

# Probability and Measure

## §1 Measures

### 1.1 Definitions

Definition

Let  $E$  be a set.  
 A  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{E}$  on  $E$  is a set of subsets of  $E$  such that  
 $\emptyset \in \mathcal{E}$   
 $A \in \mathcal{E} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{E}$   
 $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence in  $\mathcal{E} \Rightarrow \bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{E}$

examples

$\mathcal{E} = \{\emptyset, E\}$   
 $\mathcal{E} = 2^E$ , the set of all subsets of  $E$   
 $\mathcal{E} = \{\emptyset, A, A^c, E\}$ , where  $A \subseteq E$

Note

$\mathcal{E}$  is 'closed under countable set operations'  
 $\bigcap_n A_n = (\bigcup_n A_n^c)^c$   
 $A \cup B = A \cup B \cup \emptyset \cup \emptyset \cup \dots$

Definitions

$(E, \mathcal{E})$  is a measurable space  
 Given  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ , each  $A \in \mathcal{E}$  is a measurable set  
 A measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  is a function  $\mu : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  such that  
 $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$   
 $\mu$  is countably additive  
 ie for any sequence  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  of disjoint elements of  $\mathcal{E}$   
 $\mu(\bigcup_n A_n) = \sum_n \mu(A_n)$

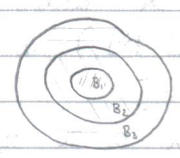
$(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is a measure space

Note

Let  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  be disjoint  
 Then  $\mu(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \mu(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n \cup \emptyset \cup \emptyset \cup \dots)$   
 $= \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i) + \sum \mu(\emptyset)$   
 $= \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(A_i)$

Claim: Suppose  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$ ,  $A \in \mathcal{E}$ , with  $A_n \uparrow A$   
 (ie  $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ ,  $\bigcup_n A_n = A$ )  
 Then  $\mu(A_n) \uparrow \mu(A)$

Proof: Let  $B_1 = A_1$   
 $B_n = A_n \setminus A_{n-1}$ ,  $n \geq 2$   
 Then  $(B_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  are disjoint  
 $B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_n = A_n$   
 $\bigcup_n B_n = A$



$$\begin{aligned} \mu(A_n) &= \mu(\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(B_i) \\ &\uparrow \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_i) \\ &= \mu(\bigcup_n B_n) \\ &= \mu(A) \end{aligned}$$

## 1.2 Discrete measure theory

**Definition** Let  $E$  be a countable set  
 $\mathcal{E}$  the set of all subsets of  $E$   
A mass function is a function  $m: E \rightarrow [0, \infty]$

Consider two enumerations of  $E$

$$E = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$$
$$= \{y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots\}$$

Note that  $\forall n \exists t$  such that  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subseteq \{y_1, \dots, y_t\}$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n m(x_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^t m(y_i)$$

By symmetry,  $\sum_{i=1}^t m(y_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n m(x_i)$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n m(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^t m(y_i)$$

ie  $\sum_x m(x)$  is well-defined

If  $\mu$  is a measure on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$ ,  $A \subseteq E$ ,  
then, by countable additivity,  $\mu(A) = \sum_{x \in A} \mu(\{x\})$

So there is a one-to-one correspondence between measures and mass functions,

$$\text{given by } m(x) = \mu(\{x\})$$

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{x \in A} m(x)$$

## 1.3 Generated $\sigma$ -algebras

**Definition** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set of subsets of  $E$   
The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{A}$   
is  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \{A \subseteq E : A \in \mathcal{E} \ \forall \ \sigma\text{-algebra } \mathcal{E} \text{ containing } \mathcal{A}\}$

$\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{A}$

## 1.4 $\pi$ -systems and $d$ -systems

**Definitions** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set of subsets of  $E$

$\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\pi$ -system if

$$\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$$

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

$\mathcal{A}$  is a  $d$ -system if

$$E \in \mathcal{A}$$

$$A, B \in \mathcal{A} \text{ with } A \subseteq B \Rightarrow B \setminus A \in \mathcal{A}$$

$$(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N}) \text{ is an increasing sequence in } \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{A}$$

If  $\mathcal{A}$  is both a  $\pi$ -system and a  $d$ -system  
then  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra



## Probability and Measure

Lemma 1.4.1 Dynkin's  $\pi$ -system lemmaLet  $\mathcal{A}$  be a  $\pi$ -systemThen any d-system containing  $\mathcal{A}$  also contains the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{A}$ 

Proof

Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be the intersection of all d-systems containing  $\mathcal{A}$ Then  $\mathcal{D}$  is itself a d-system; it is the smallest d-system containing  $\mathcal{A}$ We will show that  $\mathcal{D}$  is also a  $\pi$ -system and hence a  $\sigma$ -algebra,

thus proving the lemma

Consider  $\mathcal{D}' = \{B \in \mathcal{D} : B \cap A \in \mathcal{D} \ \forall A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ Then  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\pi$ -system  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}'$ Also,  $\mathcal{D}'$  is a d-system, since $E \in \mathcal{D}'$ Suppose  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{D}'$  with  $B_1 \subseteq B_2$ , and  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ then  $(B_2 \setminus B_1) \cap A = (B_2 \cap A) \setminus (B_1 \cap A) \in \mathcal{D}$ , since  $\mathcal{D}$  is a d-system $\Rightarrow B_2 \setminus B_1 \in \mathcal{D}'$ Suppose  $(B_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is an increasing sequence in  $\mathcal{D}'$  with  $B_n \uparrow B$ ,  
and  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ then  $B_n \cap A \uparrow B \cap A$ 

$$B \cap A = \left( \bigcup_n B_n \right) \cap A$$

$$= \bigcup_n (B_n \cap A) \in \mathcal{D}$$

 $\Rightarrow B \in \mathcal{D}'$  $\mathcal{D}'$  is a d-system,  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}' \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ ,and  $\mathcal{D}$  is the smallest d-system containing  $\mathcal{A}$  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}'$ Now consider  $\mathcal{D}'' = \{B \in \mathcal{D} : B \cap A \in \mathcal{D} \ \forall A \in \mathcal{D}'\}$ Then  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}' \Rightarrow \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}''$ As before  $\mathcal{D}''$  is a d-system $\Rightarrow \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}''$  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{D}$  is a  $\pi$ -system  $\square$ 

Lecture 2

## 1.5 Set functions and properties

Definitions Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be any set of subsets of  $E$  containing the empty set  $\emptyset$   
A set function is a function  $\mu : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  with  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ Let  $\mu$  be a set function $\mu$  is increasing if  $\forall A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  with  $A \subseteq B$ ,  $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$  $\mu$  is additive if  $\forall$  disjoint sets  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  with  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu(A \cup B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$  $\mu$  is countably additive if  $\forall$  sequences of disjoint sets  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{A}$   
with  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) = \sum_n \mu(A_n)$  $\mu$  is countably subadditive if  $\forall$  sequences  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{A}$   
with  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) \leq \sum_n \mu(A_n)$

## 1.6 Construction of measures

**Definitions** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set of subsets of  $E$

$\mathcal{A}$  is a ring on  $E$  if  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$   
and  $A, B \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow B \setminus A \in \mathcal{A}$   
 $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$

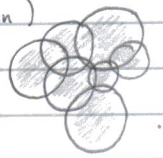
$\mathcal{A}$  is an algebra on  $E$  if  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$   
and  $A, B \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{A}$   
 $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$

**Note**  $A \cap B = (A \cup B) \setminus ((A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A))$   
 $B \setminus A = (A \cup B^c)^c$   
So  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\Rightarrow$  algebra  $\Rightarrow$  ring

**Theorem 1.6.1** Carathéodory's extension theorem

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a ring of subsets of  $E$   
let  $\mu: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  be a countably additive set function  
Then  $\mu$  extends to a measure on the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{A}$

**Proof** For any  $B \subseteq E$ , define the outer measure  $\mu^*(B) = \inf \sum_n \mu(A_n)$   
where the infimum is taken over all sequences  $(A_n: n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{A}$   
such that  $B \subseteq \bigcup_n A_n$  and is taken to be  $\infty$  if there is no such sequence



Note that  $\mu^*$  is increasing  
and  $\mu^*(\emptyset) = 0$

$A \subseteq E$  is  $\mu^*$ -measurable if,  $\forall B \subseteq E$ ,  
 $\mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$

Let  $\mathcal{M} = \{A \subseteq E : A \text{ is } \mu^* \text{-measurable}\}$

We will show that  $\mathcal{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{A}$   
and that  $\mu^*$  restricts to a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ , extending  $\mu$ .  
This will prove the theorem.

**Step 1**  $\mu^*$  is countably subadditive on  $2^E$

Suppose  $(B_n: n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence of subsets of  $E$   
 $B \subseteq \bigcup_n B_n$

It is sufficient to consider the case where  $\mu^*(B_n) < \infty \forall n$   
Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , for each  $n \in \mathbb{N} \exists$  sequences  $(A_{nm}: m \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{A}$   
such that  $B_n \subseteq \bigcup_m A_{nm}$

$$\mu^*(B_n) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^n} \geq \sum_m \mu(A_{nm})$$

$$\text{Now } B \subseteq \bigcup_n B_n \subseteq \bigcup_n \bigcup_m A_{nm}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu^*(B) \leq \sum_n \sum_m \mu(A_{nm}) \leq \sum_n \mu^*(B_n) + \varepsilon$$

$$\varepsilon \text{ was arbitrary } \Rightarrow \mu^*(B) \leq \sum_n \mu^*(B_n)$$



## Probability and Measure

Step 2  $\mu^*$  extends  $\mu$ 

$\mathcal{A}$  is a ring,  $\mu$  is countably additive  $\Rightarrow \mu$  is countably subadditive and increasing

So, for  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and any sequence  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{A}$  with  $A \subseteq \bigcup_n A_n$ ,  
 $A = \bigcup_n (A \cap A_n) \Rightarrow \mu(A) \leq \sum_n \mu(A \cap A_n) \leq \sum_n \mu(A_n)$

Taking the infimum over all such sequences,  $\mu(A) \leq \mu^*(A)$

On the other hand, clearly  $\mu^*(A) \leq \mu(A)$  for  $A \in \mathcal{A}$

$\Rightarrow \mu = \mu^*$  on  $\mathcal{A}$

Step 3  $\mathcal{M}$  contains  $\mathcal{A}$ 

Let  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $B \in E$ .

By subadditivity of  $\mu^*$ ,  $\mu^*(B) \leq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$

To show  $\mu^*(B) \geq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$ , consider the case  $\mu^*(B) < \infty$ .

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a sequence  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{A}$

such that  $B \subseteq \bigcup_n A_n$

$$\mu^*(B) + \varepsilon \geq \sum_n \mu(A_n)$$

Then  $B \cap A \subseteq \bigcup_n (A_n \cap A)$

$A_n \cap A \in \mathcal{A}$

$B \cap A^c \subseteq \bigcup_n (A_n \cap A^c)$

$A_n \cap A^c \in \mathcal{A}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c) &\leq \sum_n \mu(A_n \cap A) + \sum_n \mu(A_n \cap A^c) \\ &= \sum_n (\mu(A_n \cap A) + \mu(A_n \cap A^c)) \\ &= \sum_n \mu(A_n) \quad \mu \text{ is countably additive} \\ &\leq \mu^*(B) + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

$\varepsilon$  was arbitrary  $\Rightarrow \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c) \leq \mu^*(B)$

$\Rightarrow \mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$

$\Rightarrow A \in \mathcal{M}$

Step 4

$\mathcal{M}$  is an algebra

Clearly  $E \in \mathcal{M}$

$A \in \mathcal{M} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{M}$

Suppose  $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $B \in E$ .

Then  $\mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c)$

$$= \mu^*(B \cap A_1 \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1 \cap A_2^c) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c)$$

$$= \mu^*(B \cap A_1 \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)^c \cap A_1)$$

$$(A_1 \cap A_2)^c = A_1^c \cup A_2^c \quad + \mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)^c \cap A_1^c)$$

$$= \mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)) + \mu^*(B \cap (A_1 \cap A_2)^c)$$

$\Rightarrow A_1 \cap A_2 \in \mathcal{M}$

Step 5  $\mathcal{M}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra  
 $\mu^*$  restricts to a measure on  $\mathcal{M}$

$\mathcal{M}$  is an algebra, so it is sufficient to show that for any sequence of disjoint sets  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{M}$ , and for  $A = \bigcup_n A_n$ , we have  $A \in \mathcal{M}$   

$$\mu^*(A) = \sum_n \mu^*(A_n)$$

Take any  $B \in \mathcal{E}$ .

Then 
$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(B) &= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c) \\ &= \mu^*(B \cap A_1) + \mu^*(B \cap A_2) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap A_2^c) \\ &\quad \dots = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^*(B \cap A_i) + \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c) \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \Rightarrow A^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c$   

$$\Rightarrow \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c) \leq \mu^*(B \cap A_1^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c) \quad \forall n$$

Hence, on letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , 
$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(B) &\geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(B \cap A_n) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c) \\ &\geq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c) \end{aligned}$$

Also, by countable subadditivity,  $\mu^*(B) \leq \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B \cap A^c)$

$\Rightarrow A \in \mathcal{M}$

Taking  $B = A \Rightarrow \mu^*(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu^*(A_n) \quad \square$

Lecture 3

1.7 Uniqueness of measures

Theorem 1.7.1 Uniqueness of extension

Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  be measures on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  with  $\mu_1(E) = \mu_2(E) < \infty$   
 Suppose that  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$  on  $\mathcal{A}$ , for some  $\pi$ -system  $\mathcal{A}$  generating  $\mathcal{E}$   $[\mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}]$   
 Then  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$  on  $\mathcal{E}$

Proof

Consider  $\mathcal{D} = \{A \in \mathcal{E} : \mu_1(A) = \mu_2(A)\}$

By the hypothesis,  $E \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$

For  $A, B \in \mathcal{E}$  with  $A \subseteq B$ ,

we have 
$$\begin{aligned} \mu_1(A) + \mu_1(B \setminus A) &= \mu_1(B) < \infty \\ \mu_2(A) + \mu_2(B \setminus A) &= \mu_2(B) < \infty \end{aligned}$$

so if  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$

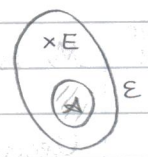
then 
$$\begin{aligned} \mu_1(A) &= \mu_2(A), \quad \mu_1(B) = \mu_2(B) \\ \Rightarrow \mu_1(B \setminus A) &= \mu_2(B \setminus A) \\ \Rightarrow B \setminus A &\in \mathcal{D} \end{aligned}$$

If  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence in  $\mathcal{D}$  with  $A_n \uparrow A$

then 
$$\begin{aligned} \mu_1(A) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_1(A_n) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_2(A_n) \\ &= \mu_2(A) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{D}$  is a  $\lambda$ -system containing the  $\pi$ -system  $\mathcal{A}$

So by Dynkin's lemma,  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{E} \quad \square$



$E = \{\emptyset\}$
$\mathcal{E} = \{\emptyset, E\}$
$\mathcal{A} = \{\emptyset\}$
$\mu_k(\emptyset) = 0$
$\mu_k(\{0, 1\}) = k$
$k = 1, 2$



## Probability and Measure

## 1.8 Borel sets and measures

**Definition** Let  $E$  be a topological space  
The Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $E$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the set of open sets in  $E$

**Notation**  $\mathcal{B}(E)$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $E$   
 $\mathcal{B}$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathbb{R}$

**Definition** A Borel measure on  $E$  is a measure  $\mu$  on  $(E, \mathcal{B}(E))$   
A Radon measure on  $E$  is a Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $E$   
such that  $\mu(K) < \infty \quad \forall$  compact sets  $K$

**example** On  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ ,  $\mu(A) = \text{card}(A)$  is a Borel measure

Consider  $\mathcal{A} = \{A \in \mathcal{B} : \mu(A^c) < \infty\} \cup \{\emptyset\}$

Then  $\mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{A}$

Note that  $\mu = 2\mu$  on  $\mathcal{A}$

So  $\mu_1(E) < \infty$  is a necessary condition in Theorem 1.7.1

1.9 Probability measures, finite and  $\sigma$ -finite measures

**Definitions** Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space  
If  $\mu(E) = 1$  then  $\mu$  is a probability measure  
 $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is a probability space

**Notation**  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  is often used to denote a probability space

**Definitions** If  $\mu(E) < \infty$  then  $\mu$  is a finite measure

If  $\exists$  a sequence of sets  $(E_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{E}$  with  $\mu(E_n) < \infty \quad \forall n$   
and  $\bigcup_n E_n = E$

then  $\mu$  is a  $\sigma$ -finite measure

**example** On  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu(A) = \text{card}(A)$  is a  $\sigma$ -finite measure if  $\mathcal{A}$  is countable

# 1.10 Lebesgue measure

Theorem 1.10.1  $\exists$  a unique Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that,  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a < b$ ,  $\mu((a, b]) = b - a$

Definition The Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}$  is  $\mu((a, b]) = b - a$   
A Lebesgue measure is an example of a Haar measure

Proof Existence  
Consider the ring  $\mathcal{A}$  of finite unions of disjoint intervals of the form  
 $A = (a_1, b_1] \cup \dots \cup (a_n, b_n]$ ,  $a_1 \leq b_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq b_n$

Note that  $\mathcal{A}$  generates  $\mathcal{B}$

Define for  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)$

Note that the presentation of  $A$  is not unique,

as  $(a, b] \cup (b, c] = (a, c]$  whenever  $a < b < c$

Nevertheless,  $\mu$  is well-defined and additive.

