

Measure and Integration

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Module No.# 09

Lecture No. # 34

L P – Spaces

Welcome to lecture 34 on Measure and Integration. In this lecture, we will look at some special spaces which are constructed on measure spaces. These spaces play an important role in topics like functional analysis, harmonic analysis and so on. So, today we will be studying spaces called L p spaces.

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L_p spaces

- Let $0 < p < \infty$ and

$$L_p(\mu) := L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$$

denote the space of all complex-valued \mathcal{S} -measurable functions on X such that

$$\int |f|^p d\mu < +\infty.$$

The space $L_p(\mu)$ is called the space of **p^{th} -power integrable functions** on (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) .

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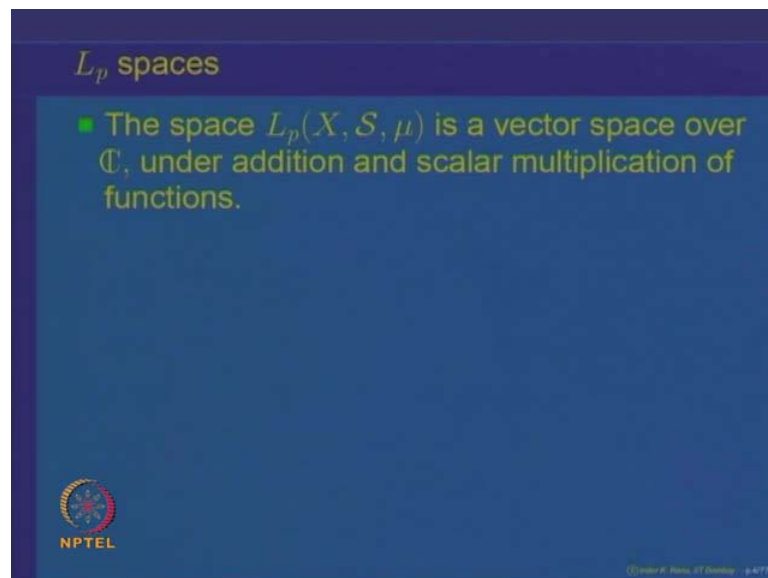
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We will fix a real number between 0 and infinity p, so p is a real number between 0 and infinity and we will look at the space called L p mu which is also written as L p of X, S, mu depending on whether we want to emphasis the underlying measure space or not.

If it is clear from the context what is the underlying set X and the sigma algebra \mathcal{S} . We will just write this space as $L^p(\mu)$. So, this is the space of all complex-valued \mathcal{S} measurable functions on the space X , such that integral of the absolute value of the function f raise to power p $d\mu$ is finite. Recall in the previous lectures, we had defined the notion of function which is complex-valued on a set X and which is \mathcal{S} measurable. We also defined the notion of its integral. So, if we take a function f which is complex-valued such that the absolute value of this function raise to power p which is a non-negative measurable function.

If that is integrable, integral of $|f|^p$ to the power $d\mu$ is finite then, we say the function f is p th power integrable and the collection of all p th power integrable functions on the measure space (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) is denoted by either $L^p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ or just $L^p(\mu)$. So, $L^p(\mu)$ is the space of all p th power integrable functions on (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) and today, we are going to study properties of this set $L^p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$.

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So, the first observation we want to make is that the space $L^p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ can be treated as a vector space over the complex numbers under the addition and scalar multiplication of functions.

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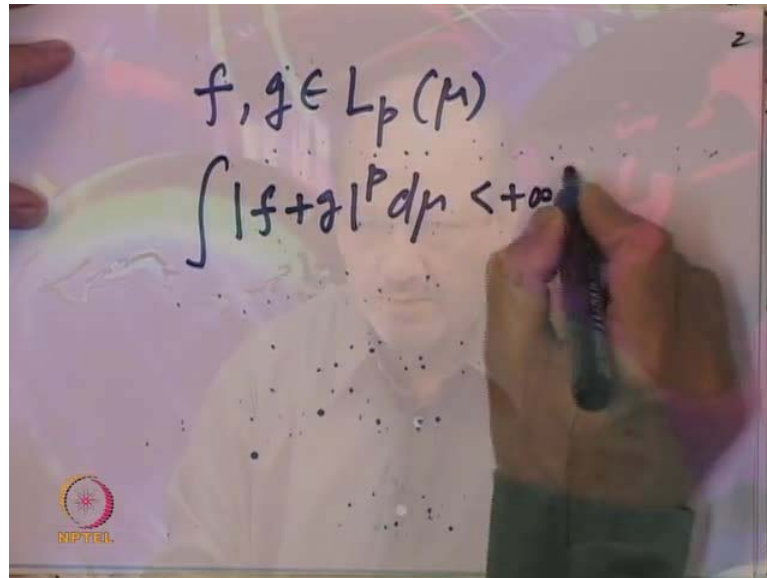
The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical notes. At the top, it says $L_p(\mu)$. Below that, it shows $(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x), \forall x$. Then $(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha(f(x))$. Below that, it says $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}, f \in L_p(\mu)$. Then $|\alpha f|^p = |\alpha|^p |f|^p$. This is followed by $\Rightarrow \int |\alpha f|^p d\mu = |\alpha|^p \int |f|^p d\mu$. Finally, it concludes with $\Rightarrow \alpha f \in L_p(\mu) < +\infty$. There is a small NPTEL logo in the bottom left corner of the whiteboard.

Let us observe how is that d1? We have got L_p of μ , so that is the space of all p th power integrable functions. So, we want to show that if you define f plus g x to be f x plus g x for every x and αf x to be equal to α times f of x then, under this operation of addition and scalar multiplication L_p μ is a vector space. So, for that we will have to show α times f is a function in L_p of μ whenever f is a function in L_p of μ . So, let us check that.

So, α belongs to \mathbb{C} and f belongs to L_p of μ , **let us look at** - we want to check α times f is in L_p or not, so you have to look at absolute value of αf raise to power p and we have to show this is a integrable function, its integral is finite but, it is obvious, this is equal to $\text{mod } \alpha$ to the power p and $\text{mod } f$ to the power p , were the property of absolute value.

