Lecture 0: Summary (part 1)

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1 Topology

1.1 Set Theory Basis

• **Definition** Given a set X, the collection of all subsets of X, denoted as 2^X , is defined as

$$2^X := \{E : E \subseteq X\}$$

- Remark The followings are basic operation on 2^X : For $A, B \in 2^X$,
 - 1. *Inclusion*: $A \subseteq B$ if and only if $\forall x \in A, x \in B$.
 - 2. *Union*: $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \lor x \in B\}$.
 - 3. *Intersection*: $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \land x \in B\}$.
 - 4. **Difference**: $A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \land x \notin B\}$.
 - 5. Complement: $A^c = X \setminus A = \{x : x \in X \land x \notin A\}.$
 - 6. Symmetric Difference: $A\Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) = \{x \in X : x \notin A \lor x \notin B\}$.

We have **deMorgan's laws**:

$$\left(\bigcup_{a\in A} U_a\right)^c = \bigcap_{a\in A} U_a^c, \quad \left(\bigcap_{a\in A} U_a\right)^c = \bigcup_{a\in A} U_a^c$$

• **Remark** Note that the following equality is useful:

$$A\Delta B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B)$$

- **Definition** An equivalence relation on X is a relation R on X such that
 - 1. (**Reflexivity**): xRx for all $x \in X$;
 - 2. (Symmetry): xRy if and only if yRx for all $x, y \in X$;
 - 3. (**Transitivity**): xRy and yRz then xRz for all $x, y, z \in X$.

The equivalence class of an element x is denoted as $[x] := \{y \in X : xRy\}$. We usually denote the equivalence relation R as \sim . The set of equivalence classes provides **a partition** of the set X in that every $z \in X$ can must belong to only one equivalence class [x]. That is $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ if $x \not\sim y$ and $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} [x]$.

The set of all equivalence classes of X by \sim , denoted $X/\sim := \{[x] : x \in X\}$, is **the quotient** set of X by \sim . $X = \bigcup_{C \in X/\sim} C$.

• **Definition** $f: X \to Y$ is a **function** if for each $x \in X$, there exists a unique $y = f(x) \in Y$. X is called the **domain** of f and Y is called the **codomain** of f. $f(X) = \{y \in Y : y = f(x)\}$ is called the **range** of f

The pre-image of f is defined as

$$f^{-1}(E) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in E\}.$$

• Remark The pre-image operation commutes with all basic set operations:

$$A \subseteq B \Rightarrow f^{-1}(A) \subseteq f^{-1}(B)$$

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(E_{\alpha})$$

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(E_{\alpha})$$

$$f^{-1}(A \setminus B) = f^{-1}(A) \setminus f^{-1}(B)$$

$$f^{-1}(E^{c}) = (f^{-1}(E))^{c}$$

• Remark The image operation commutes with only inclusion and union operations:

$$A \subseteq B \Rightarrow f(A) \subseteq f(B)$$
$$f\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f(E_{\alpha})$$

For the other operations:

$$f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha\in A} E_{\alpha}\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha\in A} f\left(E_{\alpha}\right)$$
$$f\left(A\setminus B\right) \supseteq f(A)\setminus f(B)$$

• **Definition** A map $f: X \to Y$ is *surjective*, *or*, *onto*, if for every $y \in Y$, there exists a $x \in X$ such that y = f(x). In set theory notation:

$$f: X \to Y$$
 is surjective $\Leftrightarrow f^{-1}(Y) \subseteq X$.

A map $f: X \to Y$ is *injective*, if for every $x_1 \neq x_2 \in X$, their map $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$, or equivalently, $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ only if $x_1 = x_2$.

If a map $f: X \to Y$ is both *surjective* and *injective*, we say f is a **bijective**, or there exists an **one-to-one correspondence** between X and Y. Thus Y = f(X).

• Remark

$$f^{-1}(f(B)) \supseteq B, \quad \forall B \subseteq X$$

$$f(f^{-1}(E)) \subseteq E, \quad \forall E \subseteq Y$$

$$f: X \to Y \text{ is surjective } \Leftrightarrow f^{-1}(Y) \subseteq X.$$

$$\Rightarrow f(f^{-1}(E)) = E.$$

$$f: X \to Y \text{ is injective } \Rightarrow f^{-1}(f(B)) = B$$

$$\Rightarrow f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} f\left(E_{\alpha}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow f\left(A \setminus B\right) = f(A) \setminus f(B)$$

- Proposition 1.1 The following statements for composite functions are true:
 - 1. If f, g are both injective, then $g \circ f$ is injective.
 - 2. If f, g are both surjective, then $g \circ f$ is surjective.
 - 3. Every injective map $f: X \to Y$ can be writen as $f = \iota \circ f_R$ where $f_R: X \to f(X)$ is a bijective map and ι is the inclusion map.
 - 4. Every surjective map $f: X \to Y$ can be writen as $f = f_p \circ \pi$ where $\pi: X \to (X/\sim)$ is a quotient map (projection $x \mapsto [x]$) for the equivalent relation $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow f(x) = f(y)$ and $f_p: (X/\sim) \to Y$ is defined as $f_p([x]) = f(x)$ constant in each coset [x].
 - 5. If $g \circ f$ is **injective**, then f is **injective**.
 - 6. If $g \circ f$ is surjective, then g is surjective.
- Principle 1.2 (The Axiom of Choice). If $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ is a nonempty collection of nonempty sets, then $\prod_{{\alpha}\in A} X_{\alpha}$ is non-empty.
- Corollary 1.3 If $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ is a disjoint collection of nonempty sets, there is a set $Y\subset\bigcup_{{\alpha}\in A}X_{\alpha}$ such that $Y\cap X_{\alpha}$ contains precisely one element for each $\alpha\in A$.

1.2 Topological Space

- **Definition** Let X be a set. $\underline{A \ topology}$ on X is a collection \mathscr{T} of subsets of X, called **open** subsets, satisfying
 - 1. X and \emptyset are open.
 - 2. The *union* of *any family* of open subsets is open.
 - 3. The *intersection* of any *finite* family of open subsets is open.

A pair (X, \mathcal{T}) consisting of a set X together with a topology \mathcal{T} on X is called **a topological space**.

- **Definition** A map $F: X \to Y$ is said to be <u>continuous</u> if for every open subset $U \subseteq Y$, the **preimage** $F^{-1}(U)$ is **open** in X.
- **Definition** A continuous bijective map $F: X \to Y$ with continuous inverse is called a <u>homeomorphism</u>. If there exists a homeomorphism from X to Y, we say that X and Y are <u>homeomorphic</u>.
- **Definition** A map $F: X \to Y$ (continuous or not) is said to be **an open map** if for every open subset $U \subseteq X$, the image set F(U) is open in Y, and **a closed map** if for every closed subset $K \subseteq X$, the image F(K) is closed in Y.
- **Definition** A topological space X is said to be a $\underbrace{\textbf{\textit{Hausdorff space}}}_{\textbf{\textit{subsets }}U,V\subseteq X}$ if for every pair of $\textbf{\textit{distinct}}$ points $p,q\in X$, there exist $\textbf{\textit{disjoint open subsets }}U,V\subseteq X$ such that $p\in U$ and $q\in V$.
- **Definition** Suppose X is a topological space. A collection \mathscr{B} of open subsets of X is said to be **a basis** for the topology of X (plural: **bases**) if every open subset of X is the union of some collection of elements of \mathscr{B} .

More generally, suppose X is merely a set, and \mathscr{B} is a collection of *subsets* of X satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. $X = \bigcup_{B \in \mathscr{B}} B$.
- 2. If $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$, then there exists $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$.

Then the collection of all unions of elements of \mathcal{B} is a topology on X, called the topology generated by \mathcal{B} , and \mathcal{B} is a basis for this topology.

- **Definition** See the following definitions
 - 1. A set is said to be *countably infinite* if it admits a *bijection* with the set of *positive integers*, and
 - 2. countable if it is finite or countably infinite.
 - 3. A topological space X is said to be *first-countable* if there is a *countable neighbor-hood basis* at each point, and
 - 4. <u>second-countable</u> if there is a countable basis for its topology.

1.3 Subspaces and Quotients

• **Definition** If X is a topological space and $S \subseteq X$ is an arbitrary subset, we define **the subspace topology** on S (sometimes called **the relative topology**) by declaring a subset $U \subseteq S$ to be open in S if and only if there exists an open subset $V \subseteq X$ such that $U = V \cap S$.

Any subset of X endowed with the subspace topology is said to be a subspace of X.

- **Definition** If X and Y are topological spaces, a continuous injective map $F: X \to Y$ is called a <u>topological embedding</u> if it is a **homeomorphism** onto its image $F(X) \subseteq Y$ in the subspace topology.
- **Definition** If X is a topological space, Y is a set, and $\pi: X \to Y$ is a **surjective** map, the **quotient topology** on Y determined by π is defined by declaring a subset $U \subseteq Y$ to be open if and only if $\pi^{-1}(U)$ is open in X.

If X and Y are topological spaces, a map $\pi: X \to Y$ is called **a quotient map** if it is **surjective** and **continuous** and Y has the quotient topology determined by π .

- **Definition** The following construction is the most common way of producing quotient maps. A relation on a set X is called an equivalence relation if it is
 - 1. **reflexive**: $x \sim x$ for all $x \in X$,
 - 2. **symmetric**: $x \sim y$ implies $y \sim x$,
 - 3. *transitive*: $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$ imply $x \sim z$.

If $R \subseteq X \times X$ is any relation on X, then the intersection of all equivalence relations on X containing R is an equivalence relation, called the equivalence relation generated by R.

Remark If is an equivalence relation on X, then for each $x \in X$, the equivalence class of

- x, denoted by [x], is the set of all $y \in X$ such that $y \sim x$. The set of all equivalence classes is a **partition** of X: a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets whose union is X.
- **Definition** Suppose X is a topological space and \sim is an equivalence relation on X. Let X/\sim denote the set of equivalence classes in X, and let $\pi:X\to X/\sim$ be the natural projection sending each point to its equivalence class. Endowed with the quotient topology determined by π , the space X/\sim is called the quotient space (or identification space) of X determined by π .
- **Definition** If $\pi: X \to Y$ is a map, a subset $U \subseteq X$ is said to be **saturated** with respect to π if U is the **entire preimage** of its **image**: $U = \pi^{-1}(\pi(U))$.

Given $y \in Y$, the **fiber** of π over y is the set $\pi^{-1}(y)$.

1.4 Connectedness and Compactness

- **Definition** A topological space X is said to be **disconnected** if it has two **disjoint nonempty open subsets** whose union is X, and it is **connected** otherwise. Equivalently, X is connected if and only if the only subsets of X that are **both open and closed** are \emptyset and X itself.
- **Definition** Recall that a topological space X is
 - <u>connected</u> if there do not exist two *disjoint*, nonempty, open subsets of X whose union is X:
 - path-connected if every pair of points in X can be joined by a path in X, and
 - locally path-connected if X has a basis of path-connected open subsets.
- **Definition** A *maximal connected subset* of X (i.e., a connected subset that is not properly contained in any larger connected subset) is called a *component* (or *connected component*) of X.
- **Definition** A topological space X is said to be <u>compact</u> if every open cover of X has a *finite subcover*. A **compact subset** of a topological space is one that is a compact space in the subspace topology.
- **Definition** If X and Y are topological spaces, a map $F: X \to Y$ (continuous or not) is said to be **proper** if for every **compact** set $K \subseteq Y$, the **preimage** $F^{-1}(K)$ is **compact**.
- **Definition** A topological space X is said to be <u>locally compact</u> if every point has a neighborhood contained in a **compact subset** of X.

A subset of X is said to be **precompact** in X if its **closure** in X is compact.

- For a **Hausdorff space** X, the following are equivalent:
 - 1. X is locally compact.
 - 2. Each point of X has a **precompact** neighborhood.
 - 3. X has a basis of precompact open subsets.

2 Analytical Structure of Subsets

2.1 The Limits of Sets

- **Definition** A *nested* sequence of sets $E_1, E_2, ...$ is *nondecreasing* if $E_i \subseteq E_{i+1}$, and it is *nonincreasing* if $E_i \supseteq E_{i+1}$.
- **Definition** The <u>infimum</u> and the <u>supremum</u> of a collection of sets $\{E_n\}_{n\geq k}$ is given by

$$\inf_{n \ge k} E_n = \bigcap_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n, \quad \sup_{n \ge k} E_n = \bigcup_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n,$$

respectively.

- Remark Note that
 - 1. $\inf_{n\geq 1} E_n, \ldots, \inf_{n\geq k} E_n, \ldots$ is **monotone increasing** as k increases since

$$\inf_{n>k} E_n \subseteq \inf_{n>k+1} E_n.$$

The **more** sets that are involved in the **intersection**, the **less** cardinality of the intersection will be. As k increases, less sets are involved in the intersection.

2. $\sup_{n\geq 1} E_n$,..., $\sup_{n\geq k} E_n$,... is **monotone decreasing**. as k increases since

$$\sup_{n\geq k} E_n \supseteq \sup_{n\geq k+1} E_n.$$

The **more** sets that are involved in the **union**, the **more** cardinality of the union will be. As k increases, less sets are involved in the union.

• **Definition** [Resnick, 2013]

The *limit infimum* and *limit supremum* is defined as

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf E_n = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n, \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup E_n = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n, \tag{1}$$

respectively.

• Remark It is clear that for *nested sequence* $\{E_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ that is *nondecreasing*,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} E_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \limsup_{n \to \infty} E_n$$

so define the **limit** of monotone increasing nested sets as $\lim_{n\to\infty} E_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$.

Similarly, for *nonincreasing nested sets* $\{E_n\}_{n>1}$,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \limsup_{n \to \infty} E_n$$

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so define the **limit** of monotone decreasing nested sets as $\lim_{n\to\infty} E_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$.

• Proposition 2.1 The interpretation of limit infimum and limit supremum

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \inf E_n = \{x: x\in E_n, \text{ for all but finite } n\} = \{x: \exists k, \forall n\geq k, x\in E_n\}$$
$$\lim\sup_{n\to\infty} E_n = \{x: x\in E_n, \text{ for infinitely many } n\} = \{x: \exists k, \forall n\geq k, x\in E_n\}$$

• Remark A sequence of sets E_1, E_2, \ldots converges to E if and only if

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} E_n = \limsup_{n \to \infty} E_n = E.$$

It is equivalent to **pointwise** convergence of indicator function $\mathbb{1}\{x \in E_n\}$ to $\mathbb{1}\{x \in E\}$ for each x.

