Real analysis

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# Preface

This is a brief note of  $Real\ Analysis$  by Elias M. Stein & Rami Shakarchi.

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# Chapter 1

# Measure Theory

## 1.1 Preliminaries

The **open ball** in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  centered at x and of radius r is defined by

$$B_r(x) = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^d : |y - x| < r \}.$$

A subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is **open** if for every  $x \in E$  there exists r > 0 with  $B_r(x) \subset E$ . By definition, a set is **closed** if its complement is open.

We note that any (not necessarily countable) union of open sets is open, while in general the intersection of only finitely many open sets is open. A similar statement holds for the class of closed sets, if one interchanges the roles of unions and intersections.

A set *E* is **bounded** if it is contained in some ball of finite radius. A bounded set is **compact** if it is also closed. Compact sets enjoy the **Heine-Borel covering property**:

• Assume E is compact,  $E \subset \bigcup_{\alpha} O_{\alpha}$ , and each  $O_{\alpha}$  is open. Then there are finitely many of the open sets,  $O_{\alpha_1}, O_{\alpha_2}, \dots, O_{\alpha_N}$ , such that  $E \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^n O_{\alpha_j}$ .

In words, any covering of a compact set by a collection of open sets contains a finite subcovering.

A point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is a **limit point** of the set E if for every r > 0, the ball  $B_r(x)$  contains points of E. This means that there are points in E which are arbitrarily close to x. An **isolated point** of E is a point  $x \in E$  such that there exists an r > 0 where  $B_r(x) \cap E$  is equal to  $\{x\}$ .

A point  $x \in E$  is an **interior point** of E if there exists r > 0 such that  $B_r(x) \subset E$ . The set of all interior points of E is called the **interior** of E. Also,

the **closure**  $\overline{E}$  of the E consists of the union of E and all its *limit points*. The **boundary** of a set E, denoted by  $\partial E$ , is the set of points which are in the closure of E but not in the interior of E.

Note that the closure of a set is a closed set; every point in E is a limit point of E; and a set is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points. Finally, a closed set E is **perfect** if E does not have any isolated points.

**Lemma 1.1.** If a rectangle is the almost disjoint union of finitely many other rectangles, say  $R = \bigcup_{k=1}^{N} R_k$ , then

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

**Lemma 1.2.** If  $R, R_1, \dots, R_N$  are rectangles, and  $R \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^N R_k$ , then

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

Proof.

Every open subset O of  $\mathbb R$  can be written uniquely as a countable union of disjoint open intervals.

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

The Cantor set C is by definition the intersection of all  $C_k$ 's:

$$\mathcal{C} = \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} C_k.$$

The set C is not empty, since all end-points of the intervals in  $C_k$  (all k) belong to C. Despite its simple construction, the Cantor set enjoys many interesting topological and analytical properties. For instance, C is closed and bounded, hence compact. Also, C is totally disconnected: given any  $x, y \in C$  there exists  $z \notin C$  that lies between x and y. Finally, C is perfect: it has no isolated points.

In terms of cardinality the Cantor set is rather large: it is not countable. Since it can be mapped to the interval [0,1], the Cantor set has the cardinality of the continuum. However, from the point view of "length" the size f C is small. Roughly speaking, it has length zero.

## 1.2 The exterior measure

**Definition 1.1.** If E is any subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , the **exterior measure** of E is

$$m_*(E) = \inf \sum_{j=1}^\infty |Q_j|,$$

where the infimum is taken over all countable coverings  $E \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} Q_i$  by closed cubes. In general we have  $0 < m_*(E) < \infty$ .

- It would not suffice to allow finite sums in the definition of  $m_*(E)$ . The quantity that would be obtained if one considered only coverings of E by finite unions of cubes is in general larger than  $m_*(E)$ .
- One can, however, replace the coverings by cubes, with coverings by rectangles; or with coverings by balls.

**Example 1.1.** The exterior measure of a closed cube is equal to its volume.

Proof.

We consider an arbitrary covering  $Q \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} Q_j$  by cubes, where  $Q_j$  is closed for  $j = 1, 2, \dots$  Then it suffices to prove that

$$|Q| \le \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |Q_j|.$$

**Example 1.2.** The exterior measure of a open cube is equal to its volume.

**Example 1.3.** The exterior measure of a rectangle is equal to its volume.

Proof.

