unique representation,

$$
x=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} x_{i}, \quad \lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{R}, \quad i=1,2, \cdots, n
$$

$$
f(x)=f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} x_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} f\left(x_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} y_{i}, \quad y_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right), \quad i=1, \cdots, n
$$

By using the Cauchy- Schwarz inequality, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |f(x)| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\lambda_{i} y_{i}\right| \leq\left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\lambda_{i}\right|^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)\left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|y_{i}\right|^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right) \Rightarrow|f(x)| \leq\|x\|\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
& \|f\|=\sup \left\{|f(x)|: x \in R^{n}, \quad\|x\|=1\right\} \Rightarrow\|f\| \leq\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves that the norm of $f$ is the norm of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, i.e. $\left.\|f\|=\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$
$\Rightarrow\|f\|=\|y\|$, where $Y=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \in R^{n}$.Hence the function $\psi:\left(R^{n}\right)^{\prime} \rightarrow R^{n}$ defined by $\psi(f)=y=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ where $y_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right)$ it is linear and bijective, it is an isomorphism. So that $\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)^{*} \approx \mathbb{R}^{n}$.

## Example (4.3.7)

The dual space of $\ell^{1}$ is $\ell^{\infty}$
Ans :
Let $\left\{e_{k}\right\}$ be a natural basis for $\ell$ where $e_{k}=\left(\delta_{k i}\right)$, i.e.

$$
e_{1}=(1,0,0, \cdots), e_{2}=(0,1,0, \cdots), e_{3}=(0,0,1, \cdots), \cdots
$$

Then every $x \in \ell^{1}$ has a unique representation, $x=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} e_{k}$ where $\lambda_{k} \in F$
We consider any $f_{s} \in\left(\ell^{2}\right)^{*} \Rightarrow f$ is bounded linear functional on $\ell^{1}$
$f(x)=f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} e_{k}\right) \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} f\left(e_{k}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} y_{k}, \quad, \quad y_{k}=f\left(e_{k}\right)$
Where $y_{k^{2}}=f\left(e_{k}\right)$ has a unique representation by $f$.Also $\left\|e_{k}\right\|=1$ and $\left|y_{k}\right|=\left|f\left(e_{k}\right)\right| \leq\|f\|\left\|e_{k}\right\|=\|f\| \Rightarrow \sup _{k}\left|y_{k}\right| \leq\|f\| \Rightarrow y=\left(y_{k}\right) \in \ell^{\infty}$
On the other hand, let $Z=\left(Z_{k}\right) \in \ell^{\infty}$, define $g: \ell^{1} \rightarrow F$ by $g(x)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} z_{k}$ where $x=\left(x_{k}\right) \in \ell^{1} \Rightarrow g$ is bounded linear
$|g(x)| \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|x_{k} z_{k}\right| \leq \sup _{j}\left|z_{k}\right| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|x_{k}\right|=\|x\| \sup _{j}\left|z_{k}\right| \Rightarrow g \in\left(\ell^{1}\right)^{*}$

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We finally to show that $\|f\|=\sup \left|y_{j}\right|$
$|f(x)|=\left|\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} y_{k}\right| \leq \sup _{j}\left|y_{j}\right| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|\lambda_{k}\right|=\left\|x| | \sup \left|y_{j}\right| \Rightarrow\right\| f \| \leq \sup _{j}\left|y_{j}\right|$, so that $\|f\|=\sup _{j}\left|y_{j}\right|$
Hence the function $\Psi=\left(\ell^{1}\right)^{*} \rightarrow \ell^{\infty}$ defined by $\Psi(f)=\left(y_{j}\right)$ where $y_{j}=f\left(e_{j}\right)$ it is linear and bijective, it is an isomorphism.

