1 Introduction

1.1 Limit

Let's first show the process of limit by approximating a real number by $\{k/2^m\}$.

Example 1.1. Given $x = \sqrt{2}/2$, we search the nearest dyadic number from m = 1 to ∞ . Notice that we just need consider $1/2^m$ because $2/2^m = 1/2^{m-1}$ is supposed to be added before.

- 1. m = 1, there is 1/2 < x and we denote x 1/2 by x_1 .
- 2. m = 2, $1/4 > x_1$ and we enter next m.
- 3. m = 3, $1/8 < x_1$ and we denote $x_1 1/8$ by x_2 ,
- 4. continue...

Thanks to the countable property of $k/2^m$, we can continue this procedure and have

$$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = 1/2 + 1/8 + \cdots$$

One can view this as decomposition of open interval (0, x) or any interval with length x by shifting for need. More general, we have

Theorem 1.2. Every open set U in \mathbb{R}^n can be written as a countable union of almost disjoint cubes.

Proof. Consider the collection of all cubes in \mathbb{R}^n whose vertices have coordinates of the form $k/2^m$, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Denote these dyadic cubes by

$$A_m = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n, \frac{k_i}{2^m} \le x_i < \frac{k_i + 1}{2^m} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

For fixed m, A_m is countable since it's determined by $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. Therefore $\mathcal{A} := \bigcup_m A_m$ is also countable and we create an enumeration D_1, D_2, \dots .

Last, we show how to select a sub-collection from \mathcal{A} to satisfy $U = \bigcup D_j$. Let U be an open set in \mathbb{R}^n . For each $x \in U$, since U is open, there exists a dyadic cube containing x and fully contained within U.

- 1. We start with an empty collection, and then iterate through the dyadic cubes contained in U
- 2. For each cube, if it is almost disjoint from every cube already in our collection, we add it.

Since \mathcal{A} is countable, the sub-collection we get is also countable.

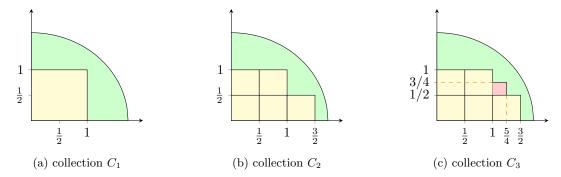


Figure 1: We use dyadic square to approximate the quarter. Note that the sub-collection is not unique since we can choose 4 smaller quads in place of 1-by-1 quad. This process can be viewed as 2D-version of determining series $\{a_n\} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ such that $x = \sum a_n/2^n$ for any real number x.

1.2 Limit of sets

One advantage of Lebesgue measure is to deal with some special set which is a limit of a collection of sets. For example, $(0,1) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ can be viewed as an infinite union of set

$$E_k = \left\{ \frac{m}{k} : \gcd(m, k) = 1, m < k \right\}.$$

More interesting and important sets are

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=i}^{\infty} A_k$$

and

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=i}^{\infty} A_k \tag{1.1}$$

which represents "elements appeared in A_k for infinite k" and "elements appeared in A_k for all but finite k" respectively.

For example, we can reinterpret the set of points where $f_k(x)$ converges to f(x) pointwise into

$$\bigcap_{n=1} \left[\bigcup_{i=1} \bigcap_{k \ge i} \left\{ x : |f_k(x) - f(x)| < \frac{1}{n} \right\} \right]$$
(1.2)

Notice that the boxed part is exactly interpretation of "for all $k \geq K(n, x)$, we have..." when n (or ε) is given. In other words, it's those points that can appear in all but finite $A_{k,n}$, where n can be seen as a additional parameter to eq (??)

And the set whose point is uniform convergent is

$$\bigcap_{n=1} \bigcap_{k \ge K(n)} \left\{ x : |f_k(x) - f(x)| < \frac{1}{n} \right\}.$$
 (1.3)

The essence of Egoroff theorem lies in

$$\lim_{K \to \infty} \mu \left(\bigcup_{k > K} \left\{ x : |f_k(x) - f(x)| \ge \frac{1}{n} \right\} \right) = 0$$
 (1.4)

due to (??) and finite measure of X. In detail, since

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{i>1}\bigcup_{k>i} \left\{ x : |f_k(x) - f(x)| \ge \frac{1}{n} \right\} \right) = 0, \tag{1.5}$$

which implies $\bigcup_{k\geq i} \{x: |f_k(x)-f(x)|\geq \frac{1}{n}\}$ are shrinking to a null set and we can control it to a small size saying $\varepsilon/2^n$ by terminating at $K_{n,\varepsilon}$ -th step.

Remark 1.3. We must have $\mu(X) < \infty$ to deduce eq(??) from (??), i.e. we can apply

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mu(A_i)=\mu(\cap A_i)=0$$

to a descending set A_i only if $\mu(X) < \infty$. For instance,

$$f_k(x) = \chi_{[k,k+1]}$$
 and $f_k \to 0$ pointwisely in \mathbb{R} .

Theorem 1.4. If $\{f_k\}$ converges to f in measure, one can find a subsequence f_{k_j} such that $f_{k_j} \to f$, a.e.

Proof. We give a construction about subsequence by diagonal principle. We aim to prove there exists a subsequence $\{f_{k_i}\}$ satisfying

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty}\bigcup_{j\geq i}\left\{x:\left||f_{k_j}(x)-f(x)|\geq \frac{1}{n}\right|\right\}\right)=0, \ \forall n,$$
(1.6)

Claim: $\{f_{k_j}\}$ satisfying

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{j\geq i}\left\{x: \left||f_{k_j}(x)-f(x)|\geq \frac{1}{i}\right|\right\}\right) = \frac{1}{i}, \ \forall i$$

is eligible for eq(??).

View 1/i as ε , we decompose ε as $\sum \varepsilon/2^j$ and determine $f_{i,k_1}, f_{i,k_2}, \cdots, f_{i,k_n}$ such that

$$\mu\left(\left\{x:|f(x)-f_{i,k_j}(x)|\geq 1/i\right\}\right)\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2^j}.$$
(1.7)

If we use $f_{i,n}$ in place of f_{i,k_n} for simplicity, we can pick the diagonal element as desired subsequence.

Proof of Claim. Note that

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j \ge i} \left\{ x : \left[|f_{k_j}(x) - f(x)| \ge \frac{1}{n} \right] \right\} \subset \bigcap_{i=n}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j \ge i} \left\{ x : \left[|f_{k_j}(x) - f(x)| \ge \frac{1}{n} \right] \right\}$$

$$\subset \bigcap_{i=n}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j \ge i} \left\{ x : \left[|f_{k_j}(x) - f(x)| \ge \frac{1}{i} \right] \right\}$$

and

$$B_i := \bigcup_{j \ge i} \left\{ x : \boxed{|f_{k_j}(x) - f(x)| \ge \frac{1}{i}} \right\}$$

is descending sequence with measure less than 1/i. To ensure the validity of

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i\right) = \lim_{i} \mu(B_i) = \lim_{i} 1/i = 0$$

it suffices to show that $\mu(B_1) < \infty$. Actually, $\mu(B_1) \le 1$ due to our condition (??).