

## CHAPTER 5

# DECOMPOSITION OF MEASURES

### Introduction

In this section a version of the fundamental theorem of calculus for Lebesgue integrals will be proved. Moreover, the concept of differentiating a measure with respect to another measure will be developed. A very important result in this chapter is the so called Radon-Nikodym Theorem.

### 5.1. Complex Measures

Let  $(X, \mathcal{M})$  be a measurable space. Recall that if  $A_n \subseteq X$ ,  $n \in \mathbf{N}_+$ , and  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ , the sequence  $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbf{N}_+}$  is called a disjoint denumerable collection. The collection is called a measurable partition of  $A$  if  $A = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$  and  $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$  for every  $n \in \mathbf{N}_+$ .

A complex function  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$  is called a complex measure if

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$$

for every  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and measurable partition  $(A_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of  $A$ . Note that  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$  if  $\mu$  is a complex measure. A complex measure is said to be a real measure if it is a real function. The reader should note that a positive measure need not be a real measure since infinity is not a real number. If  $\mu$  is a complex measure  $\mu = \mu_{\text{Re}} + i\mu_{\text{Im}}$ , where  $\mu_{\text{Re}} = \text{Re } \mu$  and  $\mu_{\text{Im}} = \text{Im } \mu$  are real measures.

If  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  is a positive measure and  $f \in L^1(\mu)$  it follows that

$$\lambda(A) = \int_A f d\mu, \quad A \in \mathcal{M}$$

is a real measure and we write  $d\lambda = f d\mu$ .

A function  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [-\infty, \infty]$  is called a signed measure if

- (a)  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow ]-\infty, \infty]$  or  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [-\infty, \infty[$
- (b)  $\mu(\phi) = 0$
- and
- (c) for every  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and measurable partition  $(A_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of  $A$ ,

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$$

where the latter sum converges absolutely if  $\mu(A) \in \mathbf{R}$ .

Here  $-\infty - \infty = -\infty$  and  $-\infty + x = -\infty$  if  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ . The sum of a positive measure and a real measure and the difference of a real measure and a positive measure are examples of signed measures and it can be proved that there are no other signed measures (see Folland [F]). Below we concentrate on positive, real, and complex measures and will not say more about signed measures here.

Suppose  $\mu$  is a complex measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  and define for every  $A \in \mathcal{M}$

$$|\mu|(A) = \sup \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\mu(A_n)|,$$

where the supremum is taken over all measurable partitions  $(A_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of  $A$ . Note that  $|\mu|(\phi) = 0$  and

$$|\mu|(A) \geq |\mu(B)| \text{ if } A, B \in \mathcal{M} \text{ and } A \supseteq B.$$

The set function  $|\mu|$  is called the total variation of  $\mu$  or the total variation measure of  $\mu$ . It turns out that  $|\mu|$  is a positive measure. In fact, as will shortly be seen,  $|\mu|$  is a finite positive measure.

**Theorem 5.1.1.** *The total variation  $|\mu|$  of a complex measure is a positive measure.*

PROOF. Let  $(A_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a measurable partition of  $A$ .

For each  $n$ , suppose  $a_n < |\mu|(A_n)$  and let  $(E_{kn})_{k=1}^\infty$  be a measurable partition of  $A_n$  such that

$$a_n < \sum_{k=1}^\infty |\mu(E_{kn})|.$$

Since  $(E_{kn})_{k,n=1}^\infty$  is a partition of  $A$  it follows that

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n < \sum_{k,n=1}^\infty |\mu(E_{kn})| \leq |\mu|(A).$$

Thus

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty |\mu|(A_n) \leq |\mu|(A).$$

To prove the opposite inequality, let  $(E_k)_{k=1}^\infty$  be a measurable partition of  $A$ . Then, since  $(A_n \cap E_k)_{n=1}^\infty$  is a measurable partition of  $E_k$  and  $(A_n \cap E_k)_{k=1}^\infty$  a measurable partition of  $A_n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^\infty |\mu(E_k)| &= \sum_{k=1}^\infty \left| \sum_{n=1}^\infty \mu(A_n \cap E_k) \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k,n=1}^\infty |\mu(A_n \cap E_k)| \leq \sum_{n=1}^\infty |\mu|(A_n) \end{aligned}$$

and we get

$$|\mu|(A) \leq \sum_{n=1}^\infty |\mu|(A_n).$$

Thus

$$|\mu|(A) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty |\mu|(A_n).$$

Since  $|\mu|(\phi) = 0$ , the theorem is proved.

**Theorem 5.1.2.** *The total variation  $|\mu|$  of a complex measure  $\mu$  is a finite positive measure.*

PROOF. Since

$$|\mu| \leq |\mu_{\text{Re}}| + |\mu_{\text{Im}}|$$

there is no loss of generality to assume that  $\mu$  is a real measure.

Suppose  $|\mu|(E) = \infty$  for some  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ . We first prove that there exist disjoint sets  $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$  such that

$$A \cup B = E$$

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and

$$|\mu(A)| > 1 \text{ and } |\mu|(B) = \infty.$$

To this end let  $c = 2(1 + |\mu(E)|)$  and let  $(E_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a measurable partition of  $E$  such that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n |\mu(E_k)| > c$$

for some sufficiently large  $n$ . There exists a subset  $N$  of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  such that

$$|\sum_{k \in N} \mu(E_k)| > \frac{c}{2}.$$

Set  $A = \cup_{k \in N} E_k$  and  $B = E \setminus A$ . Then  $|\mu(A)| > \frac{c}{2} \geq 1$  and

$$\begin{aligned} |\mu(B)| &= |\mu(E) - \mu(A)| \\ &\geq |\mu(A)| - |\mu(E)| > \frac{c}{2} - |\mu(E)| = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\infty = |\mu|(E) = |\mu|(A) + |\mu|(B)$  we have  $|\mu|(A) = \infty$  or  $|\mu|(B) = \infty$ . If  $|\mu|(B) < \infty$  we interchange  $A$  and  $B$  and have  $|\mu(A)| > 1$  and  $|\mu|(B) = \infty$ .

