## SIX

# COMPLEX MEASURES

#### **Total Variation**

**6.1 Introduction** Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra in a set X. Call a countable collection  $\{E_i\}$  of members of  $\mathfrak{M}$  a partition of E if  $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$  whenever  $i \neq j$ , and if  $E = \bigcup E_i$ . A complex measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathfrak{M}$  is then a complex function on  $\mathfrak{M}$  such that

$$\mu(E) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_i) \qquad (E \in \mathfrak{M})$$
 (1)

for every partition  $\{E_i\}$  of E.

Observe that the convergence of the series in (1) is now part of the requirement (unlike for positive measures, where the series could either converge or diverge to  $\infty$ ). Since the union of the sets  $E_i$  is not changed if the subscripts are permuted, every rearrangement of the series (1) must also converge. Hence ([26], Theorem 3.56) the series actually converges absolutely.

Let us consider the problem of finding a positive measure  $\lambda$  which dominates a given complex measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathfrak{M}$ , in the sense that  $|\mu(E)| \leq \lambda(E)$  for every  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , and let us try to keep  $\lambda$  as small as we can. Every solution to our problem (if there is one at all) must satisfy

$$\lambda(E) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda(E_i) \ge \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\mu(E_i)|, \tag{2}$$

for every partition  $\{E_i\}$  of any set  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , so that  $\lambda(E)$  is at least equal to the supremum of the sums on the right of (2), taken over all partitions of E. This suggests that we define a set function  $|\mu|$  on  $\mathfrak{M}$  by

$$|\mu|(E) = \sup \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\mu(E_i)| \qquad (E \in \mathfrak{M}), \tag{3}$$

the supremum being taken over all partitions  $\{E_i\}$  of E.

This notation is perhaps not the best, but it is the customary one. Note that  $|\mu|(E) \ge |\mu(E)|$ , but that in general  $|\mu|(E)$  is not equal to  $|\mu(E)|$ .

It turns out, as will be proved below, that  $|\mu|$  actually is a measure, so that our problem does have a solution. The discussion which led to (3) shows then clearly that  $|\mu|$  is the minimal solution, in the sense that any other solution  $\lambda$  has the property  $\lambda(E) \ge |\mu|(E)$  for all  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ .

The set function  $|\mu|$  is called the *total variation* of  $\mu$ , or sometimes, to avoid misunderstanding, the *total variation measure*. The term "total variation of  $\mu$ " is also frequently used to denote the number  $|\mu|(X)$ .

If  $\mu$  is a positive measure, then of course  $|\mu| = \mu$ .

Besides being a measure,  $|\mu|$  has another unexpected property:  $|\mu|(X) < \infty$ . Since  $|\mu(E)| \le |\mu|(E) \le |\mu|(X)$ , this implies that every complex measure  $\mu$  on any  $\sigma$ -algebra is bounded: If the range of  $\mu$  lies in the complex plane, then it actually lies in some disc of finite radius. This property (proved in Theorem 6.4) is sometimes expressed by saying that  $\mu$  is of bounded variation.

**6.2 Theorem** The total variation  $|\mu|$  of a complex measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathfrak M$  is a positive measure on  $\mathfrak M$ .

PROOF Let  $\{E_i\}$  be a partition of  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ . Let  $t_i$  be real numbers such that  $t_i < |\mu|(E_i)$ . Then each  $E_i$  has a partition  $\{A_{ij}\}$  such that

$$\sum_{i} |\mu(A_{ij})| > t_i \qquad (i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots).$$
 (1)

Since  $\{A_{ij}\}$  (i, j = 1, 2, 3, ...) is a partition of E, it follows that

$$\sum_{i} t_{i} \leq \sum_{i,j} |\mu(A_{ij})| \leq |\mu|(E).$$
(2)

Taking the supremum of the left side of (2), over all admissible choices of  $\{t_i\}$ , we see that

$$\sum_{i} |\mu|(E_{i}) \le |\mu|(E). \tag{3}$$

To prove the opposite inequality, let  $\{A_j\}$  be any partition of E. Then for any fixed j,  $\{A_j \cap E_i\}$  is a partition of  $A_j$ , and for any fixed i,  $\{A_j \cap E_i\}$  is a partition of  $E_i$ . Hence

$$\sum_{j} |\mu(A_{j})| = \sum_{j} \left| \sum_{i} \mu(A_{j} \cap E_{i}) \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_{j} \sum_{i} |\mu(A_{j} \cap E_{i})|$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} |\mu(A_{j} \cap E_{i})| \leq \sum_{i} |\mu|(E_{i}). \tag{4}$$

Since (4) holds for every partition  $\{A_j\}$  of E, we have

$$|\mu|(E) \le \sum_{i} |\mu|(E_i). \tag{5}$$

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By (3) and (5),  $|\mu|$  is countably additive.

