

# LEBESGUE INTEGRAL THEORY

Measure Theory, Integration, and Hilbert spaces

**Jaeho Shin**

Department of Mathematical Sciences, KAIST

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# Chapter 1

## Measure Theory

The goal of this course, especially in this chapter, is to provide a notion of “size” for subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  by constructing an appropriate function

$$m : \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0} \cup \{\infty\}$$

satisfying the following properties:

- (1)  $m(\emptyset) = 0$
- (2)  $m([b, a]) = b - a$
- (3) If  $E = \bigsqcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ , then  $m(E) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} m(E_n)$ .
- (4)  $m(E + h) = m(E)$  for all  $h \in \mathbb{R}$

The third and fourth properties are called **countable additivity** and **translation invariance**, respectively. By regarding  $m$  as a function that measures the size of sets, it seems very natural that  $m$  should satisfy the above properties. However, this is just our intuition! As a math student, the natural follow-up question is as follows:

**Does  $m$  exist? If it does, is  $m$  unique?**

In fact, such a function  $m$  does not exist. Then, what can we do next? One way to resolve this problem is to restrict the domain of  $m$ . By removing certain pathological sets, we can define a function  $m$  which satisfies some nice properties. This domain will be called “measurable sets” and the function  $m$  will be called the “Lebesgue measure”.

### 1.1 Preliminaries

Recall that the collection  $\{E_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$  of subsets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is said to be disjoint if  $E_\alpha \cap E_\beta = \emptyset$  whenever  $\alpha \neq \beta$ . We define the slightly weaker concept “almost disjoint” as follows:

**Definition 1.1.1**

Let  $\{E_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$  be a collection subsets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then  $\{E_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$  is said to be **almost disjoint** if  $\{\text{Int}(E_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$  is disjoint.

Note that a (closed) **rectangle**  $R$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is given by the product of  $d$  one-dimensional closed and bounded intervals

$$R = [a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2] \times \cdots \times [a_d, b_d],$$

where  $a_j \leq b_j$  are real numbers,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, d$ . The **volume** of the rectangle  $R$  is denoted by  $|R|$ , and is defined to be

$$|R| = (b_1 - a_1) \cdots (b_d - a_d).$$

Also, a **cube** is a rectangle for which  $b_1 - a_1 = b_2 - a_2 = \cdots = b_d - a_d$ . So if  $Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is a cube of common side length  $l$ , then  $|Q| = l^d$ .

**Lemma 1.1.1**

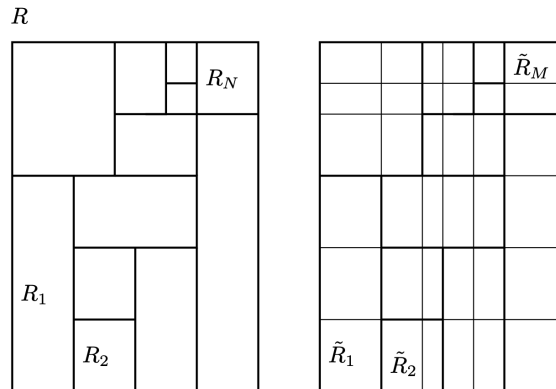
If a rectangle is the almost disjoint union of finitely many other rectangles, say  $R = \bigcup_{k=1}^N R_k$ , then

$$|R| = \sum_{k=1}^N |R_k|.$$

*Proof.* Consider the grid formed by extending indefinitely the sides of all rectangles  $R_1, \dots, R_N$ . This gives finitely many rectangles  $\tilde{R}_1, \dots, \tilde{R}_M$ , and a partition  $J_1, \dots, J_N$  of integers between 1 and  $M$  such that

$$R = \bigcup_{j=1}^M \tilde{R}_j \quad \text{and} \quad R_k = \bigcup_{j \in J_k} \tilde{R}_j \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq k \leq N$$

are almost disjoint.



**Figure 1.1:** The grid formed by the rectangles  $R_k$

For the rectangle  $R$ , it is clear that  $|R| = \sum_{j=1}^M |\tilde{R}_j|$ . By the same reason, we also have  $|R_k| = \sum_{j \in J_k} |\tilde{R}_j|$ . Therefore, one can obtain

$$|R| = \sum_{j=1}^M |\tilde{R}_j| = \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{j \in J_k} |\tilde{R}_j| = \sum_{k=1}^N |R_k|.$$

□

### Lemma 1.1.2

If  $R, R_1, \dots, R_N$  are rectangles, and  $R \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^N R_k$ , then

$$|R| \leq \sum_{k=1}^N |R_k|.$$

*Proof.* As we did in Lemma 1.1.1, we can find smaller rectangles  $\tilde{R}_1, \dots, \tilde{R}_M$ . Note that there exist  $J_0 \subseteq \{1, \dots, M\}$  such that  $R = \bigcup_{j \in J_0} \tilde{R}_j$ . Let  $R' := \bigcup_{j=1}^M \tilde{R}_j$ . Again, we can find a partition  $J_1, \dots, J_N$  of  $\{1, \dots, M\}$  such that

$$R_k = \bigcup_{j \in J_k} \tilde{R}_j \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq k \leq N.$$

Note that  $J_0, J_1, \dots, J_N$  need not be disjoint.

