Lecture 1

Why measure theory?

We want to answer questions like the following: what is the "total length" of an arbitrary $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$? What about the "total area" of an arbitrary $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$? In other words, can we define a function $\mu: 2^{\mathbb{R}^d} \to [0, +\infty)$ so that $\mu(E)$ is sufficiently "nice?"

What properties would we like a function μ (called a measure) to have? Let's stick to \mathbb{R} for now.

- **1.** For E = [a, b] (or (a, b)), we'd like $\mu(E) = b a$.
- **2.** For a sequence of disjoint intervals $I_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} I_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu(I_i)$$

What about $\mathbb{Q} \cap [0,1]$? What about the area under a curve? What if E is any arbitrary set????

Pre measure theory

In the mid 1800s, Riemann first defined the Riemann integral in terms of upper and lower sums.

Fortunately, it's good enough for most "ordinary" functions a student might encounter when doing calculus for the first time.

Unfortunately, it's not good for taking limits.

For example, given $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(x)$ exists for all x, when can we conclude that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) \, dx = \int_a^b \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) \, dx = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

We learn in undergraduate real analysis that we may only conclude the above if the f_n converge uniformly to f.

Measure theory

Measure theory allows us to define a much more powerful theory of integration, giving us

- More integrable functions
- An integral which behaves better with limits
- An integral ideally suited for probability theory.

Our first goal will be to define a function $\mu: 2^{\mathbb{R}} \to [0, \infty)$ satisfying the following:

1. If E_1, E_2, \ldots is a countable sequence of disjoint sets, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup E_i\right) = \sum \mu(E_i)$$

If μ satisfies this, we say it is "countably additive."

- **2.** $\mu([a,b]) = b a$ for all such intervals.
- **3.** μ is translation invariant, i.e. for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mu(E+t) = \mu(E)$$

Where "E + t" $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x + t \mid x \in E\}$

Theorem 0.1. (Vitali) There is no such μ .

Proof. Suppose that such a μ exists.

Claim. If $A \subseteq B$, then $\mu(A) \le \mu(B)$.

Proof. Note $B = A \coprod (B \setminus A)$, so

$$\mu(B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B \backslash A)$$

And because μ is always nonnegative, we may conclude that $\mu(B) \geq \mu(A)$.

Now, define an equivalence relation on \mathbb{R} as follows:

$$x \sim y <=> x - y \in \mathbb{Q}$$

 $[x] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \sim y\}$

Claim. Every equivalence class contains a point in [0, 1].

Proof. Homework exercise.

Now, for each equivalence class, choose an element in [0,1] belonging to that class. For this step, we are using choice and, it turns out, there is no way not to in this proof.

Call the resulting set A. So $A \subseteq [0,1]$, and for any $x, [x] \cap A$ is a singleton.

Let
$$B = \bigcup_{q \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [-1,1]} A + q$$

Note that this is a disjoint union: indeed, if A+q intersects nontrivially with A+q' for $q \neq q'$, then there are x, x' in A such that x = x' + q, and so $x \sim x'$, which by construction is impossible.

Claim. $[0,1] \subseteq B \subseteq [-1,2]$.

Proof. First, if $x \in [0, 1]$, then x = a + q for some $a \in A \subseteq [0, 1], q = x - a \in [-1, 1]$. Thus, $x \in B$.

Next, if $b \in B$, then b = a + q, for $q \in A = [0, 1]$ and $q \in [-1, 1]$, so $b \in [-1, 2]$. So we must conclude by the lemma that

$$1 = \mu([1,0]) \leq \mu(B) \leq \mu([-1,2]) = 3$$

But by the properties of μ , we also have

$$\mu(B) = \sum_{q \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [0,1]} \mu(A+q) = \sum_{q \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [0,1]} \mu(A)$$

The sum on the right hand side is either 0 or ∞ . But we just showed that it is between 1 and 3, a contradiction. Therefore, $\mu(A)$ cannot be defined.

So, if this is impossible, which criterion should we weaken to make it possible? If we weaken the first to get finite additivity, we run into problems for $d \geq 3$, for example the Banach-Tarski paradox.

If we weaken the other two, then μ is no longer compactible with the usual notion of "length."

Two good choices

- Given a measure on a family of sets, it extends to an outer measure on all sets.
- Similarly, given an outer measure, you can single out "nice sets" on which it is a measure.

What kind of family of subsets should we restrict to? Let X be a set.

Definition 0.1. \mathcal{A} is an algebra of subsets of X if $\mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset$, and

- $E_1, \ldots, E_n \in \mathcal{U} \implies \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i \in \mathcal{U}$. In other words, it is "closed under finite unions."
- $E \in \mathcal{U} \implies X \setminus E \in \mathcal{U}$. In other words it is "closed under compliments."

• $\varnothing, X \in \mathcal{A}$.

Lemma 1. If A is an algebra of subsets, then A is closed under finite intersections.

Proof. Homework 2

Example 0.1. (i) $A = 2^X$

- (ii) $\mathcal{A} = \{\emptyset, X\}$
- (iii) $\mathcal{A} = \text{all finite OR cofinite subsets of } X$ (cofinite means the complement is finite).

Definition 0.2. A $\underline{\sigma}$ -algebra \mathcal{A} is an algebra that is closed under countable unions.

Remark. σ -algebras are closed under countable intersections.

Example 0.2. Above, (i) and (ii) are σ -algebras, but (iii) is not.

Proposition 1. Given any family \mathcal{E} of subsets of X, there is a smallest σ -algebra $\mu(\mathcal{E})$ containing \mathcal{E} , meaning that if \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra containing \mathcal{E} , then $\mu(\mathcal{E}) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$.

Lecture 2

Definition 0.3. Given a nonempty set X and \mathcal{M} a σ -algebra of subsets of X, we call (X, \mathcal{M}) a measurable space.

Recall:

Proposition 2. Given any family \mathcal{E} of subsets of X, there is a smallest σ -algebra $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E})$ containing \mathcal{E} , meaning that if \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra containing \mathcal{E} , then $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$.

Proof. We begin with a claim.

Claim. Given any nonempty collection C of σ -algebras on X, then

$$\cap \mathcal{C} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ E \subseteq X \mid E \in \mathcal{A} \forall \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C} \}$$

is a σ -algebra.

Proof. Homework 2

Let $\mathcal{C} = \{ \mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{A} \text{ is a } \sigma\text{-algebra on } X \text{ and } \mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{A} \}$. \mathcal{C} is nonempty, because $2^X \in \mathcal{C}$. By the claim, $\cap \mathcal{C}$ is a σ -algebra. By the definition of \mathcal{C} , $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ and for any σ -algebra \mathcal{A} such that $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$, $\cap \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$.

Thus $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}) = \cap \mathcal{C}$ is the smallest σ -algebra containing \mathcal{E} .

Remark. Intuitively, $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E})$ is a σ -algebra containing the sets in \mathcal{E} by "going from the outside in," starting with σ -algebras that are "too big" and taking intersections.

Recall: a topology τ is a collection of subsets of a set X (called open sets), which is closed under arbitrary unions and finite intersections, and $X, \emptyset \in \tau$ Let (X, τ) be a topological space.

Definition 0.4. The Borel σ -algebra of X, denoted $\mathcal{B}X$, is the σ -algebra generated by the open subsets of X. Its members are known as <u>Borel sets</u>.

What do the Borel sets look like? Let's go from the "inside out."

Let \mathcal{F} =open sets in X, \mathcal{F}^{σ} all countable unions of sets in \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F}^{δ} all countable intersections, and $\overline{\mathcal{F}}$ complements of sets in \mathcal{F} .

To build Borel sets:

$$\mathcal{F} \to \mathcal{F}^{\delta} \cup \overline{\mathcal{F}^{\delta}} \to \cdots \to \mathcal{B}X$$

To learn more, look up the "Borel hierarchy."

Proposition 3. The Borel σ -algebra on \mathbb{R} , which we denote $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$, is generated by each of the following.

- (i) Open intervals $\mathcal{E}_1 = \{(a,b) \mid a < b, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- (ii) Closed intervals $\mathcal{E}_2 = \{ [a, b] \mid a \leq b, a, b, \in \mathbb{R} \}$
- (iii) Half-open intervals $\mathcal{E}_3 = \{[a,b) \mid a < b, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- (iv) Open rays $\mathcal{E}_4 = \{(a, \infty) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- (v) Closed rays $\mathcal{E}_5 = \{[a, \infty) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}$

That is, $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}_i) = \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ for any $i \in \{1, \dots, 5\}$.

Proof. Homework 2

Let

• $\{(X_1, \mathcal{M}_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be a collection of measurable spaces.

$$X \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$$

• π_i be the projection $X \to X_i$

Example 0.3. If $(X_i, \mathcal{M}_i) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$, for $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Then $X = \mathbb{R}^n$.

Definition 0.5. The product σ -algebra

$$\bigotimes_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \mathcal{M}_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{M} \left(\left\{ \prod_{i\in\mathbb{N}} E_i \mid E_i \in \mathcal{M}_i \right\} \right)$$

Our goal is to show that $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$.

Proposition 4. Given $\mathcal{E}_i \subseteq 2^{X_i}$ such that $X_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$, let $\mathcal{M}_i = \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}_i)$. Then

$$\bigotimes_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \mathcal{M}_i = \mathcal{M}\left(\left\{\prod_{i\in\mathbb{N}} E_i \mid E_i \in \mathcal{E}_i\right\}\right)$$

Note: If $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, then $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}) \subseteq \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F})$. If $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F})$, then $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}) \subseteq \mathcal{M}\mathcal{F}$. Recall: Given a function $f: X \to Y$ between arbitrary nonempty sets, then

(i)
$$f^{-1}(\bigcup_{i\in\mathbb{N}}E_i)=\bigcup_{i\in\mathbb{N}}f^{-1}(E_i)$$
 for all $E_i\subseteq X$.

(ii)
$$f^{-1}(E^c) = (f^{-1}(C))^c$$
, for all $E \subseteq X$.

