

# Notes of Probability and Stochastics

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2021-01-28



# Contents

0.1	Notations . . . . .	4
<b>1</b>	<b>Measure and integrations</b>	<b>5</b>
1.1	Measurable space . . . . .	5
1.2	Measurable function . . . . .	7
1.3	Random Variable . . . . .	8
1.4	Measure . . . . .	12
1.5	Integration . . . . .	16
1.6	Transforms and Indefinite integral . . . . .	21

## 0.1 Notations

$\mathbb{R}$	$(-\infty, \infty)$
$\overline{\mathbb{R}}$	$[-\infty, \infty]$
$\mathbb{R}_+$	$[0, \infty)$
$\overline{A}$	Closure of set $A$
$A^\circ$	Interior of set $A$
$(x_n) \subset A$	A sequence taking value in $A$
$2^A$	The power set of $A$
$\mathcal{A}$	A collection of subsets in $A$ , i.e., $\mathcal{A} \subset 2^A$
$\ker \mathcal{A}$	$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$
$x_n \nearrow x$	$(x_n)$ is increasing and converges to $x$ .
$\sigma(\mathcal{A})$	$\sigma$ -algebra generated by $\mathcal{A}$ .
$\mathcal{A}_+$	Nonnegative function in $\mathcal{A}$
$\mu \ll \nu$	$\mu$ is absolutely continuous w.r.t. $\nu$ .
s.t.	such that
w.r.t.	with respect to
r.v.	random variable

# Chapter 1

## Measure and integrations

### 1.1 Measurable space

#### 1.1.1 $\sigma$ algebra

**Definition 1.1.** A nonempty system of subset of  $\Omega$  is an algebra on  $\Omega$  if it's

1. Closed under complement:  $A^c \in \mathcal{A} \iff A \in \mathcal{A}$
2. Closed under finite union:  $\cup_i A_i \in \mathcal{A} \iff \forall i, A_i \in \mathcal{A}$

it's an  $\sigma$  algebra on  $\Omega$  if it's also closed under countable union.

*Remark.*  $\mathcal{A}$  is an algebra auto implies  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\Omega \in \mathcal{A}$ . So  $\{\emptyset, \Omega\}$  is the minimum algebra on  $\Omega$  and thus minimum  $\sigma$  algebra while the discrete algebra  $2^\Omega$  is maximum.

Let  $\{\mathcal{A}_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is a collection of  $\sigma$  algebra, then we have  $\mathcal{A} = \cap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \mathcal{A}_\gamma$  is also a  $\sigma$  algebra. Hence we can define the smallest  $\sigma$  algebra as intersection of all  $\sigma$  algebras contains  $\mathcal{A}$ , that called the  $\sigma$  algebra **generated** by  $\mathcal{A}$  and denoted by  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ .

The smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the system of all open sets in a topological space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is called **Borel  $\sigma$  algebra** on  $\Omega$  and denoted by  $\mathcal{B}(\Omega)$ , its elements are called **Borel sets**.

#### 1.1.2 $\pi, \lambda, m$ systems

A collection of subsets  $\mathcal{A}$  is called.

1. **m-system** if closed under monotone series, that is if  $(A_n) \subset \mathcal{A}$  and  $A_n \nearrow A$ , then  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ .
2.  **$\pi$ -system** is closed under finite intersection
3.  **$\lambda$ -system** if
  1.  $\Omega \in \mathcal{A}$
  2. closed under proper difference:

$$A - B \in \mathcal{A} \iff B \subset A \text{ and } B, A \in \mathcal{A}$$

3. is an m-system.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$  iff it's both a  $\pi$  system and  $\lambda$  system.*

Which can be proved as follows:

- $\implies$  :
  1.  $\Omega \in \mathcal{A}$
  2.  $A - B = A \cap B^c \in \mathcal{A}$
  3. is an m-system
- $\impliedby$  :
  1.  $A^c = \Omega - A \in \mathcal{A}$
  2.  $A \cup B = (A^c \cap B^c)^c \in \mathcal{A}$
  3. hence  $\mathcal{A}$  is an algebra and  $\mathcal{A}$  is a m-system.

Similarly, for  $m, \pi, \lambda$  -system, they also has a minimum system generated by some collection  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Lemma 1.1.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an algebra, then*

1.  $m(\mathcal{A}) = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$
2. if  $\mathcal{B}$  is an m class and  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B}$ , then  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = m(\mathcal{A}) \subset \mathcal{B}$

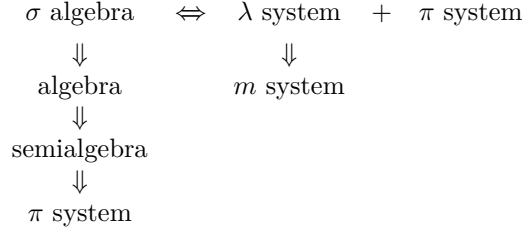
Similarly, let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a  $\pi$  class, then  $\lambda(\mathcal{A}) = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$

Then we have **Monotone class theorem**:

**Theorem 1.2.**  $\forall \mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ , s.t.:

1. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\pi$ -class,  $\mathcal{B}$  is a  $\lambda$ -class, then  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) \subset \mathcal{B}$
2. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is an algebra,  $\mathcal{B}$  is a m-class, then  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) \subset \mathcal{B}$

### 1.1.3 Graphical illustration of different classes



### 1.1.4 Measurable spaces

**Definition 1.2** (Measurable Space). Pair  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  where  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\sigma$ -Algebra on  $\Omega$ .

**Definition 1.3** (Products of measurable spaces). Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}), (F, \mathcal{F})$  be two measurable spaces. For  $A \subset E, B \subset F$ ,  $A \times B$  is the set of all pairs  $(x, y) : x \in A, y \in B$ . Note that  $\mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{F}$  is also a  $\sigma$ -Algebra with all  $A \times B$  where  $A \in \mathcal{E}, B \in \mathcal{F}$  which is called *the product  $\sigma$ -Algebra*.

## 1.2 Measurable function

### 1.2.1 Mappings

Let  $f : \Omega_1 \rightarrow \Omega_2$  be a mapping,  $\forall B \subset \Omega_2$  and  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{P}(\Omega_2)$ , the **inverse image** of

- $B$  is  $f^{-1}(B) = \{\omega : \omega \in \Omega_1, f(\omega) \in B\} := \{f \in B\}$
- $\mathcal{G}$  is  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) = \{f^{-1}(B) : B \in \mathcal{G}\}$

There is some properties:

1.  $f^{-1}(\Omega_2) = \Omega_1, f^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$
2.  $f^{-1}(B^c) = [f^{-1}(B)]^c$
3.
$$\begin{aligned}
 f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} B_\gamma\right) &= \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} f^{-1}(B_\gamma) \text{ for } B_\gamma \subset \Omega_2, \gamma \in \Gamma \\
 f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} B_\gamma\right) &= \bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} f^{-1}(B_\gamma) \text{ for } B_\gamma \subset \Omega_2, \gamma \in \Gamma
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Gamma$  may not countable.

