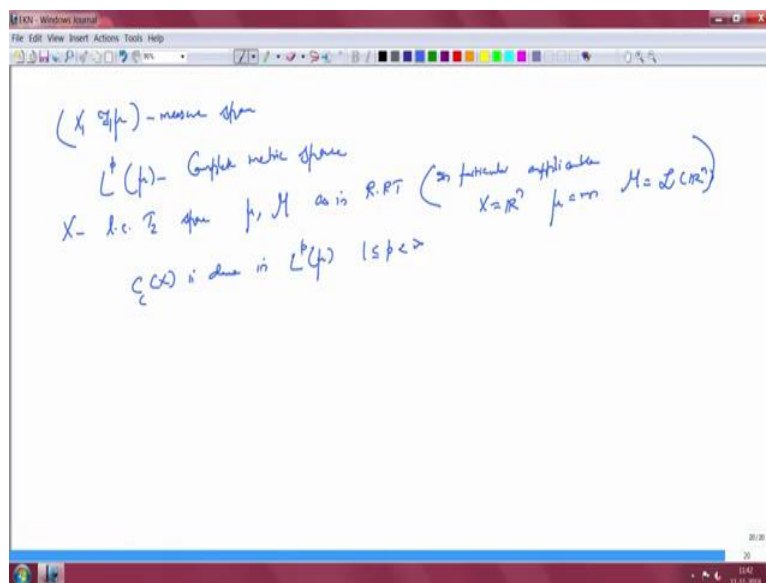


Measure Theory
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Lecture - 37
Examples of L^p spaces

Okay, so we will continue the study of L^p spaces and depending on the time we may go to some new topics. But, I would like to give some examples which will make you familiar with the L^p spaces we are dealing with. So, we have been doing everything in the abstract settings. Let us let us look at some very concrete situations, where we have the Lebesgue measure or the Counting measure or some of the measures which you are familiar with.

And see how the results we have done so far takes place or manifest in this concrete situations. Because some of these will be you will have use it later on, when you deal with L^p spaces on the real line or \mathbb{R}^n in general.

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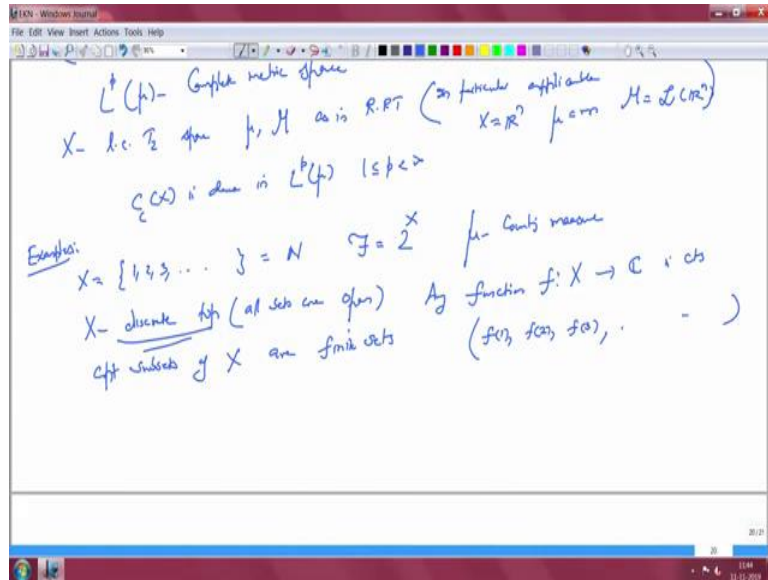


So, let us start so we remember so let us immediately recall some of the settings. So, we had this measure space as usual and we looked at $L^p \mu$ which was a complete metric space. And if x was locally compact Hausdorff space and we had the measure and the sigma algebra as in Riesz Representation Theorem.

So, in particular all the abstract results which we proved would be applied, applicable to concrete situation when x is \mathbb{R}^n and μ is the Lebesgue measure. So, the sigma algebra M would be the Lebesgue sigma algebra of \mathbb{R}^n . Then we know that C_c of x is dense in L^p of μ , but this remember is true only for p strictly less than infinity. L^∞ it will not be true

we will see some examples soon. So, let us now we are going to look at some really concrete situations.

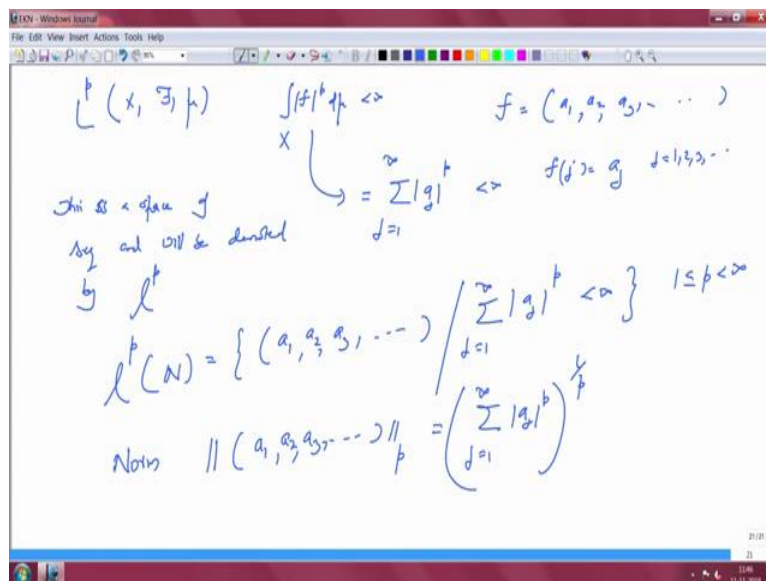
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So, we will start with simpler space, so let us take X to be this. So, examples so let us take X to be 1, 2, 3 et cetera so this is the set of positive integers. And we should have a sigma algebra \mathcal{F} , so this is just 2^X the power set and μ the counting measure. So, we can consider X with the discrete topology, so what is the discrete topology? All sets are open, discrete metric, all sets are open. So, what are compact sets here, compact subsets of X are finite sets. No infinite set is compact, so these are finite sets.

So, in particular when I look at (conti) well, it is discrete topology, so any function is continuous. So, any function f from X to the complex plane is continuous. Well, how does the function look like any function f is simply a sequence. This is just f_1, f_2, f_3 et cetera we will write it as an infinite tuple.

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So, now if I look at L^p spaces, so let us look at L^p of X , we have this f and the counting measure μ . How does it look like? Well, you look at any function on X which is in L^p .

So, I want the integral of f modulus of that to the p $d\mu$ to be finite. But, f is a sequence so I can write f as let us take a_1, a_2, a_3 et cetera. What does that mean? This means that, f of j equal to a_j , j equal to $1, 2, 3$ and so on. So, that would be the function which is identified with an infinite tuple. So, what is this quantity in this situation, this would be integral over X mod f to the p $d\mu$ is simply the summation. The integral with respect to a counting measure is always a summation.

So, this is j equal to 1 to infinity mod a_j to the p , so I want this to be finite. So, this is the sequence space so we will denote it by so this a sequence space, this is a space of sequences and will be denoted by small l^p . So, small l^p of \mathbb{N} because \mathbb{N} is our space, so this is simply we again forget the topology and all that because everything is continuous. So, all I have to do is to look at sequences a_1, a_2, a_3 et cetera with the property that, summation j equal to 1 to infinity mod a_j to the p , integral $d\mu$ is just this; this is finite.

