

# Lecture Notes 9: Measure and Probability

## Part B: Measure and Multiple Integration

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# Outline

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## Measurable Rectangles

Let  $(X, \Sigma_X)$  and  $(Y, \Sigma_Y)$  be two measurable spaces, with their respective  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\Sigma_X$  and  $\Sigma_Y$ .

The Cartesian product of  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$X \times Y = \{(x, y) \mid x \in X, y \in Y\}$$

Let  $\Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y = \{A \times B \mid A \in \Sigma_X, B \in \Sigma_Y\}$

denote the set of **measurable rectangles**

that are the Cartesian product of two measurable sets

### Example

Suppose that  $X = \{a, b\}$  and  $Y = \{c, d\}$ ,

with  $\Sigma_X = 2^X$  and  $\Sigma_Y = 2^Y$ .

Then  $\#\Sigma_X = \#\Sigma_Y = 4$  and  $\#(\Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y) = 10$

after identifying  $E \times \emptyset = \emptyset \times F = \emptyset$  for all  $E \subseteq X$  and all  $F \subseteq Y$ .

But then  $(X \times Y) \setminus \{a, c\} = (X \times \{d\}) \cup (\{b\} \times Y) \notin \Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y$ .

This implies that  $\Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y$  is **not** a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

# The Product of Two Measurable Spaces

So we define the **product  $\sigma$ -algebra**, denoted by  $\Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y$ , as  $\sigma(\Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y)$ , the  $\sigma$ -algebra **generated** by  $\Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y$ .

It is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra that contains all measurable rectangles  $A \times B$  with  $A \in \Sigma_X$  and  $B \in \Sigma_Y$ .

And we define the **product** of the two measurable spaces  $(X, \Sigma_X)$  and  $(Y, \Sigma_Y)$  as the measurable space  $(X \times Y, \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y)$ .

The function  $X \times Y \ni (x, y) \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  of two variables  $(x, y)$  is **product measurable** just in case, for each Borel set  $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ , the inverse  $f^{-1}(E)$  is  $\Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y$ -measurable.

# The Product of Two Measure Spaces

Let  $(X, \Sigma_X, \mu_X)$  and  $(Y, \Sigma_Y, \mu_Y)$  be two measure spaces, and  $(X \times Y, \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y)$  the product measurable space.

Say that  $\mu$  on  $(X \times Y, \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y)$  is a **product measure** just in case it is a measure

that satisfies  $\mu(E \times F) = \mu_X(E) \times \mu_Y(F)$

for all measurable rectangles  $E \times F \in \Sigma_X \times \Sigma_Y$ .

Typically there is a unique product measure with this property, which we denote by  $\mu_X \otimes \mu_Y$ .

Then  $(X \times Y, \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y, \mu_X \otimes \mu_Y)$

is the **product** of the two measure spaces.

# The Fubini Theorem

## Theorem (Fubini)

*Provided that  $X \times Y \ni (x, y) \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  is measurable w.r.t. the product  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y$ , its integral w.r.t. the product measure  $\mu_X \otimes \mu_Y$  satisfies*

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{X \times Y} f(x, y) (\mu_X \otimes \mu_Y) (dx \times dy) \\ &= \int_X \left[ \int_Y f(x, y) \mu_Y(dy) \right] \mu_X(dx) \\ &= \int_Y \left[ \int_X f(x, y) \mu_X(dx) \right] \mu_Y(dy) \end{aligned}$$

That is, for any product measurable function, the order of integration is irrelevant.

# Product Measure as a Double Integral

## Corollary

For every  $E \in \Sigma_X \otimes \Sigma_Y$ , its product measure satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}(\mu_X \otimes \mu_Y)(E) &= \int_E 1_E(x, y) (\mu_X \otimes \mu_Y)(d x \times d y) \\ &= \int_X \left[ \int_Y 1_E(x, y) \mu_Y(d y) \right] \mu_X(d x) \\ &= \int_Y \left[ \int_X 1_E(x, y) \mu_X(d x) \right] \mu_Y(d y)\end{aligned}$$

# The Lebesgue Plane

## Example

Suppose the two measure spaces  $(X, \Sigma_X, \mu_X)$  and  $(Y, \Sigma_Y, \mu_Y)$  are both copies of the Lebesgue real line  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}, \lambda)$  where:

1.  $\mathcal{L}$  is the Lebesgue completion of the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$ ;
2.  $\lambda$  is the Lebesgue measure which satisfies  $\lambda(I) = b - a$  for any interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  with endpoints  $a$  and  $b$  satisfying  $a \leq b$ .

