

Measure Theory
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Lecture - 35
Completeness of L^p

So, in the last lecture we saw the definition of L^p spaces. So, these were functions which were whose p th power was integrable and we also saw some inequalities Holder's inequality, and the Minkowski's inequality. I will briefly recall them before we go ahead, our aim today would be to prove that the L^p spaces as a normed space. So, remember the L^p norm gives you a normed space which makes it into a complete normed space that is what we want to do now.

So, recall that the space of functions which we consider are equivalence classes in fact, functions which are equal almost everywhere or thought of as same functions in the space L^p for most of the computation this does not matter but this is a point one should remember all the time. So, let us start.

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Handwritten notes on a whiteboard defining L^p spaces and their norm. The text is as follows:

L^p -spaces (X, \mathcal{F}, μ) - measure space $1 \leq p < \infty$

$L^p(\mu) = \left\{ f\text{-meas} \mid \int_X |f|^p d\mu < \infty \right\}$ $1 \leq p < \infty$

$p = \infty \quad L^\infty(\mu) = \left\{ f\text{-meas} \mid f \text{ is essentially bounded. } \exists M < \infty \text{ such that } |f| \leq M \text{ a.e.} \right\}$

$f \in L^p(\mu) \quad L^p\text{-norm of } f \quad \|f\|_p = \left(\int_X |f|^p d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

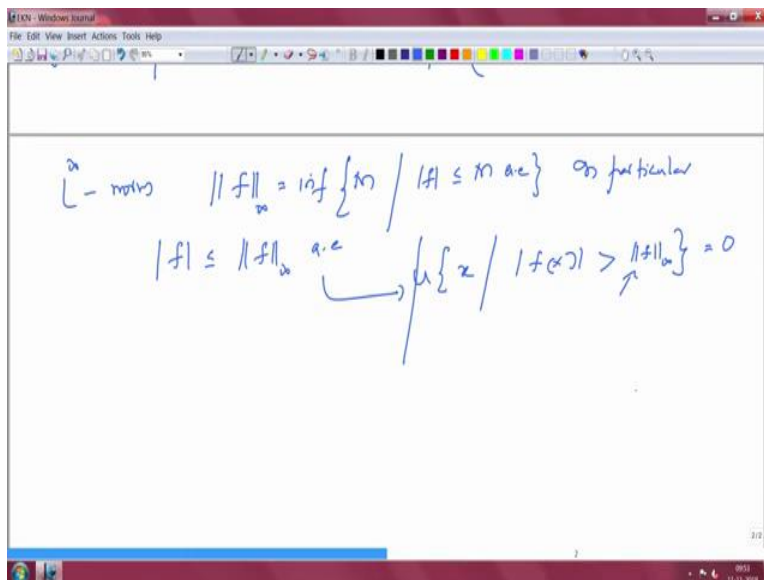
So, recall that we have L^p spaces. So, as usual we have a space x , a sigma algebra \mathcal{f} , and the measure μ . So, this is our measure space and on this we defined L^p spaces. So, we generally denote it by L^p of μ which is all measurable complex valued functions such that, the integral of $|f|^p$ to the μ is finite.

So, we looked at only p between 1 and infinity and when p equal to infinity. So, this is, this definition for p strictly less than infinity when p is equal to infinity we had L infinity of μ . So, this was all those functions which are essentially bounded. So, that is about which I did not use last time.

So, let me define this f is essentially bounded, essentially bounded which means that, that is there exists sum m strictly less than infinity such that, such that $\text{mod } f$ is less than or equal to m almost everywhere. So, there may be a set which has measure 0 where this inequality is not true but, that we can $(\cdot)(3:01)$ which, so, this also gives me the norm.

So, let us start with here L^p norm of the function f in L^p if a take the L^p norm, L^p norm of f is defined to be. So, we use this simple which is integral over x $\text{mod } f$ to the p $d\mu$ to the 1 by p . So, remember when we talk about the norm there is always a 1 by p at the top which is what makes it into a norm.

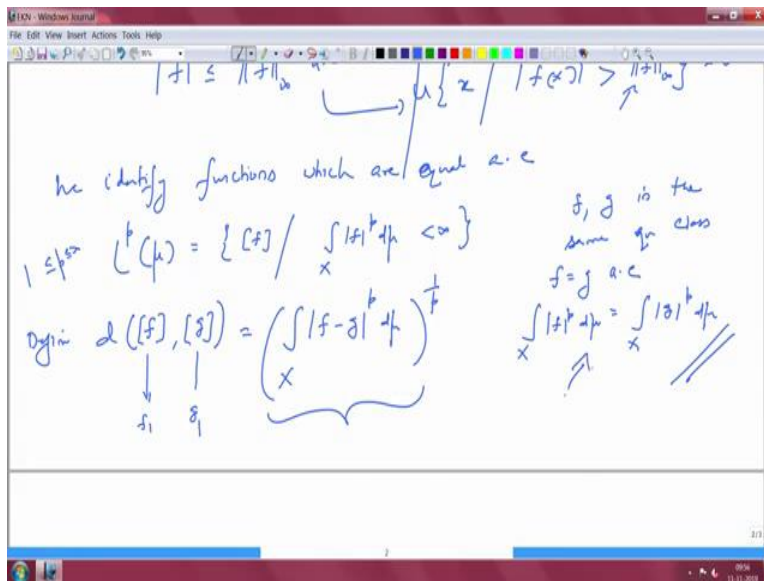
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So, when p is infinity, L infinity norm well how was this then? So, you look at, you look at all those m . So, you look at the infimum of things which are bigger than m . So, infimum of all those m such that, $\text{mod } f$ is less than or equal to m almost everywhere. So, this would be the smallest number which satisfy. So, in particular, in particular which will be, this will be used every now and then, $\text{mod } f$ is less than or equal to L infinity norm of f almost everywhere.

