## Introduction

Order structures. A relation $\leq$ on a set $X$ is a preorder if it is
(1) reflexive: $x \leq x$,
(2) transitive: $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z \Longrightarrow x \leq z$.

A preordered set $X$ is directed downwards if
(3) for all $x, y$ there exists $z$ such that $z \leq x, y$
and it is directed upwards if it is directed downwards for the inverse relation $\geq$.
A preorder is a partial order if it is
(4) antisymmetric: $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x \Longrightarrow x=y$.

A partially ordered set is linearly ordered if $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$ for all $x, y$. A subset $E \subset X$ is bounded from above if for some $b \in X$ all $e \in E$ satisfy $e \leq x$. An element $m \in E$ is called a maximal element of $E$ if $e \in E$ and $m \leq e$ imply $m=e$.

Zorn's lemma. If every linearly ordered subset of a partially ordered set $X$ is bounded from above, then $X$ contains a maximal element.

Vector spaces. A vector space over a field $\mathbb{K}(\mathbb{K}$ is ) is a set $X$ equipped with addition $+: X \times X \rightarrow X$ and scalar multiplication $\cdot: \mathbb{K} \times X \rightarrow X$ operations such that $(X,+)$ is an Abelian group:

- associative: $x+(y+z)=(x+y)+z$,
- commutative: $x+y=y+x$,
- there exists $0 \in X$ such that $0+x=x$,
- every $x \in X$ has the inverse $-x \in X$ such that $-x+x=0$,
and multiplication is compatible with addition:
- $(\lambda \mu) x=\lambda(\mu x)$,
- $(\lambda+\mu) x=\lambda x+\mu x$,
- $\lambda(x+y)=\lambda x+\lambda y$,
- $1 x=x$.

We consider $\mathbb{K}$ to be either $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$ and then talk about real or complex vector spaces. Given $x \in X, \lambda \in \mathbb{K}, \Lambda \subset \mathbb{K}$, and $E, G \subset X$, we will use the following notation: $E+G=\{e+g \mid e \in E, g \in G\}, x+G=\{x\}+G, \Lambda E=\{\lambda e \mid \lambda \in \Lambda, e \in E\}$, and $\lambda E=\{\lambda\} E$.

Vector subspaces and linear span. A subset $Y \subset X$ in a vector space $X$ is a subspace if $\mathbb{K} Y+Y \subset Y$. The minimal subspace containing a given subset $E \subset X$ is called a linear span of $E$ and denoted span $E$. The linear span of $E$ is just the collection of all linear combinations of elements in $E$ :

$$
\operatorname{span} E=\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{K} E=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} x_{i} \mid \lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{K}, x_{i} \in E, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\} .
$$

We denote $\langle x\rangle:=\operatorname{span}\{x\}$ for any $x \in X$.
Linear independence and basis. A subset $E \subset X$ is linearly independent if for any finite set $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\} \subset E$ from $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} x_{i}=0$ it follows that $\lambda_{i}=0$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n$. A linearly independent set $E \subset X$ such that span $E=X$ is called a basis of $X$.

Linear maps. A map (or an operator) $A: X \rightarrow Y$ between vector spaces $X$ and $Y$ is linear if $A(\lambda x+y)=\lambda A(x)+A(y)$ for all $(\lambda, x, y) \in \mathbb{K} \times X \times X$. If a linear operator $A$ is bijective, then $A^{-1}$ is linear, too. A linear functional is linear operator from $X$ to $\mathbb{K}$.

Bilinear maps. Given vector spaces $X, Y, Z$ over $\mathbb{K}$, a map $B: X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is bilinear if the maps $B_{x}: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$, $y \mapsto B(x, y)$, and $B_{y}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}, y \mapsto B(x, y)$, are linear.

Set-valued maps. In general, given sets $X, Y, Z$ and an operation $*: X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ let us denote by $(*): 2^{X} \times 2^{Y} \rightarrow 2^{Z}$ the induced elementwise operation defined on subsets of these sets: $A(*) B=\{a * b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$, with shorthands $a(*) B=\{a\}(*) B$ and $A(*) b=A(*)\{b\}$. Sometimes, when the context is clear (as above with operations in a vector space), we will omit the brackets. A special notation is $\left.\mathscr{F}\right|_{A}:=\mathscr{F}(\cap) A=\{F \cap A \mid F \in \mathscr{F}\}$ for any $\mathscr{F} \subset 2^{X}$ and $A \subset X$.

We switch the first two subsections, because the original first section seems to benefit from using filters as well.
1.1. Filters and nets. Let $X$ be a set.

A system $\mathscr{B} \subset 2^{X}$ is a prefilter or a filter base if
(1) $\varnothing \notin \mathscr{B}$,
(2) $A, B \in \mathscr{B} \Longrightarrow \exists C \in \mathscr{B} \quad C \subset A \cap B$ (i.e., the poset ( $\mathscr{B}, \subset)$ is directed downwards).

A system $\mathscr{F} \subset 2^{X}$ is a filter if
(1) $\varnothing \notin \mathscr{F}$,
(2) $A, B \in \mathscr{F} \Longrightarrow A \cap B \in \mathscr{F}$,
(3) $A \supset B \in \mathscr{F} \Longrightarrow A \in \mathscr{F}$.

Denote $\mathscr{A}^{\dagger}:=\{S \subset X \mid \exists A \in \mathscr{A} A \subset S\}$ for any $\mathscr{A} \subset 2^{X}$. Condition (3) means that $\mathscr{F}^{\dagger}=\mathscr{F}$. Clearly, a filter is exactly a prefilter satisfying this additional condition. And a system $\mathscr{B} \subset 2^{X}$ is a prefilter if and only if $\mathscr{B}^{\dagger}$ is a filter (then $\mathscr{B}$ is called a filter base of $\mathscr{B}^{\dagger}$ ).

Given two prefilters $\mathscr{B}_{1}$ and $\mathscr{B}_{2}$, let us denote $\mathscr{B}_{1} \leq \mathscr{B}_{2}$ if $\mathscr{B}_{1}^{\dagger} \subset \mathscr{B}_{2}^{\dagger}$, this means that for every $A \in \mathscr{B}_{1}$ there is $B \in \mathscr{B}_{2}$ such that $B \subset A$.
Definition. A net $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$ is a mapping $\gamma \mapsto x_{\gamma}$ from a non-empty directed set $(\Gamma,>)$ to $X$.
Example. Given a net $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \subset X$, its tails or eventuality prefilter is $\mathscr{B}_{\left(x_{\gamma}\right)}:=\left\{\left\{x_{\beta}: \beta>\alpha\right\} \mid \alpha \in \Gamma\right\}$ and its eventuality filter is $\mathscr{F}_{\left(x_{y}\right)}:=\mathscr{B}_{\left(x_{y}\right)}{ }^{\dagger}$.

Note that given a filter $\mathscr{F}$, we can always construct a net $\left(x_{F}\right)_{F \in \mathscr{F}} \in \mathscr{F}$ for which it is the eventuality filter. (Just take the set of pairs $\{(F, x) \mid F \in \mathscr{F}, x \in F\}$ directed by the first coordinate.)

Definition. Let $A \subset X$. A prefilter $\mathscr{B}$ on $X$ is

- eventually in $A$ if $A \in \mathscr{B}^{\dagger}$ (i.e., $F \subset A$ for some $F \in \mathscr{B}$ ),
- frequently in $A$ if $A \cap F \neq \varnothing$ for all $F \in \mathscr{B}$ (in short, $\left.\varnothing \notin \mathscr{B}\right|_{A}$ ).

The system $\mathscr{F}^{\#}$ of all sets, where $\mathscr{F}$ is frequent is called the grill of $\mathscr{F}$.
A net is eventually or frequently in $A$ if its eventuality filter is so.
Lemma 1.2. Let $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ be a net. There exists a system $\mathscr{C} \subset \mathscr{P}(X)$ such that
(1) $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ is frequent in all $A \in \mathscr{C}$,
(2) $A, B \in \mathscr{C} \Longrightarrow A \cap B \in C$,
(3) for any $A \subset X$ either $A \in \mathscr{C}$ or $X \backslash A \in \mathscr{C}$.

Q ?: How do you translate this lemma to the language of filters?
Definition. A net $\left(y_{\beta}\right)_{\beta \in \Delta} \subset X$ is called a subnet of $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \subset X$ if $\mathscr{F}_{\left(x_{\gamma}\right)} \subset \mathscr{F}_{\left(y_{\beta}\right)}$. In other words, taking a subnet corresponds to taking a superfilter.

Q ?: Prove that the latter definition is equivalent to

$$
\forall \gamma \in \Gamma \exists \beta \in \Delta \forall \beta^{\prime} \geq \beta \exists \gamma^{\prime} \geq \gamma: y_{\beta^{\prime}}=x_{\gamma^{\prime}} .
$$

Lemma 1.3. Let $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ be a net and let $\mathscr{A} \subset \mathscr{P}(X)$ be such a system that
(1) $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ is frequent in all $A \in \mathscr{A}$,
(2) $A, B \in \mathscr{A} \Longrightarrow \exists C \quad C \subset A \cap B$.

Then there is exists a subnet $\left(y_{\beta}\right)$ of $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$, which is eventually in $A$ for all $A \in \mathscr{A}$.
Q ?: Again, please translate this lemma to the language of filters.
Definition. A filter $\mathscr{F}$ on $X$ is called an ultrafilter if it is a maximal filter (i.e., it is not contained in any different filter $\mathscr{G}$ on $X$ ). In other words, for any $A \subset X$ either $A \in \mathscr{F}$ or $X \backslash A \in \mathscr{F}$.

An ultranet is a net, whose eventuality filter is an ultrafilter.
The two lemmas above essentially amount to proving the "ultrafilter theorem" (which can also be proven directly).
Proposition 1.4 (Ultrafilter theorem). Every filter is contained in an ultrafilter. Or, in the language of nets: every net contains a subnet, which is an ultranet.

### 1.2. Basics of general topology.

Topological space. Given a set $X$, a system $\tau \subset 2^{X}:=\{E \mid E \subset X\}$ is a topology on $X$ if:
(T1) $\varnothing, X \in \tau$,
(T2) $\mathscr{G} \subset \tau \Longrightarrow \bigcup \mathscr{G}:=\bigcup_{G \in \mathscr{G}} G \in \tau$,
(T3) $F, G \in \tau \Longrightarrow F \cap G \in \tau$.
A set $X$ equipped with a topology is a topological space, the sets in $\tau$ are open sets.
Comparing topologies. Given two topologies $\tau_{1}, \tau_{2}$ such that $\tau_{1} \subset \tau_{2}, \tau_{1}$ is called weaker and $\tau_{2}$ stronger. The weakest topology on $X$ is the antidiscrete topology $\{\varnothing, X\}$, and the strongest is the discrete topology $2^{X}$.
Subspace of a TS. Given a subset $X_{0} \subset X$ in a TS $X$ equipped with a topology $\tau$, it becomes a TS itself if equipped with the subspace topology $\tau_{0}=\left.\tau\right|_{X_{0}}:=\left\{X_{0} \cap G \mid G \in \tau\right\}$, then $\left(X_{0}, \tau_{0}\right)$ is a subspace of $(X, \tau)$.
Interior points and neighbourhoods. If for some $x \in X$ and $E \subset X$ there is $G \in \tau$ such that $x \in G \subset E$, then $x$ is an interior point of $E$ and $E$ is a neigbourhood of $x$.
Neighbourhood filter and bases. The set $\mathscr{N}_{x}=\mathscr{N}_{x}^{\tau}$ of all neighbourhoods of $x \in X$ (for a topology $\tau$ ) is a filter (called the neighbourhood filter at x). Any its filter base $\mathscr{B}_{x}$ is called a neighbourhood base of $x$.

Theorem 1.1. Let $X$ be a set and fix a non-empty system $\mathscr{B}_{x} \subset 2^{X}$ for every point $x \in X$. The systems $\mathscr{B}_{x}, x \in X$, are neighbourhood bases for some topology $\tau$ on $X$ if and only if
(B1) $x \in V$ for all $V \in \mathscr{B}_{x}$,
(B2) $A, B \in \mathscr{B}_{x} \Longrightarrow \exists C \in \mathscr{B}_{x} \quad C \subset A \cap B$ (this together with (B1) means that $\mathscr{B}_{x}$ is a filter base),
(B3) for every $V \in \mathscr{B}_{x}$ there is $V^{\prime} \in \mathscr{B}_{x}$ such that $V^{\prime} \subset V$ and for all $y \in V^{\prime}$ there exists $W \in \mathscr{B}_{y}$ such that $W \subset V^{\prime}$ (in short, the condition on $V^{\prime}$ is: $V^{\prime} \in \mathscr{B}_{y}^{\dagger}$ for every $y \in V^{\prime}$ ).

Fix systems of neighbourhood bases $\left\{\mathscr{B}_{x}^{\tau}\right\}_{x \in X}$ and $\left\{\mathscr{B}_{x}^{\tau^{\prime}}\right\}_{x \in X}$ for topologies $\tau$ and $\tau^{\prime}$ on $X$. Then clearly, $\tau \subset \tau^{\prime}$ if and only if $\mathscr{N}_{x}^{\tau} \subset \mathscr{N}_{x}^{\tau^{\prime}}$ for all $x \in X$ if and only if $\mathscr{B}_{x}^{\tau} \leq \mathscr{B}_{x}^{\tau^{\prime}}$ for all $x \in X$.

Let $(X, \tau)$ be a TS, $Y \subset X$, and $y \in Y$. In the subspace topology $\left.\tau\right|_{Y}$ the neighbourhood filter at $y$ is exactly $\left.\mathscr{N}_{y}^{\tau}\right|_{Y}=\left\{Y \cap U \mid U \in \mathscr{N}_{y}^{\tau}\right\}$, and $\left.\mathscr{B}_{y}^{\tau}\right|_{Y}$ is its base whenever $\mathscr{B}_{y}^{\tau}$ is a neighbourhood base at $y$ for the topology $\tau$.

Set closure and closed sets. A point $x \in X$ is a limit point of $E \subset X$ if $\mathscr{N}_{x}$ (or any its base) is frequently in $E$ : that is, $E \cap U \neq \varnothing$ for all $U \in \mathscr{N}_{x}$. The closure of $E \subset X$ is the collection of all its limit points, denoted by $\bar{E}$. Some properties of the closure (prove them!)
(1) $E \subset \bar{E}, \overline{\bar{E}}=\bar{E}$,
(2) $E_{1} \subset E_{2} \Longrightarrow \bar{E}_{1} \subset \bar{E}_{2}$,
(3) $\overline{E_{1} \cup E_{2}}=\bar{E}_{1} \cup \bar{E}_{2}$.

