

Let $(\mathbb{R}, \sigma(\mathcal{I}^1) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ be a measurable space. From Theorem [1.4](#) if we set $S = (0, 1]$ and consider $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{I}^1 \cap S = \{(0, 1] \cap A : A \in \mathcal{I}^1\}$ then $\sigma(\mathcal{I}^1 \cap (0, 1]) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \cap (0, 1]$ is a σ -algebra associated with $(0, 1]$. Thus, if we define $\mathcal{B}_{(0,1]} := \sigma(\mathcal{I}^1 \cap (0, 1])$, then

$$((0, 1], \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]} := \sigma(\mathcal{I}))$$

is a measurable space where $\mathcal{I} = \{(a, b] : 0 \leq a \leq b \leq 1\}$. Define the set function $\lambda : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $\lambda(\emptyset) = 0$ and $\lambda((a, b]) = b - a$.

If λ is σ -additive on \mathcal{I} it is a pre-measure on \mathcal{I} and extends uniquely to $\mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}$.

Theorem 2.9. *λ is σ -additive on \mathcal{I} .*

Proof. First, we show that λ is finitely additive on \mathcal{I} . Let $(a, b] \in \mathcal{I}$ and $(a, b] = \cup_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i]$ with $a_1 = a, a_2 = b_1, a_3 = b_2, \dots, a_n = b_{n-1}, b_n = b$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda((a_i, b_i]) &= (b_1 - a_1) + (b_2 - a_2) + \dots + (b_n - a_n) \\ &= (b_2 - a) + (b_3 - b_2) + \dots + (b - b_{n-1}) = b - a \\ &= \lambda((a, b]) = \lambda(\cup_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i]). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, λ is finitely additive.

We need to show that for $(a, b] = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i]$, where $\{(a_i, b_i]\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a pairwise disjoint collection we have $b - a = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (b_i - a_i)$.

For any n , let $\{(a_i, b_i]\}_{i=1}^n$ be a pairwise disjoint collection. Then, we can write

$$(a, b] - \cup_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i] = \cup_{j=1}^m I_j,$$

where the last set is the finite union of pairwise disjoint intervals. Thus, since λ is finitely additive on \mathcal{I}

$$\lambda((a, b]) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda((a_i, b_i]) + \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda(I_j) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda((a_i, b_i]).$$

Thus, $\lambda((a, b]) = b - a \geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda((a_i, b_i]) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda((a_i, b_i])$.

Now, for the reverse inequality ($b - a \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda((a_i, b_i])$) let $0 < \epsilon < b - a$ and note that

$$\begin{aligned} (a + \epsilon, b] &\subseteq [a + \epsilon, b] \subseteq \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i + \frac{1}{2^i} \epsilon) \\ &\subseteq \cup_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i + \frac{1}{2^i} \epsilon) \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ by the Heine-Borel Theorem} \\ &\subseteq \cup_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i + \frac{1}{2^i} \epsilon]. \end{aligned}$$

But $\lambda((a_i, b_i]) = \lambda((a_i, b_i + \frac{1}{2^i} \epsilon]) - \frac{1}{2^i} \epsilon$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda((a + \epsilon, b]) &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda((a_i, b_i + \frac{1}{2^i} \epsilon]) \text{ by subadditivity} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i + \frac{1}{2^i} \epsilon) \\ b - a - \epsilon &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i) + \epsilon \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2^i} \text{ or} \\ b - a &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i) + \epsilon \left(1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2^i} \right). \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality gives $b - a \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (b_i - a_i)$. Hence, combining with the previously obtained reverse inequality we have $b - a = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (b_i - a_i)$. ■

Since λ is σ -additive (pre-measure) on \mathcal{I} (a semi-ring), using Carathéodory's theorem, we can state that

$$((0, 1], \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]} := \sigma(\mathcal{I}), \lambda^*)$$

is a measure space, where λ^* is the unique extension of λ from \mathcal{I} to $\sigma(\mathcal{I})$. In addition, $0 \leq \lambda^*((a, b]) \leq 1$, $\lambda^*((0, 1]) = 1$. Thus, we have *constructed* a specific probability space.

We will now construct a probability measure on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$.

Definition 2.5. Let $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be a function with the following properties:

1. $\lim_{h \downarrow 0} F(x + h) := F(x+) = F(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $h > 0$,
2. $F(x) \leq F(y)$ if $x < y$,

$$3. \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1, \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0.$$

F is called a proper distribution function (df). If only conditions 1 and 2 are met, F is called a distribution function or a defective df.

Remark 2.3. 1. Let $F(x-) := \lim_{h \downarrow 0} F(x-h)$ for $h > 0$. The left jump of F at x is defined as $LJ_F(x) = F(x) - F(x-)$ and the right jump of F at x is defined as $RJ_F(x) = F(x+) - F(x)$. The jump of F at x is defined as $J_F(x) = LJ_F(x) + RJ_F(x) = F(x+) - F(x-)$. Since F satisfies condition 2, $RJ_F(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $J_F(x) = F(x) - F(x-)$. In addition, since F is nondecreasing $J_F(x) \geq 0$. If $J_F(x) = 0$ then F is continuous at x .

2. For any two $x \leq y \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that $0 \leq F(y) - F(x) \leq 1$

Definition 2.6. The left (generalized) inverse of a df F , denoted by $F^-(y)$, is defined as

$$F^-(y) := \inf\{x : F(x) \geq y \text{ for } y \in (0, 1]\}.$$

Theorem 2.10. Let $S(y) = \{x : F(x) \geq y\}$ for $y \in (0, 1]$. Then,

1. $S(y)$ is a closed set.

2. $F^-(y) > t \iff y > F(t)$ or $F^-(y) \leq t \iff y \leq F(t)$.

Proof. 1. If $s_n \in S(y)$ and $s_n \downarrow s$, by right continuity of F we have $y \leq F(s_n) \downarrow F(s)$. Thus, $y \leq F(s)$ and $s \in S(y)$. If $s_n \in S(y)$ and $s_n \uparrow s$, we have $y \leq F(s_n) \uparrow F(s-) \leq F(s)$. Thus, $y \leq F(s)$ which implies that $s \in S(y)$. Consequently, by a characterization of closed sets, $S(y)$ is closed.

2. Since $S(y)$ is closed, its infimum $F^-(y) \in S(y)$ and therefore $F(F^-(y)) \geq y$. $t < F^-(y) \implies t \notin S(y) \implies F(t) < y$. The reverse implications all apply. ■

Theorem 2.11. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{S}_F(A) = \{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in A\}$. If $A \in \sigma(\mathcal{I}^1) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, then $\mathcal{S}_F(A) \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]} = \sigma(\mathcal{I}^1) \cap (0, 1]$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{G} = \{A \subseteq \mathbb{R} : \mathcal{S}_F(A) \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}\}$. Note that \mathcal{G} contains intervals of the type $(a, b]$ since

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{S}_F((a, b]) &= \{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in (a, b]\} = \{y \in (0, 1] : a < F^-(y) \leq b\} \\ &= \{y \in (0, 1] : F(a) < y \leq F(b)\} = (F(a), F(b)] \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}.\end{aligned}$$

Note that since $\mathcal{I}^1 \subseteq \mathcal{G}$, if \mathcal{G} is a σ -algebra, $\sigma(\mathcal{I}^1) = \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$. Hence, $A \in \mathcal{B}$ implies $\mathcal{S}_F(A) \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}$. Hence, we now show that \mathcal{G} is a σ -algebra associated with \mathbb{R} .