Since  $R \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^N R_k$ , we have  $J_0 \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^N J_k$ . Therefore, we can obtain

$$|R| = \sum_{j \in J_0} |\tilde{R}_j| \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{j \in J_k} |\tilde{R}_j| = \sum_{k=1}^N |R_k|.$$

This completes the proof. □

### Theorem 1.1.3

Every open set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  can be written uniquely as a countable union of disjoint open intervals.

*Proof.* For each  $x \in U$ , there exists an open interval, which contains  $x$ , contained in  $U$ . If  $a_x = \inf\{a < x : (a, x) \subseteq U\}$  and  $b_x = \sup\{b > x : (x, b) \subseteq U\}$ , then

$$x \in I_x := (a_x, b_x) \subseteq U.$$

Hence, we get  $U = \bigcup_{x \in U} I_x$ . Moreover, note that  $I_x$  is the largest open interval, which contains  $x$ , contained in  $U$ .

Suppose that two intervals  $I_x$  and  $I_y$  intersect. Then we have

$$x \in I_x \cup I_y \subseteq U;$$

by the maximality of  $I_x$ , we conclude that  $(I_x \cup I_y) \subseteq I_x$ . By the same argument, since  $(I_x \cup I_y) \subseteq I_y$ , we finally have  $I_x = I_y$ . Therefore, any two distinct intervals in  $\mathcal{C} := \{I_x\}_{x \in U}$  is disjoint.

We claim that  $\mathcal{C}$  is countable, i.e., it has countably many disjoint open intervals. Since each  $I_x$  contains a rational number, any two distinct intervals must contain distinct rationals. Hence, the collection  $\mathcal{C}$  must be countable.  $\square$

However, in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  for  $d \geq 2$ , the direct analogue of Theorem 1.1.3 is not valid (see Exercise 1.12). Instead, there is a substitute result as follows:

**Theorem 1.1.4**

*Every open subset  $\mathcal{O} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d \geq 1$ , can be written as a countable union of almost disjoint closed cubes.*

*Proof.*

$\square$

## 1.2 The exterior measure

### 1.3 Measurable sets and the Lebesgue measure



## 1.4 Measurable functions

## 1.5 Exercises

# Chapter 2

## Integration Theory

- 2.1 The Lebesgue integral: basic properties and convergence theorems
- 2.2 The space  $L^1$  of integrable functions
- 2.3 Fubini's theorem
- 2.4 A Fourier inversion formula
- 2.5 Exercises

# Chapter 3

## Differentiation and Integration

- 3.1 Differentiation of the integral
- 3.2 Good kernels and approximations to the identity
- 3.3 Differentiability of functions
- 3.4 Rectifiable curves and the isoperimetric inequality
- 3.5 Exercises

# Chapter 4

## Solution for exercises

# MAS441: Lebesgue Integral Theory Homework Problems

Solutions for the selected exercises

**Jaeho Shin**

Department of Mathematical Sciences, KAIST

## 4.1 Chapter 1

### Exercise 1.5

Suppose  $E$  is a given set, and  $\mathcal{O}_n$  is the open set:

$$\mathcal{O}_n = \{x : d(x, E) < 1/n\}.$$

Show:

- (a) If  $E$  is compact, then  $m(E) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\mathcal{O}_n)$ .
- (b) However, the conclusion in (a) may be false for  $E$  closed and unbounded; or  $E$  open and bounded.

*Proof.* (a) We first prove that  $\mathcal{O}_n$  is open for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . For any  $x \in \mathcal{O}_n$ , since  $d(x, E) < \frac{1}{n}$ , there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $d(x, E) + \epsilon < \frac{1}{n}$ . For any  $y \in B_d(x, \epsilon)$ , by the triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} d(y, E) &= \inf\{d(y, z) : z \in E\} \\ &\leq \inf\{d(y, x) + d(x, z) : z \in E\} \\ &< \epsilon + \inf\{d(x, z) : z \in E\} \\ &= \epsilon + d(x, E) < \frac{1}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we conclude that  $x \in B_d(x, \epsilon) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_n$ , that is,  $\mathcal{O}_n$  is open.

Recall that all open sets are measurable and the countable intersection of measurable sets is measurable. Then

$$\mathcal{O} := \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_n = \{x : d(x, E) = 0\}$$

is measurable. It is clear that  $E \subseteq \mathcal{O}$ , by definition. However, since the compactness of  $E$  implies that  $\bar{E} = E$ , note that

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, E) = 0 &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists y \neq x \text{ such that } y \in E \cap B_d(x, \epsilon) \\ &\iff x \in \bar{E} \\ &\iff x \in E \quad (\because E \text{ is compact.}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we get  $\mathcal{O} = E$ . Moreover, since  $\mathcal{O}_n \supseteq \mathcal{O}_{n+1}$ , for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , we have  $\mathcal{O}_n \searrow \mathcal{O}$ .

