Real Analysis MAA 6616 Lecture 25 Convergence in L^p Spaces and Completness

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □ ● ● ● ●

Let $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space. A sequence $\{f_n\}_n \subset X$ is said to converge in X if there exists $f \in X$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \|f_n - f\| = 0$ and we write $f_n \to f$ in X or $\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n = f$.

A sequence $\{f_n\}_n \subset L^{\infty}(E)$ converges in $L^{\infty}(E)$, if and only there exists $f \in L^{\infty}(E)$ such that $||f_n - f||_{\infty} \to 0$. This means that there exists a set of $Z \subset E$ of measure 0 such that $\{f_n\}_n$ converges uniformly to f on $E \setminus Z$.

A sequence $\{f_n\}_n \subset L^p(E)$, with $1 \le p < \infty$, converges in $L^p(E)$, if and only there exists $f \in L^p(E)$ such that $||f_n - f||_p \to 0$. This means that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_E |f_n - f|^p dx = 0$.

A sequence $\{f_n\}_n \subset X$ is said to be Cauchy in *X* if for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 such that $||f_n - f_m|| < \epsilon$ for all n, m > N. A normed space $(X, || \cdot ||)$ is said to be a Banach space or complete space if every Cauchy sequence in *X* is convergent.

Proposition (1)

If $\{f_n\}_n \subset X$ is a convergent sequence, then it is a Cauchy sequence. Furthermore, a Cauchy sequence in X converges if it has a convergent subsequence.

Proof.

Let $\{f_n\}_n \subset X$ be a convergent sequence (to $f \in X$) and let $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $||f_n - f|| < \epsilon/2$ for all n > N. Let n, m > N, then $||f_n - f_m|| \le ||f_n - f|| + ||f - f_m|| < \epsilon$ and the sequence is Cauchy.

Next, suppose $\{f_n\}_n \subset X$ is Cauchy and has a convergent subsequence $\{f_{n_j}\}_j$ with limit f. Let $\epsilon > 0$. There exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $||f_n - f_m|| < \epsilon/2$ for all $n, m \ge N$ ($\{f_n\}_n$ is Cauchy). There exists $J \in \mathbb{N}$ such $\left||f_{n_j} - f_m'|| < \epsilon/2$ for all $j \ge J$ ($\{f_n\}_j$ converges to f). Let $K = \max(N, J)$ for $n \ge K$, we have

$$||f_n - f|| \le ||f_n - f_{n_j}|| + ||f_{n_j} - f|| \le \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

Hence $f_n \to f$ in X.

Theorem (1. Riesz-Fischer (Completeness of $L^{p}(E)$))

For $1 \le p \le \infty$, $L^p(E)$ is a Banach space. Furthermore if $f_n \to f$ in $L^p(E)$, then $\{f_n\}_n$ has a subsequence that converges to f pointwise a.e. on E.

Proof.

Case $p = \infty$. Let $\{f_n\}_n \in L^{\infty}(E)$ be a Cauchy sequence. First note that $\{f_n\}_n$ is uniformly bounded in $L^{\infty}(E)$. That is, there exists M > 0 such that $||f_n||_{\infty} \leq M$. Indeed for $\epsilon = 1$, there exists $N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $||f_n - f_m|| \leq 1$ for all $n, m \geq N_1$, let $M = 1 + \max\{||f_j||_{\infty} : j = 1, \cdots, N_1\}$. Then $||f_n||_{\infty} \leq M$ for $n \leq N_1$ and for $n \geq N_1$, we have

$$\|f_n\|_{\infty} \leq \|f_n - f_{N_1}\|_{\infty} + \|f_{N_1}\|_{\infty} \leq 1 + \|f_{N_1}\|_{\infty} \leq M$$

There exists $Z \subset E$ with m(Z) = 0 such that for a given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\sup_{x \in E \setminus Z} |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$ for all $n, m \ge N$. It follows that $\{f_n(x)\}_n$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} for all $x \in E \setminus Z$.

