## 1 Differentiation

## 1.1 Derivatives of Measures

**Theorem 1.** Suppose  $\mu$  is a complex Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^1$  and

$$f(x) = \mu((-\infty, x)) \text{ for } x \in \mathbb{R}^1$$
 (1)

If  $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$  and A is a complex number, TFAE

- (a) f is differentiable at x and f'(x) = A.
- (b) For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\left|\frac{\mu(I)}{m(I)} - A\right| < \epsilon \tag{2}$$

for every open segment I that contains x and whose length is less than  $\delta$ . Note m is the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .

**Definition 1.1.** Let us fix a dimension k, denote the open ball with center  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and radius r > 0 by

$$B(x,r) = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^k : |y - x| < r \}$$

We associate to any Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  the quotients:

$$(Q_r\mu)(x) = \frac{\mu(B(x,r))}{m(B(x,r))}$$

Where m is the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

We define the **symmetric derivative** to be

$$(D\mu)(x) = \lim_{r \to 0} (Q_r\mu)(x)$$

**Definition 1.2.** Using the same notation as above we define the **maximal function**  $M\mu$ , for  $\mu \geq 0$ , to be defined by

$$(M\mu)(x) = \sup_{0 < r < \infty} (Q_r\mu)(x)$$

Remark. The maximal function of a complex Borel measure  $\mu$  is, by definition, its total variation  $|\mu|$ .

**Proposition 1.** The functions  $M\mu: \mathbb{R}^k \to [0, \infty]$  are lower semicontinuous, hence measurable.

*Proof.* Assume  $\mu \geq 0$ , and let  $\lambda > 0$  and  $E = \{M\mu > \lambda\}$ . Fix  $x \in E$ . Then there is an r > 0 such that:

$$\mu(B(x,r)) = tm(B(x,r))$$
 for some  $t > \lambda$ 

Indeed since  $\sup_{0 < r < \infty} \frac{\mu(B(x,r))}{m(B(x,r))} > \lambda$ . So for some r, we have  $\frac{\mu(B(x,r))}{m(B(x,r))} > \lambda$ . Letting  $t = \frac{\mu(B(x,r))}{m(B(x,r))}$  gives us the desired result.

Furthermore there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that:

$$(r+\delta)^k < \frac{r^k t}{\lambda}$$

If  $|y-x| < \delta$ , then  $B(y,r+\delta) \supseteq B(x,r)$ . Therefore

$$\mu(B(y,r+\delta)) \ge \mu(B(x,r)) = tm(B(x,r)) = t\left[\frac{r}{(r+\delta)^k}m(B(y,r+\delta)) > \lambda m(B(y,r+\delta))\right]$$

Thus  $B(x, \delta) \subseteq E$ . So E is open.

**Lemma 2.** If W is the union of a finite collection of balls  $B(x_i, r_i)$ , with  $i \le i \le N$ . Then there is a set  $S \subseteq \{1, ..., N\}$  so that:

(a) the balls  $B(x_i, r_i)$  with  $i \in S$  are disjoint,

(b)

$$W \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in S} B(x_i, 3r_i),$$

$$m(W) \le 3^k \sum_{i \in S} m(B(x_i, r)i).$$

Proof. Order the balls  $B_i = B(x_i, r_i)$  such that  $r_1 \ge r_2 \ge \cdots \ge r_N$ . Put  $i_1 = 1$ , discard all the  $B_j$  that intersect with  $B_{i_1}$ . Let  $B_{i_2}$  the first of our remaining balls, and discard all  $B_j$  with  $j > i_2$  that intersect  $B_{i_2}$ , and let  $B_{i_3}$  be the first of the remaining ones, etc...

This process stops after a finite number of steps, since we only have a finite collection of balls, and we let  $S = \{i_1, i_2, \ldots\}$ . (a) holds by definition and (c) follows from (b) since  $m(B(x_i, 3r_i)) = 3^k m(B(x_i, r_i))$ .

So we just need to show (b). But notice for every discarded  $B_j$ ,  $B_j \cap B_i \neq \emptyset$  for some  $i \in S$ , where  $r_i > r_j$ . Assume that  $X \in B_j \cap B_i$ . We see that for all  $x \in B_j$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} |x-x_i| &\leq |x-X| + |X-x_i| \\ &\leq |x-x_j| + |x_j-X| + |X-x_i| \\ &< r_j + r_j + r_i \text{ since } x, X \in B_j \text{ and } X \in B_i \\ &< 3r_i \text{ since } r_j \leq r_i \end{aligned}$$

So we see that  $B_j \subseteq B(x_i, 3r_i)$ . This gives us (b).

