

1 Random variables, independence, integration and conditioning

1.1 Measurable functions

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$ be a measure space. Under measurable function $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we understand a function that satisfies $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$ for each Borel set $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, where

$$f^{-1}(B) := \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \in B\}.$$

Resorting to generators, it is enough to require this measurability condition to hold for $B = (-\infty, x]$ with x running over the set of rational numbers. In the context of a probability space we speak of random variables and use notation X, Y, ξ etc in place of f .

A function obtained by algebraic and analytic manipulations with a countable set (f_n) of measurable functions is again a measurable function. For instance $\limsup f_n$ is measurable (in general, as function into extended real line $\mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$).

The indicator function of $A \in \mathcal{F}$

$$1_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A, \\ 0, & x \notin A \end{cases}.$$

is measurable, and so are the *simple* functions of the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n y_j 1_{A_j}(x), \quad y_j \in \mathbb{R}.$$

With any family of measurable functions $\{f_t, t \in T\}$ we associate σ -algebra $\sigma(f_t, t \in T)$, generated by sets $\{f_t^{-1}(B) : t \in T, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\}$. This is the smallest sub- σ -algebra of \mathcal{F} which makes all f_t 's measurable.

Let $(\Omega_t, \mathcal{F}_t)$, $t \in T$, be measurable spaces. Their product is the measurable space

$$\prod_{t \in T} \Omega_t = \{(\omega_t, t \in T) : \omega_t \in \Omega_t\}, \quad \bigotimes_{t \in T} \mathcal{F}_t,$$

where the product σ -algebra is generated by cylinder sets

$$A_t \times \prod_{s \neq t} \Omega_s, \quad A_t \in \mathcal{F}_t.$$

A measurable function can be used to transfer measure from Ω to \mathbb{R} as $\mu \mapsto \mu_f$, where

$$\mu_f(B) := \mu(f^{-1}(B)), \quad B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}).$$

In the case of probability space, the measure on \mathbb{R} , induced by random variable X , is called *probability distribution* of X . The measure of halfline,

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

is known as the cumulative distribution function of X .

Example For simple function

$$f = \sum_{j=1}^n y_j 1_{A_j}$$

the induced measure on \mathbb{R} is discrete,

$$\mu_f = \sum_{j=1}^n \mu(A_j) \delta_{y_j},$$

charging point y_j with mass $\mu(A_j)$.

1.2 Independence

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be probability space. Events $(A_i, i \in I) \subset \mathcal{F}$ are called independent if for every selection of distinct $i_1, \dots, i_k \in I$

$$\mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k}) = \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1}) \dots \mathbb{P}(A_{i_k}).$$

Let $(\mathcal{F}_t, t \in T)$ be sub- σ -algebras of \mathcal{F} . They are called independent if for any choice of distinct indices t_1, \dots, t_k any events $A_{t_1} \in \mathcal{F}_{t_1}, \dots, A_{t_k} \in \mathcal{F}_{t_k}$ are independent.

Random variables X_i 's are independent if their induced σ -algebras $\sigma(X_i)$ are independent.

1.3 Tail events

Let $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ be events, $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the event ' A_n occurs infinitely often' (more precisely, 'infinitely many of A_n 's occur')

$$\{A_n \text{ i.o.}\} := \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k.$$

Theorem. Borel-Cantelli Lemma)

- (a) If $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n) < \infty$ then $\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 0$,
- (b) If A_1, A_2, \dots are independent and $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \infty$ then $\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 1$.

Proof. (a) is exercise in Lecture 1. We focus on (b). We have

$$\{A_n \text{ i.o.}\}^c = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k^c.$$

Clearly

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k^c \subset \bigcup_{n=2}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k^c \subset \dots,$$

hence

$$\{A_n \text{ i.o.}\}^c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P} \left(\bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k^c \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P} \left(\bigcap_{k=n}^m A_k^c \right) =$$

using independence and that $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \infty$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{k=n}^m (1 - \mathbb{P}(A_k)) = 0.$$

□

Example Let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ -distributed random variables (any other continuous distribution would also work). We say that there is a record at index n if $X_n = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n)$, call this event A_n . One can check that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = 1/n$ and that the events are independent. Since $\sum_n 1/n = \infty$ the number of records is infinite with probability 1.

