

Math 202A Notes

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Chapter 1

Topology

1.1 Metric Spaces

Definition 1.1.1. Let X be a set, a metric on X is a function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that

1. $d(x, x) = 0$, for all $x \in X$
2. if $d(x, y) = 0$, then $x = y$
3. $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
4. $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$

Note that if we do not have that if $d(x, y) = 0$, then $x = y$, then we have a semimetric.

Definition 1.1.2. If $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we call the define the following norms:

1. $\|v\|_2 = (\sum |v_j|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$
2. $\|v\|_1 = \sum |v_j|$
3. $\|v\|_\infty = \max\{|v_1|, |v_2|, \dots, |v_n|\}$
4. $\|v\|_p = (\sum |v_j|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

Definition 1.1.3. We can now define the following:

1. $d_2 := \|v - w\|_2$
2. $d_1 := \|v - w\|_1$
3. $d_\infty := \|v - w\|_\infty$
4. $d_p := \|v - w\|_p$

Example 1.1.1. Let (X, d) be a metric space, then let $Y \subset X$, the restriction of d to $Y \times Y \subset X \times X$ makes Y a metric space.

Example 1.1.2. $C([0, 1]) = \mathbb{R}$ -valued continuous functions on $[0, 1]$.

Note 1.1.1. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . By a norm on V , we mean a function $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ such that:

1. $\|v\| = 0 \iff v = 0$
2. $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$
3. $\|v + w\| \leq \|v\| + \|w\|$

Example 1.1.3. From a norm on V , we get a metric on V by $d(v, w) = \|v - w\|$. For $f \in C([0, 1])$:

1. $\|f\|_2 = \left(\int_0^1 |f(t)|^2 dt \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$
2. $\|f\|_1 = \int_0^1 |f(t)| dt$
3. $\|f\|_\infty = \sup\{|f(t)| : t \in [0, 1]\}$
4. $\|f\|_p = \left(\int_0^1 |f(t)|^p dt \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

Definition 1.1.4. Let (X, d) be a metric space, and let $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points of X . We say that this sequence converges to a point $x_* \in X$ if for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$ such that for $n > N$, $d(x_n, x_*) < \epsilon$. [Note that this is the same as saying that $x_n \in \text{oBall}(x_*, \epsilon)$, where $\text{oBall}(x_*, \epsilon) = \{y \in X \mid d(y, x_*) < \epsilon\}$.]

Definition 1.1.5. X is complete if every Cauchy sequence converges to some point of X .

Example 1.1.4. Some examples of complete metric spaces include $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}$.

Note 1.1.2. If S is a closed subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then S with the restricted metric is complete. Consider $C([0, 1]) : \|f\|_\infty = \sup\{|f(t)| : t \in [0, 1]\}$. The uniform norm convergence for it is uniform convergence. If $\{f_n\}$ is Cauchy for $\|\cdot\|_\infty$, then for each $t_* \in [0, 1]$, then $\{f_n(t_*)\}$ is a Cauchy sequence, so it converges. Note that $f(t) = \lim(f_n(t))$, the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous.

Definition 1.1.6. Let (X, d) be a metric space, and let S be a subset of X . We say that S is dense in X if every open ball in X contains a point of S .

Definition 1.1.7. Let (X, d) be a metric space, by a completion of X , we mean a metric space, (\bar{X}, \bar{d}) , together with $j : X \rightarrow \bar{X}$ such that j is an isometry and j is dense in \bar{X} .

Definition 1.1.8. An isometry is a function j such that $d(x, y) = d(j(x), j(y))$.

Example 1.1.5. Every metric space has a completion, and the completion is essentially unique. Let (X, d) be a metric space. Let $\text{CS}(X, d)$ be the set of all Cauchy sequences in (X, d) . Try to define a distance on $\text{CS}(X, d)$: let $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}$ be two Cauchy sequences. Consider $\{d(x_n, y_n)\}$, we claim it is Cauchy in \mathbb{R} . Set $\tilde{d}(\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}) = \lim\{d(x_n, y_n)\}$.

Note 1.1.3. Note that $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$ and $d(x, y) - d(x, z) \leq d(z, y)$, so $|d(x, y) - d(x, z)| \leq d(z, y)$ and $|d(x, z) - d(y, z)| \leq d(x, y)$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} |d(x_n, y_n) - d(x_m, y_m)| &= |d(x_n, y_n - d(x_n, y_m) + d(x_n, y_m) - d(x_m, y_m))| \\ &\leq |d(x_n, y_n) - d(x_n, y_m)| + |d(x_n, y_m) - d(x_m, y_m)| \\ &\leq d(y_n, y_m) + d(x_n, x_m) \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

Now, let (X, d) be a semimetric space. We now define an equivalence relation on X , by if $d(x, y) = 0$, then $[x] = \{y : d(x, y) = 0\}$. Define $X/\sim := \{\text{equivalence classes}\}$. Define \hat{d} on X/\sim by $\hat{d}([x], [y]) = d(x, y)$, well-defined. If $x' \in [x], y' \in [y]$, then $d(x', y') \leq d(x, x) + d(y, y) + d(x, y), d(x', y') = d(x, y)$, so \hat{d} is a metric on X/\sim . Let \tilde{d} on $\text{CS}(X, d)$ be the corresponding metric in the equivalence classes. The equivalence relation is $\{x_n\} \sim \{y_n\}$ if $\tilde{d}(\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}) = 0$ or $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$. Embed (X, d) in $\text{CS}(X, d)/\sim$ by $x \mapsto \text{Cauchy sequence}, x_n = x$, for all n , $\phi(x) = \{x_n = x\}, \tilde{d}(\phi(x), \phi(y)) = \lim d(x_n, y_n) = \lim d(x, y) = d(x, y)$, so ϕ is an isometry of X into $\text{CS}(X, d) \rightarrow \text{CS}(X, d)/\sim$. The image of X is dense in $\text{CS}(X, d)/\sim$. Let $\{x_n\}$ be any Cauchy sequence. Then, given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that for $m, n \geq N, d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$. Consider $\phi(x_N)$. Then, $\tilde{d}(\{x_n\}, \phi(x_N)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{d(x_n, x_N)\} < \epsilon$. To show that $(\text{CS}(X, d)/\sim, \tilde{d})$ is complete. For small ϵ , let $\dots \in \text{CS}(X, d)$, assume $\{S^m\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $\text{CS}(X, d)$, for each k , find $x_k \in X$, such that $\tilde{d}(\phi(x_k), S^m) < \frac{1}{k}$, then $S = \{x_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ is a Cauchy sequence, and $\tilde{d}(S^m, S)_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rightarrow 0$.

Definition 1.1.9. Let $(X, d_x), (Y, d_y)$ be metric spaces, $f : X \rightarrow Y$, and $x_0 \in X$, we say that f is continuous at x_0 if for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that if $d(x, x_0) < \delta$, then $d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$, or equivalently, if $x \in \text{Ball}(x_0, \delta)$, then $f(x) \in \text{Ball}(f(x_0), \epsilon)$. For any open ball B about $f(x_0)$, there is an open ball C about $f(x_0)$ such that if $x \in B$, then $f(x) \in C$, or equivalently that $x \in f^{-1}(C)$, and $B \subseteq f^{-1}(C)$.

Definition 1.1.10. Let (X, d) be a metric space. If $A \subseteq X$ is an open subset (for d) if for each $x \in A$, there is an open ball about x contained in A .

Note 1.1.4. If f is continuous, i.e continuous at all points, let \mathcal{O} be an open set in Y , let $x_0 \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$, then \mathcal{O} contains a ball about $f(x_0)$ such that $x_0 \in C \subset f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$, so $C \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$, so $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is open. Conversely, let f be any function from X to Y . If it is true that for any open set \mathcal{O} in Y , $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is open in X , then f is continuous. Given any $\epsilon > 0$, let $\mathcal{O} = \text{Ball}(f(x_0), \epsilon)$, then $f^{-1}(\text{Ball}(f(x_0), \epsilon))$ is open. Hence, there is a ball $\text{Ball}(x_0, \delta)$ such that $\text{Ball}(x_0, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(\text{Ball}(f(x_0), \epsilon))$. The following are properties of the collection of open sets of a metric space:

1. An infinite union of open sets is open
2. A finite intersection of open sets is open. For $x_0 \in \mathcal{O}_1 \cap \mathcal{O}_2$, $\text{Ball}(x_0, r_1) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_1$, $\text{Ball}(x_0, r_2) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_2$. Let $r = \min\{r_1, r_2\}$, then $\text{Ball}(x_0, r) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_1 \cap \mathcal{O}_2$.
3. X and \emptyset are open.

Definition 1.1.11. Let X be a set. By a topology for X , we mean a collection \mathcal{T} of subsets of X such that:

1. Arbitrary unions of elements of \mathcal{T} are in \mathcal{T} .
2. Finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{T} are in \mathcal{T} .
3. X and \emptyset are elements of \mathcal{T} .