#### The maximal theorem

**Theorem 3.** If  $\mu$  is a complex Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and  $\lambda$  is a positive number, then

$$m\{M\mu > \lambda\} \le 3^k \lambda^{-1}||\mu|| \tag{i}$$

Here  $||\mu|| = |\mu|(\mathbb{R}^k)$  and  $m\{M\mu > \lambda\}$  is an abbreviation of  $m(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^k : (M\mu)(x) > \lambda\})$ 

*Proof.* Fix  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$ . Let K be a compact subset of the open set  $\{M\mu > \lambda\}$ . Each  $x \in K$  is the center of an open ball B for which

$$|\mu|(B) > \lambda m(B)$$

Some finite collection of these B's covers K and Lemma 2 tells us there is a disjoint subcollection  $\{B_1, \ldots, B_n\}$  such that:

$$m(K) \le 3^k \sum_{1}^n m(B_i) \le 3^k \lambda^{-1} \sum_{1}^n |\mu|(B_i) \le 3^l \lambda^{-1} ||\mu||$$

The disjointess of the  $B_i$ 's was used in the last inequality. So (i) follows by taking the supremum over all compact  $K \subseteq \{M\mu > \lambda\}$ .

Weak  $L^1$  If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^k)$  and  $\lambda > 0$ , then

$$m\{|f| > \lambda\} \le \lambda^{-1}||f||_1$$

because, if we let  $E = \{|f| > \lambda\}$ , we have:

$$\lambda m(E) \le \int_{R} |f| dm \le \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} |f| dm = ||f||_1$$

**Definition 1.3.** Any measurable function f for which:

$$\lambda m\{|f| > \lambda\}$$

is a bounded funtion of  $\lambda$  on  $(0,\infty)$  is said to belong to **weak**  $L^1$ 

So from above we see that the weak  $L^1$  contains  $L^1$ . But it is also larger since for example if we let  $f = \frac{1}{x}$  on (0,1), then for any  $\lambda > 0$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{x} > \lambda \iff x < \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

So we have  $\lambda \cdot m\{|f| > \lambda\} \le \lambda \cdot m(0, \frac{1}{\lambda}) = 1 < \infty$ . So  $\frac{1}{x}$  is weak  $L^1$ .

**Definition 1.4.** We associate to each  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^k)$  its maximal function  $Mf: \mathbb{R}^k \to [0, \infty]$  by setting

$$(Mf)(x) = \sup_{0 < r < \infty} \frac{1}{m(B_r)} \int_{B(x,r)} |f| \ dm$$

If we identify f with the measure  $\mu$  given by  $d\mu = f \ dm$ , we see that this defintion agrees with the previously defined  $M\mu$ . So theorem 3 states that the "maximal operator" M sends  $L^1$  to weak  $L^1$ , with abound (namely  $3^k$ ) that depends only on the space  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , i.e. For every  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^k)$  and every  $\lambda > 0$ 

$$m\{Mf > \lambda\} \le 3^k \lambda^{-1} ||f||_1$$

## Lebesgue points

**Definition 1.5.** If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^k)$ , any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  for which it is true that

$$\lim_{r \to 0} \frac{1}{m(B_r)} \int_{B(x,r)} |f(y) - f(x)| \ dm(y) = 0$$

is called a **Lebesgue point** of f.

For example this equation holds if f is continuous at the point x. More generally this equation holds, if the averages of |f - f(x)| are not too small on the balls centered at x, i.e. The Lebesgue points of f are the points where f doesn't oscillate too much.

**Theorem 4.** If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^k)$ , then almost every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is a Lebesgue point of f.

