

مفردات المنهج:

- 1- التحذب
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Definition:

Let R be a set of real number and " $+$ " addition on R , " \cdot " multiplication on R , then

1- For any $a, b \in R$, then $a + b \in R$ and $a \cdot b \in R$

2- For any $a, b, c \in R$ then

$$(a + b) + c = a + (b + c) \text{ and } (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$$

3- There exists $0, 1 \in R$ such that

$$a + 0 = 0 + a = a \text{ and } a \cdot 1 = a$$

4- For any $a \in R$ and $a \neq 0$ there exists $\frac{1}{a} = a^{-1} \in R$ and

$$a \cdot \frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{a} \cdot a = 1$$

5- For any $a \in R$, there exists $-a \in R$ such that $a + (-a) =$

$$(-a) + a = 0$$

6- For any $a, b, c \in R$ then

$$a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c \text{ and}$$

$$(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$$

7- For any $a, b \in R$ then $a + b = b + a$ and $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$

8- $(\alpha + \beta)a = \alpha a + \beta a$ for any $a \in X, \alpha, \beta \in F$

9- $(\alpha \cdot \beta)a = \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot a)$ for any $a \in X, \alpha, \beta \in F$

Hence $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a field and is said to be a field of real number

Definition:

Let X be a non-empty set and F be a field then X is said to be vector space over F iff there exists two operations

Addition

$+: X \times X \rightarrow X$ and

Scalar multiplication

$\cdot: F \times X \rightarrow X$ between X and F this two operational satisfies conditions

- 1- For any $a, b \in X$ then $a + b \in X$
- 2- For any $a, b \in X$ then $a + b = b + a$
- 3- For any $a, b, c \in X$ then
 $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$
- 4- there exists $0 \in X$ such that
 $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$ for any $a \in X$ 0 is called zero vector
- 5- For any $a \in X$ there exists $-a \in X$ such that $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$
- 6- $\lambda a \in X$ for any $\lambda \in F, a \in X$
- 7- $\lambda \cdot (a + b) = \lambda \cdot a + \lambda \cdot b$, For any $a, b \in X, \lambda \in F$

Example:

1- Let R be a set of real number and let

$V = R^n = \{ (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \}$ and $+, \cdot$ define on R^n as follows:

let (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) and $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) \in R^n$ then

$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n)$ and let $\lambda \in R$, $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in R^n$ then, $\lambda(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = (\lambda a_1, \lambda a_2, \dots, \lambda a_n)$ show that V be a vector space over a field R .

2- Let R be a set of real number and let

$V = M_{m \times n} = \{A, A \text{ matrix over } R\}$ and $+, \cdot$ define on

$M_{m \times n}$ as follows

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \ddots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \dots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \text{ such that}$$

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} + b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & a_{m2} + b_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

and let $\alpha \in R$ then $\alpha A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha a_{11} & \alpha a_{12} & \dots & \alpha a_{1n} \\ \alpha a_{21} & \alpha a_{22} & \dots & \alpha a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha a_{m1} & \alpha a_{m2} & \dots & \alpha a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$

show that V vector space over R

Theorem:

If X is a vector space over a field F then

- 1- $0 \cdot x = 0$ for any $x \in X$
- 2- $\lambda \cdot 0 = 0$ for any $\lambda \in F$
- 3- $-(\lambda \cdot x) = (-\lambda)x = \lambda(-x)$

- 4- For any $x, y \in X$, then there exists one element $z \in X$ such that $x + z = y$
- 5- $\lambda(x - y) = \lambda x - \lambda y$ for any $x, y \in X, \lambda \in F$
- 6- If $\lambda x = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = 0$ or $x = 0$
- 7- If $x \neq 0$ and $\lambda_1 \cdot x = \lambda_2 \cdot y$ then $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$
- 8- If $x \neq 0, \lambda \neq 0, y \neq 0$ and $\lambda x = \lambda y$ then $x = y$

Definition:

Let V be a vector space over a field F and $G \subseteq F, A, B \subseteq V$ we define $A + B, GA$ as follows:

$$A + B = \{a + b, a \in A, b \in B\}$$

$$GA = \{\lambda a, \lambda \in G, a \in A\}$$

Example:

Let R be a set of a real numbers

And let $A = \{1,2\}, B = \{-1,7\}, C = \{0,4,6\}$ find $A + B, A + C, 4A$

$$A + B = \{1 + (-1), 1 + 7, 2 + (-1), 2 + 7\} = \{0,8,1,9\}$$

$$A + C = \{1,5,7,2,8,6\}$$

$$4A = \{4 \cdot 1, 4 \cdot 2\} = \{4,8\}$$

Not:

- 1- If $A = \{a\}$ (A contain only one element we write $a + B$ instead of $\{a\} + B$ such that set $a + B$ to displan B by a)
- 2- If $0 \in A$ then $B \subseteq A + B$

3- $A + B = \cup_{a \in A} (A + B)$

4- If $G = \{\lambda\}$ we write λA instead of $\{\lambda\}A$ or GA such that $\lambda A = \{x = \lambda a, a \in A\}$ inpartically $-A = (-1)A = \{-a, a \in A\}$ we say that A symmetric set if $-A = A$ then $A \cap (-A)$ is symmetric for any $A \subseteq X$

Balanced set

Definition:

A subset A to a space X over a field F is said to be balanced set if $\lambda A \subseteq A, \forall \lambda \in F$ and $|\lambda| \leq 1$.

Theorem:

Let A, B are balanced set of a space X over a field F show that whether

1- $A \cap B$, 2- $A \cup B$, 3- $A + B$, 4- αA are balanced sets or not

Proof:

1- Let $\lambda \in F$ and $|\lambda| \leq 1$

Since A, B are balanced set

$\rightarrow \lambda A \subseteq A$ and $\lambda B \subseteq B$

We prove that $\lambda(A \cap B) \subseteq A \cap B$

Now, let $x \in \lambda(A \cap B)$ \rightarrow

$x = \lambda y$, where $y \in A \cap B$

Since $y \in A \cap B \rightarrow y \in A \wedge y \in B$

$\rightarrow \lambda y \in \lambda A \wedge \lambda y \in \lambda B$ (since $x = \lambda y$)

$\rightarrow x \in \lambda A \wedge x \in \lambda B$ (since $\lambda A \subseteq A$ and $\lambda B \subseteq B$)

$\rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \in B$

$\rightarrow x \in A \cap B$

Then we get $\lambda(A \cap B) \subseteq A \cap B \forall \lambda \in F$ and $|\lambda| \leq 1$

$\rightarrow A \cap B$ is a balanced set

2-, 3- and 4- (H.W)

Theorem:

Let A be a balanced set of a space over F and $\lambda \in F$, $|\lambda| = 1$
then $\lambda A = A$ and every balanced set is a symmetric

Proof:

suppose that A is a balanced set

$\rightarrow \lambda A \subseteq A$, $\lambda \in F$ and $|\lambda| \leq 1$

$\rightarrow \lambda A \subseteq A$ where $|\lambda| = 1 \dots (1)$

Now, we prove that $A \subseteq \lambda A$ where $|\lambda| = 1$

Let $x \in A$

Since, $|\lambda| \neq 0 \rightarrow \lambda \neq 0$

Take $\alpha = \frac{1}{\lambda} \rightarrow |\alpha| = 1$ because $|\alpha| = \left| \frac{1}{\lambda} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{1} \right| = |1| = 1$

Since A is a balanced $\rightarrow \alpha A \subseteq A$

$\rightarrow \alpha x \in A \quad (x \in A, \rightarrow \alpha x \in \alpha A \subseteq A, \rightarrow \alpha x \in A)$

Then, $\lambda(\alpha x) \in \lambda A$

$\rightarrow \lambda \cdot \frac{1}{\lambda} x \in \lambda A, \rightarrow x \in \lambda A$

We get $A \subseteq \lambda A \dots(2)$

From (1) and (2) we get $\lambda A = A$

Now, we prove that A is a symmetric

Suppose that A balanced set and let $\lambda = -1 \rightarrow |\lambda| = 1$

since, $\lambda A = A \rightarrow -A = A$

$\rightarrow A$ symmetric

subspace

Definition :

A non empty sub set M of a vector space V over a field F is said to be sub space if M is a vector space over F .

Example:'

Let $V = R^3$ is a vector space over R and

$$1- M_1 = \{(x, y, 0), x, y \in R\}$$

$$2- M_2 = \{(x, 0, y), x, y \in R\}$$

$$3- M_1 = \{(x, y, z), x, y, z \in R, x \geq 0\}$$

Show that whether M_1, M_2 and M_3 are subspace over R or not.

Theorem:

A non empty sub set M of a vector space V over a field F is subspace of V iff

$$1- \forall x, y \in M, \rightarrow x + y \in M$$

$$2- \forall x \in M, \alpha \in F \rightarrow \alpha x \in M.$$

Remark:

For any vector space X over a field F then exists two subspace are $\{0\}$ zero subspace and X are said trivial subspace

*If M is a proper subset of X then M is said to be proper sub space.

Theorem:

Let M_1 and M_2 are subspace of a vector space V over a field F then

$$1- M_1 \cap M_2 \text{ is a sub space}$$

$$2- M_1 \cup M_2 \text{ is a sub space iff } M_1 \subseteq M_2 \text{ or } M_2 \subseteq M_1$$

$$3- M_1 + M_2 \text{ is a sub space and } M_1 \subseteq M_1 + M_2 \wedge M_2 \subseteq M_1 + M_2$$

Proof

Let $x, y \in M_1 \cap M_2$, $\alpha, \beta \in F$

Since, $x, y \in M_1 \cap M_2 \rightarrow x, y \in M_1 \wedge x, y \in M_2$

Now, $x, y \in M_1$, M_1 subspace, $\alpha, \beta \in F$

$\rightarrow \alpha x + \beta y \in M_1$

Also $x, y \in M_2$, M_2 subspace, $\alpha, \beta \in F$

$\rightarrow \alpha x + \beta y \in M_2$

Now, $\alpha x + \beta y \in M_1 \wedge \alpha x + \beta y \in M_2$

$\rightarrow \alpha x + \beta y \in M_1 \cap M_2, \alpha, \beta \in F$

Then $M_1 \cap M_2$ is a subspace

Linear combination

Definition:

Let $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in V$, where V vector space over a field F , $v \in V$ then v is said to be linear combination of v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n if there exist $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in F$ such that

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

Example:

Let $V = R^3$ be a vector space over a field R and let $v_1 = (1,0,0)$, $v_2 = (0,1,0)$, $v_3 = (0,0,1)$ and $v = (2,3,6)$ show that v is a linear combination of v_1, v_2, v_3

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} v &= (2,3,6) = 2(1,0,0) + 3(0,1,0) + 6(0,0,1) \\ &= (2,0,0) + (0,3,0) + (0,0,6) = (2,3,6) = v \end{aligned}$$

$\rightarrow v$ is linear combination of v_1, v_2, v_3 where $\alpha_1 = 2, \alpha_2 = 3, \alpha_3 = 6 \in R$.