Then the measure product  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{L}, \lambda)^2$  is the **Lebesgue plane** in the form of the measure space  $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{A}, \alpha)$ , where:

1.  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}$  is the product of the Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$  with itself;
2.  $\alpha = \lambda \otimes \lambda$  has the property that, for each  $E \in \mathcal{A}$ , the measure  $\alpha(E)$  is its area.

In particular, the measure  $\alpha$  on the measurable space  $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{A})$  is the unique measure that satisfies  $\alpha(I_X \times I_Y) = \lambda(I_X)\lambda(I_Y)$  for every product measurable rectangle  $I_X \times I_Y$ .

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## Recalling the Definition of an Antiderivative in $\mathbb{R}$

The following definition is taken (with some changes of notation) from the review set out in FMEA, Section 4.1.

### Definition

Let  $I \ni x \mapsto f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

An **indefinite integral** of  $f$  is a function  $I \ni x \mapsto F(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  whose derivative, for all  $x$  in  $I$ , exists and is equal to  $f(x)$  — in symbols  $\int f(\xi) d\xi = F(x) + C$  where  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

In effect, this defines an equivalence class of functions, where  $F \sim G \iff \exists C \in \mathbb{R}; \forall x \in I : F(x) - G(x) = C$ .

An indefinite integral is often described as an **antiderivative**, or an **N-L integral** where “N-L” stands for “Newton–Leibniz”.

# Relating Definite to Indefinite Integrals

The following definition is taken (with some changes of notation) from EMEA6, Section 10.2, (10.2.3).

## Definition

Let  $I \ni x \mapsto f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

The **definite integral** of  $f$  over any interval  $[a, b] \subset I$  is

$$\int_a^b f(\xi) \, d\xi = F(b) - F(a)$$

where  $F$  is any indefinite integral of  $f$ .

# Existence of an Antiderivative

## Definition

Let  $I \ni x \mapsto f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  be any Lebesgue integrable function which is defined on an interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

For each fixed  $a \in \text{int } I$ , define the **N-L integral function**

$$(a, +\infty) \cap \text{int } I \ni x \mapsto F(x) := \int_a^x f(\xi) \, d\xi = \int_a^x f(\xi) \lambda(d\xi)$$

where  $\lambda$  denotes Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

## Theorem

*Let  $I \ni x \mapsto f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  be any integrable function defined on an interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ .*

*Then at any point  $x_0 \in I$  where  $f$  is continuous, the N-L integral function  $F$  is differentiable with  $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$ .*

## Proof.

The proof using upper and lower integrals is left as an exercise.  $\square$

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# A Definition of Antiderivative in Two Dimensions

## Definition

Let  $D \ni (x, y) \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ .

An **indefinite integral** of  $f$  is a function  $D \ni (x, y) \mapsto F(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  whose mixed partial derivative, for all  $(x, y) \in D$ , exists and is equal to  $f(x, y)$  — in symbols

$$\int f(\xi, \eta) \, d\xi \, d\eta = F(x, y) + C$$

$$\text{where } F''_{12}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F(x, y) = f(x, y)$$

## Definition of an Integral Function

Given any point  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , let

$$(a, b)_{\geq} := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \geq a \text{ and } y \geq b\}$$

denote the set  $\{(a, b)\} + \mathbb{R}_+^2$  that results when the non-negative quadrant  $\mathbb{R}_+^2$  is shifted so that its the bottom left-hand corner  $(0, 0)$  is moved to  $(a, b)$ .

### Definition

Let  $D \ni (x, y) \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ .

For each fixed  $(a, b) \in D$ , define the **definite integral function**

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b)_{\geq} \cap D \ni (x, y) \mapsto I_f(x, y) &:= \int_a^x \int_b^y f(\xi, \eta) \, d\xi \, d\eta \\ &= \int_a^x \int_b^y f(\xi, \eta) \lambda^2(d\xi \times d\eta)\end{aligned}$$

where  $\lambda^2$  denotes Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

# Existence of an Antiderivative: Statement of Theorem

## Theorem

Let  $D \ni (x, y) \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ .

Then given any fixed  $(a, b) \in D$ , the function

$$(a, b)_{\geq} \cap D \ni (x, y) \mapsto F(x, y) := \int_a^x \int_b^y f(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta \in \mathbb{R}$$

has a mixed second derivative  $F''_{12}(x, y) = F''_{21}(x, y)$  that equals  $f(x, y)$  at  $(x, y)$ .

# Existence of an Antiderivative: Proof of Theorem

## Proof.

Recall the definition

$$(a, b)_{\geq} \cap D \ni (x, y) \mapsto F(x, y) := \int_a^x \int_b^y f(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta \in \mathbb{R}$$

Differentiating this definition once partially w.r.t.  $x$  gives  $F'_1(x, y) = \int_b^y f(x, \eta) d\eta$ .

Differentiating this equation partially w.r.t.  $y$  gives  $F''_{21}(x, y) = f(x, y)$ .

Because  $F''_{21}(x, y) = f(x, y)$  is continuous, Young's theorem on the symmetry of second-order partial derivatives implies that  $F''_{12}(x, y) = F''_{21}(x, y)$ . □

# Useful Lemma in Two Dimensions

## Lemma

Let  $D \ni (x, y) \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ .

For every fixed  $(a, b) \in D$ , as well as  $d, e > 0$ , one has

$$\lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \int_a^{a+\epsilon d} \int_b^{b+\epsilon e} f(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta = d \cdot e \cdot f(a, b)$$

## Proof of Lemma

### Proof.

Let  $\langle \epsilon_k \rangle_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  be any sequence of positive numbers such that  $\epsilon_k \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

By the mean value theorem for double integrals, for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists a point  $(x_k, y_k)$  in the rectangle  $[a, a + \epsilon_k d] \times [b, b + \epsilon_k e] \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ , whose area is  $\epsilon_k^2 \cdot d \cdot e$ , such that

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon_k^2} \int_a^{a+\epsilon_k d} \int_b^{b+\epsilon_k e} f(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta = d \cdot e \cdot f(x_k, y_k)$$

Because  $a \leq x_k \leq a + \epsilon_k d$  and  $b \leq y_k \leq b + \epsilon_k e$ , taking limits as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  and so  $\epsilon_k \downarrow 0$  implies that  $x_k \rightarrow a$  and  $y_k \rightarrow b$ .

Then continuity of  $f$  implies that  $f(x_k, y_k)$  converges to  $f(a, b)$ , so the result follows. □

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## A Definition of Antiderivative in $n$ Dimensions

Given a function  $\mathbb{R}^n \supset S \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto F(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  
we introduce the notation  $\partial^n F(\mathbf{x})$  as an abbreviation  
for the  $n$ th order partial derivative  $\frac{\partial^n}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \dots \partial x_n} F(\mathbf{x})$ , when it exists.

### Definition

Let  $D \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function  
defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

An **indefinite integral** of  $f$  is a function  $D \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto F(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$   
whose mixed partial derivative  $\partial^n F(\mathbf{x})$ , for all  $\mathbf{x} \in D$ ,  
exists and is equal to  $f(\mathbf{x})$  — in symbols

$$\iint \dots \int f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = F(\mathbf{x}) + C \quad \text{where} \quad \partial^n F(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$$

## Orthants and Cuboids in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Given any two points  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  
define the following three subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

1.  $\mathbf{a}_{\geq} := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{a}\} = \{\mathbf{a}\} + \mathbb{R}_+^n$ , the set that results when the non-negative orthant  $\mathbb{R}_+^n$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is shifted so that the corner or extreme point at  $\mathbf{0}$  is moved to  $\mathbf{a}$ ;
2.  $\mathbf{b}_{\leq} := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}\} = \{\mathbf{b}\} - \mathbb{R}_+^n$ , the set that results when the non-positive orthant  $\mathbb{R}_-^n = -\mathbb{R}_+^n$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is shifted so that the corner or extreme point at  $\mathbf{0}$  is moved to  $\mathbf{b}$ ;
3.  $[\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}] := \mathbf{a}_{\geq} \cap \mathbf{b}_{\leq}$  denote the (possibly empty)  $n$ -dimensional cuboid  $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{a} \leq \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}\}$ .