Proof. Let

$$(T, f)(x) = \frac{1}{m(B_r)} \int_{B(x,r)} |f - f(x)| dm \text{ for } x \in \mathbb{R}^k, r > 0$$

Put

$$(Tf)(x) = \lim_{r \to 0} \sup_{x \to 0} (T_r f)(x)$$

Pick y > 0, let  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . By a theorem from chap 3, there exists  $g \in C(\mathbb{R}^k)$  so that  $||f - g||_1 < \frac{1}{n}$ . Let h = f - g. Since g is continuous, Tg = 0, and since:

$$(T_r h)(x) = \frac{1}{B_r} \int_{B(x,r)} |h - h(x)| dm$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{B_r} \int_{B(x,r)} (|h| + |h(x)|) dm$$

$$= (\frac{1}{B_r} \int_{B(x,r)} |h| dm) + |h(x)|$$

So we have:

$$Th \leq Mh + |h|$$

But since  $T_r f \leq T_r g + T_r h$  it follows that

$$Tf < Mh + |h|$$

Therefore

$$\{Tf > 2y\} \subseteq \underbrace{\{Mh > y\} \cup \{|h| > y\}}_{E(y,n)}$$

Since  $||h||_1 < \frac{1}{n}$ , by theorem 3 we can see that

$$m(E(y,n)) \le \frac{3^k + 1}{yn}$$

Note  $\{Tf > 2y\}$  is independent of n. Hence

$$\{Tf > 2y\} \subseteq \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E(y,n)$$

This intersection has measure zero, so  $\{Tf > 2y\}$  is a subset of a set of measure zero. So since Lebesgue measure is complete  $\{Tf > 2y\}$  is measurable and has measure zero. This is true for all y > 0 so Tf = 0 a.e.

So note if  $(Tf)(x) = \limsup_{r\to 0} (T_r f)(x) = 0$ , then since  $(T_r f)(x) \ge 0$  we see that this means that  $0 \le \liminf (T_r f)(x) \le \limsup (T_r f)(x) = 0$ .

So we have  $\lim_{r\to 0} (T_r f)$  exists and is equal to zero, so x is a Lebesgue point. So almost every point  $x\in\mathbb{R}^k$  is a Lebesgue point of f.

**Definition 1.6.** Recall that by the Radon-Nikodym theorem if  $\mu$  is a positive  $\sigma$ -finite measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$  in a set X, and  $\lambda$  is a complex measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  such that  $\lambda \ll \mu$ :

$$\lambda(E) = \int_{E} f d\mu$$

For some  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ 

f is called the Radon-Nikodym derivative of  $\mu$  with respect to m and is denoted

$$f = \frac{d\lambda}{d\mu}$$

**Theorem 5.** Suppose  $\mu$  is a complex Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , and  $\mu \ll m$ . Let f be the Radon-Nikodym derivative of  $\mu$  with respect to m. Then  $D\mu = f$  a.e. [m], and

$$\mu(E) = \int_{E} (D\mu) \ dm$$

for all Borel sets  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ .

Proof.

$$\mu(E) = \int_{E} f \ dm$$

For all Borel sets  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ .

Let x be a Lebesgue point and  $\Gamma_r = \frac{1}{B_r} \int_{B(x,r)} f \ dm$ . Then we have:

$$0 \le |\Gamma_r - f(x)| = \left| \frac{1}{B_r} \int_{B(x,r)} (f - f(x)) \, dm \right| \le \frac{1}{B_r} \int_{B(x,r)} |f - f(x)| \, dm$$

Taking limits we see that

$$f(x) = \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{1}{m(B_r)} \underbrace{\int_{B(x,r)} f \, dm}_{\mu(B(x,r))} = \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{\mu(B(x,r))}{m(B_r)} = (D\mu)(x)$$

Thus  $(D\mu)(x)$  exists and equals to f(x) at every Lebesgue point of f, so a.e.

### Nicely shirinking sets

**Definition 1.7.** Suppose  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . A sequence  $\{E_i\}$  of Borel sets in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is said to **shrink to** x **nicely** if there is a number  $\alpha > 0$  with the following property:

There is a sequence of balls  $B(x, r_i)$  with  $\lim r_i = 0$ , such that  $E_i \subseteq B(x, r_i)$  and:

$$m(E_i) \ge \alpha m(B(x, r_i))$$
 for  $i = 1, 2, 3, ...$ 

**Theorem 6.** Associate to each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  a sequence  $\{E_i(x)\}$  that shrinks to x nicely, and let  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^k)$ . Then

$$f(x) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{m(E_i(x))} \int_{E_i(x)} f \ dm$$

At every Lebesgue point of f.

