

Measure and Integration
Prof. Inder K. Rana
Department of Mathematics
Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay
Module No. # 02
Lecture No. # 08

Uniqueness Problem for Measure


Welcome to today's lecture on measure and integration. This is the eighth lecture on measure and integration. Today, we will be looking at a problem called the uniqueness of measures on algebras and sigma algebras. For this, we will need to define some terminology. Let us look at the uniqueness problem for the topic for today's lecture.

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Uniqueness problem for measures:

- The problem:
Let \mathcal{C} be an algebra of subsets of X and $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ be the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{C} .
Let $\mu_1, \mu_2 : \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C}) \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be two measures such that
$$\mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{C}.$$

Can we conclude that
$$\mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E) \quad \forall E \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})?$$

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The problem is as follows. We are given \mathcal{C} – an algebra of subsets of a set X ; \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} is the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . So, \mathcal{C} is an algebra and \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} is the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . We have got two measures μ_1 and μ_2 defined on the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} such that μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to \mathcal{C} . For all elements in \mathcal{C} , μ_1 and μ_2 agree.

The question is can we conclude that μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of E for every element in the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} ? This is a general uniqueness problem which plays a role later on when we extend measures to general settings. To answer this question, let us


make some definitions. First of all, this is not true in general for all measures; we have to put some conditions on the measures.

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Definitions :

- Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of subsets of X and let $\mu : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ be a set function. We say μ is **totally finite** (or just **finite**) if

$$\mu(A) < +\infty \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{C}.$$
- If \mathcal{C} is an algebra and μ is finitely additive, then μ is finite iff $\mu(X) < \infty$.



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Let us look at what is called a totally finite measure. A measure μ is called totally finite if $\mu(A)$ is finite for every subset A in the domain of μ . \mathcal{C} is a collection of subsets and μ is a set function. We say μ is totally finite or sometimes we also say it is finite if $\mu(A)$ is less than plus infinity for all A belonging to \mathcal{C} . Note that in case \mathcal{C} is an algebra and μ is finitely additive, then μ is finite if and only if $\mu(X)$ is finite.

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\mathcal{C} - an algebra
 $\mu : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ is f.a.

Suppose $\mu(X) < +\infty$
 Then f.a. of $\mu \Rightarrow \mu$ is monotone
 Thus $\forall A \in \mathcal{C}$
 $\mu(A) \leq \mu(X) < +\infty$
 $\Rightarrow \mu(A) < +\infty \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{C}$

Conversely is true $\because X \in \mathcal{C}$
 $\mu(X) < +\infty$



Let us assume \mathcal{C} is an algebra and μ from \mathcal{C} to $[0, \infty]$ is finitely additive. Suppose μ of the whole space is finite. Note that the whole space X belongs to \mathcal{C} because \mathcal{C} is an algebra. We had seen earlier that finite additivity of μ implies μ is monotone. We had seen this property earlier; so, we will not go into the details of this again. Since μ is monotone, for every A contained in X , μ of A will be less than or equal to μ of X which is finite; this implies μ of A is finite for every A subset of X .

The converse is obviously true; converse is true because X belongs to \mathcal{C} and so μ of X is finite. Whenever we are dealing with finitely additive set functions saying μ is totally finite, it is enough to say that μ of X is finite and as a consequence μ of every subset will be finite. This is an easy consequence of saying for a finitely additive set function on an algebra, μ of the whole space finite is the same as saying μ of every subset A of X , A in the algebra of course, is finite.

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Definitions :

- The set function μ is said to be **sigma finite** (written as **σ -finite**) if

$$X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n,$$

where $X_n \in \mathcal{C}, n = 1, 2, \dots$, are pairwise disjoint sets such that $\mu(X_n) < +\infty$ for every n .

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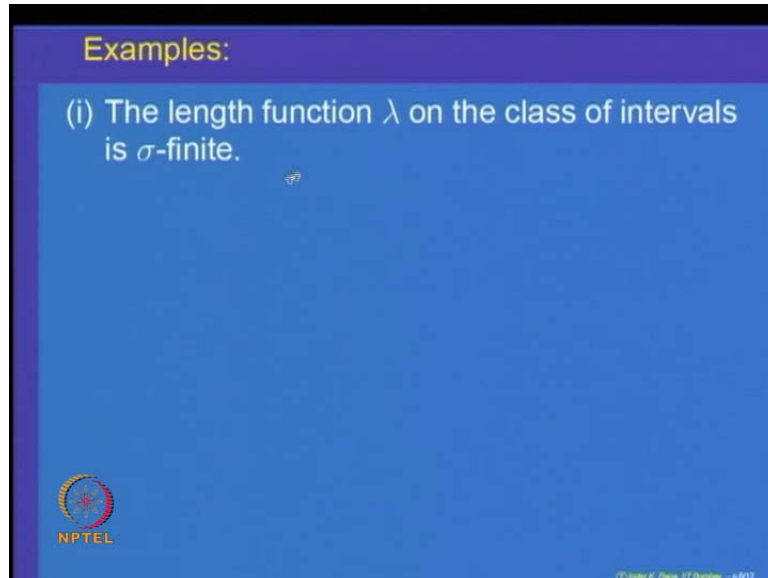
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Let us look at the property. Let us take a set function μ and we say that it is sigma finite. We defined what is totally finite and now we define what is called sigma finite. μ is said to be sigma finite if we can write the whole space as a union of sets X_n n equal to 1 to infinity such that these sets are pairwise disjoint (we want these sets to be pairwise disjoint) and μ of each X_n to be finite.

Each X_n should be an element in the domain of μ in the class \mathcal{C} and μ of X_n should be finite. We are essentially saying that for totally finite, μ of the whole space is finite.

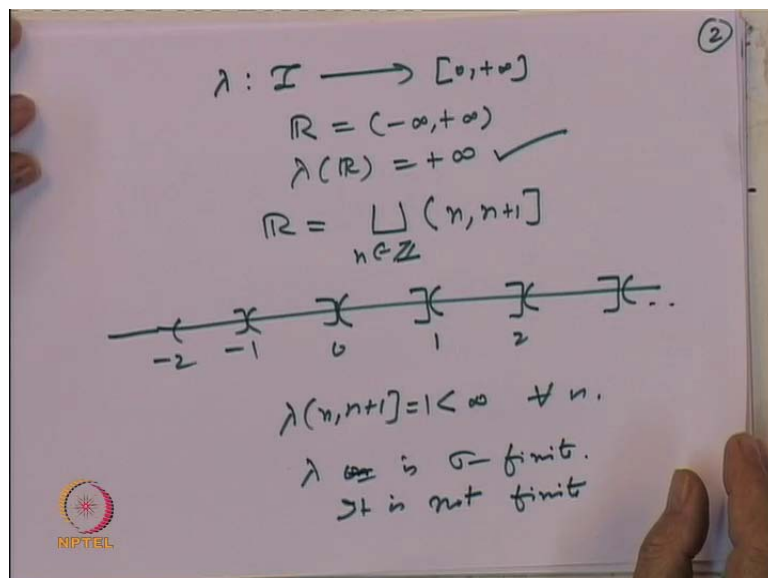
sigma finite means what? X can be cut up into pieces X_1, X_2, X_n and so on and μ of each X_n is finite; this is what is called sigma finite set functions.

