

## Lecture 1: Measurable space, measure and probability

Random experiment: uncertainty in outcomes

$\Omega$ : sample space or outcome space; a set containing all possible outcomes

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a collection of subsets of a sample space  $\Omega$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is called a  $\sigma$ -field (or  $\sigma$ -algebra) if and only if it has the following properties.

- (i) The empty set  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- (ii) If  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , then the complement  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- (iii) If  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , then their union  $\cup A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ .

$\mathcal{F}$  is a set of sets

Two trivial examples:  $\mathcal{F}$  contains  $\emptyset$  and  $\Omega$  only and  $\mathcal{F}$  contains all subsets of  $\Omega$

Why do we need to consider other  $\sigma$ -field?

$\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, A, A^c, \Omega\}$ , where  $A \subset \Omega$

$\mathcal{C}$  = a collection (set) of subsets of  $\Omega$

$\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ : the smallest  $\sigma$ -field containing  $\mathcal{C}$  (called the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ )

$\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{C}$  if  $\mathcal{C}$  itself is a  $\sigma$ -field

$\Gamma = \{\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{F} \text{ is a } \sigma\text{-field on } \Omega \text{ and } \mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{F}\}$

$\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \cap_{\mathcal{F} \in \Gamma} \mathcal{F}$

$\sigma(\{A\}) = \sigma(\{A, A^c\}) = \sigma(\{A, \Omega\}) = \sigma(\{A, \emptyset\}) = \{\emptyset, A, A^c, \Omega\}$

$\mathcal{R}^k$ : the  $k$ -dimensional Euclidean space ( $\mathcal{R}^1 = \mathcal{R}$  is the real line)

$\mathcal{B}^k$ : the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $\mathcal{R}^k$ ;  $\mathcal{B}^k = \sigma(\mathcal{O})$ ,  $\mathcal{O}$  is the collection of all open sets

$C \in \mathcal{B}^k$ ,  $\mathcal{B}_C = \{C \cap B : B \in \mathcal{B}^k\}$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $C$

Measure: length, area, volume...

**Definition 1.2.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  be a measurable space. A set function  $\nu$  defined on  $\mathcal{F}$  is called a *measure* if and only if it has the following properties.

- (i)  $0 \leq \nu(A) \leq \infty$  for any  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- (ii)  $\nu(\emptyset) = 0$ .
- (iii) If  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , and  $A_i$ 's are disjoint, i.e.,  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for any  $i \neq j$ , then

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

$(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  a measurable space;  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  a measure space

If  $\nu(\Omega) = 1$ , then  $\nu$  is a probability measure (we usually use notation  $P$  instead of  $\nu$ )

A measure  $\nu$  may take  $\infty$  as its value

- (1) For any  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $\infty + x = \infty$ ,  $x \infty = \infty$  if  $x > 0$ ,  $x \infty = -\infty$  if  $x < 0$ , and  $0 \infty = 0$ ;
- (2)  $\infty + \infty = \infty$ ;
- (3)  $\infty^a = \infty$  for any  $a > 0$ ;
- (4)  $\infty - \infty$  or  $\infty/\infty$  is not defined

Examples:

$$\nu(A) = \begin{cases} \infty & A \in \mathcal{F}, A \neq \emptyset \\ 0 & A = \emptyset. \end{cases}$$

Counting measure. Let  $\Omega$  be a sample space,  $\mathcal{F}$  the collection of all subsets, and  $\nu(A)$  the number of elements in  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  ( $\nu(A) = \infty$  if  $A$  contains infinitely many elements). Then  $\nu$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{F}$  and is called the *counting measure*.

Lebesgue measure. There is a unique measure  $m$  on  $(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{B})$  that satisfies  $m([a, b]) = b - a$  for every finite interval  $[a, b]$ ,  $-\infty < a \leq b < \infty$ . This is called the *Lebesgue measure*. If we restrict  $m$  to the measurable space  $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}_{[0,1]})$ , then  $m$  is a probability measure.

**Proposition 1.1.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  be a measure space.

- (i) (Monotonicity). If  $A \subset B$ , then  $\nu(A) \leq \nu(B)$ .
- (ii) (Subadditivity). For any sequence  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ ,

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

- (iii) (Continuity). If  $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset A_3 \subset \dots$  (or  $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset A_3 \supset \dots$  and  $\nu(A_1) < \infty$ ), then

$$\nu\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n),$$

where

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \quad \left(\text{or} = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right).$$

Let  $P$  be a probability measure. The *cumulative distribution function* (c.d.f.) of  $P$  is defined to be

$$F(x) = P((-\infty, x]), \quad x \in \mathcal{R}$$

**Proposition 1.2.** (i) Let  $F$  be a c.d.f. on  $\mathcal{R}$ . Then

- (a)  $F(-\infty) = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$ ;
  - (b)  $F(\infty) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$ ;
  - (c)  $F$  is nondecreasing, i.e.,  $F(x) \leq F(y)$  if  $x \leq y$ ;
  - (d)  $F$  is right continuous, i.e.,  $\lim_{y \rightarrow x, y > x} F(y) = F(x)$ .
- (ii) Suppose that a real-valued function  $F$  on  $\mathcal{R}$  satisfies (a)-(d) in part (i). Then  $F$  is the c.d.f. of a unique probability measure on  $(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{B})$ .