Suppose  $|\mu|(X) = \infty$ . Set  $E_0 = X$  and choose disjoint sets  $A_0, B_0 \in \mathcal{M}$  such that

$$A_0 \cup B_0 = E_0$$

and

$$|\mu(A_0)| > 1 \text{ and } |\mu|(B_0) = \infty.$$

Set  $E_1 = B_0$  and choose disjoint sets  $A_1, B_1 \in \mathcal{M}$  such that

$$A_1 \cup B_1 = E_1$$

and

$$|\mu(A_1)| > 1 \text{ and } |\mu|(B_1) = \infty.$$

By induction, we find a measurable partition  $(A_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  of the set  $A =_{def} \cup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$  such that  $|\mu(A_n)| > 1$  for every  $n$ . Now, since  $\mu$  is a complex measure,

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu(A_n).$$

But this series cannot converge, since the general term does not tend to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . This contradiction shows that  $|\mu|$  is a finite positive measure.

If  $\mu$  is a real measure we define

$$\mu^+ = \frac{1}{2}(|\mu| + \mu)$$

and

$$\mu^- = \frac{1}{2}(|\mu| - \mu).$$

The measures  $\mu^+$  and  $\mu^-$  are finite positive measures and are called the positive and negative variations of  $\mu$ , respectively. The representation

$$\mu = \mu^+ - \mu^-$$

is called the Jordan decomposition of  $\mu$ .

### Exercises

1. Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  is a positive measure space and  $d\lambda = f d\mu$ , where  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ . Prove that  $d|\lambda| = |f| d\mu$ .

2. Suppose  $\lambda, \mu$ , and  $\nu$  are real measures defined on the same  $\sigma$ -algebra and  $\lambda \leq \mu$  and  $\lambda \leq \nu$ . Prove that

$$\lambda \leq \min(\mu, \nu)$$

where

$$\min(\mu, \nu) = \frac{1}{2}(\mu + \nu - |\mu - \nu|).$$

3. Suppose  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$  is a complex measure and  $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  measurable functions. Show that

$$|\mu(f \in A) - \mu(g \in A)| \leq |\mu| (f \neq g)$$

for every  $A \in \mathcal{R}$ .

## 5.2. The Lebesgue Decomposition and the Radon-Nikodym Theorem

Let  $\mu$  be a positive measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\lambda$  a positive or complex measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ . The measure  $\lambda$  is said to be absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$  (abbreviated  $\lambda \ll \mu$ ) if  $\lambda(A) = 0$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  for which  $\mu(A) = 0$ . If we define

$$\mathcal{Z}_\lambda = \{A \in \mathcal{M}; \lambda(A) = 0\}$$

it follows that  $\lambda \ll \mu$  if and only if

$$\mathcal{Z}_\mu \subseteq \mathcal{Z}_\lambda.$$

For example,  $\gamma_n \ll v_n$  and  $v_n \ll \gamma_n$ .

The measure  $\lambda$  is said to be concentrated on  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  if  $\lambda = \lambda^E$ , where  $\lambda^E(A) =_{def} \lambda(E \cap A)$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ . This is equivalent to the hypothesis that  $A \in \mathcal{Z}_\lambda$  if  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $A \cap E = \phi$ . Thus if  $E_1, E_2 \in \mathcal{M}$ , where  $E_1 \subseteq E_2$ , and  $\lambda$  is concentrated on  $E_1$ , then  $\lambda$  is concentrated on  $E_2$ . Moreover, if  $E_1, E_2 \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\lambda$  is concentrated on both  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , then  $\lambda$  is concentrated on  $E_1 \cap E_2$ . Two measures  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are said to be mutually singular (abbreviated  $\lambda_1 \perp \lambda_2$ ) if there exist disjoint measurable sets  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  such that  $\lambda_1$  is concentrated on  $E_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  is concentrated on  $E_2$ .

**Theorem 5.2.1.** *Let  $\mu$  be a positive measure and  $\lambda, \lambda_1$ , and  $\lambda_2$  complex measures.*

(i) *If  $\lambda_1 \ll \mu$  and  $\lambda_2 \ll \mu$ , then  $(\alpha_1 \lambda_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2) \ll \mu$  for all complex numbers  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .*

(ii) *If  $\lambda_1 \perp \mu$  and  $\lambda_2 \perp \mu$ , then  $(\alpha_1 \lambda_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2) \perp \mu$  for all complex numbers  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .*

(iii) *If  $\lambda \ll \mu$  and  $\lambda \perp \mu$ , then  $\lambda = 0$ .*

(iv) *If  $\lambda \ll \mu$ , then  $|\lambda| \ll \mu$ .*

PROOF. The properties (i) and (ii) are simple to prove and are left as exercises.

To prove (iii) suppose  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  is a  $\mu$ -null set and  $\lambda = \lambda^E$ . If  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $\lambda(A) = \lambda(A \cap E)$  and  $A \cap E$  is a  $\mu$ -null set. Since  $\lambda \ll \mu$  it follows that  $A \cap E \in Z_\lambda$  and, hence,  $\lambda(A) = \lambda(A \cap E) = 0$ . This proves (iii)

To prove (iv) suppose  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\mu(A) = 0$ . If  $(A_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is measurable partition of  $A$ , then  $\mu(A_n) = 0$  for every  $n$ . Since  $\lambda \ll \mu$ ,  $\lambda(A_n) = 0$  for every  $n$  and we conclude that  $|\lambda|(A) = 0$ . This proves (vi).

**Theorem 5.2.2.** *Let  $\mu$  be a positive measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\lambda$  a complex measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (a)  $\lambda \ll \mu$ .
- (b) *To every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there corresponds a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\lambda(E)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  with  $\mu(E) < \delta$ .*

If  $\lambda$  is a positive measure, the implication (a)  $\Rightarrow$  (b) in Theorem 5.2.2 is, in general, wrong. To see this take  $\mu = \gamma_1$  and  $\lambda = v_1$ . Then  $\lambda \ll \mu$  and if we choose  $A_n = [n, \infty[$ ,  $n \in \mathbf{N}_+$ , then  $\mu(A_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  but  $\lambda(A_n) = \infty$  for each  $n$ .

