

Measure and Integration

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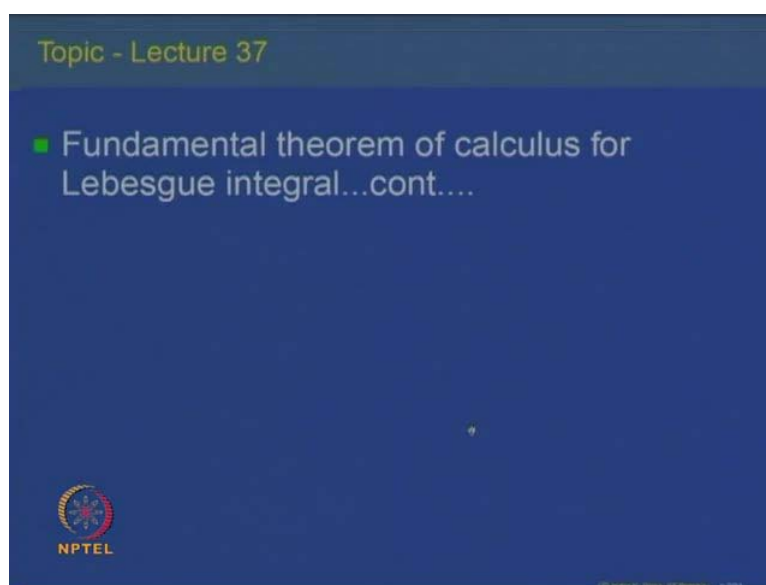
Module No. # 10

Lecture No. # 37

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus for Lebesgue Integral- II

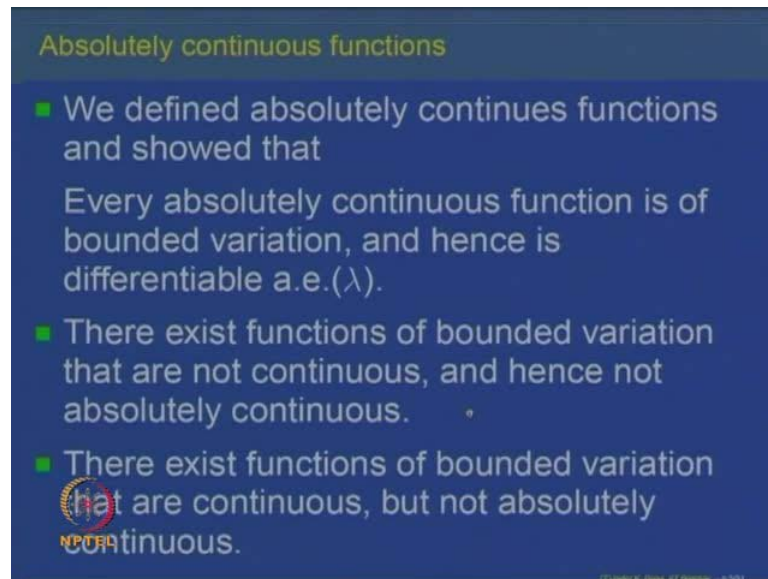
Welcome to lecture 37 on measure and integration. If we recall in the previous lecture, we had started looking at the theorem called fundamental theorem of calculus for Lebesgue integrals. We will continue looking at the same in this lecture also and try to complete the arguments today.

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Today's topic is going to be looking at fundamental theorem of calculus for Lebesgue integrals.

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Absolutely continuous functions

- We defined absolutely continuous functions and showed that
Every absolutely continuous function is of bounded variation, and hence is differentiable a.e.(λ).
- There exist functions of bounded variation that are not continuous, and hence not absolutely continuous.
- There exist functions of bounded variation that are continuous, but not absolutely continuous.

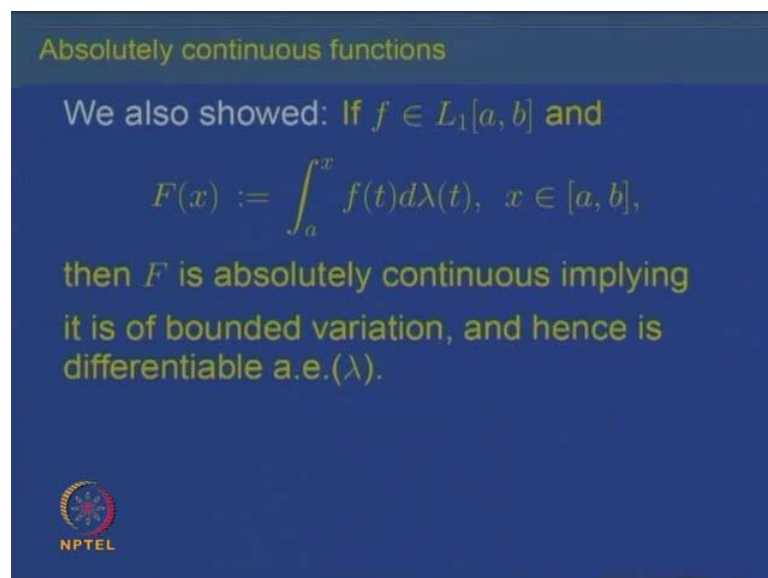
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If you recall, we had defined in the previous lecture, what are absolutely continuous functions and showed that every absolutely continuous function is a function of bounded variation. Hence, it is a difference of two monotone functions and as a consequence it becomes differentiable almost everywhere.

Of course, there exist functions of bounded variation that are not continuous and hence not absolutely continuous, we had looked at such things also and there exist functions of bounded variation that are continuous but not absolutely continuous.

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Absolutely continuous functions

We also showed: **If $f \in L_1[a, b]$ and**

$$F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t), \quad x \in [a, b],$$

then F is absolutely continuous implying it is of bounded variation, and hence is differentiable a.e.(λ).

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In the previous lecture, we had also looked at the notion of indefinite integral of integrable functions. So we define, what is called F of x as the indefinite integral a to x , $\int_a^x f(t) \, d\lambda(t)$, where f is a Lebesgue integrable function. For such functions, we prove that these functions are absolutely continuous. Indefinite integral of Lebesgue integrable functions are examples of absolutely continuous functions.

Essentially fundamental theorem of calculus says, that these are the only ways of getting absolutely continuous functions and once it is absolutely continuous, it also becomes a function of bounded variation and hence becomes differentiable almost everywhere.

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Fundamental theorem of calculus - I

- Let $f \in L_1[a, b]$ and

$$F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) \, d\lambda(t), \quad x \in [a, b].$$

Then F is absolutely continuous and is differentiable, with

$$F'(x) = f(x) \text{ for a.e. } x \in [a, b].$$

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The main aim of fundamental theorem of calculus part 1 is to identify the derivative of this function (Refer Slide Time: 02:19) If f is L_1 of a to b and F of x is the indefinite integral of the function f of t $d\lambda(t)$, then we would like to show that the derivative of this function F which is differentiable almost everywhere, its derivative is equal to f of x for almost all x belonging to $[a, b]$.