The set $E$ is called closed if $E=\bar{E}$. Clearly, $E$ is closed if and only if $X \backslash E$ is open.
Continuous maps. Let $\left(X, \tau_{X}\right)$ and $\left(Y, \tau_{Y}\right)$ be topological spaces. A map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous at $x \in X$ if for every $U \in \mathscr{N}_{f(x)}$ there is $V \in \mathscr{N}_{x}$ such that $f(V) \subset U$ (in short, $\mathscr{N}_{f(x)} \subset f\left(\mathscr{N}_{x}\right)^{\dagger}$, where $f(\mathscr{F})=\{f(F) \mid F \in \mathscr{F}\}$ for any system $\mathscr{F} \subset 2^{X}$ ).

The function $f$ is continuous (that, is continuous at every point $x \in X$ ) if and only if any of the following holds
(1) $G \in \tau_{Y} \Longrightarrow f^{-1}(G) \in \tau_{X}$,
(2) if $F$ is closed in $Y$, then so is $f^{-1}(F)$ in $X$.

A continuous bijective map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ having a continuous inverse $f^{-1}$ is called a homeomorphism or an isomorphism. The topological spaces $X$ and $Y$ are then called homeomorphic or isomorphic.

Products of topological spaces. If $X$ and $Y$ are topological spaces, one can define a topology (called the product topology) on $X \times Y$ by providing neighbourhood bases for each point $w=(x, y) \in X \times Y$ as follows: $\mathscr{B}_{(x, y)}=$ $\mathscr{B}_{x}(\times) \mathscr{B}_{y}=\left\{U \times V \mid U \in \mathscr{B}_{x}, V \in \mathscr{B}_{y}\right\}$, where $\mathscr{B}_{x}$ and $\mathscr{B}_{y}$ are some bases of $\mathscr{N}_{x}$ and $\mathscr{N}_{y}$, respectively. It is easy to check that this system of neighbourhood bases satisfies conditions (B1)-(B3) of Theorem 1.1.

Clearly, a map $f: X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous at $(x, y)$ if and only if for all $W \in \mathscr{N}_{f(x, y)}$ there are $U \in \mathscr{N}_{x}$ and $V \in \mathscr{N}_{y}$ such that $f(U \times V) \subset W$. Note that then the functions $f_{x}: Y \rightarrow Z, u \mapsto f(x, u)$, and $f_{y}: X \rightarrow Z, v \mapsto f(v, y)$, are continuous at $y$ and $x$, respectively.

## Convergence in topological spaces.

Definition. A filter $\mathscr{F}$ converges to $x \in X$ or $\mathscr{F} \rightarrow x$ if $\mathscr{N}_{x} \subset \mathscr{F}$. A net $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ converges to $x$ if so does its eventuality filter $\mathscr{F}_{\left(x_{\gamma}\right)}$ :

$$
x_{\gamma} \rightarrow x \Longleftrightarrow \mathscr{F}_{\left(x_{\gamma}\right)} \rightarrow x \Longleftrightarrow \mathscr{N}_{x} \subset \mathscr{F}_{\left(x_{\gamma}\right)} .
$$

So a filter (or a net) converge to $x$ if they are eventually in every neighbourhood of $x$.
Let us also say that a prefilter $\mathscr{B}$ converges to $x$ and write $\mathscr{B} \rightarrow x$ if the generated filter $\mathscr{B}^{\dagger}$ does so.
Note that given this definition, it is immediate that a subnet of a converging net converges to the same point.

## Cluster points.

Definition. A point $x \in X$ is a cluster point of a filter $\mathscr{F}$ (or a net $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ having $\mathscr{F}$ as the eventuality filter) when $\mathscr{F}$ is frequently in every neighbourhood of $x$. It is written $\mathscr{F} \rightsquigarrow x$ (or $\left(x_{\gamma}\right) \rightsquigarrow x$ ).

In short, $\mathscr{F} \rightsquigarrow x \Longleftrightarrow \varnothing \notin \mathscr{N}_{x}(\cap) \mathscr{F}$. Note that then the latter system is a prefilter. So we have
Proposition 1.5. A point $x$ is a cluster point of a filter $\mathscr{F}$ (or a net $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ ) iff there is a superfilter $\mathscr{G} \supset \mathscr{F}$ (or a subnet $\left(y_{\beta}\right)$ of $\left(x_{\gamma}\right)$ ) converging to $x$.

Proposition 1.6. An ultrafilter (or an ultranet) converges iff it has a cluster point.

Hausdorff spaces and other separation axioms. A topological space is Hausdorff (or separated, or $T_{2}$ ) if for all distinct points $x, y \in X(x \neq y)$ there are $U \in \mathscr{N}_{x}$ and $V \in \mathscr{N}_{y}$ such that $U \cap V=\varnothing$.

A bit weaker condition is $T_{1}$ : a topological space is $T_{1}$ if for all distinct points $x, y \in X$ there is $U \in \mathscr{N}_{x}$ such that $y \notin U$.
Proposition 1.7. A topological space is Hausdorff if and only if every converging filter (or net) has just one limit.
Note that a topological space $X$ is $T_{1}$ if and only if the latter holds just for all neighbourhood filters. Another equivalent condition is: $\cap \mathscr{N}_{x}=\{x\}$ for all $x \in X$ (here $\cap \mathscr{A}$ means $\bigcap_{A \in \mathscr{A}} A$ ).

Describing closed sets and continuous functions via convergence. Let us say that a filter $\mathscr{F}$ is a filter on a subset $E \subset X$ if $E \in \mathscr{F}$.

## Proposition 1.8.

(a) A point $x$ is a limit point of a set $E \Longleftrightarrow$ there is a net $\left(x_{\gamma}\right) \subset E$ such that $x_{\gamma} \rightarrow x \Longleftrightarrow$ there is a filter $\mathscr{F}$ such that $E \in \mathscr{F}$ and $\mathscr{F} \rightarrow x$.
(b) A set E is closed $\Longleftrightarrow$ it contains all limits of all its converging nets $\Longleftrightarrow$ it contains all limits of all converging filters on it.
(c) A map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if any or each of the following holds:

- $x_{\gamma} \rightarrow x \Longrightarrow f\left(x_{\gamma}\right) \rightarrow f(x)$ for all converging nets $\left(x_{\gamma}\right) \subset X$,
- $\mathscr{F} \rightarrow x \Longrightarrow f(\mathscr{F}) \rightarrow f(x)$ for all converging filters $\mathscr{F}$ on $X$
(note that $f(\mathscr{F})=\{f(F) \mid F \in \mathscr{F}\}$ is a prefilter when $\mathscr{F}$ is a filter),
- $f\left(\mathscr{N}_{x}\right) \rightarrow f(x)$ for all $x \in X$.
1.3. Compact topological spaces. A system of subsets of $X$ is called
- centered if any finite intersection of its sets is non-empty,
- cover if its union equals the whole $X$.

A topological space $X$ is called compact if any its cover consisting of open sets contains a finite subcover. It is easy to see that $X$ is compact $\Longleftrightarrow$ any centered system of closed sets has non-empty intersection.

Theorem 1.9. The following are equivalent.
(a) $X$ is compact,
(b) every net (or filter) has a cluster point,
(c) every net has a converging subnet (or every filter has a converging superfilter),
(d) every ultranet (or ultrafilter) converges.

## 2. Topological Vector spaces

2.1. The notion of TVS. Let $\mathbb{K}$ be either $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$. A vector space $X$ over the field $\mathbb{K}$, equipped with a topology $\tau$, is called a topological vector space if the addition $T: X \times X \rightarrow X,(x, y) \mapsto x+y$, and the multiplication by a scalar $S: \mathbb{K} \times X \rightarrow X,(\lambda, x) \mapsto \lambda x$, are continuous.

Written out, this means:

- Continuity of addition:

$$
\forall x, y \in X \forall W \in \mathscr{N}_{x+y} \exists U \in \mathscr{N}_{x} \exists V \in \mathscr{N}_{y}: U+V \subset W,
$$

- Continuity of scalar multiplication:

$$
\forall x \in X \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{K} \forall W \in \mathscr{N}_{\lambda x} \exists U \in \mathscr{N}_{x} \exists \delta>0: \bar{B}(\lambda, \delta) \cdot U \subset W \text {, }
$$

where $\bar{B}(\lambda, \delta)=\{\mu \in \mathbb{K}| | \lambda-\mu \mid \leq \delta\}$ is a closed ball in $\mathbb{K}$ (e.g., $\bar{B}(\lambda, \delta)=[\lambda-\delta, \lambda+\delta]$ if $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R})$.
Translation and homothety. Fixing a coordinate $x_{0}$ in the addition $T$ above we get the translation mapping $T_{x_{0}}$ : $X \rightarrow X, x \mapsto x+x_{0}$. Clearly, $T_{x_{0}}$ is a continous linear map. Since its inverse is $T_{-x_{0}}$, also a continuous translation, $T_{x_{0}}$ is a homeomorphism from $X$ to itself. In particular, it maps open sets to open sets and closed sets to closed sets.

Similarly, fixing a scalar $\lambda_{0} \neq 0$ in the multiplication $S$, we get the homothety mapping $S_{\lambda_{0}}: X \rightarrow X, x \mapsto \lambda_{0} x$. Again, it is a linear homeomorphism with its inverse being $S_{1 / \lambda_{0}}$.
Proposition 2.1. If $G$ is open (closed) subset of a TVS $X, x \in X$, and $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}, \lambda \neq 0$, then $\lambda G+x$ is also open (closed).
In general, a linear homeomorphism between topological vector spaces is called an isomorphism of topological vector spaces.

## Zero neighbourhood base.

Proposition 2.2. If $\mathscr{B}:=\mathscr{B}_{0}$ is a neighbourhood base at 0 , then $x+\mathscr{B}:=\{x+U \mid U \in \mathscr{B}\}$ is a neighbourhood base at x. In short, $(x+\mathscr{B})^{\dagger}=\mathscr{N}_{x}$.

In the following, $\mathscr{N}:=\mathscr{N}_{0}$ will denote the zero neighbourhood filter and $\mathscr{B}$ will denote some of its filter base (that is, a zero neighbourhood base).

The two latter propositions imply several statements:

- $U \in \mathscr{N} \Longrightarrow \lambda U \in \mathscr{N}$ for all $\lambda \neq 0$,
- $x_{\gamma} \rightarrow x \Longleftrightarrow x_{\gamma}-x \rightarrow 0$,
- a linear map between TV spaces is continuous if and only if it is continuous at 0 .


### 2.2. Topologization of vector spaces.

## Absorbing and balanced sets.

Definition. A set $E$ absorbs a set $A$ if there is $\delta>0$ such that $\bar{B}(0, \delta) \cdot A \subset E$. A set $E$ is called absorbing if it absorbs every point $x \in X$ (that is, every one-point set $\{x\}$ ).
Definition. A set $E$ is balanced if $\bar{B}(0,1) \cdot E \subset E$.

- A non-empty balanced set contains 0 and is symmetric.
- If $A$ and $B$ are balanced, then so is $A+B$.
- If $A$ and $B$ are absorbing, then so is $A \cap B$.
- If $A$ is balanced, then so is $\lambda A$ for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$.
- If $A$ is absorbing, then so is $\lambda A$ for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$ such that $\lambda \neq 0$.
- A balanced set $E$ absorbs a set $A$ if and only if there is $\delta>0$ such that $\delta A \subset E$.


## Proposition 2.3. In a TVS $X$ :

(1) every $U \in \mathscr{N}$ is an absorbing set,
(2) every $U \in \mathscr{N}$ contains a balanced $V \in \mathscr{N}$.

Corollary 2.4. Any TVS has a zero neighbourhood base consisting of absorbing balanced sets.

Theorem 2.5. Every TVS has a zero neighbourhood base $\mathscr{B}$ consisting of absorbing balanced sets and such that (NB4): for every $U \in \mathscr{B}$ there is $V \in \mathscr{B}$ with $V+V \subset U$.

Conversely, in a vector space $X$, any prefilter $\mathscr{B}$ consisting of absorbing balanced sets and satisfying property (NB4) defines a topology on $X$ when taking a neighbourhood base of any point $x \in X$ to be

$$
\mathscr{B}_{x}:=x+\mathscr{B} .
$$

With respect to this topology, X becomes a TVS.
Proposition 2.6. Every TVS has a zero neighbourhood base consisting of closed balanced sets.
Exercise 2.1. Prove that the closure of a balanced set in a TVS is balanced.
Exercise 2.2. Prove that the closure of a vector subspace in a TVS is a vector subspace.
Proposition 2.7. A TVS is Hausdorff $\Longleftrightarrow \cap \mathscr{B}=\{0\}$ for all (or some) zero neighbourhood bases $\mathscr{B}$. (In particular, a TVS is Hausdorff $\Longleftrightarrow$ it is $T_{1}$.)

Example 2.1. A normed space $X$ is a TVS having $\left\{\left.\frac{1}{n} B_{X} \right\rvert\, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ as one of its zero neighbourhood bases.

## 3. Bounded and compact sets in a TVS

### 3.1. Bounded and completely bounded sets.

Definition. A set $E \subset X$ is bounded if it is absorbed by every zero neighbourhood.
Definition. A set $E \subset X$ is completely bounded or precompact if for every $U \in \mathscr{N}$ there is a finite set $E_{0} \subset X$ such that $E \subset E_{0}+U$.

Note that $E_{0}$ can be chosen inside of $E$. For every $e \in E_{0}$ we can assume $E \cap(e+U) \neq \varnothing$ and choose $b_{e} \in E \cap(e+U)$. Then $e+U \subset b_{e}-U+U$. So if $U$ is taken to be balanced and such that $U+U \subset V$ for a given $V \in \mathscr{N}$, then $E \subset\left\{b_{e} \mid\right.$ $\left.e \in E_{0}\right\}+V$.

Let $\mathscr{S}$ denote the system of all bounded or all completely bounded sets in $X$. Then ( Q ?: $)$

- $A \subset B \in \mathscr{S} \Longrightarrow A \in \mathscr{S}$,
- $A, B \in \mathscr{S} \Longrightarrow A \cup B \in \mathscr{S}$,
- every finite set is in $\mathscr{S}$,
- $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}, A \in \mathscr{S} \Longrightarrow \lambda A \in \mathscr{S}$,
- $A, B \in \mathscr{S} \Longrightarrow A+B \in \mathscr{S}$.

A system $\mathscr{S}$ satisfying the first 3 of the above properties is called an ideal system of sets or a bornology on $X$. This is something that is dual to being a filter. In fact, the system of all complements $\{X \backslash A \mid A \in \mathscr{S}\}$ is a filter on $X$.

Note that every completely bounded set is bounded, because given a balanced $U \in \mathscr{N}$ and a finite (and thus bounded) set $E_{0}$ we can find $\mu>1$ such that $E_{0} \subset \mu U$, so $E_{0}+U \subset \mu U+U \subset \mu U+\mu U=\mu(U+U)$.