So, this will make sense for 1 less than or equal to p strictly less than infinity. I will come to p infinity soon, but what is a norm here? So, norm of a function, function is a tuple. So, I look at a_1, a_2 , et cetera well a_3 et cetera infinite tuple I will look at the l^p norm. Well, this is simply the integral of the function which is mod a_j to the p $d\mu$ to the $1/p$.

So, this would be the norm so this is a perfect generalization of what is happening in \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n . We have seen this for finite, finite dimensional spaces and now we look at infinite tuples. So, this is the norm, well what is the norm for infinity?

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Notes $\| (a_1, a_2, \dots) \|_p$

$$p \geq 1 \quad \ell^p(\mathbb{N}) = \{ (a_1, a_2, \dots) \mid \| (a_1, a_2, \dots) \|_p < \infty \}$$

= finite sequences

\downarrow
 $\sup_j |a_j|$

$f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
 $\|f\|_\infty = \inf \{ M \mid |f(x)| \leq M \}$

$X = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ for f, g as in $\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}^n$ ($X = \mathbb{R}^n, \mu = \text{counting measure}$)

$\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ is dense in $L^p(\mathbb{N})$ ($1 \leq p < \infty$)

Example: $X = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \mathbb{N}$ $\mathcal{F} = 2^X$ $\mu = \text{counting measure}$

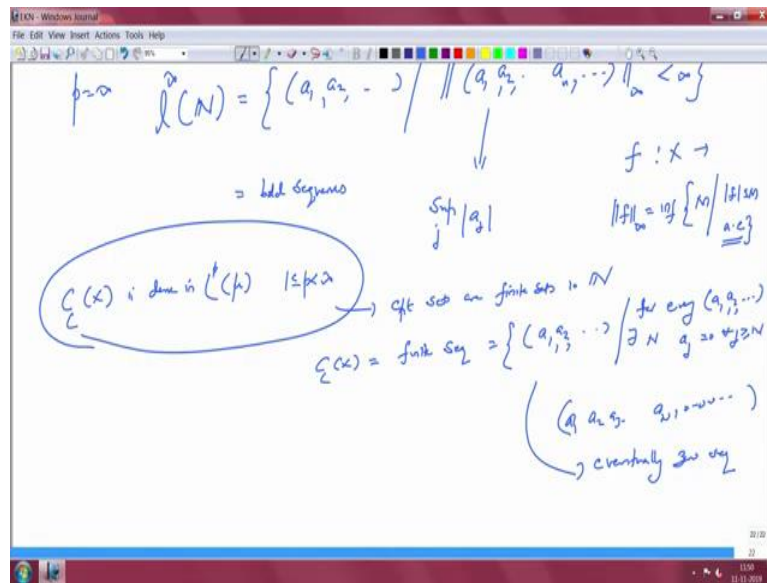
$X =$ discrete top (all sets are open) μ function $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ v. cts
 cft subsets of X are finite sets (f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots)

$L^p(X, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ $\int |f|^p d\mu < \infty$ $f = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots)$

So, p equal to infinity we will be looking at l^∞ of \mathbb{N} , what is this? This is look at infinite tuples a_1, a_2 et cetera such that, the l^∞ norm of this is finite so what is the l^∞ norm will see that. This has to be finite, what is the l^∞ norm so l^∞ let us recall that. If I have function f from X to let us say \mathbb{C} or wherever it is. The l^∞ norm of f was you look at infimum of all those M such that, $|f(x)| \leq M$ almost everywhere.

But, see almost everywhere condition says there are sets of measure 0. But, in this in the situation where it is the counting measure there are no sets of measure 0 except the empty set. So, because of that, this is the simply supremum of f, so this is nothing but supremum over j mod aj. So, these are bounded sequences so these are bounded complex sequences. So, that is your l infinity and this is L p.

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Okay, so now let us look at the result that $C_c(X)$ is dense in L^p . So, this was a result we proved, $1 \leq p < \infty$. Let us apply that, so what is $C_c(X)$ mean? Compact sets are finite sets in \mathbb{N} because we have a discrete topology, so in \mathbb{N} they are simply finite sets.

Any function is continuous and the support is compact, what does that mean. So, $C_c(X)$ is simply all those tuples which are 0 except on a set of finite measures. So, this is simply all finite sequences what does that mean? So, I will write the sum, this is simply a_1, a_2 et cetera all those tuples such that for every ϵ , there exist some N .

Well, the N can change depending on the tuple such that, a_j is 0 for every j greater than or equal to N . So, you keep writing a_1, a_2, a_3 et cetera and then it is 0, 0, 0, 0. So, eventually sequence, eventually zero sequences. Eventually zero sequences so that is what we mean by a finite sequence and that forms the continuous functions with compact support.

Because compact support meaning, there are only finitely many nonzero terms in the sequence, everything else will have to be 0 and that is dense. That we know by theorem but it is also easy to see. So, let us try to do that.

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$$a = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) \in \ell^p(\mathbb{N}) \quad \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |a_j|^p \right)^{1/p} < \infty$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$ choose N so that $\left(\sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} |a_j|^p \right)^{1/p} < \epsilon$

Consider $b = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N, 0, 0, 0, \dots) \in \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$

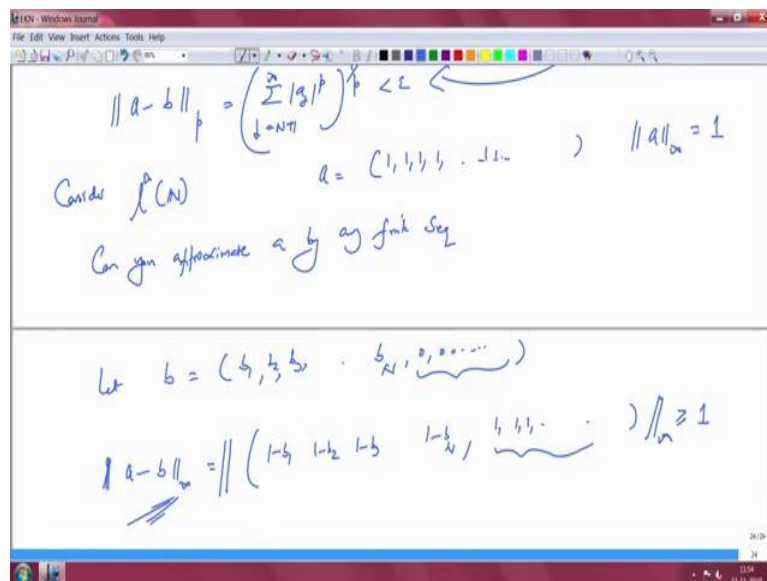
$$\|a - b\|_p = \left(\sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} |a_j|^p \right)^{1/p} < \epsilon$$

So, let us take a function in ℓ^p in this set up. So, let us say this is ℓ^p . So, I know that summation mod a_j , j equal to 1 to infinity to the p to the $1/p$ this is the norm, this is finite. How will I approximate this with a finite sequence? So, given epsilon I want to say then I can get a finite sequence which approximate this, so let us see. So, given epsilon positive I know this is a convergence sequence. So, choose capital N so that the tail of the series, j equal to N plus 1 to infinity mod a_j to the p to the $1/p$ is less than epsilon.

That is possible because it is a convergence sequence. So, now it is clear which function approximates this. So, consider, so let us let us call this function a consider function b that is a_1, a_2 et cetera a_3, a_n and then $0, 0, 0, 0$. So, you put zeros at there. This is of course in ℓ^p , so finite sequence and it is a continuous function with compact support on \mathbb{N} . What can you say about the norm of a minus b ? Well, if I look at the ℓ^p norm because the first n terms are same. So, when I subtract they will go and I have 0's here and the a_j 's.

