

Real and Functional Analysis

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Chapter 1

Set Theory

1.1 Basic notions

Definition 1.1.1. Let X, Y be sets. We say:

- X, Y are **equipotent** if there exists a bijection $f: X \to Y$.
- X has a cardinality greater or equal to Y if there exists an surjection f: $X \to Y$.
- X is **finite** if it is equipotent to $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. X is infinite otherwise.

Remark: X is infinite \iff it is equipotent to a proper subset of itself.

E.g.: The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} is infinite. In fact, the set of even natural numbers $E = \{2, 4, 6, \ldots\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ is equipotent to \mathbb{N} , as we can define the bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \to E$ as f(n) = 2n.

Definition 1.1.2. Let X be an infinite set. We say X is **countable** if it is equipotent to \mathbb{N} . X is **uncountable** otherwise, in which case it is **more than countable**.

Definition 1.1.3. X has the **cardinality of the continuum** if it is equipotent to $[0,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$. Any such set is uncountable.

E.g.: We have that:

- $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$ are countable.
- $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^n, (0,1), [0,1]$ are uncountable.
- Countable union of countable sets is countable.

1.2 Families of subsets

Let X be a set. The "Power set" of X is the set of all subsets of X, denoted by $\mathcal{P}(X)$.

$$\mathcal{P}(X) = \{ E : E \subseteq X \}$$

Note that $\mathcal{P}(X)$ has always a cardinality greater than X. For example, if $X = \mathbb{N}$, then $\mathcal{P}(X)$ has the cardinality of the continuum.

Definition 1.2.1. Let X be a set. A family of subsets of X is a set E such that:

$$E \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$$

We usually denote $E = \{E_i\}_{i \in I}$, where I is an index set.

Definition 1.2.2. Let $E = \{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of subsets of X. We define:

• The union of E as:

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} E_i = \{ x \in X : x \in E_i \text{ for some } i \in I \}$$

• The intersection of E as:

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} E_i = \{ x \in X : x \in E_i \text{ for all } i \in I \}$$

Definition 1.2.3. Let $E = \{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of subsets of X. We say F is **pairwise disjoint** if:

$$E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset \ \forall i, j \in I, i \neq j$$

Definition 1.2.4. We say that the family $E = \{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ of subsets of X is a **covering** of X if:

$$X = \bigcup_{i \in I} E_i$$

Any subfamily of $E, E' = \{E_i\}_{i \in I'}$ is a **subcovering** of X if it is a covering of X itself.

E.g.: Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. We define:

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ E \subset X : E \text{ is open} \}$$

We say that \mathcal{T} is the standard topology of X. More generally, this can be done in

"metric spaces" (X, d).

Properties of \mathcal{T} (open sets):

- $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$.
- Finite intersection of elements in \mathcal{T} is in \mathcal{T} .
- Arbitrary union of elements in \mathcal{T} is in \mathcal{T} .

We can also define **sequences of sets**. Let X be a set. A sequence of sets in X is a family of sets $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$.

Definition 1.2.5. Let X be a set. A sequence of sets $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is said to be:

• Increasing if:

$$E_n \subseteq E_{n+1} \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

It is denoted by $\{E_n\} \uparrow$.

• Decreasing if:

$$E_n \supseteq E_{n+1} \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

It is denoted by $\{E_n\} \downarrow$.

Let now $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq\mathcal{P}(X)$ be a sequence of sets in X:

Definition 1.2.6. We define the following:

• The **limit superior** of $\{E_n\}$ as:

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{k > n} E_k$$

• The **limit inferior** of $\{E_n\}$ as:

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} E_n = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcap_{k \ge n} E_k$$

• If the limit superior and limit inferior are equal, we say that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} E_n = \limsup_{n \to \infty} E_n = \liminf_{n \to \infty} E_n$$

Exercise: Let X be a set and $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq\mathcal{P}(X)$ be a sequence of sets in X. Prove that:

(i)
$$\{E_n\} \uparrow \Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} E_n = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n$$
 (ii) $\{E_n\} \downarrow \Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n$

1.3 Characteristic functions

Definition 1.3.1. Let X be a set and $E \subseteq X$. The characteristic function of E is the function $\mathbb{1}_E: X \to \{0,1\}$ defined as:

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

This function is also called the **indicator function** of E.

Remark: Let $E, F \subseteq X$. We have that:

- $\mathbb{1}_{E \cap F} = \mathbb{1}_E \cdot \mathbb{1}_F$.
- $\mathbb{1}_{E \cup F} = \mathbb{1}_E + \mathbb{1}_F \mathbb{1}_{E \cap F}$.
- $\mathbb{1}_{E^c} = 1 \mathbb{1}_E$.

Equivalence relations and Quotient sets 1.4

Definition 1.4.1. A relation R on a set X is a subset of $X \times X$. For any $x, y \in X$, we say that x is related to y if $(x, y) \in R$. We denote this as xRy.

Definition 1.4.2. A relation R on a set X is an equivalence relation if it satisfies:

• Reflexivity:

$$xRx \ \forall x \in X$$

• Symmetry:

$$xRy \Rightarrow yRx \ \forall x,y \in X$$

• Transitivity:

$$xRy, yRz \Rightarrow xRz \ \forall x, y, z \in X$$

Every equivalence relation on X induces a partition of X. We define the equivalence class of $x \in X$ as:

$$[x] = \{ y \in X : xRy \}$$

The set of all equivalence classes is called the **quotient set** of X by R, denoted by X/R.

$$X/R = \{[x]: x \in X\}$$

E.g.: Let $X = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_0$ such that $\mathbb{Z}_0 = \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. We define the relation R on X as:

$$(a,b)R(c,d) \iff ad = bc$$

We can prove that R is an equivalence relation. The equivalence classes are:

$$[(a,b)] = \{(c,d) \in X : ad = bc\}$$

Notice that:

$$[(a,b)] = \{(a,b), (2a,2b), (3a,3b), \ldots\}$$

If we denote a class [(a,b)] as [a/b], then we have that:

$$X/R = \{ [a/b] : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_0 \} = \mathbb{Q}$$

Chapter 2

Measure Theory

2.1 Measure spaces

Definition 2.1.1. Let X be a non-empty set. A family $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ is a σ -algebra if:

- (i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{M}$.
- (ii) $E \in \mathcal{M} \implies E^c \in \mathcal{M}$.
- (iii) $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq\mathcal{M} \implies \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}E_n\in\mathcal{M}.$

If instead of (iii) we have that $E_1, E_2 \in \mathcal{M} \implies \mathbb{E}_1 \cup E_2 \in \mathcal{M}$, then \mathcal{M} is called an algebra.

