MATH6320 - Functions of a Real Variable

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1.1 Course Info

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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 τ be the set of all open subsets of X, where (X, d) is a metric space, then τ forms a topology. verify this

Definition 1.2.4. Let X be a set and τ a topology on X, then we call (X, τ) a topological space. Elements of τ 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 β is called a basis

Theorem 1.2.1. If β is a basis then, τ , the collection of all (empty or non-empty) unions of elements of β form a topology on X.

Proof. It is clear from the definition of τ that arbitrary unions of sets in τ is again in τ . 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 τ is again in τ .

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 β , 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 τ is a topology.

Example 1.2.3. Let $\beta = \{(p,q) : p,q \in \mathbb{Q}, p < q\} \subset P(\mathbb{R})$. Then β is a basis and the topology generated by β 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 β is a basis.

Example 1.2.5. Let J be a set and $\mathbb{R}^J = \{f : J \to \mathbb{R}\}$. Let β 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 β is a basis and the topology generated by β 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 σ -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 σ -algebra \mathscr{M} such that,

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

Then \mathcal{M} is called a σ -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 σ -algebra generated by F is the power set, P(X).

2.2 continues

Proof. Proof of Theorem 1.2.2.

Consider all σ -algebras containing F, let $\Omega = \{ \mathcal{N} \subset P(X) : \mathcal{N} \supset F, \mathcal{N} \text{ is a } \sigma$ -algebra $\}$. Ω 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 σ -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 σ -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 σ -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 σ -algebra which satisfies the required properties defining Ω . 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 σ -algebras.

Definition 2.2.1. Let (X, τ) be any topological space. The σ -algebra, \mathcal{B} generated by the topology τ is called the Borel σ -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 σ -algebra.

Since M contains all open sets, M contains the Borel σ -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 σ -algebra on a set X and B be the Borel σ -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 χ_A is measurable if and only if $A \in \mathcal{M}$.

To see this if χ_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 σ -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 χ_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 σ -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 ϕ , $\phi \circ F$ 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 σ -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 χ_{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 ϕ_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 σ -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 μ is a measure (or a positive measure). And we call (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) a measure space. If $Z = \mathbb{C}$, then we call μ 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 μ be a (positive) measure on a σ -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 $\mu(A) \leq \infty$.

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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}, μ) 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}, μ) 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}, μ) 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}, μ) 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}, μ) 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 χ_{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}, μ) 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},μ) , then $\phi:\mathcal{M}\to[0,\infty]$,

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

defines a measure ϕ 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 ϕ 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}, μ) 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 μ 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 αf 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 μ 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}, μ) 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}, μ) be a measure space. If for any $E \in \mathcal{M}$ and $F \subset E$, $\mu(E) = 0$ implies $F \subset \mathcal{M}$, then μ is called complete.

Note (Warm up). Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) 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 ϕ 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}, μ) can be equipped with a complete extension of μ 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 μ^* 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 μ , 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 μ^* is well defined.

Now we show that \mathcal{M}^* is actually a σ -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 μ^* is countably additive and then show μ^* 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 λ 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, τ) 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, τ) 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_{α} 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_{α}^{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_{α} 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 $\lambda(f) \geq 0$ when $f(x) \geq 0$ for each $x \in X$.

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Remark 13.0.1. Suppose X is locally compact, μ a measure on a σ -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 Urysohns 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 λ is a positive linear functional on $C_c(X)$, then there exists a σ -algebra \mathcal{M} and a measure μ , uniquely determined by

- (1) $\mathcal{M} \supset B(X)$, the Borel sigma algebra.
- (2) $\lambda(f) = \int f \ d\mu \ for \ each \ f \in C_c(X)$.
- (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 μ_1, μ_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.