So, this would be summation mod a_j to the p j equal to N plus 1 to the infinity to the $1/p$. And so of course this is less than epsilon because of this that is how we started. So, b approximates a so that is why these things are deaths. Well, there are more properties of ℓ^p which you should know and here you will immediately see that it is true in ℓ^∞ .

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So, consider L infinity of N , let us take a sequence 1, 1, 1, 1, 1. So, let us say a equal to 1, 1, 1, 1 et cetera all 1's. So, it is a bounded sequence and the L infinity norm of a is equal to 1. Can I approximate this with any finite sequence? Can you approximate a by any finite sequence? Because those are the compactly supported continuous functions. So, I want to try and see if I can approximate a with any finite sequence.

So, let b be a finite sequence, so this would be b_1, b_2, b_3 et cetera and there was some N for which b_n exist then you have 0, finite sequences. So, if I look at L infinity norm of a minus b , what do I get? Well, so I will get in the first term a minus b would be 1 minus b_1 . Then 1 minus b_2 , 1 minus b_3 et cetera 1 minus b_n .

These b_n 's could be 1 so that all I get 0. But, what happens next? I have 1's infinitely many terms and from here I have only 0's. So, I will have 1 minus 0, 1 minus 0 which will give me 1, 1, 1 and so on. So, when I take the maximum what is the L infinity norm? I have to take the maximum of this. But, I have 1's here already, so the maximum will be greater than or not equal to 1. So, no finite sequence can (approx), so if I take ϵ smaller than 1 there is no way finite sequence will converge to a .

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Consider $\ell^1(\mathbb{N})$ $a = (1, 1, 1, \dots)$

Can you approximate a by any finite seq

Let $b = (b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n, 0, 0, \dots)$

$\|a - b\|_1 = \left\| \left(1-b_1, 1-b_2, 1-b_3, \dots, 1-b_n, b_1, b_2, \dots \right) \right\|_1 \geq 1$

$\xi(x)$ is not dense in ℓ^1 .

Let $b = (b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n, 0, 0, \dots)$

$\|a - b\|_1 = \left\| \left(1-b_1, 1-b_2, 1-b_3, \dots, 1-b_n, b_1, b_2, \dots \right) \right\|_1 \geq 1$

$\{f_n\}$ is not dense in $\ell^1(\mathbb{N})$

Exct $\ell^1(\mathbb{N}) \subseteq \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ if $1 \leq p < \infty$
 (note that if $a = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) \in \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$
 $a \in \ell^1(\mathbb{N})$)

Try them with $\ell^p(\mathbb{Z})$
 $X = \text{Contable} / \text{in Contable}$
 $\mu = \text{Contable measure}$
 $\ell^p(\mu) = \ell^p(X)$

$\{f_n\}$ is not dense in $\ell^1(\mathbb{N})$

Exct $\ell^1(\mathbb{N}) \subseteq \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ if $1 \leq p < \infty$
 (note that if $a = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) \in \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$
 $a \in \ell^1(\mathbb{N})$)

Continuum is dense. $\exists a \in \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ which not in $\ell^1(\mathbb{N})$

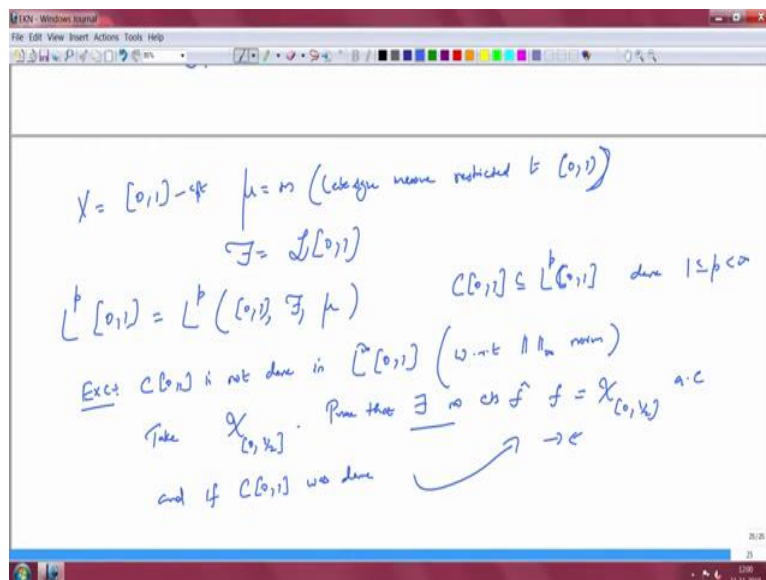
So, that means $C_c(X)$ is not dense in $L^\infty(X)$. In this case because we are looking at maybe I should write, $C_c(X)$ is finite sequences, finite sequences the collection of finite sequences, not dense in $L^\infty(X)$ of \mathbb{N} . So, you can define similar L^∞ sequence spaces, L^∞ L^p of \mathbb{Z} and so on.

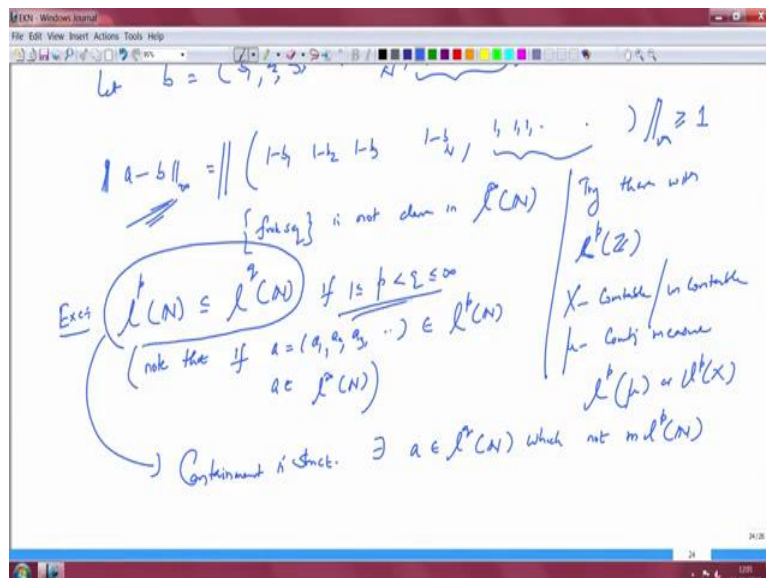
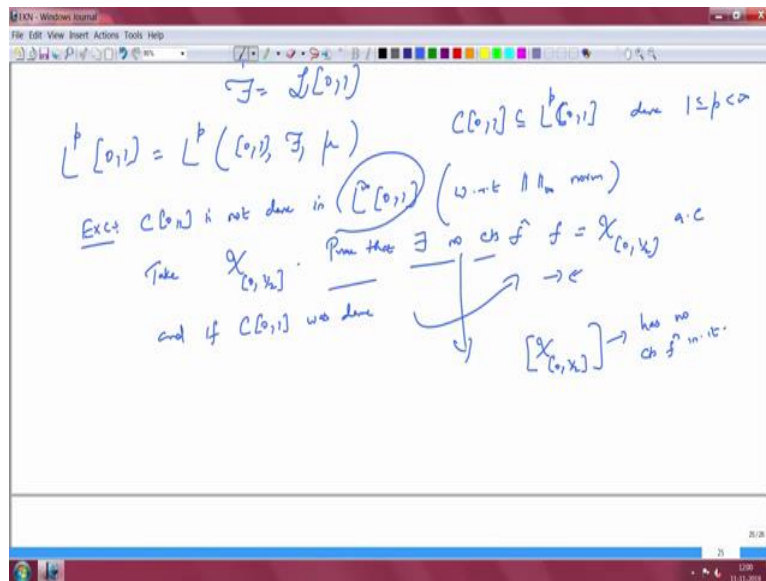
So, try this with L^p , L^p of \mathbb{Z} , you can also look at some set X countable or uncountable. Countable, uncountable and μ counting measure and you can consider L^p of μ or L^p of X , in that or L^p of X whatever notation you want and you do the same and you will finite sequences will not be dense.