## Example (4.3.8)

The dual space of , $\ell^{p}, \quad 1<p<\infty$ is $\ell^{q}$ where $\frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{q}=1$
Ans :
Let $\left\{e_{k}\right\}$ be a natural basis for $\ell^{p}$ where $e_{k}=\left(\boldsymbol{\delta}_{k i}\right)$, i.e.

$$
e_{1}=(1,0,0, \cdots), e_{2}=(0,1,0, \cdots), e_{3}=(0,0,1, \cdots), \cdot
$$

Then every $x \in \ell^{p}$ has a unique representation, $x=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} e_{k}$ where $\lambda_{k} \in F$
We consider any $f \in\left(\ell^{p}\right)^{*} \Rightarrow f$ is bounded linear functional on $\ell^{p}$
$f(x)=f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} e_{k}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} f\left(e_{k}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} y_{k}, \quad y_{k}=f\left(e_{k}\right)$
Let $q \in \mathbb{R}$, where $\frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{q}=1$
Put $x_{n}=\left(\lambda_{k_{n}}\right)$, where $\lambda_{k n}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\frac{\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}}{y_{k}}, & k \leq n, y_{n} \neq 0 \\ 0, & \text { o.w }\end{array}\right.$
$f\left(x_{n}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{n} y_{k}=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}$
$f\left(x_{n}\right) \leq\|f\|\left\|x_{n}\right\|=\|f\|=\left(\sum\left|\lambda_{k n}\right|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}=\|f\|\left(\sum\left|y_{k}\right|^{(q-1) p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}=\|f\|\left(\sum\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$
$f\left(x_{n}\right)=\sum\left|y_{k}\right|^{q} \leq\left|| |\left(\sum\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \Rightarrow\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{1-\frac{1}{p}}=\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \leq\|f\|\right.$
Since $n$ is arbitrary, letting $n \rightarrow \infty$, we obtain $\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \leq\|f\| \Rightarrow\left(y_{k}\right) \in \ell^{q}$
On the other hand, let $Z=\left(Z_{k}\right) \in \ell^{\infty}$, define $g: \ell^{1} \rightarrow F$ by $g(x)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{k} z_{k}$ where $x=\left(\lambda_{k}\right) \in \ell^{p}$
$\Rightarrow \quad g$ is bounded linear
$\left.|f(x)|=\left|\sum \lambda_{k} y_{k}\right| \leq\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|\lambda_{k}\right|\right)^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}\left(\left.\left.\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|y_{k}\right|\right|^{q}=\frac{1}{q}=\| x \right\rvert\,\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}\right.$

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$\|f\| \leq\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$ so that $\|f\| \leq\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left|y_{k}\right|^{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$
Hence the function $\Psi:\left(\ell^{p}\right)^{*} \rightarrow \ell^{q}$ defined by $\Psi(f)=\left(y_{k}\right)$ where $y_{k}=f\left(e_{k}\right)$ it is linear and bijective, it is an isomorphism.

## Definition(4.3.9)

Let $X$ be a normed Space over a filed $F$. We define $X^{* *}$ as :

$$
X^{* *}=\left(X^{*}\right)^{*}=\left\{G: X^{*} \rightarrow F, G \text { is bounded linear functional }\right\}
$$

$X^{* *}$ is called the second dual space.

## Theorem(4.3.10)

Let $X$ be a normed Space over a filed $F$.
(1) If $x \in X$ and $T_{x}: X^{*} \rightarrow F$ defined as $T_{x}(f)=f(x)$ for all $f \in X^{*}$, then $T_{x} \in X^{* *}$ and $\left\|T_{x}\right\|=\|x\|$
(2) If $\psi: X \rightarrow X^{\prime \prime}$ defined as $\psi(x)=T_{x}$ for all $x \in X$, then $\psi$ is one-one linear function.

## Proof :

(1) $T_{x}$ is linear (see theorem8.1)

$$
\left\|T_{x}\right\|=\sup \left\{\frac{\left|T_{x}(f)\right|}{\|f\|}: f \in X^{*}, \quad f \neq 0\right\}=\sup \left\{\frac{|f(x)|}{\|f\|}: f \in X^{*}, \quad f \neq 0\right\}=\|x\|
$$

(2) (see theorem1.3.4)

## Definition(4.3.11)

Let $X$ be a normed Space over a filed $F$, We say that $X$ is Reflexive space if $\psi$ is onto, where $\psi$ is canonical function defined in theorem (4.3.10).
It is clear to show that
(1) If $X$ is reflexive space, then $X \simeq X^{* *}$
(2) Every finite dimensional normed space is reflexive.

## Theorem(4.3.12)

Let $X$ be a normed space. If $X$ is reflexive, then $X$ is complete, and hence it is Banach space.