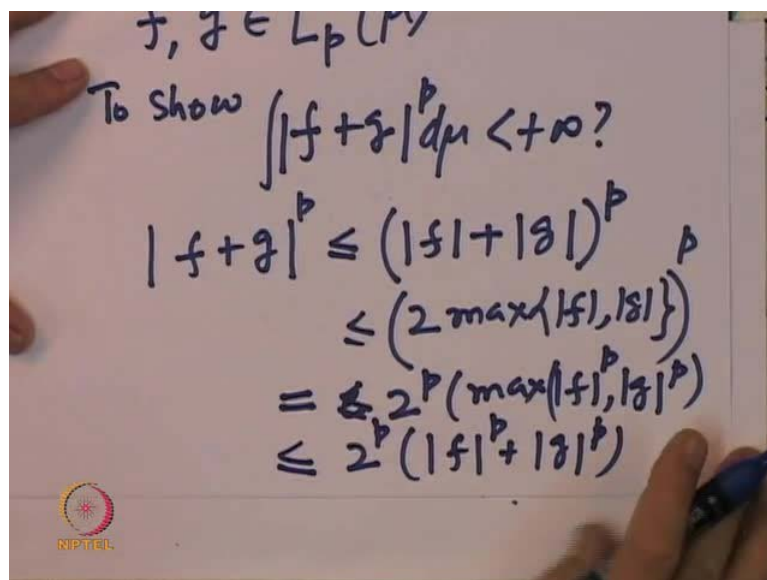
So, thus implies that integral of $\text{mod } \alpha f$ to the power p $d\mu$ is equal to integral of $\text{mod } \alpha$ to the power p into the product $\text{mod } f$ to the power p but, integral of a scalar times a function is nothing but, the scalar times the integral of the function so by that property this is (Refer Slide Time: 04:44). Because f belongs to L_p of μ , so this is finite. So, this implies that αf belongs to L_p of μ . So, scalar multiple of functions in L_p are again functions in L_p .

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Let us look at the second property namely the addition. So, let us take two functions f and g belonging to L_p of μ . We want to show that mod of f plus g raise to power p is integral is finite but, **let us observe** so we want to show that this $d\mu$ is finite.

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So, let f and g belong to L_p of μ . To show, we want to show that f plus g belongs to L_p of μ that means, integral of mod; this to the power $d\mu$ is finite. So, this is what we have to show. Let us look at the function mod of f plus g . We know that this is less than

or equal to $\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$ by the absolute value of the triangle inequality of the absolute value.

So, this to the power p is less than or equal to $(\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p)^p$. Now, let us observe that the right hand side, $\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$ is less than or equal to 2 times the maximum value of $\|f\|_p$ and $\|g\|_p$ because $\|f\|_p$ will be less than the maximum of $\|f\|_p$ and $\|g\|_p$ and $\|g\|_p$ also is less than maximum of $\|f\|_p$ and $\|g\|_p$. So, $\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$ is less than twice the maximum of $\|f\|_p$ and $\|g\|_p$. So, this raise to power p but, that is same as we can take this 2 to the power p out, so this is less than or equal to 2^p times the maximum of two numbers is always less than or equal to the sum of those.

So, let us first observe that this is actually equal to 2^p times the maximum of $\|f\|_p$ to the power p and $\|g\|_p$ to the power p . Now, this is less than or equal to 2^p times the maximum of $\|f\|_p$ to the power p plus $\|g\|_p$ to the power p because maximum of two numbers is always less than or equal to the sum of the two numbers. So, what we get is that $\|f+g\|_p$ to the power p is less than 2^p times $\|f\|_p$ to the power p plus $\|g\|_p$ to the power p , so that gives the inequality.

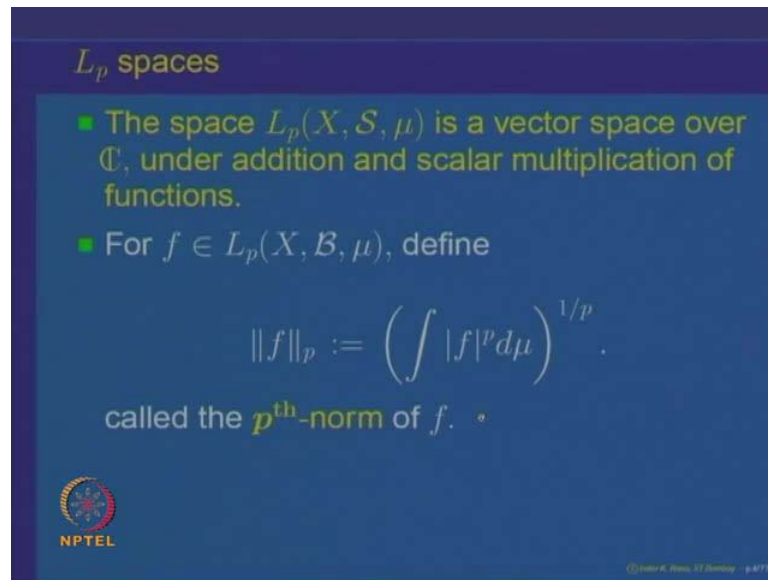
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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical text. At the top, the inequality $\int |f+g|^p \leq 2^p \left(\int |f|^p d\mu + \int |g|^p d\mu \right)$ is written, with a superscript 'p' on the right side of the parentheses. Below this, it says $< +\infty$. Then, it states $\Rightarrow f, g \in L_p(\mu), \text{ then } (f+g) \in L_p(\mu)$. In the bottom left corner, there is a small circular logo with the text 'NPTEL' below it.

So integrating both sides, we will get that integral of $\|f+g\|_p$ raise to power p will be less than 2^p times integral of $\|f\|_p$ to the power p plus integral of $\|g\|_p$ to the power p . Both of them in finite so, this is a finite quantity. That

implies, whenever f and g belong to L^p of μ then **mod of f plus g also or f plus g the function f plus g also belongs to L^p of μ** . So, that proves the fact that L^p is a vector space over the field of complex numbers.

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L^p spaces

- The space $L^p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ is a vector space over \mathbb{C} , under addition and scalar multiplication of functions.
- For $f \in L^p(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$, define

$$\|f\|_p := \left(\int |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p}.$$

called the **p^{th} -norm** of f . •

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Next, let us define for a function f belonging to L^p of X μ . For L^p , what is called the p^{th} norm of the function because f belongs to L^p , so the integral of $\text{mod } f$ to the power d μ is a finite number - it is a finite non-negative number - so we can take it is p^{th} root.


So, 1 over p of this number is called the p^{th} norm of the function f . So $\text{norm } f^p$, so the lower index p indicates that we are taking the p^{th} power of the function to integrate and then taking the p^{th} root of the integral. So this is called the p^{th} norm of f .

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Norm on L_p

For $f, g \in L_p$, the following hold:

- (i) $\|f\|_p \geq 0$, and
 $\|f\|_p = 0$ iff $f(x) = 0$ for a.e. $x(\mu)$.
- (ii) $\|\alpha f\|_p = |\alpha| \|f\|_p$ for every $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$.

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We want to show that this p th norm has the following properties namely, norm of p is always bigger than or equal to 0 that is obvious, because we are integrating a non-negative function. So, integral of $|f|^p$ is always non-negative. If the function is 0 almost everywhere then of course, the integral is 0; so the norm is equal to 0. Conversely, if the norm of the function is equal to 0 - is the p th norm is equal to 0 - that means, integral of $|f|^p$ is 0 and being a non-negative function that implies $f(x)$ must be 0 almost everywhere.

This property one is something similar to what we have done when p is equal to 1 for the space of integrable functions. So, the p th norm of the functions is always bigger than or equal to 0 and it is equal to 0 if and only if, $f(x)$ is equal to 0.

