Assignment 4

Hand in no. 4, 5 and 9 by October 4, 2018.

- 1. A quick proof of Hölder Inequality consists of two steps: First, assuming $||f||_p = ||g||_p = 1$ and integrate Young's Inequality. Next, observe that $f/||f||_p$ satisfies the first step. Can you find any disadvantage of this approach?
- 2. Prove the generalized Hölder Inequality: For $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n \in R[a, b]$,

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f_{1}f_{2}\cdots f_{n}| dx \leq \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f_{1}|^{p_{1}}\right)^{1/p_{1}} \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f_{2}|^{p_{2}}\right)^{1/p_{2}} \cdots \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f_{n}|^{p_{n}}\right)^{1/p_{n}},$$

$$\frac{1}{p_{1}} + \frac{1}{p_{2}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{p_{n}} = 1, \quad p_{1}, p_{2}, \cdots, p_{n} > 1.$$

3. Establish the inequality, for $f \in R[a, b]$,

where

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f| dx \le (b-a)^{1/q} \int_{a}^{b} |f|^{p} dx, \quad 1/p + 1/q = 1, p > 1.$$

4. For $p \in [p_1, p_2], p_1 \ge 0$, establish the inequality, for $f \in R[a, b]$,

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f|^{p} dx \le \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f|^{p_{1}} \right)^{\lambda} \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f|^{p_{2}} \right)^{1-\lambda} , \quad p = \lambda p_{1} + (1-\lambda)p_{2} .$$

- 5. In a metric space (X, d), its metric ball is the set $\{y \in X : d(y, x) < r\}$ where x is the center and r the radius of the ball. May denote it by $B_r(x)$. Draw the unit metric balls centered at the origin with respect to the metrics d_2, d_∞ and d_1 on \mathbb{R}^2 .
- 6. Show that $||a|| = \left(\sum_{j} |a_{j}|^{p}\right)^{1/p}$ is no longer a norm for $p \in (0,1)$.
- 7. Determine the metric ball of radius r in (X, d) where d is the discrete metric, that is, d(x, y) = 1 if $x \neq y$.
- 8. Let l^p consist of all sequences $\{a_n\}$ satisfying $\sum_n |a_n|^p < \infty$. Show that

$$||a||_p = \left(\sum_n |a_n|^p\right)^{1/p} ,$$

defines a norm on $l^p, 1 \le p < \infty$. Propose a definition for the metric space l^∞ .

9. Define d on $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ by $d(n,m) = 2^{-d}$, where d is the largest power of 2 dividing $n - m \neq 0$ and set d(n,n) = 0. Verify that d defines a metric on \mathbb{Z} .

Elementary Inequalities for Functions.

We start with the Young's Inequality covered in MATH2060.

Young's Inequality. For a, b > 0 and p > 1,

$$ab \le \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q} \;, \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1,$$

and equality sign holds if and only if $a^p = b^q$.

The number q is called the conjugate of p. Note that q > 1. The proof of this inequality is left to you. Basically, we use calculus to show the function

$$\varphi(a) = \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q} - ab ,$$

where b is fixed, has a unique minimum over $(0,\infty)$ at the point $a=b^{1/(1-p)}$, that is, $a^p=b^q$.

Hölder's Inequality. Let $f, g \in R[a, b]$ and p > 1. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)g(x)| \, dx \le \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)|^{p} \, dx\right)^{1/p} \left(\int_{a}^{b} |g(x)|^{q} \, dx\right)^{1/q} \,, \quad q \text{ is conjugate to } p \,.$$

Equality sign in this inequality holds if and only if either (a) f or g vanish almost everywhere, or (b) there is some positive λ such that $|g|^q = \lambda |f|^p$ almost everywhere.

Proof. Assume $||f||_p$ or $||g||_q$ is non-zero, otherwise the inequality holds trivially. In the following it is assumed $||f||_p > 0$. You may also assume the other case, it is symmetric anyway.

For $\varepsilon > 0$ to be chosen, by Young's Inequality,

$$|f(x)g(x)| = |\varepsilon f(x)\varepsilon^{-1}g(x)| \le \frac{\varepsilon^p|f(x)|^p}{n} + \frac{\varepsilon^{-q}|g(x)|^q}{q}$$
.