## Proof :

Since $X^{*}$ is normed space $\Rightarrow X^{* *}$ is complete space
Since $X$ is reflexive $\Rightarrow X \simeq X^{* *} \Rightarrow X$ is complete space.

### 4.4 Separable Spaces

Recall that a subset $A$ of a topological space $X$ is said to be dense in $X$ if $\bar{A}=X$. and a topological space $X$ is said separable if it has a countable subset which is dense in $X$.
Examples(4.4.1)
(1)The space $\mathbb{R}$ is separable, because the set $\mathbb{Q}$ of rational numbers is countable and is dense in $\mathbb{R}$.
(2)The space $\mathbb{C}$ is separable, because a countable subset of $\mathbb{C}$ is the set of all complex numbers whose real and imaginary parts both rational .
(3) A discrete metric space is separable iff $X$ is separable .

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## Examples(4.4.2)

The space $\ell^{\infty}$ is not separable
Ans:
Let $A$ be a countable set in $\ell^{\infty} \Rightarrow A=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots\right\}$ where $x_{n}=\left(x_{1 n}, x_{2 n}, \cdots\right) \in \ell^{\infty}$
Let $y=\left(y_{k}\right) \in \ell^{\infty}$ where $y_{k}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}x_{k k}+1 & , \\ 0 & \left|x_{k k}\right| \leq 1 \\ 0 & ,\end{array}\left|x_{k k}\right|>1\right.$
The component $k$ of $y-x_{k}$ is $y_{k}-x_{k k},\left|y_{k}-x_{k k}\right| \geq 1$
$\Rightarrow\left\|y-x_{k}\right\| \geq 1 \Rightarrow y \notin \bar{A} \Rightarrow \bar{A} \neq \ell^{\infty}$ for all countable subset $A$ of $\ell^{\infty} \Rightarrow . \Rightarrow \ell^{\infty}$ is not separable.

## Remark

An element $x=\left(x_{n}\right) \in \ell^{p}$ is called rational if
(1) $x_{n} \in \mathbb{Q}$ for all $n$, if $F=\mathbb{R}$
(2) both the real and imaginary parts are rationales, if $F=\mathbb{C}$

## Example(4.4.3)

The space $\ell^{p}$ with $1 \leq p<\infty$ is separable
Ans :
Let $A=\left\{x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}, 0,0, \cdots\right) \in \ell^{p}: x\right.$ is rational $\} \Rightarrow A$ is countable.
we shall to prove $\ell^{p} \subset \bar{A}\left(\right.$ since $\left.\ell^{p} \subset \bar{A}\right)$
Let $y=\left(y_{i}\right) \in \ell^{p} \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left|y_{i}\right|^{p}<\infty$
Then for every $\varepsilon>0$, there is an $m \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$(depending on $\varepsilon$ ) such that $\sum_{i=m+1}\left|y_{i}\right|^{p}<\frac{\varepsilon^{p}}{2}$
Hence we can find a $x \overline{\mathcal{F}}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}, 0,0, \cdots\right) \in A$ satisfying $\left|x_{i}-y_{i}\right|^{p}<\frac{\varepsilon^{p}}{2 m}$, for all $i=1,2, \cdots, m$ $\|x-y\|^{p}=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left|x_{i}-y_{i}\right\rangle^{p}=\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left|x_{i}-y_{i}\right|^{p}+\sum_{i=m+1}^{\infty}\left|x_{i}\right|^{p}<m \cdot \frac{\varepsilon^{p}}{2 m}+\frac{\varepsilon^{p}}{2}=\varepsilon^{p}$
$\Rightarrow\|x-y\|<\mathcal{E}^{\prime} \Rightarrow y \in \bar{A} \Rightarrow \bar{A}=\ell^{p} \Rightarrow \ell^{p}$ is separable.

## Theorem (4.4.4)

A normed space $X$ over $F$ is separable if $X^{*}$ is separable

## Proof:

Let $M=\left\{f \in X^{*}:\|f\|=1\right\} \Rightarrow M$ is subspace of $X^{*}$
Since $X^{*}$ is separable, then $M$ is separable, $M$ contains a countable dense subset, say $A=\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}, \ldots\right\} \quad, \bar{A}=M$ since $A \subseteq M \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_{n} \in M$ for all $n \Rightarrow\left\|f_{n}\right\|=1$ for all $n$.

