"Well, this is easy." – Sergei Kuznetsov

## 1. **DEFINITIONS**

There are more than a few. I'll use  $\overline{R}$  for  $\mathbb{R} \cup \{\pm \infty\}$ .

**Partition:** A partition of [a, b] is a collection of points  $\{x_0, \ldots, x_m\}$  so that  $x_0 =$  $a, x_m = b$  and  $x_{i-1} < x_i$  for i = 1, ..., m.

**Variation:** The variation of f over [a, b] is defined by

$$V = V[f; a, b] = \sup_{\Gamma} S_{\Gamma}$$

where  $S_{\Gamma}$  is the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} |f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})|$$

and the supremum is taken over all partitions  $\Gamma$  of [a, b]. Intuitively, the variation is how much f moves up and down over the interval [a, b].

**Function of Bounded Variation:** one with V[f; a, b] finite. Function of Unbounded Variation: one with  $V[f; a, b] = +\infty$ . **Positive Variation:** The positive variation of f over [a, b] is defined by

$$P = P[f; a, b] = \sup_{\Gamma} P_{\Gamma}$$

where

$$P_{\Gamma} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1}))^+$$

and the supremum is taken over all partitions  $\Gamma$  of [a, b]. Intuitively, the positive variation is how much f moves up over the interval [a, b].

**Negative Variation:** The *negative variation of* f *over* [a, b] is defined by

$$N = N[f; a, b] = \sup_{\Gamma} N_{\Gamma}$$

where

$$N_{\Gamma} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1}))^{-1}$$

and the supremum is taken over all partitions  $\Gamma$  of [a, b]. Intuitively, the negative variation is how much f moves down over the interval [a, b].

**Rectifiable Curve:** Intuitively, a curve with finite length. Formally, the length L of a curve C with coordinate functions  $\phi : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $\psi : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is defined as the supremum (over  $\Gamma$ ) of the sums

$$L(\Gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sqrt{(\phi(t_i) - \phi(t_{i-1}))^2 + (\psi(t_i) - \psi(t_{i-1}))^2}$$

where  $\Gamma$  is a partition  $\{t_0 = a, \ldots, t_m = b\}$  of [a, b]. We say C is a *rectifiable curve* if L is finite.

- **Norm of a Partition:** The norm  $|\Gamma|$  of a partition  $\Gamma$  is the length of the largest interval of  $\Gamma$ . That is, if  $\Gamma = \{x_0, \ldots, x_n\}, |\Gamma| = \max_i \{x_i x_{i-1}\}.$
- **Riemann-Stieltjes Integral:** Intuitively, the Riemann integral with a change of variables built in. Formally, let f and  $\phi$  be two functions which are defined and finite on a finite interval [a, b]. If  $\Gamma = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_m = b\}$  is a partition of [a, b], we arbitrarily select intermediate points  $\{\xi_i\}_{i=1}^m$  satisfying  $x_{i-1} \leq \xi_i \leq x_i$ , and write

$$R_{\Gamma} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} f(\xi_i)(\phi(x_i) - \phi(x_{i-1})).$$

 $R_{\Gamma}$  is called a *Riemann-Stieltjes sum* for  $\Gamma$ , and of course deponds on  $\xi_i$ , f,  $\phi$ , etc, but we don't bother to indicate this dependence in our notation. Then, if  $I = \lim_{|\Gamma| \to 0} R_{\Gamma}$ exists and is finite, that is, if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|I - R_{\Gamma}| < \epsilon$ for any  $\Gamma$  satisfying  $|\Gamma| < \delta$ , then I is called *the Riemann-Stieltjes integral of* f with respect to  $\phi$  on [a, b], and denoted

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, d\phi(x) = \int_{a}^{b} f \, d\phi.$$

- **Step Function:** A function  $\phi$  whose domain may be partitioned into finitely many intervals so that  $\phi$  is constant on each interval.
- **Lebesgue Outer Measure:** Intuitively, the smallest volume of intervals that cover E. Formally, let E be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Cover E by a *countable* collection S of n-dimensional closed intervals  $I_k$ , and let

$$\sigma(S) = \sum_{I_k \in S} v(I_k),$$

where v is the n-volume of the interval  $I_k$ . The Lebesgue outer measure (or exterior measure) of E, denoted  $|E|_e$ , is defined by

$$|E|_e = \inf \sigma(S),$$

where the infimum is taken over all such covers S of E.

