Advanced Real Analysis Tutorial 03

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1 Review

1.1 More Properties of L^p Space

As a variety of special Banach spaces, L^p spaces in possess of quantities of properties are widely researched in linear functional analysis.

Theorem 1 (Duality). The **dual space** of a Banach space X is composed of all bounded linear functionals on X, denoted as X^* . For $1 \le p < +\infty$, the dual space of L^p is **isometric** with $L^{p'}$. In fact, the linear mapping

$$\varphi: L^{p'} \to (L^p)^*,$$
$$g \to T_g$$

is an isometry. Here T_g maps f into $\int fg$.

Particularly, the operator norm of T equals the $L^{p'}$ norm of g. In other words

$$||g||_{p'} = ||T_g|| = \sup_{||f||_p = 1} \left| \int fg \right|.$$

This conclusion is correct for $p = +\infty$ as well if the measure is semifinite.

Remark 1. This theorem does not apply to L^{∞} , since $L^1 \subset (L^{\infty})^*$ strictly. Actually $(L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n))^* = BMO(\mathbb{R}^n)$. The **Bounded Mean Oscillation** space is a collection of all L^1_{loc} functions finite under the BMO norm

$$||f||_{BMO} = \sup_{Q} \frac{1}{|Q|} \int_{Q} |f - f_{Q}|.$$

Here f_Q is the average of f on Q, which is

$$f_Q = \frac{1}{|Q|} \int_Q f,$$

and the supermum is taken over all cubes Q in \mathbb{R}^n .

Interested students please refer to other textbooks such as GTM 250.

Other properties also shows the particularity of L^1 and L^{∞} , the "two ends" of $[1, +\infty]$.

Theorem 2 (Reflexivity). For $1 , the <math>L^p$ space is reflexive. In other words, L^p is isometric with the $(L^p)^{**}$, the second dual space.

Remark 2. With reflexivity, **Banach-Alaoglu theorem** admits a weakly convergent subsequence in every bounded sequence.

Theorem 3 (Separability). For $1 \le p < +\infty$, the L^p space is separable. In other words, there is a countable subset dense in L^p .

Remark 3. In fact, there is a sequence of simple or smooth L^p functions approximate a given L^p function in L^p norm if $p < +\infty$. However, there does not exist a countable subset dense in L^{∞} .

In practice, some functions are so irregular that they are not even in L^p . For example, $f(x) = \frac{1}{|x|}$ does not belong to any L^p space. Meanwhile, some common operators, like **Hardy-Littlewood maximal operator**, fail to be strong type (p,p) for every $1 \le p \le +\infty$. Therefore, we introduce a kind of weaker function spaces.

Definition 1 (Weak L^p space). Define weak L^p norm

$$||f||_{p,\infty} = \left(\sup_{\lambda>0} \lambda^p \mu\left(\{|f|>\lambda\}\right)\right)^p,$$

then the weak L^p space includes all functions whose weak L^p norms are finite, denoted as $L^{p,\infty}$.

Remark 4. For $1 \le p \le +\infty$, we have $L^p \subset L^{p,\infty}$. Particularly, $L^{\infty} = L^{\infty,\infty}$.

As we know, the essence of Lebesgue integration is splitting the area not vertically but horizontally. There is an important formula that convert an L^p norm into an integral with respect to the **upper level set**.

Theorem 4 (Layer cake representation). Let f be a L^p function for $1 \le p < +\infty$, then

$$\int |f|^p \,\mathrm{d}\mu = \int_0^\infty p\lambda^{p-1}\mu\left(\{|f| > \lambda\}\right) \,\mathrm{d}\lambda.$$

Remark 5. This widely applied formula that should be born in mind. One possible proof comes from Fubini theorem.

1.2 L^p Inequalities

Besides Hölder's inequality and its corollaries, there are still a lot of useful inequalities concerned with L^p spaces. To prove that convergence in L^p implies convergence in measure, we need

Theorem 5 (Chebbyshev's inequality). For $f \in L^p$ and $\alpha > 0$, we have

$$\mu\left(\{|f| > \lambda\}\right) \le \left(\frac{\|f\|_p}{\lambda}\right)^p.$$

This inequality often take effects on $L^{p,\infty}$.

Besides the triangular inequality in L^p , there is another inequality named after Minkowski.

