Yale MA 330 Course Notes: Advanced Probability

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Analysis

CHAPTER 1

Measures

1.1. Why is measurement hard?

On the real line $\mathbb{R}$, we may want our measure to satisfy some properties that our consistent with our intuitive notion of "length". Formally, we want a function

$$\lambda : 2^{\mathbb{R}} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$$

that satisfies

    (1) $\lambda(\emptyset) = 0$
    (2) $\lambda([a, b]) = b - a$ for $a \leq b \in \mathbb{R}$
    (3) Countable additivity: For a countable collection of pairwise-disjoint sets $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

$$\lambda\left(\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i\right) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \lambda(A_i) \tag{1}$$

    (4) Translation invariance: $\lambda(A + a) = \lambda(A)$ for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$ where $A + a := \{\alpha + a \mid \alpha \in A\}$.

Quite counterintuitively, it turns out that no such function exists! To prove this assertion, we need to construct some special kinds of sets that only exist if we assume the Axiom of Choice.

EXAMPLE 1.1. Define an equivalence relation $\sim$ on $[0, 1]$ such that

$$x \sim y \Leftrightarrow x - y \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Note that there are uncountably many classes in such a construction as the equivalence class for any given irrational number can contain at most countably many other irrational numbers. For example,

$$\left[\frac{\pi}{4}\right] = \left\{\frac{\pi}{4} + q \mod 1 \mid q \in \mathbb{Q}\right\}.$$

Thus, using the Axiom of Choice, we can construct a set $E \subseteq [0, 1]$ such that E consists of exactly one "representative" from each equivalence class. Next, we can define

$$E_q := \{x + q \mod 1 \mid x \in E\}$$

so that $\{E_q\}_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$ is a partition of $[0, 1]$. To see that the sets are disjoint, suppose for contradiction that for any distinct $q, \tilde{q} \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$, $E_q \cap E_{\tilde{q}} \neq \emptyset$. If $x \in E_q \cap E_{\tilde{q}}$, then $x - q \in E$ and $x - \tilde{q} \in E$. But they clearly belong to the same equivalence class and this is a contradiction given our construction of E. To see that the union of these sets is $[0, 1]$, consider an arbitrary $y \in [0, 1]$ and observe that since our equivalence relation $\sim$ partitions $[0, 1]$, $y \in [x]$ for some $x \in E$. Then $q^* = y - x \in \mathbb{Q}$ and so $y = x + q^*$ mod $1 \in E_{q^*}$. Thus we have that

$$[0, 1] \subseteq \bigcup_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} E_q.$$

Since the reverse inclusion follows by the definition of E_q, we have that $\{E_q\}_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$ is a partition of $[0, 1]$.

PROPOSITION 1.1. *There exists no function* $\lambda : 2^{\mathbb{R}} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$ *that satisfies properties (1)-(4) described above*

PROOF. Suppose, for contradiction, that such a function λ exists. We can define the collection of sets $\{E\}_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$ as in Example 1.1 and observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
1 = \lambda\left([0,1]\right) = \lambda\left[\bigcup_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} E_q\right] \\
= \sum_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} \lambda\left[E_q\right] \\
= \sum_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} c
\end{aligned}
$$

where the first equality follows from property (2), the second equality follows from the fact that $\{E\}_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$ is a partition of $[0,1]$, the third equality is due to property (3). The last equality follows as a consequence of translation invariance (property (4)). Since $c \in [0,1]$

$$
\sum_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} c = 0 \text{ or } \infty \neq 1
$$

which is a contradiction. Thus no such function λ exists. □

This particular example of a *non-measurable* set is called a *Vitali set*. While we used the interval $[0,1]$ to construct such a set, it turns out that this contruction can be extended to any set of positive length in the Lebesgue sense.

1.2. Constructing the Lebesgue measure

The key issue with our previous definition of a measure on $\mathbb{R}$ is that one cannot have a set-valued function that both has our four desired properties *and* is defined on all subsets of the real line. As a convention, the canonical construction of a measure retains the desired properties in exchange for restricting the class of subsets on which the measure is defined. These subsets are called *measurable* and the standard construction of the Lebesgue measure leads to the class of measurable subsets on the real line to have a special structure of a $\sigma-algebra$. Before we define this structure it might be worthwhile looking at various types of structures a class of sets could have

1.2.1. Structures of sets. In the rest of this chapter, we assume that $(\mathcal{X}, \tau)$ is an abstract topological space.

DEFINITION 1.1. Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$. We call $\mathcal{F}$ a *ring* if
  (i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$
  (ii) $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in \mathcal{F}$
  (iii) $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \setminus B \in \mathcal{F}$.

Note that the above definition implies that $A \cap B = A \setminus (A \setminus B) \in \mathcal{F}$.

DEFINITION 1.2. Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$. We call $\mathcal{F}$ an *algebra* if
  (i) $\mathcal{F}$ is a ring
  (ii) $\mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{F}$.

For example, if we let $\mathcal{X}$ be an arbitrary infinite set, the collection of all finite subsets of $\mathcal{X}$ forms a ring but not an algebra.

DEFINITION 1.3. Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$. We call $\mathcal{F}$ a σ-ring if
  (i) $\mathcal{F}$ is a ring
  (ii) $\mathcal{F}$ is closed under countable unions.

DEFINITION 1.4. Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$. We call $\mathcal{F}$ a σ-algebra if
  (i) $\mathcal{F}$ is an algebra.
  (ii) $\mathcal{F}$ is closed under countable unions.

Naturally, the power set $2^{\mathcal{X}}$ is a ring, algebra, σ-ring, and σ-algebra all rolled into one.

REMARK. Algebras are sometimes referred to as *fields* in the probability literature.

As we said earlier, the notion of a σ-algebra is important because the standard Lebesgue measurable sets form a σ-algebra of subsets of $\mathbb{R}$. However, the other structures we have defined are also important; as we "extend" the notion of the length of an interval on the real line to more complicated sets, we shall first expand our class of measurable sets to a ring of sets.

1.2.2. Lengths of intervals. The mosts intuitive notion of a measure on $\mathbb{R}$ arises from the length of an interval. Thus, in our construction of the Lebesgue measure, we start with the simplest class of sets which consists of intervals in $\mathbb{R}$. Define $\mathcal{L} = \{(a, b] \mid -\infty < a \leq b < \infty\}$ and let $\lambda_1 : \mathcal{L} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$ be given by $\lambda_1((a, b]) = b - a$. It turns out that our collection of half-open intervals in $\mathbb{R}$ has the structure of a *semi-ring*.

