

§1.5 Expected values.

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a prob. space. Recall that a random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is a measurable function $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, i.e.

$$X^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F} \quad \text{for each Borel set } A \subset \mathbb{R}.$$

Let $EX = \int X \, dP$ and we call it the expectation of X .

Notice that EX is well-defined if

$$\int X^+ \, dP < \infty \quad \text{or} \quad \int X^- \, dP < \infty,$$

where $X^+ = \max\{0, X\}$, $X^- = \max\{0, -X\}$.

According to the properties of integration, we have.

Prop 1.6. Let $X, Y \geq 0$, or $E|X|, E|Y| < \infty$, then

- $E(X+Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$
- $E(aX+b) = aE(X) + b$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $EX \geq EY$ if $X \geq Y$.

Prop 1.7 (i) (Jensen Inequality) Suppose $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex. Then

$$E(\varphi(X)) \geq \varphi(EX)$$

if $E|X|$ and $E(|\varphi(X)|) < \infty$.

(ii) Hölder inequality

$$E|XY| \leq \|X\|_p \|Y\|_q, \quad \text{where } p, q > 1 \\ \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

$$\text{Here } \|X\|_p = \int |X|^p dP$$

(iii) (Chebyshev's inequality)

Suppose $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$. Then for each Borel $A \subset \mathbb{R}$,

$$\inf \{ \varphi(y) : y \in A \} \cdot P\{X \in A\} \\ \leq \int_{\{X \in A\}} \varphi(X) dP$$

In particular for each $a > 0$,

$$a^2 P\{|X| \geq a\} \leq EX^2.$$

Prop 1.8 (Fatou's lemma) If $X_n \geq 0$, then

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} EX_n \geq E(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n).$$

(Monotone convergence Thm) If $0 \leq X_n \uparrow X$,
then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} EX_n = EX$$

(Dominated Convergence Thm) If $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.e.,

$|X_n| \leq Y$, $EY < \infty$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} EX_n = EX.$$

Thm 1.9 (Change of variables formula).

Let X be a random element in (T, \mathcal{G}) with distribution μ , that is,

$$\mu(A) = P\{X \in A\}, \quad A \in \mathcal{G}.$$

Let $f: (T, \mathcal{G}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \beta(\mathbb{R}))$ be measurable such that

$f \geq 0$ or $E(|f(X)|) < \infty$. Then

$$E f(X) = \int_T f(y) d\mu(y).$$

Pf. Case 1. $f = \mathbb{1}_A$, where $A \in \mathcal{F}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } E f(X) &= \int \mathbb{1}_A(X(\omega)) dP(\omega) \\ &= \int \mathbb{1}_{X^{-1}(A)}(\omega) dP(\omega) \\ &= P(X^{-1}(A)) = P(X \in A) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \mathbb{1}_A(y) d\mu(y) &= \mu(A) = P(X \in A) \\ &= E f(X). \end{aligned}$$

Case 2. $f = \sum_{i=1}^k d_i \mathbb{1}_{A_i}$

By the linearity of integration,

$$\begin{aligned} E f(X) &= \sum_{i=1}^k d_i E(\mathbb{1}_{A_i}(X)) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k d_i \int \mathbb{1}_{A_i} d\mu \quad (\text{by Case 1}) \\ &= \int \sum_{i=1}^k d_i \mathbb{1}_{A_i} d\mu \\ &= \int f d\mu. \end{aligned}$$

Case 3. $f \geq 0$.

Take a sequence of non-negative simple functions (f_n)

such that $f_n \uparrow f$. By the Monotone Convergence Thm

$$\begin{aligned} E f(X) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E f_n(X) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \quad (\text{by Case 3}) \\ &= \int f d\mu. \end{aligned}$$

Case 4. Write $f = f^+ - f^-$.

Then $E f^+(X) < \infty$, $E f^-(X) < \infty$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } E f(X) &= E f^+(X) - E f^-(X) \\ &= \int f^+ d\mu - \int f^- d\mu \\ &= \int f d\mu. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence of the above thm, we can compute the expected value of functions of R.V.'s by taking integrations on the real line.

Example: Let X have an exponential distribution with parameter 1. That is, X has a density

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Notice that

$$d\mu(x) = e^{-x} dx \quad \text{for } x > 0,$$

where μ is the distribution of X .

