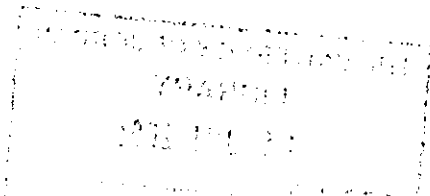


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An-Najah N. University

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THE S-PROPERTY AND BEST APPROXIMATION

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THE S-PROPERTY AND BEST APPROXIMATION

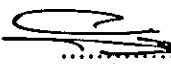
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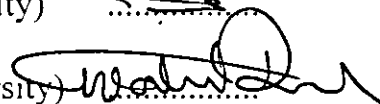
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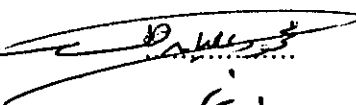
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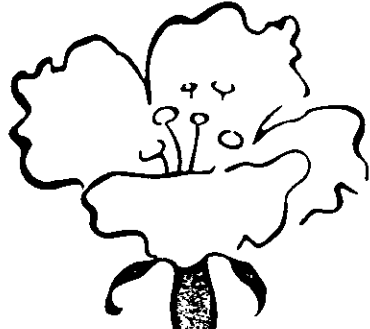


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الإهداء

إلى الذين فضلهم بلغ السماء
وسيظل رضاهم موضع الرجاء
إليكم والدي ووالدتي وأخوتي
حبا وعهداً مني بالوفاء

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Preface

The problem of best approximation is the problem of finding , for a given point x and a given set G in a normed space $(X, \|\cdot\|)$, a point g_0 in G which should be nearest to x among all points of the set G .

However , in our study , we shall mainly take as X not an arbitrary normed space but Orlicz space , we shall denote by $P(x,G)$, the set of all elements of best approximants of x in G .

$$\text{i.e } P(x,G) = \{ g_0 \in G : \|x - g_0\| = \inf \{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \} \}$$

The problem of best approximation began , in 1853 , with P. L. Chebyshev who considered the problem in the space of all real valued continuous function defined on $[a,b]$, a closed real interval in \mathbb{R} .

My thesis consist of four chapters . Each chapter is divided into sections . A number like 2.1.3 indicates item (definition , theorem , corollary or lemma) number 3 in section 1 of chapter 2 . Each chapter begins with a clear statement of the pertinent definitions and theorems together with illustrative and descriptive material . At the end of this thesis we present a collection of references .

In chapter (1) we introduce the basic results and definitions which shall be needed in the following chapters . The topics include projection , normed space , compactness , Hilbert space and measure theory . This chapter is absolutely fundamental . The results have been stated without proofs , for

theory may be looked up in any standard text book in Functional Analysis .
A reader who is familiar with these topics may skip this chapter and refer to it only when necessary .

Chapter (2) will be devoted to give an introduction to fundamental ideas of Best Approximation in Normed Space . We will start by introducing the definition of best approximants of $x \in X$ in a closed subspace G of X . We denote the set of all best approximation of x in G by $P(x,G)$. In section (2) we study the properties of $P(x,G)$. In section (3) we define proximal set and Chebyshev subspace , and we mention some conditions that can assure that G is proximal in X . Finally , we define L^p -summand and give a simpler proof for the fact that “every a closed subspace of a Hilbert space is proximal ” .

Chapter (3) has two purposes . First , we review the properties of Orlicz spaces . Second , we introduce some of the basic theory of proximality in Orlicz space . This material was designed to meet the needs of chapter (4) .

W. Deeb and R. Khalil proved the following results .

- (1) If G is 1-complemented in X , then G is proximal in X . [1 , p.529] .
- (2) If $L^\phi(\mu,G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu,X)$, then G is proximal in X . [3 , p.8] , [2 , p.297] , [4 , p.37] .
- (3) If $L^1(\mu,G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu,X)$, then $L^\infty(\mu,G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu,X)$. [1 , p.528] .

Some questions about proximality in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$ now suggest themselves .

(1) Let X be a Banach space and let G be proximal in X . Under what conditions can it be asserted that G is 1-complemented in X ?

(2) If G is proximal in X , Under what conditions can it be concluded that $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$? In particular , is the proximality of G in X a sufficient condition ?

(3) If $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$. Under what condition can be asserted that $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$.

These questions are addressed in the section (1) of chapter (4) .

The answer depends on the S-property .

Some interesting results have been achieved . Among of which it is shown that if G has the S-property then $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ has the S-property . It is also proved that if G has the S-property then

$$L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0)) = P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0) .$$

I ask our God to be our assistant to continue our efforts so as to achieve the hopes and desires of all scholars in mathematics .

Chapter 1

Preliminaries

This chapter contains some definitions and basic result about normed space , Hilbert space , compactness , Banach space , projection and measure theory which will be used in the subsequent chapters .

1. Normed Linear Spaces :

Definition 1.1.1 : [9 , p.35] . Let X be a linear space over K . A norm on X is a function $\|\cdot\| : X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ such that for $x, y \in X$ and $k \in K$, we have :

(i) $\|x\| \geq 0$ and $\|x\| = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$.

(ii) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$.

(iii) $\|kx\| = |k| \|x\|$.

A normed linear space X is a linear space X with a norm $\|\cdot\|$ on it .

Theorem 1.1.2 : [9 , p.35] .

(1) Every normed space is a metric space with respect to the metric

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

(2) For any two elements x and y of a normed space we have ,

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

(3) A norm is a real-valued continuous function .

Definition 1.1.3 : [9 , p.18] . Let $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed linear space and $G \subset X$. For $x \in X$, we define the distance of a point x from the subset G as :

$$d(x,G) = \inf \{ \|x - y\| : y \in G \}$$

Theorem 1.1.4 : [12 , p.147] . Let X be a normed linear space and G be a subspace of X , then

- (1) $d(x + g, G) = d(x, G)$ ($x \in X, g \in G$)
 (2) $d(x + y, G) \leq d(x, G) + d(y, G)$ ($x, y \in X$)
 (3) $d(\alpha x, G) = |\alpha| d(x, G)$ ($x \in X, \alpha = \text{scalar}$)
 (4) $|d(x, G) - d(y, G)| \leq \|x - y\|$ ($x, y \in X$)

Proof : For (1) . Let $x \in X$, $g \in G$ and $\epsilon > 0$ be arbitrary . By the definition of $d(x, G) = \inf \{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \}$ there exist $g_0 \in G$ s.t

$$\|x - g_0\| \leq d(x, G) + \epsilon$$

consequently , we have

$$d(x + g, G) \leq \|x + g - (g_0 + g)\| = \|x - g_0\| \leq d(x, G) + \epsilon$$

But $x \in X$, $g \in G$ and $\epsilon > 0$ were arbitrary , hence

$$d(x + g, G) \leq d(x, G) \quad (x \in X, g \in G) \dots\dots(1)$$

Applying these relation for $x + g \in X$ instead of x and $-g \in G$ instead of $g \in G$, we obtain

$$d(x, G) \leq d(x + g, G) \quad (x \in X, g \in G) \dots\dots(2)$$

From (1), (2) we get $d(x + g, G) = d(x, G)$ ($x \in X, g \in G$) .

For (2) of the theorem ; Let $x, y \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$ be arbitrary . By the definition of $d(x, G)$ and $d(y, G)$ there exist $g_1, g_2 \in G$ s.t

$$\|x - g_1\| \leq d(x, G) + \epsilon / 2, \quad \|y - g_2\| \leq d(y, G) + \epsilon / 2.$$

Consequently, we have

$$d(x+y, G) \leq \|x + y - (g_1 + g_2)\| \leq \|x - g_1\| + \|y - g_2\| \leq d(x, G) + d(y, G) + \epsilon$$

But $x, y \in X$, and $\epsilon > 0$ were arbitrary, hence

$$d(x + y, G) \leq d(x, G) + d(y, G) \quad (x, y \in X).$$

For (3) : Let $x \in X$, $\alpha \neq 0$ be a scalar and $\epsilon > 0$ be arbitrary and take $g_0 \in G$ satisfying

$$\|x - g_0\| \leq d(x, G) + \epsilon / |\alpha|$$

We have

$$d(\alpha x, G) \leq \|\alpha x - \alpha g_0\| = |\alpha| \|x - g_0\| \leq |\alpha| d(x, G) + \epsilon$$

But $x, \alpha \neq 0$ and ϵ were arbitrary, it follows that

$$d(\alpha x, G) \leq |\alpha| d(x, G) \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Applying this relation for αx instead of x and $1/\alpha$ instead of α we obtain

$$d(x, G) = d(1/\alpha \cdot \alpha x, G) \leq 1/|\alpha| d(\alpha x, G)$$

$$\text{Hence } |\alpha| d(x, G) \leq d(\alpha x, G) \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

From (1) and (2) and since $d(0, G) = 0$ we get

$$d(\alpha x, G) = |\alpha| d(x, G)$$

For (4) : Let $x, y \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$ be arbitrary and take $g_0 \in G$ satisfying

$$\|y - g_0\| \leq d(y, G) + \epsilon$$

We have

$$d(x,G) \leq \|x - g_0\| \leq \|x - y\| + \|y - g_0\| \leq \|x - y\| + d(y,G) + \epsilon$$

But x, y and ϵ were arbitrary, there follows

$$d(x,G) - d(y,G) \leq \|x - y\| \quad (x, y \in X)$$

In these relations, interchange x and y yields;

$$d(y,G) - d(x,G) \leq \|x - y\|$$

Hence $|d(x,G) - d(y,G)| \leq \|x - y\|$. ■

Definition 1.1.5 : [11, p.153].

1) A subset H of a vector space X is called a hyperplane if there exists a linear functional $f \neq 0$ defined on X such that

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

2) A subset H of a vector space X is called an affine hyperplane if there exists a linear functional $f \neq 0$ defined on X and a real number α such that

$$H = \{ x \in X : f(x) = \alpha \}.$$

Theorem 1.1.6 : [12, p.24]. Let X be a normed linear space, and $H = \{ y \in X, f(y) = \alpha \}$ be a hyperplane of X , f being a continuous linear functional on X , α a scalar and let $x \in X$. Then the distance of the point x to the hyperplane H is

$$d(x,H) = |f(x) - \alpha| / \|f\|$$

Theorem 1.1.7 : [7, p.74]. Every finite dimensional subspace G of a normed space X is closed in X .

Now for linear maps , we have the following theorem .

Theorem 1.1.8 : [11 , p.26] . Let X and Y be normed spaces .

- (a) A linear map $T : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if T is bounded .
- (b) The null space $N(T)$ of a non zero continuous linear map is a closed subspace of X .

2. Compactness :-

Definition 1.2.1 : [7 , p.77] . A metric space X is said to be compact if every sequence in X has a convergent subsequence . A subset M of X is said to be compact if every sequence in M has a convergent subsequence whose limit is an element of M .

