

# The Hahn-Banach Theorem

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In this standalone article our aim is to give a proof of the Hahn-Banach Theorem for real linear spaces. The proof is aimed at students following an introductory course in functional analysis.

## 1 An introduction to POsets

The proof of the Hahn-Banach Theorem makes use of Zorn's Lemma, a statement equivalent to the Axiom of Choice. Before proving this theorem, we thus first introduce some concepts used by Zorn's Lemma. The structure of the following section is taken from [2].

**Definition 1.1.** A *poset*, short for partially ordered set, is a set  $P$  equipped with a relation " $\leq$ " between elements of  $P$ , which satisfies the following conditions:

- (i)  $a \leq a$  for all  $a \in P$  (reflexivity)
- (ii)  $(a \leq b) \wedge (b \leq c) \implies (a \leq c)$  for all  $a, b, c \in P$  (transitivity)
- (iii)  $(a \leq b) \wedge (b \leq a) \implies (a = b)$  for all  $a, b \in P$  (antisymmetry)

Note that a poset need not to be a *linear order*, which is an order in which every two elements are comparable.

Examples of posets are given by the powerset  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  of a set  $X$ , partially ordered by inclusion, and by the reals  $\mathbb{R}$  with the usual ordering. A counterexample is given by the complex numbers ordered by the usual ordering on the modulus, because condition (iii) is not satisfied.

We also introduce the following definitions:

**Definition 1.2.**

- A subset  $C \subset P$  is called a *chain* if  $C$  with the restricted order of  $P$  is a linear order.
- An *upper bound*  $b \in P$  of a subset  $Q \subset P$  is an element of  $P$  such that  $q \leq b$  for all  $q \in Q$ .
- A *maximal element*  $m \in P$  is an element of  $P$  such that  $(m \leq p) \implies (m = p)$  for all  $p \in P$ .

Note that this maximal element does not have to be unique.

We are now able to state Zorn's Lemma. Note that we state it as a definition, since we treat it as an axiom.

**Definition 1.3** (Zorn's Lemma). If every chain  $C \subset P$  of a poset  $(P, \leq)$  has an upper bound in  $P$ , then  $P$  has a maximal element.

We illustrate this axiom by using it to prove two examples.

*Example 1.* Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with  $1 \neq 0$ . We will show that  $R$  contains a maximal ideal; a proper ideal, so not equal to  $R$ , that is not contained in any other ideal. Let  $P$  be the poset of all proper ideals of  $R$ , ordered by inclusion. Note that  $P \neq \emptyset$ , because  $\{0\} \in P$ . We now let  $C$  be any a chain in  $P$ . If  $C = \emptyset$ ,  $\{0\}$  is an upper bound of  $C$ . If  $C \neq \emptyset$ , we look at  $\bigcup C$ . We claim that  $\bigcup C$  is again a proper ideal.

For all  $a, b \in \bigcup C$  there are  $C_1, C_2 \in C$  such that  $a \in C_1, b \in C_2$ . Because  $C$  is a chain, we assume without loss of generality that  $C_2 \subseteq C_1$ , and thus that  $a, b \in C_1$ . Because  $C_1$  is an ideal, this means that  $a + b \in C_1 \subseteq \bigcup C$ . Furthermore, for all  $c \in \bigcup C$  there is a  $C_3 \in C$  such that  $c \in C_3$ . Because  $C_3$  is an ideal, this means that  $rc, cr \in C_3 \subseteq \bigcup C$  for all  $r \in R$ . We conclude that  $\bigcup C$  is an ideal of  $R$ . Finally, we see that  $1 \notin C'$  for all  $C' \in C$ , because otherwise  $r = r \cdot 1 \in C'$  for all  $r \in R$ , which would mean that  $C' = R$ . This implies that  $1 \notin \bigcup C$ , and thus that  $\bigcup C$  is a proper ideal of  $R$ . Because  $\bigcup C \in P$  and  $C' \subseteq \bigcup C$  for all  $C' \in C$ , we conclude that every chain in  $P$  has an upper bound in  $P$ . By Zorn's Lemma,  $P$  has a maximal element  $M$ , which is a proper ideal not contained in any other proper ideal of  $P$ , and thus is a maximal ideal of  $P$ .