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Let us look at some examples of set functions. The length function λ on the class of all intervals is sigma finite. It is easy to see why a length function is sigma finite.

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Here is the length function λ on the class of all intervals taking values in 0 to infinity. The whole space, the real line, is of course the interval minus infinity to plus infinity. The length of \mathbb{R} we know is not finite; it is equal to plus infinity but we can

write \mathbb{R} as a disjoint union of the intervals n to $n + 1$, for example, n belonging to integers. The real line is cut up. Here is the real line; here is $0, 1$; open 1 , closed 2 , open 2 , closed 3 and so on; on this side, minus 1 and this is minus 2 and so on.

We have cut up the real line; we have divided the real line into many countable disjoint pieces; each one is an interval and length of n to $n + 1$ for every n is equal to 1 which is less than, of course, infinity for every n . The whole real line is written as a countable disjoint union of intervals, each one having finite length; so, λ on the class of intervals is σ finite; of course, it is not finite because the length of the whole space is equal to plus infinity. This is an example of a set function which is σ finite (Refer Slide Time: 07:35). We will give another example of set function which is totally finite.

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Examples:

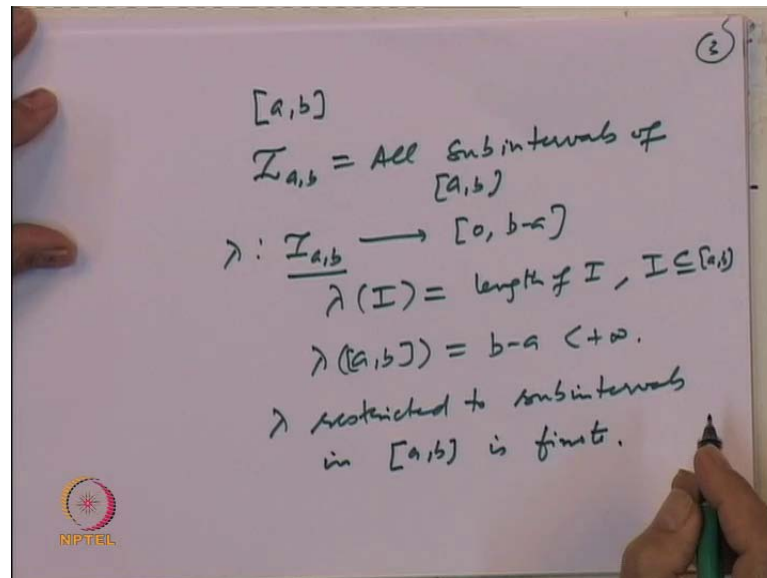
- (i) The length function λ on the class of intervals is σ -finite.
- (ii) The length function λ on the class of sub-intervals of a finite interval is totally -finite.

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For that, let us look at the length function restricted to any finite interval.

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Let us look at, say for example, the interval a to b and let us look at all **subintervals**. Let us look at **\mathcal{I}** a, b to be all subintervals of a, b and define, of course, the length function as before. This will be a function from 0 to b minus a ; length of I is equal to the usual definition of length of I for I contained in a, b . We know that length function is finitely additive, it is countably additive and so on; on these intervals also, it is countably additive. We know λ of the interval a to b is equal to b minus a which is finite. One says λ restricted to subintervals in a, b is finite or totally finite for every a and b ; this is an example of a measure which is totally finite. **Let us look at another example of a set function which is not...**

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Examples:

- (i) The length function λ on the class of intervals is σ -finite.
- (ii) The length function λ on the class of sub-intervals of a finite interval is totally finite.
- (iii) Let X be any set and for $A \subseteq X$, define
$$\mu(A) = +\infty \text{ if } A \neq \emptyset \text{ and } \mu(\emptyset) = 0.$$
 - Then μ is a measure on $\mathcal{P}(X)$.

It is not σ -finite.



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Let X be any set and for any subset A of X , let us define μ of A to be equal to plus infinity if A is nonempty and μ of \emptyset to be equal to 0. Then, obviously, this is a measure on \mathcal{P} of X . This is a simple consequential property that one can easily check because μ of empty set is 0 is given and if A is any set which is a countable disjoint union or not, μ of the union will be equal to again plus infinity which is equal to sigma μ of A_i s; at least one of them has to be nonempty. I hope it is clear that this μ is countably additive; this is a measure on \mathcal{P} of X .


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(4)

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i.$$

If $A = \emptyset$, then $A_i = \emptyset \forall i$
 $\Rightarrow \mu(A) = 0 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$

If $A \neq \emptyset$, $\Rightarrow \exists$ at least one i such that $A_i \neq \emptyset$
Then ~~$A_i = \emptyset$~~
 $\Rightarrow \mu(A) = +\infty = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$
($\mu(A_i) = +\infty$)



Let us suppose that A is equal to union of A_i s, i equal to 1 to infinity. If A is equal to empty set, then A_i is equal to empty set for every i , implying μ of A which is 0 is the same as $\sum \mu$ of A_i s, i equal to 1 to infinity. The second possibility is if A is not empty and A is equal to union. That implies there exists at least one i such that A_i is not empty. Then, let us say that such that i says that so let us say that is A_{i_0} ; there is at least one i ; let us say that is i_0 (Refer Slide Time: 11:22).

Then, union A_{i_0} is not empty; A is not empty anyway; this is not required (Refer Slide Time: 11:35). Then, μ of A is equal to plus infinity is equal to summation μ of A_i s because at least one term here is not empty (Refer Slide Time: 11:47). So, that is equal to plus infinity; μ of A_{i_0} is equal to plus infinity; this is also plus infinity; they are the same.

This is a measure on the class of all subsets (Refer Slide Time: 12:04). So, μ of A is plus infinity if A is not empty and μ of empty set is equal to 0 is a measure and this obviously is not sigma finite because there are no subsets anyway whose μ is finite. This is an example of a non-sigma finite measure.


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Uniqueness problem on generated algebras

- Let \mathcal{C} be a semi-algebra of subsets of a set X and $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ be the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . Let μ_1 and μ_2 be finitely additive set functions on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ such that

$$\mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E) \text{ for all } E \in \mathcal{C}.$$
- Then

$$\mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A) \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C}),$$
 where $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$ is the algebra generated by \mathcal{C} .