1. $\mathcal{S}_F(\mathbb{R}) = \{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in \mathbb{R}\} = (0, 1] \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}$, thus $\mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{G}$.

2. By definition of \mathcal{S}_F

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{S}_F(A^c) &= \{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in A^c\} \\ &= \{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in A\}^c = (\mathcal{S}_F(A))^c \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}\end{aligned}$$

where the last inclusion statement follows if $A \in \mathcal{G}$ and the fact that $\mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}$ is a σ -algebra.

3. If $\{A_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{G}$ we have by definition of \mathcal{S}_F

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{S}_F\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right) &= \{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\} \\ &= \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in A_n\} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{S}_F(A_n) \in \mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}\end{aligned}$$

where the last inclusion statement follows since $A_n \in \mathcal{G}$ and the fact that $\mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}$ is a σ -algebra.

■

Definition 2.7. Let $A \in \mathcal{B}$ and define $P_F(A) = \lambda(\mathcal{S}_F(A))$ where λ is the Lebesgue measure on $\mathcal{B}_{(0,1]}$.

Remark 2.4. It is easy to verify that P_F is a probability measure. First, note that

$$P_F(\emptyset) = \lambda(\mathcal{S}_F(\emptyset)) = \lambda(\{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in \emptyset\}) = \lambda(\emptyset) = 0.$$

Second, if $\{A_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a pairwise disjoint collection of sets in \mathcal{B} then

$$\begin{aligned} P_F\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right) &= \lambda(\mathcal{S}_F\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right)) = \lambda(\{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\}) = \lambda\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{S}_F(A_n)\right) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda(\mathcal{S}_F(A_n)) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_F(A_n). \end{aligned}$$

where the next to last equality follows from the fact that λ is a measure and $\{\mathcal{S}_F(A_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a pairwise disjoint collection.

Its df can be obtained by noting that

$$\begin{aligned} P_F((-\infty, x]) &= \lambda(\mathcal{S}_F((-\infty, x])) = \lambda(\{y \in (0, 1] : F^-(y) \in (-\infty, x]\}) \\ &= \lambda(\{y \in (0, 1] : y \leq F(x)\}) = \lambda((0, F(x)]) = F(x) \end{aligned}$$

This last equality will be used throughout the notes. It is fundamental to our study.

If we take $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ to be a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , $(\mathbb{E}, \mathcal{E}) := (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ and $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a random variable, then Theorem [1.18](#) establishes that

$$P_X(B) = P(X^{-1}(B)) = (P \circ X^{-1})(B) \text{ for all } B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ is a measure on } (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}).$$

We call P_X the distribution measure (or distribution law) of X .

Chapter 3

Integration

3.1 Simple functions

In many cases it is convenient to use $-\infty$ or ∞ in calculations. In these cases we work with the extended real line, i.e., $\bar{\mathbb{R}} := \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\} \cup \{\infty\}$. Functions that take values in $\bar{\mathbb{R}}$ are called *numerical* functions. The Borel sets associated with the extended real line are denoted by $\bar{\mathcal{B}} := \mathcal{B}(\bar{\mathbb{R}})$ and are defined as the collection of sets \bar{B} such that $\bar{B} = B \cup S$ where $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $S \in \{\emptyset, \{-\infty\}, \{\infty\}, \{-\infty, \infty\}\}$. It is easy to verify that $\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ is a σ -algebra and that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R} \cap \bar{\mathcal{B}}$. In addition, $\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ is generated by a collection of sets of the form $[a, \infty]$ (or $(a, \infty]$, $[-\infty, a]$, $[-\infty, a)$) where $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F})$ and $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be measurable spaces. Since the indicator function of a measurable set is a measurable function, it follows from Theorem [1.19](#) that if $\{A_j\}_{j=1}^n$ with $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is a pairwise disjoint collection in \mathcal{F} and $a_j \in \mathbb{R}$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$, the linear combination

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i I_{A_i}(x) \tag{3.1}$$

is a \mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B} -measurable function.

Definition 3.1. A real-valued function on a measurable space $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F})$ is said to be simple if it has the representation [\(3.1\)](#). A standard representation of a simple function is given by

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j I_{A_j}(x) \text{ with } a_0 = 0 \text{ and } A_0 = (\cup_{j=1}^n A_j)^c. \tag{3.2}$$

Remark 3.1. 1. If $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ is measurable and takes on finitely many values, say $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^n$ then it is a simple function. To see this, note that B_j is measurable, since $B_j = \{x : f(x) = a_j\} = \{x : f(x) \leq a_j\} - \{x : f(x) < a_j\}$ and f is measurable. Also, note that the collection $\{B_j\}_{j=1}^n$ is pairwise disjoint. Hence,

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j I_{B_j}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j I_{f=a_j}(x). \quad (3.3)$$

Conversely, if X is simple it takes on finitely many values.

2. Representation (3.2) is not unique, but a simple function has at least one representation such as (3.2) .

Theorem 3.1. Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ and $g : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be simple functions. Then, $f \pm g$, cf for $c > 0$, fg , $f^+ = \max\{f, 0\}$, $f^- = -\min\{f, 0\}$ and $|f|$ are simple functions.

Proof. Homework. ■

3.2 Integral of simple functions

Definition 3.2. Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be a non-negative simple function with standard representation (3.2). The integral of f with respect to μ , denoted by $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$, is given by

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu := \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \mu(A_j) \in [0, \infty]. \quad (3.4)$$

By definition $a_j \in \mathbb{R}$ for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$, but since μ takes values in $[0, \infty]$ we can have $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu = \infty$. If μ is a finite measure, e.g., a probability measure P , then it must be that $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \in \mathbb{R}$. When $\mathbb{X} : \Omega$ an outcome space, $f := X$ is a random variable and $\mu := P$ is a probability measure we write $E_P(X) := \int_{\Omega} X dP$ and call it the expectation of X given probability P . It will be convenient, in the case of simple functions, to write $I_{\mu}(f) := \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$.

Remark 3.2. Since the representation (3.2) is not unique, for uniqueness, the definition of integral requires that it be invariant to the representation used. To see this, suppose that $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j I_{A_j}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m b_k I_{B_k}(x)$. Then, $\mathbb{X} = \cup_{j=0}^n A_j = \cup_{k=0}^m B_k$ and

$$A_j = \cup_{k=0}^m (A_j \cap B_k), B_k = \cup_{j=0}^n (A_j \cap B_k).$$

Since μ finitely additive and the sets in the above unions are disjoint we have that

$$\sum_{j=0}^n a_j \mu(A_j) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \sum_{k=0}^m \mu(A_j \cap B_k) = \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=0}^m a_j \mu(A_j \cap B_k).$$

Similarly,

$$\sum_{k=0}^m b_k \mu(B_k) = \sum_{k=0}^m b_k \sum_{j=0}^n \mu(A_j \cap B_k) = \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=0}^m b_k \mu(A_j \cap B_k).$$

But $a_j = b_k$ whenever $A_j \cap B_k \neq \emptyset$, and when $A_j \cap B_k = \emptyset$, $\mu(A_j \cap B_k) = 0$. Thus, $a_j \mu(A_j \cap B_k) = b_k \mu(A_j \cap B_k)$ for all pairs (j, k) , and $I_\mu(f)$ is unique.

