

# **Measure Theory: Cheatsheet**

Ronald Mangang

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# 1 Measure Spaces

**Generation of  $\sigma$ -algebras.** Let  $\Omega$  be a nonempty set. Let  $\mathcal{A} \subset 2^\Omega$ . The smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{A}$  is called the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{A}$ . We denote it by  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ . Trivially,  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) \subset 2^\Omega$ .

Similar concepts are defined similarly.

Let  $X$  be a metric space. The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open sets (or balls) is called Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra. The sets that belong to Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra are called Borel sets. All open or closed sets are then Borel sets.

It is important to know that sets of the form  $(a, \infty)$  generate all Borel sets on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Limit superior and limit inferior.** Let  $\{A_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  be a sequence of sets. Then

$$\limsup A_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k \geq n} A_k, \quad \liminf A_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k \geq n} A_k \quad (1.1)$$

From the definitions, we derive

$$\liminf A_n \leq \limsup A_n \quad (1.2)$$

The sequence  $A_n$  converges to  $A$  iff  $\liminf A_n = \limsup A_n$ .

**Monotone class theorem.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an algebra. Let  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{M}$  be  $\sigma$ -algebra and monotone class generated by  $\mathcal{A}$  respectively. Then  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{M}$ .

Proof is easy.  $\mathcal{F}$  is a monotone class by definition. This implies that  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{F}$ . A simple use of logic will imply  $\mathcal{M}$  is also a  $\sigma$ -algebra which means  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{M}$ .

**Measurable space vs. measure space.** Any set  $\Omega$  bundled with a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  defined on  $\Omega$  makes a measurable space. If we define a measure  $\mu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  and associate it to the measurable space, it becomes a measure space.

In short,  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is a measurable space and  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$  is a measure space.

## 1 Measure Spaces

**Lebesgue measure.** Consider the measurable space  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}^n)$  where  $\mathcal{B}^n$  denote the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We define Lebesgue measure  $l : \mathcal{B}^n \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  by

$$l((a_1, b_1) \times (a_2, b_2) \times \cdots \times (a_n, b_n)) = \prod_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i). \quad (1.3)$$

The value of the measure remains the same if the open intervals are replaced with closed intervals. Lebesgue measure generalizes the sense of length, area, volume.

## 2 Measurability

**Checking measurability** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  and  $(\Omega', \mathcal{F}')$  be two measurable spaces. A function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega'$  is measurable if for any  $A \in \mathcal{F}'$ , we have  $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Informally, a measurable function is one whose inverse images of measurable sets are also measurable. That is, it preserves the structure of a measurable space. In that regard, they are like continuous functions which preserve the structure of topological spaces, i.e., the inverse image of an open set is open.

**Measurability on a generator.** To check if a set function  $f : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mathcal{F}')$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ - $\mathcal{F}'$  measurable it is sufficient to check that  $f$  is measurable on a set  $B \subset \mathcal{F}'$  where  $B$  generates  $\mathcal{F}'$ .

Since intervals of the form  $(-\infty, a)$  generate the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$  we sometimes say  $f$  is measurable if  $\{x : f(x) < a, a \in \mathbb{R}\}$  is measurable.

**$\sigma$ -algebras from measurable functions.**  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{F}')$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra for  $f$  to be measurable.

We can extend this idea for a collection of functions. Suppose  $(\sigma_i, \mathcal{F}_i)$  for some index  $i$  are measurable spaces. The smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra so that  $f_i : \sigma \rightarrow \sigma_i$  are all measurable is then given by

$$\sigma(f_i) = \sigma(\cup_i f_i^{-1}(\mathcal{F}_i)) \quad (2.1)$$

**Operations on measurable functions.** Sum, difference, product, scalar product, composition on measurable functions yield measurable functions.

Let  $f_i$  be measurable functions. Then  $\sup f_i$ ,  $\inf f_i$ ,  $\limsup f_i$  and  $\liminf f_i$  are measurable.

## 2 Measurability

**The concept of almost everywhere.** Informally, we say that a property  $P$  holds almost everywhere if the set of elements for which  $P$  does not hold has measure zero. In Euclidean spaces, any countable set has measure zero — this implies that any property which holds for all points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  except for countably many points is said to hold almost everywhere.

The mathematical concept of “almost surely” is closely related to this.

**Approximation by simple functions.** Any nonnegative measurable function  $f$  can be written as

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^n a_i 1_{E_i}(x) \quad (2.2)$$

where  $1_{E_i}$  is the indicator function of the measurable set  $E_i$ . In essence, we are approximating  $f$  by an increasing sequence of nonnegative simple functions defined by  $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i 1_{E_i}(x)$ .

## 3 Lebesgue Integration

**Simple functions.** From the previous chapter, a simple function is of the form

$$s = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i 1_{E_i}(x) \quad (3.1)$$

Then the Lebesgue integral of  $s$  with respect to measure  $\mu$  is

$$\int s d\mu = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \mu(E_i) \quad (3.2)$$

The integral  $\int s d\mu$  does not depend on the representation of  $s$ .

**Measurable functions.** From the previous chapter, we know how to approximate a nonnegative measurable function by an increasing sequence of nonnegative simple functions. Let

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^n a_i 1_{E_i}(x) \quad (3.3)$$

Then the Lebesgue integral of  $f$  with respect to measure  $\mu$  is

$$\int f d\mu = \sup \left( \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (\mu(E_i)) \right) \quad (3.4)$$

**“Almost everywhere” revisited.** From the way how a Lebesgue integral is defined, it follows “almost trivially” that if  $f \leq g$  almost everywhere then  $\int f d\mu \leq \int g d\mu$ . Also if  $f = g$  almost everywhere then  $\int f d\mu = \int g d\mu$ .

Suppose  $f = 0$  almost everywhere. Then  $\int f d\mu = 0$ . The converse is also true.

Well the take-home message is: in the grand scheme of things, irregularities in countably many cases do not make a difference. Well sort of.

### 3 Lebesgue Integration

Lebesgue integrals are in many ways like the ordinary Riemann integrals. They obey linearity and monotone convergence.

**Monotone convergence.** Let  $\{f_n\}$  be such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$ . Then

$$\int f d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu. \quad (3.5)$$

This is what helped us to define Lebesgue integrals for nonnegative measurable functions using a sequence of increasing simple functions. A careful look reveals that  $\{f_n\}$  are the simple functions which approximate  $f$ .