

Analysis, Probability, and Stochastic Calculus

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1 Zorm lemma

Definition. X : a set with a relation \leq on X is a partial order if

- (1) $\forall x \in X, x \leq x$
- (2) $\forall x, x' \in X [x \leq x' \text{ and } x' \leq x \Rightarrow x = x']$
- (3) $\forall x, x', x'' [x \leq x' \leq x'' \Rightarrow x \leq x'']$.

Definition. A poset (X, \leq) is a chain or totally ordered set if $x, x' \in X [x \leq x' \text{ or } x' \leq x]$.

Definition. b is a maximal element in X if $\forall x \in X, b \leq x$, then $b = x$.

Definition. (X, \leq) a chain. We say that (X, \leq) is a well-ordered set if $\forall A \subseteq X [A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow A \text{ has a least element}]$.

Theorem. (a version of Bourbaki's fixed point theorem) (X, \leq) a poset in which every well-ordered subset has least upper bound. $X \xrightarrow{f} X$ a map s.t. $x \leq f(x)$ for every $x \in X$. $\exists a \in X, f(a) = a$.

Theorem. (1) For any $X, \exists P_0(X) \xrightarrow{f} X, \forall S \in P_0(X), f(S) \in S$.

(2) If X is a poset in which every well-ordered subset has a least upper bound in X , then X has a maximal element.

(3) Every poset has a maximal chain.

(4) If X is a poset, in which every chain has an upper bound in X , then X has a maximal element.

(5) Every set has a well-order.

(6) \forall surjection $X \xrightarrow{f} Y, \exists Y \xrightarrow{g} X$ s.t. $f \circ g = id_Y$.

(7) Given sets S_α , there exists $A \xrightarrow{f} \cup_{\alpha \in A} S_\alpha$ s.t. $f(\alpha) \in S_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in A$.

Proof. (7) \Rightarrow (1) Let $P_0(X) = \{S | S \in P_0(X)\}$. Then (7) $\Rightarrow \exists A \xrightarrow{f} \cup_{\alpha \in A} S_\alpha$ s.t. $f(\alpha) \in S_\alpha$ then $S \in f(S)$.

(1) \Rightarrow (2) Assume that X has no maximal element, $\forall a \in X, X_a = \{x \in X | a < x\} \neq \emptyset$. By (1), define a map $k: a \rightarrow X_a$ and $\exists P_0(X) \xrightarrow{f} X$ s.t. $f(S) \in S$ for all $S \subseteq X \neq \emptyset$. Let $g = f \circ k$. $\forall a \in X, g(a) = f(X_a) \in X_a$ and $a < g(a)$.

Contradictory to Boubaki's fixed point theorem.

(2) \Rightarrow (3) Consider $X = \{C | C \text{ is a chain in } P \text{ w.r.t. } \leq\}$ and thus is a poset with respect to \subseteq . We claim a stronger result: any totally ordered set in X has a lub in X . If $T \subseteq X$ is a totally ordered set, $\cup_{C \in T} C$ is $\text{lub}_x T$. By (2), X has the maximal element, i.e. a maximal chain in P .

(3) \Rightarrow (4) By (3), \exists maximal chain C . By assumption, C has an upper bound, say a , in X . Then a is a maximal element in X , otherwise, $\exists x \in X, a < x$, and hence $X \cup \{x\}$ is a chain. Contradictory!

(4) \Rightarrow (5) Let Y be a set. Consider $X = \{A | A = (S_A, \leq_A)\}$ where $S_A \subseteq Y$ and \leq_A is a well-ordering on S_A . We define a relation \preceq on X : $A \preceq A' \Leftrightarrow A = A'$ or A is an initial segment of A' , i.e. $a' \in S_{A'}, S_A = \{x \in S_{A'} | x < a'\}$ and

$\forall x_1, x_2 \in S_A, x_1 \leq_A x_2 \Leftrightarrow x_1 \leq_{A'} x_2$. It is direct to see that \preceq is a partial order.

We claim X has a maximal element w.r.t. \preceq and a maximal element in X w.r.t. \preceq is of the form (Y, \preceq) . We first verify the latter. If (Y_0, \preceq) is a maximal element in X w.r.t. \preceq and $Y_0 \neq Y$, then $\exists y \in Y \setminus Y_0$, and $Y_0 \cup \{y\}$ admits a well-ordering which makes an initial segment. We apply (4) to the former. Let

C be a chain in X w.r.t. \preceq . Let $A_0 = (S_{A_0}, \leq_{A_0})$ where $S_{A_0} = \cup_{A \in C} S_A$ and

\leq_{A_0} : For any $x_1, x_2 \in S_{A_0}$, find $A \in C$, s.t. $x_1, x_2 \in S_A$ we say that $x_1 \leq_{A_0} x_2$ if

$x_1 \leq_A x_2$. Such A exists since C is a chain. In addition, \leq_{A_0} is a total order and a well-ordering since let $T \subseteq S_{A_0} \neq \emptyset$. $T = T \cap S_{A_0} = T \cap \cup S_A = \cup(T \cap S_A$,

$\exists A \in C, T \cap S_A \neq \emptyset$. (S_A, \leq_A) is a well-ordered set, $T \cap S_A$ has a least element

in S_A , say t . Then t is also the least element of T in S_{A_0} w.r.t. \leq_{A_0} . Thus, A_0 is in X . And check A_0 is the upper bound of X .

(5) \Rightarrow (6) Choose a well ordering \leq on X . For $y \in Y$, define $g(y) =$ the least element of $f^{-1}(y)$. $f \circ g(y) = y$.

(6) \Rightarrow (7) Consider $S = \cup_{\alpha \in A} S_\alpha$. Let $X = \{(s, \alpha) \in S \times A | s \in S_\alpha\}$. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} A$ and $X \xrightarrow{p} S$. f is surjective. By (6) $\exists A \xrightarrow{g} X$ s.t. $f(g(\alpha)) = \alpha$ for all $\alpha \in A$. Let $h = p \circ g$. Since $g(\alpha) \in X$ and $f(g(\alpha)) = \alpha$. $(s(\alpha), \alpha) \in X \Rightarrow s(\alpha) \in S_\alpha$. $h(\alpha) = p(g(\alpha)) = p(s(\alpha), \alpha) = s(\alpha) \in S_\alpha$ \square

Theorem. Every orthonormal set B in a Hilbert space H is contained in a maximal orthonormal set in H .

Proof. Let P be the class of all orthonormal sets in H which contain the given set B . Partially ordered P by set inclusion. Since $B \in P, P \neq \emptyset$, P contains a maximal chain Ω . Let S be the union of all members of Ω . It is clear that $B \subset S$. We then claim that S is a maximal orthonormal set: If $u_1, u_2 \in S$, then $u_1 \in A_1$ and $u_2 \in A_2$ for some A_1 and $A_2 \in \Omega$. Since Ω is totally ordered, $A_1 \subset A_2$, SO THAT $u_1 \in A_2$ and $u_2 \in A_2$. Since A_2 is orthonormal, $\langle u_1, u_2 \rangle = 0$ if $u_1 \neq u_2, \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle = 1$ if $u_1 = u_2$. Thus S is an orthonormal set.

Suppose that S is not maximal. Then S is a proper subset of an orthonormal

set S^* . Clearly, S^* not in Ω . We may adjoin S^* to Ω and still have a total order. Contradictory! \square

Theorem. *Let H be a Hilbert space, and let F be an orthogonal set in H . The following are equivalent:*

*F is maximal among all the orthogonal subsets of H .
 $\text{span}F$ is dense in X .*

2 Topology

Definition. *A topological space $X = (\underline{X}, T_X)$ consists of a set \underline{X} , called the underlying space of X , and a family T_X of subsets of \underline{X} s.t. (1) \underline{X} and $\varnothing \in T_X$, (2) $U_\alpha \in T_X (\alpha \in A), \cup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha \in T_X$, (3) $U, U' \in T_X, U \cap U' \in T_X$, T_X called a topology on \underline{X} .*

Theorem. *Any two norms on a finite-dimensional vector space are equivalent.*

Lemma. *Let $(K, \|\cdot\|)$ be a non-trivially valued field and V be a K -vector space. Two norms are equivalent if and only if there are constants $A > 0$ and $B > 0$ such that $A\|v\|' \leq \|v\| \leq B\|v\|'$ for all $v \in V$.*

Proof. (Proof of lemma)

The lemma is obvious if $V = \{0\}$, so assume that V is not $\{0\}$.

(\Leftarrow) First assume that there are positive A and B such that $A\|v\|' \leq \|v\| \leq B\|v\|'$ for all $v \in V$. Then for any open set $U \subset V$ w.r.t. $\|\cdot\|$ and $v \in U$, there is an $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. the open ϵ -ball w.r.t. $\|\cdot\|$ around v is contained in U : $\{\omega \in V : \|\omega - v\| < \epsilon\} \subset U$. Since $\|\omega - v\| < \frac{\epsilon}{B} \Rightarrow \|\omega - v\|' < \epsilon \Rightarrow$ any open $\|\cdot\|$ -ball around v contains an open $\|\cdot\|'$ -ball around v , so U is open w.r.t. $\|\cdot\|'$. The contrary relation holds if using $\|v\|' \leq \frac{1}{A}\|v\|$.

(\Rightarrow) Assume that $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\cdot\|'$ are equivalent. Then the open unit ball around origin in V relative to $\|\cdot\|$ is open relative to $\|\cdot\|'$ and the open unit ball around the origin in V relative to $\|\cdot\|'$ is open relative to $\|\cdot\|$, so there are $r > 0, s > 0$ such that $\{v \in V : \|v\|' < r\} \subset \{v \in V : \|v\| < 1\}$, $\{v \in V : \|v\| < s\} \subset \{v \in V : \|v\|' < 1\}$. Therefore, for each nonzero $v \in V$, there exists $\gamma \in K$ s.t. $|\gamma|^n \leq \frac{1}{s}\|v\| \leq |\gamma|^{n+1}$. Then $\|\frac{1}{\gamma^{n+1}}v\| = \frac{1}{|\gamma|^{n+1}}\|v\| < s$, so $\|\frac{v}{\gamma^{n+1}}\|' < 1$. Thus $\|v\|' < |\gamma|^{n+1} \leq \frac{|\gamma|}{s}\|v\|$. By setting $B = |\gamma|/s$, we have $\|v\|' < B\|v\|$ for all nonzero $v \in V$, so $\|v\|' \leq B\|v\|$ for all v . The similar conclusion holds using r in replace of s . In that result, $A = \frac{r}{|\gamma|}$.

(Proof of theorem)

Choose arbitrary two norms $\|\cdot\|_a, \|\cdot\|_b$.

We can claim that it is sufficient to consider $\|\cdot\|_b$ equivalent to $\|\cdot\|_1$ by transitivity. First define an L_1 -style norm by $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|$. Suppose both $\|\cdot\|_a$ and $\|\cdot\|_{a'}$ are equivalent to $\|\cdot\|_1$ for constants $0 < C_1 \leq C_2$ and $0 < C'_1 \leq C'_2$,

respectively:

$$\begin{aligned} C_1 \|x\|_1 &\leq \|x\|_a \leq C_2 \|x\|_1, \\ C'_1 \|x\|_1 &\leq \|x\|_a \leq C'_2 \|x\|_1, \end{aligned}$$

It immediately follows that

$$\frac{C'_1}{C_2} \|x\|_a \leq \|x\|_{a'} \leq \frac{C'_2}{C_1} \|x\|_a,$$

and hence $\|\cdot\|_a$ and $\|\cdot\|_{a'}$ are equivalent.

Next, we claim that it is sufficient to consider only x with $\|x\|_1 = 1$ since the vector space is equipped with scalar multiplication.

Next, we claim that any norm $\|\cdot\|_a$ is continuous under $\|\cdot\|_1$. By the triangle inequality on $\|\cdot\|_a$, it follows that $|\|x'\|_a - \|x\|_a| \leq \|x' - x\|_a$. And applying the triangle inequality again, and writing $x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i e_i$ and $x' = \sum_{i=1}^n a'_i e_i$, we can obtain

$$\|x - x'\|_a \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i - a'_i| \cdot \|e_i\|_a \leq \|x - x'\|_1 (\max_i \|e_i\|_a).$$

Therefore, if we choose $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{\max_i \|e_i\|_a}$, it immediately follows that

$$\|x - x'\|_1 < \delta \Rightarrow |\|x\|_a - \|x'\|_a| \leq \|x - x'\|_a < \epsilon.$$

It is a standard theorem of analysis, the extreme value theorem, that a continuous function on compact set must achieve a maximum and minimum value on the set. Let

$$\begin{aligned} C_1 &= \min_{\|u\|_1=1} \|u\|_a, \\ C_2 &= \max_{\|u\|_1=1} \|u\|_a, \end{aligned}$$

Since $u \neq 0$ for $\|u\|_1 = 1$, it follows that $C_2 \geq C_1 > 0$ and $C_1 \leq \|u\|_a \leq C_2$ as required by the previous step. \square

Definition. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $X \xrightarrow[\text{bar}]{f} Y$ a map. We say that f is continuous at point $x_0 \in X$ if $\forall V \in T_Y, \exists U \in T_X$ s.t. $F(U) \subseteq V$

Lemma. f continuous $\Leftrightarrow \forall V \in T_Y, f^{-1}(V) \in T_X$

Definition. X : a top. space, $K \subseteq X$. K is compact in X if $\forall U_\alpha \subset_{\text{open}} X (\alpha \in A)$, if $K \subseteq \cup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$, \exists finite set $S \subseteq A$ s.t. $K \subseteq \cup_{\alpha \in S} U_\alpha$.

Proposition 1. $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ and f is continuous, K is compact in X , $f(K) \subseteq Y$ is compact.

Proof. For $V_\alpha \subseteq_{\text{open}} Y$ ($\alpha \in A$) s.t. $f(K) \subseteq \cup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha$, we have $K \subseteq f^{-1}(f(K)) \subseteq f^{-1}(\cup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha) = \cup_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(V_\alpha)$. By the above lemma, $f^{-1}(V_\alpha) \subseteq_{\text{open}} X$. Since K is compact, \exists finite set $S \subseteq A$ s.t. $K \subseteq \cup_{\alpha \in S} f^{-1}(V_\alpha) \Rightarrow f(K) \subseteq f(f^{-1}(\cup_{\alpha \in S} V_\alpha)) = \cup_{\alpha \in S} V_\alpha$. \square

Theorem. (Heine Borel theorem) K : cpt in X . K is bounded and closed in X .

Proof. $K \subseteq \cup_{r>0} B_r(a)$ ($\forall a \in X$). Hence, K is bounded. Fix any x not in K . For any y in K , $\exists U_y$ which includes y open subset to X and V_y which includes X and open subset to X s.t. $U_y \cap V_y = \varnothing$. $K = \cup_{y \in K} \{y\} \subseteq \cup_{y \in K} U_y \Rightarrow \exists$ finite set $S \subseteq K$ s.t. $K \subseteq \cup_{y \in S} U_y$. Let $V = \cap_{y \in S} V_y$, $x \in V \subseteq_{\text{open}} X$. $V \cap K \subseteq \cap_{y \in S} V_y \cap (\cup_{z \in S} U_z) = \cup_{z \in S} (\cap_{y \in S} V_y \cap U_z) = \varnothing$. Conclusion: for all x not in K , exists $V_x \subseteq_{\text{open}} X$ s.t. $V_x \subseteq X \setminus K$. $X \setminus K = \cup_{x \in X \setminus K} V_x \subseteq_{\text{open}} X$. Thus K is closed. \square

Corollary. Finite-dimensional vector subspaces of a normed vector space are all closed.

Proof. For definiteness, assume that E is a real n.v.s. with norm $\|\cdot\|$. Consider any finite-dimensional vector subspace F of E , put n =dimension of F and choose a basis v_1, \dots, v_n of F . Define a new norm $\|\cdot\|'$ on F as follows: for $u = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j v_j$ where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are real numbers, let $\|u\|' = (\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Clearly, $\|\cdot\|'$ is a norm on F . Let T be the linear map from the Euclidean space R^n onto F , defined by $Tx = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j v_j$ for $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. If we denote the Euclidean norm by $|\cdot|$, then $\|Tx\|' = |x|$. Then by the previous theorem, there is $c > 0$ such that $c\|u\|' \leq \|u\| \leq c^{-1}\|u\|'$ for $u \in F$. Consequently, $\|Tx\| \leq c^{-1}\|Tx\|' = c^{-1}|x|$ for $x \in R^n$. and hence T is a continuous map from R^n into E . We arbitrarily choose a sequence u_k in F that converges in E . Since the sequence converges, it is bounded, say $\|u_k\| \leq A$ for all k for some $A > 0$. Now write $u_k = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j^{(k)} v_j$ and put $\alpha^{(k)} = (\alpha_1^{(k)}, \dots, \alpha_n^{(k)})$, then $u_k = T\alpha^{(k)}$ and $|\alpha^{(k)}| = \|u_k\|' \leq c^{-1}\|u_k\| \leq c^{-1}A$ for each k . Thus u_k is contained in the image $K \subset F$ of the closed ball $x \in R^n : |x| \leq c^{-1}A$ under T . Since closed ball in R^n are compact, K is compact by the above proposition and is therefore closed in E . Now $u_k \in K$ implies that its limit is in $K \subset F$. This shows that F is closed. \square

Definition. A topological space X is

first countable if $\forall x \in X, \exists$ countable local basis at x . Ex: X : metric space. Choose $B_r(x) | r > 0, r \in Q$. Hence, it is easily to see that a metric space is first countable.

second countable if \exists countable basis of the topology.

separable if it contains a countable dense subset.

Lindelöf if every open cover has a countable subcover.

The 2nd countability can deduce to 1st countability, separability and Lindelöf.

3 Sequential descriptions of several notions in metric spaces

(1) Let (X, d) be a metric space. For any $A \subseteq X$, we have $\bar{A} = \{x \in X \mid \exists \text{ sequence } x_n \in A (n \in \mathbb{N}) \text{ s.t. } x_n \rightarrow x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty\}$.

Proof. (Necessary condition) Suppose there exists a sequence $x_n \in A (n \in \mathbb{N})$ s.t. $x_n \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then by definition: $\exists N \in \mathbb{N} : \forall n > N : x_n \in B_\epsilon(x)$. Since $\forall n : x_n \in A$, it follows that: $\forall \epsilon > 0 : B_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \varnothing$. Hence $x \in \bar{A}$. (Sufficient condition) Now suppose $x \in \bar{A}$. By definition of closure: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : \exists x_n \in A \cup B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x)$. Thus clearly x_n converges to x . \square

(2) all limit points of A in $X = \{x \in X \mid \exists \text{ sequence } a_n \in A \setminus \{x\} (n \in \mathbb{N}) \text{ s.t. } a_n \rightarrow x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty\}$.

(3) Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a map between metric spaces and $x_0 \in X$. We have f is continuous $\Leftrightarrow \forall x_n \in X (n \in \mathbb{N}), x_n \rightarrow x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$.

Remark. If X is a topological space instead of a metric space, $x \in X$ and $x_n \in X (n \in \mathbb{N})$, we may define $x_n \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ to mean that \forall open neighborhood U of $x \in X$, $\exists N$ s.t. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq N \Rightarrow x_n \in U$. Then in (1)(2)(3), the left can deduce the right. The converse holds if X is first countable. Regard to (1), first countability ensures that every point has a countable local basis U_1, U_2, \dots . Then we can construct a decreasing set sequence $U_1, U_1 \cap U_2, \dots$. And by closure property, we can choose a point from each intersection of A and the element of the above set sequence. Thus, we construct the point sequence as required.

Definition. (X, d) : metric space.

(1) (X, d) is sequentially compact if every sequence has a convergent subsequence.

(2) (X, d) is totally bounded if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$ finite set $S \subseteq X$ s.t. $X = \bigcup_{s \in S} B_\epsilon(s)$.

Remark. Total boundedness \Rightarrow separability.

Proof. More precisely, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a finite set $S_n \subseteq X$ s.t. $X = \bigcup_{s \in S_n} B_{\frac{1}{n}}(s)$. Then $S := \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n$ which is a countable dense subset in X w.r.t. d . \square

Theorem. A space X is compact if and only if every collection of closed subsets of X satisfying the finite intersection property has non-empty intersection.

Proof. \Rightarrow Let X be compact. Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of closed subsets of X . We show that if \mathcal{C} has the finite intersection property, then it has non-empty intersection. Suppose that $\bigcap \mathcal{C} = \varnothing$. Then $\mathcal{U} = \{X - C : C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ is an open cover of X . By the compactness of X , \mathcal{U} has a finite subcover $\{X - C_0, X - C_1, \dots, X - C_n\}$. Contradictory.

\Leftarrow Let \mathcal{U} be an open cover of X such that it has no finite subcover. Note that \mathcal{C} has the finite intersection property but $\bigcap \mathcal{C} = \varnothing$. Contradictory. \square

Proposition 2. (X, d) : metric space. The following are equivalent.

- (1) X is compact
- (2) X is sequentially compact
- (3) X is totally bounded and complete.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) Suppose that $\exists x_n (n \in \mathbb{N}), \forall x \in X, x$ is not the limit of any subsequence of x_n . Thus for any $x \in X, \exists$ open neighborhood U_x of x in X s.t. $n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in U_x$ is finite. $X = \cup_{x \in X} U_x \xrightarrow{X: \text{cpt}} \exists p_1, \dots, p_m, X = U_{p_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{p_m}$. $\mathbb{N} = \mathbb{N} | x_n \in X = \cup_{j=1}^m \{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in U_{p_j}\}$. Contradictory!

(2) \Rightarrow (3) (Proof of completeness) A Cauchy sequence converges to x if and only if it has a subsequence that converges to x . (Necessary condition) If a Cauchy sequence x_n converges to x , it trivially follows that x_n is a subsequence to itself that converges to x . (Sufficient condition) Suppose that x_{n_k} is a subsequence of x_n that converges to x . Let $\epsilon > 0$. By the definition of a Cauchy sequence, there exists a positive integer M such that: $\forall i, j \in \mathbb{N} : i, j \geq M \Rightarrow d(x_i, x_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. By the definition of convergence, there exists a positive integer N such that: $\forall k \in \mathbb{N} : k \geq N \Rightarrow d(x_{n_k}, x) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. There exists a natural number $K > \max\{M, N\}$. Therefore, by the triangular inequality: for all $m \in \mathbb{N} : m > K \Rightarrow d(x_m, x) \leq d(x_m, x_K) + d(x_K, x) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$. That is x_n converges to x . Thus, it soon follows that if (X, d) is sequentially compact, then it is complete.

(Proof of totally-boundedness) If X is not totally bounded, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ and x_1, \dots s.t. $d(x_i, x_j) \geq \epsilon$ if $i \neq j$. Furthermore, any subsequence of the above x_n does not converge. Contradictory!

(3) \Rightarrow (2) Let $x_n (n \in \mathbb{N})$ be a sequence in X . (X, d) totally bounded \Rightarrow For any given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, X can be covered by finitely many $\frac{1}{n}$ -balls. $\Rightarrow \exists$ 1-ball B_1 s.t. $n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in B_1$ is infinite. $\Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow$ subsequence $x_{n_k} \in B_1 \cap \dots \cap B_k$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$. In fact, for every k and $l, l' \geq k$, we have $d(x_{n_l}, x_{n_{l'}}) < \frac{1}{k}$. Thus, the subsequence is Cauchy and complete.

(2) \Rightarrow (1) Let \mathcal{F} be a family of closed subsets of X which satisfies the FIP. We need to show that $\cap \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$. Suppose not $\cap \mathcal{F} = \emptyset \Rightarrow \{X \setminus C | C \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is an open cover of $X \Rightarrow \exists C_1, C_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $X \setminus C_n | n \in \mathbb{N}$ still covers $X \Rightarrow \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n = \emptyset$. Contradictory. We can choose $x_1 \in C_1, \dots$. By sequentially compact, there exists a subsequence x_{n_k} that converges. Therefore, $\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \neq \emptyset$. \square

Definition. Let X be a topological space and Y be a metric space. A family \mathcal{F} of maps from X to Y is equicontinuous at a point $x_0 \in X$ if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$ open neighborhood U of x_0 s.t. $\forall f \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in U, x \in U \Rightarrow d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$.

Theorem. If T is a continuous map a compact metric space M_1 into a metric space M_2 , then T is uniformly continuous on M_1 .

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given, and $x \in M_1$. Since T is continuous at x , there is $\delta_x > 0$ s.t. $\rho_2(Ty, Tx) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ if $\rho_1(y, x) < \delta_x$. Consider $B_{\frac{\delta_x}{2}}(x)$ which is an open cover of M_1 . Since M_1 is compact, \exists a finite subcover $B_{\frac{\delta_{x_1}}{2}}(x_1), \dots, B_{\frac{\delta_{x_l}}{2}}(x_l)$. Choose $\delta = \frac{1}{2} \min\{\delta_{x_1}, \dots, \delta_{x_l}\}$. Suppose that $x, y \in M_1$ with $\rho_1(x, y) < \delta$. Since $x \in M_1$, $x_1 \in B_{\frac{\delta_{x_1}}{2}}(x_1), 1 \leq j \leq l$. Then $\rho_1(y, x_j) \leq \rho_1(y, x) + \rho_1(x, x_j) = \delta + \frac{\delta_{x_j}}{2} < \delta_{x_j}$.

Therefore, $\rho_2(Ty, Tx_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Then, $\rho_2(Tx, Ty) \leq \rho_2(Tx, Tx_j) + \rho_2(Ty, Tx_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$. \square

Theorem. Let f_n be a sequence of real-valued continuous functions defined on a compact metric space M such that $f_1(x) \leq f_2(x) \dots$ and converges to a finite real number $f(x)$ for each $x \in M$. If further, f is continuous on M , then the sequence f_n converges uniformly to f on M . If, further, f is continuous on M , then the sequence f_n converges uniformly to f on M .

Proof. Given $\epsilon > 0$ and $x \in M$, there is $k_x \in N$ such that $0 \leq f(x) - f_{k_x}(x) < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. Because both f and f_{k_x} are continuous, there is an open ball $B(x)$ centered at x such that $|f(y) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ and $|f_{k_x}(y) - f_{k_x}(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ whenever $y \in B(x)$. As the result, we have $0 \leq f(y) - f_{k_x}(y) \leq |f(y) - f(x)| + |f(x) - f_{k_x}(x)| + |f_{k_x}(x) - f_{k_x}(y)| < \epsilon$ whenever $y \in B(x)$. Now $B(x) : x \in M$ is an open covering of M . There exists a finite subfamily that also covers M , say $B(x_1), \dots, B(x_i)$. Let $k_0 = \max\{k_{x_1}, \dots, k_{x_i}\}$. Then for $y \in M$ and $k \geq k_0$, it follows that $0 \leq f(y) - f_k(y) < \epsilon$. \square

Lemma. Let f_n be a sequence of continuous functions defined on a metric space M . Suppose that f_n converges uniformly to a function f on M , then f is continuous on M .

Proof. There exists n_0 s.t. $|f_{n_0}(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ for all x in M . In addition, f_{n_0} is continuous, for x, y in M with $\rho(x, y) < \delta$, $|f_{n_0}(y) - f_{n_0}(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |f(x) - f_{n_0}(x)| + |f_{n_0}(y) - f_{n_0}(x)| + |f(y) - f_{n_0}(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$. \square

Definition. $C(X)$: All continuous valued functions defined on a compact metric space X with norm given by $\|f\| = \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)|$.

Proposition 3. $C(X)$ is a Banach space.

Proof. Let f_n be a Cauchy sequence in $C(X)$. $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \leq \|f_n - f_m\|$ for $x \in X$. Given $\epsilon > 0$, there is $n_0 \in N$ such that $\|f_n - f_m\| < \epsilon$ whenever $n, m \geq n_0$, hence $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$ for all x in X and $n, m \geq n_0$, and thus $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ for all x in X and $n, m \geq n_0$, and thus $|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \epsilon$ for all x in X if $n \geq n_0$, by letting $m \rightarrow \infty$. It follows that $f \in C(X)$. In addition, $\sup_{x \in X} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \epsilon$ when $n \geq n_0$, or $\|f_n - f\| \leq \epsilon$ when $n \geq n_0$. Thus, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n - f\| = 0$. \square

Theorem. (A generalization of Ascoli's theorem) Let X be a topological space and F a family of real-valued functions on X . If (1) X is separable, (2) F is equicontinuous everywhere on X and (3) $\forall x \in X$ $\{f(x) | f \in F\}$ is a bounded subset of R , then every sequence in F has a subsequence which converges compactly, i.e. uniformly on every compact subset of X .

Proof. Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ be a countable dense subset. Suppose that $f_n (n \in N)$ be a sequence in F .

Claim 1: \exists subsequence $f_{n_m} (m \in N)$ which converges pointwise on A such that $f_n(a_1) | n \in N \subseteq f(a_1) | f \in F \subseteq_{\text{bounded}} R \Rightarrow n_m^{(1)} (m \in N)$ s.t. $f_{n_m^{(1)}}(a_1)$ converges.

Inductively, we can construct n_m^j s.t. (1) n^j strictly increasing, (2) $n_m^{(j)} \subseteq n_m^{(j-1)}$, and (3) $f_{n_m^{(j)}}(a_j)$ converges. Let $n_m := n_m^{(m)}$. Then $f_{n_m}(m = k, k+1, \dots)$ is a subsequence of $f_{n_m^{(k)}}$, and hence $f_{n_m}(a_k)$ converges as $m \rightarrow \infty$.