Theorem 3.2. Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ and $g : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be simple non-negative functions. Then,

a) $\int_{\mathbb{X}} cf d\mu = c \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$ for $c \geq 0$ and $\int_{\mathbb{X}} I_E d\mu = \mu(E)$ for $E \in \mathcal{F}$.

b) $\int_{\mathbb{X}} (f + g) d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$,

c) If for $E \in \mathcal{F}$, we have $\lambda(E) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f I_E d\mu$, then λ is a measure on \mathcal{F} .

d) $f \leq g \implies \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$.

Proof. For a) note that $c \geq 0 \implies cf \geq 0$ with representation $cf(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n ca_j I_{A_j}(x)$. Therefore, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} cf d\mu = \sum_{j=0}^n ca_j \mu(A_j) = c \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \mu(A_j) = c \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$. For the second part, note that $I_E(x) = I_E(x) + 0 I_{E^c}(x)$. Hence, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} I_E d\mu = \mu(E)$.

For b) let $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j I_{A_j}(x)$ and $g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m b_k I_{B_k}(x)$. Then, $f(x) + g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=0}^m (a_j + b_k) I_{A_j \cap B_k}(x)$ with $(A_j \cap B_k) \cap (A_{j'} \cap B_{k'}) = \emptyset$ whenever $(j, k) \neq (j', k')$.

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{\mathbb{X}} (f + g) d\mu &= \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=0}^m (a_j + b_k) \mu(A_j \cap B_k) \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \sum_{k=0}^m \mu(A_j \cap B_k) + \sum_{k=0}^m b_k \sum_{j=0}^n \mu(A_j \cap B_k) \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \mu(A_j) + \sum_{k=0}^m b_k \mu(B_k),
\end{aligned}$$

since \mathbb{X} is the union of both $\{A_j\}$ and $\{B_k\}$. Then, by definition $\int_{\mathbb{X}} (f + g) d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$.

For c) note that $f(x)I_E(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j I_{A_j \cap E}(x)$. From b) and a),

$$\lambda(E) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f I_E d\mu = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \int_{\Omega} I_{A_j \cap E}(x) d\mu = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \mu(A_j \cap E).$$

But $\mu(A_j \cap E)$ is a measure, and we have expressed $\lambda(E)$ as a linear combination of measures on \mathcal{F} , hence λ is a measure on \mathcal{F} .

For d) write $g = f + (g - f)$. Note that $g - f$ is simple and non-negative since $g \geq f$. Hence, $I_\mu(g) = I_\mu(f) + I_\mu(g - f) \geq I_\mu(f)$. ■

3.3 Integral of non-negative functions

We start with the following fundamental theorem.

Theorem 3.3. *Let $f(\omega) : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be a non-negative measurable function. Then, there exists a sequence $\varphi_n(\omega) : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ of simple non-negative functions such that:*

1. $\varphi_n(\omega) \leq \varphi_{n+1}(\omega)$, for all $\omega \in \Omega$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_n(\omega) = f(\omega)$, for all $\omega \in \Omega$.

Proof. 1. For each $n = 1, 2, \dots$ define the sets

$$E_{k,n} = \begin{cases} \{\omega \in \Omega : \frac{k}{2^n} \leq f(\omega) < \frac{k}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^n}\} = f^{-1}([\frac{k}{2^n}, \frac{k}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^n})) & \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n2^n - 1 \\ \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) \geq n\} = f^{-1}([n, \infty)) & \text{for } k = n2^n. \end{cases}$$

For each n , the sets $\{E_{k,n} : k = 0, 1, \dots, n2^n\}$ are disjoint by construction, belong to \mathcal{F} since f is measurable and $\cup_{k=0}^{n2^n} E_{k,n} = \Omega$. Now, let

$$\varphi_n(\omega) = \sum_{k=0}^{n2^n} \frac{k}{2^n} I_{E_{k,n}}(\omega).$$

Fix $\omega \in \Omega$ and for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we note that $\omega \in E_{k_0,n}$ for some k_0 . By definition

$$\varphi_n(\omega) = \begin{cases} \frac{k_0}{2^n} & \text{if } k_0 = 0, 1, \dots, n2^n - 1 \\ n & \text{if } k_0 = n2^n. \end{cases}$$

First, let $k_0 \in \{0, 1, \dots, n2^n - 1\}$ and consider $n+1$. The lower bound on $[\frac{k_0}{2^n}, \frac{k_0}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^n})$ must coincide with $\frac{k}{2^{n+1}}$, which gives $k = 2k_0$. Thus, $E_{k,n+1} = E_{2k_0,n+1} = f^{-1}([\frac{2k_0}{2^{n+1}}, \frac{2k_0}{2^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}})) = f^{-1}([\frac{k_0}{2^n}, \frac{k_0}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}))$ and

$$E_{k+1,n+1} = E_{2k_0+1,n+1} = f^{-1}([\frac{k_0}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}, \frac{k_0}{2^n} + \frac{2}{2^{n+1}})) = f^{-1}([\frac{k_0}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}, \frac{k_0}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^n})).$$

Consequently, $E_{k_0,n} = E_{k,n+1} \cup E_{k+1,n+1} = E_{2k_0,n+1} \cup E_{2k_0+1,n+1}$. If $\omega \in E_{2k_0,n+1}$ then $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) = \frac{2k_0}{2^{n+1}}$ and $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) = \frac{2k_0}{2^{n+1}} - \frac{k_0}{2^n} = 0$. Alternatively, if $\omega \in E_{2k_0+1,n+1}$ then $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) = \frac{2k_0+1}{2^{n+1}}$ and $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) = \frac{2k_0+1}{2^{n+1}} - \frac{k_0}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} > 0$. Consequently, if $\omega \in E_{k_0,n}$ then $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) \geq 0$.

Second, if $k_0 = n2^n$ then $E_{k_0,n} = f^{-1}([n, \infty])$. Now, if $\omega \in f^{-1}([n+1, \infty])$ then $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) = n+1$ and $\varphi_n(\omega) = n$. Consequently, $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) = 1 > 0$. If $\omega \in f^{-1}([n, n+1])$ then $\varphi_n(\omega) = n$ and $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) = \frac{k}{2^{n+1}}$ if $\omega \in f^{-1}([\frac{k}{2^{n+1}}, \frac{k}{2^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}))$. Setting the lower bound of the interval equal to n gives $k = n2^{n+1}$ and $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) = n$ if $\omega \in f^{-1}([n, n + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}))$, giving $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) = 0$. If $\omega \in f^{-1}([n + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}, n + \frac{2}{2^{n+1}}))$ then $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) = \frac{n2^{n+1}+1}{2^{n+1}}$ and consequently $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) = \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} > 0$. Continuing in this fashion for subsequent sub-intervals of $[n, n+1]$ gives $\varphi_{n+1}(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) \geq 0$.