## Definition of an Integral Function

For each  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , recall the definition  $\mathbb{R}^n \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto 1_E(\mathbf{x}) \in \{0, 1\}$  of the **indicator function** for the set  $E$  that satisfies  $1_E(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \iff \mathbf{x} \in E$ .

### Definition

Let  $D \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

For each fixed  $\mathbf{a} \in D$ , define the **definite integral function**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} \preceq \cap D \ni \mathbf{b} \mapsto F(\mathbf{b}) &:= \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} 1_D(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}) \lambda^n(d\mathbf{x}) \\ &= \int_D 1_{[\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]}(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}) \lambda^n(d\mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\lambda^n$  denotes Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Existence of an Antiderivative

## Theorem

Let  $D \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Then given any fixed  $\mathbf{a} \in D$ , for each  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{a}_{\geq} \cap D$ ,

the function  $\mathbf{b} \mapsto F(\mathbf{b}) := \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x}$

has a mixed  $n$ th derivative  $\partial^n F(\mathbf{x})$  that equals  $f(\mathbf{x})$  at  $\mathbf{x}$ .

## Proof.

The proof, based on integrating  $n$  times the function  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x})$ , is a straightforward extension of the proof given for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . □

## Useful Lemma in $n$ Dimensions

### Lemma

Let  $D \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

For every fixed  $\mathbf{a} \in D$  and  $\mathbf{e} = \langle e_i \rangle_{i=1}^n \in \mathbb{R}_{++}^n$ , one has

$$\lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^n} \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{a} + \epsilon \mathbf{e}} f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = \prod_{i=1}^n e_i \cdot f(\mathbf{a})$$

### Proof.

The proof is similar to that we gave when  $n = 2$ . □

### Remark

Recall that,

given the diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{diag} \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{diag}(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$ ,

the product  $\prod_{i=1}^n e_i$  equals the volume  $\text{vol}_n(\mathbf{diag} \mathbf{e})$

of the  $n$ -dimensional cuboid  $\sum_{i=1}^n [\mathbf{0}, e_i \mathbf{e}_i]$

where each  $\mathbf{e}_i = (\delta_{ij})_{j=1}^n$  is the  $i$ th column of the identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}$ .

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# Integration by Substitution in One Variable

Suppose that, in looking for an antiderivative function

$$\mathbb{R} \ni x \mapsto F(x) = \int f(x) dx \in \mathbb{R}$$

such that  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , we try the substitution  $x = g(u)$ .

This implies that  $dx = g'(u) du$ .

So the original antiderivative  $F(x) = \int f(x) dx$  becomes the transformed antiderivative  $G(u) = \int f(g(u))g'(u) du$ , which may be easier to find.

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## Change of Variables (FMEA, Theorem 4.7.2)

### Theorem

Suppose that  $A' \ni \mathbf{u} \mapsto \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}) = (g_1(\mathbf{u}), \dots, g_n(\mathbf{u})) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

is used to specify the transformation  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})$

from an open and bounded set  $A' \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  in “ $\mathbf{u}$ -space”

onto an open and bounded set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  in “ $\mathbf{x}$ -space”.

Suppose that the Jacobian matrix function

$$A' \ni \mathbf{u} \mapsto \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{\partial(g_1, \dots, g_n)}{\partial(u_1, \dots, u_n)}(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{g}}{\partial \mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{u}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

is bounded.

