

6. FUBINI'S THEOREM

This next example gives a “real world” example of the fact that it is not always possible to interchange order of integration.

**Example 6.1.** Consider

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 dy \int_1^\infty dx (e^{-xy} - 2e^{-2xy}) &= \int_0^1 dy \left\{ \frac{e^{-y}}{-y} - 2 \frac{e^{-2y}}{-2y} \right\} \Big|_{x=1}^\infty \\ &= \int_0^1 dy \left[ \frac{e^{-y} - e^{-2y}}{y} \right] \\ &= \int_0^1 dy e^{-y} \left( \frac{1 - e^{-y}}{y} \right) \in (0, \infty). \end{aligned}$$

Note well that  $\left( \frac{1 - e^{-y}}{y} \right)$  has not singularity at 0. On the other hand

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^\infty dx \int_0^1 dy (e^{-xy} - 2e^{-2xy}) &= \int_1^\infty dx \left\{ \frac{e^{-xy}}{-x} - 2 \frac{e^{-2xy}}{-2x} \right\} \Big|_{y=0}^1 \\ &= \int_1^\infty dx \left\{ \frac{e^{-2x} - e^{-x}}{x} \right\} \\ &= - \int_1^\infty e^{-x} \left[ \frac{1 - e^{-x}}{x} \right] dx \in (-\infty, 0). \end{aligned}$$

**Moral**  $\int dx \int dy f(x, y) \neq \int dy \int dx f(x, y)$  is **not always true**.

In the remainder of this section we will let  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N}, \nu)$  be fixed measure spaces. Our main goals are to show:

- (1) There exists a unique measure  $\mu \otimes \nu$  on  $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$  such that  $\mu \otimes \nu(A \times B) = \mu(A)\nu(B)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{N}$  and
- (2) For all  $f : X \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  which are  $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$  - measurable,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{X \times Y} f d(\mu \otimes \nu) &= \int_X d\mu(x) \int_Y d\nu(y) f(x, y) \\ &= \int_Y d\nu(y) \int_X d\mu(x) f(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

Before proving such assertions, we will need a few more technical measure theoretic arguments which are of independent interest.

6.1. Measure Theoretic Arguments.

**Definition 6.2.** Let  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a collection of sets. We say:

- (1)  $\mathcal{C}$  is a **monotone class** if it is closed under increasing unions and decreasing intersections,
- (2)  $\mathcal{C}$  is a  $\pi$  - **class** if it is closed under finite intersections and
- (3)  $\mathcal{C}$  is a  $\lambda$  - **class** if  $\mathcal{C}$  satisfies the following properties:
  - (a)  $X \in \mathcal{C}$
  - (b) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{C}$ . (Closed under disjoint unions.)
  - (c) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $A \supset B$ , then  $A \setminus B \in \mathcal{C}$ . (Closed under proper differences.)

- (d) If  $A_n \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $A_n \uparrow A$ , then  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ . (Closed under countable increasing unions.)
- (4) We will say  $\mathcal{C}$  is a  $\lambda_0$ -class if  $\mathcal{C}$  satisfies conditions a) – c) but not necessarily d).

*Remark 6.3.* Notice that every  $\lambda$ -class is also a monotone class. a  $\lambda$ -class is a monotone class.

**Lemma 6.4** (Monotone Class Theorem). *Suppose  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is an algebra and  $\mathcal{C}$  is the smallest monotone class containing  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mathcal{C} = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$ .*

**Proof.** For  $C \in \mathcal{C}$  let

$$\mathcal{C}(C) = \{B \in \mathcal{C} : C \cap B, C \cap B^c, B \cap C^c \in \mathcal{C}\},$$

then  $\mathcal{C}(C)$  is a monotone class. Indeed, if  $B_n \in \mathcal{C}(C)$  and  $B_n \uparrow B$ , then  $B_n^c \downarrow B^c$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C} \ni C \cap B_n \uparrow C \cap B \\ \mathcal{C} \ni C \cap B_n^c \downarrow C \cap B^c \text{ and} \\ \mathcal{C} \ni B_n \cap C^c \uparrow B \cap C^c. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\mathcal{C}$  is a monotone class, it follows that  $C \cap B, C \cap B^c, B \cap C^c \in \mathcal{C}$ , i.e.  $B \in \mathcal{C}(C)$ . This shows that  $\mathcal{C}(C)$  is closed under increasing limits and a similar argument shows that  $\mathcal{C}(C)$  is closed under decreasing limits. Thus we have shown that  $\mathcal{C}(C)$  is a monotone class for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ .

If  $A \in \mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{C}$ , then  $A \cap B, A \cap B^c, B \cap A^c \in \mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{C}$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{A}$  and hence it follows that  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{C}(A) \subset \mathcal{C}$ . Since  $\mathcal{C}$  is the smallest monotone class containing  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{C}(A)$  is a monotone class containing  $\mathcal{A}$ , we conclude that  $\mathcal{C}(A) = \mathcal{C}$  for any  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ .

Let  $B \in \mathcal{C}$  and notice that  $A \in \mathcal{C}(B)$  happens iff  $B \in \mathcal{C}(A)$ . This observation and the fact that  $\mathcal{C}(A) = \mathcal{C}$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  implies  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{C}(B) \subset \mathcal{C}$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{C}$ . Again since  $\mathcal{C}$  is the smallest monotone class containing  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{C}(B)$  is a monotone class we conclude that  $\mathcal{C}(B) = \mathcal{C}$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{C}$ . That is to say, if  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$  then  $A \in \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}(B)$  and hence  $A \cap B, A \cap B^c, A^c \cap B \in \mathcal{C}$ . So  $\mathcal{C}$  is closed under complements (since  $X \in \mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{C}$ ) and finite intersections and increasing unions from which it easily follows that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. ■

Let  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{P}(X \times Y)$  be given by

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{N} = \{A \times B : A \in \mathcal{M}, B \in \mathcal{N}\}$$

and recall from Exercise 4.2 that  $\mathcal{E}$  is an elementary family. Hence the algebra  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{E})$  generated by  $\mathcal{E}$  consists of sets which may be written as disjoint unions of sets from  $\mathcal{E}$ .

**Theorem 6.5** (Uniqueness). *Suppose that  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is an elementary class and  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{E})$  (the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{E}$ ). If  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are two measures on  $\mathcal{M}$  which are  $\sigma$ -finite on  $\mathcal{E}$  and such that  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathcal{E}$  then  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $\mathcal{A} := \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{E})$  be the algebra generated by  $\mathcal{E}$ . Since every element of  $\mathcal{A}$  is a disjoint union of elements from  $\mathcal{E}$ , it is clear that  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Henceforth we may assume that  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{A}$ . We begin first with the special case where  $\mu(X) < \infty$  and hence  $\nu(X) = \mu(X) < \infty$ . Let

$$\mathcal{C} = \{A \in \mathcal{M} : \mu(A) = \nu(A)\}$$

The reader may easily check that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a monotone class. Since  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{C}$ , the monotone class lemma asserts that  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{A}) \subset \mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{M}$  showing that  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{M}$  and hence that  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ .

For the  $\sigma$ -finite case, let  $X_n \in \mathcal{A}$  be sets such that  $\mu(X_n) = \nu(X_n) < \infty$  and  $X_n \uparrow X$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let

$$(6.1) \quad \mu_n(A) := \mu(A \cap X_n) \text{ and } \nu_n(A) = \nu(A \cap X_n)$$

for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ . Then one easily checks that  $\mu_n$  and  $\nu_n$  are finite measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  such that  $\mu_n = \nu_n$  on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Therefore, by what we have just proved,  $\mu_n = \nu_n$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ . Hence for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , using the continuity of measures,

$$\mu(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A \cap X_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A \cap X_n) = \nu(A).$$

■

**Lemma 6.6.** *If  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\lambda_0$ -class which contains a  $\pi$ -class,  $\mathcal{C}$ , then  $\mathcal{D}$  contains  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$  – the algebra generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ .*

**Proof.** We will give two proofs of this lemma. The first proof is “constructive” and makes use of Proposition 4.9 which tells how to construct  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$  from  $\mathcal{C}$ . The key to the first proof is the following claim which will be proved by induction.

**Claim.** Let  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_0 = \mathcal{C}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_n$  denote the collection of subsets of  $X$  of the form

$$(6.2) \quad A_1^c \cap \cdots \cap A_n^c \cap B = B \setminus A_1 \setminus A_2 \setminus \cdots \setminus A_n.$$

with  $A_i \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{C} \cup \{X\}$ . Then  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_n \subset \mathcal{D}$  for all  $n$ , i.e.  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}} := \cup_{n=0}^{\infty} \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_n \subset \mathcal{D}$ .

By assumption  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_0 \subset \mathcal{D}$  and when  $n = 1$ ,

$$B \setminus A_1 = B \setminus (A_1 \cap B) \in \mathcal{D}$$

when  $A_1, B \in \mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$  since  $A_1 \cap B \in \mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$ . Therefore,  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_1 \subset \mathcal{D}$ . For the induction step, let  $B \in \mathcal{C} \cup \{X\}$  and  $A_i \in \mathcal{C} \cup \{X\}$  and let  $E_n$  denote the set in Eq. (6.2) We now assume  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_n \subset \mathcal{D}$  and wish to show  $E_{n+1} \in \mathcal{D}$ , where

$$E_{n+1} = E_n \setminus A_{n+1} = E_n \setminus (A_{n+1} \cap E_n).$$

Because

$$A_{n+1} \cap E_n = A_1^c \cap \cdots \cap A_n^c \cap (B \cap A_{n+1}) \in \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_n \subset \mathcal{D}$$

and  $(A_{n+1} \cap E_n) \subset E_n \in \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_n \subset \mathcal{D}$ , we have  $E_{n+1} \in \mathcal{D}$  as well. This finishes the proof of the claim.