This is the constant the L infinity norm and as a function f will be bounded by L infinity norm of f almost everywhere. So, this also tells me that if I look at the set x such that, mod f of x is strictly greater than L infinity norm of f, this will have measure 0. So, mu of this will be 0 because, you cannot have a positive, set of positive measure where, mod f is greater than this quantity. So, this is the space we are looking at.

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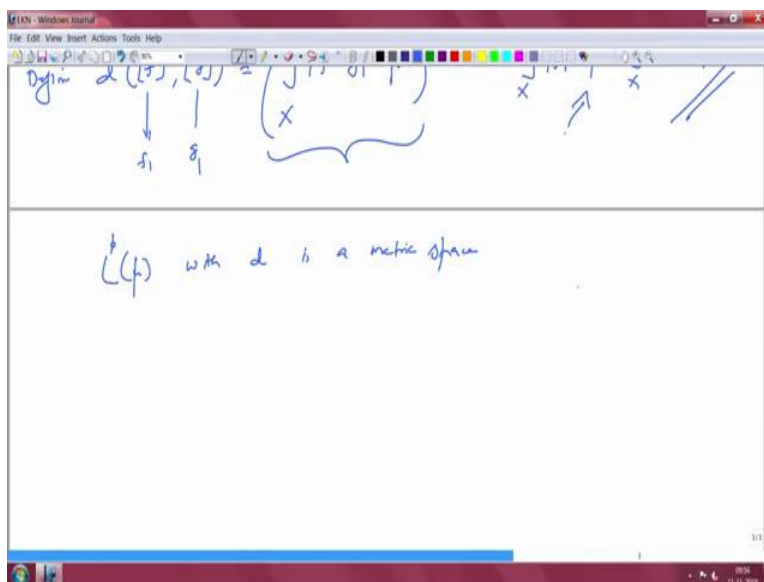


Also recall that we identify, we identify functions which are equal almost everywhere, functions which are equal almost everywhere. In another words, these spaces, spaces are collection of L p mu for 1 less than or equal to p, less than or equal to infinity is the collection of equivalence classes of f, d mu is finite. The norm does not change if I take f and g in the same equivalence class, in the same equivalence class then f equal to g almost everywhere and so, the norm does not change. So, integral over mod x mod f to the p d mu is same as the integral over x mod g to the p d mu.

So, the norm will not change whatever representative of f we take from the equivalence class. So, in this space we define. So, define the distance function d. So, I take two points, well strictly speaking I should take equivalence classes. So, let me do that, I will drop the equivalence class after some time when once you are used to it, it does not really make any serious difference. So, if I take two points in the space which two equivalence classes their difference is defined, the distance is defined to be integral of mod f minus g to the p d mu to the 1 by p.

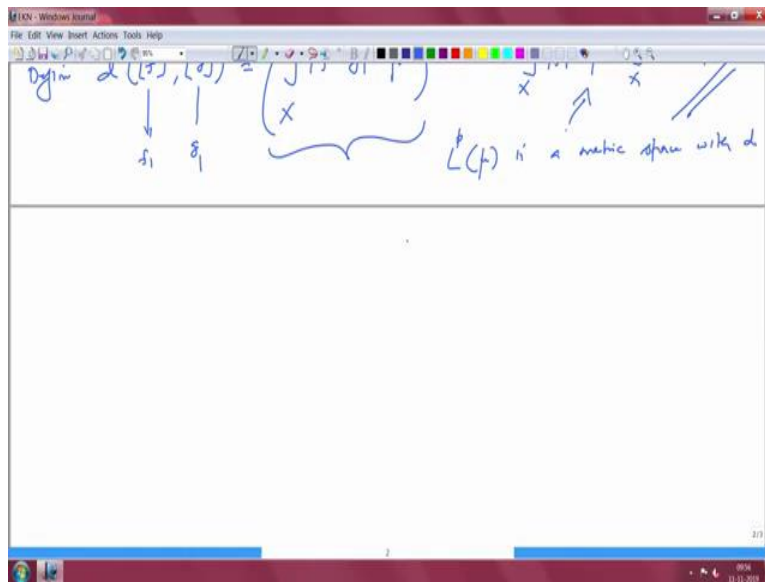
So, again it is easy to see that this is well defined because, of this whatever instead of f and g if, I take f_1 from this class and g_1 from this class I can use f_1 and the g_1 in the definition of the distance and I will still get the same quantity because of this. So, that defines a distance function and d is a matrix.

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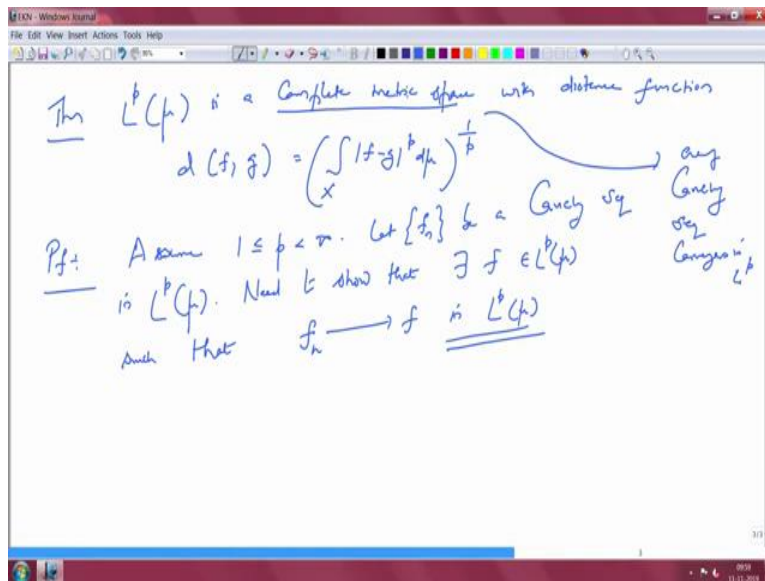
So, L^p with d is a metric space. So, this we had checked last time. So, that is where the equivalence classes come in, $d(f, g) = 0$ implies $f = g$ almost everywhere and that is what forced as the equivalence class property. So, now we want to prove that. So, this is the main theorem.