Example:

Let $A = \{ (1,2,3), (0,1,2), (0,0,1) \}$ prove $[A] = R^3$

Solution

Let $x_1 = (1,2,3)$, $x_2 = (0,1,2)$, $x_3 = (0,0,1)$ to prove that every element $(x, y, z) \in R^3$ is a linear combination of x_1, x_2, x_3

$$\begin{aligned}(x, y, z) &= \lambda_1 (1,2,3) + \lambda_2 (0,1,2) + \lambda_3 (0,0,1) \\ &= (\lambda_1, 2\lambda_1, 3\lambda_1) + (0, \lambda_2, 2\lambda_2) + (0, 0, \lambda_3)\end{aligned}$$

$$= (\lambda_1, 2\lambda_1 + \lambda_2, 3\lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + \lambda_3)$$

Now $x = \lambda_1 \dots$ (1)

$$2\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = y \dots (2)$$

$$3\lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = z \dots (3)$$

But (1) in (2)

$$2x + \lambda_2 = y \rightarrow \lambda_2 = y - 2x$$

$$x = \lambda_1, \lambda_2 = y - 2x \text{ but in (3)}$$

$$3x + 2(y - 2x) + \lambda_3 = z$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda_3 = z - 3x - 2(y - 2x) = z - 3x - 2y + 4x$$

$$\lambda_3 = x + z - 2y \text{ then } x_1, x_2, x_3 \text{ generated } R^3$$

Definition:

Let M is a proper subspace of a vector space X over a field F , we say that M is a maximal subspace if N subspace of X such that $M \subseteq N \subseteq X$ then $N = X$.

Theorem:

Let M is a proper subspace of a vector space X over a field F then M is a maximal subspace iff $X = [M \cup \{x_0\}]$ for any $x_0 \notin M$.

$\forall x \in X$ is only one way to represent as $x = m + \lambda x_0$ such that $m \in M, \lambda \in F$.

Proof

Since $x_0 \notin M \rightarrow M \subseteq [M \cup \{x_0\}] \subseteq X$

If M is a maximal subspace then by definition we get

$$[M \cup \{x_0\}] = X$$

The converse

Suppose that N subspace such that $M \subseteq N \subseteq X$ let $x_0 \in N, x_0 \notin M$

$$\rightarrow M \subseteq [M \cup \{x_0\}] \subseteq N$$

$$\therefore X = [M \cup \{x_0\}] \rightarrow X \subseteq N \rightarrow X = N$$

Then M is a maximal subspace

Now, we prove that $\forall x \in X$ can be written as only one way $x = m + \lambda x_0, m \in M, \lambda \in F$

Since, $X = [M \cup \{x_0\}], x \in X$

$\rightarrow x \in [M \cup \{x_0\}] \rightarrow x = m + \lambda x_0, \lambda \in F, m \in M$ To prove unique,

let $x = m_1 + \lambda_1 x_0$ and $x = m_2 + \lambda_2 x_0$ such that $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in F, m_1, m_2 \in M$

Since $x = x \rightarrow m_1 + \lambda_1 x_0 = m_2 + \lambda_2 x_0$ $m_1 - m_2 = \lambda_2 x_0 - \lambda_1 x_0$

$$m_1 - m_2 = (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)x_0,$$

since $m_1, m_2 \in M \rightarrow m_1 - m_2 \in M$ (M subspace) \rightarrow

$(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)x_0 \in M$ and

$$x_0 = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1}}_{\in F} \underbrace{(m_1 - m_2)}_{\in M}, \text{ } M \text{ subspace}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} (m_1 - m_2) \in M$$

$\rightarrow x_0 \in M$ (contradiction) then $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$ and $m_1 = m_2$

Definition:

Let M_1 and M_2 are two subspace of a vector space X over a field F we say that M_1, M_2 are disjoint iff $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{0\}$

Definition:

Let M_1 and M_2 are two subspace of a vector space X over a field F we say that X is direct sum to M_1 and M_2 and denoted by $X = M_1 \oplus M_2$, if for any $x \in X$ can be written as unique method $x = m_1 + m_2$, $m_1 \in M_1$, $m_2 \in M_2$

Theorem:

Let M_1 and M_2 are two subspace of a vector space X over a field F then Let M_1 and M_2 are two subspace of a vector space X over a field $X = M_1 \oplus M_2$ iff

- 1- $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{0\}$;
- 2- $X = M_1 + M_2$

Proof

Suppose that $X = M_1 \oplus M_2$ for any $x \in X$ can be written as unique way for sum of elements one of this element in M_1 and the other in M_2 then $X = M_1 + M_2$

Now, we prove that $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{0\}$

Let $x \in M_1 \cap M_2 \rightarrow x \in M_1 \wedge x \in M_2$

If $x \neq 0, x \in X$ $x = 0 + x,$
 $0 \in M_1, x \in M_2$ or $x = x + 0, x \in M_1, 0 \in M_2$

Then x can be written by two method and this contradiction then $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{0\}$

The converse : suppose that (1) and (2) holds

let $x \in X$, since $X = M_1 + M_2$

$\rightarrow x = m_1 + m_2, m_1 \in M_1, m_2 \in M_2$

Let $x = x_1 + x_2, x_1 \in M_1, x_2 \in M_2$

$x = y_1 + y_2, y_1 \in M_1, y_2 \in M_2$

$x = x$

$\rightarrow x_1 + x_2 = y_1 + y_2$

$x_1 - y_1 = y_2 - x_2$

Since, $x_1 - y_1 \in M_1, y_2 - x_2 \in M_2$ (M_1 subspace $x_1, y_1 \in M_1, M_2$ subspace $x_2, y_2 \in M_2$)

$\rightarrow x_1 - y_1, y_2 - x_2 \in M_1$ and $x_1 - y_1, y_2 - x_2 \in M_2$

Then $\rightarrow x_1 - y_1, y_2 - x_2 \in M_1 \cap M_2$

But, $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{0\}$

$\rightarrow x_1 - y_1 = \{0\}, \quad y_2 - x_2 = \{0\}$

$\rightarrow x_1 = y_1, \quad y_2 = x_2$

Then we get x can be written as one way

Remark:

If the vector space X direct sum of two subspace M_1 and M_2 (i.e. $X = M_1 \oplus M_2$ then M_2 is said to be (complement subspace) M_1 in X (i.e. M_1 and M_2 are said to be complement subspace).

Theorem:

If M is a subspace of a vector space X over a field F then M is has a complement subspace in X

Question:

Show that whether every subspace has unique complement subspace

Example:

Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ and

$$M_1 = \{ (x, 0), x \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$M_2 = \{ (0, x), x \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$M_3 = \{ (x, x), x \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$X = M_1 \oplus M_2 = M_1 \oplus M_3$, every M_2 and M_3 is a complement of M_1 .

Linear independence

Definition:

Let X be a vector space over a field F , a finite set of a vector in X $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is said to be linear dependent iff, there exists

$$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n \in F, \text{ such that } \lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n = 0$$

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ not all zero

Other wise, we say that the set is linear independent iff $\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n = 0$ then $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_n = 0$

**If A is a subset of X we say that A is a linear independent if every non empty finite subset of A is a linear independent*

i.e\ if there exist a non – empty finite subset of A is a linear dependent.

Example:

Show that the vector in R^3 is independent or not

$$1- x_1 = (1, -2, 1), x_2 = (2, 1, -1), x_3 = (6, -4, 1)$$

$$2- x_1 = (1, 2, -3), x_2 = (1, -3, 2), x_3 = (1, -3, 2)$$

Solution

1- H.W

$$2- \lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n = 0$$

$$\lambda_1(1, 2, -3) + \lambda_2(1, -3, 2) + \lambda_3(1, -3, 2) = 0$$

$$(\lambda_1, 2\lambda_1, -3\lambda_1) + (\lambda_2, -3\lambda_2, 2\lambda_2) + (\lambda_3, -3\lambda_3, 2\lambda_3) = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 0 \quad \dots (1)$$

$$2\lambda_1 + 3\lambda_2 - \lambda_3 = 0 \quad \dots (2)$$

$$-3\lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + 5\lambda_3 = 0 \quad \dots (3)$$

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 0 \quad (\times 2)$$

$$\rightarrow 2\lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + 2\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$-2\lambda_1 + 3\lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 0$$

$$-\lambda_2 + 3\lambda_3 = 0 \dots (4)$$

$$2\lambda_1 + 3\lambda_2 - \lambda_3 = 0 \quad (\times 3) \rightarrow 6\lambda_1 + 9\lambda_2 - 3\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$-3\lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + 5\lambda_3 = 0 \quad (\times 2) \rightarrow -6\lambda_1 + 4\lambda_2 + 10\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$6\lambda_1 + 9\lambda_2 - 3\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$-6\lambda_1 + 4\lambda_2 + 10\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$13\lambda_2 + 7\lambda_3 = 0 \dots (5)$$

From (4) and (5) we get

$$-\lambda_2 + 3\lambda_3 = 0 \quad (\times 13) \rightarrow -13\lambda_2 + 39\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$13\lambda_2 + 7\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$46\lambda_3 = 0$$

$\rightarrow \lambda_3 = 0$ from (4) or (5)

We get $\lambda_2 = 0$ from (1) or (2) or (3) we get

$$\lambda_1 = 0$$

Then $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 0$

Linear independent

Example:

Let x_1, x_2 and x_3 are independent vector space of a vector space X over a field F prove that the vectors $x_1 + x_2, x_1 - x_2, x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3$ are linear independent

Solution

$$\lambda_1(x_1 + x_2) + \lambda_2(x_1 - x_2) + \lambda_3(x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3) = (0,0,0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_1 x_2) + (\lambda_2 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2) + (\lambda_3 x_1 - 2\lambda_3 x_2 + \lambda_3 x_3) \\ = (0,0,0) \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_1 + \lambda_3 x_1 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 x_2 - \lambda_2 x_2 - 2\lambda_3 x_2 = 0$$

$$\lambda_3 x_3 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3)x_1 = 0$$

$$(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - 2\lambda_3)x_2 = 0$$

$$\lambda_3 x_3 = 0$$

Since, x_1, x_2 and x_3 are independent

$$\rightarrow \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 - 2\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$\lambda_3 = 0$$

