## **Lecture 11: Functional spaces**

Let *X* be a *vector space* over some field *F* ( $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) on which is defined a *norm* 

$$\|\cdot\|: X \to \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}.$$

That is  $\|\cdot\|$  is a non-negative functional on *X* satisfying

- $||a + b|| \le ||a|| + ||b||$
- $\|\lambda a\| = |\lambda| \cdot \|a\|$
- ||a|| = 0 if and only if a = 0

Any norm on *X* introduces the structure of metric space, actually, a normed vector space. Namely, the *distance* between two vectors *a* and *b* is defined as the number

$$d(a,b) = \|a - b\|$$

which is positive for distinct points and satisfies the axioms of metric spaces.

Frequently one defines the norm by virtue of a scalar product. We recall that a bilinear functional

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : X \times X \to F$$

(F is either the real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$  or complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ ) such that

•  $\langle a, a \rangle$  is real and non-negative, and it vanishes if and only if a = 0.

Then the induced norm is given by

$$||a||^2 = \langle a, a \rangle.$$

(Note: a given norm by no means is generated by some scalar product.)

**Cauchy-Schwarz inequality**:

$$|\langle a,b\rangle| \le ||a|| ||b||$$

## **Topological definitions:**

A metric space *X* is called *complete*, if any Cauchy sequence converges to a limit in the space. A complete vector space is called a *Banach space*.

A vector space X equipped with a scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and complete as a metric space in the norm generated by  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ , is called a *Hilbert space*. Usually one consider only Hilbert spaces which have a countable basis.

## **Basis and systems**

Recall that a (at most countable) collection of vectors  $\{x_k\}_{k \in A}$  is called orthogonal if for any two indices  $k, j \in A$  and  $k \neq j$ :

$$\langle x_k, x_i \rangle = 0$$

This system is called orthonormal if additionally all vectors have the unit norm:  $||x_k|| = 1$  for all  $k \in A$ .

An orthonormal system  $\{x_k\}_{k \in A}$  is called *complete* if for any  $x \in X$ :

$$x = \sum_{k \in A} \langle x, x_k \rangle \, x_k$$

(if *A* is infinite then the last series is convergent).

A complete, orthonormal set  $\{x_k\}_{k \in A}$  is called an *orthonormal basis* for *X*, and the cardinality of *A* is called the dimension of *X*.

**Example 1**. Trigonometric series on the unit circle with bounded  $l^2$ -norm:

$$f = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{kx} : \qquad \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |c_k|^2 < \infty$$

The scalar product is defined as follows

$$\langle \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{kx}, \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} d_k e^{kx} \rangle = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k \overline{d_k} < \infty.$$

This is the so-called Hardy space  $H^2$  on the unit circle  $\mathbb{R}/2\pi$ . Any such series generates a holomorphic function in the unit disk and the scalar product may be interpreted as usual integral of product of two functions.

**Example 2.** The space *P* of all polynomials in  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  with real coefficients is a vector space with a natural stratification (homogeneous polynomials of a fixed degree). This space admits many scalar products, for example, the canonic scalar product is

$$\langle f,g\rangle = \int_{|x|=1} f(x)g(x) \ dS_x,$$

where the integral is taken over the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The following (finite) decomposition holds: for any polynomial  $f \in P$ 

$$f = f_N + f_{N-2}|x|^2 + f_{N-4}|x|^4 + \cdots$$

Here  $f_k$  is a harmonic homogeneous polynomial of degree k and  $|x|^2 = x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2$  is radially symmetric polynomial.

**Example 3.** Let *K* be a bounded closed (=compact) set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then *C*(*K*), the vector space of all continuous functions on *K*, is a Banach space with respect to the uniform norm

$$||f||_{\mathcal{C}(K)} = ||f||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in K} |f(x)|.$$

NOTE: not induced by a scalar product.

Let *X* be a Hilbert space. A **bounded functional**  $f: X \to F$  is a linear map which satisfies the property: there is a constant *C* such that

$$|f(x)| \le C \|x\|$$

for any vector x in X.

**Riesz representation theorem:** Let X be a Hilbert space with a scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ . Then for any bounded functional f there is a vector  $y_f \in X$  such that

$$\langle y_f, x \rangle = f(x), \quad \forall x \in X.$$

Idea of the proof: the kernel f = 0 is a closed Hilbert subspace of X of co-dimension one. Take the orthogonal (one-dimensional) space and a unit vector in it, say, y. Then there is f(y)y will be the desired vector.

## Lebesgue integral and measure in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Measure theory initially provides a notion of length/area/volume of subsets of Euclidean spaces with natural additivity and translation invariance properties. This suggests a suitable class of *measurable* subsets is an essential prerequisite.

The Lebesgue measure  $\mu$  is constructed in accordance with the following principles:

- the measure of a null-set is equal to zero;
- measurable sets form a  $\sigma$ -algebra;
- the measure is  $\sigma$ -additive and non-negative (the infinity value is allowed);
- a function f is called measurable if for any real c the set {x: f(x) < c} is a μ-measurable set;</li>

Then the Lebesgue integral is defined first for simplest, the so-called (nonnegative) indicator functions, and then extends on general signed functions.

The principle advantage with the Lebesgue integral is a wider class of "permitted" operations: limits, sums etc.

**Example 4**. For any open set *D* in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and any p > 1 we define the so-called  $L^p$ - norm as

$$||f||_{L^p(D)} = ||f||_p = \int_D |f(x)|^p dx$$

The latter integral should be understood as the Lebesgue integral.

Note: the space of continuous functions with respect to this *p*-norm will not be complete for any p > 1. On the other hand, one can prove that for any continuous function in  $\overline{D}$  there holds

$$\|f\|_{\infty} = \lim_{p \to \infty} \|f\|_p$$

In general, we have the essential supremum which is defined as

$$||f||_{\infty} = \inf \{M: \mu\{x: u(x) > M\} = 0\}$$

• For any open set D in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  the space  $L^2(D)$  is a Hilbert space.

**Hölder inequality:** 

$$||fg||_1 \leq ||f||_p ||g||_q$$

**Minkowski inequality:** if p > 1 then

 $||f + g||_p \le ||f||_p + ||g||_p$ 

• For any open set *D* in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and any p > 1, the space  $L^p(D)$  is a Banach space.

**Lipschitz functions:** f is called a Lipschitz function in a set D in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if there is a non-negative M such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le M|x - y|$$

for any two vectors x, y in D.

**Hölder functions:** there is  $\alpha < 1$  and a non-negative *M* such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le M|x - y|^{\alpha}$$

for any two vectors x, y in D.  $\alpha$  is called the Hölder exponent.

One can define the following semi-norm:

$$||f||_{C^{0,\alpha}(D)} = \sup_{x \neq y} \frac{|f(x) - f(y)|}{|x - y|^{\alpha}}$$