*Example 2.* Zorn's Lemma can also be used to show, and is even equivalent to the fact that every vector space  $V$  has a basis. To prove this, we look at the poset  $P$  of all linearly independent subsets of  $V$ , again ordered by inclusion. Note that  $P \neq \emptyset$ , because  $\{0\} \in P$ . We now let  $C$  be any chain in  $P$ . As in the previous example,  $\{0\}$  is an upper bound for the empty set, so this case is settled. For  $C \neq \emptyset$ , we again look at  $\bigcup C$ . We claim that  $\bigcup C$  also is a linearly independent subset of  $V$ . Indeed, if  $v_1 \in \bigcup C$  could be written as a finite linear combination of vectors in  $\bigcup C$ ,  $C$  being a chain would imply that there exists a  $C' \in C$  such that  $v_1$ , together with all these vectors, also lie in  $C'$ . However, this would contradict our assumption that  $C'$  is linearly independent. We conclude that  $\bigcup C$  is an upper bound for  $C$  in  $P$ .

Having accomplished that every chain in  $P$  has an upper bound in  $P$ , we conclude, using Zorn's Lemma, that  $P$  has a maximal element  $M$ , and we assert that this  $M$  forms a basis of  $V$ . On the contrary, assume that there exists a  $v_0 \in V$  that is linearly independent from  $M$ . Then  $M \cup \{v_0\} \in P$ , while  $M \subsetneq M \cup \{v_0\}$ , which contradicts the maximality of  $M$ .

## 2 The Hahn-Banach Theorem

We first prove a general version of the Hahn-Banach theorem on real linear spaces. The following proof is from a mix of [1] and [4].

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $X$  be a linear space over  $\mathbb{R}$  with a subadditive, positive homogeneous functional  $p$ . This means  $p$  satisfies*

- $p(x + y) \leq p(x) + p(y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$  (subadditivity)
- $p(\alpha x) = \alpha p(x)$  for all  $x \in X, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  (positive homogeneity).

*Let  $M$  be a subspace of  $X$  and  $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a linear functional defined on  $M$ , bounded by  $p$ , thus  $f(z) \leq p(z)$  for all  $z \in M$ .*

*Then there exists an extension  $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of  $f$  such that  $F(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ .*

*Proof.* The proof is an application of Zorn's Lemma on the poset of extensions.

Define  $\Sigma$  to be the set of tuples  $(W, g)$  where  $W$  is a subspace of  $X$  containing  $M$  and  $g : W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a linear functional (also denoted as  $g \in W^*$ ), such that  $g(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in W$  and  $g \circ i_M = f$ , where  $i_M : M \rightarrow W$  is the inclusion map, or in other words,  $g$  is an extension of  $f$ . In a more compact form:

$$\Sigma := \{(W, g) \mid W \text{ subspace of } V, g \in W^*, \forall x \in W g(x) \leq p(x), g \circ i_M = f\}. \quad (1)$$

Because  $\Sigma$  is a subset of  $\bigcup_{M \subset W \subset X} \{W\} \times W^*$ , we can say that  $\Sigma$  is a set.

Next we define a partial order on  $\Sigma$ , where  $(U_1, g_1) \leq (U_2, g_2)$  precisely when  $U_1 \subset U_2$  and  $g_2 \circ i_{U_1} = g_1$  where  $i_{U_1} : U_1 \rightarrow U_2$  is the inclusion map.

We check that  $\Sigma$  satisfies the prerequisites of Zorn's lemma, namely that  $\Sigma$  is nonempty and every ascending chain has an upper bound. We have  $(M, f) \in \Sigma$  thus it is nonempty. Now let  $(U_i, g_i)_{i \in I}$  be a chain in  $\Sigma$ , then define  $g : \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as  $g(x) = g_i(x)$  if  $x \in U_i$ . This is well-defined on the intersections because if  $x \in U_i \cap U_j$ , then by the ascending chain condition we can assume without loss of generality that  $g_j \circ i_{U_i} = g_i$ . This means  $g_i(x) = g_j(i_{U_i}(x)) = g_j(x)$  so  $g : \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a well-defined linear functional that is bounded by  $p$  and is an extension of  $f$ . Thus  $(\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i, g) \in \Sigma$  is an upper bound of  $(U_i, g_i)_i$ . Then Zorn's lemma gives us a maximal element  $(N, g)$ .