Notice that  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}$  is still a multiplicative class and from Proposition 4.9 (using the fact that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a multiplicative class),  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$  consists of finite unions of elements from  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}$ . By applying the claim to  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}$ ,  $A_1^c \cap \cdots \cap A_n^c \in \mathcal{D}$  for all  $A_i \in \tilde{\mathcal{C}}$  and hence

$$A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n = (A_1^c \cap \cdots \cap A_n^c)^c \in \mathcal{D}.$$

Thus we have shown  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}$  which completes the proof.

**(Second Proof.)** With out loss of generality, we may assume that  $\mathcal{D}$  is the smallest  $\lambda_0$ -class containing  $\mathcal{C}$  for if not just replace  $\mathcal{D}$  by the intersection of all  $\lambda_0$ -classes containing  $\mathcal{C}$ . Let

$$\mathcal{D}_1 := \{A \in \mathcal{D} : A \cap C \in \mathcal{D} \forall C \in \mathcal{C}\}.$$

Then  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}_1$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1$  is also a  $\lambda_0$ -class as we now check. a)  $X \in \mathcal{D}_1$ . b) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}_1$  with  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $(A \cup B) \cap C = (A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C) \in \mathcal{D}$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ . c) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}_1$  with  $B \subset A$ , then  $(A \setminus B) \cap C = A \cap C \setminus (B \cap C) \in \mathcal{D}$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ . Since

$\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}_1 \subset \mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  is the smallest  $\lambda_0$ -class containing  $\mathcal{C}$  it follows that  $\mathcal{D}_1 = \mathcal{D}$ . From this we conclude that if  $A \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{C}$  then  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{D}$ .

Let

$$\mathcal{D}_2 := \{A \in \mathcal{D} : A \cap D \in \mathcal{D} \forall D \in \mathcal{D}\}.$$

Then  $\mathcal{D}_2$  is a  $\lambda_0$ -class (as you should check) which, by the above paragraph, contains  $\mathcal{C}$ . As above this implies that  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_2$ , i.e. we have shown that  $\mathcal{D}$  is closed under finite intersections. Since  $\lambda_0$ -classes are closed under complementation,  $\mathcal{D}$  is an algebra and hence  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}$ . In fact  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$ . ■

This Lemma along with the monotone class theorem immediately implies Dynkin's very useful " $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem."

**Theorem 6.7** ( $\pi$ - $\lambda$  Theorem). *If  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\lambda$  class which contains a  $\pi$ -class,  $\mathcal{C}$ , then  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\lambda_0$ -class, Lemma 6.6 implies that  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}$  and so by Remark 6.3 and Lemma 6.4,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}$ . Let us pause to give a second stand-alone proof of this Theorem.

(**Second Proof.**) Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $\mathcal{D}$  is the smallest  $\lambda$ -class containing  $\mathcal{C}$  for if not just replace  $\mathcal{D}$  by the intersection of all  $\lambda$ -classes containing  $\mathcal{C}$ . Let

$$\mathcal{D}_1 := \{A \in \mathcal{D} : A \cap C \in \mathcal{D} \forall C \in \mathcal{C}\}.$$

Then  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}_1$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1$  is also a  $\lambda$ -class because as we now check. a)  $X \in \mathcal{D}_1$ . b) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}_1$  with  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $(A \cup B) \cap C = (A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C) \in \mathcal{D}$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ . c) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}_1$  with  $B \subset A$ , then  $(A \setminus B) \cap C = A \cap C \setminus (B \cap C) \in \mathcal{D}$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ . d) If  $A_n \in \mathcal{D}_1$  and  $A_n \uparrow A$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $A_n \cap C \in \mathcal{D}$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$  and hence  $A_n \cap C \uparrow A \cap C \in \mathcal{D}$ . Since  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}_1 \subset \mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  is the smallest  $\lambda$ -class containing  $\mathcal{C}$  it follows that  $\mathcal{D}_1 = \mathcal{D}$ . From this we conclude that if  $A \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{C}$  then  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{D}$ .

Let

$$\mathcal{D}_2 := \{A \in \mathcal{D} : A \cap D \in \mathcal{D} \forall D \in \mathcal{D}\}.$$

Then  $\mathcal{D}_2$  is a  $\lambda$ -class (as you should check) which, by the above paragraph, contains  $\mathcal{C}$ . As above this implies that  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_2$ , i.e. we have shown that  $\mathcal{D}$  is closed under finite intersections.

Since  $\lambda$ -classes are closed under complementation,  $\mathcal{D}$  is an algebra which is closed under increasing unions and hence is closed under arbitrary countable unions, i.e.  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. Since  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$  we must have  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}$  and in fact  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{D}$ . ■

Using this theorem we may strengthen Theorem 6.8 to the following.

**Theorem 6.8** (Uniqueness). *Suppose that  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a  $\pi$ -class such that  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ . If  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are two measures on  $\mathcal{M}$  and there exists  $X_n \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $X_n \uparrow X$  and  $\mu(X_n) = \nu(X_n) < \infty$  for each  $n$ , then  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ .*

**Proof.** As in the proof of Theorem 6.5, it suffices to consider the case where  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are finite measure such that  $\mu(X) = \nu(X) < \infty$ . In this case the reader may easily verify from the basic properties of measures that

$$\mathcal{D} = \{A \in \mathcal{M} : \mu(A) = \nu(A)\}$$

is a  $\lambda$ -class. By assumption  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$  and hence by the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem,  $\mathcal{D}$  contains  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ . ■

As an immediate consequence we have the following corollaries.

**Corollary 6.9.** *Suppose that  $(X, \tau)$  is a topological space,  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\tau)$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $X$  and  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are two measures on  $\mathcal{M}$  which are  $\sigma$ -finite on  $\tau$ . If  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\tau$  then  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ , i.e.  $\mu \equiv \nu$ .*

**Corollary 6.10.** *Suppose that  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are two measures on  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  which are finite on bounded sets and such that  $\mu(A) = \nu(A)$  for all sets  $A$  of the form*

$$A = (a, b] = (a_1, b_1] \times \cdots \times (a_n, b_n]$$

*with  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $a \leq b$ , i.e.  $a_i \leq b_i$  for all  $i$ . Then  $\mu = \nu$  on  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ .*

To end this section we wish to reformulate the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem in a function theoretic setting.

**Theorem 6.11.** *Let  $X$  be a set and  $\mathcal{H}$  be a subspace of  $B(X, \mathbb{R})$  - the space of bounded real valued functions on  $X$ . Assume:*

- (1)  $1 \in \mathcal{H}$ , i.e. the constant functions are in  $\mathcal{H}$  and
- (2)  $\mathcal{H}$  is closed under bounded convergence, i.e. if  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathcal{H}$  is a sequence of functions such that  $M := \sup_n \|f_n\|_\infty < \infty$  and  $f(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$  exists for all  $x \in X$  then  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ .

*If  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a multiplicative class such that  $1_A \in \mathcal{H}$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ , then  $\mathcal{H}$  contains all bounded  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ -measurable functions.*

**Proof.** Let  $\mathcal{D} := \{A \subset X : 1_A \in \mathcal{H}\}$ . Then by assumption  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$  and since  $1 \in \mathcal{H}$  we know  $X \in \mathcal{D}$ . If  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$  are disjoint then  $1_{A \cup B} = 1_A + 1_B \in \mathcal{H}$  so that  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{D}$  and if  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $A \subset B$ , then  $1_{B \setminus A} = 1_B - 1_A \in \mathcal{H}$ . Finally if  $A_n \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $A_n \uparrow A$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  then  $1_{A_n} \rightarrow 1_A$  boundedly so  $1_A \in \mathcal{H}$  and hence  $A \in \mathcal{D}$ . So  $\mathcal{D}$  is  $\lambda$ -class containing  $\mathcal{C}$  and hence  $\mathcal{D}$  contains  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ . From this it follows that  $\mathcal{H}$  contains  $1_A$  for all  $A \in \sigma(\mathcal{C})$  and hence all  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ -measurable simple functions by linearity. The proof is now complete with an application of the approximation Theorem 5.13 along with the assumption that  $\mathcal{H}$  is closed under bounded convergence. ■

**Corollary 6.12.** *Suppose that  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\tau_d)$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $X$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  is a subspace of  $B(X, \mathbb{R})$  such that  $C_b(X, \mathbb{R}) \subset \mathcal{H}$  ( $C_b(X, \mathbb{R})$  - the bounded continuous functions on  $X$ ) and  $\mathcal{H}$  is closed under bounded convergence. Then  $\mathcal{H}$  contains all bounded  $\mathcal{M}$ -measurable real valued functions on  $X$ . (This may be paraphrased as follows. The smallest vector space of bounded functions which is closed under bounded convergence and contains  $C_b(X, \mathbb{R})$  is the space of bounded  $\mathcal{M}$ -measurable real valued functions on  $X$ .)*

**Proof.** Let  $V \in \tau_d$  be an open subset of  $X$  and for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  let

$$f_n(x) := \min(n \cdot d_{V^c}(x), 1) \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

Notice that  $f_n = \phi_n \circ d_{V^c}$  where  $\phi_n(t) = \min(nt, 1)$  which is continuous and hence  $f_n \in C_b(X, \mathbb{R})$  for all  $n$ . Furthermore,  $f_n$  converges boundedly to  $1_V$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and therefore  $1_V \in \mathcal{H}$  for all  $V \in \tau$ . Since  $\tau$  is a  $\pi$ -class the corollary follows by an application of Theorem 6.11. ■

Here is a basic application of this corollary.