Note that the Corollary to Theorem 1.27 was used in (2) and (4).

That  $|\mu|$  is not identically  $\infty$  is a trivial consequence of Theorem 6.4 but can also be seen right now, since  $|\mu|(\emptyset) = 0$ .

**6.3 Lemma** If  $z_1, \ldots, z_N$  are complex numbers then there is a subset S of  $\{1, \ldots, N\}$  for which

$$\left| \sum_{k \in S} z_k \right| \ge \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^N |z_k|.$$

PROOF Write  $z_k = |z_k| e^{i\alpha_k}$ . For  $-\pi \le \theta \le \pi$ , let  $S(\theta)$  be the set of all k for which  $\cos(\alpha_k - \theta) > 0$ . Then

$$\left|\sum_{S(\theta)} z_k\right| = \left|\sum_{S(\theta)} e^{-i\theta} z_k\right| \ge \operatorname{Re} \sum_{S(\theta)} e^{-i\theta} z_k = \sum_{k=1}^N |z_k| \cos^+(\alpha_k - \theta).$$

Choose  $\theta_0$  so as to maximize the last sum, and put  $S = S(\theta_0)$ . This maximum is at least as large as the average of the sum over  $[-\pi, \pi]$ , and this average is  $\pi^{-1} \sum |z_k|$ , because

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^+ (\alpha - \theta) d\theta = \frac{1}{\pi}$$

for every  $\alpha$ .

6.4 Theorem If  $\mu$  is a complex measure on X, then

$$|\mu|(X) < \infty.$$

PROOF Suppose first that some set  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$  has  $|\mu|(E) = \infty$ . Put  $t = \pi(1 + |\mu(E)|)$ . Since  $|\mu|(E) > t$ , there is a partition  $\{E_i\}$  of E such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} |\mu(E_i)| > t$$

for some N. Apply Lemma 6.3, with  $z_i = \mu(E_i)$ , to conclude that there is a set  $A \subset E$  (a union of some of the sets  $E_i$ ) for which

$$|\mu(A)| > t/\pi > 1.$$

Setting B = E - A, it follows that

$$|\mu(B)| = |\mu(E) - \mu(A)| \ge |\mu(A)| - |\mu(E)| > \frac{t}{\pi} - |\mu(E)| = 1.$$

We have thus split E into disjoint sets A and B with  $|\mu(A)| > 1$  and  $|\mu(B)| > 1$ . Evidently, at least one of  $|\mu|(A)$  and  $|\mu|(B)$  is  $\infty$ , by Theorem 6.2. Now if  $|\mu|(X) = \infty$ , split X into  $A_1$ ,  $B_1$ , as above, with  $|\mu(A_1)| > 1$ ,  $|\mu|(B_1) = \infty$ . Split  $B_1$  into  $A_2$ ,  $B_2$ , with  $|\mu(A_2)| > 1$ ,  $|\mu|(B_1) = \infty$ . Centing

 $|\mu|(A_1) = \infty$ , split X into  $A_1$ ,  $B_1$ , as above, with  $|\mu(A_1)| > 1$ ,  $|\mu|(B_1) = \infty$ . Split  $B_1$  into  $A_2$ ,  $B_2$ , with  $|\mu(A_2)| > 1$ ,  $|\mu|(B_2) = \infty$ . Continuing in this way, we get a countably infinite disjoint collection  $\{A_i\}$ , with  $|\mu(A_i)| > 1$  for each i. The countable additivity of  $\mu$  implies that

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i} A_{i}\right) = \sum_{i} \mu(A_{i}).$$

But this series cannot converge, since  $\mu(A_i)$  does not tend to 0 as  $i \to \infty$ . This contradiction shows that  $|\mu|(X) < \infty$ .

