

Exercise 8.1.

Let μ be a measure on \mathbb{R}^n , $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a μ -measurable set and $f : \Omega \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ a μ -measurable function. Consider the sets $A_j \subseteq \Omega$ from Theorem 2.2.6 of the Lecture Notes, defined so that the sequence of functions

$$f_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{j} \chi_{A_j}$$

converges pointwise to f . Show that if f is bounded, then f_k converge uniformly to f , that is,

$$\sup_{x \in \Omega} |f(x) - f_k(x)| \longrightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty.$$

Solution: Suppose that $f(x) \leq M$ for every $x \in \Omega$ and let $k_0 > 2$ be large enough so that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k_0} \frac{1}{j} > M.$$

Given $x \in \Omega$ and $k \geq k_0$, let j be the largest integer $\leq k$ such that $x \notin A_j$. Notice that such j must exist because otherwise we would have $f(x) \geq \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{j} > M$. In this case $f_j(x) = f_{j-1}(x)$ and moreover, by definition of A_j ,

$$f(x) < f_{j-1}(x) + \frac{1}{j} = f_j(x) + \frac{1}{j}, \tag{1}$$

but $x \in A_\ell$ for every $j < \ell \leq k$, which implies that

$$f_j(x) + \sum_{\ell=j+1}^k \frac{1}{\ell} \leq f(x). \tag{2}$$

Putting together (1) and (2) we get that

$$\sum_{\ell=j+1}^k \frac{1}{\ell} < \frac{1}{j}.$$

It is easy to check that such inequality cannot hold if $k - j \geq 3$, for example because of the easy inequality

$$\frac{1}{j} = \frac{1}{2j} + \frac{1}{3j} + \frac{1}{6j} < \frac{1}{j+1} + \frac{1}{j+2} + \frac{1}{j+3}$$

which is true for $j \geq 1$. Thus $j \geq k - 2$. Now (1) and the monotonicity of f_k imply

$$0 \leq f(x) - f_k(x) \leq f(x) - f_j(x) < \frac{1}{j} \leq \frac{1}{k-2},$$

from which the uniform convergence follows. □

Exercise 8.2.

Let $f : \Omega \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ be μ -measurable. Prove that there exists a sequence $\{f_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ of simple functions $f_k : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $|f_k(x)| \leq |f_{k+1}(x)|$ and $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(x) = f(x)$ for every $x \in \Omega$.

In particular, this shows that $|f_k(x)| \leq |f(x)|$ for each $x \in \Omega$ and $k \geq 1$.

Solution: Write $f = f^+ - f^-$, where $f^+ = \max\{0, f\}$ and $f^- = \max\{0, -f\}$. The construction of Theorem 2.2.6 of the Lecture Notes gives two sequences of simple functions s_k^+, s_k^- such that $s_k^\pm \nearrow f^\pm$ monotonically and pointwise. Thus it follows that $f_k := s_k^+ - s_k^-$ converge pointwise to $f = f^+ - f^-$ and $|f_k| = s_k^+ + s_k^- \leq s_{k+1}^+ + s_{k+1}^- = |f_{k+1}|$ as desired. \square

Exercise 8.3. ♣

Which of the following assertions are true?

(a) Given a sequence $\{f_k\}$ of Lebesgue-measurable functions on \mathbb{R} converging to 0 in measure, there is a subset $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ of positive measure and a subsequence which converges uniformly on A . \checkmark

(b) If $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, then f' is Lebesgue-measurable. \checkmark

(c) There exists a function $f : \Omega \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ such that f is not measurable but \sqrt{f} is measurable. \times

(d) The sequence $f_n(x) = e^{-n(1-\sin x)}$ converges in measure to the function $f \equiv 0$ on any bounded interval $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$. \checkmark

Exercise 8.4.

Let $f_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be \mathcal{L}^n -measurable functions, for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume that

$$\mathcal{L}^n(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |f_k(x) - f_{k+1}(x)| > 2^{-k}\}) < 2^{-k}$$

for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that the limit $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(x)$ exists almost everywhere.