The second property that the norm of the function αf is same as the absolute value of α times the norm of f . So, this double bar also indicates the absolute value of the scalar α . That is again obvious, because we take the p th norm of this function.

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$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \in \mathbb{C}, f \in L_p \\ \|\alpha f\|_p &= \left(\int |\alpha f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \\ &= \left(|\alpha|^p \int |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \\ &= |\alpha| \left(\int |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \\ &= |\alpha| \|f\|_p. \end{aligned}$$

The whiteboard also features a small circular logo with a star in the bottom left corner and the text 'NPTEL' below it.

So, let us just verify this fact namely for alpha belonging to C and f belonging to L p, if we look at the norm of alpha times f, so that is equal to look at the function of alpha f take the power p integrate out with respect to mu and look at the 1/p th root of that. So but, that is equal to mod alpha to the power p is same as mod alpha to the power p integral mod f to the power p d mu raise to power 1 by p.

Now when we open it out, so mod alpha to the power p raise to power 1 over p is mod alpha into integral of mod f to the power p d mu raise to power 1 over p which is nothing but, the norm, so this integral is nothing but, the p th norm. So that proves the property that alpha times f p th norm is equal to mod alpha times the p th norm.

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Norm on L_p

For $f, g \in L_p$, the following hold:

- (i) $\|f\|_p \geq 0$, and
 $\|f\|_p = 0$ iff $f(x) = 0$ for a.e. $x(\mu)$.
- (ii) $\|\alpha f\|_p = \|\alpha\| \|f\|_p$ for every $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$.
- (iii) $\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$.

For $p = 1$, all the statements are easy to verify.

To prove them for $p > 1$, we need the following

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The third property, we want to prove is that the function f plus g , which we know f and g belong to L_p then, the function f plus g belongs to L_p . So, we want to claim that this satisfies the triangle inequality namely, norm of f plus g is less than or equal to norm of f plus norm of g .

For p equal to 1, this property was obvious, we had that followed basically because mod of f plus g is less than or equal to mod f plus mod g . So integrating both sides, we got integral of mod f plus g is less than or equal to integral of mod f plus integral mod g . So that means, the norm of f plus g is less than or equal to the norm of f plus norm of g . So for p equal to 1 this is obvious but, for p not equal to 1, we need to do some more calculations to prove this result.

So first of all, we will first prove it for the cases when p is strictly bigger than 1. So, we will be looking at the real number p which is strictly bigger than 1 and of course, less than infinity.

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Lemma

For nonnegative real numbers a, b and $0 < t < 1$, the following inequalities hold:

$$a^t b^{1-t} \leq ta + (1-t)b.$$

Proof: Note that

$$a^t b^{1-t} \leq at + (1-t)b$$

iff $(a/b)^t \leq t(a/b) + (1-t)$

iff $(1-t) + t(a/b) - (a/b)^t \geq 0$

iff $(1-t) + tx - x^t \geq 0.$

where $x = a/b.$

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So, for such p , we need a Lemma which says that for every non-negative real numbers a and b , if we fix t between 0 and 1 then, the following inequality holds namely, a raised to power t b raised to power $1 - t$ is less than or equal to t times a plus $1 - t$ times b . If you look carefully for t equal to $1/2$ this is just saying that the geometric mean is less than or equal to arithmetic mean. So, this is generalization of the standard inequality that the geometric mean is always less than or equal to arithmetic mean.

So, what we are saying is for any real number t - positive real number t - between 0 and 1. For non-negative real numbers a and b , a raised to power t b raised to power $1 - t$ is less than or equal to t times a plus $1 - t$ times b . Of course to prove this, let us observe that if a either a is equal to 0 or b equal to 0 then the left hand side is equal to 0 and the right hand side of also is equal to 0, so in that case it is an equality. So, if either a is 0 or b is 0 both sides are equal to 0 and there is nothing to prove.

Let us assume that both a and b are not equal to 0. So in that case, let us observe that proving this inequality that a to the power t b to the power $1 - t$ is less than or equal to a into t plus $1 - t$ times b , is same as we can rewrite this inequality as a raised to power $1 - t$ is same as b times b divided by b raised to power t , so that b raised to power t in the denominator. We accommodate with a raised to power t , so write this as a by b raised to power t and that b which was the power 1 we shift it to the other side, so that goes to a divided by b times t plus $1 - t$ times b divided by b which is equal to 1. So

the required inequality is same as proving that a divided b raise to power t is less than or equal to t times a divided by b plus 1 minus t. Now, let us just rewrite that.

So, this is same as saying bring all the terms on 1 side so that is same as saying 1 minus t plus t times a by b minus a by b times t is always bigger than or equal to 0. So, we have to show that this is always bigger than or equal to 0. Let us put this quantity a by b as x, so we have to show that for every x bigger than 0, we want to show that 1 minus t plus t x minus x to the power t is always bigger than or equal to 0.

Now realize the left hand side is a function of x and we want to show that function of x is always a non-negative function. So, 1 way of showing that would be that we look at this function f of x and realize that the value of this function at the point x is equal to 1 is equal to 0.

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a whiteboard:

$$f(x) = (1-t) + tx - x^t$$

$$f(1) = (1-t) + (t-1)$$

$$= 0.$$

To show

$$f(x) \geq 0 = f(1) \quad \forall x$$

Claim $f(x)$ has minimum at $x=1$.

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So, **showing that** this inequality holds is showing that f of x is always bigger than or equal to f of 1. Let us write the function f of x is equal to 1 minus t times plus t times x plus x to the sorry minus x to the power t. Then, let us calculate f of 1 which is equal to 1 minus t plus t x; t x is 1, so that is 1 minus x is equal to 1 minus t x to the power t. So, x is equal to 1, so that is 1 to the power t that is equal to so that is t times x, so that is t and this is equal to 0, so this is equal to 0. So, we want to show that f of x is bigger than or equal to 0 which is f of 1 for every x.

So, that indicates that we should try to show this function f of x has got a minimum value at the point x is equal to 1. So claim, this required inequality will be through if you can show that f of x has minimum at x is equal to 1. So, let us analyze that is done by using the tools of calculus.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical work. At the top right, there is a small number '6'. The work starts with the function definition: $f(x) = (1-t) + tx - x^t$. Below this, the first derivative is calculated: $f'(x) = t - tx^{t-1}$. The next step is setting the first derivative equal to zero: $f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow t(1 - x^{t-1}) = 0$, which simplifies to $\Rightarrow x = 1$. Then, the second derivative is calculated: $f''(x) = -t(t-1)x^{t-2}$. Evaluating this at $x = 1$ gives $f''(1) = -t(t-1) > 0$. Finally, a conclusion is drawn: $\Rightarrow x = 1$ is a point of local min. In the bottom left corner of the whiteboard, there is a small circular logo with the text 'NPTEL' below it.

