

Sep 20, 2018

## Lecture 12

Throughout this lecture  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  is a measure space. When we say "measurable" we mean "measurable w.r.t.  $\mathcal{M}$ ", and "a.e." will mean "a.e.  $[\mu]$ ".

Essential supremum: Let  $g: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be a m'ble function.

Let  $S$  be the set of  $\alpha \in [0, \infty)$  such that

$$\mu(g^{-1}((\alpha, \infty])) = 0.$$

If  $S = \emptyset$ , set  $\beta = \infty$ . Otherwise set  $\beta = \inf S$ . If  $\beta < \infty$ , then  $(\beta, \infty] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (\beta + \alpha_n, \infty]$ , where  $\alpha_n \downarrow \beta$ ,  $\alpha_n \in S$ . Hence  $\beta \in S$ .

$\beta$  is called the essential supremum of  $g$ .

For measurable  $f$ ,  $\|f\|_{\infty}$  denotes the essential supremum of  $|f|$ .

It is clear that  $|f| \leq \alpha$  a.e. if and only if  $\|f\|_{\infty} \leq \alpha$ . In particular  $\|f\|_{\infty} = 0$  if and only if  $f = 0$  a.e.

Equivalence relation: We have already seen that  $\|f\|_{\infty} = 0$  is equivalent to saying  $f = 0$  a.e. Similarly, if  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ,

$$\|f\|_p = 0 \iff \int_X |f|^p d\mu = 0$$

$$\iff |f|^p = 0 \text{ a.e. (From exercise in Quiz 3)}$$

$$\iff f = 0 \text{ a.e.}$$

In particular,  $\|f - g\|_p = 0$  if and only if  $f = g$  a.e. (this includes the  $p = \infty$  case). Now "equality a.e.  $[\mu]$ " is an equivalence

relation on the set of measurable functions  $f$  with  $\|f\|_p < \infty$ . For  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , let  $L^p(\mu)$  denote the set of equivalence classes of measurable functions  $f$  with  $\|f\|_p < \infty$ . As we discussed in earlier notes and lectures, we continue to write  $f \in L^p(\mu)$  and think of  $f$  as a measurable function with  $\|f\|_p < \infty$ , as well as an equivalence class. This abuse of notation is standard and causes very little problems, provided one knows that one is really dealing with equivalence classes.

Theorem: Let  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ . Let  $q$  be the conjugate exponent, i.e.,  $q$  satisfies  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$  if  $1 < p < \infty$ ;  $q = \infty$  if  $p = 1$ ;  $q = 1$  if  $p = \infty$ . Then

(a) If  $f \in L^p(\mu)$ ,  $g \in L^q(\mu)$ , then  $fg \in L^1(\mu)$  and

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

(b)  $\|f+g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$   $f, g \in L^p(\mu)$

(c)  $\|\alpha f\|_p = |\alpha| \|f\|_p$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Proof:

Part (c) is obvious.

For  $1 < p < \infty$ , (a) and (b) follow from Hölder's and Minkowski's inequalities respectively. For  $p = 1$ , (a)

follows from  $|fg| \leq |f| \cdot \|g\|_\infty$  and for  $p = \infty$  from

$|fg| \leq \|f\|_\infty \cdot |g|$ . As for (b), the cases  $p = 1$  and  $p = \infty$  both

follow from  $|f+g| \leq |f| + |g|$ .

q.e.d.

Corollary:  $(L^p(\mu), \|\cdot\|_p)$  is a normed linear space.

Proof: From (b) and (c) it is clear that  $L^p(\mu)$  is closed under addition and scalar multiplication (whence under the operation of taking negatives). Therefore it is a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Moreover  $\|f\|_p = 0$  if and only if  $f = 0$  in  $L^p(\mu)$  (i.e.  $f = 0$  a.e.). From this and (b) and (c) of the Theorem, the Corollary follows. *q.e.d.*

Theorem:  $L^p(\mu)$  is a Banach space for  $1 \leq p < \infty$ .