We will show that  $\mu$  is countably additive on  $\mathcal{A}$ ,

from which the existence of a Borel measure extending  $\mu$

follows by Carathéodory's extension theorem

By additivity of  $\mu$ , it suffices to show that

if  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , and  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is an increasing sequence in  $\mathcal{A}$  with  $A_n \uparrow A$ ,  
then  $\mu(A_n) \rightarrow \mu(A)$ .

Set  $B_n = A \setminus A_n$

then  $B_n \in \mathcal{A}$ , and  $B_n \downarrow \emptyset$

By additivity again, it suffices to show that  $\mu(B_n) \rightarrow 0$

Suppose that  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ , and a subsequence  $B_{n_j}$  of  $B_n$ , such that  $\mu(B_{n_j}) \geq 2\varepsilon$

For each  $n_j$ ,  $\exists C_{n_j} \in \mathcal{A}$  with  $\overline{C_{n_j}} \subseteq B_{n_j}$

and  $\mu(B_{n_j} \setminus C_{n_j}) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2^j}$

Then  $\mu(B_{n_j} \setminus (C_{n_1} \cap \dots \cap C_{n_j})) \leq \mu((B_{n_1} \setminus C_{n_1}) \cup \dots \cup (B_{n_j} \setminus C_{n_j}))$   
 $\leq \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{\varepsilon}{2^j}$   
 $= \varepsilon$

$\mu(B_{n_j}) \geq 2\varepsilon \Rightarrow \mu(C_{n_1} \cap \dots \cap C_{n_j}) \geq \varepsilon$

$\Rightarrow C_{n_1} \cap \dots \cap C_{n_j} \neq \emptyset$

$\Rightarrow K_j = \overline{C_{n_1} \cap \dots \cap C_{n_j}} \neq \emptyset$

$(K_j : j \in \mathbb{N})$  is a decreasing sequence of bounded non-empty closed sets in  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete

$\Rightarrow \emptyset \neq \bigcap_j K_j \subseteq \bigcap_j B_{n_j} \Rightarrow B_n \downarrow \emptyset$

Lecture 4

Uniqueness

Let  $\lambda$  be any measure on  $\mathcal{B}$  with  $\lambda((a, b]) = b - a \quad \forall a < b$

Fix  $n$  and consider  $\mu_n(A) = \mu((n, n+1] \cap A)$

$\lambda_n(A) = \lambda((n, n+1] \cap A)$

Then  $\mu_n$  and  $\lambda_n$  are probability measures on  $\mathcal{B}$

and  $\mu_n = \lambda_n$  on the  $\pi$ -system of intervals of the form  $(a, b]$  which generates  $\mathcal{B}$ .

So, by Theorem 1.7.1,  $\mu_n = \lambda_n$  on  $\mathcal{B}$ .

Hence,  $\forall A \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $\mu(A) = \sum_n \mu_n(A) = \sum_n \lambda_n(A) = \lambda(A)$   $\square$



## Probability and Measure

Definition A measure  $\mu$  is translation invariant if  $\mu(B+x) = \mu(B)$   
 where  $B+x = \{b+x : b \in B\}$

Let  $\mu$  be a Lebesgue measure

Define  $\mu_x(B) = \mu(B+x)$

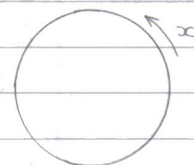
Then  $\mu_x((a, b]) = (b+x) - (a+x)$   
 $= b - a$

$\Rightarrow \mu_x = \mu$

$\Rightarrow$  the Lebesgue measure is translation invariant

Let  $\mu$  be the Lebesgue measure restricted to  $\mathcal{B}((0, 1])$

so  $B+x = \{b+x \pmod{1} : b \in \mathcal{B}((0, 1])\}$   
 $\subseteq (0, 1]$



Then  $\mu$  is, again, a translation invariant

If we inspect the proof of Carathéodory's Extension Theorem, and consider its application in Theorem 1.10.1, we see we have constructed not only a Borel measure  $\mu$  but also an extension of  $\mu$  to the set of outer measurable sets  $\mathcal{M}$ . In this context, the extension is also called Lebesgue measure and  $\mathcal{M}$  is called the Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra. In fact, the Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra can be identified as the set of all sets of the form  $A \cup N$ , where  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $N \subseteq B$  for some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  with  $\mu(B) = 0$ . Moreover  $\mu(A \cup N) = \mu(A)$  in this case.

1.11 Existence of a non-Lebesgue-measurable subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ 

For  $x, y \in [0, 1)$ , write  $x \sim y$  if  $x - y \in \mathbb{Q}$

Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

Using the Axiom of Choice, we can find a subset  $S$  of  $[0, 1)$  containing exactly one representative of each equivalence class.

We will show that  $S$  cannot be Lebesgue measurable.

Set  $Q = \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1)$

For each  $q \in Q$ , define  $S+q = \{s+q \pmod{1} : s \in S\}$

Then the sets  $S+q$  are all disjoint

and  $[0, 1) = \bigcup_{q \in Q} (S+q)$

On the other hand, the Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra and Lebesgue measure on  $(0, 1]$  are translation invariant for addition modulo 1

Hence, if  $S$  is Lebesgue measurable

then so is  $S+q$ , with  $\mu(S+q) = \mu(S)$

But then  $1 = \mu([0, 1))$

$$= \sum_{q \in Q} \mu(S+q)$$

$$= \sum_{q \in Q} \mu(S)$$

$$\mu(S+q) = 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{q \in Q} \mu(S) = 0$$

$$\mu(S+q) > 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{q \in Q} \mu(S) = \infty$$

which is impossible.

Hence  $S$  is not Lebesgue measurable.

## 1.12 Independence

A probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  provides a model for an experiment whose outcome is subject to chance, according to the following interpretation:

$\Omega$  is the set of all possible outcomes

$\mathcal{F}$  is the set of observable sets of outcomes, or events,

$\mathbb{P}(A)$  is the probability of event  $A$

Definition

Let  $I$  be a countable set

A family  $(A_i : i \in I)$  of events is independent

if,  $\forall$  finite subsets  $J \subseteq I$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(\bigcap_{i \in J} A_i) = \prod_{i \in J} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$

Lecture 5

A family  $(\mathcal{A}_i : i \in I)$  of sub- $\sigma$ -algebras of  $\mathcal{F}$  is independent

if the family  $(A_i : i \in I)$  is independent whenever  $A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i \forall i$

Theorem 1.12.1

Let  $\mathcal{A}_1$  and  $\mathcal{A}_2$  be  $\pi$ -systems contained in  $\mathcal{F}$

and suppose that  $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_2) = \mathbb{P}(A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_2)$

whenever  $A_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1$  and  $A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2$

Then  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_1)$  and  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_2)$  are independent.

Proof

Fix  $A_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1$  and define for  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $\mu(A) = \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A)$

$$\nu(A) = \mathbb{P}(A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_2)$$

Then  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are measures which agree on the  $\pi$ -system  $\mathcal{A}_2$

with  $\mu(\Omega) = \nu(\Omega)$

$$= \mathbb{P}(A_1)$$

$$< \infty$$

So, by uniqueness of extension,  $\forall A_2 \in \sigma(\mathcal{A}_2)$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_2) = \mu(A_2)$

$$= \nu(A_2)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_2)$$

Now fix  $A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2$  and define for  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $\mu'(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap A_2)$

$$\nu'(A) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(A_2)$$

As before,  $\forall A_1 \in \sigma(\mathcal{A}_1)$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_2) = \mathbb{P}(A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_2)$   $\square$

## 1.13 Borel-Cantelli Lemmas

Let  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of events.

Then  $\limsup A_n = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m$

$$\liminf A_n = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m$$

Notation

$\limsup A_n$  can be written  $\{A_n \text{ infinitely often}\}$  or  $A_n \text{ i.o.}$

because  $\omega \in \limsup A_n \Leftrightarrow \omega \in A_n$  for infinitely many  $A_n$

$\liminf A_n$  can be written  $\{A_n \text{ eventually}\}$  or  $A_n \text{ ev.}$



## Probability and Measure

Lemma 1.13.1 First Borel - Cantelli Lemma

If  $\sum_n P(A_n) < \infty$  then  $P(A_n \text{ happens infinitely often}) = 0$ 

Proof

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(A_n \text{ happens infinitely often}) &= P\left(\bigcap_n \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m\right) \\
 &\leq P\left(\bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m\right) \\
 &\leq \sum_{m \geq n} P(A_m) \\
 &\rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

Remark This argument is valid whether or not  $P$  is a probability measure.

Lemma 1.13.2 Second Borel - Cantelli Lemma

Let  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be independentIf  $\sum_n P(A_n) = \infty$  then  $P(A_n \text{ happens infinitely often}) = 1$ 

Proof

The events  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  are independent $\Rightarrow$  the events  $(A_n^c : n \in \mathbb{N})$  are independent $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P\left(\bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m^c\right) \leq P\left(\bigcap_{m=n}^N A_m^c\right)$ 

$$= \prod_{m=n}^N (1 - P(A_m))$$

$$\leq e^{-\sum_{m=n}^N P(A_m)}$$

$$\rightarrow 0$$

as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ 

$$1 - a \leq e^{-a}$$

$$\Rightarrow P\left(\bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m^c\right) = 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$P(A_n \text{ happens infinitely often}) = 1 - P\left(\bigcap_n \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m\right)^c$$

$$= 1 - P\left(\bigcup_n \bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m^c\right)$$

$$= 1 \quad \square$$

Remark Without independence the result is false

eg  $A_n = A \quad \forall n$ where  $P(A) \in (0, 1)$

## § 2 Measurable Functions and Random Variables

### 2.1 Measurable Functions

Definitions The inverse image of  $A$  by  $f$  is  $f^{-1}(A) = \{x \in E : f(x) \in A\}$

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and  $(G, \mathcal{G})$  be measurable spaces

A function  $f : E \rightarrow G$  is measurable if  $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{E}$  whenever  $A \in \mathcal{G}$

If  $(G, \mathcal{G}) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$

then  $f$  is a measurable function on  $E$

If  $(G, \mathcal{G}) = ([0, \infty], \mathcal{B}([0, \infty]))$

then  $f$  is a non-negative measurable function on  $E$

This terminology is convenient, but it has the consequence that some non-negative measurable functions are not (real-valued) measurable functions.

If  $E$  is a topological space,  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{B}(E)$

$(G, \mathcal{G}) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$

then  $f$  is a Borel function

For any function  $f : E \rightarrow G$ , the inverse image preserves set operations

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_i A_i\right) &= \{x \in E : f(x) \in A_i \text{ for some } i\} \\ &= \bigcup_i f^{-1}(A_i) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(G \setminus A) &= \{x \in E : f(x) \in G, f(x) \notin A\} \\ &= f^{-1}(G) \setminus f^{-1}(A) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the set  $\{f^{-1}(A) : A \in \mathcal{G}\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $E$

and  $\{A \in \mathcal{G} : f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{E}\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $G$

In particular, if  $\mathcal{G} = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$  and  $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{E}$  whenever  $A \in \mathcal{A}$

then  $\{A : f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{E}\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{A}$  and hence  $\mathcal{G}$   
 $\Rightarrow f$  is measurable

Proposition Suppose  $f : E \rightarrow G$

and  $\mathcal{A}$  is some collection of subsets of  $G$

Then  $\sigma(f^{-1}(\mathcal{G})) = f^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{G}))$

Suppose  $f : (E, \mathcal{E}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$

Then  $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\{(-\infty, y] : y \in \mathbb{R}\})$

so  $f$  is Borel measurable  $\Leftrightarrow f^{-1}((-\infty, x]) \in \mathcal{E} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

where  $f^{-1}((-\infty, x]) = \{t \in E : f(t) \leq x\}$



# Probability and Measure

Let  $E$  be a topological space  
 $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function  
 Then the open sets  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  generate  $\mathcal{B}$   
 and  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R} \Rightarrow f^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $E$   
 Hence any continuous function is measurable

**Definition** For  $A \subseteq E$ , the indicator function  $1_A$  of  $A$  is the function  $1_A: E \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$   

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

**Alternative Notations**  
 $1_A$   
 $\chi_A$   
 'characteristic function of  $A$ '

**Note** The indicator function of any measurable set is a measurable function

Given any family of functions  $f_i: E \rightarrow G$ ,  $i \in I$ ,  
 we can make them all measurable by taking  $\mathcal{E} = \sigma(f_i^{-1}(A) : A \in \mathcal{G}, i \in I)$   
 Then  $\mathcal{E}$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $(f_i : i \in I)$

**Note** The composition of measurable functions is measurable

**Proposition 2.1.1** Let  $(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of non-negative measurable functions on  $E$ .  
 Then the following functions are measurable

$$f_1 + f_2$$

$$f_1 f_2$$

$$\inf_n f_n$$

$$\sup_n f_n$$

$$\liminf_n f_n$$

$$\limsup_n f_n$$

The same conclusion holds for real-valued measurable functions  
 provided the limit functions are also real-valued

Lecture 6

**Theorem 2.1.2 Monotone Class Theorem**

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  be a measurable space  
 let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a  $\pi$ -system generating  $\mathcal{E}$   
 Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a vector space of bounded measurable functions  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  
 i.  $1 \in \mathcal{V}$  and  $1_A \in \mathcal{V} \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$   
 ii. if  $f_n \in \mathcal{V} \forall n$  and  $f$  is bounded with  $0 \leq f_n \uparrow f$   
 then  $f \in \mathcal{V}$   
 Then  $\mathcal{V}$  contains every bounded measurable function

Proof

Consider  $\mathcal{D} = \{A \in \mathcal{E} : 1_A \in \mathcal{V}\}$

Clearly  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$

$\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\mathcal{d}$ -system:

$$A, B \in \mathcal{D} \text{ with } A \subseteq B \Rightarrow 1_A, 1_B \in \mathcal{V}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1_{A \setminus B} = 1_A - 1_B \in \mathcal{V} \quad (\mathcal{V} \text{ is a vector space})$$

$$\Rightarrow A \setminus B \in \mathcal{D}$$

$$A_n \in \mathcal{D}, A_n \uparrow A \Rightarrow 0 \leq 1_{A_n} \uparrow 1_A \leq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 1_A \in \mathcal{V} \quad (\text{by ii})$$

$$\Rightarrow A \in \mathcal{D}$$

$\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\pi$ -system, so by Dynkin's Lemma,  $\mathcal{D} \supseteq \sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{E}$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{E}$$

Since  $\mathcal{V}$  is a vector space, it contains all finite linear combinations of indicator functions of measurable sets.

If  $f$  is a bounded and non-negative measurable function, then the functions  $f_n = 2^{-n} \lfloor 2^n f \rfloor$  are a finite linear combination of indicators of sets in  $\mathcal{E}$ , so belong to  $\mathcal{V}$ .

$$\text{and } |f(x) - f_n(x)| \leq 2^{-n} \quad \forall x \Rightarrow 0 \leq f_n \uparrow f \Rightarrow f \in \mathcal{V}$$

Finally, if  $f$  is any bounded, measurable function

$$\text{then } f^+ = \max\{f, 0\}$$

$$f^- = \max\{-f, 0\}$$

are bounded, non-negative measurable functions

$$\Rightarrow f^+, f^- \in \mathcal{V}$$

$$f = f^+ - f^-$$

$$\Rightarrow f \in \mathcal{V} \quad \square$$

Remark

$$f_n = \sum_{j=0}^{2^n} \frac{j}{2^n} 1_{A_{nj}}$$

$$\text{where } A_{nj} = \{x \in E : \frac{j}{2^n} < f(x) \leq \frac{j+1}{2^n}\} = f^{-1}((\frac{j}{2^n}, \frac{j+1}{2^n}]), \text{ which is in } \mathcal{E}$$

## 2.2 Image measures

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  and  $(G, \mathcal{G})$  be measurable spaces

let  $\mu$  be a measure on  $\mathcal{E}$

Then any measurable function  $f: E \rightarrow G$  induces an image measure  $\nu = \mu \circ f^{-1}$  on  $\mathcal{G}$ , given by

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

where  $A \in \mathcal{G}$

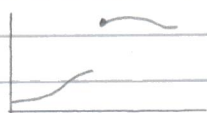
$f^{-1}$  is the pre-image

We shall construct some new measures from Lebesgue measure in this way.

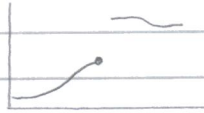
Definition

$f$  is right continuous at  $a$  if

$$\text{given } \varepsilon, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } a < x < a + \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon$$



right-continuous



left-continuous



## Probability and Measure

**Lemma 2.2.1** Let  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be non-constant, right-continuous and non-decreasing.

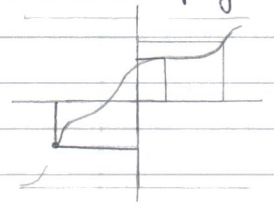
Set  $g(\pm\infty) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} g(x)$   
 $I = (g(-\infty), g(\infty))$

Define  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

by  $f(x) = \inf \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq g(y) \}$  ( $f$  is the generalised inverse of  $g$ )

Then  $f$  is left-continuous and non-decreasing.

