

REAL ANALYSIS EXAMS

A.A 2011–12

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ANALISI REALE PER MATEMATICA–PRECOMPITINO 21 NOVEMBRE 2011

EXERCISE 1. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) For $f \in L^+(X)$ define the integral of f , and making use of this definition prove that $\int_X f = 0$ only if $\mu(\{f \neq 0\}) = 0$.
- (ii) Prove that if $f, g \in L^1_\mu(X, \mathbb{R})$ then $f = g$ a.e. if and only if $\int_E f = \int_E g$ for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$ (hint: consider $E = \{f < g\} \dots$).
- (iii) Prove that if $f, g \in L^1_\mu(X, \mathbb{C})$ then $f = g$ a.e. if and only if $\int_E f = \int_E g$ for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$.
- (iv) Define Dynkin classes and state Dynkin's theorem.
- (v) Let $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ be closed under intersection, assume that $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}) = \mathcal{M}$, and that X is covered by a countable subset of \mathcal{E} . Assume that $f, g \in L^1(\mu)$ are such that $\int_E f = \int_E g$ for every $E \in \mathcal{E}$. Prove that $f = g$ a.e.

Solution. (i) Definition: $\int_X f = \sup\{\int_X \varphi : 0 \leq \varphi \leq f, \varphi \text{ simple}\}$. If $\int_X f = 0$ then $\int_X \varphi = 0$ for every positive simple φ under f ; in particular, if $E(n) = \{f > 1/n\}$ then $(1/n)\chi_{E(n)}$ is a simple function under f , so that $\int_X (1/n)\chi_{E(n)} = 0$, that is $(1/n)\mu(E(n)) = 0$, which implies $\mu(E(n)) = 0$; since

$$\{f \neq 0\} = \{f > 0\} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E(n), \quad \text{we have } \mu(\{f > 0\}) = 0.$$

(ii) From $\int_E f = \int_E g$ we get $\int_E (g - f) = 0$; but we have $g(x) - f(x) > 0$ for every $x \in E$, so that $\int_E (g - f) = 0$ implies $\mu(E) = 0$. In the same way, if $F = \{f > g\}$ we get $\mu(F) = 0$, so that $f = g$ a.e. in X .

(iii) $\int_E f = \int_E g$ is equivalent to $\int_E \operatorname{Re} f = \int_E \operatorname{Re} g$ and $\int_E \operatorname{Im} f = \int_E \operatorname{Im} g$. By (ii) this happens for every measurable E iff $\operatorname{Re} f = \operatorname{Re} g$ and $\operatorname{Im} f = \operatorname{Im} g$ a.e., that is $f = g$ a.e.

(iv) See Lecture Notes, 3.4.1

(v) The proof mimics the proof of LN, 3.4.3. Given a set $E \in \mathcal{E}$ consider the set $\mathcal{E}_E = \{F \cap E : F \in \mathcal{E}\} = \{G \subseteq E : G \in \mathcal{E}\}$, and the set $\mathcal{C}_E = \{A \in \mathcal{M} : A \subseteq E, \int_A f = \int_A g\}$. This set is a Dynkin class of parts of E , as is easy to check: closure under countable disjoint union is countable additivity of the integral: if $f \in L^1(\mu)$ and $(A(n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a countable disjoint sequence of elements of \mathcal{M} , then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f \chi_{A(n)}$ is a normally convergent series in $L^1(\mu)$, so $\int_{\bigcup_n A(n)} f \chi_{A(n)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_X f \chi_{A(n)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_{A(n)} f$; same for g . And since $\int_{E \setminus A} f = \int_E f - \int_A f$ for every measurable subset A of E , and the same for g , we also have closure under complementation. Since this set \mathcal{C}_E contains \mathcal{E}_E , it contains the Dynkin class generated by it, and since \mathcal{E}_E is closed under intersection, by Dynkin's theorem \mathcal{C}_E contains the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{E}_E , which is $\mathcal{M}_E = \{A \in \mathcal{M} : A \subseteq E\}$. Now X can be written as a countable union of members of \mathcal{E} , say $X = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} E_k$; by the usual technique ($F_k = E_k \setminus \left(\bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} E_j\right)$) we can write X as a countable disjoint union of members F_k of $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E})$ with $F_k \subseteq E_k$; given $A \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E})$ we have $A = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} A \cap F_k$, a countable disjoint union, and $\int_{A \cap F_k} f = \int_{A \cap F_k} g$ for every k , since $A \cap F_k \in \mathcal{M}_{E_k}$. \square

REMARK. Of course, considering $h = f - g$, (i),(ii),(iii),(iv), (v) may be stated as $\int_E h = 0$ for every $E \in \dots$ implies $h = 0$ a.e.. The statement:

• If $f, g \in L^+(X)$ are such that $\int_E f = \int_E g$ for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$, then $f = g$ a.e.

is FALSE unless some additional hypothesis is made on μ : take an uncountable set X with the σ -algebra of countable or co-countable subsets, and the measure μ that is ∞ for co-countable, and 0 for countable sets: the constants 1 and 2 have integral 0 on countable and ∞ on co-countable sets, but are never equal. We can prove (but the proof is much more complicated than (ii) above, owing to possibly infinite integrals):

• If μ is semifinite, and $f, g \in L^+(X)$ are such that $\int_E f = \int_E g$ for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$, then $f = g$ a.e.

Proof. Let $A = \{f < g\}$; it is enough to prove that $\mu(A) = 0$ (an analogous proof will work for $B = \{g < f\}$). Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $E(n) = \{g \leq n\} \cap A$. Then $\mu(E(n)) = 0$; in fact, if not, by semifiniteness we get $E \subseteq E(n)$ with $0 < \mu(E) < \infty$. Then $\int_E f = \int_E g \leq \int_E n = n\mu(E) < \infty$; it follows that $\int_E (g - f) = 0$, but $g(x) - f(x) > 0$ for every $x \in E$, impossible if $\mu(E) > 0$. Then $\mu(E(n)) = 0$ for every n , so that $\mu(\{g < \infty\} \cap A) = 0$ (since $\{g < \infty\} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{g \leq n\}$). If $\mu(\{g = \infty\} \cap A) > 0$ we still get a contradiction: notice that since $f(x) < \infty$ for every $x \in A$ we still have $\{g = \infty\} \cap A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{g = \infty\} \cap A \cap \{f \leq n\}$; unless these sets have all measure zero we can get $E \subseteq \{g = \infty\} \cap A \cap \{f \leq n\}$ with $0 < \mu(E) < \infty$; then $\int_E f \leq n\mu(E) < \infty$, but $\int_E g = \infty$. Then $\mu(A) = \mu(A \cap \{g < \infty\}) + \mu(A \cap \{g = \infty\}) = 0$. \square

EXERCISE 2. (i) Let U be an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n . Prove that U is a countable union of compact intervals (or even compact cubes).

(ii) Prove that if X is an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n then the σ -algebra of Borel subsets of X is generated by the compact intervals contained in X .

From now on U and V are open subintervals of \mathbb{R} and $\phi : U \rightarrow V$ is a C^1 diffeomorphism (a C^1 bijective map with C^1 inverse).

(iii) We define on the σ -algebra \mathcal{B} of Borel subsets of U the set functions:

$$\mu(E) = \lambda(\phi(E)); \quad \nu(E) = \int_E |\phi'(x)| d\lambda(x),$$

where of course $\lambda = \lambda_1$ is the one dimensional Lebesgue measure. Prove that μ and ν are measures, and that $\mu = \nu$ on \mathcal{B} .

(iv) The measure μ can be considered as an image measure, in which way? Using this fact prove that, for every $f \in L^1_\lambda(V, \mathbb{K})$ we have the *change of variable formula*:

$$\int_V f(y) dy = \int_U f(\phi(x)) |\phi'(x)| dx.$$

Solution. (i) Consider the set of all closed cubes $Q(c, r] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - c\|_\infty \leq r\}$ with centers $c \in \mathbb{Q}^n$ and half-sides $r \in \mathbb{Q}^>$ which are contained in U : this is a countable set of compact cubes, whose union is U . In fact, given $a \in U$, pick $c \in \mathbb{Q}^n$ such that $\|a - c\|_\infty < d = \text{dist}(a, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus U)/3$, where $\text{dist}(a, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus U) = \inf\{\|a - y\|_\infty : y \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus U\}$. Picking a rational number r such that $d < r < 2d$ we get $a \in Q(c, r] \subseteq U$.

(ii) The compact intervals are Borel sets, so they generate a σ -algebra contained in the Borel sets of X . But as shown in (i), every open set is a countable union of compact intervals, so the generators of the Borel σ -algebra are all contained in the σ -algebra generated by compact intervals, and so these σ -algebras coincide.

(iii) Answering now to part of (iii) we can observe that $\mu = \lambda\phi^{-1\leftarrow}$ is the image measure of the Lebesgue measure on V , by means of the map $\phi^{-1} : V \rightarrow U$ (see LN, 3.3.7.2). Anyway the direct verification that μ is a measure (thanks to the fact that ϕ is a homeomorphism) is trivial. We know that ν is a measure (the one with density $|\phi'|$ with respect to Lebesgue measure), owing to countable additivity of integrals of positive functions (LN, 3.3.5.2). Remember now that a diffeomorphism between intervals of \mathbb{R} has necessarily a derivative always strictly positive or strictly negative: it cannot vanish, and intervals are connected. If $[a, b]$ is a compact subinterval of U we have $\phi([a, b]) = [\phi(a), \phi(b)]$ if ϕ is increasing ($\phi'(x) > 0$), and $\phi([a, b]) = [\phi(b), \phi(a)]$ if ϕ is decreasing ($\phi'(x) < 0$). And we have

$$\int_{[a, b]} |\phi'(x)| dx = \pm \int_a^b \phi'(x) dx = \pm(\phi(b) - \phi(a)),$$

where $+$ holds if ϕ is increasing, $-$ in the other case. Then μ and ν coincide and are finite on compact intervals, a class of sets closed under finite intersection which generates the σ -algebra \mathcal{B} , with U also a countable union of compact intervals; so the measures coincide on \mathcal{B} (we are using the uniqueness result in LN, 3.4.3).

(iv) We have seen that $\mu = \lambda\phi^{-1\leftarrow}$; then for $g \in L^+(\lambda\phi^{-1\leftarrow})$ we have

$$\int_U g(x) d\lambda\phi^{-1\leftarrow}(x) = \int_V g \circ \phi^{-1}(y) d\lambda(y);$$

on the other hand, since $d\lambda\phi^{-1\leftarrow} = |\phi'| d\lambda$ we have also (see LN, 3.3.5.2):

$$\int_U g(x) d\lambda\phi^{-1\leftarrow}(x) = \int_U g(x) |\phi'(x)| d\lambda(x),$$

so that, equating the right-hand sides of the two preceding equations:

$$\int_V g \circ \phi^{-1}(y) d\lambda(y) = \int_U g(x) |\phi'(x)| d\lambda(x),$$

for every $g \in L^+(U)$; and setting $f(y) = g \circ \phi^{-1}(y)$ we get $g(x) = f \circ \phi(x)$, and we conclude. \square

EXERCISE 3. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) State the dominated convergence theorem.
- (ii) Prove that if $f, g \in L^+$, then $(g - f)^+ \leq g$.
- (iii) Let f_n in $L^+(X)$ converge a.e. to $f \in L^+(X)$, and assume that all integrals are finite and $\int_X f_n \rightarrow \int_X f < \infty$. Prove that then f_n converges to f in $L^1(\mu)$, i.e. $\|f - f_n\|_1 \rightarrow 0$ (by (ii) we have $(f - f_n)^+ \leq \dots$, then apply (i) ...).
- (iv) We now assume that f_n in $L^+(X)$ converge a.e. to $f \in L^+(X)$, that $f_n \leq f$ for every n , and that all integrals are finite. Is it true that f_n converges to f in $L^1(\mu)$?

Solution. (i) See the Lecture Notes, 3.3.2. (ii) If $(g - f)^+(x) = 0$ the assertion is trivial, since $g(x) \geq 0$ for every $x \in X$. If $(g - f)^+(x) > 0$, then $(g - f)^+(x) = g(x) - f(x) > 0$; and since $f(x) \geq 0$ by the hypothesis $f \in L^+(X)$, we conclude that $(g - f)^+(x) = g(x) - f(x) \leq g(x)$.

(iii) If all integrals are finite then all functions are in $L^1(\mu)$, being all positive. Then $(f - f_n)^+ \leq f$ is a sequence which converges to 0 a.e and is dominated by $f \in L^1(\mu)$. By dominated convergence we have $\lim_n \int_X (f - f_n)^+ = 0$. But then, since $(f - f_n)^- = (f - f_n)^+ - (f - f_n)$ we get

$$\lim_n \int_X (f - f_n)^- = \lim_n \left(\int_X (f - f_n)^+ - \int_X (f - f_n) \right) = \lim_n \int_X (f - f_n)^+ - \int_X f + \lim_n \int_X f_n = 0;$$

hence also

$$\lim_n \int_X |f - f_n| = \lim_n \left(\int_X (f - f_n)^+ + \int_X (f - f_n)^- \right) = 0.$$

(iv) Since all integrals, including that of f , are finite, we have that $f \in L^1(\mu)$; since $0 \leq f_n \leq f$, dominated convergence is applicable (one-sided limits, 3.3.17.6), hence we have convergence in $L^1(\mu)$.

REMARK. Of course (iii) can also be obtained from the generalized dominated convergence theorem; in fact, the proof suggested here follows essentially the same route as the proof of that result (LN, 3.3.17.7). \square

ANALISI REALE PER MATEMATICA– PRIMO COMPITINO, 26 NOVEMBRE 2011

EXERCISE 4. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) State Fatou’s lemma.
- (ii) Using Fatou’s lemma prove the monotone convergence theorem for functions in $L^+(X)$.
- (iii) Let $g : [0, \infty[\rightarrow [0, \infty[$ be continuous. Given $a > 0$ let

$$M_a = \{f \in L^1(\mu) : \|g(|f|)\|_1 \leq a\}.$$

Prove that M_a is closed in $L^1(\mu)$ (if $f_n \in M_a$ converges to f in $L^1(\mu)$, then some subsequence converges to f also ...).

Solution. (i) LN, 3.3.6.

(ii) If $f_n \in L^+(X)$ and $f_n \uparrow f$, Fatou’s lemma says that $\int_X f \leq \liminf_n \int_X f_n$. But the sequence f_n is increasing, hence also the sequence $\int_X f_n$ is increasing, so that $\lim_n \int_X f_n = \sup_n \int_X f_n$ exists. Then the preceding assertion implies $\int_X f \leq \lim_n \int_X f_n$; and since $\int_X f_n \leq \int_X f$ for every n , we have also $\lim_n \int_X f_n \leq \int_X f$, and hence equality, $\lim_n \int_X f_n = \int_X f$.

(iii) If $f_n \in M_a$ converges to f in $L^1(\mu)$, then some subsequence converges to f also a.e.; let’s assume that the entire sequence converges a.e. to f . Then $|f_n|$ converges a.e. to $|f|$, and by continuity of g on $[0, \infty[$ we have that $g(|f_n(x)|)$ converges to $g(|f(x)|)$ if $|f_n(x)|$ converges to $|f(x)|$. Then Fatou’s lemma says that

$$\int_X g \circ |f| \leq \liminf_n \int_X g \circ |f_n| \leq a,$$

so that $f \in M_a$, and M_a is closed in $L^1(\mu)$.

REMARK. (ii) Many have proved monotone convergence by applying Fatou's lemma to the sequence $f - f_n$ to get the inequality $\limsup_n \int_X f_n \leq \int_X f$; this not only makes the proof uselessly longer, it is strictly speaking an incomplete proof, because it excludes the case $\int_X f_n = \infty$. □

EXERCISE 5. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) Prove that if $f \in L^1(\mu)$ then for every $\alpha > 0$ we have $\|f\|_1 \geq \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f|$, and prove that $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| = 0$ (i.e. prove that for every sequence $\alpha_n \rightarrow \infty$ we have $\lim_n \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha_n\}} |f| = 0$).
- (ii) If $f \in L^\infty(\mu)$, given $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $\delta > 0$ such that $\mu(E) \leq \delta$ implies $|\int_E f| \leq \varepsilon$ (trivial, 1 point). Prove that the same is true if $f \in L^1(\mu)$: given $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\alpha > 0$ write

$$\left| \int_E f \right| \leq \int_E |f| = \int_{E \cap \{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| + \int_{E \cap \{|f| < \alpha\}} |f|,$$

and estimate separately the two terms.

