

# Part II — Probability and Measure

Based on lectures by Dr Sarkar

Michaelmas 2023

## Contents

<b>0</b>	<b>Holes in classical theory</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>3</b>
1.1	Definitions . . . . .	3
1.2	Rings and algebras . . . . .	4
1.3	Uniqueness of extension . . . . .	8
1.4	Borel measures . . . . .	11
1.5	Lebesgue measure . . . . .	12
1.6	Existence of non-measurable sets . . . . .	15
1.7	Probability spaces . . . . .	15
1.8	Borel–Cantelli lemmas . . . . .	16

## §0 Holes in classical theory

Analysis

1. What is the “volume” of a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .
2. Integration (Riemann Integration has holes)
  - $\{f_n\}$  a sequence of continuous functions on  $[0, 1]$  s.t.
    - $0 \leq f_n(x) \leq 1 \forall x \in [0, 1]$ .
    - $f_n(x)$  is monotonically decreasing on  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , i.e.  $f_n(x) \geq f_{n+1}(x) \forall x$ .

So,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$  exists. But  $f$  is not Riemann integrable . We want a theory of integration s.t.  $f$  is integrable and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$ .
3.  $L^1 = ()$  If  $f \in L^1$  is  $f$  Riemann integrable? Will have to change the definition of integral.  $L^2$  a hilbert space

## Probability

1. Discrete probability has its limitations,
  - Toss a unbiased coin 5 times. What is the probability if getting 3 heads?
  - Take an infinite sequence of coin tosses ( $E = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  which is uncountable) and an event  $A$  that depends on that infinite sequence. How do you define  $\mathbb{P}(A)$ ? E.g.  $X_i \sim \text{Ber}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$  and  $A = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}$ , the average number of heads. By strong law of large numbers  $\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\right) = 1$ .
  - How to draw a point uniformly at random from  $[0, 1]$ ?  $U \sim U[0, 1]$ . Probability needs axioms to be made rigorous.
2. Define Expectation for a r.v.. Also would want the following if  $0 \leq X_n \leq 1$  and  $X_n \downarrow X$  then  $\mathbb{E}X_n \rightarrow \mathbb{E}X$ .

## §1 Introduction

### §1.1 Definitions

#### Definition 1.1 ( $\sigma$ -algebra)

Let  $E$  be a (nonempty) set. A collection  $\mathcal{E}$  of subsets of  $E$  is called a  **$\sigma$ -algebra** if the following properties hold:

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{E}$ ;
- $A \in \mathcal{E} \implies A^c = E \setminus A \in \mathcal{E}$ ;
- if  $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a countable collection of sets in  $\mathcal{E}$ ,  $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{E}$ .

#### Example 1.1

Let  $\mathcal{E} = \{\emptyset, E\}$ . This is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. Also,  $\mathcal{P}(E) = \{A \subseteq E\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

*Remark 1.* Since  $\bigcap_n A_n = (\bigcup_n A_n^c)^c$ , any  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{E}$  is closed under countable intersections as well as under countable unions. Note that  $B \setminus A = B \cap A^c \in \mathcal{E}$ , so  $\sigma$ -algebras are closed under set difference.

#### Definition 1.2 (Measurable Space and Set)

A set  $E$  with a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{E}$  is called a **measurable space**. The elements of  $\mathcal{E}$  are called **measurable sets**.

#### Definition 1.3 (Measure)

A **measure**  $\mu$  is a set function  $\mu : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ , such that  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ , and for a sequence  $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  such that the  $A_n$  are disjoint, we have

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(A_n)$$

This is the **countable additivity** property of the measure.

*Remark 2.*  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is a measure space.

*Remark 3.* If  $E$  is countable, then for any  $A \in \mathcal{P}(E)$  and measure  $\mu$ , we have

$$\mu(A) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{x \in A} \{x\}\right) = \sum_{x \in A} \mu(\{x\})$$

Hence, measures are uniquely defined by the measure of each singleton.

Define  $m : E \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  s.t.  $m(x) = \mu(\{x\})$ , such an  $m$  is called a “mass function”, and measures  $\mu$  are in 1-1 correspondence with the mass function  $m$ . This corresponds to the notion of a probability mass function.

Here  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{P}(E)$  and this is the theory in elementary discrete prob. (when  $\mu(\{x\}) = 1 \forall x \in E$ ,  $\mu$  is called the counting measure. Here  $\mu(A) = |A| \forall A \subset E$ ).

For uncountable  $E$  however, the story is not so simple and  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{P}(E)$  is generally not feasible. Indeed measures are defined on  $\sigma$ -algebra “generated” by a smaller class  $\mathcal{A}$  of simple subsets of  $E$ .

