

Measure Theory: A Compact Note

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1 Foundations

Definition 1.1 (σ -algebra). A collection \mathcal{F} of subsets of a set Ω is a σ -algebra if:

1. $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$,
2. $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ (closed under complementation),
3. $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ (closed under countable unions).

Definition 1.2 (Measurable set). A set A is **measurable** (with respect to \mathcal{F}) if $A \in \mathcal{F}$.

Definition 1.3 (Borel σ -algebra). The **Borel σ -algebra** $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ is the smallest σ -algebra on \mathbb{R} containing all open sets.

Example 1.4 (Vitali set — a non-measurable set). For each $r \in [0, 1]$, consider the equivalence class $r + \mathbb{Q} = \{r + q : q \in \mathbb{Q}\}$. Two reals belong to the same class if and only if their difference is rational. By the axiom of choice, pick one representative from each equivalence class intersected with $[0, 1]$ to form V . Let $\{r_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ enumerate $\mathbb{Q} \cap [-1, 1]$ and set $V_k = V + r_k$. The translates $\{V_k\}$ are pairwise disjoint (if $v_1 + r_j = v_2 + r_k$ then $v_1 - v_2 \in \mathbb{Q}$, so v_1 and v_2 lie in the same class, giving $v_1 = v_2$ and $r_j = r_k$) and satisfy

$$[0, 1] \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} V_k \subseteq [-1, 2].$$

If V were Lebesgue measurable, translation invariance gives $\mu(V_k) = \mu(V)$ for all k , and σ -additivity yields

$$1 \leq \mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} V_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(V_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(V) \leq 3 \quad (\because V_i \cap V_j = \emptyset; i \neq j).$$

This is impossible: if $\mu(V) = 0$ the sum is 0, and if $\mu(V) > 0$ the sum is $+\infty$.

Definition 1.5 (Measurable space). A pair (Ω, \mathcal{F}) where Ω is a set and \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra on Ω .

Definition 1.6 (Lebesgue measure). The Lebesgue measure μ on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ is the unique measure satisfying $\mu([a, b]) = b - a$.

Remark 1.7. Lebesgue measure is just one example of a measure. In probability we use probability measures ($\mu(\Omega) = 1$); in counting problems, the counting measure; etc.

Definition 1.8 (Measurable function). $f: (\Omega, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ is **measurable** if $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$ for all $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

Definition 1.9 (σ -additivity). A set function $\mu: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ is **σ -additive** if for any countable collection of pairwise disjoint sets $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{F}$:

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

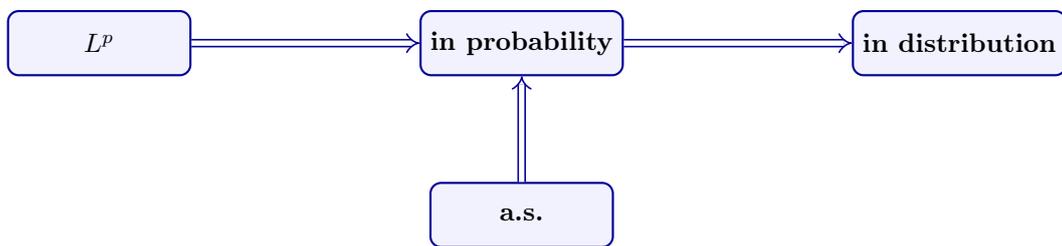
Definition 1.10 (Measure space). A triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ where (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is a measurable space and $\mu: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ is a σ -additive set function with $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$.

Definition 1.11 (σ -finiteness). A measure μ on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is **σ -finite** if $\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ with $\mu(A_i) < \infty$ for all i . This condition is required by Fubini's theorem and Radon–Nikodym.

2 Modes of Convergence

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space and $\{X_n\}, X$ random variables.

Mode	Definition
L^p convergence	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[X_n - X ^p] = 0$
Almost sure (a.s.)	$P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X\right) = 1$
In probability	$\forall \varepsilon > 0, P(X_n - X > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$
In distribution	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x)$ at all continuity points of F_X



- $L^p \not\rightleftharpoons$ a.s. and a.s. $\not\rightleftharpoons$ L^p in general.
- In distribution $\not\rightleftharpoons$ in probability (unless the limit is a constant).

3 Core Theorems and Inequalities

3.1 Inequalities

Theorem 3.1 (Markov's inequality). For a non-negative random variable X and $a > 0$: $P(X \geq a) \leq E[X]/a$.

Usage: Crude tail bound from the mean; foundation for Chebyshev.

Theorem 3.2 (Chebyshev's inequality). If $E[X] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$: $P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq 1/k^2$.

Usage: Distribution-free tail bound; used to prove the weak LLN.