PROOF. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b). If (b) is wrong there exist an  $\varepsilon > 0$  and sets  $E_n \in \mathcal{M}$ ,  $n \in \mathbf{N}_+$ , such that  $|\lambda(E_n)| \geq \varepsilon$  and  $\mu(E_n) < 2^{-n}$ . Set

$$A_n = \cup_{k=n}^\infty E_k \text{ and } A = \cap_{n=1}^\infty A_n.$$

Since  $A_n \supseteq A_{n+1} \supseteq A$  and  $\mu(A_n) < 2^{-n+1}$ , it follows that  $\mu(A) = 0$  and using that  $|\lambda|(A_n) \geq |\lambda(E_n)|$ , Theorem 1.1.2 (f) implies that

$$|\lambda|(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\lambda|(A_n) \geq \varepsilon.$$

This contradicts that  $|\lambda| \ll \mu$ .

(b) $\Rightarrow$ (a). If  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\mu(E) = 0$  then to each  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $|\lambda(E)| < \varepsilon$ , and we conclude that  $\lambda(E) = 0$ . The theorem is proved.

**Theorem 5.2.3.** *Let  $\mu$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite positive measure and  $\lambda$  a real measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ .*

(a) **(The Lebesgue Decomposition of  $\lambda$ )** *There exists a unique pair of real measures  $\lambda_a$  and  $\lambda_s$  on  $\mathcal{M}$  such that*

$$\lambda = \lambda_a + \lambda_s, \quad \lambda_a \ll \mu, \quad \text{and } \lambda_s \perp \mu.$$

*If  $\lambda$  is a finite positive measure,  $\lambda_a$  and  $\lambda_s$  are finite positive measures.*

(b) **(The Radon-Nikodym Theorem)** *There exists a unique  $g \in L^1(\mu)$  such that*

$$d\lambda_a = g d\mu.$$

*If  $\lambda$  is a finite positive measure,  $g \geq 0$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ .*

The proof of Theorem 5.2.3 is based on the following

**Lemma 5.2.1.** *Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a finite positive measure space and suppose  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ .*

(a) *If  $a \in \mathbf{R}$  and*

$$\int_E f d\mu \leq a\mu(E), \quad \text{all } E \in \mathcal{M}$$

*then  $f \leq a$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ .*

(b) *If  $b \in \mathbf{R}$  and*

$$\int_E f d\mu \geq b\mu(E), \quad \text{all } E \in \mathcal{M}$$

*then  $f \geq b$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ .*

PROOF. (a) Set  $g = f - a$  so that

$$\int_E g d\mu \leq 0, \quad \text{all } E \in \mathcal{M}.$$

Now choose  $E = \{g > 0\}$  to obtain

$$0 \geq \int_E g d\mu = \int_X \chi_E g d\mu \geq 0$$



as  $\chi_E g \geq 0$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ . But then Example 2.1.2 yields  $\chi_E g = 0$  a.e.  $[\mu]$  and we get  $E \in Z_\mu$ . Thus  $g \leq 0$  a.e.  $[\mu]$  or  $f \leq a$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ .

Part (b) follows in a similar way as Part (a) and the proof is omitted here.

PROOF. Uniqueness: (a) Suppose  $\lambda_a^{(k)}$  and  $\lambda_s^{(k)}$  are real measures on  $\mathcal{M}$  such that

$$\lambda = \lambda_a^{(k)} + \lambda_s^{(k)}, \lambda_a^{(k)} \ll \mu, \text{ and } \lambda_s^{(k)} \perp \mu$$

for  $k = 1, 2$ . Then

$$\lambda_a^{(1)} - \lambda_a^{(2)} = \lambda_s^{(2)} - \lambda_s^{(1)}$$

and

$$\lambda_a^{(1)} - \lambda_a^{(2)} \ll \mu \text{ and } \lambda_a^{(1)} - \lambda_a^{(2)} \perp \mu.$$

Thus by applying Theorem 5.2.1,  $\lambda_a^{(1)} - \lambda_a^{(2)} = 0$  and  $\lambda_a^{(1)} = \lambda_a^{(2)}$ . From this we conclude that  $\lambda_s^{(1)} = \lambda_s^{(2)}$ .

(b) Suppose  $g_k \in L^1(\mu)$ ,  $k = 1, 2$ , and

$$d\lambda_a = g_1 d\mu = g_2 d\mu.$$

Then  $h d\mu = 0$  where  $h = g_1 - g_2$ . But then

$$\int_{\{h>0\}} h d\mu = 0$$

and it follows that  $h \leq 0$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ . In a similar way we prove that  $h \geq 0$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ . Thus  $h = 0$  in  $L^1(\mu)$ , that is  $g_1 = g_2$  in  $L^1(\mu)$ .

Existence: The beautiful proof that follows is due to von Neumann.

First suppose that  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$  are finite positive measures and set  $\nu = \lambda + \mu$ . Clearly,  $L^1(\lambda) \supseteq L^1(\nu) \supseteq L^2(\nu)$ . Moreover, if  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is measurable

$$\int_X |f| d\lambda \leq \int_X |f| d\nu \leq \sqrt{\int_X f^2 d\nu} \sqrt{\nu(X)}$$

and from this we conclude that the map

$$f \rightarrow \int_X f d\lambda$$

is a continuous linear functional on  $L^2(\nu)$ . Therefore, in view of Theorem 4.2.2, there exists a  $g \in L^2(\nu)$  such that

$$\int_X f d\lambda = \int_X f g d\nu \text{ all } f \in L^2(\nu).$$

Suppose  $E \in \mathcal{M}$  and put  $f = \chi_E$  to obtain

$$0 \leq \lambda(E) = \int_E g d\nu$$

and, since  $\nu \geq \lambda$ ,

$$0 \leq \int_E g d\nu \leq \nu(E).$$

But then Lemma 5.2.1 implies that  $0 \leq g \leq 1$  a.e.  $[\nu]$ . Therefore, without loss of generality we can assume that  $0 \leq g(x) \leq 1$  for all  $x \in X$  and, in addition, as above

$$\int_X f d\lambda = \int_X f g d\nu \text{ all } f \in L^2(\nu)$$

that is

$$\int_X f(1-g)d\lambda = \int_X f g d\mu \text{ all } f \in L^2(\nu).$$

Put  $A = \{0 \leq g < 1\}$ ,  $S = \{g = 1\}$ ,  $\lambda_a = \lambda^A$ , and  $\lambda_s = \lambda^S$ . Note that  $\lambda = \lambda^A + \lambda^S$ . The choice  $f = \chi_S$  gives  $\mu(S) = 0$  and hence  $\lambda_s \perp \mu$ . Moreover, the choice

$$f = (1 + \dots + g^n)\chi_E$$

where  $E \in \mathcal{M}$ , gives

$$\int_E (1 - g^{n+1})d\lambda = \int_E (1 + \dots + g^n)g d\mu.$$

By letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and using monotone convergence

$$\lambda(E \cap A) = \int_E h d\mu.$$

where

$$h = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \dots + g^n)g.$$

Since  $h$  is non-negative and

$$\lambda(A) = \int_X h d\mu$$

it follows that  $h \in L^1(\mu)$ . Moreover, the construction above shows that  $\lambda = \lambda_a + \lambda_s$ .

