## CORRECTIONS TO MATH 746 MIDTERM

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## Problem 1

**1A)** Define what it means for a function  $f: E \subset \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  to be continuous.

Solution. For such function f to be continuous, we must have that  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \subseteq E$  is open for any open set  $\mathcal{O} \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Analogously, f is continuous if  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{F}) \subseteq E$  is closed for any closed set  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

**1B)** Define what it means for a function  $f \colon E \subset \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  to be (Lebesgue) measurable.

Solution. For such function f to be (Lebesgue) measurable we must have that, for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , the set

$$f^{-1}\{[-\infty, a)\} = \{x \in E \colon f(x) < a\}$$

is measurable. Similar conclusions hold for whichever combination of strict or weak inequalities one chooses.  $\Box$ 

**1C)** In what sense, according to Littlewood's principles, is a measurable function "almost continuous"?

Solution. According to Littlewood's principles, a measurable function is "almost continuous" in the sense described by Lusin's Theorem. This theorem states that if we take any finite-valued measurable function f defined on a set E of finite measure, then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a closed set  $F_{\varepsilon} \subset E$  with  $m(E \setminus F_{\varepsilon}) \leq \varepsilon$ , and such that  $f|_{F_{\varepsilon}}$  is continuous.

### 2

### Problem 2

**2A**) State the definition of outer measure of a subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ .

Solution. The outer measure of a subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is given by

$$m_*(E) = \inf \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\mathcal{Q}_k|,$$

where the infimum is taken over all countable coverings by closed cubes  $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{Q}_k \supset E$ .  $\square$ 

**2B**) State the definition of measure of a subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ .

Solution. The (Lebesgue) measure of a set E is the same as its outer measure, provided that E is a measurable set. That is, if E is a measurable set, then  $m(E) = m_*(E)$ . We know that E is a measurable set if, for any  $\varepsilon \geq 0$ , there exists an open set  $\mathcal{O} \supset E$  such that  $m_*(\mathcal{O} \setminus E) \leq \varepsilon$ . Similarly, E is measurable if, for any  $\varepsilon \geq 0$ , there exists a closed set  $\mathcal{F} \subset E$  such that  $m_*(E \setminus \mathcal{F}) \leq \varepsilon$ . Another way to check whether E is measurable is detailed in the following problem.

**2C)** Prove that if E is measurable in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then for any subset A of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , we have

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

Solution. We know from a previous result that outer measure is countably sub-additive. We also know that for any sets A and E,  $A = (A \cap E) \cup (A \cap E^c)$ . Combining these results we have

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

Therefore, E is measurable if and only if for each set A, we have

(1) 
$$m_*(A) \ge m_*(A \cap E) + m_*(A \cap E^c).$$

This inequality trivially holds if  $m_*(A) = \infty$ . Thus it suffices to establish (1) for sets A that have finite outer measure.

We know that the definition of measurability is symmetric in E and  $E^c$ , and therefore a set is measurable if and only if its complement is measurable, as shown in *Problem 2D*). Clearly  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  are measurable. Hence we establish inequality (1) by proving the following proposition:

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**Proposition 1.** Any set of outer measure zero is measurable. In particular, any countable set is measurable.

Proof of Proposition 1. Let the set E have outer measure zero and let A be any set. Since

$$A \cap E \subseteq E$$
 and  $A \cap E^c \subseteq A$ ,

by the monotonicity of outer measure,

$$m_*(A \cap E) \le m_*(E) = 0$$
 and  $m_*(A \cap E^c) \le m_*(A)$ .

Thus,

$$m_*(A) \ge m_*(A \cap E^c) = 0 + m_*(A \cap E^c) = m_*(A \cap E) + m_*(A \cap E^c),$$

and therefore E is measurable.

This shows that if E is measurable in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then for any subset A of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , we have  $m_*(A) = m_*(A \cap E) + m_*(A \cap E^c)$ , as desired.

**2D)** Prove that if E is measurable in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then  $E^c$  is also measurable in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

Solution. On the original exam I wrote something like:

"If E is a measurable set, then E is a set which belongs to the (Lebesgue)  $\sigma$ -algebra of all measurable sets, which includes the Borel sets and the null sets. Since by definition,  $\sigma$ -algebras are closed under complements, if E is a Lebesgue set, then so is  $E^c$ "

While I don't think that this argument is wrong, I'm afraid that you may have been looking for a more rigorous explanation, so here it is:

If E is measurable, then for every positive integer n we may choose an open set  $\mathcal{O}_n$  with  $E \subset \mathcal{O}_n$  and  $m_*(\mathcal{O}_n \setminus E) \leq 1/n$ . The complement  $\mathcal{O}_n^c$  is closed, hence measurable (since closed sets are measurable), which implies that the union  $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_n^c$  is also measurable by the property that says that all countable unions of measurable sets are measurable.