A general property of compact sets is expressed in :

Lemma 1.2.2 : [7 , p.77] . A compact subset of a metric space is closed and bounded .

However , for a finite dimensional normed space we have :

Theorem 1.2.3 : [7 , p.77] . In a finite dimensional normed space X , a subset of X is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded .

In connection with continuous mapping a fundamental property is that compact sets have compact images , as follow we have :

Theorem 1.2.4 : [7 , p.81] . Let X and Y be metric spaces and $T : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous mapping . Then the image of a compact subset M of X is compact .

From this theorem we conclude that the following property, well-known from Calculus for continuous functions, carries over to metric space.

Theorem 1.2.5 : [7, p.81]. A continuous mapping T of a compact subset M of a metric space X into \mathbb{R} assumes its maximum and minimum on M .

3. Banach Space and Hilbert Space :-

Definition 1.3.1 : [7, p.58]. A complete normed space is called a Banach space.

Remark 1.3.2 : [9, p.47].

(1) The set of all bounded linear maps on a normed space X into a normed space Y is denoted by $B[X, Y]$. If $X = Y$, $B[X]$ denotes $B[X, X]$.

(2) The set of all bounded linear functionals on a normed space X is denoted by X^* .

For $f \in X^*$, any element $x \in X - \{0\}$ with the property that

$$f(x) = \|f\| \|x\| \text{ is called a maximal element of } f.$$

Definition 1.3.3 : [12, p.110]. A normed space X is strictly convex if and only if every functional $f \neq 0 \in X^*$ has at most one maximal element of norm 1. An equivalent form : a normed space X is strictly convex if

$$\|x + y\| = \|x\| + \|y\| \text{ and } \|x\| = \|y\| \text{ implies that } x = y.$$

Remark 1.3.4 : [11, p.32]. An arbitrary $f \in c^*$ can be expressed as

$$f(x) = y_0 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} y_n x_n \quad \text{where}$$

$x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) \in \mathbb{C}$ and $y = (y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots)$ such that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n| < \infty$ and

$$\|f\| = |y_0| + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|$$

Definition 1.3.5 : [9 , p.176] . Let X be a vector space over the field K . An inner product on X is a function

$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : X \times X \rightarrow K$ such that for all $x, x', y \in X$ and $\alpha \in K$.

$$(1) \langle x + x', y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle x', y \rangle$$

$$(2) \langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$$

$$(3) \overline{\langle x, y \rangle} = \langle y, x \rangle$$

$$(4) \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in X \quad \text{and} \quad \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \quad \text{iff} \quad x = 0 .$$

An inner product space is a linear space with an inner product on it .

Definition 1.3.6 : [9 , p.182] . A Hilbert space X is a Banach space in which the norm satisfies the parallelogram law .

$$\|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2 \|x\|^2 + 2 \|y\|^2, \quad x, y \in X$$

Definition 1.3.7 : [7 , p.131] . Two vectors x and y in an inner-product space are called orthogonal , (written $x \perp y$) , if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Theorem 1.3.8 : [7 , p.135] . Let X be an inner-product space and $x, y \in X$. Then for $x \perp y$ we have $\|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$.

In the case of a general Hilbert space X , we obtain an interesting representations of X as a direct sum of a closed subspace M and its orthogonal complement

$$M^\perp = \{ x \in X, x \perp M \}$$

which is the set of all vectors orthogonal to each member of M . The next theorem is sometimes called the projection theorem.

Theorem 1.3.9 : [11, p.96]. If M is a closed subspace of a Hilbert space X , then

$$X = M \oplus M^\perp$$

4. Projection :-

Definition 1.4.1 : [9, p.85]. If X is a normed space and $P \in B[X]$ satisfies $P^2 = P$, then P is called a projection.

Theorem 1.4.2 : [9, p.85]. If P is a projection on a Banach space X , and if M and N are its range and null space, respectively, then M and N are closed subspaces and

$$X = M \oplus N$$

Theorem 1.4.3 : [9, p.85]. Let X be a Banach space, and let M and N be closed subspace of X such that

$$X = M \oplus N$$

The mapping defined on each $z = x + y, x \in M, y \in N$ by $P(z) = x$ is a projection on X whose range is M and whose null space is N .

5. Lebesgue Measure and Integrable Function :-

In this section we shall review the theory of the Lebesgue measure and the p-integrable function .

Definition 1.5.1 : [10 , p.9] .

(a) A collection \mathcal{M} of subsets of a set X is said to be a σ -algebra of X if it has the following properties .

(i) $X \in \mathcal{M}$

(ii) If $A \in \mathcal{M}$, then $A^c \in \mathcal{M}$ where A^c is the complement of A relative to X .

(iii) If $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$, $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, then $A \in \mathcal{M}$.

(b) If \mathcal{M} is a σ -algebra in X , then X is called a measurable space , and the members of \mathcal{M} are called the measurable sets in X .

(c) If X is a measurable space , Y is a topological space , and f is a mapping of X into Y , then f is said to be measurable provided that $f^{-1}(V)$ is a measurable set in X for every open set V in Y .

For $E \subset X$, let χ_E denote the characteristic function of E ; i.e ,

$$\chi_E(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \in E \\ 0 & \text{if } t \notin E \end{cases}$$

It is measurable iff E is measurable .

Definition 1.5.2 : [8 , p.113] . A function $f : T \rightarrow X$ is said to be simple if its range contains only finitely many points x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n and if $f^{-1}(x_i)$ is measurable for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Such a function then can be written as

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \chi_{E_i} \text{ where for each } i, E_i = f^{-1}(x_i) . \text{ Define}$$

$$\int_E f d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \mu(E_i \cap E)$$

If f is a non-negative measurable function on E , define

$$\int_E f d\mu = \sup \left\{ \int_E s d\mu : 0 \leq s \leq f, s \text{ is simple and measurable on } E \right\}$$

Definition 1.5.3 : [10 , p.17] .

(a) A measure is a function μ , defined on a σ -algebra \mathcal{M} , whose range is in $[0, \infty]$ and which is countably additive . This means that if $\{A_n\}$ is a disjoint countable collection of members of \mathcal{M} , then

$$\mu \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$$

(b) A measure space is a measurable space which has a measure defined on the σ -algebra of its measurable sets .

A property which is true except for a set of measure zero is said to hold almost everywhere .

Remark 1.5.4 : [10 , p.21] . The following propositions are immediate consequences of the definitions . Functions and sets are assumed to be measurable on a measure space E .

(a) If $0 \leq f \leq g$ then $\int_E f \leq \int_E g$.

(b) If $A \subset B$ and $f > 0$, then $\int_A f d\mu \leq \int_B f d\mu$.

(c) If c is constant, then $\int_E c d\mu = c\mu(E)$.

(d) If $E = E_1 \cup E_2$ where E_1 and E_2 are disjoint, then

$$\int_E f d\mu = \int_{E_1} f d\mu + \int_{E_2} f d\mu$$

(e) If $f \geq 0$ and $\int_E f d\mu = 0$, then $f = 0$ almost everywhere on E .

Definition 1.5.5 : [1, p.527]. Let X be a real Banach space, and (T, μ) be a finite measure space. The space of Bochner p -integrable functions defined on (T, μ) with values in a Banach space X is denoted $L^p(\mu, X)$.

For $f \in L^p(\mu, X)$, we write

$$\|f\|_p = \begin{cases} \left(\int_T \|f(t)\|^p d\mu(t) \right)^{1/p} & 1 \leq p < \infty \\ \int_T \|f(t)\|^p d\mu(t) & 0 < p < 1 \\ \text{ess. sup}_{t \in T} \|f(t)\| & p = \infty \end{cases}$$

where $\text{ess. sup}_{t \in T} \|f(t)\| = \inf \{ M : \mu \{ t : \|f(t)\| > M \} = 0 \}$.

Chapter 2

Approximation in Normed Spaces

1. Introduction : Let $X = (X, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space, G be a subspace of X and $x \in X$, an element $g_0 \in G$ is called a **best approximant** of x in G if

$$\|x - g_0\| = d(x, G) = \inf \{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \} .$$

We see that for $x \in X$ a best approximant $g_0 \in G$ is an element of minimal distance from the given x . Such a $g_0 \in G$ may or may not exist.

We shall denote the set of all elements of best approximants of x in G by $P(x, G)$ i.e $P(x, G) = \{ g \in G : \|x - g\| = d(x, G) \} .$

2. The Set of Best Approximants :-

In this section, we introduce some basic properties of $P(x, G)$, we use the book of Erwin Kreyszig for this purpose, so we start with the following.

Example 2.2.1 : Let $X = (X, \|\cdot\|_1)$ be the normed space of ordered pairs $x = (x_1, x_2)$ of real numbers with norm defined by $\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| .$

Let us take $x = (1, -1)$ and the subspace $G = \{ g = (g_1, g_1) : g_1 \in \mathbf{R} \}$ then for all $g \in G$, we clearly have

$$\|x - g\|_1 = |1 - g_1| + |-1 - g_1| \geq |1 - g_1 + 1 + g_1| = 2 .$$

Hence $d(x, G) \geq 2$ (1)

Also $(1, 1) \in G$, and $d(x, G) \leq \|x - (1, 1)\| = 2$ (2)

From (1) and (2) we get $d(x, G) = 2$ and

$$P(x,G) = \{ g \in G : g = (g_1, g_1) \text{ and } |g_1| \leq 1 \} .$$

From this example we conclude that $P(x,G)$ need not be a subspace .

Theorem 2.2.2 : Let G be a subspace of a normed space X .

(i) if $x \in G$, then $P(x,G) = \{x\}$.

(ii) if G is not closed and $x \in \overline{G} \setminus G$, then $P(x,G) = \phi$.

Proof :- For (i) , let $x \in G$, then $\inf \{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \} = 0$. Thus , if $y \in P(x,G)$ then $\|x - y\| = 0$ hence $x = y$ since X is a normed space .

For (ii) , let $x \in \overline{G} \setminus G$. This means that $\forall n \in \mathbf{N}$, $\exists x_n \in G$

s.t $\|x_n - x\| \leq 1/n$. i.e $d(x,G) = 0$. Hence $P(x,G) = \phi$. ■

Now provided $P(x,G) \neq \phi$, we shall prove that either $P(x,G)$ contains exactly one element or else an infinite number of elements .

Theorem 2.2.3 : Let X be a normed space , $x \in X$, and let G be a subspace of X , then $P(x,G)$ is a convex set .