Moreover, for  $x \in I$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  
 $f(x) \leq y \iff x \leq g(y)$



**Proof** Fix  $x \in I$  and consider the set  $J_x = \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq g(y) \}$

Note that  $J_x \neq \emptyset$ ,  $J_x \neq \mathbb{R}$

Since  $g$  is non-decreasing, if  $y \in J_x$  and  $y' \geq y$   
 then  $y' \in J_x$

Since  $g$  is right-continuous, if  $y_n \in J_x$  and  $y_n \downarrow y$   
 then  $x \leq g(y_n) \forall n \Rightarrow x \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(y_n) = g(y)$   
 $\Rightarrow y \in J_x$

Hence since  $g$  is non-constant, and  $x \in J_x$ ,  $J_x = [\inf J_x, \infty)$   
 $= [f(x), \infty)$

so  $x \leq g(y) \iff f(x) \leq y$

$f$  is non-decreasing:  $x \leq x' \Rightarrow J_x \supseteq J_{x'} \Rightarrow f(x) \leq f(x')$

$f$  is left-continuous:  $x_n \uparrow x \Rightarrow J_x = \bigcap_n J_{x_n} \Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$  □

**Theorem 2.2.2** Let  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be non-constant, right-continuous and non-decreasing.  
 Then  $\exists$  a unique Radon measure  $dg$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that,  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a < b$ ,  
 $dg((a, b]) = g(b) - g(a)$

Moreover, we obtain in this way all non-zero Radon measures on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

The measure  $dg$  is called the Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure associated with distribution function  $g$ .

**Proof** Set  $g(\pm\infty) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} g(x)$   
 $I = (g(-\infty), g(\infty))$

Define  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

by  $f(x) = \inf \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq g(y) \}$

Let  $\mu$  be the Lebesgue measure on  $I$

Then  $f^{-1}((a, b]) = \{ x \in I : a < f(x) \leq b \}$   
 $= (g(a), g(b)]$

which is a Lebesgue measurable subset of  $I = (g(-\infty), g(\infty))$

so  $f$  is Borel measurable

and the induced measure  $dg = \mu \circ f^{-1}$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} dg((a, b]) &= \mu(\{ x : f(x) > a \text{ and } f(x) \leq b \}) \\ &= \mu((g(a), g(b)]) \\ &= g(b) - g(a) \end{aligned}$$

The argument used for uniqueness of Lebesgue measure shows that there is at most one Borel measure with this property.

Finally, if  $\nu$  is any Radon measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

define  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} \nu((0, y]) & \text{if } y \geq 0 \\ -\nu((y, 0]) & \text{if } y < 0 \end{cases}$$

then  $g$  is right-continuous and non-decreasing  
and  $\nu((a, b]) = g(b) - g(a)$  whenever  $a < b$   
so  $\nu = dg$  by uniqueness  $\square$

Lecture 7

## 2.3 Random variables

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space

let  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  be a measurable space

A measurable function  $X: \Omega \rightarrow E$  is a random variable in  $E$   
or an  $E$ -valued random variable

It has the interpretation of a quantity, or state, determined by chance.  
where no space  $E$  is mentioned, it is assumed that  $X$  takes values in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

The image measure  $\mu_X = \mathbb{P} \circ X^{-1}$  is the law or distribution of  $X$   
 $\mu_X(A) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A\})$   
 $= \mathbb{P}(X \in A)$

For real-valued random variables,  $\mu_X$  is uniquely determined by its values on the  $\pi$ -system of intervals  $((-\infty, x] : x \in \mathbb{R})$ , given by

$$F_X(x) = \mu_X((-\infty, x]) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$$

$F_X$  is the distribution function of  $X$

A distribution function is a function  $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$

such that  $F$  is increasing and right-continuous

$$\text{with } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$$

Let  $\Omega = (0, 1)$

$\mathcal{F}$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\Omega$ ;  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}((0, 1))$

$\mathbb{P}$  is the restriction of Lebesgue measure on  $\mathcal{F}$

Then  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  is a probability space

Let  $F$  be any distribution function

Define  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{by } X(\omega) = \inf \{x : \omega \leq F(x)\}$$

Then, by Lemma 2.2.1,  $X$  is a random variable and  $X(\omega) \leq x \Leftrightarrow \omega \leq F(x)$   
 $\omega \in \Omega, x \in \mathbb{R}$



## Probability and Measure

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } F_X(x) &= \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq x\}) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) \\ &= \mathbb{P}((0, F(x)]]) \\ &= F(x) \end{aligned}$$

$X$  is a random variable on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  with distribution function  $F$ .  
Thus every distribution function is the distribution function of a random variable.

A countable family of random variables  $(X_i : i \in I)$

is independent if the family of  $\sigma$ -algebras  $(\sigma(X_i) : i \in I)$  is independent

$$\sigma(X_i) = \{ \{X_i \in A\} : A \in \mathcal{E}_i \}$$

so each family of events  $(\{X_i \in A\} : i \in I)$  is independent  
where  $A_i \in \mathcal{E}_i$ .

For a sequence  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  of real-valued random variables,  
this is equivalent to the condition

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1, \dots, X_n \leq x_n) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1) \dots \mathbb{P}(X_n \leq x_n) \quad \forall x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n$$

A sequence of random variables  $(X_n : n \geq 0)$  is often regarded as a process evolving in time.

The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $X_0, \dots, X_n$

$$\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_0, \dots, X_n)$$

contains those events depending (measurably) on  $X_0, \dots, X_n$   
and represents what is known about the process by time  $n$ .

### 2.4 Rademacher functions

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be the probability space such that

$$\Omega = (0, 1)$$

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}((0, 1))$$

$\mathbb{P}$  is the restriction of Lebesgue measure to  $\mathcal{F}$

Provided that we forbid infinite sequences of 0's, each  $\omega \in \Omega$  has a unique binary expansion  
binary expansion  $\omega = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \omega_k 2^{-k}$  (eg  $0.01111\dots = 0.10000\dots$ )

Define the Rademacher functions as random variables  $R_n : \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

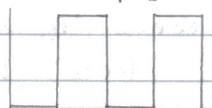
$$R_n(\omega) = \omega_n$$

$(R_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence of  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued random variables on  $\Omega$

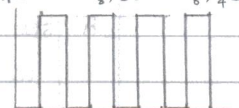
Then  $R_1 = 1_{(\frac{1}{2}, 1]}$



$$R_2 = 1_{(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}]} + 1_{(\frac{3}{4}, 1]}$$



$$R_3 = 1_{(\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{4}]} + 1_{(\frac{3}{8}, \frac{1}{2}]} + 1_{(\frac{5}{8}, \frac{3}{4}]} + 1_{(\frac{7}{8}, 1]}$$



etc

The random variables  $R_1, R_2, \dots$  are independent and Bernoulli

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ie } \mathbb{P}(R_n = 0) &= \mathbb{P}(R_n = 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

The strong law of large numbers (proved in §10) applies here to show that

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \left\{ \omega \in (0,1) : \left| \frac{|\{k \leq n : \omega_k = 1\}|}{n} - \frac{1}{2} \right| \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \right\} \right) = \mathbb{P} \left( \frac{R_1 + \dots + R_n}{n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \right) = 1$$

This is called Borel's normal number theorem:

almost every point in  $(0,1)$  is normal,

ie has 'equal' proportions of 0's and 1's in its binary expansion.

We now use a trick involving the Rademacher functions to construct on  $\Omega = (0,1)$ , not just one random variable,

but an infinite sequence of independent random variables with given distribution functions

**Proposition 2.4.1** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be the probability space of Lebesgue measure on the Borel subsets of  $(0,1)$ .

Let  $(F_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of distribution functions.

Then  $\exists$  a sequence  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  of independent random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  such that  $X_n$  has distribution function  $F_{X_n} = F_n \quad \forall n$

**Proof** Choose a bijection  $m : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

and set  $Y_{k,n} = R_{m(k,n)}$ , where  $R_m$  is the  $m^{\text{th}}$  Rademacher function.

Set  $Y_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} Y_{k,n}$

Then  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots$  are independent and,  $\forall n$ , for  $\frac{i}{2^k} = 0 \cdot y_1 \dots y_k$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \frac{i}{2^k} < Y_n \leq \frac{i+1}{2^k} \right) = \mathbb{P} (Y_{1,n} = y_1, \dots, Y_{k,n} = y_k) = \frac{1}{2^k}$$

so  $\mathbb{P}(Y_n \leq x) = x \quad \forall x \in [0,1]$

Set  $G_n(y) = \inf \{ x : y \leq F_n(x) \}$

then, by Lemma 2.2.1,  $G_n$  is Borel and  $G_n(y) \leq x \Leftrightarrow y \leq F_n(x)$

So, if we set  $X_n = G_n(Y_n)$

then  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are independent random variables on  $\Omega$

and  $F_{X_n}(x) = \mathbb{P}(X_n \leq x)$

$$= \mathbb{P}(G_n(Y_n) \leq x)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(Y_n \leq F_n(x))$$

$$= F_n(x) \quad \square$$

Lecture 8

## 2.5 Convergence of measurable functions and random variables

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space

A set  $A \in \mathcal{E}$  is sometimes defined by a property shared by its elements

ie  $A = \{ x \in E : P(x) \text{ holds} \}$ , where  $P$  is a property

A property holds almost everywhere (or a.e.) if  $\mu(A^c) = 0$

A property holds almost surely (or a.s.) if  $\mu(A^c) = 0$

and  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is a probability space ie  $\mu(E) = 1$



## Probability and Measure

For a sequence of measurable functions  $(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$ ,  $f$  a measurable function,  $f_n$  converges to  $f$  almost everywhere if  $\mu(\{x \in E : f_n(x) \not\rightarrow f(x)\}) = 0$   
(or almost surely if  $\mu(E) = 1$ )

$f_n$  converges to  $f$  in measure (or in probability if  $\mu(E) = 1$ ) if  $\mu(\{x \in E : |f_n(x) - f(x)| > \varepsilon\}) \rightarrow 0$   
 $\forall \varepsilon > 0$

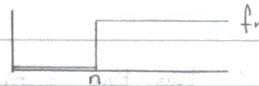
For a sequence of (real-valued) random variables  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$   
 $X_n$  converges to  $X$  in distribution if  $F_{X_n}(x) \rightarrow F_X(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$   
at all points  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  where  $F_X$  is continuous.  
Note that this does not require the random variables to be defined on the same probability space

examples 1.  $E = \mathbb{R}$

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > n \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = 0$$

$f_n \rightarrow f$  almost everywhere



2.  $E = (0, 1)$

$$f(x) = 0$$

$f_n \rightarrow f$  in measure

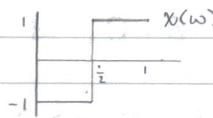


3.  $E = (0, 1)$

$$X_n(\omega) = (-1)^n X(\omega)$$

$$X(\omega) = X(\omega)$$

$X_n \rightarrow X$  in distribution



Theorem 2.5.1 Let  $(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of measurable functions

i. Suppose  $\mu(E) < \infty$

if  $f_n \rightarrow f$  almost everywhere, then  $f_n \rightarrow f$  in measure

ii. If  $f_n \rightarrow f$  in measure, then  $f_{n_k} \rightarrow f$  almost everywhere for some subsequence  $(n_k)$

Proof Reduce to  $f_n - f$

i. Suppose  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  almost everywhere, and  $\mu(E) < \infty$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Given } \varepsilon > 0, \mu(|f_n| \leq \varepsilon) &\geq \mu(\bigcap_{m \geq n} \{|f_m| \leq \varepsilon\}) \\ &\uparrow \mu(\bigcup_{n \geq m} \{|f_m| \leq \varepsilon\}) \\ &= \mu(|f_n| \leq \varepsilon \text{ eventually}) \\ &\geq \mu(f_n \rightarrow 0) \\ &= \mu(E) \end{aligned}$$

$$\mu(|f_n| > \varepsilon) + \mu(|f_n| \leq \varepsilon) = \mu(E) < \infty$$

$$\mu(|f_n| \leq \varepsilon) \uparrow \mu(E)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu(|f_n| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$$

$f_n \rightarrow 0$  in measure

ii. Suppose  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  in measure

Then  $\exists$  a subsequence  $(n_k)$  such that  $\mu(|f_{n_k}| > \frac{1}{k}) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$   
 $\sum_k \mu(|f_{n_k}| > \frac{1}{k}) \leq \sum_k \frac{1}{k^2} < \infty$

By the first Borel-Cantelli lemma,  $\mu(|f_{n_k}| > \frac{1}{k} \text{ infinitely often}) = 0$   
 $\mu(|f_{n_k}| \not\rightarrow 0) = 0$

$\Rightarrow f_{n_k} \rightarrow 0$  almost everywhere  $\square$

Theorem 2.5.2 Let  $X$  and  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be real-valued random variables

i. If  $X$  and  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  are defined on the same probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  and  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in probability

then  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in distribution

ii. If  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in distribution

then  $\exists$  random variables  $\tilde{X}$  and  $(\tilde{X}_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  defined on a common probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

such that  $\tilde{X}$  has the same distribution as  $X$  ie  $\mu_{\tilde{X}} = \mu_X$

$\tilde{X}_n$  has the same distribution as  $X_n \forall n$   $\mu_{\tilde{X}_n} = \mu_{X_n}$

and  $X_n \rightarrow \tilde{X}$  almost surely

Proof Let  $S$  be the subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  where  $F_X$  is continuous

i. Suppose  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in probability

Given  $x \in S$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $F_X(x - \delta) \geq F_X(x) - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$   
 and  $F_X(x + \delta) \leq F_X(x) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Then  $\exists N$  such that,  $\forall n \geq N$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \delta) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

$\Rightarrow F_{X_n}(x) \leq \mathbb{P}(X \leq x + \delta) + \mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \delta)$   
 $\leq F_X(x) + \varepsilon$

and  $F_{X_n}(x) \geq \mathbb{P}(X \leq x - \delta) - \mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \delta)$   
 $\geq F_X(x) - \varepsilon$

$\varepsilon$  was arbitrary  $\Rightarrow F_{X_n}(x) \rightarrow F_X(x)$

ii. Suppose  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in distribution

Take the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

where  $\Omega = (0, 1)$

$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}((0, 1))$

$\mathbb{P}$  is the Lebesgue measure

For  $w \in (0, 1)$ , define  $\tilde{X}_n(w) = \inf \{x \in \mathbb{R} : w \leq F_{X_n}(x)\}$   $w \leq F_X(x) \Leftrightarrow \tilde{X}(w) \leq x$

$\tilde{X}(w) = \inf \{x \in \mathbb{R} : w \leq F_X(x)\}$

Then  $\tilde{X}$  has the same distribution as  $X$  ie  $\mu_{\tilde{X}} = \mu_X$

$\tilde{X}_n$  has the same distribution as  $X_n \forall n$   $\mu_{\tilde{X}_n} = \mu_{X_n}$

Let  $\Omega_0$  be the subset of  $(0, 1)$  where  $\tilde{X}$  is continuous

$\tilde{X}$  is non-decreasing  $\Rightarrow (0, 1) \setminus \Omega_0$  is countable

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(\Omega_0) = 1$

$F_X$  is non-decreasing  $\Rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus S$  is countable

$\Rightarrow S$  is dense



### Probability and Measure

Given  $\omega \in \Omega_0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  
 $\exists x^-, x^+ \in S$  with  $x^- < \tilde{X}(\omega) < x^+$   
 and  $x^+ - x^- < \varepsilon$   
 and, by right-continuity,  $\exists \omega^+ \in (\omega, 1)$  such that  $\tilde{X}(\omega^+) \leq x^+$   
 Then  $F_x(x^-) < \omega < \omega^+ \leq F_x(x^+)$   
 So  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq N \Rightarrow F_{x_n}(x^-) < \omega \leq F_{x_n}(x^+)$   
 $\Rightarrow x^- < \tilde{X}_n(\omega) \leq x^+$   
 $\Rightarrow |\tilde{X}_n(\omega) - \tilde{X}(\omega)| < \varepsilon \quad \square$

### 2.6 Tail events

Let  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of random variables  
 Define  $\mathcal{I}_n = \sigma(X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$   
 $\mathcal{I} = \bigcap_n \mathcal{I}_n$

Then  $\mathcal{I}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, the tail  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$   
 $\mathcal{I}$  contains the events which depend only on the limiting behaviour of the sequence.