Solution: Define $A_k = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |f_k(x) - f_{k+1}(x)| \leq 2^{-k}\}$. By assumption, we have $\mathcal{L}^n(A_k^c) < 2^{-k}$. Let $B_l := \bigcap_{k \geq l} A_k$, then $B_{l+1} \supset B_l$ and equivalently $B_{l+1}^c \subset B_l^c$. Since

$$\mathcal{L}^n(B_l^c) \leq \sum_{k \geq l} \mathcal{L}^n(A_k^c) < \sum_{k \geq l} 2^{-k} = 2^{-l+1}$$

(in particular $\mathcal{L}^n(B_1^c) \leq 1$), it follows

$$\mathcal{L}^n\left(\left(\bigcup_{l \in \mathbb{N}} B_l\right)^c\right) = \mathcal{L}^n\left(\bigcap_{l \in \mathbb{N}} B_l^c\right) = \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}^n(B_l^c) \leq \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} 2^{-l+1} = 0. \quad (3)$$

For $x \in B_l$ and $l < m < n \in \mathbb{N}$, it holds by the triangle inequality:

$$|f_m(x) - f_n(x)| \leq \sum_{k=m}^{n-1} |f_k(x) - f_{k+1}(x)| \leq \sum_{k=m}^{n-1} 2^{-k} \leq 2^{-m+1}.$$

Hence, for every $x \in B_l$, $f_k(x)$ is a Cauchy sequence and consequently, the limit $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(x)$ exists. Because of (3), $\bigcup_{l \in \mathbb{N}} B_l$ is almost everywhere and therefore $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(x)$ exists for almost all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. \square

Exercise 8.5.

Let μ be a measure on \mathbb{R}^n and $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be μ -measurable. Let $f: \Omega \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ be a finite, μ -measurable function, and $(f_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ a sequence of μ -measurable functions $f_k: \Omega \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$.

(a) Suppose that every subsequence $(f_{k_j})_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ contains a subsequence that converges to f in measure. Show that the whole sequence $(f_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to f in measure.

Solution: Suppose the opposite was true. Then there exist $\varepsilon > 0$, $\delta > 0$ and a subsequence $\{f_{k_j}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$, such that $\mu(\{x \mid |f(x) - f_{k_j}(x)| > \varepsilon\}) > \delta$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$. This subsequence cannot contain another subsequence converging in measure μ . Therefore, $\{f_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges in measure. \square

(b) Show that the analogous statement from (a) is not true if we replace “convergence in measure” by “convergence pointwise almost everywhere”. Namely, show that there exists a sequence (f_k) and a function f such that every subsequence of (f_k) has a further subsequence that converges a.e. to f , but the whole (f_k) does not converge a.e. to any function.

Solution: A counterexample is provided by the sequence $f_k: [0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f_k = \chi_{[k/2^n - 1, (k+1)/2^n - 1)}$ for $2^n \leq k < 2^{n+1}$. For any $x \in [0, 1)$, the sequence $(f_k(x))_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is not convergent.

Claim: Every subsequence of $\{f_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ possesses an \mathcal{L}^1 -almost everywhere convergent subsequence.

Proof: Let $\{g_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} = \{f_{k_j}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a subsequence of $\{f_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$. We inductively construct a sequence of intervals $\{I_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ satisfying the following conditions:

1. $\mathcal{L}^1(I_n) = 2^{-n}$;
2. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is a subsequence $\{g_j^{(n)}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $\{g_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $\text{supp}(g_j^{(n)}) \subset I_n$;
3. $\{g_j^{(n+1)}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a subsequence of $\{g_j^{(n)}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$.

For $n = 1$, we choose the intervals $[0, \frac{1}{2})$ and $[\frac{1}{2}, 1)$. For any g_j we either have $\text{supp } g_j \subset [0, \frac{1}{2})$ or $\text{supp } g_j \subset [\frac{1}{2}, 1)$. As a result, at least one of the intervals contains infinitely many of the supports of g_j . We denote this interval by I_1 . The g_j 's with support in I_1 form the subsequence $\{g_j^{(1)}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Let $\{g_j^{(n)}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence with the properties above. We define the intervals $K_l = [l \cdot 2^{-(n+1)}, (l+1) \cdot 2^{-(n+1)})$ for $l = 0, \dots, 2^{n+1} - 1$. For all $g_j^{(n)}$ with j sufficiently large, there is $l = l(j)$ such that $\text{supp}(g_j^{(n)}) \subset K_l$. As a result, at least one of the K_l , which we denote by I_{n+1} , contains the support of infinitely many $g_j^{(n)}$. These $g_j^{(n)}$ form the subsequence $\{g_j^{(n+1)}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Using the construction above, we take a diagonal sequence $h_m := g_m^{(m)}$. Note that $\{h_m\}_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a subsequence of $\{f_{k_j}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$. Let $N := \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n$. Because of upper continuity of the measure, we have $\mathcal{L}^1(N) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}^1(I_n) = 0$.

