

Class Lectures (for Chapter 3)

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$$\ell\left(\bigcup_i A_i\right) = \sum_i \ell(A_i).$$

- For all sets $A \subseteq R$ and $x \in R$,

$$\ell(A + x) = \ell(A).$$

$$A + x = \{a + x : a \in A\}.$$

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The construction of Lebesgue measure will be quite a bit of work.

Much of the theory of Lebesgue integration deals with limiting operations.

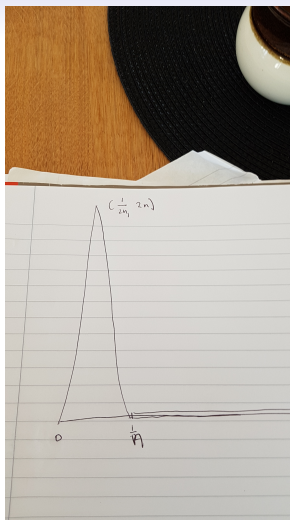
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Question: If f_n is a nonnegative continuous function on $[0, 1]$ for each n and if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = 0$$

for all $x \in [0, 1]$ (we say f_n goes to 0 pointwise in this case), does it follow that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = 0?$$



Question: When *will* we be able to conclude from the fact that f_n goes to 0 pointwise that the integrals converge to 0?

Algebras and σ -algebras

Algebras and σ -algebras

Definition

Let X be a nonempty set. An **algebra** or **field** of subsets of X is a collection $\mathcal{A}$ of subsets of X which is “closed under finite set theoretic operations”; i.e.

(1). $X \in \mathcal{A}$, $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$

(2). $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ each in $\mathcal{A}$ implies that $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \in \mathcal{A}$ ($\mathcal{A}$ is closed under **finite** unions)

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Definition

Let X be a nonempty set. A σ -**algebra** or σ -**field** of subsets of X is a collection $\mathcal{M}$ of subsets of X which is an algebra and in addition (2) above is replaced by the stronger

- (2'). $A_1, A_2, \dots$ each in $\mathcal{M}$ implies that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{M}$ ($\mathcal{M}$ is closed under *countable* unions)

Generating σ -algebras

Proposition: Given a collection $\mathcal{E}$ of subsets of X (i.e., a subset of $\mathcal{P}(X)$), there is a smallest σ -algebra containing $\mathcal{E}$, denoted by $\sigma(\mathcal{E})$, called the σ -algebra generated by $\mathcal{E}$.

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This is clearly the smallest σ -algebra containing $\mathcal{E}$ since it is, by construction, contained inside of every σ -algebra which contains $\mathcal{E}$.

QED

The Borel sets

Recall the definition of an open set in $\mathbb{R}$: O is open if for all $x \in O$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ so that $(x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \subseteq O$.

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Most sets (and very likely all sets) that you have seen are Borel sets.

Two further classes of sets

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Let X be a nonempty set.

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Definition

Let X be a nonempty set.

A nonempty collection $\mathcal{D}$ of subsets of X is called a $\mathcal{D}$ -system if

a. $X \in \mathcal{D}$

b. $E, F \in \mathcal{D}$ and $E \subseteq F$ imply $F \setminus E (= F \cap E^c) \in \mathcal{D}$

and

c. $E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq E_3, \dots$ and $E_i \in \mathcal{D}$ for all i imply $\bigcup_i E_i \in \mathcal{D}$.

Dynkin's $\pi - \lambda$ theorem

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Given a collection of $\mathcal{E}$ of subsets of X , we have previously defined $\sigma(\mathcal{E})$ as the smallest σ -algebra containing $\mathcal{E}$. We do something similar here.

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(Theorem 3.9 in JJ, Dynkin's $\pi - \lambda$ Theorem)

If $\mathcal{I}$ is a π -system, then

$$\mathcal{D}(\mathcal{I}) = \sigma(\mathcal{I}) .$$

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1. $m(\emptyset) = 0$
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Definition

A measure space $(X, \mathcal{M}, m)$ is a measurable space $(X, \mathcal{M})$ together with a measure m on it.

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Example. Let $X = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ and consider a vector $p_1, p_2, \dots$ of nonnegative numbers with $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i = 1$. Then let $\mathcal{M}$ be all subsets of X and for $S \subseteq X$, let

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We will get to more substantial examples soon, including Lebesgue measure.