- (iii) State and prove Čebičeff's inequality: $\mu(\{|f| \geq \alpha\}) \leq \dots$, and use it to prove that if f_n is a sequence in $L^1(\mu)$ converging to f in $L^1(\mu)$ then, for every $\alpha > 0$:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(\{|f - f_n| \geq \alpha\}) = 0.$$

Solution. (i) Clearly $|f| \geq |f| \chi_\alpha$, if χ_α is the characteristic function of the set $\{|f| \geq \alpha\}$. Then

$$\int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| = \int_X |f| \chi_\alpha = \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| \leq \int_X |f| = \|f\|_1.$$

If $\alpha(n)$ tends to ∞ , then $|f| \chi_{\alpha(n)} \rightarrow 0$ everywhere, and $|f| \chi_{\alpha(n)} \leq |f|$ for every n , so that dominated convergence implies $\lim_n \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha(n)\}} |f| = 0$.

(ii) Clearly we have

$$\left| \int_E f \right| \leq \int_E |f| \leq \int_E \|f\|_\infty = \|f\|_\infty \mu(E) \quad \text{for every } E \in \mathcal{M} \text{ of finite measure,}$$

so that given ε we simply take $\delta = \varepsilon / \|f\|_\infty$. Following the hint, we write

$$\left| \int_E f \right| \leq \int_{E \cap \{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| + \int_{E \cap \{|f| < \alpha\}} |f|;$$

given $\varepsilon > 0$ we first pick $\alpha > 0$ so that $\int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| \leq \varepsilon/2$. Then we have also

$$\int_{E \cap \{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| \leq \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| \leq \varepsilon/2 \quad \text{for every } E \in \mathcal{M}.$$

Keeping now α fixed we have, if $\mu(E) \leq \delta$

$$\int_{E \cap \{|f| < \alpha\}} |f| \leq \alpha \mu(E \cap \{|f| < \alpha\}) \leq \alpha \mu(E) \leq \alpha \delta,$$

so that we need only to pick $\delta = \varepsilon / (2\alpha)$ to conclude.

(iii) The inequality is $\mu(\{|f| \geq \alpha\}) \leq (1/\alpha) \|f\|_1$, and the proof is immediate, the first part already done in (i):

$$\|f\|_1 = \int_X |f| \geq \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f| \geq \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} \alpha = \alpha \mu(\{|f| \geq \alpha\}).$$

Then we have

$$\mu(\{|f - f_n| \geq \alpha\}) \leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \|f - f_n\|_1 \rightarrow 0 \text{ for } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

REMARK. (i) Many wanted to use monotone convergence, or the fact that $E \mapsto \int_E |f|$ is a measure; this is possible if $\alpha_n \uparrow \infty$. Now this can be assumed without loss of generality. In fact we have:

. Let $\varphi : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function, and assume that $c \in \tilde{\mathbb{R}}$ is an accumulation point for $D \cap]-\infty, c[$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \varphi(x)$ exists and is ℓ if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi(x_n) = \ell$ for every increasing sequence $x_n \in D$ with $x_n \uparrow c$.

In fact we know that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \varphi(x)$ exists and is ℓ if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi(x_n) = \ell$ for every sequence $x_n \in D$ with $x_n \rightarrow c$; now every real valued sequence has a monotone subsequence, and if $x_n < c$ and $x_n \rightarrow c$ this subsequence must be increasing, since it has c as limit.

This fact, applied to $\varphi(\alpha) = \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha\}} |f|$ shows that we can assume $\alpha_n \uparrow \infty$. But a proof ought to be given.

It is however impossible to prove (i) using Čebičeff's inequality, or vague arguments such as

$$\lim_n \int_{\{|f| \geq \alpha_n\}} |f| = \int_{\{|f| = \infty\}} |f|$$

stated without proof. In this respect also notice that, by definition, functions in $L^1(\mu)$ are finite valued, so that $\{|f| = \infty\}$ is empty for $f \in L^1(\mu)$, and not only of measure zero: this is a minor point, but is worth noticing.

□

EXERCISE 6. Let $F, G : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be increasing and right continuous; recall that we have the formula of integration by parts, if $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a < b$ then

$$(*) \quad \int_{]a,b]} F(x^-) dG(x) + \int_{]a,b]} G(x) dF(x) = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a).$$

In the sequel we assume also $F(-\infty) = G(-\infty) = 0$.

(i) Prove that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x) = F(\infty)G(\infty)$$

(infinite values are possible),

(a): directly using Tonelli's theorem

(b): using formula (*) and passing to the limit with $a \downarrow \dots$ and $b \uparrow \dots$

(ii) Prove that if F and G do not have a common point of discontinuity then we may replace $F(x^-)$ with $F(x)$ in the preceding formula.

(iii) Assuming F bounded and continuous prove that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x) dF(x) = \frac{1}{2} (F(\infty))^2.$$

Now we take $F(x) = \chi_{[0,\infty[}$ the Heaviside step, and

$$G(x) = \begin{cases} e^x & x < 0 \\ 3 - e^{-x} & x \geq 0 \end{cases},$$

(iv) Plot the graph of G and compute

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x); \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x) dG(x).$$

(v) Compute $(dG - dF)(]a, b])$ for every $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a < b$. Prove that there is a function $\rho \in L^1_{\lambda^+}(\mathbb{R})$ such that $(dG - dF)(E) = \int_E \rho d\lambda$ for every Borel $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, and find it.

Solution. (i) (a) We compute $dF \otimes dG(T)$, where $T = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \leq y\}$. Since all measures are σ -finite, and T is a Borel subset of \mathbb{R}^2 , hence measurable, Tonelli's theorem is applicable and gives $(T_x = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : (x, y) \in T\} =]-\infty, x])$

$$dF \otimes dG(T) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{T_x} dG \right) dF(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{]-\infty, x]} dG \right) dF(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x);$$

reversing the order of integration ($T^y = [x, +\infty[$):

$$dF \otimes dG(T) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{T^y} dF \right) dG(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (F(\infty) - F(x^-)) dG(x),$$

so that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (F(\infty) - F(x^-)) dG(x).$$

Caution: we cannot say that $\int_{\mathbb{R}} (F(\infty) - F(x^-)) dG(x) = F(\infty)G(\infty) - \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x)$ because of possible infinities. Adding to both sides $\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x)$, which certainly exists since $x \mapsto F(x^-)$ is positive measurable, we get that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} (F(\infty) - F(x^-)) dG(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(\infty) dG(x) = F(\infty)G(\infty).$$

(b) Let $a_n \downarrow -\infty$ and $b_n \uparrow \infty$. Then $f_n(x) = F(x^-) \chi_{]a_n, b_n]}$ and $g_n = G(x) \chi_{]a_n, b_n]}$ are increasing sequences of positive functions such that $f_n(x) \uparrow F(x^-)$ and $g_n(x) \uparrow G(x)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then monotone convergence implies that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n dG + \int_{\mathbb{R}} g_n dF \uparrow \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x),$$

and since

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n dG + \int_{\mathbb{R}} g_n dF = \int_{]a_n, b_n]} F(x^-) dG(x) + \int_{]a_n, b_n]} G(x) dF(x) = F(b_n)G(b_n) \uparrow F(\infty)G(\infty)$$

we conclude.

(ii) Clear: discontinuities of F are a countable set of dG measure 0, so that $F(x)$ and $F(x^-)$ are dG -almost equal.

(iii) Is a trivial application of the second formula, given continuity of F .

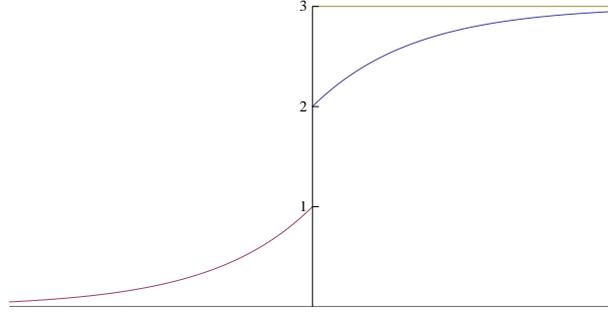


FIGURE 1. Plot of G

(iv) Notice that $x \mapsto F(x^-) = \chi_{]0, \infty[}$. Then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x) = \int_{]0, \infty[} dG(x) = dG(]0, \infty[) = G(\infty) - G(0) = 3 - 2 = 1.$$

And

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x) dG(x) = \int_{]0, \infty[} dG = G(\infty) - G(0^-) = 3 - 1 = 2.$$

(v) We have

$$(dG - dF)(]a, b]) = dG(]a, b]) - dF(]a, b]) = G(b) - G(a) - (F(b) - F(a)) = (G - F)(b) - (G - F)(a)$$

for every pair $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a < b$. Observe that $H = G - F$ is still an increasing function: we have

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} e^x & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 2 - e^{-x} & \text{for } x \geq 0 \end{cases};$$

then $dG - dF = dH$ is the Radon–Stieltjes measure associated to H . And we have

$$(dG - dF)(]a, b]) = H(b) - H(a) = \begin{cases} e^{-a} - e^{-b} & \text{for } 0 \leq a < b \\ 2 - e^{-b} - e^{-a} & \text{for } a < 0 < b \\ e^b - e^a & \text{for } 0 < b \leq 0 \end{cases}.$$

It is clear that H is a C^1 function: it is continuous, and its derivative is e^x for $x < 0$, while $H'(x) = e^{-x}$ for $x > 0$, so that $H'(0) = 1$ also exists; we have that $H'(x) = e^{-|x|}$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, so the density function is $\rho(x) = e^{-|x|}$.

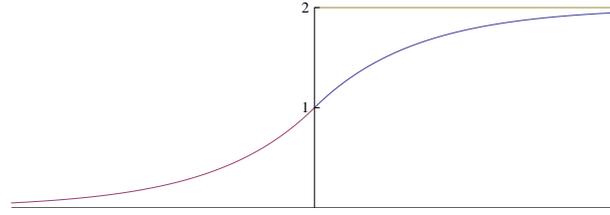


FIGURE 2. Plot of $H = G - F$, a function of class C^1 .

REMARK. (i), part (a): A more elegant solution has been found by a student: write the first term of the formula to be proved as $\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(y^-) dG(y)$; then, since $F(y^-) = dF(\cdot - \infty, y] = \int_{]-\infty, y[} dF(x)$ we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} F(y^-) dG(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{]-\infty, y[} dF(x) \right) dG(y) = \int_S dF \otimes dG(x, y) \quad \text{where } S = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x < y\}.$$

For the second term we get

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{]-\infty, x] dG(y) \right) dF(x) = \int_T dF \otimes dG(x, y) \quad \text{where } T = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y \leq x\},$$

so that, observing that $\mathbb{R}^2 = S \cup T$, disjoint union of the two half-planes S, T

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x^-) dG(x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x) &= \int_S dF \otimes dG(x, y) + \int_T dF \otimes dG(x, y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} dF \otimes dG(x, y) = \\ &= (F(\infty) - F(-\infty))(G(\infty) - G(-\infty)) = F(\infty)G(\infty). \end{aligned}$$

□

1. ANALISI REALE PER MATEMATICA-SECONDO PRECOMPITINO 18 GENNAIO 2012

- EXERCISE 7. (i) Define a signed measure $\nu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{R}}$. If $\nu(A)$ is not finite, and $B \supseteq A$, is $\nu(B)$ also not finite? and if $B \subseteq A$ is $\nu(B)$ also not finite? or what else can be said ?(of course $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$)
 (ii) Prove that a signed measure can assume only one of the values $\pm\infty$.
 (iii) Prove that if $A_0 \subseteq A_1 \subseteq \dots$ is an increasing sequence in \mathcal{M} , and $A = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n) = \nu(A).$$

Is there an analogous proposition for decreasing sequences? if so, state and prove it.

- (iv) Assume that $\nu(X) \in \mathbb{R}$. Is it true that $\nu(\mathcal{M})$ has a maximum? and a minimum?

Solution. (i) Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space. A signed measure is a function $\nu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [-\infty, \infty]$ such that $\nu(\emptyset) = 0$, and which is countably additive, that is, for every disjoint sequence $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of \mathcal{M} we have

$$\nu \left(\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \nu(A_n).$$

If $B \supseteq A$ we have $\nu(B) = \nu(A) + \nu(B \setminus A)$; if $\nu(A) = \pm\infty$, any meaningful addition $\nu(A) + c$, with $c \in \tilde{\mathbb{R}}$ has $\nu(A)$ as the resulting sum, so $\nu(B) = \nu(A)$. Similarly, if $B \subseteq A$ we have $\nu(A) = \nu(B) + \nu(A \setminus B)$; $\nu(B)$ may be finite, but then we have $\nu(A \setminus B) = \nu(A) = \pm\infty$.

- (ii) Since $X \supseteq A$ and $X \in \mathcal{M}$, as seen above we have $\nu(X) = \nu(A)$ when $\nu(A) = \pm\infty$.

(iii) We can write $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (A_n - A_{n-1})$, disjoint union, so that by countable additivity we get, setting $A_{-1} = \emptyset$:

$$\nu(A) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \nu(A_n \setminus A_{n-1}) := \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^m \nu(A_n \setminus A_{n-1}) =$$

(by finite additivity, since $\bigcup_{n=0}^m (A_n \setminus A_{n-1}) = A_m$)

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_m).$$

The statement for decreasing sequences requires the additional hypothesis that $\nu(A_m)$ be finite for some m (hence, by (i), also for all $n > m$):

. Let $A_0 \supseteq A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq \dots$ be a decreasing sequence in \mathcal{M} , with intersection A . If for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ the measure $\nu(A_m)$ is finite, we have $\nu(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n)$.

Proof. It is not restrictive to assume $\nu(A_0)$ finite, re-indexing if necessary. Then, by (i), every A_n and A have finite ν -measure; the sequence $A_0 \setminus A_n$ is increasing and has $B = A_0 \setminus A$ as its union, so that, by the result on increasing sequences we get $\nu(A_0 \setminus A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_0 \setminus A_n)$. Since every set involved has finite ν -measure we get $\nu(A_0 \setminus A) = \nu(A_0) - \nu(A)$ and $\nu(A_0 \setminus A_n) = \nu(A_0) - \nu(A_n)$; then we have:

$$\nu(A_0) - \nu(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\nu(A_0) - \nu(A_n)) = \nu(A_0) - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n) \implies \nu(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n).$$

□

(iv) If $\nu(X)$ is finite, by (i) every $A \in \mathcal{M}$ has finite ν -measure. If we consider a Hahn decomposition for ν , let's say $X = P \cup Q$, with P positive and Q negative, $\nu(P)$ and $\nu(Q)$ are both finite and they are respectively $\max \nu(\mathcal{M})$ and $\min \nu(\mathcal{M})$: $\nu(A) = \nu(A \cap P) + \nu(A \cap Q) \leq \nu(A \cap P) \leq \nu(P)$ (because $\nu(A \cap Q) \leq 0$ and $\nu(P \setminus A) \geq 0$); and also $\nu(A) = \nu(A \cap P) + \nu(A \cap Q) \geq \nu(A \cap Q) \geq \nu(Q)$ (because $\nu(A \cap P) \geq 0$, and $\nu(Q \setminus A) \leq 0$).

□

EXERCISE 8. (12) Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) [1] Assume that $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is measurable and such that $\|g\|_q < \infty$ for some $q > 0$. Then $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|g\|_p = \dots$ (no proof required, simply state the result).
(ii) [7] Let $f \in L^+(X)$ be such that $\int_X f^n$ is finite for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ large, and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f^n = a \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Prove that then $f \in L^\infty(\mu)$, find the possible values of $\|f\|_\infty$, and prove that $f^n(x)$ converges a.e. in X to a function g to be described. Is this convergence also in $L^1(\mu)$?

- (iii) [1] In \mathbb{R} with Lebesgue measure give an example of an f for which the preceding limit is a given $a > 0$.
(iv) [3] In (ii) we remove the assumption that $f \geq 0$, we assume f real-valued but of arbitrary sign, leaving the other hypotheses intact. What can you say about f and the sequence f^n ?