One more thing we need to check is whether  $m(\mathcal{O}_1)$  is finite or not. Note that the compactness of  $E$  implies that it is bounded, i.e., there exists  $N > 0$  such that  $E \subseteq B_d(\mathbf{0}, N)$  where  $\mathbf{0}$  is the origin. Then, the triangle inequality implies that  $\mathcal{O}_1 \subseteq B_d(\mathbf{0}, N+1)$ ; therefore,

$$m(\mathcal{O}_1) \leq m(B_d(\mathbf{0}, N+1)) < \infty.$$

Then, by Corollary 1.3.3 in the Textbook, since  $\{\mathcal{O}_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  are the measurable sets satisfying  $\mathcal{O}_n \searrow E$  and  $m(\mathcal{O}_1) < \infty$ , we conclude that

$$m(E) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\mathcal{O}_n).$$

(b) We first consider the case when  $E$  is closed and unbounded. Let  $E = \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then it is closed but it is unbounded. Note that

$$\mathcal{O}_n = \bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} \left( x - \frac{1}{n}, x + \frac{1}{n} \right) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+.$$

Although each interval  $(x - 1/n, x + 1/n)$  has length (or measure)  $2/n$ , but since there are infinitely many integers,  $m(\mathcal{O}_n)$  is infinite for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

On the other hand, since  $\mathbb{Z}$  is the countable union of singletons,  $\{x\}$  with  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and since each singleton has measure zero, it follows that  $\mathbb{Z}$  is measurable. Moreover, since these singletons are disjoint measurable sets, we have

$$m(\mathbb{Z}) = m\left(\bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} \{x\}\right) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} m(\{x\}) = 0.$$

Therefore, we can obtain  $m(E) \neq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\mathcal{O}_n)$ , in this case.

Likewise, let's consider the case when  $E$  is open and bounded. Since  $[0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}$  contains countably many elements, let's label them  $r_i$  where  $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  so that  $\{r_1, r_2, \dots\} = [0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ . Under this notation, define

$$E := \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( r_k - \frac{1}{2^{k+2}}, r_k + \frac{1}{2^{k+2}} \right)$$

which is open by being countable union of open intervals.

Recall that  $\mathcal{O}_n = \{x : d(x, E) < \frac{1}{n}\}$ . Hence, we clearly have  $\mathcal{O}_n \supseteq \mathcal{O}_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ; moreover, each  $\mathcal{O}_n$  is measurable by being an open set. Let

$$\mathcal{O} := \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_n = \{x : d(x, E) = 0\},$$

then, as we did before, we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, E) = 0 &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists y \neq x \text{ such that } y \in E \cap B_d(x, \epsilon) \\ &\iff x \in \bar{E}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we conclude that  $\mathcal{O} = \bar{E}$ . This implies that  $\mathcal{O}_n \searrow \bar{E}$  where  $m(\mathcal{O}_1) < \infty$  (since  $E$  is bounded, so is  $\mathcal{O}_1$ ); therefore, we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\mathcal{O}_n) = m(\bar{E}).$$

Here, since  $\bar{E}$  is a well-defined closed set, so it is measurable. Hence, this proves the existence of  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\mathcal{O}_n)$ .

For any  $x \in [0, 1]$  and  $n \geq 1$ , if  $x + \frac{1}{n} \leq 1$ , then there exists  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $r_m \in (x, x + \frac{1}{n})$  so that  $x \in \mathcal{O}_n$ ; likewise, if  $x + \frac{1}{n} > 1$ , then there exists  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $r_m \in (x - \frac{1}{n}, x)$  so that  $x \in \mathcal{O}_n$ . Hence, we have  $[0, 1] \subseteq \mathcal{O}_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then the monotonicity gives

$$1 = m([0, 1]) \leq m(\mathcal{O}_n) \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1.$$

Therefore, we conclude that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\mathcal{O}_n) \geq 1$ .

However, from the definition of  $E$ , the countable subadditivity gives that

$$m(E) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m\left(\left(r_k - \frac{1}{2^{k+2}}, r_k + \frac{1}{2^{k+2}}\right)\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Hence, we proved that

$$m(E) \neq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(\mathcal{O}_n).$$

□



## Exercise 1.8

Suppose  $L$  is a linear transformation on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Show that if  $E$  is measurable subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then so is  $L(E)$ , by proceeding as follows:

- (a) Note that if  $E$  is compact, so is  $L(E)$ . Hence if  $E$  is an  $F_\sigma$  set, so is  $L(E)$ .
- (b) Because  $L$  automatically satisfies the inequality

$$|L(x) - L(x')| \leq M|x - x'|$$

for some  $M$ , we can see that  $L$  maps any cube of side length  $l$  into a cube of side length  $c_d Ml$ , with  $c_d = 2\sqrt{d}$ . Now if  $m(E) = 0$ , there is a collection of cubes  $\{Q_j\}$  such that  $E \subset \bigcup_j Q_j$ , and  $\sum_j m(Q_j) < \epsilon$ . Thus  $m_*(L(E)) \leq c'\epsilon$ , and hence  $m(L(E)) = 0$ . Finally, use Corollary 3.5.