Claim 2: $\forall \epsilon$ and $x \in X$, \exists open neighborhood U_x of x and a number $N_x > 0$ s.t. if $x' \in U_x$ and $k, l \geq N_x$, $|f_{n_k}(x') - f_{n_l}(x')| < \epsilon$. F is equicontinuous at x , for any $\epsilon > 0$, \exists open neighborhood U_x of x s.t. $|f(z) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{6} \forall z \in U_x$. Since A is dense in X , $\exists a \in U_x \cap A$. FOR any $x' \in U_x$, we have $|f_{n_k}(x') - f_{n_l}(x')| \leq |f_{n_k}(x') - f_{n_k}(x)| + |f_{n_k}(x) - f_{n_k}(a)| + |f_{n_k}(a) - f_{n_l}(a)| + |f_{n_l}(a) - f_{n_l}(x)| + |f_{n_l}(x) - f_{n_l}(x')| \leq |f_{n_k}(x) - f_{n_l}(x)| + |f_{n_k}(a) - f_{n_l}(a)| + \frac{2\epsilon}{3} < \epsilon$.

Claim 3: $\forall K$ is compact in X . $f_{n_m}|_K$ converges uniformly. For an given $\epsilon > 0$, we have found U_x and N_x as in Claim 2. $K = \cup_{x \in K} x \subseteq \cup_{x \in K} U_x \Rightarrow \exists x_1, \dots, x_p \in K, K \subseteq U_{x_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{x_p}$. Let $N = \max\{N_{x_1}, \dots, N_{x_p}\}$. Then for any $q \in K$ and $k, l \geq N$, we have $|f_{n_k}(q) - f_{n_l}(q)| < \epsilon$. \square

Definition. Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. A is relatively compact if \bar{A} is compact.

By Ascoli's theorem, $F \subseteq C(X, R)$ is equicontinuous and uniformly bounded $\Rightarrow F$ is relatively compact in $(C(X, R), d_{sup})$.

Theorem. A subset A of a metric space M is totally bounded if and only if every sequence in A has a Cauchy subsequence. In particular, compact sets are totally bounded.

Proof. Suppose A is totally bounded and let x_n be a sequence in A . There is a $\frac{1}{2}$ net for A and hence one of its balls contains a subsequence $x_n^{(1)}$. After the subsequence is chosen, we then choose a

$\frac{1}{4}$ net for A and construct $x_n^{(2)}$ from $x_n^{(1)}$. Now, $x_n^{(n)}$ is a subsequence of x_n . For each positive integer n_0 , if $n > m \geq n_0$, both $x_n^{(n)}, x_m^{(m)}$ are in a ball of radius 2^{-n_0} , hence $d(x_n^{(n)}, x_m^{(m)}) \leq 2^{-n_0+1}$, from which it follows that $x_n^{(n)}$ is a Cauchy subsequence of x_n .

Next, suppose that each sequence of A has a Cauchy subsequence. Suppose to the contrary that for some $\epsilon_0 > 0$, no ϵ_0 net for A exists. Then, we could find a sequence whose points are distanced from each other farther than ϵ_0 . Hence, the sequence has no Cauchy subsequence. Contradictory. \square

Theorem. (Arzelà-Ascoli theorem) The converse of Ascoli's theorem is true.

Proof. Suppose K is relatively compact. Since $C(X)$ is complete, K is totally bounded. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and let f_1, \dots, f_n be the center of an $\frac{\epsilon}{3}$ net for K . Since X is a compact space, f_1, \dots, f_n are uniformly continuous on X , there is $\delta > 0$ such that $|f_i(x) - f_i(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ for $i=1, \dots, n$ when $d(x, y) < \delta$. Consider now $f \in K$, there exists $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ s.t. $\sup_{x \in X} |f(x) - f_j(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |f(x) - f_j(x)| + |f_j(x) - f_j(y)| + |f_j(y) - f(y)| < \epsilon$. So K is equicontinuous. Since K is totally bounded, it is hence bounded. \square

4 Partitions of unity and paracompactness

Definition. For any R -valued function f on X , we define its support $\text{supp} f := \{x \in X \mid f(x) \neq 0\}$. $X \setminus \text{supp} f = \{x \in X \mid f(x) = 0\}$; in other words, for any U open in X and $f|_U = 0 \Leftrightarrow U \subseteq X \setminus \text{supp} f$ i.e. $U \cap \text{supp} f = \emptyset$.

Temporary notation

For R -valued functions f on A and g on B with $A, B \subseteq X$, we define $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x)g(x)$ if $x \in A \cap B$, $= 0$ if $x \in X \setminus (A \cap B)$. Note that $\text{supp}(f \cdot g) \subseteq \text{supp} f \cap \text{supp} g$.

Lemma. Given $U \subseteq_{\text{open}} X$, $f \in C(U)_R$ and $\rho \in C(X)_R$, if $\text{supp} \rho \subseteq U$, then $\rho \cdot f \in C(X)$.

Proof. $\text{supp} \rho \subseteq U \Leftrightarrow \{U, X \setminus \text{supp} \rho\}$ is an open cover of X . $(\rho \cdot f)|_U = \rho|_U \cdot f \in C(U)_R$. $(\rho \cdot f)|_{X \setminus \text{supp} \rho} = 0 \in C(X \setminus \text{supp} \rho)$. \square

The setting can be expanded to smoothness or continuous differentiability.

Definition. (refinements of open covers/paracompactness/partitions of unity)

(1) Let $U_k (k \in K)$ and $V_j (j \in J)$ be an open cover of X . We say that V is a refinement of U if \exists a map $J \xrightarrow{k(\cdot)} K$ s.t. $\forall j \in J, V_j \subseteq U_{k(j)}$.

(2) A family S_j of subsets of X is strongly locally finite. $\forall p \in X, \exists$ neighborhood W of p in X s.t. $j \in J \mid W \cap S_j \neq \emptyset$ is finite.

(3) X is paracompact if X is Hausdorff and \forall open cover of X , \exists strongly locally finite refinement V of U .

(4) Let U_k be an open cover of X and $X_j \xrightarrow{\rho_j} R$ a family of functions on X . We say that ρ_j is a continuous partition of unity on X subordinate to U if \exists strongly locally finite refinement V_j of U , s.t. $\text{supp} \rho_j \subseteq V_j$ for every $j \in J$. In addition, $\rho_j \geq 0$. And $\sum_{j \in J} \rho_j = 1$ for every $p \in X$.

Proposition 4. X : paracompact, $A \subseteq_{\text{closed}} X \Rightarrow A$: paracompact.

Proof. If $W: w_k$ is an open cover of A , say $W_k = U_k \subseteq_{\text{open}} X$, U_k together with $X \setminus A$ form an open cover of X . Thus, \exists a finite refinement V_j . Then $V_j \cap A$ is an expected refinement of W . \square

Proposition 5. Paracompactness implies normality.

Proof. (Proof of regularity)

By Hausdorffness, we can define, for every $y \in A$ (A is a closed set of X and does not contain x), open subsets U_y, V_y s.t. $x \in U_y, y \in V_y$, and $U_y \cap V_y = \emptyset$. Then, $A \subseteq \cup_{y \in A} V_y$. The sets V_y and $X \setminus A$ form an open cover of X . Thus, by paracompactness of X , there is a locally finite open refinement. Throwing out from this any open subset not intersecting A , we still get a locally finite collection P of open subsets, each contained in some V_y that cover A . There exists an open set W containing x such that there are only finitely many members of P that intersect W . Let T be a finite subset of A that contains, for each of this finite list of members of P , a point y s.t. that member is contained in V_y .

Define $U = W \cap \bigcap_{y \in T} U_y$ and V to be the union of all the members of P . Then, $x \in U$, $A \subseteq V$, and U and V are disjoint. For this, note that all the members of P that intersect W are contained in V_y s, which are disjoint from the corresponding U_y s. So, U is disjoint from V .

(Proof of normality)

For every $a \in A$, there exist open sets U_a, V_a containing a , such that U_a and V_a are disjoint. The U_a s form a collection of open subsets of X covering A . Along with $X \setminus A$, these form an open cover of X . This has a locally finite open refinement. Throwing out from this any open subset not intersecting A , we still get a locally finite collection Q of open subsets, each contained in some U_a , that cover A . Let C be the union of all members of Q . For any $b \in B$, there exists an open subset D_b around b that does not intersect C : First, there exists an open subset W_b around b intersecting finitely many members of Q . Let T be a finite subset of A that contains for each of this finite list of members of Q , a point a such that a is contained in U_a . Then, $D_b = W_b \cap \bigcap_{a \in T} V_a$ works. \square

Theorem. *If X is a Hausdorff space, X is paracompact \Leftrightarrow every open cover U of X admits a partition of unity subordinate to it.*

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Possibly by replacing U with a strongly locally finite refinement, we may assume U to be such. We first set up some terminology: a U -admissible collection is a family of functions $\varphi_U | U \in J$ s.t. (1) the index set $J \subseteq U$, (2) $X \xrightarrow[\text{continuous}]{\varphi_U} [0, 1]$ for every $U \in J$, $\text{supp} \varphi_U \subseteq U$, and (3) $\varphi_U^{-1}(0, 1]$ together with $U \setminus J$ form an open cover of X . Let A =all U -admissible collection be partially ordered by \subseteq . Then A admits a maximal chain $C \subseteq A$. Let $C_0 = \bigcup C$, saying we may write $C_0 = g_U | U \in J_0$, for some $J_0 \subseteq U$. We then claim that C_0 is still a U -admissible collection.

It is straightforward that C_0 hold automatically. If C_0 is not in A , then (3) is violated, i.e. $\exists x \in X$ s.t. x not in $g_U^{-1}(0, 1]$ and x not in U' . Let U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n be the only members of U which contains x since U is locally finite. Then, U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n must be in J_0 . Since C is a chain, $\exists C \in C$ of the form $g_U | U \in J_1$ s.t. $U_1, \dots, U_n \in J_1$; in particular, $x \in X = (\bigcup_{U \in J_1} g_U^{-1}(0, 1]) \cup \bigcup_{W \in U \setminus J_1} W$, and hence $x \in \bigcup_{U \in J_1} g_U^{-1}(0, 1]$.

Then, we claim that $J_0 = U$.

Suppose that $\exists U_0 \in U \setminus J_0$ and let $Y := (\bigcup_{U \in J_0} g_U^{-1}(0, 1]) \cup \bigcup_{W \in U \setminus J_0 \setminus U_0} W$. Then $X = U_0 \cup Y$ by (3). Let $Z = X \setminus Y \subseteq U_0$, a closed subset. By the previous proposition, X is normal and hence \exists open neighborhood V of Z in X s.t. $\bar{V} \subseteq U_0$. By Urysohn's construction, $\exists f \xrightarrow[\text{continuous}]{f} [0, 1]$ s.t. $f|_Z = 1$ and $f|_{X \setminus V} = 0$. Then $Z \subseteq f^{-1}(0, 1]$, and Hence $X = f^{-1}(0, 1] \cup Y$. Let $g_{U_0} = f$. Then $g_U | U \in J_0 \cup U_0$. Contradiction.

In summary, $C_0 = g_U | U \in U$ is a U -admissible collection, and hence $X = \bigcup_{U \in U} g_U^{-1}(0, 1]$. It suffices to take $\rho_U = \frac{g_U}{g}$ where $g = \sum_{U \in U} g_U$. \square

Lemma. *If X is paracompact, then for every locally finite open cover U_j of X , there exists an open cover V_j s.t. $\bar{V}_j \subseteq U_j$.*

Proof. Choose a partition of unity $\rho_U|U \in U$. Let $V_j = \rho_{U_j}^{-1}(0, 1]$. $\bar{V}_j \subseteq U_j$. Since $\sum_{j \in J} \rho_j = 1$, $X \subseteq \cup V_j$. \square

Lemma. Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. For any compact subset $K \subseteq X$ and open $V_1 \dots V_n$ if $K \subseteq V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_n$, then exists ρ_j s.t. $\text{supp} \rho_j \subseteq V_j$ and $\forall x \in K$, $\sum_{j=1}^n \rho_j(x) = 1$. K is compact, $\exists x_1, \dots, x_m \in K$, s.t. $K = W_{x_1} \cup \dots \cup W_{x_m}$. Let $H_i = \cup \bar{W}_{x_j}$, which is compact. By Urysohn's construction, \exists a continuous φ_i s.t. $\varphi_i|_{H_i} = 1$ and $\text{supp} \varphi_i \subseteq V_i$. Let $\rho_1 = \varphi_1, \rho_2 = (1 - \varphi_1)\varphi_2, \dots, \rho_n = (1 - \varphi_1) \dots (1 - \varphi_{n-1})\varphi_n$. Then, $\text{supp} \rho_k \subseteq V_k \subseteq V_k$. In addition, $\rho_1 + \dots + \rho_n = 1 - (1 - \varphi_1) \dots (1 - \varphi_n)$. For any $x \in K$, since $x \in W_x \subseteq V_{i_x}$, $x \in H_{i_x}$, and hence $\varphi_{i_x} = 1$.

Proof. For each $x \in K$, choose $i_x \in 1, \dots, n$ s.t. $x \in V_{i_x}$. X : locally compact Hausdorff $\Rightarrow \exists$ open neighborhood W_x of x s.t. $\bar{W}_x \subseteq V_{i_x}$. \square

5 Measure Theory and Probability

Definition. A family A of subsets of Ω is called an algebra of Ω if $\Omega \in A$, if $A \in A$, then $A^c \in A$. $A \cup B \in A$ whenever $A, B \in A$.

Definition. A family P of subsets of Ω is called a π -system on Ω if $A \cap B \in P$ if A, B in P .

Definition. A family L of subsets of Ω is called a λ -system on Ω if $\Omega \in L$, $A \in L$, then $A^c \in L$, if A_n is a disjoint sequence in L , then $\cup_n A_n \in L$.

Lemma. A family is both a π -system and a λ -system is a σ -algebra.

Proof. It suffices to show that the family, say S is closed under countable-unions. Let $A_1, \dots \in S$. We want to prove that their union is in S . Let $B_1 = A_1$ and for $n \geq 1$, $B_n = A_n - (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_{n-1}) = A_n \cap A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}^c$. Thus S is a λ -system, each complement A_i^c is in S , and since S is a π -system it follows that B_n , which is a finite intersection of sets in S , is also in S . \square

Theorem. ($\pi - \lambda$ theorem) If P is a π -system on Ω , then $\lambda(P) = \sigma(P)$.

Proof. Let $L_0 = \lambda(P)$. If L_0 is a π -system, then L_0 is a σ -algebra, consequently $\sigma(P) \subset L_0$; since $L_0 = \lambda(P) \subset \sigma(P)$. It remains therefore to show that L_0 is a π -system.

For $A \in L_0$, let $L_A = \{B \subset \Omega | A \cap B\}$. To show that L_0 is a π -system is to show that $L_0 \subset L_A$ for every $A \in L_0$. Clearly, L_A is a λ -system. Observe then that if $B \in P$, since P is a π -system and hence L_B is a λ -system containing P . Therefore, $P \subset L_B$ if $B \in P$, this means that $A \cap B \in L_0$ and $B \in P$, or $P \subset L_A$ if $A \in L_0$. Since L_A is a λ -system, we then have $L_0 \subset L_A$ for $A \in L_0$. Thus, L_0 is a π -system and we proved the theorem. \square

Lemma. Let S be a set. Let I be a π -system on S , and let $\Sigma := \sigma(I)$. Suppose that μ_1 and μ_2 are measures on (S, Σ) such that $\mu_1(S) = \mu_2(S) < \infty$ and $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ on I . Then, $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ on Σ .

Proof. Let $D = \{F \in \Sigma : \mu_1(F) = \mu_2(F)\}$. Then, D is a λ -system. Indeed, the fact that S in D is given. If $A, B \in D$, then $\mu_1(B \setminus A) = \mu_1(B) - \mu_1(A) = \mu_2(B) - \mu_2(A) = \mu_2(B \setminus A)$. So that $B \setminus A \in D$. Finally, if $F_n \in D$ and $F_n \rightarrow F$, then $\mu_1(F) = \lim \mu_1(F_n) = \lim \mu_2(F_n) = \mu_2(F)$ so that F is in D . Since D is a λ -system and $I \subset D$ by hypothesis, the Dynkin's theorem shows that $\sigma(I) = \Sigma \subseteq D$, and hence we prove the lemma. \square

Definition. *Premeasure: A set function, taking nonnegative value, montone, continuous from below, with empty set taking measure zero.*

Definition. *Measure with the σ -additivity.*

Definition. *A measure is finite if $\mu(X) < \infty$.*

A measure is σ -finite if X is the countable union of measurable sets with finite measure.

5.1 Independence

Lemma. *Suppose that G and H are sub- σ -algebras of F , and that I and J are π -systems with $\sigma(I) = G, \sigma(J) = H$. Then G and H are independent if and only if I and J are independent in that $P(I \cap J) = P(I)P(J)$.*

Proof. Suppose that I and J are independent. For fixed I in I , the measures $H \rightarrow P(I \cap H)$ and $H \rightarrow P(I)P(H)$ on (Ω, H) have the same total mass $P(I)$, and agree on J . And thus the measures agree on H . Then, fix H in H . We can still deduce that the two measures have the same total mass $P(H)$, and agree on I . Therefore, agree on G . \square

Definition. *A sequence of events E_n happen infinitely often: $\limsup E_n := \bigcap_m \bigcup_{n \geq m} E_n = \{\omega : \omega \in E_n \text{ for infinitely many } n\}$.*

Lemma. *(First Borel-Cantelli lemma) Let E_n be a sequence of events such that $\sum_n P(E_n) < \infty$. Then $P(\limsup E_n) = P(E_n, i.o.) = 0$*

Proof. Let $G_m = \bigcup_{n \geq m} E_n$. Then, we have $P(G) \geq P(G_m) \geq \sum_{n \geq m} P(E_n)$. Drive $m \rightarrow \infty$. The result directly proves the lemma. \square

Lemma. *(Second Borel-Cantelli lemma) If E_n is a sequence of independent events. Then, $\sum P(E_n) = \infty \Rightarrow P(E_n, i.o.) = 1$*

First, we have $(\limsup E_n)^c = \liminf E_n^c = \bigcup_m \bigcap_{n \geq m} E_n^c$. With p_n denoting $P(E_n)$, we have $P(\bigcup_{n \geq m} E_n^c) = (1 - p_m) \dots$. For $x > 0$, $1 - x \leq e^{-x}$, since $\sum p_n = \infty$, $(1 - p_m) \dots \leq e^{-\sum_{n \geq m} p_n} = 0$. So, we proved the lemma.

Theorem. *(Komogorov's 0-1 law) Let X_n be a sequence of independent random variables, and let τ be the tail σ -algebra of X_n . Then, τ is P -trivial. That is,*

(i) $F \in \tau \Rightarrow P(F) = 0$ or $P(F) = 1$

(ii) if ϵ is a τ -measurable random variable, then ϵ is almost deterministic in that for some constant $c \in [-\infty, \infty]$, $P(\epsilon = c) = 1$.

Proof. Let $\chi_n = \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$, $\tau_n = \sigma(X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$.

We first claim that χ_n and τ_n are independent. The class K of events of the form $\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x_i : 1 \leq i \leq n$ is a π -system which generates χ_n . The class J of sets of forms $\omega : X_j(\omega) \leq x_j : n+1 \leq j \leq n+r$. The claim is proved since X_n is a sequence of independent r.v.

Because $\tau \subseteq \tau_n$. Thus, χ_n and τ are independent.

We claim that $\chi_\infty = \sigma(X_n)(n \in \mathbb{N})$ and τ are independent. Because $\chi_{n+1} \subseteq \chi_n, \forall n$, the class $K_\infty = \cup \chi_n$ is a π -system which generates χ_∞ . Moreover, K_∞ and τ are independent. Then, the claim is proved.

Since $\tau \subseteq \chi_{infy}$, τ is independent of τ . Hence, (i) is proved. (ii) can be proved from (i). \square

5.2 The integration theory of Lebesgue

Definition. X, Y : measurable space. A measurable map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$

For a measure space (X, m, μ) , we aim at defining $\int_A f(x) d\mu(x) = \int_A f(x) \mu(dx)$ for suitable measurable functions $X \xrightarrow{f} \bar{R}$ and for any $A \in m$ in a systematic manner.

(1) (Reduction to the $[0, \infty]$ -valued case) The idea is that $f = f^+ - f^-$ where $f^+ := \max\{f, 0\}$, $f^- := \max\{-f, 0\}$. Since $f, -f, 0$ are all measurable. f^+, f^- are measurable. We say that $\int_X f d\mu$ is defined if both $\int_X f^+ d\mu$ and $\int_X f^- d\mu$ are defined and not simultaneously ∞ . If this is the case $\int_X f d\mu = \int_X f^+ d\mu - \int_X f^- d\mu \in \bar{R}$. If furthermore, $\int_X f d\mu \in R$, we say that f is μ -integrable.

(Reduction to the case of measurable $[0, \infty)$ -valued simple functions) For any measurable function $X \xrightarrow{f} [0, \infty]$, we define $\int_A f d\mu = \sup \int_A s d\mu | S$ is a measurable $[0, \infty)$ -valued simple functions on X s.t. $\forall x \in X, s(x) \leq f(x)$ where $\int_A s d\mu := \sum_{c \in [0, \infty)} c \mu(s^{-1}(c) \cap A)$. (Or, in more familiar terms, if $s = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha_j)}$ with $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in [0, \infty)$ distinct and $E_1, \dots, E_n \in m$ disjoint, then $\int_A s d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mu(E_j \cap A)$. Again, for measurable non-negative simple functions s , the two definitions coincide.

Basic properties: for non-negative measurable functions, monotonicity, positive homogeneity holds and whole-spaced integrability ensures subset integrability.

Lemma. Let s, t be non-negative measurable simple functions.

(1) $m \xrightarrow{\nu} [0, \infty] (A \rightarrow \int_A s d\mu)$ is a positive measure.

(2) $\int_X (s + t) d\mu = \int_X s d\mu + \int_X t d\mu$.

Proof. (1) Suppose that $A_n \in m$ be a disjoint family. Write $s = \sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \alpha \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha)}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) &= \int_{\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n} s d\mu = \int_{\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n} (\sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \alpha \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha)}) d\mu = \sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \int_{\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n} \alpha \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha)} d\mu = \\ &= \sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \alpha \int_{\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n} \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha)} d\mu = \sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \alpha \int_X \chi_{\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n} \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha)} d\mu = \sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \alpha \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{A_n} \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha)} d\mu = \\ &= \sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \alpha \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} \alpha \mu(s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{A_n} s d\mu = \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_n). \text{ Besides, } \nu(\emptyset) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

(2) Write $t = \sum_{\beta \in [0, \infty)} \beta \chi_{t^{-1}(\beta)}$. $\int_X (s+t) d\mu = \nu((\cup_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)} s^{-1}(\alpha)) \cap (\cup_{\beta \in [0, \infty)} t^{-1}(\beta))) = \nu(\cup_{\alpha, \beta \in [0, \infty)} s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap t^{-1}(\beta)) = \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in [0, \infty)} \nu(s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap t^{-1}(\beta)) = \sum_{\alpha, \beta} \int_{s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap t^{-1}(\beta)} (s+t) d\mu = \sum_{\alpha, \beta} \int_X \chi_{s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap t^{-1}(\beta)} (s+t) d\mu = \sum_{\alpha, \beta} (\alpha + \beta) \mu(s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap t^{-1}(\beta)) = \sum_{\alpha} \alpha \sum_{\beta} \mu(s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap t^{-1}(\beta)) + \sum_{\beta} \beta \sum_{\alpha} \mu(s^{-1}(\alpha) \cap t^{-1}(\beta)) = \int_X s d\mu + \int_X t d\mu$. Note that additivity holds for countable functions, which can be seen by approximating measurable functions by simple functions and thereafter applying monotone convergence theorem. \square

Theorem. (Lebesgue's monotone convergence theorem) Let $X \xrightarrow{f_n} [0, \infty]$ ($n \in N$) be sequence of non-decreasing measurable functions f_n . Then $\int_X (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n d\mu$.

Proof. Let $f := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n$. By the monotonicity we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n d\mu = \alpha \leq \int_X f d\mu$. It remains to show that $\sup \int_X s d\mu \leq f = \int_X f d\mu \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n d\mu = \alpha$ and suffices to prove that $\alpha \geq \int_X s d\mu$ for all measurable $[0, \infty)$ -valued simple function with $s \leq f$. Let $c \in (0, 1)$ and consider $E_n = \{x \in X \mid f_n(x) \geq cs(x)\}$. $E_n \rightarrow \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = X$. Therefore, $\int_X f_n d\mu \geq \int_{E_n} f_n d\mu \geq \int_{E_n} cs d\mu = c \int_{E_n} s d\mu$ ($n \in N$). Drivw $n \rightarrow \infty$. $\alpha \geq c \nu(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n) = c \int_X s d\mu$. Let $c \rightarrow 1^-$, we proved the theorem. \square

Approximation by simple functions: for any measurable function $X \xrightarrow{f} [0, \infty]$, we let

$$s_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{k-1}{2^n} & \text{if } \frac{k-1}{2^n} \leq f(x) < \frac{k}{2^n} \\ n & \text{if } f(x) \geq n \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Then $X \xrightarrow{s_n} [0, \infty)$ is a measurable simple function: $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n2^n} \frac{k-1}{2^n} \chi_{f^{-1}[\frac{k-1}{2^n}, \frac{k}{2^n})} + n \chi_{f^{-1}[n, \infty)}$. In addition, $s_n \rightarrow f$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. By monotone convergence theorem, $\int_X s_n d\mu$ converges to $\int_X f d\mu$.

Lemma. (Fatou lemma) Let $X \xrightarrow{f_n} [0, \infty]$ ($n \in N$) be measurable. Then $\int_X (\liminf f_n) d\mu \leq \liminf \int_X f_n d\mu$.

Proof. Note $\liminf f_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} f_m$. We let $\inf_{m \geq n} f_m = g_n$. For $m \geq n$, we have $f_m \geq g_n$. By monotonicity, $\int_X f_m d\mu \geq \int_X g_n d\mu$. Then, $\int_X (\liminf f_n) d\mu = \int_X (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n) d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X g_n d\mu \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} \int_X f_m d\mu$. \square

Lemma. (Reverse Fatou lemma) Let $X \xrightarrow{f_n} [0, \infty]$ ($n \in N$) be measurable. We have $f_n \leq g$, $\forall n$, and g is integrable, then $\int_X \limsup f_n d\mu \geq \limsup \int_X f_n d\mu$.

We construct a new sequence of measurable functions $g_n = g - f_n$. By Fatou lemma, $\int_X \liminf g_n d\mu \leq \liminf \int_X g_n d\mu$. That is, $\int_X \liminf (g - f_n) d\mu = \int_X g d\mu - \int_X \limsup_{m \geq n} f_m d\mu \leq \int_X g d\mu - \limsup_{m \geq n} \int_X f_m d\mu$

Lemma. If $f \in L^1(\mu)$, then $|\int_X f d\mu| \leq \int_X |f| d\mu$

Proof. There exists $\alpha \in C$ s.t. $|\alpha| = 1$ and $\alpha \int_X f d\mu \in [0, \infty)$. $|\int_X f d\mu| = |\alpha \int_X f d\mu| = |\int_X \alpha f d\mu| = \int_X \alpha f d\mu = \int_X \operatorname{Re}(\alpha f) d\mu \leq \int_X |\alpha f| d\mu = \int_X |f| d\mu$ \square

Theorem. (Lebesgue's dominant convergence theorem) Let $f_n \in L^1(X, \Sigma, \mu)$ which converges pointwise to a function f . Suppose that there exists $g \in L^1(X, \Sigma, \mu)_R$, s.t. $\forall n \in N, |f_n| \leq g$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X |f_n - f| = 0$, whence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n d\mu = \int_X f d\mu$.

Proof. $|f_n| \leq g (n \in N) \Rightarrow |f| \leq g$. $2g - |f_n - f| \geq 0$. By Fatou lemma, $\int_X \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} (2g - |f_m - f|) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} \int_X 2g - |f_m - f| d\mu$. $\int_X 2g d\mu \leq \int_X 2g d\mu - \limsup |f_n - f| d\mu \Rightarrow \limsup |f_n - f| \geq 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X |f_n - f| d\mu = 0$. \square

Definition. An element F of Σ is called μ -null if $\mu(F) = 0$. An statement about points is said to hold almost everywhere if the condition that the statement is false is a μ -null set.

It is possible to extend the result of the above theorems related to convergence with the concept of "almost everywhere".

Proposition 6. If $X \xrightarrow{f} [0, \infty]$, $A \in m$ and $\int_A f d\mu = 0$, then $f = 0$ μ -a.e. on A .

Proof. By Chebyshev's inequality, $\forall c \in (0, \infty)$, $c\mu x \setminus A |f(x) \geq c| \leq \int_A f d\mu$. In particular, for $n \in N$, $\frac{1}{n}\mu x \in A |f(x) \geq \frac{1}{n}| \leq \int_A f d\mu$. So that $\mu x \in A |f(x) \geq \frac{1}{n} = \mu(A_n) = 0$. $A_n \rightarrow x \in A |f(x) > 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, $\mu x \in A |f(x) \neq 0 = 0$. Hence, we proved the proposition. \square

Proposition 7. For $f \in L^1(\mu)$, $|\int_X f d\mu| = \int_X |f| d\mu \Leftrightarrow \exists \alpha \in C$ s.t. $|\alpha| = 1$ and $|f| = |\alpha f|$.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in C$ s.t. $|\alpha| = 1$ and $\alpha \int_X f d\mu = |\int_X f d\mu|$. Then, $|\int_X f d\mu| = \int_X \alpha f d\mu = \operatorname{Re} \int_X \alpha f d\mu = \int_X \operatorname{Re}(\alpha f) d\mu \leq \int_X |\alpha f| d\mu = \int_X |f| d\mu$ and by the assumption $|\int_X f d\mu| = \int_X |f| d\mu$. Therefore, $\int_X |\alpha f| - \operatorname{Re}(\alpha f) d\mu = 0$. By the above proposition, $|\alpha f| = \operatorname{Re}(\alpha f)$ μ -a.e. Therefore, $|f| = \alpha f$ μ -a.e. \square

Proposition 8. Given $X \xrightarrow{f_n} \bar{R}$ or C measurable. If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_X |f_n| d\mu < \infty$, then

- (1) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$ converges absolutely μ -a.e.
- (2) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n \in L^1(\mu)$
- (3) $\int_X (\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n) d\mu = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_X f_n d\mu$.

