# Math 103: Measure Theory and Complex Analysis <br> Fall 2018 

## Prerequisites

## 1 Set Theory

We recall the basic facts about countable and uncountable sets, union and intersection of sets and images and preimages of functions.

### 1.1 Countable and uncountable sets

We can compare infinite sets via bijections or one-to-one correspondences.
Definition 1 Let $I$ be an arbitrary set.
a) The set $I$ is finite, if there is a bijective map $f: I \rightarrow\{1,2,3, \ldots, n\}$ for some positive integer $n$.
b) The set $I$ is infinite, if it is not finite.
c) The set $I$ is countably infinite, if there is a bijective map $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$.
d) The set $I$ is countable, if it is either finite or countably infinite.
e) The set $I$ is uncountable, if it is not countable.

We recall:
Theorem 2 A subset of a countably infinite set is countable.

We have furthermore the important theorem:
Theorem 3 A countable union of countable sets is countable.
proof: It is sufficient to prove the statement for a disjoint union $A=\biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$ of countably infinte sets $A_{i}$. This is true as
1.) Each union of sets $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_{i}$ can be decomposed into a disjoint union $\biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} B_{i}^{\prime}$ of sets by removing multiple occurences.
2.) Each finite set $B_{i}^{\prime}$ can be extended to an infinite set $\tilde{B}_{i}$, such that $\tilde{B}_{i} \cap B_{k}^{\prime}=\emptyset$ for all $k \neq i$.
3.) If $\biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \tilde{B}_{i}$ is countably infinite, then the subset $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_{i}$ is countable by Theorem 2 .

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So suppose we have a disjoint union $\biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$ of countably infinte sets $A_{i}$. We list all elements of $A=\biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1} & =\left\{x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, \ldots, x_{1 n}, \ldots\right\} \\
A_{2} & =\left\{x_{21}, x_{22}, x_{23}, \ldots, x_{2 n}, \ldots\right\} \\
\vdots & \\
A_{m} & =\left\{x_{m 1}, x_{m 2}, x_{m 3}, \ldots, x_{m n}, \ldots\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

As the factorization into primes is unique, we know that the set of positive integers $S=\left\{2^{k} \cdot 3^{n}, n, k \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ satisfies:

$$
2^{k_{1}} \cdot 3^{n_{1}}=2^{k_{2}} \cdot 3^{n_{2}} \Leftrightarrow k_{1}=k_{2} \text { and } n_{1}=n_{2} . \quad\left({ }^{*}\right)
$$

Hence the assignment $f: S \rightarrow \biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$, defined by $f\left(2^{k} \cdot 3^{n}\right)=x_{k n}$ is a well-defined map which is bijective. Hence $\biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$ is in one-to-one correspondence with a subset of $\mathbb{N}$, which by Theorem 2 is countable. Hence $A=\biguplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$ is also countable.

Examples $4 \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Q}$ are countable, hence by the previous theorem we know that

$$
\mathbb{Z}^{2}=\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}=\biguplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}(i, \mathbb{Z}) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbb{Q}^{2}=\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}=\biguplus_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}(q, \mathbb{Q})
$$

are countable. Using this argument iteratively we have that for fixed $n, \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ and $\mathbb{Q}^{n}$ are countable.

### 1.2 Sets and functions

Theorem 1 (De Morgan's Law) Let $\left(A_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \subset X$ be a collection of sets in $X$. If $A^{c}=X \backslash A$ for all $A \subset X$, then
a) $\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}\right)^{c}=\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}^{c}$
b) $\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}\right)^{c}=\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}^{c}$
proof a) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}\right)^{c}= & X \backslash\left\{x \in X \mid \exists i \in I, \text { such that } x \in A_{i}\right\}= \\
& \left\{x \in X \mid \neg\left(\exists i \in I, \text { such that } x \in A_{i}\right)\right\}= \\
& \left\{x \in X \mid \forall i \in I, x \notin A_{i}\right\}=\left\{x \in X \mid \forall i \in I, x \in A_{i}^{c}\right\}=\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}^{c} .
\end{aligned}
$$