DEFINITION 1.5. Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$. We call $\mathcal{F}$ a *semi-ring* if

   (i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$.
  (ii) $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}$.
 (iii) $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \exists \{A_i\}_{i=1}^{n} \in \mathcal{F}$ such that

$$A \setminus B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

PROPOSITION 1.2. $\mathcal{L}$ *is a semi-ring.*

PROOF. To see (i), note that $\emptyset = (a, a] \in \mathcal{L}$. For (ii), note that for any intervals $A = (a_1, b_1]$ and $B = (a_2, b_2]$, [1]

$$(a_1, b_1] \cap (a_2, b_2] = (\max(a_1, a_2), \min(b_1, b_2)] \in \mathcal{L}.$$

To see (iii), we have to consider two possible cases. First, if A, B are disjoint then $A \setminus B = A \in \mathcal{L}$. If A, B have a non-trivial intersection, then

$$\begin{aligned}
A \setminus B = A \cap B^C &= (a_1, b_1] \cap \{(-\infty, a_2] \cup (b_2, \infty)\} \\
&= (a_1, b_1] \cap (-\infty, a_2] \bigcup (a_1, b_1] \cap (b_2, \infty) \\
&= (a_1, \min(b_1, a_2)] \bigcup (\max(a_1, b_2), b_1]
\end{aligned}$$

where the components of the union expressed in the last equality are in $\mathcal{L}$. This completes the proof. $\square$

The fact that $\mathcal{L}$ is a semi-ring is important because there's a relatively straightforward way to "expand" a semi-ring into a ring.

THEOREM 1.1. *Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a semi-ring and let $\mathcal{B}$ be the set of all finite disjoint unions of sets in $\mathcal{F}$. Then $\mathcal{B}$ is a ring.*

PROOF. Property (i) in Definition 1.1 is trivially satisfied thus we need to prove properties (ii) and (iii). Let $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$. To prove property (iii), we first establish the weaker claim that $A \cap B \in \mathcal{B}$. Observe that

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i, \ A_i \in \mathcal{F}, A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j,$$

$$B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_B} B_i, \ B_i \in \mathcal{F}, B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j,$$

---

[1] If $\max(a_1, a_2) > \min(b_1, b_2)$, then $(\max(a_1, a_2), \min(b_1, b_2)] = \emptyset \in \mathcal{L}$

by the definition of $\mathcal{B}$. Then

$$A \cap B = \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i \right) \bigcap \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{n_B} B_j \right)$$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} \bigcup_{j=1}^{n_B} (A_i \cap B_j)$$

where $\forall i, j : A_i \cap B_j \in \mathcal{F}$ as $\mathcal{F}$ is a semi-ring. Clearly, $A_i \cap B_j$ is disjoint from $A_{i'} \cap B_{j'}$, thus proving the claim. Next, we establish property (iii) by noting that

$$A \setminus B = \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i \right) \setminus B$$

$$= \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i \right) \bigcap B^C$$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} (A_i \cap B^C)$$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} \left(A_i \cap \left(\bigcap_{j=1}^{n_B} B_j^C \right) \right)$$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} \bigcap_{j=1}^{n_B} (A_i \cap B_j^C)$$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} \bigcap_{j=1}^{n_B} A_i \setminus B_j$$

where the $A_i \setminus B_j \in \mathcal{B}$ since $A_i, B_j \in \mathcal{F}$. By the closure under finite intersections property established earlier, $E_i = \bigcap_{j=1}^{n_B} A_i \setminus B_j \in \mathcal{B}$ for any $1 \leq i \leq n_A$. Thus we can rewrite the chain of equalities above as

$$A \setminus B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} E_i$$

where $E_i \cap E_{i'} = \emptyset$ because $A_i \cap A_{i'} = \emptyset$. Since the finite disjoint union of elements of $\mathcal{B}$ is also a finite disjoint union of elements of $\mathcal{F}$, our claim follows. Finally, to establish property (ii), observe that

$$A \cup B = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap B) \cup (B/A)$$

which is a disjoint union of elements in $\mathcal{B}$ and so is also in $\mathcal{B}$ by the same argument as earlier. $\square$

COROLLARY 1.1. *Let $\mathcal{J}$ be the set of all finite disjoint unions of sets in $\mathcal{L}$. Then $\mathcal{J}$ is a ring.*

PROOF. By Proposition 1.2, $\mathcal{L}$ is a semi-ring. The claim then follows by an application of Theorem theorem 1.1. $\square$

Now we can extend our proto-measure λ_1 to a new proto-measure $\lambda_2 : \mathcal{J} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$ as follows:

$$\lambda_2(A) := \begin{cases} \lambda_1(A), & A \in \mathcal{L} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_1(B_i), & A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i, \{B_i\}_{i=1}^n \text{ are disjoint in } \mathcal{L} \end{cases}$$

PROPOSITION 1.3. λ_2 *is fiinitely additive on $\mathcal{J}$. That is, for any finite disjoint collection of sets $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^n \in \mathcal{J}$*

$$\lambda_2 \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_2(A_i).$$

PROOF. For clarity, we will prove finite additivity for two sets , since the general case follows by induction. Let $A, B \in \mathcal{J}$ such that $A \cap B = \emptyset$. By definition,

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i, \{A_i\}_{i=1}^{n_A} \text{ are disjoint in } \mathcal{L}$$

$$B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} B_i, \{B_i\}_{i=1}^{n_B} \text{ are disjoint in } \mathcal{L}$$

and so we have that

$$\lambda_2 (A \cup B) = \lambda_2 \left(\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i \right) \cup \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} B_i \right) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n_A} \lambda_2 (A_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{n_B} \lambda_2 (B_i)$$
$$= \lambda_2 (A) + \lambda_2 (B)$$

where the second equality follows from associativity of addition along with the fact that $(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i) \cup (\bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} B_i)$ is a disjoint union of sets in $\mathcal{L}$. $\qquad\square$

1.2.3. Structures generated by a class of sets. A key way to "expand" a particular class of sets into a larger structure is to look at the structure *generated* by the class of sets. This idea can be formalized in the following definition, which serves as particular example of this general concept of generation.