Proof. By Chebyshev's inequality for every $m \in N$, $m\mu x \in X | \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f_n(x)| \geq m| \leq \int_X \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f_n(x)| d\mu = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_X |f_n(x)| d\mu < \infty$. $m \in N$, $\mu x \in X | \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f_n(x)| \geq m$ decreases to $m \in N$, $\mu x \in X | \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f_n(x)| = \infty$ as $n \rightarrow 0$. Since $\mu x \in X | \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f_n(x)| \geq m \leq \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_X |f_n(x)| d\mu}{m} \rightarrow 0$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$. $|\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n|$ is μ -a.e. measurable. $|\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^m f_n| = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} |\sum_{n=1}^m f_n| \leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^m |f_n| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f_n| \in L^1(\mu)$. By DCT, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n \in L^1$. \square

5.3 Constructions of measurable spaces

Definition. A map $P(X) \xrightarrow{\mu} \bar{R}_+$ is an outer measure on X if $\mu(\emptyset) = 0, A \subseteq B \subseteq X \Rightarrow \mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$, and σ -subadditivity, $\forall A_n \subseteq X, \mu(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$.

Theorem. (Carathéodory's construction of measures) $A_\mu := \{A \subseteq X \mid \forall E \subseteq X, \mu(E) = \mu(E \cap A) + \mu(E \setminus A)\}$. Then, $(X, A_\mu, \mu|_{A_\mu})$ is a complete measure space.

Proof. It is clear that $\emptyset \in A_\mu$ and $A^c \in A_\mu \Leftrightarrow A \in A_\mu$. Now we prove that $\forall A_n \in A_\mu (n \in \mathbb{N}), [\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in A_\mu]$. For any $E \subseteq X$ s.t. $\mu(E) < \infty$, $\mu(E) = \mu(E \cap A_1) + \mu(E \cap A_1^c) = \mu(E \cap A_1 \cap A_2) + \mu(E \cap A_1 \cap A_2^c) + \mu(E \cap A_1^c) = \mu(E \cap \cap_{n=1}^m A_n) + \sum_{n=1}^m \mu(E \cap A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1} \cap A_n^c) \geq \mu(E \cap \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) + \sum_{n=1}^m \mu(E \cap A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1} \cap A_n^c)$. Then, $\sum_{n=1}^m \mu(E \cap A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1} \cap A_n^c) \leq \mu(E) - \mu(E \cap \cap_{n=1}^m A_n) \xrightarrow{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(E \cap A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1} \cap A_n^c) \leq \mu(E) - \mu(E \cap \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n)$. By σ -subadditivity, $\mu(E \cap (\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n)^c) = \mu(E \cap A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1} \cap A_n^c) \leq \mu(E) - \mu(E \cap \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n)$. And again by σ -subadditivity, $\mu(E \cap (\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n)^c) + \mu(E \cap \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) \geq \mu(E)$. Hence, $\mu(E \cap (\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n)^c) + \mu(E \cap \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = \mu(E)$. Hence, we proved that A_μ is a σ -algebra on X . Now we show that $\mu|_{A_\mu}$ is a measure. Let $B_n \in A_\mu$ be a disjoint family. $\mu(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n) = \mu((\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n) \cap B_1) + \mu((\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n) \setminus B_1) = \mu(B_1) + \mu(\cup_{n=2}^{\infty} B_n) = \dots = \sum_{n=1}^m \mu(B_n) + \mu(\cup_{n=m+1}^{\infty} B_n) \geq \sum_{n=1}^m \mu(B_n)$. As $m \rightarrow \infty$, $\mu(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n) \geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_n)$. Again, by σ -subadditivity, the equality holds. In addition, completeness of measure can easily be seen. \square

Lemma. (Creating outer measures via coverings) X : a set, $S \subseteq P(X), S \xrightarrow{\phi} \bar{R}_+$, a function. If $\emptyset \in S$ and $\phi(\emptyset) = 0$ (for simplicity), then $P(X) \xrightarrow{\mu_\phi} \bar{R}_+, A \mapsto \inf \Phi_A$ is an outer measure where $\Phi_A = \sum_{U \in U} \phi(U) \mid U \subseteq S$ is a countable cover of A .

Proof. $0 = \phi(\emptyset) \in \text{Phi}_\emptyset \Rightarrow \mu_\phi(\emptyset) = \inf \Phi_\emptyset = 0$.
 $A \subseteq A' \Rightarrow \Phi_{A'} \subseteq \Phi_A \Rightarrow \mu_\phi(A) = \inf \Phi_A \leq \inf \Phi_{A'} = \mu_\phi(A')$.
 Given $A_n \subseteq X$, by definition, for any $\epsilon > 0$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a countable cover $U_n \subseteq S$ of A_n s.t. $\sum_{U \in U_n} \phi(U) \leq \mu_\phi(A_n) + \frac{\epsilon}{2^n}$. $U := \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$ is a countable cover of $\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$. $\mu_\phi(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) \leq \sum_{U \in U} \phi(U) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{U \in U_n} \phi(U) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_\phi(A_n) + \epsilon$. Hence, we proved σ -subadditivity. \square

Example. X : metric space. $\alpha, \delta \in (0, \infty)$. Consider $S = \{S \subseteq X \mid \text{diam} S < \delta, (\text{diam} := \sup\{d(s_1, s_2) \mid s_1, s_2 \in S\})\}$

. Let $S \xrightarrow{\phi} \bar{R}_+, S \mapsto (\text{diam} S)^\alpha$. Then $H_\delta^\alpha = \mu_\phi$ is an outer measure and $\forall A \subseteq X$ and $\delta' > \delta > 0, [H_{\delta'}^\alpha(A) \leq H_\delta^\alpha(A)]$. Define $H^{\text{alpha}} = \sup H_\delta^\alpha$, called the α -dimensional Hausdorff outer measure when $X = \mathbb{R}^d$ with the usual metric.

Remark. $\forall A \subseteq X$ and $\delta \in (0, 1) [H_\delta^\alpha(A) \downarrow \text{ as } \alpha \uparrow]$. We call $\sup \alpha > 0 \mid H^\alpha = \infty$ the Hausdorff dimension of A .

Example. In R^d a standard rectangle is a subset of the form $I_1 \times I_2 \times \dots \times I_d$ with I_d an interval of R . Let S = all standard rectangles. $S \stackrel{vol}{R}_+$, where $vol = l(I_1) \dots l(I_d)$. Then we call μ_{vol} the Lebesgue outer measure. We call μ_{vol} Lebesgue measurable sets.

Definition. Let X be a set and $S \subseteq P(X)$.

(1) S is a semiring on X if $\emptyset \in S$, $A \cap B \in S$ if $A, B \in S$, $\forall A, B \in S$, exists $S_1, \dots, S_k \in S$, $B \setminus A = S_1 \cup \dots \cup S_k$.

(2) A function $S \stackrel{\phi}{R}_+$ is finitely/countable additive if for any finite/countable family of disjoint subsets A_n of X , $\cup_n A_n \in S$, then $\phi(\cup_n A_n) = \sum_n \phi(A_n)$. If furthermore $\phi(\emptyset) = 0$, we call ϕ a finitely/countably additive measure on the semiring S .

Lemma. Let μ be finitely additive measure on a semiring $S \subseteq P(X)$.

(1) All elements of S are μ_r -measurable.

(2) If μ is a countably additive measure on the semiring S , then $\mu_r|_S = \mu$

Proof. Let $S \in S$. It follows immediately from the definition of the induced outer measure that $\mu_r(S) \leq \mu(S)$. Therefore, it suffices to show that if $(A_n)_{n=0}^\infty$ is a countable cover of S , then $\mu(S) \leq \sum_{n=0}^\infty \mu(A_n)$ since $\mu(S) \leq \inf \sum_{n=0}^\infty \mu(A_n) = \mu_r$. Define, $\forall n \in N$: $B_n = A_n \setminus A_{n-1} \setminus \dots \setminus A_0$. Using the mathematical induction, we will prove that for all natural numbers $m < n$, $B_{n,m} = A_n \setminus A_{n-1} \setminus \dots \setminus A_{n-m}$ is the finite union of pairwise disjoint elements of S . The base case $m = 0$ is trivial. Now assume that the induction hypothesis that the above statement is true for some $m < n - 1$, and let D_1, D_2, \dots, D_N be pairwise disjoint elements of S such that: $B_{n,m} = \cup_{k=1}^N D_k$. Then, $B_{n,m+1} = B_{n,m} \setminus A_{n-m-1} = \cup_{k=1}^N D_k \setminus A_{n-m-1} = \cup_{k=1}^N (D_k \setminus A_{n-m-1})$. Hence $B_{n,m+1}$ is the finite union of pairwise disjoint elements of S , completing the induction step.

Using the above result, we can choose a finite set F_n of pairwise disjoint elements of S for which $B_n = \cup F_n$. Now, $x \in S$ if and only if $\exists n \in N$ such that $x \in S \cap A_n$. Taking the smallest such n , it follows that x not in A_0, A_1, \dots, A_{n-1} , and so $x \in S \cap B_n$. Therefore, $S = \cup_{n=0}^\infty (S \cap B_n)$. Hence, $\mu(S) = \mu(\cup_{n=0}^\infty (S \cap B_n)) = \mu(\cup_{n=0}^\infty (S \cap \cup_{T \in F_n} T)) = \mu(\cup_{n=0}^\infty \cup_{T \in F_n} (S \cap T)) \leq \sum_{n=0}^\infty \sum_{T \in F_n} \mu(S \cap T) \leq \sum_{n=0}^\infty \sum_{T \in F_n} \mu(T) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \mu(\cup F_n) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \mu(B_n) \leq \sum_{n=0}^\infty \mu(A_n)$. \square

Remark. Let S = all standard rectangles. Then S is a semiring. It is easy to check so. To state $\mu_{vol} = vol$, it suffices to show that Lebesgue measure on the standard rectangles is indeed measure.

Lemma. Lebesgue measure on the standard rectangles is indeed measure.

Proof. It is known that $vol(\emptyset) = 0$. The only possibility for two disjoint half-open n -rectangles to constitute a single, large half-open n -rectangle is when they are of the form: $[[a..b))[[a'..b')$ s.t. we have for some i with $1 \leq i \leq n$: $i = j \Rightarrow a'_j = b_j$. We can then see that vol is finitely additive.

Suppose that $[a_m..b_m) \downarrow \emptyset$. Then there exists at least $1 \leq j \leq n$ s.t.: $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} a_{m,j} =$

$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} b_{m,j}$. The fact that the sequence is decreasing means that, from the Cartesian product of subsets, $\forall m \in N$, and $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n$: $[a_{m,i}, \dots, b_{m,i}] \subseteq [a_{1,i}, \dots, b_{1,i}]$. Hence we have: $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \text{vol}([a_m, b_m]) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{i=1}^n (b_{m,i} - a_{m,i}) \leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (b_{m,j} - a_{m,j}) \prod_{i=1, i \neq j}^n (b_{m,i} - a_{m,i}) = 0$. \square

Theorem. (Carathéodory's criterion of Borel measurability) Let X be a metric space and $P(X) \xrightarrow{\mu} \bar{R}_+$ an outer measure. If $\mu(A \cup B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$ for any $A, B \subseteq X$ s.t. $d(A, B) > 0$, then $B_x \subseteq A_\mu$

Proof. It suffices to show that $C \in A_\mu$ for all C : closed in X . Let $C_k = \{x \in X \mid d(x, c) \leq \frac{1}{k}\}$. For any $E \subseteq X$ with $\mu(E) < \infty$, since $d(E \setminus C_k, E \cap C) \geq \frac{1}{k} > 0$. $\mu(E) \geq \mu((E \setminus C_k) \cap (E \cap C)) = \mu(E \setminus C_k) + \mu(E \cap C)$. We will show that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(E \setminus C_k) = \mu(E \setminus C)$. $E \setminus C = (E \setminus C_k) \cup \bigcup_{j=k}^{\infty} D_j$ where $D_j = \{x \in E \mid \frac{1}{j+1} < d(x, C) \leq \frac{1}{j}\}$. Then $\mu(E \setminus C_k) \leq \mu(E \setminus C) + \sum_{j=k}^{\infty} \mu(D_j)$. Since $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(D_j) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(D_{2j-1}) + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(D_{2j}) \leq 2\mu(E) < \infty$. \square

Definition. (Regularity)

X : top. space (X, M, μ) : measurable space. $A \subseteq X$.

(1) A is outer regular w.r.t. μ if $\mu(A) = \inf_{A \subseteq U \subseteq \text{open } X} \mu(U)$.

(2) A is inner regular w.r.t. μ if $\mu(A) = \sup_{C \subseteq A} \mu(C)$

(3) A is inner compact-regular w.r.t. μ if $\mu(A) = \sup_{K \subseteq A} \mu(K)$.

5.4 Integration on product spaces

Definition. Suppose that (X, A) and (Y, B) are measurable spaces. The product σ -algebra $A \otimes B$ is the σ -algebra on $X \times Y$ generated by the collection of all measurable rectangles, $A \otimes B = \sigma(A \times B : A \in A, B \in B)$.

The product of (X, A) and (Y, B) is the measurable space $(X \times Y, A \otimes B)$.

Definition. Let Z be a set and $m \subseteq P(Z)$. We say that m is a monotone class if $\forall S_n \in m (n \in N)$, $S_n \uparrow S$ or $S_n \downarrow S$ and $S \in m$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Remark. Every σ -algebra is a monotone class.

For any $S \subseteq P(Z)$, $m(S) := \cap_{S \subseteq m} m$ is clear the smallest monotone class containing S .

Theorem. (monotone characterization of $A \otimes B$) Apply π - λ theorem. $\epsilon_{A,B}$ consists of all finite disjoint unions of measurable rectangles and thus a π -system. The smallest monotone class generated by $\epsilon_{A,B}$ is the smallest $\lambda(\epsilon_{A,B})$, and hence the smallest σ -algebra.

Lemma. Let (X, A) and (Y, B) be two measurable spaces. For any $E \in A \otimes B$ and $x \in X$ (resp. $y \in Y$), we have $E_x \in B$ (resp. $E_y \in A$).

Proof. Consider $n = S \subseteq X \times Y \mid \forall x \in X$ and $y \in Y, S_x \in B$ and $S_y \in A$. Then n includes all measurable rectangles. Besides n is a σ -algebra. This can be seen by checking directly or noticing n is the final σ -algebra induced by all the maps i_x and i_y . Hence it contains $A \otimes B \subseteq n$. \square

Theorem. If (X, A, μ) and (Y, B, ν) are σ -finite measure spaces, then for any $Q \subseteq A \otimes B$,

- (1) the functions $X \xrightarrow{\phi_Q} \bar{R}_+, x \rightarrow \nu(Q_x)$ and $Y \xrightarrow{\psi_Q} \bar{R}_+, y \rightarrow \mu(Q_y)$ are A and B measurable respectively
(2) $\int_X \phi_Q d\mu = \int_Y \psi_Q d\nu$.

Proof. Let $n = Q \subseteq A \otimes B$ and (2) holds for Q .

(i) It is clear that n includes all measurable rectangles and all elementary sets, and hence a π -system.

(ii) We claim: For any Q_n , if $Q_n \uparrow Q$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then $Q \in n$. $Q_n \uparrow Q \Rightarrow (Q_n)_x \uparrow Q_x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, $\phi_{Q_n} \uparrow \phi_Q$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by monotonicity of measure. Hence ϕ_Q is A -measurable. $\int_X \phi_Q d\mu = \int_X (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_{Q_n}) d\mu \stackrel{MON}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X \phi_{Q_n} d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_Y \psi_{Q_n} d\nu = \int_Y \psi_Q d\nu$.

(iii) Next, we claim that: for any $Q_n \in n$, if $Q_n \downarrow Q$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\exists A \in A$ and $B \in B$ s.t. $Q_n \subseteq A \times B$ and $\mu(A), \nu(B) < \infty$, then $Q \in n$. $\phi_{Q_n} \downarrow \phi_Q$ and $\psi_{Q_n} \downarrow \psi_Q$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and hence ϕ_Q and ψ_Q are A and B measurable respectively. Besides, $\phi_{Q_n} \leq \nu(B)\chi_A$ and $\psi_{Q_n} \leq \mu(A)\chi_B$. Both $\nu(B)\chi_A$ and $\mu(A)\chi_B$ are in $L^1(\mu)$. By the dominated convergence theorem, $\int_X \phi_Q d\mu = \int_X (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_{Q_n}) d\mu \stackrel{DCT}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X \phi_{Q_n} d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_Y \psi_{Q_n} d\nu = \int_Y \psi_Q d\nu$.

(iv) We further claim: for any disjoint family $Q_n \in n$. $\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n \in n$. For any $x \in X$. $Q_x = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} (Q_n)_x$ and hence $Q_x \in B$ and $\nu(Q_x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \nu((Q_n)_x)$ and A measurable. $\int_X \phi_Q d\mu = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_X \phi_{Q_n} d\mu = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_Y \psi_{Q_n} d\nu = \int_Y \psi_Q d\nu$.

(v) We also claim: Let $n' = Q \in A \otimes B | \forall m, n [Q \cap (X_m \times Y_n) \in n]$, then $n' = A \otimes B$.

(i)+(iv) $\Rightarrow \epsilon_{A,B} \subseteq n'$.

(ii)+(iii) $\Rightarrow n'$ is a monotone class.

$A \otimes B \subseteq n'$. (vi) $n = A \otimes B$. For $Q \in A \otimes B = n'$, we have $Q \cap (X_m \times Y_n) \in n$. Since $Q \cap (X_m \times Y_n)$ is a disjoint countable family in n . By (iv), $Q = \cup Q \cap (X_m \times Y_n) \in n$. \square

Remark. (iv) $+(n = A \otimes B) \Rightarrow \sigma$ -additivity.

$\mu \otimes \nu(\emptyset \times \emptyset) = 0$.

$\mu \otimes \nu$ is called a positive product measure.

Theorem. (Tonelli's theorem) If f is \bar{R}_+ valued, then ϕ_f is A measurable, and ψ_f is B measurable, and $\int_X \phi_f d\mu = \int_Y \psi_f d\nu$.

Proof. The statement holds for $f = \phi_Q$, with $Q \in A \otimes B$, and hence every \bar{R}_+ -valued $A \otimes B$ -measurable simple functions. For a general \bar{R}_+ -valued f , select a sequence s_n of \bar{R}_+ -valued $A \otimes B$ -measurable simple functions s.t. $s_n \uparrow f$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. $\phi_{s_n}(x) = \int_Y (s_n)_x d\nu \uparrow \int_Y f_x d\nu = \phi_f(x)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. $\phi_{s_n} : A$ -measurable $\Rightarrow \phi_f$ A -measurable. $\int_X \phi_f d\mu = \int_X (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_{s_n}) d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X \phi_{s_n} d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{X \times Y} s_n d(\mu \otimes \nu) = \int_{X \times Y} (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n) d(\mu \otimes \nu) = \int_{X \times Y} f d(\mu \otimes \nu)$. \square

Theorem. (Fubini's theorem) Let f be a general measurable function.

(1) If $\int_X \int_Y |f(x, y)| d\nu(Y) d\mu(x) < \infty$, then f is $\mu \otimes \nu$ -integrable.

(2) f is $\mu \otimes \nu$ -integrable, then f_x is ν -integrable for μ -a.e., $x \in X$, f_y is μ -integrable for ν -a.e., $y \in Y$.

Proof. (1) Applying Tonelli's theorem to $|f|$, we see that $\int_{X \times Y} |f| d(\mu \otimes \nu) = \int_X \int_Y |f(x, y)| d\nu(y) d\mu(x) < \infty$.

(2) It suffices to consider the \bar{R} -valued functions. By applying Tonelli's theorem to $|f|$, $\int_X \int_Y |f(x, y)| d\nu(y) d\mu(x) = \int_{X \times Y} |f| d(\mu \otimes \nu) < \infty$. Then $x \in X | \phi_{|f|}(x) = \infty$ is μ -null, in other words, $\phi_{|f|}(x) < \infty$ for ν -integrable for μ -a.e. and for all x . Thus, $\phi_f(x) = \int_Y f(x, y) d\nu$ is defined on a μ -big set $X \setminus x \in X | \phi_{|f|}(x) = \infty$. $\phi_f(x) = \int_Y f(x, y) d\nu = \int_Y f^+(x, y) d\nu - \int_Y f^-(x, y) d\nu = \phi_{f^+}(x) - \phi_{f^-}(x)$ at least on $X \setminus x \in X | \phi_{|f|}(x) = \infty$. By Tonelli's theorem, ϕ_{f^+}, ϕ_{f^-} are A -measurable functions on X . Thus, $\phi_f(x) \stackrel{\mu}{=} h(x) = \phi_{f^+}(x) - \phi_{f^-}(x)$ if $x \in X \setminus x \in X | \phi_{|f|}(x) = \infty$, 0 if $x \in x \in X | \phi_{|f|}(x) = \infty$. It is easy to check h is in L^1 . \square

Theorem. (Egoroff's theorem) Let $f_n \in \mu(A)_k$. If (1) f_n takes value in C μ -a.e. for every $n \in N$, (2) f_n converges μ -a.e. as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and (3) $\mu(X) < \infty$, then $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists A \in A$ s.t. $\mu(X \setminus A) < \epsilon$ and f_n converges uniformly in A .

Proof. By (1)(2), $\exists N \in A$ with $\mu(N) = 0$ s.t. f_n takes values in C on $X \setminus N$ and $f_n \rightarrow f$ pointwise on $X \setminus N$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Let $g_n(x) = \sup_{m \geq n} |f_m(x) - f(x)|$ for $x \in X \setminus N$. Then, $g_n(x) \downarrow 0$ on $X \setminus N$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. By (3), $\mu(X) < \infty$. We have $g_n \xrightarrow{\mu} 0$ on $X \setminus N$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. And hence $\forall \epsilon > 0$ and $k \in N$, $\exists n_k \in N$ s.t. $\mu x \in X \setminus N | g_{n_k} > \frac{1}{k} < \frac{\epsilon}{2^k}$. Let $B_k = \{x \in X \setminus N | g_{n_k} > \frac{1}{k}\}$ and $A = \cap((X \setminus N) \setminus B_k) = X \setminus (N \cup \cup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k)$. So $\mu(X \setminus A) = \mu(N \cup \cup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k) < \epsilon$. Besides, $x \in A \rightarrow \forall k \in N, x$ not in $N \cup B_k \Leftrightarrow \sup_{m \geq n_k} |f_m - f| = g_{n_k} < \frac{1}{k}$, Therefore, f_n converges to f uniformly on A . \square

5.5 Measures vs abstraction integration-Riesz's representation theorem

Let X be a topological space and $A \stackrel{\mu}{[0, \infty]}$ a positive measure on a σ -algebra A which includes B_x on X . Then all the continuous maps on X are B_x -measurable. Besides, if $\mu(K) < \infty$ for every compact sets $K \subseteq X$, then $C_c(X) \subseteq L^1(\mu)$. If this is the case, we have a C -linear map $C_c(X) \rightarrow C, f \rightarrow \int_X f d\mu$.

Definition. A C -linear map $C_c(X) \xrightarrow{\wedge} C$ is a positive functional if it maps $C_c(X)_{\geq 0}$ into $R_{\geq 0}$ or equivalently, $\forall f_1, f_2 \in C_c(X), f_1 - f_2 \geq 0 \Rightarrow \wedge f_1 \geq \wedge f_2$.

So there is a question: given a positive functional $C_c(X) \xrightarrow{\wedge} C$, does there exists a measure $A \xrightarrow{\mu} [0, \infty]$ with $B_x \subseteq A$ s.t. $\wedge f = \int_X f d\mu$ for all $f \in C_c(X)$?

Definition. A demiregular measure on a topological space X is a measure on some σ -algebra which contains B_x s.t. every compact subsets of X is measure-finite, all open sets are inner compact regular, and the measure is outer regular.

Notation. Given a topological space X ,

$K \prec f$ means that K is compact in X , $f \in C_c(X)$, $0 \leq f \leq 1$, and $f|_K = 1$.

$f \prec V$ means that V is open in X , $f \in C_c(X)$, $0 \leq f \leq 1$, and $\text{supp} f \subseteq V$.

Theorem. If $K \subseteq U \subseteq X$, then there exists $f \in C_c(X)$ such that $0 \leq f \leq 1$, $f|_K = 1$ and support of f in U .

Remark. By Urysohn's lemma, X :locally compact Hausdorff $\Rightarrow \forall K \subseteq V \subseteq X, \exists f$, s.t. $K \prec f \prec V$.

Lemma. Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. Given a positive functional $C_c(X) \xrightarrow{\wedge} C$ and a σ -algebra A which includes B_X on X , there exists at most one demiregular measure μ -on A s.t. $\forall f \in C_c(X), \wedge f = \int_X f d\mu$. Suppose that μ_1 and μ_2 are two such measures on A . By inner compact regularity of open sets and outer regularity, it suffices to show that $\mu_1(K) = \mu_2(K)$ for all compact subsets K of X since agreeing on the compact subsets implies that they agree on the open subsets by inner regularity of open sets, and on every subsets in A by outer regularity.

For any compact $K \subseteq X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, by the property of demiregularity, there exists an open set $V \supseteq K$ s.t. $\mu_2 < \mu_2(K) + \epsilon$. By Urysohn's lemma, $\exists f, K \prec f \prec V, f|_K = 1$. Then $\mu_1 = \int_X \chi_K d\mu_1 \leq \int_X f d\mu_1 = \wedge f = \int_X f d\mu_2 \leq \int_X \chi_V d\mu_2 = \mu_2(V) < \mu_2(K) + \epsilon$. Let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, $\mu_1(K) \leq \mu_2(K)$. By symmetry, $\mu_1(K) = \mu_2(K)$.

Theorem. (Riesz's representation theorem) Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. Given a positive functional $C_c(X) \xrightarrow{\wedge} C$, there exists a complete demiregular μ on some σ -algebra $A \supseteq B_X$ on X s.t. $\wedge f = \int_X f d\mu$ for every $f \in C_c(X)$ and every measure finite set is inner compact regular.

Proof. For any $V \subseteq_{\text{open}} X$, we let $\mu(V) = \sup\{\wedge f | f \prec V\}$. For any $A \subseteq X$, we let $\mu(A) = \inf\{\mu(V) | A \subseteq V \subseteq X\}$. Note that if A in X open, the two definitions coincide. Let $A_F := \{A \subseteq X | \mu(A) < \infty \text{ and } \mu(A) = \sup\{\mu(K) | K \subseteq A\}\}$. Finally, let $A = \{A \subseteq X | A \cap K \in A_F, \text{ for every compact sets}\}$. We claim that $A \xrightarrow{\mu} [0, \infty]$ is an expected measure.

Step 1. $\forall A_j \subseteq X. \mu(\cup_j A_j) \leq \sum_j \mu(A_j)$.

We may assume that $\mu(A_j) < \infty$ for all $j \in N$. $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$ open $V_j \supseteq A_j$ s.t. $\mu(V_j) < \mu(A_j) + \frac{\epsilon}{2^j}$. Let $V = \cup V_j$. Recall that $\mu(V) = \sup\{\wedge f | f \prec V\}$. For any $f \prec V$, since $\text{supp} f$ is compact, $\exists m, \text{supp} f \subseteq V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_m$. Take a partial partition of unity ρ_1, \dots, ρ_m for $\text{supp} f$ w.r.t. V_1, \dots, V_m . Then $f = \sum_{i=1}^m \rho_i f$, and hence $\wedge f = \sum_{i=1}^m \wedge(\rho_i f) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \mu(V_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \mu(A_i) + \frac{\epsilon}{2^i} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) + \epsilon$. This proves that $\mu(V) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) + \epsilon$. Let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$.

Step 2. \forall compact $K \subseteq X$, $K \in A_F$ and $\mu(K) = \inf\{\wedge f | K \prec f\}$. For any f s.t. $K \prec f$ and $0 < \alpha < 1$, we let $V_\alpha = \{x \in X | f(x) > \alpha\}$. Then $\alpha \mu(K) \leq \alpha \mu(V_\alpha) = \sup\{\alpha \wedge g | g \prec V_\alpha\} \leq \wedge f$. Let $\alpha \uparrow 1$, $\mu(K) \leq \wedge f \Rightarrow \mu(K) \leq \inf\{\wedge f | K \prec f\}$. On the other hand, $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$ open $V \supseteq K$ s.t. $\mu(V) < \mu(K) + \epsilon$. Choose h s.t. $K \prec h \prec V$. Then, $\wedge h \leq \mu(V) < \mu(K) + \epsilon$, and hence $\inf\{\wedge f | K \prec f\} < \mu(K) + \epsilon$. Let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$.

Step 3. \forall open $V \subseteq X. \mu(V) = \sup\{\mu(K) | K \subseteq V\}$.

It suffices to prove that $\mu(V) \leq \sup\{\mu(K) | K \subseteq V\}$. For any $\beta < \mu(V)$, there exists $f \prec V$ s.t. $\beta < \wedge f$. Then $\beta < \wedge f \leq \mu(\text{supp}f)$: $\mu(\text{supp}f) = \inf\{\mu(U) | \text{supp}f \subseteq U \subseteq X \text{ and } \wedge f \leq \mu(U) \text{ if } f \prec U\}$.