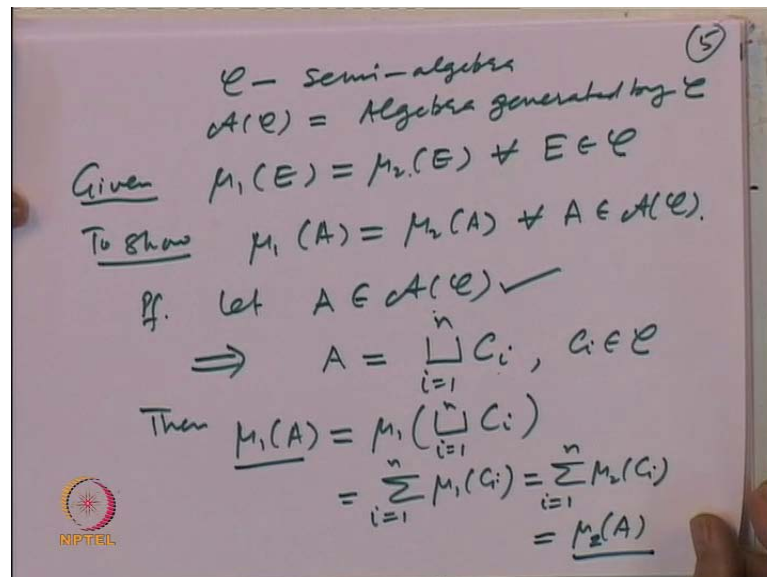
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The theorem we want to prove today is the following. Let us take \mathcal{C} , a semi-algebra of subsets of a set X and \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} to be the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . Let μ_1 and μ_2 be two finitely additive set functions on \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} such that μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of E for all E belonging to \mathcal{C} . Then, we want to show that μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for

all A belonging to first \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{C} , where \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{C} is the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . We are saying as a first step we are going to prove that if two measures μ_1 and μ_2 defined on a semi-algebra agree, then they also agree on the algebra generated by that semi-algebra. This is what we want to prove. Let us see the proof of that.

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\mathcal{C} is a semi-algebra; \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{C} is the algebra generated by \mathcal{C} ; we are given μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of E for every E belonging to \mathcal{C} . We have to show μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . How do you prove it? Let us start. Let us take a set A which belongs to \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{C} . Recall we had shown characterizations of elements of the algebra generated by a semi-algebra.

We showed that if A is an element of the algebra generated by a semi-algebra, then this A must look like a finite disjoint union of elements C_i , i belonging to n where C_i s belong to the semi-algebra \mathcal{C} . Every element A in the algebra generated by a semi-algebra, we had shown, must have a representation like this, but then μ_1 of A is equal to μ_1 of this finite union. We know μ_1 is finitely additive. That implies this must be equal to sigma i equal to 1 to n μ_1 of C_i , but each μ_1 is equal to μ_2 on each element of \mathcal{C} and C_i s are elements of \mathcal{C} ; that implies that this must be equal to 1 to n μ_2 of C_i s. Again by using μ_2 is finitely additive, I can write this as μ_2 of A because A is a finite disjoint union of elements of this; so μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A whenever A belongs to \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{C} (Refer Slide Time: 16:01).

This proves the theorem that whenever two finitely additive set functions μ_1 and μ_2 agree on a semi-algebra, then they also agree on the algebra generated by it (Refer Slide Time: 16:18). Let us go to the next step of this uniqueness problem.

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Uniqueness problem on generated algebras

- Let \mathcal{C} be a semi-algebra of subsets of a set X and $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ be the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . Let μ_1 and μ_2 be finitely additive set functions on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ such that

$$\mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E) \text{ for all } E \in \mathcal{C}.$$
- Then

$$\mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A) \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C}),$$
 where $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$ is the algebra generated by \mathcal{C} .

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That is saying that let \mathcal{C} be a semi-algebra of subsets of a set X once again and \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} be the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . This we have already proved (Refer Slide Time: 16:39).

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Uniqueness problem on generated σ -algebras

- Let \mathcal{C} be a semi-algebra of subsets of a set X and $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ be the σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . Let μ_1 and μ_2 be σ -finite measures on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ such that

$$\mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E) \text{ for all } E \in \mathcal{C}.$$
- Then

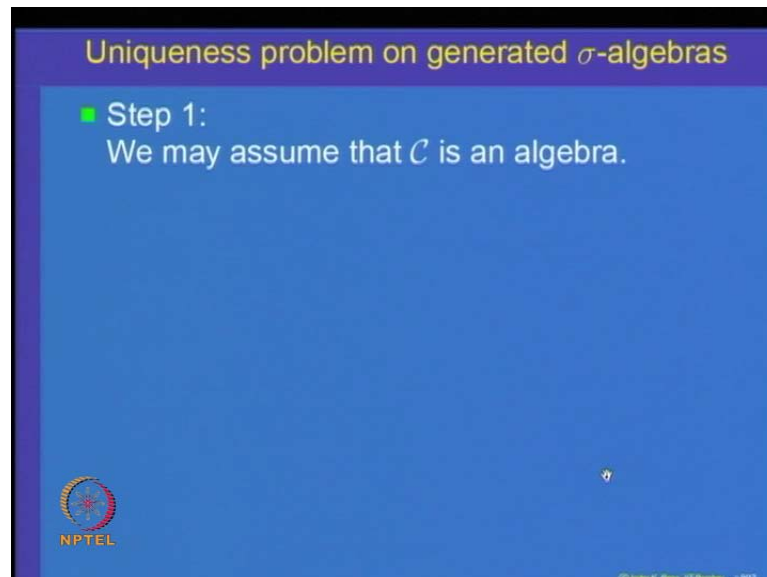
$$\mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A) \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C}),$$
 where $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is the algebra generated by \mathcal{C} .

We divide the proof in steps:

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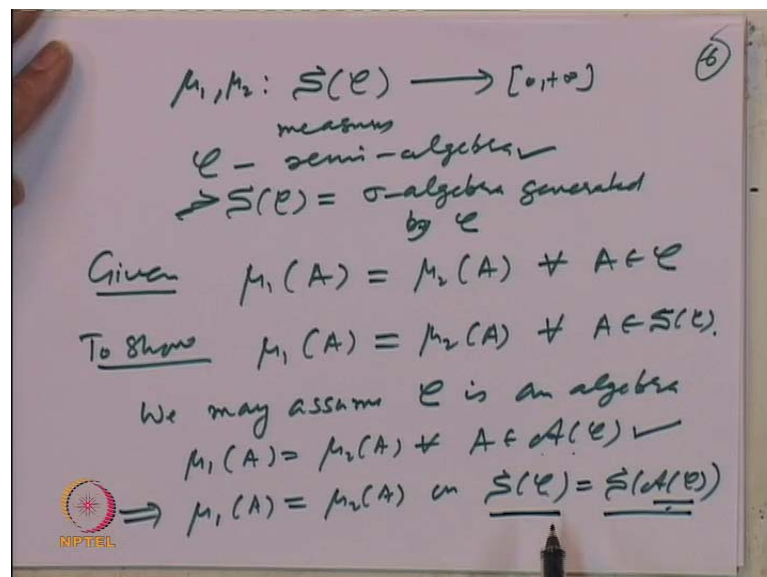
Let μ_1 and μ_2 be sigma finite measures on S of C such that μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of... this is a misprint μ_1 of E should be equal to μ_2 of E for all E in C . Then, μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of A for all A belonging to S of C where S of C is the sigma algebra generated by it. Let me state it; we will divide the proof into steps of course.

