Mathematical Studies Analysis

Notes taken by Runqiu Ye Carnegie Mellon University

Spring 2025

Contents

1	Adv	vanced topics in metric space theory	3
	1.1	Baire category	3
	1.2	Open mapping theorem	4
	1.3	Hahn-Banach theorem and duality	
2	Diff	erential Calculus	12
	2.1	Inverse and implicit function theorem	12
3	Mea	asure and integration	14
	3.1	Introduction to abstrct measure theory	14
		3.1.1 Basic definitions	
		3.1.2 Measures	
		3.1.3 Outer measures and Carathéodory construction	
		3.1.4 Constructing outer measures	
	3.2	Lebesgue and Hausdorff measure	
	3.3	Measurable and μ -measurable functions	
	3.4	Lebesgue-Bochner Integral	

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 π_1 and π_2 are bounded linear maps. Moreover, π_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, Λ) 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 exsits 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 $\lambda(x) = \operatorname{Re}(l(x))$. 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 λ to $\Lambda: X \to \mathbb{R}$ that agrees with λ 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 norm $\|\lambda\|_{Y^*} = \|\Lambda\|_{X^*}$.

Proof. Consider $p: X \to \mathbb{R}$ where $p(x) = \|\lambda\|_{Y^*} \|x\|$. 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 $w \in X^*$.

Proof. 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 $1 \le k \in \mathbb{N}$, 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 $g \in C_b^k$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Then, \mathfrak{M} is a σ -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_{α} be sets with σ -algebra \mathfrak{M}_{α} 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_{α} be sets with σ -algebra \mathfrak{N}_{α} 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_{α} be sets with σ -algebra \mathfrak{M}_{α} for all $\alpha \in A$. Then on the set $X = \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ we define the **product** σ -algebra $\bigoplus_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ to be the pull-back of projection maps $\pi_{\alpha} : X \to X_{\alpha}$.

Theorem. Let $A \neq \emptyset$ be a set and X_{α} with σ -algebra \mathfrak{M}_{α} 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. $\bigoplus_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{R})$. If A countable then $\sigma(\mathcal{R}) = \bigoplus_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$.

2. Suppose $\mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} = \sigma(\mathcal{E}_{\alpha})$ for all $\alpha \in A$ and let

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

Then $\bigoplus_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} = \sigma(\mathcal{E})$. Moreover, if A is countable and $X_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{E}_{\alpha}$ for all $\alpha \in A$, then $\bigoplus_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha}$ 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 $\bigoplus_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{R})$.

On the other hand, if A is countable, then

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

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

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

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

be the push-forward of $\sigma(\mathcal{E})$ to X_{α} by π_{α} . 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 $\bigoplus_{\alpha} \mathfrak{M}_{\alpha} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{E})$.

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 σ -algebra for i = 1, 2, 3, then

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

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, $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i} \subset \mathfrak{B}_X$. However, if each X_i is separable, then $\mathfrak{B}_X = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i}$.

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

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 $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i}$ is generated by the same set. Therefore, $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{B}_{X_i} = \mathfrak{B}_X$.

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_{σ} and G_{δ} 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 σ -compact, that is, $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} K_n$ for $K_n \subset X$ compact, then each $F \in F_{\sigma}$ is also σ -compact. In particular, all open sets are σ -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 σ -compact. Then,

- 1. If $E \in F_{\sigma}(X)$ and $f: E \to Y$ is continuous, then $f(E) \in F_{\sigma}(Y)$ and σ -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 σ -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}, μ) is a **measure space**.

Definition. We say (X, \mathfrak{M}, μ) is **finite** if $\mu(X) < \infty$. We say (X, \mathfrak{M}, μ) is σ -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}, μ) 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 μ^* . Say a set $E \subset X$ is measurable with respect to μ^* 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 μ^* , the following holds.

- 1. The collection $\mathfrak{M} = \{E \subset X : E \text{ measurable}\}\$ is a σ -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}, μ) is a complete measure space.

Definition (Cover regular). Let μ^* be an outer measure on X. Say μ^* 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 μ^* be an outer measure on X. Then μ^* 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 μ^* . 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 monoton 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}, γ) 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}, γ) 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 μ^* is an outer measure on X and hence generates (X, \mathfrak{M}, μ) , a complete measure space thorugh Carathéodory construction.