**Proposition 6.13.** *Suppose that  $(X, d)$  is a metric space,  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are two measures on  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\tau_d)$  which are finite on bounded measurable subsets of  $X$  and*

$$(6.3) \quad \int_X f d\mu = \int_X f d\nu$$

for all  $f \in C_b(X, \mathbb{R})$  such that  $\text{supp}(f)$  is bounded. Then  $\mu \equiv \nu$ .

**Proof.** To prove this fix a  $o \in X$  and let

$$\psi_R(x) = ([R + 1 - d(x, o)] \wedge 1) \vee 0$$

so that  $\psi_R \in C_b(X, [0, 1])$ ,  $\text{supp}(\psi_R) \subset B(o, R + 2)$  and  $\psi_R \uparrow 1$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . Let  $\mathcal{H}_R$  denote the space of bounded measurable functions  $f$  such that

$$(6.4) \quad \int_X \psi_R f d\mu = \int_X \psi_R f d\nu.$$

Then  $\mathcal{H}$  is closed under bounded convergence and because of Eq. (6.3) contains  $C_b(X, \mathbb{R})$ . Therefore by Corollary 6.12,  $\mathcal{H}_R$  contains all bounded measurable functions on  $X$ . Take  $f = 1_A$  in Eq. (6.4) with  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , and then use the monotone convergence theorem to let  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . The result is  $\mu(A) = \nu(A)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ . ■

**6.2. Fubini-Tonelli's Theorem and Product Measure.** Recall that  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N}, \nu)$  are fixed measure spaces.

**Notation 6.14.** Suppose that  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  are functions, let  $f \otimes g$  denote the function on  $X \times Y$  given by

$$f \otimes g(x, y) = f(x)g(y).$$

Notice that if  $f, g$  are measurable, then  $f \otimes g$  is  $(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{C}})$ -measurable. To prove this let  $F(x, y) = f(x)$  and  $G(x, y) = g(y)$  so that  $f \otimes g = F \cdot G$  will be measurable provided that  $F$  and  $G$  are measurable. Now  $F = f \circ \pi_1$  where  $\pi_1 : X \times Y \rightarrow X$  is the projection map. This shows that  $F$  is the composition of measurable functions and hence measurable. Similarly one shows that  $G$  is measurable.

**Theorem 6.15.** *Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N}, \nu)$  are  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces and  $f$  is a nonnegative  $(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable function, then for each  $y \in Y$ ,*

$$(6.5) \quad x \rightarrow f(x, y) \text{ is } \mathcal{M} - \mathcal{B}_{[0, \infty]} \text{ measurable,}$$

for each  $x \in X$ ,

$$(6.6) \quad y \rightarrow f(x, y) \text{ is } \mathcal{N} - \mathcal{B}_{[0, \infty]} \text{ measurable,}$$

$$(6.7) \quad x \rightarrow \int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y) \text{ is } \mathcal{M} - \mathcal{B}_{[0, \infty]} \text{ measurable,}$$

$$(6.8) \quad y \rightarrow \int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x) \text{ is } \mathcal{N} - \mathcal{B}_{[0, \infty]} \text{ measurable,}$$

and

$$(6.9) \quad \int_X d\mu(x) \int_Y d\nu(y) f(x, y) = \int_Y d\nu(y) \int_X d\mu(x) f(x, y).$$

**Proof.** Suppose that  $E = A \times B \in \mathcal{E} := \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{N}$  and  $f = 1_E$ . Then

$$f(x, y) = 1_{A \times B}(x, y) = 1_A(x)1_B(y)$$

and one sees that Eqs. (6.5) and (6.6) hold. Moreover

$$\int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y) = \int_Y 1_A(x)1_B(y) d\nu(y) = 1_A(x)\nu(B),$$

so that Eq. (6.7) holds and we have

$$\int_X d\mu(x) \int_Y d\nu(y) f(x, y) = \nu(B)\mu(A).$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x) &= \mu(A)1_B(y) \text{ and} \\ \int_Y d\nu(y) \int_X d\mu(x) f(x, y) &= \nu(B)\mu(A) \end{aligned}$$

from which it follows that Eqs. (6.8) and (6.9) hold in this case as well.

For the moment let us further assume that  $\mu(X) < \infty$  and  $\nu(Y) < \infty$  and let  $H$  be the collection of all bounded  $(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable functions on  $X \times Y$  such that Eqs. (6.5) – (6.9) hold. Using the fact that measurable functions are closed under pointwise limits and the dominated convergence theorem (the dominating function always being a constant), one easily shows that  $H$  closed under bounded convergence. Since we have just verified that  $1_E \in H$  for all  $E$  in the  $\pi$ -class,  $\mathcal{E}$ , it follows that  $H$  is the space of all bounded  $(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable functions on  $X \times Y$ . Finally if  $f : X \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a  $(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable function, let  $f_M = M \wedge f$  so that  $f_M \uparrow f$  as  $M \rightarrow \infty$  and Eqs. (6.5) – (6.9) hold with  $f$  replaced by  $f_M$  for all  $M \in \mathbb{N}$ . Repeated use of the monotone convergence theorem allows us to pass to the limit  $M \rightarrow \infty$  in these equations to deduce the theorem in the case  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are finite measures.

For the  $\sigma$ -finite case, choose  $X_n \in \mathcal{M}$ ,  $Y_n \in \mathcal{N}$  such that  $X_n \uparrow X$ ,  $Y_n \uparrow Y$ ,  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$  and  $\nu(Y_n) < \infty$  for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then define  $\mu_m(A) = \mu(X_m \cap A)$  and  $\nu_n(B) = \nu(Y_n \cap B)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{N}$  or equivalently  $d\mu_m = 1_{X_m} d\mu$  and  $d\nu_n = 1_{Y_n} d\nu$ . By what we have just proved Eqs. (6.5) – (6.9) with  $\mu$  replaced by  $\mu_m$  and  $\nu$  by  $\nu_n$  for all  $(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable functions,  $f : X \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ . The validity of Eqs. (6.5) – (6.9) then follows by passing to the limits  $m \rightarrow \infty$  and then  $n \rightarrow \infty$  using the monotone convergence theorem again to conclude

$$\int_X f d\mu_m = \int_X f 1_{X_m} d\mu \uparrow \int_X f d\mu \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty$$

and

$$\int_Y g d\mu_n = \int_Y g 1_{Y_n} d\mu \uparrow \int_Y g d\mu \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

for all  $f \in L^+(X, \mathcal{M})$  and  $g \in L^+(Y, \mathcal{N})$ . ■

**Corollary 6.16.** *Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N}, \nu)$  are  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces. Then there exists a unique measure  $\pi$  on  $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$  such that  $\pi(A \times B) = \mu(A)\nu(B)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{N}$ . Moreover  $\pi$  is given by*

$$(6.10) \quad \pi(E) = \int_X d\mu(x) \int_Y d\nu(y) 1_E(x, y) = \int_Y d\nu(y) \int_X d\mu(x) 1_E(x, y)$$

for all  $E \in \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$  and  $\pi$  is  $\sigma$ -finite.

**Notation 6.17.** The measure  $\pi$  is called the product measure of  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  and will be denoted by  $\mu \otimes \nu$ .