Arguing as in the first example, we see that  $|R| \leq m_*(R)$ . To obtain the reverse inequality, consider a grid in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  formed by cubes of side length 1/k, then let k tend to infinity yields  $m_*(R) \leq |R|$ .

**Example 1.4.** The Cantor set C has exterior measure 0.

### Properties of the exterior measure

From the definition we know that: - For every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a covering  $E \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} Q_j$  with

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} m_*(Q_j) \le m_*(E) + \epsilon.$$

### Proposition 1.1.

- 1. (Monotonicity) If  $E_1 \subset E_2$ , then  $m_*(E_1) \leq m_*(E_2)$ . 2. (Countable sub-additivity) If  $E = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j$ , then  $m_*(E) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} m_*(E_j)$ .
- 3. If  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ , then  $m_*(E) = \inf m_*(O)$ , where the infimum is taken over all open sets O containing E. Proof.

It suffices to prove that  $m_*(E) \geq \inf m_*(O)$ . Notice that for any closed cube  $Q_j$ , there exists an open set  $S_j$  which contains  $Q_j$  and such that  $|S_i| \leq (1+\epsilon)|Q_i|$  for a fixed  $\epsilon > 0$ .

4. If  $E = E_1 \cup E_2$ , and  $d(E_1, E_2) > 0$ , then

$$m_*(E) = m_*(E_1) + m_*(E_2).$$

5. If a set E is the countable union of almost disjoint cubes  $E = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} Q_j$ , then

$$m_*(E) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |Q_j|.$$

Proof.

Consider constructing a family of cubes that are at a finite distance from one another, so we can use proposition 4.

# 1.3 Measurable sets and the Lebesgue measure

The notion of measurability isolates a collection of subsets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  for which the exterior measure satisfies all our desired properties, including additivity (and in fact countable additivity) for disjoint unions of sets.

There are a number of different ways of defining measurability, but these all turn out to be equivalent. Probably the simplest and most intuitive is the following: A subset E of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is **Lebesgue measurable**, or simply **measurable**, if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an open set O with  $E \subset O$  and

$$m_*(\mathcal{O} - E) \le \epsilon$$
.

This should be compared to Proposition 1.1 3, which holds for all sets E. If E is measurable, we define its **Lebesgue measure** (or **measure**) m(E) by

$$m(E) = m_*(E).$$

Immediately from the definition, we find:

### Proposition 1.2.

- 1. Every open set in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is measurable.
- 2. If  $m_*(E) = 0$ , then E is measurable. In particular, if F is a subset of a set of exterior measure 0, then F is measurable.
- 3. A countable union of measurable sets is measurable.
- 4. Closed sets are measurable. Proof.

Since any closed set F can be written as the union of compact sets, say  $F = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} F \cap B_k$ , where  $B_k$  denotes the closed ball of radius k centered at the origin, it suffices to prove that compact sets are measurable.

5. The complement of a measurable set is measurable.

For every positive integer n we choose an open set  $O_n$  with  $E \subset O_n$  and  $m_*(\mathcal{O}_n - E) \leq 1/n$ . Notice that

$$(E^c - \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty \mathcal{O}_n^c) \subset (\mathcal{O}_n - E)$$

then  $E^c$  is measurable since  $E^c = (E^c - \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_n^c) \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_n^c$ . 6. A countable intersection of measurable sets is measurable.

To prove the fourth proposition, we need the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.3.** If F is closed, K is compact, and these sets are disjoint, then d(F,K) > 0.

**Theorem 1.1.** If  $E_1, E_2, ...,$  are disjoint measurable sets, and  $E = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_j$ , then

$$m(E) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} m(E_j).$$

Proof.

