

# Analysis of Functions

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## Course schedule

### Lebesgue integration theory

Review of integration: simple functions, monotone and dominated convergence; existence of Lebesgue measure; definition of  $L^p$  spaces and their completeness. The Lebesgue differentiation theorem. Egorov's theorem, Lusin's theorem. Mollification by convolution, continuity of translation and separability of  $L^p$  when  $p \neq \infty$ . [5]

### Banach and Hilbert space analysis

Strong, weak and weak-\* topologies; reflexive spaces. Review of the Riesz representation theorem for Hilbert spaces; the Radon–Nikodym theorem; the dual of  $L^p$ . Compactness: review of the Ascoli–Arzelà theorem; weak-\* compactness of the unit ball for separable Banach spaces. The Riesz representation theorem for spaces of continuous functions. The Hahn–Banach theorem and its consequences: separation theorems; Mazur's theorem. [7]

### Fourier analysis

Definition of Fourier transform in  $L^1$ ; the Riemann–Lebesgue lemma. Fourier inversion theorem. Extension to  $L^2$  by density and Plancherel's isometry. Duality between regularity in real variable and decay in Fourier variable. [3]

### Generalized derivatives and function spaces

Definition of generalized derivatives and of the basic spaces in the theory of distributions:  $\mathcal{D}/\mathcal{D}'$  and  $\mathcal{S}/\mathcal{S}'$ . The Fourier transform on  $\mathcal{S}'$ . Periodic distributions; Fourier series; the Poisson summation formula. Definition of the Sobolev spaces  $H^s$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Sobolev embedding. The Rellich–Kondrashov theorem. The trace theorem. [5]

### Applications

Construction and regularity of solutions for elliptic PDEs with constant coefficients on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Construction and regularity of solutions for the Dirichlet problem of Laplace's equation. The spectral theorem for the Laplacian on a bounded domain. \*The direct method of the Calculus of Variations.\* [4]

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# 1 Lebesgue integration theory

## 1.1 Recap of measure theory

We recall some basic notions from II Probability and Measure whilst establishing the notation for this course.

Let  $E$  be a set. A family  $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{P}(E)$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra if  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$  and it is closed under countable unions and complements. A map  $\mu: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a measure if it is  $\sigma$ -additive, i.e.,  $\mu(\bigsqcup_n A_n) = \sum_n \mu(A_n)$  for a countable disjoint collection  $(A_n)$ . A pair  $(E, \mathcal{B})$  is called a measurable space, whereas a triple  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  is called a measure space. If  $E$  is a topological space, we can (and, in this course, will) consider  $\mathcal{B}$  to be the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra.

A map  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is measurable if  $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{B}$  for all Borel  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$ . If  $f: E \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is measurable, then  $\int f d\mu$  is well-defined (in  $[0, \infty]$ ). We say that  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is integrable if it is measurable and  $\int |f| d\mu < \infty$ . We then denote by  $\mathcal{L}^1(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  the set of all integrable functions  $E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Writing  $f \sim g \iff f = g$  a.e., we then define  $L^1(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu) := \mathcal{L}^1(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu) / \sim$ . However, it is of course standard to refer to a concrete function  $f$  from some equivalence class  $[f] \in L^1(E)$ .

### Theorem 1.1 Dominated convergence theorem

Let  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a measure space. Let  $g, f, f_1, f_2 \in L^1(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ . Suppose  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  and  $|f_n(x)| \leq g(x)$  for a.e.  $x \in E$ . Then

$$\int_E f_n d\mu \rightarrow \int_E f d\mu$$

Recall that a measure space  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite if there exists  $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  such that  $E = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$  and  $\mu(A_n) < \infty$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### Theorem 1.2 Fubini's theorem

Let  $(E, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  and  $(F, \mathcal{B}, \nu)$  be two  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces. Let  $f: E \times F \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be  $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{B}$ -measurable.

