## Measure theory notes

## 0.1. Vitali's theorem.

**Definition 0.1.** We say that a function  $\mu$  is a *natural total measure on*  $\mathbb{R}$  if  $\mu$  :  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \to [0, \infty]$  and

(1) for every collection  $A_1, A_2, \dots \subset \mathbb{R}$  of pairwise disjoint sets we have

$$\mu(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n),$$

- (2) for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and every  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$  we have  $\mu(x+A) = \mu(A)$ ,
- (3) for every  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  with x < y

$$\mu([x,y]) = y - x.$$

**Theorem 0.2.** There is no natural total measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

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*Proof.* Suppose towards contradiction that  $\mu$  is such a measure. Notice first that Property 1 implies monotonicity, that is, if  $A \subset B$  then  $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$ : indeed,

$$\iota(B) = \mu(B \setminus A) + \mu(A) \ge \mu(A)$$

Now we define a relation  $\sim$  on [0, 1] as follows: let  $x \sim y$  if and only if  $x - y \in \mathbb{Q}$ . It is easy to check that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation:

- $x \sim x$ , since  $x x \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,
- $x \sim y$  implies  $y \sim x$ , since y x = -(x y),
- if  $x \sim y$  and  $y \sim z$  then  $x \sim z$ , since x z = (x y) + (y z) and the sum of two rational numbers is rational.

Let  $V \subset [0, 1]$  be a set that intersects each equivalence class at exactly one point. Notice that if  $r_1, r_2$  are distinct rationals then  $V + r_1 \cap V + r_2 = \emptyset$ : otherwise,  $v_1 + r_1 = v_2 + r_2$  was true for some distinct  $v_1, v_2 \in V$ , so  $v_1 - v_2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ , i. e.,  $v_1 \sim v_2$ contradicting the choice of V.

Note that if  $x \in [0, 1]$  then there exists a  $v \in V$  with  $x \sim v$ , in other words,  $x - v \in \mathbb{Q}$  (note also that  $x, v \in [0, 1]$  implies  $x - v \in [-1, 1]$ ), therefore each  $x \in [0, 1]$  is covered by some of the sets  $(V + r)_{r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [-1, 1]}$ . Thus,

$$[0,1] \subset \bigcup_{r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [-1,1]} V + r \subset [-1,2].$$

where the last containment follows for  $V \subset [0, 1]$ .

So, using the fact that the sets  $(V + r)_{r \in \mathbb{Q}}$  are disjoint translates of V and the monotonicity of  $\mu$ , we obtain

$$1 = \mu([0,1]) \le \mu(\bigcup_{r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [-1,1]} V + r) \le \mu([-1,2]) = 3$$

and by the countability of  $\mathbb{Q}$  we get

$$1 \leq \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [-1,1]} \mu(V+r) \leq 3.$$

Hence,  $1 \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(V) \leq 3$ , thus on the one hand  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(V)$  is bounded by 3, so  $\mu(V) = 0$ , on the other hand the sum is non-zero, a contradiction.

0.2. Product of  $\sigma$ -algebras. It is not hard to see that if X is a set,  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ , that is,  $\mathcal{E}$  is a family of subsets of X, then there exists a smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{E}$ . We call this set the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{E}$  and denote it by  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E})$ .

**Definition 0.3.** Suppose that  $\mathcal{M}_i \subset \mathcal{P}(X_i)$  is a collection of  $\sigma$ -algebras on the sets  $X_i$  for  $i \in I$ . We define the *product* of the  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{M}_i$  as the  $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  generated by the sets of the form  $\{\pi_i^{-1}(A_i) : A_i \in \mathcal{M}_i\}$ , where  $\pi_i$  denotes the projection map "onto the *i*th coordinate" from  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  to  $X_i$ . We denote this  $\sigma$ -algebra by  $\otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ .

In particular, if  $I = \{1, 2\}$  then the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{M}_1 \otimes \mathcal{M}_2$  is generated by the sets of the form  $A_1 \times X_2$  and  $X_1 \times A_2$ , where  $A_1 \in \mathcal{M}_1$  and  $A_2 \in \mathcal{M}_2$ .