**Proof.** Notice that any measure  $\pi$  such that  $\pi(A \times B) = \mu(A)\nu(B)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{N}$  is necessarily  $\sigma$ -finite. Indeed, let  $X_n \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $Y_n \in \mathcal{N}$  be chosen so that  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$ ,  $\nu(Y_n) < \infty$ ,  $X_n \uparrow X$  and  $Y_n \uparrow Y$ , then  $X_n \times Y_n \in \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$ ,  $X_n \times Y_n \uparrow X \times Y$  and  $\pi(X_n \times Y_n) < \infty$  for all  $n$ . The uniqueness assertion is a consequence of either Theorem 6.5 or by Theorem 6.8 with  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{N}$ . For the existence, it suffices to observe, using the monotone convergence theorem, that  $\pi$  defined in Eq. (6.10) is a measure on  $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$ . Moreover this measure satisfies  $\pi(A \times B) = \mu(A)\nu(B)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{N}$  from Eq. (55.10). ■

**Theorem 6.18** (Tonelli's Theorem). *Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N}, \nu)$  are  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces and  $\pi = \mu \otimes \nu$  be the product measure on  $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$ . If  $f \in L^+(X \times Y, \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N})$ , then  $f(\cdot, y) \in L^+(X, \mathcal{M})$  for all  $y \in Y$ ,  $f(x, \cdot) \in L^+(Y, \mathcal{N})$  for all  $x \in X$ ,*

$$\int_Y f(\cdot, y) d\nu(y) \in L^+(X, \mathcal{M}), \quad \int_X f(x, \cdot) d\mu(x) \in L^+(Y, \mathcal{N})$$

and

$$(6.11) \quad \int_{X \times Y} f d\pi = \int_X d\mu(x) \int_Y d\nu(y) f(x, y)$$

$$(6.12) \quad = \int_Y d\nu(y) \int_X d\mu(x) f(x, y).$$

**Proof.** By Theorem 6.15 and Corollary 6.16, the theorem holds when  $f = 1_E$  with  $E \in \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$ . Using the linearity of all of the statements, the theorem is also true for non-negative simple functions. Then using the monotone convergence theorem repeatedly along with Theorem 5.13, one deduces the theorem for general  $f \in L^+(X \times Y, \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N})$ . ■

**Theorem 6.19** (Fubini's Theorem). *Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N}, \nu)$  are  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces and  $\pi = \mu \otimes \nu$  be the product measure on  $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$ . If  $f \in L^1(\pi)$  then for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$ ,  $f(x, \cdot) \in L^1(\nu)$  and for  $\nu$  a.e.  $y$ ,  $f(\cdot, y) \in L^1(\mu)$ . Moreover,*

$$g(x) = \int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y) \text{ and } h(y) = \int_X f(x, y) d\mu(x)$$

are in  $L^1(\mu)$  and  $L^1(\nu)$  respectively and Eq. (6.12) holds.

**Proof.** If  $f \in L^1(X \times Y) \cap L^+$  then by Eq. (6.11),

$$\int_X \left( \int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y) \right) d\mu(x) < \infty$$

so  $\int_Y f(x, y) d\nu(y) < \infty$  for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$ , i.e. for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$ ,  $f(x, \cdot) \in L^1(\nu)$ . Similarly for  $\nu$  a.e.  $y$ ,  $f(\cdot, y) \in L^1(\mu)$ . Let  $f$  be a real valued function in  $f \in L^1(X \times Y)$  and let  $f = f_+ - f_-$ . Apply the results just proved to  $f_{\pm}$  to conclude,  $f_{\pm}(x, \cdot) \in L^1(\nu)$  for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$  and that

$$\int_Y f_{\pm}(\cdot, y) d\nu(y) \in L^1(\mu).$$

Therefore for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$ ,

$$f(x, \cdot) = f_+(x, \cdot) - f_-(x, \cdot) \in L^1(\nu)$$

and

$$x \rightarrow \int f(x, y) d\nu(y) = \int f_+(x, \cdot) d\nu(y) - \int f_-(x, \cdot) d\nu(y)$$

is a  $\mu$ -almost everywhere defined function such that  $\int f(\cdot, y) d\nu(y) \in L^1(\mu)$ . Because

$$\begin{aligned} \int f_{\pm}(x, y) d(\mu \otimes \nu) &= \int d\mu(x) \int d\nu(y) f_{\pm}(x, y), \\ \int f d(\mu \otimes \nu) &= \int f_+ d(\mu \otimes \nu) - \int f_- d(\mu \otimes \nu) \\ &= \int d\mu \int d\nu f_+ - \int d\mu \int d\nu f_- \\ &= \int d\mu \left( \int f_+ d\nu - \int f_- d\nu \right) \\ &= \int d\mu \int d\nu (f_+ - f_-) = \int d\mu \int d\nu f. \end{aligned}$$

The proof that

$$\int f d(\mu \otimes \nu) = \int d\nu(y) \int d\mu(x) f(x, y)$$

is analogous. As usual the complex case follows by applying the real results just proved to the real and imaginary parts of  $f$ . ■

**Notation 6.20.** Given  $E \subset X \times Y$  and  $x \in X$ , let

$${}_x E := \{y \in Y : (x, y) \in E\}.$$

Similarly if  $y \in Y$  is given let

$$E_y := \{x \in X : (x, y) \in E\}.$$

If  $f : X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a function let  $f_x = f(x, \cdot)$  and  $f^y := f(\cdot, y)$  so that  $f_x : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $f^y : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

**Theorem 6.21.** *Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{N}, \nu)$  are complete  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces. Let  $(X \times Y, \mathcal{L}, \lambda)$  be the completion of  $(X \times Y, \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mu \otimes \nu)$ . If  $f$  is  $\mathcal{L}$ -measurable and (a)  $f \geq 0$  or (b)  $f \in L^1(\lambda)$  then  $f_x$  is  $\mathcal{N}$ -measurable for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$  and  $f^y$  is  $\mathcal{M}$ -measurable for  $\nu$  a.e.  $y$  and in case (b)  $f_x \in L^1(\nu)$  and  $f^y \in L^1(\mu)$  for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$  and  $\nu$  a.e.  $y$  respectively. Moreover,*

$$x \rightarrow \int f_x d\nu \text{ and } y \rightarrow \int f^y d\mu$$

are measurable and

$$\int f d\lambda = \int d\nu \int d\mu f = \int d\mu \int d\nu f.$$

**Proof.** If  $E \in \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}$  is a  $\mu \otimes \nu$  null set ( $(\mu \otimes \nu)(E) = 0$ ), then

$$0 = (\mu \otimes \nu)(E) = \int_X \nu({}_x E) d\mu(x) = \int_Y \mu(E_y) d\nu(y).$$

This shows that

$$\mu(\{x : \nu({}_x E) \neq 0\}) = 0 \text{ and } \nu(\{y : \mu(E_y) \neq 0\}) = 0,$$

i.e.  $\nu({}_x E) = 0$  for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$  and  $\mu(E_y) = 0$  for  $\nu$  a.e.  $y$ .

If  $h$  is  $\mathcal{L}$  measurable and  $h = 0$  for  $\lambda$ - a.e., then there exists  $E \in \mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N} \ni \{(x, y) : h(x, y) \neq 0\} \subseteq E$  and  $(\mu \otimes \nu)(E) = 0$ . Therefore  $|h(x, y)| \leq 1_E(x, y)$  and  $(\mu \otimes \nu)(E) = 0$ . Since

$$\begin{aligned} \{h_x \neq 0\} &= \{y \in Y : h(x, y) \neq 0\} \subset {}_x E \text{ and} \\ \{h_y \neq 0\} &= \{x \in X : h(x, y) \neq 0\} \subset E_y \end{aligned}$$

we learn that for  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$  and  $\nu$  a.e.  $y$  that  $\{h_x \neq 0\} \in \mathcal{M}$ ,  $\{h_y \neq 0\} \in \mathcal{N}$ ,  $\nu(\{h_x \neq 0\}) = 0$  and a.e. and  $\mu(\{h_y \neq 0\}) = 0$ . This implies

$$\begin{aligned} \text{for } \nu \text{ a.e. } y, \int h(x, y) d\nu(y) \text{ exists and equals } 0 \\ \text{and} \\ \text{for } \mu \text{ a.e. } x, \int h(x, y) d\mu(y) \text{ exists and equals } 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$0 = \int h d\lambda = \int \left( \int h d\mu \right) d\nu = \int \left( \int h d\nu \right) d\mu.$$

For general  $f \in L^1(\lambda)$ , we may choose  $g \in L^1(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}, \mu \otimes \nu)$  such that  $f(x, y) = g(x, y)$  for  $\lambda$ - a.e.  $(x, y)$ . Define  $h \equiv f - g$ . Then  $h = 0$ ,  $\lambda$ - a.e. Hence by what we have just proved and Theorem 6.18  $f = g + h$  has the following properties:

- (1) For  $\mu$  a.e.  $x$ ,  $y \rightarrow f(x, y) = g(x, y) + h(x, y)$  is in  $L^1(\nu)$  and

$$\int f(x, y) d\nu(y) = \int g(x, y) d\nu(y).$$

- (2) For  $\nu$  a.e.  $y$ ,  $x \rightarrow f(x, y) = g(x, y) + h(x, y)$  is in  $L^1(\mu)$  and

$$\int f(x, y) d\mu(x) = \int g(x, y) d\mu(x).$$

From these assertions and Theorem 6.18, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \int d\mu(x) \int d\nu(y) f(x, y) &= \int d\mu(x) \int d\nu(y) g(x, y) \\ &= \int d\nu(y) \int d\mu(x) g(x, y) \\ &= \int g(x, y) d(\mu \otimes \nu)(x, y) \\ &= \int f(x, y) d\lambda(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

and similarly we shows

$$\int d\nu(y) \int d\mu(x) f(x, y) = \int f(x, y) d\lambda(x, y).$$

■

The previous theorems have obvious generalizations to products of any finite number of  $\sigma$ -compact measure spaces. For example the following theorem holds.

