## MATH6320 - Functions of a Real Variable

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#### 1.1 Course Info

Bernhard Bodmann bgb@central.uh.edu PGH 641A Tue 10-11AM, Wed 1-2PM

Email for organizational stuff and meet for a course related conceptual stuff

- Canvas
- MS Teams

Textbook: Walter Rudin, Real & Complex Analysis, Chapters 1-9

Midterm test, October 10, in class

Grading: 30% HW, 30% Midterm, 40% Final

#### 1.2 Notations and Basic Definitions

**Definition 1.2.1.** Let X be s set and P(X) be its power set. A subset  $\tau \subset P(X)$  is called a topology on X provided

- $\emptyset, X \in \tau$
- If  $E_1, E_2, \dots E_n \in \tau$ , then  $\bigcap_{j=1}^n E_j \in \tau$
- If J is any index set and for each  $j \in J$ ,  $E_j \in \tau$  then  $\bigcup_{j \in J} E_j \in \tau$

**Example 1.2.1.** Given a set X,  $\{\emptyset, X\}$  is a topology known as in-discrete topology.

**Definition 1.2.2.** Let (X, d) be a metric space with  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}^+$  satisfying positive definiteness, symmetry, and triangle inequality.

**Definition 1.2.3.** We say  $E \subset X$  is open if for each  $x \in E$ , there is an  $\epsilon \geq 0$  such that  $\{y \in X : d(x,y) \leq \epsilon\} \subset E$ 

**Example 1.2.2.** Let  $\tau$  be the set of all open subsets of X, where (X, d) is a metric space, then  $\tau$  forms a topology. verify this

**Definition 1.2.4.** Let X be a set and  $\tau$  a topology on X, then we call  $(X, \tau)$  a topological space. Elements of  $\tau$  are called open sets.

**Definition 1.2.5.** Let X be a set,  $\beta \subset P(X)$  such that

- $\forall x \in X, \exists B \in \beta \text{ such that } x \in B$
- If  $x \in X, B_1, B_2 \in \beta$  and if  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ , then there is  $B_3 \in \beta$  such that  $x \in B_3 \subset B_1 \cap B_2$

Then  $\beta$  is called a basis

**Theorem 1.2.1.** If  $\beta$  is a basis then,  $\tau$ , the collection of all (empty or non-empty) unions of elements of  $\beta$  form a topology on X.

*Proof.* It is clear from the definition of  $\tau$  that arbitrary unions of sets in  $\tau$  is again in  $\tau$ . Also the first property guarantees that  $X \in \tau$ . Since empty unions are also considered,  $\emptyset \in \tau$ . Hence all that remains is to show that finite intersections of sets in  $\tau$  is again in  $\tau$ .

Let  $U_1, U_2 \in \tau$ , once we show that  $U_1 \cap U_2 \in \tau$ , we can use induction to show  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \in \tau$  when  $U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_n \in \tau$ . Let  $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$ . Since  $U_1, U_2$  are unions of elements from  $\beta$ , there exists  $B_1, B_2 \in \beta$  such that  $x \in B_1 \subset U_1$  and  $x \in B_2 \subset U_2$ . Then by the second property of the basis, there exists  $B_x \in \beta$  with  $x \in B_x \subset B_1 \cap B_2 \subset U_1 \cap U_2$ . Since  $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$  was arbitrary, we get

$$U_1 \cap U_2 = \bigcap_{x \in U_1 \cap U_2} B_x$$

Thus  $U_1 \cap U_2 \in \tau$  and hence  $\tau$  is a topology.

**Example 1.2.3.** Let  $\beta = \{(p,q) : p,q \in \mathbb{Q}, p < q\} \subset P(\mathbb{R})$ . Then  $\beta$  is a basis and the topology generated by  $\beta$  is the usual euclidean topology on  $\mathbb{R}$  obtained from the metric d(x,y) = |x-y|.

**Example 1.2.4.** Let  $X = [-\infty, \infty]$  and  $\beta = \{(a, b) : a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b\} \cup \{[-\infty, b) : b \in \mathbb{R}\} \cup \{(a, \infty] : a \in \mathbb{R}\}$  Then  $\beta$  is a basis.

**Example 1.2.5.** Let J be a set and  $\mathbb{R}^J = \{f : J \to \mathbb{R}\}$ . Let  $\beta$  contain all the sets of the form  $\{f : J \to \mathbb{R} : f(j_1) \in U_1, f(j_2) \in U_2, \dots, f(j_n) \in U_n\}$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}, j_1, j_2, \dots, j_n \in J$  and  $U_1, U_2, \dots U_n$  are open sets in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Then  $\beta$  is a basis and the topology generated by  $\beta$  is called the product topology in  $\mathbb{R}^J$ 

If J is uncountable, then this topology  $\mathbb{R}^J$  is not metrizable. verify.

**Definition 1.2.6.** Let X be a set  $\mathcal{M} \subset P(X)$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, if

- $X \in \mathcal{M}$
- If  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $A^c \in \mathcal{M}$
- If  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_j, \ldots \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \in \mathcal{M}$

Then we call  $(X, \mathcal{M})$  a measurable space, and  $\mathcal{M}$  contains measurable sets.

**Theorem 1.2.2.** Let X be a set, and  $F \subset P(X)$ , then there exists a unique  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathscr{M}$  such that,

- $F \subset \mathcal{M}$
- If  $\mathcal{N}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X, and  $F \subset \mathcal{N}$ , then  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{N}$

Then  $\mathcal{M}$  is called a  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by F

Assignment 1 is posted. Submissions due Aug 29.

### 2.1 Warm up

**Example 2.1.1.** Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}, F = \{\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}\}$ . Then the smallest topology containing F is  $\{\emptyset, X, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}\}$ , and the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by F is the power set, P(X).

#### 2.2 continues

*Proof.* Proof of Theorem 1.2.2.

Consider all  $\sigma$ -algebras containing F, let  $\Omega = \{ \mathcal{N} \subset P(X) : \mathcal{N} \supset F, \mathcal{N} \text{ is a } \sigma$ -algebra $\}$ .  $\Omega$  is non-empty since  $P(X) \subset \Omega$ . Let

$$\mathcal{M} = \bigcap_{\mathcal{N} \in \Omega} \mathcal{N}$$

Then we claim  $\mathcal{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. To see this

- $X \in \mathcal{M}$ , because  $X \in \mathcal{N}$ , for each  $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega$ .
- If  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $E \in \mathcal{N}$  for each  $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega$ . Then  $E^c \in \mathcal{N}$  for each  $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega$  and thus  $E^c \in \mathcal{M}$ .
- If  $A_1, A_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \in \mathcal{M}$  because since each  $A_i \in \mathcal{N}$  and  $\mathcal{N}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra,  $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \in \mathcal{N}$  for each  $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega$ .

Moreover,  $F \subset \mathcal{M}$  since  $F \subset \mathcal{N}$  for each  $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega$ . Finally, if  $\mathcal{N}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra with  $\mathcal{N} \supset F$ , then  $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega$ . Then  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{N}$ . To prove uniqueness, let  $\mathcal{M}_0$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra which satisfies the required properties defining  $\Omega$ . By intersection operation giving  $\mathcal{M}$ , and  $\mathcal{M}_0 \in \Omega$ ,  $M \subset M_0$ . Additionally, if  $\mathcal{M}_0$  satisfies that  $\mathcal{M}_0 \subset \mathcal{N}$  for each  $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega$ , then  $\mathcal{M}_0 \subset \mathcal{M}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{M}_0 = \mathcal{M}$ .

We combine concepts of topologies and  $\sigma$ -algebras.

**Definition 2.2.1.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be any topological space. The  $\sigma$ -algebra,  $\mathcal{B}$  generated by the topology  $\tau$  is called the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra. Elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  are called Borel sets.

**Definition 2.2.2.** Let X, Y be topological spaces. A map  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous if the inverse image of any open set is open. The map f is continuous at  $x \in X$  if every open set  $V \subset Y$  with  $f(x) \in V$ , there is an open set  $W \subset X$  with  $f(W) \subset V$ .

**Theorem 2.2.1.** A map  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous if and only if it is continuous at each  $x \in X$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) If f is continuous and  $x \in X$ ,  $V \subset Y$  is open and  $f(x) \in V$ , then by continuity,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open and  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$ . This holds for any such x and V, thus f is continuous at  $x \in X$ . Since x was arbitrarily chosen, f is continuous at each  $x \in X$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose f is continuous at each  $x \in X$ . Let V be an open subset of Y. Need to show that  $W = f^{-1}(V)$  is open. For each  $x \in W$ , there is a  $W_x \subset X$  which is open with  $x \in W_x$  and  $f(W_x) \subset V$  by the continuity of f at x. Now take

$$Y = \bigcup_{x \in W} W_x$$

Then Y is open being a union of open sets. Also it contains each  $x \in W$ . Hence  $W \subset Y$ . But again,  $W_x \subset W = f^{-1}(V)$  for each  $x \in W$  and taking the unions preserve the inclusion. Hence we get W = Y. Since we already know Y is open, this gives us  $W = f^{-1}(V)$  is open.

**Proposition 2.2.1.** If  $f: X \to Y$  and  $f: Y \to Z$  are continuous, then so is  $g \circ f: X \to Z$ .

*Proof.* Let  $V \subset Z$  be an open set. Then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in Y by the continuity of f. Similarly,  $g^{-1}(f^{-1}(V))$  is open in X by the continuity of g. But  $g^{-1}(f^{-1}(V)) = (g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ . Since V was arbitrarily open, we get that  $g \circ f$  is continuous.  $\square$ 

**Definition 2.2.3.** Let X be a measurable space and Y a topological space. Then a map  $f: X \to Y$  is called measurable, if all inverse images of open sets are measurable.

**Proposition 2.2.2.** Let X be a measurable space, Y be a topological space, then  $f: X \to Y$  is measurable if and only if  $f^{-1}(B)$  is measurable for each Borel set B.

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Every open set is a Borel set. So this is true by inclusion.

(  $\iff$  ) Suppose f is measurable. Let  $M=\{E\subset Y: f^{-1}(E) \text{ is measurable }\}$ . We know M contains all open sets (Since we assume f is measurable). Moreover since  $f^{-1}(\cup_{j\in J}U_j)=\cup_{j\in J}f^{-1}(U_j)$  for any open sets  $U_j\subset Y$  with index set J, and  $f^{-1}(\cap_{i=1}^nU_i)=\cap_{i=1}^nf^{-1}(U_i)$ , we get that M is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

Since M contains all open sets, M contains the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra in Y. Hence  $f^{-1}(B)$  is measurable for every Borel set B.

#### 3.1 Warm up

**Example 3.1.1.** Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra on a set X and B be the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$ . For any given set  $A \subset X$ , consider the function  $\chi_A : X \to \mathbb{R}$  defined as

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, x \in A \\ 0, x \notin A \end{cases}$$

The function  $\chi_A$  is measurable if and only if  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ .

To see this if  $\chi_A$  is measurable, then inverse image of every Borel set is measurable. Consider the Borel set  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2})$ , then  $\chi_A^{-1}(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}) = A \in \mathcal{M}$ .

Conversely, assume  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , Take  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Consider  $\chi_A^{-1}(B)$ . We get

$$\chi_A^{-1}(B) = \begin{cases} X, & \{0,1\} \in B \\ A, & 0 \notin B, 1 \in B \\ A^c, & 0 \in B, 1 \notin B \\ \emptyset, & 0, 1 \notin B \end{cases}$$

In all these cases, we get  $\chi_A^{-1}(B)$  to be an element of  $\mathcal{M}$ , since  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{M}$ . and if  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $A^c \in \mathcal{M}$ . This implies  $\chi_A$  is measurable.

#### 3.2 Main Course

**Definition 3.2.1.** Let X, Y be topological spaces. We say that a function  $f: X \to Y$  is Borel measurable if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is a Borel set whenever V is an open set (or equivalently a Borel set because of Proposition 2.2.2)

**Proposition 3.2.1.** If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous function, then it is Borel measurable.

*Proof.* For every open set  $E \subset Y$ , by assumption  $f^{-1}(E)$  is open. So it is in the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on X.