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b) Similarly

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}\right)^{c}= & X \backslash\left\{x \in X \mid \forall i \in I, x \in A_{i}\right\}= \\
& \left\{x \in X \mid \neg\left(\forall i \in I, \text { we have that } x \in A_{i}\right)\right\}= \\
& \left\{x \in X \mid \exists i \in I, \text { such that } x \notin A_{i}\right\}=\left\{x \in X \mid \exists i \in I, x \in A_{i}^{c}\right\}=\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}^{c} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2 (Functions and Sets) Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. Let $\left(A_{j}\right)_{j \in J} \subset X$ be a collection of sets in $X$. Let furthermore $\left(B_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \subset Y$ be a collection of sets in $Y$ and $B \subset Y$. Then
a) $f\left(\bigcap_{j \in J} A_{j}\right) \subset \bigcap_{j \in J} f\left(A_{j}\right)$.
b) $\bigcup_{j \in J} f\left(A_{j}\right)=f\left(\bigcup_{j \in J} A_{j}\right)$.
c) $f^{-1}(B)^{c}=f^{-1}\left(B^{c}\right)$.
d) $\bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}\left(B_{i}\right)=f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} B_{i}\right)$ and $\bigcap_{i \in I} f^{-1}\left(B_{i}\right)=f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} B_{i}\right)$.
proof a) We have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(\bigcap_{j \in J} A_{j}\right)= & \left\{y \in Y \mid y=f(x) \text { and } f(x) \in f\left(\bigcap_{j \in J} A_{j}\right)\right\}= \\
& \left\{f(x) \in Y \mid \forall j \in J, \text { we have } x \in A_{j}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Furthermore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bigcap_{j \in J} f\left(A_{j}\right)= & \left\{y \in Y \mid \forall j \in J, \text { we have } y \in f\left(A_{j}\right)\right\}= \\
& \left\{f(x) \in Y \mid \forall j \in J, \text { we have } f(x) \in f\left(A_{j}\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now if $x \in A_{j}$ then $f(x) \in f\left(A_{j}\right)$ and the first set is contained in the second.
Note We see that the converse is not true by taking $f:\{1,2\} \rightarrow\{1\}$, where $f(1)=f(2)=1$. For $A_{1}=\{1\}$ and $A_{2}=\{2\}$ we get

$$
f\left(A_{1} \cap A_{2}\right)=\emptyset, \quad \text { but } \quad f\left(A_{1}\right) \cap f\left(A_{2}\right)=\{1\} .
$$

b) We know that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bigcup_{j \in J} f\left(A_{j}\right)= & \left\{y \in Y \mid \exists j \in J, \text { such that } y \in f\left(A_{j}\right)\right\}= \\
& \left\{f(x) \in Y \mid \exists j \in J, \text { such that } f(x) \in f\left(A_{j}\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

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On the other hand

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(\bigcup_{j \in J} A_{j}\right)= & \left\{y \in Y \mid y=f(x) \text { and } \exists j \in J, \text { such that } x \in A_{j}\right\}= \\
& \left\{f(x) \in Y \mid \exists j \in J, \text { such that } x \in A_{j}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

But if $x \in A_{j}$ then $f(x) \in f\left(A_{j}\right)$ and the second set is contained in the first. On the other hand if $f(x) \in f\left(A_{j}\right)$ for some $j \in J$ then there is $x^{\prime}$, such that $f(x)=f\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ and $x^{\prime} \in A_{j}$ for some $j \in J$. So the first set is contained in the second.
c) We know that
$\bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}\left(B_{i}\right)=\left\{x \in X \mid \exists i \in I\right.$, such that $\left.x \in f^{-1}\left(B_{i}\right)\right\}=\left\{x \in X \mid \exists i \in I\right.$, such that $\left.f(x) \in B_{i}\right\}$.
We compare this with

$$
f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} B_{i}\right)=\left\{x \in X \mid f(x) \in \bigcup_{i \in I} B_{i}\right\}=\left\{x \in X \mid \exists i \in I, \text { such that } f(x) \in B_{i}\right\}
$$

which shows that the sets are equal. We prove the second statement in a similar fashion.
d) We know that

$$
f^{-1}(B)^{c}=X \backslash f^{-1}(B)=X \backslash\{x \in X \mid f(x) \in B\}=\{x \in X \mid f(x) \notin B\} .
$$