Proposition 3.1. If $\mathscr{S}$ is as above, then $A \in \mathscr{S} \Longrightarrow \bar{A} \in \mathscr{S}$.
Proof. For boundedness, given a closed and balanced $U \in \mathscr{N}, \mu U$ is closed too. So $E \subset \mu U$ if and only if the same holds for $\bar{E}$.

For complete boundedness, given a closed $U \in \mathscr{N}$, find a finite $E_{0}$ such that $E \subset E_{0}+U=\bigcup_{e \in E_{0}} e+U$ and note that the latter set is closed as a finite union of closed sets.

The definition of bounded sets is similar to some kind of continuity. The next proposition says it precisely.
Proposition 3.2. A set $A$ is bounded if and only if for every $\left(\lambda_{n}\right) \subset \mathbb{K}$ such that $\lambda_{n} \rightarrow 0$ and every $\left(x_{n}\right) \subset A$, one has $\lambda_{n} x_{n} \rightarrow 0$.

Exercise 3.1. Prove that $\lambda \bar{E} \subset \overline{\lambda E}$.

### 3.2. Compact sets.

Definition. A filter $\mathscr{F}$ is Cauchy if for every $U \in \mathscr{N}$ there exists $F \in \mathscr{F}$ such that $F-F \subset U$. A net is Cauchy if so is its eventuality filter.

A set $A \subset X$ is complete if every Cauchy filter on (or net in) $A$ converges to some element of $A$.
Exercise. Define $\Delta \mathscr{F}=\{F-F \mid F \in \mathscr{F}\}$. Is it a filter or a prefilter? If it were, then we could say that $\mathscr{F}$ is Cauchy if and only if $\Delta \mathscr{F} \rightarrow 0$.
Proposition 3.3. A compact set is completely bounded.
Proof. Given a compact set $A$ and an open $U \in \mathscr{N}$, note that $A+U=\bigcup_{a \in A} a+U$ is an open cover of $A$, so it contains a finite subcover $A_{0}+U$, with $A_{0}$ finite.

Proposition 3.4. A compact set is complete.
Proof. It is enough to show that a Cauchy filter $\mathscr{F}$ that clusters at $x$, converges to $x$ : $\mathscr{F} \rightsquigarrow x \Longrightarrow \mathscr{F} \rightarrow x$.
Given $V \in \mathscr{N}$, find $U \in \mathscr{N}$ with $U+U \subset V$ and $F \in \mathscr{F}$ with $F-F \subset U$. Since $\mathscr{F} \rightsquigarrow x$, we have that $G:=(x+U) \cap F \neq$ $\phi$, so $F \subset F-G+G \subset F-F+x+U \subset U+x+U \subset x+V$.

The induction on the definition of ultrafilters implies
Lemma 3.5. If $\mathscr{F}$ is an ultrafilter on $X=\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$, then $X_{k} \in \mathscr{F}$ for some $k \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$.
Lemma 3.6. A set $E$ is completely bounded if and only if for every $U \in \mathscr{N}$ there are $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ such that $E=\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} S_{i}$ and $S_{i}-S_{i} \subset U$ for all $i$.
Proof. Given $U \in \mathscr{N}$ find a balanced $V \in \mathscr{N}$ with $V+V \subset U$ and $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ such that $E \subset \cup_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}+V$. Note that $x_{i}+V-\left(x_{i}+V\right)=V-V=V+V \subset U$.

Theorem 3.7. A set is compact if and only if it is complete and completely bounded.
Proof of necessity. Observe that the two above lemmas say that every ultrafilter on a completely bounded set is Cauchy. Indeed, take a precompact set $E$ and an ultrafilter $\mathscr{F}$ on $E$. Given $U \in \mathscr{N}$ and applying the above lemmas we get $S \subset E$ such that $S \in \mathscr{F}$ and $S-S \subset U$.

## 4. Metrizable TVS

In a metric space $(X, \rho)$ the sets $B(x, 1 / n), n \in \mathbb{N}$, form a neighbourhood base for any point $x \in X$. Thus, in a metrizable topological space every point has a countable neighbourhood base.

### 4.1. Metrizable TVS.

Definition. Let $X$ be a vector space. A mapping $|\cdot| \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto|x|$, is a pseudonorm if
(1) $x=0 \Longleftrightarrow|x|=0$,
(2) $|\lambda x| \leq|x|$ if $|\lambda| \leq 1$,
(3) $|x+y| \leq|x|+|y|$.

Note that every norm is a pseudonorm. In turn, a pseudonorm induces a metric on $X$ defined by $\rho(x, y)=|x-y|$, which is translation-invariant: $d(x+z, y+z)=d(x, y)$.
Proposition 4.1. If a Hausdorff TVS has a countable zero neighbourhood base, then its topology can be induced by a pseudonorm.

Proof. We can assume that the zero neighbourhood base $\mathscr{B}=\left\{V_{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ consists of balanced sets such that $V_{n+1}+V_{n+1} \subset V_{n}$. Denote by $\mathbb{Q}_{2}:=\left\{\left.\frac{m}{2^{n}} \right\rvert\, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ the set of dyadic rationals and define $f: \mathbb{Q}_{2} \cap(0,1) \rightarrow \mathscr{P}(X)$ by

$$
f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2^{j_{k}}}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} V_{j_{k}} .
$$

Note that $f\left(q_{1}\right)+f\left(q_{2}\right) \subset f\left(q_{1}+q_{2}\right)$ whenever $q_{1}, q_{2}, q_{1}+q_{2} \in \mathbb{Q}_{2} \cap(0,1)$. Indeed, $f\left(q_{1}\right)+f\left(2^{-n}\right)$ is either $f\left(q_{1}+2^{-} n\right)$ as needed or $f\left(q_{1}-2^{-n}\right)+f\left(2^{-n}\right)+f\left(2^{-n}\right) \subset f\left(q_{1}-2^{-n}\right)+f\left(2^{-n+1}\right)$ with $q_{1}-2^{-n}$ having fewer primitive addends in it than $q_{1}$. Note that, in particular, $f\left(q_{1}\right) \subset f\left(q_{2}\right)$ whenever $0<q_{1} \leq q_{2}<1$.

Let us define $|x|:=\inf \left(\left\{q \in \mathbb{Q}_{2} \cap(0,1) \mid x \in f(q)\right\} \cup\{1\}\right)$. (Then $|x| \leq 1$ for all $x$.)
(1) Clearly, $|0|=0$, and $|x|=0$ means that $x \in f(q)$ with $q<2^{-n}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, so that $x \in f\left(2^{-n}\right)=V_{n}$, and therefore $x \in \cap \mathscr{B}=\{0\}$.
(2) Note that $f(q)$ is balanced as a finite sum of balanced sets, therefore $\lambda x \in f(q)$ for $|\lambda| \leq 1$ whenever $x \in$ $f(q)$.
(3) We only have to consider the case $|x|+|y|<1$. Note that
$\{q \mid x \in f(q)\}+\{q \mid y \in f(q)\}=\left\{q_{x}+q_{y} \mid x \in f\left(q_{x}\right), y \in f\left(q_{y}\right)\right\} \subset\left\{q_{x}+q_{y} \mid x+y \in f\left(q_{x}+q_{y}\right)\right\}=\{q \mid x+y \in f(q)\}$,
therefore

$$
|x|+|y|=\inf (\{q \mid x \in f(q)\}+\{q \mid y \in f(q)\}) \geq|x+y| .
$$

This shows that $|\cdot|$ is indeed a pseudonorm. It remains to observe that

$$
V_{n+1} \subset B\left(0, \frac{1}{2^{n}}\right)=\left\{x:|x|<\frac{1}{2^{n}}\right\} \subset V_{n}
$$

and therefore $y+V_{n+1} \subset B\left(y, \frac{1}{2^{n}}\right) \subset y+V_{n}$ for any $y \in X$, so that the neighbourhood filters at $y$ are the same for the induced and the original TVS topology.

Theorem 4.2. The following are equivalent for a Hausdorff TVS:
(1) it has a countable zero neighbourhood base,
(2) the topology is induced by a pseudonorm,
(3) the topology is induced by a translation-invariant metric,
(4) the topology is metrizable.

Proposition 4.3. If two translation-invariant metrics on a vector spave both induce the same topology, which makes this vector space a TVS, then these metrics have the same Cauchy sequences and are simultaneously complete or incomplete.

Proposition 4.4. A metrizable TVS is complete if and only its topology is induced by a complete translation-invariant metric. In other words, a metrizable TVS is complete if and only if every Cauchy sequence converges.

Definition. A TVS is locally bounded if there is a bounded $U \in \mathscr{N}$. A TVS is locally compact if there is a compact $U \in \mathscr{N}$.

Proposition 4.5. Every locally bounded Hausdorff TVS is metrizable.
Exercise 4.1. If $B \in \mathscr{N}$ is bounded, then $\left\{\left.\frac{1}{n} B \right\rvert\, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ is a countable zero neighbourhood base.

### 4.2. Finite-dimensional TVS.

Proposition 4.6. A Hausdorff TVS of dimension $n<\infty$ is isomorphic to $m_{n}$.
Proof. Let $X=\operatorname{span}\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$. Define $T: m_{n} \rightarrow X$ by $T\left(\left(\lambda_{i}\right)\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} e_{i}$. From linear algebra we know that $T$ is a bijective linear map. Since in $m_{n}$ the convergence of a net of vectors imply the convergence of their corresponding coordinates, the continuity of addition and scalar multiplication imply that $T$ is continuous.

In order to show the continuity of $T^{-1}$, it is enough to show it at 0 : for every zero neighbourhood $U$ in $m_{n}$ its preimage $\left(T^{-1}\right)^{-1}(U)=T(U)$ must be a zero neighbourhood of $X$. Since $\left\{\varepsilon B_{m_{n}} \mid \varepsilon \in(0,1)\right\}$ form a zero neighbourhood base in $m_{n}$ and $T$ is linear, it is enough to show that $T\left(B_{m_{n}}\right)$ is a zero neighbourhood in $X$.

Consider the sphere $S_{m_{n}}=\left\{x \in m_{n}:\|x\|=1\right\}$. It is a closed and bounded set in a finite-dimensional Banach space, so it is compact. Then its continuous image $T\left(S_{m_{n}}\right) \subset X$ is compact as well and hence closed. Since $0 \notin S_{m_{n}}$, so also $0 \notin T\left(S_{m_{n}}\right)$. Therefore, $X \backslash T\left(S_{m_{n}}\right)$ is an open zero neighbourhood. It contains a balanced zero neighbourhood $V$. If $V \not \subset T\left(B_{m_{n}}\right)$ then there exists $y \in m_{n}$ such that $\|y\|>1$ and $T y \in V$. But then $\frac{1}{\|T y\|} T y \in V \cap T\left(S_{m_{n}}\right)$, a contradiction. So $V \subset T\left(B_{m_{n}}\right)$, as needed.

Corollary 4.7. A finite-dimensional subspace of a Hausdorff TVS is closed.
Proof. The above proposition (recall that $m_{n}$ is complete) and the exercises below give that a finite-dimensional subspace is complete and that a complete set is closed.

Exercise. Show that a TVS isomorphic to a complete TVS is complete, too.

Exercise. Show that a subspace of a TVS is complete in the induced topology if and only if it is complete as a subset.

Exercise. Show that a convergent filter is Cauchy.

## Proposition 4.8. A locally compact Hausdorff TVS $X$ is finite-dimensional.

Proof. Take a compact balanced $V \in \mathscr{N}$. It is bounded, so Exercise 4.1 gives that $\mathscr{N}=\left\{2^{-n} V \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}^{\dagger}$. Since $V$ is completely bounded, $V \subset V_{0}+\frac{1}{2} V$ for some finite set $V_{0} \subset V$. Consider the finite-dimensional subspace $Y=$ span $V_{0}$. We have $V \subset Y+\frac{1}{2} V$. Dividing by 2, this gives $\frac{1}{2} V \subset Y+\frac{1}{4} V$. Adding the two inclusions together, we get $V \subset Y+Y+\frac{1}{4} V \subset Y+\frac{1}{4} V$. Thus by induction we have $V \subset \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left(Y+2^{-n} V\right)=\bar{Y}=Y$. So span $V \subset Y$. On the other hand $\operatorname{span} V=X$, because $V$ is absorbing.

### 4.3. Examples.

Example 4.1. Consider the vector space

$$
C(\mathbb{C}):=\{x=x(t) \mid x: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{K} \text { is continuous }\}
$$

with addition and scalar multiplication defined pointwise: $(\lambda x+y)(t)=\lambda x(t)+y(t)$.
Let us denote $p_{n}(x):=\max _{|t| \leq n}|x(t)|$ and $V_{n, \varepsilon}=\left\{x \mid p_{n}(x)<\varepsilon\right\}$ and show that $\mathscr{B}:=\left\{V_{n, \varepsilon} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, \varepsilon>0\right\}$ is an additive prefilter consisting of absorbing balanced sets:
(1) $V_{\max (n, m), \min (\varepsilon, \delta)} \subset V_{n, \varepsilon} \cap V_{m, \delta}$, so $\mathscr{B}$ is a prefilter.
(2) $p_{n}(\lambda x)=|\lambda| p_{n}(x)$, so $V_{n, \varepsilon}$ is balanced,
(3) for every $x \in X, p_{n}\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{p_{n}(x)+1} x\right)<\varepsilon$, so $V_{n, \varepsilon}$ is absorbing,
(4) $V_{n, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}}+V_{n, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \subset V_{n, \varepsilon}$, so $\mathscr{B}$ is additive.

Thus $\mathscr{B}$ is a zero neighbourhood base for some TVS topology. Since $\bigcap_{\varepsilon>0} V_{n, \varepsilon}$ clearly consists of functions, which are zero on $B_{\mathbb{K}}(0, n)$, we have $\cap \mathscr{B}=\{0\}$, so that the induced topology is Hausdorff. Since every $V_{n, \varepsilon}$ contains $V_{n, \frac{1}{i}}$ for some $i \in \mathbb{N}$, our base $\mathscr{B}$ has a countable generating subsystem $\left\{V_{n, \frac{1}{i}}\right\}_{n, i \in \mathbb{N}}$, so that the induced topology is metrizable.

Given a Cauchy sequence $\left(x_{k}\right) \subset C(\mathbb{C})$ let us denote $y_{k}:=\left.x_{k}\right|_{B_{K}(0, n)}$ and observe that $\left(y_{k}\right)$ is a Cauchy sequence in the Banach space $C\left(B_{\mathbb{K}}(0, n)\right)$ equipped with the norm $p_{n}$, so it converges to the pointwise limit $y \in C\left(B_{\mathbb{}}(0, n)\right)$ in the norm. This means that the pointwise limit $x$ of $\left(x_{n}\right)$ is continuous on every $B_{\llbracket}(0, n)$, hence continous on the whole $\mathbb{C}$, and so clearly $x_{n} \rightarrow x$ in $C(\mathbb{C})$.