Let  $f$  be a bounded, continuous function defined on  $A$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \dots \int_A f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \, dx_1 \dots dx_n \\ = \int \dots \int_{A'} f(g_1(\mathbf{u}), \dots, g_n(\mathbf{u})) \, |\det \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{u})| \, du_1 \dots du_n \end{aligned}$$

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## An Instructive Example, I

In one dimension, integration by substitution leads to the formula  $\int f(g(u))g'(u) \, d u$ .

By contrast, in  $n$  dimensions, one has

$$\begin{aligned} \int \dots \int_A f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \, d x_1 \dots d x_n \\ = \int \dots \int_{A'} f(g_1(\mathbf{u}), \dots, g_n(\mathbf{u})) |\det \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{u})| \, d u_1 \dots d u_n \end{aligned}$$

with the **absolute value** of the Jacobian determinant.

Why is there this contrast?

## An Instructive Example, II

Consider the definite integral

$$J = \int_0^1 (1 - x) dx = \left|_0^1 \left(x - \frac{1}{2}x^2\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}\right.$$

Suppose we try to make things even simpler by using the substitution  $u = 1 - x$ .

Then  $u = 1$  when  $x = 0$  and  $u = 0$  when  $x = 1$ .

Also  $dx = -du$ , so the integral becomes

$$J = \int_1^0 u(-du) = \left|_1^0 \left(-\frac{1}{2}u^2\right) = \frac{1}{2}\right.$$

## An Instructive Example, III

We are integrating over the interval  $I = [0, 1]$ , so  $J = \int_I (1 - x) dx$ .

When we make the substitution  $u = 1 - x$ , where  $dx = (-1) du$ , the integration by substitution formula seems to suggest the transformation

$$\tilde{J} = \int_I u(-1) du = \int_0^1 u(-1) du = \Big|_0^1 \left(-\frac{1}{2}u^2\right) = -\frac{1}{2}$$

But then  $\tilde{J} = -J$ , so we evidently have a wrong answer!

To get the right answer, we need to consider the **absolute value** +1 of the Jacobian scalar  $-1$ .

This gives  $J^* = \int_I u(+1) du = \int_0^1 u du = \Big|_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2}u^2\right) = \frac{1}{2}$  which is the right answer.

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## Outline of a Justification in a Special Case, I

Let  $D \ni \mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$  be a  $C^1$  function defined on an open and convex domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Consider the special case when the mapping  $D' \ni \mathbf{u} \mapsto \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  determines a  $C^1$  diffeomorphism between a cuboid  $[\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}] \subset D'$  and its image  $\mathbf{g}([\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]) \subset D$ .

That is, suppose there exists a continuously differentiable bijection  $[\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}] \ni \mathbf{u} \mapsto \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}) \in \mathbf{g}([\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}])$  whose inverse  $\mathbf{g}([\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]) \ni \mathbf{v} \mapsto \mathbf{g}^{-1}(\mathbf{v}) \in [\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]$  is also continuously differentiable.

Suppose too that at each  $\mathbf{u} \in [\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]$ , each partial derivative  $\partial g_i / \partial x_j$  of the Jacobian matrix  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{u})$  is positive.

## Outline of a Justification in a Special Case, II

Now, given any  $\mathbf{e} \gg \mathbf{0}$ , the “useful lemma” can be applied, together with the fact that, with  $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$  and so  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a} + \epsilon\mathbf{e}) \approx \mathbf{c} + \epsilon\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a})\mathbf{e}$ , one has

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^n} \int_{\mathbf{g}([\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a} + \epsilon\mathbf{e}])} f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} &= \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^n} \int_{\mathbf{c}}^{\mathbf{c} + \epsilon\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a})\mathbf{e}} f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \text{vol}_n(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a}) \mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{e})) \cdot f(\mathbf{c})\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^n} \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{a} + \epsilon\mathbf{e}} f(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})) \, d\mathbf{u} = \text{vol}_n(\mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{e})) \cdot f(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a}))$$

## Outline of a Justification in a Special Case, II

Recall that, for any  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , the volume  $\text{vol}_n(\mathbf{A})$  of the paralleliped  $\sum_{j=1}^n [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{a}^j]$  spanned by its columns  $\mathbf{a}^j$  ( $j \in \mathbb{N}_n$ ) equals  $|\det \mathbf{A}|$ .