Step 4. \forall disjoint $A_j \in A_F$. $\mu(\cup_j A_j) = \sum_j \mu(A_j)$. If furthermore, $\mu(\cup_j A_j) < \infty$, then $\cup_j A_j \in A_F$.

We claim that \forall compact K and K' in X , $\mu(K \cup K') = \mu(K) + \mu(K')$. $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists f$, $K \cup K' \prec f$ and $\wedge f < \mu(K \cup K') + \epsilon$ by step 2. Applying Urysohn's lemma, $\exists \rho$, $K \prec \rho \prec X \setminus K' \Rightarrow K \prec \rho f$ and $K' \prec (1 - \rho)f$. $\mu(K) + \mu(K') \leq \wedge(\rho f) + \wedge((1 - \rho)f) = \wedge f < \mu(K \cup K') + \epsilon$. Then, let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$. Now since $A_j \in A_F$, \exists compact $K_j \subseteq A_j$ s.t. $\mu(A_j) - \frac{\epsilon}{2^j} \leq \sum_j \mu(A_j) - \epsilon \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(K_j) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^m \mu(K_j) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mu(\cup_{j=1}^m K_j) \leq \mu(\cup_{j=1}^{\infty} K_j)$. Let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$. If furthermore $\mu(\cup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j) < \infty$, then $\exists N$ s.t. $\mu(\cup_j A_j) - \epsilon < \sum_{j=1}^N \mu(A_j) < \sum_{j=1}^N (\mu(K_j) + \frac{\epsilon}{2^j}) < \mu(\cup_{j=1}^N K_j) + \epsilon = \mu(\cup_{j=1}^N K_j) + \epsilon$. Hence we proved.

Step 5. $\forall A \in A_F$ and $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists K \subseteq A \subseteq V \subseteq X$, $\mu(V \setminus K) < \epsilon$. By the definitions of μ and A_F , $\exists K \subseteq A \subseteq V \subseteq X$ s.t. $\mu(V) < \mu(A) + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ and $\mu(A) - \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \mu(K)$. Thus, $\mu(V) - \mu(K) < \epsilon$. Since $V \setminus K \subseteq X$ and $\mu(V \setminus K) < \mu(V)$. By step 3, $V \setminus K \in A_F$ and by step 2, $K \in A_F$. Thus, $\mu(V) = \mu(K) + \mu(V \setminus K)$ and hence $\mu(V \setminus K) < \epsilon$.

Step 6. $\forall A_1, A_2 \in A_F$, $A_1 \setminus A_2$, $A_1 \cap A_2$, and $A_1 \cup A_2 \in A_F$.

By step 5. $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists K_i \subseteq A_i \subseteq V_i \subseteq X$ s.t. $\mu(V_i \setminus K_i) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Then $A_1 \setminus A_2 \subseteq V_1 \setminus K_2 \subseteq (V_1 \setminus K_1) \cup (K_1 \setminus V_2) \cup (V_2 \setminus K_2)$, and hence $\mu(A_1 \setminus A_2) \leq \mu(V_1 \setminus K_1) + \mu(K_1 \setminus V_2) + \mu(V_2 \setminus K_2) < \mu(K_1 \setminus V_2) + \epsilon$. Note that $K_1 \setminus V_2$ is a compact and $\mu(A_1 \setminus A_2) < \infty$. Thus, $A_1 \setminus A_2 \in A_F$. $A_1 \cap A_2 = A_1 \setminus (A_1 \setminus A_2)$. $A_1 \cup A_2 = (A_1 \setminus A_2) \cup A_2$. Since $\mu(A_1 \cup A_2) \leq \mu(A_1) + \mu(A_2) < \infty$. Then, $A_1 \cup A_2 \in A_F$.

Step 7. A is a σ -algebra on X containing B_X .

Let $A \in A$, for any compact $K \subseteq X$, $(X \setminus A) \cap K = K \setminus (A \cap K) \in A_F$ by step 6. Under the complement operation, it is closed.

Let $A_j \in A$. For any compact $K \subseteq X$, set $B_1 = A_1 \cap K$ and $B_n = A_n \cap K \setminus \cup_{j=1}^{n-1} B_j$. Then B_j is a disjoint family in A_F , and hence $\cup_j A_j \cap K = \cup_j B_j \cap K$. Since $\mu(\cup_j (B_j \cap K)) \leq \mu(K)$. Therefore, by step 4, A_j is in A_F .

Let $C \subseteq_{\text{closed}} X$. For any compact $K \subseteq X$, $C \cap K$ compact $\Rightarrow C \in A_F$.

Step 8. $A_F = \{A \in A | \mu(A) < \infty\}$

\subseteq Let $A \in A_F$. For any compact $K \subseteq X$, $A \cap K \subseteq K$, then $A \in A$.

(\supseteq) Let $A \in A$ s.t. $\mu(A) < \infty$. By the definition of $\mu(A)$, \exists open $V \supseteq A$ with $\mu(V) < \mu(A) + 1 < \infty$. By step 3, $V \in A_F$. Let $\epsilon > 0$, by step 5, $\exists K \subseteq V$ with $\mu(V \setminus K) < \epsilon$. $A \cap K \in A_F$ since $A \in A$. Thus \exists compact $H \subseteq A \cap K$ with $\mu(A \cap K) < \mu(H) + \epsilon$. $A = (A \cap K) \cup (A \setminus K) \subseteq (A \cap K) \cup (V \setminus K)$. $\mu(A) \leq \mu(A \cap K) + \mu(V \setminus K) < \mu(H) + 2\epsilon$. $\mu(A) = \sup\{\mu(H) | H \subseteq A\}$.

Step 9. $A \xrightarrow{\mu} [0, \infty]$ is a measure.

Given disjoint $A_j \in A$, if $\mu(A_j) = \infty$ for some j , then $\mu(\cup_j A_j) = \sum_j \mu(A_j)$, and if every $\mu(A_j) < \infty$, $A \in A_F$, by step 4, $\mu(\cup_j A_j) = \sum_j \mu(A_j)$. The completeness of measure can be obtained by applying the results of previous steps.

Step 10. $\forall f \in C_c(X)$, $\wedge f = \int_X f d\mu$.

It suffices to verify that $\wedge f \leq \int_X f d\mu$ for every $f \in C_c(X)_R$. Choose $a|b$, s.t.

$a < f(x) \leq b$ for all $x \in X$ and for $\epsilon > 0$, choose $a = y_1 < \dots < y_n = b$ s.t. $y_i - y_{i-1} < \epsilon$. Let $A_i = \{x \in X | y_{i-1} < f(x) \leq y_i\} \cap \text{supp} f$ which is Borel since f is continuous. Therefore, $A_i \in \mathcal{A}$. \exists open $V_i \supseteq A_i$ s.t. $\mu(V_i) < \mu(A_i) + \frac{\epsilon}{n}$. We assume that $f|_{V_i} < y_i + \epsilon$ by replacing V_i by $V_i \cap \{x \in X | f(x) < y_i + \epsilon\}$. Take a partial partition of unity, ρ_1, \dots, ρ_n for $\text{supp} f$ w.r.t. V_1, \dots, V_n . Then $f = \sum_{i=1}^n \rho_i f$ and $\text{supp} f \prec \sum_{i=1}^n \rho_i$. Then $\mu(\text{supp} f) \leq \mu(\sum_{i=1}^n \rho_i)$. $\rho_i f \leq (y_i + \epsilon) \rho_i$. Then $\wedge f = \sum_{i=1}^n \wedge(\rho_i f) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i + \epsilon) \wedge \rho_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (|a| + y_i + \epsilon) \wedge \rho_i - |a| \sum_{i=1}^n \wedge \rho_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (|a| + y_i + \epsilon) (\mu(A_i + \frac{\epsilon}{n}) - |a| \mu(\text{supp} f)) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \epsilon) \mu(A_i) + 2\epsilon \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i) + \sum_{i=1}^n (|a| + y_i + \epsilon) \frac{\epsilon}{n} - |a| \mu(\text{supp} f) + |a| \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i) \leq \int_X f d\mu + \epsilon(2\mu(\text{supp} f) + |a| + b + \epsilon)$. Let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$. \square

Remark. *There is another approach of proving. In the above step 1 implies that μ_\wedge is an outer measure on X . By Carathéodory's construction $A_{\mu_\wedge} = \{A \subseteq X | \forall E \subseteq X, \mu_\wedge(E) = \mu_\wedge(E \cap A) + \mu_\wedge(E \setminus A)\}$ is a σ -algebra and μ_\wedge is a complete measure. There can verify directly that $\sigma_{\mu_\wedge} \supseteq T_X$ and hence $A_{\mu_\wedge} \supseteq B_X$. Thus step 2 and the definition of μ_\wedge imply that $A_{\mu_\wedge} \xrightarrow{\mu_\wedge} [0, \infty]$ a demiregular measure on X . By Cohn 7.2.6, for a demiregular measure on a Hausdorff space every σ -finite measurable sets is μ_\wedge -inner compact regular. Finally step 10 works, another proof is complete.*

6 L^p space

Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space. Recall that for $0 < p < \infty$ and $f \in \mu(A)$, $\|f\|_p = (\int_X |f(x)|^p d\mu(x))^{\frac{1}{p}} \in [0, \infty]$. $L^p(\mu)_K = \{f \in \mu(A)_K | \|f\|_p < \infty\}$.

Definition. $L^\infty(\mu)_K = \{\text{all } K\text{-valued bounded measurable functions}\}$. For $f \in L^\infty(\mu)_K$, $\|f\|_\infty = \inf\{M | \{x \in X | |f(x)| > M\} \text{ is } \mu\text{-null}\}$.

Theorem. (Young's inequality) $\forall a, b \geq 0$ and $p, q \geq 0$, $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \Rightarrow ab \leq \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}$.

Proof. e^x is convex. $e^{\frac{1}{p} p \ln a + \frac{1}{q} q \ln b} \leq \frac{1}{p} e^{p \ln a} + \frac{1}{q} e^{q \ln b}$. \square

Theorem. (Hölder's inequality) For any conjugate exponents where $p, q \in [0, \infty]$, $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$. If f and g are extended real valued nonnegative \mathcal{A} -measurable functions, then $\int_X f g d\mu \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$.

Proof. ($1 < p < \infty$) We may assume that $\|f\|_p$ and $\|g\|_q$ are both finite and nonzero. Let $F = \frac{f}{\|f\|_p}$ and $G = \frac{g}{\|g\|_q}$. Then by Young's inequality, $\int_X F G d\mu \leq \int_X (\frac{F^p}{p} + \frac{G^q}{q}) d\mu = 1$. ($p = 1$) Let $E = \{x \in X | f(x) > 0\}$, which is σ -finite. And $N = \{x \in X | g(x) > \|g\|_\infty\}$. $E \cap N$ is μ -null. $f(x)g(x) \leq f(x)\|g(x)\|_\infty$ for all $x \in X \setminus E \cap N$. Then $\int_X |f(x)g(x)| d\mu = \int_{X \setminus E \cap N} |f(x)g(x)| d\mu \leq \int_{X \setminus E \cap N} f(x) d\mu \|g\|_\infty$. \square

Theorem. (Minkowski's inequality) For any $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ and $f, g \in \mu(A)$, we may have $\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$.

Proof. ($p < \infty$) We may assume that both $\|f\|_p$ and $\|g\|_p$ are both finite. Then $\|f + g\|_p < \infty$, since $(\frac{|f+g|}{2})^p \leq (\frac{|f|+|g|}{2})^p \leq \frac{1}{2}|f|^p + \frac{1}{2}|g|^p$. $|f + g|^p \leq |f||f + g|^{p-1} + |g||f + g|^{p-1}$. Then by Hölder's inequality, $\int_X |f + g|^p d\mu \leq \|f\|_p (\int_X |f + g|^{(p-1)q} d\mu)^{\frac{1}{q}} + \|g\|_p (\int_X |f + g|^{(p-1)q} d\mu)^{\frac{1}{q}} \Rightarrow (\int_X |f + g|^p d\mu)^{1-\frac{1}{q}} = (\int_X |f + g|^p d\mu)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$.
($p = \infty$) $f, g \in L^\infty(\mu) \Rightarrow f + g \in L^\infty(\mu)$. Let $N_1 = \{x \in X | f(x) > \|f\|_\infty\}$ and $N_2 = \{x \in X | g(x) > \|g\|_\infty\}$. $N_1 \cup N_2$ is μ -finull. Then $|f(x) + g(x)| \leq |f(x)| + |g(x)| \leq \|f\|_\infty + \|g\|_\infty$ and hence $\|f + g\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_\infty + \|g\|_\infty$. \square

Corollary. $(L^p, |||_p)$ is a seminormed space.

Definition. $N^p(\mu) = \{f \in L^p(\mu) | \|f\|_p = 0\} = \{f | f\mu = 0\}$ for $0 < p < \infty$ and $\{f | \{x | f(x) > 0\}, \mu - \text{finull}\}$ for $p = \infty$ is a vector subspace of $L^p(\mu)$ by using Minkowski's inequality. Let ordinary $L^p = L^p(\mu) \setminus N^p(\mu)$.
 $(L^p(\mu), |||_{L^p})$ where $||| < f > |||_{L^p} = \|f\|_p$.

Theorem. Let (X, A, μ) be a measurable space and $1 \leq p \leq \infty$. $L^p(\mu)$ is a Banach space.

Proof. ($1 \leq p < \infty$). Let $< f_n >$ be a Cauchy sequence in $L^p(\mu)$. Then f_n is Cauchy sequence w.r.t. the seminorm $|||_p$, i.e. $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N, \forall n, m \geq N \Rightarrow \|f_n - f_m\|_p < \epsilon$. By Chebyshev's inequality, for any $\epsilon > 0$, $\mu(\{x | f_n - f_m| > \epsilon\}) \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon^p} \int_X |f_n - f_m|^p d\mu = \frac{1}{\epsilon^p} \|f_n - f_m\|_p^p$. Thus, $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty, m, n \geq N} \sup \mu(\{x | f_n - f_m| > \epsilon\}) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty, n, m \geq N} \frac{1}{\epsilon^p} (\|f_n - f_m\|_p)^p = 0$. Therefore, there exists a subsequence f_{n_k} which converges μ -a.e. to some function f . By Fatou's lemma, $\int_X |f_{n_k} - f|^p d\mu = \int_X \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} |f_{n_k} - f_{n_l}|^p d\mu \leq \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} \int_X |f_{n_k} - f_{n_l}|^p d\mu \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ and hence $\|f_{n_k} - f\|_p < \infty$ if k is sufficiently large since $\|f\|_p \leq \|f_{n_k} - f\|_p + \|f_{n_k}\|_p < \infty$ by Minkowski inequality. Therefore, $||| < f_{n_k} > - < f > |||_p \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Since the subsequence converges, the Cauchy sequence converges $\Rightarrow < f_n > \rightarrow < f >$ w.r.t. $|||_p$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

($p = \infty$) Suppose that $< g_n \in L^\infty(\mu)$ s.t. $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \|g_n\|_\infty < \infty$. For any $n \in N$, $N_n = \{x \in X | g_n(x) > \|g_n\|_\infty\}$ is μ -finull. Since $(K, |||)$ is complete, for every $x \in X \setminus \cup_{m=1}^\infty N_m$, the series $\sum_{n=1}^\infty g_n(x)$ converges absolutely. Let $s(x) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty g_n(x)$ if $x \in X \setminus \cup_{n=1}^\infty N_n$, $= 0$ if $x \in \cup_{n=1}^\infty N_n$. $|s(x) - \sum_{n=1}^m g_n(x)| \leq \sum_{n=m+1}^\infty |g_n(x)| \leq \sum_{n=m+1}^\infty \|g_n\|_\infty$ if $x \in X \setminus \cup_{n=1}^\infty N_n$. Thus, $\|s - \sum_{n=1}^m g_n\|_\infty \leq \sum_{n=m+1}^\infty \|g_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$ and hence $s = \sum_{n=1}^\infty g_n$ in $L^\infty(\mu)$. \square

Proposition 9. The simple functions in $L^p(\mu)$ form a dense subspace of $L^p(\mu)$.

Proof. We may assume $K = \mathbb{R}$.

$1 \leq p < \infty$ For any $f \in L^p(\mu)$, there exists $[0, \infty)$ -valued simple functions g_n and h_n s.t. $g_n \uparrow f^+$ and $h_n \uparrow f^-$. Let $f_n = g_n - h_n$. $f_n \uparrow f$ pointwise. $|f_n(x) - f(x)|^p \leq |f(x)|^p$ for all $x \in X$ and $n \in N$. By LDCT, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n - f\|_p = 0$.
 $p = \infty$ Given $f \in L^\infty(\mu)$ For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a_0, \dots, a_k s.t. $a_0 < -\|f\|_\infty < a_1 < \dots < a_k = \|f\|_\infty$ and $\max_j a_j - a_{j-1} < \epsilon$. Let $g = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j \chi_{A_j}$ where $A_j = f^{-1}((a_{j-1}, a_j])$. Then $g \in L^\infty$. Then $\|g - f\|_\infty < \epsilon$. \square

Corollary. If $1 \leq p < \infty$, X is a LCH, and μ is a demiregular measure s.t. $A \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\mu(A) < \infty$ is μ -inner compact regular, then $C_c X \subseteq_{dense} L^p(\mu)$.

Proof. For any simple functions $g \in L^p(\mu)$, if we let $A = \{x \in X | g(x) \neq 0\}$, then $\mu(A) < \infty$. By Lusin's theorem, for any $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists h \in C_c(X)$ s.t. $\mu(\{x | h(x) \neq g(x)\}) < \epsilon$ and $\sup_x |h| = \sup_x |g|$. Then $\|g - h\|_p = (\int_X |g - h|^p d\mu)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \epsilon^{\frac{1}{p}} \sup_x |g|$. \square

6.1 Duality

Suppose that $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ with $p, q \in [1, \infty]$. We have natural pairing $L^p(\mu) \times L^q(\mu) \xrightarrow{T} K$ i.e. maps $(f, g) \rightarrow \int_X f g d\mu$ which descends to a pairing $(\langle f \rangle, \langle g \rangle) \rightarrow \int_X f g d\mu$ s.t. $|T(\langle f \rangle, \langle g \rangle)| \leq \|\langle f \rangle\|_p \|\langle g \rangle\|_q$. $T \in L(L^p(\mu), L^q(\mu), K)$. T induces a map $L^q(\mu) \xrightarrow{\varphi} L^p(\mu)^* = L(L^p(\mu), K)$. $\|\varphi\|_{L(L^q(\mu), L^p(\mu)^*)} = \sup \frac{\|\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}\|_{L^p(\mu)^*}}{\|\langle g \rangle\|_q}$. $\|\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}\|_{L^p(\mu)^*} = \sup \frac{|\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}(\langle f \rangle)|_K}{\|\langle f \rangle\|_p} = \frac{|T(\langle f \rangle, \langle g \rangle)|}{\|\langle f \rangle\|_p} \leq \|\langle g \rangle\|_q$. Thus, $\|\varphi\|_{L(L^q(\mu), L^p(\mu)^*)} \leq 1$.

Theorem. If $1 \leq p < \infty$, then $L^q(\mu) \xrightarrow{\varphi} L^p(\mu)^*$ preserves norms. Actually, ϕ is a surjection if $1 < p < \infty$, or $p = 1$ and μ is σ -finite, or $p = 1$, X is LCH, $(A, \mu) = (A_{\mu \wedge}, \mu|_{A_{\mu \wedge}})$, or $p=1$, $G : LCH$ topological group, μ : demiregular measure on B_G s.t. $\mu(A) \Rightarrow$ inner compact regular.

Proof. For any $z \in C$ we let

$$\text{sign}(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{z}{|z|}, & \text{if } z \neq 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } z = 0 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

(1) $p=1$: Let $g \in L^\infty(\mu)_K$ with $\|g\|_\infty > 0$. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$, the set $\{x \in X | |g(x)| > \|g\|_\infty - \epsilon\}$ is not μ -finull, and hence $\exists A \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\mu(A) < \infty$ s.t. $B = \{x \in X | |g(x)| > \|g\|_\infty - \epsilon\} \cap A, \mu(B) > 0$. If $f(\cdot) = \text{sign}(g(\cdot))\chi_B$, then $f \in L^1(\mu)_K$, $\|f\|_1 \leq \mu(B)$ and $\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}(\langle f \rangle) = \int_X \text{sign}(g)\chi_B(x)g(x)d\mu(x) = \int_B |g|d\mu \geq (\|g\|_\infty - \epsilon)\mu(B) \geq (\|g\|_\infty - \epsilon)\|f\|_1$. Then $\|\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}\| \geq \|g\|_\infty - \epsilon$. Let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$.

(2) $1 < p < \infty$ Let $g \in L^q(\mu)_K$ and $f = \text{sign}(g)|g|^{q-1}$. Then $|f|^p = |g|^q \in L^1(\mu)_K$. $\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}(\langle f \rangle) = \int_X \text{sign}(g)|g|^{q-1}g d\mu = (\|g\|_q)^q = (\|f\|_p)^p$. $(\|g\|_q)^q = |\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}(\langle f \rangle)| \leq \|\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}\|_{L^p(\mu)^*} \|\langle f \rangle\|_p = \|\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}\|_{L^p(\mu)^*} (\|g\|_q)^{\frac{q}{p}}$. Then $\|g\|_q \leq \|\varphi_{\langle g \rangle}\|$. \square

6.2 Signed measures and complex measures

Definition. Let $A \xrightarrow{\mu} \bar{R}(\text{resp. } C)$ be a map.

- (1) μ is finitely or countably additive if \forall disjoint $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$, $\mu(\cup_n A_n) = \sum_n \mu(A_n)$
- (2) μ is signed or complex measure on (X, \mathcal{A}) if it is σ -additive and nontrivial $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$.
- (3) μ is a finite signed measure if it is a signed measure which take values in R .

Note that a signed measure is not monotone in general.

A signed measure μ cannot take both ∞ and $-\infty$ as values.

Definition. Let μ be a signed measure on (X, A) and $A \in A$. We say that A is a positive set if $\forall E \in A, E \subseteq A \rightarrow \mu(E) \geq 0$.

\emptyset is both μ -positive and negative.

Countable union of μ -positive (resp. μ -negative) is μ -positive (resp. μ -negative).
 μ is monotone on a μ -positive or μ -negative set

Lemma. μ : signed measure on (X, A) and $A \in A$. If $-\infty < \mu(A) < 0$, then $\exists \mu$ -negative set $B \subseteq A$ s.t. $\mu(B) \leq \mu(A)$.

Proof. Let $\delta_1 = \sup\{\mu(E) | E \in A \text{ and } E \subseteq A\} \geq \mu(\emptyset) = 0$
 $\exists E_1 \in A$ s.t. $E_1 \subseteq A$ and $\mu(E_1) \geq \min\{\frac{\delta_1}{2}, 1\}$. Then define δ_n and E_n inductively. $\delta_n = \sup\{\mu(E) | E \in A \text{ and } E \subseteq A \setminus (E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_{n-1})\}$ and $E_n \in A$ s.t. $E_n \subseteq A \setminus (E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_{n-1})$ and $\mu(E_n) \geq \min\{\frac{\delta_n}{2}, 1\}$. Let $A_\infty = \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty E_n$ and $B = A \setminus A_\infty$. It is easily to see that E_n are disjoint and $\mu(A_\infty) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \mu(E_n) \geq 0$ and hence $\mu(B) \leq \mu(B) + \mu(A_\infty) = \mu(A)$. Now it remains to prove B is μ -negative. Since $\mu(A) \neq -\infty$ and $\mu(A) = \mu(B) + \mu(A_\infty) \Rightarrow \mu(A_\infty) \neq \infty$ and $\mu(A_\infty) = \sum_n \mu(E_n) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(E_n) = 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n = 0$. For any $E \in A, E \subseteq B \subseteq A \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty E_n$, then $\mu(E) \leq \delta_n$ and hence $\mu(E) \leq 0$. \square

Theorem. (Hahn's decomposition) For any signed measure μ on (X, A) . There exists a μ -positive P and μ -negative N s.t. $X = P \cup N$ and $P \cap N = \emptyset$.

Proof. We may assume that $\mu(E) \neq -\infty$ for every $E \in A$. Let $L = \inf\{\mu(A) | A \text{ is } \mu\text{-negative}\} \leq 0$ and choose a sequence N_m of μ -negative sets s.t. $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mu(N_m) = L$. We define $N = \bigcup_{m=1}^\infty N_m$. N is still a μ -negative set and $\mu(N) \neq -\infty$ by assumption. Since $L \leq \mu(N) \leq \mu(N_m)$ for all m , $\mu(N_m) \rightarrow L \Rightarrow \mu(N) = L$. Now define $P = X \setminus N$. It remains to show that P is μ -positive. Suppose not. $\exists A \in A$ s.t. $A \subseteq P$ and $\mu(A) < 0$. By the above lemma, $\exists \mu$ -negative set $B \subseteq A$ s.t. $\mu(B) \leq \mu(A)$. Since $B \cap N = \emptyset$, $B \cup N$ is still a μ -negative set with $\mu(B \cup N) < \mu(N) = L$. Contradictory. \square

Remark. The Hahn's decomposition is not unique. But the differences between $(P, N), (P', N')$ are some μ -trivial subsets in A . Jordan's decomposition of a signed measure. For a signed measure μ on (X, A) , fix a Hahn decomposition (P, N) for μ . We define $A \xrightarrow{\mu^+} \mu(A \cap P)$ and $A \xrightarrow{\mu^-} -\mu(A \cap N)$. Then μ^+, μ^- are both positive measures on (X, A) , at least one of which is finite, s.t. $\mu = \mu^+ - \mu^-$. Then (μ^+, μ^-) is called the Jordan's decomposition of μ , which is independent of the choice of (P, N) .

Proposition 10. $\mu^\pm(A) = \sup\{\pm\mu(E) | E \in A \text{ and } E \subseteq A\}$.

Proof. For any $E \in A$ with $E \subseteq A$, $\mu(E) = \mu^+(E) - \mu^-(E) \leq \mu^+(E) \leq \mu^+(A)$ and hence \geq holds. On the other hand, $\mu^+(A) = \mu(A \cap P)$, since $A \cap P \subseteq A \Rightarrow \leq$ holds. \square

Definition. $|\mu|$ is called the variation of μ . $\|\mu\| = |\mu|(X)$ is called the total variation.

Definition. Let μ be a complex measure on (X, A) . For any $A \in A$, we define $|\mu|(A) = \sup\{\sum_{j=1}^n |\mu(A_j)| \mid A_1, \dots, A_n \text{ form a partition of } A, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. We call $A \xrightarrow{|\mu|} [0, \infty]$ the variation and $\|\mu\| = |\mu|(X)$ the total variation of μ .

Proposition 11. For any complex measure μ , $|\mu|$ is a finite positive measure. If $|\mu|(A) \leq \nu(A)$ where ν is a positive measure, then $|\mu| \leq \nu$.

Proof. (1) $|\mu|(\emptyset) = 0$

(2) We first prove that $|\mu|$ is finitely additive. Let A and A' be disjoint. If $A \cup A' = \cup_{j=1}^n A_j$ where A_j is a partition of $A \cup A'$, then $\sum_{j=1}^n |\mu(A_j \cap A)| + |\mu(A_j \cap A')| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n |\mu(A_j \cap A)| + \sum_{j=1}^n |\mu(A_j \cap A')| \leq |\mu|(A) + |\mu|(A')$ and hence $|\mu|(A \cup A') \leq |\mu|(A) + |\mu|(A')$. On the other hand, for any number $M < |\mu|(A) + |\mu|(A')$ we may choose $M_1, M_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $M = M_1 + M_2, M_1 < |\mu|(A)$ and $M_2 < |\mu|(A')$. Then \exists partitions $B_j, A = \cup_{j=1}^l B_j$ and $B'_k, A' = \cup_{k=1}^m B'_k$ s.t. $M_1 < \sum_{j=1}^l |\mu(B_j)|$ and $M_2 < \sum_{k=1}^m |\mu(B'_k)|$. Therefore, $M = M_1 + M_2 < \sum_{j=1}^l |\mu(B_j)| + \sum_{k=1}^m |\mu(B'_k)| \leq |\mu|(A \cup A')$ since B'_k, B_j together form a partition of $A \cup A'$. So $|\mu|(A) + |\mu|(A') \leq |\mu|(A \cup A')$.

Then, it suffices to show that for any $E_n \in A$, if $E_n \downarrow \emptyset$ then $|\mu|(E_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. $\forall A \in A, |\mu|(A) \leq |\operatorname{Re}\mu|(A) + |\operatorname{Im}\mu|(A)$ where $(\operatorname{Re}\mu)(\cdot) = \operatorname{Re}(\mu(\cdot)), (\operatorname{Im}\mu)(\cdot) = \operatorname{Im}(\mu(\cdot))$. It is easily to see that $|\operatorname{Re}\mu|(A), |\operatorname{Im}\mu|(A)$ are finite positive measure. Therefore, $|\operatorname{Im}\mu|(E_n), |\operatorname{Re}\mu|(E_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, $|\mu|$ is σ -additive and finite. \square

Remark. If μ is a finite signed measure on (X, A) , then the two definitions of $|\mu|$ coincide.

Proposition 12. $(M(X, A)_K, \|\cdot\|)$ is a Banach space.