By solution of equation we get

$$\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 + \cancel{\lambda_2} + \lambda_3 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 - \cancel{\lambda_2} - 2\lambda_3 = 0$$

$$2\lambda_1 - \lambda_3 = 0 \text{ by } \lambda_3 = 0$$

Then we get

$$2\lambda_1 = 0 \quad \rightarrow \lambda_1 = 0$$

And we get $\lambda_2 = 0$

$$\rightarrow \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 0$$

$\rightarrow x_1 + x_2, x_1 - x_2, x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3$ are linear independent

Bases and Dimension

Definition:

Let A be a non-empty subset of a vector space X over a field F , we say that A is a basis for X iff A is a linear independent and generated X , $X = [A]$

Example:

Let R^n be a vector space over a field R , the set $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$ such that $e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$, $e_2 = (0, 1, \dots, 0)$, $e_3 = (0, 0, 1, \dots, 0)$, ..., $e_n = (0, 0, \dots, 1)$

Is a basis for R^n and said to be natural basis

solution

$$1- \lambda_1 e_1 + \lambda_2 e_2 + \dots + \lambda_n e_n = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 (1, 0, \dots, 0) + \lambda_2 (0, 1, \dots, 0) + \dots + \lambda_n (0, 0, \dots, 1) = 0$$

$$(\lambda_1, 0, \dots, 0) + (0, \lambda_2, \dots, 0) + \dots + (0, 0, \dots, \lambda_n) = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0$$

$$\lambda_2 = 0$$

$$\lambda_3 = 0$$

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$$\lambda_n = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \dots = \lambda_n = 0$$

Linear independent

2- Let $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in R$ such that

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \lambda_1 e_1 + \lambda_2 e_2 + \dots + \lambda_n e_n$$

$$\rightarrow (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \lambda_1(1, 0, \dots, 0) + \lambda_2(0, 1, \dots, 0) + \dots + \lambda_n(0, 0, \dots, 1)$$

$$\rightarrow (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (\lambda_1, 0, \dots, 0) + (0, \lambda_2, \dots, 0) + \dots + (0, 0, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

$$\rightarrow x_1 = \lambda_1$$

$$x_2 = \lambda_2$$

.

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$$x_n = \lambda_n$$

$$\rightarrow R^n = [A], \text{ where } A = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$$

\rightarrow generated R^n

$\rightarrow A$ is a basis

Remark:

If $X = \{0\}$ then there is no a subset linear independent of X
then X is a basis.

Example:

Show that the following vectors is a basis for R^3 or not with prove

a- $x_1 = (1,3,-4), x_2 = (1,4,-3), x_3 = (2,3,-1)$

b- $x_1 = (2,4,3), x_2 = (0,1,1), x_3 = (0,1,-1)$

Solution:

a- H.W

b-

$$1- \lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2 + \lambda_3 x_3 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 (2,4,3) + \lambda_2 (0,1,1) + \lambda_3 (0,1,-1) = 0$$

$$(2\lambda_1, 4\lambda_1, 3\lambda_1) + (0, \lambda_2, \lambda_2) + (0, \lambda_3, -\lambda_3) = 0$$

$$2\lambda_1 = 0 \dots (1)$$

$$4\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 0 \dots (2)$$

$$3\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 = 0 \dots (3)$$

By (1) we get $\lambda_1 = 0$

Cover $\lambda_1 = 0$ in (2), (3) we get

$$\lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 0 \dots (4)$$

$$\lambda_2 - \lambda_3 = 0 \dots (5)$$

$$2\lambda_2 = 0 \rightarrow \lambda_2 = 0$$

Cover $\lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 0$ in (2) or (3) we get

$$\lambda_3 = 0 \rightarrow \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 0 \text{ linear independent}$$

2- Let $(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in R^3$ such that

$$(a_1, a_2, a_3) = \lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2 + \lambda_3 x_3$$

$$\rightarrow (a_1, a_2, a_3) = \lambda_1(2, 4, 3) + \lambda_2(0, 1, 1) + \lambda_3(0, 1, -1)$$

$$\rightarrow (a_1, a_2, a_3) = (2\lambda_1, 4\lambda_1, 3\lambda_1) + (0, \lambda_2, \lambda_2) + (0, \lambda_3, -\lambda_3)$$

$$a_1 = 2\lambda_1 \dots (1)$$

$$a_2 = 4\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 \dots (2)$$

$$a_3 = 3\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 \dots (3)$$

From (1) we get $\lambda_1 = \frac{a_1}{2}$ cover in (2) and (3)

$$a_2 = 4\left(\frac{a_1}{2}\right) + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3, \quad a_3 = 3\frac{a_1}{2} + \lambda_2 - \lambda_3$$

$$a_2 = 2a_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 \dots (4)$$

$$a_3 = \frac{3}{2}a_1 + \lambda_2 - \lambda_3 \dots (5)$$

$$a_2 + a_3 = 2a_1 + \frac{3}{2}a_1 + 2\lambda_2$$

$$a_2 + a_3 = \frac{4a_1 + 3a_1}{2} + 2\lambda_2$$

$$a_2 + a_3 = \frac{7}{2}a_1 + 2\lambda_2$$

$$2\lambda_2 = a_2 + a_3 - \frac{7}{2}a_1$$

$$\lambda_2 = \frac{a_2}{2} + \frac{a_3}{2} - \frac{7}{4}a_1 \text{ cover in (4)}$$

$$2a_1 + \frac{a_2}{2} + \frac{a_3}{2} - \frac{7}{4}a_1 + \lambda_3 = a_2$$

$$\lambda_3 = a_2 - 2a_1 - \frac{a_2}{2} - \frac{a_3}{2} + \frac{7}{4}a_1$$

$$= \frac{2-1}{2}a_2 + \frac{7-8}{4}a_1 - \frac{a_3}{2}$$

$$\lambda_3 = 1a_2 - \frac{1}{4}a_1 - \frac{1}{2}a_3$$

→ Generated R^3

→ basis

Definition:

Let X be a vector space over a field F we say that the number of the element of a basis of X is dimension of X and denoted by $\dim(X)$

- Zero vector space $X = \{0\}$ othough that denoted not have basis then $\dim(X) = 0$, we say that the vector space X is finite dimension iff $\dim(X) = n, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ or $n = 0$ we say that the vector space X is an infinite dimension is the number of the element of a basis of X is infinite i.e $\dim(X) = \infty$.

Example:

Find the dimension of he vector space R^3 over a field R where $S = \{ (1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1) \}$ is a basis

Solution

$$\dim(R^3) = 3$$

Convexity

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a vector space X over a field F . A is said to be convex set iff $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A \quad \forall x, y \in A, \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

OR

A is a convex set iff $\lambda A + (1 - \lambda)A \subseteq A \quad \forall \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

- The empty set \emptyset , and the set contain only one element are convex set

Example:

Every subspace is a convex set but the **conversely need not true in general**

Solution

Let M be a subspace of a vector space X then $\forall x, y \in M, \alpha, \beta \in F$

$$\rightarrow \alpha x + \beta y \in M$$

Put $\lambda = \alpha$, $1 - \lambda = \beta$, $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

$$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in M, \quad \forall x, y \in M, \lambda \in F$$

$\rightarrow M$ is a convex set

The conversely (H.W) by example

Theorem:

If A, B are convex sets of a vector space over a field then , $A + B$ is a convex set of a vector space.

Proof

Let $x, y \in A + B, \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

Since $x \in A + B \rightarrow x = a + b \quad \exists a \in A, b \in B$ and $y \in A + B \rightarrow y = c + d \quad \exists c \in A, d \in B$

Since A is a convex set and $a, c \in A$

$$\rightarrow \lambda a + (1 - \lambda)c \in A, \quad \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$$

And since B is a convex set and $b, d \in B$

$$\rightarrow \lambda b + (1 - \lambda)d \in B, \quad \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y &= \lambda(a + b) + (1 - \lambda)(c + d) \\ &= (\lambda a + \lambda b) + (1 - \lambda)c + (1 - \lambda)d \\ &= \underbrace{\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b}_{\in A} + \underbrace{\lambda c + (1 - \lambda)d}_{\in B} \in A + B, \\ &\lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Then $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A + B$, $\lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

$A + B$ is a convex set

Remark:

If A is a subset of a vector space X then $(\alpha + \beta)A \subseteq \alpha A + \beta A$

Proof

Let $x \in (\alpha + \beta)A$

$\rightarrow x = (\alpha + \beta)a, a \in A$

$$= \alpha a + \beta a \in \alpha A + \beta A$$

$\rightarrow x \in \alpha A + \beta A$

$\rightarrow (\alpha + \beta)A \subseteq \alpha A + \beta A$

But $\alpha A + \beta A \not\subseteq (\alpha + \beta)A$

Theorem:

If A be a subset of a vector space X over F then A is a convex set iff

$$(\alpha + \beta)A = \alpha A + \beta A, \alpha, \beta \in R^+$$

Proof

Let A is a convex set,

we prove that $(\alpha + \beta)A = \alpha A + \beta A$

since by above remark $(\alpha + \beta)A \subseteq \alpha A + \beta A$. . .(1)

It remains to show that $\alpha A + \beta A \subseteq (\alpha + \beta)A$

Let $x \in \alpha A + \beta A$

$\rightarrow x = \alpha a + \beta b, \alpha, \beta \in R^+, a, b \in A$

$$x = (\alpha + \beta) \left(\frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} a, \frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta} b \right)$$

$$\text{Put, } \lambda = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}, \quad 1 - \lambda = \frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta}$$

Since, $\alpha, \beta \in R^+, \lambda \geq 0$ and since

$$\alpha \leq \alpha + \beta \rightarrow \lambda \leq 1$$

$$\rightarrow 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$$

And since, A is a convex set $\rightarrow \lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b \in A$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} a, \frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta} b \in A$$

then $x \in (\alpha + \beta)A$

$$\rightarrow \alpha A + \beta A \subseteq (\alpha + \beta)A. . . (2)$$

From (1) and (2) we get $(\alpha + \beta)A = \alpha A + \beta A$

The converse

Let $(\alpha + \beta)A = \alpha A + \beta A, \alpha, \beta \in R^+$

Let $\lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1 \rightarrow 1 - \lambda \geq 0$