And these spaces will have certain properties. So, let me give some exercises so that you are familiar with these spaces. L^p of \mathbb{N} is contained in L^q of \mathbb{N} if p is less than q , so everything is between 1 and infinity. That is not difficult to see, so one thing to note is that, note that if I take a sequence a_1, a_2, a_3 et cetera in L^p then it is already in L^∞ . Because the convergence sequence so N th term go to 0, so it is bounded.

So, if you use that this will immediately follow and the inequality and their containment is strict. Containment is strict, what does that mean? There exists a sequence a in L^q which is not in L^p , as easy to construct.

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So, now, let us look at another example, so I have let us take the space X to be equal to $[0, 1]$ close interval $[0, 1]$ that is the compact Hausdorff space. So, in particular all the theorems we know will be applicable, μ is a Lebesgue measure. So, this is the Lebesgue measure restricted to $[0, 1]$ so we know what this is. And the sigma algebra is of course the Lebesgue sigma algebra of $[0, 1]$.

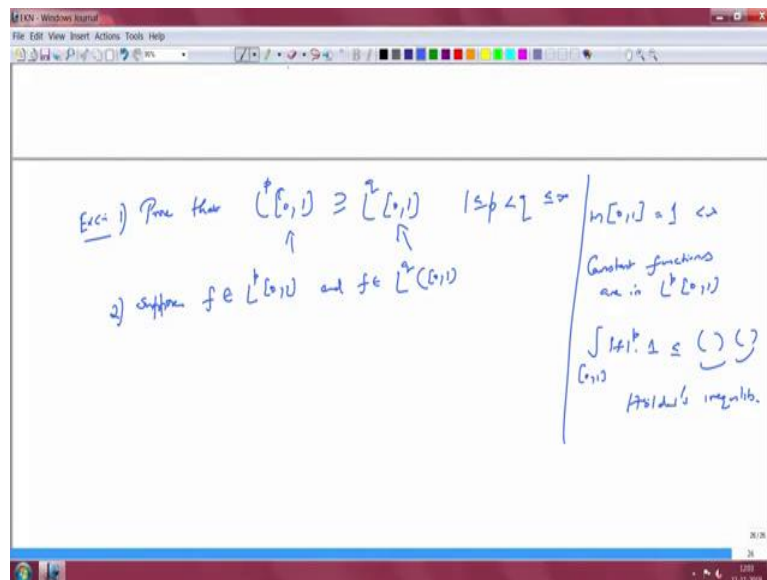
You intersect with $[0, 1]$ you will get a Lebesgue sigma algebra of $[0, 1]$. So, what is L^p ? We can look at L^p of $[0, 1]$, L^p of $[0, 1]$ is by so this is just the notation. So, this is just $[0, 1]$ script f and the measure μ , so we will not when we do not write the sigma algebra and the measure. We assume that it is the Lebesgue sigma algebra and the Lebesgue measure. Well, what sort of a space is this? Well, this is quite nice. First of all, you can see continuous functions on $[0, 1]$ they are contained in L^p of $[0, 1]$ and they are dense, okay it is dense.

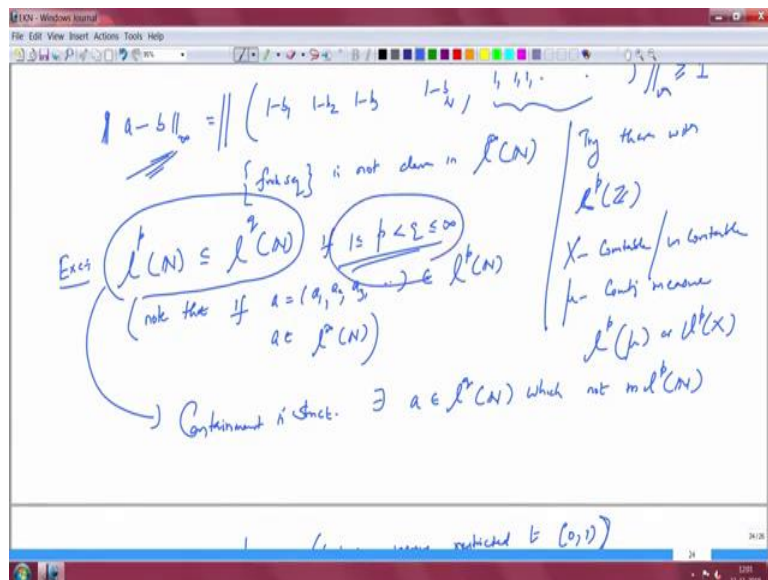
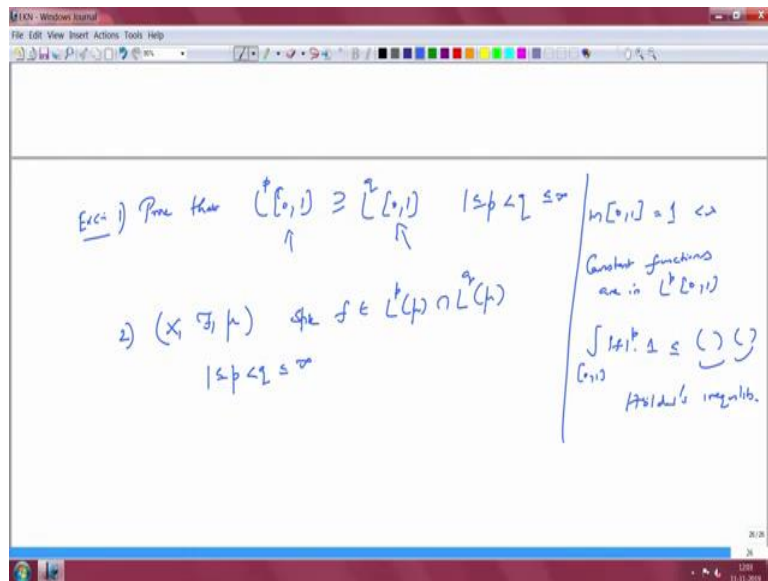
For p strictly less than infinity, again for continuity reasons if this was dense in L^∞ , everything in L^∞ will be continuous. Okay, so maybe that is an easy exercise which is $0, 1$ is not dense in L^∞ of $0, 1$. So, L^∞ of $0, 1$ will be all those functions which are defined on $0, 1$ essentially bounded. So, this is not with respect to L^∞ norm. So, for example you can take indicator of $0, \frac{1}{2}$. Prove that well prove that, there exist no continuous function f which is equal to indicator of $0, \frac{1}{2}$ almost everywhere.

First of all, that we do that and if $C[0, 1]$ was dense this will lead to a contradiction. Because you will be approximating $\chi_{[0, \frac{1}{2}]}$ with any continuous function in the L^∞ norm. So, the limit will be continuous, but this is not a continuous functional almost, this cannot be a continuous function at all. In the sense that, the remember these are equal equivalence classes, what this means is? If I look at the equivalence class of this indicator function. This equivalence class has no continuous function in it, that is the meaning.

So, if you justify this then you know that, well so in the case of small $1/p$ which is the sequence $(\chi_{[0, \frac{1}{2}]})(21:04)$ we had certain containments. So, will see that that is true in this case as well.