Proof : Let δ be the distance from x to G . The statement holds if $P(x,G)$ is empty or has just one point . Now suppose that $y, z \in P(x,G)$ such that $y \neq z$. So

$$\|x - y\| = \|x - z\| = \delta .$$

We will show that if $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$, and if

$$w = \alpha y + (1 - \alpha)z , \text{ then } w \in P(x,G)$$

to show this :

$$\begin{aligned}
\|x - w\| &= \|x - (\alpha y + (1 - \alpha)z)\| \\
&= \|x - \alpha y - (1 - \alpha)z + \alpha x - \alpha x\| \\
&= \|\alpha(x - y) + (1 - \alpha)(x - z)\| \\
&\leq \alpha \|x - y\| + (1 - \alpha) \|x - z\| \\
&= \alpha \delta + (1 - \alpha)\delta \\
&= \delta
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\|x - w\| \leq \delta \dots\dots\dots(1)$

Also $w \in G$, since G is a subspace, so ; $\delta \leq \|x - w\| \dots\dots\dots(2)$

From (1) and (2) we get that $\|x - w\| = \delta$, so $w \in P(x, G)$. Since

$y, z \in P(x, G)$ were arbitrary ; $P(x, G)$ is convex. ■

Theorem 2.2.4 : Let G be a subspace of a normed space X , then for $x \in X$.

(i) $P(x, G)$ is a bounded set .

(ii) If G is a closed subspace, then $P(x, G)$ is a closed set .

Proof : For (i), let $g_0 \in P(x, G)$, we have by definition $\|x - g_0\| = \delta$ where

$$\delta = \inf \{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \} .$$

Now $\|g_0\| = \|g_0 - x + x\|$

$$\leq \|g_0 - x\| + \|x\|$$

$$\leq \|x\| + \|x\| , \quad \text{since } 0 \in G$$

$$= 2 \|x\|$$

Thus $P(x,G)$ is bounded .

For (ii) , we show that if a sequence $(g_n) \in P(x,G)$ such that $g_n \rightarrow g$ then $g \in P(x,G)$. Now $g_n \in P(x,G) \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, so $\|x - g_n\| = d(x,G) = \delta$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Also $g_n \in G$. Since G is a closed subspace , then $g \in G$.

But the function $F_x : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $F_x(g) = \|x - g\| \forall g \in G$ is continuous by part (3) of Theorem (1.1.2) . So $F_x(g_n) \rightarrow F_x(g)$ implies that

$$\|x - g_n\| \rightarrow \|x - g\|$$

But $\|x - g_n\| = \delta \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, so $\|x - g\| = \delta$.

Therefore $g \in P(x,G)$. ■

Theorem 2.2.5 : Let G be a subspace of a normed space X . For $x \in X$:

- (i) if $z \in P(x,G)$ then $\alpha z \in P(\alpha x, G)$ for all scalars α .
- (ii) if $z \in P(x,G)$ then $z + g \in P(x + g, G)$ for all $g \in G$.

Proof : For (i) ; if $g \in G$ and α a scalar $\neq 0$ we have

$$\|\alpha x - g\| = |\alpha| \|x - (1/\alpha).g\| \geq |\alpha| \|x - z\| = \|\alpha x - \alpha z\|$$

Thus $\alpha z \in P(\alpha x, G)$.

For (ii) ; if $g' \in G$ we have

$$\|x + g - g'\| \geq \|x - z\| = \|x + g - (z + g)\|$$

whence $z + g \in P(x + g, G)$. ■

An element x of a normed linear space X is said to be **orthogonal** to an

element $y \in X$, and we write $x \perp y$, if we have $\|x + \alpha y\| \geq \|x\|$ for every scalar α . In a Hilbert space X we have $x \perp y$ if and only if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

An element x of a normed linear space X is said to be orthogonal to a set $G \subset X$ and we write $x \perp G$, if we have $x \perp g$ ($g \in G$).

The relationship between orthogonality and best approximation is given by the following theorem.

Theorem 2.2.6 : [12, p.92]. Let X be a normed space, G a subspace of X , $x \in X \setminus \overline{G}$ and $g_0 \in G$. We have $g_0 \in P(x, G)$ if and only if $x - g_0 \perp G$.

Proof : By the definition, orthogonality means that

$$\|x - g_0 + \alpha g\| \geq \|x - g_0\| \quad (g \in G, \alpha = \text{scalar})$$

and this is obviously equivalent to saying that $g_0 \in P(x, G)$. ■

3. Proximinal Set :-

Theorem 2.2.2 shows that if X is a normed space and G a subspace of X , then for every $x \in G$ the set $P(x, G)$ is non empty, and if the subspace G is not closed, then for every $x \in \overline{G} \setminus G$ the set $P(x, G)$ is empty. Furthermore, for the elements x of $X \setminus \overline{G}$ the set $P(x, G)$ may or may not be empty. The subspaces $G \subset X$ which have the property that $P(x, G) \neq \emptyset$ for every $x \in X$ are called **proximinal sets in X** . Some authors use the term distance set, or existence set for proximinal sets.

Remark 2.3.1 : In a normed spaces X , the condition that G is a closed

subspace of X is not sufficient for G to be proximal in X as shown by the following example .

Example : Let $X = c_0$ = the space of all sequences of complex numbers that converge to zero , with norm $\|x\| = \sup_n |x_n|$, and let

$$G = \{ x = (x_n) \in c_0 : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} x_n = 0 \} .$$

G is closed but not proximal . To show that define a linear functional

$$f : c_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \text{ by } f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} x_n \text{ for all } x = (x_n) \in c_0 .$$

Then $f \in c_0^*$ and $\|f\| = 1$ by Remark (1.3.4) and hence G is a closed subspace of c_0 by part (2) of Theorem (1.1.8) .

Now let $x = e^{(1)} = (1,0,0,\dots) \in c_0$.

Then $d(e^{(1)},G) = 1/2$ by Theorem (1.1.6) .

We claim that there does not exist any $g \in G$ s.t $\|e^{(1)} - g\| = 1/2$.

Assume on the contrary that $\exists g = (g_i) \in G$ s.t $\|e^{(1)} - g\| = 1/2$, then

$$|1 - g_1| \leq 1/2 \text{ and}$$

$$|g_k| \leq 1/2 \text{ for all } k \geq 2 . \text{ Since } \sum 2^{-n} g_n = 0 , \text{ we get that}$$

$$1/4 \leq 1/2 |g_1| = \left| \sum_{n \geq 2} 2^{-n} g_n \right| \leq \sum_{n \geq 2} 2^{-n} |g_n| \leq 1/2 \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 2^{-n} = 1/4 \dots\dots\dots *$$

So we must have equalities in (*), and that can happen only if $|g_n| = 1/2$ for all n . But this contradicts our assumption that $g \in c_0$. Thus G is not proximal in c_0 . ■

We call a linear subspace G of a normed space X a **semi-Chebyshev** subspace if for every $x \in X$ the set $P(x,G)$ contains at most one element .

An example of such subspaces is that of the subspaces G with the property that the set $P(x,G)$ is empty for all $x \in X \setminus G$. We will see such a space in Remark (4.1.2) . G is called a **Chebyshev subspace** if it is simultaneously proximal and semi-Chebyshev . i.e if for every $x \in X$ the set $P(x,G)$ contains exactly one element .

Theorem 2.3.2 : For a subspace G of a normed space X , the following are equivalent :

(i) G is proximal in X .

(ii) $X = G + P_G^{-1}(0)$ where $P_G^{-1}(0) = \{ x \in X : 0 \in P(x,G) \}$.

Proof : If G is proximal and $x \in X$, $g_0 \in P(x,G)$, then

$$x = g_0 + (x - g_0) \in G + P_G^{-1}(0) .$$

Conversely if we have (ii) and $x \in X$, $x = g_0 + y$ where $g_0 \in G$, $y \in P_G^{-1}(0)$ then $0 \in P(y,G) = P(x - g_0,G)$, implies $d(x - g_0,G) = \|x - g_0\|$.

$$\Rightarrow d(x,G) = \|x - g_0\| . \text{ Hence } g_0 \in P(x,G) . \quad \blacksquare$$

Theorem 2.3.3 : Let G be a compact subspace of a normed space X , then G is proximal in X .

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Proof : Fix $x \in X$, since the mapping $T_x : G \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ defined by $T_x(g) = \|x - g\|$ is continuous by part (3) of Theorem (1.1.2) , then $T(G) \subset \mathbf{R}$ is compact by

Theorem (1.2.4). So $T(G)$ is closed and bounded in \mathbf{R} by Theorem (1.2.3) .

Theorem (1.2.5) implies $\inf T(G) \in T(G) = \{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \}$. Hence there exists $g_0 \in G$ such that $\|x - g_0\| = \inf \{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \}$. This proves that $g_0 \in P(x,G)$. Since x is an arbitrary , $P(x,G) \neq \phi$ for all $x \in X$. ■

While compactness of G is a sufficient condition for a best approximant to exist , it is clearly not necessary . For , consider the noncompact subspace $G = \{ (x,0) : x \in \mathbf{R} \}$ of \mathbf{R}^2 . Clearly G is proximal in \mathbf{R}^2 .

Corollary 2.3.4 : Every closed and bounded subspace of a finite dimensional normed space X is proximal in X .

Proof : Every closed and bounded subspace of a finite dimensional space is compact by Theorem (1.2.3) . ■

Theorem 2.3.5 : Let G be a finite dimensional subspace of a normed space X , then G is proximal in X .

Proof : Let $x \in X$ be given , consider the closed Ball .

$$\bar{B} = \{ g \in G : \|g\| \leq 2 \|x\| \}$$

Then $0 \in \bar{B}$, so that for the distance from x to \bar{B} we obtain

$$d(x, \bar{B}) = \inf \{ \|x - g'\| : g' \in \bar{B} \} \leq \|x - 0\| = \|x\|$$

Now if $g \in G$ and $g \notin \bar{B}$, then $\|g\| > 2 \|x\|$ and

$$\|x - g\| \geq \|g\| - \|x\| > \|x\| \geq d(x, \bar{B}) \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

If $g \in G$ and $g \in \overline{B}$, then $d(x, \overline{B}) \leq \|x - g\| \dots\dots\dots(2)$

(1) and (2) imply that $d(x, \overline{B})$ is a lower bound of the set

$$\{ \|x - g\| : g \in G \} .$$

Hence $d(x, \overline{B}) \leq d(x, G)$.

Also $\overline{B} \subset G \Rightarrow d(x, G) \leq d(x, \overline{B})$.

This shows that $d(x, \overline{B}) = d(x, G)$. Since \overline{B} is closed and bounded and since G is finite dimensional ; Theorem (1.2.3) implies \overline{B} is compact .

Theorem (2.3.3) implies that \overline{B} is proximal in X . Hence, if a best approximant to x exists, it must lie in \overline{B} . Thus G is proximal in X . ■

It is not possible to drop the finite dimensional requirement of this theorem. For, let X be the space of continuous functions defined on $[0, 1/2]$ with L^∞ norm. i.e $\|f\|_\infty = \max_{0 \leq x \leq 1/2} |f(x)|$.