#### Definition 1.4 (Generated $\sigma$ -algebra)

For a collection  $\mathcal{A}$  of subsets of  $E$ , we define the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  generated by  $\mathcal{A}$  by

$$\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \{A \subseteq E : A \in \mathcal{E} \text{ for all } \sigma\text{-algebras } \mathcal{E} \supseteq \mathcal{A}\}$$

So it is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{A}$ . Equivalently,

$$\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \bigcap_{\mathcal{E} \supseteq \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{E} \text{ a } \sigma\text{-algebra}} \mathcal{E}$$

#### Question

Why is  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra? See Sheet 1, Q1.

## §1.2 Rings and algebras

The class  $\mathcal{A}$  will usually satisfy some properties too, let  $E$  be a set and  $\mathcal{A}$  a collection of subsets of  $E$ . To construct good generators, we define the following.

#### Definition 1.5 (Ring)

$\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(E)$  is called a **ring** over  $E$  if  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  implies  $B \setminus A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$ .

Rings are easier to manage than  $\sigma$ -algebras because there are only finitary operators.

#### Definition 1.6 (Algebra)

$\mathcal{A}$  is called an **algebra** over  $E$  if  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  implies  $A^c \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$ .

*Remark 4.* Rings are closed under symmetric difference  $A \triangle B = (B \setminus A) \cup (A \setminus B)$ , and are closed under intersections  $A \cap B = A \cup B \setminus A \triangle B$ . Algebras are rings, because

$B \setminus A = B \cap A^c = (B^c \cup A)^c$ . Not all rings are algebras, because rings do not need to include the entire space.

The idea:

- Define a set function on a suitable collection  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- Extend the set function to a measure on  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ . (Carathéodory's Extension theorem)
- Such an extension is unique. (Dynkin's Lemma)

Goal: Start with a “measure” on  $\mathcal{A}$  that has some nice properties and then extend it to  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ .

### Definition 1.7 (Set Function)

A **set function** on a collection  $\mathcal{A}$  of subsets of  $E$ , where  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$ , is a map  $\mu: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  such that  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ .

- We say  $\mu$  is **increasing** if  $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$  for all  $A \subseteq B$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- We say  $\mu$  is **additive** if  $\mu(A \cup B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$  for disjoint  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$ .
- We say  $\mu$  is **countably additive** if  $\mu(\bigcup_n A_n) = \sum_n \mu(A_n)$  for disjoint sequences  $A_n$  where  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{A}$  and each  $A_n$  lie in  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- We say  $\mu$  is **countably subadditive** if  $\mu(\bigcup_n A_n) \leq \sum_n \mu(A_n)$  for arbitrary sequences  $A_n$  under the above conditions.

*Remark 5.* If  $\mu$  is countably additive set function on  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  is a ring then  $\mu$  satisfies all the previous listed properties.

### Proposition 1.1 (Disjointification of countable unions)

Consider  $\bigcup_n A_n$  for  $A_n \in \mathcal{E}$ , where  $\mathcal{E}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra (or a ring, if the union is finite). Then there exist  $B_n \in \mathcal{E}$  that are disjoint such that  $\bigcup_n A_n = \bigcup_n B_n$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\tilde{A}_n = \bigcup_{j \leq n} A_j$ , then  $B_{n+1} = \tilde{A}_n \setminus \tilde{A}_{n-1}$ . □

*Remark 6.* A measure satisfies all four of the above conditions. Countable additivity implies the other conditions. Proof on Sheet 1.

### Theorem 1.1 (Carathéodory's theorem)

Let  $\mu$  be a countably additive set function on a ring  $\mathcal{A}$  of subsets of  $E$ . Then there

exists a measure  $\mu^*$  on  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  such that  $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{A}} = \mu$ .

We will later prove that this extended measure is unique.

*Proof.* For  $B \subseteq E$ , we define the *outer measure*  $\mu^*$  as

$$\mu^*(B) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(A_n), A_n \in \mathcal{A}, B \subseteq \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \right\}$$

If there is no sequence  $A_n$  such that  $B \subseteq \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$ , we declare the outer measure  $\mu^*(B)$  to be  $\infty$ . Clearly,  $\mu^*(\emptyset)$  and  $\mu^*$  is increasing, so  $\mu^*$  is an increasing set fcn on  $\mathcal{P}(E)$ .

**Definition 1.8** ( $\mu^*$  measurable)

A set  $A \subseteq E$   **$\mu^*$  measurable** if  $\forall B \subseteq E$   $\mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$ .

We define the class

$$\mathcal{M} = \{A \subseteq E \mid A \text{ is } \mu^* \text{ measurable}\}$$

We shall show that  $\mathcal{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra that contains  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{M}}$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$  that extends  $\mu$  (i.e.  $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{A}} = \mu$ ).