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Let us look at the statement of the theorem once again.

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We are saying that let μ_1 and μ_2 be two measures which are sigma finite defined on the sigma algebra generated by a semi-algebra C . It measures C , the semi-algebra S of C ,

and this S of C is equal to the sigma algebra generated by C . Given μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to the semi-algebra. We have to show μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A in the sigma algebra generated by C ; this is what we want to show.

Let us look at the first step (Refer Slide Time: 18:35). We may assume that C is an algebra. Here, we are given that C is a semi-algebra (Refer Slide Time: 18:38). Step 1 says we may assume that C is an algebra. That is because of the fact that we have just now shown that if μ_1 and μ_2 agree on the on a semi-algebra, then they also agree on the algebra generated by it. By the given hypothesis, μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to the algebra generated by C .


We already have μ_1 and μ_2 agreeing on the algebra generated by A of C . This implies μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A on S of C , the sigma algebra generated by C , but note this is the same as the sigma algebra generated by A of C ; that also we have shown. Given a semi-algebra, you can directly generate the sigma algebra or you can generate the algebra first and then generate the sigma algebra; both are same. Just now we showed that whenever two measures agree on a semi-algebra, they agree on the algebra generated by it.

μ_1 and μ_2 agree on the semi-algebra; therefore, they agree on the algebra generated by it. We want to show that they agree on the sigma algebra generated by it which is nothing but S of C . That proves the first step. As a first step in our proof, we are saying that the given class C on which μ_1 and μ_2 are defined is actually an algebra (Refer Slide Time: 20:27). That is the first simple equation in the proof – without loss of generality, we may assume that C is an algebra.

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Uniqueness problem on generated σ -algebras

- Step 1:
We may assume that \mathcal{C} is an algebra.
- Step 2:
We may assume that both μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite.

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The next step says that we may assume that both μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite. We are given μ_1 and μ_2 are sigma finite.

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We may assume μ_1, μ_2 are totally finite. (7)

if the statement $\mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A) \forall A \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is true when μ_1, μ_2 are totally finite, then it will also be true when μ_1, μ_2 are σ -finite

let μ_1, μ_2 σ -finite

$\Rightarrow X = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i, X_i \in \mathcal{C}, \mu_1(X_i) < \infty$

$\parallel \forall X = \bigsqcup_{j=1}^{\infty} Y_j, Y_j \in \mathcal{C}, \mu_2(Y_j) < \infty$

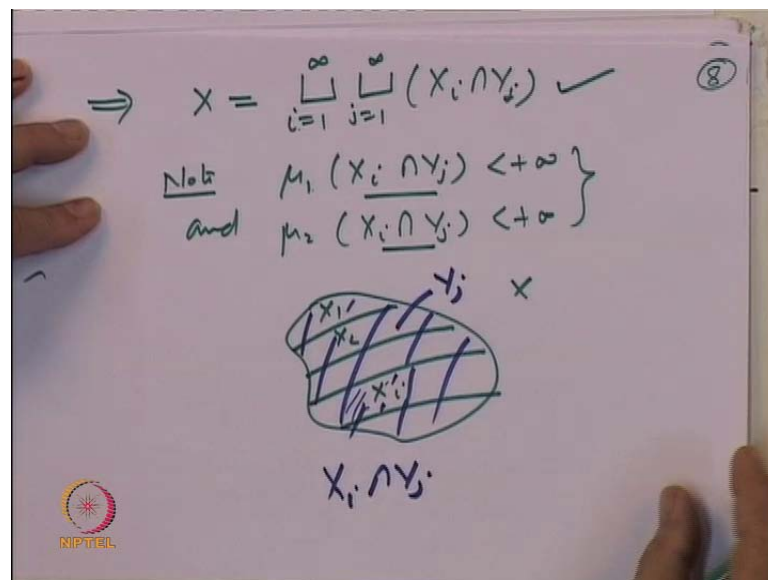
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The next step is that we may assume that μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite. What is the meaning of saying we may assume? This is the same as saying if the statement μ_1 of A equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} is true when μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite, then it will also be true when μ_1 and μ_2 are sigma finite. That is the meaning of

saying that we may assume that μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite. Let us see why that is the case.

Let us take a set A **contained in...** What we are given is μ_1 and μ_2 are sigma finite; μ_1 and μ_2 are sigma finite; μ_1 is sigma finite and so I can write X as union of X_i s, i equal to 1 to infinity where X_i s belong to C and μ_1 of each X_i is finite. Similarly, μ_2 is sigma finite; so, you can write X as union some j equal to 1 to infinity Y_j , where Y_j s are subsets in C and μ_2 of each Y_j is finite.

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From both of these statements, I can write X as **so this implies we can write X as** union over i , 1 to infinity of X_i s but that I can decompose into union of Y_j s X_i intersection Y_j ; I can write that. I can write this as a decomposition of X into subsets X_i intersection Y_j . Now, what we have achieved is the following: μ_1 of each X_i was finite and μ_2 of each Y_j have finite. This implies that μ_1 of X_i intersection Y_j is finite and μ_2 of X_i intersection Y_j is also finite; both μ_1 and μ_2 are finite on this **((.))**.


In the picture, you can think of this as X; you divide; these are sets X_1, X_2, X_i and so on. You also have sets Y_j s; they are decompositions like this (Refer Slide Time: 24:27). This piece is Y_j and this piece here is X_i intersection Y_j . The whole space is cut up into pieces; this is what this statement means where each one of them is finite (Refer Slide Time: 24:51).

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Note μ_1, μ_2 restricted to $X_i \cap Y_j$ are totally finite: (9)
 $\forall A \subseteq X_i \cap Y_j, A \in \mathcal{C}$
 $\mu_1(A) < +\infty$
 $\mu_2(A) < +\infty$

Now $A \subseteq X, A \in \mathcal{C}$, $A = \bigcup_i \bigcup_j (A \cap X_i \cap Y_j)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu_1(A) &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu_1(A \cap X_i \cap Y_j) \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu_2(A \cap X_i \cap Y_j) \\
 &= \mu_2(A).
 \end{aligned}$$



Here is an observation; note that μ_1 and μ_2 restricted to X_i intersection Y_j are totally finite. What is the meaning of this statement that they are restricted? That means if you look at the subsets, for every A contained in X_i intersection Y_j , A belonging to \mathcal{C} , μ_1 of A is finite and μ_2 of A is finite. For totally finite measures, we have already assumed that this statement is true and we are trying to show it for our sigma finite.