DEFINITION 1.6. For any $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$, we refer to the intersection of all rings that contain $\mathcal{A}$ as the ring *generated* by $\mathcal{A}$. Formally, we write

$$\text{ring} (\mathcal{A}) = \bigcap \left\{ \mathcal{R} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}} \text{ is a ring } \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{R} \right\}.$$

PROPOSITION 1.4. *For any* $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$, $\text{ring} (\mathcal{A})$ *is a ring.*

PROOF. First note that $\text{ring} (\mathcal{A})$ exists since $2^{\mathcal{X}}$ is a ring and so $\left\{ \mathcal{R} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}} \text{ is a ring } \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{R} \right\}$ is non-empty. Next observe that $\emptyset \in \text{ring} (\mathcal{A})$ vacuously, so property (i) in Definition 1.1 is easily satisfied. For property (ii), let $A, B \in \text{ring} (\mathcal{A})$ and observe that $A, B \in \mathcal{R}$ for every $\mathcal{R} \in \left\{ \mathcal{R} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}} \text{ is a ring } \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{R} \right\}$. Since $\mathcal{R}$ is a ring, $A \cup B \in \mathcal{R}$ for every $\mathcal{R}$ and thus $A \cup B$ is in the intersection i.e. $\text{ring} (\mathcal{A})$. A similar argument establishes property (iii) and thus we can conclude that $\text{ring} (\mathcal{A})$ is a ring (as it should, given its name). $\qquad\square$

In our construction of the Lebesgue measure on $\mathbb{R}$, we discovered that $\mathcal{J}$, which is the set of all disjoint unions of half-open intervals in $\mathbb{R}$, is a ring. It turns out that we can make a stronger statement using the language of generators developed here.

PROPOSITION 1.5. $\mathcal{J} = \text{ring} (\mathcal{L})$

PROOF. Let $A \in \mathcal{J}$ be arbitrary. Then we can write

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_A} A_i$$

where $A_i \in \mathcal{L}$ are pairwise disjoint. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be an arbitrary ring that contains $\mathcal{L}$ and observe that since rings are closed under finite unions, $A \in \mathcal{R}$. Since $\mathcal{R}$ was arbitrary, A is contained by every ring that contains $\mathcal{L}$ and is thus contained in the intersection of all such rings i.e. $\text{ring} (\mathcal{L})$. This proves that $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \text{ring} (\mathcal{L})$.

To see reverse inclusion, recall that $\mathcal{J}$ is a ring that contains $\mathcal{L}$, and so the intersection of all rings that contain $\mathcal{L}$ is certaintly contained in $\mathcal{J}$. This completes the proof. $\qquad\square$

In measure theory, the most important structure on sets is the σ-algebra, and the σ-algebra generated by a class of sets $\mathcal{A}$, defined analagously to Definition 1.6 about rings and notated as $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$, plays in an important role in this theory. Using a similar argument as the one shown earlier, one can conclude that $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ is indeed a σ-algebra. In analysis and probability theory, mathematicians are interested in σ-algebras generated by a special class of sets.

DEFINITION 1.7. The σ-algebra generated by the topology τ on set $\mathcal{X}$ is called the *Borel σ-algebra* on $\mathcal{X}$ and is denoted $\mathscr{B}(\mathcal{X})$.

The Borel σ-algebra is interesting because it turns that it is the σ-algebra generated by $\mathcal{L}$ is indeed $\mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R})$, where $\mathbb{R}$ has the usual topology. To prove this fact, we need a little lemma from an introductory course on analysis and topology.

LEMMA 1.1. *Any open set in the usual topology of $\mathbb{R}$ can be written as a countable disjoint union of open intervals in $\mathbb{R}$.*

PROOF. Let O be an open set in $\mathbb{R}$ and let $x \in O$ be arbitrary. Define $I_x \subseteq O$ to be the largest open interval that contains x (that is, I_x is the union of all open intervals in O that contain x). Note that at least one such interval exists because O is open and so there exists some $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subseteq O$. Now for any distinct $x, y \in O$, I_x and I_y are either disjoint or equal since if they were neither, $I_x \cup I_y \subseteq O$ would be a larger interval that contains both x and y. Let $\mathcal{I}$ denote the collection of all disjoint such intervals (that is, we get $\mathcal{I}$ by discarding all the "redundant" intervals in $\{I_x\}_{x \in O}$). We can do this without invoking the Axiom of Choice since there are only countably many intervals in $\mathcal{I}$: every interval $I \in \mathcal{I}$ contains at least one rational number because the rationals are a countably dense subset of $\mathbb{R}$. Thus, since the intervals are disjoint, $\mathcal{I}$ can have at most countably many intervals. Of course

$$O = \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{I}} I$$

and so our claim follows. $\qquad\square$

PROPOSITION 1.6. $\sigma(\mathcal{L}) = \mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R})$

PROOF. Let O be an open set in $\mathbb{R}$. Then, by Lemma 1.1

$$O = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i, b_i)$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_i, b_i - \frac{1}{n} \right]$$

which is in $\sigma(\mathcal{L})$ by closure under countable unions (property (ii) in Definition 1.4). Therefore the topology of $\mathbb{R}$ is in $\sigma(\mathcal{L})$ which implies that $\mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{L})$. The

To see the reverse inclusion, observe that for any $(a, b] \in \mathcal{L}$, we can write

$$(a, b] = (a, b) \cup \{b\} \in \mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R})$$

since $\{b\}$ is closed in $\mathbb{R}$ and closed sets are the complements of open sets and thus contained in $\mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R})$.[2] Therefore $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and so $\sigma(\mathcal{L}) \subseteq \mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R})$, completing the proof. $\qquad\square$

Now we are ready to prove that our proto-measure λ_2 is actually a countably-additive pre-measure on $\mathrm{ring}(\mathcal{L})$.

PROPOSITION 1.7. λ_2 *is a countably additive pre-measure on* $\mathrm{ring}(\mathcal{L})$, *that is to say,*

(i) $\lambda_2(\emptyset) = 0$

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[2]σ-algebras on $\mathcal{X}$ are closed under complements since they are closed under set-differences and contain $\mathcal{X}$.