Solution. (i) $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|g\|_p = \|g\|_\infty$.

(ii) If $c_n = \|f\|_n$, we gave that $c_n < \infty$ for large n , so that $c_n \rightarrow \|f\|_\infty$. But by hypothesis c_n^n has a finite limit $a \in \mathbb{R}$. This implies that either $\|f\|_\infty = 0$ or $\|f\|_\infty = 1$. In fact, if $\|f\|_\infty > 1$, and $1 < \alpha < \|f\|_\infty$, then $\alpha < c_n$ for n large, and then $\alpha^n < c_n^n$ for n large, implying that $c_n^n \rightarrow \infty$, against the hypothesis. Then $\|f\|_\infty \leq 1$. Then we have $0 \leq f(x) \leq 1$ for a.e. $x \in X$, implying that for a.e. $x \in X$ we have either $f^n(x) \rightarrow 0$ (if $f(x) < 1$) or $f^n(x) = f(x) = 1$ for all n . In other words

$$f^n(x) \text{ converges pointwise a.e. in } X \text{ to } \chi_C, \text{ where } C = \{f = 1\}.$$

Moreover the sequence is decreasing, $f^0 \geq f^1 \geq f^2 \geq f^3 \geq \dots$; if $m \in \mathbb{N}$ is such that $f^m \in L^1(\mu)$ then dominated convergence (or decreasing monotone convergence) says that f^n converges to its pointwise limit χ_C also in $L^1(\mu)$. In particular we have

$$a = \lim_n \int_X f^n = \int_X \chi_C = \mu(C) = \mu(f^{\leftarrow}\{1\});$$

Notice that if $\|f\|_\infty < 1$ then $\mu(C) = 0$ and hence $a = 0$.

(iii) Simply take for f the characteristic function of any set of measure a , e.g. $\chi_{[0,a]}$. The sequence f^n is constantly f , then also $\int_X f^n = a$ is constant.

(iv) We have that $f^{2n} = (f^2)^n$ verifies the hypotheses of (i), then $\|f^2\|_\infty \leq 1$, hence also $\|f\|_\infty \leq 1$, and f^{2n} converges decreasing and in $L^1(\mu)$ to the characteristic function of $\{f^2 = 1\} = \{f = 1\} \cup \{f = -1\}$. If this set has measure 0 then $\|f\|_\infty < 1$, and the entire sequence f^n converges to 0, pointwise and in $L^1(\mu)$. Otherwise this set has a positive measure $a = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f^{2k}$. We claim that the limit $\lim_n \int_X f^n$ exists and is a iff $\mu(\{f = -1\}) = 0$. In fact, if $f = f^+ - f^-$ we have, for $k \geq 1$:

$$f^{2k} = (f^+)^{2k} + (f^-)^{2k}; \quad f^{2k-1} = (f^+)^{2k-1} - (f^-)^{2k-1};$$

now the sequences $(f^+)^n$ and $(f^-)^n$ are exactly in the situation of f in the hypotheses in (i): that is, they are in $L^1(\mu)$ for n large enough and converge decreasing to $\chi_{\{f=1\}}$ and $\chi_{\{f=-1\}}$ respectively; then

$$\lim_k \int_X f^{2k-1} = \lim_k \left(\int_X (f^+)^{2k-1} - \int_X (f^-)^{2k-1} \right) = \lim_k \int_X (f^+)^{2k-1} - \lim_k \int_X (f^-)^{2k-1} = \mu(\{f = 1\}) - \mu(\{f = -1\});$$

and analogously

$$\lim_k \int_X f^{2k} = \lim_k \int_X (f^+)^{2k} + \lim_k \int_X (f^-)^{2k} = \mu(\{f = 1\}) + \mu(\{f = -1\}),$$

and the two limits coincide if and only if $\mu(\{f = -1\}) = 0$.

Summing up: the limit $\lim_n \int_X f^n$ exists finite for f real measurable of arbitrary sign if and only if $|f(x)| \leq 1$ for a.e $x \in X$, $f^n \in L^1(\mu)$ for n large, and moreover $\mu(\{f = -1\}) = 0$; the limit a is $\mu(\{f = 1\})$, the limit function is a.e. $\chi_{\{f=1\}}$, and convergence to this function is also in $L^1(\mu)$. \square

EXERCISE 9. Let $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as follows:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} -e^x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ \sqrt{1-x^2} & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 - e^{-x} & \text{if } 1 \leq x \end{cases}$$

- (i) Find $T(x) = VF(]-\infty, x])$ and plot it.
- (ii) Plot $T^\pm(x) = (T(x) \pm F(x))/2$.
- (iii) Find a Hahn decomposition for the measure $\mu = dF$.
- (iv) Find the absolutely continuous and the singular parts of $\mu = dF$.
- (iv) Let $G(x) = x$ be the identity of \mathbb{R} . For every integer $k > 0$ compute the integral

$$\int_{]-k, k]} G(x) dF(x),$$

both directly and with the partial integration formula:

$$\int_{]a, b]} G(x^-) dF(x) = G(b)F(b) - G(a)F(a) - \int_{]a, b]} F(x) dG(x).$$

- (v) Find

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x).$$

Solution. We plot also a graph of F :

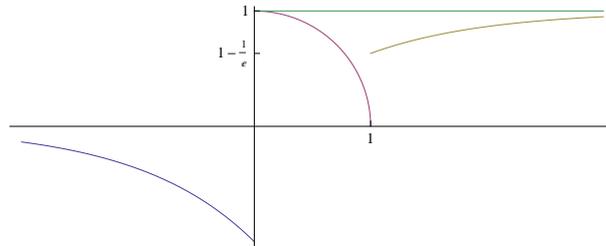


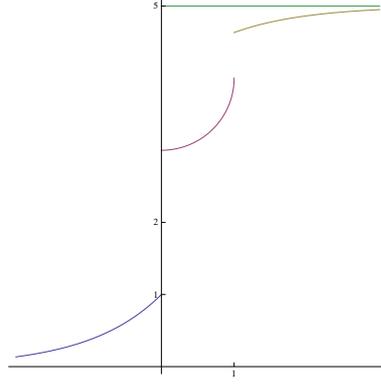
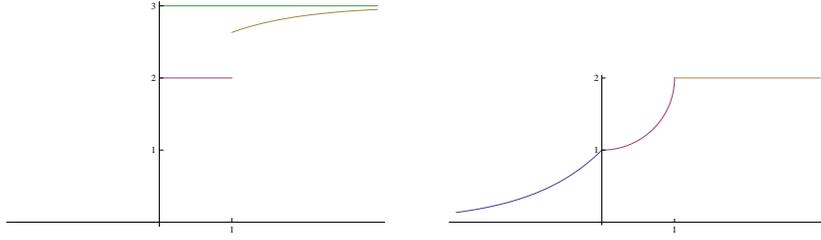
FIGURE 3. Graph of F .

(i) Since F is decreasing in $]-\infty, 0[$ we have $T(x) = e^x$ in this interval. The jump of F at 0 is 2, so $T(0) = T(0^-) + 2 = 3$. Again F is decreasing in $[0, 1[$ so that $VF([0, x] = F(0) - F(x) = 1 - \sqrt{1-x^2}$ in this interval, hence $T(x) = T(0) + 1 - \sqrt{1-x^2} = 4 - \sqrt{1-x^2}$ for $x \in [0, 1[$. Next we get $T(1) = T(1^-) + 1 - 1/e = 5 - 1/e$ (the jump at 1 is $1 - 1/e$). Finally $VF([1, x]) = 1 - e^{-x} - (1 - 1/e) = 1/e - e^{-x}$, so that $T(x) = 5 - e^{-x}$ for $x \geq 1$.

(ii) We get

$$T^+(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 2 & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1; \\ 3 - e^{-x} & \text{if } 1 \leq x \end{cases}; \quad T^-(x) = \begin{cases} e^x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 2 - \sqrt{1-x^2} & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1. \\ 2 & \text{if } 1 \leq x \end{cases}$$

(iii) A positive set for μ is $P = \{0\} \cup \{1\} \cup]0, \infty[$, its complement is a negative set.

FIGURE 4. Graph of T .FIGURE 5. From left to right: graphs of T^+ , T^- .

(iv) The absolutely continuous part is of course $F'(x) dx$, where F' is the derivative of F , which clearly exists in $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ and is

$$F'(x) = \begin{cases} -e^x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ -x/\sqrt{1-x^2} & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1. \\ e^{-x} & \text{if } 1 \leq x \end{cases}$$

The singular part is $2\delta_0 + (1 - 1/e)\delta_1$.

(v) We have directly, using the Radon–Nikodym decomposition

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{]-k, k]} G(x) dF(x) &= \int_{-k}^k G(x) F'(x) dx + \int_{]-k, k]} G(x) d(2\delta_0 + (1 - 1/e)\delta_1) = \\ &= \int_{-k}^0 x(-e^x) dx + \int_0^1 x \frac{-x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx + \int_1^k x e^{-x} dx + 1 - e^{-1} = \end{aligned}$$

(in the first integral we put $t = -x$, in the last $t = x$)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^k t e^{-t} dt + \int_0^1 \frac{1-x^2-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx + \int_1^k t e^{-t} dt + 1 - 1/e = \\ &= 1 - 1/e + \int_0^1 t e^{-t} dt + 2 \int_1^k t e^{-t} dt + \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx - \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \end{aligned}$$

(una primitiva di $t e^{-t}$ è $-(1+t)e^{-t}$)

$$\begin{aligned} &= 1 - 1/e + [-(1+t)e^{-t}]_0^1 + 2[-(1+t)e^{-t}]_1^k + \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\pi}{2} = \\ &= 1 - e^{-1} - 2(1+k)e^{-k} + 2e^{-1} + 1 + \frac{\pi}{4} = 2 + \frac{1}{e} - 2(1+k)e^{-k} - \frac{\pi}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

With the partial integration formula we get, calling for simplicity $I(k)$ the required integral

$$I(k) = k F(k) - (-k) F(-k) - \int_{-k}^k F(x) dx = k(1 - e^{-k} - e^{-k}) -$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & - \int_{-k}^0 (-e^x) dx - \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx - \int_1^k (1 - e^{-x}) dx = \\
 & k(1 - 2e^{-k}) + [e^x]_{-k}^0 - \frac{\pi}{4} - [x + e^{-x}]_1^k = k(1 - 2e^{-k}) + 1 - e^{-k} - \frac{\pi}{4} - k - e^{-k} + 1 + \frac{1}{e} = \\
 & 2 + \frac{1}{e} - 2(1+k)e^{-k} - \frac{\pi}{4}.
 \end{aligned}$$

(vi) We have that $G_k = G \chi_{]-k,k]}$ converges to G on \mathbb{R} . And $G \in L^1(\mu)$, because $x e^{-|x|} \in L^1(m)$ (more on this below). Then by dominated convergence we can we just take the limit:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_{]-k,k]} G(x) dF(x) = 2 + \frac{1}{e} - \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

The function G is a continuous function, hence Borel measurable and bounded on compact subsets of \mathbb{R} ; the measure μ is finite on compacta, hence for every compact subset K of \mathbb{R} we have that $G \in L^1_\mu(K)$. We need to prove that $G \in L^1_\mu(\mathbb{R} \setminus [-a, a])$, where $a > 0$, say $a = 2$. On the open set $]-\infty, -a[\cup]a, \infty[$ the measure $|\mu| = dT$ is absolutely continuous, with $d|\mu|(x) = e^{-|x|} dx$, as is easy to see. Then $G \in L^1(|\mu|)$ if and only if $|x| e^{-|x|} \in L^1_m(]-\infty, -a[\cup]a, \infty[)$, where m is Lebesgue measure. And this is immediate. \square

ANALISI REALE PER MATEMATICA- SECONDO COMPITINO-28 GENNAIO 2012

EXERCISE 10. Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space, and let $\nu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{R}}$ be a signed measure; as usual ν^\pm and $|\nu|$ are the positive/negative parts and the total variation of ν .

- (i) Define the notion of positive/negative set for ν , and prove that positive sets form a σ -ideal of \mathcal{M} (closed under countable union and formation of subsets).
- (ii) Assume that $A \in \mathcal{M}$ contains no negative subset of strictly negative measure. Is it true that then A is a positive subset?
- (iii) For $A \in \mathcal{M}$ we have $\nu(A) \in \mathbb{R} \iff |\nu|(A) < \infty$. True or false? Is the fact that X is covered by a sequence of sets in \mathcal{M} of finite ν -measure equivalent to σ -finiteness of $|\nu|$?
- (iv) Assume that $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{R}}$ is another signed measure. Define mutual singularity of μ and ν . Is it equivalent to mutual singularity of $|\mu|$ and $|\nu|$?
- (v) Let $\lambda : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{R}}$ be a third signed measure; assume that $\lambda \ll |\mu|$ and $\lambda \ll |\nu|$, and that $\mu \perp \nu$. Is it true that $\lambda = 0$?

Solution. (i) $A \in \mathcal{M}$ is said to be positive/negative for ν if for every $B \in \mathcal{M}$ contained in A we have $\nu(B) \geq 0/\nu(B) \leq 0$. Given this definition, trivially the set \mathcal{P} of positive sets is closed under the formation of measurable subsets. And if $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of positive sets, making the union A of these sets a disjoint union of sets $(B_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ with the usual trick, $B_n = A_n \setminus \bigcup_{k=0}^{n-1} A_k$, each B_n is positive, being a subset of the positive set A_n , and if $B \subseteq A$ then $B = \bigcup_{n=0}^\infty (B \cap B_n)$, a disjoint union, so that

$$\nu(B) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \nu(B \cap B_n) \geq 0 \quad \text{because } \nu(B \cap B_n) \geq 0 \text{ for every } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

(ii) Let $P \cup Q$ be a Hahn decomposition for ν ; consider $A \cap Q$; then we have $\nu(A \cap Q) (= -\nu^-(A \cap Q)) = 0$, since otherwise $A \cap Q$ would be a negative set of strictly negative measure contained in A . Then $A = (A \cap P) \cup (A \cap Q)$, the union of the positive set $A \cap P$ and the null set $A \cap Q$, is a positive set.

REMARK. We have proved a lemma, preparatory to the Hahn decomposition theorem, which says that if $-\infty \notin \nu(\mathcal{M})$ then a set which does not contain positive sets of strictly positive measure is a negative set. One can apply this result in the opposite direction, but we need to know that $-\infty$ is not a value assumed by ν . It is simpler to apply the Hahn decomposition: strictly speaking there is a circularity of arguments in the case $-\infty \notin \nu(\mathcal{M})$, which needs however not concern us.

(iii) We know that if $\nu(A) \in \mathbb{R}$ then every measurable subset of A has finite measure, in particular $\nu(A \cap P)$ and $\nu(A \cap Q)$ are finite, so that $\nu^\pm(A)$ are both finite, hence $|\nu|(A) = \nu^+(A) + \nu^-(A) < \infty$; since $|\nu(A)| \leq |\nu|(A)$ the converse is trivial. This of course immediately implies that the answer to the second question is yes.

(iv) We say that μ and ν are mutually singular if there is a partition $X = M \cup N$, $M, N \in \mathcal{M}$, with N null for μ and M null for ν . Since a set null for a signed measure is clearly null also for its total variation as we show immediately after, the two conditions are clearly equivalent.

If M is null for ν then it is also null for $|\nu|$; in fact (always assuming that $P \cup Q$ is a Hahn decomposition for ν) we have $\nu^+(M) = \nu(M \cap P) = 0$ and $-\nu^-(M) = -\nu(M \cap Q) = 0$, so that $\nu^\pm(M) = 0$, hence also $|\nu|(M) = 0$.

(v) Clearly true: $|\mu|(N) = 0$ implies that N is null for λ , and $|\nu|(M) = 0$ implies that M is null for λ . Then $X = M \cup N$ is null for λ . \square

EXERCISE 11. Let $f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ be Borel measurable functions, with $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $g \in L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ (we consider Lebesgue measure on all spaces \mathbb{R}^n).