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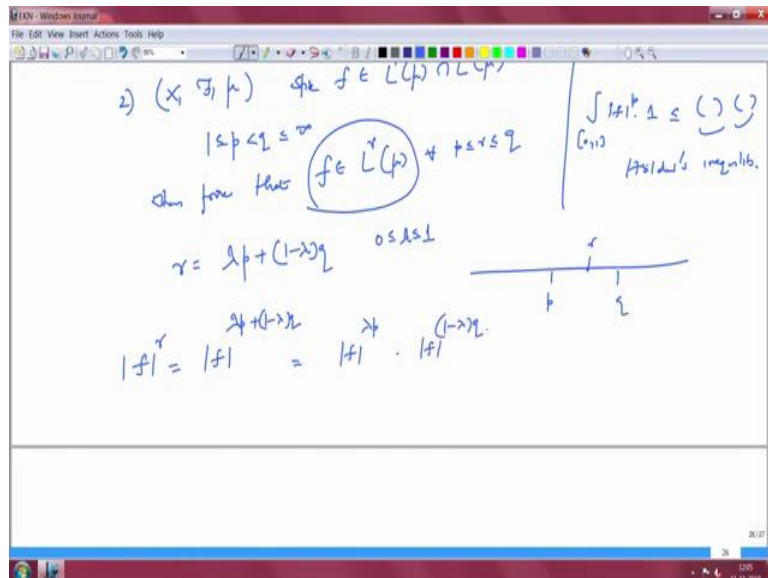
So, exercise again. Prove that, L^p of $[0, 1]$ contains L^q of $[0, 1]$ if p is less than q . So, here it goes the other way that is not very surprising because the spaces are different. So, here when we had this inequality the containment was in this direction, but here it says the opposite, that is the measure is finite. Well, how will one prove this thing so you need to realise that, $[0, 1]$ has finite measure.

$[0, 1]$ the measure of $[0, 1]$ is 1 which is finite because of this constant functions are in L^p . Constant functions are in L^p because, if I take a constant function and take the p th power that is still a constant that comes out and measure of $[0, 1]$ will come that is 1, so this is trivial. Then you can apply Holder's inequality this, so if I look at something in L^q so I am looking at and I want to show it is here. So, I look at my mod f to the p and I can look at mod f to the q into 1 over $[0, 1]$ and apply Holder's inequality and I will get two things. You want to make sure that these two are finite.

That is all you need to do, so apply Holder's inequality. In fact, if you can generalize this, so let us, let me give you another exercise here. Suppose f belongs to L^p of $(0, 1)$ and f belongs to L^q of $(0, 1)$ well not $(0, 1)$ so let us go general, so let I can write down a general thing. So, here I have X , $f \in \mu$ so I am not assuming anything on X yet. Suppose, f belongs to L^p of μ intersected with L^q of μ so that means it belongs to both of them. $1 \leq p \leq q < \infty$.

So, I am not assuming anything on capital X , I do not know it is finite measure, I do not know it is an infinite measure. But, f belongs to two L^p 's then it belongs to all the L^p in between.

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Then prove that f belongs to L^r of μ for every r between p and q . So, if it belongs to 2 L^p 's it will belong to all L^p 's in between. Well, how will you do this so I have p and I have q here and r is somewhere in between. So, I can write r as $\lambda p + (1 - \lambda)q$, $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ as a convex combination.

So, you should be reminded of certain convex inequalities which we know, it is more or less like that. Well, Holder's inequality is what you can apply. So, you can if, I want to say that, f belongs L^r . So, I will be looking at $|f|^r$ and then I integrate over x . So, I can write it as, $|f|^r = |f|^{\lambda p + (1 - \lambda)q} = |f|^{\lambda p} \cdot |f|^{(1 - \lambda)q}$. So, now I can apply Holder's inequality.

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The first screenshot shows the derivation of the Hölder inequality. It starts with the equation $r = \lambda p + (1-\lambda)q$ and the inequality $|f|^r = |f|^\lambda \cdot |f|^{(1-\lambda)q}$. It then states $\|f\|_r \leq \max\{\|f\|_p, \|f\|_q\}$ and defines conjugate exponents $p' = \frac{1}{1-\lambda}$ and $q' = \frac{1}{\lambda}$, with the identity $\frac{1}{p'} + \frac{1}{q'} = \lambda + 1 - \lambda = 1$.

The second screenshot shows a proof for the inclusion $L^p \cap L^q \subset L^r$ where $1 \leq p < q < \infty$ and $r = \lambda p + (1-\lambda)q$ with $0 < \lambda < 1$. It notes that $L^p \cap L^q$ consists of functions in L^p and L^q . The proof uses Hölder's inequality with $\int |f|^r \leq (\int |f|^p)^\lambda (\int |f|^q)^{1-\lambda}$ and Hölder's inequality to show $\|f\|_r \leq \lambda \|f\|_p + (1-\lambda) \|f\|_q$. It also includes the same Hölder inequality derivation as the first screenshot.

So, for Holder's inequality remember I need two conjugate, I need conjugate exponents. So, you can take conjugate exponents p prime to be λ , well not λ because λ is between 0 and 1, p prime to be $1/\lambda$ and q prime to be $1/(1-\lambda)$. Then I know $1/p + 1/q = \lambda + 1 - \lambda = 1$.

So, these are conjugate exponents, so apply Holder's inequality with those conjugate exponents here. You will actually prove that, the L^r norm is less than or equal to maximum of the L^p norm of f times the L^q norm of f , maximum of L^q norm and L^p norm. So, remember the r is between p and q . Alright, so let us look at some more properties of L^p spaces, so we $C[0, 1]$ to be dense in L^p . But, it is not dense in L^∞ because of this.

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$\|f\|_1 \leq \max\{\|f\|_p, \|f\|_2\}$

$p' = \frac{1}{\lambda} \quad q' = \frac{1}{1-\lambda}$

$\frac{1}{p'} + \frac{1}{q'} = 1 \quad \lambda + 1 - \lambda = 1$

Ex: $(X, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \quad \mu(X) < \infty \Rightarrow$ (Constant functions are in L^1)

1) $L^p(\mu) \supseteq L^q(\mu) \quad \text{if} \quad 1 \leq p < q \leq \infty$

2) $L^1[0,1] \supseteq L^q[0,1] \quad \forall q \geq 1$

Ex: 1) Prove that $L^p[0,1] \supseteq L^q[0,1] \quad 1 \leq p < q \leq \infty$

2) $(X, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \quad \text{Let } f \in L^p(\mu) \cap L^q(\mu)$

$1 \leq p < q \leq \infty$

then from that $f \in L^p(\mu) + L^q(\mu)$

$r = \lambda p + (1-\lambda)q \quad 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

$\int_{[0,1]} |f|^r \, d\mu \leq \int_{[0,1]} |f|^p \, d\mu + \int_{[0,1]} |f|^q \, d\mu$

Holder's inequality.