### Theorem 2.6.1 Kolmogorov's zero-one law

Suppose  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence of random variables in  $\mathbb{R}$   
 Then the tail  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{I}$  of  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is trivial  
 i.e.  $P(A) \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{I}$   
 Moreover, if  $X$  is a  $\mathcal{I}$ -measurable random variable  
 then  $X = c$  almost surely for some constant  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

Proof

Set  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$   
 $\mathcal{F}_\infty = \sigma((X_n : n \in \mathbb{N}))$

Consider  $A = \{X_1 \leq x_1, \dots, X_n \leq x_n\}$  where  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$   
 $B = \{X_{n+1} \leq x_{n+1}, \dots, X_{n+m} \leq x_{n+m}\}$   $x_{n+1}, \dots, x_{n+m} \in \mathbb{R}, m \in \mathbb{N}$

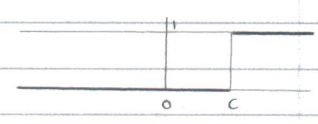
Then  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) \quad \forall$  such  $A$  and  $B$ , by independence

Now the set of such  $A$  is a  $\pi$ -system generating  $\mathcal{F}_n$   
 and the set of such  $B$  is a  $\pi$ -system generating  $\mathcal{I}_n$   
 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}_n$  and  $\mathcal{I}_n$  are independent (by Theorem 1.12.1)

But  $\bigcup_n \mathcal{F}_n$  is a  $\pi$ -system generating  $\mathcal{F}_\infty$   
 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}_\infty$  and  $\mathcal{I}$  are independent (by Theorem 1.12.1 again)

So for  $A \in \mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_\infty, P(A) = P(A \cap A)$   
 $= P(A)P(A)$   
 $\Rightarrow P(A) \in \{0, 1\}$

If  $X$  is a  $\mathcal{I}$ -measurable random variable  
 then  $F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) \in \{0, 1\}$   
 $\Rightarrow P(X = c) = 1$



$X = c$  almost surely  
 where  $c = \inf \{x \in \mathbb{R} : F_X(x) = 1\} \quad \square$

## 2.7 Large values in sequences of independent identically distributed random variables

Let  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of (real) independent identically distributed random variables each with distribution function  $F_x$ .

Suppose  $F_x(x) < 1 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

Then, almost surely, the sequence  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is unbounded above  
so  $\limsup_n X_n = \infty$

A way to describe the occurrence of large values in a sequence is to find a function  $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$

such that, almost surely,  $\limsup_n \left( \frac{X_n}{g(n)} \right) = 1$

example

Suppose  $X_n \sim \exp(1)$

$$\text{i.e. } P(X_n \geq x) = e^{-x}$$

Fix  $\alpha > 0$  and consider the independent events  $A_n = \{X_n \geq \alpha \log n\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } P(A_n) &= P(X_n \geq \alpha \log n) \\ &= e^{-\alpha \log n} \\ &= n^{-\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

so the series  $\sum_n P(A_n)$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow \alpha > 1$

By Borel-Cantelli,  $P(A_n \text{ happens infinitely often}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \alpha \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } \alpha > 1 \end{cases}$

$$P(A_n \text{ happens infinitely often}) = 1 \text{ if } \alpha \leq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \limsup_n \left( \frac{X_n}{\log n} \right) \geq 1 \text{ almost surely}$$

$$P(A_n \text{ happens infinitely often}) = 0 \text{ if } \alpha > 1$$

$$\Rightarrow P\left( \frac{X_n}{\log n} \geq 1 + \varepsilon \text{ infinitely often} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall m, \frac{X_n}{\log n} \leq 1 + \frac{1}{m} \text{ eventually almost surely}$$

$$\Rightarrow \limsup_n \left( \frac{X_n}{\log n} \right) \leq 1 \text{ almost surely}$$

$$\text{Hence } \limsup_n \left( \frac{X_n}{\log n} \right) = 1 \text{ almost surely}$$



# Probability and Measure

## § 3 Integration

### 3.1 Definition of the integral and basic properties

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space.

We shall define for non-negative measurable functions on  $E$ , and (under a natural condition) for (real-valued) measurable functions  $f$  on  $E$ , the integral of  $f$ .

Notation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{The integral of } f \text{ is } \mu(f) &= \int_E f \, d\mu \\ &= \int_E f(x) \mu(dx) \end{aligned}$$

When  $(E, \mathcal{E}) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  and  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue measure,  

$$\mu(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \, dx$$

For  $I \in \{(a, b), (a, b], [a, b), [a, b]\}$ ,

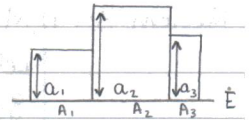
$$\begin{aligned} \int_I f(x) \, dx &= \int_{(a, b)} f(x) \, dx &&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f \cdot \mathbb{1}_I(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_a^b f(x) \, dx &&\text{Note that the sets } \{a\}, \{b\} \\ &&&\text{have measure } 0. \end{aligned}$$

For a random variable  $X$  on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , the integral is the expectation of  $X$ , written  $\mathbb{E}(X)$

Definition

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space

A simple function  $f$  is a function of the form  $f = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k}$  where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a_k \in [0, \infty)$ ,  $A_k \in \mathcal{E} \quad \forall k$



For a simple function  $f$ , 
$$\mu(f) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mu(A_k)$$

Convention

$$0 \cdot \infty = 0$$

The representation of  $f$  is not unique, but  $\mu(f)$  is well-defined

For simple functions  $f, g$  and constants  $\alpha, \beta \in [0, \infty)$ ,

i. 
$$\mu(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha \mu(f) + \beta \mu(g)$$

ii. 
$$f \leq g \Rightarrow \mu(f) \leq \mu(g)$$

iii. 
$$\mu(f) = 0 \Leftrightarrow f = 0 \text{ almost everywhere}$$

Definition

For a non-negative measurable function  $f : E \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ ,

$$\mu(f) = \sup \{ \mu(g) : g \text{ is simple, } g \leq f \}$$

Note

By ii, this is consistent with the definition for simple functions

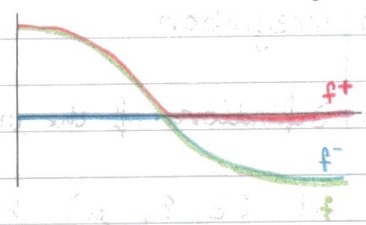
Property ii holds for non-negative measurable functions

Notation

$$a \vee b = \max \{a, b\}$$

$$a \wedge b = \min \{a, b\}$$

**Definition** An integrable function is a measurable function  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mu(|f|) < \infty$ .  
 Let  $f^+(x) = \max \{ f(x), 0 \}$   
 $f^-(x) = \max \{ -f(x), 0 \}$   
 Then  $f = f^+ - f^-$   
 $|f| = f^+ + f^-$   
 $\mu(f) = \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-)$



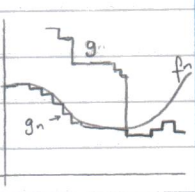
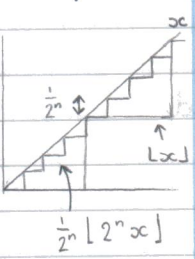
**Note**  $f$  is measurable  $\Rightarrow f^+, f^-, |f|$  are also measurable  
 Also  $f^\pm \leq |f| \Rightarrow \mu(f^\pm) \leq \mu(|f|) < \infty$   
 so  $f$  is integrable  $\Rightarrow f^+, f^-$  are also integrable  
 $|\mu(f)| \leq \mu(f^+) + \mu(f^-)$   
 $= \mu(|f|)$

**Convention** When  $f$  is not integrable, but one of  $\mu(f^+)$  or  $\mu(f^-)$  is finite, we sometimes still define  $\mu(f) = \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-)$   
 In such cases the integral takes the value  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$

**Notation** Let  $x \in [0, \infty]$ ,  $(x_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence in  $[0, \infty]$   
 Then  $x_n \uparrow x$  means  $x_n \leq x_{n+1} \forall n$ , and  $x_n \rightarrow x$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$   
 Let  $f, (f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be non-negative measurable functions on  $E$   
 Then  $f_n \uparrow f$  means  $f_n(x) \uparrow f(x) \forall x \in E$

**Theorem 3.1.1** Monotone convergence  
 Let  $f, (f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be non-negative measurable functions  
 Suppose  $f_n \uparrow f$   
 Then  $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$

**Proof** Set  $M = \sup_n \mu(f_n)$   
 We know that  $\mu(f_n) \leq \mu(f_{n+1}) \uparrow M \leq \mu(f)$   
 $= \sup \{ \mu(g) : g \text{ is simple, } g \leq f \}$   
 so it is sufficient to show that  $\mu(g) \leq M \forall$  simple functions  $g \leq f$   
 Let  $g = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k}$  be a simple function,  $g \leq f$   
 wlog  $a_k > 0 \forall k$   
 and the sets  $A_k \in \mathcal{E}$  are all disjoint



Set  $g_n(x) = \min \{ \frac{1}{2^n} \lfloor 2^n f_n(x) \rfloor, g(x) \}$   
 Then  $g_n$  is simple and  $g_n \leq f_n \forall n$   
 Fix  $0 < \epsilon < 1$  and consider the measurable sets  $A_k(n) = \{ \mathbb{1}_{A_k} g_n \geq (1-\epsilon) a_k \}$   
 Now  $g_n \uparrow g \Rightarrow A_k(n) \uparrow A_k$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu(A_k(n)) \uparrow \mu(A_k)$  by countable additivity

Note  $\mathbb{1}_{A_k} \cdot g_n \geq (1-\epsilon) a_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k(n)}$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu(\mathbb{1}_{A_k} \cdot g_n) \geq (1-\epsilon) a_k \mu(A_k(n))$   $g_n$  is simple  
 Then, since  $g_n$  is simple,  $M \geq \mu(f_n)$

$$\begin{aligned} &\geq \mu(g_n) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m \mu(\mathbb{1}_{A_k} g_n) & g_n &= \sum_{k=1}^m \mathbb{1}_{A_k} g_n \\ &\geq (1-\epsilon) \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mu(A_k(n)) \\ &\uparrow (1-\epsilon) \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mu(A_k) & \text{as } n &\rightarrow \infty \\ &= (1-\epsilon) \mu(g) \end{aligned}$$

$\epsilon$  was arbitrary  $\rightarrow M \geq \mu(g)$  □



### Probability and Measure

Theorem 3.1.2 For non-negative measurable functions  $f, g$ , and constants  $\alpha, \beta \in [0, \infty)$ ,

- i.  $\mu(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha \mu(f) + \beta \mu(g)$
- ii.  $f \geq g \Rightarrow \mu(f) \leq \mu(g)$
- iii.  $\mu(f) = 0 \Leftrightarrow f = 0$  almost everywhere

Proof Set  $f_n = \min \{ \frac{1}{2^n} \lfloor 2^n f \rfloor, n \}$   
 $g_n = \min \{ \frac{1}{2^n} \lfloor 2^n g \rfloor, n \}$

Then  $f_n \uparrow f, g_n \uparrow g, \alpha f_n + \beta g_n \uparrow \alpha f + \beta g$

So by monotone convergence,  $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$   
 $\mu(g_n) \uparrow \mu(g)$   
 $\mu(\alpha f_n + \beta g_n) \uparrow \mu(\alpha f + \beta g)$

i.  $\mu(\alpha f_n + \beta g_n) = \alpha \mu(f_n) + \beta \mu(g_n) \uparrow \alpha \mu(f) + \beta \mu(g)$

ii. Clear from the definition of the integral

iii.  $\mu(f) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mu(f_n) = 0 \quad \forall n$   
 $f_n = 0$  almost everywhere  $\forall n$   
 $f = 0$  almost everywhere  $\forall n$   
 $f = 0$  almost everywhere  $\square$

Lecture 10

Theorem 3.1.3 For integrable functions  $f, g$ , and constants  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

- i.  $\mu(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha \mu(f) + \beta \mu(g)$
- ii.  $f \leq g \Rightarrow \mu(f) \leq \mu(g)$
- iii.  $f = 0$  almost everywhere  $\Rightarrow \mu(f) = 0$

Proof i. Note that  $(-f)^+ = f^-$ ,  $(-f)^- = f^+$   
 so  $-f$  is integrable, with  $\mu(-f) = -\mu(f)$

For  $\alpha \geq 0$ ,  $(\alpha f)^+ = \alpha f^+$ ,  $(\alpha f)^- = \alpha f^-$

so  $\alpha f$  is integrable, with  $\mu(\alpha f) = \mu(\alpha f^+) - \mu(\alpha f^-)$   
 $= \alpha \mu(f^+) - \alpha \mu(f^-)$   
 $= \alpha \mu(f)$

Set  $h = f + g$

Then  $h$  is measurable, and  $|h| \leq |f| + |g| \Rightarrow \mu(|h|) \leq \mu(|f|) + \mu(|g|) < \infty$   
 $\Rightarrow h$  is integrable

Note that  $h^+ - h^- = f^+ - f^- + g^+ - g^-$   
 $\Rightarrow h^+ + f^- + g^- = h^- + f^+ + g^+$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu(h^+) + \mu(f^-) + \mu(g^-) = \mu(h^-) + \mu(f^+) + \mu(g^+)$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu(h) = \mu(f) + \mu(g)$

ii.  $f \leq g \Rightarrow g - f \geq 0$   
 $\mu(g) - \mu(f) = \mu(g - f) \geq 0$  by i

iii.  $f = 0$  almost everywhere  $\Rightarrow f^+, f^- = 0$  almost everywhere  
 $\Rightarrow \mu(f^+), \mu(f^-) = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu(f) = 0 \quad \square$

Note We lost the reverse implication in iii

Proposition 3.1.4 Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a  $\pi$ -system containing  $E$  and generating  $\mathcal{E}$ .  
If  $f$  is an integrable function and  $\int_A f d\mu = 0 \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$   
then  $f = 0$  almost everywhere

Some minor variations of the monotone convergence theorem

Proposition 3.1.5 Let  $(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of non-negative measurable functions  
 $f$  a non-negative measurable function such that  $f_n \uparrow f$  almost everywhere  
Then  $\int f_n d\mu \uparrow \int f d\mu$

Proposition 3.1.6 Let  $(g_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of non-negative measurable functions  
Then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int g_n d\mu = \int \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g_n d\mu$   
This is just monotone convergence with  $f_n = g_1 + \dots + g_n$

Monotone convergence is the counterpart for the integration of functions to the countable additivity property of the measure on sets

### 3.2 Integrals and limits

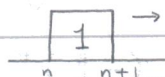
Lemma 3.2.1 Fatou's Lemma

Let  $(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of non-negative measurable functions  
Then  $\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu$

example

$$f_n = \mathbb{1}_{[n, n+1]}$$

Then  $\int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\mu = 0$   
 $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu = 1$



Proof

$$\text{Set } g_n = \inf_{m \geq n} f_m$$
$$g = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n$$

$$\text{Then } g_n \leq f_m \quad \forall m \geq n$$
$$\Rightarrow \int g_n d\mu \leq \int f_m d\mu$$

Also  $g_n \uparrow g$ , so by monotone convergence  $\int g_n d\mu \uparrow \int g d\mu$

$$\text{Hence } \int \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu \quad \square$$

Theorem 3.2.2 Dominated Convergence

Let  $f$  be a measurable function (real-valued)

$(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of measurable functions (real-valued)

Suppose  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty \quad \forall x \in E$

and  $\exists$  an integrable function  $g$  such that  $|f_n| \leq g \quad \forall n$

Then  $f, f_n$  are integrable

and  $\int f_n d\mu \rightarrow \int f d\mu$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$



### Probability and Measure

Proof

$f, f_n$  are measurable  
and  $|f|, |f_n| \leq g \Rightarrow \mu(|f|), \mu(|f_n|) \leq \mu(g) < \infty$   
 $\Rightarrow f, f_n$  are integrable

Note that  $0 \leq g \pm f_n \rightarrow g \pm f$   
so  $\liminf (g \pm f_n) = g \pm f$

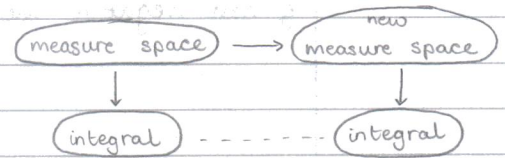
Now  $\mu(g) + \mu(f) = \mu(g + f)$   
 $= \mu(\liminf (g + f_n))$   
 $\leq \liminf \mu(g + f_n)$  by Fatou's Lemma  
 $= \liminf (\mu(g) + \mu(f_n))$   
 $= \mu(g) + \liminf \mu(f_n)$   
 $\mu(g) < \infty \Rightarrow \mu(f) \leq \liminf \mu(f_n)$

Similarly  $\mu(g) - \mu(f) = \mu(g - f)$   
 $= \mu(\liminf (g - f_n))$   
 $\leq \liminf \mu(g - f_n)$  by Fatou's Lemma  
 $= \mu(g) - \limsup \mu(f_n)$   $\inf(-a_n) = -\sup(a_n)$

$\mu(g) < \infty \Rightarrow \mu(f) \geq \limsup \mu(f_n)$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu(f) \leq \liminf \mu(f_n) \leq \limsup \mu(f_n) \leq \mu(f)$

Hence  $\mu(f_n) \rightarrow \mu(f)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$   $\square$

### 3.3 Transformation of Integrals



Proposition 3.3: Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space

fix  $A \in \mathcal{E}$

Set  $\mathcal{E}_A = \{B \in \mathcal{E} : B \subseteq A\}$ , the set of measurable subsets of  $A$  (this is a  $\sigma$ -algebra)

$\mu_A(B) = \mu(B)$  for  $B \in \mathcal{E}_A$ , the restriction of  $\mu$  to  $\mathcal{E}_A$  (this is a measure)

Then  $(A, \mathcal{E}_A, \mu_A)$  is a measure space

Moreover, given a non-negative measurable function  $f$  on  $E$ ,

$f|_A$  is a  $\mathcal{E}_A$ -measurable function on  $A$

and we obtain all non-negative measurable functions in this way.

