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When is $L^{r}(\mathbf{R})$ contained in $L^{p}(\mathbf{R}) + L^{q}(\mathbf{R})$?

Jean-Baptiste Hiriart-Urruty and Lassère Patrice

Abstract

We prove a necessary and sufficient condition on the exponents $p, q, r \ge 1$ such that $L^r(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$. In doing so, we explore the structure of $L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$ as a normed vector space.

1 Introduction.

In a recent mathematical note aimed at undergraduate students and their teachers ([3]), J.-B. Hiriart-Urruty and M. Pradel proposed a way to extend the Fourier transformation to all the spaces $L^{r}(\mathbf{R})$ with $1 \leq r \leq 2$ in the following manner.

– First, they classically define the Fourier transformation on $L^1(\mathbf{R})$. Then they define it on $L^2(\mathbf{R})$ using in that case the much less known Wiener's approach which relies on a specific Hilbertian basis made of the so-called Bernstein functions.

– After having checked the coherence of both definitions on $L^1(\mathbf{R}) \cap L^2(\mathbf{R})$, they extend the definition of the Fourier transformation to the space $L^1(\mathbf{R}) + L^2(\mathbf{R})$.

– Finally, and this is the key-point, they prove the inclusion $L^{r}(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^{1}(\mathbf{R}) + L^{2}(\mathbf{R})$ for all $1 \leq r \leq 2$, so that the Fourier transformation can be extended to all the Lebesgue spaces $L^{r}(\mathbf{R})$.

An obvious question which arises is, what happens if $r \notin [1, 2]$? For example, is the inclusion $L^3(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^1(\mathbf{R}) + L^2(\mathbf{R})$ true or not? The objective of the present mathematical note is to answer this question. We provide a necessary and sufficient condition for the inclusion $L^r(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$ to hold true. For that purpose, concentrate on the sum $L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$ and see how it is structured as a normed vector space.

2 How to norm a sum of normed vector spaces ?

Let V and W be two vector subspaces of a "holdall" vector space, E. If V is equipped with a norm $\|\cdot\|_1$ and W with a norm $\|\cdot\|_2$, is there a natural way to define a norm on the vector subspace V + W? Of course, we do not assume that $V \cap W = \{O_E\}$. If this was the case, a natural way to define a norm N on V + W would be

$$N(u) = \|v\|_1 + \|w\|_2,$$

whenever $u \in V + W$ is (uniquely) decomposed as u = v + w, with $v \in V$ and $w \in W$.

What we have in mind is indeed $V = L^{p}(\mathbf{R})$, $W = L^{q}(\mathbf{R})$ and $E = L(\mathbf{R})$ as the "holdall" vector space $(L(\mathbf{R})$ stands for the set of all Lebesgue classes of mesurable functions on \mathbf{R}).

The theorem below answers the question posed above. It does not seem to be well-known, except by people who have to deal with the interpolation of functional spaces (like in [1]).

Theorem 1 Let N be defined on V + W as follows

$$N(u) := \inf\{\|v\|_1 + \|w\|_2 \ ; \ u = v + w \ with \ v \in V \ and \ w \in W\}.$$
(1)

Then, N is a semi-norm on V + W. It is a norm under the following "compatibility" assumption :

$$(\mathcal{T}) \qquad \begin{array}{c} z_k \in V \cap W, \\ z_k \longrightarrow a \ in \ (V, ||.||_1) \\ z_k \longrightarrow b \ in \ (W, ||.||_2) \end{array} \right\} \Longrightarrow a = b.$$

Proof: To check that $N(O_E) = 0$, $N(\lambda u) = |\lambda|N(u)$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbf{R}$, $u \in V+W$, and $N(u_1 + u_2) \leq N(u_1) + N(u_2)$ for all u_1 and u_2 in V + W, does not raise any difficulty. It suffices to use the definition of the lower bound (or infimum) of a set of real numbers.

To prove that N(u) = 0 implies that $u = O_E$ is a bit more tricky. Our experience with that question with undergraduate students shows that they usually fail to answer it correctly. Their common mistake is to deduce that a sequence $(v_k + w_k)_k$ converges to O_E using the fact that $(v_k)_k$ converges to O_E in V and $(w_k)_k$ converges to O_E in W. We therefore provide a proof here.