On the other hand we have that

$$
f^{-1}\left(B^{c}\right)=\left\{x \in X \mid f(x) \in B^{c}\right\}=\{x \in X \mid f(x) \notin B\}
$$

and the two sets are equal.

## 2 Topology

The proofs of the following theorems can be found in Munkres, Topology, 2nd edition, Chapter 2, Section 12,13 and 20.

### 2.1 Basics

Definition 1 Let $X$ be a set. A topology on $X$ is a collection $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ of subsets of $X$, such that

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a) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ and $X \in \mathcal{T}$.
b) $A, B \in \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{T}$ ( $\mathcal{T}$ is closed under intersection).
c) $\left(A_{k}\right)_{k \in K} \subset \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{k \in K} A_{k} \in \mathcal{T}$ ( $\mathcal{T}$ is closed under any union).

In this case the elements of $\mathcal{T}$ the open subsets of $X$ and $(X, \mathcal{T})$ is called a topological space.
Examples $\mathcal{T}=\{\emptyset, X\}$ or $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}=\mathcal{P}(X)$.
Remark 2 b ) implies that $\mathcal{T}$ is stable under finite intersections.
Definition 3 Let $(X, \mathcal{T})$ and $\left(X^{\prime}, \mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ be topological spaces. A function $f: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ is continuous if

$$
f^{-1}\left(A^{\prime}\right) \in \mathcal{T} \quad \text { for all } \quad A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}^{\prime}
$$

Definition 4 (Basis) Let $(X, \mathcal{T})$ be a topological space. Then $\beta \subset \mathcal{T}$ is a basis for the topology $\mathcal{T}$ if

$$
\text { for all } A \in \mathcal{T} \text { we have that } A=\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i} \text { where }\left(A_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \subset \beta \text {. }
$$

This means that every element in $\mathcal{T}$ is a union of elements of $\beta$.

Theorem 5 (Basis $=$ neighbourhood basis) $\beta$ is a basis for the topology $\mathcal{T}$ iff

$$
\text { for all } A \in \mathcal{T} \text { and for all } x \in A \exists U(x)=U \in \beta \text {, such that } x \in U \subset A \text {. }
$$

Definition 6 (second countable) A topological space $(X, \mathcal{T})$ is called second countable if there is a countable basis for its topology.

Example A second countable basis for the usual topology of the real line $\mathbb{R}$ is given by the intervals with rational endpoints.

Proposition 7 If $(X, d)$ is a metric space with a countable dense subset, the topology induced by the metric is second countable.
proof We know that
1.) the basis $\beta_{d}$ of the topology $\mathcal{T}_{d}$ induced by the metric $d$ is the collection of open balls in $(X, d): \beta_{d}=\left\{B_{r}(x) \mid r \in \mathbb{R}^{+}, x \in X\right\}$
2.) there is a countable dense subset $D=\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset X$ in $X$.

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3.) by Theorem 5, as $\beta_{d}$ is a basis, we know that for all $A \in \mathcal{T}_{d}$ and $x \in A$ there is $B_{r}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \subset \beta_{d}$, such that $x \in B_{r}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \subset A$.

