Measures on Topological Spaces

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Measure Theory Bank of Lemmas

Lemma 1.1 (Generating a σ -algebra). Fix a space X. For any family of sets A, $\sigma(A)$ can be generated by any of the following sets of operations:

- 1. complements and countable unions.
- 2. complements and increasing countable unions.

Lemma 1.2. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology of X. Then

$$\sigma(\mathcal{B}) = \operatorname{Bor} X.$$

Lemma 1.3. The set operations and the measure taking operations are continuous with respect to the symmetric difference pseudometric.

Lemma 1.4. A bounded measurable function f on a measure space (X, μ) can be uniformly approximated by simple functions.

Proof. Let

$$|f| \leqslant [-M, M].$$

We will construct the approximation by considering bins of the values of f, i.e. the sets

$$A_k := f^{-1} \Big[[k\varepsilon, (k+1)\varepsilon) \Big]$$

for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In such a *bin*, all the values are within an ε of each other. Since f is bounded, all but finitely many of the bins are empty X, so the function

$$\widetilde{f}_{\varepsilon} := \sum_{A_k \neq \varnothing} (k\varepsilon) \cdot \chi_{A_k}$$

Remark. This works equally well for almost everywhere bounded functions, giving almost everywhere uniform convergence.

Lemma 1.5. Let A, A_1, \ldots, A_k be measurable sets such that

$$\forall k. \, \mu(A_i \cap A) \ge (1 - \delta_i)\mu(A).$$

Then

$$\mu(A \cap A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \ldots \cap A_k) \ge \left(1 - \sum \delta_i\right) \mu(A).$$

Proof. Union bound on the sets

$$A \cap A_i^c$$
.

Remark. This also works for an infinite sequence of sets A_k ; we obtain.

$$\mu\left(A\cap\bigcap_{k}A_{k}\right)\geqslant\left(1-\sum_{k}\delta_{k}\right)\mu(A).$$

An introduction to geometric measure theory

In this chapter, we study the links between the topology and geometry of \mathbb{R} and the Lebesgue measure. We first give two examples of how the two structures agree, and one example of how they don't.

Isometries. Consider the group Isom \mathbb{R} of the isometries of \mathbb{R} with the euclidean metric. One easily shows that this group consists of functions of the form

$$x + a$$
 or $a - x$

for $a \in \mathbb{R}$. The Lebesgue measure is invariant on transformations $g \in \text{Isom } \mathbb{R}$, i.e.

$$\lambda(gA) = \lambda(A)$$

for all measurable $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A corollary of this is that the Lebesgue measure is invariant w.r.t. the addition operation on \mathbb{R} , which gives the reals the structure of a topological group.

Affine transformations. Similarly to the above, the Lebesque measure work well with the action of the affine transformation group Aff \mathbb{R} . Directly from the definition, the group of affine transformations consists of the functions

$$g_{a,b}(x) := ax + b$$

for $r \neq 0$, and the interaction with measure is given by

$$\lambda(g_{a,b}A) = |a| \cdot \lambda(A).$$

Topology. There is a disconnect between the topological (nonempty interior) and measure-theoretic (positive measure) notions of *large* or *non-negligable* – the topological notion is strictly stronger! Indeed, a set with nonempty interior has positive measure, but if we enumerate the rationals as

$$\mathbb{Q} = \{q_1, q_2, \ldots\}$$

the set

$$\mathbb{R} \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (q_n - \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{n+1}}, q_n + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{n+1}})$$

has comeasure ε , but is nowhere dense.

However, there does exist a link between the two notions. It is a bit more subtle.

Definition 2.1. Fix a measurable set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A point $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is called a **density point** iff

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0^+} \frac{\lambda(A \cap B(x,\delta))}{2\delta} = 1.$$

The 2δ in the numerator is of course $\lambda(B(x,\delta))$.

Definition 2.2. The set of density points of A will be denoted $\phi(A)$.

Note that a density point is by neccesity an accumulation point. The promised link between geometry, measure and topology is provided by the theorem below.

Theorem 2.1 (Lebesgue Density Theorem). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a measurable set. Then almost all Ankified points of A are density points of A in the sense that

$$\lambda^*(A \setminus \phi(A)) = 0.$$

Remark. Note that the theorem follows trivially for null sets. Also, for a given A, we may as well apply the theorem to A^c to get that almost all points outside of A have density 0.

For the proof of the **Lebesgue Density Theorem**, we will need a tool, which we introduce now and prove later.

Definition 2.3. A family \mathcal{J} of nontrivial closed intervals is called a **Vitali cover** of a set A (not necessarily measurable) if for any given $\varepsilon > 0$ and $x \in A$ there is an interval $J \in \mathcal{J}$ such that

diam
$$J < \varepsilon \land x \in J$$
.

In particular

$$A \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{J}$$
.

Theorem 2.2 (Vitali Covering Theorem). If \mathcal{J} is a Vitali cover of A, there exists a sequence of Ankified pariwaise disjoint segments $J_n \in \mathcal{J}$ such that

$$\lambda\left(A\setminus\bigcup_n J_n\right)=0.$$

Corollary. If a set A has a Vitali Cover, then A is measurable.

Why is this theorem useful? Vitali's theorem may not sound very smart on first glance. Its strength lies in the *disjointness* of the cover. If we go about choosing the cover J_n without any guarantees, we can for example choose

$$\bigcup_{q_n \in \mathbb{Q}} \left(q_n - \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{n+1}}, \, q_n + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{n+1}} \right)$$

and get stuck! We have only covered a subset of the reals of size ε , but we cannot use any other segment by density of \mathbb{Q} .

Proof of the Lebesgue Density Theorem. We represent

$$A \setminus \phi(A) = \bigcup_k A_k$$

for

$$A_k = \left\{a \in A: \liminf_{\delta \to 0^+} \frac{\lambda(A \cap B(a,\delta))}{2\delta} < 1 - \frac{1}{k}\right\}.$$

It suffices to show

$$\lambda^*(A_k) = 0$$

for all k to finish the proof. Since we may represent A as

$$A = \bigcup_{z \in \mathbb{Z}} A \cap [z - 1, z + 1]$$

and being a density point of A is the same as being a density point of one of the *cutouts* in the sum above, we may assume without loss of generality that $A \subseteq [0, 1]$.

