

# Computational Statistics & Machine Learning

## Lecture 4

### Lebesgue Integral and Measure

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## Lecture Outline

Definition of  
Measure of Sets.

Lebesgue Measure.

Defining  
Probability  
Measures

Random Variables.

Radon-Nikodym  
Theorem

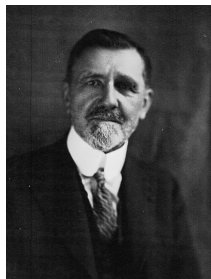
- ▶ Definition of Measure of Sets.
- ▶ Lebesgue Measure.
- ▶ Defining Probability Measures.
- ▶ Random Variables
- ▶ Radon-Nikodym Derivative

# Definition of Measure of Sets

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- ▶ Theory developed, by amongst others, Henri Lebesgue
- ▶ Generalisation of integration to more general spaces than  $\mathbb{R}^d$
- ▶ Provided means to define axiomatically probability theory



- ▶ Emile Borel 1932, Henri Lebesgue, Johan Radon 1920,

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# Definition of Measure of Sets

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- ▶ Conceptually all we are doing is generalising the notion of *length* on  $\mathbb{R}$ , *area* in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and *volume* in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , as we met in the definition of the Lebesgue integral
- ▶ Consider a set of objects  $X$ .
- ▶ A set  $\Sigma$  is generated from the original set of objects  $X$  which contains the set  $X$ , the empty set, and other subsets of  $X$ , and is closed under *countable* complementation, union and intersections
- ▶ The infinite set of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable, any set that can be put into one-to-one correspondence with the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}$  is said to be *countable*
- ▶ This set has the somewhat exotic title of a sigma-algebra - as it is stable under union or summation

# Definition of Measure of Sets

- ▶ For all sets  $E$  that belong to  $\Sigma$ ,  $E \in \Sigma$  then  $\mu(E) \geq 0$ , so all elements of  $\Sigma$  are measurable
- ▶ Obviously the empty set  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$  and if  $E_i \subseteq E_j$  then  $\mu(E_i) \leq \mu(E_j)$
- ▶ The measure assigned to the (countable) union of disjoint sets in  $\Sigma$  is the sum of the measures of each set

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_k)$$

- ▶ Both sets  $X, \Sigma$ , i.e.  $\{X, \Sigma\}$  defines a *Measurable Set*, and along with the measure  $\mu$  i.e.  $\{X, \Sigma, \mu\}$  defines what is called a *Measure Space*
- ▶ If  $(X, \Sigma_X)$  and  $(Y, \Sigma_Y)$  are both measurable spaces then a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is called a *measurable function* if for every measurable set under  $Y$  i.e.  $B \in \Sigma_Y$  the pre-image  $f^{-1}(B)$  is  $X$ -measurable i.e.  $f^{-1}(B) \in \Sigma_X$

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# Lebesgue Measure.

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- ▶ The construction of Lebesgue Measure is highly technical - whole courses devoted to this measure
- ▶ A continuous line segment on  $\mathbb{R}$ , say  $I = [a, b]$  has Lebesgue measure which is simply the length of the segment  $\mu(I) = b - a$
- ▶ There are many technical issues, for example the set of rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$  form part of the real line
- ▶ The Lebesgue measure of a single rational number, say  $\frac{1}{4}$ , is  $\mu(\frac{1}{4}) = 0$ , now by additivity of measures  $\mu(\mathbb{Q}) = 0$
- ▶ Countable sets have Lebesgue measure zero

# Defining Probability Measures

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- Formal definition of measure theoretic foundations of Probability Theory



- Andrei Kolmogorov 1903 - 1987

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- ▶ We have a measure space  $\{X, \Sigma, \mu\}$  with the properties of the  $\sigma$ -algebra and measure as before
- ▶ One additional property, that is  $\mu(X) = 1$  turns the general definition of the measure space into that of a *Probability Space*



# Defining Probability Measures

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- ▶ Defining a set  $\Omega$  consisting of elements which represents all possible outcomes of an execution of the system, e.g. the single roll of a casino dice would have  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ . The set  $\Omega$  is typically referred to as the *Sample Space*
- ▶ The  $\sigma$ -algebra, usually denoted as  $\mathcal{F}$ , will be defined in terms of all the outcomes we want to consider, which will be certain subsets of the Sample Space, e.g. the full power set or  $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{1, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 6\}, \Omega\}$  - two outcomes either an even or odd number
- ▶ The measure function, the probability is positive and between zero and one,  $P$ . The outcomes in  $\mathcal{F}$  would each have probability measure  $P(\emptyset) = 0, P(\{1, 3, 5\}) = P(\{2, 4, 6\}) = 0.5, P(\Omega) = 1$ .
- ▶ The probability space is then denoted as  $\{\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P\}$