(i) Prove that the formula

$$(*) \quad f * g(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x-y) g(y) dy$$

defines a function $f * g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$, and prove that $\|f * g\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_1 \|g\|_\infty$. Prove also that

$$f * g(x) = g * f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(t) g(x-t) dt.$$

(ii) Assume that $g \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n) \cap L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and that also all derivatives $\partial_k g$ belong to $L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$, for $k = 1, \dots, n$. Prove that then $f * g \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and that $\partial_k(f * g) = f * (\partial_k g)$.

We now assume $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $g \in L^q(\mathbb{R}^n)$, with $p, q > 1$ conjugate exponents, i.e. $1/p + 1/q = 1$.

(iii) Prove that formula $(*)$ defines a function $f * g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, and prove that $\|f * g\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$. (use Hölder's inequality ...).

Finally assume that $f, g \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

(iv) Prove that the formula $(*)$ now defines a.e. on \mathbb{R}^n a function $f * g$ that is Borel measurable, belongs to $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$, and $\|f * g\|_1 \leq \|f\|_1 \|g\|_1$ (consider $F : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ given by $F(x, y) = f(x-y) g(y)$ and apply Fubini–Tonelli's theorem ...).

Solution. (i) Trivially we have

$$|f * g(x)| = \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x-y) g(y) dy \right| \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y) g(y)| dy \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y)| \|g\|_\infty dy;$$

Now the change of variables $t = x - y$ says that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y)| dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(t)| dt = \|f\|_1$$

(remember that we are in \mathbb{R}^n , so the coordinate change is $t_k = x_k - y_k \iff y_k = x_k - t_k$ $1 \leq k \leq n$, an affine self diffeomorphism of \mathbb{R}^n , with jacobian matrix -1_n , opposite of the identity matrix, hence determinant $(-1)^n$, with absolute value 1). Then

$$|f * g(x)| \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y)| \|g\|_\infty dy = \|f\|_1 \|g\|_\infty \implies \|f * g\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_1 \|g\|_\infty.$$

The change of variables $t = x - y$ above considered says also that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x-y) g(y) dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(t) g(x-t) dt.$$

(ii) We use the second expression for $f * g$:

$$f * g(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(y) g(x-y) dy;$$

we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} (f(y) g(x-y)) = f(y) \partial_k g(x-y);$$

moreover $|f(y) \partial_k g(x-y)| \leq \|\partial_k g\|_\infty |f(y)|$; since $y \mapsto \|\partial_k g\|_\infty |f(y)|$ is in $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ the theorem of differentiation under the integral sign applies to say that

$$\partial_k(f * g) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(y) \partial_k g(x-y) dy = (f * (\partial_k g))(x);$$

and the theorem on continuity of parameter depending integrals says that these derivatives are continuous.

(iii) We have. for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$|f * g(x)| = \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x-y) g(y) dy \right| \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y) g(y)| dy \leq$$

$$\leq \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y)|^p dy \right)^{1/p} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |g(y)|^q dy \right)^{1/q} = \|f\|_p \|g\|_q,$$

(the usual change of variables $t = x - y$ says that $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y)|^p dy = \|f\|_p^p$) which immediately implies the thesis.

(iv) Let us prove that F belongs to $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n)$. Clearly F is Borel measurable, since so are f and g . And the iterated integral:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y)| |g(y)| dx \right) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |g(y)| \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y)| dx \right) dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |g(y)| \|f\|_1 dy = \|f\|_1 \|g\|_1,$$

is finite. By Tonelli's theorem $F \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n)$. Then Fubini's theorem says that for a.e $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the integral

$$f * g(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x-y) g(y) dy$$

is finite, the resulting a.e. defined function is Borel measurable, and moreover, since

$$|f * g(x)| = \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x-y) g(y) dy \right| \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y) g(y)| dy$$

we have

$$\|f * g\|_1 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f * g(x)| dx \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x-y) g(y)| dy \right) dx;$$

and since $|F| : (x, y) \mapsto |f(x-y) g(y)|$ belongs to $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n)$ this iterated integral is the double integral over $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ of $|F|$, just computed above, with value $\|f\|_1 \|g\|_1$. \square

EXERCISE 12. Let $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as follows:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} e^{x+1} & \text{if } x < -1 \\ -x & \text{if } -1 \leq x < 1 \\ e^{-(x-1)} & \text{if } 1 \leq x \end{cases}$$

- (i) Plot the graph of F ; find $T(x) = VF(] - \infty, x])$ and plot it.
- (ii) Plot $T^\pm(x) = (T(x) \pm F(x))/2$. What are $\mu^+(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mu^-(\mathbb{R})$?
- (iii) Find a Hahn decomposition for the measure $\mu = dF$.
- (iv) Find the absolutely continuous and the singular parts of $\mu = dF$.
- (v) Let $G(x) = \cos(\alpha x)$, where $\alpha > 0$ is a constant. For every $a > 1$ compute the integral

$$\int_{]-a, a]} G(x) dF(x) = \int_{]-a, a]} G(x) d\mu^+ - \int_{]-a, a]} G(x) d\mu^-,$$

(compute both integrals) , and also by the partial integration formula

$$\int_{]a, b]} G(x^-) dF(x) = G(b)F(b) - G(a)F(a) - \int_{]a, b]} F(x) dG(x).$$

- (v) Prove that $G \in L^1(\mu)$ and find

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x) dF(x).$$

Solution. (i) Graph of F is easy; note that there is only one jump at 1, $F(1^+) - F(1^-) = 2$.

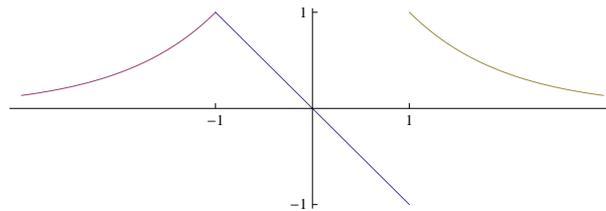


FIGURE 6. Plot of F .

We have (notice that F is increasing in $] -\infty, -1]$, and that $T(-\infty) = 0$ so that $T(x) = F(x)$ in this interval; T is decreasing in $[-1, 1[$ so that $VF([-1, x]) = F(-1) - F(x) = 1 + x$ for $x \in [-1, 1[$, and $T(1) = T(1^-) + (F(1^+) - F(1^-))$, etc):

$$T(x) = \begin{cases} e^{x+1} & \text{for } x < -1 \\ 2 + x & \text{for } -1 \leq x < 1, \\ 6 - e^{-(x-1)} & \text{for } 1 \leq x \end{cases}$$

consequently

$$T^+(x) = \begin{cases} e^{x+1} & \text{for } x < -1 \\ 1 & \text{for } -1 \leq x < 1 \\ 3 & \text{for } 1 \leq x \end{cases} \quad T^-(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < -1 \\ 1 + x & \text{for } -1 \leq x < 1. \\ 3 - e^{-(x-1)} & \text{for } 1 \leq x \end{cases}$$

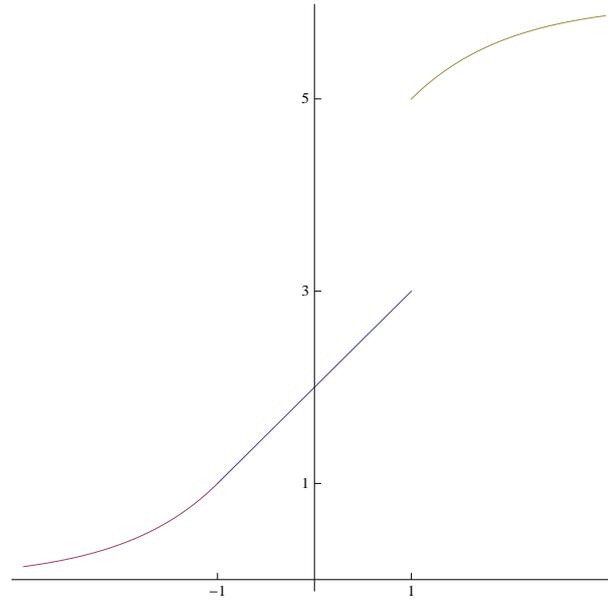


FIGURE 7. Plot of T .



FIGURE 8. Plot of T^\pm

□

Since $T^\pm(\infty) - T^\pm(-\infty) = 3 - 0$ we have $\mu^\pm(\mathbb{R}) = 3$, hence $|\mu|(\mathbb{R}) = 6$.

(iii) A Hahn decomposition is $P =] -\infty, -1] \cup \{1\}$, $Q = [-1, 1[\cup]1, \infty[$.

(iv) The derivative $F'(x)$ exists for every $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1, 1\}$ and we have

$$F'(x) = \begin{cases} e^{x+1} & \text{for } x < -1 \\ -1 & \text{for } -1 \leq x < 1; \\ -e^{-(x-1)} & \text{for } 1 \leq x \end{cases}$$

The singular part is clearly $2\delta_1$ so that $dF = F' dm + 2\delta_1$.

(v) Clearly $d\mu^+ = \chi_{]-\infty, -1]} e^{x+1} dx + 2 \delta_1$ so that

$$\int_{]-a, a]} G(x) d\mu^+(x) = \int_{-a}^{-1} \cos(\alpha x) e^{x+1} dx + 2G(1) = 2 \cos \alpha + e \int_1^a \cos(\alpha t) e^{-t} dt;$$

A primitive of $e^{-t} \cos(\alpha t)$ is $e^{-t}(\alpha \sin(\alpha t) - \cos(\alpha t))/(1 + \alpha^2)$ so that

$$(*) \quad \int_1^a \cos(\alpha t) e^{-t} dt = \left[\frac{e^{-t}}{1 + \alpha^2} (\alpha \sin(\alpha t) - \cos(\alpha t)) \right]_{t=1}^{t=a} = \frac{e^{-a}}{1 + \alpha^2} (\alpha \sin(\alpha a) - \cos(\alpha a)) - \frac{e^{-1}}{1 + \alpha^2} (\alpha \sin(\alpha) - \cos(\alpha)),$$

and

$$\int_{]-a, a]} G(x) d\mu^+(x) = \frac{e^{1-a}}{1 + \alpha^2} (\alpha \sin(\alpha a) - \cos(\alpha a)) - \frac{1}{1 + \alpha^2} (\alpha \sin(\alpha) - \cos(\alpha)) + 2 \cos \alpha.$$

We have next, since $d\mu^- = (\chi_{]-1, 1]} + e^{-(x-1)} \chi_{]1, \infty[}) dx$:

$$\int_{]-a, a]} G(x) d\mu^- = \int_{-1}^1 \cos(\alpha x) dx + \int_1^a \cos(\alpha x) e^{-(x-1)} dx = 2 \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha} + \int_1^a \cos(\alpha x) e^{-(x-1)} dx;$$

the last integral has already been computed (see (*)). Taking the difference:

$$\int_{]-a, a]} G(x) dF(x) = \int_{]-a, a]} G(x) d\mu^+ - \int_{]-a, a]} G(x) d\mu^- = 2 \cos \alpha - 2 \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha}.$$

By partial integration:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{]-a, a]} G(x) dF &= G(a)F(a) - G(-a)F(-a) - \int_{]-a, a]} F(x) \alpha \sin(\alpha x) dx = \\ & \int_{-a}^{-1} e^{x+1} \alpha \sin(\alpha x) dx + \int_{-1}^1 (-x) \alpha \sin(\alpha x) dx + \int_1^a e^{1-x} \alpha \sin(\alpha x) dx; \end{aligned}$$

the first integral and the third cancel; we are left with:

$$\int_{-1}^1 (-x) \alpha \sin(\alpha x) dx = 2 \int_0^1 x(-\alpha \sin(\alpha x)) dx = 2 [x \cos(\alpha x)]_0^1 - 2 \int_0^1 \cos(\alpha x) dx = 2 \cos \alpha - 2 \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha}.$$

(vi) The entire space has finite measure, $|\mu|(\mathbb{R}) = 6$. Every bounded measurable function is then in $L^1(\mu) = L^1(|\mu|)$, in particular $G \in L^1(\mu)$. Clearly we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} G dF = \int_{[-1, 1]} G dF = 2 \cos \alpha - 2 \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha}$$

(the integrals over $]-\infty, -1[$ and $]1, \infty[$ are finite, and cancel with each other).

ANALISI REALE-PRIMO APPELLO-7 FEBBRAIO 2012

EXERCISE 13. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space, and let $L^+ = L^+(X, \mathcal{M})$ denote the set of all \mathcal{M} -measurable functions from X to $[0, \infty]$ (as usual).

- (i) Prove that if $f \in L^+$ and $\int_X f < \infty$, then $\mu(\{f = \infty\}) = 0$. If $\int_X f = 0$, what can we say about $\{f > 0\}$?
- (ii) State Fatou's lemma.

From now on f_n is a sequence in L^+ that converges pointwise everywhere to $f \in L^+$.

- (iii) Assume that $\{f = \infty\}$ has strictly positive measure. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n = \infty$: true or false?
- (iv) Suppose that there exists $g \in L^+$, with finite integral, such that $f_n(x) \leq g(x)$ for every $x \in X$. Then $\int_X f = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n$.
- (iv) Assume now that there is a constant $a \in [0, \infty[$ such that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\int_X f_0 \vee \dots \vee f_n \leq a; \quad \text{prove that then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n = \int_X f.$$

Solution. (i) if $E = \{f = \infty\}$, then for every $n > 0$ we have $n\chi_E \leq f$ so that $n\mu(E) = \int_X n\chi_E \leq \int_X f$, which clearly implies $\mu(E) = 0$ (otherwise we may choose $n > \int_X f/\mu(E)$). If the integral of a positive f is zero, then $\mu(\{f > 0\}) = 0$: in fact nf is an increasing sequence of functions in L^+ , all with zero integral, whose pointwise limit is the function constantly ∞ on $\{f > 0\}$; by monotone convergence this pointwise limit has integral 0, hence finite, and so its infinity set has zero measure. Otherwise, every measurable positive simple function dominated by f has integral 0, hence $\{f > 1/n\}$ has measure 0 for all $n \geq 1$, hence $\{f > 0\} = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} \{f > 1/n\}$ has measure 0.

(ii) See the Lecture Notes.

(iii) By Fatou's lemma we get (recalling that $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$):

$$\int_X f \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n;$$

since $\{f = \infty\}$ has strictly positive measure we have $\int_X f = \infty$; then $\infty \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n$, clearly equivalent to $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n = \infty$.

(iv) This is essentially the dominated convergence theorem; the only difference is that f_n and g might be infinite valued, so we simply set all the f_n , f and g to be 0 on the set $\{g = \infty\}$, which has measure 0 by (i): no integral has been modified, and all functions are now in $L^1(\mu)$.

(v) Setting $g_n = f_0 \vee \dots \vee f_n$, g_n is an increasing sequence of functions in L^+ , with integrals all dominated by a ; then $g_n \uparrow g$, and $\int_X g \leq a < \infty$, by the monotone convergence theorem. We are now in the hypotheses of (iv), since clearly $f_n \leq g_n \leq g$ for every n . \square

EXERCISE 14. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space. Given q , with $1 < q < \infty$ and $a > 0$ consider $a\bar{B} = \{f \in L^q(\mu) : \|f\|_q \leq a\}$ (the closed ball of center 0 and radius $a > 0$ in $L^q(\mu)$).

(i) Prove that if the sequence $f_n \in a\bar{B}$ converges pointwise a.e. to f , then $f \in a\bar{B}$ (Fatou's lemma ...)

(ii) Let $E \in \mathcal{M}$ be a subset of X of finite measure. Prove that for every $p \in [1, q[$ and every $f \in a\bar{B}$ we have:

$$\left(\int_E |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \leq \mu(E)^{\alpha(p,q)} a,$$

where the exponent $\alpha(p, q)$ is to be found (hint: consider $|f|^p$ and 1, with convenient conjugate exponents ...).

(iii) Deduce from (ii) that for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $\delta = \delta(\varepsilon) > 0$ such that for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$ with $\mu(E) \leq \delta$, every $f \in a\bar{B}$ and every $p \in [1, q[$ we have

$$\left(\int_E |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \leq \varepsilon.$$

From now on X is assumed of finite measure, $\mu(X) < \infty$.

(iv) State the Severini–Egoroff's theorem on almost uniform convergence. Assume that the sequence $f_n \in a\bar{B}$ converges pointwise a.e. to f . Using this theorem and (iii) prove that f_n converges to f in $L^p(\mu)$, for every $p \in [1, q[$.

