# Mathematical Studies Analysis

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# 1 Advanced topics in metric space theory

#### 1.1 Baire category

**Definition.** Let X be a metric space.

- 1. We say that  $E \subset X$  is nowhere dense if  $(\overline{E})^{\circ} = \emptyset$ .
- 2. We say that  $E \subset X$  is meager in X if

$$E = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha},$$

where A is a countable set and  $E_{\alpha} \subset X$  is nowhere dense for every  $\alpha \in A$ .

**Theorem.** Prove that the following are equivalent for  $E \subset X$ :

- 1. E is nowhere dense
- 2.  $\overline{E}$  is nowhere dense
- 3.  $(\overline{E})^c$  is open and dense in X.

*Proof.* (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2). Suppose E is nowhere dense, then  $(\overline{E})^{\circ} = \emptyset$ . Note that the closure of  $\overline{E}$  is just  $\overline{E}$  itself. It follows that  $\overline{E}$  is also nowhere dense.

(2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3). Suppose  $\overline{E}$  is nowhere dense. Note that  $\overline{E}$  is closed, so  $(\overline{E})^c$  is open. Let  $x \in X$  be arbitrary. Since  $\overline{E}$  is nowhere dense,  $x \notin (\overline{E})^\circ$ . This implies that for arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have  $B(x,\varepsilon) \not\subset \overline{E}$ . This is equivalent to  $B(x,\varepsilon) \cap (\overline{E})^c \neq \emptyset$ . Hence,  $(\overline{E})^c$  is dense in X.

(3)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1). Suppose  $(\overline{E})^c$  is dense in X. Let  $x \in X$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  be arbitrary. It follows that  $B(x,\varepsilon) \cap (\overline{E})^c \neq \emptyset$ . This is equivalent to  $B(x,\varepsilon) \not\subset \overline{E}$ . Therefore,  $(\overline{E})^\circ = \emptyset$  and E is nowhere dense.

**Theorem** (Baire category theorem). Let X be a complete metric space. Suppose that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $U_n \subset X$  is open and dense in X. Prove that  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n$  is dense in X. Hint: use the shrinking closed set property.

*Proof.* Consider any  $x \in X$  and arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$ , it suffices to show that  $U_n \cap B(x, \varepsilon) \neq \emptyset$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Now inductively choosing a sequence  $x_i \in X$  and  $\varepsilon_i > 0$  such that for each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $B[x_i, \varepsilon_i] \subset U_i$ ,  $B[x_{i+1}, \varepsilon_i] \subset B[x_i, \varepsilon_i] \subset B(x, \varepsilon)$ , and  $\varepsilon_i < 2^{-i}\varepsilon$ .

Since  $U_0$  is dense in X,  $B(x,\varepsilon)\cap U_0\neq\emptyset$ . Note that both  $U_0$  and  $B(x,\varepsilon)$  are open, so we can choose  $x_0\in B(x,\varepsilon)\cap U_0$  and  $\varepsilon_0>0$  so small that  $B[x_0,\varepsilon_0]\subset B(x,\varepsilon)\cap U_0$  and  $\varepsilon_0<\varepsilon$ . Now suppose for  $0\leq i\leq n$ , we have chosen  $x_i\in X$  and  $\varepsilon_i>0$  such that  $B[x_i,\varepsilon_i]\subset U_i$  and  $\varepsilon_i<2^{-i}\varepsilon$  for all  $0\leq i\leq n$ ,  $B[x_{i+1},\varepsilon_{i+1}]\subset B[x_i,\varepsilon_i]$  for all  $0\leq i< n$ . Since  $U_{n+1}$  is dense in X,  $B(x_n,\varepsilon_n)\cap U_{n+1}\neq\emptyset$ . Note also both  $U_{n+1}$  and  $B(x_n,\varepsilon_n)$  are open. Therefore, choose  $x_{n+1}\in B(x_n,\varepsilon_n)\cap U_{n+1}$  and  $\varepsilon_{n+1}>0$  so small that  $B[x_{n+1},\varepsilon_{n+1}]\subset B(x_n,\varepsilon_n)\cap U_{n+1}$  and  $\varepsilon_{n+1}<\frac{\varepsilon_n}{2}$ . It follows that  $B[x_{n+1},\varepsilon_{n+1}]\subset U_{n+1}$  and  $B[x_n,\varepsilon_n]\subset B(x_n,\varepsilon_n)$ . Also,  $\varepsilon<\frac{\varepsilon_n}{2}<2^{-n-1}\varepsilon$ . Now we have successfully constructing the desired sequence.

Since X is complete,  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] = \{z\}$  for some  $z \in X$ . Note that for each n, we have  $z \in B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] \subset U_n$ . Also,  $z \in B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] \subset B(x, \varepsilon)$ . Therefore,  $z \in U_n \cap B(x, \varepsilon)$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n$  is dense in X.

Remark. An equivalent statement of the theorem is the following:

Let X be a complete metric space and  $\{C_n\}$  a countable collection of closed subsets of X such that  $X = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} C_n$ . Then at least one of the  $C_n$  contains an open ball.

# 1.2 Open mapping theorem

#### Linear surjections

**Theorem** (Open mapping theorem). Let X, Y be Banach spaces over a common field and assume that  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$ . Prove that the following are equivalent.

- 1. T is surjective.
- 2. There exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_Y(0, \delta) \subset \overline{T(B_X(0, 1))}$ .
- 3. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_Y(0, \delta) \subset T(B_X(0, \varepsilon))$ .
- 4. T is an open map: if  $U \subset X$  is open, then  $T(U) \subset Y$  is open.
- 5. There exists  $C \geq 0$  such that for each  $y \in Y$  there exists  $x \in X$  such that Tx = y and

$$||x||_X \le C ||y||_Y.$$

HINT: Prove that  $(1) \implies (2) \implies (3) \implies (4) \implies (5) \implies (1)$ , keeping in mind the following suggestions.

- 1. For (1)  $\implies$  (2): Study the sets  $C_n = \overline{T(B_X(0,n))} \subset Y$  for  $n \geq 1$ .
- 2. For (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3): Prove that  $\overline{T(B_X(0,1))} \subset T(B_X(0,3))$  by considering  $y \in \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$  and inductively constructing  $\{x_j\}_{j=0}^{\infty} \subset X$  such that  $\|x_j\|_X < 2^{-j}$  and  $y \sum_{j=0}^m Tx_j \in B_Y(0, 2^{-m-1}R)$  for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof. (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2). Following the hint, for  $n \ge 1$  let  $C_n = \overline{T(B_X(0,n))}$ . Then each of the  $C_n$  are closed. Since T is surjective,  $Y = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$ . Suppose for contradiction that each  $C_n$  are nowhere dense. It then follows that  $C_n^c$  are dense in Y. By Baire Category Theorem,  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n^c$  is dense in Y. However,  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n^c = (\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n)^c = \emptyset$ , a contradiction. Therefore, at least one  $C_n$  is not nowhere dense. That is, there exists some  $n \ge 1$ ,  $\overline{T(B_X(0,n))}$  contains an open ball. However, this is the same set as  $n\overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$ . Therefore,  $\overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$  contains an open ball  $B_Y(y_0, 4r)$  for some  $y_0 \in Y$  and r > 0.

Let  $y_1 = Tx_1$  for some  $x_1 \in B_Y(0,1)$  such that  $||y_0 - y_1|| < 2r$ . It follows that  $B_Y(y_1,2r) \subset B_Y(y_0,4r) \subset T(B_X(0,1))$ . For any  $y \in Y$  such that ||y|| < r, we have

$$y = -\frac{1}{2}y_1 + \frac{1}{2}(2y + y_1) = -T\left(\frac{x_1}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2}(2y + y_1).$$

However, notice that

$$\frac{1}{2}(2y+y_1) \subset \frac{1}{2}B_Y(y_1,2r) \subset \frac{1}{2}\overline{T(B_X(0,1))} = \overline{T(B_X(0,\frac{1}{2}))}.$$

It follows that

$$y = -T\left(\frac{x_1}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2}(2y + y_1) \in -T\left(\frac{x_1}{2}\right) + \overline{T(B_X(0, \frac{1}{2}))}.$$

Note that  $-T(\frac{x_1}{2}) \in T(B_X(0,\frac{1}{2}))$ . Therefore,  $y \in \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$ . Since y is arbitrary with ||y|| < r, we have  $B_Y(0,r) \subset \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$ .

(2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3). Following the hint, we first show  $\overline{T(B_X(0,1))} \subset T(B_X(0,3))$ . By assumption, we have  $B_Y(0,R) \subset \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$  for some R > 0. It follows from homogeneity that for each  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$2^{-m}B_Y(0,R) = B_Y(0,2^{-m}R) \subset 2^{-m}\overline{T(B_X(0,1))} = \overline{T(B_X(0,2^{-m}))}.$$

Let  $y \in \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$  and pick  $x_0 \in X$  with  $\|x\| < 1$  such that  $\|y - Tx\| < 2^{-1}R$ . Now suppose we have chosen  $x_j$  for  $0 \le j \le m$  such that  $\|x_j\| < 2^{-j}$  and  $y - \sum_{j=0}^m Tx_j \in B_Y(0, 2^{-m-1}R)$  for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . By the inclusion above, we can pick  $x_{m+1} \in X$  with  $\|x_{m+1}\| < 2^{-m-1}$  such that

$$\left\| y - \sum_{j=0}^{m} Tx_j - Tx_{m+1} \right\| = \left\| y - \sum_{j=0}^{m+1} Tx_j \right\| < 2^{-m-2}R.$$

Therefore,  $y - \sum_{j=0}^{m+1} Tx_j \in B_Y(0, 2^{-m-2})R$ . This completes the inductive construction, and we have found a sequence  $\{x_j\}$  such that  $\|x_j\| < 2^{-j}$  and  $y - \sum_{j=0}^m Tx_j \in B_Y(0, 2^{-m-1}R)$  for each  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Note that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} ||x_j|| \le \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{-j} = 2,$$

so  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x_j$  converges absolutely. Since X is Banach,  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x_j$  converges to some  $x \in X$  with  $||x|| \le 2$ . Also, since  $y - \sum_{j=0}^{m} Tx_j \in B_Y(0, 2^{-m-1}R)$ , taking the limit where m approaches infinity we obtain

$$y = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} Tx_j = T\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x_j\right) = Tx.$$

Therefore,  $y \in T(B_X(0,3))$  and thus  $\overline{T(B_X(0,1))} \subset T(B_X(0,3))$ .

Now for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have  $\frac{\varepsilon}{3}\overline{T(B_X(0,1))} \subset \frac{\varepsilon}{3}T(B_X(0,3)) = T(B_X(0,\varepsilon))$ . By assumption, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_Y(0,\delta) \subset \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$ . Therefore,

$$B_Y\left(0,\frac{\delta\varepsilon}{3}\right) = \frac{\varepsilon}{3}B_Y(0,\delta) \subset \frac{\varepsilon}{3}\overline{T(B_X(0,1))} \subset T(B_X(0,\varepsilon)).$$

(3)  $\Longrightarrow$  (4). Let  $U \subset X$  be open and  $y \in T(U)$ . There exists  $x \in U$  such that Tx = y. Since U is open, there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B_X(x,\varepsilon) \subset U$ . By assumption, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_Y(0,\delta) \subset T(B_X(0,\varepsilon))$ . It follows that

$$B_Y(y,\delta) = y + B_Y(0,\delta) \subset Tx + T(B_X(0,\varepsilon)) = T(x + B_X(0,\varepsilon)) \subset T(U).$$

Therefore, T(U) is open and T is an open map.

(4)  $\Longrightarrow$  (5). Since T is an open map,  $T(B_X(0,1))$  is open. Also, T(0)=0 so there exists r>0 such that  $B_Y(0,r)\subset T(B_X(0,1))$ . Now let  $y\in Y$ . Then,  $\frac{r}{2\|y\|}y\in B_Y(0,r)$  and there exists  $x\in B_X(0,1)$  such that  $Tx=\frac{r}{2\|y\|}y$ . It follows that

$$T\left(\frac{2\|y\|}{r}x\right) = y,$$

and since  $x \in B_X(0,1)$ ,

$$\left\| \frac{2\|y\|}{r} x \right\| = \frac{2\|y\| \|x\|}{r} < \frac{2}{r} \|y\|.$$

Letting  $C = \frac{2}{r}$  completes the proof.

(5)  $\implies$  (1). Since for each  $y \in Y$  there exists  $x \in X$  such that Tx = y, T is surjective.

#### Linear homeomorphisms, norm equivalence, and closed graphs

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be Banach spaces and suppose that  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X,Y)$  is a bijection. Prove that  $T^{-1} \in \mathcal{L}(Y,X)$ , and in particular T is a linear (and thus bi-Lipschitz) homeomorphism.

*Proof.* Since  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X,Y)$  is a bijection, T is a surjection. It follows that T is an open map. In particular, for any  $U \subset X$  open,  $T(U) = (T^{-1})^{-1}(U)$  is open. Therfore,  $T^{-1}$  is continuous and thus T is a linear homeomorphism.

**Theorem.** Let X be a vector space that is complete when equipped with both of the norms  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$ . Prove that if there exists a constant  $C_1 > 0$  such that  $\|x\|_2 \le C_1 \|x\|_1$  for all  $x \in X$ , then there exists a constant  $C_0 > 0$  such that  $C_0 \|x\|_1 \le \|x\|_2 \le C_1 \|x\|_1$  for all  $x \in X$ .

*Proof.* Let  $T: X_1 \to X_2$ , where  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are X equipped with norms  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$ , respectively, be the identity map. Then for any  $x \in X$  with  $\|x\|_1 = 1$ , we have

$$||Tx||_2 = ||x||_2 \le C_1 ||x||_1 = C_1.$$

Therefore,  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X_1, X_2)$ . T is also surjective. Therefore, there exists a constant  $C \geq 0$  such that each  $||x||_1 \leq C ||x||_2$ . Hence, for each  $x \in X$ 

$$\frac{1}{C} \|x\|_1 \le \|x\|_2 \le C_1 \|x\|_1.$$

Letting  $C_0 = \frac{1}{C}$  completes the proof.

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be Banach spaces and let  $T: X \to Y$  be linear (just the algebraic condition). Prove that the following are equivalent

- 1. T is continuous, i.e.  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$ .
- 2. The graph of T,  $\Gamma(T) = \{(x, Tx) : x \in X\} \subset X \times Y$ , is closed in  $X \times Y$ , where  $X \times Y$  is endowed with any of the usual p-norms.

*Proof.* (a)  $\Longrightarrow$  (b). Let  $\{(x_n, Tx_n)\}$  be a convergent sequence in  $\Gamma(T)$ . Since X is Banach,  $x_n \to x$  for some  $x \in X$ . Since  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} Tx_n = T\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n\right) = Tx.$$

Therefore,  $(x_n, Tx_n) \to (x, Tx) \in \Gamma(T)$ , and thus  $\Gamma(T)$  is closed.

(b)  $\Longrightarrow$  (a). Let  $\pi_1: \Gamma(T) \to X$  and  $\pi_2: \Gamma(T) \to Y$  by  $\pi_1(x, Tx) = x$  and  $\pi_2(x, Tx) = Tx$ . Since  $\Gamma(T)$  is a closed in Banach space Y,  $\Gamma(T)$  is Banach space. It is clear that both  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are bounded linear maps. Moreover,  $\pi_1$  is a bijection. It follows that  $S = \pi_1^{-1}$  is a bounded linear map. Therefore,  $T = \pi_2 \circ S$  is a bounded linear map.

#### Linear injections with closed range

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be Banach spaces and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X,Y)$ . Prove the following are equivalent.

- 1. T is injective and range(T) is closed.
- 2.  $T: X \to \operatorname{range}(T)$  is a linear homeomorphism.
- 3. There exists  $C \ge 0$  such that  $||x||_X \le C ||Tx||_Y$  for all  $x \in X$ .

HINT: Prove that  $(1) \implies (2) \implies (3) \implies (1)$ .

*Proof.* (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2). If T is injective and range(T) is closed, then  $\Gamma(T) = \{(x, Tx) : x \in X\}$  is closed in  $X \times Y$ . Therefore,  $T : X \to \text{range}(T)$  is a bounded linear map. Since T is injective, this map is actually bijective from X to range(T). Therefore, T is a linear homeomorphism.

- (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3). Since T is a bijective bounded linear map, from X to range(T). There exists a contant  $C \ge 0$  such that for each  $y \in \text{range}(T)$  there exists a unique  $x \in X$  such that Tx = y and  $||x|| \le C ||y|| = C ||Tx||$ . Since T is a bijection,  $||x|| \le C ||Tx||$  for all  $x \in X$ .
- (3)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1). Let  $x \in X$  be such that Tx = 0. It follows that  $||x|| \le C ||Tx|| = 0$ . Therefore, x = 0 and T is injective. To show that range(T) is closed, consider a convergent sequence  $\{y_n\} \subset \text{range}(T)$  with  $y_n = Tx_n$ . Since for any  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$  we have

$$||x_n - x_m|| \le C ||T(x_n - x_m)|| = C ||y_n - y_m||,$$

 $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy. Since X is Banach,  $x_n \to x$  for some  $x \in X$ . Therefore, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have

$$||y_n - Tx|| = ||T(x_n - x)|| \le ||T|| ||x_n - x||,$$

and  $y_n \to Tx$ . Hence, range(T) is closed and the proof is complete.

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be Banach spaces over a common field. Then, the following subsets of  $\mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  are open:

- 1.  $\{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is surjective}\},\$
- 2.  $\{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is injective with closed range}\},\$
- 3.  $\mathcal{H}(X;Y) = \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is a homeomorphism}\}.$

*Proof.* 1. Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  be surjective. By open mapping theorem, there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_Y(0,\delta) \subset TB_X(0,1)$ . By homogeneity we have  $B_Y(0,r) \subset TB_X(0,\alpha r)$  for all r > 0 where  $\alpha = \delta^{-1}$ . Now let  $S \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  be such that  $||T - S|| < \beta < (2\alpha)^{-1}$ . Claim S is surjective.

Let  $y \in Y$ , inductively construct sequences  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$ . First let  $y_0 = y$ . Then,  $||y_0|| \in B(0, 2 ||y_0||)$ . Select  $x_0 \in X$  be such that  $Tx_0 = y_0$  and  $||x_0|| \le 2\alpha ||y_0||$ . Suppose we have selected  $y_i$ ,  $x_i$  for  $0 \le i \le n$ . Set  $y_{n+1} = y_n - Sx_n$  and select  $x_{n+1}$  be such that  $Tx_{n+1} = y_{n+1}$  and  $||x_{n+1}|| \le 2\alpha ||y_{n+1}||$ . Then, we have

$$||y_{n+1}|| = ||Tx_n - Sx_n|| \le ||T - S|| \, ||x_n|| < 2\alpha\beta \, ||y_n||$$

and

$$||x_{n+1}|| = 2\alpha ||y_{n+1}|| \le 2\alpha ||T - S|| ||x_n|| < 2\alpha\beta ||x_n||.$$

Note that  $2\alpha\beta < 1$  and X is Banach, define

$$x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x_n = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{N} x_n.$$

Also note that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n = 0$ . It follows that

$$Sx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Sx_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (y_n - y_{n+1}) = y_0 - \lim_{n \to \infty} y_{n+1} = y.$$

Therefore S is surjective and the set of surjective bounded linear maps are open.

2. Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  is injective with closed range. Then, closed range theorem gives C > 0 such that  $||x|| \leq C ||Tx||$  for all  $x \in X$ . Now supose  $S \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  is such that  $||T - S|| < (2C)^{-1}$ . Claim that S is also injective with closed range. Indeed,

$$||x|| \le C ||Tx|| \le C ||Sx|| + C ||(T - S)x||$$
  
  $\le C ||Sx|| + \frac{1}{2} ||x||.$ 

This shows that  $||x|| \le 2C ||Sx||$  for all  $x \in X$ . By closed range theorem, S is injective with closed range. This implies that the set of injective bounded linear operator with closed range is open.

3. This directly follows from

$$\mathcal{H}(X;Y) = \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is surjective}\} \cap \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is injective with closed range}\}.$$

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be Banach spaces over a common field. Then the following holds.

1. The sets

$$\mathcal{L}_R(X;Y) = \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : \text{there exists } S \in \mathcal{L}(Y;X) \text{ such that } ST = I_X\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}_L(X;Y) = \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : \text{there exists } S \in \mathcal{L}(Y;X) \text{ such that } TS = I_Y\}$$

are open.

2. The following inclusion holds:

$$\mathcal{L}_L(X;Y) \subset \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is surjective}\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}_R(X;Y) \subset \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is injective with closed range}\}.$$

3. The sets  $\mathcal{L}_L(X;Y) \setminus \mathcal{L}_R(X;Y)$  and  $\mathcal{L}_R(X;Y) \setminus \mathcal{L}_L(X;Y)$  are open.

Proof. 1. Let  $T_0 \in \mathcal{L}_R$  and  $S_0 \in \mathcal{L}(Y;X)$  be such that  $T_0S_0 = I_Y$ . Note that  $I_X \in \mathcal{H}(X)$  and when  $\|P\| < 1$  for  $P \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ , we have  $I_X + P \in \mathcal{H}(X)$ . Suppose now  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  and  $\|T\| < \|S_0\|^{-1}$ . It follows that  $I_X + S_0T \in \mathcal{H}(X)$ . For such T, we then have

$$T_0 + T = T_0(I_X + S_0T).$$

Also,

$$(T_0 + T)(I_X + S_0T)^{-1}S_0 = T_0(I_X + S_0T)(I_X + S_0T)^{-1}S_0 = T_0S_0 = I_Y.$$

Therefore,  $T_0 + T \in \mathcal{L}_R$  for  $T \in B(T_0, ||S_0||^{-1})$  and  $\mathcal{L}_R$  is open.

Now let  $T_0 \in \mathcal{L}_L$  and  $S_0 \in \mathcal{L}(Y;X)$  be such that  $S_0T_0 = I_X$ . Again, for  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  with  $||T|| < ||S_0||^{-1}$ , we have

$$T_0 + T = (I_X + TS_0)T_0.$$

and

$$S_0(I_X + TS_0)^{-1}(T_0 + T) = I_X.$$

Therefore,  $\mathcal{L}_R$  is also open.

2. Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}_R$  and  $S \in \mathcal{L}(Y;X)$  be such that  $TS = I_Y$ . Then for any  $y \in Y$  let x = Sy. It follows that Tx = TSy = y. Also,  $||x|| \le ||S|| \, ||y||$  so the 4th item in open mapping theorem guarantees that T is surjective. Hence,  $\mathcal{L}_L \subset \{T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y) : T \text{ is surjective}\}$ .