For any set A contained in X , μ_1 of A can be written as summation over i summation over j μ_1 of A intersection X_i intersection Y_j . That is because A is equal to union over i union over j A intersection X_i intersection Y_j . This is a countable disjoint union (Refer Slide Time: 26:26). μ_1 is a measure and so this must be true. Note that this A intersection is a set in the set X_i intersection Y_j where μ_1 is finite and then we know that there the statement is true. Here, A is contained in X , of course A belonging to \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} ; so, the statement is true.

That means what? By the assumption that statement is true for finite measures we will conclude that this is same as μ_2 of A intersection X_i intersection Y_j and once again that is equal to μ_2 of A . The basic idea is for any set, we can bring it to the finite pieces (there, we know it is true) and go back to the original piece. This is the proof of the second step that we may assume without loss of generality – our measures μ_1 and μ_2 are both finite (Refer Slide Time: 27:32).

We have made two simplifications in our proof: the first one being we may assume that \mathcal{C} is an algebra and the second one that μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite. What do we want to prove now? We are only left with the case to prove that if \mathcal{C} is an algebra, μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite defined on the algebra \mathcal{C} and if they agree on \mathcal{C} , then they will agree on the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} . That is the next step we want to show.

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Uniqueness problem on generated σ -algebras

- Step 1:
We may assume that \mathcal{C} is an algebra.
- Step 2:
We may assume that both μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite.
- Step 3: Let

$$\mathcal{M} = \{E \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C}) \mid \mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E)\}$$
Then \mathcal{M} is a monotone class.
- Step 4: $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$.

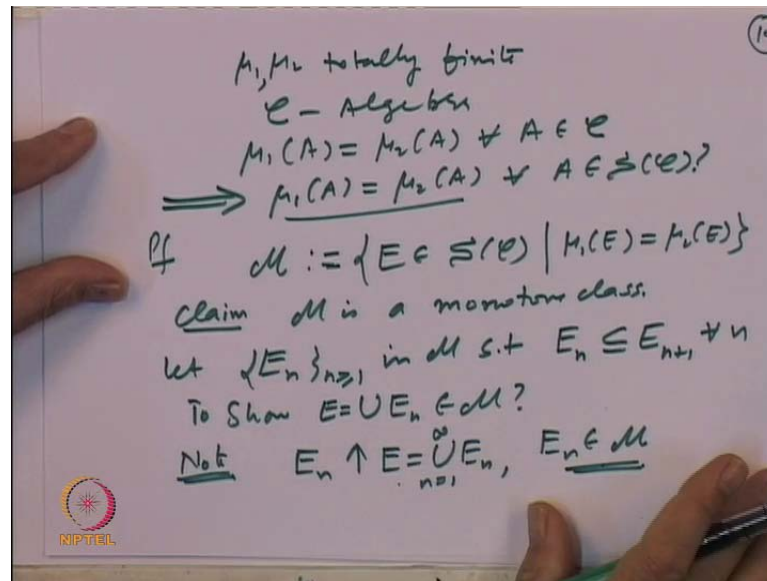
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To prove the final step, let us write \mathcal{M} to be the class of all those elements of \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} where μ_1 and μ_2 agree. What is the aim to prove? Our aim is to prove that this collection \mathcal{M} is nothing but \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} . We are picking up subsets of \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} ; \mathcal{M} is a subclass of \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} ; we want to prove that this is equal to \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} and that is proved as follows. First, we will observe then \mathcal{M} is a monotone class; we will prove that. Once we have proved that \mathcal{M} is a monotone class, we will also observe that we are given that μ_1 and μ_2 are equal on \mathcal{C} ; so, \mathcal{C} is a subclass of \mathcal{M} .

\mathcal{C} is an algebra and \mathcal{C} is contained in \mathcal{M} . \mathcal{M} is a monotone class; that will mean what? The monotone class generated by \mathcal{C} must be inside \mathcal{M} , but \mathcal{C} is an algebra and the monotone class generated by an algebra is the sigma algebra generated by it. That also we have proved; that we will prove as step 4 – \mathcal{M} is equal to \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} .

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Let us prove step 3 and then conclude from it step 4. Step 3 we want to prove. We are given that μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite; we are in this case; \mathcal{C} is an algebra; μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to the algebra \mathcal{C} . We have to show that μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to the sigma algebra generated by \mathcal{C} ; that is the question.

The proof: define \mathcal{M} to be the class of all subsets belonging to \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{C} for which this property is true (Refer Slide Time: 30:21). That means μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of E . The claim is that this \mathcal{M} is a monotone class. What is a monotone class? Recall that a monotone class is a collection of subsets of a set X which is closed under increasing unions and decreasing intersections. These two properties have to be checked; let us check them.

Let E_n be a sequence in \mathcal{M} such that E_n is increasing; E_n is inside E_{n+1} for every n . we have to show that union of E_n s belongs to \mathcal{M} . Let us note that E_n is an increasing sequence; E_n increases to E which is union of E_n s. E_n s belong to \mathcal{M} – keep that in mind. That is the set E (Refer Slide Time: 32:13). We want to show that E belongs to \mathcal{M} ; that means μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of E .

(Refer Slide Time: 32:24)

Note \square

$$\mu_1(E) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_1(E_n) \quad (\mu_1 \text{ c.a.})$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_2(E_n) \quad (\mu_1 \text{ c.a.})$$

$$= \mu_2(E) \quad (\mu_2 \text{ c.a.})$$

$$\Rightarrow E \in \mathcal{M}$$

 Let $E_n \in \mathcal{M}, E_n \supseteq E_{n+1} \forall n$

$$E = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$$

$$\mu_1(E) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_1(E_n) \quad (\because \mu_1(X) < \infty)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_2(E_n) = \mu_2(E)$$

What is μ of E ? How do we compute it? Let us observe that μ_1 of E is nothing but limit of μ_1 of E_n s. Why is that? That is because μ_1 is a measure; it is countable additive; we had proved that countable additivity of the set function implies that whenever a sequence E_n increases to a set E , then μ of E must be limit of μ_1 of E_n s; that was the characterization property for countable additivity.

Go back and refer that was because of μ being countably additive (Refer Slide Time: 33:10); that is the property being used here – equivalent form of it. Now, each E_n belongs to M ; that implies that even μ_1 of (E_n) is equal to μ_2 of E_n . This is equal to limit n going to infinity μ_2 of E_n ; that is, we are using μ_1 equal to μ_2 on μ_1 μ_2 equal to μ_1 equal to μ_2 because sorry; this is because E_n belongs to M (Refer Slide Time: 33:46).