Theorem 6 (Minkowski's inequality for integrals). For $1 \le p < +\infty$ and nonnegative f, we have

$$\left(\int \left(\int f(x,y) \,\mathrm{d}\nu(y)\right) \mathrm{d}\mu(x)\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \int \left(\int (f(x,y))^p \,\mathrm{d}\mu(x)\right) \mathrm{d}\nu(x).$$

Let $f(\cdot, y) \in L^p(\mu)$ for almost every y and $1 \leq p \leq +\infty$. If $y \to ||f(\cdot, y)||_p$ belongs to $L^1(\nu)$, then $f(x, \cdot) \in L^1(\nu)$ for almost every x, and

$$\left\| \int f(\cdot, y) \,\mathrm{d}\nu(y) \right\|_p \le \int \|f(\cdot, y)\|_p \,\mathrm{d}\nu(y).$$

Functions resembling $\frac{1}{x+y}$ usually fail to possess useful integration properties. However, it is improved through multiplying with a L^p functions before integrating. Literally, we call K(x,y) a (-1)-homogeneous function or kernel if $K(x,y) = \lambda K(\lambda x, \lambda y)$ for positive λ .

Theorem 7. Let (x, y) be a (-1)-homogeneous function such that

$$\int_0^{+\infty} |K(x,1)| x^{-\frac{1}{p}} \, \mathrm{d}x = C < +\infty, \ p \in [1,+\infty].$$

For $f \in L^p$ and $g \in L^{p'}$, define two operators T and S by

$$Tf(y) = \int_0^\infty K(x, y) f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x,$$
$$Sg(x) = \int_0^\infty K(x, y) g(y) \, \mathrm{d}y,$$

then T and S are bounded. To specify, we have

$$||Tf||_p \le C||f||_p, ||Sg||_{p'} \le C||g||_{p'}.$$

Finally, we introduce an inequality that does not look so "regular".

Theorem 8 (Hardy's inequality). Let

$$Tf(y) = \frac{1}{y} \int_0^y f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x,$$
$$Sg(x) = \int_x^{+\infty} \frac{g(y)}{y} \, \mathrm{d}y.$$

Then we have the following inequalities for 1 ,

$$||Tf||_{p} \leq \frac{p}{p-1} ||f||_{p},$$

$$||Sg||_{p'} \leq p' ||g||_{p'}.$$

Remark 6. There is a discrete Hardy's inequality. For p > 1 and non-negative x_1, \dots, x_n , we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} x_j \right) \le \left(\frac{p}{p-1} \right)^p \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k^p.$$

1.3 Interpolation Theorems

The interpolation theorems play an indispensable role in the boundedness of operators, especially singular integral operators. The proofs are sophisticated, so just remember the statements and applications.

Theorem 9 (Marcinkiewicz interpolation theorem). Abstract $1 \le p_0, p_1, q_0, q_1 \le +\infty$ such that $p_0 \le q_0, p_1 \le q_1, q_0 \ne q_1$ and

$$\frac{1}{p} = \frac{1-t}{p_0} + \frac{t}{p_1}, \\ \frac{1}{q} = \frac{1-t}{q_0} + \frac{t}{q_1}.$$

If a sublinear operator T is weak type (p_0, q_0) and (p_1, q_1) , then T is strong type (p, q).

Theorem 10 (Riesz-Thorin interpolation theorem). Let T be a linear operator and p_0, p_1, q_0, q_1 defined in the theorem above. If T satisfies

$$||Tf||_{q_0} \le M_0 ||f||_{p_0}, ||Tf||_{q_1} \le M_1 ||f||_{p_1},$$

then

$$||Tf||_q \le M_0^{1-t} M_1^t ||f||_p$$

Remark 7. In the latter theorem, we have stricter requirements for T but looser requirements for p_0, p_1, q_0, q_1 .