**Theorem 6.22.** *Suppose  $\{(X_i, \mathcal{M}_i, \mu_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  are  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces and  $X := X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$ . Then there exists a unique measure,  $\pi$ , on  $(X, \mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{M}_n)$  such that  $\pi(A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n) = \mu_1(A_1) \cdots \mu_n(A_n)$  for all  $A_i \in \mathcal{M}_i$ . (This measure and its*

completion will be denote by  $\mu_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mu_n$ .) If  $f : X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a measurable function then

$$\int_X f d\pi = \prod_{i=1}^n \int_{X_{\sigma(i)}} d\mu_{\sigma(i)}(x_{\sigma(i)}) f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

where  $\sigma$  is any permutation of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . This equation also holds for any  $f \in L^1(X, \pi)$  and moreover,  $f \in L^1(X, \pi)$  iff

$$\prod_{i=1}^n \int_{X_{\sigma(i)}} d\mu_{\sigma(i)}(x_{\sigma(i)}) |f(x_1, \dots, x_n)| < \infty$$

for some (and hence all) permutation,  $\sigma$ .

This theorem can be proved by the same methods as in the two factor case. Alternatively, one can use induction on  $n$ , see Exercise 6.6.

**Example 6.23.** For any  $\Lambda, M \geq 0$ ,

$$(6.13) \quad \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin x}{x} e^{-\Lambda x} dx = \frac{1}{2}\pi - \arctan \Lambda \text{ for all } \Lambda > 0$$

and

$$(6.14) \quad \left| \int_0^M \frac{\sin x}{x} e^{-\Lambda x} dx - \frac{1}{2}\pi + \arctan \Lambda \right| \leq C \frac{e^{-M\Lambda}}{M}$$

where  $C = \max_{x \geq 0} \frac{1+x}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}-2} \cong 1.2$ . In particular,

$$(6.15) \quad \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^M \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \pi/2.$$

To verify these assertions, first notice that by the fundamental theorem of calculus,

$$|\sin x| = \left| \int_0^x \cos y dy \right| \leq \left| \int_0^x |\cos y| dy \right| \leq \left| \int_0^x 1 dy \right| = |x|$$

so  $\left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| \leq 1$  for all  $x \neq 0$ . Making use of the identity

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-tx} dt = 1/x$$

and Fubini's theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^M \frac{\sin x}{x} e^{-\Lambda x} dx &= \int_0^M dx \sin x e^{-\Lambda x} \int_0^\infty e^{-tx} dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty dt \int_0^M dx \sin x e^{-(\Lambda+t)x} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{1 - (\cos M + (\Lambda + t) \sin M) e^{-M(\Lambda+t)}}{(\Lambda + t)^2 + 1} dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{(\Lambda + t)^2 + 1} dt - \int_0^\infty \frac{\cos M + (\Lambda + t) \sin M}{(\Lambda + t)^2 + 1} e^{-M(\Lambda+t)} dt \\ (6.16) \quad &= \frac{1}{2}\pi - \arctan \Lambda - \epsilon(M, \Lambda) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\epsilon(M, \Lambda) = \int_0^\infty \frac{\cos M + (\Lambda + t) \sin M}{(\Lambda + t)^2 + 1} e^{-M(\Lambda+t)} dt.$$

Since

$$\left| \frac{\cos M + (\Lambda + t) \sin M}{(\Lambda + t)^2 + 1} \right| \leq \frac{1 + (\Lambda + t)}{(\Lambda + t)^2 + 1} \leq C,$$

$$|\epsilon(M, \Lambda)| \leq \int_0^\infty e^{-M(\Lambda+t)} dt = C \frac{e^{-M\Lambda}}{M}.$$

This estimate along with Eq. (6.16) proves Eq. (6.14) from which Eq. (6.15) follows by taking  $\Lambda \rightarrow \infty$  and Eq. (6.13) follows (using the dominated convergence theorem again) by letting  $M \rightarrow \infty$ .

### 6.3. Lebesgue measure on $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

**Notation 6.24.** Let

$$m^d := \overbrace{m \otimes \cdots \otimes m}^{d \text{ times}} \text{ on } \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d} = \overbrace{\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}}^{d \text{ times}}$$

be the  $d$ -fold product of Lebesgue measure  $m$  on  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ . We will also use  $m^d$  to denote its completion and let  $\mathcal{L}_d$  be the completion of  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  relative to  $m$ . A subset  $A \in \mathcal{L}_d$  is called a Lebesgue measurable set and  $m^d$  is called  $d$ -dimensional Lebesgue measure, or just Lebesgue measure for short.

**Definition 6.25.** A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **Lebesgue measurable** if  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}) \subseteq \mathcal{L}_d$ .

**Theorem 6.26.** *Lebesgue measure  $m^d$  is translation invariant. Moreover  $m^d$  is the unique translation invariant measure on  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  such that  $m^d((0, 1]^d) = 1$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $A = J_1 \times \cdots \times J_d$  with  $J_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . Then

$$x + A = (x_1 + J_1) \times (x_2 + J_2) \times \cdots \times (x_d + J_d)$$

and therefore by translation invariance of  $m$  on  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  we find that

$$m^d(x + A) = m(x_1 + J_1) \cdots m(x_d + J_d) = m(J_1) \cdots m(J_d) = m^d(A)$$

and hence  $m^d(x + A) = m^d(A)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  by Corollary 6.10. From this fact we see that the measure  $m^d(x + \cdot)$  and  $m^d(\cdot)$  have the same null sets. Using this it is easily seen that  $m(x + A) = m(A)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{L}_d$ . The proof of the second assertion is Exercise 6.7. ■

**Notation 6.27.** I will often be sloppy in the sequel and write  $m$  for  $m^d$  and  $dx$  for  $dm(x) = dm^d(x)$ . Hopefully the reader will understand the meaning from the context.

The following change of variable theorem is an important tool in using Lebesgue measure.

**Theorem 6.28** (Change of Variables Theorem). *Let  $\Omega \subset_o \mathbb{R}^d$  be an open set and  $T : \Omega \rightarrow T(\Omega) \subset_o \mathbb{R}^d$  be a  $C^1$ -diffeomorphism<sup>11</sup>. Then for any Borel measurable*

<sup>11</sup>That is  $T : \Omega \rightarrow T(\Omega) \subset_o \mathbb{R}^d$  is a continuously differentiable bijection and the inverse map  $T^{-1} : T(\Omega) \rightarrow \Omega$  is also continuously differentiable.

$f : T(\Omega) \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ ,

$$(6.17) \quad \int_{\Omega} f \circ T |\det T'| dm = \int_{T(\Omega)} f dm,$$

where  $T'(x)$  is the linear transformation on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  defined by  $T'(x)v := \frac{d}{dt}|_0 T(x + tv)$ . Alternatively, the  $ij$  – matrix entry of  $T'(x)$  is given by  $T'(x)_{ij} = \partial T_j(x)/\partial x_i$  where  $T(x) = (T_1(x), \dots, T_d(x))$ .

We will postpone the full proof of this theorem until Section 12. However we will give here the proof in the case that  $T$  is linear. The following elementary remark will be used in the proof.

*Remark 6.29.* Suppose that

$$\Omega \xrightarrow{T} T(\Omega) \xrightarrow{S} S(T(\Omega))$$

are two  $C^1$  – diffeomorphisms and Theorem 6.28 holds for  $T$  and  $S$  separately, then it holds for the composition  $S \circ T$ . Indeed

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} f \circ S \circ T |\det (S \circ T)'| dm &= \int_{\Omega} f \circ S \circ T |\det (S' \circ T) T'| dm \\ &= \int_{\Omega} (|\det S'| f \circ S) \circ T |\det T'| dm \\ &= \int_{T(\Omega)} |\det S'| f \circ S dm = \int_{S(T(\Omega))} f dm. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 6.30.** Suppose  $T \in GL(d, \mathbb{R})$  – the space of  $d \times d$  invertible matrices.

(1) If  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is Borel – measurable then so is  $f \circ T$  and if  $f \geq 0$  or  $f \in L^1$  then

$$(6.18) \quad \int f(y) dy = |\det T| \int f \circ T(x) dx.$$

(2) If  $E \in \mathcal{L}_d$  then  $T(E) \in \mathcal{L}_d$  and  $m(T(E)) = |\det T| m(E)$ .

**Proof.** Since  $f$  is Borel measurable and  $T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is continuous and hence Borel measurable,  $f \circ T$  is also Borel measurable. We now break the proof of Eq. (6.18) into a number of cases. In each case we make use Tonelli’s theorem and the basic properties of one dimensional Lebesgue measure.

(1) Suppose that  $i < k$  and

$$T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) = (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_k, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_i, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_d)$$

then by Tonelli’s theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \int f \circ T(x_1, \dots, x_d) &= \int f(x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_d \\ &= \int f(x_1, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_d \end{aligned}$$

which prove Eq. (6.18) in this case since  $|\det T| = 1$ .

(2) Suppose that  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $T(x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_d) = (x_1, \dots, cx_k, \dots, x_d)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \int f \circ T(x_1, \dots, x_d) dm &= \int f(x_1, \dots, cx_k, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_k \dots dx_d \\ &= |c|^{-1} \int f(x_1, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_d \\ &= |\det T|^{-1} \int f dm \end{aligned}$$

which again proves Eq. (6.18) in this case.

(3) Suppose that

$$T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) = (x_1, \dots, x_i + \overset{\text{i'th spot}}{cx_k}, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_d).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int f \circ T(x_1, \dots, x_d) dm &= \int f(x_1, \dots, x_i + cx_k, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_i \dots dx_k \dots dx_d \\ &= \int f(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_i \dots dx_k \dots dx_d \\ &= \int f(x_1, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_d \end{aligned}$$

where in the second inequality we did the  $x_i$  integral first and used translation invariance of Lebesgue measure. Again this proves Eq. (6.18) in this case since  $\det(T) = 1$ .