**Theorem 0.4.** Suppose that the families of sets  $\mathcal{E}_i \subset \mathcal{M}_i$  generate the  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{M}_i$  for every  $i \in I$ . Then the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\pi_i^{-1}(A_i) : A_i \in \mathcal{E}_i, i \in \mathcal{E}_i, i \in \mathcal{F}_i\}$ I} is exactly  $\otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ . If moreover for every  $i \in I$  we have  $X_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$  and I is countable then the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the family  $\mathcal{F}_2 = \{\prod_{i \in I} A_i : A_i \in \mathcal{E}_i\}$  is  $\otimes_{i\in I}\mathcal{M}_i.$ 

*Proof.* We prove the first statement first. Clearly, by  $\mathcal{E}_i \subset \mathcal{M}_i$  and the definition of  $\otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$  we have  $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ , therefore  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1) \subset \otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ .

In order to prove  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1) \supset \bigotimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$  it is enough to prove that  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1)$  contains a generating set of the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ . So we prove that

(\*) 
$$\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1) \supset \{\pi_i^{-1}(A_i) : A_i \in \mathcal{M}_i, i \in I\},\$$

the latter is by definition a generating set of  $\otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ . Define for every  $i \in I$  the set

$$\mathcal{A}_i = \{ A \in \mathcal{M}_i : \pi_i^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1) \}.$$

Obviously,  $\mathcal{A}_i \subset \mathcal{M}_i$  and by the definition of  $\mathcal{F}_1$  we have  $\mathcal{E}_i \subset \mathcal{A}_i$  for every  $i \in I$ .

We claim that  $\mathcal{A}_i$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, note that by  $\mathcal{E}_i \subset \mathcal{A}_i$  this will imply  $\mathcal{M}_i = \mathcal{A}_i$ . Let  $B, B_1, B_2, \dots \in \mathcal{A}_i$  for some  $i \in I$ . Then, since  $\pi_i^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1)$  by definition of  $\mathcal{A}_i$  and  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1)$  being a  $\sigma$ -algebra we get that  $\pi_i^{-1}(X_i \setminus B) = (\prod_{i \in I} X_i) \setminus \pi_i^{-1}(B) \in$  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1)$ , so  $X_i \setminus B \in \mathcal{A}_i$  as well, so  $\mathcal{A}_i$  is closed under taking complements. Similarly, using  $\pi_i^{-1}(\bigcup_n B_n) = \bigcup_n \pi_i^{-1}(B_n)$  we get that  $\mathcal{A}_i$  is closed under countable unions.

Hence  $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{M}_i$ , but this means that for every  $A_i \in \mathcal{M}_i$  we have  $\pi_i^{-1}(A_i) \in$  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1)$ , in other words, (\*) holds and we are done.

We prove now that  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_2) = \bigotimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ . Since  $X_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$  we have that if  $A_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$ the sets of the form  $\pi_i^{-1}(A_i)$  are elements of  $\mathcal{F}_2$ , that is,  $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2$ . Thus, from the first part we get  $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_2) \supset \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}_1) = \bigotimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ . For the reverse just notice that for every set of the form  $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$  where  $A_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$  we have

$$\prod_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcap_{i \in I} \pi_i^{-1}(A_i).$$

If I is countable, then the above intersection is a countable intersection of elements of the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ , thus,  $\prod_{i \in I} A_i \in \bigotimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$ , so  $\mathcal{F}_2 \subset \bigotimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$  which finishes the proof.

**Corollary 0.5.** If I is countable, then  $\otimes_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i$  is generated by the sets of the form  $\prod_{i \in I} A_i \text{ where } A_i \in \mathcal{M}_i.$ 

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{E}_i = \mathcal{M}_i$  in Theorem 0.4.

## 0.3. Elementary families.

**Definition 0.6.** Let X be a set. A collection  $\mathcal{E}$  of subsets of X is called an *elementary family* if

- (1) for every  $A, B \in \mathcal{E}$  we have  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{E}$ ,
- (2) for every  $A \in \mathcal{E}$  there exist pairwise disjoint sets  $A_1, \ldots, A_k \in \mathcal{E}$  with  $A^c = A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n$ .

**Proposition 0.7.** Suppose that  $\mathcal{E}$  is an elementary family. Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n : A_1, \ldots, A_n \text{ are disjoint, } A_i \in \mathcal{E}\}$ , that is, the collection of finite disjoint unions of sets from  $\mathcal{E}$ .

*Proof.* First we prove by induction on n that whenever  $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{E}$  then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \in \mathcal{A}$ . For n = 1 this is obvious, so suppose that we have proved the statement for every natural  $\leq n$ .