2 Solutions to Homework

2.1 Exercise 6.1.9

Proof. Fix a $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\mu\{|f_n - f| \ge \varepsilon\} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^p} \int_{\{|f_n - f|^p \ge \varepsilon^p\}} \varepsilon^p \,\mathrm{d}\mu$$
$$= \frac{1}{\varepsilon^p} \int_{\{|f_n - f|^p \ge \varepsilon^p\}} |f_n - f|^p \,\mathrm{d}\mu$$
$$\le \frac{1}{\varepsilon^p} \int_X |f_n - f|^p \,\mathrm{d}\mu$$
$$\to 0, \ n \to \infty.$$

Conversely, assume $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ does not converge to f in L^p , then there is a subsequence $\{g_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset \{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ such that $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$,

$$||g_n - f||_p \ge \varepsilon, \,\forall \, n.$$

Since $g_n \to f$ in measure, there is a subsequence $\{h_n\}_{h=1}^{\infty} \subset \{g_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ that converges to f almost everywhere. Dominant convergence theorem implies $h_n \to f$ in L^p , a contradiction.

Remark 8. Actually, a series is convergent if and only if every subsequence of it possesses a convergent subsequence. We proved this proposition by contradiction.

2.2 Exercise 6.1.10

Proof. \Longrightarrow :

The triangle inequality implies

$$|||f_n||_p - ||f||_p| \le ||f_n - f||_p \to 0, \ n \to \infty.$$

⇐=:

As for the inverse proposition, we shall verify a primary inequality first

$$|a \pm b|^p \le 2^{p-1} (|a|^p + |b|^p), \ \forall, p \ge 1.$$

In fact, it is equivalent with

$$\left|\frac{a \pm b}{2}\right|^{p} \le \frac{1}{2}|a|^{p} + \frac{1}{2}|b|^{p},$$

a consequence of the convexity of function $f(x) = |x|^p$ for $p \ge 1$.

Back to the point, construct

$$g_n = 2^{p-1} \left(|f_n|^p + |f|^p \right)$$

that converges to $g = |2f|^p \in L^1$ almost everywhere. Since $|f_n - f|^p \leq g_n$, the dominant convergence theorem implies

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int |f_n - f|^p = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} |f_n - f|^p = 0 \Longrightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} ||f_n||_p = ||f||_p.$$

Remark 9. A generalization of this conclusion is called Brezis-Lieb Lemma,

$$||u + v_j||_p^p = ||u||_p^p + ||v_j||_p^p + o(1)$$

for $v_j \to 0$ in L^p . It is a fundamental technique in calculus of variations.

2.3 Exercise 6.1.15

Proof. \Longrightarrow :

The completeness of L^p space implies $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to some $f \in L^p$, and the first two conclusions are immediate due to our previous homework.

As for the third, consider an increasing sequence of sets

$$E_m = \left\{ |f_n| \ge \frac{1}{m} \right\}$$

for fixed n. Obviously, $\mu(E_m)$ is finite since $f_n \in L^p$. Additionally, note that

$$\int_E |f_n|^p = \int |f_n|^p < +\infty,$$

where

$$E = \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} E_m = \{ |f_n| \ge 0 \}.$$

Due to the fact that $|f_n \chi_{E_m^c}| \leq f_n \in L^p$, we can apply the dominant convergence theorem,

$$\lim_{m \to \infty} \|f_n\|_{L^p(E_m^c)} = \lim_{m \to \infty} \left(\int_{E_m^c} |f_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \left(\lim_{m \to \infty} \int |f_n|^p \chi_{E_m^c} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \left(\int_{E^c} |f_n| \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = 0.$$

As a result, $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists m > 0$, such that

$$||f_n||_{L^p(E_m^c)}^p < \varepsilon \Longrightarrow \int_{E_m^c} |f_n|^p < \varepsilon,$$

while $\mu(E_m^c) < +\infty$.

Let $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of L^p functions in possession of the three properties. For a fixed $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, consider the sets

$$A_{mn} = E \cap \left\{ |f_m - f_n| \ge \frac{\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{p}}}{3^{\frac{1}{p}} \mu(E)} \right\}$$

Here E is of finite measure and

$$\int_{E^c} |f_n|^p < \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3}\right)^p, \ \forall \, n.$$

Provided with such conditions, we have

$$\int_{E \setminus A_{mn}} |f_m - f_n|^p \le \int_{E \setminus A_{mn}} \frac{\varepsilon}{3\mu(E)} = \frac{\varepsilon\mu(E \setminus A_{mn})}{3\mu(E)} \le \frac{\varepsilon}{3}.$$

