Course Notes

Real Functions and Measures

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Contents

Chapter 1

Basics of Abstract Measure Theory

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1.1 Review of Topology

1.1.1 Basic Definitions

Def'n. 1.1.1 *Let $X \neq \emptyset$ and $\tau \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$. We say that (X, τ) is a **topological space** if τ satisfies the following conditions:*

1. $\emptyset \in \tau$ $X \in \tau$
2. $V_1, V_2 \in \tau \Rightarrow V_1 \cap V_2 \in \tau$
3. $V_\alpha \in \tau$ *for all* $\alpha \in I \Rightarrow \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha \in \tau$

*We call the elements of τ **open sets**.*

Def'n. 1.1.2 *$U \subseteq X$ is a **neighbourhood** of $x \in X$ if there is some $G \in \tau$ such that $x \in G \subset U$.*

Def'n. 1.1.3 *$F \subseteq X$ is **closed** if F^c is open.*

Def'n. 1.1.4 *The **closure** of a set $E \subset X$ is the smallest closed set containing E (denoted $\overline{E}$).*

Def'n. 1.1.5 *x is an **accumulation point** of H if all neighbourhoods of x contains infinitely points of H. Equivalently, x is a limit point of $H \setminus \{x\}$.*

Def'n. 1.1.6 *If $H \subseteq X$, we have a natural subspace topology $\tau|_H = \{G \cap H : G \in \tau\}$.*

1.1.2 Examples of Topological Spaces

Topological spaces are a very general construction, so here are some of the standard examples:

1. $\mathbb{R}$ along with the open sets (denoted τ_e, the Euclidean topology).
2. The discrete topology, $\tau = \mathcal{P}(X)$ for any $X \neq \emptyset$. This is the "finest" topology.

3. The antidiscrete topology, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X\}$ for any $X \neq \emptyset$ This is the "coarsest" topology.
4. One can define the extended real line, $X = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, +\infty\}$. Then

$$G \in \tau \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \forall x \in G \cap \mathbb{R} & \exists r > 0 \text{ s.t. } (x-r, x+r) \subset G \\ -\infty \in G & \exists b \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } (-\infty, b) \subset G \\ +\infty \in G & \exists a \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } (a, \infty) \subset G \end{cases}$$

   The same can be done with a single symbol as well. In either case, the extended real line is a compact set.
5. Any metric spaces induces a topology. Consider a set $X \neq 0$ arbitrary, and let $d : X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ such that
   (a) $0 \leq d(x,y)$ for all $x, y \in X$ and $d(x,y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$.
   (b) $d(x,y) = d(y,x)$ for all $x, y \in X$
   (c) $d(x,y) \leq d(x,z) + d(z,y)$ for any $x, y, z \in X$

   Then $G \in \tau$ if and only if for any $x \in G$, there exists r so that $B_r(x) \subset G$. There are many examples of metric spaces:
   (a) $X = \mathbb{R}$, $d(x,y) = |x-y|$
   (b) $X = \mathbb{R}$, $d(x,y) = |\tan^{-1}(x) - \tan^{-1}(y)|$
   (c) $X = \mathbb{R}^2$, $d(x,y) = \sqrt{(x_1-y_1)^2 + (x_2-y_2)^2}$
   (d) $X = \mathbb{R}^2$, $d(x,y) = (|x_1-y_1|^p + |x_2-y_2|^p)^{1/p}$ for $p \geq 1$.
   (e) and similarly for $X = \mathbb{R}^n$
   (f) $X = C[0,1]$, $d(f,g) = \max_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x) - g(x)|$.
   (g) normed space: X is a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$, $\|\cdot\| : X \to \mathbb{R}$ such that
      i. $\|x\| = 0$ if and only if $X = 0$
      ii. $\|cx\| = |c| \|x\|$
      iii. $\left\|x+y\right\| \leq \|x\| + \left\|y\right\|$

      If $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm, then $d(x,y) = \left\|x-y\right\|$ is a metric.
6. The cofinite topology: $\tau = \{U \in \mathcal{P}(X) : U^c \text{ is finite}\}$.

1.1.3 Other Definitions

Def'n. 1.1.7 *$K \subset X$ is **compact** if every open cover of K contains a finite subcover.*

Def'n. 1.1.8 *A topological space is called **locally compact** if every point has a compact neighbourhood.*

Prop. 1.1.9 *$C[0,1]$ with the sup norm is not locally compact.*

Proof I'll do this later. □

Def'n. 1.1.10 *A topological space is called* ***Hausdorff*** *if for any $x \neq y$, there exists neighbourhoods $U \ni x$, $V \ni y$ so that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.*

The anti-discrete topology is not Hausdorff.