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{vol}_n(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a}) \mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{e})) &= |\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a}) \mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{e}))| \\ &= |\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a}))| \cdot |\det(\mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{e}))| \\ &= |\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a}))| \cdot \text{vol}_n(\mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{e}))\end{aligned}$$

For this special case when each element of  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{u})$  is positive, this allows us to conclude that when the variables of integration are transformed from  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})$  to  $\mathbf{u}$ , the integrand  $f(\mathbf{x})$  should be replaced, not by  $f(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}))$ , but by  $f(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})) \cdot |\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a}))|$ .

# Outline

## Products of Measure Spaces

Definition

## Integration and Antiderivatives

Antiderivatives in One Dimension

Antiderivatives in Two Dimensions

Antiderivatives in  $n$  Dimensions

## Changing Variables of Integration

Changing the Variable of Integration in One Dimension

Changing the Variables of Integration in  $n$  Dimensions

An Instructive Example

Outline of a Justification

## The Gaussian Integral

# Carl-Friedrich Gauss (1777–1855) on a German Banknote



Portrait with (i) the graph of the “bell curve”; (ii) part of the University of Göttingen (where Gauss was a professor);

(iii) the formula  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ .

# The Gaussian Integral, I

For each  $b \in \mathbb{R}_+$ , let  $S(b) := [-b, b]^2$  denote the Cartesian product of the line interval  $[-b, b]$  with itself.

That is,  $S(b)$  is the solid square subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  which is centred at the origin and has sides of length  $2b$ .

For each  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  define  $I(b) := \int_{-b}^{+b} e^{-x^2} dx$ .

Then the Fubini theorem implies that

$$\begin{aligned} [I(b)]^2 &= \left( \int_{-b}^{+b} e^{-x^2} dx \right) \left( \int_{-b}^{+b} e^{-y^2} dy \right) \\ &= \int_{-b}^{+b} \left( \int_{-b}^{+b} e^{-y^2} dy \right) e^{-x^2} dx \\ &= \int_{-b}^{+b} \int_{-b}^{+b} e^{-x^2} e^{-y^2} dx dy \\ &= \int_{S(b)} e^{-x^2-y^2} dx dy \end{aligned}$$

## The Gaussian Integral, II

Next, let  $D(b) := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq b^2\}$   
denote the disk of radius  $b$  centred at the origin.

Consider the transformation  $(r, \theta) \mapsto (x, y) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$   
from polar to Cartesian coordinates.