Since $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in measure, we assume $\mu(A_{mn}) < \delta$ is small in measure for sufficiently large m, n. As a result,

$$\int_{A_{mn}} |f_m - f_n|^n \le 2^{p-1} \int_{A_{mn}} |f_m|^p + 2^{p-1} \int_{A_{mn}} |f_n|^p \le \frac{\varepsilon}{3}.$$

The last inequality is correct for sufficiently small δ as a consequence of the uniform integrability of $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Combine the inequalities above, we ultimately obtain

$$||f_m - f_n||_p \le \left(\int_{E^c} |f_m - f_n|^p + \int_{E \setminus A_{mn}} |f_m - f_n|^p + \int_{A_{mn}} |f_m - f_n|^p\right) \le \varepsilon.$$

Remark 10. According to the hint, we only need to focus on the reasons why the 3 parts are arbitrarily small. It is natural to think of applying the absolute continuity of integral to the construction of E.

However, it is interesting to consider how to construct a sequence of increasing sets of finite measure that approximates X. Note that X is not necessarily a metric space, it is pointless to define a family of homocentric balls $\{B_n(0)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ with increasing radiuses. Meanwhile, we have no idea whether X is σ -finite, thus we cannot just claim there are a sequence of sets of finite increasing measure that finally fills X.

Exercise 6.3.29

Proof. Set a (-1)-homogeneous function $K(x, y) = x^{\beta-1}y^{-\beta}\chi_{(0,+\infty)}(y-x)$, which satisfies

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} |K(1,y)| y^{-\frac{1}{p}} \, \mathrm{d}y = \int_{1}^{+\infty} x^{\beta - 1 - \frac{1}{p}} = \frac{1}{1 - \beta p} < +\infty, \ \beta < \frac{1}{p}.$$

For $f(x) = x^{\gamma}h(x)$, we have

$$||Tf||_p \le \frac{1}{1-\beta p} ||f||_p, \ Tf(x) = \int_0^{+\infty} K(x,y)f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y$$

By **Theorem 6.20**, we have

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} \left(\int_{0}^{+\infty} x^{\beta - 1} y^{\gamma - \beta} h(y) \chi_{(0, +\infty)}(y - x) \, \mathrm{d}y \right)^p \mathrm{d}x \le \frac{1}{(1 - \beta p)^p} \int_{0}^{+\infty} x^{\gamma p} (h(x))^p \, \mathrm{d}x,$$

which implies

$$\int_0^{+\infty} x^{p(\beta-1)} \left(\int_x^{+\infty} y^{\gamma-\beta} h(y) \, \mathrm{d}y \right)^p \mathrm{d}x \le \frac{1}{(1-\beta p)^p} \int_0^{+\infty} x^{\gamma p} (h(x))^p \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

Let $\beta = \gamma = 1 + \frac{r-1}{p}$, and we obtain one of the inequalities. Swapping x and y in K, we similarly achieve the other inequality.

2.4 Exercise 6.3.29

Proof. Set a (-1)-homogeneous function $K(x,y) = x^{\beta-1}y^{-\beta}\chi_{(0,+\infty)}(y-x)$, which satisfies

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} |K(1,y)| y^{-\frac{1}{p}} \, \mathrm{d}y = \int_{1}^{+\infty} x^{\beta - 1 - \frac{1}{p}} = \frac{1}{1 - \beta p} < +\infty, \ \beta < \frac{1}{p}.$$

For $f(x) = x^{\gamma}h(x)$, we have

$$||Tf||_p \le \frac{1}{1-\beta p} ||f||_p, \ Tf(x) = \int_0^{+\infty} K(x,y)f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y.$$

By Theorem 6.20, we have

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \left(\int_0^{+\infty} x^{\beta-1} y^{\gamma-\beta} h(y) \chi_{(0,+\infty)}(y-x) \, \mathrm{d}y \right)^p \mathrm{d}x \le \frac{1}{(1-\beta p)^p} \int_0^{+\infty} x^{\gamma p} (h(x))^p \, \mathrm{d}x,$$

which implies

$$\int_0^{+\infty} x^{p(\beta-1)} \left(\int_x^{+\infty} y^{\gamma-\beta} h(y) \, \mathrm{d}y \right)^p \mathrm{d}x \le \frac{1}{(1-\beta p)^p} \int_0^{+\infty} x^{\gamma p} (h(x))^p \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

Let $\beta = \gamma = 1 + \frac{r-1}{p}$, and we obtain one of the inequalities. Swapping x and y in K, we similarly achieve the other inequality.