Proof:

Let us first consider the case  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $L^p(\mu)$ . We can find a subsequence  $\{f_{n_i}\}$  such that

$$\|f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}\|_p \leq \frac{1}{2^i}$$

Let

$$g_k = \sum_{i=1}^k |f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}|, \quad g = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}|.$$

Now  $g_k \in L^p(\mu)$  for each  $k$  and  $g_k$  increases to  $g$ .

This means  $g_k^p \uparrow g^p$ . By MCT  $\|g_k\|_p^p \rightarrow \|g\|_p^p$ .

Clearly  $\|g_k\|_p \leq 1$ . It follows that  $\|g\|_p \leq 1$ . From

this one concludes that the series defining  $g$  converges outside a set  $B \in \mathcal{M}$ , with  $\mu(B) = 0$ . Then for

$x \notin B$  the series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (f_{n_{i+1}}(x) - f_{n_i}(x))$  converges absolutely.

Note that  $\sum_{i=1}^k (f_{n_{i+1}} - f_{n_i}) = f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_1}$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in B \\ f_{n_1}(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (f_{n_{i+1}}(x) - f_{n_i}(x)), & x \notin B. \end{cases}$$

It follows that  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} f_{n_i} = f$  a.e. (everywhere on  $X-B$ ).

We claim that  $f \in L^p(\mu)$  and that  $f_n \rightarrow f$  in  $L^p(\mu)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Now given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $N$  such that

$$\|f_n - f_m\| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for } n, m \geq N.$$

Then for  $n \geq N$ :

$$\int_X |f_n - f|^p d\mu = \int_X \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} |f_n - f_{n_i}|^p d\mu$$

$$\leq \overline{\lim}_{i \rightarrow \infty} \int_X |f_n - f_{n_i}|^p d\mu \quad (\text{Fatou's Lemma})$$

$$= \overline{\lim}_{i \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n - f_{n_i}\|_p^p$$

$$\leq \varepsilon^p.$$

This shows that  $f - f_n \in L^p(\mu)$  for  $n \geq N$ , whence

$f = (f - f_n) + f_n \in L^p(\mu)$ , and since  $\|f_n - f\| \leq \varepsilon$  for  $n \geq N$ ,  $\{f_n\}$  converges to  $f$  in  $L^p(\mu)$ .

The case  $p = \infty$  remains. To that end, suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $L^\infty(\mu)$ . Let  $A_k = \{|f_k| > \|f_k\|_\infty\}$

and  $B_{m,n} = \{|f_n - f_m| > \|f_n - f_m\|_\infty\}$ . Then  $\mu(A_k) = \mu(B_{m,n}) = 0$  for  $k, m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $E = \bigcup_{k \geq 1} A_k \cup \bigcup_{m, n \geq 1} B_{m,n}$ . Then  $\mu(E) = 0$ .

On  $X-E$ ,  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to a bounded function  $f$ .

Set  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x \in E$ . Then  $f \in L^\infty(\mu)$  and  $\|f_n - f\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

q.e.d.

The proof contains an important result.

Theorem: If  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$  and  $\{f_n\}$  is Cauchy in  $L^p(\mu)$ , with limit  $f$ , then  $\{f_n\}$  has a subsequence which converges pointwise almost everywhere to  $f$ .

### Simple functions and $L^p(\mu)$

Theorem: Let  $S$  be the set of all complex, measurable, simple functions on  $X$  such that

$$\mu(\{s \neq 0\}) < \infty \quad \text{—————} \quad (*)$$

If  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , then  $S$  is dense in  $L^p(\mu)$ .

Proof:

It is clear that  $S \subset L^p(\mu)$ .

Suppose  $f \geq 0$ ,  $f \in L^p(\mu)$ . Pick  $\{s_n\}$ ,  $s_n$  simple,  $0 \leq s_n \leq f$ ,  $s_n \uparrow f$  as we did before. Since  $f \in L^p(\mu)$ , therefore  $s_n \in L^p(\mu)$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

From here it is not hard to show that  $s_n \in S$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Now  $|f - s_n|^p \leq f^p$ , and hence by DCT,  $\|f - s_n\|_p \rightarrow 0$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus  $f$  is in the closure of  $S$  in  $L^p(\mu)$ . The general

(with  $f$  complex) follows easily from this.

q.e.d.