

## Lecture 02 - Foundations of Measures

Lecturer : Alessandro Rinaldo

Scribe: Mike Stanley

### 2.1 Fields

In the last lecture, we defined a field and a  $\sigma$ -field. We recall those definitions here.

**Definition 1** Let  $\Omega$  be a universe set. A collection  $\mathcal{F}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  is a field when the following conditions hold:

1.  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$
2.  $A \in \mathcal{F} \implies A^c \in \mathcal{F}$  (Note, thus  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ )
3.  $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{F} \implies A_1 \cup A_2 \in \mathcal{F}$  (i.e.  $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under finite unions and intersections)

**Definition 2** A field  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field if for every sequence  $\{A_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{F}$  (i.e. closed with respect to countable unions and intersections).

#### 2.1.1 An example of a field without countable additivity

Suppose  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\mathcal{U}$  be the collection of unions of finitely many disjoint sets of the form  $(a, b]$ ,  $(-\infty, b]$ ,  $(a, \infty)$ ,  $(-\infty, \infty)$  where  $-\infty < a \leq b < \infty$ .  $\mathcal{U}$  is a field but is not a  $\sigma$ -field because it is not closed with respect to countable unions. To see this, consider the set  $(a, b)$ .  $(a, b) \notin \mathcal{U}$ , but we can define  $(a, b)$  as a union of countable elements in  $\mathcal{U}$ , namely,  $(a, b) = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (a, b - \frac{1}{n}]$ .

#### 2.1.2 Creation of $\sigma$ -fields

Let  $A \subset \Omega$ . The smallest  $\sigma$ -field containing  $A$  is  $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \Omega, A, A^c\}$ . This follows directly from the definition of a  $\sigma$ -field, namely inclusion of universe set and closure under complements. Of course, there are also many other  $\sigma$ -fields that contain  $A$  (e.g.  $2^\Omega$ , this is, in fact the largest), but we are interested in the smallest possible  $\sigma$ -field.

**Definition 3** More generally, suppose  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ .  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  is used to denote the smallest  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ , also called the generated  $\sigma$ -field of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

Intuitively, in order to define a probability of an event (i.e. a subset of some universe set), we need to be able to map every subset of the universe set to the reals, or more specifically  $[0, 1]$ . So, it would be nice to find the smallest  $\sigma$ -field that contains all of the sets to which we want to assign probabilities. This goal can be achieved with the above notion of a generated  $\sigma$ -field, in which  $\mathcal{C}$  is our collection of subsets. A more particular construct of this type is the Borel  $\sigma$ -field.

**Definition 4** Let  $\Omega$  be a topological space (i.e. a collection of points with neighborhoods around each point). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the collection of open sets of  $\Omega$ .  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ , i.e. the  $\sigma$ -field generated by the collection of open sets, is known as the Borel  $\sigma$ -field.

For example, suppose  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ . Then, the collection of open sets  $\mathcal{C} = \{(a, b) : -\infty < a, b < \infty\}$  can be used to generate the Borel  $\sigma$ -field over  $\mathbb{R}$ , and is often with  $\mathcal{B}$ .

## 2.2 Measures

A probability space is a particular form of a measure space. Before defining these terms, first note that  $\bar{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\} \cup \{\infty\}$  is known as the *extended reals*.

**Definition 5** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  be a measurable space, where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field of  $\Omega$ . A function  $\mu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}}_+$  is a measure if

1.  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$
2. For every sequence  $\{A_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of mutually disjoint measurable sets

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) = \sum_n \mu(A_n) \quad (2.1)$$

This property is known as “countable additivity”

Then, a measure space is a tuple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ .

A measure on a field  $\mathcal{F}'$  is a function  $\mu : \mathcal{F}' \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}}_+$  that satisfies the conditions (1) and (2) in the above definition. Additionally, it should be noted that measures can be finite ( $\mu(\Omega) < \infty$ ) or infinite ( $\mu(\Omega) = \infty$ ). As we see in the next definition, a probability measure is simply a measure such that  $\mu(\Omega) = 1$ .

**Definition 6** A probability measure is a measure such that  $\mu(\Omega) = 1$ . If  $\mathcal{P}$  is a probability measure,  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$  is a probability space.

In more standard statistical parlance,  $\mathcal{F}$  may be thought of as a collection of events over the universe set  $\Omega$ . Hence the probability of some event  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  is defined with the probability measure,  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ .

Let us consider two examples of probability measures.

