

Measure and Integration

Prof. Inder K. Rana

Department of Mathematics

Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay

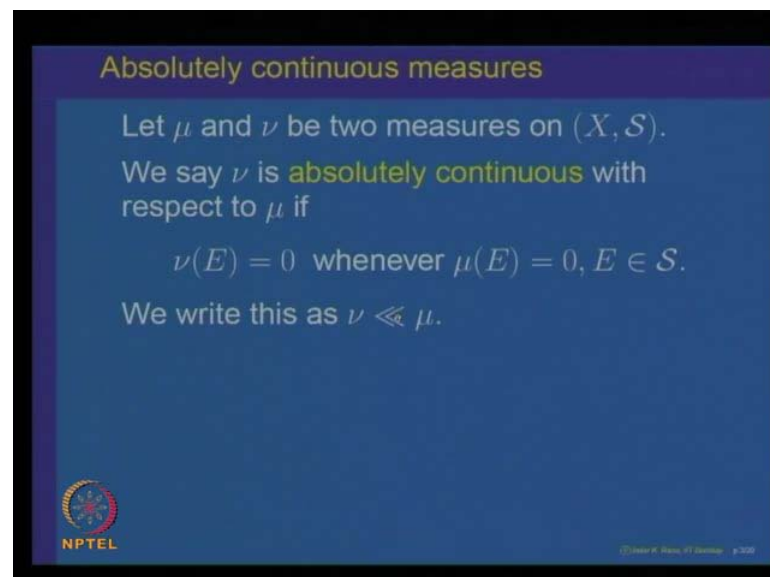
Module No. #10

Lecture No. #38

Absolutely Continuous Measures

Welcome to lecture 38 on Measure and Integration. Today, we will start looking at the notion of absolute continuity of measures. We started this concept in the previous lecture but, we will do it in detail in today's lecture. So, we will start with looking at what is called one measure being absolutely continuous with respect to other measure and then, we will prove an important theorem called Radon–Nikodym theorem for absolutely continuous measures.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:59)




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

$$\nu(E) = 0 \text{ whenever } \mu(E) = 0, E \in \mathcal{S}.$$

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

 NPTEL ©Inder K. Rana, IIT Bombay 2/38

Let us start recalling what an absolutely continuous measure is. So, if two measures μ and ν given on a measure space - measurable space X, \mathcal{S} we say ν is absolutely

continuous with respect to the measure μ , if for any set E in the sigma algebra \mathcal{S} , $\mu(E) = 0$ implies $\nu(E) = 0$. That means, if a set E has got μ measure 0 then, it should imply that ν measure of the set E is also equal to 0. So in that case, we write this relation by the symbol that ν with this special symbol which is less than twice printed, so it is called absolutely continuous with respect to μ and this is denoted by this symbol.

(Refer Slide Time: 01:47)

Absolutely continuous measures

Example: If

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

where f be a nonnegative measurable function on (X, \mathcal{S}, μ) ,
then $\nu \ll \mu$.

A characterization of absolute continuity of measures:

NPTEL

©2014 A. K. Mishra, IIT Bombay p.4/20

We looked at an example of absolutely continuous measures. We said, let us take a function f which is non-negative measurable on a measure space X, \mathcal{S}, μ and let us integrate this function over a set E in the sigma algebra. So, this integral $\int_E f d\mu$ is fixed, μ is fixed, E is varying and this is a non-negative number, which we denoted by $\nu(E)$ and we had shown, when we defined the integral for non-negative functions that $\nu(E)$ is a measure and it has the special property that if $\mu(E) = 0$ then $\nu(E) = 0$.

So, this measure $\nu(E)$ which is defined via the integral of a non-negative function f over a set E implies that this measure ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ . Let us give a characterization of absolutely continuous measures in terms of what is called epsilon delta definitions which look similar to absolute continuity of functions.

(Refer Slide Time: 02:51)

Theorem

- Let μ, ν be measures on (X, \mathcal{S}) with $\nu \ll \mu$. If ν is finite, then for every $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $\nu(E) < \epsilon$ whenever $\mu(E) < \delta$, $E \in \mathcal{S}$.

So, we want to prove the following namely, if μ and ν are two measures such that ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ then, the following holds that if ν is finite then, for every ϵ bigger than 0 I can find a δ bigger than 0 such that whenever ν of E is less than ϵ whenever μ of E is less than δ .

(Refer Slide Time: 03:34)

ν, μ on (X, \mathcal{S})
 $\nu \ll \mu$, ν is finite
To show $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ s.t.
 $\mu(E) < \delta \implies \nu(E) < \epsilon$
Pf Suppose not. Then $\exists \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\forall \delta, \exists E \in \mathcal{S}$
s.t. $\mu(E) < \delta$ but $\nu(E) \geq \epsilon$
Apply this for $\delta = \frac{1}{2^n}$.

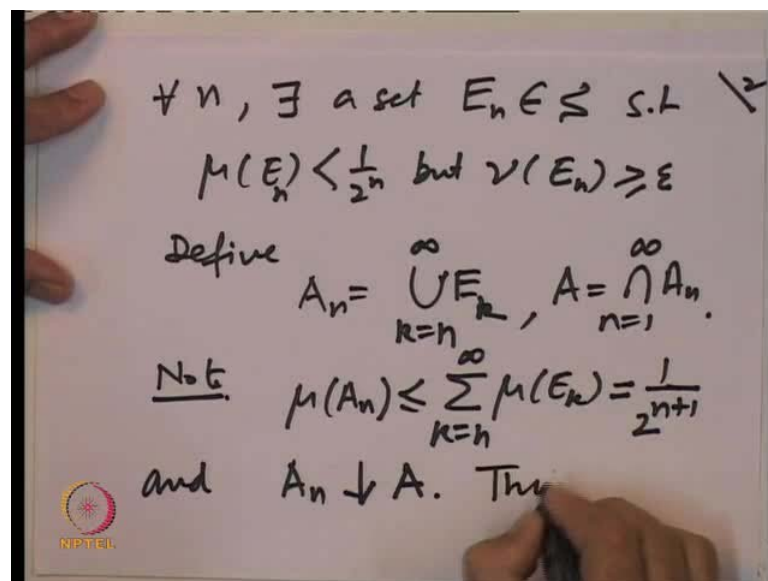
That means, given an ϵ you can find a δ such that, whenever for a set the measure μ of E is less than δ , that should imply ν of E is less than ϵ ; so let us prove this result. So, we have given that ν and μ are measures on the measurable

space X and ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ and ν is finite. To show, for every ϵ bigger than 0, there is δ bigger than 0 such that $\mu(E) < \delta$ should imply $\nu(E) < \epsilon$, so the proof is of this is by contradiction.

So, if suppose not, means suppose this claim is not true that will mean what? Claim is for every ϵ there is a δ , so that means - **there is an ϵ such that then for every δ bigger than 0** - that means, then there exists ϵ bigger than 0 such that for every δ , there exists a set E belonging to the sigma algebra with the property, whenever $\mu(E) < \delta$ but, $\nu(E) \geq \epsilon$.

So, if we assume that the required claim is not true that will imply that there is a number ϵ bigger than 0 such that for every δ you can choose a set E of course, this E will depend on δ such that $\mu(E) < \delta$ but, $\nu(E) \geq \epsilon$. So, let us apply this result for **so apply this for** δ equal to $1/2^n$ to the power n , so that will give us the following when I do that.

(Refer Slide Time: 05:39)



So, for every n there exist a set E_n belonging to S such that $\mu(E_n) < 1/2^n$ but, $\nu(E_n) \geq \epsilon$. So, this is what we get if we assume our result is not true.

