MA40042 Measure Theory and Integration

## Lecture 2 The Borel $\sigma$ -algebra

- Review of open, closed, and compact sets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$
- The Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}^d$
- Intervals and boxes in  $\mathbb{R}^d$

For countable sets X, the powerset  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  is a useful  $\sigma$ -algebra. But in larger sets, such as  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , the full powerset is often too big for interesting measures to exist, such as the Lebesgue length/area/volume measure. (We'll see a example of this later in the course.)

On  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{R}^d$  a useful  $\sigma$ -algebra is the *Borel*  $\sigma$ -algebra. The benefits of the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra are:

- it's large enough to contain any set you're likely to come across (although we will later construct a specific set that isn't in it);
- it's not so large that useful measures (like the Lebesgue measure) fail to exist.

First, we'll need to recall some facts about open and closed sets to define this.

## 2.1 Open and closed sets

Recall the following definitions about open and closed sets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

Definition 2.1. Write

$$B_d(\mathbf{x}, r) := \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d : |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}| < r \}$$

for the open ball of radius r about  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . (We'll suppress the subscript d when the dimension is clear from context.)

- A set  $G \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is open if for all  $\mathbf{x} \in G$  there exists an r > 0 such that  $B(\mathbf{x}, r) \subset G$ .
- A set  $F \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is *closed* if its complement  $F^{\mathsf{c}}$  is open.

• A set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is *compact* if every open cover of K has a finite subcover. That is, if K can be 'covered' by a (not necessarily countable) union of open sets

$$K \subset \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_{\alpha}, \qquad G_{\alpha} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \text{ open for all } \alpha \in I,$$

then there exists a finite subset  $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_N\} \subset I$  that also covers K,

$$K \subset \bigcup_{n=1}^{N} G_{\alpha_n}.$$

Checking whether a set is compact under this definition can be difficult, but is made much easier by the following theorem (which we won't prove here).

**Theorem 2.2** (Heine–Borel theorem). A set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

Bounded here means that  $K \subset B(\mathbf{x}, r)$  for some  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and some  $r \in (0, \infty)$ .

## 2.2 $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$

Fix d, and write  $\mathcal{G}$ ,  $\mathcal{F}$ , and  $\mathcal{K}$  for, respectively, the collection of open, closed, and compact sets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

**Definition 2.3.** The *Borel*  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open sets,  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) := \sigma(\mathcal{G})$ .

A set  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  is called a *Borel set*. We sometimes write  $\mathcal{B}$  for  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ .

We could instead generate  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  with the closed sets:

Theorem 2.4.  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) = \sigma(\mathcal{F}).$ 

*Proof.* By the definition of  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , we need to show  $\sigma(\mathcal{G}) = \sigma(\mathcal{F})$ . We will do this in two parts: showing that  $\sigma(\mathcal{G}) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F})$ , and that  $\sigma(\mathcal{F}) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{G})$ .

First,  $\sigma(\mathcal{G}) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F})$ . Since  $\sigma(\mathcal{G})$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{G}$ , and  $\sigma(\mathcal{F})$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, it suffices to show that  $\mathcal{G} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{F})$ . Let G be an open set, and let  $D = G^{\mathsf{c}}$ . Since  $D^{\mathsf{c}} = G$  is open, D is closed, so  $D \in \mathcal{F}$ . Hence  $G = D^{\mathsf{c}}$  is the complement of a set in  $\mathcal{F}$ , so is in  $\sigma(\mathcal{F})$ .

Second,  $\sigma(\mathcal{F}) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{G})$ , for which again  $\mathcal{F} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{G})$  suffices. For F closed, write  $E = F^{\mathsf{c}}$ . Then E is open, and  $E^{\mathsf{c}} = F$  is in  $\sigma(\mathcal{G})$ , as desired.  $\Box$ 

We can also show that  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) = \sigma(\mathcal{K})$ ; this is a homework problem.

## 2.3 Intervals and boxes

Intervals and boxes are important sets, as we 'know' what their lengths (or areas, or volumes) should be.

