

Motivation:a) Idea of the Riemann integral:Approximate f by "stair fcts"

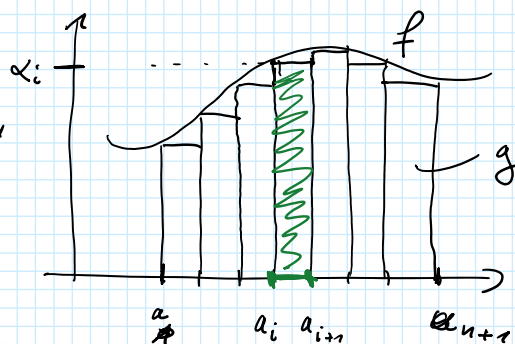
$$g(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \chi_{[a_i, a_{i+1})}(x)$$

where for $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ the characteristic function of A is

$$\chi_A(x) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin A \end{cases}$$

The integral of a stair fct. is

$$\int g(x) dx := \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i (a_{i+1} - a_i)$$

Principle:

Decompose the domain into intervals (rectangles, cubes, ...)

b) Idea of the Lebesgue integral:

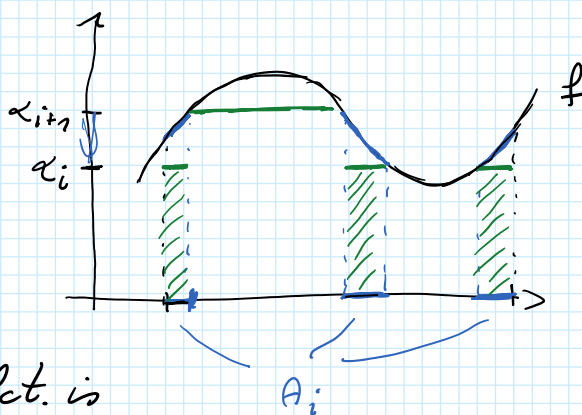
Decompose the range of the fct. into intervals

 $[\alpha_i, \alpha_{i+1})$ and approximate by "simple fcts."

$$g(x) := \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \chi_{A_i}(x)$$

$$\text{e.g. } A_i = f^{-1}([\alpha_i, \alpha_{i+1}))$$

(not intervals in general)



The integral of a simple fct. is

$$\int g(x) dx := \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \lambda(A_i)$$

where $\lambda(A_i)$ is the "length" of A_i (area, volume, measure)

Example: $f(x) = \chi_{\mathbb{Q} \cap [0,1]}(x)$ is not Riemann integrable, but it is Lebesgue integrable:

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1 \cdot \underbrace{\lambda(\mathbb{Q} \cap [0,1])}_{=0} + 0 \cdot \underbrace{\lambda([0,1] \setminus \mathbb{Q})}_{=1} = 0$$

\Rightarrow Two advantages of Lebesgue int.:

(1) There are more integrable fcts. \Rightarrow
Space of Lebesgue integrable fcts are complete.

(2) The Lebesgue integral can be defined on all spaces where one can define a measure λ .

(not only on \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{R}^n).

Basic notions of measure theory:

Def.: A family $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ of subsets of a set X

is a σ -algebra, iff

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$ countable

(ii) $A \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{A}$

(iii) $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{A}$

The elements of \mathcal{A} are called the \mathcal{A} -measurable sets.

Prop.: Let \mathcal{A} be a σ -algebra on X . Then

(a) $X \in \mathcal{A}$ ($\emptyset \in \mathcal{A} \stackrel{(ii)}{\Rightarrow} X = \emptyset^c \in \mathcal{A}$)

$$(a) X \in \mathcal{A} \quad (\emptyset \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow X = \emptyset^c \in \mathcal{A})$$

$$(b) A_n \in \mathcal{A} \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{A}$$

$$(c) A, B \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}, A \cap B \in \mathcal{A}, \text{ and } A \setminus B \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Ex. 1: Prove this \forall