Proof. By the first statement of the preceding note,

$$\mathcal{M}\left(\left\{\prod_{i\in\mathbb{N}}E_i\mid E_i\in\mathcal{E}_i\right\}\right)\subseteq\mathcal{M}\left(\left\{\prod_{i\in\mathbb{N}}E_i\mid E_i\in\mathcal{M}_i\right\}\right)=\bigotimes_{i\in\mathbb{N}}\mathcal{M}_i$$

For equality, it suffices to show

$$\mathcal{M}\left(\left\{\prod_{i\in\mathbb{N}}E_i\mid E_i\in\mathcal{M}_i\right\}\right)\subseteq\mathcal{M}\left(\left\{\prod_{i\in\mathbb{N}}E_i\mid E_i\in\mathcal{E}_i\right\}\right)$$

Let $\mathcal{M}\left(\left\{\prod_{i\in\mathbb{N}} E_i \mid E_i \in \mathcal{E}_i\right\}\right) = \mathcal{A}$. Note that

$$\prod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} E_i = \{ x \in X \mid \pi_i(x) \in E_i \forall i \}$$

$$= \bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \{ x \in X : \pi_i(x) \in E_i \}$$

$$= \bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \pi_i^{-1}(E_i)$$

Because \mathcal{A} is a σ -algebra, it suffices to show that $\pi_i^{-1}(E_i) \in \mathcal{A}$ for all $E_i \in \mathcal{M}_i$.

Claim. Let $\mathcal{F}_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ E_i \subseteq X_i \mid \pi_i^{-1}(E_i) \in \mathcal{A} \}$. This is a σ -algebra.

Proof.

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \pi_i^{-1}(E_i) = \pi_i^{-1}(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i)$$

So $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_i$. Similarly,

$$\pi_i^{-1}(E^c) = (\pi_i^{-1}(E))^c$$

so $E \in \mathcal{F}_i$ implies $E^c \in \mathcal{F}_i$.

Lecture 3

Because $X_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$ and $\pi_i^{-1}(E_i) = X_1 \times X_2 \times \cdots \times E_i \times \cdots$, we know $\pi_i^{-1}(E_i) \in \mathcal{A}$ for all $E_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$.

In other words, $\mathcal{E}_i \subseteq \mathcal{F}_i$. Since \mathcal{F}_i is a σ -algebra, $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}_i) = \mathcal{M}_i \subseteq \mathcal{F}_i$. Thus, $\pi_i^{-1}(\mathcal{E}_i) \in \mathcal{A}$ for all $E_i \in \mathcal{M}_i$ and all i.

In order to characterize the Borel product σ -algebra, it will be convenient to assume our undderlying spaces have a metric that induces the topology.

Let $(X_i, d_i), i = 1, \ldots, n$ be metric spaces. Let

$$X = \prod_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$

Endow the product space with the metric

$$d_{\max}((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)) = \max_{i=1,\dots,n} (d_1(x_1, y_1), d_2(x_2, y_2), \dots, d_n(x_n, y_n))$$

Theorem 0.2. Given metric spaces X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_d and their product

$$X = \prod_{i=1}^{d} X_i$$

endowed with the metric d_{\max} , then $\bigotimes_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{B}_{X_i} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_X$ If the X_i are all seperable, then $\bigotimes_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{B}_{X_i} = \mathcal{B}_X$

Remark. Since the definition of \mathcal{B}_X only depends on the topology of X, then this statement holds even if d_{max} is replaced by an equivalent metric, where "equivalent" means "generates the same topology."

Remark. d_{max} is convenient because:

$$B_r(x_1, ..., x_m) = \{(y_1, ..., y_n) | d_{\max}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) < r \}$$

$$= \{(y_2, ..., y_n) | d_i(x_i, y_i) < r \forall i \}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^n B_r(X_i)$$

Recall:

Fact 1: If X_1, \ldots, X_m are separable, so is $\prod_{i=1}^m X_i$.

Fact 2: In a seperable metric space, every open set can be written as a countable union of balls, $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$

Fact 3: $\{\prod_{i=1}^n E_i \mid E_i \subseteq X_i, \text{ open}\} \subseteq \{\text{open subsets of } X\}$

Proof.: By the previous proposition, $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{B}_{X_i}$ is generated by

$$\{\prod_{i=1}^n E_i \mid E_i \subseteq X_{\text{open}}\} \subseteq \{\text{open subsets of } X\}$$

Thus $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{B}_{X_i} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_X$.

Now, suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n are separable. By facts 1 and 2, every open subset of X can be written as a countable union of balls.

To prove $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{B}_{X_i} = \mathcal{B}_X$, it suffices to show that

$$\{\text{open subsets of } X\} \subseteq \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{B}_{X_i}$$

The left hand side is equal to $\{\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j \mid B_j \subseteq X_{\text{open}} \text{ball}\}$, and the right hand side is equal to $\mathcal{M}\left(\{\prod_{i=1}^n E_i \mid E_i \text{ open}\}\right)$

This will hold, as long as we can show $B_i \in \mathcal{M}\left(\left\{\prod_{i=1}^n E_i \mid E_i \text{ open}\right\}\right)$

Since X is endowed with d_{\max} , we know that any open ball in X can be expressed as $B = \prod_{i=1}^{n} B_i$, where $B_i \subseteq X_i$ is a ball. This gives the result.

Now, it is finally time to talk about measures.

Measures

Call (X, \mathcal{M}) a measurable space when X is a set and \mathcal{M} is a σ -algebra on X.

Definition 0.6. A measure on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{M}) is a function $\mu : \mathcal{M} \to [0, +\infty]$ such that

- (i) $\mu(\varnothing) = 0$
- (ii) If $\{E_i\}$ is a countable disjoint collection of sets, then

$$\mu(\bigcup E_i) = \sum \mu(E_i)$$

This is called "countable (disjoint) additivity"

Example 0.4. (Dirac mass/Dirac measure)

Let $(X, \mathcal{M}) = (X, 2^X)$.

Fix $x_0 \in X$ and define

$$\mu(A) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_0 \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example 0.5. (Counting measure)

Let $(X, \mathcal{M}) = (X, 2^X)$. Define

$$\mu(A) = |A| =$$
 the number of elements in A

Given a measurable space (X, \mathcal{M}) and a measure μ , we call (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) a measure space and $E \in \mathcal{M}$ a measurable set

Theorem 0.3. For any measure space (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) and measurable sets $A, B, A_1, A_2, \cdots \in \mathcal{M}$,

- (i) $A \subseteq B \implies \mu(A) \le \mu(B)$. This is called "monotonicity"
- (ii) $\mu(\bigcup_i A_i) \leq \sum_i \mu(A_i)$. This is called "(countable) sub additivity)."
- (iii) If $A_i \subseteq A_{i+1}$, then $\mu(\bigcup_i A_i) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(A_i)$. This is called "continuity from below."
- (iv) If $A_{i+1} \subseteq A_i$ for all i, and $\mu(A_i) < \infty$, then $\mu(\bigcap A_i) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(A_i)$. This is called "continuity from above."

Remark. For (iv), why do we need the additional hypothesis $\mu(A_1) < \infty$?. Consider the counting measure on $(\mathbb{N}, 2^{\mathbb{N}})$, and $A_i = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \geq i\}$, which satisfies $A_{i+1} \subseteq A_i$, but it fails $\mu(A_1) < \infty$:

$$0 = \mu(\varnothing) = \mu(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \neq \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(A_i) = +\infty$$

Proof. (i) Since $A \subseteq B$, $B = A \cup (B \setminus A)$, so $\mu(B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B \setminus A)$ by countable additivity. $\mu(B \setminus A) \ge 0$, so (i) follows.

(ii) Define $B_1 = A_1$, $B_2 = A_2 \setminus A_1$, $B_3 = A_3 \setminus (A_1 \cup A_2), \dots, B_n = A_n \setminus (\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i)$. Then $\bigcup_i A_i = \bigcup_i B_i$, so by countable disjoint additivity,

$$\mu(\cup_i A_i) = \mu(\cup_i B_i) = \sum_i \mu(B_i) \le \sum_i \mu(A_i)$$

(iii) Define $B_1 = A_1$, and $B_i = A_i \setminus A_{i-1}$. Then $A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i$, so $\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty B_i$. Thus $\mu(A_n) = \mu(\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(B_i)$. Consequently,

$$\mu(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = \mu(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_i) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu(B_i) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(A_n)$$

(iv) Next time!

Lecture 4

Recall

Let

- $(X_i, d_i), i = 1, \ldots, n$ metric spaces
- $\{(X_i, \mathcal{M}_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ a collection of measurable spaces.
- $\mathcal{X} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ product space.
- $d_{\max}((x_1,\ldots,x_n),(y_1,\ldots,y_n)) = \max\{d_i(x_i,y_i)\}.$

Definition 0.7.

$$\bigotimes_{\alpha \in A} \mathscr{M}_{\alpha} = \mathscr{M} \left(\left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha} \mid E_{\alpha} \in \mathscr{M}_{\alpha} \right\} \right)$$

We have the following theorem

Theorem 0.4.

$$\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}} = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{B}_{X_i}$$

That is, the Borel σ -algebra generated by the products of the X_i is equal to the products of the Borel σ -algebras generated by the X_i .

Now, back to measure spaces.

Remark. The definition of Borel sets only depends on the notion of open sets, do d_{max} could be replaced with any equivalent metric.

We will now prove that a measure satisfies continuity from above.

Proof. Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a descending sequence of measurable sets.

Define $B_i = A_1 \backslash A_i$

We have $B_1 \subseteq B_2 \subseteq B_3 \subseteq \cdots$

Note $\mu(A_1) = \mu(B_i \cup A_i) = \mu(B_i) + \mu(A_i)$ by disjoint additivity.

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (A_1 \backslash A_i) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_1 \cap A_i^c = A_1 \backslash \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)$$

So

$$\mu(A_1) = \mu\left(\left(A_1 \setminus \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)\right) \cup \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)$$

$$= \mu\left(A_1 \setminus \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)\right) + \mu\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)$$

$$= \mu\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i\right) + \mu\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)$$

$$= \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(B_i) + \mu\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)$$

Since $\mu(A_1) < \infty$, by monotonicity, $\mu(B_i)$, $\mu(A_i)$ are also finite, and, recalling from before,

$$\mu(B_i) = \mu(A_1) - \mu(A_i)$$

So,

$$\mu(A_1) = \lim_{i \to \infty} (\mu(A_1) - \mu(A_i)) + \mu(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i)$$

So $\lim_{i\to\infty} \mu(A_i) = \mu(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i)$.

