

1 Introduction

Definition. If A, B are sets and there exists a bijection $A \rightarrow B$, they have the same **cardinality**, which we write as $|A|, \#A$. If there exists one-to-one map $A \rightarrow B$, then $|A| \leq |B|$

Remark 1.1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$ means that (x_n) diverges to ∞ : i.e. $\forall c > 0, \exists N$ such that $x_n > c, \forall n > N$.

Definition. Defined the **extended real numbers** to be $\overline{\mathbb{R}} := \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$.

Remark 1.2. We have that $-\infty < x < \infty, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Recall. Each non-empty set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is either

- (a) Bounded above, in which it has a supremum $\sup(A)$,
- (b) A is unbounded above.

In case (b) we will say supremum (in the extended sense) of A is ∞ and write $\sup(A) = \infty$.

Remark 1.3. Every non-empty subset of $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ has a supremum in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$. Every increasing sequence (x_n) in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ has a limit in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$.

Definition. If (x_n) is a sequence of extended real numbers, we define the **limit superior** and the **limit inferior** of this sequence by

$$\overline{\lim} x_n = \limsup x_n = \inf_m \left(\sup_{n \geq m} x_n \right) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{n \geq m} x_n \in [-\infty, \infty],$$

$$\underline{\lim} x_n = \liminf x_n = \sup_m \left(\inf_{n \geq m} x_n \right) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{n \geq m} x_n \in [-\infty, \infty].$$

It is easy to check that

$$\liminf x_n \leq \limsup x_n,$$

$$\liminf(-x_n) = -\limsup(x_n).$$

If the limit inferior and the limit superior are equal, then their value is called the **limit** of the sequence.

Theorem 1.1. Let (x_n) be a sequence in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$. Then exists subsequences of (x_n) converging to $m = \liminf x_n, M = \limsup x_n$ (in the extended sense). Further, if (x_{n_k}) is a convergent subsequence,

$$m \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} \leq M.$$

Corollary 1.1. x_n converges if and only if $\limsup x_n = \liminf x_n$, in which case $x_n \rightarrow \limsup x_n$.

2 Measurable Functions

Definition 2.1. Let X be a non-empty set, A collection \mathcal{S} of subsets of X is said to be a σ -algebra (or a σ -field) if:

- (i) \emptyset, X belong to \mathcal{S} .
- (ii) If E belongs to \mathcal{S} , then the complement $\mathcal{C}(A) = \bar{A} = X \setminus E \in \mathcal{S}$.
- (iii) If $(E_j) \in \mathcal{S}, \forall j \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j \in \mathcal{S}.$$

Remark 2.1. \mathcal{S} is closed under countable intersection, this is easy to check using De Morgan.

- Example 2.1.**
1. $\mathcal{S} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ is the trivial σ -algebra .
 2. $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ power set := collection of all subsets of X .
 3. Let X be uncountable, $\mathcal{S} := \{Y \subset X : Y \text{ or } X \text{ is countable}\}$.
 4. If $\{\mathcal{S}_j\}$ are σ -algebra of subsets of X . Then $\bigcap_j \mathcal{S}_j$ is σ -algebra

Definition. Let A be a nonempty collection of subsets of X . We observe that there is a smallest σ -algebra of subsets of X containing A . To see this, observe that the family of all subsets of X is a σ -algebra containing A and the intersection of all the σ -algebra containing A is also a σ -algebra containing A . This smallest σ -algebra is called the σ -algebra generated by A , we denote it $\sigma(A)$.

Definition. Let (X, ρ) be a metric space (or topological space). Let A be the collection of all open subsets of X . Then σ -algebra generated by A is called the **Borel σ -algebra** and is denoted $\mathcal{B}(X)$.

Remark 2.2. Clearly the Borel σ -algebra is generated by all closed sets

Example 2.2. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. The Borel σ -algebra is generated by all open intervals (a, b) in \mathbb{R} .

Remark 2.3. Extended Borel σ -algebra is generated by all open intervals in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$, i.e.

$$(a, b), (a, \infty), (a, \infty], (-\infty, b), [-\infty, b), [-\infty, \infty].$$

Definition. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between measurable spaces (X, \mathcal{S}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}) is **measurable** ($(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T})$ -**measurable**) if

$$f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{S}, \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{T}$$

Definition. (Working Definition)

Let (X, \mathcal{S}) be a measurable space. Then $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is **\mathcal{S} -measurable** is $\{x \in X : f(x) > \alpha\} \in \mathcal{S}, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

Lemma 2.1. The following statements are equivalent for a function f on X to \mathbb{R} :

- (a) For every $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, the set $A_\alpha = \{x \in X : f(x) > \alpha\}$ belongs to \mathcal{S} .
- (b) For every $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, the set $B_\alpha = \{x \in X : f(x) \leq \alpha\}$ belongs to \mathcal{S} .
- (c) For every $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, the set $C_\alpha = \{x \in X : f(x) \geq \alpha\}$ belongs to \mathcal{S} .
- (d) For every $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, the set $D_\alpha = \{x \in X : f(x) < \alpha\}$ belongs to \mathcal{S} .
- (e) f is \mathcal{S} -measurable.

Remark 2.4. Sets such as

$$\begin{aligned} \{x : f(x) = a\} &= f^{-1}(\{a\}) \\ \{x : a \leq f(x) \leq b\} \\ \{x : f(x) = \infty\} \\ \{x : f(x) \text{ is finite} \} \end{aligned}$$

are all \mathcal{S} -measurable if f is \mathcal{S} -measurable.

Example 2.3. the characteristic function $f : \chi_E$ is \mathcal{S} -measurable if and only if $E \in \mathcal{S}$.

Example 2.4. Continuous functions are Borel measurable, i.e. if (X, \mathcal{S}) combines $\mathcal{B}(X)$ and (Y, \mathcal{T}) is $\mathcal{B}(Y)$, then $f : X \rightarrow Y$ measurable is continuous.