Now let  $T \in \mathcal{L}_L$  and  $S \in \mathcal{L}(Y; X)$  such that  $ST = I_X$ . Now for any  $x \in X$ , we have  $||x|| = ||STx|| \le ||S|| ||Tx||$ . Then the closed range theorem guarantees that T is injective with closed range. Hence,  $\mathcal{L}_R \subset \{T \in \mathcal{L}_R(X; Y) : T \text{ is injective with closed range}\}.$ 

3. \*\*\* TO-DO \*\*\*

#### 1.3 Hahn-Banach theorem and duality

**Theorem** (Hahn-Banach theorem in  $\mathbb{R}$ ). Let X be a real vector space and suppose  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is such that

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

for all  $t \in [0,1]$  and  $x, y \in X$ .

Suppose Y subspace of X and  $l: Y \to \mathbb{R}$  is a linear map such that  $l \leq p$  on Y. Then there exists linear map  $L: X \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $L \leq p$  on X and L = l on Y.

*Proof.* Let

$$P = \{(Z, \lambda) : Y \subset Z \subset X, \lambda \text{ linear functional on } Z, \lambda \leq p \text{ on } Z \text{ and } l = \lambda \text{ on } Y\}$$

Define partial order  $(Z_1, \lambda_1) \leq (Z_2, \lambda_2)$  if and only if  $Z_1 \subset Z_2$  and  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$  on  $Z_1$ . It is easy to verify that this is a partial order. Towards using Zorn's Lemma, let  $C \subset P$  be a chain and define

$$U = \bigcup_{(Z,\lambda) \in C} Z, \qquad \Lambda = \bigcup_{(Z,\lambda) \in C} \lambda.$$

It is easy to verify that  $(U, \Lambda)$  is an upper bound for the chain. By Zorn's Lemma, P has a maximal element (M, L). It remains to show that M = X.

Suppose for contradiction that  $M \neq X$ . Pick  $x_0 \in X \setminus M$ . For any  $x, y \in M$ , we have

$$\begin{split} \beta L(x) + \alpha L(y) &= L(\beta x + \alpha y) \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha + \beta} L\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta} x + \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} y\right) \\ &\leq (\alpha + \beta) p\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta} x + \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} y\right) \\ &= (\alpha + \beta) p\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta} (x - \alpha x_0) + \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} (y + \beta x_0)\right) \\ &\leq \beta p(x - \alpha x_0) + \alpha p(y + \beta x_0). \end{split}$$

This implies that

$$\sup_{\substack{x \in M \\ \alpha > 0}} \frac{1}{\alpha} \left[ L(x) - p(x - \alpha x_0) \right] \le \inf_{\substack{y \in M \\ \beta > 0}} \frac{1}{\beta} \left[ p(y + \beta x_0) - L(y) \right].$$

Note that  $-p(-x_0) \le \text{LHS}$  and  $\text{RHS} \le p(x_0)$ , so  $\text{LHS}, \text{RHS} < \infty$ . Now pick  $v \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\text{LHS} \le v \le \text{RHS}$ . For  $x \in M$  and  $0 < t \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$L(x) - tv < p(x - tv_0),$$
  $L(x) + tv < p(x + tv_0).$ 

Now define  $\widehat{L}: M \oplus \mathbb{R}x_0 \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $\widehat{L}(x + \alpha x_0) = L(x) + \alpha v$ . It follows that  $(M \oplus \mathbb{R}x_0, \widehat{L}) \in P$ . However,  $(M, L) \prec (M \oplus \mathbb{R}, \widehat{L})$ , a contradiction. Therefore, M = X and the proof is complete.

**Theorem** (Hahn-Banach theorem in  $\mathbb{C}$ ). Let X be complex vector space and suppose  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is such that

$$p(\alpha x + \beta y) \le |\alpha| p(x) + |\beta| p(y)$$

for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $|\alpha| + |\beta| = 1$  and  $x, y \in X$ .

Suppose Y subspace of X and  $l: Y \to \mathbb{C}$  is a linear map such that  $|l| \leq p$  on Y. Then there exists linear map  $L: X \to \mathbb{C}$  such that  $|L| \leq p$  on X and L = l on Y.

*Proof.* Define  $\lambda: Y \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $\lambda(x) = \text{Re}(l(x))$ . Note that

$$\lambda(ix) = \operatorname{Re}(il(x)) = -\operatorname{Im}(l(x)).$$

This implies that  $l(x) = \lambda(x) - i\lambda(ix)$ . Now treat X and Y as vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  and apply Hahn-Banach theorem in  $\mathbb{R}$  to extend  $\lambda$  to  $\Lambda: X \to \mathbb{R}$  that agrees with  $\lambda$  on Y.

Define  $L: X \to \mathbb{C}$  by  $L(x) = \Lambda(x) - i\Lambda(ix)$ . It remains to show that  $|L| \leq p$ . For  $x \in X$ , write  $L(x) = |L(x)| e^{i\theta}$  for some  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ . It follows that

$$\begin{split} |L(x)| &= L(x)e^{-i\theta} \\ &= \Lambda(e^{-i\theta}) - i\Lambda(ie^{-i\theta}x) \\ &= \Lambda(e^{-i\theta}x) \\ &\leq p(e^{-i\theta x}) \\ &\leq \left|e^{-i\theta}\right|p(x) \\ &= p(x), \end{split}$$

as desired.

**Theorem** (Hahn-Banach theorem for bounded linear functionals). Let X be a normed vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  and Y a subspace of X. If  $\lambda \in Y^*$  then there exists  $\Lambda \in X^*$  such that  $\Lambda = \lambda$  on Y and the operator  $\text{norm } \|\lambda\|_{Y^*} = \|\Lambda\|_{X^*}.$ 

*Proof.* Consider  $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$  where  $p(x) = \|\lambda\|_{V^*} \|x\|$ . Apply Hahn-Banach theorem.

Next we show some useful implications of Hahn-Banach theorem.

**Theorem.** Let X be a normed vector space and fix  $x \in X$ . Then the following holds:

1. There exists  $\lambda \in X^*$  such that  $\|\lambda\| = \|x\|$  and

$$\lambda(x) = \|\lambda\| \|x\| = \|x\|^2$$
.

2. We have

$$||x|| = \max_{\substack{w \in X^* \\ ||w|| = 1}} |w(x)|.$$

3. x = 0 if and only if w(x) = 0 for all  $w \in X^*$ .

1. Let  $Y = \mathbb{F}x$  and define  $\lambda \in Y^*$  by  $\lambda(ax) = a \|x\|^2$ . Apply Hahn-Banach theorem.

- 2. Suppose  $x \neq 0$ . Define  $w = \frac{\lambda}{\|x\|}$  then it follows that  $|w(x)| = \|x\|$ .
- 3. Follows directly from (2).

**Proposition.** Let X be normed vector space. Then the mapping  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : X^* \times X \to \mathbb{F}$  by  $(w, x) \mapsto w(x)$ is a bilinear map. That is,  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \in \mathcal{L}(X^*, X; \mathbb{F})$ . Moreover, if  $X \neq \{0\}$ , then  $\|\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle\| = 1$ .

*Proof.* It is easy to see that  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is bilinear. For boundedness,

$$|\langle w, x \rangle| = |w(x)| \le ||w|| \, ||x||.$$

Hence,  $\|\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle\| \leq 1$ . Meanwhile, pick some  $x \in X$  with  $\|x\| = 1$ . It follows that

$$1 = ||x|| = \max_{\substack{w \in X^* \\ ||w|| = 1}} |w(x)| \le ||\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle||.$$

Therefore,  $\|\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle\| = 1$ . 

**Definition** (Norming set). Let X be normed vector space and  $E \subset X$ ,  $W \subset X^*$ . Say W is a **norming** set for E if

$$||x|| = \sup_{\substack{w \in W \\ ||w|| = 1}} |\langle w, x \rangle|$$

for all  $x \in E$ .

**Proposition.** Let X be normed vector space and  $S \subset X$  be a separable set. Let W be a norming set for S. Then, there exists  $\{w_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset W$  such that  $||w_n|| = 1$ , and the sequence is norming for S. That is,

$$||x|| = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\langle w_n, x \rangle|.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\{v_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S$  be dense. For any  $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ , choose  $w_{n,k} \in W$  with  $||w_{n,k}|| = 1$  such that

$$(1-2^{-k}) \|v_n\| \le |w_{n,k}, v_n|.$$

Let  $x \in S$  and  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$  be arbitrary. Pick  $v_n \in S$  such that  $||v_n - x|| < \varepsilon$  and pick  $j \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $2^{-j} < \varepsilon$ . Then,

$$(1 - \varepsilon) ||x|| \le (1 - 2^{-j}) ||x||$$

$$\le (1 - 2^{-j}) ||v_n|| + (1 - 2^{-j}) ||v_n - x||$$

$$\le |\langle w_{n,j}, v_j \rangle| + \varepsilon$$

$$\le |\langle w_{n,j}, x \rangle| + |\langle w_{n,j}, x - v_n \rangle| + \varepsilon$$

$$\le |\langle w_{n,j}, x \rangle| + 2\varepsilon.$$

This shows that  $\{w_{n,k}\}_{n,k=0}^{\infty}$  is a norming sequence.

**Theorem.** Let X be normed vector space and define  $J: X \to X^{**}$  by  $\langle Jx, w \rangle = \langle w, x \rangle = w(x)$ . Then the following holds:

- 1.  $J \in \mathcal{L}(X, X^{**})$ .
- 2. J is an isometric embedding. In particular, it is injective.
- 3. range(J)  $\subset X^{**}$  is a norming set for  $X^*$ .
- 4. X is Banach if and only if range(J) is closed.

*Proof.* Note that we have

$$\begin{split} \|Jx\|_{X^{**}} &= \sup \left\{ |\langle Jx, w \rangle| : w \in X^* \text{ and } \|w\| \leq 1 \right\} \\ &= \sup \left\{ |\langle w, x \rangle| : w \in X^* \text{ and } \|w\| \leq 1 \right\} \\ &= \|x\| \,, \end{split}$$

where the last step is by a previous theorem that shows the existence of  $w \in X^*$  such that ||w|| = 1 and |w(x)| = ||x||. This implies (1) and (2). Now we know X is isometrically isomorphic to range(J)  $\subset X^{**}$ . Therefore, X is Banach if and only if range(J) is Banach. However,  $X^{**} = \mathcal{L}(X^*, \mathbb{F})$  is Banach, so range(J) is Banach if and only if range(J) is closed. This implies (4).

To show (3), note that we have

$$\begin{split} \|w\|_{X^*} &= \sup \left\{ |\langle w, x \rangle| : x \in X \text{ and } \|x\| \leq 1 \right\} \\ &= \sup \left\{ |\langle Jx, w \rangle| : x \in X \text{ and } \|x\| \leq 1 \right\} \\ &= \sup \left\{ |\langle v, w \rangle| : v \in \operatorname{range}(J) \text{ and } \|v\|_{X^{**}} \leq 1 \right\}. \end{split}$$

This shows (3), completing the proof.

# 2 Differential Calculus

# 2.1 Inverse and implicit function theorem

**Theorem** (Local injectivity theorem). Let X and Y be Banach spaces,  $z \in U \subset X$  with U open. Let  $f: U \to Y$  differentiable with Df continuous at z. Suppose  $Df(z) \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  injective with closed range. Then for any  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ , there exists r > 0 such that

- 1.  $B[z,r] \subset U$ .
- 2. Df(x) injective with closed range for all  $x \in B[z, r]$ .
- 3. If  $x, y \in B(z, r)$ , then

$$(1-\varepsilon) \|Df(z)(x-y)\| \le \|f(x)-f(y)\| \le (1+\varepsilon) \|Df(z)(x-y)\|.$$

4. The restriction  $f: B(z,r) \to f(B(z,r))$  is bi-Lipschitz homeomorphism.

*Proof.* Since Df(z) injective with closed range, there exists  $\theta > 0$  such that

$$\theta \|h\| \le \|Df(z)h\|$$

for all  $h \in X$ . Since the set of bounded linear operator that is injective with closed range is open, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $||Df(z) - T|| < \delta$  implies T is injective with closed range.

Now let  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ . Note that Df is continuous at z, so we can select r > 0 so small that  $B[z, r] \subset U$ , and  $x \in B[z, r]$  implies

$$||Df(x) - Df(z)|| < \min \{\delta, \theta \varepsilon\}.$$

In particular, Df(x) is injective with closed range for all  $x \in B[z, r]$ . By the mean value theorem, for any  $x, y \in B(x, r)$ 

$$||f(x) - f(y) - Df(z)(x - y)|| \le \sup_{w \in B(z,r)} ||Df(w) - Df(z)|| ||x - y||$$

$$\le \theta \varepsilon ||x - y||$$

$$< \varepsilon ||Df(z)(x - y)||.$$

It follows that

$$(1-\varepsilon) \|Df(z)(x-y)\| \le \|f(x) - f(y)\| \le (1+\varepsilon) \|Df(z)(x-y)\|,$$

as desired.

This also implies that

$$(1 - \varepsilon)\theta \|x - y\| \le \|f(x) - f(y)\| \le (1 + \varepsilon) \|Df(z)\| \|x - y\|,$$

so the restriction of f on B(z,r) is a bi-Lipschitz homeomorphism.

**Theorem** (Local surjectivity theorem). Let X and Y be Banach spaces,  $z \in U \subset X$  with U open. Let  $f: U \to Y$  differentiable with Df continuous at z. Suppose  $Df(z) \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  surjective. Then there exists  $r_0, \gamma > 0$  such that

- 1.  $B_X[z,r_0] \subset U$ .
- 2. Df(x) surjective for all  $x \in B_X[z, r_0]$ .
- 3.  $B_Y[f(z), \gamma r] \subset f(B_X[z, r])$  for all  $0 \le r \le r_0$ .

Proof. \*\*\* TO-DO \*\*\*

**Definition** (diffeomorphism). Let X and Y be normed vector spaces and suppose that  $\emptyset \neq U \subset X$  is open. Let  $f: U \to Y$ . For  $k \geq 1$ , say f is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism if

- 1.  $f: U \to f(U)$  homeomorphism with  $f(U) \subset Y$  open.
- 2.  $f \in C^k(U;Y)$ .
- 3.  $f^{-1} \in C^k(f(U); X)$ .

If f is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism for all  $k \ge 1$ , say f is a smooth diffeomorphism.

**Theorem** (Inverse function theorem). Let X and Y be Banach spaces,  $U \subset X$  open and  $x_0 \in U$ . Suppose  $f: U \to Y$  differentiable, Df continuous at  $x_0$ ,  $Df(x_0)$  linear homeomorphism. Then there exists bounded and open  $V \subset U$  with  $x_0 \in V$  such that

1.  $f: V \to f(V)$  is bi-Lipschitz homeomorphism, Df(x) linear homeomorphism for all  $x \in V$ ,  $f(V) \subset Y$  bounded and open,  $f^{-1}: f(V) \to V$  differentiable with

$$Df^{-1}(y) = [Df(f^{-1}(y))]^{-1}$$

for all  $y \in f(V)$  and  $Df^{-1}$  is continuous at  $f(x_0)$ . Also, there exists  $C_0$ ,  $C_1 > 0$  such that

$$C_0 \le ||Df(x)|| \le C_1$$

for all  $x \in V$ , and

$$\frac{1}{C_1} \le ||Df^{-1}(y)|| \le \frac{1}{C_0}$$

for all  $y \in f(V)$ .

- 2. If  $f \in C^k(U;Y)$  for some  $1 \le k \le \infty$ , then  $f^{-1} \in C^k(f(V);X)$ . In particular, f is a local  $C^k$  diffeomorphism at  $x_0$ .
- 3. If  $f \in C^k(U;Y)$  for  $1 \leq k \in \mathbb{N}$ , then there exists open  $V_k \subset V$  such that  $x_0 \in V_k$ ,  $f \in C_b^k(V_k;Y)$  and  $f^{-1} \in C_b^k(f(V_k);X)$ .

**Theorem** (Implicit function theorem). Let X and Y be Banach spaces,  $U \subset X \times Y$  be open with  $(x_0, y_0) \in U$ , and suppose  $f: U \to Z$  is differentiable in U with Df continuous at  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Further suppose  $z_0 = f(x_0, y_0)$  and  $D_2 f(x_0, y_0) \in \mathcal{L}(Y; Z)$  is an isomorphism. Then there exists open sets  $x_0 \in V \subset X$ ,  $z_0 \in W \subset Z$ ,  $y_0 \in S \subset Y$ , and  $g \in C_b^{0,1}(V \times W; Y)$  such that the following holds:

- 1.  $g(x_0, z_0) = y_0$  and  $(x, g(x, z)) \in V \times S \subset U$  for all  $(x, z) \in V \times W$ . Also, g is differentiable on  $V \times W$  and Dg continuous at  $(x_0, z_0)$ .
- 2. f(x, g(x, z)) = z for all  $(x, z) \in V \times W$ . Moreover, if  $(x, y) \in V \times S$  such that f(x, y) = z for some  $z \in W$ , then y = g(x, z).
- 3.  $D_2 f(x, g(x, z))$  is an isomorphism for all  $(x, z) \in V \times W$ , and

$$D_1 g(x,z) = -\left[D_2 f(x, g(x,z))\right]^{-1} D_1 f(x, g(x,z)),$$
  
$$D_2 g(x,z) = \left[D_2 f(x, g(x,z))\right]^{-1}.$$

4. If  $f \in C^k$  then  $g \in C^k$  too for  $1 \le k \le \infty$ . If k finite and  $f \in C_b^k$  then the sets can be picked such that  $g \in C_b^k$ .

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be Banach spaces and  $\emptyset \neq U \subset X$  open. Suppose  $f \in C^k(U;Y)$  for some  $k \geq 1$  and f is a homeomorphism from U to f(U). Then the following are equivalent:

1. f is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism.

2.  $Df(x) \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  is an isomorphism for all  $x \in U$ .

**Theorem** (left inverse function theorem). Let X and Y be Banach spaces. Suppose that  $\emptyset \neq U \subset X$  is open and  $f \in C^k(U;Y)$  for some  $1 \leq k \leq \infty$ . Let  $x_0 \in U$  and  $y_0 = f(x_0) \in Y$ , and suppose that  $\{0\} \neq \text{range } Df(x_0) \subset Y$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. The map  $Df(x_0) \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  is injective with range  $Df(x_0)$  closed and complemented in Y. That is,  $Df(x_0) \in \mathcal{L}_L(X;Y)$ .
- 2. There exist nontrivial closed subspace  $Y_0, Y_1 \subset Y$  with  $Y = Y_0 \oplus Y_1$  and open sets  $x_0 \in \widetilde{U} \subset U$  and  $0 \in S \subset Y_1$  such that the map  $G: \widetilde{U} \times S \to Y$  given by G(x,y) = f(x) + y is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism onto its image. Moreover, we have that  $DG(x_0,0)(X \times \{0\}) = Y_0$  and the restriction  $DG(x_0,0)|_{X \times \{0\}} : X \times \{0\} \to Y_0$  is an isomorphism.
- 3. There exist nontrivial closed subspace  $Y_0, Y_1 \subset Y$  with  $Y = Y_0 \oplus Y_1$ , open sets  $x_0 \in \widetilde{U} \subset U$ ,  $0 \in S \subset Y_1$ , and  $W \subset Y$ . and a map  $F \in C^k(W; X \times Y_1)$  such that F is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism from W to  $F(W) = \widetilde{U} \times S$ ,  $f(\widetilde{U}) \subset W$ , and

$$F(f(x)) = (x, 0)$$

for all  $x \in \widetilde{U}$ . Moreover,  $DF(y_0)(Y_0) = X \times \{0\}$  and the restriction  $DF(y_0)|_{Y_0} : Y_0 \to X \times \{0\}$  is an isomorphism.

- 4. There exist open sets  $x_0 \in \widetilde{U} \subset U$  and  $W \subset Y$  with  $f(\widetilde{U}) \subset W$ , and a map  $g \in C^k(W;X)$  such that g(f(x)) = x for all  $x \in \widetilde{U}$ .
- 5. There exists an open set  $x_0 \in \widetilde{U} \subset U$  such that  $Df(x) \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  is injective with range Df(x) closed and complemented in Y for each  $x \in \widetilde{U}$ .

Moreover, in any and hence every case, the  $Y_i$  spaces from the second and third item can be taken with  $Y_0 = \text{range } Df(x_0)$ , and the maps g, F, G can be taken to be related via  $F^{-1} = G$  and  $g = \pi_X \circ F$ .

Depiction of the Left Inverse Function Theorem

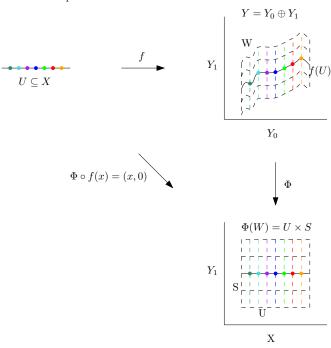


Figure 1: Depiction of the left inverse function theorem

*Proof.* \*\*\* TO-DO \*\*\*

**Theorem** (flattening map). Let X and Y be Banach spaces, and suppose that  $Y_0, Y_1 \subset Y$  are nontrivial closed subspaces such that  $Y = Y_0 \oplus Y_1$ . Suppose further that X and  $Y_0$  are isomorphic. Let  $M \subset Y$  and  $y_0 \in M$ , and let  $1 \le k \le \infty$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. There exist open sets  $V \subset X$  and  $U \subset Y$  with  $y_0 \in U$  and  $f \in C^k(U;Y)$  such that  $f: V \to f(V) = U \cap M$  is a homeomorphism and at  $x_0 = f^{-1}(y_0) \in V$  we have that  $Df(x_0)$  is injective with range  $Df(x_0) = Y_0$ .
- 2. There exists an open set  $W \subset Y$  with  $y_0 \in W$  and  $F \in C^k(W; X \times Y_1)$  such that F is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism from W to F(W),  $DF(y_0)(Y_0) = X_0 \times \{0\}$ , and

$$F(W \cap M) = F(W) \cap [X \times \{0\}].$$

3. There exists an open set  $W \subset Y$  with  $y_0 \in W$  and  $\Phi \in C^k(W;Y)$  such that  $\Phi$  is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism from W to  $\Phi(W)$ ,  $D\Phi(y_0)(Y_0) = Y_0$ , and

$$\Phi(W \cap M) = \Phi(W) \cap Y_0.$$

Moreover, if either the second or the third items hold, then the set V from the first item can be chosen such that Df(x) is injective with range Df(x) closed and complemented in Y for each  $x \in V$ .