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So, let me. So, L^p is a matrix space, is a matrix space with the distance function d .

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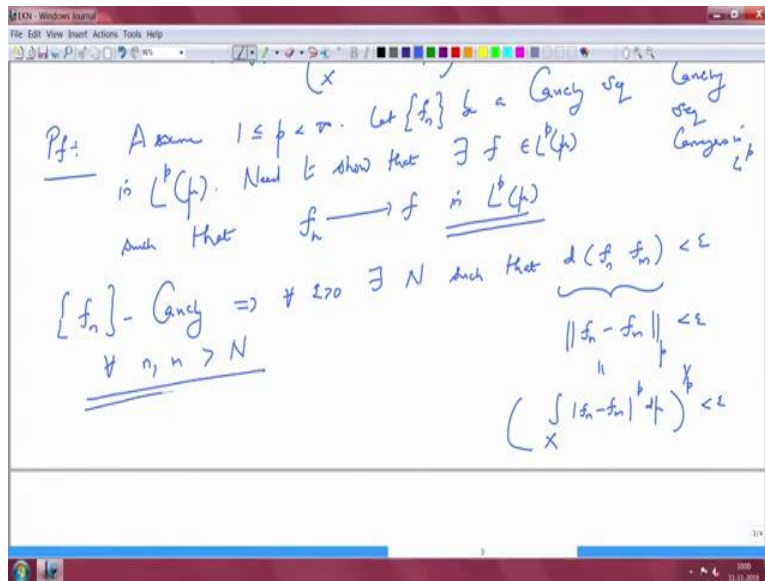
So, let me write the main theorem, one of the most important properties of L^p spaces is that L^p is a complete matrix space, complete matrix space with of course the distance function, with the distance function $d(f, g)$. So, I am dropping the equivalence class now $d(f, g)$ to be integral over x mod f minus g to the p $d\mu$ to the $1/p$ with respect to this matrix L^p is a complete matrix space.

So, let us do the prove and then we will look at more properties of L^p and some examples as well, proof. So, first assume. So, in many of this you will see that L^∞ case is easier to do. So, assume that $1 \leq p < \infty$ strictly less than infinity, well what do you mean by a complete matrix space? I need to show that if I take every Cauchy sequence converge, every Cauchy sequence converges, converge in L^p off course it converge to something in L^p . So, that is what we want to prove.

So, let us take a Cauchy sequence. So, let f_n be a Cauchy sequence. So, strictly speaking one should take the equivalence class but as I said it does not really matter let f_n be a Cauchy sequence, Cauchy sequence in L^p of μ what do I want to show? So, I need to show, need to show that there exists f in L^p such that, the sequence f_n which is the sequence in L^p converges to f in L^p . So, this is important it has to converge in the given matrix space, not in some other space.

So, I need to find out the limit of f_n which is the limit of f_n in that matrix space. So, f_n is Cauchy, what does that mean?

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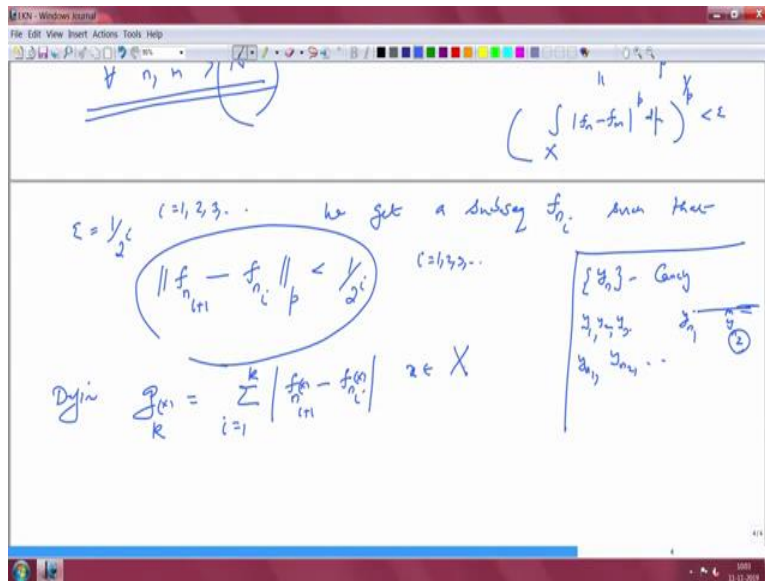


So, f_n Cauchy. So, let us write down the definition of that f_n Cauchy implies for every epsilon positive there exists sum capital N such that, such that the distance between f_n , small f_n , f small n and f small m will be less than epsilon for every n and m strictly greater than capital N after some stage you should be able to reduce the distance but remember the distance is define in

terms of the L^p norm, what does this mean? This means the L^p norm of f_n minus f_m this is less than epsilon.

So, remember this is also given by the integral of $|f_n - f_m|^p$ to the $1/p$ power. This is what is less than epsilon for every n and m greater than capital N . So, what we do is we choose epsilon to be $1/2^i$.