Lemma 2.2. Let (X, \mathcal{S}) be a measurable space, $E \in \mathcal{S}$. Then $f \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is \mathcal{S} -measurable on X if and only if it is \mathcal{S} -measurable on E and $X \setminus E$.

Theorem 2.1. Every reasonable combination of measurable functions is measurable.

Let (X, \mathcal{S}) be a measurable space, $E \in \mathcal{S}$ and f, g, f_n, g_n be \mathcal{S} -measurable and $X \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ (or \mathbb{R}) on E . Then the following are \mathcal{S} -measurable on F .

1. $\alpha f, \frac{1}{f}, |f|^\beta$, $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$.
2. $f + g, fg$.
3. $\sup f_n, \inf f_n, \limsup f_n, \liminf f_n$.
4. f^-, f^+ .

3 Measure

Definition 3.1. Let (X, \mathcal{S}) be a measurable space. A function $\mu : X \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is called a **measure**:

- (i) $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$,
- (ii) $\mu(E) \geq 0$ for all $E \in \mathcal{S}$,
- (iii) μ is **countably additive** in the sense that if (E_n) is any disjoint sequence of sets in \mathcal{S} , then

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

We call (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) a measure space.

Definition. Let $X = \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ and let \mathcal{S} be the σ -algebra of all subsets of \mathbb{N} . If $E \in \mathcal{S}$, defined

$$\mu(E) := \begin{cases} |E|, & \text{if } E \text{ is finite} \\ \infty, & \text{if } E \text{ is infinite.} \end{cases}$$

Then μ is a measure and is called the **counting measure on \mathbb{N}** . Note that μ is not finite, but it is σ -finite. Also, integrals for this measure are sums.

Definition. Let (x_n) be a sequence in X . (p_n) be a sequence in $[0, \infty)$. Define μ on (X, \mathcal{S}) by

$$\mu(E) := \sum_{\{n: x_n \in E\}} p_n,$$

then this is the **discrete measure**

Definition. Special case of discrete measure: Let X be any nonempty set, let \mathcal{S} be the σ -algebra of all subsets of X and let p be a fixed element of X . Let μ be defined for $E \in \mathcal{S}$ by

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(E) &= 0, & \text{if } p \notin E, \\ &= 1, & \text{if } p \in E. \end{aligned}$$

then μ is a finite measure and is called the **unit measure concentrated at p** or **Durac-delta measure**.

Definition. There exists a measure space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}, m)$ with $\mathcal{L} \supset \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ such that m is translation invariant and $m(I) = b - a$ where I is the interval with endpoints a and b . This measure is unique and is usually called **Lebesgue** (or **Borel**) **measure**. It is not a finite measure, but it is σ -finite.

Lemma 3.1. \mathcal{L} cannot be all of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$.

Definition. If $X = \mathbb{R}$, $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{B}$, and f is a continuous monotone increasing function, then there exists a unique measure λ_f defined on \mathcal{B} such that if $E = (a, b)$, then $\lambda_f(E) = f(b) - f(a)$. This measure λ_f is called the **Borel-Stieltjes measure generated by f** .

Remark 3.1. If $E \subseteq F$, $E, F \in \mathcal{S}$, then

- (a) $\mu(E) \leq \mu(F)$,
- (b) If $\mu(F) < \infty$, then $\mu(E) = \mu(F) - \mu(F \setminus E)$.

Definition. Let (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) be a measure space. We say $E \subset X$ is a **null set** or a **set of measure zero** if $E \subset F \in \mathcal{S}, \mu(F) = 0$. These sets can be ignored for integration.

Definition. We say a certain proposition holds **μ -almost everywhere**, almost everywhere, or for almost all, etc, if there exists a subset $F \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\mu(F) = 0$ such that the proposition holds on the complement of F .

Example 3.1. For Lebesgue measure m on \mathbb{R} , $m(\{a\}) = m([a, b]) - m((a, b]) = 0$ so countable subsets of \mathbb{R} have Lebesgue measure zero.

Definition. We say that two functions f, g are **equal μ -almost everywhere** or that they are **equal for μ -almost all x** in case $f(x) = g(x)$ when $x \notin N$, for some $N \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\mu(N) = 0$. In this case we will often write

$$f = g, \quad \mu\text{-a.e.}$$

Definition. We say that a sequence (f_n) of functions on X **converges μ -almost everywhere** (or **converges for μ -almost all x**) if there exists a set $N \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\mu(N) = 0$ such that $f(x) = \lim f_n(x)$ for $x \notin N$. In this case we often write

$$f = \lim f_n, \quad \mu\text{-a.e.}$$

Definition. If $\{E_n\}$ be a sequence of subsets of X we say $\{E_n\}$ is **expanding** (or **increasing**) if

$$E_{n+1} \supset E_n,$$

and is **contracting** (or **decreasing**) if

$$E_{n+1} \subset E_n.$$

Lemma 3.2. Let (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) be a measure space, let (E_n) be a sequence in \mathcal{S} , then

(a) If (E_n) is expanding, then

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

without restriction.

(b) If (E_n) is decreasing and $\mu(E_1) < \infty$ then

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

Example 3.2. The condition $\mu(E_1) < \infty$ is necessary.

Take $E_n = [n, \infty) \in \mathbb{R}$ with Lebesgue measure, (E_n) contracting with $m(E_n) = \infty$.

4 The Integral

Definition 4.1. A real valued function is **simple** if it has only a finite number of values.

Remark 4.1. A simple measurable function u can be represented in the form

$$u = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \chi_{A_k},$$

where $a_k \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k = E, \quad A_k \subset E \quad \forall k.$$

Definition. Among these representations for u there is a unique **standard representation** characterized by the fact that the a_k are distinct and the A_k are disjoint nonempty subsets of E and are such that $E = \bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k$.