If  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_N$ , are compact and disjoint, then obviously for any  $j, k, j \neq k$ ,  $d(F_j,F_k)>0$ , so  $m\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^N F_j\right)=\sum_{j=1}^N m(F_j)$ . If each  $E_j$  is bounded, we can choose a closed subset  $F_i$  for  $E_i$  with  $m_*(E_i - F_i) \le \epsilon/2^j$  for each j. Then

$$m(E) \geq \sum_{i=1}^N m(F_j) \geq \sum_{i=1}^N m(E_j) - \epsilon$$

Letting N tend to infinity, since  $\epsilon$  is arbitrary we find that

$$m(E) \geq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} m(E_j).$$

In the general case, we select any sequence of cubes  $\{Q_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  that increases to  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , in the sense that  $Q_k \subset Q_{k+1}$  for all  $k \geq 1$  and  $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} Q_k = \mathbb{R}^d$ . We then let  $S_1 = Q_1$  and  $S_k = Q_k - Q_{k-1}$  for  $k \geq 2$ . If we define measurable sets by  $E_{i,k} = E_i \cap S_k$ , then

$$m(E)=\sum_{j,k}m(E_{j,k})=\sum_j\sum_km(E_{j,k})=\sum_jm(E_j).$$

Corollary 1.1. Suppose  $E_1, E_2, ...$  are measurable subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

• If 
$$E_k \nearrow E$$
, then  $m(E) = \lim_{N \to \infty} m(E_N)$ .

• If  $E_k \searrow E$  and  $m(E_k) < \infty$  for some k, then  $m(E) = \lim_{N \to \infty} m(E_N)$ .

**Theorem 1.2.** Suppose E is measurable subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then for every  $\epsilon > 0$ :

- 1. There exists an open set O with  $E \subset O$  and  $m(\mathcal{O} E) \leq \epsilon$ .
- 2. There exists a closed set F with  $F \subset E$  and  $m(E F) \leq \epsilon$ .
- 3. If m(E) is finite, there exists a compact set K with  $K \subset E$  and  $m(E-K) \le \epsilon$ .
- 4. If m(E) is finite, there exists a finite union  $F = \bigcup_{j=1}^{N} Q_j$  of closed cubes such that

$$m(E\triangle F) \le \epsilon$$
.

Proof.

Choose a family of closed cubes  $\{Q_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  so that

$$E \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} Q_j \ and \ \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |Q_j| \leq m(E) + \epsilon/2.$$

Since  $m(E) < \infty$ , then series converges and there exists N > 0 such that  $\sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} |Q_j| \le \epsilon/2$ . If  $F = \bigcup_{j=1}^{N} Q_j$ , then

$$\begin{split} m(E\triangle F) &= m(E-F) + m(F-E) \\ &\leq m\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty}Q_j - F\right) + m\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty}Q_j - E\right) \\ &\leq m\left(\bigcup_{j=n+1}^{\infty}Q_j\right) + m\left(\bigcup_{j=n+1}^{\infty}Q_j\right) - m(E) \\ &\leq \sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty}|Q_j| + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}|Q_j| - m(E) \\ &\leq \epsilon. \end{split}$$

## 1.3.1 Invariance properties of Lebesgue measure

# 1.3.2 $\sigma$ -algebra and Borel sets

**Borel**  $\sigma$ -algebra in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , denoted by  $B_{\mathbb{R}^d}$ , is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  that contains all open sets. Elements of this  $\sigma$ -algebra are called **Borel sets**. Since we observe that any intersection (not necessarily countable) of  $\sigma$ -algebra is again a  $\sigma$ -algebra, we may define  $B_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  as the intersection of all  $\sigma$ -algebras that contain the open sets. This shows the existence and uniqueness of the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra.

*Remark.* There exists Lebesgue measurable sets that are not Borel sets. (See Exercise ???ref(exr: #35)

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## 1.3.3 Construction of a non-measurable set

### 1.3.4 Axiom of choice

## 1.4 Measurable functions

## 1.4.1 Definition and basic properties

The starting point is the notion of a **characteristic function** of a set E, which is defined by

$$\chi_E(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in E, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin E. \end{cases}$$

For the Riemann integral it is in effect the class of **step functions** that build the blocks of integration theory , with each give as a finite sum

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \chi_{R_k}$$

where each  $R_k$  is a rectangle, and the  $a_k$  are constants.

For the lebesgue integral we need a more general notion. A **simple function** is a finite sum

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \chi_{E_k}$$

where each  $E_k$  is a measurable set of finite measure, and the  $a_k$  are constants.

A function f defined on a measurable subset E of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is **measurable**, if for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , the set

$$f^{-1}([-\infty,a)) = \{x \in E : f(x) < a\}$$

is measurable. Note that this definition applies to extended-valued functions, so we use  $f^{-1}([-\infty, a))$  instead of  $f^{-1}((-\infty, a))$ .