4.  $f^{-1}(B_1 - B_2) = f^{-1}(B_1) - f^{-1}(B_2) \forall B_1, B_2 \subset \Omega_2$
5.  $B_1 \subset B_2 \subset \Omega_2 \implies f^{-1}(B_1) \subset f^{-1}(B_2)$

6. If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra,  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$  is also a  $\sigma$ -algebra. It's easy to check  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$  is closed under complement and countable union. (From properties 2 and 3)
7. If  $\mathcal{C}$  is nonempty,  $f^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C})) = \sigma(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}))$

**Remarks**  $f^{-1}$  preserves all the set operations on  $\Omega$ .

### 1.2.2 Measurable functions

**Definition 1.4.** For two measurable spaces  $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{A})$ ,  $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{B})$ ,  $f : \Omega_1 \rightarrow \Omega_2$  is a **measurable mapping** if  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathcal{A}$ , where

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) = \{f^{-1}(B) : B \in \mathcal{B}\}$$

It is a **measurable function** if  $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{B}) = (\mathcal{R}^n, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{R}^n))$ , moreover, a **Borel function** if  $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{A}) = (\mathcal{R}^m, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{R}^m))$

*Remark.* If  $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ , the definition can be reduced to  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{A}$  since

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) = f^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C})) = \sigma(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$$

**Lemma 1.2.** Suppose  $f : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$  and  $g : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$  are measurable, then so is  $f \circ g$ .

*Proof.* The same as how we proved composition of continuous function is continuous. □

## 1.3 Random Variable

A r.v.  $X$  is a measurable function from  $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{A})$  to  $(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{B})$ . It denoted by  $X$  is  $\mathcal{A}$ -measurable or  $X \in \mathcal{A}$

**(Another definition):** A r.v.  $X$  is a measurable mapping from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  to  $(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{B})$  such that

$$P(|X| = \infty) = P(\{\omega : |X(\omega)| = \infty\}) = 0$$

**Lemma 1.3.**  $X$  is a r.v. from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  to  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$

$$\iff X \leq x = X^{-1}([-\infty, x]) \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\iff X \leq x = X^{-1}([-\infty, x]) \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall x \in D$$

where  $D$  is a dense subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , e.g.  $\mathbb{Q}$ .  $\{X \leq x\}$  above can be replaced by

$$\{X \leq x\}, \quad \{X \geq x\}, \quad \{X < x\}, \quad \{X > x\}, \quad \{x < X < y\}$$



### 1.3.1 Construction of random variables

**Lemma 1.4.**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is a random vectors if  $X_k$  is a r.v.  $\forall k$  iff  $\mathbf{X}$  is a measurable function from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  to  $(\mathcal{R}^n, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{R}^n))$ .

*Proof.* Note that

$$\{\mathbf{X} \in \prod I_n\} = \bigcap \{X_n \in I_n\} \in \mathcal{A}$$

where  $I_k = (a_k, b_k]$ ,  $-\infty \leq a_k \leq b_k \leq \infty$  and follows from  $\sigma(\{\prod I_n\}) = \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{R}^n)$ . For the other direction, note

$$\{X_k \leq t\} = \{\mathbf{X} \in \prod_{i < k} \mathbb{R} \times \{-\infty, t\} \times \prod_{i > k} \mathbb{R}\} \in \mathcal{A}$$

□

Recall lemma 1.2 we have:

**Theorem 1.3.**  $\forall$  random  $n$  vectors  $X = (X_{1:n})$  and Borel function  $f$  from  $\mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^m$ , then  $f(X)$  is a random  $m$  vectors.

*Remark.* Note that continuous function are borel measurable since continuity leads to inverse image of an open set is still open. So if  $X_{1:n}$  are r.v.'s, so are  $\sum X_n$ ,  $\sin(x)$ ,  $e^X$ ,  $\text{Poly}(X)$ ,  $\dots$ . That implies:

$\forall X, Y \in \mathcal{A}$ , so are  $aX + bY$ ,  $X \vee Y = \max\{X, Y\}$ ,  $X \wedge Y = \min\{X, Y\}$ ,  $X^2$ ,  $XY$ ,  $X/Y$ ,  $X^+ = \max(x, 0)$ ,  $X^- = -\min(x, 0)$ ,  $|X| = X^+ + X^-$

### 1.3.2 Limiting opts

Let  $(X_n)$  are r.v. on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$ , then  $\sup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$ ,  $\inf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$ ,  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$ ,  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$  are r.v.'s. Moreover, if it exists,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$  is r.v..

*Proof.* First two follows from,  $\forall t \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \{\sup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq t\} &= \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \{X_n \leq t\} \in \mathcal{A} \\ \{\inf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \geq t\} &= \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \{X_n \geq t\} \in \mathcal{A} \end{aligned}$$

and the last two follows from  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} = \inf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{m \geq k} X_m$  and  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} = \sup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq k} X_m$ .

□

That implies

**Lemma 1.5.** *If  $S = \sum_1^\infty X_n$  exists everywhere, then  $S$  is a r.v.*

*Proof.* Note  $\sum_1^\infty X = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_n X_n$  is a r.v.

□

If  $X = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$  holds **almost** everywhere, i.e., define  $\Omega_0$  is the set of all  $\omega$ , such that  $\lim_n X_n(\omega)$  exists, then  $P(\Omega_0) = 1$ , we say that  $X_n$  converges a.s. and write:

$$X_n \rightarrow X \quad a.s.$$

For a measurable function  $f$ , we may modify it at a null set into  $f'$  and it remain measurable since for any open set  $G$ ,  $f'^{-1}(G)$  differ  $f^{-1}(G)$  at most null set, by the completion of Lebesgue measure space,  $f'^{-1}(G)$  is measurable and thus  $f'^{-1}$  measurable. Hence, for  $f_n \rightarrow f$  a.s., we may ignore a null set and then  $f_n \rightarrow f$  everywhere and thus  $f$  measurable.

### 1.3.3 Approximations of r.v. by simple r.v.'s

**Definition 1.5.** If  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , the indicator function  $\mathbf{1}_A$  is a r.v. If  $\Omega = \sum_1^n A_i$ , where  $A_i \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $X = \sum_1^n a_i \mathbf{1}_{A_i}$  is a r.v. and called **simple r.v.**

Any r.v. can be approximated by simple ones:

**Theorem 1.4.**  $\forall X \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\exists 0 \leq X_1 \leq X_2 \leq \dots \leq X_n$  s.t.  $X_n(\omega) \nearrow X(\omega)$  everywhere.