So, $C(\mathbb{C})$ is a complete TVS.
Remark. Recall that given a compact Hausdorff topological space $K$, the space $C(K) \subset \mathbb{K}^{K}$ of all continuous functions on $K$ is a Banach space, when equipped with the norm $\|f\|:=\max _{t \in K}|f(t)|$. The completeness of the norm here follows, e.g., from the Arzelà-Ascoli theorem: a subset $A \subset C(K)$ is relatively compact if and only if it is bounded and equicontinuous.

## 5. Convex sets and seminorms

5.1. Convex subsets in a vector space. Let $X$ be a vector space.....

Definition. Given $x, y \in X$ denote $[x, y]:=\{\lambda x+(1-\lambda) y \mid \lambda \in[0,1]\}$. A subset $E \subset X$ is convex if $[x, y] \subset E$ for any two points $x, y \in E$. A balanced convex set is called absolutely convex.

Proposition 5.1. A subset $E \subset X$ is absolutely convex if

$$
\{\lambda x+\mu y| | \lambda|+|\mu| \leq 1, \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{K}\} \subset E
$$

for any two points $x, y \in E$.
If we define the scalar product for vectors $\cdot: \mathbb{K}^{n} \times X^{n} \rightarrow X$ like this: $\left(\lambda_{k}\right) \cdot\left(x_{k}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k} x_{k}$, then the convexity and the absolute convexity of $E$ mean respectively that $S_{\ell_{1}^{2}}^{+} \cdot E^{2} \subset E$ and $\bar{B}_{\ell_{1}^{2}} \cdot E^{2} \subset E$, where $\bar{B}_{\ell_{1}^{n}}=\left\{\left(\lambda_{i}\right) \in \mathbb{K}^{n}|\Sigma| \lambda_{i} \mid \leq 1\right\}$ is the closed unit ball of the Banach space $\ell_{1}^{n}$ and $S_{\ell_{1}^{n}}^{+}=\left\{\left(\lambda_{i}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \lambda \geq 0, \sum \lambda_{i}=1\right\}$ is the positive part of its sphere.

Some properties:

- if $E_{\alpha}, \alpha \in \Gamma$, are convex (absolutely convex), then so is $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Gamma} E_{\alpha}$,
- given $\delta \in \mathbb{K}$ and a linear map $T: X \rightarrow Y$, if $E_{1}, E_{2} \subset X$ are convex (absolutely convex), then so are $E_{1}+E_{2}$, $\delta E_{1}$, and $T\left(E_{1}\right)$.

Lemma 5.2. Let $E \subset X$.
(1) If $E$ is convex then $S_{\ell_{1}^{n}}^{+} \cdot E^{n} \subset E$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(2) If $E$ is absolutely convex then $\bar{B}_{\ell_{1}^{n}} \cdot E^{n} \subset E$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition. Let $E \subset X$. Then

$$
\operatorname{conv} E:=\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S_{\ell_{1}^{n}}^{+} \cdot E^{n}
$$

is called the convex hull of $E$ and

$$
\operatorname{absconv} E:=\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bar{B}_{\ell_{1}^{n}} \cdot E^{n}
$$

is called the absolutely convex hull of $E$.
Example 5.1. Make sure that $E \subset \operatorname{conv} E \subset \operatorname{absconv} E \subset \operatorname{span} E$.
Let us note that $\operatorname{conv} E(\operatorname{absconv} E)$ is the minimal (absolutely) convex set containing $E$.
Example 5.2. Show that if $E \subset X$ is balanced, then so is $\operatorname{conv} E$ and hence $\operatorname{conv} E=\operatorname{absconv} E$.
Proposition 5.3. Let $X$ be a TVS. If $E \subset X$ is convex, then so is $\bar{E}$.
Corollary 5.4. If $E \subset X$ is absolutely convex, then so is $\bar{E}$.
Let $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n} \subset X$ be absolutely convex. Observe that

$$
\operatorname{absconv} \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_{i}=\bar{B}_{\ell_{1}^{n}} \cdot\left(E_{1} \times \cdots \times E_{n}\right) .
$$

Proposition 5.5. If $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n} \subset X$ are compact and absolutely convex sets, then so is absconv $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_{i}$.

### 5.2. Seminorms and Minkowski functionals. Let $X$ be a vector space.

Definition. A functional $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is
(1) positively homogeneous if $p(\lambda x)=\lambda p(x)$ for $\lambda \geq 0$,
(2) absolutely homogeneous if $p(\lambda x)=|\lambda| p(x)$ for $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$,
(3) subadditive if $p(x+y) \leq p(x)+p(y)$,
(4) sublinear if it is positively homogeneous and subadditive,
(5) seminorm if it is absolutely homogeneous and subadditive.

Exercise 5.3. Prove that
(1) a sublinear functional $p$ satisfies $p(0)=0$ and $|p(x)-p(y)| \leq \max \{p(x-y), p(y-x)\}$,
(2) a seminorm $p$ satisfies $p(x) \geq 0$ and $|p(x)-p(y)| \leq p(x-y)$,
(3) if $p$ is a seminorm, then $p^{-1}(0) \subset X$ is a vector subspace of $X$.

Exercise 5.4. Prove that if $p$ is a seminorm, then both the open and closed unit balls $B_{p}:=p^{-1}([0,1))$ and $\bar{B}_{p}:=$ $p^{-1}([0,1])$ are absolutely convex and absorbing.

Definition. Let $U \subset X$ be an absorbing set. The functional $p_{U}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto \inf \{\mu>0 \mid x \in \mu U\}$, is called its Minkowski functional or gauge.

Exercise 5.5. Prove that $p_{U}(0)=0$ and $0 \leq p_{U}(x)<\infty$.
Proposition 5.6. Let $U \subset X$ be an absorbing set. Then
(1) $p_{U}$ is positively homogeneous,
(2) if $U$ is balanced, then $p_{U}$ is absolutely homogeneous,
(3) if $U$ is convex, then $p_{U}$ is subadditive and $B_{p_{U}} \subset U \subset \bar{B}_{p_{U}}$.

Corollary 5.7. The gauge of a convex absorbing set is a positive sublinear functional. The gauge of an absolutely convex absorbing set is a seminorm.

Proposition 5.8. Let $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a seminorm and $U:=\bar{B}_{p}$. Then $p_{U}=p$.
Let $X$ be a TVS.
Lemma 5.9. If a sublinear functional $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at 0 , then it is continuous everywhere.
Theorem 5.10. An absorbing set $U \subset X$ is a zero neighbourhood if and only if $p_{U}$ is continuous. If $U$ is open, then $U=B_{p_{U}}$. If $U$ is closed, then $U=\bar{B}_{p_{U}}$.

## 6. Hahn-Banach theorem

6.1. Hahn-Banach theorem for real vector spaces. Recall that the algebraic dual of a vector space $X$ is the vector space $X^{*}$ of all linear functionals $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ with vector space operations defined pointwise: $\left(\lambda f_{1}+f_{2}\right)=\lambda f_{1}(x)+$ $f_{2}(x)$.

Let $X$ be a TVS.
Proposition 6.1. A linear functional $f \in X^{*}$ is continuous if and only if there is $U \in \mathscr{N}$ such that $f(U) \subset \mathbb{K}$ is bounded, that is, $f(U) \subset B_{\Downarrow}(0, M)$ for some $M>0$.

Proof. It is enough to consider continuity at 0 .
$(\Rightarrow)$ : By continuity, since $B_{\mathbb{K}}(0,1)$ is a zero neighbourhood in $\mathbb{K}$, there is $U \in \mathscr{N}$ such that $f(U) \subset B_{\mathbb{}}(0,1)$.
$(\Leftarrow)$ : We have $f\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{M} U\right)=\frac{\varepsilon}{M} f(U) \subset B_{\nwarrow}(0, \varepsilon)$ for all $\varepsilon>0$ with the latter sets forming a zero neighbourhood base in $\mathbb{K}$ and $\frac{\varepsilon}{M} U \in \mathscr{N}$ for all $\varepsilon>0$.

The topological dual of $X$ is the vector subspace $X^{\prime}$ of $X^{*}$ which consists of continuous functionals.
Let $Y$ be a subspace of a vector space $X$ and let $f \in X^{*}$. Define $\left.f\right|_{Y} \in Y^{*}$ by $\left.f\right|_{Y}(y)=f(y)$ for all $y \in Y$. Then $f$ is called an extension of $\left.f\right|_{Y}$ to $X$, and $\left.f\right|_{Y}$ is called the resriction of $f$ to $Y$.

Theorem 6.2 (Hahn-Banach for $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R}$ ). Let $X$ be a real vector space and $X_{0} \subset X$ its subspace. Let $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a sublinear functional. If $f_{0} \in X_{0}^{*}$ satisfies $f_{0}(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X_{0}$, then there exists an extension $f \in X^{*}$ of $f_{0}$ such that $f(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Proof. Consider a partially ordered set $S$ of pairs $(Y, g)$ where $Y \subset X$ is a subspace containing $X_{0}$ and $g \in Y^{*}$ is an extension of $f_{0}$ to $Y$ such that $g(y) \leq p(y)$ for all $y \in Y$, the order given by $\left(Y_{1}, y_{1}\right) \leq\left(Y_{2}, y_{2}\right)$ if $Y_{1} \subset Y_{2}$ and $\left.g_{2}\right|_{Y_{1}}=g_{1}$.

Zorn's lemma gives the claim once we show that
(1) if $Y \neq X$, then $(Y, g)$ is not maximal,
(2) a linearly ordered subset of $S$ has an upper bound.
(1) Take $z \in X \backslash Y$ and note that

$$
g(x)+g(y)=g(x+y) \leq p(x+y) \leq p(x-z)+p(y+z)
$$

or

$$
g(x)-p(x-z) \leq p(y+z)-g(y)
$$

for all $x, y \in Y$. So, $A:=\sup _{x \in Y}(g(x)-p(z+x)) \leq \inf _{x \in Y}(p(x-z)-g(x))=: B$. Take any $t \in[A, B]$ and define $f: Y+\mathbb{R} z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(y+\lambda z)=g(y)+\lambda t$. It is easy to see that $Y+\mathbb{R} z$ is a subspace of $X$ and that $f$ is correctly defined. The inequality $f(y+\lambda z) \leq p(y+\lambda z)$ follows from the choice of $t$.
(2) Given a linearly ordered set $\left\{\left(Y_{\alpha}, g_{\alpha}\right)\right\}_{\alpha} \subset S$, define $Y=\cup_{\alpha} Y_{\alpha}$ and $g: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $g(y)=g_{\alpha}(y)$ for any $\alpha$ such that $y \in Y_{\alpha}$. Again it is easy to see that $g$ is correctly defined, linear, and $g(y) \leq p(y)$ for all $y \in Y$, so that $(Y, g) \in S$ is the required upper bound.

Corollary 6.3. Let $X$ be a real vector space. For any sublinear functional $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ there exists $f \in X^{*}$ such that $f(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Note that the above corollary is non-trivial only in the case, when the sublinear functional has some negative values.
6.2. Hahn-Banach theorem for complex vector spaces. Given a vector space $X$ over $\mathbb{C}$, consider the restriction of the scalar product $\cdot: \mathbb{C} \times X \rightarrow X$ to $\mathbb{R} \times X$. The set $X$ equipped with this restriction and the unchanged addition becomes a real vector space, which we denote by $X_{\mathbb{R}}$.

Theorem 6.4 (Hahn-Banach for $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{C}$ ). Let $X$ be a vector space over $\mathbb{K} \mathbb{(} \mathbb{K}$ is either $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$ ) and let $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a seminorm. If a linear functional $f_{0}$, defined on a subspace $X_{0} \subset X$, satisfies $\left|f_{0}(x)\right| \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X_{0}$, then it has an extension $f \in X^{*}$ such that $|f(x)| \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Proof. $(\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R})$ : Applying Theorem 6.2 we get an extension $f \in X^{*}$ such that $f(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$. The claim follows, because $-f(x)=f(-x) \leq p(-x)=p(x)$, too.
$(\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{C})$ : Denote $\phi_{0}(x)=\operatorname{Re} f_{0}(x)$, then $\phi_{0} \in\left(X_{0}\right)_{\mathbb{R}}^{*}$ and $f_{0}(x)=\phi_{0}(x)-i \phi_{0}(i x)$. Also, $\left|\phi_{0}(x)\right| \leq\left|f_{0}(x)\right| \leq p(x)$. So applying the case $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R}$, we get $\phi \in X_{\mathbb{R}}^{*}$ such that $|\phi(x)| \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$. Then $f(x):=\phi(x)-i \phi(i x)$ defines a linear functional $f \in X^{*}$. If $f(x) \neq 0$, then $f\left(\frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} x\right)=|f(x)|>0$, so that

$$
|f(x)|=f\left(\frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} x\right)=\phi\left(\frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} x\right) \leq p\left(\frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} x\right)=\left|\frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)}\right| p(x)=p(x) .
$$

6.3. Separation theorems. Let $g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a mapping. Let us denote $[g=\alpha]=\{x \in X \mid g(x)=\alpha\},[g \leq \alpha]=\{x \in$ $X \mid g(x) \leq \alpha\}$, and in the same manner also $[g>\alpha],[g \geq \alpha]$, and so on.

Let $X$ be a real vector space and $f \in X^{*} \backslash\{0\}$. A set $H:=[f=\alpha]$ is called a hyperplane. Note that $H_{0}:=[f=0] \neq X$ and so $H=z+H_{0}$ for any $z \in H$. Every such hyperplane yields corresponding half-spaces $[f \geq \alpha]$, $[f \leq \alpha]$ and strict half-spaces $[f>\alpha],[f<\alpha]$. Both a hyperplane and a functional defining it are said to (strictly) separate two subsets of $X$ if these subsets reside in different (strict) half-spaces, corresponding to the hyperplane.

Proposition 6.5. In a real TVS $X$ a hyperplane $H=[f=\alpha]$ is either closed $(\bar{H}=H)$ or dense $(\bar{H}=X)$. It is closed if and only if $f$ is continuous.

Proof. Clearly, $H$ is closed if $f$ is continuous. If $f$ is discontinuous, then (prove it!) ${ }^{2}$ there is a net $\left(x_{\alpha}\right) \subset X$ such that $x_{\alpha} \rightarrow 0$ but $f\left(x_{\alpha}\right)=1$. Now $y_{\alpha}:=x-f(x) x_{\alpha} \rightarrow x$ and $\left(y_{\alpha}\right) \subset H_{0}=[f=0]$ for any $x \in X$. So $\bar{H}_{0}=X$ but then also $\bar{H}=\overline{z+H_{0}}=z+\bar{H}_{0}=X$ given any $z \in H$.

