

A NOTE ON PERFECT PROBABILITY¹

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1. Introduction. The purpose of this note is to define and characterize a class of perfect probability spaces which we shall call D -spaces. Gnedenko and Kolmogorov seem to have been the first to introduce explicitly the notion of perfect measure [1], although a special case ("normal space") was studied by Halmos and von Neumann as long ago as 1942 [2]. An illuminating appendix by Doob in [1] (see also his remarks in the appendix to his own book [3]) further testifies to the fact that the notion of perfectness of a measure has been well known to mathematicians for quite some time.

The triplet $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is said to be a perfect probability space if μ is a probability over the σ algebra \mathcal{F} of subsets of Ω and if for every univalent, real valued, \mathcal{F} -measurable function f the following is true: For every linear set A such that $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F}$, there exists a linear Borel set B with $B \subseteq A$ and

$$\mu\{f^{-1}(B)\} = \mu\{f^{-1}(A)\}.$$

While a perfect probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ has many desirable properties ([1], [4]), the definition of perfectness clearly involves the measure μ in an essential manner. This raises the interesting question of defining classes of measurable spaces (Ω, \mathcal{F}) with the property that for every probability μ , the space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is perfect. The Lusin spaces introduced by Blackwell [4] as well as the D -spaces to be defined in the next section, possess this property. Theorem 3 gives a necessary and sufficient criterion for a D -space. This result is similar to (though not identical with) an unsolved problem posed by Blackwell for Lusin spaces ([4] Problem 2).

2. D -spaces: definition and characterization. We shall say that a linear set A is a D -set if A is measurable with respect to F for every Lebesgue Stieltjes probability measure F . Borel sets and analytic sets are examples of D -sets.

A measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) will be called a D -space if

- (1) \mathcal{F} is a separable σ -field of subsets of Ω , and
- (2) The range of every univalent, real valued, \mathcal{F} -measurable function f is a D -set.

THEOREM 1. *Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}) be a D -space. Then if $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ is any separable sub σ -field of \mathcal{F} -sets the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mu)$ is perfect for every probability μ defined*

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over \mathcal{G} . In particular, $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is perfect for every probability μ defined over \mathcal{F} . The proof of this theorem is based on the following

LEMMA. A necessary and sufficient condition for $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ to be perfect is that for every univalent, real valued, \mathcal{F} -measurable function f there exists an \mathcal{F} -set Ω_0 such that

$$(2.1) \quad \mu(\Omega_0) = 1 \text{ and } f(\Omega_0) \text{ is a Borel set.}$$

The above lemma is known in the literature, but we shall give a short proof of the sufficiency. The necessity of (2.1) is almost obvious and its proof is omitted. If (2.1) holds, Halmos and von Neumann have shown [2] that to every \mathcal{F} -measurable function f and every \mathcal{F} -set B corresponds a measurable set B_0 contained in B such that $\mu(B_0) = \mu(B)$ and $f(B_0)$ is a Borel set. Hence, if A is any linear set with $f^{-1}A \in \mathcal{F}$, there exists a measurable subset X_0 of $f^{-1}A$ such that $\mu(X_0) = \mu(f^{-1}A)$ and $f(X_0)$ is a Borel set. Since $f(X_0) \subseteq A$ we may write $f^{-1}A$ in the form $f^{-1}A = f^{-1}\{f(X_0)\} \cup N$, where $N \subseteq f^{-1}(A) - X_0$ and $\mu(N) = 0$. Writing $B = f(X_0)$ we have B a Borel set, contained in A and $\mu(f^{-1}B) = \mu(f^{-1}A)$, so that $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is perfect.