Remark: If \mathcal{M} is a σ -algebra, then we say that (X, \mathcal{M}) is a measurable space. Any set $E \in \mathcal{M}$ is called a measurable set.

E.g.: Let $X \neq \emptyset$. Then:

- $\mathcal{P}(X)$ is a σ -algebra.
- $\{\emptyset, X\}$ is a σ -algebra.
- $\{\emptyset, E, E^c, X\}$ is a σ -algebra for any $E \subseteq X$.
- $X = \mathbb{R}$, $\mathcal{M} = \{E \subseteq \mathbb{R} : E \text{ is open}\}\$ is NOT a σ -algebra.

Properties 2.1.1. Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space. Then:

- (i) $X = \emptyset^c \in \mathcal{M}$
- (ii) \mathcal{M} is also an algebra. Indeed, if $\{E_1, E_2\} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$, $E_n = \emptyset \ \forall n \geq 3$, then $E_1 \cup E_2 = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \in \mathcal{M}$.
- (iii) $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq\mathcal{M} \implies \bigcap_n E_n\in\mathcal{M}$.
- (iv) $E, F \in \mathcal{M} \implies E \setminus F \in \mathcal{M}$
- (v) $\Omega \subseteq X$. Then, the **restriction** of \mathcal{M} to Ω is:

$$\mathcal{M}|_{\Omega} := \{ F \subseteq \Omega : F = E \cap \Omega, E \in \mathcal{M} \}$$

Then, $(\Omega, \mathcal{M}|_{\Omega})$ is a measurable space.

2.2 Generation of a σ -algebra

Theorem 2.2.1. Take any family $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$. Then, it is well-defined the σ -algebra generated by A, denoted by $\sigma_0(A)$, as the smallest σ -algebra containing A. It is characterized by:

- (i) $\sigma_0(\mathcal{A})$ is a σ -algebra.
- (ii) $A \subseteq \sigma_0(A)$.
- (iii) If \mathcal{M} is a σ -algebra and $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$, then $\sigma_0(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{M}$.

Sketch of proof. Define $V = \{ \mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X) : \mathcal{M} \text{ is } \sigma\text{-algebra}, \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{M} \}$. Notice that $V \neq \emptyset$ because $\mathcal{P}(X) \in V$. Then, define:

$$\sigma_0(\mathcal{A}) = \bigcap_{\mathcal{M} \in V} \mathcal{M}$$

Then, $\sigma_0(A)$ is a σ -algebra as it satisfies the properties of a σ -algebra, denoted in definition 2.1.1.

Remark: This is relevant. Often, to check that a σ -algebra has certain properties, it is enough to check the property on a set of generators.

2.3 Borel sets

Take (X, d) as a metric space, so that open sets are defined. Recall that:

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ E \subseteq X : E \text{ is open} \}$$

Definition 2.3.1. The σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{T} is called the **Borel** σ -algebra of X, denoted by:

$$\mathcal{B}(X) := \sigma_0(\mathcal{T})$$

Any set $E \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ is a **Borel set**.

Remark: The following are Borel sets:

- Open sets
- Closed sets
- Countable intersections of open sets $(G_{\delta}$ -sets)
- Countable unions of closed sets $(F_{\sigma}\text{-sets})$

We will deal with:

$$X = \mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$$

but also:

$$X=\overline{\mathbb{R}}=[-\infty,\infty]=\mathbb{R}\cup\{-\infty,\infty\}$$

Let us define the arithmetic operations on $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

- $a \pm \infty = \pm \infty$
- $a > 0: a \cdot \pm \infty = \pm \infty$
- $a < 0 : a \cdot \pm \infty = \mp \infty$
- $a=0:0\cdot\pm\infty=0$
- $\infty \infty$, ∞/∞ , 0/0 are not defined.

Also, the open intervals in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ are the following:

- (a,b), with $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$
- $[-\infty, b)$
- $(a, \infty]$

Remark: We have that:

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) := \sigma_0(\{\text{open sets}\})$$

$$= \sigma_0(\{(a,b) : a < b\})$$

$$= \sigma_0(\{[a,b] : a < b\})$$

$$= \sigma_0(\{(a,\infty) : a \in \mathbb{R}\})$$

$$\mathcal{B}(\overline{\mathbb{R}}) := \sigma_0(\{\text{open sets}\})$$
$$= \sigma_0(\{(a, \infty] : a \in \mathbb{R}\})$$

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^N) = \sigma_0(\{\text{open rectangles}\})$$

2.4 Measures

Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space.

Definition 2.4.1. A function $\mu: \mathcal{M} \to [0, \infty]$ is a (positive) **measure** on \mathcal{M} if:

- (i) $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$
- (ii) $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq\mathcal{M}$, disjoint $\implies \mu\left(\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}E_n\right)=\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\mu(E_n)$

Note: To avoid nonsenses, we always assume that $\exists E \in \mathcal{M} \ s.t. \ \mu(E) < \infty$

Terminology: Let X, \mathcal{M}, μ defined as above:

- (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) is a measure space.
- If $\mu(X) = 1$, then (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) is a **probability space** and μ is a **probability measure**.

