# Real Analysis

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## Contents

3		esgue Measure 3		
	3.1	Introduction		
	3.2	Outer Measure		
	3.3	Measurable Sets and Lebesgue Measure		
	3.5	Measurable Functions		
	3.6	Littlewood's Three Principles		
4	The	Lebesgue Integral		
	4.2	The Lebesgue Integral of a Bounded Function		
	4.3	The Integral of a Nonnegative Function		
	4.4	The General Lebesgue Integral		
5	Diffe	erentiation and Integration 12		
	5.1	Differentiation of Monotone Functions		
	5.2	Functions of Bounded Variation		
	5.4	Absolute Continuity		
	5.5	Convex Functions		
6	The Classical Banach Spaces 20			
	6.1	The $L^p$ Spaces		
	6.2	The Minkowski and Hölder Inequalities		
	6.3	Convergence and Completeness		
	6.4	Approximation in $L^p$		
7	Met	ric Spaces 24		
	7.7	Compact Metric Space		
	7.8	Baire Category		
	7.10	The Ascoli-Arzelá Theorem		
8	Top	ological Spaces 27		
	8.1	Fundamental Notions		
11	Mea	sure and Integration 28		
		Measure Spaces		
		Measurable Functions		
		Integration		
	11.4	General Convergence Theorems		
		Signed Measures		

	11.6 The Radon-Nikodym Theorem	35
	11.7 The $L^p$ Spaces	38
12	2 Measure and Outer Measure	40
	12.1 Outer Measure and Measurability	40
	12.2 The Extension Theorem	40

## 3 Lebesgue Measure

## 3.1 Introduction

1.

*Proof.* Since  $\mathfrak{M}$  is an  $\sigma$ -algebra,  $B \setminus A \in \mathfrak{M}$  as long as  $A, B \in \mathfrak{M}$ . Since  $B \setminus A$  and A are disjoint,  $mB = mA + m(B \setminus A) \ge mA$  since m is nonnegative.  $\square$ 

2.

*Proof.* Let  $A_0 = E_0$  and  $E_k = A_k \setminus A_{k-1}$  for  $k \ge 1$ . Clear that  $E_i$  and  $E_j$  are disjoint for distinct i and j,  $\bigcup A_n = \bigcup E_n$  and  $A_i \subset E_i$  for every i. Hence,

$$m\left(\bigcup E_n\right) = m\left(\bigcup A_n\right) = \sum mA_n \le \sum mE_n,$$

where the last inequality comes from Exercise 1.

3.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $mA < \infty$ . Then  $mA = m(A \cup \emptyset) = mA + m\emptyset$ , implying that  $m\emptyset = 0$ .

## 3.2 Outer Measure

**5**.

*Proof.* We show that  $\{I_n\}$  must cover the entire [0,1] by contradiction. Assume that  $x \notin I_k$  for k = 1, 2, ..., n. Then, as  $I_k$  are open and n is finite, there exists some  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon)$  and  $I_k$  are disjoint for every k. Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , there exists some rational number in  $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon)$ , contradicting with the hypothesis that  $\{I_k\}$  covers all rational numbers between 0 and 1.

6.

*Proof.* By the definition of the outer measure, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some collection  $\{I_n\}$  of open intervals that covers A and  $\sum l(I_n) \leq m^*A + \varepsilon$ . Let  $O = \bigcup I_n$ . O is a countable union of open sets and therefore is also open. And by Proposition 2,  $m^*O \leq \sum l(I_n)$ . Thus,  $m^*O \leq m^*A + \varepsilon$ .

Let  $\varepsilon_n = 1/n$  and for each n, by the previous discussion, we can always get an open set  $O_k$  such that  $A \subset O_k$  and  $m^*O \leq m^*A + \varepsilon_m$ . Let G be the countable intersection of these open sets. Clear that G is a  $G_\delta$  set covering A and  $m^*A = m^*G$ .

7.

*Proof.* If  $m^*E = \infty$ , it is trivial. Suppose that  $m^*E \leq \infty$ . For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , collection  $\{I_n\}$  of open intervals covers E + x iff  $\{I_n - x\}$  covers E. Since the length of intervals is translation invariant, this implies  $m^*(E + x) = m^*E$ .

8.

Proof. Clear that  $m^*A \leq m^*(A \cup B)$ . Meanwhile,  $m^*(A \cup B) = m^*A + m^*B = m^*B$ . Hence,  $m^*(A \cup B) = m^*B$ .

## 3.3 Measurable Sets and Lebesgue Measure

10.

Proof.

$$mE_1 + mE_2 = mE_1 + m(E_2 \setminus E_1) + m(E_1 \cap E_2)$$
  
=  $m(E_1 \cup (E_2 \setminus E_1)) + m(E_1 \cap E_2)$   
=  $m(E_1 \cup E_2) + m(E_1 \cap E_2)$ .

11.

Proof. 
$$E_n = (n, \infty)$$
.

12. This is the countable version of Lemma 9.

*Proof.* It suffices to prove  $m^*(A \cap \bigcup E_i) \ge \sum m^*(A \cap E_i)$ . Since  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i \supset \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i$  for every n,

$$m^*\left(A\cap\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty E_i\right)\geq m^*\left(A\cap\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right)=\sum_{i=1}^n m^*(A\cap E_i),$$

where the equality comes from Lemma 9. Since the left hand side is independent of n, we have

$$m^*\left(A\cap\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty}E_i\right)\geq\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}m^*(A\cap E_i),$$

completing the proof.

13.

*Proof.* First we suppose that  $m^*E < \infty$ . By Proposition 5, there exists some open set  $O \supset E$  such that  $m^*O \le m^*E + \varepsilon$ . If E is measurable, then by the definition,

$$m^*(O \setminus E) = m^*O - m^*E \le \varepsilon.$$

Namely, (ii) holds. Meanwhile,  $O \subset \mathbb{R}$  is a countable union of disjoint open intervals  $\{I_n\}$ . Since  $mO = m^*O$  is bounded and  $mO = \sum l(I_n)$ , there exists some integer N > 0 such that  $mO - \sum_{n=1}^{N} l(I_n) < \varepsilon$ . Let  $U = \bigcup_{n=1}^{N} I_n$ .

$$m^*(U \triangle E) = m^*((U \cup E) \setminus (U \cap E))$$

$$\leq m^*(O \setminus (U \cap E))$$

$$= m^*((O \setminus U) \cup (O \setminus E))$$

$$\leq m^*(O \setminus U) + m^*(O \setminus E)$$

$$< 2\varepsilon.$$

Hence, (ii) implies (vi). Now we show that (vi) implies (ii). If  $m^*(U \triangle E) < \varepsilon$ , then there exists some countable collection  $\{J_n\}$  of open interval such that

$$\sum l(J_n) \le m^*(U \triangle E) + \varepsilon < 2\varepsilon.$$

Let  $J = \bigcup J_n$  and  $O = U \cup J$ .  $m^*J < 2\varepsilon$ . And O is open and covers E. Meanwhile,

$$m^*(O \setminus E) \le m^*(U \setminus E) + m^*(J \setminus E) < 3\varepsilon.$$

Hence, (ii) holds.

Now, let E be an arbitrary set and  $E_n = E \cap (-n, n)$ , which is a set with finite measure. Then by the previous discussion, there exists some open set  $O_n \supset E_n$  with  $m^*(O_n \setminus E_n) < \varepsilon/2^n$ . Let  $O = \bigcup O_n$ , an open set covering E and

$$m^*(O \setminus E) \le \sum m^*(O_n \setminus E_n) < 2\varepsilon.$$

Hence, (i) implies (ii). Now we suppose (ii) holds and let  $\varepsilon_n = 1/n$ , then there exists a sequence of open sets  $\langle O_n \rangle$  such that  $m^*(O_n \setminus E) \langle 1/n$ . Let  $G = \bigcap O_n \in G_\delta$ .  $m^*(G \setminus E) \leq m^*(O_n \setminus E) \leq 1/n$ . Since the left hand side is independent of n,  $m^*(G \setminus E) = 0$ . If (iv) holds, then by Lemma 6,  $G \setminus E$  is measurable. Since  $G \in G_\delta$  is also measurable, E is measurable. Hence, (iv) implies (i).

By the previous result, for any measurable E, there exists some closed set  $F \subset E$  such that  $\bar{F}$ , which is open, contains barE and  $m^*(\bar{F} \setminus \bar{E}) < \varepsilon$ . Hence,  $m^*(E \setminus F) < \varepsilon$ . We can proceed in a similar manner as we did in the last paragraph to prove that (iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (v)  $\Rightarrow$  (i), leading to the final conclusion.

## 3.5 Measurable Functions

#### 19.

*Proof.* For every  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ , since D is measurable, there exists a sequence of  $\alpha_n \in D \cap (\beta - 1/n, \beta)$ . As

$$\{x: f(x) > r\}$$
  $\Leftrightarrow$   $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{x: f(x) > r - 1/n\}$   $\Leftrightarrow$   $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{x: f(x) > \alpha_n\}$ 

and  $\{x: f(x) > \alpha_n\}$  are measurable, so is  $\{x: f(x) > r\}$ . Hence, f is measurable.  $\square$ 

## 21.

Proof.

- (a) It follows immediately from  $\{x: f(x) > \alpha\} = \{x \in D: f(x) > \alpha\} \cup \{x \in E: f(x) > \alpha\}.$
- (b) For  $\alpha \geq 0$ , the sets  $\{x: f(x) > \alpha\}$  and  $\{x: g(x) > \alpha\}$  are the same. And for  $\alpha < 0$ ,

$$\{x:\, f(x)>\alpha\}=\{x:\, g(x)>\alpha\}\setminus \bar{D}\quad \text{and}\quad \{x:\, g(x)>\alpha\}=\{x:\, f(x)>\alpha\}\cup \bar{D}.$$

Hence, f is measurable iff g is measurable.

### 22.(d)

*Proof.* Since f and g are finite almost everywhere, the set A consisting of points where f+g is of the form  $\infty-\infty$  or  $-\infty+\infty$  is of measure zero (and hence measurable). Therefore no matter how it is defined,  $\{x \in A : f+g > \alpha\}$  is measurable for every  $\alpha$ . Namely, the restriction of f+g to A is measurable. Meanwhile, clear that the restriction to  $D \setminus A$  is measurable where D is the domain of f. Hence, by Exercise 21, f is measurable.

Proof.

- (a) Let  $A_n = \{x : |f(x)| > n\}$ , a sequence of measurable sets. As  $A_{n+1} \subset A_n$ ,  $mA_{n+1} \leq mA_n$ . Since  $A = \bigcap A_n = \{x : |f(x)| = \infty\}$ ,  $mA_1 \leq m[a,b]$  is finite and mA = 0, by Proposition 14, there exists some N such that for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $mA_n < \varepsilon/3$ . Set M = N to complete the proof.
- (b) We consider the restriction of f on to the set  $E = [a, b] \setminus \{x : |f(x)| \ge M\}$ , which is also a measurable real-valued function. To keep our notation simple, we denote the restriction by f still. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some integer N with  $0 < 2M/N < \varepsilon$ . Let  $E_n = \{x : x \in [-M + (n-1)\varepsilon, -M + n\varepsilon]\}$  (n = 1, 2, ..., N) and define

$$\varphi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i) \chi_{E_i},$$

where  $x_n \in E_n$  is arbitrary. Clear that  $\varphi$  is a simple function and satisfy all the requirements.

(c) Suppose that  $\varphi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \chi_{E_i}$ . For each i = 1, ..., N,  $E_i$  is measurable and therefore by Proposition 15, there exists a finite union  $U_i$  of open intervals such that  $m(U_i \triangle E_i) < \varepsilon$ . Let

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \chi_{U_i}.$$

Clear that g and  $\varphi$  only may differ on a set with measure  $N\varepsilon$ . (d) Suppose that  $g(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \chi_{U_i}$  is a step function. We may assume without loss of generality that  $U_i$  are disjoint and  $\bigcup U_i = [a, b]$ . And suppose that  $\{x_0 = a < x_1 < \dots < x_N = b\}$  are the endpoints of the intervals. For each  $i = 1, \dots, N-1$ , define

$$f(x) = (x - x_i + \varepsilon)q(x_i - \varepsilon) + (x_i + \varepsilon - x)q(x_i + \varepsilon), \quad x \in (x_i - \varepsilon, x_i + \varepsilon),$$

and f(x) = g(x) for the other points. (We assume that  $\varepsilon$  is small enough so that f is well-defined.) Clear that f is continuous and equals g except on a set of measure less then  $2N\varepsilon$ .

## 24.

*Proof.* For measurable f, we show that  $\mathcal{A} = \{E : f^{-1}[E] \text{ is measurable}\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra first. As the domain, denoted by D, of a measurable function is measurable,  $\mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $E \in \mathcal{A}$ , then since  $f^{-1}[\bar{E}] = D \cap \overline{f^{-1}[E]}$ ,  $f^{-1}[\bar{E}]$  is also measurable and therefore  $\bar{E} \in \mathcal{A}$ . Suppose that  $\langle E_n \rangle$  is a sequence of sets of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then, as

$$f^{-1}\left[\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}[E_n],$$

 $\bigcup E_n \in \mathcal{A}$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

By the definition of a measurable function, every open interval belongs to  $\mathcal{A}$ . Since the collection of all Borel sets  $\mathcal{B}$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by all open intervals,  $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{A}$ . Namely,  $f^{-1}[B]$  is measurable as long as  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ .

## 3.6 Littlewood's Three Principles

#### 30.

Proof. Let  $\varepsilon_n = 1/n$  and  $\delta_n = \eta/2^n$  (n = 0, 1, ...). By Proposition 24, for each n, there exists some  $A_n$  with measure less than  $\delta_n$  such that for all  $x \in E_n \setminus A_n$ ,  $|f_m(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon_n$  for m large enough. Let  $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ , the measure of which is less than  $\sum \eta/2^n = \delta$ . Meanwhile, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , by construction, for all  $x \in E \setminus A$ ,  $|f_m(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$  for m large enough. Namely,  $f_n$  converges to f uniformly on  $E \setminus A$ .

### 31.

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon_n = \delta/2^n$   $(n \ge 0)$ , then by Proposition 22, there exists continuous  $g_n$  such that  $E_n = \{x : |f(x) - g_n(x)| \ge \varepsilon_n\}$  is of measure less than  $\varepsilon_n$ . Let  $E = \bigcup E_n$ , the measure of which is less than  $\delta$  and  $g_n$  converges to f on  $[a, b] \setminus E$ .

By Egoroff's Theorem, there exists some  $A \subset [a,b] \setminus E$  with  $mA < \delta$  such that  $g_n$  converges to f uniformly on  $[a,b] \setminus (E \cup A)$ . Since  $E \cup A$  is measurable, by Proposition 15, there exists some open set  $O \supset E \cup A$  such that  $m(O \setminus (E \cup A)) < \delta$ . Let  $F = [a,b] \setminus O$ . We know that

- 1. F is a closed set.
- 2.  $mF < 3\delta$ .
- 3.  $g_n$  converges to f uniformly on F.

Hence, f is continuous on F And by Problem 2.40, there exists some continuous function on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\varphi(x) = f(x)$  for  $x \in F$ .

If f is defined on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , we can apply the previous result on each [n, n+1] and "stick" the functions together as we did in Problem 23(c) to get the function required.

## 4 The Lebesgue Integral

## 4.2 The Lebesgue Integral of a Bounded Function

2.

Proof.

(a) By Problem 2.51, h is upper semicontinuous as f is bounded and by Problem 2.50,  $x:h(x)<\lambda$  is open and hence measurable for every  $\lambda\in\mathbb{R}$ . Thus, h is measurable.

Let  $\varphi(x) \geq f(x)$  be a step function and  $x_0$  any point other than the endpoints of the intervals occurring in  $\varphi$ . Then there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ ,  $\varphi(x_0) = \varphi(x) \geq f(x)$ . Hence,

$$h(x_0) = \inf_{\delta < 0} \sup_{|x - x_0| < \delta} f(x) \le \varphi(x_0).$$

Namely,  $\varphi \geq h$  except at a finite number of points. Hence,  $\int_a^b \varphi \geq \int_a^b h$  and therefore

$$R \int_{a}^{\overline{b}} f = \inf_{\varphi \ge f} \int_{a}^{b} \varphi(x) dx \ge \int_{a}^{b} h.$$

We can also derive from the previous discussion that there is a sequence of  $\langle \varphi_n \rangle$  of step functions satisfying  $\varphi \downarrow h$ . By Proposition 6,

$$\int_{a}^{b} h = \lim \int_{a}^{b} \varphi_{n} \ge R \int_{a}^{\overline{b}} f.$$

Hence,  $R \bar{\int}_a^b f = \int_a^b h$ .

(b) First suppose that f is Riemann integrable and let h and g be the upper and lower envelope of f respectively. By part (a), f is Riemann integrable implies  $\int_a^b (h-g) = 0$ . Together with the fact that  $h \geq g$ , we conclude that h = g a.e.. Therefore, by Problem 2.50, f is continuous except on a set of measure zero.

Note that the argument remains true if we reverse the order, verifying the converse part. Hence, the proposition holds.  $\Box$ 

## 4.3 The Integral of a Nonnegative Function

3.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $E_n = \{x : f(x) > 1/n\}$ . Then,

$$0 = \int f \ge \int_{E} f \ge \frac{mE_n}{n}$$

implies  $mE_n=0$ . Hence,  $m\{x: f(x)>0\}=m(\bigcup E_n)\leq \sum mE_n=0$ . Namely, f=0 a.e.

*Proof.* For any fixed  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , let  $f_n(x) = f \cdot \chi_{(-\infty,x_0-1/n]}$ , which is a increasing sequence of nonnegative measurable function whose limit is  $f \cdot \chi_{-\infty,x_0}$ . Then by Theorem 10,

$$F(x_0) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} f = \int f \cdot \chi_{-\infty, x_0} = \lim \int f \cdot \chi_{(-\infty, x_0 - 1/n)} = \lim F(x_0 - 1/n).$$

Meanwhile, since

$$|F(x_0) - F(x_0 + 1/n)| = \left| \int_{x_0}^{x_0 + 1/n} f(x) dx \right| = \left| \int_{-1/n}^0 g(x) dx \right|,$$

where  $g(x) = f(x_0 - x)$ , arguing on g in a similar manner yields  $F(x_0) = \lim F(x_0 + 1/n)$ . Thus, F is continuous.

#### 6.

*Proof.* By Theorem 9,  $\int f \leq \underline{\lim} \int f_n$ . Meanwhile,  $f_n \leq f$  implies  $\int f_n \leq \int f$  and therefore  $\overline{\lim} \int f_n \leq \int f$ . Hence,  $\int f = \lim \int f_n$ .

## 7.

Solution.

- (a) Let  $f_n(x) = n \cdot \chi_{[0,1/n]}$ .  $f_n$  converges to f = 0 except on x = 0. For each n,  $\int f_n = 1$  but  $\int f = 0$ . Hence, the inequality could be strict.
- (b) Let  $f_n(x) = \chi_{[n,\infty)}$ . Then  $\langle f_n \rangle$  is a decreasing sequence which converges to f = 0, the integral of which is 0. However, for every  $n, \int f_n = \infty$ .

## 8.

*Proof.* Let  $g_n = \inf\{f_n, f_{n+1}, \dots\}$ . Clear that

$$\int g_n \le \int f_n. \tag{1}$$

Meanwhile  $\langle g_n \rangle$  is a increasing sequence converging to  $\underline{\lim} f_n$ . Hence, by the Monotone Convergence Theorem and (1)

$$\int \underline{\lim} f_n = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} g_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int g_n \le \underline{\lim} \int f_n.$$

## 9.

*Proof.* By Fatou's Lemma,

$$\int_{E} f \le \underline{\lim} \int_{E} f_{n}.$$
 (2)

Similarly,  $\int_{\bar{E}} f \leq \underline{\lim} \int_{\bar{E}} f_n$  and therefore

$$\int_{E} f_{n} = \int f_{n} - \int_{\bar{E}} f_{n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \overline{\lim} \int_{E} f_{n} \leq \int f - \int_{\bar{E}} f = \int_{\bar{E}} f.$$

(2) and the inequality above together implies  $\int_E f_n \to \int f$ .

## 4.4 The General Lebesgue Integral

#### 12.

*Proof.* Note that  $\langle g + f_n \rangle$  is a sequence of nonnegative measurable functions. Hence by Problem 8,

$$\int_{E} \underline{\lim}(g + f_n) \le \underline{\lim} \int_{E} (g + f_n) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \int_{E} \underline{\lim} f_n \le \underline{\lim} \int_{E} f_n.$$

The second inequality follows immediately from the definition of lower and upper limit. Replacing  $g + f_n$  with  $g - f_n$  and arguing in a similar manner gives the last inequality.  $\square$ 

## 13.

*Proof.*  $f_n \ge -h$  implies  $f_n + h \ge 0$ . Hence,  $\int (f_n + h)$  always has a meaning. And since g is integrable,  $\int f_n = \int (f_n + h) - \int h$  also has a meaning. Similarly,  $\int f$  has a meaning. Meanwhile,

$$\int f = \int (f+h) - \int h \le \underline{\lim} \int (f_n + h) - \int h = \underline{\lim} \int f_n.$$

#### 15.

Proof.

(a) By Problem 4, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some simple functions  $\varphi_1 \leq f^+$  and  $\varphi_2 \leq f^-$  such that

$$\int_{E} f^{+} - \int_{E} \varphi_{1} < \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{E} f^{-} - \int_{E} \varphi_{2} < \varepsilon.$$

Let  $\varphi = \varphi_1 - \varphi_2$ , which is also a simple function. Meanwhile,

$$\int_{E} |f - \varphi| \le \int_{E} (f^{+} - \varphi_{1}) + \int_{E} (f^{-} - \varphi_{2}) < 2\varepsilon.$$

#### 16.

*Proof.* For every integrable f, by Problem 15, there exists some step function  $\psi = \sum_{k=1}^{N} c_k \chi_{E_k}$  such that  $\int |f - \psi| < \varepsilon$ . Note that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(x) \cos nx dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{N} c_k \int_{E_k} \cos nx dx = 0.$$
 (3)

Hence,

$$\left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \cos nx dx \right| = \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (f(x) - \psi(x) + \psi(x)) \cos nx dx \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x) - \psi(x)| |\cos nx| dx + \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(x) \cos nx dx \right|$$

$$\leq \varepsilon + \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(x) \cos nx dx \right|$$

$$\to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\langle t_n \rangle$  be any sequence with  $t_n \neq 0$  and tending to 0. Then  $\langle f(x, t_n) \rangle$  is sequence of functions satisfying the hypotheses of Lebesgue Convergence Theorem. Meanwhile,  $f(x, t_n) \to f$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Hence,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f(x, t_n) dx = \int f(x) dx.$$

Since the choice of  $\langle t_n \rangle$  is arbitrary, by Problem 2.49f,

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \int f(x,t) dx = \int f(x) dx.$$

If f is continuous in t for each x, then  $\lim_{\Delta t\to 0} f(x,t+\Delta t) = f(x,t)$  holds for every t. Therefore, replacing t with  $\Delta t$  in the previous result yields

$$\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \int f(x, t + \Delta t) dx = \int f(x, t) dx.$$

Namely, h(t) is continuous.

## 5 Differentiation and Integration

## 5.1 Differentiation of Monotone Functions

3. "maximum" needs to be changed to "minimum" in both (a) and (b).

Proof.

(a) We may assume without loss of generality that c=0. Since f attains a local minimum at x=0,  $f(h) \geq f(0)$  for every h sufficiently small. Hence, for every small h>0, (f(c+h)-f(c))/h>0 and therefore  $D_+f(c)\geq 0$ . Meanwhile, by Problem 2.b,

$$-D_{-}f(0) = D^{+}f(0) \ge 0 \implies D_{-}f(0) \le 0.$$

The other two inequalities follow immediately from the definitions of upper and lower limits.

(b) If f has a local minimum at a or b, then we only have the right or left half of the inequalities.

#### 4.

*Proof.* We first show this for g with  $D^+g \ge \varepsilon > 0$ . For every  $a \le x < y \le b$ , as g is continuous on [a,b], g has a maximum in [a,b] and by Problem 2 and 3, g can not attain the maximum in [a,b). Namely, the restrict of f to [x,y] attains the maximum at g. Hence,  $g(x) \le g(y)$ .

For every f with nonnegative  $D^+$ , let  $g(x) = f(x) + \varepsilon x$  where  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then  $D^+g \ge \varepsilon > 0$ . Hence g is nondecreasing. Therefore, for every  $a \le x < y \le b$ ,

$$g(x) \le g(y) \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x) + \varepsilon x \le f(y) + \varepsilon y.$$

Since the choice of  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, this implies  $f(x) \leq f(y)$ .

#### 5.a

Proof.

$$\sup_{t \in (0,h)} \frac{(f+g)(x+t) - (f+g)(x)}{t} = \sup_{t \in (0,h)} \left( \frac{f(x+t) - f(x)}{t} + \frac{g(x+t) - g(x)}{t} \right)$$
$$\leq \sup_{t \in (0,h)} \frac{f(x+t) - f(x)}{t} + \sup_{t \in (0,h)} \frac{g(x+t) - g(x)}{t}.$$

Letting  $h \to 0$  yields  $D^+(f+g) \le D^+f + D^+g$ .

## 5.2 Functions of Bounded Variation

## 7.

Proof.

(a) It suffices to show this for monotone functions as each function of bounded variation is the difference of two monotone functions. Suppose that f is nondecreasing. Then the set  $E = \{f(x) : x > c\}$  is bounded below and hence  $A = \inf E$  is finite. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some y > c such that  $A \le f(c) < A + \varepsilon$ . Hence, as f is nondecreasing,

for every  $x \in (c, y)$ ,  $|f(x) - A| < \varepsilon$ . Namely,  $\lim_{x \to c^+} f(x) = A$ . Similarly,  $\lim_{x \to c^-} f(x)$  exists.

Let  $D_n = \{x : |f(x+) - f(x-)| > 1/n\}$ . Since f is nondecreasing,  $|f(x) - f(y)| \le f(b) - f(a) < \infty$  for every  $x, y \in [a, b]$ . Hence,  $D_n$  is finite, otherwise we can choose a sequence  $x_1 < \cdots < x_N$  with N > (f(b) - f(a))/n such that  $f(X_N) - f(x_1) > f(b) - f(a)$ . Therefore,  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ , the set of discontinuities, is countable.

(b) Suppose  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n, \ldots\} = \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$  and define  $f(x) = \sum_{x_n < x} 2^{-n}$ . Clear that f is monotone and continuous at every irrational point. For each rational  $x = x_k$ ,  $f(x+) - f(x-) = 2^{-n}$ . Hence, f is discontinuous at each rational point.

### 8.

Proof.