To prove Theorem 1, let μ be an arbitrary probability over \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{F}_μ the σ -field obtained by completing \mathcal{F} with respect to μ . For any \mathcal{F} -measurable f let \mathcal{F}^* be the σ -field of linear sets A such that $f^{-1}A \in \mathcal{F}_\mu$, and let μ_f be the probability over \mathcal{F}^* defined by $\mu_f(A) = \mu(f^{-1}A)$. μ_f is then a complete probability over \mathcal{F}^* . Finally, if F is the Lebesgue Stieltjes measure generated by the distribution function of f and \mathcal{G}_F the σ -field of F -measurable sets, it is easy to see that $\mathcal{G}_F \subseteq \mathcal{F}^*$ and $\mu_f = F$ on \mathcal{G}_F . Since (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is a D -space by our assumption, $f(\Omega) \in \mathcal{G}_F$, so that there exists a Borel set $B \subseteq f(\Omega)$ such that $F(B) = 1$. Since F and μ_f agree on Borel sets, $\mu_f(B) = 1$. Now setting $\Omega_0 = f^{-1}(B)$ we have $\mu(\Omega_0) = 1$ and $f(\Omega_0) = B$, a Borel set. The perfectness of $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ then follows by the Lemma. Since (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is a D -space and every \mathcal{G} -measurable f is *a fortiori* \mathcal{F} -measurable, (Ω, \mathcal{G}) is a D -space. The perfectness of $(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mu)$ for every μ follows on replacing \mathcal{F} by \mathcal{G} in the above proof.

The converse of Theorem 1 is given by

THEOREM 2. Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}) be a measurable space with the following property:

(I) If \mathcal{G} is any separable sub σ -field of \mathcal{F} -sets, the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mu)$ is perfect for every probability μ defined over \mathcal{G} .

Then, the range of every \mathcal{F} -measurable function f is a D -set.

PROOF OF THEOREM 2. Let \mathcal{G} be a separable sub σ -field of \mathcal{F} . Then there exists an \mathcal{F} -measurable function f such that \mathcal{G} is the minimal σ -field with respect to which f is measurable. In other words, \mathcal{G} is the σ -field of sets $f^{-1}(E)$ where E is a Borel set. Let ν be a Lebesgue Stieltjes probability measure and \mathcal{S} , the σ -field of ν -measurable sets. If E is any subset of the real line it is known that there exists a Borel set F such that $F \supset E$ and such that, for every Borel set $B \subset F - E$, we have $\nu(B) = 0$. We also have $\nu^*(E) = \nu(F)$, ν^* being outer ν -measure ([5], pp. 50-51). Such a set F we shall call a ν -cover of E . Let $R_f = f(\Omega)$, the range of f . Denote by K_1 the ν -cover of R_f . If $\nu^*(R_f) = 0$, it is a well-known fact that $R_f \in \mathcal{S}$. If $\nu^*(R_f) > 0$ we also have $\nu(K_1) > 0$ and we may now define

a probability μ on \mathcal{G} as follows: If $A \in \mathcal{G}$ then $A = f^{-1}(E)$ for some Borel set E . Define $(1)\mu(A) = \nu(E \cap K_1)/\nu(K_1)$. First we show that (1) defines μ uniquely. Suppose E_1 and E_2 are two Borel sets such that $A = f^{-1}(E_1) = f^{-1}(E_2)$. Then clearly the Borel sets $E_1 - (E_1 \cap E_2)$ and $E_2 - (E_1 \cap E_2)$ are contained in the complement of R_f . For $i = 1, 2$, $(E_i - E_1 \cap E_2) \cap K_1 \subset K_1 - R_f$ and $(E_i - E_1 \cap E_2) \cap K_1$ is a Borel set. Since K_1 is a ν -cover of R_f we have $\nu[(E_i - E_1 \cap E_2) \cap K_1] = 0$. From this it follows that $\nu(E_1 \cap K_1) = \nu(E_2 \cap K_1)$, proving that $\mu(A)$ is uniquely defined. Since $\Omega = f^{-1}R_1$, R_1 being the real line, we have according to (1) $\mu(\Omega) = 1$. Thus μ is a probability defined over sets of \mathcal{G} . However, it is to be remembered that μ is not defined for all sets of \mathcal{F} .