*Proof.* Let x be a Lebesgue point of f and let  $\alpha(x)$  and  $B(x, r_i)$  be the positive number and the balls associate with  $\{E_i(x)\}$ . Since  $E_i(x) \subseteq B(x, r_i)$  we have:

$$\int_{E_i(x)} |f - f(x)| \ dm \le \int_{B(x, r_i)} |f - f(x)| \ dm$$

Furthermore,  $\alpha m(B(x, r_i)) \leq m(E_i) \iff \frac{\alpha}{m(E_i)} \leq \frac{1}{m(B(x, r_i))}$ . Putting this all together we get:

$$\frac{\alpha}{m(E_i)} \int_{E_i(x)} |f - f(x)| \ dm \le \frac{1}{m(B(x, r_i))} \int_{B(x, r_i)} |f - f(x)| \ dm$$

Since x is a Lebesgue point RHS converges to 0, so the LHS also converges to zero by squeeze.

Corollary 6.1. If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^1)$  and

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f \ dm, \ for \ x \in \mathbb{R}$$

then F'(x) = f(x) at every Lebesgue point of f.

*Proof.* Let x be a Lebesgue point, and  $\{\delta_i\}$  be a sequence of positive numbers that converges to 0. Letting  $E_i(x) = [x, x + \delta_i]$ , the previous theorem tells us that

$$f(x) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{\delta_i} \int_x^{x+\delta_i} f \ dm = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{1}{\delta_i} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{x+\delta_i} f \ dm - \int_{-\infty}^x f \ dm \right) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{F(x+\delta_i) - F(x)}{\delta_i}$$

Since  $\{\delta_i\}$  is any sequence of positive numbers converging to zero we have:

$$f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0^+} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$

Likewise letting  $G_i(x) = [x - \delta_i, x]$  we get

$$f(x) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{F(x - \delta_i) - F(x)}{\delta_i} = \lim_{h \to 0^-} \frac{F(x + h) - F(x)}{h}$$

So we have:

$$f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = F'(x)$$
 at every Lebesgue point of  $f$ 

Metric density

**Definition 1.8.** Let E be a Lebesgue measurable subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . The **metric density** of E at a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is defined to be

 $\lim_{r\to 0}\frac{m(E\cap B(x,r))}{m(B(x,r))} \text{ if this limit exists.}$ 

If we let f be the characteristic function of E, and apply Theorem 5, we see that the metric density of E is 1 at almost every point of E and is 0 at almost every point of  $E^c$ .

Indeed let x be a Lebesgue point if  $\mu(B(x,r)) = \int_{B(x,r)} f \ dm = m(E \cap B(x,r))$ , it is clear that  $\mu \ll m$  and so we have:

$$\lim_{r\to 0}\frac{m(E\cap B(x,r))}{m(B(x,r))}=\lim_{r\to 0}\frac{\mu(B(x,r))}{m(B(x,r))}=(D\mu)(x)=f(x)=\begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } x\in E\\ 0 \text{ if } x\not\in E \end{cases}$$

**Corollary 6.2.** If  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is no set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$  such that

$$\epsilon < \frac{m(E \cap I)}{m(I)} < 1 - \epsilon$$

For every segment I.

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  assume that that such a  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$  exists. Let x be a Lebesgue point, from what we have seen in the definition of metric density we know that there is a R such that:

$$\left|\frac{m(E\cap(x-R,x+R))}{m(x-R,x+R)} - 0\right| < \epsilon \text{ if } x \notin E$$

$$\left|\frac{m(E\cap(x-R,x+R))}{m(x-R,x+R)} - 1\right| < \epsilon \text{ if } x \in E$$

I.e.

$$\frac{m(E\cap(x-R,x+R))}{m(x-R,x+R)}<\epsilon \text{ or } 1-\epsilon<\frac{m(E\cap(x-R,x+R))}{m(x-R,x+R)}$$

We now look at differentiation of measures that are singular wrt m.

**Theorem 7.** Associate to each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  a sequence  $\{E_i(x)\}$  that shrinks to x nicely. If  $\mu$  is a complex Borel measure and  $\mu \perp m$ , then

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} = 0 \text{ a.e. } [m]$$

*Proof.* By the Jordan decomp theorem we just need to show that this is true with  $\mu \geq 0$ . In that case as we have seen in previous theorems:

$$\frac{\alpha(x)\mu(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} \le \frac{\mu(E_i(x))}{m(B(x,r_i))} \le \frac{\mu(B(x,r_i))}{m(B(x,r_i))}$$

So if we can show that  $(D\mu)(x) = 0$  a.e. [m], we will prove the result by taking limits in the above inequality.

