2 Lecture 2

2.1Fundamental Set Operations

[Recall] There are 3 fundamental set operations:

- Union: $A \cup B = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ or } \omega \in B \}.$
- Intersection: $A \cap B = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ and } \omega \in B \}.$
- Complement: $\overline{A} = A^c = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \notin A \}.$

There are 2 other "set difference operations" that are sometimes used:

- $A B = \{ \omega \in A : \omega \notin B \}$
- $B A = \{ \omega \in B : \omega \notin A \}$

2.2 Index sets \mathcal{I}

[Recall]

- Indexed collections of sets $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$, where \mathcal{I} is an index set.
- So $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is a "set of sets", or a family of sets, or a <u>collection of sets</u>.
- There is one and only one set A_i , for each $i \in \mathcal{I}$. Typical Index sets:

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\} = \text{ natural numbers },$$
 $\mathbb{Z} = \{\ldots -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\} = \text{ integers },$
 $\mathbb{Z}_{+} = \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\} = \text{ non-negative integers },$
 $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty),$
 $\mathbb{I}_{n} = \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, n-1\}.$

2.3 Cardinality of Sets

- A set is <u>finite</u> if it has a finite number of elements. (i.e., its elements can be put in one-to-one correspondence with the numbers $1, 2, \ldots, n$ for some natural number n.)
- A set is infinite if it is not finite.

2.4 Countable and Uncountable Sets

Infinite sets come in two varieties: countable and uncountable.

- An infinite set is <u>countable</u> if its elements can be put in one-to-one correspondence with the natural (counting) numbers $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$.
- An infinite set is uncountable if it is not countable.
- The following are examples of uncountable sets:
 - $-\mathbb{R}=(-\infty,\infty)$
 - -[0,1] and (0,1)
 - -[a,b], [a,b), (a,b], (a,b) for $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that a < b.

2.5 Collectively Exhaustive and Disjoint Families

• Given an indexed family of sets $\{A_i; i \in I\}$, the union of the sets in the family is

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \triangleq \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_i \text{ for at least one } i \in \mathcal{I} \}.$$

• The intersection of the sets in the family is

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \triangleq \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_i \text{ for all } i \in \mathcal{I} \}.$$

• If $G \subseteq \Omega$ and $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is a family of sets, then if

$$\bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{T}} A_i = G$$

we say that $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is collectively exhaustive over G.

• A family of sets $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is disjoint if

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i, j \in \mathcal{I} \text{ such that } i \neq j.$$

2.6 Partitioned Sets

- A family of sets $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is a <u>partition</u> of Ω if it is disjoint and collectively exhaustive over Ω , meaning:
 - Disjointness: $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for all $i \neq j$.
 - Collectively exhaustive: $\bigcup_{i\in I} A_i = \Omega$, every element of Ω is in at least one A_i .
- Let $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ be a partition of Ω . Define $B_i \triangleq A_i \cap G$ for some $G \subseteq \Omega$ and for all $i \in \mathcal{I}$. Show that, $\{B_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is a partition of G.

Need to prove,

1. The family of sets $\{B_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ are disjoint.

Assume B_i and B_j are not disjoint for some $i \neq j$, meaning there exists an element x such that $x \in B_i$ and $x \in B_j$. By definition, $x \in A_i \cap G$ and $x \in A_j \cap G$, implying $x \in A_i$ and $x \in A_j$, which contradicts the assumption that $\{A_i\}$ are disjoint. Therefore, $\{B_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is disjoint.

2. The union of all $\{B_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is G. Since $B_i = A_i \cap G$, then $\bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} B_i = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} (A_i \cap G)$. Given $\bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} A_i = \Omega$ and $G \subseteq \Omega$, it follows that $\bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} (A_i \cap G) = G = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} B_i$. Combine 1 and 2, $\{B_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ forms a partition of G.