By the hypothesis of the theorem, $(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mu)$ is perfect. Therefore, since $f^{-1}(R_f) \in \mathcal{G}$, there exists a Borel set $K_0 \subset R_f$ such that

$$\mu(f^{-1}K_0) = \mu(f^{-1}R_f) = \mu(\Omega) = 1.$$

But by the definition of μ ,

$$\mu(f^{-1}K_0) = \frac{\nu(K_0 \cap K_1)}{\nu(K_1)} = \frac{\nu(K_0)}{\nu(K_1)}, \quad \text{so that} \quad \nu(K_0) = \nu(K_1).$$

Thus, there exist two Borel sets K_0 and K_1 such that $K_0 \subset R_f \subset K_1$ and $\nu(K_0) = \nu(K_1)$. Hence, remembering that ν is complete, we have $R_f \in \mathcal{S}_\nu$. Since ν is an arbitrary Lebesgue Stieltjes measure, the theorem is proved.

From the two theorems proved above we obtain the following characterization of a D -space (\mathcal{F} is assumed to be separable):

THEOREM 3. *A necessary and sufficient condition for a measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) to be a D -space is that condition (I) of Theorem 2 be satisfied.*

If f is any \mathcal{F} -measurable function, \mathcal{G}_f the minimal σ -field with respect to which f is measurable is known to be separable. Hence, Theorem 3 can also be given the following form:

THEOREM 3'. *Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}) be a measurable space, f any univalent, real valued \mathcal{F} -measurable function and \mathcal{G}_f the σ -field defined as above. Then, a necessary and sufficient condition in order that $(\Omega, \mathcal{G}_f, \mu)$ be perfect for all probability measures μ is that (Ω, \mathcal{F}) be a D -space.*

Recently Blackwell has defined a Lusin space to be any (Ω, \mathcal{F}) with \mathcal{F} , a separable σ -field and with the property that the range of every real valued \mathcal{F} -measurable f is an analytic set. Since analytic sets in metric spaces are Lebesgue Stieltjes measurable for every Lebesgue Stieltjes measure, it follows that a Lusin space is also a D -space. Whether, in reality, the concept of a D -space is more general than that of a Lusin space, we do not know. We have not succeeded in demonstrating the existence of a (Ω, \mathcal{F}) and a real-valued \mathcal{F} -measurable function whose range is a D -set other than an analytic or a Borel set. As far as we are able to determine, very little seems to be known about the properties of D -sets beyond the fact that a set S on the real line is a D -set if and only if every homeomorphic image of S situated on the real line is Lebesgue measurable [6]. Nevertheless, the introduction of the notion of D -space is justified by the fact

that we are able to prove a characterizing property of such spaces given by Theorem 3, whereas we are unable to prove a similar result for Lusin spaces. In fact, Blackwell has posed the following unsolved problem for Lusin spaces: If (Ω, \mathcal{F}) , with \mathcal{F} separable, is such that $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ is perfect for every probability μ defined on \mathcal{F} , is (Ω, \mathcal{F}) a Lusin space? Theorem 2 proves a somewhat weaker property for D -spaces. Condition (I) of Theorem 2 is more stringent than the restriction that $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be perfect for every probability μ on \mathcal{F} . If the latter is given it is, of course, true that $(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mu)$ is perfect, \mathcal{G} being any sub σ -field of \mathcal{F} and μ being regarded as the contraction on \mathcal{G} of the probability μ already defined on \mathcal{F} . Condition (I) goes beyond this in requiring the perfectness of $(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mu)$, (\mathcal{G} an arbitrary, separable sub σ -field of \mathcal{F}) for all probabilities μ on \mathcal{G} and not merely for those μ which are contractions of probabilities defined over the larger σ -field \mathcal{F} .

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