Therefore there exists $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_n(x) \to f(x)$ for all $x \in E \setminus Z$. Next we prove that $f \in L^{\infty}(E)$ and $f_n \to f$ in $L^{\infty}(E)$. Let $x \in E \setminus Z$, there exists n = n(x) such that $|f(x) - f_n(x)| \le 1$. Therefore

$$\begin{split} |f(x)| &\leq |f(x) - f_n(x)| + |f_n(x)| \leq 1 + ||f_n||_{\infty} \leq 1 + M \,. \\ \text{Let } \epsilon > 0 \text{, and } N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } ||f_n - f_m||_{\infty} < \epsilon \text{ for all } n, m > N. \text{ For } x \in E \setminus \mathbb{Z} \text{ we have} \\ |f(x) - f_n(x)| &= \lim_{m \to \infty} |f_m(x) - f_n(x)| \leq \lim_{m \to \infty} ||f_m - f_n||_{\infty} \leq \epsilon. \end{split}$$

Case $1 \le p < \infty$. Let $\{f_n\}_n \in L^p(E)$ be a Cauchy sequence. We are going to construct a convergent subsequence. For this let $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $\epsilon_k = \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}$ it follows from the Cauchy condition that there exists $N_k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $||f_n - f_m|| \le \epsilon_k$ for all $n, m \ge N_k$. We can assume that the sequence of integers $\{N_k\}_k$ is strictly increasing. Set $N_0 = 0$ and $f_0 = 0$. For $j \in \mathbb{N}$ define functions g_j and h_j by

$$g_j = \sum_{k=1}^{j} (f_{N_k} - f_{N_{k-1}})$$
 and $h_j = \sum_{k=1}^{j} |f_{N_k} - f_{N_{k-1}}|$

Now we show that h_i converges in $L^p(E)$.

Proof. CONTINUED:

It follows from Minkowski inequality that

$$\|h_j\|_p \le \sum_{k=1}^{j} \|f_{N_k} - f_{N_{k-1}}\|_p \le \sum_{k=1}^{j} \frac{1}{2^k} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^j}$$

Hence $\{h_j\}_j$ is a sequence of nonnegative and increasing functions in $L^p(E)$. Therefore it converges to a function h and furthermore, Fatou's Lemma implies that

$$\begin{split} \int_{E} |h|^{p} dx &\leq \lim_{j \to \infty} \int_{E} |h_{j}|^{p} dx = \lim_{j \to \infty} \left\| h_{j} \right\|_{p}^{p} \leq 2^{p} \,. \end{split}$$
The limit function $h = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left| f_{N_{k}} - f_{N_{k-1}} \right|$ is therefore finite a.e. in *E*.
This means that the series $g = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (f_{N_{k}} - f_{N_{k-1}})$ is absolutely convergent a.e. in *E*. Since the series is telescoping and $f_{0} = 0$, we have $g(x) = \lim_{j \to \infty} f_{N_{j}}(x)$. Again using Fatou's Lemma we have
$$\left\| g - f_{N_{j}} \right\|_{p}^{p} = \int_{E} \left| g - f_{N_{j}} \right|^{p} dx \leq \lim_{i \to \infty} \inf_{f} \int_{E} \left| f_{N_{i}} - f_{N_{j}} \right|^{p} dx \leq \lim_{i \to \infty} \inf_{h \to \infty} \left\| f_{N_{i}} - f_{N_{j}} \right\|_{p}^{p} \int_{E} \left(\frac{1}{2^{j+1}} \right)^{f} Hence the subsequence $\{f_{N_{j}}\}_{j}$ of the Cauchy sequence $\{f_{n}\}_{n}$ is convergent in $L^{p}(E)$. Therefore $\{f_{n}\}_{n}$ is convergent (Proposition 1).$$

Remark (1)

Note that pointwise convergence does not imply convergence in L^p . For example the sequence of functions $f_n(x) = \sqrt[p]{n} \chi_{(0, 1/n]}$ converges pointwise to f = 0 on (0, 1) but f_n does not converge in $L^p(0, 1)$ to f since $||f_n||_p = 1$ for all n and $||f||_p = 0$.