(a) For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some subdivision  $a = x_0 < \cdots < x_p = c$  and  $c = x_p < \cdots < x_q = b$  of [a, c] and [c, b] such that  $T_a^c < t_a^c + \varepsilon$  and  $T_c^b < t_c^b + \varepsilon$ . Hence,  $T_a^c + T_c^b - 2\varepsilon < t_a^c + t_c^b$ . Meanwhile, as  $a = x_0 < \cdots < x_q = b$  forms a subdivision of [a, b],  $T_a^b \ge t_a^b = t_a^c + t_c^b$ . Therefore,  $T_a^c + T_c^b - 2\varepsilon < T_a^b$ . Since the choice of  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $T_a^b + T_c^b \le T_a^b$ .

To show that  $T_a^b + T_c^b \ge T_a^b$ , let  $a = x_0 < \cdots < x_q = b$  be any subdivision of [a, b] and by adding c into it, we get subdivisions of [a, c] and [c, b]. Suppose that  $c \in (x_k, x_{k+1}]$ , then

$$|f(x_k) - f(c)| + |f(c) - f(x_{k+1})| + t_a^b = t_a^c + t_c^b + |f(x_k) - f(x_{k+1})|,$$

which implies  $t_a^b \leq t_a^c + t_c^b$ . Hence,

$$T_a^b = \sup t_a^b \le \sup (t_a^c + t_c^b) \le T_a^c + T_c^b.$$

Thus,  $T_a^b = T_a^c + T_c^b$  and therefore  $T_a^c \leq T_a^b$ . (b)

$$T_a^b(f+g) = \sup \sum_{i=1}^k |f(x_i) + g(x_i) - f(x_{i-1}) - g(x_{i-1})|$$

$$\leq \sup \sum_{i=1}^k |f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})| + \sup \sum_{i=1}^k |g(x_i) - g(x_{i-1})|$$

$$\leq T_a^b(f) + T_a^b(g).$$

$$T_a^b(cf) = \sup \sum_{i=1}^k |cf(x_i - cf(x_{i-1}))| = |c| \sup \sum_{i=1}^k |f(x_i - f(x_{i-1}))| = |c| T_a^b(f).$$

9.

*Proof.* For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a subdivision  $a = x_0 < \cdots < x_k = b$  such that  $t_a^b(f) \geq T_a^b(f) - \varepsilon$ . Meanwhile, as  $f_n$  converges to f pointwisely

$$t_a^b(f) = t_a^b(\lim f_n)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k |(\lim f_n)(x_i) - (\lim f_n)(x_{i-1})|$$

$$= \lim \sum_{i=1}^k |f_n(x_i) - f_n(x_{i-1})|$$

$$\leq \underline{\lim} \sup \sum_{i=1}^k |f_n(x_i) - f_n(x_{i-1})| = \underline{\lim} T_a^b(f_n).$$

Hence,  $T_a^b(f) - \varepsilon \leq \underline{\lim} T_a^b(f_n)$ . Since the choice of  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $T_a^b(f) \leq \underline{\lim} T_a^b(f_n)$ .

### 10.a

Solution. No. Let  $x_k = (k\pi + \pi/2)^{-1/2}$ , k = 0, 1, ... and consider the subdivision  $-1 < 0 < x_n < \cdots < x_0 < 1$ . Then

$$t_n \ge \sum_{k=1}^n |f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})| \ge \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2}{(k+1/2)\pi}.$$

 $t_n \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$  and therefore f is not of bounded variation on [-1,1].

## 11.

*Proof.* By Lemma 4,  $f(x) = f(a) + P_a^x - N_a^x$ . Since  $P_a^x$  and  $N_a^x$  are monotone, by Theorem 3, they are differentiable almost everywhere as f, a function of bounded variation, does. Hence, for almost every  $x \in [a, b]$ ,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}f(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}P_a^x - \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}N_a^x \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f'(x)| \le \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}P_a^x + \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}N_a^x = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}T_a^x.$$

Integrating on the both sides yields  $\int_a^b |f'| \le T_a^b(f)$ .

## 5.4 Absolute Continuity

#### 12.

Solution. The continuous extension of  $x^2 \sin(1/x^2)$  to [0,1] is absolutely continuous for all  $[\varepsilon,1]$  but is not of bounded variation on [0,1] and therefore is not absolutely continuous on [0,1].

Suppose that f is also of bounded variation on [0,1]. Then f is differentiable almost everywhere. Hence  $g(x) = \int_0^x f'(t) dt + f(a)$  is well-defined. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have

$$g(x) = \int_0^{\varepsilon} f'(t)dt + \int_{\varepsilon}^x f'(t)dt + f(0) = \int_0^{\varepsilon} f'(t)dt + f(x) - f(\varepsilon) + f(0),$$

where the second equality comes from the absolute continuity on  $[\varepsilon, 1]$ . By the continuity of f at x = 0,  $f(\varepsilon) \to f(0)$ . Hence, letting  $\varepsilon \to 0$  yields g(x) = f(x). Namely, f is an indefinite integral. Thus, by Theorem 14, it is absolutely continuous.

*Proof.* Since absolute continuity implies bounded variation,  $\int_a^b |f'| \leq T_a^b(f)$  by Problem 11. By the definition of T, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some subdivision  $a = x_0 < \cdots < \infty$  $x_n = b$  such that  $t_a^b(f) > T_a^b(f) - \varepsilon$ . Meanwhile, for every  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ ,

$$\int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} |f'| \ge \left| \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f' \right| = |f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})|,$$

where the second equality is guaranteed by the absolute continuity. Hence,  $\int_a^b |f'| >$  $T_a^b(f) - \varepsilon$  for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Thus,  $T_a^b(f) = \int_a^b |f'|$ . By Lemma 4,  $2P_a^b(f) = T_a^b(f) + f(b) - f(a)$ . Hence,

$$P_a^b(f) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_a^b |f'| + f(b) - f(a) \right) = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b (|f'| + f') = \int_a^b [f']^+.$$

#### 14.

Proof.

(a) Suppose that f and g are absolutely continuous. Then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that for all finite nonoverlapping  $\langle (x_n, y_n) \rangle$  with  $|x_n - y_n| < \varepsilon$ ,

$$\sum |f(x_n) + g(x_n) - f(y_n) - g(y_n)| \le \sum |f(x_n) - f(y_n)| + |g(x_n) - g(y_n)| \le 2\varepsilon.$$

Hence, f + g is also absolutely continuous. Since -g is absolutely continuous as long as g is, so is f - g.

(b) Suppose that f and g are absolutely continuous. Then they are bounded, by Mfor example. Hence for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that for all finite nonoverlapping  $\langle (x_n, y_n) \rangle$  with  $|x_n - y_n| < \varepsilon$ ,

$$\sum_{n} |f(x_n)g(x_n) - f(y_n)g(y_n)|$$

$$= \sum_{n} |f(x_n)g(x_n) - f(x_n)g(y_n) + f(x_n)g(y_n) - f(y_n)g(y_n)|$$

$$\leq \sum_{n} \{|f(x_n)||g(x_n) - g(y_n)| + |f(x_n) - f(y_n)||g(y_n)|\}$$

$$\leq M\varepsilon.$$

Thus, fg is also absolutely continuous.

(c) Since f is continuous on [a, b], f can achieve its minimum in [a, b]. Hence,  $|f(x)| \ge$ m>0 as f is never zero. Therefore for every  $\varepsilon>0$ , there exists some  $\delta>0$  such that for all finite nonoverlapping  $\langle (x_n, y_n) \rangle$  with  $|x_n - y_n| < \varepsilon$ ,

$$\left| \sum \left| \frac{1}{f(x_n)} - \frac{1}{f(y_n)} \right| = \sum \left| \frac{f(x_n) - f(y_n)}{f(x_n) f(y_n)} \right| \le \frac{1}{m^2} \sum |f(x_n) - f(y_n)| \le \frac{\varepsilon}{m^2}.$$

- 17. Part (a) is wrong. It can be fixed if we further require g to be monotone increasing. *Proof.*
- (a) For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta_1$  be the number in the definition of F corresponding to  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta_2$  the number in the definition of g corresponding to  $\delta_1$ . Then for every finite nonoverlapping  $\langle (x_n, y_n) \rangle$  with  $|x_n y_n| < \delta_2$ ,  $\sum |g(x_n) g(y_n)| < \delta_1$ . Since g is monotone increasing,  $(g(x_n), g(y_n))$  are nonoverlapping. Therefore,  $\sum |F(g(x_n)) F(g(y_n))| < \varepsilon$ . Hence,  $F \circ g$  is absolutely continuous.

Proof. Without loss of generality, we assume that g is nondecreasing. Since mE = 0, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , by Proposition 3.15, there exists an open set  $O \supset E$  with  $mO < \varepsilon$ . Meanwhile, there exists a sequence of disjoint open intervals  $\langle I_n = (a_n, b_n) \rangle$  such that  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = O$  and  $l(I_n) < \delta$  where  $\delta$  is the number in the definition of absolute continuity. Then  $g[E] \subset \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} g[I_n \cap [0,1]]$ . Since g is continuous, the image of an interval is still an interval and since g is also nondecreasing,  $g[I_n \cap [0,1]] = (g(a'_n), g(b'_n))$ , where  $a'_n = \max\{a_n, 0\}$  and  $b'_n = \min\{b_n, 1\}$ . Finally,

$$m(g[E]) \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} m(g[I_n]) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |g(b'_n) - g(a'_n)| \le \varepsilon,$$

where the last inequality comes from the absolute continuity of g. Since the choice of  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, m(g[E]) = 0.

### 20.

Proof.

(a) For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta = \varepsilon/M$ . Then for every  $\langle x_n \rangle_{i=1}^n$  and  $\langle y_n \rangle_{i=1}^n$  with  $|x_n - y_n| \le \delta$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |f(x_n) - f(y_n)| \le M \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_n - y_n| \le \varepsilon,$$

as f satisfies the Lipschitz condition.

(b) Suppose that f is absolute continuous and |f'| is bounded by M. Then for every x and y in the interval,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = \left| \int_x^y f'(t) dt \right| \le M|x - y|.$$

Hence, f satisfies the Lipschitz condition. The converse part has been proved in (a).

(c) It is wrong. A counterexample is 
$$f(x) = \chi_{[0,1]}, x \in (-1,1)$$

## 21.

Proof.

(a) Suppose that  $O = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (c_n, d_n)$  where  $(c_n, d_n)$  are disjoint. Since g is continuous and increasing,  $g^{-1}(c_n, d_n)$  is still an open interval, denoting it by  $(a_n, b_n)$ , and  $(a_n, b_n)$  are also disjoint. Meanwhile,  $d_n - c_n = f(a_n) - f(b_n) = \int_{a_n}^{b_n} g'$ . Hence,

$$mO = m\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (c_n, d_n)\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (d_n - c_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{a_n}^{b_n} g' = \int_{g^{-1}[O]} g'.$$

(b) Without loss of generality, we assume that  $d \notin E$ . For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an open set  $O \supset E$  with  $mO < \varepsilon$ . By Part (a),

$$\int_{g^{-1}[O]\cap H} g' = \int_{g^{-1}[O]} g' = mO < \varepsilon.$$

Since the choice of  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $\int_{g^{-1}[O]\cap H} g' = 0$ . Since g' > 0 on H,  $g^{-1}[O] \cap H$  has measure zero.

(c) Since E is measurable, so is  $g^{-1}[E]$ . Meanwhile, by Theorem 3, g' is measurable, hence H is also measurable. Therefore, F is measurable.

We may assume without loss of generality that  $c, d \notin E$ . By Proposition 3.15, there exists some  $G \in G_{\delta}$  such that  $E \subset G \subset (c, d)$  and  $m(G \setminus E) = 0$ . Since g is increasing,  $g^{-1}[G] \cap H = F \cup (g^{-1}[G \setminus E] \cap H)$  and by (b),  $g[G \setminus E] \cap H$  is of measure zero. Therefore,  $\int_F g' = \int_{g^{-1}[G] \cap H} g'$ . Namely, it suffices to show the result for  $G \in G_{\delta}$ .

Suppose that  $G = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} O_n$  where each  $O_n \subset (c,d)$  is open and  $mO_1 < \infty$ . Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $\langle O_n \rangle$  is decreasing. Then  $mG = \lim_{n \to \infty} mO_n$ . By (a),

$$mO_n = \int_{g^{-1}[O_n]} g' = \int_a^b \chi_{O_n}(g(x))g'(x)dx.$$

As  $\chi_{O_n}(g(x))g'(x)$  is bounded by |g'|,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_a^b \chi_{O_n}(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int_a^b \chi_G(g(x))g'(x) dx.$$

Hence,  $mG = \int_{g^{-1}[G] \cap H} g'$ , completing the proof.

(d) By Problem 3.25,  $f \circ g$  is measurable. And since g' is measurable by Theorem 3,  $(f \circ g)g'$  is also measurable.

Let  $\langle \varphi_n \rangle$  be an increasing sequence of nonnegative simple functions which converges to f, the existence of which is guaranteed by Problem 4.4. By the monotone convergence theorem,  $\int_c^d f = \lim_{c} \int_c^d \varphi_n$ .