Remark 11. The characteristic function $\chi_{[0,1]}(y-x)$ offers an x to the limit of the inner integral.

2.5 Exercise 6.4.36

Proof. For q < p, we have

$$\begin{split} \int |f|^q \, \mathrm{d}\mu &= \int_0^{+\infty} q\lambda^{q-1}\mu\left(\{|f| > \lambda\}\right) \mathrm{d}\lambda \\ &\leq q \int_0^1 \lambda^{q-1}\mu\left(\{f \neq 0\}\right) \mathrm{d}\lambda + q \|f\|_{p,\infty}^p \int_1^{+\infty} \lambda^{q-p-1} \, \mathrm{d}\lambda \\ &= \mu\left(\{f \neq 0\}\right) + \frac{q}{p-q} \|f\|_{p,\infty}^p \\ &< +\infty. \end{split}$$

For q > p, let $||f||_{\infty} = M < +\infty$, then

$$\int |f|^q d\mu = \int_0^M q \lambda^{q-1} \mu \left(\{|f| > \lambda\}\right) d\lambda$$
$$\leq q \|f\|_{p,\infty}^p \int_0^M \lambda^{q-p-1} d\lambda$$
$$= \frac{q}{q-p} M^{q-p}$$
$$< +\infty.$$

Remark 12. Layer cake representation is always the most immediate formula that bridges strong and weak L^p spaces.

3 Boundedness Singular Integral Operator

As learned in section 6.3, there are a quantity of L^p inequalities, some of which are concerned with a kernel function K(x, y). In practice, operators in the form of

$$(Tu)(x) = \int K(x, y)u(y) \,\mathrm{d}y$$

are common, like **Green function** and the convolution with **approximation identity**.

Particularly, if K(x, y) admits a singularity, we call T a **singular integral operator**. Cardéron and Zygmund established a systematic theory in singular integral operators, including its boundedness, which is always related to the solvability and uniqueness issue of partial differential equations.

3.1 Caldéron-Zygmund Decomposition

To introduce this theory, we need a basic knowledge of the famous **Caldéron-Zygmund decomposition**, decomposing a function into a good part and a bad yet "small" part.

Theorem 11 (Caldéron-Zygmund decomposition for L^1 functions). For $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $\lambda > 0$, there is a decomposition f = g + b where

$$b = \sum_{Q \in B} f \chi_Q,$$

and B is a countable collection of disjoint cubes. Moreover, we have

- 1. $|g| \leq \lambda$ almost everywhere;
- 2. the average integral of f is bounded,

$$\lambda < \frac{1}{|Q|} \int_Q |f| \le 2^n \lambda;$$

3. The union of the cubes is not too large,

$$\left|\bigcup_{Q\in B}Q\right| < \frac{1}{\lambda} \|f\|_{L^1}.$$

Proof. Consider the collection of all binary cubes

$$B_k = \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^n [2^k m_j, 2^k (m_j + 1)) \middle| m_1, \cdots, m_n \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}, \ k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

For $Q_1 \in B_{k_1}$ and $Q_2 \in B_{k_0}$, it is easy to figure out the fact $Q_1 \cap Q_2 = \emptyset$ or one of them contains the other. Meanwhile, the union of B_k over $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ is countable.

Since $f \in L^1$, there is a sufficiently large $k_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\frac{1}{|Q|} \int_{Q} |f| \le \lambda, \ \forall Q \in B_{k_0}.$$

Actually, every $Q \in B_{k_0}$ is composed of 2^n small cubes whose edges are 2^{k_0-1} in length.

Let Q' be one of those small cubes. If

$$\frac{1}{|Q'|} \int_{Q'} |f| > \lambda_{t}$$

then we add Q' to the set B, and notice that

$$\lambda < \frac{1}{|Q'|} \int_{Q'} |f| \le \frac{1}{|Q'|} \int_{Q} |f| \le \frac{\lambda |Q|}{|Q'|} = 2^n \lambda.$$

Otherwise, continue to divide this small cube into 2^n even smaller cubes. This process ends in countable steps.