$\mu[0,1] = 1 \Leftrightarrow$

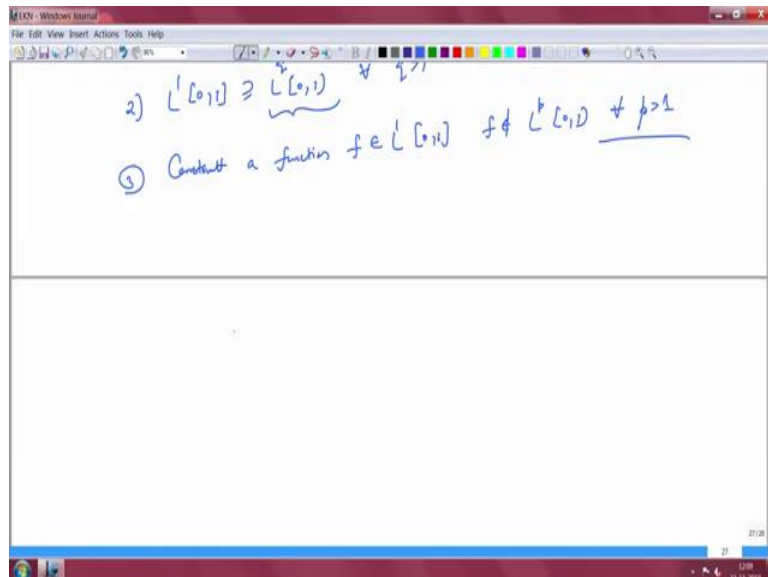
Constant functions are in $L^p[0,1]$

Alright, so instead of looking at, so let us let me give another exercise to sort of again we familiar with the L^p spaces. Suppose, I have X, \mathcal{F}, μ and I look at the case $\mu(X)$ is finite. So, this actually we did a special case of this when we looked at $[0, 1]$ so whenever we have finite measure spaces, we have the constant function 1 belonging to L^p .

So, you can assume, you can use that to prove this in general. So, assume that $\mu(X)$ is finite, so this will imply that constant functions are in L^p , all L^p in fact. So, this tells me that if I look at L^p of μ so use 1 as a function, constant function and apply Holder's inequality. So, this will be contained in L^q μ if, well the containment goes the other way because I want to keep writing $p < q < \infty$. So, this space L^1 is the biggest space.

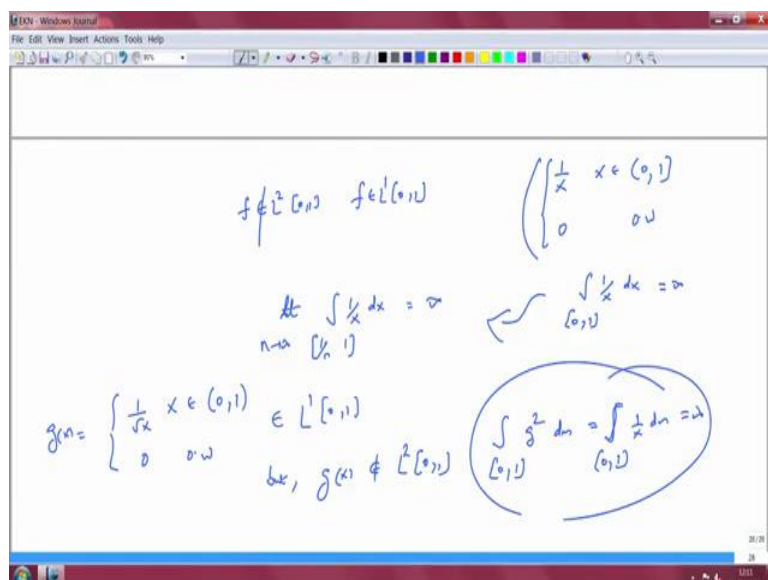
So, let us look at L^1 of $[0, 1]$ now we are back to concrete situation $[0, 1]$ this of course contains all L^q . For, every q greater than 1, so we can look at the union of them so this is a slightly it is ok exercise not to tricky. I look at all of them, all L^q 's is the union equal to this.

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So, it is not so what you do is, prove that; construct a function f in L^1 $[0, 1]$ such that, f is not in L^p $[0, 1]$ for every p greater than 1. So, I will give hints how to do this, so how will you get a function which is so let us start with L^2 .

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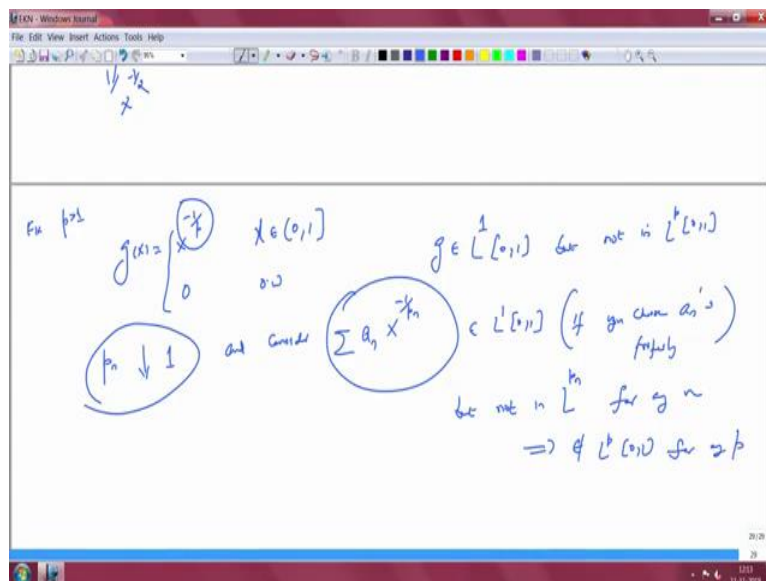
I want a function f in L^2 $[0, 1]$ sorry f not in L^2 but f is in L^1 . The easiest way to do this is, to keep the function 1 by x . So, the function 1 by x has the property that, well when x belongs to open $[0, 1]$ and does not matter what you defined here. Because the point has measure 0 so it

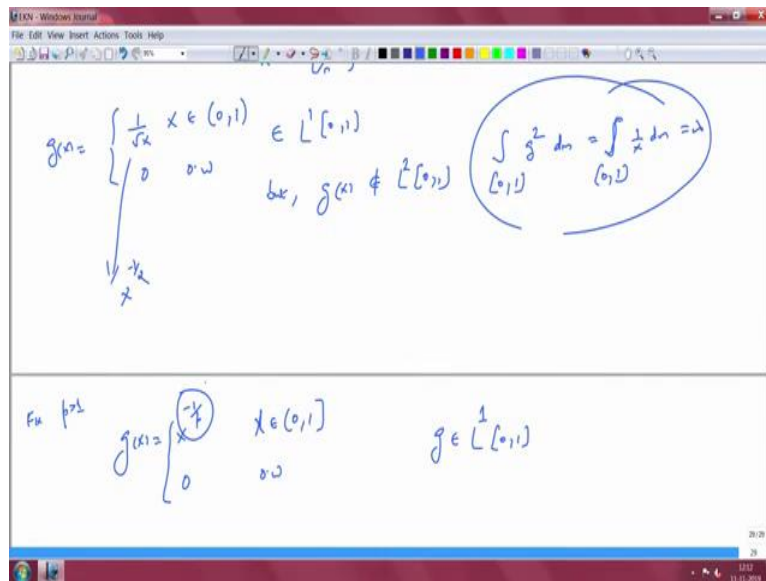
does not matter how you define the function in 2. So, if I look at $1/x$ I know that it is not in L^1 . I know that if I look at $\int_0^1 1/x \, dx$ as the Lebesgue integral; this is infinity. Why is that? So, we have done this calculation before.

We look at $f_n(x) = 1/x^n$ for $x \in (0, 1]$ and $f_n(x) = 0$ otherwise. This is a bounded continuous function, so it is Riemann integrable. And so Lebesgue integral is equal to the Riemann integral and you compute this and let n go to the infinity. So, you look at $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) \, dx$, you will get that this is infinity by monotone convergence theorem this cannot be null.