Since every invertible matrix is a product of matrices of the type occurring in steps 1. – 3. above, it follows by Remark 6.29 that Eq. (6.18) holds in general. For the second assertion, let  $E \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  and take  $f = 1_E$  in Eq. (6.18) to find

$$|\det T| m(T^{-1}(E)) = |\det T| \int 1_{T^{-1}(E)} dm = |\det T| \int 1_{E \circ T} dm = \int 1_E dm = m(E).$$

Replacing  $T$  by  $T^{-1}$  in this equation shows that

$$m(T(E)) = |\det T| m(E)$$

for all  $E \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$ . In particular this shows that  $m \circ T$  and  $m$  have the same null sets and therefore the completion of  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  is  $\mathcal{L}_d$  for both measures. Using Proposition 5.7 one now easily shows

$$m(T(E)) = |\det T| m(E) \quad \forall E \in \mathcal{L}_d.$$

■

**6.4. Polar Coordinates and Surface Measure.** Let

$$S^{d-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : |x|^2 := \sum_{i=1}^d x_i^2 = 1\}$$

be the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Let  $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow (0, \infty) \times S^{d-1}$  and  $\Phi^{-1}$  be the inverse map given by

$$(6.19) \quad \Phi(x) := \left(|x|, \frac{x}{|x|}\right) \text{ and } \Phi^{-1}(r, \omega) = r\omega$$

respectively. Since  $\Phi$  and  $\Phi^{-1}$  are continuous, they are Borel measurable.

Consider the measure  $\Phi_*m$  on  $\mathcal{B}_{(0,\infty)} \otimes \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}$  given by

$$\Phi_*m(A) := m(\Phi^{-1}(A))$$

for all  $A \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,\infty)} \otimes \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}$ . For  $E \in \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}$  and  $a > 0$ , let

$$E_a := \{r\omega : r \in (0, a] \text{ and } \omega \in E\} = \Phi^{-1}((0, a] \times E) \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}.$$

Noting that  $E_a = aE_1$ , we have for  $0 < a < b$ ,  $E \in \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}$ ,  $E$  and  $A = (a, b] \times E$  that

$$(6.20) \quad \Phi^{-1}(A) = \{r\omega : r \in (a, b] \text{ and } \omega \in E\}$$

$$(6.21) \quad = bE_1 \setminus aE_1.$$

Therefore,

$$(6.22) \quad \begin{aligned} (\Phi_*m)((a, b] \times E) &= m(bE_1 \setminus aE_1) = m(bE_1) - m(aE_1) \\ &= b^d m(E_1) - a^d m(E_1) \\ &= d \cdot m(E_1) \int_a^b r^{d-1} dr. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\rho$  denote the unique measure on  $\mathcal{B}_{(0,\infty)}$  such that

$$(6.23) \quad \rho(J) = \int_J r^{d-1} dr$$

for all  $J \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,\infty)}$ . Symbolically, we will abbreviate this by writing  $\rho(dr) = r^{d-1} dr$ .

**Definition 6.31.** For  $E \in \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}$ , let  $\sigma(E) := d \cdot m(E_1)$ . We call  $\sigma$  the surface measure on  $S$ .

It is easy to check that  $\sigma$  is a measure. Indeed if  $E \in \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}$ , then  $E_1 = \Phi^{-1}((0, 1] \times E) \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  so that  $m(E_1)$  is well defined. Moreover if  $E = \coprod_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i$ , then  $E_1 = \coprod_{i=1}^{\infty} (E_i)_1$  and

$$\sigma(E) = d \cdot m(E_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} m((E_i)_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sigma(E_i).$$

The intuition behind this definition is as follows. If  $E \subset S^{d-1}$  is a set and  $\epsilon > 0$  is a small number, then the volume of

$$(1, 1 + \epsilon] \cdot E = \{r\omega : r \in (1, 1 + \epsilon] \text{ and } \omega \in E\}$$

should be approximately given by  $m((1, 1 + \epsilon] \cdot E) \cong \sigma(E)\epsilon$ . On the other hand

$$m((1, 1 + \epsilon]E) = m(E_{1+\epsilon} \setminus E_1) = \{(1 + \epsilon)^d - 1\} m(E_1).$$

Therefore we expect the area of  $E$  should be given by

$$\sigma(E) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{\{(1 + \epsilon)^d - 1\} m(E_1)}{\epsilon} = d \cdot m(E_1).$$

According to these definitions and Eq. (6.22) we have shown that

$$(6.24) \quad \Phi_*m((a, b] \times E) = \rho((a, b]) \cdot \sigma(E).$$

Let

$$\mathcal{E} = \{(a, b] \times E : 0 < a < b, E \in \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}\},$$

then  $\mathcal{E}$  is an elementary class. Since  $\sigma(\mathcal{E}) = \mathcal{B}_{(0,\infty)} \otimes \mathcal{B}_{S^{d-1}}$ , we conclude from Eq. (6.24) that

$$\Phi_* m = \rho \otimes \sigma$$

and this implies the following theorem.

**Theorem 6.32.** *If  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a  $(\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}, \mathcal{B})$ -measurable function then*

$$(6.25) \quad \int f(x) dm(x) = \int_{[0,\infty) \times S} f(r \omega) d\sigma(\omega) r^{d-1} dr.$$

Let us now work out some integrals using Eq. (6.25).

**Lemma 6.33.** *Let  $a > 0$  and*

$$I_d(a) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-a|x|^2} dm(x).$$

Then  $I_d(a) = (\pi/a)^{d/2}$ .

**Proof.** By Tonelli's theorem and induction,

$$(6.26) \quad \begin{aligned} I_d(a) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times \mathbb{R}} e^{-a|y|^2} e^{-at^2} m_{d-1}(dy) dt \\ &= I_{d-1}(a) I_1(a) = I_1^d(a). \end{aligned}$$

So it suffices to compute:

$$I_2(a) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-a|x|^2} dm(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}} e^{-a(x_1^2 + x_2^2)} dx_1 dx_2.$$

We now make the change of variables, .

$$x_1 = r \cos \theta \text{ and } x_2 = r \sin \theta \text{ for } 0 < r < \infty \text{ and } 0 < \theta < 2\pi.$$

In vector form this transform is

$$x = T(r, \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} r \cos \theta \\ r \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

and the differential and the Jacobian determinant are given by

$$T'(r, \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \det T'(r, \theta) = r \cos^2 \theta + r \sin^2 \theta = r.$$

Notice that  $T : (0, \infty) \times (0, 2\pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \ell$  where  $\ell$  is the ray,  $\ell := \{(x, 0) : x \geq 0\}$  which is a  $m^2$ -null set. Hence by Tonelli's theorem and the change of variable theorem, for any Borel measurable function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x) dx = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\infty f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta.$$

In particular,

$$\begin{aligned} I_2(a) &= \int_0^\infty dr r \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta e^{-ar^2} = 2\pi \int_0^\infty r e^{-ar^2} dr \\ &= 2\pi \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^M r e^{-ar^2} dr = 2\pi \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-ar^2}}{-2a} \Big|_0^M = \frac{2\pi}{2a} = \pi/a. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $I_2(a) = \pi/a$  and the result now follows from Eq. (6.26). ■

**Corollary 6.34.** *The surface area  $\sigma(S^{d-1})$  of the unit sphere  $S^{d-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is*

$$(6.27) \quad \sigma(S^{d-1}) = \frac{2\pi^{d/2}}{\Gamma(d/2)}$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the gamma function given by

$$(6.28) \quad \Gamma(x) := \int_0^\infty r^{x-1} e^{-r} dr$$

Moreover,  $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$  and  $\Gamma(1) = 1$ .

**Proof.** We may alternatively compute  $I_d(1) = \pi^{d/2}$  using Theorem 6.32;

$$\begin{aligned} I_d(1) &= \int_0^\infty dr r^{d-1} e^{-r^2} \int_{S^{d-1}} d\sigma \\ &= \sigma(S^{d-1}) \int_0^\infty r^{d-1} e^{-r^2} dr. \end{aligned}$$

We simplify this last integral by making the change of variables  $u = r^2$  so that  $r = u^{1/2}$  and  $dr = \frac{1}{2}u^{-1/2}du$ . The result is

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty r^{d-1} e^{-r^2} dr &= \int_0^\infty u^{\frac{d-1}{2}} e^{-u} \frac{1}{2}u^{-1/2} du \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty u^{\frac{d}{2}-1} e^{-u} du \\ (6.29) \quad &= \frac{1}{2} \Gamma(d/2). \end{aligned}$$

Collecting these observations implies that

$$\pi^{d/2} = I_d(1) = \frac{1}{2} \sigma(S^{d-1}) \Gamma(d/2)$$

which proves Eq. (6.27).