Now, let us define a set A_n to be equal to union of E_n, E_k from k equal to n to infinity and A to be equal to intersection of A_n, n equal to 1 to infinity.

So, let us note the following set A_n , so μ of A_n is less than or equal to $\sum \mu$ of E_k ; k equal to n to infinity and μ of E_k is less than $1/2$ to the power k and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/2^n = 1$, so this is going to be equal to $1/2$ to the power $n+1$. So, μ of A_n because μ of E_k will be less than $1/2$ to the power k . So, this says μ of A_n is less than or equal to $1/2$ to the power n and these A_n 's; A_n is union of n to infinity, so as n increases these A_n 's are going to be smaller and smaller, so A_n is a decreasing sequence and it decreases to the intersection namely A .

(Refer Slide Time: 07:44)

Define $A_n = \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} E_k$, $A = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$.

Note. $\mu(A_n) \leq \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \mu(E_k) = \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$

and $A_n \downarrow A$. Thus, \forall finite

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

And $\nu(A_n) \geq \nu(E_n)$

Thus, ν being finite A_n decreasing to A will imply, so this will imply that ν of A is equal to $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu$ of the set A_n but, ν of A_n ; A_n is the intersection and oh sorry intersection of E sorry A_n sorry that is ok A_n . So A_n is union of E_k and ν of A_n is summation, so it is bigger than or equal to ν of E_n because A_n is union of E_n 's, so A_n includes E_n . So ν of A_n going to be bigger than or equal to ν of E_n which is bigger than or equal to ϵ .

(Refer Slide Time: 08:59)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \nu(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n) \\ &\text{Assume } \nu(A_n) \geq \epsilon \\ &\Rightarrow \nu(A) \geq \epsilon \\ &\text{But } \mu(A_n) \leq \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \\ &\Rightarrow \mu(A) \leq \mu(A_n) \forall n \\ &\quad \leq \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \forall n \\ &\Rightarrow \mu(A) = 0 \quad \text{⊗} \end{aligned}$$

So, this along with this implies that ν of A is bigger than or equal to ϵ but, we just now observed that μ of A_n was less than or equal to $1/2^{n+1}$, so what does that imply? That implies that μ of the set A because A is equal to intersection of this, so μ of A is less than or equal to μ of A_n for every n , so less than or equal to $1/2^{n+1}$ for every n , so that implies that μ of A is equal to 0.


So, what we have done is assuming that the required condition does not hold we have shown that there is a set A , such that μ of A is 0 but, ν of A is not equal to 0; it is bigger than or equal to ϵ which is a **contradiction**; this is the contradiction. So that implies, what we assumed is not true and hence, we have the required claim namely, that if ν is absolutely continuous with respect to a measure μ and ν is finite then, for every ϵ bigger than 0 there is a δ bigger than 0 such that $\mu(A) < \delta$ implies, ν of the set A has to be less than or equal to ϵ . This is what we have proved.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:43)

Theorem

- Let μ, ν be measures on (X, \mathcal{S}) with $\nu \ll \mu$.
If ν is finite, then
for every $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ such that
 $\nu(E) < \epsilon$ whenever $\mu(E) < \delta$, $E \in \mathcal{S}$.

There is a converse:
If for every $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ such that
 $\nu(E) < \epsilon$ whenever $\mu(E) < \delta$, $E \in \mathcal{S}$,
then $\nu \ll \mu$.



© 2014 K. Shankar IIT Bombay p.1/10

So, we have shown that if ν is finite then, the condition that ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ implies this required claim. Let us prove actually, the converse of this statement is also true namely for every ϵ bigger than 0 if there exists a δ such that $\nu(E) < \epsilon$ whenever $\mu(E) < \delta$ then ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ .

(Refer Slide Time: 11:15)


Converse $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$

s.t. $\mu(E) < \delta \Rightarrow \nu(E) < \epsilon$ //

Claim $\nu \ll \mu$?

Let $\mu(E) = 0$. Then $\forall \epsilon, \forall \delta$
 $\mu(E) = 0 < \delta$
 $\Rightarrow \nu(E) < \epsilon$.

$\Rightarrow \nu(E) = 0$.



Let us prove the converse. So, converse says the following that we have the property that for every ϵ bigger than 0 there is a δ bigger than 0 such that μ of a set E less

than delta implies, mu of E is less than epsilon and we want to claim that this property means that nu absolutely continuous with respect to mu.

Let us take suppose, mu of E be equal to 0. If mu of E is equal to 0 then for every epsilon - whatever delta we take - for every delta mu of E is equal to 0 is less than delta. So, that will imply by the given property that nu of E is less than epsilon. So nu of E is less than epsilon for every epsilon, so that implies nu of E is equal to 0. So, saying that for every epsilon there is a delta such that mu of E is less than delta implies the nu of E is less than epsilon implies, that the measure nu is absolutely continuous with respect to mu. So the converse is easier and it is true even if nu is not finite. So, we do not use anywhere the fact that nu is finite.

One way, we require nu to be finite that means, absolute continuity and nu finite implies this condition that for every epsilon, there is a delta such that mu of E less than delta implies nu of E less than epsilon. For the converse, we do not need this property. This is one characterization of absolutely continuous measures.


(Refer Slide Time: 13:04)

Absolutely continuous measures on \mathbb{R}

- Characterization of measures on \mathbb{R} , that are absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure.

Let $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a monotonically increasing right continuous function and μ_F be the measure induced by F on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}})$.

Then $\mu_F \ll \lambda$ if and only if the function F is absolutely continuous on every bounded interval.

 NPTEL

©2010 K. Sreenivas, IIT Bombay p. 6/20

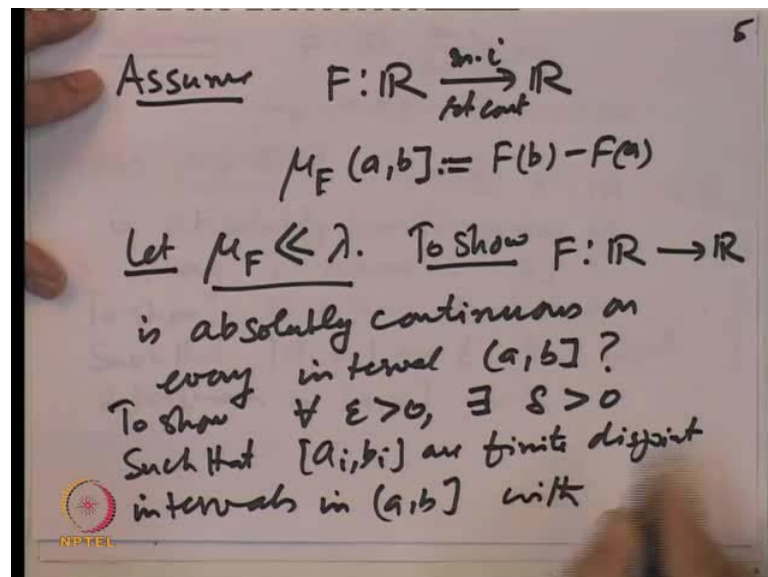
Next, let us recall that - we had defined - we had characterized all measures on the real line on the Borel sigma algebra. We had shown that if say given a measure mu on the collection of all borel measurable sets in the real line there exists a monotonically increasing right continuous function such that for any interval a comma b mu of a b is

given by f of b minus f of a . So, that gave us the characterization of all countably additive set functions on the sigma algebra or Borel subsets of real line. Using that we would like to characterize what are all absolutely continuous measures on the real line with respect to the Lebesgue measure.