To prove the main theorem, it is sufficient to show that  $N = X$ . We prove this by contradiction, so suppose a  $x \in X \setminus N$  exists. Then  $N \subsetneq \mathbb{R}x \oplus N \subset X$ . We define an extension  $h$  of  $g$  by defining

$$h(x) := \inf_{z \in N} \{p(x+z) - g(z)\}. \quad (2)$$

And by extending linearly as  $h(\alpha x + z) := \alpha h(x) + g(z)$  for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $z \in N$ , we have defined a linear functional  $h : \mathbb{R}x \oplus N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

Now our goal is to prove that  $h(\alpha x + z) \leq p(\alpha x + z)$  for all  $\alpha x + z \in \mathbb{R}x \oplus N$ , because this would imply that  $(\mathbb{R}x \oplus N, h) \in \Sigma$ , contradicting maximality of  $(N, g)$ . We make the following two remarks.

- (A) for all  $z \in N$  we have  $h(x) \leq p(x+z) - g(z)$  thus  $h(x+z) = h(x) + g(z) \leq p(x+z)$ .  
(B) for all  $y, z \in N$  we have

$$g(z) - g(y) = g(z-y) \leq p(z-y) = p((x+z) - (x+y)) \leq p(x+z) + p(-(x+y)) \quad (3)$$

which means  $-p(-(x+y)) - g(y) \leq p(x+z) - g(z)$ . Now if we fix the  $y$  and minimize over  $z$ , we conclude that

$$-p(-(x+y)) - g(y) \leq \inf_z \{p(x+z) - g(z)\} = h(x) \quad (4)$$

which means  $-h(x+y) \leq p(-(x+y))$  thus  $h(-x-y) \leq p(-x-y)$  for all  $y \in N$ .

Now let  $\alpha x + z \in \mathbb{R}x \oplus N$  be arbitrary. We separate three cases:

- $\alpha > 0$ : We have  $h(\alpha x + z) = \alpha h(x + \alpha^{-1}z) \leq \alpha p(x + \alpha^{-1}z)$  by remark (A) and because  $\alpha > 0$ . Then  $\alpha p(x + \alpha^{-1}z) = p(\alpha x + z)$  because  $\alpha > 0$ . Thus  $h(\alpha x + z) \leq p(\alpha x + z)$ .
- $\alpha = 0$ : Then  $h(\alpha x + z) = h(z) = g(z) \leq p(z) = p(\alpha x + z)$ .
- $\alpha < 0$ : Then  $h(\alpha x + z) = (-\alpha)h(-x - \alpha^{-1}z) \leq (-\alpha)p(-x - \alpha^{-1}z)$  by remark (B) and because  $-\alpha > 0$ . Thus  $(-\alpha)p(-x - \alpha^{-1}z) = p(\alpha x + z)$  because  $-\alpha > 0$ , so  $h(\alpha x + z) \leq p(\alpha x + z)$ .

Thus in all cases  $h(\alpha x + z) \leq p(\alpha x + z)$ .

This proves that  $(\mathbb{R}x \oplus N, h) \in \Sigma$  which contradicts maximality of  $(N, g)$  so  $X = N$ . This means  $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is an extension of  $f$  with  $g(z) \leq p(z)$  for all  $z \in X$ .  $\square$

When  $X = H$  is a Hilbert space and  $M$  is a closed subspace, the statement is proved much easier. In that case,  $f$  has a Riesz representation

$$f(x) = \langle x, z \rangle \quad (5)$$

for some  $z \in M$ . Since the inner product is defined on all of  $H$ , this formula already is defined on all of  $H$  and does not have to be further extended.

### 3 Corollaries and Applications

The following section discusses some corollaries and applications of the Hahn-Banach Theorem found in [2].

#### 3.1 Corollaries of the Hahn-Banach Theorem

**Corollary 1** (Hahn-Banach Theorem extended to norms). *Let  $X$  be a normed linear space over  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $M$  a subspace of  $X$  and  $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  a bounded linear functional on  $M$ . Then there exists a bounded extension  $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of  $f$  with  $\|F\| = \|f\|_M$ .*

*Proof.* Define a subadditive, positive homogeneous functional on  $X$  by  $p(x) := \|f\|_M \|x\|$ . We have  $f(x) \leq \|f(x)\| \leq \|f\|_M \|x\| = p(x)$  for  $x \in M$ . Then by the Hahn-Banach theorem (Theorem 1) there exists an extension  $F$  of  $f$  such that  $F(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ .

Now we note that  $p$  is also absolutely homogeneous, so we get  $-p(x) = -p(-x) \leq -F(-x) = F(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in X$  which means  $-F(x) \leq p(x)$ , so  $|F(x)| \leq p(x) = \|f\|_M \|x\|$  for  $x \in X$ . Thus  $F$  is bounded with  $\|F\| \leq \|f\|_M$ . We also have  $\|F\| \geq \|Fx\| \|x\|^{-1} = \|fx\| \|x\|^{-1}$  for  $x \in M \setminus \{0\}$ , and thus  $\|F\| \geq \|f\|_M$ . We conclude  $\|F\| = \|f\|_M$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 2.** *Let  $X$  be a normed linear space,  $0 \neq x_0 \in X$ . Then there exists a bounded linear functional  $F$  such that  $F(x_0) = \|x_0\|$  and  $\|F\| = 1$ .*

*Proof.* Define  $M := \{ax_0 \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}$  and consider the functional  $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, ax_0 \mapsto a\|x_0\|$ . We see  $f$  is a linear functional on a subspace of  $X$  with the desired properties and  $\|f\| = 1$ . By the previous corollary there exists an extension  $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\|F\| = \|f\| = 1$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.** *For every  $x \in X$  we have  $\|x\| = \sup \left\{ \frac{|f(x)|}{\|f\|} \mid f \in X^*, f \neq 0 \right\}$ .*

*Proof.* From the previous corollary we know there exists a linear functional such that  $\frac{|F(x)|}{\|F\|} = \|x\|$ , so  $\sup \frac{|f(x)|}{\|f\|} \geq \|x\|$ . We also know that  $|f(x)| \leq \|f\| \|x\|$ , or equivalently  $\frac{|f(x)|}{\|f\|} \leq \|x\|$ , so we have equality.  $\square$

#### 3.2 Application of the Hahn-Banach Theorem: linear extension of distance function

For a subset  $A \subset X$  of a normed linear space  $X$  and  $x \in X$  we can define the distance function  $d(x, A) := \inf_{z \in A} \|x - z\|$ . The Hahn-Banach theorem gives the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $M$  be a subspace of a normed linear space  $X$ . For  $x_0 \in X \setminus M$  with  $d(x_0, M) > 0$ , there exists an  $F \in X^*$  such that  $\|F\| = 1$ ,  $F|_M = 0$  and  $F(x_0) = d(x_0, M)$ .*

*Proof.* We have  $x_0 \notin M$ . Define the linear map  $f : \mathbb{R}x_0 \oplus M \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : \alpha x_0 + z \mapsto \alpha d(x_0, M)$ . This gives us

$$\|\alpha x_0 + z\| = |\alpha| \|x_0 + \alpha^{-1}z\| \geq |\alpha| \inf_{y \in M} \|x_0 - y\| = |\alpha| d(x_0, M) = |f(\alpha x_0 + z)|. \quad (6)$$

Thus  $\|f\| \leq 1$ .

Furthermore, by definition of the infimum, there exists a sequence  $(z_n)_n$  in  $M$  such that  $\|x_0 - z_n\| \rightarrow d(x_0, M)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus

$$d(x_0, M) = f(x_0 - z_n) \leq \|f\| \|x_0 - z_n\| \rightarrow \|f\| d(x_0, M). \quad (7)$$

This means  $\|f\| \geq 1$  because  $d(x_0, M) > 0$  and we conclude  $\|f\| = 1$ . Now we apply the Hahn-Banach Theorem to get an extension  $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of  $f$  with  $\|F\| = \|f\| = 1$ .  $\square$

## 4 Geometric form of the Hahn-Banach theorem

The Hahn-Banach Theorem is also known in its geometric form. Before we state this form, we first recall the definition of the Minkowski functional (also see Exercise 1.18 of [3]).

### 4.1 The Minkowski functional

The Minkowski functional will be used as the subadditive, positively homogeneous functional  $p$  where we can apply the Hahn-Banach theorem.