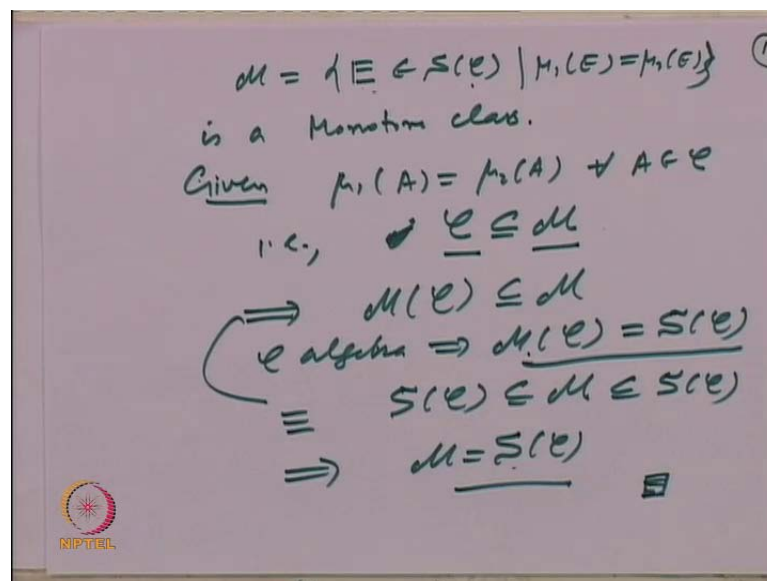
Once again, μ_2 is countably additive; there, μ_1 (E_n) . That implies that this is μ_2 of E using the fact that μ_2 is countably additive. We have used a lot of things which we have proved earlier: μ_1 is a measure, E_n is increasing to E ; so by countable additivity, μ_1 of E must be equal to limit n going to infinity μ_1 of E_n (Refer Slide Time: 34:19).

Now, each E_n belongs to M ; E_n is a sequence in M (Refer Slide Time: 34:27). That means μ_1 of E_n is equal to μ_2 of E_n ; this is equal to this (Refer Slide Time: 34:34). This is the second (E_n) . Once again, μ_2 is countably additive and E_n increases to E ; so by countable additivity, this limit must be equal to μ_2 of E (Refer Slide Time: 34:47). It

says μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of E . That implies that E belongs to M whenever E_n is a sequence which is increasing to M ; this is for increasing.

The corresponding thing we have to prove when it is decreasing and that is where we are going to use the fact that μ_1 and μ_2 are totally finite. For the second case, let E_n s belong to M , E_n includes E_{n+1} for every n decreasing, and let E be equal to intersections of E_n s, n equal to 1 to infinity. We want to show that E also belongs to M . For that, once again, μ_1 of E is equal to $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_1$ of E_n because μ_1 is totally finite, μ_1 of X is finite and μ_1 is countably additive. That, as observed earlier, is same as μ_2 of E_n because each E_n belongs to M and that is equal to μ_2 of E_n ; once again, μ_2 is finite and E_n is decreasing to E ; that proves this also; this proves that M is a monotone class (Refer Slide Time: 36:28).

(Refer Slide Time: 36:31)



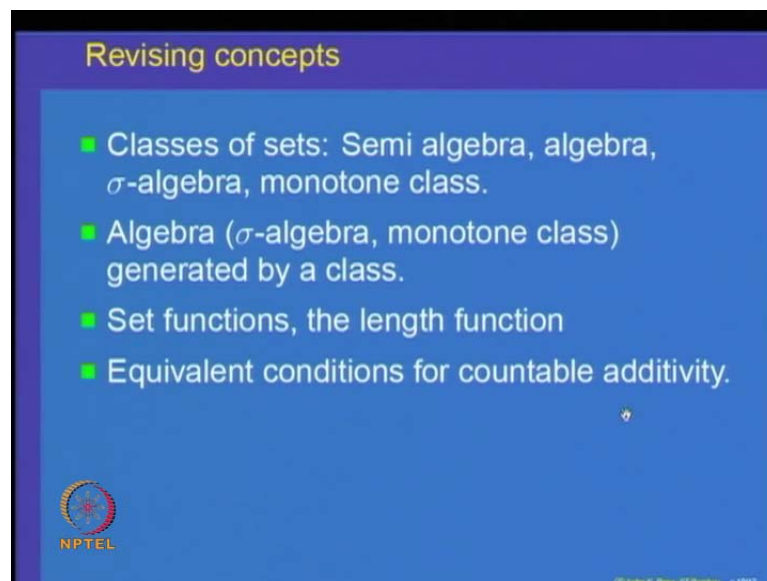
The class M which was equal to all subsets E belonging to S of C such that μ_1 of E is equal to μ_2 of E is a monotone class. We are given that μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to C . What does that mean? An equivalent way of stating that is saying that the collection C is inside the collection M . That is what it means by the very definition.

M is a monotone class and C is inside it; that implies that the monotone class generated by C must be inside M . Recall: what is monotone class generated by a collection of subsets of C ? It is the smallest monotone class of subsets of X which include C ; being

the smallest, it must be inside it but note that C algebra implies M of C is equal to S of C . This is an important theorem which we had proved: if you take an algebra and generate a monotone class out of it, that is the same as generating the sigma algebra out of it.

This is the same as saying that S of C is contained in M but M is a collection of subsets of S of C ; that is inside S of C ; that is same as saying that M is equal to S of C (the sigma algebra generated by C). That means what? For all elements in S of C , μ_1 is equal to μ_2 of E . That proves the uniqueness theorem. We have finally proved in these four steps the theorem that if μ_1 and μ_2 are two measures defined on a semi-algebra of subsets of a set X and μ_1 and μ_2 are both sigma finite and they agree on the semi-algebra, then they also agree on the sigma algebra generated by C . This is an important theorem which we are going to use quite often. With this, we come to an end of a part of our course. This is probably the right stage to revise what all we have done till now. Let us revise what we have done till now.

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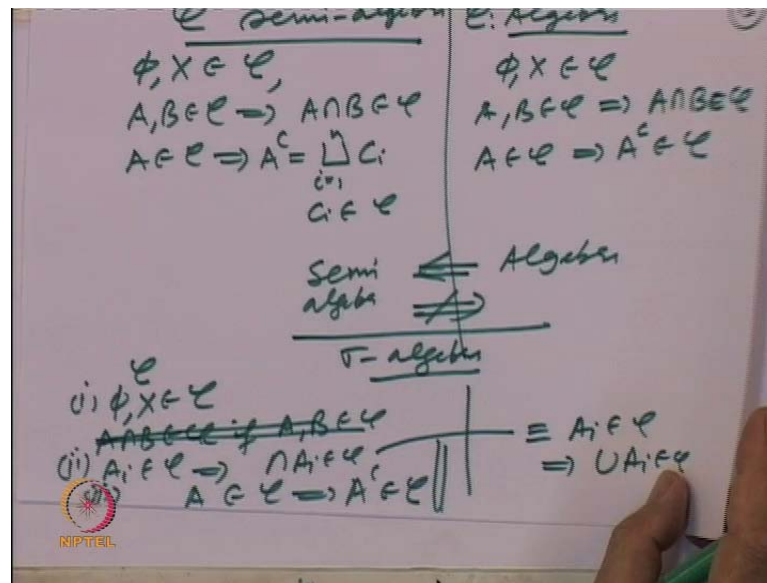


The slide is titled "Revising concepts" and contains a bulleted list of four items. The background is blue with a purple header. The NPTEL logo is in the bottom left corner, and a small copyright notice is in the bottom right corner.