2.2 Boolean Algebra

• **Definition** [Tao, 2011]

Let X be a set. A (concrete) <u>Boolean algebra (Boolean field)</u> on X is a collection of subsets \mathcal{B} of X which obeys the following properties:

- 1. (*Empty set*) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$;
- 2. (Complements) For any $E \in \mathcal{B}$, then $E^c \equiv (X \setminus E) \in \mathcal{B}$;
- 3. (**Finite unions**) For any $E, F \subset \mathcal{B}, E \cup F \in \mathcal{B}$.

We sometimes say that E is \mathscr{B} -measurable, or measurable with respect to \mathscr{B} , if $E \in \mathscr{B}$.

- Remark Note that the finite difference A-B, $A\Delta B$ and intersections $A\cap B$ are also **closed** under the Boolean algebra.
- **Definition** A <u>field (algebra)</u> is a non-empty collection of subsets in X that is **closed** under finite union and complements.

It is just a subset (sub-algebra) of Boolean field $(X, \subset, \cup, \cdot^c)$.

- **Definition** Given two Boolean algebras \mathscr{B} , $(\mathscr{B})'$ on X, we say that $(\mathscr{B})'$ is <u>finer</u> than, a **sub-algebra** of, or a <u>refinement</u> of \mathscr{B} , or that \mathscr{B} is <u>coarser</u> than or a <u>coarsening</u> of $(\mathscr{B})'$, if $\mathscr{B} \subset (\mathscr{B})'$.
- Remark In abstract Boolean algebra, \cup is replaced by join operation \vee and \cap is replaced by meet operation \wedge .
- Remark The definition of Boolean algebra does not requires X to have a topology. It focus on a collection of subsets that is closed under the set union operation \cup and the set complement \cdot^c . In other words, the concerns is the <u>set-algebraic property</u> not the topological property. Note that the set intersection operation \cap can be obtained from composite of set union and set complement operations.
- **Definition** [Tao, 2011]

Let X be partitioned into a union $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha}$ of **disjoint sets** A_{α} , which we refer to as **atoms**. Then this partition generates **a Boolean algebra** $\mathscr{A}((A_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I})$, defined as the collection of all the sets E of the form $E = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}$ for some $J \subseteq I$, i.e. $\mathscr{A}((A_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I})$ is the

collection of all sets that can be represented as **the union of one or more atoms**. Then $\mathscr{A}((A_{\alpha})_{\alpha\in I})$ is **a Boolean algebra**, and we refer to it as the **atomic algebra** with atoms $(A_{\alpha})_{\alpha\in I}$.

- **Definition** A Boolean algebra is *finite* if it only consists of *finite many of subsets* (i.e., its cardinality is finite) [Tao, 2011].
- **Remark** The definition of *atomic algebra* as *generated* by *atoms* resembles the definition of *topology generated* by *basis*.
 - In both cases, a subset in the collection of atomic algebra / topology is seen as the union of some subsets in the atoms / basis.
 - On the other hand, atoms are all disjoint, while sets in basis are not necessarily disjoint. In fact, by definition, for any two sets in basis that have nonempty intersection, there must exists a third set in basis that is a subset of the intersection.
- Example The followings are examples of Boolean algebra:
 - 1. The trivial algebra $\{X,\emptyset\}$ is atomic algebra with atoms $\{X\}$.
 - 2. The discrete algebra 2^X is atomic algebra generated by collection of singletons $\{x\}$.
- Remark The non-empty atoms of an atomic algebra are determined up to **relabeling**. More precisely, if $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\alpha' \in I'} A'_{\alpha'}$ are two partitions of X into non-empty atoms A_{α} , $A'_{\alpha'}$, then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\alpha' \in I'} A'_{\alpha'}$ if and only if exists a **bijection** $\phi : \alpha \to \alpha'$ such that $A'_{\phi(\alpha)} = A_{\alpha}$ for all $\alpha \in I$. [Tao, 2011]
- Remark There is a *one-to-one correspondence* between *finite Boolean algebras* on X and *finite partitions* of X into non-empty sets. (its cardinality is 2^m , for some m). [Tao, 2011]
- **Definition** [Tao, 2011]

Let n be an integer. The <u>dyadic algebra</u> \mathcal{D}_n at scale 2^{-n} in \mathbb{R}^d is defined to be the atomic algebra generated by the <u>half-open dyadic cubes</u>

$$\left[\frac{i_1}{2^n}, \frac{i_1+1}{2^n}\right) \times \cdots \left[\frac{i_d}{2^n}, \frac{i_d+1}{2^n}\right)$$

of length 2^{-n} . Note that $\mathcal{D}_n \subset \mathcal{D}_{n+1}$.

- Example Here are some more examples for Boolean algebra [Tao, 2011]
 - 1. The collection $\overline{\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]}$ of *elementary sets* (boxes and its finite union and intersections) and co-elementary sets (its complements is elementary) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
 - 2. The collection $\overline{\mathcal{J}}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of *Jordan measureable set* (contained in finite union of elementary sets) and co-Jordan measureable sets in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
 - 3. The collection $\mathcal{L}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of **Lebesgue measureable set** (contained in countable union of elementary sets) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
 - 4. The collection $\mathcal{N}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of **Lebesgue null sets** and **co-null sets** (its complement is null set) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra. we refer to it as **the null algebra** on \mathbb{R}^d .
 - 5. Given $Y \subset X$, and \mathscr{B} is a Boolean algebra on X, then the **restriction** of algebra on Y

is $\mathscr{B}|_{Y} = \mathscr{B} \cap 2^{Y} = \{E \cap Y : E \in \mathscr{B}\}$, which is a *sub-algebra*.

- 6. The *dyadic algebra* \mathcal{D}_n at *scale* 2^{-n} in \mathbb{R}^d is defined to be *the atomic algebra* generated by the *half-open dyadic cubes* of length 2^{-n} .
- 7. Note that $\{\emptyset, \mathbb{R}^d\} \subset \mathscr{D}_n \subset \overline{\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]} = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} \mathscr{D}_n \subset \overline{J[\mathbb{R}^d]} \subset L[\mathbb{R}^d] \subset 2^{\mathbb{R}^d}$. $N[\mathbb{R}^d] \subset L[\mathbb{R}^d]$. Although \mathscr{D}_n for given n is atomic algebra, $\overline{\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]}$ and all its predecessors are **non-atomic**, since they do not have finite cardinality.
- 8. $\bigwedge_{\alpha \in I} \mathscr{B}_{\alpha} \equiv \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} \mathscr{B}_{\alpha}$ for all $\alpha \in I$ is a Boolean algebra (*I* is arbitrary), which is **the finest algebra** that is **coarser** than any \mathscr{B}_{α} .
- Example (Boolean Algebra Generated by \mathcal{F})
 - Definition Given a collection of sets \mathcal{F} , then $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is <u>the Boolean algebra generated</u> by \mathcal{F} , i.e. the *intersection* of all the Boolean algebras that *contain* \mathcal{F} .

$$\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool} = \bigwedge_{\mathscr{B}_{\alpha} \supseteq \mathcal{F}} \mathscr{B}_{\alpha}.$$

- Proposition 2.2 We have the following results regarding $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$
 - 1. $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is the **coarest** Boolean algebra that contains \mathcal{F} .
 - 2. Note that \mathcal{F} is a Boolean algebra if and only if $\mathcal{F} = \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$.
 - 3. If \mathcal{F} is collection of n sets, then $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is a finite Boolean algebra with cardinality 2^{2^n} .
- Proposition 2.3 (Recursive description of a generated Boolean algebra). [Tao, 2011]

Let \mathcal{F} be a collection of sets in a set X. Define the sets $\mathcal{F}_0, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \ldots$ recursively as follows:

- 1. $\mathcal{F}_0 := \mathcal{F}$.
- 2. For each $n \geq 1$, we define \mathcal{F}_n to be the collection of all sets that **either** the **union** of a **finite number** of sets in \mathcal{F}_{n-1} (including the empty union \emptyset), or the **complement** of such a union.

Then $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool} = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$.

2.3 σ -Algebra

- **Definition** Given space X, a $\underline{\sigma\text{-field (or, }\sigma\text{-algebra})}$ \mathscr{F} is a non-empty collection of subsets in X such that
 - 1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$; $X \in \mathcal{F}$;
 - 2. Complements: For any $B \in \mathcal{F}$, then $B^c \equiv (X B) \in \mathcal{F}$;

3. <u>Countable union</u>: for any sub-collection $\{B_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathscr{F}$,

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k \in \mathscr{F};$$

Also, Countable intersection: $\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k \in \mathscr{F}$, de Morgan's law.

We refer to the pair (X, \mathcal{F}) of a set X together with a σ -algebra on that set as \boldsymbol{a} measurable space.

- Remark The prefix σ usually denotes "countable union". Other instances of this prefix include a σ -compact topological space (a countable union of compact sets), a σ -finite measure space (a countable union of sets of finite measure), or F_{σ} set (a countable union of closed sets) for other instances of this prefix.
- Remark A σ -algebra can be *equivalently* defined as an algebra that is closed under *countable disjoint union*. Using the following transformation, for given $\{E_j\}$,

$$F_j = E_j - \bigcup_{i=1}^{j-1} E_i, \forall j \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then $F_i \cap F_j = \emptyset$, $i \neq j$ and $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} F_j$.

- Remark A field (algebra) may not be a σ -field since it may not be closure under countable union.
- Remark $(\sigma$ -Algebra vs. Boolean Algebra)
 - 1. Proposition 2.4 Any σ -algebra is Boolean-algebra.
 - 2. Proposition 2.5 Any atomic algebra is σ -algebra.
 - 3. Proposition 2.6 An algebra of finite set X is a σ -algebra of X and it is the power set 2^X itself.
- Example Here are some more examples for σ -algebra [Tao, 2011]
 - 1. The trivial algebra $\{X,\emptyset\}$ is σ -algebra since it is an atomic algebra.
 - 2. The discrete algebra 2^X is σ -algebra since it is an atomic algebra.
 - 3. All the *finite Boolean algebra* is σ -algebra.
 - 4. The *dyadic algebra* \mathcal{D}_n at *scale* 2^{-n} in \mathbb{R}^d is a σ -algebra since it is an atomic algebra.
 - 5. The collection $\mathcal{L}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of <u>Lebesgue measureable set</u> (contained in countable union of elementary sets) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
 - 6. The collection $\mathcal{N}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of <u>Lebesgue null sets</u> and **co-null sets** (its complement is null set) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra. we refer to it as **the null algebra** on \mathbb{R}^d .
 - 7. Given $Y \subset X$ as a subspace of X, and \mathscr{B} is a σ -algebra on X, then the **restriction** of algebra on Y is $\mathscr{B}|_{Y} = \mathscr{B} \cap 2^{Y} = \{E \cap Y : E \in \mathscr{B}\}$, which is a $\underline{\sigma$ -algebra on subspace Y.
 - 8. Note that both the collections of elementary sets $\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ and the Jordan measurable sets $\mathcal{J}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ do not form a σ -algebra.

- 9. If $\{\mathscr{B}_{\alpha}\}$ are σ -algebras, then $\underline{\bigwedge_{\alpha\in I}\mathscr{B}_{\alpha}}\equiv \bigcap_{\alpha\in I}\mathscr{B}_{\alpha}$ for all $\alpha\in I$ is a σ -algebra (I is arbitrary), which is **the finest** σ -algebra that is **coarser** than any \mathscr{B}_{α} .
- Example $(\sigma$ -Algebra Generated by $\mathcal{F})$
 - Definition Denote $\sigma(\mathcal{F}) := \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle$ as the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{F} , given by

$$\sigma(\mathcal{F}) = \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle = \bigwedge_{\mathscr{B}_{\alpha} \supset \mathcal{F}} \mathscr{B}_{\alpha}.$$

It is the *coarsest* σ -algebra containing \mathcal{F} , for any σ -algebra that contains \mathcal{F} .

- It is easy to see that

$$\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool} \subseteq \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle$$

The equality holds if and only if $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is a σ -algebra.

- Proposition 2.7 (Recursive description of a generated σ -algebra). [Tao, 2011] $\sigma(\mathcal{F})$ is generated according to the following procedure:
 - 1. For every set $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $A \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$; $\mathcal{F} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F})$;
 - 2. Take the finite union and finite intersection of any subcollections $\{A_k\} \subset \mathcal{F}$, $put \bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F}), n \geq 1$ and $\bigcap_{k=1}^n A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F}), n \geq 1$;
 - 3. Put the countably infinite union and intersections of any subcollections $\{A_k\} \subset \mathcal{F}$, put $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$ and $\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$;
 - 4. Put the complements $A^c \in \sigma(\mathcal{F}), \forall A \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$;
- Finally we have the *monotonicity*:
 - 1. Proposition 2.8 If $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2$, then $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_1) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F}_2)$.
 - 2. Proposition 2.9 If $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2 \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F}_1)$, then $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_2) = \sigma(\mathcal{F}_1)$.
 - 3. Proposition 2.10 Let \mathscr{F} be a σ -algebra on a set X. Let $S \subset X$ be a subset of X.

 Then

$$\sigma(\mathscr{F} \cup \{S\}) = \{(E_1 \cap S) \cup (E_2 \cap S^c) : E_1, E_2 \in \mathscr{F}\}$$

where σ denotes generated σ -algebra.

- Remark Note that $\mathscr{F}_1 \cup \mathscr{F}_2$ is usually not a σ -algebra.
- Remark We compare the (open-set) topoloy with σ -algebra:
 - The open-set topology on X is closed under <u>any union</u>, or finite intersection operation. It does <u>not consider the complements</u> as the complements defines a closed set not in open-set topology. It contains the open sets as <u>the basic environment</u> in investigating the infinitesimal behavior of functions in analysis.
 - A σ-algebra concerns more about the closure under a set of operations on X:
 <u>countable union</u>, countable intersection, <u>complementation</u>. It has nothing to do with
 the open set, closed set, or the continuity.

- The *analysis* replies on *topology* on space X; while the *modern algebra* replies on *the closure of operation* on a space X. A σ -algebra is a collection of subsets in X that endows a *algebraic structure*.

2.4 Borel σ -Algebra

• Definition (Borel σ -algebra). [Tao, 2011] Let X be a metric space, or more generally a topological space. The <u>Borel σ -algebra</u> $\mathcal{B}[X]$ of X is defined to be the σ -algebra generated by the open subsets of X.