- (i) If the map  $x \mapsto \int_F f(x, y) d\nu$  is in  $L^1(E, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ , then  $f \in L^1(E \times F)$ .
- (ii) If  $f \in L^1(E \times F)$ , then

$$\int_{E \times F} f d\mu \otimes \nu = \int_E \int_F f(x, y) d\nu(y) d\mu(x) = \int_F \int_E f(x, y) d\mu(x) d\nu(y)$$

## 1.2 Signed and complex measures

### Definition Complex and signed measures

Let  $(E, \mathcal{B})$  be a measurable space. A set function  $\mu: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a complex measure if it is  $\sigma$ -additive. We then say that  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  is a complex measure space. If  $\mu(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathbb{R}$ , we call  $\mu$  a signed measure and  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  a signed measure space.

**Remark.** Previously, we really have been considering *positive* measures, though we will always just refer to such maps as *measures*. Note that not every (positive) measure is a complex measure.

Given a complex measure  $\mu$ , define the *real* and *imaginary parts*  $\operatorname{Re} \mu$  and  $\operatorname{Im} \mu$  as

$$\forall A \in \mathcal{B} \quad \operatorname{Re} \mu(A) = \operatorname{Re}(\mu(A)), \quad \operatorname{Im} \mu(A) = \operatorname{Im}(\mu(A))$$

It is easy to verify that these are signed measures.

**Definition** Positive and negative sets

Let  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a signed measure space. We say that  $A$  is a positive (resp. negative) set if  $\mu(B) \geq 0$  (resp.  $\mu(B) \leq 0$ ) for all  $B \subset A$ .

**Theorem 1.3** Hahn decomposition

Let  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a signed measure space. Then there exists a positive set  $P \in \mathcal{B}$  and a negative set  $N \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $E = P \sqcup N$ .

In proving the Hahn decomposition theorem, we will ultimately be defining  $P$  be a positive set of the largest possible measure. However, we first show the existence of non-trivial positive sets via the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.4**

For all  $A \subset \mathcal{B}$ , there is a positive set  $D \subset A$  such that  $\mu(D) \geq \mu(A)$ .

*Proof.* If  $A$  is positive, then we can simply take  $D = A$  and we are done. It remains to carefully consider the case  $A$  is not positive. Pick negative set  $B_1 \subset A$  such that  $\mu(B_1)$  is “as negative as possible” in the approximate sense that there is no  $B \subset A$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  for which  $\mu(B_1) > -1/k \geq \mu(B)$ . Let  $A_1 = A \setminus B_1$ . Continue inductively to define  $B_2, A_2, B_3, A_3, \dots$  in such a way that  $B_{j+1} \subset A_j$  and  $\mu(B_{j+1}) > -1/k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  only if this is so for all subsets of  $A_i$ ; we then take  $A_{j+1} = A_j \setminus B_{j+1}$ .

Now, take  $D = \bigcap A_j$ . Then  $A = D \sqcup B_1 \sqcup B_2 \sqcup \dots$ , so  $\mu(A) = \mu(D) + \sum_j \mu(B_j)$ . Since  $\mu(B_j) \geq 0$  for each  $j$ , we have  $\mu(D) \geq \mu(A)$ . It then remains to show that  $D$  is positive. Note that  $\mu(B_j) \rightarrow 0$  by convergence of  $\sum_j \mu(B_j)$ . Fix  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\mu(B_i) > -1/k$  for some  $i$ . Then  $\mu(B) > -1/k$  for all  $B \subset A_{i-1}$  and thus for all  $B \subset D$ . Hence,  $D$  must be positive. ■

*Proof of Theorem 1.3.* Note that a union of positive sets  $A = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots$  is positive; indeed, for any  $B \subset A$ , we have  $B = (B \cap A_1) \sqcup (B \cap A_2 \setminus A_1) \sqcup (B \cap A_3 \setminus (A_1 \cup A_2)) \sqcup \dots$  which implies that  $\mu(B) \geq 0$  by  $\sigma$ -additivity.

Let  $s = \sup\{\mu(A) : A \subset E \text{ positive}\}$  and let  $(P_i)$  be a sequence of positive sets in  $\mathcal{B}$  such that  $\lim \mu(P_i) = s$ . Then by above, we know that  $P = \bigcup P_i$  is positive. Since  $\mu(P) \geq \mu(P_i)$ , we also have  $\mu(P) = s$ .