#### 3.3 Algebra of measurable functions

**Theorem 3.3.1.** Let X be a measurable space, Y, Z be topological spaces. If  $f: X \to Y$  is measurable and  $g: Y \to Z$  is Borel measurable, then  $g \circ f: X \to Z$  is measurable.

Proof. Let  $V \subset Z$  be an open set. We have  $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ . Now since g is Borel measurable, we get  $g^{-1}(V)$  is Borel measurable in Y. Again since f is measurable and  $g^{-1}(V)$  is a Borel measurable, we get  $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$  is measurable in X.

Next we consider forming ordered pairs of measurable functions.

**Lemma 3.3.1.** If  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  is open, then there are open rectangles  $\{R_j\}_{j\in\mathbb{N}}$ , such that  $R_j = (a_j, b_j) \times (c_j, d_j)$  and  $V = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} R_j$ 

*Proof.* Since rational  $(a, b) \times (c, d)$ ,  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Q}$  generate the euclidean topology on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (product topology on  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  is the euclidean topology in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ), we obtain a countable union of all such rectangles contained in V.

**Theorem 3.3.2.** Let X be a measurable space. If  $u, v : X \to \mathbb{R}$  are measurable, then  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}^2$  defined as f(x) = (u(x), v(x)) is measurable.

*Proof.* Let  $R = (a, b) \times (c, d) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then

$$f^{-1}(R) = \{x \in X : u(x) \in (a,b), v(x) \in (c,d)\}$$
$$= \{x \in X : u(x) \in (a,b)\} \cap \{x \in X : v(x) \in (c,d)\}$$

Hence  $f^{-1}(R)$  is measurable.

Given any open set  $V \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , consider appropriate  $\{R_j\}_{j\in\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $V = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} R_j$ . Then  $f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} R_j) = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(R_j)$ . Thus  $f^{-1}(V)$  is measurable.

Next we establish that measurability is preserved under algebraic operations.

**Proposition 3.3.1.** Let  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  be such that f = u + iv with real valued  $u, v: X \to R$ . If u, v are measurable, then f is measurable. And conversely, if f is measurable, then so are u, v, and  $|f| = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}$ .

*Proof.* Let u, v be measurable, then  $h: X \to \mathbb{R}^2 := x \to (u(x), v(x))$  is measurable by Theorem 3.3.2. Also  $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{C}: (x,y) \to x+iy$  is continuous. Hence we get that  $f=g\circ h$  is measurable.

For converse use that  $\Re: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function. So is  $\Im: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{R}$ , and  $|\cdot|: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then use that  $u = \Re \circ f$ ,  $v = \Im \circ f$ ,  $|f| = |\cdot| \circ f$ .

**Proposition 3.3.2.** If  $f, g: X \to \mathbb{C}$  are measurable, then f+g and fg are measurable.

*Proof.* Suppose f, g are measurable. Then F(x) = (f(x), g(x)) defines a measurable function. Next consider  $\phi : \mathbb{C}^2 \to \mathbb{C} := (a, b) = a + b$ . By continuity of  $\phi$ ,  $\phi \circ F$  is measurable, and we obtain  $(\phi \circ F)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ 

To show fg is measurable use the continuity of  $\psi: \mathbb{C}^2 \to \mathbb{C} := (a, b) \to ab$  and compose it with F.

Can we find a simple test for measurability of a real-valued function?

#### 4.1 Warm up

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X and  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ . Why does

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_j \chi_{A_j}$$

define a measurable function?

*Proof.* Use Proposition 3.3.2. Interpreting  $c_j\chi_{A_j}$  as product of  $\chi_{A_j}$  with a constant function, we observe  $c_j\chi_{A_j}$  is measurable. Then using that the sum of two measurable functions is measurable in an inductive fashion, we get that the finite sum defining f also measurable.

#### 4.2 Continues

**Lemma 4.2.1.** Let  $f: X \to [-\infty, \infty]$ . Then f is measurable if and only if  $f^{-1}((a, \infty])$  is measurable for each  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ 

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) If f is measurable, then by  $(a, \infty]$  being open, we get that  $f^{-1}((a, \infty])$  is measurable. This is true for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . So the claimed property holds.

(  $\iff$  ) Suppose for each  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f^{-1}((a, \infty])$  is measurable. Then since we also have that  $(f^{-1}(a, \infty])^c = f^{-1}((a, \infty]^c) = f^{-1}([-\infty, a])$ , Now therefore  $f^{-1}([-\infty, a])$  is measurable for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Now

$$[-\infty, b) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ -\infty, b - \frac{1}{n} \right]$$

so,

$$f^{-1}([-\infty, b)) = f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [-\infty, b - \frac{1}{n}]\right)$$
$$= \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}\left([-\infty, b - \frac{1}{n}]\right) \in \mathcal{M}$$

Next we use  $(a,b) = [-\infty,b) \cap (a,\infty]$  so we get  $f^{-1}(a,b)$  to be measurable. Thus we have shown measurability for inverse images of a basis. Now let  $V \subset [-\infty,\infty]$  be an open set. Then there are four cases.

- 1. V is a countable union of rational open intervals. i.e  $-\infty, \infty \notin V$
- 2.  $-\infty \in V, \infty \notin V$ . Then  $V = [-\infty, b) \cup V_o$ , where  $V_o$  is of case 1, and  $[-\infty, b)$  is the union of countable sequence of rational half-infinite intervals. ( Let  $b_n$  be a rational sequence monotonically increasing to b, then  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [-\infty, b_n] = [-\infty, b)$ .
- 3.  $-\infty \notin V, \infty \in V$ . Then  $V = V_o \cup (a, \infty]$ , where  $V_o$  is a countable union of open intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- 4.  $-\infty, \infty \in V$ . Then  $V = [-\infty, b) \cup V_o \cup (a, \infty]$ , where  $V_o$  is a countable union of open intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

In all these cases, we get  $f^{-1}(V)$  to be measurable.

Remark 4.2.1. Given a sequence  $(a_n)$  in  $[-\infty, \infty]$ , let  $b_j = \sup_{n \le j} a_n$ . Then for each  $j, b_{j+1} \le b_j$ . So  $\beta = \lim_{n \to \infty} b_j$  exists in  $[-\infty, \infty]$ .

**Definition 4.2.1.** Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence in  $[-\infty, \infty]$  and  $(b_j)$  be as above, then  $\beta = \inf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} b_j$  is known as the  $\lim_{j \to \infty} \sup a_j$  or  $\overline{\lim_{n \to \infty}} a_j$ 

Similarly defining  $c_j = \inf_{n \geq j} a_n$  gives  $\lim_{j \to \infty} \inf a_j = \sup_{j \neq j} c_j$ 

**Definition 4.2.2.** Let  $f_n: X \to [-\infty, \infty]$  be a sequence of functions, define the limit supremum of the sequence of functions as

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

Remark 4.2.2. If  $(f_n(x))$  converges for each x, then we say the sequence of functions converges pointwise.

**Proposition 4.2.1.** Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of  $[-\infty, \infty]$  value functions, then

$$g(x) = \sup_{n \ge n_0} f_n(x), \quad h(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup f_n(x)$$

are measurable functions.

*Proof.* We only need to show that  $g^{-1}(a, \infty]$  is measurable for each  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . We consider

$$g^{-1}((a,\infty]) = \{x \in X : g(x) > a)\}$$

Now g(x) > a, then  $f_n(x) \ge a$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ . Thus we get

$$g^{-1}((a,\infty]) = \bigcup_{n=n_0}^{\infty} \{x \in X : f_n(x) > a\}$$
$$= \bigcup_{n=n_0}^{\infty} f^{-1}((a,\infty])$$

Thus we see g is measurable. Similarly we can show this holds true if we replace sup with inf in the definition of g

Now since we know that composition of measurable functions are measurable, we get that  $\inf \sup f_n(x) = h(x)$  is measurable.

Similarly we can also show that sup inf  $f_n$  is also measurable.

**Definition 4.2.3.** Let X be a set, a function  $s: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is called a simple function if the range of s is finite.

**Proposition 4.2.2.** A function  $s: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is simple if and only if there exists mutually disjoint sets  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n \subset X$ , and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{C}$  with

$$s = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}$$

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) by definition.

( $\iff$ ) Let s be a simple function with range  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ . Then take  $A_j = s^{-1}(\alpha_j)$ . Then  $A_j$ s partition X and

$$s(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}(x)$$

**Theorem 5.0.1.** If  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$  is measurable, then there exists a sequence  $(s_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  of simple non-negative real valued functions such that

i each  $s_n$  is measurable

ii sequence  $(s_n)$  is non-decreasing

 $iii (s_n)$  converge pointwise to f

*Proof.* Define a 'staircase to plateau' functions, (defined in the homework-2, question 3) defined as

$$\phi_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ k2^{-n}, & k2^{-n} \le x < (k+1)2^{-n}, & k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \} \\ n, & x \ge n \end{cases}$$

and then let  $s_n = \phi_n \circ f$ . We first prove the theorem for the special case  $f = \phi$ :  $[0, \infty) \to [0, \infty) := \phi(t) = t$ .

We have  $0 \le \phi_1(t) \le \phi_2(t) \le \dots$  for each  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  and for  $t \le n$ ,

$$|\phi_n(t) - \phi(t)| \le \frac{1}{2^n}$$

so since  $\phi(t) < \infty$ ,  $\phi_n(t) \to \phi(t)$  for each fixed  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . We also known from he homework that each  $\phi_n$  are Borel measurable.

For the general case, we take  $s_n = \phi_n \circ f$ . Then similar to what we got above, we get  $0 \le s_1 \le s_2 \le \ldots$  while each  $s_n$  is simple. Also for each  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $s_n(t) \to f(t)$ .

**Definition 5.0.1.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M})$  be a measurable space, and  $Z = [0, \infty]$  or  $Z = \mathbb{C}$ . A function  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \to Z$  is called countably additive (or  $\sigma$ -additive) if given  $A_1, A_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ , we have

$$\mu\Big(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\Big) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu(A_j)$$

If  $Z = [0, \infty]$  and if there is a  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\mu(A) \leq \infty$ , then we say that  $\mu$  is a measure (or a positive measure). And we call  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  a measure space. If  $Z = \mathbb{C}$ , then we call  $\mu$  a complex measure.

**Example 5.0.1.** We give examples of different measures.

- $X = \mathbb{N}, \mathcal{M} = P(\mathbb{N}), \mu(S) = |S|$ . This is called the counting measure.
- $X = \mathbb{N}, \mathcal{M} = P(\mathbb{N}), \mu(S) = \sum_{j \in S} \frac{1}{2^j}$

### 5.1 Properties of Measures

**Proposition 5.1.1.** Let  $\mu$  be a (positive) measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$ . Then

- (1)  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$
- (2)  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$  with  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for each  $i \neq j$ , then

$$\mu\Big(\cup_{j=1}^n A_j\Big) = \sum_{j=1}^n \mu(A_j)$$

(3) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$  with  $A \subset B$ , then  $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$ . And if  $\mu(B) \leq \infty$ , then

$$\mu(B \setminus A) = \mu(B) - \mu(A)$$

(4) If  $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots$  with all  $A_j \in \mathcal{M}$ , then

$$\mu\Big(\cup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\Big) = \lim_{j \to \infty} \mu(A_j)$$

(5) If  $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \dots$  with all  $A_j \in \mathcal{M}$ , and ther is  $j_o \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $\mu(A_{j_o}) \leq \infty$ , then

$$\mu\Big(\cap_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\Big) = \lim_{j \to \infty} \mu(A_j)$$

*Proof.* 1 Let  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  with  $\mu(A) \leq \infty$ .

2

3

4 WLOG assume  $j_o = 1$ . Consider the sets  $B_j = A_1 \setminus A_j$ . Then we apply the above property to get

$$\mu\Big(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (A_1 \setminus A_j)\Big) = \mu(A_1) - \lim_{j \to \infty} \mu(A_j)$$

But we see that  $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (A_1 \setminus A_j) = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (A_1 \cap A_j^c)$ . Now since each  $A_j \subset A_1$ , we get this to be equal to  $A_1 \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j^c = A_1 \cap$ 

#### 6.1 Integrals

**Definition 6.1.1.** Define the integral of a measurable simple function  $s: X \to [0, \infty]$  defined in the standard form as

$$s = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}$$

with  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$  as the range of S and  $A_j = s^{-1}(\{\alpha_j\})$  by

$$\int s \ d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \mu(A_{i})$$

We adopt the convention  $0 \times \infty = 0$  from now onwards.