For each n, suppose that  $\varphi_n(y) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k^{(n)}(y) \chi_{E_k^{(n)}}(y)$ . Then

$$\int_{c}^{d} \varphi_{n} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{k}^{(n)} m E_{k}^{(n)} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{k}^{(n)} \int_{a}^{b} \chi_{E_{k}^{(n)}}(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} \varphi_{n}(g(x)) g'(x) dx,$$

where the second equality comes from (c). Since g is increasing,  $\langle \varphi_n(g(x))g'(x)\rangle$  is an increasing sequence. Hence,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(g(x))g'(x)dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} \varphi_n(g(x))g'(x)dx.$$

Thus,

$$\int_{c}^{d} f(y) dy = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{c}^{d} \varphi_{n}(y) dy = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} \varphi_{n}(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(g(x)) g'(x) dx.$$

## 5.5 Convex Functions

#### 23.

Proof.

- (a) Suppose that  $x_0 \in (a, b)$  and  $y(x) = m(x x_0) + \varphi(x_0)$  is a supporting line. As [a, b) is finite,  $\varphi \ge \min\{\varphi(a), y(a), y(b)\}.$
- (b) If  $\varphi$  is monotone, then the limits exists. If  $\varphi$  is not monotone, then since  $D^+\varphi$  is nondecreasing, there exists some  $[c,d] \subset (a,b)$  such that  $D^+\varphi \leq 0$  on (a,c) and  $D^+\varphi \geq 0$  on (d,b). Namely,  $\varphi$  is monotone on the (a,c) and (d,b). Therefore, the limits also exist.

Consider a finite interval near the finite endpoint. By (a), the limit can not be  $-\infty$  as  $\varphi$  is bounded from below.

(c) If x and y are in the interior of I, the inequality holds by definition. By the continuity of  $\varphi$ , the statement holds for all  $x, y \in I$ .

#### 24.

*Proof.* Note that the existence of  $\varphi''$  implies  $\varphi$  is continuously differentiable. Suppose that  $\varphi$  is convex on (a,b). Then  $D^+\varphi$  is nondecreasing by Proposition 17, hence  $\varphi''(x) \geq 0$  for each  $x \in (a,b)$ . And the converse of the statement follows from Proposition 18 immediately.

## **25**.

Proof.

(a) 
$$\varphi''(t) = b^2 p(p-1)(a+bt)^{p-2}$$
 which  $\geq 0$  on  $[0, \infty)$  if  $p \geq 1$  and  $\leq 0$  if  $0 .$ 

### **26.** TODO

### 27.

*Proof.* Note that  $\log x$  is concave. Denote  $A_N = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n$  and  $R_N = 1 - A_N$ . The situition where  $\langle \alpha_n \rangle$  is finite is simple. Hence we assume that  $R_N \geq 0$  for all N. Then for every N,

$$\log\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n \xi_n\right) = \log\left(A_N \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\alpha_n}{A_N} \xi_n + R_N \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha_n}{R_N} \xi_n\right)$$

$$\geq A_N \log\left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\alpha_n}{A_N} \xi_n\right) + R_N \log\left(\sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha_n}{R_N} \xi_n\right)$$

$$\geq A_N \log\left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\alpha_n}{A_N} \xi_n\right)$$

$$\geq A_N \log\left(\prod_{n=1}^{N} \xi_n^{\alpha_n/A_N}\right)$$

Taking exp on the both sides yields

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n \xi_n \ge \left( \prod_{n=1}^{N} \xi_n^{\alpha_n / A_N} \right)^{A_N} = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \xi_n^{\alpha_n} \to \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \xi_n^{\alpha_n}.$$

 ${\it Proof.}$  It follows immediately from the Jensen inequality and the fact that log is concave.

## 6 The Classical Banach Spaces

## 6.1 The $L^p$ Spaces

1.

*Proof.* Put  $S = ||f||_{\infty}$  and  $T = ||g||_{\infty}$ . Then  $|f(t)| \leq S$  and  $|g(t)| \leq T$  a.e. Hence,  $S + T \geq |f(t)| + |g(t)| \geq |f(t) + g(t)|$  a.e. Namely,  $m\{t : |f(t) + g(t)| > S + T\} = 0$ . Thus,  $S + T \geq ||f + g||_{\infty}$  by the definition of ess sup.

2.

*Proof.* Put  $S = ||f||_{\infty}$ . Since  $S \ge |f|$  a.e.,

$$||f||_p = \left\{ \int_0^1 |f|^p \right\}^{1/p} \le \left\{ \int_0^1 S^p \right\}^{1/p} = S.$$

Therefore,  $\overline{\lim}_{p\to\infty} \|f\|_p \leq S$ . For the converse part, let  $\varepsilon$  be any positive number. Then the measure  $\delta$  of  $E = \{t : |f(t)| > S - \varepsilon\}$  is positive. Hence,

$$\left\{ \int_0^1 |f|^p \right\}^{1/p} \ge \left\{ \int_E |f|^p \right\}^{1/p} \ge \delta^{1/p} (S - \varepsilon) \to S - \varepsilon \quad \text{as } p \to \infty.$$

Hence,  $\underline{\lim}_{p\to\infty} \geq S$ , completing the proof.

3.

Proof.

$$||f+g||_1 = \int |f+g| \le \int |f| + \int |g| = ||f||_1 + ||g||_1.$$

**4.** 

*Proof.* For every  $M > ||g||_{\infty}$ ,  $|g| \leq M$  a.e. Hence,

$$\int |fg| \le M \int |f| = ||f||_1 M.$$

Since the choice of M is arbitrary,  $\int |fg| \le ||f||_1 ||g||_{\infty}$ .

## 6.2 The Minkowski and Hölder Inequalities

8

Proof.

(a) The logarithm function is concave, so

$$\log(a^p/p + b^q/q) \ge \frac{1}{p}\log a^p + \frac{1}{q}\log b^q = \log ab.$$

Taking exp on the both sides yields the inequality. The equality holds iff  $a^p = b^q$ .

(b) The case where  $p = \infty$  has been proved in Problem 4 and the case where  $||f||_p = 0$  or ||g|| = 0 is straightforward. Hence, we assume that  $1 < p, q < \infty$  and  $||f||_p ||g||_q \neq 0$ . Suppose  $\alpha = ||f||_p$  and  $\beta = ||g||_q$ . By Young's inequality,

$$\left| \frac{fg}{\alpha \beta} \right| \le \frac{1}{p} \left( \frac{|f|}{\alpha} \right)^p + \frac{1}{q} \left( \frac{|g|}{\beta} \right)^q$$

for every x. Therefore,

$$\int |fg| = \alpha\beta \int \left| \frac{fg}{\alpha\beta} \right| \le \alpha\beta \int \left\{ \frac{1}{p} \left( \frac{|f|}{\alpha} \right)^p + \frac{1}{q} \left( \frac{|g|}{\beta} \right)^q \right\} = \alpha\beta. \tag{4}$$

The equality holds iff the equality in Young's inequality holds a.e. iff  $\beta |f|^p = \alpha |g|^q$  a.e.

(c) Let p' = 1/p and q' = 1 - p' = -q/p. Then for any nonnegative c and d, by Young's inequality,

$$cd \le \frac{c^{p'}}{p'} + \frac{d^{q'}}{q'} = pc^{1/p} - \frac{p}{q}d^{-q/p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad c^{1/p} \ge \frac{cd}{p} + \frac{d^{-q/p}}{q}.$$

Putting  $c = (ab)^p$  and  $d = b^{-p}$  yields the desired inequality.

(d) Just reverse the inequality in (4).

## 6.3 Convergence and Completeness

9.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\langle f_n \rangle \subset X$  converges to  $f \in X$ . Namely, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some N such that for all n > N,  $||f_n - f|| < \varepsilon$ . Hence, for every n, m > N, by Minkowski inequality,

$$||f_n - f_m|| \le ||f_n - f|| + ||f - f_m|| < 2\varepsilon.$$

Hence,  $\langle f_n \rangle$  is a Cauchy sequence.

10.

Proof. Suppose  $f_n \to f$ . Then  $M_n = ||f_n - f||_{\infty} = \operatorname{ess\,sup} |f_n - f| \to 0$ . Let  $E_n = \{x : |f_n(x) - f(x)| > M_m\}$ , each of which is with measure zero. And therefore  $E = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$  is with measure zero. Note that  $\tilde{E} = \{x : |f_n(x) - f(x)| < M_n, \forall n\}$ , which implies the uniform convergence of  $f_n$  since  $M_n \to 0$ .

For the converse part, the uniform convergence on  $\tilde{E}$  implies that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some N such that for every n > N and  $x \in \tilde{E}$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . Since mE = 0, this implies  $||f_n - f||_{\infty} = \text{ess sup} |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . Hence,  $f_n \to f$  in  $L^{\infty}$ .  $\square$ 

11.

*Proof.* Let  $\langle f_n \rangle \subset L^{\infty}$  be absolutely summable. Put  $M_n = ||f_n||_{\infty}$  and  $A_n = \{t : |f_n(t)| > M_n\}$ . By the definition of  $||\cdot||_{\infty}$ ,  $mA_n = 0$ . Hence,  $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$  is of measure zero.

Note that  $|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$  for every n and  $x \in E \setminus A$ . Thus, by the Weierstrass M-test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$  converges uniformly. Hence, on  $E \setminus A$ ,  $\sup |\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n - \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n| \to 0$  as  $N \to \infty$ . Since mA = 0, this implies the summability of  $\langle f_n \rangle$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $\langle f_n \rangle \subset C$  be absolutely summable. Since for every  $x, 0 \leq |f_n(x)| \leq ||f_n||$ ,  $\langle f_n \rangle$  is uniformly convergent on [0,1]. Put  $s = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$ . Since each  $f_n$  is continuous, so is s. Therefore,  $s \in C$ .

For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some N such that for every n > N and  $x \in [0,1]$ ,  $|s(x) - \sum_{k=1}^{n} f_k(x)| < \varepsilon$ . Hence,  $||s - \sum_{k=1}^{n} f_k|| < \varepsilon$ . Thus,  $\langle f_n \rangle$  is summable and therefore C is a Banach space.

#### 16.

*Proof.* Since  $||f_n - f|| \ge |||f_n|| - ||f|||$ ,  $f_n \to f$  in  $L^p$  implies  $||f_n|| \to ||f||$ . For the converse part, note that  $2^p(|f_n|^p + |f|^p) - |f_n - f|^p \ge 0$  and for almost every x,

$$2^{p}(|f_n|^p + |f|^p) - |f_n - f|^p \to 2^{p+1}|f|^p$$
.

By Fatou's Lemma,

$$2^{p+1}||f||^p = 2^{p+1} \int |f|^p \le \underline{\lim} \int \{2^p (|f_n|^p + |f|^p) - |f_n - f|^p\}$$
$$= 2^{p+1}||f||^p - \overline{\lim} ||f_n - f||^p.$$

Hence,  $\overline{\lim} \|f_n - f\|^p \le 0$ . Since clear that  $\underline{\lim} \|f_n - f\|^p \ge 0$ ,  $\lim \|f_n - f\| = 0$ , i.e.,  $f_n \to f$  in  $L^p$ .

## 17. I assume that 1/p + 1/q = 1.

Proof. Since  $g \in L^p$ ,  $|g|^q$  is integrable on E = [0,1] and therefore for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta$  such that for every  $A \subset E$  with  $mA < \delta$ ,  $\int_A |g|^q < \varepsilon$ . Meanwhile, since  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  for almost every x, by Egoroff's Theorem, there exists some  $A \subset E$  with  $mA < \delta$  such that  $f_n g$  converges to fg uniformly on  $E \setminus A$ .

From the uniform convergence we conclude

$$\int_{E \setminus A} fg = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{E \setminus A} f_n g. \tag{5}$$

Meanwhile, by Hölder inequality,

$$\left| \int_A (f - f_n) g \right| \le \int_A |(f - f_n) g| \le \left\{ \int_A |f_n - f|^p \right\}^{1/p} \left\{ \int_A |g|^q \right\}^{1/q} \le M \varepsilon^{1/q}.$$

Hence, (5) can be extended to E.

For p=1, this is not true.  $f_n=n\chi_{[0,1/n]}$  and  $g=\chi_{[0,1]}$  gives a counterexample.  $\square$ 

### 18.

*Proof.* By Minkowski inequality,

$$||g_n f_n - gf|| = ||g_n (f_n - f) + (g_n - g)f|| \le ||g_n (f_n - f)|| + ||(g_n - g)f||.$$

Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $f, g_n, g \in L^p$ ,  $|g_n - g|^p |f|^p$  is integrable and therefore there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that for all subsets with measure  $\delta < \delta$ , the integral of over it  $\delta < \varepsilon$ . Meanwhile,

since  $g_n \to g$  a.e., by Egoroff's Theorem, there exists some  $A \subset E = [0, 1]$  with  $mA < \delta$  such that  $g_n \to g$  uniformly on  $E \setminus A$  and therefore there exists some  $N_1 > 0$  such that for all  $n > N_1$ ,  $|g_n(x) - g(x)|^p < \varepsilon$  for  $x \in E \setminus A$ . Thus, for every  $n > N_1$ ,

$$||(g_n - g)f|| = \left\{ \int_{E \setminus A} |g_n - g|^p |f|^p \right\}^{1/p} + \left\{ \int_A |g_n - g|^p |f|^p \right\}^{1/p}$$
  
$$\leq \sqrt[p]{\varepsilon} ||f|| + \sqrt[p]{\varepsilon} \leq (||f|| + 1)\varepsilon.$$

Since  $|g_n| \leq M$ ,  $||g_n(f_n - f)|| \leq M||f_n - f||$ . And since  $f_n \to f$  in  $L^p$ , there exists some  $N_2 > 0$  such that for all  $n > N_2$ ,  $||f_n - f|| < \varepsilon$ . Put  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$ , then for every n > N,

$$||g_n f_n - gf|| \le (||f|| + 1 + M)\varepsilon.$$

Hence,  $g_n f_n \to g f$  in  $L^p$ .