(ii) For disjoint $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in \mathcal{J}$ such that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{J}$

$$\lambda_2 \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_2 \left(A_i \right).$$

PROOF. Property (i) is inherited from λ_1. To see property (ii), let $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in \mathcal{J}$ be disjoint and write $A := \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$. First, note that if $\lambda_2(A_i) = \infty$ for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\infty = \lambda_2(A_i) \leq \lambda_2(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \infty$ where the inequality is due to the monotonicity[3] of λ_2. Thus, in this case, the claim follows vacuously. So, without loss of generality, we can assume that $\lambda_2(A_i) < \infty$ for every $i \in \mathbb{N}$. First, note that for any $n \in \mathbb{N}, \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i \subseteq A$ and so, by the monotonictity and finite additivity of λ_2, we have that

$$\lambda_2(A) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_2(A_i)$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Taking limits, we have countable superadditivity:

$$\lambda_2(A) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_2(A_i).$$

In order to deduce the reverse inequality, TODO: Figure out proof of the reverse inequality $\qquad\square$

1.2.4. Outer measures.

DEFINITION 1.8. A set valued function

$$\mu^* : 2^{\mathcal{X}} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$$

is called an outer measure on $\mathcal{X}$ if

 (i) $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$
 (ii) $A \subseteq B \in 2^{\mathcal{X}} \Longrightarrow \mu^*(A) \leq \mu^*(B)$
 (iii) For $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in 2^{\mathcal{X}}$

$$\mu^* \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_i).$$

EXAMPLE 1.2. Given a countably additive pre-measure μ on a ring $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$, define for any $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$

$$\mu^*(E) := \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) \mid A_i \in \mathcal{A}, E \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right\}$$

Note that this function is defined on $2^{\mathcal{X}}$ since every bounded below subset of the (extended) real numbers has an infimum. In order to prove that the function in our example is indeed an outer measure, the following lemma is useful.

LEMMA 1.2 (Tonelli for series). *Let $\{x_{ij}\}_{i,j \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of non-negative (extended) real numbers. Then*

$$\sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^2} x_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_{ij}.$$

PROOF. We will prove the first equality since the second then follows by symmetry. Let $F \subset \mathbb{N}^2$ be arbitrary and finite. Then, there exists some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $F \subseteq \{1, 2 \ldots, N\}^2$ and so, by the non-negativity of x_{ij}

$$\sum_{i,j \in F} x_{ij} \leq \sum_{i,j \in \{1,2\ldots,N\}^2} x_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_{ij} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{ij}.$$

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[3]For any $A, B \in \text{ring}(\mathcal{L})$ such that $A \subseteq B, \lambda_2(B) = \lambda_2(A) + \lambda_2(B \setminus A) \geq \lambda_2(A)$

This inequality holds for any finite $F \subset \mathbb{N}^2$ and so it holds for the supremum of all such finite sums. That is to say,

$$\sup_{F \subset \mathbb{N}^2 | F \text{ is finite}} \sum_{i,j \in F} x_{ij} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{ij}.$$

But recall that for any $\{a_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \in [0, \infty]$ where $\mathcal{I}$ is any index set

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} a_i := \sup_{I \subset \mathcal{I} | I \text{ is finite}} \sum_{i \in I} a_i,$$

and so we have that

$$\sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^2} x_{ij} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{ij}.$$

To derive the other inequality, observe that it is sufficient to prove that

$$\sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^2} x_{ij} \geq \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{ij}$$

for every $I \in \mathbb{N}$. Fix $I = I_0$ and note that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I_0} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{I_0} \lim_{J \to \infty} \sum_{j=1}^{J} x_{ij} = \lim_{J \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{I_0} \sum_{j=1}^{J} x_{ij}.$$

Thus to prove $\sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^2} x_{ij} \geq \sum_{i=1}^{I_0} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{ij}$ we need to prove that

$$\sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^2} x_{ij} \geq \sum_{i=1}^{I_0} \sum_{j=1}^{J} x_{ij}$$

for every $J \in \mathbb{N}$. Fix $J = J_0$ and then observe that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I_0} \sum_{j=1}^{J_0} x_{ij} = \sum_{i,j \in \{1,2,\ldots,I_0\} \times \{1,2,\ldots,J_0\}} x_{ij} \leq \sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^2} x_{ij}$$

where the inequality follows due to non-negativity of x_{ij}. This concludes the proof. $\square$

REMARK. This lemma is a special case of Tonelli's theorem, a fundamental theorem that allows us to construct measures on Cartesian products of measure spaces from the measures on those spaces themselves. This theorem will be motivated and proved in Chapter 5.

PROPOSITION 1.8. *The function $\mu^* : 2^{\mathcal{X}} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$ defined in Example 1.2 is an outer measure*

PROOF. For (i), observe that $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$ and so $\mu^*(\emptyset) = \mu(\emptyset) = 0$. Next, let $A \subseteq B \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ and observe that

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) \mid A_i \in \mathcal{A}, B \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right\} \subseteq \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) \mid A_i \in \mathcal{A}, A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right\}$$

and so

$$\mu^*(B) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) \mid A_i \in \mathcal{A}, B \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right\} \geq \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) \mid A_i \in \mathcal{A}, A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right\} = \mu^*(A)$$

which gives us (ii). For (iii), let $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in 2^{\mathcal{X}}$ be disjoint and assume that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(E_i) < \infty$ since otherwise the claim is trivial. Fix $\epsilon > 0$ and choose $A_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $E_i \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_{ij}$ and

$$\mu^*(E_i) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_{ij}) < \mu^*(E_i) + \frac{\epsilon}{2^i}$$

for every $i \in \mathbb{N}^4$. Observe that

$$E := \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_{ij}$$

and so

$$\mu^*(E) \leq \sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^2} \mu(A_{ij}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_{ij}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(E_i) + \epsilon$$

where the equality follows by Lemma 1.2 and the second inequality is due to properties of the geometric series. Since ϵ was arbitrary, the claim folllows. $\square$

PROPOSITION 1.9. *Let $\mathcal{A}$, μ, and μ^* be defined as in Example 1.2. Then, for any $A \in \mathcal{A}$*

$$\mu^*(A) = \mu(A).$$

PROOF. First, observe that A is a cover for itself and that $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$ and so

$$\mu^*(A) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) \mid A_i \in \mathcal{A}, A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right\} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$$

where $A_1 = A$ and $A_i = \emptyset$ for $i \neq 1$. Therefore,

$$\mu^*(A) \leq \mu(A).$$

To see the reverse inequality, let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{A}$ be an arbitrary cover of A. Define,

$$B_i := A \cap \left(A_i \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} A_i \right)$$

and notice that the $\{B_i\}$ is a pairwise disjoint collections whose union is A such that $B_i \subseteq A_i$ for every $i \in \mathbb{N}$. By countable additivity and monotonicity,

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i).$$

Since $\{A_i\} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is an arbitrary cover of A, we have that

$$\mu(A) \leq \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) \mid A_i \in \mathcal{A}, A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right\} = \mu^*(A)$$

which completes the proof. $\square$

Now we are (finally!!) ready to extend our pre-measure to a bona-fide measure on a σ-algebra, using the following theorem.