**Lemma 6.1.1.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space. Let  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_{n'} \in \mathcal{M}$  with the  $A_js$  are mutually disjoint, as well as  $B_js$ , and

$$\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} A_j = X = \bigcup_{j=1}^{n'} B_j$$

Let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \in [0, \infty]$  and  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta'_n \in [0, \infty]$  such that

$$t = \sum_{j=1}^{n'} \beta_j \chi_{B_j} \le s = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}$$

then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n'} \beta_j \mu(B_j) \le \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mu(A_j)$$

Proof.

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n'} \beta_j \mu(B_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j \mu(B_j \cap (\bigcup_{l=1}^n A_l))$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n'} \beta_j \mu(\bigcup_{l=1}^n B_j \cap A_l)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n'} \sum_{l=1}^n \beta_j \mu(B_j \cap A_l)$$

By a similar deduction, we get that

$$\sum_{l=1}^{n} \alpha_j \mu(A_j) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n'} \alpha_l \mu(A_l \cap B_j)$$

Since we know that  $t \leq s$ , comparing the values of the function at  $A_l \cap B_j$ , we get that  $\beta_j \leq \alpha_l$ . This immediately gives us our needed result.

Corollary 6.1.0.1. If a measurable simple function has two representations

$$s = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j} = \sum_{j=1}^{n'} \beta_j \chi_{B_j}$$

with disjoint measurable sets as before, then

$$\int s \ d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \mu(A_j) = \sum_{j=1}^{n'} \beta_j \mu(B_j)$$

*Proof.* Use the fact that a=b is equivalent to  $a \leq b$  and  $b \leq a$  and use above lemma.

**Definition 6.1.2.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a mesurable space,  $s: X \to [0, \infty]$  a measurable simple function,

$$s = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}$$

with  $\{A_j\}_{j=1}^n$  disjoint, measurable, then we define for  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ 

$$\int_{E} s \ d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \mu(A_{j} \cap E)$$

**Lemma 6.1.2.** If s, t are non-negative measurable, simple functions and  $t \leq s$  and  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ , then

$$\int_{E} t \ d\mu \le \int_{E} s \ d\mu$$

*Proof.* Proof is exactly like before lemma, just replacing  $\mu(A_j)$  with  $\mu(A_j \cap E)$ .  $\square$ Remark 6.1.1. If  $s: X \to [0, \infty]$  is simple and measurable, then

$$\int s \ dx = \sup \{ \int_E t d\mu \ : \ 0 \le t \le s \text{ is measurable and simple.} \}$$

**Definition 6.1.3.** For  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$  measurable, we define

$$\int_{E} f d\mu = \sup_{\substack{0 \le t \le f \\ t \text{ is simple}}} \int_{E} t \ d\mu$$

**Example 6.1.1.** We will give some examples of measurable functions.

•  $X = \mathbb{N}, \mathcal{M} = P(\mathbb{N}), \mu$  is the counting measure.  $f : \mathbb{N} \to [0, \infty]$ . Then let

$$s_N(n) = \begin{cases} f(n), & n \le N \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Now if  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f(j) \leq \infty$ , then  $f(j) \to \infty$  as  $j \to \infty$ . Thus if  $t \leq f$  and t is simple, then there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that t(j) = 0 for each  $j \geq N$ . Then by comparison,  $0 \leq t \leq s_n \leq f$  and finally, we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} t(j) \le \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} s_N(j) \le \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f(j)$$

so taking supremums, we get

$$\sup_{\substack{0 \le t \le f \\ t \text{ is simple}}} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} t(j) = \sup_{N \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} s_N(j) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f(j)$$

Remark 7.0.1. Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space, a simple function  $s: X \to [0, \infty]$ , then  $\phi: \mathcal{M} \to [0, \infty]$  defined as

$$\phi(E) = \int_E s \ d\mu$$

is a measure.

*Proof.* Since our definiton demands that measure of some set should be finite, we verify this first. We see that

$$\phi(\emptyset) = \int_{\emptyset} s \ d\mu = 0$$

Now to prove countable disjoint additivity, consider the disjoint collection  $\{E_l\}_{l\in\mathbb{N}}$ . And assume that  $s=\sum_{j=1}^n\alpha_j\chi_{A_j}$  with  $\alpha_j\in[0,\infty]$ , with  $A_j$ s disjoint. Then for  $E=\bigcup_{l=1}^\infty E_l$ , we have

$$\phi(E) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \mu(A_{j} \cap E)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{l \in \mathbb{N}} \alpha_{j} \mu(A_{j} \cap E_{l})$$

$$= \sum_{l \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \mu(A_{j} \cap E_{l})$$

$$= \sum_{l \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{E_{l}} s \ d\mu$$

#### 7.1 Properties of Integrals

**Theorem 7.1.1.** The interal of a non-negative measurable function from a measure space  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  has the following properties

- (1) If  $0 \le f \le g$ , then  $\int_E f(x) dx \le \int_E g d\mu$
- (2) If  $A \subset B$ ,  $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $\int_A f \ d\mu \leq \int_B f \ d\mu$
- (3) If  $c \in [0, \infty)$ ,  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $\int_E cf \ d\mu = c \int_E f \ d\mu$
- (4) If f = 0, or  $\mu(E) = 0$ , then  $\int_{E} f \ d\mu = 0$
- (5) For all  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ ,

$$\int_{E} f \ d\mu = \int_{X} f \chi_{E} \ d\mu$$

*Proof.* (1) By definition

$$\int f \ d\mu = \sup_{\substack{t \text{ is simple} \\ t \text{ is measurable} \\ 0 \le t \le f}} \int_E t \ d\mu$$

then the simple function  $t \leq f$  is also  $t \leq g$ . Hence suping over simple functions under g, every simple function under f is included.

(2) Let  $s = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \chi_{A_i}$  be a simple function  $0 \le s \le f$  with  $\int s \, dx + \epsilon > \int f \, d\mu$ . Using the inclusion  $A \subset B$ , we get

$$\int_A s \ d\mu = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \alpha_n$$

(3) Suppose  $s = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}$  is a simple function with disjoint  $A_j$ s. Then  $s\chi_E = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j \cap E}$  is also simple (and measurable), and

$$\int_{E} s \ dx = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \mu(A_{j} \cap E) = \int s \chi_{E} \ dx$$

Hence the statement is true for simple measurable functions. Next, consider f non-negative measurable, then for  $\epsilon \geq 0$ , we have a simple measurable function s with  $\int_E s \ d\mu + \epsilon > \int_E f \ d\mu$ . Then by preceding part,

$$\int s\chi_E \ d\mu + \epsilon > \int_E f \ d\mu$$

Also  $s\chi_E \leq f\chi_E$ . So

$$\int f\chi_E \ d\mu + \epsilon \ge \sup_{t \text{ is simple}} \int s\chi_E \ d\mu + \epsilon > \int f \ d\mu$$

Taking  $\epsilon \to 0$  gives

$$\int f\chi_E \ d\mu \ge \int_E f \ d\mu$$

For the reverse inequalty, note that  $f\chi_E \leq f$ , and use similar circus.

**Theorem 7.1.2** (Monotone convergence theorem). Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space, given a sequence  $f_n: X \to [0, \infty]$  of measurable functions and they are monotone increasing, i.e for each  $x \in X$ ,  $0 \le f_1(x) \le f_2(x) \le \ldots$ , then

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

*Proof.* Let  $f = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$  be the pointwise limit. Then f is measurable. From  $f_n \leq f_{n+1}$ , we get that

$$\int f_n \ d\mu \le \int f_{n+1} \ d\mu$$

so both sides of the claimed identity exist, and from  $f_n \leq f$ , we also know that

$$\int f_n \ d\mu \le \int f \ d\mu$$

which taking the limits give us,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n \ d\mu \le \int f \ d\mu$$

Now let  $s: X \to [0, \infty]$  be a simple measurable function  $s \leq f$ . Choose  $0 \leq c < 1$ , and define  $E_n = \{x \in X : f_n(x) \geq cs(x)\} = (f_n - s)^{-1}([0, \infty])$ . Verify that difference between an extended real valued function and a real valued function is measurable, then  $E_n$  is measurable. This gives a nested sequence  $E_1 \subset E_2 \subset \ldots$  If f(x) > 0, then by f(x) > cs(x) and  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$ , there is  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x \in E_n$ . On the other hand if f(x) = 0, then cs(x) = 0 = f(x), so  $x \in E_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We see that each  $x \in X$  is in the union  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ . Hence  $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ . Now we define  $\phi: \mathcal{M} \to [0, \infty]$  by

$$\phi(E) = \int_{E} s \ d\mu$$

which is a measure and  $\phi(X) = \phi(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \phi(E_n)$  by Theorem 7.1.1. We rewrite this as

$$\int_X s \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{E_n} s \ d\mu$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X s \chi_{E_n} \ d\mu$$

$$\leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \frac{1}{c} f_n \ d\mu$$

Now take sup over all such simple (bounded) functions  $s \leq f$  and let  $c \to 1$ . Finish this proof.

Remark 8.0.1. Suppose  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  Consider their characteristic functions  $\chi_{A_n}$  and let  $\limsup_{k\geq n} = \chi_A$ . What is A?

$$\limsup \chi_{A_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{k \ge N} \chi_{A_k}$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{\cup_{k \ge n} A_k}$$

**Theorem 8.0.1.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measurable space,  $f, g: X \to [0, \infty]$  be measurable, then

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

*Proof.* For  $s,t:X\to [0,\infty]$  simple and measurable, by definition

$$\int (s+t) \ d\mu = \int s \ d\mu + \int t \ d\mu$$

Considering sequences of simple measurable functions  $(s_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(t_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $s_n(x) \nearrow f(x), t_n(x) \nearrow g(x)$  for each  $x \in X$ . Then by monotone convergence theorem

$$\int s_n \ d\mu \to \int f \ d\mu \quad \int t_n \ d\mu \to \int g \ d\mu$$

and since  $s_n(x) + t_n(x) \nearrow f(x) + g(x)$  for each  $x \in X$  then again by MCT we get

$$\int (s_n + t_n) \ d\mu \to \int (f + g) \ d\mu$$

Corollary 8.0.1.1. If  $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence of functions  $f_n: X \to [0, \infty]$ , then

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

*Proof.* Let  $g_m = \sum_{n=1}^m f_n$ . Then  $(g_m)$  forms an incrasing sequence, so

$$\int \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} f_n \ d\mu = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} g_m d\mu$$
$$= \lim_{m \to \infty} \int \sum_{i=1}^m f_i \ d\mu$$

**Theorem 8.0.2.** If  $f:[0,\infty]$  is maeasurable on  $(x,\mathcal{M},\mu)$ , then  $\phi:\mathcal{M}\to[0,\infty]$ ,

$$\phi(E) = \int_{E} f d\mu$$

defines a measure  $\phi$  and for any  $g: X \to [0, \infty]$ , and for any measurable  $g: X \to [0, \infty]$ 

$$\int g \ d\phi = \int g f \ d\mu$$

*Proof.*  $\phi(\emptyset) = 0$  since the integral of every simple measurable function  $s \leq f$  over  $\emptyset$  is 0.

Let  $(E_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a disjoint seque of sets  $E = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j$ , then

$$\phi(E) = \int f \, d\mu = \int f \chi_{X_E} \, dx = \int f \chi_{\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n} \, d\mu = \int f(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \chi_{E_n}) \, d\mu = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{E_n} f \, d\mu$$

which is exactly  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \phi(E_n)$ . This gives that  $\phi$  is a measure.