## 6.4 Approximation in $L^p$

19.

*Proof.* Since  $||T_{\Delta}f|| \le ||T_{\Delta}|f||$  and ||f|| = |||f||, we may assume without loss of generality that  $f \ge 0$ . For p > 1, by Jensen's inequality,

$$||T_{\Delta}f||_{p}^{p} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \int_{\xi_{k-1}}^{\xi_{k}} \left(\frac{1}{\xi_{k} - \xi_{k-1}} \int_{\xi_{k-1}}^{\xi_{k}} f\right)^{p}$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=1}^{m} \int_{\xi_{k-1}}^{\xi_{k}} \frac{1}{\xi_{k} - \xi_{k-1}} \int_{\xi_{k-1}}^{\xi_{k}} f^{p}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{m} \int_{\xi_{k-1}}^{\xi_{k}} f^{p}$$

$$= \int_{0}^{1} f^{p} = ||f||_{p}^{p}.$$

## 7 Metric Spaces

## 7.7 Compact Metric Space

27.

*Proof.* If  $\rho(F,K) > 0$ , then clear that  $F \cap K = \emptyset$ . For the reverse direction, consider the function  $h(x) = \rho(x,F) = \inf_{y \in F} \rho(x,y)$ . Clear that for  $x \in K$ ,  $h(x) \leq \rho(K,F)$ .

First, we show that h is continuous. Let x be fixed. For every  $x' \in X$ 

$$h(x) < \rho(x, y) < \rho(x, x') + \rho(x', y), \quad \forall y \in F.$$

Take infimum on the right hand side and we get

$$h(x) \le \rho(x, x') + h(x') \quad \Rightarrow \quad h(x) - h(x') \le \rho(x, x').$$

Similarly, we have  $h(x') - h(x) \le \rho(x, x')$ . Thus, h is continuous.

Since K is compact and h is continuous, h attains its infimum c at some point  $x_0 \in K$ . Assume, to obtain a contradiction, that c = 0. Then, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a  $y \in F$  s.t.  $\rho(x_0, y) < \varepsilon$ . Namely,  $x_0$  is a cluster point of F. Since F is closed,  $x_0 \in F$ , which contradicts with  $F \cap K = \emptyset$ . Thus, c > 0 and therefore  $\rho(F, K) > 0$ .

#### 28.

Proof.

- (a) Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be fixed. Since f is uniformly continuous, there exists some  $\delta > 0$  s.t. for every  $x_1, x_2 \in X$  with  $\rho(x_1, x_2) < \delta$ ,  $\rho(f(x_1), f(x_2)) < \varepsilon$ . Let  $B \subset X$  be a ball with radius  $\delta/2$ . Then  $f(B) \subset Y$  is contained by some ball of radius  $\varepsilon$ . Hence, we can cover Y with finitely many balls of radius  $\varepsilon$  as long as we can cover X with finitely many balls of radius  $\delta/2$  and this can be done since X is totally bounded.
- (b) Clear that X = (0,1) is totally bounded while  $Y = (1,\infty)$  is not. The function 1/x a continuous function that maps X onto Y. Hence, the result does not hold.

## 29.

Proof.

- (a) First, by the definition of open cover and open sets,  $\varphi(x) > 0$ . Meanwhile, since X is compact, it is bounded and, therefore,  $\varphi(x) < \infty$ .
- (b) Let x be fixed and r be such that there exists some  $O \in \mathcal{U}$  with  $B_{x,r} \subset O$ . Let  $s = r \rho(x, y)$ . If  $s \leq 0$ , then clear that  $s \leq \varphi(y)$ . If s > 0, then we have  $B_{y,s} \subset B_{x,r} \subset O$ . Hence,  $s \leq \varphi(y)$ . Thus,  $r \rho(x, y) \leq \varphi(y)$ . Take supremum on the left hand side and we get  $\varphi(x) \rho(x, y) \leq \varphi(y)$ .
  - (c) It follows immediately from (b).
- (d) Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence s.t.  $\varphi(x_n) \to \varepsilon$ . Since X is sequentially compact,  $(x_n)$  has a convergent subsequence. For the sake of convenience, we assume the subsequence is  $(x_n)$  itself. Suppose  $x_n \to x$ . Since  $\varphi$  is continuous,  $\varphi(x) = \lim \varphi(x_n) = \varepsilon$ . Thus, by (a),  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- (e) Let  $\delta$  be any positive number that is less than  $\varepsilon$ . For every x, since  $\delta < \varepsilon = \inf \varphi$ ,  $\delta < \varphi(x)$  and, therefore,  $B_{x,\delta} \subset O$  for some  $O \in \mathcal{U}$ .

## 7.8 Baire Category

## 31.(a)

*Proof.* Suppose that F is nowhere dense. Since F is closed,  $F^c$  is dense. Therefore, for every point  $x \in F$ , every neighborhood of x contains a point of  $F^c$ . Thus, F contains to open set. For the reverse direction, since F contains no open set, every neighborhood of every  $x \in X$  contains a point in  $F^c$ , which implies that  $F^c$  is dense.

#### 34.

*Proof.* For the first part, it suffices to show that  $\partial E$  is nowhere dense for any set  $E \subset X$ . Since  $\partial E$  is closed and contains no open set, by 31.(a), it is nowhere dense.

For the second part, assume, to obtain a contradiction, that F is not nowhere dense. Then by 31.(a), it contains an nonempty open set O. By 32.(a), O is also meager, which contradicts the Baire category theorem.

#### 35.

*Proof.* Let E be a subset set of the complete metric space X. If E is residual, then  $E^c = \bigcup_n K_n$  where  $K_n$  are nowhere dense sets. Hence,

$$E = \bigcap K_n^c \supset \bigcap (\operatorname{cl} K_n)^c.$$

Note that  $(\operatorname{cl} K_n)^c$  is a  $G_\delta$ . Meanwhile, since each  $(\operatorname{cl} K_n)^c$  is a dense open set and X is complete, By the theorem of Baire,  $\bigcap (\operatorname{cl} K_n)^c$  is also dense. The proof of the reverse direction is similar.

#### 39.

Proof. Let  $E_m$  has the same meaning as in the proof of Theorem 32. Let  $O := \bigcup_m E_m^{\circ}$ . By Prop. 31, O is a dense residual open set. For every  $x \in O$ ,  $x \in E_m^{\circ}$  for some m. Since  $E_m^{\circ}$  is open, there is a neighborhood U of x which is contained by  $E_m^{\circ}$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{F}$  is uniformly bounded by m in U.

## 7.10 The Ascoli-Arzelá Theorem

## 47.

*Proof.* Let x be an arbitrary fixed point in X and  $(x_n) \subset X$  a sequence that converges to x. Clear that  $K = \{x\} \cup (x_n)$  is (sequently) compact. Hence,  $f_n$  converges to f uniformly on K. Thus, f is also continuous on K and therefore at x. Namely, f is continuous.  $\square$ 

## 49.

*Proof.* Let x be an arbitrary point in X. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , since  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous, there is an open neighborhood O of x s.t.  $\sigma(f(x), f(y)) < \varepsilon$  for every  $y \in O$  and  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . Now, for every  $f^+ \in \mathcal{F}^+$ , suppose  $f_n \to f$ . We have

$$\sigma(f^+(x), f^+(y)) = \sigma\left(\lim_n f_n(x), \lim_m f_m(y)\right) = \lim_n \lim_m \sigma(f_n(x), f_m(y)) \le \varepsilon,$$

where the second equality comes from the continuity of  $\sigma$  and the last inequality comes from the equicontinuity of  $\mathcal{F}$ .

**50.** I assume that the norm on C[0,1] is the sup norm.

Proof. Let  $\mathcal{F} := \{ f \in C[0,1] \mid ||f||_{\alpha} \leq 1 \}$ . First, we show that  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous. By the definition of  $||\cdot||_{\alpha}$ ,  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  only if it is bounded by 1 and  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |x - y|^{\alpha}$  for all  $x, y \in [0,1]$ . For every  $x \in X$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , consider the  $\sqrt[\alpha]{\varepsilon}$ -ball B centered at x. For every  $y \in B$ ,  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |x - y|^{\alpha} < \varepsilon$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous. Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{F}$ . Since  $f_n$  is bounded by 1, by Corollary 41,  $(f_n)$  contains a convergent subsequence. Thus,  $\mathcal{F}$  is a (sequently) compact subset of C[0,1].

## 8 Topological Spaces

## 8.1 Fundamental Notions

3.

*Proof.* If A is open, then clear that  $x \in A \subset A$ . For the converse, let  $E = \bigcup_{x \in A} O_x$  where  $x \in O_x \subset A$ . Since  $O_x \subset A$ ,  $E \subset A$ . Meanwhile, for every  $x \in A$ ,  $x \in O_x \subset E$ . Hence, A = E. Thus, A is open since E is the union of open sets.

## 7.

Proof.

- (a) We argue by contradiction. Assume  $x \in F^c$ . Since F is closed,  $F^c$  is open and therefore there is neighborhood O of x s.t.  $O \cap F \neq \emptyset$ , which contradicts the fact that x is a cluster point. Thus,  $x \in F$ .
- (b) Let y := f(x) and  $y_n := f(x_n)$ . Let O be an arbitrary neighborhood of y. Since f is continuous, there is a neighborhood U of x s.t.  $f(U) \subset O$ . Since  $x = \lim x_n$ , there is an integer N s.t.  $x_n \in U$  for every n > N. Hence,  $y_n = f(x_n) \in f(U) \subset O$  for all n > N. Thus,  $y_n \to y$ .
  - (c) The previous argument,  $mutatis\ mutandis$ , yields the result.

## 10.

Proof.

(a) Suppose that both  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are open. Let  $f_1 := f|_{A_1}$ ,  $x \in A$  and y = f(x). We may assume without loss of generality that  $x \in A_1$ . For every neighborhood O of y, since  $f_1$  is continuous, there is a neighborhood  $A_1 \cap U$  s.t.  $f(A_1 \cap U) \subset O$  where U is an open set of X. Since  $A_1 \cap U$  is still open, f is continuous at x. Thus, f is continuous.

(b) Let 
$$f(x) = 0$$
 on  $A_1 = (-1, 0)$  and  $f(x) = 1$  on  $A_2 = [0, 1]$ .

## 11 Measure and Integration

## 11.1 Measure Spaces

1.

*Proof.* Put  $B_1 = A_1$  and  $B_n = A_n \setminus A_{n-1}$  for  $n \geq 2$ .  $(B_n)$  is a sequence of disjoint measurable sets. By the countable additivity of  $\mu$ ,

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_k) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mu(B_k) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{n} B_k\right).$$

Since  $\bigcup_{k=1}^n B_k = \bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n, \dots, \infty$ , this implies  $\mu(\bigcup A_k) = \lim \mu(\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k)$ .

3.

Proof.

(a) First,

$$0 = \mu(E_1 \triangle E_2) = \mu(E_1 \setminus E_2 \cup E_2 \setminus E_1) = \mu(E_1 \setminus E_2) + \mu(E_2 \setminus E_1).$$

Together with the nonnegativity of  $\mu$ , we conclude that  $\mu(E_1 \setminus E_2) = \mu(E_2 \setminus E_1) = 0$ . Note that

$$\mu(E_1 \cup E_2) = \mu(E_1 \setminus E_2 \cup E_2) = \mu(E_1 \setminus E_2) + \mu(E_2).$$

Hence,  $\mu(E_1 \cup E_2) = \mu(E_2)$ . Similarly,  $\mu(E_1 \cup E_2) = \mu(E_1)$ . Thus,  $\mu(E_1) = \mu(E_2)$ .

(b) Since  $\mu(E_1 \triangle E_2) = 0$  and  $E_2 \setminus E_1 \subset E_1 \triangle E_2$ , by the completeness of  $\mu$ ,  $E_2 \setminus E_1 \in \mathcal{B}$ . Similarly,  $E_1 \setminus E_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ . In consequence,  $E_1 \cap E_2 = E_1 \setminus (E_1 \setminus E_2) \in \mathcal{B}$  and, therefore,  $E_2 = (E_1 \cap E_2) \cup (E_2 \setminus E_1) \in \mathcal{B}$ .

7.

Proof. Let  $\mathcal{B}_0$  be the collection of all sets  $E = A \cup B$  where  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $A \subset C$ ,  $C \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $\mu C = 0$ . Clear that  $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{B}_0$ . Now we show that it is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. Since  $X \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $X \in \mathcal{B}_0$ . Let  $E_n = A_n \cup B_n$  be a sequence of elements of  $\mathcal{B}_0$ . Then,  $\bigcup E_n = (\bigcup A_n) \cup (\bigcup B_n)$  also belongs to  $\mathcal{B}_0$  since  $\bigcup B_n \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $\bigcup A_n \subset \bigcup C_n$ , which is a countable union of sets of measure zero. Hence,  $\mathcal{B}_0$  is closed under countable union. Now, let  $E = A \cup B \in \mathcal{B}_0$ . Note that

$$E^c = A^c \cap B^c = (C \setminus A) \cup (B^c \setminus C),$$

where  $C \setminus A \subset C$  and  $B^c \setminus C \in \mathcal{B}$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{B}_0$  is closed under complement. Thus, it is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

We define  $\mu_0: \mathcal{B}_0 \to [0, \infty]$  by  $\mu_0 E = \mu_0 (A \cup B) = \mu B$ . First, we show that it is well-defined, that is, if  $E = A' \cup B'$ , then  $\mu B = \mu B'$ . Since  $C \in \mathcal{B}$  contains  $A, (A \cup B) \setminus C \in \mathcal{B}$ . Meanwhile, since  $\mu C = 0$ ,

$$\mu B = \mu((A \cup B) \setminus C) = \mu(E \setminus C). \tag{6}$$

Since  $E \setminus C \subset E \cup C'$ ,

$$\mu(E \setminus C) \le \mu(E \cup C') = \mu((A' \cup B') \cup C') = \mu B', \tag{7}$$

where the measurability of  $E \cup C'$  and the last equality both comes from the fact that  $A' \subset C' \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $\mu C' = 0$ . Combine (6) and (7) and we get  $\mu B \leq \mu B'$ . Interchanging the role of  $A \cup B$  and  $A' \cup B'$  yields  $\mu B \geq \mu B'$ . Hence,  $\mu B = \mu B'$  and, in consequence,  $\mu_0$  is well-defined. Meanwhile, clear that for  $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $\mu E = \mu_0 E$ .