THEOREM 1.2 (Caratheodory's Extension Theorem). *Given a countably-additive pre-measure μ on ring $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$ with outer measure μ^* as in Example 1.2, define the set*

$$\mathcal{C} = \left\{ A \subseteq \mathcal{X} \text{ such that } \mu^*(E) = \mu^*(A \cap E) + \mu^*(A^C \cap E) \, \forall E \in 2^{\mathcal{X}} \right\}.$$

Then

(i) $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$.
(ii) $\mathcal{C}$ *is a σ-algebra.*
(iii) $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{C}}$ *is a countably additive measure on $\mathcal{C}$.*

---

[4]This is possible due to the assumption that $\mu^*(E_i) < \infty$, which implies that the set $\left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_{ij}) \mid A_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}, E_i \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_{ij} \right\}$ is non-empty. The definition of an infimum then implies that such a cover $\{A_{ij}\}$ exists.

PROOF. First we will show (i). Let $A \in \mathcal{A}$ be arbitrary. By the countable subadditivity of μ^*, we know that

$$\mu^* (E) = \mu^* \left((A \cap E) \bigcup (A^C \cap E) \right) \leq \mu^* (A \cap E) + \mu^* (A^C \cap E)$$

for every $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$. To deduce the reverse inequality, fix E such that $\mu^* (E) < \infty$ because otherwise the claim follows trivially. Pick an $\epsilon > 0$ and find a cover $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^\infty \in \mathcal{A}$ of E such that

$$\mu^* (E) \leq \sum_{i=1}^\infty \mu (A_i) < \mu^* (E) + \epsilon$$

As in the proof of Proposition 1.8, this is possible because $\mu^* (E) < \infty$ and the definition of an infimum. Next, observe that

$$E \cap A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty (A_i \cap A),$$
$$E \cap A^C \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty (A_i \cap A^C)$$

and so

$$\mu^* (E \cap A) \leq \mu^* \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty (A_i \cap A) \right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^\infty \mu^* (A_i \cap A)$$
$$\mu^* (E \cap A^C) \leq \mu^* \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty (A_i \cap A^C) \right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^\infty \mu^* (A_i \cap A^C)$$

where the first inequality follows due to monotonicity and the second due to subadditivity. Together, these inequalities imply that

$$\mu^* (A \cap E) + \mu^* (A^C \cap E) \leq \sum_{i=1}^\infty \mu^* (A_i \cap A) + \mu^* (A_i \cap A^C)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^\infty \mu (A_i \cap A) + \mu (A_i \cap A^C)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^\infty \mu (A_i)$$
$$< \mu^* (E) + \epsilon$$

where the first equality is due to the fact that rings are closed under intersections and set-differences along with Proposition 1.9 and the second equality is due to the countable additivity of μ. Since ϵ and E are arbitrary, we have that

$$\mu^* (A \cap E) + \mu^* (A^C \cap E) \leq \mu^* (E)$$

for every $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$, establishing that $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$.

Next we show (ii); that is, we prove $\mathcal{C}$ is a $\sigma-$algebra. Recall Definition 1.4 and notice that it is sufficient to prove that (1) $\emptyset, \mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{C}$; (2) if $A \in \mathcal{C}$ then $A^C \in \mathcal{C}$; (3) if $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^\infty \in \mathcal{C}$ then $\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty A_i \in \mathcal{C}$. Note that $\emptyset, \mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{C}$ because, trivially,

$$\mu^* (E \cap \mathcal{X}) + \mu^* (E \cap \emptyset) = \mu^* (E) .$$

Symmetry between A and A^C in the definition of $\mathcal{C}$ establishes (2). For (3), we first establish closure under finite unions and bootstrap this weaker result to yield the stronger claim. Let $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$ and let $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\mu^* (E) = \mu^* (E \cap A) + \mu^* (E \cap A^C)$$
$$= \mu^* ((E \cap A) \cap B) + \mu^* ((E \cap A) \cap B^C) + \mu^* (E \cap A^C)$$
$$= \mu^* (E \cap A \cap B) + \mu^* \left(E \cap (A \cap B)^C \cap A\right) + \mu^* \left(E \cap (A \cap B)^C \cap A^C\right)$$
$$= \mu^* (E \cap A \cap B) + \mu^* \left(E \cap (A \cap B)^C\right)$$

where the first equality is due to the definition of $\mathcal{C}$ and the fact that $B \in \mathcal{C}$, the second equality is due to the identities

$$(A \cap B)^C \cap A = \left(A^C \cup B^C\right) \cap A = A \cap B^C$$
$$(A \cap B)^C \cap A^C = \left(A^C \cup B^C\right) \cap A^C = A^C,$$

and the third equality follows from the definition of $\mathcal{C}$ and that $A \in \mathcal{C}$. This proves that for any $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$, $A \cap B \in \mathcal{C}$. Property (2) then implies that $A \cup B \in \mathcal{C}$.

To establish closure under countable unions, fix $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ and let $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in \mathcal{C}$ be arbitrary with $B = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i$ and define

$$B_n := \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

where $B_n \in \mathcal{C}$ by our result on closure under finite unions. Without loss of generality, we can assume that the $\{A_i\}$ are pairwise disjoint (since we could otherwise replace A_i with $C_i := A_i \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} A_j$ which are disjoint such that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_i$). Then, we have that

$$\mu^* (E) = \mu^* \left(E \cap B_n^C\right) + \mu^* (E \cap B_n)$$
$$= \mu^* \left(E \cap B_n^C\right) + \mu^* (E \cap B_n \cap A_n) + \mu^* \left(E \cap B_n \cap A_n^C\right)$$
$$= \mu^* \left(E \cap B_n^C\right) + \mu^* (E \cap A_n) + \mu^* (E \cap B_{n-1})$$

where we used the fact that $A_n \in \mathcal{C}$ for the second equality and the disjointness of A_i for the third equality. Observe that the equality $\mu^* (E \cap B_n) = \mu^* (E \cap A_n) + \mu^* (E \cap B_{n-1})$ is a recurrence relation that can be expanded as

$$\mu^* (E \cap B_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu^* (E \cap A_i)$$

and so

$$\mu^* (E) = \mu^* \left(E \cap B_n^C\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu^* (E \cap A_i)$$
$$\geq \mu^* \left(E \cap B^C\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu^* (E \cap A_i)$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ where the inequality is due to the the fact that $B^C \subseteq B_n^C$ and the monotonicity of outer measures. After taking limits, we have that

$$\mu^* (E) \geq \mu^* \left(E \cap B^C\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^* (E \cap A_i)$$
$$\geq \mu^* \left(E \cap B^C\right) + \mu^* \left(\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} (E \cap A_i)\right)$$
$$= \mu^* \left(E \cap B^C\right) + \mu^* (E \cap B)$$

where the second inequality follows by countable subadditivity. Another application of countable subadditivity yields

$$\mu^* (E) \leq \mu^* \left(E \cap B^C\right) + \mu^* (E \cap B)$$

and together the two inequalities establish that $B \in \mathcal{C}$, finishing the proof of (ii).