Solution. (i) If f_n converges a.e. to f , then $|f_n|^q$ converges a.e. to $|f|^q$, and Fatou's lemma says that:

$$\int_X |f|^q \left(= \int_X \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f_n|^q \right) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X |f_n|^q \leq a^q.$$

(ii) We use q/p and $(q/p)/(q/p - 1) = q/(q - p)$ as conjugate exponents, and consider E as the ambient space, obtaining

$$\int_E |f|^p \leq \left(\int_E |f|^q \right)^{p/q} \left(\int_E 1^{q/(q-p)} \right)^{(q-p)/q} = \mu(E)^{1-p/q} \left(\int_E |f|^q \right)^{p/q} \leq \mu(E)^{1-p/q} \left(\int_X |f|^q \right)^{p/q};$$

taking p^{th} -roots of both sides we get

$$\left(\int_E |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} \leq \mu(E)^{1/p-1/q} \|f\|_q \leq \mu(E)^{1/p-1/q} a.$$

(iii) Immediate: since $\delta^{1/p-1/q} a$ has to be smaller than ε we get $\delta \leq (\varepsilon/a)^{pq/(q-p)}$; any such δ will do.

(iv) For the statement we refer to the Lecture Notes. Next, by (i) we have $f \in a\bar{B}$; considering $f - f_n$ in place of f we can assume that $f = 0$, and we have to prove that $\|f_n\|_p$ has limit 0. Given $\varepsilon > 0$ we

find δ such that $\mu(E) \leq \delta$ implies $(\int_E |f_n|^p)^{1/p} \leq \varepsilon$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$; since the convergence to 0 is almost uniform we can find a set E such that $\mu(E) \leq \delta$ and on $X \setminus E$ the sequence converges uniformly to 0. Then, if $\|f_n\|_{X \setminus E} = \sup\{|f_n(x)| : x \in X \setminus E\}$:

$$\int_X |f_n|^p = \int_E |f_n|^p + \int_{X \setminus E} |f_n|^p \leq \varepsilon^p + \|f_n\|_{X \setminus E}^p \mu(X \setminus E) \leq \varepsilon^p + \|f_n\|_{X \setminus E}^p \mu(X);$$

since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n\|_{X \setminus E}^p = 0$, we conclude. □

EXERCISE 15. Assume that $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$, with $1 \leq p < \infty$.

(i) Prove that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|x| > r} |f|^p dm = 0.$$

We now define $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ by

$$F(x) = \int_{B(x,1]} f(y) dy \quad \text{where, as usual, } B(x,1[= \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : |y - x| < 1\}.$$

- (ii) Prove that the preceding formula effectively defines a function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$; prove that F is continuous and bounded, and find an estimate for $\|F\|_\infty$ involving $\|f\|_p$.
- (iii) Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 0$ (use (i)).

Solution. (i) By definition of $L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ we have $|f|^p \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$; clearly $|f|^p \chi_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus rB}$ tends to 0 as $r \rightarrow \infty$, and is dominated by $|f|^p$, so that the limit of integrals $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|x| > r} |f|^p dm = 0$ by dominated convergence.

(ii) If $p = 1$ there is nothing to prove. If $p > 1$ the usual estimates for L^p spaces on sets of finite measure give (we apply Hölder's inequality to $|f|$ and 1 of $B(x, 1[$, with conjugate exponents p and $q = p/(p - 1)$):

$$(*) \quad |F(x)| \leq \int_{B(x,1[} |f(y)| \leq \left(\int_{B(x,1[} |f(y)|^p \right)^{1/p} (m(B(x, 1[)^{1/q} \leq v_n^{1/q} \|f\|_p,$$

which immediately implies

$$\|F\|_\infty \leq v_n^{1/q} \|f\|_p.$$

In other words, we have proved the well known fact that if $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ then $f \in L^1_{\text{loc}}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. We know that if x_j tends to x in \mathbb{R}^n then $\chi_{B(x_j,1[}$ tends a.e. to $\chi_{B(x,1[}$, and the sequence is dominated by $\chi_{B(x,1+R]}$ with $R = \max_j \{|x - x_j|\}$. Then F is continuous, by the dominated convergence theorem.

(iii) By (i), given $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $r(\varepsilon)$ such that $\int_{\{|x| \geq r(\varepsilon)\}} |f|^p \leq \varepsilon^p$. If $|x| \geq r(\varepsilon) + 1$ we have that $B(x, 1[\subseteq \{|x| \geq r(\varepsilon)\}$ so that, for these x :

$$|F(x)| \leq \left(\int_{B(x,1[} |f(y)|^p \right)^{1/p} (m(B(x, 1[)^{1/q} \leq v_n^{1/q} \left(\int_{\{|x| \geq r(\varepsilon)\}} |f|^p \right)^{1/p} \leq v_n^{1/p} \varepsilon.$$

□

EXERCISE 16. For every $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ define $F_n(x) = \int_0^x nt^{n-1} \chi_{[0,1]}(t) dt$.

- (i) Plot some F_n and the limit function $F(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x)$. What is the measure $\mu = \mu_F$?
- (ii) Setting $\mu_n = \mu_{F_n}$, compute

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_n(]-\infty, a]) \quad (0 < a < 1); \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_n([0, 1]); \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_n([0, 1]).$$

- (iii) Assume that $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and Borel measurable. Prove that $f \in L^1(\mu_n)$ for every n , and moreover, if f is also left-continuous at 1 then:

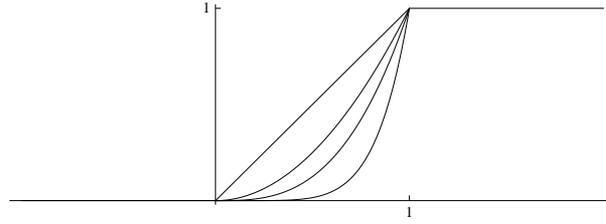
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f d\mu_n = f(1) \left(= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f d\mu \right)$$

(prove first that if $f(1) = 0$ then the limit is 0; split the integral in $\int_{]-\infty, a]} + \int_{]a, 1]}$ and use (ii)).

Solution. (i) We have $F_n(x) = 0$ for $x < 0$; $F_n(x) = x^n$ for $0 \leq x < 1$ and $F(x) = 1$ for $x \geq 1$. Then $F(x) = 0$ for $x < 1$, and $F(x) = 1$ for $1 \leq x$; F is the characteristic function of $[1, \infty[$, and hence $\mu = \delta_1$, unit mass at 1. Notice that all these measures are supported by $[0, 1]$.

- (ii) Clearly, if $0 < a < 1$

$$\mu_n(]-\infty, a]) = a^n - 0 = a^n \quad \text{so that} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_n(]-\infty, a]) = 0;$$

FIGURE 9. Plots of some F_n .

and we have $\mu_n([0, 1[) = \mu_n([0, 1]) = 1$, so that the limit is 1.

(iii) Since $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}, \mu_n)$ is a finite measure space for every n , all bounded measurable functions are in $L^1(\mu_n)$ for every n . Next, if f is left continuous and 0 at 1, given $\varepsilon > 0$ find $a \in]0, 1[$ such that $|f(x)| \leq \varepsilon$ if $x \in [a, 1]$ so that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} f d\mu_n \right| &= \left| \int_{[0,1]} f d\mu_n \right| = \left| \int_{[0,a[} f d\mu_n + \int_{[a,1]} f d\mu_n \right| \leq \int_{[0,a[} |f| d\mu_n + \int_{[a,1]} |f| d\mu_n \leq \\ &\leq \|f\|_{\infty} \int_{[0,a[} d\mu_n + \int_{[a,1]} \varepsilon d\mu_n = \|f\|_{\infty} a^n + \varepsilon (1 - a^n), \end{aligned}$$

since this expression has limit ε as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we conclude that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} f d\mu_n \right| = 0,$$

for f bounded left continuous and zero at 1. For f bounded left continuous at 1 we simply write $f = f - f(1) + f(1)$ and note that $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(1) d\mu_n = f(1)$ for every n , while by what just proved we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}} (f - f(1)) d\mu_n = 0.$$

□

ANALISI REALE– SECONDO APPELLO–28–02–2012

EXERCISE 17. (10) Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space

- (i) [2] Assume that $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are measurable, that $E \in \mathcal{M}$, that $f(x) < g(x)$ for every $x \in E$, and that $f, g \in L^1_{\mu}(E)$. Prove that $\int_E f < \int_E g$ iff $\mu(E) > 0$.
- (ii) [2] Let $E \in \mathcal{M}$ be such that $0 < \mu(E) < \infty$, and let $f \in L^1(\mu)$ be real valued. Prove that there exists $x \in E$ such that

$$f(x) \leq \int_E f d\mu := \frac{1}{\mu(E)} \int_E f d\mu;$$

more precisely, prove that the set $\{x \in E : f(x) \leq \int_E f d\mu\}$ has strictly positive measure.

This expresses the intuitively obvious fact that not all values of f on E can be larger than its average on E : not everybody can be above the mean!

- (iii) [2] Let now $f, g \in L^1(\mu)$ be real functions. Prove that $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for a.e. $x \in X$ if and only if $\int_E f \leq \int_E g$ for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$ (consider $E = \{f > g\} \dots$).
- (iv) [4] For $f, g, h \in L^+(X, \mathcal{M})$ assume that $f^2(x) \leq g(x)h(x)$ for a.e. $x \in X$. Prove that then, for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$ we have

$$(*) \quad \left(\int_E f \right)^2 \leq \left(\int_E g \right) \left(\int_E h \right)$$

($f^2 \leq gh$ is equivalent to $f \leq g^{1/2} h^{1/2}$; apply a convenient inequality ...).

Solution. (i) We have

$$\int_E f < \int_E g \iff \int_E (g - f) > 0 \iff \int_X (g - f) \chi_E > 0;$$

by hypothesis $(g - f)(x) = g(x) - f(x) > 0$ for every $x \in E$, so that $\text{Coz}((g - f) \chi_E) = E$; we know that a positive measurable function has integral 0 if and only if its cozero set has measure 0, so we conclude.

(ii) Setting for simplicity $c = \int_E f$, if there is no $x \in E$ such that $f(x) \leq c$, then $c < f(x)$ for every $x \in E$. Since $\mu(E) < \infty$, the constant c is in $L^1_\mu(E)$, so that (i) is applicable and gives that

$$\int_E c < \int_E f \iff c\mu(E) < \int_E f \iff c < \int_E f = c,$$

a contradiction. Since we can alter f on any subset of E of zero measure without altering the average c , the set $\{x \in E : f(x) \leq c\}$ must be of strictly positive measure.

(iii) If $f \leq g$ a.e. then $\int_E f \leq \int_E g$, by isotony of the integral, as is well-known. And if it is not true that $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for a.e. $x \in X$, then if $E = \{f - g > 0\}$ has strictly positive measure; by (i)

$$\int_E f > \int_E g,$$

contradicting the hypothesis.

(iv) Integrating over E the inequality $f \leq g^{1/2} h^{1/2}$ we get

$$\int_E f \leq \int_E g^{1/2} h^{1/2};$$

By Cauchy–Schwarz inequality for integrals we have

$$\int_E g^{1/2} h^{1/2} \leq \left(\int_E g\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_E h\right)^{1/2},$$

so that

$$\int_E f \leq \left(\int_E g\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_E h\right)^{1/2},$$

and squaring both sides we conclude. □

EXERCISE 18. (12)

- (i) [2] State the Radon–Nikodym theorem.
- (ii) [4] Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space, and let $\mu, \nu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be positive measures, both σ –finite. Prove that the following are equivalent:
 - (a) We have $\nu \ll \mu$ and $\mu \ll \nu$.
 - (b) μ and ν have the same null sets.
 - (c) There is $\rho \in L^+(X, \mathcal{M})$ such that $\rho(x) > 0$ for every $x \in X$ and

$$\nu(E) = \int_E \rho d\mu \quad \text{for every } E \in \mathcal{M}.$$

Let now (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (iii) [4] Assume that there exists $f \in L^1(\mu)$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$ for every $x \in X$. Prove that then X has σ –finite measure. Conversely, if X has σ –finite measure then there is $f \in L^1(\mu)$ such that $f(x) > 0$ for every $x \in X$, and $\int_X f d\mu = 1$.
- (iv) [2] Prove that if (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) is σ –finite there exists a measure $\nu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty[$ such that $\nu(X) = 1$, $\nu \ll \mu$ and $\mu \ll \nu$.

Solution. (i) OK

(ii):(a) \iff (b) is by definition of absolute continuity. And by Radon–Nikodym theorem, since all measures are σ –finite we have that (a), more precisely the hypothesis $\nu \ll \mu$, implies the existence of $\rho \in L^+(X, \mathcal{M})$ such that

$$\nu(E) = \int_E \rho d\mu \quad \text{for every } E \in \mathcal{M}.$$

But since $\nu(E) = 0$ implies also $\mu(E) = 0$, the set $Z = \{\rho = 0\}$, having ν –measure 0, has also μ –measure 0; we can alter ρ on this set, e.g. set $\rho(x) = 1$ for $x \in Z$, and make $\rho(x) > 0$ everywhere.

(iii) Any $f \in L^1(\mu)$ has the cozero set of σ –finite measure $(\text{Coz}(f) = \bigcup_{n>1} \{|f| > 1/n\})$, and $\mu(\{|f| > 1/n\}) \leq n \int_X |f|$. And if a measurable set $A \in \mathcal{M}$ has σ –finite measure then it is the cozero set of a positive measurable function with integral 1; simply write A as a disjoint union of a sequence of sets of finite nonzero measure, $A = \bigcup_{n=0}^\infty A_n$, and consider $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$f = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{1}{2^n \mu(A_n)} \chi_{A_n}.$$

(iv) is now obvious: take $d\nu = \rho d\mu$ where $\rho \in L^1(\mu)$ is everywhere positive with integral 1; ρ exists by (iii), by (i) we have $\mu \ll \nu$. \square

EXERCISE 19. (11) Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

(i) [2] Compute

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha),$$

for $t > 0$ and $\alpha > 0$. Hint:

$$n \log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha) = n(t/n)^\alpha \frac{\log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha)}{(t/n)^\alpha}; \quad \text{remember that} \quad \lim_{u \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log(1 + u)}{u} = \dots$$

What is the limit for $t = 0$?

Let now f be a positive function in $L^1(\mu)$, and assume that $c = \int_X f > 0$. We want to compute

$$(*) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n d\mu$$

for various values of $\alpha > 0$, here $f_n(x) (= f_{\alpha,n}(x)) = n \log(1 + (f(x)/n)^\alpha)$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and $x \in X$.

(ii) [1] Compute $g(x) = (g_\alpha(x) =) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$ (distinguish the cases $0 < \alpha < 1$, $\alpha = 1$, $\alpha > 1$).

(iii) [3] Suppose that $0 < \alpha < 1$. Prove that in this case Fatou's lemma is applicable and gives (*).

(iv) [2] Prove that $\log(1 + t^\alpha) < \alpha t$ for every $\alpha \geq 1$, $t > 0$ (consider $\alpha t - \log(1 + t^\alpha)$ and differentiate ...).

(v) [3] Compute the limit (*) for $\alpha = 1$ and for $\alpha > 1$.

Solution. (i) Recall that $\lim_{u \rightarrow 0} \log(1 + u)/u = 1$; then:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n(t/n)^\alpha \frac{\log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha)}{(t/n)^\alpha} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{1-\alpha} t^\alpha \frac{\log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha)}{(t/n)^\alpha};$$

since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha)/(t/n)^\alpha = 1$ we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \log(1 + (t/n)^\alpha) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{for } 0 < \alpha < 1 \\ t & \text{for } \alpha = 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } \alpha > 1 \end{cases}.$$

For $t = 0$ all the terms are 0, so the limit is 0.

(ii) By (i) we have, for $0 < \alpha < 1$ that $g(x) = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \infty$ if $f(x) > 0$, and 0 if $f(x) = 0$. Then $g_\alpha = \infty \chi_{\text{Coz}(f)}$, for $0 < \alpha < 1$. For $\alpha = 1$ we have $g_1 = f$. For $\alpha > 1$ we have $g_\alpha = 0$.