By definition of outer measure, we can approximate A_k from above by an open set U such that

$$\lambda^*(A_k) \leqslant \lambda(U) \leqslant \lambda^*(A_k) + \varepsilon.$$

Construct a covering

$$\mathcal{J} = \left\{ [a, b] : [a, b] \subseteq U, \, \lambda \left(A \cap [a, b] \right) \leqslant \left(1 - \frac{1}{k} \right) \lambda [a, b] \right\}.$$

It is a Vitali cover of A_k . By Vitali's Theorem we can pick a pairwise disjoint sequence of intervals $J_i \in \mathcal{J}$ for which

$$\lambda^* \left(A_k \setminus \bigcup_i \ J_i \right) = 0.$$

This gives

$$\lambda^*(A_k) = \lambda^* \left(A_k \cap \bigcup_i J_i \right)$$

$$\leqslant \sum_i \lambda^*(A_k \cap J_i)$$

$$\leqslant \sum_i \lambda^*(A \cap J_i)$$

$$\leqslant \left(1 - \frac{1}{k} \right) \sum_i \lambda(J_i)$$

$$\leqslant \left(1 - \frac{1}{k} \right) \lambda(U)$$

$$\leqslant \left(1 - \frac{1}{k} \right) (\lambda^*(A_k) + \varepsilon).$$

The passage from line 2 to 3 may seem trivial, but is in fact crucial. This is the place where we use $A_k \subseteq A!$ Otherwise the theorem is quite absurd, even for simple examples like [0,1]. Since $\lambda^*(A_k) \leq \lambda(A) < \infty$, we can rearrange this to obtain

$$\lambda^*(A_k) \leqslant (k-1)\varepsilon.$$

Since ε can be picked arbitrarily close to 0, we get

$$\lambda^*(A_k) = 0.$$

Proof of the Vitali Covering Theorem. The key to avoiding the *trap* we wrote about after stating the VCT is to choose the segments to be as large as possible – or at least not embarassingly small.

Without loss of generality, A is bounded since we can sum the coverings of $A \cap (n, n+1)$. The sequence of segments we pick is denoted J_n . In that case we may also assume $\bigcup \mathcal{J}$ is bounded. Its prefixes are

$$P_n := \bigcup_{i < n} J_i$$
$$\mathcal{J}_n := \{ J \in \mathcal{J} : J \cap P_n = \emptyset \}$$

and the width of what we can choose is

$$\gamma_n := \sup_{J \in \mathcal{J}_n} \operatorname{diam} J.$$

Note that in particular

$$P_1 = \emptyset,$$

 $\mathcal{J}_1 = \mathcal{J}$
 $\gamma_1 \leqslant \operatorname{diam} A < \infty.$

At each step, we choose J_n so that

$$\operatorname{diam} J_n \geqslant \frac{1}{2}\gamma_n,$$

or we stop if $\gamma_n = 0$ at some point.

Claim 1. The sequence γ_n converges monotonically to 0.

Proof of Claim 1. Being the supremum of ever decreasing sets, γ_n is decreasing. It is also non-negative, so the sequence converges and $\lim_n \gamma_n \ge 0$. Suppose that $\lim_n \gamma_n = c > 0$. Then in the construction, we would almost always choose disjoint intervals of diameter at least c/2. This is impossible, since $\bigcup \mathcal{J}$ was assumed to be bounded, so it has finite measure!

The key to proving that the choice procedure is correct will be the **blowup**, which we define for J = [x - r, x + r] as

$$\widetilde{J}:=[x-5r,\,x+5r]$$

Claim 2. At all steps of the construction

$$A\subseteq \mathcal{J}_n\cup \bigcup_{i\geqslant n}\widetilde{J}_i.$$

Proof of Claim 2. The set \mathcal{J}_n is closed as a union of closed intervals. Therefore, if $a \in A \setminus \mathcal{J}_n$, there is a nondegenerate interval $I \ni a$. Since $\gamma_n \to 0$ by Claim 1, I is not considered in the construction of the sequence J_n for almost all n. Let n_0 be the last step where it is considered. Then we must have $I \cap J_{n_0+1} \neq 0$, because that is the step at which I is no longer considered.

We will show that this implies $a \in \widetilde{J}_{n_0+1}$. Let $J_{n_0+1} = [x-r, x+r]$ and $y \in I \cap J_{n_0+1}$. Then we have

$$d(a, x) \leqslant d(a, y) + d(y, z)$$

$$\leqslant \operatorname{diam} I + r$$

$$\leqslant (2 \cdot \operatorname{diam} J_{n_0+1}) + r$$

$$= 2 \cdot 2r + r$$

$$= 5r.$$

where the diameter bound comes from the definition of γ_{n_0} and the fact that I is still available at step n_0 of the construction.

To finish the proof of Vitali's Covering Theorem, we compute that for all n

$$\lambda^* (A \setminus P_n) \leqslant \lambda^* \left(A \cap \bigcup_{i \geqslant n} \widetilde{J}_i \right)$$

$$\leqslant \lambda \left(\bigcup_{i \geqslant n} \widetilde{J}_i \right)$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{i \geqslant n} \lambda(\widetilde{J}_i)$$

$$= 5 \sum_{i \geqslant n} \lambda(J_i).$$

These are the tails of the convergent series

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda(J_i) = \lambda\left(\bigcup_i J_i\right) < \infty,$$

so we get

$$\lambda^* \left(A \setminus \bigcup_i J_i \right) \leqslant \lambda^* \left(A \setminus P_n \right) \to 0.$$

Remark. Retracing the argument behind **Claim 2.**, we might prove that for any $\alpha < 1$, if we define γ_n with a coefficient of α instead of $\frac{1}{2}$, the constant used for blowing up intervals can be brought down to

$$1+\frac{2}{\alpha}$$
.

In particular, we can get arbitrarily close to 3.