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- ▶ For continuous spaces the construction of a measure space is considerably more technical
- ▶ Lebesgue measure and the definition of Lebesgue measurable spaces is an enormous theoretical endeavour
- ▶ We will content ourselves that such spaces exist and can be defined, for exactly the unit line  $[0, 1]$  with uniform probability is developed via Lebesgue measure
- ▶ We have met the idea of a measurable function already, lets see how this can be useful in an additional definition

- ▶ Consider the probability space  $\{\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P\}$  and the measurable space  $\{E, \mathcal{E}\}$
- ▶ As both spaces are measurable there will be an associated measurable function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow E$
- ▶ From the previous definition the function is measurable if  $B \in \mathcal{E}$  the pre-image  $X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in B\} \in \mathcal{F}$
- ▶ An element of  $\mathcal{F}$  is a set of possible outcomes that are measurable and the probability of these outcomes is defined by  $P$
- ▶ If  $E$  is the real line, the  $\sigma$ -algebra is technically defined by a Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra (long story)
- ▶ In this case the function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a real-valued *Random Variable* such that  $\{\omega : X(\omega) \leq r\} \in \mathcal{F} \quad \forall r \in \mathbb{R}$

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- ▶ Now we can see the power of the generality of the Lebesgue integral  $\int f d\mu$
- ▶ Let us define the expectation of a random variable (a measurable function) as defined in the last slide

$$\mathbb{E}\{X\} = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

- ▶ This is the Lebesgue integral of the measurable function  $X$  with respect to the measure (probability)  $P$
- ▶ A very general tool for integration as the probability measure and the random function can be defined on any space, e.g. function spaces and stochastic processes

# Radon-Nikodym Theorem

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- ▶ Consider two probability measures,  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  on the same measurable space  $\{X, \Sigma\}$
- ▶ If for every set  $A \in \Sigma$  where  $\nu(A) = 0$  it holds that  $\mu(A) = 0$  then  $\mu$  is *absolutely continuous* with respect to  $\nu$  - denoted as  $\mu \ll \nu$
- ▶ This provides a means to define new measures from old ones - something we utilised - in an ad-hoc manner - when defining the Importance Sampling method
- ▶ If  $P$  is a probability measure, then a new probability measure  $Q$  can be defined if there exists a function  $L(\omega)$  such that  $dQ(\omega) = L(\omega)dP(\omega)$

# Radon-Nikodym Theorem

- ▶ For any measurable set  $B$  then  $Q(B) = \int_B L(\omega) dP(\omega)$
- ▶ For this to hold then both  $L(\omega) \geq 0$  almost surely with respect to  $P$  and  $\int_{\Omega} L(\omega) dP(\omega) = 1$
- ▶ In words  $Q$  is a probability measure derived from  $P$  and  $Q(B)$  is the probability of the event under  $Q$ .
- ▶ Which leads to the relationship you have already exploited

$$\int_{\Omega} F(\omega) dQ(\omega) = \int_{\Omega} F(\omega) L(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

- ▶ The function

$$L(\omega) = \frac{dQ(\omega)}{dP(\omega)}$$

is the Radon-Nikodym derivative if  $Q \ll P$

- ▶ Hugely powerful as it enables definition of probabilities over arbitrary sets e.g. stochastic processes and functions

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# Radon-Nikodym Theorem

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- ▶ Finally an example. Consider random variable  $X$  on  $\mathbb{R}$
- ▶ If  $B$  is a small neighbourhood around an outcome  $X = x \in \mathbb{R}$  then its probability is

$$\int_B dP = \int_B L(x) d\mu(x) = \int_B L(x) dx$$

where  $dx$  is Lebesgue Measure on  $\mathbb{R}$

- ▶ As previously defined

$$L(x) = \frac{dP(x)}{dx}$$

which defines the change of measure from Lebesgue to probability measure  $P$

- ▶ Such a Radon-Nikodym derivative w.r.t Lebesgue measure is termed the Probability Density function of  $P$  w.r.t. Lebesgue Measure

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- ▶ For a random variable with standard Gaussian measure then

$$dP = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx$$

- ▶ Then using Lebesgue integration

$$\begin{aligned} P(X(\omega) \in B) &= \int_{\Omega} I_{\{X(\omega) \in B\}} dP = \int_B \frac{dP}{dx} dx \\ &= \int_B \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Which are the forms of integrals we met in Lecture.1 and Lecture.2, now defined in a systematic and general manner as we shall see in subsequent lectures