

**Measure & Integration**  
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**Lecture – 05 A**  
**Set Functions**

Welcome to lecture 5 on measure and integration. If you recall in the previous lectures, we have been looking at the various classes of subsets of a set  $X$  with various properties. We will look at what is an algebra, what is a sigma algebra, and a monotonic class. Today we will start looking at functions defined on classes of subsets of a set  $X$ . We will look at first what is called set functions, and then we will look at a very important example of a set function; namely the length function. So, let us start defining with what are called set functions.

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**Set functions**

- Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of subsets of a set  $X$ .  
A function  
$$\mu : \mathcal{C} \longrightarrow [0, +\infty]$$
is called a **set function**.
- Set function  $\mu : \mathcal{C} \longrightarrow [0, +\infty]$  is said to be **monotone** if for all  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  
$$\mu(A) \leq \mu(B) \text{ whenever } A \subseteq B.$$

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Let us start with  $\mathcal{C}$ , a class of subsets of a set  $X$  any function  $\mu$ . So, this is a Greek symbol called  $\mu$ . So, a function  $\mu$  defines on the class of subsets  $\mathcal{C}$  of a set  $X$ , and taking non negative extended real valued functions.

So, this interval  $0$  plus infinity both included denotes the set of all non negative extended, really the extended real numbers. So, A function  $\mu$  defined on this collection  $\mathcal{C}$  of subsets of a set  $X$  taking values in non negative extended real numbers is going to be called a set function. So, it is a function, whose domain is a collection of sets; that is

why it is called a set function. Next we will be looking at some special properties, which will be analyzing such functions. So, let us define a set function  $\mu$ ; of course, where  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of subsets of a set  $X$  and  $0$  to plus infinity is a nonnegative extended real numbers. So, a set function  $\mu$  is said to be monotone, if it has the following property; namely for any 2 sets  $A$  and  $B$  in  $\mathcal{C}$   $\mu$  of  $A$  is less than or equal to  $\mu$  of  $B$ , whenever  $A$  is a subset of  $B$ .

So, a some kind of a and monotone property, let whenever  $A$  is a subset of  $B$  and both are in the collection  $\mathcal{C}$ . We want that  $\mu$  of  $A$  should be less than or equal to  $\mu$  of  $B$ . So, this is called the monotone property.

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**Set functions**

- Set function  $\mu : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  is said to be **finitely additive** if

$$\mu \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i).$$

whenever  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{C}$  are such that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \in \mathcal{C}$  and

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j$$

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Next, we look at, what is called finite additivity property of a set function  $\mu$ . So, a set function  $\mu$  is said to be finitely additive. So, I am emphasizing the point finitely and additive, if it has the following properties that  $\mu$  of union of sets  $A_i$ ,  $i$  equal to 1 to  $n$ . So, given any finite collection of sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ , we want  $\mu$  of the union of these sets is equal to  $\mu$  of  $A_i$ 's. Of course, this will be whenever  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ , this is a finite collection of sets in  $\mathcal{C}$ ; such that their union also belongs to  $\mathcal{C}$  for; otherwise this number on the left hand side of this equation will not be defined, and we want further these sets are pairwise disjoint.

So,  $A_i \cap A_j$  is empty for  $i \neq j$ . So, once again, let us see what is finite additivity. Finite additivity means for any finite collection of sets in  $\mathcal{C}$   $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$

in  $C$ ; such that their union is also an element in  $C$ , and these sets are pair wise disjoint for any such finite collection of sets, we want that  $\mu$  of the union is equal to summation of  $\mu$  of the individual  $A_i$ 's intuitively. Keep in mind  $\mu$  in some sense is denoting the size of a set  $A$ . So, we are saying  $\mu$  of the union is equal to sum of the individual sizes, whenever the sets  $A_i$ 's are disjoint, and this is, we are requiring it for any finite collection  $i = 1$  to  $n$ . So,  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  is any infinite collection of sets in  $C$ , which are pair wise disjoint, and such that their union is element in  $C$ . We want  $\mu$  of the union is equal to summation of  $\mu$  of the individual  $A_i$ 's.

So, such a property is called finite additivity property of  $\mu$ , or  $\mu$  is finitely additive.