### Proposition 1.3.

- 1. The finite-valued function f is measurable iff  $f^{-1}(O)$  is measurable for every open set O, and iff  $f^{-1}(F)$  is measurable for every closed set F. (Note that this property also applies to extended-valued functions, if we make the additional hypothesis that both  $f^{-1}(\infty)$  and  $f^{-1}(-\infty)$  are measurable sets since  $[-\infty, a) = \{-\infty\} \cup (\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (-n, a))$ .)
- 2. If f is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then f is measurable. If f is measurable and finite-valued, and  $\Phi$  is continuous, then  $\Phi \circ f$  is measurable. (Note that it is not true that  $f \circ \Phi$  is measurable. See exercise 35.) Proof.
  - $\Phi$  is continuous, so  $\Phi^{-1}((-\infty,a))$  is open set O.

3. Suppose  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence of measurable functions. Then

$$\sup_n f_n(x), \quad \inf_n f_n(x), \quad \limsup_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) \quad and \quad \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n(x)$$

are measurable.

4. If  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a collection of measurable functions, and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = f(x),$$

then f is measurable.

- 5. If f and g are measurable, then
- (i) The integer powers  $f^k$ ,  $k \ge 1$  are measurable.
- (ii) f + g and fg are measurable if both f and g are finite-valued.
- 6. Suppose f is measurable, and f(x) = g(x) for a.e. x. Then g is measurable.

## 1.4.2 Approximation by simple functions or step functions

### Theorem 1.3.

Suppose f is a non-negative measurable function on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then there exists an increasing sequence of non-negative simple functions  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  that converges pointwise to f, namely,

$$\varphi_k(x) \leq \varphi_{k+1}(x) \ \ and \ \lim_{k \to \infty} \varphi_k(x) = f(x), \ \ for \ \ all \ x.$$

Proof.

 $\Phi$  is continuous, so  $\Phi^{-1}((-\infty,a))$  is open set O.

### Theorem 1.4.

Suppose f is a measurable function on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then there exists a sequence of simple functions  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  that satisfies

$$|\varphi_k(x)| \leq |\varphi_{k+1}(x)| \ \ and \ \ \lim_{k \to \infty} \varphi_k(x) = f(x), \ for \ all \ x.$$

Proof.

We use the decomposition of f:  $f(x) = f^+(x) - f^-(x)$ .

### Theorem 1.5.

Suppose f is measurable on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then there exists an sequence of step functions  $\{\psi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  that converges pointwise to f(x) for almost every x,

$$\varphi_k(x) \leq \varphi_{k+1}(x) \ \ and \ \ \lim_{k \to \infty} \varphi_k(x) = f(x), \ \ for \ all \ x.$$

Proof.

By Theorem 1.4, it suffices to show that if E is a measurable set with finite measure, then  $f = \chi_E$  can be approximated by step functions. This can be proven by split E into cubes and then rectangles with Theorem 1.2.

## 1.4.3 Littlewood's three principles

**Theorem 1.6** (Egorov). Suppose  $\{f_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence of measurable functions defined on a measurable set E with  $m(E) < \infty$ , and assume that  $f_k \to f$  a.e. on E and  $f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_k, f$  are finite valued a.e. on E. Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a closed set  $A_{\epsilon} \subset E$  such that  $m(E - A_{\epsilon}) \leq \epsilon$  and  $f_k \to f$  uniformly on  $A_{\epsilon}$ .

Remark. Note that  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k, f$  are finite valued a.e. on E. Indeed, if it is not satisfied, then we cannot construct  $\{E_k^n\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $E_k^n \nearrow E$ . A counterexample is that

$$f_k(x) = \begin{cases} k & |x| \le k, \\ \infty & |x| > k \end{cases}$$

and  $f(x) = \infty$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Remark. Note that  $m(E) < \infty$  and it is easy to construct counterexamples when  $m(E) = \infty$ . Indeed, if  $m(E) = \infty$ , then we cannot find  $k_n$  such that  $m(E - E_{k_n}^n) < 1/2^n$  since  $m(E - E_{k_n}^n) = m(E) - m(E_{k_n}^n)$ .

**Theorem 1.7** (Lusin). Suppose f is measurable and finite valued a.e. on E with E of finite measure. Then for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a closed set  $F_{\epsilon}$ , with

$$F_{\epsilon} \subset E, \ and \ m(E - F_{\epsilon}) \leq \epsilon$$

and such that  $f|_{F_{\epsilon}}$  is continuous.