1. On the discrete topology, K is compact if and only if K is finite.
2. On the anti-discrete topology, everything is compact (the only possible open cover consists of X).
3. On $(\mathbb{R}, \tau_e)$, K is compact if and only if K is closed and bounded.
4. On (X, d) metric space, K is compact if and only if K is complete and totally bounded.

Prop. 1.1.11
1. *Let $K \subset X$ be compact, let $F \subset K$ closed. Then F is also compact.*
2. *Compact sets in a Hausdorff space are closed.*

Proof
1. Let $F \subset \bigcup V_\alpha$. Then $K \subset F^c \cup (\bigcup V_\alpha)$ is an open cover for K, so it has a finite subcover $F^c \cup V_{\alpha_1} \cup \cdots V_{\alpha_n}$. But then since $F \cap F^c = \emptyset$, $F \subset V_{\alpha_1} \cup \cdots V_{\alpha_n}$ is a finite subcover.
2. Let $K \subset X$ be compact, and prove that K^c is open. Thus let $x \in K^c$. For any $y \in K$, there exist U_y, V_y disjoint neighbourhoods of x and y respectively. Now consider the open cover $K \subset \bigcup_{y \in K} V_y$, and get our finite subcover $K \subset V_{y_1} \cup \cdots \cup V_{y_n}$. But then $U_{y_1} \cap \cdots \cap U_{y_n} \cap K = \emptyset$ and is open since it is a finite intersection. □

Def'n. 1.1.12 *$\Gamma \subseteq \tau$ is a* ***base*** *for τ if every $U \in \tau$ can be written as a countable union of the elements of Γ. Γ is a* ***countable base*** *if Γ is countable.*

Prop. 1.1.13 *$\mathbb{R}$ has a countable base of intervals.*

Proof Consider the collection $\{B_r(q) : (r, q) \in \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}\}$. To see this, for any open set U, one can write

$$S := \bigcup_{r \in U \cap \mathbb{Q}} \left(\bigcup_{\{r : B_r(q) \subseteq U\}} B_r(q) \right)$$

$U \supseteq S$ is obvious, so let $x \in U$ be arbitrary, and let s be maximal so that $B_s(x) \subseteq U$. Then choose $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ so that $|x - q| < s/3$ and $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ so that $0 < r < s/2$. Then by construction $B_r(q) \ni x$ and by the triangle inequality $B_{r/2}(q) \subseteq U$, so $x \in S$. Thus $U = S$ as desired. □

Note that the exact same argument (with some work) can be generalized to show that $\mathbb{R}^n$ has a countable base of open hyperrectangles.

Prop. 1.1.14 *Every metric space which is a countable union of compact sets has a countable base.*

Proof See my PMATH 351 notes. □

1.1.4 Functions and Continuity

Many of the standard notions of limits and continuity extend naturally to topological spaces.

Def'n. 1.1.15 *Let $(x_n) \subset X$ be a sequence and let $x \in X$. Then x is the* ***limit*** *of (x_n) if for any neighbourhood U of X, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > N \Rightarrow x_n \in U$.*

Prop. 1.1.16 *If $F \subset X$ is closed, then for all convergent sequences in F, the limit is also in F.*

Proof See Homework. □

Def'n. 1.1.17 *Let $f : X \to Y$ be a function, and $x \in X$ an accumulation point of $D(f)$. The limit of f at x is $y \in Y$ if for any neighbourhood V of y there exists a neighbourhood U of x such that $f(U \cap D(f) \setminus \{x\}) \subseteq V$.*

Def'n. 1.1.18 *Let $f : X \to Y$ be a function, and let $x \in D(f)$. Then f is **continuous at** x if for any neighbourhood V of $f(x)$, then $f^{-1}(V)$ is a neighbourhood of x.*

Def'n. 1.1.19 *$f : X \to Y$ is called **continuous** if it is continuous at every point.*

Prop. 1.1.20 *$f : X \to Y$ is continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(G)$ is open for all G open.*

Proof Exercise. □

Thm. 1.1.21 *Let $f : X \to Y$ be continuous and $K \subset X$ be compact. Then $f(K)$ is compact.*

Proof Recall that continuous functions pull back open sets. Let $f(K) \subset \bigcup U_\alpha$ be an open cover. Then $\bigcup f^{-1}(U_\alpha)$ is an open cover for K, and has a finite subcover $U_{\alpha_1} \cup \cdots U_{\alpha_n}$. But then $f(f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_1})) \cup \cdots \cup f(f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_n}))$ is a subcover of $f(K)$. □

1.2 Measure Theory

Def'n. 1.2.1 *Let $X \neq \emptyset$ be a set. $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ is called a $\sigma-$**algebra** if*

1. *$X \in \mathcal{M}$*
2. *$A \in \mathcal{M} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{M}$*
3. *If $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\bigcup\limits_{n\in\mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{M}$*

*The pair $(X, \mathcal{M})$ is called a **measurable space**. The elements of $\mathcal{M}$ are called **measurable sets**.*

Def'n. 1.2.2 *Let $(X, \mathcal{M})$ be a measurable space, (Y, τ) be a topological space. Then $f : X \to Y$ is called **measurable** if $f^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $V \in \tau$.*

Here are some simple examples of $\sigma-$algebras.