Finally, we show that  $\mu_0$  is a measure. Clear that  $\mu_0$  is nonnegative and  $\mu_0 \emptyset = 0$ . Let  $\langle E_n \rangle \subset \mathcal{B}_0$  be a sequence of disjoint sets. Then

$$\mu_0\left(\bigcup E_n\right) = \mu_0\left(\bigcup A_n \cup \bigcup B_n\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup B_n\right) = \sum \mu B_n = \sum \mu_0 E_n.$$

Namely,  $\mu_0$  is countably additive. Thus,  $\mu_0$  is a measure.

9.

Proof.

(a) First, we argue by contradiction to show that  $\mathcal{R}$  and  $\mathcal{R}$ . Assume that there exists some  $E \in \mathcal{R} \cap \mathcal{R}'$ , that is,  $E \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $E^c \in \mathcal{R}$ . Then  $X = E \cup E^c \in \mathcal{R}$ , which contradicts the assumption that  $\mathcal{R}$  is not a  $\sigma$ -algebra. Thus,  $\mathcal{R} \cap \mathcal{R}' = \emptyset$ .

Clear that  $\mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{R}'$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{R}$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{R}' \supset \mathcal{B}$ . Meanwhile, since  $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\mathcal{R}), \ \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{R}' \subset \mathcal{B}$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{R}' = \mathcal{B}$ .

- (b) Since  $\varnothing \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $\bar{\mu}\varnothing = \mu\varnothing = 0$ . Meanwhile, clear that  $\bar{\mu}$  is nonnegative. Let  $(E_n) \subset \mathcal{B}$  be a sequence of disjoint sets. By part (a), each  $E_n$  is either an element of  $\mathcal{R}$  or  $\mathcal{R}'$ . If all  $E_n \in \mathcal{R}$ , then by the countable additivity of  $\mu$ ,  $\mu(\bigcup E_n) = \sum \mu E_n$ . Suppose there exists some  $E_n$  in  $\mathcal{R}$  and some  $E_m$  in  $\mathcal{R}'$ . Let  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  be the union of theses sets respectively. Since  $\sigma$ -ring is closed under union,  $F_1 \in \mathcal{R}$ , and since  $(\bigcup E_m)^c = \bigcap E_m^c$ ,  $F_2 \in \mathcal{R}'$ . Hence,  $F_1 \cup F_2 \in \mathcal{R}'$ , otherwise,  $F_2 = (F_1 \cup F_2) \setminus F_1$  would be an element of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Therefore,  $\mu(\bigcup E_n) = \infty = \sum \mu E_n$ . Thus,  $\bar{\mu}$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- (c) Clear that  $\underline{\mu}$  is nonnegative and  $\underline{\mu}\varnothing = 0$ . Let  $(E_n) \subset \mathcal{B}$  be disjoint. Note that for  $E \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $\mu E = \sup \{\mu A : A \subset E, A \in \mathcal{R}\}$ . Hence, it suffices to show that

$$M = \sup \left\{ \mu A : A \subset \bigcup_n E_n, A \in \mathcal{R} \right\} = \sum_n \sup \{ \mu A : A \subset E_n, A \in \mathcal{R} \} = \sum_n M_n.$$

By definition, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a sequence  $(A_n) \subset \mathcal{R}$  such that  $A_n \subset E_n$  and  $M_n < \mu A_n + \varepsilon/2^n$ . Put  $A = \bigcup A_n$ . Since  $(A_n)$  are disjoint as  $(E_n)$  are,

$$\sum M_n < \varepsilon + \sum \mu A_n = \varepsilon + \mu A.$$

Meanwhile, since  $A \subset \bigcup E_n$  and  $A \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $\mu A \leq M$ . Therefore,  $\sum M_n < \varepsilon + M$ . Thus,  $\sum M_n < M$ .

For the converse, similarly, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $A \in \mathcal{R}$  such that  $A \subset \bigcup E_n$  and  $M - \varepsilon > \mu A$ . Put  $A_n = E_n \cap A$ . If  $E_n \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $A_n \in \mathcal{R}$  by definition. If  $E_n \in \mathcal{R}'$ ,  $A_n = A \setminus E_n^c \in \mathcal{R}$ . Hence,  $A_n \in \mathcal{R}$  for each n. Thus,

$$M - \varepsilon < \mu A = \sum_{n} \mu A_n \le \sum_{n} M_n,$$

implying that  $M \leq \sum M_n$ . Therefore,  $M = \sum M_n$ , i.e.,  $\underline{\mu}$  is countably additive. Thus, we conclude that  $\underline{\mu}$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{B}$ .

(d) Clear that  $\mu_{\beta}$  is nonnegative and  $\mu_{b}eta\varnothing = 0$ . The preceding discussion, mutatis mutandis, yields the countable additivity.

## 11.2 Measurable Functions

#### 10.

*Proof.* For every integers n and k, let

$$E_{n,k} = \{x : k2^{-n} \le f(x) < (k+1)2^{-n}\}, (k \le 2^{2n})$$

$$E_{n,2^{2n}+1} = \{x : f(x) \ge (2^{2n} + 1)2^{-n})\},$$

$$\varphi_n = 2^{-n} \sum_{k=0}^{2^{2n}+1} k\chi_{E_{n,k}}$$

Since f is measurable, all  $E_{n,k}$  are measurable. Thus,  $\langle \varphi_n \rangle$  is a sequence of nonnegative simple functions. Clear that for fixed n,  $\langle E_{n,k} \rangle_k$  are disjoint. Let  $x \in X$  be fixed. If  $x \in E_{n,k}$  for some  $k \leq 2^{2n}$ , then  $x \in E_{n+1,2k} \cup E_{n+1,2k+1}$ . Hence,  $\varphi_{n+1}(x) \geq 2k/2^{-(n+1)} = \varphi_n(x)$ . If  $x \in E_{n,2^{2n}+1}$ , then  $x \in E_{n+1,k'}$  for some  $k' \geq 2^{2n+2}$ . Hence,  $\varphi_{n+1}(x) \geq 2k/2^{-(n+1)} = \varphi_n(x)$ . Thus,  $\varphi_{n+1} \geq \varphi_n$  for all n.

Now, we show that  $\varphi_n$  converges to f pointwisely. Let  $x \in X$  be fixed. If  $f(x) = \infty$ , then  $\varphi_n(x) = 2^{-n}(2^{2n} + 1) \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ . If  $f(x) < \infty$ , then  $f(x) < 2^N$  for some integer N. For all n > N,  $x \in E_{n,k_n}$  where  $k_n = \lfloor 2^n f(x) \rfloor$ . Thus,

$$f(x) - \varphi_n(x) = f(x) - 2^{-n} |2^n f(x)| \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ . Namely,  $\varphi_n(x) \to f(x)$ .

If the measure space is  $\sigma$ -finite, then let  $(X_n) \subset X$  be a sequence of measurable sets such that  $X_n \subset X_{n+1}$ ,  $\mu X_n < \infty$  and  $X = \bigcup X_n$ . Replacing  $E_{n,k}$  with  $E_{n,k} \cap X_n$  yields a sequence  $\langle \varphi_n \rangle$  satisfying all previous requirements and vanishing outside  $X_n$  for each n.

#### 11.

Proof. Put  $F_{\alpha} = \{x : f(x) \leq \alpha\}$ ,  $G_{\alpha} = \{x : g(x) \leq \alpha\}$ ,  $E = \{x : f(x) \neq g(x)\}$  and  $E_{\alpha} = \{x \in E : g(x) \leq \alpha\}$ . Then  $G_{\alpha} = (F_{\alpha} \setminus E) \cup E_{\alpha}$ . Since F is measurable, all  $F_{\alpha}$  are measurable. Since f = g a.e., E is of measure zero. Meanwhile, since  $\mu$  is complete,  $E_{\alpha} \subset E$  is measurable. Thus,  $G_{\alpha}$  is measurable. Namely, g is measurable.

#### 13.

*Proof.* Note that  $f_n$  converges to f in measure iff for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\} = 0.$$

(a) By definition, for every  $\varepsilon_m = 2^{-m}$ , there exists some integer  $N_m$  such that for all  $n \geq N_m$ ,  $\mu\{x : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \geq \varepsilon_m\} < \varepsilon_m$ . Consider the subsequence  $\langle f_{N_m} \rangle_m$ . We show that it converges to f almost everywhere. Put  $E_m = \{x : |f_{N_m} - f(x)| \geq \varepsilon_m\}$  and  $E = \limsup E_m$ . Then, for each k,

$$\mu E \le \bigcup_{m=k}^{\infty} E_m \le \sum_{m=k}^{\infty} 2^{-m+1} \to 0$$
, as  $k \to \infty$ .

For every  $x \notin E$ ,  $x \notin \bigcup_{m=k}^{\infty} E_m$  for some k. Then for all m > k,  $|f_{N_m}(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon_{N_m}$ . Hence,  $f_{N_m}(x) \to f(x)$ . Namely,  $f_{N_m} \to f$  almost everywhere.

(b) First we prove a lemma: Let  $\langle E_n \rangle$  be a sequence of measurable subset of A. Then  $\limsup \mu E_n \leq \mu(\limsup E_n)$ . Let  $F_N = \bigcup_{n=N}^{\infty} E_n$ . Clear that  $F_{n+1} \subset F_n$  and  $\mu F_1 < \infty$ . Hence, by Prop. 2,

$$\limsup \mu E_n \le \lim \mu F_n = \mu \left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n\right) = \mu(\limsup E_n).$$

Thus, the lemma holds.

For fixed  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $E_n = \{x \in A : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\}$ . We show that  $\lim \mu E_n = 0$ . First, clear that  $0 \le \limsup \mu E_n$ . Meanwhile, if  $x \in \limsup E_n$ , then x belongs to infinitely many  $E_n$ . As a consequence,  $f_n$  does not converges to f at x. Since  $f_n$  converges to f a.e.,  $\mu(\limsup E_n) = 0$ . Note that all  $E_n \subset A$  are of finite measure. Hence, by the preceding lemma,  $\limsup \mu E_n \le 0$ . Thus,  $\lim \mu E_n = 0$ . Let  $F_n$  denote  $\{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\}$  and G the collection of points at which  $f_n$  does not converge to f. Since all  $f_n$  vanishes outside A, for a point outside to belong to  $F_n$ , it has to belong to G, a set of measure zero. Therefore,  $E_n \subset F_n \subset E_n \cup G$ , implying that  $\mu F_n = \mu E_n$ . Thus,  $f_n$  converges to f in measure.

(c) By definition, for each positive integer k, there is an integer  $N_k$  such that for all  $n, m \geq N_k$ ,  $\mu\{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \geq 2^{-k}\} < 2^{-k}$ . We may assume without loss of generality that  $N_k$  is increasing. Put  $E_k = \{x : |f_{N_{k+1}} - f_{N_k}| \geq 2^{-k}\}$  and  $E = \limsup E_k$ . By our construction,  $\mu E = 0$ . For  $x \notin E$ ,  $|f_{N_{k+1}}(x) - f_{N_k}(x)| < 2^{-k}$  for large k and, therefore, the number series  $\sum (f_{N_{k+1}}(x) - f_{N_k}(x))$  converges to some point, say, g(x). Hence,  $f_{N_k}$  converges to  $f = f_{N_1} + g$  almost everywhere. Since all  $f_{N_k}$  are measurable, f is measurable.

Now we show that  $f_n$  converges to f in measure. Let D be the set of points at which  $f_{N_k}$  does not converge to f. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $F_n = \{x \in X \setminus D : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\}$ . Note that for all sufficiently large  $N_k$ ,

$$F_n \subset \{x \in X \setminus D : |f_n(x) - f_{N_k}(x)| + |f_{N_k}(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon \}$$
  
 
$$\subset \{x \in X \setminus D : |f_n(x) - f_{N_k}(x)| \ge \varepsilon/2 \},$$

where the measure of the last set can be less than  $\varepsilon$  for sufficiently large n and  $N_k$  as  $\langle f \rangle$  is Cauchy in measure. Since D is of measure zero, we conclude that  $\langle f_n \rangle$  converges to f in measure.

#### 16.

*Proof.* Egoroff: Let  $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a measure space and  $E \subset X$  is of finite measure. Let  $\langle f_n \rangle$  be a sequence of measurable functions which converge to some function f a.e. on E. Then for every  $\eta > 0$ , there is a subset  $A \subset E$  with  $\mu A < \eta$  such that  $f_n$  converges to f uniformly on  $E \setminus A$ .