6.5 If  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$  are complex measures on the same  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M},$  we define  $\mu + \lambda$  and  $c\mu$  by

$$(\mu + \lambda)(E) = \mu(E) + \lambda(E)$$

$$(c\mu)(E) = c\mu(E)$$

$$(E \in \mathfrak{M})$$
(1)

for any scalar c, in the usual manner. It is then trivial to verify that  $\mu + \lambda$  and  $c\mu$  are complex measures. The collection of all complex measures on  $\mathfrak M$  is thus a vector space. If we put

$$\|\mu\| = \|\mu\|(X),\tag{2}$$

it is easy to verify that all axioms of a normed linear space are satisfied.

6.6 Positive and Negative Variations Let us now specialize and consider a real measure  $\mu$  on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}$ . (Such measures are frequently called *signed* measures.) Define  $|\mu|$  as before, and define

$$\mu^{+} = \frac{1}{2}(|\mu| + \mu), \qquad \mu^{-} = \frac{1}{2}(|\mu| - \mu).$$
 (1)

Then both  $\mu^+$  and  $\mu^-$  are positive measures on  $\mathfrak{M}$ , and they are bounded, by Theorem 6.4. Also,

$$\mu = \mu^+ - \mu^-, \qquad |\mu| = \mu^+ + \mu^-.$$
 (2)

The measures  $\mu^+$  and  $\mu^-$  are called the *positive* and *negative variations* of  $\mu$ , respectively. This representation of  $\mu$  as the difference of the positive measures  $\mu^+$  and  $\mu^-$  is known as the *Jordan decomposition* of  $\mu$ . Among all representations of  $\mu$  as a difference of two positive measures, the Jordan decomposition has a certain minimum property which will be established as a corollary to Theorem 6.14.

#### **Absolute Continuity**

6.7 Definitions Let  $\mu$  be a positive measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}$ , and let  $\lambda$  be an arbitrary measure on  $\mathfrak{M}$ ;  $\lambda$  may be positive or complex. (Recall that a complex measure has its range in the complex plane, but that our usage of the term "positive measure" includes  $\infty$  as an admissible value. Thus the positive measures do not form a subclass of the complex ones.)

We say that  $\lambda$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$ , and write

$$\lambda \leqslant \mu$$
 (1)

if  $\lambda(E) = 0$  for every  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$  for which  $\mu(E) = 0$ .

If there is a set  $A \in \mathfrak{M}$  such that  $\lambda(E) = \lambda(A \cap E)$  for every  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ , we say that  $\lambda$  is *concentrated on A*. This is equivalent to the hypothesis that  $\lambda(E) = 0$  whenever  $E \cap A = \emptyset$ .

Suppose  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are measures on  $\mathfrak{M}$ , and suppose there exists a pair of disjoint sets A and B such that  $\lambda_1$  is concentrated on A and  $\lambda_2$  is concentrated on B. Then we say that  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are mutually singular, and write

$$\lambda_1 \perp \lambda_2$$
. (2)

Here are some elementary properties of these concepts.

- **6.8 Proposition** Suppose,  $\mu$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\lambda_1$ , and  $\lambda_2$  are measures on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}$ , and  $\mu$  is positive.
- (a) If  $\lambda$  is concentrated on A, so is  $|\lambda|$ .
- (b) If  $\lambda_1 \perp \lambda_2$ , then  $|\lambda_1| \perp |\lambda_2|$ .
- (c) If  $\lambda_1 \perp \mu$  and  $\lambda_2 \perp \mu$ , then  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \perp \mu$ .
- (d) If  $\lambda_1 \ll \mu$  and  $\lambda_2 \ll \mu$ , then  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \ll \mu$ .
- (e) If  $\lambda \leqslant \mu$ , then  $|\lambda| \leqslant \mu$ .
- (f) If  $\lambda_1 \leqslant \mu$  and  $\lambda_2 \perp \mu$ , then  $\lambda_1 \perp \lambda_2$ .
- (g) If  $\lambda \leqslant \mu$  and  $\lambda \perp \mu$ , then  $\lambda = 0$ .