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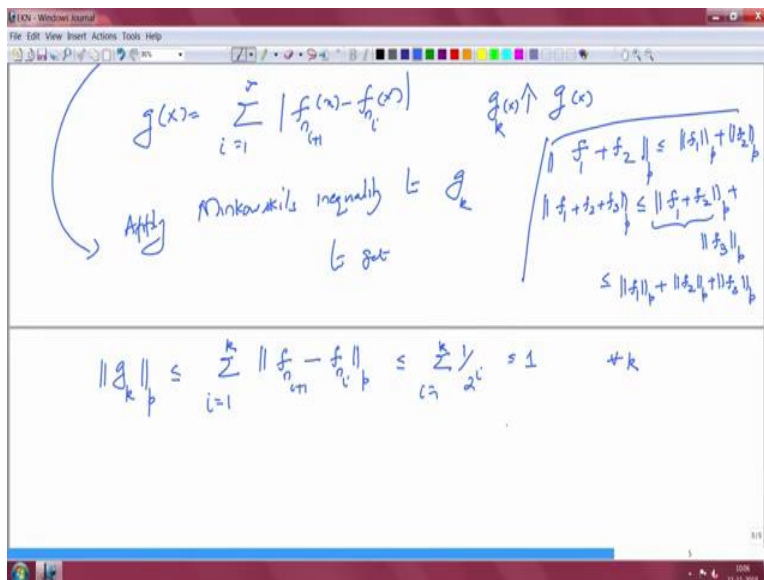
So, choose epsilon to be $1/2^i$. i equal to may be 1, 2, 3, and so on. So, epsilon depending upon the value of epsilon we should be able to get capital N . So, that beyond capital N we will have this inequality. So, that immediately tells us that we get a subsequence, we get a subsequence f_{n_i} . So, i , equal to 1, 2, 3, etc., such that, such that norm of $f_{n_{i+1}}$ minus f_{n_i} this is the distance between $f_{n_{i+1}}$ and f_{n_i} .

So, this will come from the given subsequence f_n less than $1/2^i$, you will see why we are doing this i equal to 1, 2, 3, etc. Well, what exactly did we do? So, let us take some metric space suppose, I have some sequence y_n which is Cauchy, then I can choose epsilon to be $1/2^i$ and I will get sum number. So, I have y_1, y_2 this is the sequence y_3 , etc. So, at some point let us say y_{n_1} from here onwards distance will be less than or equal to $1/2$. So, I have y_{n_1} then I take epsilon to be $1/2^2$. So, I will have to go further and I will get y_{n_2} .

So, that is the n^2 th place after that it would be any two points will have distance less than $1/n^2$. So, that I call y_{n^2} and so on. So, this is how the subsequence is chosen. So, this is the subsequence of the original sequence with the extra property that the distance is very small, what is the advantage of doing this? These are functions and these are we are looking at the L_p norms of these functions.

So, because they are functions we define new function. So, define new function let us say g_k of x is the function defined by summation $i=1$ to k of $|f_{n_i+1}(x) - f_{n_i}(x)|$ modulus well what does this mean? This means that the g_k at x is you look at f_{n_i+1} at x minus f_{n_i} . So, $x \in X$. So, this how the function is defined and we take another function.

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So, let us take the infinite sum. So, g of x to be the sum $i=1$ to infinity. So, that is just k going to infinity mod $f_{n_i+1}(x) - f_{n_i}(x)$. So, g what is g ? So, g is simply the limit of g_k . So, g_k well it is not just not simply a limit because you are adding positive numbers. So, g_k increases to g for every x well it may converge infinity but these are positive numbers. So, there is no problem in talking about the limit.

Now, let us apply Minkowski's inequality here. So, apply Minkowski's inequality to g_k . So, remember what is Minkowski's inequality if I have two functions let us say f_1 and f_2 I add them and look at the L_p norm that will be less than or equal to L_p norm of f_1 plus L_p norm of f_2 . Of course this you can extended to finitely many if I take 3 functions f_1 plus f_2 plus f_3 then

by the previous step we have this is less than or equal to $f_1 + f_2$ and then you take the L^p norm plus f_3 is L^p norm, which is of course less than or equal to because, here we can apply Minkowski's again.

So, we will get L^p norm of f plus L^p norm of f_2 plus L^p norm of f_3 . So, I can do this finitely many times. So, I will get to get if, I look at the L^p norm of g_k .

So, L^p norm of g_k is less than or equal to L^p norm of i equal to 1. So, let us go back to the definition of g_k . So, we are looking at i equal to 1 to k the L^p norm of $f_{n_i} + 1 - f_{n_i}$ that is the function there. So, I take the L^p norm. So, this is simply Minkowski's inequality but, this is less than or equal to summation i equal to 1 to k $1/2$ to the i that is how we have chosen the subsequence which is less than to 1.

So, this is true for every k . So, whatever finite sum you take that is bound the L^p norm is bounded by 1. So, this allows us to estimate the norm of g as well. So, what is g ?

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical derivations. At the top, the L^p norm of g_k is bounded by a sum of terms, which is further bounded by a sum of $1/2^i$ terms, resulting in a value less than or equal to 1. Below this, the function g_k is defined as a sum of absolute differences of functions f_{n_i} . The derivation then shows that the L^p norm of g_k is less than or equal to 1. Finally, it concludes that g is finite and $a.e.$ (almost everywhere).

$$\|g_k\|_p \leq \sum_{i=1}^k \|f_{n_i} - f_{n_{i-1}}\|_p \leq \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2^i} \leq 1$$

$$g_k = \sum_{i=1}^k |f_{n_i} - f_{n_{i-1}}|$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_X g_k^p \leq 1$$

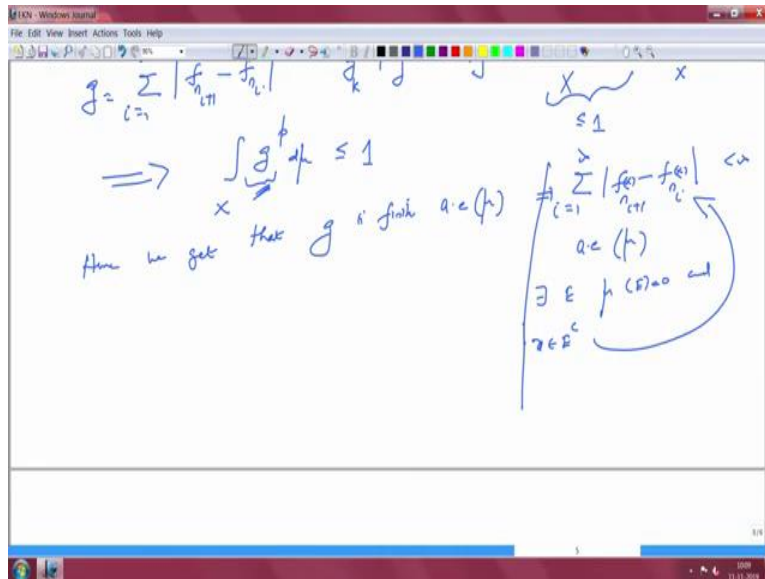
Here we get that g is finite a.e.

