

## Probability Spaces and measure

Probability theory is the mathematical study of randomness. Today we will recall some definitions and results from measure theory. Every experiment or observation results in a outcome or sample point. Let  $\Omega$  be the **sample space** consisting of all **outcomes**. We will use  $\omega$  to denote an outcome from the sample space  $\Omega$ . Let  $2^\Omega$  denote the power set of  $\Omega$ , consisting of all subsets of  $\Omega$ . First we define field and  $\sigma$ -field.

### 1.1 Fields and $\sigma$ -fields

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is called a **field** or **algebra** if the following holds

- (i)  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- (ii)  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  implies that  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$  and
- (iii)  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$  implies that  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{F}$ .

**Definition 1.2.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is called a  **$\sigma$ -field** or  **$\sigma$ -algebra** if the following holds

- (i)  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- (ii)  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  implies that  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$  and
- (iii) if  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F}$  is a countable sequence of sets then  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Here and in what follows, countable means finite or countably infinite. Clearly every  $\sigma$ -field is a field. Since  $(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i)^c = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c$ , every  $\sigma$ -field is also closed under countable intersection. The tuple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ , where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field is called a **measurable space**. We will use the notation  $\cup$  to **emphasize** disjoint union. Now let us give some examples of field and  $\sigma$ -field.

**Example 1.3.**  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  with  $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$ , called the *trivial  $\sigma$ -field*.

**Example 1.4.**  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  with  $\mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega$ .  $2^\Omega$  is the largest  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$ .

**Example 1.5.** Let  $\Omega$  be any sample space. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be the collection of all countable subsets and co-countable (complement is countable) subsets of  $\Omega$ . Check that  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  is a  $\sigma$ -field. We will call it the *countable co-countable  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$* .

**Example 1.6.** Let  $\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ . Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be the collection of all finite subsets and co-finite (complement is finite) subsets of  $\Omega$ . Check that  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  is a field. Note that  $\{2\}, \{4\}, \{6\}, \dots \in \mathcal{A}$  but  $\{2, 4, 6, \dots\} = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{2i\} \notin \mathcal{A}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{A}$  is not a  $\sigma$ -field

In general  $\sigma$ -field is a complicated object. But it is easy to construct one.

**Definition 1.7.** Given a collection  $\mathcal{C}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  (need not be a field) we define  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ , the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ , as the smallest  $\sigma$ -field containing  $\mathcal{C}$ . Similarly, we define  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$ , the field generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ , as the smallest field containing  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Lemma 1.8.** For any  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  and  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$  exist.

*Proof.* We will only prove the existence of  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ . The other part is similar. Let  $\Lambda$  be the collection of all  $\sigma$ -fields containing  $\mathcal{C}$ . Note that  $\Lambda$  is non-empty as  $2^\Omega$ , the power-set of  $\Omega$  is in  $\Lambda$ . Define

$$\mathcal{F} = \bigcap_{\mathcal{G} \in \Lambda} \mathcal{G}.$$

Clearly  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  is contained in all  $\sigma$ -fields containing  $\mathcal{C}$ . We claim that  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field (Verify the axioms of  $\sigma$ -field!). This completes the proof. ■

Even if  $\mathcal{C}$  is a “nice” collection of sets,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  can become quite complicated. We give some examples.

**Example 1.9.** Let  $\Omega$  be a sample space and  $\mathcal{C}$  be the collection of all singleton subsets of  $\Omega$ . We claim that  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  is the countable co-countable  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$ .

**Definition 1.10.** Let  $\Omega$  be a topological space with  $\mathcal{C}$  being the collection of all open subsets of  $\Omega$ . The  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{B}(\Omega) = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$  is called the **Borel**  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$ .

We will denote the Borel  $\sigma$ -field of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by  $\mathcal{B}^n$ . When  $n = 1$  we will simply use  $\mathcal{B}$ .

## 1.2 Measure

**Definition 1.11.** A **measure** is a nonnegative countable additive set function on a measurable space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ , i.e., a function  $\mu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

- (i)  $\mu(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , and
- (ii) if  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$  is a countable sequence of disjoint sets (i.e.,  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ ), then

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

A **Probability measure**  $\mathbb{P}$  is a measure with  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ . A **Probability space** is a triple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field and  $\mathbb{P}$  is a probability measure on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ .

We define a pre-measure  $\nu$  as a nonnegative countable additive set function on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$ , where  $\mathcal{A}$  is only a field, i.e., a function  $\nu : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

- (i)  $\nu(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , and
- (ii) if  $A_i \in \mathcal{A}$  is a countable sequence of disjoint sets (i.e.,  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ ) such that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{A}$ , then

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

Abusing notation, we will also call a pre-measure as a measure (which will be clear from the context).

It is easy to check that for a measure (or pre-measure)  $\mu$  we have  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$  (by condition (ii), taking  $A_1 = A_2 = \dots = \emptyset$ ). First we mention some properties of a measure (also true for pre-measure).

**Theorem 1.12.** *Let  $\mu$  be a measure on the measurable space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . Then the following hold.*

- (a) *(Monotonicity) If  $A \subseteq B$  then  $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$ .*
- (b) *(Sub-additivity) If  $A \subseteq \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$  then  $\mu(A) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$ .*
- (c) *(Continuity from below) If  $A_i \uparrow A$  (i.e.,  $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq \dots$  and  $A = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ ) then  $\mu(A_i) \uparrow \mu(A)$ .*
- (d) *(Continuity from above) If  $A_i \downarrow A$  (i.e.,  $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq \dots$  and  $A = \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ ) then  $\mu(A_i) \downarrow \mu(A)$ .*

Before going to the proof, we explain an important “**disjointification**” operation for a sequence of sets that will be used repeatedly. Given a sequence of sets  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  (which can be arbitrary) if we define

$$B_1 = A_1, B_2 = A_2 \setminus A_1, B_3 = A_3 \setminus (A_1 \cup A_2), B_4 = A_4 \setminus (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3), \dots$$

then  $B_i$ 's are disjoint and  $\cup_{i=1}^m B_i = \cup_{i=1}^m A_i$  for all  $m \geq 1$ . Now we proceed to the proof.

*Proof.* (a) Let  $C = B \setminus A$ . Clearly,  $C \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $C \cup A = B$ . Thus

$$\mu(B) = \mu(C \cup A) = \mu(C) + \mu(A) \geq \mu(A).$$

(b) We consider the sequence of sets  $B_i = A \cap A_i$  and disjointify it to get  $C_i$  such that  $A = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_i$ . Clearly  $C_i \subseteq B_i \subseteq A_i$ . Thus, using (ii) of the definition of measure and part (a) of this theorem, we get

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

(c) Using the disjointification operation on the sequence of sets  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$ , we get the disjoint sequence  $B_1 = A_1, B_i = A_i \setminus A_{i-1}$ . We have  $A = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$  and so

$$\mu(A) = \mu(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_i) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^m \mu(B_i) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mu(\cup_{i=1}^m B_i) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_m).$$

(d) Note that  $A_1 \setminus A_n \uparrow A_1 \setminus A$ . Thus part (c) of this theorem implies that  $\mu(A_1 \setminus A_n) \uparrow \mu(A_1 \setminus A)$ . Now part (a) shows that for  $A \subseteq B$ ,  $\mu(B \setminus A) = \mu(B) - \mu(A)$ . It follows that  $\mu(A_n) \downarrow \mu(A)$ . ■

**Definition 1.13.** *A measure  $\mu$  is **finite** if  $\mu(\Omega) < \infty$ .*

**Definition 1.14.** *A measure  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -**finite** if  $\Omega = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$  with  $\mu(A_i) < \infty, \forall i$ .*

**Example 1.15.** *Let  $\Omega =$  set of outcomes if we toss 2 dices  $= \{1, 2, \dots, 6\} \times \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$ , and  $\mathcal{F} = 2^{\Omega}$ , then we can define measure  $\mu(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{|A|}{36}$ .*

**Example 1.16.** *Let  $\Omega$  be a countable set,  $\mathcal{F} = 2^{\Omega}$ . Take a sequence  $p_w \geq 0, w \in \Omega$  s.t.  $\sum_{w \in \Omega} p_w = 1$ , then  $\mu(A) = \sum_{w \in A} p_w$  is a probability measure.*

**Example 1.17.** Let  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  be a countable co-countable  $\sigma$ -field. Define

$$\mu(A) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } A \text{ is countable} \\ 1, & \text{if } A \text{ is co-countable.} \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* Clearly,  $\mu(A) \geq 0$  and  $\mu(\Omega) = 1$ . Let  $A = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ . We consider two separate cases:

Case 1:  $A$  is countable. Then each  $A_i$  is countable and  $\mu(A) = 0 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$ .