*Proof.* Suppose

$$X_n(\omega) = \sup\left\{\frac{j}{2^n} : j \in \mathbb{Z}, \frac{j}{2^n} \leq \min(X(\omega), 2^n)\right\}$$

One can check  $X_n$  is simple r.v. and  $X_n(\omega) \nearrow X(\omega)$  for all  $\omega \in \Omega$ .

□

### 1.3.4 $\sigma$ algebra generated by r.v.

Let  $\{X_\lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is r.v.s on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$ . Define

$$\sigma(X_\lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda) := \sigma(X_\lambda \in B, B \in \mathcal{B}, \lambda \in \Lambda) = \sigma(X_\lambda^{-1}(\mathcal{B}), \lambda \in \Lambda) = \sigma(\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_\lambda^{-1}(\mathcal{B}))$$

which is called  $\sigma$  algebra generated by  $\{X_\lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ , where  $\Lambda$  is a index set which can be uncountable.

For  $\Lambda = \mathbb{N}^+$ :

1.
 
$$\sigma(X_i) = \sigma(X_i^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) = X_i^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) = \{X_i \in \mathcal{B}\}$$

$$\sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sigma(\cup_{i=1}^n X_i^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) = \sigma(\cup_{i=1}^n \sigma(X_i))$$
2.
 
$$\sigma(X_1) \subset \sigma(X_1, X_2) \subset \dots \subset \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

$$\sigma(X_1, X_2, \dots) \supset \sigma(X_2, X_3, \dots) \supset \dots \supset \sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots)$$
3.  $\bigcap_1^\infty \sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots)$  is the tail  $\sigma$  algebra of  $X_1$ .

If  $A_{1:n}$  are not mutually exclusive to each other, then we have

$$|\sigma(A_{1:n})| = 2^{2^n}$$

Which follows from for a partition  $A_{1:n}$ ,

$$\sigma(A_1, \dots, A_n) = \{\bigcup_{i \in J} A_i\}$$

where  $J$  is any subset of  $\mathbb{N} \leq n$  and  $A_0 = \emptyset$ . Hence for discrete r.v.  $Y$ ,  $\sigma(Y)$  can be generated from  $A_i = \{Y = y_i\}$  for all  $y_i$ 's. For continuous case, it's generated by all intervals.

### 1.3.5 Monotone classes of function

**Definition 1.6** (monotone class).  $\mathcal{M}$  is called a monotone class if: -  $1 \in \mathcal{M}$  -  $f, g \in \mathcal{M}_b$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \implies af + bg \in \mathcal{M}$  -  $(f_n) \subset \mathcal{M}_+, f_n \uparrow f \implies f \in \mathcal{M}$

where  $\mathcal{M}_+$  is a subcollection consisting of positive functions in  $\mathcal{M}$ , and  $\mathcal{M}_b$  for the bounded function in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Theorem 1.5** (Monotone class theorem for functions). *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a monotone class of functions on  $E$ . Suppose for some  $\mathcal{P}$ -system  $\mathcal{C}$  generating  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $1_A \in \mathcal{M}$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ . Then  $\mathcal{M}$  includes all positive  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable functions and all bounded  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable functions.*

*Proof.* First we need to show that  $1_A \in \mathcal{M}$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{E}$ . Let  $\mathcal{D} = \{A \in \mathcal{E} : 1_A \in \mathcal{M}\}$ . Now we check that  $\mathcal{D}$  is a d-system: -  $1_E = 1$ , so  $E \in \mathcal{D}$ . -  $B \subset A$ ,  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$ .  $1_{A-B} = 1_A - 1_B \in \mathcal{D}$  -  $(A_n) \subset \mathcal{D}$  and  $A_n \uparrow A$ , then  $1_{A_n} \uparrow 1_A$ , so  $1_A \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $A \in \mathcal{D}$

By assumption,  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$ , and  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  is the smallest d-system by the theorem above, so  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{D}$ , so  $1_A \in \mathcal{M}$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{E}$ .

As  $1_A \in \mathcal{M}$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{E}$ , we can easily prove that all of the positive simple function is generated by the linear combination of  $1_A$  s. And all positive  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable functions is generated by a sequence of positive simple functions.

Then for general bounded  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function  $f$ , using  $f = f^+ - f^-$  where  $f^+, f^- \in \mathcal{M}$ .

□

**Definition 1.7.** Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}), (F, \mathcal{F})$  be two measurable spaces and  $f$  is a bijection  $E \rightarrow F$ . Then  $f$  is said to be a isomorphism of  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  if  $f$  is  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable and  $f^{-1}$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable. These two spaces are called isomorphic if there exists an isomorphisms between them.

**Definition 1.8.** A measurable space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  is said to be *standard* if it there exist an embedding  $f : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ .

*Remark.* Clearly,  $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}([0, 1]))$ ,  $(\mathbb{N} \leq n, 2^{N \leq n})$  and  $(\mathbb{N}, 2^{\mathbb{N}})$  are all standard. In fact, every standard measurable space is isomorphic to one of them.

## 1.4 Measure

Let  $\Omega$  be a space and  $\mathcal{A}$  a class, then function  $\mu : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} = [-\infty, \infty]$  is a **set function**.

It's

- 1. **finite** if  $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}, |\mu(A)| < \infty$
- 2.  **$\sigma$ -finite** if  $\exists A_n \subset \mathcal{A}, \text{ s.t. } \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \Omega \quad \forall n \quad |\mu(A_n)| < \infty$
- 3. **s finite** if there exist countable finite  $(\mu_n)$  s.t.  $\mu = \sum_n \mu_n$ .
- 1. **additive**  $\iff \mu(\sum_{i=1}^n A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i)$
- 2.  **$\sigma$ -additive**  $\iff \mu(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$

*Remark.* Finite implies  $\sigma$  finite and  $\sigma$  finite implies  $\Sigma$  finite.

$\mu$  is a **measure** on  $\mathcal{A}$  if

1.  $\forall A \in \mathcal{A} : \mu(A) \geq 0$
2. It's  $\sigma$  additive.

the triplet  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  is a **measure space** when  $\mu$  is a measure and  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  is a measurable space. Whose sets are called **measurable sets** or  **$\mathcal{A}$ -measurable**. A measure space is a **probability space** if  $P(\Omega) = 1$ .

Assume that  $A_{1:n} \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\mu$  is a measure.

1.  $\mu$  is continues from above, if  $A_n \searrow A \implies \mu(A_n) \rightarrow \mu(A)$
2.  $\mu$  is continues from below, if  $A_n \nearrow A \implies \mu(A_n) \rightarrow \mu(A)$
3.  $\mu$  is continues at  $A$ , if  $A_n \rightarrow A \implies \mu(A_n) \rightarrow \mu(A)$

$\forall$  Measure  $\mu$  is continues from below and may not continues from above. It will be continues from above if  $\exists m < \infty, \mu(A_m) < \infty$ . So finite measure  $\mu$  are always continues.