Finally, in order to show that $\mu^*|_{\mathcal{C}}$ is indeed a countably additive measure on $\mathcal{C}$, let $\{A\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \in \mathcal{C}$ be pairwise disjoint, and observe that for $B := \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i \in \mathcal{C}$ and any $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$

$$\mu^* (E) \geq \mu^* \left(E \cap B^C \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^* \left(E \cap A_i \right)$$

due to our previous work. Letting $E = B$, we have

$$\mu^* (B) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^* \left(B \cap A_i \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu^* \left(A_i \right).$$

Since the reverse inequality follows by the subadditivity of the outer measure, our proof is complete. □

Note that in general such an extension may not be unique and we provide sufficient conditions for uniqueness in Chapter XX.

1.2.5. Defining the Lebesgue measure.

1.3. Abstract measure spaces

DEFINITION 1.9. A pair $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$, where $\mathcal{X}$ is an arbitrary set and $\mathcal{F}$ is a $\sigma-$algebra on $\mathcal{X}$, is called a *measurable space*.

Although we had implicitly defined a measure in the previous section, it's appopriate to write down a formal definition in this section.

DEFINITION 1.10. Let $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$ be a measurable space. A function $\mu : \mathcal{F} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$ is a *measure* on $\mathcal{X}$ if

(i) $\mu (\emptyset) = 0$
(ii) For disjoint $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{F}$

$$\mu \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu \left(A_i \right).$$

The triple $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is called a *measure space*. If $\mu (\mathcal{X}) = 1$ then μ is called a *probability measure* and $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is called a *probability space*.

DEFINITION 1.11. Given a measurable space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$, any set $A \in \mathcal{F}$ is called a *measurable* set. Conversely, any set $A \subset \mathcal{X}$ such that $A \notin \mathcal{F}$ is referred to as a *non-measurable* set.

While the definition of a measure is simple, it turns out to have some remarkable properties that are useful in the theory of integration and probability that is built on top of measure theory (or, as we shall later see, is equivalent to it).

PROPOSITION 1.10. *Let $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$ be a measurabe space and let*

$$\mu : \mathcal{F} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$$

be a function. Then μ is a measure if and only if

(i) $\mu (\emptyset) = 0$
(ii) For disjoint $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$
$$\mu (A \cup B) = \mu (A) + \mu (B).$$
(iii) For any increasing sequence of sets $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \ldots$ in $\mathcal{F}$ such that $\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i = A$
$$\mu (A) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu (A_i)$$

PROOF. First we shall establish that Definition 1.10 implies properties (i)-(iii) above. Property (i) is inherited straight from the definition; to see (ii), we can let $A_1 = A, A_2 = B$ and $A_j = \emptyset$ for all $j \geq 3$. Then

$$\mu(A \cup B) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_j) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$$

where the first second equality is due countably additiivity and the third equality is due to property (i). To see property (iii), let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an increasing sequence of sets such that $A_i \subseteq A_{i+1}$ for every $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $A := \bigcup_{i \in N} A_i$. Define

$$B_i := A_i \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} A_j$$

which is the standard "disjointification" of $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ as we have seen earlier. By countable additivity

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_i)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu(B_i)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_i\right)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i\right)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(A_n)$$

where the third equality is due to property (ii). The fourth equality follows from the disjointification and the last equality is due to the increasing nature of the sequence of sets.

Next, we shall establish countable additivity while assuming properties (i)-(iii) in order to complete the equivalence. Let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be pairwise disjoint in $\mathcal{F}$. Then, letting $A := \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i$ we can define

$$B_n := \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

and observe that $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n = A$ and $B_n \subseteq B_{n+1}$. Then, by property (iii),

$$\mu(A) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(B_n)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu(A_i)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$$

where the second equality is due to finite additivity (property (ii)). This completes the proof. $\square$

REMARK. Property (iii) resembles a continuity condition, and is indeed called *continuity from below* of measures. There is an analagous definition for *continuity from above* which is implied by *continuity from above* for finitely additive measures and pre-measures. If the measures are finite, these two notions of continuity are in fact equivalent.

COROLLARY 1.2. *Every measure μ on an arbitrary measurable space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$ is countably subadditive i.e. for any collection $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{F}$*

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i).$$

PROOF. We shall first establish *finite* subadditivity and bootstrap this result to countable subadditivity. To see finite subadditivity, let $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ be arbitrary, and observe that

$$A \cup B = (A \setminus B) \cup B.$$

The two sets on the right hand side are disjoint and so by finite additivity

$$\mu(A \cup B) = \mu(A \setminus B) + \mu(B).$$

Adding $\mu(A \cap B)$ and applying finite additivity again, we deduce that

$$\mu(A \cup B) + \mu(A \cap B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$$

which establishes finite subadditivity. To prove the countable analogue, let

$$B_n := \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

and observe that by finite subadditivity

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

where the last inequality follows by the non-negativity of μ. Note that since B_n is an increasing sequence, we can apply Proposition 1.10 (iii) to infer that

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(B_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i).$$

$\square$

PROPOSITION 1.11. *For a finitely additive measure $\mu : \mathcal{F} \longrightarrow [0, \infty)$, the following statements are equivalent:*

(i) *For any increasing sequence of sets $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $A_i \subseteq A_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$*

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(A_i).$$

(ii) *For any decreasing sequence of sets $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $A_{i+1} \subseteq A_i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$*

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(A_i).$$

PROOF. Assuming (i), let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a decreasing sequence of sets and let $A := \bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i$. Then define $B_i = A_1 \setminus A_i$ which is an increasing sequence of sets such that $A_1 \setminus A = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} B_i$. By (i),

$$\mu(A_1) - \mu(A) = \mu(A_1 \setminus A) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(B_i) = \mu(A_1) - \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(A_i)$$

where the first and last equality are due to finite additivity and the finiteness of μ. We can subtract $\mu(A_1)$ from both sides to yield the result.