Let us use tools of calculus to analyze the maximum minimum of the function f of x which is equal to 1 minus t times plus t of x minus x to the power t . So, we realize that this function is differentiable everywhere and we calculate the derivative of this function, so that is equal to 1 minus t is a constant and derivative of $t x$ with respect to x that is equal to t minus t times x to the power t minus 1.

So, to calculate the critical points f dash x equal to 0 implies, so this is $t(1 - x^{t-1}) = 0$ and that implies x is equal to 1. So the function has a critical point at x is equal to 1 and to analyze whether it is maximum or a minimum, let us look at and apply the second derivative test. So from here, we will have f double dash of x will be equal to t is a constant, so minus t into t minus 1 into x to the power t minus 2.

So at f dash at 1 that is equal to minus t into t minus 1 and t being a number between 0 and 1, minus t is negative t minus 1 is negative, so this is bigger than 0. So, second derivative at the critical point 1 is bigger than 0, so implies that x is equal to 1 is a point of local minimum.

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Lemma

For $0 < t < 1$ be fixed and consider the function

$$f(x) := (1 - t) + tx - x^t, \quad x > 0.$$


Thus the required inequality will hold if

$$f(x) \geq 0 = f(1), \quad \forall x > 0,$$

i.e.,

$f(x)$ has a minimum at $x = 1$,

which is easy to show.

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So, that proves the required property that the function has a local minimum and hence, that proves the property that the function f of x has a local minimum at the point x is equal to 1 and hence the required inequality namely, f of x is bigger than or equal to 0 is bigger than 1 holds.

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Lemma

For nonnegative real numbers a, b and $0 < t < 1$, the following inequalities hold:

$$a^t b^{1-t} \leq ta + (1-t)b.$$

Proof: Note that


$$a^t b^{1-t} \leq at + (1-t)b$$

iff $(a/b)^t \leq t(a/b) + (1-t)$

iff $(1-t) + t(a/b) - (a/b)^t \geq 0$

iff $(1-t) + tx - x^t \geq 0.$

where $x = a/b.$

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So, this proves the Lemma namely, for any two non-negative real numbers a and b and for a real number t fixed between 0 and 1, a raise to power t times b raise to power 1 minus t is less than or equal to t times a plus 1 minus t times b .

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Hölder's inequality


Let $p > 1$ and $q > 1$ be such that

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

Let $f \in L_p(\mu)$ and $g \in L_q(\mu)$.

Then $fg \in L_1(\mu)$ and

$$\int |fg| d\mu \leq \left(\int |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \left(\int |g|^q d\mu \right)^{1/q}.$$

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We will be using this Lemma to prove another equality for our spaces L^p spaces which is called Hölder's inequality. So, let us state what is called Hölder's inequality? Hölder's inequality says that for real numbers p and q ; p bigger than 1 and q bigger than 1 such that $1/p + 1/q = 1$. For such numbers p and q , if I take a function f which is in L^p and look at a function g which is in L^q then, f times g is a function which is in L^1 and integral of $f g$.

The absolute value of f and g product is lesser than or equal to the integral of $|f|^p$ raised to the power $1/p$ and $|g|^q$ raised to the power $1/q$. So that essentially says that the function $f g$ is integrable, so it has the L^1 norm. So, I can state the Hölder's inequality as saying that the L^1 norm of $f g$ is less than or equal to the product of p th norm of f and the q th norm of g , so that is called Hölder's inequality.*

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$f \in L_p, g \in L_q, \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$
 $\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q ?$
Note if $\|f\|_p = 0$ or $\|g\|_q = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \int |f|^p d\mu = 0$
 $\Rightarrow f(x) = 0$ a.e.
 $\Rightarrow fg = 0$ a.e.

So, let us prove this Hölder's inequality. So, we have got two functions f and g ; so f belonging to L_p and g belonging to L_q where, $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$. We want to show that the norm $\|fg\|_1$ is less than or equal to the p th norm of f and the q th norm of g , so this is the inequality we want to prove.

So, let us observe first of all note let us if let us observe Let us call this, if norm of f equal to 0 or norm of g is equal to 0, if either of these two quantities are equal to 0, so what will that mean? Norm of f equal to 0 implies integral of $|f|^p d\mu$ is equal to 0 and that will imply that the function $f(x) = 0$ almost everywhere and that will imply that the function $fg = 0$, almost everywhere.

So, if norm of f is equal to 0 then, the function fg is equal to 0 almost everywhere. So, this L^1 integral of this equal to L^1 norm of the function f into g is also equal to 0. So both sides will be equal to 0. Similarly, if norm of g is equal to 0 then again both sides of the inequality will be 0 and this will be an equality. So the required inequality holds as an equality if either of norm f or norm g is equal to 0.

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$$\begin{aligned} & \|f\|_p \neq 0 \text{ and } \|g\|_q \neq 0. \\ & t = \frac{1}{p}, \quad a = \left(\frac{|f|}{\|f\|_p}\right)^p, \quad b = \left(\frac{|g|}{\|g\|_q}\right)^q \\ & a^t b^{1-t} \leq ta + (1-t)b \\ & \frac{|f|}{\|f\|_p} \frac{|g|}{\|g\|_q} \leq \frac{1}{p} \left(\frac{|f|}{\|f\|_p}\right)^p + \frac{1}{q} \left(\frac{|g|}{\|g\|_q}\right)^q \end{aligned}$$

Suppose, that norm of f p is not equal to 0 and norm of g is also not equal to 0. So, we are now going to apply the Lemma. Let us consider the special case, when t is equal to 1 over p and the number a is equal to mod f divided by norm f to the power p the whole thing to the power p and b is absolute value of g divided by norm of g raise to power q .

So, we are going to apply the Lemma namely, a raise to power t b raise to power 1 minus t is less than or equal to t times a plus 1 minus t times b with t equal to 1 over p a equal to this number mod f divided by norm of f whole to the power p which is defined because norm f is not 0 and similarly, b equal to norm of absolute value of g divided by norm of g whole thing raise to power q .

So, when we do that so t raise to power 1 over t , so this is a . So, mod f whole to the power p , so that gives us mod f divided by norm of f and b raise to power 1 minus t and note 1 minus t is 1 minus 1 over p which is equal to 1 over q , so that gives you norm of absolute value of g divided by the norm of g .

So that is a left hand side of a inequality is less than or equal to t which is 1 over p times a , so a is mod f divided by norm of f p whole raise to power p and similarly, 1 minus t which is 1 over q and b which is nothing but, mod g divided by norm of g to the power 1 by q .