One can show that  $m(L(E)) = |\det L|m(E)$ ; see Problem 4 in the next chapter.

*Proof.* (a) Since we know that every linear transformation on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is Lipschitz, thus  $L$  is a continuous map. Hence, it maps a compact set  $E$  to a compact set, that is,  $L(E)$  is compact.

Assume that  $E$  is an  $F_\sigma$  set, i.e.  $E = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$  where  $\{F_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are closed sets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . We now claim that  $L(E)$  is also compact. To prove this, we first prove the following lemma:

**Lemma.** Every closed in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is a countable union of compact sets.

*Proof.* Let  $F$  be a closed set in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . For each  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , let

$$K_m := F \cap \overline{B_d(\mathbf{0}, m)}.$$

Since  $K_m$  is closed and bounded in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , thus it is compact. Also, it is clear that

$$F = \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} K_m;$$

therefore, any closed set  $F$  can be written as a countable union of compact sets.  $\square$

By lemma, each closed set  $F_n$  can be written as

$$F_n = \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} K_{n,m}$$

where each  $K_{n,m}$  is compact. Thus we get

$$E = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} K_{n,m}.$$

Then,  $L(E)$  can be expressed as

$$L(E) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} L(K_{n,m})$$

where each  $L(K_{n,m})$  is compact, by the above conclusion. Therefore, this implies that  $L(E)$  is a countable union of compact sets (which are closed in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ) so that it is a  $F_\sigma$  set.

(b) If  $m(E) = 0$ , then there exist a collection of closed cubes  $\{Q_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  such that

$$E \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} Q_j \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |Q_j| < \epsilon.$$

Let  $l_j$  be the side length of  $Q_j$ , for each  $j$ , then  $L(Q_j)$  is contained in a cube  $Q'_j$  of side length  $c_d M l_j$  where  $c_d = 2\sqrt{d}$ . Since

$$L(E) \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} L(Q_j) \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} Q'_j$$

thus

$$m_*(L(E)) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |Q'_j| = (c_d M)^d \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} l_j^d < \epsilon (c_d M)^d.$$

This proves that  $m_*(L(E)) = 0$ .

Note that since  $E$  is measurable, by Corollary 1.3.5, there exist an  $F_\sigma$  set  $F$  such that

$$m(E \triangle F) = 0.$$

Then, by part (a),  $L(F)$  is also  $F_\sigma$  set and since we have

$$L(E) \triangle L(F) \subseteq L(E \triangle F),$$

in general, thus

$$0 \leq m_*(L(E) \triangle L(F)) \leq m_*(L(E \triangle F)).$$

Since  $m(E \triangle F) = 0$  implies that  $m_*(L(E \triangle F)) = 0$ , we get

$$m_*(L(E) \triangle L(F)) = 0.$$

This implies that  $L(E)$  differs from an  $F_\sigma$  set  $L(F)$  by a set of measure zero; therefore,  $L(E)$  is measurable and we conclude that  $m(L(E)) = 0$ .  $\square$

## Exercise 1.11

Let  $A$  be the subset of  $[0, 1]$  which consists of all numbers which do not have the digit 4 appearing in their decimal expansion. Find  $m(A)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $A_n$  denote the set

$$A_n := \{x \in [0, 1] : \text{first } n \text{ digits of } x \text{ do not contain } 4\}.$$

for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then  $A_{n+1} \subseteq A_n$ , for all  $n$ , and

$$A = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n.$$

This implies that  $A_n \searrow A$ .

Note that each  $A_n$  is a finite union of intervals. For instance, since  $A_1$  is

$$A_1 = \left[0, \frac{4}{10}\right) \cup \left[\frac{5}{10}, 1\right],$$

thus it is measurable and has measure  $9/10$ . Similarly,  $A_2$  is obtained from  $A_1$  by removing 9 subintervals of length  $1/100$ , corresponding to numbers whose second digit is 4. Therefore, we get  $m(A_2) = (9/10)^2$ . By repeating this procedure, we have

$$m(A_n) = \left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^n \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+.$$

By Corollary 1.3.3, since  $\{A_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are measurable sets with  $A_n \searrow A$  and  $m(A_1) < \infty$ , thus we have

$$m(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(A_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^n = 0.$$

□

## Exercise 1.12

Theorem 1.3 states that every open set in  $\mathbb{R}$  is the disjoint union of open intervals. The analogue in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d \geq 2$ , is generally false. Prove the following:

- (a) An open disc in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is not the disjoint union of open rectangles.  
[Hint: What happens to the boundary of any of these rectangles?]
- (b) An open connected set  $\Omega$  is the disjoint union of open rectangles if and only if  $\Omega$  is itself an open rectangle.