Definition 1.1.12. Let \mathcal{T} be a topology of X . Then $A \subseteq X$ is closed if A' is open.

Note 1.1.5. Properties of closed sets:

1. Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.
2. Finite unions of closed sets are closed.

3. X and \emptyset are closed.

Definition 1.1.13. Let $A \subseteq X$. By the closure of A , we mean the smallest closed set that contains A , i.e. the intersection of all closed sets that contain A .

Definition 1.1.14. By the interior of A , we mean the biggest open set contained in A , i.e. the union of all open sets contained in A .

Definition 1.1.15. Let C be a closed set, and let $A \subseteq C$, we say that A is dense in C if $\bar{A} = C$.

Definition 1.1.16. Let X be a set, and let \mathcal{S} be a collection of subsets of X , the smallest topology containing the intersection of topologies that contain \mathcal{S} is said to be the topology generated by \mathcal{S} , and \mathcal{S} is called a subbase for that topology. Note that if \mathcal{C} is a collection of topologies for X , then $\bigcap \{\mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{C}\}$ is a topology for X .

Definition 1.1.17. Let X be a set, and let D be the collection of subsets of X . D is a topology for X , called the discrete topology for X . It is given by a metric:

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \neq y \\ 0 & x = y. \end{cases}$$

D is the biggest topology in X .

Definition 1.1.18. The smallest topology in X is $\{\emptyset, X\}$, called the indiscrete topology.

Note 1.1.6. If \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 are topologies on X , such that:

$$\begin{array}{cc} \mathcal{T}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{T}_2 \\ \text{smaller} & \text{larger} \\ \text{weaker} & \text{stronger.} \end{array}$$

Usually, we require that $\bigcup \mathcal{S} = X$. For $X = \mathbb{R}$, (a, b) , $\mathcal{S} = \{(\infty, a), (b, +\infty)\}$.

Definition 1.1.19. A collection of subsets of X is a base for a topology is the set of all arbitrary unions of elements of \mathcal{S} is a topology.

Example 1.1.6. $\mathcal{S} = \{(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}\}$, $\mathbb{R}^2 = \{\text{open balls}\}$

Note 1.1.7. For \mathcal{S} to be a base, it must have the property that if $A, B \in \mathcal{S}$, then $A \cap B$ must be a union of elements of \mathcal{S} .

Example 1.1.7. If \mathcal{S} is any collection of subset of X , then the collection of all finite intersections of elements must be a topology.

Definition 1.1.20. Let (X, \mathcal{T}_X) and (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y) be topological spaces, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. f is continuous if for all open sets $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}_Y \implies f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \in \mathcal{T}_X$.

Note 1.1.8. Let Y be a set and $\mathcal{S} = \{A_\alpha\}$, let X be a set, and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. Then,

$$1. f^{-1}(\bigcup_\alpha A_\alpha) = \bigcup_\alpha f^{-1}(A_\alpha)$$

2. $f^{-1}(\bigcap_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}) = \bigcap_{\alpha} f^{-1}(A_{\alpha})$
3. If $A, B \in \mathcal{T}_Y$, then $f^{-1}(A \setminus B) = f^{-1}(A) \setminus f^{-1}(B)$.

Example 1.1.8. Given (X, \mathcal{T}_X) and $f : X \rightarrow Y$, let \mathcal{S} be a subbase for \mathcal{T}_Y . Then f is continuous if $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{T}_X$, for all $A \in \mathcal{S}$.

Example 1.1.9. Let X be a set and let $(X_{\alpha}, \mathcal{T}_{\alpha})$ be a collection of topological spaces. Let there be a quasifunction $f_{\alpha} : X_{\alpha} \rightarrow X$. Let \mathcal{T} be the strongest topology such that all of the f_{α} 's are continuous. Given α_0, f_{α_0} . If $A \subseteq X$, then if A is to be open, we must have that $f_{\alpha_0}^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{T}_{\alpha_0}$. Now, let $\mathcal{S}_{\alpha_0} = \{A \subseteq X : f_{\alpha_0}^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{T}_{\alpha_0}\}$ is a topology for X ; in fact, it is the strongest topology making f_{α_0} continuous. The strongest topology making all of the f_{α} continuous is the intersection of the \mathcal{S}_{α} .

Example 1.1.10. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space, let Y be a set. Then, $f : X \rightarrow Y, \{A \subseteq Y : f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{T}\}$ is the strongest topology making f continuous. Usually, we want f to be onto Y .

Definition 1.1.21. We begin by defining an equivalence relation, \sim , on X by $x_1 \sim x_2$, if $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. This gives a partition of X : the quotient of X / \sim , the quotient of X by \sim . This topology is called the quotient topology determined by f .

Definition 1.1.22. For \sim on a set X , $B \subseteq X$ is saturated if when $x \in B$ and $x_1 \sim x$, for $x_1 \in B$.

Note 1.1.9. The open sets in the quotient topology in f on Y are in bijection with the saturated open sets of X .

Note 1.1.10. We want the weakest topology to make all of the functions to be continuous. For any B_α , any open set $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}_\alpha$ (where the topological space is $(Y_\alpha, \mathcal{T}_\alpha)$), we need $f_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \subseteq X$. This weakest topology has a sub-base $\{f_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) : \mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}_\alpha\}$, which is called the conditional topology.

Example 1.1.11. 1. Given (Y, \mathcal{T}) , let X be a subset of Y . $X \hookrightarrow^i Y$. The weakest topology making i continuous is $\{i^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) : \mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}\}$. $i^{-1}(0)$ can form the relative topology, $\{X \cap \mathcal{O} : \mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}_Y\}$.

2. Let $(X_1, \mathcal{T}_1), (X_2, \mathcal{T}_2)$ be given. We can form the product topology, $X_1 \times X_2$, whose sub-base is $\mathcal{O} \times X_2, \mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}_1, X_1 \times \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}_2$, intersected: $\{\mathcal{O} \times \mathcal{U} : \mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}_2\}$ is a sub-base. Furthermore, $(X_\alpha, \mathcal{T}_\alpha)_{\alpha \in A}$. Then, form $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$, functions f from A into $\cup X_\alpha$ such that $f(\alpha) \in X_\alpha$ used for all α . X_α is called the product topology, sub-base, π_α , for $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}_\alpha, X_1 \times \dots \times \mathcal{O} \times \dots$. We can only take finite intersections, so there can only be finitely many open sets.

3. $C([0, 1]), \|\cdot\|$. For each $h \in C([0, 1])$, define linear functional, ϕ_n on $C([0, 1])$ by

$$\phi_n(f) = \int_0^1 f(t)h(t)dt, C([0, 1]) \rightarrow_{\phi_n} \mathbb{R}.$$

We can then ask for the correspondingly weakest topology.

$$|\phi_n| \leq \|h\|_\infty \|f\|_1,$$

where we chose h bounded.

Example 1.1.12. Special properties of topologies from metric spaces. If $x, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$, let $r = d(x, y) \neq 0$. Then, $\text{oBall}(x, \frac{r}{3})$ and $\text{oBall}(y, \frac{r}{3})$ are disjoint.

Definition 1.1.23. A topology \mathcal{T} on X is Hausdorff if for any points $x, y, x \neq y$, there are open sets, \mathcal{O}_x and $\mathcal{O}_y, x \in \mathcal{O}_x, y \in \mathcal{O}_y$, and $\mathcal{O}_x \cap \mathcal{O}_y = \emptyset$.

Definition 1.1.24. The Separation Axioms:

1. T_2 : Hausdorff
2. T_1 : Given $x, y, x \neq y$, there exists \mathcal{O}_x with $x \in \mathcal{O}_x, y \notin \mathcal{O}_x$ and there exists a similar \mathcal{O}_y .
3. T_0 : Given $x, y, x \neq y$, there exists \mathcal{O} such that only one of x or y is in \mathcal{O} .

Definition 1.1.25. A topology \mathcal{T} is normal if for any two disjoint closed sets, A, B , there are disjoint open sets $\mathcal{O}_A, \mathcal{O}_B$, such that $A \subseteq \mathcal{O}_A, B \subseteq \mathcal{O}_B$.

Theorem 1.1.1. Any topology that comes from a metric is normal.