To see the claimed identity, we first show that

$$\int s \ d\phi = \int s f \ d\mu$$

for  $s: X \to [0, \infty)$  simple measurable, with

$$s(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}(x)$$

Then we see that

$$\int s \ d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \phi(A_{j})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \int_{A_{j}} f \ d\mu$$

$$= \int \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \chi_{A_{j}}\right) f \ d\mu$$

$$= \int sf \ d\mu$$

Now for any given  $g: X \to [0, \infty]$ , we approximate g with a simple measurable sequence  $s_n \nearrow g$ . Then by monotone functions, we get

$$\int g \ d\phi = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int s_n \ d\phi$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \int s_n f \ d\mu$$

$$= \int \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n f \ d\mu$$

$$= \int \phi \ d\mu$$

**Definition 8.0.1.** We define the space  $L^1(\mu)$  of integrable functions on a measurable functions  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  to consist of all measurable  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  such that

$$\int |f| \ d\mu \le \infty$$

Remark 8.0.2. If f is measurable,  $\mathbb C$  valued, such that f=u+iv where u,v are real valued measurable functions. Then let  $u^+=\max\{0,u\}, u^-=\max\{0,-u\}$ . Then  $u^+,u^-$  are measurable functions. Similarly, we get  $v^+,v^-$  also to be measurable functions. Then we get  $f=u^+-u^-+i(v^+-v^-)$  and we define the integral as

$$\int f \ d\mu = \int u^{+} \ d\mu - \int u^{-} \ d\mu + i \int v^{+} \ d\mu - i \int v^{-} \ d\mu$$

Remark 9.0.1 (Warm up). Assume there is a measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^+$ , for all Borel-measurable functions, and  $\mu([a,b]) = b-a$  for each  $a \leq b$  and for continuous function f,

$$\int_{[a,b]} f \ d\mu = \int_a^b f \ dx$$

Is the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x = 0\\ \frac{\sin(x)}{x}, & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 9.0.1.**  $L^1(\mu)$  is a vector space for  $f, g \in L^1(\mu)$ . Moreover

$$\int f + g \ d\mu = \int f \ d\mu + \int g \ d\mu$$

*Proof.* We know that for  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$|\alpha f + \beta g| \le |\alpha||f| + |\beta||g|$$

Then using the properties of integration, we get that

$$\int |\alpha f + \beta g| d\mu \le \int |\alpha| |f| d\mu + \int |\beta| |g| d\mu = |\alpha| ||f||_1 + \beta ||g||_1 \le \infty$$

Now to prove the rest, we'll assume f, g are  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued functions and let h = f + g. Then we have  $h^+ - h^- = f^+ - f^- + g^+ - g^- = f^+ + g^+ - (f^- + g^-)$ , which gives

$$\int h^{+} d\mu + \int f^{+} d\mu + \int g^{+} d\mu = \int h^{+} + f^{-} + g^{-} d\mu$$

$$= \int h^{-} + f^{+} + g^{+} d\mu$$

$$= \int h^{-} d\mu + \int f^{-} d\mu + \int g^{-} d\mu$$

Now rearranging things up, we get what we need for reals. verify similarly for Complex case.  $\Box$ 

*Note.* What can we say about f?

Theorem 9.0.2. If  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ , then

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

*Proof.* If f was  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued, then

$$\left| \int f \ d\mu \right| = \left| \int f^+ \ d\mu + \int f^- \ d\mu \right| \le \left| \int f^+ \ d\mu \right| + \left| \int f^- \ d\mu \right| = \int |f| \ d\mu$$

Now in general, if f is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -valued function, then let the integral be equal to z. Now if z=0, we have nothing to prove. If  $z\neq 0$ , then multiply f with  $\alpha=\frac{\bar{z}}{|z|}$ . Then integral of  $\alpha f$  will be real and we'll be good.

**Theorem 10.0.1** (Fatou's Lemma). If  $(f_n)$  is a sequence of measurable functions  $f_n: X \to [0, \infty]$ , then

$$\int \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf f_n \ d\mu \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf \int f_n \ d\mu$$

*Proof.* Let  $g_m(x) = \inf_{n \geq m} f_n(x)$ . Then  $0 \leq g_1(x) \leq g_2(x) \leq \dots$  Then by MCT, we get

$$\int \lim_{m \to \infty} g_m \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int g_m \ d\mu(x)$$

Also see that if  $n \geq m$ , then  $f_n \geq g_m$  and therefore, we get

$$\int f_n \ d\mu \ge \int g_m \ d\mu$$

So

$$\inf_{n \ge m} \int f_n \ d\mu \ge \int g_m \ d\mu$$

Now taking  $m \to \infty$  on both sides, we get

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\inf\int f_n\ d\mu\geq\int\lim_{n\to\infty}\inf f_n\ d\mu$$

which proves the theorem.

**Example 10.0.1.** Let  $\mu$  be the counting measure on  $X = \{0, 1\}$ . Let

$$f_{2n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x = 0 \\ 1, & x = 1 \end{cases}$$
  $f_{2n+1} = \begin{cases} 1, & x = 0 \\ 0, & x = 1 \end{cases}$ 

Then  $\int \lim_{n\to\infty} \inf f_n \ d\mu = 0 \le 1 = \lim_{n\to\infty} \inf \int f_n \ d\mu$ 

**Theorem 10.0.2** (Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem). Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measurable space. If  $f_n : X \to \mathbb{C}$  defines a sequence of measurable functions pointwise converging to f, and there is a  $g \in L^1(\mu)$  such that

$$|f_n| \le g, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Then  $f \in L^1(\mu)$  and

$$\int |f_n - f| \ d\mu \to 0$$

So we exchange limits and integral and write

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

*Proof.* We have  $|f| \leq g$  since  $|f_n| \leq g$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $f_n \to f$  pointwise. Consider  $h_n = 2g - |f_n - f| \geq 0$  (Use triangle inequality to show that  $h_n \geq 0$ ). Fatou's lemma gives

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf \int (2g - |f_n - f|) \ d\mu \ge \int \lim_{n \to \infty} (2g - |f_n - f|) \ d\mu$$

$$= 2 \int g \ d\mu + \int \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf(-|f_n - f|) \ d\mu$$

$$= 2 \int g \ d\mu - \int \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup(|f_n - f|) \ d\mu$$

But we also have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf \int (2g - |f_n - f|) \ dx \le 2 \int g \ d\mu + \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf \int |f_n - f| \ d\mu$$

Hairy logic. Verify with Rudin.

#### 10.1 Measure Zero

**Definition 10.1.1.** We say that a property P holds almost everywhere if

$$\mu(\lbrace x \in X : P \text{ does not hold } atx \rbrace) = 0$$

**Theorem 10.1.1.** If  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$  and  $\int f \ d\mu = 0$ , then f = 0 almost everywhere. Conversely, if f = 0 almost everywhere then  $\int f \ d\mu = 0$ .

*Proof.* Let  $E_n = \{s \in X : f(x) \ge \frac{1}{n}\}$  and  $E = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \{x \in X : f(x) > 0\}$ . Note that E is measurable since each of  $E_i$  is measurable. So

$$0 = \int f \ d\mu \ge \int f \chi_{E_n} \ d\mu$$
$$\ge \int \frac{1}{n} \chi_{E_n} \ dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \mu(E_n) \ge 0$$

Hence  $\mu(E_n) = 0$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence E is a measure zero set. Therefore f is zero almost everywhere.

Conversely if f = 0 almost everywhere, then let

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & f(x) = 0\\ \infty, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then g is a measurable simple function with g > f and  $\int g \ d\mu =$ . Hence  $\int f \ d\mu = 0$ .

**Theorem 10.1.2.** If  $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$  defines a sequence of measurable functions and if

$$\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} |f_n| \in L^1(\mu).$$

Then

$$\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} f_n \in L^1(\mu)$$

and the series  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} f_n$  converges almost everywhere. See theorem

*Proof.* We assume each  $f_n$  is defined on  $X \setminus S_n$  with  $\mu(S_n) = 0$ . We have to show that there exist a set S with  $\mu(S) = 0$  and  $\forall x \notin S$ ,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} f_n(x)$  converges. Let

$$f(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f_n(x)|$$

By MCT

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int |f_n| \ d\mu = \int f \ d\mu \le \infty$$

This implies  $\{x : f(x) = \infty\}$  has measure zero. Hence if  $x \notin S_n$  nad  $x \notin \{x : f(x) = \infty\}$ , then  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} f_n(x)$  converges absolutely. Thus  $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n \cup \{x : f(x) = \infty\}$  is measure zero and  $x \in S^c$ 

**Definition 10.1.2.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space. If for any  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $F \subset E$ ,  $\mu(E) = 0$  implies  $F \subset \mathcal{M}$ , then  $\mu$  is called complete.

Note (Warm up). Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and  $f : X \to [0, \infty]$ , with  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ . Let  $E = \{x \in X : f(x) \ge 1\}$ . Then show  $\mu(E) < \infty$ .

This is Chebyshev's inequality for general measures.

Remark 11.0.1. Consider the distance (semi-metric) between sets in  $\mathcal{M}$ , defined as  $\mu(A\Delta B)$ . Let  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$  be a function  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ . Now let  $\phi$  be a measure defined as  $d\phi = fd\mu$ . Then define  $\tilde{d}(A, B) = \phi(A\Delta B) = \int_{A\Delta B} f \ d\mu$ . Then if  $d(A_n, B) \to 0$  will imply  $\tilde{d}(A_n, B) \to 0$ .

**Theorem 11.0.1.** Any measure space  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  can be equipped with a complete extension of  $\mu$  on the collection of sets,  $\mathcal{M}^* = \{E \subset X : \exists A, B \in \mathcal{M}, \mu(B \setminus A) = 0\}$  in which case we define  $\mu^*(E) = \mu(A)$ , which gives a complete measure on  $\mathcal{M}^*$ .

*Proof.* First, we establish  $\mu^*$  is well defined, that is it does not depend on the particular choice of the subset  $A \subset E$ . To see this, let  $A' \subset E \subset B'$  such that  $\mu(B' \setminus A') = 0$ . By the inclusions,  $A \subset E \subset B'$ . So we get

$$A \setminus A' \subset E \setminus A' \subset B' \setminus A'$$

Thus by monotonicity of  $\mu$ , we get  $\mu(A \setminus A') = 0$ . Moreover by symmetry of A and A', we get  $\mu(A' \setminus A) = 0$ . Thus we get  $\mu(A) = \mu(A \setminus A') + \mu(A \cap A') = \mu(A' \setminus A) + \mu(A' \cap A) = \mu(A')$ . Hence we see that the definition of  $\mu^*$  is well defined.

Now we show that  $\mathcal{M}^*$  is actually a  $\sigma$ -algebra. We immediately see that  $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$ .

- $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{M}^*$  implies  $X \in \mathcal{M}^*$
- Let  $E \in \mathcal{M}^*$ , then there are  $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$  with  $A \subset E \subset B$  and  $\mu(B \setminus A) = 0$ . Thus  $B^c \subset E^c \subset A^c$ . Then  $\mu(A^c \setminus B^c) = \mu(A^c \cap B) = \mu(B \cap A) = 0$  shows  $E^c \in \mathcal{M}^*$ .

• Let  $(E_j)$  be a countable collection of disjoint sets in  $\mathcal{M}^*$ . Then there are subsets  $A_j, B_j \in \mathcal{M}$  with  $A_j \subset E_j \subset B_j$ , with  $\mu(B_j \setminus A_j) = 0$ . Then let

$$A = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$$
  $E = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j$   $B = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j$ 

Then we have  $A \subset E \subset B$ . Moreover since each  $E_j$  are disjoint, we get  $A_j$  are disjoint.

Now show  $\mu^*$  is countably additive and then show  $\mu^*$  is complete. verify

Remark 11.0.2. Consider C([0,1]) equipped with the sup norm. Recall that this is a Banach space. Let  $\lambda: C([0,1]) \to \mathbb{C}$  be defined as

$$\lambda(f) = \int_0^1 f(x) \ dx$$

Recall also that  $|\lambda(f)| \leq \lambda(|f|) \leq ||f||_{\infty}$ . Hence we see  $\lambda$  is a bounded linear functional. Therefore we see that we can associate the Riemann integral with a linear functional. We ask if we can go back i.e if we have a linear functional on C([0,1]), can we get a measure to integrate functions on C([0,1])

#### 12.1 Recap on topology

**Definition 12.1.1.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. A set E is called closed if its complement is open. The closure of E is the smallest closed subset containing E.

$$\overline{E} = \bigcap_{\substack{F^c \in \tau \\ E \subset F}} F$$

We can check  $\overline{E}$  is closed by looking at  $\overline{E}^c$ .