Ultimately, set

$$b = \sum_{Q \in B} f \chi_Q, \ g = f - b,$$

which satisfy the first two requirements with the help of Lebesgue differentiation theorem. Moreover, for $Q \in B$, we have

$$\int_{Q} |f| > \lambda |Q| \Longrightarrow \left| \bigcup_{Q \in B} Q \right| \le \frac{1}{\lambda} ||f||_{L^{1}}.$$

3.2 Hilbert Transform

If K = K(x - y), we name T as a **convolutional singular integral opera**tor, which usually enjoys better properties. The Hilbert transform is a classic convolutional singular integral operator.

Definition 2 (Hilbert transform). Let $\varphi \in C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$H^{\varepsilon}\varphi(x) = \int_{|x-y|>\varepsilon} \frac{\varphi(y)}{x-y} \,\mathrm{d}y.$$

We define Hilbert transform with the limit

$$H\varphi = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} H^{\varepsilon}\varphi.$$

We must verify that H is well-defined in the beginning. Thanks to the smoothness of φ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} |H\varphi(x)| &= \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \left| \int_{\varepsilon \le |x-y| \le 1} \frac{\varphi(y)}{x-y} \, \mathrm{d}y \right| + \left| \int_{|x-y| > 1} \frac{\varphi(y)}{x-y} \, \mathrm{d}y \right| \\ &\leq \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \int_{\varepsilon \le |x-y| \le 1} \left| \frac{\varphi(x) - \varphi(y)}{x-y} \right| \, \mathrm{d}y + \int_{|x-y| > 1} \left| \frac{\varphi(y)}{x-y} \right| \, \mathrm{d}y \\ &\leq 2 \|\varphi'\|_{L^{\infty}} + \|\varphi\|_{L^{1}}. \end{aligned}$$

As an application of interpolation theorems, we can obtain the boundedness of Hilbert transform. Beforehand, we need two lemmas.

Lemma 1 (The Fourier transform of Hilbert operator). For $f \in L^2$, we have

$$(Hf)^{\wedge}(\xi) = -isgn(\xi)\hat{f}(\xi).$$

The proof is elementary but complicated, so we omit it here. Interested students please search the friendly website.

Lemma 2 (Multiplication formula of Fourier transform). Let $f, g \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$\int \hat{f}g = \int f\hat{g}.$$

Proof. By Fubini's theorem, we have

$$\int \hat{f}(\xi)g(\xi) \,\mathrm{d}\xi = \int \left(\int f(x)e^{-2\pi i x\xi} \,\mathrm{d}x\right)g(\xi) \,\mathrm{d}\xi$$
$$= \int \left(\int g(\xi)e^{-2\pi i x\xi} \,\mathrm{d}\xi\right)f(x) \,\mathrm{d}x$$
$$= \int f(x)\hat{g}(x) \,\mathrm{d}x$$

Lemma 3 (Multiplication formula of Hilbert transform). Let $\varphi, \psi \in C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$\int (Hf)g = -\int f(Hg).$$

Proof. For $\varphi, \psi \in C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$, we have

$$\int (H\varphi)\psi = \int (H\varphi)\hat{\psi} = \int (H\varphi)^{\wedge} \check{\psi}$$
$$= -i\int \operatorname{sgn}(\xi)\hat{\varphi}(\xi)\check{\psi}(\xi)\,\mathrm{d}\xi$$
$$= i\int \operatorname{sgn}(\zeta)\hat{\varphi}(-\zeta)\check{\psi}(-\zeta)\,\mathrm{d}\zeta$$
$$= i\int \operatorname{sgn}(\zeta)\check{\varphi}(\zeta)\hat{\psi}(\zeta)\,\mathrm{d}\zeta$$
$$= -\int \check{\varphi}(H\psi)^{\wedge} = -\int \varphi(H\psi).$$

Now we can present a proof of the boundedness of H.

Theorem 12. Hilbert transform is weak type (1,1) and strong type (p,p) for 1 .

Proof. For $\varphi \in C_c^{\infty}$, the first two lemmas imply

$$||H\varphi||_{L^2} = ||(H\varphi)^{\wedge}||_{L^2} = ||-i\mathrm{sgn}(\xi)\hat{\varphi}(\xi)||_{L^2} = ||\hat{\varphi}||_{L^2} = ||\varphi||_{L^2}.$$

Therefore, the operator $H: L^2 \to L^2$ is an isometry.