We take

$$
\beta=\left\{\left.B_{\frac{1}{m}}\left(x_{n}\right) \right\rvert\, m, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\} .
$$

Take $A \in \mathcal{T}$ and $x \in A$ as in 3.). From this condition it follows that it is sufficient to show that there is a ball $B_{\frac{1}{m}}\left(x_{n}\right) \in \beta$, such that $B_{\frac{1}{m}}\left(x_{n}\right) \subset B_{r}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$. Furthermore, if $x^{\prime} \neq x$, we can find a ball of smaller radius around $x$ that also satisfies 3 .). Hence we can assume that $x^{\prime}=x$.
To construct our ball we take $m \in \mathbb{N}$, such that $\frac{r}{2}>\frac{1}{m} \Leftrightarrow r>\frac{2}{m}$. By the density of $D$ there is $x_{n} \in D$, such that $d\left(x_{n}, x\right)<\frac{1}{m}$. Then for every point $\tilde{x} \in B_{\frac{1}{m}}\left(x_{n}\right)$ we have by the triangle inequality:

$$
d(\tilde{x}, x) \leq d\left(\tilde{x}, x_{n}\right)+d\left(x_{n}, x\right)<\frac{1}{m}+\frac{1}{m}<r
$$

Hence $x \in B_{\frac{1}{m}}\left(x_{n}\right) \subset B_{r}(x) \subset A$ and therefore $\beta$ is a countable basis for $\mathcal{T}$.

## 3 Limits

We recall the defintion of infimum and supremum and liminf and limsup. The correspondig theorems and definitions can be, for example found in Gordon, Real Analysis - A First Course, 2nd edition.

### 3.1 Infimum and supremum

Definition 1 Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ be a non-empty set of real numbers. Suppose $S$ is bounded above. The number $\beta$ is the supremum of $S$ if $\beta$ is an upper bound of $S$ and any number less than $\beta$ is not an upper bound of $S$ i.e.

$$
\text { for all } b<\beta \text { there is an } x \in S \text {, such that } b<x \text {. }
$$

We will write $\beta=\sup (S)$.
Definition 2 Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ be a non-empty set of real numbers. Suppose $S$ is bounded below. The number $\alpha$ is the infimum of $S$ if $\alpha$ is a lower bound of $S$ and any number greater than $\alpha$ is not a lower bound of $S$ i.e.

$$
\text { for all } a>\alpha \text { there is an } x \in S \text {, such that } a>x \text {. }
$$

We will write $\alpha=\inf (S)$.

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### 3.2 The extended real number line

see Wilkins: The extended real number system.

### 3.3 Limit superior and limit inferior

We recall the following definitions from real analysis:
Let $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ be a sequence. For $k \geq 1$ consider the new sequence

$$
b_{k}=\sup _{n \geq k} a_{n}=\sup \left\{a_{k}, a_{k+1}, a_{k+2}, a_{k+3}, \ldots\right\}
$$

Then $b_{k} \geq b_{k+1}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and therefore $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{k}=\inf _{k \in \mathbb{N}} b_{k} \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$. We define:
Definition 1 (Limit superior and inferior) We call the limit superior of a sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n} \subset \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ the number

$$
\limsup _{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n} \stackrel{\text { Def. }}{=} \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{k}=\inf _{k \in \mathbb{N}} b_{k} .
$$

In a similar fashion we call the limit inferior of a sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n} \subset \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ the number

$$
\liminf _{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n} \stackrel{\text { Def. }}{=} \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \inf _{n \geq k} a_{n} .
$$

Example The sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}=\left(\frac{\cos (n)}{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and the sequence $\left(c_{k}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ where $c_{k}=\inf _{n \geq k} a_{n}$.


Figure 1: Plot of $\frac{\cos (x)}{x}$ (red) and the sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}=\left(\frac{\cos (n)}{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ (black) and the sequence given by $c_{k}=\inf _{n \geq k} a_{n}$ (blue).

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Proposition 2 For a sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ we have that
a) $\liminf \inf _{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n} \leq \limsup \sup _{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}$.
b) $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n}$ exists if and only if $\liminf _{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n}=\lim \sup _{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}$.

## 4 Complex analysis

see Beck et al.: A first course in complex analysis.