So, remember is the infinite sum, g is i equal to 1 to infinity $f_{n_i} + 1 - f_{n_i}$ and we know that g_k increases to g . So, g_k to the p will also increase to the g to the p , p is greater than or equal to 1. So, there is no problem here and so by Monotone Convergence Theorem. So, these are all positive functions.

So, there is no we do have take the modulus by Monotone Convergence theorem g_k to the p d μ will increase to g to the p d μ that is the Monotone Convergence theorem because g_k increases to g but what about this? These are less than or equal to 1 because that is the p th power of L^p norm of g_k that is less than or equal to 1. So, in particular limit also will be less than or equal to 1.

So, this implies integral over x g to the p d μ g remember is a positive function is less than or equal to 1. So, that is same as saying. So, that implies in particular. So, g will be in L^p . So, in particular g is finite everywhere. So, hence we get. So, hence we get that g is finite almost everywhere, g is finite almost everywhere μ because p th power of g is integrable. So, it cannot be infinity on a set of positive measure anything which is integrable has to be finite almost everywhere.

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Well, what does that mean? This means that. So, this tells me that if, I look at g which is the infinite sum i equal to 1 to infinity $|f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}|$. So, this I put an x here is finite that means the series converges almost everywhere μ . So, that means there exists some set which has measure 0. So, let us say there exists E such that, $\mu(E) = 0$ and $x \in E^c$ implies this converges. So, that is what it means. Well, what is the consequence of that? So, you can define. So, let us take the modulus out of g_k . So, let us write it down again.

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$$g_k = \sum_{i=1}^k |f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}|$$

$$(f_{n_2} - f_{n_1}) + (f_{n_3} - f_{n_2}) + \dots + (f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k})$$

$$g_k = \sum_{i=1}^k |f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}|$$

$$\text{fixed function } (f_{n_2} - f_{n_1}) + (f_{n_3} - f_{n_2}) + \dots + (f_{n_k} - f_{n_{k-1}}) + (f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k})$$

$$+ f_{n_1} + (f_{n_2} - f_{n_1}) + (f_{n_3} - f_{n_2}) + \dots + (f_{n_k} - f_{n_{k-1}}) + (f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}) = f_{n_{k+1}}$$

So, g_k is simply summation $i=1$ to k of $|f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}|$. So, if I take the modulus out of this then I am adding. So, $i=1$ will give me $f_{n_2} - f_{n_1}$ plus $f_{n_3} - f_{n_2}$ minus f_{n_2} . So, this is what is known as Telescoping sum. $\dots + f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}$. So, maybe I should write one more term.

So, let us $\dots + f_{n_i}$. So, $f_{n_k} - f_{n_{k-1}}$ plus $f_{n_k} + 1 - f_{n_k}$. So, I made a slight mistake. So, let us get this one correct this is f_{n_k} and this is $f_{n_k} - 1$, $f_{n_k} + 1$ and f_{n_k} . So, this is how it looks like if, I take the modulus outside and you see that this cancels with this will cancel with this etc, etc.

So, except this everything else will get canceled and the last term but if I put the modulus I know this converges. So, in particular without the modulus it has to converge because of absolute convergence implies conditional convergence. So, what we get is if, I look at $f_{n+1} - f_n$ or $f_{n+2} - f_{n+1} + f_{n+3} - f_{n+2} + \dots$, plus $f_{n+k} - f_{n+k-1}$ plus the last term in $g_k = f_{n+k+1} - f_{n+k}$ if, I look at this well what will happen I know because so I have only added this which is a fixed, fixed function.

So, this does not affect the convergence. So, it is a fixed function which I have added. Well, this is nothing but, well this cancels with. So, maybe I should put a plus here this cancels with this and this cancels with this, etc, etc telescoping sum only the last term will remain this and this gets cancel and I will have f_{n+k+1} , f_{n+k+1} but the left hand side as k goes to infinity, suppose to converge. So, that is same as saying the limit of f_{n+k} will exist.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical work. At the top, the equation $g_k = \sum_{i=1}^k (f_{n+i} - f_{n+i-1})$ is written. Below it, the sum is expanded as $(f_{n+2} - f_{n+1}) + (f_{n+3} - f_{n+2}) + \dots + (f_{n+k} - f_{n+k-1}) + (f_{n+k+1} - f_{n+k})$. A note on the left says "fixed function" with an arrow pointing to the first term $(f_{n+2} - f_{n+1})$. The next line shows the sum with terms crossed out: $(f_{n+2} - f_{n+1}) + (f_{n+3} - f_{n+2}) + \dots + (f_{n+k} - f_{n+k-1}) + (f_{n+k+1} - f_{n+k})$. The result is f_{n+k+1} . A note on the right says " $\{f_{n+k}\}$ is a subseq. of the original seq.". At the bottom, the limit is given as $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_{n+k}(x) \text{ exists } \forall x \in E^c$.

Handwritten derivation in a software window:

$$g_k = \sum_{i=1}^k |f_{n_i} - f_{n_{i-1}}|$$

Telescoping sum expansion:

$$|f_{n_1} - f_{n_0}| + (f_{n_2} - f_{n_1}) + \dots + (f_{n_k} - f_{n_{k-1}}) + (f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k})$$

After cancellation, the result is:

$$= f_{n_{k+1}}$$

A note on the left says "fixed function" with an arrow pointing to the first term.

So, this implies that limit of k going to infinity f_{n_k} . So, this exists, exists for every x and E complement remember, we had a set E where, measure was 0 and outside which this converged and wherever this converge is absolutely it will converge conditionally and for those points we have this limit existing but, f_{n_k} remember, f_{n_k} is a subsequence of the original sequence, is a subsequence of the original sequence, of the original sequence. So, what we have found is, we have found a function f as a limit.