Proof. Let A, B be disjoint closed sets in (X, d) . For each $x \in A$, B is closed so $x \notin B$. Can choose ϵ_x such that

$$\text{oBall}(x, \epsilon_x) \cap B = \emptyset.$$

Then, for each $y \in B$, we can choose ϵ_y such that $\text{oBall}(y, \epsilon_y) \cap A = \emptyset$.

$$\mathcal{O}_A = \bigcup_{x \in A} \text{oBall}\left(x, \frac{\epsilon_x}{3}\right), \mathcal{O}_B = \bigcup_{y \in B} \text{oBall}\left(y, \frac{\epsilon_y}{3}\right).$$

Note that $\mathcal{O}_A \cap \mathcal{O}_B = \emptyset$, as if $z \in \mathcal{O}_A \cap \mathcal{O}_B$, then there exists an $x \in A$, such that $z \in \text{oBall}\left(x, \frac{\epsilon_x}{3}\right)$ and there exists $y \in B$, such that $z \in \text{oBall}\left(y, \frac{\epsilon_y}{3}\right)$. Hence, $d(x, y) \leq \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{3}$. So, if $\epsilon = \max\{\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y\}$, this is bounded by $\frac{2\epsilon}{3}$. ■

Theorem 1.1.2. (Urysohn's Lemma) Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a normal topological space and if A, B are disjoint, closed sets in X , there exists a continuous map,

$$f : X \rightarrow [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R},$$

such that $f(x) = 0$ if $x \in A$ and $f(x) = 1$ if $x \in B$.

Proof. If (X, \mathcal{T}) is such that for every closed A, B which are disjoint, we have f , for \mathcal{T} normal: If A, B are disjoint, $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$, $f|_A = 0, f|_B = 1$, set $\mathcal{O}_A = \left\{x : f(x) < \frac{1}{3}\right\}, \mathcal{O}_B = \left\{x : f(x) > \frac{2}{3}\right\}$. Now, let $\mathcal{O}_A = \left\{x : f(x) > \frac{1}{3}\right\} \cap \mathcal{O}_B$.

Lemma 1.1.3. *If (X, \mathcal{T}) is normal, and if A is closed, \mathcal{O} is open, $A \subseteq \mathcal{O}$, then there is an open set \mathcal{U} , such that $A \subseteq \mathcal{U} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{U}}$.*

Proof. Note that \mathcal{O}^C is closed, by definition, so, by normality, there are open sets \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} , such that $A \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{O}^C \subseteq \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}^C \subseteq \mathcal{O}$. Then,

$$\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{V}^C \subseteq \mathcal{O}, \text{ so } A \subseteq \mathcal{U} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{U}} \subseteq \mathcal{V}^C \subseteq \mathcal{O}.$$

■

(Part) Given (X, \mathcal{T}) normal, A, B closed, disjoint, choose $\mathcal{O}_{\frac{1}{2}}$ such that $A \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\frac{1}{2}} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}}_{\frac{1}{2}} \subseteq B^C$. Then, choose $\mathcal{O}_{\frac{1}{4}}, \mathcal{O}_{\frac{3}{4}}$, such that

$$A \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\frac{1}{4}} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}}_{\frac{1}{4}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\frac{1}{2}} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}}_{\frac{1}{2}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\frac{3}{4}} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}}_{\frac{3}{4}} \subseteq B^C.$$

Then, choose $\mathcal{O}_{\frac{1}{8}}, \mathcal{O}_{\frac{3}{8}}, \mathcal{O}_{\frac{5}{8}}, \mathcal{O}_{\frac{7}{8}}$, such that \dots Now, set $\mathcal{O}_1 = X$. Get a countable base subset, \mathcal{O}_2 of $[0, 1]$, such that $0 \notin \mathcal{O}_2, 1 \in \mathcal{O}_2$, and for each number $r \in \mathcal{O}_2$, we have an open set \mathcal{O}_r such that if $r < s, \bar{\mathcal{O}}_r \subseteq \mathcal{O}_s$. Now, define the function $f(t)_{t \in [0,1]} := \inf\{r : r \in \mathcal{O}_r\}$. ■

1.2 Where I got lost

Theorem 1.2.1. Tietze Extension Theorem. *Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a normal topological space, and let $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then there is $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, continuous that extends f , if $\tilde{f}|_A = f$. If $f : A \rightarrow [a, b], a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ then can arrange that $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow [a, b]$.*

Proof. [Note that if $A \subseteq X$ is closed and if $B \subseteq A$ is closed in the relative topology, then B is closed in $X, A \setminus B = A \cap \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}$, then $B = A \cap \mathcal{O}'$, where A and \mathcal{O}' are closed, as B is closed in X] Now, consider the first case of $f : A \rightarrow [0, 1]$. Let $C_0 = \{x \in A : f(x) \leq \frac{1}{3}\}, C_1 = \{x \in A : f(x) \geq \frac{2}{3}\}$, closed in A . Then, by Urysohn's Lemma, $\exists k : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ with $k|_{C_0} = 0, k|_{C_1} = 1$. Let $g_1 = \frac{1}{3}k$, so $g_1 : X \rightarrow [0, \frac{1}{3}]$, $f - g_1|_A : A \rightarrow [0, \frac{2}{3}]$. Scale (?): If $h : A \rightarrow [0, r]$, then there exists g on X with $g : X \rightarrow [\frac{1}{3}r], h - g|_A : A \rightarrow [0, \frac{2}{3}r]$. Apply this to $f - g_1|_A, r = \frac{2}{3}$. Thus there is $g_2 : X \rightarrow [0, \frac{1}{3}\frac{2}{3}], (f - g_1|_A) - g_2|_A : X \rightarrow [0, (\frac{2}{3})^2]$. Apply to $f - g_1|_A - g_2|_A, r = (\frac{2}{3})^2$. So there is $g_3 : X \rightarrow [0, \frac{1}{3}(\frac{2}{3})^2], f - g_1|_A - g_2|_A - g_3|_A : X \rightarrow [0, (\frac{2}{3})^3]$. Continue this for the n th case. Clearly

we have that $g_n : X \rightarrow [0, \frac{1}{3}(\frac{2}{3})^{n-1}]$, $f - \sum_{j=1}^n g_j|_A : X \rightarrow [0, (\frac{2}{3})^n] \implies \|g_n\|_\infty \leq \frac{1}{3}(\frac{2}{3})^{n-1}$, define $\tilde{f} = \sum_{j=1}^\infty g_j$ cont, $\|f - \sum_{j=1}^n g_j|_A\| \leq (\frac{2}{3})^n$. Hence, $\tilde{f}|_A = f$, $0 \leq g_n(x) \leq \frac{1}{3}(\frac{2}{3})^{n-1}$, so $\sum_{j=1}^\infty g_j(x) \leq \frac{1}{3} \sum_{j=1}^\infty (\frac{2}{3})^{j-1} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{j=0}^\infty (\frac{2}{3})^j = \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{1-\frac{2}{3}} = 1$. If $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, unbounded, then $\arctan \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ is a homeomorphism. Let h be the arctan of $f : A \rightarrow (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}) \subseteq [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$, as there is an equation $\tilde{h} : X \rightarrow [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ with $\tilde{h}|_A = h$. Let $B = \{-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\}$, a closed subset of $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$. Then take $B = \{\tilde{h}^{-1}(-\frac{\pi}{2}), \tilde{h}^{-1}(\frac{\pi}{2})\} \subseteq X$, $A \subseteq X$... ■

Definition 1.2.1. Let X be a set, \mathcal{C} a collection of subsets of X . We say that \mathcal{C} is a covering of X if

$$\bigcup \{A \in \mathcal{C}\} = X$$

. If $B \subseteq X$, \mathcal{C} is a collection of subsets of X , we say that \mathcal{C} covers B if $B \subseteq \bigcup \{A \in \mathcal{C}\}$. If $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$, \mathcal{D} is a subcover of \mathcal{C} if \mathcal{D} also is a c.

Definition 1.2.2. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space. We say that it is compact if every open cover of X has a finite subcover.

Theorem 1.2.2. If (X, \mathcal{T}) is compact and $A \subseteq X$, then the following are equivalent.

1. A is compact for the relative topology
2. If $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ is a cover of A , then A has a finite subcover of \mathcal{C} .

Proof. The open sets for the relative topology are of the form $A \cap \mathcal{O}$, $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}$. ■

Theorem 1.2.3. If (X, \mathcal{T}) is compact and $A \subseteq X$ is closed then A is compact for the relative topology.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{T}$ be a collection of open sets that cover A . Since A is closed, A' is open, so $\mathcal{D} \cup \dots$ is an open cover of X . ■

A compact subset of a topological space, even a compact one, need not be closed. For example, any set with at least 2 points within the discrete topology, every subset is compact.

Theorem 1.2.4. *Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be Hausdorff. Let $A \subseteq X$ be compact for the relative topology, then A is closed.*

Proof. Let $y \in X, y \notin A$. For each $x \in A$ find $\mathcal{U}_x, \mathcal{V}_x \in \mathcal{S}$. Then the set of these \mathcal{U}_x will cover A . So we have a finite subcover, $\mathcal{U}_{x_1}, \dots, \mathcal{U}_{x_n}$. Let $V = \mathcal{V}_{x_1} \cap \mathcal{V}_{x_2} \dots \mathcal{V}_{x_n}$ be open, $y \in \mathcal{V}_1, V \cap A = \emptyset$. Thus A' is a union of open sets, so it is open. Thus, its complement, A , is closed. ■

Theorem 1.2.5. *Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be compact and Hausdorff. For any closed subset A of X and any pf (?) $y \in X, y \notin A$, there are open sets u, v , disjoint, with $A \subseteq u, y \in v$.*

Definition 1.2.3. (X, \mathcal{T}) is regular for all $A \subseteq X$ closed and all $y \in X, y \notin A$.