Integrate this inequality to get

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)g(x)| dx \le \frac{\varepsilon^{p}}{p} \int_{a}^{b} |f(x)|^{p} dx + \frac{\varepsilon^{-q}}{q} \int_{a}^{b} |g(x)|^{q} dx . \tag{1}$$

We now choose ε so that

$$\varepsilon^p \int_a^b |f(x)|^p dx = \varepsilon^{-q} \int_a^b |g(x)|^q dx$$
,

that is,

$$\varepsilon^{p+q} = \left(\int_a^b |g(x)|^q dx\right) \left(\int_a^b |f(x)|^p dx\right)^{-1}.$$

Using this epsilon to plug in (1), the right hand side becomes

$$\frac{\varepsilon^p}{p} \int_a^b |f(x)|^p \, dx + \frac{\varepsilon^{-q}}{q} \int_a^b |g(x)|^q \, dx = \left(\int_a^b |f(x)|^p \, dx \right)^{1/p} \left(\int_a^b |g(x)|^q \, dx \right)^{1/q} . \tag{2}$$

The Hölder's Inequality follows.

To characterize the inequality sign in this inequality, observe case (a) is obvious so let us assume $||f||_p$, $||g||_q$ are both positive, so |f(x)|, |g(x)| are positive almost everywhere. From (1) and (2) we see that the inequality sign in (1) becomes equality, that is,

$$\int_a^b \left(\frac{\varepsilon^p |f(x)|^p}{p} + \frac{\varepsilon^{-q} |g(x)|^q}{q} - |f(x)g(x)| \right) dx = 0.$$

The integrand is a non-negative function by Young's Inequality. The vanishing of this integral implies that the integrand must vanish almost everywhere, that is,

$$\frac{\varepsilon^p |f(x)|^p}{p} + \frac{\varepsilon^{-q} g(x)^q}{q} - |f(x)g(x)| = 0 \ a.e. \ .$$

By the equality sign condition in Young's Inequality, we conclude that

$$\varepsilon^p |f(x)|^p = \varepsilon^{-q} g(x)^q \ a.e.,$$

that is, $|g(x)|^q = \lambda |f(x)|^p$ almost everywhere where $\lambda = \varepsilon^{-p-q}$.

Remarks. (a) We have used the following proposition proved in Chapter 1: For $f \in R[a,b]$,

$$\int_a^b |f| dx = 0 \text{ if and only if } f = 0 \text{ a.e. }.$$

We also point out, when $f \in C[a, b]$,

$$\int_a^b |f| dx = 0 \text{ if and only if } f = 0 \text{ everywhere} .$$

- (b) When f and g in Hölder's Inequality are continuous, almost everywhere in the characterization of equality sign becomes everywhere.
- (c) The inequality still holds in the limiting cases. In fact, when $g \in C[a, b]$ and p = 1, we have

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)g(x)| \, dx \le \int_{a}^{b} |f(x)| \, dx ||g||_{\infty} \, .$$

When $f \in C[a, b]$ and $p = \infty$,

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)g(x)| \, dx \le ||f||_{\infty} \int_{a}^{b} |g(x)| \, dx .$$

But there is no clean characterization of the equality sign.

Minkowski's Inequality. For $f, g \in R[a, b]$ and p > 1,

$$||f+g||_p \le ||f||_p + ||g||_p$$
.

Equality sign in this inequality holds if and only if either (a) f or g vanishes almost everywhere, or (b) $||f||_p$, $||g||_p > 0$ and there is some positive λ such that $g(x) = \lambda f(x)$ almost everywhere. Proof. Using

$$|f+g|^p = |f+g|^{p-1}|f+g| \le |f+g|^{p-1}|f| + |f+g|^{p-1}|g|$$
,

integrate both sides to get

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f+g|^{p} dx \le \int_{a}^{b} |f+g|^{p-1} |f| dx + \int_{a}^{b} |f+g|^{p-1} |g| dx . \tag{3}$$

Applying the Hölder's Inequality to the two integrals on the right separately, we have

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f + g||f| dx \le \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f + g|^{q} dx \right)^{1/q} \left(\int_{a}^{b} |f|^{p} dx \right)^{1/p} ,$$

and

$$\int_a^b |f+g||g| \, dx \le \left(\int_a^b |f+g|^q \, dx \right)^{1/q} \left(\int_a^b |g|^p \, dx \right)^{1/p} \; ,$$

where q is conjugate to p. Putting this back to (3), we obtain the desired inequality after some simplifications.

The equality case, in principle, could be treated as in the Hölder's case. It is easy to get $|g(x)|^q = \lambda |f(x)|^p$ almost everywhere, but rather tedious (or need to use Lebsegue integral) to get $f(x)^p = \lambda g(x)^q$. Luckily, this property has no consequence in our later development.