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$$a^t b^{1-t} \leq ta + (1-t)b$$

$$\frac{|fg|}{\|f\|_p \|g\|_q} \leq \frac{1}{p} \left(\frac{|f|^p}{\|f\|_p^p} \right)^{1/p} + \frac{1}{q} \left(\frac{|g|^q}{\|g\|_q^q} \right)^{1/q}$$

$$\frac{\int |fg| d\mu}{\|f\|_p \|g\|_q} \leq \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

$$\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$$

So, this is the application of that inequality and let us now simplify this a bit further and now observe. So, $\frac{\int |fg| d\mu}{\|f\|_p \|g\|_q}$ is less than or equal to $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q}$ which is a scalar and $\int |fg| d\mu$ is less than or equal to $\frac{1}{p} \|f\|_p^p + \frac{1}{q} \|g\|_q^q$. So, let us integrate both sides with respect to μ , so that will give you $\int |fg| d\mu$ divided by $\|f\|_p \|g\|_q$, because these are just constants is less than or equal to $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q}$ which is a scalar and $\int |f|^p d\mu$ is $\|f\|_p^p$ and $\int |g|^q d\mu$ is $\|g\|_q^q$. So, that gives you $\frac{\int |fg| d\mu}{\|f\|_p \|g\|_q} \leq \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ that gives you.

So integrating both sides, we get that $\|fg\|_1$ is less than or equal to $\|f\|_p \|g\|_q$, so that is called Hölder's inequality. So, let us go back to revise this again what is called Hölder's inequality? Hölder's inequality says that if p is bigger than 1 and q is bigger than 1 such that $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$. Then, for function f belonging to L^p and g belonging to L^q , the product $f \cdot g$ is in L^1 and its integral is less than or equal to the p th norm of f into q th norm of g .

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Hölder's inequality

Proof:
Let

$$A := \left(\int |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \quad \text{and} \quad B := \left(\int |g|^q d\mu \right)^{1/q}$$

If either $A = 0$, or $B = 0$, then

$$f(x) = 0 \quad \text{for a.e. } x(\mu),$$

and hence the required claim holds as both sides will be zero.

So, suppose $A \neq 0$ and $B \neq 0$.

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So once again, let us go to the proof. We write a as the norm of f and b as the norm of g, so if either a is 0 or b is 0, either the function f will be 0 or the function g will be 0 and both sides of the inequality will be equal to 0, so the required claim will hold.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:30)

Hölder's inequality

Let

$$a = \left(\frac{|f(x)|}{A} \right)^p, \quad b = \left(\frac{|g(x)|}{B} \right)^q \quad \text{and} \quad t = 1/p.$$

Then by lemma,

$$\frac{|f(x)g(x)|}{AB} \leq \frac{|f(x)|^p}{pA^p} + \frac{|g(x)|^q}{qB^q}.$$

Thus

$$\int |f(x)g(x)| d\mu \leq (1/p + 1/q)AB = AB.$$

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Suppose, a is not 0 and b is not 0, so then we can divide by A and B. Let us write a to be norm f, a to be absolute value of f divided by capital A. What is capital A? Recall capital A is the norm of f, so whole thing raise to power p and similarly, B is g x absolute value divided by the norm of g raise to power q and t equal to 1 over p.

So apply the Lemma, the Lemma will give us that A raised to power t is 1 over p , so $\int f^t$ over A and $\int \frac{g^t}{B^{t-1}}$ over B raised to power $1 - t$ will give you $\int f g$ divided by B is less than or equal to t times $\int f^p$ applied n times A , so that is $A^{1/p} + 1$ over q times B so that is (Refer Slide Time: 30:22).

Now integrate both sides with respect to μ , so $\int f g$ with respect to μ is less than or equal to $\int f^p$ which is nothing but, A to the power p , so that cancels out. So, while integrate this cancels out; this cancels out, so this is 1 over $p + 1$ over q and this $A B$ you can take it on this side.

So, that gives you that $\int f x g x$ is less than or equal to A times B which is a norm of f times norm of g , so this is called Hölder's inequality.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:00)

Minkowski's inequality

Let $1 \leq p < \infty$ and $f, g \in L_p(\mu)$.
 Then $f + g \in L_p(\mu)$ and

$$\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p.$$

Proof:
 For $p = 1$, we have already proved it.
 So, suppose $1 < p < \infty$.

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Using this inequality, we will prove another inequality which is called Minkowski's inequality which is essentially the triangle inequality for the L^p norm. So, it says that f and g are in L^p then of course, we have already shown that $f + g$ is in L^p and the claim is that the norm of $f + g$ is less than or equal to norm of f plus norm of g .

This we will prove using Hölder's inequality, so let us start the proof. So, for p equal to 1 we have already analyze the proof and seen it is easy.

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Minkowski's inequality

We have already seen that $f + g \in L_p(\mu)$.

Since

$$p = (p - 1)q,$$

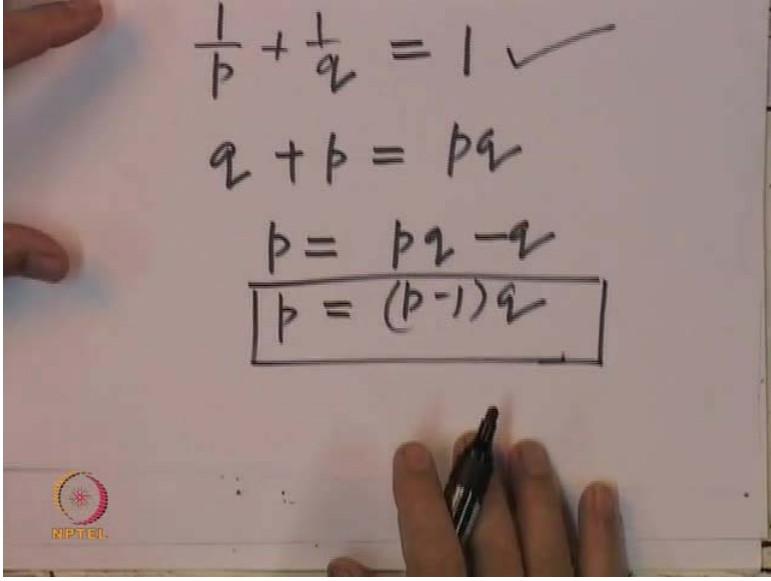

it follows that $|f + g|^{p-1} \in L_q(\mu)$.



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So, let us assume p is strictly bigger than 1. So, when p is bigger than 1, **let us look at the function** we know $f + g$ belongs to L_p . So, look at the function $f + g$ raise to power p minus 1, so note that we have the special relation between p and q namely 1 over p plus 1 over q is equal to 1 and that is same as saying the number p is also written as p equal to p minus 1 times q .

(Refer Slide Time: 32:31)


$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \checkmark$$
$$q + p = pq$$
$$p = pq - q$$
$$\boxed{p = (p-1)q}$$


So that is following from This is from the inequality, so this is coming from the equality, so let us just recall that we have seen that 1 over p plus 1 over q is equal to 1 . So that

says cross multiply that says, q plus p is equal to p q and that says that p is equal to p q minus q , so that is same as saying from here q is common, so p minus 1 times q .

So that is one observation that if p and q have the relation 1 over p plus 1 over q is equal to 1 then p can be written as this (Refer Slide Time: 33:09).