Definition 2.4.2. A measure μ is:

- 1. Finite if $\mu(X) < \infty$
- 2. σ -finite if $\exists \{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ s.t.

$$\mu(E_n) < \infty \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad \land \quad X = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n$$

E.g.: Some examples of measures are:

- 1. (Trivial measure): For any (X, \mathcal{M}) , define μ as $\mu(E) = 0 \ \forall E \in \mathcal{M}$
- 2. (Counting measure): For any (X, \mathcal{M}) , typically $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{P}(X)$, define $\mu_{\#}$ as:

$$\mu_{\#}(E) = \begin{cases} \#\{\text{elements of } E\} & E \text{ finite} \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3. (Dirac measure): For any (X, \mathcal{M}) , pick $x_0 \in X$. Then, define δ_{x_0} as:

$$\delta_{x_0}(E) = \begin{cases} 1 & x_0 \in E \\ 0 & x_0 \notin E \end{cases}$$

2.4.1 Properties of measures

Theorem 2.4.1 (Basic properties). Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space. Then:

- (i) μ is finitely additive: $E, F \in \mathcal{M}, E \cap F = \emptyset \implies \mu(E \cup F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F)$
- (ii) (Monotonicity): $E, F \in \mathcal{M}, E \subseteq F \implies \mu(E) \leq \mu(F)$
- (iii) (Excision property): $E, F \in \mathcal{M}, E \subseteq F, \mu(E) < \infty \implies \mu(F \setminus E) = \mu(F) \mu(E)$

Proof. The proof is straightforward:

(i) Let $E, F \in \mathcal{M}, E \cap F = \emptyset$. Then:

$$\mu(E \cup F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F)$$

Proof. Obvious, using $E_n = \emptyset$ for $n \ge 3$.

(ii) Let $E, F \in \mathcal{M}, E \subseteq F$. Then:

$$\mu(E) \le \mu(F)$$

Proof. Let $F = E \cup (F \setminus E)$. Then:

$$\mu(F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F \setminus E) \ge \mu(E)$$

(iii) Let $E, F \in \mathcal{M}, E \subseteq F, \mu(E) < \infty$. Then:

$$\mu(F \setminus E) = \mu(F) - \mu(E)$$

Proof. Let $F = E \cup (F \setminus E)$. Then:

$$\mu(F) = \mu(E) + \mu(F \setminus E)$$

This concludes the proof.

Theorem 2.4.2 (Continuity among monotone sequences). Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space. Let $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq\mathcal{M}$ be a sequence of measurable sets. Then:

(i) If $\{E_n\} \uparrow$, $E := \lim_n E_n = \bigcup_n E_n$, then:

$$\mu(E) = \lim_{n} \mu(E_n)$$

(ii) If $\{E_n\} \downarrow$, $E := \lim_n E_n = \bigcap_n E_n$, and $\mu(E_1) < \infty$, then:

$$\mu(E) = \lim_{n} \mu(E_n)$$

Proof. The proof goes as follows:

- (i) If $\mu(E_n) = \infty$ for some n, then the proof is trivial. Otherwise, let $F_1 = E_1$ and $F_n = E_n \setminus E_{n-1}$ for $n \ge 2$. Then, we can check that:
 - $F_n \in \mathcal{M}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
 - $\{F_n\}$ is a disjoint sequence.
 - $E_n = \bigcup_{k=1}^n F_k$
 - Because of the disjointness, we have that:

$$\mu(E_n) = \sum_{k=1}^n \mu(F_k)$$

Then, we have that:

$$\mu(E) = \mu\left(\lim_{n} E_{n}\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_{n}\right) =$$

$$= \mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_{n}\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(F_{n}) =$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\mu(E_{n}) - \mu(E_{n-1})) = \lim_{n} \mu(E_{n})$$

- (ii) Define $G_n = E_1 \setminus E_n$. Then, check that:
 - $G_n \in \mathcal{M}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
 - $\{G_n\} \uparrow$

By the previous result, we have that:

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n\right) = \lim_{n} \mu(G_n)$$

Then, on the right-hand side:

$$\lim_{n} \mu(G_n) = \lim_{n} \mu(E_1 \setminus E_n) =$$
$$= \mu(E_1) - \lim_{n} \mu(E_n)$$

On the left-hand side:

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (E_1 \setminus E_n)\right) =$$

$$= \mu\left(E_1 \setminus \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) =$$

$$= \mu(E_1) - \mu(E)$$

Finally, we have that:

$$\mu(E_1) - \mu(E) = \mu(E_1) - \lim_{n} \mu(E_n)$$

And because $\mu(E_1) < \infty$, we have that:

$$\mu(E) = \lim_{n} \mu(E_n)$$

Remark: In (ii), the condition $\mu(E_1) < \infty$ is essential. Consider $(\mathbb{N}, \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}), \mu_{\#})$. Then, define the following sequence:

$$E_n = \{n, n+1, n+2, \ldots\}$$

Note that $E_n \subseteq E_{n-1}$. Also, note that for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have that:

$$\mu_{\#}(E_n) = \infty$$

Then, we have that:

$$\mu_{\#}\left(\bigcap_{n} E_{n}\right) = \mu_{\#}(\emptyset) = 0$$

But:

$$\lim_{n} \mu_{\#}(E_n) = \infty$$

This shows that the condition $\mu(E_1) < \infty$ is essential.

Theorem 2.4.3 (σ -subadditivity). Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space. Let $\{E_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ be a sequence of measurable sets. Then:

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n} E_{n}\right) \leq \sum_{n} \mu(E_{n})$$

Proof. Let $F_1 = E_1$ and $F_n = E_n \setminus \left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{n-1} E_k\right)$ for $n \geq 2$. Then, we have that:

- $F_n \in \mathcal{M}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $F_n \subseteq E_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $\{F_n\}$ is a disjoint sequence.
- $\bigcup_n E_n = \bigcup_n F_n$

Then, we have that:

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n} E_{n}\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{n} F_{n}\right) =$$

$$= \sum_{n} \mu(F_{n}) \leq \sum_{n} \mu(E_{n})$$

2.5 Sets of measure zero, negligible sets, complete measures

Definition 2.5.1. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space. Then:

- 1. A set $E \in \mathcal{M}$ is a **set of measure zero** if $\mu(E) = 0$.
- 2. A set $F \in X$ (not necessarily measurable) is a **negligible set** if $\exists E \in \mathcal{M}$ s.t. $F \subseteq E$ and E is a set of measure zero.

