

Lecture 3: The Boolean Algebra, σ -Algebra and Limits in Set Theory

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1 Set Theory Basics

1.1 Set, Function and Axiom of Choice

- **Definition** Given a set X , the collection of all subsets of X , denoted as 2^X , is defined as

$$2^X := \{E : E \subseteq X\}$$

- **Remark** The followings are basic operation on 2^X : For $A, B \in 2^X$,

1. **Inclusion**: $A \subseteq B$ if and only if $\forall x \in A, x \in B$.
2. **Union**: $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \vee x \in B\}$.
3. **Intersection**: $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \wedge x \in B\}$.
4. **Difference**: $A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \wedge x \notin B\}$.
5. **Complement**: $A^c = X \setminus A = \{x : x \in X \wedge x \notin A\}$.
6. **Symmetric Difference**: $A \Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) = \{x \in X : x \notin A \vee x \notin B\}$.

We have *deMorgan's laws*:

$$\left(\bigcup_{a \in A} U_a \right)^c = \bigcap_{a \in A} U_a^c, \quad \left(\bigcap_{a \in A} U_a \right)^c = \bigcup_{a \in A} U_a^c$$

- **Remark** Note that the following equality is useful:

$$A \Delta B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B)$$

- **Definition** An *equivalence relation* on X is a relation R on X such that

1. (**Reflexivity**): xRx for all $x \in X$;
2. (**Symmetry**): xRy if and only if yRx for all $x, y \in X$;
3. (**Transitivity**): xRy and yRz then xRz for all $x, y, z \in X$.

The *equivalence class* of an element x is denoted as $[x] := \{y \in X : xRy\}$. We usually denote the equivalence relation R as \sim . The set of equivalence classes provides **a partition of the set** X in that every $z \in X$ can must belong to *only one equivalence class* $[x]$. That is $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ if $x \not\sim y$ and $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} [x]$.

The set of all equivalence classes of X by \sim , denoted $X/\sim := \{[x] : x \in X\}$, is **the quotient set** of X by \sim . $X = \bigcup_{C \in X/\sim} C$.

- **Definition** $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a **function** if for each $x \in X$, there exists a unique $y = f(x) \in Y$. X is called the **domain** of f and Y is called the **codomain** of f . $f(X) = \{y \in Y : y = f(x)\}$ is called the **range** of f

The **pre-image** of f is defined as

$$f^{-1}(E) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in E\}.$$

- **Remark** The pre-image operation *commutes* with *all basic set operations*:

$$\begin{aligned}
A \subseteq B &\Rightarrow f^{-1}(A) \subseteq f^{-1}(B) \\
f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) &= \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(E_{\alpha}) \\
f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) &= \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(E_{\alpha}) \\
f^{-1}(A \setminus B) &= f^{-1}(A) \setminus f^{-1}(B) \\
f^{-1}(E^c) &= (f^{-1}(E))^c
\end{aligned}$$

- **Remark** The image operation *commutes* with only *inclusion and union operations*:

$$\begin{aligned}
A \subseteq B &\Rightarrow f(A) \subseteq f(B) \\
f\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) &= \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f(E_{\alpha})
\end{aligned}$$

For the other operations:

$$\begin{aligned}
f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) &\subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} f(E_{\alpha}) \\
f(A \setminus B) &\supseteq f(A) \setminus f(B)
\end{aligned}$$

- **Definition** A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **surjective, or, onto**, if for every $y \in Y$, there exists a $x \in X$ such that $y = f(x)$. In set theory notation:

$$f : X \rightarrow Y \text{ is surjective} \Leftrightarrow f^{-1}(Y) \subseteq X.$$

A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **injective**, if for every $x_1 \neq x_2 \in X$, their map $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$, or equivalently, $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ only if $x_1 = x_2$.

If a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is both *surjective* and *injective*, we say f is a **bijective**, or there exists an *one-to-one correspondence* between X and Y . Thus $Y = f(X)$.

- **Remark**

$$\begin{aligned}
f^{-1}(f(B)) &\supseteq B, \quad \forall B \subseteq X \\
f(f^{-1}(E)) &\subseteq E, \quad \forall E \subseteq Y \\
f : X \rightarrow Y \text{ is surjective} &\Leftrightarrow f^{-1}(Y) \subseteq X. \\
&\Rightarrow f(f^{-1}(E)) = E. \\
f : X \rightarrow Y \text{ is injective} &\Rightarrow f^{-1}(f(B)) = B \\
&\Rightarrow f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} f(E_{\alpha}) \\
&\Rightarrow f(A \setminus B) = f(A) \setminus f(B)
\end{aligned}$$

- **Proposition 1.1** *The following statements for composite functions are true:*

1. If f, g are both *injective*, then $g \circ f$ is *injective*.
2. If f, g are both *surjective*, then $g \circ f$ is *surjective*.
3. Every **injective** map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ can be written as $f = \iota \circ f_R$ where $f_R : X \rightarrow f(X)$ is a **bijective** map and ι is the **inclusion map**.
4. Every **surjective** map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ can be written as $f = f_p \circ \pi$ where $\pi : X \rightarrow (X/\sim)$ is a **quotient map** (projection $x \mapsto [x]$) for the equivalent relation $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow f(x) = f(y)$ and $f_p : (X/\sim) \rightarrow Y$ is defined as $f_p([x]) = f(x)$ **constant** in each coset $[x]$.
5. If $g \circ f$ is **injective**, then f is **injective**.
6. If $g \circ f$ is **surjective**, then g is **surjective**.