Theorem 4.1. (Approximation by simple functions)

Let (X, \mathcal{S}) be a measurable space. If f is non-negative \mathcal{S} -measurable. Then there is an increasing sequence of non-negative simple measurable function u_n with

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = f \quad (\text{pointwise})$$

Definition. For a measurable space (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) , let $M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ be the set of non-negative \mathcal{S} -measurable functions on X .

Definition. If $f \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ is simple, then we define its **integral** to be

$$\int f, \int_X f \, d\mu, \int_X f(x) \, d\mu(x) := \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mu(A_j)$$

where

$$f = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}$$

is the standard form of f .

With the convention $0 \times \infty := 0$, that is, if $\alpha_k = 0, \mu(A_k) = \infty$, then $\alpha_j \mu(A_k) = 0$.

Lemma 4.1. If $u, v \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ are simple, $0 \leq c < \infty$, then

(a) $\int_X cu \, d\mu = c \int_X u \, d\mu, \quad \int_X (u + v) \, d\mu = \int_X u \, d\mu + \int_X v \, d\mu.$

(b) If define λ by

$$\lambda(E) := \int u \chi_E \, d\mu, \quad E \in \mathcal{S},$$

then λ is a measure on \mathcal{S} .

Definition. Let $f \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$, define the integral of f over X to be

$$\int_X f \, d\mu := \sup \left\{ \int u \, d\mu : u \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S}), 0 \leq u \leq f, u \text{ simple} \right\}$$

is well defined (may be ∞) and ≥ 0 .

Definition. $E \in \mathcal{S}$, then for $f \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$

$$\int_E f \, d\mu := \int_X f \chi_E \, d\mu$$

Lemma 4.2. (Monotonicity of the integral)

If f and g belong to $M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$, $E, F \in \mathcal{S}$, then

(a) If $f \leq g$ on E , then

$$\int_E f \, d\mu \leq \int_E g \, d\mu.$$

(b) If $E \subseteq F$, then

$$\int_E f \, d\mu \leq \int_F f \, d\mu.$$

Theorem 4.2. MONOTONE CONVERGENCE THEOREM)

If (f_n) is a monotone increasing sequence of functions in $M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$, then

$$\int_X \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n \right) \, d\mu = \lim \int_X f_n \, d\mu.$$

Corollary 4.1. If (f_n) is a monotone increasing sequence of functions in $M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ which converges μ -almost everywhere on X to a function f in M^+ , then

$$\int f \, d\mu = \lim \int f_n \, d\mu.$$

Corollary 4.2. Let (g_n) be a sequence in M^+ , then

$$\int \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g_n \right) \, d\mu = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\int g_n \, d\mu \right).$$

Remark 4.2. It should be observed that it is not being assumed that either side of the equation is finite. Indeed, the sequence $(\int f_n d\mu)$ is a monotone increasing sequence of extended real numbers and so always has a limit in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$, but perhaps not in \mathbb{R} .

Recall. For Riemann integrals the Monotone Convergence Theorem fails

$$f_n := \chi_{\{q_1, \dots, q_n\}}, \quad q_n \in \mathbb{Q}$$

is increasing with $\lim f_n = \chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n(x) dx = 0$, but $f = \chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$ is not Riemann integrable.

Theorem 4.3. (Linearity of Integral)

Let $f, g \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ and $\alpha, \beta \in [0, \infty)$. Then

$$\int_X (\alpha f + \beta g) d\mu = \alpha \int_X f d\mu + \beta \int_X g d\mu.$$

Lemma 4.3. FATOU'S LEMMA

If (f_n) belongs to $M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$, then

$$\int_X (\liminf f_n) d\mu \leq \liminf \int_X f_n d\mu.$$

Remark 4.3. We do not need to worry about whether functions are increasing or not.

Remark 4.4. Discrete version:

$$f_n = \begin{pmatrix} a_n \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then we have

$$\liminf a_n + \liminf b_n \leq \liminf (a_n + b_n).$$

Remark 4.5. The inequality can be strict in Fatou's Lemma

Example 4.1. Suppose $f_n \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$, $f_n \rightarrow f$, $f_n \leq f$ then $\int f_n d\mu \rightarrow \int f d\mu$.

Theorem 4.4. Let $f \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ and

$$\begin{aligned}\nu(E) &:= \int_E f d\mu \\ &= \int_X f \chi_E d\mu,\end{aligned}$$

then ν is the measure on (X, \mathcal{S}) .

Theorem 4.5. Suppose that f belongs to $M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$. Then $f(x) = 0$ μ -almost everywhere on X if and only if

$$\int_X f d\mu = 0.$$

Theorem 4.6. Let $f, g \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$, then

(i) If $f \leq g$ μ -a.e. on X then

$$\int_X f d\mu \leq \int_X g d\mu.$$

(ii) If $f = g$ μ -a.e. on X then

$$\int_X f d\mu = \int_X g d\mu.$$

5 Integrable Functions

Definition 5.1. The collection $L = L_1(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ of **integrable** (or **summable**) **functions** consists of all (extended) real-valued \mathcal{S} -measurable functions f defined on X , such that both the positive and negative parts f^+, f^- , of f have finite integrals with respect to μ . In this case, we define the **integral of f over X with respect to μ** to be

$$\int_X f \, d\mu = \int_X f^+ \, d\mu - \int_X f^- \, d\mu.$$

If E belongs to \mathcal{S} , we define

$$\int_E f \, d\mu = \int_E f^+ \, d\mu - \int_E f^- \, d\mu.$$

Recall.