$\S 2.1$ Corollaries and the Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem

Theorem 2.3 (Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem). Let $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$. Then, for almost all x,

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0^+} \frac{1}{2\delta} \int_{x-\delta}^{x+\delta} f(s) \, \mathrm{d}\lambda(s) = f(x).$$

Proof. For characteristic functions, this is just a restatement of the Lebesgue Density Theorem. \Box

§2.2 Generalization to metric spaces

The argument in the proof of the VCT was written so that it is easily generalizable to any metric space with a measure on its Borel sets.

To be more precise, what we need to lift the argument is that

$$\mu\left(B(x,5r)\right) \leqslant C\mu\left(B(x,r)\right)$$

for some constant C. We can also substitute any constant larger that 3 instead of 5.

One (Cantor) set to rule them all

§3.1 Ternary Cantor

Let us begin by making a construction. Take the closed interval $C_0 := [0, 1]$ and remove the middle one third of it in such a way that the remaining two interval are closed. The result of this is

$$C_1 := \left[0, \frac{1}{3}\right] \cup \left[\frac{2}{3}, 1\right].$$

Now, repeat the operation of cutting out the middle third and call the result C_2 . We can repeat this ad inifinitum and obtain a decresing sequence of sets

$$[0,1] = C_0 \supset C_1 \supset C_2 \supset \dots$$

Perhaps surprisingly, there are numbers which are not removed at any step, i.e. the intersection

$$\mathcal{C}_3 := \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} C_k$$

is nonempty! It contains 0 and 1. In fact, any number which can be written in base 3 using only 0's and 2's is an element of this intersection. These are in fact all such numbers. We introduce a tool to prove that.

Lemma 3.1. Let $b \ge 2$ be a positional system base and x_0 be a number with k digits after the positional point. Then, the numbers formed by adjoining (perhaps infinitely many) digits to the base b representation of x_0 are all the numbers in the interval

$$[x_0, x_0 + b^{-k}].$$

If we allow only finite extensions, we get the b-ary rational numbers in that interval, and if we disallow the infinite extension by the digit (b-1), we get the interval

$$[x_0, x_0 + b^{-k}].$$

Lemma 3.2. A real number $x \in [0,1]$ is an element of C_3 iff x can be written in base using only the digits 0 and 2.

Proof (if). We proceed by induction with the induction thesis: x belongs to C_3 iff x can be written in base 3 so that its first k digits are 0 or 2. It should be clear that this thesis is equivalent to the lemma statement. For each k, the statement is true by the previous lemma.

§3.2 Abstract Cantor

The ternary Cantor set has many interesting properties. However, to study it, we will move to a more convenient representation. We can think of the Cantor set as the set of leaves of an infinite binary tree – starting from the root, at each level we choose whether to go right or left, or whether to insert 0 or 2 as the next digit in the base-3 representation of an $x \in \mathcal{C}_3$.

In this way, we can represent the ternary Cantor as

$$\mathcal{C} := \left\{0, 1\right\}^{\mathbb{N}}.$$

That the map we just described is a bijection follows from

Lemma 3.3. Let d_k , \widetilde{d}_k be two sequences of base b digits. Then the corresponding real numbers are equal iff d_k and \widetilde{d} agree on some prefix and afterwards one of them is 0 and the other is (b-1).

Proof. The condition implies equality of numbers by the sum of a geometric series. The other direction follows by looking at the first moment the expansions differ at then bounding the series sum. \Box

What is missing from this description is the topology. We topologize \mathcal{C} by the metric

$$d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x = y\\ \frac{1}{n} & \text{for } x \neq y, \end{cases}$$

which can also be written succintly as

$$d(x,y) = \frac{1}{n_0(x,y)}$$

with the notation

$$n_0(x,y) := \inf \left\{ n : x_n \neq y_n \right\}$$

for the first index at which x and y differ. The function d may not look like a metric at first sight, but in fact it has an even better property.

Lemma 3.4. For the metric d described above we have for all $x, y, z \in \mathcal{C}$

$$d(x,z) \leqslant \max \left\{ d(x,y), d(y,z) \right\}.$$

In particular, d is an ultrametric.

Proof. Recall that $n_0(x, z)$ is the first position at which x and z differ. Then any y has to differ with at least one of y and z at n_0 , but might even earlier. This gives

$$n_0(x,z) \geqslant \min(n_0(x,y), n_0(y,z)).$$

Since the function $x \mapsto 1/x$ is decreasing, the thesis follows.

We have established that (C, d) is a metric space. It is, in fact, homeomorphic with the subspace topology of C_3 inherited from [0, 1].

Lemma 3.5. The function

$$h_3:\mathcal{C}\to\mathcal{C}_3$$

defined by

$$h_3(x) := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2x_k}{3^k}$$

is a homeomorphism.

Proof. Bijectivity follows from the number-system lemma 3.3 and 3.2. For continuity, put down $n_0 := n_0(x, y)$ and compute

$$|h_3(x) - h_3(y)| = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2|x_k - y_k|}{3^k}$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{3^k}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3^{n_0}} \cdot \frac{3}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3^{n_0-1}}.$$

The continuity of the inverse follows from the bound

$$|h_3(x) - h_3(y)| \geqslant \frac{2}{3^{n_0}}.$$

The function h_3 in 3.5 can be understood as a base 3 expansion operator. When we consider a base 2 expansion instead, we lose bijectivity, but we can cover the whole interval.

Lemma 3.6. The function

$$h_2: \mathcal{C} \to [0,1]$$

given by

$$h_2(x) := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_k}{2^k}$$

is a continuous surjection.

Proof. Surjectivity follows from number system properties, and continuity is essentially the same calculation as in the proof of 3.5.

Theorem 3.1 (The Universal Property of the Cantor Set). Every metrizable compact space K is a continuous image of C.

