## SUMMER 2025 READING GROUP ON ERGODIC THEORY

LECTURE 2 (SAMY LAHLOU): CRASH COURSE ON MEASURE THEORY, PART II

Let  $(X, \mu)^1$  be a measure space. Our goal is to define the *Lebesgue integral*  $\int f d\mu$  for a function  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ . Again, this is not possible in full generality, so we restrict ourselves to the so-called *measurable functions*.

Further reading. [Tse23, Lectures 9 to 13, 17 to 21] and [Fol99, Chapters 2 and 3].

**Definition 1.** A simple function is an  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear combination of characteristic functions on  $\mu$ -measurable sets, i.e., if  $(E_i)_{i \leq n}$  is a collection of pairwise-disjoint  $\mu$ -measurable sets and  $(a_i)_{i \leq n}$  are distinct reals, then  $\varphi := \sum_{i \leq n} a_i \chi_{E_i}$  is a said to be a simple function. Define its (Lebesgue) integral as  $\int \varphi d\mu := \sum_{i \leq n} a_i \mu(E_i)$ .

For a (bounded) positive function  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ , we might define  $\int f \, d\mu$  by approximating f by simple functions from below, say by an increasing sequence  $(\varphi_n)$  of simple functions such that  $f = \lim_n \varphi_n$  uniformly. However, not all functions f admit such an approximation.

To see this, let us attempt to construct such a sequence  $(\varphi_n)$ . For each n, we will approximate the cutoff of f at  $2^n$ , i.e., the function  $\min(f,2^n)$ . We do so by partitioning the codomain  $[0,2^n]$  into intervals of length  $2^{-n}$ , for a total of  $k_n := 2^n/2^{-n} = 2^{2n}$  intervals. Set  $E_k := f^{-1}([2^{-n}k,\infty))$  for each  $k \in \{1,\ldots,k_n\}$ , and let  $\varphi_n := \sum_{k \le k_n} 2^{-n} \chi_{E_k}$ . One easily checks that  $f = \lim_n \varphi_n$  uniformly.

However,  $E_k$  is not guaranteed to be  $\mu$ -measurable! To fix this, we simply define the issue away.

**Definition 2.** A function  $f: X \to Y$  between measurable spaces  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{C})$  be measurable spaces is said to be  $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C})$ -measurable if  $f^{-1}(C) \in \mathcal{B}$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ .

A function  $f: X \to Y$  between topological spaces is said to be *Borel* if it is  $(\mathcal{B}(X), \mathcal{B}(Y))$ -measurable. A *Borel isomorphism* is a bijection  $f: X \to Y$  such that both f and  $f^{-1}$  are Borel.

Exercise 3. Continuous maps are Borel. HINT: Define a σ-algebra containing open sets in the codomain.

So far we only dealt with measurable spaces. Let us now bring a measure into the picture.

**Definition 4.** Let  $(X, \mu)$  be a measure space and Y be a topological space. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be  $\mu$ -measurable if it is  $(\text{Meas}_{\mu}, \mathcal{B}(Y))$ -measurable.

**Remark 5.** Compositions of  $\mu$ -measurable functions need not be  $\mu$ -measurable.

The following exercise is one of the main reasons why  $\mu$ -measurable functions are introduced, and ultimately also why the Lebesgue integral is superior compared to the Riemann integral.

**Exercise 6.** In separable metric spaces, pointwise limits of  $\mu$ -measurable functions are  $\mu$ -measurable, i.e., if  $(f_n)$  is a sequence of  $\mu$ -measurable maps  $f_n: X \to Y$  from a measure space  $(X, \mu)$  to a separable space Y, and  $f := \lim_n f_n$  (pointwise), then  $f: X \to Y$  is  $\mu$ -measurable.

HINT: Let  $\mathcal{C} := \{B \in \mathcal{B}(Y) : f^{-1}(B) \in \operatorname{Meas}_{\mu}\}$ . Show that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra containing all open set in Y, so  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{B}(Y)$ , as desired. For each  $U \subseteq Y$  open, use separability to write  $U = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n$ , where each  $B_n$  is a ball whose closure is contained in U, and show that  $f^{-1}(U) \in \operatorname{Meas}_{\mu}$ .