# 1.5 The Brunn-Minkowski inequality

Remark.

Let  $a, b \geq 0$ , then

$$(a+b)^{\gamma} \ge a^{\gamma} + b^{\gamma} \text{ if } \gamma \ge 1,$$
  
 $(a+b)^{\gamma} < a^{\gamma} + b^{\gamma} \text{ if } 0 < \gamma < 1$ 

Proof.

Let 
$$f(\gamma) = (1+x)^{\gamma} - (1+x^{\gamma})$$
, where  $x > 0$ . Then 
$$f'(\gamma) = (1+x)^{\gamma} \ln(1+x) - x^{\gamma} \ln x$$
$$= [(1+x)^{\gamma} - x^{\gamma}] \ln(1+x) + x^{\gamma} \ln(1+1/x) > 0,$$

notice that f(1) = 0, so when  $\gamma \ge 1$ ,  $(1+x)^{\gamma} \ge (1+x^{\gamma})$  and when  $0 < \gamma < 1$ ,  $(1+x)^{\gamma} < (1+x^{\gamma})$ . With this result, the original inequality is obvious.

???ref(exr:19)

**Theorem 1.8.** Suppose A and B are measurable sets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and their sum A+B is also measurable. Then

$$m(A+B)^{1/d} \ge m(A)^{1/d} + m(B)^{1/d}.$$

# 1.6 Exercise

# 1.7 Problem

# Chapter 2

# Integration Theory

- 2.1 The lebesgue integral: basic properties and convergence theorems
- 2.1.1 Stage one: simple functions

**Proposition 2.1.** The integral of simple functions defined by satisfies the following properties:

1. Independence of the representation. If  $\varphi = \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \chi_{E_k}$  is any representation of  $\varphi$ , then

$$\int \varphi = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k m(E_k).$$

- 2. Linearity.
- 3. Additivity.
- 4. Monotonicity.
- 5. Triangle inequality. If  $\varphi$  is a simple function, then so is  $|\varphi|$ , and

$$\left| \int \varphi \right| \le \int |\varphi|.$$

2.1.2 Stage two: bounded functions supported on a set of finite measure

**Lemma 2.1.** Let f be a bounded function supported on a set E of finite measure. If  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is any sequence of simple functions bounded by M, supported on E, and with  $\varphi_n(x) \to f(x)$  for a.e. x, then:

- 1. The limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \int \varphi_n$  exists.
- 2. If f = 0 a.e., then the limit  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \int \varphi_n$  equals 0.

Proof.

Setting  $I_n=\int \varphi_n$  and applying Egorov's theorem which is proven in Chapter 1 we have that for and large n and m

$$\begin{split} |I_n - I_m| & \leq \int_E |\varphi_n - \varphi_m| \\ & = \int_{A_\epsilon} |\varphi_n - \varphi_m| + \int_{E-A_\epsilon} |\varphi_n - \varphi_m| \\ & \leq \int_{A_\epsilon} \epsilon \; dx + \int_{E-A_\epsilon} 2M \; dx \\ & \leq m(E)\epsilon + 2M\epsilon. \end{split}$$

given any  $\epsilon > 0$ . This proves that  $\{I_n\}$  os a Cauchy sequence nd hence converges. If f = 0, letting m tend to infinity we have  $|I_n - f| = |I_n| \le m(E)\epsilon + 2M\epsilon$ , which yields  $\lim_{n \to \infty} I_n = 0$ .

For a bounded function f that is supported on sets of finite measure, we define its **Lebesgue integral** by

$$\int f = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int \varphi_n.$$

where  $\{\varphi_n\}$  is any sequence of simple functions satisfying:  $|\varphi_n| \leq M$ , each  $\varphi_n$  is supported on the support of f, and  $\varphi_n(x) \to f(x)$  for a.e. x as n tends to infinity.

Next, we must show that  $\int f$  is independent of the limiting sequence  $\{\varphi_n\}$  used, in order for the integral to be well-defined. Suppose that  $\{\psi_n\}$  is another sequence of simple functions that satisfies the properties above. Then, if  $\eta_n = \varphi_n - \psi_n$ , the sequence  $\{\eta_n\}$  consists of simple functions bounded by 2M, supported on a set of finite measure, and such that  $\eta_n \to 0$  a.e. as n tends to infinity. Applying the lemma we find

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\int\varphi_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}\int\psi_n+\lim_{n\to\infty}\int\eta_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}\int\psi_n$$

as desired.