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**Set functions:**

- Set function  $\mu : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  is said to be **countably additive** if

$$\mu \left( \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n),$$

whenever  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, \dots \in \mathcal{C}$  with  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{C}$  and

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j.$$

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We can extend a generalization of this definition, we will say  $\mu$  is countably additive. So, from finite we were going to countably additive. If  $\mu$  of union  $A_n$ 's  $n = 1$  to infinity is equal to summation of  $\mu(A_n)$ 's. Of course, whenever  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, \dots$  is a sequence of sets in  $C$ ; such that the union is also an element of  $C$ , and there pair wise disjoint. So, countable additivity is a property about a sequence of sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, \dots$ . So, on in  $C$  which are pair wise disjoint, and their union is an element in  $C$ . Then we want for any such sequence of pair wise disjoint sets  $\mu$  of the union, must be equal to summation of  $\mu$  of  $A_n$ 's  $n = 1$  to infinity. There is another notion of called countable is sub additive,

if  $\mu(A)$  is less than or equal to  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$ , whenever  $A$  is a set in  $\mathcal{C}$ , and  $A$  is contained in union of  $A_n$ 's, where  $A_n$ 's also in  $\mathcal{C}$  for every  $n$ .

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**Set functions:**

- Set function  $\mu : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  is said to be **countably subadditive** if
 
$$\mu(A) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n).$$
 whenever  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $A \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$  with  $A_n \in \mathcal{C}$  for every  $n$ .
- Set function  $\mu : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  is called a **measure** on  $\mathcal{C}$  if  $\mu$  is countably additive on  $\mathcal{C}$  and
 
$$\emptyset \in \mathcal{C} \text{ with } \mu(\emptyset) = 0.$$

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So, in some sense, if  $A$  is covered by a union of sets  $A_n$ 's, then we want the size. So, that is  $\mu(A)$  to be less than or equal to  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$ . So, this is called countable sub additivity, because here we are just saying that  $\mu(A)$  is less than or equal to, and we are not requiring that  $A_n$ 's are pair wise disjoint. So, this is called countable sub additivity property of, with the set function  $\mu$ , a set function  $\mu$  is called a measure on  $\mathcal{C}$ .  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of subsets on  $\mathcal{C}$ , if  $\mu$  has a property that it is countably additive. So, it should be countably additive, and we want that empty set belongs to  $\mathcal{C}$ , and with the property that  $\mu$  of empty set is equal to 0. So,  $\mu$  is defined on a collection  $\mathcal{C}$  of subjects, and we want the properties at empty set should belong to  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $\mu$  of empty set should be 0, and  $\mu$  on this collection should be countably additive. Such a set function is going to be called a measure on  $\mathcal{C}$ .

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**Examples:**

- Let  $X = \{x_n \mid n = 1, 2, \dots\}$ .

and  $\{p_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  be a sequence of nonnegative real numbers.

For any  $A \subseteq X$ , define  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$  and

$$\mu(A) := \sum_{\{i \mid x_i \in A\}} p_i, \text{ if } A \neq \emptyset.$$

Then

$$\mu : \mathcal{P}(X) \longrightarrow [0, +\infty]$$

is a measure, called the **discrete measure** with 'mass'  $p_i$  at  $x_i$ .

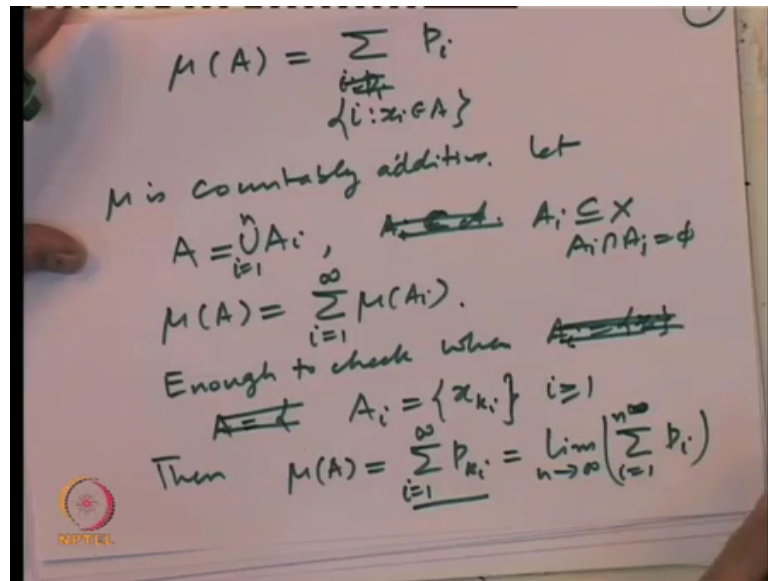
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Let us look at some examples of set functions. So, let us start with a very simple 1, let us look a set X which is a countable set. So, its elements are  $X_1, X_2, X_3$  and so on. So, X is equal to  $X_n, n = 1, 2, 3$  so on, and let us fix  $P_n$  a sequence of non negative real numbers. So, X is a set which is a countable set with the elements  $X_1, X_2, X_3$  and so on, and we are fixing arbitrarily some sequence of nonnegative real numbers. So, let us define for any set A contained in X for any subset A contained in A X. Let us define mu of the empty set to be equal to 0, and for the set a, if it is non empty, let us define mu of A to be equal to summation over those P i's; such that  $X_i$  belongs to A.

So, A is a subset of X So, some of the  $X_i$ 's will belong to. So, look at those indices I; such that  $X_i$  belongs to a. Pick up those p I's from those given sequence  $p_n$  and add them up, and that is called mu of a. So, mu of A is defined as summation over those p I's; such that  $x_i$  belongs to a. We want to check that this is a measure on the collection of all subsets of the set x. Well that is quite obvious, because mu of empty set is defined to be equal to 0, and A let us observed that mu of the singleton. If A is a singleton set, then mu of the singleton set is going to be the number P i. So, if a set A is a countable disjoint union of sets. So, let us check that this mu is a measure.

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So, we are defining  $\mu$  of  $A$  to be equal to  $\sum p_i$  where  $I$  is such that  $x_i \in A$ . So,  $\mu$  is countably additive.

So, let us take a set  $A$ . So, let us take a set  $A$ , which is union of  $A_i$ 's,  $I$  equal to 1 to  $n$ ,  $A_i$ 's belonging to  $A$  a subset of  $X$ , where  $A_i$  is any subset of  $X$ . To check that  $\mu$  of  $A$  is equal to  $\sum \mu(A_i)$ , and we want that  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ . So, beyond this to be equal to  $\mu$  of  $A$ 's,  $I$  equal to 1 to infinity. Let us observe enough to check when each  $A_i$  is a singleton  $\{x_i\}$ . So, let us check that case first. So, what is  $A$ ,  $A$  is let us when  $A_i$ 's are some not  $X$ . Let us, because  $X$  itself is  $X_1 \cup X_2 \cup \dots \cup X_n$ . So, this will be the whole space.

So, let us look at the special case, when say  $A_i = \{x_{k_i}\}$  where  $k_i$  is bigger than or equal to 1, then the set  $\mu$  of  $A$  is going to be equal to  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_{k_i}$ , which can be written as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \right)$ . So, sum of a series these are non negative numbers. So, this sum is nothing, but the limit of the partial sums there, the non negative. So, there is no problem in writing that way.

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Then  $\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_{k_i} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n p_{k_i} \right)$

$\mu(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n p_{k_i} \right)$   
 $= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i) \right)$   
 $= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$

$A_i \subseteq X, A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$

So; that means,  $\mu$  of  $A$  is equal to limit  $n$  going to infinity of sigma  $I$  equal to 1 to  $n$  of  $p_i$ , but; that means, what we want to check that, it is summation of  $\mu$  of each  $A_i$ . So, this is limit  $n$  going to infinity of summation  $I$  equal to 1 to  $n$   $\mu$  of  $A_i$ , because each  $1$  is  $p_i$  of  $i$  is  $p$  of  $k_i$ . Sorry this is summation  $p$  of  $k_i$ . So, this is  $k_i$  and this is  $\mu$  of  $A_i$ .

So, that is equal to  $I$  equal to 1 to infinity  $\mu$  of  $A_i$ . So,  $\mu$  of  $A$  is equal to summation  $\mu$  of  $A_i$ 's, whenever they are, whenever  $A_i$  is a singleton set, if not it is a finite set, then each finite is  $A$  union of finite sets, and then, because for a nonnegative series you can add it in any way you like, it is easy to check that  $\mu$  of  $A$  is  $1$ . So, equal to. So, it is easy to check that  $\mu$  of  $A$  is equal to summation  $\mu$  of  $A_i$   $i$  equal to 1 to infinity, whenever  $A_i$ 's are contained in  $X$  and  $A_i \cap A_j$  is empty. So, that says that the set function  $\mu$  that we have defined is countably additive. So, this is what is called a discrete measure, because it is given by a sequence, and  $p_i$  is called the mass at the point  $X_i$ .

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**Example:**

- Note  
 $\mu(\{x_i\}) = p_i \forall i$  and  $\mu(X) := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i.$
- The measure  $\mu$  is finite, (i.e.,  $\mu(X) < +\infty$ ) if and only if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i < +\infty.$
- If  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i = 1,$   
the measure  $\mu$  is called a **discrete probability measure/distribution.**

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So as we observed  $\mu$  of the singleton  $X_i$  is equal to  $P_i$  for every  $i$  and  $\mu$  of the whole space, which is equal to summation  $\mu$  of the singletons  $\mu$ , all the singletons; that is  $\sum p_i$ .

So,  $\mu$  of  $X$  is equal to summation of  $P_i$ 's. So, obvious consequence of this is that  $\mu$  of  $X$  is finite, whenever this series is convergent. So, the  $\mu$  is, we have, 1 says this discrete measured  $\mu$  is finite; that is  $\mu$  of  $X$  is less than infinity  $\mu$  of the whole space is finite, if and only if summation  $\mu$  of  $P_i$ 's is less than infinity. If this summation of  $P_i$ 's, if the series  $P_i$  is convergent and sum is equal to 1, then this measure  $\mu$  is called A discrete probability distribution on the set  $X$  which is  $X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots \times X_n$ .



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Special cases for  $X = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

- For  $0 < p < 1$  fixed,  
$$p_k = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, 0 \leq k \leq n.$$
  
It is called **Binomial distribution**.
- It is called **Poisson distribution**.  
$$p_k := \lambda^k e^{-\lambda} / k!$$
  
for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , where  $\lambda > 0$ , called **Poisson distribution**.
- For  $p_k := 1/k, 0 \leq k \leq n$ ,  
It is called **Uniform distribution**.

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A very special case which plays important role in the theory of probability and so on.  $X$  is the set of the numbers 0 1 2 and so on.

Let us fix any number  $p$ , which is between 0 and 1, and define  $p_k$  to be equal to  $\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$  choose  $k$ . So, this is the binomial coefficient  $\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$ ,  $k$  between 0 and  $n$ , this is called the binomial distribution, because of this binomial coefficient appearing in the definition of  $p_k$  and is quite easy to check the summation of this  $P_k$ 's is equal to 1; that is by summation of this  $p_k$  is summation  $k$  equal to 0 to  $n$ , and this side is nothing, but the sum is equal to of  $p$  plus 1 minus  $p$  raise to power  $n$ , and that is equal to 1. So, this is a distribution which plays a very important role in probability, this is a probability distributions. Supposing you have got a coin, and your tossing a coin with probability  $p$  for head, appearing then in  $n$  toss is, lets  $p_k$  represents the probability that in  $n$  tosses you will get  $k$  heads, and another special case of this discrete distribution is called the binomial distribution is called the poisson distribution, which is characterized by the definition that  $p_k$  is equal to  $\lambda^k e^{-\lambda} / k!$  to the power  $k$   $e$  raise to power minus  $\lambda$  divided by  $k$  factorial.

This is called poisson distribution, this is another important distribution in the theory of probability. And finally, when we take only the finite number of points 0 1 up to  $n$  and  $p_k$  is  $1/k$  that each point is given the same mass  $1/k$ , then this is called the uniform distribution. So, the special cases of discrete probability distributions, when next

video and important example of a measure, which is defined on the collection of all intervals in the real line. So, do that, let us fix our notations.

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**Notations**

- $\mathcal{I}$  denote the collection of all intervals of  $\mathbb{R}$ .  
For  $I \in \mathcal{I}$  with end points  $a$  and  $b$ , write it as  $I(a, b)$ .
- For all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $(a, a) = \emptyset$ .

$$[0, +\infty] := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* | x \geq 0\} = [0, +\infty) \cup \{+\infty\}.$$

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So, we will denote by  $\mathcal{I}$  the collection of all intervals on the real line for an interval  $I$  with end points  $A$  and  $B$  the left hand point being  $A$  the right end point being  $B$ , where we will write it as  $I(A, B)$ . So,  $A$  will denote the left end point and  $B$  will denote the right end point.

We are not saying that this is an open interval  $A, B$ , we are just saying that it is an interval with left end point  $A$ , right end point  $B$ , where the left or the right may or may not be, or both may or may not be included in that interval. So, it is just an interval with end points  $A, B$  left end point is  $a$ , the right end point is  $B$ . So, on this collection of all intervals we are going to define a function. So, for example, recall that the open interval  $(a, a)$  is the empty set and the interval  $[0, +\infty]$ . So, this square brackets indicate that we are including  $0$ , and we are including plus infinity. So, this is the closed interval in  $\mathbb{R}^*$  belonging to  $\mathbb{R}^*$ , the extended real numbers  $X$  bigger than or equal to  $0$ , which is same as the open interval closed on the left,  $0$  open on the right, infinity in the real line union. The special symbol plus infinity that we have added in the extended real numbers. So, with these notations we define what is called the length function on the class of intervals.

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The length function

- The function  $\lambda : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  defined by:  
for  $I = I(a, b) \in \mathcal{I}$ ,

$$\lambda(I) := \begin{cases} |b - a| & \text{if } a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \\ +\infty & \text{if either } a = -\infty \\ & \text{or } b = +\infty, \text{ or both.} \end{cases}$$

The function  $\lambda$ , is called the **length function**.

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So, it is a set function lambda defined on I taking values in 0 to infinity and is defined by take any interval I with left end point a,, right end point B. So, we defined it as the absolute value of B minus a. If A and B are both real numbers; that means, if a, if the interval I is a finite interval with the end points A and B, then it is length is defined as B minus a, and we defined it will, plus infinity in case either the left end point A is minus infinity or the right end point B is equal to plus infinity or both. So, length of I for A unbounded interval is defined as plus infinity. So, this function is called a length function on the class of all intervals and this length function going to play an important role for in our subject. So, let us study its properties.

So, next we will be studying properties of this length function. The first properties, the length function has a property that lambda of the empty set is 0.

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Properties of length function

- Property(1):  $\lambda(\emptyset) = 0.$
- Property (2): monotonicity property  
 $\lambda(I) \leq \lambda(J)$  if  $I \subseteq J.$

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Because empty set is A interval is an open interval with left end point, say A right end point a. So, both is open interval A comma A which is empty set. So, by very definition that is equal to A minus A, which is equal to 0, let. Next let us check that this is a monotone set function. So, namely length of I is less than or equal to length of J. If I is A subset of J. So, to prove that, we want to check, whenever you have got intervals I comma J and I is A subset of J, this should imply that length of I is less than or equal to length of j.

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$I, J \in \mathcal{I}, I \subseteq J$   
 $\Rightarrow \lambda(I) \leq \lambda(J)$

Case I I is infinite, say  
let  $I = (-\infty, a]$   
 $J = (-\infty, c]$   
where  $c \geq a$

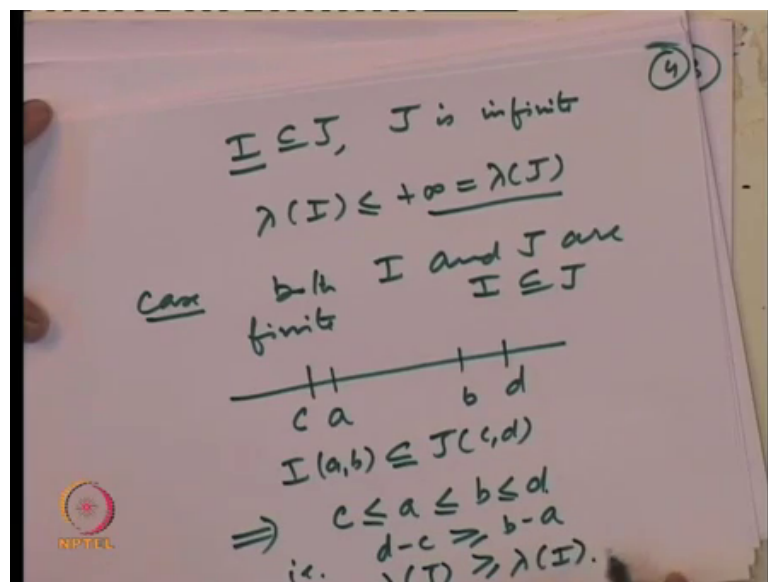
$\lambda(I) = +\infty = \lambda(J)$

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Since the intervals are defined characterized by the end points. So, let in case 1, let us say I is say infinite, say I is equal to minus infinity to say a.

Let J B equal to, now since I is subset of j; obviously, J has to start with minus infinity, and can go up to some point say C, where C is bigger than or equal to a. So, essentially what we are saying is, if this is a, and this side is the interval on this side is the interval, all of it is the interval I, and if J is to contain I, then J must be somewhere ending somewhere here. So, that is C. So, clearly both are infinite. So, length of I is equal to plus infinity is length of J. So, that case is obvious, let us look at the next case, I is A subset of j.

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J is infinite, whether I is infinite or not does not matter, because the length of I is always less than or equal to plus infinity, which is equal to length of J, J being infinite its length is always going to be plus infinity.

So, this is obvious, if this is the case. So, finally, it has took at the case when both I and J are finite. So, here is. So, let us say I has got the end point A and B. Now I is subset of j; that means, the endpoints of J has to be somewhere here, and has to be somewhere here. So, we if I is with the end points A B, and J is with the endpoint d, then we should have C is less than or equal to a, less than or equal to B, is less than or equal to d. So, this implies this, and that is same as saying that d minus C is bigger than or equal to B minus

a, and that is saying that the length of J is bigger than or equal to length of i. So, the monotone property is check.

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**Properties of length function**

- **Property(1):**  $\lambda(\emptyset) = 0.$
- **Property (2): monotonicity property**  
 $\lambda(I) \leq \lambda(J)$  if  $I \subseteq J.$
- **Property (3): Finite additivity**  

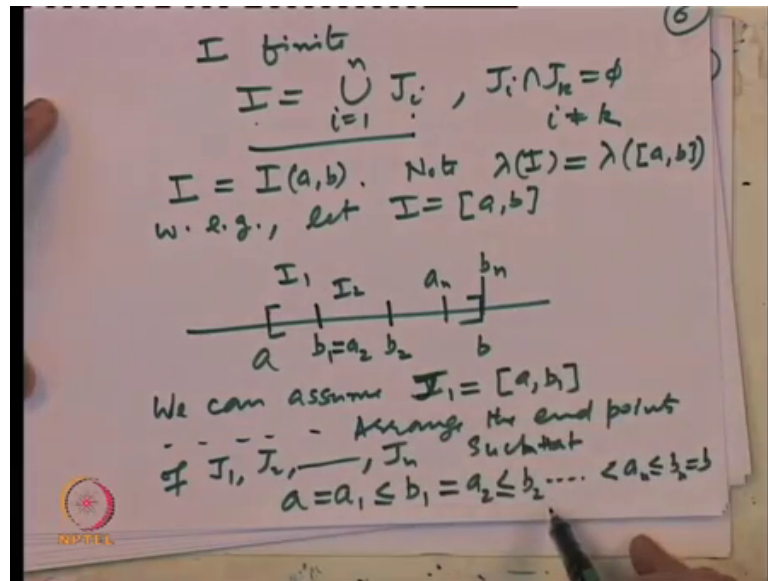
$$\lambda(I) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda(J_i).$$
whenever  $I \in \mathcal{I}, I = \bigcup_{i=1}^n J_i,$  where each  $J_i \in \mathcal{I}$  with  $J_i \cap J_j = \emptyset$  for  $i \neq j.$

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So, the length function lambda is a monotone property; namely if I is a subset of J, whenever A interval I is contained a another interval J, length of I is less than or equal to length of J.

Next let us look at another property is called additivity property. So, what should be finite additivity property we want, whenever A interval I is A disjoint union of some other intervals, then the length of I should be summation of length of J's. So, what we are saying, if A interval I is written as A finite union of intervals  $J_1, J_2, \dots, J_n$ , where this  $J_i$ 's are pair wise disjoint, then we want length of I to be equal to length of summation length of  $J_i$ 's. So, that is going to be called finite additivity property. So, let us check the finite additivity property we want to check if I is equal to union of  $J_i$ 's all are intervals.