We may assume without loss of generality that all  $f_n$  vanish outside E. Then, by Prob. 13(b),  $f_n$  converges to f in measure over E. Fix  $\eta > 0$ . First, we construct A. Put  $\delta_m = \delta/2^m$ . For every m, there exists some integer  $N_m$  and a measurable set  $A_m$  with  $\mu A_m < \delta_m$  such that for all  $n > N_m$  and  $x \notin A_m$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \delta_m$ . Put  $A = \bigcup A_m$ . Clear that  $\mu A < \delta$ .

Now we show that  $f_n$  converges to f uniformly on  $E \setminus A$ . Fix  $x \in E \setminus A$ . For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , suppose there is an m such that  $0 < \delta_m < \varepsilon$ . For all  $n > N_m$ , since  $x \notin A$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \delta_m < \varepsilon$ . Thus,  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on  $E \setminus A$ .

## 11.3 Integration

19.

*Proof.* Since  $|\int_E f| \le \int_E |f|$ , it suffices to show the result for nonnegative f. Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By definition, there is a nonnegative simple function  $\varphi = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \chi_{E_i}$  such that  $\int f < \int \varphi + \varepsilon/2$ . Put  $M = \max_i c_i$  and  $\delta = \varepsilon/2Mn$ . Then, for every measurable E with  $\mu E < \delta$ , we have

$$\int_{E} f < \int_{E} \varphi + \varepsilon/2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \mu(E_{i} \cap E) + \varepsilon/2 \leq Mn\delta + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$$

20.

*Proof.* We show here Fatou's Lemma: Let  $\langle f_n \rangle$  be a sequence of nonnegative measurable functions which converges to a function f in measure on a measurable set E. Then  $\int_E f \leq \underline{\lim} \int_E f_n$ .

Since the collection of limits point of  $\int_E f_n$  forms a closed set, there exists a subsequence  $\langle f_{n_k} \rangle_k$  such that  $\lim \int_E f_{n_k} = \liminf \int_E f_n$ . Since  $f_{n_k}$  also converges to f in measure, by Prob. 13(a), there is a subsequence  $\langle f_{n_{k_j}} \rangle$  which converges to f a.e. on E. Hence, by Theorem 10,

$$\int_E f \le \liminf_j \int_E f_{n_{k_j}} = \lim_j \int_E f_{n_{k_j}} = \liminf_n \int_E f_n.$$

21.

Proof.

- (a) We may assume without loss of generality that f is nonnegative since replacing f by |f| dose not change the integrability and the set  $E = \{x : f(x) \neq 0\}$ . For every positive integer n, since  $\int f < \infty$ , the set  $E_n = \{x : f(x) \geq 1/n\}$  is of finite measure. Thus,  $E = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$  is of  $\sigma$ -finite measure.
  - (b) It follows immediately from part (a) and Prop. 7.
- (c) If  $f \ge 0$ , then the existence of such a  $\varphi$  comes directly from the definition. For general cases, let  $f = f^+ f^-$  and  $\varphi^+, \varphi^-$  two simple functions such that

$$\int |f^+ - \varphi^+| < \varepsilon/2$$
 and  $\int |f^- - \varphi^-| < \varepsilon/2$ .

Note that  $\varphi = \varphi^+ - \varphi^-$  is also a simple function and

$$\int |f - \varphi| \le \int |f^+ - \varphi^+| + \int |f^- - \varphi^-| < \varepsilon.$$

Proof.

(a) Clear that  $\nu$  is nonnegative and  $\nu\varnothing = 0$ . Let  $\langle E_n \rangle$  be a sequence of disjoint measurable sets and  $E = \bigcup_n E_n$ . By Corollary 14, we have

$$\nu E = \int_E g \mathrm{d}\mu = \int_E \sum g \chi_{E_n} \mathrm{d}\mu = \sum \int_E g \chi_{E_n} \mathrm{d}\mu = \sum \int_{E_n} g \mathrm{d}\mu = \sum \nu E_n.$$

Thus,  $\nu$  is a measure.

(b) First, we show the identity for an arbitrary simple function  $\varphi = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k \chi_{E_k}$  where  $E_k$  are disjoint.

$$\int \varphi d\nu = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k \nu E_k = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k \int g \chi_{E_k} d\mu = \int \varphi g d\mu.$$

Let f be a nonnegative measurable function and  $\langle \varphi_n \rangle$  a increasing sequence of simple functions converging to f, the existence of which is guaranteed by Prop. 7. Then, By the monotone convergence theorem,

$$\int f d\nu = \lim \int \varphi_n d\nu = \lim \int \varphi_n g d\mu.$$

Note that  $\langle \varphi_n g \rangle$  is a increasing sequence of functions converging to fg and with  $\varphi_n g \leq fg$ . Hence, again by the monotone convergence theorem,

$$\lim \int \varphi_n g \mathrm{d}\mu = \int f g \mathrm{d}\mu.$$

Thus,  $\int f d\nu = \int f g d\mu$ .

## 11.4 General Convergence Theorems

## 24.

*Proof.* Since  $\mu_n E$  is increasing for every E, such limits do exists. Clear that  $\mu$  is nonnegative and  $\mu\varnothing=0$ . Let  $\langle E_k\rangle$  be a sequence of disjoint measurable sets. Then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu_n\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^n E_k\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu_n(E_k).$$

Since for fixed k,  $\mu_n(E_k) \leq \mu_{n+1}(E_k)$ , it is valid to change the order of the limit and the summation, which implies that  $\mu(\bigcup E_k) = \sum \mu E_k$ . Thus,  $\mu$  is a measure.

## 11.5 Signed Measures

### 27.

Proof.

(a) Consider the usual Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let A be any countable subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $B = \mathbb{R} \setminus A$ . Clear that A is negative set while B is a positive set. Namely, A and B form a Hahn decomposition of  $\mathbb{R}$  for  $\mu$ .

(b) Let  $\{A_1, B_1\}$  and  $\{A_2, B_2\}$  be two Hahn decomposition of X for  $\nu$  and  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are two positive sets. We show that  $A_1 \triangle A_2$  is a null set. Since the roles of  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are interchangeable, it suffices to show that  $A_1 \setminus A_2$  is a null set. Since  $A_1$  is positive, every subset  $E \subset A_1 \setminus A_2 \subset A_1$  is of nonnegative measure. Meanwhile,  $A_1 \setminus A_2$  is also contained in  $B_2$ , a negative set. Hence,  $\nu E \leq 0$ . Thus,  $\nu E = 0$ , implying that  $A_1 \triangle A_2$  is a null set.

#### 28.

*Proof.* Let  $\nu = \nu^+ - \nu^-$  be the Jordan decomposition of  $\nu$  and A and B be such that  $X = A \cup B$  and  $\nu^+(A) = \nu^-(B) = 0$ . For every  $E \subset A$ ,

$$\nu E = \nu^+ E - \nu^- E = -\nu^- E < 0.$$

Hence, A is a negative set. Similarly, B is positive set. Thus,  $\{A, B\}$  is a Hahn decomposition of X.

Let  $\nu = \nu_1 + \nu_2$  be another Jordan decomposition of  $\nu$  and  $\{C, D\}$  be the corresponding Hahn decomposition. By Prob. 27(b),  $\{A, B\}$  and  $\{C, D\}$  only differ by two null sets. Thus,  $\nu_1 = \nu^+$  and  $\nu_2 = \nu^-$ . Namely, the decomposition is unique.

#### 31.

Proof. Clear that

$$\left| \int_{E} f d\nu \right| \leq \left| \int_{E} f d\nu^{+} \right| + \left| \int_{E} f d\nu^{-} \right| \leq M \nu^{+} E + M \nu^{-} E = M |\nu|(E).$$

Let  $\{A, B\}$  be the corresponding Hahn decomposition of X and A is the positive set. Then define f by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A, \\ -1, & x \notin A. \end{cases}$$

Clear that  $|f| \leq 1$  and

$$\int_{E} f d\nu = \int_{E} f d\nu^{+} - \int_{E} f d\nu^{-} = \mu^{+}(A \cap E) + \nu^{-}(A \cap B) = |\nu|(E).$$

#### 32.

Proof.

(a) Put  $\mu \wedge \nu = \frac{1}{2}(\mu + \nu - |\mu - \nu|)$ , which can be verified to be a measure. For every  $E \subset X$ , suppose  $\mu E \leq \nu E$ . Then

$$(\mu \wedge \nu)(E) = \frac{1}{2}(\mu E + \nu E - |\mu - \nu|(E)) = \frac{1}{2}(\mu E + \nu E - \nu E + \mu E) = \mu E.$$

Similarly,  $(\mu \wedge \nu)(E) = \nu E$  if  $\nu E \leq \mu E$ . Hence,  $\mu \wedge \nu$  is smaller than both  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ . Note that  $(\mu \wedge \nu)(E) = \min\{\mu E, \nu E\}$ . Thus, clear that it is larger than any other signed measure smaller than  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ .

- (b) Put  $\mu \vee \nu = \frac{1}{2}(|\mu \nu| + \mu + \nu)$ . The previous argument, mutatis mutandis, shows that  $(\mu \vee \nu)(E) = \max\{\mu E, \nu E\}$ . Thus, it is the smallest measure larger than  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ . Meanwhile, clear that  $\mu \wedge \nu + \mu \vee \nu = \mu + \nu$ .
- (c) Suppose that  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are mutually singular and let  $\{A, B\}$  be such that  $A \cup B = X$   $\mu A = \nu B = 0$ . Then

$$(\mu \wedge \nu)(E) \le (\mu \wedge \nu)(E \cap A) + (\mu \wedge \nu)(E \cap B) \le \mu A + \nu B = 0.$$

For the converse, suppose that  $\mu \wedge \nu = 0$ . If  $\mu = 0$  or  $\nu = 0$ , then  $\mu \perp \nu$  holds vacuously. Suppose that both  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are nonzero. Since the roles of  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are interchangeable, we may assume without loss of generality that  $\mu E = 0$  and  $\nu E > 0$  for some measurable E. Then,  $\mu E^c \neq 0$ , forcing  $\nu E^c$  to be zero. Therefore,  $\mu E = \nu E^c = 0$ , implying that  $\mu \perp \nu$ .

## 11.6 The Radon-Nikodym Theorem

33.

Proof. Suppose  $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_i$  and  $\mu X_i < \infty$  for each n and  $X_i$  are disjoint. Then both  $\mu|_{X_i}$  and  $\nu|_{X_i}$ , the restrictions to  $X_i$ , are finite. In consequence, by the Radon-Nikodym theorem for finite measure, there is a nonnegative measurable function  $f_i: X_i \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\nu(E \cap X_i) = \int_{(E \cap X_i)} f_i d\mu$ . Without loss of generality, we may consider  $f_i$  to be a function on X (instead of  $X_i$ ) that vanishes outside  $X_i$ .

Put  $f = \sum f_i$ . Since  $X_i$  are disjoint and  $f_i$  vanishes outside  $X_i$ , the summation does make sense. Meanwhile, clear that f is nonnegative and measurable. Note that for each measurable E,

$$\nu E = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \nu(E \cap X_i) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_E f_i d\mu = \int_E f d\mu,$$

where the last equality comes from Corollary 14. Namely,  $\nu E = \int_E f d\mu$ .

Finally, we show that f is unique up to almost equality. Let g be a nonnegative measurable function with this property. Then,  $g|_{X_i}$ , the restriction of g to  $X_i$ , equals to  $f_i$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ . Thus, g = f a.e.  $[\mu]$ .

### 34. Radon-Nikodym derivatives

Proof.

(a) It suffices to show the result for simple functions. Let  $\varphi = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k \chi_{E_k}$  be a simple function. Then

$$\int \varphi \, \mathrm{d}\nu = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_i \nu E_k.$$

Meanwhile,

$$\int \varphi \left[ \frac{\mathrm{d}\nu}{\mathrm{d}\mu} \right] \, \mathrm{d}\mu = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k \int_{E_k} \left[ \frac{\mathrm{d}\nu}{\mathrm{d}\mu} \right] \, \mathrm{d}\mu = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_i \nu E_k.$$

Thus,  $\int \varphi \, d\nu = \int \varphi [d\nu/d\mu] d\mu$ .

Proof.

(d) Let  $\rho_0, \rho_1$  be two measures with  $\rho_0 \perp \mu$ ,  $\rho_1 \ll \mu$  and  $\nu = \rho_0 + \rho_1$ . We show that  $\rho_0 = \nu_0$  and  $\rho_1 = \nu_1$ . Since  $\nu_0 \perp \mu$  and  $\rho_0 \perp \mu$ , there exists measurable A, B and C, D such that  $A \cup B = C \cup D = X$ ,  $A \cap B = C \cap D = \emptyset$  and  $\nu_0 A = \mu B = \rho_0 C = \mu D = 0$ . Put  $U = A \cap C$  and  $V = B \cup D$ . Note that

$$U \cup V = (A \cap C) \cup (B \cup D) = (A \cup B \cup D) \cap (C \cup B \cup D) = X,$$
  
$$U \cap V = (A \cap C) \cap (B \cup D) = (A \cap C \cap B) \cup (C \cap B \cap D) = \emptyset.$$

For every measurable E, if  $E \subset U$ , then  $\nu_0 E = \rho_0 E = 0$  and  $(\nu_0 + \nu_1)(E) = (\rho_0 + \rho_1)(E)$  implies that  $\nu_1 E = \rho_1 E$ . If  $E \subset V$ , then  $\mu E = 0$ , implying that  $\nu_1 E = \rho_1 E = 0$  and, therefore,  $\nu_0 E = \rho_0 E$ . Since U and V partitions X, this implies that  $\nu_0 = \rho_0$  and  $\nu_1 = \rho_1$  for all measurable E.