Proof. Considering an element of C as a binary expansion, we have by 3.6 a surjection

$$h_2: \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \to [0,1].$$

The space K can be embedded into the Hilbert cube by the **Urysohn Metrization Theorem** ??. By compactness of K, the image of the embedding is a compact and thus a closed subset. We also have a surjection

$$h:\left\{ 0,1\right\} ^{\mathbb{N}}\rightarrow\left[0,1\right] ^{\mathbb{N}}$$

by using the previous surjection and *unweaving* the Cantor set into the product of countably many Cantor sets, i.e. using

$$\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \implies \mathcal{C} = \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \cong \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} \cong \left(\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}\right)^{\mathbb{N}} = \mathcal{C}^{\mathbb{N}}.$$

The last step is using the fact that any closed set of \mathcal{C} is a retract of \mathcal{C} , which is ??.

A warning against generalization. If K is a compact set, it embeds into a Tichonov Cube

$$K \to [0,1]^{\Gamma}$$

and we can surject the Tichonov cube with a generalized Cantor set

$$\{0,1\}^{\Gamma}$$
,

but the universality theorem fails!

§3.3 Topology of the Cantor set

Definition 3.1 (Cantor Cylinder). Let

$$\varphi: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \{0,1\}$$

be a partial function with finite domain. Then we define the **cylinder set** with base φ as

$$[\varphi] := \{x \in \{0, 1\} : x|_I = \varphi\}.$$

Lemma 3.7. The sets $[\varphi]$ form a base of the topology of $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$.

Definition 3.2. A set $A \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ is **determined** by $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, which we donte by $A \sim I$ if for all $x \in A$, $y \in \mathcal{C}$ we have

$$x|_I = y|_I \implies y \in A.$$

Equivalently,

$$\pi_I^{-1}\pi_I[A] = A.$$

Lemma 3.8 (Clopen sets in the Cantor set). A set $A \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ is clopen iff $A \sim I$ for some finite $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. In particular, clopen sets can be written as a finite union of disjoint basis clopens $[\varphi_i]$ for φ_i with finite domain.

(Direction one). If A is clopen, then

$$A = \bigcup_{i} \left[\varphi_i \right]$$

for some finitely many (by compactness) φ_i with finite domain I_i . Then

$$A \sim \bigcup_{i} I_{i}$$
.

(Other direction). if $A \sim I$, blabla

Immediately, a lemma follows.

Lemma 3.9 (Cantor set is zerodimensional). The Cantor set C is zerodimensional, i.e. it has a base of clopen sets.

Theorem 3.2 (Topological characterisation of the Cantor set). If a topological space K is compact, metrizable, zerodimensional with no isolated points, then

$$K \cong C$$
.

§3.4 The group structure

The Cantor set has a natural abelian group structure given by its product structure. We can phrase it even more efficiently when we think of \mathcal{C} as $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ – the symmetric difference (or xor for the informatically inclined).

$$A \oplus B := A \wedge B$$

Every element has order two!

Fact. Together with the operation \oplus , the Cantor set \mathcal{C} is a compact topological group, i.e. the function

$$(x,y) \mapsto x \oplus y$$

is continuous (in general the second element is inversed, but here every element is its own inverse anyway).

§3.5 Measure

We can define the measure on the Cantor set as a countable product of probability measures:

$$\nu = \bigotimes_{n=1}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2}(\delta_0 + \delta_1)).$$

But we will do it by hand.

Definition 3.3. Let $A \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ be clopen. Then

$$A \sim \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

for some n. Let

$$A' := \pi_{\{1,2,...,n\}}[A]$$

We define its measure to be

$$\nu(A) := \frac{\#A'}{2^n}.$$

This makes sense with the probabilistic definition.

Theorem 3.3 (Well-definedness of the premeasure). The function

$$\nu:\operatorname{Clop}\mathcal{C}\to\mathbb{R}$$

is a well-defined, additive function on the set algebra $\operatorname{Clop} \mathcal{C}$.

Proof. Since the Cantor set is compact, ν is automatically downward continuous on the empty set. By Caratheodory's Theorem, ν extends uniquely to a probabilistic measure on

Bor
$$\mathcal{C} = \sigma \left(\operatorname{Clop} \mathcal{C} \right)$$
.

What now??

$$\mathcal{A} := \{ B \in \operatorname{Bor} \mathcal{C} : \forall \varepsilon > 0. \exists A \in \operatorname{Clop} C.\nu(A\Delta B) < \varepsilon \}.$$

We prove that this is a σ -algebra.

There is a nice formula for cylinders.

Lemma 3.10 (Measure of a cylinder). For a partial function

$$\varphi: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \{0,1\},$$

its cylinder has measure

$$\nu \left[\phi \right] = 2^{-\left| \operatorname{dom} \varphi \right|}.$$

The result holds even if dom φ is infinite, in which case the measure is 0.

Proof. For finite-domain partial functions ϕ , take

$$dom \varphi =: I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\} =: [n]$$

for some n. Then

$$\left|\pi_{[n]}[\varphi]\right| = \frac{2^{n-|I|}}{2^n} = 2^{-|I|}.$$

For infinite-domain functions ϕ , taking a decreasing intersection

$$[\phi] = \bigcap_{n} \left[\phi|_{[n]} \right]$$

shows that the measure of the intersection is 0.

Theorem 3.4. The measure ν is the Haar measure on C, that is, the unique probability measure invariant under group actions

$$\nu(x \oplus B) = \nu(B)$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{C}$, $B \subseteq \mathcal{C}$.

Proof. Let us first consider $B = [\varphi]$, and $I = \operatorname{dom} \varphi$. Then

$$\nu\left(x\oplus\left[\varphi\right]\right)=\nu\left(\left[x\oplus\varphi\right]\right)=\nu\left(\left[\varphi\right]\right).$$

A clopen is a disjoint sum of $[\varphi_i]$ for finitely many φ_i , so additivity on clopens follows. Now, take a superficially different measure

$$\nu_x(B) := \nu\left(x \oplus B\right).$$

Since ν and ν_x agree on clopens, by uniqueness in Caratheodory's Theorem they agree on all sets.

Note the isomorphism

$$(C, \oplus) \cong (\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}), \Delta)$$

of (topological) groups.

§3.6 Normal number theorem

Definition 3.4. Let $A \subseteq \mathcal{C}$. We call A a **tail** set if

$$A \sim \{k : k \geqslant n\}$$

for all n. Equivalently, if $x \in A$ and x(n) = y(n) for almost all n, then $y \in A$.

