

Functional analysis

Lecture 4.

March 4. 2021

Complete metric spaces

Review: Topological notions of \mathbb{R} in a metric space

Definition. (M, d) is a metric space. $(x_n) \subset M$ is a sequence.

(x_n) is *convergent* and *the limit of (x_n) is $x^* \in M$* :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x^*$$

if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N$, such that

$$d(x_n, x^*) < \varepsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N.$$

Cauchy sequence

(M, d) is a metric space.

Definition. $(x_n) \subset M$ is a *Cauchy sequence*, if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N$ s.t.

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N.$$

Proposition. If (x_n) is convergent \implies it is Cauchy seq.

Proof: Choose $\varepsilon > 0$. Then $\exists N$ such that

$$d(x_n, x_0) < \varepsilon/2, \quad \forall n \geq N.$$

Then for all $n, m \geq N$:

$$d(x_n, x_m) \leq d(x_n, x_0) + d(x_0, x_m) < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$$

An example

$(M, d) = (\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|)$ is a metric space. Define a sequence as

$$x_1 = 3, \quad x_2 = 3.1, \quad x_3 = 3.14, \dots \quad x_n = \text{"first } n \text{ digits in } \pi\text{"}$$

Then $(x_n) \subset \mathbb{Q}$ is Cauchy sequence. (Why? $|x_n - x_m| < ?$)

But $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \pi \notin \mathbb{Q}$. There is a "hole" in the metric space .

→ If (x_n) is Cauchy in $(\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|)$ ~~⇒~~ it is convergent (...)

Complete metric space

In a general (M, d) a metric space

(x_n) is a Cauchy sequence ~~\implies~~ it is convergent (!)

Definition. (M, d) is **COMPLETE METRIC SPACE**, if

ALL Cauchy sequences are convergent.

If $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete, it is called **BANACH-SPACE**.

If $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ is complete, it is called **HILBERT-SPACE**.

Next week: Bibliography of Banach or Hilbert?

Examples

- $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ is complete. In Calculus we learned, that $(x_n) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is **convergent** \iff (x_n) is **Cauchy**.
- $(\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|)$ is NOT complete.
- $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete with the usual norms.
- (M, d) is a metric space with the *discrete metric*.

It is complete, because...

... any Cauchy sequence is constant after some N index.

- ℓ^2 is a **HILBERT-SPACE**.

Example. Is $C[a, b]$ complete?

YES. Let $(f_n) \subset C[a, b]$ be a Cauchy sequence.

Then $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N$ such that

$$\|f_n - f_m\| = \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall n, m \geq N$$

$$\implies \forall x : |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall n, m > N.$$

Then for a fixed $x \in [a, b]$ $(f_n(x)) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is Cauchy:

$$\exists \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) =: f_0(x).$$

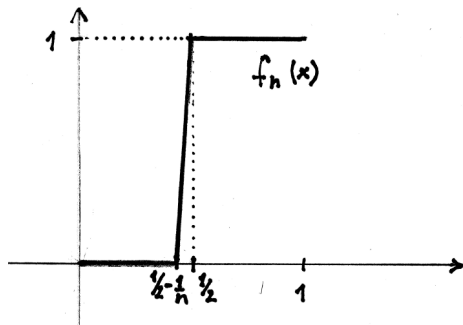
$\implies f_0 : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is well defined, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f_0$ *uniformly*.

Thus f_0 is **continuous**, i.e. $f_0 \in C[a, b]$. $f_0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n \checkmark$

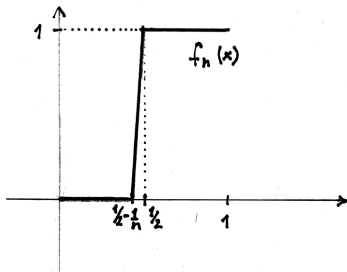
Example. Is $C_2[0, 1]$ complete?

NOT. We'll show $(f_n) \subset C_2[a, b]$ Cauchy sequence, that is not convergent. For $n \geq 3$ let us define

$$f_n(x) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 1/2 - 1/n \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 1/2 \\ \text{linear} & \text{if } 1/2 - 1/n \leq x \leq 1/2 \end{cases}$$



$$f_n \in C_2[0, 1].$$



$$\int_0^1 (f_n(x) - f_m(x))^2 dx = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} \right)^2,$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n, m \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n - f_m\|_2 \rightarrow 0,$$

(f_n) is a *Cauchy sequence* in $C_2[0, 1]$.

For a fixed $x \in [0, 1]$:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f_0(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 1/2 \end{cases}$$

f_0 is not continuous. $f_0 \notin C_2[0, 1]$!