#### Proof

- (a) If  $E \cap A = \emptyset$  and  $\{E_j\}$  is any partition of E, then  $\lambda(E_j) = 0$  for all j. Hence  $|\lambda|(E) = 0$ .
- (b) This follows immediately from (a).
- (c) There are disjoint sets  $A_1$  and  $B_1$  such that  $\lambda_1$  is concentrated on  $A_1$  and  $\mu$  on  $B_1$ , and there are disjoint sets  $A_2$  and  $B_2$  such that  $\lambda_2$  is concentrated on  $A_2$  and  $\mu$  on  $B_2$ . Hence  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2$  is concentrated on  $A = A_1 \cup A_2$ ,  $\mu$  is concentrated on  $B = B_1 \cap B_2$ , and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .
- (d) This is obvious.
- Suppose  $\mu(E) = 0$ , and  $\{E_j\}$  is a partition of E. Then  $\mu(E_j) = 0$ ; and since  $\lambda \leqslant \mu$ ,  $\lambda(E_j) = 0$  for all j, hence  $\sum |\lambda(E_j)| = 0$ . This implies  $|\lambda|(E) = 0$ .

- (f) Since  $\lambda_2 \perp \mu$ , there is a set A with  $\mu(A) = 0$  on which  $\lambda_2$  is concentrated. Since  $\lambda_1 \ll \mu$ ,  $\lambda_1(E) = 0$  for every  $E \subset A$ . So  $\lambda_1$  is concentrated on the complement of A.
- (g) By (f), the hypothesis of (g) implies, that  $\lambda \perp \lambda$ , and this clearly forces  $\lambda = 0$ .

We come now to the principal theorem about absolute continuity. In fact, it is probably the most important theorem in measure theory. Its statement will involve  $\sigma$ -finite measures. The following lemma describes one of their significant properties.

**6.9 Lemma** If  $\mu$  is a positive  $\sigma$ -finite measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak M$  in a set X, then there is a function  $w \in L^1(\mu)$  such that 0 < w(x) < 1 for every  $x \in X$ .

PROOF To say that  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -finite means that X is the union of countably many sets  $E_n \in \mathfrak{M}$  (n = 1, 2, 3, ...) for which  $\mu(E_n)$  is finite. Put  $w_n(x) = 0$  if  $x \in X - E_n$  and put

$$w_n(x) = 2^{-n}/(1 + \mu(E_n))$$

if  $x \in E_n$ . Then  $w = \sum_{1}^{\infty} w_n$  has the required properties. ////

The point of the lemma is that  $\mu$  can be replaced by a *finite* measure  $\tilde{\mu}$  (namely,  $d\tilde{\mu} = w \ d\mu$ ) which, because of the strict positivity of w, has *precisely* the same sets of measure 0 as  $\mu$ .

- 6.10 The Theorem of Lebesgue-Radon-Nikodym Let  $\mu$  be a positive  $\sigma$ -finite measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak M$  in a set X, and let  $\lambda$  be a complex measure on  $\mathfrak M$ .
- (a) There is then a unique pair of complex measures  $\lambda_n$  and  $\lambda_s$  on  $\mathfrak M$  such that

$$\lambda = \lambda_n + \lambda_s, \quad \lambda_n \leqslant \mu, \quad \lambda_s \perp \mu.$$
 (1)

If  $\lambda$  is positive and finite, then so are  $\lambda_a$  and  $\lambda_s$ .

(b) There is a unique  $h \in L^1(\mu)$  such that

$$\lambda_a(E) = \int_E h \ d\mu \tag{2}$$

for every set  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ .

The pair  $(\lambda_n, \lambda_s)$  is called the *Lebesgue decomposition* of  $\lambda$  relative to  $\mu$ . The uniqueness of the decomposition is easily seen, for if  $(\lambda_n', \lambda_s')$  is another pair which satisfies (1), then

$$\lambda_a' - \lambda_a = \lambda_s - \lambda_s'. \tag{3}$$

 $\lambda_a' - \lambda_a \ll \mu$ , and  $\lambda_s - \lambda_s' \perp \mu$ , hence both sides of (3) are 0; we have used 6.8(c),

The existence of the decomposition is the significant part of (a).

Assertion (b) is known as the Radon-Nikodym theorem. Again, uniqueness of h is immediate, from Theorem 1.39(b). Also, if h is any member of  $L^1(\mu)$ , the integral in (2) defines a measure on  $\mathfrak M$  (Theorem 1.29) which is clearly absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$ . The point of the Radon-Nikodym theorem is the converse:  $Every \ \lambda \leqslant \mu$  (in which case  $\lambda_a = \lambda$ ) is obtained in this way.