**Theorem** (right inverse function theorem). Let X and Y be Banach spaces. Suppose that  $\emptyset \neq U \subset X$  is open and  $f \in C^k(U;Y)$  for some  $1 \leq k \leq \infty$ . Let  $x_0 \in U$ ,  $y_0 = f(x_0) \in Y$ , and suppose that  $\{0\} \neq \ker Df(x_0) \subset X$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. The map  $Df(x_0) \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  is surjective with ker  $Df(x_0)$  complemented in X. That is,  $Df(x_0) \in \mathcal{L}_R(X;Y)$ .
- 2. There exist nontrivial closed subspace  $X_0, X_1 \subset X$  with  $X = X_0 \oplus X_1$  and  $P \in \mathcal{L}(X)$  the projection onto  $X_0$  and open sets  $x_0 \in \widetilde{U} \subset U$ ,  $y_0 \in W \subset Y$ , and  $Px_0 \in V \subset X_0$  such that the map  $G: \widetilde{U} \to Y \times X_0$  given by G(x) = (f(x), Px) is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism onto  $W \times V \subset Y \times X_0$ . Moreover, for  $x \in \widetilde{U}$ , we have that  $DG(x)(X_1) = Y \times \{0\}$ , and the restriction  $DG(x)|_{X_1}: X_1 \to Y \times \{0\}$  is an isomorphism.
- 3. There exist nontrivial closed subspace  $X_0, X_1 \subset X$  with  $X = X_0 \oplus X_1$  and  $P \in \mathcal{L}(X)$  the projection onto  $X_0$ , open sets  $x_0 \in \widetilde{U} \subset U$ ,  $y_0 \in W \subset Y$ , and  $Px_0 \in V \subset X_0$ , and a map  $F \in C^k(W \times V; X)$  such that F is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism from  $W \times V$  to  $F(W \times V) = \widetilde{U}$ ,  $F(y_0, Px_0) = x_0$ , and

$$f(F(y,v)) = y$$

for all  $(y, v) \in W \times V$ . Moreover, for all  $(w, v) \in W \times V$  we have that  $DF(w, v)(Y \times \{0\}) = X_1$  and the restriction  $DF(w, v)|_{Y \times \{0\}} : Y \times \{0\} \to X_1$  is an isomorphism.

- 4. There exists an open set  $y_0 \in W \subset Y$  and a map  $g \in C^k(W;X)$  such that  $g(y_0) = x_0$ ,  $g(W) \subset U$ , and f(g(y)) = y for all  $y \in W$ .
- 5. There exists an open set  $x_0 \in \widetilde{U} \subset U$  such that  $Df(x) \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$  is surjective with  $\ker Df(x)$  complemented in X for each  $x \in \widetilde{U}$ .

Moreover, in any and hence every case, the  $X_i$  spaces from the second and third items can be taken with  $X_0 = \ker Df(x_0)$ , and the maps g, F, G can be aken to be related via  $F^{-1} = G$  and  $g(y) = F(y, Px_0)$ .

Depiction of the Right Inverse Function Theorem  $X = X_0 \oplus X_1$   $X_1$   $Y_1$   $Y_2$   $Y_3$   $Y_4$   $Y_4$   $Y_5$   $Y_6$   $Y_7$   $Y_8$   $Y_8$ 

Figure 2: Depiction of the left inverse function theorem

# 3 Measure and integration

## 3.1 Introduction to abstrct measure theory

#### 3.1.1 Basic definitions

**Definition.** Let X be a set.

- 1. An **algebra** on X is  $\mathfrak{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that
  - (a)  $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{A}$ .
  - (b)  $E \in \mathfrak{A}$  implies  $E^c \in \mathfrak{A}$ .
  - (c)  $E, F \in \mathfrak{A}$  implies  $E \cup F \in \mathfrak{A}$ .
- 2. A  $\sigma$ -algebra is an algebra  $\mathfrak{M} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that if  $E_k \in \mathfrak{M}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k \in \mathfrak{M}$ .
- 3. A pair  $(X,\mathfrak{M})$  with  $\mathfrak{M}$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X is called a **measurable space**.

**Theorem.** Let X be a set.

- 1. Suppose  $A \neq \emptyset$  is a set and  $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  is  $\sigma$ -algebra for each  $\alpha \in A$ , then  $\mathfrak{M} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X.
- 2. Suppose  $F \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ , there is unique smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}$  on X such that  $F \subset \mathfrak{M}$ . Write  $\mathfrak{M} = \sigma(F)$  and call this the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by F.

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be sets and  $f: X \to Y$ .

1. Suppose  $\mathfrak{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X and set

$$\mathfrak{N} = \{ E \subset Y : f^{-1}(E) \in \mathfrak{M} \} .$$

Then,  $\mathfrak{N}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on Y. Call this the **push-forward** of  $\mathfrak{M}$  by f.

2. Suppose  $\mathfrak N$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on Y and set

$$\mathfrak{M} = \left\{ f^{-1}(E) : E \in \mathfrak{N} \right\}.$$

Then,  $\mathfrak{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X. Call this the **pull-back** of  $\mathfrak{N}$  by f.

**Definition.** Let  $A \neq \emptyset$  be a set.

1. Let Y be a set and  $X_{\alpha}$  be sets with  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Suppose  $g_{\alpha}: X_{\alpha} \to Y$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Define

$$\sigma\left(\left\{E\subset Y:g_{\alpha}^{-1}(E)\in\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}\text{ for all }\alpha\in A\right\}\right)$$

to be the **push-forward** of  $\{g_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ .

2. Let X be a set and  $Y_{\alpha}$  be sets with  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{N}_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Suppose  $f_{\alpha}: X \to Y_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Define

$$\sigma\left(\left\{f_{\alpha}^{-1}(E): E \in \mathfrak{N}_{\alpha} \text{ for some } \alpha \in A\right\}\right)$$

to be the **pull-back** of  $\{f_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ .

**Definition.** Let  $A \neq \emptyset$  be a set and  $X_{\alpha}$  be sets with  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Then on the set  $X = \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$  we define the **product**  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  to be the pull-back of projection maps  $\pi_{\alpha} : X \to X_{\alpha}$ .

**Theorem.** Let  $A \neq \emptyset$  be a set and  $X_{\alpha}$  with  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Let  $X = \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$  and define

$$\mathcal{R} = \left\{ \prod_{\alpha} M_{\alpha} : M_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \right\}.$$

Then,

- 1.  $\bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{R})$ . If A countable then  $\sigma(\mathcal{R}) = \bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ .
- 2. Suppose  $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} = \sigma(\mathcal{E}_{\alpha})$  for all  $\alpha \in A$  and let

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ \pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(E) : E \in \mathcal{E}_{\alpha} \text{ for some } \mathcal{E}_{\alpha} \right\}.$$

Then  $\bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} = \sigma(\mathcal{E})$ . Moreover, if A is countable and  $X_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{E}_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ , then  $\bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  is generated by  $\mathcal{F} = \{\prod_{\alpha} E_{\alpha} : E_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{E}_{\alpha}\}$ 

*Proof.* 1. For  $E \in \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ , we have  $\pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(E) = \prod_{\beta} S_{\beta}$ , where

$$S_{\beta} = \begin{cases} E & (\beta = \alpha), \\ X_{\beta} & (\beta \neq \alpha). \end{cases}$$

Then,

$$\left\{\pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(M_{\alpha}): M_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}\right\} \subset \left\{\prod_{\beta} M_{\beta}: M_{\beta} \in \mathfrak{M}_{\beta}\right\} = \mathcal{R}.$$

This implies that  $\bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{R})$ .

On the other hand, if A is countable, then

$$\prod_{\alpha} M_{\alpha} = \bigcap_{\alpha} \pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(M_{\alpha}) \in \bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$$

whenever  $M_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . This implies that  $\sigma(\mathcal{R}) \subset \bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ .

2. It is clear that  $\sigma(\mathcal{E}) \subset \bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ . On the other hand, for each  $\alpha \in A$ , let

$$\mathfrak{N}_{\alpha} = \{ E \subset X_{\alpha} : \pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(E) \in \sigma(\mathcal{E}) \}$$

be the push-forward of  $\sigma(\mathcal{E})$  to  $X_{\alpha}$  by  $\pi_{\alpha}$ . It is clear that  $\mathcal{E}_{\alpha} \subset \mathfrak{N}_{\alpha}$ . This implies  $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} = \sigma(\mathcal{E}) \subset \mathfrak{N}_{\alpha}$ . In particular,  $\pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(E) \in \sigma(\mathcal{E})$  for all  $E \in \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ . This implies that  $\bigotimes_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{E})$ .

Now, assume A countable and  $X_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{E}_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Then let  $E \in \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$  for some  $\alpha \in A$ . We have  $\pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(E) = \prod_{\beta} S_{\beta}$ , where

$$S_{\beta} = \begin{cases} E & (\beta = \alpha), \\ X_{\beta} & (\beta \neq \alpha). \end{cases}$$

Therefore,  $\sigma(\mathcal{E}) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F})$ .

On the other hand, since A is countable, we have

$$\prod_{\alpha} E_{\alpha} = \bigcap_{\alpha} \pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(E_{\alpha}) \in \sigma(\mathcal{E}).$$

This implies that  $\sigma(\mathcal{F}) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{E})$  and the proof is complete.

Corollary. If  $\mathfrak{M}_i$  is  $\sigma$ -algebra for i = 1, 2, 3, then

$$\mathfrak{M}_1 \otimes (\mathfrak{M}_2 \otimes \mathfrak{M}_3) = (\mathfrak{M}_1 \otimes \mathfrak{M}_2) \otimes \mathfrak{M}_3 = \mathfrak{M}_1 \otimes \mathfrak{M}_2 \otimes \mathfrak{M}_3,$$

since they are all generated by

$$\{M_1 \times (M_2 \times M_3)\} = \{(M_1 \times M_2) \times M_3\} = \{M_1 \times M_2 \times M_3\}.$$

**Theorem.** Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be metric spaces and  $X = \prod_{i=1}^n X_i$  be equipped with the ususal metric. Then,  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i} \subset \mathfrak{B}_X$ . However, if each  $X_i$  is separable, then  $\mathfrak{B}_X = \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i}$ .

*Proof.* We know by the previous theorem that  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i}$  is generated by  $\{\prod_i U_i : U_i \subset X_i \text{ open}\}$ . However,  $\prod_i U_i$  is open in X. Therefore,  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i} \subset \mathfrak{B}_X$ .

Suppose now each  $X_i$  is separable and let  $D_i \subset X_i$  be countable and dense. Consider

$$\mathcal{E}_i = \{ B(x_i, r) : X_i \in D_i, r = \infty \text{ or } r \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \},$$

which is countable and  $\sigma(\mathcal{E}_i) = \mathfrak{B}_{X_i}$  since every open set in  $X_i$  is countable union of elements in  $\mathcal{E}_i$ . Similarly,  $\mathfrak{B}_X$  is generated by  $\{\prod_i E_i : E_i \in \mathcal{E}_i\}$ . But item 2 from the previous theorem implies that  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i}$  is generated by the same set. Therefore,  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i} = \mathfrak{B}_X$ .

**Remark.** The above theorem is not true in general if  $X_i$  is not separable for some i.

**Definition.** Let X be a metric space. Define

$$F_{\sigma}(X) = \left\{ \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} C_k : C_k \subset X \text{ closed} \right\},$$

$$G_{\delta}(X) = \left\{ \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} U_k : U_k \subset X \text{ open} \right\}.$$

Note that  $F_{\sigma}(X) \subset \mathfrak{B}_X$  and  $G_{\delta}(X) \subset \mathfrak{B}_X$ .

**Theorem.** Let X be a metric space. Then the following holds:

- 1.  $F_{\sigma}$  and  $G_{\delta}$  are both closed under finite union and intersection.
- 2. If  $C \subset X$  is closed, then  $C \in G_{\delta}$ . If  $U \subset X$  is open, then  $U \in F_{\sigma}$ .
- 3. Suppose X is  $\sigma$ -compact, that is,  $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} K_n$  for  $K_n \subset X$  compact, then each  $F \in F_{\sigma}$  is also  $\sigma$ -compact. In particular, all open sets are  $\sigma$ -compact.

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be metric spaces and  $f: X \to Y$  be continuous. Then the following holds:

- 1.  $E \in F_{\sigma}(Y)$  implies that  $f^{-1}(E) \in F_{\sigma}(X)$ , and  $E \in G_{\delta}(Y)$  implies that  $f^{-1}(E) \in G_{\delta}(X)$ .
- 2. If  $E \in \mathfrak{B}(Y)$ , then  $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathfrak{B}(X)$ .

**Theorem.** Let X and Y be metric spaces with X  $\sigma$ -compact. Then,

- 1. If  $E \in F_{\sigma}(X)$  and  $f : E \to Y$  is continuous, then  $f(E) \in F_{\sigma}(Y)$  and  $\sigma$ -compact.
- 2. If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous injection, then  $E \in \mathfrak{B}(X)$  implies  $f(E) \in \mathfrak{B}(Y)$ .

Corollary. Let  $\emptyset \neq X \subset Y$  for Y a metric space. Then  $\mathfrak{B}(X) = \mathfrak{B}(Y)_X := \{X \cap E : E \in \mathfrak{B}(Y)\}.$ 

*Proof.* We know  $V \subset X$  open if and only if  $V = X \cap U$  for some U open in Y. Therefore,

$$\{V \subset X : V \text{ open in } X\} \subset \mathfrak{B}(Y)_X.$$

This implies that  $\mathfrak{B}(X) \subset \mathfrak{B}(Y)_X$ .

On the other hand, the inclusion map  $I: X \to Y$  is a continuous injection, so if  $E \in \mathfrak{B}(Y)$ , then  $I^{-1}(E) \in \mathfrak{B}(X)$ . However,  $I^{-1}(E) = E \cap X$ . Therefore,  $\mathfrak{B}(Y)_X \subset \mathfrak{B}(X)$ .

#### 3.1.2 Measures

**Definition** (Measure). Let X be a set with  $\mathfrak{M}$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X. A **measure** is a map  $\mu:\mathfrak{N}\to[0,\infty]$  such that

- 1.  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ .
- 2. If  $\{E_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{M}$  pairwise disjoint, then  $\mu(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu(E_k)$ .

Such a triple  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is a **measure space**.

**Definition.** We say  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is **finite** if  $\mu(X) < \infty$ . We say  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite if  $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} X_n$  for  $X_n \in \mathfrak{M}$  and  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$ .

**Theorem.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space. Then the following holds:

- 1. If E and F is measurable and  $E \subset F$ , then  $\mu(E) \leq \mu(F)$ .
- 2. If  $E_k \in \mathfrak{M}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\mu(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu(E_k)$ .

#### 3.1.3 Outer measures and Carathéodory construction

**Definition** (Outer measure). Let X be a set. An **outer measure** is a map  $\mu^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  such that

- 1.  $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$ .
- 2.  $E \subset F$  implies  $\mu^*(E) \leq \mu^*(F)$ .
- 3. If  $E_k \subset X$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\mu^* \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k \right) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu^*(E_k)$ .

**Proposition.** Let  $\mu_{\alpha}^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  be an outer measure for all  $\alpha \in A \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $\lambda : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  defined by  $\lambda(E) = \sup_{\alpha \in A} \mu_{\alpha}^*(E)$  is an outer measure.

*Proof.* 1.  $\mu_{\alpha}^*(\emptyset) = 0$  for all  $\alpha \in A$  implies that  $\lambda(\emptyset) = 0$ .

- 2. Suppose  $E \subset F$ , then  $\mu_{\alpha}^*(E) \leq \mu_{\alpha}^*(F) \leq \lambda(F)$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Take the sup and we obtain  $\lambda(E) \leq \lambda(F)$ .
- 3. Let  $E_k \subset X$  for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then,

$$\mu_{\alpha}^* \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k \right) \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu_{\alpha}^*(E_k) \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda(E_k)$$

This implies that  $\lambda(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda(E_k)$ .

**Definition.** Let X be a set with outer measure  $\mu^*$ . Say a set  $E \subset X$  is measurable with respect to  $\mu^*$  if

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

for all  $A \subset X$ .

**Theorem** (Carathéodory construction). Let X be a set with outer measure  $\mu^*$ , the following holds.

- 1. The collection  $\mathfrak{M} = \{E \subset X : E \text{ measurable}\}\$ is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.
- 2. If  $E \subset X$  is such that  $\mu^*(E) = 0$ , then  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ .
- 3. The restriction  $\mu = \mu^*|_{\mathfrak{M}}$  is a measure, and  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is a complete measure space.

**Definition** (Cover regular). Let  $\mu^*$  be an outer measure on X. Say  $\mu^*$  is cover-regular if for any  $A \subset X$ , there exists  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $A \subset E$  and  $\mu^*(A) = \mu(E)$ .

**Proposition.** Let  $\mu^*$  be an outer measure on X. Then  $\mu^*$  is outer-regular if and only if for any  $A \subset X$ ,  $\mu^*(A) = \inf \{ \mu(E) : A \subset E \in \mathfrak{M} \}$ . In either case, the inf is a min.

**Proposition.** Let X be a set with cover-regular outer measure  $\mu^*$ . Suppose for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $A_n \subset A_{n+1}$ . Then,

$$\mu^* \left( \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu^*(A_n).$$

*Proof.* First note that  $\mu^*(A_n) \leq \mu^*(A_{n+1}) \leq \mu^*(A)$ , where  $A = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$ . Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mu^*(A_n) \le \mu^*(A).$$

On the other hand, by cover regularity, there exists  $A_n \subset E_n \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $\mu^*(A_n) = \mu(E_n)$ . In particular,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu^*(A_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(E_n)$ . Then,

$$A = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k \in \mathfrak{M},$$

and

$$\mu^*(A) \le \mu\left(\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\left(\bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k\right) \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(E_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(A_n),$$

where we have used monotone continuity of **measure**. Therefore,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu^*(A_n) = \mu^*(\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n)$ .

#### 3.1.4 Constructing outer measures

**Definition.** Let X be a set. A gauge on X is a pair  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$  where  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is such that  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{E}$  and  $\gamma : \mathcal{E} \to [0, \infty]$  is such that  $\gamma(\emptyset) = 0$ .

**Theorem.** Let X be a set and  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$  be a gauge on X. Define  $\mu^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  via

$$\mu^*(E) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \gamma(E_n) : E \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n \text{ and } \{E_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{E} \right\}.$$

Then  $\mu^*$  is an outer measure on X and hence generates  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$ , a complete measure space thorugh Carathéodory construction.

**Theorem.** Let (X, d) be a metric space with gauge  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$  and outer measures  $\mu_{\delta}^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  produced by  $(\mathcal{E}_{\delta}, \gamma_{\delta})$  for  $\delta > 0$ . Define  $\mu_{d}^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  by

$$\mu_d^*(A) = \sup_{\delta > 0} \mu_d^*(A).$$

Then  $\mu_d^*$  is a metric outer measure. Moreover,  $\mu_d^*(A) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \mu_\delta^*(A)$  for  $A \subset X$ .

**Definition.** We call  $\mu_d^*$  the metric outer measure generated by  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$ .

**Lemma.** Let X be a set with gauge  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$  that covers X. Let  $A \subset X$ , then the following holds:

- 1. Let  $\mu^*$  be the outer measure generated by  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$ . Then there exists collection  $\{E_{m,n}\}_{m,n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{E}$  such that  $E = \bigcap_{m=0}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_{m,n}$  such that  $A \subset E$  and  $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(E)$ .
- 2. Suppose (X,d) is metric space and the gauge is fine. Let  $\mu_d^*$  be the metric outer measure. Then there exists collection  $\{E_{m,n}\}_{m,n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{E}$  such that  $E = \bigcap_{m=0}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_{m,n}$  such that  $A \subset E$  and  $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(E)$ .

*Proof.* The proof for (1) is very similar to the proof for (2), so we only show (2) as follows. Since the gauge is fine,  $(\mathcal{E}_{\delta}, \gamma_{\delta})$  covers X for all  $\delta > 0$ . Then, for any  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists  $\{E_{m,n}\}_n \subset \mathcal{E}_{2^{-m}}$  such that  $A \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_{m,n}$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \gamma(E_{m,n}) \leq \mu_{2^{-m}}^*(A) + 2^{-m}$ . Now let  $E = \bigcap_{m=0}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_{m,n}$ . Note that  $A \subset E$  and for any  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$\mu_{2^{-m}}^*(E) \le \mu_{2^{-m}}^* \left( \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_{m,n} \right) \le \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \gamma(E_{m,n}) \le \mu_{2^{-m}}^*(A) + 2^{-m}.$$

Taking the limit as  $m \to \infty$ , we have

$$\mu_d^*(E) \le \mu_d^*(A) \le \mu_d^*(E),$$

as desired.

**Theorem.** Let (X,d) be metric space with  $(\mathcal{E},\gamma)$  such that all sets in  $\mathcal{E}$  are open. Assume that  $\mu^*$  is a metric outer measure on X such that either

- 1.  $\mu^*$  is generated by  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$ , or
- 2.  $\mu^* = \mu_d^*$  is generated by  $(\mathcal{E}_{\delta}, \gamma_{\delta})$ .

Further suppose that  $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$  where  $A_n \subset X$  is such that  $\mu^*(A_n) < \infty$ . Then the following holds:

- 1. The gauge covers X in case 1 and is fine in case 2.
- 2. In both cases,  $\mu^*$  is cover-regular. More precisely, for each  $A \subset X$ , there is  $G \in G_{\delta}(X) \subset \mathfrak{B}(X) \subset \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $A \subset G$  and  $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(G)$ .
- 3. In both cases, the following are equivalent for  $E \subset X$ :
  - (a)  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , i.e. E is measurable.
  - (b) there exists  $G \in G_{\delta}(X)$  such that  $E \subset G$  and  $\mu^*(G \setminus E) = 0$ .
  - (c) there exists  $F \in F_{\sigma}(X)$  such that  $F \subset E$  and  $\mu^*(E \setminus F) = 0$ .

Proof. Step 0: proof for (1) and (2).

We know  $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$  for some  $\mu^*(A_n) < \infty$ . For case (1), we can pick  $\{E_{n,m}\} \subset \mathcal{E}$  such that  $A_n \subset \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} E_{n,m}$ . Then  $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n,m} E_{n,m}$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{E}$  covers X. For case (2), note that  $\mu_d^*(A_n) < \infty$  and  $\mu_d^*(A_n) \ge \mu_\delta^*(A_n)$  for each  $\delta > 0$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then for each  $\delta > 0$ , there exists

 ${E_{n,m}} \subset \mathcal{E}_{\delta}$  such that  $A_n \subset \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} E_{n,m}$ . It follows that  $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n,m} E_{n,m}$ . Therefore,  $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$  is fine.