(Refer Slide Time: 33:21)

$$\frac{|f+g|^{p-1} \in L_q}{\therefore \int |f+g|^{(p-1)q} d\mu = \int |f+g|^p d\mu < +\infty}$$

So once that is true, let us look at the function. So, consider the function which is $|f+g|^{p-1}$. We want to claim that this belongs to L_q . So for that because the reason is $|f+g|^{p-1}$, so we now raise it to the power q integral $d\mu$. So what is that? That is equal to integral of $|f+g|^{p-1}$ into q that we have already seen $p-1$ into q is p , so that is equal to p $d\mu$ and that is finite.

So that proves that if f and g are in L_p then $|f+g|^{p-1}$ is L_q . So this observation will be use soon.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:21)


Minkowski's inequality

We have already seen that $f + g \in L_p(\mu)$.
 Since

$$p = (p - 1)q,$$

it follows that $|f + g|^{p-1} \in L_q(\mu)$.
 By Hölder's inequality, both $|f||f + g|^{p-1}$ and $|g||f + g|^{p-1}$ belong to $L_1(\mu)$ with

$$\int |f||f + g|^{p-1} d\mu \leq \|f\|_p \left(\int |f + g|^{q(p-1)} \right)^{1/q}$$

$$= \|f\|_p \|f + g\|_p^{p/q}$$


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So let us write consider the Holders inequality with the functions mod f into f plus g raise to power p minus 1 and mod g into mod of f plus g raise to power p minus 1. Note, f is in L_p this function is in L_p and f plus g raise to power p minus 1 is in L_q so by Holders inequality this function is integrable; its integral is less than or equal to norm of f plus norm of this function. Similarly, g is in L_p and f plus g raise to power p minus 1 is in L_q , so once again this product will be in L_1 and Holders inequality will apply.

So, we start the proof by observing that **mod f times** mod of f plus g raise to power p minus 1; this function begin in L_q , so this is in L_p ; this is in L_q , so the product is L_1 so that will be less than or equal to the p th norm of f that is the p th norm of f plus the q th norm of this function mod f plus g raise to power p minus 1. So what is the q th norm so it is f plus g the function is to the power p minus 1 for the q th norm raise it to the power q the whole thing raise to power 1 minus q that is same as this p minus 1 so this is equal toah this 1 we have already seen it is equal to p so, this thing is norm of f plus g raise to p raise to power 1 over q.

So, this integral is nothing but, norm of f plus g raise to power p by q. So we get the inequality using Holders inequality namely, the product of the function mod f and mod f plus g raise to power p minus 1 is less than the p th norm of f times the p th norm of f plus g raise to power p by q.

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Minkowski's inequality

and

$$\int |g||f + g|^{p-1} d\mu \leq \|g\|_p \left(\int |f + g|^{q(p-1)} \right)^{1/q}$$

$$= \|g\|_p \|f + g\|_p^{p/q}.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \|f + g\|_p^p &= \int |f + g|^p d\mu \\ &= \int |f + g||f + g|^{p-1} d\mu \\ &\leq \int (|f| + |g|)|f + g|^{p-1} d\mu \end{aligned}$$


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A similar application of Holders inequality to the second function will give us that the mod of g times mod of f plus g raise to power p minus 1 is less than the norm of g times the p th norm of the second function which is nothing but, mod f plus g raise to power p by q.

Now let us use these two to calculate the norm of f plus g. So to calculate the norm of f plus g let us raise it to power p, so the p th power of the norm of f plus g is nothing but, integral of mod f plus g raise to power p. Now the trick is that this power p, we write it as p into p minus 1.

So this integral is nothing but, integral of f plus g raise to power 1 into the same thing raise to power p minus 1, so this number mod f plus g absolute value is written as mod f plus g and times mod f plus g raise to power p minus 1.

Now the first absolute value f plus g we use triangle inequality this is less than or equal to mod f plus mod g, so this is by triangle inequality from here.

Now this integral can be split into two integrals so the **p th power of the** p th norm of f plus g will be less than or equal to integral of mod f times mod f plus g raise to power p minus 1 plus integral of mod g times that.

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Minkowski's inequality

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq \int |f| |f+g|^{p-1} d\mu + \int |g| |f+g|^{p-1} d\mu \\ &\leq \|f\|_p \|f+g\|_p^{p/q} + \|g\|_p \|f+g\|_p^{p/q} \\ &\leq (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \|f+g\|_p^{p/q}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\|f+g\|_p^{p-p/q} \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p,$$

i.e.,

$$\|f+g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p. \quad \blacksquare$$


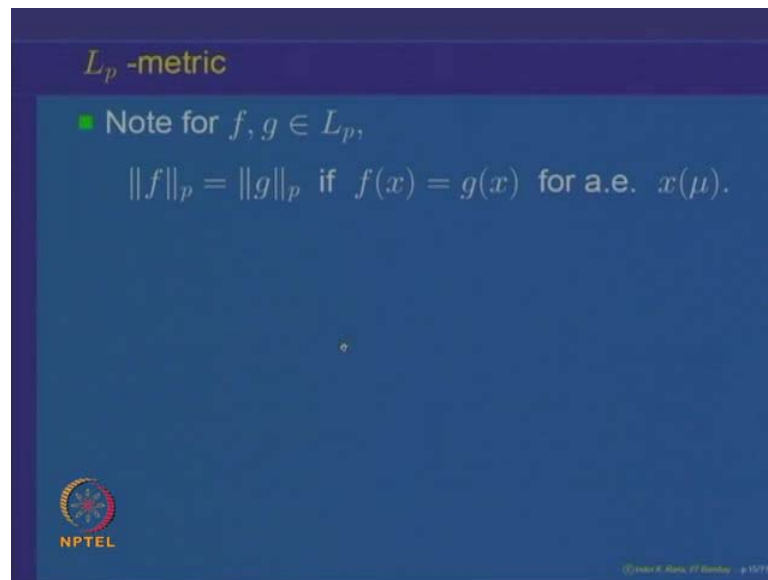
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Then, we will use the earlier obtained bounds. We have got this is less than or equal to this integral plus this integral. Here we were using that Holders inequality the bound we have obtained, so this integral mod f times mod f plus g raise to power p minus 1 is less than or equal to the p th norm of f and the q th norm of this function and the q th norm of this function is mod f plus g norm raise to power p by q. Similarly, the second term is less than norm of g times the norm of f plus g raise to power p by q.

Now, this norm of f plus g raise to power p by q is common, so let us take it out. So this is less than or equal to norm f plus norm g times norm of f plus g raise to power p minus p by q. So on the left hand, if you recall we had the norm raise to power p and now on the right hand side, we have got the norm the one term is norm raise to power p by q. So take it on the other side so we get norm of f plus g raise to power p minus p by q is less than or equal to norm of f plus norm of g.

Now, using the fact that 1 over p plus 1 over q is equal to 1 realize that this number is nothing but p common. So 1 minus 1 over q that is equal to 1 over p, so that cancels so this number is equal to 1. So we get, what is called Holders inequality which is also same as the triangle inequality for the p th norm namely, norm of f plus g is less than or equal to norm of f plus norm of g, so that is called Minkowski's inequality.