2.7 Probability Spaces (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

A probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is a triple consisting of:

- A sample space Ω (or hand written notation \mathcal{S} in this course).
- A collection of events (subsets of Ω) $\mathcal{F}(\Omega)$.
- The probabilities P(A) for each $A \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$,

$$P: \mathcal{F}(\Omega) \to [0,1].$$

For example, consider the random experiment of flipping a fair coin. The probability space for this experiment:

- $-\Omega = \{\text{"Heads"}, \text{"Tails"}\},$
- $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{\text{"Heads"}\}, \{\text{"Tails"}\}, \Omega\},\$
- $-P(\{\text{"Heads"}\}) = 0.5, P(\{\text{"Tails"}\}) = 0.5, P(\Omega) = 1, \text{ and } P(\emptyset) = 0.$

2.8 The Sample Space Ω

• The sample space Ω of a random experiment is a non-empty set of possible outcomes of the random experiment.

One and only one outcome from the sample space Ω occurs when we perform a random experiment.

2.9 The Event Space $\mathcal{F}(\Omega)$

The event space $\mathcal{F}(\Omega)$ is a non-empty collection of subsets of Ω satisfying the following closure properties:

- 1. If $A \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$, then $\overline{A} \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$.
- 2. For any finite n, if $A_i \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$ for i = 1, 2, ..., n, then $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$.
- 3. If $A_i \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$ for i = 1, 2, 3, ..., then $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$.

A set of subsets of Ω satisfying these three properties is called a $\underline{\sigma}$ -field (\mathcal{F}_{σ}) . Note: If only 1 and 2 hold, we have a field of sets.

2.10 Intersections in the Event Space $\mathcal{F}(\Omega)$

• Suppose $A, B \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$, is $A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$?

Short answer, by the closure property 1, closed under complements:

$$\overline{A}, \overline{B} \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega).$$

Using the closure property 2, closed under unions:

$$\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$$
.

Applying De Morgan's laws:

$$A \cap B = \overline{\overline{A \cap B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}}.$$

Since the event space is closed under complements, it follows that:

$$\overline{\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}} \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega),$$

thus proving $A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$.

• It follows from the closure properties that $\varnothing, \Omega \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$.

Suppose $A \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$ (non-empty), by closure property 1, closed under complements,

$$\overline{A} \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$$
.

Furthermore, by closure property 2, closed under unions,

$$\Omega = A \cup \overline{A} \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega).$$

By closure property 1 again, closed under complements,

$$\Rightarrow \varnothing = \overline{\Omega} \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$$

Hence, $\varnothing, \Omega \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega)$.

Examples 2.11

1. Show that the power set of any set Ω , is a σ -field (\mathcal{F}_{σ}) .

Note: the power set of Ω , is the set contains all subsets of Ω including Ω and \emptyset . Short answer,

Let $\rho(\Omega)$ be the power set of Ω , then

- i) $\Omega \in \rho(\Omega)$, it's non-empty. (By definition, the power set contains all subsets of Ω including Ω .)
- ii) For any $A \in \rho(\Omega)$, $\overline{A} \in \rho(\Omega)$. (as $\rho(\Omega)$ contains all subsets of Ω .)
- iii) For any $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots \in \rho(\Omega)$, $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ is also a subset of Ω . Hence, $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \rho(\Omega)$.

Thus, $\rho(\Omega)$ is a σ -field.

2. Let A and B be a two σ -fields of subsets of Ω . Show that $A \cap B$ is also a σ -fields of subsets of Ω .

Short answer,

Need to verify that the intersection of A and B satisfies the three properties:

- i) The sample space Ω is in the intersection.
- ii) The intersection is closed under complements.
- iii) The intersection is closed under countable unions.