In the next step we assume that  $\mu$  is a  $\sigma$ -finite positive measure and  $\lambda$  a finite positive measure. Let  $(X_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  be a measurable partition of  $X$  such that  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$  for every  $n$ . Let  $n$  be fixed and apply Part (a) to the pair  $\mu^{X_n}$  and  $\lambda^{X_n}$  to obtain finite positive measures  $(\lambda^{X_n})_a$  and  $(\lambda^{X_n})_s$  such that

$$\lambda^{X_n} = (\lambda^{X_n})_a + (\lambda^{X_n})_s, \quad (\lambda^{X_n})_a \ll \mu^{X_n}, \quad \text{and} \quad (\lambda^{X_n})_s \perp \mu^{X_n}$$

and

$$d(\lambda^{X_n})_a = h_n d\mu^{X_n} \quad (\text{or } (\lambda^{X_n})_a = h_n \mu^{X_n})$$

where  $0 \leq h_n \in L^1(\mu^{X_n})$ . Without loss of generality we can assume that  $h_n = 0$  off  $X_n$  and that  $(\lambda^{X_n})_s$  is concentrated on  $A_n \subseteq X_n$  where  $A_n \in \mathcal{Z}_\mu$ . In particular,  $(\lambda^{X_n})_a = h_n \mu$ . Now

$$\lambda = h\mu + \sum_{n=1}^\infty (\lambda^{X_n})_s$$

where

$$h = \sum_{n=1}^\infty h_n$$

and

$$\int_X h d\mu \leq \lambda(X) < \infty.$$

Thus  $h \in L^1(\mu)$ . Moreover,  $\lambda_s =_{def} \sum_{n=1}^\infty (\lambda^{X_n})_s$  is concentrated on  $\cup_{n=1}^\infty A_n \in \mathcal{Z}_\mu$ . Hence  $\lambda_s \perp \mu$ .

Finally if  $\lambda$  is a real measure we apply what we have already proved to the positive and negative variations of  $\lambda$  and we are done.

**Example 5.2.1.** Let  $\lambda$  be Lebesgue measure in the unit interval and  $\mu$  the counting measure in the unit interval restricted to the class of all Lebesgue measurable subsets of the unit interval. Clearly,  $\lambda \ll \mu$ . Suppose there is an

$h \in L^1(\mu)$  such that  $d\lambda = hd\mu$ . We can assume that  $h \geq 0$  and the Markov inequality implies that the set  $\{h \geq \varepsilon\}$  is finite for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ . But then

$$\lambda(h \in ]0, 1]) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda(h \geq 2^{-n}) = 0$$

and it follows that  $1 = \lambda(h = 0) = \int_{\{h=0\}} hd\mu = 0$ , which is a contradiction.

**Corollary 5.2.1.** *Suppose  $\mu$  is a real measure. Then there exists*

$$h \in L^1(|\mu|)$$

*such that  $|h(x)| = 1$  for all  $x \in X$  and*

$$d\mu = hd|\mu|.$$

PROOF. Since  $|\mu(A)| \leq |\mu|(A)$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , the Radon-Nikodym Theorem implies that  $d\mu = hd|\mu|$  for an appropriate  $h \in L^1(|\mu|)$ . But then  $d|\mu| = |h|d|\mu|$  (see Exercise 1 in Chapter 5.1). Thus

$$|\mu|(E) = \int_E |h|d|\mu|, \text{ all } E \in \mathcal{M}$$

and Lemma 5.2.1 yields  $h = 1$  a.e.  $[|\mu|]$ . From this the theorem follows at once.

**Theorem 5.2.4. (Hahn's Decomposition Theorem)** *Suppose  $\mu$  is a real measure. There exists an  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  such that*

$$\mu^+ = \mu^A \text{ and } \mu^- = -\mu^{A^c}.$$

PROOF. Let  $d\mu = hd|\mu|$  where  $|h| = 1$ . Note that  $hd\mu = d|\mu|$ . Set  $A = \{h = 1\}$ . Then

$$d\mu^+ = \frac{1}{2}(d|\mu| + d\mu) = \frac{1}{2}(h + 1)d\mu = \chi_A d\mu$$

and

$$d\mu^- = d\mu^+ - d\mu = (\chi_A - 1)d\mu = -\chi_{A^c}d\mu.$$

The theorem is proved.

If a real measure  $\lambda$  is absolutely continuous with respect to a  $\sigma$ -finite positive measure  $\mu$ , the Radon-Nikodym Theorem says that  $d\lambda = fd\mu$  for an appropriate  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ . We sometimes write

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

and call  $f$  the Radon-Nikodym derivate of  $\lambda$  with respect to  $\mu$ .

### Exercises

1. Suppose  $\mu$  and  $\nu_n, n \in \mathbf{N}$ , are positive measures defined on the same  $\sigma$ -algebra and set  $\theta = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \nu_n$ . Prove that

- a)  $\theta \perp \mu$  if  $\nu_n \perp \mu$ , all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ .
- b)  $\theta \ll \mu$  if  $\nu_n \ll \mu$ , all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ .

2. Suppose  $\mu$  is a real measure and  $\mu = \lambda_1 - \lambda_2$ , where  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are finite positive measures. Prove that  $\lambda_1 \geq \mu^+$  and  $\lambda_2 \geq \mu^-$ .

3. Let  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  be mutually singular complex measures on the same  $\sigma$ -algebra. Show that  $|\lambda_1| \perp |\lambda_2|$ .