Next we shall prove that H is weak type (1, 1). Apply Cardéron-Zygmund decomposition to $f \in L^1$, we obtain a collection of countable binary intervals $B = \{I_j\}$, and

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & x \notin \bigcup_j I_j \\ \frac{1}{|I_j|} \int_{I_j} f, & x \in I_j, \end{cases}$$
$$b(x) = \sum_j b_j(x) = \sum_j \left(f(x) - \frac{1}{|I_j|} \int_{I_j} f \right) \chi_{I_j}.$$

which is slightly different from the original definition. Here $|g| \leq 2\lambda$ almost everywhere.

Therefore, we split f into two parts

$$\left|\left\{|Hf| > \lambda\right\}\right| \le \left|\left\{|Hg| > \frac{\lambda}{2}\right\}\right| + \left|\left\{|Hb| > \frac{\lambda}{2}\right\}\right|,$$

and estimate them separately.

For the first part, Chebbyshev's inequality implies

$$\left|\left\{|Hg| > \frac{\lambda}{2}\right\}\right| \le \frac{4}{\lambda^2} \int |Hg|^2 = \frac{4}{\lambda^2} \int |g|^2 \le \frac{8}{\lambda} \int |g| = \frac{8}{\lambda} \int |f| < +\infty.$$

For the second part, we need more sophisticated estimates. Denote $2I_j$ be the interval homocentric with I_j such that $|2I_j| = 2|I_j|$ and

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{j} 2I_j, \ |\Omega| \le 2 \left| \bigcup_{j} I_j \right|$$

It is obvious that

$$\left|\left\{|Hb| > \frac{\lambda}{2}\right\}\right| \le |\Omega| + \left|\left\{x \notin \Omega \left||Hb(x)| > \frac{\lambda}{2}\right\}\right| \le \frac{2}{\lambda} ||f||_{L^1} + \frac{2}{\lambda} \int_{\Omega^c} |Hb|.$$

Additionally, let c_j be the center of $2I_j$, then

$$\int_{\Omega^c} |Hb| = \int_{\Omega^c} \left| H\left(\sum_j b_j\right) \right| \le \sum_j \int_{\Omega^c} |Hb_j| \le \sum_j \int_{(2I_j)^c} |Hb_j|,$$

and

$$\begin{split} \int_{(2I_j)^c} |Hb_j| &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{(2I_j)^c} \left| \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \int_{|x-y| > \varepsilon} \frac{b_j(y)}{x - y} \, \mathrm{d}y \right| \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{(2I_j)^c} \left| \int_{I_j} \frac{b_j(y)}{x - y} \, \mathrm{d}y \right| \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{(2I_j)^c} \left| \int_{I_j} b_j(y) \left(\frac{1}{x - y} - \frac{1}{x - c_j} \right) \, \mathrm{d}y \right| \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{I_j} \left(\int_{(2I_j)^c} \left| b_j(y) \left(\frac{1}{x - y} - \frac{1}{x - c_j} \right) \right| \, \mathrm{d}x \right) \, \mathrm{d}y \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{I_j} |b_j(y)| \left(\int_{(2I_j)^c} \frac{|y - c_j|}{|x - y||x - c_j|} \, \mathrm{d}x \right) \, \mathrm{d}y \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{I_j} |b_j(y)| \left(\int_{(2I_j)^c} \frac{|I_j|}{|x - c_j|^2} \, \mathrm{d}x \right) \, \mathrm{d}y \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{I_j} |b_j|. \end{split}$$

The last inequality is a corollary of the fact

$$|y - c_j| \le \frac{1}{2} |I_j| \Longrightarrow |x - c_j| \le |y - c_j| + |x - y| \le \frac{1}{2} |I_j| + |x - y| \le 2|x - y|.$$

By the definition of b_j , we have

$$\sum_{j} \int_{(2I_j)^c} |Hb_j| \le \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{j} \int_{I_j} |b_j| \le \frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{j} \int_{I_j} |f| \le \frac{4}{\pi} ||f||_{L^1}.$$