$\mu(f|_A) = \mu_A(f|_A)$

Lecture 11

Proposition 3.3:2 Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space

$(G, \mathcal{G})$  be a measurable space

$f: E \rightarrow G$  be a measurable function

Define an image measure on  $(G, \mathcal{G})$  by  $\nu = \mu \circ f^{-1}$

Then  $\forall$  non-negative measurable functions  $g$  on  $G$ ,  $\nu(g) = \mu(g \circ f)$

In particular, for a  $G$ -valued random variable  $X$  on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ ,

for any non-negative measurable function  $g$  on  $G$ ,

$E(g(X)) = \mu_X(g)$

Proposition 3.3.3 Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space

let  $f$  be a non-negative measurable function on  $E$

Define  $\nu(A) = \mu(f \mathbb{1}_A)$ ,  $A \in \mathcal{E}$

Then  $\nu$  is a measure on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$

and,  $\forall$  non-negative measurable functions  $g$  on  $E$ ,  $\nu(g) = \mu(fg)$

Proof

$$\nu(\emptyset) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } A_n \in \mathcal{E} \text{ disjoint, } \nu\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) &= \mu\left(f \mathbb{1}_{\bigcup_n A_n}\right) \\ &= \mu\left(f \sum_n \mathbb{1}_{A_n}\right) \\ &= \sum_n \mu\left(f \mathbb{1}_{A_n}\right) \\ &= \sum_n \nu(A_n) \end{aligned}$$

$A_n$  are disjoint

by monotone convergence

$\Rightarrow \nu$  is a measure

$$g = \mathbb{1}_A : \nu(g) = \mu(fg) \text{ by definition of } \nu$$

$$\begin{aligned} g = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k} : \nu(g) &= \nu\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k}\right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \nu(\mathbb{1}_{A_k}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \mu(f \mathbb{1}_{A_k}) \\ &= \mu\left(f \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k}\right) \\ &= \mu(fg) \end{aligned}$$

$g$  non-negative measurable : set  $g_n = \min\left\{\frac{1}{2^n} \lfloor 2^n g \rfloor, n\right\}$

Then  $g_n \uparrow g$ ,  $g_n$  is simple  $\forall n$

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(g) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(g_n) \text{ by monotone convergence} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(fg_n) \\ &= \mu(fg) \text{ by monotone convergence. } \square \end{aligned}$$

In particular, to each non-negative Borel function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

there corresponds a Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  given by  $\mu(A) = \int_A f(x) dx$

Then,  $\forall$  non-negative Borel functions  $g$ ,  $\mu(g) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g(x) f(x) dx$   
 $\mu$  has density  $f$  (with respect to Lebesgue measure)

If the law  $\mu_x$  of a real-valued random variable  $X$  has a density  $f_x$ ,  
then  $f_x$  is a density function for  $X$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega &\xrightarrow{X} \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{g} \mathbb{R}^+ \\ \mu_x &= \mathbb{P} \circ X^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \mathbb{P}(X \in A) &= \mu_x(A) \\ &= \int_A f_x(x) dx \\ &= \text{Leb}(f \mathbb{1}_A) \quad \forall \text{ Borel sets } A \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } \mathbb{E}(g(X)) &= \mu_x(g) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) f_x(x) dx \quad \forall \text{ non-negative Borel functions } g \text{ on } \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$



Probability and Measure

3-4 Fundamental theorem of calculus

Theorem 3-4-1 Fundamental theorem of calculus

- i. Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function  
Set  $F_a(t) = \int_a^t f(x) dx$   
Then  $F_a$  is differentiable on  $[a, b]$ , with  $F_a' = f$
- ii. Let  $F: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable with continuous derivative  $f$   
Then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$

Proof

- i. Fix  $t \in [a, b)$ ,  $0 < \delta < b - t$   
Given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $t \leq x \leq t + \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(t)| \leq \epsilon$   
So  $0 < h \leq \delta \Rightarrow \left| \frac{F_a(t+h) - F_a(t)}{h} - f(t) \right| = \frac{1}{h} \left| \int_t^{t+h} f(x) - f(t) dx \right|$   
$$\leq \frac{1}{h} \int_t^{t+h} |f(x) - f(t)| dx$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{h} \cdot \epsilon \int_t^{t+h} dx$$
$$= \epsilon$$

$\Rightarrow F_a$  is differentiable on the right at  $t$  with derivative  $f(t)$   
Similarly  $\forall t \in (a, b]$ ,  $F_a$  is differentiable on the left at  $t$  with derivative  $f(t)$ .  
Hence  $F_a$  is differentiable on  $[a, b]$ , with  $F_a' = f$

- ii.  $F - F_a$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , with  $(F - F_a)' = 0$   
So by the mean value theorem  $F - F_a$  is constant  
 $\Rightarrow F(b) - F(a) = F_a(b) - F_a(a)$   
 $= \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \square$

example

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\infty \mathbb{1}_{[0, n]}(x) e^{-x} dx \quad \text{by monotone convergence}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^n e^{-x} dx$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - e^{-n})$$

$$= 1$$

Proposition 3-4-2 Let  $\phi: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuously differentiable and strictly increasing

Then,  $\forall$  non-negative Borel functions  $g$  on  $[\phi(a), \phi(b)]$ ,  
 $\int_{\phi(a)}^{\phi(b)} g(y) dy = \int_a^b g(\phi(x)) \phi'(x) dx$

Sketch of proof

First, the case where  $g$  is the indicator function of an interval follows from the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

Next, the set of Borel sets  $B$  such that the conclusion holds for  $g = \mathbb{1}_B$  is a  $\sigma$ -system.

By Dynkin's lemma this set must be the whole Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra.

By linearity, the identity extends to simple functions

By monotone convergence, taking  $g_n = \min \{ \frac{1}{2^n} \lfloor 2^n g \rfloor, n \}$ ,

the identity extends to non-negative measurable functions

### 3.5 Differentiation under the integral sign

Theorem 3.5.1 Differentiation under the integral sign

Let  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be an open interval

Suppose  $f: I \times E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfies

i.  $E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$x \mapsto f(x, t)$  is integrable  $\forall t \in I$

ii.  $I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$t \mapsto f(x, t)$  is differentiable  $\forall x \in E$

and  $\exists$  an integrable function  $g$  on  $E$  such that  $\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x) \right| \leq g(x)$

$\forall t \in I, x \in E$

Then the function  $x \mapsto \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)$  is integrable  $\forall t \in I$

Define  $F: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$F(t) = \int_E f(t, x) \mu(dx)$$

Then  $F$  is differentiable, with  $F'(t) = \int_E \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x) \mu(dx)$

Proof

Fix  $t \in I$  and a sequence  $t_n \in I \setminus \{t\}$  with  $t_n \rightarrow t$

$$\text{Set } g_n(x) = \frac{f(t_n, x) - f(t, x)}{t_n - t} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)$$

By the Mean Value Theorem,  $\exists c \in (t_n, t)$  such that

$$f(t_n, x) - f(t, x) = (t_n - t) \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(c, x)$$

$$\Rightarrow |g_n(x)| \leq 2g(x) \quad \forall x$$

and  $g_n(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

So  $x \mapsto \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x)$  is the limit of measurable functions

$\Rightarrow$  it is measurable

$\Rightarrow$  it is integrable

$$\text{Then } \frac{F(t_n) - F(t)}{t_n - t} - \int_E \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, x) \mu(dx) = \int_E g_n(x) \mu(dx)$$

$\rightarrow 0$  by dominated convergence  $\square$

example

$$\hat{f}(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{iux} f(x) dx$$

$$\hat{f}'(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} ix e^{iux} f(x) dx$$

Lecture 12

### 3.6 Product measure and Fubini's theorem

Let  $(E_1, \mathcal{E}_1, \mu_1)$  and  $(E_2, \mathcal{E}_2, \mu_2)$  be finite measure spaces.

The set  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1 \times A_2 : A_1 \in \mathcal{E}_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{E}_2\}$  is a  $\pi$ -system of subsets of  $E = E_1 \times E_2$

Define the product  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_1 \otimes \mathcal{E}_2 = \sigma(\mathcal{A})$

Lemma 3.6.1 Let  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable

Then,  $\forall x_1 \in E_1$ , the function  $E_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is  $\mathcal{E}_2$ -measurable

$$x_2 \mapsto f(x_1, x_2)$$



### Probability and Measure

**Proof** Let  $\mathcal{V} = \{g: E \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid g \text{ is bounded, } \mathcal{E}\text{-measurable, and } \forall x_1 \in E_1, x_2 \mapsto g(x_1, x_2) \text{ is } \mathcal{E}_2\text{-measurable}\}$   
 Then  $\mathcal{V}$  is a vector space  
 $1_n \in \mathcal{V} \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$   
 If  $g_n \in \mathcal{V} \quad \forall n$  and  $0 \leq g_n \uparrow g$  with  $g$  bounded, then  $g \in \mathcal{V}$   
 So by the Monotone Class Theorem,  $\mathcal{V}$  contains all bounded  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable functions.

For an  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function  $h$  that is unbounded,  
 let  $h_n = \min\{h, n\}$

Then  $h_n \in \mathcal{V} \quad \forall n \Rightarrow \forall x_1 \in E_1, x_2 \mapsto h_n(x_1, x_2)$  is  $\mathcal{E}_2$ -measurable and  $h_n \rightarrow h$

Given  $x_1 \in E_1$ , let  $f(x_2) = h(x_1, x_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } f^{-1}(\{h(x_1, x_2)\}) &= \{y \in E_2 : f(y) = h(x_1, x_2)\} \\ &= \{y \in E_2 : f(y) = h_m(x_1, x_2)\} \\ &\quad \text{for } m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ sufficiently large} \\ &= f^{-1}(h_m(x_1, x_2)) \\ &= f_m^{-1}(h_m(x_1, x_2)) \end{aligned}$$

where  $f_m(x_2) = h_m(x_1, x_2)$  is  $\mathcal{E}_2$ -measurable

$\Rightarrow h \in \mathcal{V} \quad \square$

**Lemma 3.6.2** Let  $f$  be an  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function on  $E$

For  $x_1 \in E_1$ , let  $f_1(x_1) = \int_{E_2} f(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)$

If  $f$  is bounded then  $f_1: E_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a bounded  $\mathcal{E}_1$ -measurable function

If  $f$  is non-negative then  $f_1: E_1 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is an  $\mathcal{E}_1$ -measurable function

**Proof** Let  $\mathcal{U} = \{g \mid g_1: E_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$g_1(x_1) = \int_{E_2} g(x_1, x_2) \mu(dx_2)$  is a bounded  $\mathcal{E}_1$ -measurable function}

Then by the Monotone Class Theorem,  $\mathcal{U}$  contains all bounded  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable functions (since  $\mu_2(E_2) < \infty$ )

Let  $\mathcal{V} = \{g \mid g_1: E_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$g_1(x_1) = \int_{E_2} g(x_1, x_2) \mu(dx_2)$  is an  $\mathcal{E}_1$ -measurable function}

Then  $\mathcal{V} \supseteq \mathcal{U} \Rightarrow \mathcal{V}$  contains all bounded  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable functions

For an  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function  $h$  that is unbounded but non-negative,

let  $h_n = \min\{h, n\}$

Then  $h_n \in \mathcal{V} \quad \forall n$

and  $h_n \uparrow h$

$\Rightarrow h \in \mathcal{V} \quad \square$

**Theorem 3.6.3** Product measure

$\exists$  a unique measure  $\mu = \mu_1 \otimes \mu_2$  on  $(E, \mathcal{E})$

such that  $\mu(A_1 \times A_2) = \mu_1(A_1) \mu_2(A_2) \quad \forall A_1 \in \mathcal{E}_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{E}_2$

Proof

Existence

Define  $\mu(A) = \int_{E_1} (\int_{E_2} \mathbb{1}_A(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)) \mu_1(dx_1)$ ,  $A \in \mathcal{E}$

Then  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } A_n \in \mathcal{E}, \text{ disjoint, } \mu\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) &= \int_{E_1} \left(\int_{E_2} \sum_n \mathbb{1}_{A_n}(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)\right) \mu_1(dx_1) \\ &= \sum_n \int_{E_1} \left(\int_{E_2} \mathbb{1}_{A_n}(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)\right) \mu_1(dx_1) \\ &\quad \text{by Monotone Convergence twice} \\ &= \sum_n \mu(A_n) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \mu$  is a measure,  $\mu(A_1 \times A_2) = \mu_1(A_1) \mu_2(A_2)$

Uniqueness

$\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\pi$ -system generating  $\mathcal{E}$

and  $\mu(E) = \mu_1(E_1) \mu_2(E_2) < \infty$

so by uniqueness of extension from  $\pi$ -systems,  $\mu$  is unique  $\square$

Proposition 3.6.4

Let  $\hat{E} = E_2 \times E_1$

$\hat{\mathcal{E}} = \mathcal{E}_2 \otimes \mathcal{E}_1$

$\hat{\mu} = \mu_2 \otimes \mu_1$

Define  $\wedge : E \rightarrow \hat{E}$

$$\wedge(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_1)$$

Then  $\wedge$  is  $\mathcal{E}$  &  $\hat{\mathcal{E}}$ -measurable

$$\text{and } \hat{\mu} = \mu \circ \wedge^{-1}$$

For a function  $f$  on  $E_1 \times E_2$

let  $\hat{f}(x_2, x_1) = f(x_1, x_2)$  be a function on  $E_2 \times E_1$

If  $f$  is a non-negative  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function

then  $\hat{f}$  is a non-negative  $\hat{\mathcal{E}}$ -measurable function

$$\text{and } \hat{\mu}(\hat{f}) = \mu(f)$$

Theorem 3.6.5

Fubini's Theorem

i. Let  $f$  be a non-negative  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable function

$$\text{Then } \mu(f) = \int_{E_1} \left(\int_{E_2} f(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)\right) \mu_1(dx_1) \quad (*)$$

ii. Let  $f$  be a  $\mu$ -integrable function on  $E$

Define  $A_1 = \{x_1 \in E_1 : \int_{E_2} |f(x_1, x_2)| \mu_2(dx_2) < \infty\}$

$$\text{and set } f_1(x_1) = \begin{cases} \int_{E_2} f(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2) & \text{if } x_1 \in A_1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x_1 \notin A_1 \end{cases}$$

Then  $\mu_1(E_1 \setminus A_1) = 0$

and  $f_1$  is  $\mu_1$ -measurable, with  $\mu_1(f_1) = \mu(f)$

Notes

1. By Lemmas 3.6.1 and 3.6.2, the iterated integral in i. is well-defined  $\forall$  bounded or non-negative measurable functions  $f$

2. In combination with Proposition 3.6.4, Fubini's theorem allows us to interchange the order of integration in multiple integrals, whenever the integrand is non-negative or  $\mu$ -integrable

For  $f : E_1 \times E_2 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$

which is  $\mathcal{E}_1 \times \mathcal{E}_2$  measurable,

$$\int_{E_1} \left(\int_{E_2} f(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)\right) \mu_1(dx_1) = (\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2)(f)$$

Proof

i. if  $f = \mathbb{1}_A$  for some  $A \in \mathcal{E}$

then  $(*)$  holds by definition of the product measure  $\mu$

By linearity of the integrals,  $(*)$  extends to simple functions on  $E$ .

For  $f$  non-negative measurable,

$$\text{let } f_n = \min\{2^{-n} \lfloor 2^n f \rfloor, n\}$$



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Then  $f_n$  are simple  $\Rightarrow (*)$  holds for  $f_n$   
and  $f_n \uparrow f$

So by monotone convergence  $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$   
and  $\forall x_1 \in E_1, \int_{E_2} f_n(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2) \uparrow \int_{E_2} f(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \mu(f) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(f_n) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{E_1} \left( \int_{E_2} f_n(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2) \right) \mu_1(dx_1) \\ &= \int_{E_1} \left( \int_{E_2} f(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2) \right) \mu_1(dx_1) \end{aligned}$$

ii. Let  $f$  be a  $\mu$ -integrable function on  $E$   
Consider  $F_1 : E_1 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$

$$F_1(x_1) = \int_{E_2} |f(x_1, x_2)| \mu_2(dx_2)$$

By Lemma 3.6.2,  $F_1$  is  $\mathcal{E}_1$ -measurable

Now  $A_1 = \{x_1 \in E_1 : F_1(x_1) < \infty\}$

so  $A_1$  is an  $\mathcal{E}_1$ -measurable set,  $A_1 \in \mathcal{E}_1$

Also  $\mu_1(F_1) = \mu(|f|)$   
 $< \infty$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_1(A_1^c) = 0$$

$f_1$  is well-defined

Consider  $f_1^{(\pm)}(x_1) = \int_{E_2} f^{\pm}(x_1, x_2) \mu_2(dx_2)$

$$\text{where } f^{\pm} = \max\{\pm f, 0\}$$

(note that in general  $f_1^{(\pm)} \neq f_1^{\pm}$ )

Then  $f_1^{(\pm)}$  are  $\mathcal{E}_1$ -measurable, and  $\mu_1(f_1^{(\pm)}) = \mu(f^{\pm})$  by i.

Now  $f_1 = (f_1^{(+)} - f_1^{(-)}) \mathbb{1}_{A_1} \Rightarrow f_1$  is  $\mu_1$ -integrable

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_1(f_1) &= \mu_1(f_1^{(+)}) - \mu_1(f_1^{(-)}) \\ &= \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-) \\ &= \mu(f) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

The existence of product measure and Fubini's theorem (Theorems 3.6.3, 4, 5) extend to  $\sigma$ -finite measures  $\mu_1, \mu_2$ .