Ex. 1.2.3

1. $\mathcal{M} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ is a $\sigma-$algebra.
2. $\mathcal{P}(X) = \mathcal{M}$ is a $\sigma-$algebra.
3. $\mathcal{M} = \{A \subset X : A \text{ or } A^c \text{ is countable.}\}$. To see this, given $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$, if everything is countable, then $\bigcup A_n$ is countable. If some A_i is countable, then $(\bigcup A_n)^c = \bigcap A_n^c$ is countable, so $\bigcup A_n \in \mathcal{M}$.

We will later see some proper exaples, like the $\sigma-$algebra of Lebesgue measurable sets.

We have the following properties of $\sigma-$algebras.

Prop. 1.2.4

1. *$\emptyset \in \mathcal{M}$*
2. *$A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{M} \Rightarrow A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n \in \mathcal{M}$*

3. *$A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{M}$*
4. *$A, B \in \mathcal{M} \Rightarrow A \setminus B \in \mathcal{M}$*
5. *f is measurable, $H \subset Y$ is closed, then $f^{-1}(H) \in \mathcal{M}$.*

Proof
1. $X \in \mathcal{M} \Rightarrow X^c \in \mathcal{M}$.
2. We can extend this to a countable union by introduction $A_{n+i} = \emptyset$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$.
3. By DeMorgan's identities, $(\bigcap A_n)^c = \bigcup A_n^c \in \mathcal{M}$.
4. $A \setminus B = A \cap B^c \in \mathcal{M}$.
5. H^c is open implies $f^{-1}(H^c) \in \mathcal{M}$. Then $f^{-1}(H) = (f^{-1}(H^c))^c \in \mathcal{M}$. □

Prop. 1.2.5 *Let $f : X \to Y$ be measurable, let $g : Y \to Z$ be continuous, then $g \circ f : X \to Z$ is measurable.*

Proof Let $V \subset Z$ be open, so $g^{-1}(V) \subset Y$ is open, so $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V)) \in \mathcal{M}$ which is $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$. □

Prop. 1.2.6 *Let $(X, \mathcal{M})$ be a measurable space, Y be a topological space. Let $\phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \to Y$ be continuous. If $u, v : X \to \mathbb{R}$ are measurable, then $h(x) = \phi(u(x), v(x))$ is measurable.*

Proof Define $f : X \to \mathbb{R}^2$ by $f(x) = (u(x), v(x))$ We will see that f is measurable, so that $h = \phi \circ f$ is measurable since ϕ is continuous. Let $I_1, I_2 \subset \mathbb{R}$ be open intervals, so $R = I_1 \times I_2$ is an open rectangle. Then $f^{-1}(R) = u^{-1}(I_1) \cap v^{-1}(I_2) \in \mathcal{M}$. Let $G \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be an open set, so there exist R_n open rectangles so that

$$G = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R_n \Rightarrow f^{-1}(G) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(R_n) \in \mathcal{M}$$

so that f is measurable. □

Cor. 1.2.7
1. *If $u, v : X \to \mathbb{R}$ are measurable, then $u + v$ and $u \cdot v$ are measurable.*
2. *$u + iv : X \to \mathbb{C}$ is measurable.*
3. *$f : X \to \mathbb{C}$ is measurable, $f = u + iv \Rightarrow u, v, |f|$ are measurable.*

Prop. 1.2.8 *Define*

$$\chi_E(x) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } x \in E \\ 0 \text{ if } x \notin E \end{cases}$$

Then χ_E is measurable if and only if $E \in \mathcal{M}$.

Proof Naturally, $\chi_E^{-1}(1) = E$ and $\chi_E^{-1}(0) = E^c$, so χ_E is measurable if and only if $E, E^c \in \mathcal{M}$. □

Thm. 1.2.9 *Let $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$, then there exists a smallest σ–algebra containing $\mathcal{F}$. This is denoted by $S(\mathcal{F})$, the **σ–algebra generated by** $\mathcal{F}$.*

Proof Let $\Omega = \{\mathcal{M} : \mathcal{M} \text{ is a } \sigma\text{–algebra}, \mathcal{F} \subset M\}$. Certainly $\Omega \neq \emptyset$ since $\mathcal{P}(X) \in \Omega$. Let $S(\mathcal{F}) = \bigcap_{\mathcal{M} \in \Omega} \mathcal{M}$. We will see that $S(\mathcal{F})$ is a σ–algebra.

