

MA359 Measure Theory

Lecture Wed. 10:05 - 10:50

Should be recorded.

Class Mon 10:05 - 10:50

Online material will be available on the course Moodle page.

Loosely following
D.L. Cohn "Measure Theory"
2nd edition

Available online via
Warwick Library.

Topics for week 1

XV-Xxi

1.3.2, 1.3.3, 1.3.4
1.1.1, 1.1.2

You can ask questions
by typing into chat
or raising your hand.

Ryan will read the
questions out loud.

Lebesgue integration
is a theory of integration
which has some advantages
over the Riemann integral.

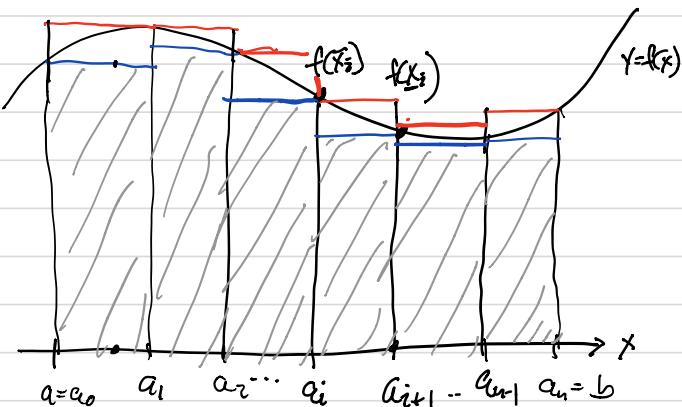
A theory of integration
tells us two things:

① Which functions
 $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ can be
integrated

② If f can be
integrated what is

$$\int_a^b f dx.$$

In the case of the Riemann integral we answer question 1 in terms of upper and lower sums.



We say that f is Riemann integrable if, when you have a sequence of partitions of $[a, b]$ getting finer, the upper sums and lower sums converge to the same value.

We answer question 2 by saying that, when

f is integrable, the integral

$$\int_a^y f(x) dx$$

is the common value of the upper sum limit and the lower sum limit.

In Lebesgue integration theory we will give a larger class of integrable functions.

If f is Riemann integrable then f will be Lebesgue integrable and the values of the two integrals will be the same.

The Lebesgue integral will have better properties with respect to limits than the Riemann integral.

With the Riemann integral if $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly then:

$$\int_a^b \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n dx$$

With the Lebesgue integral if $f_n \rightarrow f$ pointwise then:

$$\int_a^b \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n dx$$

There are various situations where we want to construct new functions by taking limits of simpler functions.

The limit properties of
the Lebesgue integral
allow us to integrate
these new functions.

If f is positive then $\int f dx$ is related to the area under the graph. In fact we can think of upper sums and lower sums geometrically as giving approximations to the area under the graph.

In this course we will describe a new theory of area but our starting point is a new theory of length which will lead us to the theory of the Lebesgue integral.

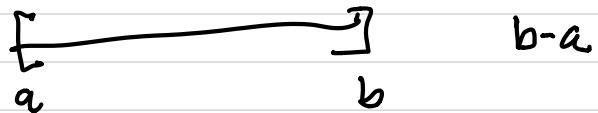
For intervals $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$

we know what length

means, $\text{length}([a, b]) = b - a$.

How do we make sense of
the length of wilder sets
 $A \subset \mathbb{R}$?

Here is our first attempt
to construct a generalized
length function which
we call Lebesgue
outer measure.



Lebesgue outer measure

Given a set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ we
will cover A by sets of
known measure. This
should be an upper bound
for the length of A so
we will take the
infimum over coverings.

Formal definition:

The Lebesgue outer measure of $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is defined to be

$$\lambda^*(A) = \inf_{\{U_j\}} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \text{length}(U_j) : A \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} U_j \right\}$$

where the U_j are open intervals (a, b) and

$$\text{length}((a, b)) = b - a.$$

The key point in this definition is that we use countable coverings instead of finite coverings.



For our first example
of a "wild set" consider

$$A = \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1].$$



It is hard to draw this
set because it is dense
in the unit interval.

Does this mean it is
large?

The complement of A
is also dense in the
unit interval. Is it
also large?

$$\text{Claim: } \mu^*(\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]) = 0$$

The proof will depend on
the fact that $\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$ is
countable:

Let r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots be the elements
of $\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$.