- Classes of sets: Semi algebra, algebra, σ -algebra, monotone class.
- Algebra (σ -algebra, monotone class) generated by a class.
- Set functions, the length function
- Equivalent conditions for countable additivity.

We started with looking at collections of subsets of a set X . We defined what is a semi-algebra. What was a semi-algebra? A semi-algebra was a collection of subsets of a set X with these properties: the whole space belongs to it, the empty set belongs to it, it is closed under intersections and the complement of a set is not necessarily inside it but can be represented.

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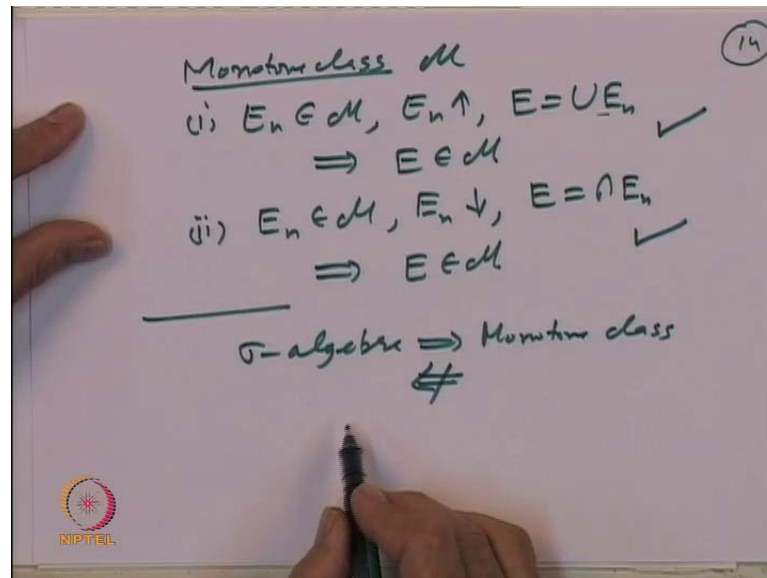
A semi-algebra \mathcal{C} means that empty set and the whole space belong to it – one property; the second one is A and B belonging to \mathcal{C} should imply $A \cap B$ belong to \mathcal{C} ; the third property is that A belonging to \mathcal{C} implies A complement can be written as a finite disjoint union of elements of \mathcal{C} for some C_i s belonging to \mathcal{C} ; that is a semi-algebra.

Then, we defined what is called an algebra. A collection \mathcal{C} is called an algebra with the first property as it is – empty set and the whole space belong to it; A and B belonging to \mathcal{C} should imply it is closed under intersections and that also belongs to \mathcal{C} ; now we have something stronger; instead of just saying that A belongs to \mathcal{C} , its complement is representable, actually we want that this complement also belongs to \mathcal{C} ; this is something stronger; we said this is a stronger property.

An algebra implies semi-algebra and the converse need not be true – that we have said. Then, we define what is called as sigma algebra. A collection \mathcal{C} is a sigma algebra if, of course, it is an algebra first of all; it is ϕ and X belong to \mathcal{C} ; it is closed under intersection; so, A and B belong to \mathcal{C} if A and B belong to \mathcal{C} but this is not enough; actually, this should be true for any countable collection. Let us write whenever A_i s belong to \mathcal{C} , that should imply that intersection A_i s belongs to \mathcal{C} and because it is going to be closed under complements, this is property (i), this is the second and the third property is that A belongs to \mathcal{C} should imply A complement belongs to \mathcal{C} .

That automatically implies that C is also closed **under...** So, this property of countable intersections can be equivalently stated as, because of the complements, A_i s belong to C imply union A_i s also belong to C . A sigma algebra is a collection which is closed under countable unions and complements and, of course, the empty set in the whole space belongs to it. Then we define what is called a monotone class (Refer Slide Time: 42:40).

(Refer Slide Time: 42:44)



What was a monotone class? M was called a monotone class whenever a sequence E_n belongs to M , E_n s are increasing, E is equal to union E_n s should imply that E also belongs to M ; this is one property. The second property we want that whenever E_n s belong to M , E_n s are decreasing and E is equal to intersection of E_n s should imply that E also belongs to M .

A monotone class is the collection of subsets of a set X with the property that it is closed under increasing unions and decreasing intersections. Of course, a sigma algebra implies a monotone class but the converse is not always true. These were the basic concepts of properties of collections of subsets of a set X (Refer Slide Time: 44:01) that we looked at.

(Refer Slide Time: 44:12)

Revising concepts

- Classes of sets: Semi algebra, algebra, σ -algebra, monotone class.
- Algebra (σ -algebra, monotone class) generated by a class.

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Then, we looked at what is called the algebra generated by a collection of subsets or the sigma algebra generated by a collection of subsets or the monotone class generated by a collection of subsets of a set X . In all these cases, we are basically given a collection C .

(Refer Slide Time: 44:33)

$C \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$

$\alpha(C) = \text{Algebra generated by } C$
 $= \bigcap_{C \subseteq \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{A}$

$S(C) = \bigcap_{C \subseteq \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{S}$

$M(C) = \bigcap_{C \subseteq \mathcal{M}} \mathcal{M}$

$M(C) = S(C)$
if C is an algebra

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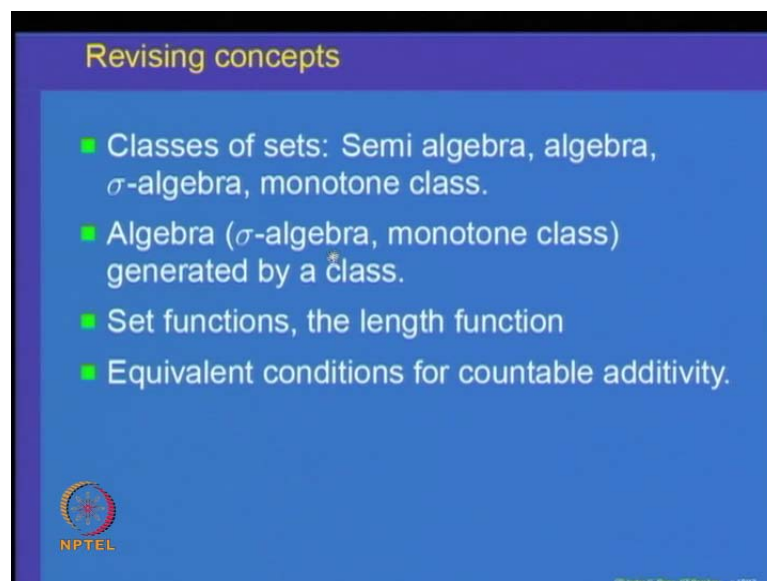
Let us just recall what was the meaning of saying generation. C is any collection of subsets of a set X . The algebra generated by C is the smallest one; it was the intersection of all the algebras which include C and we showed that such a thing exists. Similarly, the sigma algebra generated by C we said is nothing but look at all sigma algebras of subsets

of X which include C and take their intersection; that is a sigma algebra; that is called the sigma algebra. Another way of saying is the algebra generated by C is the smallest algebra of subsets of a set X which include C .