Then we get

$$\lambda A + (1 - \lambda)A = (\lambda + (1 - \lambda))A = A \subseteq A$$

Then, $\lambda A + (1 - \lambda)A \subseteq A$

Then A is a convex set

Theorem:

Let A, B are two convex sets of a vector space over a field then $A \cap B$ is a convex set

Proof

Let $x, y \in A \cap B, \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

Since, $x, y \in A \cap B \rightarrow x, y \in A \wedge x, y \in B$

Now, $x, y \in A, A$ convex set, $\lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A$

Also, $x, y \in B, B$ convex set $\lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in B$

Now, $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A \wedge \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in B$

$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A \cap B, \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

Then $A \cap B$ is a convex set

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a vector space X then the intersection of all convex subset of X containing A is the smallest convex subset of X containing A is called the convex hull of A and denoted by $conv(A)$,

$$conv(A) = \{A_i, A \text{ convex set and } A \subseteq A_i\}$$

Remark:

1- $A \subseteq \text{conv}(A)$

2- A is a convex set iff $A = \text{conv}(A)$

Definition:

Let X be a vector space over a field F let $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in X$, we say that the vector $x \in X$ is a convex combination for the vector x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n if $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i$, $\lambda_i \geq 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = 1$

Affine sets

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a vector space X over a field F A is said to be affine set iff

$$\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A$$

$\forall x, y \in A, \lambda \in F$

- The empty set \emptyset , and the set contain only one element are affine sets

Example:

Every affine set is a convex set but the conversely need not true in general

Solution

Let A be affine set in X then

$$\forall x, y \in A, \lambda \in F$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A$$

For any $\lambda \in F$

$$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A \quad x, y \in A, \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$$

$\rightarrow A$ is a convex set

The conversely (H.W) by example

Example:

Every subspace is affine set but the conversely need not true in general

Theorem:

If A, B are affine sets of a vector space over a field then , $A + B$ is affine set of a vector space.

Proof

Let $x, y \in A + B, \lambda \in F,$

Since $x \in A + B \rightarrow x = a + b \quad \exists a \in A, b \in B$ and $y \in A + B \rightarrow y = c + d \quad \exists c \in A, d \in B$

Since A is a convex set and $a, c \in A$

$$\rightarrow \lambda a + (1 - \lambda)c \in A, \quad \lambda \in F,$$

And since B is a convex set and $b, d \in B$

$$\rightarrow \lambda b + (1 - \lambda)d \in B, \quad \lambda \in F,$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y &= \lambda(a + b) + (1 - \lambda)(c + d) \\ &= (\lambda a + \lambda b) + (1 - \lambda)c + (1 - \lambda)d \\ &= \underbrace{\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b}_{\in A} + \underbrace{\lambda c + (1 - \lambda)d}_{\in B} \in A + B, \\ &\lambda \in F, \end{aligned}$$

Then $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A + B, \lambda \in F$

$A + B$ is affine set

Theorem:

Let X be a vector space and let $x_0 \in X$ then

- 1- If M is a subspace in X then $x_0 + M$ is affine set in X
- 2- If A is affine set in X then $A - x_0$ is a subspace in X

Proof

- 1- Suppose that M is a subspace and let $x, y \in x_0 + M, \lambda \in F$

$$x = x_0 + m_1, y = x_0 + m_2, m_1, m_2 \in M$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y &= \lambda(x_0 + m_1) + (1 - \lambda)(x_0 + m_2) \\
&= \lambda x_0 + \lambda m_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_0 + (1 - \lambda)m_2 \\
&= \lambda x_0 + (1 - \lambda)x_0 + \lambda m_1 + (1 - \lambda)m_2 \\
&= (\lambda x_0 + x_0 - \lambda x_0) + \lambda m_1 + (1 - \lambda)m_2 \\
&= x_0 + \lambda m_1 + (1 - \lambda)m_2
\end{aligned}$$

Since, $m_1, m_2 \in M$, M is a subspace

$$\rightarrow \underbrace{\lambda}_{\alpha} m_1 + \underbrace{(1 - \lambda)}_{\beta} m_2 \in M$$

Then $x_0 + \lambda m_1 + (1 - \lambda)m_2 \in x_0 + M$

$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in x_0 + M$

$\rightarrow x_0 + M$ is affine set

2- H.W

Theorem: H.W

Let A, B are two affine sets of a vector space over a field then $A \cap B$ is affine set

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a vector space X the the smallest set X contain A is called affine set generated by A and denoted by $\text{aff}(A)$,

$$\text{aff}(A) = \{A_i, A \text{ affine set and } A \subseteq A_i\}$$

Remark:

$$1- x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i, x_i \in A, \lambda_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = 1$$

$$2- A \text{ is affine set iff } A = \text{aff}(A)$$

Linear transformation

Definition:

Let X, Y are vector space over a field F , the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be linear transformation if the conditions holds

$$1- f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y), \forall x, y \in X$$

$$2- f(\lambda x) = \lambda f(x), \forall x \in X, \lambda \in F$$

This two conditions equivalent to the condition $f(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha f(x) + \beta f(y), \forall x, y \in X, \alpha, \beta \in F$

*- linear transformation $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be linear function on X

Example:

Let $f: R^3 \rightarrow R^2$ define as follows

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1, x_2)$$

$\forall (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in R^3$ show that f linear transformation

Solution

Let $x, y \in R^3, \alpha, \beta \in F$

Since $x \in R^3 \rightarrow x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and

$y \in R^3 \rightarrow y = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha x + \beta y &= \alpha(x_1, x_2, x_3) + \beta(y_1, y_2, y_3) \\ &= (\alpha x_1, \alpha x_2, \alpha x_3) + (\beta y_1, \beta y_2, \beta y_3) \\ &= (\alpha x_1 + \beta y_1, \alpha x_2 + \beta y_2, \alpha x_3 + \beta y_3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\alpha x + \beta y) &= f(\alpha x_1 + \beta y_1, \alpha x_2 + \beta y_2, \alpha x_3 + \beta y_3) \\ &= (\alpha x_1 + \beta y_1, \alpha x_2 + \beta y_2) \\ &= (\alpha x_1, \alpha x_2) + (\beta y_1, \beta y_2) \\ &= \alpha(x_1, x_2) + \beta(y_1, y_2) \\ &= \alpha f(x) + \beta f(y) \end{aligned}$$

Then f is a linear transformation

Example:

Show that the function $f: R^2 \rightarrow R$ define as follows

$$f(x_1, x_2) = x_1x_2, \forall (x_1, x_2) \in R^2$$

Is not linear transformation

Solution

Let $x, y \in R^2$ such that

$$x = (x_1, x_2), y = (y_1, y_2)$$

$$x + y = (x_1, x_2) + (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + y) &= f(x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2) = (x_1 + y_1)(x_2 + y_2) \\ &= x_1x_2 + x_1y_2 + y_1x_2 + y_1y_2 \dots (1) \end{aligned}$$

$$f(x) + f(y) = f(x_1, x_2) + f(y_1, y_2) = x_1x_2 + y_1y_2 \dots (2)$$

Since (1) \neq (2)

$$\rightarrow f(x + y) \neq f(x) + f(y)$$

f is not linear transformation

Remark:

- 1- Zero transformation: if X and Y are two vector spaces over a field F then, the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ define as follows , $f(x) = 0, \forall x \in X$ is a linear transformation*
- 2- Identity transformation: if X and Y are two vector spaces over a field F then, the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ define as follows , $f(x) = x, \forall x \in X$ is a linear transformation*

Some properties of linear transformation

Theorem:

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ linear transformation then

- 1- $f(0) = 0$
- 2- $f(-x) = -f(x)$
- 3- $f(x - y) = f(x) - f(y)$
- 4- $f(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i f(x_i)$

Proof

1- Since $0 = 0 \cdot 0$

$$f(0) = f(0 \cdot 0) = 0 \cdot f(0) = 0$$

2- $f(-x) = f((-1)x) = -1f(x) = -f(x), -1 \in F$

3- H.W

4- We prove by mathematical induction

If $n = 1$ then

$$f\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i\right) = f(\lambda_1 x_1) = \lambda_1 f(x_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i f(x_i)$$

Let the statement is true when $n = k$

i.e\ $f(\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i f(x_i)$

we prove that the statement is a true for $n = k + 1$

$$\begin{aligned} f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \lambda_i x_i\right) &= f\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i x_i + \lambda_{k+1} x_{k+1}\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i f(x_i) + \lambda_{k+1} f(x_{k+1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \lambda_i f(x_i) \end{aligned}$$

Then the statement is true for any n when n is a positive integer number

Theorem:

If X, Y and Z are vector space over a field F and $f: X \rightarrow Y, g: Y \rightarrow Z$ are linear transformation then $g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z$ is a linear transformation

Proof

Let $x, y \in X, \alpha, \beta \in F$

$$\begin{aligned} g \circ f(\alpha x + \beta y) &= g(f(\alpha x + \beta y)) \\ &= g(\alpha f(x) + \beta f(y)) \\ &= \alpha g(f(x)) + \beta g(f(y)) \\ &= \alpha g \circ f(x) + \beta g \circ f(y) \end{aligned}$$

$g \circ f$ is a linear transformation

Theorem:

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear transformation and $A \subseteq X, B \subseteq Y$ then

1- If A is a subspace (convex set) in X then $f(A)$ is a subspace (convex set) in Y

2- If B is a subspace (convex set) in Y then $f^{-1}(B)$ is a subspace (convex set) in X

Proof

1- Let A be a subspace in X

We prove that $f(A)$ is a subspace in Y

$$f(A) = \{f(x), x \in A\} \subseteq Y$$

Since A is a subspace $\rightarrow 0 \in A$

$$0 = f(0) \in f(A)$$

$$\rightarrow f(A) \neq \emptyset$$

Let $\alpha, \beta \in F, a, b \in f(A)$

$$a = f(c), b = f(d), c, d \in A$$

$$\alpha a + \beta b = \alpha f(c) + \beta f(d)$$

$$= f(\alpha c) + f(\beta d)$$

$$= f(\alpha c + \beta d)$$

Since $c, d \in A, A$ subspace $\alpha, \beta \in F$

$$\rightarrow \alpha c + \beta d \in A$$

$$\rightarrow f(\alpha c + \beta d) \in f(A)$$

$$\rightarrow \alpha a + \beta b \in f(A)$$

$\rightarrow f(A)$ is a subspace

Let B is a convex set in Y

We prove that $f^{-1}(B)$ is a convex set in X

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in X, f(x) \in B\} \subseteq X$$