To establish the converse, assume (ii) and let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an increasing sequence of sets and define $A := \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i$. Let $B_i := A \setminus A_i$ which is a decreasing sequence of sets such that $\bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} B_i = \emptyset$. By (ii), we have that

$$0 = \mu(\emptyset) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(B_i) = \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(A \setminus A_i) = \mu(A) - \lim_{i \to \infty} \mu(A_i)$$

where the last equality is again due to finite additivity and the finitenesss of μ. Rearrangement yields the proof. $\qquad\square$

Observe how the two results apply without modification to pre-measures as well and so we can establish the countable additivity of λ_2 (see the previous section) using a continuity argument instead of the Heine-Borel argument we previously used (Exercise!).

CHAPTER 2

Measurable functions

2.1. Limits of sets and their indicator functions

Before we embark on a general description of measurable functions, it's useful to look at special kind of function: the indicator function of a set. These functions are special, because they are essentially the building blocks of all important functions in measure theory. In fact, indicator functions of sets are the key to linking abstract measure theory on one hand, to the theory of integration on the other. As we shall later see, this link is actually an equivalence: measures and integrals are equivalent objects, and so, in the context of this theory, sets and their indicator functions are also in some sense equivalent. While the full scope of this equivalence will only become salient when we discuss integration, this section will shed some light on why we perhaps should expect this *ex-ante*.

DEFINITION 2.1. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a set and let $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ be an arbitrary subset. The function

$$\mathbb{1}_A : \mathcal{X} \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}$$

defined by

$$\mathbb{1}_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in A \\ 0 & x \notin A \end{cases}$$

is called the *indicator function* of set A.

The algebra of sets implies a corresponding Boolean algebra for indicator functions.

FACT 2.1. *Let $A, B \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ be arbitrary and let $\mathbb{1}_A, \mathbb{1}_B$ be their respective indicator functions. Then the indicator function of the set $C := A \cup B$ is given by*

$$\mathbb{1}_C = \max\{\mathbb{1}_A, \mathbb{1}_B\} = \mathbb{1}_A + \mathbb{1}_B - \mathbb{1}_A\mathbb{1}_B$$

where the maximum is taken pointwise. Similarly, the indicator function for set $D := A \cap B$ is given by

$$\mathbb{1}_D = \min\{\mathbb{1}_A, \mathbb{1}_B\} = \mathbb{1}_A\mathbb{1}_B.$$

The indicator function for A^C is given by

$$\mathbb{1}_{A^C} = 1 - \mathbb{1}_A.$$

Note that if A, B are disjoint, then the indicator function of their union is simply the sum of their individual indicators, i.e.

$$\mathbb{1}_{A \cup B} = \mathbb{1}_A + \mathbb{1}_B.$$

We can extend these facts to describe indicator functions of arbitrary unions and intersections of sets in the obvious way

PROPOSITION 2.1. *Let $\mathcal{I}$ be an arbitrary index set and let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ be subsets with indicator functions $\{\mathbb{1}_{A_i}\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$. Then, the indicator function for $B := \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} A_i$ is given by*

$$\mathbb{1}_B = \sup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mathbb{1}_{A_i}$$

where the supremum is taken pointwise. Similarly, the indicator function for $C := \bigcap_{i \in \mathcal{I}} A_i$ is given by

$$\mathbb{1}_C = \inf_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mathbb{1}_{A_i}.$$

PROOF. We provide the argument for B; the argument for C is analagous. Observe that

$$\mathbb{1}_B(x) = 1 \iff x \in \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} A_i$$
$$\iff x \in A_{i_0} \text{ for some } i_0 \in \mathcal{I}$$
$$\iff \mathbb{1}_{A_{i_0}} = 1 \text{ for some } i_0 \in \mathcal{I}$$
$$\iff \sup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mathbb{1}_{A_i} = 1$$

which completes the argument. $\square$

These arguments appear to be rather pedantic, but they are key to defining limiting operations on sets. With a background in undergraduate calculus, it can be quite cumbersome to think of a sequence of sets converging to another set. However, it is quite straightforward to imagine the pointwise convergence of a sequence of *indicator functions* of sets. For example, we have what appears to be a fairly daunting definition for the limit of a sequence of sets.

DEFINITION 2.2. Let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of sets in $2^{\mathcal{X}}$. Then the limit superior of the sequence is given by

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n := \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i.$$

Similarly, the limit inferior of the sequence is given by

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} A_n := \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i.$$

If $\limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n = \liminf_{n \to \infty} A_n$ then the limit of the sequence is defined and is equal to the limit superior and inferior i.e.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} A_n := \limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n = \liminf_{n \to \infty} A_n.$$

While these definitions appear arbitrary, they demarcate important concepts in both analysis and probability. To unpack the intuition, let's try to understand what it means for an element $x \in \mathcal{X}$ to be in $\limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n$. If $x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i$, then $x \in \bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. That it is to say, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists an $i \geq n$ such that $x \in A_i$. This essentially says that x is in infinitely many of the sets $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$. In the language of probability, the event $\limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n$ is the event of outcomes that occur infinitely often in the collection of events $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$.

On the other hand, if $x \in \liminf_{n \to \infty} A_n$, then there exists some $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x \in A_i$ for every $i \geq n_0$. Clearly then, $\liminf_{n \to \infty} A_n \subseteq \limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n$ which mirrors the domination condition for limit superiors and inferiors of sequences of real numbers or real functions. So when does equality hold? Note that if $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an increasing sequence of sets

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i$$
$$= \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=i}^{\infty} A_n$$
$$= \liminf_{i \to \infty} A_i$$

where the second and fourth equalitiies follow from the increasing nature of the sets A_i. This shows that the continuity from below condition described in Proposition 1.10 is in fact bona-fide continuity.

After developing the theory of integration, we will (seemingly) generalize this continuity result to measurable functions in the form of the famous *monotone convergence theorem*. Of course, once we know that measures and integrals are essentially the same objects, it will be clear that continuity from below and monotone convergence are two sides of the same coin. While this result is better known in it's integral formulation, there's another result that is perhaps better known in its measure-theoretic formulation: the Borel-Cantelli lemma.