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FTC-I, Proof


We have already observed that F is absolutely continuous and hence is differentiable a. e.

We only have to identify its derivative.

We need the following:

Lemma:

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a monotonically increasing function. Then $f' \in L_1[a, b]$ and

$$\int_a^b f' d\lambda \leq f(b) - f(a).$$


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We have already observed that this function is absolutely continuous; the indefinite integral is absolutely continuous and hence differentiable almost everywhere. To prove the fundamental theorem of calculus we have only to identify its derivative.

For that we need a Lemma which essentially says, that for a function - integrable function- if its function is differentiable, if it says that if integrable function which is monotonically increasing then of course, it is differentiable almost everywhere by Lebesgue theorem.

The Lemma says, that the derivative becomes integrable and the integral of the derivative for this monotone function is less than or equal to $f(b) - f(a)$.

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Proof of Lemma

To prove this, note that, being monotonically increasing, f is a measurable function.

Further, by Lebesgue's theorem, $f'(x)$ exists for a.e. x .

Define

$$g_n(x) := \left[\frac{f(x + (1/n)) - f(x)}{1/n} \right], \quad x \in [a, b],$$

where, $f(x) \equiv f(b)$ for $x > b$.

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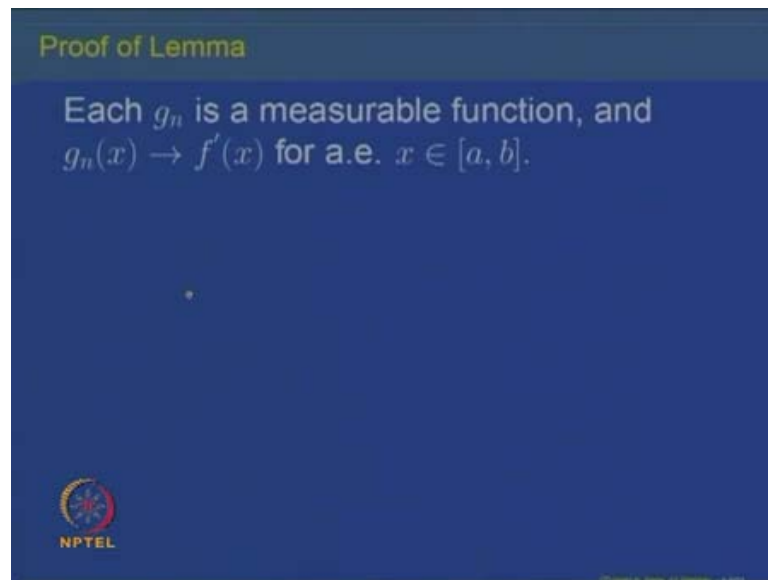
This is Lemma that we require; so we will prove this Lemma first. To prove this Lemma, we first note that being monotonically increasing this function is a measurable function. The reason for that is every monotonically increasing function is a function which is continuous almost everywhere; that is a theorem normally proved in basic courses in real analysis. If a function is monotone, it is continuous almost everywhere and hence measurable.

So, that is one way of looking at a monotone function and proving it is measurable or there is a direct way, you can use also the definition and look at the inverse image of an interval, then it is also going to be an interval for a monotonically increasing functions or a union of 2 intervals at the most; that is another way of looking at the measurability of monotone functions.

So, every monotonically increasing function is a measurable function and by Lebesgue's theorem. In fact, it becomes differentiable almost everywhere and the derivative let us noted by f' of x . Let us define g_n of x to be equal to f of $x + 1/n$, minus f of x divided by $1/n$ whenever, x belongs to a, b and let us, this is not f of x , let us extend f outside the interval a, b to be as f of b . So, for x bigger than b we will treat f of x as f of b .

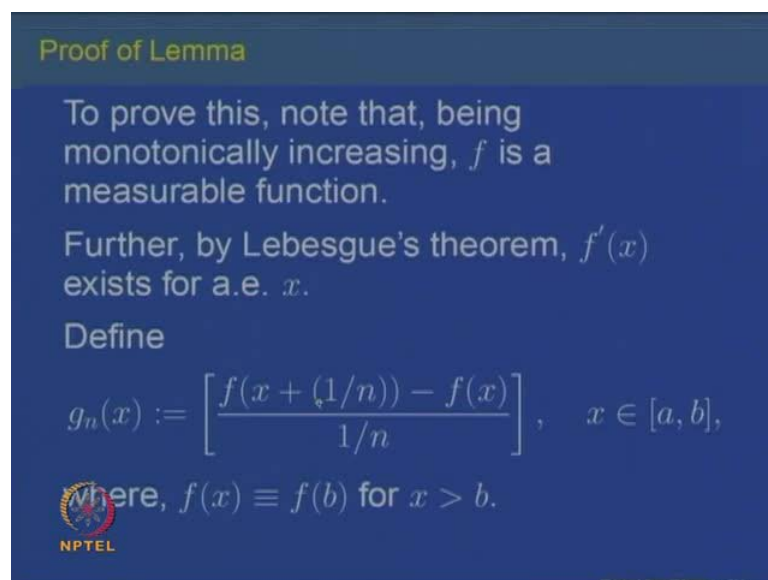
For example, when this is b , $b + 1/n$ will be treated as f of b . So g_n is a function which is the increment of f at the point x by an increment in x by $1/n$. So clearly because the function f is differentiable, this function $g_n(x)$ converges to the derivative of the function f whenever the derivative exist.

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The first claim is that each of this g_n is a measurable function and $g_n(x)$ converges to $f'(x)$ for almost all x .

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That g_n is a measurable function that is obvious because f is measurable; so $f(x) + \frac{1}{n}$ over n , this function is translate of the measurable function is measurable. So, difference of measurable functions and divided by a constant that is a measurable function.

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Proof of Lemma

Each g_n is a measurable function, and $g_n(x) \rightarrow f'(x)$ for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$.

Thus, $f'(x)$ is a measurable function and by Fatou's lemma,

$$\int_a^b f'(x) d\lambda(x) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b g_n(x) d\lambda(x)$$

$$= \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[n \int_a^b f\left(x + \frac{1}{n}\right) d\lambda(x) - n \int_a^b f(x) d\lambda(x) \right]$$

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So $g_n(x)$ is a measurable function converging almost everywhere to the derivative of the function $f'(x)$.

Let us compute by applying Fatou's lemma to this, by Fatou's lemma we know that - first of all note that $g_n(x)$ also is a non negative function because f is a monotonically increasing function, so the numerator $f(x + \frac{1}{n}) - f(x)$ divided by $\frac{1}{n}$ that is a non negative function.