Let G be the subspace of polynomials, and let $g(x) = 1/(1-x)$. For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a polynomial p_ϵ such that $|g(x) - p_\epsilon(x)| < \epsilon$ for all $x \in [0, 1/2]$ [Weierstrass Approximation Theorem].

Hence $d(g, G) = 0$. However, since g is not a polynomial, we see that there is no $p \in G$ satisfying $d(g, G) = \|g - p\| = 0$.

We present the following example to show that proximal subspaces need

not be finite dimensional ; thus proving that the converse of the foregoing theorem is not true .

Example 2.3.6 : The infinite dimensional subspace c_0 of c is proximal in c .

Proof : On c , define the linear functional f by $f(x) = \lim x_n = \mathbf{x}$.

Then $c_0 = \{ x = (x_n) \in c : f(x) = 0 \}$ is the hyperplane of c and $d(x,c) = |\mathbf{x}|$ by Theorem (1.1.6) .

Let $g = (g_n)$ be defined as , $g_n = x_n - \mathbf{x}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } g \in c_0 \text{ and } \|x - g\| &= \sup \{ |x_n - g_n| : n \in \mathbf{N} \} \\ &= \sup \{ |x_n - (x_n - \mathbf{x})| : n \in \mathbf{N} \} \\ &= |\mathbf{x}| \end{aligned}$$

Hence $d(x,c) = \|x - g\|$ and so ; $g \in P(x,c)$.

Since x was arbitrary ; c_0 is proximal in c . ■

Theorem 2.3.7: [12 , p.93] . Let X be a normed space and G a hyperplane in X , passing through 0 . G is proximal in X if and only if there exists an element $z \in X - \{0\}$ such that $0 \in P(z,G)$. (i.e $z \perp G$) .

Proof : Assume that G is proximal and take arbitrary $x \in X - G$, $y_0 \in P(x,G)$. Then for $z = x - y_0 \neq 0$ we have $0 \in P(z,G)$.

Conversely , assume that there exists $z \in X - \{0\}$ such that $0 \in P(z,G)$ and let $x \in X - G$ be arbitrary .

Take $f \in X^*$ such that

$$G = \{ y \in X : f(y) = 0 \},$$

and put

$$y_0 = x - (f(x) / f(z)) z$$

(we have $f(z) \neq 0$ since, otherwise $z \in G$, so $0 \in P(z, G) = \{z\}$, and hence $z = 0$, a contradiction to the hypothesis).

We have then

$$f(y_0) = 0$$

Whence $y_0 \in G$. Also, since $(f(z) / f(x)) (y - y_0) \in G$ for every $y \in G$, we have

$$\|x - y_0\| = |f(x) / f(z)| \|z\| \leq |f(x) / f(z)| \|z - (f(z) / f(x)) (y - y_0)\| = \|x - y\|$$

Whence $y_0 \in P(x, G)$. Since $x \in X - G$ has been arbitrary, it follows that G is proximal in X . ■

4. Approximation in Hilbert space

Before we prove that all closed subspaces of a Hilbert space are proximal we need the following definition.

Definition 2.4.1 : [6, p.279]. A closed subspace G of a Banach space X is called an L^p -summand, $1 \leq p < \infty$, if there is a bounded projection $P : X \rightarrow G$ which is onto, and $\|x\|^p = \|P(x)\|^p + \|x - P(x)\|^p$ for all $x \in X$.

Theorem 2.4.2 : If G is an L^p -summand of a Banach space X , then G is proximal in X . $1 \leq p < \infty$.

Proof : Let $x \in X$, for every $g \in G$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - g\|^p &= \|P(x - g)\|^p + \|x - g - P(x - g)\|^p \\ &= \|P(x) - g\|^p + \|x - P(x)\|^p \\ &\geq \|x - P(x)\|^p \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\|x - g\| \geq \|x - P(x)\|$

i.e $P(x) \in P(x, G)$. Thus G is proximal in X . ▮

Erwin kreyszig [7] proved that if G is a closed subspace of a Hilbert space X , then G is proximal in X . He used Cauchy sequence and parallelogram law to prove this theorem. Here we give a simpler proof.

Theorem 2.4.3 : Let G be any closed subspace of a Hilbert space X , then G is a Chebyshev subspace.

Proof : Since G is a closed subspace of a Hilbert space X . Theorem (1.3.9) implies $X = G \oplus G^\perp$ where $G^\perp = \{ g \in X : g \perp G \}$. Hence every element $x \in X$ has a unique representation i.e $x = g + z$ where $g \in G$, $z \in G^\perp$. Now we define the projection $P : X \rightarrow G$ by $P(x) = g$. Clearly P is onto and bounded.

Also if $x = g + z$ and $z \perp g$ then $\|z + g\|^2 = \|z\|^2 + \|g\|^2$ by Theorem (1.3.8), so $\|x\|^2 = \|x - P(x)\|^2 + \|P(x)\|^2$ i.e G is an L^2 -summand of X , hence Theorem (2.4.2) implies that G is proximal in X .

Now we show that $P(x, G)$ contains exactly one element.

Let $x \in X$, assume $g_1, g_2 \in P(x, G)$ such that $g_1 \neq g_2$. Since $g_1, g_2 \in G$ and G is subspace, then $(g_1 + g_2)/2 \in G$. By the parallelogram law for :

$(x - g_1)/2$ and $(x - g_2)/2$ we have

$$\|(x - g_1)/2 + (x - g_2)/2\|^2 + \|(x - g_1)/2 - (x - g_2)/2\|^2 = 2 \|(x - g_1)/2\|^2 + 2 \|(x - g_2)/2\|^2$$

or $\|x - (g_1 + g_2)/2\|^2 < 1/2 \|x - g_1\|^2 + 1/2 \|x - g_2\|^2 = [d(x, G)]^2$. This implies that $\|x - (g_1 + g_2)/2\| < d(x, G)$.

Which contradicts the definition of $d(x, G)$. Hence G is a Chebyshev subspace. ■

Corollary 2.4.4 : Any closed subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , \mathbb{C}^n is a Chebyshev subspace.

Chapter 3

Best Approximation in Orlicz Space

1. Orlicz Spaces :

In order to study Orlicz spaces , it is necessary to introduce the definition of modulus functions .

Definition 3.1.1 : [5 , p.159] . A function $\phi : [0,\infty)\rightarrow[0,\infty)$ is called a modulus function if the following are satisfied :

- (i) ϕ is continuous at zero from the right and strictly increasing .
- (ii) $\phi(0) = 0$.
- (iii) ϕ is subadditive i.e $\phi(x + y) \leq \phi(x) + \phi(y)$. $\forall x,y \in [0,\infty)$

Examples of such functions are $\phi(x) = x^p$, $0 < p \leq 1$, and $\phi(x) = \ln(1+x)$.

In fact , if ϕ is a modulus function and $a \geq 0$ then $\Psi_1(x) = \phi(x) / (1+\phi(x))$ and $\Psi_2(x) = a\phi(x)$ are modulus functions . Further , the composition of two modulus functions is a modulus function .

Theorem 3.1.2 : Every modulus function is continuous on $[0,\infty)$.

Proof : Let $x_0 \in [0,\infty)$. We show that ϕ is continuous at x_0 , i.e

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \phi(x) = \phi(x_0)$. At first we show that

$$|\phi(x) - \phi(y)| \leq \phi(|x - y|) \text{ for all } x,y \in [0,\infty) .$$

Now $|x| = |x - y + y| \leq |x - y| + |y|$, since ϕ is strictly increasing and subadditive we get $\phi(|x|) \leq \phi(|x - y|) + \phi(|y|)$.

So $\phi(|x|) - \phi(|y|) \leq \phi(|x - y|)$ (1)

Also

$|y| = |y - x + x| \leq |x - y| + |x|$, implies $\phi(|y|) - \phi(|x|) \leq \phi(|x - y|)$ (2)

From (1) and (2) we get :

$$|\phi(|x|) - \phi(|y|)| \leq \phi(|x - y|) \quad \text{for all } x, y \in [0, \infty).$$

Now given $\epsilon > 0$, there exist $\delta(\epsilon) > 0$ such that if $0 < x < \delta(\epsilon)$ then $|\phi(x)| < \epsilon$, because ϕ is continuous at 0. But $|\phi(x) - \phi(x_0)| \leq \phi(|x - x_0|) < \epsilon$ if $|x - x_0| < \delta(\epsilon)$. Hence ϕ is continuous at x_0 . Since x_0 is arbitrary, ϕ is continuous on $[0, \infty)$. ■

Definition 3.1.3 : [5, p.159]. Let X be a real Banach space, and (T, μ) be finite measure space. For a given modulus function ϕ , we define the Orlicz space as :

$$L^\phi(\mu, X) = \left\{ f : T \rightarrow X : \int_T \phi(\|f(t)\|) d\mu(t) < \infty \right\}.$$

The function $d : L^\phi(\mu, X) \times L^\phi(\mu, X) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$, given by

$$d(f, g) = \int_T \phi(\|f(t) - g(t)\|) d\mu(t)$$

defines a metric on $L^\phi(\mu, X)$, under which it becomes a complete metric linear space [4, p.70].

For $f \in L^\phi(\mu, X)$, we write

$$\|f\|_\phi = \int_T \phi(\|f(t)\|) d\mu(t).$$

The spaces of p -Bochner integrable functions $L^p(\mu, X)$, $0 < p \leq 1$, by Definition (1.5.5) are reduced to be a special case of the Orlicz space under the modulus function $\phi(x) = x^p$ $0 < p \leq 1$.

The following theorem relates $L^1(\mu, X)$ and $L^\phi(\mu, X)$ for all modulus functions ϕ .

Theorem 3.1.4 : [5, p.159]. If ϕ is a modulus function, then

$$L^1(\mu, X) \subset L^\phi(\mu, X).$$

Proof : For each real number x , we have $[x] \leq x < [x] + 1$; where $[]$ denotes the greatest integer function. But ϕ is strictly increasing and subadditive, then

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x) &\leq \phi([x] + 1) \leq \phi([x]) + \phi(1) \leq [x] \phi(1) + \phi(1) \\ &\leq x \phi(1) + \phi(1) = (x + 1) \phi(1). \end{aligned}$$

If $x > 1$, then $\phi(x) \leq 2x \phi(1)$; and if $x \leq 1$, then $\phi(x) \leq \phi(1)$.

Now, let $f \in L^1(\mu, X)$, and let $A = \{ t \in T : \|f(t)\| \leq 1 \}$

$$B = \{ t \in T : \|f(t)\| > 1 \}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_\phi &= \int_T \phi(\|f(t)\|) d\mu(t) \\ &= \int_A \phi(\|f(t)\|) d\mu(t) + \int_B \phi(\|f(t)\|) d\mu(t) \\ &\leq \int_T \phi(1) d\mu(t) + \int_T 2 \|f(t)\| \phi(1) d\mu(t) \\ &\leq \phi(1) \mu(T) + 2\phi(1) \|f\|_1 < \infty \quad \text{since } f \in L^1(\mu, X). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $f \in L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

2. Best Approximation in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$

In this section we investigate when $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$ where G is a closed subspace of a Banach space X .