2. From item 1, we have that $\varphi_1(\omega) \leq \varphi_2(\omega) \leq \dots \leq f(\omega)$ for all $\omega \in \Omega$. Hence, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_n(\omega) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \varphi_n(\omega)$. But $0 \leq f(\omega) - \varphi_n(\omega) \leq \frac{1}{2^n}$ and taking limits as $n \rightarrow \infty$ we have $f(\omega) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_n(\omega) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \varphi_n(\omega)$. ■

Definition 3.3. Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be a non-negative measurable function. The integral of f with respect to μ is given by

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu := \sup_{\varphi} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi(x) d\mu := \sup_{\varphi} I_{\mu}(\varphi) \in [0, \infty], \quad (3.5)$$

where the sup is taken over all simple functions φ which are non-negative satisfying $\varphi(x) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$.

Remark 3.3. If f is a non-negative simple function $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu = I_{\mu}(f)$.

Theorem 3.4. (Beppo-Levi Theorem) Let $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space and $\{f_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an increasing sequence of non-negative measurable functions $f_j : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$. Then $f = \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} f_j$ is a non-negative measurable function and

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu := \int_{\mathbb{X}} \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} f_j d\mu = \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Proof. That f is a non-negative measurable function follows from Theorem 1.20. Note that if g and h are non-negative measurable functions, we have by definition that

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu := \sup_{\varphi} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi d\mu \text{ where } \varphi \leq g, \varphi \text{ a simple function.}$$

But since $g \leq h$,

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu \leq \sup_{\varphi} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} h d\mu \text{ where } \varphi \leq h.$$

Now, $f_j \leq f := \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} f_j$. By the monotonicity of integrals, which we just established,

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu.$$

Taking sup on both sides gives $\sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$.

Now, we establish the reverse inequality, i.e., $\sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu \geq \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$. Let $\varphi(x)$ be a simple function such that $\varphi \leq f$. If we can show that

$$I_{\mu}(\varphi) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi d\mu \leq \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu \quad (3.6)$$

we will have the desired inequality since we can take sup over all simple functions on both sides of (3.6) to give

$$\sup_{\varphi} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi d\mu := \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \leq \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Let φ be a simple nonnegative function such that $\varphi \leq f$. Since $f(x) := \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} f_j(x)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{X}$ and $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$, there exists $N_{(x, \epsilon)}$ such that

$$f_j(x) \geq \epsilon \varphi(x) \text{ whenever } j \geq N_{(x, \epsilon)}.$$

Now, if $A_j = \{x : f_j(x) \geq \epsilon \varphi(x)\}$ we note that the sets A_j increase as $j \rightarrow \infty$ since $f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots$. Furthermore, these sets are measurable by measurability of f_j and φ . By definition of A_j

$$\epsilon I_{A_j}(x) \varphi(x) \leq I_{A_j}(x) f_j(x) \leq f_j(x). \quad (3.7)$$

Since φ is a simple function it has a standard representation $\varphi(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m y_i I_{B_i}(x)$ and

$$\epsilon I_{A_j}(x) \sum_{i=0}^m y_i I_{B_i}(x) = \epsilon \sum_{i=0}^m y_i I_{B_i \cap A_j}(x).$$

Thus, the integral of the simple function in this expression is given by $\epsilon \sum_{i=0}^m y_i \mu(B_i \cap A_j)$.

By monotonicity of integrals and using (3.7) we have

$$\epsilon \sum_{i=0}^m y_i \mu(B_i \cap A_j) \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu \leq \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Since $\varphi \leq f$, the collection $\{A_j\}$ grows to \mathbb{X} as $j \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, by the fact that μ is continuous from below

$$\mu(B_i \cap A_j) \uparrow \mu(B_i \cap \mathbb{X}) = \mu(B_i) \text{ as } j \rightarrow \infty$$

and

$$\epsilon \sum_{i=0}^m y_i \mu(B_i) = \epsilon \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi d\mu \leq \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Now, just let ϵ be arbitrarily close to 1 to finish the proof. ■

Remark 3.4. 1. If we take $f_j = \varphi_j$ where φ_j are non-negative simple functions and $f = \sup_j \varphi_j$, then

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu = \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi_j d\mu.$$

Note that sup can be replaced with $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty}$.

2. If $E \in \mathcal{F}$, then $I_E(x)f(x)$ is a non-negative measurable function if $f \geq 0$. We define

$$\int_E f d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} I_E f d\mu. \quad (3.8)$$

Theorem 3.5. Let $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space and $f, g : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be numerical non-negative measurable functions. Then

1. $\int_{\mathbb{X}} I_A d\mu = \mu(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$,
2. $\int_{\mathbb{X}} a f d\mu = a \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$ for $a \geq 0$,
3. $\int_{\mathbb{X}} (f + g) d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$,
4. If $E, F \in \mathcal{F}$ and $E \subseteq F$, then $\int_E f d\mu \leq \int_F f d\mu$.

Proof. 1. $\int_{\mathbb{X}} I_A d\mu = I_{\mu}(I_A) = \mu(A)$. 2. If $a > 0$, let φ_n be an increasing sequence of measurable non-negative simple functions converging to f (such sequence exists by Theorem 3.3). Then, $a\varphi_n(\omega)$ is an increasing sequence converging to af . By Theorem 3.4 and the fact that $I_{\mu}(a\varphi_n) = aI_{\mu}(\varphi_n)$

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} a f d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} a \varphi_n d\mu = a \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi_n(\omega) d\mu = a \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$$

3. Let φ_n, ψ_n be non-negative increasing simple functions converging to f and g . Then

$\varphi_n + \psi_n$ is an increasing sequence converging to $f + g$. Again, by Theorem [3.4](#)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{X}} (f + g) d\mu &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} (\varphi_n + \psi_n) d\mu \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \varphi_n d\mu + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} \psi_n d\mu \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu. \end{aligned}$$

4. $fI_E \leq fI_F$ therefore

$$\int_E f d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} fI_E d\mu \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} fI_F d\mu = \int_F f d\mu.$$

■

Corollary 3.1. *Let $\{f_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of measurable non-negative numerical functions ($f_j : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$). Then, $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_j$ is measurable and*

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_j \right) d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Proof. Let $S_m = \sum_{j=1}^m f_j$, $S = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^m f_j = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_j$ and note that $0 \leq S_1 \leq S_2 \leq \dots$.

Then, by Theorem [3.5](#),3 we have that

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} S_m d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Taking limits as $m \rightarrow \infty$ and using Theorem [3.4](#), we have

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} S_m d\mu = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} S d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_j \right) d\mu.$$

■

Theorem 3.6. (*Fatou's Lemma*): *Let $\{f_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of measurable non-negative numerical functions ($f_j : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$). Then, $f := \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_j$ is measurable and*

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Proof. Let $g_n = \inf\{f_n, f_{n+1}, \dots\}$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$, and note that $g_1 \leq f_1, g_1 \leq f_2, \dots$. Also, $g_2 \leq f_2, g_2 \leq f_3, \dots$. Thus, $g_n \leq f_j$ for all $n \leq j$. Furthermore, $g_1 \leq g_2 \leq \dots$. Now, recall that $f := \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j := \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{j \geq n} f_j$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n = \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j := f.$$

Also, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} g_n d\mu \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu$ for all $n \leq j$ and

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} g_n d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j d\mu.$$

Since the sequence $g_n \uparrow \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j$, by Theorem 3.4

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} g_n d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_j(\omega) d\mu.$$

■

3.4 Integral of functions

Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be a measurable numerical function and $f^+ = \max\{f, 0\}$ and $f^- = -\min\{f, 0\}$.