Definition 2.5.2. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space. Then, we say that μ is a **complete measure** (alternatively, that (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) is a **complete measure space**) all negligible sets are measurable.

Remark (Completion of a measure space): A measure space (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) may not be complete. However, we can define the following:

$$\overline{\mathcal{M}} = \{ E \subseteq X : \exists F_1, F_2 \in \mathcal{M} : F_1 \subseteq E \subseteq F_2, \mu(F_2 \setminus F_1) = 0 \}$$

One can show that $\overline{\mathcal{M}}$ is a σ -algebra, and that $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{M}}$. Moreover, if E, F_1, F_2 are as above, define:

$$\overline{\mu}(E) = \mu(F_1) = \mu(F_2)$$

One can check that $(X, \overline{\mathcal{M}}, \overline{\mu})$ is a complete measure space.

2.6 Towards the Lebesgue measure

We would like to define a measure λ with $X = \mathbb{R}$ (or $X = \mathbb{R}^N$) s.t. $\forall a < b$:

- $\lambda((a,b)) = b a$ (length of the interval)
- $\forall E, \lambda(E+x) = \lambda(E)$ (translation invariance)

In principle, we would like to define it in $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. Such a measure should satisfy $\lambda(\{a\}) = 0$.

Theorem 2.6.1 (Ulam). The only measure on $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ that satisfies $\lambda(\{a\}) = 0 \ \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$ is the trivial measure.

Therefore, we need to choose an $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. We can construct one as follows:

- Starting family with a "measure", e.g., $\mathcal{T} = \{(a,b) : a < b\}$ and f((a,b)) = b a.
- Construct an "outer measure" μ^* on $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$.
- Restrict μ^* to a well-chosen σ -algebra $\mathcal{M} \subsetneq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$.

Definition 2.6.1. Let X be a set. An **outer measure** μ^* on X is a function

$$\mu^*: \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$$

such that:

- 1. $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$
- 2. (Monotonicity) $E \subseteq F \subseteq X \implies \mu^*(E) \leq \mu^*(F)$
- 3. (σ -subadditivity) $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq \mathcal{P}(X) \implies \mu^*\left(\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}E_n\right)\leq \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\mu^*(E_n)$

Remark: Any measure μ is an outer measure. However, the converse is not true.

Proposition 2.6.2. Let $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$, $f : \mathcal{E} \to [0, \infty]$. Assume that $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{E}$, $f(\emptyset) = 0$. Then, $\forall E \subseteq X$ define:

$$\mu^*(E) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(A_n) : A_n \in \mathcal{E}, E \subseteq \bigcup_n A_n \right\}$$

Then, μ^* is an outer measure.

Proof. The proof is omitted.

Remark: In this generality, if $E \in \mathcal{E}$, then f(E) and $\mu^*(E)$ may not be equal. We can only guarantee that $\mu^*(E) \leq f(E)$.

E.g.: There are some important examples:

• $X = \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{E} = \{(a, b) : a, b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}, a \leq b\}$

$$f((a,b)) = length((a,b)) = b - a$$

• $X = \mathbb{R}^N$, $\mathcal{E} = \{(a_1, b_1) \times \ldots \times (a_N, b_N) : a_i, b_i \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}, a_i \leq b_i\}$

$$f((\underline{a}, \underline{b})) = \text{volume}((\underline{a}, \underline{b})) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} (b_i - a_i)$$

In both cases, the outer measure μ^* is called the **Lebesgue outer measure**. We will denote it by λ^* (or λ_N^* in the second case). Note that in this case, $\lambda^*(E) = f(E)$ for any $E \in \mathcal{E}$.

Remark: Any μ measure on $\mathcal{P}(X)$ is an outer measure. However, the converse is not true. In particular, $\exists A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and $\lambda^*(A \cup B) < \lambda^*(A) + \lambda^*(B)$.

2.6.1 Carathéodory's criterion

Definition 2.6.2 (Carathéodory's condition). Let μ^* be an outer measure on $\mathcal{P}(X)$. A ser $E \subseteq X$ is μ^* -measurable if $\forall A \subseteq X$:

$$\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$$

Lemma 2.6.3 (Equivalence of Carathéodory's condition). *E* is μ^* -measurable $\iff \forall A \subseteq X, \ \mu^*(A) < \infty$:

$$\mu^*(A) \ge \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$$

Proof. The proof is as follows:

 (\Rightarrow) : Trivial

 (\Leftarrow) : Let $A\subseteq X,$ such that $\mu^*(A)<\infty$ and:

$$\mu^*(A) \ge \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$$

Then, notice that $\{A \cap E, A \cap E^c\}$ is a covering of A. By subadditivity:

$$\mu^*(A) \le \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$$

Therefore, we have that:

$$\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A \cap E^c)$$

Meaning that E is μ^* -measurable. This concludes the proof.

Theorem 2.6.4 (Carathéodory). Let μ^* be an outer measure on $\mathcal{P}(X)$. The family:

$$\mathcal{M} = \{ E \subseteq X : E \text{ is } \mu^*\text{-measurable} \}$$

is a σ -algebra, and μ^* restricted to \mathcal{M} (denoted $\mu = \mu^*|_{\mathcal{M}}$) is a complete measure.

Remark: (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) as in the above theorem is sometimes called the "abstract Lebesgue measure space". We will only prove the completeness of μ .

Lemma 2.6.5. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be the measure space as in Carathéodory's theorem. Then, any $N \subseteq X$ s.t. $\mu^*(N) = 0$ is μ -measurable, i.e., $N \in \mathcal{M}$, and $\mu(N) = 0$.