**Definition 12.1.2.** A set  $K \subset X$  is called compact if every open cover of K has a finite subcover.

**Definition 12.1.3.**  $(X, \tau)$  is Hausdorff  $(T_2)$  if for any  $p \neq q \in X$  there are open sets  $U, V \in \tau$  such that  $p \in U, q \in V$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 12.1.4.** A neighborhood of  $p \in X$  is an open set  $U \in \tau$  containing p.

**Definition 12.1.5.** X is called locally compact if any point  $p \in X$  has a neighborhood V with compact  $\overline{V}$ .

**Theorem 12.1.1.** Let X be a topological space. If  $K \subset X$  is compact and  $F \subset K$  is closed, then F is compact.

*Proof.* Make any covering of F into a covering of K, by adding  $F^c$ , the get a finite subcover for K, then remove  $F^c$  from this subcover if its there. Now you got a finite subcover for F.

**Theorem 12.1.2.** let X be a topological Hausdorff space. Then if  $K \subset X$  is compact,  $p \notin K$ , then there are open set U, V such that  $K \subset V$ ,  $p \in U$ ,  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ . (not that we are not claiming regularity).

Proof. For each  $q \in K$ , there is an open set  $U_q, V_q$  with  $q \in V_q, p \in V_q, V_q \cap U_q = \emptyset$ . Then  $K \subset \bigcap_{q \in K} V_q$ . Then since K is compact, there is a finite subcover  $V_{q_1}, V_{q_2}, \ldots V_{q_n}$  of K. Now let  $V = \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{q_i}$  and  $U = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{q_i}$  both of which are open. Then  $K \subset V, p \in U$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .

**Theorem 12.1.3.** If  $K_{\alpha}$  is a collection of nonempty compact subsets of a topological Hausdorff space X indexed by A, and if for each finite subset  $B \subset A$ ,  $\bigcap_{\beta \in B} K_{\beta} \neq \emptyset$  then

$$\cap_{\alpha \in A} K_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$$

*Proof.* If  $\cap_{\alpha \in A} K_{\alpha} = \emptyset$ , then  $K_{\alpha}^{c}$  forms an open cover for  $K_{\alpha_{0}}$ . Now use the compactness property. verify

**Theorem 12.1.4.** If X, Y are topological spaces, if  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous, and K is compact, then f(K) is compact.

*Proof.* Let  $U_{\alpha}$  be an open cover for f(K), then  $f^{-1}(U_{\alpha})$  forms an open cover for K. Now by the compactness there is a finite cover  $f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_1}), f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_2}), \ldots, f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_n})$ . Therefore  $U_{\alpha_1}, U_{\alpha_2}, \ldots, U_{\alpha_n}$  is a finite subcover of f(K).

**Definition 12.1.6.** Let X be a topological space,  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ . Then the support of f is defined as  $\operatorname{supp} f = \{x \in X : f(x) \neq 0\}$ . See that  $\operatorname{supp} (f+g) \subset \operatorname{supp} (f) \cup \operatorname{supp} (g)$ 

We denote  $C_c(X)$  to be the set of continuous functions which have compact support.  $C_c(X)$  is a subspace of the vector space C(X).

**Theorem 12.1.5** (Urysohn Lemma). Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. If X is compact, V is open and  $K \subset V$ , then there is a function  $f \in C_c(X)$  with

 $\chi_K \le f \le \chi_V$ 

**Theorem 13.0.1** (Urysohn Lemma). Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. If X is compact, V is open and  $K \subset V$ , then there is a function  $f \in C_c(X)$  with

$$\chi_K \leq f \leq \chi_V$$

.

*Proof.* Get a finite cover for K whose closure is contained in V

**Definition 13.0.1.** Let X be locally Hausdorff. A linear functional  $\lambda: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is positive, if  $\lambda(x) \geq 0$  for each  $x \in X$ .

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Remark 13.0.1. Suppose X is locally compact,  $\mu$  a measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$ ,  $\mathcal{M}$  containing Borel sets. If  $f \in C(X)$  and  $f(x) \geq 0$  for each  $x \in X$ , then  $\int f \ d\mu \geq 0$ .

If every compact set has finite measure, then each  $f \in C_c(X)$  is in  $L^1(\mu)$ . And  $\lambda(f) = \int f \ d\mu$  defines a positive linear functional on  $C_c(X)$ . Conversely, if each  $f \in C_c(X)$  is in  $L^1(\mu)$ , then we know for each compact K, we have  $\mu(K) < \infty$ . To see this, take V open with  $K \subset V$ ,  $\overline{V}$  compact and use Urysohn's Lemma to construct  $f \in C_c(X)$ ,  $\chi_K \leq f \leq \chi_V$ . Then by monotonicity,

$$0 \le \int X_k \ d\mu \le \int f \ d\mu < \infty$$

**Theorem 13.0.2** (Reisz Representation Theorem). Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. If  $\lambda$  is a positive linear functional on  $C_c(X)$ , then there exists a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$  and a complete (positive) measure  $\mu$ , uniquely determined by  $\lambda$  such that

- (1)  $\mathcal{M} \supset B(X)$ , the Borel sigma algebra.
- (2)  $\lambda(f) = \int f \ d\mu \text{ for each } f \in C_c(X).$
- (3)  $\mu(K) < \infty$  for each compact K.

(4) for 
$$E \in \mathcal{M}$$
,

$$\mu(E) = \inf_{\substack{V \text{ is open} \\ E \subset V}} \mu(V)$$

(5) If E is open or  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\mu(E) < \infty$ , then

$$\mu(E) = \sup \{ \mu(K) : K \subset E, K \text{ is compact} \}$$

*Proof.* We will only prove the uniqueness and refer Rudin for the proof. Assume  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  satisfy these properties. Take K compact,  $\epsilon > 0$ , then from iv) we know that there exist open sets  $V_1, V_2$  containing K and  $\mu_i(V_i) - \epsilon < \mu_i(K)$ . Take  $V = V_1 \cap V_2 \cap V_3$  with V. prove the rest.

**Theorem 14.0.1.** Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. If X is  $\sigma$ -compact and a Borel measure  $\nu$ , that assigns each compact set K the measure  $\nu(K) < \infty$  then the  $\mu$  given by Reisz representation theorem satisfies

- 1. If  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ ,  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an open set V and a closed set C with  $C \subset E \subset V$  and  $\mu(V \setminus C) < \epsilon$ .
- 2. If  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ , then there is an  $F_{\sigma}$  set F (countable union of closed sets) and an  $G_{\delta}$  set G (countable intersection of open sets) with  $F \subset E \subset G$  and  $\mu(G \setminus F) = 0$ .
- 3.  $\mu$  is regular
- Proof. 1. If  $\mu(E) < \infty$ , then it holds by Reisz representation theorem. Next consider  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  with  $\mu(E) = \infty$ . Recall that  $X = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} K_j$ , where each  $K_j$  is compact. Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Take intersection with  $K_j$ , then we have  $\mu(E \cap K_j) < \infty$ . So we have open sets  $V_j$  such that  $K_j \cap E \subset V_j$  and  $\mu(V_j \setminus (K_j \cap E)) < \frac{\epsilon}{2^{j+1}}$ .  $V_j$ s are guaranteed by the (4) in the Reisz representation theorem. Take  $V = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} V_j$ . We have  $V \setminus E \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (V_j \setminus (K_j \cap E))$ . So we get  $\mu(V \setminus E) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Again consider  $E^c$  and using the same analysis, we get an open set W such that  $E^c \subset W$  and  $\mu(W \setminus E^c) < \epsilon/2$ . Now let  $C = W^c$ , this gives  $\mu(E \setminus C) = \mu(W \setminus E^c) = \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Now show that  $\mu(W \setminus C) < \epsilon$ . Then we're done.
  - 2. Repeat i) for a sequence of  $\epsilon_n = \frac{1}{n}$ . Then we get a corresponding  $C_n \subset E \subset V_n$ . Take  $V = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n$ ,  $C = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$ . Then we're done.
  - 3. (4), (5) of Reisz representation theorem gives the outer regularity, and outer regularity when  $\mu(E) < \infty$ . We only need to show inner regularity when  $\mu(E) = \infty$ . Therefore, we need a sequence  $A_n$  of compact sets such that  $A_n \subset E$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(A_n) = \infty$ . From (1), taking  $\epsilon = 1$ , we have  $C \subset E$ , where  $\mu(E \setminus C) < 1$ . Hence we see  $\mu(C) = \infty$ .

Now from the  $\sigma$ -compactness, we get  $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  for  $K_n$  compact. We can further demand  $K_n$ s are increasing since if not we can take finite unions of everything below. Now let  $C_n = K_n \cap C$  and we have

$$\infty = \mu(C) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(C_n)$$

14.1 Lebesgue Measure

**Definition 14.1.1.** A k-cell in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a set of the form

$$A = \{ \lambda = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) : a_j \le^{\circ} x_j \le^{\circ} b_j, \le^{\circ} \in \{ \le, < \} \}$$

We define  $\operatorname{vol}(A) = \prod_{j=1}^k (b_j - a_j)$ 

**Theorem 14.1.1.** There is a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$  including Borel sets on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and measure m on  $\mathcal{M}$  such that

- (1) m(V) = vol(V) if V is a k-cell
- (2) m restricted to Borel sets is a regular measure
- (3) m is translation invariant

*Proof.* For any  $f \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$ . Let  $\Lambda(f) = \int f \, dV$  be the Riemann integral. Then  $\Lambda$  is a positive linear functional on  $C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$ . Reisz representation theorem gives a measure m out of  $\Lambda$  which has regularity and defined on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$  which contains the Borel sets.

(1) Let V be an open k-cell. Pick compact k-cells nested increasing with with union  $V = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} V_j$ . By Urysohn's lemma, there are  $f_n \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^n)$  such that  $\chi_{V_n} \leq f_n \leq \chi_V$  where  $V_n$  is compact and V is open. Then

$$m(V_n) = \int \chi_{V_n} dm \le \int f_n dm \le \int \chi_V dm = m(V)$$

Now taking  $n \to \infty$ , by monotone convergence theorem, we get  $m(V_n) \to m(V)$ . Hence by sandwich, we get  $\int f_n dm \to m(V)$ .

Similarly

$$\operatorname{vol}(V_n) \le \int f_n \ dV \le \operatorname{vol}(V)$$

Then we can choose  $V_k$  such that  $\operatorname{vol}(V_k) \to \operatorname{vol}(V)$ , then we get

- (2) Property of Reisz representation measure
- (3) Fix  $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and define  $\lambda : \mathcal{M} \to [0, \infty] := \lambda(E) = m(a + E)$ . Verify that  $\lambda$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ .

Also define translation of functions  $f \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$  as  $f \to f_a$ , where  $f_a(x) = f(x-a)$ . We have seen for Riemann integrals that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^k} f \ dV = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} f_a \ dV$$

By the extension (Reisz, i guess),

$$\int f \ dm = \int f_a \ dm$$

Moreover if K is compact, and V open with  $K \subset V$ , we have  $f \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$  with  $\chi_K \leq f \leq \chi_V$ . Then  $\chi_{K+a} \leq f_a \leq \chi_{V+a}$ .

Next choose any compact set K in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Define a distance from K as  $\phi_k(x) = \inf_{y \in K} |x-y|$ . Then  $\phi_K$  is uniformly continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Pick  $V_k = \phi_K^{-1}((\frac{-1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}))$ . Then  $V_n \supset V_{n+1} \supset \ldots$  and  $K = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n$ .

Now choose a sequence  $(f_n) \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$  such that  $\chi_k \leq f_n \leq \chi_{V_n}$  and  $f_1 \geq f_2 \geq \ldots$  (By choosing minima among the first few functions).

Then we get

$$m(K) = \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int f_n \ dm$$

$$= \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int (f_n)_a \ dm$$

$$= \lambda(K)$$

Now we have showed that  $\lambda = \mu$  for compact sets in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Now we should prove the same for the open sets of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Now by the  $\sigma$ -compactness of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , we get our desired translation invariance.