So, if I modify this function to $1/\sqrt{x}$, so when x belongs to open interval $(0, 1]$, 0 otherwise. Then this is in L^1 again by the same computation. But, this is not in L^2 so let us call this g of x , but g of x is not in L^2 , why? So, integral of $\int_0^1 g^2 \, dx$ that is what we, g is positive so $|g|^2$ is g^2 . But, this is integral of $\int_0^1 1/x \, dx$ and dx , this is infinity so this is not in L^2 but it is in L^1 . So, you have got a function which is in L^2 but not in L^1 .

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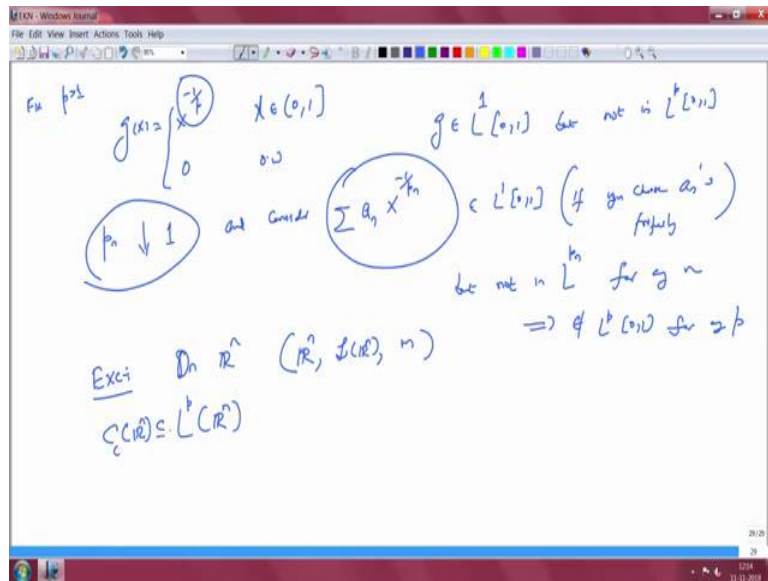


So, similarly you get a function in so for, if I look at the function g of x equal to x to the minus 1 by p , p greater than. So, fix p greater than 1 and this is when x belongs to open interval 0 close that 1 . 0 otherwise. Then it C_c to see that g in L^1 , g is in $L^1(0, 1)$. Again just by root x whatever you have done by root x we can write this is simply x to the minus 1 by 2.

So, that is what we all are doing here. Instead of 2 we put p , then g in L^1 but, not in L^p . So, now you choose a sequence p_n decreasing to 1 and consider X to the minus 1 by p_n , so for each n you have this function. You can add appropriate constants and look at this function, so you will see that, this belongs to L^1 if you choose a_n 's properly.

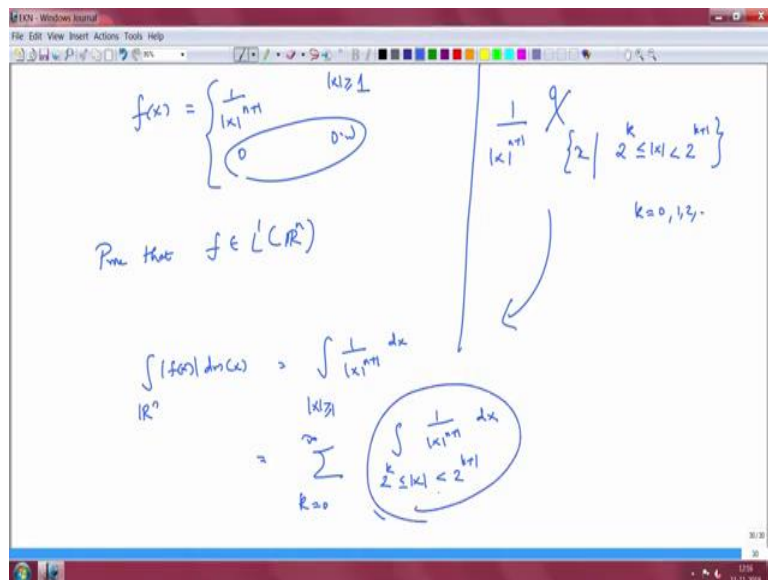
But, not in L^{p_n} for every n , for any n . So, because p_n 's decrease to 1, this will also imply that, this does not belong to L^p for $0, 1$ for any p . Because of the containment we already have, so that an interesting exercise.

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Now, let us go to infinite measure spaces so let us look at another example. So, on \mathbb{R}^n so now we look at the \mathbb{R}^n , so our space is \mathbb{R}^n . We have the Lebesgue sigma algebra of \mathbb{R}^n we have the Lebesgue measure, and we are looking at L^p of \mathbb{R}^n . Of course C_c of \mathbb{R}^n will be dense and so on, so we have proved all this in general set up, but you can apply this here.

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So, if I look at a function so let us look at the function f of x equal to 1 by mod x to the n plus 1 , where mod x is greater than or equal to 1 ; 0 otherwise. So, prove that f is in L^1 , so prove that f belongs to L^1 of \mathbb{R}^n , well how would I prove this? So, let me give you some hints one way of doing this would be using polar coordinates which we have not introduced, so will do that at a litter stage.

So, right now what you do is so it is 0 near 0. So, it works only for mod x greater than or equal to 1. So, you decompose \mathbb{R}^n into all those points x such that, 2^{-k} is less than or equal to mod x less than 2^{-k+1} . And I have $1/\text{mod } x$ to the $n+1$, so k will go from 0, 1, 2, 3 et cetera. So, if you decompose \mathbb{R}^n like that because k equal to 0 will give me 1 and inside unit ball there is no function. So, I need to look at only this one.

So, I can look at integral over $\mathbb{R}^n \text{ mod } f(x) dx$. So, this is of course integral over mod x greater than or equal to 1. $1/\text{mod } x$ to the $n+1$ dx which I use this decomposition. So, this is equal to monotone convergence theorem will tell me that, I can interchange the sum and integral.

So, summation k equal to 0 to infinity, integral 2^{-k} less than or equal to mod x. So, this is a set 2^{-k} to the $n+1$, on this set I integrate mod x to the $n+1$ dx. So, I need to know if this will give me some quantity and I can sum up.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical derivations. The top part shows the integral over \mathbb{R}^n of $|f(x)| dx(x)$ is equal to the integral over \mathbb{R}^n of $\frac{1}{|x|^{n+1}} dx$. This is then decomposed into a sum over k from 0 to infinity of the integral over the set $2^{-k} \leq |x| < 2^{-k+1}$ of $\frac{1}{|x|^{n+1}} dx$. This integral is bounded by $2^{-k(n+1)}$ times the volume of the annulus, which is $2^k m(2^{-k+1} \leq |x| < 2^{-k})$. The bottom part shows the inequality $\frac{1}{|x|^{n+1}} \leq 2^{k(n+1)}$ for the set $2^{-k} \leq |x| < 2^{-k+1}$.

Well, so it is pretty easy so on if I look at on this set on 2^{-k} less than or equal to mod x less than 2^{-k+1} . $1/\text{mod } x$ plus mod x to the $n+1$, so that is the decreasing function. So, you put mod x to this smallest value, you will get the highest value of $1/\text{mod } x$ to the $n+1$.

So, this is less than or equal to 2^{-k} , so $2^{-k(n+1)}$ outside. So, I am putting the smallest value of mod x here and that will give me the highest value of this function because it is decreasing. So, in this equality I can change this into I can take the k equal to 0 to infinity, $2^{-k(n+1)}$ outside.

And what remains is the measure of this set, 2^k less than or equal to $\text{mod } x$ less than 2^{k+1} . So, how I will compute the measure of this? So, this is where invariants properties of Lebesgue measure will come in.