4. Let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite positive measure space and suppose  $\lambda$  and  $\tau$  are two probability measures defined on the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}$  such that  $\lambda \ll \mu$  and  $\tau \ll \mu$ . Prove that

$$\sup_{A \in \mathcal{M}} |\lambda(A) - \tau(A)| = \frac{1}{2} \int_X \left| \frac{d\lambda}{d\mu} - \frac{d\tau}{d\mu} \right| d\mu.$$

### 5.3. The Wiener Maximal Theorem and the Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem

We say that a Lebesgue measurable function  $f$  in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  is locally Lebesgue integrable and belongs to the class  $L^1_{loc}(m_n)$  if  $f\chi_K \in L^1(m_n)$  for each compact subset  $K$  of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . In a similar way  $f \in L^1_{loc}(v_n)$  if  $f$  is a Borel function such that  $f\chi_K \in L^1(v_n)$  for each compact subset  $K$  of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . If  $f \in L^1_{loc}(m_n)$ , we define the average  $A_r f(x)$  of  $f$  on the open ball  $B(x, r)$  as

$$A_r f(x) = \frac{1}{m_n(B(x, r))} \int_{B(x, r)} f(y) dy.$$

It follows from dominated convergence that the map  $(x, r) \rightarrow A_r f(x)$  of  $\mathbf{R}^n \times ]0, \infty[$  into  $\mathbf{R}$  is continuous. The Hardy-Littlewood maximal function  $f^*$  is, by definition,  $f^* = \sup_{r>0} A_r |f|$  or, stated more explicitly,

$$f^*(x) = \sup_{r>0} \frac{1}{m_n(B(x, r))} \int_{B(x, r)} |f(y)| dy, \quad x \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

The function  $f^* : (\mathbf{R}^n, \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{R}^n)) \rightarrow ([0, \infty], \mathcal{R}_{0, \infty})$  is measurable since

$$f^* = \sup_{\substack{r>0 \\ r \in \mathbf{Q}}} A_r |f|.$$

**Theorem 5.3.1. (Wiener's Maximal Theorem)** *There exists a positive constant  $C = C_n < \infty$  such that for all  $f \in L^1(m_n)$ ,*

$$m_n(f^* > \alpha) \leq \frac{C}{\alpha} \|f\|_1 \text{ if } \alpha > 0.$$

The proof of the Wiener Maximal Theorem is based on the following remarkable result.

**Lemma 5.3.1.** *Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a collection of open balls in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  and set  $V = \cup_{B \in \mathcal{C}} B$ . If  $c < m_n(V)$  there exist pairwise disjoint  $B_1, \dots, B_k \in \mathcal{C}$  such that*

$$\sum_{i=1}^k m_n(B_i) > 3^{-n} c.$$

PROOF. Let  $K \subseteq V$  be compact with  $m_n(K) > c$ , and suppose  $A_1, \dots, A_p \in \mathcal{C}$  cover  $K$ . Let  $B_1$  be the largest of the  $A_i$ 's (that is,  $B_1$  has maximal radius), let  $B_2$  be the largest of the  $A_i$ 's which are disjoint from  $B_1$ , let  $B_3$  be the largest of the  $A_i$ 's which are disjoint from  $B_1 \cup B_2$ , and so on until the process stops after  $k$  steps. If  $B_i = B(x_i, r_i)$  put  $B_i^* = B(x_i, 3r_i)$ . Then  $\cup_{i=1}^k B_i^* \supseteq K$  and

$$c < \sum_{i=1}^k m_n(B_i^*) = 3^n \sum_{i=1}^k m_n(B_i).$$

The lemma is proved.

PROOF OF THEOREM 5.3.1. Set

$$E_\alpha = \{f^* > \alpha\}.$$

For each  $x \in E_\alpha$  choose an  $r_x > 0$  such that  $A_{r_x} |f| (x) > \alpha$ . If  $c < m_n(E_\alpha)$ , by Lemma 5.3.1 there exist  $x_1, \dots, x_k \in E_\alpha$  such that the balls  $B_i = B(x_i, r_{x_i})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , are mutually disjoint and

$$\sum_{i=1}^k m_n(B_i) > 3^{-n} c.$$

But then

$$c < 3^n \sum_{i=1}^k m_n(B_i) < \frac{3^n}{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^k \int_{B_i} |f(y)| dy \leq \frac{3^n}{\alpha} \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} |f(y)| dy.$$

The theorem is proved.

**Theorem 5.3.2.** If  $f \in L^1_{loc}(m_n)$ ,

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{m_n(B(x, r))} \int_{B(x, r)} f(y) dy = f(x) \text{ a.e. } [m_n].$$

PROOF. Clearly, there is no loss of generality to assume that  $f \in L^1(m_n)$ . Suppose  $g \in C_c(\mathbf{R}^n) =_{def} \{f \in C(\mathbf{R}^n); f(x) = 0 \text{ if } |x| \text{ large enough}\}$ . Then

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} A_r g(x) = g(x) \text{ all } x \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

Since  $A_r f - f = A_r(f - g) - (f - g) + A_r g - g$ ,

$$\overline{\lim}_{r \rightarrow 0} |A_r f - f| \leq (f - g)^* + |f - g|.$$

Now, for fixed  $\alpha > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & m_n(\overline{\lim}_{r \rightarrow 0} |A_r f - f| > \alpha) \\ & \leq m_n((f - g)^* > \frac{\alpha}{2}) + m_n(|f - g| > \frac{\alpha}{2}) \end{aligned}$$

and the Wiener Maximal Theorem and the Markov Inequality give

$$\begin{aligned} & m_n(\overline{\lim}_{r \rightarrow 0} |A_r f - f| > \alpha) \\ & \leq \left(\frac{2C}{\alpha} + \frac{2}{\alpha}\right) \|f - g\|_1. \end{aligned}$$

Remembering that  $C_c(\mathbf{R}^n)$  is dense in  $L^1(m_n)$ , the theorem follows at once.

If  $f \in L^1_{loc}(m_n)$  we define the so called Lebesgue set  $L_f$  to be

$$L_f = \left\{ x; \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{m_n(B(x, r))} \int_{B(x, r)} |f(y) - f(x)| dy = 0 \right\}.$$

Note that if  $q$  is real and

$$E_q = \left\{ x; \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{m_n(B(x, r))} \int_{B(x, r)} |f(y) - q| dy = |f(x) - q| \right\}$$

then  $m_n(\cup_{q \in \mathbf{Q}} E_q^c) = 0$ . If  $x \in \cap_{q \in \mathbf{Q}} E_q$ ,

$$\overline{\lim}_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{m_n(B(x, r))} \int_{B(x, r)} |f(y) - f(x)| dy \leq 2 |f(x) - q|$$

for all rational numbers  $q$  and it follows that  $m_n(L_f^c) = 0$ .