- **Principle 1.2 (The Axiom of Choice).**

If $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ is a nonempty collection of nonempty sets, then $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$ is non-empty.

- **Corollary 1.3** If $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ is a **disjoint** collection of nonempty sets, there is a set $Y \subset \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$ such that $Y \cap X_\alpha$ contains **precisely one element** for each $\alpha \in A$.

1.2 The Limits of Sets

- **Definition** A *nested* sequence of sets E_1, E_2, \dots is **nondecreasing** if $E_i \subseteq E_{i+1}$, and it is **nonincreasing** if $E_i \supseteq E_{i+1}$.
- **Definition** The **infimum** and the **supremum** of a collection of sets $\{E_n\}_{n \geq k}$ is given by

$$\inf_{n \geq k} E_n = \bigcap_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n, \quad \sup_{n \geq k} E_n = \bigcup_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n,$$

respectively.

- **Remark** Note that

1. $\inf_{n \geq 1} E_n, \dots, \inf_{n \geq k} E_n, \dots$ is **monotone increasing** as k increases since

$$\inf_{n \geq k} E_n \subseteq \inf_{n \geq k+1} E_n.$$

The **more** sets that are involved in the **intersection**, the **less** cardinality of the intersection will be. As k increases, **less** sets are involved in the intersection.

2. $\sup_{n \geq 1} E_n, \dots, \sup_{n \geq k} E_n, \dots$ is **monotone decreasing** as k increases since

$$\sup_{n \geq k} E_n \supseteq \sup_{n \geq k+1} E_n.$$

The **more** sets that are involved in the **union**, the **more** cardinality of the union will be. As k increases, **less** sets are involved in the union.

- **Definition** [Resnick, 2013]

The **limit infimum** and **limit supremum** is defined as

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n, \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=k}^{\infty} E_n, \quad (1)$$

respectively.

- **Remark** It is clear that for *nested sequence* $\{E_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ that is *nondecreasing*,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n$$

so define the *limit* of monotone increasing nested sets as $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$.

Similarly, for *nonincreasing nested sets* $\{E_n\}_{n \geq 1}$,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n$$

so define the *limit* of monotone decreasing nested sets as $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$.

- **Remark** (*Limit Infimum and Limit Supremum of a Sequence*)

Note that the notion

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \equiv \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{n \geq k} a_n = \sup_{k \geq 1} \inf_{n \geq k} a_n$$

and

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \equiv \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{n \geq k} a_n = \inf_{k \geq 1} \sup_{n \geq k} a_n.$$

It is the *limit infimum* and *limit supremum* among all the *accumulation points* of a sequence (a_n) , respectively.

Proposition 1.4 *The following properties hold*

1. $\inf_{n \geq 1} a_n \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq \sup_{n \geq 1} a_n$, if the total infimum and total supremum exists.

2.

$$\begin{aligned} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) &\geq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n, \\ \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) &\leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n. \end{aligned}$$

3. A **lower bound** on $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \geq c$ means that the sequence a_n will “no smaller than the case ...” and c is a **lower bound** for all possible sub-sequence (a_{k_n}) .
4. An **upper bound** on $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq b$ means that the sequence a_n will “no greater than the case ...” and b is a **upper bound** for all possible sub-sequence (a_{k_n}) .

Unlike the *limit operation*, which may not exist for some sequence (a_n) , **the limit infimum and limit supremum are always exists**, provided that the sequence lies in any **partially ordered set**, where the suprema and infima exist, such as in a complete lattice. The *limit* exists **if and only if** the *limit infimum* and *limit supremum* are equal: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$.

- **Remark** Under complement operation, we have

$$\left(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n \right)^c = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n$$

and *vice versa*.

- **Proposition 1.5** The *interpretation* of limit infimum and limit supremum

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \{x : x \in E_n, \text{ for all but finite } n\} = \{x : \exists k, \forall n \geq k, x \in E_n\}$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \{x : x \in E_n, \text{ for infinitely many } n\} = \{x : \exists k, \forall n \geq k, x \in E_n\}$$

Proof: Define the indicator function of set $\mathbb{1}_C(x) = \mathbb{1}\{x \in C\} = 1$, if $x \in C$; $= 0$, o.w. Then

$$x \in \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{k \geq 1} \bigcup_{n \geq k} E_n$$

indicates that for $k \geq 1$, there exists some $n_k > k$ such that $x \in E_{n_k} \Leftrightarrow \mathbb{1}_{E_{n_k}}(x) = 1$. Therefore

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n}(x) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_{n_k}}(x) = \infty,$$

and

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n \subseteq \left\{ x \mid \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n}(x) = \infty \right\}.$$

For the converse part, see that for any $x \in \left\{ x \mid \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n}(x) = \infty \right\}$, it indicates that there exists an infinite sub-sequence with indices $\{n_k\} \rightarrow \infty$ such that $x \in E_{n_k}$, so, by definition, for any $k > 1$, there exists some $n \geq k$, such that $x \in E_n$, or $x \in \bigcup_{n \geq k} E_n$. Clearly, $x \in \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n \Rightarrow \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n \supseteq \left\{ x \mid \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n}(x) = \infty \right\}$. This completes the proof for limit supremum.

For limit infimum, consider the following set

$$\left\{ x \mid \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) < \infty \right\}.$$

To show $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n \subseteq \left\{ x \mid \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) < \infty \right\}$, we see that $x \in \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n$, iff for some $k \geq 1$, $x \in E_n \Rightarrow \mathbb{1}_{E_n}(x) = 1$; or $\mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) = 0$ holds for all $n \geq k \Rightarrow \sum_{n \geq k} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) = 0$.