In summary, we finally obtain

$$\lambda|\{|Hf| > \lambda\}| \le \left(10 + \frac{8}{\pi}\right) ||f||_{L^1}.$$

So far, we have shown that H is strong type (2,2) and strong type (1,1). Therefore, Marcinkiewicz interpolation theorem implies H is strong type (p,p) for 1 . When is comes to the case $2 , consider its conjugate index <math>p' \in (1, 2)$. Recall that we can define L^p norm through duality

$$\begin{aligned} \|Hf\|_{L^{p}} &= \sup_{\substack{\varphi \in C_{c}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \\ \|\varphi\|_{p'} \leq 1}} \left| \int (Hf)\varphi \right| \\ &= \sup_{\substack{\varphi \in C_{c}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \\ \|\varphi\|_{p'} \leq 1}} \left| \int f(H\varphi) \right| \\ &\leq \|f\|_{L^{p}} \sup_{\substack{\varphi \in C_{c}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \\ \|\varphi\|_{p'} \leq 1}} \|H\varphi\|_{L^{p}} \\ &\leq C \|f\|_{L^{p}} \sup_{\substack{\varphi \in C_{c}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \\ \|\varphi\|_{p'} \leq 1}} \|\varphi\|_{L^{p}} \\ &= C \|f\|_{L^{p}}. \end{aligned}$$

Remark 13. In fact, f is not strong type (1,1) or (∞,∞) . Direct computation implies

$$H\chi_{[0,1]} = \frac{1}{\pi} \log \left| \frac{x}{x-1} \right|,$$

which belongs to neither L^1 nor L^{∞} .

This theorem implies we can extend the domain of H from $C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ to L^p for $1 as a result of density of <math>C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$.

The proof is so comprehensive that it utilized quite a lot of knowledge instructed in this course, including but not limited to

- 1. definition of strong and weak L^p spaces;
- 2. Chebbyshev's inequality;
- 3. monotonous convergence theorem;
- 4. Fubini's theorem;
- 5. Interpolation theorem;
- 6. Duality of L^p ;
- 7. density of C_c^{∞} ;
- 8. Fourier transform;

9.

3.3 A Couple of General Theories

Due to time limit, we only introduce some important conclusions on boundedness about general singular integral operators, including convolutional and nonconvolutional types.

Definition 3 (Caldéron-Zygmund kernel). A function K(x) defined on $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is a Caldéron-Zygmund kernel if it satisfies

- 1. (size condition) $|K(x)| \leq B|x|^{-n}$;
- 2. (smoothness condition)

$$\int_{|x|\ge 2|y|} |K(x-y) - K(x)| \, \mathrm{d}x \le B;$$

3. (cancellation condition)

$$\int_{a < |x| < b} K(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 0, \ \forall \, 0 < r < s < +\infty.$$

Here B is an absolute constant. Then we define the **convolutional Caldéron-**Zygmund operator

$$Tf(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \int_{|x-y| > \varepsilon} K(x-y)f(y) \,\mathrm{d}y.$$

Some theories of Fourier transform imply that T is weak type (1, 1) and strong type (p, p) for 1), but not necessarily strong type <math>(1, 1) or (∞, ∞) .

The prove is a bit more interesting. We can prove T is strong type (p, p) for every $1 \leq p < +\infty$, and thus interpolation implies T is strong type (q, q) for 1 < q < p. Therefore, given a p_0 , we can always pick a larger $p > p_0$ to achieve strong type (p_0, p_0) .

For the endpoints, we can actually introduce the **Hardy space** and **BMO** space, and figure out $T: H^1 \to L^1$ and $T: L^{\infty} \to BMO$ are bounded.

Definition 4 (Standard kernel). A function K(x, y) defined on

$$(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n) \setminus \{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

is a standard kernel if it satisfies

$$K(x,y) \le \frac{A}{|x-y|^n},$$

$$|K(x_1,y) - K(x_2,y)| \le \frac{A|x_1 - x_2|}{(|x_1 - y| + |x_2 - y|^{n+\delta})},$$

$$|K(x,y_1) - K(x,y_2)| \le \frac{A|y_1 - y_2|}{(|x-y_1| + |x-y_2|^{n+\delta})},$$

for some constants $A > 0, \delta > 0$. Define the operator associated with the kernel K(x, y) by

$$Tf(x) = \int K(x, y)f(y) \,\mathrm{d}y.$$

Such singular integral operators of nonconvolution type enjoy similar boundedness properties as we states previously, but the proof is much more challenging. The boundedness issue is always a popular topic in modern Fourier analysis, and also necessary in plenty of PDE theories.