*Proof.* (a) Suppose not. Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the collection of disjoint open rectangles whose union is an open disc in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Consider  $R \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $x \in \text{bd}(R)$  which does not lie on the boundary of disc. Since  $x \in D$ , where  $D$  denotes the disc, there exist  $R' \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $x \in R'$ . Hence, there exist a basis element  $B$  (which is an  $\epsilon$ -ball centered at  $x$ ) such that

$$x \in B \subseteq R'.$$

Since  $x \in \text{bd}(R) = \overline{R} \cap \overline{(\mathbb{R}^d \setminus R)}$  and  $B$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ , so  $B$  intersects  $R$  at some point  $y$  other than  $x$ . Since  $y \in B \subseteq R'$  and  $y \in R$ , we have  $R \cap R' \neq \emptyset$  which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $D$  cannot be the disjoint union of open rectangles.

(b) Suppose that  $\Omega = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{C}} U$  where the elements of  $\mathcal{C}$  are disjoint open rectangles. Let  $\emptyset \neq \mathcal{A} \subsetneq \mathcal{C}$ . Then

$$\Omega = \left( \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{A}} U \right) \cup \left( \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{C} \setminus \mathcal{A}} U \right)$$

gives a separation of  $\Omega$  which contradicts to the connectedness of  $\Omega$ . Therefore, such  $\mathcal{A}$  cannot exist, i.e.,  $|\mathcal{C}| = 1$  so that  $\Omega$  is an open rectangle. The converse is trivial; hence, the proof is done.  $\square$

## Exercise 1.16

Suppose  $\{E_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is a countable family of measurable subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m(E_k) < \infty.$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : x \in E_k, \text{ for infinitely many } k\} \\ &= \limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} (E_k). \end{aligned}$$

(a) Show that  $E$  is measurable.

(b) Prove  $m(E) = 0$ .

[Hint: Write  $E = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k \geq n} E_k$ .]

*Proof.* (a) Recall that  $\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} (E_k)$  is obtained by

$$\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} (E_k) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k.$$

This is because

$$\begin{aligned} x \in E_k \text{ for infinitely many } k &\iff x \in \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \\ &\iff x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k. \end{aligned}$$

Since each  $E_k$  is measurable, so is  $\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k$ . Likewise, this implies that  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k$  is also measurable. Therefore, we conclude that  $E$  is measurable.

(b)  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m(E_k) < \infty$  implies that, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N > 0$  such that

$$\sum_{k=N}^{\infty} m(E_k) < \epsilon.$$

Then, by the countable subadditivity, we have

$$m\left(\bigcup_{k=N}^{\infty} E_k\right) \leq \sum_{k=N}^{\infty} m(E_k) < \epsilon.$$

However, since the monotonicity implies that

$$m(E) = m\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k\right) \leq m\left(\bigcup_{k=N}^{\infty} E_k\right) < \epsilon,$$

we conclude that  $m(E) = 0$ . □

## Exercise 1.17

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of measurable functions on  $[0, 1]$  with  $|f_n(x)| < \infty$  for a.e  $x$ . Show that there exists a sequence  $c_n$  of positive real numbers such that

$$\frac{f_n(x)}{c_n} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{a.e. } x$$

[Hint: Pick  $c_n$  such that  $m(\{x : |f_n(x)/c_n| > 1/n\}) < 2^{-n}$ , and apply the Borel-Cantelli lemma.]

*Proof.* The fact that  $|f_n(x)| < \infty$  for a.e  $x$  implies that

$$m(\{x : |f_n(x)| = \infty\}) = 0.$$

Let  $A$  denote the set  $\{x : |f(x)| = \infty\}$ . If we let  $A_k := \{x : |f_n(x)| > k/n\}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then we have  $A_k \searrow A$  since

$$A_{k+1} \subseteq A_k \quad \text{for all } k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

and

$$\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k = \{x : |f_n(x)| = \infty\}.$$

Therefore, we get

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} m(A_k) = m(A) = 0.$$

This implies that there exists  $c_n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $m(A_{c_n}) < 2^{-n}$ , i.e.

$$m\left(\left\{x : |f_n(x)| > \frac{c_n}{n}\right\}\right) < 2^{-n}. \quad (*)$$

Define, for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,

$$E_n = \left\{x : \left|\frac{f_n(x)}{c_n}\right| > \frac{1}{n}\right\}.$$

Then  $(*)$  implies that  $m(E_n) < 2^{-n}$  for all  $n$ . Note that  $\{E_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a countable family of measurable sets with

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} m(E_n) < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1 < \infty;$$

therefore, by the Borel-Cantelli lemma, we get  $m(E) = 0$  where

$$E := \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (E_n).$$

For any  $x \in E^c$ , there exists  $N > 0$  such that  $x \notin E_n$  for all  $n \geq N$ . This implies that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f_n(x)}{c_n} \right| = 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in E^c.$$

Therefore,  $m(E) = 0$  implies that

$$\frac{f_n(x)}{c_n} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{a.e. } x.$$

□

## Exercise 1.20

Show that there exist closed sets  $A$  and  $B$  with  $m(A) = m(B) = 0$ , but  $m(A+B) > 0$ :

- (a) In  $\mathbb{R}$ , let  $A = \mathcal{C}$  (the Cantor set),  $B = \mathcal{C}/2$ . Note that  $A + B \supset [0, 1]$ .
- (b) In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , observe that if  $A = I \times \{0\}$  and  $B = \{0\} \times I$  (where  $I = [0, 1]$ ), then  $A + B = I \times I$ .