Measure Terminology

- μ is a finite measure if $\mu(\mathcal{X}) < +\infty$.
- μ is a $\underline{\sigma}$ -finite measure if there exists $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in \mathcal{M}^{\mathbb{N}}$ such that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i = \mathcal{X}$ and $\mu(E_i) < +\infty$. In other words, we can chop \mathcal{X} into countably many measurable pieces of finite size.

- E is a <u>null set</u> of μ if $E \in \mathcal{M}$ and $\mu(E) = 0$.
- We say that a property holds for $\underline{\mu}$ -almost every $x \in \mathcal{X}$ if the set of points where it doesn't hold is a null set.

Recall our ultimate goal: a measure μ on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ where $\mu((a, b)) = b - a$, and it is translation invariant.

Outer Measures

Definition 0.8. An <u>outer measure</u> on a set \mathcal{X} is a function $\mu^*: 2^{\mathcal{X}} \to [0, +\infty]$ satisfying

(i)
$$\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$$

(ii)
$$A \subseteq B \implies \mu^*(A) \le \mu^*(B)$$

(iii)
$$\mu^*(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_i)$$

Remark. (ii) + (iii) is equivalent to the statement that if $E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$, then $\mu^*(E) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_i)$.

Example 0.6. Let $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$. The Lebesgue Outer Measure is defined by

$$\mu^*(A) = \inf\{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |b_i - a_i| : A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i)\}$$

We will prove that μ^* is an outer measure. We will also show $\mu^*((a,b]) = b - a$, and μ^* is translation-invariant.

Is μ^* countably additive? No, by Vitali's theorem.

While we will be able to show that μ^* is an outer measure, it is <u>not</u> a measure on $2^{\mathbb{R}}$.

Definition 0.9. Let \mathcal{X} be a nonempty set, and μ^* an outer measure on \mathcal{X} . We say $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ is μ^* -measurable if, for all $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$,

$$\mu^*(E) = \mu^*(E \cap A) + \mu^*(E \cap A^c)$$

Remark. We know that if, in the above expression, "=" is replaced by " \leq ", it holds for any $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ by countable subadditivity

Proposition 5. If $\mu^*(B) = 0$ for $B \subseteq \mathcal{X}$, then B is μ^* -measurable.

Proof. Fix an arbitrary $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$. Then, by monotonicity, $\mu^*(E) \geq \mu^*(E \cap B^c) = \mu^*(B) + \mu^*(E \cap B^c)$, so $\mu^*(E) = E \cap B + \mu^*(E \cap B^c)$.

Theorem 0.5. (Caratheodory): Given an outer measure μ^* on \mathcal{X} , let

$$\mathcal{M} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ A \subseteq X : A \text{ is } \mu^* - measurable \}$$

Then

- (i) \mathcal{M} is a σ -algebra
- (ii) μ^* is a measure on \mathcal{M} .

Question: Is this the "largest" σ -algebra on which μ^* can be defined as a measure? In general, the answer is no - see hw3.

Proof. \mathcal{M} is nonempty, because by the proposition, \varnothing is μ^* -measurable.

Now we want to see that \mathcal{M} is closed under complements. This clearly holds by the definition of μ^* .

We will now show \mathcal{M} is closed under finite unions. It will suffice to show that if $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$, then $A \cup B \in \mathcal{M}$.

Fix an arbitrary $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$. We have

$$\mu^{*}(E) = \mu^{*}(E \cap A) + \mu^{*}(E \cap A^{c})$$

$$= \mu^{*}(E \cap A) + \mu^{*}(E \cap A^{c} \cap B) + \mu^{*}(E \cap A^{c} \cap B^{c})$$

$$\geq \mu^{*}((E \cap A) \cup (E \cap A^{c} \cap B^{c})) + \mu^{*}(E \cap A^{c} \cap B^{c})$$

$$= \mu^{*}(E \cap (A \cup B)) + \mu^{*}(E \cap (A \cup B)^{c})$$

So $A \cup B$ is μ^* -measurable.

Remark. " \leq " always holds by countable subadditivity.

Now, we will show that $\mu^*|_{\mathscr{M}}$ is finitely additive.

Claim. given $\{B_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ disjoint, then for all $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}$,

$$\mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^n)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^*(E \cap B_i)$$

Proof. We will proceed by induction. The base case is obvious. Now, assume the result holds for n-1. We will show it holds for n. We have

$$\mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^n B_i)) = \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^n) \cap B_n) + \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^n B_i) \cap B_n^c$$

$$= \mu^*(E \cap B_n) + \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^{n-1} B_i))$$

$$= \mu^*(E \cap B_n) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mu^*(E \cap B_i)$$

We will finish next time!

Lecture 5

Now for the exciting conclusion.

Taking $E = \mathcal{X}$ in the above claim, we see $\mu^*|_{\mathscr{M}}$ is finitely additive.

Claim. Given $\{B_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ disjoint, for all $E \subseteq X$,

$$\mu^*(E) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (\mu^*(E \cap B_i)) + \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i)^c)$$

Proof. The left hand side is immediately seen to be less than the right hand side due to the countable subadditivity of μ^* , since

$$E = (E \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i)) \cup (E \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i)^c)$$

= $(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (E \cap B_i)) \cup (E \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i)^c)$

It remains to show that the left hand side is greater than or equal to the right hand side.

Since \mathcal{M} is closed under finite unions, $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_i \in \mathcal{M}$, so by the definition of μ^* -measurable,

$$\mu^*(E) = \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^n B_i)) + \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^n B_i)^c)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^*(E \cap B_i) + \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^\infty B_i)^c)$$

Taking the limit as $n \to \infty$ gives the result.

Now, to show \mathscr{M} is closed under countable unions. Fix $\{C_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathscr{M}$. We want to show $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_i \in \mathscr{M}$.

Define $B_1 = C_1$, and in general $B_n = C_n \setminus (\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} C_i)$

Then $B_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for each n, and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_i$.

Fix $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$. Then, by a previous claim, we know

$$\mu^*(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^*(E \cap B_i) + \mu^*(E \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty B_i)^c)$$

$$\geq \mu^*(E \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty B_i)) + \mu^*(E \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty B_i)^c)$$

Since we already have the inequality going in the other direction, we have shown $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_i \in \mathcal{M}$.

John White

Taking $E = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$, for B_i disjoint, nonempty, then

$$\mu^*(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \mu^*(E)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(E \cap B_i) + \mu^*(E \cap (\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i)^c)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(B_i) + \mu^*(\varnothing)$$

Thus $\mu^*(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$.

Back to Lebesgue outer measure. Let $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$. Recall we define

$$\mu^*(A) = \inf\{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |b_i - a_i| : A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i)\}$$

We want to show that

- 1. μ^* is an outer measure
- **2.** It gives the correct lengths to (c, d],
- **3.** It is translation invariant
- **4.** $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ is contained in the collection of μ^* -measurable sets.

In fact, we will study a generalization of Lebesgue outer measure that will give rise to Lebesgue-Stieljes measures.

Recall: $F : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ is right continuous if for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\lim_{y \to x^+} F(y) = F(x)$$

Definition 0.10. Given $F: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ non-decreasing and right-continuous, define

$$\mu_F^*(A) = \inf\{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (F(b_i) - F(a_i)) : A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i)\}$$

Note: Katy HATES the term "non-decreasing," and will use it interchangeably with the term "increasing." To denote something which is not constant anywhere, she will say "strictly" increasing.

Why do we require F to be nondecreasing?

Spoiler: We will show any finite measure μ on $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ satisfies $\mu = \mu_F^*|_{\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}}$, for

$$F(x) = \mu((-\infty, x])$$

We call F the <u>Cumulative Distribution Function</u>, or CDF. Note that if μ is a finite measure on $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ and F(x) is it's CDF, then F is

- Nondecreasing: If $x \leq y$, then $(-\infty, x] \subseteq (-\infty, y]$, which implies $F(x) \leq F(y)$.
- Right-continuous: For any decreasing sequence x_n whose limit is x, $\lim_{n\to\infty} F(x_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu((-\infty,x_n]) = \mu((-\infty,x]) = F(x)$. The penultimate equality is due to μ being continuous from above, as it is a finite measure.

Theorem 0.6. For any nondecreasing right-continuous F, μ_F^* is an outer measure.

- Proof. First, $\mu_F^*(\varnothing) = \inf\{\sum_{i=1}^\infty F(b_i) F(a_i) : \varnothing \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty (a_i, b_i)\} = 0$, as every interval contains \varnothing as a subset so we may set $a_i = b_i \equiv 1$ for all i. Since $\mu_F^* \geq 0$ by definition, $\mu_F^*(\varnothing) = 0$
 - Now, we want to show that if $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$, then $\mu_F^*(A) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_F^*(B_i)$. If $\mu_F^*(B_i) = \infty$ for some i, we are done. Without loss of generality, suppose $\mu_F^*(B_i) < \infty$ for each i.

By the definition of inf, for all $\varepsilon > 0$ and each i there exists $\{I_i^{\varepsilon}\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ of intervals depending on ε such that

$$B_{j} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I_{i}^{j,\varepsilon}$$

$$\mu_{F}^{*}(B_{j}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |I_{i}^{j,\varepsilon}| \leq \mu_{F}^{*}(B_{j}) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2j}$$

Thus

$$A \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i^{j,\varepsilon}$$

$$\mu_F^*(A) \le \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} |I|_F^{j,\varepsilon}$$

$$\le \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu_F^*(B_j) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2j}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_F^*(B_j) + \varepsilon$$

Sending $\varepsilon \to 0$ completes the proof.