Example. A naturally occuring example of a tail set is

$$A_{\beta} := \left\{ x \in \mathcal{C} : \lim_{n} \frac{x(1) + \dots x(n)}{n} = \beta \right\}.$$

Theorem 3.5 (Kolmogorov zero-one law for the Cantor set). A borel tail set $A \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ has measure 0 or 1.

Proof. Take a basis set $[\varphi]$. We have

$$\nu\left([\varphi]\cap A\right) = \nu\left([\varphi]\right) \cdot \nu(A).$$

From this immediately follows that this work for any $B \in \operatorname{Clop} \mathcal{C}$. Now approximate A by a clopen B so that

$$\nu (A\Delta C)$$
.

To finish the proof, compute

$$\nu(A) \cdot \nu(B) = \nu(A \cap B) \geqslant \nu(A) - \varepsilon \nu(A).$$

Returning to the example we have $\nu(A_{\beta}) \in \{0,1\}$. We have

$$\nu(A_{\beta}) = \nu(A_{1-\beta}).$$

Theorem 3.6 (Borel's normal number theorem).

$$\nu\left(A_{\frac{1}{2}}\right) = 1.$$

Remark. According to Billingsley, this theorem was the founding work of modern probability theorem, which is founded on limit theorems.

Proof. Denote for $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$

$$B_n^{\alpha} = \left\{ x \in \mathcal{C} : \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_n}{n} \leqslant \alpha \right\}.$$

We claim that there exists a θ such that

$$\nu\left(B_n^{\alpha}\right) \leqslant \theta^n$$
.

Then

$$\nu\left(B_n^{\alpha}\right) = \frac{c_n}{2^n},$$

where

$$c_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor \alpha n \rfloor}$$
.

Measures on separable, metrisable topological spaces

§4.1 Basic properties.

For brevity, we will denote the class of separable and metrisable topological spaces by \mathcal{SM} . A lot of the time, it is easier to work with such spaces in a *common box*, i.e. use a universal space in which all of these spaces can be embedded. Luckily, we have such a space – the Hilbert Cube.

Theorem 4.1. Every SM topological space embeds in the Hilbet Cube.

Proof. Fix a metric $\rho \leq 1$ and a countable dense subset $x_n \in X$. We define the embedding as

$$f_n(x) := \rho(x, x_n).$$

This is a product of continuous functions, so it continuous. Why is it open?

You may wonder how this relates to the fact that all compact metrisable embed in the Hilbert Cube (as closed sets!). In turns out that compact metrisable spaces are \mathcal{SM} . We only need separability, and compactness together with a covering by balls gives us a countable dense subset rather easily.

Lemma 4.1. If a metrisable topological K is compact, then it is separable.

Proof. For each n, finitely many balls of radius 1/n cover K by compactness. Taking the centers of all such balls over all n yields a countable dense subset.

The proof above can be trivially extended to totally bounded spaces and Lindelöf spaces. In the second case, we have countably many centers of balls at each step.

Lemma 4.2. Let K be a metrisable topological space with is either

- 1. compact,
- 2. Lindelöf,
- 3. σ -compact,
- 4. or totally bounded.

Then K is separable.

We will now investigate for a moment how properties of \mathcal{SM} spaces are reflected in functions on such spaces. Since we care about topology, we restrict our attention to continuous functions. Unfortunately, even continuous functions on an arbitrary \mathcal{SM} space can have an untame structure. Therefore we restrict our attention to bounded functions.

Definition 4.1. The space of bounded, continuous functions from a topological space X to \mathbb{R} is denoted by

$$C_b(X)$$
.

If we want bounded functions into \mathbb{C} , we use the notation

$$C(X;\mathbb{C}).$$

This function space has the obvious structure of a linear space, and even an algebra with pointwise addition, scaling and multiplication. This space also has its own topology induced by the supremum norm.

Lemma 4.3. Let X be an arbitrary.

$$C_b(X)$$

is a Banach algebra under pointwise operations and the supremum norm.

Proof for compact spaces. Take a Cauchy sequence f_n . For each $x \in X$, $f_n(x)$ is Cauchy, so it converges. Therefore, the sequence of functions coverges pointwise to a limit function f. Suppose the convergence is not uniform. Then for some $\varepsilon > 0$ we can take a sequence x_n such that

$$f_n(x_n) - f(x_n) \geqslant \varepsilon$$
.

By the $\varepsilon/3$ trick, f is continuous. By compactness of X, x_n has a subsequence convergent to x_0 . Since $f_n(x_0) \to f(x_0)$ and $f(x_n) \to f(x_0)$. TODO!

Proof. The only thing one need to check is that Cauchy sequences actually converge. Let f_n be a Cauchy sequence. For any $x \in X$, $f_n(x)$ is a Cauchy sequence of real numbers, so it converges. Therefore, f_n converges pointwise to a function f. Note that so far we don't know if the convergence is uniform, or even if the function is continuous.

Let N_{ε} be the point after which the sequence f_n is ε -close. Then for $n, m > N_{\varepsilon}$ we have

$$|f_n - f_m| \leqslant \varepsilon$$

uniformly on X. Keeping n constant and passing with m to the limit we have

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = \lim_{m \to \infty} |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \le \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, f_n converges to f uniformly. In particular, f is continuous and bounded.

We recall here a useful theorem, whose proof can be found in the literature.

Theorem 4.2 (Stone-Weierstrass). Let K be a compact, Hausdorff space and let $W \subseteq C_b(K)$ be a subalgebra. If the subalgebra distinguishes points, we have

$$\overline{W} = C_b(K).$$

Proof. A classic proof due to Lebesgue can be found in Engelking (or prof. Szwarc's functional analysis notes). \Box

The first and so far only property we investigate for $C_b(X)$ is separability. It turns out that this space is rarely separable, and an exact characterisation can be given in terms of X.

Theorem 4.3. Let X be an SM topological space. Then $C_b(X)$ is separable iff X is compact.