A family  $\mathcal{E}_{x, \alpha} = (E_{x, r})_{r > 0}$  of Borel sets in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  is said to shrink nicely to a point  $x$  in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  if  $E_{x, r} \subseteq B(x, r)$  for each  $r$  and there is a positive constant  $\alpha$ , independent of  $r$ , such that  $m_n(E_{x, r}) \geq \alpha m_n(B(x, r))$ .



**Theorem 5.3.3. (The Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem)** *Suppose  $f \in L^1_{loc}(m_n)$  and  $x \in L_f$ . Then*

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{m_n(E_{x,r})} \int_{E_{x,r}} |f(y) - f(x)| dy = 0$$

and

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{m_n(E_{x,r})} \int_{E_{x,r}} f(y) dy = f(x).$$

PROOF. The result follows from the inequality

$$\frac{1}{m_n(E_{x,r})} \int_{E_{x,r}} |f(y) - f(x)| dy \leq \frac{1}{\alpha m_n(B(x,r))} \int_{B(x,r)} |f(y) - f(x)| dy.$$

**Theorem 5.3.4.** *Suppose  $\lambda$  is a real or positive measure on  $\mathcal{R}_n$  and suppose  $\lambda \perp v_n$ . If  $\lambda$  is a positive measure it is assumed that  $\lambda(K) < \infty$  for every compact subset of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . Then*

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\lambda(E_{x,r})}{v_n(E_{x,r})} = 0 \text{ a.e. } [v_n]$$

If  $E_{x,r} = B(x,r)$  and  $\lambda$  is the counting measure  $c_{\mathbf{Q}^n}$  restricted to  $\mathcal{R}_n$  then  $\lambda \perp v_n$  but the limit in Theorem 5.3.4 equals plus infinity for all  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ . The hypothesis " $\lambda(K) < \infty$  for every compact subset of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ " in Theorem 5.3.4 is not superfluous.

PROOF. Since  $|\lambda(E)| \leq |\lambda|(E)$  if  $E \in \mathcal{R}_n$ , there is no restriction to assume that  $\lambda$  is a positive measure (cf. Theorem 3.1.4). Moreover, since

$$\frac{\lambda(E_{x,r})}{v_n(E_{x,r})} \leq \frac{\lambda(B(x,r))}{\alpha v_n(B(x,r))}$$

it can be assumed that  $E_{x,r} = B(x,r)$ . Note that the function  $\lambda(B(\cdot, r))$  is Borel measurable for fixed  $r > 0$  and  $\lambda(B(x, \cdot))$  left continuous for fixed  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ .

Suppose  $A \in \mathcal{Z}_\lambda$  and  $v_n = (v_n)^A$ . Given  $\delta > 0$ , it is enough to prove that  $F \in \mathcal{Z}_{v_n}$  where

$$F = \left\{ x \in A; \overline{\lim}_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\lambda(B(x, r))}{m_n(B(x, r))} > \delta \right\}$$

To this end let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and use Theorem 3.1.3 to get an open  $U \supseteq A$  such that  $\lambda(U) < \varepsilon$ . For each  $x \in F$  there is an open ball  $B_x \subseteq U$  such that

$$\lambda(B_x) > \delta v_n(B_x).$$

If  $V = \cup_{x \in F} B_x$  and  $c < v_n(V)$  we use Lemma 5.3.1 to obtain  $x_1, \dots, x_k$  such that  $B_{x_1}, \dots, B_{x_k}$  are pairwise disjoint and

$$\begin{aligned} c &< 3^n \sum_{i=1}^k v_n(B_{x_i}) < 3^n \delta^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda(B_{x_i}) \\ &\leq 3^n \delta^{-1} \lambda(U) < 3^n \delta^{-1} \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $v_n(V) \leq 3^n \delta^{-1} \varepsilon$ . Since  $V \supseteq F \in \mathcal{R}_n$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary,  $v_n(F) = 0$  and the theorem is proved.

**Corollary 5.3.1.** *Suppose  $F : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is an increasing function. Then  $F'(x)$  exists for almost all  $x$  with respect to linear measure.*

PROOF. Let  $D$  be the set of all points of discontinuity of  $F$ . Suppose  $-\infty < a < b < \infty$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . If  $a < x_1 < \dots < x_n < b$ , where  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in D$  and

$$F(x_{k+}) - F(x_{k-}) \geq \varepsilon, \quad k = 1, \dots, n$$

then

$$n\varepsilon \leq \sum_{k=1}^n (F(x_{k+}) - F(x_{k-})) \leq F(b) - F(a).$$

Thus  $D \cap [a, b]$  is at most denumerable and it follows that  $D$  is at most denumerable. Set  $H(x) = F(x+) - F(x)$ ,  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ , and let  $(x_j)_{j=0}^N$  be an enumeration of the members of the set  $\{H > 0\}$ . Moreover, for any  $a > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{|x_j| < a} H(x_j) &\leq \sum_{|x_j| < a} (F(x_j+) - F(x_j-)) \\ &\leq F(a) - F(-a) < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Now, if we introduce

$$\nu(A) = \sum_1^N H(x_j) \delta_{x_j}(A), \quad A \in \mathcal{R}$$

then  $\nu$  is a positive measure such that  $\nu(K) < \infty$  for each compact subset  $K$  of  $\mathbf{R}$ . Furthermore, if  $h$  is a non-zero real number,

$$\left| \frac{1}{h}(H(x+h) - H(x)) \right| \leq \frac{1}{|h|} (H(x+h) + H(x)) \leq 4 \frac{1}{4|h|} \nu(B(x, 2|h|))$$

and Theorem 5.3.4 implies that  $H'(x) = 0$  a.e.  $[v_1]$ . Therefore, without loss of generality it may be assumed that  $F$  is right continuous and, in addition, there is no restriction to assume that  $F(+\infty) - F(-\infty) < \infty$ .