We have the following observations:

- 1.  $\mu^*$  is a metric outer measure. This implies that  $\mathfrak{B}(X) \subset \mathfrak{M}$ .
- 2.  $G_{\delta}(X) \cup F_{\sigma}(X) \subset \mathfrak{B}(X) \subset \mathfrak{M}$  and  $\mu^*(A) = 0$  implies  $A \in \mathfrak{M}$ .
- 3. By previous lemma and all sets in  $\mathcal{E}$  are open, we know for each  $A \subset X$  there is  $E \in G_{\delta}(X)$  such that  $A \subset E$  and  $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(E)$ . In particular,  $\mu^*$  is cover regular.

#### Step 1: starting on (3).

For (b)  $\implies$  (a), suppose (b) holds for  $E \subset X$ . Then  $E = G \setminus (G \setminus E) \in \mathfrak{M}$  since  $\mu^*(G \setminus E) = 0$ .

For (c) 
$$\implies$$
 (a), suppose (c) holds for  $E \subset X$ . Then  $E = F \cup (E \setminus F) \in \mathfrak{M}$  since  $\mu^*(E \setminus F) = 0$ .

Next we show "(a)  $\Longrightarrow$  (c)" implies "(a)  $\Longrightarrow$  (b)". Suppose  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , then  $E^c \in \mathfrak{M}$ . By (a)  $\Longrightarrow$  (b) we know there exists  $F \in F_{\sigma}$  such that  $F \subset E^c$  and  $\mu^*(E^c \setminus F) = 0$ . Let  $G = F^c \in G_{\delta}$  then  $E \subset G$  and  $G \subset E = E^c \subset F$ .

Therefore, it remains to show (a)  $\implies$  (c) to complete the proof for the theorem.

#### Step 2: reduction for (a) $\implies$ (c).

Claim it suffices to show it for E such that  $\mu^*(E) < \infty$ . Suppose we did this and  $\mu^*(E) = \infty$ . Using observation there exists  $B_n \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $A_n \subset B_n$  and  $\mu^*(B_n) = \mu^*(A_n) < \infty$ . Then  $E_n = E \cap B_n \in \mathfrak{M}$  and  $\mu^*(E_n) < \infty$ . Then by special case there is  $F_n \in F_{\sigma}(X)$  such that  $F_n \subset E_n$  and  $\mu^*(F_n \setminus E_n) = 0$ . Let  $F = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n \in F_{\sigma}$  then  $F \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n = E$  and

$$\mu^*(E \setminus F) \le \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu^*(E_n \setminus F_n) = 0.$$

#### Step 3: further reduction.

Claim it suffices to show it for the case where  $\mu^*(E) < \infty$  and  $E \in G_{\delta}(X)$ . Suppose we have proved this and consider  $E \subset X$  such that  $\mu^*(E) < \infty$ . Observation 3 allows us to pick  $G \in G_{\delta}(X)$  such that  $E \subset G$  and  $\mu^*(E) = \mu^*(G)$ . Now pick  $H \in G_{\delta}$  such that  $G \setminus E \subset H$  and  $\mu^*(H) = \mu^*(G \setminus E)$ .

Now apply special case. This gives  $F \in F_{\sigma}$  such that  $F \subset G$  and  $\mu^*(G \setminus F) = 0$ . Let  $K = F \setminus H = F \cap H^c \in F_{\sigma}$  and  $K = F \cap H^c \subset G \cap (G \setminus E)^c \subset E$ .

Note that  $E, F, G, H, K \in \mathfrak{M}$ , so

$$\mu^{*}(E \setminus K) = \mu^{*}(E) - \mu^{*}(K)$$

$$= \mu^{*}(G) - \mu^{*}(F \setminus H)$$

$$= \mu^{*}(G) - \mu^{*}(F) + \mu^{*}(F \cap H)$$

$$\leq \mu^{*}(G) - \mu^{*}(F) + \mu^{*}(H)$$

$$= \mu^{*}(G \setminus F) + \mu^{*}(H)$$

$$= \mu^{*}(G \setminus E)$$

$$= \mu^{*}(G) - \mu^{*}(E)$$

$$= 0.$$

Therefore, K is the desired  $F_{\sigma}$  set.

#### Step 4: finishing (a) $\implies$ (c).

Suppose  $E \in G_{\delta}(X)$  and  $\mu^*(E) < \infty$ . Write  $E = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n$  where  $V_n \subset X$  open. For  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let

$$C_{n,m} = \{x \in V_n : \text{dist}(x, V_n^c) \ge 2^{-m}\} \subset V_n.$$

Note that  $C_{n,m}$  is closed,  $C_{n,m} \subset C_{n,m+1}$ ,  $V_n = \bigcup_m C_{n,m}$ . Since  $E, C_{n,m}, V_n \in \mathfrak{M}$ , we have

$$\mu^*(E) = \mu^*(E \cap V_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu^*(E \cap C_{n,m}).$$

Thus, there exists M(n,k) such that  $\mu^*(E \setminus C_{n,M(n,k)}) < 2^{-n-k}$ . Now let  $D_k = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_{n,M(n,k)}$  closed. Also,  $D_k \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n = E$  and

$$\mu^*(E) - \mu^*(D_k) = \mu^*(E \setminus D_k) \le \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu^*(E \setminus C_{n,M(n,k)}) \le 2^{-k+1}.$$

Let  $F = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} D_k \subset E$  and note that  $F \in F_{\sigma}$ . Then

$$\mu^*(E \setminus F) = \mu^*(E) - \mu^*(F) \le \mu^*(E) - \mu^*(D_k) < 2^{-k+1}$$

for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore,  $\mu^*(E \setminus F) = 0$ .

**Lemma.** Suppose (X,d) metric space with metric outer measure  $\mu^*$ . Suppose  $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} V_n$  for  $V_n \subset X$  open and  $\mu^*(V_n) < \infty$ . Suppose  $E \subset G \in G_{\delta}(X)$  such that  $\mu^*(G \setminus E) = 0$ . Then for each  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists open  $U \subset X$  such that  $E \subset U$  and  $\mu^*(U \setminus E) < \varepsilon$ .

*Proof.* Let  $E_n = E \cap V_n$  and  $G = G \cap V_n$ . Write  $G = \bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} W_i$  where  $W_i$  open. Now set

$$Z_{n,m} = V_n \cap \bigcap_{j=0}^m W_j,$$

which are open for all  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Now notice that  $G_n \subset Z_{n,m+1} \subset Z_{n,m} \subset V_n$ . Note that  $\mu^*(V_n) < \infty$ , so  $\mu^*(G_n) = \lim_{m \to \infty} \mu^*(Z_{n,m})$ . Therefore, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists M(n) such that

$$\mu^*(Z_{n,M(n)} \setminus G_n) < \varepsilon 2^{-n-2}.$$

Then set  $U = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_{n,M(n)} \supset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n = G \supset E$  open, then we have

$$\mu^*(U \setminus E) = \mu^*(U \setminus G) + \mu^*(G \setminus E)$$

$$= \mu^* \left( \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_{n,M(n)} \cap \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n^c \right)$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu^*(Z_{n,M(n)} \setminus G_n)$$

$$< \varepsilon,$$

as desired.

**Definition** (Outer-regular). Let X be a metric space,  $\mathfrak{M}$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra with  $\mathfrak{B}(X) \subset \mathfrak{M}$  and suppose  $\mu: \mathfrak{M} \to [0, \infty]$  is a measure. Say  $\mu$  is outer-regular if

$$\mu(E) = \inf \{ \mu(U) : E \subset U \text{ open} \}.$$

#### 3.2 Lebesgue and Hausdorff measure

\*\*\* TO-DO \*\*\*

## 3.3 Measurable and $\mu$ -measurable functions

**Definition** (Measurable functions). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M})$  and  $(Y, \mathfrak{N})$  be measurable sets. A map  $f: X \to Y$  is called  $(\mathfrak{M}, \mathfrak{N})$  measurable if  $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathfrak{M}$  for all  $E \in \mathfrak{N}$ .

#### \*\*\* TO-DO \*\*\*

**Definition** (Simple functions). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M})$  and  $(Y, \mathfrak{N})$  be measurable sets. A map  $f: X \to Y$  is called simple if it is measurable and f(X) is finite. Write the set of all simple functions from X to Y as S(X, Y).

**Theorem** (Characterization of  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$  measurablility). Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M})$  be measure space and  $f:X\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ . The following are equivalent:

- 1. f is measurable.
- 2. There exists  $\{\varphi_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset S(X; \overline{\mathbb{R}})$  such that  $\varphi_k \to f$  pointwise as  $k \to \infty$ .

Moreover, if f is measurable, the sequence can be built such that

- On the set  $\{f \geq 0\}$ , we have  $0 \leq \varphi_k \leq \varphi_{k+1} \leq f$ .
- On the set  $\{f < 0\}$ , we have  $f \le \varphi_{k+1} \le \varphi_k \le 0$ .
- If f is actually from X to  $\mathbb{R}$  and is bounded, then  $\varphi_k \to f$  uniformly.

*Proof.* (2)  $\implies$  (1). Pointwise limit of measurable functions are measurable.

(1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2). Suppose  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$  is measurable. For  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , define  $\varphi_k: [0, \infty)$  by

$$\varphi_k(x) = \begin{cases} (j-1)2^{-k} & \text{if } (j-1)2^{-k} \le f(x) < j2^{-k} \text{ for } 1 \le j \le k2^k, \\ k & \text{if } f(x) > k. \end{cases}$$

Because f is measurable,  $\varphi_k$  is simple for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Note that  $0 \le \varphi_k \le \varphi_{k+1} \le f$ . Also, if  $f(x) < \infty$ , then  $0 \le f(x) - \varphi_k(x) \le 2^{-k}$ . If  $f(x) = \infty$ , then  $\varphi_k(x) = k$ . This shows that  $\varphi_k \to f$ . Moreover, if f is bounded then  $\varphi_k \to f$  uniformly.

In the general case, apply the special case to f on  $\{f \geq 0\}$  and -f on  $\{f < 0\}$ .

**Definition** (Separably-valued). Let X be a set and Y a metric space. A map  $f: X \to Y$  is **separably-valued** if  $f(X) \subset Y$  is separable.

**Theorem.** Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M})$  be measure space and Y be metric space,  $f:X\to Y$ . The following are equivalent for  $f:X\to Y$ :

- 1. f is  $(\mathfrak{M}, \mathfrak{B}(Y))$  measurable and separably valued.
- 2. There exists  $\{\varphi_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \in S(X;Y)$  such that  $\varphi_k \to f$  pointwise.

*Proof.* (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1). The pointwise limit of measurable function is measurable. On the other hand,  $f(X) = \overline{\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \varphi_k(X)}$ , which is separable since  $\varphi_k(X)$  finite for any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

 $(1) \implies (2). \text{ Assume initially that } Y \text{ is totally bounded. Then for each } n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ there exists } y_0^n, \dots, y_{K(n)}^n \in Y \text{ such that } Y = \bigcup_{k=0}^{K(n)} B(y_k^n, 2^{-n}). \text{ Let } V_0^n = B(y_0^n, 2^{-n}) \text{ and for } k \geq 1 \text{ define } V_k^n = B(y_k^n, 2^{-n}) \setminus \bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} B(y_j^n, 2^{-n}). \text{ Then, } Y = \bigsqcup_{k=0}^{M(n)} V_k^n \text{ where } V_k^n = \emptyset \text{ for } M(n) < k \leq K(n).$ 

Define  $\varphi_n: Y \to \{y_0^n, \dots, y_{M(n)}^n\}$  via  $\varphi_n(y) = y_k^n$  if  $y \in V_k^n$ . Clearly  $\varphi_n$  is simple and  $d(\varphi_n(y), y) < 2^{-n}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $y \in Y$ . Therefore,  $\varphi_n(y) \to (y)$  pointwise. Then  $f_n = \varphi_n \circ f$  are simple functions from X to Y. Also, since  $\varphi_n \to \text{id}$  pointwise,  $f_n \to f$  pointwise.

Now consider the general case in which f(X) is a separable subset of Y. Then there exists a homeomorphism  $h: f(X) \to Z$  for Z a totally bounded metric space, for example take Z a subset of Hilbert cube  $H^{\infty}$  since all separable metric space is homeomorphism to a subset of the Hilbert cube. Thus  $h \circ f: X \to Z$ 

is measurable with Z totally bounded, so the special case provides a sequence  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S(X;Z)$  such that  $\varphi_n \to h \circ f$  pointwise. Then,  $h^{-1} \circ \varphi_n \in S(X;Y)$  is such that  $h^{-1} \circ \varphi_n \to h^{-1} \circ h \circ f = f$  pointwise, using continuity of h and  $h^{-1}$ .

**Definition** (Almost everywhere). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and let P(x) be a proposition for every  $x \in X$ . Say P is true **almost everywhere** (a.e.) if there exists a set  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $\mu(N) = 0$  and P(x) is true for all  $x \in N^c$ .

**Theorem.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space. Let Y be a metric space,  $f: X \to Y$ . The following are equivalent:

- 1. There exists  $\{\psi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S(X;Y)$  such that  $\psi_n \to f$  pointwise a.e. in X.
- 2. There exists a measurable and separably valued  $F: X \to Y$  such that f = F a.e.
- 3. There exists a null set  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  and a measurable  $F: X \to Y$  such that f = F on  $N^c$  and  $f(N^c)$  is separable in Y.

*Proof.* (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2). There exists  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  null such that  $\psi_n \to f$  pointwise in  $N^c$ . Thus,  $f: N^c \to Y$  is measurable and separably valued by the previous theorem. Note the constant map  $N \ni x \mapsto y \in Y$  for  $y \in Y$  fixed is measurable. Thus we can define  $F: X \to Y$  by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & (x \in N^c), \\ y & (x \in N). \end{cases}$$

Then F is measurable. It is also separably valued since  $F(X) = f(N^c) \cup \{y\}$ .

- $(2) \implies (3)$ . Trivial.
- (3)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1). Note that  $F: N^c \to Y$  is measurable and  $F(N^c) = f(N^c)$  is separable. By previous theorem, there exists  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \in S(N^c; Y)$  such that  $\varphi_n \to F = f$  pointwise on  $N^c$ . Now let  $\psi_n \in S(X; Y)$  be  $\varphi_n$  in  $N^c$  and  $y \in Y$  fixed in N. Then  $\psi_n \to f$  pointwise in  $N^c$ .

**Definition.** Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M})$  be measurable, Y be either a normed vector space or  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ . Let  $\psi \in S(X;Y)$ .

- 1. A **representation** of  $\psi$  is a finite and well-defined sum  $\psi = \sum_{k=1}^{K} v_k \chi_{E_k}$  for  $v_k \in Y$  and  $E_k \in \mathfrak{M}$ .
- 2. A canonical representation is  $\psi = \sum_{v \in \psi(X)} v \chi_{\psi^{-1}(\{v\})}$
- 3. Now suppose  $\mu$  is a measure. We say a representation  $\psi = \sum_{k=1}^K v_k \chi_{E_k}$  is **finite** if  $\mu(E_k) < \infty$  for all k such that  $v_k \neq 0$ . We say  $\psi$  is a **finite simple function** if it has a finite representation.

We write  $S_{\text{fin}}(X;Y) = \{ f \in S(X;Y) : f \text{ is finite} \}$ . Note that it is clear  $\psi$  is finite if and only if the canonical representation is finite if and only if  $\mu(\text{spt}(\psi)) < \infty$  where  $\text{spt}(\psi) = \{ x \in X : \psi(x) \neq 0 \}$  is the support of  $\psi$ .

**Definition.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and Y be a metric space.

- 1. We say  $f: X \to Y$  is almost measurable if f = F a.e. with  $F: X \to Y$  is measurable.
- 2. We say  $f: X \to Y$  is almost separably valued if there exists a null set  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $f(N^c)$  is separable.
- 3. We say  $f: X \to Y$  is  $\mu$ -measurable if it is almost measurable and almost separably valued. Equivalently, f is the a.e. limit of simple functions.
- 4. Suppose Y is a normed vector space or  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ . We say  $f: X \to Y$  is **strongly**  $\mu$ -measurable if there exists  $\{\psi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\text{fin}}(X;Y)$  such that  $\psi_n \to f$  a.e. as  $n \to \infty$ .

**Example.** Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\mathfrak{M} = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ . Let  $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$  via f(x) = x and g(x) = 3. Then f is not measure since  $f^{-1}(\{1\}) = \{1\} \notin \mathfrak{M}$  but g is measurable.

Now equip  $(X,\mathfrak{M})$  with the measure  $\delta_3$ . Then, f=g a.e. This shows that equality almost everywhere does not preserve measurability. The problem is that  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \delta_3)$  is not **complete**.

This brings us to the next theorem.

**Theorem.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1.  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  is complete.
- 2. If  $(Y, \mathfrak{N})$  is a measure space,  $f, g: X \to Y$ , f is measurable and f = g a.e., then g is measurable.
- 3. If Y is a metric space with card  $Y=2, f, g: X \to Y, f$  measurable, f=g a.e., then g is measurable.

*Proof.* (1)  $\implies$  (2). Suppose  $f, g: X \to Y$ , f is measurable, f = g a.e. Pick null set  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that f = g on  $N^c$ . Take  $E \in \mathfrak{N}$ , then

$$g^{-1}(E) = (g^{-1}(E) \cap N) \cup (g^{-1}(E) \cap N^c)$$
  
=  $(g^{-1}(E) \cap N) \cup (f^{-1}(E) \cap N^c).$ 

Note that  $f^{-1}(E) \cap N^c$  is measurable, and  $g^{-1}(E) \cap N \subset N$  null, so it is also measurable. Therefore,  $g^{-1}(E)$  is measurable and g is measurable.

- $(2) \implies (3)$ . Clear.
- (3)  $\implies$  (1). Prove the contrapositive. Suppose  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is not complete and  $Y = \{y, z\}$  a metric space. Find  $\emptyset \neq A \subsetneq B$  such that  $\mu(B) = 0$  and  $A \notin \mathfrak{M}$ . Define  $f, g: X \to Y$  by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} y & (x \notin A), \\ z & (x \in A). \end{cases}$$

and f(x) = y be constant. Then f = g a.e., f is measurable, and g is not measurable.

Corollary. Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a complete measurable space, Y a separable metric space, and  $f: X \to Y$ . Then, f is  $\mu$ -measurable if and only if f is measurable.

**Proposition.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and Y be a metric space. The following holds:

- 1. Let  $f, g: X \to Y$ . If f is  $\mu$ -measurable and f = g a.e., then g is  $\mu$ -measurable.
- 2. Suppose Y is a normed vector space or  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ . If  $f,g:X\to Y$ , f is strongly  $\mu$ -measurable, f=g a.e., then q is strong  $\mu$ -measurable.

1. Let  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}\subset S(X;Y)$  be such that  $\varphi_n\to g$  pointwise a.e. Pick null set  $N\in\mathfrak{M}$  such that f=g on  $N^c$ . Pick null set  $Z\in\mathfrak{M}$  such that  $f=\lim_{n\to\infty}\varphi_n$ . This implies that  $g=\lim_{n\to\infty}\varphi_n$  on  $(N \cup Z)^c$ .

2. Same proof as the first item but let  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \in S_{\text{fin}}(X;Y)$ .

**Theorem.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and Y be a normed vector space with  $V \neq \{0\}$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1.  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite.
- 2. If  $f: X \to Y$  is  $\mu$ -measurable, then f is strongly  $\mu$ -measurable.
- 3. Let  $f: X \to Y$ , then f is  $\mu$ -measurable if and only if f is strongly  $\mu$ -measurable.
- 4. If  $y \in Y \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $f: X \to Y$  via f(x) = y strongly  $\mu$ -measurable.

*Proof.* (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2). Suppose  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite. We can find  $\{X_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}\subset \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $X_n\subset X_{n+1}$ ,  $\mu(X_n)<\infty$  and  $\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty}X_n=X$ . Let  $f:X\to Y$  be  $\mu$ -measurable. Pick  $\{\psi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}\subset S(X;Y)$  such that  $\psi_n\to f$  pointwise a.e. Define  $\varphi_n=\chi_{X_n}\psi_n$ . This shows that f is strongly  $\mu$ -measurable.

- (2)  $\iff$  (3). Trivial since strongly  $\mu$ -measurablility implies  $\mu$ -measurablility.
- (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (4). Constant function are  $\mu$ -measurable.
- (4)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1). Let  $y \in Y \setminus \{0\}$  and define  $f: X \to Y$  via f(x) = y. This is strongly  $\mu$ -measurable by assumption. Then there exists  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\text{fin}}(X;Y)$  such that  $\varphi_n \to f$  pointwise on  $N^c$  where N is null.

Pick  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $\{0\} \cap B(y,\varepsilon) = \emptyset$ . Set  $X_n = \varphi_n^{-1}(B(y,\varepsilon))$ . Then we have  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$ . For any  $x \in N^c$  and n sufficiently large,  $\varphi_n(x) \in B(y,\varepsilon)$ . Therefore,  $N^c \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} X_n$  and the proof we are complete.

Finally, we present a useful characterization of  $\mu$ -measurablility of Banach-valued maps.

**Theorem** (Pettis). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and V be a Banach space over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Suppose  $W \subset V^*$  is a norming subspace. Let  $f: X \to V$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is  $\mu$ -measurable.
- 2. f is almost separably valued, and  $w \circ f : X \to \mathbb{F}$  is  $\mu$ -measurable for each  $w \in V^*$ .
- 3. f is almost separably valued, and  $w \circ f : X \to \mathbb{F}$  is  $\mu$ -measurable for each  $w \in W$ .

In any case, there exists  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S(X;V)$  such that  $\|\varphi_n\| \leq 2 \|f\|$  on X such that  $\varphi_n \to f$  pointwise a.e. as  $n \to \infty$ . Moreover, the same equivalence holds with  $\mu$ -measurablility replaced by strongly  $\mu$ -measurablility and  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  replaced by  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\text{fin}}(X;V)$ .

*Proof.* (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2). Suppose f is  $\mu$ -measurable, which means it is almost separably valued. Each  $w \in V^*$  is also continuous so  $w \circ f$  is  $\mu$ -measurable.

- (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3). Trivial since  $W \subset V^*$ .
- (3)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1). Suppose f is almost separably valued. Then there exists null set  $N_* \subset X$  such that  $f(X \setminus N_*) \subset V$  separable. Define the subspace

$$M = \operatorname{span}(f(X \setminus N_*)) \subset V,$$

which is separable by construction. Pick a dense set  $\{v_n\}_{m=0}^{\infty} \subset M$  such that  $v_0 = 0$ . Then by a previous theorem, we know there exists a norming sequence  $\{w_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset W$  for M.