Definition 3.4. Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be a measurable numerical function such that $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f^+ d\mu < \infty$ and $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f^- d\mu < \infty$. In this case, we say that f is μ -integrable and we write

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu := \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^+ d\mu - \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^- d\mu.$$

We note that $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and denote by $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}}$ the set of integrable real functions and $\mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$ the set of integrable numerical functions. A non-negative function f is said to be integrable if, and only if, $\int f d\mu < \infty$. If $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) := (\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}^n, \lambda^n)$ we call $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f d\lambda^n$ the Lebesgue integral.

Theorem 3.7. Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be a measurable function. Then,

$$(1) f \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}} \iff (2) |f| \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}} \iff (3) \text{ there exist } 0 \leq g \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}} \text{ such that } |f| \leq g.$$

Proof. ((1) \implies (2)) Since, $|f| = f^+ + f^-$ and since integrability of f implies $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f^+ d\mu < \infty$ and $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f^- d\mu < \infty$ we have $\int_{\mathbb{X}} |f| d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^+ d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^- d\mu < \infty$.

((2) \implies (3)) Just take $g = |f|$.

((3) \implies (1)) Since $f^+ \leq |f| \leq g$ and $f^- \leq |f| \leq g$ we have by the monotonicity of the integral of non-negative functions and the integrability of g that $f^+, f^- \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$. Hence, $f \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$. ■

Theorem 3.8. Let $f, g : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be measurable functions such that $f, g \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then,

1. $af \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$ and $\int_{\mathbb{X}} af d\mu = a \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu$,
2. $(f + g) \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$ and $\int_{\mathbb{X}} (f + g) d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$,
3. $\max\{f, g\}, \min\{f, g\} \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$,
4. if $f \leq g$ then $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$.

Proof. Homework. Use Theorems [3.7](#) and [3.5](#). ■

Remark 3.5. Note that

$$\left| \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu \right| \leq \left| \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^+ d\mu \right| + \left| \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^- d\mu \right| = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^+ d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} f^- d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} (f^+ + f^-) d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} |f| d\mu.$$

Theorem 3.9. Let $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ be a measurable function such that $0 \leq f \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}$ and

$$m(E) = \int_E f d\mu \text{ for all } E \in \mathcal{F}.$$

Then, m is a measure on \mathcal{F} .

Proof. Since $f \geq 0$, $m(E) \geq 0$. If $E = \emptyset$, then $fI_E = 0$ and

$$m(\emptyset) = \int_{\emptyset} f d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} fI_{\emptyset} d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} 0 d\mu = 0.$$

Now, let $\{E_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a disjoint collection of sets in \mathcal{F} such that $\cup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j = E$ and let $f_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n f(x)I_{E_j}(x)$. By Theorem 3.5.3 $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{X}} fI_{E_j} d\mu$. Thus, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^n m(E_j)$.

Note that $f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots$ and converges to fI_E . Hence, by Theorem 3.4

$$m(E) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} fI_E d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n m(E_j) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} m(E_j).$$

■

Remark 3.6. m is called the measure with density function f with respect to μ and denoted by $m = f\mu$. If m has a density with respect to μ it is traditional in mathematics to write $dm/d\mu$ for the the density function. We note that with a little more work we can recognize f as the Radon-Nikodým derivative of m with respect to the measure μ .

3.5 Lebesgue's convergence theorems

Theorem 3.10 (Lebesgue's Monotone Convergence Theorem). *Let $f_n : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be integrable functions such that $f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots$ and $f := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n := \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} f_n$. Then,*

$$f \in \mathcal{L}(\mu) \iff \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu < \infty.$$

In this case,

$$\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} f_n d\mu.$$

Proof. Since $f_n \in \mathcal{L}(\mu)$ and $f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots$ we have that $0 \leq f_n - f_1 \in \mathcal{L}(\mu)$ forms an increasing sequence of nonnegative measurable functions. Hence, by Theorem 3.4

$$0 \leq \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} (f_n - f_1) d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (f_n - f_1) d\mu. \quad (3.9)$$

Now, suppose $f \in \mathcal{L}(\mu)$ and note that from equation (3.9)

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu - \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_1 d\mu &= \int_{\mathbb{X}} (f - f_1) d\mu \text{ or} \\ \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu &= \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_1 d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} (f - f_1) d\mu \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_1 d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu - \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_1 d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

If $\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu < \infty$, then from equation (3.9) we have $\int_{\mathbb{X}} (f - f_1) d\mu < \infty$ and since f_1 is integrable $f = (f - f_1) + f_1$ is integrable. Therefore,

$$\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} (f - f_1) d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_1 d\mu = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu < \infty.$$

■

In the context of a measure space $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$, we will call N a null set if $N \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mu(N) = 0$. If a certain property $\mathcal{P}(x)$ that depends on $x \in \mathbb{X}$ holds for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$ except $x \in N_{\mathcal{P}} \subseteq N$, where N is a null set, we say that the property is true almost everywhere (ae) or almost surely (as). Note the set $N_{\mathcal{P}}$ where the property does not hold need not be a measurable set.

Theorem 3.11. (*Markov's Inequality*) Let $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space and $f \in \mathcal{L}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}(\mu)$. Then, for all $E \in \mathcal{F}$ and $a > 0$

$$\mu(\{|f| \geq a\} \cap E) \leq \frac{1}{a} \int_E |f| d\mu.$$

Proof. Note that, $aI_{\{|f| \geq a\} \cap E} = aI_{\{|f| \geq a\}} I_E \leq |f| I_E$ and consequently, integrating both sides, $a\mu(\{|f| \geq a\} \cap E) \leq \int_E |f| d\mu$. Therefore,

$$\mu(\{|f| \geq a\} \cap E) \leq \frac{1}{a} \int_E |f| d\mu.$$

■

Note that if $E = \mathbb{X}$ we have $\mu(\{|f| \geq a\}) \leq \frac{1}{a} \int_{\mathbb{X}} |f| d\mu$. When $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) = (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ a probability space and $f := X$ a random variable, the last result is commonly stated as

$$P(\{|X| \geq a\}) \leq \frac{1}{a} E_P(|X|).$$

Theorem 3.12. *Let $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space and $f \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}}(\mu)$. Then,*

1. *if N is a null set $\int_N f d\mu = 0$,*
2. *$\int_{\mathbb{X}} |f| d\mu = 0 \iff |f| = 0$ ae.*

Proof. 1. Let $f_j = \min\{|f|, j\}$ and note $0 \leq f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots$ with $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j = |f|$. Hence, by Theorem [3.4](#)

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \left| \int_N f d\mu \right| &= \left| \int_{\mathbb{X}} I_N f d\mu \right| \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} I_N |f| d\mu \\ &= \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} I_N f_j d\mu = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} I_N \min\{|f|, j\} d\mu \leq \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} j I_N d\mu \\ &= \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} j \int_{\mathbb{X}} I_N d\mu = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} j \mu(N) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

2. (\Leftarrow) $\int_{\mathbb{X}} |f| d\mu = \int_{\{|f|=0\}} |f| d\mu + \int_{\{|f| \neq 0\}} |f| d\mu = \int_{\{|f| \neq 0\}} |f| d\mu = 0$ by item 1.