Let  $A_1, \ldots, A_n, A_{n+1} \in \mathcal{E}$  be arbitrary. By the inductive hypothesis

$$A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n \cup A_{n+1} = B_1 \cup \cdots \cup B_k \cup A_{n+1},$$

for some  $B_1, \ldots, B_k \in \mathcal{E}$  are disjoint. But then

$$B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_k \cup A_{n+1} =$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^k (B_i \cap A_{n+1}^c) \cup A_{n+1},$$

and the sets  $B_i \cap A_{n+1}^c$  (for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ ) and  $A_{n+1}$  are pairwise disjoint and by Property 2 we have  $B_i \cap A_{n+1}^c = \bigcup_{l=1}^m B_i \cap E_l$ , where  $E_l$  are pairwise disjoint sets from  $\mathcal{E}$ . Therefore,  $A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n \cup A_{n+1} \in \mathcal{A}$ .

Thus, since every finite union of elements of  $\mathcal{A}$  is a finite union of elements  $\mathcal{E}$ , we get that  $\mathcal{A}$  is closed under finite unions.

To see that it is closed under taking complements let  $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{E}$  pairwise disjoint, then

$$(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c.$$

By Property 2 for each  $i \leq n$  we get sets  $(E_j^i)_{1 \leq j \leq n_i} \in \mathcal{E}$  with  $A_i = \bigcup_{j=1}^{n_i} E_j^i$ . Thus,

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}^{c} = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} (\bigcup_{j=1}^{n_{i}} E_{j}^{i}) = \bigcup \{ E_{j_{1}}^{1} \cap E_{j_{2}}^{2} \cap \dots \cap E_{l_{n}}^{n} : 1 \le j_{i} \le n_{i}, 1 \le i \le n \},\$$

which is the finite union of sets in  $\mathcal{E}$ , consequently, by the first part of the proof, an element of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

0.4. Regularity properties of measures. As we have seen, for a measure  $\mu$  defined on a  $\sigma$ -algebra we can define the appropriate outer measure  $\mu^*$ , which will be a measure on the collection of (Caratheodory-) measurable sets. Moreover, on this collection  $\mu^*$  is the unique measure extending  $\mu$ , provided that  $\mu$  was  $\sigma$ -finite. Hence, we do not lose anything if we identify  $\mu$  with this extension to the measurable sets. In particular, we will call a set  $\mu$ -measurable, if it is measurable with respect to the outer measure  $\mu^*$ , and let  $\mu(A) = \mu^*(A)$  if A is measurable etc.

**Theorem 0.8.** Let  $\mu$  be a finite measure on the  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{B}_X$  for some metric space X. Then for every  $\mu$  measurable set E we have

(1)  $\mu(E) = \inf\{\mu(U) : U \supset E, U \text{ is open}\},\$ (2)  $\mu(E) = \sup\{\mu(F) : F \subset E, F \text{ is closed}\}.$ 

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be the collection of those  $\mu$  measurable sets for which the conditions 1-2 hold.

A contains every closed set: indeed, if F is closed, then 2 is obvious. To see that 1 holds, use that F is  $G_{\delta}$  (which can be proved very similarly to the case  $X = \mathbb{R}$ ), so  $F = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$  where  $U_n$  is open. Letting  $V_k = \bigcap_{n=1}^k U_n$  the sets  $V_k$  are open and form a decreasing sequence, with  $F = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n$ , by the finiteness and hence the continuity of  $\mu$  we have  $\mu(V_n) \to \mu(F)$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

 $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. HW

Thus, we get that  $\mathcal{A} \supset \mathcal{B}_X$ . Now, let A be an arbitrary  $\mu$  measurable set. First we prove that we can find a  $B \supset A$  with  $B \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  and  $\mu(B) = \mu(A)$ : By the definition  $\mu^*$  for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists sets  $A_n^m \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  such that  $A \subset \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^m$ and  $\mu(A) > \mu(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^m) - \frac{1}{m+1}$ . By the finiteness of  $\mu$  we get that

$$\mu((\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^m) \setminus A) = \mu(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^m) - \mu(A) < \frac{1}{m+1}.$$

Let  $B = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^m$ . Then  $B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $B \supset A$  and for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  we have

$$\mu(B) - \mu(A) \le \mu(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^m) - \mu(A) \le \frac{1}{m+1},$$

so  $\mu(B) = \mu(A)$ .