Theorem 1.2.6. *Every compact Hausdorff space is normal.*

Proof. Let A, B be disjoint closed, (covered also (?)) subsets. By regularity, for each $y \in B$, there are disjoint open $\mathcal{U}_y, \mathcal{V}_y, A \subseteq \mathcal{U}_y, y \in \mathcal{V}_y$. The $\{\mathcal{V}_y\}$ form an open cover of B , as by completion there is a finite subcover, $\{\mathcal{V}_{y_k}\}_{k \in I}, I = \{1, \dots, n\}$. ■

Theorem 1.2.7. *Tychonoff's Theorem*

Proof. Some stuff I missed. Let $(X_\lambda, \mathcal{T}_\lambda)$ compact top spaces. Let $X = \prod X_\lambda$ with the product topology. Want to show that X is compact. Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of closed sets with FIP. Need to show that $\cap \{C \in \mathcal{C}\} \neq \emptyset$. By Zorn's Lemma, there is a collection \mathcal{D}^* of elements of $X, \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}^*$, with \mathcal{D}^* maximal among collection satisfying the FIP.

Lemma 1.2.8. *Let \mathcal{D} be any collection of subsets of X maximal for FIP. Then the finite intersection of sets in \mathcal{D} are in \mathcal{D} , and if $B \subset X$ and if $B \cap A \neq \emptyset$, for all $A \in \mathcal{D}$, then $B \in \mathcal{D}$.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{D}' be the collection of all finite collection of elements of \mathcal{D} . Then \mathcal{D} has FIP, and $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{D}'$, so by maximality, $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}'$. For the second statement, consider $\mathcal{D} \cup \{B\}$, then this has FIP, because $B \cap A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n = B \cap \left(\bigcap_{j=1}^n A_j \right)_{j \in \mathcal{D}} \neq \emptyset$. ■

So $\mathcal{D} \cup \{B\}$ has FIP $\subseteq \mathcal{D}$. By maximality, $\mathcal{D} \cup \{B\} = \mathcal{D}$, $eB \in \mathcal{D}$, $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}^*$. For each λ , $\{p_{i_\lambda}(A) : A \in \mathcal{D}^*\}$ has FIP. Thus, $\{(\pi_\lambda(A))^- : A \in \mathcal{D}^*\} \subset X_\lambda$ has FIP, so since X_λ is compact, $\bigcap \{(\pi_\lambda(A))^- : A \in \mathcal{D}\} \neq \emptyset$. Choose $x_\lambda \in$ this set. Set $x_0 = \{x_\lambda\} \in X = \prod X_\lambda$. Want to show that $x_0 \in \bigcap \{C : C \in \mathcal{C}\}$, i.e., want $x_0 \in C$ for each $C \in \mathcal{C}$, suffices to show that $x_0 \notin C'$, which is open, for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$. So it suffices to show that for any \mathcal{O} in base for product topology, if $x_0 \in \mathcal{O}$, then $\mathcal{O} \cap C$, $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{U}_{\lambda_1} \times \mathcal{U}_{\lambda_2} \times \dots \times \mathcal{U}_{\lambda_n} \times \prod_{\lambda \neq \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n} J_\lambda$, with $\mathcal{U}_{\lambda_j} \in J_{\lambda_j}$. By the definition of x_0 , $x_{\lambda_j} \in \bigcap \{(\pi_{\lambda_j}(A))^- : A \in \mathcal{D}^*\}$, for $j = 1, \dots, n$. That is, for all $A \in \mathcal{D}^*$, $\mathcal{U}_{\lambda_j} \cap \pi_{\lambda_j}(A) \neq \emptyset$. In other words, for all $A \in \mathcal{D}^*$, $A \cap \pi_{\lambda_j}^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_{\lambda_j}) \neq \emptyset$. Thus, $\pi_{\lambda_j}^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_{\lambda_j}) = \mathcal{D}^*$. Then, $\bigcap_{j=1}^n \pi_{\lambda_j}^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_{\lambda_j}) \in \mathcal{D}^*$, this intersection is just \mathcal{O} , so $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{D}^* \supseteq \mathcal{C}$, so $\mathcal{O} \cap C \neq \emptyset$ for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$. ■

Note 1.2.1. Tychonoff's Theorem is equivalent to the axiom of choice. Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of sets, $\mathcal{C} = \{X_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$. Choose one element that is not in any X_λ , e.g ω = set of all subsets of $\bigcup X_\lambda$. Let $Y_\lambda = X_\lambda \cup \{\omega\}$, set $\mathcal{T}_\lambda = \{X_\lambda, \{\omega\}, Y_\lambda, \emptyset\}$. Then, let $Y = \prod_{\lambda \in \Lambda} Y_\lambda$, with the product topology. By Tychons, Y is compact. Consider $\{\pi_\lambda^{-1}(X_\lambda)\}$. Claim that this has FIP, where the inside of the set braces is closed. Given $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, $\pi_{\lambda_1}^{-1}(X_{\lambda_1}) \cap \pi_{\lambda_2}^{-1}(X_{\lambda_2}) \cap \dots \cap \pi_{\lambda_n}^{-1}(X_{\lambda_n})$. For $j = 1, \dots, n$, choose $x_{\lambda_j} \in X_{\lambda_j}$. Define $x \in \prod Y_\lambda$ by $x_\lambda = x_{\lambda_j}$ if $\lambda = \lambda_j, \dots$ got too long.

1.3 Compactness in Metric Spaces

Note 1.3.1. Let (X, d) be a metric space, let $A \subseteq X$, and assume that \bar{A} is compact for the relative topology. Then, for any $\epsilon > 0$, consider $\{\text{Ball}(x, \epsilon) : x \in A\} \supseteq \bar{A}$, with \bar{A} is compact, so there is a finite subcover of \bar{A} , and so of A .

Definition 1.3.1. A subset A of a metric space (X, d) is said to be totally bounded if for any $\epsilon > 0$, it call be covered by a finite number of ϵ -balls.

Theorem 1.3.1. Any subset of a compact subset of a metric space is totally bounded.

Theorem 1.3.2. *If A is totally bounded subset of a metric space, then \bar{A} is totally bounded.*

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given, cover A by open $\text{Ball}(x_1, \frac{\epsilon}{2}), \dots, \text{Ball}(x_n, \frac{\epsilon}{2})$. Then, $\text{Ball}(x_1, \epsilon), \dots, \text{Ball}(x_n, \epsilon)$ cover \bar{A} . ■

Theorem 1.3.3. *A metric that is not complete can be compact.*

Proof. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy sequence in X (which is not complete) that does not have a limit. For each $x \in X$, it is not a limit of $\{x_n\}$, so there is an ϵ_x and an N_x such that for all $n > N_x$, there is $m > n$ so $x_m \notin \text{Ball}(x, 2\epsilon_x)$. By Cauchy, there is N so that if $m, n > N$, then $d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$, then for $m > N$, $m \geq N_\epsilon$, $x_m \in \text{Ball}(x, \epsilon)$. The $\text{Ball}(x, \epsilon_x)$ for an open cover of X , so if X were compact, there would be a finite subcover of X , $\text{Ball}(x_1, \epsilon_{x_1}), \dots, \text{Ball}(x_n, \epsilon_{x_n})$, so $\{x_n\}$ asdksjads aksd ja finite number of values, so by Cauchy, it will converge, which is a contradiction. ■

Theorem 1.3.4. *If X is complete, if $A \subset X$ is totally bounded, then \bar{A} is compact.*

Proof. Proof of first theorem. Let \mathcal{C} be an open cover, we want to find a finite subcover. Cover X by a finite number of balls of radius 1. If each B_j can be covered by a finite subcover of this collection, then get a finite subcover for X itself. At least one of the balls can be covered by a finite subcover, call it B' . ■