(\Rightarrow) Note that by the fact that μ is a measure

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(\{|f| > 0\}) &= \mu(\cup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \{|f| \geq 1/i\}) \leq \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(\{|f| \geq 1/i\}) \\ &\leq \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} i \int_{\mathbb{X}} |f| d\mu = 0 \end{aligned}$$

by Markov's Inequality and the assumption that $\int_{\mathbb{X}} |f| d\mu = 0$.

■

A direct consequence of this Theorem is that functions that are equal almost everywhere have the same integral.

Remark 3.7. 1. If $f, g \geq 0$ are measurable and $f = g$ ae then $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu = \int_{\{x:f(x) \neq g(x)\}} f d\mu + \int_{\{x:f(x)=g(x)\}} f d\mu$. But by Theorem 3.12.1, the first integral is equal to zero. Consequently, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu = \int_{\{x:f(x)=g(x)\}} f d\mu = \int_{\{x:f(x)=g(x)\}} g d\mu = \int_{\{x:f(x) \neq g(x)\}} g d\mu + \int_{\{x:f(x)=g(x)\}} g d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$.

2. If $f \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}}$ and $f = g$ ae then $f^{+,-} = g^{+,-}$ ae. Using the previous remark on $f^{+,-}$ we have $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f^{+,-} d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} g^{+,-} d\mu$. Hence, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$.

3. If f is measurable and $0 \leq g \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{R}}$ with $|f| \leq g$ ae, then

$$f^{+,-} \leq |f| \leq g \text{ ae .}$$

Hence, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} f^{+,-} d\mu \leq \int_{\mathbb{X}} g d\mu$. So, f is integrable.

Theorem 3.13. (Lebesgue Dominated Convergence Theorem) Let $(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space and $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of integrable functions such that $|f_n| \leq g$ for all n and some integrable nonnegative function g . If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$ exists ae, then f is integrable and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{X}} f_n d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\mu := \int_{\mathbb{X}} f d\mu.$$

Proof. We start by observing that since the f_n are measurable, the set

$$N = \{x : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n \text{ does not exist}\}$$

is measurable and $\mu(N) = 0$. Thus, we proceed by taking $N = \emptyset$ as it does not contribute to the integrals.

For any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $N_{(\epsilon, x)}$ such that for all $n > N_{(\epsilon, x)}$

$$\begin{aligned} |f| &= |f - f_n + f_n| \leq |f_n| + |f - f_n| \\ &\leq g + |f - f_n| \text{ by the bound assumption on the theorem statement} \\ &\leq g + \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\int f d\mu < \infty$ provided $g \in \mathcal{L}(\mu)$. Also, $|f_n| \leq g \iff -g \leq f_n \leq g$. Hence, $f_n + g \geq 0$. By Fatou's Lemma,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f_n + g) d\mu &= \int (f + g) d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int (f_n + g) d\mu \\ &= \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu + \int g d\mu. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\int f d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu. \quad (3.10)$$

Also, $g - f_n \geq 0$ and again by Fatou's Lemma,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq \int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g - f_n) d\mu = \int g d\mu - \int f d\mu \\ &\leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int (g - f_n) d\mu \\ &= \int g d\mu + \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} - \int f_n d\mu \\ &= \int g d\mu - \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu. \end{aligned}$$

The first inequality together with the last equality imply that

$$\int f d\mu \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu. \quad (3.11)$$

Combining (3.10) and (3.11) completes the proof. ■

We now consider a measurable function that is indexed by a parameter $\theta \in (a, b)$ for $a < b$. As such, we define $f(x, \theta) : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \times (a, b) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ where f is measurable for all $\theta \in (a, b)$.

Theorem 3.14. *Let $f(x, \theta) : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \times (a, b) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ where f is measurable and $f \in \mathcal{L}(\mu)$ for all $\theta \in (a, b)$. Also, assume that $f(x, \theta)$ is continuous for every $x \in \mathbb{X}$ and $|f(x, \theta)| \leq g(x)$ for all $(x, t) \in \mathbb{X} \times (a, b)$ and some nonnegative integrable function g . Then, the function $h : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by*

$$h(\theta) := \int_{\mathbb{X}} f(x, \theta) d\mu$$

is continuous.

Proof. The function h is well defined because of integrability of $f(x, \theta)$. It suffices to show that for any sequence $\theta_n \in (a, b)$ such that $\theta_n \rightarrow \theta$ we have $h(\theta_n) \rightarrow h(\theta)$. By continuity of $f(x, \theta)$ for every x we have $f(x, \theta_n) \rightarrow f(x, \theta)$ and $|f(x, \theta_n)| \leq g(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$. By Lebesgue's Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h(\theta_n) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(\theta_n, x) d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} f(\theta, x) d\mu = h(\theta).$$

■

Theorem 3.15. Let $f(x, \theta) : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \times (a, b) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ where f is measurable and $f \in \mathcal{L}(\mu)$ for all $\theta \in (a, b)$. Also, assume that $f(x, \theta)$ is differentiable on (a, b) for every $x \in \mathbb{X}$ and $|\frac{d}{d\theta} f(x, \theta)| \leq g(x)$ for all $(t, x) \in (a, b) \times \mathbb{X}$ and some nonnegative integrable function g . Then, the function $h : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$h(\theta) := \int_{\mathbb{X}} f(x, \theta) d\mu$$

is differentiable and its derivative is given by

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} h(\theta) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \frac{d}{d\theta} f(x, \theta) d\mu.$$

Proof. Recall that $\theta, \theta_n \in (a, b)$ with $\theta_n \rightarrow \theta$ and $\theta_n \neq \theta$.

$$\frac{df}{d\theta}(x, \theta) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x, \theta_n) - f(x, \theta)}{\theta_n - \theta}$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$ and consequently $\frac{df}{d\theta}(x, \theta)$ is measurable. By the Mean Value Theorem, $f(x, \theta_n) - f(x, \theta) = \frac{df}{d\theta}(x, \theta_{z,n})(\theta_n - \theta)$ with $\theta_{z,n} = \lambda\theta_n + (1 - \lambda)\theta$, $\lambda \in (0, 1)$, $\theta_{z,n} \in (a, b)$.