Theorem 3.3 (Hoeffding's inequality). Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent with $X_i \in [a_i, b_i]$ a.s. Then for $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i$:

$$P(|\bar{X} - E[\bar{X}]| \geq t) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2n^2 t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

Usage: Exponential concentration bound; widely used in ML generalization theory (PAC learning).

Theorem 3.4 (Monotone Convergence Theorem (MCT)). If $0 \leq f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots$ are measurable and $f_n \uparrow f$ pointwise, then:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu = \int f d\mu.$$

Proof. We prove the statement step by step:

1. **Upper bound.** Since $f_n \leq f$ for all n , monotonicity of the integral gives $\int f_n d\mu \leq \int f d\mu$ for every n . The sequence $\{\int f_n d\mu\}$ is non-decreasing (because $f_n \leq f_{n+1}$), so its limit exists in $[0, \infty]$ and satisfies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \leq \int f d\mu.$$

2. **Lower bound — setup.** It remains to show $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \geq \int f d\mu$. Recall that by definition of the Lebesgue integral for non-negative measurable functions,

$$\int f d\mu = \sup \left\{ \int s d\mu : s \text{ simple, } 0 \leq s \leq f \right\}.$$

So it suffices to show $\lim \int f_n d\mu \geq \int s d\mu$ for every simple function s with $0 \leq s \leq f$.

3. **Lower bound — core argument.** Fix such a simple function s and fix $0 < c < 1$. Define $A_n = \{x \in \Omega : f_n(x) \geq c \cdot s(x)\}$. Since $f_n \uparrow f \geq s > c \cdot s$, every $x \in \Omega$ eventually belongs to A_n , so $A_n \uparrow \Omega$. Now:

$$\int f_n d\mu \geq \int_{A_n} f_n d\mu \geq c \int_{A_n} s d\mu.$$

The first inequality holds because $f_n \geq 0$; the second because $f_n \geq c \cdot s$ on A_n .

4. **Taking limits.** Write $s = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j \mathbf{1}_{E_j}$ where $E_j \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $\int_{A_n} s d\mu = \sum_j a_j \mu(A_n \cap E_j)$. Since $A_n \uparrow \Omega$, continuity of measure from below gives $\mu(A_n \cap E_j) \rightarrow \mu(E_j)$ for each j . Therefore $\int_{A_n} s d\mu \rightarrow \int s d\mu$, and so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \geq c \int s d\mu.$$

Letting $c \uparrow 1$ gives $\lim \int f_n d\mu \geq \int s d\mu$. Since this holds for every simple $s \leq f$, taking the supremum yields $\lim \int f_n d\mu \geq \int f d\mu$.

Combining Steps 1 and 4: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu = \int f d\mu$. □

Lemma 3.5 (Fatou’s Lemma). *If $\{f_n\}$ are non-negative measurable functions, then:*

$$\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu.$$

Usage: “The integral of the limit \leq the limit of the integrals.” Used when we lack a dominating function for DCT.

Theorem 3.6 (Lebesgue’s Dominated Convergence Theorem (DCT)). *If $f_n \rightarrow f$ pointwise a.e., and there exists an integrable g with $|f_n| \leq g$ a.e. for all n , then:*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu = \int f d\mu.$$

Proof. We prove the statement step by step:

1. **Verifying Fatou’s lemma applies.** Since $|f_n| \leq g$ a.e., the functions $g + f_n \geq 0$ and $g - f_n \geq 0$ a.e., so Fatou’s lemma is applicable to both sequences. Also, $f_n \rightarrow f$ pointwise a.e. and $|f| \leq g$ a.e., so f is integrable (i.e., $\int |f| d\mu \leq \int g d\mu < \infty$).
2. **Lower bound on \liminf .** Apply Fatou’s lemma to the non-negative sequence $g + f_n$:

$$\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g + f_n) d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int (g + f_n) d\mu.$$

The left side equals $\int (g + f) d\mu = \int g d\mu + \int f d\mu$ ($\because g + f_n \rightarrow g + f$ pointwise a.e.). The right side equals $\int g d\mu + \liminf \int f_n d\mu$ ($\because \int g d\mu < \infty$ is a constant). Subtracting $\int g d\mu$ (which is finite) from both sides:

$$\int f d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu.$$

3. **Upper bound on lim sup.** Apply Fatou's lemma to the non-negative sequence $g - f_n$:

$$\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g - f_n) d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int (g - f_n) d\mu.$$

The left side equals $\int (g - f) d\mu = \int g d\mu - \int f d\mu$. The right side equals $\int g d\mu + \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-\int f_n d\mu) = \int g d\mu - \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu$ (using $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-a_n) = -\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n)$). Subtracting $\int g d\mu$ from both sides and multiplying by -1 :

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \leq \int f d\mu.$$

Combining Steps 2 and 3:

$$\int f d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \leq \int f d\mu.$$

All inequalities are equalities, so the limit exists and equals $\int f d\mu$. □

4 Limit & Measure Theorems

Theorem 4.1 (Fubini's Theorem). *Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) and (Y, \mathcal{B}, ν) be σ -finite measure spaces. If $f: X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable w.r.t. the product measure, then:*

$$\int_{X \times Y} f d(\mu \times \nu) = \int_X \left(\int_Y f(x, y) d\nu \right) d\mu = \int_Y \left(\int_X f(x, y) d\mu \right) d\nu.$$

Usage: Justifies swapping integration order. In ML, used for computing expectations over joint distributions.