Choose one such k , the following decomposition holds

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) &= \sum_{n=1}^k \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) + \sum_{n \geq k} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) \\ &\leq k < \infty,\end{aligned}$$

which prove the inclusion part.

To show the converse, see that $x \in \left\{x \mid \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) < \infty\right\}$, means that it is possible to find $k \geq 1$ such that $\sum_{n \geq k} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) = 0$, which means that $x \in E_n, \forall n \geq k$, therefore $x \in \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n \Rightarrow \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n \supset \left\{x \mid \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{E_n^c}(x) < \infty\right\}$. ■

- **Remark** Note

1. $\liminf E_n$ is “**lower bound**” for the event $\{x \in E_n\}$, since $x \in \liminf E_n$ indicates only **finitely many** of n that x is **not** in E_n ; In other words, (a_n) will “**finally**” lies in E_n , or “**with a few exceptions, ...**”

It is an assertion even in the **worst** case.

2. \limsup is “**upper bound**” for the event $\{x \in E_n\}$, as it indicates there **exists** a **infinite sub-sequence**, k_n , such that $x \in E_{k_n}$ for every k_n .

It is an assertion for the **infinitely often occurrence** of a event.

2 Development of σ -Algebra

2.1 Boolean Algebra

- **Definition** [Tao, 2011]

Let X be a set. A (concrete) Boolean algebra (Boolean field) on X is a collection of subsets \mathcal{B} of X which obeys the following properties:

1. (**Empty set**) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$;
2. (**Complements**) For any $E \in \mathcal{B}$, then $E^c \equiv (X \setminus E) \in \mathcal{B}$;
3. (**Finite unions**) For any $E, F \in \mathcal{B}$, $E \cup F \in \mathcal{B}$.

We sometimes say that E is \mathcal{B} -**measurable**, or **measurable with respect to \mathcal{B}** , if $E \in \mathcal{B}$.

- **Remark** Note that **the finite difference** $A - B$, $A \Delta B$ and **intersections** $A \cap B$ are also **closed** under the Boolean algebra.

- **Definition** A **field (algebra)** is a non-empty collection of subsets in X that is **closed** under **finite union** and **complements**.

It is just a subset (sub-algebra) of Boolean field $(X, \subset, \cup, \cdot^c)$.

- **Definition** Given two Boolean algebras $\mathcal{B}, (\mathcal{B})'$ on X , we say that $(\mathcal{B})'$ is **finer** than, a **sub-algebra** of, or a refinement of \mathcal{B} , or that \mathcal{B} is coarser than or a coarsening of $(\mathcal{B})'$, if $\mathcal{B} \subset (\mathcal{B})'$.

- **Remark** In *abstract Boolean algebra*, \cup is replaced by *join* operation \vee and \cap is replaced by *meet* operation \wedge .
- **Remark** The definition of Boolean algebra *does not requires* X to have a *topology*. It focus on a collection of subsets that is *closed* under the *set union operation* \cup and the set complement \cdot^c . In other words, the concerns is the *set-algebraic property* not the topological property. Note that the set intersection operation \cap can be obtained from composite of set union and set complement operations.
- **Definition** [Tao, 2011]
Let X be partitioned into a union $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$ of **disjoint sets** A_α , which we refer to as **atoms**. Then this partition generates a **Boolean algebra** $\mathcal{A}((A_\alpha)_{\alpha \in I})$, defined as the collection of all the sets E of the form $E = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ for some $J \subseteq I$, i.e. $\mathcal{A}((A_\alpha)_{\alpha \in I})$ is the collection of all sets that can be represented as **the union of one or more atoms**. Then $\mathcal{A}((A_\alpha)_{\alpha \in I})$ is a **Boolean algebra**, and we refer to it as the *atomic algebra* with atoms $(A_\alpha)_{\alpha \in I}$.
- **Definition** A Boolean algebra is **finite** if it only consists of *finite many of subsets* (i.e., its cardinality is finite) [Tao, 2011].
- **Remark** The definition of **atomic algebra** as generated by **atoms** resembles the definition of **topology** generated by **basis**.
 - In both cases, a subset in the collection of *atomic algebra / topology* is seen as the **union** of some subsets in the *atoms / basis*.
 - On the other hand, **atoms** are all **disjoint**, while *sets in basis* are **not necessarily disjoint**. In fact, by definition, for any two sets in basis that have nonempty intersection, there must exists a third set in basis that is a subset of the intersection.
- **Example** The followings are examples of *Boolean algebra*:
 1. **The trivial algebra** $\{X, \emptyset\}$ is *atomic algebra* with atoms $\{X\}$.
 2. **The discrete algebra** 2^X is *atomic algebra* generated by collection of **singletons** $\{x\}$.
- **Remark** The *non-empty atoms* of an *atomic algebra* are determined up to **relabeling**. More precisely, if $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha' \in I'} A'_{\alpha'}$ are two partitions of X into non-empty atoms $A_\alpha, A'_{\alpha'}$, then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha' \in I'} A'_{\alpha'}$ if and only if exists a **bijection** $\phi : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha'$ such that $A'_{\phi(\alpha)} = A_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in I$. [Tao, 2011]
- **Remark** There is a **one-to-one correspondence** between **finite Boolean algebras** on X and **finite partitions** of X into non-empty sets. (its cardinality is 2^m , for some m). [Tao, 2011]
- **Definition** [Tao, 2011]
Let n be an integer. The **dyadic algebra** \mathcal{D}_n at scale 2^{-n} in \mathbb{R}^d is defined to be the atomic algebra generated by the *half-open dyadic cubes*

$$\left[\frac{i_1}{2^n}, \frac{i_1+1}{2^n} \right) \times \cdots \times \left[\frac{i_d}{2^n}, \frac{i_d+1}{2^n} \right)$$
 of length 2^{-n} . Note that $\mathcal{D}_n \subset \mathcal{D}_{n+1}$.
- **Example** Here are some more examples for Boolean algebra [Tao, 2011]