Consequently,

$$\left| \frac{f(x, \theta_n) - f(x, \theta)}{\theta_n - \theta} \right| = \left| \frac{df}{d\theta}(x, \theta_{z,n}) \right| \leq g(x)$$

so that $\left| \frac{f(x, \theta_n) - f(x, \theta)}{\theta_n - \theta} \right|$ is integrable. Thus,

$$\frac{h(\theta_n) - h(\theta)}{\theta_n - \theta} = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \frac{f(x, \theta_n) - f(x, \theta)}{\theta_n - \theta} d\mu.$$

Hence, by the Lebesgue's Dominated Convergence Theorem

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{h(\theta_n) - h(\theta)}{\theta_n - \theta} = \frac{d}{d\theta} h(\theta) = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x, \theta_n) - f(x, \theta)}{\theta_n - \theta} d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{X}} \frac{df}{d\theta}(x, \theta) d\mu.$$

■

3.6 \mathcal{L}^p spaces

Definition 3.5. *The collection of measurable functions $f : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ such that $\int_{\mathbb{X}} |f|^p d\mu < \infty$ for $p \in [1, \infty)$ is denoted by $\mathcal{L}^p(\mu)$ or $\mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$.*

Let $f, g \in \mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ and define $s : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ as $s(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$. Then, $|s(x)| \leq |f(x)| + |g(x)| \leq 2 \max\{|f(x)|, |g(x)|\}$ and

$$|s(x)|^p \leq 2^p \max\{|f(x)|, |g(x)|\}^p = 2^p \max\{|f(x)|^p, |g(x)|^p\} \leq 2^p (|f(x)|^p + |g(x)|^p).$$

Consequently, $\int_{\mathbb{X}} |s|^p d\mu \leq 2^p (\int_{\mathbb{X}} |f|^p d\mu + \int_{\mathbb{X}} |g|^p d\mu) < \infty$. Also, if $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $m : (\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ as $m(x) = af(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$ we have $|m(x)|^p = |a|^p |f(x)|^p$ and $\int_{\mathbb{X}} |m|^p d\mu = |a|^p \int_{\mathbb{X}} |f|^p d\mu < \infty$. Lastly, if we take $\theta(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$ to be the null vector in $\mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$, then $\mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is a vector space.

If $f \in \mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ we define the function $\|\cdot\|_p : \mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ as $\|f\|_p = (\int_{\mathbb{X}} |f|^p d\mu)^{1/p}$ and prove Hölder's Inequality.

Theorem 3.16. *(Hölder's Inequality) If $1 < p < \infty$, $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$, $f \in \mathcal{L}^p$, $g \in \mathcal{L}^q$, then $fg \in \mathcal{L}$ and $\int |fg| d\mu \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$.*

Proof. If $\|f\|_p = 0$ then, by Theorem [3.12](#) $|f| = 0$ ae, so $|fg| = 0$ ae. Hence, $\int |fg| d\mu = 0$ and the inequality holds. Likewise for $\|g\|_q = 0$. So, assume $\|f\|_p, \|g\|_q \neq 0$. Let $x = f/\|f\|_p$, $y = g/\|g\|_q$ and note that $\|x\|_p = 1$ and $\|y\|_q = 1$. It suffices to prove $\int |xy| d\mu \leq 1$.

Now, note that for any $a, b > 0$ and $0 < \alpha < 1$,

$$a^\alpha b^{1-\alpha} \leq \alpha a + (1 - \alpha)b.$$

To see this, divide by b to obtain $(\frac{a}{b})^\alpha \leq \alpha \frac{a}{b} + (1 - \alpha)$. It suffices to show $u^\alpha \leq \alpha u + (1 - \alpha)$, for $u > 0$.

The inequality holds for $u = 1$. Now, $\frac{d}{du}u^\alpha = \alpha u^{\alpha-1} = \alpha \frac{1}{u^{1-\alpha}}$. Since $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ we have that $u^{1-\alpha} < 1$ if $u < 1$. Consequently, in this case, $u^{\alpha-1} > 1$ and $\frac{d}{du}u^\alpha > \alpha$. Also, using the same arguments, if $u > 1$ we have that $\frac{d}{du}u^\alpha < \alpha$. By the Mean Value Theorem, for $\lambda \in (0, 1)$

$$u^\alpha - 1 = \alpha(\lambda u + (1 - \lambda))^{\alpha-1}(u - 1) < \alpha(u - 1) \implies u^\alpha < 1 - \alpha + \alpha u \text{ if } u > 1.$$

Also,

$$u^\alpha - 1 = \alpha(\lambda u + (1 - \lambda))^{\alpha-1}(u - 1) < \alpha(u - 1) \implies u^\alpha < 1 + \alpha u - \alpha, \text{ if } u < 1.$$

Thus, $u^\alpha \leq \alpha u + (1 - \alpha)$ for $u > 0$.

Now, let $\alpha = 1/p$, $a(\omega) = |x(\omega)|^p$, $b(\omega) = |y(\omega)|^q$ and $1 - \alpha = 1/q$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (|x(\omega)|^p)^{1/p}(|y(\omega)|^q)^{1/q} &\leq \alpha|x(\omega)|^p + (1 - \alpha)|y(\omega)|^q, \text{ or} \\ |x(\omega)y(\omega)| &\leq \alpha|x(\omega)|^p + (1 - \alpha)|y(\omega)|^q. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, integrating both sides of the inequality we obtain $\int |xy|d\mu \leq \alpha\|x\|_p + (1 - \alpha)\|y\|_q = 1$.

■

Theorem 3.17. (*Minkowski-Riez Inequality*) For $1 \leq p < \infty$, if f and g are in \mathcal{L}^p we have

$$\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p.$$

Proof. By the triangle inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \|f + g\|_p^p &= \int |f + g||f + g|^{p-1}d\mu \leq \int (|f||f + g|^{p-1} + |g||f + g|^{p-1}) d\mu \\ &= \int |f||f + g|^{p-1}d\mu + \int |g||f + g|^{p-1}d\mu, \text{ and if } p = 1 \text{ the proof is complete.} \end{aligned}$$

If $p > 1$, by Hölder's Inequality

$$\leq \|f\|_p\|f + g|^{p-1}\|_q + \|g\|_p\|f + g|^{p-1}\|_q,$$

where $1/p + 1/q = 1$ which implies $1/q = 1 - 1/p \implies q = \frac{p}{p-1}$. Thus,

$$\|f + g\|_p^p \leq \|f\|_p \|f + g\|_q^{p/q} + \|g\|_p \|f + g\|_q^{p/q} = (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \|f + g\|_q^{p/q}. \quad (3.12)$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \|f + g\|_q^{p/q} &= \left(\int (|f + g|^{p/q})^q d\mu \right)^{1/q} = \left(\int |f + g|^p d\mu \right)^{1/q} \\ &= \left(\int |f + g|^p d\mu \right)^{\frac{p-1}{p}} = \|f + g\|_p^{p-1} \end{aligned}$$

Using this in inequality (3.12) we obtain $\|f + g\|_p^{p-(p-1)} = \|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$. ■

Remark 3.8. 1. *The Minkowski-Riez Inequality and the fact that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\|af\|_p = |a|\|f\|_p$ and $\|f\|_p \geq 0$ shows that $\|\cdot\|_p$ has almost all of the properties of a norm. The exception is that $\|f\|_p = 0$ does not imply that $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$. It only implies that $f(x) = 0$ almost everywhere.*

2. *$f, g \in \mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ are taken to be equivalent if they differ at most on a set of μ -measure zero (null set), i.e., $f \sim g$ if $\{x : f(x) \neq g(x)\}$ is a null set. Then, for every $f \in \mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ we can define an equivalence class (reflexive, symmetric and transitive) of \mathcal{L}^p functions induced by f , which will be denoted by $[f]_p$. The space of all equivalence classes $[f]_p$ of functions $f \in \mathcal{L}^p$ is denoted by L^p with norm $\|[f]_p\|_p := \inf\{\|g\|_p : g \in \mathcal{L}^p \text{ and } g \sim f\}$. $(L^p, \|[f]_p\|_p)$ is a norm vector space and in what follows we will dispense with these technicalities and identify $[f]_p$ with f .*

A commonly encountered case, treated in the next theorem, has $p = 2$ and $X, Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ being random variables such that $X, Y \in \mathcal{L}^2_{\mathbb{R}}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$.