So, g_n is a sequence of non negative measurable functions converging almost everywhere to $f'(x)$ by Fatou's lemma. First of all, f' is a measurable function because it is limited measurable functions. By Fatou's lemma, the integral of $f'(x)$ which is the limit of g_n 's will be less than or equal to limit inferior of g_n over a to b .

Fatou's lemma says, that if a sequence of non negative functions converges to a function then, the integral of the limit inferior is less than or equal to limit inferior of the integrals. So, this is the direct consequence of Fatou's lemma applied to the function in g_n .

Next, let us compute this quantity and put the value of g_n ; g_n is equal to f of x plus 1 over n minus f of x . So this integral splits into 2 integrals, n times integral a to b , f of x plus 1 over n $d\lambda$ minus n times integral a to b $f(x) d\lambda(x)$.


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Proof of Lemma

$$= \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[n \int_{a+1/n}^{b+1/n} f(x) d\lambda(x) - n \int_a^b f(x) d\lambda(x) \right]$$

$$= \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[n \int_a^b \left(f(x) + \frac{1}{n} \right) d\lambda(x) - n \int_a^{a+1/n} f(x) d\lambda(x) \right]$$

$$= f(b) - \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[n \int_a^{a+1/n} f(x) d\lambda(x) \right]$$



Let us use the fact that Lebesgue's measure is translation invariant; so this integral a to b f of x plus 1 over n can be written as integral a plus 1 over n to b plus 1 over n of $f(x) d\lambda(x)$. Here, we are using the property that the Lebesgue measure is translation invariant. The right hand side is limit inferior, n going to infinity of n times integral a plus 1 over n to b plus 1 over n and $f(x) d\lambda(x)$ minus the integral a to b .

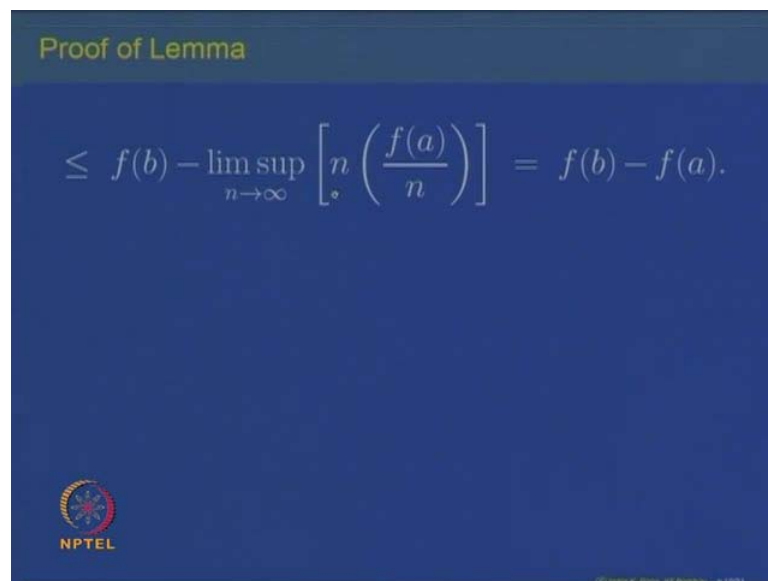
Now using the fact, that the Lebesgue integral is additive over the limits of integration. This difference is nothing but a to a plus 1 over n **and then 1 over b a** ; so this integral a to a plus 1 over n to b can be written as a to a plus 1 over n and the second integral being a plus 1 over n to b . These two difference will give us the difference namely, this is nothing but b to b plus 1 over n $f(x) dx$ minus n times a to a plus 1 over n $f(x) dx$...

Here we are using the property that the integral is additive over the limits of integration. Now we use the fact, that f is a monotonically increasing function, so the first integral is b to b plus 1 over n . We had defined f of x to be equal to b whenever x exceeds b plus 1 over n . So the first integral is nothing but f of b divided by 1 over n and cancels. So first integral is just f of b , so limit inferior of minus n integral but, recall the fact that limit

inferior of minus of a sequence is equal to minus of the limit superior. This becomes minus limit superior $n \int_a^{a+1/n} f(x) dx$.

Now use a fact that f is a monotone function, so integral of f of x from a to $a+1/n$ will be less than or equal to $f(a)$, for the whole interval length of interval is $1/n$. So this is less than or equal to is a monotonically increasing function.

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Proof of Lemma

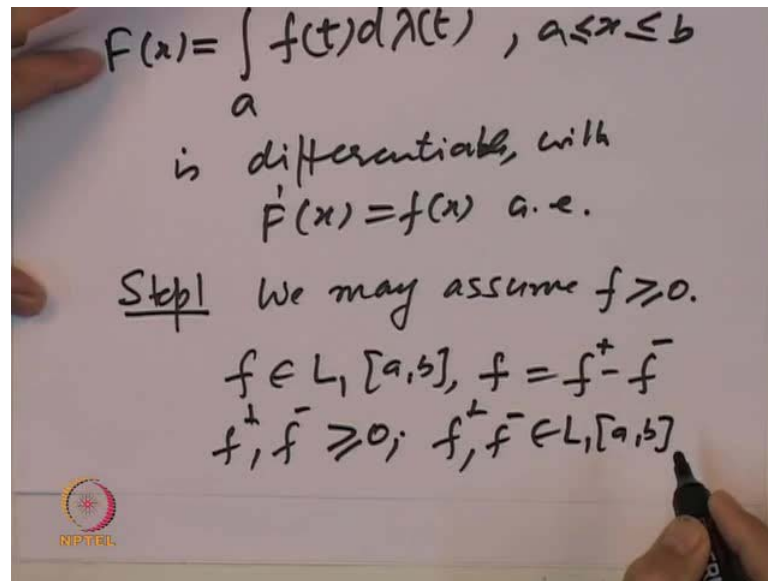
$$\leq f(b) - \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[n \left(\frac{f(a)}{n} \right) \right] = f(b) - f(a).$$

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We are putting the value f of a , so it is f of a divided by n into n and that is independent of superior; so that is just f of b minus f of a . Here, we have used the fact that, f is a monotonically increasing function; that proves the Lemma namely, if f is monotonically increasing then its derivative function is integrable and the integral of the derivative function. So integral of f' dash a to b $f(x) dx$ is less than or equal to f of b minus f of a .

This Lemma we will be using in the proof of the fundamental theorem of calculus part 1.