Theorem 1.3.5. *Let (X, d) be a complete metric space. Then, if (X, d) is totally bounded then it is compact.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{C} be an open cover of X . We need to show it has a finite subcover. Suppose it does not. Let B_1^1, \dots, B_n^1 be closed balls of radius 1 that cover X . Since there is no finite subcover of X , there is at least one j such that B_j^1 is not finitely covered by \mathcal{C} . Set $A_1 = B_j^1$. Cover A_1 by a finite number of closed balls of radius $\frac{1}{2}$, $B_1^2, \dots, B_{n_2}^2$. Then, there is at least one j so that $A_1 \cap B_j^2$ is not finitely covered by \mathcal{C} . Let $A_2 = B_j^2 \cap A_1 \neq \emptyset$, diameter of $A_2 \leq 1$. Cover A_2 by a finite number of closed balls of radius $\frac{1}{4}$, $B_1^3, \dots, B_{n_3}^3$. At least one of the $A_2 \cap B_j^3$ cannot be finitely covered by \mathcal{C} , call that one A_3 , etc. Diameter $A_3 \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Get a sequence $\{A_n\}$ of closed sets $A_n \supseteq A_{n+1}$, diameter $A_n \rightarrow 0$. For each n , choose $x_n \in A_n$. Then $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. By completeness, $\{x_n\}$ converges, say to x_* . Since \mathcal{C} is a cover, there is $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x_* \in \mathcal{O}$. Thus, there is $\epsilon > 0$

such that $\text{Ball}(x_*, \epsilon) \leq \mathcal{O}$. Since $\{x_n\}$ converges to x_* , there is N such that $x_n \in \text{Ball}(x_*, \frac{\epsilon}{2})$ for $n \geq N$, but there is N' such that if $n \geq N'$ then $\text{diam}(A_n) \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}$, so $A_n \subseteq \text{Ball}(x_*, \epsilon) \subseteq \mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{C}$, ie A_n is covered by a finite subcover. Contradiction. ■

Corollary 1.3.6. *Let (X, d) be a complete metric space, let $A \subseteq X$, with A totally bounded. Then \bar{A} is compact.*

Corollary 1.3.7. *$[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, the first is compact. Any closed bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^n is compact.*

Example 1.3.1. Let X be a set, and let (M, d) be a metric space. Let $B_b(X, M)$ be the set of all bounded functions from X to M . Metric $d_\infty(f, g) = \sup\{d(f(x), g(x)) : x \in X\}$, let \mathcal{T} be a topology for X , consider $C_b(X^\mathcal{T}, M) =$ continuous functions in $B_b(X, M)$. What are the compact subsets of C_b ? What are the totally bounded subsets. Let J be a totally bounded subset of $C_b(X, M)$. Then, given $\epsilon > 0$, we can find $g_1, \dots, g_n \in J$ such the $\text{Ball}(g_j, \epsilon)$, $j = 1, \dots, n$ cover J . Given any $x \in X$, such taht g_1, \dots, g_n are continuous, there are open sets, $\mathcal{O}_1, \dots, \mathcal{O}_n$, with $x \in \mathcal{O}_j$, for all j such that if $y \in \mathcal{O}_j$, then $d(g_j(x), g_j(y)) < \epsilon$, let $\mathcal{O} = \bigcap_{j=1}^n \mathcal{O}_j$, such that $x \in \mathcal{O}$. Then for any $y \in \mathcal{O}$, $d(g_j(x), g_j(y)) < \epsilon$ for all j . Then for $f \in \mathcal{T}$, there is a j with $d_\infty(f, g_j) < \epsilon$, and so for $y \in \mathcal{O}$, $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq d(f(x), g_j(x)) + d(g_j(x), g_j(y)) + d(g_j(y), f(y)) < 3\epsilon$. Thus, given $x \in X$, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is $\mathcal{O} \in J$, $x \in \mathcal{O}$ such that for $y \in \mathcal{O}$ has $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$, for all $f \in J$. The family f is equicontinuous at x . Since it is true for all x , we say that f is an equicontinuous set of functions. Also, for fixed x , given $f \in F$, there is g with $f \in \text{Ball}(g_j, \epsilon)$, so that $d(f(x), g_j(x)) < \epsilon$, i.e., $\{f(x) : f \in F\} \subseteq M$ is covered by the balls $\text{Ball}(g_j(x), \epsilon)$, so it is totally bounded. Hence, F is pointwise totally bounded.

Theorem 1.3.8. *(Core of the Arzeli-Ascoli Theorem) Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be compact. Let $F \subseteq C(X, M)$. If F is equicontinuous and pointwise totally bounded, then F is totally bounded for d_∞ .*

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Then, by equicontinuity, for each $x \in X$, there is an open set \mathcal{O}_x , such that $x \in \mathcal{O}_x$ such that if $y \in \mathcal{O}_x$, then for all $f \in F$, we have $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$. The \mathcal{O}_x 's form an open cover of X , so there is a finite subcover $\mathcal{O}_{x_1}, \dots, \mathcal{O}_{x_n}$. For each $j = 1, \dots, n$, $\{f(x_j) : f \in F\}$ is totally bounded, so there is a finite subset, S_j such that the ϵ -balls about the points of S_j cover the aforementioned set. Let $S = \bigcup_j S_j$, a finite set in M . Let $\Psi = \{\psi :$

$\{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow S\}$ a finite set. For each $\psi \in \Psi$, let $A_\psi = \{f \in F : f(x_j) \in \text{Ball}(\psi(j) \in S, \epsilon)\}$. The A_ψ 's cover F . If $f, g \in A_\psi$, for any x , there is $y \in X$, there is j so that $y \in \mathcal{O}_{x_j}$. Then $d(f(x), g(x)) \leq d(f(y), f(x_j))(\leq \epsilon) + d(x_j < \epsilon, g_{x_j} \leq \epsilon)(\leq 2\epsilon) + d(g(x_j), g(y)) \leq \epsilon < 4\epsilon$, i.e. $\text{diameter}(A_\psi) < 4\epsilon$. ■

Theorem 1.3.9. (Arzela-Ascoli): Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a complete metric space. Then, $F \subseteq C(X, M)$ is compact in d_∞ if it is closed and equicontinuous and pointwise totally bounded.

Definition 1.3.2. Locally compact spaces. A topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) is locally compact if for each $x \in X$, there is a $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{T}$, $x \in \mathcal{O}$, $\bar{\mathcal{O}}$ is compact.

1.4 Locally Compact Hausdorff Spaces

Note 1.4.1. LCH := “locally compact Hausdorff”

(X, \mathcal{T}) be a LCH space.

Lemma 1.4.1. Let $C \subseteq X$ be compact. Then there is open \mathcal{O} with $C \subseteq \mathcal{O}$, $\bar{\mathcal{O}}$ compact.

Proof. For each $x \in C$, let \mathcal{O}_x be open with $x \in \mathcal{O}_x$, $\bar{\mathcal{O}_x}$ compact. $\{\mathcal{O}_x\}_{x \in C}$ covers C , so there is a finite subcover $\mathcal{O}_{x_1}, \dots, \mathcal{O}_{x_n}$. Let $\mathcal{O} = \cup_{j=1}^n \mathcal{O}_{x_j}$, so $C \subseteq \mathcal{O}$, $\bar{\mathcal{O}} = \cup_{j=1}^n \bar{\mathcal{O}_{x_j}}$ is compact. ■

Theorem 1.4.2. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a LCH. Let $C = X$ be compact, \mathcal{O} open, $C \subseteq \mathcal{O}$. Then there is open \mathcal{U} , $C \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, $\bar{\mathcal{U}}$ compact, $\bar{\mathcal{U}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}$.

Proof. By the previous lemma, we can choose \mathcal{O}_1 , $C \subseteq \mathcal{O}_1 \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}_1}$, the last of which is compact. Let $\mathcal{O}_2 = \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{O}_1$, see $C \subseteq \mathcal{O}_2 \subseteq \mathcal{O}$, where \mathcal{O}_2 is compact. So we can assume \mathcal{O} has compact closure. $C \subseteq \mathcal{O} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}}$. Let $B = \bar{\mathcal{O}} \setminus \mathcal{O}$, closed $\subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}}$. C, B are disjoint compact subsets of $\bar{\mathcal{O}}$. Because $\bar{\mathcal{O}}$ is compact, so normal, we can find disjoint relatively open $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{O}}$, with $C \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, $B \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. Then, \mathcal{V}' is closed, $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{V}'$. Thus, $\bar{\mathcal{U}} \subseteq \mathcal{V}'$, so $\bar{\mathcal{U}} \cap B = \emptyset$. Thus, $\bar{\mathcal{U}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{O}$. ■

Theorem 1.4.3. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be LCH. Let $C \subseteq X$ be compact, \mathcal{O} open, $C \subseteq \mathcal{O}$. Then there is a continuous $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ with $f(x) = 1$, for $x \in C$ and $f(x) = 0$ for $x \notin \mathcal{O}$.