Proof. We have to show that N satisfies Carathéodory's condition, or equivalently, that it satisfies the lemma 2.6.3. Let $A \subseteq X$ be arbitrary. Then, notice that:

$$\mu^*(A \cap N) \le \mu^*(N) = 0$$

Also, notice that:

$$\mu^*(A \cap N^c) \le \mu^*(A)$$

Therefore, we have that:

$$\mu^*(A \cap N) + \mu^*(A \cap N^c) \le 0 + \mu^*(A) = \mu^*(A)$$

By lemma 2.6.3, we have that N is μ^* -measurable. By Carathéodory's theorem, we have that N is μ -measurable. Finally, we have that $\mu(N) = \mu^*(N) = 0$.

Corollary 2.6.5.1. μ as in Carathéodory's theorem is a complete measure.

Proof. Let $N \subseteq E$, and $\mu(E) = 0$ $(E \in \mathcal{M})$. Then, we have that:

$$\mu(E) = 0 \implies \mu^*(E) = 0$$

By monotonicity, we have that:

$$\mu^*(N) \le \mu^*(E) = 0$$

Then, $\mu(N) = \mu^*(N) = 0$, thus $N \in \mathcal{M}$. This concludes the proof.

2.7 Lebesgue measure

Definition 2.7.1. Let $\mathcal{E} = \{(a, b) : a, b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}, a \leq b\}$. Define:

$$\lambda^*((a,b)) = b - a$$

Then, λ^* is the **Lebesgue outer measure** on \mathbb{R} .

Theorem 2.7.1. Let λ^* be the Lebesgue outer measure on $\mathcal{E} = \{(a,b) : a,b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}, a \leq b\}$. Then, by Carathéodory's theorem, the family:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) = \{ E \subseteq \mathbb{R} : E \text{ is } \lambda^* \text{-measurable} \}$$

is a σ -algebra, called the **Lebesgue** σ -algebra, and λ^* restricted to $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ (denoted $\lambda = \lambda^*|_{\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})}$) is a complete measure, called the **Lebesgue measure**.

Proof. The proof is omitted.

Remark: The measure space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}), \lambda)$ is called the **Lebesgue measure space**.

Proposition 2.7.2. Let λ be the Lebesque measure on \mathbb{R} . Then:

- (i) $a \in \mathbb{R} \implies \{a\} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) \text{ and } \lambda(\{a\}) = 0$
- (ii) $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ at most countable $\Longrightarrow E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\lambda(E) = 0$

Proof. The proof is as follows:

(i) Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, we have that, for any $\varepsilon > 0$:

$$E_1 = (a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon), \quad , E_2 = E_3 = \dots = \emptyset$$

is a covering of $\{a\}$. Then, by definition of λ^* :

$$0 \le \lambda^*(\{a\}) \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(E_n) = 2\varepsilon$$

As ε is arbitrary, we have that $\lambda^*(\{a\}) = 0$. By Lemma 2.6.5, we then have that $\{a\} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\lambda(\{a\}) = 0$.

(ii) Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be at most countable. Then, we have that:

$$E = \bigcup_{a \in E} \{a\}$$

Because $\{a\} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\lambda(\{a\}) = 0$, we have that $E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ and:

$$\lambda(E) = \lambda\left(\bigcup_{a \in E} \{a\}\right) = \sum_{a \in E} \lambda(\{a\}) = 0$$

Remark: We can point out 2 important consequences of the above proposition:

1. Arguing as in (i), we can show that the Lebesgue measure is translation invariant. That is, $\forall E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}), \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\lambda(E+x) = \lambda(E)$$

2. In particular, since \mathbb{Q} is countable, we have that $\mathbb{Q} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\lambda(\mathbb{Q}) = 0$. In the measure sense, \mathbb{Q} has very few elements with respect to \mathbb{R} . On the other hand, \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} . In the topology sense, \mathbb{Q} has a lot of points.

Proposition 2.7.3. We have that: $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \subset \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$

Proof. Since $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \sigma_0(\{(a, \infty) : a \in \mathbb{R}\})$, if we show that $(a, \infty) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$, $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}$, then the prop. follows.

Take $A \subset \mathbb{R}$, s.t. $\lambda^*(A) < \infty$. Then, we must show that:

$$\lambda^*(A) \geq \lambda^*(A \cap (a,\infty)) + \lambda^*(A \cap (-\infty,a])$$

Moreover, by a previous remark, one can assume that $a \notin A$. Then, take any countable covering of A by open intervals:

$$A \subseteq \bigcup_{n} I_n$$

Then, let us define $A_{left} = A \cap (-\infty, a]$ and $I_{n,left} = I_n \cap (-\infty, a]$. Then, we notice that $\{I_{n,left}\}$ is a covering of A_{left} .

In the same way, we define $A_{right} = A \cap (a, \infty)$ and $I_{n,right} = I_n \cap (a, \infty)$. Then, we notice that $\{I_{n,right}\}$ is a covering of A_{right} .

Then, we have that:

$$\lambda^*(A_{left}) \le \sum_n \lambda^*(I_{n,left})$$

$$\lambda^*(A_{right}) \le \sum_n \lambda^*(I_{n,right})$$

Summing both inequalities, we have that:

$$\lambda^*(A_{left}) + \lambda^*(A_{right}) \le \sum_n \lambda^*(I_{n,left}) + \sum_n \lambda^*(I_{n,right})$$
$$= \sum_n \lambda^*(I_n)$$

Taking the infimum over all countable coverings of A, we have that:

$$\lambda^*(A_{left}) + \lambda^*(A_{right}) \le \lambda^*(A)$$

Remark: In particular, we have that $\forall (a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}$:

$$(a,b) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}), \quad \lambda((a,b)) = b - a$$

We know that:

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \subset \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) \subset \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$$

Are these inclusions strict? We already know that $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) \neq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$, by Ulam's theorem. In particular, $\exists E \subset \mathbb{R}$ not Lebesgue measurable (**Vitali sets**). More precisely:

$$\forall E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}), \text{ s.t } \lambda(E) > 0, \exists V \subset E, \text{ s.t } V \notin \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$$