**Definition 4.1.** Let  $W$  be a convex subset of a normed vector space  $X$  such that  $0$  is an interior point of  $W$ . For each  $x \in X$ , we define the *Minkowski functional* of  $x$  as

$$p(x) := \inf\{\alpha^{-1} \mid \alpha > 0, \alpha x \in W\} = \inf\{\lambda \geq 0 \mid x \in \lambda W\}. \quad (8)$$

We make the following observations:

- $p(x)$  is always finite because  $0$  is an interior point,
- $p(x) \geq 0$  because  $\alpha^{-1} \geq 0$  for all  $\alpha > 0$ ,
- $p$  is not definite if  $W$  is not bounded, for example the whole space, because we can then enlarge  $\alpha$  or shrink  $\lambda$  as much as we want and get a zero  $p(x)$  without  $x$  being zero.
- $p$  might not be absolutely homogeneous if  $W$  is not symmetric around the origin ie.  $x \in W \Leftrightarrow -x \in W$ .

**Lemma 3.** The Minkowski functional satisfies the following properties:

- $p(x + y) \leq p(x) + p(y) \quad \forall x, y \in X$  (subadditivity)
- $p(\lambda x) = \lambda p(x) \quad \forall x \in X, \lambda \geq 0$  (positive homogeneity)
- $p(x) < 1 \implies x \in W$
- $x \in W \implies p(x) \leq 1$

*Proof.*

- Let  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ , and let  $\alpha x, \beta y \in W$ . Since  $W$  is convex,

$$\frac{\alpha^{-1}\alpha x + \beta^{-1}\beta y}{\alpha^{-1} + \beta^{-1}} = \frac{x + y}{\alpha^{-1} + \beta^{-1}} \in W. \quad (9)$$

This means that  $p(x + y) \leq \alpha^{-1} + \beta^{-1} \leq p(x) + p(y)$ .

- We note that  $p(0) = 0$ . For  $\alpha > 0$ , we see that

$$p(\alpha x) = \inf\{\beta^{-1} \mid \beta > 0, \alpha \beta x \in W\} = \alpha \inf\{\gamma^{-1} \mid \gamma > 0, \gamma x \in W\} = \alpha p(x). \quad (10)$$

- When  $p(x) < 1$ , there exists an  $\alpha > 1$  such that  $\alpha x \in W$ . Because  $0 \in W$  and  $W$  is convex, this means that  $x = \alpha x \cdot \alpha^{-1} + (1 - \alpha^{-1})0 \in W$ .

In terms of the  $\lambda$  definition we have a  $\lambda < 1$  such that  $x \in \lambda W$ , if  $\lambda = 0$  then we are done, while if  $\lambda > 0$  then  $\lambda^{-1} > 1$  and  $\lambda^{-1}x \in W$  so  $x = \lambda^{-1}x \cdot \lambda + (1 - \lambda)0 \in W$ .

- If  $x \in W, 1x \in W$ , and  $x \in 1W$  thus in both definitions  $p(x) \leq 1$ .

□

## 4.2 The Supporting Hyperplane Theorem

The Supporting Hyperplane Theorem follows as an application of the Hahn-Banach Theorem on the Minkowski functional.

We start with a point  $x_0$  outside of a convex subset  $C$  and we trace a line from  $x_0$  to a point  $y$  in the interior of  $C$ . On this line we can define a linear functional  $f$  that outputs for each point  $P$  on the line, the unique ratio  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\lambda(x_0 - y) = P - y$ . Thus  $f(x_0 - y) = 1$ .

Then this  $f$  is bounded above by the Minkowski functional and we can extend it to a functional  $\alpha$  defined on the whole space. The hyperplane  $\alpha^{-1}(\alpha(x_0)) = y + \alpha^{-1}(1)$ , called the supporting hyperplane, then *separates* the point  $x_0$  and  $C$ , in the sense that  $C \subset y + \alpha^{-1}((-\infty, 1])$  and  $x_0 \in y + \alpha^{-1}(1)$ .