Theorem 4.2 (Radon–Nikodym Theorem). *Let μ, ν be σ -finite on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) with $\nu \ll \mu$ (**absolute continuity**: $\nu \ll \mu$ means that for every $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mu(A) = 0 \implies \nu(A) = 0$). Then there exists measurable $f \geq 0$ such that $\nu(A) = \int_A f d\mu$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$. The function $f = d\nu/d\mu$ is the **Radon–Nikodym derivative**.*

Usage: Foundation for probability densities, likelihood ratios, and importance sampling.

Theorem 4.3 (Law of Large Numbers (LLN)). *Let X_1, X_2, \dots be i.i.d. with $E[X_1] = \mu$.*

- **Weak:** $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$.
- **Strong:** $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mu$ (assuming $E[X_1^2] < \infty$).

Usage: Justifies sample means as estimators; underpins Monte Carlo methods and ERM.

Theorem 4.4 (Central Limit Theorem (CLT)). *Let X_1, X_2, \dots be i.i.d. with $E[X_1] = \mu$, $\text{Var}(X_1) = \sigma^2 \in (0, \infty)$. Then:*

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2).$$

Proof. We prove the statement step by step:

1. **Standardization.** Let $Y_i = (X_i - \mu)/\sigma$ so that $E[Y_i] = 0$ and $E[Y_i^2] = 1$. Define $S_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$. Then $S_n = \sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma$, so it suffices to show $S_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$.
2. **Characteristic function of Y_1 .** The characteristic function of Y_1 is $\varphi_Y(t) = E[e^{itY_1}]$. By Taylor expansion (using $E[Y_1] = 0$ and $E[Y_1^2] = 1$):

$$\varphi_Y(t) = E \left[1 + itY_1 + \frac{(it)^2}{2} Y_1^2 + o(t^2) \right] = 1 + it \cdot 0 - \frac{t^2}{2} \cdot 1 + o(t^2) = 1 - \frac{t^2}{2} + o(t^2)$$

as $t \rightarrow 0$.

3. **Characteristic function of S_n .** Since Y_1, \dots, Y_n are independent, the characteristic function of S_n factorizes:

$$\varphi_{S_n}(t) = E\left[e^{it \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j}\right] = \prod_{j=1}^n \varphi_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = \left[\varphi_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right]^n.$$

4. **Taking the limit.** Substituting the expansion from Step 2 with t replaced by t/\sqrt{n} :

$$\varphi_{S_n}(t) = \left[1 - \frac{t^2}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right]^n.$$

Using the standard limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + a/n)^n = e^a$ (here $a = -t^2/2$, and the $o(1/n)$ remainder vanishes in the limit):

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_{S_n}(t) = e^{-t^2/2}.$$

This is the characteristic function of $N(0, 1)$.

5. **Conclusion via Lévy's continuity theorem.** Lévy's continuity theorem states: if $\varphi_{S_n}(t) \rightarrow \varphi(t)$ pointwise for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and φ is continuous at $t = 0$, then S_n converges in distribution to the distribution with characteristic function φ .

Since $e^{-t^2/2}$ is continuous (everywhere, in particular at 0), we conclude $S_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$, which gives $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$. □

Theorem 4.5 (Continuous Mapping Theorem). *If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and g is continuous a.e. (w.r.t. the distribution of X), then $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} g(X)$. Analogous results hold for convergence in probability and a.s.*

Usage: Extends convergence through transformations, e.g. $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \Rightarrow X_n^2 \xrightarrow{d} X^2$.

Theorem 4.6 (Cramér–Wold Theorem). *$\mathbf{X}_n \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{X}$ in \mathbb{R}^d if and only if $\mathbf{t}^\top \mathbf{X}_n \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{t}^\top \mathbf{X}$ for every $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.*

Usage: Reduces multivariate convergence in distribution to univariate. Essential for proving the multivariate CLT.

Theorem 4.7 (Glivenko–Cantelli Theorem). *Let F_n be the empirical CDF of i.i.d. samples from distribution F . Then:*

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |F_n(x) - F(x)| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0.$$

Usage: The empirical CDF converges uniformly to the true CDF. Foundational for the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test and uniform convergence in statistical learning theory.