The Borel-Cantelli Lemma exemplifies situation where probability of some ‘distant’ event may assume only values 0 and 1.

Let $\mathcal{F}_j, j \in \mathbb{N}$, be σ -algebras (sub- σ -algebras of \mathcal{F}). We define *tail* σ -algebra as

$$\mathcal{T} := \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma \left(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_k \right).$$

Each $A \in \mathcal{T}$ is called tail event.

Example In the coin-tossing space, let \mathcal{F}_n be the σ -algebra generated by outcomes in n first trials. The event ‘the pattern 1011101 occurs infinitely many times in the sequence’ is a tail event.

Theorem. (Kolmogorov’s 0 – 1 law) *If $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \dots$ are independent, then \mathcal{T} is trivial in the sense that $\mathbb{P}(A) = 0$ or 1 for each $A \in \mathcal{T}$.*

Proof. Suppose A is a tail event, since $A \in \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_k$, we have that A is independent of $\mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_{n-1}$. Since this holds for every n , A is independent of \mathcal{T} . In particular, A is independent of itself, $\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap A) = \mathbb{P}(A) \mathbb{P}(A)$, which is only possible when $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is 0 or 1. \square

Example Let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent random variables, generating σ -algebras $\sigma(X_j) j \in \mathbb{N}$. The event

$$A = \{\omega \in \Omega : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n < \infty\}$$

is a tail event, therefore can only have probability 0 or 1.

Theorem. (Kolmogorov’s Three Series Theorem) *Series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$ of independent random variable converges almost surely if and only if the following conditions hold with some constant $c > 0$*

- (i) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(|X_n| > c) < \infty$,
- (ii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n 1_{\{|X_n| \leq c\}}) < \infty$,
- (iii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \text{Var}(X_n 1_{\{|X_n| \leq c\}}) < \infty$.

Example For normal random variables $X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(m_n, \sigma_n^2)$ convergence of the series $\sum_n X_n$ holds if and only if $\sum_n m_n < \infty$ and $\sum_n \sigma_n^2 < \infty$.

1.4 Lebesgue integral and expectation

In your courses you defined the expectation of discrete random variable X with values x_1, x_2, \dots as

$$\mathbb{E} X = \sum_j x_j \mathbb{P}(X = x_j),$$

and if X has a density φ as

$$\mathbb{E} X = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \varphi(x) dx.$$

These are unified by the general concept of Lebesgue integral.

For measurable function f on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ we wish to define

$$\int_{\Omega} f(x) d\mu(x).$$

Suppose first that f is nonnegative. For simple

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^k y_j 1_{A_j}(x),$$

we set

$$\int_{\Omega} f(x) d\mu(x) = \sum_{j=1}^k y_j \mu(A_j).$$

For the general $f \geq 0$, consider sets

$$A_{jk} = \begin{cases} \{x : \frac{k}{2^j} \leq f(x) < \frac{k+1}{2^j}\}, & k = 0, 1, \dots, j2^j - 1, \\ \{x : f(x) \geq j\}, & k = j2^j, \end{cases}$$

and simple functions

$$f_j(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{j2^j} \frac{k}{2^j} 1_{A_{jk}}(x),$$

so

$$\int_{\Omega} f_j(x) d\mu(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{j2^j} \frac{k}{2^j} \mu(A_{jk}),$$

which we consider as a lower approximation for Lebesgue integral. The *Lebesgue integral* of f is defined as the limit

$$\int_{\Omega} f(x) d\mu(x) := \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} f_j(x) d\mu(x).$$

Example Let $f(x) = 1_{[0,1] \setminus \mathbb{Q}}$ be the indicator function of irrational numbers on $[0, 1]$. The Riemann integral over $[0, 1]$ does not exist, because every upper integral sum is 1, and every lower is 0. The Lebesgue integral is

$$\int_{[0,1]} f(x) dx = 1 \cdot \lambda([0, 1] \setminus \mathbb{Q}) + 0 \cdot \lambda([0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}) = 1.$$

Note that here dx means the same as $d\lambda(x)$.

