Mathematical Studies Analysis

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Spring 2025

Contents

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) $\implies$ (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) $\implies$ (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) $\implies$ (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. $\square$

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 $0 \le i \le n$, 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 $0 \le i \le n$, $B[x_{i+1}, \varepsilon_{i+1}] \subset B[x_i, \varepsilon_i]$ for all $0 \le i < n$. 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 $B[x_{n+1}, \varepsilon_{n+1}] \subset B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] \subset B(x, \varepsilon)$. 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. $\square$

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

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

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 $(2) \implies (3)$: 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. $(1) \implies (2)$. Following the hint, for $n \geq 1$ 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, $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n^c = \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n\right)^c = \emptyset$, a contradiction. Therefore, at least one C_n is not nowhere dense. That is, there exists some $n \geq 1$, $\overline{T(B_X(0,n))}$ 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 $B_Y(y_1, 2r) \subset B_Y(y_0, 4r) \subset \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$. 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

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

It follows that

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

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 $B_Y(0, r) \subset \overline{T(B_X(0,1))}$.

$(2) \implies (3)$. 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 $0 \leq j \leq m$ 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

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

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 $\|x\| \leq 2$. 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) $\implies$ (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) $\implies$ (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. $\qquad\square$

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. $\qquad\square$

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 $\|x\|_2 \leq C_1 \|x\|_1$ for all $x \in X$, then there exists a constant $C_0 > 0$ such that $C_0 \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_2 \leq C_1 \|x\|_1$ 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

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

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 $x \in X$

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

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

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) $\implies$ (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) $\implies$ (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. $\qquad\square$

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 $\text{range}(T)$ is closed.

2. $T : X \to \text{range}(T)$ is a linear homeomorphism.

3. There exists $C \geq 0$ such that $\|x\|_X \leq C \|Tx\|_Y$ for all $x \in X$.

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

Proof. $(1) \implies (2)$. If T is injective and $\text{range}(T)$ 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 $\text{range}(T)$. Therefore, T is a linaer homeomorphism.

$(2) \implies (3)$. Since T is a bijective bounded linear map, from X to $\text{range}(T)$. There exists a contant $C \geq 0$ such that for each $y \in \text{range}(T)$ there exists a unique $x \in X$ such that $Tx = y$ and $\|x\| \leq C \|y\| = C \|Tx\|$. Since T is a bijection, $\|x\| \leq C \|Tx\|$ for all $x \in X$.

$(3) \implies (1)$. Let $x \in X$ be such that $Tx = 0$. It follows that $\|x\| \leq C \|Tx\| = 0$. Therefore, $x = 0$ and T is injective. To show that $\text{range}(T)$ 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

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

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

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

and $y_n \to Tx$. Hence, $\text{range}(T)$ is closed and the proof is complete. $\qquad\square$

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 $\|x_0\| \leq 2\alpha \|y_0\|$. Suppose we have selected y_i, x_i for $0 \leq i \leq n$. Set $y_{n+1} = y_n - Sx_n$ and select x_{n+1} be such that $Tx_{n+1} = y_{n+1}$ and $\|x_{n+1}\| \leq 2\alpha \|y_{n+1}\|$. Then, we have

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

and

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

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,

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

This shows that $\|x\| \leq 2C \|Sx\|$ 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

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

$\square$

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 $T_0 S_0 = I_Y$. 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 $I_X + S_0 T \in \mathcal{H}(X)$. For such T, we then have

$$T_0 + T = T_0(I_X + S_0 T).$$

Also,

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

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 $S_0 T_0 = I_X$. Again, for $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;Y)$ with $\|T\| < \|S_0\|^{-1}$, we have

$$T_0 + T = (I_X + T S_0) T_0.$$

and

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

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***

$\square$

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 $l \le p$ on Y. Then there exists linear map $L : X \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $L \le p$ on X and $L = l$ on Y.

Proof. Let

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

Define partial order $(Z_1, \lambda_1) \preceq (Z_2, \lambda_2)$ 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 thta $M = X$.

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

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

This implies that

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

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

$$L(x) - tv \leq p(x - tv_0), \qquad L(x) + tv \leq p(x + tv_0).$$

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.

$\square$

Theorem (Hahn-Banach theorem in $\mathbb{C}$)**.** Let X be complex vector space and suppose $p : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is such that
$$p(\alpha x + \beta y) \leq |\alpha|\, p(x) + |\beta|\, p(y)$$
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 $\lambda(x) = \mathrm{Re}(l(x))$. Note that

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

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

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

as desired.

$\square$

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 theoerm.

$\square$

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).

$\square$

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,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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,

$$\begin{aligned}
(1 - \varepsilon) \|x\| &\leq (1 - 2^{-j}) \|x\| \\
&\leq (1 - 2^{-j}) \|v_n\| + (1 - 2^{-j}) \|v_n - x\| \\
&\leq |\langle w_{n,j}, v_j \rangle| + \varepsilon \\
&\leq |\langle w_{n,j}, x \rangle| + |\langle w_{n,j}, x - v_n \rangle| + \varepsilon \\
&\leq |\langle w_{n,j}, x \rangle| + 2\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}$$

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

$\square$

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. $\text{range}(J) \subset X^{**}$ is a norming set for X^*.