So, the theorem states the following namely, let F be a monotonically increasing right continuous functions and μ_F be the measure induced by this monotonically increasing right continuous function F on $\mathbb{B}\mathbb{R}$. Then, the claim is that this measure μ_F is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure λ if and only if, the function F is absolutely continuous on every bounded interval. So, we will like to prove this result.

This will give us that what are all measures which are absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure. It ties up with the property of the function F being absolutely continuous. So, this relates the two concepts: absolutely continuous measures and absolutely continuous functions on the real line.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:05)



Let us look at a proof of this. Let us assume that F is monotonically increasing and right continuous and μ_F is the measure on the borel sets which is given by for the left open right closed interval a, b it is defined as - if you recall - we defined it as $F(b)$ minus $F(a)$

and then, we showed that this μ_F is the measure which we called as the measure induced by the function F .

So this is given, let μ_F be absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure. To show that the function F is absolutely continuous on every interval say a to b , what we have to do?

(Refer Slide Time: 17:11)

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i) < \delta \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n |F(b_i) - F(a_i)| < \epsilon$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given

Since $\mu_F \ll \lambda$,

$\exists \delta > 0$ such that $\forall E \in \mathcal{B}_{[a,b]}$
 $\lambda(E) < \delta \Rightarrow \mu_F(E) < \epsilon$.

In particular, if
 $E = \bigcup_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$ s.t.

We have to show that for every epsilon bigger than 0 there is a delta, bigger than 0 such that if I take a sequence of intervals say a_i, b_i are finite disjoint intervals in the interval a, b with the property that $\sum (b_i - a_i) < \delta$ and that should imply that $\sum_{i=1}^n |F(b_i) - F(a_i)| < \epsilon$, so this is what we have to show.

So let us fix, let epsilon greater than 0 be given. Let us start with an epsilon bigger than 0 be given. Now, since μ_F is absolutely continuous with respect to λ there exists δ bigger than 0 such that $\lambda(E) < \delta$ will imply that $\mu_F(E) < \epsilon$ is less than epsilon, so this is by the property. We just now proved that absolute continuity is equivalent to this property and μ_F on the interval a, b is finite, such that for every E inside belonging to the borel sigma algebra of the interval a, b , this is true.

(Refer Slide Time: 19:07)

$\lambda(E) < \delta \Rightarrow \mu_F(E) < \epsilon.$
 In particular, if
 $E = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$ s.t.
 $\lambda(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i) < \delta$
 $\Rightarrow \mu_F(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n (F(b_i) - F(a_i)) < \epsilon$

So in particular, if E is a finite disjoint union of intervals $a_i b_i$ inside, such that λ of E which is equal to $\sum b_i - a_i$ is less than δ .

(Refer Slide Time: 19:39)

$\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i) < \delta \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n (F(b_i) - F(a_i)) < \epsilon?$
let $\epsilon > 0$ be given
 Since $\mu_F \ll \lambda$,
 $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $\forall E \in \mathcal{B}_{[a,b]}$
 $\lambda(E) < \delta \Rightarrow \mu_F(E) < \epsilon.$
 In particular, if
 $E = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$ s.t.

So that will imply that μ of F of this set E ; μ of F of this set E is nothing but, F of b_i minus F of a_i , $\sum_{i=1}^n$ is less than ϵ that is because, we have just now given ϵ , we have chosen δ with that property.

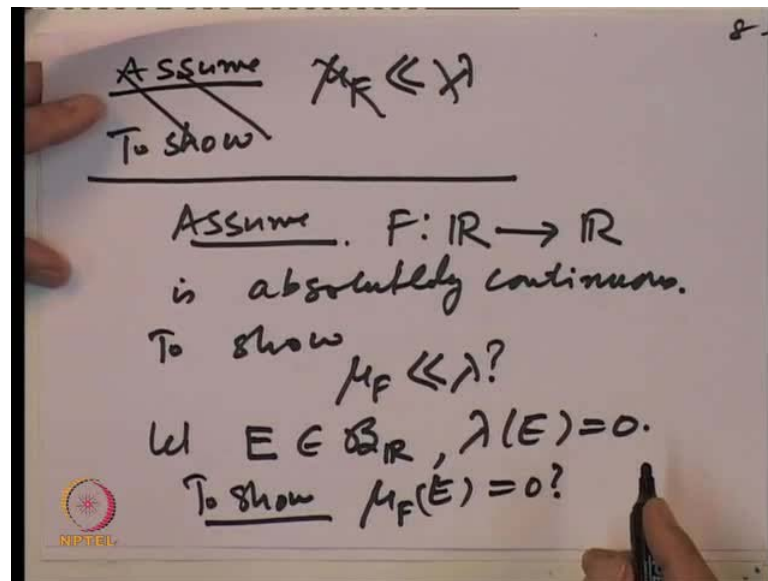
(Refer Slide Time: 19:55)

The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical text. At the top, it says "s.t. $\lambda(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i) < \delta$ ". Below that, it says " $\Rightarrow \mu_F(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n (F(b_i) - F(a_i)) < \epsilon$ ". The final line reads "Hence $F: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is absolutely continuous." There is a small red circular logo with the text "NPTEL" in the bottom left corner of the whiteboard.

So, in particular we applying this for a set E which is a finite disjoint union of intervals a_i, b_i inside the interval a, b . So, this will imply μ_F and by definition μ_F of E - which is the finite disjoint union of intervals - is nothing but, $\sum F$ of b_i minus. Hence, this proves that F on a, b to \mathbb{R} is absolutely continuous. So, one way we have proved that if F of μ of F the measure induced is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure. Then, the corresponding function F monotonically increasing right continuous function F which is inducing that measure is also absolutely continuous.

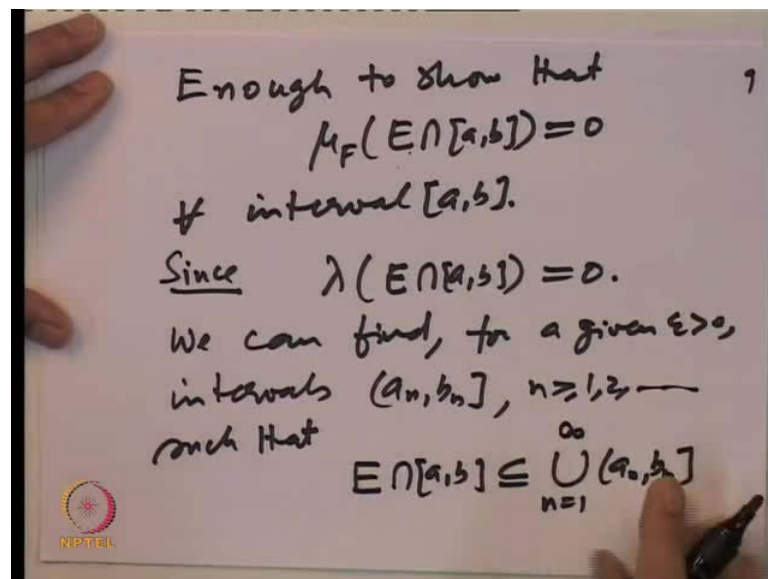
Let us look at the converse of this statement that we are given that the function F - capital F - which is monotonically increasing and right continuous is also absolutely continuous then, we want to show that the corresponding measure μ_F is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure. So, let us prove that fact.