Proof. It is easily to see that $(M(X, A)_K, \|\cdot\|)$ is a normed space. We then want to prove every Cauchy sequence converges. Let $\mu_n \in M(X, A)_K$ be a Cauchy sequence w.r.t. total variation. Then, as a sequence of \mathbb{K} -valued functions on A (σ -algebra), μ_n is uniformly Cauchy. For any $A \in A, |\mu_n(A) - \mu_m(A)| \leq |\mu_n - \mu_m|(A) \leq \|\mu_n - \mu_m\|$. Thus, μ_n converge uniformly to a function $A \xrightarrow{\mu} \mathbb{K}$. $\mu(\emptyset) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_n(\emptyset) = 0$. We claim that μ is σ -additive. Then it suffices that for any $E_n \in A$, if $E_n \downarrow \emptyset$ then $\mu(E_n) \rightarrow 0$. (Noting that finite additivity is obvious)

$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N > 0, \forall A \in A, n \geq N$, by uniformly convergence, $|\mu(A) - \mu_n(A)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Since μ_N is a finite measure, $\exists M > 0, |\mu_N(E_m)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ if $m \geq M$. Thus, $|\mu(E_m)| \leq |\mu(E_m) - \mu_N(E_m)| + |\mu_N(E_m)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$ if $m \geq M$. In other words, $\mu(E_m) \rightarrow 0$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore, $\mu \in M(X, A)_K$. Eventually, $\|\mu_n - \mu\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ can be easily proved, so we ignore. \square

6.3 Hilbert space

Theorem. (Orthogonal Projection Theorem) Let C be a closed convex set in a Hilbert space E and $x \in E$, then there is unique $y \in C$ such that $\|y - x\| = \inf_{z \in C} \|x - z\| = \min_{z \in C} \|x - z\|$. Furthermore, y is characterized by $x - y \in M^\perp$.

Proof. Let $\alpha = \inf_{z \in M} \|x - z\|$. There is a sequence y_n in M such that $\alpha_2 \leq \|x - z\| \leq \alpha^2 + \frac{1}{n}$. By parallelogram property, $\|(y_n - x) - (y_m - x)\|^2 + \|(y_n - x) + (y_m - x)\|^2 = 2(\|y_n - x\|^2 + \|y_m - x\|^2) \leq 4\alpha^2 + \frac{2}{m} + \frac{2}{n}$. Therefore, $\|y_n - y_m\|^2 \leq 4\alpha^2 + \frac{2}{m} + \frac{2}{n} - 4\|\frac{y_m + y_n}{2} - x\|^2 \leq \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{m}$ since C is convex. Then y_n is a Cauchy sequence. Since M is a subspace of Hilbert space, then M is still complete and hence there is $y \in M$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|y_n - y\| = 0$.

Now let y be any element of M which satisfies $\|x - y\| = \min_{z \in M} \|x - z\|$. For $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $z \in M$, we have $\|x - y - tz\|^2 = \|x - y\|^2 - 2\operatorname{Re}(x - y, z)t + t^2\|z\|^2 \geq \|x - y\|^2$. Then $-2\operatorname{Re}(x - y, z)t + t^2\|z\|^2 \geq 0$. If $t > 0$, $-2\operatorname{Re}(x - y, z) + t\|z\| \geq 0$, then drive $t \downarrow 0$ and we have $-2\operatorname{Re}(x - y, z) \leq 0$. If $t < 0$, $-2\operatorname{Re}(x - y, z) + t\|z\| \leq 0$, then drive $t \uparrow 0$ and we have $-2\operatorname{Re}(x - y, z) \geq 0$. Then $\operatorname{Re}(x - y, z) = 0$. By the similar way, we take iz and have $\operatorname{Im}(x - y, z) = 0$. Thus, $x - y \perp z$.

Now we prove for uniqueness. Suppose that there are two $y, y' \in M$ with $\min_{z \in M} \|x - z\| = \|y - x\| = \|y' - x\|$, $\|y - y'\|^2 = 2(\|y - x\|^2 + \|y' - x\|^2) - \|y + y' - 2x\|^2 \leq 0$. Then $y = y'$. \square

Corollary. If F is a closed vector subspace of E , then P_F is a linear map from E onto F with $\|P_F\| = 1$, $F \neq \{0\}$ and the decomposition is unique.

Theorem. Let H_1 and H_2 be two Hilbert spaces with inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_1$ and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_2$ respectively. The following are equivalent.

- (1) $U : H_1 \rightarrow H_2$ is an isometric isomorphism.
- (2) $U : H_1 \rightarrow H_2$ is a surjective isometry.
- (3) $U : H_1 \rightarrow H_2$ is surjective and $\langle Ux, Uy \rangle_2 = \langle x, y \rangle_1 \forall x, y \in H_1$.
- (4) $U^* : H_2 \rightarrow H_1$ s.t. $\langle Ux, y \rangle_2 = \langle x, U^*y \rangle_1, \forall x \in H_1$ and $\forall y \in H_2$ is the inverse of U .

Proof. $1 \Rightarrow 2$ is obvious.

$2 \Rightarrow 3$ follows from considering $\langle U(x + \alpha y), U(x + \alpha y) \rangle_2 = \langle x + \alpha y, x + \alpha y \rangle_1$ by isometry which leads to $\langle Ux, Ux \rangle_2 = \langle Ux, U\alpha y \rangle_2 + \langle U\alpha y, Ux \rangle_2 + \langle U\alpha y, U\alpha y \rangle_2 = \langle x, x \rangle_1 + \langle x, \alpha y \rangle_1 + \langle \alpha y, x \rangle_1 + \langle \alpha y, \alpha y \rangle_1$. Using the fact that U is isometric, we have $E(\alpha) = \langle Ux, \alpha Uy \rangle_2 + \langle \alpha Uy, Ux \rangle_2 = \langle x, \alpha y \rangle_1 + \langle \alpha y, x \rangle_1$. By considering $E(1)$ and $E(i)$ cases, we can find $\langle Ux, Uy \rangle_2 = \langle x, y \rangle_1 \forall x, y \in H_1$.

The proof of $3 \Rightarrow 4$ is straightforward: $\forall x, y \in H_1, \langle x, y \rangle_1 - \langle Ux, Uy \rangle_2 = \langle x, y \rangle_1 - \langle U^*Ux, y \rangle_1 = \langle x - U^*Ux, y \rangle_1$. But this means $U^*Ux = x$ for all $x \in H_1$. Since U is surjective, it implies U^*U and UU^* are equivalent to I . Therefore, U^* is an inverse map of U . Since U has an inverse it must be a bijection. Moreover, $\|Ux\|_2^2 = \langle Ux, Ux \rangle_2 = \langle x, U^*Ux \rangle_1 = \langle x, x \rangle_1 = \|x\|_1^2$. \square

Proposition 13. *H: Hilbert space.*

$M \oplus M^\perp \xrightarrow{U} H$ is an isomorphism of Hilbert spaces.

Proof. By the previous theorem, it suffices to show that $M \oplus M^\perp \xrightarrow{U} H$ is surjective and $\langle U(m, m^\perp), U(n, n^\perp) \rangle_H = \langle (m, m^\perp), (n, n^\perp) \rangle_{M \oplus M^\perp}$.

First the surjectivity: Denote by P the orthogonal projection on M . Then for any $h \in H$, we have $h = Ph + (h - Ph)$. By definition of P , $Ph \in M$. Furthermore, by the orthogonal projection theorem, $h - Ph \perp M$; that is $h - Ph \in M^\perp$. It follows that $h = U(Ph, h - Ph)$, showing U is a surjection.

It remains to check U preserves the inner product: $\langle U(m, m^\perp), U(n, n^\perp) \rangle_H = \langle m + m^\perp, n + n^\perp \rangle_H = \langle m, n \rangle_H + \langle m^\perp, n \rangle_H + \langle m, n^\perp \rangle_H + \langle m^\perp, n^\perp \rangle_H = \langle m, n \rangle_H + \langle m^\perp, n^\perp \rangle_H = \langle (m, m^\perp), (n, n^\perp) \rangle_{M \oplus M^\perp}$. \square

Corollary. *If $L \in L(H, K)$, $\exists! y \in H$, s.t. $\forall x \in H, Lx = (x, y)_H$. If $Lx = 0$ for all x , then take $y=0$. Otherwise, define $M = \{x : Lx = 0\}$. The linearity of L shows that M is a subspace. The continuity of L shows that M is closed. Then by the orthogonal projection theorem, M^\perp does not consist of 0 alone. Hence there exists $z \in M^\perp$, with $\|z\| = 1$. Put $u = (Lx)z - (Lz)x$. Since $Lu = (Lx)(Lz) - (Lz)(Lx) = 0$, we have $u \in M$. Thus, $(u, z) = 0$. Thus, $Lx = (Lx)(z, z) = (Lz)(x, z)$. Take $y = \alpha z$, where $\alpha = Lz$. The uniqueness of y is easily proved, for if $(x, y) = (x, y')$ for all $x \in H$, set $z = y - y'$. Then, $(x, z) = 0$ for all $x \in H$; in particular, $(z, z) = 0$, hence $z = 0$.*

Corollary. $L^2(\mu)_K \xrightarrow{\Phi^2} L^2(\mu)_K^*$. Φ is isomorphic.

Theorem. (Equivalences of definitions of closed linear span) Let H be a Hilbert space over K and let $A \subseteq H$. The following definitions of the concept of closed linear span of A are equivalent:

- (1) $\text{span}(A) = \cap M$, where M consists of all closed linear subspaces M of H with $A \subseteq M$.
- (2) $\text{span}(A)$ is the smallest linear subspace M of H s.t. $A \subseteq M$.
- (3) $\text{span}(A) = \text{cl}(\{\sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k f_k : n \in \mathbb{N}, \alpha_i \in F, f_i \in A\})$

Proof. Let the proposition (1) holds; assume that the closed linear subspace M' contains the set A , then because $M' \in M$, we have $\text{span}(A) \subseteq M'$. We claim that the intersection of arbitrary family of subspaces is a subspace. Suppose C is a family of subspaces. Denotes $\cap C = \{f \in H \mid \text{for any } V \in C, \text{ there } f \in V\}$. If $f \in \cap C$, then for any $V \in C$, $f \in V$, there $\alpha f \in V$ for $\alpha \in F$. If $f, g \in \cap C$, we have for any $V \in C$, $f + g \in V$. Therefore, $\text{span}(A)$ is a subspace and in addition it is closed, as intersection of arbitrarily family of closed sets is closed.

Next if (2) holds. Since $A \subseteq \text{span}(A)$, $\text{span}(A) \in M$. $\text{span}(A)$ is the smallest one in M ; hence $\text{span}(A) = \cap M$. then, the equivalence between (1) and (2) are established. Finally we come to (3). We claim that $\text{cl}(\text{span}(A))$ is a subspace. It is easily to check by the definition of closure. Now we need to establish the equivalence of (2) and (3): $\text{cl}(\text{span}(A))$, the closed linear subspace, contains $\text{span}(A)$ and thus contains A . For any closed linear subspace M which contains

A , $\text{span}(A) \subseteq M$ since the linear span of A is the smallest subspace that contains A . Because M is closed, $\text{cl}(\text{span}(A)) \subseteq M$. $\text{cl}(\text{span}(A))$ is the smallest closed linear subspace of H with $A \subseteq M$. Because arbitrary intersection of closed sets is closed and arbitrary intersection of subspaces is a subspace, the smallestness is unique. \square

Theorem. Let $S \subset H$ be any subset of a Hilbert space H . Then $\overline{\text{span}}S = (S^\perp)^\perp$. That is, $y \in \overline{\text{span}}S$ if and only if y is perpendicular to everything that is perpendicular to S : $\langle y, z \rangle = 0$ for all z such that $\langle x, z \rangle = 0$ for all $x \in S$.

Proof. Recall that a closed subspace Y satisfies $(Y^\perp)^\perp = Y$. Thus, $\overline{\text{span}}S = (\overline{\text{span}}(S)^\perp)^\perp = (S^\perp)^\perp$. It suffices to show that $\overline{\text{span}}(S)^\perp = S^\perp$. Since $S \subset \overline{\text{span}}(S)$ we clearly have $(\overline{\text{span}}(S))^\perp \subseteq S^\perp$. On the other end, if $z \in S^\perp$. Thus z is perpendicular to $\text{span } S$ and by continuity of the scalar product $z \perp \overline{\text{span}}S = \overline{\text{span}}S$. Thus, $S^\perp \subset (\overline{\text{span}}S)^\perp$. \square

Lemma. Let S be an orthonormal set of vectors in a Hilbert space H . Then the span S consists of all vectors of the form

6.4 Absolute continuity and singularity

Definition. Given $\mu \in M(X, A)_\geq$ and $\nu \in M(X, A)_K$, we say that ν is absolute continuous w.r.t. μ if $\forall A \in A$, $\mu(A) = 0 \Rightarrow \nu(A) = 0$. We denote this relation $\nu \ll \mu$.

Definition. Given a measure ν on (X, A) and $A \in A$, we say that ν is concentrated on A if $\forall E \in A$, $\nu(E) = \nu(E \cap A)$ or equivalently, $\nu(F) = 0, \forall F \in A$ with $F \cap A = \emptyset$.

Definition. The two measures are mutually singularly if $\exists A_1, A_2 \in A$, disjoint s.t. ν_j is concentrated on $A_j (j = 1, 2)$. Denote $\nu_1 \perp \nu_2$.

Lemma. For a positive finite measure μ on (X, A) , $f \in L^1(\mu)$ and S is closed in C , if $A_E(f) = \frac{1}{\mu(E)} \int_E f d\mu \in S$ for every $E \in A$ with $\mu(E) > 0$, then $f(x) \in S$ for μ -a.e. $x \in X$.

Proof. Write $C \setminus S = \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty B_{r_n}(a_n)$. If $\mu(f^{-1}(C \setminus S)) \neq 0$, then $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\mu(E) > 0$ where $E = f^{-1}(B_{r_n}(a_n))$. $|A_E(f) - a_n| = |\frac{1}{\mu(E)} \int_E (f - a_n) d\mu| \leq \frac{1}{\mu(E)} \int_E |f - a_n| d\mu < r_n$. Contradictory! \square

Lemma. $\forall \sigma$ -finite positive measure μ on (X, A) , $\exists w \in L^1$ s.t. $0 < w < 1$.

Proof. Suppose $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty A_n$ for some $A_n \in A$ with $\mu(A_n) < \infty$. We may make $w = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{2^n(1+\mu(A_n))} \chi_{A_n}$. \square

Theorem. Let μ be a σ -finite positive measure and $\nu \in M(X, A)_C$.

(1) (Lebesgue's decomposition) $\exists!(\nu_a, \nu_s) \in M(X, A)_C \times M(X, A)_C$ s.t. $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$, $\nu_a \ll \mu$ and $\nu_s \perp \mu$. If furthermore, ν is a finite signed measure

(respectively finite measure), so are ν_a and ν_s .

(2) (The Radon-Nikodym theorem) $\exists! h \in L^1(\mu)$ s.t. $\nu_a(E) = \int_E h d\mu$ for every $E \in A$.

Proof. (von Neumann) Both the uniqueness parts of (1) and (2) are clear.

For the rest parts, we only need to deal with the case that ν be a finite positive measure. By the previous lemma, $\exists w \in L^1(\mu)$ with $0 < w < 1$. Consider the measure $\phi(E) = \nu(E) + \int_E w d\mu$, a finite positive measure. Then $\int_X f d\phi = \int_X f d\nu + \int_X f w d\mu$ for every nonnegative real extended measurable functions. (By the monotone convergence theorem)

We claim the map $f \in L^2(\phi) \rightarrow \int_X f d\nu \in \mathbb{C}$ is a continuous linear function w.r.t. $\|\cdot\|_{L^2(\phi)}$. $|\int_X f d\nu| \leq \int_X |f| d\nu \leq \int_X \nu(X)^{\frac{1}{2}} \|f\|_{L^2(\nu)} \leq \nu(X)^{\frac{1}{2}} \|f\|_{L^2(\phi)}$.

We further claim that \exists measurable function with $0 \leq g \leq 1$ and $\int_X f d\nu = \int_X f g d\phi$ for every $f \in L^2(\phi)$. By Riesz representation theorem for Hilbert spaces, $\exists g \in L^2(\phi)$ s.t. $\int_X f d\nu = \int_X f g d\phi$ for every $f \in L^2(\phi)$. For $E \in A$, then $\chi_E \in L^2(\phi)$, and hence $\nu(E) = \int_E g d\phi$. If $\phi(E) > 0$, then $\frac{1}{\phi(E)} \int_E g d\mu = \frac{\nu(E)}{\phi(E)} \in [0, 1]$. By the previous lemma, $g(x) \in [0, 1]$ for ϕ a.e. $x \in X$. Redefining $g(x)$ to be 0 if $g(x)$ not in $[0, 1]$.

Now that $\int_X f d\nu = \int_X f g d\nu + \int_X f g w d\mu$. $\int_X f(1-g) d\nu = \int_X f g w d\mu$. We claim that if $A = \{x | 0 \leq g(x) < 1\}$ and $B = \{x | g(x) = 1\}$, then $\nu_a(E) = \nu(E \cap A)$ and $\nu_s(E) = \nu(E \cap B)$ form a Lebesgue's decomposition. $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$ is clear since A and B cover X and are disjoint. Invert $(1-g)$. Consider $1+g+\dots+g^n$. Setting $f = \chi_E(1+g+\dots+g^n)$, $\int_E (1-g^{n+1}) d\nu = \int_E (1+g+\dots+g^n) g w d\mu$. Note that $1-g^{n+1} \uparrow \chi_A$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Besides on $A = X \setminus B$, $1+g+\dots+g^n) g w \uparrow \frac{g w}{1-g}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. By the monotone convergence theorem, $\nu(E \cap A) = \int_E \chi_A d\nu = \int_{E \cap A} \frac{g w}{1-g} d\mu$ since setting $f = \chi_B$, $0 = \int_B w d\mu$, and hence $\mu(B) = 0$. In addition, we can see that $\nu_s \perp \mu$. Finally, let

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{g(x)w(x)}{1-g(x)}, & x \in A \\ 0, & x \in B \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Then $\nu_a(E) = \int_{E \cap A} \frac{g w}{1-g} d\mu = \int_E h d\mu$. □

7 Differentiation

Theorem. If $R \xrightarrow{F} R$ is monotone, F' exists a.e.

Lemma. If $R \xrightarrow{F} R$ is monotone nondecreasing,

- (1) $F(x^\pm) = \lim_{y \rightarrow x^\pm} F(y)$ both exist for $x \in R$
- (2) $D = \{x \in R | F \text{ is discontinuous at } x\}$ is countable
- (3) $x \in R \xrightarrow{G} F(x^+)$ is nondecreasing and right continuous.

Proof. (1) Actually $F(x^+) = \inf_{x < y} F(y)$ and $F(x^-) = \sup_{x > y} F(y)$.

(2) For any $x_1 < x_2$, we have $F(x_1^+) \leq F(x_2^-)$. Note that $x \in D \Leftrightarrow F(x^-) < F(x^+)$. For each $x \in D$ we choose $r_x \in (F(x^-), F(x^+)) \cap Q$. The map is an

injection. Thus the cardinality of D is equal to or smaller than the cardinality of the rationals, and thus countable.

If $x_1 < x_2$, $F(x_1^+) \leq F(x_2^-) \leq F(x_2) \leq F(x_2^+)$. Thus, let $G(x) = F(x^+)$. G is monotone. $\forall M > G(x) = F(x^+) = \inf_{y>x} F(y)$, $\exists y_0 > x$ and $F(y_0) < M$. $G(y) = F(y^+) < F(y_0) < M$ if $y \in (x, y_0)$.

Proof of theorem

(Reduction to the right continuous case) We follow the notation in the lemma. Note that G coincides with F at least on $R \setminus D$. Besides, if $G(c) = F(c)$, $\frac{F(x)-F(c)}{x-c}$ lies between $\frac{G(x^-)-G(c)}{x-c}$ and $\frac{G(x)-G(c)}{x-c}$. In particular, if $G'(c)$ exists, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{G(x^-)-G(c)}{x-c} = G'(c)$.

(Reduction to the bounded case) Replace F by $F^{[-n,n]}$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}$).

Now assume that F is bounded, monotone, and right continuous s.t. $F(-\infty) = 0$. Let $\mu = \mu_F$ (the finite Borel measure on \mathbb{R} s.t. $\mu_F = F$). Take Lebesgue's decomposition $\mu = \mu_a + \mu_s = h d\lambda + \mu_s$ w.r.t. λ on \mathbb{R} , $\frac{F(x_n)-F(c)}{x_n-c} = \frac{\mu_a((c, x_n])}{\lambda((c, x_n])} + \frac{\mu_s((c, x_n])}{\lambda((c, x_n])} \rightarrow h(c) + 0 = h(c)$. \square

Given a function $R \xrightarrow{F} R$ and an interval $[a, b]$, when can we conclude that (1) F' exists a.e. (2) $F' \in L^1([a, b])$ and (3) $F(x) - F(a) = \int_a^x F'(t) dt$ for all $x \in [a, b]$?

Find necessary condition for (1)(2)(3).

Suppose that F satisfies (1)+(2). Then $\nu(E) = \int_E F' d\lambda$ is a finite signed measure on $[a, b]$ s.t. $\nu \ll \lambda_{[a,b]}$. For any interval $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq [a, b]$, $\nu([\alpha, \beta]) = \int_{[\alpha, \beta]} F' d\lambda$. If (3) holds, then $\nu([\alpha, \beta]) = F(\beta) - F(\alpha)$. In summary, F satisfies (1)(2)(3) only if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$, s.t. \forall countable disjoint family $[\alpha_j, \beta_j] \subseteq [a, b]$,

$$\sum_j (\beta_j - \alpha_j) < \delta \Rightarrow \sum_j |F(\beta_j) - F(\alpha_j)| = \sum_j \left| \int_{(\alpha_j, \beta_j)} F' d\lambda \right| \leq \int_{\cup(\alpha_j, \beta_j)} |F'| d\lambda < \epsilon$$

by the property of the absolute continuity of measure.

Lemma. ($\epsilon - \delta$ characterization of absolute continuity of measures) $\mu \ll \nu \Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon, \exists \delta$ s.t. $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}, \nu(A) < \delta \Rightarrow \mu(A) < \epsilon$.

Proof. (\Leftarrow) It is obvious. (\Rightarrow) Suppose not, then there exists ϵ s.t. for all E_n ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) with $\nu(E_n) < 2^{-n}$ and $\mu(E_n) \geq \epsilon$. Then let $F_k = \cup_{i=k}^{\infty} E_i$ and $F = \cap_{k=1}^{\infty} F_k$. $\nu(F_k) < 2^{1-k} \Rightarrow \nu(F) = 0$. However, $\mu(F) \geq \epsilon$ leads to contradiction! \square

Lemma. Let $[a, b] \xrightarrow{F} R$ be continuous and nondecreasing. The followings are equivalent.

- (1) F is AC on $[a, b]$.
- (2) F maps sets of measure 0 to sets of measure 0.
- (3) F is differentiable a.e. and $F' \in L^1$. Besides $F(x) - F(a) = \int_a^x F'(t) dt$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) Let $A \subseteq R$ be λ -null. To show that $F(A)$ is λ -null it is harmless to assume that $A \subseteq (a, b)$. For $\epsilon > 0$, let $\delta > 0$ be as given by the definition of AC functions. Since λ is outer regular, there exists $V \subseteq (a, b)$, and V is open s.t. $A \subseteq V$ and $\lambda(V) < \lambda(A) + \delta = \delta$. Note that V may be written as the union of a countable disjoint family of open intervals (α_j, β_j) ($j \in N$). Then $\sum_j (\beta_j - \alpha_j) = \lambda(V) < \delta$, and hence $\lambda(F(A)) \leq \lambda(F(V)) \leq \lambda(\cup_j F([\alpha_j, \beta_j])) \leq \sum_j \lambda(F([\alpha_j, \beta_j])) = \sum_j |F(\alpha_j) - F(\beta_j)| < \epsilon$.
(2) \Rightarrow (3) First assume that F is strictly increasing. Let $m_{[a,b]} = \{A \in m_L | A \subseteq [a, b]\}$. We show that F maps $m_{[a,b]}$ into m_L . Let $A \in m_{[a,b]}$. Then $A = C \cup N$ for some σ -compact C and some λ -null N . Thus $F(A) = F(C) \cup F(N) \in m_L$. Now we define $\mu(A) = \lambda(F(A))$ ($A \in m_{[a,b]}$) and is a measure by the infectivity of F . In addition, $\mu \ll \lambda_{[a,b]}$ by (2). By the Radon-Nikodym theorem, $\exists h \in L^1(\lambda_{[a,b]})$ s.t. $\mu = h d\lambda_{[a,b]}$. In particular, for a4Fny $x \in [a, b]$, we have $\int_{[a,x]} h d\lambda = \mu([a, x]) = \lambda(F([a, x])) = F(x) - F(a)$. By the easy part of the fundamental theorem of calculus, we have proved the equivalence. \square

If F is only strictly nondecreasing, we can extend the result further to the nondecreasing functions $G(x)$ by letting $G(x) = x + f(x)$.

Lemma. If $[a, b] \xrightarrow{F} R$ is AC on $[a, b]$, then so is V_F .

Proof. For $\epsilon > 0$ let $\delta > 0$ be as given by the definitions of AC. Consider any non-overlapping family $[\alpha_j, \beta_j] \subseteq [a, b]$ ($j \in N$). For any $\eta > 0$ and $j \in N$, choose $\alpha_j = t_0^{(j)} \leq \dots \leq t_{k_j}^{(j)} = \beta_j$ s.t. $V_F[\alpha_j, \beta_j] - \frac{\eta}{2^j} < \sum_{l=1}^{k_j} |F(t_l^{(j)}) - F(t_{l-1}^{(j)})|$. Then we have $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |V(\beta_j) - V(\alpha_j)| = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} V_F[\alpha_j, \beta_j] < \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{l=1}^{k_j} |F(t_l^{(j)}) - F(t_{l-1}^{(j)})| + \eta$ since $[t_{l-1}^{(j)}, t_l^{(j)}]$ are non-overlapping and the choose of η is arbitrary. \square

Corollary. If $[a, b] \xrightarrow{F} R$ is AC on $[a, b]$, then F' exists a.e. and is integrable on $[a, b]$ and $F(x) - F(a) = \int_a^x F'(t) dt$.

Proof. $F = \frac{1}{2}(V + F) - \frac{1}{2}(V - F)$. \square

Lipschitz condition implies AC.

8 Tangent Vectors and Tangent Maps

Let M be a manifold diffeomorphic to dimension n and $p \in M$. Consider $M(p) := \{I \xrightarrow{\nu} M | I \text{ an open neighborhood of } 0 \in R \text{ and } r \text{ differentiable at } t = 0 \text{ and } r(0) = p\}$. For any $I_1 \xrightarrow{r_1} M$ and $I_2 \xrightarrow{r_2} M$ in $M(p)$, we say that $r_1 \sim_p r_2$ if there exists a chart $\varphi \in \Phi_M$

9 Oriented manifolds and orientation

Definition. Let M be a C^∞ manifold of dim m . Two charts $\varphi_\alpha, \varphi_\beta \in \Phi_M$ with coordinates $x_\alpha^1, \dots, x_\alpha^m$ and $x_\beta^1, \dots, x_\beta^m$ respectively are said to have compatible orientations if $\det(\partial x_\alpha / \partial x_\beta) > 0$ for all $p \in U_\alpha \cup U_\beta$.

10 Oriented integration of differential top forms on manifolds

C^∞ manifold of dimension m which is oriented by maximal compatible C^∞ atlas $\tilde{\Phi}_M$. We are talking about the notion $\int_M \omega$ for $\omega \in A^m(M)$

Definition. Choose a C^∞ partition of unity ρ_j ($j \in J$) of M subordinate to the open cover $\{U_\varphi | \varphi \in \tilde{\Phi}_M\}$ (say $\text{supp} \rho_j \subseteq U_{\varphi_j}$ for some φ_j) so that $\text{supp} \rho_j$ is compact for every $j \in J$. For any $\omega \in A^m(M)$, we let $\omega_j = \omega_{\varphi_j} \in A^m(V_j)$. Thus $\rho_j \omega \in A_c^m(M)$ has local expression $(\rho_j \circ \varphi_j^{-1})(x_j) f_j(x_j)$ which can be viewed as an element of $A_c^m((-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1})$. If $\sum \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} (\rho_j \circ \varphi_j^{-1})(x_j) f_j(x) dx^1 \dots dx^m$ exists and has the same value for all choices of such partitions of unity ρ_j and φ_j , we call this value the integral of ω on M denoted by $\int_M \omega$.

Proposition 14. If $\omega \in A_c^m(M)$, then $\int_M \omega$ exists.

Proof. Suppose that ρ_j and ρ'_k are two smooth partitions of unity subordinate to $\{U_\varphi | \varphi \in \tilde{\Phi}_M\}$ so that $\text{supp} \rho_j \subseteq U_{\varphi_j}$ is compact and the same relation holds for ρ'_k where $\varphi_j, \varphi'_k \in \tilde{\Phi}_M$. Do $\sum_{j \in J} \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} (\rho_j \circ \varphi_j^{-1})(x) f_j(x) dx^1 \dots dx^m$ and $\sum_{k \in K} \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} (\rho'_k \circ \varphi'_k{}^{-1})(x') f'_k(x') dx^1 \dots dx^m$ exist and take the same value? Essentially, the sum is a finite sum since $\text{supp} \omega$ is compact and $\text{supp} \rho_j$ is strongly locally finite.