Hence by Thm 1.9.

$$\begin{aligned} EX^k &= \int_0^{\infty} x^k \cdot f(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} x^k e^{-x} dx \\ &= k! \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= EX^2 - (EX)^2 \\ &= 2 - 1^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Example. Let X have a Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$, i.e.

$$P\{X = k\} = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

Let μ be the distribution of X . Then

$$\mu = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \delta_{\{k\}}$$

→ Dirac measure
at k

$$\begin{aligned}
EX^2 &= \int x^2 d\mu(x) \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (k-1) e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \\
&\quad + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \\
&= \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-2)!} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \\
&= \lambda^2 + \lambda.
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
EX &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \\
&= \lambda.
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Var}(X) &= EX^2 - (EX)^2 \\
&= (\lambda^2 + \lambda) - \lambda^2 = \lambda.
\end{aligned}$$

§ 1.6 Product measures and Fubini Thm.

- Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ_1) and (Y, \mathcal{B}, μ_2) be two σ -finite measure spaces.
- Consider the product space $(X \times Y, \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B})$, where $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ is the σ -algebra generated by the collection $\mathcal{G} := \{A \times B : A \in \mathcal{A}, B \in \mathcal{B}\}$.

Each element in \mathcal{G} is called a rectangle.

- There is a unique measure μ on $(X \times Y, \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B})$ such that $\mu(A \times B) = \mu_1(A) \mu_2(B)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}, B \in \mathcal{B}$.

The measure μ is often denoted as $\mu_1 \times \mu_2$.

Thm (Fubini Thm). Let $f: X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ -measurable.

Suppose $f \geq 0$, or $\int |f| d\mu < \infty$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_Y \int_X f(x, y) d\mu_1(x) d\mu_2(y) &= \int_{X \times Y} f d\mu \\ &= \int_X \int_Y f(x, y) d\mu_2(y) d\mu_1(x). \end{aligned}$$

Chap 2. Law of large numbers.

§ 2.1 Independence.

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a prob. space. Any element $A \in \mathcal{F}$ is called an event.

Def. Two events A, B are called independent if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B).$$

Def. Two r.v.'s X and Y are independent if

$$P\{X \in A, Y \in B\} = P\{X \in A\}P\{Y \in B\} \quad \text{for any } A, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}).$$

i.e. $\{X \in A\}$ and $\{Y \in B\}$ are independent for all $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

Def. Two σ -algebras \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are independent if for all $A \in \mathcal{F}, B \in \mathcal{G}$, the events A and B are independent.

Remark: • Two r.v.'s X and Y are independent
 $\Leftrightarrow \sigma(X)$ and $\sigma(Y)$ are independent.

$$\text{Recall that } \sigma(X) = \{X^{-1}(A) : A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\}.$$

• Two events A, B are independent
 $\Leftrightarrow \mathbb{1}_A$ and $\mathbb{1}_B$ are independent.

Def. • σ -algebras $\mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_n$ are independent if

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \quad \text{for all } A_i \in \mathcal{F}_i, i=1, 2, \dots, n.$$

• r.v.'s X_1, \dots, X_n are independent if

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n X_i^{-1}(A_i)\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n P\{X_i \in A_i\} \quad \text{for all } A_i \in \beta(\mathbb{R}), i=1, \dots, n.$$

• Events A_1, \dots, A_n are independent if for any $I \subset \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in I} P(A_i).$$

Equivalently, A_1, \dots, A_n are independent if

$$\mathbb{1}_{A_1}, \dots, \mathbb{1}_{A_n} \text{ are independent.}$$

Next we give some sufficient conditions for independence.

Def. • Collections of sets $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n \subset \mathcal{F}$ are independent if

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in I} P(A_i) \quad \text{for any } A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i \text{ and } I \subset \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

• Assume $\Omega \in \mathcal{A}_i$ for all $i=1, \dots, n$. Then

$$A_1, \dots, A_n \text{ are independent} \Leftrightarrow P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

for all $A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i, i=1, \dots, n$.