(Refer Slide Time: 21:10)



Let us prove, assume that μ_F is absolutely continuous with respect to λ . we have to show the other way round sorry this is not, this is just now we have shown. So, assume that F is absolutely continuous. To show, we have to show that μ_F is absolutely continuous with respect to λ . So this is what we have to show for the other way round proof. Let us assume, let E belong to $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$ and $\lambda(E) = 0$.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:39)

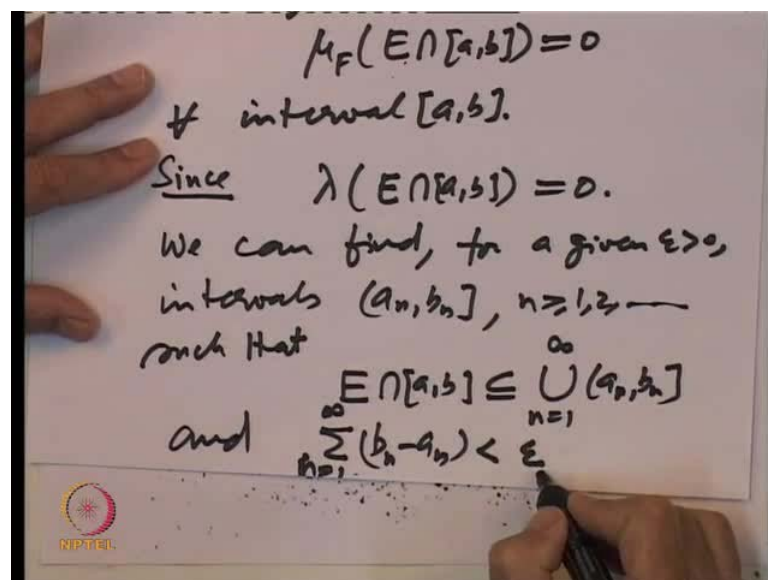


So, to show μ_F of E is equal to 0, this is what we have to show mathematically. Now let us observe first of all by showing that μ_F of E is equal to 0 enough to show that μ_F

μ_F of E intersection every interval a to b is equal to 0, for every interval a to b then, we can split E into every interval. So, countable additivity will give us that this is 0 for every E .

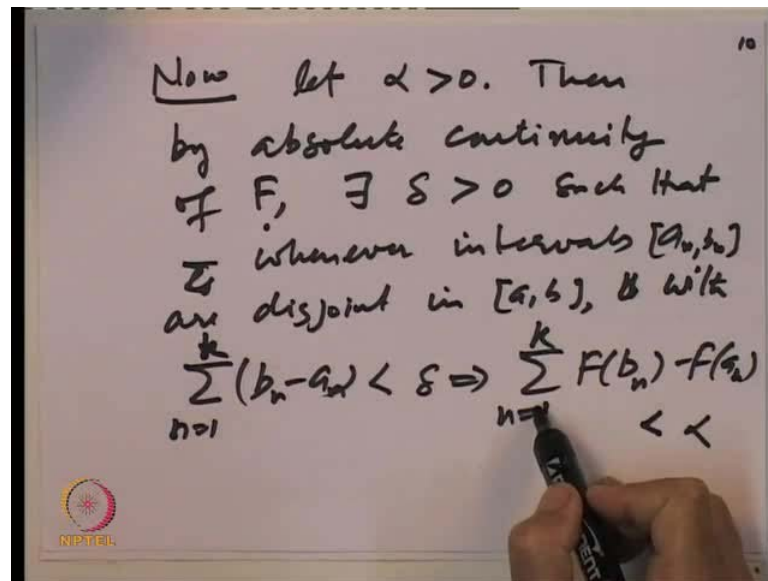
Let us assume that we have got enough to show that this is equal to 0. Now, since λ of E is 0; λ intersection a to b is also equal to 0 that means, the set E intersection a to b is a set of Lebesgue measure 0. So, by the properties of sets of Lebesgue measure 0, we can find so let us or a given $\epsilon > 0$, we can find intervals say a_n to b_n . We can choose them to be left open right closed n bigger than or equal to 1, 2 and so on, such that this set E which is a null set intersection a , b is covered by these intervals a_n to b_n and the total length of this and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (b_n - a_n) < \epsilon$ is less than ϵ .

(Refer Slide Time: 24:34)



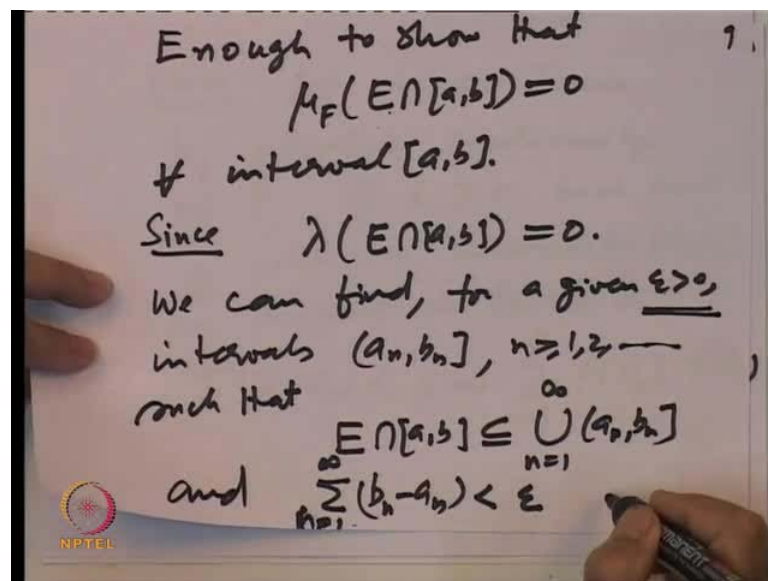
So, the total length of this is small. This is by the property that E is a null set, so E intersection a to b is a null set. So, by the definition of after measure if you like, you can find a sequence of left open right closed intervals which cover this set and the total length of this recovering intervals is small is less than ϵ .

(Refer Slide Time: 25:21)



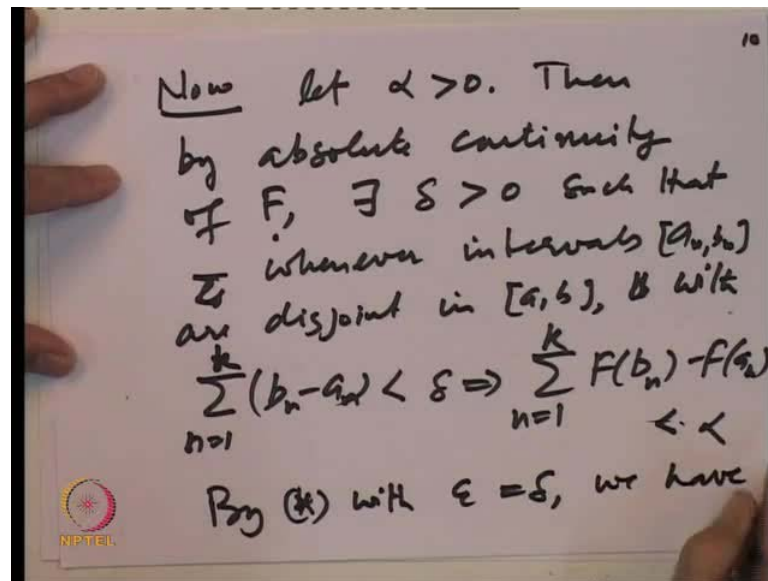
Now, what we want to show? Our aim is to show that the function F is absolutely continuous. So, let us take any number say alpha; let alpha bigger than 0 be given then, it is enough to show that mu of that thing is equal to. So, what is to be shown? We are given F is absolutely continuous then by the absolute continuity of F there exist some delta bigger than 0 such that whenever intervals $a_n b_n$ are disjoint in $a b$ with σb_n minus a_n some n equal to some 1 to k finite number of disjoint intervals $a b$ less than delta will imply that F of b_n minus F of a_n , n equal to 1 to k is less than alpha.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:34)