We present the following useful theorem.

Theorem 3.2.1 : [4 , p.73] . Let G be a closed subspace of a Banach space X , if g is a best approximant of f in $L^\phi(\mu, G)$. Then $g(t)$ is a best approximant of $f(t)$ in G for almost all $t \in T$.

The following theorem establishes the relation between proximality in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$ and $L^1(\mu, X)$.

Theorem 3.2.2 : [4 , p.73] . Let G be a closed subspace of Banach space X , the following are equivalent :

- (i) $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$.
- (ii) $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$.

Proof : (i)→(ii) . Let $f \in L^1(\mu, X)$, since $L^1(\mu, X) \subset L^\phi(\mu, X)$ then $f \in L^\phi(\mu, X)$, but $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$ so there exist $g \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$ such that

$$\|f - g\|_\phi \leq \|f - h\|_\phi \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G) .$$

Theorem (3.2.1) implies

$$\|f(t) - g(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - y\| \quad \forall y \in G \text{ for almost all } t \in T \dots (1)$$

Since $0 \in G$ we get

$$\|f(t) - g(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - 0\| = \|f(t)\|$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \|g(t)\| &= \|g(t) - f(t) + f(t)\| \\ &\leq \|g(t) - f(t)\| + \|f(t)\| \\ &\leq 2 \|f(t)\| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $g \in L^1(\mu, G)$.

From (1) we get

$$\|f(t) - g(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - h(t)\| \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G) \text{ a.e.t}$$

Integrating both sides we get

$$\|f - g\|_1 \leq \|f - h\|_1 \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G).$$

Therefore $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$.

Conversely, (ii) \rightarrow (i). Define the map $J : L^\phi(\mu, X) \rightarrow L^1(\mu, X)$ by $J(f) = \hat{f}$

where

$$\hat{f}(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\phi(\|f(t)\|)}{\|f(t)\|} f(t) & f(t) \neq 0 \\ 0 & f(t) = 0 \end{cases}$$

At first we show that $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mu, X)$

$$\|\hat{f}\|_1 = \int_T \|\hat{f}(t)\| d\mu(t)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int_{\mathcal{T}} \frac{\phi(\|f(t)\|)}{\|f(t)\|} \|f(t)\| \, d\mu(t) \\
&= \int_{\mathcal{T}} \phi(\|f(t)\|) \, d\mu(t) \\
&= \|f\|_{\phi} < \infty .
\end{aligned}$$

Second , we claim that J is onto .

$$\text{Let } g \in L^1(\mu, X) \text{ and let } f(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\phi^{-1}(\|g(t)\|)}{\|g(t)\|} g(t) & g(t) \neq 0 \\ 0 & g(t) = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Then } \|f\|_{\phi} &= \int_{\mathcal{T}} \phi(\|f(t)\|) \, d\mu(t) \\
&= \int_{\mathcal{T}} \phi\left[\frac{\phi^{-1}(\|g(t)\|)}{\|g(t)\|} \|g(t)\|\right] \, d\mu(t) \\
&= \int_{\mathcal{T}} \|g(t)\| \, d\mu(t) \\
&= \|g\|_1
\end{aligned}$$

Hence $f \in L^{\phi}(\mu, X)$ and $J(f) = g$.

Finally since ϕ is one-to-one it follows that J is one-to-one . It is now clear that

$$J(L^{\phi}(\mu, G)) = L^1(\mu, G) .$$

Now , let $f \in L^{\phi}(\mu, X)$. Then $J(f) = \hat{f} \in L^1(\mu, X)$ and there exists $\hat{g} \in L^1(\mu, G)$ such that $\|\hat{f} - \hat{g}\|_1 \leq \|\hat{f} - \hat{h}\|_1$ for all $\hat{h} \in L^1(\mu, G)$. By Theorem (3.2.1) ; we have

$$\|\hat{f}(t) - \hat{g}(t)\| \leq \|\hat{f}(t) - y\| \text{ for all } y \in G \quad \text{a.e.t.}$$

Since $\hat{g} \in L^1(\mu, G)$ and J is onto, there exists $g \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$ s.t. $J(g) = \hat{g}$.

$$\text{Hence } \left\| f(t) - \frac{\phi(\|g(t)\|) \|f(t)\|}{\phi(\|f(t)\|)} g(t) \right\| \leq \left\| f(t) - \frac{\|f(t)\|}{\phi(\|f(t)\|)} y \right\| \quad \text{a.e.t}$$

and for all $y \in G$.

$$\text{Now take } h \in L^\phi(\mu, G). \text{ Then } \frac{\phi(\|f(t)\|)}{\|f(t)\|} h(t) \in G \quad \text{a.e.t}$$

Hence $\|f(t) - w(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - h(t)\|$ a.e.t and for all $h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$,

$$\text{where } w(t) = \frac{\phi(\|g(t)\|) \|f(t)\|}{\phi(\|f(t)\|)} g(t)$$

using the fact that $\|g(t)\| \leq 2 \|f(t)\|$ we will show that $w \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$ as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \|w(t)\| &= \frac{\phi(\|g(t)\|) \|f(t)\|}{\phi(\|f(t)\|)} \cdot \|g(t)\| \\ &\leq \frac{2\phi(\|f(t)\|) \cdot \|f(t)\|}{\phi(\|f(t)\|)} \\ &= 2 \|f(t)\| \end{aligned}$$

Hence $w \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$. Thus $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$. ■

In a similar way we can prove the following theorem.

Theorem 3.2.3 : [2, p.297]. Let G be a closed subspace of Banach space X . If $1 < p < \infty$ the following are equivalent :

(i) $L^p(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^p(\mu, X)$.

(ii) $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$.

For $p = \infty$, we have :

Theorem 3.2.4 : [1, p.528]. Let G be a closed subspace of Banach space X . If $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$, then $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$.

Proof : Let $f \in L^\infty(\mu, X)$. Since $L^\infty(\mu, X) \subseteq L^1(\mu, X)$, we have $f \in L^1(\mu, X)$.

By assumption, there exists $f_1 \in L^1(\mu, G)$ such that

$$\|f - f_1\|_1 = d(f, L^1(\mu, G)).$$

By Theorem (3.2.1), it follows that

$$\|f(t) - f_1(t)\| = d(f(t), G) \text{ a.e.t.}$$

Hence $\|f(t) - f_1(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - y\|$ a.e.t., and for all $y \in G$.

In particular

$$\|f(t) - f_1(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - g(t)\| \text{ a.e.t. , and for all } g \in L^1(\mu, G).$$

But $L^\infty(\mu, G) \subseteq L^1(\mu, G)$, and hence, for every $h \in L^\infty(\mu, G)$ we have

$$\|f(t) - f_1(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - h(t)\| \text{ a.e.t.(*)}$$

Now, since $0 \in G$, we get $\|f_1(t)\| \leq 2\|f(t)\|$ a.e.t. Hence $f_1 \in L^\infty(\mu, G)$.

Thus it follows from (*) that

$$\|f - f_1\|_\infty \leq \|f - h\|_\infty \text{ for every } h \in L^\infty(\mu, G).$$

Consequently $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$. ■

Theorem 3.2.5 : Let G be a closed subspace of a Banach space X . If

$L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$, then G is proximal in X .

Proof : Let $x \in X$, we define $f(t) = x$ for all $t \in T$. Then $f \in L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

Since $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$, there exists $g \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$ such that

$\|f - g\|_\phi = d(f, L^\phi(\mu, G))$. Theorem (3.2.1) implies $\|f(t) - g(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - y\|$

a.e.t and for all $y \in G$. Hence $\|x - g(t)\| \leq \|x - y\|$ for all $y \in G$.

Consequently G is proximal in X . ■

For $p = \infty$, we have :

Theorem 3.2.6 : Let G be a closed subspace of a Banach space X . If

$L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$, then G is proximal in X .

Proof : Let $x \in X$. Consider the function $f(t) = x$ for all $t \in T$. Then

$f \in L^\infty(\mu, X)$. Hence there exists $g \in L^\infty(\mu, G)$ s.t $\|f - g\|_\infty = d(f, L^\infty(\mu, G))$.

Theorem [11, p.36]; $\|f - g\|_\infty = \sup_t d(f(t), G)$.

Hence $\|f - g\|_\infty = \sup_t d(x, G)$. Since $f(t) = x$ for all $t \in T$.

$$\|f - g\|_\infty = d(x, G). \text{ But } d(x, G) = \sup \{ \|x - g(t)\| : t \in T \}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \|x - g(t)\| \leq d(x, G), \text{ for all } t \in T.$$

Therefore G is proximal in X . ■

For $1 < p < \infty$, we have :

Theorem 3.2.7 : [3, p.8]. Let G be a closed subspace of a Banach space

X . If $L^p(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^p(\mu, X)$, then G is proximal in X for

$1 < p < \infty$.

Proof : If $L^p(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^p(\mu, X)$. Theorem (3.2.3) implies $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$. Theorem (3.2.4) implies $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$. Theorem (3.2.6) implies G is proximal in X . ■

Definition 3.2.8 : [1 , p.529] . A subspace G of a Banach space X is called 1-complemented in X if there is a closed subspace W in X such that $X = G \oplus W$ and the projection $P : X \rightarrow W$ is a contractive projection .

Lemma 3.2.9 : [1 , p.529] . If G is 1-complemented in X , then G is proximal in X .

Proof : Let $X = G \oplus W$ and $x \in X$. Then $x = g + w$, where $g \in G$, $w \in W$ and $\|w\| \leq \|x\|$. We show that $\|x - g\| \leq \|x - y\|$ for all $y \in G$. If possible assume that there exist $g_1 \neq g \in G$ s.t $\|x - g_1\| < \|x - g\|$.

Set $w_1 = x - g_1$. By the uniqueness of the representation of x , we have $w_1 \notin W$.

Hence $w_1 = g_2 + w_2$, where $g_2 \in G$, $w_2 \in W$ and $\|w_2\| \leq \|w_1\|$. Therefore

$$x = w_1 + g_1 = (g_2 + w_2) + g_1 = (g_1 + g_2) + w_2 ,$$

and consequently $g = g_1 + g_2$ and $w = w_2$. Thus

$$\|w\| = \|w_2\| \leq \|w_1\| .$$

But by assumption , $\|w_1\| = \|x - g_1\| < \|x - g\| = \|w\|$.