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Since $\left\|f_{n}\right\|=\sup \left\{\left|f_{n}(x)\right|:\|x\|=1\right\}$ for all $n$.there must exist some vector $x_{n}$ with $\left\|x_{n}\right\|=1$ such that $\left|f_{n}(x)\right|>\frac{1}{2}$ (If such $x_{n}$ did not exist, this would contradict the fact that $\|f\|=1$ )
Let $N$ be the closed subspace in $X$ generated by the sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$, i.e. $N=\left[\left\{x_{n}\right\}\right]$. We must prove $N=X$. Suppose that $N \neq X \quad \Rightarrow$ there exists $x_{0} \in X$ such that $x_{0} \notin N$, by theorem(6.13), there exists $f \in X^{*}$ such that $f\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0,\|f\|=1$ and $f(x)=0$ for all $x y \in N$. Since $\|f\|=1 \Rightarrow f \in M$
Since $x_{n} \in N \Rightarrow f\left(x_{n}\right)=0$ for all $n$
$\frac{1}{2}<\left|f_{n}\left(x_{n}\right)\right|=\left|f_{n}\left(x_{n}\right)-f\left(x_{n}\right)\right|=\left|\left(f_{n}-f\right)\left(x_{n}\right)\right|=\left\|\left(f_{n}-f\right)\right\|\left\|x_{n}\right\|=\left\|f_{n}-f\right\|$ (because $\begin{gathered} \\ \end{gathered} x_{n} \|=1$ )
$\Rightarrow\left\|f_{n}-f\right\|>\frac{1}{2}$ for all $n \Rightarrow \beta_{\frac{1}{2}}(f) \cap A=\phi$ where $\beta_{\frac{1}{2}}(f)=\left\{g:\|g-f\|<\frac{1}{2}\right\} \Rightarrow f \notin \bar{A}$
This contradiction (since $\bar{A}=M$ ) and so we must have $N=X$. It then follows that the set of all linear combinations of the $x_{n}$ 's whose coefficients are rational. $\Rightarrow X$ is separable.

## Remark

The converse of above theorem is not true, i.e. if the normed space $X$ is separable, then $X^{*}$ is not necessary separable, for example, if $\bar{X}=\ell^{1} \Rightarrow X^{*}=\ell^{\infty}$ and $\ell^{1}$ is separable (see example 4.4.2), but $\ell^{\infty}$ is not separable (see example 4.4.3).

## Theorem(4.4.5)

Let $X$ be a normed space. If $X$ is separable space and $X^{*}$ is not separable, then $X$ is not reflexive

## Proof :

Suppose $X$ is reflexive $\Rightarrow X \simeq X$ **
Since $X$ is separable space $\Rightarrow{ }^{*} X^{* *}$ is separable space $\Rightarrow X^{*}$ is separable space This contradiction.

## Remark

If $X$ is Banach then it is not necessary reflexive .for example $\ell^{1}$ is Banach space, but not reflexive . because $\ell^{1}$ is separable and $\left(\ell^{1}\right)^{*}=\ell^{\infty}$ is not separable.

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## Exercises (4)

4.1Let $X, Y$ be linear space on a field $F$ and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be bijective linear function. Define $\|\cdot\|_{1}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\left\|x_{1}\right\|=\|f(x)\|_{2}$ for all $x \in X$. Show that $\|\cdot\|_{1}$ is a norm on $X$ if $\|\cdot\|_{2}$ is a norm on $Y$ 4.2 Let $X$ be a normed space and $f$ be nonzero linear functional on $X$. Show that either $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is closed or $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is dense in $X$.
4.3 Show that: If $X$ is a locally convex space, then $X^{*}$ separate points on $X$.
4.4 let $X$ and $Y$ be topological linear spaces and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a bijection linear function . prove or disprove $f$ is continuous iff $f^{-1}$ is also continuous
4.5 Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are topological vector spaces, $\operatorname{dim} Y<\infty, f: X \rightarrow Y$ is linear and $f(X)=Y$. If $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ is closed. Prove that $f$ is continuous.