Now let $x \notin N$. Then there is a $n = n(x)$, such that $x \notin I_{n(x)}$. Consequently, $h_m(x) = 0$ for all $m > n(x)$. So h_m converges pointwise \mathcal{L}^1 -almost everywhere to zero. \square

Exercise 8.6. ★

Counterexample to $\varepsilon = 0$ in Lusin's Theorem: Find an example of a \mathcal{L}^1 -measurable function $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for every \mathcal{L}^1 -measurable set $M \subset [0, 1]$ with $\mathcal{L}^1(M) = 1$, the restriction $f|_M : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is discontinuous in all but finitely many points of M .

Hint: You may use that there exists a Lebesgue measurable subset $A \subset [0, 1]$ such that

$$\mathcal{L}^1(U \cap A) \cdot \mathcal{L}^1(U \cap A^c) > 0$$

for all nonempty open subsets $U \subset [0, 1]$. Such a set A can be constructed using the fat Cantor set (see Exercise 1.6.2 in the lecture notes).

Solution: Let $f = \chi_A$ where $A \subset [0, 1]$ is as in the hint. This set will be constructed in a forthcoming exercise. Moreover, let $M \subset [0, 1]$ as described above. We show that $f|_M$ is discontinuous in every point except for $\{0, 1\}$. Let $x \in M \setminus \{0, 1\}$ and choose sequences $a_n \leq x \leq b_n$ that converge monotonically to x . Observe that, for all $I_n := (a_n, b_n)$, it holds

$$\mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A) \cdot \mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A^c) > 0.$$

Using that $\mathcal{L}^1([0, 1] \setminus M) = 0$ as well as Caratheodory's characterisation of measurability, we get $\mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A) = \mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A \cap M) + \mathcal{L}^1((I_n \cap A) \setminus M) = \mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A \cap M)$ and analogously $\mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A^c) = \mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A^c \cap M)$. Therefore, the previous inequality can be read as

$$\mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A \cap M) \cdot \mathcal{L}^1(I_n \cap A^c \cap M) > 0.$$

This implies that there exists $x_n, y_n \in I_n$ such that

$$x_n \in I_n \cap A \cap M, \quad y_n \in I_n \cap A^c \cap M,$$

therefore $f(x_n) = 1, f(y_n) = 0$. Observe that $x_n \rightarrow x$ and similarly $y_n \rightarrow x$. This provides the desired contradiction to continuity. \square

Exercise 8.7.

Counterexample to $\delta = 0$ in Egoroff's Theorem: Find an example of a sequence of \mathcal{L}^1 -measurable functions $f_k : [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ that converges pointwise almost everywhere to a \mathcal{L}^1 -measurable (\mathcal{L}^1 -almost everywhere finite) function $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$, but for every set $F \subseteq [0, 1]$ with $\mathcal{L}^1(F) = \mathcal{L}^1([0, 1])$ the convergence on F is not uniform.

Solution: Let $f_k(x) = x^k$ for $x \in [0, 1]$, which converges pointwise to $f \equiv 0$ on $[0, 1)$ and $f(1) = 1$. Let $F \subset [0, 1]$ be any set of full measure, and suppose that f_k converges uniformly in F . Therefore, there exists some $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|f_k(x) - f(x)| < \frac{1}{2}$ for $k \geq K$. In particular, for every $x \in F \cap [0, 1)$ it must hold that $x^K < \frac{1}{2}$, so that $x < 1/\sqrt[K]{2}$. This implies that F is disjoint with the interval $(1/\sqrt[K]{2}, 1)$, and thus cannot have full measure. \square