The relation between $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ is more subtle. It is clarified by the following proposition:

Proposition 2.7.4 (Regularity of the Lebesgue measure). Let $E \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, the following are equivalent:

- (i) $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$
- (ii) $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists A \subset \mathbb{R} \text{ open set s.t.}$

$$E \subset A$$
 and $\lambda^*(A \setminus E) < \varepsilon$

(iii) $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists G \subset \mathbb{R} \text{ of class } G_{\delta} \text{ s.t.}$

$$E \subset G$$
 and $\lambda^*(G \setminus E) = 0$

(iv) $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists C \subset \mathbb{R} \ closed \ set \ s.t.$

$$C \subset E$$
 and $\lambda^*(E \setminus C) < \varepsilon$

(v) $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists F \subset \mathbb{R} \text{ of class } F_{\sigma} \text{ s.t.}$

$$F \subset E$$
 and $\lambda^*(E \setminus F) = 0$

We get as a consequence the following:

Corollary 2.7.4.1. $\forall E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}), \exists F, G \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \text{ s.t. } F \subset E \subset G \text{ and }$

$$\lambda(G \setminus F) = \lambda(G \setminus E) + \lambda(E \setminus F) = 0$$

In other words:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) = \overline{\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})}$$

(But $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) \neq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$).

Proof. (Regularity of the Lebesgue measure). The proof goes as follows:

 $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$:

Let $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Note that, since $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ for all A open, we have that:

$$\lambda^*(A \setminus E) = \lambda(A \setminus E)$$

By definition of λ^* , we have that $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\exists \{I_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ s.t.

$$E \subset \bigcup_{n} I_n$$
 and $\sum_{n} \lambda(I_n) < \lambda^*(E) + \varepsilon$

Then, set $A = \bigcup_n I_n$. We have that A is open, $E \subset A$ and:

$$\lambda(A) \le \sum_{n} \lambda(I_n) < \lambda(E) + \varepsilon$$

$$\implies \lambda(A \setminus E) = \lambda(A) - \lambda(E) < \varepsilon$$

 $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) :$

Assume $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\exists A_{\varepsilon}$ open s.t. $E \subset A_{\varepsilon}$ and $\lambda(A_{\varepsilon} \setminus E) < \varepsilon$. Then, set $\varepsilon = 1/n$, $n \ge 1$ (for ease of notation, $A_n = A_{1/n}$) and define:

$$G = \bigcap_{n} A_n$$

Then, G is a G_{δ} set, $E \subset G$ and:

$$0 \le \lambda^*(G \setminus E) \le \lambda^*(A_n \setminus E) < 1/n$$

Taking the limit, we have that $\lambda(G \setminus E) = 0$.

 $(iii) \Rightarrow (i)$:

We know that $E \subset G$, $G \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ with $\lambda(G \setminus E) = 0$. Then, we have that:

$$E = G \setminus (G \setminus E) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$$

since $G \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$ and $G \setminus E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$. The last is because it is a negligible set and λ is complete.

E.g. (Cantor set): Let $T_0 = [0, 1]$. Then, construct T_{n+1} from T_n (recursively) by removing the inner third part of every interval in T_n :

$$T_0 = [0, 1],$$

$$T_1 = [0, 1/3] \cup [2/3, 1],$$

$$T_2 = [0, 1/9] \cup [2/9, 1/3] \cup [2/3, 7/9] \cup [8/9, 1], \dots$$

Then, define the **Cantor set** as:

$$C = \bigcap_{n} T_n$$

It can be proven that:

- C has the cardinality of \mathbb{R}
- $\lambda(C) = 0$
- C is compact
- C is nowhere dense (has no interior points), i.e., $int(C) = \emptyset$
- $\exists E \subset C \text{ s.t. } E \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) \text{ but } E \notin \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$

2.8 Measurable functions

Definition 2.8.1. Given $f: X \to Y$, it is well-defined the **preimage** (or counterimage) of f as:

$$f^{-1}: \mathcal{P}(Y) \to \mathcal{P}(X), \quad f^{-1}(E) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in E\}$$

Remark: Preimages work well with set operations:

- $f^{-1}(E \cup F) = f^{-1}(E) \cup f^{-1}(F)$
- $f^{-1}(E \cap F) = f^{-1}(E) \cap f^{-1}(F)$
- $f^{-1}(E \setminus F) = f^{-1}(E) \setminus f^{-1}(F)$

Note this is not true for images.

Definition 2.8.2. Let (X, \mathcal{M}) and (Y, \mathcal{N}) be measurable spaces. A function $f: X \to Y$ is **measurable** if $\forall E \in \mathcal{N}$, we have that $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}$. We also say that f is $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N})$ -measurable.

Proposition 2.8.1. Let (X, \mathcal{M}) and (Y, \mathcal{N}) be measurable spaces, and $\rho \subset \mathcal{N}$ s.t. $\mathcal{N} = \sigma_0(\rho)$. Then, $f: X \to Y$ is measurable $\iff \forall E \in \rho$, we have that $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}$.

Proof. The proofs goes as follows:

- (\Rightarrow) : Trivial
- (\Leftarrow) : Define $\Sigma := \{E \subset Y : f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}\}$. We have:
 - $\rho \subset \Sigma$ as a consecuence of $(\forall E \in \rho, f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M})$

• Σ is a σ -algebra (check as an exercise)

Then, we have that $\mathcal{N} = \sigma_0(\rho) \subset \Sigma$. Therefore, f is measurable.

Definition 2.8.3. Suppose that $\mathcal{M} \supseteq \mathcal{B}(X)$ and $\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{B}(Y)$. We say that $f: X \to Y$ is:

- Borel measurable if f is $(\mathcal{B}(X), \mathcal{B}(Y))$ -measurable.
- Lebesgue measurable if it is $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{B}(Y))$ -measurable.

Remark: If $f: X \to Y$ is Borel measurable, then it is Lebesgue measurable. The converse is not true.

Also, we never deal with $\mathcal{L}(Y)$.