This contradicts the assumption . Consequently $\|x - g\| \leq \|x - y\|$ for all $y \in G$. Hence G is proximal in X . ■

Remark 3.2.10 : If G is 1-complemented in X , then G may not be a Chebyshev subspace .

Proof : Let $X = \mathbf{R}^2$ and $G = \{ (g,g) : g \in \mathbf{R} \}$ with $\|(x,y)\| = |x| + |y|$.

Then G is not Chebyshev by Example (2.2.1) .

Now , let $W = \{ (0,w) : w \in \mathbf{R} \}$. Then

$$(x,y) = (x,x) + (0,y - x) .$$

Hence $\mathbf{R}^2 = G \oplus W$.

We define $P : X \rightarrow W$ as

$$P(x,y) = P[(x,x) + (0,y - x)] = (0,y - x)$$

Now $\|w\| = \|(0,y - x)\| = |y - x| \leq |y| + |x| = \|(x,y)\|$.

Hence P is a contractive projection .

Therefore G is 1-complemented in \mathbf{R}^2 .

Theorem 3.2.11 : If G is 1-complemented in X , then $L^1(\mu,G)$ is 1-complemented in $L^1(\mu,X)$.

Proof : Let $X = G \oplus W$ and let $P : X \rightarrow W$ be contractive projection . Hence $x = (I - P)(x) + P(x)$ and $\|P(x)\| \leq \|x\|$. For $f \in L^1(\mu,X)$, set $f_1 = (I - P)f$,

$f_2 = Pf$ a.e.t . Then

$$\|f_2\|_1 = \int_{\tau} \|f_2(t)\| d\mu(t) = \int_{\tau} \|P(f(t))\| d\mu(t) \leq \int_{\tau} \|f(t)\| d\mu(t) = \|f\|_1 < \infty .$$

Hence $f_2 \in L^1(\mu,W)$. Also

$$\begin{aligned}
\|f_1\|_1 &= \int_T \|f_1(t)\| \, d\mu(t) = \int_T \|(I-P)(f(t))\| \, d\mu(t) = \int_T \|f(t) - P(f(t))\| \, d\mu(t) \\
&\leq \int_T \|f(t)\| \, d\mu(t) + \int_T \|P(f(t))\| \, d\mu(t) \leq \int_T \|f(t)\| \, d\mu(t) + \int_T \|f(t)\| \, d\mu(t) \\
&= 2 \|f\|_1 < \infty .
\end{aligned}$$

Hence $f_1 \in L^1(\mu, G)$. Clearly $f = f_1 + f_2$.

Since W is a closed subspace of X , then $L^1(\mu, W)$ is a closed subspace of $L^1(\mu, X)$. Also if $f \in L^1(\mu, W) \cap L^1(\mu, G)$ then $f \in L^1(\mu, W)$ and $f \in L^1(\mu, G)$ $\Rightarrow f(t) \in W$ and $f(t) \in G \, \forall t \in T$, but $G \cap W = \{0\}$.

$\Rightarrow f(t) = 0 \, \forall t \in T \Rightarrow f = \hat{0}$ (zero function) .

Hence $L^1(\mu, X) = L^1(\mu, G) \oplus L^1(\mu, W)$. Define the map $\hat{p} : L^1(\mu, X) \rightarrow L^1(\mu, W)$ by $\hat{p}(f) = Pof = f_2$ for all $f \in L^1(\mu, X)$, \hat{p} is a contractive projection . So $L^1(\mu, G)$ is 1-complemented in $L^1(\mu, X)$. ■

Corollary 3.2.12 : If G is 1-complemented in X , then $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$.

Proof : The corollary follows from the above Theorem and Lemma (3.2.9) . ■

Definition 3.2.13 : [4 , p.72] . A closed subspace G of a Banach space X is called a ϕ -summand of X if there is a bounded projection $P : X \rightarrow G$ such that

$$\phi(\|x\|) = \phi(\|P(x)\|) + \phi(\|x - P(x)\|) \text{ for all } x \in X .$$

where ϕ is a modulus function .

Theorem 3.2.14 : [4 , p.72] . If G is a ϕ -summand of Banach space X , then G is proximal in X .

Proof : Let $x \in X$, for every $g \in G$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}\phi (\|x - g\|) &= \phi (\|P(x-g)\|) + \phi (\|(x - g) - P(x-g)\|) \\ &= \phi (\|P(x) - g\|) + \phi (\|x - P(x)\|) \\ &\geq \phi (\|x - P(x)\|)\end{aligned}$$

Since ϕ^{-1} exists and strictly increasing . Hence $\|x - g\| \geq \|x - P(x)\|$.

i.e $P(x) \in P(x,G)$. Thus G is proximal in X . ■

Remark 3.2.15 : If G is a ϕ -summand of Banach space X , then G is a Chebyshev subspace .

Proof : Assume that G is a ϕ -summand of X . Theorem (3.2.14) implies $P(x) \in P(x,G)$.

Now suppose g^* is another closest element to x .

i.e $\|x - g^*\| = \|x - P(x)\|$ *

But $x - g^* \in X$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi (\|x - g^*\|) &= \phi (\|P(x - g^*)\|) + \phi (\|x - g^* - P(x - g^*)\|) \\ &= \phi (\|P(x) - g^*\|) + \phi (\|x - P(x)\|)\end{aligned}$$

by (*) $\phi (\|P(x) - g^*\|) = 0$. So , $P(x) = g^*$.

Therefore $P(x)$ is the unique closest element .

Thus G is a Chebyshev subspace . ■

Theorem 3.2.16 : [4 , p.73] . Let G be a proximal subspace of Banach space X . Then for every simple function $f \in L^\phi(\mu, X)$, $P(f, L^\phi(\mu, G))$ is not empty .

Proof : Let $f = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \chi_{E_i}$ where E_i are disjoint measurable sets in T .

Set $g = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \chi_{E_i}$ where $b_i \in P(a_i, G)$. If h is an element in $L^\phi(\mu, G)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \|f - h\|_\phi &= \int_T \phi(\|f(t) - h(t)\|) d\mu(t) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{E_i} \phi(\|f(t) - h(t)\|) d\mu(t) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{E_i} \phi(\|a_i - h(t)\|) d\mu(t) \\ &\geq \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{E_i} \phi(\|a_i - b_i\|) d\mu(t) \\ &= \int_T \phi(\|f(t) - g(t)\|) d\mu(t) \\ &= \|f - g\|_\phi \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\|f - g\|_\phi \leq \|f - h\|_\phi \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$. Thus $g \in P(f, L^\phi(\mu, G))$. ■

Chapter 4

S-property

Introduction : Let X be a Banach space and G a closed subspace of X . The space G is said to have the S-property if $z_1 \in P(x_1, G)$ and $z_2 \in P(x_2, G)$ then $z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$ for all $x_1, x_2 \in X$. In this chapter we prove that if G has the S-property, then $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$ if and only if G is proximal in X . As an application of this result we prove that $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$ if and only if $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$, in case G has the S-property.

An example of a subspace $G \subset X$ which has the S-property is the following.

Example 4.1.1 : Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2$. Set $G = \{ (x, 0) : x \in \mathbb{R} \}$ with the Euclidean norm.

Now if $x_1 = (m, n)$, then $P(x_1, G) = \{(m, 0)\}$ i.e. $z_1 = (m, 0)$.

and if $x_2 = (r, s)$, then $P(x_2, G) = \{(r, 0)\}$ i.e. $z_2 = (r, 0)$.

But $x_1 + x_2 = (m+r, n+s)$; so $P(x_1 + x_2, G) = \{(m+r, 0)\}$ i.e.

$$(m+r, 0) = z_1 + z_2.$$

Therefore G has the S-property.

Remark 4.1.2 : In a Banach space X , if G has the S-property, it does not necessarily follow that G is proximal in X . For example, if $X = c_0$ with

$\|x\| = \sup_n |x_n|$ and $G = \{ x = (x_n) \in c_0 : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} x_n = 0 \}$. Remark (2.3.1)

implies G is not proximal in c_0 .

Now let $x \in c_0 - G$ and suppose that $P(x, G) \neq \emptyset$ i.e. $\exists z \in G$ s.t. $z \in P(x, G)$; so $0 \in P(x - z, G)$ by part (2) of Theorem (2.2.5). This means there exists $x - z \in c_0 - \{0\}$ such that $0 \in P(x - z, G)$. Theorem (2.3.7) implies G is proximal in c_0 which is a contradiction. Therefore $P(x, G) = \emptyset$ for every

$$x \in c_0 - G.$$

Hence G has the S-property.

We shall now give various closed subspaces of a Banach space which have the S-property.

Theorem 4.1.3 : If G is a ϕ -summand of X , then G has the S-property.

Proof : Let $z_1 \in P(x_1, G)$, $z_2 \in P(x_2, G)$. Since G is a ϕ -summand of X , then there exist a projection $E : X \rightarrow G$ s.t. $E(x)$ is a unique best approximant of x in G for all $x \in X$ by Theorem (3.2.14) and Remark (3.2.15). Hence

$$z_1 = E(x_1) \text{ and } z_2 = E(x_2).$$

But $z_1 + z_2 = E(x_1) + E(x_2) = E(x_1 + x_2)$ since E is linear.

This implies that $z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$. Thus G has the S-property. ■

Theorem 4.1.4 : If G is 1-complemented and Chebyshev in X , then G has the S-property.

Proof : Let $z_1 \in P(x_1, G)$, $z_2 \in P(x_2, G)$, since G is 1-complemented in X , there is a closed subspace $W \subset X$ s.t $X = G \oplus W$. This implies x_1 and x_2 can be written, uniquely, in the form

$$x_1 = g_1 + w_1, \quad x_2 = g_2 + w_2$$

where $g_1, g_2 \in G$, and $w_1, w_2 \in W$.

From the proof of Lemma (3.2.9) and the assumption that G is Chebyshev, we get that $z_1 = g_1, z_2 = g_2$.

Now $x_1 + x_2 = (g_1 + g_2) + (w_1 + w_2)$.

Since G is a subspace, so $g_1 + g_2 \in G$.

Also W is a subspace, so $w_1 + w_2 \in W$.

It now follows that $z_1 + z_2 = g_1 + g_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$.

Thus G has the S-property. ■

Theorem 4.1.5 : Let G be a closed subspace of a Hilbert space X , then G has the S-property.

Proof : Let $z_1 \in P(x_1, G)$ and $z_2 \in P(x_2, G)$. We show $z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$.

Theorem (2.2.6) implies $x_1 - z_1 \perp G$, and $x_2 - z_2 \perp G$. Hence

$$\langle x_1 - z_1, g \rangle = 0 \text{ and } \langle x_2 - z_2, g \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } g \in G.$$

Now $\langle x_1 + x_2 - (z_1 + z_2), g \rangle = \langle x_1 - z_1, g \rangle + \langle x_2 - z_2, g \rangle = 0$ for all $g \in G$.