**Proposition 2.2.** Suppose f and g are bounded functions supported on sets of finite measure. Then the following properties hold.

- 1. Linearity.
- 2. Additivity.
- 3. Monotonicity.

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4. Triangle inequality.

**Theorem 2.1** (Bounded convergence theorem).

Suppose that  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of measurable functions that are all bounded by M, are supported on a set E of finite measure, and  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  a.e. x as  $n \to \infty$ . Then f is measurable, bounded ,supported on E for a.e. x, and

$$\int |f_n - f| \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

Consequently,

$$\int f_n \to \int f \ as \ n \to \infty.$$

Proof.

The proof is a reprise of the argument in Lemma 2.1. Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we may find, by Egorov' theorem,

$$\int |f_n - f| \le \int_{A_{\epsilon}} |f_n - f| + \int_{E - A_{\epsilon}} |f_n - f|$$

$$< m(E)\epsilon + 2M\epsilon.$$

for all large n.

# 2.1.3 Return to Riemann integrable functions

### Theorem 2.2.

Suppose f os Riemann integrable on the closed interval [a,b]. Then f is measurable, and

$$\int_{[a,b]}^R f(x) \ dx = \int_{[a,b]}^L f(x) \ dx.$$

Proof.

By definition of Riemann integrability, f is bounded, say  $|f(x)| \leq M$ , and we may construct two consequences of step functions  $\{\varphi_k\}$  and  $\{\psi_k\}$  that satisfy the following properties:  $|\varphi_k(x)| \leq M$  and  $|\psi_k(x)| \leq M$  for all  $|x| \in [a,b]$  and  $|x| \geq 1$ ,

$$\varphi_1(x) \le \varphi_2(x) \le \dots \le f \le \dots \le \psi_2(x) \le \psi_1$$

and

$$\lim_{k\to\infty}\int_{[a,b]}^R\varphi_k(x)\ dx=\lim_{k\to\infty}\int_{[a,b]}^R\psi_k(x)\ dx=\int_{[a,b]}^Rf(x)\ dx.$$

Notice that

$$\int_{[a,b]}^R \varphi_k(x) \ dx = \int_{[a,b]}^L \varphi_k(x) \ dx,$$

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and

$$\int_{[a,b]}^R \psi_k(x) \ dx = \int_{[a,b]}^L \psi_k(x) \ dx.$$

Consider Theorem 2.1 (Bounded convergence theorem) and you will complete the proof.

## 2.1.4 Stage three: non-negative functions

In the case of such a function f we define its **Lebesgue integral** by

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

**Proposition 2.3.** The integral of non-negative measurable functions enjoys the following properties:

- 1. Linearity.
- 2. Additivity.
- 3. Monotonicity.
- 4. If g is integrable and  $0 \le f \le g$ , then f is integrable.
- 5. If f is integrable, then  $f(x) < \infty$  for a.e. x.
- 6. If  $\int f = 0$ , then f(x) = 0 for a.e. x. Proof.

We just prove the first assertion. Let  $\varphi$ ,  $\psi$  and  $\eta$  be non-negative functions bounded and supported on sets of finite measure, where  $\varphi \leq f$ ,  $\psi \leq g$  and  $\eta \leq f + g$ , then  $\varphi + \psi \leq f + g$ . Consequently,

$$\int f + \int g \le \int (f + g).$$

On the other hand, if we define  $\eta_1 = \min(f(x), \eta(x))$  and  $\eta_2 = \eta - \eta_1$ , then

$$\int \eta = \int (\eta_1 + \eta_2) = \int \eta_1 + \int \eta_2 \le \int f + \int g,$$

which means that

$$\int (f+g) \le \int f + \int g.$$

Lemma 2.2 (Fatou).

Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of measurable functions with  $f_n \geq 0$ . If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$  for a.e. x, then

$$\int f \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n.$$

Proof.