Now, suppose, on the contrary, that  $N := E \setminus P$  is not a negative set. Then there exists  $B \subset N$  such that  $\mu(B) > 0$ . By Lemma 1.4, there exists  $D \subset B$  positive such that  $\mu(D) \geq \mu(B)$ . It then follows that  $\mu(P \cup D) > \mu(P)$  with  $P \cup D$  a positive set — a contradiction! ■

**Remarks**

- A key corollary of the Hahn decomposition theorem is the Jordan decomposition of signed measures.
- The decomposition  $E = P \sqcup N$  is manifestly non-unique as we can, for instance, ‘move’ a negligible subset from  $P$  to  $N$ . However, this makes no difference in the Jordan decomposition of  $\mu$ .

**Corollary 1.5** Jordan decomposition of signed measures

Let  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a signed measure space, with  $E = P \sqcup N$  for positive  $P$  and negative  $N$ . Then  $\mu^+ := \mu|_P$  and  $\mu^- := -\mu|_N$  are positive measures satisfying  $\mu = \mu^+ - \mu^-$ .

*Proof.* Trivial. ■

Now that we've proven the Hahn and Jordan decompositions, we can now extend Lebesgue integration to signed and complex measures.

**Definition** Integral with respect to signed measures

Let  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a signed measure space. A measurable function  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is integrable if it is integrable with respect to  $\mu^+$  and  $\mu^-$ . In that case, we then define its integral to be

$$\int_E f d\mu := \int_E f d\mu^+ - \int_E f d\mu^-$$

**Definition** Integral with respect to complex measures

Let  $(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  be a complex measure space. A measurable function  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is integrable with respect to  $\operatorname{Re} \mu$  and  $\operatorname{Im} \mu$ . In that case, we then define its integral to be

$$\int_E f d\mu := \int_E f d\operatorname{Re} \mu + i \int_E f d\operatorname{Im} \mu$$

Finally, we end this subsection with a brief discussion on the Banach space structure of the space of complex measures. Given a signed measure  $\mu$ , we can define its *total variation measure* to be

$$|\mu| := \mu^+ + \mu^-$$

and its *total variation norm* to be

$$\|\mu\| := |\mu|(E) = \mu^+(E) + \mu^-(E)$$

On the Example Sheet, you will extend these notions to complex measures. It can then be shown that the space of complex measures on a measurable space  $(E, \mathcal{B})$  forms a Banach space with respect to the total variation norm.

### 1.3 Radon-Nikodym theorem

*Motivation:* In II Probability and Measure, you met some examples of continuous and discrete random variables. Are there probability distributions that do not belong to either category? How do we know if a random variable has a density?

Let us start off with some definitions. Let  $\mu, \nu$  be (positive) measures on  $(E, \mathcal{B})$ .

**Definition** Absolutely continuous measure

We say that  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous wrt  $\mu$  if  $\mu(A) = 0 \implies \nu(A) = 0$  for all  $A \subset B$ . We then write  $\nu \ll \mu$ .

**Definition** Singular measure

We say that  $\nu$  is singular wrt  $\mu$  if there exists a decomposition  $E = A \sqcup B$  such that  $\nu(A) = 0$  and  $\mu(B) = 0$ . We then write  $\nu \perp \mu$ .

**Remark.** It is easy to see that  $\nu \perp \mu \iff \mu \perp \nu$ .

**Definition** Concentrates on a set

We say that  $\mu$  concentrates on a set  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  if  $\mu(E \setminus A) = 0$ .

**Remark.**  $\mu \perp \nu$  iff there exist disjoint sets  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $\mu$  is concentrated on  $A$  and  $\nu$  is concentrated on  $B$ .

We now state the two main theorems of this subsection.

**Theorem 1.6** Radon-Nikodym theorem

Let  $\mu, \nu$  be finite measures on  $(E, \mathcal{B})$ . Suppose that  $\nu \ll \mu$ . Then there exists  $f \in L^1(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$  such that

$$\nu(A) = \int_A f d\mu$$

If  $g$  is another function that satisfies the conclusion of this theorem, then  $f = g$   $\mu$ -a.e.

The function  $f$  in the theorem above is called the *Radon-Nikodym (RN) derivative*, often denoted by

$$\frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$$

**Remark.** We could extend this theorem by replace finite with  $\sigma$ -finite, but this comes at the expense of having  $f \in L^1$ .