Now we simply note that  $S \subset E^c$ , and

$$(E^c \setminus S) \subset (\mathcal{O}_n \setminus E),$$

such that  $m_*(E^c \setminus S) \leq 1/n$  for all n. Therefore,  $m_*(E^c \setminus S) = 0$ , and  $E^c \setminus S$  is measurable by the property that says that any set of outer measure zero is measurable. Therefore  $E^c$  is measurable since it is the union of two measurable sets, namely S and  $(E^c \setminus S)$ .

#### Problem 3

**3A)** Give an example or prove the impossibility of the existence of a non-measurable set in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Solution. Let us take the interval [0, 1] and define the relation

Let 
$$x \sim y$$
 whenever  $x - y \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

Note that this is an equivalence relation, since the reflexive, symmetric, and transitive properties hold. We know that equivalence classes partition a set into distinct cells, thus the interval [0, 1] is the disjoint union of all equivalence classes that are defined on this interval, i.e.

$$[0,1] = \bigcup_{\alpha} \mathcal{E}_{\alpha},$$

where each  $\mathcal{E}_{\alpha}$  represents a unique equivalence class.

Now we construct the (Vitali) set  $\mathcal{N}$  by choosing exactly one element  $x_{\alpha}$  from each  $\mathcal{E}_{\alpha}$  (this is justified by using the axiom of choice), and setting  $\mathcal{N} = \{x_{\alpha}\}.$ 

The important result is stated in the following proposition:

**Proposition 2.** The Vitali set  $\mathcal{N}$  constructed above is not measurable.

Proof of Proposition 2. Assume that  $\mathcal{N}$  is measurable. Let  $\{r_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be an enumeration of all the rationals in [-1,1], and consider the translates

$$\mathcal{N}_k = \mathcal{N} + r_k$$

Note that the sets  $\mathcal{N}_k$  are disjoint. To see why this is true, suppose that the intersection  $\mathcal{N}_k \cap \mathcal{N}_{k'}$  is nonempty. Then there exist rationals  $r_k \neq r_{k'}$  and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  with

$$x_{\alpha} + r_k = x_{\beta} + r_{k'}$$

which implies that

$$x_{\alpha} - x_{\beta} = r_{k'} - r_k.$$

But this means that  $\alpha \neq \beta$  and  $x_{\alpha} - x_{\beta}$  is rational, which in turn implies that  $x_{\alpha} \sim x_{\beta}$ . This contradicts the fact that  $\mathcal{N}$  contains only one representative of each equivalence class. Now we make the claim that

(2) 
$$[0,1] \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}_k \subset [-1,2]$$

To see why, notice that if  $x \in [0,1]$ , then  $x \sim x_{\alpha}$  for some  $\alpha$ , and therefore  $x - x_{\alpha} = r_k \Longrightarrow x = x_{\alpha} + r_k$  for some k. Hence  $x \in \mathcal{N}_k$  for some k and the first inclusion holds. The second inclusion above is straightforward since each  $\mathcal{N}_k$  is contained in [-1,2] by construction.

Now we may conclude the proof of the theorem. If  $\mathcal{N}$  were measurable, then so would be  $\mathcal{N}_k$  for all k, and since the union  $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}_k$  is disjoint, the inclusions in (2) yield

$$1 \le \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m(\mathcal{N}_k) \le 3.$$

Since  $\mathcal{N}_k$  is a translate of  $\mathcal{N}$ , we must have  $m(\mathcal{N}_k) = m(\mathcal{N})$  for all k. Consequently,

$$1 \le \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m(\mathcal{N}) \le 3.$$

This is the desired contradiction, since neither  $m(\mathcal{N}) = 0$  nor  $m(\mathcal{N}) > 0$  is possible.  $(\Rightarrow \Leftarrow)$ 

In other words,  $m(\mathcal{N}) = 0$  is not possible by the above inequality, and  $m(\mathcal{N}) > 0$  is not possible either because we are trying to find the measure of a countable set, which would have measure zero if any.

Thus we have constructed a non-measurable set in  $\mathbb{R}$ , as desired.

**3B**) Give an example or prove the impossibility of the existence of a function that is not Riemann integrable over a closed interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  but whose absolute value is.