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d. (Continuity from above) $m(E_1) < \infty$ and $E_1 \supseteq E_2 \supseteq E_3, \dots$ implies

$$m\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(E_n)$$

Proof of a.

Using finite additivity in the first step and $m \geq 0$ in second step gives

$$m(F) = m(E) + m(F \setminus E) \geq m(E).$$

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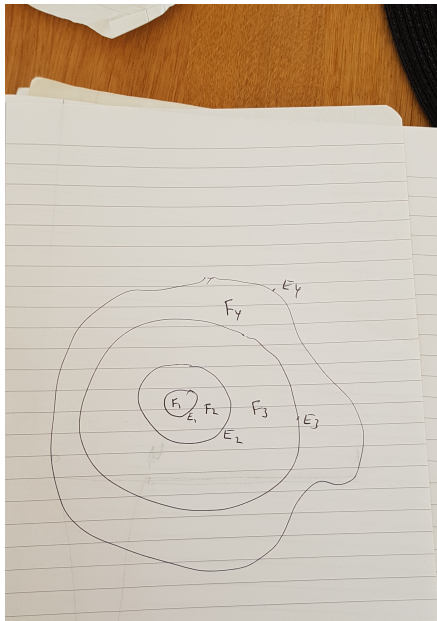
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We then have, using countable and finite additivity

$$m\left(\bigcup_i E_i\right) = m\left(\bigcup_i F_i\right) = \sum_i m(F_i) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_i^n m(F_i) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(E_n).$$

Picture for b.



Proof of c.

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We then have

$$m\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) = m\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} F_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} m(F_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} m(E_i).$$

Some properties measures may have

Definition

A measure space $(X, \mathcal{M}, m)$ is **complete** if (i) $B \in \mathcal{M}$, (ii) $m(B) = 0$ and (iii) $A \subseteq B$ imply that $A \in \mathcal{M}$ (which then of course implies that $m(A) = 0$).

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A measure space $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ is called **finite** if $\mu(X) < \infty$. (If $\mu(X) = 1$, it is called a probability space.)

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Given a measure space $(X, \mathcal{M}, m)$, a property (formally a subset of X) is said to occur **almost everywhere** abbreviated a.e. (**almost surely** abbreviated a.s. if one is doing probability theory) if the set of x 's where the property fails is contained inside of a set of measure 0.

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Definition

A measure space $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ is called σ -**finite** if there exist subsets $A_1, A_2, \dots$ so that $X = \bigcup_i A_i$ and $\mu(A_i) < \infty$ for all i .

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Definition

Assume $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ is a measure space with all single points being measurable. An **atom** is a point x with $\mu(\{x\}) > 0$. $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ is called **atomic** if $\mu(\mathcal{A}^c) = 0$ where $\mathcal{A}$ is the set of atoms. $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ is called **continuous** if there is no atom.

Existence and construction of Lebesgue measure

Theorem

There exists a translation invariant measure m on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ such that $m([a, b]) = b - a$ for all $a < b$. (m will then be Lebesgue measure restricted to $\mathcal{B}$.)

Translation invariant means $m(A + x) = m(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

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$$\mu^*\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\right) \leq \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} |I_i^j| = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |I_i^j|\right) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (\mu^*(A_j) + \epsilon/2^j) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_j) + \epsilon.$$

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Looking at the first and last term, since this inequality holds for all $\epsilon > 0$, we get

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

QED

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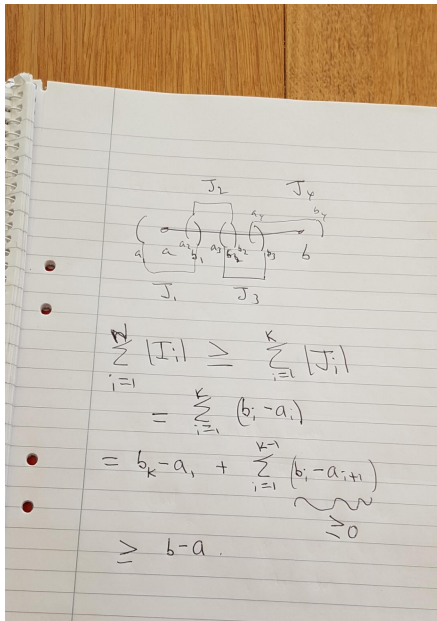
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$\geq$ Assume $[a, b] \subseteq \bigcup_i I_i$. By compactness we can find an integer N so that $[a, b] \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^N I_i$. To complete the proof we need to show that

$$b - a \leq \sum_{i=1}^N |I_i|$$

which is very *believable* to say the least. See the picture for the proof.

