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The reason of the article is to provide a basic review of several key concepts in measure theory. Each concept is illustrated with an example so that one can easily understand.

## 1 $\sigma$ Algebra

### a. Sigma algebra definition

Given a non-empty set  $\Omega$ , a sigma algebra is defined

- 1) Include empty set and whole set
- 2) Include the complement of any element itself
- 3) Closed under countable union

### b. Sigma algebra example by tossing a coin

The procedure to find out the sigma algebra is to enumerate all the subsets under the whole set  $\Omega$ . We now see an example.

We first toss a coin 0 time, there is no outcome, so  $\Omega = \{\emptyset\}$ . And the  $\sigma$  algebra contains an empty set only.

$$F_0 = \{\emptyset\}$$

In this case, it is trivial to check 1) 2) and 3)

We then toss the coin once, the outcome is either Head(H) or Tail(T)

Check 1)  $\Omega = H, T$

Enumerate all of the subsets of  $\Omega$ , we get

$$F_1 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, H, T\}$$

Check 2)  $\emptyset^c = \Omega, \Omega^c = \emptyset, H^c = T$  in  $F_1, T^c = H$  in  $F_1$

Check 3)  $H \cup T = \Omega$  in  $F_1$

So we confirm

$$F_1 = \emptyset, \Omega, H, T$$

We then toss the coin twice

Check 1)  $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$

Enumerate all the subsets of  $\Omega$ , we get

$$F_2 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, HH, HT, TH, TT, \\ HH \cup HT, HH \cup TH, HH \cup TT, HT \cup TH, HT \cup TT, TH \cup TT, \\ HH \cup HT \cup TH, HH \cup HT \cup TT, HH \cup TH \cup TT, HT \cup TH \cup TT, \}$$

It is easy to check 2), for example  $HH^c = HT \cup TH \cup TT$  in  $F_2, HT^c = HH \cup TH \cup TT$  in  $F_2, TH^c = HH \cup HT \cup TT$  in  $F_2, TT^c = HH \cup HT \cup TH$  in  $F_2$

The rest check is ignored.

3) is easy to check too. So we confirm

$$F_2 = \{\emptyset, \Omega, HH, HT, TH, TT, \\ HH^c, HT^c, TH^c, TT^c, \\ HH \cup HT, HH \cup TH, HH \cup TT, HT \cup TH, HT \cup TT, TH \cup TT, \\ TT^c, TH^c, HT^c, HH^c\}$$

### c. Why define sigma algebra?

On top of the sigma algebra, we can define the probability, because the object that probability measure takes is the sigma algebra.

## 2 Filtration

Consider a sequence of coin toss

For the first toss, we get  $F_1$

For the first and second toss, we get  $F_2$

For the first n tosses, we get  $F_n$

The collection of sigma algebra  $F_1, F_2, F_n$  is called a Filtration.

## 3 Random variable

### a. Definition

A random variable is function from  $\Omega$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , with the property that for every Borel subset  $B$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ , its inverse image from the subset of  $\Omega$  is in  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$ .

### b. Example

Consider 3 toss case, H with prob  $p$ , T with prob  $q$

Def. random variable  $S$   $S_0(w_0) = 4$  for all  $\omega$

$$S_{n+1}(w_{n+1}) = \begin{cases} 2S_n(w_n) & \text{if } w_{n+1} = H \\ \frac{1}{2}S_n(w_n) & \text{if } w_{n+1} = T \end{cases}$$

so

$$S_0(w_1w_2w_3) = 4 \text{ for all } w_i$$

$$S_1(w_1w_2w_3) = 8 \text{ if } w_1 = H$$

$$S_1(w_1w_2w_3) = 2 \text{ if } w_1 = T$$

$$S_2(w_1w_2w_3) = 16 \text{ if } w_1 = w_2 = H$$

$$S_2(w_1w_2w_3) = 4 \text{ if } w_1 \neq w_2$$

$$S_2(w_1w_2w_3) = 1 \text{ if } w_1 = w_2 = T$$

## 4 $\sigma$ Algebra Generated by a Random Variable and Measurable Function

Give consider a random variable  $S: \Omega$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , for every open set in  $\mathbb{R}$ , the collection of their inverse image forms an sigma algebra, and it is called the sigma algebra generated by  $S$ . And  $S$  is called  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable. The concept measurable is not very intuitive to understand. An easy way to understand this is  $S$  is completely determined by  $\mathcal{F}$ , then  $S$  is  $\mathcal{F}$  measurable.