Thus, we can find  $B \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$  such that  $B \supset A$  and  $\mu(A) = \mu(B)$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Using that  $B, B^c \in \mathcal{A}$  we get an open set  $U \supset B \supset A$  and an open set  $V \supset B^c$  such that

(\*) 
$$\mu(U) < \mu(B) + \varepsilon = \mu(A) + \varepsilon,$$

and

$$\mu(V) < \mu(B^c) + \varepsilon$$

Using that  $\mu$  is finite and letting  $F = X \setminus V$  we get

$$\mu(F) = \mu(X \setminus V) = \mu(X) - \mu(V) \ge \mu(X) - (\mu(B^c) + \varepsilon) = \mu(X) - (\mu(X) - \mu(B) + \varepsilon) \ge \mu(B) - \varepsilon = \mu(A) - \varepsilon.$$

The fact that  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary and the last equation show that 2 holds for A, while (\*) shows that 1 is also true.

**Corollary 0.9.** Suppose that  $\mu$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  which is finite on every bounded set. Then  $\mu$  is Borel regular. In particular, every Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure is Borel regular.

*Proof.* Let  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  be a  $\mu$  measurable set and fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  the interval [n, n + 1] is a metric space (with the usual metric) and the measure  $\mu|_{[n,n+1]}$  is a finite Borel measure (note that for a set  $B \subset [n, n + 1]$  we have in  $B \in \mathcal{B}_{[n,n+1]}$  iff  $B \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  and also B is  $\mu|_{[n,n+1]}$ -measurable iff B is  $\mu$ -measurable). Thus, by Theorem 0.8 it is regular, so there exist closed sets (in [n, n + 1] as a metric space)  $F_n \subset E \cap [n, n + 1)$  such that

$$\mu(E \cap [n, n+1)) < \mu(F_n) + \varepsilon \cdot 2^{-|n|-2}.$$

Note that (using that the intervals [n, n+1] are closed in  $\mathbb{R}$ ) the sets  $F_n$  and hence the set  $F = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} F_n$  are closed in  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $F \subset E$  and

$$\mu(E) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mu(E \cap [n, n+1)) < \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (\mu(F_n) + \varepsilon \cdot 2^{-|n|-2}) < \mu(F) + \varepsilon.$$

This shows that 2 holds.

The proof of outer regularity is similar: find a  $U_n$  open subset in each (n-1, n+1) such that  $U_n \supset E \cap [n, n+1)$  and

$$\mu(U_n) < \mu(E \cap [n, n+1)) + \varepsilon \cdot 2^{-|n|-2}.$$

Then (again, by the fact that the intervals (n-1, n+1) are open) the set  $U = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} U_n$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}, U \supset E$  and

$$\mu(U) \le \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mu(U_n) < \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (\mu(E \cap [n, n+1)) + \varepsilon \cdot 2^{-|n|-2}) < \mu(E) + \varepsilon,$$
  
are done.  $\Box$ 

so we are done.

0.5. Riemann integral and Lebesgure integral. For an interval I we denote by |I| the length of I.

Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded function. A sequence  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = b$  is called a *partition* of the interval [a, b]. The *upper and lower sums* corresponding to the partition  $P = (x_i)_{i=0}^n$  are defined as follows:

$$U(P,f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)(x_i - x_{i-1}),$$

and

$$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)(x_i - x_{i-1}).$$

Let

$$\overline{\int_{a}^{b}} f(x)dx = \inf\{U(P, f) : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\},\$$

and

$$\underline{\int_{a}^{b}} f(x)dx = \sup\{L(P, f) : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}.$$

We say that f is Riemann integrable if  $\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx$ .

A sequence of partitions  $P_k = (x_i^k)_{i=0}^n$  is called *infinitely refining*, if  $\max_{1 \le i \le n} (x_i^k - x_{i-1}^k) \to 0$  as  $k \to \infty$ . It is not hard to show that f is Riemann integrable if and only if for every infinitely refining partition sequence  $P_k = (x_i^k)_{i=0}^n$  we have that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} U(P_k, f) = \lim_{k \to \infty} L(P_k, f).$$

**Theorem 0.10.** (Lebesgue's criterion of integrability) Let  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. f is Riemann integrable if and only if f is bounded and the set  $\{x \in [a,b] : f \text{ is not continuous at } x\}$  has Lebesgue measure zero.

Before we begin the proof of the theorem we need a definition.