Given A is σ -field of subsets of Ω , and B is σ -field of subsets of Ω . Let $D = A \cap B$, then,

- i) A is σ -field of subsets of Ω , and B is σ -field of subsets of Ω .
 - $\Rightarrow \Omega \in A \text{ and } \Omega \in B$,
 - $\Rightarrow \Omega \in A \cap B$,
 - $\Rightarrow \Omega \in D$.
- ii) For any $G \in D$, G is also in A ($G \in A$) & in B ($G \in B$). A is σ -field, and B is σ -field. Thus, $\overline{G} \in A$ and $\overline{G} \in B$,
 - $\Rightarrow \overline{G} \in A \cap B$,
 - $\Rightarrow \overline{G} \in D$.
- iii) For any $G_1, G_2, G_3, \dots \in D$, G_1, G_2, \dots in A and G_1, G_2, \dots in B. A is σ -field, and B is

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{\substack{n=1\\ \infty}} G_n \in A \text{ and } \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n \in B,$$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{\substack{n=1\\ \infty}} G_n \in A \cap B,$$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n \in D.$$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n \in A \cap B,$$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n \in D.$$

Thus, $A \cap B$ is also a σ -field of subsets of Ω .

- 3. Let B be a σ -field of subsets of the real line \mathbb{R} . B is generated by intervals of the form (a,b) where $a < b, -\infty < a < \infty, -\infty < b < \infty$, that is, $B = \sigma$ (all finite open intervals). Show that
 - a) B contains all sets of the form $(-\infty, a)$
 - b) B contains all sets of the form $(-\infty, a]$

Short answer,

a)

Because $B = \sigma(\text{all finite open intervals})$, for any positive integer n, (a - n, a) is a subset of B.

$$(a-n,a) \in B$$

Because B is σ -field of real line, for σ -field property iii)

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (a-n,a) \in B$$

$$\Rightarrow (-\infty,a) \in B.$$

$$\Rightarrow (-\infty, a) \in B$$

b)

Given $B = \sigma(\text{all finite open intervals}),$

we set G_n , for any positive integer n, the open interval $\left(-\infty, a + \frac{1}{n}\right)$ is a subset of B. we set H_m , for any positive integer m, the open interval $\left(-\infty, a + \frac{1}{m}\right)$ is a subset of B.

$$\overline{G}, \overline{H} \in B \text{ [by ii)]}, \overline{G} \cup \overline{H} \in B \text{ [by iii)]}, \overline{\overline{G} \cup \overline{H}} \in B \text{ [by ii)]}.$$

 \Rightarrow $G \cap H \in B$, for countable intersections.

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n = \overline{\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n} = \overline{\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{G}_n} \in B$$

that is,
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(-\infty, a + \frac{1}{n} \right) \in B$$

$$\Rightarrow (-\infty, a] \in B$$

4. A class A of subsets of Ω is said to be monotone if the limit of any monotone increasing/decreasing sequence of sets in A is also in A. Show that a σ -field is monotone. Short answer,

Let A be a monotone class of subsets of Ω .

i.e. for any Monotone Increasing Subsets (MIS) of events,

$$B_n \uparrow B$$
, $B \in A$.

Similarly, for any Monotone Decreasing Subsets (MDS) of events,

$$D_n \downarrow D$$
, $D \in A$.

 \Longrightarrow

Let \mathcal{F} be any σ -field of subsets of Ω . Suppose $B_1 \subset B_2 \subset \cdots$ is an MIS sequence of events in \mathcal{F} . Because \mathcal{F} is a σ -field, then

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \in \mathcal{F} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} B_n \in \mathcal{F}.$$

Similarly, for any MDS sequence of events in \mathcal{F} , $D_1 \supset D_2 \supset \dots$

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} D_n \in \mathcal{F} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} D_n \in \mathcal{F}.$$

Because \mathcal{F} is a σ -field,

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$$
 is monotone.

 \iff conversely,

Suppose G is a field of subsets of Ω that is monotone, we can show that G is a σ -field.