*Step 1.*  $\mu^*$  is countably sub-additive on  $\mathcal{P}(E)$ : It suffices to prove that for  $B \subseteq E$  and  $B_n \subseteq E$  such that  $B \subseteq \bigcup_n B_n$  we have

$$\mu^*(B) \leq \sum_n \mu^*(B_n) \quad (\dagger)$$

We can assume without loss of generality that  $\mu^*(B_n) < \infty$  for all  $n$ , otherwise there is nothing to prove. For all  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a collection  $A_{n,m} \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $B_n \subseteq \bigcup_m A_{n,m}$  and

$$\mu^*(B_n) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^n} \geq \sum_m \mu(A_{n,m})$$

as we took an infimum. Now, since  $\mu^*$  is increasing, and  $B \subseteq \bigcup_n B_n \subseteq \bigcup_n \bigcup_m A_{n,m}$ , we have

$$\mu^*(B) \leq \mu^*\left(\bigcup_{n,m} A_{n,m}\right) \leq \sum_{n,m} \mu(A_{n,m}) \leq \sum_n \mu^*(B_n) + \sum_n \frac{\varepsilon}{2^n} = \sum_n \mu^*(B_n) + \varepsilon$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary in the construction,  $(\dagger)$  follows by construction.

*Step 2.*  $\mu^*$  extends  $\mu$ : Let  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , and we want to show  $\mu^*(A) = \mu(A)$ .

We can write  $A = A \cup \emptyset \cup \dots$ , hence  $\mu^*(A) \leq \mu(A) + 0 + \dots = \mu(A)$  by definition of  $\mu^*$ .

If  $\mu^*$  is infinite, there is nothing to prove.

We need to prove the converse, that  $\mu(A) \leq \mu^*(A)$ . For the finite case, suppose there is a sequence  $A_n$  where  $\mu(A_n) < \infty$  and  $A \subseteq \bigcup_n A_n$ . Then,  $A = \bigcup_n (A \cap A_n)$ , which is a union of elements of the ring  $\mathcal{A}$ . As  $\mu$  is countably additive on  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  is a ring,  $\mu$  is countably subadditive on  $\mathcal{A}$  and increasing by remark 6. Hence  $\mu(A) \leq \sum_n \mu(A \cap A_n) \leq \sum_n \mu(A_n)$ . Since the  $A_n$  were arbitrary taking the infimum over  $A_n$ , we have  $\mu(A) \leq \mu^*(A)$  as required.

*Step 3.*  $\mathcal{M} \supseteq \mathcal{A}$ : Let  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ . We must show that for all  $B \subseteq E$ ,  $\mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$ .

We have  $B \subseteq (B \cap A) \cup (B \cap A^c) \cup \emptyset \cup \dots$ , hence by countable subadditivity ( $\dagger$ ),  $\mu^*(B) \leq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$ .

It now suffices to prove the converse, that  $\mu^*(B) \geq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$ .

We can assume  $\mu^*(B)$  is finite, and so  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists A_n \in \mathcal{A}$  s.t.  $B \subseteq \bigcup_n A_n$  and  $\mu^*(B) + \varepsilon \geq \sum_n \mu(A_n)$ . Now,  $B \cap A \subseteq \bigcup_n (A_n \cap A)$ , and  $B \cap A^c \subseteq \bigcup_n (A_n \cap A^c)$ . All of the members of these two unions are elements of  $\mathcal{A}$ , since  $A_n \cap A^c = A_n \setminus A$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c) &\leq \sum_n \mu(A_n \cap A) + \sum_n \mu(A_n \cap A^c) \\ &\leq \sum_n [\mu(A_n \cap A) + \mu(A_n \cap A^c)] \\ &\leq \sum_n \mu(A_n) \leq \mu^*(B) + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary,  $\mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$  as required.

*Step 4.*  $\mathcal{M}$  is an algebra: Clearly  $\emptyset$  lies in  $\mathcal{M}$ , and by the symmetry in the definition of  $\mathcal{M}$ , complements lie in  $\mathcal{M}$ . We need to check  $\mathcal{M}$  is stable under finite intersections. Let  $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{M}$  and let  $B \subseteq E$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(B) &= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c) \text{ as } A_1 \in \mathcal{M} \\ &= \mu^*(B \cap A_1 \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1 \cap A_2^c) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c) \text{ taking } \tilde{B} = B \cap A_1 \end{aligned}$$

We can write  $A_1 \cap A_2^c = (A_1 \cap A_2^c) \cap A_1$ , and  $A_1^c = (A_1 \cap A_2)^c \cap A_1^c$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(B) &= \mu^*(B \cap A_1 \cap A_2) + \underbrace{\mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)^c \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)^c \cap A_1^c)}_{\mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)^c) \text{ as } A_1 \in \mathcal{M}} \\ &= \mu^*(B \cap A_1 \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)^c) \end{aligned}$$

which is the requirement for  $A_1 \cap A_2$  to lie in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

*Step 5.*  $\mathcal{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra and  $\mu^*$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ :

It suffices now to show that  $\mathcal{M}$  has countable unions and the measure respects these

countable unions. Let  $A = \bigcup_n A_n$  for  $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ . Without loss of generality, let the  $A_n$  be disjoint. We want to show  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ , and that  $\mu^*(A) = \sum_n \mu^*(A_n)$ .