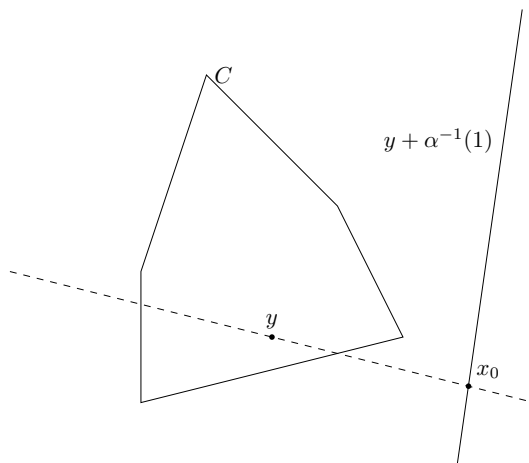


Figure 1: Illustration of the Supporting Hyperplane Theorem. The hyperplane  $\alpha^{-1}(\alpha(x_0)) = y + \alpha^{-1}(1)$  is a supporting hyperplane.

The following proof is from [4].

**Theorem 4** (Supporting Hyperplane Theorem). *Let  $C$  be a convex subset of a real normed vector space  $X$  with nonempty interior  $y \in \text{int}(C)$ , and let  $x_0 \in X \setminus C$ . Then there exists a continuous linear functional  $\alpha \in X^*$  such that  $1 = \alpha(x_0 - y) \geq \alpha(x - y)$  for all  $x \in C$ .*

*Proof.* Take a  $y \in \text{int}(C)$ . Consider the translations  $C' := C - y$  and  $x'_0 := x_0 - y \neq 0$ , then we have that  $0 \in \text{int}(C')$ . Define a linear functional  $f : \mathbb{R}x'_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as  $f(\lambda x'_0) := \lambda$ , this is well defined because  $x'_0 \neq 0$ . Define the Minkowski functional  $p$  on  $C'$  as discussed before in equation (8).

- We have  $p(x'_0) \geq 1$  by the contraposition of the third point of Lemma 3, which implies for  $\lambda > 0$  that  $p(\lambda x'_0) = \lambda p(x'_0) \geq \lambda = f(\lambda x'_0)$  by positive homogeneity.
- We also know  $f(-x'_0) = -1 \leq 0 \leq p(-x'_0)$  by non-negativity of  $p$ , which means for  $\lambda \geq 0$  that  $f(-\lambda x'_0) = -\lambda \leq 0 \leq p(-\lambda x'_0)$ .

Thus  $f(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}x'_0$ . Then by the Hahn-Banach Theorem, there is an extension  $\alpha \in X^*$  such that  $\alpha(x) \leq p(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ .

We remark that  $\alpha(x'_0) = f(x'_0) = 1 \geq p(x)$  for all  $x \in C'$  by point 4 of Lemma 3, which means  $\alpha(x'_0) \geq p(x) \geq \alpha(x)$  for all  $x \in C'$ . Thus if we translate back, for all  $x \in C$  we have  $\alpha(x_0 - y) \geq \alpha(x - y)$ .

Finally we show continuity of  $\alpha$ . Because  $0 \in \text{int}(C')$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B(0, \delta) \subset \text{int}(C')$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , then for  $\|y\| < \delta\epsilon$ , we have  $\pm\frac{y}{\epsilon} \in \text{int}(C') \subset C$  which means  $p(\pm\frac{y}{\epsilon}) \leq 1$  by point 4 of Lemma 3. Thus  $\pm\alpha(\frac{y}{\epsilon}) = \alpha(\pm\frac{y}{\epsilon}) \leq p(\pm\frac{y}{\epsilon}) \leq 1$ , so  $|\alpha(y)| \leq \epsilon$ , which proves continuity of  $\alpha$ .

This completes the proof.  $\square$

### 4.3 The Hyperplane Separation Theorem

The hyperplane separation theorem says that two convex sets where one of them has an interior point can be separated by a hyperplane. This is a corollary of the supporting hyperplane theorem, because we can reduce one of the convex sets to the origin and enlarge the other convex set by taking the Minkowski sum.