## 5 Conditional Expectation

### a. Definition

- 1)  $E[X|G]$  is G measurable, which means the value of  $E[X|G]$  is completely determined by G
- 2)  $\int_A E[X|G](w)dP(w) = \int_A X(w)dP(w)$  for all A which belongs to G

### b. Example to understand 2)

Consider 3 toss case, H with prob p, T with prob q

Define random variable S

$S_0(w) = 4$  for all w

$S_{n+1}(w) = 2S_n(w)$  if  $w_{n+1} = H$

$S_{n+1}(w) = \frac{1}{2}S_n(w)$  if  $w_{n+1} = T$

Expectation of 3 tosses random variable  $S_3$  give the first two is HH

$$E_2(S_3|HH) = pS_3(HHH) + qS_3(HHT)$$

$$E_2(S_3|HT) = pS_3(HTH) + qS_3(HTT)$$

$$E_2(S_3|TH) = pS_3(THH) + qS_3(THT)$$

$$E_2(S_3|TT) = pS_3(TTH) + qS_3(TTT)$$

$$E_2(S_3|HH)P(HH) = \text{prob}(HHH)S_3(HHH) + \text{prob}(HHT)S_3(HHT)$$

$$E_2(S_3|HT)P(HT) = \text{prob}(HTH)S_3(HTH) + \text{prob}(HTT)S_3(HTT)$$

$$E_2(S_3|TH)P(TH) = \text{prob}(TTH)S_3(TTH) + \text{prob}(THT)S_3(THT)$$

$$E_2(S_3|TT)P(TT) = \text{prob}(TTH)S_3(TTH) + \text{prob}(TTT)S_3(TTT)$$

This confirms def 2), for A = HH or HT or TH or TT

$$\int E_2(S_3|G)(w)dP(w) = \int_A X(w)dP(w)$$

### c. Properties

- 1) The conditional expectation is a random variable. Because the value is dependent on G.
- 2) If X is G measurable, then  $E[X|G] = X$ .
- 3) If X is G measurable  $E[XY|G] = XE[Y|G]$ , this is to take out what is known.
- 4) If X is independent of G,  $E[X|G] = EX$

To understand 2), 3) and 4), consider two extreme cases

Define random variable S

$S_0(w) = 4$  for all w

$S_{n+1}(w) = 2S_n(w)$  if  $w_{n+1} = H$

$S_{n+1}(w) = \frac{1}{2}S_n(w)$  if  $w_{n+1} = T$

Then a condition expectation can be defined as

$$E[S_n|F_t] = E[S_n|\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_t]$$

If  $t=n$ , then  $E[S_n|F_n] = S_n$ , this is because when  $F_n$  is known, then  $S_n$  is known, there is nothing to average. This corresponds to Property 2) and 3)

If  $t=0$ , then  $E[S_n|F_0] = E[S_n]$ , this is because  $F_0$  provides no restriction to average  $S_n$ , the conditional expectation needs to average all possible cases, it is a general expectation. This corresponds to Property 4).

5) If  $G$  is a subset of  $H$   
 $E[E[X|G|H]] = E[X|H]$

## 6 Law of Large Numbers

### a. Weak law of large number

Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are iid, and  $u$  is the expectation.  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Pr(|\bar{X} - u| > \epsilon) = 0$

### b. Strong law of large number

$Pr(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bar{X} = u) = 1$

### c. Difference

In weak case,  $|X - u| > \epsilon$  can happen infinite times, however, in strong case, it does not. There exist in certain case where  $X_n$  converges in weak case but does not converge in strong case. An example would be a series of  $X_n$  that is conditionally convergent, which means the series does not converge absolutely, and by rearranging terms, the series converges to a different value. For example, if  $X$  be random variable following geometric distribution with probability 0.5. Then the expectation of a new random variable  $2^X(-1)^X X^{-1}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E[2^X(-1)^X X^{-1}] &= \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^x}{x} \\ &= -1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} \dots \\ &= -\ln 2 \end{aligned}$$

By rearranging the terms,

$$\begin{aligned} &-1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{5} \\ &= (-1 + \frac{1}{2}) + \frac{1}{4} + (-\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6}) + \frac{1}{8} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, this is conditionally convergent, meaning it satisfies the weak law not the strong law.