4. X is Banach if and only if $\text{range}(J)$ is closed.

Proof. Note that we have

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

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 isomophic to $\text{range}(J) \subset X^{**}$. Therefore, X is Banach if and only if $\text{range}(J)$ is Banach. However, $X^{**} = \mathcal{L}(X^*, \mathbb{F})$ is Banach, so $\text{range}(J)$ is Banach if and only if $\text{range}(J)$ is closed. This implies (4).

To show (3), note that we have

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

This shows (3), completing the proof.

$\square$

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

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

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

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 $x,y \in B(x,r)$
$$\|f(x) - f(y) - Df(z)(x - y)\| \leq \sup_{w \in B(z,r)} \|Df(w) - Df(z)\| \|x - y\|$$
$$\leq \theta\varepsilon \|x - y\|$$
$$\leq \varepsilon \|Df(z)(x - y)\|.$$

It follows that

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

as desired.

This also implies that

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

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

$\square$

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 $0 \leq r \leq r_0$.

Proof. *** TO-DO ***

$\square$

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 $k \geq 1$, 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

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

for all $x \in V$, and

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

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

2. If $f \in C^k(U; Y)$ for some $1 \leq k \leq \infty$, 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

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

4. If $f \in C^k$ then $g \in C^k$ too for $1 \leq k \leq \infty$. 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 Outer measure and the Carathéodory construction

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

Definition. 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 $\mu^*(A) = \mu(E)$.

3.1.2 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 μ^* 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 $\mu_d^* : P(X) \to [0, \infty]$ 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 $A \subset X$.

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

1. Let μ^* 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 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

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

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

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

as desired. $\qquad \square$

Theorem. Let (X, d) be metric space with $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$ 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 $(\mathcal{E}, \gamma)$, 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, 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 $\mu_d^*(A_n) \geq \mu_\delta^*(A_n)$ 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. 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) $\implies$ (c)" implies "(a) $\implies$ (b)". Suppose $E \in \mathfrak{M}$, then $E^c \in \mathfrak{M}$. By (a) $\implies$ (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

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

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu^*(E \setminus K) &= \mu^*(E) - \mu^*(K) \\
&= \mu^*(G) - \mu^*(F \setminus H) \\
&= \mu^*(G) - \mu^*(F) + \mu^*(F \cap H) \\
&\leq \mu^*(G) - \mu^*(F) + \mu^*(H) \\
&= \mu^*(G \setminus F) + \mu^*(H) \\
&= \mu^*(G \setminus E) \\
&= \mu^*(G) - \mu^*(E) \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
C_{n,m} = \left\{ x \in V_n : \mathrm{dist}(x, V_n^c) \geq 2^{-m} \right\} \subset V_n.
$$

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

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

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

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

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

$\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \square$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu^*(U \setminus E) &= \mu^*(U \setminus G) + \mu^*(G \setminus E) \\
&= \mu^* \left(\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_{n,M(n)} \cap \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n^c \right) \\
&\leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu^*(Z_{n,M(n)} \setminus G_n) \\
&< \varepsilon,
\end{aligned}
$$

as desired.

$\square$

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   Measurable and μ-measurable functions

*** TO-DO ***

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 $E \in \mathfrak{N}$.

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 $\mathbb{R}$ 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 $\{\varphi_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty} \subset S(X; \mathbb{R})$ 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 $f \leq \varphi_{k+1} \leq \varphi_k \leq 0$.
- If f is actually from X to $\mathbb{R}$ and is bounded, then $\varphi_k \to f$ uniformly.

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. $(2) \implies (1)$. 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 $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

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

Define $\varphi_n : Y \to \{y_0^n, \ldots, y_{M(n)}^n\}$ 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}.

$\square$

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) $\implies$ (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) $\implies$ (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.

$\square$

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.

4. We write $S_{\text{fin}}(X; Y) = \{f \in S(X; Y) : f \text{ is finite}\}$. Note 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 $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$ 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 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 theoerm.

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. Suppse $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$ 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. $\qquad \square$

Corollary. Let $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$ 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 $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$ 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 $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \in S_{\text{fin}}(X; Y)$.

$\qquad \square$

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 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) $\implies$ (2). Suppose $(X, \mathfrak{M}, \mu)$ 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) $\implies$ (4). Constant function are μ-measurable.

(4) $\implies$ (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 $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\mathrm{fin}}(X; Y)$ 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. $\qquad\square$

Finally, we present a useful characterization of μ-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 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 replaced by stronly μ-measurablility and $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ replaced by $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset S_{\mathrm{fin}}(X; V)$.

Proof. (1) $\implies$ (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) $\implies$ (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

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

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,

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

We then define $S_n : M \to \{v_0, \ldots, v_n\}$ 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 $\psi_n : N^c \to \{v_0, \ldots, v_n\} \subset V$ via $\psi_n = S_n \circ f$. For $0 \le k \le n$, we compute

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

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, $\|\varphi_n\| \le 2\|f\|$ and $\varphi_n(x) = \psi_n(x) \to f(x)$ as $n \to \infty$ for $x \in N^c$. Therefore, $\varphi_n \to f$ a.e. and thus f is μ-measurable. $\qquad\square$

3.3 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

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

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 $\int_X \cdot \, d\mu : S_{\text{fin}}(X; V) \to V$.

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

$$\left\| \int_X f \, d\mu \right\| \leq \int_X \|f\| \, d\mu.$$

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,

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

   $\square$

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

$$\int_X f \, d\mu \leq \int_X g \, d\mu.$$

Integral 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

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

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

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

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.