THEOREM 2.1 (First Borel-Cantelli lemma). *Let $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be an arbitrary measure space and let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{F}$ be a sequence of sets. If*

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

then

$$\mu\left(\limsup_{i \to \infty} A_i\right) = 0.$$

PROOF. Define by $B_n := \bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i$. It's clear that $\{B_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a decreasing sequence of sets. More over $\mu(B_1) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) < \infty$ by subadditivity and so, since μ is finite on $\{B_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, we can apply Propositions 1.10 and 1.11 to establish

$$\mu\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(B_n)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i\right)$$

$$\leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=n}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mu(A_i)\right]$$

$$= 0$$

where the inequality follows from subadditivity and the last equality is due to the the assumption that $\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(A_i) < \infty$ along with the fact that a sequence and its tail have the same limit. $\square$

REMARK. This version of the Borel-Cantelli lemma is sometimes called the *first* Borel-Cantelli lemma since its converse, which is true under certain conditions, is also called the Borel-Cantelli lemma in the literature. To prevent ambiguity, we refer to the conversee result as the *second* Borel-Cantelli lemma. The second Borel-Cantelli lemma uses the probabilistic concept of independence which is the topic of Chapter 7 and as such, we will relegate the discussion of the second Borel-Cantelli lemma when we formally delve into probabiility theory.

By now you should be sufficiently convinced that our definitions of the limiting behavior sets indeed make sense. However, if you any doubts, our treatment of indicator functions should help resolve them completely

PROPOSITION 2.2. *Let $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a collection of subsets of $\mathcal{X}$ and let $\{\mathbb{1}_{A_i}\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be their corresponding indicator functions. Then*

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{1}_{A_n} = \mathbb{1}_{\limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n}$$

and

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{1}_{A_n} = \mathbb{1}_{\liminf_{n \to \infty} A_n}.$$

PROOF. We prove the first assertion as the second one follows by the same argument. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{1}_{A_n} &= \inf_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \left\{ \sup_{i\geq n} \mathbb{1}_{A_i} \right\} \\
&= \inf_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \left\{ \mathbb{1}_{\bigcup_{i\geq n} A_i} \right\} \\
&= \mathbb{1}_{\bigcap_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{i\geq n} A_i} \\
&= \mathbb{1}_{\liminf_{n\to\infty} A_n}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the second and third equalities follow by Proposition 2.1. $\square$

By now, you should have begun to appreciate that indicator functions are essentially functional equivalents of the sets they indicate: sets and their indicator functioins are just two representations of the same object. This is not particularly suprising, given that sets are defined by their membership and indicator functions describe membership. In this context, it should then not be suprising that indicator functions of *measurable sets* are *measurable functions*, even though we have not yet described the latter concept yet. This is indeed true, and moreover, any non-negative measurable function can be built by taking a limit of a linear combination of indicators of sets. But before we can show this, we should first define what a measurable function is!

DEFINITION 2.3. Let $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$ and $(\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{G})$ be two measurable spaces. A function

$$
f : \mathcal{X} \longrightarrow \mathcal{Y}
$$

is called $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{G}-measurable$ if for any $G \in \mathcal{G}$

$$
f^{-1}[G] \in \mathcal{F}.
$$

REMARK. This definition also resembles a continuity condition; indeed, if $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ were topologies rather than $\sigma-$algebras, this would be the definition of a continuous function. It turns out that if $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ are Borel $\sigma-$algebras, then continuity implies measurability: this is a fact that we establish in the next section. Moreover, all measurable functions are in some sense *almost* continuous: we make this notion precise when we briefly discuss the deep connections between topology and measure theory in Chapter 4.

Later in these notes, we will stop writing $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{G}$ explicitly and let the reader infer the $\sigma-$algebras in play from the context.

2.2. Properties of measurable functions

Armed with our definition of measurable functions, we are ready to discuss interesting examples of such functions along with their properties. First, we establish that the measurability of a sets and its indicator function is indeed equivalent, as we had guessed earlier

PROPOSITION 2.3. *Let $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$ be a measurable space. Then for any $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}$, A is measurable (i.e. $A \in \mathcal{F}$) if and only if*

$$
\mathbb{1}_A : \mathcal{X} \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}
$$

is $\mathcal{F}/2^{\{0,1\}}-measurable$.

PROOF. First assume that $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and observe that if $B = \{0, 1\}$ then $\mathbb{1}_A^{-1}[B] = \mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{F}$, if $B = \{1\}$ then $\mathbb{1}_A^{-1}[B] = A \in \mathcal{F}$, if $B = \{0\}$ then $\mathbb{1}_A^{-1}[B] = A^C \in \mathcal{F}$, and if $B = \emptyset$ then $\mathbb{1}_A^{-1}[B] = \emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$.

Conversely, assume that $\mathbb{1}_A$ is measurable and notice how $A = f^{-1}[\{1\}] \in \mathcal{F}$ which completes the proof. $\square$

In this case, measurability of our function was easy to establish because the $\sigma-$algebra $2^{\{0,1\}}$ could be explicitly enumerated. Generally, this is not possible as $\sigma-$algebras can be extremely large. Nevertheless, it is possible establish measurability using a smaller class of sets in the target $\sigma-$algebra; this is the crux of generating class arguments which we discusss more abstractly in the next section. Even the simplest of such arguments can be quite powerful, as we shall see with the following result.

THEOREM 2.2 (Generic generating class argument). *Let $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{F})$ and $(\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{G})$ be measurable spaces and let $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ be a collection of sets such that $\sigma(\mathcal{E}) = \mathcal{G}$. A function*

$$f : \mathcal{X} \longrightarrow \mathcal{Y}$$

is $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{G}-$measurable if and only if

$$f^{-1}[E] \in \mathcal{F}$$

for every $E \in \mathcal{E}$.

PROOF. If f is measurable, then trivially $f^{-1}[E] \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $E \in \mathcal{E}$ since $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$. Conversely, suppose that $f^{-1}[E] \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $E \in \mathcal{E}$ and define

$$\mathcal{D} = \left\{ G \in \mathcal{G} \mid f^{-1}[G] \in \mathcal{F} \right\}.$$

By assumption, $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ and with a little effort we can show that $\mathcal{D}$ is in fact a $\sigma-$algebra, and so $\mathcal{G} = \sigma(\mathcal{E}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{D}) = \mathcal{D}$. First, it is clear that $\emptyset \in \mathcal{D}$ as $f^{-1}[\emptyset] = \emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$. Next, for any $A \in \mathcal{D}$, observe that $f^{-1}[A^c] = \left(f^{-1}[A]\right)^C \in \mathcal{F}$ since $\mathcal{F}$ is a $\sigma-$algebra. Finally, for any collection $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{D}$, $f^{-1}\left[\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i\right] = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} f^{-1}[A_i] \in \mathcal{F}$ again because $\mathcal{F}$ is a $\sigma-$algebra. This completes the proof.   □

Part 2

Probability