#### 15.1 Vitali Sets

**Theorem 15.1.1.** If  $\mathcal{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\lambda : \mathcal{M} \to [0, \infty]$  is a translation invariant measure with  $0 < \lambda([0, 1)) < \infty$ , then there is  $E \subset [0, 1)$  such that  $E \notin \mathcal{M}$ .

*Proof.* Endow [0,1) with an equivalence relation  $a \sim b \iff a-b \in \mathbb{Q}$ . This gives a partition of [0,1) by the equivalence classes. Now from each of these classes pick (by AOC) one representative element and build the set E. Observe that for  $r, s \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $(E+s) \cap (E+r) = \emptyset$  if and only if r=s.

Also note that

$$[0,1) \subset \cup_{r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [-1,1]} (E+r)$$

Therefore

$$E \subset [0,1) \subset \cup_{r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [-1,1]} (E+r) \subset [-1,2)$$

verify the rest, its easy.

**Theorem 15.1.2** (Luzin's theorem). Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space.

- (1)  $\mu$  is a regular measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$  containing B(X)
- (2)  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is measurable
- (3) there is a  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\mu(A) < \infty$  and f = 0 on  $A^c$

Given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $g \in C_c(X)$  such that  $\mu(\{x \in X : f(x) \neq g(x)\}) < \epsilon$ 

**Theorem 16.0.1** (Luzin's theorem). Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space.

- (1)  $\mu$  is a regular measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$  containing B(X)
- (2)  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is measurable
- (3) there is a  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\mu(A) < \infty$  and f = 0 on  $A^c$

Given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $g \in C_c(X)$  such that  $\mu(\{x \in X : f(x) \neq g(x)\}) < \epsilon$  and  $\sup\{|g(x)| : x \in X\} \le \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\}.$ 

*Proof.* Suppose for now A is compact. (We can assume this since the measure is regular and we can find a compact set  $K \subset A$  such that f = 0 almost everywhere in  $K^c$ .) We'll do the A not compact case later.

Choose V open such that  $A \subset V$  and  $\overline{V}$  is compact. We'll first prove the existence of the desired g if f is simple. Let

$$f = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}$$

where each  $A_j$  is disjoint and  $\bigcup_{j=1}^n A_j = A$ . Again each of the  $\mu(A_j) \leq \mu(A) < \infty$ . Hence by the regularity of the measure there are compact sets  $K_j \subset A_j$  such that  $\mu(A_j \setminus K_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{2^{j+1}}$ .

Since  $K_j$  are compact and disjoint, we can find collection of disjoint open sets  $V_j$  such that  $K_j \subset V_j$ . verify this, I am not sure.

Moreover by replacing  $V_j$  with  $V_j \cap V$ , we can assume  $V_j \subset V$ . Now by the outer regularity of the measure, we can assume  $\mu(V_j \setminus K_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{2^{j+1}}$ . Now by Urysohn, there is a  $g_i \in C_c(X)$  such that  $\chi_{K_j} \leq g_j \leq \chi_{V_j}$ . Let

$$g = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j g_j$$

Then g is continuous being the finite sum of continuous function. Moreover since  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n V_i \subset V$ , we get  $\operatorname{supp}(g) \subset \overline{V}$ . Also

$$|g(x)| \le \max\{|\alpha_j|\}$$
  
$$\max_{x \in A} |f(x)|$$

Now we see that f(x) = g(x) for all  $x \in K_j$  and  $x \in (A_j \cup V_j)^c$ . Since  $K_j \subset V_j$ , the set where they possibly disagree is

Add a diagram for ease of reasoning

$$D = \bigcup_{j=1}^{n} (V_j \setminus K_j) \quad \cup \quad \bigcup_{j=1}^{n} (A_j \setminus K_j)$$

Now by the subadditivity of  $\mu$ , we get  $\mu(D) < \epsilon$  and we have proved the result for A compact and f simple.

Now for the case when  $0 \le f < 1$ , let  $s_n$  be the sequence of simple functions  $0 \le s_1 \le s_2 \le \ldots \le \text{with } \lim_{n\to\infty} s_n(x) = f(x)$ . Let  $t_n = s_n - s_{n-1}$ , where  $s_0 = 0$ . Each  $t_n$  is simple and  $t_n = 0$  on  $A^c$  and by construction, we get

$$t_n \le \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \chi_{B_n}$$

for some set  $B_n$ .

Now we use the first part of the proof on  $t_n$ s to get a corresponding  $g_n \in C_c(X)$ . Then  $g_n$  satisfy

- (1)
- (2)
- (3)

Let  $g = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} g_n$ , which converges uniformly as  $|g_n| \leq \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$  by Wierestrass. Hence  $g \in C_c(X)$  and  $\operatorname{supp}(g) \subset \overline{V}$ .

We know that  $f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} t_n$  from the definition of  $t_n$ . So the set  $D = \{x \in X : f(x) \neq g(x)\}$  is a subset of  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{x \in X : t_n(x) \neq g_n(X)\}$ . Now the subadditivity of  $\mu$  gives that  $\mu(D) < \epsilon$ .

Next, if f is non-negative, bounded, the result follows from scaling f. Again if  $f \geq 0$  is measurable and possibly unbounded, we have  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \{x \in X : f(x) \geq n\} = \emptyset$ . Moreover  $\mu(\{f \geq 1\}) \leq \mu(A) < \infty$ . Hence by the continuity of the measure from above, we get  $\mu(\{f \geq n\}) \to 0$ . Hence we can replace f with  $f\chi_{f < n}$  for some appropriate f.

Now if the function is general complex, we can split it as the sum and difference of four non-negative measurable functions and continue the analysis. Finally if A is not compact, we can find a  $K \subset A$  such that K is compact and  $\mu(A \setminus K)$  is arbitrarily small by the inner regularity of the measure  $\mu$  for finite sets.  $\square$ 

**Definition 17.0.1.** A function f of a topological space X is called lower semi-continuous if for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\{x \in X : f(x) > \alpha\}$  is open.

**Example 17.0.1.** If V is open, then  $\chi_V$  is lower semi-continuous because the  $\{x \in X : f(x) > \alpha\}$  has choices  $\phi, V, X$ , all of them are open.

**Definition 17.0.2.** A function is called upper semi-continuous if for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , the set  $\{x \in X : f(x) < \alpha\}$  is open.

Remark 17.0.1. If  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is lower semi-continuous, then -f is upper semi-continuous.

**Example 17.0.2.** If V is open, then  $\chi_{V^c} = 1 - \chi_V$  is upper semi-continuous.

**Proposition 17.0.1.** If f, g are lower semi-continuous, so is f + g.

Proof.

$$\{x \in X : f(x) + g(x) > \alpha\} = \bigcup_{r \in \mathbb{R}} (\{x : f(x) > r\} \cap \{x : g(x) < \alpha - r\})$$

**Proposition 17.0.2.** If  $u_1 \leq u_2 \leq \dots$  are all lower semi-continuous, then so is  $\lim_{n\to\infty} u_n = u$ .

Proof.

$$\{u > \alpha\} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{u_{\alpha} > \alpha\}$$

Corollary 17.0.0.1. A monotone increasing sequence of continuous functions converges to a lower semi-continuous function.

**Theorem 17.0.1** (Vitali-Caratheodory Theorem). Let X be locally compact and Hausdorff,  $\mu$  be a regular Borel measure. If  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  in  $L^1(\mu)$ , then there is an upper semi-continuous function u and a lower semi-continuous function v such that  $u \le f \le v$  and  $\int (v - u) d\mu < \epsilon$ .

*Proof.* Assume  $f \ge 0$ . There exists an increasing sequence of simple functions  $(s_n)$  converging (pointwise) to f. Considering as before,  $t_n = s_n - s_{n-1}$  with  $s_0 = 0$ , we see that each  $t_n$  is simple and  $f = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} t_n$ .

Then since of the  $t_n$  are simple, expanding them out into the standard simple function form and re-indexing them, we get

$$f = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j \chi_{E_j}$$

Note that we're not claiming  $E_j$ s are disjoint. Since  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ , we can apply monotone convergence theorem. Thus

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{\int c_j \chi_{E_j} \ d\mu}_{c_j \mu(E_j)} = \int f \ d\mu < \infty$$

If  $c_j = 0$ , discard. Otherwise we see that  $\mu(E_j) < \infty$  for each  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ . By regularity,  $\exists K_j$  compact and  $V_j$  open such that  $K_j \subset E_j \subset V_j$  and  $\mu(V_j \setminus K_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{2^j c_j}$ . As a consequence of convergence of  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j \mu(E_j)$ , we have  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} c_j \mu(E_j) < \epsilon$ . Let

$$u = \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j \chi_{K_j}$$
 and  $v = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j \chi_{V_j}$ 

Then we see that u is upper semi-continuous and v is lower semi-continuous and

$$v - u = \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j \chi_{V_j \setminus K_j} + \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} c_j \chi_{V_j}$$

Thus,

$$\int (v - u) d\mu = \int \left( \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j \chi_{V_j \setminus K_j} + \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} c_j \chi_{V_j} \right) d\mu$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j \mu(V_j \setminus K_j) + \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} c_j \mu(V_j)$$

$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j \frac{\epsilon}{2^j c_j} +$$

$$< \epsilon +$$

Now to complete the proof, apply this result to  $f^+$  and  $f^-$ . Then since  $f = f^+ - f^-$  and we get upper and lower semi-continuous functions  $u_+, v_+$  for  $f^+$  and  $u_-, v_-$  for  $f^-$ . Let  $u = u_+ - v_-, v = v_+ - u_-$  gives  $u \le f \le v$  and satisfy the properties.

## $L^p$ Spaces

**Definition 18.0.1.** A function  $\phi:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  is called convex if

$$\phi(tx + (1-t)y) \le t\phi(x) + (1-t)\phi(y)$$

for all  $x, y \in (a, b)$  and  $0 \le t \le 1$ .

**Proposition 18.0.1.** A function  $\phi:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  is convex if and only if for u,s,t with  $a< u \le t \le s < b$ , we have

$$\phi(t) \le \phi(s) \frac{u-t}{u-s} + \phi(u) \frac{t-s}{u-s}$$

or equivalently using

$$\phi(t) - \phi(s) = \frac{t - s}{u - s} (\phi(u) - \phi(s))$$

satisfies

$$\frac{\phi(t) - \phi(s)}{t - s} \le \frac{\phi(u) - \phi(s)}{u - s}$$

**Theorem 18.0.1.** A function  $\phi:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  that is convex is continuous.

*Proof.* Let 
$$S = (s, \phi(s)), X = (x, \phi(x)), Y = (y, \phi(y)),$$
 with  $a < s \le x \le y < b$ . Draw secands and refer Rudin.

**Theorem 18.0.2** (Jensen's Inequality). Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space with  $\mu(X) = 1$ . If  $f \in L^1(\mu)$  and for each  $x \in X$ , a < f(x) < b and  $\phi$  is convex on (a,b), then

$$\phi\bigg(\int f \ d\mu\bigg) \le \int (\phi \circ f) \ d\mu$$

*Proof.* We know by convexity that for  $u \leq s \leq t$ ,

$$\frac{\phi(t) - \phi(s)}{t - s} \le \frac{\phi(u) - \phi(s)}{u - s}$$

Then there is  $\beta$  such that

$$\frac{\phi(t) - \phi(s)}{t - s} \le \beta \le \frac{\phi(u) - \phi(s)}{u - s}$$

Consider LHS Inequality to get

$$\phi(t) - \phi(s) \le \beta(t - s)$$
$$\phi(s) \ge \phi(t) + \beta(s - t)$$

for s < t, and similarly by the RHS we get

$$\phi(u) - \phi(s) \ge \beta(u - s)$$

Hence in both the cases (t = f(x), u = f(x))

$$\phi(f(x)) - \phi(s) - \beta(f(x) - s) \ge 0$$

Now integrating this gives

$$\int \phi \circ f \ d\mu - \phi(t) - \beta \Big( \int f \ d\mu - s \Big) \ge 0$$

Choosing  $s = \int f d\mu$  gives out inequality.