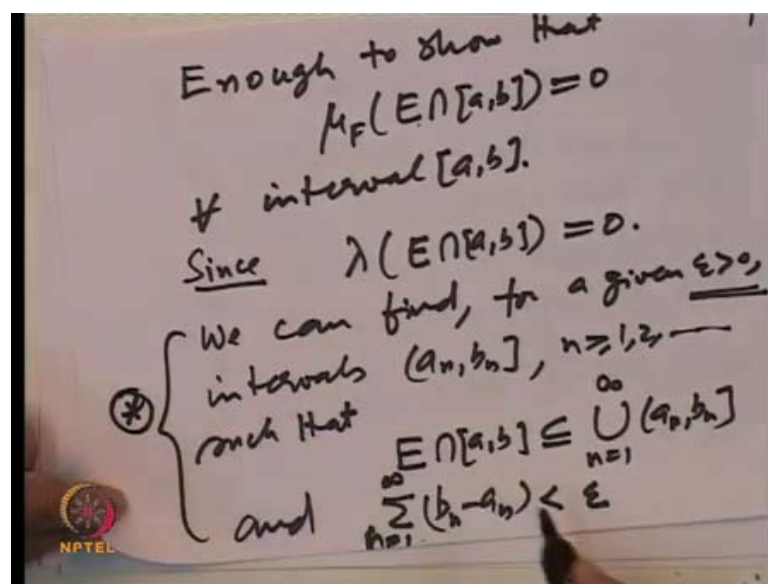


So, this is by the absolute continuity of the function F which is given to us. Now, we start with given any α bigger than 0, we find a δ with this property. Now for this δ , we apply our earlier things that λ of this was a null set, so for any given ϵ ; we will use this when ϵ is equal to δ because, when ϵ is equal to δ we will have the summation of this intervals less than δ and that will imply the corresponding.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:49)



(Refer Slide Time: 27:57)



Let us call this thing as star.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:24)

The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical derivations. The text is as follows:

$$\Rightarrow \mu_F(E \cap [a, b]) = 0$$

Hence $\lambda(E) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_F(E \cap [a, b]) = 0$$

$\neq a, b$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_F(E) = 0$$

Hence $\mu_F \ll \lambda$.

In the bottom left corner of the whiteboard, there is a small circular logo with the text "NPTEL" below it.

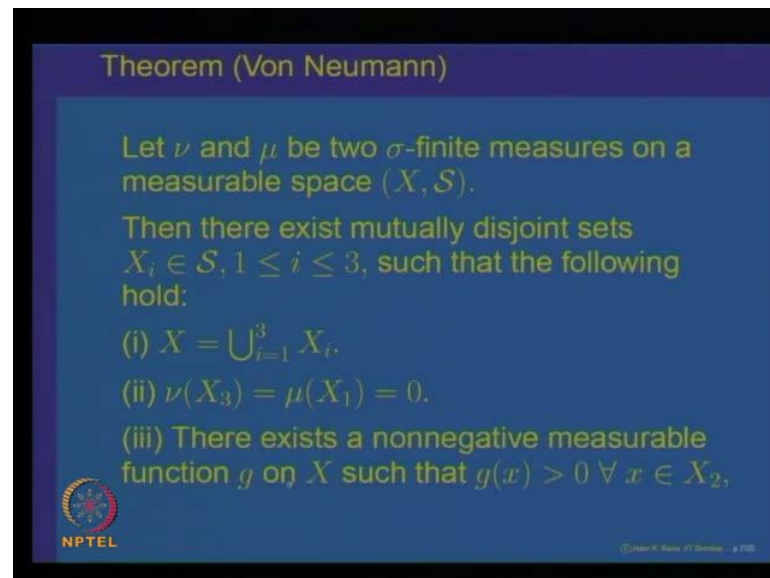
So by star with epsilon is equal to delta, so we will have that sigma of $F(b_n) - F(a_n)$, n equal to 1 to k is less than alpha for every k , so this happens for every k . So, that implies that sigma of n equal to 1 to infinity $F(b_n) - F(a_n)$ is also less than alpha because, this is happening for every k but, that implies $\mu_F(E \cap [a, b])$ which was μ_F of this which was less than or equal to because, $E \cap [a, b]$ was contained in the union of intervals $a_n b_n$. So, it is less than or equal to sigma $\mu_F(a_n b_n)$, n equal to 1 to infinity and this is equal to sigma n equal to 1 to infinity of $F(b_n) - F(a_n)$ which is less than alpha.

What we have shown is that for every alpha, $\mu_F(E \cap [a, b])$ is less than or equal to alpha. **so that implies so this**- This happens because this is happening for every alpha, so this implies that $\mu_F(E \cap [a, b])$ is equal to 0 because, this is happening for every alpha, so let alpha go to 0. So hence, we have shown that $\lambda(E) = 0$ implies $\mu_F(E \cap [a, b]) = 0$, for every a, b . That implies - because this is happening for every a, b so this is implies - that μ_F is of E is equal to 0. So hence, μ_F is absolutely continuous with respect to λ .

So, this proves the other way round theorem. This completes the proof of the theorem that μ_F is absolutely continuous with respect to λ if and only if the function F is absolutely continuous on every bounded interval. So, this completely characterizes and

ties up the notion of absolutely continuous measures on the real line with respect to Lebesgue measure with absolutely continuous functions on the real line.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:20)



Theorem (Von Neumann)

Let ν and μ be two σ -finite measures on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{S}) .

Then there exist mutually disjoint sets $X_i \in \mathcal{S}, 1 \leq i \leq 3$, such that the following hold:

- (i) $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^3 X_i$.
- (ii) $\nu(X_3) = \mu(X_1) = 0$.
- (iii) There exists a nonnegative measurable function g on X such that $g(x) > 0 \forall x \in X_2$.

NPTEL

Next, we want to prove a theorem called Von Neumann theorem, which is a very nice theorem and it uses very nicely, very intelligently. The fact that the dual of the L^2 of measure spaces itself that we called as the Riesz representation theorem namely, that if T is a continuous linear functional on L^2 of a measure space then, it is essentially given by the inner product. So this is used very effectively, we will not give a proof of this theorem. Those who are interested can read the text book but, we will see how this theorem is use to prove some results about measures.


Let us first state this theorem called for Von Neumann theorem. The theorem says, let us take two measures μ and ν which are sigma finite measures on measurable space X, \mathcal{S} then, it says there exists mutually disjoint sets X_i a measurable sets such that the following properties hold, first of all this X_1, X_2, X_3 give a partition of the space X .