Theorem 0.7. For all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a \leq b$,

$$\mu^*((a,b]) = F(b) - F(a)$$

Proof. \leq follows quickly, since we know $(a,b] \subseteq (a,b] \cup \varnothing \cup \varnothing \cup \cdots$, so the definition of μ_F^* ensures

$$\mu_F^*((a,b]) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} F(b_i) - F(a_i) = F(b) - F(a)$$

Now we turn to \geq . Note that if a = b, we already showed that $\mu_F^*((a, b]) = \mu_F^*(\emptyset) = 0 = F(b) - F(a)$, so without loss of generality a < b.

It suffices to show that if $(a, b] \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i]$, then $F(b) - F(a) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} F(b_i) - F(a_i)$ Since F is right continuous, for all $\varepsilon > 0$ we can find $\delta_i > 0$ such that $F(b_i + \delta_i) < F(b_i) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^i}$.

Note that

$$[a+\varepsilon,b]\subseteq (a,b]\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty}(a_i,b_i)\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty}(a_i,b_i+\delta_i)$$

Since $[a + \varepsilon, b]$ is compact and $\{(a_i, b_i + \delta_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is an open cover, there exists a finite subcover

$$[s+\varepsilon]\subseteq\bigcup_{i=1}^N(a_i,b_i+\delta_i)$$

Without loss of generality we may throw away any unnecessary elements of the cover. The "first" element of the cover must overlap with exactly one other element of the cover, the "second" interval. Thus we may assume that

$$b_i + \delta_i \in (a_{i+1}, b_{i+1} + \delta_{i+1}) \forall i = 1, \dots, N-1$$

Tune in next time for the continuation!

Lecture 6

And now, for the exciting conclusion...

Since F is nondecreasing,

$$F(b) - F(a + \varepsilon) \leq f(b_N + \delta_N) - F(a_1)$$

$$= F(b_N + \delta_N) - F(a_N) + \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (F(a_{i+1}) - F(a_i))$$

$$= F(b_N + \delta_N) - F(a_N) + \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (F(b_i + \delta_i) - F(a_i))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} (F(b_i + \delta_i) - F(a_i))$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} (F(b_i) - F(a_i) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^i})$$

$$\leq \left| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} F(b_i) - F(a_i) \right| + \varepsilon$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, and F is right-continuous, sending $\varepsilon \to 0$ gives the result.

Definition 0.11. By Carathéodory's theorem, we know μ_F^* is a measure when restricted to $\mathcal{M}_{\mu_F^*}$, the collection of μ_F^* -measurable sets. We will denote this measure by μ_F , and call it the Legesgue-Stieljes measure associated to F.

How does this help our goals?

Is μ_F a Borel measure (that is, a measure when restricted to the Borel σ -algebra)? Yes

Theorem 0.8. $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq \mathscr{M}_{\mu_F^*}$

Proof. It suffices to show that, for all $b \in \mathbb{R}$, $(-\infty, b] \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu_F^*}$. That is, we must show for all $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

$$\mu_F^*(E) \ge \mu_F^*(E \cap (-\infty, b]) + \mu_F^*(E \cap (-\infty, b]^c)$$

We already have \leq by countable additivity.

Fix a $\varepsilon > 0$. By definition of μ_F^* , there exists a cover $\{(a_i, b_i]\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that $E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i]$ and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (F(b_i) - F(a_i)) \le \mu_F^*(E) + \varepsilon$$

Note that

$$(a_i, b_i] \cap (-\infty, b] \subseteq (a_i, b]$$

 $(a_i, b_i] \cap [b, \infty) \subseteq (b, b_i]$

SO

$$E \cap (-\infty, b] \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b]$$
$$E \cap [b, +\infty) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (b, b_i]$$

$$\mu_F^*(E \cap (-\infty, b]) + \mu_F^*(E \cap [b, +\infty)) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (F(b) - F(a_i)) + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (F(b_j) - F(b))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (F(b_i) - F(a_i))$$

$$\le \mu_F^*(E) + \varepsilon$$

Sending $\varepsilon \to 0$ gives us the result.

Definition 0.12. When F(x) = x, we write $\lambda^* \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mu_F^*$, and we call it the Lebesgue outer measure. Similarly, we write $\lambda \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mu_F$, and call it the Lebesgue measure. Finally, $\mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{M}_{\mu_F^*}$, and we call this collection the Lebesgue measurable sets.

Thus, we know all Borel sets are Lebesgue measurable.

In this way, we have found a Borel measure that gives the "right" length to intervals (a, b].

The last "intuitive" property of λ that we seek to show is translation invariance.

Theorem 0.9. λ^* is translation invariant on $2^{\mathbb{R}}$, and λ is translation invariant on \mathcal{M}_{λ^*} .

Proof. For any $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i]$ is equivalent to $A + a \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i + a, b_i + a]$.

Therefore $\lambda^*(A) = \lambda^*(A+a)$. The only thing left to show is \mathcal{M}_{λ} is translation invariant.

John White

Claim. Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*}$. Then $A + a \in \mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*}$.

Proof. Fix $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. We want to show

$$\lambda^*(E) = \lambda^*(E \cap (A+a)) + \lambda^*(E \cap (A+a)^c)$$

We know λ^* is translation invariant, so

$$\lambda^*(E) = \lambda^*((E - a) \cap A) + \lambda^*((E - a) \cap A^c)$$

For any $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$,

$$(E - a) \cap S = \{x - a \mid x \in E, x - a \in S\}$$

= $\{x \mid x \in E, x \in S + a\}$
= $E \cap (S + a) - a$

So

$$(S+a)^c = \{y \mid y \notin S + a\}$$

$$= \{y \mid y - a \notin S\}$$

$$= \{y - a \mid y - a \notin S\}$$

$$= S^c + a$$

Therefore

$$\lambda^*(E) = \lambda^*(E \cap (A+a)) + a) + \lambda^*((E \cap (A^c + a)) - a)$$

= $\lambda^*((E \cap (A+a)) - a) + \lambda^*((E \cap (A+a)^c) - a)$
= $\lambda^*(E \cap (A+a)) + \lambda^*(E \cap (A+a)^c)$

Thus, for any $A \in \mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*}$, we have $\lambda(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda^*(A) = \lambda^*(A+a) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda(A+a)$

In fact, <u>all</u> finite Borel measures are of this form.

Theorem 0.10. Suppose μ is a finite Borel measure. Then $\mu = \mu_F$, where F is the cumulative distribution function, $F(x) = \mu((-\infty, x))$.

Proof. Recall, we already showed that for any finite measure μ on $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$, $F(x) = \mu((-\infty, x])$ is nondecreasing and right-continuous.

We seek to show $\mu(E) = \mu_F(E)$ for all $E \in \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$.

First, consider the half-open interval (a, b], $a \le b$. μ is a measure by hypothesis, so in particular is finitely additive:

$$\mu((a,b]) + \underbrace{\mu((-\infty,a])}_{=F(a)} = \underbrace{\mu((-\infty,b])}_{=F(b)}$$

So, $\mu((a,b]) = F(b) - F(a) = \mu_F((a,b])$. Now, fix $E \in \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$. Consider $\{(a_i,b_i]\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that $E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i,b_i]$.

By countable subadditivity,

$$\mu(E) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu((a_i, b_i]) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (F(b_i) - F(a_i))$$

Taking the infimum over all such covers, $\mu(E) \leq \mu_F(E)$. It remains to show the opposite inequality.

Since $E \in \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ was arbitrary,

$$\mu(E^c) \le \mu_F(E^c)$$

Thus $\mu(E) + \mu(E^c) = \mu(\mathbb{R})$. Then $\mu(E) = \mu(\mathbb{R}) - \mu(E^c)$. So

$$\mu(E) \ge \mu(\mathbb{R}) - \mu_F(E^c)$$

$$= \mu_F(R) - \mu_F(E^c)$$

$$= \mu_F(E)$$

But the above has a gap: in particular, we don't know that $\mu(\mathbb{R}) = \mu_F(\mathbb{R})$. If we prove that, we are done.

Claim. $\mu(\mathbb{R}) = \mu_F(\mathbb{R})$.

Proof.

$$\mu(\mathbb{R}) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} [-i, i]\right) \xrightarrow{\text{by upper continuity}} \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu((-i, i])$$

$$= \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu_F((-i, i]) \underbrace{\qquad}_{\text{by lower continuity}} \mu_F\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} [-i, i]\right) = \mu_F(\mathbb{R})$$

We conclude our study of Borel measures on the real line with some regularity properties of Lebesgue-Stieljes measures.

Lemma 2. Given $F: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ nondecreasing, right-continuous, for all $E \in \mathscr{M}_{\mu_F^*}$,

$$\mu_F(E) = \inf\{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_F((a_i, b_i)) \mid E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i), a_i \le b_i\}$$

Proof. By HW3Q2,

$$\mu_F(E) = \inf\{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_F(A_i) \mid E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i, \{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in \mathscr{M}_{\mu_F^*}^{\mathbb{N}}\}$$

Thus, " \leq " must hold. It remains to show the opposite inequality. By definition, for all $E \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu_F^*}$,

$$\mu_F^*(E) = \inf\{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (F(b_i) - F(a_i)) \mid E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i], a_i \le b_i\}$$

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exists a sequence of intervals $\{(a_i, b_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that $E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i]$ and

$$\mu_F(E) + E \ge \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (F(b_i) - F(a_i))$$

Furthermore, for any $(a_i, b_i]$, we may define $B_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (a_i, b_i + \frac{1}{n})$, and since $\mu_F(B_1) < +\infty$, continuity from above ensures

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(B_n) = \mu_F \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_n\right) = \mu_F((a_i, b_i])$$

Thus, for all i, there exists a $\delta_i > 0$ such that

$$\mu_F((a_i, b_i + \delta_i]) \le \mu_F((a_i, b_i]) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^i}$$

Thus,

$$\mu_F(E) \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_F((a_i, b_i + \delta_i])$$

$$\le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_F((a_i, b_i]) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^i}$$

$$\le \mu_F(E) + 2\varepsilon$$

Letting $\varepsilon \to 0$, this shows the other direction.