Let $a, b \in f^{-1}(B), \gamma \in F, 0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$

$$f(a), f(b) \in B$$

Since B convex set

$$\rightarrow \gamma f(a) + (1 - \gamma)f(b) \in B$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow f(\gamma a) + f((1 - \gamma)b) \in B \\ \rightarrow f(\gamma a + (1 - \gamma)b) \in B \end{array} \right\} \text{linear transf}$$

$$\rightarrow \gamma a + (1 - \gamma)b \in f^{-1}(B)$$

$f^{-1}(B)$ is a convex set

Remark:

If X is a vector space of finite dimension and let

$\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} = B$ is a basis of X then $x_i \in X$ can be written unique method as

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i x_i, \gamma_i \in F$$

Theorem:

If X be a vector space and $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is a basis of X then, for any set $\{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n\}$ contain n vectors in vector space Y there exists only one linear transformation method

$f: X \rightarrow Y$, such that $f(x_i) = y_i$

Proof

Let $x \in X$, since $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ basis

$\rightarrow x$ has unique method

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i x_i, \gamma_i \in F$$

Define the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, such that $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i y_i$ to prove that

1- f linear transformation

Let $x, y \in X, \alpha, \beta \in F$

$$\text{Then } x = \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i x_i, y = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i x_i$$

$$\rightarrow \alpha x + \beta y = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i x_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i x_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha \delta_i + \beta \mu_i) x_i$$

$$f(\alpha x + \beta y) = f\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha \delta_i + \beta \mu_i) x_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha \delta_i + \beta \mu_i) y_i$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i y_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i y_i$$

$$= \alpha f(x) + \beta f(y)$$

2- $f(x_i) = y_i$

$$x_i = 0 \cdot x_1 + 0 \cdot x_2 + \dots + 1 \cdot x_i + \dots + 0 \cdot x_n$$

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x_i) &= f(0 \cdot x_1 + 0 \cdot x_2 + \cdots + 1 \cdot x_i + \cdots + 0 \cdot x_n) \\
&= f(0 \cdot x_1) + f(0 \cdot x_2) + \cdots + f(1 \cdot x_i) + \cdots + f(0 \cdot x_n) \\
&= 0 \cdot f(x_1) + 0 \cdot f(x_2) + \cdots + 1 \cdot f(x_i) + \cdots + 0 \cdot f(x_n) \\
&= 0 + 0 + \cdots + 1 \cdot y_i + \cdots + 0 = y_i \\
f(x_i) &= y_i
\end{aligned}$$

3- f has only one linear transformation (unique method)

If $g: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear transformation such that $g(x_i) = y_i$

To prove that $f(x) = g(x)$

Let $x \in X \rightarrow x$ has unique method

$$\begin{aligned}
x &= \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i x_i \\
g(x) &= g\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i x_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i g(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i y_i = f(x)
\end{aligned}$$

Example:

Find the linear transformation $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ such that

$$f(1,1) = (0,2), f(3,1) = (2,-4)$$

Solution

Let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\begin{aligned}\rightarrow (x, y) &= \alpha_1(3, 1) + \alpha_2(1, 1) \\ &= (3\alpha_1, \alpha_1) + (\alpha_2, \alpha_2) \\ &= (3\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_1 + \alpha_2)\end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow x = 3\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$-y = -\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$x - y = 3\alpha_1 - \alpha_1$$

$$x - y = 2\alpha_1$$

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{x-y}{2}$$

$$\rightarrow x = 3\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$y = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \quad * 3$$

$$x = 3\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$-3y = -3\alpha_1 + 3\alpha_2$$

$$x - 3y = \alpha_2 - 3\alpha_2$$

$$x - 3y = -2\alpha_2$$

$$\alpha_2 = \frac{3y-x}{2}$$

$$f(x, y) = \alpha_1 f(3, 1) + \alpha_2 f(1, 1)$$

$$= \alpha_1(2, -4) + \alpha_2(0, 2)$$

$$= \frac{x-y}{2}(2, -4) + \frac{3y-x}{2}(0, 2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= (x - y, 2y - 2x) + (0, 3y - x) \\
&= (x - y, 5y - 3x)
\end{aligned}$$

Definition:

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear transformation then the kernel of f denoted by $\ker(f)$ and define as follows:

$$\ker(f) = \{x \in X: f(x) = 0\}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \ker(f) = f^{-1}(\{0\})$$

Theorem:

if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear transformation then

- 1- $\ker(f)$ is a subspace of X
- 2- $\ker(f) = \{0\}$ iff f is one-to-one

Proof

1-

a- Since $f(0) = 0$

$\rightarrow 0 \in \ker(f)$

$\rightarrow \ker(f) \neq \emptyset$

b- Let $x, y \in \ker(f), \alpha, \beta \in F$

Since $x \in \ker(f) \rightarrow f(x) = 0$ and

$y \in \ker(f) \rightarrow f(y) = 0$

Now, $f(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha f(x) + \beta f(y) = 0 + 0 = 0$

Then $f(\alpha x + \beta y) = 0$

$\rightarrow \alpha x + \beta y \in \ker(f)$

$\rightarrow \ker(f)$ is a subspace

2- Suppose that $\ker(f) = \{0\}$

To prove that f is one-to-one

Let $x, y \in X$ such that $f(x) = f(y)$

$$f(x) - f(y) = 0$$

$$\rightarrow f(x - y) = 0$$

$$\rightarrow x - y \in \ker(f)$$

$$x - y = 0$$

$$\rightarrow x = y$$

$\rightarrow f$ is one-to-one

The converse :

Suppose that f is linear transformation one-to-one

To show that $\ker(f) = \{0\}$

Let $x \in \ker(f) \rightarrow f(x) = 0$

Since $f(0) = 0$

$$0 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow f(x) = f(0)$$

Since f linear one-to-one

$$\rightarrow x = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \ker(f) = \{0\}$$

Theorem:

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ linear transformation, if X finite dimension then the subspace $f(x)$ also finite dimension

Proof

If $\dim(X) = 0$ then $X = \{0\}$

And $f(X) = \{f(x): x \in X\} = \{0\}$

$$\rightarrow \dim(f(x)) = 0$$

If $\dim(X) = n > 0$

Let $B = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ basis of X and let $y \in f(X)$

$\rightarrow \exists x \in X$ such that $f(x) = y$

Since, B basis of $X \rightarrow x$ has only one method

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i, \lambda_i \in F$$

And

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i f(x_i)$$

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i f(x_i) \dots (1)$$

Let $B' = \{f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n)\}$

→ B' basis of $f(x)$

→ $f(X)$ finite dimension

Sylvester's law

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ linear transformation, if X finite dimension then

$$\dim(X) = \dim(\ker(f)) + \dim(f(x))$$

Corollary:

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ linear transformation if X, Y are finite dimension such that $\dim(X) = \dim(Y)$ then the transformation f is a one-to-one iff is one to

Proof

Suppose that f is a linear transformation $\dim(X) = \dim(Y)$ and f is one-to-one

Since f is one-to-one

$$\rightarrow \ker(f) = \{0\} \quad (\text{by theorem})$$

$$\rightarrow \dim(\ker(f)) = 0$$

By Sylvester's law

$$\dim(X) = \dim(\ker(f)) + \dim(f(x))$$

$$\rightarrow \dim(X) = \dim(f(x))$$

Then $\dim(f(x)) = \dim(y)$

$$\rightarrow f(x) = y$$

$\rightarrow f$ is one to

The converse

Suppose that f is one to

$\rightarrow y = f(x)$ and

$$\dim(X) = \dim(y) = \dim f(f(x))$$

$$\rightarrow \dim(f(x)) = 0 \rightarrow \ker(f) = 0$$

$\rightarrow f$ one-to-one

Definition:

Let X, Y vector space over a field F , we say that X, Y linear isomorphic and write $X \approx Y$ if linear transformation (one-to-one, one to)

From X to Y the function is called linear isomorphism

Theorem:

If X be a vector space over F and X finite dimension $\dim(X) = n$ then $X \approx F^n$

Proof

Let $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ basis of X

$$\rightarrow \forall x \in X, x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i, \lambda_i \in F$$

Define the function

$f: X \rightarrow F^n$ as follows

$$f(x) = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

We prove that f is linear transformation, one-to-one, one to H.W

Theorem:

If X, Y are two finite dimension vectors space over a field F then $X \approx Y$ iff $\dim(X) = \dim(Y)$

Proof

Let $X \approx Y$

$\rightarrow \exists$ linear transformation $f: X \rightarrow Y$

$\rightarrow \ker(f) = 0, f(x) = y$

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(X) &= \dim(\ker(f)) + \dim(f(x)) \\ &= 0 + \dim(y) \\ &= \dim(y) \end{aligned}$$

The converse

By theorem

$$X \approx F^n$$

And $y = F^n$

Then $X \approx Y$

Metric And Normed Space

Definition:

Let X be a non empty set a function $d: X \times X \rightarrow R$ such that

- 1- $d(x, y) \geq 0, \forall x, y \in X$
- 2- $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y, \forall x, y \in X$
- 3- $d(x, y) = d(y, x), \forall x, y \in X$
- 4- $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y), \forall x, y, z \in X$

Then (X, d) is said to be metric space

Definition:

Let X be a vector space over a field R then a norm on X is a map $\| \cdot \|: X \rightarrow R$ such that

- 1- $\|x\| \geq 0, \forall x \in X$
- 2- $\|x\| = 0$ iff $x = 0$
- 3- $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|, \forall x \in X, \lambda \in R$
- 4- $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|, \forall x, y \in X$

Then $(X, \| \cdot \|)$ is said to be normed space

Example:

Let $X = R$ be a vector space over R and $\|\cdot\|: R \rightarrow R$ such that $\|x\| = |x|, \forall x \in R$ show that $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on R

Solution

1- Let $x \in R \rightarrow \|x\| = |x| \geq 0 \rightarrow \|x\| \geq 0$

2- Let $x \in R$ if $\|x\| = 0 \rightarrow |x| = 0$

$\rightarrow x = 0$

if $x =$

$0 \rightarrow |x| = 0 \rightarrow \|x\| = |x| = 0 \rightarrow \|x\| = 0$

3- Let $x \in R$ and $\lambda \in R$

$\|\lambda x\| =$

$|\lambda x| = |\lambda||x| = |\lambda|\|x\|$

4- Let $x, y \in R$

$$\|x + y\| = |x + y| \leq |x| + |y| = \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$$\therefore \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$\rightarrow \|\cdot\|$ norm on R

$\rightarrow (X, \|x\|)$ normed space

Remark:

1- Holder's inequality

for

$p, q \in R, \exists \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ then

$$\sum |x_i y_i| \leq (\sum |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum |y_i|^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

if

$p = 2, q = 2$ then

$$\sum |x_i y_i| \leq (\sum |x_i|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} (\sum |y_i|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

is called

Cuchy – Schwarz's inequality

2- Minkowk's inequality

If $p \geq 1$ then

$$\left(\sum |x_i + y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \left(\sum |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum |y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Example:

Let $X = R^n$, be a vector space over R and $\|\cdot\|_1, \|\cdot\|_2, \|\cdot\|_3$ and $\|\cdot\|_4: R^n \rightarrow R$ define as follows.