We first begin by observing that

$$\nu : V \cap W \ni u \mapsto \nu(u) := \max(\|u\|_1, \|u\|_2)$$
(2)

is a norm on $V \cap W$; this is an easy result to prove.

Consider therefore, $u \in V + W$ such that N(u) = 0. We take for example

$$u = v + w$$
, with $v \in V$ and $w \in W$. (3)

Due to the definition (1) of N(u), for all positive integers k, there exists $v_k \in V$ and $w_k \in W$ such that

$$u = v_k + w_k, \text{ and} \tag{4}$$

$$\|v_k\|_1 + \|w_k\|_2 \le N(u) + \frac{1}{k} = \frac{1}{k}.$$
(5)

Thus, $(v_k)_k$ converges to O_E in V and $(w_k)_k$ converges to O_E in w. But what about $(v_k + w_k)_k$? Recall that no norm, hence, no topology, has yet been defined on V + W. We infer from (3) and (4) that

$$v + w = v_k + w_k,$$

and thus

$$v - v_k = w_k - w. ag{6}$$

As a consequence, this common vector $z_k := v - v_k = w_k - w$ lies in $V \cap W$ and, since $\nu(z_k) = \|v - v_k\|_1$ or $\|w_k - w\|_2$,

$$z_k \to v \text{ in } (V, \|\cdot\|_1) \text{ and } z_k \to -w \text{ in } (W, \|\cdot\|_2).$$

The assumption (\mathcal{T}) then ensures that

$$v = -w$$
, that is $u = v + w = O_E$.

Note that the technical "compatibility" assumption (\mathcal{T}) is satisfied

- trivially if $V \cap W = \{O_E\}$ (in that case it amounts to 0 = 0).

- in the cases where $V = L^p(\mathbb{R})$, $W = L^q(\mathbb{R})$ (indeed, convergence of $(f_k)_k$ towards f in $L^p(\mathbb{R})$ implies convergence almost everywhere of a subsequence of $(f_k)_k$ towards f).

– when the "holdall" vector space E is a Hausdorff topological vector space in which V and W are continuously imbedded.

We suppose that (\mathcal{T}) is in force for the rest of the section.

The vector space V+W, equipped with the norm N as defined in (1), inherits some properties of $(V, \|\cdot\|_1)$ and $(W, \|\cdot\|_2)$. Here is one.

Theorem 2 If $(V, \|\cdot\|_1)$ and $(W, \|\cdot\|_2)$ are Banach spaces, then so is (V+W, N).

Proof: The proof of this theorem offers the opportunity to use a caracterization of completeness of normed vector spaces which is not well-known. Let $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space. We have indeed

$$((X, \|\cdot\|) \text{ is complete }) \iff \begin{pmatrix} \text{Every series in } X, \text{ of general term } a_k, \text{ for } \\ \text{which } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|a_k\| < +\infty \text{ does converges in } X \\ (\text{toward a sum denoted as } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(7)$$

The implication (\Rightarrow) is classical, it is the most often used. The converse implication (\Leftarrow) is not often used, but we have an opportunity to do that here. For a proof of the equivalence (7), see for example ([6], Theorems 2-XIV-2.1 and 2.2, pages 164-165), ([4], page 20) or ([7], pages 262 and 270); it is also sketched in ([1], page 24). The proof is not very difficult however, but readers are encouraged to work through it themselves. We now proceed in this manner to a proof of Theorem 2.

Consider a series in V + W, of general term u_k for which $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} N(u_k) < \infty$. We have to prove that $\sum_{k=0}^{n} u_k$ converges as $n \to +\infty$, to some element $u \in V + W$. In view of the definition (1) of N, for all positive integer k, there exist $v_k \in V$ and $w_k \in W$ satisfying

$$u_k = v_k + w_k, \text{ and} \tag{8}$$

$$\|v_k\|_1 + \|w_k\|_2 \le N(u_k) + \frac{1}{k^2}.$$
(9)

Thus, $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|v_k\|_1 < +\infty$ and $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|w_k\|_2 < +\infty$. Since both $(V, \|\cdot\|_1)$ and $(W, \|\cdot\|_2)$ have been assumed to be complete, there exist $v \in V$ and $w \in W$ such that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} v_k \underset{n \to +\infty}{\longrightarrow} v \text{ in } V, \text{ and } \sum_{k=0}^{n} w_k \underset{n \to +\infty}{\longrightarrow} w \text{ in } W.$$
(10)