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Handwritten definitions and conditions in a software window:

Def'n $f(x) = \begin{cases} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_{n_k}(x) & x \in E^c \\ 0 & x \in E \end{cases}$ $\mu(E) = 0$ / Pointwise limit

f is measurable $f_{n_k} \rightarrow f$ a.e. We need to show two facts

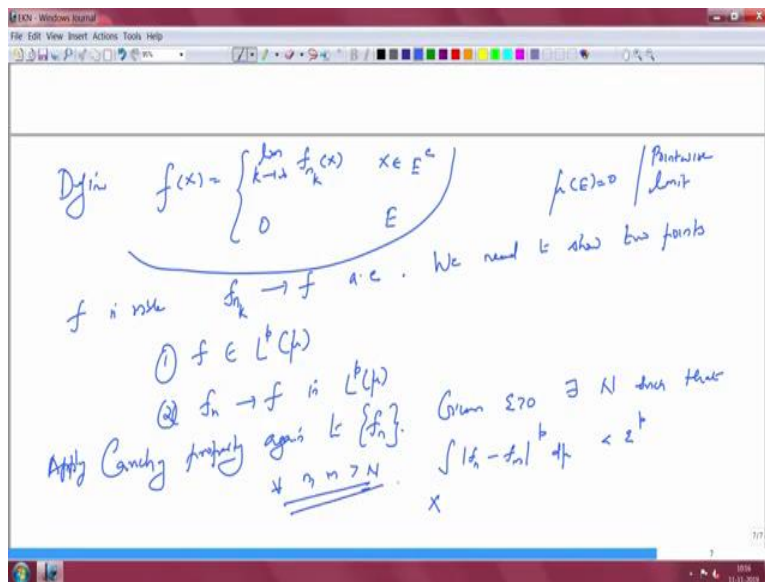
- ① $f \in L^1(\mu)$
- ② $f_{n_k} \rightarrow f$ in $L^1(\mu)$

So, define, define f of x to be, so, limit k going to infinity $f_{n_k} x$. So, we know that this exists if x is outside that set of measure 0, on E which has measure 0 you can put 0 or 1 any number does

not matter because, μ of E is 0, the measure of E is 0 but, let us put a constant because we do not know the sigma algebra is complete. So, if arbitrary define it may not be a measurable but with this definition f is measurable, f is measurable and f_n converge to f almost everywhere. So, we have found a limit but this does not prove anything.

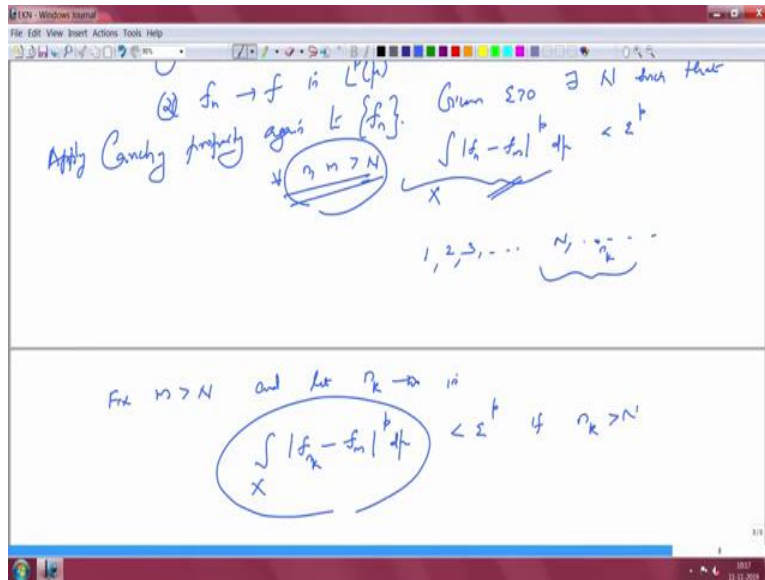
So, we need to show two things, we need to show two points well what are the two points? One, f belongs to L^p , two, f_n converge to f , f_n is the original sequence in L^p these are different statements, here what we have is a point wise limit. So, this is point wise limit for each x we have some limit. So, point wise limit that does not prove any of these statements one and two but, it is not difficult now we have got a candidate we will just show that our sequence converges there. So, now apply Cauchy property again.

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So, apply Cauchy property again, again to f_n , f_n is a Cauchy sequence we started with that. So, given epsilon I have sum n. So, given, so let us take sum epsilon positive there exists sum capital N such that, whenever these guy's n and m or greater than capital N we have the L p norm. So, I will write this integral form mod f_n minus f_m to the p d μ to the 1 by p. So, that is less than or equal to the epsilon to the p. So, instead of 1 by p I have put epsilon to the p. So, this is true whenever this happens. So, whenever this happens this is true.

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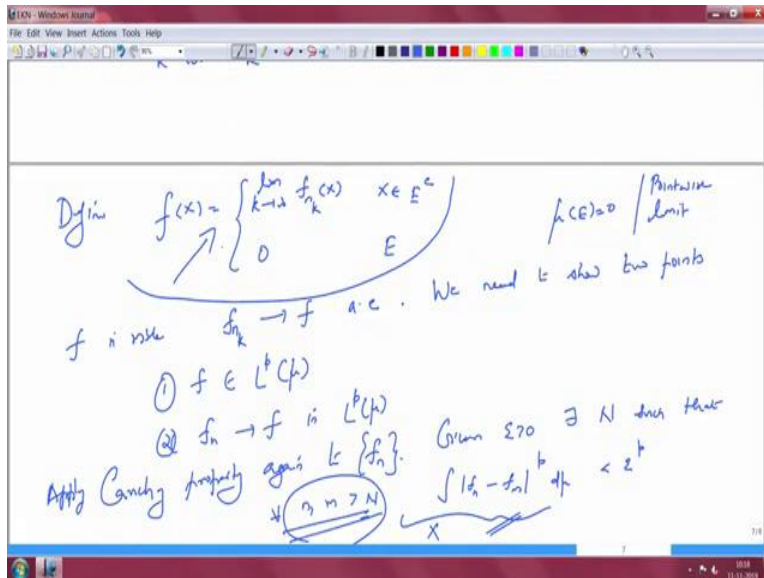
Now, the n_k are subsequence of the given sequence we have constructed. So, you see 1, 2, 3, etc., we have capital N here and we have numbers here. So, whenever this happens we have this. So, in particular whenever n_k is greater than n I know this happens. So, let us fix m . So, fix small m strictly greater than n and let n_k go to infinity in integral over X of $|f_{n_k} - f_m|^p$ we can do that because if n_k goes to infinity it is going to be bigger than capital N and so this will be this quantity will be smaller than epsilon.

