## Functional Analysis Professor S. Kesavan Department of Mathematics IMSc Examples of Normed Linear Spaces

So, let us recapitulate.

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$\ \mathbf{z}\  = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N}  \mathbf{z}_{i} ^{p}\right)^{p}   $	
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- <u>-</u> + <u>i</u> =1 \$	
P=2 => pt=2 Remark: 1 <pt<0< td=""><td></td></pt<0<>	
$p = 3 \Rightarrow p^{2} = \frac{3}{2}$	
Lemma. a, b = R, a, b 30, Kp <00	
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We have  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_N)$ , and we have  $||x||_p = \left(\sum_{|i=1,2,...N|} |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$ ,  $1 . We want to show that <math>||.||_p$  satisfies the triangle inequality so that this will define a norm. We also saw that if this defines a norm, then  $\mathbb{R}^N$  with this norm is in fact a complete normed linear space; or in other words a Banach space.

We make the following definition:

If  $1 , then the conjugate exponent <math>p^{i}$  is defined by  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p^{i}} = 1$ . For instance if p = 2, then we

have that  $p^i = 2$ ; if p = 3, then  $p^i = \frac{3}{2}$  and so on.

**Remark.**  $1 < p^i < \infty$ .

Now, we have following lemma.

**Lemma.** Let  $a, b \in R, a, b \ge 0, 1 . Then <math>a^{\frac{1}{p}} b^{\frac{1}{p^{i}}} \le \frac{a}{p} + \frac{b}{p^{i}}$ .

So, if you look at this, if p=2, then  $p^{i}=2$ ; and therefore  $a^{\frac{1}{p}}b^{\frac{1}{p^{i}}}$  is nothing but the square root of

*ab*, and the right hand side becomes  $\frac{a+b}{2}$ . So, this is nothing but the arithmetic mean greater than or equal to the geometric mean. Therefore, the above lemma is a generalization of this particular inequality; so let us try to prove the lemma.

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**Proof of lemma.** So, let  $t \ge 1$  and  $0 \le k \le 1$ . Then, you look at the function  $f(t) = k(t-1) - t^k + 1$ . Then  $f'(t) = k(1-t^{k-1}) \ge 0$  (as  $t \ge 1$ ,  $0 \le k \le 1$ ). So, f is an increasing function. You also have that f(1)=0 and therefore  $f(1)\ge 0$ ,  $\forall t\ge 1$ . This implies that  $t^k \le k(t-1)+1$ . So, now if you look at the inequality which we want to prove, you have that, if a or b is 0 then there is nothing to prove. Thud, we can assume that a and b are not 0; so in particular let me assume that  $a \ge b > 0$ . Then I

put  $i\frac{a}{b}, k = \frac{1}{p}$  and we would get the inequality which we wanted. If  $b \ge a > 0$ , then we put  $t = \frac{b}{a}, k = \frac{1}{p^{i}}$ ; and then we would get the required inequality. This proves the lemma.

Using this Lemma, we now prove an important result which is called Holder's inequality.

**Holder's inequality.** Let  $1 , <math>p^{i}$  is the conjugate exponent of p. Then, for  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$  with  $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_N)$ ,  $y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_N)$ , we have

$$\sum_{i=1,..,N} |x_i y_i| \le ||x||_p ||y||_{p^i}.$$

This is a very important inequality which we will frequently come across in the future; and therefore we will take some time to prove this.

**Proof of Holder's inequality.** Again if x or y is 0; there is nothing to prove in this inequality. (Refer Slide Time: 07:27)



So, without loss of generality, we can assume that  $x \neq 0$ ,  $y \neq 0$ . We now set

$$a = \frac{|x_i|^p}{||x||_p}; a = \frac{|y_i|^{p^L}}{||y||_{p^L}}.$$
 And we apply the previous inequality  $a^{\frac{1}{p}} b^{\frac{1}{p^L}} \le \frac{a}{p} + \frac{b}{p^L}.$  This gives  
$$\delta x_i y_i \vee \frac{\delta}{||x||_p ||y||_{p^L}} \le \frac{1}{p} \frac{|x_i|^p}{||x||_p} + \frac{1}{p^L} \frac{|y_i|^{p^L}}{||y||_{p^L}} \delta.$$

We sum over i=1,2,...N and get

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1,\dots,N} i x_i y_i \vee i}{\|x\|_p \|y\|_{p^i}} \leq \frac{1}{p} \frac{\sum_{i=1,\dots,N} |x_i|^p}{\|x\|_p^p} + \frac{1}{p^i} \frac{\sum_{i=1,2,\dots,N} |y_i|^{p^i}}{\|y\|_{p^i}^p} = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p^i} = 1i$$

Now we just cross multiply to have the result. So, this proves the inequality known as Holder's inequality.