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

Theorem 5.1. Let f be measurable, then $f \in L_1(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ if and only if $|f| \in L_1(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$. i.e. $|f|$ has finite integral. Moreover,

$$\left| \int_X f \, d\mu \right| \leq \int_X |f| \, d\mu.$$

Lemma 5.1. If $f \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, then

- (i) f is finite-valued a.e.
- (ii) If

$$\tilde{f}(x) := \begin{cases} f(x), & f(x) \in \mathbb{R} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then $\tilde{f} \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ and

$$\int_X \tilde{f} \, d\mu = \int_X f \, d\mu.$$

Theorem 5.2. Linearity of integral

If $f, g \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\alpha f, f + g \in L_1(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ and

$$\int_X \alpha f \, d\mu = \alpha \int_X f \, d\mu, \quad \int_X (f + g) \, d\mu = \int_X f \, d\mu + \int_X g \, d\mu.$$

Theorem 5.3. (i) If g is measurable, $f \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ and $g = f$ μ -a.e. then $g \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ and

$$\int_X g \, d\mu = \int_X f \, d\mu.$$

(ii) If $f, g \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, $f \leq g$ μ -a.e. on X then

$$\int_X f \, d\mu \leq \int_X g \, d\mu.$$

Theorem 5.4. LEBESGUE DOMINATED CONVERGENCE THEOREM

Suppose $f_n \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, $\forall n$ and $f_n \rightarrow f$ μ -a.e. on X .

If there exists a $g \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ (dominating function) such that $|f_n| \leq g$ for all n , then $f \in L(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ and

$$\int_X f \, d\mu = \int_X \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n \, d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n \, d\mu.$$

6 The Lebesgue Spaces L_p

Definition 6.1. If V is a real linear (= vector) space, then a real-valued function $\|\cdot\|$ on V is said to be a **norm** for V in case it satisfies

- (i) $\|v\| \geq 0$ for all $v \in V$;
- (ii) $\|v\| = 0$ if and only if $v = 0$;
- (iii) $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$ for all $v \in V$ and real α ;
- (iv) $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$ for all $u, v \in V$.

If condition (ii) is dropped, the function $\|\cdot\|$ is said to be a **semi-norm** or a **pseudo-norm** for V . A **normed linear space** is a linear space V together with a norm for V .

Definition. We say \mathcal{S} -measurable functions f and g are **μ -equivalent** if $f = g$ μ -a.e. on X .

Remark 6.1. This is an equivalence relation

Definition. We denote the equivalence classes for this relation by

$$\begin{aligned} [f] &:= \{g : f = g \text{ } \mu\text{-a.e.}\} \\ &= \{f + g : g = 0 \text{ } \mu\text{-a.e.}\} \end{aligned}$$

Remark 6.2. On these equivalence classes we can define $+$, \cdot .

$$[f] + [g] = [f + g], \quad \alpha [f] = [\alpha f].$$

Ultimately, this gives a vector space with zero $[0] = [f + (-f)]$.

Definition. On the μ -equivalence classes we can define a **norm** for $1 \leq p < \infty$ by

$$\|[f]\|_p := \left(\int_X |f|^p \, d\mu \right)^{1/p},$$

this normed is well-defined with values in $[0, \infty]$.

Definition. Key for L_p spaces

We define $L_p(\mu)$ to be the set of all μ -equivalence classes of \mathcal{S} -measurable functions for which

$$\|[f]\|_p := \left(\int_X |f|^p \, d\mu \right)^{1/p} < \infty$$

Claim. $L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ is a vector space. Check $L_p(\mu)$ is a vector space:

Recall. If $A, B \geq 0, q \leq p < \infty$ then

$$AB \leq \frac{A^p}{p} + \frac{B^q}{q},$$

where q is the **conjugate exponent** to p . i.e. $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$.

Theorem 6.1. HÖLDER'S INEQUALITY

Fix (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) . Let p and q be conjugate exponents ($1 \leq p < \infty$). If f, g are measurable, then $fg \in L_1$ and

$$\int_X |fg| \, d\mu \leq \left(\int_X |f|^p \, d\mu \right)^{1/p} \left(\int_X |g|^q \, d\mu \right)^{1/q}$$

i.e. $\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$.

Remark 6.3. We may have $\|fg\|_1, \|f\|_p, \|g\|_q$ be ∞ .

Corollary 6.1. $f \in L_p, g \in L_q$ then $fg \in L_1$.

Theorem 6.2. CAUCHY-BUNYAKOVSKIÏ-SCHWARZ INEQUALITY

$f, g \in L_2$ then $fg \in L_1$ and

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \left| \int_X fg \, d\mu \right| \leq \int_X |fg| \, d\mu \leq \|f\|_2 \|g\|_2.$$

Definition. $L_p(\mu) := \mu$ -equivalences of \mathcal{S} -measurable functions f with

$$\|f\|_p = \left(\int_X |f|^p \, d\mu \right)^{1/p} < \infty.$$

Theorem 6.3. MINKOWSKI'S INEQUALITY

If f and g belong to $L_p, p \geq 1$, then $f + g$ belongs to L_p and

$$\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p.$$

Claim. $L_p(\mu)$ is a Banach space.

7 Modes of Convergence

Definition. The sequence (f_n) **converges uniformly** to f if $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that if $n \geq N$ and $x \in X$, then $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$.
i.e. $\|f_n - f\|_\infty < \varepsilon, \forall n > N$.

Definition. The sequence (f_n) **converges pointwise** to f if $\forall x \in X, \varepsilon > 0, \exists N := N_\varepsilon(x) \in \mathbb{N}$, such that if $n \geq N_\varepsilon(x)$, then $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$.

That is, we need different N for different x , clearly uniform convergence implies pointwise convergence. The two are equivalent if we have continuous functions on compact set.

Example 7.1. Let $f_n = \chi_{[n, n+1]}$, then f is continuous pointwise but not uniformly.

Remark 7.1. The usual interpretation of convergence is pointwise.