Elements of $\mathcal{B}[X]$ will be called **Borel measurable**.

- Example The followings are examples of *Borel measurable subsets* in X:
 - 1. Any the open set and the closed set (which are complements of open sets), including The arbitrary union of open sets, and arbitrary intersection of closed set.
 - 2. The *countable unions* of *closed sets* (known as F_{σ} sets),
 - 3. The countable intersections of open sets (known as G_{δ} sets),
 - 4. The *countable intersections* of F_{σ} sets, and so forth.
- Exercise 2.11 Show that the Borel σ -algebra $\mathcal{B}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of a Euclidean set is generated by any of the following collections of sets:
 - 1. The open subsets of \mathbb{R}^d .
 - 2. The closed subsets of \mathbb{R}^d .
 - 3. The compact subsets of \mathbb{R}^d .
 - 4. The open balls of \mathbb{R}^d .
 - 5. The boxes in \mathbb{R}^d .
 - 6. The elementary sets in \mathbb{R}^d .

(Hint: To show that two families $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}'$ of sets generate the same σ -algebra, it suffices to show that every σ -algebra that contains \mathcal{F} , contains \mathcal{F}' also, and conversely.)

- Remark $\mathcal{B}[X] \subset \mathcal{L}[X]$, i.e. the Borel σ -algebra is **coarser** than the Lebesgue σ -algebra.
- Remark There exist *Jordan measurable* (and hence Lebesgue measurable) subsets of \mathbb{R}^d which are *not Borel measurable*. [Tao, 2011]
- Remark Despite this demonstration that not all Lebesgue measurable subsets are Borel measurable, it is remarkably difficult (though not impossible) to exhibit a specific set that is not Borel measurable. Indeed, a large majority of the explicitly constructible sets that one actually encounters in practice tend to be Borel measurable, and one can view the property of Borel measurability intuitively as a kind of "constructibility" property. A Borel σ -algebra is large enough to contain all subsets in X that is of "practical use" in computing measures and integrations within (0,1].
- Proposition 2.12 (Lebesgue σ -algebra vs. Borel σ -algebra)

The Lebesgue σ -algebra on \mathbb{R}^d is generated by the union of the Borel σ -algebra and the null σ -algebra.

- Remark The *Borel* σ -algebra lies in between, which concerns both algebraic and analytical structure.
 - A open set U is a Borel set in \mathscr{B} ; also a closed set $C \equiv U^c$ is a Borel set in \mathscr{B} .
 - Any <u>countable union</u> of <u>closed set</u>, denoted as " F_{σ} set", $F_{\sigma,\Lambda} = \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} C_{\lambda} \in \mathcal{B}$
 - Any <u>countable intersection</u> of open sets, denoted as " G_{δ} set", $G_{\delta,\Lambda} = \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} U_{\lambda} \in \mathscr{B}$.
 - Note that a F_{σ} set is **not closed** (but could be open) and a G_{δ} set is **not open** (but could be closed).

The Borel σ -algebra contains open sets, closed sets, G_{δ} sets, F_{σ} sets, and their further countable union and intersections, according to the topology.

2.5 Comparison between Analytical and Topological Structure of Subsets

Table 1: Comparison between σ -algebra and topology

	$Boolean \\ Algebra$	σ -Algebra	$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned\\ egin{aligned} egi$	Topology
compatibility		← ✓ ⇒	σ-algebra generated by open subsets	no relation
collection of subsets	√	✓	✓	\checkmark
include emptyset	✓	✓	✓	✓
include fullset	✓	✓	✓	√
finite union	✓	✓	✓	√
countable union		✓	✓	✓
arbitrary union				✓
finite intersection	✓	✓	✓	✓
$countable\\intersection$		√	✓	
complements	✓	✓	✓	
structure	analytical	analytical	$analytical \ \& \ topological$	topological
related measure	✓	√	✓	
set in collection	elementary sets; Jordan measurable sets; atomic algebra; dyadic algebra; finite union of measurable sets; etc.	Boolean measurable set; Lebesgue measurable sets, Lebesgue null sets; the countable union and complements etc.	open sets, $closed$ $sets$, $compact$ $sets$, $elementary$ $sets$, G_{δ} and F_{σ} $sets$ etc.	$open \ sets$
set not in collection	some Lebesgue measurable sets	$\begin{array}{c} \text{some} \\ \textbf{non-measurable} \\ \textbf{sets} \end{array}$	some Jordan measurable set but not Borel measurable	closed set, G_{δ} and F_{σ} sets
function	Boolean measurable function; Rieman integrable function,	$egin{aligned} Lebesgue \\ measurable \\ function, & \sigma ext{-finite} \\ function, & continuous \\ function \end{aligned}$	Borel measurable function, continuous function	$continuous \ function$

3 Abstract Measure Theory

3.1 Measure as Non-Negative Function on Algebra of Subsets

- Remark The concept of measure is a generalization of volumes from Euclidean space to arbitrary subsets in 2^X . [Tao, 2011] A set of intuitive axioms for a measure function m defined on power set $2^{\mathbb{R}}$:
 - 1. The **unit length** of interval: E = (0, 1], then m((0, 1]) = 1;
 - 2. If E is **congruent** to F: (There exists a proper translation, rotation or reflection from E to F), then m(E) = m(F);
 - 3. The *countably additive*: for a countable union of disjoint sets, $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k$, the measure

$$m\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k\right) = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} m\left(E_k\right)$$

Unfortunately, these three axioms are inconsistent: no proper definition of measure function m could satisfies all these three axioms for any subset in \mathbb{R} . The measure theory should be built on a collection of "ordinary" subsets, which motivates the introduction of σ -algebra.

- Remark The domain of measures are confined as the Boolean algebra \mathscr{B} or σ -algebra \mathscr{F} instead of all possible subsets of X. We call the tuple (X,\mathscr{B}) measurable space, as it can be used as a domain for some measure function $\mu: \mathscr{B} \to [0, +\infty]$.
- Remark The measure μ defined on a given algebra \mathcal{B} need to be compatible with the analytical structure of the algebra \mathcal{B} .
 - If \mathscr{B} is Boolean-algebra (closed under finite union), then the measure is finitely additive.
 - If \mathscr{B} is σ -algebra (closed under countable union), then the measure is countably additive.
 - If $\mathscr{B} = \mathscr{F}|_Y$ is the *restriction* of \mathscr{F} on subspace Y, the corresponding measure on \mathscr{B} should agree with measure on \mathscr{F} for subsets of the subspace Y.
 - If $\mathscr{B} = \mathscr{A}((A_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I})$ is atomic algebra, the corresponding measure is also the finite sum of Dirac measures on each atom.
- Remark The space of finitely additive and countably additive measures on \mathscr{B} forms **a vector space** as it is **closed** under measure addition and scale mutiplication operations.

3.2 Finitely Additive Measure

- **Definition** Let \mathscr{B} be a *Boolean algebra* on a space X. An (unsigned) finitely additive measure μ on \mathscr{B} is a map $\mu: \mathscr{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ that obeys the following axioms
 - 1. $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$;
 - 2. Finite union: for any disjoint sets $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$,

$$\mu\left(A \cup B\right) = \mu(A) + \mu(B).$$

- Proposition 3.1 (Properties of Finitely Additive Measure) [Tao, 2011] Let $\mu : \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ be a finitely additive measure on a Boolean σ -algebra \mathcal{B} .
 - 1. (Monotonicity) If E, F are \mathscr{B} -measurable and $E \subseteq F$, then

$$\mu(E) \le \mu(F)$$
.

2. (Finite additivity) If k is a natural number, and E_1, \ldots, E_k are \mathscr{B} -measurable and disjoint, then

$$\mu(E_1 \cup \ldots \cup E_k) = \mu(E_1) + \ldots + \mu(E_k).$$

3. (Finite subadditivity) If k is a natural number, and E_1, \ldots, E_k are \mathscr{B} -measurable, then

$$\mu(E_1 \cup \ldots \cup E_k) \leq \mu(E_1) + \ldots + \mu(E_k).$$

4. (Inclusion-exclusion for two sets) If E, F are \mathscr{B} -measurable, then

$$\mu(E \cup F) + \mu(E \cap F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F).$$

(Caution: remember that the cancellation law $a + c = b + c \Rightarrow a = b$ does not hold in [0; +1] if c is infinite, and so the use of cancellation (or subtraction) should be avoided if possible.)

- Example See the following examples on finitely additive measures:
 - 1. **Lebesgue measure** m is a finitely additive measure on **the Lebesgue** σ-algebra, and hence on all sub-algebras (such as the null algebra, the Jordan algebra, or the elementary algebra).
 - 2. **Jordan measure** and **elementary measure** are *finitely additive* (adopting the convention that co-Jordan measurable sets have infinite Jordan measure, and co-elementary sets have infinite elementary measure).
 - 3. Lebesque outer measure is not finitely additive on the discrete algebra.
 - 4. Jordan outer measure is not finitely additive on the Lebesgue algebra.
- Example (*Dirac measure*).

Let $x \in X$ and \mathscr{B} be an arbitrary Boolean algebra on X. Then <u>the Dirac measure</u> δ_x at x, defined by setting $\delta_x(E) := \mathbb{1}\{x \in E\}$, is **finitely additive**.

 \bullet Example ($Zero\ measure$).

The **zero measure** $0: E \mapsto 0$ is a finitely additive measure on any Boolean algebra.

• Example (*Linear combinations of measures*).

If \mathscr{B} is a Boolean algebra on X, and $\mu, \nu : \mathscr{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ are finitely additive measures on \mathscr{B} , then $\mu + \nu : E \mapsto \mu(E) + \nu(E)$ is also a **finitely additive measure**, as is $c\mu : E \mapsto c \times \mu(E)$ for any $c \in [0, +\infty]$. Thus, for instance, the sum of Lebesgue measure and a Dirac measure is also a finitely additive measure on the Lebesgue algebra (or on any of its sub-algebras).

In other word, the space of all finitely additive measures on \mathcal{B} is a vector space.

• Example (Restriction of a measure). If \mathscr{B} is a Boolean algebra on X, $\mu : \mathscr{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ is a finited

If \mathscr{B} is a Boolean algebra on X, $\mu: \mathscr{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ is a finitely additive measure, and Y is a \mathscr{B} -measurable subset of X, then **the restriction** $\mu|_Y: \mathscr{B}|_Y \to [0, +\infty]$ of \mathscr{B} to Y, defined by setting $\mu|_Y(E) := \mu(E)$ whenever $E \in \mathscr{B}|_Y$ (i.e. if $E \in \mathscr{B}$ and $E \subseteq Y$), is also a **finitely additive measure**.

• Example (Counting measure).

If \mathscr{B} is a Boolean algebra on X, then the function $\#: \mathscr{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ defined by setting #(E) to be the *cardinality* of E if E is *finite*, and $\#(E) := +\infty$ if E is infinite, is a *finitely additive measure*, known as *counting measure*.

• Proposition 3.2 (Finitely Additive Measures on Atomic Algebra) Let $\mathscr B$ be a finite Boolean algebra, generated by a finite family A_1, \ldots, A_k of non-empty atoms. For every finitely additive measure μ on $\mathscr B$ there exists $c_1, \ldots, c_k \in [0, +\infty]$ such that

$$\mu(E) = \sum_{1 \le j \le k: A_j \subseteq E} c_j.$$

Equivalently, if x_j is a point in A_j for each $1 \le j \le k$, then

$$\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_j \, \delta_{x_j}.$$

where c_1, \ldots, c_k are uniquely determined by μ .

3.3 Countably Additive Measure

- **Definition** Let (X, \mathcal{B}) be a measurable space. An (unsigned) <u>countably additive measure</u> μ on \mathcal{B} , or <u>measure</u> for short, is a map $\mu : \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ that obeys the following axioms:
 - 1. (**Empty set**) $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$.
 - 2. (Countable additivity) Whenever $E_1, E_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{B}$ are a countable sequence of disjoint measurable sets, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_n).$$

A triplet (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) , where (X, \mathcal{B}) is a <u>measurable space</u> and $\mu : \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ is a **countably additive measure**, is known as <u>measure space</u>.

- Remark Note the distinction between a *measure space* and a *measurable space*. The latter has the *capability* to be equipped with a *measure*, but the former is *actually* equipped with a *measure*.
- **Definition** [Folland, 2013] Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space.
 - If $\mu(X) < \infty$ (which implies that $\mu(E) < \infty$ for all $E \in \mathcal{B}$), then μ is called *finite*.

- If $X = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j$ where $E_j \in \mathscr{B}$ and $\mu(E_j) < \infty$, then μ is called σ -finite. More generally, if $E = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j$ where $E_j \in \mathscr{B}$ and $\mu(E_j) < \infty$, then E is said to be σ -finite for μ .
- If for each $E \in \mathcal{B}$ with $\mu(E) = \infty$ there exists $F \in \mathcal{B}$ with $F \subseteq E$ and $0 < \mu(F) < \infty$, then μ is called *semi-finite*.
- Example The followings are examples for *countably additive measures*:
 - 1. **Lebesgue measure** is a countably additive measure on the **Lebesgue** σ -algebra, and hence on every sub- σ -algebra (such as the Borel σ -algebra)
 - 2. The *Dirac measures* δ_x are *countably additive*
 - 3. The *counting measure* # is *countably additive measure*.
 - 4. The **zero measure** is countably additive measure.
 - 5. Any *restriction* of a countably additive measure to a measurable subspace is again countably additive.
- Example (Countable combinations of measures). Let (X, \mathcal{B}) be a measurable space.
 - 1. If μ is a countably additive measure on \mathscr{B} , and $c \in [0, +\infty]$, then $c\mu$ is also countably additive.
 - 2. If μ_1, μ_2, \ldots are a sequence of countably additive measures on \mathscr{B} , then the sum $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_n : E \mapsto \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_n(E)$ is also a countably additive measure.

That is, the space of all countable additive measures on \mathcal{B} is a vector space.

• Remark Note that *countable additivity measures are necessarily finitely additive* (by padding out a finite union into a countable union using the empty set), and so countably additive measures inherit all the properties of finitely additive properties, such as monotonicity and finite subadditivity. But one also has additional properties:

Proposition 3.3 Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space.