### 1.4.1 Properties of measure

#### 1.4.1.1 Semialgebras

Let  $\mu$  be a nonnegative additive set function on a semialgebra  $\mathcal{A}$ .  $\forall A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\{A_n, B_n, n \geq 1\} \in \mathcal{A}$

1. (**Monotonicity**):  $A \subset B \implies \mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$
2. ( **$\sigma$ -subadditivity**):
  1.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \subset A, \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_n) \leq \mu(A)$
  2. Moreover, if  $\mu$  is a measure, then

$$B \subset \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \implies \mu(B) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_n)$$

We can assert a nonnegative set function  $\mu$  is a measure by:

1.  $\mu$  is additive
2.  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$  subadditive on  $\mathcal{S}$

#### 1.4.1.2 Algebras

Algebras enjoy all the properties of semialgebra, also, we have

**Theorem 1.6** ( $\sigma$  subadditivity). *Let  $\mu$  be a measure on an algebra  $\mathcal{A}$*

$$A \subset \cup_1^{\infty} A_n \implies \mu(A) \leq \sum_1^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$$

*Proof.* Note  $A = A \cap (\cup A_n) = \cup(A \cap A_n)$ , hence we can write  $A$  as union in  $\mathcal{A}$  by take  $B_n = A \cap A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ .

$$A = \cup_1^{\infty} B_n$$

and then we can take  $C_n = B_n - \cup_1^{n-1} B_i \in \mathcal{A}$  to write  $A$  as disjoint union:

$$A = \sum C_n$$

Then

$$\mu(\mathcal{A}) = \mu(\sum C_n) = \sum \mu(C_n) \leq \sum \mu(B_n) \leq \sum \mu(A_n)$$

as  $C_n \subset B_n \subset A_n$ .

□

### 1.4.1.3 $\sigma$ algebras

Let  $\mu$  be a measure on an  $\sigma$  algebra  $\mathcal{A}$

1. Monotonicity
2. Boole's inequality (Countable Sub-Additivity)

$$\mu(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$$

3. Continuity from below
4. Continuity from above if  $\mu$  is finite in  $A_i$ .

The sense of 4 follows from suppose  $A_i \searrow A$ , then  $A_1 - A_i \nearrow A_1 - A$ , then

$$\mu(A_1) - \mu(A) = \mu(A_1 - A) = \lim \mu(A_1 - A_i) = \mu(A_1) - \lim(\mu(A_i))$$

where  $\mu(A_1)$  cannot be cancelled if  $\mu(A_i) = \infty$ .

**Definition 1.9.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  be a measure space, and  $N \subset \Omega$

1.  $N$  is a  $\mu$  **null set** iff  $\exists B \in \mathcal{A}$  s.t.  $\mu(B) = 0$ ,  $N \subset B$
2. This measure space is a **complete measure space** if  $\forall \mu$  null space  $N$ ,  $N \in \mathcal{A}$

**Theorem 1.7.** Given any measure space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ , there exist a complete measure space  $(\Omega, \bar{\mathcal{A}}, \bar{\mu})$ , such that  $\mathcal{A} \subset \bar{\mathcal{A}}$  and  $\bar{\mu}$  is an extension of  $\mu$ . This space is called completion of  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ .

*Proof.* Take

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\mathcal{A}} &= \{A \cup N : A \in \mathcal{A}\} \\ \bar{\mathcal{B}} &= \{A \Delta N : A \in \mathcal{A}\} \end{aligned}$$

$\bar{\mathcal{A}} = \bar{\mathcal{B}}$  since  $A \cup N = (A - B) \Delta (B \cap (A \cup N))$  and  $A \Delta N = (A - B) \cup (B \cap (A \Delta N))$ .

Then we can show that  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  is a  $\sigma$  algebra. Let  $\Omega_i = A_i \cup N_i \in \bar{\mathcal{A}}$ , then

$$\bigcup_1^{\infty} \Omega_i = \bigcup_1^{\infty} A_i \cup \bigcup_1^{\infty} N_i$$

and note  $\bigcup_1^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\mu(\bigcup_1^{\infty} N_i) \leq \mu(\bigcup_1^{\infty} B_i) \leq \sum_1^{\infty} \mu(B_i) = 0$ . Thus  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  is closed by countable union. As for complements, note  $\Omega^c = A^c \cap N^c = (A^c \cap N^c \cap B^c) \cup (A^c \cap N^c \cap B) = (A^c \cap B^c) \cup (A^c \cap N^c \cap B) \in \bar{\mathcal{A}}$ .

Finally we define a measure  $\bar{\mu}$  on  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  by

$$\bar{\mu}(A \cup N) = \mu(A)$$

We should prove it's well defined. Suppose  $A_1 \cup N_1 = A_2 \cup N_2 \in \bar{\mathcal{A}}$ , note  $A \Delta B \Delta C = A \Delta (B \Delta C)$  and  $A \Delta B = B \Delta A$ .

$$\begin{aligned} (A_1 \Delta A_2) \Delta (N_1 \Delta N_2) &= (A_1 \Delta A_2 \Delta N_1) \Delta N_2 \\ &= (A_1 \Delta N_1) \Delta (A_2 \Delta N_2) \\ &= \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $A_1 \Delta A_2 = N_1 \Delta N_2$ , note  $N_1 \Delta N_2 \subset N_1 \cup N_2 \subset B_1 \cup B_2$ , hence  $\mu(A_1 \Delta A_2) = 0$  and thus  $\mu(A_1 - A_2) = \mu(A_2 - A_1) = 0$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(A_1) &= \mu(A_1 - A_2) + \mu(A_1 \cap A_2) = \mu(A_1 \cap A_2) \\ \mu(A_2) &= \mu(A_2 - A_1) + \mu(A_1 \cap A_2) = \mu(A_1 \cap A_2) \end{aligned}$$

$\bar{\mu}$  is do well defined.  $\mu^*$  is auto  $\sigma$  additive since so is  $\mu$  and is easy to check that all  $\mu^*$  null set is  $\mu$  null set.

□

## 1.4.2 Specification of measures

**Theorem 1.8.** *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  be a measurable space. Let  $\mu, \nu$  be measures on it with  $\mu(\Omega) = \nu(\Omega) < \infty$ . If  $\mu, \nu$  agree on a  $\pi$  system generating  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $\mu, \nu$  are identical.  $>$*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the  $\pi$  system generating  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mu(A) = \nu(A)$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ . Consider  $\mathcal{D} = \{A \in \mathcal{A} : \mu(A) = \nu(A)\}$  which satisfies  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D} \subset \Omega$ . Then we need to prove that  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\lambda$  system:

- $\Omega \in \mathcal{D}$  by the assumption.
- Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $B \subset A$ . Then  $\mu(A - B) = \mu(A) - \mu(B) = \nu(A) - \nu(B) = \nu(A - B)$ , so  $A - B \in \mathcal{D}$
- Let  $(A_n) \uparrow A$  and  $(A_n) \subset \mathcal{D}$ , then  $\mu(A_n) \uparrow \mu(A)$ ,  $\nu(A_n) \uparrow \nu(A)$ , since  $\mu(A_n) = \nu(A_n)$  for every  $n$ , so  $\mu(A) = \nu(A)$ .