The function h which occurs in (2) is called the *Radon-Nikodym derivative* of  $\lambda_a$  with respect to  $\mu$ . As noted after Theorem 1.29, we may express (2) in the form  $d\lambda_a = h d\mu$ , or even in the form  $h = d\lambda_a/d\mu$ .

The idea of the following proof, which yields both (a) and (b) at one stroke, is due to von Neumann.

PROOF Assume first that  $\lambda$  is a positive bounded measure on  $\mathfrak{M}$ . Associate w to  $\mu$  as in Lemma 6.9. Then  $d\phi = d\lambda + w d\mu$  defines a positive bounded measure  $\phi$  on  $\mathfrak{M}$ . The definition of the sum of two measures shows that

$$\int_{X} f \, d\varphi = \int_{X} f \, d\lambda + \int_{X} f w \, d\mu \tag{4}$$

for  $f = \chi_E$ , hence for simple f, hence for any nonnegative measurable f. If  $f \in L^2(\varphi)$ , the Schwarz inequality gives

$$\left| \int_X f \, d\lambda \right| \le \int_X |f| \, d\lambda \le \int_X |f| \, d\varphi \le \left\{ \int_X |f|^2 \, d\varphi \right\}^{1/2} \left\{ \varphi(X) \right\}^{1/2}.$$

Since  $\varphi(X) < \infty$ , we see that

$$f \to \int_X f \, d\lambda \tag{5}$$

is a bounded linear functional on  $L^2(\varphi)$ . We know that every bounded linear functional on a Hilbert space H is given by an inner product with an element of H. Hence there exists a  $g \in L^2(\varphi)$  such that

$$\int_{X} f \, d\lambda = \int_{X} f g \, d\varphi \tag{6}$$

for every  $f \in L^2(\varphi)$ .

Observe how the completeness of  $L^2(\varphi)$  was used to guarantee the existence of g. Observe also that although g is defined uniquely as an element of  $L^2(\varphi)$ , g is determined only a.e.  $[\varphi]$  as a point function on X.

Put  $f = \chi_E$  in (6), for any  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$  with  $\varphi(E) > 0$ . The left side of (6) is then  $\lambda(E)$ , and since  $0 \le \lambda \le \varphi$ , we have

$$0 \le \frac{1}{\varphi(E)} \int_{E} g \ d\varphi = \frac{\lambda(E)}{\varphi(E)} \le 1. \tag{7}$$

Hence  $g(x) \in [0, 1]$  for almost all x (with respect to  $\varphi$ ), by Theorem 1.40. We may therefore assume that  $0 \le g(x) \le 1$  for every  $x \in X$ , without affecting (6), and we rewrite (6) in the form

$$\int_{X} (1-g)f \, d\lambda = \int_{X} fgw \, d\mu. \tag{8}$$

Put

$$A = \{x \colon 0 \le g(x) < 1\}, \qquad B = \{x \colon g(x) = 1\},\tag{9}$$

and define measures  $\lambda_a$  and  $\lambda_s$  by

$$\lambda_a(E) = \lambda(A \cap E), \qquad \lambda_s(E) = \lambda(B \cap E),$$
 (10)

for all  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ .

If  $f = \chi_B$  in (8), the left side is 0, the right side is  $\int_B w \ d\mu$ . Since w(x) > 0 for all x, we conclude that  $\mu(B) = 0$ . Thus  $\lambda_s \perp \mu$ .

Since g is bounded, (8) holds if f is replaced by

$$(1+g+\cdots+g^n)\chi_E$$

for  $n = 1, 2, 3, ..., E \in \mathfrak{M}$ . For such f, (8) becomes

$$\int_{E} (1 - g^{n+1}) d\lambda = \int_{E} g(1 + g + \dots + g^{n}) w d\mu.$$
 (11)

At every point of B, g(x) = 1, hence  $1 - g^{n+1}(x) = 0$ . At every point of A,  $g^{n+1}(x) \to 0$  monotonically. The left side of (11) converges therefore to  $\lambda(A \cap E) = \lambda_n(E)$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

The integrands on the right side of (11) increase monotonically to a non-negative measurable limit h, and the monotone convergence theorem shows that the right side of (11) tends to  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} h \ d\mu$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

We have thus proved that (2) holds for every  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ . Taking E = X, we see that  $h \in L^1(\mu)$ , since  $\lambda_a(X) < \infty$ .

Finally, (2) shows that  $\lambda_a \ll \mu$ , and the proof is complete for positive  $\lambda$ .