The upper derivative  $\bar{D}\mu$  is defined by:

$$(\bar{D}\mu)(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[ \sup_{0 < r < 1/n} (Q_r\mu)(x) \right] \text{ for } x \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

Is a Borel function.

Choose  $\lambda > 0$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\mu \perp m$ ,  $\mu$  is concentrated on a set of Lebesgue measure 0. The regularity of  $\mu$  shows that there is a compact set Km with m(K) = 0, and  $\mu(K) > ||\mu|| - \epsilon$ .

Define  $\mu_1(E) = \mu(K \cap E)$ , for any Borel set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ , and put  $\mu_2 = \mu - \mu_1$ . Then  $||\mu_2|| < \epsilon$ , and for every x outside K,

$$(\bar{D}(\mu))(x) = (\bar{D}(\mu_2))(x) \le (M\mu_2)(x).$$

Hence

$$\{\bar{D}\mu > \lambda\} \subset K \cup \{M\mu_2 > \lambda\},\$$

And

$$m\{\bar{D}\mu > \lambda\} \le 3^k \lambda^{-1} ||\mu_2|| < 3^k \lambda^{-1} \epsilon$$

Since this holds for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $\lambda > 0$ , we find that  $\bar{D}\mu = 0$  a.e. [m], so

$$(D\mu)(x) = 0 \ a.e.[m]$$

Which gives us our result.

Corollary 7.1. Suppose that to each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is associated to some sequence  $\{E_i(x)\}$  that shrinks to x nicely, and that  $\mu$  is a complex Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Let  $d\mu = f$   $dm + d\mu_s$  be the Lebesgue decomposition of  $\mu$  wrt m. Then

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} = f(x) \ a.e.[m]$$

In particular,  $\mu \perp m$  if and only if  $(D\mu)(x) = 0$  a.e. [m]

*Proof.* Let  $\mu_a(E) = \int_E f \ dm$ , then recall that  $\mu = \mu_a + \mu_s$ , and

$$\begin{cases} \mu_a \ll m \\ \mu_s \perp m \end{cases}$$

Then from theorem 5

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu_a(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} = f(x) \ a.e.[m]$$

On the other hand from theorem 7

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu_s(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} = 0 \ a.e.[m]$$

So we have

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu_a(E_i(x)) + \mu_s(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} = \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu_a(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} + \lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{\mu_s(E_i(x))}{m(E_i(x))} = f(x) \ a.e.[m]$$

(Indeed if we let A, B be the sets where the first two equations fail, then our result fails on  $A \cup B$ , which is the union of two measure zero sets, and so is a measure zero set, so this equality is true almost everywhere).

**Theorem 8.** If  $\mu$  is a positive Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and  $\mu \perp m$ , then

$$(D\mu)(x) = \infty \ a.e.[\mu] \tag{\dagger}$$

*Proof.* There is a Borel set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$  with m(S) = 0 and  $\mu(\mathbb{R}^k \setminus S) = 0$ , and there are open sets  $V_j \supseteq S$  with  $m(V_j) < \frac{1}{j}$ , for j = 1, 2, 3, ...

For N = 1, 2, 3, ..., let  $E_N$  be the set of all  $x \in S$  to which correspond radii  $r_i = r_i(x)$ , with  $\lim r_i = 0$  such that

$$\mu(B(x,r_i)) < Nm(B(x,r_i)). \tag{\dagger\dagger}$$

Then (†) holds for all  $s \in S \setminus \bigcup_N E_N$ .

Fix N and j, for the moment. Every  $x \in E_N$  is in the center of a ball  $B_x \subseteq V_j$ , that satisfies  $(\dagger \dagger)$ . Let  $\beta_x$  be the open ball with center x whose radius is  $\frac{1}{3}$  of that of  $B_x$ . The union of the  $\beta_x$  is an open set  $W_{j,N}$  such that  $E_N \subseteq W_{j,N} \subseteq V_j$ 

Let  $K \subseteq W_{j,N}$  be compact. Finitely many  $\beta_x$  cover K. Lemma 2 shows that there is a finite set  $F \subseteq E_N$  such that:

- (a)  $\{\beta_x : x \in F\}$  is a disjoint collection, and
- (b)  $K \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in F} B_x$