Definition. The sequence (f_n) **converges (pointwise) μ almost everywhere** to f if there exists a set $E \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\mu(X \setminus E) = 0$ such that $(f_n|_E)$ converges pointwise to $f|_E$.

Example 7.2. Let $f_n = n\chi_{\mathbb{Q}} = 0, \mu$ -a.e. but converging at the point of rationals.

7.1 Convergence in L_p

Definition. A sequence (f_n) in $L_p = L_p(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ **converges in L_p** to $f \in L_p$, if $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that if $n \geq N$, then

$$\|f_n - f\|_p = \left\{ \int |f_n - f|^p d\mu \right\}^{1/p} < \varepsilon.$$

In this case, we sometimes say that the sequence (f_n) **converges to f in mean (of order p)**.

Example 7.3. Define with Lebesgue measure

$$f_n = \frac{1}{n^{1/p}} \chi_{[0,n]},$$

then $f_n \rightarrow f = 0$ uniformly, but not in L_p since

$$\|f_n - f\|_p = \left(\int_0^n \left(\frac{1}{n^{1/p}} \right)^p dx \right)^{1/p} = 1 \not\rightarrow 0.$$

Remark 7.2. Uniform convergence does not imply convergence in L_p unless measure is finite. e.g. $\mu(X) < \infty$.

Definition. A sequence (f_n) in L_p is said to be **Cauchy in L_p** , if $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that if $m, n \geq N$, then

$$\|f_m - f_n\|_p = \left\{ \int |f_m - f_n|^p d\mu \right\}^{1/p} < \varepsilon.$$

Theorem 7.1. Suppose that $\mu(X) < +\infty$ and that (f_n) is a sequence in L_p which converges uniformly on X to f . Then f belongs to L_p and the sequence (f_n) converges in L_p to f .

Example 7.4. Let $f_n = n^{1/p} \chi_{[\frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}]}$, $f_n : [0, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then $f_n \rightarrow 0$ pointwise but not in L_p .

7.2 Convergence in Measure

Definition 7.1. A sequence (f_n) of measurable real-valued functions is said to **converge in measure** to a measurable real-valued function f in case

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(\{x \in X : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\}) = 0$$

for each $\varepsilon > 0$. The sequence (f_n) is said to be **Cauchy in measure** in case

$$\lim_{m, n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(\{x \in X : |f_m(x) - f_n(x)| \geq \varepsilon\}) = 0$$

for each $\varepsilon > 0$.

Remark 7.3. Clearly, uniform convergence implies convergence in measure.

Example 7.5. Let $f_n = \chi_{[n, n+1]}$. Then $f_n \rightarrow 0$ pointwise but it does not converge in measure.

8 Decomposition of Measures

Definition. If μ is a measure, $f \in M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ then

$$\lambda(E) := \int_E f \, d\mu,$$

defines a measure with $\mu(E) = 0$ implies $\lambda(E) = 0$, and we say λ is **absolutely continuous with respect to μ** , and write $\lambda \ll \mu$.

Definition 8.1. Let (X, \mathcal{S}) be a measurable space, then a real-valued function $\lambda : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be a **charge** in case

- (i) $\lambda(\emptyset) = 0$,
- (ii) λ is countably additive in the sense that if (E_n) is a disjoint sequence of sets in \mathcal{S} , then

$$\lambda\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda(E_n).$$

Example 8.1. • A finite measure is a charge

- If $f \in L_1(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, $\lambda(E) := \int_E f \, d\mu$ is a charge.

Definition. • We say $P \in \mathcal{S}$ is **positive** if $\lambda(P \cap E) \geq 0, \forall E \in \mathcal{S}$.

- We say $N \in \mathcal{S}$ is **negative** if $\lambda(N \cap E) \leq 0, \forall E \in \mathcal{S}$.

- We say $K \in \mathcal{S}$ is **null** if $\lambda(K \cap E) = 0, \forall E \in \mathcal{S}$.

Theorem 8.1. HAHN DECOMPOSITION THEOREM

If λ is a charge on \mathcal{S} , then there exist set P and N in \mathcal{S} with $X = P \cup N, P \cap N = \emptyset$, and such that P is positive and N is negative with respect to λ .

Example 8.2. If $f \in L_1(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$, $\lambda(E) := \int_E f \, d\mu$, then

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \{x : f^+(x) > 0\} \\ N &= \{x : f^-(x) < 0\} \\ K &= \{x : f(x) = 0\} \end{aligned}$$

Definition. A pair P, N of measurable sets satisfying the conclusion of the preceding theorem is said to form a **Hahn decomposition** of X with respect to λ .

Lemma 8.1. If P_1, N_1 and P_2, N_2 are Hahn decomposition for λ , and E belongs to \mathcal{S} , then

$$\lambda(E \cap P_1) = \lambda(E \cap P_2), \quad \lambda(E \cap N_1) = \lambda(E \cap N_2).$$

Definition 8.2. Let λ be a charge on \mathcal{S} and let P, N be a Hahn decomposition for λ . The **positive** and the **negative variations** of λ are the finite measures λ^+, λ^- defined on E in \mathcal{S} by

$$\lambda^+(E) := \lambda(E \cap P), \quad \lambda^-(E) := -\lambda(E \cap N).$$

The **total variation** of λ is the measure $|\lambda|$ defined for E in \mathcal{S} by

$$|\lambda|(E) := \lambda^+(E) + \lambda^-(E).$$

Remark 8.1.

$$\lambda(E) = \lambda^+(E) - \lambda^-(E),$$

and $|\lambda|, \lambda^+, \lambda^-$ are finite measures.