If  $\lambda$  is a complex measure on  $\mathfrak{M}$ , then  $\lambda = \lambda_1 + i\lambda_2$ , with  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  real, and we can apply the preceding case to the positive and negative variations of  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ .

If both  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$  are positive and  $\sigma$ -finite, most of Theorem 6.10 is still true. We can now write  $X = \bigcup X_n$ , where  $\mu(X_n) < \infty$  and  $\lambda(X_n) < \infty$ , for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ . The Lebesgue decompositions of the measures  $\lambda(E \cap X_n)$  still give us a Lebesgue decomposition of  $\lambda$ , and we still get a function h which satisfies Eq. 6.10(2); however, it is no longer true that  $h \in L^1(\mu)$ , although h is "locally in  $L^1$ ," i.e.,  $\int_{X_n} h \ d\mu < \infty$  for each n.

Finally, if we go beyond  $\sigma$ -finiteness, we meet situations where the two theorems under consideration actually fail. For example, let  $\mu$  be Lebesgue measure on (0, 1), and let  $\lambda$  be the counting measure on the  $\sigma$ -algebra of all Lebesgue

measurable sets in (0, 1). Then  $\lambda$  has no Lebesgue decomposition relative to  $\mu$ , and although  $\mu \leqslant \lambda$  and  $\mu$  is bounded, there is no  $h \in L^1(\lambda)$  such that  $d\mu = h \ d\lambda$ . We omit the easy proof.

The following theorem may explain why the word "continuity" is used in connection with the relation  $\lambda \ll \mu$ .

- **6.11 Theorem** Suppose  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$  are measures on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{M}$ ,  $\mu$  is positive, and  $\lambda$  is complex. Then the following two conditions are equivalent:
- (a)  $\lambda \leqslant \mu$ .
- (b) To every  $\epsilon > 0$  corresponds a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\lambda(E)| < \epsilon$  for all  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$  with  $\mu(E) < \delta$ .

Property (b) is sometimes used as the definition of absolute continuity. However, (a) does not imply (b) if  $\lambda$  is a positive unbounded measure. For instance, let  $\mu$  be Lebesgue measure on (0, 1), and put

$$\lambda(E) = \int_{E} t^{-1} dt$$

for every Lebesgue measurable set  $E \subset (0, 1)$ .

PROOF Suppose (b) holds. If  $\mu(E) = 0$ , then  $\mu(E) < \delta$  for every  $\delta > 0$ , hence  $|\lambda(E)| < \epsilon$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , so  $\lambda(E) = 0$ . Thus (b) implies (a).

Suppose (b) is false. Then there exists an  $\epsilon > 0$  and there exist sets  $E_n \in \mathfrak{M}$  (n = 1, 2, 3, ...) such that  $\mu(E_n) < 2^{-n}$  but  $|\lambda(E_n)| \ge \epsilon$ . Hence  $|\lambda|(E_n) \ge \epsilon$ . Put

$$A_n = \bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} E_i, \qquad A = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n. \tag{1}$$

Then  $\mu(A_n) < 2^{-n+1}$ ,  $A_n \supset A_{n+1}$ , and so Theorem 1.19(e) shows that  $\mu(A) = 0$  and that

$$|\lambda|(A) = \lim_{n \to \infty} |\lambda|(A_n) \ge \epsilon > 0,$$

since  $|\lambda|(A_n) \ge |\lambda|(E_n)$ .

It follows that we do *not* have  $|\lambda| \le \mu$ , hence (a) is false, by Proposition 6.8(e).

### Consequences of the Radon-Nikodym Theorem

**6.12 Theorem** Let  $\mu$  be a complex measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak M$  in X. Then there is a measurable function h such that |h(x)| = 1 for all  $x \in X$  and such that

$$d\mu = h \ d |\mu|. \tag{1}$$

By analogy with the representation of a complex number as the product of its absolute value and a number of absolute value 1, Eq. (1) is sometimes referred to as the *polar representation* (or *polar decomposition*) of  $\mu$ .

PROOF It is trivial that  $\mu \leq |\mu|$ , and therefore the Radon-Nikodym theorem guarantees the existence of some  $h \in L^1(|\mu|)$  which satisfies (1).