1. The collection $\overline{\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]}$ of **elementary sets** (boxes and its finite union and intersections) and co-elementary sets (its complements is elementary) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
2. The collection $\overline{\mathcal{J}[\mathbb{R}^d]}$ of **Jordan measureable set** (contained in finite union of elementary sets) and co-Jordan measureable sets in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
3. The collection $\mathcal{L}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of **Lebesgue measureable set** (contained in countable union of elementary sets) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
4. The collection $\mathcal{N}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of **Lebesgue null sets** and **co-null sets** (its complement is null set) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra. we refer to it as **the null algebra** on \mathbb{R}^d .
5. Given $Y \subset X$, and \mathcal{B} is a Boolean algebra on X , then the **restriction** of algebra on Y is $\mathcal{B}|_Y = \mathcal{B} \cap 2^Y = \{E \cap Y : E \in \mathcal{B}\}$, which is a **sub-algebra**.
6. The **dyadic algebra** \mathcal{D}_n at **scale** 2^{-n} in \mathbb{R}^d is defined to be **the atomic algebra** generated by the **half-open dyadic cubes** of length 2^{-n} .
7. Note that $\{\emptyset, \mathbb{R}^d\} \subset \mathcal{D}_n \subset \overline{\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]} = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} \mathcal{D}_n \subset \overline{\mathcal{J}[\mathbb{R}^d]} \subset L[\mathbb{R}^d] \subset 2^{\mathbb{R}^d}$. $N[\mathbb{R}^d] \subset L[\mathbb{R}^d]$. Although \mathcal{D}_n for given n is atomic algebra, $\overline{\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]}$ and all its predecessors are **non-atomic**, since they do not have finite cardinality.
8. $\bigwedge_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{B}_\alpha \equiv \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{B}_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in I$ is a Boolean algebra (I is arbitrary), which is **the finest algebra** that is **coarser** than any \mathcal{B}_α .

• **Example (Boolean Algebra Generated by \mathcal{F})**

Definition Given a collection of sets \mathcal{F} , then $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is **the Boolean algebra generated by \mathcal{F}** , i.e. the **intersection** of all the Boolean algebras that contain \mathcal{F} .

$$\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool} = \bigwedge_{\mathcal{B}_\alpha \supseteq \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{B}_\alpha.$$

Proposition 2.1 We have the following results regarding $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$

1. $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is the **coarest** Boolean algebra that contains \mathcal{F} .
2. Note that \mathcal{F} is a Boolean algebra if and only if $\mathcal{F} = \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$.
3. If \mathcal{F} is collection of n **sets**, then $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is a **finite Boolean algebra** with cardinality 2^{2^n} .

Exercise 2.2 (Recursive description of a generated Boolean algebra). [Tao, 2011]

Let \mathcal{F} be a collection of sets in a set X . Define the sets $\mathcal{F}_0, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \dots$ **recursively** as follows:

1. $\mathcal{F}_0 := \mathcal{F}$.
2. For each $n \geq 1$, we define \mathcal{F}_n to be the collection of all sets that **either** the **union** of a **finite number** of sets in \mathcal{F}_{n-1} (including the empty union \emptyset), or the **complement** of such a union.

Show that $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool} = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$.

2.2 σ -Algebra

- **Definition** Given space X , a σ -field (or, σ -algebra) \mathcal{F} is a non-empty collection of *subsets* in X such that

1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}; X \in \mathcal{F};$
2. **Complements:** For any $B \in \mathcal{F}$, then $B^c \equiv (X - B) \in \mathcal{F};$
3. **Countable union:** for any sub-collection $\{B_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{F},$

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k \in \mathcal{F};$$

Also, **Countable intersection:** $\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k \in \mathcal{F}$, **de Morgan's law.**

We refer to the pair (X, \mathcal{F}) of a set X together with a σ -algebra on that set as **a measurable space**.

- **Remark** The prefix σ usually denotes “**countable union**”. Other instances of this prefix include a **σ -compact topological space** (a countable union of compact sets), a **σ -finite measure space** (a countable union of sets of finite measure), or **F_{σ} set** (a countable union of closed sets) for other instances of this prefix.
- **Remark** A σ -algebra can be **equivalently** defined as an algebra that is closed under **countable disjoint union**. Using the following transformation, for given $\{E_j\}$,

$$F_j = E_j - \bigcup_{i=1}^{j-1} E_i, \forall j \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then $F_i \cap F_j = \emptyset, i \neq j$ and $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} E_j = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} F_j$.