So  $\mathcal{D}$  is a d-system. It follows that  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{D}$ .

□

As consequence, we have

**Corollary 1.1.** Suppose  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are probability measures on space on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  then  $\mu = \nu$  iff  $\mu[-\infty, r] = \nu[-\infty, r], \forall r \in \mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof.* Note  $\{[-\infty, r] : r \in \mathbb{R}\}$  is a  $\pi$  system and generates  $\mathcal{B}$ .

□

### 1.4.3 Atomic and diffuse measure

**Definition 1.10.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  be a measure space where  $\mathcal{A}$  contains all the singletons:  $\{x\} \in \mathcal{A}$  for every  $x \in \Omega$  (it's true for all the standard measure).

A point  $x$  is said to be an **atom** if  $\mu(\{x\}) > 0$ , the measure is said to be **diffuse** if it has no atoms. It is said to be **purely atomic** if the set  $D$  of its atoms is countable and  $\mu(\Omega - D) = 0$ .

**Lemma 1.6.** A  $s$ -finite measure has at most countable many atoms.

*Proof.* It suffices to show that when  $\mu$  is finite. Suppose  $A_n = \{x : \mu\{x\} > \frac{1}{n}\}$  and  $A$  consists all atoms, then the claim follows from  $A_n \nearrow A$  and  $|A_n| \leq n\mu(\Omega)$  as  $A = \bigcup_n A_n$ .

□

**Theorem 1.9.** Let  $\mu$  be a  $s$ -finite measure on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$ . Then  $\mu = \nu + \lambda$  where  $\lambda$  is a diffuse measure and  $\nu$  is purely atomic.

*Proof.* Let  $D$  be set of all atoms and define

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda(A) &= \mu(A - D) \\ \nu(A) &= \mu(A \cap D)\end{aligned}$$

for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ . Clearly,  $\lambda + \nu = \mu$ . Then

- $\lambda$  is diffuse as  $\lambda\{x\} = 0$  for all  $x \in D$  and if  $\lambda\{x\} > 0$ , it must be  $x \in D$ .
- $\nu$  is purely atomic as  $D_\nu = D$  clearly and  $\nu(\Omega - D) = \mu(\emptyset) = 0$ .

□

## 1.5 Integration

Let  $f$  be Borel measurable on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ . The **integral** of  $f$  w.r.t  $\mu$  is denoted by

$$\int f(\omega)\mu(d\omega) = \int f d\mu = \int f$$



1. If  $f = \sum_1^n a_i \mathbf{1}_{A_i}$  with  $a_i \geq 0$ ,

$$\int f d\mu = \sum_1^n a_i \mu(A_i)$$

2. If  $f \geq 0$ , define

$$\int f d\mu = \lim_n \int f_n d\mu$$

where  $f_n$  are simple functions and  $f_n \nearrow f$ .

3. For any  $f$ , we have  $f = f^+ - f^-$ , define

$$\int f d\mu := \int f^+ d\mu - \int f^- d\mu$$

4.  $f$  is said to be integrable w.r.t.  $\mu$  if  $\int |f| d\mu < \infty$ . We denote all integrable functions by  $L^1$ .

**Proposition 1.1.** (*Integral over sets*)

$$\int_A f d\mu = \int f \mathbf{1}_A d\mu = \int f(\omega) \mathbf{1}_{A(\omega)} \mu(d\omega)$$

(**Absolute integrability**).  $\int f$  is finite iff  $\int |f|$  is finite.

(**Linearity**) If  $f, g, a, b \geq 0$  or  $f, g \in L^1$

$$\int (af + bg) = a \int f + b \int g$$

( **$\sigma$  additivity over sets**) If  $A = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ , then

$$\int_A f = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{A_i} f$$

(**Positivity**) If  $f \geq 0$  a.s., then  $\int f \geq 0$

(**Monotonicity**) If  $f_1 \leq f \leq f_2$  a.s., then  $\int f_1 \leq \int f \leq \int f_2$

(**Mean value theorem**) If  $a \leq f \leq b$  a.s., then

$$a\mu(A) \leq \int_A f \leq b\mu(A)$$

(**Modulus inequality**):  $|\int f| \leq \int |f|$

### 1.5.1 Monotone Convergence Theorem

**Theorem 1.10** (Monotone Convergence Theorem). *Suppose nonnegative  $f_n \nearrow f$  a.e., then  $\int f_n d\mu \nearrow \int f d\mu$ .*

**Theorem 1.11.** *We may ignore a null set then  $f_n \nearrow f$  and their integration still equal. Note  $\int f_n d\mu \leq \int f d\mu$ ,  $\int f_n d\mu$  must converges to some  $L \leq \int f$ . Then we show  $L \geq \int f$ .*

*Let  $s = \sum a_i \chi_{E_i}$  be simple function and  $s \leq f$ . Let  $A_n = \{x : f_n(x) \geq cs(x)\}$  where  $c \in (0, 1)$ , then  $A_n \nearrow X$ . For each  $n$*

$$\begin{aligned} \int f_n &\geq \int_{A_n} f_n \geq c \int_{A_n} s \\ &= c \int_{A_n} \sum a_i \chi_{E_i} \\ &= c \sum a_i \mu(E_i \cap A_n) \\ &\nearrow c \int s \end{aligned}$$

*hence  $L \geq c \int s \implies L \geq \int s \implies L = \lim L \geq \lim \int s_n = \int f$ .*

**Lemma 1.7** (Fatou's Lemma). *If  $f_n \geq 0$  a.e. then*

$$\int \left( \liminf_n f_n \right) \leq \liminf_n \int f_n$$

*Proof.* Suppose  $g_n = \inf_{i \geq n} f_i$  and recall that  $\lim g_n = \liminf f_n$ . Clearly  $g_n \leq f_i \forall i \geq n$  hence

$$\int g_n \leq \inf_{i \geq n} \int f_i$$

Take limit both side and note  $g_n$  is increasing:

$$\lim \int g_n = \int \lim g_n = \int \liminf f_n \leq \liminf \int f_n$$

□

**Theorem 1.12** (Dominated Convergence Theorem). *Suppose  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x) \forall x$ , and there exists a nonnegative integrable  $g$  s.t.  $|f_n(x)| \leq g(x)$  (then we get  $f_n \in L^1$  immediately), then*

$$\lim \int f_n d\mu = \int f d\mu$$

*Proof.* Since  $f_n + g \geq 0$

$$\int f + \int g = \int f + g \leq \liminf \int f_n + g = \liminf \int f_n + \int g$$

thus  $\int f \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n$ . Similarly, we can get  $\int f \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n$  from  $g - f_n \geq 0$ .