(iii) By Fatou's lemma (notice that all functions f_n are positive, since $1 + (f(x)/n)^\alpha \geq 1$)

$$\int_X g \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n.$$

Since $\int_X f > 0$ by hypothesis, we have that $\mu(\text{Coz}(f)) > 0$, and hence $\int_X g = \infty$, so that $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n = \infty$, which implies $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n = \infty$.

(iv) Differentiating we get

$$\alpha - \frac{\alpha t^{\alpha-1}}{1 + t^\alpha} > 0 \iff 1 > \frac{t^{\alpha-1}}{1 + t^\alpha},$$

clearly true if $t > 0$ and $\alpha \geq 1$ because $0 < t^{\alpha-1} \leq t^\alpha < 1 + t^\alpha$ if $t \geq 1$, while if $0 < t < 1$ then $t^{\alpha-1} \leq 1 < 1 + t^\alpha$. Then the function $\alpha t - \log(1 + t^\alpha)$ is zero at 0, continuous in $[0, \infty[$, and strictly increasing on $]0, \infty[$, so that $\alpha t - \log(1 + t^\alpha) > 0$ for $t > 0$ (if $\alpha \geq 1$).

(v) By (iii) we have $0 \leq f_n(x) \leq n(\alpha(f(x)/n)) = \alpha f(x)$, so that dominated convergence may be applied. For $\alpha = 1$ we have, by (ii):

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

so that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_n = \int_X f = c$. For $\alpha > 1$ we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = 0$, so that the required limit is 0. \square

EXERCISE 20. (12) Let $\mu : \mathcal{B}_1 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be defined by $\mu = (e - 1) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-n} \delta_n$, where δ_n is the unit mass at n , and \mathcal{B}_1 is the σ -algebra of Borel subsets of \mathbb{R} .

(i) [2] Find $\mu(\mathbb{R})$ and the smallest closed set that supports μ . Is μ singular with respect to Lebesgue measure $m = \lambda_1$?

- (ii) [3] Find a formula for the distribution function $F(x) = \mu([-\infty, x])$, and plot F (it is convenient to express F with the integer part function $[x]$).

Let now ν be the Radon measure defined on \mathcal{B}_1 by $d\nu = \chi_{]-\infty, 0]}(x) dx / (x-1)^3$, and consider the measure $\lambda = \nu + \mu$ on \mathcal{B}_1 .

- (iii) [2] Find the absolutely continuous and the singular part of λ (with respect to Lebesgue measure m), find λ^\pm , and also a Hahn decomposition for λ .
- (iv) [2] Find a formula for the total variation function $T(x) = |\lambda|([-\infty, x])$, and plot T .
- (v) [3] Given $f(x) = x$, determine the set of $p > 0$ such that $f \in L^p(|\lambda|)$. Compute the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} x d\lambda(x)$$

if this integral exists (it may be useful to know that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n z^{n-1} = 1/(1-z)^2$ for $|z| < 1$).

Solution. (i) We have

$$\mu(\mathbb{R}) = (e-1) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-n} = (e-1) \frac{1/e}{1-1/e} = 1.$$

Plainly $\mu(\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N}^>) = 0$, and every larger set has strictly positive measure. Since $\mathbb{N}^>$ is closed, it is the required set. Since $m(\mathbb{N}^>) = 0$, we have $\mu \perp m$.

- (ii) We clearly have $F(x) = 0$ for $x < 1$. If $x \geq 1$, we have $F(x) = F([x])$, and

$$F([x]) = (e-1) \sum_{n=1}^{[x]} e^{-n} = (e-1) \frac{1}{e} \frac{1 - e^{-[x]}}{1 - 1/e} = 1 - e^{-[x]}.$$

The plot is easily done.

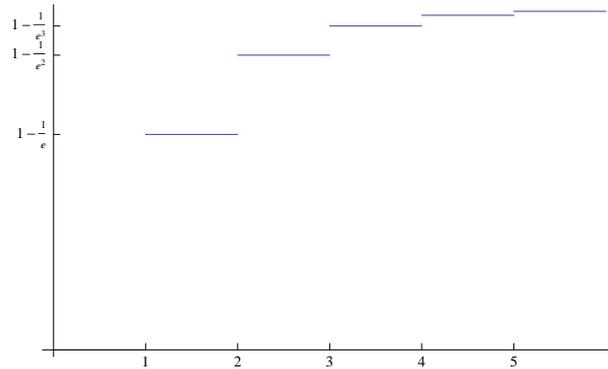


FIGURE 10. Plot of F (not on scale).

- (iii) By its very definition ν is absolutely continuous with respect to m , and μ is singular, so that ν is the absolutely continuous part and μ the singular part. Next, ν is negative (notice that $\chi_{]-\infty, 0]}(x)/(x-1)^3 \leq 0$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$), so that $\lambda^- = -\nu$ and $\lambda^+ = \mu$ (since also $\nu \perp \mu$). A Hahn decomposition for λ is for instance $\mathbb{N}^> \cup (\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N}^>)$, the first set positive, the second negative.

- (iii) For $x < 1$ we have

$$T(x) = |\lambda|([-\infty, x]) = -\nu([-\infty, x]) = - \int_{]-\infty, x]} \chi_{]-\infty, 0]}(t) \frac{dt}{(t-1)^3};$$

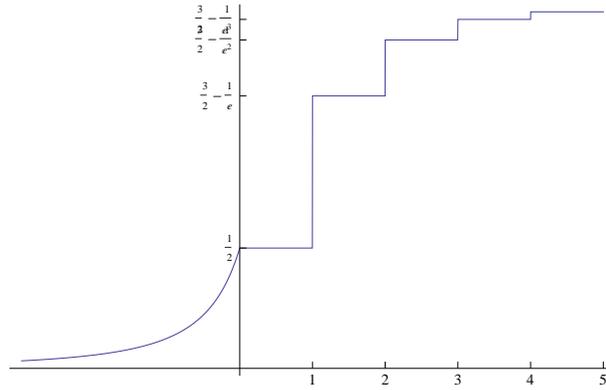
assuming $x \leq 0$ this integral is

$$\int_{-\infty}^x \frac{-dt}{(t-1)^3} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{(t-1)^2} \right]_{-\infty}^x = \frac{1}{2(x-1)^2};$$

then $T(0) = 1/2$ and $T(x) = 1/2$ for $x \in [0, 1[$. For $x \geq 1$ we have $T(x) = 1/2 + F(x)$.

- (iv) We have that $L^p(|\lambda|) = L^p(\lambda^+) \cap L^p(\lambda^-) = L^p(\mu) \cap L^p(-\nu)$. Thus $f \in L^p(|\lambda|)$ iff

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{|x|^p}{(1-x^3)} dx; \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^p e^{-n}$$

FIGURE 11. Plot of T (not on scale).

are both finite. The second series converges for every $p \in \mathbb{R}$ (e.g. by the root test), while the integral is finite if and only if $3 - p > 1 \iff p < 2$: in fact the function is continuous and hence locally summable on $] -\infty, 0]$, and at $-\infty$ it is asymptotic to $1/|x|^{3-p}$. So the answer is: for $0 < p < 2$. The integral is

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{x}{(x-1)^3} dx + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n e^{-n} = \left[\frac{-x}{2(x-1)^2} \right]_{x=-\infty}^{x=0} + \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^2} + \frac{1}{e} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \frac{1}{e^{n-1}}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-1}{x-1} \right]_{-\infty}^0 + \frac{1}{e} \frac{1}{(1-1/e)^2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{e}{(e-1)^2}.$$

□

ANALISI REALE PER MATEMATICA – APPELLO DI RICUPERO – 18 LUGLIO 2012

EXERCISE 21. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) Let $g_n \in L^+$ be a sequence of measurable positive functions; assume that $\int_X g_n < \infty$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the following statements:
- The series of functions $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n(x)$ converges to a finite sum for a.e. $x \in X$.
 - The series $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_X g_n$ of the integrals is convergent, that is $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_X g_n < \infty$.
- Are these statements equivalent? or does (b) imply (a)? or conversely does (a) imply (b)? Give proofs, or counterexamples.
- (ii) Given any function $g \in L^+(\mathbb{R})$, with $\int_{\mathbb{R}} g = a > 0$ (the measure is Lebesgue measure), and a sequence $c_n \in \mathbb{R}$, prove that the formula

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g(2^n(x - c_n))$$

defines for a.e. $x \in \mathbb{R}$ a function $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$. What is the integral of f ?

- (iii) Let the function g in (ii) be $\log^+(1/|x|) = \max\{-\log|x|, 0\}$, with $g(0) = 0$, and let $n \mapsto c_n$ be a bijection of \mathbb{N} onto the set of rational numbers. Plot g , and prove that for every $\alpha > 0$ and every non-empty open interval I of \mathbb{R} the set $\{x \in I : f(x) > \alpha\}$ has strictly positive measure.

Solution. (i) It is true that (b) implies (a), but not the converse. If $h_m = \sum_{n=0}^m g_n$, then $h_m \in L^+$, and the sequence h_m is increasing to a limit h with $h(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n(x)$; by the monotone convergence theorem we have

$$\int_X h = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int_X h_m = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^m \int_X g_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_X g_n < \infty \quad (\text{by (b)});$$

then $\int_X h < \infty$ implies that $E = \{h = \infty\}$ has measure 0; and E is exactly the set of all $x \in X$ such that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n(x) = \infty$. Pointwise convergence everywhere of the series does not ensure convergence of the series of integrals: take e.g. $g_n(x) = g(x - n)$, where $g = \chi_{[0,1]}$.

- (ii) The change of variable $t = 2^n(x - c_n) \iff x = t/2^n + c_n$ reduces the integral to

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(2^n(x - c_n)) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(t) \frac{dt}{2^n} = \frac{a}{2^n},$$

so that the series of integrals of the given series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(2^n(x - c_n)) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a}{2^n} = 2a,$$

and by (i) the series converges pointwise a.e. to a measurable positive function f with $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) dx = 2a$.
 (iii) The plot is easy.

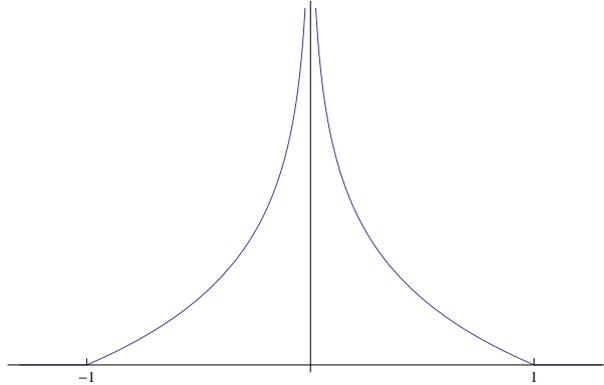


FIGURE 12. Plot of g

If I is non-empty open interval, by density of \mathbb{Q} there are infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $c_n \in I$, and if n is such that $2^{-n} < m(I)$ (m Lebesgue measure) then either the right or the left half of the interval $]c_n - 1/2^n, c_n + 1/2^n[$ are contained in I . Since the series has positive terms, $f(x) > \alpha$ is ensured if $g(2^n(x - c_n)) > \alpha$ for at least one n ; and

$$g(2^n(x - c_n)) > \alpha \iff 2^n|x - c_n| < e^{-\alpha} \iff c_n - e^{-\alpha}/2^n < x < c_n + e^{-\alpha}/2^n,$$

so that the set $\{f > \alpha\} \cap I$ has measure not less than $e^{-\alpha}/2^n$. □

EXERCISE 22. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) Let $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ be closed under union (that is, $A, B \in \mathcal{S}$ imply $A \cup B \in \mathcal{S}$). Let $s = \sup\{\mu(A) : A \in \mathcal{S}\}$. Prove that there exists an increasing sequence $A_0 \subseteq A_1 \subseteq \dots$ of elements of \mathcal{S} such that $\mu(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n) = s$. Prove that if \mathcal{S} is closed under countable union then $s = \max\{\mu(A) : A \in \mathcal{S}\}$.

Given $E \in \mathcal{M}$ let $\mathcal{S}(E) = \{A \in \mathcal{M} : A \subseteq E, \mu(A) < \infty\}$, and set $\mu_0(E) = \sup\{\mu(A) : A \in \mathcal{S}(E)\}$.

- (ii) Prove that $\mathcal{S}(E)$ is closed under union, and that the following are equivalent:
 - (a) $\mu_0(E) = \max\{\mu(A) : A \in \mathcal{S}(E)\}$.
 - (b) $\mu_0(E) < \infty$.
 - (c) $\mathcal{S}(E)$ is closed under countable union.

Let's call *atom* in a measure space (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) any $A \in \mathcal{M}$ such that $0 < \mu(A) \leq \infty$, and for every $B \subseteq A$, $B \in \mathcal{M}$, we have either $\mu(B) = 0$ or $\mu(B) = \mu(A)$. Prove that if for some $E \in \mathcal{M}$ we have $\mu_0(E) < \mu(E)$ then E contains an atom of infinite measure.

Solution. (i) There is of course a sequence $S_n \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $\sup_n \mu(S_n) = s$. Set $A_n = S_0 \cup \dots \cup S_n$. Then $A_n \in \mathcal{S}$ because \mathcal{S} is closed under union, and clearly A_n is increasing. We have $\mu(S_n) \leq \mu(A_n)$, and $\mu(A_n) \leq s$ because $A_n \in \mathcal{S}$. Then

$$s = \sup_n \mu(S_n) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_n) \leq s \quad \text{so that} \quad s = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_n) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right).$$

Trivially we then have $s = \max\{\mu(A) : A \in \mathcal{S}\}$ if $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{S}$.

(ii) Subadditivity implies immediately that $\mathcal{S}(E)$ is closed under \cup : $\mu(A \cup B) \leq \mu(A) + \mu(B) < \infty$ if both $\mu(A)$ and $\mu(B)$ are finite. Let us next show that (a) implies (b) implies (c) implies (a):

(a) implies (b) Since $\mathcal{S}(E)$ is closed under union, there is an increasing sequence $A_0 \subseteq A_1 \subseteq \dots$ of elements of \mathcal{S} such that $\mu(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n) = s$; then $s = \mu_0(E) = \mu(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n)$; if $\mu_0(E) < \infty$ then $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{S}(E)$, and $s = \max\{\mu(A) : A \in \mathcal{S}(E)\}$.

(b) implies (c) Since $\mathcal{S}(E)$ is closed under finite union, we only have to prove that the union of an increasing sequence in $\mathcal{S}(E)$ belongs to $\mathcal{S}(E)$. If $A_0 \subseteq A_1 \subseteq \dots$ is such a sequence we have $\mu(A_n) \leq \mu_0(E)$ for every n ; if $A = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$ we then get $\mu(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_n) \leq \mu_0(E)$, so that $\mu(A) \leq \mu_0(E) < \infty$; thus $A \in \mathcal{S}(E)$.

(c) implies (a) is immediate by (i).

Last question: if $\mu_0(E) < \mu(E)$ then certainly $\mu_0(E) < \infty$; if $\mu(E)$ is finite, then trivially $\mu_0(E) = \mu(E)$ so that the hypothesis implies $\mu_0(E)$ finite and $\mu(E) = \infty$; by (ii) there is $A \subseteq E$ such that $\mu(A) = \mu_0(E) = \max\{\mu(B) : B \in \mathcal{S}(E)\}$. Then $E \setminus A$ is the required atom; it clearly has infinite measure, and if $B \subseteq E \setminus A$ has finite measure then $A \cup B \in \mathcal{S}(E)$ and $\mu(A) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$ implies $\mu(B) = 0$ (otherwise $\mu(A \cup B) > \mu(A) = \mu_0(E)$, a contradiction) \square

EXERCISE 23. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

(i) If $0 < p < q$, for every $f \in L(X)$ we have

$$\|f\|_q \leq \|f\|_p^{p/q} \|f\|_\infty^{1-p/q};$$

Prove it, and say when equality holds, assuming the right-hand side finite and nonzero.

On every set X the spaces $\ell^p = \ell^p(X, \mathbb{K})$ are defined, and also $\|f\|_p$ is defined for every $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$.

(ii) Explain how these spaces can be defined within the general theory of L^p spaces (that is, they are $L^p(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ for some σ -algebra \mathcal{M} on X and some measure μ). Prove that $\|f\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_p$ for every $p > 0$, and determine the functions f for which equality holds. Prove that if $0 < p < q < \infty$ then $\|f\|_q \leq \|f\|_p$.