Now, given any  $v \in V$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define the function  $\Phi_{n,v}: X \to [0,\infty)$  by

$$\Phi_{n,v}(x) = |\langle w_n, f(x) - v \rangle| = |w_n(f(x) - v)|.$$

Note that  $X \ni x \mapsto \langle w_n, v \rangle \in \mathbb{F}$  is  $\mu$ -measurable and the map  $X \ni x \mapsto \langle w_n, f(x) \rangle \in \mathbb{F}$  is also  $\mu$ -measurable by assumption. It follows that  $\Phi_{n,v}$  is  $\mu$ -measurable. Therefore, there exists null set  $N_{n,v} \subset X$  and a measurable map  $\Psi_{n,v}: X \to [0,\infty)$  such that  $\Psi_{n,v} = \Phi_{n,v}$  on  $X \setminus N_{n,v}$ . For each  $v \in V$  define null set

$$N(v) = N_* \cup \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} N_{n,v} \subset X,$$

with  $\Psi_{n,v} = \Phi_{n,v}$  on  $X \setminus N(v)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

For  $v \in M$  define the map  $\Phi_v : X \to [0, \infty]$  by  $\Phi_v(x) = ||f(x) - v||$  and note that  $\{w_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is norming sequence for M. This implies that

$$\Phi_v(x) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\langle w_n, f(x) - v \rangle|$$

for all  $x \in X \setminus N_*$ . We also have that

$$\Phi_v(x) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Phi_{n,v}(x) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Psi_{n,v}(x)$$

for all  $x \in X \setminus N(v)$ , so  $\Phi_v$  is measurable when restricted to  $X \setminus N(v)$ . We can then define the set

$$N = \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} N(v_m) \subset X,$$

which is null. By construction, each  $\Phi_{v_m}$  is measurable when restricted to  $N^c$ . In particular,  $\Phi_0 = \Phi_{v_0} = ||f||$  is measurable when restricted to  $N^c$ .

For  $u \in M$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define

$$k(n, u) = \min \left\{ 0 \le k \le n : ||u - v_k|| = \min_{0 \le j \le n} ||u - v_j|| \right\}.$$

By construction,

$$||v_{k(n,u)}|| \le ||u - v_{k(n,m)}|| + ||u|| \le ||u - v_0|| + ||u|| = 2 ||u||.$$

We then define  $S_n: M \to \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$  via  $S_n(u) = v_{k(n,u)}$ . Note that  $||S_n(u)|| \le 2 ||u||$ . Also,  $\{v_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$  dense in M implies  $S_n(u) \to u$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

Finally, for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define  $\psi_n : N^c \to \{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \subset V$  via  $\psi_n = S_n \circ f$ . For  $0 \le k \le n$ , we compute

$$\{x \in N^c : \psi_n(x) = v_k\}$$

$$= \left\{ x \in N^c : \|f(x) - v_k\| = \min_j \|f(x) - v_j\| \right\} \cap \bigcap_{i=0}^{k-1} \left\{ x \in N^c : \|f(x) - v_k\| < \|f(x) - v_j\| \right\}$$

This set is measurable since  $\Phi_{v_m}$  measurable on  $N^c$  for each  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . It follows that  $\psi_n$  is measurable on  $N^c$ . Let  $\varphi_n \in S(X; V)$  by

$$\varphi_n(x) = \begin{cases} \psi_n(x) & (x \in N^c), \\ 0 & (x \in N). \end{cases}$$

Then,  $\|\varphi_n\| \leq 2 \|f\|$  and  $\varphi_n(x) = \psi_n(x) \to f(x)$  as  $n \to \infty$  for  $x \in \mathbb{N}^c$ . Therefore,  $\varphi_n \to f$  a.e. and thus f is  $\mu$ -measurable.

#### 3.4 Lebesgue-Bochner Integral

**Lemma.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and  $Y \in \{V, [0, \infty]\}$ . Let  $\psi : X \to Y$  be simple such that

$$\psi = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i \chi_{E_i} = \sum_{i=1}^{J} \beta_j \chi_{F_j}.$$

Additionally, if Y = V suppose both representation are finite. Then,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i \mu(E_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \beta_j \mu(F_j).$$

Based on this lemma, we can define

$$\int_X \psi \ d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i \mu(E_i).$$

This induces maps  $\int_X \cdot d\mu : S(X;[0,\infty]) \to [0,\infty]$  and  $\int_X \cdot d\mu : S_{\mathrm{fin}}(X;V) \to V$ .

**Proposition.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and  $Y \in \{V, [0, \infty]\}$ . Then the following holds:

1. If Y = V, then

$$\int_X (\alpha f + \beta g) \ d\mu = \alpha \int_X f \ d\mu + \beta \int_X g \ d\mu$$

for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $f, g \in S_{\text{fin}}(X; V)$ . If  $Y = [0, \infty]$ , the same equality holds for any  $\alpha, \beta > 0$  and  $f, g \in S(X; V)$ .

2. If Y = V, then  $||f|| \in S_{\text{fin}}(X; [0, \infty))$  and

$$\left\| \int_X f \ d\mu \right\| \le \int_X \|f\| \ d\mu.$$

3. If  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , then

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

4. If  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  is a null set, then

$$\int_{M} f \ d\mu = 0.$$

5. If  $A, B \in \mathfrak{M}$  is such that  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then

$$\int_{A \cup B} f \ d\mu = \int_A f \ d\mu + \int_B f \ d\mu.$$

6. Suppose  $\{X_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{M}$  is such that  $X_n \subset X_{n+1}$  and  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$ . Then

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{X_n} f \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* Write  $f = \sum_k f_k \chi_{E_k}$  be the canonical representation. We then have

$$\int_{X_n} f \ d\mu = \sum_k f_k \mu(X_n \cap E_k).$$

For each k, we have  $X_n \cap E_k \subset X_{n+1} \cap E_k$  and  $\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} (X_n \cap E_k) = E_k$ . It follows that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mu(X_n\cap E_k)=\mu(E_k).$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{X_n} f \ d\mu = \sum_k f_k \mu(E_k) = \int_X f \ d\mu.$$

7. If  $Y = \mathbb{R}$  or  $Y = [0, \infty]$  and  $f \leq g$  a.e., then

$$\int_{\mathbf{Y}} f \ d\mu \le \int_{\mathbf{Y}} g \ d\mu.$$

# 3.4.1 Integration of $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ -valued functions

Note that if  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is a measure space and  $\varphi \in S(X; [0, \infty])$ , then

$$\int_X \varphi \ d\mu = \sup \left\{ \int_X \psi \ d\mu : \psi \in S(X; [0, \infty]) \text{ and } \psi \le \varphi \text{ a.e.} \right\}.$$

**Definition.** Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  be a measure space. Let  $f:X\to [0,\infty]$  be  $\mu$ -measurable. We define

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \sup \left\{ \int_X \psi \ d\mu : \psi \in S(X; [0, \infty]) \text{ and } \psi \le f \text{ a.e.} \right\} \in [0, \infty].$$

We say f is **integrable** if  $\int_X f \ d\mu < \infty$ .

Remark. There are two remarks with regard to the definition above.

- 1. In principle we do not need f to be  $\mu$ -measurable here. We build this into the definition because the resulting integral is more-or-less useless without this assumption.
- 2.  $[0, \infty]$  is a separable metric space, so for  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$ , f is measurable implies f is  $\mu$ -measurable, and f almost measurable implies f is  $\mu$ -measurable.

**Theorem.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space,  $f, g: X \to [0, \infty]$  be  $\mu$ -measurable functions. The following holds:

1. For  $\alpha \in [0, \infty)$ , we have

$$\int_X \alpha f \ d\mu = \alpha \int_X f \ d\mu.$$

2. If  $f \leq g$  a.e., then

$$\int_X f \ d\mu \le \int_X g \ d\mu.$$

3. If f = g a.e., then

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \int_X g \ d\mu.$$

4. For  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , we have

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

5. If  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  is null, then

$$\int_{N} f \ d\mu = 0.$$

*Proof.* Follow directly from corresponding results in  $S(X;[0,\infty])$  and the definition of  $\int_X f \ d\mu$ .

**Theorem** (Monotone convergence theorem, basic version). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and suppose for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $f_n : X \to [0, \infty]$  measurable. Further suppose that  $f_n \leq f_{n+1}$  on X and  $f : X \to [0, \infty]$  is given by  $f = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$ . Then f is measurable and

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X f_n \ d\mu = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_X f_n \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* We already know f is measurable. Also,  $f_n \leq f_{n+1} \leq f$  on X, so

$$\int_X f_n \ d\mu \le \int_X f_{n+1} \ d\mu \le \int_X f \ d\mu.$$

It follows that

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

To show the opposite inequality, let  $\varphi \in S(X; [0, \infty])$  such that  $\varphi \leq f$  a.e. and  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ . Let  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  be a null set and  $\varphi \leq f$  on  $N^c$ . Also, for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $E_n = \{x \in X : f_n(x) \geq \alpha \varphi(x)\}$ . Note the following:

- 1. Since  $f_n \leq f_{n+1}$ , we have  $E_n \subset E_{n+1}$ .
- 2. Since  $f_n \to f$  pointwise, we have  $X = N \cup \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n$ .

3. We have

$$\alpha \int_{N \cup E_n} \varphi \ d\mu = \int_{E_n} \alpha \varphi \ d\mu \le \int_{E_n} f_n \ d\mu \le \int_X f_n \ d\mu$$

4. We have

$$\int_X \varphi \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{N \cup E_n} \varphi \ d\mu.$$

Therefore.

$$\alpha \int_X \varphi \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \alpha \int_{N \cup E_n} \varphi \ d\mu \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X f_n \ d\mu.$$

Since the above inequality holds for all  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ , we knnw  $\int_X \varphi \ d\mu \le \lim_{n\to\infty} \int_X f_n \ d\mu$ . This is then true for all simple function  $\varphi$  such that  $\varphi \le f$  a.e. Taking the sup gives

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

The proof is then complete.

**Theorem.** Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  be measure space,  $f,g:X\to [0,\infty]$  be  $\mu$ -measurable. Then

$$\int_X (f+g) \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu + \int_X g \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* Recall that  $\mu$ -measurable functions are almost measurable. Choose measurable functions  $F,G:X\to [0,\infty]$  such that f=F and g=G a.e. We may then choose  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^\infty, \{\psi_n\}_{n=0}^\infty\subset S(X;[0,\infty])$  such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\varphi_n=F$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\psi_n=G,\ 0\le\varphi_n\le\varphi_{n+1}\le F$  and  $0\le\psi_n\le\psi_{n+1}\le G$ . Then

$$0 \le \varphi_n + \psi_n \le \varphi_{n+1} + \psi_{n+1} \le F + G = \lim_{n \to \infty} (\varphi_n + \psi_n).$$

It follows then from monotone convergence theorem that

$$\int_X (F+G) d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X (\varphi_n + \psi_n) d\mu$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \varphi_n d\mu + \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \psi_n d\mu$$

$$= \int_X F d\mu + \int_X G d\mu.$$

Since f = F and g = G a.e., we have

$$\int_X (f+g) \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu + \int_X g \ d\mu.$$

**Recall:** given  $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ , we write  $f^{\pm}: X \to [0, \infty]$  via

$$f^+ = \max\{0, f\}, \quad f^- = \max\{0, -f\}.$$

Then we have  $f = f^+ - f^-$  and  $|f| = f^+ + f^-$ . Also, if f is measurable or  $\mu$ -measurable, then  $f^{\pm}$  is also measurable or  $\mu$ -measurable since they are composition of a continuous function (namely  $x \mapsto \max\{0, x\}$ ) with a measurable or  $\mu$ -measurable function.

**Definition.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be measure space and  $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  be  $\mu$ -measurable. If either  $f^+$  or  $f^-$  is integrable, we say f is **extended integrable** and set

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \int_X f^+ \ d\mu - \int_X f^- \ d\mu \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}.$$

We say f is **integrable** if  $f^{\pm}$  are both integrable.

**Proposition** (absolute integrability). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space,  $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  be  $\mu$ -measurable. Then f is integrable if and only if |f| is integrable.

*Proof.* We know f is integrable if and only if  $f^{\pm}$  are both integrable, but  $|f| = f^{+} + f^{-}$ . Therefore, f integrable implies |f| is integrable. Conversely, if |f| is integrable, then  $0 \le f^{\pm} \le |f|$ , so  $f^{\pm}$  are both integrable.

**Theorem.** Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  be a measure space,  $f,g:X\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$  are extended integrable. The following holds:

- 1. For all  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , we have  $\int_E f \ d\mu = \int_X f \chi_E \ d\mu$ .
- 2. For all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\alpha \int_X f \ d\mu = \int_X \alpha f \ d\mu$ .
- 3.  $\int_X (f+g) d\mu = \int_X f d\mu + \int_X g d\mu$ , provided that all operations are well-defined.
- 4.  $\int_{A \cup B} f \, d\mu = \int_A f \, d\mu + \int_B f \, d\mu$  for all  $A, B \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .
- 5. If  $f \leq g$  a.e. then  $\int_X f \ d\mu \leq \int_X g \ d\mu$ .
- 6.  $\left| \int_X f \ d\mu \right| \le \int_X |f| \ d\mu$ .
- 7. If  $|f| \leq g$  a.e. and g integrable, then f is integrable.

**Theorem** (Chebyshev's inequality). If f is measurable and integrable, then

$$\mu\left(\left\{x\in X:|f(x)|\geq\alpha\right\}\right)\leq\frac{1}{\alpha}\int_X|f|\ d\mu$$

for all  $\alpha \in (0, \infty)$ .

Proof.

$$\mathrm{LHS} = \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} 1 \ d\mu = \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} \frac{|f|}{\alpha} \ d\mu = \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_X |f| \ d\mu = \mathrm{RHS} \,.$$

Corollary. Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and  $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ .

- 1. If f is integrable, then there exists a null set  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  and a  $\sigma$ -finite set  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $\{|f| = \infty\} \subset N \text{ and } \operatorname{spt}(f) \subset E.$
- 2. If f is extended integrable, then there exists a null set  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that either  $\{f = \infty\} \subset N$  or  $\{f = -\infty\} \subset N$ .

*Proof.* 1. Suppose initially that f is measurable and integrable, then Chebyshev's inequality implies that

$$\mu(\{|f| = \infty\}) \le \mu(\{|f| > 2^k\}) \le 2^{-k} \int_{Y} |f| \ d\mu$$

for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . It follows that  $\mu(\{|f| = \infty\})$  is null.

On the other hand,  $\operatorname{spt}(f) = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \{|f| > 2^{-k}\}$ , but

$$\mu\left(\left\{|f|>2^{-k}\right\}\right) \le 2^k \int_X |f| \ d\mu < \infty.$$

It follows that  $\operatorname{spt}(f)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite.

In general, if f is integrable and  $\mu$ -measurable, pick F = f a.e. for F measurable and integrable and apply the argument above.

2. Next, if f is extended integrable but not integrable, then either  $f^+$  is integrable or  $f^-$  is integrable. If  $f^+$  is integrable, then  $\{f = +\infty\}$  is contained in some null set. If  $f^-$  is integrable,  $\{f = -\infty\}$  is contained in a null set.

To prove the more general form of monotone convergence theorem, we first need a useful lemma.

**Lemma.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and suppose that  $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  is  $\mu$ -measurable and  $g: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is integrable. Further suppose  $g \leq f$  a.e. Then, f and f - g are extended integrable, and

$$\int_X (f-g) \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu - \int_X g \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* Since  $g \leq f$  a.e., we have  $f^- \leq g^-$  a.e. Since g is integrable,  $f^-$  is integrable and thus f is extended-integrable. We also have f-g well defined on all of X and  $f-g \geq 0$  a.e. Therefore, f-g is extended-integrable.

If f is integrable, then we immediately have the desired equality. Suppose not f is not integrable but only extended-integrable. This implies  $f^+$  is not integrable. We must then have f-g not integrable, otherwise f=(f-g)+g is integrable. Therefore,  $\int_X (f-g) \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu = \infty$ , and the desired equality holds.

**Theorem** (Monotone convergence theorem, general form). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and suppose  $f_k : X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  is  $\mu$ -measurable for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Suppose that  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$  is such that  $f_k \to f$  a.e. Then, f is  $\mu$ -measurable and the following holds:

1. Suppose that  $\{f_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is almost everywhere nondecreasing, that is,  $f_k \leq f_{k+1}$  a.e. Suppose also that there exists an integrable function  $g: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  such that  $g \leq f_k$  a.e. for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, f and  $f_k$  are extended integrable for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , and

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X f_k \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu.$$

2. Suppose that  $\{f_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is almost everywhere nonincreasing, that is,  $f_k \geq f_{k+1}$  a.e. Suppose also that there exists an integrable function  $g: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  such that  $g \geq f_k$  a.e. for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, f and  $f_k$  are extended integrable for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , and

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{X} f_k \ d\mu = \int_{X} f \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* Since g is integrable, there exists a null set  $\widetilde{N} \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $\{|g| = \infty\} \subset \widetilde{N}$ . Now g is  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued in  $N^c$ . We can also select a null set  $N \supset \widetilde{N}$  such that the following holds:

- -q is measurable on  $N^c$ .
- $f_k \to f$  as  $k \to \infty$  on  $N^c$ .
- For each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_k$  is measurable on  $N^c$ ,  $f_k \leq f_{k+1} \leq f$  on  $N^c$ , and  $g \leq f_k \leq f$  on  $N^c$ .

By Lemma 10.3.22, we know f, f-g are extended integrable on  $N^c$  and  $f_k$ ,  $f_k-g$  are extended integrable on  $N^c$  for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Additionally, we have

$$\int_{N^c} (f - g) \ d\mu = \int_{N^c} f \ d\mu - \int_{N^c} g \ d\mu,$$

and for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$\int_{N^c} (f_k - g) \ d\mu = \int_{N^c} f_k \ d\mu - \int_{N^c} g \ d\mu.$$

Note now  $f_k - g$  is measurable function on  $N^c$  taking values in  $[0, \infty]$ . Also,  $f_k - g \le f_{k+1} - g$  on  $N^c$  and  $f_k - g \to f - g$  pointwise as  $k \to \infty$  on  $N^c$ . By the basic version of monotone convergence theorem, we have

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^c} (f_k - g) \ d\mu = \int_{N^c} (f - g) \ d\mu.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^c} f_k \ d\mu - \int_{N^c} g \ d\mu = \int_{N^c} f \ d\mu - \int_{N^c} g \ d\mu.$$

However, note that  $\int_{N^c} g \ d\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and it then follows that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^c} f_k \ d\mu = \int_{N^c} f \ d\mu.$$

Since both  $f_k$  and f are extended integrable and N is null, we have

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X f_k \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu,$$

as desired.

**Corollary.** 1. Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space,  $f_k : X \to (-\infty, \infty]$  be  $\mu$ -measurable for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $f_k \geq 0$  a.e. Then,

$$\int_X \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k \ d\mu = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_X f_k \ d\mu.$$

2. Suppose  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is a measure space,  $X = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k$  such that  $\{E_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{M}$  and  $\mu(E_k \cap E_j) = 0$  for all  $k \neq j$ . Given  $f: X \to [0, \infty]$   $\mu$ -measurable, we then have

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_{E_k} f \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* 1. Note that  $\operatorname{spt}(f_k^-)$  is in a null set, so each  $f_k$  is extended integrable. The same holds for  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k : X \to [-\infty, \infty]$ . On the other hand, the partial sums  $\sum_{k=0}^{m} f_k \leq \sum_{k=0}^{m+1} f_k$  a.e. Apply monotone convergence theorem gives the desired equality.

2. Use the first claim on  $f_k = f\chi_{E_k}$ .

**Theorem** (Fatou's lemma). Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  be a measure space, and suppose that  $f_k:X\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$  are  $\mu$ -measurable for all  $k\in\mathbb{N}$ . Suppose that  $g:X\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$  is extended integrable,  $\int_X g\ d\mu>-\infty$ , and  $g\leq f_k$  a.e. for all  $k\in\mathbb{N}$ . Then the following holds:

- 1. For each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_k$  is extended integrable.
- 2. The function  $\liminf_{k\to\infty} f_k$  is extended integrable.
- 3. We have

$$\int_X g \ d\mu \le \int_X \liminf_{k \to \infty} f_k \ d\mu \le \liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_X f_k \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* Note that  $\int_X g \ d\mu > -\infty$  implies  $g^-$  is integrable. Write

$$f = \liminf_{k \to \infty} f_k,$$

which is a  $\mu$ -measurable function. Then,  $g \leq f_k$  a.e. implies  $g \leq f$  a.e. as well. It follows that  $-f_k \leq -g$  and  $-f \leq -g$ . Therefore,  $f_k^- \leq g^-$  and  $f^- \leq g^-$ . This shows that  $f_k$  and f are extended-integrable. Next, note that

$$\int_X g \ d\mu \le \int_X \inf_{j \ge k} f_j \ d\mu \le \int_X f_k \ d\mu.$$

By monotone convergence theorem, we know the middle term converges when k approaches infinity. Taking the liminf, we have

$$\int_X g \ d\mu \leq \liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_X \inf_{j \geq k} f_k \ d\mu = \lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X \inf_{j \geq k} f_j \ d\mu = \int_X \liminf_{k \to \infty} f_k \ dx \leq \liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_X f_k \ d\mu.$$

**Theorem** (Dominated convergence theorem). Let  $(X,\mathfrak{M},\mu)$  be a measure space and suppose  $f_k,g_k:X\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$   $\mu$ -measurable for each  $k\in\mathbb{N}$ . Suppose that  $f,g:X\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$  are such that  $f_k\to f$  a.e. and  $g_k\to g$  a.e. Suppose further that  $g_k$  is integrable and  $|f_k|\leq g_k$  a.e. for each  $k\in\mathbb{N}$ . Suppose also g is integrable and that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X g_k \ d\mu = \int_X g \ d\mu.$$

Then,  $f_k$  is integrable for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , f is integrable, and

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X f_k \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu.$$

Moreover,  $f_k - f$  is well-defined for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  outside a null set  $N \subset X$ , and

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^c} |f_k - f| \ d\mu = 0$$

Proof. We know  $|f_k| \leq g_k$  a.e.,  $g_k \to g$  a.e., and  $f_k \to f$  a.e. Then,  $|f| \leq g$  a.e., so  $f_k$  and f are integrable. In turn, we can use a previous corollary to pick  $N \in \mathfrak{M}$  null such that  $f_k, f, g_k, g$  are all  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued and all assumed inequalities hold on  $N^c$ . Then,  $|f - f_k| \leq g + g_k$  on  $N^c$ , and so

$$0 \le g + g_k - |f - f_k|.$$

Apply Fatou's lemma, we then have

$$\begin{split} \int_{N^{c}} 2g \ d\mu &= \int_{N^{c}} \liminf_{k \to \infty} (g + g_{k} - |f - f_{k}|) \ d\mu \\ &\leq \liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^{c}} (g + g_{k} - |f - f_{k}|) \ d\mu \\ &= \liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^{c}} (g + g_{k} - |f - f_{k}|) \ d\mu + \liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^{c}} -(g + g_{k}) \ d\mu + \int_{N^{c}} 2g \ d\mu \\ &\leq \liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^{c}} -|f - f_{k}| \ d\mu + \int_{N^{c}} 2g \ d\mu. \end{split}$$

It follows that

$$0 \le \limsup_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^c} |f - f_k| \ d\mu = -\liminf_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^c} -|f - f_k| \ d\mu \le 0.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{N^c} |f - f_k| \ d\mu = 0.$$

Note that  $f_k$  and f are integrable, so

$$\left| \int_X f \ d\mu - \int_X f_k \ d\mu \right| = \left| \int_{N^c} f \ d\mu - \int_{N^c} f_k \ d\mu \right| \le \int_{N^c} \left| f - f_k \right|.$$

This then implies

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X f_k \ d\mu = \int_X f \ d\mu,$$

and the proof is complete.