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So, what we have shown is the following that for the space of p th power integrable functions it is a vector space one and secondly for every function f in this space we can define its L_p norm which is the integral of absolute value of the function mod f to the power p the whole thing raise to power 1 over p . We have just now shown it has the three properties namely, the norm L_p norm of a function is bigger than or equal to 0 and it is equal to 0 if and only if, the function is 0 almost everywhere.

Second property that the L_p norm of α times f is equal to absolute value of the α times the norm of f and third the triangle inequality namely, norm of f plus g is less than or equal to norm of f plus norm of g .

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L_p -metric


- Note for $f, g \in L_p$,
 $\|f\|_p = \|g\|_p$ if $f(x) = g(x)$ for a.e. $x(\mu)$.

Thus we may treat $f, g \in L_p$, to be the same element of $L_p(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ in case $f(x) = g(x)$ for a.e. $x(\mu)$.

With this identification, define

$$d(f, g) := \|f - g\|_p, \quad f, g \in L_p.$$

Then $d(f, g)$ is a metric on L_p , called the L_p -metric.

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So as in the case of L^1 , let us identify functions which are equal almost everywhere. So for f and g in L^p , if we identify functions which are equal almost everywhere then, you observe that the norms of these two functions are same. So, norm of a function f is equal to the norm of a function g if f and g are equal almost everywhere. So, if we identify functions which are equal almost everywhere will get their norms to be same.

So, we will do that, so in L^p we will not distinguish between functions which are equal to 0 almost everywhere. So with that understanding, let us define the distance between two functions in L^p to be $d(f, g)$ equal to norm of $f - g$ with respect to p . So, once we do that this becomes a metric on L^p , so $d(f, g)$ is a metric on L^p because $d(f, g) = 0$ if and only if f is equal to g almost everywhere and we have identify function which are equal almost everywhere.

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Riesz-Fischer Theorem

The space $L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, for $1 \leq p < \infty$, is a complete metric space in the L_p - metric.

Proof:
Let $\{f_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ be a Cauchy sequence in $L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$.

Step(i)
Choose $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k < \dots$ such that $\forall k,$

$$\|f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}\|_p < 2^{-k}.$$

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So, this becomes a metric and it is called the L_p metric on the L_p space. Like L_1 claims what is called Riesz-Fischer theorem namely, the space L_p is a complete metric space under this metric L which is called L_p metric. The proof of this theorem is verbatim same as the proof for saying that L_1 of a b is complete. So, we will just sketch the proof and ask you to verify the steps which will also help you to revise the earlier proof and if you still have difficulty you can refer to the text book.

So, the steps of the proof are as follows. Let us take a Cauchy sequence in L_p , we want to show that this Cauchy sequence is convergent in L_p . So, for that the first step is because this sequence is a Cauchy sequence, we can select integers positive integers n_1 less than n_2 and less than n_k such that.

The consecutive difference between f_{n_k+1} and f_{n_k} is less than 2 to the power minus k and because Cauchy has says, the elements of the sequence are going to come closer and closer as you go to infinity. So, using that we can select inductively integers n_1 less than n_2 less than n_k and so on such that. The difference between f_{n_k+1} and f_{n_k} is the norm is less than 2 to the power minus k .

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Riesz-Fischer Theorem


Step (ii) Let

$$g_k := |f_{n_1}| + \sum_{j=1}^k |f_{n_{j+1}} - f_{n_j}|, \quad k \geq 1.$$

Then, for every $k \geq 1$,

$$\| |g_k|^p \|_1 < \left(\|f_{n_1}\|_p + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \|f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}\|_p \right)^p < +\infty,$$

and hence $g_k \in L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$.



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Once that is done, let us define g_k to be the function $|f_{n_1}|$ plus the sums 1 to k of the differences $|f_{n_{j+1}} - f_{n_j}|$ for every k , we define the sequence. Then, this g_k is a function claim is that if you take the power of this to the power p of this then this function $|g_k|^p$ L^1 norm is actually, we should be defining this modification. We should make $|f_{n_1}|^p$ plus $|f_{n_{j+1}} - f_{n_j}|^p$ to the power p . So this one will require that you define, so there is a misprint here this should be $|f_{n_1}|^p$ plus $|f_{n_{j+1}} - f_{n_j}|^p$ to the power p , so that is g_k .


So once that is there, if you integrate both sides then we get that this is less than or equal to this power, p is here; so integral of the power p , so that gives the norm of the function $|f_{n_1}|^p$ plus this to the power p that is finite. Hence, this g_k will belong to L^p space.

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Riesz-Fischer Theorem

Step (iii)
Let $g(x) := \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g_k(x), x \in X$.

Using monotone convergence theorem and step (i), deduce that $g \in L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, i.e.,

$$\int \left(|f_{n_1}| + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |f_{n_{j+1}} - f_{n_j}| \right)^p d\mu < \infty.$$


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Now as a consequence of monotone convergence theorem, the series form if we define g x then, using series form of the dominated convergence theorem one shows that this function g also is in L^p .


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Riesz-Fischer Theorem

Step (iv)
Using step (iii), deduce that

$$f(x) := f_{n_1}(x) - \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (f_{n_{j+1}}(x) - f_{n_j}(x))$$

exists for a.e. $x(\mu)$, i.e.,

$$f_{n_k}(x) \rightarrow f(x) \text{ for a.e. } x(\mu).$$


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Hence, deduce that this integral of mod $f_{n_1} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |f_{n_{j+1}} - f_{n_j}|$ is finite and hence the function f x which is the partial sum which is the sum of the series $f_{n_1}(x) - \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (f_{n_{j+1}}(x) - f_{n_j}(x))$ exists almost everywhere. So as a consequence, we will get this f_{n_k} because the partial sums are just f_{n_k} that converges to f of x .

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Riesz-Fischer Theorem

Step (v) Observing


$$|f_{n_{k+1}}|^p \leq (g_k)^p \leq (g)^p \quad \forall k,$$

deduce that $f \in L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$.

Finally, since $|f_{n_k} - f| \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, and

$$|f_{n_{k+1}} - f|^p \leq g^p,$$

an application of Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem gives

$$\|f_{n_k} - f\|_p \rightarrow 0.$$


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Now an application of dominated convergence theorem again gives you that f belongs to L_p and the integral of $|f_{n_{k+1}} - f|^p$ converges to 0, so norm converges **((to 0))**. So, the proof is essentially the same as that of L_1 . So, I have just outlined the steps try to prove this steps yourself and convince that it is ok. So, this is what is called the Riesz-Fischer theorem, so this is we have proved it for p bigger than 1 and less than infinity.

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Note

- If $0 < p < 1$, one can define for $f, g \in L_p(\mu)$

$$d_p(f, g) := \int |f - g|^p d\mu.$$

and show that d_p is a metric on $L_p(\mu)$ and $L_p(\mu)$ is a complete metric space for $0 < p < 1$.