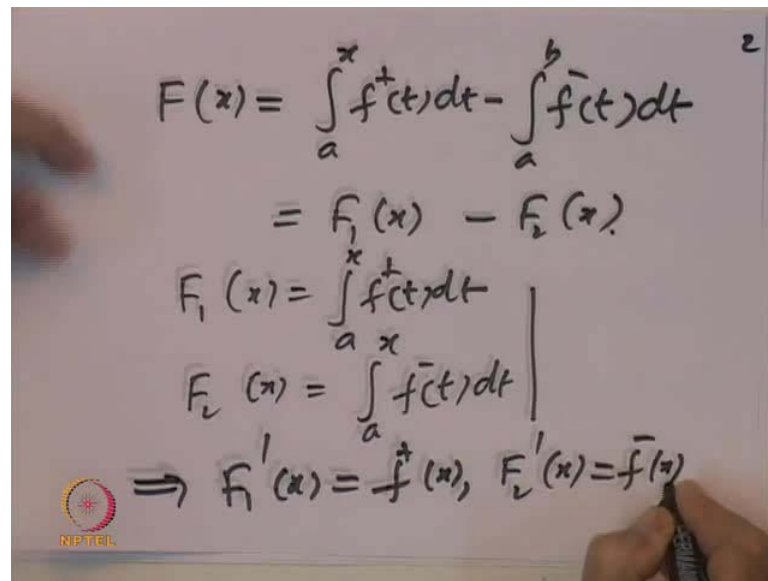
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Let us prove the theorem, fundamental theorem of calculus part 1. We want to prove that the integral $\int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t)$, this function F of x for x between a and b . We want to show that this is differentiable; of course we know already that it is differentiable with derivative $F'(x) = f(x)$ for almost everywhere. So this is what we want to prove (Refer Slide Time: 11:34).

As a first step, we are saying that let us assume that the function step 1 is that we may assume f is bigger than or equal to 0. The reason for that is because f belongs to L_1 of a to b . So, f can be written as the positive part minus the negative part of the function and recall that f^+ , f^- both are nonnegative functions and f^+ and f^- both belong to L_1 of a to b .

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$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= \int_a^x f^+(t) dt - \int_a^b f^-(t) dt \\ &= F_1(x) - F_2(x) \\ F_1(x) &= \int_a^x f^+(t) dt \\ F_2(x) &= \int_a^x f^-(t) dt \\ \Rightarrow F_1'(x) &= f^+(x), F_2'(x) = f^-(x) \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence of this, the function F of x can be written as integral a to x , f plus t dt minus a to b , f minus t dt . If you call this function as F_1 of x and the second function as F_2 of x then both F_1 and F_2 , so F_1 is the indefinite integral of f plus t dt and f_2 of x is indefinite integral a to x of f minus t dt .

The important thing to note in this is that both f plus and f minus are non negative integrable functions. In case, we have already proved the theorem for non negative integral functions, this will imply that F_1 dash of x is equal to f plus of x and F_2 dash of x is equal to f minus of x .

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$$\begin{aligned} (F_1 - F_2)'(x) &= F_1'(x) - F_2'(x) \\ &= f^+(x) - f^-(x) \text{ a.e.} \\ \Rightarrow F'(x) &= f(x) \text{ a.e.} \end{aligned}$$

The whiteboard shows a handwritten derivation. The first line is $(F_1 - F_2)'(x) = F_1'(x) - F_2'(x)$. The second line is $= f^+(x) - f^-(x) \text{ a.e.}$. The third line is $\Rightarrow F'(x) = f(x) \text{ a.e.}$. There is a small '3' in the top right corner and an NPTEL logo in the bottom left corner.

Hence as a consequence of this we will have that $F_1 - F_2$ dash of x is equal to F_1 dash of x minus F_2 dash of x and this by the step 1, if it is already true for non negative integrable functions. This is f plus of x almost everywhere and that is f minus of x almost everywhere and that is equal to f of x almost everywhere. So, that will prove that f dash of x , so implying f dash of x is equal to f of x almost everywhere of x .

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FTC-I, Proof

Step 1:
We may assume that $f \geq 0$.

Step 2: Assume f is bounded.
Let M be such that

$$0 \leq f(x) \leq M \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

The slide features a video inset in the top right corner showing a lecturer. The NPTEL logo is in the bottom left corner.

If we can prove the theorem for non negative integrable functions then, we will be through; so step 1 says let us assume f is non negative.

Second step says, let us assume that the function is a bounded function and let us prove the result when f is a bounded function. We will assume for the time being that f is a bounded function. Let us assume, M is the constant such that f of x is less than or equal to M bigger than or equal to 0 for every x belonging to a, b .

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FTC-I, Proof

Let

$$F_n(x) := \frac{F(x + (1/n)) - F(x)}{1/n}, \quad a < x < b,$$

where $f(x + 1/n) := f(b)$ for $x \geq b$.

Then each F_n is a measurable function (in fact continuous) and $F_n(x)$ converges to $F'(x)$ for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$.

Further, $\forall n$, and $\forall x \in [a, b]$,

$$|F_n(x)| = \left| n \int_x^{x+1/n} f(t) d\lambda(t) \right| \leq M.$$

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In that case, let us define F_n of x to be equal to F of x plus 1 over n minus F of x divided by 1 over n , whenever x belongs to a, b , where as usual f of x plus 1 over n is defined as equal to f of b for x bigger than or equal to b . Then each of F_n is a measurable function in fact each F_n is an absolutely continuous function and hence is also measurable.

F_n of x converges to F' of x for almost all x belonging to a, b , because it is function is differentiable almost everywhere being absolutely continuous; so the derivative exist almost everywhere and right hand side is nothing but, converging to the derivative of the function F of x .

Since, we have assumed that f is a bounded measurable function, f is bounded; so this capital F also is a bounded measurable function, because capital F_n of x is less than or equal to n times, this 1 over n gives you n times f of x plus 1 over n is the integral form, x to x plus 1 over n of f of t $d\lambda$ t .

This difference numerator is nothing but the integral from x to x plus 1 over n f t $d\lambda$ t . This absolute value of the integral is less than or equal to integral of the

absolute value and hence this absolute value is less than or equal to n times absolute value of f which is less than M into the length of the interval which is 1 over n, so that cancels. This is less than or equal to M, so F_n is a sequence of measurable functions and each of them is bounded by a constant M and we are over a finite space a b.

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FTC-I, Proof

Hence by Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem, $\forall c \in (a, b)$,

$$\int_a^c F'(t) d\lambda(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^c F_n(t) d\lambda(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[n \int_a^c F(t + 1/n) d\lambda(t) - n \int_a^c F(t) d\lambda(t) \right]$$

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Lebesgue's bounded convergence theorem or also the dominated convergence theorem says that, for every c belonging to a b, if we apply it over the interval a to c then, integral over a to c F prime t d lambda t is equal to limit of the functions F n t d lambda t. Here, we are applying bounded convergence theorem or dominated convergence theorem; that gives you because F n converges to F dash and all of them are integrable functions. So, integral a to c of F prime t d lambda t is equal to limit n going to infinity a to c, F n t d lambda of t.

Now, we will write down the values of F n. What is F n? F n is equal to n times F of t plus 1 over n minus f of t divided by 1 over n. This integral a to c is nothing but, n times integral a to c of F of t plus 1 over n d lambda t minus the second term that is n times a to c, F of t d lambda t.