**Remark.** Usually, dominated convergence theorem is applied with  $g_k = g$ , in which case the assumption  $\int_X g_k d\mu \to \int_X g d\mu$  becomes trivial.

#### 3.4.2 Bochner integration

**Lemma.** Suppose  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  is a measure space and V a normed vector space, and  $\varphi : X \to V$  simple. Note then  $\|\varphi\| : X \to [0, \infty)$  is a simple function now. Then,  $\varphi$  is a **finite** simple function if and only if  $\|\varphi\|$  is integrable.

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Suppose  $\varphi$  is finite, then  $\|\varphi\|$  is finite. Then,  $\|\varphi\|$  is integrable.

( $\iff$ ) Suppose  $\|\varphi\|$  is integrable. We know  $\varphi$  is simple, so  $\varphi(X) \setminus \{0\}$  is a finite set in V. Then, there exists  $0 < m \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\|v\| \ge m$  for all  $v \in \varphi(X) \setminus \{0\}$ . Then,

$$\mu(\operatorname{spt}(\varphi)) = \mu(\{x \in X : \|\varphi(x)\| > 0\}) = \mu(\{\|\varphi\| \ge m\}).$$

By Chebyshev's inequality, we have

$$\mu(\operatorname{spt}(\varphi)) \le \frac{1}{m} \int_{Y} \|\varphi\| \ d\mu < \infty.$$

This completes the proof.

**Lemma.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space, V be a Banach space,  $f: X \to V$   $\mu$ -strongly measurable. Suppose that for  $j \in \{0, 1\}$ , we have  $\{\varphi_k^j\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\text{fin}}(X; V)$  such that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_{Y} \left\| f - \varphi_k^j \right\| d\mu = 0.$$

Then,  $\{\int_X \varphi_k^j\}_{k=0}^\infty$  is convergent in V for both  $j \in \{0,1\}$  and

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X \varphi_k^0 \ d\mu = \lim_{k \to \infty} \int_X \varphi_k^1 \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* For  $k, m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$\begin{split} \left\| \int_{X} \varphi_{m}^{j} \ d\mu - \int_{X} \varphi_{k}^{j} \ d\mu \right\| &= \left\| \int_{X} (\varphi_{m}^{j} - \varphi_{k}^{j}) \ d\mu \right\| \\ &\leq \int_{X} \left\| \varphi_{m}^{j} - \varphi_{k}^{j} \right\| \ d\mu \\ &\leq \int_{X} \left\| f - \varphi_{m}^{j} \right\| \ d\mu + \int_{X} \left\| f - \varphi_{k}^{j} \right\| \ d\mu. \end{split}$$

This shows that  $\{\int_X \varphi_k^j\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy and hence convergent.

On the other hand,

$$\left\| \int_{X} \varphi_{k}^{0} d\mu - \int_{X} \varphi_{k}^{1} d\mu \right\| \leq \int_{X} \left\| \varphi_{k}^{0} - \varphi_{k}^{1} \right\| d\mu$$

$$\leq \int_{X} \left\| f - \varphi_{k}^{0} \right\| d\mu + \int_{X} \left\| f - \varphi_{k}^{1} \right\| d\mu$$

$$\to 0,$$

completing the proof.

This leads to the following definition for Bochner integration.

**Definition.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and V a Banach space. A map  $f: X \to V$  is (Bochner) integrable if it is strongly  $\mu$ -measurable and there exists a sequence  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\text{fin}}(X; V)$  such that  $\varphi_n \to f$  a.e. and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \|f - \varphi_n\| \ d\mu = 0,$$

in which case we define

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \varphi_n \ d\mu \in V.$$

Note that this is well-defined by the previous lemmas.

**Theorem** (absoulte integrability). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space, V a Banach space,  $f: X \to V$ . Then, f is integrable if and only if f is  $\mu$ -measurable and  $||f||: X \to [0, \infty]$  is integrable. In either case,

$$\left\| \int_X f \ d\mu \right\| \le \int_X \|f\| \ d\mu.$$

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Suppose f is integrable. This implies that f is strongly  $\mu$ -measure and in particular  $\mu$ -measurable. Also,  $||f||: X \to [0,\infty)$  is  $\mu$ -measurable. Suppose  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\text{fin}}(X;V)$  is such that  $\varphi_n \to f$  a.e. and  $\int_X ||f - \varphi_n|| \to 0$ . Then,

$$\int_X \|f\| \ d\mu \le \int_X \|f - \varphi_n\| \ d\mu + \int_X \|\varphi_n\| \ d\mu < \infty$$

for n sufficiently large. This implies that ||f|| is integrable.

(  $\Leftarrow$  ) Suppose f is  $\mu$ -measurable and  $\int_X \|f\| \ d\mu < \infty$ . Then, Pettis theorem gives a sequence  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \in S(X;V)$  such that  $\varphi_n \to f$  a.e. and  $\|\varphi_n\| \le 2\|f\|$ . Then,

$$\int_X \|\varphi_n\| \ d\mu \le 2 \int_X \|f\| \ d\mu < \infty.$$

Therefore,  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is actually a sequence of finite simple functions. This implies that f is actually strongly  $\mu$ -measurable. On the other hand,  $||f - \varphi_n|| \le 3 ||f||$ , so dominated convergence theorem implies

$$\int_X \|f - \varphi_n\| \ d\mu \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ . By definition, f is now integrable. Moreover,

$$\int_X f \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \varphi_n \ d\mu.$$

It follows then from the dominated convergence theorem that

$$\left\| \int_X f \ d\mu \right\| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left\| \int_X \varphi_n \ d\mu \right\| \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \|\varphi_n\| \ d\mu = \int_X \|f\| \ d\mu.$$

**Theorem** (dominated convergence theorem for Bochner). Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space, V a Banach space, and suppose  $f_n: X \to V$ ,  $g_n: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  are  $\mu$ -measurable  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Further suppose  $f: X \to V$  and  $g: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  are such that  $f_n \to f$  a.e. and  $g_n \to g$  a.e. Also, suppose  $g_n, g$  are integrable. Finally suppose  $||f_n|| \leq g_n$  a.e. and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X g_n \ d\mu = \int_X g \ d\mu.$$

Then,  $f_n$ , f are integrable and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \|f_n - f\| \ d\mu = 0,$$

so we also have

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

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*Proof.* Since  $||f_n|| \le g_n$  and  $||f|| \le g$ , we have  $f_n$  and f integrable. Note that  $||f - f_n|| \le g + g_n$  and  $g + g_n \to 2g$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Dominated convergence theorem then implies

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \|f - f_n\| \ d\mu = 0,$$

completing the proof.

**Proposition.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  be a measure space and V a Banach space over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let  $f: X \to V$  integrable. The following holds:

1. If W is a Banach space over F and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ , then  $T \circ f : X \to W$  is integrable and

$$\int_X T \circ f \ d\mu = T \int_X f \ d\mu.$$

2. Suppose  $g: X \to V$  is integrable, then  $\int_X f \ d\mu = \int_X g \ d\mu$  if and only if  $\int_X w \circ f \ d\mu = \int_X w \circ g \ d\mu$  for every  $w \in V^*$ .

*Proof.* 1. Let  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\text{fin}}(X;V)$  such that  $\varphi_n \to f$  a.e. and  $\int_X \|f - \varphi_n\| \ d\mu \to 0$ . Then we have  $T \circ \varphi_n \to T \circ f$  a.e. and

$$\int_X \|T \circ f - T \circ \varphi_n\| \ d\mu \le \|T\| \int_X \|f - \varphi_n\| \ d\mu \to 0.$$

Therefore,  $T \circ f$  is integrable and

$$\int_X T \circ f \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X T \circ \varphi_n \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} T \int_X \varphi_n \ d\mu = T \int_X f \ d\mu.$$

2. Let  $w \in V^*$ , then  $\int_X f \ d\mu = \int_X g \ d\mu$  clearly implies  $\int_X w \circ f \ d\mu = \int_X w \circ g \ d\mu$ . On the other hand, if  $\int_X w \circ f \ d\mu = \int_X w \circ g \ d\mu$  for all  $w \in V^*$ , then

$$w\left[\int_{Y} f \, d\mu - \int_{Y} g \, d\mu\right] = 0$$

for all  $w \in V^*$ . By Hahn-Banach theorem, this implies  $\int_X f \ d\mu = \int_X g \ d\mu$ .

### 3.5 Constructing product measures

**Definition** (Pre-measure). Let X be a set and  $\mathfrak A$  be an algebra on X. A map  $\gamma:\mathfrak A\to [0,\infty]$  is a **pre-measure** if the following is satisfied:

- 1.  $\gamma(\emptyset) = 0$ .
- 2. If  $\{A_i\}_{i=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{A}$  is disjoint and  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathfrak{A}$ , then  $\gamma(\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_i)$ .

**Theorem** (Pre-measure extension theorem). Let X be a set,  $\mathfrak{A}$  is an algebra on X, and  $\gamma$  a pre-measure. Let  $\mu^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  be the outer measure constructed from  $(X, \gamma)$ . Denote  $\mathfrak{M}$  as the the measurable space and  $\mu : \mathfrak{M} \to [0, \infty]$  the corresponding measure. Then the following holds:

- 1.  $\mathfrak{A} \subset \mathfrak{M}$  and  $\mu = \gamma$  on  $\mathfrak{A}$ .
- 2. Suppose  $\mathfrak N$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on X such that  $\mathfrak A \subset \mathfrak N \subset \mathfrak M$ , and  $\nu: \mathfrak N \to [0,\infty]$  is a measure such that  $\nu = \gamma$  on  $\mathfrak A$ . Then  $\nu \leq \mu$  on  $\mathfrak N$  and  $\nu(E) = \mu(E)$  whenever E is  $\sigma$ -finite w.r.t.  $\mu$ .

In particular, if X is " $\gamma$   $\sigma$ -finite", then  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathfrak{N}$ .

*Proof.* First show  $\mu = \gamma$  on  $\mathfrak{A}$ . It suffices to show that  $\mu^* = \gamma$  on  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

For any  $E \in \mathfrak{A}$ , we know E is covered by E, so  $\mu^* \leq \gamma$ . On the other hand, let  $E \subset \mathfrak{A}$  and  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{A}$  be a cover of E. Define  $B_0 = E \cap A_0 \in \mathfrak{A}$  and  $B_k = E \cap (A_k \setminus \bigcup_{i=0}^{k-1} A_k) \in \mathfrak{A}$ . Then  $\{B_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is pairwise disjoint and  $\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} B_k = E$ . It follows that

$$\gamma(E) = \gamma\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} B_k\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(B_k) \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_k).$$

Therefore,  $\mu^* = \gamma$  on  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

Next we show  $\mathfrak{A} \subset \mathfrak{M}$ . Let  $E \in \mathfrak{A}$  be arbitrary and we want to show  $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$  for all  $A \subset X$ . Fix arbitrary  $A \subset X$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Pick  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{A}$  covering A such that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_k) < \mu^*(A) + \varepsilon.$$

It follows that

$$\mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c) \le \mu^* \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k \cap E \right) + \mu^* \left( \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k \cap E^c \right)$$
$$\le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_k \cap E) + \mu^*(A_k \cap E^c)$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_k \cap E) + \gamma(A_k \cap E^c)$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_k).$$

This implies that E is measurable, completing the proof for the first item.

For the second item, we first show that  $\nu \leq \mu$ . Let  $E \in \mathfrak{N} \subset \mathfrak{M}$  and  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{A}$  that covers E. It follows that

$$\nu(E) \le \nu\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \nu\left(\bigcup_{i=0}^{n} A_i\right).$$

Note that  $\bigcup_{i=0}^n A_i \in \mathfrak{A}$ , so  $\nu\left(\bigcup_{i=0}^n A_i\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=0}^n A_i\right)$ . This implies that

$$\nu(E) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=0}^{n} A_i\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right) \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_k).$$

Therefore,  $\nu \leq \mu$ .

Next we show  $\nu(E) = \mu(E)$  for  $\mu(E) < \infty$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and select  $\{A_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{A}$  covering E such that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_k) < \mu^*(E) + \varepsilon = \mu(E) + \varepsilon.$$

Then,

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right) \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_k) < \mu(E) + \varepsilon.$$

It follows that  $\mu(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k \setminus E) < \varepsilon$  and thus

$$\mu(E) \le \mu\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \nu\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \nu(E) + \nu\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k \setminus E\right) \le \nu(E) + \varepsilon,$$

where for  $\mu(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k) = \nu(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k)$  we used the same limit argument as the previous part.

For the case where E is  $\sigma$ -finite, it follows from a similar argument.

**Theorem** (Product measures). Let  $2 \le n \in \mathbb{N}$  and suppose  $(X_i, \mathfrak{M}_i, \mu_i)$  is measure space for  $1 \le i \le n$ . Let  $X = \prod_i X_i$  and

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ E = \prod_{i} E_i : E_i \in \mathfrak{M}_i \text{ for } 1 \le i \le n \right\}.$$

The following holds:

- 1.  $\mathfrak{A} = \left\{ \bigcup_{k=0}^K A^k : \left\{ A^k \right\}_k \subset \mathcal{E} \text{ and disjoint} \right\}$  is an algebra.
- 2. Suppose  $\{E^k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{E}$  and  $\{F^k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{E}$  are both pairwise disjoint sequences of sets and  $\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E^k = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} F^k$ , then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i(E_i^k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i(F_i^k).$$

3. The map  $\gamma:\mathfrak{A}\to[0,\infty]$  defined by

$$\gamma\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{K}\prod_{i=1}^{n}E_{i}^{k}\right)=\sum_{k=0}^{K}\prod_{i=1}^{n}\mu_{i}(E_{i}^{k})$$

is a well-defined pre-measure.

4. If  $(X_i, \mathfrak{M}_i, \mu_i)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite, then X is  $\gamma$   $\sigma$ -finite.

*Proof.* 1. Since  $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{M}_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , we know  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{E}$ . Next let  $E, F \in \mathcal{E}$  be such that  $E = \prod_{i=1}^n E_i$  and  $F = \prod_{i=1}^n F_i$ . Then,

$$E \cap F = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (E_i \cap F_i) \in \mathcal{E}.$$

Similarly,

$$E^{c} = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^{n} \left( E_{i}^{c} \times \prod_{j \neq i} E_{j} \right) \in \mathcal{E}.$$

This shows that  $\mathfrak A$  is an algebra.

2. Suppose  $\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E^k = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} F^k$ , then we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \chi_{E_{i}^{k}}(x_{i}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \chi_{F_{i}^{k}}(x_{i})$$

for all  $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in X$ . Now fix  $(x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ , we then have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \chi_{E_1^k}(x_1) \alpha_1^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \chi_{F_1^k}(x_1) \beta_1^k,$$

where  $\alpha_1^k = \prod_{i=2}^n \chi_{E_i^k}(x_i)$  and  $\beta_1^k = \prod_{i=2}^n \chi_{F_i^k}(x_i)$ . Using the monotone convergence theorem and integrate both sides, we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu_1(E_1) \alpha_1^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu_1(F_1) \beta_1^k.$$

Iterate this argument gives the desired equality.

3. Suppose  $\{A_i\}_{i=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{A}$  disjoint such that  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathfrak{A}$ . By construction, there exists sequence  $\{F^j\}_{j=0}^{J} \subset \mathfrak{A}$  with  $J < \infty$  such that  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{j=0}^{J} F_j$ . Also,  $A_i \in \mathfrak{A}$  for each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , so  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E^k$  where  $\{E^k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{E}$  disjoint. It follows that

$$\gamma \left( \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i \right) = \gamma \left( \bigcup_{j=0}^{J} F^j \right) = \sum_{j=0}^{J} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i(F_i^j) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i(E_i^k),$$

where the last equality is by item 2. However,

$$\gamma\left(\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i(E_i^k) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \gamma(A_i).$$

This shows that  $\gamma$  is a pre-measure.

4. For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , there exists  $\{S_i\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset \mathfrak{M}_i$  such that  $S_i^k \subset S_i^{k+1}$ ,  $\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} S_i^k = X_i$ , and  $\mu_i(S_i^k) < \infty$ . Consider  $\{A^k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  where  $A^k = \prod_{i=1}^n S_i^k$ . Note that

$$X = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k$$
 and  $\gamma(A^k) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i\left(S_i^k\right) < \infty$ .

This completes the proof.

**Corollary.** Suppose that  $\{(X_i, \mathfrak{M}_i, \mu_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  be a sequence of  $\sigma$ -finite measure space. Let  $X = \prod_{i=1}^n X_i$  be endowed with the product  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{M}_i$ . Let  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $\gamma : \mathfrak{A} \to [0, \infty]$  be the algebra and pre-measure from the previous theorem. Then, there exists a unique measure  $\nu : \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{M}_i \to [0, \infty]$  such that  $\nu = \gamma$  on  $\mathfrak{A}$ . Moreover,  $\nu$  is  $\sigma$ -finite.

*Proof.* Use the previous theorem and extend the pre-measure.

# 3.6 Area formula and change of variable formula

#### 3.6.1 Area formula

We first need to develop a few facts in linear algebra.

**Proposition.** Let  $V_1, \ldots, V_n, W$  be vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  and  $T \in L(V_1, \ldots, V_n; W)$ . Suppose  $x_i^j \in V_i$  for j = 0, 1 and  $1 \le i \le n$ . Then,

$$\begin{split} T(x_1^0 + x_1^1, \dots, x_n^0 + x_n^1) &= \sum_{\beta \in B(n)} T(x^{\beta(1)}, \dots, x^{\beta(n)}) \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^n \sum_{\beta \in B_m(n)} T(x_1^{\beta(1)}, \dots, x_n^{\beta(n)}), \end{split}$$

where

$$B(n) = \{\beta : \{1, \dots, n\} \to \{0, 1\}\},\$$
  
 $B_m(n) = \{\beta \in B(n) : \sum \beta(k) = m\}.$ 

*Proof.* Induction on  $n \geq 1$ .

**Definition.** 1. For  $1 \le k \le n$  we set

$$A(n,k) = \{(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k) \in \{1, \dots, n\}^k : \alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < a_k\}.$$

We also set  $\mathcal{A}(n,0) = \{0\}.$ 

2. For  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , let  $M \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times k}$ ,  $N \in \mathbb{F}^{k \times n}$ ,  $P \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ . For  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,k)$ , we set  $M_{\alpha}$ ,  $N^{\alpha}$ ,  $P^{\alpha}_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{F}^{k \times k}$ 

$$(M_{\alpha})_{i,j} = M_{\alpha_i,j}, \quad (N_{\alpha})_{i,j} = N_{i,\alpha_j}, \quad (P_{\alpha})_{i,j} = P_{\alpha_i,\alpha_j}.$$

**Theorem.** Let  $M \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$  and  $Z \in \mathbb{F}$ . Then,

$$\det(zI + M) = z^n + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} z^k \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n, n-k)} \det(M_\alpha^\alpha).$$

*Proof.* Fix  $z \in \mathbb{F}$ . Let  $x_i^0 = ze_i \in \mathbb{F}^n$  and  $x_i^1 = M_i \in \mathbb{F}^n$  be the *i*-th column of M. Recall that  $\det \in L^n(\mathbb{F}^n; \mathbb{F})$ . Therefore,

$$\det(zI + M) = \det(x_1^0 + x_1^1, \dots, x_n^0 + x_n^1)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{\beta \in B_k(n)} \det(x_1^{\beta(1)}, \dots, x_n^{\beta(n)})$$

$$= z^n + \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{\beta \in B_k(n)} \det(x_1^{\beta(1)}, \dots, x_n^{\beta(n)}).$$

Now given  $1 \leq k \leq n$  and  $\beta \in B_k(n)$ , we set  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,k)$  to be an increasing enumeration of  $\{1 \leq i \leq n : \beta(i) = 1\}$ . This gives a bijection from  $\mathcal{A}(n,k)$  to  $B_k(n)$ . On the other hand, if  $\beta \in B_k(n)$ , then

$$\det(x_1^{\beta(1)}, \dots, x_n^{\beta(n)}) = z^{n-k} \det(M_\alpha^\alpha),$$

for the  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,k)$  that corresponds to the  $\beta \in B_k(n)$ . This completes the proof.

**Theorem.** Let  $1 \leq n \leq m$ ,  $A \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$ ,  $B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times m}$ . The following holds:

- 1. (Sylvester's formula)  $det(I_m + AB) = det(I_n + BA)$ .
- 2. (Cauchy-Binet formula)  $\det(BA) = \sum_{\alpha \in A(m,n)} \det A_{\alpha} \det B^{\alpha}$ .

In particular, if  $A^* \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times m}$  given by  $A_{ij}^* = \overline{A_{ji}}$ , then  $\det(A^*A) = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(m,n)} |\det A_{\alpha}|^2$ .

Proof. 1. We have

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_m & A \\ 0_{n\times m} & I_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_m & -A \\ B & I_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_m + AB & 0_{m\times n} \\ B & I_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_m & -A \\ B & I_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_m & A \\ 0_{n \times m} & I_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_m & 0_{m \times n} \\ B & I_n + BA \end{bmatrix}.$$

It follows that  $det(I_m + AB) = det(I_n + BA)$ .

2. Fix  $z \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\}$ . Then,

$$z^{-m} \det(zI_m + AB) = \det(I_m + z^{-1}AB)$$
  
=  $\det(I_n + B(z^{-1}A))$   
=  $z^{-n} \det(zI_n + BA)$ .

It follows that  $z^n \det(I_m + AB) = z^m \det(I_n + BA)$ . By our previous propositions, we have

$$z^{n+m} + \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} z^{k+n} \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(m,m-k)} \det(AB)^{\alpha}_{\alpha} = z^{n+m} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} z^{k+m} \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,n-k)} \det(BA)^{\alpha}_{\alpha}.$$

Consider the coefficients of degree m, we obtain

$$\sum_{\alpha \in A(n,n)} \det(BA)_{\alpha}^{\alpha} = \sum_{\alpha \in A(m,n)} \det(AB)_{\alpha}^{\alpha}.$$

Note that LHS = det BA and  $(AB)^{\alpha}_{\alpha} = A_{\alpha}B^{\alpha}$ . This completes the proof.