- i) Becanse G is a field, $\Rightarrow \Omega \in G$.
- ii) Becanse G is a field, for any $A \in G$, $\overline{A} \in G$

iii) Now consider any arbitary sequence of events A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots , We need to show that $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in G$. Define a new sequence of events,

$$B_1 = A_1 \qquad \in G$$

$$B_2 = A_1 \cup A_2 \qquad \in G$$

$$\vdots$$

$$B_n = \bigcup_{j=1}^n A_j \qquad \in G$$

Any finite union is in the **field** G(field Definition). We know $B_1 \subset B_2 \subset B_3 \subset \cdots$, $\bigcup_{j=1}^n B_j \in G$.

i.e. this is an Monotone Increasing Subsets (MIS) of events.

Because G is monotone, by the definition, the limit of any monotone increasing/decreasing sequence of sets in G is also in G. That is,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \bigcup_{j=1}^{n} B_j \in G.$$

The monotone limits of sequence is still in G. Give that $\lim_{n\to\infty}\bigcup_{j=1}^n B_j=\bigcup_{n=1}^\infty A_n$,

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in G.$$

Combine (i), (ii) and (iii), G is a σ -field.

- **5.** Suppose (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is a probability space with $B \in \mathcal{F}$ such that P(B) > 0. Define a new set function $Q : \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$ by $Q(A) = P(A \mid B)$ for any $A \in \mathcal{F}$. Show that
 - a) (Ω, \mathcal{F}, Q) is a probability space.
 - b) If $C \in \mathcal{F}$ such that Q(C) > 0, show that $Q(A \mid C) = P(A \mid B \cap C)$.

For any $A \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$Q(A) = P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

Short answer,

a)

To show (Ω, \mathcal{F}, Q) is probability space, we need to show,

1. $Q(A) \ge 0$. We know that $Q(A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A \cap B) \ge 0}{P(A) > 0}$. Thus, $Q(A) \ge 0$

2.
$$Q(\Omega) = 1$$
.

$$Q(\Omega) = P(\Omega \mid B) = \frac{P(\Omega \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B)}{P(B)} = 1.$$

3. For any disjoint sets
$$A_1 A_2, A_3 \cdots, Q\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) \equiv \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q(A_n)$$
.

$$Q\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \mid B\right)$$

$$= P\left(\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) \cap B\right) / P(B) \quad (A_n \text{ are disjointed.})$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{P(A_n \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q(A_n).$$

Thus, (Ω, \mathcal{F}, Q) is a probability space.

For any C, set Q(C) > 0.

$$Q(A \mid C) = \frac{Q(A \cap C)/P(B)}{Q(C)/P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap C \mid B)P(B)}{P(C \mid B)P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap C \cap B)}{P(C \cap B)} = P(A \mid B \cap C).$$

6. Prove the Continuity Theorem. Short answer,

i) Check Monotone increasing sequence of events.

If $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset A_3 \subset \cdots$ s.t. $A_n \uparrow A$, We need to show $P(A) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n)$. Because $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$, We define $B_1 = A_1$, $B_2 = A_2 \setminus A_1$, $B_3 = A_3 \setminus A_2, \cdots$,

$$\Rightarrow A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n,$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A) = P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(B_n). \quad (B_n\text{'s are disjoint.})$$

Because $B_n = A_n \backslash A_{n-1}$ and $A_{n-1} \backslash A_n$.

$$\Rightarrow P(B_n) = P(A_n) - P(A_{n-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(B_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n) - P(A_0)$$

Assume $A_0 = \emptyset$,

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n).$$

ii) Check Monotone decreasing sequence of events.

Suppose
$$D_1 \supset D_2 \supset D_3 \cdots$$
, $D = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} D_n$, $D_n \downarrow D$.

$$\Rightarrow D_n^C \qquad \uparrow \quad D^C,$$

$$\Rightarrow P(D^C) \qquad = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(D_n^C),$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - P(D) \qquad = \lim_{n \to \infty} [1 - P(D_n)],$$

$$\Rightarrow P(D) \qquad = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(D_n).$$

[Ref]:

R. G. Bartle, D. R. Sherbert, "Sets and Functions" in "Introduction to Real Analysis", 3rd Edition, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 2000. ch 1, pp 3.

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