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FTC-I, Proof

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[n \int_{a+1/n}^{c+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) - n \int_a^c F(t) d\lambda(t) \right]$$
$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \left[\int_c^{c+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) - \int_a^{a+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) \right].$$

Since F is a nonnegative monotonically increasing function, we have

$$F(c) \leq n \int_c^{c+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) \leq F(c+1/n)$$

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Now, we will use the fact that this integral is with respect to lambda which is translation invariant. The first integral which is F of t plus 1 over n can be written as integral of F of t $d\lambda$ t from a plus 1 over n to c plus 1 over n . The first integral is transformed to n times integral a plus 1 over n to c plus 1 over n , F of t $d\lambda$ t and of course, the second integral remains as n times a to c F of t $d\lambda$ t . This is using the fact that the Lebesgue's measure is translation invariant.

Now, once again as we have seen earlier Lebesgue's integral being additive over the limits of integration. So, this integral from a plus 1 over n to c plus 1 over n minus the integral, a to c gives us the integral of f of t from c to 1 plus 1 over n to integral from a to a plus 1 over n of F t $d\lambda$ t . Now, we use the fact that f is a non negative monotonically increasing function and why is this capital F non negative monotonically increasing function? It is because of the function small f .

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical notes. At the top, the function is defined as $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t)$. Below this, it is stated that $F(x)$ is monotonically increasing (m. i.). The condition $f \geq 0$ is written, followed by the implication $\Rightarrow y > x$. The final equation shows that $F(y) - F(x) = \int_x^y f(t) d\lambda(t) \geq 0$. In the bottom left corner of the whiteboard, there is a small circular logo with the text 'NPTEL' below it.

The reason for that is this function F of x which is defined as a to x $f(t) d\lambda(t)$ then, F of x is monotonically increasing and the reason is because f is non negative. So that implies that for y bigger than x , F of y which is minus F of x will be equal to integral x to y of $f(t) d\lambda(t)$, which is bigger than or equal to 0. So, that implies that the function F is monotonically increasing.

Since the function f is of course, a non negative - you are integrating a non negative function - and it is monotonically increasing. The integral c to $c + 1/n$ over n , $F(t) d\lambda(t)$ will be bigger than or equal to the value at the lower end point, that is f of c into the length of the interval $1/n$ into n , so that gives you F of c .

The first integral is n times c to $c + 1/n$ is bigger than or equal to F of c and of course, it is less than or equal to the value at the upper end point into the length of the interval. So, that gives you F at $c + 1/n$. That is the first integral is between F of c and F of $c + 1/n$.


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FTC-I, Proof

and

$$F(a) \leq n \int_a^{a+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) \leq F(a + 1/n).$$

These and the fact that F is continuous (in fact absolutely continuous), we get



FTC-I, Proof

Similarly, the second integral is between F of a and F of a plus 1 over n . Now, these two inequalities along with the fact that the function capital F is absolutely continuous and hence continuous gives that as n goes to infinity F of a plus 1 over n is going to go to F of a . The second integral will go to F of a , which is equal to 0 and the first integral will go to F of c because it is sandwiched between F of c and F of c plus 1 over n .


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FTC-I, Proof

and

$$F(a) \leq n \int_a^{a+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) \leq F(a + 1/n).$$

These and the fact that F is continuous (in fact absolutely continuous), we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \left[\int_c^{c+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) - \int_a^{a+1/n} F(t) d\lambda(t) \right]$$

$$F(c) = \int_a^c f(t) d\lambda(t).$$

FTC-I, Proof

That implies that, the limit n going to infinity of n times the integral c to $c + 1/n$ of $f(t) d\lambda(t)$ minus $F(c + 1/n) - F(c)$ is equal to $F(c)$ which is equal to nothing but $F(c) - F(c)$ of $f(t) d\lambda(t)$.

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FTC-I, Proof

Thus, for all $c \in (a, b)$,

$$\int_a^c F'(t) d\lambda(t) = \int_a^c f(t) d\lambda(t).$$

Since this holds for every $a < c < b$, we have

$$f'(t) = F'(t) \text{ for a.e. } t \in [a, b].$$

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What we have shown is that the integral of the derivative of capital F . So integral of the derivative of capital F over the interval a to c is equal to integral over a to c of small f to t $d\lambda(t)$. This holds for all values of c between a and b and that implies because these two are equal, so that implies that small f of t must be equal, so this is a mistake, we should be writing at f dash of t , capital F dash of t must be equal to small f of t (Refer Slide Time: 22:40).

What we are saying is integrals of two functions – non negative functions - are equal over all intervals of the type a to c where c belongs to a to b , that means the two functions must be equal almost everywhere. So f prime of t must be equal to F of t , for almost all t . That proves the fact that, the derivative of the function f of capital F of t is nothing but, small f of t . Here the two written wrongly (Refer Slide Time: 23:12) it should be capital F dash of t is equal to small f of t .



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FTC-I, Proof

Step 3: General case ($f \geq 0$):
Define $\forall n = 1, 2, \dots$

$$f_n(x) := \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } f(x) \leq n, \\ n & \text{if } f(x) > n. \end{cases}$$

$\{f_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ is a sequence of bounded measurable functions such that $\{f_n(x)\}_{n \geq 1}$ increases to $f(x)$ for every $x \in [a, b]$.



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So that proves the fundamental theorem of calculus for bounded non negative integral functions. For the general case, when f is general non negative function one uses what is called the truncation of the function f .

So I will just give you outline, so what one does is look at the function f on x which is f of x , if f of x is less than or equal to n and is equal to n if f of x is bigger than n . So whenever the graph of the function goes beyond n you cut it and put it equal to n ; so if this f of n is called the truncation of the function f beyond n .

So each f_n is a non negative integrable function and f_n converge to the function f for every x belonging to a, b .

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FTC-I, Proof

For every $n \geq 1$, let

$$G_n(x) := \int_a^x (f - f_n)(t) d\lambda(t), \quad x \in [a, b].$$

Then each G_n is an absolutely continuous, monotonically increasing function, and hence $G_n'(x) \geq 0$ for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$.

Further,

$$F(x) = G_n(x) + \int_a^x f_n(t) d\lambda(t), \quad x \in [a, b].$$


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So one defines G_n of x to be equal to $\int_a^x (f - f_n)(t) d\lambda(t)$ then G_n is a sequence of functions which is absolutely continuous, because difference of it is indefinite integral of an integrable function. It is monotonically increasing because the function $f - f_n$ is nonnegative; so G_n is increasing sequence of functions and its derivative $G_n'(x)$ non negative for every x , because it is a monotonically increasing function. So its derivative must be non negative and it exists because it is absolutely continuous function.