Sol. 1: (b) $A_n \in \mathcal{A} \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \stackrel{(ii)}{\Rightarrow} A_n^c \in \mathcal{A} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\stackrel{(iii)}{\Rightarrow} \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n^c \in \mathcal{A}$$

$$\stackrel{(ii)}{\Rightarrow} \bigcap A_n = \left(\bigcup A_n^c \right)^c \in \mathcal{A}$$

(c) Let $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$ and put $A_1 = A, A_2 = B, A_n = \emptyset \forall n \geq 3$

$$\Rightarrow A \cup B = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \stackrel{(iii)}{\in} \mathcal{A}$$

$$A_n = X \text{ for } A \cap B \in \mathcal{A}$$

$$A \setminus B = A \cap B^c \in \mathcal{A} \quad \square$$

Examples: • $\mathcal{P}(X)$ and $\{\emptyset, X\}$ are σ -alg. on X .

• If $\mathcal{A}_j, j \in I$, are σ -alg. on X , so is $\bigcap_{j \in I} \mathcal{A}_j$ \parallel

Def.: Let $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$. Then the σ -alg. generated by \mathcal{F} is

$$\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{F}} := \bigcap_{\substack{\mathcal{B} \text{ is } \sigma\text{-alg.} \\ \mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{B}}} \mathcal{B}$$

Any $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ that generates \mathcal{A} is called a generating system for \mathcal{A} .

Def.: Let (X, \mathcal{F}) be a topological space. Then

Def.: Let (X, \mathcal{F}) be a topological space. Then $\mathcal{A}_X := \mathcal{B}$ is called the Borel- σ -algebra on X .

Def.: Let $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B}(X)$ be a σ -alg.

A map $\mu: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ is called a measure, iff

(i) $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$

(ii) For pairwise disjoint sets $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n) \quad (\sigma\text{-additivity})$$

If $\mu(X) < \infty$, then μ is called a finite measure.

If $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ with $\mu(A_n) < \infty \forall n$, then μ is called σ -finite.

The pair (X, \mathcal{A}) is called a measurable space,

the triple (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) is called a measure space.

Example: Let X be a set and $x_0 \in X$. Then

$$\nu: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow [0, \infty], A \mapsto \nu(A) := \begin{cases} |A| & \text{if } A \text{ is finite} \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

„counting measure“

and

$$\delta_{x_0}: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow [0, \infty], A \mapsto \delta_{x_0}(A) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_0 \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

„Dirac measure at x_0 “

are measures.

Prop.: Let μ be a measure on (X, \mathcal{A}) and $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$.

1.

Krop.: Let μ be a measure on (X, \mathcal{A}) and $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$.

Then

$$\mu(A \cup B) + \mu(A \cap B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$$

and if $A \subset B$

$$\mu(B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B \setminus A)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$$

monotonicity

For $A_j \in \mathcal{A}$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$,

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

(sub-additivity)

and if $A_j \subset A_{j+1} \forall j$, then

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

Def.: Let (X, \mathcal{A}) and (Y, \mathcal{C}) be measure spaces.

A map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is called \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{C} -measurable,

iff

$$C \in \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow f^{-1}(C) \in \mathcal{A}.$$

If μ is a measure on (X, \mathcal{A}) then the measure

$$f_* \mu: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, \infty], C \mapsto f_* \mu(C) := \mu(f^{-1}(C))$$

is called its push-forward under f .

Remark: Terminology from probability theory

A measure space (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) with $\mu(X) = 1$ is

called a probability space. Then the elements $A \in \mathcal{A}$

are called events and $\mu(A)$ the probability of the

carried on probability space. Then the elements $\omega \in \Omega$ are called events and $\mu(A)$ the probability of the event. Measurable fcts $f: X \rightarrow Y$, (Y, \mathcal{C}) a measurable space, are called random variables and the probability measure $f^* \mu$ is called the distribution of f .

Example: Throwing a dice once

$$X_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, \quad \mu(X) = 1$$

$$\mu(\{1\}) = \frac{1}{6} = \mu(\{2\}) = \mu(\{3\}) \dots = \mu(\{6\})$$

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{P}(X) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\}, \dots, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 6\}, \dots \}$$

$$|\mathcal{P}(X)| = 2^6 \quad \text{event that the outcome is odd}$$

$$\mu(\{1, 3, 5\}) = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

throwing a dice twice: $X_2 = X_1 \times X_1$, $\mu_2(\{(a, b)\}) := \mu_1(\{a\}) \cdot \mu_2(\{b\})$

$$f: X_2 \rightarrow Y, (a, b) \mapsto a + b \in \{2, \dots, 12\} =: Y \quad = \frac{1}{36}$$

$$f^* \mu_2(\{3\}) := \mu_2(f^{-1}(\{3\})) = \mu_2(\{(1, 2), (2, 1)\}) = \frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{18}$$

Thm.: There is a unique measure λ on $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B})$ that is translation invariant (i.e. $\lambda(A+x) = \lambda(A)$ $\forall A \in \mathcal{B} \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$) and normalised to $\lambda([0,1]^n) = 1$. It is called the Lebesgue-Borel measure and its completion is called the Lebesgue measure.

Exercise 2: Show that $\lambda(\mathbb{Q}) = 0$.

Sol. 2: We show that for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ $\lambda(\{x\}) = 0$.

Then $\lambda(\mathbb{Q}) = 0$ follows, since $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{q_n\}$.

By transl. invariance $\lambda(\{x\}) = \lambda(\{y\}) \forall x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$

Let $\lambda(\{x\}) = \varepsilon \geq 0$. $\{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} = N = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{\frac{1}{n}\}$

$$\lambda(N) \stackrel{(iii)}{=} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda(\{\frac{1}{n}\}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon \stackrel{\text{monot.}}{\leq} \lambda([0,1]) = 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon = 0. \quad \mathbb{C} \cong \mathbb{R}^2$$

Note that no translation invariant ^{and normalised} measure exists on $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ ∇

Basic notions of integration theory

Def.: A fct. $g: X \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}} := \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\} \cup \{\infty\}$ is called simple, if $g(X) = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ is finite, i.e.

$$g(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \chi_{A_j}(x) \quad \text{with } A_j \cap A_i = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j.$$

$$\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$$

Def.: Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space and $g: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ a simple and measurable, then

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

For a measurable fct. $f: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$

$$\int_X f \, d\mu = \sup_{\substack{g: X \rightarrow [0, \infty] \text{ simple, measurable} \\ g \leq f}} \int_X g \, d\mu \quad \text{and } g \leq f$$

Prop.: Let $f, g: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be measurable and $\alpha \geq 0$.

Then

(also hold for integrable fcts.)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad \int \alpha f \, d\mu &= \alpha \int f \, d\mu \\ \text{(ii)} \quad \int (f+g) \, d\mu &= \int f \, d\mu + \int g \, d\mu \end{aligned} \right\} \int \text{ is linear}$$

$$\text{(iii)} \quad f \leq g \Rightarrow \int f \, d\mu \leq \int g \, d\mu \quad (\text{monotone})$$

Thm.: (monotone convergence)

Let $f_n: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ measurable and $f_n \leq f_{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $f := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n$ (pointwise), then

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

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu = \int f d\mu$$

Corollary: Fatou's lemma

Let $f_n: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be measurable. Then

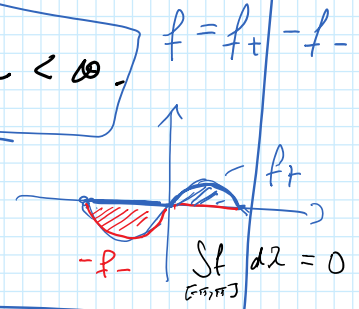
$$\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu$$

Def.: A measurable fct. $f: X \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is integrable,

iff for $f_+ := \max(f, 0)$ and $f_- := \max(-f, 0)$

it holds that $\int f_+ d\mu < \infty$ and $\int f_- d\mu < \infty$.

Then $\int f d\mu := \int f_+ d\mu - \int f_- d\mu$.



Def.: We say that a property of a point $x \in X$

holds almost surely or almost everywhere w.r.t.

a measure μ on X , if it holds for $x \in A \subset X$ and

$$\mu(X \setminus A) = 0,$$

i.e. if it fails to hold a null set only.

Examples: • A real number is almost surely irrational w.r.t. Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} .

• Let $f: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be measurable. Then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \chi_{\mathbb{Q}}(x) dx = 0$$

$$\int_X f d\mu = 0 \iff f = 0 \text{ almost everywhere.}$$

\Rightarrow changing an integrable fct. f on a null set does not change $\int f d\mu$. \Rightarrow for integrable fcts. we do not include $\pm\infty$ in the range anymore.

Thm.: • Every Riemann integrable fct. $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is also Lebesgue integrable and the integrals coincide.

• A fct. $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is integrable, iff $|f|$ is integrable and

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

• Analogously for $f: X \rightarrow W$ (W -finite dim.)

• For $f: X \rightarrow W$, W a Banach space, the generalisation is called the Bochner integral.

Def.: Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space and $1 \leq p < \infty$.

Then $\mathcal{L}^p(X, \mu) := \{ f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ is measurable and } |f|^p \text{ integrable} \}$

and for $f \in \mathcal{L}^p(X, \mu)$

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{L}^p} := \left(\int |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} < \infty.$$

Moreover, $L^p(X, \mu) := \mathcal{L}^p(X, \mu) / \sim$ w.r.t. the equivalence relation

$$f \sim g \iff f = g \text{ almost everywhere.}$$

equivalence relation

$$f \sim g \Leftrightarrow f = g \text{ almost everywhere.}$$

Thm.: Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space and $1 \leq p \leq \infty$. Then $(L^p(X, \mu), \|\cdot\|_{L^p})$ is a Banach space.

Thm.: (dominated convergence)

Let $f_n: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be ^(p-integrable) measurable, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume that $f(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$ exists for almost all $x \in X$.

If for some $g \in L^p(X, \mu)$, $1 \leq p < \infty$ it holds

that $|f_n| \leq |g|$ almost everywhere and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

then $f_n, f \in L^p(X, \mu)$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n - f\|_{L^p} = 0$$

$$\boxed{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n d\mu \stackrel{p=1}{=} \int_X f d\mu}$$

i.e. $f_n \rightarrow f$ in $L^p(X, \mu)$.

Definition: Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space.

For measurable $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ we define

$$|f|: X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$$

$$\|f\|_{L^\infty} := \inf \{ 0 \leq \lambda \leq \infty \mid \mu(|f|^{-1}((\lambda, \infty])) = 0 \}$$

$$=: \text{ess sup } |f|.$$

$$\text{eg. } \|x_\Omega\|_{L^\infty} = 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}^\infty(X) := \{ f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ measurable and } \|f\|_{L^\infty} < \infty \}$$

$$\text{and } L^\infty(X) = \mathcal{L}^\infty(X) \setminus \{ \}$$

and $L^\infty(X) = \mathcal{L}^\infty(X)/\sim$.

Examples: (a) If $\mu(X) < \infty$ and $f \in L^\infty(X)$, then

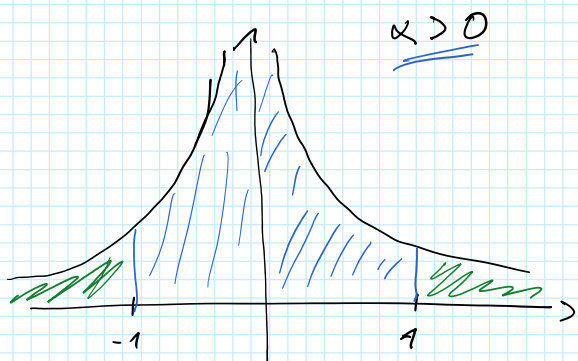
$$\int_X |f| d\mu \leq \int_X \|f\|_{L^\infty} d\mu = \|f\|_{L^\infty} \cdot \mu(X)$$

In part. $L^\infty(X) \subset L^1(X)$ in this case

Actually, $L^p(X) \subset L^q(X)$ if $p > q$ and $\mu(X) < \infty$.