**Lebesgue Measurable Set:** Intuitively, a set which is well approximated by a collection of intervals. Formally, a subset E of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be *Lebesgue measurable*, or simply *measurable*, if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an open set G such that

$$E \subset G$$
 and  $|G - E|_{\epsilon} < \epsilon$ .

(Note that open sets are precisely those that can be expressed as a countable union of open intervals, hence the intuitive interpretation.)

- **Lebesgue Measure:** If E is Lebesgue measurable, we define its *measure* |E| to be its outer measure  $|E|_e$ . Intuitively, this is the volume of E.
- $\sigma$ -Algebra: A collection of sets  $\Sigma$  that is closed under complements, countable unions, and countable intersections. (The first two properties imply the third.)
- **Borel Set:** A set obtainable by complements, countable unions, and countable intersections from open sets in finitely many steps. Alternatively, a member of the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

- Almost Everywhere: A property is said to hold *almost everywhere* (or a.e if we're feeling lazy) on a set E, if the set of points of E where it does *not* hold has measure zero.
- **Measurable Function:** A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  so that the preimage of each interval  $(a, \infty]$  is a measurable set for each finite  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Intuitively, these are the functions so that the Lebesgue integral makes sense.
- **Upper-semicontinuous Function:** Intuitively, a function whose limsups are not too large. Formally,  $f : E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  is upper semicontinuous (or use if we're feeling lazy) at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if

$$\limsup_{\mathbf{x}\to\mathbf{x}_0;x\in E}f(\mathbf{x})\leq f(\mathbf{x}_0).$$

Alternatively, we have exactly one half of the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of continuity: f is use at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  so that for all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  with  $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| < \delta$  it follows that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}_0) < \epsilon.$$

**Lower-semicontinuous Function:** Intuitively, a function whose limits are not too small. Formally,  $f : E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  is *lower semicontinuous* (or lsc if we're feeling lazy) at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if

$$\liminf_{\mathbf{x}\to\mathbf{x}_0;x\in E} f(\mathbf{x}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}_0).$$

Alternatively, we have the other half of the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of continuity: f is lsc at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  so that for all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  with  $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| < \delta$  it follows that

$$-\epsilon < f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}_0).$$

**Property**  $\mathscr{C}$ : Intuitively, discontinuous in only a set of arbitrarily small measure. Formally, f has property  $\mathscr{C}$  on E if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a closed set  $F \subset E$  such that

(1)  $|E - F| < \epsilon$ 

(2) f is continuous relative to F.

If E is measurable, then this is equivalent to f being measurable on E. (This definition appears to be endemic to our textbook.)

**Convergence in Measure:** A sequence of functions  $f_k$  is said to converge in measure to f on E (written  $f_k \xrightarrow{m} f$ ) if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} |\{x \in E : |f(\mathbf{x}) - f_k(\mathbf{x})| > \epsilon\}| = 0.$$

Intuitively, the size of the set where  $f_k$  is far from f can be made to have arbitrarily small measure by choosing k large.

**Lebesgue Integral:** This is defined in two steps. For the first step, let  $f : E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{R}$  be a non-negative function. Define

$$R(f, E) = \{ (\mathbf{x}, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} : \mathbf{x} \in E, y \in \mathbb{R}, 0 \le y \le f(\mathbf{x}) \}$$

This is the region between 0 and the graph of f. If R(f, E) is measurable, we define the Lebesgue integral of f orever E as

$$|R(f,E)|_{(n+1)} = \int_E f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x}.$$

In the case that f is not non-negative, we define

$$\int_{E} f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = \int_{E} f^{+} \, d\mathbf{x} - \int_{E} f^{-} \, d\mathbf{x}$$

provided that at least one of the integrals on the right is finite.

Simple Function: A function f is *simple* if it takes finitely many values.

**Integrable Function:** A function  $f : E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  is *integrable* if  $\int_E f$  exists and is finite.

- $L^p$  Space:  $L^p(E), 0 is the set of functions <math>f : E \to \mathbb{R}$  so that  $|f|^p$  is integrable over E. In particular, if f is integrable,  $f \in L(E)$ .
- **Equimeasurable:** Two functions  $f, g : E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  are *equimeasurable* or *equidis-tributed* if

$$\{\mathbf{x} \in E : f(\mathbf{x}) > \alpha\}| = |\{\mathbf{x} \in E : f(\mathbf{x}) > \alpha\}|$$

for all  $\alpha$ . In the notation of §5.4,  $\omega_{f,E} = \omega_{g,E}$ .