□

**Theorem 1.13** (Tonelli's Throrem). *If  $\sum_1^\infty \int |f_n| < \infty$ , then*

$$\int \left( \sum_{i=1}^\infty f_n \right) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty \int f_n$$

*Proof.* Let  $g_k = \sum_1^k |f_n|$ ,  $g = \sum_1^\infty |f_n|$ ,  $h_k = \sum_1^k f_n$ ,  $h = \sum_1^\infty f_n$ . Then  $g_k \nearrow g$ , by MCT, we have

$$\int g = \lim \int g_k = \lim \sum_1^k \int |f_n| = \sum_1^\infty \int |f_n| < \infty$$

Hence we may let  $g$  dominate  $h_k$  and get

$$\int h = \lim \int h_k = \sum_1^\infty \int f_n$$

□

### 1.5.2 Criteria for zero a.e.

**Lemma 1.8** (Markov inequality). *Let  $A = \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \geq M\}$ , then*

$$\mu(A) \leq \frac{\int f}{M}$$

*Proof.*

$$\mu(A) = \int \chi_A = \int_A \chi_A \leq \int_A \frac{f}{M} \leq \int_X \frac{f}{M} = \frac{\int f}{M}$$

□

Suppose  $f$  is measurable and non-negative and  $\int f d\mu = 0$ . Then  $f = 0$  a.e.

*Proof.* By lemma 1.8 and define  $A_M = \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \geq M\}$ . Consequently,  $\mu(A_M) = 0$  for all  $M > 0$ , note  $A_{\frac{1}{n}} \nearrow A_0$ :

$$A_0 = \bigcup_1^\infty A_{\frac{1}{n}} \implies \mu(A_0) = \sum 0 = 0$$

Hence  $f = 0$  a.e. □

**Lemma 1.9.** *Suppose  $f$  is integrable and  $\int_A f = 0$  for all measurable  $A$ . Then  $f = 0$  a.e.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $A_n = \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \geq \frac{1}{n}\}$ , then

$$0 = \int_{A_n} f \geq \frac{\mu(A_n)}{n} \implies \mu(A_n) = 0$$

thus  $\mu\{x \in \Omega : f(x) > 0\} = 0$ . Similarly,  $\mu\{x \in \Omega : f(x) < 0\} = 0$  and the claim follows. □

**Theorem 1.14.** *Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable and  $\int_a^x f = 0$  for all  $x$ , then  $f = 0$  a.e.*

*Proof.* For any interval  $I = [c, d]$ ,

$$\int_I f = \int_a^d f - \int_a^c f = 0$$

Then the integral is 0 for finite disjoint union of intervals from additivity. Note open sets  $G$  can be written as countable union of disjoint open intervals  $G = \sum_1^\infty I_i = \lim \sum I_n \implies$

$$\int_G f = \int f \chi_G = \int f \sum_1^\infty \chi_{I_i} = \int \lim f \sum \chi_{I_i} = \lim \int f \sum \chi_{I_i} = 0$$

If  $G_n \searrow H$ , then

$$\int_H f = \int f \chi_H = \int \lim f \chi_{G_n} = \lim \int f \chi_{G_n} = \lim \int_{G_n} f = 0$$

where we apply DMT twice and take dominated function  $g = |f|$ .

Finally, for any borel measurable set  $E$ , there is  $G_\delta \supset E$  and  $m(G_\delta - E) = 0$ , then

$$\int_E f = \int f \chi_E = \int f \chi_{G_\delta} = \int_{G_\delta} f = 0$$

□

### 1.5.3 Characterization of the integral

**Theorem 1.15.** *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  be a measurable space and  $L : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}_+$ , then there is a unique measure  $\mu$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  s.t.  $L(f) = \int f$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{A}_+$  iff:*

- $f = 0 \implies L(f) = 0$
- $f, g \in \mathcal{A}_+$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}_+ \implies L(af + bg) = aL(f) + bL(g)$
- $(f_n) \subset \mathcal{A}_+$  and  $f_n \nearrow f \implies L(f_n) \nearrow L(f)$

*Proof.*  $\implies$  follows from the definition and properties of integral. For  $\Leftarrow$ , let there is a function  $L$  satisfies above conditions and give a  $\mu$  and let  $\mu(A) = L(1_A)$ , then use those conditions we can prove that  $\mu$  is a measure a  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$ .

□

## 1.6 Transforms and Indefinite integral

**Definition 1.11** (Image measure). Let  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  and  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  be measurable spaces. Let  $\nu$  be a measure on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  and let  $h : F \rightarrow E$  be measurable relative to  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$ , then define a mapping  $\nu \circ h^{-1}(B) = \nu(h^{-1}B)$ ,  $B \in \mathcal{E}$ . Then  $\nu \circ h^{-1}$  is a measure on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ , which is called the **image** of  $\nu$  under  $h$ .

*Remark.* Image inherit finite and s-finite, but not  $\sigma$ -finite.

**Theorem 1.16.** *For every  $f \in \mathcal{E}$ , we have  $(\nu \circ h^{-1})f = \nu(f \circ h)$ .*

*Proof.* We only need to show that  $\mathcal{E}_+$  case and then the general case follows easily.

Let  $L : \mathcal{E}_+ \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}_+$  by letting  $L(f) = \nu(f \circ h)$ . Then as the property of  $\nu(f \circ h)$ ,  $f$  satisfies the properties of integral characterization theorem. Then,  $L(f) = \mu f$  for some unique measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ . And note  $\mu = \nu \circ h$

$$\mu(B) = L(1_B) = \nu(1_B \circ h) = \nu(h^{-1}B)$$

□

### 1.6.1 Images of the Lebesgue measure

By theorem 1.16, we have a convenient tool for creating new measure from old and, we may integral a measure using Lebesgue measure:

**Theorem 1.17.** *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  be a standard measure space where  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -finite and  $b = \mu(\Omega)$ . Then there exists a measurable mapping  $h : ([0, b], \mathcal{B}_{[0, b]}) \rightarrow (\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  s.t.  $\mu = \lambda \circ h^{-1}$ , where  $\lambda$  is the Lebesgue measure on  $[0, b]$ .*

*Proof.* See 5.15 and 5.16 on page 34 in *Probability and Stochastic*. □

### 1.6.2 Indefinite integrals

**Definition 1.12.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  be a measure space and  $p \in \mathcal{A}_+$ . Define:

$$\nu(A) = \mu(p\mathbf{1}_A) = \int_A p d\mu$$

then  $\nu$  is a measure on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  and called **indefinite integral** of  $p$  w.r.t.  $\mu$ .

*Remark.*  $\nu$  is a measure follows from MCT.