Therefore

$$\mu(K) \le \sum_{x \in F} \mu(B_x)$$

$$< N \sum_{x \in F} m(B_x)$$

$$= 3^k N \sum_{x \in F} m(\beta_x)$$

$$\le 3^k N m(V_j)$$

$$< 3^k N/j$$

This is true for any compact subset of  $W_{j,N}$ , since  $W_{j,N}$  is open furthermore  $\mu$  is a positive Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , so it is regular, therefore we have:

$$\mu(W_{j,N}) = \sup\{\mu(K) \colon K \subseteq W_{j,N} \text{ is compact }\} < 3^k N/j$$

Now let  $\Omega_N = \bigcap_i W_{j,N}$ , then  $E_N \subseteq \Omega_N$ , and  $\Omega_N$  is a  $G_\delta$  (so is measurable), and  $\mu(\Omega_N) = 0$ , and so:

$$(D\mu)(x) = \infty$$
 for all  $x \in S \setminus \bigcup_{N} \Omega_N$ 

Since  $\bigcup_N \Omega_N$  is a set of measure zero, we have the desired result.

#### 1.2 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Problems with the FTC when extending to the Lebesgue integral

(a) Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin(x^{-2}) & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then f is differentiable at every point, but

$$\int_0^1 |f'(t)| \ dt = \infty$$

So  $f' \notin L^1$ . But we still have:

$$f(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{x} f'(t) \ dt = \int_{0}^{x} f'(t) \ dt$$

(b) Suppose f is continuous on [a,b], f is differentiable at almost every point of [a,b] and  $f' \in L^1$  on [a,b]. Do these assumptions imply that  $f(x) - f(a) = \int_a^x f'$ 

NO!

Choose  $\{\delta_n\}$  so that  $1 = \delta_0 > \delta_1 > \cdots$ , where  $\delta_n \to 0$ , we define the sets  $E_n$  recursively. Put  $E_0 = [0,1]$  and if  $n \ge 0$  and  $E_n$  is constructed so that it is the union of  $2^n$  disjoint closed intervals, each of length  $2^{-n}\delta_n$ .

Delete a segment in the center of each of the  $2^n$  intervals, so that each  $2^{n+1}$  intervals have length  $2^{-(n+1)}\delta_{n+1}$ , and let  $E_{n+1}$  be the union of these  $2^{n+1}$  intervals. So we have  $E_1 \supseteq E_2 \supseteq \ldots$ , and  $m(E_n) = \delta_n$  for all n. Now let

$$E = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$$

Note since each  $E_n$  is the finite union of closed sets, they are closed so E is also closed, it is also bounded since it is contained in [0,1]. So E is compact and  $m(E) = \lim_{n \to \infty} m(E_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \delta_n = 0$ . Put

$$g_n = \delta_n^{-1} \chi_{E_n}$$
 and  $f_n(x) = \int_0^x g_n(t) dt$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 

So note  $f_n(0) = 0$  and  $f_n(1) = \delta_n^{-1} \int_0^1 \chi_{E_n} = \delta_n^{-1} m(E_n) = 1$ . Each  $f_n$  is a monotonic function which is constant on each segment in  $E_n^c$ . If I is one of the  $2^n$  interval whose union is  $E_n$ , then

$$\int_{I} g_n(t) \ dt = \int_{I} g_{n+1}(t) \ dt = 2^{-n}.$$

Therefore we see that

$$f_{n+1}(x) = f_n(x)$$
 for  $x \notin E_n$ 

Now note that

$$|f_n(x) - f_{n+1}(x)| \le \int_I |g_n - g_{n+1}| < 2^{-(n-1)} \text{ for } x \in E_n$$

So  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to a continuous monotonic function f, with f(0) = 0, f(1) = 1, and f'(x) = 0 for all  $x \notin E$ . Since m(E) = 0, we see that f' = 0 almost everywhere. So

$$f(x) \neq \int_0^x f'$$
 in general

#### Definition 1.9.

Remark. Now we see that if  $f' \in L^1$  and that

$$f(x) - f(a) = \int_{a}^{x} f'$$
 (FTC)

Then there is a measure  $\mu$  defined by  $d\mu = f' dm$ . Since  $\mu \ll m$ , we know that there corresponds to each  $\epsilon > 0$  a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\mu|(E) < \epsilon$ , whenever E is a union of disjoint segments whose total length is less than  $\delta$ . Since  $f(y) - f(x) = \mu((x,y))$  if  $a \le x < y \le b$ , it follows that the next definition is necessary for (FTC).