By Section 1.6  $F$  induces a finite positive Borel measure  $\mu$  such that

$$\mu([x, y]) = F(y) - F(x) \text{ if } x < y.$$

Now consider the Lebesgue decomposition

$$d\mu = f dv_1 + d\lambda$$

where  $f \in L^1(v_1)$  and  $\lambda \perp v_1$ . If  $x < y$ ,

$$F(y) - F(x) = \int_x^y f(t) dt + \lambda([x, y])$$

and the previous two theorems imply that

$$\lim_{y \downarrow x} \frac{F(y) - F(x)}{y - x} = f(x) \text{ a.e. } [v_1]$$

If  $y < x$ ,

$$F(x) - F(y) = \int_y^x f(t) dt + \lambda([y, x])$$

and we get

$$\lim_{y \uparrow x} \frac{F(y) - F(x)}{y - x} = f(x) \text{ a.e. } [v_1].$$

The theorem is proved.

## Exercises

1. Suppose  $F : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is increasing and let  $f \in L^1_{loc}(v_1)$  be such that  $F'(x) = f(x)$  a.e.  $[v_1]$ . Prove that

$$\int_x^y f(t)dt \leq F(y) - F(x) \text{ if } -\infty < x \leq y < \infty.$$

#### 5.4. Absolutely Continuous Functions and Functions of Bounded Variation

Throughout this section  $a$  and  $b$  are reals with  $a < b$  and to simplify notation we set  $m_{a,b} = m_{|a,b]}$ . If  $f \in L^1(m_{a,b})$  we know from the previous section that the function

$$(If)(x) =_{def} \int_a^x f(t)dt, \quad a \leq x \leq b$$

has the derivative  $f(x)$  a.e.  $[m_{a,b}]$ , that is

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t)dt = f(x) \text{ a.e. } [m_{a,b}].$$

Our next main task will be to describe the range of the linear map  $I$ .

A function  $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is said to be absolutely continuous if to every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |b_i - a_i| < \delta \text{ implies } \sum_{i=1}^n |F(b_i) - F(a_i)| < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $]a_1, b_1[, \dots, ]a_n, b_n[$  are disjoint open subintervals of  $[a, b]$ . It is obvious that an absolutely continuous function is continuous. It can be proved that the Cantor function is not absolutely continuous.

**Theorem 5.4.1.** *If  $f \in L^1(m_{a,b})$ , then  $If$  is absolutely continuous.*

PROOF. There is no restriction to assume  $f \geq 0$ . Set

$$d\lambda = f dm_{a,b}.$$

By Theorem 5.2.2, to every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\lambda(A) < \varepsilon$  for each Lebesgue set  $A$  in  $[a, b]$  such that  $m_{a,b}(A) < \delta$ . Now restricting  $A$  to be a finite disjoint union of open intervals, the theorem follows.

Suppose  $-\infty \leq \alpha < \beta \leq \infty$  and  $F : ]\alpha, \beta[ \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ . For every  $x \in ]\alpha, \beta[$  we define

$$T_F(x) = \sup \sum_{i=1}^n |F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1})|$$

where the supremum is taken over all positive integers  $n$  and all choices  $(x_i)_{i=0}^n$  such that

$$\alpha < x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = x.$$

The function  $T_F : ]\alpha, \beta[ \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is called the total variation of  $F$ . Note that  $T_F$  is increasing. If  $T_F$  is a bounded function,  $F$  is said to be of bounded variation. A bounded increasing function on  $\mathbf{R}$  is of bounded variation. Therefore the difference of two bounded increasing functions on  $\mathbf{R}$  is of bounded variation. Interestingly enough, the converse is true. In the special case  $]\alpha, \beta[ = \mathbf{R}$  we write  $F \in BV$  if  $F$  is of bounded variation.

**Theorem 5.4.2.** *Suppose  $F \in BV$ .*

(a) *The functions  $T_F + F$  and  $T_F - F$  are increasing and*

$$F = \frac{1}{2}(T_F + F) - \frac{1}{2}(T_F - F).$$

*In particular,  $F$  is differentiable almost everywhere with respect to linear measure.*

(b) *If  $F$  is right continuous, then so is  $T_F$ .*

PROOF. (a) Let  $x < y$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = x$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1})| \geq T_f(x) - \varepsilon.$$

Then

$$T_F(y) + F(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\geq \sum_{i=1}^n |F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1})| + |F(y) - F(x)| + (F(y) - F(x)) + F(x) \\ &\geq T_F(x) - \varepsilon + F(x) \end{aligned}$$

and, since  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary,  $T_F(y) + F(y) \geq T_F(x) + F(x)$ . Hence  $T_F + F$  is increasing. Finally, replacing  $F$  by  $-F$  it follows that the function  $T_F - F$  is increasing.

(b) If  $c \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $x > c$ ,

$$T_f(x) = T_F(c) + \sup \sum_{i=1}^n |F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1})|$$

where the supremum is taken over all positive integers  $n$  and all choices  $(x_i)_{i=0}^n$  such that

$$c = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = x.$$

Suppose  $T_F(c+) > T_F(c)$  where  $c \in \mathbf{R}$ . Then there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that

$$T_F(x) - T_F(c) > \varepsilon$$

for all  $x > c$ . Now, since  $F$  is right continuous at the point  $c$ , for fixed  $x > c$  there exists a partition

$$c < x_{11} < \dots < x_{1n_1} = x$$

such that

$$\sum_{i=2}^{n_1} |F(x_{1i}) - F(x_{1i-1})| > \varepsilon.$$

But

$$T_F(x_{11}) - T_F(c) > \varepsilon$$

and we get a partition

$$c < x_{21} < \dots < x_{2n_2} = x_{11}$$

such that

$$\sum_{i=2}^{n_2} |F(x_{2i}) - F(x_{2i-1})| > \varepsilon.$$

Summing up we have got a partition of the interval  $[x_{21}, x]$  with

$$\sum_{i=2}^{n_2} |F(x_{2i}) - F(x_{2i-1})| + \sum_{i=2}^{n_1} |F(x_{1i}) - F(x_{1i-1})| > 2\varepsilon.$$

By repeating the process the total variation of  $F$  becomes infinite, which is a contradiction. The theorem is proved.