**Theorem 1.18.** *For any  $f \in \mathcal{A}_+$ ,  $\nu f = \mu(pf)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $L(f) = \mu(pf)$ . Check  $L$  :

- $f = 0 \implies L(f) = 0$
- Give  $f, g \in \mathcal{E}_+$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}_+ \implies L(af + bg) = \mu(p(af + bg))$  and based on the arithmetic rules on  $\mathbb{R}$  and the linearity of  $\mu$ ,  $L(af + bg) = aL(f) + bL(g)$
- Give  $(f_n) \subset \mathcal{E}_+$  and  $f_n \nearrow f$ ,  $L(f_n) = \mu(pf_n)$  and as  $f_n \nearrow f$ ,  $pf_n \nearrow pf$  so  $\lim L(f_n) = \lim \mu(pf_n)$ . According to the monotone converging theorem,  $\lim \mu(pf_n) = \mu(pf) = L(f)$

So there exists  $\hat{\mu}$  s.t.  $\mu(pf) = \hat{\mu}f$  and that force  $\hat{\mu} = \nu$  as

$$\hat{\mu}(A) = L(\mathbf{1}_A) = \mu(p\mathbf{1}_A) = \nu(A)$$
□

*Remark.* Writing above result in an explicit notation:

$$\int_E f d\nu = \int_E pf d\mu$$

that is:

$$d\nu = p d\mu$$

and it's precisely Fundamental theorem of calculus. Thus we can say:

- $\nu$  is the indefinite integral of  $p$  w.r.t.  $\mu$  or
- $p$  is the density of  $\nu$  w.r.t.  $\mu$ .

### 1.6.3 Radon-Nikodym theorem

**Definition 1.13** (absolutely continuous). Let  $\nu$  and  $\mu$  be measures on a measurable space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$ . Then  $\nu$  is said to be **absolutely continuous** w.r.t.  $\mu$  if for any set  $A \in \mathcal{E}$ ,  $\mu(A) = 0 \implies \nu(A) = 0$  and denoted by  $\nu \ll \mu$ .

**Theorem 1.19.** *If  $\nu$  satisfies the conditions  $\nu f = \mu(pf)$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , then  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mu(A) = 0$ , then we need to prove that  $\mu(p\mathbf{1}_A) = 0$ : - Let  $p$  is a simple function with a cononical form on  $E$  with  $p = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mathbf{1}_{B_i}$  and as  $(B_i)$  is a partition,  $(B_i \cap A)$  is a partition of  $A$ , noted as  $(A_i)$ . Then

$$\mu(p\mathbf{1}_A) = \int_A p d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu(A_i)$$

As  $\mu(A) = 0$  and  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ ,  $\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i)$ , so  $\mu(A_i) = 0$  for every  $i$ . So  $\mu(p\mathbf{1}_A) = 0$ . - Let  $p \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , give  $(p_n)$  s.t.  $p_n \nearrow p$  where  $p_n = d_n \circ p$ . Then  $p_n \mathbf{1}_A \nearrow p\mathbf{1}_A$  and for every  $n$ ,  $\mu(p_n \mathbf{1}_A)$  holds. So:

$$\mu(p\mathbf{1}_A) = \mu(\lim p_n \mathbf{1}_A) = \lim \mu(p_n \mathbf{1}_A) = 0$$

according to the monotone converging theorem, so  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous respect to  $\mu$

□

**Theorem 1.20** (Radon Nikodym Theorem). *Suppose that  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -finite and  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$ . Then there exists a positive  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function  $p$  s.t.  $\nu f = \mu(pf)$  on  $E$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{E}_+$ . Moreover,  $p$  is unique above, if there is a  $q \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , then  $q = p$  a.e.*

Notice that Radon Nikodym theorem is the converse of the theorem before it. The proof of the Radon Nikodym theorem is not able to show here now.

**Definition 1.14** (transition kernel). Let  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  be measurable spaces. Let  $K$  be a mapping from  $E \times \mathcal{F}$  into  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}_+$ . Then,  $K$  is called a transition kernel from  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  into  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  if: - the mapping  $x \mapsto K(x, B)$  is  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable for every set  $B \in \mathcal{F}$  - the mapping  $B \mapsto K(x, B)$  is a measure on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  for every  $x \in E$

For example, if  $\nu$  is a finite measure on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$ , and  $k$  is a positive function on  $E \times F$  that is  $\mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{F}$ -measurable, then

$$K(x, B) = \int_B \nu(dy) k(x, y), \quad x \in E, B \in \mathcal{F}$$

when fix  $x \in E$ ,  $K(x, B) = \nu(k(x, y)\mathbf{1}_B) = \mu(B)$  for some  $\mu$  which is the measure on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$ .

when fix  $B \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $K(x, B) = f(x) =$

**Theorem 1.21.** *Let  $K$  be a transition kernel from  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  into  $(F, \mathcal{F})$ . Then*

$$Kf(x) = \int_F K(x, dy)f(y), \quad x \in E,$$

*defines a function  $Kf \in \mathcal{E}_+$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}_+$ .*

$$\mu K(B) = \int_E \mu(dx)K(x, B), \quad B \in \mathcal{F},$$

*defines a measure  $\mu K$  on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  for each measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ . and*

$$(\mu K)f = \mu(Kf) = \int_E \mu(dx) \int_F K(x, dy)f(y)$$

*for every measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and function  $f$  in  $\mathcal{F}_+$ .*

*Proof.*

□

**Theorem 1.22.** *Let  $f \in \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{F}$ , then  $x \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathcal{E}$  for each  $y \in F$  and  $y \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathcal{F}$  for each  $x \in E$ .*

**Theorem 1.23.** *For every  $f \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , we have  $(\nu \circ h^{-1})f = \nu(f \circ h)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $L : \mathcal{E}_+ \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}_+$  by letting  $L(f) = \nu(f \circ h)$ . Then as the property of  $\nu(f \circ h)$ ,  $f$  satisfies the properties of integral characterization theorem. Then,  $L(f) = \mu f$  for some unique measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ . And

$$\mu(B) = L(1_B) = \nu(1_B \circ h) = \nu(h^{-1}B), \quad B \in \mathcal{E}$$

□

**Definition 1.15** (Standard measurable space). Let  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  be measurable spaces let  $f$  be a bijection from  $E$  onto  $F$ , then  $f$  is called an isomorphism of  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  iff  $f$  is  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable and  $f^{-1}$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable.

A measurable space  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  is said to be a standard measurable space if it is isomorphic to  $(F, \mathcal{B}_F)$  for some Borel set  $F$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 1.16.** Let  $\mu$  be a measure on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ . It is said to be finite if  $\mu(E) < \infty$ , then  $\mu(A) < \infty$  for every  $A \subset E$ .

It is called a probability measure if  $\mu(E) = 1$ .