Recall the definition of the semi-open interval

$$[a,b) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x < b \}, \quad \text{for } a < b$$

These are convenient because we have for a < b < c that the union  $[a, b) \cup [b, c) = [a, c)$  is a disjoint one. We could use instead the open intervals (a, b) or closed intervals [a, b], but it would be a bit fiddly later on in the course. Note though the open intervals are indeed open, and the closed intervals closed.

**Definition 2.5.** A set  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  is an *interval* is it is of one of the following forms:

- the empty set,  $I = \emptyset$ ;
- a semi-open interval, I = [a, b) for a < b;
- an infinite or semi-inifite interval,  $I = (-\infty, b), I = [a, \infty)$ , or  $I = \mathbb{R}$ .

We write  $\mathcal{I}$  for the set of such intervals.

Again, the empty, semi-infinite, and infinite intervals are included in the definition for later convenience.

It will be useful to assume the convention  $[a, b) = \emptyset$  for  $b \leq a$ .

**Definition 2.6.** A set  $I \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is an *interval box* is it is of the form

$$I = I_1 \times I_2 \times \cdots \times I_d = \prod_{i=1}^d I_i, \quad \text{for } I_1, I_2, \dots, I_d \in \mathcal{I}.$$

We write  $\mathcal{I}_d$  for the set of interval boxes, or just  $\mathcal{I}$  when the dimension is obvious by context.

Theorem 2.7.  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) = \sigma(\mathcal{I}_d).$ 

So if we want the intervals and boxes to have length/area/volume (and we do!), we will have to work in the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra.

We'll do the proof long-windedly for d = 1, then more quickly for the general case.

Proof for d = 1. As before, we need to show  $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{B} = \sigma(\mathcal{G})$  and  $\mathcal{G} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{I})$ .

First  $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{B}$ . The empty set is open. For the semi-open case, we have

$$[a,b) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a - \frac{1}{n}, b\right),$$

which writes [a, b) as a countable intersection of open sets. For the infinite and semi-infinite cases, we have

$$(-\infty,b) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [-n,b)$$
  $[a,\infty) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [a,n),$   $\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [-n,n),$ 

where we've already shown [a, b) is a Borel set.

Second  $\mathcal{G} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{I})$ . Given an open set G, we obviously have

$$G = \bigcup_{x \in G} \{x\}.$$

Further, since G is open, for each  $x \in G$  there exists a  $r_x > 0$  such that  $B(x, r_x) \subset G$ , and so

$$G = \bigcup_{x \in G} B(x, r_x) = \bigcup_{x \in G} (x - r_x, x + r_x).$$

Setting  $a_x = x - r_x/2$  and  $b_x = x + r_x/2$ , we then have

$$G = \bigcup_{x \in G} [a_x, b_x).$$

The good news is that we've written G as a union of intervals, but the bad news is that this union might be an uncountable one. But we can pull a clever trick here. Let  $c_x$  be a rational number in  $(a_x, x)$  and  $d_x$  a rational number in  $(x, b_x)$ . Then

$$G = \bigcup_{x \in G} [c_x, d_x).$$

But there are only countable many intervals with rational endpoints, so by removing repeats we can write this union as a countable one. Hence we are done.  $\Box$ 

General case. First, we have  $\mathcal{I} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{G})$ , since

$$\prod_{i=1}^{d} [a_i, b_i) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{d} \left( a_i - \frac{1}{n}, b_i \right),$$

and the infinite boxes are countable unions of these.

Now we show  $\mathcal{G} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{I})$ . For each **x** in an open set G, let  $r_{\mathbf{x}}$  be such that  $B(\mathbf{x}, r_{\mathbf{x}}) \subset G$ . Pick  $c_{\mathbf{x},i}$  and  $d_{\mathbf{x},i}$  to be rational numbers in  $(x_i - r_{\mathbf{x}}/2\sqrt{d}, x_i)$  and  $(x_i, x_i + r_{\mathbf{x}}/2\sqrt{d})$  respectively. (The  $\sqrt{d}$  ensures the box fits inside the ball.) Then

$$G = \bigcup_{x \in G} \prod_{i=1}^{d} [c_{\mathbf{x},i}, d_{\mathbf{x},i}),$$

and because there are only countably many boxes with rational coordinates, the union consists of only countably many distinct sets.  $\hfill\square$