**Theorem 5.4.3.** *Suppose  $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is absolutely continuous. Then there exists a unique  $f \in L^1(m_{a,b})$  such that*

$$F(x) = F(a) + \int_a^x f(t)dt, \quad a \leq x \leq b.$$

*In particular, the range of the map  $I$  equals the set of all real-valued absolutely continuous maps on  $[a, b]$ .*

PROOF. Set  $F(x) = F(a)$  if  $x \leq a$  and  $F(x) = F(b)$  if  $x \geq b$ . There exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |b_i - a_i| < \delta \text{ implies } \sum_{i=1}^n |F(b_i) - F(a_i)| < 1$$

whenever  $]a_1, b_1[, \dots, ]a_n, b_n[$  are disjoint subintervals of  $[a, b]$ . Let  $p$  be the least positive integer such that  $a + p\delta \geq b$ . Then  $T_F \leq p$  and  $F \in BV$ . Let  $F = G - H$ , where  $G = \frac{1}{2}(T_F + F)$  and  $H = \frac{1}{2}(T_F - F)$ . There exist finite positive Borel measures  $\lambda_G$  and  $\lambda_H$  such that

$$\lambda_G(]x, y]) = G(y) - G(x), \quad x \leq y$$

and

$$\lambda_H(]x, y]) = H(y) - H(x), \quad x \leq y.$$

If we define  $\lambda = \lambda_G - \lambda_H$ ,

$$\lambda(]x, y]) = F(y) - F(x), \quad x \leq y.$$

Clearly,

$$\lambda(]x, y[) = F(y) - F(x), \quad x \leq y$$

since  $F$  is continuous.

Our next task will be to prove that  $\lambda \ll v_1$ . To this end, suppose  $A \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $v_1(A) = 0$ . Now choose  $\varepsilon > 0$  and let  $\delta > 0$  be as in the definition of the absolute continuity of  $F$  on  $[a, b]$ . For each  $k \in \mathbf{N}_+$  there exists an open set

$V_k \supseteq A$  such that  $v_1(V_k) < \delta$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \lambda(V_k) = \lambda(A)$ . But each fixed  $V_k$  is a disjoint union of open intervals  $(]a_i, b_i[)_{i=1}^{\infty}$  and hence

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |b_i - a_i| < \delta$$

for every  $n$  and, accordingly from this,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |F(b_i) - F(a_i)| \leq \varepsilon$$

and

$$|\lambda(V_k)| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\lambda(]a_i, b_i[)| \leq \varepsilon.$$

Thus  $|\lambda(A)| \leq \varepsilon$  and since  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary,  $\lambda(A) = 0$ . From this  $\lambda \ll v_1$  and the theorem follows at once.

Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  is a positive measure space. From now on we write  $f \in L^1(\mu)$  if there exist a  $g \in \mathcal{L}^1(\mu)$  and an  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $A^c \in \mathcal{Z}_\mu$  and  $f(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x \in A$ . Furthermore, we define

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

(cf the discussion in Section 2). Note that  $f(x)$  need not be defined for every  $x \in X$ .

**Corollary 5.4.1.** *A function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is absolutely continuous if and only if the following conditions are true:*

- (i)  $f'(x)$  exists for  $m_{a,b}$ -almost all  $x \in [a, b]$
- (ii)  $f' \in L^1(m_{a,b})$
- (iii)  $f(x) = f(a) + \int_a^x f'(t) dt$ , all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

## Exercises

1. Suppose  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  satisfies  $f(0) = 0$  and

$$f(x) = x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x^2} \text{ if } 0 < x \leq 1.$$



Prove that  $f$  is differentiable everywhere but  $f$  is not absolutely continuous.

2. Suppose  $\alpha$  is a positive real number and  $f$  a function on  $[0, 1]$  such that  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(x) = x^\alpha \sin \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $0 < x \leq 1$ . Prove that  $f$  is absolutely continuous if and only if  $\alpha > 1$ .

3. Suppose  $f(x) = x \cos(\pi/x)$  if  $0 < x < 2$  and  $f(x) = 0$  if  $x \in \mathbf{R} \setminus ]0, 2[$ . Prove that  $f$  is not of bounded variation on  $\mathbf{R}$ .

4. A function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a Lipschitz function, that is there exists a positive real number  $C$  such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq C |x - y|$$

for all  $x, y \in [a, b]$ . Show that  $f$  is absolutely continuous and  $|f'(x)| \leq C$  a.e.  $[m_{a,b}]$ .

5. Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is absolutely continuous. Prove that

$$T_g(x) = \int_a^x |f'(t)| dt, \quad a < x < b$$

if  $g$  is the restriction of  $f$  to the open interval  $]a, b[$ .

6. Suppose  $f$  and  $g$  are real-valued absolutely continuous functions on the compact interval  $[a, b]$ . Show that the function  $h = \max(f, g)$  is absolutely continuous and  $h' \leq \max(f', g')$  a.e.  $[m_{a,b}]$ .

↓↓↓

## 5.5. Conditional Expectation

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  be a probability space and suppose  $\xi \in L^1(P)$ . Moreover, suppose  $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra and set

$$\mu(A) = P[A], \quad A \in \mathcal{G}$$

and

$$\lambda(A) = \int_A \xi dP, \quad A \in \mathcal{G}.$$

It is trivial that  $\mathcal{Z}_\mu = \mathcal{Z}_P \cap \mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{Z}_\lambda$  and the Radon-Nikodym Theorem shows there exists a unique  $\eta \in L^1(\mu)$  such that

$$\lambda(A) = \int_A \eta d\mu \quad \text{all } A \in \mathcal{G}$$

or, what amounts to the same thing,

$$\int_A \xi dP = \int_A \eta dP \quad \text{all } A \in \mathcal{G}.$$

Note that  $\eta$  is  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{R})$ -measurable. The random variable  $\eta$  is called the conditional expectation of  $\xi$  given  $\mathcal{G}$  and it is standard to write  $\eta = E[\xi | \mathcal{G}]$ .

A sequence of  $\sigma$ -algebras  $(\mathcal{F}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is called a filtration if

$$\mathcal{F}_n \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{n+1} \subseteq \mathcal{F}.$$

If  $(\mathcal{F}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is a filtration and  $(\xi_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is a sequence of real valued random variables such that for each  $n$ ,

- (a)  $\xi_n \in L^1(P)$
- (b)  $\xi_n$  is  $(\mathcal{F}_n, \mathcal{R})$ -measurable
- (c)  $E[\xi_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n] = \xi_n$

then  $(\xi_n, \mathcal{F}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is called a martingale. There are very nice connections between martingales and the theory of differentiation (see e.g Billingsley [B] and Malliavin [M]).

↑↑↑