By (†), we have for any  $B \subseteq E$   $\mu^*(B) \leq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c) + 0 + \dots$  so we need to check only the converse of this inequality. Also,  $\mu^*(A) \leq \sum_n \mu^*(A_n)$ , so we need only check the converse of this inequality as well. Similarly to before,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu^*(B) &= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c) \\
&= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap \underbrace{A_1^c \cap A_2}_{A_2 \text{ as } A_1, A_2 \text{ disjoint}}) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap A_2^c) \\
&= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap A_2^c) \\
&= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap A_3) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap A_3^c) \\
&= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap A_3) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap A_3^c) \\
&= \dots \\
&= \sum_{n \leq N} \mu^*(B \cap A_n) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap \dots \cap A_N^c)
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $\bigcup_{n \leq N} A_n \subseteq A$ , we have  $\bigcap_{n \leq N} A_n^c \supseteq A^c$ .  $\mu^*$  is increasing, hence, taking limits,

$$\mu^*(B) \geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(B \cap A_n) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$$

By (†),

$$\mu^*(B) \geq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$$

as required. Hence  $\mathcal{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. For the other inequality, we take the above result for  $B = A$ .

$$\mu^*(A) \geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A \cap A_n) + \mu^*(A \cap A^c) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_n)$$

So  $\mu^*$  is countably additive on  $\mathcal{M}$  and is hence a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ . □

### §1.3 Uniqueness of extension

To address uniqueness of extension, we introduce further subclasses of  $\mathcal{P}(E)$ . Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a collection of subsets of  $E$ .

#### Definition 1.9 ( $\pi$ -system)

A collection  $\mathcal{A}$  of subsets of  $E$  is called a  **$\pi$ -system** if  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A, B \in \mathcal{A} \implies A \cap B \in \mathcal{A}$ .



**Definition 1.10** (*d*-system)

A collection  $\mathcal{A}$  of subsets of  $E$  is called a *d*-system if

- $E \in \mathcal{A}$ ;
- $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \subseteq B$  then  $B \setminus A \in \mathcal{A}$ ;
- $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$  is an increasing sequence of sets then  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ .

*Remark 7.* Equivalently,  $\mathcal{A}$  is a *d*-system if

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$ ;
- $A \in \mathcal{A} \implies A^c \in \mathcal{A}$
- $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$  is a sequence of disjoint sets then  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ .

The difference between this and a  $\sigma$ -algebra is the requirement for disjoint sets.

Proof on Sheet 1.

**Proposition 1.2**

A *d*-system which is also a  $\pi$ -system is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

*Proof.* Sheet 1. □

**Lemma 1.1** (Dynkin's Lemma/ $\pi$ - $\lambda$ / $\pi$ -*d* theorem)

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a  $\pi$ -system. Then any *d*-system that contains  $\mathcal{A}$  also contains  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ .

*Proof.* We define

$$\mathcal{D} = \bigcap_{\mathcal{D}' \text{ is a } d\text{-system; } \mathcal{D}' \supseteq \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{D}'$$

We can show this is a *d*-system (proof same as in  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  on Sheet 1). It suffices to prove that  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\pi$ -system, because then it is a  $\sigma$ -algebra<sup>a</sup>.

We now define

$$\mathcal{D}' = \{B \in \mathcal{D} \mid \forall A \in \mathcal{A}, B \cap A \in \mathcal{D}\}$$

We can see that  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}'$ , as  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\pi$ -system.

We now show that  $\mathcal{D}'$  is a *d*-system, fix  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ .

- Clearly  $E \cap A = A \in \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}'$  hence  $E \in \mathcal{D}'$ .
- Let  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{D}'$  such that  $B_1 \subseteq B_2$ . Then  $(B_2 \setminus B_1) \cap A = (B_2 \cap A) \setminus (B_1 \cap A)$ , and since  $B_i \cap A \in \mathcal{D}$  this difference also lies in  $\mathcal{D}$ , so  $B_2 \setminus B_1 \in \mathcal{D}'$ .

- Now, suppose  $B_n$  is an increasing sequence converging to  $B$ , and  $B_n \in \mathcal{D}'$ . Then  $B_n \cap A \in \mathcal{D}$ , and  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $d$ -system, we have  $B \cap A \in \mathcal{D}$ , so  $B \in \mathcal{D}'$ .