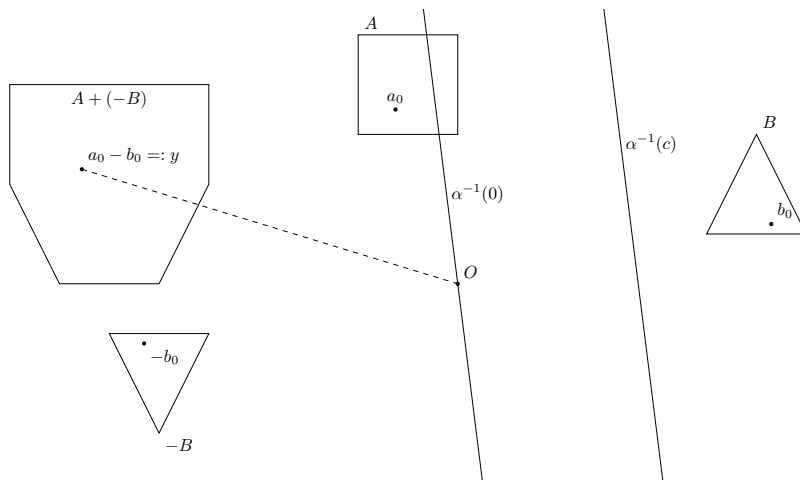


Figure 2: Illustration of the Hyperplane Separation Theorem. One of the possible separating hyperplanes is illustrated by  $\alpha^{-1}(c)$ .

The proof is from [4]. Before we prove this, we show a lemma about convex sets and Minkowski sums.

**Lemma 5.** Let  $A, B$  be convex subsets of a real vector space  $X$ . Then  $A + B := \{a + b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$  is convex. Here  $A + B$  is called the *Minkowski sum* of  $A$  and  $B$ .

*Proof.* Let  $(1-t)(a_1 + b_1) + t(a_2 + b_2)$  be a convex combination in  $A + B$ . Then this equals  $(1-t)a_1 + ta_2 + (1-t)b_1 + tb_2$ , and by convexity of  $A$  and  $B$ , the summands are respectively in  $A$  and  $B$ , thus their sum is in  $A + B$ . Thus  $A + B$  is convex.  $\square$

**Theorem 6** (Hyperplane Separation Theorem). *Let  $A, B$  be nonempty disjoint subsets of a normed real vector space  $X$ , and  $\text{int}(A) \neq \emptyset$ . Then there is a continuous linear functional  $\alpha \in X^*$  and a  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\alpha(a) \leq c \leq \alpha(b)$  for all  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ .*

*Proof.* Consider  $Z := A - B = A + (-B) = \{a - b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$ , then if  $B$  is convex then  $-B$  also, and  $A + (-B)$  as well by Lemma 5. Note that  $0 \notin Z$  because  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint. Furthermore if  $a_0 \in \text{int}(A)$ , then there exists a neighbourhood  $B(a_0, \delta) \subset A$  of  $a_0$ . Fix some  $b_0 \in B \neq \emptyset$  and then  $B(a_0 - b_0, \delta) = B(a_0, \delta) - b_0$  is a neighbourhood of  $a_0 - b_0$  contained in  $A - B = Z$ , which means  $a_0 - b_0 \in \text{int}(Z) \neq \emptyset$ .

Thus  $Z$  satisfies the conditions of Theorem 4 by taking  $x_0 = 0 \in X \setminus Z$  and  $y := a_0 - b_0 \in \text{int}(Z)$ . This means we get a continuous linear functional  $\alpha \in X^*$  with  $1 = \alpha(0-y) \geq \alpha((a-b)-y)$  for all  $a - b \in Z = A - B$ . Then by linearity of  $\alpha$  we get  $\alpha(a - b) \leq \alpha(0) = 0$ .

Thus  $\alpha(a) \leq \alpha(b)$  for any  $a \in A, b \in B$ , and it follows that

$$\sup_{a \in A} \alpha(a) \leq \inf_{b \in B} \alpha(b). \quad (11)$$

Then because  $a_0 \in A, b_0 \in B$ , we have

$$\alpha(a_0) \leq \sup_{a \in A} \alpha(a) \leq \inf_{b \in B} \alpha(b) \leq \alpha(b_0) \quad (12)$$

so the infimum and the supremum exist.

Now choose a value  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\sup_{a \in A} \alpha(a) \leq c \leq \inf_{b \in B} \alpha(b)$ . For this choice of  $c$  we have  $\alpha(a) \leq c \leq \alpha(b)$  for all  $a \in A, b \in B$  which means the hyperplane  $\alpha^{-1}(c)$  separates  $A$  and  $B$ .  $\square$

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