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{j \in J} \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} (\rho_j \circ \varphi_j^{-1})(x) f_j(x) dx^1 \dots dx^m = \\ & \sum_{j \in J} \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} \sum_{k \in K} (\rho'_k \circ \varphi'_k{}^{-1})(x) (\rho_j \circ \varphi_j^{-1})(x) f_j(x) dx^1 \dots dx^m = \\ & \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} (\rho'_k \rho_j \circ \varphi_j^{-1})(x) f_j(x) dx^1 \dots dx^m = \\ & \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} (\rho'_k \rho_j \circ \varphi_j^{-1})(\varphi_j \varphi'_k{}^{-1}(x')) f_j(\varphi_j \varphi'_k{}^{-1}(x')) \\ & | \det(\partial x / \partial x') | dx'^1 \dots dx'^m = \sum_{k \in K} \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} (\rho'_k \circ \varphi'_k{}^{-1})(x') f'_k(x') dx^1 \dots dx^m \\ & \text{(by positive orientation)} \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

11 Stokes' theorem

11.1 Origin

Notation. If Z is an oriented C^∞ manifold of dimension d and $Z \xrightarrow{f} M$ a C^∞ map to a C^∞ manifold M , for any $\omega \in A^d(M)$, we have $f^* \omega \in A^d(Z)$ and

hence we can talk about whether $\int_Z f^* \omega$ exists. If $\int_Z f^* \omega$ exists, we often write $\int_Z \omega$ if f is clear in the context.

For example, for any $\tau \in A^{dim M-1}(M)$, we define $\int_{\partial M} \tau = \int_{\partial M} i^* \tau$ where $\partial M \xrightarrow{i} M$. If M oriented, is there a natural orientation on ∂M ?

11.2 Positively oriented manifold boundary

Let M be a C^∞ manifold of dim m . For any $\varphi \in \Phi_M$ which maps $p \in U_\varphi$ to $\varphi(p) = (x^1(p), \dots, x^m(p)) \in (-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$ ($p \in U_\varphi \cap \partial M \Leftrightarrow x^1(p) = 0$), we let $U_\varphi \cap \partial M \xrightarrow{\varphi^{\partial M}} (x^2(p), \dots, x^m(p))$, which gives a topological chart of ∂M on $U_\varphi \cap \partial M$. $\text{Phi}^{\partial M} = (\varphi^{\partial M} | \varphi \in \Phi_M)$ is a C^∞ atlas of ∂M which induces the unique C^∞ structure on ∂M so that $\partial M \xrightarrow{i} M$ is C^∞ . And $\Phi^{\partial M}$ is a maximal C^∞ atlas. Now suppose that M is oriented and Φ_M a maximal compatible C^∞ atlas of M which determines the orientation of M . Then $\tilde{\Phi}^{\partial M} = (\varphi^{\partial M} | \varphi \in \tilde{\Phi}_M)$ is also a compatible smooth atlas on ∂M , and hence determines an orientation on ∂M , which is called the positive orientation of ∂M induced by the orientation of M . Unless otherwise mentioned, we will always use ∂M to denote the positively oriented boundary.

Remark. M : a C^∞ manifold of dim m . Let $A_\Phi^K(M) = ((\omega_\varphi | \varphi \in \Phi | \omega_\varphi \in A^k(\varphi(U_\varphi)) \text{ for all } \varphi \in \Phi \text{ so that } * \text{ holds for every pair of charts})$ where $\Phi \in \Phi_M$ is a C^∞ atlas of M . If $\Phi_1 \subseteq \Phi_2 \dots \subseteq \Phi_M \Rightarrow A_{\Phi_2}^k(M) \xrightarrow{T_{\Phi_1}^{\Phi_2}} A_{\Phi_1}^k(M)$ where $T_{\Phi_1}^{\Phi_2}$ is a bijection.

11.3 Stokes' theorem

If M is an oriented C^∞ manifold and $\omega \in A_c^{dim M-1}(M)$, then $\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega = \int_{\partial M} i^* \omega$

Proof. Choose an arbitrary C^∞ partition of unity $\rho_j (j \in J)$ subordinate to $(U_\varphi | \varphi \in \tilde{\Phi}_M)$ so that $\text{supp} \rho_j$ are all compact, say $\text{supp} \rho_j \subseteq U_{\varphi_j} = U_j$ for some $\varphi_j \in \tilde{\Phi}_M$. Since $\text{supp} \omega$ is compact, $\omega = \sum_{j \in J} \rho_j \omega$ is essentially a finite sum, it suffice to show that if $\eta \in A_c^{dim M-1}(M)$ and $\text{supp} \eta \subseteq U_\varphi$ for some φ , then $\int_M d\eta = \int_{\partial M} \eta$.

Suppose that the coordinates induced by φ are x^1, \dots, x^m and the local expression of η is $\sum_{l=1}^m f_l dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \overset{\wedge}{dx^l} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m$. f_l is a C^∞ function on half space with compact support. $d\eta$ has local expression on U_φ is $\sum_{l=1}^m \frac{\partial f_l}{\partial x^1} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m = (\sum_{l=1}^m (-1)^{l-1} \frac{\partial f_l}{\partial x^1}) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m$. $\int_M d\eta = \int_{(-\infty, 0] \times \mathbb{R}^{m-1}} \sum_{l=1}^m (-1)^{l-1} (\frac{\partial f_l}{\partial x^1}) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m$. There are two conditions.

For $l = 2, \dots, m$, choose a suitable rectangle R and the integral is equal to 0 since $\int_R \frac{\partial f_l}{\partial x^1} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m = \int_{R_l} (\int_{a_l}^{b_l} \frac{\partial f_l}{\partial x^1} dx^1) dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge \overset{\wedge}{dx^l} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m =$

$$\int_{R_l} (f(x^1, \dots, b_l, \dots, x^m) - f(x^1, \dots, a_l, \dots, x^m)) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \overset{\wedge}{dx^l} \dots \wedge dx^m = 0.$$
 For $l = 1$, the integral is equal to $\int_{(-\infty, 0] \times R^{m-1}} \text{frac} \partial f_l \partial x^1 dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m =$

$$\int_{R_1} (\int_{a_1}^{b_1} \frac{\partial f_l}{\partial x^1} dx^1) \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m = \int_{R_1} ((f(b_1, \dots, x^m) - f(a_1, \dots, x^m)) dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m =$$

$$\int_{R_1} f(b_1, \dots, x^m) dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m.$$
 Then integrate $i^* \eta$ on ∂M . $i^* \eta$ has local expression $f_l(0, x^2, \dots, x^m) dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m$.
 Thus the proof is complete. \square

12 Tangent vector fields

M: a C^k manifold of dim m , $V \in M$.

Definition. A rule assigning to each point $p \in V$ with a tangent vector $X(p) \in T_p M$ is called a tangent vector field on V . More formally, we define the tangent bundle of M . $TM := \cup_{p \in M} T_p M$ and canonical projection. Then a tangent vector field X on V is exactly a map $V \subseteq M \xrightarrow{x} TM$ so that $\pi \circ X(p) = p$. X is called a section of $TM \xrightarrow{\pi} M$ over V .

Definition. Let X be a vector field on V . For any $\varphi \in \Phi_M$ defined on $U \subseteq_{\text{open}} M$ whose coordinates are x^1, \dots, x^m , and for any $p \in V \cap U$ since $(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1})_p, \dots, (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})_p$ forms a basis of $T_p M$. $x(p)$ can be written as $x^j(p)(\partial/\partial x^j)_p$ for a unique set of "components" $x^1(p), \dots, x^m(p)$. x^1, \dots, x^m are functions on $V \cap U$. $(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})$ is called the frame of TM on U induced by ϕ .

Definition. A vector field X on V is C^k near a point $p \in V$ if $\exists \varphi \in \Phi_M$ defined near p so that the components of X induced by φ are C^k functions, i.e. $x^1 \circ \varphi^{-1}, \dots, x^m \circ \varphi^{-1}$ are C^k functions on $\varphi(V \cap U)$. If X is C^k at or near every point of V , we can call X a C^k vector field.

12.1 The quotient/gluing viewpoint

Idea. A topological manifold X with a topological atlas Φ can be reconstructed by gluing $V_\alpha := \varphi_\alpha(U_\alpha)(\alpha \in A)$ along $V_{\alpha\beta} := \varphi_\alpha(U_\alpha \cap U_\beta)(\alpha\beta \in A)$ via $v_{\alpha\beta} \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\alpha\beta}} V_{\beta\alpha}$. Note that the data $(V_\alpha, v_{\alpha\beta} \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\alpha\beta}} V_{\beta\alpha})$ satisfy the following conditions: $\forall \alpha, \beta, \gamma \in A$, $V_{\alpha\alpha} = V_\alpha, V_{\alpha\beta} \subseteq_{\text{open}} V_\alpha, v_{\alpha\beta} \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\alpha\beta}} V_{\beta\alpha}$ is homeomorphic, $V_{\alpha\beta} \cap V_{\alpha\gamma} = \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(V_{\beta\alpha} \cap V_{\beta\gamma})$ and informally $\varphi_{\alpha\beta} \circ \varphi_{\beta\gamma} = \varphi_{\alpha\gamma}$.

13 Multilinear algebra-tensors

V : usually finitely dimensional vector space over K . $V^* := (v \xrightarrow{f} K | f: V \rightarrow K \text{ linear})$. If e_1, \dots, e_n form a basis of V , then we have the dual basis e^1, \dots, e^n of V^* where $e^j(e_k) = \delta_k^j$ (Kronecker δ) $= 1(j = k)$ or $= 0(j \neq k)$.

13.1 Multilinear algebra

U, V, W : vector spaces over K . $U^* \otimes V^* \otimes W^* := (U \times V \times W \xrightarrow{f} K | f \text{ is multilinear})$. Does $U^* \otimes V^* \otimes W^*$ have a specific basis induced by these bases?

Definition. $f \in U^*, g \in V^*, h \in W^*, U \times V \times W \xrightarrow{f \otimes g \otimes h} K$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \tilde{u}_r \\ \tilde{v}_s \\ \tilde{w}_t \end{pmatrix} \text{ another bases of } \begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix}. u^i \otimes v^j \otimes w^k = a_r^i b_s^j c_t^k \tilde{u}_r \otimes \tilde{v}_s \otimes \tilde{w}_t \text{ if}$$

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{u}_r = a_r^i u^i \\ \tilde{v}_s = b_s^j v^j \\ \tilde{w}_t = c_t^k w^k \end{cases}$$

(by Einstein convention)

Definition. V : vector space over k . $\wedge^k V^* := (V \times \dots \times V \xrightarrow{f} K | f \text{ is } k\text{-linear and alternating})$. Ex: determinants. $V^* \otimes \dots \otimes V^*$ can be denoted by $\otimes^k V^*$. An alternating mapping from $\otimes^k V^*$ to itself is an isomorphism.

$\otimes^k V^* \xrightarrow{Alt} \wedge^k V^*$. It is easily to find that for any $f \in \otimes^k V^*, f \in \wedge^k V^* \Leftrightarrow Alt(f) = f$.

\tilde{Alt} is different from Alt by multiplying $k!$. $\tilde{Alt}(\varphi_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \varphi_k)(V_1, \dots, V_k) =$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_1(V_1) & \dots & \varphi_1(V_k) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \varphi_k(V_1) & \dots & \varphi_k(V_k) \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\varphi \in \wedge^k V^*, \psi \in \wedge^l V^*, \varphi \wedge \psi \stackrel{def}{=} \frac{(k+l)!}{k!l!} \times Alt(\varphi \otimes \psi) = \frac{1}{k!l!} \times \tilde{Alt}(\varphi \otimes \psi).$$

Claim. $e^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge e^{i_k}$ forms a basis of $\wedge^k V^*$.

Proof. $f \in \wedge^k V^*. f = f_{i_1, \dots, i_k} e^{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes e^{i_k} = \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n} \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} f_{i_{\sigma 1}, \dots, i_{\sigma k}} e^{i_{\sigma 1}} \otimes \dots \otimes e^{i_{\sigma k}} = \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n} f_{i_{\sigma 1}, \dots, i_{\sigma k}} \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} (-1)^\sigma e^{i_{\sigma 1}} \otimes \dots \otimes e^{i_{\sigma k}} = \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n} f_{i_{\sigma 1}, \dots, i_{\sigma k}} \tilde{Alt} e^{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes e^{i_k}$ \square

13.2 Tensor fields and differential forms

M is a C^∞ manifold of dim m . $TM = \cup_{p \in M} T_p M$. $T^*M = \cup_{p \in M} T_p^* M$. (cotangent bundle of m) $\otimes^k T^*M = \cup_{p \in M} \otimes^k T_p^* M$. (tensor bundle of m) $\wedge^k T^*M = \cup_{p \in M} \wedge^k T_p^* M$.

Definition. A tensor field S on $V \subseteq_{open} M$ is a map $V \xrightarrow{S} \otimes^k T^*M$. Furthermore, S is called a k -tensor of M on V . S is called a differential k -form if $S_p \in \wedge^k T_p^* M$ for all $p \in M$.

Definition. $(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j})_p \xrightarrow{dualbasis} (dx^j)_p$

Definition. *vector field* X : $X(p) = X^j(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j})_p \in T_p M$
k-tensor S : $S(p) = S_{j_1, \dots, j_k}(p)(dx^{j_1})_p \otimes \dots \otimes (dx^{j_k})_p$
k-form S : $S(p) = \sum_{j_1 < \dots < j_k} S_{j_1, \dots, j_k}(p)(dx^{j_1})_p \wedge \dots \wedge (dx^{j_k})_p$. We say that S is C^∞ if all S_{j_1, \dots, j_k} are smooth functions on $V \cap U$.

13.3 Cartan's exterior differentiation

M : C^∞ manifold of dim m . $A^k(M) = (M \xrightarrow{\omega} \wedge^k T^* M | \omega(p) \in \wedge^k T_p^* M)$.

Definition. $A^k(M) \xrightarrow{d} A^{k+1}(M)$. $d\omega \in \wedge^{k+1} T^* M$. For any $U_\alpha \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha} \varphi_\alpha(U_\alpha) = V_\alpha \subseteq R^m \in \Phi_M$, we can write $\omega = \omega_{j_1, \dots, j_k} dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k}$. We define $d\omega$ on $U \cdot p \in U_\alpha \implies (d\omega)(p) = \frac{\partial(\omega_{j_1, \dots, j_k} \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1})}{\partial x_\alpha^{j_0}}(\varphi_\alpha(p))(dx_\alpha^{j_0})_p \wedge (dx_\alpha^{j_1})_p \wedge \dots \wedge (dx_\alpha^{j_k})_p$.

Beyond the definition above, we should ensure the $d\omega$ is still the same mapping through different charts. Suppose that on $U \cap V$ (V is another chart), $\eta = \eta_{l_1, \dots, l_k} dy^{l_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dy^{l_k}$. By coordinate transformation,

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{l_1, \dots, l_k} \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_1}}{\partial x^{j_1}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_k}}{\partial x^{j_k}} \right) &= \omega_{j_1, \dots, j_k} \implies \\ \frac{\partial \omega_{j_1, \dots, j_k}}{\partial x^{j_0}} &= \frac{\partial \eta_{l_1, \dots, l_k}}{\partial y^{l_0}} \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_0}}{\partial x^{j_0}} \right) \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_1}}{\partial x^{j_1}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_k}}{\partial x^{j_k}} \right) + \eta_{l_1, \dots, l_k} \sum_{s=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_1}}{\partial x^{j_s}} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 y^{l_s}}{\partial x^{j_0} \partial x^{j_s}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_k}}{\partial x^{j_k}} \right) \\ \implies \frac{\partial \omega_{j_1, \dots, j_k}}{\partial x^{j_0}} dx^{j_0} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k} &= \left(\frac{\partial \eta_{l_1, \dots, l_k}}{\partial y^{l_0}} \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_0}}{\partial x^{j_0}} \right) \right) \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_1}}{\partial x^{j_1}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_k}}{\partial x^{j_k}} \right) + \eta_{l_1, \dots, l_k} \\ \sum_{s=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_1}}{\partial x^{j_s}} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 y^{l_s}}{\partial x^{j_0} \partial x^{j_s}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial y^{l_k}}{\partial x^{j_k}} \right) dx^{j_0} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k} &= \frac{\partial \eta_{l_1, \dots, l_k}}{\partial y^{l_0}} dy^{l_0} \wedge \dots \wedge dy^{l_k}. \end{aligned}$$

(the latter term is equal to zero)

14 Homology

Let M be a C^∞ manifold of dim m . We call $\longrightarrow A^{-1}(M) \longrightarrow A^0(M) \xrightarrow{d^0} A^1(M) \dots \longrightarrow A^j(M) \xrightarrow{d^j} A^{j+1}(M) \longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow A^m(M)$ the deRham complex of M and let $H^j(M, C) = \text{closed } j\text{-form on } M / \text{exact } j\text{-form on } M$, called the j -th deRham cohomology of M which is a C -vector space.

Terminology. For $\omega \in A^j(M)$, ω is closed $\iff d\omega = 0$ (Z^j) and is exact $\iff \exists \eta \in A^{j-1}(M), \omega = d\eta$ (B^j).

Example. $H^0(M, C) \simeq \ker(A^0(M) \xrightarrow{d} A^1(M))$. That is, $f \in H^0(M, C)$ is locally constant. Therefore, if we let $\pi_0(M)$ be the path connected components of M (each of which is open in M), then $H^0(M, C) \xleftarrow{\sim} C^{x\pi_0(M)}$, which is the canonical map.

Example. Let $M = R^2 / \{p\}$ where $p = (a, b) \in R^2$. Let $\omega_p = \frac{(y-b)dx - (x-a)dy}{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} \in Z^1(M) = \ker(A^1(M) \xrightarrow{d} A^2(M))$. For any closed $\eta \in Z^1(M)$, let $c = \int_\gamma \eta$. gamma is the path surrounding p . So what is $H^1(M, C)$? $\eta - \frac{c}{2\pi} \omega_p \in B^1(M)$. $H^1(M, C) \simeq C$ with basis ω_p . In addition, $M = R^2 / \{p_1, p_2\}$ ($p_1 \neq p_2$). It is easy to find that $H^1(M, C) \simeq C \oplus C$ with two linear-independent bases $\omega_{p_1}, \omega_{p_2}$.

Definition. A sequence of homomorphisms of groups $\dots \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \longrightarrow \dots$ is an exact at B if $\ker(g) = \text{im}(f)$. It is called an exact sequence at every position.

Theorem. Given chain maps $(A_*) \xrightarrow{(S_*)} (B_*) \xrightarrow{(T_*)}$. If $0 \longrightarrow (A_{j+1}) \xrightarrow{(S_{j+1})} (B_{j+1}) \xrightarrow{(T_{j+1})} 0$ for every $j \in \mathbb{Z}$, then \exists homomorphisms $H_j(C_j) \xrightarrow{\delta_j} H_{j-1}(A_{j-1})$ forming an exact long chain.

Remark. $0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B$ is exact, f is injective. $B \xrightarrow{f} C \longrightarrow 0$ is exact, f is surjective.

15 The deRham cohomologies of C^∞ manifolds

Definition. deRham cohomologies $H^k(M, C) = \ker(a^k(M) \xrightarrow{d} A^{k+1}(M)) / \text{im}(a^{k-1}(M) \xrightarrow{d} A^k(M))$. The elements of $H^k(M, C)$ are of the form $\omega + dA^{k-1}(M)$ with ω a closed k -form.

15.1 The cup product on cohomologies

For any $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$, we define the cup product map $H^k(M, C) \times H^l(M, C) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+l}(M, C)$, $([\omega], [\eta]) \mapsto [\omega] \cup [\eta] = [\omega \wedge \eta]$. Recall the super-Leibniz rule: $\forall \alpha \in A^a(M)$ and $\beta \in A^b(M) \implies d(\alpha \wedge \beta) = (d\alpha) \wedge \beta + (-1)^a \alpha \wedge (d\beta) = 0$. Therefore $[\omega \wedge \eta]$ is defined. If $[\omega_1] = [\omega_2]$, then $\exists \tau \in A^{k-1}(M)$ s.t. $\omega_1 = \omega_2 + d\tau$ and hence $\omega_1 \wedge \eta - \omega_2 \wedge \eta = d\tau \wedge \eta = d(\tau \wedge \eta) \pm \tau \wedge (d\eta) = 0 \implies [\omega_1 \wedge \eta] = [\omega_2 \wedge \eta]$. \cup is a C -bilinear map.

Definition. $H^*(M, C) := \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} H^k(M, C)$

Proposition 15. $(H^*(M, C), +, \cup)$ is a supercommutative \mathbb{Z} -gradient C -algebra.

15.2 Pulling-back cohomology classes

Every C^∞ map $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ induces a cochain map between deRham complexes. Particularly, f induces C -linear maps $H^k(N, C) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^k(M, C)$. (well defined by basic algebra) Moreover, $H^*(N, C) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^*(M, C)$ is a homomorphism of C -linear algebra: $f^*([\eta] \cup [\eta']) = f^*[\eta \wedge \eta'] = [f^*(\eta \wedge \eta')] = [(f^*\eta) \wedge (f^*\eta')]$. If there is a chain $M \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} P \implies (g \circ f)^* = f^* \circ g^*$. And there exists a identity map between $H^*(M, C)$ and itself. So there exists a contravariant functor).

16 The long exact sequence of cohomologies induced by a short exact sequence of cochain complexes

Given a short sequence of chain complexes with all squares commutative all columns complexes and rows exact. We have the induced maps (homomorphisms) $H_k(A) \xrightarrow{f_{*k}} H_k(B) \xrightarrow{g_{*k}} H_k(C)$. We can construct natural (functorial) homomorphisms $H_K(c) \xrightarrow{\partial_{*k}^{(f,g)}} H_{k-1}(A)$. and the induced long sequence which is an exact sequence. $\partial_{*k}(k \in \mathbb{Z})$ so constructed are called the connecting homomorphisms. (zig-zag)

Proof. (well-defined) Begin from choose any z, z' , where $[z] = [z']$. It is straightforward to write $z - z' = dc$ ($c \in C^{k-1}$). Since the mapping between B and C is onto. $\exists \tilde{b}. b - b' - d\tilde{b} \mapsto 0$. (where b, b' maps to c, c' by g . Next, $\exists \tilde{a} \mapsto b - b' - d\tilde{b}$. $d\tilde{a} \mapsto db - db' \mapsto 0$. Therefore, $a - a' - d\tilde{a}$. Hence, $a = a' + d\tilde{a} \implies [a] = [a']$.

(exactness) Three conditions. For $H^k(A) \xrightarrow{f_{*k}} H^k(B) \xrightarrow{g_{*k}} H^k(C)$, $[z] \mapsto [f(z)] \mapsto [g(f(z))] = 0 \implies \text{im } f_{*k} \subseteq \ker g_{*k}$. For $H^k(B) \xrightarrow{g_{*k}} H^k(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^k} H^{k+1}(A)$, first $[\omega] \mapsto [g(\omega)]$, and $d\omega = 0$, and hence $\delta^k[g(\omega)] = [0] = 0 \implies \text{im } g_{*k} \subseteq \ker \delta^k$. And for $H^k(C) \xrightarrow{\delta^k} H^{k+1}(A) \xrightarrow{f_{*k+1}} H^{k+1}(B)$, $[\omega] \in H^k(C) \mapsto [a] \mapsto [f(a)] = [db] = 0 \implies \text{im } \delta^k \subseteq \ker f_{*k+1}$. And proof for the opposite direction is similar. \square

17 Cohomologies of the simplest class of space

Definition. Given an R -vec. space V , a subset $S \subseteq V$ is a star-shaped set if $\exists p \in V$, s.t. $\forall s \in S$ and $t \in [0, 1]$ $[(1-t)p + ts \in S]$, such a point p is called a center of S . In most occasions, we may assume 0 is a center of S by translation.

Now consider a star-shaped open $U \subseteq R^m$ (center at 0). Then $H^0(U, C) \simeq C$ by the path-connectedness of U . So what is $H^n(U, C)$? Given a closed $\omega \in A^l(U)$ with $l \geq 1$, can one obtain an $\eta \in A^{l-1}(U)$ s.t. $\omega = d\eta$ by integration?

Notation. $U' := ((x, t) \in R^m \times R | tx \in U)$. There is a map $U' \xrightarrow{H} U$. We consider a slightly more general setting. Given any set U and a subset $V \subseteq U \times R$, we say that all vertical slices of V are open intervals containing $0 \in R$ if $\forall x \in U, \exists -\infty < a_x < 0 < b_x \leq \infty$ s.t. $V \cap (x \times R) = X \times (a_x, b_x)$. When talking about such a V , we adopt the following definitions:

for any $t \in R$, $V_t := (x \in U | (x, t) \in V)$, called the horizontal slice of V of height

$$t; V_t \xrightarrow{l_t} V$$

$$V \xrightarrow{\pi} U$$

for any $W \subseteq U$, $W_0 := \pi^{-1}(W)$

Now consider the case $U \subseteq_{open} R^m$ and $V \subseteq_{open} U \times R$. What if we integrate a C^∞ differential form along t ?

Every $\phi \in A^l(V)$ can be uniquely written in the form $\sum_{1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_l \leq m} A_{j_1, \dots, j_l}(x, t) dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_l} + \sum_{1 \leq k_1 < \dots < k_{l-1} \leq m} B_{k_1, \dots, k_{l-1}}(x, t) dt \wedge dx^{k_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{k_{l-1}}$. We define $A^l(V) \xrightarrow{I} A^{l-1}(V)$, $\phi \mapsto \sum_{|J|=l} A_J(x, t) dx^J + \sum_{|K|=l-1} B_K(x, t) dt \wedge dx^K \mapsto \sum_{|K|=l-1} (\int_0^t B_K(x, s) ds) dx^K$.

Then $dI\phi = \sum_{|K|=l-1} [(\int_0^t \frac{\partial B_K}{\partial x^k}(x, s) ds) dx^K \wedge dx^K + B_K(x, t) dt \wedge dx^K]$. Since $d\phi = \sum_{|J|=l} (\frac{\partial A_J}{\partial x^j})(x, t) dx^j \wedge dx^J + \frac{\partial A_J}{\partial t}(x, t) dt \wedge dx^J + \sum_{|K|=l-1} \frac{\partial B_K}{\partial x^k}(x, t) dx^K \wedge dt \wedge dx^K$.

$Id\phi = \sum_{|J|=l} (\int_0^t \frac{\partial A_J}{\partial s}(x, s) ds) dx^J - \sum_{|K|=l-1} (\int_0^t (\frac{\partial B_K}{\partial x^k}(x, s) ds) dx^K \wedge dx^K = \sum_{|J|=l} A_J dx^J - \sum_{|J|=l} A_J(x, 0) dx^J - \sum_{|K|=l-1} [(\int_0^t \frac{\partial B_K}{\partial x^k}(x, s) ds) dx^K \wedge dx^K]$. Thus $dI\phi + Id\phi = \phi - (l_0 \circ \pi)^* \phi$ for all $\phi \in A^l(V)$.

Corollary. (the Poincare lemma) $H^l(U, C) = C$ (if $l=0$) or 0 if $l \neq 0$ if U is a star-shaped open subset of R^m .

Proof. For any $[\omega] \in H^l(U, C)$ with $l \geq 1$, we have $dIH^*\omega + IdH^*\omega = H^*\omega - \pi^*l_0^*H^*\omega$ with $IdH^*\omega = IH^*d\omega = 0$ and $H \circ l_0(x) = H(x, 0) = 0$. Therefore, $dIH^*\omega = H^*\omega$. Applying l_1^* , we have $dl_1^*IH^*\omega = l_1^*dIH^*\omega = l_1^*H^*\omega = \omega \Rightarrow [\omega] = 0$. \square

We may globalize the construction of I. Let M be a C^∞ manifold of dim m and $V \subseteq M \times R$ an open subset whose vertical slices are open intervals containing $0 \in R$. V has a natural C^∞ structure by the atlas Phi_0 which consists of the charts $U_{\varphi_0} := \xrightarrow{\varphi_0} \varphi_0(U_{\varphi_0} = \cup_{x \in U_{\varphi_0}} (\varphi(x)0 \times (a_x, b_x))$.

Definition. We define $A^l(V) \xrightarrow{I_V} A^{l-1}(V)$ to be unique map which is commute.

18 Homotopy

Definition. We say that two C^∞ maps f_1, f_0 from M to N are C^∞ homotopic to each other if $\exists C^\infty$ map $M \times I \xrightarrow{H} N$ where I is an open interval containing $[0, 1]$ s.t. $f_j = H \circ l_j$

Notation. $f_1 \sim f_0$ denotes f_1, f_0 are homotopic.

Corollary. (homotopy invariance of cohomology maps) Given C^∞ maps f_1, f_0 S.T. $f_1 \sim f_0$, then $H^l(M, C) \xrightarrow{f_0^* = f_1^*} H^l(M, C)$.

Proof. For any $[\omega] \in H^l(N, C)$, we have $f_1^*\omega = (H \circ l_1)^*\omega = l_1^*H^*\omega = l_1^*(dIH^*\omega + IdH^*\omega + \pi^*l_0^*H^*\omega) = d(l_1^*IH^*\omega) + l_1^*\pi^*l_0^*H^*\omega = d(l_1^*IH^*\omega) + (id_M)^*f_0^*\omega$. \square

Definition. (homotopy equivalence) A C^∞ map $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ is a C^∞ homotopy equivalence if $\exists C^\infty$ map $M \xleftarrow{g} N$ s.t. $g \circ f \sim id_M$ and $f \circ g \sim id_N$. Such

a map g is called a homotopy invariance of f . Given C^∞ manifolds M and N , we say that they have the same homotopy type if $\exists C^\infty$ homotopy equivalence $M \xrightarrow{f} N$.

Corollary. Given C^∞ manifolds M and N , if $M \xrightarrow{f} N$, then $H^l(M, C) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^l(N, C)$.