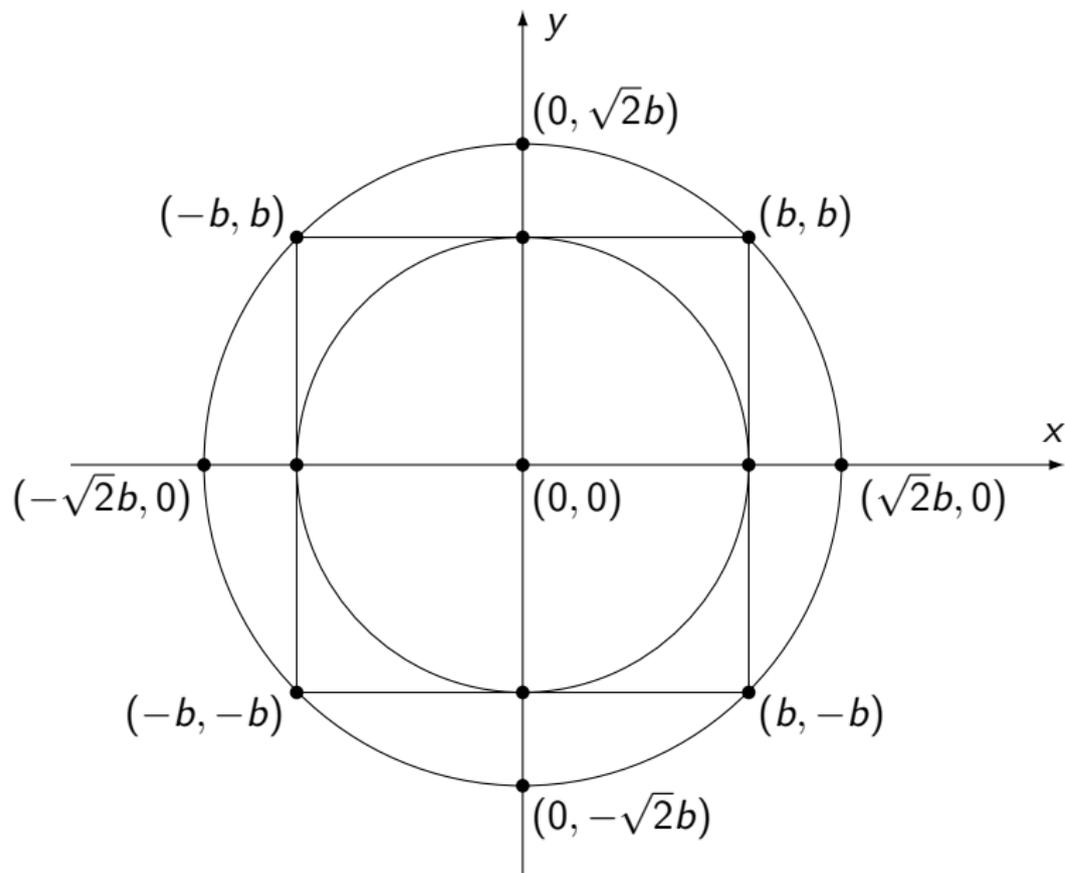
The Jacobian determinant of this transformation is

$$\begin{vmatrix} \partial x / \partial r & \partial x / \partial \theta \\ \partial y / \partial r & \partial y / \partial \theta \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) = r$$

It follows that changing to polar coordinates  
in the double integral  $J(b) = \int_{D(b)} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy$   
transforms it to

$$\begin{aligned} J(b) &= \int_0^b \int_0^{2\pi} r e^{-r^2} dr d\theta = \left( \int_0^b r e^{-r^2} dr \right) \left( \int_0^{2\pi} 1 d\theta \right) \\ &= \left[ -\frac{1}{2} e^{-r^2} \right]_0^b 2\pi = \pi(1 - e^{-b^2}) \end{aligned}$$

## Square with Inscribed and Circumscribed Circles



## The Gaussian Integral, III

In the previous slide:

1.  $S(b)$  is the square whose four corners are  $(\pm b, \pm b)$ ;
2.  $D(b)$  is the circular disk that is inscribed in  $S(b)$ ;
3.  $D(b\sqrt{2})$  is the circular disk that circumscribes  $S(b)$ .

It follows that  $D(b) \subset S(b) \subset D(b\sqrt{2})$ .

But the integrand  $e^{-x^2-y^2}$  is non-negative, so

$$\begin{aligned} J(b) &= \int_{D(b)} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy \\ &\leq [I(b)]^2 = \int_{S(b)} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy \\ &\leq J(b\sqrt{2}) = \int_{D(b\sqrt{2})} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy \end{aligned}$$

From the previous definitions and calculations, it follows that

$$\pi(1 - e^{-b^2}) = J(b) \leq [I(b)]^2 \leq J(b\sqrt{2}) = \pi(1 - e^{-2b^2})$$

# The Gaussian Integral, IV

Given  $I(b) = \int_{-b}^{+b} e^{-x^2} dx$ ,

we have shown that  $\pi(1 - e^{-b^2}) \leq [I(b)]^2 \leq \pi(1 - e^{-2b^2})$ .

As  $b \rightarrow \infty$ , both the lower bound  $\pi(1 - e^{-b^2})$  and upper bound  $\pi(1 - e^{-2b^2})$  converge to  $\pi$ .

From the squeezing principle, it follows that  $[I(b)]^2 \rightarrow \pi$ .

Because  $I(b)$  is evidently positive, one has  $I(b) \rightarrow \sqrt{\pi}$ .

This proves that:

## Theorem

The *Gaussian integral*  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$  equals  $\sqrt{\pi}$ .