・ロト・日本・モト・モー うくぐ

Remark (2)

The following example shows that convergence in L^p does not imply pointwise convergence a.e. In $[0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ define a sequence f_n as follows: $f_1 = \chi_{[0, 1]}, f_2 = \chi_{[0, 1/2]}, f_3 = \chi_{[1/2, 1]}$. By induction suppose that for $k \in \mathbb{N}$ the functions f_1, \dots, f_{2k-1} are defined, define $f_{2k}, \dots, f_{2k+1-1}$ as $f_{2k+j} = \chi_{\left[\frac{j}{2k}, \frac{j+1}{2k}\right]}$ for $j = 1, \dots, 2^k - 1$. We have $f_n \to 0$ in $L^p(0, 1)$ since $\left\|f_{2k+j}\right\|_p = 2^{-k/p}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $j \in \{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$. Next for $x \in (0, 1)$, and for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a unique $j \in \{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ such that $x \in \left[\frac{j}{2k}, \frac{j+1}{2k}\right]$ and then

 $f_{2k+i}(x) = 1$ but $f_{2k+i+1}(x) = 0$. This means that the sequence $f_n(x)$ is not a Cauchy sequence.

Theorem (2)

Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be measurable and $1 \leq p < \infty$. Let $\{f_n\}_n$ in $L^p(E)$. Suppose that $f_n \to f$ a.e. on E. Then $f_n \to f$ in L^p if and only if $\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_E |f_n|^p dx = \int_E |f|^p dx$.

Proof.

There exists a set $Z \subset E$ such that m(Z) = 0, the f_n 's and f are finite on $E_1 = E \setminus Z$ and $f_n \to f$ pointwise on E_1 . It follows from the triangle inequality that $\left| \|f_n\|_p - \|f\|_p \right| \le \|f_n - f\|_p$. Consequently if $f_n \to f$ in $L^p(E)$, then $\|f_n\|_p \to \|f\|_p$. Conversely suppose that $\|f_n\|_p \to \|f\|_p$, we need to show that $\|f_n - f\|_p \to 0$. Recall that for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $|a - b|^p \le 2^{p-1}(|a|^p + |b|^p)$. We rewrite this inequality as $\frac{|a|^p + |b|^p}{2} - \frac{|a - b|^p}{2^p} \ge 0$ so that for every $x \in E_1$ the function g_n given by

$$g_n(x) = \frac{|f_n(x)|^p + |f(x)|^p}{2} - \frac{|f_n(x) - f(x)|^p}{2^p} \quad x \in E_1$$

is nonnegative and moreover, $g_n \rightarrow |f|^p$ pointwise on E_1 . Now Fatou's Lemma implies that

$$\int_{E_1} |f^p| \, dx \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int_{E_1} g_n dx = \int_{E_1} |f|^p \, dx - \limsup_{n \to \infty} \int_{E_1} \frac{|f_n - f|^p}{2^p} \, dx \, .$$
Consequently $\limsup_{n \to \infty} \int_{E_1} |f_n - f|^p \, dx = 0$ and $||f_n - f||_p \to 0.$

Density in $L^p(E)$

Let $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space and let \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} be such that $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{G} \subset X$. The family \mathcal{F} is said to be dense in \mathcal{G} if for every $g \in \mathcal{G}$ and for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $f \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $\|f - g\| < \epsilon$. This is equivalent to saying \mathcal{F} dense in \mathcal{G} if and only if for every $g \in \mathcal{G}$ there exists a sequence $\{f_n\}_n \subset \mathcal{F}$ such that $\|f_n - g\| \to 0$. This means that the closure of \mathcal{F} is the closure of \mathcal{G} . Note that if $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{H} \subset X$ then \mathcal{F} dense in \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G} dense in \mathcal{H} implies \mathcal{F} dense in \mathcal{H}

Note that if $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{H} \subset X$, then \mathcal{F} dense in \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G} dense in \mathcal{H} implies \mathcal{F} dense in \mathcal{H} . Also \mathcal{F} dense in \mathcal{H} implies \mathcal{G} dense in \mathcal{H}

Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be measurable. A function $f \in L^p(E)$ is said to have compact support if there exists a compact set $K \subset \mathbb{R}^q$ such that f = 0 a.e. on $E \setminus K$. Denote by $L^p_c(E)$ the space of functions in $L^p(E)$ with compact support.