So, X is partitioned into three parts; $X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3$ on X_3 and X_1 , ν of X_3 is equal to 0 that means, ν for any subset in X_3 the measure of a set is equal to 0. That means, ν at the most gives values to subsets on X_1 and X_2 . On the other hand, μ of X_1 is equal to 0 that means, μ gives values to subsets possibly in X_2 and X_3 . So, ν of X_3 is equal to 0, μ of X_1 is equal to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 33:31)

Theorem (Von Neumann)

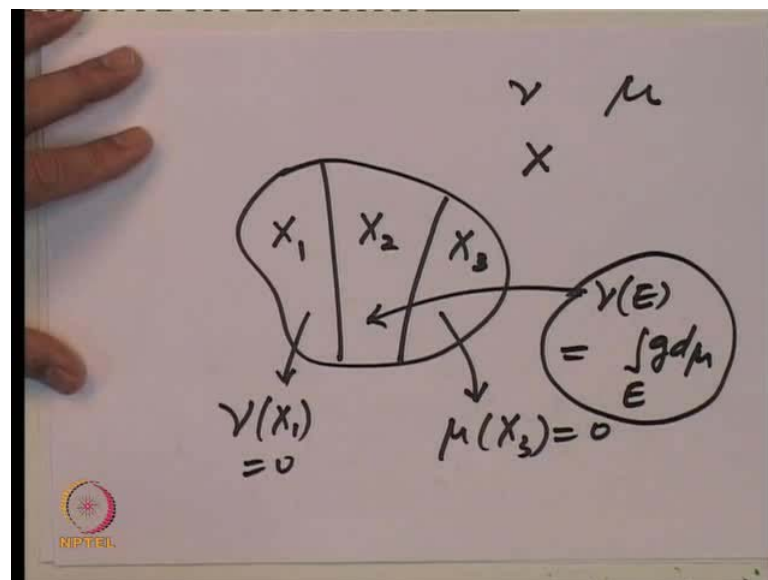
and $\forall E \in \mathcal{S}$ with $E \subseteq X_2$ we have

$$\nu(E) = \int_E g d\mu.$$


©2008 A. Kulkarni, IIT Bombay. p.11/11

On the set X_2 , there is a function g which is a non-negative measurable function such that for every subset E of measurable subset E of X_2 , ν of E can be written as integral of the function g over the set E .

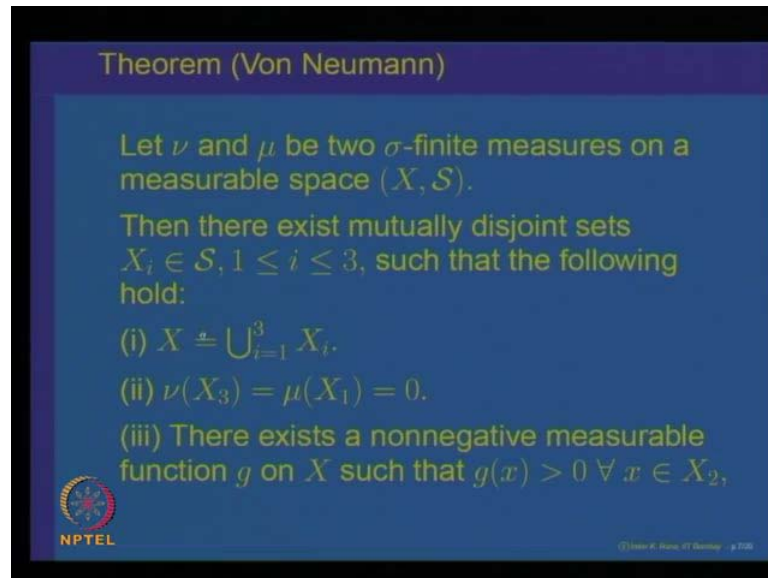
(Refer Slide Time: 34:08)



So in some sense it describes, let us take this is my set X and we have got two measures ν and μ . It says we can decompose into three parts X_1 , X_2 and X_3 . On this part, ν of X_1 is 0, on this part μ of X_3 is equal to 0. In this part ν is 0; in this part μ is 0

and on this part X_2 , this ν of any set E ; it can be written as integral over E of $g d\mu$, so this property holds on this set.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:48)



Theorem (Von Neumann)

Let ν and μ be two σ -finite measures on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{S}) .

Then there exist mutually disjoint sets $X_i \in \mathcal{S}$, $1 \leq i \leq 3$, such that the following hold:

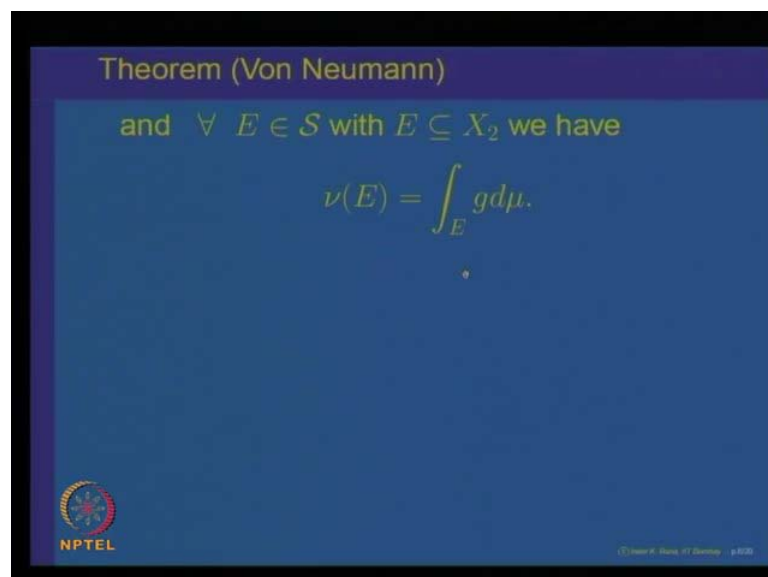
- (i) $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^3 X_i$.
- (ii) $\nu(X_3) = \mu(X_1) = 0$.
- (iii) There exists a nonnegative measurable function g on X such that $g(x) > 0 \forall x \in X_2$,

NPTEL

©2006 W. Riney, MIT OpenCourseWare p. 7/20

So this is a decomposition of Von Neumann. Let us just recall, the Von Neumann decomposition theorem says that given two measures ν and μ which are sigma finite.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:18)



Theorem (Von Neumann)

and $\forall E \in \mathcal{S}$ with $E \subseteq X_2$ we have

$$\nu(E) = \int_E g d\mu.$$

NPTEL

©2006 W. Riney, MIT OpenCourseWare p. 8/20

Of course, we can decompose X into three parts; X is equal to $X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3$; ν of X_3 is equal to 0; μ of X_1 is equal to 0. On the middle part X_2 , the measure ν

can be represented in terms of the measure μ by the property that ν of E is equal to $\int_E g d\mu$.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:33)

Theorem (Lebesgue decomposition)

Let μ, ν be two σ -finite measures on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{S}) . Then there exist σ -finite measures ν_a and ν_s with the following properties:

- (i) $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$.
- (ii) There exists a nonnegative measurable function f such that

$$\nu_a(E) = \int_E f d\mu \text{ for every } E \in \mathcal{S}.$$

NPTEL

©2009 P. Datta, IIT Bombay p. 6/20

This is called Von Neumann's theorem and it is very useful theorem we will see soon. Using this theorem, we prove what is called the Lebesgue decomposition theorem. So, Lebesgue decomposition theorem says the following that suppose, μ and ν are two sigma finite measures on a measurable space X, \mathcal{S} . Then it implies that there exists a sigma finite measures ν_a and ν_s with the following properties namely, this measure ν can be written as a sum of two measures ν_a and ν_s .

So, the measure ν can be written as the sum of two measures ν_a plus ν_s . What are the properties of these two measures? The first property says that measure ν_a is representable in terms of the measure μ via integrals. So it says, ν_a of E for any subset E is integral of a non-negative measurable function f over the set E .

(Refer Slide Time: 36:50)

Theorem (Lebesgue decomposition)

(iii) There exists a set $A \in \mathcal{S}$ such that

$$\mu(A^c) = \nu_s(A) = 0.$$

Furthermore, such a decomposition is unique.

NPTEL

© 2008 R. Ramanathan, p. 10/20

So it says, there exists a unique non-negative measurable function f . Such that to compute ν of a of any set E , we just integrate f over the set E . The second part says, it describes what is the measure ν_s ? It says there is a set A such that μ of A complement is 0 and ν_s of A is equal to 0 that means, μ and ν_s are setting on disjoint sets, μ of A complement is 0 that means, μ sits on A and ν_s of A is equal to 0, so ν_s it is on A complement essentially. So, this is what is called Lebesgue decomposition theorem. So, we want to show that how it arises as an application of Von Neumann's theorem, this is also part of the consequence that such decomposition is unique.