Similarly, S of C is the smallest sigma algebra of subsets of C which includes C . Similarly, we have monotone class generated by C . It is the smallest monotone class of subsets of X which include C . We showed by these properties that such an object always exists. Then, we proved a very important theorem namely the monotone class generated by C is equal to the sigma algebra generated by C if C is an algebra; this was an important theorem that we had proved. These concepts were basically about collection of subsets of a set X .

Then, we looked at functions defined on such a collection of subsets of (\mathcal{C}) set X and we called them as set functions. Set functions are functions defined on a collection of subsets of a set X .

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Revising concepts

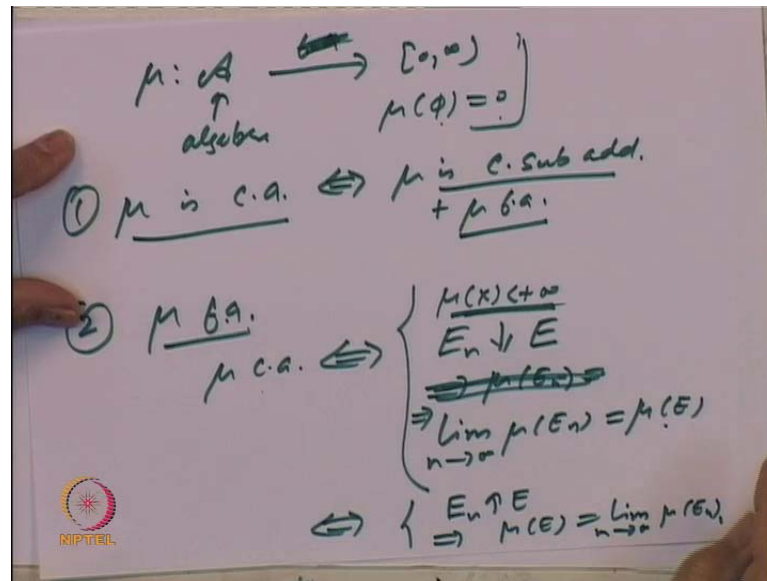
- Classes of sets: Semi algebra, algebra, σ -algebra, monotone class.
- Algebra (σ -algebra, monotone class) generated by a class.
- Set functions, the length function
- Equivalent conditions for countable additivity.

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The important class of set functions was the length function. We showed that the length function had important properties: the length function which is defined on the class of all intervals in the real line was shown to be a countably additive set function which was also invariant under translations; that was an important property. Finally, we had proved some equivalent conditions for countable additivity and these conditions are very useful.

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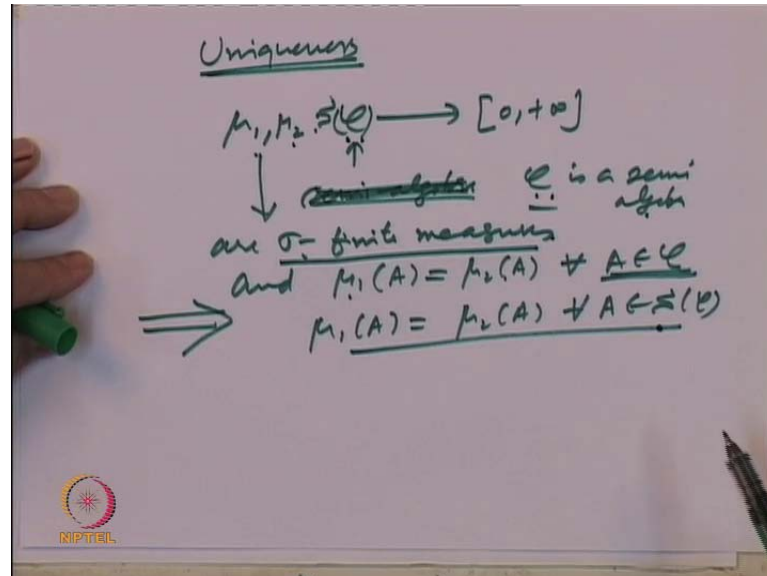
Let us just recall these equivalent conditions. We have used one of them today also. For example, if μ is defined on an algebra (this is an algebra) and it is finitely additive, then we said that μ is countably additive if and only if μ is countably subadditive. Let us write plus μ is finitely additive. Let us remove this condition (Refer Slide Time: 47:58). Let us write μ to be an algebra and μ of empty set equal to 0. μ is a set function defined on an algebra and μ of empty set is 0. Then, we proved that saying that μ is countably additive is equivalent to saying that μ is finitely additive and countably subadditive. This is quite useful in proving countable additivity of set functions. This was (1) (Refer Slide Time: 48:27).

Second: we proved that μ is finitely additive; we assumed that. Then, μ is countably additive **if and only if whenever** E_n s decrease of course under the condition A is an algebra to E ; this should imply **μ of E_n s is equal to the decrease so that is so let us write decrease to E then** limit n going to infinity μ of E_n is equal to μ of E . We have to put an extra condition: μ of X is finite.

μ of X is finite and E_n s increase to E ; that implies that limit of E_n s is equal to μ of E . This condition is equivalent to saying μ is countably additive when we have this (Refer Slide Time: 49:24). If you do not put this condition, then this may not be true, but then one can equivalently prove another thing: if E_n s increase to E , then that should imply μ

of E is equal to limit n going to infinity μ of E_n s. This was the property of saying that **(C.)** something countably additive (Refer Slide Time: 49:47).

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Finally today, we proved the uniqueness theorem saying that if μ_1 and μ_2 are two finite countably additive set functions defined on a semi-algebra (this is a semi-algebra, μ_1 and μ_2 are sigma finite measures and μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A in the semi-algebra), then this implies μ_1 of A is equal to μ_2 of A for every A belonging to the sigma algebra generated by C . μ_1 and μ_2 should already be defined; I am sorry; we should say they are already defined in S of C (Refer Slide Time: 50:59).

C is a semi-algebra. Let me state it once again; C is a semi-algebra; μ_1 and μ_2 are defined on the sigma algebra generated by C ; both μ_1 and μ_2 are sigma finite and μ_1 and μ_2 agree on the semi-algebra; then they agree on the sigma algebra also; they agree on the whole domain. If they agree on the part of the domain which is the semi-algebra, then they agree on the whole of the sigma algebra also. That is the uniqueness result and that we proved under the condition that μ_1 and μ_2 are sigma finite measures. We will see how that is used in extension theory in the few lectures when we come to that.

We stop here today. In the next lecture, we will start a new topic called extension theory. We will like to extend a set function defined on a class to a bigger class; for example, on the real line, we have the notion of length defined on the collection of all intervals; we

would like to define the notion of length for any set; that is the motivating thing for extension theory. We will use that and prove the theorems in the next lectures. Thank you.