Hence  $\mathcal{D}'$  is a  $d$ -system. Also,  $\mathcal{D}' \subseteq \mathcal{D}$  by construction of  $\mathcal{D}'$ . But also  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}'$  and  $\mathcal{D}'$  is a  $d$ -system so  $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{D}'$  as  $\mathcal{D}$  is the smallest  $d$ -system containing  $\mathcal{A}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}'$ , i.e.  $\forall B \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $B \cap A \in \mathcal{D}$  (\*).

We then define

$$\mathcal{D}'' = \{B \in \mathcal{D} \mid \forall A \in \mathcal{D}, B \cap A \in \mathcal{D}\}$$

Note that  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}''$  by (\*). Running the same argument as before, we can show that  $\mathcal{D}''$  is a  $d$ -system. So  $\mathcal{D}'' = \mathbb{D}$ . But then (by the definition of  $\mathcal{D}''$ ),  $\forall B \in \mathcal{D}, A \in \mathcal{D} \implies B \cap A \in \mathcal{D}$ , i.e.  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\pi$ -system (check that  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{D}$ ).

So  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{A}$ , hence  $\mathcal{D} \supseteq \sigma(\mathcal{A})$ . □

<sup>a</sup>As  $\mathcal{D} \supseteq \mathcal{A}$  and  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  the intersection of all  $\sigma$ -algebras containing  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mathcal{D} \supseteq \sigma(\mathcal{A})$ .

### Theorem 1.2 (Uniqueness of extension)

Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  be measures on a measurable space  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ , such that  $\mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E) < \infty$ . Suppose that  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  coincide on a  $\pi$ -system  $\mathcal{A}$ , such that  $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{A})$ . Then  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$  on  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ , and hence on  $\mathcal{E}$ .

*Proof.* We define

$$\mathcal{D} = \{A \in \mathcal{E} \mid \mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A)\}$$

This collection contains  $\mathcal{A}$  by assumption. By Dynkin's lemma, it suffices to prove  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $d$ -system, because then  $\mathcal{D} \supseteq \sigma(\mathcal{A}) \supseteq \mathcal{E}$  giving  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{E}$  as  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ .

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{D}$ , since  $\mu_1(\emptyset) = \mu_2(\emptyset) = 0$ ;
- $A \in \mathcal{D} \implies \mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A)$ , thus  $\mu_1(A^c) = \mu_1(E) - \mu_1(A) = \mu_2(E) - \mu_2(A) = \mu_2(A^c)$ , so  $A^c \in \mathcal{D}$  ( $\mu_1, \mu_2$  finite so this works);
- Let  $A_n \in \mathcal{D}$  be a disjoint sequence then,  $\mu_1(\bigcup_n A_n) = \sum \mu_1(A_n) = \sum \mu_2(A_n) = \mu_2(\bigcup_n A_n)$  by countable additivity. So  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{D}$ .

So  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $d$ -system. □

*Remark 8.* If  $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$  an increasing sequence, then  $\mu(\mathcal{A}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_n)$ . Use this to show that  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $d$ -system satisfying conditions in [d-system](#).

The above theorem applies to finite measures ( $\mu$  such that  $\mu(E) < \infty$ ) only. However, the theorem can be extended to measures that are  $\sigma$ -finite, for which  $E = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n$  where  $\mu(E_n) < \infty$ .

### Question

How to show all sets of a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{E}$  generated by  $\mathcal{A}$  has a certain property  $\mathcal{P}$ ?

### Answer

Consider set  $\mathcal{G} = \{A \subseteq E : A \text{ has the property } \mathcal{P}\}$  and have that all elements of  $\mathcal{A}$  have the property  $\mathcal{P}$ .

Method 1: Show that  $\mathcal{G}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, as it then must contain  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{E}$ .

Method 2: Show that  $\mathcal{G}$  is a  $d$ -system and pick  $\mathcal{A}$  s.t. it is a  $\pi$ -system and use [Dynkin's Lemma/ \$\pi\$ - \$\lambda\$ / \$\pi\$ - \$d\$  theorem](#).

Method 3: Monotone Convergence Theorem, we will see it shortly.

## §1.4 Borel measures

### Definition 1.11 (Borel Sets)

Let  $(E, \tau)$  be a Hausdorff topological space. The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open sets of  $E$ , i.e.  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  where  $\mathcal{A} = \{A \subseteq E : A \text{ open}\}$ , is called the **Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra** on  $E$ , denoted  $\mathcal{B}(E)$ .

A measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{B}(E))$  is called a **Borel measure on  $E$** .

Members of  $\mathcal{B}(E)$  are called **Borel sets**.

**Notation.** We write  $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ .

### Definition 1.12 (Radon Measure)

A **Radon measure** is a Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $E$  such that  $\mu(K) < \infty$  for all  $K \subseteq E$  compact.

Note that in a Hausdorff space, compact sets are closed and hence measurable.

### Definition 1.13 (Probability Measure)

If  $\mu(E) = 1$ ,  $\mu$  is called a **probability measure** on  $E$ , and  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is called a probability space, typically denoted instead by  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ .

### Definition 1.14 (Finite Measure)

If  $\mu(E) < \infty$ ,  $\mu$  is a **finite measure** on  $E$ .

**Definition 1.15** ( $\sigma$ -finite Measure)

If  $\exists$  sequence  $E_n \in \mathcal{E}$  s.t.  $\mu(E_n) < \infty \forall n$  and  $E = \bigcup_n E_n$ , then  $\mu$  is called a  **$\sigma$ -finite measure**.

*Remark 9.* Arguments that hold for finite measures can usually be extended to  $\sigma$ -finite measures.

**§1.5 Lebesgue measure**

One of the main goals for this course is to define a notion of volume for arbitrary sets, we can do this by constructing a Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  s.t  $\mu\left(\prod_{i=1}^d (a_i, b_i)\right) = \prod_{i=1}^d (b_i - a_i)$  where  $a_i < b_i$  corresponding to the usual notion of volume of rectangles.

Initially, we will perform this construction for  $d = 1$ , and later we will consider product measures to extend this to higher dimensions.

**Theorem 1.3** (Construction of the Lebesgue measure)

There exists a unique Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that

$$a < b \implies \mu((a, b]) = b - a. \quad (\dagger)$$

$\mu$  is called the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof.* First we shall prove the existence of the measure and then uniqueness.

Consider the ring  $\mathcal{A}$  of finite unions of disjoint intervals<sup>a</sup> of the form

$$\mathcal{A} = (a_1, b_1] \cup \cdots \cup (a_n, b_n]$$

where  $a_1 \leq b_1 \leq a_2 \leq \cdots \leq a_n \leq b_n$ . Note that  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{B}$  (see Example Sheets<sup>b</sup>).

Define for each  $A \in \mathcal{A}$

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i).$$

This agrees with  $(\dagger)$  for  $(a, b]$ . This is additive and well-defined (check).

So, the existence of  $\mu$  on  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{B}$  follows from **Carathéodory's theorem** if we can show that  $\mu$  is *countable additive* on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

*Remark 10.* Suppose  $\mu$  a finitely additive set function on a ring  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mu$  is countable additive iff

- $A_n \uparrow {}^c A; A_n, A \in \mathcal{A} \implies \mu(A_n) \uparrow \mu(A)$ .
- In addition, if  $\mu$  is finite and  $A_n \downarrow A$  s.t.  $A_n, A \in \mathcal{A}$  then  $\mu(A_n) \downarrow \mu(A)$ <sup>d</sup>.

See Example Sheet for proof.

So showing  $\mu$  is countably additive on  $\mathcal{A}$  is equivalent to showing the following  
 If  $A_n \in \mathcal{A}, A_n \downarrow \emptyset$  then  $\mu(A_n) \downarrow 0$ . We require that  $\mu$  is finite, as  $A_n$  decreasing we require  $A_1$  to have finite measure. ?????

We shall prove this by contradiction.

Suppose this is not the case, so there exist  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $B_n \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $B_n \downarrow \emptyset$  but  $\mu(B_n) \geq 2\varepsilon$  for infinitely many  $n$  (and so wlog for all  $n$ ).

We can approximate  $B_n$  from within by a sequence  $\overline{C}_n$ <sup>e</sup>  $\in \mathcal{A}$  s.t.  $C_n \subseteq B_n$  and  $\mu(B_n \setminus C_n) \leq \varepsilon/2^n$ . Suppose  $B_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{N_n} (a_{ni}, b_{ni}]$ , then define  $C_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{N_n} (a_{ni} + \frac{2^{-n}\varepsilon}{N_n}, b_{ni}]$ . Note that the  $C_n$  lie in  $\mathcal{A}$ , and  $\mu(B_n \setminus C_n) \leq 2^{-n}\varepsilon$ . Since  $B_n$  is decreasing, we have  $B_N = \bigcap_{n \leq N} B_n$ , and

$$B_N \setminus (C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_N) = B_N \cap \left( \bigcup_{n \leq N} C_n^c \right) = \bigcup_{n \leq N} B_N \setminus C_n \subseteq \bigcup_{n \leq N} B_n \setminus C_n$$

Since  $\mu$  is increasing and finitely additive and thus subadditive on  $\mathcal{A}$ ,

$$\mu(B_N \setminus (C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_N)) \leq \mu\left(\bigcup_{n \leq N} B_n \setminus C_n\right) \leq \sum_{n \leq N} \mu(B_n \setminus C_n) \leq \sum_{n \leq N} 2^{-n}\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon$$

Since  $\mu(B_N) \geq 2\varepsilon$ , additivity implies that  $\mu(C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_N) \geq \varepsilon$ . This means that  $C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_N$  cannot be empty. We can add the left endpoints of the intervals, giving  $K_N = \overline{C}_1 \cap \dots \cap \overline{C}_N \neq \emptyset$ . By Analysis I,  $K_N$  is a nested sequence of bounded nonempty closed intervals and therefore there is a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $x \in K_N$  for all  $N$ <sup>f</sup>. But  $K_N \subseteq \overline{C}_N \subseteq B_N$ , so  $x \in \bigcap_N B_n$ , which is a contradiction since  $\bigcap_N B_n$  is empty. Therefore, a measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{B}$  exists.