For the general $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ let $f_+(x) = \max(f(x), 0)$, $f_-(x) = \max(-f(x), 0)$ be positive and negative parts, then $f(x) = f_+(x) - f_-(x)$. If

$$\int_{\Omega} |f(x)| d\mu(x) < \infty$$

we say that f is integrable and we define the Lebesgue integral of f as

$$\int_{\Omega} f(x) d\mu(x) = \int_{\Omega} f_+(x) d\mu(x) - \int_{\Omega} f_-(x) d\mu(x).$$

Note that $\int_0^{\infty} (\sin x)/x dx = \pi/2$ exists as improper Riemann integral over \mathbb{R}_+ , but not as Lebesgue integral because $\int_0^{\infty} |(\sin x)/x| dx = \infty$.

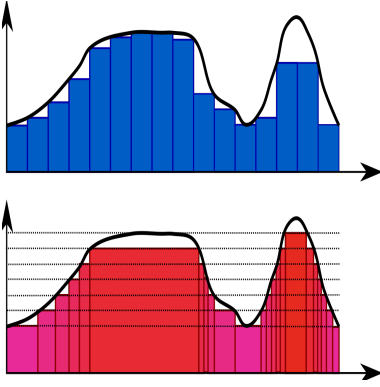


Figure 1: Lower Riemann integral sum and integral sum for Lebesgue integral.

1.5 Absolute continuity of measures

Let $p_j, j \in \mathbb{N}$ be positive numbers, with sum 1. We may treat the identity function on \mathbb{N} as a random variable $X : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ with the probability mass function $P = (p_j, j \in \mathbb{N})$. For any function g we have the expectation calculated as

$$\mathbb{E}_P g(X) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} g(j)p_j$$

If $Q = (q_j, j \in \mathbb{N})$ is some other probability mass function, the corresponding expectation is

$$\mathbb{E}_Q g(X) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} g(j)q_j.$$

To write the Q -expectation in terms of P , let $\xi(j) = p_j/q_j$, then

$$\mathbb{E}_Q g(X) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} g(j)\xi_j p_j = \mathbb{E}_P [\xi g(X)].$$

The random variable ξ is an instance of the Radon-Nikodym derivative/density.

In full generality, let μ, ν be two measures on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) . Call ν *absolutely continuous* with respect to μ , written as $\mu \gg \nu$ if

$$A \in \mathcal{F}, \mu(A) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nu(A) = 0.$$

The measures are called *equivalent*, denoted $\mu \sim \nu$, if

$$\mu(A) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nu(A) = 0,$$

which means that the measures have the same null-sets.

Theorem. (Radon-Nikodym theorem.) *If $\mu \gg \nu$ then there exists a nonnegative measurable function ξ on Ω such that for any measurable f*

$$\int_{\Omega} f(x) d\nu(x) = \int_{\Omega} f(x) \xi(x) d\mu(x),$$

provided one of the integrals exists.

In particular, $\nu(A) = \int_A \xi(x) d\mu(x)$. We write $\xi = \frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$ and call ξ the Radon-Nikodym derivative of ν with respect to μ .

Example For λ the lebesgue measure, ν the normal $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ distribution, the Radon-Nikodym derivative is the normal density

$$\xi(x) = \frac{e^{-x^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}.$$

1.6 Conditional expectation

For two random variables, X, Y , recall that the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ is defined as follows. Calculate the function $h(y) = \mathbb{E}[X|Y = y]$, in case of discrete random variables as

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y = y_j] = \sum_i x_i \mathbb{P}(X = x_i|Y = y_j),$$

or when (X, Y) have joint density as

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y = y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y=y}(x) dx,$$

where

$$f_{X|Y=y}(x) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}$$

is the conditional density. Then define $\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = h(Y)$ by substituting random variable Y for dummy variable y .