- **Remark** A field (algebra) may not be a σ -field since it *may not be closure under countable union*.
- **Remark** **The closure under countable union** for σ -algebra is the key property to make sure that it is a proper *domain* to define **measure**, since a desired property for a *measure* μ is the **countably additive over disjoint sets**: $\mu(\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} A_t) = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_t)$. Thus $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} A_t$ need to be included in the domain of a proper measure.
- **Remark** (**σ -Algebra vs. Boolean Algebra**)
 1. **Proposition 2.3** Any σ -algebra is Boolean-algebra.
 2. **Proposition 2.4** Any **atomic algebra** is σ -algebra.
 3. **Proposition 2.5** An algebra of **finite** set X is a σ -algebra of X and it is **the power set** 2^X itself.
- **Example** Here are some more examples for σ -algebra [Tao, 2011]
 1. **The trivial algebra** $\{X, \emptyset\}$ is σ -algebra since it is an atomic algebra.
 2. **The discrete algebra** 2^X is σ -algebra since it is an atomic algebra.
 3. All the **finite Boolean algebra** is σ -algebra.

4. The **dyadic algebra** \mathcal{D}_n at **scale** 2^{-n} in \mathbb{R}^d is a σ -**algebra** since it is an atomic algebra.
 5. The collection $\mathcal{L}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of **Lebesgue measurable set** (contained in countable union of elementary sets) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra.
 6. The collection $\mathcal{N}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of **Lebesgue null sets** and **co-null sets** (its complement is null set) in \mathbb{R}^d forms a Boolean algebra. we refer to it as **the null algebra** on \mathbb{R}^d .
 7. Given $Y \subset X$ as a subspace of X , and \mathcal{B} is a σ -algebra on X , then the **restriction** of algebra on Y is $\mathcal{B}|_Y = \mathcal{B} \cap 2^Y = \{E \cap Y : E \in \mathcal{B}\}$, which is a σ -**algebra on subspace** Y .
 8. Note that both the collections of *elementary sets* $\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ and **the Jordan measurable sets** $\mathcal{J}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ **do not form a σ -algebra**.
 9. If $\{\mathcal{B}_\alpha\}$ are σ -algebras, then $\bigwedge_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{B}_\alpha \equiv \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{B}_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in I$ is a σ -algebra (I is arbitrary), which is **the finest σ -algebra** that is **coarser** than any \mathcal{B}_α .
- **Example (σ -Algebra Generated by \mathcal{F})**

Definition Denote $\sigma(\mathcal{F}) := \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle$ as **the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{F}** , given by

$$\sigma(\mathcal{F}) = \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle = \bigwedge_{\mathcal{B}_\alpha \supseteq \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{B}_\alpha.$$

It is the **coarsest** σ -algebra containing \mathcal{F} , for any σ -algebra that contains \mathcal{F} .

It is easy to see that

$$\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool} \subseteq \langle \mathcal{F} \rangle$$

The equality holds if and only if $\langle \mathcal{F} \rangle_{bool}$ is a σ -algebra.

Proposition 2.6 (Recursive description of a generated σ -algebra). [Tao, 2011]
 $\sigma(\mathcal{F})$ is generated according to the following procedure:

1. For every set $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $A \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$; $\mathcal{F} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F})$;
2. Take the **finite union** and **finite intersection** of any **subcollections** $\{A_k\} \subset \mathcal{F}$, put $\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$, $n \geq 1$ and $\bigcap_{k=1}^n A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$, $n \geq 1$;
3. Put the **countably infinite union** and **intersections** of any **subcollections** $\{A_k\} \subset \mathcal{F}$, put $\bigcup_{k=1}^\infty A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$ and $\bigcap_{k=1}^\infty A_k \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$;
4. Put the **complements** $A^c \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$, $\forall A \in \sigma(\mathcal{F})$;

Finally we have the **monotonicity**:

1. **Proposition 2.7** If $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2$, then $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_1) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F}_2)$.
2. **Proposition 2.8** If $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2 \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F}_1)$, then $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_2) = \sigma(\mathcal{F}_1)$.
3. **Proposition 2.9** Let \mathcal{F} be a σ -algebra on a set X . Let $S \subset X$ be a subset of X .

Then

$$\sigma(\mathcal{F} \cup \{S\}) = \{(E_1 \cap S) \cup (E_2 \cap S^c) : E_1, E_2 \in \mathcal{F}\}$$

where σ denotes **generated σ -algebra**.

- **Remark** Note that $\mathcal{F}_1 \cup \mathcal{F}_2$ is usually not a σ -algebra.

2.3 Borel σ -Algebra

- **Definition** (*Borel σ -algebra*). [Tao, 2011]

Let X be a *metric space*, or more generally *a topological space*. The *Borel σ -algebra* $\mathcal{B}[X]$ of X is defined to be the σ -algebra generated by the open subsets of X .

Elements of $\mathcal{B}[X]$ will be called *Borel measurable*.

- **Example** The followings are examples of *Borel measurable subsets* in X :
 1. Any *the open set* and *the closed set* (which are *complements* of open sets), including *The arbitrary union* of open sets, and *arbitrary intersection* of closed set.
 2. The *countable unions* of *closed sets* (known as F_σ sets),
 3. The *countable intersections* of *open sets* (known as G_δ sets),
 4. The *countable intersections* of F_σ sets, and so forth.
- **Exercise 2.10** Show that the Borel σ -algebra $\mathcal{B}[\mathbb{R}^d]$ of a Euclidean set is generated by any of the following collections of sets:
 1. The open subsets of \mathbb{R}^d .
 2. The closed subsets of \mathbb{R}^d .
 3. The compact subsets of \mathbb{R}^d .
 4. The open balls of \mathbb{R}^d .
 5. The boxes in \mathbb{R}^d .
 6. The elementary sets in \mathbb{R}^d .