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Suppose  $0 \le g \le f$ , where g is bounded and supported on a set E of finite measure. If we set  $g_n(x) = \min(g(x), f_n(x))$ , then  $g_n \to g$  a.e. as  $n \to \infty$ . By Theorem 2.1 (Bounded convergence theorem) we have

$$\int g_n \to \int g.$$

Since  $g_n \leq f_n$ , we have  $\int f_n \leq \int g_n$ , so that

$$\int g \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n.$$

Taking the supremum over all g yields the desired inequality.

**Corollary 2.1.** Suppose f is a non-negative measurable function, and  $\{f_n\}$  a sequence of non-negative measurable functions with  $f_n(x) \leq f(x)$  and  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  for a.e. x. Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n = \int f.$$

**Corollary 2.2** (Monotone convergence theorem). Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  a sequence of non-negative measurable functions with  $f_n(x) \nearrow f(x)$ . Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \int f_n = \int f.$$

**Corollary 2.3.** Consider a series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k(x)$ , where  $a_k(x) \geq 0$  is measurable for every  $k \geq 1$ . Then

$$\int \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k(x) \ dx = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int a_k(x) \ dx.$$

### 2.1.5 General form

In this case, we define the **Lebesgue integral** of f by

$$\int f = \int f^+ - \int f^-.$$

**Proposition 2.4.** The integral of Lebesgue integrable functions is linear, additive, monotonic, and satisfies the triangle inequality.

**Proposition 2.5.** Suppose f is integral on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then for every  $\epsilon > 0$ :

1. There exists a set of finite measure B (a ball, for example) such that

$$\int_{B^c} |f| < \epsilon.$$

2. There is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\int_{E} |f| < \epsilon \quad \text{ whenever } m(E) < \delta.$$

Proof.

 $Assume \ that \ f \geq 0 \colon \ 1. \ B_N = (-N,N); \ 2. \ E_N = \{x: f(x) \leq N\}.$ 

**Theorem 2.3** (Dominated convergence theorem).

Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of measurable functions such that  $f_n \to f$  a.e. x as n tends to infinity. If  $f_n(x) \leq g(x)$ , where g is integrable, then

$$\int |f_n - f| \to 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty,$$

and consequently

$$\int f_n \to \int f.$$

Proof.

For each  $N \ge 0$  let  $E_N = \{x : |x| \le N, g(x) \le N\}.$ 

$$\begin{split} \int |f_n - f| &= \int_{E_N} |f_n - f| + \int_{E_N^c} |f_n - f| \\ &\leq \int_{E_N} |f_n - f| + 2 \int_{E_N^c} g \\ &\leq \epsilon + 2\epsilon \end{split}$$

for all large n. This prove the theorem.

## 2.1.6 Complex-valued functions

The collection of all complex-valued integrable functions on a measurable subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  forms a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

# 2.2 The space $L^1$ of integrable functions

For any integrable function f on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  we define the  $L^1$ -norm of f,

$$\|f\| = \|f\|_{L^1} = \|f\|_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f|.$$

**Proposition 2.6.** Suppose f and g are two functions in  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .

- 1. ||af|| = |a|||f|| for all  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ .
- 2.  $||f + g|| \le ||f|| + ||g||$ .
- 3. ||f|| = 0 iff f = 0 a.e.
- 4.  $d(\tilde{f},g) = \|f-g\|$  defines a metric on  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .

**Theorem 2.4** (Riesz-Fischer). The vector space  $L^1$  is complete in its metric.

Corollary 2.4. If  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to f in  $L^1$ , the nthere exists a subsequence  $\{f_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that

$$f_{n_h}(x) \to f(x)$$
 a.e.x.

We say that a family G of integrable functions is **dense** in  $L^1$  if for ant  $f \in L^1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $g \in G$  so that  $||f - g|| < \epsilon$ .

**Theorem 2.5.** The following families of functions are dense in  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ :

- 1. The simple functions.
- 2. The step functions.
- 3. The continuous functions of compact support.

# 2.2.1 Invariance properties

# 2.2.2 Translations and continuity

Proposition 2.7.

Suppose  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ . Then

$$||f_h - f|| \to 0$$
 as  $h \to 0$ .

Proof.

By Theorem 2.5, find a continuous function with compact support to approximate f.

## 2.3 Fubini's theorem

# 2.4 A Fourier inversion formula

## 2.5 Exercise

# 2.6 Problem

# Chapter 3

# Differentiation and Integration

# 3.1 Differentiation of the integral

We may ask whether