Hence $x_1 + x_2 - (z_1 + z_2) \perp G$. Theorem (2.2.6) implies

$$z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$$

Thus G has the S -property . ■

Theorem 4.1.6 : If G is a semi-Chebyshev hyperplane in a Banach space X passing through zero , then G has the S -property .

Proof : Case (1) : If G is proximal in X . Let $f \in X^*$ so that

$G = \{ y \in X , f(y) = 0 \}$. Fix an arbitrary $z \in X \setminus G$ so ; $f(z) \neq 0$, and let

$$y_0 = x - f(x)/f(z) \cdot z \quad \text{where } x \in X$$

So $f(y_0) = 0$, whence $y_0 \in G$.Consequently

$$X = G \oplus W \quad \text{where } W = \{ w = \alpha z : \alpha \text{ scalar} \} \dots\dots\dots*$$

Now let $z_1 \in P(x_1, G)$, $z_2 \in P(x_2, G)$. It will be shown that

$$z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G) .$$

By (*) every $x_1 \in X$, $x_2 \in X$ can be written , uniquely , in the form

$$x_1 = g_1 + \alpha_1 z , \quad x_2 = g_2 + \alpha_2 z \dots\dots\dots**$$

where $g_1 , g_2 \in G$ and α_1 , α_2 are scalars .

Now assume that $g' \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$, then by **

$g' \in P(g_1 + g_2 + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)z, G)$. Theorem (2.2.5) implies

$$\begin{aligned} g' &= (g_1 + g_2) + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) w \quad \text{where } w \in P(z, G) \\ &= g_1 + \alpha_1 w + g_2 + \alpha_2 w \end{aligned}$$

Since $w \in P(z, G)$, Theorem (2.2.5) implies

$$g_1 + \alpha_1 w \in P(g_1 + \alpha_1 z, G) = P(x_1, G) .$$

And $g_2 + \alpha_2 w \in P(g_2 + \alpha_2 z, G) = P(x_2, G)$.

Hence

$$g_1 + \alpha_1 w = z_1$$

$$g_2 + \alpha_2 w = z_2$$

Consequently $g' = z_1 + z_2$.

Therefore $z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$. Thus G has the S-property.

Case (2) : If G is not proximal in X . Theorem (2.3.7) implies $P(x, G) = \phi$ for every $x \in X - G$. Thus G has the S-property. ■

We now state and prove an important result for G with S-property.

Theorem 4.1.7 : Let X be any Banach space, and G a closed subspace of X which has the S-property, then $P_G^{-1}(0)$ is a closed subspace of X and

$$P_G^{-1}(0) \cap G = \{0\}.$$

Proof : Let $x_1, x_2 \in P_G^{-1}(0)$, so $0 \in P(x_1, G)$ and $0 \in P(x_2, G)$. Since G has the S-property we get $0 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$. Hence $x_1 + x_2 \in P_G^{-1}(0)$. *

Let $x \in P_G^{-1}(0)$ and α be any scalar. Then

$$d(\alpha x, G) = |\alpha| d(x, G) = |\alpha| \|x\| = \|\alpha x\| \Rightarrow 0 \in P(\alpha x, G) \Rightarrow \alpha x \in P_G^{-1}(0). **$$

By (*), (**) $P_G^{-1}(0)$ is a subspace of X .

Now let (x_n) be a sequence in $P_G^{-1}(0)$ and $x \in X$ such that $\lim x_n = x$. Since

G is a subspace of X , $0 \in G$, $d(x, G) \leq \|x\| \dots(1)$.

Given $\epsilon > 0$ there exist a natural number $N(\epsilon)$ such that $\|x_n - x\| < \epsilon$ for all $n > N(\epsilon)$.

Fix $n \geq N(\epsilon)$ to have :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|x\| &= \|x - x_n + x_n\| \leq \|x - x_n\| + \|x_n\| \\
 &< \epsilon + | \|x_n\| - d(x,G) + d(x,G) | \\
 &\leq \epsilon + | \|x_n\| - d(x,G) | + d(x,G) \\
 &= \epsilon + | d(x_n,G) - d(x,G) | + d(x,G) \quad \text{since } x_n \in P_G^{-1}(0) \\
 &\leq \epsilon + \|x_n - x\| + d(x,G) \\
 &\leq 2\epsilon + d(x,G)
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\|x\| \leq d(x,G) \dots\dots(2)$

From (1) , (2) we get $\|x\| = d(x,G)$. So , $0 \in P(x,G)$ hence $x \in P_G^{-1}(0)$.

Thus $P_G^{-1}(0)$ is closed .

Let $g \in P_G^{-1}(0) \cap G \Rightarrow g \in P_G^{-1}(0)$ and $g \in G$.

$$\Rightarrow 0 \in P(g,G) \text{ and } g \in G .$$

$$\Rightarrow \|g\| = d(g,G) \text{ and } g \in G .$$

$$\Rightarrow \|g\| = 0 .$$

$$\Rightarrow g = 0$$

Therefore $P_G^{-1}(0) \cap G = \{0\}$. ■

The next theorem shows that if we add the condition that G has the S-property then the converse of Lemma (3.2.9) will be true .

Theorem 4.1.8 : Let X be any Banach space , and G a closed subspace of X which has the S -property . G is proximal in X if and only if G is 1-complemented in X .

Proof : If G is 1-complemented in X , then by Lemma (3.2.9) it is proximal in X .

Suppose now that G is proximal in X . Theorem (2.3.2) implies

$X = G + P_G^{-1}(0)$. Theorem (4.1.7) shows that $P_G^{-1}(0)$ is a closed subspace of X and $P_G^{-1}(0) \cap G = \{0\}$. Hence $X = G \oplus P_G^{-1}(0)$.

Now define $P : X \rightarrow P_G^{-1}(0)$ by

$$P(x) = P(g + z) = z \text{ where } x = g + z, g \in G, z \in P_G^{-1}(0) .$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\| &\geq d(x, G) = d(g + z, G) \\ &= d(z, G) \\ &= \|z\| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\|x\| \geq \|z\|$.

Hence P is a contractive projection . Thus G is 1-complemented in X . \blacksquare

An important application of the previous theorem is the following .

Theorem 4.1.9 : Let X be any Banach space , and G be a closed subspace of X which has the S -property . The following are equivalent :

- (i) G is proximal in X .
- (ii) $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$.

(iii) $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

Proof : (i)→(ii) , assume G is proximal in X . Theorem (4.1.8) implies G is 1-complemented in X . Corollary (3.2.12) implies $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$.

(ii)→(iii) , assume $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$. Theorem (3.2.2) implies $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

(iii)→(i) , assume that $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$. Theorem (3.2.5) implies G is proximal in X . ■

We shall now give various corollaries of this theorem .

Corollary 4.1.10 : Let X be a Banach space , and G is a ϕ -summand of X , then $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

Proof : The corollary follows from the above Theorem and Theorems (4.1.3) , (3.2.14) . ■

Corollary 4.1.11 : Let G be a closed subspace of a Hilbert space X , then $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

Proof : The corollary follows from the above Theorem and Theorems (2.4.3) , (4.1.5) . ■

Corollary 4.1.12 : If G is a Chebyshev hyperplane in a Banach space X passing through zero , then $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

Proof : The corollary follows from the above Theorem and Theorem (4.1.6) . ■

In particular , it follows that every Orlicz space $L^\phi(\mu, \bar{X})$ where X is a Banach space and strictly convex has at least one proximal linear subspace .

Now we state and prove our main result .

Theorem 4.1.13 : Let X be any Banach space , and G be a closed subspace of X with the S-property . Then $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$ if and only if $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$.

Proof : If $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$, then by Theorem (3.2.4) $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$.

Conversely if $L^\infty(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^\infty(\mu, X)$, then G is proximal in X by Theorem (3.2.7) .

Theorem (4.1.9) , implies $L^1(\mu, G)$ is proximal in $L^1(\mu, X)$. ■

2. Further Results :-

Theorem 4.2.1 : Let X be a Banach space and G be a closed subspace of X , if G has the S-property in X , then $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ has the S-property in $L^\phi(\mu, X)$.

Proof : Let $g_1 \in P(f_1, L^\phi(\mu, G))$ and $g_2 \in P(f_2, L^\phi(\mu, G))$, we will show that :

$$g_1 + g_2 \in P(f_1 + f_2 , L^\phi(\mu, G))$$

Now

$$g_1 \in P(f_1, L^\phi(\mu, G)) . \text{ Theorem (3.2.1) implies}$$

$$g_1(t) \in P(f_1(t), G) \quad \text{for all almost } t \in T \dots\dots(1)$$

Also

$$g_2 \in P(f_2, L^\phi(\mu, G)) . \text{ Theorem (3.2.1) implies}$$

$$g_2(t) \in P(f_2(t), G) \quad \text{for all almost } t \in T \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

Since G has the S-property , from (1) and (2) we get

$$(g_1 + g_2)(t) \in P((f_1 + f_2)(t), G) \quad \text{for all almost } t \in T .$$

Hence

$$d((f_1 + f_2)(t), G) = \|(f_1 + f_2)(t) - (g_1 + g_2)(t)\|$$

$$\text{Hence } \|(f_1 + f_2)(t) - (g_1 + g_2)(t)\| \leq \|(f_1 + f_2)(t) - y\| \quad \text{a.e.t, and } \forall y \in G$$

In particular

$$\|(f_1 + f_2)(t) - (g_1 + g_2)(t)\| \leq \|(f_1 + f_2)(t) - h(t)\| \quad \text{a.e.t, and } \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$$

Since ϕ is strictly increasing , then

$$\phi (\|(f_1 + f_2)(t) - (g_1 + g_2)(t)\|) \leq \phi (\|(f_1 + f_2)(t) - h(t)\|) \quad \text{a.e.t and}$$

$$\forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$$

Integrating both sides we get

$$\|(f_1 + f_2) - (g_1 + g_2)\|_\phi \leq \|(f_1 + f_2) - h\|_\phi \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$$

$$\text{Hence } d(f_1 + f_2, L^\phi(\mu, G)) = \|(f_1 + f_2) - (g_1 + g_2)\|_\phi$$

$$\text{Therefore } g_1 + g_2 \in P(f_1 + f_2, L^\phi(\mu, G)) .$$

Thus $L^\phi(\mu, G)$ has the S-property . ■

The following theorem describes the relationship between $P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0)$ and

$L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))$.

Theorem 4.2.2 : Let X be a Banach space , and G be a closed subspace of X . If G has the S-property , then $P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0) = L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))$.

Proof : Let $f \in L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))$. This means $f(t) \in P_G^{-1}(0)$, and that $\|f\|_\phi < \infty$.