(Hint: To show that two families $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}'$ of sets generate the same σ -algebra, it suffices to show that every σ -algebra that contains \mathcal{F} , contains \mathcal{F}' also, and conversely.)

- **Remark** $\mathcal{B}[X] \subset \mathcal{L}[X]$, i.e. the Borel σ -algebra is *coarser* than the Lebesgue σ -algebra.
- **Remark** There exist *Jordan measurable* (and hence Lebesgue measurable) subsets of \mathbb{R}^d which are *not Borel measurable*. [Tao, 2011]
- **Remark** Despite this demonstration that *not all Lebesgue measurable subsets are Borel measurable*, it is *remarkably difficult* (though not impossible) to exhibit a specific set that is not Borel measurable. Indeed, a large majority of the explicitly constructible sets that one actually encounters in practice tend to be Borel measurable, and one can view the property of Borel measurability intuitively as a kind of “*constructibility*” property. A Borel σ -algebra is large enough to contain all subsets in X that is of “practical use” in computing measures and integrations within $(0, 1]$.
- **Exercise 2.11** Show that the Lebesgue σ -algebra on \mathbb{R}^d is generated by the union of the Borel σ -algebra and the null σ -algebra.

3 Topology, σ -algebra and Borel σ -algebra

3.1 Definition

- **Definition** [Munkres, 2000]

Given space X , a collection of subsets \mathcal{T} is called a **topology** on X , if the following conditions holds

1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}; X \in \mathcal{T};$
2. **Aribitray Union property**: for any sub-collection $\{U_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \subset \mathcal{T},$

$$\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} U_\lambda \in \mathcal{T};$$

Note that Λ could be uncountable.

3. **Finite intersection**: for any finite sub-collection $\{U_k\}_{1 \leq k \leq n} \subset \mathcal{T},$

$$\bigcap_{k=1}^n U_k \in \mathcal{T}.$$

$U \in \mathcal{T}$ is called an open set in topology \mathcal{T} on X .

- **Definition** [Royden and Fitzpatrick, 1988, Billingsley, 2008, Folland, 2013, Resnick, 2013]
Given space X , a **σ -field** (or, **σ -algebra**) \mathcal{F} is a non-empty collection of subsets in X such that

1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}; X \in \mathcal{F};$
2. **Complements**: For any $B \in \mathcal{F}$, then $B^c \equiv (X - B) \in \mathcal{F};$
3. **Finite union**: for any $A, B \subset \mathcal{F},$

$$A \cup B \in \mathcal{F};$$

4. **Countable union**: for any sub-collection $\{B_k\}_{k=1}^\infty \subset \mathcal{F},$

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^\infty B_k \in \mathcal{F};$$

Also, Countable intersection: $\bigcap_{k=1}^\infty B_k \in \mathcal{F},$ **de Morgan's law**.

- **Definition** Given a **topological space** (X, \mathcal{T}) , a **Borel σ -field** (or, **Borel σ -algebra**) \mathcal{B} is the σ -algebra generated from **open sets** (or **closed sets**) in \mathcal{T} . Note that this σ -algebra is not, in general, the whole power set.

The *Borel σ -algebra* on X is the ***smallest*** σ -algebra containing *all open sets* (or, equivalently, all closed sets).

- **Remark** We compare the (open-set) topology with σ -algebra:

- The **open-set topology** on X is **closed** under any union, or **finite intersection operation**. It does **not consider the complements** as the complements defines a **closed set not in open-set topology**. It contains the open sets as the basic environment in investigating the infinitesimal behavior of functions in **analysis**.
- A **σ -algebra** concerns more about the **closure** under a set of **operations** on X : countable union, countable intersection, complementation. It has nothing to do with the open set, closed set, or the continuity.
- The **analysis** relies on **topology** on space X ; while the **modern algebra** relies on **the closure of operation** on a space X . A σ -algebra is a collection of subsets in X that endows a algebraic structure.
- **Remark** The **Borel σ -algebra** lies in between, which concerns both **algebraic** and **analytical structure**.
 - A **open set** U is a **Borel set** in \mathcal{B} ; also a **closed set** $C \equiv U^c$ is a **Borel set** in \mathcal{B} .
 - Any countable union of closed set, denoted as “ F_σ set”, $F_{\sigma,\Lambda} = \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} C_\lambda \in \mathcal{B}$
 - Any countable intersection of open sets, denoted as “ G_δ set”, $G_{\delta,\Lambda} = \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} U_\lambda \in \mathcal{B}$.
 - Note that a F_σ set is **not closed** (but could be open) and a G_δ set is **not open** (but could be closed).

The Borel σ -algebra contains *open sets*, *closed sets*, G_δ sets, F_σ sets, and their further *countable union and intersections*, according to the topology.

- **Example** On the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n , another σ -algebra is of importance: *the collection of all Lebesgue measurable sets*. This σ -algebra contains **more sets** than the Borel σ -algebra on \mathbb{R}^n and is preferred in integration theory, as it gives a complete measure space.
- **Remark** Note that not all Lebesgue measurable subsets are Borel measurable [Tao, 2011].
- **Remark** The **Lebesgue σ -algebra** on \mathbb{R}^d is generated by the **union of the Borel σ -algebra** and **the null σ -algebra**. [Tao, 2011]

Thus, The Lebesgue σ -algebra on \mathbb{R}^d is a **completion** of the Borel σ -algebra [Tao, 2011].