Let $u := v + w \in V + W$. Let us check that, as expected, $\sum_{k=0}^{n} u_k$ converges to u in (V + W, N). Indeed,

$$N\left(u - \sum_{k=0}^{n} u_{k}\right) = N\left(u + v - \sum_{k=0}^{n} (v_{k} + w_{k})\right) \le \left\|v - \sum_{k=0}^{n} v_{k}\right\|_{1} + \left\|w - \sum_{k=0}^{n} w_{k}\right\|_{2}$$

It remains to apply (10) to get the desired result, $N(u - \sum_{k=0}^{n} u_k) \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{} 0.$

Comments : The construction of the norm ν on $V \cap W$ and N on V + W deserves some geometrical interpretation. Even if $\|\cdot\|_1$ (resp. $\|\cdot\|_2$) is only defined on $V \subset E$ (resp. on $W \subset E$), we can extend it to the whole of E by setting $\|u\|_1 = +\infty$ if $u \notin V$ (resp. $\|u\|_2 = +\infty$ if $u \notin W$). We still denote by $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ the extended functions.

Clearly, $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ are convex positively homogeneous functions on E. Modern convex analysis accepts and can handle convex functions possibly taking the value $+\infty$ ([5]). An important geometrical object associated with a convex function $f : E \to \mathbf{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ is its so-called strict epigraph

$$epi_s f := \{(x, r) \in E \times \mathbf{R} : f(x) < r\}$$

(literally, what is strictly above the graph of f). In our situation, $K_1 := \operatorname{epi}_s \|\cdot\|_1$ and $K_2 := \operatorname{epi}_s \|\cdot\|_2$ are open convex cones of E. So, what are the strict epigraphs of the norm functions ν and N? One easily checks the following

$$\operatorname{epi}_{s}\nu = (\operatorname{epi}_{s} \|\cdot\|_{1}) \cap (\operatorname{epi}_{s} \|\cdot\|_{2}), \text{ and}$$
$$\operatorname{epi}_{s}N = (\operatorname{epi}_{s} \|\cdot\|_{1}) + (\operatorname{epi}_{s} \|\cdot\|_{2}).$$
(11)

The sets where ν (resp. N) is finite, called the domain of ν (resp. of N) in convex analysis, is just $V \cap W$ (resp. V + W).

The binary operation which builds a convex function f from two other ones f_1 and f_2 , via the geometric construction

$$\operatorname{epi}_{s} f = \operatorname{epi}_{s} f_{1} + \operatorname{epi}_{s} f_{2}$$

is called the *infimal convolution* of f_1 and f_2 ([2],[5]). This operation enjoys properties similar to the usual (integral) convolution in classical analysis.

In brief, the norm N has been designed as an infimal convolution of the norms $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$.

Returning to our particular setting $E = L(\mathbf{R}), V = L^p(\mathbf{R})$ and $W = L^q(\mathbf{R})$ with $1 \leq p, q < +\infty$, the vector space $L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$ can be equipped with a norm that we denote $\|\cdot\|_{p,q}$ as follows,

$$||f||_{p,q} = \inf\{||g||_p + ||h||_q; f = g + h \text{ with } g \in L^p(\mathbf{R}) \text{ and } h \in L^q(\mathbf{R})\}.$$
 (12)

As proved in Theorem 2, $(L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R}), \|\cdot\|_{p,q})$ is a Banach space.

3 Comparing $L^r(\mathbf{R})$ with $L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$

We know that the Lebesgue spaces $L^r(\mathbf{R})$ and $L^s(\mathbf{R})$ (for $1 \leq r \neq s < +\infty$) cannot be compared. Neither $L^r(\mathbf{R})$ is contained in $L^s(\mathbf{R})$ nor the converse. A direct comparison is however possible if we deal with the sum of these spaces. Here is the main result of this section.

Theorem 3 If $1 \le p < q < +\infty$, then we have the following :

- 1. $L^{r}(\mathbf{R})$ is contained in $L^{p}(\mathbf{R}) + L^{q}(\mathbf{R})$ whenever $r \in [p,q]$,
- 2. if $1 \leq r < +\infty$ does not lie in [p,q], then $L^r(\mathbf{R})$ is not contained in $L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$.