Theorem 8.2. If f belongs to $L_1(X, \mathcal{S}, \mu)$ and λ is defined by

$$\lambda(E) = \int_E f \, d\mu,$$

then λ^+, λ^- , and $|\lambda|$ are given for E in \mathcal{S} by

$$\lambda^+(E) = \int_E f^+ \, d\mu, \quad \lambda^-(E) = \int_E f^- \, d\mu, \quad |\lambda|(E) = \int_E |f| \, d\mu.$$

Definition 8.3. A measure λ on \mathcal{S} is said to be **absolutely continuous** with respect to a measure μ on \mathcal{S} if $E \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\mu(E) = 0$ imply that $\lambda(E) = 0$. In this case we write $\lambda \ll \mu$. A charge λ is **absolutely continuous** with respect to a charge μ in case the total variation $|\lambda|$ of λ is absolutely continuous with respect to $|\mu|$.

Lemma 8.2. Let λ and μ be finite measure on \mathcal{S} . The $\lambda \ll \mu$ if and only if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ such that $E \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\mu(E) < \delta$ imply that $|\lambda|(E) < \epsilon$.

Theorem 8.3. RADON-NIKODÝM THEOREM

Let λ and μ be σ -finite measures defined on \mathcal{S} and suppose that λ is absolutely continuous with respect to μ . Then there exists a function f in $M^+(X, \mathcal{S})$ such that

$$\lambda(E) = \int_E f \, d\mu, \quad E \in \mathcal{S}.$$

Moreover, the function f is uniquely determined μ -almost everywhere.

Sometimes f is denoted

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

which is called the **Radon-Nikodým derivative**.

Remark 8.2. f need not be integrable.

Definition 8.4. Two measures λ, μ on \mathcal{S} are said to be **mutually singular** if there are disjoint sets A, B in \mathcal{S} such that $X = A \cup B$ and $\lambda(A) = \mu(B) = 0$. In this case we write $\lambda \perp \mu$.

Although the relation of singularity is symmetric in λ and μ , we shall sometimes say that λ is **singular with respect to μ** .

Theorem 8.4. LEBESGUE DECOMPOSITION THEOREM

Let λ, μ be σ -finite measures, then λ can be uniquely decomposed

$$\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2,$$

with $\lambda_1 \perp \mu, \lambda_2 \ll \mu$.

9 Generation of Measures

Definition. It is natural to define the length of the half-open interval $(a, b]$ to be the real number $b - a$ and the length of the sets $(-\infty, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq b\}$, and $(a, +\infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x\}$, and $(-\infty, +\infty)$ to be the extended real number $+\infty$. We define the

length of the union of a finite number of disjoint sets of these forms to be the sum of the corresponding length. Thus the length of

$$\bigcup_{j=1}^n (a_j, b_j] \text{ is } \sum_{j=1}^n (b_j - a_j)$$

provided the intervals do not intersect.

Remark 9.1. It is intuitive to give Lebesgue measure by

$$m^*(E) := \inf \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} m(I_j) : I_j \text{ is an interval } E \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} I_j \right\}.$$

Then m^* is well defined for all $E \subset \mathbb{R}$, however, this is not a measure, namely, it does not necessarily have countable additivity. However, by Carathéodory Extension Theorem we can restrict m^* to a (large) σ -algebra of m^* -measurable sets, then it will be a measure.

Definition 9.1. A family \mathcal{S} of subsets of a set X is said to be an **algebra** or a **field** in case:

- (A1) $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{S}$.
- (A2) $E \in \mathcal{S}$ implies $X \setminus E \in \mathcal{S}$.
- (A3) If $E_1, \dots, E_n \in \mathcal{S}$ implies $\bigcup_{j=1}^n E_j \in \mathcal{S}$.

Remark 9.2. Clearly, by De Morgan, algebra is closed under finite unions and finite intersections.

Example 9.1. Let J consists of all finite unions of intervals in \mathbb{R} , then this is an algebra.

Example 9.2. Let \mathcal{S} be finite disjoint unions of intervals open on the left and closed on the right. This is also an algebra.

Definition 9.2. If \mathcal{A} is an algebra of subsets of a set X , then a **measure** on \mathcal{A} is $\mu_0 : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ such that

- (MA1) $\mu_0(\emptyset) = 0$,
- (MA2) $\mu_0(E) \geq 0$ for all $E \in \mathcal{A}$, and
- (MA3) If $(E_n) \in \mathcal{A}$ disjoint and $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \in \mathcal{A}$, then

$$\mu_0 \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_0(E_n).$$

Example 9.3. On J for $A = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} I_j$ (disjoint union of intervals I_j),

$$\mu_0(A) := \sum_{j=1}^n m(I_j),$$

where $m(I_j)$ is the length of the interval, then this is a measure on the algebra J .

9.1 The Extension of Measures

Definition 9.3. An **outer measure** on X is $\mu^* : \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ such that

(OM1) $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$,

(OM2) $E_1 \subset E_2 \subset X$ implies that $\mu^*(E_1) \leq \mu^*(E_2)$,

(OM3) If (E_n) is an arbitrary sequence of subsets of X , then it satisfy countably subadditivity,

$$\mu^* \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \right) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(E_n).$$

Lemma 9.1. The function μ^* defined by

$$\mu^*(B) = \inf \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_j)$$

satisfies the following:

(a) $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$.

(b) $\mu^*(B) \geq 0$, for $B \subseteq X$.

(c) If $A \subseteq B$, then $\mu^*(A) \leq \mu^*(B)$.

(d) If $B \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\mu^*(B) = \mu(B)$.

(e) If (B_n) is a sequence of subsets of X , then

$$\mu^* \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \right) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(B_n).$$

This final property is referred to by saying that μ^* is **countably subadditive**.

Lemma 9.2. If μ_0 is a measure on an \mathcal{A} of subsets of X . Then

$$\mu^*(E) := \inf \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu_0(A_j) : A_j \in \mathcal{A}, E \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \right\}$$

is an outer measure on X .