Let $X$ be a TVS.
Lemma 6.6. Every $f \in X^{*} \backslash\{0\}$ is an open mapping, that is, it maps open sets to open sets.
Proof. Find $x_{0} \in X$ such that $f\left(x_{0}\right)=1$. Take a non-empty open $G \subset X$ and $x \in G$. Then $G-x \in \mathscr{N}$, so it absorbs $x_{0}$, hence there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that $B_{\mathbb{K}}(0, \varepsilon) \cdot x_{0} \subset G-x$. Applying $f$, we get $B_{\mathbb{K}}(0, \varepsilon) \subset f(G-x)=f(G)-f(x)$ or $f(x)+B_{\mathbb{K}}(0, \varepsilon) \subset f(G)$, so that $f(x)$ is an interior point of $f(G)$.

Theorem 6.7. Let $E, G \subset X$ be convex such that $E \cap G=\varnothing$ and $G$ is open. Then there exist $f \in X^{\prime}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\operatorname{Re} f(z)<t \leq \operatorname{Re} f(y)$ for all $z \in G$ and $y \in E$ (that is, $G \subset[\operatorname{Re} f<t]$ and $E \subset[\operatorname{Re} f \geq t]$ ).

Proof. It is clearly enough to prove the case when $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R}$ and $G, E \neq \varnothing$. Fix any $y_{0} \in E$ and $z_{0} \in G$ and denote $x_{0}:=y_{0}-z_{0}$ and $C:=G-E+x_{0}$. Then $C$ is open, convex, $0 \in C$, and $x_{0} \notin C$. Hence its gauge $p:=p_{C}$ is a continuous positive sublinear functional such that $p\left(x_{0}\right) \geq 1$. Define a linear functional $f_{0}: \mathbb{R} \cdot x_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f_{0}\left(\lambda x_{0}\right):=\lambda$. Then $f_{0}\left(\lambda x_{0}\right)=\lambda \leq p\left(\lambda x_{0}\right)$. Applying Theorem 6.2 we obtain an extension $f \in X^{*}$ such that $f(x) \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Note that $f(x) \leq p(x) \leq 1$ and hence also $f(-x) \geq-1$ for all $x \in C$. Thus $f(C \cap(-C)) \subset[-1,1]$ with $C \cap(-C) \in \mathscr{N}$, so $f$ is continuous by Proposition 6.1.

For $y \in E$ and $z \in G$ we get $f(z)-f(y)+1=f\left(z-y+x_{0}\right) \leq p\left(z-y+x_{0}\right)<1$, because $z-y+x_{0} \in C$ and $C$ is open, so that $f(z)<f(y)$ for all $z \in G$ and $y \in E$. Since $f(G) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is open, setting $t:=\sup f(G)$ yields the needed inequalities.

Corollary 6.8. If $X$ contains non-trivial open convex subsets, then $X^{\prime} \neq\{0\}$.

## 7. LOCALLY CONVEX SPACES

### 7.1. Describing a locally convex topology via zero neighbourhood bases and via seminorms.

Definition. A TVS $X$ is locally convex (LCS) if every $U \in \mathscr{N}$ contains a convex $V \in \mathscr{N}$.
Proposition 7.1. In an LCS $X$ every $U \in \mathscr{N}$ contains a closed absolutely convex $V \in \mathscr{N}$.
Proof. Take a closed $U \in \mathscr{N}$. There are a convex $V \in \mathscr{N}$ and a balanced $W \in \mathscr{N}$ such that $W \subset V \subset U$. Now $\overline{\operatorname{conv} W}$ is absolutely convex (prove it!)

Recall that a centered system of sets is such that no finite intersection of its sets is empty. Every centered system generates a filter in a unique way: the smallest filter containing it. Vice versa, every subset of a filter is a centered system. A centered system is also called a filter subbase.

If we denote by $\pi(\mathscr{B})$ the system of all finite intersections of the sets in a centered system $\mathscr{B}$, then $\pi(\mathscr{B})$ is a prefilter.

Consider an arbitrary system $\mathscr{B}_{0}$ of absolutely convex absorbing sets in a vector space $X$. It is centered, because $0 \in \cap \mathscr{B}_{0}$. However, the generated filter $\pi\left(\mathscr{B}_{0}\right)^{\dagger}$ may fail to be a zero neighbourhood filter for some TVS because it may fail to be closed under multiplication by some $\varepsilon>0$.

Denote $\widehat{\mathscr{A}}:=\mathbb{R}_{+}(\cdot) \mathscr{A}=\{\varepsilon U \mid U \in \mathscr{A}, \varepsilon>0\}$ for any system $\mathscr{A} \subset 2^{X}$. Note that $\widehat{\pi\left(\mathscr{B}_{0}\right)} \subset \pi\left(\widehat{\mathscr{B}_{0}}\right)$ and both these systems are prefilters, generating the same filter.
Exercise 7.1. Prove that this filter satisfies conditions of Theorem 2.5.
Proposition 7.2. Every system $\mathscr{B}_{0}$ of absolutely convex absorbing sets in a vector space $X$ generates an LC topology having $\widehat{\pi\left(\mathscr{B}_{0}\right)}$ as a zero neighbourhood base (and $\widehat{\mathscr{B}_{0}}$ as its subbase). This topology is Hausdorff if and only if $\cap \widehat{\mathscr{B}_{0}}=\{0\}$.

The system $\mathscr{B}_{0}$ is then called a prebase of the corresponding zero neighbourhood filter $\mathscr{N}$. That is, a system $\mathscr{B}_{0}$ consisting of absorbing absolutely convex sets is a prebase of $\mathscr{N}$ if $\widehat{\mathscr{B}}_{0}$ is its subbase. Note that any subsystem $\mathscr{C}_{0}$ consisting of absolutely convex sets and containing $\mathscr{B}_{0}$ is also a prebase of $\mathscr{N}$ (in particular, any subsystem $\mathscr{C}_{0}$ such that $\left.\mathscr{B}_{0} \subset \mathscr{C}_{0} \subset \pi\left(\widehat{\mathscr{B}}_{0}\right)\right)$.
Proposition 7.3. (1) Every system $\mathscr{P}$ of seminorms on a vector space $X$ defines a locally convex topology $\tau$ on it via the prebase $\left\{\bar{B}_{p}=p^{-1}([0,1]) \mid p \in \mathscr{P}\right\}$. The elements of the corresponding zero neighbourhood base are of the form

$$
W_{\varepsilon, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}}:=\left\{x \in X \mid \max _{i} p_{i}(x) \leq \varepsilon\right\},
$$

where $\varepsilon>0, n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n} \in \mathscr{P}$. The topology $\tau$ is Hausdorff if and only if $\mathscr{P}$ separates points in $X$, that is,

$$
\forall x \in X \exists p \in \mathscr{P}: p(x) \neq 0
$$

(2) Every locally convex topology can be generated by a system of seminorms in this way.

Proposition 7.4. Let $(X, \tau)$ be an LCS and denote by $\mathscr{P}$ the system of all continuous seminorms on $X$. Then $\mathscr{P}$ generates $\tau$.

### 7.2. Convergence and boundedness in LCS.

Proposition 7.5. Let the LC topology of $(X, \tau)$ be defined by a system of seminorms $\mathscr{P}$. Then
(1) $x_{\alpha} \rightarrow x \Longleftrightarrow p\left(x_{\alpha}-x\right) \rightarrow 0 \forall p \in \mathscr{P}$,
(2) $E \subset X$ is bounded $\Longleftrightarrow \sup _{x \in E} p(x)<\infty$ (i.e., $p(E)$ is bounded) for all $p \in \mathscr{P}$.

Proof.
(1) $(\Rightarrow)$ : is because seminorms $p \in \mathscr{P}$ are continuous.
$(\Leftarrow)$ : It is enough to prove that $\mathscr{F} \rightarrow 0 \Longleftarrow p(\mathscr{F}) \rightarrow 0 \forall p \in \mathscr{P}$ for any prefilter $\mathscr{F}$. Note that $p(\mathscr{F}) \rightarrow 0$ means that $\varepsilon \bar{B}_{p} \in \mathscr{F}^{\dagger}$ for any $\varepsilon>0$. So the filter $\mathscr{F}^{\dagger}$ contains $\left\{\varepsilon \bar{B}_{p} \mid \varepsilon>0, p \in \mathscr{P}\right\}$, a subbase of $\mathscr{N}$, hence also $\mathscr{N}$ itself. That is, $\mathscr{F} \rightarrow 0$.
(2) Note that $\lambda E \subset \bar{B}_{p} \Longleftrightarrow E \subset \frac{1}{\lambda} \bar{B}_{p} \Longleftrightarrow p(E) \subset\left[0, \frac{1}{\lambda}\right]$. That is, $p(E)$ is bounded $\Longleftrightarrow E$ is absorbed by $\bar{B}_{p}$. Since absorption is preserved under finite intersections and multiplication by positive scalar, it is enough to be absorbed by all elements in some prebase of $\mathscr{N}$.

Proposition 7.6. Let $X$ be a LCS.
(1) If $E \subset X$ is bounded, then so is absconv $E$.
(2) If $E \subset X$ is completely bounded, then so is absconv $E$.

Proof.
(1) Since $X$ is LC, given $V \in \mathscr{N}$, there is an absolutely convex $U \in \mathscr{N}, U \subset V$. If there is $\lambda>0$ such that $E \subset \lambda U$, then also absconv $E \subset \operatorname{absconv} \lambda U=\lambda U \subset \lambda V$.
(2) Given $V \in \mathscr{N}$ take an absolutely convex $U \in \mathscr{N}$ such that $U+U \subset V$. There is a finite set $E_{0}$ such that $E \subset$ $E_{0}+U$. Then absconv $E=\operatorname{absconv}\left(E_{0}+U\right) \subset \operatorname{absconv} E_{0}+\operatorname{absconv} U=\operatorname{absconv} E_{0}+U$. It is enough to prove that $H:=\operatorname{absconv} E_{0}$ is completely bounded. Observe that for any point $x \in E_{0}$ the set absconv $\{x\}=\bar{B}_{\mathbb{}} x$ is compact (because it is a continuous image of $\bar{B}_{\mathbb{K}}$, which is compact). Proposition 5.5 now implies that absconv $\bigcup_{x \in E_{0}} \bar{B}_{\llbracket} x$ is compact and hence completely bounded. Then so is absconv $E_{0} \subset \operatorname{absconv} \bigcup_{x \in E_{0}} \bar{B}_{\mathbb{}} x$. (Note that (see the original conspect) one can show that absconv $E_{0}$ is compact, too.)
7.3. Metrizable and normable LCS. Given a metrizable LCS, there is a countable base of $\mathscr{N}$ consisting of absolutely convex sets. The corresponding Minkowski functionals form a countable seminorm system, which defines the same topology. On the other hand, given a Hausdorff topology defined by a countable seminorm system $\left\{p_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, one can define a translation invariant metric

$$
d(x, y)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n}} \frac{p_{n}(x-y)}{1+p_{n}(x-y)}
$$

(prove it!) It is clear that (prove it!) $d\left(x_{\alpha}, 0\right) \rightarrow 0$ if and only if $p_{n}\left(x_{\alpha}\right) \rightarrow 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, so that this metric induces the original topology. We have observed

Proposition 7.7. A Hausdorff LCS is metrizable if and only if its topology can be defined by a countable (or finite) seminorm system.

Example 7.1. The space $C(\mathbb{C})$ from Example 4.1 is a metrizable LCS, because the sets $V_{n, i}$ forming a base of $\mathscr{N}$ are absolutely convex.

Normable LCS. It is easy to see that if a Hausdorff LC topology is defined by a finite seminorm system $\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right\}$, then $p(x):=\max _{1 \leq i \leq n} p_{i}(x)$ defines a norm, inducing the same topology. In that case, let us say that the space is normable.

Proposition 7.8 (Kolmogorov theorem). A Hausdorff TVS is normable if and only if it has bounded convex zero neighbourhoods.

Corollary 7.9. A Hausdorff LCS is normable if and only if it has a bounded zero neighbourhood.
Example 7.2. The space $\ell_{p}, 0<p<1$, is a metrizable TVS with a pseudonorm $|x|=\sum_{k}\left|x_{k}\right|^{p}$ but it is not locally convex.

### 7.4. The dual of an LCS.

Definition. A subspace $Y \subset X^{*}$ separates the points of $X$ if for all $x, y \in X$ with $x \neq y$ there is $f \in Y$ such that $f(x) \neq f(y)$. Equivalently, if for all $x \neq 0$ there is $f \in Y$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$.

Proposition 7.10. The algebraic dual $X^{*}$ of a vector space $X$ separates the points of $X$.
Proposition 7.11. Let $X$ be an LCS. A functional $f \in X^{*}$ is continuous if and only there exists a continuous seminorm $p$ on $X$ such that $|f(x)| \leq p(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Proposition 7.12. Let $X$ be an LCS and let $X_{0} \subset X$ be a subspace. For every $f_{0} \in X_{0}^{\prime}$ there is $f \in X^{\prime}$ such that $\left.f\right|_{X_{0}}=f_{0}$.
Theorem 7.13. If $X$ is a Hausdorff LCS, then $X^{\prime}$ separates points of $X$.
Exercise 7.2. Show that if $\tau_{1} \subset \tau_{2}$, then $\left(X, \tau_{1}\right)^{\prime} \subset\left(X, \tau_{2}\right)^{\prime}$.

### 7.5. Another two separation theorems.

Proposition 7.14. Let $X$ be an LCS and let $E \subset X$ be convex. Then $x \in \bar{E}$ if and only if $f(x) \in \overline{f(E)}$ for all $f \in X^{\prime}$.
Theorem 7.15. Let $X$ be an LCS.
(a) If $E \subset X$ is absolutely convex and $x \in X \backslash \bar{E}$, then there is $f \in X^{\prime}$ such that $f(E) \subset \bar{B}_{\mathbb{K}}$ but $f(x)>1$.
(b) Let $X_{0} \subset X$ be a subspace. Then $x \in \overline{X_{0}}$ if and only if $f(x)=0$ for all $f \in X^{\prime}$ such that $\left.f\right|_{X_{0}}=0$.

Corollary 7.16. Let $X_{0} \subset X$ be a subspace of an LCS $X$. Then $\overline{X_{0}}=X$ if and only if $\left.f\right|_{X_{0}} \neq 0$ for all $f \in X^{\prime} \backslash\{0\}$. In other words, $\overline{X_{0}}=X$ if and only if $\left.f\right|_{X_{0}}=0 \Longrightarrow f=0$ for all $f \in X^{\prime}$.

Example 7.3. Consider the metrizable TVS $S[a, b]$ from Example 4.2. We can show that $S[a, b]^{\prime}=\{0\}$.

## 8. DUAL PAIRS OF VECTOR SPACES

### 8.1. Dual pair.

Definition. Let $X$ and $Y$ be vector spaces over the same field $\mathbb{K}$. The spaces $X$ and $Y$ form a dual pair $\langle X, Y\rangle$ if there is fixed a bilinear functional $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle: X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$, which separates the points of both $X$ and $Y$, that is:

- for every $x \in X \backslash\{0\}$ there is $y \in Y$ such that $\langle x, y\rangle \neq 0$,
- for every $y \in Y \backslash\{0\}$ there is $x \in X$ such that $\langle x, y\rangle \neq 0$.