Lecture 7

Recall: Given $F: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ nondecreasing and right continuous,

$$\mu_F^*(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \inf \{ \sum_i ((F(b_i) - F(a_i)) \mid A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i], a_i \le b_i \}$$

Theorem 0.11.

$$\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}\subseteq\mathcal{M}_{\mu_{F}^{st}}$$

We will show that in general, this is a strict containment.

Theorem 0.12. For any $E \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu_F^*}$,

$$\mu_F(E) = \inf \{ \mu_F(U) \mid E \subseteq U, Uopen \}$$

= \sup \{ \mu_F(K) \color K \subseteq E, K compact \}

Proof. Fix $E \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu_F^*}$.

Step 1

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. The lemma proven in the previous lecture ensures that there exists $\{(a_i, b_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that $E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i)$ and

$$\mu_F \underbrace{\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i)\right)}_{\text{def}_{II}} \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_F((a_i, b_i)) \le \mu_F(E) + \varepsilon$$

The first inequality is by countable additivity of μ , and the second by construction.

Step 2

There are a few cases:

1. In the first case, assume that E is bounded. If E is closed, then by Heine-Borel E is compact, and taking K = E gives the result. Next, suppose that E is not closed. Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. By step 1, there exists an open $U \supseteq \overline{E} \setminus E$ such that

$$\mu_F(U) \le \mu_F(\overline{E} \setminus E) + \varepsilon$$

Define $K = \overline{E} \setminus U$. Then K is compact. By definition,

$$K = \overline{E} \cap U^c \subseteq \overline{E} \cap (\overline{E} \cap E^c)^c$$
$$= \overline{E} \cap (\overline{E}^c \cup E) = E$$

So

$$\mu_F(E \cap U) + \mu_F(K) \ge \mu_F(E \cap U) + \mu_F(E \setminus U) = \mu_F(E)$$

Since E is bounded, $\mu_F(E \cap U) < +\infty$, $\mu_F(U) < +\infty$, so

$$\mu_F(K) \ge \mu_F(E) - \mu_F(E \cap U)$$

$$= \mu_F(E) - (\mu_F(U) - \mu_F(E \setminus U))$$

$$\ge \mu_F(E) - \mu_F(U) + \mu_F(\overline{E} \setminus E)$$

$$\ge \mu_F(E) - \varepsilon$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, this gives the result.

2. In the second case, assume that E is unbounded. Define $E_j = E \cap (j, j+1], j \in \mathbb{Z}$. E_j is clearly bounded, so by case 1, we know that for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a compact $K_j \subseteq E_j$, such that

$$\mu_F(K_j) \ge \mu_F(E_j) - \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{|j|}}$$

Then $H_n = \bigcup_{j=-n}^n E_j$ is compact, with $H_n \subseteq E$. By additivity,

$$\mu_F(H_n) = \sum_{j=-n}^n \mu_F(K_j) \ge \sum_{j=-n}^n \mu_F(E_j) - 2\varepsilon$$

$$\ge \mu_F \left(\bigcup_{j=-n}^n E_j\right) - 2\varepsilon$$

By continuity from below, we may pick $N \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large so that

$$\mu_F \left(\bigcup_{j=-N}^N E_j \right) \ge \mu_F(E) - \varepsilon$$

Thus,

$$\mu_F(H_N) \ge \mu_F(E) - \varepsilon$$

Time for an important example.

Example 0.7. The Cantor Set

Warmup:

 $\lambda(\{a\}) = 0$, $\lambda(\mathbb{Q}) = \lambda(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{r_i\})$, where r_i is some enumeration of \mathbb{Q} . Then the above is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda(\{r_i\}) = 0$.

On the other hand, fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and define

$$U = (0,1) \cap \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (r_j - \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{j+1}}, r_j + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{j+1}}) \right)$$

Then U is open and dense in (0,1). From a topological perspective, this means that U is "large" (comeagre).

However, in a measurable sense, U is "small:"

$$\lambda(U) \le \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon}{2^j} = \varepsilon$$

Note: U depends on ε , so we have <u>not</u> shown that $\mu(U) = 0$.

Now we construct the Cantor set.

Start with $U_1 = (0, 1)$. Let U_2 be U_1 with the middle third removed, so is two disjoint intervals. Inductively, let U_i be U_{i-1} , with the middle thirds of all intervals removed. Then the Cantor set is the intersection of all U_i .

Alternatively, the Cantor set is every real in (0,1) whose base 3 expansion does not contain a 2.

Theorem 0.13. Let C be the Cantor set. Then

- (i) C is compact, nowhere dense, and totally disconnected (meaning the only connected subsets are singletons). Further, C has no isolated points.
- (ii) $\lambda(C) = 0$.
- (iii) C has cardinality of the continuum.

Measurable Functions

Definition 0.13. Given $f: X \to Y$, $f^{-1}(E) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in E\}$ is called the preimage of f

These are basic set theory facts from HW 1:

$$f^{-1}(\cup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha}) = \cup_{\alpha} f^{-1}(E_{\alpha})$$
$$f^{-1}(E^{c}) = (f^{-1}(E))^{c}$$
$$f^{-1}(\cap_{\alpha} E_{\alpha}) = \cap_{\alpha} f^{-1}(E\alpha)$$

Definition 0.14. Suppose $(X, \mathcal{M}), (Y, \mathcal{N})$ are measurable spaces, and $f : X \to Y$. Then $\{f^{-1}(E) \mid E \in \mathcal{N}\}$ is the <u>pullback of \mathcal{N} </u>, and $\{E \mid f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}\}$ is the pushforward of \mathcal{M} .

Definition 0.15. A function $f: X \to Y$ is $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N})$ -measurable if for all $E \in \mathcal{N}$, $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}$.

Equivalently, the pullback of \mathcal{M} is a subset of N. Equivalently, \mathcal{N} is a subset of the pushforward of \mathcal{M} .

Informally, "the inverse image of every measurable set is measurable" (Katy says the reason this isn't formal is because "measurable set" already means something specific in the context of an outer measure).

If $f: X \to \mathbb{R}(\overline{\mathbb{R}})$, we will suppose that the range is endowed with $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathscr{B}_{\overline{\mathbb{R}}})$.

Definition 0.16. (a) $f: \mathbb{R} \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is Lebesgue Measurable if it is $(\mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*}, \mathscr{B}_{\overline{\mathbb{R}}})$ -measurable.

(b) Given topological spaces $X, Y, f: X \to Y$ is <u>Borel Measurable</u> if it is $(\mathcal{B}_X, \mathcal{B}_Y)$ measurable.

Remark. Given $f: \mathbb{R} \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$, which is a stronger criteria: being Borel measurable, or being Lebesgue measurable? Borel measurable implies Lebesgue measurable since $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*}$.

Proposition 6. Given measureable spaces $(X, \mathcal{M}), (Y, \mathcal{N})$, where \mathcal{N} is generated by \mathcal{E} . Then $f: X \to Y$ is $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N})$ -measurable is equivalent to $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $E \in \mathcal{N}$.

Proof. One direction is immediate. For the other direction, since $\{E: f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}\}$ (the pushforward of \mathcal{M}) is a σ -algebra containing \mathcal{E} . By assumption, \mathcal{N} is generated by \mathcal{E} , meaning $\mathcal{N} \subseteq \{E \mid f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}\}$.

Corollary 0.14. If X and Y are topological spaces, then every continuous function $f: X \to Y$ is Borel measurable.

Proof. Since the open subsets of Y generate the σ -algebra $\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{B}_Y$, the previous proposition ensures that it suffices to check $f^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{B}_X$ for all U open, and this is true, since $f^{-1}(U)$ is open.

Corollary 0.15. If (X, \mathcal{M}) is a measurable space and $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ the following are equivalent:

- (i) f is $(\mathcal{M}, \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable.
- (ii) $f^{-1}((a, +\infty)) \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (iii) $f^{-1}((-\infty, a)) \in \mathcal{M} \text{ for all } a \in \mathbb{R}$

If (X, \mathcal{M}) is a measurable space and $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ the following are equivalent:

(i) f is $(\mathcal{M}, \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable.

- (ii) $f^{-1}((a, +\infty]) \in \mathcal{M} \text{ for all } a \in \mathbb{R}.$
- (iii) $f^{-1}([-\infty, a)) \in \mathcal{M} \text{ for all } a \in \mathbb{R}$

Lecture 8

Proof. Since open rays generate $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$, and half-open rays generate $\mathscr{B}_{\overline{\mathbb{R}}}$, this follows immediately from the proposition.

For the rest of this lecture, let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space. We say a function $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is measurable if it is $(\updownarrow, \mathscr{B}_{\overline{\mathbb{R}}})$ -measurable.

Theorem 0.16. Given $f_1, f_2, \dots : X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ measurable, then the fullowing are also measurable:

- (i) $f_i + f_j$
- (ii) $f_i f_j$ (our convention is $0 \times x = 0$ even if $x = \pm \infty$.
- (iii) $f_i \vee f_j$, where \vee means pointwise maximum, i.e. $f_i \vee f_j(x) = \max(f_i(x), f_j(x))$
- (iv) $f_i \wedge f_j$, where \wedge means pointwise minimum, i.e. $f_i \wedge f_j(x) = \min(f_i(x), f_j(x))$.
- (v) $\sup_n f_n = \vee_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$.
- (vi) $\inf_n f_n = \wedge_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$.
- (vii) $\limsup_{n\to\infty} f_n$
- (viii) $\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n$
 - (ix) $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n$, if this limit exists everywhere.

Remark. Question: suppose $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i(x)$ exists for all $x \in X$. Does it follow that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i(x)$ measurable? Yes! By part (i), any finite sum is measurable, and by part (ix) the limit of these partial sums (which is what an infinite sum is) is measurable.

Proof. (i) HW5

- (ii) See above
- (iii) Fix $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$(f_i \vee f_j)^{-1}((a, +\infty]) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid f_i \vee f_j(x) > a\}$$

$$= \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid f_i(x) > a\} \cup \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid f_i \vee f_j(x) > a\}$$

$$= f_i^{-1}((a, +\infty]) \cup f_2^{-1}((a, +\infty])$$

By the previous corollary, we are done.