Definition. Given a C^∞ manifold M , a subset $A \subseteq M$ which itself has a smooth structure s.t. the inclusion map $A \xrightarrow{i} M$ is C^∞ and a C^∞ map $M \xrightarrow{r} A$, r is called a retraction if $r(p) = p$ when $p \in A$; r is called a deformation retraction if $r \circ i = id_A$ and $i \circ \sim id_M$.

On cohomologies, if r is a C^∞ retraction $\implies H^l(A, C) \xrightarrow{r^*} H^l(M, C)$ a injection and $H^l(A, C) \xleftarrow{i^*} H^l(M, C)$ a surjection.

What does the condition $I \circ r \sim id_M$ mean under the assumption $r \circ i = id_A$? $\exists C^\infty$ map $M \times I \xrightarrow{H} M$ s.t. $\forall p \in M, H(p, 0) = p$ and $H(p, 1) = i \circ r(p) = r(p)$. $t \in I \mapsto h(p, t) \in M$ is a smooth path. In practice, to construct a smooth deformation retraction, we first create a smooth retraction $M \xrightarrow{r} A$ and a smooth path $I \xrightarrow{\gamma_p} M$ s.t. $\gamma_p(0) = p$ and $\gamma_p(1) = r(p)$ for every $p \in M$, and prove that the map $M \times I \xrightarrow{H} M$ is C^∞ .

Example. (contractible spaces) M is contractible if $\exists p \in M$ and a deformation retraction $M \xrightarrow{r} (p)$. For example, all star-shaped are contractible.

Theorem. (Brouwer's fixed point theorem) If $\bar{B} \xrightarrow{f} \bar{B}$ is a continuous map ($\bar{B} := B_1(0) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$), then $\exists x \in \bar{B}, f(x) = x$.

Proof. Case 1. f is C^∞ . Suppose that $\forall x \in \bar{B}, f(x) \neq x$. We can yield a map $\bar{B} \xrightarrow{r} \partial \bar{B} = S$. Then r is a smooth retraction. Contradictory! \square

Remark. (Lefschiz's fixed point theorem) Let M be a compact oriented C^∞ manifold and $M \xrightarrow{f} M$ be a C^∞ map. If $L(f) := \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (-1)^l \text{tr}(H^l(M, C)) \xleftarrow{f^*} H^l(M, C) \neq 0$, then $\exists x \in M, f(x) = x$.

19 Stochastic process and calculus

19.1 The continuity of sample paths

Definition. Let $(X_t)_{t \in T}$ and $(\tilde{X}_t)_{t \in T}$ be two random processes indexed by the same index set T and with values in the same metric space E . We say that \tilde{X} is a modification of X if $\forall t \in T, P(\tilde{X}_t = X_t) = 1$.

Definition. The process \tilde{X} is said to be indistinguishable from X if there exists a negligible subset N of Ω such that $\forall \omega \in \Omega \setminus N, \forall t \in T, \tilde{X}_t(\omega) = X_t(\omega)$.

Lemma. (Kolmogorov's lemma) Let $X = (X_t)_{t \in I}$ be a random process indexed by a bounded interval I of \mathbb{R} , and taking values in a complete metric space (E, d) . Assume that there exists three reals $q, \epsilon, C > 0$ s.t. for every $s, t \in I$, $E[d(X_s, X_t)]^q \leq C|t - s|^{1+\epsilon}$. Then there is a modification \tilde{X} of X whose sample paths are Hölder continuous with component α for every $\alpha \in (0, \frac{\epsilon}{q})$. This means that for every $\omega \in \Omega$ and every $\alpha \in (0, \frac{\epsilon}{q})$, there exists a finite constant $C_\alpha(\omega)$ such that for every $s, t \in I$, $d(\tilde{X}_s(\omega), \tilde{X}_t(\omega)) \leq C_\alpha(\omega)|t - s|^\alpha$.

Proof. To simplify the presentation, we take $I = [0, 1]$ and then fix $\alpha \in (0, \frac{\epsilon}{q})$. By Chebyshev inequality and the assumption of the lemma, for $\alpha > 0, s, t \in I$, $P(d(X_s, X_t) \geq A = a) \leq a^{-q} E[d(X_s, X_t)]^q \leq C a^{-q} |t - s|^{1+\epsilon}$. We apply this inequality to $s = (i-1)2^{-n}, t = i2^{-n}$ for $i \in \{1, \dots, 2^n\}$ and $\alpha = 2^{-n\alpha}$: $P(d(X_{(i-1)2^{-n}}, X_{i2^{-n}}) \geq 2^{-n\alpha}) \leq C 2^{nq\alpha} 2^{-(1+\epsilon)n}$. By summing over i , $P(\cup_{i=1}^{2^n} \{d(X_{(i-1)2^{-n}}, X_{i2^{-n}}) \geq 2^{-n\alpha}\}) \leq 2^n C 2^{nq\alpha} 2^{-(1+\epsilon)n} = C 2^{-n(\epsilon - q\alpha)}$. By assumption, $\epsilon - q\alpha > 0$, summing over n , we obtain $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(\cup_{i=1}^{2^n} \{d(X_{(i-1)2^{-n}}, X_{i2^{-n}}) \geq 2^{-n\alpha}\}) < \infty$, and by Borel-Cantelli lemma, with probability 1, we can find a finite integer $n_0(\omega)$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0(\omega), \forall i \in \{1, \dots, 2^n\}, d(X_{(i-1)2^{-n}}, X_{i2^{-n}}) \geq 2^{-n\alpha}$. Then let s, t satisfy $0 < t - s < 2^{-n_0(\omega)}$. Hence there exists $n \geq n_0(\omega)$ such that $2^{-(n+1)} \leq t - s < 2^{-n}$. Next, we claim that there is a constant $K_\alpha(\omega)$, such that $d(X_t(\omega), X_s(\omega)) \leq K_\alpha(\omega)|t - s|^\alpha, \forall s, t \in D, 0 < s - t < 2^{-n_0(\omega)}$. For the moment, we restrict to the set of $s, t \in \cup_{m \geq n+1} D_m$, with $0 < t - s < 2^{-n}$. By induction to $m \geq n+1$ we will first show that $d(X_t(\omega), X_s(\omega)) \leq 2 \sum_{k=n+1}^m 2^{-\alpha k}$ if $s, t \in D_m$. Suppose that $s, t \in D_{n+1}$, then $t - s = 2^{-(n+1)}$. Therefore, $\exists k \in \{0, \dots, 2^{(n+1)} - 1\}$, s.t. $t = \frac{k}{2^{n+1}}$ and $s = \frac{k+1}{2^{n+1}}$. Assume that the claim holds for some $m \geq n+1$. Put $s' = \min\{u \in D_m | u \geq s\}$ and $t' = \max\{u \in D_m | u \leq t\}$. By construction and the assumption, $s \leq s' \leq t' \leq t$ and $s' - s, t - t' \leq 2^{-(m+1)}$. $d(X_t(\omega), X_s(\omega)) \leq d(X_t(\omega), X_{t'}(\omega)) + d(X_{t'}(\omega), X_{s'}(\omega)) + d(X_{s'}(\omega), X_s(\omega)) \leq 2^{-\alpha(m+1)} + 2 \sum_{k=n+1}^m 2^{-\alpha k} + 2^{-\alpha(m+1)} = 2 \sum_{k=n+1}^{m+1} 2^{-\alpha k}$. Now let $s, t \in D$ with $0 < t - s < 2^{-n_0(\omega)}$. As noted before, there exists $n \geq n_0(\omega)$ s.t. $2^{-(n+1)} \leq t - s < 2^{-n}$. Then there exists $m \leq n+1$ such that $t, s \in D_m$. Apply the previous result, we construct $K_\alpha(\omega) = \frac{2}{1-2^{-\alpha}}$. And now fix ω the mapping $t \rightarrow X_t(\omega)$ is Hölder continuous on D and hence uniformly continuous on D . Since (E, d) is complete, the mapping has a unique continuous extension. \square

Corollary. Let $B = (B_t)_{t \geq 0}$ be a pre-Brownian motion. The process B has a modification whose sample paths are continuous, and even locally Hölder continuous with exponent $\frac{1}{2} - \delta$ for every $\delta \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$.

Proof. If $s < t$, the random variable $B_t - B_s$ is distributed as $N(0, t - s)$. For every $q > 0$, $E|B_t - B_s|^q = (t - s)^{\frac{q}{2}} E|U|^q$ where $U \sim N(0, 1)$. Taking $q > 2$, we apply the lemma and $\epsilon = \frac{q}{2} - 1$. It follows that B has a modification whose sample paths are locally Hölder continuous with exponent α for every $\alpha < \frac{q-2}{2q}$. \square

19.2 Filtrations and Martingales

Definition. A process X_t with values in a measurable space (E, ϵ) is said to be measurable if the mapping $(\omega, t) \rightarrow X_t(\omega)$ is measurable to $F \otimes B(R^+)$ adapted if for every $t \geq 0$, X_t is F_t -measurable. progressive if for every $t \geq 0$, X_t is $F_t \otimes B([0, t])$ -measurable.

Proposition 16. X_t is adapted and the sample paths are right or left continuous. Then X_t is progressive measurable.

Proof. It suffices to show that it is the case for right continuity. Fix $t > 0$. For every $n \geq 1$ and $s \in [0, t]$, define a random variable X_s^n by setting $X_s^n = X_{\frac{kt}{n}}$ if $s \in [\frac{(k-1)t}{n}, \frac{kt}{n})$, $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $X_t^n = X_t$. The right continuity of sample paths ensures $X_s(\omega) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_s^n(\omega)$. On the other hand, for every Borel subset A of E , $\{(\omega, s) \in \Omega \times [0, t] : X_s^n(\omega) \in A\} = (\{X_t \in A\} \times \{t\}) \cup (\cup_{k=1}^n (\{X_{\frac{kt}{n}} \in A\} \times [\frac{(k-1)t}{n}, \frac{kt}{n}))) \in F_t \otimes B([0, t])$. Hence, for every $n \geq 1$, the mapping $(\omega, s) \rightarrow X_s^n(\omega)$ is measurable for $F_t \otimes B([0, t])$. Since a pointwise limit of measurable functions is also measurable. Thus X is progressive. \square

(Upcrossings, discrete version) The number $U_N[a, b](\omega)$ of upcrossings $[a, b]$ made by $n \rightarrow X_n(\omega)$ by time N is defined to be the largest k in Z^+ such that we can find $0 \leq s_1 < t_1 < s_2 < t_2 < \dots < s_k < t_k \leq N$ with $X_{s_i}(\omega) < a, X_{t_i}(\omega) > b$. $C_n = I_{\{C_{n-1}=1\}} I_{\{X_{n-1} \leq a\}} + I_{\{C_{n-1}=0\}} I_{\{X_{n-1} < a\}}$. Therefore, C_n is bounded, nonnegative, and previsible. We then have the following inequality: $Y_n(\omega) = C_n \dot{X}_n \leq (b-a)U_N[a, b](\omega) - [X_N(\omega) - a]^+$.

Theorem. (Doob's upcrossings lemma, discrete version) Let X be a supermartingale. Let $U_N[a, b]$ be the number of upcrossings of $[a, b]$ by time N . Then, $(b-a)EU_N[a, b] \leq E[(X_N - a)^-]$.

Proof. The process C is previsible, bounded and nonnegative, and $Y = C\dot{X}$. Hence Y is a supermartingale, and $E(Y_N) \leq 0$. \square

Theorem. (Martingale convergence theorem, discrete version) Let X be a supermartingale bounded in L^1 . Then, a.s., $X_\infty = \lim X_n$ exists and is finite. For definiteness, we define $X^\infty(\omega) = \limsup X_n(\omega)$ s.t. X_∞ is F^∞ measurable and $X_\infty = \lim X_n$ a.s.

Proof. Let $A = \{\omega : X_n(\omega) \text{ does not converge to a limit in } [-\infty, \infty]\} = \{\omega : \liminf X_n(\omega) < \limsup X_n(\omega)\} = \cup \{\omega : \liminf X_n(\omega) < a < b < \limsup X_n(\omega)\} \subseteq \{\omega : U_\infty[a, b](\omega) = \infty\}$ since $(b-a)EU_N[a, b] \leq |a| + E|X_N| \leq |a| + \sup_n E|X_n|$ and MON can be applied. Thus, $P(A) = 0$. And since A is a countable union of $\{\omega : \liminf X_n(\omega) < a < b < \limsup X_n(\omega)\}$, $X_\infty = \lim X_n$ a.s.

But by Fatou's lemma, $E|X_\infty| = E(\liminf |X_n|) \leq \liminf E(|X_n|) \leq \sup E(|X_n|) < \infty$. \square

Theorem. If M is a martingale and $p \geq 1$, then for all $n \in N$, $E(\max_{k \leq n} |M_k|^p) \leq (\frac{p}{1-p})^p E|M_n|^p$ provided that M is in L^p .

Proof. Define $M^* = \max_{k \leq n} |M_k|$. We have for any $m \in \mathbb{N}$. $E(M^* \wedge m)^p = \int_{\omega} (M^*(\omega) \wedge m)^p dP(\omega) = \int_{\omega} \int_0^{M^* \wedge m} p x^{p-1} dx dP(\omega) = \int_{\omega} \int_0^m p x^{p-1} 1_{\{M^*(\omega) \geq x\}} dx dP(\omega) = \int_0^m p x^{p-1} P\{M^* \geq x\} dx$. By maximal inequality, $P\{M^* \geq x\} \leq \frac{E(|M_n| 1_{\{M^* \geq x\}})}{x}$. Then $E(M^* \wedge m)^p \leq \int_0^m p x^{p-2} \frac{E(|M_n| 1_{\{M^* \geq x\}})}{x} dx = \int_0^m p x^{p-2} \int_{\omega: M^* \geq x} |M_n(\omega)| dP(\omega) dx = p \int_{\omega} |M_n(\omega)| \int_0^{M^*(\omega) \wedge m} x^{p-2} dx dP(\omega) = \frac{p}{p-1} E(|M_n| (M^* \wedge m)^{p-1})$. By Hölder's inequality, $E|M^* \wedge m|^p \leq \frac{p}{p-1} (E|M_n|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (E|M^* \wedge m|^p)^{\frac{p-1}{p}}$. Then $E|M^* \wedge m|^p \leq (\frac{p}{p-1})^p E|M_n|^p$. At the end, drive m to infinity. \square

Theorem. Let X_t be a supermartingale, and let D be a countable dense subset of R_+ .

- (1) For almost every $\omega \in \Omega$, the restriction of the functions $s \rightarrow X_s(\omega)$ to the set D has a right-limit at every $t \in [0, \infty)$ and a left-limit at every $t \in (0, \infty)$.
- (2) For every $t \in R_+$, $X_{t+} \in L^1$ and $X_t \geq E[X_{t+} | F_t]$, with equality if the function $t \rightarrow E[X_t]$ is right-continuous. The process X_{t+} is a supermartingale with respect to the filtration F_{t+} . It is a martingale if X is a martingale.

Proof. (1) Fix $T \in D$. By the maximal inequality, $\sup_{s \in S \cap [0, T]} |X_s| < \infty$ a.s. We then choose a sequence $(D_m)_{m \geq 1}$ of finite subsets of D that increase to $D \cap [0, T]$ and are such that $0, T \in D_m$. Upcrossing inequality then can be applied. $E[M_{ab}^X(D_m)] \leq \frac{1}{b-a} E[(X_T - a)^-]$. Then we drive $m \rightarrow \infty$. We thus have $M_{ab}^f([0, T] \cap D) < \infty$ a.s. Set $N = \cup_{T \in D} (\sup_{t \in D \cap [0, T]} |X_t| = \infty) \cup \{\cup_{a, b \in Q, b < a} \{M_{ab}^X(D \cap [0, T]) = \infty\}\}$. Then, the right and left limit exist.

(2) It follows from (1). We set

$$X_{t+}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \lim_{s \downarrow t, s \in D} X_s(\omega) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

With this definition, X_{t+} is F_{t+} -measurable.

Fix $t \geq 0$ and choose a sequence in D such that t_n decreases to t as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then by construction, we have a.s. $X_{t+} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_{t_n}$. Set $Y_k = X_{t-k}$ for every $k \leq 0$. Then Y is a backward supermartingale with respect to the backward discrete filtration. Since $\sup_{k \leq 0} E|Y_k| < \infty$, the backward convergence theorem can be applied and then $X_{t_n} \xrightarrow{L^1} X_{t+}$. Thanks to L^1 convergence, $X_t \geq E[X_{t_n} | F_t] \Rightarrow X_t \geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[X_{t_n} | F_t] = E[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_{t_n} | F_t] = E[X_{t+} | F_t]$. Thanks again to L^1 convergence, we have $E[X_{t+}] = \lim E[X_{t_n}]$. Thus, if the function $s \rightarrow E[X_s]$ is right-continuous, we must have $E[X_t] = E[X_{t+}] = E[E[X_{t+} | F_t]]$, and the inequality $X_t \geq E[X_{t+} | F_t]$ then forces $X_t = E[X_{t+} | F_t]$. \square

Theorem. Assume that the filtration F_t is right-continuous and complete. Let X_t be a supermartingale, such that the function $t \rightarrow E[X_t]$ is right-continuous. Then X has a modification with cadlag sample paths, which is also an F_t -supermartingale.

Proof. We can construct

$$Y_t(\omega) = \begin{cases} X_{t+}(\omega), & \omega \text{ not in } N \\ 0, & \omega \in N \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Then the sample paths of Y_t are cadlag.

The random variable X_{t+} is F_{t+} -measurable, and thus F_t -measurable since the filtration is right-continuous. As the negligible set N belongs to F_∞ , the completeness of the filtration ensures Y_t is F_t -measurable. By the previous theorem, $X_t = E[X_{t+}|F_t] = E[X_{t+}|F_{t+}] = X_{t+} = Y(t)$ a.s. Consequently, Y_t is a modification of X_t . \square

Definition. A class C of random variables is called uniformly integrable if given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists K \in [0, \infty)$ s.t. $\forall X \in C, E(|X|1_{|X|>K}) < \epsilon$.

Theorem. (An absolute continuity property of Lebesgue integral) Assume f is Lebesgue integrable on E . $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta$ s.t. if the Lebesgue measure of A is less than δ , the integral of $|f|$ over A is less than ϵ .

Proof. Note that by DCT, we have that $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\{|f|>\lambda\}} |f| d\mu = 0$. Let $\epsilon > 0$, there exists λ s.t. $\int_{\{|f|>\lambda\}} |f| d\mu < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Choose $\delta \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2\lambda}$ and take any measurable A s.t. $\mu(A) < \delta$. Then $\int_A |f| d\mu = \int_{A \cap \{|f|>\lambda\}} |f| d\mu + \int_{A \cap \{|f|\leq\lambda\}} |f| d\mu \leq \int_{\{|f|>\lambda\}} |f| d\mu + \int_{A \cap \{|f|\leq\lambda\}} |f| d\mu \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \delta\lambda \leq \epsilon$. \square

Theorem. (Bounded convergence theorem) Let X_n be a sequence of random variables, and let X be a random variable. Suppose that $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ and for some K is nonnegative and finite, we have for every n and ω , $|X_n(\omega)| \leq K$. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{L^1} X$.

Proof. $P(|X| > K + k^{-1}) \leq P(|X - X_n| > k^{-1})$. $P(|X| > K) = P(\cup_k \{|X| > K + k^{-1}\}) = 0$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Choose n_0 s.t. $P(|X_n - X| > \frac{\epsilon}{3}) < \frac{\epsilon}{3K}$ when $N \geq n_0$. $E(|X_n - X|) = E(|X_n - X|1_{|X_n - X| > \frac{\epsilon}{3}}) + E(|X_n - X|1_{|X_n - X| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}}) \leq 2KP(|X_n - X| > \frac{\epsilon}{3}) + \frac{\epsilon}{3} \leq \epsilon$. \square

Theorem. Let X_n be a sequence in L^1 , and let $X \in L^1$. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{L^1} X$ if and only if $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ and X_n is uniformly integrable.

Proof. (Proof of if part) For $K \in [0, \infty)$, define a function $\varphi_K(x)$:

$$\varphi_K(x) = \begin{cases} K, & \text{if } x > K \\ x, & \text{if } |x| \leq K \\ -K, & \text{if } x < -K \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$ as given. By the UI property of X_n , we can choose K s.t. $\forall n, E\{|\varphi_K(X_n) - X_n|\} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ and $E\{\varphi_K(X) - X\} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. Since $P(|\varphi_K(X_n) - \varphi_K(X)| > \epsilon) \leq P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\varphi_K(X_n) \xrightarrow{p} \varphi_K(X)$. By the bounded convergence theorem, we have n_0 s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0, E\{|\varphi_K(X_n) - \varphi_K(X)|\} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. Since

$$E(|X_n - X|) \leq E\{|\varphi_K(X_n) - X_n|\} + E\{|\varphi_K(X_n) - \varphi_K(X)|\} + E\{|\varphi_K(X) - X|\} < \epsilon$$

(Proof of only if part) Suppose $X_n \xrightarrow{L^1} X$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Choose N such that $n \geq N \Rightarrow E(|X_n - X|) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. By the absolute continuity of Lebesgue integral, we can choose $\delta > 0$ s.t. $P(F) < \delta$, we have $E(|X_n|1_F) < \epsilon$ ($1 \leq n \leq N$) and $E(|X|1_F) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Since X_n is bounded in L^1 , we can choose K such that $K^{-1} \sup_r E(|X_t|) < \delta$. Then for $n \geq N$, we have $P(|X_n| > K) < \delta$ and $E(|X_n|1_{\{|X_n| > K\}}) \leq E(|X|1_{\{|X_n| > K\}}) + E(|X - X_n|) < \epsilon$. For $n \leq N$, we have $P(|x_n| > K) < \delta$ and $E(|X_n|1_{\{|X_n| > K\}}) < \epsilon$. x_n is a UI family. The convergence in probability is directly implied by convergence in L^1 . \square

Definition. A martingale X_t is said to be closed if there exists $Z \in L^1$ s.t. for every $t \geq 0$, $X_t = E[Z|F_t]$.

Theorem. Let X be a martingale with right-continuous sample paths. Then the following properties are equivalent.

- (1) X is closed.
- (2) the collection X_t is uniformly integrable.
- (3) X_t converges a.s. and in L^1 .

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) Suppose $Z \in L^1$ closes X_t . Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Choose $\delta > 0$ s.t. $F \in F$, $P(F) < \delta$, then $E(|Z|1_F) < \epsilon$. Choose K s.t. $K^{-1}E(|Z|) < \delta$. Since $X_t = E(Z|F_t)$. By Jensen's inequality, $E|X_t| \leq E|Z|$ and $KP(|X_t| > K) \leq E|x_t| \leq E|Z|$. Therefore, $P(|X_t| > K) < \delta$. Since $|X_t| > K$ is F_t -measurable and thus F measurable, $E(|X_t|1_{\{|X_t| > K\}}) \leq E(|Z|1_{\{|X_t| > K\}}) < \epsilon$.

(2) \Rightarrow (3) It is easily seen by applying the martingale convergence theorem.

(3) \Rightarrow (1) By simply take $Z = X_\infty$. \square

Theorem. (Optional stopping theorem, discrete version) Let X be a supermartingale. Let T be a stopping time. Then X_T is integrable and $E(X_T) \leq E(X_0)$ in each of the following situations:

- (1) T is bounded.
- (2) X is bounded and T is a.s. finite.
- (3) $E(T) < \infty$ and for some K , $|X_n(\omega) - X_{n-1}(\omega)| \leq K$.

Proof. We know that $E(X_{T \wedge n} - X_0) \leq 0$. For (1), we can take $n = N$.

For (2), we can let $n \rightarrow \infty$ by using bounded convergence theorem.

For (3), $|X_{T \wedge n} - X_0| = |\sum_{k=1}^{T \wedge n} (X_k - X_{k-1})| \leq \sum_{k=1}^{T \wedge n} K \leq K(T \wedge n)$, then by applying the DCT we have proved the theorem. \square

Theorem. If X_n is a uniformly integrable submartingale then for any stopping time N , $X_{N \wedge n}$ is uniformly integrable.

Proof. X_n^+ is a submartingale, so $EX_{N \wedge n}^+ \leq EX_N^+$. Since X_n^+ is uniformly integrable, it follows that $\sup_n EX_{N \wedge n}^+ \leq \sup_n EX_n^+ < \infty$. By the martingale convergence theorem, $X_{N \wedge n} \rightarrow X_N$ a.s. and $E|X_N| < \infty$. $E(|X_{N \wedge n}|1_{\{|X_{N \wedge n}| > K\}}) = E(|X_N|1_{\{|X_N| > K, N \leq n\}}) + E(|X_N|1_{\{|X_N| > K, N > n\}}) \leq E(|X_N|1_{\{|X_N| > K\}}) + E(|X_N|1_{\{|X_N| > K\}})$. \square

Theorem. If X_n is a uniformly integrable submartingale then for any stopping time $N \leq \infty$, we have $EX_0 \leq EX_N \leq EX_\infty$.

Proof. Letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ implies to $X_{N \wedge n} \xrightarrow{L^1} X_N$ and $X_n \xrightarrow{L^1} X_\infty$. \square

Theorem. (Levy's upward theorem) Let M_n be closed by ϵ . Then M is a UI martingale and $M_n \rightarrow E(\epsilon|F_\infty)$ a.s. and in L^1 .

Proof. It suffices to show that $M_\infty = E(\epsilon|F_\infty)$. Now consider the measures Q_1 and Q_2 on (Ω, F_∞) , where $Q_1(F) = E(E(\epsilon|F_\infty)1_F)$ and $Q_2(F) = E(M_\infty 1_F)$, $F \in F_\infty$. If F is in F_n , then $E(E(\epsilon|F_\infty)1_F) = E(E(E(\epsilon|F_\infty)1_F)|F_n) = E(M_n 1_F) = E(M_\infty 1_F)$. Since F_n is a π -system generating F_∞ , therefore Q_1 and Q_2 agree on F_∞ . \square

Theorem. (Optional stopping theorem for uniformly integrable martingale) If $L \leq M$ are stopping times and $Y_{M \wedge n}$ is a uniformly integrable submartingale then $EY_L \leq EY_M$ and $Y_L \leq E(Y_M|F_L)$.

Proof. Let $A \in F_L$ and define

$$N = \begin{cases} L, & \text{on } A \\ M, & \text{on } A^c \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

is a stopping time because $\{N = n\} = (\{L = n\} \cap A) \cup \bigcup_{m=1}^n (\{L = m\} \cap \{M = n\} \cap A^c)$. Since $M=N$ on A^c and $EY_N = E[Y_N 1_A] + E[Y_N 1_{A^c}]$, it follows that $E[Y_L 1_A] = E[Y_N 1_A] \leq E[Y_M 1_A] = E[E(Y_M|F_L) 1_A]$. In particular, if $\epsilon > 0$ and we let $A = \{Y_L - E[Y_M|F_L] > \epsilon\} \in F_L$, then $\epsilon P(A) \leq E[Y_L - E[Y_M|F_L]] \leq 0$ and so $P(A) = 0$. We have $Y_L \leq E(Y_M|F_L)$ a.s. \square

19.3 Local martingales

Definition. An adapted process $M(t)$ is called a local martingale if there exists a sequence of stopping time T_n s.t. $T_n \uparrow \infty$ and for each n the stopped process $M(t \wedge T_n)$ is a uniformly integrable martingale in t .

Theorem. Let $M(t)$ be a local martingale such that $|M(t)| \leq Y$, with $EY < \infty$. Then M is a uniformly integrable martingale.

Proof. Let T_n be a localizing sequence. Then for any n and $s < t$.

$$E(M_{t \wedge T_n}|F_s) = M_{s \wedge T_n}. \quad (8)$$

M is clearly integrable. By dominated convergence of conditional expectations $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(M_{t \wedge T_n}|F_s) = E(M_t|F_s)$. Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{s \wedge T_n} = M_s$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(M_{t \wedge T_n}|F_s) = E(M_t|F_s) = M(s)$. And the UI property is clear. \square

Theorem. A non-negative local martingale M_t is a supermartingale, that is $EM_t < \infty$, and for $s < t$, $E(M_t|F_s) \leq M_s$.

Proof. Since $M_{t \wedge T_n} \geq 0$, by Fatou's lemma $E(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf M_{t \wedge T_n}) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E(M_{t \wedge T_n})$. Since the limit exists, $E(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf M_{t \wedge T_n}) = E(M_t) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E(M_{t \wedge T_n}) = EM_0$, so that M is integrable. Then applying Fatou's lemma again for conditional expectations, $E(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf M_{t \wedge T_n} | F_s) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E(M_{t \wedge T_n} | F_s) = M_{s \wedge T_n}$. Then drive $n \rightarrow \infty$. We obtain $E(M_t | F_s) \leq M_s$. \square

Definition. A process X is of Dirichet class D , if the family X_T is uniformly integrable.

Theorem. A local martingale is a uniformly integrable martingale if and only if it is of class D .