(b) $X = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mu = \lambda^n$, then $\mu(X) = \infty$ and (a) does not apply. But for $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\lambda(A) < \infty$, then (a) does apply: $L^p(A, \lambda) \subset L^q(A, \lambda)$ if $p > q$.

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x \mapsto f(x) = \frac{1}{\|x\|^\alpha}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$



(i) $A = B_1(0) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then for $\alpha > 0$ $f \notin L^\infty(A, \lambda)$

$$\int_{B_1(0)} |f|^p d\lambda = \int_{B_1(0)} \frac{1}{\|x\|^{\alpha \cdot p}} d\lambda = C_n \int_0^1 \frac{1}{r^{\alpha \cdot p}} r^{n-1} dr$$

$$= C_n \int_0^1 \frac{1}{r^{\alpha \cdot p + 1 - n}} dr$$

$$= \begin{cases} < \infty & \text{if } \alpha_{p+1-n} < 1 \\ & \alpha < \frac{n}{p} \\ = \infty & \text{if } \alpha \geq \frac{n}{p} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow L^p(B_1(0)) \not\subseteq L^q(B_1(0))$$

if $p > q$

(ii) $(A) = \mathbb{R}^n \setminus B_1(0)$. Then

$$\int_A |f|^p d\mu = c_n \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{r^{\alpha p + 1 - n}} d\mu_r$$

$$= \begin{cases} < \infty & \alpha > \frac{n}{p} \\ = 0 & \alpha \geq \frac{n}{p} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow L^p(\mathbb{R}^n) \not\subseteq L^q(\mathbb{R}^n) \text{ if } p > q$$

$$L^q(\mathbb{R}^n) \not\subseteq L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

for $p \neq q$

$$c) f_n: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto \chi_{[n, n+1]}(x)$$

$$\text{Then } f_n \in L^p \quad \forall p \quad (\|f_n\|_p = 1)$$

$$\text{and } f_n \xrightarrow{p.w.} f = 0 \in L^p \quad \forall p$$

$$\text{but } \|f_n - f\|_{L^p} = \|f_n\|_{L^p} = 1 \quad \forall n$$

$$\neq 0$$

"no dominating fct. g exists" $g = \chi_{[0, \infty)}$

Then: Hölder inequality

Let $f, g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be measurable and

$$1 \leq p, q \leq \infty \text{ such that } \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

where $\frac{1}{\infty} := 0$. Then

$$\|fg\|_{L^1} \leq \|f\|_{L^p} \cdot \|g\|_{L^q}$$

(conjugate exponents
 $p = q = 2$
 $p = \infty, q = 1$)

For $p = q = 2$ this is the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

on the Hilbert space L^2

$$f, g \in L^2 \Rightarrow \overline{f}g \in L^1$$

$$\left| \int \overline{f}g \, d\mu \right| \leq \int |\overline{f}g| \, d\mu \stackrel{\text{Hölder}}{\leq} \|f\|_{L^2} \cdot \|g\|_{L^2}$$

!!

$$\left| \langle f, g \rangle_{L^2} \right| \leq \|f\|_{L^2} \cdot \|g\|_{L^2}$$

Then: Minkowski inequality (Δ -ineq. for p -norms)

Then: Minkowski inequality (Δ -ineq. for p -norms)

Let $f, g: X \rightarrow [0, a]$ be measurable and $1 \leq p \leq \infty$.

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