Proof. Choose open \mathcal{U} with $C \subseteq \mathcal{U} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{U}}$ (compact) $\subseteq \mathcal{O}$. Choose \mathcal{V} with $C \subseteq \mathcal{V} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{V}} \subseteq \mathcal{U} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{U}} \subseteq \mathcal{O}$, $\bar{\mathcal{U}} - \mathcal{V}$ closed in \mathcal{U} , disjoint from C , so by Urysohn's Lemma, there exists $\tilde{f} : \bar{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, such that when $x \in C$, it evaluates to 1 and it evaluates to 0 for $x \in \bar{\mathcal{U}} - \mathcal{V}$. Let f be defined by $f(x) = \tilde{f}(x)$ if $x \in \bar{\mathcal{U}}$ and $f(x) = 0$ if $x \notin \bar{\mathcal{U}}$. We need f to be continuous. If $x \in \mathcal{U}$, then f is continuous at x , as \tilde{f} is. If $x \notin \mathcal{U}$, then $x \notin \bar{\mathcal{V}}$, so $x \in X \setminus \bar{\mathcal{V}}$ open, on $X \setminus \bar{\mathcal{V}}$, $f(x) = 0$. ■

Definition 1.4.1. For (X, \mathcal{T}) LCH, let $C_c(X)$ be the set of continuous \mathbb{R} -valued functions on X “of compact support”, i.e. there is a compact set outside of which $f \equiv 0$. $C_c(X)$ is an algebra for pointwise operations. $e, f, g \in C_c(X)$, then $f + g, fg, rf (r \in \mathbb{R}) \in C_c(X)$.

Note 1.4.2. $C_c(X) \subseteq C_b(X), \|\cdot\|_\infty$, usually not complete if X is not compact. Its completion is the algebra of continuous functions that “vanish at infinity,” $f \in C_\infty(X)$ if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, there is a compact set C_ϵ such that $|f(x)| \leq \epsilon$ for $x \notin C_\epsilon$. $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ is locally compact.

Chapter 2

Measure Theory!!!

Note 2.0.1. Recall the first day of lecture: $C([0, 1])$, for the L^1 and L^2 norms, we can have a Cauchy sequence. We want to figure out a way to accurately find the integral in these troublesome cases. We want a set and a family of subsets \mathcal{F} , and some function $\mu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$. We want additivity, i.e. if $E, F \in \mathcal{F}$, and if E and F are disjoint and $E \oplus F \in \mathcal{F}$, then $\mu(E \cup F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F)$. Also if $E, F \in \mathcal{F}$, $E \subseteq F$, $F = E \oplus (F \setminus E)$ (let \oplus be the disjoint union), so $\mu(F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F \setminus E)$, i.e. $\mu(F \setminus E) = \mu(F) - \mu(E)$.

Definition 2.0.1. Let X be a set and let R be a nonempty family of subsets of X . We say that R is a ring if R is closed under finite unions and differences of elements $E \setminus F$. This implies closed under finite intersection over $E \cap F = E \setminus (E \setminus F)$. If also $X \in R$, call \mathcal{R} an algebra (or a field).

Definition 2.0.2. A finitely added measure or a ring R of sets is a finite $\mu : R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ such that if $E, F \in R$ and are disjoint, then $\mu(E \oplus F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F)$

Definition 2.0.3. A ring R is said to be a σ -ring if to so closed under taking countable unions of elements fo R , so we can take countable intersections.

Definition 2.0.4. A σ -algebra: $E = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$, then $\bigcap E_n = E \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (E \setminus E_n)$

Definition 2.0.5. Let R be a σ -ring. By a measure on R we mean a function $\mu : R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+, \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{+\infty\}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^n$, Banach spaces, which is countable additive, i.e. if $\{E_n\}_n^{\infty}$ is a disjoint family of elements in R . Then,

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

Theorem 2.0.1. Let \mathcal{S} be a collection of rings (or algebras, or σ -algebras, or σ -rings, etc) of a given set X . Then the intersection of these rings is a ring (or ...).

Definition 2.0.6. Given any collection of subsets of X , there is a smallest ring (...) that contains the collection, namely the intersection of all contains rings, etc.

Definition 2.0.7. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space.

1. The σ -ring generated by \mathcal{T} is called the σ -ring of Borel subsets of X .

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a LCH space, then the σ -ring generated by the compact subsets is called the σ -ring of Borel sets.

Note 2.0.2. $X = \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{S} = \{[a, b) : a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b\}$

Note 2.0.3. Let $P = \{[a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R} : a < b\}$.

Definition 2.0.8. Let X be a set, P a collection of subsets. We say that P is a pre-ring if

1. For $E, F \in P$, we have that $E \cap F \in P$
2. For $E, F \in P$, there are $G_1, \dots, G_n \in P$, such that $E \setminus F = \bigoplus^n G_j$.

Note 2.0.4. Let α be a non-decreasing left-continuous function $\alpha : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, if $s < t$, then $\alpha(s) \leq \alpha(t)$. Now, given α , define $\mu_\alpha([a, b)) = \alpha(b) - \alpha(a) \geq 0$.

Theorem 2.0.2. μ_α on P is countably additive.

Proof. Need: if $[a_0, b_0) = \bigoplus_{n=1}^\infty [a_n, b_n)$, then $\mu_\alpha([a_0, b_0)) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \mu_\alpha([a_n, b_n))$. Need to show \geq : Suffices to show that for each n , $\mu_\alpha([a_0, b_0)) \geq \sum_{j=1}^n \mu_\alpha([a_j, b_j))$. we know that the $[a_j, b_j)$ are disjoint. We can renumber these intervals so that $a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_n$. Since disjoint, $b_j \leq a_{j+1}$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$, $\alpha(b_1) - \alpha(a_1) + \alpha(b_2) - \alpha(a_2) + \dots + \alpha(b_n) - \alpha(a_n) = -\alpha(a_1) + (\alpha(b_1) - \alpha(a_2)) (\leq 0) + \dots + (\alpha(b_{n-1}) - \alpha(a_n)) (\leq 0) + \alpha(b_n) \leq \alpha(b_n) - \alpha(a_1) \leq \alpha(b_0) - \alpha(a_0) = \mu_\alpha([a_0, b_0))$. We now need $\mu_\alpha([a_0, b_0)) \leq \sum_{j=1}^\infty \mu_\alpha([a_j, b_j))$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Choose ϵ_j 's, $\epsilon_j > 0$, $\sum_{j=1}^\infty \epsilon_j \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}$, where $\epsilon_j = \frac{\epsilon}{2^{j+1}}$. Choose $b'_0 < b_0$, such that (since α is left continuous), $\alpha(b'_0) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \geq \alpha(b_0)$, for each j , choose $a'_j < a_j$ such that $\alpha(a'_j) + \epsilon_j \geq \alpha(a_j)$, $\alpha(a'_j) < \alpha(a_j)$. Then, $[a_0, b'_0] \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^\infty (a'_j, b_j)$, so there is a finite subcover. Remember finite subcover \mathcal{C} as follows. Let (a'_1, b_1) be the interval in \mathcal{C} , with smallest a_1 . Assume $b_1 \leq b'_0$. Let (a'_2, b_2) the interval in \mathcal{C} that contains b_1 and has smallest a'_2 , so $a'_2 < b_2$. Continue $\dots (a'_j, b_j)$, $a_{j+1} < b_j$. As soon as $b_j > b'_0$, STOP. $\mu_\alpha([a_0, b_0]) = \alpha(b_0) - \alpha(a_0) \leq \alpha(b'_0) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} - \alpha(a_0) \leq \alpha(b'_0) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} - \alpha(a'_0) \leq \alpha(b_n) - \alpha(a'_0) + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$, $b_n > b'_0$, $a'_{j+1} \leq b_j$, $\alpha(a'_{j+1}) \leq \alpha(b_j)$, $\alpha(b_j) - \alpha(a'_j) \geq 0$. ■

Insert stuff in picture above.

Definition 2.0.9. A premeasure is a function μ defined on a semiring P , $\mu : P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$, and is countably additive. Each μ_α is a pre-measure.

Theorem 2.0.3. $\mu : P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ just finitely added. Then, if $E \in P$ contains $\bigoplus_{j=1}^n F_j$. Then, $\mu(E) \geq \sum \mu(F_j)$.

Proof. $E = \bigoplus H_n \oplus E_n \oplus F_j$, $\mu(E) = \sum \mu(H_n)(\geq 0) + \sum \mu(E \cap F_j)(= F_j)$ ■

Definition 2.0.10. Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of sets

$[a_0, b'_0] \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^n (a'_j, b_j)$ overlapping, $b_j > a'_{j+1}$, $a'_1 < a_0$, $b_n > b'_0$. Then $\alpha(b'_0) - \alpha(a_0) \leq \sum \alpha(b_j) - \alpha(a_j)$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum \alpha(b_j) - \alpha(a_j) &= \alpha(b_n) - (\alpha(a'_n) - \alpha(b_{n-1}))(< 0) - \dots - (\alpha(a'_2) - \alpha(b_1))(< 0) - \alpha(a'_1) \\ &\geq \alpha(b_n) - \alpha(a'_1) \\ &\geq \alpha(b'_0) - \alpha(a_0). \end{aligned}$$

■

We saw that if $E \supseteq \bigoplus_{j=1}^n F_j$, for μ on every P , then $\mu(E) \geq \sum \mu(F_j)$.

Definition 2.0.11. Let \mathcal{F} be a family of subsets of X . let $\mu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$, we say that μ is countably additive if whenever we have that $E \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^\infty F_j$, then $\mu(E) \leq \sum \mu(F_j)$.