1. (Countable subadditivity) If E_1, E_2, \ldots are \mathscr{B} -measurable, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_n).$$

2. (Upwards monotone convergence) If $E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq ...$ are \mathscr{B} -measurable, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(E_n) = \sup_n \mu(E_n). \tag{2}$$

3. (Downwards monotone convergence) If $E_1 \supseteq E_2 \supseteq ...$ are \mathscr{B} -measurable, and $\mu(E_n) < \infty$ for at least one n, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(E_n) = \inf_n \mu(E_n). \tag{3}$$

- Exercise 3.4 Show that the downward monotone convergence claim can fail if the hypothesis that $\mu(E_n) < \infty$ for at least one n is dropped.
- Proposition 3.5 (Dominated convergence for sets). [Tao, 2011]
 Let (X, B, μ) be a measure space. Let E₁, E₂,... be a sequence of B-measurable sets that converge to another set E, in the sense that 1_{En} converges pointwise to 1_E. Then
 - 1. E is also \mathscr{B} -measurable.
 - 2. If there exists a \mathscr{B} -measurable set F of **finite measure** (i.e. $\mu(F) < \infty$) that **contains** all of the E_n , then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mu(E_n)=\mu(E).$$

(Hint: Apply downward monotonicity to the sets $\bigcup_{n>N} (E_n \Delta E)$.)

- 3. The previous part of this proposition can **fail** if the hypothesis that all the E_n are contained in a set of finite measure is **omitted**.
- Proposition 3.6 (Countably Additive Measures on Countable Set with Discrete σ -Algebra)

Let X be an at most countable set with the discrete σ -algebra. Then every measure μ on this measurable space can be uniquely represented in the form

$$\mu = \sum_{x \in Y} c_x \, \delta_x$$

for some $c_x \in [0, +\infty]$, thus

$$\mu(E) = \sum_{x \in E} c_x$$

for all $E \subseteq X$. (This claim fails in the **uncountable** case, although showing this is slightly tricky.)

A <u>null set</u> of a measure space (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) is defined to be a \mathcal{B} -measurable set of **measure zero**. A **sub-null** set is any subset of a null set.

A measure space is said to be **complete** if every sub-null set is a null set.

- Theorem 3.7 The Lebesgue measure space $(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{L}[\mathbb{R}^d], m)$ is complete, but the Borel measure space $(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{B}[\mathbb{R}^d], m)$ is not.
- Proposition 3.8 (Completion).
 Let (X, B, μ) be a measure space. There exists a unique refinement (X, B, μ), known as the completion of (X, B, μ), which is the coarsest refinement of (X, B, μ) that is complete. Furthermore, B consists precisely of those sets that differ from a B-measurable set by a B-subnull set.
- Remark The Lebesgue measure space $(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{L}[\mathbb{R}^d], m)$ is the **completion** of the Borel measure space $(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{B}[\mathbb{R}^d], m)$.
- Proposition 3.9 (Approximation by an algebra). Let \mathscr{A} be a **Boolean algebra** on X, and let μ be a measure on the σ -algebra generated by \mathscr{A} , i.e. $\langle \mathscr{A} \rangle$.

- 1. If $\mu(X) < \infty$, then for every $E \in \langle \mathscr{A} \rangle$ and $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $F \in \mathscr{A}$ such that $\mu(E\Delta F) < \epsilon$.
- 2. More generally, if $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ for some $A_1, A_2, \ldots \in \mathscr{A}$ with $\mu(A_n) < \infty$ for all n, $E \in \langle \mathscr{A} \rangle$ has finite measure, and $\epsilon > 0$, then there exists $F \in \mathscr{A}$ such that $\mu(E\Delta F) < \epsilon$.

3.4 Outer Measures and the Carathéodory Extension Theorem

- Definition (Abstract outer measure). [Tao, 2011] Let X be a set. An abstract outer measure (or outer measure for short) is a map $\mu^*: 2^X \to [0, +\infty]$ that assigns an unsigned extended real number $\mu^*(E) \in [0, +\infty]$ to every set $E \subseteq X$ which obeys the following axioms:
 - 1. (**Empty set**) $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$.
 - 2. (Monotonicity) If $E \subseteq F$, then $\mu^*(E) \leq \mu^*(F)$.
 - 3. (Countable subadditivity) If $E_1, E_2, ... \subseteq X$ is a countable sequence of subsets of X, then

$$\mu^* \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \right) \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(E_n).$$

Outer measures are also known as *exterior measures*.

- Remark Lebesgue outer measure m^* is an outer measure. On the other hand, Jordan outer measure $m^{*,J}$ is only finitely subadditive rather than countably subadditive and thus is **not**, strictly speaking, an outer measure.
- Remark Note that outer measures are weaker than measures in that they are merely countably subadditive, rather than countably additive. On the other hand, they are able to measure all subsets of X, whereas measures can only measure a σ-algebra of measurable sets.
- Definition (Carathéodory measurability). Let μ^* be an outer measure on a set X. A set $E \subseteq X$ is said to be <u>Carathéodory measurable</u> with respect to μ^* (or, μ^* -measurable) if one has

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

for every set $A \subseteq X$.

- Example (Null sets are Carathéodory measurable).
 Suppose that E is a null set for an outer measure μ* (i.e. μ*(E) = 0). Then that E is Carathéodory measurable with respect to μ*.
- Example (Compatibility with Lebesgue measurability). A set $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is Carathéodory measurable with respect to Lebesgue outer measurable if and only if it is Lebesgue measurable.
- Theorem 3.10 (Carathéodory extension theorem). [Tao, 2011]
 Let μ*: 2^X → [0, +∞] be an outer measure on a set X, let B be the collection of all subsets of X that are Carathéodory measurable with respect to μ*, and let μ: B → [0, +∞] be the restriction of μ* to B (thus μ(E) := μ*(E) whenever E ∈ B). Then B is a σ-algebra, and μ is a measure.

- Remark The measure μ constructed by the Carathéodory extension theorem is automatically complete.
- Proposition 3.11 Let \mathscr{B} be a Boolean algebra on a set X. Then \mathscr{B} is a σ -algebra if and only if it is closed under countable disjoint unions, which means that $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \in \mathscr{B}$ whenever $E_1, E_2, E_3, \ldots \in \mathscr{B}$ are a countable sequence of disjoint sets in \mathscr{B} .
- **Definition** (*Pre-measure*). [Folland, 2013]

 A pre-measure on a Boolean algebra \mathcal{B}_0 is a function $\mu_0 : \mathcal{B}_0 \to [0, +\infty]$ that satisfies the conditions:
 - 1. (**Empty Set**): $\mu_0(\emptyset) = 0$
 - 2. (*Countably Additivity*): If $E_1, E_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{B}_0$ are *disjoint sets* such that $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ is in \mathcal{B}_0 .

$$\mu_0\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_0(E_n).$$

- Remark A pre-measure μ_0 is a finitely additive measure that already is countably additive within a Boolean algebra \mathscr{B}_0 .
- Remark The countably additivity condition for pre-measure can be releaxed to be the countably subadditivity $\mu_0(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_0(E_n)$ without affecting the definition of a pre-measure.
- Proposition 3.12 Let $\mathscr{B} \subset 2^X$ and $\mu_0 : \mathscr{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ be such that $\emptyset, X \in \mathscr{B}$, and $\mu_0(\emptyset) = 0$. For any $A \subseteq X$, define

$$\mu^*(A) := \inf \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu_0(E_j) : E_j \in \mathcal{B}, \text{ and } A \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j \right\}.$$

Then μ^* is an outer measure.

- Theorem 3.13 (Hahn-Kolmogorov Theorem). Every pre-measure $\mu_0: \mathcal{B}_0 \to [0, +\infty]$ on a Boolean algebra \mathcal{B}_0 in X can be extended to a countably additive measure $\mu: \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$.
- Remark We can construct an outer measure μ^* according to Proposition 3.12. Let \mathscr{B} be the collection of all sets $E \subseteq X$ that are Carathéodory measurable with respect to μ^* (μ^* -measurable), and let μ be the restriction of μ^* to \mathscr{B} . The tuple (X, \mathscr{B}, μ) is what we want in Hahn-Kolmogorov theorem.

The measure μ constructed in this way is called <u>the Hahn-Kolmogorov extension</u> of the pre-measure μ_0 .

Proposition 3.14 (Uniqueness of the Hahn-Kolmogorov Extension)
Let μ₀: ℬ₀ → [0, +∞] be a pre-measure, let μ: ℬ → [0, +∞] be the Hahn-Kolmogorov extension of μ₀, and let μ': ℬ' → [0, +∞] be another countably additive extension of μ₀. Suppose also that μ₀ is σ-finite, which means that one can express the whole space X as the countable union of sets E₁, E₂,... ∈ ℬ₀ for which μ₀(E_n) < ∞ for all n. Then μ and μ' agree on their common domain of definition. In other words, show that μ(E) = μ'(E) for all E ∈ ℬ ∩ ℬ'.

3.5 Development of Lebesgue Measure Theory in \mathbb{R}^d

Table 2: Comparison between different measures in measure theory

	$Elementary\\measure$	Jordan measure	Lebesgue outer measure	Lebesgue measure
compatibility		← ✓	← ✓	← ✓
non-negative	√	√	√	√
$m(\emptyset) = 0$	√	✓	√	√
$m([0,1]^d) = 1$	√	√	√	√
$translation-\ invariant$	✓	✓	✓	✓
finitely additive	✓	✓	✓	✓
monotonicity	✓	✓	✓	✓
$finitely\ subadditive$	✓	✓	✓	✓
outer regularity			✓	✓
inner regularity			✓	✓
$countably \ subadditivity$			✓	✓
$countably \\ additivity$				✓
measurable set	box $I_1 \times \ldots \times I_d$	All elementary sets; any compact convex polytope; any open sets and closed sets; finite union of measurable sets; graph/epigraph of continous function;	All Jordan measurable sets; countable union of measurable sets, e.g. G_{δ} and F_{σ}	forms a σ -algebra that includes all Borel sets; sets with Lebesgue outer measure zero (null sets).
$non ext{-}measurable$ set	any subsets other than box	countable union of Jordan measurable sets; bullet-riddled square and sets of bullets; subsets with a lot of "holes" or "fractal"	same as right	$E=\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q}\cap [0,1]$
algebra for collection of measurable sets	$boolean \ algebra$ \mathscr{A}_0	boolean algebra $\mathscr{A}_1 \supsetneq \mathscr{A}_0$		$\sigma ext{-algebra} \ \mathscr{A}_2\supsetneq\mathscr{A}_1$
relation to integration		$Riemann \ integration$		$Lebesgue \ integration$

4 Measurable Functions and Integration on a Measure Space

4.1 Measurable Functions

- **Definition** Let (X, \mathcal{B}) be a measurable space, and let $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ or $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be an unsigned or complex-valued function. We say that f is <u>measurable</u> if $f^{-1}(U)$ is \mathcal{B} -measurable for every open subset U of $[0, +\infty]$ or \mathbb{C} .
- **Remark** The inverse image of a Lebesgue measurable set by a *measurable function* need not remain Lebesgue. measurable. This is due to the definition of above measureable function. The pre-image of E is Lebesgue measurable, if if E has a slightly stronger measurability property than Lebesgue measurability, namely **Borel measurability**.
- We can define a measurable mapping between two measurable spaces.
 - **Definition** For $f: X \to Y$, and $X \equiv (X, \mathscr{F})$, $Y \equiv (Y, \mathscr{B})$ are measurable spaces, then f is called $(\mathscr{F}, \mathscr{B})$ measureable (or $(\mathscr{F}/\mathscr{B})$) measureable or, simply, measureble), if $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathscr{F}$ for every $E \in \mathscr{B}$.
- **Definition** Note that if $\{(Y_{\alpha}, \mathscr{B}_{\alpha})\}$ is a family of measureable spaces, and $\{f_{\alpha}\}$ for $f_{\alpha}: X \to Y_{\alpha}$, then there is a **unique smallest** σ -algebra on X so that $\{f_{\alpha}\}$ are all measureable. It is generated by $f_{\alpha}^{-1}(E_{\alpha}), E_{\alpha} \in \mathscr{B}_{\alpha}$, i.e.

$$\mathscr{F} = \langle \{ f_{\alpha}^{-1}(E_{\alpha}) : E_{\alpha} \in \mathscr{B}_{\alpha}, \alpha \in I \} \rangle$$

It is called the σ -algebra generated by $\{f_{\alpha}\}$. In particular, $X = \prod_{\alpha} Y_{\alpha}$ has product σ -algebra that is generated by coordinate functions $\{\pi_{\alpha}\}$.

- Proposition 4.1 (Properties of Measurable Function) Let (X, \mathcal{B}) be a measurable space.
 - 1. $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ is **measurable** if and only if the **level sets** $\{x \in X : f(x) > \lambda\}$ are \mathscr{B} -measurable.
 - 2. The indicator function $\mathbb{1}_E$ of a set $E \subseteq X$ is measurable if and only if E itself is \mathscr{B} -measurable.
 - 3. $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ or $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ is measurable if and only if $f^{-1}(E)$ is \mathscr{B} -measurable for every **Borel-measurable** subset E of $[0, +\infty]$ or \mathbb{C} .
 - 4. $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ is measurable if and only if its **real** and **imaginary** parts are measurable.
 - 5. $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ is measurable if and only if the **magnitudes** $f_+ := \max\{f, 0\}$, $f_- := \max\{-f, 0\}$ of its **positive** and **negative** parts are **measurable**.
 - 6. If $f_n: X \to [0, +\infty]$ are a sequence of **measurable** functions that converge **pointwise** to a limit $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$, then f is also **measurable**. The same claim holds if $[0, +\infty]$ is replaced by \mathbb{C} .
 - 7. If $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ is measurable and $\varphi: [0, +\infty] \to [0, +\infty]$ is **continuous**, the composite $\varphi \circ f$ is measurable. The same claim holds if $[0, +\infty]$ is replaced by \mathbb{C} .
 - 8. The sum or product of two measurable functions in $[0, +\infty]$ or \mathbb{C} is still measurable.

• **Definition** A function $f:(X,\mathscr{F})\to (Y,\mathscr{B})$ is <u>simple</u> if it only takes *finitely many* different values $s_1,\ldots,s_k\in Y$.

Then the σ -algebra $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ reduce to $\sigma\left(\left\{f^{-1}(\left\{s_{\alpha}\right\})\right\}_{\alpha=1}^{k}\right)$, the **finite** σ -algebra generated by **atomic algebra** with atoms $E_{\alpha} \equiv f^{-1}(\left\{s_{\alpha}\right\})$. The **canonical representation** of f is

$$f = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{k} s_{\alpha} \mathbb{1} \left\{ E_{\alpha} \right\},\,$$

which is determined up to a reordering.