Of course, if $\langle X, Y\rangle$ is a dual pair, then so is $\langle Y, X\rangle$.
Example 8.1. The spaces $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{\infty}$ form a dual pair with $\langle x, y\rangle:=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_{n} y_{n}$.
Example 8.2. Every Hilbert space forms a dual pair with itself, the bilinear functional is just the dot product.
Example 8.3. Given any vector space $X$, the dual pair $\left\langle X, X^{*}\right\rangle$ can be defined by the functional $\langle x, f\rangle=f(x)$.
The last example can be generalized to a dual pair $\langle X, Y\rangle$, where a subspace $Y \subset X^{*}$ separates the points of $X$. In fact, this case essentially encompasses all dual pairs. Given a dual pair $\langle X, Y\rangle$ we can define a linear injection $\pi: Y \rightarrow X^{*}$ by $\pi(y)(x)=\langle x, y\rangle$, so that $Y$ is isomorphic to $\pi(Y) \subset X^{*}$.

Therefore, given a dual pair $\langle X, Y\rangle$ we can (and will) always assume that $Y$ is a subspace $X^{*}$, which separates points of $X$ (or that $X$ is a subspace of $Y^{*}$ ). In that case the bilinear functional is automatically defined.
Exercise 8.1. Denote by $\omega=\left\{\left(x_{n}\right) \subset \mathbb{K}\right\}$ the space of all sequences and by $\phi=\left\{\left(x_{n}\right) \subset \mathbb{K} \mid x_{n} \neq 0\right.$ for finitely many $\left.n\right\}$ the space of all finite sequences. Then $\langle\omega, \phi\rangle$ is a dual pair by the functional $\langle x, y\rangle=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_{n} y_{n}$.

### 8.2. Weak topology.

Definition. Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair and let $\tau$ be an LC topology on $X$. If $(X, \tau)^{\prime}=Y$, then $\tau$ is said to be consistent with the duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$.

Note that given $f \in X^{*}$, we can define a seminorm $p_{f}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $p_{f}(x)=|\langle x, f\rangle|=|f(x)|$.
Definition. Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair. The locally convex topology $\sigma(X, Y)$ on $X$ defined by a family of seminorms $\left\{p_{f} \mid f \in Y\right\}$ is called the weak topology (defined by the duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$ ).

Properties of the weak topology $\sigma(X, Y)$ :
(1) It is Hausdorff.
(2) We know that a zero neighbourhood base is $\pi\left(\overline{\left\{\overline{\left.\bar{B}_{p_{f}}\right\}_{f \in Y}}\right.}\right)$. However, the linearity allows to drop the epsilons and consider just $\pi\left(\left\{\bar{B}_{p_{f}}\right\}_{f \in Y}\right)$ as the base. That is, the sets in this base are of the form

$$
W_{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}}:=\left\{x \in X\left|\max _{i}\right| f_{i}(x) \mid \leq 1\right\},
$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n} \in Y$.
(3) The convergence: $x_{\alpha} \rightarrow x \Longleftrightarrow f\left(x_{\alpha}\right) \rightarrow f(x)$ for all $f \in Y$. The boundedness: $E \subset X$ is bounded if and only if $f(E)$ is bounded for all $y \in Y$.
(4) The topology $\sigma(Y, X)$ on $Y$ can be described symmetrically and has the same properties.

Exercise 8.2. Describe the convergence of a sequence $\left(x^{(n)}\right)$ in the LCS $\left(\ell_{\infty}, \sigma\left(\ell_{\infty}, \ell_{1}\right)\right)$. Does the sequence $\left(y^{(n)}\right)$ converge if $y^{(1)}=(1,0,0, \ldots), y^{(2)}=(1,1,0,0, \ldots), \ldots, y^{(n)}=(1,1, \ldots, 1,0,0, \ldots), \ldots$ ?

Exercise 8.3. Does the sequence from the above exercise converge in $\left(\ell_{1}, \sigma\left(\ell_{1}, \ell_{\infty}\right)\right)$ ?
Exercise 8.4. Show that $x^{(n)} \rightarrow x$ in the topology $\sigma(\omega, \phi)$ if and only if $x_{k}^{(n)} \rightarrow x_{k}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.
Proposition 8.1. Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair. In $(X, \sigma(X, Y))$, every bounded set is completely bounded.
Lemma 8.2. Let $X$ be a vector space and let $f, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n} \in X^{*}$. Then $f \in \operatorname{span}\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right\}$ if and only if

$$
\forall i \in\{1, \ldots, n\} f_{i}(x)=0 \Longrightarrow f(x)=0
$$

Note that if we knew (e.g., from Theorem 8.3 below) that $\sigma\left(X^{*}, X\right)$ were consistent with $\left\langle X^{*}\right.$, X $\rangle$, i.e. $\left(X^{*}, \sigma\left(X^{*}, X\right)\right)^{\prime}=$ $X$, then the above lemma would immediately follow from Corollary 7.16 (because a finite-dimensional subspace is always closed in a Hausdorff TVS). Alas, we need the above lemma to prove Theorem 8.3 below, so another proof is needed.

Theorem 8.3. The topology $\sigma(X, Y)$ is consistent with the duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$, that is, $(X, \sigma(X, Y))^{\prime}=Y$.
Theorem 8.4. The weak topology $\sigma(X, Y)$ is the weakest of all LC topologies consistent with the duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$.
Corollary 8.5. If $X=(X, \tau)$ is a Hausdorff LCS, then $\tau$ is consistent with $\left\langle X, X^{\prime}\right\rangle$ and $\sigma\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \subset \tau$.

### 8.3. Polars.

Exercise 8.5. If $\tau_{1} \subset \tau_{2}$, then $\bar{E}^{\tau_{2}} \subset \bar{E}^{\tau_{1}}$.
Proposition 8.6. Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair. The closure of a convex set $E \subset X$ is the same in all LC topologies consistent with $\langle X, Y\rangle$.

Theorem 8.7. The closed convex sets are the same in all LC topologies consistent with a given duality.
Definition. Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair and let $E \subset X$. The polar of $E$ is defined as

$$
E^{0}:=\{f \in Y|\forall x \in E:|f(x)| \leq 1\} \subset Y .
$$

Show that
Exercise 8.6. $E \subset F \Longrightarrow F^{0} \subset E^{0}$,
Exercise 8.7. $(\lambda E)^{0}=\frac{1}{\lambda} E^{0}$ if $\lambda \in \mathbb{K} \backslash\{0\}$,
Exercise 8.8. $\left(\cup_{\alpha \in \Gamma} E_{\alpha}\right)^{0}=\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Gamma} E_{\alpha}^{0}$,
Exercise 8.9. $E^{0}$ is absolutely convex and $\sigma(Y, X)$-closed,
Exercise 8.10. if $X_{0} \subset X$ is a subspace, then $\left(X_{0}\right)^{0}=\left(X_{0}\right)^{\perp}:=\left\{f \in Y|f|_{X_{0}}=0\right\}$.
Given a system of sets $\mathscr{A} \subset 2^{X}$, denote $\mathscr{A}^{0}:=\left\{U^{0} \mid U \in A\right\}$.
Proposition 8.8. Let $\mathscr{B}$ be a zero neighourhood base of an LCS $X$. Then $X^{\prime}=\cup \mathscr{B}^{0}$, where the polars are taken with respect to duality $\left\langle X, X^{*}\right\rangle$.

Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ and $\langle Y, Z\rangle$ be dual pairs such that $X \subset Z$. Given $E \subset X$, we can define the bipolar $E^{00}=\left(E^{0}\right)^{0}$ with respect to these dualities.

Exercise 8.11. Show that $E \subset E^{00}$.
Proposition 8.9 (bipolar theorem). Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ and $\langle Y, Z\rangle$ be dual pairs such that $X \subset Z$. Given $E \subset X$ the bipolar $E^{00}$ with respect to these dualities satisfies

$$
E^{00}=\overline{\operatorname{absconv} E}^{\sigma(Z, Y)}
$$

When $X$ is a Hausdorff LCS, by the bipolar $E^{00}$ of $E \subset X$ we will usually mean the bipolar with respect to the dualities $\left\langle X, X^{\prime}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle X^{\prime}, X\right\rangle$.
Corollary 8.10. Let $X$ be a Hausdorff $L C S X$ and $E \subset X$. Then $E^{00}=\overline{\operatorname{absconv} E}$.
Corollary 8.11. Let $X$ be a Hausdorff $L C S X$ and $E \subset X$. Then $E^{000}=E^{0}$.

### 9.1. S-topologies and equicontinuous sets.

Proposition 9.1. Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair and let $B \subset Y$. Then $B^{0} \subset X$ is absorbing if and only if $B$ is $\sigma(Y, X)-$ bounded.

Thus given a system of $\mathfrak{S} \subset 2^{Y}$ of $\sigma(Y, X)$-bounded sets, the system of their polars $\mathfrak{S}^{0} \subset 2^{X}$ consists of absorbing absolutely convex sets, so it is a prebase of some LC topology on $X$. Let us denote it by $\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}}$ and call it the polar topology defined by $\mathfrak{S}$ or the topology of uniform convergence on the sets from $\mathfrak{S}$.

Since $\mathfrak{S}^{000}=\mathfrak{S}^{0}$, we can assume that every element of $\mathfrak{S}$ is absolutely convex and $\sigma(Y, X)$-closed. We can also assume the following:
(PT1) $S_{1}, S_{2} \in \mathfrak{S} \Longrightarrow \exists S: S_{1} \cup S_{2} \subset S$ (i.e., $\mathfrak{S}$ is directed upwards),
(PT2) $S \in \mathfrak{S}$ and $\lambda>0$ imply $\lambda S \in \mathfrak{S}$ (i.e., $\widehat{\mathfrak{S}}=\mathfrak{S}$ ).
Moreover, $\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}}$ is Hausdorff if and only if
(PT3) $\overline{\operatorname{span} \bigcup \mathfrak{S}}^{\sigma(Y, X)}=Y$.
It is clear that $\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}}$ is defined by the family of seminorms $\left\{p_{S^{0}}\right\}_{S \in \mathfrak{S}}$, where $p_{S^{0}}$ is the Minkowski functional of $S^{0}$. Observe that $p_{S^{0}}(x)=\sup _{f \in S}|f(x)|$ for all $x \in X$, so the convergence with respect to $p_{S^{0}}$ is the uniform convergence on $S$. Let us also denote $p^{(S)}:=p_{S^{0}}$.

Since being absorbing is a necessary condition for being an element of a prebase of an LC topology, we get the strongest possible polar topology on $X$ with respect to duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$ if we consider the system $\mathfrak{S}_{b} \subset Y$ of all $\sigma(Y, X)$-bounded sets. This polar topology $\beta(X, Y):=\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}_{b}}$ is called the strong topology.

The weak topology $\sigma(X, Y)$ is also a polar topology with $\sigma(X, Y)=\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}_{\sigma}}$, where $\sigma$ is either the system of all one-element subsets or of all finite subsets of $Y$.

Proposition 9.2. Every Hausdorff LC topology $\tau$ on a vector space is a polar topology: $\tau=\mathscr{T}_{\mathscr{B}^{0}}$, where $\mathscr{B}$ is some zero neighbourhood base of $(X, \tau)$.

Definition. Let $(X, \tau)$ be a TVS. Then $S \subset X^{\prime}$ is called equicontinuous (or $\tau$-equicontinuous) if

$$
\forall \varepsilon>0 \exists U \in \mathscr{N}: \forall f \in S \forall x \in U|f(x)| \leq \varepsilon
$$

Proposition 9.3. Let $X$ be a Hausdorff LCS. Then $S \subset X^{\prime}$ is equicontinuous if and only if $S \subset U^{0}$ for some $U \in \mathscr{N}$.
Let us denote the collection of all equicontinuous subsets of $X^{\prime}$ by $\mathscr{E}$.
Exercise 9.1. Prove that $\widehat{\mathscr{E}}=\mathscr{E}$.
Exercise 9.2. Prove that $S_{1}, S_{2} \in \mathscr{E} \Longrightarrow S_{1} \cup S_{2} \in \mathscr{E}$.
Theorem 9.4. Every Hausdorff LC topology $\tau$ on a vector space $X$ is the topology of uniform convergence on $\tau$ equicontinuous sets

Some properties of equicontinuous sets:

- $\mathscr{E}$ is a bornology (or an ideal),
- $\mathscr{E}^{00} \subset \mathscr{E}$,
- if $S \in \mathscr{E}$, then $\bar{S}^{\sigma\left(X^{\prime}, X\right)} \in \mathscr{E}$ and absconv $S \in \mathscr{E}$,
- every equicontinuous set is $\sigma\left(X^{\prime}, X\right)$-bounded.


### 9.2. Mackey topology.

Proposition 9.5. Let $X$ be a vector space. Then $\left(X^{*}, \sigma\left(X^{*}, X\right)\right)$ is a complete LCS.
Proposition 9.6 (Alaoglu theorem). Let $X$ be a Hausdorff LCS. If $U \in \mathscr{N}$, then $U^{0} \subset X^{\prime}$ is $\sigma\left(X^{\prime}, X\right)$-compact. (Due to Proposition 8.8, the polar $U^{0}$ is the same for dualities $\left\langle X, X^{\prime}\right\rangle$ or $\left\langle X, X^{*}\right\rangle$.)

Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair. Consider the system $\mathfrak{S}_{0} \subset 2^{Y}$ of all $\sigma(Y, X)$-compact and absolutely convex sets. Note that $\mathfrak{S}_{0}$ satisfies (PT1) and (PT2).

Definition. The topology $\tau(X, Y):=\mathscr{T}_{S_{0}}$ on $X$ is called the Mackey topology.

Let us point out that $\sigma(X, Y) \subset \tau(X, Y)$, because $\sigma(X, Y)=\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}_{\sigma}}=\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}_{\sigma}^{00}}$ and for every $S \in \mathfrak{S}_{\sigma}$ its polar $S^{0}$ is a zero neighbourhood of $\sigma(X, Y)$, so $S^{00}$ is $\sigma(Y, X)$-compact by the Alaoglu theorem and hence $\mathfrak{S}_{\sigma}^{00} \subset \mathfrak{S}_{0}$. In particular, this implies that $\tau(X, Y)$ is Hausdorff.

Theorem 9.7 (Mackey-Arens theorem). A Hausdorff LC topology $\tau$ on a vector space $X$ is consistent with a duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$ if and only if $\sigma(X, Y) \subset \tau \subset \tau(X, Y)$. In that case, there is a system $\mathfrak{S} \subset \mathfrak{S}_{0}$ such that $\tau=\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}}$.
Corollary 9.8. The Mackey topology is the strongest LC topology on $X$, which is consistent with a duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$.
Corollary 9.9. A Hausdorff LC topology $\tau$ on $X$ is consistent with a duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$ if and only if $\tau=\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}}$ for some system $\mathfrak{S}$ of absolutely convex and $\sigma(Y, X)$-compact subsets of $Y$.