So let us look at the function F of x which is $\int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t)$ that is the indefinite integral of f of x from here, because this integral G_n of x is $\int_a^x (f - f_n)(t) d\lambda(t)$. So that is $\int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t) - \int_a^x f_n(t) d\lambda(t)$. So that is $\int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t) - \int_a^x f_n(t) d\lambda(t)$. So if you take it on the other side we get F of x is equal to $G_n(x) + \int_a^x f_n(t) d\lambda(t)$.

From here, because f_n exist for almost everywhere so by the earlier case, we have got that f_n is a non negative bounded measurable function; so applied, when we apply earlier case to this indefinite integral its derivative exist and is equal to f_n .

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FTC-I, Proof

Thus $F'(x)$ exists for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$ and, by the earlier case, $\forall n$,

$$F'(x) = G'_n(x) + f_n(x) \text{ for a.e. } x \in [a, b]$$

Hence $F'(x) \geq f_n(x)$ for every n and for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$.

Thus

$$F'(x) \geq f(x) \text{ for a.e. } x \in [a, b].$$


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So that gives us that for almost all x $F'(x)$ is equal to $G'_n(x) + f_n(x)$ for almost all x belonging to x . G'_n is non negative so that implies that $F'(x)$ must be bigger than or equal to $f_n(x)$ for every n and for almost all x belonging to x .

(Refer Slide Time: 26:20)

FTC-I, Proof


On the other hand, one observes that

$$\int_a^b F'(x) d\lambda(x) \leq F(b) = \int_a^b f(x) d\lambda(x).$$

Thus

$$\int_a^b [F'(x) - f(x)] d\lambda(x) = 0.$$

Since $F'(x) - f(x) \geq 0$ for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$, this implies that $F'(x) = f(x)$ for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$.



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This is happening for all n , so in the limit that gives us that $F'(x)$ is bigger than or equal to $f(x)$ for all x belonging to a, b but, on the other hand we know that integral of $F'(x)$ is less than or equal to $F(b) - F(a)$ which is nothing but, $\int_a^b f(x) dx$

λx . So that implies, the integral of F' of x minus f of x is equal to 0 over the interval a to b .

This is a non negative function whose integral is 0 that means this function F' of x must be equal to f of x for almost all x belonging to a to b . So that completes the proof of fundamental theorem of calculus part 1 namely, the indefinite integral of a function from a to b is f .

If I take indefinite integral $\int_a^x f(t) dt$ for integrable function then this indefinite integral is absolutely continuous. Hence derivative exists and not only that the derivative F' of x is equal to f of x for almost all x belonging to a to b .

So, this is fundamental theorem calculus part 1 which corresponds to the fundamental theorem of calculus part 1 of Riemann integrable functions, namely if you take a function f which is continuous on an interval a to b then the indefinite integral is differentiable everywhere and the derivative is equal to f .

In this case for Lebesgue integrable functions, we get that the indefinite integral is an absolutely continuous function and it is differentiable almost everywhere and derivative is equal to the integrand f of x for almost all x . If you recall the fundamental theorem of calculus also had the second part for Riemann integrable functions namely if you integrate the derivative, then you get back the values of the function.

So a corresponding result is true for Lebesgue integrable functions also, we would like to prove that. So, the claim is that if f is absolutely continuous, so is derivative exists almost everywhere and the claim is that if we integrate the derivative, it is integrable function and its integral is nothing but, the values of the original function.

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Fundamental theorem of calculus - II

We need

- If $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is absolutely continuous and $g'(x) = 0$ for a.e. $(x) \lambda$, then g is a constant function.

For proof refer text book.

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So to prove that we need a theorem, need a Lemma which will not prove which says that if g is an absolutely continuous function and its derivative is equal to 0 almost everywhere, then g is a constant function.

If you recall that is also required, similar result is required for functions which are Riemann integrable. In the fundamental theorem of calculus part 2, namely if g is a function whose derivative is equal to 0 everywhere then, the function is a constant function.

So this is parallel of that result for absolutely continuous functions (Refer Slide Time: 29:20). If for an absolutely continuous function the derivative is equal to 0 almost everywhere and the function is a constant function. So we will assume this result because a proof requires this is slightly technical proof and requires the use of what is called Vitali's covering theorem, which we have not covered in this part of the lectures.

Those interested can look up the proof in the text book which is referred earlier. So, the result Lemma is that if a function is absolutely continuous and its derivative is 0 almost everywhere, then the function is a constant function.

(Refer Slide Time: 30:04)


Fundamental theorem of calculus - II

- Let $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an absolutely continuous function.

Then $F'(x)$ exists for a.e. $x \in [a, b]$, with $F' \in L_1[a, b]$ and

$$F(y) - F(x) = \int_x^y F'(t) d\lambda(t),$$

for all $a \leq x < y \leq b$.



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So using that we will prove fundamental theorem of calculus part 2 which says that if F is absolutely continuous function then of course, we know that the derivative exists almost everywhere. The claim is that the derivative is integrable function and the integral of the derivative from x to y is equal to $F(y)$ minus $F(x)$ for all points x less than y between a and b . So that will complete the statement and analysis of fundamental theorem of calculus.

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Proof FTC-II

Since $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is absolutely continuous, it is of bounded variation, and hence

$$F(x) = F_1(x) - F_2(x),$$

where F_1 and F_2 are monotonically increasing functions on $[a, b]$.

By FTC-I, $F'(x)$ exists with

$$F'(x) = F_1'(x) - F_2'(x) \text{ for a.e. } x.$$


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So to prove this, let the function capital F which is given to be absolutely continuous and every absolutely continuous function is of bounded variation. Hence, we can write F as a difference of two monotone functions, monotonically increasing functions, say F 1 and F 2 where, both F 1 and F 2 are monotonically increasing functions. Of course, by fundamental theorem of calculus we know that F 1 dash exist, derivative F dash exist by fundamental theorem of calculus and it being a difference of two monotone functions which are also differential almost everywhere by Lebesgue's theorem.

So the derivative is equal to F 1 dash x minus F 2 dash x for almost all x. So F of x can be written as F 1 dash x minus F 2 dash x for almost all x. Now, because F 1 and F 2 are monotonically increasing functions, so the derivatives are integrable functions. So that follows from the Lemma that we just now proved for the monotonically increasing functions, the derivative exist and are integrable.

