Measure Theory, Limit Theorems, and Random Variables

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1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the tools necessary for a more rigorous study of probability.

2 Measure Theory

An algebra \mathcal{F} is said to be a σ -algebra if

- 1. It is closed under complement, i.e., $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$.
- 2. Closed under countable union, i.e., $A_i \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \bigcup_i A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ for countable number of A_i .

Remark 1. Countable refers to finite or countably infinite. Some textbooks also state closed under countable intersection, but it is easy to derive that from the above conditions.

We will now state the definition of a probability space

Definition 2.1 (Probability Space). A probability space is the triple (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , such that Ω is the support or set of all possible outcomes (sample space), \mathcal{F} is a set of events, and $P: \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$ which assigns probabilities to items in \mathcal{F} . \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra, which is a non-empty collection of subsets of Ω and satisfies the properties above.

Without P, the double (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is a measurable space, i.e., something which we can assign a measure to. We will define a measure next.

Definition 2.2 (Measure). A measure is a non-negative countably additive set function, such that given a σ -algebra \mathcal{F} and a measure μ , then $\mu : \mathcal{F} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

- 1. $\mu(A) \ge \mu(\emptyset) = 0 \quad \forall Ain \mathcal{F}.$
- 2. For $i = 1, 2, \dots$, if $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ is a countable sequence of disjoint sets, then $\mu(\cup A_i) = \sum \mu(A_i)$.

Remark 2. If $\mu(\Omega) = 1$, then μ is a probability measure.

From the above definition, we can deduce that a measure has the following properties.

Theorem 2.3 (Properties of a measure). Suppose μ is some measure on a measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) , then μ satisfies,

- 1. Monotonicity. $A \subset B \Rightarrow P(B) P(A) P(B A) \ge 0$ for $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$.
- 2. Subadditivity. For $m=1,\dots$, if $A_m \in \mathcal{F}, A \subset \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} A_m$, then $P(A) \leq \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P(A_m)$.
- 3. Continuity from below. If $A_i \uparrow A$, i.e, $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \cdots$ and $\cup A_i = A$, then $P(A_i) \uparrow P(A)$.
- 4. Continuity from above. If $A_i \downarrow A$, then $P(A_i) \downarrow P(A)$.

Proof. Monotonicity. Since $B - A = B \cap A^c$ and A and B - A are disjoint, then $\mu(A) = \mu(B) + \mu(B - A)$ and the result follows from the the non-negativity of μ .

Subadditivity. Let $B_1 = A_1$ and $B_k = A_k - \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} A_i$, then $\mu(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_i)$, the result follows from monotonicity.

Continuity from below. Let $B_k = A_k - A_{k-1}$. Then $\mu(A_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k \mu(B_i)$. Then the result follows.

Continuity from above. Observe that $A_i^c \uparrow A$, then $P(A_i^c) \uparrow P(A^c)$ and the result follows.

To make things a bit more concrete, let us apply this to an example on the discrete probability space.

Example 2.1 (Discrete Probability Spaces). Let Ω be a countable set, \mathcal{F} be the set of all subsets of Ω , for $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $P(A) = \sum (x \in A)p(x) \geq 0$ and $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega) = 1$. If Ω is finite, then $p(\omega) = 1/|\Omega|$. For example, when rolling a fair dice, $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

Example 2.2 (Measure on continuous real line). Let \mathbb{R} be the real line, \mathcal{R} be the Boreal sets (smallest σ -algebra containing the open sets), λ be the Lebesgue measure (for a < b, $\lambda((a,b]) = b - a$, and $\lambda(\mathbb{R}) = \infty$. To get a probability space, let $\Omega = (0,1)$, $\mathcal{F} = \{A \cap (0,1) : A \in \mathcal{R}\}$, and $P = \lambda$. Then P is a Lebesgue measure restricted to the Borel subsets in interval (0,1).

Theorem 2.4 (σ -algebra closed under arbitrary intersection). If \mathcal{F}_i , $i \in I$ for an arbitrary (possibly uncountable) I, then $\cap_i \mathcal{F}_i$ is a σ -algebra.

Proof. Since $\emptyset, \Omega \in \mathcal{F}_i$, then $\emptyset, \Omega \in \cap \mathcal{F}_i$. Furthermore, $A \in \cap \mathcal{F}_i \Rightarrow A \in \mathcal{F}_i$ hence $\cap \mathcal{F}_i$ closed under intersection and complement.

Definition 2.5 (Smallest σ -field). Let A be a collection of subsets of Ω . Then there is a smallest σ -field containing A, written as $\sigma(A)$.

Remark 3. The existence of $\sigma(A)$ is guaranteed using Theorem 2.4. Namely, let F_i be the different σ -algebra that contain A. Then an intersection yields the smallest one.

Theorem 2.6 (Measure on Product Spaces). If $(\Omega_i, \mathcal{F}_i, P_i)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ are probability spaces, let $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \dots \times \Omega_n = \{(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) : \omega_i \in \Omega_i\}$, $\mathcal{F} = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{F}_i$ is the σ -field generated by $\{A_1 \times \dots \times A_n : A_i \in \mathcal{F}_i\}$. Then P is a measure on \mathcal{F} , given by,

$$P(A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P_i(A_i).$$

We can define a random variable on probability spaces. A real valued function X defined on Ω is a random variable if for every borel set $B \subset \mathbb{R}$,

$$X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in B\} \in \mathcal{F}.$$

If X is a random variable, then X induces a probability measure on \mathbb{R} called its distribution, by setting $\mu(A) = P(X \in A) = P(X^{-1}(A)) = P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in B\})$.