Now we prove uniqueness. Suppose  $\mu, \lambda$  are measures such that the measure of an interval  $(a, b]$  is  $b - a$ . We define truncated measures for  $A \in \mathcal{B}$

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_n(A) &= \mu(A \cap (n, n+1)) \\ \lambda_n(A) &= \lambda(A \cap (n, n+1])\end{aligned}$$

Then  $\mu_n, \lambda_n$  are *probability measures* on  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mu_n = \lambda_n$  on the  $\pi$ -system of intervals of the form  $(a, b]$  with  $a < b$ <sup>g</sup>. This  $\pi$ -system generates  $\mathcal{B}$ , so by the uniqueness

theorem for finite measures (theorem 1.2)  $\mu_n = \lambda_n$  on  $\mathcal{B}$ . Hence  $\forall A \in \mathcal{B}$

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(A) &= \mu\left(\bigcup_n A \cap (n, n+1]\right) \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mu(A \cap (n, n+1]) \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mu_n(A) \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \lambda_n(A) = \dots = \lambda(A)\end{aligned}$$

□

<sup>a</sup>We take semi intervals as for  $\mathcal{A}$  to be a ring, we require the set difference to be in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

<sup>b</sup>as all open intervals are in  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  and open intervals generate open sets

<sup>c</sup>increasing sequence tending to  $A$

<sup>d</sup>E.g. let  $A_n = [n, \infty)$  with the Lebesgue measure then  $A_n \downarrow \emptyset$ . But  $\mu(A_n) = \infty$  whilst  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$

<sup>e</sup> $\overline{C}_n$  means the closure of  $C_n$ , i.e. make it a closed set by including the left endpoint

<sup>f</sup>As completeness of  $\mathbb{R}$  implies  $\bigcap_n K_n$  is closed and non empty.

<sup>g</sup>As  $(a, b] \cap (c, d] = \emptyset$  or  $(e, f]$ .

### Definition 1.16 (Lebesgue null set)

A Borel set  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  is called a **Lebesgue null set** if  $\lambda(B) = 0$  where  $\lambda$  is the Lebesgue measure.

*Remark 11.* A singleton  $\{x\}$  can be written as  $\bigcap_n \left(x - \frac{1}{n}, x\right]$ , hence  $\lambda(\{x\}) = \lim_n \frac{1}{n} = 0$ . Hence singletons are null sets. In particular,  $\lambda((a, b)) = \lambda((a, b]) = \lambda([a, b)) = \lambda([a, b])$ . Any countable set  $Q = \bigcup_q \{q\}$  is a null set. Not all null sets are countable; the Cantor set is an example.

The Lebesgue measure is *translation-invariant*. Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , then the set  $B + x = \{b + x \mid b \in B\}$  lies in  $\mathcal{B}$  iff  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , and in this case, it satisfies  $\lambda(B + x) = \lambda(B)$ . We can define the translated Lebesgue measure  $\lambda_x(B) = \lambda(B + x)$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , then  $\lambda_x((a, b]) = \lambda((a, b] + x) = \lambda((a + x, b + x]) = b - a = \lambda((a, b])$ . So  $\lambda_x = \lambda$  on the  $\pi$ -system of intervals and so  $\lambda_x = \lambda$  on the sigma algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  (i.e.  $\forall B \in \mathcal{B}, \lambda(B + x) = \lambda(B)$ ).

### Question

Is the Lebesgue measure the only such translation invariant measure on  $\mathcal{B}$ ?

Carathéodory's theorem extends  $\lambda$  from  $\mathcal{A}$  to not just  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{B}$ , but actually to  $\mathcal{M}$ , the set of outer-measurable sets  $\mathcal{M} \supseteq \mathcal{B}$ , but how large is  $\mathcal{M}$ ?

The class of outer measurable sets  $\mathcal{M}$  used in Carathéodory's extension theorem is here called the class of Lebesgue measurable sets. This class, the Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra, can be

shown to be

$$\mathcal{M} = \{A \cup N : A \in \mathcal{B}, N \subseteq B, B \in \mathcal{B}, \lambda(B) = 0\} \supsetneq \mathcal{B}$$

## §1.6 Existence of non-measurable sets

Assuming the axiom of choice, there exists a non-measurable set of reals. Consider  $E = (0, 1]$  with addition defined modulo one. By the same argument as before, the Lebesgue measure is translation-invariant modulo one. Consider the subgroup  $Q = E \cap \mathbb{Q}$  of  $(E, +)$ . We define  $x \sim y$  if  $x - y \in Q$ . Then, this gives equivalence classes  $[x] = \{y \in E : x \sim y\}$  for all  $x \in E$ . Assuming the axiom of choice, we can select a representative of  $[x]$  for each  $x \in E$ , and denote by  $S$  the set of such representatives. We can partition  $E$  into the union of its cosets, so  $E = \bigcup_{q \in Q} (S + q)$  is a disjoint union.