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Proof FTC-II

Further, $F'_1, F'_2 \in L_1[a, b]$ and

$$F_1(x) \leq \int_a^x F'_1(t) d\lambda(t), \quad F_2(x) \leq \int_a^x F'_2(t) d\lambda(t)$$

Thus $F' \in L_1[a, b]$. If

$$G(x) := \int_a^x F'_*(t) d\lambda(t), \quad x \in [a, b].$$

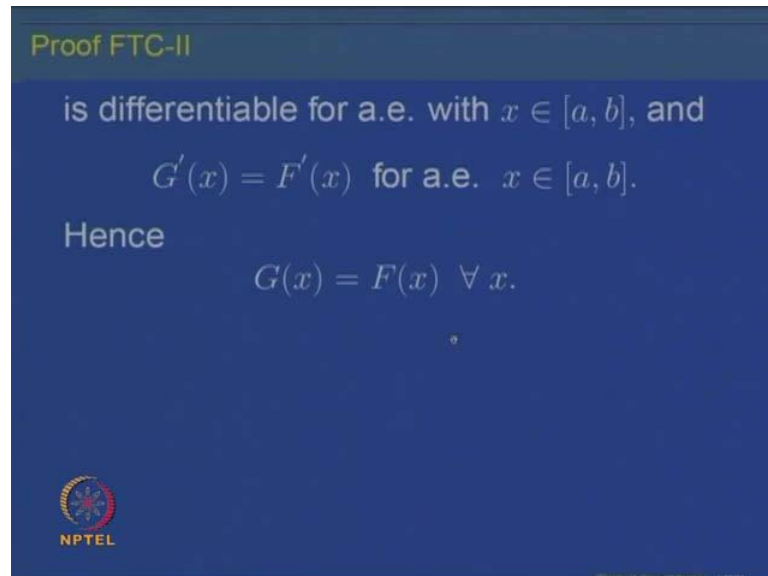
Then $G(x)$ is absolutely continuous, and

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So, as a consequence we get F 1 dash is integrable, F 2 dash is integrable and being a difference of two integrable functions, the functions capital F dash is also integrable and not only that; we also have that F 1 of x is less than or equal to a to x F 1 dash of t d lambda t, that are also a part the Lemma. Similarly, F 2 of x is also less than or equal to a to x F 2 dash of t d lambda t.

As a consequence we get F' is L¹ that we have already observed, so let us write G of x as equal to $\int_a^x F'(t) dt$. So, what we want to prove is that this G of x is $f(x) - f(a)$, which is 0; so we want to prove G of x is equal to f of x . Now, let us observe that if we define G of x to be equal to this then, G of x is absolutely continuous its derivative exists and derivative is equal to F' for almost all x .

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G' is equal to F' of x for almost all x and we know that this is a function G of x ; its derivative is equal to 0 almost everywhere and G of x is absolutely continuous function. So by the Lemma just now we stated the G of x is absolutely continuous function whose derivative is equal to F' of x .

So that implies that the function G of x must be equal to F of x for almost all x . So that completes the proof of fundamental theorem of calculus part 2; so fundamental theorem of calculus has 2 parts. Let me once again recall fundamental theorem of calculus.

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$$f \in L_1 [a, b]$$
$$\implies F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t), x \in [a, b]$$

$F'(x)$ exists a. e. and
 $F'(x) = f(x)$ a. e.

It says that if f is L_1 of a to b then that implies that the integral $\int_a^x f(t) d\lambda(t)$ to x , x belonging to a to b ; so if you call this function as capital F of x then, F' of x exists and F' of x is equal to f of x . So, that is fundamental theorem of calculus part 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:34)

II

$$F: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

ab. cont

$$\implies F' \in L_1 [a, b]$$

and $\int_a^x F'(t) d\lambda(t) = F(x)$

Fundamental theorem of calculus part 2 says, that if F of a to b is absolutely continuous then this implies, that the derivative exist of course, because absolutely continuous implies it is differentiable is L_1 of a to b and integral of F' dash of t $d\lambda(t)$ say a to x is

equal to F of x . These two put together are called fundamental theorem of calculus for Lebesgue's integrals (Refer Slide Time: 35:10).

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Applications of FTC

- **(Integration by parts):**
Let $F, G : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be absolutely continuous functions. Then

$$F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) = \int_a^b (F'G)(t)d\lambda(t) + \int_a^b (FG')(t)d\lambda(t).$$

First note that since F and G are absolutely continuous, it follows that FG is absolutely continuous, and thus FG is differentiable for a.e. x . Further,

As a consequence if you recall for Riemann integrable functions, fundamental theorem of calculus gives many consequences essentially saying that the integration of the derivative is equal to the function gives consequences like integration by parts, it gives you integration by substitution, it gives you chain rule and so on.

Similarly, the Lebesgue integral fundamental theorem of integral calculus for Lebesgue integrals gives all similar results. We illustrate this by giving one result called integration by parts.

Integration by parts states the following: namely supposing F and G are two functions which are absolutely continuous functions then, the claim is that because they are absolutely continuous. So the derivatives exists, so the claim is that F of b into G of b minus F of a , G of a is equal to integral a to b of F dash G $d\lambda$ t plus integral a to b F G dash $d\lambda$ t .

Basically it is same as for Riemann integral that if F and G are absolutely continuous then we know that F dash exist. It says integral of F dash G $d\lambda$ t is nothing but, if you take it on the other side it is same as you look at the integral of F dash which is going to be F of b .

So, it is F of F into G evaluated at b minus evaluated at a minus the integral $F G$ dash. So, that is precisely the integration by parts for Riemann integrable functions. A proof of this is obvious from the fundamental theorem of calculus. Let me illustrate that, first note that F and G are both absolutely continuous. So it follows that the product function $F G$ is absolutely continuous that we have already indicated and hence it is differentiable.

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The slide, titled "Applications of FTC", contains the following text and equations:

$$(FG)'(x) = (FG')(x) + (F'G)(x) \text{ for a.e. } x.$$

Now by FTC-II,

$$F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) = \int_a^b (FG)'(t) d\lambda(t)$$

$$= \int_a^b (FG')(t) d\lambda(t) + \int_a^b (F'G)(t) d\lambda(t). \quad \blacksquare$$

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In Riemann integrable functions, it is just saying that F and G are differentiable, so product is differentiable. Here because they are absolutely continuous, so the product is absolutely continuous and hence is differentiable almost everywhere. Further by the product rule for differentiation, the derivative of the product function of course is equal to F into G dash is equal to F multiplied by G dash into x plus f dash into G into x for almost all x in the interval a to b .

This is just, where ever the function is differentiable the derivative of the product is equal to FG dash plus F dash of G and this is true, so this is equal to almost everywhere. Once that is true, now we can apply fundamental theorem of calculus part 2. We can integrate FG dash, so integrate both sides; so Integral of FG dash will give us $F b$ minus $F b$ into $G b$ minus F of a into G of a because this integral will give you the value of the function at b minus the value of the function at a , the function being the product function F into G .

So the left hand side is $F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a)$ and the right hand side is the integral of $F(x)G'(x) + F'(x)G(x)$ for almost all x , so that is the right hand side. So, that is called the integration by parts.

Similarly, other results like integration by substitution and so on can be obtained by using chain rule and other things. Those interested should refer the text book for the same.

Basically what we have tried to prove in the last 2 lectures is that for corresponding to the theorem on fundamental theorem of calculus for Riemann integrable functions, there is a theorem for Lebesgue integrable functions and it says that a function F from a to b defined on real values is absolutely continuous if and only if it is the integral of its derivative function.