Take  $E_k = \text{disjoint } \bigcup_n E_k^n$ , where  $\mu_k(E_k^n) < \infty$

Set  $\mu_k^n(A) = \mu_k(A \cap E_k^n)$

then  $\mu_k^n$  are finite measures

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_k &= \sum_n \mu_k^n \\ \mu_1 \otimes \mu_2 &= \sum_{n,m} \mu_1^n \otimes \mu_2^m \end{aligned}$$

By a  $\pi$ -system uniqueness argument,

the operation of taking the product of two measure spaces is associative

$$\text{ie } (\mathcal{E}_1 \otimes \mathcal{E}_2) \otimes \mathcal{E}_3 = \mathcal{E}_1 \otimes (\mathcal{E}_2 \otimes \mathcal{E}_3)$$

$$(\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2) \otimes \mu_3 = \mu_1 \otimes (\mu_2 \otimes \mu_3)$$

So by induction we can define  $\mu_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \mu_n$  without specifying order

If  $\mu_k = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}, \text{Leb})$

we get  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n}, \text{Leb}^{\otimes n})$ , the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$

The corresponding integral is written

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) dx$$

example  
using

Let  $X \geq 0$  be a random variable  
Then  $E(X) = \int_0^{\infty} x \mu_x(dx)$   
 $= \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{y \leq x} dy \mu_x(dx)$   
 $= \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{y \leq x} \mu_x(dx) dy$   
 $= \int_0^{\infty} P(X \geq y) dy$

eg

$X \sim E(1)$   
 $P(X \geq y) = e^{-y}$   
 $E(X) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y} dy$   
 $= 1$

### 3.7 Laws of independent random variables

Recall

A family  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is independent if the family of  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\sigma(X_1), \dots, \sigma(X_n)$  is independent

Proposition 3.7.1

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  be a probability space  
Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$   
with values in  $(E_1, \mathcal{E}_1), \dots, (E_n, \mathcal{E}_n)$ , where  $(E_k, \mathcal{E}_k)$  are measure spaces

Set  $E = E_1 \times \dots \times E_n$

$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathcal{E}_n$

Define  $X: \Omega \rightarrow E$

$$X(\omega) = (X_1(\omega), \dots, X_n(\omega))$$

Then  $X$  is  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable (so it's a random variable)

Moreover, the following are equivalent

i.  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent

ii.  $\mu_x = \mu_{x_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mu_{x_n}$

iii.  $\forall$  bounded measurable functions  $f_k$  on  $E_k$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq n$

we have  $E\left(\prod_{k=1}^n f_k(X_k)\right) = \prod_{k=1}^n E(f_k(X_k))$

Proof

Consider the  $\pi$ -system  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1 \times \dots \times A_n : A_k \in \mathcal{E}_k, 1 \leq k \leq n\}$  on  $E$

Then  $X^{-1}(A) = \bigcap_{k=1}^n \{\omega \in \Omega : X_k(\omega) \in A_k\} \in \mathcal{F}$

But  $\mathcal{A}$  generates  $\mathcal{E}$ , so this shows  $X$  is  $\mathcal{E}$ -measurable

i  $\Rightarrow$  ii

Set  $\nu = \mu_{x_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mu_{x_n}$

For  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\nu(A) = \prod_{k=1}^n \mu_{x_k}(A_k)$

$$= \prod_{k=1}^n P(X_k \in A_k)$$

$$= P(X_1 \in A_1, \dots, X_n \in A_n) \quad \text{for } X_1, \dots, X_n \text{ independent}$$

$$= P(X \in A)$$

$$= \mu_x(A)$$

The probability measures  $\nu, \mu_x$  agree on  $\mathcal{A}$

so by uniqueness of extension,  $\nu = \mu_x$



## Probability and Measure

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ii} \Rightarrow \text{iii} \quad \mathbb{E} \left( \prod_{k=1}^n f_k(X_k) \right) &= \mu_X \left( \prod_{k=1}^n f_k(X_k) \right) \\
 &= \mu_{X_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mu_{X_n} \left( \prod_{k=1}^n f_k(X_k) \right) \quad \text{for } \mu_X = \mu_{X_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mu_{X_n} \\
 &= \int_{E_1} \dots \int_{E_n} \prod_{k=1}^n f_k(x_k) \mu_n(dx_n) \dots \mu_1(dx_1) \\
 &= \prod_{k=1}^n \int_{E_k} f_k(x_k) \mu_k(dx_k) \quad \text{by Fubini} \\
 &= \prod_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E} \left( f_k(X_k) \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

iii  $\Rightarrow$  i Take  $f_k = 1_{A_k}$  with  $A_k \in \mathcal{E}_k$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Then } \mathbb{P}(X_1 \in A_1, \dots, X_n \in A_n) &= \mathbb{E}(1_{A_1}(X_1), \dots, 1_{A_n}(X_n)) \\
 &= \mathbb{E} \left( \prod_{k=1}^n 1_{A_k}(X_k) \right) \\
 &= \prod_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}(1_{A_k}(X_k)) \\
 &= \prod_{k=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_k \in A_k) \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

## § 4 Norms and inequalities

4.1  $L^p$ -norms

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space

Definitions For  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , the  $L^p$ -norm of  $f$  is  $\|f\|_p = \left( \int_E |f|^p d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$   
 $= \mu(|f|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

$L^p = L^p(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is the set of measurable functions having finite  $L^p$ -norm  
 $= L^p(\mu)$

The  $L^\infty$ -norm of  $f$  is  $\|f\|_\infty = \inf \{ \lambda \geq 0 : |f| \leq \lambda \text{ almost everywhere} \}$   
 $L^\infty = L^\infty(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is the set of measurable functions having finite  $L^\infty$ -norm

Note  $\|f\|_p \leq \mu(E)^{\frac{1}{p}} \|f\|_\infty \quad \forall 1 \leq p < \infty$

Definition For  $1 \leq p < \infty$  and  $f_n, f \in L^p$   
 $f_n$  converges to  $f$  in  $L^p$  ( $f_n \rightarrow f$  in  $L^p$ ) if  $\|f_n - f\|_p \rightarrow 0$

## 4.2 Chebyshev's inequality

Let  $f$  be a non-negative measurable function  
 $\lambda \geq 0$

Notation  $\{f \geq \lambda\}$  is the set  $\{x \in E : f(x) \geq \lambda\}$

Observe that  $\lambda \mathbb{1}_{\{f \geq \lambda\}} \leq f$   
 so on integrating, we get Chebyshev's inequality  
 $\lambda \mu(\{f \geq \lambda\}) \leq \mu(f)$

So for any measurable function  $g$ ,  
 we can deduce inequalities for  $g$  by choosing some non-negative measurable function  $\phi$  and apply Chebyshev's inequality to  $f = \phi \circ g$

example If  $g \in L^p$ ,  $p < \infty$ , and  $\lambda > 0$   
 then  $\mu(|g| \geq \lambda) = \mu(|g|^p \geq \lambda^p)$   
 $\leq \lambda^{-p} \mu(|g|^p)$   
 $< \infty$

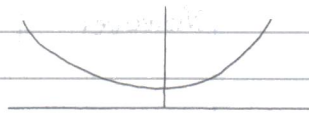
This gives the tail estimate  $\mu(|g| \geq \lambda) = O(\lambda^{-p})$ , as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$

$\{g \geq \lambda\} = \{e^{\alpha g} \geq e^{\alpha \lambda}\}$ ,  $\alpha > 0$



## Probability and Measure

## 4.3 Jensen's inequality



Let  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be an interval

Definition Then a function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is convex  
if  $f(tx + (1-t)y) \leq tf(x) + (1-t)f(y) \quad \forall x, y \in I, t \in (0, 1)$

For  $f \in C^2$ ,  $f$  is convex  $\Leftrightarrow f'' \geq 0$

Lemma 4.3.1 Let  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be convex  
let  $m$  be an interior point of  $I$   
Then  $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $ax + b \leq f(x) \quad \forall x \in I$   
and  $am + b = f(m)$

Proof Given  $x, y \in I$  with  $x < m < y$ , let  $t = \frac{y-m}{y-x}$   
By convexity of  $f$ ,  $f(tx + (1-t)y) \leq tf(x) + (1-t)f(y)$   
 $f(m) \leq \frac{y-m}{y-x}f(x) + \frac{m-x}{y-x}f(y)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{f(m) - f(x)}{m-x} \leq \frac{f(y) - f(m)}{y-m}$$

$$\text{Set } a = \sup_{\substack{x \in I \\ x < m}} \left( \frac{f(m) - f(x)}{m-x} \right)$$

$$b = f(m) - am$$

Then  $f(m) - f(x) \leq a(m-x)$   
 $f(x) \geq ax + b \quad \forall x \leq m$

Similarly  $f(y) \geq ay + b \quad \forall y \geq m \quad \square$

Theorem 4.3.2 Jensen's inequality  
Let  $X$  be an integrable random variables with values in an interval  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$   
let  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function  
Then  $E(f(X))$  is well-defined  
and  $f(E(X)) \leq E(f(X))$

Proof Set  $m = E(X)$   
Then  $m \in I$   
if  $m = \inf I$  then  $X - m \geq 0 \quad \forall X$  and  $E(X - m) = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow X = m$  almost surely  
 $\Rightarrow E(f(X)) = f(m)$   
 $= f(E(X))$

Similarly if  $m = \sup I$  then  $X \leq m$  almost surely

So assume  $m$  is an interior point of  $I$

Choose  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  as in Lemma 4.3.1

Then  $aX + b \leq f(X)$

$$\text{In particular } -f(X) \leq -aX - b$$

$$\Rightarrow f^-(X) \leq |aX - b|$$

$$\Rightarrow E(f^-(X)) \leq |a|E(|X|) + |b|$$

$< \infty$

$\Rightarrow E(f(X))$  is well-defined

Moreover  $f(\mathbb{E}(X)) = f(m)$   
 $= am + b$   
 $= \mathbb{E}(aX + b)$   
 $\leq \mathbb{E}(f(X)) \quad \square$

Monotonicity of  $L^p$ -norms with respect to a probability measure  $\|X\|_{L^p(\mathbb{P})}$

Let  $1 \leq p < q < \infty$

$f(x) = |x|^{\frac{q}{p}}$ , a convex function on  $\mathbb{R}$

Then, for any  $X \in L^p(\mathbb{P})$

$$\begin{aligned} \|X\|_p &= (\mathbb{E}|X|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\ &= (f(\mathbb{E}|X|^p))^{\frac{1}{q}} \\ &\leq (\mathbb{E}(f(|X|^p)))^{\frac{1}{q}} \quad \text{by Jensen's inequality} \\ &= (\mathbb{E}|X|^q)^{\frac{1}{q}} \\ &= \|X\|_q \end{aligned}$$

$\|X\|_{L^q(\mathbb{P})}$  is non-decreasing in  $q \in [1, \infty)$

In particular,  $L^p(\mathbb{P}) \supseteq L^q(\mathbb{P})$

#### 4.4 Hölder's inequality and Minkowski's inequality

Definition  $p, q \in [1, \infty]$  are conjugate indices if  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$

##### Theorem 4.4.1 Hölder's inequality

Let  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  be conjugate indices

let  $f, g$  be measurable functions

Then  $\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$   $\mu(|fg|) \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$

Proof If  $\|f\|_p = 0$  then  $f = 0$  almost everywhere

$$\Rightarrow \|fg\|_1 = 0$$

If  $\|f\|_p = \infty$  and  $\|g\|_q > 0$  then  $\|f\|_p \|g\|_q = \infty$

So assume  $\|f\|_p \in (0, \infty)$

Let  $\hat{f} = \frac{f}{\|f\|_p}$

Define a probability measure  $\mathbb{P}$  on  $\mathcal{E}$  by  $\mathbb{P}(A) = \mu(|\hat{f}|^p \mathbb{1}_A) = \int_A |\hat{f}|^p d\mu$

Note that for a random variable  $X \geq 0$ ,  $\mathbb{E}(X) = \mu(|\hat{f}|^p X)$   
 $\mathbb{E}(|X|) \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^q))^{\frac{1}{q}}$  by Jensen

Hence  $\|\hat{f}g\|_1 = \mu(|\hat{f}g|)$

$$= \mu(|\hat{f}|^p \frac{|g|}{|\hat{f}|^{p-1}} \mathbb{1}_{\{|\hat{f}| > 0\}})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{|g|}{|\hat{f}|^{p-1}} \mathbb{1}_{\{|\hat{f}| > 0\}}\right)$$

$$\leq \left(\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{|g|^q}{|\hat{f}|^{(p-1)q}} \mathbb{1}_{\{|\hat{f}| > 0\}}\right)\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

$$= (\mu(|g|^q))^{1/q} \quad (p-1)q = p$$

$$= \|g\|_q \|\hat{f}\|_p \quad \|\hat{f}\|_p = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \|fg\|_1 = \|f\|_p \|g\|_q \quad \square$$



## Probability and Measure

### Theorem 4.4.2 Minkowski's inequality

Let  $p \in [1, \infty)$

let  $f, g$  be measurable functions

Then  $\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$

Proof

The cases  $\|f + g\|_p = 0$ ,  $\|f\|_p = \infty$ ,  $\|g\|_p = \infty$  are immediate

So suppose  $\|f + g\|_p > 0$ ,  $\|f\|_p < \infty$ ,  $\|g\|_p < \infty$

Then  $|f + g|^p \leq 2^p (|f|^p + |g|^p)$

proof by induction, using  $|f + g| \leq |f| + |g|$  by Cauchy-Schwarz

$\Rightarrow \mu(|f + g|^p) \leq 2^p (\mu(|f|^p) + \mu(|g|^p)) < \infty$

Let  $q$  be the conjugate pair of  $p$ ,  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$

Then  $\mu(|f + g|^p) = \mu(|f + g| |f + g|^{p-1})$

$\leq \mu(|f| |f + g|^{p-1}) + \mu(|g| |f + g|^{p-1})$   $|f + g| \leq |f| + |g|$

$\leq (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) \| |f + g|^{p-1} \|_q$  by Hölder

$= (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) (\mu(|f + g|^{(p-1)q})^{\frac{1}{q}}$

$= (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p) (\mu(|f + g|^p))^{1 - \frac{1}{p}}$

$\Rightarrow (\mu(|f + g|^p))^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p)$   
 $\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p \quad \square$

### 4.5 Approximation in $L^p$

Theorem 4.5.1 Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a  $\pi$ -system <sup>on  $E$</sup>  generating  $\mathcal{E}$

such that  $\mu(A) < \infty \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$

and  $E_n \uparrow E$  for some sequence  $(E_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $\mathcal{A}$

Consider  $V_0 = \{ \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k} : a_k \in \mathbb{R}, A_k \in \mathcal{A}, n \in \mathbb{N} \}$

Let  $p \in [1, \infty)$

Then  $V_0$  is a dense subset of  $L^p$

ie  $V_0 \subseteq L^p$

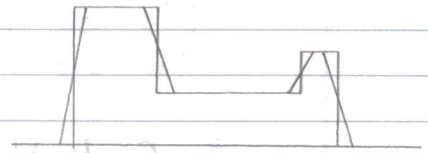
and given  $f \in L^p$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists v \in V_0$  such that  $\|f - v\|_p < \varepsilon$

example  $(\mathbb{R}^n, dx)$

$\mathcal{A} = \{ \prod_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i] : a_i < b_i \}$

So step functions are dense in  $L^p$

so  $C_c(\mathbb{R}^n)$  are dense in  $L^p$



Proof  $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}$ , we have  $\|\mathbb{1}_A\|_p = \mu(A)^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty$

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{1}_A \in L^p$

So  $L^p$  is a vector space  $\Rightarrow V_0 \subseteq L^p$

Let  $V = \{ f \in L^p \mid \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists v \in V_0 \text{ such that } \|f - v\|_p < \epsilon \}$   
 $= \text{Cl}(V_0)$

Suppose  $f, g \in V$ , with  $\|f - u\|_p < \epsilon$

$\|g - v\|_p < \epsilon$

Then  $\|(f+g) - (u+v)\|_p \leq \|f - u\|_p + \|g - v\|_p$   
 $\Rightarrow f+g \in V$  by Minkowski's inequality

$\Rightarrow V$  is a vector space

Consider the case  $E \in \mathcal{A}$

Define  $\mathcal{D} = \{ A \in \mathcal{E} : \mathbb{1}_A \in V \}$   
 $\subseteq \mathcal{E}$

Then  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D} \Rightarrow E \in \mathcal{D}$

For  $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$  with  $A \subseteq B$ ,

$\mathbb{1}_{B \setminus A} = \mathbb{1}_B - \mathbb{1}_A \in V_0 \subseteq V$

$\Rightarrow B \setminus A \in \mathcal{D}$

For  $A_n \in \mathcal{D}$  with  $A_n \uparrow A$

$\|\mathbb{1}_A - \mathbb{1}_{A_n}\|_p = \|\mathbb{1}_{A \setminus A_n}\|_p$

$= \mu(A \setminus A_n)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

$\rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \mathbb{1}_A \in V$

$\Rightarrow A \in \mathcal{D}$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{D}$  is a  $\pi$ -system

So by Dynkin's  $\pi$ -system lemma,  $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{E}$

Then  $A \in \mathcal{E} \Rightarrow \mathbb{1}_A \in V$

So  $V$  is a vector space  $\Rightarrow V$  contains all simple functions

Consider  $f \in L^p$ , with  $f \geq 0$

Let  $f_n = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{2^n}, 2^n f \right\}$ ,  $n \geq 1$

$\uparrow f$

Then  $|f|^p \geq |f - f_n|^p \rightarrow 0$  pointwise

so by dominated convergence  $\|f - f_n\|_p \rightarrow 0$

Let  $g_n$  approximate  $f_n$ ,  $g_n \in V_0$

Then  $\|f - g_n\| \leq \|f - f_n\| + \|f_n - g_n\|$  by Minkowski's inequality  
 $\rightarrow 0$

$\Rightarrow f \in V$

$\Rightarrow L^p \subseteq V$

$\Rightarrow V = L^p$

Now consider the general case, where it may be that  $E \notin \mathcal{A}$

We now know that,  $\forall f \in L^p, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

But  $|f|^p \geq |f - f \mathbb{1}_{E_n}|^p \rightarrow 0$  pointwise,

so by dominated convergence  $\|f - f \mathbb{1}_{E_n}\|_p \rightarrow 0$

$\|f - g_n\| \leq \|f - f \mathbb{1}_{E_n}\| + \|f \mathbb{1}_{E_n} - g_n\|$

$\Rightarrow f \in V$

$\Rightarrow V = L^p$

□



## Probability and Measure

### § 5 Completeness of $L^p$ and orthogonal projection

#### 5.1 $L^p$ as a Banach space

Lecture 16

**Definition** Let  $V$  be a vector space.  
A map  $V \rightarrow [0, \infty)$   
 $v \mapsto \|v\|$  is a norm on  $V$  if

- i.  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\| \quad \forall u, v \in V$  (norm inequality)
- ii.  $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\| \quad \forall v \in V, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
- iii.  $\|v\| = 0 \Rightarrow v = 0$

**Note** By i, if  $\|v_n - v\| \rightarrow 0$  then  $\|v_n\| \rightarrow \|v\|$

$$\|v_n\| \leq \|v\| + \|v_n - v\|$$

$$\|v\| \leq \|v_n\| + \|v - v_n\|$$

**Definition** A symmetric bilinear map  $V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $(u, v) \mapsto \langle u, v \rangle$   
is an inner product on  $V$  if  
 $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$ , with equality  $\Leftrightarrow v = 0$

Given an inner product, there is an associated norm given by  
 $\|v\| = \langle v, v \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$

The norm inequality here follows from Cauchy-Schwarz.