- (iv) Similar to above
- (v) Fix $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$(\sup_{n} f_n)^{-1}((a, +\infty]) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid \sup_{n} f_n(x) > a\}$$
$$= \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid f_n(x) > a\}$$

By assumption, $\{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid f_i > a\}$ is measurable for all a, i.

(vi) Similar to above

(vii)

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} f_n = \inf_n \sup_{k \neq n} f_k$$

The right hand side is measurable by parts (v) and (vi)

- (viii) Similar to above
 - (ix) Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x)$ exists for all $x\in X$, the lim sup and lim inf of the sequence both exist and are equal to the limit. So by (vii) this is measurable.

Remark. What about the composition of measurable functions? For example, if $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ are both Borel measurable, then $f \circ g$ is Borel measurable. What if f, g are Lebesgue measurable? No, because a function being "Lebesgue measurable" means it is measurable when the domain has the Lebesgue σ -algebra, and the codomain has the Borel σ -algebra. In other words, it is "Lebesgue Measurable" if the preimage of any Borel set is a Lebesgue set.

Only The Things Above Here Are On Midterm 1

Simple functions

Definition 0.17. For any $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}$, the <u>indicator function</u> of A is the function

$$1_A(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} 1 & x \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In the book, the notation χ_A is also used. Katy will not do this because, in her opinion, the notation " χ_A " is overloaded.

Definition 0.18. A $(\mathcal{M}, \mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable function $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a <u>simple function</u> if its image is a finite subset of \mathbb{R} . The standard representation of a simple function is

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i 1_{E_i}(x)$$

where $f(\mathcal{X}) = \{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$, and $E_i = f^{-1}(c_i)$.

Remark. $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ is a disjoint partition of \mathcal{X} .

Example 0.8. There are many ways a simple function can be expressed as a linear combination of indicator functions:

$$f(x) \equiv 2$$

= $2 \cdot 1_{\mathbb{R}}$
= $2 \cdot 1_{[0,+\infty)} + 2 \cdot 1_{(-\infty,0)}$
= etc .

The last two are not in standard representation.

It is "easy" to define the integral of a simple function.

Definition 0.19. For any measure space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$, we can define the integral of a simple function to be

$$\int f \, d\mu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \mu(E_i)$$

Again, we use the convention $0 \times \pm \infty = 0$.

For $A \in \mathcal{M}$, define

$$\int_A f \, d\mu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int f \cdot 1_A \, d\mu$$

 $f \cdot 1_A$ is the simple function $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i 1_{E_i \cap A}$. Note that $E_i \cap A$ could have zero measure, or even be empty. Recall that $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$.

Remark. Sometimes we will write

$$\int_{A} f \, d\mu = \int_{A} f$$

and suppress the $d\mu$ in the notation.

Next, we will show that we can approximate any nonnegative measurable functions.

Theorem 0.17. Given $f: \mathcal{X} \to [0, \infty]$ measurable, there exists a sequence f_n of simple functions so that f_n converges up to f pointwise. To be clear: for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $f_n(x)$ is an increasing sequence which converges to f(x).

Proof. For $n \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$, $0 \le k \le 2^{2^n} - 1$, define

$$E_n^k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f^{-1}((k2^{-n}, (k+1)2^{-n}])$$

and

$$F_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f^{-1}((2^n, +\infty])$$

Now, let

$$f_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{k=0}^{2^{2^n} - 1} k 2^{-n} 1_{E_n^k} + 2^n 1_{F_n}$$

Key properties of this construction:

- $f_1 \leq f_2 \leq f_3 \leq \cdots$
- $0 \le f f_n \le 2^{-n}$ on F_n^c .

Thus, f_n increases to f pointwise.

In order to apply this to integrate general nonnegative functions, we will use the following properties of integrating simple functions.

Proposition 7. On simple functions, the integral is linear, and preserves order. That is, if $f \leq g$, then $\int f \leq \int g$.

Further, $\nu(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_A f \, d\mu$ is a measure on \mathcal{M} .

Lecture 9

Proof. Let $f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i 1_{E_i}$, $g = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j 1_{F_j}$ be the standard representations of simple functions.

(a) Suppose $c \neq 0$. Then,

$$c \int f = c \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \mu(E_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c a_i \mu(E_i) = \int c f$$

since $\sum_{i=1}^{n} ca_i 1_{E_i} = cf$ is the standard representation.

(b) $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{F_j\}_{j=1}^n$ are partitions of X. So

$$E_i = \coprod_{j=1}^m E_i \cap F_j, \ F_j = \coprod_{i=1}^n F_j \cap E_i$$

By definition,

$$\int f + \int g = \sum_{i} a_i \mu(E_i) + \sum_{j} b_i \mu(F_j)$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} \left(a_i \mu(E_i \cap F_j) + b_j \mu(E_i \cap F_j) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} (a_i + b_j) \mu(E_i \cap F_j)$$

Let $h = \sum_{i,j} (a_i + b_j) 1_{E_i \cap F_j} = f + g$. But this is not necessarily the standard representation of h.

Let $\{c_\ell\}_{\ell=1}^k$ be the distinct values of $\{a_i + b_j\}_{i,j}$.

Likewise, let $G_{\ell} = h^{-1}(c_{\ell}) = \bigcup_{i,j,a_i+b_j=c} (E_i \cap F_j).$

Then

$$\sum_{i,j} (a_i + b_j) \mu(E_i \cap F_j) = \sum_{\ell=1}^k \sum_{i,j,a_i + b_j = c_\ell} (a_i + b_j) \mu(E_i \cap F_j)$$

$$= \sum_{\ell=1}^k c_\ell \mu(G_\ell)$$

$$= \int (f + g)$$

(c) If $f \leq g$, then $a_i \leq b_j$ whenever $E_i \cap F_j \neq \emptyset$. So

$$\int f = \sum_{i,j} a_i \mu(E_i \cap F_j) \le \sum_{i,j} b_j \mu(E_i \cap F_j) = \int g$$

(d) Let $\nu(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_A f$. This is a nonnegative function on \mathcal{M} . Now,

$$\nu(\varnothing) = \int_{\varnothing} f = \int f 1_{\varnothing} = \int f 0 = 0 \int f = 0$$

Finally, given a disjoint sequence of sets $\{A_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}, A = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$, then

$$\nu(A) = \int_{A} f = \int f 1_{A} = \sum_{i, E_{i} \cap A \neq \varnothing, c_{i} \neq 0} c_{i} \mu(E_{i} \cap A)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \mu(E_{i} \cap A) = \sum_{i, k} a_{i} \mu(E_{i} \cap A_{k})$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i, E_{i} \cap A_{k} \neq 0, a_{i} \neq 0} \mu(E_{i} \cap A_{k})$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int f 1_{A_{k}} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_{k})$$

Remark. Parts (a) and (b) ensure we no longer have to worry about standard representations.

Suppose $f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i 1_{E_i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} d_j 1_{F_j}$. Then

$$\sum_{j} d_{j} \mu(F_{j}) = \sum_{j} d_{j} \int 1_{F_{j}} = \int \sum_{j} d_{j} 1_{F_{j}} = \int f$$

Integration of nonnegative measurable functions

Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

Definition 0.20. Given $f: X \to [0, \infty]$ measurable, define the integral of f by

$$\int f d\mu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sup \{ \int \phi \, d\mu \mid 0 \le \phi \le f, \phi \text{ simple} \}$$

Remark. (i) If f is simple, this agrees with our previous definition.

(ii) For $c \geq 0$,

$$\int cf \, d\mu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sup \{ \int \phi \, d\mu \mid 0 \le \phi \le cf, \phi \text{ simple} \}$$

$$= \sup \{ \int \phi \, d\mu \mid 0 \le \frac{\phi}{c} \le f, \phi \text{ simple} \}$$

$$= \sup \{ \int c\psi \, d\mu \mid 0 \le \psi \le f, \psi \text{ simple} \}$$

$$= c \sup \{ \int \psi \, d\mu \mid 0 \le \psi \le f, \psi \text{ simple} \}$$

$$= c \int f \, d\mu$$

Likewise, if c = 0, we see $\int cf d\mu = 0$.

(iii) If $f \leq g$, then $\int f \leq \int g$. This follows immediately from the definition. Recall: A major deficiency of the Riemann integral is that it was difficult to develope minimal criteria to ensure

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \, d\mu = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n \, d\mu$$

We are now ready for our second major theorem (the first being the characterization of all finite measures on \mathbb{R} as Lebesgue-Stieljes measures)

Theorem 0.18. (Monotonce Convergence Theorem) Given $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ nonnegative measurable functions such that $f_n \leq f_{n+1}$, then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \, d\mu = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n \, d\mu$$

Proof. " \leq " is easy - we know by monotonicity of f_n , $f_n \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$, so

$$\int f_n \le \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \le \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

Now for " \geq ".

Let ϕ be a simple function such that $0 \le \phi \le \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$.

Then, for any $a \in (0,1)$, if $\phi(x) \neq 0$,

$$a\phi(x) < \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x)$$

Definte $E_n = \{x \mid f_n(x) \ge a\phi(x)\} \in \mathcal{M}$.

Since f_n is increasing, $E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq E_3 \subseteq \cdots$.

Furthermore, $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = X$, since if $\phi(x) = 0$, then $x \in E_n$ for all x, and if $\phi(x) \neq 0$, the above ensures that for all $x \in X$, there is some N such that $n \geq N$ implies $f_n(x) > a\phi(x)$.

We have

$$\int f_n \ge \int_{E_n} f_n \ge \int_{E_n} a\phi$$

Since $\nu(A) = \int_A \phi$ is a measure, by continuity from below, $\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_{E_n} \phi = \int_{\cup_n E_n} = \int \phi$.

Thus, taking limits in the above expression,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \ge a \int \phi$$

Since ϕ was arbitrary, taking the supremum over ϕ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \ge a \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

Sending $a \to 1$ gives the result.

Theorem 0.19. (Beppo-Levi)

Given $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ a sequence of nonnegative measurable functions,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int f_n d\mu = \int \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n d\mu$$

Proof. First, fix f, g nonnegative, measurable. There exist sequences $\{\phi_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}, \{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ simple, with $\phi_i \uparrow f, \psi_j \uparrow g$ pointwise.