**Exercise 7.** If  $f_1, f_2 : (X, \mu) \to \mathbb{R}$  are  $\mu$ -measurable and  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  is Borel, then  $g(f_1, f_2) : X \to \mathbb{R}$  is also  $\mu$ -measurable. In particular,  $f_1 + f_2$  and  $f_1 \cdot f_2$  are  $\mu$ -measurable.

**Exercise 8.** If  $(f_n)$  is a sequence of  $\mu$ -measurable functions  $f_n: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ , then  $\sup_n f_n$ ,  $\inf_n f_n$ ,  $\lim \sup_n f_n$ , and  $\lim \inf_n f_n$  are also  $\mu$ -measurable.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Whenever the  $\sigma$ -algebra is not stated, we assume that  $\mu$  is defined on Meas<sub> $\mu$ </sub>. In particular, we assume that  $\mu$  is complete.

**Notation 9.** We write  $L(X,\mu)$  for the set of all  $\mu$ -measurable functions  $f:(X,\mu)\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ , and  $L^+(X,\mu)$  for those which are non-negative.

We are finally ready to define the Lebesgue integral.

**Definition 10.** Let  $(X, \mu)$  be a measure space. The (Lebesgue) integral of  $f \in L^+(X, \mu)$  is

$$\int f \, \mathrm{d}\mu \coloneqq \sup \left\{ \int \varphi \, \mathrm{d}\mu : 0 \le \varphi \le f \text{ simple function} \right\}.$$

In general, if  $f \in L(X, \mu)$ , we decompose  $f = f^+ - f^-$  where  $f^+ := \max\{f, 0\}$  and  $f^- := \max\{-f, 0\}$ . The (Lebesgue) integral of f is  $\int f d\mu := \int f^+ d\mu - \int f^- d\mu$ , provided that one of the terms is finite.

If  $\int f d\mu < \infty$ , we say that f is  $\mu$ -integrable, in which case we write  $f \in L^1(X,\mu)$ . More generally,

**Definition 11.** Take  $p \in [1, \infty]$  and let  $L^p(X, \mu)$  be the set of all  $\mu$ -measurable functions  $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  such that  $||f||_p < \infty$ , where  $||f||_p := (\int |f|^p d\mu)^{1/p}$  if  $p < \infty$  and  $||f||_{\infty} := \text{ess-sup} |f| := \inf\{c \ge 0 : |f| \le c \ \mu\text{-a.e.}\}$ .

Exercise 12. Let  $f, g \in L^p(X, \mu)$ . If  $f \leq g$ , then  $||f||_p \leq ||g||_p$ .

Since a  $\mu$ -measurable function  $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  can be approximated from below by simple functions  $(\varphi_n)$ , we should be able to calculate  $\int f d\mu$  as the limit of  $\int \varphi_n d\mu$ . Indeed,

**Theorem 13** (Monotone Convergence Theorem). If  $(f_n) \in L^+(X, \mu)$  and  $f_n \nearrow f$ , then  $\int f_n d\mu \nearrow \int f d\mu$ .

Corollary 14. If  $(f_n) \in L^+(X, \mu)$ , then  $\sum_n \int f_n d\mu = \int \sum_n f_n d\mu$ .

**Exercise 15.** For any  $f, g \in L^1(X, \mu)$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\int (af + bg) d\mu = a \int f d\mu + b \int g d\mu$ . Hint: Simple  $\leadsto_{MCT} L^+ \leadsto L^1$ .

**Exercise 16.** Let  $f, g \in L^1(X, \mu)$ . If f = g  $\mu$ -a.e., then  $\int f d\mu = \int g d\mu$ . Hint: Consider  $\int (f - g) d\mu$ .

We list two more convergence theorems that will be useful later on

**Theorem 17** (Fatou's Lemma). If  $(f_n) \in L^+(X, \mu)$ , then  $\int \liminf_n f_n \, d\mu \leq \liminf_n \int f_n \, d\mu$ .

**Theorem 18** (Dominated Convergence Theorem). Let  $(f_n) \in L^1(X, \mu)$ . If  $f_n \to f$   $\mu$ -a.e. and  $|f_n| \leq g$  for some  $g \in L^1(X, \mu)$ , then  $\lim_n \int f_n d\mu = \int f d\mu$ .