Basically saying that because it is absolutely continuous, the derivative exist and the integral of the derivative is nothing but function can be obtained as the integral of the derivative. This is a perfect extension of the fundamental theorem of calculus for Lebesgue integrable functions.

In proving this fundamental theorem of calculus, we needed the notion of absolute continuity of functions. This absolute continuity of functions is related in another way to the properties of measures called absolutely continuous functions - absolutely continuous measures. In the coming today and in the next lecture, we will look at what are called absolutely continuous measures.

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Absolutely continuous measures

Let (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) be a given measure space and let f be a nonnegative real-valued measurable function on X .

For $E \in \mathcal{S}$, define

$$\nu(E) := \int_E f d\mu.$$

■ Then, ν is a measure on (X, \mathcal{S}) and has by the property:

 $\nu(E) = 0$ whenever $\mu(E) = 0$.

for $E \in \mathcal{S}$.

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Let us define, what is absolutely continuous measure? Let X, \mathcal{S}, μ be a given measure space and let f be a non negative real-valued measurable functions on it. Let us define, for any measurable set E in the sigma algebra \mathcal{S} , ν of E to be integral over E of $f d\mu$. The right hand side is a number which depends on E , so ν of E is the integral of f with respect to the measure μ over the set E .

This gives us a set function E going to ν of E and if you recall, we had shown that ν is a measure on the measurable space X, \mathcal{S} and has a very special property namely if the set E over which you are integrating the function f has got μ measure 0 then obviously, this implies that ν of that set E is also equal to 0.

This measure ν , which is defined via integration with respect to the measure μ is related these two measures are related by the property that μ of the set E is equal to 0, whenever the measure μ of the set E is equal to 0. If you measure ν is defined via integration then the null sets of μ are also null sets of ν . So, this property is known as absolutely continuity of measures.

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Absolutely continuous measures

Let μ and ν be two measures on (X, \mathcal{S}) . We say ν is **absolutely continuous** with respect to μ if $\nu(E) = 0$ whenever $\mu(E) = 0, E \in \mathcal{S}$.

We write this as $\nu \ll \mu$.

Examples:

(i) Let (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) be a measure space and f be a nonnegative measurable function on (X, \mathcal{S}) . Then $\nu \ll \mu$, where

$$\nu(E) := \int_E f d\mu, E \in \mathcal{S}.$$

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Let us write this, define two measures μ and ν are said to be absolutely continuous with respect to- so we say that the measure ν is absolutely continuous with respect to- the measure μ if $\nu(E)$ is equal to 0 whenever $\mu(E)$ equal to 0. So, ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ , whenever the null sets of μ are also null sets of ν . This we write as $\nu \ll \mu$, where \ll signifies that ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ . It is easier to remember $\mu(E) = 0$ implies $\nu(E) = 0$.

Let us give some examples of absolutely continuous measures. Of course, just now we said that if you take a non negative function f , which is integrable, just a non negative measurable function on the measure space (X, \mathcal{S}) and integrate it with respect to μ . Then integral of f over E with respect to μ gives you a measure ν which is absolutely continuous, so this measure ν is absolutely continuous (Refer Slide Time: 43:43).


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Absolutely continuous measures

(ii) Let μ denote the **counting measure** on the Lebesgue measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}})$, i.e., for $E \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}}$,

$\mu(E) :=$ number of elements in E , if E is a finite set, and $\mu(E) := +\infty$ otherwise.

Then $\lambda \ll \mu$, where λ is the Lebesgue measure on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}})$.



Let us look at the counting measure on the Lebesgue measure space that is a real line. What is the counting measure? For every set E in \mathbb{R} the counting measure μ of E is defined as the number of elements in the set E . If E is a finite set and it is defined as μ of E equal to infinity if E is a set which is not finite.


For finite sets, μ of E is the number of elements in E and for an infinite set it is number we call it as plus infinity. Then we claim that λ is absolutely continuous with respect to μ where μ is the Lebesgue measure.

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μ is counting measure
 λ is Lebesgue measure

Claim $\lambda \ll \mu$.

Let $E \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}}$, $\mu(E) = 0$
 $\Rightarrow E = \emptyset$
 $\Rightarrow \lambda(\emptyset) = \lambda(E) = 0$



So, we want to prove the following fact. Let us observe, μ is counting measure and λ is Lebesgue measure. Claim is that λ is absolutely continuous with respect to μ . Sorry, with respect to μ .

To show that, let us take a set E which is Lebesgue measurable and $\mu(E) = 0$ but, that means this implies what are the sets for which μ is the counting measure. Say if a counting measure of a set is equal to 0 that means E must be equal to empty set. For counting measure, empty set is the only set of measure 0.

That obviously implies $\lambda(E) = 0$ which is same as $\lambda(E) = 0$. That implies obviously, that λ is absolutely continuous with respect to the counting measure. This is happening because for counting measure only null set is the empty set.


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Absolutely continuous measures

(iii) Let $X = \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$.
 Define $\mu(\emptyset) = \nu(\emptyset) = 0$ and $\forall E \in \mathcal{S}, E \neq \emptyset$, let

$$\mu(E) := \sum_{n \in E} 2^n \quad \text{and} \quad \nu(E) := \sum_{n \in E} 1/2^n.$$

Then $\mu(E) = 0$ iff $\nu(E) = 0$. Hence $\mu \ll \nu$ and $\nu \ll \mu$.

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Let us take, X to be equal to the set of all natural numbers and S to be the set of all power set of natural numbers namely all subsets of natural numbers.

Let us define two measures μ and ν . Say that, μ of empty set is same as ν of empty set is 0 and for every other set which is not empty set. Let us define μ of E to be equal to $\sum 2^n$ whenever the natural number n belongs to E and ν of E to be summation of $1/2^n$, for all natural numbers n belonging to E .

It is easy to check that these - two sets- two set functions μ and ν are measures on the measure space X and S . Then if μ of E is equal to 0 let us assume, that μ of E is equal to 0 this is possible only when this E is a empty set and similarly, ν of E is also equal to 0 then E is equal to empty set. So, μ and ν are two measures which have only empty set as the null sets. So that clearly proves, ν of E is equal to 0 if and only μ of E is equal to 0.

Hence that says μ is absolutely continuous with respect to μ and ν is absolutely continuous with respect to ν . These are some are some of the examples of absolutely continuous measures but, as you would have noticed these are obvious examples of absolutely continuous measures.

The only non-trivial way we got absolutely continuous measures was the first example, where ν was defined as integral of a non negative function with respect to a measure μ .

No wonder that we are not able get any examples, because there is a very strong powerful theorem which says that the only way one can obtain absolutely continuous measures are via integration. That means that example of when you integrate, you get absolutely continuous measures are the only ways of obtaining absolutely continuous measures.

This leads to theorem called Radon Nikodym theorem, which is very powerful and very useful and we will prove it in our next lecture.