A complex function f, defined on an interval I = [a, b] is said to be **absolutely continuous** on I (or f is AC on I) if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |f(\beta_i) - f(\alpha_i)| < \epsilon$$

For all nm and any disjoint collection of segments  $(\alpha_1, \beta_1), \ldots, (\alpha_n, \beta_n)$  in I whose length satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\beta_i - \alpha_i) < \delta$$

*Remark.* Such an f is continuous since we can choose n = 1.

**Theorem 9.** Let I = [a, b] and  $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous and nondecreasing. TFAE

- (a) f is AC on I
- (b) f maps sets of measure 0 to sets of measure of 0.
- (c) f is differentiable a.e. on  $I, f' \in L^1$  and

$$f(x) - f(a) = \int_a^x f'(t) \ dt \ for \ (a \le x \le b)$$

*Proof.*  $\bullet$   $(a) \Rightarrow (b)$ 

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  denote the  $\sigma$ -algebra of all Lebesgue measurable subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Assume f is AC on I, pick  $E \subseteq I$  so that  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  and m(E) = 0. We will show that  $f(E) \in \mathcal{M}$  and m(f(E)) = 0. WLOG we assume that  $E \subseteq (a,b)$ . Choose  $\epsilon > 0$  and let  $\delta > 0$  be as in definition 1.9. There is an open set V with  $m(V) < \delta$ , so that  $E \subseteq V \subseteq I$ . Let  $(\alpha_i, \beta)$  be the disjoint segment whose union is V, then  $\sum (\beta_i - \alpha_i) < \delta$  and so

$$\sum |f(\beta_i) - f(\alpha_i)| < \epsilon \tag{dagger}$$

We know that this holds for every partial sum of this series, so it holds for the whole series, even if  $\dagger$  is an infite sum. Since  $E \subseteq V$ ,  $f(E) \subseteq \bigcup [f(\alpha_i), f(\beta_i)]$ . The Lebesgue measure of this union is  $\sum |f(\beta_i) - f(\alpha_i)| < \epsilon$ . So f(E) is a subset of a borel set of arbitrarily small measure. Since Lebesgue measure is complete, we see that  $f(E) \in \mathcal{M}$  and m(f(E)) = 0.

•  $(b) \Rightarrow (c)$ 

Define

$$g(x) = x + f(x)$$
 for  $(a \le x \le b)$ .

So note that if the f-image of some segment of length  $\eta$  has length  $\eta'$ , then the g-image of this segment has length  $\eta + \eta'$  (Indeed  $m([x+f(x),y+f(y)]) = x-y+f(x)-f(y) = \eta+\eta'$ ). So we see that g satisfies condition (b). Now suppose  $E \subseteq I$ ,  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ . Then  $E = E_1 \cup E_0$  where  $m(E_0) = 0$  and  $E_1$  is  $F_{\sigma}$ , by a previous theorem. Thus  $E_1$  is a countable union of compact set and so is  $g(E_1)$  since g is continuous. Since  $m(g(E_0)) = 0$ , we have  $g(E) = g(E_1) \cup g(E_0)$  so we conclude that  $g(E) \in \mathcal{M}$ .

Therefore we can define

$$\mu(E) = m(g(E))$$
 for  $E \subseteq I$  and  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ 

Now let x < y, we see that  $f(x) \le f(y)$  therefore g(x) = x + f(x) < y + f(y) = g(y), so this function is 1 to 1. Therefore disjoint sets in I have disjoint g-images. The countable additivity of m shows that  $\mu$  is a positive bounded measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ . Furthermore since g satisfies (b) wew see that  $\mu \ll m$  so

$$d\mu = h \ dm$$

for some  $h \in L^1(m)$ , by Radon-Nikodym.

If E = [a, x], then g(E) = [g(a), g(b)] we have

$$g(x) - g(a) = m(g(E)) = \mu(E) = \int_{E} h \ dm = \int_{a}^{x} h(t) \ dt$$

So

$$f(x) - f(a) = (g(x) - g(a)) - (x - a) = \int_{a}^{x} (h(t) - 1) dt$$

Thus f'(x) = h(x) - 1 a.e. [m], by Theorem 6.1.

•  $(c) \Rightarrow (a)$  This is shown in the remark from definition 1.9

**Theorem 10.** Suppose  $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$  is AC and I = [a, b]. Define

$$F(x) = \sup \sum_{i=1}^{N} |f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1})| \ (a \le x \le b)$$

where the supremum is taken over all N and over all choices of  $\{t_i\}$  such that

$$a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_N = x$$

The functions F, F + f, F - f are then nondecreasing and AC on I.