- **Example** The σ -algebra \mathcal{F} is the domain where a **probability measure** $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined, whereas when considering a measure on \mathbb{R} , a **Borel σ -algebra** \mathcal{B} generated by **order topology** $\{(a, b], a < b, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is of primarily concern.
- **Remark** A **common problem** is to find a good notion of a **measure** on a **topological space** that is compatible with the **topology** in some sense.
 - One way to do this is to define a measure on the **Borel sets** of the *topological space*.
 - In general, however, the algebraic structure of the σ -algebra: closure under complements, finite intersections and countably unions, instead of its **geometric** structure or **topology**, are **crucial** to define a proper measure that **mimic the length, area and volume** in $\mathbb{R}^1, \mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^3$, respectively.

Also there are several problems with this: for example, such a measure may not have a well defined support.

3.2 Comparison

Table 1: Comparison between σ -algebra and topology

	<i>Boolean Algebra</i>	<i>σ-Algebra</i>	<i>Borel σ-Algebra</i>	<i>Topology</i>
<i>compatibility</i>		$\Leftarrow \checkmark \Rightarrow$	<i>σ-algebra generated by open subsets</i>	<i>no relation</i>
<i>collection of subsets</i>	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
<i>include emptyset</i>	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
<i>include fullset</i>	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
<i>finite union</i>	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
<i>countable union</i>		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
<i>arbitrary union</i>				\checkmark
<i>finite intersection</i>	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
<i>countable intersection</i>		\checkmark	\checkmark	
<i>complements</i>	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
<i>structure</i>	<i>analytical</i>	<i>analytical</i>	<i>analytical & topological</i>	<i>topological</i>
<i>related measure</i>	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
<i>set in collection</i>	<i>elementary sets; Jordan measurable sets; atomic algebra; dyadic algebra; finite union of measurable sets; etc.</i>	<i>Boolean measurable set; Lebesgue measurable sets, Lebesgue null sets; the countable union and complements etc.</i>	<i>open sets, closed sets, compact sets, elementary sets, G_δ and F_σ sets etc.</i>	<i>open sets</i>
<i>set not in collection</i>	<i>some Lebesgue measurable sets</i>	<i>some non-measurable sets</i>	<i>some Jordan measurable set but not Borel measurable</i>	<i>closed set, G_δ and F_σ sets</i>
<i>function</i>	<i>Boolean measurable function; Rieman integrable function,</i>	<i>Lebesgue measurable function, σ-finite function, continuous function</i>	<i>Borel measurable function, continuous function</i>	<i>continuous function</i>

4 Example

- **Example** 1. For finite set X , the power set 2^X is both algebra and σ -algebra of X .
 2. In particular, all finite Boolean algebra (atomic algebra) is a σ -algebra [Tao, 2011];
 3. All Lebesgue measurable sets form a σ -algebra; All null sets and co-null sets form a σ -algebra [Tao, 2011].
 4. The elementary algebra $\overline{\mathcal{E}[\mathbb{R}^d]}$ and Jordan algebra $\overline{J[\mathbb{R}^d]}$ are *not* σ -algebra.
 5. the Lebesgue σ -algebra on \mathbb{R}^d is generated by the union of the Borel σ -algebra and the null σ -algebra.
 6. An *algebra* of X can be defined as the collection of all *finite* and *cofinite* (i.e., its complement is finite) subsets in X . It is *not* a σ -algebra if X is infinite [Billingsley, 2008].
 7. A σ -algebra \mathcal{F} of X can be defined as the collection of all *countable* and *co-countable* (i.e., its complement is countable) subsets in X . There exists subset A of X that is uncountable with uncountable complement. Thus $A \notin \mathcal{F}$, by definition, but $A \in 2^X$, and $\mathcal{F} \subsetneq 2^X$ [Billingsley, 2008].
 8. Use the σ -algebra \mathcal{F} of X as defined above: note that the uncountable union A of singleton sets is uncountable and if A has uncountable complement, $A \notin \mathcal{F}$, although each singleton set is in \mathcal{F} . It shows that *arbitrary* union of sets may not in \mathcal{F} [Billingsley, 2008].
 9. The restriction of σ -algebra \mathcal{F} on subset Y , i.e. $\mathcal{F}|_Y$ is a σ -algebra.
- **Example** [Tao, 2011] The generation of σ -algebra, given a collection of sets \mathcal{F} . First, define the *ordinal* with ω_1 being the first uncountable ordinal. Define the sets \mathcal{F}_α for every countable ordinal $\alpha \in \omega_1$
 1. $\mathcal{F}_\alpha \equiv \mathcal{F}$
 2. For each countable successor ordinal $\alpha = \beta + 1$, we define \mathcal{F}_α to be the collection of all sets that either the union of an *at most countable* number of sets in \mathcal{F}_{β} (including the empty union ;), or the complement of such a union;
 3. For each countable limit ordinal $\alpha = \sup_{\beta < \alpha} \beta$, we define $\mathcal{F}_\alpha \equiv \bigcup_{\beta < \alpha} \mathcal{F}_\beta$
 Then $\sigma(\mathcal{F}) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \omega_1} \mathcal{F}_\alpha$ is the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{F} .
- **Example** 1. If $\mathcal{C} = \{\emptyset\}$ or $\mathcal{C} = \{X\}$, then $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \{\emptyset, X\}$. It is a *Borel σ -algebra* over indiscrete topology on X .
 2. If $\mathcal{C} = \{\{a\}, a \in X\}$ the collection of all singletons, then $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ is the collection of all *countable* and *co-countable* (i.e., its complement is countable) subsets in X . (called σ -algebra of countable and co-countable sets.)
 3. If $\mathcal{C} = \{(a, b], 0 \leq a < b \leq 1\}$ the collection of all subintervals in $(0, 1]$, then $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ is the *Borel σ -algebra* on $(0, 1]$, denote as $\mathcal{B}((0, 1])$.
- **Example** Find the σ -algebra generated from the subintervals of $(0, 1]$.