**Example 18.0.1.** Take  $\mu$  to be the probability measure on  $X = \{1, 2, 3, \dots n\}$ , assume  $\mu(\{j\}) = \alpha_j > 0$ . Then for  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n > 0$ , we have

$$b_1^{\alpha_1} b_2^{\alpha_2} \dots b_n^{\alpha_n} \le \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j b_j$$

*Proof.* Use the convexity of  $x \to e^x$ , and let  $b_i = e^{c_i}$ .

**Theorem 18.0.3** (Holder's Inequality). Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space,  $f, g: X \to [0, \infty]$  be measurable. Then for 1 , with <math>1/p + 1/q = 1, then

$$\int fg \ d\mu \le \left(\int f^p \ d\mu\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\int g^q \ d\mu\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \equiv \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$$

and

$$\left(\int (f+g)^p \ d\mu\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \le ||f||_p + ||g||_p$$

**Theorem 19.0.1** (Holder's & Minkowski Inequality). Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space,  $f, g: X \to [0, \infty]$  be measurable. Then for  $1 \le p < \infty$ , with 1/p + 1/q = 1, then

$$\int fg \ d\mu \le \left( \int f^p \ d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left( \int g^q \ d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} = \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$$

and

$$\left(\int (f+g)^p \ d\mu\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \le ||f||_p + ||g||_p$$

*Proof.* Let  $A = ||f||_p$ ,  $B = ||g||_p$ . If A = 0 or  $A = \infty$ , or B = 0, or  $B = \infty$ , we have nothing to show. Hence assume that  $0 < A, B < \infty$ . Let  $F(x) = \frac{f(x)}{A}, G(x) = \frac{g(x)}{B}$ . We also define  $s, t : X \to \mathbb{R}$  as

$$F(x) = e^{\frac{s(x)}{p}}, \quad G(x) = e^{\frac{t(x)}{q}}$$

By convexity of the exponential function, we have

$$e^{s/p+t/q} \le \frac{1}{p}e^s + \frac{1}{q}e^t$$

In terms of F, G, this is

$$F(x)G(x) \le \frac{1}{p}(F(x))^p + \frac{1}{q}(G(x))^p$$

Hence integrating both sides, we get

$$\int F(x)G(x) \ d\mu \ \le \ \frac{1}{p} \int (F(x))^p \ d\mu + \frac{1}{q} \int (G(x))^p \ d\mu$$

Now writing this in terms of f, g gives us

$$\frac{1}{AB} \int fg \ d\mu \le \frac{1}{p} \frac{1}{A^p} \int f^p \ d\mu + \frac{1}{q} \frac{1}{B^q} \int g^q \ d\mu$$
$$= \frac{1}{p} \frac{1}{A^p} ||f||_p^p + \frac{1}{q} \frac{1}{B^q} ||g||_q^q$$
$$= 1/p + 1/q = 1$$

Thus we get Holder inequality.

For Minkowski, consider

$$(f+g)^p = (f+g)(f+g)^{p-1}$$
  
=  $f(f+g)^{p-1} + g(f+g)^{p-1}$ 

Now integrating both sides and carefully applying Holder's inequality, we get

$$\int (f+g)^p \ dm = \int f(f+g)^{p-1} \ d\mu + \int g(f+g)^{p-1} \ d\mu$$

$$= \left(\int f^p \ d\mu\right)^p \left(\int (f+g)^{(p-1)q} \ d\mu\right)^q + \left(\int g^q \ d\mu\right)^q \left(\int (f+g)^{(p-1)p} \ d\mu\right)^p$$

$$=$$

verify

**Definition 19.0.1.** Let  $0 . <math>f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  measurable on  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ . We define

$$||f||_p = \left(\int |f|^p \ d\mu\right)^p$$

We also write  $L^p(\mu) = \{ f : X \to \mathbb{C} : ||f||_p < \infty \}$ 

**Definition 19.0.2.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space. Let  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$  be measurable. The essential supremeum of f is

$$\operatorname{ess\,sup} f = \inf\{\alpha \ : \ \mu(\{f > \alpha\}) = 0\}$$

**Proposition 19.0.1.** With  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ , f be as above.  $\beta = ess \sup f$ . Then

$$\mu(\{f>\beta\})=0$$

**Definition 19.0.3.** For  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ , f as above,

$$||f||_{\infty} = \operatorname{ess\,sup} ||f||$$

and  $L^{\infty}(\mu)$  be the set of all f with  $||f||_{\infty} < \infty$ 

We add a case of Holder's inequality for  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ .

**Theorem 19.0.2.** If  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  is as usual f, g measurable,  $f \in L^1(\mu), g \in L^{\infty}(\mu)$ , then  $fg \in L^1(\mu)$  and

$$||fg||_1 \le ||f||_1 ||g||_{\infty}$$

*Proof.* Take  $E = \{x \in X : |g(x)| > ||g||_{\infty}\}$ . Then E has measure zero, and

$$\int |fg| \ d\mu = \int_{X \setminus E} |fg| \ d\mu + \int_{E} |fg| \ d\mu$$

$$\leq ||g||_{\infty} \int_{X \setminus E} |f| \ d\mu$$

$$\leq ||g||_{\infty} ||f||_{1}$$

**Theorem 19.0.3.** let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be as usual, f, g measurable  $f, g \in L^{\infty}(\mu)$ . Then

$$||f + g||_{\infty} \le ||f||_{\infty} + ||g||_{\infty}$$

Proof. Notice that

$$\{x: |f(x)+g(x)| > \|f\|_{\infty} + \|g\|_{\infty} \} \subset \{x: |f(x)| + |g(x)| > \|f\|_{\infty} + \|g\|_{\infty} \}$$

$$\subset \{x: |f(x)| > \|f\|_{\infty} \} \ \cup \ \{x: |g(x)| > \|g\|_{\infty} \}$$

Since both the sets at the end is of measure zero. Hence we get the inequality.  $\qed$ 

**Theorem 19.0.4.** For each  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ ,  $L^p(\mu)$  is a normed vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$  provided we identify functions that are equal almost everywhere.

*Proof.* Positive definiteness follows from the identification of functions in the space. Homogeneity follows from the definition of  $\|\cdot\|_p$ . And triangle inequality is the Minkowski inequality. We have shown that for the cases  $1 \le p < \infty$ , that  $\|\cdot\|_p$  is a norm.

**Lemma 19.0.1.** Let  $(f_n) \in L^p(\mu)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ . Then there exists a subsequence  $(f_{n_j})$  which is convergent pointwise almost everywhere.

Remark 20.0.1. Consider the counting measure  $\mu$ , on  $\mathbb{N}$ . Find a sequence of functions  $f_n : \mathbb{N} \to [0, \infty)$ , such that  $||f_n||_1 \to 0$  and  $g = \sup_n f_n \notin L^1(\mu)$ .

**Lemma 20.0.1.** Let  $(f_n) \in L^p(\mu)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ . Then there exists a subsequence  $(f_{n_j})$  which is convergent pointwise almost everywhere.

*Proof.* First suppose,  $p < \infty$ . Starting from a Cauchy sequence, choose a subsequence  $n_1 < n_2 < \ldots$  such that for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$||f_{n_k} - f_{n_{k+1}}|| < \frac{1}{2^k}$$

Let

$$g_l = \sum_{k=1}^{l} |f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}| \quad g = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}|$$

Then  $g_n^p \leq g_{n+1}^p \leq \ldots$  and  $g_n^p \to g^p$ . Then by monotone convergence theorem,

$$\int g_n^p \ d\mu \to \int g^p \ d\mu$$

Moreover, using Minkowski's inequality, we get

$$||g_l||_p \le \sum_{k=1}^l ||f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}||$$

$$\le \sum_{k=1}^\infty ||f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}||$$

$$\le 1$$

By monotone convergence, we get  $||g||_p \leq 1$ . In particular g is finite almost everywhere. Hence

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k})$$

is absolutely convergent almost everywhere. So by telescoping series for almost every  $x \in X$ 

$$f(x) = \lim_{l \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{l} (f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k})(x)$$
$$= \lim_{l \to \infty} (f_{n_{l+1}}(x) - f_{n_1}(x))$$

So  $f_{n_l}$  converges for almost every  $x \in X$ .

Next, we consider  $p = \infty$ . For  $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ , let

$$E_{n,k} = \{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f_k(x)| > ||f_n - f_k||_{\infty} \}$$

Then  $\mu(E_{n,k}) = 0$ , by the definition of essential supremum. Moreover  $E = \bigcup_{n,k=1}^{\infty} E_{n,k}$  also has measure 0. On  $E^c$ , for each  $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$|f_n(x) - f_k(x)| \le ||f_n - f_k||$$

This means  $f_n|_E^c$  converges uniformly.

**Theorem 20.0.1.** For  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ ,  $L^p(\mu)$  is a complete metric space. (After identifying functions that are equal almost everywhere.)

*Proof.* (1) For  $p = \infty$ , the proof in the above lemma is the proof

(2) For the rest of the p, consider the Cauchy sequence  $f_n$  in  $L^p(\mu)$ ,  $p < \infty$ . It has c pointwise almost everywhere converging subsequence converging to f. We need to show that  $f \in L^p(\mu)$  and convergence is in norm. That is  $||f_n - f||_p \to 0$ .

We apply Fatou's lemma to the function  $g_k = |f_n - f_{n_k}|^p$  to get

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \inf \int |f_n - f_{n_k}|^p d\mu \ge \int \lim_{k \to \infty} \inf |f_n - f_{n_k}|^p d\mu$$
$$= ||f_n - f||^p$$

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , since  $f_n$  is Cauchy in  $L^p(\mu)$ , there is a N such that for  $n, m \geq N$ , we have

$$\epsilon^p > ||f_n - f_m||_p^p = \int |f_n - f_m|^p d\mu$$

By taking  $m = n_k \to \infty$ , we then get

$$\epsilon^p \ge ||f_n - f||_n^p$$

This implies  $f \in L^p(\mu)$ , by

$$||f||_p \le ||f - f_n||_p + ||f_n||_p$$

Now that fact that  $||f - f_n||_p \to 0$ , we get  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ .

# 21.1 Approximations by simple or continuous functions

**Theorem 21.1.1.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space, denote by S, the collection of simple measurable functions with finite measurable support. Then for  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ,  $S \subset L^p(\mu)$  and S is dense in  $L^p(\mu)$ .

*Proof.* Given  $f \in L^p(\mu)$ , we need to find a sequence  $s_n$  in S such that  $s_n \to f$  in  $L^1(\mu)$ . First suppose that  $f: X \to [0, \infty)$ . We know a sequence of simple measurable functions  $s_n$  such that  $0 \le s_1 \le s_2 \le \ldots$  and

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

for each  $x \in X$ . Applying dominated convergence theorem, since  $|s_n - f| \le f$ , for  $f \in L^p(\mu)$  gives

$$||f - s_n||_p^p = \int |f - s_n|^p d\mu \le \int |f|^p d\mu < \infty$$

we get  $||f - s_n||_p \to 0$ 

Now taking a general  $f \in L^p(\mu)$ , writing  $f = u_+ - u_- + i(v_+ - v_-)$  and repeating the process for these gives  $s = s_+ - s_- + i(t_+ - t_-)$  where  $s_{\pm}, t_{\pm} \in S$  and

$$||s_{\pm} - u_{\pm}||_p, ||t_{\pm} - v_{\pm}||_p < \varepsilon$$

hence by triangle inequality, we get

$$||s - f||_p < 4\varepsilon$$

We can make RHS arbitarily small, so S is dense in  $L^p(\mu)$ .

**Theorem 21.1.2.** Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space with  $1 \le p < \infty$ , then  $C_c(X)$  is dense in  $L^p(\mu)$ .