The computation of  $\Gamma(1)$  is easy and is left to the reader. By Eq. (6.29),

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(1/2) &= 2 \int_0^\infty e^{-r^2} dr = \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-r^2} dr \\ &= I_1(1) = \sqrt{\pi}. \end{aligned}$$

■

### 6.5. Regularity of Measures Theorems.

**Definition 6.35.** Suppose that  $\mathcal{E}$  is a collection of subsets of  $X$ , let  $\mathcal{E}_\sigma$  denote the collection of subsets of  $X$  which are finite or countable unions of sets from  $\mathcal{E}$ . Similarly let  $\mathcal{E}_\delta$  denote the collection of subsets of  $X$  which are finite or countable intersections of sets from  $\mathcal{E}$ . We also write  $\mathcal{E}_{\sigma\delta} = (\mathcal{E}_\sigma)_\delta$  and  $\mathcal{E}_{\delta\sigma} = (\mathcal{E}_\delta)_\sigma$ , etc.

*Remark 6.36.* Notice that if  $C = \cup C_i$  and  $D = \cup D_j$  with  $C_i, D_j \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$ , then

$$C \cap D = \cup_{i,j} (C_i \cap D_j) \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$$

so that  $\mathcal{A}_\sigma$  is closed under finite intersections.

The following theorem shows how recover a measure  $\mu$  on  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  from its values on an algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ .

**Theorem 6.37** (Regularity Theorem). *Let  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be an algebra of sets,  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$  and  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  which is  $\sigma$ -finite on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ ,*

$$(6.30) \quad \mu(A) = \inf \{ \mu(B) : A \subseteq B \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma \}.$$

Moreover, if  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  are given, then there exists  $B \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  such that  $A \subset B$  and  $\mu(B \setminus A) \leq \epsilon$ .

**Proof.** For  $A \subset X$ , define

$$\mu^*(A) = \inf \{ \mu(B) : A \subseteq B \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma \}.$$

We are trying to show  $\mu^* = \mu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ . We will begin by first assuming that  $\mu$  is a finite measure, i.e.  $\mu(X) < \infty$ .

Let

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ B \in \mathcal{M} : \mu^*(B) = \mu(B) \} = \{ B \in \mathcal{M} : \mu^*(B) \leq \mu(B) \}.$$

It is clear that  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{F}$ , so the finite case will be finished by showing  $\mathcal{F}$  is a monotone class. Suppose  $B_n \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $B_n \uparrow B$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $\mu^*(B_n) = \mu(B_n)$  there exists  $A_n \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  such that  $B_n \subset A_n$  and  $\mu(A_n) \leq \mu(B_n) + \epsilon 2^{-n}$  i.e.

$$\mu(A_n \setminus B_n) \leq \epsilon 2^{-n}.$$

Let  $A = \cup_n A_n \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$ , then  $B \subset A$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(A \setminus B) &= \mu(\cup_n (A_n \setminus B)) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu((A_n \setminus B)) \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu((A_n \setminus B_n)) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \epsilon 2^{-n} = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\mu^*(B) \leq \mu(A) \leq \mu(B) + \epsilon$$

and since  $\epsilon > 0$  was arbitrary it follows that  $B \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Now suppose that  $B_n \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $B_n \downarrow B$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  so that

$$\mu(B_n) \downarrow \mu(B) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

As above choose  $A_n \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  such that  $B_n \subset A_n$  and

$$0 \leq \mu(A_n) - \mu(B_n) = \mu(A_n \setminus B_n) \leq 2^{-n}.$$

Combining the previous two equations shows that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_n) = \mu(B)$ . Since  $\mu^*(B) \leq \mu(A_n)$  for all  $n$ , we conclude that  $\mu^*(B) \leq \mu(B)$ , i.e. that  $B \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Since  $\mathcal{F}$  is a monotone class containing the algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , the monotone class theorem asserts that

$$\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{A}) \subset \mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{M}$$

showing the  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{M}$  and hence that  $\mu^* = \mu$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ .

For the  $\sigma$ -finite case, let  $X_n \in \mathcal{A}$  be sets such that  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$  and  $X_n \uparrow X$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Let  $\mu_n$  be the finite measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  defined by  $\mu_n(A) := \mu(A \cap X_n)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ . Suppose that  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  are given. By what we have just proved, for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , there exists  $B_n \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  such that  $A \subset B_n$  and

$$\mu((B_n \cap X_n) \setminus (A \cap X_n)) = \mu_n(B_n \setminus A) \leq \epsilon 2^{-n}.$$

Notice that since  $X_n \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$ ,  $B_n \cap X_n \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  and

$$B := \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} (B_n \cap X_n) \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma.$$

Moreover,  $A \subset B$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(B \setminus A) &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu((B_n \cap X_n) \setminus A) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu((B_n \cap X_n) \setminus (A \cap X_n)) \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \epsilon 2^{-n} = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Since this implies that

$$\mu(A) \leq \mu(B) \leq \mu(A) + \epsilon$$

and  $\epsilon > 0$  is arbitrary, this equation shows that Eq. (6.30) holds. ■

**Corollary 6.38.** *Let  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be an algebra of sets,  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$  and  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  which is  $\sigma$ -finite on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $B \in \mathcal{A}_\delta$  such that  $B \subset A$  and*

$$\mu(A \setminus B) < \epsilon.$$

Furthermore, for any  $B \in \mathcal{M}$  there exists  $A \in \mathcal{A}_{\delta\sigma}$  and  $C \in \mathcal{A}_{\sigma\delta}$  such that  $A \subset B \subset C$  and  $\mu(C \setminus A) = 0$ .

**Proof.** By Theorem 6.37, there exist  $C \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  such that  $A^c \subset C$  and  $\mu(C \setminus A^c) \leq \epsilon$ . Let  $B = C^c \subset A$  and notice that  $B \in \mathcal{A}_\delta$  and that  $C \setminus A^c = B^c \cap A = A \setminus B$ , so that

$$\mu(A \setminus B) = \mu(C \setminus A^c) \leq \epsilon.$$

Finally, given  $B \in \mathcal{M}$ , we may choose  $A_n \in \mathcal{A}_\delta$  and  $C_n \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  such that  $A_n \subset B \subset C_n$  and  $\mu(C_n \setminus B) \leq 1/n$  and  $\mu(B \setminus A_n) \leq 1/n$ . By replacing  $A_N$  by  $\cup_{n=1}^N A_n$  and  $C_N$  by  $\cap_{n=1}^N C_n$ , we may assume that  $A_n \uparrow$  and  $C_n \downarrow$  as  $n$  increases. Let  $A = \cup A_n \in \mathcal{A}_{\delta\sigma}$  and  $C = \cap C_n \in \mathcal{A}_{\sigma\delta}$ , then  $A \subset B \subset C$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(C \setminus A) &= \mu(C \setminus B) + \mu(B \setminus A) \leq \mu(C_n \setminus B) + \mu(B \setminus A_n) \\ &\leq 2/n \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

■

**Corollary 6.39.** *Let  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be an algebra of sets,  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$  and  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  which is  $\sigma$ -finite on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then for every  $B \in \mathcal{M}$  such that  $\mu(B) < \infty$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $D \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $\mu(B \Delta D) < \epsilon$ .*

**Proof.** By Corollary 6.38, there exists  $C \in \mathcal{A}_\sigma$  such  $B \subset C$  and  $\mu(C \setminus B) < \epsilon$ . Now write  $C = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$  with  $C_n \in \mathcal{A}$  for each  $n$ . By replacing  $C_n$  by  $\cup_{k=1}^n C_k \in \mathcal{A}$  if necessary, we may assume that  $C_n \uparrow C$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Since  $C_n \setminus B \uparrow C \setminus B$  and  $B \setminus C_n \downarrow B \setminus C = \emptyset$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\mu(B \setminus C_1) \leq \mu(B) < \infty$ , we know that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(C_n \setminus B) = \mu(C \setminus B) < \epsilon \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(B \setminus C_n) = \mu(B \setminus C) = 0$$

Hence for  $n$  sufficiently large,

$$\mu(B \Delta C_n) = (\mu(C_n \setminus B) + \mu(B \setminus C_n)) < \epsilon.$$

Hence we are done by taking  $D = C_n \in \mathcal{A}$  for an  $n$  sufficiently large. ■

*Remark 6.40.* We have to assume that  $\mu(B) < \infty$  as the following example shows. Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{B}$ ,  $\mu = m$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  be the algebra generated by half open intervals of the form  $(a, b]$ , and  $B = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} (2n, 2n+1]$ . It is easily checked that for every  $D \in \mathcal{A}$ , that  $m(B \Delta D) = \infty$ .

For Exercises 6.1 – 6.3 let  $\tau \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a topology,  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\tau)$  and  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  be a finite measure ( $\mu(X) < \infty$ ).

**Exercise 6.1.** Let

$$(6.31) \quad \mathcal{F} := \{A \in \mathcal{M} : \mu(A) = \inf \{\mu(V) : A \subseteq V \in \tau\}\}.$$

- (1) Show  $\mathcal{F}$  may be described as the collection of set  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  such that for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $A \subset V \in \tau$  such that  $\mu(V \setminus A) < \epsilon$ .
- (2) Show  $\mathcal{F}$  is a monotone class.

**Exercise 6.2.** Give an example of a topology  $\tau$  on  $X = \{1, 2\}$  and a measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\tau)$  such that  $\mathcal{F}$  defined in Eq. (6.31) is **not**  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Exercise 6.3.** Suppose now  $\tau \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a topology with the property that to every closed set  $C \subset X$ , there exists  $V_n \in \tau$  such that  $V_n \downarrow C$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Let  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}(\tau)$  be the algebra generated by  $\tau$ .