(iii) Prove that if $\ell^p(X) = \ell^q(X)$ for $p, q > 0$ and $p < q$, then X is finite (remember that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/(n+1)^\alpha$ is in $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ iff $p\alpha > 1$).

Solution. (i) For a.e. $x \in X$ we have

$$(*) \quad |f(x)|^q = |f(x)|^p |f(x)|^{q-p} \leq |f(x)|^p \|f\|_\infty^{q-p} \quad \text{integrating}$$

$$\int_X |f|^q \leq \int_X |f|^p \|f\|_\infty^{q-p} = \left(\int_X |f|^p \right) \|f\|_\infty^{q-p};$$

taking q -th roots of both sides:

$$\|f\|_q \leq \|f\|_p^{p/q} \|f\|_\infty^{1-p/q}.$$

To avoid trivialities we consider the case in which the right-hand side is finite and nonzero. When integrating in (*), the inequality becomes an equality if and only if the set

$$\{x \in X : |f(x)|^q < |f(x)|^p \|f\|_\infty^{q-p}\} \quad \text{has measure 0;}$$

this set is clearly contained in the cozero set $\{|f| > 0\}$ of f , and coincides with

$$\{x \in X : |f(x)| > 0, |f(x)|^{q-p} < \|f\|_\infty^{q-p}\},$$

and clearly it has measure 0 if and only if $|f(x)|$ is constantly a.e. equal to its esssupnorm on $\{|f| > 0\}$, in other words $|f| = \|f\|_\infty \chi_{\text{Coz}(f)}$; and for the right-hand side to be finite we need $\|f\|_\infty < \infty$ and $\mu(\text{Coz}(f)) < \infty$. To sum up: the inequality is an equality with finite nonzero sides if and only if $|f|$ is of the form $r \chi_E$, with $r > 0$ and $0 < \mu(E) < \infty$.

(ii) We know that $\ell^p(X) = L^p(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ if $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{P}(X)$, the power set of X , and μ the counting measure on $\mathcal{P}(X)$. It is trivial to see that $\|f\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_p$ for every p with $0 < p < \infty$: for every $c \in X$ one has $|f(c)|^p \leq \sum_{x \in X} |f(x)|^p = \|f\|_p^p$, so that $|f(c)| \leq \|f\|_p$ for every $c \in X$, and then $\|f\|_\infty = \sup\{|f(c)| : c \in X\} \leq \|f\|_p$. Equality holds when $\|f\|_\infty = \infty$ or when $f = 0$; excluding these cases $\|f\|_p$ has to be finite; then $\|f\|_\infty = \max\{|f(x)| : x \in X\}$; if $\|f\|_\infty = |f(c)| > 0$, then we must have $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in X \setminus \{c\}$; if not we have $\|f\|_\infty^p = |f(c)|^p < |f(c)|^p + |f(x)|^p \leq \|f\|_p^p$ when $f(x) \neq 0$. Then equality holds in non-trivial cases iff the cozero set of f is a singleton. Finally, from (i) we get $\|f\|_q \leq \|f\|_p^{p/q} \|f\|_\infty^{1-p/q}$ if $0 < p < q < \infty$; and since $\|f\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_p$ we conclude that $\|f\|_q \leq \|f\|_p^{p/q} \|f\|_p^{1-p/q} = \|f\|_p$.

(iii) If X is infinite, then X contains a countably infinite subset $N = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$. Given $\alpha > 0$ we consider the function $f = f_\alpha : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) = 0$ if $x \in X \setminus N$, and $f(x_n) = 1/(n+1)^\alpha$. Clearly $f \in \ell^p(X)$ iff $p\alpha > 1$; the conclusion is immediate. \square

EXERCISE 24. Define $\alpha : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\alpha(x) = 1/(1-x)$ for $x < 0$, $\alpha(0) = 0$, $\alpha(x) = e^{-[1/x]}$ for $x > 0$ (as usual, $[t]$ is the integer part of t , for every $t \in \mathbb{R}$).

- (i) Find all points of discontinuity of α , the jump of α at these points, and determine left or right continuity of α at these points.
- (ii) Plot α and the total variation function $T(x) = V\alpha(]-\infty, x])$; compute $\mu(\mathbb{R})$, where μ is the total variation measure $|\lambda_\alpha|$ of the measure λ_α determined by α . Find the largest open set null for λ_α .
- (iii) For λ_α find a Hahn decomposition, and describe the absolutely continuous and singular part with respect to Lebesgue measure m on \mathcal{B}_1 .
- (v) Given $f(x) = x^+ = \max\{x, 0\}$, determine the set of all $p > 0$ such that $f \in L^p(\mu)$. Is it true that $f \in L^\infty(\mu)$?

Solution. (i) Clearly α is continuous on $]-\infty, 0[$. For $x > 1$ we have $[1/x] = 0$ so that $\alpha(x) = 1$ for $x > 1$. We have $[1/x] = n \in \mathbb{N}$ iff $n \leq 1/x < n + 1$, that is iff $1/(n + 1) < x \leq 1/n$. Then on the left-open interval $]1/(n + 1), 1/n]$ the function α has the constant value e^{-n} ; α is discontinuous at all points $1, 1/2, 1/3, \dots$, and at these points it is left continuous, with $\alpha(1/n) = e^{-n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow (1/n)^-} \alpha(x)$, while $\lim_{x \rightarrow (1/n)^+} \alpha(x) = e^{-(n-1)}$; the jump at $1/n$ is then $\sigma_\alpha(1/n) = e^{-(n-1)} - e^{-n} = e^{-n}(e - 1)$. Another point of discontinuity is 0, with $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \alpha(x) = 1$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \alpha(x) = 0 = \alpha(0)$; at 0 we have right continuity, and $\sigma_\alpha(0) = -1$.

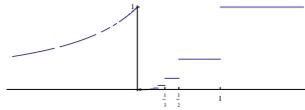


FIGURE 13. Plot of α

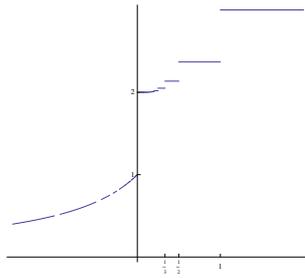


FIGURE 14. Plot of T

(ii) With the previous information the plot of α is easy. For T : since α is increasing on $]-\infty, 0[$ and 0 at $-\infty$, for $x < 0$ we get $T(x) = \alpha(x) = 1/(1 - x)$, while $T(0) = 2$; next we get $T(x) = 2 + \beta(x)$, where $\beta :]0, \infty[\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the right-continuous modification of α ; $T(+\infty) = 3 = \mu(\mathbb{R})$. Sets null for λ_α are those of $|\lambda_\alpha|$ -measure 0; it is quite clear that the largest open set of μ -measure 0 is $]0, \infty[\setminus \{1/n : n \geq 1\}$ (any larger open set will either contain a point $1/n$, with measure $\mu(\{1/n\}) = e^{-n}(e - 1)$, or 0, with measure $\mu(\{0\}) = 1$, or an open interval I of $]-\infty, 0[$, with measure $\alpha(\sup I) - \alpha(\inf I) > 0$).

(iii) The function α is increasing on $]-\infty, 0]$ and on $]0, \infty[$, so that both these are positive sets; and $\{0\}$ is a negative set. Thus a Hahn decomposition is $P = \mathbb{R}^*$, $N = \{0\}$. The absolutely continuous part is $(\chi_{]-\infty, 0[} / (1 - x)^2) dm$ (or the measure associated to the monotone function $x \mapsto 1/(1 - x)$ for $x < 0$, $x \mapsto 1$ for $x \geq 0$); the singular part is the measure $-\delta_0 + \sum_{n=1}^\infty e^{-n}(e - 1) \delta_{1/n}$.

(iv) Clearly the integral of f^p is

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f^p(x) d\mu(x) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n^p} e^{-n}(e - 1);$$

this sum is clearly finite for every $p > 0$. Then $f \in L^p(\mu)$ for every $p > 0$. And it is easy to see that $f \in L^\infty(\mu)$: the set $\{f > 1\} =]1, \infty[$ has clearly μ -measure 0 (it is also easy to see that $\|f\|_\infty = 1$). \square

EXERCISE 25. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space; as usual we denote by $L^+(X) = L^+_{\mathcal{M}}(X)$ the set of all measurable functions with values in $[0, \infty]$.

- (i) Given $f \in L^+(X)$ which of the following two statements is correct?
- If $\int_X f$ is finite, then $f \in L^1(\mu)$.
 - If $\int_X f$ is finite, then f coincides a.e. with a function $g \in L^1(\mu)$.
- (ii) In $X = \mathbb{R}$ with Lebesgue measure consider the sequence $f_n = \chi_{[n, \infty[}$. Notice that f_n is a decreasing sequence in $L^+(\mathbb{R})$, and find the limit f ; is it true that $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f = \lim_n \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n$?
- (iii) State Fatou's lemma. Next, state and prove the analogous of Fatou's lemma for \limsup (with the necessary modifications).

Solution. (i) The correct statement is (b). Functions in $L^+(X)$ may assume the value $+\infty$; we know (LN, 3.3.5, corollary) that if the integral is finite then $\{f = \infty\}$ is measurable with zero measure.

(ii) The limit function f is identically 0, with zero integral, whereas $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n = \infty$ for every n , so that also $\lim_n \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n = \infty$

(iii) For Fatou's lemma see LN, 3.3.6. We were reminded, from (ii) that for a decreasing sequence of functions to have passage to the limit under the integral sign an hypothesis of finiteness of the integral has to be added. Then we can state:

• Let f_n be a sequence of functions in $L^+(X)$. Assume that for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ the integral of $f_m^* = \bigvee_{n \geq m} f_n$ is finite. Then

$$\int_X \limsup_n f_n \geq \limsup_n \int_X f_n.$$

Proof. The sequence f_k^* is decreasing, converges pointwise to $f^* = \limsup_n f_n$ and $\int_X f_k^*$ is finite as soon as $k \geq m$; then $\int_X f^* = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_X f_k^*$ (LN, 3.3.6.2; alternatively, dominated convergence); since $f_k^* \geq f_l$ for $l \geq k$ we have $\int_X f_k^* \geq \int_X f_l$ for every $l \geq k$, hence also $\int_X f_k^* \geq \sup_{l \geq k} \int_X f_l$; passing to the limit in this inequality as $k \rightarrow \infty$ we get

$$\int_X f^* \left(= \int_X \limsup_n f_n \right) \geq \limsup_k \int_X f_k,$$

as required. □

REMARK. The hypothesis that f_m^* has finite integral for some m is equivalent to the hypothesis that some function in $L^1(\mu)$ dominates a.e. all functions f_k for $k \geq m$: combined with Fatou's lemma for \liminf the above in fact gives the dominated convergence theorem (another proof of) □

EXERCISE 26. Let (X, \mathcal{M}) be a measurable space and let $\mu, \nu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be positive measures on it.

- (i) Define absolute continuity of ν with respect to μ , $\nu \ll \mu$.

The $\varepsilon - \delta$ notion of absolute continuity is the following:

Definition. The measure ν is said to be $\varepsilon - \delta$ absolutely continuous with respect to μ if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $\delta = \delta_\varepsilon > 0$ such that $(|\nu(E)| =) \nu(E) \leq \varepsilon$ for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$ with $\mu(E) \leq \delta$.

- Prove that $\varepsilon - \delta$ absolute continuity implies absolute continuity.
- With $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, Borel σ -algebra of \mathbb{R} , let $\mu = m$ = Lebesgue measure, and $d\nu = x^2 dm$. Prove that $\nu \ll m$, but that ν is not $\varepsilon - \delta$ absolutely continuous with respect to m .
- On a measure space (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) let ρ be a positive function in $L^\infty(\mu)$, and let $d\nu = \rho d\mu$. Prove that ν is $\varepsilon - \delta$ absolutely continuous with respect to μ .
- Prove that if ν is a finite measure, and $\nu \ll \mu$ then ν is also $\varepsilon - \delta$ absolutely continuous with respect to μ .

Solution. (i) For every $E \in \mathcal{M}$, if $\mu(E) = 0$ then also $\nu(E) = 0$. (ii) If $\mu(E) = 0$, then $\mu(E) < \delta$ for every $\delta > 0$ so that $\nu(E) \leq \varepsilon$ for every $\varepsilon > 0$, hence $\nu(E) = 0$.

(iii) We compute $\nu([a, a + \delta])$:

$$\nu([a, a + \delta]) = \int_a^{a+\delta} x^2 dm = \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{x=a}^{x=a+\delta} = \frac{(a + \delta)^3 - a^3}{3} = \frac{a^3}{3} ((1 + \delta/a)^3 - 1).$$

For $a \rightarrow +\infty$ we have $\nu([a, a + \delta]) \rightarrow \infty$, and the $\varepsilon - \delta$ condition cannot hold.

(iv) Trivial: for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$ of finite μ -measure we have

$$\nu(E) = \int_E \rho d\mu = \int_E g d\mu \leq \int_E \|\rho\|_\infty d\mu = \|\rho\|_\infty \mu(E),$$

so that, given $\varepsilon > 0$ we take $\delta = \varepsilon/\|\rho\|_\infty$ and we get $\nu(E) \leq \varepsilon$ if $\mu(E) \leq \delta$.

(v) See LN,6.2.5.3: when ν is finite then $\nu \ll \mu$ implies that ν verifies also the $\varepsilon - \delta$ condition. □

EXERCISE 27. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a finite measure space, $\mu(X) < \infty$. Assume that $0 < p < q \leq \infty$

(i) Prove that there exists a constant $C(p, q) > 0$ such that for every measurable $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ we have

$$\|f\|_p \leq C(p, q) \|f\|_q;$$

and find such a constant.

(ii) We have $L^p(\mu) \supseteq L^q(\mu)$, and convergence of a sequence in $L^q(\mu)$ implies convergence of the sequence in $L^p(\mu)$, to the same limit; prove these statements.

(iii) Prove that $L^p([0, 1]) \not\supseteq L^q([0, 1])$, and that $L^\infty([0, 1]) \not\supseteq \bigcap_{0 < p < \infty} L^p([0, 1])$; the measure is Lebesgue measure.

Solution. (i) Remember (LN, 5.1.8) that we have

$$\|f\|_p \leq \mu(X)^{1/p-1/q} \|f\|_q,$$

for every measurable $f \in L(X)$. In fact, assuming first $q < \infty$, and applying Hölder's inequality to the pair of functions $|f|^p, 1$ with conjugate exponents $q/p, q/(q-p)$ we get:

$$\int_X |f|^p = \int_X |f|^p 1 \leq \left(\int_X |f|^q \right)^{p/q} \left(\int_X 1^{q/(q-p)} \right)^{(q-p)/q} = \mu(X)^{1-p/q} \|f\|_q^p,$$

so we need only to take p -th roots of both sides. For $q = \infty$ the inequality is immediate.

(ii) Is now trivial: $f \in L^q(\mu)$ means that f is measurable and that $\|f\|_q < \infty$; the preceding inequality says that then also $\|f\|_p < \infty$, so that $f \in L^p(\mu)$. Similarly, $f_n \rightarrow f$ in $L^q(\mu)$ means that $\|f - f_n\|_q \rightarrow 0$; since for $p < q$

$$\|f - f_n\|_p \leq \mu(X)^{1/p-1/q} \|f - f_n\|_q$$

this implies $\|f - f_n\|_p \rightarrow 0$ and hence $f_n \rightarrow f$ also in $L^p(\mu)$.

(iii) The function $f_\alpha(x) = 1/x^\alpha$ is in $L^p([0, 1])$ iff $p\alpha < 1$; if $p\alpha < 1$ but $q\alpha > 1$, that is for $\alpha \in]1/q, 1/p[$ then $f_\alpha \in L^p \setminus L^q$. And $\log x$ is in $\bigcap_{0 < p < \infty} L^p([0, 1]) \setminus L^\infty([0, 1])$. □

EXERCISE 28. Define $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $F(x) = -e^{-|x|}$ for $x < 0$, $F(x) = \sqrt{(2x - x^2)^+}$ for $x \geq 0$ (as usual, $(2x - x^2)^+ = \max\{2x - x^2, 0\}$ is the positive part of $2x - x^2$, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$).