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$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^1} \frac{1}{|x|^{k+1}} dx = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_{2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}} \frac{1}{|x|^{k+1}} dx \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^{-k} m(\{x \mid 2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}\})$$

$$\int_{2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}} \frac{1}{|x|^{k+1}} dx \leq 2^{-k}$$

$$m(\{x \mid 2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}\}) = m(\{x \mid 1 \leq |x| < 2\}) \cdot 2^k$$

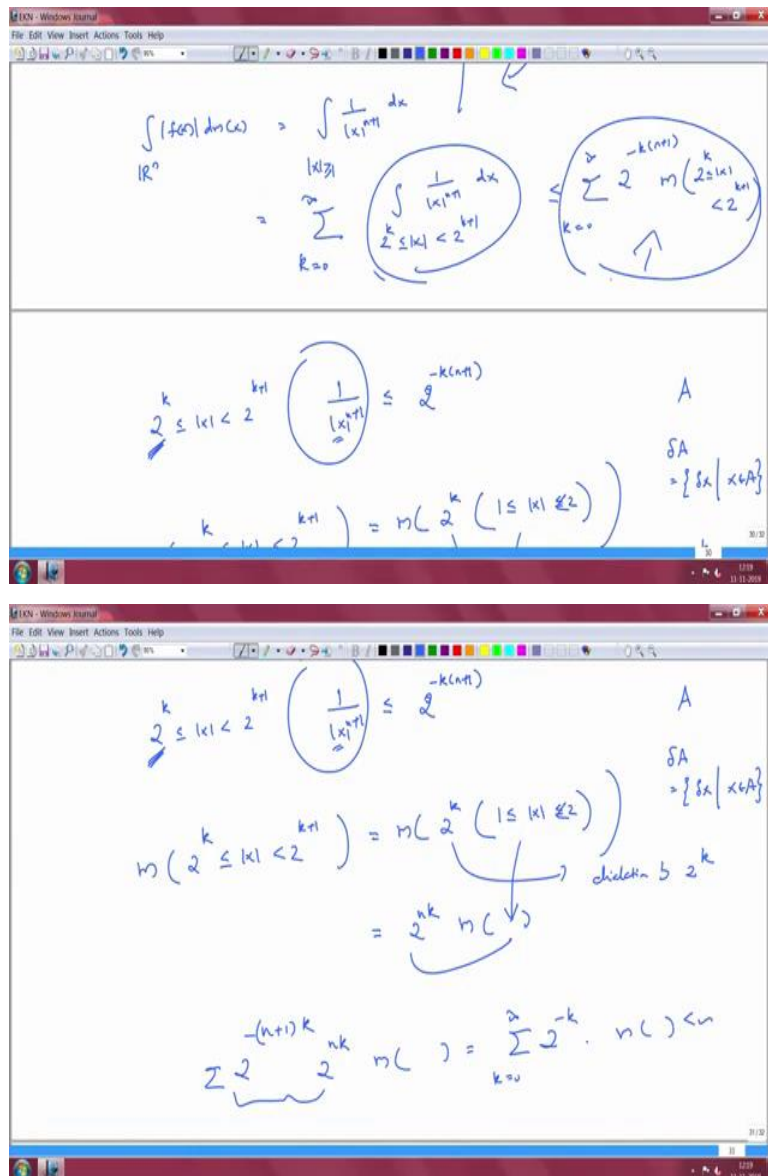
(Note: 2^k is the determinant of the Jacobian)

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{|x|^{k+1}} dx = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_{2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}} \frac{1}{|x|^{k+1}} dx \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^{-k} m(\{x \mid 2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}\})$$

$$\int_{2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}} \frac{1}{|x|^{k+1}} dx \leq 2^{-k}$$

$$m(\{x \mid 2^k \leq |x| < 2^{k+1}\}) = m(\{x \mid 1 \leq |x| < 2\}) \cdot 2^k$$

(Note: 2^k is the determinant of the Jacobian)

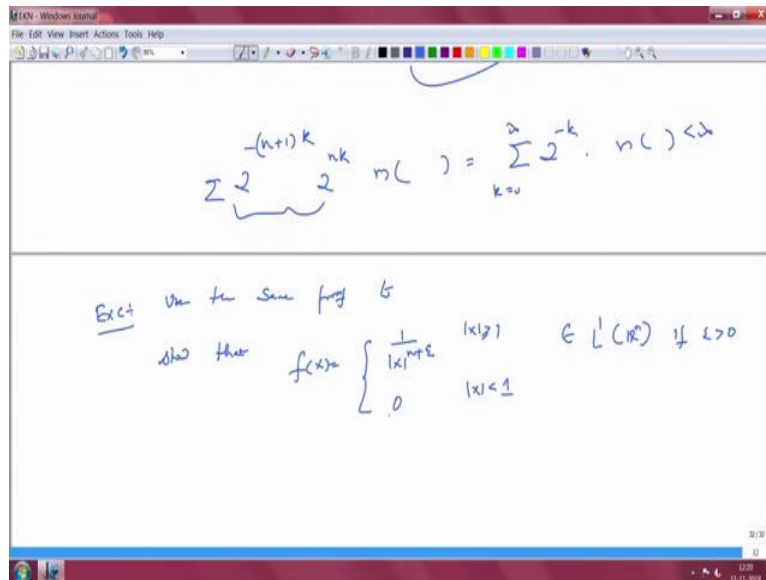


So, measure of 2 to the k less than or equal to mod x less than 2 to the k plus 1. Well, what is this? This is measure of 2 to the k times the set 1 less than or equal to mod x less than or equal to 2. If I dilate so, remember the if I have a set A delta A, the dilation was multiplying by everything by delta.

So, this simply the dilation, dilation by 2 to the k which is equal to, because it is we know the properties, it just 2 to the nk times measure of some set that is fixed. So, now you apply it here. So, we will get if you look at this. You will see that, you have to look at this summation, which is summation 2 to the minus n plus 1 k and I have these things 2 to the nk and measure of some set, some fix set. Let us say constant that is comes out and this will give me a series in 2 to the n minus k.

K equal to 0 to infinity which is finite times measure of sum sets this is finite and so this function is in L^1 . You can use the same proof.

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So, exercise, we will stop with this exercise, use the same proof. Use the same proof to show that, the function f of x equal to 1 by mod x to the we do not need n plus 1 . N plus any epsilon we will do, mod x less than or equal to 1 . 0 when mod x is less than or equal to 1 is in L^1 of \mathbb{R}^n if epsilon is positive. So, you take any epsilon anything which decays faster than 1 by mod x to the n at infinity will be in L^1 . Okay, so will stop here.

So, in this session we did not look at any finer properties of the L^p spaces, we looked at examples. So, this was to familiarise you with the spaces. The L^p spaces on sequences will behaved differently from L^p spaces on sets of finite measure in terms of containment and so on. But, if the space is nice in the sense of locally compact Hausdorff space et cetera. We have continuous functions which are dense and there are functions, so we restricted ourselves to \mathbb{R}^n .

And we saw that, there are functions like 1 by mod x to the n plus 1 and so on. Which are in L^1 and can be proved that they are in L^1 et cetera, using invariance property of the Lebesgue measure. We can do direct computations and whenever we can, we remember that whenever a function is Riemann integerable then it is Lebesgue integerable and the integrals are same. So, whenever such a situation arise we use that theorem, so many of the explicit functions which we deal with analysis it is possible to estimate them and see which L^p are they are in.

So, this was only to familiarise you with these spaces, how rich these spaces are and so on. From the next lecture onwards we will go into somewhat abstract settings again. We will look at what are known as product sigma algebra and we will also look at polar coordinates on \mathbb{R}^n . Which will give us some more ways of estimating functions and proving that they are in L^1 and so on. Okay.