Proof: (1) Let $f \in L^r(\mathbf{R})$ and consider $X := \{x \in \mathbf{R} : |f(x)| > 1\}$ (a measurable set defined within a set of null measure) as well as $X^c = \mathbf{R} \setminus X$ (the complementary set of X in \mathbf{R}). We decompose f as follows :

$$f = f_1 + f_2$$
, with $f_1 = f \cdot \mathbf{1}_X$ and $f_2 = f \cdot \mathbf{1}_{X^c}$. (13)

We claim that (13) provides an explicit decomposition of f in $L^{p}(\mathbf{R}) + L^{q}(\mathbf{R})$, that is to say $f_{1} \in L^{p}(\mathbf{R})$ and $f_{2} \in L^{q}(\mathbf{R})$. We first prove that,

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}} |f_1(x)|^p d\lambda(x) = \int_X |f(x)|^p d\lambda(x) = \int_X |f(x)|^{p-r} \cdot |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x).$$
(14)

For $x \in X$, |f(x)| > 1 and, since the exponent p-r is nonpositive, $|f(x)|^{p-r} \le 1$. Consequently, the last integral in the string of equalities (14) is bounded above by $\int_X |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x)$. Finally,

(14')
$$\int_{\mathbf{R}} |f_1(x)|^p d\lambda(x) \le \int_X |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x) \le \int_{\mathbf{R}} |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x) < +\infty.$$

We thus have proved that $f_1 \in L^p(\mathbf{R})$.

Second, we prove that $f_2 \in L^q(\mathbf{R})$. Indeed,

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}} |f_2(x)|^q d\lambda(x) = \int_{X^c} |f(x)|^q d\lambda(x) = \int_{X^c} |f(x)|^{q-r} \cdot |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x).$$
(15)

For $x \in X^c$, $|f(x)| \leq 1$ and, since the exponent q-r is nonegative, $|f(x)|^{q-r} \leq 1$. Again, the last integral in the string of equalities (15) is bounded above by $\int_{X^c} |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x)$. As a result,

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}} |f_2(x)|^q d\lambda(x) = \int_{X^c} |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x) = \int_{\mathbf{R}} |f(x)|^r d\lambda(x) < +\infty.$$
(16)

We therefore, have proved that $f_2 \in L^q(\mathbf{R})$.

(2) The second part of Theorem 3 is a bit harder to prove (like most of the negative results in mathematics). We actually have to distinguish two cases for r in the segment [p,q]: r < p and r > q.

Case 1 : r < p. Choose α satisfying $1/p < \alpha < 1/r$ and let f be defined on **R** by $f(x) = x^{-\alpha} \mathbf{1}_{(0,1]}(x)$.

Since $|f(x)|^r = x^{-\alpha r}$ for $x \in (0, 1]$ and 0 elsewhere, the choice of α implies that $f \in L^r(\mathbf{R})$ (since $\alpha r < 1$). The same argument shows that $f \notin L^p(\mathbf{R})$ (since $\alpha p > 1$).

Suppose now that $L^r(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$. Then

$$f \in L^{r}(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^{p}(\mathbf{R}) + L^{q}(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^{p}([0,1]) + L^{q}([0,1]).$$
(17)

But since [0,1] is of Lebesgue finite measure and p < q, $L^q([0,1])$ is contained in $L^p([0,1])$, so that (17) yields that $f \in L^p([0,1])$. This is not the case.

Thus we have proved that $L^{r}(\mathbf{R})$ is not contained in $L^{p}(\mathbf{R}) + L^{q}(\mathbf{R})$.

Case 2 : r > q. Our proof in this case relies on a technical lemma that we present separately.

Lemma 1 Let $1 \leq p < q < +\infty$, let Ω be a mesurable subset of **R**, and let $f \in L^p(\Omega) + L^q(\Omega)$. Then $f \in L^q(\Omega)$ whenever it is essentially bounded on Ω .

Proof of the Lemma : Let f be decomposed as $f = f_p + f_q$, with $f_p \in L^p(\Omega)$ and $f_q \in L^q(\Omega)$. So, to prove that $f \in L^q(\Omega)$ amounts to proving that $f_p \in L^q(\Omega)$.