Theorem (3) $L_c^p(E)$ is dense in $L^p(E)$.

Proof.

Let $f \in L^p(E)$, we need to show that there exists a sequence $\{f_j\} \subset L^p_c(E)$ such that $||f - f_j||_p \to 0$ as $j \to \infty$. Let C_j be the cube in \mathbb{R}^n centered at 0 and with side length 2j: $C_j = [-j, j]^n$. Define f_j by $f_j = f\chi_{C_j \cap E}$. Then f_j is compactly supported with support C_j and so $f_j \in L^p_c(E)$. Furthermore, $f_j \to f$ pointwise on E and $||f - f_j||^p = |f\chi_{E\setminus C_j}|^p \leq |f|^p \in \mathcal{L}(E)$. It follows from the Dominated Convergence Theorem that $\int_E |f - f_j|^p \to 0$. That is f_j converges to f in $L^p(E)$.

Proposition (1)

Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be measurable, $1 \le p \le \infty$, and let $S^p(E)$ be the family of simple functions in $L^p(E)$. Then $S^p(E)$ is dense in $L^p(E)$.

Proof.

First consider the case $p = \infty$. Let $f \in L^{\infty}(E)$. There exists a set $Z \subset E$ with m(Z) = 0 and M > 0 such that $|f| \leq M$ on $E_1 = E \setminus Z$. Given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a simple function ϕ on E_1 such that $|\phi - f| < \epsilon$ (Simple Approximation Lemma). Therefore $S^{\infty}(E)$ is dense in $L^{\infty}(E)$. Next suppose that $1 \leq p < \infty$. Let $f \in L^p(E)$. Then f is measurable on E and so there exists a sequence $\{\phi_n\}_n$ of simple functions on E such that $\phi_n \to f$ pointwise a.e on E and $|\phi_n| \leq |f|$ on E for all n (Simple Approximation Theorem). It follows that, $\int_E |\phi_n|^p dx \leq \int_E |f|^p dx$. This means $\{\phi_n\}_n \subset S^p(E)$. We are left to verify that $\phi_n \to f$ in $L^p(E)$. We have $|\phi_n - f|^p \to 0$ pointwise on E. Moreover,

$$|\phi_n - f|^p \le 2^p (|\phi_n|^p + |f|^p) \le 2^{p+1} |f|^p$$
.

▲□▶▲□▶▲□▶▲□▶ □ のQで

It follows from Lebesgue Dominated Convergence Theorem that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_E |\phi_n - f|^p dx = 0.$

A normed space $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ is said to be separable if there exists $\mathcal{C} \subset X$ such that \mathcal{C} is countable and dense in *X*. For example \mathbb{R}^n is separable since \mathbb{Q}^n is countable is dense in \mathbb{R}^n .

Theorem (4)

Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a measurable and $1 \leq p < \infty$. Then $L^p(E)$ is separable.

Proof.

First we prove that $L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is separable. Consider the dyadic decomposition of \mathbb{R}^n : Let $C = [0, 1)^n$ be the unit cube of \mathbb{R}^n . For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $J \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, let $C_{k,J} = \frac{J+C}{2^k}$ (the cube with a side length $1/2^k$ and a vertex at $J/2^k$). Then for every k, $\mathbb{R}^n = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}, J \in \mathbb{Z}^n} C_{k,J}$. The set $S = \{(J,k) : J \in \mathbb{Z}^n, k \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is countable and for every open set $U \in \mathbb{R}^n$ there exists a set $I \subset S$ such that $U = \bigcup_{(J,k) \in I} C_{k,J}$.