In particular, $\phi_i + \psi_i \uparrow f + g$.

$$\int f + g = \int \lim_{i \to \infty} \phi_i + \psi_i = \lim_{i \to \infty} \int \phi_i + \psi_i$$

$$= \lim_{i \to \infty} \int \phi_i + \lim_{i \to \infty} \int \psi_i$$

$$= \int \lim_{i \to \infty} \phi_i + \int \lim_{i \to \infty} \psi_i$$

$$= \int f + \int g$$

By induction, for all $N \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\int \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \int f_n$$

Lecture 10

So, for all $N \in N$

$$\int \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \int f_n$$

Thus, by the monotone convergence theorem,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int f_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \int f_n = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n = \int \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$$

Without monootnicity of the sequence f_n , you can still get an inequality for liminfs.

Lemma 3. (Fatou's Lemma)

Given $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, nonnegative, measurable,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \, d\mu \ge \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n \, d\mu$$

Proof. By definition, $\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \inf_{\underline{k\geq n}} (f_k)$. Further, $g_n \leq g_{n+1}$ for all

 $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Thus, by the monotone convergence theorem,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int g_n = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} = \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

By definition, $g_n \leq f_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, so $\int g_n \leq \int f_n$. Taking the liminf of both sides,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \ge \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int g_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int g_n = \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

Example 0.9. Here are two important examples where strict inequality occurs. We sill use $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*}, \lambda)$.

1. The "runs away to infinity" example. Consider $f_n=1_{[n,n+1]}$. It is clear that $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n=0$. However, $\int f_n=1$ for all n. So

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n = 1 > 0 = \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

2. The "goes up the spout" example. Let $f_n = n1_{[0,\frac{1}{n}]}$. We see $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = \begin{cases} 0 & x \neq 0 \\ +\infty & x = 0 \end{cases}$ But, for each f_n , $\int f_n = 1$. So

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n = 1 > 0 = \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

In the second example, we accept on faith that the integral of a function which is zero almost everywhere is zero. If we don't want to do that, we can prove it using

the simple functions
$$g_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \neq 0 \\ n & x = 0 \end{cases}$$
.

Proposition 8. Given $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ measurable, then if $\int f d\mu < +\infty$, we know

- (i) $\{x \mid f(x) = +\infty\}$ is a null set.
- (ii) $\{x \mid f(x) > 0\}$ is σ -finite (i.e. a countable union of measurable sets of finite measure).

Proof. Homework 6

Proposition 9. Given $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ measurable, then $\int f d\mu = 0$ if and only if f = 0 μ -almost everywhere.

Proof. First, suppose f is a simple function, so

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i 1_{E_i}$$

Then $\int f \, d\mu = 0$ is equivalent to $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu(E_i)$. By hypothesis, f is nonnegative, so we are forced to conclude that, for every i, either $a_i = 0$ or $\mu(E_i) = 0$. If $a_i = 0$, then $f|_{E_i} \equiv 0$, and if $\mu(E_i) = 0$, f achieves the value a_i only on a measure zero set. Now for more general f.

Suppose f = 0 μ -almost everywhere. Then,

$$\int f \, d\mu = \sup \{ \int \phi \, d\mu \mid 0 \le \phi \le f, \phi \text{ simple} \}$$

But for every such ϕ , $\int \phi = 0$. So the supremum of f over this set is 0. Conversely, if $\int f d\mu = 0$, then by definition, we must have that $\int \phi d\mu = 0$ for all $0 \le \phi \le f$. Assume for the sake of contradiction that f = 0 μ -almost everywhere fails. That is, there exists a set A with $\mu(A) = 0$ so that $f|_A > 0$.

Note that
$$\{x \mid f(x) > 0\} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{x \mid f(x) > \frac{1}{n}\}.$$

Then $\mu(A) \leq \mu(\{x \mid f(x) > 0\}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_n)$ by subadditivity. Thus $\mu(E_n) > 0$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $\phi = \frac{1}{n} 1_{E_n}$. Then $0 \leq \phi \leq f$, but $\int \phi \, d\mu = \frac{1}{n} \mu(E_n) > 0$, a contradiction.

Integration of Real Functions

Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space. Given $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$,

"positive part"
$$\overbrace{f_+} = f \vee 0$$

$$\underbrace{f_-} = (-f) \vee 0$$
 "negative part"

Note that the negative part is a positive function. Note $f = f_+ - f_-, |f| = f_+ + f_-$.

Definition 0.21. Given $f: \mathbb{R} \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ measurable, if one of $\int f_+, \int f_-$ is finite, then we define

$$\int f \, d\mu \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int f_+ \, d\mu - \int f_- \, d\mu$$

If both $\int f_+ d\mu$, $\int f_- d\mu$ are finite, then $\int |f| d\mu$ is finite. In the case that $\int f$ is finite, we say that f is integrable, and we write $f \in L^1(\mu)$.

Proposition 10. $L^1(\mu)$, the space of integrable functions, is a real vector space, and $\int d\mu$ is a linear functional on it.

Proof. Fix $f, g \in L^1(\mu), a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Note $af + bg \in L^1(\mu)$ and

$$|af + bg| \le |a||f| + |b||g|$$

So

$$\int |af + bg| d\mu \le \int |a||f| d\mu + \int |b||g| d\mu$$
$$= |a| \int |f| d\mu + |b| \int |g| d\mu$$
$$< \infty$$

Thus, $af + bg \in L^1(\mu)$, which proves that it is a real vector space. Now, let $f \in L^1(\mu)$, $a \ge 0$,

$$\int af = \int af_{+} - \int af_{-} = a \int f_{+} - a \int f_{-} = a \int f$$

For $a \leq 0$, the result follows by replacing f with -f. Thus, $\forall f \in L^1\mu, a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\int af = a \int f$.

We just now have to check that it behaves well under sums.

We'll come back to this proof. It boils down to a bunch of boring cases, and Katy will fill this in later. In broad strokes,

$$\int f + g = \text{stuff}$$

$$= \text{stuff}$$

$$= \text{stuff}$$

$$= \int f_{+} + \int g_{+} - \left(\int f_{-} + \int g_{-} \right)$$

$$= \int f + \int g$$

Proposition 11. If $f \in L^1(\mu)$, then

$$\left| \int f \, d\mu \right| \le \int |f| \, d\mu$$

Proof.

$$\left| \int f \, d\mu \right| = \left| \int f_{+} - \int f_{-} \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \int f_{+} \right| + \left| \int f_{-} \right|$$

$$= \int f_{+} + \int f_{-}$$

$$= \int f_{+} + f_{-} = \int |f|$$

Proposition 12. If $f, g \in L^1(\mu)$, then $\int |f - g| d\mu = 0$ if and only if f = g μ -almost everywhere.

Proof. This is an immediate corollary of previous proposition about nonnegative measurable functions, taking h = |f - g|.

The moral is that if you modify a function on a null set, it does not change the integral.

Consequently, even if a function f is only <u>defined</u> almost everywhere, $\underline{\int} f$ is still well-defined, since we may take f to be equal to <u>any particular element of $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ </u> where it is not defined, and it won't affect $\underline{\int} f$.

We have already shown $L^1(\mu)$ is a vector space... is it a metric space?

What if we define $d_{L^1}(f,g) = \int |f-g| d\mu$? Well, if f and g agree almost everywhere, but not everywhere, then $\int |f-g| d\mu = 0$, but $f \neq g$.

We see that, when d_{L^1} is defined on all integrable functions, it fails to be nondegenerate. The solution is to slightly modify our definition of L^1 .

Definition 0.22. $L^1(\mu) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{f : X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}} \text{ measurable}, \int |f| d\mu < +\infty\} / \sim$, where $f \sim g$ if and only if f = g μ -almost everywhere.

Remark. By abuse of notation, let $f \in L^1(\mu)$ denote

- 1. The equivalence class [f] under \sim
- 2. A representative of this equivalence class
- **3.** A representative which is only defined μ -almost everywhere.

Proposition 13. We can define a norm, $||f||_{L^1(\mu)} = \int |f| d\mu$ on $L^1(\mu)$.

Proof. The triangle inequality follows directly from the fact that

$$\left| \int f \right| \le \int |f|$$

Absolute homogeneity is a consequence of the linearity of the integral, and nondegeneracy is a consequence of the fact that a $\int |f| d\mu = 0$ if and only if f = 0 μ -almost everywhere.

Recall that a hypothesis of Fatou's lemma is that the functions f_n are nonnegative. Is this necessary? It turns out yes, and here is an example of why.

Example 0.10. This is the "goes down the spout" example. Let $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{M}_{\lambda^*}, \lambda)$.

Let
$$f_n = -n1_{[0,\frac{1}{n}]}$$
. Then $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = \begin{cases} 0 & x \neq 0 \\ -\infty & x = 0 \end{cases}$.

So

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n = -1 \not \ge 0 = \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

Is there a theorem that will allow us to interchange the limit and the integral of a wider class of sequences of functions? Tune in next time...

Lecture 11

The following is the 4th major theorem of the course.

Theorem 0.20. (Dominated Convergence Theorem)

Given a $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \in (L^1(\mu))^{\mathbb{N}}$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n$ exists μ -almost everywhere, then if there exists $g \in L^1(\mu)$ such that $|f_n| \leq g$ μ -almost everywhere for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \, d\mu = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n \, d\mu$$

Proof.

Remark. g does <u>not</u> need to be bounded. For example, if we take $g = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} 1_{[-1,1]}(x)$, then $\int g(x) d\lambda(x) = \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{|x|}} = 4 < \infty$.

Remark. Recall Fatou's lemma for nonnegative, measurable functions:

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \, d\mu \ge \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n \, d\mu$$

No dominating function can exist for the "run off to infinity" example (i.e. $f_n = 1_{[n,n+1)}$).