Let $X := \{x \in \mathbf{R} : |f_p(x)| > 1\}$. To show that $\int_{\Omega} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x)$ is finite, we cut it into two pieces $: \int_{\Omega \cap X^c} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x)$ and $\int_{\Omega \cap X} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x)$. Consider the first piece. Since $f_p \in L^p(\mathbf{R})$, the set X is of finite (Lebesgue)

measure. Now with the definition of X and the fact that q - p > 0, we obtain

$$\int_{\Omega \cap X^c} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x) = \int_{\Omega \cap X^c} |f_p(x)|^{q-p} \cdot |f_p(x)|^p d\lambda(x)$$
$$\leq \int_{\Omega \cap X^c} |f_p(x)|^p d\lambda(x) \leq \int_{\mathbf{R}} |f_p(x)|^p d\lambda(x) < +\infty$$

This concludes the argument for the first piece.

Consider now the second piece. Since f has been assumed essentially bounded on Ω ,

$$|f_p(x)| \le |f(x) - f_q(x)| \le ||f||_{\infty} + |f_q(x)|$$
 for almost all x in Ω .

Consequently,

$$\int_{\Omega \cap X} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x) \le \int_{\Omega \cap X} \left(\|f\|_\infty + |f_q(x)| \right)^q d\lambda(x).$$
(18)

The convexity of the function $t \mapsto t^q$ on $[0, +\infty)$ implies that $(||f||_{\infty} + |f_q(x)|)^q \leq$ $2^{q-1} (||f||_{\infty}^q + |f_q(x)|^q)$. So, we pursue the string of inequalities (18) with

$$\int_{\Omega \cap X} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x) \le 2^{q-1} \int_{\Omega \cap X} (\|f\|_{\infty}^q + |f_q(x)|^q) d\lambda(x)$$
$$\le 2^{q-1} [\lambda(X) \|f\|_{\infty}^q + (\|f_q\|_q)^q].$$

To summarize, we have proved that

$$\int_{\Omega} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x) = \int_{\Omega \cap X^c} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x) + \int_{\Omega \cap X} |f_p(x)|^q d\lambda(x) < +\infty.$$

Thus, $f_p \in L^p(\Omega)$, which was our objective. That concludes the proof of the technical lemma.

Let us go back to the second part of the proof of Theorem 3, the case where r > q. Choose α satisfying $1/r < \alpha < 1/q$ and let f be defined on **R** by $f(x) = x^{-\alpha} \mathbf{1}_{[1,+\infty)}(x).$

Since $|f(x)|^r = x^{-\alpha r}$ for $x \in [1, +\infty)$ and 0 elsewhere, the choice of α implies that $f \in L^r(\Omega)$ (since $\alpha r > 1$). But also f is essentially bounded on **R**. If f were in $L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$, the technical lemma would imply that $f \in L^q(\mathbf{R})$. But, this is not the case since $|f(x)|^q = x^{-\alpha q}$ for $x \in [1, +\infty)$ and 0 elsewhere, the choice of α implies that $\alpha q < 1$.

Thus, again in the case where r > q, $L^r(\mathbf{R})$ is not contained in $L^p(\mathbf{R}) +$ $L^q(\mathbf{R}).$

We end this note with the following observation, which links sections 2 and 3. In the first part of Theorem 3, we have proved that $L^r(\mathbf{R}) \subset L^p(\mathbf{R}) + L^q(\mathbf{R})$ whenever $r \in [p,q]$. In the course of its proof, a simple explicit decomposition of $f \in L^r(\mathbf{R})$ as $f = f_1 + f_2$, with $f_1 \in L^p(\mathbf{R})$ and $f_2 \in L^q(\mathbf{R})$ has been provided (see (13) and the upper bounds (14') and (16)). Indeed, as a consequence of (14) and (16),

$$||f||_{p,q} \le ||f_1||_p + ||f_2||_q \le ||f||_r^{r/p} + ||f||_r^{r/q}.$$
(19)

Hence, the injection of $L^{r}(\mathbf{R})$ into $L^{p}(\mathbf{R}) + L^{q}(\mathbf{R})$ is continuous ; therefore, there exists C > 0 such that

$$\|f\|_{p,q} \le C \|f\|_r.$$
(20)

Indeed, using the inequality (19), we can get an upper bound for the norm of this injection (a somewhat complicated expression in terms of p, q, r). This result complements a more classical one which says that, when $r \in [p,q]$, $L^p(\mathbf{R}) \cap L^q(\mathbf{R})$ is contained in $L^r(\mathbf{R})$, then the injection is continuous.

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