(i) Since $X \in \mathcal{M}$, it follows that $X \in \cap \mathcal{M}$.
(ii) If $A \in S(\mathcal{F})$, then $A \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $\mathcal{M}$. Thus $A^c \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $\mathcal{M}$ and $A^c \in \cap \mathcal{M}$.

(iii) In the same way, of $A_n \in S(\mathcal{F}$ for all n, then $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $n, \mathcal{M}$. Thus $\bigcup A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for all $\mathcal{M}$ so $\bigcup A_n \in \mathcal{M} \in \bigcap \mathcal{M} = S(\mathcal{F})$.

By definition, $\mathcal{F} \subset \bigcap \mathcal{M}$. Finally, $S(\mathcal{F})$ is minimal, since if $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{N}$ is a $\sigma-$algebra, then $\mathcal{N} \in \Omega \Rightarrow S(\mathcal{F}) \subset \mathcal{N}$, so we are done. □

Def'n. 1.2.10 *Let (X, τ) be a topological space. Then $\mathcal{B} = S(\tau)$ is called the **Borel $\sigma-$algebra**. Borel sets are the elements of $S(\tau)$. A function $f : X \to Y$ is Borel measurable if $f^{-1}(G) \in \mathcal{B}$ for all $G \subset Y$ open.*

Prop. 1.2.11
1. *If $F \subset X$ is closed, then $F \in \mathcal{B}$.*
2. *$G_n \subset X$ are open, then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n \in B$. These are called $G_\delta-$sets.*
3. *$F_n \subset X$ are closed, then $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \in B$. These are called $F_\sigma-$sets.*

Proof These follow directly from the definition of a $\sigma-$algebra. □

Ex. 1.2.12 $X = \mathbb{R}, \tau_e$, then $\mathcal{B} = S(\tau_e)$. Let $\Gamma_0 = \{(a, b) : a < b\}$ be a family of open intervals. We see that $S(\Gamma_0) = \mathcal{B}$. Since $\Gamma_0 \subset \tau$, $S(\Gamma_0) \subset S(\tau) = \mathcal{B}$. Conversely, let $G \in \tau$, then we have open intervals $G = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ so that $G \in S(\Gamma_0)$. Thus $S(\tau) \subset S(\Gamma_0)$ and $S(\Gamma_0) = \beta$.

Ex. 1.2.13 Let $\Gamma_\infty = \{(a, \infty) : a \in \mathbb{R}\}$. I claim that $S(\Gamma_\infty) = \mathcal{B}$. Certainly $S(\Gamma_\infty) \subset S(\tau) = \mathcal{B}$. Then $(-\infty, a] = (a_1, \infty)^c \in S(\Gamma_\infty)$.Similarly, $(-\infty, a) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty}(-\infty, a-1/n] \in S(\Gamma_\infty)$.Thus $(a, \infty) \cap (-\infty, b) = (a, b) \in S(\gamma_0)$, and using the previous example, $\mathcal{B} = S(\Gamma_\infty)$.

Prop. 1.2.14 *Let $(X, \mathcal{M})$ be a measurable space, and let $f : X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ with the eucildean topology. If $f^{-1}((\alpha, \infty]) \in \mathcal{M} \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, then f is measurable.*

Proof We have $f^{-1}([-\infty, \alpha]) = (f^{-1}((\alpha, \infty])^c \in \mathcal{M}$.Similarly, $f^{-1}([-\infty, \alpha)) = f^{-1}\left(\bigcap[-\infty, \alpha - 1/n]\right) = \bigcup f^{-1}([-\infty, \alpha - 1/n]) \in \mathcal{M}$.

We then have

$$f^{-1}((\alpha, \beta) f^{-1}([-\infty, \beta) \cap (\alpha, \infty]) = f^{-1}([-\infty, \beta)) \cap f^{-1}((\alpha, \infty]) \in \mathcal{M}$$

Thus if $G \subset \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is open, then there exists open intervals so that $G = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ satisfies

$$f^{-1}(G) = f^{-1}(\bigcup I_n) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(I_n) \in \mathcal{M}$$ □

Our goal is to prove that the pointwise limit of measurable functions is measurable. This does not hold for Riemann integrability! For example, a function with a finite number of discontinuities is Riemann integrable, but the dirichlet function is not Riemann integrable and is discontinuous only at a countable number of points.

Def'n. 1.2.15 *Let $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \overline{R}$ be a sequence, and $b_k = \sup\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\}$. Then $\beta = \inf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} b_k$ is called the* $\limsup$ *of (a_n). We can similarly define $c_k = \inf\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\}$ and* $\liminf = \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k$.