Proof (\Leftarrow). We know by 4.1 that X can be regarded as a subspace of $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$. Since X is compact, it is a closed subset of the cube. By the Stone-Weierstrass Theorem 4.2, the algebra generated by coordinate projections, which consists of finite linear combinations of finite products of coordinate projections, is dense in $C_b(X)$. This subalgebra is in general not countable, however. One small fix is required to find a countable dense subset of $C_b(X)$ – only take rational coefficients in linear combinations.

 $Proof \Rightarrow$. We'll mirror the proof of the nonseparability of $C_b(\mathbb{R})$ – we will find \mathfrak{C} many balls of radius $\frac{1}{2}$.

Since X is noncompact and metrisable, we have a discrete sequence of elements of X. Call it a_n and let $A = \{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. For a subset I of the natural numbers, we define the function $f_I : A \to [0, 1]$ by

$$f_I(x_i) := \begin{cases} 1 & i \in I \\ 0 & i \notin I. \end{cases}$$

We can extend all these to function $\widetilde{f}_I: A \to [0, 1]$ with the Tietze Extension Theorem. Now, for $I \neq J$, if we look at an element $x_0 \in I \Delta J$ we get

$$\left\|\widetilde{f}_I - \widetilde{f}_J\right\|_{\infty} \geqslant \left|\widetilde{f}_I(x_0) - \widetilde{f}_J(x_0)\right| = 1.$$

§4.2 Polish spaces

We now turn to a subclass of SM spaces which is particularly useful and important.

Definition 4.2. A **Polish space** is an SM space X, which is completely metrisable.

Please note that this depends on the topology and not on any given metric for the space, as the example below shows.

Example. The space (0,1) is Polish, since it is homeomorphic to $(0,\infty)$. However, it is definitely not complete with regards to its standard metric! An explicit complete metric can be given by

$$d(x,y) := \left| \operatorname{tg} \frac{x\pi}{2} - \operatorname{tg} \frac{y\pi}{2} \right|,$$

which is the pullback of the complete metric from $(0, \infty)$ by a homeomorphism.

Example. An even weirder example is

$$\mathbb{R}\setminus\mathbb{Q}\cong\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}.$$

That this is completely metrisable can be seen from the following theorem.

Theorem 4.4 (Alexandroff). A subspace Y of a Polish space X is itself Polish iff Y is a G_{δ} subset of X.

Proof. Let ρ' be a new metric on Y given by

$$\rho'(y_1, y_2) = \rho(y_1, y_2) + \sum_{n} \min\left(\frac{1}{2^n}, \left| \frac{1}{\rho(y_1, V_n^c)} - \frac{1}{\rho(y_2, V_n^c)} \right| \right)$$

The rest of the details can be found in Kerchis' classical book on Descriptive Set Theory. \Box

Definition 4.3. In a topological space X, the **Borel subsets** of X are precisely the elements of Bor $X := \sigma(\tau_X)$.

Definition 4.4. For a topological, but especially SM or Polish space X, we denote the set of **probability measures** on Bor X by $\mathbb{P}(X)$.

We need a tool before stating proving the next theorem.

Lemma 4.4. A closed set in a metric space is G_{δ} . Conversely, any open set is F_{σ} .

Proof. We will use the ε -neighbourhoods of F, i.e.

$$F_{\varepsilon} := \left\{ x \in X : d(x, F) < \varepsilon \right\},\,$$

which are open. Since F is closed, we have

$$F = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_{1/n}.$$

Theorem 4.5 (First Regularity Theorem). For any \mathcal{SM} space X and $\mu \in \mathbb{P}(X)$, the measure μ is **regular**, that is are for any $B \in \operatorname{Bor} X$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ two sets F, V which are respectively closed and open such that

$$\mu(V \setminus F) < \varepsilon$$
.

Proof. Let \mathcal{A} be the family of all sets with the given propety. We will prove that it is a σ -algebra and that it contains closed sets. By 1.1, we only have to check for complements and countable sums.

Closed sets are in A because they are G_{δ} , see Lemma 4.4, and because a probability measure is downward continuous.

Closure under complements is inherent in the definition. If $F \subseteq B \subseteq V$, then

$$V^c \subseteq B^c \subseteq F^c$$
,

 F^c is open, V^c is closed and

$$F^c \setminus V^c = V \setminus F$$
,

so the approximation still works.

What about increasing countable sums? For an increasing sequence B_n take approximations $F_n \subseteq B_n \subseteq V_n$ such that

$$\mu\left(V_n\setminus F_n\right)<\frac{\varepsilon}{2^n}$$

and let $B = \bigcup_n B_n$. By summing prefixes of F_n , we may assume that F_n is an increasing sequence. Then

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n$$

and

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (V_n \setminus F_n)$$

(this is a general identity on sets). There is a slight problem – an ascending sum of closed sets might not be closed. Fortunately, we work with a probability measure, so we can take an finite prefix of length N with

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{N} F_n\right) < \delta$$

and obtain an approximation

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{N} F_n \subseteq B \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n$$

with

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{N} F_n\right) < \varepsilon + \delta.$$

Remark. This implies that we don't care much about Descriptive Set Theory. For $X \in SM$ and $\mu \in \mathbb{P}(X)$, we only care about F_{σ} and G_{δ} sets. More formally, for any $B \in \text{Bor } X$, any set is up to a set of measure 0 an F_{σ} from below and G_{δ} from above.

Remark. An analytical set is an image of a Polish space.

Theorem 4.6. If X is a Polish space and $\mu \in \mathbb{P}(X)$, then μ is **tight**, i.e. for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a compact K such that

$$\mu(K) > 1 - \varepsilon$$
.

Proof. Let d(-, -) be a complete metric on X and let x_n be a countable dense set.

$$X = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B\left(x_k, \frac{1}{n}\right).$$

By upward continuity of measure, we can take a k_n such that the first k_n balls are large, i.e. larger than

$$1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2^n}$$

Now denote

$$K_n := \bigcup_{k=1}^{k_n} \overline{B\left(x_k, \frac{1}{n}\right)}, K = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n.$$

To see that K is large in μ , use Lemma 1.5. Note that K is closed.