Corollary 2.8.1.1. f is Borel measurable \iff $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{B}(X), \ \forall E \in Y$ open. Also, f is Lebesgue measurable \iff $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{M}, \ \forall E \in Y$ open.

Proof. It follows from the previous proposition, since $\mathcal{B}(Y) = \sigma_0(\{E \subset Y : E \text{ open}\}).$

Definition 2.8.4. We say that f is **continuous** \iff $f^{-1}(E) \subset X$ is open $\forall E \subset Y$ open.

Proposition 2.8.2. If $f: X \to Y$ is continuous, then f is Borel measurable (and thus Lebesgue measurable).

Proof. Let $E \subset Y$ be open. By continuity of f, we have that $f^{-1}(E)$ is open. Then $f^{-1}(E) \in \mathcal{B}(X)$, and thus f is Borel measurable.

Note that the proposition is false when $\mathcal{N} \supseteq \mathcal{B}(Y)$.

2.8.1 Operations on measurable functions

Proposition 2.8.3. Let $f: X \to Y$ be Lebesgue measurable, and $g: Y \to Z$ be continuous. Then:

$$g \circ f: X \to Z$$
 is Lebesgue measurable

Corollary 2.8.3.1. Let $f: X \to Y$ be Lebesgue measurable. Then:

- $f^+(x) = \max\{f(x), 0\}$ is Lebesgue measurable
- $f^-(x) = \max\{-f(x), 0\}$ is Lebesgue measurable
- $|f(x)| = f^+(x) + f^-(x)$ is Lebesgue measurable

Proof. Let f be Lebesgue measurable, and $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then, take $E \subset Z$ open. We have that:

$$(g \circ f)^{-1}(E) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(E))$$

Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(E)$ is open. Then, $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(E)) \in \mathcal{M}$

Proposition 2.8.4. Let $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$ be Lebesgue measurable, and $\Phi: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then, $h(x) = \Phi(f(x), g(x))$ is Lebesgue measurable.

Proof. Let $h(x) = \Phi(f(x), g(x)) = (\Phi \circ \Psi)(x)$, where $\Psi: X \to \mathbb{R}^2$ is defined as

$$\Psi(x) = (f(x), g(x))$$

Then, we should prove that Ψ is Lebesgue measurable for applying the previous proposition. For this, we have to show that $\forall (a, b) \times (c, d) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, we have that:

$$\Psi^{-1}((a,b) \times (c,d)) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in (a,b), g(x) \in (c,d)\} \in \mathcal{M}$$

This can be done using the fact that f and g are Lebesgue measurable.

Corollary 2.8.4.1. Let $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$ be Lebesgue measurable. Then:

- \bullet f + g is Lebesgue measurable
- \bullet $f \cdot g$ is Lebesgue measurable

Proposition 2.8.5. Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space (with $\mathcal{M} \supseteq \mathcal{B}(X)$), and $\{f_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of Lebesgue measurable functions $f_n: X \to \mathbb{R}$. Then, the following functions are Lebesgue measurable:

- 1. $\sup_n f_n$
- 2. $\inf_n f_n$
- 3. $\limsup_{n} f_n$
- 4. $\liminf_n f_n$

In particular, if $\lim_n f_n$ exists, then it is Lebesgue measurable.

Proof. The proof goes as follows:

1. Since $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \sigma_0(\{(a, \infty) : a \in \mathbb{R}\})$, it is enough to show that $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}$, we have that:

$$(\sup_{n} f_n)^{-1}((a,\infty)) = \{x \in X : \sup_{n} f_n(x) > a\} \in \mathcal{M}$$

This can be done by using the fact that f_n is Lebesgue measurable. Indeed, we have that:

$$\{x \in X : \sup_{n} f_n(x) > a\} = \bigcup_{n} \{x \in X : f_n(x) > a\}$$
$$= \bigcup_{n} f_n^{-1}((a, \infty)) \in \mathcal{M}$$

because $f_n^{-1}((a,\infty)) \in \mathcal{M}$ for all n.

2. The proof is analogous to the previous case, taking that:

$$\inf_{n} f_n = -\sup_{n} (-f_n)$$

3. We have that:

$$\limsup_{n} f_n = \inf_{n} \sup_{k \ge n} f_k$$

4. We have that:

$$\liminf_{n} f_n = \sup_{n} \inf_{k \ge n} f_k$$

2.8.2 Properties holding almost everywhere

Definition 2.8.5. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a complete measure space. We say that a property P(x) holds μ -almost everywhere (a.e) if:

$$\mu(\lbrace x \in X : P(x) \text{ is false} \rbrace) = 0$$

In other words, P(x) holds μ -almost everywhere if it holds everywhere except for a set of measure zero.

E.g.: Let $f(x) = x^2$. Is it true that f(x) > 0 a.e.?

We have that $\{x : x^2 \le 0\} = \{0\}$

- In $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}), \lambda)$, the property is true a.e., since $\lambda(\{0\}) = 0$
- In $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}), \mu_{\#})$ (counting measure), the property is false a.e., since $\mu_{\#}(\{0\}) = 1$

Proposition 2.8.6. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space:

- 1. $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ s.t. f = g a.e, with g measurable $\Longrightarrow f$ is measurable
- 2. $\{f_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ a sequence of measurable functions s.t. $f_n\to f$ a.e., then f is measurable.

2.8.3 Simple functions

Definition 2.8.6. Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space. A function $s: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is measurable and **simple** if s is measurable and s(X) is a finite set:

$$s(X) = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_k\}$$

where $a_i \in \overline{\mathbb{R}} \ \forall i$, with $a_i \neq a_j$ for $i \neq j$. Then, s can be written as:

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i \cdot \chi_{A_i}(x)$$

where $A_i = s^{-1}(\{a_i\}), A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j, \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i = X$ and $A_i \in \mathcal{M}, \ \forall i$.

Particular case:

If $X = \mathbb{R}$ (or $(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}$) and A_i is an interval $\forall i$, then s is called a **step function**.