Let $S_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be the collection of all (finite) linear combinations of characteristic functions of the dyadic cubes with coefficients in \mathbb{Q} . Thus a simple function ϕ is in $S_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ if and only if there exist $(J_1, k_1), \cdots, (J_s, k_s) \in S$ and $r_1, \cdots, r_s \in \mathbb{Q}$

such that $\phi = \sum_{j=1}^{s} r_j \chi_{C_{k_j, J_j}}$. Similarly consider the family $S_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ of all (finite) linear combinations of characteristic

functions of the dyadic cubes with coefficients in \mathbb{R} . The family $S_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is countable and $S_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{R}^n) \subset S_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^n) \subset L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$. It follows from the density of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R} that $S_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is dense in $S_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Let $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Given $\epsilon > 0$, we know (Proposition 1) that there exists a simple function ψ such that $||f - \psi||_p < \epsilon$. Thus to prove the density of $S_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ in $L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ it is enough to prove that given a simple function ψ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists

$$\phi \in S_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$$
 such that $\|\phi - \psi\|_p < \epsilon$. Since $\psi = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \chi_{A_j}$ for some disjoint measurable sets $A_1, \dots, A_N \subset \mathbb{R}^n$,

then to prove the density of $S_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ in the space simple functions in $L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ it is enough to prove that given any measurable set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\phi \in S_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $\left\| \phi - \chi_A \right\|_p < \epsilon$.

Proof.

CONTINUED: Given $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ measurable with A bounded. We can find an open set $U \supset A$ such that $m(U \setminus A) < \epsilon$. There exist a finite set $I \subset S$ such that $\bigcup_{(J,k) \in I} C_{k,J} \subset U$ and $m(U) - \sum_{(J,k) \in I} \operatorname{vol}(C_{k,J}) < \epsilon$. The function

$$\phi = \sum_{(J,k) \in I} \chi_{C_{k,J}}$$

is in $\mathcal{S}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and

$$\left\|\chi_{A}-\phi\right\|_{p} \leq \left\|\chi_{A}-\chi_{U}\right\|_{p}+\left\|\chi_{U}-\phi\right\|_{p} \leq m(U\backslash A)^{1/p}+\left[m(U)-\sum_{(J,k)\in I}\operatorname{vol}(C_{k,J})\right]^{1/p} \leq 2\epsilon^{1/p}$$

If A is unbounded and $m(A) < \infty$. Write $A = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i$ where $A_i = A \cap B(0, i)$, where B(0, i) is the ball centered at 0 with radius *i* and apply the preceding result to A_i .

Remark (2)

In general the space $L^{\infty}(E)$ is not separable.

Example

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b we are going to prove that $L^{\infty}[a, b]$ is not separabale. By contradiction, suppose that it is separable. Then there would exists sequence $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ that is dense in $L^{\infty}[a, b]$. For every $x \in [a, b]$ we can find an integer $n(x) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\left\|\chi_{[a, x_1]} - f_{n(x)}\right\|_{\infty} < 1/2$. Let $a < x_1 < x_2 < b$, then $\left\|\chi_{[a, x_1]} - \chi_{[a, x_2]}\right\|_{\infty} = 1$. Hence $\left\|f_{n(x_1)} - f_{n(x_2)}\right\|_{\infty} = \left\|f_{n(x_1)} - \chi_{[a, x_1]} + \chi_{[a, x_1]} - \chi_{[a, x_2]} + \chi_{[a, x_2]} - f_{n(x_2)}\right\|_{\infty} \le \left\|\chi_{[a, x_1]} - \chi_{[a, x_2]}\right\|_{\infty} - \left\|f_{n(x_1)} - \chi_{[a, x_2]} - f_{n(x_2)}\right\|_{\infty} \le 0$

This means $f_{n(x_1)} \neq f_{n(x_2)}$ and the map $[a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$ given by $x \to n(x)$ is one to one. This is a contradiction since [a, b] is uncountable. Therefore $L^{\infty}[a, b]$ is not separable.