*Proof.* (a) It is clear that every number in  $[0, 1]$  has a ternary expansion

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k}, \quad \text{where } a_k = 0, 1, \text{ or } 2.$$

The algorithm for finding  $a_k$  is as following: If  $x = 1$ , then  $a_k = 2$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ; if  $x < 1$ , take  $a_1 = \lfloor 3x \rfloor$  where  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to  $x$ . Similarly, we take  $a_2 = \lfloor 3(3x - a_1) \rfloor$  and by repeating this procedure, we have

$$a_n = \left\lfloor 3^n x - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_k 3^{n-k} \right\rfloor \quad \text{for all } n \geq 2.$$

Note that the ternary expansion is not unique since, for example,  $1/3 = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} 2/3^k$ .

Since  $A = \mathcal{C}$ , the Cantor set,  $A$  consists of all numbers which have a ternary expansion with  $a_k \in \{0, 2\}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . By the same reason, since  $B = \mathcal{C}/2$ , it consists of all numbers which have a ternary expansion with  $a_k \in \{0, 1\}$ .

Now we claim that, for any  $x \in [0, 1]$ , there exist  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$  such that  $x = a + b$ . Let  $x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k}$ , where  $a_k \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ , be a ternary expansion of  $x$ . Likewise, let

$$a = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k} \quad \text{and} \quad b = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k 3^{-k}$$

be ternary expansions of  $a$  and  $b$ , respectively. By letting,

$$a_k = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } x_k = 2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad b_k = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x_k = 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

we clearly have  $x = a + b$  (since  $x_k = a_k + b_k$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ). Therefore,

$$[0, 1] \subseteq A + B.$$

(b) Let  $x = (x_1, x_2) \in A + B$ , then  $x = a + b$  for some  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . Since  $a$  and  $b$  are of the form  $a = (a', 0)$  and  $b = (0, b')$  where  $a', b' \in I$ . Then

$$(x_1, x_2) = (a', 0) + (0, b') \implies x_1 = a' \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = b';$$

therefore,  $(x_1, x_2) \in I \times I$ .



Conversely, assume that  $x = (x_1, x_2) \in I \times I$ . Since each  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  belongs to  $I$ , it is clear that  $(x_1, 0) \in A$ ,  $(0, x_2) \in B$ , and

$$x = (x_1, 0) + (0, x_2) \in A + B.$$

Therefore, we get  $I \times I \subseteq A + B$  and this completes the proof.

*In part (a), note that both  $A$  and  $B$  are closed with measure zero, but  $A + B$  has positive measure since  $A + B \supset [0, 1]$ . Likewise, note that  $A$  and  $B$  in part (b) are also closed with measure zero, but  $A + B = I \times I$  has positive measure, obviously.  $\square$*

## Exercise 1.21

Prove that there is a continuous function that maps a Lebesgue measurable set to a non-measurable set.

[Hint: Consider a non-measurable subset of  $[0, 1]$ , and its inverse image in  $\mathcal{C}$  by the function  $F$  in Exercise 2.]

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{C}$  denote the Cantor set. Define a map  $f : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  to be

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_k}{2^k} \quad \text{if } x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k}, \text{ where } b_k = a_k/2.$$

In this definition, we choose the expansion of  $x$  in which  $a_k = 0$  or  $2$ . We first claim that  $f$  is well-defined and continuous on  $\mathcal{C}$ , and moreover it is surjective.

**(Well-definedness).** Since we proved that every number in  $[0, 1]$  has at least one ternary expansion, the only problem is that some numbers (such as  $1/3$ ) have more than one ternary expansions. However, such a number can have a unique ternary expansion that consists of all 0's and 2's, because the only problem arises when one representation terminates while the other doesn't. If a representation terminates, then it must end with 2 (if it contains only 0's and 2's). However, then the other expansion ends with  $1222\cdots$ ; therefore, it contains 1 in its expansion. This proves that each element of  $\mathcal{C}$  has the unique ternary expansion consists of only 0's and 2's; hence, the map  $f$  is well-defined.

**(Continuity).** For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $1/2^n < \epsilon$ . Let  $\delta = 1/3^n$ , then for any  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$  with  $|x - y| < \delta$ , first  $n$  digits of their ternary expansion must be the same. Otherwise, one must contain 1 in its expansion or their difference must be greater than or equal to  $\delta$ . Therefore, for such  $x$  and  $y$ , we have

$$|f(x) - f(y)| < \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = \frac{1}{2^n} < \epsilon.$$

Therefore, we conclude that  $f$  is continuous.