**Convolution:** If f and g are measurable functions in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , their convolution  $(f * g)(\mathbf{x})$  is defined by

$$(f * g)(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t})g(\mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{t}.$$

Set Function: A set function is a real-valued function F defined on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\Sigma$  of measurable sets such that

(1) F(E) is finite for every  $E \in \Sigma$ ,

(2) F is countably additive; i.e., if  $E = \bigcup_k E_k$  is a union of disjoint  $E_k \in \Sigma$ , then

$$F(E) = \sum_{k} F(E_k).$$

**Indefinite Integral:** If  $f \in L(A)$ , where A is a measurable subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the *indefinite integral of f* is defined to be the set function

$$F(E) = \int_E f,$$

where E is any measurable subset of A.

- **Continuous Set Function:** A set function F(E) is called *continuous* if  $F(E) \to 0$  as the diameter  $\sup\{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}| : \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in E\}$  tends to 0; that is, F(E) is continuous if, given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|F(E)| < \epsilon$  whenever the diameter of E is less than  $\delta$ .
- Absolutely Continuous Set Function: A set function F is called *absolutely continuous* if F(E) tends to zero as the measure of E tends to zero. If you like  $\epsilon$ s and  $\delta$ s, F is absolutely continuous if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|F(E)| < \epsilon$  whenever the measure of E is less than  $\delta$ .
- **Hardy-Littlewood Maximal Function:** If f is a function defined on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and integrable over every cube Q, we define the Hardy-Littlewood maximal function of f by

$$f^*(\mathbf{x}) = \sup \frac{1}{|Q|} \int_Q |f(\mathbf{y})| d\mathbf{y}$$

where the supremum is taken over all Q with edges parallel to the coordinate axes and center  $\mathbf{x}$ . Other sources tend to define this in terms of balls centered at  $\mathbf{x}$  rather than cubes.

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Weak  $L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ : A function f belongs to weak  $L(\mathbb{R}^n)$  if there is a constant c independent of  $\alpha$  so that

$$|\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : |f(\mathbf{x})| > \alpha\} \le \frac{c}{\alpha}$$

for all  $\alpha > 0$ . These are functions that obey Tchebyshev's Inequality except they get the constant wrong.

- **Locally Integrable:** A function f is *locally integrable* on E if it is integrable over every bounded measurable subset of E.
- **Point of Density:**  $\mathbf{x}$  is a *point of density of E* if

$$\lim_{Q \searrow \mathbf{x}} \frac{|E \cap Q|}{|Q|} = 1$$

**Point of Dispersion:**  $\mathbf{x}$  is a *point of dispersion of* E if

$$\lim_{Q \searrow \mathbf{x}} \frac{|E \cap Q|}{|Q|} = 0.$$

- Cover in the Sense of Vitali: A family K of cubes is said to cover a set E in the Vitali sense if for every  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  and  $\eta > 0$ , there is a cube in K containing  $\mathbf{x}$  whose diameter is less than  $\eta$ .
- Absolutely Continuous Function: A finite function f on a finite interval [a, b] is said to be *absolutely continuous* if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for any collection  $\{[a_i, b_i]\}$  (finite or countable) of nonoverlapping subintervals of [a, b],
- Singular Function: A function f is singular on [a, b] if f' is zero a.e. in [a, b].
- **Convex Function:** Let  $\phi$  be defined and finite on an interval (a, b). We say  $\phi$  is *convex* in (a, b) if for every  $[x_1, x_2]$  in (a, b), the graph of  $\phi$  on  $[x_1, x_2]$  lies on or below the line segment connecting the points  $(x_1, \phi(x_2))$  and  $(x_2, \phi(x_2))$ . In other words, the region above the graph of  $\phi$  is convex.
  - 2. FREQUENTLY CITED AND OTHERWISE IMPORTANT THEOREMS

## 3. Examples

3.1. The Dirichlet Function. This is the function defined on [0, 1] by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 & x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

This function is integrable, but not Riemann-integrable. It is defined on a finite interval, but has unbounded variation.

3.2. The Cantor Set. You know what this is. It is uncountable, but has measure 0.

3.3. The Cantor-Lebesgue Function. Singular, but not constant. Has bounded variation.