- (1) With the aid of Exercise 4.1, show that  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{F}$ . Therefore by exercise 6.1 and the monotone class theorem,  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{M}$ , i.e.

$$\mu(A) = \inf \{\mu(V) : A \subseteq V \in \tau\}.$$

(**Hint:** Recall the structure of  $\mathcal{A}$  from Exercise 4.1.)

- (2) Show this result is equivalent to following statement: for every  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  there exist a closed set  $C$  and an open set  $V$  such that  $C \subset A \subset V$  and  $\mu(V \setminus C) < \epsilon$ . (**Hint:** Apply part 1. to both  $A$  and  $A^c$ .)

**Exercise 6.4** (Generalization to the  $\sigma$  – finite case). Let  $\tau \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a topology with the property that to every closed set  $F \subset X$ , there exists  $V_n \in \tau$  such that  $V_n \downarrow F$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Also let  $\mathcal{M} = \sigma(\tau)$  and  $\mu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be a measure which is  $\sigma$  – finite on  $\tau$ .

- (1) Show that for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $A \in \mathcal{M}$  there exists an open set  $V \in \tau$  and a closed set  $F$  such that  $F \subset A \subset V$  and  $\mu(V \setminus F) \leq \epsilon$ .
- (2) Let  $F_\sigma$  denote the collection of subsets of  $X$  which may be written as a countable union of closed sets. Use item 1. to show for all  $B \in \mathcal{M}$ , there exists  $C \in \tau_\delta$  ( $\tau_\delta$  is customarily written as  $G_\delta$ ) and  $A \in F_\sigma$  such that  $A \subset B \subset C$  and  $\mu(C \setminus A) = 0$ .

**Exercise 6.5** (Metric Space Examples). Suppose that  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and  $\tau_d$  is the topology of  $d$  – open subsets of  $X$ . To each set  $F \subset X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  let

$$F_\epsilon = \{x \in X : d_F(x) < \epsilon\} = \cup_{x \in F} B_x(\epsilon) \in \tau_d.$$

Show that if  $F$  is closed, then  $F_\epsilon \downarrow F$  as  $\epsilon \downarrow 0$  and in particular  $V_n := F_{1/n} \in \tau_d$  are open sets decreasing to  $F$ . Therefore the results of Exercises 6.3 and 6.4 apply to measures on metric spaces with the Borel  $\sigma$  – algebra,  $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\tau_d)$ .

**Corollary 6.41.** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be the Borel  $\sigma$  – algebra on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with the standard topology induced by open balls with respect to the Euclidean distance. Suppose that  $\mu : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a measure such that  $\mu(A) < \infty$  whenever  $A$  is a bounded set.

- (1) Then for all  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exist a closed set  $F$  and an open set  $V$  such that  $F \subset A \subset V$  and  $\mu(V \setminus F) < \epsilon$ .
- (2) If  $\mu(A) < \infty$ , the set  $F$  in item 1. may be chosen to be compact.

(3) For all  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  we may compute  $\mu(A)$  using

$$(6.32) \quad \mu(A) = \inf\{\mu(V) : A \subset V \text{ and } V \text{ is open}\}$$

$$(6.33) \quad = \sup\{\mu(K) : K \subset A \text{ and } K \text{ is compact}\}.$$

**Proof.** Item 1. follows from Exercises 6.4 and 6.5. If  $\mu(A) < \infty$  and  $F \subset A \subset V$  as in item 1. Let

$$(6.34) \quad K_n := \{x \in F : |x| \leq n\}.$$

Then  $K_n$  is closed and bounded in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and hence compact and  $K_n \uparrow F$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Since  $\mu(A) < \infty$  and  $\mu(V \setminus A) < \epsilon$  we know that  $\mu(V) < \infty$ . Using this fact and the fact that  $V \setminus K_n \downarrow V \setminus F$ , we conclude that  $\mu(V \setminus K_n) \downarrow \mu(V \setminus F) < \epsilon$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus for sufficiently large  $n$  we have  $K = K_n$  is a compact set such that  $K \subset A \subset V$  and  $\mu(V \setminus K) < \epsilon$ .

Item 1. easily implies that Eq. (6.32) holds and item 2. implies Eq. (6.33) holds when  $\mu(A) < \infty$ . So we need only check Eq. (6.33) when  $\mu(A) = \infty$ . By Item 1. there is a closed set  $F \subset A$  such that  $\mu(A \setminus F) < 1$  and in particular  $\mu(F) = \infty$ . Letting  $K_n \subset F \subset A$  be the compact set as in Eq. (6.34), we have  $\mu(K_n) \uparrow \mu(F) = \infty = \mu(A)$  which shows that Eq. (6.33) also holds when  $\mu(A) = \infty$ . ■

### 6.6. Exercises.

**Exercise 6.6.** Let  $(X_j, \mathcal{M}_j, \mu_j)$  for  $j = 1, 2, 3$  be  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces. Let  $F : X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3 \rightarrow (X_1 \times X_2) \times X_3$  be defined by

$$F((x_1, x_2), x_3) = (x_1, x_2, x_3).$$

- (1) Show  $F$  is  $((\mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2) \otimes \mathcal{M}_3, \mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2 \otimes \mathcal{M}_3)$ -measurable and  $F^{-1}$  is  $(\mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2 \otimes \mathcal{M}_3, (\mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2) \otimes \mathcal{M}_3)$ -measurable. That is

$$F : ((X_1 \times X_2) \times X_3, (\mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2) \otimes \mathcal{M}_3) \rightarrow (X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3, \mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2 \otimes \mathcal{M}_3)$$

is a “measure theoretic isomorphism.”

- (2) Let  $\lambda := F_*[(\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2) \otimes \mu_3]$ , i.e.  $\lambda(A) = [(\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2) \otimes \mu_3](F^{-1}(A))$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2 \otimes \mathcal{M}_3$ . Then  $\lambda$  is the unique measure on  $\mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2 \otimes \mathcal{M}_3$  such that

$$\lambda(A_1 \times A_2 \times A_3) = \mu_1(A_1)\mu_2(A_2)\mu_3(A_3)$$

for all  $A_i \in \mathcal{M}_i$ . We will write  $\lambda := \mu_1 \otimes \mu_2 \otimes \mu_3$ .

- (3) Let  $f : X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be a  $(\mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2 \otimes \mathcal{M}_3, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$ -measurable function. Verify the identity,

$$\int_{X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3} f d\lambda = \int_{X_3} \int_{X_2} \int_{X_1} f(x_1, x_2, x_3) d\mu_1(x_1) d\mu_2(x_2) d\mu_3(x_3),$$

makes sense and is correct. Also shows that the identity holds for any one of the six possible orderings of the iterated integrals.

**Exercise 6.7.** Prove the second assertion of Theorem 6.26. That is show  $m^d$  is the unique translation invariant measure on  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  such that  $m^d((0, 1]^d) = 1$ . **Hint:** Look at the proof of Theorem 5.11.

**Exercise 6.8.** (Part of Folland Problem 2.46 on p. 69.) Let  $X = [0, 1]$ ,  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{B}_{[0,1]}$  be the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $X$ ,  $m$  be Lebesgue measure on  $[0, 1]$  and  $\nu$  be counting measure,  $\nu(A) = \#(A)$ . Finally let  $D = \{(x, x) \in X^2 : x \in X\}$  be the diagonal in  $X^2$ . Show

$$\int_X \int_X 1_D(x, y) d\nu(y) dm(x) \neq \int_X \int_X 1_D(x, y) dm(x) d\nu(y)$$

by explicitly computing both sides of this equation.

**Exercise 6.9.** Folland Problem 2.48 on p. 69. (Fubini problem.)

**Exercise 6.10.** Folland Problem 2.50 on p. 69. (Note the  $\mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  should be  $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  in this problem.)

**Exercise 6.11.** Folland Problem 2.55 on p. 77. (Explicit integrations.)

**Exercise 6.12.** Folland Problem 2.56 on p. 77. Let  $f \in L^1((0, a), dm)$ ,  $g(x) = \int_x^a \frac{f(t)}{t} dt$  for  $x \in (0, a)$ , show  $g \in L^1((0, a), dm)$  and

$$\int_0^a g(x) dx = \int_0^a f(t) dt.$$

**Exercise 6.13.** Show  $\int_0^\infty \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| dm(x) = \infty$ . So  $\frac{\sin x}{x} \notin L^1([0, \infty), m)$  and  $\int_0^\infty \frac{\sin x}{x} dm(x)$  is not defined as a Lebesgue integral.

**Exercise 6.14.** Folland Problem 2.57 on p. 77.

**Exercise 6.15.** Folland Problem 2.58 on p. 77.

**Exercise 6.16.** Folland Problem 2.60 on p. 77. Properties of  $\Gamma$ -functions.

**Exercise 6.17.** Folland Problem 2.61 on p. 77. Fractional integration.

**Exercise 6.18.** Folland Problem 2.62 on p. 80. Rotation invariance of surface measure on  $S^{n-1}$ .

**Exercise 6.19.** Folland Problem 2.64 on p. 80. On the integrability of  $|x|^a |\log |x||^b$  for  $x$  near 0 and  $x$  near  $\infty$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .