

Measure Theory
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Lecture 26

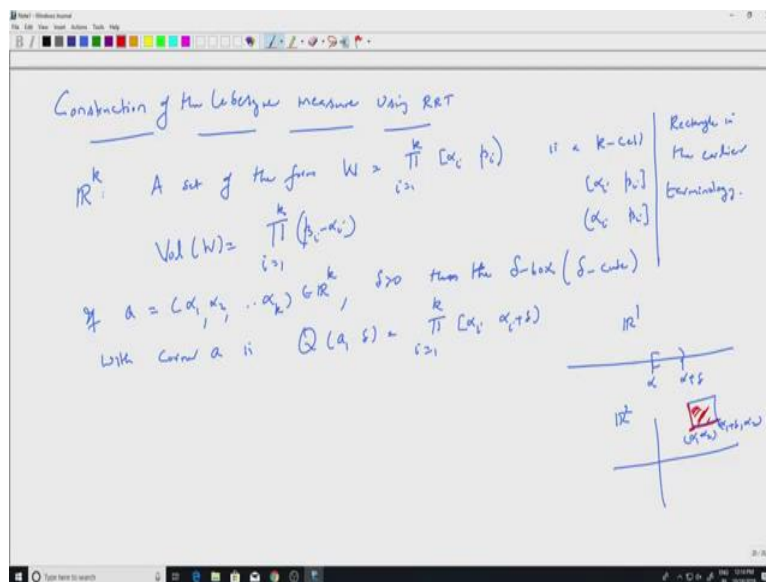
Lebesgue measure via Riesz representation theorem

So, now, we start the construction of the Lebesgue measure using Riesz representation theorem, which means we have to define a positive linear functional on \mathbb{R}^n and Riesz representation theorem will give us sigma algebra and a measure.

So, the sigma algebra is going to be the Lebesgue sigma algebra which we have seen earlier and the measure is going to be the Lebesgue measure. And along with it all those properties which some of which we already know like outer regularity and inner regularity for sets with finite measure and sigma algebra is complete.

Since, \mathbb{R}^n sigma compact and every open set is sigma compact, we know the measure is going to be regular. So, in particular the Lebesgue measure will be a regular Borel measure on \mathbb{R}^n .

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So, let us start the construction, construction of the Lebesgue measure using Riesz representations theorem. So, this is the second construction you are seeing there is another approach due to Carathéodory, which we will not be doing. But I will give you some references for that that actually works in a much more abstract setting. So, let us look at \mathbb{R}^k . So, we change the notation slightly instead of \mathbb{R}^n , we will use \mathbb{R}^k . So, some simple

definitions first, which you have seen already, we have used the term cubes, rectangles, et cetera. Now, we slightly change it because I am following Rudin's book "Real and Complex Analysis".

So, a set of the form, a set of the form say W equal to product of intervals $\alpha_i \beta_i$ open, i equal to 1 to k is a k cell. Of course, sometimes one may change this to $\alpha_i \beta_i$ or α_i open β_i closed, et cetera. So, this is simply a rectangle in our earlier notation. So, this is a rectangle in the earlier notation for terminology and of course, it has the volume which we already know.

So, volume of the W is simply the product of the length of the sides. So β_i minus α_i , i equal to 1 to k . Now, if I take a point, if a equal to let us say α_1, α_2 , et cetera α_k , so this is a point in \mathbb{R}^k and δ is positive then the δ box or the δ cube with corner a is denoted by, so $Q_a \delta$. So this is simply the product of i equal to 1 to k because we are in \mathbb{R}^k , so there are k intervals, α_i to α_i plus δ .

So, you simply look at δ , so this is a cube with sides δ and the left hand bottom corner is a that is what is meant by this. So, let us look at \mathbb{R}^1 , in \mathbb{R}^1 so there is only one coordinate, so I will have some α and α plus δ , so it this. In \mathbb{R}^2 , so if I take a point here, α_1, α_2 , well what do you do?

You go this way to α_1 plus δ to α_2 and similarly here and similarly here, so you are only choosing the, so this the right hand side is open. So, you are only choosing this portion. This is contained and you have all the interior points, but not the boundary on the top right hand corner. So, the corner portion is here that is the, that is a for you. And you look at a δ cube cornered at a , that is what we are doing.

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$a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $s > 0$ then the disk (d-disk)
 With center a is $Q(a, s) = \frac{k}{\pi} [a_1, a_2, \dots]$
 For $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ let P_n be the set of
 all $z \in \mathbb{R}^k$ whose co-ordinates are 2^{-n} times integers

$n=0 \quad 2^{-n}=1 \quad P_0 = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
 $n=1 \quad 2^{-n}=\frac{1}{2} \quad P_1 = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{2}\} \supset P_0$

A number line diagram shows points at $-2, -1, -\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 2$. A red box highlights the interval $[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}]$ with a point $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2})$ marked.

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let Ω be the collection of
 all 2^{-n} -boxes with corners in P_n

A 2D grid is shown with axes labeled x_1 and x_2 . A number line diagram shows points at $-2, -1, -\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 2$. A red box highlights the interval $[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}]$ with a point $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2})$ marked.

So, now, some notation for n equal to 0, 1, 2, 3 and so on. Let P_n be the set of all points, all x in \mathbb{R}^k , so remember k is the dimension whose coordinates are, so I am fixing an n for P_n . P_n is the set of all points whose coordinates are 2 to the minus n times integers. So, let us try to understand this a bit more clearly.

So, when n equal to 0, 2 to the minus n is 1. So, P_0 is all those points x in \mathbb{R}^k such that x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k they are all integers, n equal to 1 well 2 to the minus 1 is half. So, P_1 is all those points such that x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k will be in 1 by 2 times z . So, 1 by 2 times z , so in particular this will contain P_0 .

So, let us look at P_0 and P_1 in the dimension 1 case because that is a easy case, so 0, 1, 2, minus 1, minus 2 and so on. So, P_0 is just integers. P_1 is you divide all of them by half et

cetera. So, you have divided everything in P_0 by 2. That is what you are doing and you continue.

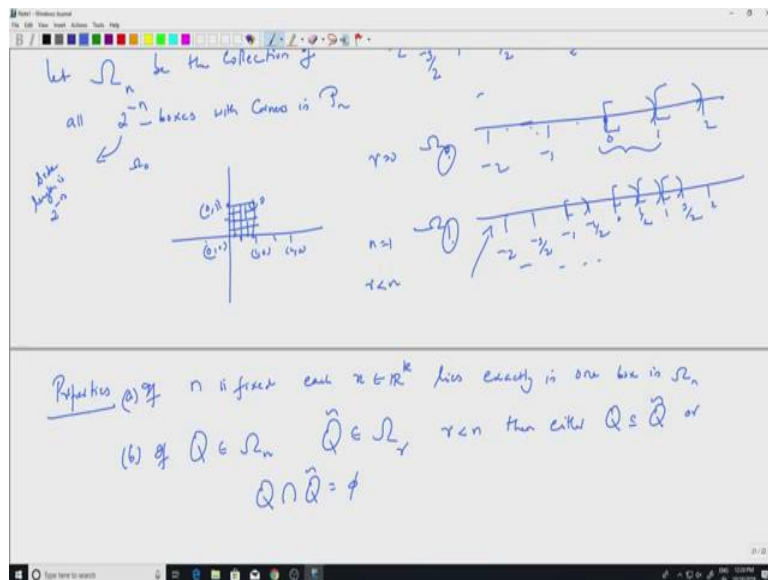
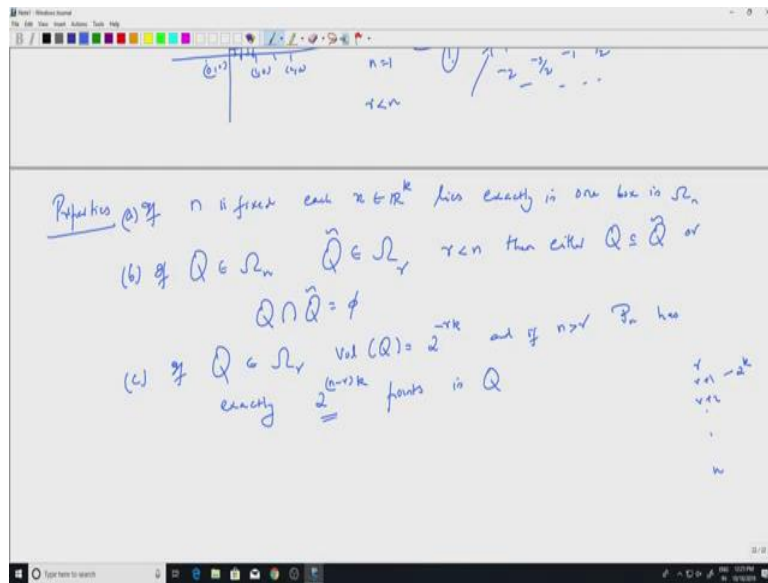
Let ω_n , so we have P_n , P_n 's are simply coordinates. ω_n is going to be collection of boxes be the collection of all 2^{-n} boxes, so what is 2^{-n} boxes? Remember the delta boxes. So, if I take delta I know what is the delta box, so 2^{-n} box meaning the side length is 2^{-n} . So, 2^{-n} meaning side length is 2^{-n} .

Well, so what are the corners for these boxes? Corners are in P_n with corners in P_n , P_n is all those coordinates with this property. So, let us see, what is ω_0 , so ω_0 , what is ω_0 ? Collection of all one boxes with corners in P_0 , P_0 is just integers. So, we have 0, 1, 2, minus 1, minus 2, et cetera. This is P_0 , so box with corner at 0 of side length 1. What is that? That this interval, a box at corner 1 and side length 1. So, that is this et cetera et cetera. So these partitions, we align into intervals.

Well, what will be ω_1 ? Well, first of all corners are P_1 , which means you divide all of them by 2. So, you will get minus 2, minus 3 by 2, minus 1, minus half, 0, half, 1, 3 by 2, and 2, et cetera, et cetera. And what is ω_1 ? You look at 2^{-1} boxes, that is half boxes, so side length is half with corners in P_1 , so corners are here and length half. So, all that you are doing is the first one which was this, you divide that into 2 and you have this one, this, this and so on. So, all the previous ones are divided by 2, this is what is happening in the real line.

Similarly, if you look at R_2 , you will see ω_0 , well ω_0 is first of all you have to find corners. So, you have 0, 0, 1, 0, 2, 0 and 1, 1, 0, 1 et cetera, et cetera. So, it will be boxes of the kind that will be ω_0 , ω_1 well you have to find the corners first. First you divide these things by 2 and so on and then you will be dividing this by 4 that is because you are in dimension 2. In dimension k , you will divide this into 2^k boxes and you continue, next time you will have further divisions like this and so on and so forth.

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So, that is the collection of boxes we are looking at. So, there are properties of this. So, let us write down some properties if n is fixed, so remember n is not the dimension, k is the dimension, n gives you the corners and the boxes and so on, n is fixed. Each x in \mathbb{R}^k lies exactly in one member of Ω_n exactly in one box in Ω_n . So, that is clear from the picture right each time.

So, first time you have partition, so if you fix n equal to 0, any point will be in one of the intervals. Similarly, if you fix 1 that is your n , then any point will be just 1 interval because these are all partition, each time you are dividing the earlier intervals by half. In \mathbb{R}^2 , you are dividing each square into 4 squares. In \mathbb{R}^3 , you will be dividing into 8 cubes and so on. So, in \mathbb{R}^k , you will divide each box into 2^k boxes to go to the next level.

So, in each time it is a partition of this whole space and so, any point will lie exactly in one box, so that is 1. Second, if Q belongs to ω_n and Q tilda belongs to ω_r , where r is less than n then either Q is contained in Q tilda or they are disjoint, $Q \cap Q$ tilda is empty. So, this is a pretty trivial observation even though it might sound very complicated.

Let us take ω_0 and ω_1 . So, n is 0 and let us take R equal to 1. So, R is sorry the other way, so r is 0 and n equal to 1. So, r is less than n . What this says is if I take any box from here, so let us say this interval this will be of course contained in one of the intervals here or it is disjoint from any of this intervals.

That is because the intervals here are obtained by dividing the intervals in the bigger set, in the previous level. So at each level, you are dividing the intervals into 2 equal halves to go to the next level. So, when you compare it with previous box level, boxes in the previous level, either they are contained inside one box or they are disjoint, so that is very easy to see.

The next one requires a little bit more thought I will leave it to you, if Q belongs to ω_r , so that is at the r th level. Volume of Q , this is trivial is 2^{-rk} because you are in dimension k . So, each volume, so you have k intervals and each side has length 2^{-r} , so it is 2^{-rk} that is trivial.

And if n is greater than r , P_n has exactly 2^{n-rk} points in Q , so if n is greater than r , you will be dividing Q again and again to go to n . So, you will start from r , you go to $r+1$ th level, $r+2$ th level et cetera et cetera and you will end at n . At each time, you are dividing each Q by 2^k so, at each time you will get 2^k . So, there are $n-r$ levels and that will give me 2^{n-rk} points. So, do it for k equal to 1, it will be really very-very clear to you.

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(b) If $Q \in \Omega_n$ $\tilde{Q} \in \Omega_r$ then either $Q \subseteq \tilde{Q}$ or $Q \cap \tilde{Q} = \emptyset$
 (c) If $Q \in \Omega_n$ $\text{Vol}(Q) = 2^{-nk}$ and if $n > r$ P_n has exactly $2^{(n-r)k}$ points in Q
 (d) Any non-empty open set in \mathbb{R}^k is a Countable union of boxes in $\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \Omega_n$

Recall the proof of open set being an almost disjoint union of boxes

$n=0$ $2^{-n} = 1$ $P_0 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k / x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
 $n=1$ $2^{-n} = \frac{1}{2}$ $P_1 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k / x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{2}\} \supset P_0$
 \vdots

Let Ω_n be the collection of all 2^{-n} -boxes with centers in P_n

Construction of the Lebesgue measure using RRT

\mathbb{R}^k : A set of the form $W = \prod_{i=1}^k [a_i, b_i]$ is a k -cell. Rectangle is the cuboid terminology.
 $\text{Vol}(W) = \prod_{i=1}^k (b_i - a_i)$
 If $a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $\delta > 0$ then the δ -box (δ -cube)
 With corner a is $Q(a, \delta) = \prod_{i=1}^k [a_i, a_i + \delta]$

For $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ let P_n be the set of all $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ whose co-ordinates are 2^{-n} times integers

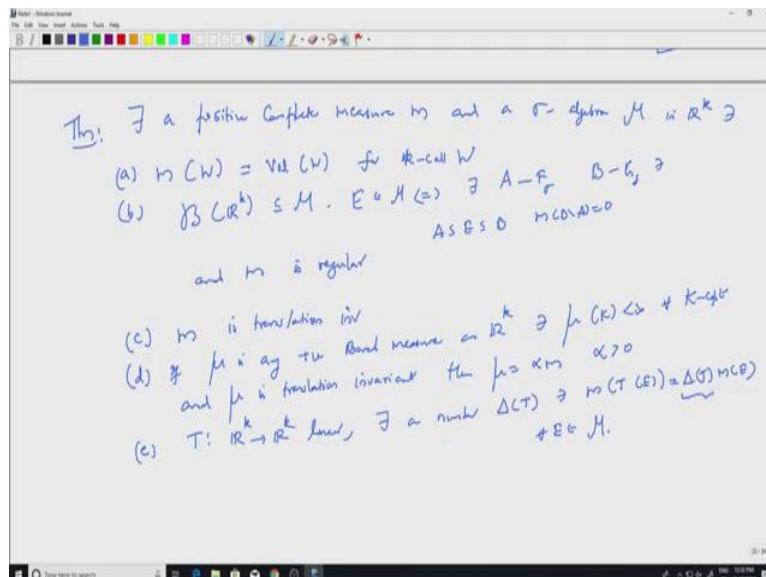
So, let us see, we need one more property and this is something which you have seen already. Every non-empty open set in \mathbb{R}^k is a countable, so that is important, disjoint union of boxes in ω_n , of course, you have to take the union for 0 to infinity, you look at all the ω_n , so these are boxes.

And you can write any open set as a countable union of boxes from the, so that is a, that is very easy because we have done this before for writing an open set as a countable, so let us recall that part. So, recall that, recall the proof of open set being an almost disjoint union of cubes. So, we did that closed cubes.

So, we had cubes like this and there was intersection at this middle, but the boxes are such that we are only looking at this part, the top part is not there in the box. So, when I take an adjacent cube they are sort of disjoint. So, that is what you should understand. So, that is why we get a disjoint union.

If you take the closed cubes, then you will get almost disjoint, but the cubes we are looking at ω_n these are 2^{-n} boxes with corners in \mathbb{P}^n . When I say delta box, remember the, this right hand side is open. So, because of that these boxes are disjoint. So, that is the reason you get disjoint ones.

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So, we will stop with the statement of the theorem and which actually gives us the Lebesgue measure. So, keep in mind all the ω_n and so on. So, there exist a positive complete measure m , this is the Lebesgue measure and a Sigma algebra, and a Sigma algebra script \mathcal{M} ,

which is actually the Lebesgue algebra sigma algebra in \mathbb{R}^k such that several properties so, all of those you most of you already know.

Measure of W 's, a k cell W is the volume of W for k cell W , \mathcal{B} , the Borel sigma algebra \mathbb{R}^k is contained in \mathcal{M} . Also a set in \mathcal{M} if and only if there exist, so let us use E because that is the standard thing we have been following. $E \in \mathcal{M}$, if and only if there exists A which is an F sigma and B which is a G delta such that A is contained in E contained in B and measure of B minus A is 0 and the measure M is regular, so we have seen this regularity.

Now, it is completely regular, it is not outer regular for all sets and inner regular for sets with finite measure. It is regular for all Borel sets. M is translation invariant, we know this but more importantly if μ is any positive Borel measure on \mathbb{R}^k such that μ of k is finite for every compact set k and μ is translation invariant, μ is translation invariant, invariant then μ equal to some α times M , it is a multiple of M . So, this is like the uniqueness of Lebesgue measure any reasonable translation invariant measure is a multiple of the Lebesgue measure there is nothing else.

So, the last property, if I have a linear transformation, linear there exist a number which we call $\det T$ this is actually going to be the determinant of T , we will compute this later such that the measure of $T E$, so that is the image of E . So, you have to prove that $T E$ is actually measurable is actually equal to $\det T$ times $m E$ for every $E \in \mathcal{M}$.

So, recall that we did something like this by multiplication by $\det T$, when we looked at dilation of Lebesgue measure. We saw that $\det T$ to the n comes out which is precisely the determinant of the linear map, x going to $\det T x$ so that is the $\det T$ here. So, we will stop here. So, we have just written down the theorem which constructs the Lebesgue measure out of Riesz representation theorem.

In the next lecture, we will look at the proof. So, this would be by constructing a linear functional which is positive on C_c of \mathbb{R}^k compactly supported continuous functions on the, on \mathbb{R}^k , in fact, and that will give us the Lebesgue measure along with the properties which we have already seen.