Solution. Let us define the function  $\widehat{\chi}_{[0,1]} \colon [0,1] \to \{-1,1\}$  by

$$\widehat{\chi}_{[0,1]}(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}; \\ -1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This function is discontinuous everywhere on the closed interval [0,1]. Hence it is not Riemann integrable, since the set of discontinuities has positive measure. However, the absolute value  $|\widehat{\chi}_{[0,1]}|$  is Riemann integrable and has value  $\int_0^1 |\widehat{\chi}_{[0,1]}| \, dx = \int_0^1 (1) \, dx = 1$ .  $\square$ 

**3C)** Give an example or prove the impossibility of the existence of a function that is not Lebesgue integrable over a closed interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  but whose absolute value is.

Solution. I missed the explanation on Wednesday's class but after giving it some thought I think I now understand what I did wrong. I answered the question saying that no such example exists because we know from a previous result that if the absolute value of a measurable function f is integrable, then we are guaranteed that f is also integrable. This follows from the following definition and proposition:

**Definition 1.** The Lebesgue integral of a measurable function f is defined by

$$\int f = \int f^+ - \int f^-.$$

**Proposition 3.** Let f be a measurable function on E. Then  $f^+$  and  $f^-$  are integrable over E if and only if |f| is integrable over E.

Proof of Proposition 3 Assume  $f^+$  and  $f^-$  are integrable nonnegative functions. By the linearity of integration for nonnegative functions,  $|f| = f^+ + f^-$  is integrable over E. Conversely, suppose |f| is integrable over E. Since  $0 \le f^+ \le |f|$  and  $0 \le f^- \le |f|$  on E, we infer from the monotonicity of integration for nonnegative functions that both  $f^+$  and  $f^-$  are integrable over E.

The key here is that we have to come up with a function that is not measurable, since otherwise the function is necessarily integrable whenever its absolute value is, according to the above proposition. Hence, to find a function that is not Lebesgue integrable over a closed interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  but whose absolute value is, we take  $\widetilde{\chi}_{[-1,2]} \colon [-1,2] \to \{-1,1\}$ , defined by

$$\widetilde{\chi}_{[-1,2]}(x) = \begin{cases} -1, & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{N}_k, \\ 1, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where the  $\mathcal{N}_k$  are the Vitali translates defined on *Problem 3A*), whose union is contained in [-1,2], i.e.  $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}_k \subset [-1,2]$ .

Now notice that  $\widetilde{\chi}_{[-1,2]}$  is not a measurable function since  $\widetilde{\chi}_{[-1,2]}^{-1}(-1) = \mathcal{N}_k$  is not measurable. Hence  $\widetilde{\chi}_{[-1,2]}$  is not Lebesgue integrable either, while its absolute value is Lebesgue integrable with  $\int_{[-1,2]} |\widetilde{\chi}_{[-1,2]}(x)| \, dx = \int_{[-1,2]} (1) \, dx = 3$ .

**3D)** Give an example or prove the impossibility of the existence of a non-measurable set of outer measure zero.

Solution. No such example can possibly exist because any set of outer measure zero is by definition measurable. In fact, any subset of a set of outer measure zero is measurable. To see why this is true, recall a property of outer measure that says that if  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ , then  $m_*(E) = \inf m_*(\mathcal{O})$ , where the infimum is taken over all open sets  $\mathcal{O}$  containing E. It follows from this property that, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an open set  $\mathcal{O}$  with  $E \subset \mathcal{O}$  and  $m_*(\mathcal{O}) \leq \varepsilon$ . Since  $(\mathcal{O} \setminus E) \subset \mathcal{O}$ , monotonicity implies  $m_*(\mathcal{O} \setminus E) \leq \varepsilon$ , as desired.  $\square$ 

## 7

#### Problem 4

**4A)** Outline the specification of the Lebesgue integral in  $\mathbb{R}$ , making reference to the *Monotone Convergence Theorem* and to *Fatou's Lemma*.

Solution. We are going to proceed outlining some details of the Lebesgue integral in four stages, starting with simple functions, then bounded functions supported on a set of finite measure, then non-negative functions, and lastly we conclude with the general case of all integrable functions.

0.0.1. Simple Functions. A simple function  $\varphi$  is a finite sum of the form  $\varphi = \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \chi_{E_k}$ , where the  $a_k$  are constants and the  $E_k$  are measurable sets. To avoid ambiguities however, we want to define the canonical form of  $\varphi$ . Since  $\varphi$  can only take finitely many distinct and non-zero values, say  $a_1, ..., a_M$ , we may set

$$S_k = \{x \colon \varphi(x) = a_k\}$$

and note that the sets  $S_k$  are disjoint. Therefore

$$\varphi = \sum_{k=1}^{M} a_k \chi_{S_k}$$

is the desired canonical form of  $\varphi$ .

