## 1. Real Analysis

An algebra of sets on $X$ is nonempty collection $A$ of subsets of $X$ that is closed under finite unions and complements; in other words, if $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n} \in A$, then $\cup_{1}^{n} E_{j} \in A$; and if $E \in A$, then $E^{c} \in A$.

There is a unique smallest $\sigma$-algebra $M(E)$ containg $E$, namely, the intersection of all $\sigma$-algebras containing $E . M(E)$ is called the $\sigma$-algebra generated by $E$.

If $X$ is any metric space, or more generally any topological space, the $\sigma$-algebra generated by the family of open sets in $X$ is called the Borel $\sigma$-algebra on $X$ and is denoted by $B_{X}$. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a $\sigma$-algebra $M$. A measure on $M$ is a function $\mu: M \rightarrow[0, \infty]$ such that
i. $\mu(\phi)=0$,
ii. if $\left\{E_{j}\right\}_{1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of disjoint sets in $M$, then $\mu\left(\cup_{1}^{\infty} E_{j}\right)=\sum_{1}^{\infty} \mu\left(E_{j}\right)$. Property (ii) is called countable additivity. It implies finite additivity:
ii'.if $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n}$ are disjoint sets in $M$, then $\mu\left(\cup_{1}^{n} E_{j}\right)=\sum_{1}^{n} \mu\left(E_{j}\right)$, because one can take $E_{j}=\phi$ for $\mathrm{j}>\mathrm{n}$. A function $\mu$ that satisfies (i) and(ii') but not necessarily (ii) is called a finitely additive measure.

If $X$ is a set and $M \subset P(X)$ is a $\sigma$-algebra, $(X, M)$ is called a measurable space and the sets in $M$ are called measurable sets. If $\mu$ is a measure on $(X, M)$, then $(X, M, \mu)$ is called a measure space. If a statement about points $x \in X$ is true except for $x$ in some every $x$. we say that it is true almost everywhere (abbreviated a.e:), or for almost every $x$.

A measure whose domain includes all subsets of null sets is called complete.
An outer measure on a nonempty set $X$ is a function $\mu$ that satisfies

- $\mu^{*}(\phi)=0$
- $\mu^{*}(A) \leq \mu^{*}(B)$ if $A \subset B$.
- $\mu^{*}\left(\cup_{1}^{\infty} A_{j}\right) \leq \Sigma_{1}^{\infty} \mu^{*}\left(A_{j}\right)$.

If $\mu^{*}$ is an outer measure on $X$, a set $A \subset X$ is called $\mu^{*}$-measurable if $\mu^{*}(E)=\mu^{*}(E \cap A)+$ $\mu^{*}\left(E \cap A^{c}\right)$ for all $E \subset X$.

Carathéodory's Theorem.
If $\mu^{*}$ is an outer measure on $X$, the collection $M$ of $\mu^{*}$-measurable sets is a $\sigma$-algebra, and the restriction of $\mu^{*}$ to $M$ is a complete measure.

A large family of measures on R whose domain is the Borel $\sigma$-algebra $\mathrm{B}_{R}$; such measures are called Borel measures on R.

Lebesgue measure: This is the complete measure $\mu_{F}$ associated to the function $F(x)=x$, for which the measure of an interval is simply its length. We shall denote it by $m$. The domain of $m$ is called the class of Lebesgue measurable sets, and we shall denote it by $L$. The Cantor set $C$ is the set of all $x \in[0,1]$ that have a base 3 expansion $x=\Sigma a_{j} 3^{-j}$ with $a_{j} \neq 1$ for all $j$. Thus $C$ is obtained from [0,1] by removing the open middle third $\left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right)$, then removing the open middle thirds $\left(\frac{1}{9}, \frac{2}{9}\right)$ and $\left(\frac{7}{9}, \frac{8}{9}\right)$ of the two remaining intervals, and so forth.

We recall that any mapping $f: X \rightarrow Y$ between two sets induces a mapping $f^{-1}: P(Y) \rightarrow P(X)$, defined by $f^{-1}(E)=x \in X: f(x) \in E$, which preserves unions, intersections, and complements. Thus, if $N$ is a $\sigma$-algebra on $Y, f^{-1}(E): E \in N$ is a $\sigma$-algebra on $X$. If $(X, M)$ and $(Y, N)$ are measurable spaces. a mapping $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is called $(M, N)$-measurable, or just measurable when $M$ and $N$ are understand, if $f^{-1}(E) \in M$ for all $E \in N$.

If $(X, M)$ is a mesaurable space, a real- or complex-valued function $f$ on $X$ will be called $M$-measurable, or just measurable, if it is $\left(M, B_{R}\right)$ or $\left(M, B_{C}\right)$ measurable. $B_{R}$ or $B_{C}$ is always understood as the $\sigma$-algebra on the range space unless otherwise specified. In particular , $f \mathrm{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is Lebesgue (resp. Borel) measurable if it is ( $L, B_{C}$ ) (resp. $\left(B_{R}, B_{C}\right)$ )
measurable; likewise for $f: \mathrm{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{R}$.
The characteristic function $\chi_{E}$ of $E$ is defined by $\chi * 1$ if $x \in E, * 0$ if $x \notin E$.
A simple function on $X$ is a finite linear combination, with complex coefficients, of characteristic functions of sets in $M$. Equivalently, $f: X \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is simple iff $f$ is measurable and the range of $f$ is a finite subset of C . Indeed, we have $f=\sum_{1}^{n} z_{j} \chi_{E_{j}}$, where $E_{j}=f^{-1}\left(z_{j}\right)$ and range $(f)=\left\{z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right\}$
$L^{+}=$the space of all measurable functions from $X$ to $[0, \infty]$. If $\phi$ is a simple function in $L^{+}$ with standard representation $\phi=\Sigma_{1}^{n} a_{j} \chi_{E_{j}}$, we define the integral of $\phi$ with respect to $\mu$ by $\int \phi d \mu=\Sigma_{1}^{n} a_{j} \mu\left(E_{j}\right)$

The monotone convergence theorem
If $f_{n}$ is a sequence in $L^{+}$such that $f_{j} \leq f_{j+1}$ for all $j$, and $f=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f_{n}\left(=\sup _{n} f_{n}\right)$, then $\int f$ $=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_{n}$.