Now

$$f(t) \in P_G^{-1}(0) ; \text{ so , } 0 \in P(f(t), G) ; \text{ hence } d(f(t), G) = \|f(t)\| .$$

$$\text{i.e } \|f(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - g\| \quad \forall g \in G$$

In particular

$$\|f(t)\| \leq \|f(t) - h(t)\| \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$$

since ϕ is strictly increasing , then

$$\phi(\|f(t)\|) \leq \phi(\|f(t) - h(t)\|) \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$$

Integrating both sides we get

$$\|f\|_\phi \leq \|f - h\|_\phi \quad \forall h \in L^\phi(\mu, G)$$

Hence $d(f, L^\phi(\mu, G)) = \|f\|_\phi$

Therefore $0 \in P(f, L^\phi(\mu, G)) \Rightarrow f \in P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0)$

Thus

$$L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0)) \subset P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0) \quad \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Let $f \in P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0)$. We claim that $f \in L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))$ i.e. $\|f\|_\phi < \infty$ and

$$f(t) \in P_G^{-1}(0) .$$

Now

$$f \in P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0) \subset L^\phi(\mu, X) . \text{ Hence } \|f\|_\phi < \infty \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

Also $0 \in P(f, L^\phi(\mu, G))$. Theorem (3.2.1) implies

$$0 \in P(f(t), G) \text{ a.e.t.}$$

$$\text{Thus } f(t) \in P_G^{-1}(0) \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

From (2) and (3) we get

$$f \in L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))$$

Therefore

$$P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0) \subset L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0)) \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

From (1) and (4) we get $P_{L^\phi(\mu, G)}^{-1}(0) = L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))$. ■

Lemma 4.2.3 : Let X be a Banach space , and G_1 , G_2 are closed subspaces of X . If $G_1 \subset G_2$ then $P_{G_2}^{-1}(0) \subset P_{G_1}^{-1}(0)$

Proof : Let $x \in P_{G_2}^{-1}(0) \Rightarrow 0 \in P(x, G_2) \Rightarrow d(x, G_2) = \|x\|$, but $G_1 \subset G_2$
 $\Rightarrow \|x\| \geq d(x, G_1) \geq d(x, G_2) = \|x\|$.

Therefore $d(x, G_1) = \|x\|$. Hence $x \in P_{G_1}^{-1}(0)$. ■

Theorem 4.2.4 : Let X be a Banach space , and G a closed subspace of X which has the S-property . If G is proximal in X then $P_G^{-1}(0)$ is proximal in X and has the S-property .

Proof : Let $x \in X$. The proof of Theorem (4.1.8) implies x can be written , uniquely , in the form

$$x = g + z \text{ where } g \in G \text{ and } z \in P_G^{-1}(0) \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } g \in G &\Rightarrow g \perp w \quad \forall w \in P_G^{-1}(0) \Rightarrow g \perp P_G^{-1}(0) \Rightarrow 0 \in P(g, P_G^{-1}(0)) \\ &\Rightarrow d(g, P_G^{-1}(0)) = \|g\| \dots\dots\dots(2) \end{aligned}$$

From (1) and (2) we get

$$d(x - z, P_G^{-1}(0)) = \|x - z\| \Rightarrow d(x, P_G^{-1}(0)) = \|x - z\|$$

Therefore $z \in P(x, P_G^{-1}(0))$ i.e $z = x - g$ where $g \in P(x, G)$ (3)

Thus $P_G^{-1}(0)$ is proximal in X .

To show $P_G^{-1}(0)$ has the S-property .

Let $z_1 \in P(x_1, P_G^{-1}(0))$ and $z_2 \in P(x_2, P_G^{-1}(0))$

From (3) we get $x_1 - z_1 \in P(x_1, G)$ and $x_2 - z_2 \in P(x_2, G)$

Since G has the S-property , then

$$x_1 + x_2 - (z_1 + z_2) \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$$

$$\Rightarrow z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, P_G^{-1}(0))$$

Thus $P_G^{-1}(0)$ has the S-property . ■

Theorem 4.2.5 : Let X be a Banach space , and G is proximal in X . If G has the S-property then $P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0) = G$.

Proof : Let $g \in G \Rightarrow z \perp g \quad \forall z \in P_G^{-1}(0) \Rightarrow g \perp P_G^{-1}(0)$

$\Rightarrow 0 \in P(g, P_G^{-1}(0)) \Rightarrow g \in P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)$.

Therefore $G \subset P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)$ (1)

Now , let $x \in P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)$. Then by the proof of Theorem (4.1.8) we have

$$x = x_1 + x_2 \quad \text{where } x_1 \in G \quad \text{and } x_2 \in P_G^{-1}(0) .$$

Since $G \subset P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)$, $x_1 \in P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)$. Then $x_2 = x - x_1 \in P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)$.

But $x_2 \in P_G^{-1}(0)$. Theorem (4.1.8) implies $x_2 = x - x_1 = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow x = x_1 \Rightarrow x \in G$$

Therefore $P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0) \subset G$ (2)

Thus we proved that $G = P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)$. ■

Theorem 4.2.6 : Let X be a Banach space , and G is proximal in X . If G has the S-property then $L^\phi(\mu, G) = L^1(\mu, G)$.

Proof : Theorem (3.1.4) implies $L^1(\mu, G) \subset L^\phi(\mu, G)$ (1)

also $L^1(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0)) \subset L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))$.

Lemma (4.2.3) implies $P_{L^\phi(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))}^{-1}(0) \subset P_{L^1(\mu, P_G^{-1}(0))}^{-1}(0)$.

Theorem (4.2.2) implies $L^\phi(\mu, P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0)) \subset L^1(\mu, P_{P_G^{-1}(0)}^{-1}(0))$.

Theorem (4.2.5) implies $L^\phi(\mu, G) \subset L^1(\mu, G)$ (2)

From (1) and (2) we get $L^\phi(\mu, G) = L^1(\mu, G)$. ■

Let X be a Banach space, and G be proximal in X , then any map which associates with each element of X one of its best approximants in G is called a proximity map. This mapping is, in general, non linear.

Theorem 4.2.7 : Let X be a Banach space, and G be a Chebyshev subspace of X . There exists a linear proximity map if and only if G has the S-property.

Proof : Let E be a linear proximity map. we claim that G has the S-property.

Let $z_1 \in P(x_1, G)$, and $z_2 \in P(x_2, G)$. We show that

$$z_1 + z_2 \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$$

Now

$$z_1 + z_2 = E(x_1) + E(x_2) = E(x_1 + x_2) \in P(x_1 + x_2, G).$$

Therefore G has the S-property.

Conversely, assume that G has the S-property.

Define $E : X \rightarrow G$ such that $E(x) \in P(x, G)$.

Now, we claim that E is linear.

Let $x_1, x_2 \in X$, we show that $E(x_1 + x_2) = E(x_1) + E(x_2)$.

Now, $E(x_1) \in P(x_1, G)$ and $E(x_2) \in P(x_2, G)$.

Since G has the S-property, then $E(x_1) + E(x_2) \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$.

Also $E(x_1 + x_2) \in P(x_1 + x_2, G)$. Since G is a Chebyshev subspace then

$$E(x_1 + x_2) = E(x_1) + E(x_2) \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Let $x \in X$, α scalar then $E(x) \in P(x, G)$. Theorem (2.2.5) implies

$$\alpha \cdot E(x) \in P(\alpha x, G), \text{ also } E(\alpha x) \in P(\alpha x, G).$$

Since G is a Chebyshev subspace of X then

$$E(\alpha x) = \alpha \cdot E(x) \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

By (1) and (2) E is a linear. ■

If S is a compact Hausdorff space and X is a Banach space, then $C(S, X)$ will denote the Banach space of all continuous maps f from S into X with norm defined as $\|f\| = \sup_s \|f(s)\|$.

Theorem 4.2.8 : Let S be a compact Hausdorff space, and G be a Chebyshev subspace of a Banach space X which has the S -property. If $C(S, G)$ be a Chebyshev subspace of $C(S, X)$ then $C(S, G)$ has the S -property in $C(S, X)$.

Proof : Since G is a Chebyshev and has the S -property. Theorem (4.2.7) implies there exists a linear proximity map $E : X \rightarrow G$. Then define the map.

$$F : C(S, X) \rightarrow C(S, G) \text{ by}$$

$$F(f) = E \circ f.$$

Our claim is that F is a linear proximity map.

If $g \in C(S,G)$ then

$$\|f(s) - E(f(s))\| \leq \|f(s) - g(s)\|$$

For all $s \in S$, $f \in C(S,X)$. Hence

$$\|f - E \circ f\| \leq \|f - g\| \text{ for all } g \in C(S,G)$$

Therefore

$$F(f) \in P(f, C(S,G))$$

And consequently

F is a proximity map .

Let $f, g \in C(S,X)$, we claim that $F(f + g) = F(f) + F(g)$

$$\begin{aligned} F(f + g)(s) &= E(f(s) + g(s)) \\ &= E(f(s)) + E(g(s)) && \text{since } E \text{ is linear} \\ &= E \circ f(s) + E \circ g(s) \\ &= (E \circ f + E \circ g)(s) \end{aligned}$$

Hence $F(f + g) = E \circ f + E \circ g$

$$= F(f) + F(g) \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Let $f \in C(S,X)$, and α (scalar)

$$\begin{aligned} F(\alpha f)(t) &= E(\alpha f(t)) \\ &= \alpha E(f(t)) && \text{since } E \text{ is linear} \\ &= \alpha [(E \circ f)(t)] \\ &= \alpha (F(f))(t) \end{aligned}$$

$$F(\alpha f) = \alpha F(f) \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

By (1) and (2) F is linear .

Theorem (4.2.7) implies $C(S,G)$ has the S -property .

In [7 , p.333] , it is shown that if X is a Hilbert space , then X is strictly convex . In the following , we give another proof .

Theorem 4.2.9 : If X is a Hilbert space , then X is strictly convex .

Proof : Assume that X is not strictly convex , whence there exists an $f \in X^*$ with $\|f\| = 1$ which has two distinct maximal elements x,y of norm $\|x\| = \|y\| = 1$ by Definition (1.3.3) .

Put $G = [x - y] = \{ \alpha(x - y) : \alpha \text{ scalar} \}$.

$$\|x\| = |f(x)| = |f(x - g)| \leq \|f\| \|x - g\| = \|x - g\| \quad \text{for all } g \in G .$$

Hence $0 \in P(x,G)$.

$$\text{Also } \|y\| = |f(y)| = |f(y - g)| \leq \|f\| \|y - g\| = \|y - g\| \quad \text{for all } g \in G .$$

Thus $0 \in P(y,G) \Rightarrow 0 \in P(-y,G)$.

But G is a closed subspace of a Hilbert space . Theorem (4.1.5) implies G has the S -property . Then $0 \in P(x - y,G)$ which contradicts the fact $x - y \in G - \{0\}$. Therefore X is strictly convex .

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