(Refer Slide Time: 37:30)

Theorem (Lebesgue decomposition)

Proof: By von Neumann theorem, we have disjoint sets X_1, X_2 and X_3 in \mathcal{S} such that $X = X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3$, and $\nu(X_3) = \mu(X_1) = 0$.
Further,

$$\nu(E \cap X_2) = \int_{E \cap X_2} g d\mu, \quad \forall E \in \mathcal{S},$$

where g is nonnegative measurable function on X with the properties:

$$g(x) > 0, x \in X_2 \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = 0, x \in X_2^c.$$


© 2008 NPTEL

Let us look at by Von Neumann theorem. Given the measures ν and μ , we have disjoint sets X_1, X_2 and X_3 , such that the following property holds. We recall that X is equal to $X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3$ and $\nu(X_3)$ is equal to 0 and $\mu(X_1)$ is equal to 0. So, μ does not give any mass; does not give any measure to the set X_1 and ν does not give any measure to the set X_3 . On X_2 , we recall that for every set E , a measurable set if we look at $E \cap X_2$ then, we can compute this measure as an integral of a non-negative measurable function g over the set $E \cap X_2$.

Moreover recall this is a non-negative, g is a non-negative measurable function and g is equal to 0 on the complement of the set **E 2** because the measure ν on X_3 is equal to 0, so this is the Von Neumann's theorem.

(Refer Slide Time: 38:55)

Theorem (Lebesgue decomposition)

Let $A := X_2 \cup X_3$.

Define $\forall E \in \mathcal{S}$,

$$\nu_a(E) := \nu(A \cap E) \text{ and } \nu_s(E) := \nu(E \cap X_1).$$

Then $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$ and $\nu_s(A) = \mu(A^c) = 0$.

Finally, $\forall E \in \mathcal{S}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_a(E) &= \nu(E \cap (X_3 \cup X_2)) \\ &= \nu(E \cap X_2) \\ &= \int_{E \cap X_2} g \, d\mu. \end{aligned}$$

NPTEL

© 2008 N. Ram, IIT Bombay. p.1/20

Now it is easy to define, what should be our measures ν_a and ν_s . On the set X_2 , we should define ν_a to be equal to ν on X_2 , so let us put A equal to X_2 union X_3 . On this set for every set E belonging to \mathcal{S} ν_a of E is defined as ν of A intersection E , on the complement of this part, so ν_s of E that is going to be E intersection X_1 because X_1 is the complement of A that is A complement.

The measure ν_a as ν of A intersection E restrict ν to E and restrict ν to X_1 to get the measure ν_s . Now obviously, these two are ν_s and ν_a are the measures that is obvious from the definition. Also it is clear from the definition that the measure ν is nothing but ν_a , because ν_a is on A and ν_s is on E complement. So, ν is nothing but ν_a plus ν_s and the measure ν_s on A complement is equal to 0, so this satisfies the required properties. Only we have to check that ν_a of E is given by the integral and that is obvious because ν_a of E is ν of E intersection X_2 union X_3 by the definition, because A is X_2 union X_3 and on X_2 it is given by E intersection X_2 integral $g \, d\mu$ because ν of X_3 is equal to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 40:35)

Theorem (Lebesgue decomposition)

Define


$$f(x) := \begin{cases} g(x) & \text{if } x \in X_2, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in X_1 \cup X_3. \end{cases}$$

Then f is a nonnegative measurable function on X and

$$\nu_a(E) = \int_E f d\mu \quad \forall E \in \mathcal{S}.$$

This proves the existence part of the theorem.

The uniqueness is left as a reading exercise.



©2006 K. Sreenivas, IIT Bombay - p.19/20


So, ν_a is given by the integral. So that proves the theorem, except for the fact that at present g is defined only on X_2 ; this is not an issue, we can extend it to the whole by putting it equal to 0. Then, it has the required property that f is defined as a non-negative measurable function defined on the whole space X and $\nu_a(E)$ is given by the integral. So that proves Lebesgue decomposition theorem and the uniqueness is only a manipulation of the measures, which we will leave it as a reading exercise for the reader to verify. So, we will assume the uniqueness part of it.

(Refer Slide Time: 41:24)

Theorem (Lebesgue decomposition)

Let μ, ν be two σ -finite measures on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{S}) . Then there exist σ -finite measures ν_a and ν_s with the following properties:

- (i) $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$.
- (ii) There exists a nonnegative measurable function f such that

$$\nu_a(E) = \int_E f d\mu \quad \text{for every } E \in \mathcal{S}.$$


©2006 K. Sreenivas, IIT Bombay - p.20/20

So Lebesgue decomposition, let me go back and state understand what is Lebesgue decomposition theorem? It says that given two sigma finite measures on a measure space. One of the measures say let us take ν can be written as a sum of two measures ν_a and ν_s , where ν_a is given by integration and ν_s sits on a part which is complimentary to the part of ν of a .

(Refer Slide Time: 41:51)

Theorem (Lebesgue decomposition)

(iii) There exists a set $A \in \mathcal{S}$ such that

$$\mu(A^c) = \nu_s(A) = 0.$$

Furthermore, such a decomposition is unique.

NPTEL

© 2009 by NPTEL. All rights reserved. p 10/20

This is ν_a is given as a integral and μ of A complement is same as ν_s of A is equal to 0. So this theorem is called Lebesgue decomposition theorem.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:08)

Singular measures

- Let μ, ν be measures on (X, \mathcal{S}) . We say μ is **singular** with respect to ν if for some $E \in \mathcal{S}$, $\mu(E) = \nu(E^c) = 0$.
In that case we write $\mu \perp \nu$.
- Lebesgue's Decomposition:
Given μ, ν be two σ -finite measures on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{S}) , there exist σ -finite measures ν_a and ν_s such that with the following properties:
 $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$ where $\nu_a \ll \mu$, and $\nu_s \perp \mu$.

NPTEL

© 2009 by NPTEL. All rights reserved. p 14/20

This is the measure ν_s that we have defined just now- Let us make it as a definition, so two measures μ and ν are said to be singular with respect to each other or we say μ is singular with respect to ν . If there is a set E such that $\mu(E) = 0$ and $\nu(E^c) = 0$. That essentially says, we can decompose the space X into two parts E and E^c and μ sits on one part and ν sits on the other part.

So such measures are called singular and the obvious that if μ is singular with respect to ν then ν is singular with respect to μ , it is a commutative relation of singularity while, absolute continuity was not. So, ν absolutely continuous with respect to μ need not imply μ is absolutely continuous, while the singularity is true that namely this singular is also written as $\mu \perp \nu$. So this is also read as singularity, is also said μ is orthogonal or μ is perpendicular to ν and written as $\mu \perp \nu$.

So Lebesgue decomposition theorem, can be stated in terms of singularity that given two measures which are σ finite on a measure space (X, \mathcal{S}) , there exist σ finite measures ν_a and ν_s . Such that the following properties hold namely, ν is decomposed into two parts $\nu_a + \nu_s$, where ν_a is absolutely continuous with respect to μ and ν_s is orthogonal with respect to μ .

So, this is the decomposition that essentially it says that the measure ν has got absolutely continuous part and absolute continuous part says, you can obtain ν_a via integration. Singular part says that this is the other part which is completely orthogonal to μ , so the sets – disjoint sets - you cannot do anything there, they are disjoint sets.