We can use the Holder's inequality to prove the triangle inequality for  $||x||_p$ . We go to the next result.

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Minkowski's inequality. If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , then we have the  $||x+y||_p \le ||x||_p + ||y||_p$ . **Proof of Minkowski's inequality.** Let us write

$$||x+y||_{p}^{p} = \sum_{i=1,\dots,N} |x_{i}+y_{i}|^{p} \leq \sum_{i=1,\dots,N} |x_{i}+y_{i}|^{p-1} (|x_{i}|+|y_{i}|)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1,\dots,N} \mathcal{L} x_{i} \vee |x_{i}+y_{i}|^{p-1} + \sum_{i=1,\dots,N} \mathcal{L} y_{i} \vee |x_{i}+y_{i}|^{p-1}$$

Now, to each of these terms we are going to apply Holder's inequality.

$$\sum_{i=1,...N} \dot{\iota} x_i \vee |x_i + y_i|^{p-1} \le ||x||_p \Big[ \sum_{i=1,...N} |x_i + y_i|^{(p-1)p^{\iota}} \Big]^{\frac{1}{p^{\iota}}} = ||x||_p \Big[ \sum_{i=1,...N} |x_i + y_i|^p \Big]^{\frac{1}{p^{\iota}}}$$
$$\dot{\iota} ||x||_p ||x + y||^{\frac{p}{p^{\iota}}}.$$

One can do the same thing for the second term. Therefore, we get

$$||x+y||_{p}^{p} \le (||x||_{p}+||y||_{p})||x+y||_{p}^{\frac{p}{p}}$$

Now, if x + y = 0, we have nothing to prove in the Minkowski's inequality. So, if  $x + y \neq 0$ , then we can divide by  $||x + y||^{\frac{p}{p^{i}}}$  and therefore you will get

$$||x+y||_{p}^{p-\frac{p}{p^{\prime}}} \le (||x||_{p}+||y||_{p}).$$

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Since 
$$p - \frac{p}{p^{\iota}} = 1$$
, we get  $||x + y||_p \le ||x||_p + ||y||_p$ .

This proves the triangle inequality for  $\|.\|_p$  and therefore they are all norms; and we also saw that, since Cauchy sequence means component wise Cauchy (coordinate wise Cauchy). Therefore, by the completeness of R, we also get the completeness of  $R^N$  for each of these norms. The case of  $\|.\|_{\infty}$  is easier than all of  $\|.\|_p$ , so I will leave it as an exercise for you to do this. So, we have defined a whole family of norms and on finite dimensional spaces on  $R^N$ . You could have done it on  $C^N$  as well without any change in any of the proofs, and hence you have a lot of examples. (Refer Slide Time: 17:06)

Now let us come to the question of sequence spaces; again we look at  $1 \le p \le \infty$ . And we define

$$l_p = \left\{ \left( x_n \right) : \sum_{i=1,\ldots,\infty} \left| x_n \right|^p < \infty \right\} \text{ and } l_\infty = \left[ \left( x_n \right) : Su p_n \left| x_n \right| < \infty \right].$$

So,  $l_{\infty}$  is the set of all bounded sequences,  $l_p$  is the set of all sequences that are p summable. Now we will define the norm on these spaces.

For  $x = (x_n) \in l_p$ , we define  $||x||_p = \left(\sum_{n=1,...,\infty} |x_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$  and that is finite and so it is well defined. For  $x = (x_n) \in l_\infty$ , we define  $||x||_\infty = Su p_n \lor x_n \lor i$  which again is well defined because the sequence is bounded.

So, I will leave it you to check (as we did it in the case of finite dimensions) that this satisfies all the properties of a norm. But, before it is a norm, we do not even know that  $l_p$  is a vector space. If you take a sequence  $(x_n) \in l_p$  and multiply it by a number  $\alpha$ , then of course the sequence  $(\alpha x_n) \in l_p$  as well. But, if two if you have two sequences  $(x_n), (y_n) \in l_p$  then, what is the guarantee that  $(x_n+y_n) \in l_p$ . This is the question which we should answer first, only then  $l_p$  will become a vector space; then only it will make sense for us to talk of a normed linear space.

We will do both together so again all the other properties of norm are obvious; in one stroke we will prove that  $l_p$  is a vector space and simultaneously  $i \lor . \lor i_p$  satisfies the triangle inequality. Let us do that.