On the other hand, $\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$ is a simple function, but not a step function:

$$\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 & x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

Remark: One may define simple functions without measurability requirements.

Goal:

Approximate any measurable function $f: X \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ with (measurable and) simple functions.

Theorem 2.8.7 (Simple approximation theorem (SAT)). Take (X, \mathcal{M}) measurable space and $f: X \to [0, \infty]$, measurable. Then $\exists \{s_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a sequence of measurable, simple functions s.t. $s_1 \leq s_2 \leq ... \leq f$ pointwise (i.e., $\forall x \in X$) and:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n(x) = f(x) \quad \forall x \in X$$

Moreover, if f is bounded, the convergence is uniform:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{x \in X} |s_n(x) - f(x)| = 0$$

Proof. In case f is bounded, say $0 \le f < 1$.

For any $n \ge 1$, divide [0,1) into 2^n intervals of length 2^{-n} , and define:

$$A_n^{(i)} = \{ x \in X : \frac{i}{2^n} \le f(x) < \frac{i+1}{2^n} \}$$

and:

$$s_n(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{2^n - 1} \frac{i}{2^n} \cdot \chi_{A_n^{(i)}}(x)$$

One can show that such a sequence has the required properties

2.9 Lebesgue integral

- First, we will define the integral for non-negative simple (measurable) functions.
- Second, we will extend the definition to non-negative measurable functions.
- Finally, we will define the integral for general measurable functions.

2.9.1 Integral of non-negative simple functions

Definition 2.9.1. Let $s: X \to [0, \infty]$ be a measurable and simple function:

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i \cdot \chi_{A_i}$$

where $a_i \geq 0$ and $A_i \in \mathcal{M}$. Let $E \in \mathcal{M}$. Then, we define the **(Lebesgue) integral** of s over E as:

$$\int_{E} s \, d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} \cdot \mu(A_{i} \cap E)$$

Remark: There are some remarks:

- 1. $s:[a,b] \to [0,\infty), \ \mu,\mu=\lambda$ (Lebesgue measure) Then, $\int_{[a,b]} s \ d\mu =$ area under the graph of s in [a,b]
- 2. We are already using $0 \cdot \infty = 0$ in the definition. In particular,

$$a_i \cdot \mu(A_i \cap E) = \begin{cases} 0 & a_i = 0 \\ \infty & a_i > 0 \end{cases}$$

if
$$\mu(A_i \cap E) = \infty$$
.

3. $D \in \mathcal{M}$, then χ_D is a simple function, and:

$$\int_{E} \chi_{D} \, d\mu = \mu(D \cap E)$$

4. More generally, s simple and measurable, $E \in \mathcal{M}$, then:

$$\int_E s \, d\mu = \int_X s \cdot \chi_E \, d\mu$$

Properties 2.9.1 (Basic properties). Let $N, E, F \in \mathcal{M}, s_1, s_2 : X \to [0, \infty)$ simple and measurable functions. Then:

(i) If $\mu(N) = 0$, then:

$$\int_{\mathcal{N}} s_1 \, d\mu = 0$$

(ii) If $0 \le c \le \infty$, then:

$$\int_{E} c \cdot s_1 \, d\mu = c \cdot \int_{E} s_1 \, d\mu$$

(iii) $\int_E (s_1 + s_2) d\mu = \int_E s_1 d\mu + \int_E s_2 d\mu$

(iv) If $s_1 \leq s_2$, then:

$$\int_E s_1 \, d\mu \le \int_E s_2 \, d\mu$$

(v) if $E \subset F$, then:

$$\int_{E} s_1 \, d\mu \le \int_{E} s_1 \, d\mu$$

The properties (ii) and (iii) are called **linearity** of the integral. The properties (iv) and (v) are called **monotonicity** of the integral.

Proposition 2.9.1. Let $s: X \to [0, \infty)$ be a simple measurable function. Then, the function:

$$\phi(E) := \int_{E} s \, d\mu : \mathcal{M} \to [0, \infty]$$

is a measure on (X, \mathcal{M}) .

Proof. Let $s = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \cdot \chi_{A_i}$, $0 \le a_i \le \infty$. We have to show that:

- 1. $\phi: \mathcal{M} \to [0, \infty]$?: Yes, since $s \ge 0$, $\phi(E) \ge 0$, $\forall E \in \mathcal{M}$.
- 2. $\phi(\emptyset) = 0$?: Yes, since $\int_{\emptyset} s \, d\mu = 0$, as $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$.
- 3. σ -additivity?: Let $\{E_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of pairwise disjoint sets in \mathcal{M} , and $E = \bigcup_n E_n$. Then, we have that:

$$\phi(E) = \int_{E} s \, d\mu = \int_{X} s \cdot \chi_{E} \, d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} \cdot \mu(A_{i} \cap E)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} \cdot \mu\left(\bigcup_{n} A_{i} \cap E_{n}\right)$$

Since μ is σ -additive, we have that:

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i \sum_{n} \cdot \mu(A_i \cap E_n)$$
$$= \sum_{n} \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i \cdot \mu(A_i \cap E_n)$$
$$= \sum_{n} \int_{E_n} s \, d\mu = \sum_{n} \phi(E_n)$$

2.9.2 Integral of non-negative measurable functions

Definition 2.9.2. Let $f: X \to [0, \infty]$ be a measurable function, $E \in \mathcal{M}$. Then, we define the **(Lebesgue) integral** of f over E as:

$$\int_E f \, d\mu = \sup \left\{ \int_E s \, d\mu : s \text{ simple, measurable and } 0 \le s \le f \right\}$$

Remark: There are some remarks:

- 1. If f is simple, then the definition coincides with the previous one.
- 2. $(\mathbb{N}, \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}), \mu_{\#})$. Then $f : \mathbb{N} \to [0, \infty]$ is a sequence. Indeed, if we name $f_n = f(n)$, then:

$$\int_{\mathbb{N}} f \, d\mu_{\#} = \sum_{n} f_{n}$$

3. All the basic properties of the integral for simple functions above hold for this new definition.