Definition 2.0.12. μ on \mathcal{F} is monotone if $E \supseteq F$ implies that $\mu(E) \geq \mu(F)$.

Theorem 2.0.4. Let P be a semiring, $\mu : P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, countably additive $E = \bigoplus_{j=1}^\infty F_j$. Then μ is countably subadditive, $E \subseteq \bigcup F_j$ want $\mu(E) \leq \sum \mu(F_j)$.

Proof. Then, $E \subseteq \cup F_j \cap E$, and by μ monotone, $\mu(F_j \cap E) \leq \mu(F_j)$, so it suffices to show that for $E = \cup^\infty F_j$, then disjointage: set H_j (not really in P) = $F_j \setminus \cup_{k < j} F_k$. $H_1 = F_1$. Then, $E = \bigoplus H_j$. Note that $H_j = \bigoplus_{k=1}^{n_k} G_{jk}$, with $G_{jk} \in P$. Thus, $E = \bigoplus G_{jk} \in P$. Next, by the countable additivity of μ , we must have that:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(E) &= \sum_{j,k} \mu(G_{jk}) = \sum_j \sum_{k=1}^{n_j} \mu(G_{jk}) \\ &\leq \sum_j \mu(F_j). \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\bigoplus_k G_{jk} \subseteq F_j$ and $\sum_k \mu(G_{jk}) \leq \mu(F_j)$. ■

Let \mathcal{F} be a family of subsets of a set X , and let μ be any function from $\mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{+\infty\}$. For any $A \subseteq X$, set $\mu^*(A) = \inf\{\sum \mu(F_j) : F_j \in \mathcal{F}, A \subseteq \cup_{j=1}^\infty F_j\}$. Let $\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F}) = \{A \subseteq X : \exists \{F_j\}_{j=1}^\infty \subseteq \mathcal{F}, \text{ with } A \subseteq \cup_{j=1}^\infty F_j\}$. It is clear that $\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F})$ is a σ -ring, this is hereditary (i.e. if $A \in \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F})$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $B \in \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F})$). Finally, note that the F'_j s cover A . Set $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$.

Example 2.0.1. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$, then let \mathcal{F} be a collection of all finite subsets of \mathbb{R} , $\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F}) =$ countable subsets of \mathbb{R} .

Example 2.0.2. Properties:

1. Monotone.
2. μ^* is countably sub-additive.

Proof. (2): Let $A, \{B_j\}_{j=1}^\infty$ be in $\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F})$, $A \subseteq \cup B_j$. Want $\mu^*(A) \leq \sum \mu^*(B_j)$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given, choose $\{\epsilon_j > 0\}$ with $\sum_{j=1}^\infty \epsilon_j < \epsilon$, for each j , choose $\{F_k^j\}_{k=1}^\infty$ with $B_j \subseteq \cup_k F_k^j$ but $\sum_k \mu(F_k^j) \leq \mu^*(B_j) + \epsilon_j$. Then, $A \subseteq \cup_{j,k} F_k^j$, so

$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(A) &\leq \sum_{j,k} \mu(F_k^j) = \sum_j \sum_k \mu(F_k^j) \\ &\leq \sum_j (\mu^*(B_j) + \epsilon_j) \dots \end{aligned}$$

■

Definition 2.0.13. Let \mathcal{H} be a hereditary σ -ring of subsets of X . By an outer measure on \mathcal{H} , we mean a finite $\mathcal{V} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{+\infty\}$ that is monotone and countably subadditive, $\mathcal{V}(\emptyset) = 0$.

Let P be a semiring, and let μ be a premeasure on P , i.e. μ is countably additive. Let μ^* be the corresponding outer measure on $\mathcal{H}(P)$.

Theorem 2.0.5. For any $E \in P$, $\mu^*(E) = \mu(E)$, i.e. μ^* is an exterior of μ to all of $\mathcal{H}(P)$.

Proof. $\mu^*(E) = \inf\{\sum \mu(F_j) : E \subseteq \cup F_j\}$, so $\mu(E) \leq \mu^*(E)$, but μ is countably additive, so $\mu(E) \leq \sum \mu(F_j)$. For E_n , $\mu(E) = \mu^*(E)$. ■

Let \mathcal{V} be an outer measure on \mathcal{H} . Let $E \in \mathcal{H}$. We say that E splits all sets in \mathcal{H} if for any $A \in \mathcal{H}$, $\mathcal{V}(A) = \mathcal{V}(A \cap E) + \mathcal{V}(A \setminus E)$ (Note that $A = A \cap E \oplus A \setminus E$. By subadditive, we have \leq , so we have that $\mathcal{V}(A) \geq$. Let $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V}) = \{E \in \mathcal{H} : E \text{ splits all sets in } \mathcal{H}\}$, with $\emptyset \in \mathcal{S}$.

Theorem 2.0.6. $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V})$ is a σ -ring, and $\mathcal{V}|_{\mathcal{S}}$ is countably additive and therefore a measure.

Proof. Let $E, F \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V})$. We want $E \cup F \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V})$. Let $A \in \mathcal{H}$, we want that $\mathcal{V}(A) \geq \mathcal{V}(A \cap (E \cup F)) + \mathcal{V}(A \setminus (E \cup F)) = \mathcal{V}(A \cap E \oplus (A \setminus E) \cap F) \leq \mathcal{V}(A \cap E) + \mathcal{V}((A \setminus E) \cap F) + \mathcal{V}((A \setminus E) \setminus F) = \mathcal{V}(A \cap E) + \mathcal{V}(A \setminus E) = \mathcal{V}(A)$, because $F \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V})$, $E \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V})$.

Now, we want to show that if $E, F \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V})$ the $E \setminus F \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{V})$. Let $A \in \mathcal{H}$. We want $\mathcal{V}(A) = \mathcal{V}(A \cap (E \setminus F)) + \mathcal{V}(A \setminus (E \setminus F)) = \mathcal{V}((A \cap E) \setminus F) + \mathcal{V}((A \setminus E) \cup (A \cap F)) = \mathcal{V}((A \setminus E) \oplus (A \cap F \cap E)) \leq \mathcal{V}((A \cap E) \setminus F) + \mathcal{V}(A \setminus E) + \mathcal{V}(A \cap F \cap E) = \mathcal{V}(A \cap E) + \mathcal{V}(A \setminus E) = \mathcal{V}(A)$. ■

\mathcal{H} is hereditary σ -ring of subsets of X , ν is an outer measure defined on \mathcal{H} , $M(\nu) = \{E \in \mathcal{H} : \nu(A \cap E) + \nu(A \setminus E) = \nu(A), \forall A \in \mathcal{H}\}$. We saw that $M(\nu)$, the ν -measurable sets is a ring. We now claim that if $E, F \in M(\nu)$, $E \cap F = \emptyset$, then for all $A \in \mathcal{H}$, $\nu(A \cap E \oplus A \cap F) = \nu(A \cap E) + \nu(A \cap F)$.

Proof. E splits $A \cap (E \oplus F)$, or equivalently $\nu((A \cap (E \oplus F)) \cap E) + \nu((A \cap (E \oplus F)) \setminus E) = \nu((A \cap E) \oplus (A \cap F))$. ■

Theorem 2.0.7. $M(\nu)$ is a σ -ring, and ν is countably additive on $M(\nu)$.

Proof. Let $\{E_j\}_{j=1}^\infty \subseteq M(\nu)$. Let $G = \bigcup_{j=1}^\infty E_j$. We want to show that $G \in M(\nu)$. Given A , we need to show that G splits A . Can disjointize the E_j 's, so $G = \bigoplus_{j=1}^\infty F_j$, $F_j \in M(\nu)$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(A) &= \nu(A \cap \bigoplus_{j=1}^n F_j) + \nu(A \setminus \bigoplus_{j=1}^n F_j) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \nu(A \cap F_j) + \nu(A \setminus G) \text{ by nu monotone} \\ &\geq \sum_{j=1}^n \nu(A \cap F_j) + \nu(A \setminus G) \text{ by nu monotone} \\ \nu(A) &\geq \sum_{j=1}^\infty \nu(A \cap F_j) + \nu(A \setminus G) \geq (\text{countably additive}) \nu(A \cap G) + \nu(A \setminus G) \geq \nu(A). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $M(\nu)$ is a σ -ring. ■

Note 2.0.5. For a set X , define

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(A) &= 1, A \neq \emptyset \\ \nu(\emptyset) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.0.8. Let (\mathcal{P}, μ) be a premeasure. Let μ^* be the corresponding outer measure on $\mathcal{H}(\mathcal{P})$. Then, $\mathcal{P} \subseteq M(\mu^*)$. Define

$$\mu^*(A) = \inf \left\{ \sum \mu(E_j) : E_j \in \mathcal{P}, A \subseteq \bigcup E_j \right\}.$$