### 9.3. Mackey theorem on bounded sets.

Theorem 9.10 (Mackey theorem). Let $X$ be a Hausdorff LCS. Then $E \subset X$ is bounded if and only if it is weakly bounded (that is, $\sigma\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$-bounded).
Corollary 9.11. Given a duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$, the bounded sets of $X$ are the same in all LC topologies consistent with this duality.

For proving the Mackey theorem we need the following proposition and the principle of uniform boundedness from the Banach space theory.
Proposition 9.12. Let $V$ be a compact and absolutely convex set in a Hausdorff LCS $X$. Then $p_{V}: \operatorname{span} V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the Minkowski functional of $V$, is a norm on $X_{V}:=\operatorname{span} V$. Moreover, $\left(X_{V}, p_{V}\right)$ is a Banach space and the norm topology on it is stronger than the induced topology on $X_{V}$.
Proof. Scheme:
(I) $V \subset X$ is absorbing if and only if span $V=X$,
(II) ( $X_{V}, p_{V}$ ) is Hausdorff if and only if $p_{V}$ is a norm,
(III) if $V$ is bounded in $X$, then $p_{V}$ is a norm,
(IV) if $V$ is compact in $X$, then $\left(X_{V}, p_{V}\right)$ is complete.

Let us recall the principle of uniform boundedness: if $X$ and $Z$ are Banach spaces and $\mathscr{A}$ is a system of bounded linear maps $A: X \rightarrow Z$ such that $\mathscr{A}$ is pointwise bounded, that is, $\{A(x) \mid A \in \mathscr{A}\}$ is bounded in $Z$ for every $x \in X$, then $\mathscr{A}$ is uniformly bounded, that is, $\{\|A\| \mid A \in \mathscr{A}\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is bounded.
Proof of the Mackey theorem. Scheme: Take a weakly bounded $E \subset X$. As the set of functionals on $X^{\prime}$, it is pointwise bounded. Take a nice zero neighbourhood $U \subset X$ and consider the Banach space ( $X_{U^{0}}^{\prime}, p_{U^{0}}$ ). Consider $E$ as the set of continuous linear functionals on it and apply the principle.

Proposition 9.13. A metrizable LC topology is a Mackey topology. That is, if an LCS $(X, \tau)$ is metrizable, then $\tau=$ $\tau\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$.
Proof. ...

## 10. Barrelled spaces and F-spaces

### 10.1. Strong topology and barrelled space.

Definition. A barrel is a closed absolutely convex absorbing set. An LCS is a barrelled space if every barrel is a zero neighbourhood.

It is easy to check that

- if $X$ is a Hausdorff LCS, then $U \subset X$ is a barrel if and only if $U=U^{00}$ with respect to $\left\langle X, X^{\prime}\right\rangle$,
- if $X$ is a Hausdorff LCS, then $U \subset X$ is a barrel if and only if there is a $\sigma\left(X^{\prime}, X\right)$-bounded set $S \subset X^{\prime}$ such that $U=S^{0}$,
- all LC topologies on $X$ consistent with a duality $\langle X, Y\rangle$ have the same barrels,
- every LCS has a zero neighbourhood base consisting of barrels.

Proposition 10.1. Given a Hausdorff LCS $(X, \tau)$, the following are equivalent:
(1) $(X, \tau)$ is a barrelled space,
(2) every $\sigma\left(X^{\prime}, X\right)$-bounded set $S \subset X^{\prime}$ is $\tau$-equicontinuous,
(3) $\tau=\beta\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$,
(4) $\tau=\tau\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=\beta\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$,
(5) $\tau=\tau\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ and $\beta\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is consistent with $\left\langle X, X^{\prime}\right\rangle$.

Let us extend the definition of equicontinuous sets to subsets of operators.
Definition. A set $A \subset L(X, Y)$ is called equicontinuous if

$$
\forall V \in \mathscr{N}_{Y} \exists U \in \mathscr{N}_{X}: \forall T \in A T(U) \subset V .
$$

Exercise 10.1. Every equicontinuous set $A \subset L(X, Y)$ is pointwise bounded, that is, $\{T(x) \mid T \in A\}$ is bounded in $Y$ for every $x \in X$.
Theorem 10.2 (principle of uniform boundedness). If $X$ is a barrelled space and $Y$ is an LCS, then every pointwise bounded set $A \subset L(X, Y)$ is equicontinuous

Theorem 10.3 (continuity of the limit operator). Let $X$ be a barrelled space and let $Y$ be an LCS. Consider a sequence $\left(T_{n}\right) \subset L(X, Y)$ such that for every $x \in X$ there exists $T(x):=\lim _{n} T_{n}(x)$. Then $T \in L(X, Y)$.
10.2. F-spaces. Open mapping theorem. Recall that an LCS is metrizable if and only if its topology can be induced by an at most countable system of seminorms $\left\{p_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. In that case, the defining translation invariant metric can be chosen to be

$$
d(x, y)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n}} \frac{p_{n}(x-y)}{1+p_{n}(x-y)} .
$$

This provides a zero neighbourhood base $\left\{\frac{1}{n} B\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, where $B=\{x \mid d(x, 0) \leq 1\}$.
Definition. A complete metrizable LCS is called an F-space or Frechet'space.
Lemma 10.4. Let $X$ and $Y$ be $F$-spaces and $T: X \rightarrow Y$ a surjective linear operator. For every barrel $U \subset X$ there is $V \in \mathscr{N}_{Y}$ such that $V \subset \overline{T(U)}$.

Proposition 10.5. Every F-space is barrelled.
Theorem 10.6 (open mapping theorem). Let $X$ and $Y$ be F-spaces. A surjective $T \in L(X, Y)$ (that is, linear and continuous) is open, that is, $T(G)$ is open for every open $G \subset X$.

### 10.3. Closed graph theorem.

Theorem 10.7 (continuity of the inverse). Let $X$ and $Y$ be $F$-spaces. If $A \in L(X, Y)$ is bijective, then $A^{-1} \in L(Y, X)$.
Observe that (prove it!) the topological product $X \times Y$ of F-spaces $X$ and $Y$ is again an F-space, with its topology induced by all seminorms $r_{m, n}$ of the form

$$
r_{m, n}(x, y):=p_{m}(x)+q_{n}(y),
$$

where the systems $\left\{p_{m}\right\}_{m}$ and $\left\{q_{n}\right\}_{n}$ induce the topologies of $X$ and $Y$, respectively.
Definition. Let $T: X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear operator. Its graph is the set gr $T:=\{(x, T x) \mid x \in X\} \subset X \times Y$. The operator $T$ is called closed if gr $T$ is closed in $X \times Y$.

Theorem 10.8 (closed graph theorem). Let $X$ and $Y$ be F-spaces. A closed linear operator $T: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous.

## 11. Projective limits

11.1. Projective limit topology. Fix a vector space $X$, locally convex spaces $X_{\gamma}$ and linear operators $v_{\gamma}: X \rightarrow X_{\gamma}$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

Definition. The weakest LC topology on $X$ such that all operators $v_{\gamma}$ are continuous is called the projective limit topology (induced by pairs $\left\{\left(X_{\gamma}, v_{\gamma}\right) \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\right\}$ ). It is denoted by $\tau_{\text {proj }}$. The space ( $X, \tau_{\text {proj }}$ ) is called the projective limit of these pairs.

Given prebases $\mathscr{P}_{\gamma}$ of $\mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}$ consisting of absolutely convex sets, the zero neighbourhood filter $\mathscr{N}_{X}$ of ( $X, \tau_{\text {proj }}$ ) is generated, e.g., by the prebase $\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} v_{\gamma}^{-1}\left(\mathscr{P}_{X_{\gamma}}\right)=\left\{v_{\gamma}^{-1}(U) \mid U \in \mathscr{P}_{\gamma}, \gamma \in \Gamma\right\}$ or by the subbase $\cup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} v_{\gamma}^{-1}\left(\mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}\right)$.

Proposition 11.1. If all $X_{\gamma}$ are Hausdorff, then ( $X, \tau_{\text {proj }}$ ) is Hausdorff if and only if

$$
\bigcap_{\gamma} v_{\gamma}^{-1}(\{0\})=\{0\} .
$$

Proof. Proposition 2.7 says that $X$ is Hausdorff if and only if $\cap \mathscr{N}_{X}=\{0\}$. Note that, in general, given a filter $\mathscr{F}$ and its subbase $\mathscr{B}$, one has $\cap \mathscr{F}=\bigcap \mathscr{B}$. So

$$
\bigcap \mathscr{N}_{X}=\bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \bigcap_{U \in \mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}} v_{\gamma}^{-1}(U)=\bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} v_{\gamma}^{-1}\left(\bigcap \mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}\right)=\bigcap_{\gamma} v_{\gamma}^{-1}(\{0\}) .
$$

Proposition 11.2. Let $Y$ be an LCS. A linear operator $T: Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous if and only if so are all compositions $v_{\gamma} \circ T: Y \rightarrow X_{\gamma}$.

Proof. Sufficiency is clear. For the necessity, note that $T$ is continuous if and only if $T^{-1}(U) \in \mathscr{N}_{Y}$ for all $U$ in some prebase $\mathscr{P}_{X}$ of $\mathscr{N}_{X}$. So it is enough to check if $T^{-1}\left(v_{\gamma}^{-1}(U)\right)=\left(\nu_{\gamma} \circ T\right)^{-1}(U) \in \mathscr{N}_{Y}$ for all $U$ in some prebase of $\mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}$ for all $\gamma$. This is clearly equivalent to the continuity of $\nu_{\gamma} \circ T$ for all $\gamma$.
Proposition 11.3. A subset $E \subset X$ is $\tau_{\text {proj }}$-bounded if and only if $v_{\gamma}(E)$ is bounded for all $\gamma$.
Proof. As above, again it is enough to check if the set is absorbed by elements of some prebase of $\mathscr{N}_{X}$.
To check the validity of the first two examples, just check the equality of prebases for the projective limit and the usual definition.

Example 11.1. Let $X_{0} \subset X$. The induced subspace topology on $X_{0}$ is a projective limit of the pair $\{(X, i)\}$, where $i: X_{0} \rightarrow X$ is the injection map.
Example 11.2. Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair. The weak topology $\sigma(X, Y)$ is the projective limit of $\{(\mathbb{K}, f) \mid f \in Y\}$.
Example 11.3. Given a collection of topologies $\left\{\tau_{\gamma}\right\}_{\gamma}$ on $X$, the projective limit $\left\{\left(\left(X, \tau_{\gamma}\right), I_{X}\right) \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\right\}$ is the weakest LC topology generated by $\bigcup_{\gamma} \tau_{\gamma}$, where $I_{X}: X \rightarrow X$ is the identity.

Example 11.4. Any LC topology on $X$ defined by a system of seminorms $\left\{p_{\gamma}\right\}_{\gamma}$ is the weakest topology such that all the seminorms $p_{\gamma}$ are continuous. Thus it is the projective limit of seminormed spaces ( $X, p_{\gamma}$ ), more precisely, of pairs $\left\{\left(\left(X, p_{\gamma}\right), I_{X}\right)\right\}_{\gamma}$.
Example 11.5. Any LC topology on $X$ is a projective limit of normed spaces. Take the seminormed spaces ( $X, p_{\gamma}$ ) as above and consider vector spaces $X_{p}:=X / p^{-1}(0)$ equipped with the norm $\left\|x+p^{-1}(0)\right\|:=p(x)$ for every $p=p_{\gamma}$. Consider the operator $k_{p}: X \rightarrow X_{p}$ defined by $k_{p}(x)=x+p^{-1}(0)$. Note that $k_{p}^{-1}\left(B_{X_{p}}\right)=p^{-1}([0,1])$, so that the projective limit of $\left\{\left(X_{p}, k_{p}\right) \mid p \in\left\{p_{\gamma}\right\}_{\gamma}\right\}$ is exactly the original topology on $X$.
11.2. Product of locally convex spaces. Let $X$ as a vector space be equal to the product $\prod_{\gamma} X_{\gamma}=\left\{\left(x_{\gamma}\right) \mid x_{\gamma} \in X_{\gamma}\right\}$. Denote the projections by $\pi_{\gamma}: X \rightarrow X_{\gamma}$ and the injections by $j_{\gamma}: X_{\gamma} \rightarrow X$ defined by $\pi_{\gamma_{0}}\left(\left(x_{\gamma}\right)\right)=x_{\gamma_{0}}$ and

$$
j_{\gamma_{0}}(x)_{\gamma}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x, \text { if } \gamma=\gamma_{0} \\
0, \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Note that

$$
\bigcap_{\gamma} \pi_{\gamma}^{-1}(\{0\})=\{0\}
$$

Exercise 11.1. Prove that $j_{\gamma}$ is linear and injective.
Exercise 11.2. Check that $\pi_{\gamma} \circ j_{\gamma}=I_{X_{\gamma}}$ (identity) and $\pi_{v} \circ j_{\gamma}=0$ if $v \neq \gamma$.
Exercise 11.3. Check that $\left.\pi_{\gamma}\right|_{j_{\gamma}\left(X_{\gamma}\right)}=j_{\gamma}^{-1}$.
Consider the projective limit topology on $X$ defined by pairs $\left\{\left(X_{\gamma}, \pi_{\gamma}\right)_{\gamma}\right.$. The next proposition observes the fact that it coincides with the usual product topology.
Proposition 11.4. A net $\left(x^{\alpha}\right) \subset X$ converges to $x \in X$ if and only if $\pi_{\gamma}\left(x^{\alpha}\right) \rightarrow \alpha \pi_{\gamma}(x)$ for all $\gamma$.

Proof. It is enough to show that for a filter $\mathscr{F}$ on $X$ one has $\mathscr{F} \rightarrow 0$ if and only if $\pi_{\gamma}(\mathscr{F}) \rightarrow 0$ for all $\gamma$. This is true, because the former means that $\mathscr{N}_{X} \subset \mathscr{F}$ or, equivalently, $\mathscr{P}_{X} \subset \mathscr{F}$ for any prebase of $\mathscr{N}_{X}$, while the latter means $\mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}} \subset \pi_{\gamma}(\mathscr{F})^{\dagger}$ or $\pi_{\gamma}^{-1}\left(\mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}\right) \subset \mathscr{F}$.
Proposition 11.5. A net $\left(x^{\alpha}\right) \subset X$ is Cauchy if and only if the net $\left(\pi_{\gamma}\left(x^{\alpha}\right)\right)_{\alpha}$ is Cauchy for all $\gamma$.
Proof. This follows from the above by noticing that $T(\mathscr{F}-\mathscr{F})=T(\mathscr{F})-T(\mathscr{F})$ for any prefilter $\mathscr{F}$ and a linear operator $T$.