Let  $A_r = \{x : |h(x)| < r\}$ , where r is some positive number, and let  $\{E_j\}$  be a partition of  $A_r$ . Then

$$\left|\sum_{j} |\mu(E_{j})| = \sum_{j} \left| \int_{E_{j}} h \ d|\mu| \right| \leq \sum_{j} r |\mu| (E_{j}) = r |\mu| (A_{r}),$$

so that  $|\mu|(A_r) \le r|\mu|(A_r)$ . If r < 1, this forces  $|\mu|(A_r) = 0$ . Thus  $|h| \ge 1$  a.c. On the other hand, if  $|\mu|(E) > 0$ , (1) shows that

$$\left|\frac{1}{|\mu|(E)}\int_{E}h\ d\|\mu\|\right| = \frac{|\mu(E)|}{|\mu|(E)} \le 1.$$

We now apply Theorem 1.40 (with the closed unit disc in place of S) and conclude that  $|h| \le 1$  a.e.

Let  $B = \{x \in X : |h(x)| \neq 1\}$ . We have shown that  $|\mu|(B) = 0$ , and if we redefine h on B so that h(x) = 1 on B, we obtain a function with the desired properties.

**6.13 Theorem** Suppose  $\mu$  is a positive measure on  $\mathfrak{M}, g \in L^1(\mu)$ , and

$$\lambda(E) = \int_{E} g \ d\mu \qquad (E \in \mathfrak{M}). \tag{1}$$

Then

$$|\lambda|(E) = \int_{E} |g| d\mu \qquad (E \in \mathfrak{M}). \tag{2}$$

PROOF By Theorem 6.12, there is a function h, of absolute value 1, such that  $d\lambda = h d|\lambda|$ . By hypothesis,  $d\lambda = g d\mu$ . Hence

$$|h|d|\lambda| = g|d\mu.$$

This gives  $d|\lambda| = h g d\mu$ . (Compare with Theorem 1.29.)

Since  $|\lambda| \ge 0$  and  $\mu \ge 0$ , it follows that  $h\bar{g} \ge 0$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ , so that  $h\bar{g} = |g|$  a.e.  $[\mu]$ .

6.14 The Hahn Decomposition Theorem Let  $\mu$  be a real measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak M$  in a set X. Then there exist sets A and  $B \in \mathfrak M$  such that

 $A \cup B = X$ ,  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , and such that the positive and negative variations  $\mu^+$  and  $\mu^-$  of  $\mu$  satisfy

$$\mu^{+}(E) = \mu(A \cap E), \quad \mu^{-}(E) = -\mu(B \cap E) \quad (E \in \mathfrak{M}).$$
 (1)

In other words, X is the union of two disjoint measurable sets A and B, such that "A carries all the positive mass of  $\mu$ " [since (1) implies that  $\mu(E) \ge 0$  if  $E \subset A$ ] and "B carries all the negative mass of  $\mu$ " [since  $\mu(E) \le 0$  if  $E \subset B$ ]. The pair (A, B) is called a Hahn decomposition of X, induced by  $\mu$ .

PROOF By Theorem 6.12,  $d\mu = h d |\mu|$ , where |h| = 1. Since  $\mu$  is real, it follows that h is real (a.e., and therefore everywhere, by redefining on a set of measure 0), hence  $h = \pm 1$ . Put

$$A = \{x: h(x) = 1\}, \qquad B = \{x: h(x) = -1\}.$$
 (2)

Since  $\mu^+ = \frac{1}{2}(|\mu| + \mu)$ , and since

$$\frac{1}{2}(1+h) = \begin{cases} h & \text{on } A, \\ 0 & \text{on } B, \end{cases}$$
 (3)

we have, for any  $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ ,

$$\mu^{+}(E) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{E} (1+h) \ d|\mu| = \int_{E \cap A} h \ d|\mu| = \mu(E \cap A). \tag{4}$$

Since  $\mu(E) = \mu(E \cap A) + \mu(E \cap B)$  and since  $\mu = \mu^+ - \mu^-$ , the second half of (1) follows from the first.

Corollary If  $\mu = \lambda_1 - \lambda_2$ , where  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are positive measures, then  $\lambda_1 \ge \mu^+$  and  $\lambda_2 \ge \mu^-$ .

This is the minimum property of the Jordan decomposition which was mentioned in Sec. 6.6.

PROOF Since  $\mu \leq \lambda_1$ , we have

$$\mu^+(E) = \mu(E \cap A) \le \lambda_1(E \cap A) \le \lambda_1(E).$$
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