Now we define the Lebesgue integral for the class of simple functions as

$$\int \varphi \, dx = \int \sum_{k=1}^{M} a_k \, \chi_{S_k} \, dx = \sum_{k=1}^{M} a_k \, m(S_k),$$

where  $\varphi$  is in canonical form.

0.0.2. Bounded Functions Supported on a Set of Finite Measure. An important result for this class of functions is that if f is a function bounded by some bound M and supported on a set E, then there exists a sequence  $\{\varphi_n\}$  of simple functions, with each  $\varphi_n$  bounded by M and supported on E, and such that  $\varphi_n(x) \to f(x) \, \forall x$ . As a consequence, for this class of functions we have a very important result known as the Bounded Convergence Theorem, which is stated on Problem 4D).

Here's a key lemma for this class of functions:

**Lemma 1.** Let f be a bounded function supported on a set E of finite measure. If  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is any sequence of simple functions bounded by M, supported on E, and with  $\varphi_n(x) \to f(x)$  for a.e. x, then:

- (i)  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \int \varphi_n \ exists$ .
- (ii) if f = 0 a.e., then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \int \varphi_n = 0$ .

Remark: Using the above lemma we can now turn to the integration of bounded functions that are supported on sets of finite measure. For such a function f we define its Lebesgue integral by

$$\int f(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int \varphi_n(x) dx,$$

where  $\{\varphi_n\}$  is any sequence of simple functions satisfying:

- (i)  $|\varphi_n| \leq M$ .
- (ii) each  $\varphi_n$  is supported on the support of f.
- (iii)  $\varphi_n(x) \to f(x)$  for a.e. x as n tends to infinity (we know by the above lemma that this limit exists).

0.0.3. Non-negative Functions. This is the class of functions that are measurable and non-negative but not necessarily bounded. We define the Lebesgue integral of such functions by

$$\int f(x) dx = \sup_{q} \int g(x) dx,$$

where this supremum is taken over all measurable functions g such that  $0 \le g \le f$ , and where g is bounded and supported on a set of finite measure.

Remark: With the above definition of the integral, there are only two possible cases: the supremum is either finite, or infinite. In the case where  $\int f(x) dx < \infty$ , we shall say that f is (Lebesgue) integrable.

It is in this class of functions that we find the following two key results:

**Lemma 2** (Fatou's Lemma). Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of non-negative measurable functions. If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$  for a.e. x, then

$$\int \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n = \int f \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int f_n.$$

Before stating the next result, let us define the following notation:

**Notation 1.**  $f_n \nearrow f$  refers to a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  of monotonically increasing functions that are converging to the limit f as  $n \to \infty$  a.e. x.

Now here's the theorem:

**Theorem 1** (Monotone Convergence Theorem). Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of non-negative measurable functions with  $f_n \nearrow f$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int f_n = \int f.$$

0.0.4. Non-negative Functions. We have arrived at the general case that includes all (Lebesgue) integrable functions. We start by defining

$$f^+(x) = \max(f(x), 0)$$
 and  $f^-(x) = \max(-f(x), 0)$ 

so that both  $f^+$  and  $f^-$  are non-negative and

$$f^+ - f^- = f.$$

Since  $f^{\pm} \leq |f|$ , both functions  $f^{+}$  and  $f^{-}$  are integrable whenever f is (by the result obtained above for the class of non-negative functions). Now we define the Lebesgue integral of f by

$$\int f = \int f^+ - \int f^-.$$

Now we conclude this short outline of the theory of the Lebesgue integral.

**4B)** State some of the principal properties of the Lebesgue integral in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Solution. The integral of Lebesgue integrable functions is linear, additive, monotonic, and satisfies the triangle inequality. In other words, the Lebesgue integral satisfies:

i) Linearity

If f and g are integrable, and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\int (\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha \int f + \beta \int g.$$

ii) Additivity

If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are disjoint, and f is integrable, then

$$\int_{E_1 \cup E_2} f = \int_{E_1} f + \int_{E_2} f.$$

iii) Monotonicity

If  $f \leq g$ , where f and g are integrable, then

$$\int f \le \int g.$$

iv) Triangle Inequality

If f is integrable, then so is |f| and

$$\left| \int f \right| \le \int |f| \, .$$

That concludes our short outline of some of the principal properties of the Lebesgue integral.  $\Box$ 

**4C)** State the Bounded Convergence Theorem.

Solution. **Theorem)** Suppose that  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of measurable functions that are all bounded by some bound M, are supported on a set E of finite measure, and  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  a.e. x as  $n \to \infty$ . Then f is measurable, bounded, supported on E for a.e. x, and

$$\int |f_n - f| \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$

which in turn implies that

$$\int f_n \to \int f \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$