So, this will be smaller than epsilon to the p if n_k is greater than capital N. But then, what happens with limit? Let us apply Fatou's lemma there.

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A screenshot of a software window titled "101 - Windows Journal" showing handwritten mathematical work. At the top, the expression $\int_X |f_n - f_m|^p$ is circled and crossed out with a diagonal line. Below it, the text "Apply Fatou's lemma" is written. The main derivation shows the inequality $\int_X \liminf_n |f_n - f_m|^p \leq \liminf_n \int_X |f_n - f_m|^p$. The right-hand side of this inequality is circled and labeled $\leq \varepsilon^p$. Below this, the expression $\int_X |f - f_m|^p \leq \varepsilon^p$ is boxed. At the bottom, it is noted that $f - f_m \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$ and therefore $f_m - (f - f_m) \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$.

A second screenshot of the same software window, showing the continuation of the handwritten work. The top part is identical to the first screenshot. The boxed inequality $\int_X |f - f_m|^p \leq \varepsilon^p$ remains. At the bottom, the text is updated to $f - f_m \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$ so $f_m + (f - f_m) = f \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$, with an arrow pointing from the boxed expression to the final result.



So, apply Fatou's lemma, apply Fatou's lemma, what does Fatou's lemma say? Integral \liminf is less than or equal to \liminf for integral. So, integral over x \liminf , integral \liminf with respect of n k is what I am taking f_n minus f_m , f_m is sort of fixed but, large enough $d\mu$, m is large enough this is less than or equal to \liminf of the integrals. So, \liminf of the integrals, integrals of, so $\int |f_n - f_m|^p d\mu$ but, I know because, of this, this is less than or equal to ϵ^p .

So, the whole thing is less than or equal to ϵ^p but, what happens to the left hand side? I know what happens to f_n , f_n will converge to f , f we have define here. So, f_n converges to f almost everywhere. So, the set E has measure 0. So, we will forget that. So, the left hand side becomes integral over x $|f_n - f_m|^p d\mu$. So, this proves both the things we want in one go because this tells me ϵ^p is a small, small number but, what does it tell me?

It tells me that $f_n - f_m$ it is a measurable function that is in L^p . So, $f_n - f_m$ that will also be in L^p because, it is a difference of two L^p function. So, $f_n - f_m$ should be in L^p well. So, I should, I made it unnecessarily complicated. So, $f_n - f_m$ is in L^p , $f_n - f_m$ is in L^p . So, if I simply add them that we will do, this is equal to f that will be in L^p . So, that was one of the things we wanted to prove, we remember two things. So, one of them is done but, I need to show f_n goes to f in L^p . So, let us apply this again here, what did we get?

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Apply Fatou's lemma

$$\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f_n - f_m|^p dx \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int |f_n - f_m|^p dx \leq \varepsilon^p$$

$$\int |f - f_m|^p dx \leq \varepsilon^p$$

$f - f_m \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$ so $f_m + (f - f_m) \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$
 $= f$

$\|f - f_m\|_p \leq \varepsilon$
 $\forall m > N$

Apply Fatou's lemma

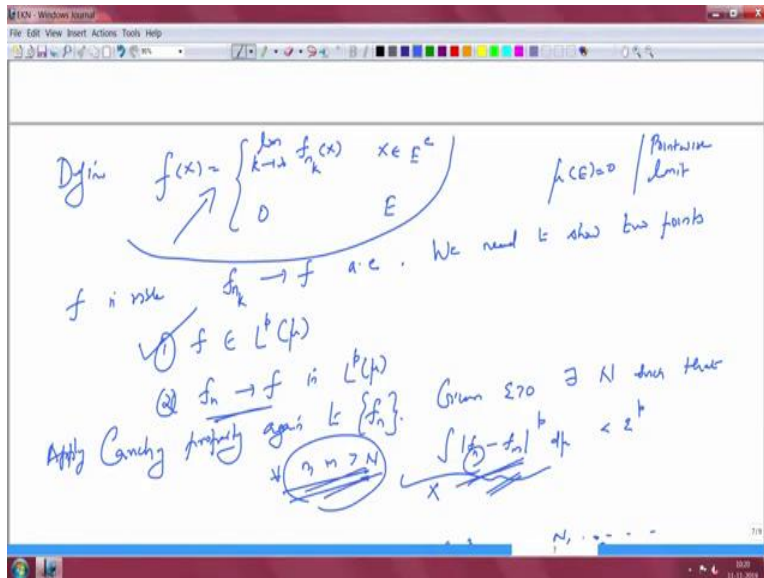
$$\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f_n - f_m|^p dx \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int |f_n - f_m|^p dx \leq \varepsilon^p$$

$$\int |f - f_m|^p dx \leq \varepsilon^p$$

$f - f_m \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$ so $f_m + (f - f_m) \in L^p(\mathcal{F})$
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$\|f - f_m\|_p \leq \varepsilon$
 $\forall m > N$