**Definition** (Jacobian map). Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set and  $f \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$  with  $n \leq m$ . Define the **Jacobian map**  $J_f \in C^0(U; [0, \infty))$  by

$$J_f = \llbracket Df \rrbracket = \sqrt{\det(Df)^T Df}.$$

**Lemma.** Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$  for some  $n \leq m$ . Suppose  $z \in U$  is such that Df(z) is injective. Then for  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ , there exists  $B(z, r) \subset U$  such that

- 1.  $f|_{B(z,r)}$  is a Lipschitz injection.
- 2. If  $E \subset B(z,r)$  is Lebesgue measurable, then  $f(E) \in \mathfrak{H}^n(\mathbb{R}^m)$  and

$$(1-\varepsilon)^{n+1}\int_E J_f \ d\lambda \le \mathcal{H}^n(f(E)) \le (1+\varepsilon)^{n+1}\int_E J_f \ d\lambda.$$

*Proof.* Define the following M = Df(z),  $L \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^n)$  such that  $LM = I_n$ , and  $g = f \circ L$ , so  $f = g \circ M$ .

Let  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$  and pick r > 0 such that

$$(1 - \varepsilon) \|M(x - y)\| \le \|f(x) - f(y)\| \le (1 + \varepsilon) \|M(y - x)\|$$
 (A)

for all  $x, y \in B(z, r)$  and

$$(1+\varepsilon)^{-1}J_f(z) \le J_f(x) \le (1-\varepsilon)^{-1}J_f(z)$$
(B)

for all  $x \in B(z,r)$ . Note that

$$\mathcal{H}^n(ME) = J_f(z)\lambda(E).$$

Since ML is the identity on range M, equation (A) gives  $[g] \le 1 + \varepsilon$  and  $[M \circ f^{-1}] \le (1 - \varepsilon)^{-1}$ . It follows that

$$\mathcal{H}^n(f(E)) = \mathcal{H}^n(g(ME)) \le (1+\varepsilon)^n \mathcal{H}^n(ME) = (1+\varepsilon)^n J_f(z)\lambda(E).$$

Also,

$$J_f(z)\lambda(E) = \mathcal{H}^n(ME) = \mathcal{H}^n(M \circ f^{-1}(f(E))) \le (1 - \varepsilon)^{-n}\mathcal{H}^n(f(E)).$$

Now, equation (B) gives

$$J_f(z)\lambda(E) = \int_E J_f(z) \ d\lambda \le (1+\varepsilon) \int_E J_f \ d\lambda$$

and

$$J_f(z)\lambda(E) = \int_E J_f(z) \ d\lambda \ge (1 - \varepsilon) \int_E J_f \ d\lambda.$$

This completes the proof.

**Definition.** Let X be a set equipped with counting measure  $\mathcal{H}^0 : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$ . Let Y be a set and  $f: X \to Y$ . For any  $E \subset X$ , define  $\mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E): Y \to [0, \infty]$  by

$$\mathcal{N}_f(y, E) = \mathcal{H}^0(E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})) = \mathcal{H}^0(\{x \in E : f(x) = y\}).$$

**Theorem.** Let  $F \in F_{\sigma}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $f : F \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be locally Lipschitz with  $n \leq m$ . If  $E \subset F$  is Lebesgue measurable, then  $\mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E) : \mathbb{R}^m \to [0, \infty]$  is  $\mathfrak{H}^n(\mathbb{R}^m)$  measurable.

Proof. Homework.

**Lemma.** Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$  for  $n \leq m$ . Suppose Df(x) is injective for all  $x \in V$ . Then for all  $E \subset U$  Lebesgue measurable, and

$$\int_{E} J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E) \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

*Proof.* Let  $E \subset U$  be Lebesgue measurable and  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ . Using the previous lemma, we can pick  $\{B(x_k, r_k)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  such that  $B(x_k, r_k) \subset U$ ,  $f: B(x_k, r_k) \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is Lipschitz injection,  $E \subset \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} B(x_k, r_k)$ , and

$$(1-\varepsilon)^{n+1}\int_F J_f \ d\lambda \le \mathcal{H}^n(f(F)) \le (1+\varepsilon)^{n+1}\int_F J_f \ d\lambda$$

for all  $F \subset B(x_k, r_k)$ .

Let  $E_0 = E \cap B(x_0, r_0)$  and for k > 0 let  $E_k = E \cap B(x_k, r_k) \setminus \bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} B(x_j, r_j)$ . Then  $E = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k$ . Applying the inequality, we obtain

$$(1-\varepsilon)^{n+1} \int_{E_k} J_f \ d\lambda \le \mathcal{H}^n(f(E_k)) \le (1+\varepsilon)^{n+1} \int_{E_k} J_f \ d\lambda.$$

However, since f is injective when restricted to  $E_k$ , we have

$$\mathcal{H}^n(f(E_k)) = \int_{f(E_k)} 1 \ d\mathcal{H}^n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E_k) \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

Summing the inequalities, we can then obtain from monotone convergence theorem that

$$(1-\varepsilon)^{n+1} \int_E J_f \ d\lambda \le \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E_k) \ d\mathcal{H}^n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E) \ d\mathcal{H}^n \le (1+\varepsilon)^{n+1} \int_E J_f \ d\lambda.$$

Since this holds for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have

$$\int_{E} J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E) \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

**Theorem** (Sard's theorem, special case). Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$  for  $n \leq m$ . Then the set

$$Z = \{ x \in U : J_f(x) = 0 \}$$

is Lebesgue measurable and  $f(Z) \in \mathfrak{H}^n(\mathbb{R}^m)$  and  $\mathcal{H}^n(f(Z)) = 0$ .

*Proof.* Note that Z is relatively closed, so it is Lebesgue measurable. It then suffices to show that the outer measure  $\mathcal{H}^n(f(Z)) = 0$ .

Write  $U = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} Q_k$  where  $\{Q_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is a sequence of almost disjoint cubes. It suffices to show  $\mathcal{H}^n(f(Z_k)) = 0$ , where  $Z_k = Z \cap Q_k$ . Let  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$  and let  $f_{\varepsilon} \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^{m+n})$  by  $f_{\varepsilon}(x) = (f(x), \varepsilon x)$ . Then  $f_{\varepsilon}$  is injective, and

$$Df(x) = \begin{bmatrix} Df(x) \\ \varepsilon I_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+n) \times n},$$

which is also injective for each  $x \in U$ . Also,

$$(Df_{\varepsilon})^T Df_{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} Df^T & \varepsilon I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Df \\ \varepsilon I \end{bmatrix} = (Df)^T Df + \varepsilon^2 I.$$

It follows that

$$J_{f_{\varepsilon}}^{2} = \det((Df_{\varepsilon})^{T}Df_{\varepsilon})$$

$$= \det(\varepsilon^{2}I + (Df)^{T}Df)$$

$$= \varepsilon^{2n} + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \varepsilon^{2j} \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,n-j)} \det((Df)^{T}Df)_{\alpha}^{\alpha}$$

$$= \det(Df)^{T}Df + \varepsilon^{2n} + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \varepsilon^{2j} \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,n-j)} \det((Df)^{T}Df)_{\alpha}^{\alpha}$$

$$\leq J_{f}^{2} + \varepsilon^{2} \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,n-j)} \det((Df)^{T}Df)_{\alpha}^{\alpha}\right).$$

Therefore, for  $x \in Q_k$ , we have  $J_{f_{\varepsilon}}^2(x) \leq J_f^2(x) + \varepsilon^2 C_k$  for a constant  $C_k > 0$  depending only on f and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $x \in Z_k$ , then  $x \in Q_k \cap Z$ , so  $J_{f_{\varepsilon}}(x) \leq \varepsilon \sqrt{C_k}$ . Note that  $f_{\varepsilon}$  is injective and  $Df_{\varepsilon}(x)$  are injective for all  $x \in Z_k$ , the previous lemma gives

$$\mathcal{H}^n(f_{\varepsilon}(Z_k)) = \int_{Z_k} J_{f_{\varepsilon}} d\lambda \le \varepsilon \sqrt{C_k} \lambda(Q_k),$$

but  $f(Z_k) = \pi_m(f_{\varepsilon}(Z_k))$  where  $\pi_m$  is the projection map. Therefore,

$$\mathcal{H}^n(f(Z_k)) \le \mathcal{H}^n(f_{\varepsilon}(Z_k)) \le \varepsilon \sqrt{C_k} \lambda(Q_k).$$

This then implies that  $\mathcal{H}^n(f(Z_k)) = 0$ .

**Theorem** ( $C^1$  area formula). Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$  for  $n \leq m$ . If  $E \subset U$  is Lebesgue measurable, then

$$\int_{E} J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E) \ d\mathcal{H}^n = \int_{f(E)} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E) \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

In particular, if f is injective, then

$$\mathcal{H}^n(f(E)) = \int_E J_f \ d\lambda.$$

*Proof.* Let  $Z = \{J_f = 0\}$ , which is closed in U. Therefore,  $V = U \setminus Z$  is open. Note that  $J_f(x) \neq 0$  implies Df(x) injective. Then, previous lemma implies

$$\int_{V \cap E} J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E \cap V) \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

On the other hand,

$$\int_{E\cap Z} J_f \ d\lambda = 0 = \int_{f(E\cap Z)} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E\cap Z) \ d\mathcal{H}^n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E\cap Z) \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

Adding the equality together gives

$$\int_{E} J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E) \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

#### 3.6.2 Change of variable

**Theorem** (change of variable, non-injective form). Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$  with  $n \leq m$ . Let  $E \subset U$  be measurable. Then the following holds:

1. Suppose  $g: E \to [0, \infty]$  is  $\lambda$ -measurable. Then the map

$$\mathbb{R}^m \ni y \mapsto \int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} g \, d\mathcal{H}^0 \in [0, \infty] \tag{*}$$

is  $\mathcal{H}^n$ -measurable, and

$$\int_{E} g J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} g \ d\mathcal{H}^0 \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

In particular,  $gJ_f$  is  $\lambda$ -integrable if and only if the map (\*) is  $\mathcal{H}^n$ -integrable.

2. Let  $Y \in \{V, \overline{\mathbb{R}}\}$  with V a Banach space. Suppose  $g : E \to Y$  is  $\lambda$ -measurable and  $gJ_f$  is  $\lambda$ -integrable. Then for  $\mathcal{H}^n$ -a.e.  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , the restriction  $g : E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\}) \to Y$  is  $\mathcal{H}^0$ -integrable. Moreover, the now Y valued map (\*) is  $\mathcal{H}^n$ -integrable and

$$\int_{E} gJ_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} g \ d\mathcal{H}^0 \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

**Example.** As an example, say  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: V \to f(V) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a diffeomorphism. Then

$$J_f = \sqrt{\det(Df)^T Df} = |\det Df|$$

and

$$\int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} g \ d\mathcal{H}^0 = g \circ f^{-1}(y).$$

The theorem then gives

$$\int_E g \left| \det Df \right| \ d\lambda = \int_{f(E)} g \circ f^{-1} \ d\lambda.$$

This is the usual change of variable formula we encountered before in calculus.

Proof sketch. 1. We first prove the theorem assuming  $g: E \to [0, \infty]$  is Lebesgue measurable. Let  $\{\varphi_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of simple functions such that  $\varphi_k \to g$  pointwise as  $k \to \infty$ . WLOG also assume  $\varphi_k \le \varphi_{k+1}$ . Let

$$\varphi_k = \sum_{j=0}^{J_k} \varphi_{k,j} \chi_{E_{k,j}}$$

be the canonical representation of  $\varphi_k$ .

For  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , we compute

$$\int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} \varphi_k \ d\mathcal{H}^0 = \sum_j \varphi_{k,j} \mathcal{H}^0(E_{k,j} \cap f^{-1}(\{y\}))$$
$$= \sum_j \varphi_{k,j} \mathcal{N}_f(y, E_{k,j})$$

Therefore, the map

$$y \mapsto I_k := \int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} \varphi_k \ d\mathcal{H}^0$$

is  $\mathfrak{H}^n(\mathbb{R}^m)$  measurable. Note that  $\varphi_k \leq \varphi_{k+1}$ , so  $I_k \leq I_{k+1}$ . Monotone convergence theorem then implies that the map

$$y \mapsto I := \int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} g \ d\mathcal{H}^0$$

is  $\mathfrak{H}^n(\mathbb{R}^m)$  measurable and  $I = \lim_{k \to \infty} I_k$ 

On the other hand,

$$\begin{split} \int_E \varphi_k J_f \ d\lambda &= \sum_j \varphi_{k,j} \int_{E_{k,j}} J_f \ d\lambda \\ &= \sum_j \varphi_{k,j} \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{N}_f(\cdot, E_{k,j}) \ d\mathcal{H}^n \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} \varphi_k \ d\mathcal{H}^0 \ d\mathcal{H}^n(y). \end{split}$$

Using monotone convergence theorem again, we obtain

$$\int_{E} g J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \int_{E \cap f^{-1}(\{y\})} g \ d\mathcal{H}^0 \ d\mathcal{H}^n(y).$$

Therefore, item 1 is proved in the special case. The general case follows by considering null sets and using the more general convergence theorems.

2. To promote from  $Y = [0, \infty]$  to  $Y = \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  by splitting  $g = g^+ - g^-$  and applying item 1 to  $g^{\pm}$ . Then promote to  $Y = \mathbb{C}$  by splitting  $g = \operatorname{Re} g + i \operatorname{Im} g$ . Finally, promote to V a Banach space over  $\mathbb{F}$  as follows: let  $w \in V^*$  and consider  $w \circ g : E \to \mathbb{F}$ . Then show

$$\int w \circ g J_f \ d\lambda = \iint w \circ g \ d\mathcal{H}^0 \ d\mathcal{H}^n$$

for all  $w \in V^*$ . This will then give the desired result.

**Theorem** (change of variable, local injective form). Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f \in C^1(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$  for  $n \leq m$ . Suppose  $E \subset U$  is Lebesgue measurable such that  $E^{\circ} \neq \emptyset$  and  $\lambda(\partial E \cap U) = \lambda(Z \cap E) = 0$  where  $Z = \{J_f = 0\}$ . Further suppose the restriction  $f : E^{\circ} \to f(E^{\circ})$  is injective. Finally let  $g : f(E) \to Y$ , where  $Y \in \{V, \overline{\mathbb{R}}\}$  with V a Banach space. Then the following holds:

- 1.  $f(E) \in \mathfrak{H}^n(\mathbb{R}^m)$ .
- 2. g is  $\mathcal{H}^n$ -measurable if and only if  $g \circ f$  is  $\lambda$ -measurable.
- 3. g is  $\mathcal{H}^n$ -integrable on f(E) if and only if  $g \circ fJ_f$  is  $\lambda$ -integrable on E. In either case,

$$\int_{E} g \circ f J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{f(E)} g \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

*Proof sketch.* Apply the previous theorem to see that

$$\int_{E^{\circ}} g \circ f J_f \ d\lambda = \int_{f(E^{\circ})} g \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

However,

$$\int_{\partial E \cap E} g \circ f J_f \ d\lambda = 0 = \int_{f(\partial E \cap E)} g \ d\mathcal{H}^n.$$

**Example.** Let  $E = [0, \infty) \times [0, 2\pi] \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Let  $\rho : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  via

$$\rho(r,\theta) = (r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta).$$

Then  $\rho$  is a smooth function. Note

$$E^{\circ} = (0, \infty) \times (0, 2\pi)$$

and the restriction  $\rho: E^{\circ} \to \rho(E^{\circ})$  is injective. Additionally,

$$\partial E = (\{0\} \times [0, 2\pi]) \cup ([0, \infty) \times \{0\}) \cup ([0, \infty) \times \{2\pi\})$$

is null. We also know that  $|\det D\rho(r,\theta)| = r$ , so  $Z = \{J_{\rho} = 0\}$  is null.

Note that  $\rho(E^{\circ}) = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus N$  where N is null. Then,  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to V$  is integrable if and only if  $f \circ \rho : E^{\circ} \to V$  is integrable, and in either case,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f \, d\lambda = \int_{E^{\circ}} f \circ \rho J_{\rho} \, d\lambda$$
$$= \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) r \, d\theta \, dr$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) r \, dr \, d\theta.$$

**Example.** Let  $E = [0, \infty) \times [0, 2\pi] \times [0, \pi] \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $\zeta : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$  via

$$\zeta(r, \theta, \varphi) = (r \cos \theta \sin \varphi, r \sin \theta \sin \varphi, r \cos \varphi).$$

This is 3D spherical coordinates. Similar to the previous example,  $\zeta: E^{\circ} \to \zeta(E^{\circ})$  is injective and  $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \zeta(E^{\circ})$  is null. In addition,

$$J_{\zeta}(r,\theta,\varphi) = |\det D\zeta(r,\theta,\varphi)| = r^2 \sin \varphi.$$

Then for  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to V$  we have f is integrable if and only if  $f \circ \zeta: E^{\circ} \to V$  is integrable, and in either case,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} f \, d\lambda = \int_{E^{\circ}} f \circ \zeta J_{\zeta} \, d\lambda$$
$$= \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} f \circ \zeta(r, \theta, \varphi) r^2 \sin \varphi \, d\varphi \, d\theta \, dr.$$

**Example** (Hyperspherical coordinates). Let  $n \geq 3$  and  $E = [0, \infty) \times [0, 2\pi] \times [0, \pi]^{n-2} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\Psi: E \to \mathbb{R}^n$  via

$$\begin{split} \Psi_n &= r \cos(\varphi_{n-2}) \\ \Psi_{n-1} &= r \sin(\varphi_{n-2}) \cos(\varphi_{n-3}) \\ & \cdots \\ \Psi_3 &= r \sin(\varphi_{n-2}) \sin(\varphi_{n-3}) \cdots \sin(\varphi_2) \cos(\varphi_1) \\ \Psi_2 &= r \sin(\varphi_{n-2}) \sin(\varphi_{n-3}) \cdots \sin(\varphi_2) \sin(\varphi_1) \sin(\theta) \\ \Psi_1 &= r \sin(\varphi_{n-2}) \sin(\varphi_{n-3}) \cdots \sin(\varphi_2) \sin(\varphi_1) \cos(\theta) \end{split}$$

An induction argument shows that

$$\det D\Psi = r^{n-1} \sin(\varphi_1) \sin^2(\varphi_2) \dots \sin^{n-2}(\varphi_{n-2}) \ge 0.$$

Then for  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to V$  we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f \ d\lambda = \int_E f \circ \Psi J_{\Psi}$$

#### 3.7 Spaces of integrable functions

In this subsection,  $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$  will denote a measure space and V will denote a Banach space.

**Definition.** 1. For  $\mu$ -measurable f, for  $1 \le p < \infty$  define  $||p||_{\infty}$  via

$$||f||_p = \left[ \int_X ||f||^p \ d\mu \right]^{\frac{1}{p}},$$

and for  $p = \infty$  define  $||f||_{\infty}$  via

$$||f||_{\infty} = \inf \{ s \in [0, \infty] : f \le s \text{ a.e.} \}.$$

2. Define

$$\operatorname{Leb}_{\mu}^{p}(X;V) = \{f: X \to V, f \text{ is } \mu\text{-measurable and } \|f\|_{p} < \infty\}$$

to be the set of p-integrable functions.

**Example.** 1. If  $X \in \{\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}\}$  with  $\mu$  being the counting measure, then  $\ell^p(X; V) = \operatorname{Leb}_{\mu}^p(X; V)$ .

2. For all  $p \in [1, \infty]$ , we have  $S_{\text{fin}}(X; V) \subset \text{Leb}^p_{\mu}(X; V)$ .

**Theorem** (Hölder's inequalities). Suppose  $p, q, r \in [1, \infty]$  satisfy  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{r}$ , then the following holds:

1. If  $f \in \text{Leb}_{\mu}^{p}(X; \mathbb{F}), g \in \text{Leb}_{\mu}^{q}(X; \mathbb{F}), \text{ then } fg \in \text{Leb}_{\mu}^{r}(X; \mathbb{F}) \text{ and }$ 

$$||fg||_r \le ||f||_p ||g||_q$$
.

In particular, if r = 1, then

$$\int_{X} \left| fg \right| \ d\mu \leq \left\| f \right\|_{p} \left\| g \right\|_{q}.$$

2. If  $V_1, V_2, W$  are Banach spaces and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V_1, V_2; W)$  then

$$||T(f,g)|| \le ||T||_{\mathcal{L}} ||f||_{p} ||g||_{q}.$$

**Theorem** (Minkowski's inequalities). Let  $p \in [1, \infty]$  and  $f, g \in Leb^p_\mu(X; V)$ , then

$$||f+g||_p \le ||f||_p + ||g||_p$$
.

Corollary. Leb<sub> $\mu$ </sub><sup>p</sup>(X;V) is a vector space for  $p \in [1,\infty]$ , and  $\|\cdot\|_p$  is a semi-norm. Also,  $\|f\|_p = 0$  if and only if f = 0 a.e.

**Theorem.** Let  $f \in \operatorname{Leb}_{\mu}^{p}(X; V)$ . For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\varphi \in S_{\operatorname{fin}}(X; V) \subset \operatorname{Leb}_{\mu}^{p}(X; V)$  such that  $\|\varphi - f\|_{p} < \varepsilon$ .

Proof sketch. By Pettis theorem, we can select  $\{\psi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S(X;V)$  such that  $\|\psi_n\| \leq 2 \|f\|$  on X and  $\psi_n \to f$  a.e. We then have  $\|\psi_n\|^p \leq 2^p \|f\|$ , so  $\psi_n \in S_{fin}(X;V)$ . Note that  $\|\psi_n - f\| \leq 3 \|f\|$  on X. Dominated convergence theorem then implies

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \|\psi_n - f\| \ d\mu = \int_X \lim_{n \to \infty} \|\psi_n - f\| \ d\mu = 0.$$

Next we define  $L^p$  soace by taking the quotient of  $\operatorname{Leb}_{\mu}^p(X;V)$  under equivalence relation  $\sim$ , where  $f \sim g$  if f = g a.e. Once we show  $L^p(X;V)$  is complete and  $S_{\operatorname{fin}}(X;V)$  is dense in  $L^p(X;V)$ , we will know the completion of  $S_{\operatorname{fin}}(X;V)$  is  $L^p(X;V)$ .

