

Continuity of measures: Measure space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) .

(i) If $\{A_n\}$ is an increasing sequence of sets $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$, then $P(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n)$.

(ii) If $\{A_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence of sets $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$, then $P(\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n)$.

Proof of (i): Note that $\{A_n^c\}$ is an increasing sequence with $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n^c = (\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n)^c$. Applying (i) to $\{A_n^c\}$, we have

$$1 - P(\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n) = P(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n^c) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n^c) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - P(A_n))$$

Hence $P(\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n)$.

Notation: Main sets Ω, \mathbb{R}
 Events in Ω and \mathbb{R} are (usually) denoted by l.c. letters ω, a, x, \dots
 Subsets of Ω and \mathbb{R} are (usually) denoted by capital letters, A, B, \dots
 Families of subsets are usually denoted by script letters $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{G}$.

Continuation of σ -algebras

Theorem: If \mathcal{A} is any collection of subsets of Ω , then there is a smallest σ -algebra \mathcal{F} such that $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. (i.e. the union of all σ -algebras containing \mathcal{A} is a σ -algebra with $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$.)

Proof: Note that there is at least one σ -algebra containing \mathcal{A} , namely $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$. Define $\mathcal{F} = \{A \subseteq \Omega : A \text{ is an element of all } \sigma\text{-algebras } \mathcal{G} \text{ such that } \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{G}\}$.

Obviously, $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. It is now clear that \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra.

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ since $\emptyset \in \mathcal{G}$ for all σ -algebras \mathcal{G} .
 (ii) $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$: If $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then $A \in \mathcal{G}$ for all \mathcal{G} , hence $A^c \in \mathcal{G}$ for all \mathcal{G} , and consequently $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$.
 (iii) $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ for all $n \Rightarrow \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{F}$: Since $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$, then $A_n \in \mathcal{G}$ for all the \mathcal{G} 's and all the n 's, hence $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{G}$ for all \mathcal{G} , and consequently $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{F}$.

Finally, and by construction $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ for all $\mathcal{G} \in \mathcal{A}$.

Definition: The smallest σ -algebra \mathcal{F} containing \mathcal{A} is called the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{A} and is denoted by $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$.

Example: Let $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b\}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$.
 $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) =$ the Borel σ -algebra on \mathbb{R}
 $\mathcal{F} = \{ \emptyset, \mathbb{R}, a, b \}$ are called Borel sets.

Other kinds of families

Definition: Assume that Ω is a nonempty set. A collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of Ω is called an algebra on a set if:

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$
- If $B \in \mathcal{A}$, then $B^c \in \mathcal{A}$
- If $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$, then $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$

Consequences:

- $\Omega \in \mathcal{A}$
- If $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{A}$, then $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n \in \mathcal{A}$
- If $A \in \mathcal{A}$, then $(A \cup A^c)^c = (A \cup A^c)^c \in \mathcal{A}$ (De Morgan)
- If $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$, then $A \cap B \in \mathcal{A}$ ($A \cap B = (A \cup B)^c \in \mathcal{A}$)

Example: \mathcal{A} is a σ -algebra set.
 $\mathcal{A} = \{A \subseteq \Omega : A \text{ or } A^c \text{ is finite}\}$
 is an algebra, but not a σ -algebra.

Definition: A collection \mathcal{M} of subsets of Ω is called a monotone class if:

- If $\{A_n\}$ is an increasing sequence of sets in \mathcal{M} , then $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{M}$.
- If $\{A_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence of sets in \mathcal{M} , then $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{M}$.

Observation: All σ -algebras are monotone classes. But there are monotone classes that are not σ -algebras.

Example: Choose $\omega \in \Omega$, and let $\mathcal{M} = \{A \subseteq \Omega : \omega \in A\}$.
 \mathcal{M} is a monotone class that is not a σ -algebra.

Monotone Class Theorem

Lemma: A monotone class \mathcal{M} that is also an algebra is a σ -algebra.

Proof: We need to check the conditions of a σ -algebra.

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{M}$ since \mathcal{M} is an algebra.
- If $A \in \mathcal{M}$, then $A^c \in \mathcal{M}$ since \mathcal{M} is an algebra.
- If $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for all n , we have to prove that $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{M}$. Set $B_1 = A_1, B_2 = A_1 \cup A_2, \dots, B_n = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$. Since \mathcal{M} is an algebra, all the B_n are in \mathcal{M} and since $\{B_n\}$ is increasing $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n \in \mathcal{M}$. But $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$.

Theorem: If \mathcal{A} is a collection of subsets of Ω , then there is a smallest monotone class $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ containing \mathcal{A} . It is called the monotone class generated by \mathcal{A} .

Proof: For you.

Monotone Class Theorem: If \mathcal{A} is an algebra, then $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}) = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$. Proof: We need to show that $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{A})$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$.
 The inclusion $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ is clear since $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ is a monotone class containing \mathcal{A} and $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ is the smallest such class.
 For the inclusion $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{A})$, we use the following argument:
 Let $\mathcal{C} = \{B \subseteq \Omega : B \text{ is in } \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}) \text{ and } B^c \text{ is in } \sigma(\mathcal{A})\}$. We show $\mathcal{C} = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$.
 (i) $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$: If $A \in \mathcal{A}$, then $A \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ and $A^c \in \sigma(\mathcal{A})$, so $A \in \mathcal{C}$.
 (ii) \mathcal{C} is an algebra: If $B, C \in \mathcal{C}$, then $B \cup C \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ and $(B \cup C)^c = B^c \cap C^c \in \sigma(\mathcal{A})$, so $B \cup C \in \mathcal{C}$.
 (iii) \mathcal{C} is a monotone class: If $\{B_n\}$ is an increasing sequence in \mathcal{C} , then $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ and $(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n)^c = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n^c \in \sigma(\mathcal{A})$, so $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n \in \mathcal{C}$.
 (iv) $\mathcal{C} = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$: Since \mathcal{C} is an algebra and a monotone class containing \mathcal{A} , it follows that $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$.
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Application:

Theorem: Assume that \mathcal{A} is an algebra and that P, Q are two probability measures on $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$. Assume that $P(A) = Q(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $P(B) = Q(B)$ for all $B \in \sigma(\mathcal{A})$.

Idea of proof:

$$\mathcal{M} = \{B \in \sigma(\mathcal{A}) : P(B) = Q(B)\}$$

Prove that \mathcal{M} is a monotone class.
 Hence $P(B) = Q(B)$ for $B \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}) = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$.