**(Surjectivity).** As we did in Exercise 1.20, every number in  $[0, 1]$  also has a binary expansion

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k 2^{-k}, \quad \text{where } b_k = 0 \text{ or } 1.$$

If  $x < 1$ , then  $b_k = 1$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ; if  $x < 1$ , then  $b_1 = \lfloor 2x \rfloor$  and

$$b_n = \left\lfloor 2^n x - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_k 2^{n-k} \right\rfloor \quad \text{for all } n \geq 2.$$

Hence, for any  $y \in [0, 1]$ , it has a binary expression

$$y = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k 2^{-k}.$$

Let  $a_k := 2b_k$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Since  $a_k$  is either 0 or 2, for all  $k$ ,

$$x := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k}$$

belongs to  $\mathcal{C}$ . Moreover, it is clear that  $f(x) = y$ ; therefore,  $f$  is surjective.

Note that the set  $\mathcal{N}$  defined in the Theorem 1.3.6 is non-measurable subset of  $[0, 1]$ . Let  $E := f^{-1}(\mathcal{N}) \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ . Since  $E$  is a subset of the measure zero set  $\mathcal{C}$ , we have  $m(E) = 0$ . This implies that  $E$  is measurable. Therefore,  $f$  is a continuous function which maps the Lebesgue measurable set  $E$  to a non-measurable set  $\mathcal{N}$ .  $\square$

## Exercise 1.22

Let  $\chi_{[0,1]}$  be the characteristic function of  $[0, 1]$ . Show that there is no everywhere continuous function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(x) = \chi_{[0,1]}(x) \quad \text{almost everywhere.}$$

*Proof.* Suppose that such a continuous function  $f$  exists. We first claim that

$$f(x) = 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in (-\infty, 0).$$

Assume that there exists  $x_0 \in (-\infty, 0)$  such that  $f(x_0) \neq 0$ . Then, since  $f$  is continuous, for any  $0 < \epsilon < |f(x_0)|$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon.$$

Then, for any  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0]$ , the triangle inequality implies that

$$|f(x)| \geq |f(x_0)| - |f(x) - f(x_0)| > |f(x_0)| - \epsilon > 0.$$

Thus,  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0] \subseteq \{x : f(x) \neq \chi_{[0,1]}(x)\}$  so that

$$m(\{x : f(x) \neq \chi_{[0,1]}(x)\}) \geq \delta > 0$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore, we have  $f|_{(-\infty, 0)} = 0$ .

By the same argument, we can check that  $f|_{(0,1)} = 1$ . If there exists  $x_0 \in (0, 1)$  such that  $f(x_0) \neq 1$ , then for any  $0 < \epsilon < |f(x_0) - 1|$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$B_d(x_0, \delta) \subseteq (0, 1) \quad \text{and} \quad |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } x \in B_d(x_0, \delta).$$

Therefore, for any  $x \in B_d(x_0, \delta)$ , the triangle inequality gives

$$|f(x) - 1| \geq |f(x_0) - 1| - |f(x) - f(x_0)| > |f(x_0) - 1| - \epsilon > 0.$$

Thus,  $B_d(x_0, \delta) \subseteq \{x : f(x) \neq \chi_{[0,1]}(x)\}$  so that

$$m(\{x : f(x) \neq \chi_{[0,1]}(x)\}) \geq 2\delta > 0$$

which is again a contradiction. Therefore, we conclude that  $f|_{(0,1)} = 1$ .

However, since  $f|_{(-\infty, 0)} = 0$  and  $f|_{(0,1)} = 1$ , it follows that  $f$  cannot be continuous at 0, no matter what value is assigned to  $f(0)$ . This contradicts to the assumption that  $f$  is a continuous function on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Therefore, we conclude that there is no everywhere continuous function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x) = \chi_{[0,1]}(x)$  almost everywhere.  $\square$

## Exercise 1.26

Suppose  $A \subset E \subset B$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are measurable sets of finite measure. Prove that if  $m(A) = m(B)$ , then  $E$  is measurable.

*Proof.* Since  $A$  and  $B$  are measurable, so is  $B \setminus A$ . Note that  $A$  and  $B \setminus A$  are disjoint measurable sets. Therefore, we have

$$m(B) = m(A \cup (B \setminus A)) = m(A) + m(B \setminus A),$$

and since  $m(A) = m(B)$ , we get  $m(B \setminus A) = 0$ .