To prove compactness, we will find for a sequence x_k in K a convergent subsequence. We mirror the proof that [0, 1] is sequentially compact. Infinitely many elements of x_k will belong to one of the (finitely many!) balls that make up K_1 , and of those inifitely many will land in one of the balls that make up K_2 etc. Therefore, x_n has a Cauchy subsequence. Since X is Polish, this subsequence is convergent in X, but as K is closed, the limit is actually in K.

Example. Let $X = \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$.

Theorem 4.7 (Lusin). If $X \in \mathcal{SM}$ and $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a borel function, then for any $\mu \in \mathbb{P}(X)$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a closed set F of large measure such that f is continuous on F.

Measures on Topological Spaces, Problemset 1

Problem 4

Extension 1

We show that the set can be the graph of a function! Let Z be a borel set of positive measure and define

$$T_Z = \{x : \lambda(Z_x) > 0\}.$$

Then T_Z is a measurable set by Fubini's Theorem. We can pick a compact subset T_Z' . A compact set of positive measure has at least \mathfrak{c} elements, and there are as many borel sets. Then, enumerate borel sets of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Problem 5

Set of undefined density at 0

TODO

Set of density t at 0

Presented in class by **Michał Baran**. Fix $t \in (0, 1)$.

The set we will construct will be symmetric around 0. We will find a sequence b_n such that with

$$A_n = \left(\frac{1}{n} - b_n, \, \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

we will have for all n

$$\frac{t}{n} = \lambda \left(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_n \right) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} b_k,$$

so

$$b_n = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} b_k - \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} b_k = \frac{t}{n(n+1)}.$$

Consider

$$A := \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \cup -A_k.$$

We will bound the fraction

$$\frac{\lambda\left(A\cap\left(-\delta,\delta\right)\right)}{2\delta}=\frac{\lambda\left(A\cap\left(0,\delta\right)\right)}{\delta}$$

from above and below. For $\delta \in (1/(n+1), 1/n]$ we have

$$\bigcup_{k=n+1} A_k \subseteq A \cap (0,\delta) \subseteq \bigcup_{k=n} A_k,$$

passing to measure

$$\frac{t}{n+1} \leqslant \lambda \left(A \cap (0,\delta) \right) \leqslant \frac{t}{n}.$$

When divided by δ , we get the result by the squeeze theorem.

Remark. The solution would work equally well if instead of $a_n = 1/n$ we used a sequence that converges to 0 monotonically and satisfies

$$\frac{a_n - a_{n+1}}{a_n} \to 0.$$

Problem 9

Presented in class by dr Arturo Martinez Celiz.

Wlog, everything happens within (0, 1). Following the hint, take a countable sequence A_i such that the set $B := \bigcup_i A_i$ has maximal measure.

By this choice, for any $C \in \mathcal{A}$, we have

$$\lambda \Big((C \cup B) \, \Delta B \Big) = 0,$$

so that

$$\phi(C \cup B) = \phi(B)$$

and

$$C \subseteq \phi(C \cup B) = \phi(B)$$
.

Since C was arbitrary

$$\bigcup \mathcal{A} \subseteq \phi(B) \implies B \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{A}\phi(B).$$

Since $\lambda(B) = \lambda(\phi(B))$ we know that the sum of \mathcal{A} is measurable.

Problem 10

Presented in class by Szymon Smolarek.

We take a cover of **regular sets**, i.e. a family for which there exists a constant C such that

$$\operatorname{diam}^2 A \leqslant C\lambda_2(A).$$

It can be proven that if such a family is a Vitali cover of a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, an analogue of the VCT holds.

The family of all triangles does not satisfy the regularity condition – think of keeping one segment constant and bringing the third verted evert closer to the segment. To deal with this, we subdivide the family \mathcal{T} into subfamilies

$$\mathcal{T}_n := \left\{ T \in \mathcal{T} : \operatorname{diam}^2 T \leqslant n\lambda_2(A) \right\}.$$

Reducing to a given subfamily, we can cover each triangle T by arbitrarily small traingles similar to T contained within T. This gives us a regular Vitali cover \widetilde{T}_n of $\bigcup \mathcal{T}_n$.

Problem 11

Stated in class by Szymon Smolarek.

Theorem 5.1 (Steinhaus theorem for the Cantor Set). For any measurable set A, the set

$$A \oplus A$$

contains an open neighbourhood of 0.

Theorem 5.2 (Vitali Covering Theorem for the Cantor Set). If a family of clopens $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \operatorname{Clop} \mathcal{C}$ is a Vitali cover of A, then there is a sequence $J_n \in \mathcal{J}$ such that

$$\nu^* \left(A \setminus \bigcup_n J_n \right) = 0.$$

Theorem 5.3 (Lebesgue Density Theorem for the Cantor Set). Let $A \subseteq \mathcal{C}$. An element $a \in A$ is a density point of A if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\nu\left(A \cap [a|_{[n]}]\right)}{2^{-n}} = 1.$$

If A is measurable, then almost all points of A are density points of A.

The proofs are quite the same, as \mathcal{C} is a topological group and the measure ν is its Haar measure.

Problem 12

Hint. Use Baire's theorem.

Measures on Topological Spaces, Problemset 2

Problem 1

Such an a exists by compactness of A and continuity of metric. If we have two a_1, a_2 such that

$$\rho(x, a_1) = \rho(x, a_2)$$

then a_1, a_2 must agree and disagree with x at all places, so in fact $a_1 = a_2$, thus r_A is well-defined. For any $a \in A$, d(a, A) = 0 = d(a, a), so r_A is a retraction. What remains to be shown is continuity. Let x, y agree up to $n_0(x, y)$. Then $r_A(x)$ and $r_A(y)$ also agree up to $n_0(x, y)$ – if they differed earlier, we could use $r_A(x)$ instead of $r_A(y)$ and get a closer point a in the definition! So we have

$$n_0(x,y) \leqslant n_0\left(r_A(x), r_A(y)\right)$$

and

$$d(x,y) \geqslant d(r_A(x), r_A(y))$$
.