Theorem. Let (X, d) be a metric space with gauge (\mathcal{E}, γ) 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 μ_d^* is a metric outer measure. Moreover, $\mu_d^*(A) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \mu_\delta^*(A)$ for $A \subset X$.

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

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

- 1. Let μ^* be the outer measure generated by (\mathcal{E}, γ) . 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 μ_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},γ) such that all sets in \mathcal{E} are open. Assume that μ^* is a metric outer measure on X such that either

- 1. μ^* is generated by (\mathcal{E}, γ) , 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, μ^* 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}, γ) is fine

We have the following observations:

- 1. μ^* 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, μ^* 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_{σ} 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

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

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 μ^* . 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 $G = \bigcap_{j=0}^{\infty} W_j$ where W_j 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 σ -algebra with $\mathfrak{B}(X) \subset \mathfrak{M}$ and suppose $\mu: \mathfrak{M} \to [0, \infty]$ is a measure. Say μ is outer-regular if

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

3.2 Lebesgue and Hausdorff measure

*** TO-DO ***

3.3 Measurable and μ -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, φ_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 $\{f \ge 0\}$ 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 $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

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

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 φ_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^{∞} 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}, μ) 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}, μ) 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 φ_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 ψ 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 μ 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 ψ 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 ψ is finite if and only if the canonical representation is finite if and only if $\mu(\text{supp}(\psi)) < \infty$ where $\text{supp}(\psi) = \{ x \in X : \psi(x) \neq 0 \}$ is the support of ψ .

Definition. Let (X, \mathfrak{M}, μ) 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 μ -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** μ -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 δ_3 . Then, f = g a.e. This shows that equality almost everywhere does not preserve measurablility. The problem is that $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \delta_3)$ is not **complete**.

This brings us to the next theorem.

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

- 1. (X,\mathfrak{M},μ) 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) \Longrightarrow (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) \Longrightarrow (1). Prove the contrapositive. Suppse (X, \mathfrak{M}, μ) 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}, μ) be a complete measurable space, Y a separable metric space, and $f: X \to Y$. Then, f is μ -measurable if and only if f is measurable.

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

- 1. Let $f, g: X \to Y$. If f is μ -measurable and f = g a.e., then g is μ -measurable.
- 2. Suppose Y is a normed vector space or $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$. If $f,g:X\to Y,\,f$ is strongly μ -measurable, f=g a.e., then g is strong μ -measurable.
- Proof. 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}, μ) be a measure space and Y be a normed vector space with $V \neq \{0\}$. Then the following are equivalent:

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

Proof. (1) \Longrightarrow (2). Suppose (X,\mathfrak{M},μ) is σ -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 μ -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 μ -measurable.

- (2) \iff (3). Trivial since strongly μ -measurablility implies μ -measurablility.
- (2) \Longrightarrow (4). Constant function are μ -measurable.
- (4) \Longrightarrow (1). Let $y \in Y \setminus \{0\}$ and define $f: X \to Y$ via f(x) = y. This is strongly μ -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 μ -measurablility of Banach-valued maps.

Theorem (Pettis). Let (X, \mathfrak{M}, μ) 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 μ -measurable.
- 2. f is almost separably valued, and $w \circ f : X \to \mathbb{F}$ is μ -measurable for each $w \in V^*$.
- 3. f is almost separably valued, and $w \circ f : X \to \mathbb{F}$ is μ -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 μ -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 μ -measurable, which means it is almost separably valued. Each $w \in V^*$ is also continuous so $w \circ f$ is μ -measurable.

- (2) \implies (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 μ -measurable and the map $X \ni x \mapsto \langle w_n, f(x) \rangle \in \mathbb{F}$ is also μ -measurable by assumption. It follows that $\Phi_{n,v}$ is μ -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 Φ_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 Φ_{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

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

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

This set is measurable since Φ_{v_m} measurable on N^c for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$. It follows that ψ_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 μ -measurable.

3.4 Lebesgue-Bochner Integral

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

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

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}, μ) 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

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

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

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

Integral of $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ -valued functions

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

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

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

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

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

- 1. In principle we do not need f to be μ -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 μ -measurable, and f almost measurable implies f is μ -measurable.