Note that  $E \setminus A \subseteq B \setminus A$ , thus we have

$$m_*(E \setminus A) \leq m_*(B \setminus A) = 0.$$

Since  $m_*(E \setminus A) = 0$ , it is measurable. Then, since  $E = A \cup (E \setminus A)$  is a union of two measurable set, thus we conclude that  $E$  is also measurable.  $\square$

## Exercise 1.28

Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $m_*(E) > 0$ . Prove that for each  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , there exists an open interval  $I$  so that

$$m_*(E \cap I) \geq \alpha m_*(I).$$

Loosely speaking, this estimate shows that  $E$  contains almost a whole interval. [Hint: Choose an open set  $\mathcal{O}$  that contains  $E$ , and such that  $m_*(E) \geq \alpha m_*(\mathcal{O})$ . Write  $\mathcal{O}$  as the countable union of disjoint open intervals, and show that one of these intervals must satisfy the desired property.]

*Proof.* For any  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , let  $\mathcal{O}$  be an open set containing  $E$  such that  $m_*(E) \geq \alpha m_*(\mathcal{O})$ . Note that  $\mathcal{O}$  can be written as a countable union of disjoint open intervals so that

$$E = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} I_k$$

where  $\{I_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  are disjoint open intervals. Then we have

$$E = E \cap \mathcal{O} = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (E \cap I_k);$$

hence, by the countable subadditivity,

$$m_*(E) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m_*(E \cap I_k).$$

If there is no open interval  $I$  satisfying  $m_*(E \cap I) \geq \alpha m_*(I)$ , since  $\{I_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  are disjoint open sets, we have

$$m_*(E) < \alpha \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m_*(I_k) = \alpha m_*(\mathcal{O}) \leq m_*(E)$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore, there exist  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that

$$m_*(E \cap I_k) \geq \alpha m_*(I_k)$$

where  $I_k$  is an open interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ . □

## Exercise 1.30

If  $E$  and  $F$  are measurable, and  $m(E) > 0$ ,  $m(F) > 0$ , prove that

$$E + F = \{x + y : x \in E, y \in F\}$$

contains an interval.

*Proof.* Note that  $-F = \{-x : x \in F\}$  is also measurable with  $m(-F) > 0$  since  $F$  is measurable. By the Exercise 1.28, for any  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , there exist open intervals  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  such that

$$m(E \cap I_1) \geq \alpha m(I_1) \quad \text{and} \quad m(-F \cap I_2) \geq \alpha m(I_2).$$

Without loss of generality, assume that  $m(I_2) \leq m(I_1)$ . Then, since they are intervals, there exists  $h \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $I_2 + h \subseteq I_1$ . (Here, note that  $I_2 + h := \{x + h : x \in I_2\}$ .) For convenience, let  $l = m(I_2) > 0$ . Then, for any  $0 < |r| < l$ , we have

$$m(I_1 \cap (I_2 + h + r)) \geq l - |r| > 0.$$

This implies that

$$I_1 \cap (I_2 + h + r) \neq \emptyset;$$

hence, there exist  $e \in E$ ,  $f \in F$  such that

$$e = -f + h + r.$$

In other words, for any  $0 < |r| < l$ ,

$$h + r = e + f$$

for some  $e \in E$  and  $f \in F$ . Therefore, we conclude that

$$(h - l, h + l) \subseteq E + F,$$

that is,  $E + F$  contains an interval. □

## Exercise 1.37

Suppose  $\Gamma$  is a curve  $y = f(x)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , where  $f$  is continuous. Show that  $m(\Gamma) = 0$ .  
 [Hint: Cover  $\Gamma$  by rectangles, using the uniform continuity of  $f$ .]

*Proof.* For each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , define

$$\Gamma_n := \{(x, f(x)) : x \in [n, n+1]\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Since  $f$  is continuous and  $[n, n+1]$  is compact, thus  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[n, n+1]$ . This implies that, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|x - y| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon.$$

Note that there exists  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $1/N < \delta$ . Let

$$I_i := \left[ n + \frac{i-1}{N}, n + \frac{i}{N} \right]$$

for each  $1 \leq i \leq N$ . Since, for any  $x, y \in I_i$ , we have  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ ; thus

$$f(x) \in \left[ f\left(n + \frac{i-1}{N}\right) - \epsilon, f\left(n + \frac{i-1}{N}\right) + \epsilon \right]$$

for all  $x \in I_i$ . Let

$$R_i := \left[ f\left(n + \frac{i-1}{N}\right) - \epsilon, f\left(n + \frac{i-1}{N}\right) + \epsilon \right] \times I_i$$

for each  $1 \leq i \leq N$ . Then, we have

$$\Gamma_n \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^N R_i \implies m_*(\Gamma_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^N m_*(R_i) = N \left( 2\epsilon \cdot \frac{1}{N} \right) = 2\epsilon.$$

Since  $\epsilon > 0$  is chosen arbitrarily, we have  $m_*(\Gamma_n) = 0$ , that is,  $\Gamma_n$  is measurable and  $m(\Gamma_n) = 0$ . Finally, since we have

$$\Gamma = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} \Gamma_n,$$

$\Gamma$  is measurable and by countable subadditivity, we get

$$m(\Gamma) \leq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} m(\Gamma_n) = 0$$

□



## 4.2 Section 2