**Definition 0.11.** The oscillation of f on the interval I,  $\omega_f(I)$ , is defined by

$$\omega_f(I) = \sup_{x \in I} f(x) - \inf_{x \in I} f(x)$$

Whereas the oscillation of f at a point  $x_0$ ,  $\omega_f(x_0)$  is defined by

$$\omega_f(x_0) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \omega_f((x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon))$$

**Lemma 0.12.** (1) f is continuous at a point  $x_0$  if and only if  $\omega_f(x_0) = 0$ , (2) if  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , the set  $\{x : \omega_f(x) \ge c\}$  is closed in [a, b].

Proof. HW

*Proof.* Thus, using our new notations, we have to proof that f is Riemann integrable if and only if f is bounded and the set  $\{x : \omega_f(x) > 0\}$  has measure zero.

(⇒) Suppose first that f is Riemann integrable. Then by the definition of the existence of the integral f is bounded, hence it is enough to prove that for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}^+$  the set  $D_m = \{x : \omega_f(x) > \frac{1}{m}\}$  has  $\lambda$ -measure zero. Thus, let  $m \in \mathbb{N}^+$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. By the definition of integrability there exists a partition  $P = (x_i)_{i=0}^n$  such that  $U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \frac{\varepsilon}{m}$ . By the definition of U and L we get:

$$(*) \quad \frac{\varepsilon}{m} > U(P,f) - L(P,f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sup_{x \in [x_{i-1},x_i]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1},x_i]} f(x))(x_i - x_{i-1}) = \\ = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \omega_f([x_{i-1},x_i])(x_i - x_{i-1}) \ge \sum_{[x_{i-1},x_i] \cap D_m \neq \emptyset} \frac{1}{m} (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

where the last inequality follows from the fact that whenever in an interval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$  there exists a point p from  $D_m$ , the oscillation  $\omega_f([x_{i-1}, x_i]) \geq \omega_f(p) \geq \frac{1}{m}$ . Obviously,  $D_m$  is covered by the collection of intervals  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$  for which  $[x_{i-1}, x_i] \cap D_m \neq \emptyset$ . But multiplying the two sides of (\*) by m we get that the total length of these intervals is less then  $\varepsilon$ , thus  $\lambda(D_m) < \varepsilon$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary, this finishes the proof of this direction.

(⇐) Suppose now that the points of discontinuity form a measure zero set and f is bounded. Fix an  $\varepsilon > 0$  and let K be such that |f(x)| < K for each  $x \in [a, b]$ . We will construct a partition of P with  $U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \varepsilon$ . By Lemma 0.12 the set  $\{x : \omega_f(x) \ge \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}\}$  is closed and, as the subset of [a, b] it is compact, while by our assumption it is measure zero. Thus, there exists a finite collection of open intervals  $I_1, \ldots, I_k$  such that  $\sum_{j=1}^k |I_j| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4K}$  and  $\{x : \omega_f(x) \ge \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}\} \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^k I_j$ .

Now the set  $K = [a, b] \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^{k} I_j$  is also closed and bounded, hence compact, and for every  $x \in K$  we have  $\omega_f(x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}$ . But then, using the definition of  $\omega_f(x)$ for each  $x \in K$  there exists an open interval U around x such that  $\omega_f(U) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}$ . Again, we can find a cover of K by finitely many such open intervals. Intersecting these intervals with K and  $I_1, \ldots, I_k$  and taking the endpoints we get a partition  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = b$  with the following property: for each i we have that  $[x_{i-1}, x_i] \subset I_j$  for some j, or  $\omega_f([x_{i-1}, x_i]) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}$ . Thus,

$$U(P,f) - L(P,f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sup_{x \in [x_{i-1},x_i]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1},x_i]} f(x))(x_i - x_{i-1}) =$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\omega_f([x_{i-1},x_i])(x_i-x_{i-1}) \leq \sum_{\substack{\{x_{i-1},x_i\} \subset I_j \\ \text{for some } j}}\omega_f([x_{i-1},x_i])(x_i-x_{i-1}) + \sum_{\substack{\omega_f([x_{i-1},x_i]) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}}}\omega_f([x_{i-1},x_i])(x_i-x_{i-1}) \leq \\ \leq 2K\sum_{j=1}^{k}|I_j| + \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}(b-a) \leq 2K\frac{\varepsilon}{4K} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon,$$

which finishes the proof of the theorem.