Remark. The metric $d(x,y) = 1/n_0(x,y)$, i.e. the first moment where x and y differ, won't work, because it can't tell apart points from which x differs at the same position!

Problem 2

Problem 3

Any $A, B \in \operatorname{Clop} \mathcal{C}$ can be written as disjoint sums of the basis sets $[\varphi]$ by 3.8. Since the condition distributes over disjoint sums, we will prove the statement for $A = [\varphi]$ and $B = [\psi]$ with

$$|\operatorname{dom}\varphi|, |\operatorname{dom}\psi| < \infty.$$

Let $I = \text{dom } \varphi$, $J = \text{dom } \psi$ be the disjoint(!) domains of φ , ψ . There is a function τ on $I \cup J$ such that

$$\tau|_I = \phi, \ \tau|_J = \psi.$$

For such a function,

$$[\varphi] \cap [\psi] = [\tau] .$$

Now take an n such that $I \cup J \subseteq \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ and denote the last set as [n]. By 3.10 we compute

$$\nu [\varphi] = 2^{-|I|}$$

$$\nu [\psi] = 2^{-|J|}$$

$$\nu [\tau] = 2^{-|I \cup J|},$$

and $|I \cup J| = |I| \cup |J|$ finishes the proof. Now take arbitrary $A, B \in \operatorname{Bor} \mathcal{C}$ such that $A \sim I, B \sim J$. Approximate A, B by clopens A', B' to within an ε , i.e. so that

$$\nu(A\Delta A'), \nu(B\Delta B') < \varepsilon.$$

We cannot use the clopen statement we just proved since a priori A' and B' could be determined by sets with nonempty intersection. We can, however, improve the approximation with

$$\widetilde{A} := \pi_I^{-1} \pi_I A'.$$

The set \widetilde{A} is still a clopen – since A' was determined by a finite set K, \widetilde{A} is determined by $K \cap I$. Additionally we have

$$\widetilde{A}\Delta A \subseteq A'\Delta A$$
,

so we have improved the approximation! Now, do the same for B' and use the statement for clopens to finish up the solution.

Warning! The reasoning below does not work! (For tail sets, for example) We can approximate A, B by decreasing sequences of clopens by putting down

$$A_n := \pi_{[n]}^{-1} \pi_{[n]} A$$

and the same for B_n . We also approximate their intersection by decreasing clopens in the same way, i.e.

$$C_n := \pi_{[n]}^{-1} \pi_{[n]} (A \cap B).$$

For these approximations

$$C_n = A_n \cap B_n,$$

so by the first subproblem

$$\nu(C_n) = \nu(A_n \cap B_n) = \nu(A_n) \cdot \nu(B_n).$$

Since the measure ν is probabilistic, and hence continuous, by passing to the limit $n \to \infty$ we get what we need.

Problem 6

Any clopen $C \in \text{Clop } \mathcal{C}$ is a disjoint sum of basis cylinders by 3.8. Since \oplus is a group operation, the function

$$l_x(y) = x \oplus y$$

is bijective, so on the level of sets l_x distributes over disjoint sums. We check the property for a cylinder $[\varphi]$. This is easy, since

$$\nu(x \oplus [\varphi]) = \nu[x \oplus \varphi] = 2^{-|\operatorname{dom} \varphi|} = \nu[\varphi]$$

by 3.10. Now consider the family of sets

$$\mathcal{A} := \Big\{ A : \forall x \in \mathcal{C}. \, \nu(A) = \nu(x \oplus A) \Big\}.$$

We will show that this is a σ -algebra. Since we have already shown that it contains all the clopens, which form a basis of the topology on \mathcal{C} , it will automatically be equal to Bor \mathcal{C} by 1.2.

A σ -algebra can be generated by complements and countable sums (see 1.1). As mentioned before, l_x respects these operations, so

$$\nu(x \oplus A^c) = \nu((x \oplus A)^c) = 1 - \nu(x \oplus A) = 1 - \nu(A) = \nu(A^c)$$

and

$$\nu\left(x\oplus\bigcup_iA_i\right)=\nu\left(\bigcup_ix\oplus A_i\right)=\sum_i\nu(x\oplus A_i)=\sum_i\nu(A_i)=\nu\left(\bigcup_iA_i\right).$$

Problem 7

The identification is

$$A \mapsto \chi_A, x \mapsto \{n : x_n = 1\}.$$

One easily checks that these two are mutually inverse. Addition modulo 2 comes out to 1 iff exactly one of the summands is 1, and this corresponds exactly to belonging to the symmetric difference.

Problem 8

A filter cannot contain both A and A^c , since then it would contain $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$. Thus, a filter containing for all A either A or A^c is maximal.

For the other direction, suppose neither A nor A^c is in a filter \mathcal{F} . We define its extension by A as

$$\mathcal{F}_A = \{ A' \cap F : A \subseteq A', F \in \mathcal{F} \}.$$

We check that this is a filter.

- 1. If $\varnothing \in \mathcal{F}_A$, \mathcal{F} contains a set disjoint with A, so by the superset property it contains A^c .
- 2. Let $A_1 \cap F_1, A_2 \cap F_2 \in \mathcal{F}_A$. Then

$$A \subseteq A_1 \cap A_2, F_1 \cap F_2 \in \mathcal{F}$$
,

so
$$(A_1 \cap F_1) \cap (A_2 \cap F_2) = (A_1 \cap A_2) \cap (F_1 \cap F_2) \in \mathcal{F}_A$$
.

3. Let $B \supseteq A' \cap F$. Then

$$B = B \cup (A' \cap F) = (B \cup A') \cap (B \cup F)$$

and
$$A \subseteq A' \cup B$$
, $F \subseteq B \cup F$, so $B \in \mathcal{F}_A$.

Of course, $A \in \mathcal{F}_A \setminus \mathcal{F}$, so \mathcal{F} was not maximal in the first place.

Remark. One can check that \mathcal{F}_A is the minimal filter containing \mathcal{F} and A.

Problem 9

The only principal ultrafilters are generated by singletons, so they are definitely measurable.