Intuitively, $\mathbb{E}[X|X] = X$, and in the discrete case this is easily checked. When X has density, this is still true but we cannot use the above formula with $Y = X$, because (X, X) has no *joint* density function.

We wish to introduce more general conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]$ given sigma-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{F}$. Suppose first $X \geq 0$. Let

$$\mathbb{Q}(A) := \mathbb{E}[X \cdot 1_A] = \int_A X d\mathbb{P}.$$

For disjoint sets $A_n \in \mathcal{G}$

$$\int_{\cup_n A_n} X d\mathbb{P} = \sum_n \int_{A_n} X d\mathbb{P},$$

which entails that \mathbb{Q} is a measure, and \mathbb{Q} is absolutely continuous with respect to \mathbb{P} . By the Radon-Nikodym theorem there exists a \mathcal{G} -measurable random variable ξ such that

$$\mathbb{Q}(A) = \int_A \xi d\mathbb{P}.$$

We denote this variable as

$$\xi = \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}],$$

and call it the conditional expectation of X given \mathcal{G} . The defining property is

$$\int_A X d\mathbb{P} = \int_A \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}] d\mathbb{P}, \quad A \in \mathcal{G}.$$

For any X , we write $X = X_+ - X_-$ and define the conditional expectation by

$$\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}] = \mathbb{E}[X_+|\mathcal{G}] - \mathbb{E}[X_-|\mathcal{G}],$$

which exists if X is integrable.

The following rules will be used in the sequel:

- (i) $\mathbb{E}[X|\{\emptyset, \Omega\}] = \mathbb{E} X$,
- (ii) $\mathbb{E}[aX + bY|\mathcal{G}] = a \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}] + b \mathbb{E}[Y|\mathcal{G}]$,
- (iii) $\mathbb{E}[1|\mathcal{G}] = 1$,

(iv) taking out what is known: if Y is \mathcal{G} -measurable, then

$$\mathbb{E}[XY|\mathcal{G}] = Y \cdot \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}],$$

(v) tower property: for $\mathcal{G}_1 \subset \mathcal{G}_2$

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}_2]|\mathcal{G}_1] = \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}_1],$$

in particular $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]] = \mathbb{E} X$.

Exercises

1. Let U be uniformly distributed over $[0, 1]$, let X_n be the n th digit of U . Show that X_1, X_2, \dots are independent. For each q find the probability $\mathbb{P}(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j = q)$.
2. Let Y_1, Y_2, \dots be independent, exponentially distributed random variables with $\mathbb{E} Y_i = 1$. Show that $\mathbb{P}(Y_n > \log n \text{ i.o.}) = 1$.
3. Show that condition (i) in the three series theorem is necessary for convergence of the series.
4. Let X_1, X_2, \dots be arbitrary random variables. Prove that if $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |X_j| < \infty$ then the series $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} X_j$ converges absolutely with probability one. Hint: use Chebyshev's inequality to estimate probabilities.
5. Let μ be a normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(m, \sigma^2)$, and ν the exponential distribution with parameter β . Argue that $\mu \gg \nu$ and find the Radon-Nikodym derivative $d\nu/d\mu$.
6. Let $A_{i,j}$ be a system of disjoint events, with $\cup_{i,j} A_{i,j} = \Omega$. Let $A_i = \cup_j A_{i,j}$. Let \mathcal{G}_2 be generated by all $A_{i,j}$'s, and let \mathcal{G}_1 be generated by A_i 's. Describe as precise as you can the random variables $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}_1], \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}_2]$. Assuming $\mathbb{P}(A_{i,j}) > 0$, prove the tower property in this example.

Literature

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