*Proof.* If for  $\{t_i\}$  with the above property and  $x < y \le b$  then

$$F(y) \ge |f(y) - f(x)| + \sum_{i=1}^{N} |f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1})|$$

So  $F(y) \ge |f(y) - f(x)| + F(x)$ . In particular

$$F(y) \ge f(y) - f(x) + F(x)$$
 and  $F(y) \ge f(x) - f(y) + F(x)$ 

So F, F + f, F - f. Now we only need to show that F is AC on I since the sum of two AC functions is AC. If  $(\alpha, \beta) \subseteq I$  then

$$F(\beta) - F(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1})|$$

Note that  $\sum (t_i - t_{i-1}) = \beta - \alpha$ .

Now let  $\epsilon > 0$  and associate  $\delta > 0$  to f and  $\epsilon$  like in 1.9, choose disjoint segments  $(\alpha_j, \beta_j) \subseteq I$  with  $\sum (\beta_j - \alpha_j) < 0$ , it follows that

$$\sum_{i} (F(\beta_j) - F(\alpha_j)) \le \epsilon$$

Thus F is AC on I

**Definition 1.10.** The function F defined in the theorem above is called the **total variation function** of f. If f is any (complex) function on I (AC or not), and  $F(b) < \infty$ , then f is said to have **bounded variation** on I and F(b) is the **total variation** of f on I.

We have reached our main objective:

**Theorem 11.** If f is a complex function that is AC on I, then f is differentiable at almost all points of I,  $f' \in L^1(m)$  and

$$f(x) - f(a) = \int_{a}^{x} f'(t) dt$$

*Proof.* We just need to prove this for real f. Let F be its total variation function and define:

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2}(F+f)$$
 and  $f_2 = \frac{1}{2}(F-f)$ 

We apply theorem 9 to  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ , and since

$$f = f_1 - f_2$$

We get

$$f(x) - f(a) = (f_1(x) - f_1(a)) - (f_2(x) - f_2(a))$$

$$= \int_a^x f_1'(t) dt - \int_a^x f_2'(t) dt$$

$$= \int_a^x (f_1' - f_2')(t) dt$$

By a previous theorem we  $f' = f'_1 - f'_2$  a.e. and we get our desired result.

**Theorem 12.** If  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at every point of [a,b] and  $f' \in L^1$  on [a,b], then

$$f(x) - f(a) = \int_{a}^{x} f'(t) dt$$

*Proof.* We just need to prove this for x = b. Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ , by a theorem from chap 2 we know there exists a lower semicontinuous function g on [a, b] such that g > f' and

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(t) dt < \int_{a}^{b} f'(t) dt + \epsilon$$

For any  $\eta > 0$  we define

$$F_{\eta}(x) = \int_{a}^{x} g(t) dt - f(x) + f(a) + \eta(x - a)$$

We keep  $\eta$  fixed. For each  $x \in [a, b)$  there corresponds a  $\delta_x > 0$  such that

$$g(t) > f'(x)$$
 and  $\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} < f'(x) + \eta$ 

For all  $t \in (x, x + \delta_x)$ . Since g is lower semicontinuous and g(x) > f'(x). For any such t we therefore have

$$F_{\eta}(t) - F_{\eta}(x) = \int_{x}^{t} g(s) \, ds - [f(t) - f(x)] + \eta(t - x) > (t - x)f'(x) - (t - x)(f'(x) + \eta) + \eta(t - x) = 0$$

Since  $F_{\eta}(a)=0$  and  $F_{\eta}$  is continuous there is a last point  $x\in[a,b]$  at which  $F_{\eta}(x)=0$ . If x< b, the preceding computation implies that  $F_{\eta}(t)>0$  for  $t\in(x,b]$ . In any case,  $F_{\eta}(b)\geq0$ . Since this holds for every  $\eta>0$  we see that

$$f(b) - f(a) \le \int_a^b g(t) dt < \int_a^b f'(t) dt + \epsilon$$

Since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary we conclude that

$$f(b) - f(a) \le \int_a^b f'(t) dt$$

Furthermore -f also satisfies the hypothesis of the theorem so the same inequality holds with -f in the place of f, and these two inequalities give us the desired result.

## 1.3 Differentiable Transformations

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