The next two observations are just special cases of their projective limit versions.
Proposition 11.6. Let $Y$ be an LCS. A linear operator $T: Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous if and only if so are all $\pi_{\gamma} \circ T, \gamma \in \Gamma$.
Proposition 11.7. A subset $E \subset X$ is bounded if and only if so are all $\pi_{\gamma}(E) \subset X_{\gamma}, \gamma \in \Gamma$.
Proposition 11.8. $X$ is Hausdorff if and only if so are all $X_{\gamma}, \gamma \in \Gamma$.
Proof. Proposition 11.1 gives the sufficiency. For the necessity note that $j_{\gamma}$ is injective and

$$
\bigcap \mathscr{N}_{X}=\bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \pi_{\gamma}^{-1}\left(\bigcap \mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}\right) \supset j_{\gamma}\left(\bigcap \mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}\right),
$$

because $j_{\gamma}\left(X_{\gamma}\right) \subset \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(0)$ if $\gamma \neq \beta$.
Proposition 11.9. A closed subset $E \subset X$ is complete if and only if $\pi_{\gamma}(E) \subset X_{\gamma}$ is complete for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.
Proof. Sufficiency. Using Propositions 11.6 and 11.5 for any Cauchy filter $\mathscr{F}$ on $E$ it is straightforward to obtain $x \in X$ such that $\mathscr{F} \rightarrow x$. Since $E$ is closed, $x \in E$. Necessity. Given a Cauchy net $\left(x_{\alpha}\right) \subset \pi_{\gamma}(E)$, note that $\left(j_{\gamma}\left(x_{\alpha}\right)\right) \subset E$ is Cauchy by Proposition 11.6, because $\pi_{\beta} \circ j_{\gamma}=0$ if $\beta \neq \gamma$, so that ( $j_{\gamma}\left(x_{\alpha}\right)$ ) converges to $x \in E$ and hence also $\left(\left(\pi_{\gamma} \circ j_{\gamma}\right) x_{\alpha}\right)=\left(x_{\alpha}\right)$ to $\pi_{\gamma}(x)$.
Corollary 11.10. The product of complete LC spaces is a complete LCS.
Proposition 11.11. A projective limit $\left(X_{0}, \tau_{\operatorname{proj}}\right)$ of $\left\{\left(X_{\gamma}, v_{\gamma}\right)\right\}_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$, such that $\bigcap_{\gamma} v_{\gamma}^{-1}(\{0\})=\{0\}$, is isomorphic to a subspace of $\Pi_{\gamma} X_{\gamma}$.
Proof. Define $T: X_{0} \rightarrow X:=\prod_{\gamma} X_{\gamma}$ by $T x=\left(v_{\gamma} x\right)_{\gamma}$. Then $T^{-1}(0)=\bigcap_{\gamma} v_{\gamma}^{-1}(\{0\})$, so that $T$ is injective and we get a linear $T^{-1}: T\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow X_{0}$. Note that $v_{\gamma}=\pi_{\gamma} \circ T$ and hence $\pi_{\gamma}=v_{\gamma} \circ T^{-1}$, so that both $T$ and $T^{-1}$ are continuous by Proposition 11.2.

Corollary 11.12. Every Hausdorff LCS is isomorphic to a subspace of a product of normed spaces.
Proof. This follows from Example 11.5, Proposition 11.1, and the above.
Proposition 11.13. Let $X=\prod_{\gamma} X_{\gamma}$. For every $\gamma, j_{\gamma}: X_{\gamma} \rightarrow j_{\gamma}\left(X_{\gamma}\right) \subset X$ is an isomorphism. If all $X_{\gamma}$ are Hausdorff, then $j_{\gamma}\left(X_{\gamma}\right)$ is closed in $X$.

Proof. Exercises 11.1 and 11.2, together with Proposition 11.2, give that $j_{\gamma}$ is linear and continuous. Exercise 11.3 gives that so is $j_{\gamma}^{-1}$, too. Note that $j_{\gamma}\left(X_{\gamma}\right)=\bigcap_{\beta \neq \gamma} \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(0)$ and that $\pi_{\beta}^{-1}(0)$ is closed if $X_{\beta}$ is Hausdorff.

## 12. Inductive limits. Bornological spaces.

12.1. Inductive limit topology. Fix a vector space $X$, for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$ fix locally convex spaces $X_{\gamma}$ and linear operators $u_{\gamma}: X_{\gamma} \rightarrow X$ such that

$$
X=\operatorname{span} \bigcup_{\gamma} u_{\gamma}\left(X_{\gamma}\right) .
$$

Definition. The strongest LC topology on $X$ such that all operators $u_{\gamma}$ are continuous is called the inductive limit topology (induced by pairs $\left\{\left(X_{\gamma}, u_{\gamma}\right) \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\right\}$ ). It is denoted by $\tau_{\text {ind }}$. The space ( $X, \tau_{\text {ind }}$ ) is called the inductive limit of these pairs.

Exercise 12.1. Prove that the topology $\tau_{\text {ind }}$ really exists.
Proposition 12.1. An absolutely convex absorbing set $U \subset X$ is a zero neighbourhood of $\tau_{\text {ind }}$ if and only if $u_{\gamma}^{-1}(U)$ is in $\mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

Proposition 12.2. A zero neighbourhood base of $\tau_{\text {ind }}$ is

$$
\mathscr{B}:=\left\{\operatorname{absconv} \bigcup_{\gamma} u_{\gamma}\left(V_{\gamma}\right) \mid V_{\gamma} \in \mathscr{N}_{X_{\gamma}}\right\} .
$$

Proposition 12.3. An inductive limit of barrelled spaces is a barrelled space.
Proposition 12.4. Let $Y$ be an LCS. A linear operator $T: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if so are all $T \circ u_{\gamma}: X_{\gamma} \rightarrow Y$, $\gamma \in \Gamma$. A set $A \subset L(X, Y)$ is equicontinuous if so are all $\left\{T \circ u_{\gamma} \mid T \in A\right\}, \gamma \in \Gamma$.

Let $\left\langle X, X^{\prime}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle Y, Y^{\prime}\right\rangle$ be dual pairs. The adjoint of a linear operator $T: X \rightarrow Y$ is the operator $T^{\prime}: Y^{\prime} \rightarrow X^{*}$ defined by $T^{\prime}(g)=g \circ T$. Note that (prove it!) $T^{\prime}\left(Y^{\prime}\right) \subset X^{\prime}$ if and only if $T$ is weakly continuous, that is, $T$ : $\left(X, \sigma\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, \sigma\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is continuous. If $X$ and $Y$ are Hausdorff LCS and $T: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous, then (prove it!) $T$ is weakly continuous, that is, $T^{\prime}\left(Y^{\prime}\right) \subset X^{\prime}$.

The inductive limit topology is a polar topology.
Proposition 12.5. If all $X_{\gamma}$ and $\left(X, \tau_{\text {ind }}\right)$ are Hausdorff LCS, then $\tau_{\text {ind }}=\mathscr{T}_{\mathscr{S}}$, where $\mathfrak{S}$ is the system of all sets $S \subset$ $\left(X, \tau_{\text {ind }}\right)^{\prime}$ such that $u_{\gamma}^{\prime}(S) \subset X_{\gamma}^{\prime}$ is $\tau_{\gamma}$-equicontinuous for all $\gamma$.

The inductive limit and the projective limit are dual in some sense.
Proposition 12.6. Let all $X_{\gamma}$ and ( $X, \tau_{\text {ind }}$ ) be Hausdorff LCS. Assume that for all $\gamma$, there is a certain polar topology $\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}_{\gamma}}$ on $X_{\gamma}^{\prime}$, where $\mathfrak{S}_{\gamma}$ is some system of $\sigma\left(X_{\gamma}, X_{\gamma}^{\prime}\right)$-bounded sets.

Denote by $\mathfrak{S}$ the system of all finite unions of sets of the form $u_{\gamma}\left(S_{\gamma}\right)$, where $S_{\gamma} \in \mathfrak{S}_{\gamma}$. Then the polar topology $\mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}}$ on $\left(X, \tau_{\text {ind }}\right)^{\prime}$ is the projective limit of $\left\{\left(\left(X_{\gamma}^{\prime}, \mathscr{T}_{\mathfrak{S}_{\gamma}}\right), u_{\gamma}^{\prime}\right)\right\}_{\gamma}$.
12.2. Bornological spaces. Note that (prove it!) a linear continuous operator $T$ between LC spaces $X$ and $Y$ is always bounded, that is, it maps bounded sets to bounded sets. Recall that for linear operators between normed spaces, we have the reverse: a linear operator is bounded if and only if it is continuous.
Definition. An LCS $X$ is a bornological space if every absolutely convex set $U \subset X$ that absorbs every bounded set, is a zero neighbourhood.

Proposition 12.7. Let $X$ be an LCS. The following are equivalent:
(a) $X$ is a bornological space,
(b) for every LCS Y every bounded linear operator $T: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous.

Proof. Schema for $(\mathrm{b}) \Longrightarrow$ (a): Take $U \subset X$ as in the definition of bornological spaces, then it is absorbing and hence its Minkowski functional $p_{U}$ is a seminorm. Note that the identity $i: X \rightarrow\left(X, p_{U}\right)$ is bounded and hence continuous. This implies that $U$ is a zero neighbourhood of $X$.

Note that (prove it!) if ( $X, \tau$ ) is a Hausdorff bornological space, then $\tau$ is the Mackey topology $\tau\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Recall that we had the similar claim for the metrizable spaces.

Proposition 12.8. Every metrizable LCS is bornological.
Proof. Adapt the proof of 9.13.
Proposition 12.9. An inductive limit of bornological spaces is bornological.
Proof. Use Prop. 12.7 together with Prop. 12.4.
The above two propositions imply that an inductive limit of metrizable LC spaces is bornological. This statement can be reversed in the following sense.

Theorem 12.10. A Hausdorff LCS is bornological if and only if it is an inductive limit of normed spaces. A complete Hausdorff LCS is bornological if and only if it is an inductive limit of Banach spaces.

The theorem above follows from
Lemma 12.11. Let $(X, \tau)$ be a Hausdorff LCS. On $X$, there exists the strongest LC topology $\tau^{\prime}$ with the same bounded sets as $\tau$. Moreover, $\left(X, \tau^{\prime}\right)$ is a bornological space and it is an inductive limit of vector subspaces of $X$ equipped with some norms. The topologies $\tau$ and $\tau^{\prime}$ coincide if and only if $(X, \tau)$ is bornological. If $(X, \tau)$ is complete, then $\left(X, \tau^{\prime}\right)$ is an inductive limit of Banach spaces.

Schema of the proof. Denote by $S$ the collection of all closed bounded absolutely convex sets in $(X, \tau)$. For every $A \in S$, its Minkowski functional $p_{A}$ is a norm on $X_{A}:=\operatorname{span} A$, the injections $u_{A}:\left(X_{A}, p_{A}\right) \rightarrow(X, \tau)$ are continuous (see the proof of Prop. 9.12), and $X=\bigcup_{A \in S} u_{A}\left(X_{A}\right)$. Define $\tau$ as the inductive limit of $\left\{\left(X_{A}, u_{A}\right) \mid A \in S\right\}$. Derive the rest of the claims.

## Remarks:

- In the proof of the above lemma, we can replace the system of all closed bounded absolutely convex sets $S$ with any of its fundamental systems $S_{0}$, that is, such that for every $A \in S$ there is $B \in S_{0}$ with $A \subset B$. This implies that if the space ( $X, \tau$ ) admits a countable fundamental system of bounded sets, then it can be represented as an inductive limit of countably many normed spaces.
- In general, the classes of bornological spaces and barrelled spaces are incomparable. However, using the above propositions we can prove (prove it!) that every complete Hausdorff bornological space is barrelled.


## 13. Special cases of inductive limits: Quotient, direct sum, strict inductive limit

13.1. Quotient space. Let $X$ be a vector space and let $M \subset X$ be its subspace. The set $X / M:=\{x+M \mid x \in X\} \subset 2^{X}$ becomes a vector space with $M$ being the zero element and addition and scalar multplication defined pointwise with the exception that $0 \cdot(x+M):=M$. (prove it!) $)$

This vector space $X / M$ is called the quotient of $X$ with respect to $M$. The canonical projection $k: X \rightarrow X / M$, $k: x \mapsto x+M$, is linear and surjective. (prove it!)

If $X$ is a TVS, then the prefilter $k(\mathscr{N})$ defines a linear topology on $X / M$, called the quotient topology. It is LC if $X$ is LC. Note that $k$ is continuous with respect to these topologies. (prove it!) $\mathbb{y}$

Proposition 13.1. Let $X$ be an LCS. The quotient topology on $X / M$ is Hausdorff if and only if $M$ is closed.
Proof. If $X / M$ is Hausdorff, then $\{M\} \subset X / M$ is closed, so that $k^{-1}(\{M\})=M$ is closed. On the other hand, note that $k^{-1} k(A)=A+M$ for all $A \subset X$, so that $k^{-1} k(\mathscr{N})=M+\mathscr{N}$ and

$$
\bigcap k(\mathscr{N})=k\left(\bigcap k^{-1} k(\mathscr{N})\right)=k(\bigcap(M+\mathscr{N}))=k(\bar{M})=\{M\},
$$

where the last equality holds if $M$ is closed.

Note that the quotient topology can be induced by seminorms $p_{k(U)}$ with absolutely convex $U \in \mathscr{B}$ forming a base of $\mathscr{N}$. Observe that $p_{k(U)}(x+M)=\inf \left\{p_{U}(y) \mid y \in x+M\right\}$.

It is important to note that the quotient topology is the inductive limit of $\{(X, k)\}$. (prove $i t$ !) $\mathbb{W}$ The above proposition then shows that the inductive limit of Hausdorff spaces may fail to be Hausdorff.

A special case of Proposition 12.3 is
Proposition 13.2. A quotient of a barrelled space is barrelled.
Proposition 13.3. Let $T$ be a linear operator between LC spaces $X$ and $Y$. Then $T$ can be factorized as $T=S \circ k$, where $S: X / \operatorname{ker} T \rightarrow Y$ is an injective linear operator and $k$ is the canonical projection onto $X / \operatorname{ker} T$. Moreover, $T$ is continuous if and only if so is $S$.

Proposition 13.4. The topological dual $(X / M)^{\prime}$ is algebraically isomorphic to $M^{\perp}:=\left\{f \in X^{\prime} \mid f(M)=\{0\}\right\} \subset X^{\prime}$.
Proof. The isomorphism is $k^{\prime}$, the adjoint of $k$, defined by $g \in(X / M)^{\prime} \mapsto g \circ k$.
Let $\langle X, Y\rangle$ be a dual pair and let a subspace $M \subset X$ separate points of $Y$. Then $\left\langle M, Y / M^{\perp}\right\rangle$ is a dual pair and
Proposition 13.5. $\sigma\left(M, Y / M^{\perp}\right)=\sigma(M, Y)=\left.\sigma(X, Y)\right|_{M}$.