Consider  $V = L^p(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$

By Minkowski's inequality,  $V$  is a vector space  
 $\|f\|_p = \left( \int_E |f|^p d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$  satisfies condition i

Also condition ii holds.

But condition iii may fail, since  $\|f\|_p = 0 \Rightarrow f = 0$  almost everywhere  
(but not necessarily  $f = 0$ )

Define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on  $L^p$

by  $f \sim g$  if  $f = g$  almost everywhere

$[f] = \{g \in L^p : g \sim f\}$ , the equivalence class of  $f$

Set  $L^p = \{[f] : f \in L^p\}$

Define  $\|[f]\|_p = \|f\|_p$  (this is well-defined)

Then  $\|\cdot\|_p$  is a norm on  $L^p$

The  $L^2$ -norm comes from an (almost) inner product  $\|f\|_2^2 = \langle f, f \rangle$   
where  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int f g d\mu$

for  $f, g \in L^2$   
Then  $\langle [f], [g] \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle$  defines an inner product on  $L^2$   
 $\Rightarrow L^2$  is an inner product space

The notion of convergence in  $L^p$  defined in § 4.1  
is the usual notion of convergence in a normed space

**Definition** A normed vector space  $V$  is complete if every Cauchy sequence in  $V$  converges  
 ie given any sequence  $(v_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $V$   
 such that  $\|v_n - v_m\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$   
 $\exists v \in V$  such that  $\|v_n - v\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

A Banach space is a complete normed space  
 A Hilbert space is a complete inner product space

Lecture 15

**Theorem 5.1.1** Completeness of  $L^p$   
 Let  $p \in [1, \infty]$   
 Let  $(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence in  $L^p$   
 such that  $\|f_n - f_m\|_p \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$   
 Then  $\exists f \in L^p$  such that  $\|f_n - f\|_p \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

**Proof** Consider the case  $p < \infty$  (some adaptation is required for  $p = \infty$ )  
 $\exists$  a subsequence  $(n_k)$  such that  $S = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \|f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}\|_p < 1$   
 By Minkowski's inequality,  $\| \sum_{k=1}^M |f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}| \|_p \leq S \leq 1$   
 $\mu(\sum_{k=1}^M |f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}|^p) \leq 1 \quad \forall M \in \mathbb{N}$   
 By monotone convergence  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \|f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}\|_p \leq 1$   
 $\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k}| \leq 1$  almost everywhere  
 $\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |(f_{n_{k+1}} - f_{n_k})(x)| \leq 1$   
 for almost all  $x$

So, by completeness of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $(f_{n_k}(x))_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges for almost all  $x$ .  
 ie  $(f_{n_k})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges almost everywhere

Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_{n_k}(x) & \text{if the limit exists} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Then  $f$  is measurable.

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  
 $m, n \geq N \Rightarrow \mu(|f_n - f_m|^p) < \epsilon$

In particular,  $\exists K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  
 $k \geq K \Rightarrow \mu(|f_n - f_{n_k}|^p) < \epsilon$

Now  $|f_n - f_{n_k}| \rightarrow |f_n - f|$  almost everywhere, as  $k \rightarrow \infty$

So  $\mu(|f - f_n|^p) = \mu(\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \inf |f_n - f_{n_k}|^p)$   
 $\leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \inf \mu(|f_n - f_{n_k}|^p)$  by Fatou's Lemma  
 $\leq \epsilon$

$\Rightarrow \|f - f_n\|_p \leq \epsilon^{1/p}$

$\Rightarrow f \in L^p$

Since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary,  $\|f - f_n\|_p \rightarrow 0$   
 $\Rightarrow f_n \rightarrow f$  in  $L^p$   $\square$

Lecture 16

**Corollary 5.1.2** i.  $L^p$  is a Banach space,  $\forall 1 \leq p < \infty$   
 ii.  $L^2$  is a Hilbert space



Probability and Measure

5.2  $L^2$  as a Hilbert space

Applying some general Hilbert space arguments to  $L^2$

Note

Pythagoras' rule

$$\|f + g\|_2^2 = \|f\|_2^2 + 2\langle f, g \rangle + \|g\|_2^2$$

Parallelogram law

$$\|f + g\|_2^2 + \|f - g\|_2^2 = 2(\|f\|_2^2 + \|g\|_2^2)$$

$f$  and  $g$  are orthogonal if  $\langle f, g \rangle = 0$

Let  $V$  be a subset of  $L^2$ ,  $V \subseteq L^2$

$V$  is closed if, for every sequence  $(f_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  in  $V$

with  $f_n \rightarrow f$  in  $L^2$

ie  $\|f_n - f\| \rightarrow 0$  for some  $f \in L^2$

$\exists v \in V$  with  $v = f$  almost everywhere

(Equivalently,  $\{[v] : v \in V\}$  is closed in  $L^2$ )

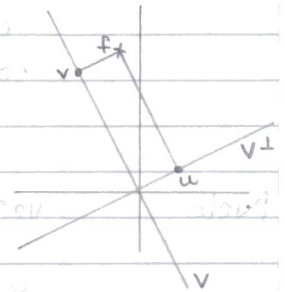
Define  $V^\perp = \{u \in L^2 : \langle u, v \rangle = 0 \ \forall v \in V\}$

Theorem 5.2.1 Orthogonal projection

Let  $V$  be a closed subspace of  $L^2$

Then  $\forall f \in L^2 \exists v \in V, u \in V^\perp$  such that  $f = v + u$

Moreover  $\|f - v\|_2 \leq \|f - g\|_2 \ \forall g \in V$ ,  
with equality  $\Leftrightarrow g = v$  almost everywhere.



The function  $v$  is called (a version of) the orthogonal projection of  $f$  on  $V$ .

Proof  $d(f, V) = \inf_{k \in V} \|f - k\|_2$

By definition of the infimum,  $\exists$  a sequence  $k_n \in V$  such that

$$\|f - k_n\|_2 \rightarrow d(f, V)$$

$$\text{Then } 4d(f, V)^2 \leq 4\left\|f - \frac{k_n + k_m}{2}\right\|_2^2 + \|k_n - k_m\|_2^2$$

$$= \|k_n + k_m - 2f\|_2^2 + \|k_n - k_m\|_2^2$$

$$= 2(\|f - k_n\|_2^2 + \|f - k_m\|_2^2)$$

by the Parallelogram law

$$\rightarrow 4d(f, V)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \|k_n - k_m\|_2^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n, m \rightarrow \infty$$

$L^2$  is complete  $\Rightarrow \exists k \in L^2$  such that  $\|k_n - k\|_2 \rightarrow 0$

$V$  is closed  $\Rightarrow \exists v \in V$  such that  $k = v$  almost everywhere

$$\text{Hence } \|f - v\|_2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f - k_n\|_2$$

$$= \inf_{k \in V} \|f - k\|_2$$

Suppose  $\|f - v\|_2 = \|f - g\|_2$ , some  $g \in V$

$$\text{Let } k_{2n+1} = v$$

$$k_{2n} = g$$

Then  $(k_n)$  converges  $\Rightarrow v = g$  almost everywhere.

Set  $u = f - v$

For any  $h \in V$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} d(f, V)^2 &\leq \|f - (v + th)\|_2^2 \\ &= \|(f - v) - th\|_2^2 \\ &= \|u - th\|_2^2 \\ &= \|u\|_2^2 - 2t \langle u, h \rangle + t^2 \|h\|_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

But  $\|u\|_2^2 = \|f - v\|_2^2 = d(f, V)^2$

Taking  $t$  sufficiently small, so that  $2 \langle u, h \rangle > t \|h\|_2^2$ , we see  $\langle u, h \rangle = 0 \quad \forall h \in V$   
 $\Rightarrow u \in V^\perp \quad \square$

### 5.3 Variance, covariance and conditional expectation

In this section we look at some  $L^2$  notions relevant to probability

Definitions

Consider  $X, Y \in L^2(\mathcal{P})$  with means  $m_x = \mathbb{E}(X)$   
 $m_y = \mathbb{E}(Y)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(X) &= \mathbb{E}[(X - m_x)^2] && \text{variance} \\ \text{cov}(X, Y) &= \mathbb{E}[(X - m_x)(Y - m_y)] && \text{covariance} \\ \text{corr}(X, Y) &= \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(X) \text{var}(Y)}} && \text{correlation} \end{aligned}$$

Note

$\text{var}(X) = 0 \Leftrightarrow X = m_x$  almost surely

$X$  and  $Y$  are independent  $\Rightarrow \text{cov}(X, Y) = 0$

but  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = 0 \not\Rightarrow X$  and  $Y$  are independent

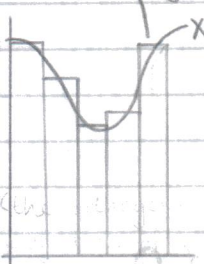
Definition

Let  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be a random variable

Then  $\text{var}(X) = (\text{cov}(X_i, X_j))_{i,j=1}^n$  is the covariance matrix

Proposition 5.3.1  
 $\mathbb{E}(X|G)$

Every covariance matrix is non-negative definite partial average of  $X$



Suppose we are given a countable family of disjoint events  $(G_i : i \in I)$  whose union is  $\Omega$

Set  $G = \sigma(G_i : i \in I)$ , a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$

Let  $X$  be an integrable random variable,  $X \in L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

The conditional expectation of  $X$  given  $G$  is  $\mathbb{E}(X|G) = \sum_i \mathbb{E}(X|G_i) 1_{G_i}$

where  $\mathbb{E}(X|G_i) = \frac{\mathbb{E}(X 1_{G_i})}{\mathbb{P}(G_i)}$  when  $\mathbb{P}(G_i) > 0$

$\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X|G)) = \mathbb{E}(X)$

$\mathbb{E}(X|G_i)$  is defined in some arbitrary way when  $\mathbb{P}(G_i) = 0$

$\mathbb{E}(X|G) \in L^2(\Omega, G, \mathbb{P}) \subseteq L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

$L^2(\Omega, G, \mathbb{P})$  is complete and hence closed

Proposition 5.3.2

If  $X \in L^2$ , then  $\mathbb{E}(X|G)$  is a version of the orthogonal projection of  $X$  on  $L^2(\Omega, G, \mathbb{P})$



Probability and Measure

§6 Convergence in  $L^1(\mathbb{P})$

6.1 Bounded convergence

Theorem 6.1.1 Bounded convergence

Let  $X$  be a random variable,  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  a sequence of random variables  
 Suppose  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in probability  
 ie  $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$   
 and  $|X_n| \leq C$  almost surely  $\forall n$ , for some constant  $C < \infty$   
 Then  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in  $L^1$   
 ie  $\mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|) \rightarrow 0$

Proof

By Theorem 2.5.1 ii,  $\exists$  a subsequence  $(n_k)$  such that  
 $X_{n_k} \rightarrow X$  almost surely

So  $|X| = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |X_{n_k}|$   
 $\leq C$

Note that  $|X_n - X| = \underbrace{|X_n - X|}_{\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n - X| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\}} + \underbrace{|X_n - X|}_{\leq 2C} \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n - X| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\}}$   
 $\mathbb{E}|X_n - X| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + 2C \mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2}) < \frac{\varepsilon}{4C}$   
 $\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|X_n - X| < \varepsilon \quad \square$

6.2 Uniform integrability

Lemma 6.2.1 Let  $X$  be an integrable random variable

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq \delta \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) \leq \varepsilon$

Equivalently

Set  $I_X(\delta) = \sup \{ \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) : A \in \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \delta \}$   
 Then  $I_X(\delta) \downarrow 0$  as  $\delta \downarrow 0$

Proof

Suppose not.

Then  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  and  $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$   
 such that  $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \leq \frac{1}{2^n}$ , but  $\mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{A_n}) \geq \varepsilon, \forall n$

By the first Borel-Cantelli lemma,  $\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ infinitely often}) = 0$

But then  $|X| \geq |X| \mathbb{1}_{A_n} \rightarrow 0$

So by Dominated convergence  $\varepsilon \leq \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{A_n}) \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \square$

Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a family of random variables,  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$

$\mathcal{X}$  is bounded in  $L^p$  if  $\sup_{X \in \mathcal{X}} \|X\|_p < \infty$       $\|X\|_p = (\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p}$

$I_{\mathcal{X}}(\delta) = \sup \{ \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) : X \in \mathcal{X}, A \in \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \delta \}$

$\mathcal{X}$  is bounded in  $L^1 \Leftrightarrow I_{\mathcal{X}}(1) < \infty$

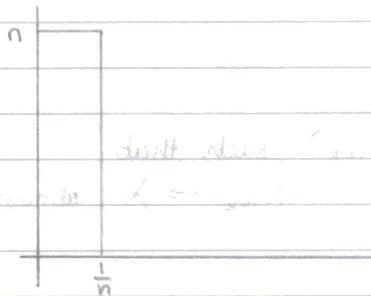
$\mathcal{X}$  is uniformly integrable if  $\mathcal{X}$  is bounded in  $L^1$  and  $I_{\mathcal{X}}(\delta) \downarrow 0$   
 as  $\delta \downarrow 0$

Jensen's inequality  $\Rightarrow \|X\|_p \leq \|X\|_r$  whenever  $\frac{1}{p} \leq \frac{1}{r}$   
 Holder's inequality  $\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) \leq \|X\|_p \mathbb{P}(A)^{\frac{1}{q}}$ , where  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$

So  $L^r$ -bounded  $\Rightarrow L^p$ -bounded  
 $\Rightarrow$  uniformly integrable  $r > p > 1$   
 $\Rightarrow L^1$ -bounded

But  $L^1$ -bounded  $\not\Rightarrow$  uniformly integrable

example



$$X_n = n \mathbb{1}_{(0, \frac{1}{n})}$$

$$\mathbb{E}|X_n| = 1 \quad \forall n$$

but  $\{X_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not uniformly integrable

By Lemma 6.2.1,  $X$  is an integrable random variable (ie  $X \in L^1$ )  
 $\Rightarrow \{X\}$  is uniformly integrable

Similarly  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are integrable random variables  
 $\Rightarrow \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$  is uniformly integrable

Suppose  $Y$  is an integrable random variable (ie  $\mathbb{E}|Y| < \infty$ )

Then  $\mathcal{X} = \{X : X \text{ is a random variable, } |X| \leq Y\}$   
 is uniformly integrable

since  $\mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y \mathbb{1}_A) \quad \forall A$  (compare to dominated convergence)

Lemma 6.2.2 Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a family of random variables  
 Then  $\mathcal{X}$  is uniformly integrable  $\Leftrightarrow \sup_{X \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $K \rightarrow \infty$

Proof  $\Rightarrow$  Suppose  $\mathcal{X}$  is uniformly integrable

By Chebyshev's inequality,  $\mathbb{P}(|X| > K) \leq \frac{1}{K} \mathbb{E}|X| \leq \frac{1}{K} I_{\mathcal{X}}(1)$   $I_{\mathcal{X}}(1) = \sup_{X \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{E}|X|$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that

$$A \in \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \delta \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) \leq \varepsilon \quad \forall X \in \mathcal{X}$$