$\forall x \in R^n, x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

1- $\|\cdot\|_1 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

2- $\|\cdot\|_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$

3- $\|\cdot\|_3 = \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\}$

4- $\|\cdot\|_4 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

show that $\|\cdot\|_i$ are normed space on R^n or not

Solution

$\|\cdot\|_1$

1- Since $x_i^2 \geq 0, \forall i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n \rightarrow \sum x_i^2 \geq 0 \rightarrow \left(\sum x_i^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \geq 0$ then $\|x\| \geq 0$

2- Let $\|x\| = 0$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left(\sum x_i^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum x_i^2 = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x_i^2 = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x_i = 0$$

$$\leftrightarrow x = 0$$

3- Let $x \in R^n, \lambda \in R$

$$\lambda x = \lambda(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \dots, \lambda x_n)$$

$$\|\lambda x\| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (\lambda x_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\lambda| \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\lambda| \|x\|$$

4- Let $x, y \in R^n$

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ &= (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\|x + y\| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

By using minkowsk's inquility

$$\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$$\rightarrow \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$\|\cdot\|_2$

1- Since $|x_i| \geq 0, \forall i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$

$$\rightarrow \sum |x_i| \geq 0 \rightarrow \|x\| \geq 0$$

$$2- \text{ Let } \|x\| = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow |x_i| = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x_i = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x = 0$$

$$3- \text{ Let } x \in R^n, \lambda \in R$$

$$\lambda x = \lambda(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \dots, \lambda x_n)$$

$$\|\lambda x\| = \sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda x_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda| |x_i| = |\lambda| \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| = |\lambda| \|x\|$$

$$4- \text{ Let } x, y \in R^n$$

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ &= (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|x + y\| &= \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i + y_i| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n (|x_i| + |y_i|) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| + \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i| = \|x\| + \|y\| \end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$\|\cdot\|_3$

1- Since $|x_i| \geq 0, \forall i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$

$$\rightarrow \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\} \geq 0 \rightarrow \|x\| \geq 0$$

2- Let $\|x\| = 0$

$$\leftrightarrow \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\} = 0$$

$$\leftrightarrow |x_i| = 0$$

$$\leftrightarrow x_i = 0$$

$$\leftrightarrow x = 0$$

3- Let $x \in R^n, \lambda \in R$

$$\lambda x = \lambda(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \dots, \lambda x_n)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\lambda x\| &= \max\{|\lambda x_1|, |\lambda x_2|, \dots, |\lambda x_n|\} \\ &= |\lambda| \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\} = |\lambda| \|x\| \end{aligned}$$

4- Let $x, y \in R^n$

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ &= (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n) \end{aligned}$$

$\|x + y\|$

$$= \max\{|x_1 + y_1|, |x_2 + y_2|, \dots, |x_n + y_n|\} \leq \max\{|x_1| + |y_1|, |x_2| + |y_2|, \dots, |x_n| + |y_n|\}$$

$$\leq \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\} +$$

$$\max\{|y_1|, |y_2|, \dots, |y_n|\}$$

$$= \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$$\rightarrow \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$$

$\|\cdot\|_4$ H.W

Remark:

Every subspace of normed space is a normed space

Theorem:

Let X be a normed space then

1- $\|0\| = 0$

2- $\|-x\| = \|x\|, \forall x \in X$

3- $\|x - y\| = \|y - x\|, \forall x, y \in X$

4- $\| \|x\| + \|y\| \| \leq \|x - y\| \forall x, y \in X$

Proof

1-,2-,3- H.W

4-x = $(x - y) + y$

$$\|x\| = \|(x - y) + y\| \leq \|x - y\| + \|y\|$$

$$\rightarrow \|x\| - \|y\| \leq \|x - y\| \dots (1)$$

y = $(y - x) + x$

$$\|y\| = \|(y - x) + x\| \leq \|y - x\| + \|x\|$$

$$\rightarrow \|y\| - \|x\| \leq \|y - x\| = \|x - y\|$$

$$\rightarrow \|y\| - \|x\| \leq \|x - y\| \quad (* -1)$$

$$-(\|y\| - \|x\|) \geq -\|x - y\|$$

$$\rightarrow \|x\| - \|y\| \geq -\|x - y\| \dots (2)$$

From (1) and (2) we get

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

$$\rightarrow |||x\| + \|y\|| \leq \|x - y\|$$

Example:

Let $1 \leq P \leq \infty$ and $\|\cdot\|: \ell^P \rightarrow R$ such that $x \in \ell^P, x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots)$ then $\|\cdot\|$ is a normed on ℓ^P where

$$\|\cdot\| = (\sum |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Solution

1- Let $x \in \ell^P \rightarrow x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots)$ $\|x\| =$

$$(\sum |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$\therefore |x_i| \geq 0, \forall i \rightarrow |x_i|^p \geq 0, \forall i$$

$\rightarrow \sum |x_i|^p \geq 0 \rightarrow (\sum |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} \geq 0$ *then*

$$\|x\| \geq 0$$

2- Let $x \in \ell^P, x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots)$

$$\text{if } \|x\| = 0 \rightarrow (\sum |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \sum |x_i|^p = 0 \rightarrow |x_i|^p = 0 \rightarrow |x_i| = 0$$

$$\rightarrow x_i = 0, \forall i \rightarrow x = 0$$

If $x = 0 \rightarrow x = (0, 0, \dots, 0, \dots) \rightarrow x_i = 0, \forall i \rightarrow |x_i| = 0 \rightarrow$

$$|x_i|^p = 0 \rightarrow \sum |x_i|^p = 0 \rightarrow (\sum |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} = 0 \rightarrow \|x\| = 0$$

3- Let $x \in \ell^P, \lambda \in R$

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\lambda x\| &= \|\lambda(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots)\| = \|\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \dots, \lambda x_n, \dots\| \\
&= \left(\sum |\lambda x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \left(\sum |\lambda|^p |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
&= \left(|\lambda|^p \sum |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = (|\lambda|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
&= |\lambda| \left(\sum |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = |\lambda| \|x\|
\end{aligned}$$

4- Let $x, y \in \ell^p, x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots), y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, \dots)$

$$\begin{aligned}
\|x + y\| &= \|x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n, \dots\| \\
&= \left(\sum |x_i + y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \left(\sum |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum |y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
&= \|x\| + \|y\|
\end{aligned}$$

Example: Let $\|\cdot\|: \ell^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\|x\| = \sup |x_i|$, then $\|\cdot\|$ is a normed space H.W

Example:

Let $X = C[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function define as $\|f\| = \max\{|f(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1\}, \forall f \in X$

Show that $\|f\|$ norm on X

Solution:

1- Since $|f(x)| \geq 0, \forall x \in [0,1] \rightarrow \|f\| \geq 0$

2- Let $\|f\| = 0 \leftrightarrow \max\{|f(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1\} \leftrightarrow |f(x)| = 0, \forall x \in [0,1] \leftrightarrow f(x) = 0, \forall x \in [0,1] \leftrightarrow f = 0$

3- Let $f \in X, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\lambda f\| &= \max\{ |(\lambda f)(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} \\
&= \max\{ |\lambda| |f(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} \\
&= |\lambda| \max\{ |f(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} = |\lambda| \|f\|
\end{aligned}$$

4- Let $f, g \in X$

$$\begin{aligned}
\|f + g\| &= \max\{ |(f + g)(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} \\
&= \max\{ |f(x) + g(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} \\
&\leq \max\{ |f(x)| + |g(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} \\
&\leq \max\{ |f(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} + \max\{ |g(x)|, 0 \leq x \leq 1 \} \\
&= \|f\| + \|g\|
\end{aligned}$$

Example:

Let $X = C[0,1]$ and $\|\cdot\|: X \rightarrow R$ be a function define as $\|f\| = \int_0^1 |f(x)| dx, \forall f \in X$

Show that $\|f\|$ norm on X

H.W

Theorem:

Every normed vector space is a metric space but the converse is not true in general

Proof

Let $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space defined $d: X \times X \rightarrow R$ by

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

1- Since $d(x, y) = \|x - y\| \geq 0, \forall x, y \in X \rightarrow d(x, y) \geq 0$

2- If $x = y \rightarrow d(x, y) = \|x - x\| = 0$ *if*

$$d(x, y) = 0 \rightarrow \|x - y\| = 0 \rightarrow x - y = 0 \rightarrow x = y$$

3- $\forall x, y \in X$

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

4- Let $x, y, z \in X$

$$x - y = x - z + z - y$$

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

$$\leq \|x - z\| + \|z - y\| = d(x, z) + d(z, y)$$

$$\rightarrow d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$$

Then we get normed space is metric space

The converse is H..W

Product Space

Definition:

Let X, Y be the set, the Cartesian product of X, Y denoted by $X \times Y$ and defined as follows :

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

Then $X \times Y \neq Y \times X$ and if $X \neq \emptyset$ and $Y \neq \emptyset$ then $X \times Y \neq \emptyset$

- If X, Y are two vectors over F then we can defined

$$\forall (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in X \times Y$$

$$(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2) \text{ and } \lambda(x_1, y_1) =$$

$$(\lambda x_1, \lambda y_1), \forall \lambda \in F$$

Example:

If $(X, \|\cdot\|_1)$ and $(Y, \|\cdot\|_2)$ are two normed spaces then $(X \times Y, \|\cdot\|)$ is a normed space such that $\|(x, y)\| = \max\{\|x\|_1, \|y\|_2\}, \forall (x, y) \in X \times Y$

Solution

1- Since $\|x\|_1 \geq 0, \forall x \in X$ and $\|y\|_2 \geq 0, \forall y \in Y \rightarrow$
 $\max\{\|x\|_1, \|y\|_2\} \geq 0 \rightarrow$

$$\|(x, y)\| \geq 0$$

2- $\|(x, y)\| = 0 \leftrightarrow \max\{\|x\|_1, \|y\|_2\} = 0 \leftrightarrow \|x\|_1 = 0, \|y\|_2 = 0 \leftrightarrow x = 0, y = 0 \leftrightarrow (x, y) = 0$