• Proposition 4.2 (Measurable Function with respect to Atomic Algebra is Simple) Let (X, \mathcal{B}) be a measurable space that is **atomic**, thus $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A}((A_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I})$ for some partition $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha}$ of X into disjoint non-empty atoms. A function $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ or $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ is measurable if and only if it is **constant** on each atom, or equivalently if one has a **representation of the form**

$$f(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in I} c_{\alpha} \mathbb{1} \left\{ x \in A_{\alpha} \right\},\,$$

for some constants $c_{\alpha} \in [0; +\infty]$ or in \mathbb{C} as appropriate. Furthermore, the c_{α} are uniquely determined by f.

4.2 Simple Integral of Simple Functions

• Definition (Simple integral).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space with \mathcal{B} finite (i.e., its cardinality is finite and there are only finitely many measurable sets). X can then be partitioned into a finite number of atoms A_1, \dots, A_n . If $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ is measurable, it has a unique representation of the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in I} c_{\alpha} \mathbb{1} \left\{ x \in A_{\alpha} \right\},\,$$

for some constants $c_{\alpha} \in [0; +\infty]$. We then define the <u>simple integral</u> simp $\int_X f d\mu$ of f by the formula

$$\operatorname{simp} \int_X f d\mu \equiv \sum_{\alpha \in I} c_\alpha \mu(A_\alpha)$$

• **Remark** Note that the precise decomposition into atoms *does not affect* the definition of the simple integral.

Proposition 4.3 (Simple integral unaffected by refinements). [Tao, 2011] Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let (X, \mathcal{B}', μ') be a refinement of (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) , which means that \mathcal{B}' contains \mathcal{B} and $\mu' : \mathcal{B}' \to [0, +\infty]$ agrees with $\mu : \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ on \mathcal{B} . Suppose that both $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}'$ are finite, and let $f : \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ be measurable. We have

$$simp \int_X f d\mu = simp \int_X f d\mu'.$$

• The above proposition allows one to extend the *simple integral* to *simple functions*:

Definition (Integral of simple functions).

An <u>(unsigned)</u> simple function $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{B}) is a measurable function that takes on **finitely many values** a_1, \dots, a_k . Note that such a function is then automatically measurable with respect to at least one **finite sub-\sigma-algebra** \mathcal{B}' of \mathcal{B} , namely the σ -algebra \mathcal{B}' generated by the preimages $f^{-1}\{a_1\}, \dots, f^{-1}\{a_k\}$ of a_1, \dots, a_k .

We then define the **simple integral** simp $\int_X f d\mu$ by the formula

$$\operatorname{simp} \int_{X} f d\mu \equiv \operatorname{simp} \int_{X} f d\mu|_{\mathscr{B}'}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} \mu \left(f^{-1} \left\{ a_{k} \right\} \right)$$

where $\mu|_{\mathscr{B}'}:\mathscr{B}'\to [0,+\infty]$ is the **restriction** of $\mu:\mathscr{B}\to [0,+\infty]$ to \mathscr{B}' .

- Remark Note that there could be *multiple finite* σ -algebras with respect to which f is *measurable*, but all such extensions will give the same simple integral. Indeed, if f were measurable with respect to two separate finite sub- σ -algebras \mathscr{B}' and \mathscr{B}'' of \mathscr{B} , then it would also be *measurable* with respect to their *common refinement* $\mathscr{B}' \vee \mathscr{B}'' := (\mathscr{B}' \cup \mathscr{B}'')$, which is also *finite* and then by Proposition 4.3, $\int_X f d\mu|_{\mathscr{B}'}$ and $\int_X f d\mu|_{\mathscr{B}''}$ are both equal to $\int_X f d\mu|_{\mathscr{B}' \vee \mathscr{B}''}$, and hence equal to each other.
- Remark As with the Lebesgue theory, we say that a property P(x) of an element $x \in X$ of a measure space (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) <u>holds μ -almost everywhere</u> if it holds outside of a sub-null set, i.e. $\mu(\{P(x) \text{ does not } \overline{hold}\}) = 0$.
- Proposition 4.4 (Property of Simple Integral) Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f, g: X \to [0, +\infty]$ be simple unsigned functions.
 - 1. (Monotonicity) If $f \leq g$ then $simp \int_X f d\mu \leq simp \int_X g d\mu$.
 - 2. (Compatibility with measure) For every \mathscr{B} -measurable set E, we have simp $\int_X \mathbb{1}_E d\mu = \mu(E)$.
 - 3. (Homogeneity) For every $c \in [0, +\infty]$, one has simp $\int_X (cf) d\mu = c \times simp \int_X f d\mu$.
 - 4. (Finite additivity) We have $simp \int_X (f+g)d\mu = simp \int_X fd\mu + simp \int_X gd\mu$.
 - 5. (Insensitivity to refinement) Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let (X, \mathcal{B}', μ') be its refinement, which means that \mathcal{B}' contains \mathcal{B} and $\mu' : \mathcal{B}' \to [0, +\infty]$ agrees with $\mu : \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ on \mathcal{B} . Suppose that both $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}'$ are finite, and let $f : \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ be measurable. We have

$$simp \int_X f d\mu = simp \int_X f d\mu'.$$

- 6. (Almost everywhere equivalence) If μ -almost everywhere f = g, then simp $\int_X f d\mu = simp \int_X g d\mu$
- 7. (Finiteness) simp $\int_X f d\mu < \infty$ if and only if f is finite μ -almost everywhere and is supported on a set of finite measure.

- 8. (Vanishing) simp $\int_X f d\mu = 0$ if and only if f = 0 μ -almost everywhere.
- Proposition 4.5 (Inclusion-exclusion principle). Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let A_1, \ldots, A_n be \mathcal{B} -measurable sets of finite measure. Show that

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i\right) = \sum_{J\subseteq[1:n], J\neq\emptyset} (-1)^{|J|-1} \mu\left(\bigcap_{i\in J} A_i\right)$$

(Hint: Compute simp $\int_X (1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - \mathbb{1}_{A_i})) d\mu$ in two different ways.)

• Remark The simple integral could also be defined on *finitely additive measure spaces*, rather than *countably additive ones*, and all the above properties would still apply. However, on a finitely additive measure space one would have difficulty extending the integral beyond simple functions.

4.3 Unsigned Integral of Measurable Functions

• **Definition** Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ be (unsigned) measurable. Then we define the **unsigned integral** $\int_X f d\mu$ of f by the formula

$$\int_{X} f d\mu \equiv \sup_{\substack{0 \le g \le f, \\ g \text{ simple}}} \operatorname{simp} \int_{X} g d\mu$$

- Proposition 4.6 (Properties of the unsigned integral). Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f, g: X \to [0, +\infty]$ be measurable.
 - 1. (Almost everywhere equivalence) If f = g μ -almost everywhere, then $\int_X f d\mu = \int_X g d\mu$
 - 2. (Monotonicity) If $f \leq g$ μ -almost everywhere, then $\int_X f d\mu \leq \int_X g d\mu$.
 - 3. (Homogeneity) We have $\int_X (cf) d\mu = c \int_X f d\mu$ for every $c \in [0, +\infty]$.
 - 4. (Superadditivity) We have $\int_X (f+g)d\mu \ge \int_X fd\mu + \int_X gd\mu$.
 - 5. (Compatibility with the simple integral) If f is simple, then $\int_X f d\mu = simp \int_X f d\mu$.
 - 6. (Markov's inequality) For any $0 < \lambda < 1$, one has

$$\mu\left(\left\{x \in X : f(x) \ge \lambda\right\}\right) \le \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_X f d\mu$$

In particular, if $\int_X f d\mu < \infty$, then the sets $\{x \in X : f(x) \ge \lambda\}$ have finite measure for each $\lambda > 0$.

- 7. (Finiteness) If $\int_X f d\mu < \infty$, then f(x) is finite for μ -almost every x.
- 8. (Vanishing) If $\int_X f d\mu = 0$, then f(x) is zero for μ -almost every x.
- 9. (Vertical truncation) We have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X \min \{f, n\} \, d\mu = \int_X f d\mu$$

10. (Horizontal truncation) If $E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq ...$ is an increasing sequence of \mathscr{B} -measurable sets, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\int_X f 1\!\!1_{E_n} d\mu = \int_X f 1\!\!1_{\cup_{n=1}^\infty E_n} d\mu.$$

11. (Restriction) If Y is a measurable subset of X, then

$$\int_X f \mathbb{1}_Y d\mu = \int_Y f|_Y d\mu|_Y,$$

where $f|_Y: Y \to [0, +\infty]$ is the **restriction** of $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ to Y, and $\mu|_Y$ is the restriction μ on Y. We will often abbreviate $\int_Y f|_Y d\mu|_Y$ (by slight abuse of notation) as $\int_Y f d\mu$.

• Theorem 4.7 Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f, g: X \to [0, +\infty]$ be measurable.

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

• Proposition 4.8 (Linearity in μ).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ be measurable.

- 1. $\int_X f d(c\mu) = c \times \int_X f d\mu$ for every $c \in [0, +\infty]$.
- 2. If μ_1, μ_2, \ldots are a sequence of measures on \mathscr{B} ,

$$\int_X fd\left(\sum_{n=1}^\infty \mu_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \int_X fd\mu_n.$$

• Proposition 4.9 (Pushforward Measure).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $\varphi : X \to Y$ be $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C})$ measureable from (X, \mathcal{B}) to another measurable space (Y, \mathcal{C}) . Define the <u>pushforward</u> $\phi_*\mu : \mathcal{C} \to [0, +\infty]$ of μ by φ by the formula

$$\varphi_*\mu(E) := \mu(\phi^{-1}(E)).$$

- 1. $\varphi_*\mu$ is a **measure** on \mathscr{C} , so that $(Y,\mathscr{C},\phi_*\mu)$ is a measure space.
- 2. (Change of variables formula). If $f: Y \to [0, +\infty]$ is \mathscr{C} -measurable, then

$$\int_{Y} f d(\phi_* \mu) = \int_{X} (f \circ \phi) d\mu.$$

- Corollary 4.10 Let $T: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$ be an invertible linear transformation, and let m be Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}^d . Then $T_*m = \frac{1}{|\det T|}m$, where T_*m is the pushforward of m.
- Example (Sums as integrals). Let X be an arbitrary set (with the discrete σ -algebra), let # be counting measure, and let $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ be an arbitrary unsigned function. Then f is measurable with

$$\int_X f d\# = \sum_{x \in X} f(x).$$

4.4 Absolutely Convergent Integral

• Definition (Absolutely convergent integral). Let (X, \mathcal{F}, μ) be a measure space. A measurable function $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ is said to be absolutely integrable if the unsigned integral

$$||f||_{L^1(X,\mathscr{F},\mu)} \equiv \int_X |f| \, d\mu$$

is **finite**. We refer to this quantity $||f||_{L^1(X)}$ as $\underline{the}\ L^1(X)$ **norm of** f, and use $L^1(X)$ or $L^1(X, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ or $L^1(\mu)$ to denote the space of absolutely integrable functions. If f is real-valued and absolutely integrable, we define $\underline{the}\ Lebesgue\ integral\ \int_X f d\mu$ by the formula

$$\int_X f d\mu = \int_X f_+ d\mu - \int_X f_- d\mu$$

where $f_+ = \max\{f, 0\}$ and $f_- = \max\{-f, 0\}$ are the magnitudes of the positive and negative components of f. (note that the two unsigned integrals on the right-hand side are finite, as f_+, f_- are pointwise dominated by |f|). If f is complex-valued and absolutely integrable, we define **the Lebesgue integral** $\int_X f(x) d\mu$ by the formula

$$\int_X f d\mu = \int_X \Re(f) d\mu + i \int_X \Im(f) d\mu,$$

where the two integrals on the right are interpreted as real-valued absolutely integrable Lebesgue integrals.

- Remark Sometimes $\int_X f d\mu$ is also denoted as $\int_X f(x)\mu(dx)$ or $\int_X f(x)d\mu(x)$, where $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\mu(E) = \int_E \mu dx$.
- Proposition 4.11 (Properties of absolutly convergent integral) Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space.
 - 1. $L^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ is a complex vector space.
 - 2. The integration map $f \mapsto \int_X f d\mu$ is a **complex linear map** from $L^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ to \mathbb{C} .
 - 3. The triangle inequality

$$||f+g||_{L^1(\mu)} \le ||f||_{L^1(\mu)} + ||g||_{L^1(\mu)}$$

and the homogeneity property

$$||c f||_{L^1(\mu)} = |c| ||f||_{L^1(\mu)}$$

 $\ \, hold\ for\ all\ f,g\in L^1(X,\mathscr{B},\mu)\ \ and\ c\in\mathbb{C}.$

- 4. If $f, g \in L^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ are such that f(x) = g(x) for μ -almost every $x \in X$, then $\int_X f d\mu = \int_X g d\mu$.
- 5. If $f \in L^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$, and (X, \mathcal{B}', μ') is a **refinement** of (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) , then $f \in L^1(X, \mathcal{B}', \mu')$, and

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

(Hint: it is easy to get one inequality. To get the other inequality, first work in the case when f is both bounded and has finite measure support (i.e. is both vertically and horizontally truncated).)

- 6. If $f \in L^1(X, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$, then $||f||_{L^1(\mu)} = 0$ if and only if f is zero μ -almost everywhere.
- 7. If $Y \subseteq X$ is \mathscr{B} -measurable and $f \in L^1(X, \mathscr{B}, \mu)$, then $f|_Y \in L^1(Y, \mathscr{B}|_Y, \mu|_Y)$ and

$$\int_Y f|_Y d\mu|_Y = \int_X f \mathbb{1}_Y d\mu.$$

As before, by abuse of notation we write $\int_Y f d\mu$ for $\int_Y f|_Y d\mu|_Y$.