**Example 1** Let  $\Omega$  be countable, i.e.  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$ ,  $\mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega$ , and  $\{p_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  be such that  $p_i \in [0, 1]$  and  $\sum_i p_i = 1$ . Then the function  $\mathcal{P} : 2^\Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$  given by  $\mathcal{P}(A) = \sum_{i: \omega_i \in A} p_i$  is a probability measure. This is clearly true since  $\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = 0$  and for mutually disjoint sets  $A_1, A_2 \in 2^\Omega$ ,  $\mathcal{P}(A_1 \cup A_2) = \sum_{i: \omega_i \in A_1 \cup A_2} p_i = \sum_{i: \omega_i \in A_1} p_i + \sum_{i: \omega_i \in A_2} p_i = \mathcal{P}(A_1) + \mathcal{P}(A_2)$ .

**Example 2** Let  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}^1$  (i.e. the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $\mathbb{R}$ ). Define

$$\mathcal{P}((-\infty, a]) = \int_{-\infty}^a \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx \quad (2.2)$$

for all  $(-\infty, a]$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . This also defines a probability measure on  $\mathcal{B}^1$  since  $\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = 0$ , and for countable disjoint sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{B}^1$ ,  $\mathcal{P}(\bigcup_n A_n) = \sum_n \mathcal{P}(A_n)$ , but properties of integrals.

To make these definitions slightly less abstract, let us consider two more specific types of measures.

**Definition 7** Take  $\Omega$  to be any set and let  $\mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega$ . For any  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , the counting measure is defined as  $\mu(A) = |A|$ .

We may also wish to put a countability criterion onto our measure. The following measure is a regularity condition.

**Definition 8** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$  be a measure space.  $\mu$  is said to be  $\sigma$ -finite if there exists a countable collection of measurable sets  $\{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$  such that  $\mu(A_n) < \infty$  and  $\bigcup_n A_n = \Omega$ .

## 2.2.1 Properties of Measures

Assume throughout a measure space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ .

**Claim 3** If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$ .

**Proof:** Note that we can write  $B = A \cup (B \cap A^c)$ . Thus:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(B) &= \mu(A \cup (B \cap A^c)) \\ &= \mu(A) + \mu(B \cap A^c) \\ &\geq \mu(A)\end{aligned}$$

The second line follows from the additivity property of measures of disjoint sets. ■

**Claim 4** More generally, if  $\{A_n\}$  is a sequence of measurable sets, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) \leq \sum_n \mu(A_n) \quad (2.3)$$

**Proof:** Define a sequence  $\{B_n\}$  of measurable sets as follows.  $B_1 = A_1$ . For all  $n \geq 2$ ,  $B_n = A_n - \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} B_i = A_n \cap A_{n-1}^c \cap \cdots \cap A_1^c$ . This implies that  $\bigcap_n B_n = \bigcap_n A_n$ , and  $\{B_n\}$  is a sequence of disjoint sets. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\mu\left(\bigcap_n A_n\right) &= \mu\left(\bigcap_n B_n\right) \\ &= \sum_n \mu(B_n) \\ &\leq \sum_n \mu(A_n)\end{aligned}$$

where the last line follows because  $B_n \subseteq A_n$ . ■

Note, if  $\mu$  is a probability measure, the countable additivity property is often known as the *union bound*.

We also have the following two interesting properties of measures:

1. if  $\mu(A_n) = 0$  for all  $n$ , then  $\mu\left(\bigcap_n A_n\right) = 0$
2. if  $\mu(A_n) = 1$  for all  $n$ , then  $\mu\left(\bigcap_n A_n\right) = 1$

Ultimately, we will be interested in looking at mathematical properties over measurable spaces. So, it stands to reason that there should be a notion for a property that holds on all elements of  $\mathcal{F}$  that have non-zero measure.

**Definition 9** *Suppose that a certain property hold for all  $\omega \in A^c$  where  $\mu(A) = 0$ . Then, we say that the property holds almost everywhere, abbreviated as a.e. $[\mu]$ . If  $\mu = \mathcal{P}$  (a probability measure), we say instead that the property holds almost surely, abbreviated as a.s. $[\mathcal{P}]$ .*

Similarly, in talking about identifying the events on which there is non-zero measure, we present the following definition.

**Definition 10** *Given a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ , the support of  $\mathcal{P}$  is the smallest closed set  $S \subset \Omega$  such that  $\mathcal{P}(S) = 1$ . If  $A \subseteq S^c$ , then  $\mathcal{P}(A) = 0$ .*

## 2.3 Next lecture preview

In the next lecture, we will discuss continuity of measures. Recall from analysis that if  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function on its domain, then

$$f(x^*) = \lim_{x_n \rightarrow x^*} f(X_n) \tag{2.4}$$

In the next lecture, we will extend this notion to measures.