3- Let $(x, y) \in X \times Y, \lambda \in F$

$$\|\lambda(x, y)\| = \max\{\|\lambda x\|_1, \|\lambda y\|_2\} =$$

$$|\lambda| \max\{\|x\|_1, \|y\|_2\} = |\lambda| \|(x, y)\|$$

4- Let $(x, y), (z, w) \in X \times Y$

$$(x, y) + (z, w) = (x + z, y + w)$$

$$\|(x, y) + (z, w)\| = \max\{\|x + z\|_1, \|y + w\|_2\}$$

$$\leq \max\{\|x\|_1 + \|z\|_1, \|y\|_2 + \|w\|_2\}$$

$$\leq \max\{\|x\|_1, \|y\|_2\} + \max\{\|z\|_1, \|w\|_2\}$$

$$= \|(x, y)\| + \|(z, w)\|$$

Open Ball And Closed Ball

Definition:

Let X be a normed space and let $x_0 \in X$, if r is a positive real number then the set $\{x \in X: \|x - x_0\| < r\}$ is called

open ball and we called x_0 ball center , r ball radius and we denoted the open ball with center x_0 and radius r by $B_r(x_0)$ then we get

$$B_r(x_0) = \{x \in X; \|x - x_0\| < r\}$$

Definition:

Let X be a normed space and let $x_0 \in X$, if r is a positive real number then the set $\{x \in X: \|x - x_0\| \leq r\}$ is a called closed ball and we called x_0 ball center , r ball radius and we denoted the closed ball with center x_0 and radius r by $\bar{B}_r(x_0)$ then we get

$$\bar{B}_r(x_0) = \{x \in X; \|x - x_0\| \leq r\}$$

Remark:

1- In the special case

$B_1(0) = \{x \in X; \|x\| < 1\}$ is called open unit and we called the set

$\bar{B}_1(0) = \{x \in X; \|x\| \leq 1\}$ closed unit

2- We can prove that

a- $B_r(x_0) = x_0 + rB_1(0)$

b- $\bar{B}_r(x_0) = x_0 + r\bar{B}_1(0)$

Example:

If X is a normed space then the open ball and closed ball is a convex set

Solution

Let $B_r(x_0)$ is an open ball with center x_0 and radius r to show that $B_r(x_0)$ is a convex set

Let $x, y \in B_r(x_0), \lambda \in F, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

Since $x \in B_r(x_0) \rightarrow \|x - x_0\| < r$ and

$$y \in B_r(x_0) \rightarrow \|y - x_0\| < r$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \underline{\lambda x} + (1 - \lambda)y - x_0 &= \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)\underline{y - x_0} + \underline{\lambda x_0 - \lambda x_0} \\ &= \lambda(x - x_0) + \underline{(1 - \lambda)y - (1 - \lambda)x_0} \\ &= \lambda(x - x_0) + (1 - \lambda)(y - x_0) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y - x_0\| &= \|\lambda(x - x_0) + (1 - \lambda)(y - x_0)\| \\ &\leq |\lambda|\|x - x_0\| + |1 - \lambda|\|y - x_0\| < \lambda r + (1 - \lambda)r \\ &= \lambda r + r - \lambda r = r \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \|\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y - x_0\| < r$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in B_r(x_0)$$

$B_r(x_0)$ is a convex set

$\overline{B_r(x_0)}$ H.W

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a normed space X , we say that A is an open set in X if, $\forall x \in A \exists r > 0$ such that $B_r(x_0) \subseteq A$

Remark:

In a normed space we can prove that

- 1- Every open ball is an open set
- 2- Each \emptyset, X are open set
- 3- The union of finite or infinite open set is open set
- 4- The intersection of finite open set is open set
- 5- If $A \subseteq X$ then A is open set iff A equal to union of open set

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a normed space X , we say that $x \in A$ is interior point in A if, $\exists r > 0$ such that $B_r(x) \subseteq A$

The set of all element is interior points denoted by $\text{int}(A)$ or A°

Remark:

we can prove that

- 1- $\text{int}(A) \subseteq A$
- 2- $\text{int}(A)$ open set
- 3- A open set iff $\text{int}(A) = A$
- 4- $\text{int}(\text{int}(A)) = \text{int}(A)$
- 5- $\text{int}(A) = \bigcup \{M_i, M_i \text{ open set } M_i \subseteq A\}$ then
 $\text{int}(A)$ largest open set contain A
- 6- $\text{int}(A) = \{x \in A: \exists r > 0, x + rB_1(0) \subseteq A\}$

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a normed space X , we say that A is an open set in X if complement of A is open set in X

Remark:

In a normed space we can prove that

- 1- Every closed ball is an closed set
- 2- Each \emptyset, X are closed set
- 3- The union of finite closed set is closed set
- 4- The intersection of finite or infinite closed set is closed set

Theorem:

If X normed space, then every set contain only one element is a closed set

Proof

Let $A = \{x\}$ we prove that A closed set

i.e\ to show that A^c is open set

let $y \in A^c \rightarrow y \notin A$, let $x \in A$

$$\|x - y\| > 0, x \neq y$$

Take $\|x - y\| = r, r > 0$

Since $\|x - y\| = r \rightarrow \|x - y\| \not< r \rightarrow x \notin B_r(y)$

$$\rightarrow A \cap B_r(y) = \emptyset$$

$$\rightarrow B_r(y) \subseteq A^c$$

→ A^c open set

→ A closed set

Lemma:

Every finite subset of a normed space is closed set

Proof

Let A be a sub set , A finite of a normed space in X

If $A = \emptyset \rightarrow A$ closed set (by remark)

If $A \neq \emptyset \rightarrow \exists x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in X$ such that

$A = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ since x_i closed set $\forall i = 1, \dots, n \rightarrow A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n x_i$ closed set (by remark)

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a normed space, say the point $x \in X$ accumulation point or limit point of a set A iff \forall open set G in X contain x other point $y \neq x, y \in A$ or if G open set in X and $x \in G$ then $A \cap (G / \{x\}) \neq \emptyset$

The set of all limit point of A denoted by A'

Definition:

Let A be a subset of a normed space X , the set $A \cup A'$ is called closure of A and denoted by \bar{A} (i.e. $\bar{A} = A \cup A'$)

Remark:

By definition we can prove

1- $A \subseteq \bar{A}, A' \subseteq \bar{A}$

2- $x \in \bar{A}$ iff $\forall r > 0 \exists y \in A \ni \|x - y\| < r$

3- \bar{A} closed set

4- A close set iff $A = \bar{A}$

5- $\bar{\bar{A}} = \bar{A}$

6- $\bar{A} = \bigcap \{M_i \mid M_i \text{ closed set, } A \subseteq M_i\}$ \bar{A} smallest closed set contain A

7- $\bar{A} = \bigcap_{r>0} (A + r\bar{B}_1(0))$

Theorem:

If M is a subspace of a normed space then \bar{M} is subspace

Convergence in normed space

Definition:

Let X be a non-empty set, then the function $f: N \rightarrow X$ such that $\forall n \in N \exists$ only one element such that $f(n) = x_n$ is called a sequence in X

We denoted of f by $\{x_n\}$ and it is said to be

n – terme of sequence

The range of sequence $\{x_n\}$ is set $\{x_n, n \in N\}$

If $x_n = 2(-1)^{n-1}, n \in N$ is a sequence define on R then $\{x_n\} = \{2(-1)^{n-1}\} = \{2, -2, 2, -2, \dots\}$ is a sequence

But $\{x_n, n \in N\} = \{2, -2\}$ is a range

Definition:

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in a normed space X then $\{x_n\}$ is said to be converge in X if there exist $x \in X$ such that for any $\epsilon > 0, \exists k \in Z^+$ such that

$$\|x_n - x\| < \epsilon, \forall n > k$$

x is said to be a convergent point

$$x_n \rightarrow x \leftrightarrow \|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$$

If x_n is non – convergent then said to be divergent

Theorem:

If the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is a convergent in a normed space x then the convergent point is unique

Proof

Let $x_n \rightarrow x$, and $x_n \rightarrow y$ such that $x \neq y$

And let $\|x - y\| = \epsilon \rightarrow \epsilon > 0$

Since $x_n \rightarrow x$

$\Rightarrow \exists k_1 \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $\|x_n - x\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \forall n > k_1$

And since, $x_n \rightarrow y$

$\Rightarrow \exists k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $\|x_n - y\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \forall n > k_2$

Take $k = \max\{k_1, k_2\}$ then

$$\|x_n - x\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \|x_n - y\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \forall n > k$$

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon = \|x - y\| &= \|x + x_n - x_n - y\| = \|(x - x_n) + (x_n - y)\| \\ &= \|-(x_n - x) + (x_n - y)\| \\ &\leq \|x_n - x\| + \|x_n - y\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \epsilon < \epsilon$ (cont #)

$$\Rightarrow x = y$$

Theorem:

Let $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}$ are sequence in a normed space X such that $x_n \rightarrow x, y_n \rightarrow y$ then

- 1- $x_n + y_n \rightarrow x + y$
- 2- $\lambda x_n \rightarrow \lambda x$
- 3- $\|x_n\| \rightarrow \|x\|$
- 4- $\|x_n - y_n\| \rightarrow \|x - y\|$

Proof

$$1- \|(x_n + y_n) - (x + y)\| = \|(x_n - x) + (y_n - y)\| \leq \|x_n - x\| + \|y_n - y\| \quad \text{since}$$

$$x_n \rightarrow x \Rightarrow \|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$$

And

$$y_n \rightarrow y \Rightarrow \|y_n - y\| \rightarrow 0$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \|x_n - x\| + \|y_n - y\| \rightarrow 0 \\ \Rightarrow & \|(x_n + y_n) - (x + y)\| \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

Then $x_n + y_n \rightarrow x + y$

2- H.W

3- Since $|\|x_n\| - \|x\|| \leq \|x_n - x\|$ and $\|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$

$$|\|x_n\| - \|x\|| \leq \|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$$

$$|\|x_n\| - \|x\|| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n\| \rightarrow \|x\|$$

$$4- \left| \|x_n - y_n\| - \|x - y\| \right| \leq \|(x_n - y_n) - (x - y)\| \leq \|x_n - x\| + \|x_n - y\|$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} x_n \rightarrow x &\Rightarrow \|x_n - x\| \rightarrow 0 \\ y_n \rightarrow y &\Rightarrow \|y_n - y\| \rightarrow 0 \\ \Rightarrow \|x_n - x\| + \|x_n - y\| &\rightarrow 0 \\ \Rightarrow \left| \|x_n - y_n\| - \|x - y\| \right| &\rightarrow 0 \\ \Rightarrow \|x_n - y_n\| &\rightarrow \|x - y\| \end{aligned}$$