Theorem 3.18. *Let $X, Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be random variables such that $X, Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$.*

$$1. \quad XY \in \mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \text{ and } \left| \int_{\Omega} XY dP \right| \leq \left(\int_{\Omega} X^2 dP \right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{\Omega} Y^2 dP \right)^{1/2},$$

2. If $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ then $X \in \mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ and $(\int_{\Omega} X dP)^2 \leq \int_{\Omega} X^2 dP$,

3. $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ is a vector space.

Proof. 1. This is just a special case of Hölder's Inequality with $p = q = 2$. 3. follows from the comments after Definition 3.5. 2. Let $X \in \mathcal{L}^2$ and note that $I_{\Omega} \in \mathcal{L}^2$ with $\int_{\Omega} I_{\Omega} dP = \int_{\Omega} dP$.

Then,

$$\left| \int_{\Omega} X I_{\Omega} dP \right| \leq \left(\int_{\Omega} X^2 dP \right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{\Omega} dP \right)^{1/2}.$$

Since $\int_{\Omega} dP = 1$, we have

$$\left| \int_{\Omega} X dP \right| \leq \left(\int_{\Omega} X^2 dP \right)^{1/2} \quad \text{or} \quad \left(\int_{\Omega} X dP \right)^2 \leq \int_{\Omega} X^2 dP.$$

■

Remark 3.9. If $X \in \mathcal{L}^2$ we define $V_P(X) = \int_{\Omega} (X - E_P(X))^2 dP = \int_{\Omega} X^2 dP - (\int_{\Omega} X dP)^2$ and call it the variance of X (under P).

Theorem 3.19. Let X be a random variable defined on the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) taking values in $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ and $h : (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be measurable.

1. $f := h \circ X$ is integrable in (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) if, and only if, h is integrable in $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}, P_X)$.

2. $E(h(X)) := \int_{\Omega} f dP = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h dP_X$.

Proof. First, let h be a non-negative simple function. Then we have that $f(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^m y_j I_{A_j}(\omega)$ where $A_j \in \mathcal{F}$. Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} I_P(f) &= \int_{\Omega} f dP = \sum_{j=0}^m y_j P(A_j) = \sum_{j=0}^m y_j P(X^{-1}(B_j)) \quad \text{where } B_j = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : h(x) = y_j\} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^m y_j (P \circ X^{-1})(B_j) = \sum_{j=0}^m y_j P_X(B_j) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h dP_X = I_{P_X}(h). \end{aligned}$$

Second, let $h \geq 0$. Then, by Theorem [3.3](#) there exists a sequence of increasing non-negative simple function ϕ_n such that $\phi_n \rightarrow h$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence, if we define $f_n(\omega) = \phi_n(X(\omega)) = (\phi_n \circ X)(\omega)$, it is a sequence of increasing simple function that converges to f .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} f dP &= \int_{\Omega} (h \circ X) dP = \int_{\Omega} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\phi_n \circ X) dP \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} (\phi_n \circ X) dP \text{ by Beppo-Levi's Theorem} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi_n dP_X \text{ by the first part of the argument} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} h dP_X. \end{aligned}$$

This proves 2. for simple and non-negative h . If h takes values in \mathbb{R} , consider $|h|$ and let ϕ_n be a sequence of increasing non-negative simple function such that $\phi_n \rightarrow |h|$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, we have from above that

$$\int_{\Omega} |f| dP = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h| dP_X.$$

But from Remark [3.5](#), if $|h|$ is integrable in $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}, P_X)$ then h is integrable in $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}, P_X)$, establishing 1. Now, for arbitrary h we can prove the rest of part 2 by applying the same arguments to h^+ and h^- and using the fact that $h = h^+ - h^-$. ■

Clearly, taking $h(x) = x$ in the previous theorem gives $E_P(X) := \int_{\Omega} X dP = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x dP_X(x)$ where in the last integral we emphasize that the “variable” in integration is taking values in \mathbb{R} .

Definition 3.6. *The density of a probability measure P_X associated with a random variable X defined on a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is a non-negative Borel measurable function f_X that satisfies*

$$P_X((-\infty, a]) = \int_{(-\infty, a]} f_X d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}} I_{(-\infty, a]} f_X d\lambda$$

where λ is Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} .

Theorem 3.20. f_X is a density $\iff \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_X d\lambda = 1$, f_X is unique almost everywhere.

Proof. (\implies) f_X a density implies $F_X(a) = P_X((-\infty, a]) = \int_{(-\infty, a]} f_X d\lambda$. $\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} P_X((-\infty, a]) = 1 = \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \int_{(-\infty, a]} f_X d\lambda$, where the first equality follows from definition [2.5](#) and continuity of probability measures.

(\impliedby) Suppose f_X is a non-negative Borel measurable function such that $\int f_X d\lambda = 1$. For all $A \in \mathcal{B}$, we put

$$P_X(A) = \int_A f_X d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}} I_A f_X d\lambda.$$

By Theorem [3.9](#), P_X is a measure on \mathcal{B} with $P_X(\mathbb{R}) = 1$, by assumption. Taking $A = (-\infty, a]$,

$$P_X((-\infty, a]) = \int_{(-\infty, a]} f_X d\lambda$$

and f_X is a density for F_X .

Now, suppose g_X is another density for F_X . Then, $P_X(A) = \int_A g_X d\lambda = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g_X I_A d\lambda$. Let $A_n = \{x : g_X(x) \geq f_X(x) + 1/n\}$. For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\int_{A_n} g_X d\lambda \geq \int_{A_n} (f_X + \frac{1}{n}) d\lambda = \int_{A_n} f_X d\lambda + \frac{1}{n} \lambda(A_n)$. Since $\int_{A_n} f_X d\lambda = \int_{A_n} g_X d\lambda$ it must be that $\lambda(A_n) = 0$.

Note that $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq \dots$. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = A = \{x : g_X(x) > f_X(x)\}$ and $\lambda(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda(A_n) = 0$. Similarly, we have $\lambda(B) = 0$ for $B = \{x : g_X(x) < f_X(x)\}$. So, $\lambda(\{x : g_X = f_X\}) = 1$. ■

Theorem 3.21. Let $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be a random variable with density f_X and $h : (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ be a measurable function such that $\int_{\Omega} |h \circ X| dP < \infty$, i.e., $f = h \circ X$ is integrable. Then,

$$\int_{\Omega} (h \circ X) dP = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h dP_X = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) f_X(x) d\lambda(x)$$

Proof. Homework. ■