STEP 3 Picture



STEP 4: Caratheodory's Theorem

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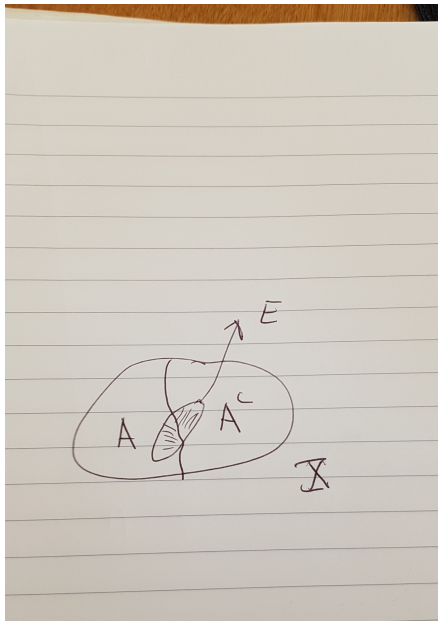
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STEP 4: Picture



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Since $\mathcal{M}$ is a σ -algebra and $\mathcal{B}$ is the smallest σ -algebra containing the sets $(-\infty, a)$ and (b, ∞) , it is enough to show that $(-\infty, a) \in \mathcal{M}$.

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Since the LHS is $\geq$ the RHS for all coverings of E by open intervals, we can take the infimum of the LHS over all such coverings and obtain (1).

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Finally, it is clear from the definition of the outer measure that $\mu^*(A + x) = \mu^*(A)$ for all sets A and $x \in R$. Hence $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{B}}$ (as well as $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{M}}$) is translation invariant.

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The proof will be broken into a number of steps.

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and that this is a disjoint union, we have, using subadditivity,

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Using measurability of A applied to $E \cap B$ for the sum of the first two terms and applied to $E \cap B^c$ for the sum of the second two terms, this equals

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$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(E \cap (A \cup B)) + \mu^*(E \cap (A \cup B)^c) \leq \\ \mu^*(E \cap (A \cap B)) + \mu^*(E \cap (A^c \cap B)) + \mu^*(E \cap (A \cap B^c)) + \mu^*(E \cap (A^c \cap B^c)). \end{aligned}$$

Using measurability of A applied to $E \cap B$ for the sum of the first two terms and applied to $E \cap B^c$ for the sum of the second two terms, this equals

$$\mu^*(E \cap B) + \mu^*(E \cap B^c) = \mu^*(E)$$

where the last equality follows from the measurability of B . Hence

$A \cup B \in \mathcal{M}$.

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Now use induction. (Note that only one of the two sets was required to be measurable for this.)

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$$\mu^*(E \cap B_n) = \mu^*(E \cap B_n \cap A_n) + \mu^*(E \cap B_n \cap A_n^c) = \mu^*(E \cap A_n) + \mu^*(E \cap B_{n-1}).$$

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This argument can be repeated inductively to obtain

$$\mu^*(E \cap B_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^*(E \cap A_i). \quad (2)$$

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Now, using measurability of B_n together with (2), we have that for any n

$$\mu^*(E) = \mu^*(E \cap B_n) + \mu^*(E \cap B_n^c) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^*(E \cap A_i) + \mu^*(E \cap B_n^c) \geq$$

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In particular, taking $E = B$, we obtain

$$\mu^*(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_i)$$

as desired.

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Hence if we have $B \in \mathcal{M}$, $\mu^*(B) = 0$ and $A \subseteq B$, it follows that $\mu^*(A) = 0$ and hence from the above $A \in \mathcal{M}$, as desired.

Two further classes of sets: REFRESHER

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Definition

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c. $E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq E_3, \dots$ and $E_i \in \mathcal{D}$ for all i imply $\bigcup_i E_i \in \mathcal{D}$.