It is said to be  $\sigma$ -finite if there exists a measurable partition  $(E_n)$  of  $E$  s.t. for each  $n$ ,  $\mu(E_n) < \infty$ .

It is said to be  $\Sigma$ -finite if there exists a sequence of finite measures  $(\mu_n)$  s.t.  $\mu = \sum_n \mu_n$ .



**Theorem 1.24.** *If a measure is  $\sigma$ -finite then it must be  $\Sigma$ -finite.*

*Proof.* Assume that there is a measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  is  $\sigma$ -finite, where there is a  $(E_n) \subset \mathcal{E}$  s.t.  $\bigcup_n E_n = E$ . Then give  $(\mu_n)$  s.t. for each  $n$ ,

$$\begin{cases} \mu_n(E_n) = \mu(E_n) \\ \mu_n(E - E_n) = 0 \end{cases}$$

then  $\mu_n(E) = \mu_n(E_n) = \mu(E_n)$ , so a  $\sigma$ -finite measure  $\mu$  is a  $\Sigma$ -finite measure.  $\square$

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space. Let  $p$  be a positive  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function. Define:

$$\nu(A) = \mu(p1_A) = \int_A \mu(dx)p(x), \quad A \in \mathcal{E}$$

**Theorem 1.25.**  $\nu$  is a measure on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ .

*Proof.* • Let  $A, B$  be disjoint sets in  $E$ , then  $\mu(p1_A) + \mu(p1_B) = \mu(p1_{A \cup B})$

•  $\mu(p1_\emptyset) = 0$

$\square$

**Theorem 1.26.** Fix a  $p \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , and give a measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ , then there must be a measure  $\nu$  satisfying  $\nu f = \mu(pf)$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{E}_+$ .

*Proof.* Let  $L(f) = \mu(pf)$ . Check  $L : - f = 0 \implies L(f) = 0$  - Give  $f, g \in \mathcal{E}_+$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}_+ \implies L(af + bg) = \mu(p(af + bg))$  and based on the arithmetic rules on  $\mathbb{R}$  and the linearity of  $\mu$ ,  $L(af + bg) = aL(f) + bL(g)$  - Give  $(f_n) \subset \mathcal{E}_+$  and  $f_n \nearrow f$ ,  $L(f_n) = \mu(pf_n)$  and as  $f_n \nearrow f$ ,  $pf_n \nearrow pf$  so  $\lim L(f_n) = \lim \mu(pf_n)$ . According to the monotone converging theorem,  $\lim \mu(pf_n) = \mu(pf) = L(f)$

So there exists a  $\nu$  satisfying  $\nu f = L(f) = \mu(pf)$ .  $\square$

Written above result in an explicit notation:

$$\int_E \nu(dx)f(x) = \int_E \mu(dx)p(x)f(x)$$

then we can change the  $\nu(dx)$  with  $\mu(dx)p(x)$  where  $x \in E$ ,  $p \in \mathcal{E}_+$ .

**Definition 1.17** (absolutely continuous). Let  $\nu$  and  $\mu$  be measures on a measurable space  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ . Then  $\nu$  is said to be absolutely continuous respect to  $\mu$  if for any set  $A \in \mathcal{E}$ ,  $\mu(A) = 0 \implies \nu(A) = 0$ .

**Theorem 1.27.** *If  $\nu$  satisfies the conditions  $\nu f = \mu(p f)$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , then  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mu(A) = 0$ , then we need to prove that  $\mu(p \mathbf{1}_A) = 0$ : - Let  $p$  is a simple function with a cononical form on  $E$  with  $p = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mathbf{1}_{B_i}$  and as  $(B_i)$  is a partition,  $(B_i \cap A)$  is a partition of  $A$ , noted as  $(A_i)$ . Then

$$\mu(p \mathbf{1}_A) = \int_A p d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu(A_i)$$

As  $\mu(A) = 0$  and  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ ,  $\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i)$ , so  $\mu(A_i) = 0$  for every  $i$ . So  $\mu(p \mathbf{1}_A) = 0$ . - Let  $p \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , give  $(p_n)$  s.t.  $p_n \nearrow p$  where  $p_n = d_n \circ p$ . Then  $p_n \mathbf{1}_A \nearrow p \mathbf{1}_A$  and for every  $n$ ,  $\mu(p_n \mathbf{1}_A)$  holds. So:

$$\mu(p \mathbf{1}_A) = \mu(\lim p_n \mathbf{1}_A) = \lim \mu(p_n \mathbf{1}_A) = 0$$

according to the monotone converging theorem, so  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous respect to  $\mu$

□

**Theorem 1.28** (Radon Nikodym Theorem). *Suppose that  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -finite and  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\mu$ . Then there exists a positive  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function  $p$  s.t.  $\nu f = \mu(p f)$  on  $E$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{E}_+$ . Moreover,  $p$  is unique above, if there is a  $q \in \mathcal{E}_+$ , then  $q = p$  a.e.*

Notice that Randon Nikodym theorem is the converse of the theorem before it. The proof of the Randon Nikodym theorem is not able to show here now.

**Definition 1.18** (transition kernel). Let  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  be measurable spaces. Let  $K$  be a mapping from  $E \times \mathcal{F}$  into  $\mathbb{R}_+$ . Then,  $K$  is called a transition kernel from  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  into  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  if: - the mapping  $x \mapsto K(x, B)$  is  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable for every set  $B \in \mathcal{F}$  - the mapping  $B \mapsto K(x, B)$  is a measure on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  for every  $x \in E$

For example, if  $\nu$  is a finite measure on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$ , and  $k$  is a positive function on  $E \times F$  that is  $\mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{F}$ -measurable, then

$$K(x, B) = \int_B \nu(dy) k(x, y), \quad x \in E, B \in \mathcal{F}$$

when fix  $x \in E$ ,  $K(x, B) = \nu(k(x, y) \mathbf{1}_B) = \mu(B)$  for some  $\mu$  which is the measure on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$ .

when fix  $B \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $K(x, B) = f(x) =$

**Theorem 1.29.** *Let  $K$  be a transition kernel from  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  into  $(F, \mathcal{F})$ . Then*

$$K f(x) = \int_F K(x, dy) f(y), \quad x \in E,$$

defines a function  $Kf \in \mathcal{E}_+$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}_+$ .

$$\mu K(B) = \int_E \mu(dx) K(x, B), \quad B \in \mathcal{F},$$

defines a measure  $\mu K$  on  $(F, \mathcal{F})$  for each measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ . and

$$(\mu K)f = \mu(Kf) = \int_E \mu(dx) \int_F K(x, dy) f(y)$$

for every measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and function  $f$  in  $\mathcal{F}_+$ .

*Proof.*

□

**Theorem 1.30.** Let  $f \in \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{F}$ , then  $x \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathcal{E}$  for each  $y \in F$  and  $y \mapsto f(x, y) \in \mathcal{F}$  for each  $x \in E$ .