(Refer Slide Time: 44:21)

Theorem (Radon-Nikodym)

- Let μ, ν be σ -finite measures on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{S}) such that $\nu \ll \mu$. Then there exists a nonnegative measurable function f such that

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

Further, if g is any other measurable function such that the above holds, then

$$f(x) = g(x) \text{ for a.e. } x(\mu).$$

NPTEL

They sit on what one says they **sports** are disjoint essentially, so this is what is called Lebesgue decomposition theorem. As a consequence of this, we will get what is called the Radon–Nikodym theorem, which characterizes absolutely continuous measures. It says that if two measures μ and ν which are sigma finite on a measurable space X, \mathcal{S} , such that ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ . Then, there is a non-negative measurable function f such that ν of E is given via integration over of f over the set E . So, that completely characterizes absolutely continuous measures.

Recall if we define ν of E by this then, we have already shown that was the beginning of our analysis saying that any measure ν defined in terms of integral with respect to μ is absolutely continuous. This is the converse part of it namely if ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ , then there must be a non-negative measurable function f such that ν of E is equal to integral of f over E with respect to the measure μ .

Proof is obvious from the Lebesgue decomposition theorem and the uniqueness part of it, because we know that ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ , so when we apply Lebesgue decomposition theorem to the measures ν and μ ; ν will be decomposed into two parts the absolutely continuous part and the singular part but, there is no singular part, there is only absolutely continuous part and the absolutely continuous part, we have already seen in Lebesgue decomposition theorem is given via integrals.

So, this is a direct application of Lebesgue decomposition theorem. This function f is also unique in the sense that if there are two functions, then f must be equal to g almost everywhere. That happens because, if there is another function g with the same property, then integral of f over every set E is equal to integral of g over every set E that implies that f must be equal to g almost everywhere that we have seen earlier.

(Refer Slide Time: 44:27)

Theorem (Radon-Nikodym)

Proof:
 Since $\nu \ll \mu$, by the Lebesgue decomposition theorem,

$$\nu_\alpha = \nu \text{ and } \nu_s = 0.$$

Further, there is a nonnegative measurable function f such that

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

NPTEL

© 2008 K. Sreenivas, IIT Bombay. p.16/28

So Radon–Nikodym theorem, the proof is an application of Lebesgue decomposition theorem and Lebesgue decomposition theorem is an application of Von Neumann’s theorem. Once again saying that ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ by Lebesgue decomposition theorem, ν_α must be equal to ν , because that is absolutely continuous and ν_s is equal to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 46:59)

Theorem (Radon-Nikodym)

To prove the uniqueness of f , let there exist another nonnegative measurable function g such that

$$\nu(E) = \int_E g d\mu, \quad \forall E \in \mathcal{S}.$$

Then,

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

NPTEL

(Lecture 6: Radon-Nikodym - p.17/18)

So that says, ν of E is given by integral over f by the Lebesgue decomposition theorem. As such we said, uniqueness is obvious because integral f is equal to integral g must imply that f is equal to g almost everywhere. Radon–Nikodym theorem is one of the most important and subtle theorems of our subject, because just from the existence of same null sets μ of E equal to 0 implies ν of E equal to 0, this simple property about null set says that ν must be obtainable from μ via integration.

It is really a deep and amazing theorem of our subject. Let me also point out there are many proofs available of this theorem. We have given a proof which is via Von Neumann’s theorem and Von Neumann’s theorem uses the fact that the dual of L^2 is L^2 . There is another purely measure theoretic proof of this but, that goes into the realm of what is called signed measures. So, one looks at signed measures and then, one decomposes a signed measure. There is something called a Hahn decomposition theorem, that every signed measure is a difference of two measures and then from there one deduces Lebesgue decomposition theorem and then comes to Radon–Nikodym theorem.

So that is another route possible for proving this theorem. So, both the proofs are available in the text and we have outlined here only one proof which is more function theoretic using that dual of L^2 is L^2 .

(Refer Slide Time: 48:45)


Radon-Nikodym derivative

- Let μ, ν be σ -finite measures on (X, \mathcal{S}) such that $\nu \ll \mu$.

The unique measurable function f (as given by Radon - Nikodym theorem) such that,
 $\forall E \in \mathcal{S}$,

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

is called the **Radon-Nikodym derivative** of ν with respect to μ and is denoted by $\frac{d\nu}{d\mu}(x)$.



© Indian Institute of Technology Bombay - p. 19/20

This gives the notion of absolute continuity also gives rise to the notion of what is called the derivative. Let us define that whenever two measures μ and ν are sigma finite and ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ , so Radon–Nikodym theorem says that ν of E must be given by a function - a unique function - f this unique function f is called the Radon–Nikodym derivative of the measure ν with respect to μ and is denoted by $\frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$ of x .


(Refer Slide Time: 49:10)

Radon-Nikodym derivative

Let μ_1, μ_2 and ν be σ -finite measures on (X, \mathcal{S}) . Then the following hold:

- (i) If $\mu_i \ll \nu, i = 1, 2$, then $(\mu_1 + \mu_2) \ll \nu$ and
$$\frac{d(\mu_1 + \mu_2)}{d\nu}(x) = \frac{d\mu_1}{d\nu}(x) + \frac{d\mu_2}{d\nu}(x) \text{ for a.e. } x(\nu)$$
- (ii) If $\mu_1 \ll \mu_2$ and $\mu_1 \ll \nu$, then
$$\left(\frac{d\mu_1}{d\mu_2}(x) \right) \left(\frac{d\mu_2}{d\mu_1}(x) \right) = 1$$

for a.e. $x(\mu_1)$ and a.e. $x(\mu_2)$.



© Indian Institute of Technology Bombay - p. 19/20

So here are some simple properties of this Radon–Nikodym derivative which are very much similar to the derivative of functions namely, if $\mu_1 \ll \mu_2$ and ν are sigma finite measures then, and if $\mu_i \ll \mu_1$ and μ_1 is absolutely continuous with respect to μ_2 then, $\mu_1 + \mu_2$ is also absolutely continuous and the Radon–Nikodym derivative of the sum is equal to sum of the Radon–Nikodym derivatives of course, almost everywhere.

So very much similar to the derivative of the sum is equal to sum of the derivatives for functions. Similarly, if μ_1 is absolutely continuous with respect to μ_2 sorry this is a mistake here and μ_2 is absolutely continuous with respect to μ_1 . That means, both are absolutely continuous with respect to each other then the product of the derivative is equal to 1. So that is the second property, so here it should be μ_2 absolutely continuous with respect to μ_1 .

(Refer Slide Time: 50:07)

Radon-Nikodym derivatives

- (iii) If $\nu \ll \mu_1, \mu_1 \ll \mu_2$, then $\nu \ll \mu_2$ and

$$\frac{d\mu_2}{d\nu}(x) = \frac{d\mu_2}{d\mu_1}(x) \times \frac{d\mu_1}{d\nu}(x) \text{ for a.e. } x(\mu_2).$$

◊

NPTEL

©Loken G. Saha, IIT Bombay p.20/20

Finally, if ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ_1 and μ_1 is absolutely continuous with respect to μ_2 . Then there is a kind of associativity property namely, this implies that ν must be absolutely continuous with respect to μ_2 and the derivative, so $d\mu_2/d\nu$ is computable as $d\mu_2/d\mu_1$ multiplied by the derivative $d\mu_1/d\nu$. So, it is like a chain rule for the derivative functions.

So with that idea of Radon–Nikodym - This set of ideas namely, absolutely continuous functions and absolutely continuous measures, is complete and in the remaining next lecture, we will look at some special properties of sequences of measurable functions and the various ways they can converge to a function f . Thank you.