Definition:

Let $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence in a normed space X we say that $\{x_n\}$ is a cauchy sequence in X if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that

$$\|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon, \forall n, m > k$$

Theorem:

Every convergent sequence is a cauchy sequence

Proof

Let $\{x_n\}$ is a converg sequence to x

$$\Rightarrow x_n \rightarrow x$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$, since $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $\epsilon > 0 \rightarrow \frac{\epsilon}{2} > 0$

$\Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $\|x_n - x\| < \epsilon, \forall n > k$

if $n, m > k$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \|x_n - x_m\| &= \|x_n - x_m + x - x\| \\ &= \|(x_n - x) + (x_m - x)\| \\ &\leq \|x_n - x\| + \|x_m - x\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon, \forall n, m > k, k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$\Rightarrow \{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence

Definition:

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in a normed space X we say that $\{x_n\}$ is a bounded sequence if there exists a positive number M such that $\|x_n\| \leq M, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Theorem:

If $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in a normed space X then $\{x_n\}$ is bounded

Proof

Let $\epsilon = 1, \epsilon > 0$

Since $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence

$$\Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \ni \|x_n - x_m\| < 1, \forall n, m > k$$

Let $m = n + 1$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n - x_{n+1}\| < 1, \forall n > k$$

Since

$$\| \|x_n\| - \|x_{n+1}\| \| < \|x_n - x_{n+1}\| < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n\| - \|x_{n+1}\| < 1, \forall n > k$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n\| < 1 + \|x_{n+1}\|, \forall n > k$$

Take $M = \max\{\|x_1\|, \|x_2\|, \dots, \|x_n\|, \|x_{n+1}\|, \|x_{n+1}\| + 1\}$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n\| \leq M, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Corollary:

Every convergent sequence in a normed space X is a bounded sequence

Banach space

Definition:

We say that a normed space X is a complete space iff for any Cauchy sequence in X is a convergent sequence in X

A complete normed space is said to be Banach space

Example:

A space F^n with norm $\|x\| = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$,

$\forall x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in F^n$ is a Banach space

Solution:

1- F^n normed space (proof???)

2- Let $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in F^n

$$\Rightarrow x_n \in F^n \Rightarrow x_n = (x_{1n}, x_{2n}, \dots, x_{in})$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that

$$\|x_m - x_I\| < \epsilon, \forall m, I > k$$

$$\|x_m - x_I\|^2 < \epsilon^2$$

$$\because x_m - x_I = (x_{1m} - x_{1I}, x_{2m} - x_{2I}, \dots, x_{im} - x_{iI})$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_m - x_I\|^2 = \sum |x_{im} - x_{iI}|^2$$

Since

$$\|x_m - x_I\|^2 < \epsilon^2, \forall m, I > k$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_m - x_I\| < \epsilon, \forall m, I > k$$

Then for any $i \in I$, $\{x_{im}\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in F

Since F is complete (because F either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C})

\Rightarrow for any $\|x_{im} - x_{il}\| < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{n}}$

Put $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \Rightarrow x \in F^n$

Let $\epsilon > 0 \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ for any $m > k$ we get

$$\|x_n - x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_{in} - x_i|^2 < \epsilon^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_{in} - x\| < \epsilon$$

$\Rightarrow \langle x_n \rangle$ is a converge

$\Rightarrow F^n$ complete

From (1) and (2) we get F^n is a banach space

Example: H.W

The space L^p ($1 \leq p \leq \infty$) with norm

$$\|x\| = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}, \forall x = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in L^p \text{ is a banach space}$$

Example:

A space L^∞ with norm $\|x\| = \sup |x_i|$

$\forall x = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in L^\infty$ is a banach space

Solution

1- L^∞ is a normed space H.W

2- Let $\langle x_m \rangle$ is a cauchy sequence in L^∞

$$\Rightarrow x_m \in L^\infty$$

$$\Rightarrow x_m = (x_{1m}, x_{2m}, \dots, x_{nm}, \dots)$$

Let $\epsilon > 0, \exists k \in \mathbb{N} \ni$

$$\|x_m - x_L\| < \epsilon, \forall m, L > k$$

$$\because x_m - x_L = (x_{1m} - x_{1L}, x_{2m} - x_{2L}, \dots, x_{nm} - x_{nL}, \dots)$$

$$\|x_m - x_L\| = \sup |x_{im} - x_{iL}|$$

$$\Rightarrow \sup |x_{im} - x_{iL}| < \epsilon, \forall m, L > k$$

$$\Rightarrow |x_{im} - x_{iL}| < \epsilon, \forall m, L > k \text{ for any } i$$

Any $\langle x_{im} \rangle$ is a cauchy sequence in F

Since F is a complete

$$\Rightarrow \langle x_{im} \rangle \text{ converge in } F$$

Then $\exists x_i \in F$ such that

$$\langle x_{im} \rangle \text{ converge to } x_i$$

$$\text{Put } x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots)$$

$$\|x_{im} - x_i\| < \epsilon, \forall m > k$$

$$\because x_m \in L^\infty \Rightarrow \exists k_m \in \mathbb{R} \ni$$

$$\|x_{im}\| \leq k_m, \forall i$$

$$x_i = (x_i - x_{im}) + x_{im}$$

$$|x_i| \leq |x_i - x_{im}| + |x_{im}| < \epsilon + k_m, \forall m > k$$

$$\forall x \in L^\infty$$

$$\|x_m - x\| = \sup |x_{im} - x_i| < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow x_m \rightarrow x$$

$\Rightarrow L^\infty$ is a complete

Definition:

Let $(X, \|\cdot\|_1)$ and $(Y, \|\cdot\|_2)$ be two normed space, a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be continuous at $x_0 \in X$ if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \|x - x_0\|_1 < \delta$$

$$\Rightarrow \|f(x) - f(x_0)\|_2 < \epsilon$$

Equivalently

$$\forall x_n \rightarrow x_0 \text{ in } X$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0) \text{ in } Y$$

We say that f is a continuous of each point of X

Example:

Let X be a normed space then the function $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = \|x\|$ is a continuous

Solution

$$\text{Let } x_n \rightarrow x_0 \text{ in } X$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n - x_0\| \rightarrow 0, n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$|f(x_n) - f(x_0)| = | \|x_n\| - \|x_0\| |$$

$$\leq \|x_n - x_0\| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow |f(x_n) - f(x_0)| \rightarrow 0, n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$$

$\Rightarrow f$ continuous at x_0

$\Rightarrow f$ continuous

Definition:

Let X, Y, Z are normed space, we say that $f: X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ continuous at point $(x_0, y_0) \in X \times Y$ if $f(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow f(x_0, y_0)$, $\forall x_n \rightarrow x_0$ in X and $\forall y_n \rightarrow y_0$ in Y

Theorem:

Let X be a normed space on a field F then

1- $f: X \times X \rightarrow X$, $f(x, y) = x + y, \forall x, y \in X$

2- $f: F \times X \rightarrow X$, $g(\lambda x) = \lambda x, \forall \lambda \in F, x \in X$ are continuous function

Proof

1- Let $x_n \rightarrow x_0, y_n \rightarrow y_0$

$$\begin{aligned} \|f(x_n, y_n) - f(x_0, y_0)\| &= \|(x_n + y_n) - (x_0 + y_0)\| \\ &= \|(x_n - x_0) + (y_n - y_0)\| \\ &\leq \|x_n - x_0\| + \|y_n - y_0\| \end{aligned}$$

Since $\|x_n - x_0\| \rightarrow 0, \|y_n - y_0\| \rightarrow 0$

$$\Rightarrow \|x_n - x_0\| + \|y_n - y_0\| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \|f(x_n, y_n) - f(x_0, y_0)\| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow f(x_0, y_0)$$

$\Rightarrow f$ continuous function in (x_0, y_0)

2- Let $\lambda_n \rightarrow \lambda$, in F $x_n \rightarrow x_0$ in X

$$\|g(\lambda_n, x_n) - g(\lambda, x_0)\|$$

$$= \|(\lambda_n x_n) - (\lambda x_0)\|$$

$$= \|\lambda_n x_n - \lambda x_0 + \lambda_n x_0 - \lambda_n x_0\|$$

$$= \|\lambda_n(x_n - \lambda_n x_0) + \lambda_n(x_0 - \lambda x_0)\|$$

$$\leq |\lambda_n| \|x_n - x_0\| + |\lambda_n| \|x_0 - \lambda x_0\|$$

$$\text{Since } |\lambda_n - \lambda| \rightarrow 0, |x_n - x_0| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \|g(\lambda_n, x_n) - g(\lambda, x_0)\| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow g(\lambda_n, x_n) \rightarrow g(\lambda, x_0)$$

$\Rightarrow g$ continuous function

Example:

Let X, Y are normed space, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ linear transformation if f continuous at 0 then f continuous at each point

Proof

Let $x_n \rightarrow x_0$ in X

$$\Rightarrow x_n - x_0 \rightarrow 0$$

Since f continuous at 0

$$\Rightarrow f(x_n - x_0) \rightarrow f(0)$$

Since $f(0) = 0$, f linear

$$f(x_n - x_0) = f(x_n) - f(x_0)$$

$\Rightarrow f(x_n) - f(x_0) \rightarrow 0$
 $\Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$
 $\Rightarrow f$ continuous at x_0
 $\Rightarrow f$ continuous at each point

Note:

The set of all linear function from X in to Y will be denoted by $L(X, Y)$

If $f: X \rightarrow X$ denoted $L(X)$

Theorem:

Let $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ and $(Y, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear function, then f is a continuous iff f is a continuous at 0

Proof

Suppose that f is a continuous at 0

Let $x_n \rightarrow x$ in X

$\Rightarrow x_n - x \rightarrow 0$

Since f continuous at 0

$\Rightarrow f(x_n - x) \rightarrow f(0)$ in Y

Since $f(0) = 0$ and f linear

$f(x_n - x) = f(x_n) - f(x)$

$\Rightarrow f(x_n) - f(x) \rightarrow 0$

$\Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$

$\Rightarrow f$ continuous at x

The conversely H.W