#### 36.

*Proof.* We show that: Let  $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite signed measure space, and let  $\nu$  be a signed measure on  $\mathcal{B}$  with  $\nu \ll \mu$ . Then there is a measurable function such that for all measurable E we have  $\nu E = \int_E f \, \mathrm{d}\mu$ . Furthermore, the function f is unique up to almost equality with respect to  $\mu$ .

Let  $\mu = \mu^+ - \mu^-$  and  $\nu = \nu^+ - \nu^-$  be the Jordan decompositions. Clear that  $\nu^+ \ll \mu^+$  and  $\nu^- \ll \mu^-$ . Hence, by the Radon-Nikodym theorem for measures, there exists nonnegative g and h such that

$$\nu^+ E = \int_E g \, \mathrm{d}\mu^+$$
 and  $\nu^- E = \int_E h \, \mathrm{d}\mu^-$ 

for all measurable E. Put f = g - h. Clear that it is measurable. Meanwhile,

$$\nu E = \nu^+ E - \nu^- E = \int_E g \, d\mu^+ - \int_E h \, d\mu^- = \int_E (g - h) \, d\mu$$

where the last equality comes from the mutual singularity of  $\mu^+$  and  $\mu^-$ . And the argument in Prob. 33, *mutatis mutandis*, gives the uniqueness.

#### 40.

*Proof.* Let I denote the index set of  $\{X_{\alpha}\}$  and, just for convenience, let  $\sum_{J}$  denote  $\sum_{\alpha \in J} \mu(E \cap X_{\alpha})$ .

(a) First, we suppose that E is of finite measure. Let J be any finite index subset of I. Then, since  $X_{\alpha}$  are disjoint,  $\mu E \geq \sum_{J}$ . Hence,  $\mu E \geq \sum_{I}$ . For the converse, since, by our previous result, all  $\sum_{J}$  are bounded by  $\mu E$ ,  $\sum_{I}$  is finite. For each positive integer n, there is a finite subset  $J_{n}$  of I such that  $\sum_{I} -1/n < \sum_{J_{n}}$ . Put

$$J = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} J_n$$
 and  $Y = \bigcup_{\beta \in J} X_{\beta}$ .

We show that (1)  $\mu(Y \cap E) \leq \sum_{I}$  and (2)  $\mu E = \mu(Y \cap E)$  to complete the proof. Since  $\{X_{\beta}\}_{{\beta} \in J}$  is a countable collection of disjoint sets,

$$\mu(Y \cap E) = \sum_{\beta \in J} \mu(X_{\beta} \cap E) \le \sum_{\alpha \in I} \mu(X_{\beta} \cap E).$$

Namely, (1) holds. To show (2), we first show that, for each  $\alpha \in I$ , the set  $X_{\alpha} \cap (E \setminus Y)$  is of measure zero. Assume, to obtain a contradiction, that there is some  $\alpha$  such that  $\mu(X_{\alpha} \cap (E \setminus Y)) = \delta > 0$ . Since

$$X_{\alpha} \cap (E \setminus Y) = X_{\alpha} \cap E \cap \left(\bigcap_{\beta \in J} X_{\beta}^{c}\right),$$

this implies that  $\alpha \notin J_n$  for all n and  $\mu(X_\alpha \cap E) = \delta$ . Since  $\delta > 1/n$  for some large n, this leads to the contradiction

$$\sum_{J_n \cup \{\alpha\}} = \sum_{J_n} + \mu(X_\alpha \cap E) > \sum_{I} -\frac{1}{n} + \delta \ge \sum_{I}.$$

Hence,  $\mu(X_{\alpha} \cap (E \setminus Y)) = 0$  for all n and, therefore,  $\mu(E \setminus Y) = 0$ . Note that  $E \setminus (Y \cap E) = E \setminus Y$ , this implies that  $\mu(E \setminus (Y \cap E)) = 0$ . In consequence,  $\mu E = \mu(Y \cap E)$ . Thus,  $\mu E \leq \sum_{I}$ .

Now suppose  $\mu E = \infty$ . If all  $\sum_{I}$  are finite

#### **40.**

*Proof.* Let I denote the index set of  $\{X_{\alpha}\}$ . Fix a measurable E. Put

$$J = \{ \alpha \in I : \mu(E \cap X_{\alpha}) > 0 \}$$
 and  $Y = \bigcup_{\beta \in J} X_{\beta}$ .

First we show that  $\mu E = \mu(E \cap Y)$ . Clear that  $\mu E \geq \mu(E \cap Y)$ . For the converse, consider the set  $E \setminus (E \cap Y) = E \setminus Y$ . For every  $X_{\alpha}$ , if  $\alpha \notin J$ , by the construction of J,  $\mu(X_{\alpha} \cap (E \setminus Y)) = 0$ . If  $\alpha \in J$ , then

$$X_{\alpha} \cap (E \setminus Y) = X_{\alpha} \cap E \cap \left(\bigcap_{\beta \in J} X_{\beta}\right) = \varnothing.$$

As a result,  $\mu(X_{\alpha} \cap (E \setminus Y)) = 0$  for all  $\alpha \in I$ . Since  $\{X_{\alpha}\}$  is a decomposition, this implies that  $\mu(E \setminus Y) = 0$ . Therefore,  $\mu E \leq \mu(E \cap Y)$ . Thus,  $\mu E = \mu(E \cap Y)$ .

(a) For each positive integer n, put

$$J_n = \{ \alpha \in I : \mu(E \cap X_\alpha) > 1/n \}.$$

Clear that  $J = \bigcup_n J_n$ . If J is uncountable, then there must exist some uncountable  $J_n$ , which implies that  $\mu E = \sum \mu(X_\alpha \cap E) = \infty$ . If J is countable, then

$$\mu E = \mu(E \cap Y) = \sum_{\beta \in J} \mu(E \cap X_{\beta}) = \sum_{\alpha \in I} \mu(E \cap X_{\alpha}).$$

Thus,  $\mu E = \sum \mu(E \cap X_{\alpha})$ .

## 11.7 The $L^p$ Spaces

#### 41.

*Proof.* First, we prove the following lemma: For  $a, b \ge 0$ ,  $|a - b|^p \le 2|a^p - b^p|$ . It suffices to show that  $(a - b)^p \le 2(a^p - b^p)$  for all  $a \ge b \ge 0$ . If p = 1, then the inequality holds trivially. Suppose p > 1 and put  $h(x) = (x - b)^p - 2(x^p - b^p)$ . Clear that h(b) = 0. Meanwhile, for  $x \ge b$ ,

$$h'(x) = p(x-b)^{p-1} - 2px^{p-1} = px^{p-1} \left( \left( 1 - \frac{b}{x} \right)^{p-1} - 2 \right) < 0.$$

Thus,  $h(x) \leq 0$  for all  $x \geq b$ , which implies that  $|a-b|^p \leq 2|a^p-b^p|$  for all  $a,b \geq 0$ .

Since  $|f|^p$  is integrable, by Prob. 21(a), the set on which f does not vanish is of  $\sigma$ -finite measure. Hence,  $\int |f|^p = \sup \int \varphi$  as  $\varphi$  ranges over all simple functions that each vanishes outside a set of finite measure. Thus, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a nonnegative simple function  $\tilde{\varphi} \leq |f|^p$ , vanishing outside a set E of finite measure, such that  $\int (|f|^p - \tilde{\varphi}) < \varepsilon^p/2$ . Put  $\varphi = \sqrt[p]{\tilde{\varphi}}$ , which is also a nonnegative simple function that vanishes outside E. Meanwhile, by the previous inequality,

$$||f - \varphi||_p^p = \int |f - \varphi|^p \le 2 \int (|f|^p - \tilde{\varphi}) < \varepsilon^p.$$

Namely, Prop. 26 holds.

#### **42**.

*Proof.* We may assume without loss of generality that g is nonnegative. Assume, to obtain a contradiction, that ess  $\sup |g| > M$ , that is, the measure of  $E = \{t : g(t) > M + \eta\}$  is nonzero for some positive  $\eta$ . Meanwhile, since  $\mu$  is finite,  $\mu E < \infty$ . Let  $\varphi = \chi_E$ , which is clearly a simple function. Then

$$\left| \int g\varphi \right| \ge (M+\eta)\mu E > M\|\varphi\|_1.$$

Contradiction. Hence, ess sup  $|g| \leq M$ , implying that  $g \in L^{\infty}$ .

### **43.** The case p = 1 is left undone.

Proof. Suppose that p > 1. Let  $\langle X_n \rangle$  be such that  $\mu X_n < \infty$  and  $X = \bigcup X_n$ . Furthermore, we may assume without loss of generality that  $X_n$  are disjoint. Put  $g_n = \sum g \chi_{X_n}$ . By Lemma 27, for  $n, g \chi_{X_n} \in L^q$  and  $\|g_n\|_q \leq M$ . Since  $g_n \to g$ , by Fatou's lemma,  $\|g\|_q \leq M$ . Thus,  $g \in L^q$ .

#### 44.

*Proof.* Note that

$$\int |f|^p = \sum \int |f|^p \chi_{E_n} = \sum \int |f_n|^p = \sum ||f_n||^p.$$

Thus,  $f \in L^p$  iff  $\sum ||f_n||^p < \infty$ .

*Proof.* For every  $f \in L^p$  with  $||f||_p = 1$ ,

$$\int |fg| \le ||f||_p ||g||_q = ||g||_q.$$

Hence,  $||F|| \le ||g||_q$ . For the reverse inequality, put

$$f = (\operatorname{sgn} g)|g|^{q-1} = (\operatorname{sgn} g)|g|^{p/q}.$$

Note that  $|f|^p=|g|^q$ . Therefore,  $g\in L^q$  implies  $f\in L^q$ . Meanwhile,  $\|f\|_p^p=\|g\|_q^q$ . Hence,

$$||F||||f||_p \ge |F(f)| = \int |g|^q = ||g||_q^q \implies ||F|| \ge ||g||_q.$$

Thus,  $||F|| = ||g||_q$ .

## 12 Measure and Outer Measure

## 12.1 Outer Measure and Measurability

1.

Proof. Suppose that  $E \subset X$  and there is a measurable B with  $\bar{\mu}B = 0$  such that  $E \subset B$ . We show that E is measurable, that is, for every  $A \subset X$  with finite outer measure,  $\mu^*(A) \geq \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$ . Since  $A \cap E \subset E \subset B$  and  $\mu^*$  is monotone,  $\mu^*(A \cap E) \leq \mu^*(B) = \bar{\mu}B = 0$ . Again by the monotonicity,  $\mu^*(A) \geq \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$ . Thus, E is measurable, implying that  $\bar{\mu}$  is complete.

2.

*Proof.* From the countable subadditivity we obtain that  $\mu^*(A \cap E) \leq \sum \mu^*(A \cap E_i)$ . For the converse, first we consider just  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ . Since  $E_1$  is measurable,

$$\mu^*(A \cap E) = \mu^*(A \cap E \cap E_1) + \mu^*(A \cap E \cap E_1^c) \ge \mu^*(A \cap E_1) + \mu^*(A \cap E_2).$$

By induction on n we get  $\mu^*(A \cap E) \ge \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^*(A \cap E_i)$ . Let  $n \to \infty$  and the proof is completed.

## 12.2 The Extension Theorem

4.

Proof.

(a) Since  $\{D_j\}$  partitions  $A, C_i \subset A$  for each i and  $\mathcal{C}$  is closed under intersection, by condition (i),  $\mu C_i = \sum_j \mu(C_i \cap D_j)$ . Similarly for  $\mu D_j$ . Thus,

$$\sum_{i} \mu C_i = \sum_{i,j} \mu(C_i \cap D_j) = \sum_{j} \sum_{i} \mu(C_i \cap D_j) = \sum_{j} \mu D_j.$$

This result implies that the definition of  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{A}$  is well-defined.

(b) Since every  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  is a finite union of sets of  $\mathcal{C}$ , it suffices to show that  $\mu C \geq \sum \mu C_i$ . Then, from this condition, the countably additivity follows. Since  $\mu$  is nonnegative and monotone,  $\mu C \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu C_i$  for all positive integer n. Let  $n \to \infty$  and we get  $\mu C \geq \sum \mu C_i$ .

7.

*Proof.* To prove the "if" part, let  $\varepsilon_n = 1/n$  and  $A_n \in \mathcal{A}_{\delta}$  be such that  $\mu^*(E \setminus A_n) < \varepsilon_n$ . Put  $A = \bigcup A_n$ . Since the collection of  $\mu^*$ -measurable sets is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, A is measurable. Meanwhile, since  $\mu^*(E \setminus A) \leq \mu^*(E \setminus A_n) < \varepsilon_n$ ,  $E \setminus A$  is of  $\mu^*$ -measure zero. Hence, it is measurable. Thus,  $E = A \cup (E \setminus A)$  is also measurable.

For the converse, suppose that E is measurable and let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be fixed. Note that  $E^c$  is also measurable. Hence, by Prop. 6, there is a set  $A \in \mathcal{A}_{\sigma}$  with  $E^c \subset A$  and

$$\varepsilon > \mu^*(A \setminus E^c) = \mu^*(A \cap E).$$

Then,  $A^c \in \mathcal{A}_{\delta}$ ,  $A^c \subset E$  and  $\mu^*(E \setminus A^c) = \mu^*(E \cap E) < \varepsilon$ .