The Cauchy sequence has **no limit** in $C_2[0, 1]$.

There is a **hole** in it.

Example. $C_2[a, b]$ is not complete!

“Completion” of $(\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|)$ was $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$, by adding the *irrational* numbers.

It would be desirable to extend the set of
continuous functions in such a way,
that any Cauchy sequence in **squared distance**
has limit.

Motivation. A bit of history.

We have seen, that $C_2[0, 1]$ is NOT complete!

Moreover, $\mathcal{R}[0, 1]$ is not complete with the quadratic norm.

→ Need for a *new concept of integral*...

Around 1900 it was *Henri Lebesgue*, who developed

a *new concept of integral* that is based on *measure theory*.

*"One of the greatest mathematical achievements of
the twentieth century."*

Measure

”measure” \approx

- length of an interval
- area of a domain in the plain
- volume
- weight
- ...

Definition. X is an arbitrary set.

Define the *set of all subsets* of X by

$$2^X = \{A \subset X\}$$

Measurable space

Definition. $\mathcal{R} \subset 2^X$ is an ALGEBRA (σ -algebra), if:

1. $X \in \mathcal{R}$,
2. $A, B \in \mathcal{R} \implies A \cup B \in \mathcal{R}$,
- 2.+ $A_k \in \mathcal{R}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \implies \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \in \mathcal{R}$
3. $A, B \in \mathcal{R} \implies A \setminus B \in \mathcal{R}$.

Definition. (X, \mathcal{R}) is a MEASURABLE SPACE, if $\mathcal{R} \subset 2^X$ is σ -algebra. The elements of \mathcal{R} are MEASURABLE SETS.

Example. X is metric space, \mathcal{B} is the Borel sets:

$$\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\{\text{open sets, closed sets}\})$$

Measure space

Definition. Let \mathcal{R} be a σ -algebra.

A function $\mu : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{+\infty\}$ is a **MEASURE**, if

- *σ -additive*: i.e.

if $A_1, \dots, A_n, \dots \in \mathcal{R}$ are disjoint, and $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \in \mathcal{R}$,

$$\implies \mu \left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_k).$$

- $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$.

(X, \mathcal{R}, μ) is called **MEASURE SPACE**.

Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}

$X = \mathbb{R}$. We introduce *measurable sets* and *measure* gradually.

Goal: $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{M}, m)$.

Step 1. \mathcal{I} is the set of *finite intervals*. E.g. $I = \{x : a \leq x \leq b\}$



The measure in \mathcal{I} is ("=length"): $m(I) = b - a$.

Step 2.

Simple sets: $\mathcal{E} = \left\{ A \subset \mathbb{R} : A = \bigcup_{k=1}^n I_k, \quad I_k \in \mathcal{I} \text{ are disjoint} \right\}$



If $A \in \mathcal{E}$, let $m(A) = \sum_{k=1}^n m(I_k)$.

m is σ -additive on \mathcal{E} . BUT \mathcal{E} is not σ -algebra.

$(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{E}, m)$ is *not a measure space* yet.

Step 3. Define an outer measure on $2^{\mathbb{R}}$.

$$A \subset \mathbb{R}: \quad m^*(A) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m(I_k) : A \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} I_k, I_k \in \mathcal{I} \right\}.$$

$$m^* : 2^{\mathbb{R}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{+\infty\}.$$

If $A \in \mathcal{E}$, then $m^*(A) = m(A)$. \checkmark (But!) m^* is not σ -additive.

Up to this point we have:

$\boxed{\mathcal{E}}$	\subset	?	\subset	$\boxed{2^{\mathbb{R}}}$
not a σ -algebra				σ -algebra
m is σ -additive				m^* is not σ -additive

Step 4. There's a middle ground.

$\exists \mathcal{M}$ σ -algebra:

$$\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{M} \subset 2^{\mathbb{R}},$$

s.t. $m^*|_{\mathcal{M}}$ is σ -additive.

Thus the restriction of m^* onto \mathcal{M} is measure.

It is called **LEBESGUE MEASURE**.

Elements of \mathcal{M} are *Lebesgue-measurable sets* of \mathbb{R} .

The restriction of m^* onto \mathcal{M} is the *Lebesgue measure*.

It is denoted by m .

Lebesgue measurable sets

Q. What are the elements of \mathcal{M} , *Lebesgue measurable sets*?

Answer, partly.

- All open and closed sets.
- Countable union and intersections of open & closed sets.

$$\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{M}, \quad \text{but} \quad \mathcal{B} \neq \mathcal{M}$$

- The Cantor set.
- Some *very strange* sets. Etc.

It is a good question, *whether there are non-measurable sets*.

YES. It is far from trivial to find such an example!