4.5 The Convergence Theorems

- Proposition 4.12 (Uniform Convergence on a Finite Measure Space). [Tao, 2011] Suppose that (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) is a finite measure space (so $\mu(X) < \infty$), and $f_n : X \to [0, +\infty]$ (resp. $f_n : X \to \mathbb{C}$) are a sequence of unsigned measurable functions (resp. absolutely integrable functions) that converge uniformly to a limit f. Then $\int_X f_n d\mu$ converges to $\int_X f d\mu$.
- Theorem 4.13 (Monotone Convergence Theorem). [Tao, 2011] Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $0 \le f_1 \le f_2 \le ...$ be a monotone non-decreasing sequence of unsigned measurable functions on X. Then we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_X f_n d\mu = \int_X \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n \right) d\mu$$

- Remark Note that in the special case when each f_n is an indicator function $f_n = 1$ $\{E_n\}$, this theorem collapses to **the upwards monotone convergence** property. Conversely, the upwards monotone convergence property will play a key role in the proof of this theorem.
- **Remark** Note that the result still holds if the monotonicity $f_n \leq f_{n+1}$ only holds almost everywhere rather than everywhere.
- Corollary 4.14 (Tonelli's Theorem for Sums and Integrals) Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let f_1, f_2, \ldots be a sequence of unsigned measurable functions on X. Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_{X} f_k d\mu = \int_{X} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k \right) d\mu$$

• Lemma 4.15 (Borel-Cantelli Lemma). [Tao, 2011, Resnick, 2013] Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let E_1, E_2, \ldots be a sequence of \mathcal{B} -measurable sets such that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_n) < \infty$. Then

$$\mu\left\{\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right\} = 0.$$

That is, almost every $x \in X$ is contained in **at most finitely many** of the E_n (i.e. $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : x \in E_n\}$ is finite for almost every $x \in X$).

• Corollary 4.16 (Fatou's Lemma).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f_1, f_2, \ldots : X \to [0, \infty]$ be a sequence of unsigned measurable functions. Then

$$\int_{X} \left(\liminf_{n \to \infty} f_n \right) d\mu \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int_{X} f_n d\mu$$

Remark Informally, Fatou's lemma tells us that when taking the pointwise limit of unsigned functions f_n , that mass $\int_X f_n d\mu$ can be destroyed in the limit (as was the case in the three key moving bump examples), but it cannot be created in the limit. Of course the unsigned hypothesis is necessary here.

While this lemma was stated only for pointwise limits, the same general **principle** (that mass can be destroyed, but not created, by the process of taking limits) tends to hold for other "weak" notions of convergence.

• Theorem 4.17 (Dominated Convergence Theorem).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f_1, f_2, \ldots : X \to \mathbb{C}$ be a sequence of measurable functions that converge **pointwise** μ -almost everywhere to a measurable limit $f : X \to \mathbb{C}$. Suppose that there is an **unsigned absolutely integrable** function $G : X \to [0, +\infty]$ such that $|f_n|$ are pointwise μ -almost everywhere **bounded** by G for each n. Then we have

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

- **Remark** From the moving bump examples we see that this statement *fails* if there is no absolutely integrable dominating function G.
- **Remark** Note also that when each of the fn is an indicator function $f_n = \mathbb{1}_{E_n}$, the dominated convergence theorem collapses to dominated convergence for sets in previous chapter.
- Exercise 4.18 Under the hypotheses of the dominated convergence theorem, establish also that $||f_n f||_{L^1} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

• Proposition 4.19 (Almost Dominated Convergence).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f_1, f_2, \ldots : X \to \mathbb{C}$ be a sequence of measurable functions that converge pointwise μ -almost everywhere to a measurable limit $f : X \to \mathbb{C}$. Suppose that there is an unsigned absolutely integrable functions $G, g_1, g_2, \ldots X \to [0, +\infty]$ such that the $|f_n|$ are pointwise μ -almost everywhere bounded by $G+g_n$, and that $\int_X g_n d\mu \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Then

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

• Exercise 4.20 (Defect Version of Fatou's Lemma).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f_1, f_2, \ldots : X \to [0, +\infty]$ be a sequence of **unsigned** absolutely integrable functions that converges **pointwise** to an absolutely integrable limit f. Show that

$$\int_{X} f_n d\mu - \int_{X} f d\mu - \|f - f_n\|_{L^1(\mu)} \to 0$$

as $n \to \infty$. (Hint: Apply the dominated convergence theorem to $\min(f_n, f)$.) Informally, this result tells us that the gap between the left and right hand sides of Fatous lemma can be measured by the quantity $||f - f_n||_{L^1(\mu)}$.

• Proposition 4.21 Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, and let $g: X \to [0, +\infty]$ be measurable. Then the function $\mu_g: \mathcal{B} \to [0, +\infty]$ defined by the formula

$$\mu_g(E) := \int_X g \, \mathbb{1}_E d\mu = \int_E g d\mu$$

is a measure.

• The monotone convergence theorem is, in some sense, a **defining property** of the unsigned integral:

Proposition 4.22 (Characterisation of the Unsigned Integral).

Let (X, \mathcal{B}) be a measurable space. $I: f \mapsto I(f)$ be a map from the space $U(X, \mathcal{B})$ of **unsigned** measurable functions $f: X \to [0, +\infty]$ to $[0, +\infty]$ that obeys the following axioms:

- 1. (Homogeneity) For every $f \in U(X, \mathcal{B})$ and $c \in [0, +\infty]$, one has I(cf) = cI(f).
- 2. (Finite additivity) For every $f, g \in U(X, \mathcal{B})$, one has I(f+g) = I(f) + I(g).
- 3. (Monotone convergence) If $0 \le f_1 \le f_2 \le ...$ are a nondecreasing sequence of unsigned measurable functions, then $I(\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} I(f_n)$.

Then there exists a unique measure μ on (X, \mathcal{B}) such that

$$I(f) = \int_X f d\mu, \quad \text{ for all } f \in U(X, \mathscr{B}).$$

Furthermore, μ is given by the formula $\mu(E) := I(\mathbb{1}_E)$ for all \mathscr{B} -measurable sets E.

${\bf 4.6}\quad {\bf Development\ of\ Integration\ of\ Measurable\ Functions}$

 ${\bf Table~3:~Development~on~Lebesgue~Integration}$

	Unsigned Simple Function	Unsigned Measurable Function	$Abus olute \ Integrable \ Function$
Definition	$f = \sum_{i=k}^{m} c_k \mathbb{1}_{E_k}$	$\{f_n\} \to f$ pointwise $\{f_n\}$ unsigned simple	$ f _{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} < \infty$ $ f $ unsigned
Integration	$ simp \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x)dx $ $ = \sum_{i=k}^m c_k \mu(E_k) $	$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x)dx = \underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}^d}}_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x)dx = \sup_{0 \le g \le f, \ g \text{ simple}} \operatorname{simp} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g(x)dx$	$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x)dx =$ $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f_+(x)dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x)dx$
Compatibility		✓	✓
Compatibility to Rieman Integral	√	✓	✓
Linearity	Unsigned ✓	✓	✓
Equivalence	✓	√	√
Vanishing	✓	✓	✓
Monotonicity	✓	✓	✓
Superadditivity		lower Lebesgue integral √	
Reflection		lower Lebesgue integral ✓	
Divisibility		lower Lebesgue integral ✓	
Finite additivity	✓	√	✓
$Horizontal\\truncation$		✓	✓
Vertical truncation		✓	✓
Translation Invariance		✓	✓

5 Littlewood's Three Principles

- Theorem 5.1 (Littlewood's Three Principles) [Royden and Fitzpatrick, 1988, Tao, 2011]:
 - 1. Every (measurable) set is nearly a finite sum of intervals;
 - 2. Every (absolutely integrable) function is nearly continuous; and
 - 3. Every (pointwise) convergent sequence of functions is nearly uniformly convergent
- Remark The Littlewood's 1st and 2nd principles are shown only for Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^d , since it relies on such concepts as "elementary set" or "continuous function" defined for an abstract measure space. In other word, the necessary condition these two principles to hold is that the measure space (X, \mathcal{F}) is a topological space with Borel σ -algebra \mathcal{B} included in \mathcal{F} .

The *Littlewood's 3rd principles*, i.e., the Egorov's theorem, holds for a *finite measure* space (X, \mathcal{F}, μ) in which $\mu(X) < \infty$. There are cases in which $m(X) = \infty$ and the theorem does not hold. [Tao, 2011]

5.1 Every Measurable Set is Nearly a Finite Sum of Intervals

- Proposition 5.2 (Criteria for measurability [Tao, 2011]) The followings are equivalent:
 - 1. E is Lebesque measureable.
 - 2. (Outer approximation by open) For every $\epsilon > 0$, one can contain E in an open set U with $m^*(U \setminus E) \leq \epsilon$.
 - 3. (Almost open) For every $\epsilon > 0$, one can find an open set U such that $m^*(U\Delta E) \leq \epsilon$, where $U\Delta E = (U \setminus E) \cup (E \setminus U) = (U \cup E) \setminus (U \cap E)$ is the symmetric difference. (In other words, E differs from an open set by a set of outer measure at most ϵ .)
- Remark For E finite Lebesgue measureable, E differs from a **bounded** open set by a set of **arbitrarily small** Lebesgue outer measure. This bounded open set can be **decomposed** as a finite union of open cubes in \mathbb{R}^d . [Royden and Fitzpatrick, 1988].

5.2 Every Absolutely Integrable Function is Nearly Continuous

- Proposition 5.3 (Approximation of L^1 functions). Let $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and $\epsilon > 0$.
 - 1. There exists an absolutely integrable simple function g such that

$$||f - g||_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} \le \epsilon;$$

2. There exists a **step function** g (, i.e. g is represented as a finite linear combination of indicator functions of boxes) such that $||f - g||_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} \leq \epsilon$;

- 3. There exists a continuous, compactly supported g such that $||f g||_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} \le \epsilon$.
- ullet Theorem 5.4 (Lusin's theorem).

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{C}$ be **absolutely integrable**, and let $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exists a Lebesgue measurable set $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ of measure at most ϵ such that the **restriction** of f to the **complementary** set $\mathbb{R}^d \setminus E$ is **continuous** on that set.

Remark This theorem does not imply that the *unrestricted* function f is *continuous* on $\mathbb{R}^d \setminus E$. For instance, the absolutely integrable function $\mathbb{1} \{\mathbb{Q}\} : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ is nowhere continuous, so is certainly not continuous on $\mathbb{R} \setminus E$ for any E of finite measure; but on the other hand, if one deletes the measure zero set $E \equiv \mathbb{Q}$ from the reals, then the restriction of f to $\mathbb{R} \setminus E$ is identically zero and thus continuous. [Tao, 2011]

• Remark When dealing with unsigned measurable functions such as $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to [0, +\infty]$, then Lusin's theorem does not apply directly because f could be infinite on a set of positive measure, which is clearly in contradiction with the conclusion of Lusin's theorem (unless one allows the continuous function to also take values in the extended non-negative reals $[0, +\infty]$ with the extended topology). However, if one knows already that f is almost everywhere finite (which is for instance the case when f is absolutely integrable), then Lusin's theorem applies (since one can simply zero out f on the null set where it is infinite, and add that null set to the exceptional set of Lusin's theorem).

5.3 Every Pointwise Convergent Sequence of Functions is Nearly Uniformly Convergent

- Remark Recall the following convergence definitions:
 - 1. $(\underline{\textbf{Pointwise convergence}})$ For every $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 such that $|f_n(x) f(x)| \le \epsilon$ for all n > N.
 - 2. (Pointwise almost everywhere convergence) For almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 such that $|f_n(x) f(x)| \le \epsilon$ for all $n \ge N$.
 - 3. (Uniform convergence) For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 such that $|f_n(x) f(x)| \le \epsilon$ for all $n \ge N$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$.
- Definition (Locally uniform convergence). A sequence of functions $f_n : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{C}$ converges <u>locally uniformly</u> to a limit $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{C}$ if, for every bounded subset E of \mathbb{R}^d , f_n converges uniformly to f on E. In other words, for every **bounded** $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 such that $|f_n(x) - f(x)| \le \epsilon$ for all $n \ge N$ and $x \in E$.
- Theorem 5.5 (Egorov's theorem).
 Let f_n: ℝ^d → ℂ be a sequence of measurable functions that converge pointwise almost everywhere to another function f: ℝ^d → ℂ, and let ε > 0. Then there exists a Lebesgue measurable set A of measure at most ε, such that f_n converges locally uniformly to f outside of A.

6 Modes of Convergence

6.1 Convergence of Functions in Measure Space

- Remark (Convergence of Functions vs. Convergence of Numbers and Vectors) Convegence of numbers $a_n \to a$ and convergence of vector $\mathbf{v}_n \to \mathbf{v}$ are both unambiguous:
 - 1. $a_n \to a$ means that $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for $n \geq N, |a_n a| \leq \epsilon$;
 - 2. $\mathbf{v}_n \to \mathbf{v}$ means that $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for $n \geq N$, $\|\mathbf{v}_n \mathbf{v}\| \leq \epsilon$; Note that the chioce of norm in Euclidean space will not affect the convergence results: convergence in ℓ_p will implies convergence in ℓ_q norm.

However, for functions $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$ and $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$, there can now be many different ways in which the sequence f_n may or may not converge to the limit f. Note that a_n can be thought as f_n with singular domain $X = \{1\}$ and v_n can be thought of f_n with finite set $X = \{1, \ldots, d\}$. On the other hand, once X becomes infinite, the functions f_n acquire an infinite number of degrees of freedom, and this allows them to approach f in any number of inequivalent ways.

- We have the following modes of convergence
 - 1. Definition (*Pointwise Convergence*)

We say that f_n converges to f **pointwise** if, for any $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 (that **depends** on ϵ and x) such that for all $n \geq N$, $|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \epsilon$. Denoted as $f_n(x) \to f(x)$.

2. Definition (*Uniform Convergence*)

We say that f_n converges to f uniformly if, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 (that depends on ϵ only) such that for all $n \geq N$, $|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \epsilon$ for every $x \in X$. Denoted as $f_n \to f$, uniformly.

Unlike pointwise convergence, the time N at which $f_n(x)$ must be permanently ϵ -close to f(x) is not permitted to depend on x, but must instead be chosen uniformly in x.

3. Definition (*Pointwise Almost Everywhere Convergence*)

We say that f_n converges to f **pointwise almost everywhere** if, for μ -almost everywhere $x \in X$, $f_n(x)$ converges to f(x). It is denoted as $f_n \stackrel{a.e.}{\to} f$.

In other words, there exists a null set E, $(\mu(E) = 0)$ such that for any $x \in X \setminus E$ and any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N > 0 (that depends on ϵ and x) such that for all $n \geq N$, $|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \epsilon$.

4. Definition (Uniformly Almost Everywhere Convergence) [Tao, 2011] We say f_n converges to f uniformly almost everywhere, essentially uniformly, or $\underline{in\ L^{\infty}\ norm}$ if, for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that for every $n \geq N$, $|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \epsilon$, for μ -almost every $x \in X$.