Proof. Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n$ exists μ -almost everywhere and $|f_n| \leq g$ μ -almost everywhere for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\left|\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n\right| \le g, \ \mu - \text{almost everywhere}$$

Thus $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n \in L^1(\mu)$. Since $g - f_n \ge 0$ and $g + f_n \ge 0$ μ -almost everywhere for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, Fatou's lemma ensures

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf \int g + f_n \ge \int \liminf_{n \to \infty} g + f_n$$

$$= \int g + \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

$$= \int g + \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

and

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \int g - f_n \ge \int \limsup_{n \to \infty} g - f_n$$

$$= \int g - \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

$$= \int g - \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

Because $\int g < \infty$, we may subtract $\int g$ on both sides, so

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \ge \int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$$

$$\ge \limsup_{n \to \infty} \int f_n$$

Thus, equality holds throughout, which gives the result.

Using the dominated convergence theorem, we can identify the useful subsets of functions that are dense in $L^1(\mu)$.

The following can be considered the 5th major theorem of the course.

Theorem 0.21. For any measure space (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) ,

• Simple functions are dense in $L^1(\mu)$

If μ is a Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure on \mathbb{R} ,

• Simple functions of the form

$$\xi = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j 1_{I_j}, I_j = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m} U_{ij}$$

For any U_{ij} open, are dense in $L^1(\mu)$.

• $C_c(\mathbb{R})$ (the continuous, compactly supported real functions) is dense in $L^1(\mu)$. We define the support of a function as supp $f = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(x) \neq 0\}$

Our proof of this theorem relies on the following lemma, whose proof will be assigned on HW6

Lemma 4. If μ is a Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure and $E \in \mathcal{M}_{\mu^*}$ with $\mu(E) < \infty$, then for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist open intervals $\{I_i\}_{i=1}^n$ so that

$$\mu\left(E \bigtriangleup \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} I_{i}\right)\right) < \varepsilon$$

Proof. Fix $f \in L^1(\mu)$. Since f_+, f_- are nonnegative, measurable functions, there exist simple functions $\psi_n \uparrow f_+$ and $\zeta_n \uparrow f_-$ pointwise.

Thus, $\psi_n - \zeta_n \to f_+ - f_- = f$ pointwise. Furthermore, $|(\psi_n - \zeta_n)| \le \psi_n + \zeta_n + |f| \le f_+ + f_- + |f| = 2|f|$. Because $f \in L^1(\mu)$, $2|f| \in L^1(\mu)$. So we can use the Dominated Convergence Theorem, which ensures

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int |(\psi_n - \zeta_n) - f| = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} |(\psi_n - \zeta_n) - f| = 0$$

Thus, for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a simple function ϕ such that $\|\phi - f\|_{L^1(\mu)} < \varepsilon$. This shows simple functions are dense in $L^1(\mu)$.

Now, suppose μ is a Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure on \mathbb{R} . Fix $\varepsilon > 0$, and let ϕ be a simple function as above such that

$$\|\phi-f\|_{L^1(\mu)}<\frac{\varepsilon}{2},\ |\phi|\leq |f|$$

Let $\phi = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j 1_{E_j}$. Without loss of generality, we may suppose $a_j \neq 0$ for all j and $\{E_j\}_{j=1}^n$ are disjoint.

By construction, for any j,

$$|a_j|\mu(E_j) \le \int |\phi| d\mu \le \int |f| d\mu < +\infty$$

Thus, $\mu(E_j) < +\infty$. So, by the lemma, there exist open intervals

$$\{I_i^j\}_{i=1}^m$$

so that $\mu(E_j \triangle (\bigcup_{i=1}^m I_i^j)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2 \max_i |a_i| n}$. Thus,

$$\|\phi - \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} 1_{\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} I_{i}^{j}} \|_{L^{1}(\mu)} = \|\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} 1_{E_{j}} - \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} 1_{\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} I_{i}^{j}} \|_{L^{1}(\mu)}$$

$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{j}| \|1_{E_{j}} - 1_{\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} I_{i}^{j}} \|_{L^{1}(\mu)})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{j}| \mu(E_{j} \triangle (\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} I_{i}^{j}))$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, this gives the result. To show $C_c(\mathbb{R})$ is dense in $L^1(\mu)$, it suffices to show that for any

$$\psi = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j 1_{\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} I_i^j}$$

and $\varepsilon > 0$, there is an $f \in C_c(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$||f - \psi||_{L^1(\mu)} < \varepsilon$$

Note that, for any open interval I_i^j , there exists $f_{ij} \in C_c(\mathbb{R})$ so that

$$\|1_{I_i^j} - f_{ij}\|_{L^1(\mu)} < \varepsilon$$

We can accomplish this via something like continuous bump functions. We will finish the proof next time.

Lecture 12

For any interval I_i^j , there exists a $f_{ij} \in C_c(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$||1_{I_i^j} - f_{ij}||_{L^1(\mu)} < \int_{(a_j - \frac{1}{k}, a_{ij}) \cup (b_{ij}, b_{ij} + \frac{1}{k})} f_{ij} d\mu$$

$$\leq \mu((a_{ij} - \frac{1}{k}, a_{ij})) + \mu((b_{ij}, b_{ij} + \frac{1}{k})) \to 0$$

As $k \to \infty$, the above goes to 0 by continuity from above. So, in particular, for each I_i^j , there is some $f_{ij} \in C_c(\mathbb{R})$ so that $\|1_{I_i^j} - f_{ij}\|_{L^1(\mu)} < \frac{\varepsilon}{(\max_j a_j)nm}$, where n, m are the upper bounds of the indexing sets that i, j come from. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $I_i^j \cap I_{i'}^{j'} = \emptyset$ unless $\delta_{ii'}\delta_{jj'} = 1$. Thus,

$$\|\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} 1_{\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} I_{j}^{i}} - \sum_{i,j} \underbrace{\sum_{i,j}^{\in C_{c}(\mathbb{R})}}_{i,j} \|_{L^{1}(\mu)} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{j}| \|1_{\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} I_{j}^{i}} - \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_{ij} \|_{L^{1}(\mu)}$$

$$\leq \sum_{i,j} |a_{j}| \|1_{I_{j}^{i}} - f_{ij} \|_{L^{1}(\mu)}$$

$$< \varepsilon$$

Remark. We showed it suffices to consider simple functions of the form $\xi = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j 1_{\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} I_j^i}$ for I_i^j open intervals.

Theorem 0.22. (Differentiation under the integral)

Consider $f: V \times [a, b] \to \mathbb{P}$ so that $(a, t) \mapsto f(a, t)$. Suppose

Consider $f: X \times [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ so that $(x,t) \mapsto f(x,t)$. Suppose that f satisfies the following properties:

- (i) For all $t \in [a, b]$, $f(\cdot, t) \in L^1(\mu)$.
- (ii) For all $(x,t) \in X \times [a,b]$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x,t)$ exists.
- (iii) There exists $a \ g \in L^1(\mu)$ such that $\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x,t) \right| \leq g(x)$ for all $(x,t) \in X \times [a,b]$.

Then $t \mapsto \int_X f(x,t) d\mu$ is differentiable, and

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{X} f(x,t) \, d\mu(x) = \int_{X} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x,t) \, d\mu(x)$$

Proof. Fix $t_0 \in [a, b]$ and let $\{t_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be any sequence converging to t_0 . By (ii),

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \underbrace{\frac{f(x, t_n) - f(x, t_0)}{t_n - t_0}}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} h_n(x)} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x, t_0)$$

Thus, $x \mapsto \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x, t_0)$ is measurable. By the Mean Value Theorem and (iii),

$$|h_n(x)| \le \sup_{t \in [a,b]} \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x,t) \right| \le g(x)$$

Thus, by the Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\int f(x,t) d\mu(x) - \int f(x,t_0) d\mu(x)}{t_n - t_0} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int h_n(x) d\mu(x)$$
$$= \int \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x,t_0) d\mu(x)$$

Modes of Convergence

Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be some measure space, and $f_n, f : X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ measurable. We know the following senses in which f_n "converges" to f:

- **1.** Uniform convergence: $\sup_{x \in X} |f_n(x) = f(x)| \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$
- **2.** Pointwise convergence: $f_n(x) \to f(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

- **3.** Pointwise μ -almost everywhere convergence: $f_n(x) \to f(x)$ for μ -almost every $x \in X$.
- 4. L^1 -convergence: $||f_n f||_{L^1(\mu)} \to 0$

Clearly, $1 \implies 2 \implies 3$

The main goal of this section of the course is to figure out how 3 and 4 are related.

Example 0.11. Of the above, 1 does not necessarily imply 4. An example of something that converges uniformly but not in L^1 is the "splat" example: $f_n = \frac{1}{n}1_{[0,n]}$, and f = 0. Clearly $f_n \to f$ uniformly, but $||f_n - f||_{L^1(\mu)} = 1$, which does not go to zero.

Example 0.12. 4 does not necessarily imply 3. This is the "refining wave" example. Define $f_1 = 1_{[0,1]}$, $f_2 = 1_{[0,\frac{1}{2}]}$, $f_3 = 1_{[\frac{1}{2},1]}$, $f_4 = 1_{[0,\frac{1}{4}]}$, $f_5 = 1_{[\frac{1}{4},\frac{1}{2}]}$, and so on. This is also sometimes called the "typewriter sequence". We can see that it converges in L^1 to f = 0, because the integral will get smaller than any negative power of 2, but $f_n(x)$ does not converge to f(x) for any $x \in [0,1]$.

From these it would seem to be pretty hopeless that we could actually say anything about the relationship between these notions. But with additional assumptions/lower expectations, something can still be salvaged.

Example 0.13. If we have 3 and a dominating function, then this implies 4. Given $f_n \to f$ μ -almost everywhere and $|f_n| \le g$ μ -almost everywhere, then $|f_n - f| \to 0$ μ -almost everywhere and $|f_n - f| \le 2g$, so by the Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$||f_n - f||_{L^1(\mu)} = \int |f_n - f| d\mu \to 0$$

Lots of time in the next few lectures will be spent wondering when we can go from 4 to 3.

Definition 0.23. A sequence of measurable functions $f_n: X \to \mathbb{R}$ converges in measure to a measurable function f if for all $\varepsilon > 0$,

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

Similarly, a sequence f_n is Cauchy in measure if, for all $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{m,n \to \infty} \mu(\{x : |f_n(x) - f_m(x)|\}) = 0$$