Definition 9.4. Let μ^* be an outer measure. Then $E \subset X$ is μ^* -measurable if

$$\mu^*(Q) = \mu^*(Q \cap E) + \mu^*(Q \setminus E), \quad \forall Q \subset X.$$

Theorem 9.1. CARATHÉODORY EXTENSION THEOREM
IF μ^* is an outer measure on X , $\mathcal{S} :=$ all μ^* -measurable sets then (X, \mathcal{S}) is a measurable space, and the restriction of μ^* to \mathcal{S} is a complete measure. Moreover, if (E_n) is a disjoint sequence in \mathcal{S} , then

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

Remark 9.3. Complete in this case means all null sets are measurable, that is, if $E \in \mathcal{S}$, $\mu(E) = 0$, then $F \subset E$ implies $F \in \mathcal{S}$.

9.2 Lebesgue Measure

Definition. Let set \mathcal{A} be all subsets of \mathbb{R} of the form of a finite union of sets of the form

$$(a, b], \quad (-\infty, b], \quad (a, +\infty), \quad (-\infty, +\infty),$$

then \mathcal{A} is an algebra of subsets of \mathbb{R} and the length function $\mu_0 = l$ gives a measure on this algebra \mathcal{A} . We call m_0 the **Lebesgue measure** on \mathcal{A} .

Definition. The restriction of Lebesgue measure to the Borel sets is called either **Borel** or **Lebesgue measure**.

Theorem 9.2. There exists a complete measure space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}, m)$ with $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{L}$

1. $m(\{x\}) = 0, \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$
2. for $a < b, m((a, b)) = m((a, b]) = m([a, b)) = m([a, b]) = b - a,$
3. for $a \in \mathbb{R}, m((a, \infty)) = m([a, \infty)) = m((-\infty, a)) = m((-\infty, a]) = m(\mathbb{R}) = \infty,$
4. If f is integrable over interval I with endpoints a and b in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$, then f is integrable over all intervals with these endpoints and we denoted it by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \text{ or } \int_a^b f.$$

Theorem 9.3. Translation invariance

If $E \in \mathcal{L}, x \in \mathbb{R}$ then $E + x \in \mathcal{L}$ and $m(E + x) = m(E)$.

Theorem 9.4. If $E \in \mathcal{L}$, then

1. $m(E) = \inf \{m(U) : U \text{ is open, } E \subset U\}$ (outer regular),
2. $m(E) = \sup \{m(K) : K \text{ is compact, } K \subset E\}$ (inner regular).

Theorem 9.5. LUSIN

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be Lebesgue measurable which is zero outside a set of finite measure. Then $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, exists g continuous with compact support such that

$$m(\{ : f(x) \neq g(x) \}) < \varepsilon, \quad \sup |g| \leq \sup |f|.$$

Theorem 9.6. If f is Lebesgue measurable, exists g Borel measurable with $f = g$ m -a.e.

Example 9.4. Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure

Let g be increasing, right continuous, so

$$g(c) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} g(c + h),$$

and define $m_g((a, b]) = g(b) - g(a)$, we have

$$m_g(\{c\}) = \text{jump at } c = g(c) - \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} g(x).$$

Theorem 9.7. RIESZ REPRESENTATION THEOREM

If $\lambda : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded positive functional, then exists a (Lebesgue-Stieltjes) measure μ_g (defined on the Borel σ -algebra) with

$$\lambda(f) = \int_a^b f \, d\mu_g, \quad \forall f \in C[a, b], \text{ and}$$

$$\|\lambda\| = \sup_{\|f\|_\infty=1} \left| \int_a^b f \, d\mu_g \right| = \mu_g([a, b]).$$

Remark 9.4. $\lambda \in (C[a, b])^*$, λ is positive if $f \geq 0$, hence $\lambda f \geq 0$. λ looks like

$$\lambda(f) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j f(c_j) + \int_a^b f \omega,$$

where $f(c_j)$ is the jump of f at point c_j , ω is the weight function, absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure m .

10 Product Measure

Definition. Let X and Y be two sets; then the **Cartesian product** $Z = X \times Y$ is the set of all ordered pairs (x, y) with $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$.

Definition 10.1. If (X, \mathcal{S}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}) are measurable spaces, then a set of the form $E \times F$ with $E \in \mathcal{S}$ and $F \in \mathcal{T}$ is called a **measurable rectangle**, or simply a **rectangle**. We shall denote the collection of all finite union of rectangles by \mathcal{R} .

$$\mathcal{R} = \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T} = \{E \times F : E \in \mathcal{S}, F \in \mathcal{T}\}.$$

Remark 10.1. We wish to define a measure π such that $\pi(E \times F) = \mu(E)\nu(F)$.

Claim. Let \mathcal{A}_0 be all finite union of rectangles, we claim that all finite unions of rectangles can be written as a disjoint union of rectangles (proof by picture). So \mathcal{A}_0 is closed under finite union. We claim that \mathcal{A}_0 is an algebra.

Lemma 10.1. Let $\{D_j \times E_j\}$ be a sequence of disjoint rectangles, and $F_1 \times G_1, \dots, F_n \times G_n$ be disjoint rectangles with

$$\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} D_j \times E_j = \bigcup_{k=1}^n F_k \times G_k, \text{ then}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(D_j)\nu(E_j) = \sum_{k=1}^n \mu(F_k)\nu(G_k).$$

Definition. On \mathcal{A}_0 define π_0 by

$$\pi_0(A) = \sum_{j=1}^n \mu(D_j)\nu(E_j),$$

where A is a disjoint union of rectangles $D_1 \times E_1, \dots, D_n \times E_n$, by lemma, this is well defined.

Theorem 10.1. π_0 defines a measure on the algebra \mathcal{A}_0 .