(i) Plot F .

(ii) Find the total variation function $T(x) = VF([-\infty, x])$, the positive and negative variation F_\pm of F , and plot all these functions.

(iii) For the signed measure $\nu = \mu_F$ associated to F describe a Hahn decomposition, and describe the Lebesgue–Radon–Nikodym decomposition of ν^\pm with respect to Lebesgue measure m on \mathcal{B}_1 .

Let now $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = x^+ = \max\{x, 0\}$.

(iv) Compute

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f d|\nu|.$$

(v) Prove that $f \in L^\infty(|\nu|)$ and compute $\|f\|_\infty$ in this space.

Solution. (i) Easy:

(ii) We have $T(x) = e^x$ for $x < 0$; $T(0) = 2$; $T(x) = 2 + \sqrt{2x - x^2}$ for $0 \leq x < 1$; $T(x) = 4 - \sqrt{2x - x^2}$ for $1 \leq x < 2$; $T(x) = 4$ for $x \geq 2$. And we have $F_\pm(x) = (T(x) \pm F(x))/2$ so that

$$F_+(x) = 0 \quad (x < 0); \quad F_+(x) = 1 + \sqrt{2x - x^2} \quad (0 \leq x < 1); \quad F_+(x) = 2 \quad (1 \leq x).$$

$$F_-(x) = e^x \quad (x < 0); \quad F_-(x) = 1 \quad 0 \leq x < 1; \quad F_-(x) = 2 - \sqrt{(x - 2x^2)^+} \quad 1 \leq x$$

(in particular, $F_-(x) = 2$ if $2 \leq x$).

(iii) We can take $P = [0, 1[$ and $Q = \mathbb{R} \setminus P$. Also

$$d\nu^+ = \delta_0 + \frac{1-x}{\sqrt{2x-x^2}} \chi_{]0,1[}(x) dx; \quad d\nu^- = e^x \chi_{[-\infty,0[}(x) dx + \frac{x-1}{\sqrt{2x-x^2}} \chi_{]1,2[}(x) dx.$$

(iv) We have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f d|\nu| = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f d\nu^+ + \int_{\mathbb{R}} f d\nu^- = \int_0^1 x \frac{1-x}{\sqrt{2x-x^2}} dx + \int_1^2 x \frac{x-1}{\sqrt{2x-x^2}} dx =$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[x \sqrt{2x-x^2} \right]_{x=0}^{x=1} - \int_0^1 \sqrt{2x-x^2} dx + \left[-x \sqrt{2x-x^2} \right]_{x=1}^{x=2} + \int_1^2 \sqrt{2x-x^2} dx = \\ & 1 - \int_0^1 \sqrt{2x-x^2} dx + 1 + \int_1^2 \sqrt{2x-x^2} dx = 2. \end{aligned}$$

(v) Since $|\nu|([2, +\infty]) = 0$ we have $\|f\|_\infty = 2$.

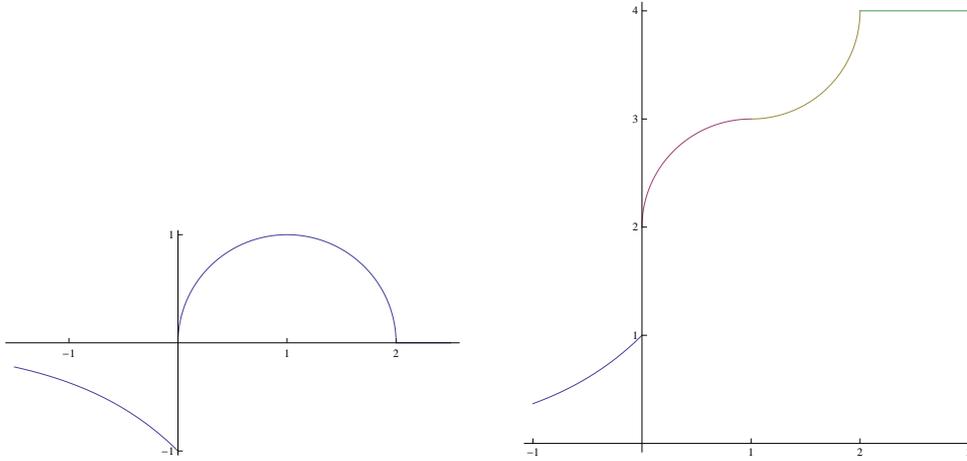


FIGURE 15. Plots of F (left) and T (right).

(the plots of F_\pm are omitted). □

ANALISI REALE PER MATEMATICA – APPELLO DI RICUPERO – 19 SETTEMBRE 2012

EXERCISE 29. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space; for simplicity we consider only real valued functions on X , in particular here $L^1(\mu)$ consists of real-valued functions only.

- (i) Define (real valued) measurable simple functions, and prove that such a function f is in $L^1(\mu)$ if and only if its cozero-set $\{f \neq 0\}$ has finite measure.

We call $S(\mu)$ the set of all simple functions which belong to $L^1(\mu)$.

- (ii) Prove that a positive measurable function $f : X \rightarrow [0, \infty[$ is in $L^1(\mu)$ if and only if it is the limit in $L^1(\mu)$ of an increasing sequence of positive simple functions in $L^1(\mu)$, and deduce from this that $S(\mu)$ is dense in $L^1(\mu)$.

Assume now that (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) is the Carathéodory extension of a premeasure (still called μ) defined on an algebra \mathcal{A} of parts of X .

- (iii) Prove that if $E \in \mathcal{M}$ and $\mu(E) < \infty$ then for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $A \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\mu(A \Delta E) \leq \varepsilon$; deduce from this fact that the subspace of \mathcal{A} -simple functions in $S(\mu)$ is still dense in $L^1(\mu)$.

Solution. (i) A simple function is a function with finite range; real-valued measurable simple functions are then functions f of the form $f = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \chi_{E(k)}$, where $\{E(k) : k = 1, \dots, m\}$ is a finite partition of X into members of \mathcal{M} , and $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m\}$ is set of m different real numbers (we are here talking of the standard representation). The absolute value of such a function is then $|f| = \sum_{k=1}^m |\alpha_k| \chi_{E(k)}$, and by definition the integral of such a function is $\int_X |f| = \sum_{k=1}^m |\alpha_k| \mu(E(k))$; this is a finite value if and only if $\mu(E(k)) = \infty$ implies $|\alpha_k| = 0$, that is, on a set of infinite measure the simple function must be identically zero. The cozero-set of f is $\{|f| > 0\}$ and is $\bigcup \{E(k) : |\alpha_k| > 0\}$; so $f \in L^1(\mu) \iff |f| \in L^1(\mu) \iff \mu(\{|f| > 0\}) < \infty$ has been proved.

(ii) Recall that every positive measurable function f is the pointwise limit of an increasing sequence of positive measurable simple functions φ_n (LN, 3.2.3). If $f \in L^1(\mu)$ then clearly $\varphi_n \in L^1(\mu)$, and by monotone convergence $\int_X f = \lim \int_X \varphi_n$, which implies

$$\|f - \varphi_n\|_1 = \int_X (f - \varphi_n) = \int_X f - \int_X \varphi_n \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Clearly any L^1 limit of a sequence of functions in L^1 is in L^1 . Given a real $f \in L^1(\mu)$ we simply split f as $f = f^+ - f^-$; if φ_n, ψ_n are sequences of simple functions converging in $L^1(\mu)$ to f^\pm respectively, then $\varphi_n - \psi_n$ converges to f in $L^1(\mu)$.

(iii) The first part is LN, 2.3.4. Given a simple function in $L^1(\mu)$, $f = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \chi_{E(k)}$ (where now the value 0 of f , if present, is omitted so that $\alpha_k \neq 0$ and $\mu(E(k)) < \infty$ for every $k \in \{1, \dots, m\}$) and $\varepsilon > 0$ we can pick for every $k \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ a set $A(k) \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\mu(E(k) \Delta A(k)) \leq \varepsilon/\alpha$, where $\alpha = \sum_{k=1}^m |\alpha_k|$. If $g = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \chi_{A(k)}$ then g is \mathcal{A} -simple, belongs to $L^1(\mu)$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \|f - g\|_1 &= \int_X |f - g| = \int_X \left| \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \chi_{E(k)} - \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \chi_{A(k)} \right| \leq \int_X \sum_{k=1}^m |\alpha_k| |\chi_{E(k)} - \chi_{A(k)}| = \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m |\alpha_k| \int_X |\chi_{E(k)} - \chi_{A(k)}| = \sum_{k=1}^m |\alpha_k| \mu(E(k) \Delta A(k)) \leq \varepsilon, \end{aligned}$$

Then the closure of the set of \mathcal{A} -simple functions in $L^1(\mu)$ contains $S(\mu)$, which is dense in $L^1(\mu)$; then this closure is all of $L^1(\mu)$.

REMARK. A more direct proof of the above is in LN, 3.3.15. □

EXERCISE 30. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space.

- (i) What does it mean that $E \in \mathcal{M}$ is of σ -finite measure? when is the measure space called σ -finite?

An *atom* in the measure space (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) is a set $A \in \mathcal{M}$ with $\mu(A) > 0$ such that for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$ contained in A we either have $\mu(E) = 0$ or $\mu(A \setminus E) = 0$.

- (ii) If $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$ are atoms, then either $\mu(A \cap B) = 0$, or $\mu(A \cap B) = \mu(A) = \mu(B)$.
- (iii) Prove that in a σ -finite measure space an atom has finite measure.

Two sets $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$ are said to be *almost disjoint* if $\mu(A \cap B) = 0$.

- (iv) Let $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of pairwise almost disjoint sets in \mathcal{M} , and let $A = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$. Prove that

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

- (v) Prove that in a σ -finite measure space a family of pairwise almost disjoint atoms is at most countable.

Solution. (i) Lecture notes, 2.2.8. (ii) If $\mu(A \cap B) > 0$, then $\mu(A \setminus (A \cap B)) = \mu(B \setminus (A \cap B)) = 0$ because A and B are atoms. Then $\mu(A) = \mu(A \cap B) + \mu(A \setminus (A \cap B)) = \mu(A \cap B)$ and $\mu(B) = \mu(A \cap B) + \mu(B \setminus (A \cap B)) = \mu(A \cap B)$ by finite additivity; by transitivity $\mu(A) = \mu(B) (= \mu(A \cap B))$. (iii) We can reproduce the argument given above that σ -finiteness implies semifiniteness; at any rate, if $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ is an increasing sequence of sets of finite measure with union X , and A is an atom, we also have $A \cap A_n \uparrow A$, so that if $\mu(A \cap A_n) = 0$ for every n we get $\mu(A) = 0$, a contradiction; then $\mu(A \cap A_n) > 0$ for some n , which implies $\mu(A \setminus A_n) = 0$, and $\mu(A) = \mu(A \cap A_n) + \mu(A \setminus A_n) = \mu(A \cap A_n) < \infty$.

(iv) Let's apply the usual trick for making a disjoint union, $B_k = A_k \setminus \left(\bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} A_j\right)$. We have $B_k \subseteq A_k$, and if the A_k 's are pairwise almost disjoint then $\mu(B_k) = \mu(A_k)$: in fact $A_k \setminus B_k = A_k \cap \left(\bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} A_j\right) = \bigcup_{j=0}^{k-1} A_k \cap A_j$ is a finite union of sets of measure zero, and has then measure zero.

(v) Assume that $E \subseteq X$ has finite measure, and let $(A_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ be a family of almost disjoint atoms contained in E ; we prove that $\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mu(A_\lambda) \left(:= \sup\{\sum_{\lambda \in F} \mu(A_\lambda) : F \text{ a finite subset of } \Lambda\} \right) \leq \mu(E)$; this implies that Λ is countable (Lecture Notes, lemma 1.2.4). In fact, for every finite subset $F \subseteq \Lambda$ we have, by (i), $\sum_{\lambda \in F} \mu(A_\lambda) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{\lambda \in F} A_\lambda\right) \leq \mu(E)$. We have proved that any subset of X of finite measure contains an at most countable set $\mathcal{A}(E)$ of pairwise almost disjoint atoms; since $X = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n$, where $(E_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an increasing sequence of sets of finite measure, we have that $\mathcal{A}(X) = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{A}(E_n)$ is a countable union of countable sets, hence countable. □

EXERCISE 31. Let (X, \mathcal{M}, μ) be a measure space, and let $f \in L(X)$ be a measurable function.

- (i) Prove that

$$\liminf_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|f\|_p \geq \|f\|_\infty$$

(given $0 < \alpha < \|f\|_\infty$ use Čebičeff's inequality for L^p to prove that $\liminf_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|f\|_p \geq \alpha$).

- (ii) Assuming $f \in L^p(\mu)$ for some $p > 0$ prove that $\limsup_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|f\|_p \leq \|f\|_\infty$.

- (iii) Find a Lebesgue measurable function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|f\|_p$ exists, but is not equal to $\|f\|_\infty$.
- (iv) Compute the limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{(1+x^2)^n} \right)^{1/n}$$

and deduce from it the value of $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ((2n)!/(n!)^2)^{1/n}$ (use the Beta and Gamma functions to evaluate the preceding integral; do this last part only if you spare some time).

Solution. (i) and (ii): LN, 5.1.1. (iii) Take the constant 1: its p -norms are all infinite, but $\|1\|_\infty = 1$.

(iv) Clearly all p -norms are finite, so that the limit is the L^∞ -norm of $f(x) = 1/(1+x^2)$ in $[0, \infty[$, which is 1. To compute the integrals: first use the change of variables $x^2 = t$, which gives

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{(1+x^2)^n} = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{t^{-1/2}}{(1+t)^n} dt = \frac{1}{2} B(1/2, n-1/2) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma(1/2)\Gamma(n-1/2)}{\Gamma(n)}.$$

We have $\Gamma(1/2) = \pi^{1/2}$ and

$$\Gamma(n-1/2) = \frac{(n-1/2)\Gamma(n-1/2)}{n-1/2} = \frac{\Gamma(n+1/2)}{n-1/2} = \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}n!} \pi^{1/2},$$

so that

$$\left(\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{(1+x^2)^n} \right)^{1/n} = \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}n!\Gamma(n)} \right)^{1/n} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{n\pi}{2} \right)^{1/n} \left(\frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2} \right)^{1/n};$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$ the left-hand side tends to 1, and also $(n\pi/2)^{1/n}$ tends to 1; then the required limit is 4. \square

EXERCISE 32. Define $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $F(x) = \operatorname{sgn} x e^{-|x|}$.

- (i) Plot F .
- (ii) Find the total variation function $T(x) = VF(]-\infty, x])$, the positive and negative variation F_\pm of F , and plot all these functions.
- (iii) For the signed measure $\nu = \mu_F$ associated to F describe a Hahn decomposition, and describe the Lebesgue–Radon–Nikodym decomposition of ν^\pm with respect to Lebesgue measure m on \mathcal{B}_1 .

Let now $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = |x|$.

- (iv) Compute

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f^p d|\nu|,$$

for every $p > 0$

- (v) Is it true that $f \in L^\infty(|\nu|)$?

Solution. (schematic) The plots are easy and we omit them. The total variation is $T(x) = e^x$ for $x < 0$, $T(0) = 2$, $T(x) = 4 - e^{-x}$ for $x > 0$. The positive variation is $F_+(x) = 0$ for $x < 0$, $F_+(0) = 1$, $F_+(x) = 2$ for $x > 0$; the negative is $F_-(x) = e^x$ for $x < 0$, $F_-(x) = 2 - e^{-x}$ for $x \geq 0$. A Hahn decomposition is $P = \{0\}$ and $Q = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$. The singular part is $2\delta_0$, the absolutely continuous part is $-e^{-|x|} dm$. We have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |f|^p d|\nu| = 2|f(0)|^p \delta_0 + \int_{\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}} |x|^p e^{-|x|} dm(x) = 2 \int_0^\infty x^p e^{-x} dx = 2\Gamma(p+1).$$

Then $f \in L^p(|\nu|)$ for every $p > 0$. Clearly f is not in $L^\infty(|\nu|)$: for every $\alpha > 0$ the set $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x| > \alpha\}$ is the union of the two half lines $] -\infty, -\alpha[\cup] \alpha, \infty[$, of $|\nu|$ -measure $2 \exp(-\alpha) > 0$. \square