## Fatou's Lemma

If $f_{n}$ is any sequence in $L^{+}$, then $f\left(\liminf f_{n}\right) \leq \liminf f f_{n}$.
If $f^{+}$and $f^{-}$are the positive and negative parts of $f$ and at least one of $\int f^{+}$and $\int f^{-}$is
finite, we define $\int f=\int f^{+}-\int f^{-}$. We shall be mainly concerned with the case where $\int f^{+}$and $f f^{-}$are both finite; we then say that $f$ is integrable. Since $|f|=f^{+}+f^{-}$, it is clear that $f$ is integrable iff $\int|f| \leq \infty$.

If $f$ is complex-valued measurable function, we say that $f$ is integrable if $\int|f| \leq \infty$.
More over, if $E \in M, f$ is integrable on $E$ if $\int_{E}|f| \leq \infty$.
The space of complex-valued integrable functions is a complex vector space and that the integral is a complex-linear functional on it. We denote this space-provisionally- by $L^{1}(\mu)\left(\quad\right.$ or $L^{1}(X, \mu)$, or $L^{1}(X)$, simply $L^{1}$, depending on the contex ).

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We shall find it more convenient to redefine $L^{1}(\mu)$ to be the set of equivalent classes of a.e.-defined integrable functions on $X$, where $f$ and $g$ are considered equivalent iff $f=g$ a.e.

We shalll still employ the notation " $f \in L^{1}(\mu)$ " to mean that $f$ is an a.e.-defined integrable function.

The dominated convergence theorem.
Let $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ be a sequence in $L^{1}$ such that (a) $f_{n} \rightarrow f$ a.e., and (b) there exists a nonnegative $g \rightarrow L^{1}$ such that $\left|f_{n}\right| \leq g$ a.e. for all n . Then $f \rightarrow L^{1}$ and $\int f=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_{n}$.

## Egoroff's theorem

Suppose that $\mu(X)<\infty$, and $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots$, and $f$ are measurable complex-valued functions on $X$ such that $f_{n} \rightarrow f$ a.e. Then for every $\epsilon>0$ there exists $E \subset X$ such that $\mu(E)<\epsilon$ and $f_{n} \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $E^{c}$.

## The Fubini-Tonelli theorem.

Suppose that $(X, M, \mu)$ and $(Y, N, v)$ are $\sigma$-finite measure spaces. a.(Tonelli)If $f \in L^{+}(X, Y)$, then the functions $g(x)=f f_{n} \mathrm{~d} v$ and $h(y)=\int f^{y} \mathrm{~d} \mu$ are in $L^{+}(X)$ and $L^{+}(Y)$, respectively, and *
$\int f \mathrm{~d}(\mu \mathrm{x} v)=\int\left[\int f(x, y) \mathrm{d} v\right] \mathrm{d} \mu(x)=\int\left[\int f(x, y) \mathrm{d} \mu\right] \mathrm{d} v(y)$.
b.(Fubini)If $f \in L^{1}(\mu \mathrm{x} v)$, then $f_{x} \in L^{1}(v)$ for a.e. $\mathrm{x} \in X, f^{y} \in L^{1}(\mu)$. for a.e. $\mathrm{y} \in Y$, the a.e. -defined functions $g(x)=\int f_{x} \mathrm{~d} v$ and $h(y)=\int f^{y} \mathrm{~d} v$ are in $L^{1}(\mu)$ and $L^{1}(v)$, respectively, and (*) holds $d x d y=r d r d \theta$ and $d x d y d z=r^{2} \sin \phi d r d \theta d \phi$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{R_{n}} \exp \left(-\mathrm{a}|x|^{2}\right) d x=\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{n / 2} \\
& \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)=2 \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-r^{2}} d r=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-r^{2}} d r=\sqrt{\pi}
\end{aligned}
$$

If $v$ is a signed measure on $(X, M)$, a set $E \in M$ is called positive ( resp.negatiive, null)
for $v$ if $v(F) \geq 0$ (resp. $v(F) \leq 0, v(F)=0$ ) for all $F \in M$ such that $F \subset E$.

The Jordan decomposition theorem
If $v$ is a signed measuree, there exist unique positive measures $v^{+}$and $v^{-}$such that $v=$ $v^{+}-v^{-}$and $v^{+} \perp v^{-}$.

The measures $v^{+}$and $v^{-}$are called the positive and negative variations of $v$, and $v=v^{+}-$ $v^{-}$is called the Jordan decomposition of $v$.

We define the total variation of $v$ to be the measure $|v|$ defined by $|v|=v^{+}+v^{-}$. We say that $v$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $\mu$ and write $v \ll \mu$ if $v(E)=0$ for every $E \in M$ for which $\mu(E)=0$.