That is, $f_n \to f$ uniformly in $x \in X \setminus E$, for some E with $\mu(E) = 0$.

We can also formulate in terms of L^{∞} norm as

$$||f_n(x) - f(x)||_{L^{\infty}(X)} \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0,$$

where $||f||_{L^{\infty}(X)} = \operatorname{ess\,sup}_{x} |f(x)| \equiv \inf_{\{E: \mu(E)=0\}} \sup_{x \in X \setminus E} |f(x)|$ is the **essential bound**. It is denoted as $f_n \stackrel{L^{\infty}}{\to} f$.

5. **Definition** (Almost Uniform Convergence) [Tao, 2011]

We say that f_n converges to f almost uniformly if, for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an exceptional set $E \in \mathcal{B}$ of measure $\underline{\mu(E) \leq \epsilon}$ such that f_n converges uniformly to f on the complement of E.

That is, for arbitrary δ there exists some E with $\mu(E) \leq \delta$ such that $f_n \to f$ uniformly in $x \in X \setminus E$.

6. Definition (Convergence in L^1 Norm)

We say that $\overline{f_n}$ converges to f in L^1 norm if the quantity

$$||f_n - f||_{L^1(X)} = \int_X |f_n(x) - f(x)| d\mu \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

It is also called the convergence *in mean*. Denoted as $f_n \stackrel{L^1}{\to} f$.

7. Definition (Convergence in Measure)

We say that $\overline{f_n}$ converges to f <u>in measure</u> if, for every $\epsilon > 0$, the measures

$$\mu\left(\left\{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \epsilon\right\}\right) \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

Denoted as $f_n \stackrel{\mu}{\to} f$.

- Remark The difference between the *uniformly almost everywhere convergence* vs. *the almost uniformly convergence* is that:
 - 1. the former corresponds to uniform convergence outside a null set, and
 - 2. the latter corresponds to uniform convergence outside an arbitrary small measure set (but still not a null set).
- Remark Observe that each of these five modes of convergence is unaffected if one modifies f_n or f on a set of measure zero. In contrast, the pointwise and uniform modes of convergence can be affected if one modifies f_n or f even on a single point.
- **Remark** In the context of *probability theory*, in which f_n and f are interpreted as random variables, [Billingsley, 2008, Folland, 2013]

- Proposition 6.1 (Linearity of Convergence). [Tao, 2011] Let (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) be a measure space, let $f_n, g_n : X \to \mathbb{C}$ be sequences of measurable functions, and let $f, g : X \to \mathbb{C}$ be measurable functions.
 - 1. Then f_n converges to f along one of the above seven modes of convergence **if and only** $if |f_n f|$ converges to 0 along **the same mode**.

- 2. If f_n converges to f along one of the above seven modes of convergence, and g_n converges to g along **the same mode**, then $f_n + g_n$ converges to f + g along the same mode, and that $c f_n$ converges to c f along the same mode for any $c \in \mathbb{C}$.
- 3. (Squeeze test) If f_n converges to 0 along one of the above seven modes, and $|g_n| \leq f_n$ pointwise for each n, then g_n converges to 0 along the same mode.

6.2 Modes of Convergence via Tail Support and Width

• Remark (Tail Support and Width)

Definition Let $E_{n,m} := \{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge 1/m\}$. Define the N-th tail support set

$$T_{N,m} := \{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge 1/m, \ \exists n \ge N\} = \bigcup_{n \ge N} E_{n,m}.$$

Also let $\mu(E_{n,m})$ be the <u>width</u> of n-th event $\mathbb{1}\{E_{n,m}\}$. Note that $T_{N,m} \supseteq T_{N+1,m}$ is **monotone nonincreasing** and $T_{N,m} \subseteq T_{N,m+1}$ is **monotone nondecreasing**.

1. The **pointwise convergence** of f_n to f indicates that for every x, every $m \ge 1$, there exists some $N \equiv N(m,x) \ge 1$ such that $T_{N,m}^c \ni x$ or $T_{N,m} \not\ni x$. Equivalently, **the tail** support shrinks to emptyset:

$$\bigcap_{N\in\mathbb{N}} T_{N,m} = \lim_{N\to\infty} T_{N,m} = \limsup_{n\to\infty} E_{n,m} = \emptyset, \quad \text{for all } m.$$

Conversely, to prove **not pointwise convergence**, we need to find a $x \in X$ and for an arbitrary fixed $m \ge 1$ such that

$$x \in \bigcap_{N \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{n \ge N} \{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge 1/m\} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge 1/m\}.$$

2. The pointwise almost everywhere convergence indicates that there exists a null set F with $\mu(F) = 0$ such that for every $x \in X \setminus F$ and any $m \ge 1$, there exists some $N \equiv N(m,x) \ge 1$ such that $(T_{N,m} \setminus F) \not\ni x$. Equivalently, the tail support shrinks to a null set. Note that it makes no assumption on $(T_{N,m} \cap F)$.

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} T_{N,m} \setminus F = \limsup_{n \to \infty} E_{n,m} \setminus F = \emptyset, \text{ for all } m.$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \bigcap_{N \in \mathbb{N}} T_{N,m} = \lim_{N \to \infty} T_{N,m} = F$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mu \left(\lim_{N \to \infty} T_{N,m} \right) = \mu \left(\bigcap_{N \in \mathbb{N}} T_{N,m} \right) = 0$$

Conversely, to prove **not pointwise almost convergence**, we need to find a $x \in X$ and for an arbitrary fixed $m \ge 1$ such that

$$x \in \bigcap_{N \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{n \ge N} \left\{ x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge 1/m \right\} \setminus F = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left\{ x \in X \setminus F : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge 1/m \right\}.$$

- 3. The *uniform convergence* indicates that for each $m \geq 1$, there exists some $N(m) \geq 1$ (not depending on x) such that $T_{N,m} = \emptyset$. (i.e. $T_{N,m} \not\ni x$ for all $x \in X$.) So **the tail** support is an empty set
- 4. The *uniformly almost everywhere convergence* indicates that there exists some null set F with $\mu(F) = 0$ such that for each $m \ge 1$, there exists some $N(m) \ge 1$ (not depending on x) such that $(T_{N,m} \setminus F) = \emptyset$. (i.e. $T_{N,m} \not\ni x$ for all $x \in X \setminus F$.) Equivalently, the tail support is a null set:

$$T_{N,m} = F$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mu(T_{N,m}) = 0$$

5. The almost uniform convergence indicates that for every δ , there exists some measurable set F_{δ} with $\mu(F_{\delta}) < \delta$ such that for each $m \geq 1$ there exists some $N(m) \geq 1$ (not depending on x) such that $(T_{N,m} \setminus F_{\delta}) = \emptyset$. (i.e. $T_{N,m} \not\ni x$ for all $x \in X \setminus F_{\delta}$.) Equivalently, the measure of tail support shrinks to zero:

$$\mu\left(T_{N,m}\right) \leq \delta \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad T_{N,m} = F_{\delta}$$

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \mu\left(T_{N,m}\right) = 0$$

6. The *convergence in measure* indicates that for any $m \ge 1$ and any $\delta > 0$, there exists $N \equiv N(m, \delta) \ge 1$ such that for all $n \ge N$, the <u>width</u> of n-th event <u>shrinks to zero</u>:

$$\mu(E_{n,m}) \le \delta$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(E_{n,m}) := \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\left(\left\{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \epsilon\right\}\right) = 0$$

• **Definition** Define the *maximum variation* between (f_n) and f as $\sup_{x \in X} |f_n(x) - f(x)|$. Note that

$$\sup_{x \in X} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \sup_{x \in X \setminus F, \mu(F) = 0} |f_n(x) - f(x)|.$$

• Remark From Borel-Cantelli Lemma, we see that in order to show the pointwise almost everywhere convergence, i.e. $\mu(\bigcap_N T_{N,\epsilon}) = \mu(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_{n,\epsilon}) = 0$ it suffice to show that the measure of the tail support is finite, $\mu(T_{N,\epsilon}) = \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \mu(E_{n,\epsilon}) < \infty$. Note that this condition implies that it not only converges in measure $\mu(E_{n,\epsilon}) \to 0$ but converge in an absolutely summable fashion.

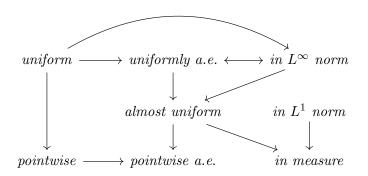
6.2.1 Comparison

 ${\bf Table~4:~Comparison~of~Modes~of~Convergence}$

	tail support	width	$maximum \ variation$	subgraph
definition	$T_{N,\epsilon} = \bigcup_{n \ge N} E_{n,\epsilon}$	$\mu(E_{n,\epsilon})$	$\sup_{x \in X} \{ f_n(x) - f(x) \}$	$\Gamma(f_n) = \{(x, t) : 0 \le t \le f_n(x)\}$
pointwise	$\bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} T_{N,\epsilon} = \emptyset$		$or, \to 0$ on X	
$point ext{-}wise \ a.e.$	$\mu\left(\bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} T_{N,\epsilon}\right) = 0$		$or, \to 0 \text{ on } X \setminus E$	
uniform	$T_{N,\epsilon} = \emptyset$		equivalently, $\rightarrow 0$ on X	
$egin{array}{c} uniform \ a.e. \ / \ L^{\infty} \ norm \end{array}$	$\mu\left(T_{N,\epsilon}\right) = 0$		equivalently, $\rightarrow 0$ on $X \setminus E$	
$almost \ uniform$	$\lim_{N\to\infty}\mu\left(T_{N,\epsilon}\right)=0$		or, $\to 0$ on $X \setminus E$	
in measure		$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mu\left(E_{n,\epsilon}\right)=0$	or, $\to 0$ on $X \setminus E$	
L^1 norm			$\rightarrow 0$ and support fixed or non-increasing	area of $\Gamma(f_n) = \mathcal{A}(\Gamma(f_n))$ $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{A}(\Gamma(f_n - f)) = 0$

6.3 Relationships between Different Modes of Convergence

- Proposition 6.2 [Tao, 2011]
 - Let (X, \mathcal{F}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f_n : X \to \mathbb{C}$ and $f : X \to \mathbb{C}$ be measurable functions
 - 1. If f_n converges to f uniformly, then f_n converges to f pointwisely.
 - 2. If f_n converges to f uniformly, then f_n converges to f in L^{∞} norm. Conversely, if f_n converges to f in L^{∞} norm, then f_n converges to f uniformly outside of a null set (i.e. there exists a null set E such that the restriction $f_n|_{X/E}$ of f_n to the complement of E converges to the restriction $f|_{X/E}$ of f).
 - 3. If f_n converges to f in L^{∞} norm, then f_n converges to f almost uniformly.
 - 4. If f_n converges to f almost uniformly, then f_n converges to f pointwise almost everywhere.
 - 5. If f_n converges to f pointwise, then f_n converges to f pointwise almost everywhere.
 - 6. If f_n converges to f in L^1 norm, then f_n converges to f in measure.
 - 7. If f_n converges to f almost uniformly, then f_n converges to f in measure.
- **Remark** This diagram shows the *relative strength* of different *modes of convergence*. The direction arrows $A \to B$ means "if A holds, then B holds".



Moreover, here are some counter statements:

- $-L^{\infty} \not\to L^1$: see the "Escape to Width Infinity" example below.
- uniform $\neq L^1$: see the "Escape to Width Infinity" example below.
- $-L^1 \rightarrow uniform$: see the "Typewriter Sequence" example below.
- **pointwise** $\neq L^1$: see the "Escape to Horizontal Infinity" example below.
- **pointwise** \rightarrow **uniform**: see the " $f_n = x/n$ " example above.
- For finite measure space, $pointwise~a.e. \rightarrow almost~uniform$: see the Egorov's theorem.
- almost uniform $\rightarrow L^1$: see the "Escape to Vertical Infinity" example below.
- almost uniform $\not\to L^{\infty}$: see the "Escape to Vertical Infinity" example below. The converse is true, however.

- For bounded $f_n \leq G$, a.e. $\forall n$, then **pointwise a.e.** $\rightarrow L^1$: see *Dominated Convergence Theorem*.
- $-L^1 \not\rightarrow pointwise \ a.e.$: see the "Typewriter Sequence" example below.
- in measure \neq pointwise a.e.: see the "Typewriter Sequence" example below.
- $-L^1 \rightarrow convergence \ in \ integral$: by triangle inequality. Note that the other modes of convergence does **not directly** lead to convergence in integral.

6.4 Counter Examples

• Example (*Escape to Horizontal Infinity*). Let X be the real line with Lebesgue measure, and let

$$f_n(x) \equiv \mathbb{1}_{[n,n+1]}.$$

Note that the *height* and *width do not shrink to zero*, but *the tail set* shrinks to *the empty set*. We have the following statements on different modes of convergence:

- 1. f_n converges pointwise to f = 0, (thus pointwise a.e.)
- 2. f_n does not converges to f = 0 uniformly,
- 3. f_n does not converges to f = 0 in L^{∞} norm,
- 4. f_n does not converges to f = 0 almost uniformly
- 5. f_n does not converges to f = 0 in measure.
- 6. $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n dx = 1$ does not converge to $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f dx = 0$.
- 7. f_n does not converges to f = 0 in L^1 norm.

Somehow, all the mass in the f_n has escaped by moving off to infinity in a horizontal direction, leaving none behind for the pointwise limit f. In frequency domain, it corresponds to escaping to spatial infinity.

 $\bullet \ \ \mathbf{Example} \ \ (\textit{Escape to Width Infinity}).$

Let X be the real line with Lebesgue measure, and let

$$f_n \equiv \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{1}_{[0,n]}.$$

See that the **height** goes to **zero**, but the **width** (and **tail support**) go to **infinity**, causing the $\underline{L^1}$ norm to stay **bounded away from zero**. We have the following statements on different modes of convergence:

- 1. f_n converges to f = 0 uniformly. (Thus, pointwise, pointwise a.e., uniformly a.e., almost uniformly, in L^{∞} norm and in measure)
- 2. $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n dx = 1$ does not converge to $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f dx = 0$. This is due to the increasingly wide nature of the <u>support</u> of the f_n . If all the f_n were supported in a single set of finite measure, this will not happen.
- 3. f_n does not converges to f = 0 in L^1 norm.

In frequency domain, it corresponds to escaping to zero frequency.