Proof. Suppose that M is a local martingale of class D . Let T_n be a localizing sequence. Since $T_n \rightarrow \infty$, $M_{s \wedge T_n} \rightarrow M_s$ a.s. By class D property, $M_{s \wedge T_n} \rightarrow M_s$ also in L^1 . Using the properties of conditional expectation, $E|E(M_{t \wedge T_n} | F_s) - E(M_t | F_s)| = E|E(M_{t \wedge T_n} - M_t | F_s)| \leq E(E|M_{t \wedge T_n} - M_t| | F_s) = E|M_{t \wedge T_n} - M_t|$. The latter converges to zero. This implies $E(M_{t \wedge T_n} | F_s) \rightarrow E(M_t | F_s)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{s \wedge T_n} = M(s) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(M_{t \wedge T_n} | F_s) = E(M_t | F_s)$. \square

Proposition 17. For every $t \in (0, T]$, $\int_0^t |da(s)| = \sup\{\sum_{i=1}^p |a(t_i) - a(t_{i-1})|\}$. Clearly, it is enough to treat the case $t = T$. $|a(t_i) - a(t_{i-1})| = |\mu((t_{i-1}, t_i])| \leq |\mu|((t_{i-1}, t_i])$. In order to show the reverse inequality, we will use a martingale argument, leaving aside the trivial case and introduce the probability space $\Omega = [0, T]$, which is equipped with the Borel σ -field $B[0, T]$ and the probability measure $P(ds) = (|\mu|([0, T]))^{-1} |\mu|(ds)$. On this probability space, we consider discrete filtration B_n s.t. for every integer ≥ 0 , B_n is the σ -field generated by the intervals $(t_{i-1}^n, t_i^n]$, $1 \leq i \leq p_n$. We then set $X(s) = 1_{D^+}(s) - 1_{D^-}(s) = \frac{d\mu}{d|\mu|}$ and for every n , $X_n = E[X | B_n]$ and is a constant. Since X_n is closed martingale and thus converges to X in L^1 . In addition, since $|X(s)| = 1$, $|\mu|(ds)$ a.e., $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E|X_n| = E|X| = 1$. Note that $E|X_n| = (|\mu|([0, T]))^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{p_n} |a(t_i^n) - a(t_{i-1}^n)|$. Drive $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proposition 18. Let A be a finite variation process, and let H be a progressive process such that $\forall t \geq 0, \forall \omega \in \Omega, \int_0^t |H_s(\omega)| |dA_s(\omega)| < \infty$. Then the process $H \cdot A$ defined by $(H \cdot A)_t = \int_0^t H_s dA_s$ is also a finite variation process.

Theorem. Let M be a continuous local martingale. Assume that M is also a finite variation process, in particular $M_0 = 0$. Then $M_t = 0$ a.s.

Proof. Set $T_n = \inf\{t \geq 0 : \int_0^t |dM_s| \geq n\}$ for every integer $n \geq 0$. Fix $n \geq 0$ and set $N = M^{T_n}$. $|N_t| = |M_{t \wedge T_n}| \leq \int_0^{t \wedge T_n} |dM_s| \leq n$. N is a bounded martingale. Then, we have $E[N_t^2] = \sum_{i=1}^p E[(N_{t_i} - N_{t_{i-1}})^2] \leq E[(\sup_{1 \leq p \leq p} |N_{t_i} - N_{t_{i-1}}|) \sum_{i=1}^p |N_{t_i} - N_{t_{i-1}}|] \leq n E[\sup_{1 \leq p \leq p} |N_{t_i} - N_{t_{i-1}}|]$. Since N is bounded and with continuous sample paths, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E[\sup_{1 \leq p \leq p} |N_{t_i^k} - N_{t_{i-1}^k}|] = 0$. Then, $E[N_t^2] = 0$, and hence $M_{t \wedge T_n} = 0$ a.s. Letting n tend to ∞ , we get $M_t = 0$ a.s. \square

Theorem. (The quadratic variation of a continuous local martingale) Let M_t be a continuous local martingale. There exists an increasing process denoted by $\langle M, M \rangle_t$, which is unique up to indistinguishability, such that $M_t^2 - \langle M, M \rangle_t$ is a continuous local martingale. Furthermore, for every fixed $t \geq 0$, if $0 = t_0^n < t_1^n < \dots < t_{p_n}^n = t$ is an increasing sequence of subdivisions of $[0, t]$ with mesh tending to 0, we have $\langle M, M \rangle_t = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{p_n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n})^2$ in probability.

Proof. The proof is divided into two parts.

(Proof of uniqueness) If A and A' be two increasing processes satisfying the condition in the statement. Then $A_t - A'_t = (M_t^2 - A'_t) - (M_t^2 - A_t)$ is both the continuous local martingale and a finite variation process. $A - A' = 0$ a.s.

(Proof of existence) We consider first the case $M_0 = 0$ and M is bounded. Hence M is a true martingale. Fix $K > 0$ and an increasing sequence $0 = t_0^n < t_1^n < \dots < t_{p_n}^n = K$ with mesh tending to 0.

We observe that, for every $0 \leq r < s$ and for every bounded F_r -measurable variable Z , the process $N_t = Z(M_{s \wedge t} - M_{r \wedge t})$ is a martingale since for $k < r$, $E(N_t | F_k) = 0 = N_k$ and for $r \leq k < s$, $E(N_t | F_k) = ZE(M_{s \wedge t} - M_{r \wedge t} | F_k) = ZE(M_{s \wedge t} | F_k) - ZEM_r = ZEM_{s \wedge k} - ZEM_r = N_k$, and for $k \geq s$, $E(N_t | F_k) = Z(M_s - M_r) = N_k$. It follows that for every n , $X_t^n = \sum_{i=1}^{p_n} M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n \wedge t} - M_{t_{i-1}^n \wedge t})$ is a martingale. Then, $M_{t_j^n}^2 - 2X_{t_j^n}^n = M_{t_j^n}^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^j M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n}) = \sum_{i=1}^j (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n})^2$.

We then claim that $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow \infty} E[(X_K^m - X_K^n)^2] = 0$.

Let us fix $n \leq m$ and evaluate the product

$$\begin{aligned} E(X_K^m X_K^n) &= E\left(\sum_{i=1}^{p_n} [M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n})] \sum_{j=1}^{p_m} [M_{t_{j-1}^m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})]\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{p_n} \sum_{j=1}^{p_m} E[M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n}) M_{t_{j-1}^m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})]. \end{aligned}$$

In this double sum, the only terms that may be nonzero are those corresponding to indices i and j such that the interval $(t_{j-1}^m, t_j^m]$ is contained in $(t_{i-1}^n, t_i^n]$ since suppose that $t_i^n \leq t_{j-1}^m$ (the case $t_j^m \leq t_{i-1}^n$ can be treated analogously), then conditionally on $F_{t_{j-1}^m}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &E[M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n}) M_{t_{j-1}^m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})] \\ &= E(E[M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n}) M_{t_{j-1}^m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m}) | F_{t_{j-1}^m}^m]) \\ &= E[E[M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n}) M_{t_{j-1}^m} E(M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m} | F_{t_{j-1}^m}^m)] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

For every $j = 1, \dots, p_m$ write $i_{n,m}(j)$ for the unique index i such that $(t_{j-1}^m, t_j^m] \subset (t_{i-1}^n, t_i^n]$. It follows from the previous considerations that

$$E(X_K^m X_K^n) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m, i=i_{n,m}(j)} E[M_{t_{i-1}^n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n}) M_{t_{j-1}^m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})]$$

In each term $E[M_{t_{i-1}}^n (M_{t_i}^n - M_{t_{i-1}}^n) M_{t_{j-1}}^m (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)]$, we can decompose

$$M_{t_i}^n - M_{t_{i-1}}^n = \sum_{k: i_{n,m}(k)=i} (M_{t_k}^m - M_{t_{k-1}}^m)$$

We observe that if $i_{n,m}(k) = i, k \neq j$, $E[M_{t_{i-1}}^n (M_{t_k}^m - M_{t_{k-1}}^m) M_{t_{j-1}}^m (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)] = 0$ (condition on $F_{t_{k-1}}^m$ if $k > j$ and on $F_{t_{j-1}}^m$ if $k < j$). The case that remains is $k = j$, we have thus obtained

$$E(X_K^m X_K^n) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m, i=i_{n,m}(j)} E[M_{t_{i-1}}^n M_{t_{j-1}}^m (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2]$$

As a special case of this relation, we have

$$E[(X_K^m)^2] = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} E[M_{t_{j-1}}^m (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2].$$

Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} E[(X_K^n)^2] &= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq p_n} E[M_{t_{i-1}}^n (M_{t_i}^n - M_{t_{i-1}}^n)^2] \\ &= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq p_n} E[M_{t_{i-1}}^n E(M_{t_i}^n - M_{t_{i-1}}^n)^2 | F_{t_{i-1}}^n]) \\ &= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq p_n} E[M_{t_{i-1}}^n \sum_{j: i_{n,m}(j)=i} E[(M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2 | F_{t_{i-1}}^n]] \\ &= \sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m, i=i_{n,m}(j)} E[M_{t_{i-1}}^n (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2] \end{aligned}$$

Then we combine the last three equation:

$$E[(X_K^n - X_K^m)^2] = E[\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m, i=i_{n,m}(j)} (M_{t_{i-1}}^n - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2 (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2].$$

Using Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we then have

$$\begin{aligned} E[(X_K^n - X_K^m)^2] &\leq E[\sup_{1 \leq j \leq p_m, i=i_{n,m}(j)} (M_{t_{i-1}}^n - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^4]^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &\quad \times E[(\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

By the continuity of sample paths and dominated convergence, we have

$$\lim_{n, m \rightarrow \infty, n \leq m} E[\sup_{1 \leq j \leq p_m, i=i_{n,m}(j)} (M_{t_{i-1}}^n - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^4] = 0$$

To complete the proof that $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow \infty} E[(X_K^n - X_K^m)^2] = 0$, it remains to show that there exists a constant C such that, for every m, $E[(\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} (M_{t_j}^m - M_{t_{j-1}}^m)^2)^2] \leq C$

$$M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2)^2] \leq C.$$

Let A be a constant such that $|M_t| \leq A$ for every $t \geq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} & E[(\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2)^2] \\ &= E[\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^4] + 2E[\sum_{1 \leq j < k \leq p_m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2 (M_{t_k^m} - M_{t_{k-1}^m})^2] \\ &\leq 4A^2 E[\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2] + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{p_m-1} E[(M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2] E[\sum_{k=j+1}^{p_m} (M_{t_k^m} - M_{t_{k-1}^m})^2 | F_{t_j^m}] \\ &= 4A^2 E[\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2] + \sum_{j=1}^{p_m-1} E[(M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2] E[(M_K - M_{t_j^m})^2 | F_{t_j^m}] \\ &\leq 12A^2 E[\sum_{1 \leq j \leq p_m} (M_{t_j^m} - M_{t_{j-1}^m})^2] = 12A^2 E[(M_K - M_0)^2] \leq 48A^4 \end{aligned}$$

Then thanks to Dob's inequality in L^2 , we have

$$E[\sup_{t \leq k} (X_t^n - X_t^m)^2] \leq 4E[(X_K^n - X_K^m)^2] \Rightarrow \lim_{n,m \rightarrow \infty} E[\sup_{t \leq k} (X_t^n - X_t^m)^2] = 0$$

Therefore, for every $t \in [0, K]$, X_t^n is a Cauchy sequence in L^2 and thus converges in L^2 . We want to argue that the limit yields a process Y index by $[0, K]$ with continuous sample paths. To see this, we choose a strictly increasing sequence $(n_k)_{k \geq 1}$ of positive integers such that for every $k \geq 1$, $E[\sup_{t \leq K} (X_t^{n_{k+1}} - X_t^{n_k})^2] \leq 2^{-k}$. This implies that

$$E[\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sup_{t \leq K} |X_t^{n_{k+1}} - X_t^{n_k}|] < \infty$$

and thus

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sup_{t \leq K} |X_t^{n_{k+1}} - X_t^{n_k}| < \infty \quad , a.s.$$

Consequently, except on the negligible set N where the series in the last display diverges, the sequence of random functions $(X_t^{n_k}, 0 \leq t \leq K)$ converges uniformly on $[0, K]$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, and the limiting random function is continuous by uniform convergence.

Since the filtration is complete, we can thus set

$$Y_t(\omega) = \begin{cases} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} X_t^{n_k}(\omega), & \text{if } \omega \in \Omega \setminus N \\ 0, & \text{if } \omega \in N \end{cases}$$

Furthermore, since the L^2 -limit of X_t^n must coincide with the a.s. limit of a subsequence, Y_t is also the limit of X_t^n in L^2 . Then, we can pass to the limit in the martingale property for X_n , to obtain $E[Y_t | F_s] = Y_s$ for every

$0 \leq s \leq t \leq K$. It follows that $(Y_{t \wedge K})_{t \geq 0}$ is a martingale with continuous sample paths.

On the other hand, the sample paths of $M_t^2 - 2X_t^n = \sum_{i=1}^{p_n} (M_{t_i^n} - M_{t_{i-1}^n})^2$ are nondecreasing, by passing to the limit $n \rightarrow \infty$ along the sequence n_k , we get the sample paths of $M_t^2 - 2Y_t$ are nondecreasing on $[0, K]$, except maybe on the negligible set N . For every $t \in [0, K]$, we set $A_t^{(K)} = M_t^2 - 2Y_t$ on $\omega \setminus N$, and $A_t^{(K)} = 0$ on N . Then $A_0^{(K)} = 0$, $A_t^{(K)}$ is F_t -measurable for every $t \in [0, K]$. By the uniqueness argument, for the case $M_0 = 0$ and M_t is bounded, the existence equality holds in L^2 .

Let us consider the general case. Writing $M_t = M_0 + N_t$, s.t. $M_t^2 = M_0^2 + 2M_0N_t + N_t^2$, and noting that M_0N_t is a continuous local martingale, we see that we may assume that $M_0 = 0$. We then set $T_n = \{t \geq 0 : |M_t| \geq N\}$ and we can apply the bounded case to the stopped martingales M^{T_n} . Set $A^{[n]} = \langle M^{T_n}, M^{T_n} \rangle$. The uniqueness shows that the processes $A_{t \wedge T_n}^{[n+1]}$ and $A_t^{[n]}$ are indistinguishable. It follows that there exists an increasing process A such that for every n , the processes $A_{t \wedge T_n}$ and $A_t^{[n]}$ are indistinguishable. By construction and the previous theorem, $M_{t \wedge T_n}^2 - A_{t \wedge T_n}$ is a martingale for every n , which precisely implies that $M_t^2 - A_t$ is a continuous local martingale. We take $\langle M, M \rangle_t = A_t$. Finally, the previously bounded case holds if M and $\langle M, M \rangle_t$ are replaced by M^{T_n} and $\langle M, m \rangle_{t \wedge T_n}$. Then it is enough to observe that for every $t > 0$, $P(t \leq T_n)$ converges to 1 when $n \rightarrow \infty$. \square

Theorem. Let M be a continuous local martingale such that $M_0 = 0$. Then we have $\langle M, M \rangle = 0$ if and only if $M = 0$.

Proof. Suppose that $\langle M, M \rangle_t = 0$. Then M_t^2 is a nonnegative continuous local martingale. And by the previous theorem, it is also a supermartingale. Hence, $E(M_t^2) \leq E(M_0^2)$. Then, $M_t = 0$ a.s. The converse is obvious. \square

Proposition 19. Let M be a continuous local martingale with $M_0 \in L^2$.

(1) The following are equivalent:

M is a martingale bounded in L^2

$E[\langle M, M \rangle_\infty] < \infty$ (2) The following are equivalent:

M is a martingale and $M_t \in L^2$ for every $t \geq 0$

$E[\langle M, M \rangle_t] < \infty$ for every $t \geq 0$

Proof. We may assume $M_0 = 0$ in the proof.

(1) Let us first assume that M is a martingale bounded in L^2 . By Doob's inequality, for every $T > 0$,

$$E[\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} M_t^2] \leq 4E[M_T^2].$$

By letting T goes to infinity, we have

$$E[\sup_{t \geq 0} M_t^2] \leq 4\sup_{t \geq 0} E[M_t^2] = C < \infty.$$

Set $S_n = \inf\{t \geq 0 : \langle M, M \rangle_t \geq n\}$. Then the continuous local martingale $M_{t \wedge S_n}^2 - \langle M, M \rangle_{t \wedge S_n}$ is dominated by the variable $\sup_{s \geq 0} M_s^2 + n$, which is

integrable. Then $M_{t \wedge S_n}^2 - \langle M, M \rangle_{t \wedge S_n}$ is a uniformly integrable martingale. $E(M_{t \wedge S_n}^2) = E(\langle M, M \rangle_{t \wedge S_n}) \leq C < \infty$. By letting n and then t tend to infinity, and using monotone convergence theorem, we get $E[\langle M, M \rangle_\infty] \leq C < \infty$.

Conversely, assume that $E[\langle M, M \rangle_\infty] < \infty$. Set $T_n = \inf\{t \geq 0 : |M_t| \geq n\}$. Then the continuous local martingale $M_{t \wedge T_n}^2$ is dominated by $n^2 + \langle M, M \rangle_\infty$, which is integrable. Hence, this continuous local martingale is a uniformly integrable martingale. Using Fatou's lemma,

$$\begin{aligned} E[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf M_{t \wedge T_n}^2] &\leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E[M_{t \wedge T_n}^2] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E[\langle M, M \rangle_{t \wedge T_n}] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E[\langle M, M \rangle_\infty] < \infty E[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf M_{t \wedge T_n}^2] \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E[M_{t \wedge T_n}^2] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E[\langle M, M \rangle_{t \wedge T_n}] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf E[\langle M, M \rangle_\infty] < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

So M_t is bounded in L^2 . In addition, since the bound on $E[M_{t \wedge T_n}^2]$ shows that the sequence is uniformly integrable, and therefore converges both a.s. and in L^1 to M_t , for every $t \geq 0$. Recalling that M^{T_n} is a martingale, $E[M_{t \wedge T_n} | F_s] = M_{s \wedge T_n}$, for $0 \leq s < t$. By the L^1 convergence, $E[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{t \wedge T_n} | F_s] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{s \wedge T_n} = M_s$. Thus, M is a martingale. The uniformly integrable property is clear. \square

Definition. If M and N are two continuous local martingales, the brackets is the finite variation process defined by setting, for every $t \geq 0$, $\langle M, N \rangle_t = \frac{1}{2}(\langle M + N, M + N \rangle_t - \langle M, M \rangle_t - \langle N, N \rangle_t)$.

Theorem. Let M and N be continuous local martingales and let H and K be two measurable processes. Then, a.s., $\int_0^\infty |H_s| |K_s| d\langle M, N \rangle_s \leq (\int_0^\infty H_s^2 d\langle M, M \rangle_s)^{\frac{1}{2}} (\int_0^\infty K_s^2 d\langle N, N \rangle_s)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

19.4 Stochastic integrals for martingales bounded in L^2

We denote H^2 for the space of all continuous martingales M which are bounded in L^2 and such that $M_0 = 0$. In addition, if $M, N \in H^2$, the random variable $\langle M, N \rangle_\infty$ is well-defined and we have $E|\langle M, N \rangle_\infty| < \infty$. This allows us to define a symmetric bilinear form on H^2 via the formula $(M, N)_{H^2} = E\langle M, N \rangle_\infty = E[M_\infty N_\infty]$. Clearly, $(M, M)_{H^2} = 0$ if and only if $M_t = 0$. Then, the scalar product $(M, N)_{H^2}$ thus yields a norm on H^2 given by

$$\|M\|_{H^2} = (M, M)_{H^2}^{\frac{1}{2}} = E[\langle M, M \rangle_\infty]^{\frac{1}{2}} = E[(m_\infty)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Proposition 20. The space H^2 equipped with the scalar product $(M, N)_{H^2}$ is a Hilbert space.

Proof. We need to verify the completeness of the space. Let M^n be a sequence in H^2 which is Cauchy for that norm. We have then

$$\lim_{m,n \rightarrow \infty} E[(M_\infty^n - M_\infty^m)^2] = \lim_{m,n \rightarrow \infty} (M^n - M^m, M^n - M^m)_{H^2} = 0$$

Consequently, the sequence M_∞^n converges in L^2 to a limit, which we denote by Z .

By Doob's inequality, $E[\sup_{t \geq 0} (M_t^n - M_t^m)^2] \leq 4E[(M_\infty^n - M_\infty^m)^2]$. We thus obtained that $\lim_{m,n \rightarrow \infty} E[\sup_{t \geq 0} (M_t^n - M_t^m)^2] = 0$. Hence for every $t \geq 0$, M_t^n converges in L^2 .

Then, we want to argue that the limit yields a process with continuous sample paths. We first choose an increasing $n_k \uparrow \infty$ s.t.

$$E\left[\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sup_{t \geq 0} |M_t^{n_k} - M_t^{n_{k+1}}|\right] \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} E[\sup_{t \geq 0} (M_t^{n_k} - M_t^{n_{k+1}})^2]^{\frac{1}{2}} < \infty.$$

The last display implies that, a.s. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sup_{k \geq 1} |M_t^{n_k} - M_t^{n_{k+1}}| < \infty$, and thus the sequence converges uniformly on R^+ a.s. to a limit denoted by $(M_t)_{t \geq 0}$. On the negligible set where the uniform convergence does not hold, we take $M_t = 0$ for every $t \geq 0$. Clearly the limiting process has continuous sample paths and is adapted. Furthermore, by L^2 convergence, we can yield that M_t is a continuous martingale and is bounded in L^2 , so that $M \in H^2$. The a.s. convergence of $(M_t^{n_k})_{t \geq 0}$ to $(M_t)_{t \geq 0}$ then ensures $M_\infty = \lim M_\infty^{n_k} = Z$ a.s. Finally, the L^2 convergence of (M_∞^n) to Z shows that the sequence converges to M in H^2 . \square

We denote the progressive σ -field on $\Omega \times R^+$ by \mathcal{P} and if $M \in H^2$, we let $L^2(M)$ be the set of all progressive processes such that

$$E\left[\int_0^\infty H_s^2 ds < M, M >_s\right] < \infty.$$

We can view $L^2(M)$ as an ordinary L^2 space, namely,

$$L^2(M) = L^2(\Omega \times R^+, \mathcal{P}, dP d < M, M >_s)$$

where $dP d < M, M >_s$ refers to the finite measure on $(\omega \times R^+, \mathcal{P})$ that assigns the mass to a set $A \in \mathcal{P}$

$$E\left[\int_0^\infty 1_A(\omega, s) d < M, M >_s\right]$$

Just like any L^2 space, $L^2(M)$ is a Hilbert space with the associated norm $\|H\|_{L^2} = (E[\int_0^\infty H_s^2 ds < M, M >_s])^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Definition. An elementary process is a progressive process of the form

$$H_s(\omega) = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} H_{(i)}(\omega) 1_{(t_i, t_{i+1}]}(s)$$

, where $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_p$ and for every $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$, $H_{(i)}$ is a bounded F_{t_i} measurable random variable.

The set ε of all elementary processes forms a linear subspace of $L^2(M)$. To be precise, we should here say equivalence classes of elementary processes. (Recall that H and H' are identified in $L^2(M)$ if $\|H - H'\|_{L^2(M)} = 0$)

Proposition 21. For every $M \in H^2$, ε is dense in $L^2(M)$.

Proof. It suffices to show that if $K \in L^2(M)$ is orthogonal to ε , then $K = 0$. Assume that $K \in L^2(M)$ is orthogonal to ε , and set for every $t \geq 0$,

$$X_t = \int_0^t K_u d < M, M >_u .$$

The integral on the right hand side makes sense and is finite since by the Cauchy Schwarz inequality,

$$E[\int_0^t |K_u| d < M, M >_u] \leq (E[\int_0^t (K_u)^2 d < M, M >_u])^{\frac{1}{2}} \times (E[< M, M >_\infty])^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Therefore, we yield that a.s. $\forall t \geq 0, \int_0^t |K_u| d < M, M >_u < \infty$. Then, X_t is a finite variation process and bounded in L^1 .

Next, we let the elementary process $H_r(\omega) = F(\omega)1_{(s,t]}(r)$. Writing $(H \cdot M)_{L^M} = 0$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (H \cdot M)_{L^2(M)} \\ &= E[\int_0^\infty H_u K_u d < M, M >_u] \\ &= E[\int_s^t H_u K_u d < M, M >_u] \\ &= E[F \int_s^t K_u d < M, M >_u] \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $E[F(X_t - X_s)] = 0$ for every $s < t$ and every bounded F_s measurable variable F . Since the process X is adapted and we know that $X_r \in L^1$ for every $r \geq 0$, this implies that X is a martingale. On the other hand, X is a finite variation process. Thus $X = 0$ a.s. Then, $X_t = \int_0^t K_u d < M, M >_u = 0, \forall t \geq 0$ a.s. Thus, $K_u = 0, d < M, M >_u$ a.e. a.s. \square

Theorem. Let $M \in H^2$. For every $H \in \varepsilon$ of the form

$$H_s = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} H_{(i)}(\omega) 1_{(t_i, t_{i+1}]}(s)$$

the formula

$$(H \cdot M)_t = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} H_{(i)}(M_{t_{i+1} \wedge t} - M_{t_i \wedge t})$$

defines a process $H \cdot M \in H^2$. The mapping $H \longrightarrow H \cdot M$ extends to an isometry from $L^2(M)$ into H^2 . Furthermore, $(H \cdot M)$ is the unique martingale of H^2 that satisfies the property

$$\langle H \cdot M, N \rangle = h \cdot \langle M, N \rangle, \forall N \in H^2$$

If T is a stopping time, we have

$$(1_{[0,T]}H) \cdot M = (H \cdot M)^T = H \cdot M^T$$

We often use the notation

$$(H \cdot M)_t = \int_0^t H_s dM_s$$

Proof. It is easy to check that for every $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$, set $M_t^i = H_{(i)}(M_{t_{i+1} \wedge t} - M_{t_i \wedge t})$ for every $t \geq 0$, M^i is a continuous martingale. Since $H_{(i)}$ is bounded, it follows that $H \cdot M = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} H_{(i)}(M_{t_{i+1} \wedge t} - M_{t_i \wedge t})$ is a martingale in H^2 . In addition, M^i are orthogonal and their respective quadratic variations are given by

$$\langle M^i, M^i \rangle_t = H_{(i)}^2 (\langle M, M \rangle_{t_{i+1} \wedge t} - \langle M, M \rangle_{t_i \wedge t}).$$

We conclude that $\langle H \cdot M, H \cdot M \rangle_t = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \langle M^i, M^i \rangle_t = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} H_{(i)}^2 (\langle M, M \rangle_{t_{i+1} \wedge t} - \langle M, M \rangle_{t_i \wedge t}) = \int_0^t H_s^2 d\langle M, M \rangle_s$. Consequently,

$$\|H \cdot M\|_{H^2}^2 = E[\langle H \cdot M, H \cdot M \rangle_\infty] = E\left[\int_0^\infty H_s^2 d\langle M, M \rangle_s\right] = \|H\|_{L^2(M)}^2$$

Therefore, the mapping $H \longrightarrow H \cdot M$ makes sense from ε viewed as a subspace of $L^2(M)$ into H^2 . The latter mapping is linear, and since it preserves the norm, it is an isometry from ε into H^2 . Since ε is dense in $L^2(M)$ and H^2 is a Hilbert space, this mapping can be extended in a unique way to an isometry from $L^2(M)$ into H^2 .

Next, we fix $N \in H^2$. We first note that, if $H \in L^2(M)$, the Kunita-Watanabe inequality shows that

$$E\left[\int_0^\infty |H_s| d\langle M, N \rangle_s\right] \leq \|H\|_{L^2(M)} \|N\|_{H^2} < \infty$$

and thus the variable $\int_0^\infty H_s d\langle M, N \rangle_s = (H \cdot \langle M, N \rangle)_\infty$ is well defined and in L^1 .

Consider first the case where H is an elementary process of the form given in the statement of the theorem, and define the continuous martingale $M^i, 0 \leq i \leq p-1$, as previously. Then, we have

$$\langle H \cdot M, N \rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \langle M^i, N \rangle$$

It follows that

$$\langle H \cdot M, N \rangle_t = \sum_{i=0}^{p_n-1} H_{(i)} (\langle M, N \rangle_{t_{i+1} \wedge t} - \langle M, N \rangle_{t_i \wedge t}) = \int_0^t H_s d \langle M, N \rangle_s.$$

Hence, we prove that the property $\langle H \cdot M, N \rangle = h \cdot \langle M, N \rangle, \forall N \in H^2$ holds for $H \in \varepsilon$.

We then observe that the linear mapping $X \rightarrow \langle X, N \rangle_\infty$ is continuous from H^2 to L^1 since again by Kunita-Watanabe inequality,

$$E[|\langle X, N \rangle_\infty|] \leq E[\langle X, X \rangle_\infty^{\frac{1}{2}} E[\langle N, N \rangle_\infty]^{\frac{1}{2}}] = \|N\|_{H^2} \|X\|_{H^2}.$$

If H^n is a sequence in ε , such that $H_n \rightarrow H$ in $L^2(M)$, we have therefore

$$\langle H \cdot M, N \rangle_\infty = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle H^n \cdot M, N \rangle_\infty = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (H^n \cdot \langle M, N \rangle)_\infty = (H \cdot \langle M, N \rangle)_\infty$$

where the first equality holds for continuity, the second equality holds for the property we have proved for elementary processes, and the third equality holds in L^1 since again by Kunita-Watanabe inequality,

$$E\left[\int_0^\infty (H_s^n - H_s) d \langle M, N \rangle_s\right] \leq E[\langle N, N \rangle_\infty]^{\frac{1}{2}} \|H^n - H\|_{L^2(M)}.$$

Then, we can replace N by the stopped martingale N^t in this identity and yield $\langle H \cdot M, N \rangle_t = (H \cdot \langle M, N \rangle)_t$.

If $N \in H^2$,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle (H \cdot M)^T, N \rangle_t &= \langle H \cdot M, N \rangle_{t \wedge T} \\ &= (H \cdot \langle M, N \rangle)_{t \wedge T} \\ &= (1_{[0, T]} H \cdot \langle M, N \rangle)_t \\ &= \langle 1_{[0, T]} H \cdot M, N \rangle_t \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle H \cdot M^T, N \rangle = H \cdot \langle M^T, N \rangle = H \cdot \langle M, N \rangle^T = 1_{[0, T]} H \cdot \langle M, N \rangle,$$

we proved that $(1_{[0, T]} H) \cdot M = (H \cdot M)^T = H \cdot M^T$. \square