**Theorem 1.7** Lebesgue decomposition

Let  $\mu, \nu$  be finite measures. Then there exist unique measures  $\nu_a, \nu_s$  such that  $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$  with  $\nu_a \ll \mu$  and  $\nu_s \perp \mu$ .

The idea behind the proof of these theorems is as follows. For each  $t \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ , let  $P_t \sqcup N_t$  be a Hahn-decomposition of  $\nu - t\mu$ . Then, for all measurable  $A \subset P_t$ , we have  $(\nu - t\mu)(A) \geq 0$  and so  $\nu(A) \geq t\mu(A)$ . Similarly, for all measurable  $A \subset N_t$ , we have  $\nu(A) \leq t\mu(A)$ . Let  $t_1 < t_2$ . if  $A \in P_{t_1} \cap N_{t_2}$ , then

$$t_1\mu(A) \leq \nu(A) \leq t_2\mu(A)$$

so it is reasonable to expect that the Radon-Nikodym derivative will be between  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  on  $P_{t_1} \cap N_{t_2}$ .

The above intuition motivates the following definition: For each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , define

$$f_n(x) := \sup\{t \in 2^{-n}\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} : x \in P_t\}$$

where  $2^{-n}\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  is the set of all numbers of the form  $2^{-n}a$  with  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ . Set  $f(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$  for each  $x$ .

**Lemma 1.8**

There exists  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $\mu(E \setminus A) = 0$  and

$$\nu(B) = \int_B f d\mu$$

for all  $B \subset A$ .

*Proof.* For each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , let  $A_n := \{x : f_n(x) < \infty\}$ . We first show that  $\mu(E \setminus A_n) = 0$ . To do this, fix  $t \in 2^{-n}\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ . Then  $E \setminus A_n \subset \bigcup_{s \geq t} P_s$ , with  $\bigcup_{s \geq t} P_s$  positive for  $\nu - t\mu$ . We thus deduce that  $\nu(E) \geq \nu(E \setminus A_n) \geq t\mu(E \setminus A_n)$ . Taking  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , we conclude that  $\mu(E \setminus A_n) = 0$ .

Now, fix  $B \subset A_n$ . For  $s \in 2^{-n}\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , let

$$B_t = \{x \in B : f_n(x) = t\}$$

Note that  $B = \bigsqcup_t B_t$  and that, if  $x \in B_t$ , then  $x \in P_t$  but  $x \notin P_{t+2^{-n}}$ . Thus,  $B_t \subset P_t \cap N_{t+2^{-n}}$  and so we have

$$t\mu(B_t) \leq \nu(B_t) \leq (t + 2^{-n})\mu(B_t)$$

This implies that

$$\left| \nu(B_t) - \int_{B_t} f_n d\mu \right| \leq 2^{-n} \mu(B_t)$$

from which it follows that

$$\left| \nu(B) - \int_B f_n d\mu \right| \leq 2^{-n} \mu(B)$$

Finally, set  $A := \bigcap_n A_n$ . Picking  $B \subset A$ , the above holds for all  $n$ , so by the monotone convergence theorem, we conclude that

$$\int_B f d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_B f_n d\mu = \nu(B)$$

Note also that  $\mu(E \setminus A) = \mu(\bigcup (E \setminus A_n)) = 0$ . ■

*Proof of Theorem 1.6.* Since  $\nu \ll \mu$ , we have  $\nu(E \setminus A) = 0$ . Then for each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ ,

$$\nu(B) = \nu(B \cap A) + \nu(B \setminus A) - \int_{B \cap A} f d\mu = \int_B f d\mu$$

Thus,  $f$  is a Radon-Nikodym derivative.

It remains to show uniqueness. Let  $f, g$  be two RN derivatives. Suppose that, on the contrary,  $f \neq g$   $\mu$ -a.e. Then there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that either  $B = \{x: f(x) - g(x) > \varepsilon\}$  or  $\{x: f(x) - g(x) < -\varepsilon\}$  has positive measure. WLOG, let it be the first one. Then we have

$$0 = \nu(B) - \nu(B) = \int_B (f - g) d\mu \geq \int_B \varepsilon d\mu = \varepsilon \mu(B)$$

as required. ■