Case 2:  $A$  is co-countable. If sets  $X, Y$  are both co-countable, then  $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ . Otherwise,  $X^c \cup Y^c = \Omega$  and the left side is countable while the right side is uncountable. Therefore, when  $A$  is co-countable, exactly one of  $A_i$  is co-countable, then  $\mu(A) = 1 = 1 + 0 + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$ . ■

**Example 1.18.** Let  $\Omega = (0, 1)$  and  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}(\Omega) = \sigma(\text{open subsets of } \Omega)$ . Define  $\mu((a, b]) = b - a, 0 \leq a < b < 1$ . How to define  $\mu(A)$  in general?

Given a collection of subsets  $\mathcal{C}$  one can always construct a field or  $\sigma$ -field containing  $\mathcal{C}$ . However, given a nonnegative countable additive set function on  $\mathcal{C}$  (think about open sets), it might not be possible to extend it as a measure to  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ . However, this is possible under certain condition. We will mention one such condition next.

**Definition 1.19.** We define a **semialgebra**  $\mathcal{S}$  as a collection of subsets such that

- (i)  $\Omega \in \mathcal{S}$ ,
- (ii)  $A, B \in \mathcal{S}$  implies that  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{S}$  and
- (iii)  $A \in \mathcal{S}$  implies that  $A^c$  is a finite disjoint union of sets in  $\mathcal{S}$ .

Note that the collection of sets

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(a, b] \mid -\infty \leq a \leq b \leq \infty\}$$

is a semialgebra.

**Lemma 1.20.** Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be a semialgebra and  $\overline{\mathcal{S}} = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}) =$  algebra generated by  $\mathcal{S}$ . Then  $\overline{\mathcal{S}} = \{\text{finite disjoint union of sets from } \mathcal{S}\}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{C} = \{\text{finite disjoint union of sets from } \mathcal{S}\}$ . Clearly,  $\overline{\mathcal{S}} \supseteq \mathcal{C}$ . Now we only need to check  $\mathcal{C}$  is an algebra. It is easy to see that  $\Omega \in \mathcal{C}$ .

Claim:  $\mathcal{C}$  is closed under finite intersection.

Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$ , and  $A = \cup_{i=1}^m A_i, B = \cup_{j=1}^n B_j, A_i, B_j \in \mathcal{S}$ . Then  $A \cap B = \cup_{i,j} (A_i \cap B_j) \in \mathcal{C}$ .

Claim:  $\mathcal{C}$  is closed under complement.

Let  $A = \cup_{i=1}^n A_i, A_i \in \mathcal{S}$ . Then  $A^c = \cap_{i=1}^n A_i^c, A_i^c \in \mathcal{C}$ . By previous claim, we have  $A^c \in \mathcal{C}$ .

Hence,  $\mathcal{C}$  is an algebra. ■

Let  $\mu$  be a set function on  $\mathcal{S}$ . We can extend  $\mu$  to  $\bar{\mu}$  on  $\overline{\mathcal{S}}$  by  $\bar{\mu}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i)$  where  $A = \cup_{i=1}^n A_i$ .

**Theorem 1.21.** *Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be a semi-algebra and  $\mu$  be a set function on  $\mathcal{S}$  such that,*

- (i) *(positive)  $\mu(A) \geq 0$  for  $A \in \mathcal{S}$ ,*
- (ii) *(finitely additive) If  $A = \cup_{i=1}^n A_i, A, A_i \in \mathcal{S}$ , then  $\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i)$ .*
- (iii) *(countably subadditive) If  $A \subseteq \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i, A, A_i \in \mathcal{S}$ , then  $\mu(A) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$ .*

*Then  $\mu$  can be extended uniquely to a measure  $\bar{\mu}$  on  $\overline{\mathcal{S}}$  satisfying (i), (ii), (iii). Moreover, if  $\bar{\mu}$  is  $\sigma$ -finite, then  $\bar{\mu}$  has a unique extension to a measure  $\hat{\mu}$  on  $\sigma(\mathcal{S})$ .*

The proof can be found in the appendix of the textbook.