Solution: We take the following sets

- Define a collection \mathcal{B}_0 , where $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}_0$ and $(0, 1] \in \mathcal{B}_0$;
- Find the collection \mathcal{C} of all *disjoint* subintervals $\mathcal{C} = \{(a_i, b_i], 0 \leq \dots \leq a_i < b_i \leq a_{i+1} \dots \leq 1\}$. And let $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{B}_0$.
- Suppose $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (a_i, a'_i], n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $a_1 < a'_1 \leq a_2 \dots \leq a'_n \leq 1$, then $A^c = (0, a_1] \cup \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} (a'_i, a_{i+1}] \right) \cup (a'_n, 1]$. Let $A, A^c \in \mathcal{B}_0$.
- Take the intersection btw A, B , as $A \cap B = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bigcup_{j=1}^m ((a_i, a'_i] \cap (b_j, b'_j])$. Note that $A \cap B$ is union of disjoint subintervals, or intervals, or emptyset. So $A \cap B \in \mathcal{B}_0$.
- Repeated the above procedures until all finite union of disjoint subintervals in \mathcal{C} is in \mathcal{B}_0 .
- \mathcal{B}_0 is an algebra but not σ -algebra. It does not contain $\{b_i\} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} (b_i - \frac{1}{n}, b_i]$. The Borel σ -algebra is $\sigma(\mathcal{B}_0)$, including all the countable union and intersections of elements in \mathcal{B}_0 .

• **Example** [Resnick, 2013, Billingsley, 2008]

- $A_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1\right]$, then $A_{n+1} \supset A_n$, the limits of sequence $\{A_n, n \geq 1\}$ is given as

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1\right] = (0, 1]$$

- $A_n = \left[\frac{(-1)^n}{n}, 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right]$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{n \geq k} \left[\frac{(-1)^n}{n}, 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right] \\ &= \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n \geq 2k-1} \left[\frac{(-1)^n}{n}, 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right] \\ &= \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2k}, 1 - \frac{1}{2k}\right] = (0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{n \geq k} \left[\frac{(-1)^n}{n}, 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right] \\ &= \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n \geq 2k-1} \left[\frac{(-1)^n}{n}, 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right] \\ &= \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[-\frac{1}{2k-1}, 1 + \frac{1}{2k-1}\right] = [0, 1] \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$ does not exists, although the end points are convergent. ■

- **Example** [Resnick, 2013] Suppose $A_n = \left\{\frac{m}{n}, m \in \mathbb{N}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{N}$. What is $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$ and $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$?

Solution: Since $\frac{m_0}{n_0}$ for given (m_0, n_0) , if $\frac{m_0}{n_0} \in \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$, then $\exists k$ such that $\frac{m_0}{n_0} \in \left\{ \frac{m}{n}, m \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$ for all $n \geq k$. It is impossible for $\frac{m_0}{n_0} \notin \mathbb{N}$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n &= \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=k}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{m}{n}, m \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \\ &= \{0, 1, 2, \dots\} = \mathbb{N}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\frac{m_0}{n_0}$ for given (m_0, n_0) , for any $k \geq 1$, there always exists $n = k n_0 \geq k$ such that $\frac{m_0}{n_0} = \frac{n m_0}{n n_0} \in \left\{ \frac{n_0 m}{n n_0}, m \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \equiv \left\{ \frac{m}{n}, m \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n &= \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=k}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{m}{n}, m \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \frac{m}{n} \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N} \right\} = \mathbb{Q}. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

- **Example** [Resnick, 2013] Show that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \left\{ x \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{1}_{\{x \in A_n\}} = 1 \right\}.$$

- **Example** [Resnick, 2013]

1. Suppose \mathcal{C} is a finite partition of Ω , that is

$$\mathcal{C} = \{A_1, \dots, A_k\}, \Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i, A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i \neq j.$$

Show that the minimal algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$ generated by \mathcal{C} is the class of unions of subfamilies of \mathcal{C} ; that is,

$$\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C}) = \left\{ \bigcup_I A_j : I \subset \{1, \dots, k\} \right\}.$$

(This includes the empty set.)

2. What is the σ -algebra generated from \mathcal{C} ?
3. If $\mathcal{C} = \{A_1, \dots\}$ is a countable partition of Ω , what is the induced σ -algebra?
4. If \mathcal{A} is an algebra of subsets of Ω , we say $A \in \mathcal{A}$ is an atom of \mathcal{A} ; if $A \neq \emptyset$ and for $\emptyset \neq B \in \mathcal{A}$, if $B \subset A$, then $B = A$. Thus A cannot be split into smaller nonempty set that is in \mathcal{A} .

Example: $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$, and \mathcal{A} is the algebra generated by intervals with integer end points $(a, b], a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. What is the atoms in \mathcal{A} ?

5. As converse to (1), prove that if \mathcal{A} is a finite algebra of subsets of Ω , then the atoms of \mathcal{A} constitute a finite partition of Ω that generates \mathcal{A} .

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