Let us take  $x = (x_n), y = (y_n) \in l_p$ ; so the question is  $x + y = (x \wr \iota n + y_n) \in l_p, \iota$  which is the sequence got by component wise addition. Fix k, then by the Minkowski's inequality

$$\left(\sum_{i=1,\dots,k} |x_i + y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \le \left(\sum_{i=1,\dots,k} |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{i=1,\dots,k} |y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \le ||x||_p + ||y||_p$$

So, this is true for every k and therefore I can let k tend to infinity, the right side is independent of k, and hence we get that  $||x+y||_p \le ||x||_p + ||y||_p$ , which is finite of course.

This shows that  $x+y \in l_p$  and we have also proved the triangle inequality simultaneously. Therefore, all these sequence spaces are normed linear spaces. (Refer Slide Time: 23:22)



Using the same k trick, you can prove the following Holder's inequality:

**Holder's inequality**: Let  $1 and <math>x \in l_p$ ,  $y \in l_{p^i}$ . Then,  $\sum_{i=1,...,N} |x_i y_i| \le ||x||_p ||y||_{p^i}$ .

As I said, do this for any k, you will get it up to k; and then you can write this on left hand side, right hand side. And therefore now you can pass to the limit as k tends to infinity, so you get this; so, you have the Holder's inequality.

I forgot to tell you that if  $p=2=p^{i}$ , then the Holder's inequality is the same as the famous Cauchy Schwarz inequality, which you might have already come across.

So, finally we have the following theorem.

**Theorem.**  $l_p$  is a Banach space for every  $1 \le p \le \infty$ .

**Proof.** For  $p = \infty$ , I will leave it as an exercise; it is again much easier than the other cases. Let  $1 \le p < \infty$ . We want to show that every Cauchy sequence in  $l_p$  is convergent. Let us take a Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $l_p$ . For every fixed n, I will write its coordinates as  $x_n^i$ ,  $1 \le i < \infty$ . Thus,  $x_n = (x i i n), 1 \le i < \infty i$ . The sequence  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence. What does it mean? For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in N$ , such that if  $n, m \ge N$  then we have  $i |x_n - x_m||_p < \epsilon$ . In other words,

$$\sum_{i=1,2...\infty} \left| x_n^i - x_m^i \right|^p < \epsilon^p$$

This implies for each *i* we have that  $(x \& i n^i) \& i$  is itself Cauchy, and therefore you have that  $(x_n^i)$  will converge to some  $x^i$  in *R* or *C*, if you are looking at complex sequences; this will be *C*.

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So, we have a candidate now for the limit x which is  $x=(x^i)$ . So, we want to know if the candidate is eligible that means you have to answer two questions. 1.  $x \in l_p$  and 2.  $||x_n - x||_p \to 0$ . If you answer both these questions affirmatively, then that means every Cauchy sequence is convergent; and therefore  $l_p$  would be a Banach space. Now let us do this. First of all, just as real line, every Cauchy sequence is bounded. Therefore, there exists a positive C>0 such that  $||x_n||_p \le C$ . This means that

$$\sum_{n=1,\ldots,\infty} \left| x_n^i \right|^p \le C^p$$

Therefore, for every *k* we have

$$\sum_{i=1,\ldots,k} \left| x_n^i \right|^p \leq C^p,$$

because this sum is smaller than the previous infinite sum. Now one can allow  $n \to \infty$  to get

$$\sum_{i=1,\ldots,k} \left| x^i \right|^p \le C^p$$

Left hand side is independent of k. Therefore, one can let k tend to infinity to get

$$\sum_{i=1,\ldots\infty} \left| x^i \right|^p \leq C^p,$$

which implies that x belongs to  $l_p$ . So, we have answered the first question.

Now we need to answer the second question. We already saw that for given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n, m \ge N$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1,\ldots\infty} \left| x_n^i - x_m^i \right|^p \le \epsilon^p$$

So, we do the k trick once more. For fixed k, we have

$$\sum_{i=1,\ldots,k} \left| x_n^i - x_m^i \right|^p \le \epsilon^p$$

Now, you keep *n* fix greater than or equal to capital *N*, and *m* tend to infinity. So, you get that

$$\sum_{i=1,\ldots,k} \left| x_n^i - x^i \right|^p \le \epsilon^p$$

This is true for every k and this means that  $||x_n - x||_p \le \epsilon$ ,  $\forall n \ge N$ . This means  $||x_n - x||_p \to 0$ . Therefore, we have shown that the candidate is indeed suitable. This completes the proof that  $l_p$  is a Banach space. So, with this we will stop sequence spaces; our next example would be function spaces.