Dynkins $\pi - \lambda$ theorem: REFRESHER

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Theorem

(Theorem 3.9 in JJ, Dynkin's $\pi - \lambda$ Theorem)

If $\mathcal{I}$ is a π -system, then

$$\mathcal{D}(\mathcal{I}) = \sigma(\mathcal{I}) .$$

Uniqueness of Lebesgue measure on the Borel sets

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Applying this to $X = [0, 1]$ and $\mathcal{I}$ being the set of open intervals implies that there is only one measure on $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}_{[0,1]})$ which agrees with “length” on intervals.

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Assume μ_1 and μ_2 are two such measures and let

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$$\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{I}) \subseteq D$$

and hence $\mu_1 = \mu_2$.

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$$\mu_1(B \setminus A) = \mu_1(B) - \mu_1(A) = \mu_2(B) - \mu_2(A) = \mu_2(B \setminus A)$$

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a, b, and c imply that $\mathcal{D}$ is a $\mathcal{D}$ -system.

QED

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Assume μ is such a measure. Define an equivalence relation $\sim$ on $[0, 1]$ by

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Subproof: If some element u belonged to both $A + q_1$ and $A + q_2$, we would have $u = a_1 + q_1 = a_2 + q_2$ with $a_1, a_2 \in A$. Then $a_1 - a_2 (= q_2 - q_1) \in Q$ which implies $a_1 \sim a_2$ and hence $a_1 = a_2$. This then gives $q_1 = q_2$ also.

Nonmeasurable sets

Step 2. $\mu(A) = 0$.

Subproof.

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Each of the sets on the left hand side has measure $\mu(A)$ and hence if $\mu(A) > 0$, then the LHS would have infinite measure, contradicting the RHS has measure 2. Hence $\mu(A) = 0$.

QED

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Theorem

(Theorem 1.14 in F) If μ_0 is a premeasure on $(X, \mathcal{A})$, then there exists a measure μ on $(X, \sigma(\mathcal{A}))$ with $\mu(A) = \mu_0(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$. If μ_0 is σ -finite on X , then μ is unique. (Uniqueness can fail in the non- σ -finite case.)

Distribution functions on $[0, 1]$

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Proposition: Let μ be a finite Borel measure on $[0, 1]$ and define $F : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, \mu([0, 1])]$ by

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$$\lim_{s \downarrow t} F(s) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(t + \frac{1}{n}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu([0, t + \frac{1}{n}]) = \mu([0, t]) = F(t).$$

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Concerning left continuity, F jumps at the atoms of μ :

$$F(t) - \lim_{s \uparrow t} F(s) = \mu([0, t]) - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu([0, t - \frac{1}{n}]) = \mu([0, t]) - \mu([0, t)) = \mu(\{t\}).$$

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Proposition: Let F be a nonnegative weakly increasing and right continuous function on $[0, 1]$ mapping into $[0, \infty)$. Then there exists a finite Borel measure μ on $[0, 1]$ satisfying

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QED Note that Lebesgue measure corresponds to $F(x) = x$.

The Cantor Ternary function or the Devil's staircase

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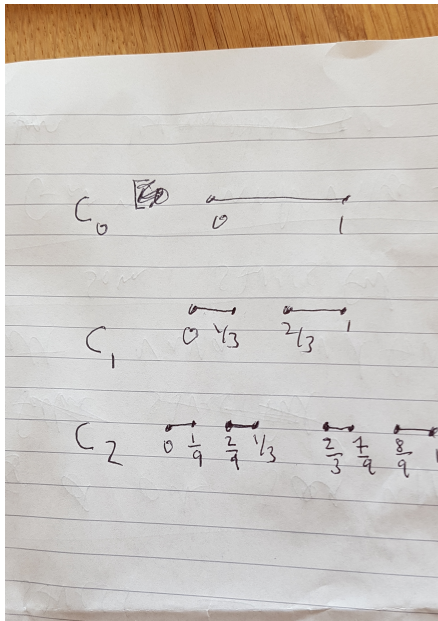
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Definition

The Cantor set, C , is defined to be $\bigcap_n C_n$.

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The important feature of this measure is that it will have no atoms and it will give all of its weight to C , a set of Lebesgue measure 0. Such measures are called **continuous singular**.

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Since this holds for each n and the RHS is the tail of a convergent series, we have that $m(\limsup E_i) = 0$.

QED