Let us now discuss differentiation of functions  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ ; for convenience, we assume<sup>2</sup> that  $f \in L^+(X, \mu)$ . For these functions, we can define a new measure  $\nu$  on  $\mathcal{B}$  by  $\nu(B) := \int_B f \, \mathrm{d}\mu := \int f \cdot \chi_B \, \mathrm{d}\mu$ , which measures the 'area under the curve'. Note that for each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , we have B is  $\nu$ -null whenever B is  $\mu$ -null.

It turns out that the 'correct' setting to discuss differentiation is between two measures  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  which satisfy the above condition.

**Definition 19.** If  $\mu, \nu$  are measures on a measurable space  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  and B is  $\nu$ -null whenever B is  $\mu$ -null for each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , we say that  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous w.r.t  $\mu$ , and write  $\nu \ll \mu$ .

**Theorem 20** (Lebesgue-Radon-Nikodym Theorem). If  $\nu \ll \mu$  are  $\sigma$ -finite measures on a measurable space  $(X, \mathcal{B})$ , then there exists a  $\mathcal{B}$ -measurable map  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  such that  $\nu(B) = \int_B f \, \mathrm{d}\mu$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ .

Such a function  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is unique  $\mu$ -a.e., and is called the *Radon-Nikodym derivative of*  $\nu$  *w.r.t.*  $\mu$ , denoted  $\frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$ . Thus, we have  $\nu(B) = \int_B \frac{d\nu}{d\mu} d\mu$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ .

Corollary 21. In the above setting, we have  $\int g \, \mathrm{d}\mu = \int g \frac{\mathrm{d}\mu}{\mathrm{d}\nu} \mathrm{d}\nu$  for all  $g \in L^1(X,\mu)$ .

To relate  $d\nu/d\mu$  to derivatives in calculus (say on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ), we let  $\mu := \lambda$  be Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Theorem 22** (Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem). For any locally-integrable function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  (i.e. if  $f \cdot \chi_K \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \lambda)$  for every compact  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ) and for  $\lambda$ -a.e.  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$f(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\lambda(B_{\varepsilon}(x))} \int_{B_{\varepsilon}(x)} f \, \mathrm{d}\lambda.$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Otherwise, we will need to discuss 'signed measures'

Corollary 23. For any locally-finite Borel measure  $\mu \ll \lambda$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and for  $\lambda$ -a.e.  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mu}{\mathrm{d}\lambda}(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{\mu(B_{\varepsilon}(x))}{\lambda(B_{\varepsilon}(x))}.$$

We end by briefly mentioning the 'Isomorphism Theorems'. These justify why we only gave three examples in Lecture 1, and allows us to work in concrete spaces like [0,1] or  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

**Definition 24.** A measurable space  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  is said to be *standard Borel* if  $\mathcal{B}$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra of some Polish (i.e. separable and completely metrizable) topology on X.

A probability space  $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  is standard if  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  is standard Borel.

**Theorem 25** (Borel Isomorphism Theorem). Any two uncountable standard Borel spaces are Borel isomorphic. In particular, they all have cardinality continuum and are Borel isomorphic to  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

**Definition 26.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{C})$  be measurable spaces. If  $f: X \to Y$  is  $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C})$ -measurable and  $\mu$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{B}$ , the pushforward measure of  $\mu$  by f is the measure  $f_*\mu$  on  $\mathcal{C}$  defined by  $f_*\mu(\mathcal{C}) := \mu(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}))$ .

**Definition 27.** A function  $f: X \to Y$  between measure spaces  $(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{C}, \nu)$  is said to be a measure isomorphism if  $f_*\mu = \nu$ , and if there exist a  $\mu$ -conull set  $X_0 \subseteq X$  and a  $\nu$ -conull set  $Y_0 \subseteq Y$  such that  $f|_{X_0}: X_0 \to Y_0$  is a bijection and  $f|_{X_0}$  (resp.  $f^{-1}|_{Y_0}$ ) is  $\mu$ -measurable (resp.  $\nu$ -measurable).

**Theorem 28** (Measure Isomorphism Theorem). Any two atomless standard probability spaces are measure isomorphic. In particular, they are all measure isomorphic to  $([0,1],\lambda)$ .

## REFERENCES

- [Fol99] Gerald B. Folland. Real Analysis. Modern Techniques and Their Applications. 2nd ed. Pure and Applied Mathematics: A Wiley Series of Texts, Monographs and Tracts. John Wiley & Sons, 1999.
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