*Proof.* It is enough to show  $\overline{C_c(X)}$  includes S. Given  $s \in S$ , let  $A = \{s \neq 0\}$  with  $\mu(A) < \infty$ . Then by Luzin's theorem, there is a  $g \in C_c(X)$  such that

$$||g||_{\infty} \le ||s||_{\infty}$$
 and  $\mu(E_{\varepsilon}) < \varepsilon$ 

where  $E_{\varepsilon} = \{x \in X \mid g(x) \neq s(x)\}$ . Since  $|g(x) - s(x)| \leq 2||s||_{\infty}$ , we get

$$||g - s||_p = \left(\int |g - s|^p \ d\mu\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$
$$= \left(\int_{E_{\varepsilon}} |g - s|^p \ d\mu\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

On this set,  $|g - s| \le 2||s||_{\infty}$  gives

$$||g - s||_{\infty} \le \left( \int_{E_{\varepsilon}} (2||s||_{\infty})^p \ d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$
$$< 2||s||_{\infty} \varepsilon^{1/p}$$

Since we can make  $\varepsilon$  arbitrarily small, we get the density.

Remark 21.1.1. This theorem proves that  $L^p(\mu)$  is the completion of  $(C_c(\mathbb{R}^k), d_p)$  where for  $f, g \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$ ,  $d_p(f, g) = ||f - g||_p$ . The limit of a Cauchy sequence in  $C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$  is determined almost everywhere.

If  $p = \infty$ , then the completion of  $C_c(\mathbb{R}^k)$  is not  $L^{\infty}(m)$ , but  $C_o(\mathbb{R}^k)$ .

**Definition 21.1.1.** Let X be locally compact Hausdorff, we say a continuous function f vanishes at infinity and write  $f \in C_o(X)$  if for  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can find a compact set K such that  $|f(x)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $x \notin K$ .

**Theorem 21.1.3.** Let X be locally compact Hausdorff, then  $C_o(X)$  is the completion of  $C_c(X)$  with  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f \in C_o(X)$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can choose K such that K is compact and  $|f(x)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $x \in K^c$ . Using Urysohn's lemma, threre is a  $g \in C_c(X)$  such that  $\chi_K \leq g \leq 1$ , then  $h = fg \in C_c(X)$  and

$$||h - f||_{\infty} = ||f(1 - g)||_{\infty}$$

$$= ||f(1 - g)\chi_{K^c}||_{\infty}$$

$$\leq \varepsilon ||1 - g||_{\infty}$$

$$\leq \varepsilon$$

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**Proposition 21.1.1.** Show that if  $\mu(X) < \infty$ , with  $p \le r \le \infty$ , then

$$L^r(\mu) \subset L^p(\mu)$$

Given  $f \in L^r(\mu)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f \in L^r(\mu)$ . Then,

$$||f||_p^p = \int |f|^p dm$$

$$\leq \left(\int |f|^r dm\right)^{p/r} \left(\int 1 dm\right)^{1-p/r}$$

$$\leq ||f||_r^p \mu(X)^{1-\frac{p}{r}}$$

### Inner Product Spaces

**Definition 22.0.1.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ . A sesquilinear form is a function

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{C}$$

satisfying

- $\bullet \langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$
- $\langle x + \alpha z, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \alpha \langle x, z \rangle$

for all  $x, y, z \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . It is said to be positive semidefinite (positive definite) if  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$  ( $\langle x, x \rangle > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{H} \setminus \{0\}$ ) for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ .

A positive definite sesquilinear forms makes  $\mathcal{H}$  an inner product space.

**Example 22.0.1.** Take  $L^2(\mu)$  (functions identified almost everywhere) with the natural inner product is an inner product.

**Proposition 22.0.1.** If  $\mathcal{H}$  is a complex vector space with a positive semidefinite sesquilinear form and  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$ , then  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$  for all  $y \in \mathcal{H}$ .

*Proof.* Take  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  and consider

$$\langle x + \alpha y, x + \alpha y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \alpha \langle y, x \rangle + \overline{\alpha} \langle y, y \rangle$$
$$= 2\Re(\overline{\alpha} \langle x, y \rangle) + |\alpha|^2 \langle y, y \rangle$$

Now if  $\langle x,y\rangle \neq 0$ , then either  $\langle y,y\rangle = 0$  or nonzero. If  $\langle y,y\rangle = 0$ , take  $\alpha = -\langle x,y\rangle$  to get

$$\langle x + \alpha y, x + \alpha y \rangle = \underbrace{2\Re\left(-\overline{\langle x, y \rangle}\langle x, y \rangle\right)}_{\leq 0}$$

which is a contradiction.

Now if  $\langle y, y \rangle \neq 0$ , take  $\alpha = i \langle x, y \rangle$  to get a similar contradiction, which makes  $\Re(\overline{\alpha}\langle x, y \rangle) = 0$ 

**Definition 22.0.2.** If  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is a positive semidefinite sesquilinear form, then

$$||x|| = \langle x, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

is a seminorm.

If  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is positive definite, then  $x \to ||x||$  is a norm.

**Theorem 22.0.1** (Cauchy-Schwarz). If  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is a positive semidefinite sesquilinear form on  $\mathcal{H}$ , then for  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ 

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| ||y||$$

*Proof.* If ||y|| = 0, then previous proposition takes care of the proof. If not, choose  $\alpha = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\langle y, y \rangle}$  and consider

$$0 \le \langle x - \lambda y, x - \lambda y \rangle$$

$$= ||x||^2 - 2\Re(\lambda \langle y, x \rangle)) + |\lambda|^2 \langle y, y \rangle$$

$$= ||x|| - 2\frac{\langle x, y \rangle^2}{||y||^2} + \frac{\langle x, y \rangle^2}{||y||^2}$$

$$= ||x||^2 - \frac{|\langle x, y \rangle|^2}{||y||^2}$$

which gives our inequality.

**Theorem 22.0.2.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$  with a positive semidefinite sesquilinear  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  form and the associated seminorm  $\|\cdot\|$ , then for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$$

Proof. verify

Remark 22.0.1. If  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is an inner product space, then  $\| \cdot \|$  defines a norm in  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Definition 22.0.3.** If  $\mathcal{H}$  be an inner product. If  $\mathcal{H}$  is complete with respect to the topology induced by the inner product, then it is called a Hilbert space.

**Example 22.0.2.**  $L^2(\mu)$ , with functions identified that agrees almost everywhere is a Hilbert space when endowed with the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int f \overline{g} \ d\mu$$

**Proposition 22.0.2.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. Then for  $g \in \mathcal{H}$ 

$$\lambda_g: \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{C} := f \to \langle f, g \rangle$$

is a linear, uniformly continuous functional.

*Proof.* Use Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

**Definition 22.0.4.** Let H be a Hilbert space. We say  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$  are orthogonal if  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ . We also write  $x \perp y$ .

If  $S \subset \mathcal{H}$ , define

$$S^{\perp} = \{ x \in \mathcal{H} : x \perp s, \forall s \in S \}$$

**Theorem 22.0.3.** If  $S \subset H$ , then  $S^{\perp}$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $z \in \mathcal{H}$ . Then  $K_z = z^{\perp} = \text{Ker}(\lambda_z)$  is closed. Observe that

$$S^{\perp} = \bigcap_{s \in S} K_s$$

is closed as well.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 22.0.1.** Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a closed subspace of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , and  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ , then there is a unique  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  that minimizes the distance to h

*Proof.* We recall the parallelogram law

$$||x + y||^2 + ||x - y||^2 = 2(||x||^2 + ||y||^2)$$

and write for  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$||x - y||^2 = 2(||x||^2 + ||y||^2) - ||x + y||^2$$

Let  $\delta = \inf\{\|m - h\| : m \in \mathcal{M}\}$ . There there is a sequence of  $m_j \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\|m_j - h\| \to \delta$ . To show that  $m_j$  is a Cauchy sequence, consider  $x = m_j - h, y = m_i - h$ . Then

$$\frac{x+y}{2} = \frac{m_i + m_j}{2} - h$$

and we see that

$$\left\| \frac{x+y}{2} \right\| = \left| \frac{m_i + m_j}{2} - h \right|$$

Then by prarllelogram law,

$$||m_j - m_i||^2 = 2(||x||^2 + ||y||^2) - ||x + y||^2$$
  
=  $2(||m_j - h||^2 + ||m_i - h||^2 - ||m_i + m_j - 2h||^2)$ 

#### verify

This shows that, we can make  $||m_i - m_j||$  arbitrarily small by requiring  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$  for a similarly large  $\mathbb{N}$ , meaning  $m_j$  is Cauchy. Since  $\mathcal{M}$  is closed and a closed and a closed subset of a complete metric space,  $\mathcal{M}$  is complete, so there is a point  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , where  $m_j$  converges to. We'll prove the uniqueness in the next lecture.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 22.0.4** (Orthogonal Projections). If M is a closed subspace of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , then for each  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ , there is a unique pair  $m \in M$  and  $n \in M^{\perp}$  such that h = m + n and  $||h||^2 = ||m||^+ ||n||^2$ . Moreover, the maps P(h) = m, Q(h) = n are linear and write m = Ph, n = Qh

*Proof.* Fix  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ . Pick  $m \in M$  that is nearest to h, using precedent lemma. Let n = h - m. We will show  $n \in M^{\perp}$ . For any  $x \in M$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ , consider

$$||n - \alpha x||^2 = ||n||^2 - 2\Re(\alpha \langle x, n \rangle) + |\alpha|^2 ||x||^2$$

and  $||h||^2 = ||m||^2 + ||n||^2$ . Suppose  $\langle x, n \rangle \neq 0$ . Choose  $\alpha = \frac{t}{\langle x, n \rangle}$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$||n - \alpha x||^2 = ||n||^2 - 2t + \frac{t^2 ||x||^2}{|\langle x, n \rangle|^2}$$

For sufficiently small t, we have  $2t > \frac{t^2 ||x||^2}{|\langle x,n\rangle|^2}$ . Then we'd get

$$||n - \alpha x||^2 < ||n||^2$$

Replacing n with h-m, we get

$$||h - (m + \alpha x)||^2 < ||h - m||^2$$

which contradicts the optimality of m for distance to h. We conclude  $\langle x, n \rangle = 0$ . This is true for each  $x \in M$ . Thus, we get  $n \in M^{\perp}$ .

Now to see that the choice of m(and n) is unique, let h = m' + n', with  $m' \in M, n' \in M^{\perp}$ . Then m + n = m' + n', which implies

$$\underbrace{m - m'}_{\in M} = \underbrace{n' - n}_{\in M^{\perp}}$$

which forces m = m', n = n', since  $M \cap M^{\perp} = \{0\}$ 

Now for the linearity of P, Q, let  $h = h_1 + \alpha h_2$ , where  $h_1 = m_1 + n_1, h_2 = m_2 + n_2$  for  $m_i \in M, n_i \in M^{\perp}$ . Then

$$h = \underbrace{m_1 + \alpha m_2}_{\in M} + \underbrace{n_1 + \alpha n_2}_{\in M^{\perp}}$$

This shows  $P: h \to m, Q: h \to n$  are linear maps.

**Definition 22.0.5.** The maps P, Q above are called orthogonal projections onto M and  $M^{\perp}$ , respectively.

Corollary 22.0.4.1. Let M be a proper closed subspace in a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then  $M^{\perp} \neq \{0\}$ .

**Exercise 22.0.1.** Let  $M \subset L^2(\mathbb{R})$  such that

$$M = \{ f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) : f(x) = \alpha_n \text{ for almost every } x \in [n, n+1) \}$$

#### 22.1 Reisz Representation Theorem

**Theorem 22.1.1** (Reisz Representation Theorem). Let  $\Lambda : \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{C}$  be a continuous linear functional on a Hilbert space. Then there is a unique  $y \in \mathcal{H}$  such that  $\Lambda(x) = \langle x, y \rangle$ 

*Proof.* Assume that  $\Lambda \neq 0$ . Then  $M = \operatorname{Ker}(\Lambda)$  is a proper closed linear subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then so is  $M^{\perp}$ . Let  $0 \neq v, w \in M^{\perp}$ . Then  $\Lambda(v) \neq 0 \neq \Lambda(w)$ . Then since

$$\Lambda \left( \frac{v}{\Lambda(v)} - \frac{w}{\Lambda(w)} \right) = 0$$

forces  $\frac{v}{\Lambda(v)} - \frac{w}{\Lambda(w)} \in M \cap M^{\perp} = \{0\}$ . Hence  $v \in \text{span}(w)$ . Thus we see that M has co-dimension 1. i.e  $M^{\perp}$  has dimension 1.