**Definition** ( $L^p$  spaces). For  $f, g \in \text{Leb}^p_\mu$ , let  $f \sim g$  if f = g a.e. Then  $\sim$  is a equivalence relation. Let [f] be the equivalence class of f. Define

$$L_{\mu}^{p}(X;V) = \{ [f] : f \in Leb_{\mu}^{p}(X;V) \}$$

with  $\alpha[f] = [\alpha f]$ , [f] + [g] = [f + g], and  $||[f]||_{L^p} = ||f||_p$ . Then it is easy to see that all the operations are well-defined and  $L^p_\mu$  is a vector space.

**Theorem** (Riesz-Fisher).  $L^p_{\mu}(X;V)$  is a Banach space for  $p \in [1,\infty]$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\{f_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \in L^p$  such that  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|f_k\|_p < \infty$ . We want to show  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k$  converges in  $L^p$ .

First suppose  $p < \infty$ . Let

$$g_m = \sum_{k=0}^{m} ||f_k||_V \in L^p(X; \mathbb{F}).$$

Then, there exists  $S \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$||g_m||_{L^p} \le \sum_{k=0}^m |||f_k||_V||_p = \sum_{k=0}^m ||f_k||_p < S.$$

for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . It follows that

$$\int_X |g_m|^p \ d\mu \le S^p.$$

Let  $g = \lim_{m \to \infty} g_m$ . Then  $g(x) \neq \infty$  a.e. and by monotone convergence theorem, we have

$$\int_X |g|^p \ d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} |g_m|^p \ d\mu \le S^p.$$

Define  $F: X \to V$  in the following way:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } g(x) = \infty, \\ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(x) & \text{if } g(x) \neq \infty. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\|F - \sum_{k=0}^m f_k\|_V^p \le g^p$  a.e. and  $\lim_{m\to\infty} \|F - \sum_{k=0}^m f_k\| = 0$  a.e. It then follows that

$$\lim_{m \to \infty} \left\| F - \sum_{k=0}^{m} f_k \right\|_{L^p} = \lim_{m \to \infty} \int_X \left\| F - \sum_{k=0}^{m} f_k \right\|_V^p d\mu = 0,$$

where the last equality is by dominated convergence theorem.

# 4 Manifolds in $\mathbb{R}^n$ , differential forms, Stokes-Cartan theorem

We know from the area formula that we can integrate on certain m-dimensional subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  ( $m \leq n$ ). We also know through the fundamental theorem of calculus that there exists a beautiful and useful connection between integral and differential calculus in 1D. The goal is then to develop some form of differential calculus on sets we can integrate over in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and to generalize FTC.

There are a few caveats:

- 1. We will only develop the "extrinsic theory" of manifolds in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This is opposed to the modern "intrinsic" perspective, which does not rely on containment in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . However, there are deep theorems in modern manifold theory (Nash<sup>1</sup>, Whitney) that show "intrinsic if and only if extrinsic"
- 2. A lot of the theory we develop is front-loading for the Stokes-Cartan theorem.
- 3. We are **NOT** doing differential geomtry.
- 4. All of this works with Banach space replacing  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We are working in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to make things easier and avoid some slight subtleties.

# 4.1 Manifolds in $\mathbb{R}^n$

#### 4.1.1 Definitions and basics

**Definition.** Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $1 \le m \le n$  and let  $1 \le k \le \infty$ . Let  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- 1. We say M admits  $C^k$  local m-coordinates at  $z \in M$  if the following holds:
  - (a) There exists a set  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open with  $z \in U$ .
  - (b) There exists  $\emptyset \neq V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  open and **homeomorphism**  $\varphi: V \to \varphi(V) = M \cap U$ .
  - (c)  $\varphi \in C^k(V; \mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $D\varphi(x) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^m; \mathbb{R}^n) \simeq \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  has rank m for all  $x \in V$ .

The triple  $(U, V, \varphi)$  is called a  $C^k$  m-coordinate **chart**.

- 2. We say M is an m-dimensional  $C^k$  manifold if  $M \neq \emptyset$  and M admits local  $C^k$  m-coordinates at each  $z \in M$ . If M is an m-dimensional manifold, we say M is an m-manifold.
- 3. An **atlas** on M is a collection  $\mathcal{A} = \{(U_{\alpha}, V_{\alpha}, \varphi_{\alpha})\}_{\alpha \in A}$  for  $A \neq \emptyset$  some index set such that  $(U_{\alpha}, V_{\alpha}, \varphi_{\alpha})$  is  $C^k$  local m-coordinates for all  $\alpha \in A$  and  $M \subset \bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$ .
- **Remark.** 1. From time to time it is useful to replace  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbb{R}^m$  with generic real normed vector space of dimension n and m respectively. This changes nothing in the definition.
  - 2. The definition fails to define 0-dimensional manifolds. We make the convention that a 0-manifold is a nonempty discrete subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , where by discrete we mean every subset of it is both open and closed. We also consider all 0-manifold to be  $C^{\infty}$ .

**Example.** 1. Let  $\emptyset \subset U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open, then U is a  $C^{\infty}$  n-manifold.

- 2. Let  $w+V=\{w+V:v\in V\}$  for  $w\in\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $V\subset\mathbb{R}^n$  a subset of dimension m. Indeed, let  $\{v_1,\ldots,v_m\}\subset V$  be a basis and consider  $\mathbb{R}^m\ni x\mapsto w+\sum_j x_jv_j\in w+V$ .
- 3. Suppose  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a  $C^k$  m-manifold. Suppose  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open and  $M \cap U \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $M \cap U$  is a  $C^k$  m-manifold.
- 4. Suppose  $M_1, M_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  are  $C^k$  m-manifolds. Suppose  $|x y| \ge \varepsilon > 0$  for all  $x \in M_1$  and  $y \in M_2$ . Then  $M_1 \cup M_2$  is a  $C^k$  m-manifold.
- 5. Suppose  $M_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$  and  $M_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$  are  $C^k$   $m_1$ -manifold and  $C^k$   $m_2$ -manifold respectively. Then  $M_1 \times M_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_1+n_2}$  is a  $C^k$   $(m_1+m_2)$ -manifold.

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6. Let  $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \times (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) \to \mathbb{R}^3$  via

$$\varphi(\theta, t) = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta, t).$$

Then the image M is a cylinder in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Note that  $\varphi$  is smooth and  $D\varphi$  has rank 2 everywhere. We can build an atlas on M via  $\mathcal{A} = \{(U_1, V_2, \varphi), (U_2, V_2, \varphi)\}$  for  $V_1 = (0, 2\pi) \times (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  and  $V_2 = (\pi, 3\pi) \times (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ . After we figure out the corresponding  $U_1$  and  $U_2$ , we can see that M is a  $C^{\infty}$  2-manifold

**Theorem.** Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f \in C^k(U; \mathbb{R}^n)$  for  $1 \leq r < n$ . Suppose  $\overline{w} \in f(U)$  and

$$M = \{z \in U : f(z) = \overline{w} \text{ and } Df(z) \text{ had rank } r\} \neq \emptyset.$$

Then M is a  $C^k$  (n-r)-manifold.

*Proof.* Let  $z \in M$ . Then, Df(z) is surjective, so we can apply the right inverse function theorem. This provides open sets  $W \subset \mathbb{R}^r$  and  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^{n-r}$ , and a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism  $F: W \times V \to F(W \times V) \subset U$ , such that f(F(w,v)) = w for all  $(w,v) \in W \times V$  and  $\overline{w} \in W$ . Let  $\varphi: V \to U$  via  $\varphi(v) = F(\overline{w},v)$ . Then

$$f(\varphi(v)) = f(F(\overline{w}, v)) = \overline{w}.$$

Meanwhile, the right inverse function theorem guarantees that  $D\varphi$  has rank n-r everywhere. Therefore,  $\varphi: V \to M \cap U$  is the desired homeomorphism to show that M is a  $C^k$  (n-r)-manifold.

**Example.** 1. Let  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be symmetric with at least one positive eigenvalue. Consider

$$M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Sx \cdot x = 1\} \neq \emptyset.$$

Consider  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  via  $f(x) = Sx \cdot x$ , which is  $C^{\infty}$ . Note that

$$Df(x)h = \nabla f(x) \cdot h = 2Sx \cdot h,$$

and for  $x \in M$ , we have  $Df(x)x = 2 \neq 0$ . Therefore, Df(x) has rank 1 for all  $x \in M$ . The previous theorem then tells us M is a  $C^{\infty}$  (n-1)-manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

- (a) If S = I, then  $M = \{x : |x|^2 = 1\} = S^{n-1}$  is a sphere and it is a  $C^{\infty}$  (n-1)-manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- (b) If  $S = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$  with  $\lambda_i > 0$ , then M is an ellipsoid and it is a  $C^{\infty}$  (n-1)-manifold in
- (c) If  $S = \operatorname{diag}(-\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$  with  $\lambda_i > 0$ , then M is a hyperboloid and it is a  $C^{\infty}$  (n-1)-manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- 2. Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f \in C^k(U; \mathbb{R}^m)$ , and

$$\Gamma(f) = \{ (X, f(x)) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m} : x \in U \}.$$

Let  $F: U \times \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^m$  via F(x,y) = y - f(x). Then  $(x,y) \in \Gamma(f)$  if and only if F(x,y) = 0. However, F is  $C^k$  and DF(x,y)(h,k) = k - Df(x)h. The k term implies that the derivative has rank m. The previous theorem then implies that  $\Gamma(f)$  is a  $C^k$  n-manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+m}$ .

- 3. Note that  $GL(n) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is open and hence a  $C^{\infty}$   $n^2$ -manifold.
- 4. Let  $SL(n) = \{M \in GL(n) : \det M = 1\}$ , then det :  $GL(n) \to \mathbb{R}$  is  $C^{\infty}$  and

$$D\det(M)(N) = (\det M)\operatorname{tr}(M^{-1}N).$$

Therefore, for  $M \in SL(n)$ ,  $D \det(M)M = \operatorname{tr}(M^{-1}M) = n \neq 0$ . This implies that  $D \det(M)$  has rank 1 at each  $M \in SL(n)$ . This then shows that SL(n) is a  $C^{\infty}$   $(n^2 - 1)$ -manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ .

5. The set of orthogonal matrices O(n) is a  $C^{\infty}$   $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ -manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ . Note that

$$O(n) = \{ M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : M^T M = I \}.$$

Consider the map  $f: \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}_{\text{sym}}$  via  $f(M) = M^T M - I$ , which is smooth and

$$Df(M)(N) = M^{T}N + N^{T}M = M^{T}N + (M^{T}N)^{T}.$$

Therefore,  $\ker Df(M) = M^{-T}\mathbb{R}_{\mathrm{asym}}^{n \times n} = M\mathbb{R}_{\mathrm{asym}}^{n \times n}$  and hence  $\dim \ker Df(M) = \dim \mathbb{R}_{\mathrm{asym}}^{n \times n} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ . It follows that

$$\operatorname{rank} Df(M) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \dim \mathbb{R}_{\operatorname{sym}}^{n \times n}.$$

Therefore, O(n) is a  $C^{\infty}$   $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ -manifold.

As a side note,  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = \mathbb{R}_{\text{sym}}^{n \times n} \oplus \mathbb{R}_{\text{asym}}^{n \times n}$  with the column product  $M: N = M_{ij}N_{ij}$  as the inner product.

**Theorem.** Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $1 \leq m \leq n$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq \infty$ . Let  $M \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $z \in M$ , then the following are equivalent:

- 1. M admits  $C^k$  local m-coordinates at z, say  $(U, V, \varphi)$ .
- 2. There exists an open  $W \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $C^k$  diffeomorphism  $F: W \to F(W) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$F(M \cap W) = F(W) \cap \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_l = 0 \text{ for } m+1 \le k \le n\}.$$

In either case,  $\varphi$  and F are related via  $\varphi^{-1} = (F_1, \dots, F_n)$ .

This is in fact the flattening map we encounted in HW. \*\*\* TO-DO \*\*\*

Why is this important? There are two reasons.

1. This unifies the perspective on m-manifolds. We saw

$$M = \{x : f(x) = y \text{ and } Df(x) \text{ had full rank}\}.$$

is a manifold. Locally, this is the only example we need. That is, all manifolds locally are locally a level set of some functions.

2. This theorem is very useful for certain technical points...

\*\*\* TO-DO \*\*\*: add picture for the next theorem

**Theorem.** Suppose  $(U_0, V_0, \varphi_0)$  and  $(U_1, V_1, \varphi_1)$  are  $C^k$  local m-coordinates at  $z \in M$ . Suppose also  $U_0 \cap U_1 \neq \emptyset$  and  $z \in U_0 \cap U_1 \cap M$ . Then the transition map  $\zeta : \varphi_0^{-1}(U_0 \cap U_1 \cap M) \to \varphi_1^{-1}(U_0 \cap U_1 \cap M)$  is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism.

Proof. Both sets are open because  $\varphi_i: V_i \to \varphi_i(V_i) = M \cap U_i$  is homeomorphism for each  $i \in \{0, 1\}$ . Let  $\widetilde{V}_i = \varphi_i^{-1}(U_0 \cap U_1 \cap M)$  for each  $i \in \{0, 1\}$  and fix  $x \in \widetilde{V}_0$ . By the previous theorem, we can find a flattening map  $F: W \to F(W)$  such that F is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism and  $\varphi_1^{-1} = (F_1, \dots, F_m) = \widetilde{F}$ . Therefore,  $\zeta = \varphi_1^{-1} \circ \varphi_0 = \widetilde{F} \circ \varphi_0$  near x. However  $x \in \widetilde{V}_0$  is arbitrary, so  $\zeta$  is a  $C^k$  diffeomorphism.  $\square$ 

# 4.1.2 Tangent spaces

**Lemma.** Suppose  $(U_0, V_0, \varphi_0)$  and  $(U_1, V_1, \varphi_1)$  are  $C^k$  local m-coordinates at  $z \in M$ . Suppose also  $U_0 \cap U_1 \neq \emptyset$  and  $z \in U_0 \cap U_1 \cap M$ . Then the following holds:

- 1.  $D\varphi_0(\varphi_0^{-1}(z)) = D\varphi_1(\varphi_1^{-1}(z))D[\varphi_1^{-1} \circ \varphi_0](\varphi_0^{-1}(z)).$
- 2. range  $D\varphi_0(\varphi_0^{-1}(z)) = \operatorname{range} D\varphi_1(\varphi_1^{-1}(z))$

*Proof.* Let  $a = \varphi_0^{-1}(z)$  and  $b = \varphi_1^{-1}(z)$ , then

$$\varphi_0 = \varphi_1 \circ \varphi_1^{-1} \circ \varphi_0 = \varphi_1 \circ \zeta.$$

It follows that  $D\varphi_0 = [D\varphi_1 \circ \zeta] \circ D\zeta$ , and

$$D\varphi_0(a) = [D\varphi_1 \circ \zeta(a)]D\zeta(a) = [D\varphi_1(b)]D\zeta(a).$$

This proves item 1. However,  $\zeta$  is a diffeomorphism, so

range 
$$D\varphi_0(\varphi_0^{-1}(z)) = \operatorname{range} D\varphi_1(\varphi_1^{-1}(z)).$$

**Definition** (tangent space). Define the **tangent space** to M at z to be  $T_zM = \operatorname{range} D\varphi(\varphi^{-1}(z))$  for any  $C^k$  m-local coordinate chart  $(U, V, \varphi)$ .

**Example.** Let  $(U, V, \varphi)$  be m-coordinates at  $z \in M$  and let  $x = \varphi^{-1}(z)$ . Then,

$$T_z M = \operatorname{range} D\varphi(x) = \operatorname{span}\{D\varphi(x)e_1, \dots, D\varphi(x)e_m\} = \operatorname{span}\{\partial_1\varphi(x), \dots, \partial_m\varphi(x)\}.$$

**Theorem.** Let  $\emptyset \neq U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^r$  be  $C^k$  for  $1 \leq r < n$ . We saw before that if  $z_0 \in U$ , and

$$M = \{z \in U : f(z) = f(z_0) \text{ and } Df(z) \text{ has rank } r\} \neq \emptyset,$$

then M is a  $C^k$  (n-r)-manifold. If  $z \in M$ , then  $T_z M = \ker Df(z)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $(\widetilde{U}, V, \varphi)$  be local coordinate at  $z \in M$ . Then  $f(\varphi(x)) = f(z_0)$  for all  $x \in C$ . Then,

$$0 = Df(\varphi(x))D\varphi(x).$$

Therefore, for  $x_0 \in V$  such that  $\varphi(x_0) = z$ , we have  $0 = Df(z)D\varphi(x_0)$ . This implies that  $T_zM = \operatorname{range} D\varphi(x_0) \subset \ker Df(z)$ . However,

$$\dim \operatorname{range} D\varphi(x_0) = \dim \ker Df(z) = n - r,$$

so 
$$T_z M = \ker Df(z)$$
.

**Example.** 1. Let  $M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Sx \cdot x = 1\}$  for  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}_{sym}$  with at least one positive eigenvalue. Define  $f(x) = Sx \cdot x$ , then  $Df(x)h = 2Sx \cdot h$ . This then implies that

$$T_x M = \{h : Sx \cdot h = 0\}.$$

2. Let  $\Gamma(f) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in U\}$  for  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open. Define F(x, y) = f(x) - y, then DF(x, y)(h, k) = Df(x)h - k. This then implies that

$$T_{(x,f(x))}\Gamma(f) = \{(h, Df(x)h) : h \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$$

3. Recall that  $SL(n) = \{M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \det M = 1\}$ . Define  $f(x) = \det M$ , then  $Df(M)N = \det M \operatorname{tr}(M^{-1}N)$ . This then implies that

$$T_M SL(n) = M \mathbb{R}_{tr-0}^{n \times n},$$

where  $\mathbb{R}_{\text{tr-0}}^{n \times n} = \{ N \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \text{tr } N = 0 \}$ 

4. Let  $O(n) = \{M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : M^T M = I\}$ . Define  $f(M) = M^T M - I$ , then  $Df(M)N = M^T N + N^T M$ . This then implies that

$$T_M O(n) = M \mathbb{R}_{\text{asym}}^{n \times n}$$

#### 4.1.3 Mappings between manifolds

\*\*\* **TO-DO** \*\*\*: add picture

**Lemma.** Suppose  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$  and  $N \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$  are  $C^k$   $m_1$ -manifold and  $m_2$ -manifold respectively. Suppose also that  $f: M \to N$ . Let x be such that  $\varphi_1(x) = z \in U_1 \cap U_2 \cap M$  and  $f(z) \in \widetilde{U_1} \cap \widetilde{U_2} \cap N$ . Then the following holds:

- 1.  $\psi_1^{-1} \circ f \circ \varphi_1$  is differentiable at x if and only if  $\psi_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \varphi_2$  is differentiable at  $\zeta(x)$ . The same holds when differentiable is replaced with  $C^j$  for  $1 \le j \le k$ .
- 2. Given  $v \in T_z M = \text{range } D\varphi_i(\varphi_i^{-1}(z))$ , there exists a unique  $w \in T_{f(z)}N$  such that if for i = 1, 2 we have  $v = D\varphi_i(\varphi_i^{-1})u_i$ , then

$$w = D\psi_i(\psi_i^{-1}(f(z)))D[\psi_i^{-1} \circ f \circ \varphi_i](\varphi_i^{-1}(z))u_i$$

for i = 1, 2.

*Proof.* \*\*\* **TO-DO** \*\*\*

**Definition.** Suppose  $M_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$  and  $M_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$  are  $C^k$   $m_1$ -manifold and  $m_2$ -manifold respectively. Suppose also that  $f: M_1 \to M_2$ .

- 1. We say f is differentiable at  $z \in M$  if  $\psi^{-1} \circ f \circ \varphi$  is differentiable at  $\varphi^{-1}(z)$  for any choice of  $C^k$  local coordinates at z and f(z). We define  $Df(z) \in \mathcal{L}(T_zM_1, T_{f(z)}M_2)$  via  $v \mapsto w$  from the previous lemma.
- 2. We say  $f \in C^j(M_1, M_2)$  for  $1 \le j \le k$  if  $\psi^{-1} \circ f \circ \varphi$  is  $C^j$ .

**Theorem.** Suppose  $M_1$ ,  $M_2$ ,  $M_3$  are nonempty  $C^k$  manifolds. Suppose  $f \in C^k(M_1; M_2)$  and  $g \in C^k(M_2; M_3)$ . Then  $g \circ f \in C^k(M_1; M_3)$  and for each  $z \in M_1$ ,

$$D(g \circ f)(z) = Dg(f(z))Df(z).$$

*Proof.* \*\*\* **TO-DO** \*\*\*

# 4.2 Differential forms

The solution is as follows:

- 1. We want a map f from the domain M and we hope f(z) to interact with  $T_zM$  is a simple manner. Therefore, we require  $f: M \to \mathcal{L}^k(\mathbb{R}^n; \mathbb{R})$ , which we call a "tensor field".
- 2. We want  $f(z) \in \mathcal{L}^k(\mathbb{R}^n; \mathbb{R})$  to interact with the "genuine k-dimensional structure", in the way that  $f(z)(v_1, \ldots, v_k) = 0$  if  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$  are linearly dependent. However, if  $\omega \in \mathcal{L}^k(V; R)$ , then  $\omega(v_1, \ldots, v_k) = 0$  for all linearly dependent  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$  if and only if  $\omega$  is anti-symmetric.

Combining these requirements, we want to study  $f: M \to \Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , where

$$\Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{ \omega \in \mathcal{L}^k(\mathbb{R}^n; \mathbb{R}) : \omega \text{ is anti-symmetric} \}$$

is the set of k-forms.

Some algebra facts follows from the definition.

1. If  $\omega \in \Lambda^k$  and  $\eta \in \Lambda^j$ , then

$$\omega \wedge \eta = \frac{(k+j)!}{k!j!} \mathcal{A}(\omega \otimes \eta) \in \Lambda^{k+j}(\mathbb{R}^n),$$

where A represents the anti-symmetrization. However, this is not quite commutative, as

$$\omega \wedge \eta = (-1)^{jk} \eta \wedge \omega.$$

but it is associative:

$$\omega \wedge (\eta \wedge \theta) = (\omega \wedge \eta) \wedge \theta = \omega \wedge \eta \wedge \theta.$$

2. We have

$$\dim \Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{k} & \text{if } 0 \le k \le n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

and a basis of  $\Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is  $\{e^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e^{i_k} : i_1 < \cdots < i_k\}$  for  $e^i(x) = x_i = e_i \cdot x$ .

Recall that  $\mathcal{A}(n,k) = \{\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k) : 1 \le \alpha_1 < \dots < \alpha_k \le n\}$ . Write

$$e^{\alpha} = e^{\alpha_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e^{\alpha_k}.$$

We also set  $\mathcal{A}(n,k) = \emptyset$  for  $k \geq n+1$ . Therefore, any  $\omega \in \Lambda^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$  can be written as

$$\omega = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}(n,k)} \omega_{\alpha} e^{\alpha}.$$