Remark 10.2. There is a naturally associated outer measure (defined on $\mathcal{P}(X \times Y)$)

$$\pi^*(E) := \inf \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \pi_0(R_j) : R_j \text{ is a rectangle } (\in \mathcal{A}_0), E \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} R_j \right\}.$$

By Carathéodory, there exists σ -algebra \mathcal{U} consisting of the π^* -measurable subsets, for which $\pi^*|_{\mathcal{U}}$ is a complete measure with the properties that $\mathcal{A}_0 \subset \mathcal{U}$, $\pi^*(A) = \pi_0(A)$, $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}$.

Definition. Let $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}$ be the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{A}_0 (all rectangles), so $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{U}$.

Definition. The **product measure** $\pi = \mu \times \nu$ is π^* restricted to $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}$ (σ -algebra generated by rectangles.)

Definition 10.2. Let $Q \subset \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}$, $x \in X$, then the **x-section of Q** is the set

$$Q_x := \{y \in Y : (x, y) \in Q\}.$$

Similarly, if $y \in Y$, then the **y-section of Q** is the set

$$Q^y = \{x \in X : (x, y) \in Q\}.$$

If f is a function defined on R to $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$, and $x \in X$, then the **x-section of f** is the function f_x defined on Y by

$$f_x(y) = f(x, y), \quad y \in Y.$$

Similarly, if $y \in Y$, then the **y-section of f** is the function f^y defined on X by

$$f^y(x) = f(x, y), \quad x \in X.$$

Lemma 10.2. If $Q \subset \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}$, then

1. $Q_x \in \mathcal{T}, Q^y \in \mathcal{S}$,
2. $f : X \times Y \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}$ -measurable, then
 - $f(\cdot, y) : X \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is \mathcal{S} -measurable,
 - $f(x, \cdot) : Y \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is \mathcal{T} -measurable.

Definition. Let \mathcal{M} be a collection of subsets of a set Z , \mathcal{M} is a **monotone class** if

- $\{E_n\}$ is expanding in \mathcal{M} implies that $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \in \mathcal{M}$;
- $\{E_n\}$ is contracting in \mathcal{M} implies that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \in \mathcal{M}$.

Example 10.1. The collection of all intervals in \mathbb{R} is a monotone class, but not a σ -algebra .

Theorem 10.2. TONELLI'S THEOREM

Let (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) and (Y, \mathcal{T}, ν) be σ -finite measure spaces with product measure $(X \times Y, \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}, \pi)$. If $f : X \times Y \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}, f \geq 0, f$ is $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}$ -measurable, then

1. the function $x \mapsto \int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y)$ is \mathcal{S} -measurable, and

$$\int_X \left(\int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y) \right) d\mu(x) = \int_{X \times Y} f d\pi(x, y),$$

2. the function $y \mapsto \int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x)$ is \mathcal{T} -measurable, and

$$\int_Y \left(\int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x) \right) d\nu(y) = \int_{X \times Y} f d\pi(x, y).$$

That is

$$\begin{aligned} \int_X \left(\int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y) \right) d\mu(x) &= \int_{X \times Y} f d\pi(x, y) \\ &= \int_Y \left(\int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x) \right) d\nu(y). \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 10.3. MONOTONE CLASS THEOREM

If \mathcal{A} is an algebra of sets, then the σ -algebra \mathcal{S} generated by \mathcal{A} coincides with the monotone class \mathcal{M} generated by \mathcal{A} .

Lemma 10.3. Tonelli for $f = \chi_Q$

If $f = \chi_Q, Q \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}$, then Tonelli holds for f .

Remark 10.3. If (f_n) is an increasing sequence of non-negative, measurable functions for which 1 and 2 of Tonelli holds, then 1 and 2 of Tonelli holds for $f = \lim f_n$.

Claim. Let $\mathcal{M} := \{Q \subset X \times Y : \text{Tonelli holds for } \chi_Q\}$, note $\mathcal{A}_0 \subset \mathcal{M}$. Then \mathcal{M} is a monotone class.

Remark 10.4. Recall each f non-negative, measurable function can be approximated by an increasing sequence of non-negative, simple, measurable functions. By linearity, Tonelli holds for these approximations, hence Tonelli holds for f .

In the general case, $X = \bigcup X_i, Y = \bigcup Y_i$, where X_i, Y_i are expanding sets of finite measures, then $f|_{X_i \times Y_i}$ satisfies Tonelli, hence so does the limit $f = f|_{X \times Y}$.

Theorem 10.4. FUBINI'S THEOREM

Let (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) and (Y, \mathcal{T}, ν) be σ -finite measures with product measure $(X \times Y, \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{T}, \pi)$ and $f : X \times Y \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ be π -integrable, i.e. $\int f^+ d\pi, \int f^- d\pi < \infty$ implies $\int |f| d\pi < \infty$.

1. There is a set Y_0 with $\nu(Y_0) = 0$, such that $f(\cdot, y)$ is μ -integrable over $X, \forall y \in Y \setminus Y_0$.

Further, if $f(\cdot, y) := 0$ on Y_0 (or some other choice)

$$y \mapsto \int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x)$$

is ν -integrable over Y , and

$$\int_Y \left(\int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x) \right) d\nu(y) = \int_{X \times Y} f d\pi(x, y)$$

2. If either of the iterated integrals

$$\int_Y \left(\int_X |f| d\mu \right) d\nu, \quad \int_X \left(\int_Y |f| d\nu \right) d\mu$$

is finite, then

$$\int_Y \int_X f d\mu d\nu = \int_X \int_Y f d\nu d\mu.$$

Example 10.2. It is not always possible to change the order of integration

Let

$$f(x, y) := \frac{y^2 - x^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \right) = f(x, y).$$

Example 10.3. σ -finite is necessary:

Let μ be Lebesgue measure on $[0, 1]$, ν be counting measure on $[0, 1]$, let

$$f(x, y) := \begin{cases} 1, & x = y \\ 0, & x \neq y \end{cases}$$

ν is not σ -finite and the iterated integrals are not the same.