However, when $0 < p < 1$, $f \mapsto \|f\|_p$ is not a norm, as it fails to satisfy the triangle inequality.



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One can ask the question that what happens for this number p between 0 and 1? For p between 0 and 1, one can define these spaces called L^p spaces and show they are metrics spaces. However there is a problem that if you try to define the norm as integral of $|f|^p$ to the power p raise to power $1/p$ that does not satisfy the triangle inequality.

So, one can define a metric $d(f, g)$ to be for p between 0 and 1. One can define the metric to be the integral of the absolute value $|f - g|^p$ to the power p but, that does not really help. It becomes a metric, one can show it is complete also but, the problem comes that d going to norm if you define that norm; it is not a norm, so integral of $|f|^p$ to the power p is not a norm. So the triangle inequality fails. So, that is why for p between 0 and 1 these spaces are not very interesting for applications point of view.

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L_∞ -spaces

- A measurable function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$ or \mathbb{C} is said to be **essentially bounded** if there exists some real number M such that

$$\mu(\{x \in X \mid |f(x)| > M\}) = 0.$$

We denote by $L_\infty(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ the set of all essentially bounded functions.

For $f \in L_\infty(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ define

$$\|f\|_\infty := \inf \{M \mid \mu\{x \in X \mid |f(x)| > M\} = 0\}.$$

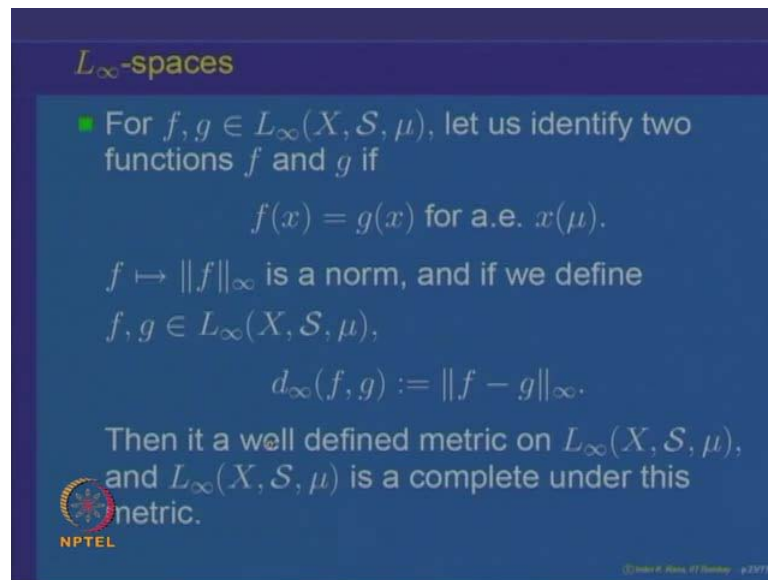
called the $\|f\|_\infty$ the **essential supremum** of f .

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Another observation, one can also define what are called L^∞ spaces namely, you look at - say function f defined on X is essentially bounded if there exists a real number m such that the measure of the set where $|f(x)| > m$ is equal to 0. So you collect together functions which are essentially bounded and call them as L^∞ . So, one can show that L^∞ is a vector space and if L defines for a function f in L^∞ what is called the infinity norm L^∞ norm to the infimum of these constants m such that the measure of the set where $|f(x)| > m$ is equal to 0.

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L_∞ -spaces

- For $f, g \in L_\infty(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, let us identify two functions f and g if
$$f(x) = g(x) \text{ for a.e. } x(\mu).$$

$f \mapsto \|f\|_\infty$ is a norm, and if we define $f, g \in L_\infty(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$,

$$d_\infty(f, g) := \|f - g\|_\infty.$$

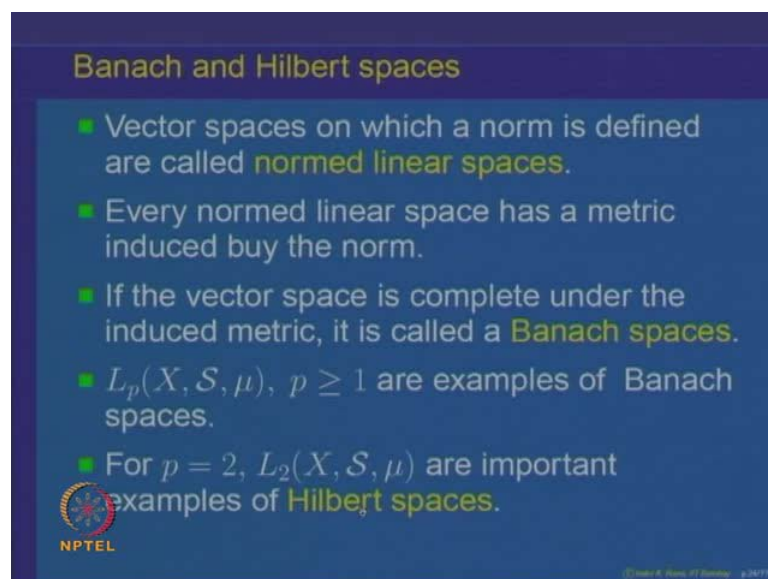
Then it a well defined metric on $L_\infty(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, and $L_\infty(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ is a complete under this metric.

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Then, one can show that this indeed is a norm on L infinity it is called the essential supremum of f and one shows that if you identify functions f and g to be same if equal almost everywhere then, this f going to L infinity is a norm. So, that gives a metric namely, the distance between f and g to be norm of f minus g. This indeed is a metric and one can show that L infinity becomes a complete metric space like L p for p bigger than or equal to 1.

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Banach and Hilbert spaces

- Vector spaces on which a norm is defined are called **normed linear spaces**.
- Every normed linear space has a metric induced buy the norm.
- If the vector space is complete under the induced metric, it is called a **Banach spaces**.
- $L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, $p \geq 1$ are examples of Banach spaces.
- For $p = 2$, $L_2(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ are important examples of **Hilbert spaces**.

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So, these are examples of metric spaces which arise out of measure theory. So, the importance of this lies in the following fact, so whenever we have 1 given a vector space and a norm is defined on that space is called a Norm linear space. Every norm give raise to a metric, so the metric being the distance between f and g to be the distance, the norm of f minus g , so that gives a norm. If **under that norm**- under that induced metric induced by that norm if this vector space becomes complete metric space then the space is called a Banach space.

So, L^p space is p bigger than or equal to 1 including L^∞ are examples of Banach spaces. For p equal to 2 is a very special space then, one can even define the notion of angle and relate distance and angle so, L^2 give the examples of a Hilbert space.

So today, we have looked at L^p spaces which give very important examples of norm linear spaces in fact Banach spaces and also L^2 gives examples of a Hilbert space. All these spaces play an important role in the subject of functional analysis and in harmonic analysis. So, if you go for higher studies, you will come across these spaces again in your studies. So, let me stop here today. Thank you.