Def. ① A collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of Ω is said to be a π -system if

$$A, B \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{A}.$$

② A collection \mathcal{d} of subsets of Ω is said to be a λ -system if

(i) $\Omega \in \mathcal{d}$; (ii) If $A, B \in \mathcal{d}$, $A \subset B$, then $B \setminus A \in \mathcal{d}$;

(iii) If $A_n \in \mathcal{d}$ and $A_n \uparrow A$, then $A \in \mathcal{d}$.

Thm (Dynkin's π - λ Thm)

Suppose that \mathcal{P} is a π -system and \mathcal{d} is a λ -system such that

$$\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{d}.$$

Then $\sigma(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{d}$.

Pf. Let $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ be the smallest λ -system that contains \mathcal{P} .

We will show that $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ is a σ -algebra. This implies that

$$\sigma(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{d}.$$

We divide the proof of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ being a σ -algebra into several steps.

Step 1: A λ -system that is closed under intersection is a σ -algebra.

check: ① $A \in \mathcal{d}$, $\Omega \in \mathcal{d} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{d}$.

② $A_n \in \mathcal{d}$, $n=1, 2, \dots$
 $\Rightarrow A_n^c \in \mathcal{d}$, and $\bigcap_{k=1}^n A_k^c \in \mathcal{d}$

Moreover $\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k = \left(\bigcap_{k=1}^n A_k^c \right)^c \in \mathcal{L}.$

Since $\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k \uparrow \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \Rightarrow \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k \in \mathcal{L}.$

Step 2: $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ is closed under intersection.

Set $\mathcal{G}_A = \{B : A \cap B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})\}.$ We claim that

• If $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}),$ then \mathcal{G}_A is a λ -system.

To prove this claim, we note that

(1) $\Omega \in \mathcal{G}_A;$

(2) If $B, C \in \mathcal{G}_A, B \subset C,$ then

$$(C \setminus B) \cap A = (C \cap A) \setminus (B \cap A)$$

$$\in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$$

So $C \setminus B \in \mathcal{G}_A.$

(3) If $B_n \in \mathcal{G}_A, B_n \uparrow B,$ then

$$A \cap B_n \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}) \text{ and } A \cap B_n \uparrow A \cap B$$

which implies $A \cap B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}), \Rightarrow B \in \mathcal{G}_A.$

To see that $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ is closed under intersection, notice that \mathcal{P} is a π -system. So

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{If } A \in \mathcal{P}, \text{ then } \mathcal{G}_A \supset \mathcal{P} \\ \text{but } \mathcal{G}_A \text{ is a } \lambda\text{-system} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}_A = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$$

Thus if $A \in \mathcal{P}$ and $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}) \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$.

which implies $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}), B \in \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$.

Hence $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}) \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}_A = \mathcal{P}$
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{G}_A \text{ is a } \lambda\text{-system} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}_A = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$

Hence $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$ is closed under intersection.

□

As an application of Dynkin's π - λ Thm, we have.

Thm 2.1. If $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n$ are independent and each \mathcal{A}_i is a π -system, then $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{A}_1), \dots, \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{A}_n)$ are independent.

PF. We first show that $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{A}_1), \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n$ are independent.

Let $A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i, i=2,3,\dots,n$. Write $F = A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n$.

Set

$$\mathcal{d} = \{ A : P(A \cap F) = P(A)P(F) \}.$$

Then ① \mathcal{d} is a λ -system. (by def of λ -system)

② $\mathcal{d} \supset \mathcal{A}_1$. (by the independence of $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n$)

Since \mathcal{A}_1 is a π -system, so by Dynkin's π - λ Thm, $\mathcal{d} \supset \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{A}_1)$.

This implies that for each $A \in \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{A}_1), A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i, i=2,\dots,n$,

$$P(A \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A) \cdot P\left(\bigcap_{i=2}^n A_i\right) = P(A) \cdot P(A_2) \cdots P(A_n).$$

Hence $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{A}_1), \mathcal{A}_2, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n$ are independent. That is,

$A_2, A_3, \dots, A_n, \sigma(A_1)$ are independent.

Since \mathcal{A}_2 is a π -system, the previous argument

$\Rightarrow \sigma(A_2), A_3, \dots, A_n, \sigma(A_1)$ are independent.

An iterated argument shows that $\sigma(A_1), \dots, \sigma(A_n)$ are independent. \square