• Example (*Escape to Vertical Infinity*). Let X be the unit interval [0,1] with Lebesgue measure (restricted from \mathbb{R}), and let

$$f_n = n \mathbb{1}_{\left[\frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}\right]}.$$

Note that the **height** goes to **infinity**, but the **width** (and **tail support**) go to **zero** (or **the empty set**), causing the $\underline{L^1 \text{ norm to stay bounded away from zero}}$. We have the following statements on different modes of convergence:

- 1. f_n converges pointwise to f = 0, (thus pointwise a.e.)
- 2. f_n converges to f = 0 almost uniformly, (thus in measure)
- 3. f_n does not converges to f = 0 uniformly,
- 4. f_n does not converges to f = 0 in L^{∞} norm,
- 5. $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n dx = 1$ does not converge to $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f dx = 0$.
- 6. f_n does not converges to f = 0 in L^1 norm.

Note that we have finite measure on X = [0,1]. This time, the mass has escaped vertically, through the increasingly large values of f_n . In frequency domain, it corresponds to escaping to infinity frequency.

• Example (*Typewriter Sequence*). Let f_n be defined by the formula

$$f_n \equiv \mathbb{1}\left\{x \in \left\lceil \frac{n-2^k}{2^k}, \frac{n+1-2^k}{2^k} \right\rceil\right\}$$

whenever $k \geq 0$ and $2^k \leq n < 2^k + 1$. This is a sequence of indicator functions of *intervals* of *decreasing length*, *marching across the unit interval* [0,1] *over and over again*. See that *the width goes to zero*, but *the height and the tail support stay fixed* (and thus *bounded away from zero*). We have the following statements on different modes of convergence:

- 1. f_n converges to f = 0 in L^1 norm, (thus in measure)
- 2. f_n does not converges to f = 0 pointwise a.e., (thus not pointwise, not almost uniformly, not uniformly a.e., not uniformly, not in L^{∞} norm)

6.5 Uniqueness

- Proposition 6.3 Let f_n: X → C be a sequence of measurable functions, and let f, g: X → C be two additional measurable functions. Suppose that f_n converges to f along one of the seven modes of convergence defined above, and f_n converges to g along another of the seven modes of convergence (or perhaps the same mode of convergence as for f). Then f and g agree almost everywhere.
- Remark It suffice to show that when f_n converges to f pointwise almost everywhere, and f_n converges to g in measure. We need to show that f = g almost everywhere.

• Remark Even though the modes of convergence all differ from each other, they are all **compatible** in the sense that they **never disagree** about which function f a sequence of functions f_n converges to, outside of a set of measure zero.

6.6 Modes of Convergence for Step Functions

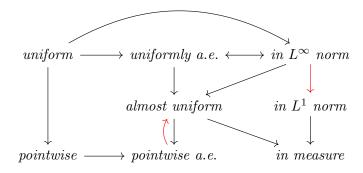
- Remark Consider the *step function* f_n as a constant multiple $f_n = A_n \mathbb{1} \{E_n\}$ of a measurable set E_n , which has a limit f = 0.
- **Definition** The modes of convergence for step function f_n is determined by the following quantities:
 - 1. the *n*-th **width** of f_n is $\mu(E_n)$;
 - 2. the *n*-th **height** of f_n is A_n ;
 - 3. the N-th tail support $T_N \equiv \bigcup_{n>N} E_n$ of the sequence f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots
- Remark Assume the *height* A_n exhibit one of two modes of behaviour:
 - 1. $A_n \to 0$, converge to zero;
 - 2. (A_n) are **bounded away from zero** (i.e. there exists c > 0 such that $A_n \ge c$ for every n.)
- Proposition 6.4 The following regarding the seven modes of convergence of $f_n = A_n \mathbb{1} \{E_n\}$ to f = 0:
 - 1. f_n converges uniformly to zero if and only if $A_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.
 - 2. f_n converges in L^{∞} norm to zero if and only if $A_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.
 - 3. f_n converges almost uniformly to zero if and only if $A_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, or $\mu(T_N) \to 0$ as $N \to \infty$.
 - 4. f_n converges **pointwise** to zero if and only if $A_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, or $\bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} T_N = \emptyset$.
 - 5. f_n converges **pointwise almost everywhere** to zero if and only if $A_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, or $\bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} T_N$ is a null set.
 - 6. f_n converges in measure to zero if and only if $A_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, or or $\mu(E_n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.
 - 7. f_n converges in L^1 norm if and only if $A_n\mu(E_n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.
- Remark We summarize the above proposition:
 - When the height goes to zero, then one has convergence to zero in all modes except possibly for L¹ convergence, which requires that the product of the height and the width goes to zero.
 - If the **height** is **bounded** away from zero (positive) and the width is **positive** (finite support), then we **never** have uniform or L^1 convergence.
 - * If the width goes to zero, we have convergence in measure.

- * If the measure of tail support goes to zero, we have almost uniform convergence.
- * If the tail support shrinks to a null set, we have pointwise almost everywhere convergence.
- * If the tail support shrinks to the empty set, we have pointwise convergence.

6.7 Modes of Convergence With Additional Conditions

6.7.1 Finite Measure Space

- Remark If we assume that (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) has *finite measure*, i.e. $\mu(X) < \infty$, we can shut down two of the four examples (namely, *escape to horizontal infinity* or *escape to width infinity*) and creates a few more equivalences.
- Example A probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a finite measure space since $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$.
- Theorem 6.5 (Egorov's theorem). [Royden and Fitzpatrick, 1988, Tao, 2011] Let (X, \mathcal{F}, μ) be a finite measure space, that is, $\mu(X) < \infty$ and let $f_n : X \to \mathbb{C}$ be a sequence of measurable functions that converge pointwise almost everywhere to another function $f : X \to \mathbb{C}$, and let $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exists a μ -measurable set A of measure at most ϵ , such that f_n converges uniformly to f outside of A. That is, given finite measure space, convergence pointwise almost everywhere implies converge almost uniformly.
- Remark *The finite measure space* condition allows us to use *the downward convergence* of measure without much concern.
- Proposition 6.6 Let X have finite measure, and let $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$ and $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be measurable functions. If f_n converges to f in L^{∞} norm, then f_n also converges to f in L^1 norm.
- Remark For finite measure space,



6.7.2 Fast L^1 Convergence

• Proposition 6.7 (Fast L1 convergence). Suppose that $f_n, f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ are measurable functions such that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|f_n f\|_{L^1(\mu)} < \infty$; thus, not only do the quantities $\|f_n f\|_{L^1(\mu)}$ go to zero (which would mean L^1 convergence), but they converge in an absolutely summable fashion. Then

- 1. f_n converges pointwise almost everywhere to f.
- 2. f_n converges almost uniformly to f.
- Corollary 6.8 (Subsequence Convergence). [Tao, 2011] Suppose that $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$ are a sequence of measurable functions that converge in L^1 norm to a limit f. Then there exists a subsequence f_{n_j} that converges almost uniformly (and hence, pointwise almost everywhere) to f (while remaining convergent in L^1 norm, of course).
- Corollary 6.9 (Subsequence Convergence in Measure). [Tao, 2011]
 Suppose that f_n: X → C are a sequence of measurable functions that converge in measure to a limit f. Then there exists a subsequence f_{nj} that converges almost uniformly (and hence, pointwise almost everywhere) to f.
- Remark It is instructive to see how this *subsequence* is extracted in the case of *the type-writer sequence*. In general, one can view the operation of passing to a subsequence as being able to *eliminate* "*typewriter*" situations in which *the tail support is much larger than the width*.

6.7.3 Domination and Uniform Integrability

- Remark Now we turn to the reverse question, of whether almost uniform convergence, pointwise almost everywhere convergence, or convergence in measure can imply L^1 convergence. The escape to vertical and width infinity examples shows that without any further hypotheses, the answer to this question is no.
- Remark [Tao, 2011] There are *two major ways* to shut down loss of mass via *escape to infinity*.
 - 1. One is to enforce **monotonicity**, which **prevents each** f_n **from abandoning the location** where the mass of the preceding f_1, \ldots, f_{n-1} was concentrated and which thus shuts down the above three escape scenarios. More precisely, we have the monotone convergence theorem.
 - 2. The other major way is to **dominate** all of the functions involved by an **absolutely** convergent one. This result is known as the dominated convergence theorem.
- **Definition** We say that a sequence $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$ is **dominated** if there exists an **absolutely** integrable function $g: X \to \mathbb{C}$ such that $|f_n(x)| \leq g(x)$ for all n and almost every x.
- Definition (*Uniform integrability*). A sequence $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$ of *absolutely integrable* functions is said to be *uniformly integrable* if the following three statements hold:
 - 1. (*Uniform bound on* L^1 *norm*) One has $\sup_n \|f_n\|_{L^1(\mu)} = \sup_n \int_X |f_n| d\mu < +\infty$.
 - 2. (No escape to vertical infinity) One has

$$\lim_{M \to +\infty} \sup_{n} \int_{|f_n| \ge M} |f_n| \, d\mu \to 0.$$

3. (No escape to width infinity) One has

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0} \sup_{n} \int_{|f_n| \le \delta} |f_n| \, d\mu \to 0.$$

- **Proposition 6.10** (Property of Uniform Integrablility)
 - 1. If f is an absolutely integrable function, then the constant sequence $f_n = f$ is uniformly integrable. (Hint: use the monotone convergence theorem.)
 - 2. Every dominated sequence of measurable functions is uniformly integrable.
- Exercise 6.11 Give an example of a sequence f_n of uniformly integrable functions that converge pointwise almost everywhere to zero, but do not converge almost uniformly, in measure, or in L^1 norm.
- Theorem 6.12 (Uniformly integrable convergence in measure). Let $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be a uniformly integrable sequence of functions, and let $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be another function. Then f_n converges in L^1 norm to f if and only if f_n converges to f in measure.
- Proposition 6.13 Suppose that $f_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$ are a dominated sequence of measurable functions, and let $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be another measurable function. Show that f_n converges pointwise almost everywhere to f if and only if f_n converges in almost uniformly to f.

6.8 Convergence in Distribution

• Remark (Convergence of Measures Induced by Function)

Convergence in distribution is also called weak convergence in probability theory [Folland, 2013]. In general, it is actually not a mode of convergence of functions f_n itself but instead is the convergence of measures induced by function f_n on $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

In functional analysis, however, **weak convergence** is actually reserved for a different mode of convergence, while **the convergence** in **distribution** is **the weak* convergence**.

weak convergence
$$\int f_n d\mu \to \int f d\mu, \quad \forall \mu \in \mathcal{M}(X),$$
 convergence in distribution
$$\int f d\mu_n \to \int f d\mu, \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{C}_0(X)$$

Definition (Weak* Topology on Banach Space)

Let X be a normed vector space and X^* be its dual space. The <u>weak* topology</u> on X^* is the weakest topology on X^* so that f(x) is continuous for all $x \in X$.

The weak* topology on space of regular Borel measures $\mathcal{M}(X) \simeq (\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*$ on a **compact Hausdorff** space X, is often called **the vague topology**. Note that $\mu_n \stackrel{w^*}{\to} \mu$ if and only if $\int f d\mu_n \to \int f d\mu$ for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_0(X)$.

• Definition (*Cumulative Distribution Function*) [Billingsley, 2008] Let (X, \mathscr{F}, μ) be a measure space. Given any real-valued measurable function $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$, we define the <u>cumulative distribution function</u> $F: \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ of f to be the function $F(\lambda) := \mu_f((-\infty, \lambda]) = \mu(\{x \in X : f(x) \leq \lambda\})$ where $\mu_f = \mu \circ f^{-1}$ is a **measure** on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ induced by function f.

• **Definition** (*Converge in Distribution*) [Van der Vaart, 2000] Let (X, \mathcal{F}, μ) be a measure space, $f_n : X \to \mathbb{R}$ be a sequence of real-valued *measurable functions*, and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ be another measurable function.

We say that f_n <u>converges in distribution</u> to f if the cumulative distribution function $F_n(\lambda)$ of f_n converges <u>pointwise</u> to the cumulative distribution function $F(\lambda)$ of f at all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ for which F is continuous. Denoted as $f_n \stackrel{d}{\to} f$ or $f_n \leadsto f$.

Note that for the distribution $\mu_{f_n} \equiv \mu \circ f_n^{-1}$ is a measure on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R}))$. Thus $f_n \stackrel{d}{\to} f$ if and only if

$$\mu_{f_n}(A) \to \mu_f(A), \quad \forall A \in \mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R}).$$

- Theorem 6.14 (The Portmanteau Theorem). [Van der Vaart, 2000] The following statements are equivalent.
 - 1. $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$.
 - 2. $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ for all **continuous functions** $h : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ that are non-zero only on a **closed** and **bounded** set.
 - 3. $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ for all **bounded continuous functions** $h : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$.
 - 4. $\mathbb{E}[h(X_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ for all **bounded measurable functions** $h : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ for which $\mathbb{P}(X \in \{x : h \text{ is continuous at } x\}) = 1$.
- We can reformulate the definition of convergence in distribution as below:

Definition [Wellner et al., 2013]

Let (Ω, d) be a metric space, and (Ω, \mathcal{B}) be a measurable space, where \mathcal{B} is **the Borel** σ -field **on** Ω , the smallest σ -field containing all the open balls (as the basis of metric topology on Ω). Let $\{P_n\}$ and P be **Borel probability measures** on (Ω, \mathcal{B}) .

Then the sequence P_n <u>converges in distribution</u> to P, which we write as $P_n \rightsquigarrow P$, if and only if

$$\int_{\Omega} f dP_n \to \int_{\Omega} f dP, \quad \text{ for all } f \in \mathcal{C}_b(\Omega).$$

Here $C_b(\Omega)$ denotes the set of all **bounded**, **continuous**, real functions on Ω .

We can see that <u>the convergence</u> in distribution is actually a weak* convergence. That is, it is the weak convergence of bounded linear functionals $I_{\mathcal{P}_n} \stackrel{w^*}{\to} I_{\mathcal{P}}$ on the space of all probability measures $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X}) \simeq (\mathcal{C}_b(\mathcal{X}))^*$ on $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$ where

$$I_{\mathcal{P}}: f \mapsto \int_{\Omega} f d\mathcal{P}.$$

Note that the $I_{\mathcal{P}_n} \stackrel{w^*}{\to} I_{\mathcal{P}}$ is equivalent to $I_{\mathcal{P}_n}(f) \to I_{\mathcal{P}}(f)$ for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_b(\mathcal{X})$.

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