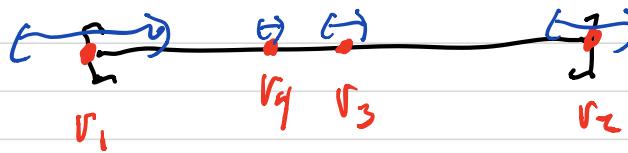
For example:

$$r_1 = 0, r_2 = 1, r_3 = \frac{1}{2},$$

$$r_4 = \frac{1}{3}, r_5 = \frac{2}{3}, r_6 = \frac{1}{4} \dots$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be

given. Let U_i^ε be the open interval centered at r_j of length $\varepsilon/2^j$.



(These are not actually disjoint.)

$$\mathcal{U}_\varepsilon = \{U_i^\varepsilon\}.$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \text{length}(U_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon}{2^j} = \varepsilon.$$

$$\chi^*(\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i) = \inf_{\varepsilon > 0} \varepsilon = 0.$$

Remark: If we only considered finite coverings we would get a different answer.

In defining $\lambda^*([a,b])$ we used the length of the interval as one ingredient in our definition but in the process of defining λ^* we may have

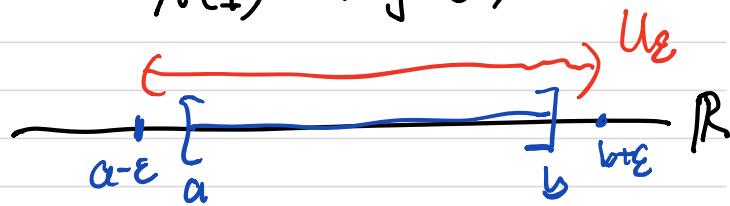
redefined "length" $([a,b])$. Let us check that we haven't changed the length of the interval.

Prop. $\lambda^*([a,b]) = b-a$.

Proof. We first show

It suffices to cover $[a,b]$ with a single interval, say \mathbb{R} . Let

$$\lambda^*(I) \leq \text{length}(I)$$





$\text{length}(U_\varepsilon)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \chi^*([a, b]) &\leq (b + \varepsilon) - (a - \varepsilon) \\ &= b - a + 2\varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

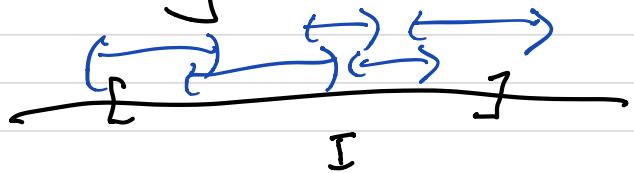
Let $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ get $\chi^*([a, b]) \leq b - a$.

Now we show

$$\chi^*([a, b]) \geq b - a.$$

Let $\mathcal{U} = \{U_i\}$ be a

covering of $I = [a, b]$



I is compact so there is a finite subcover

$$U_1, \dots, U_n$$

Clearly

$$\sum_{k=1}^N \text{length}(U_{j_k}) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{length}(U_k)$$

1 interval

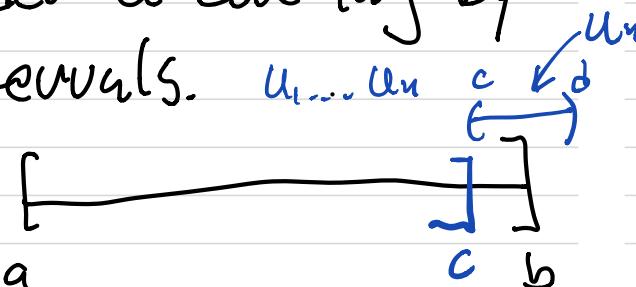


$$b-a < \underline{d-c}.$$

Now we prove by induction on the number of intervals that for a finite cover $\{U_1 \dots U_n\}$ of an interval $[a, b]$ we have $\sum \text{length}(U_j) \geq b-a$.

Say that our claim holds for covers with $n-1$ intervals.

Consider a covering by n intervals. u_1, \dots, u_n



Some interval contains b

call it $u_n = (c, d)$.

We may assume $c > a$.

The remaining $n-1$ intervals u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}

cover $[a, c]$ so

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \text{length}(u_i) &= \\ \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \text{length}(u_j) + \text{length}(u_n) & \\ \geq c-a + d-c & \\ = d-a & \\ > b-a. &\end{aligned}$$

Cov. The open cover \mathcal{U}^ε of the rationals leaves out some points when $\varepsilon < 1$.