Suppose  $S$  is a Borel set. Then  $S + q$  is also a Borel set. We can therefore write

$$1 = \mu(E) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{q \in Q} (S + q)\right) = \sum_{q \in Q} \mu(S + q) = \sum_{q \in Q} \mu(S)$$

But no value for  $\mu(S) \in [0, \infty]$  can be assigned to make this equation hold. Therefore  $S$  is not a Borel set.

One can further show that  $\mu$  cannot be extended to all subsets  $\mathcal{P}(E)$ .

### Theorem 1.4 (Banach, Kuratowski)

Assuming the continuum hypothesis, there exists no measure  $\mu$  on the set  $\mathcal{P}((0, 1])$  such that  $\mu((0, 1]) = 1$  and  $\mu(\{x\}) = 0$  for  $x \in (0, 1]$ .

## §1.7 Probability spaces

### Definition 1.17

If a measure space  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  has  $\mu(E) = 1$ , we call it a *probability space*, and instead write  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . We call  $\Omega$  the outcome space or sample space,  $\mathcal{F}$  the set of events, and  $\mathbb{P}$  the probability measure.

The axioms of probability theory (Kolmogorov, 1933), are

1.  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ ;
2.  $0 \leq \mathbb{P}(E) \leq 1$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
3. if  $A_n$  are a disjoint sequence of events in  $\mathcal{F}$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_n A_n) = \sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n)$ .

This is exactly what is required by our definition:  $\mathbb{P}$  is a measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

**Definition 1.18**

Events  $A_i, i \in I$  are *independent* if for all finite  $J \subseteq I$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \bigcap_{j \in J} A_j \right) = \prod_{j \in J} \mathbb{P}(A_j)$$

$\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{A}_i, i \in I$  are independent if for any  $A_j \in \mathcal{A}_j$  where  $J \subseteq I$  is finite, the  $A_j$  are independent.

Kolmogorov showed that these definitions are sufficient to derive the law of large numbers.

**Proposition 1.3**

Let  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$  be  $\pi$ -systems of sets in  $\mathcal{F}$ . Suppose  $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_2) = \mathbb{P}(A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_2)$  for all  $A_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2$ . Then the  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_1), \sigma(\mathcal{A}_2)$  are independent.

This follows by uniqueness.

**§1.8 Borel–Cantelli lemmas****Definition 1.19**

Let  $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$  be a sequence of events. Then the *limit superior* of  $A_n$  is

$$\limsup_n A_n = \bigcap_n \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m = \{A_n \text{ infinitely often}\}$$

The *limit inferior* of  $A_n$  is

$$\liminf_n A_n = \bigcup_n \bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m = \{A_n \text{ eventually}\}$$

**Lemma 1.2 (First Borel–Cantelli lemma)**

Let  $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$  be a sequence of events such that  $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n) < \infty$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ infinitely often}) = 0$ .

*Proof.* For all  $n$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \limsup_n A_n \right) = \mathbb{P} \left( \bigcap_n \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m \right) \leq \mathbb{P} \left( \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m \right) \leq \sum_{m \geq n} \mathbb{P}(A_m) \rightarrow 0$$



□

This proof did not require that  $\mathbb{P}$  be a probability measure, just that it is a measure. Therefore, we can use this for arbitrary measures.

**Lemma 1.3** (Second Borel–Cantelli lemma)

Let  $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$  be a sequence of independent events, and  $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \infty$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ infinitely often}) = 1$ .

*Proof.* By independence, for all  $N \geq n \in \mathbb{N}$  and using  $1 - a \leq e^{-a}$ , we find

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{m=n}^N A_m^c\right) = \prod_{m=n}^N (1 - \mathbb{P}(A_m)) \leq \prod_{m=n}^N e^{-\mathbb{P}(A_m)} = e^{-\sum_{m=n}^N \mathbb{P}(A_m)}$$

As  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , this approaches zero. Since  $\bigcap_{m=n}^N A_m^c$  decreases to  $\bigcap_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m^c$ , by countable additivity we must have  $\mathbb{P}(\bigcap_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m^c) = 0$ . But then

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ infinitely often}) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_n \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m\right) = 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n \bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m^c\right) \geq 1 - \sum_n \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m^c\right) = 1$$

Hence this probability is equal to one. □