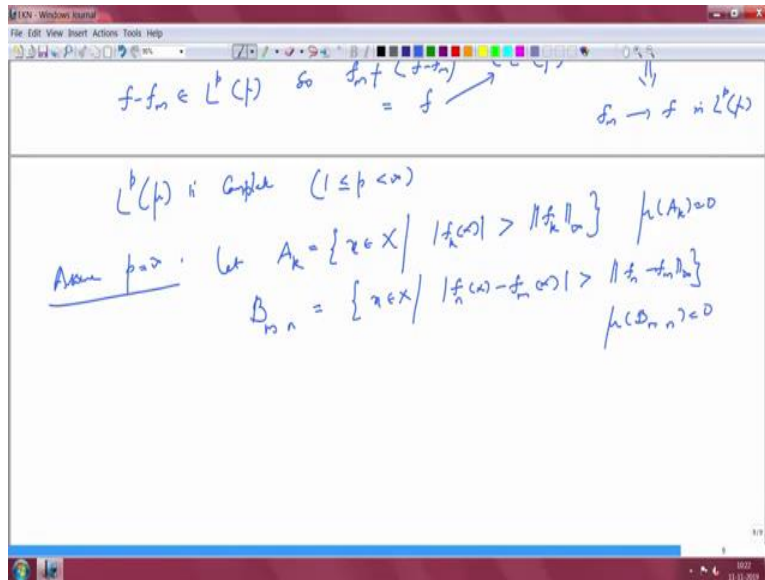
\Downarrow
 $f_n \rightarrow f$ in $L^p(\mathcal{F})$



From here we got this, this tells me that L^p norm of f minus f_m is less than or equal to epsilon remember when we take L^p norm there is a $1/p$ that is why epsilon to the p became epsilon for every n , every m greater than capital N .

So, that is how we started with let us go back here again, for every n and m we had this and this is where we change the n to n_k took the $(\cdot)(31:31)$. So, for every small m greater than capital M, N we have this which is same as saying f_m converge to f in L^p . So, this implies f_m converges to f in the L^p matrix that is very important L^p . So, that proves that f is, that proves that L^p is complete.

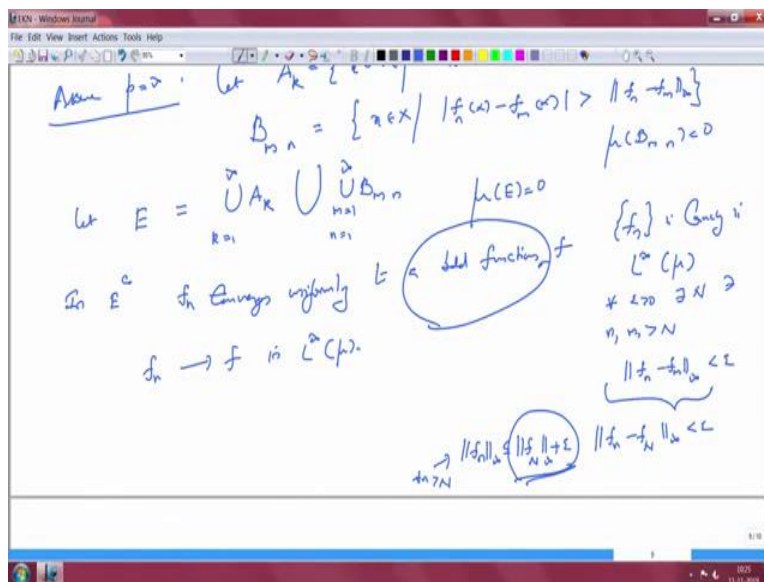
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So, L^p is complete but we assume that $1 \leq p < \infty$. So, let us quickly get rid of $p = \infty$ as well. So, assume, assume $p = \infty$. So, let A_k to be the set $x \in X$ such that, $|f_k(x)| > \|f_k\|_\infty$. So, then of course $\mu(A_k)$ will be 0 and also $B_{m,n}$.

So, again it is not very difficult to see what is going to happen we are trying to get rid of the problematic sets but, all of them will have measure 0. So, $f_n(x) - f_m(x)$ is strictly greater than the L^∞ norm of f_n and f_m and of course this will also have measure 0 because, of the definition of the L^∞ norm.

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Now, outside. So, let. So, you take the union of these sets well in fact the union A_k , union of $B_{m,n}$. So, I will put m equal to 1, n equal to 1 to infinity, k equal to 1 to infinity this is a countable union of sets of measure 0. So, E^c will also have measure 0, well what will happen outside E ? So, in E^c complement.

So, recall that f_n is Cauchy in L^∞ , f_n is Cauchy in L^∞ we are looking at p equal to infinity case what does that mean? For every ϵ positive there exists sum capital N . Such that, whenever small n and small m are greater than capital N the norm which is the L^∞ norm now f_n minus f_m L^∞ norm is less than ϵ .

So, that is like uniformly Cauchy. So, if you have for each x if you have $f_n(x)$ to be Cauchy it will converge because complex plane is complete that we will do. So, apply that on E^c complement you will prove that So, this is something that you can check f_n converges, converges uniformly to a bounded function, to a bounded function, boundedness is very easy because all the f_n 's are bounded by some fixed quantity because, of this. So, if I look at this I know that norm of f_n minus f_N L^∞ norm is less than ϵ . So, because, of that L^∞ norm of f_n will be less than or equal to L^∞ norm of capital f_N plus ϵ .

So, you take sum ϵ you will have this, this is true for every n , for every n greater than capital N . So, all of them are bounded. So, if I take the limit that will also be bounded by this fixed constant. So, I will get bounded function. So, outside E , I know f_n converges to f . So, f_n

converges to f bounded function let us called that f in L^∞ . So, we will stop here we just proved that the spaces we were looking at L^p of μ is complete as long as p is between including 1 and infinity we will look at finer properties of L^p spaces.

For example, we know there are simple functions in L^p spaces, there are also continuous functions with compact support and so on. So, we will look at such finer properties in the next lecture.