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Where  $J_i \cap J_k$  is empty, then that should imply length of  $I$  is equal to summation length of  $J_i$ 's,  $i$  equal to 1 to  $n$ . So, let us assume if  $I$  is infinite and  $I$  is equal to union of  $J_i$ 's,  $J_i$ 's 1 to  $n$ , then that implies at least 1 of  $J_i$ 's is infinite, because if all of them are finite intervals, their union will be again a finite interval.

So,  $I$  infinite implies  $I$  equal to union of  $J_i$ 's implies at least 1 of these  $J_i$ 's, just to be infinite. So, that implies  $\lambda(I)$  is equal to plus infinity is equal to summation  $\lambda(J_i)$ 's,  $i$  equal to 1 to  $n$ , because 1 of them is plus infinity. So, the case when  $I$  is infinite is, let us look at the case when  $I$  is finite. So,  $I$  finite  $I$  equal to union of  $J_i$ 's and  $J_i$ 's are pairwise disjoint. Now let us say the interval  $I$  has got endpoints  $A$  and  $B$ , and let us say its left endpoint is  $A$  and the right endpoint is  $B$ . So, here is  $a$ , and here is  $b$ , we want to compute the length of  $I$ . So, note length of  $I$  is same as the length of the closed interval  $A, B$ . I can include the endpoints in the interval  $I$ , because the length depends only on the values of the endpoints, it does not matter whether the endpoints are inside or not.

So, what we are saying is without loss of generality, let  $I = [a, b]$ . So, this is the interval  $A, B$  right now,  $I$  is equal to union of  $J_i$ 's. So, the point  $A$  belongs to this union. So, it should belong to 1 of the intervals  $J_i$ 's. So, it belongs to 1 of the intervals  $J_i$ 's, and actually it has to be an endpoint of 1 of the intervals of  $J_i$ 's, because an interval cannot start somewhere else. So, let us say, so, without loss of generality, we can

assume  $I_1$  sorry the interval  $J_1$  is starting at  $A$  and ending somewhere. Let us call, let us  $B_1$  with the point endpoint may or may not be included.

So, the first interval  $I_1$ , we can assume it starts here, and  $n$  somewhere here; that is  $B_1$ , right now the point  $B_1$  is again in that union. So, either it is already included in the interval  $I_1$ , or it should be an endpoint of another interval in the union  $J_1 J_2 J_n$ 's. So, the second  $I_2$  must start with here, and end somewhere here; that is  $B_2$ . So, what we are saying is  $I_2$  some other interval, we can rename it as  $I_2$ . So, it should start somewhere again at  $B_1$ , and  $n$  somewhere here and so on. So, here will be the last  $I_n$  and that should be  $B_n$ . So, what we are saying is we can assume this is. So, going this way we can arrange the endpoints of  $J_1 J_2$  and  $J_n$ ; such that  $A$  is same as  $A_1$  less than or equal to  $B_1$  is equal to  $A_2$ , less than or equal to  $B_2$  and so on.

So,  $A_n$  less than or equal to  $B_n$ , which is equal to  $B$ . So, we can rearrange this endpoints of this intervals, because this is  $A$  union and that is a disjoint union. So, this is what its possible for us to arrange.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical equations. The equations are:

$$b - a = b_n - a_1$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)$$

$$\lambda(I) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda(J_i)$$

There are some circled numbers '12' and '7' on the right side of the whiteboard. A hand holding a green marker is visible on the left side.

So; that means, and that clearly says that  $B$  minus  $A$  is equal to  $B_n$  minus  $A_1$ ; that is equal to summation  $B_i$  minus  $A_i$   $i$  equal to 1 to  $n$ , adding and subtracting these terms in between; that is same as  $i$  equal to 1 to  $n$  lambda of  $J_i$ . So, whenever  $I$  is a finite interval  $I$  is equal to union of  $J_i$ 's, there pair wise disjoint we have gotten that the length of this  $B$  minus  $A$  is the length of the interval  $I$  is equal to summation length of  $J_i$ 's. So; that



means, that the length function  $\lambda$  is finitely additive. So, this is the property of  $\lambda$  the length function being finitely additive; namely if an interval  $I$  is a finite union of pair wise disjoint intervals, then length of the interval  $I$  is equal to summation length of  $J$ 's.