Proof. Let $E, F \in \mathcal{P}$, $E \setminus F = \bigoplus_{j=1}^n G_j$, $G_j \in \mathcal{P}$. Hence, $\mu^*(E) = \mu^*(E \cap F) + \mu^*(E \setminus F)$, so $\mu(E) = \mu(E \cap F) + \mu^*(E \setminus F)$. Then, let $E \in \mathcal{P}$, then let $A \in \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{P})$, we need $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \setminus E)$. Now, let $\epsilon > 0$ be given, and choose $\{F_j\}_{j=1}^n \subset \mathcal{P}$, $A \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^n F_j$, $\mu^*(A) + \epsilon \geq \sum_{j=1}^n \mu(F_j)$. Then, $\epsilon + \mu(A) \geq \sum_{j=1}^n \mu(F_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n \mu(F_j \cap E) + \sum_{j=1}^n \mu^*(F_j \setminus E) = \sum \mu(\bigcup F_j \cap E) \geq \mu^*(A \cap E)$ (monotone) + $\mu^*(A \setminus E)$ (countably additive) $\geq \mu^*(A)$. Since ϵ is arbitrary, $\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \setminus E)$. Hence, $E \in M(\mu^*)$. Thus, $\mathcal{P} \subseteq M(\mu^*)$. ■

$\mathcal{H}, \nu M(\nu)$. If $A \in M(\nu)$ and if $\nu(A) = 0$, then $A = \emptyset$, then for any $B \subseteq A$, $B \in M(\nu)$ (with $\nu(B) = 0$), “complete,” given any $D \in \mathcal{H}$, $\nu(D) \geq \nu(D \cap B) + \nu(D \setminus B)$, by monotone.

Note 2.0.6. If (\mathcal{P}, μ) is a premeasure then μ^* on $M(\mu^*)$ is a complete measure. Can restrict μ^* to the $\mathcal{S}(\mu) = \sigma$ -ring generated by \mathcal{P} , $\mathcal{S}(\mu) \subseteq M(\mu^*)$, but μ on $\mathcal{S}(\mu)$ need not be complete. For α a left-cont non-decreasing function, μ_α^* on $M(\mu_\alpha)$ is called a Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure, which

is complete its restriction to \mathcal{S} (\mathcal{P} is called a Borel-Stieltjes measure. Maybe not be complete. $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{P})$ are the Borel sets in \mathbb{R} . But different α 's maybe have different $M(\mu^*)$. When using just one measure on \mathbb{R} , we usually use $M(\mu_\alpha^*)$. When using many of the μ_α 's, use $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{P})$, because they are all defined on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{P})$, if considering α 's with $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} (\alpha(t) - \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \alpha(t)) = 1$. Then, the μ_α have $\mu_\alpha(\mathbb{R}) = 1$. The μ_α are the (Borel) probability measures on \mathbb{R} . Next, note that in the case of $\alpha(t) = t$, gives Lebesgue measuer on \mathbb{R} . It is the translation invariant.

$$[a, b), [a + c, b + c), b - a = (b + c) - (a + c).$$

Definition 2.0.14. A measure μ or σ -rings is said to be σ -finite if for all $E \in \mathcal{S}$, there are $\{F_j\} \subset \mathcal{S}$ with $\mu(F_j) < \infty$ and $E \subseteq \cup F_j$.

Theorem 2.0.9. For $\mu, \mathcal{S}, \mu^*, \mu^*(A) = \inf\{\sum \mu(E_j) : A \subseteq \cup^\infty E_j, E_j \in \mathcal{S}\}$, we can disjointize $A \subseteq \oplus F_j \sum \mu(F_j) \leq \sum \mu(E_j), \sum \mu(F_j) = \mu(\oplus F_j), \mu^* = \dots$

Theorem 2.0.10. Let (μ, \mathcal{S}, μ) be a measure space. Let $M(\mu^*)$ be the μ^* -measureable sets the $\mathcal{S} \subseteq M(\mu^*)$. We can then consider $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{S}_1 \subseteq M(\mu^*)$. Then, the restriction of μ^* to \mathcal{S}_1 is the largest extension of μ to \mathcal{S}_1 .

Proof. Let ν be another extension of μ to \mathcal{S} . Then, for $A \in \mathcal{S}_1$. ■

Midterm is on next Thursday :(
 $(\mathcal{P}, \mu), \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{P}), \mu^*, M(\mu^*) \supseteq \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{P})$ is a σ -ring. For any $A \in \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{P}), \mu^*(A) = \inf\{\mu^*(E) : E \in M(\mu^*), A \subseteq E\}$. Then, for each n , choose $E_n \supseteq A$ such that $\mu^*(E_n) \leq \mu^*(A) + 1/n$. Then, set $E = \bigcap E_n \supseteq A, \mu^*(E) = \mu^*(A)$.

Theorem 2.0.11. Assume that (\mathcal{P}, μ) is σ -finite. For all $A \in \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{P})$ there are $\{E_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}, \mu(E_n) < \infty$ and $A \subseteq \bigcup E_n$. Then, for any σ -ring $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{P}) \subseteq \mathcal{S} \subseteq M(\mu^*), \mu$ on \mathcal{S} on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{P})$, and any extension, μ' , of μ , then $\mu'(F) = \mu^*(F)$, for any $F \in \mathcal{S}$ (so extension μ' is unique).

Proof. Part 1: Assume that $F \in \mathcal{S}, F \subseteq E \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{P}), \mu(E) < \infty, E = E \cap F \oplus E \setminus F$. $\mu'(E) = \mu(E) = \mu^*(E \cap F) + \mu^*(E \setminus F) \geq \mu'(E \cap F) + \mu'(E \setminus F) = \mu'(E)$. But $\infty > \mu^*(E \cap F) \geq \mu'(E \cap F), \infty > \mu^*(E \setminus F) \geq \mu(E \setminus F)$. Thus, $\mu^*(E \cap F) = \mu'(E \cap F), \mu^*(F) = \mu'(F)$.

For general $F \in \mathcal{S}$, assume μ is σ -finite, then there exists $\{E_j\} : F \subseteq \bigcup E_j, \mu(E_j) < \infty$, can disjointize, so assume that $F \subseteq \oplus E_j$. Then, $\mu'(F) = \sum \mu'(F \cap E_j) = \sum \mu^*(F \cap E_j) = \mu^*(\oplus F \cap E_j) = \mu^*(F)$. ■

2.1 Continuity Properties of Measures

Theorem 2.1.1. Let (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) be a measure space. Let $\{E_j\} \subset \mathcal{S}$, increasing, i.e. $E_{j+1} \supseteq E_j$. Let $E = \bigcup^\infty E_j$. Then, $\mu(E) = \lim \mu(E_j)$.

Proof. $E = E_1 \oplus (E_2 \setminus E_1) \oplus (E_3 \setminus E_2) \cdots (E_{j+1} \setminus E_j)$. Hence, it must be the case that

$$\mu(E) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_{j+1} \setminus E_j) + \mu(E_1).$$

Then, $\mu(E_n) = \mu(E_1) + \mu(E_2 \setminus E_1) + \dots + \mu(E_n \setminus E_{n-1})$ partial sum. Thus, $\mu(E_n) \rightarrow \mu(E)$. ■

Theorem 2.1.2. $\{E_j\}, E_{j+1} \subseteq E_j, E = \bigcap E_j$. $\mu(E_j) \rightarrow \mu(E)$, and if $(\mu(E_1) < \infty)$, then $\mu(E_j) \rightarrow \mu(E)$.

Proof. See online notes (hopefully?). ■

Example 2.1.1. A counterexample, \mathbb{R}, M Lebesgue: $E_j = [j, \infty)$. $\mu(E_j) = \infty, \bigcap E_j = \emptyset \rightarrow 0$.

\mathbb{R} , Lebesgue measure, $\mu_\alpha, \alpha([a, b)) = b - a$. Translation movement.

$$\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow T$$

$$t \mapsto e^{2\pi i t},$$

fundamental domain $[0, 1)$, transfer Lebesgue measure restricted to $[0, 1)$ onto S^1 . Then, we get a rotation invariant measure on T , with $\mu(T) = 1$. In the group T , let G be the subgroup of elements of finite order, $\{e^{2\pi i \frac{m}{n}}, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. G is a countable subgroup (Dense in T). Consider $T/G = \{\text{cosets}\}$, which is uncountable. Let $A \subset T$ consist of a closure of one point for each coset

of G , each element of T is in one coset. Thus, $T = \bigoplus_{r \in G} rA$. Given $z \in T$, there is $a \in A$, in the same coset as z , i.e., $z = ra$. By translation of invariance, $\mu(rA) = \mu(A)$ for all $r \in G$, but G is countable,

$$1 = \mu(T) = \sum_{r \in G} \mu(rA) = \sum_{r \in G} \mu(A).$$

Hence, A is not measurable.

Note 2.1.1. Berkeley professor Solovey showed that you cannot show that there are non-measurable sets without something like the axiom of choice.