Take  $K = \frac{I_{\mathcal{X}}(1)}{\delta}$

$$\text{Then } \mathbb{P}(|X| > K) \leq \delta \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K}) \leq \varepsilon \quad \forall X \in \mathcal{X}$$

$\Leftarrow$  Note that  $|X| \mathbb{1}_A \leq K \mathbb{1}_A + |X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K}$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|X| \leq K + \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K})$$

$\leq K + \varepsilon$  for  $K$  sufficiently large

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is  $L^1$ -bounded

Also  $A \in \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \delta \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) \leq K\delta + \sup_{X \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K})$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $K$  so that  $\mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K}) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \forall X \in \mathcal{X}$

Then set  $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{2K}$ , to give  $\mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_A) \leq K \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{2K} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$

$\Rightarrow I_{\mathcal{X}}(\delta) \downarrow 0$  as  $\delta \downarrow 0$   $\square$



## Probability and Measure

Theorem G.2.3 Let  $X$  be a random variable,  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  a sequence of random variables

Then the following are equivalent

- i.  $X_n \in L^1 \forall n$ ,  $X \in L^1$ , and  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in  $L^1$   
(ie  $E|X_n - X| \rightarrow 0$ )
- ii.  $\{X_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is uniformly integrable, and  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in probability  
(ie  $P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ )

Proof  $i \Rightarrow ii$  By Chebyshev's inequality, for  $\varepsilon > 0$  ( $\varepsilon$  fixed)

$$P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} E|X_n - X|$$

$$\rightarrow 0$$

$\Rightarrow X_n \rightarrow X$  in probability

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $E|X_n - X| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \forall n > N$   
and choose  $\delta > 0$  so that

$$A \in \mathcal{F}, P(A) \leq \delta \Rightarrow E(|X_n| 1_A) \leq \varepsilon \quad \forall 1 \leq n \leq N$$

$$\text{and } E(|X| 1_A) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Then, for  $n > N$ ,  $|X_n| 1_A \leq |X| 1_A + |X - X_n|$

$$\Rightarrow E(|X_n| 1_A) \leq E(|X| 1_A) + E|X - X_n|$$

$$\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

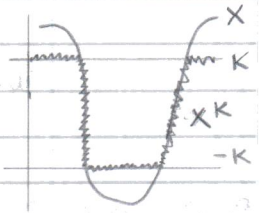
$$= \varepsilon$$

So  $A \in \mathcal{F}, P(A) \leq \delta \Rightarrow E(|X_n| 1_A) \leq \varepsilon \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

Also  $\|X_n\|_1 \rightarrow \|X\|_1 \Rightarrow \{X_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is bounded in  $L^1$

Hence  $\{X_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is uniformly integrable

ii  $\Rightarrow$  i  $\exists$  a subsequence  $(n_{n_j})$  such that  $X_{n_{n_j}} \rightarrow X$  almost surely  
 $\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|X| = \mathbb{E}(\liminf |X_{n_j}|)$   
 $\leq \liminf \mathbb{E}|X_{n_j}|$  by Fatou's Lemma  
 $< \infty$



Consider the uniformly bounded sequence

$$X_n^K = \min \{ \max \{ -K, X_n \}, K \}$$

and set  $X^K = \min \{ \max \{ -K, X \}, K \}$

Note that  $|X^K| \leq K$

$$\text{Now } |X - X_n| \leq \underbrace{|X - X^K|}_{\leq |X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K}} + \underbrace{|X^K - X_n^K|}_{\leq |X - X_n|} + \underbrace{|X_n^K - X_n|}_{\leq |X_n| \mathbb{1}_{|X_n| > K}}$$

$\rightarrow 0$  in probability

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|X - X_n| \leq \mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K}) + \mathbb{E}|X^K - X_n^K| + \mathbb{E}(|X_n| \mathbb{1}_{|X_n| > K})$$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$

$$|X| > |X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K} \rightarrow 0 \text{ almost surely}$$

so by dominated convergence  $\exists K_1$  such that

$$\mathbb{E}(|X| \mathbb{1}_{|X| > K_1}) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

$\{X_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is uniformly integrable

$$\Rightarrow \exists K_2 \text{ such that } \mathbb{E}(|X_n| \mathbb{1}_{|X_n| > K_2}) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

Let  $K = \max \{ K_1, K_2 \}$

For fixed  $K$ ,  $X_n^K \rightarrow X^K$  in probability

so by dominated convergence,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n > N \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|X_n^K - X^K| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}|X - X_n| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

$$= \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in } L^1 \quad \square$$



# Probability and Measure

## §7 Fourier Transforms

**Notation** In this section only, for  $p \in [1, \infty)$ , write  $L^p = L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$  for the set of complex-valued Borel measurable functions on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that

$$\|f\|_p = \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x)|^p dx \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty$$

**Definition** For  $f = u + iv \in L^1$   

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} u(x) dx + i \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} v(x) dx$$

**Notes** For  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \alpha f(x) dx = \alpha \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) dx$

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) dx \right| &= e^{i\theta} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) dx \quad \text{for some } \theta \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\theta} f(x) dx \\ &\quad \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ by the first equality} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \operatorname{Re}(e^{i\theta} f(x)) dx \\ &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x)| dx \end{aligned}$$

### 7.1 Definitions

**Definition** For a function  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$  the Fourier transform  $\hat{f}$  is  $\hat{f}(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) e^{i\langle u, x \rangle} dx$ ,  $u \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .  
 where  $\langle u, x \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^d u_i x_i$

**Note**  $|\hat{f}(u)| \leq \|f\|_1 < \infty$

Suppose  $u_n \rightarrow u$

Then  $|e^{i\langle u, x \rangle} - e^{i\langle u_n, x \rangle}| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\forall x$   
 So  $|\hat{f}(u_n) - \hat{f}(u)| = \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) (e^{i\langle u, x \rangle} - e^{i\langle u_n, x \rangle}) dx \right|$   
 $\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x)| |e^{i\langle u, x \rangle} - e^{i\langle u_n, x \rangle}| dx$   
 $\rightarrow 0$  by dominated convergence  
 with  $|f|$  as the dominating function

Hence  $\hat{f}: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a continuous, bounded function

For  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$  with  $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , we say that the Fourier inversion formula holds for  $f$  if

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(u) e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du \quad \text{for almost all } x$$

For  $f \in L^1 \cap L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , we say that

the Plancherel identity holds for  $f$  if  $\|\hat{f}\|_2 = (2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} \|f\|_2$

The main results of this section establish that,  $\forall f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , the inversion formula holds whenever  $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and the Plancherel formula holds whenever  $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$

For a finite Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$

the Fourier transform  $\hat{\mu}$  is  $\hat{\mu}(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\langle u, x \rangle} \mu(dx)$ ,  $u \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$\hat{\mu}$  is a continuous function on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with  $|\hat{\mu}(u)| \leq \mu(\mathbb{R}^d) \quad \forall u$

The definitions are consistent in that,

if  $\mu$  has density  $f$  with respect to Lebesgue measure, then  $\hat{\mu} = \hat{f}$

For a random variable  $X$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$

the characteristic function  $\phi_X$  is  $\phi_X(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{i\langle u, X \rangle})$ ,  $u \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  
which is the Fourier transform of its law  $\mu_X$

$$\text{So } \phi_X(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{i\langle u, X \rangle})$$

$$= \hat{\mu}_X(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\langle u, x \rangle} \mu_X(dx)$$

## 7.2 Convolutions

If  $f$  is Borel measurable on  $\mathbb{R}^d$

then  $(x, y) \mapsto f(x-y)$  is Borel measurable on  $\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$   
(by a monotone class argument)

**Definition** Let  $p \in [1, \infty)$ ,  $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ,  $\nu$  be a probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}^d$   
Then convolution  $f * \nu \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$

$$\text{is } f * \nu(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x-y) \nu(dy) \quad \text{whenever the integral exists}$$

ie if  $f(x-\cdot) \in L^1(\nu)$   
otherwise

$$f * \nu(x) = 0$$

**Note**

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x-y)| \nu(dy) \right)^p dx &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x-y)|^p \nu(dy) dx \\ &\quad \text{by Jensen's inequality} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x-y)|^p dx \nu(dy) \\ &\quad \text{by Fubini's theorem} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x)|^p dx \nu(dy) \\ &= \|f\|_p^p \\ &< \infty \end{aligned}$$

so the integral defining the convolution exists for almost all  $x$

$$\begin{aligned} \|f * \nu\|_p^p &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x-y) \nu(dy) \right|^p dx \\ &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x-y)|^p \nu(dy) dx \quad \text{by Jensen's inequality} \\ &= \|f\|_p^p \\ \Rightarrow f * \nu &\in L^p(\mathbb{R}^d) \\ \text{with } \|f * \nu\|_p &\leq \|f\|_p \end{aligned}$$

**Notation** If  $\nu$  has a density function  $g$  with respect to Lebesgue measure  
then we write  $f * g$  for  $f * \nu$



## Probability and Measure

**Definition** Let  $\mu, \nu$  be probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}^d$   
 $X, Y$  be independent random variables with distributions  $\mu, \nu$   
 Then the convolution  $\mu * \nu$  is the distribution of  $X + Y$   
 So  $\mu * \nu(A) = \mathbb{P}(X + Y \in A)$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} \mathbb{1}_A(x+y) \mu(dx) \nu(dy), \quad A \in \mathcal{B}$

**Note** Suppose  $\mu$  has density function  $f$  with respect to Lebesgue measure.  
 Then  $\mu * \nu(A) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \mathbb{1}_A(x+y) f(x) dx \nu(dy)$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \mathbb{1}_A(x) f(x-y) dx \nu(dy)$  by Fubini's Theorem  
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \mathbb{1}_A(x) f * \nu(x) dx$   
 so  $\mu * \nu$  has density function  $f * \nu$

**exercise** By Fubini's Theorem,  $\widehat{f * \nu}(u) = \widehat{f}(u) \widehat{\nu}(u)$   
 $\forall f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$   
 and  $\forall$  probability measures  $\nu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$

Similarly,  $\widehat{\mu * \nu}(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{i \langle u, X+Y \rangle})$   
 $= \mathbb{E}(e^{i \langle u, X \rangle}) \mathbb{E}(e^{i \langle u, Y \rangle})$   
 $= \widehat{\mu}(u) \widehat{\nu}(u)$

## 7.3 Gaussians

Let  $t \in (0, \infty)$   
 The centred Gaussian probability density function  $g_t$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  of variance  $t$   
 is  $g_t(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi t)^{\frac{d}{2}}} e^{-\frac{|x|^2}{2t}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Consider  $d$  independent standard normal random variables  $Z_1, \dots, Z_d$   
 $Z_k \sim N(0, 1)$   
 $Z_k$  has density  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$  on  $\mathbb{R}$

Set  $Z = (Z_1, \dots, Z_d)$   
 Then  $Z$  has density  $g_1$   
 and so  $\sqrt{t} Z$  has density  $g_t$

Computing  $\widehat{g}_t$

First consider the case  $t=1, d=1$   
 Let  $X$  be a standard one-dimensional normal random variable,  $X \sim N(0, 1)$   
 $\widehat{g}_1(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{iuX})$   
 Since  $X$  is integrable, by Theorem 3.5.1, the characteristic function  $\widehat{g}_1$   
 is differentiable and we can differentiate under the integral sign to obtain  
 $\widehat{g}_1'(u) = \mathbb{E}(iX e^{iuX})$   
 $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{iux} i x e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} i (i u e^{iux}) (e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}) dx$   
 $= -u \widehat{g}_1(u)$  integrating by parts

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \frac{d}{du} (e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} \hat{g}_1(u)) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \hat{g}_1(u) &= e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} \hat{g}_1(0) \\ &= e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Now take  $d$  independent standard normal random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_d$  and set  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$

Then  $\sqrt{t} X$  has density  $g_t$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \hat{g}_t(u) &= \mathbb{E}(e^{i\langle u, \sqrt{t} X \rangle}) \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left(\prod_{j=1}^d e^{iu_j \sqrt{t} X_j}\right) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^d \hat{g}_1(u_j \sqrt{t}) \\ &= e^{-\frac{1}{2} |u|^2 t} \end{aligned}$$

$$|u|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^d u_k^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \hat{g}_t &= (2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} t^{-\frac{d}{2}} g_t \\ \text{and } \hat{\hat{g}}_t &= (2\pi)^d g_t \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } g_t(x) &= g_t(-x) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \hat{\hat{g}}_t(-x) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{g}_t(u) e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du \end{aligned}$$

so the Fourier inversion formula holds for  $g_t$

#### 7.4 Gaussian convolutions

**Definition** A Gaussian convolution is any function of the form  $f * g_t$  where  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$   $g_t$  is a Gaussian,  $t \in (0, \infty)$

**Note**

Suppose  $x_n \rightarrow x$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } f * g_t(x_n) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x_n - y) g_t(y) dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g_t(x_n - y) \underbrace{f(y)}_{\in L^1} dy \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g_t(x - y) f(y) dy \\ &\quad \text{by dominated convergence} \quad \text{with } |f| \text{ as the dominating function} \\ &= f * g_t(x) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow f * g_t$  is continuous

$$\|f * g_t\|_1 \leq \|f\|_1$$

$$\|f * g_t\|_\infty \leq (2\pi t)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \|f\|_1$$

$$\text{Also } \widehat{f * g_t}(u) = \hat{f}(u) \hat{g}_t(u)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \|\widehat{f * g_t}\|_1 &\leq \|\hat{f}\|_\infty \|\hat{g}_t\|_1 \\ &\leq \|\hat{f}\|_\infty (2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} t^{-\frac{d}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\|f * g_t\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_1$$

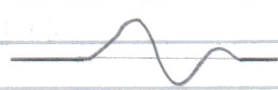


exercise By the parallelogram identity in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , we have  $g_s * g_s = g_{2s}$

So for any probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and any  $s \in (0, \infty)$   
 we have  $\mu * g_s \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu * g_{2s} = \mu * (g_s * g_s)$   
 $= (\mu * g_s) * g_s$  is a Gaussian convolution

lemma 7.4.1 The Fourier inversion formula holds for all Gaussian convolutions

Proof Let  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ,  $t > 0$   
 Then  $(2\pi)^d f * g_t(x) = (2\pi)^d \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x-y) g_t(y) dy$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x-y) \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{g}_t(u) e^{-i\langle u, y \rangle} du dy$   
 since the inversion formula holds for  $g_t$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{g}_t(u) \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x-y) e^{i\langle u, x-y \rangle} dy e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du$   
 by Fubini's theorem  
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{g}_t(u) \hat{f}(u) e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \widehat{f * g_t}(u) e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du \quad \square$

Definition A function of compact support is a function such that the closure of the set of points where the function is non-zero is compact 

lemma 7.4.2 Let  $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , where  $p \in [1, \infty)$   
 Then  $\|f * g_t - f\|_p \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$

Proof Given  $\varepsilon > 0 \exists$  a continuous function  $h$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  of compact support such that  $\|f - h\|_p \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$   
 Then  $\|f * g_t - h * g_t\|_p = \|(f - h) * g_t\|_p \leq \|f - h\|_p \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$

Consider  $e(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |h(x-y) - h(x)|^p dx$

Then  $e(y) \leq 2^p \|h\|_p^p < \infty \quad \forall y$

so by dominated convergence  $e(y) \rightarrow 0$  as  $y \rightarrow 0$  since  $h$  is continuous

Now  $\|h - h * g_t\|_p^p = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (h(x) - h(x-y)) g_t(y) dy \right|^p dx$   
 $\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |h(x) - h(x-y)|^p g_t(y) dy dx$   
 by Jensen's inequality  
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |h(x) - h(x-y)|^p dx g_t(y) dy$   
 by Fubini's theorem  
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e(y) g_t(y) dy$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e(\sqrt{t} y) g_1(y) dy$   
 $\leq \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3}\right)^p$  for  $t$  sufficiently small  
 (by dominated convergence)

$\|f * g_t - f\|_p \leq \|f * g_t - h * g_t\|_p + \|h * g_t - h\|_p + \|h - f\|_p$   
 $\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$  for  $t$  sufficiently small  
 $= \varepsilon \quad \square$

## 7.5 Uniqueness and inversion

**Theorem 7.5.1** Let  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .  
 For  $t > 0$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , set  $f_t(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(u) e^{-|u|^2 \frac{t}{2}} e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du$

Then  $\|f_t - f\|_1 \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$

Moreover, the Fourier inversion formula holds for  $f$   
 whenever  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and  $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$

**Proof** Consider the Gaussian convolution  $f * g_t$

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{f * g_t}(u) &= \hat{f}(u) \hat{g}_t(u) \\ &= \hat{f}(u) e^{-|u|^2 \frac{t}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

So  $f_t = f * g_t$  by Lemma 7.4.1

$\Rightarrow \|f_t - f\|_1 \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$  by Lemma 7.4.2

Moreover, if  $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , then by dominated convergence (dominated by  $|\hat{f}|$ )  
 $f_t(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(u) e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} dx$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$

On the other hand,  $\exists$  a sequence  $t_n \rightarrow 0$

such that  $f_{t_n}(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  almost everywhere

So the inversion formula holds for  $f$ .  $\square$

## 7.6 Fourier transform in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$

**Recall** Plancherel identity  
 $\|\hat{f}\|_2 = (2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} \|f\|_2$

**Theorem 7.6.1** The Plancherel identity holds  $\forall f \in L^1 \cap L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$   
 Moreover there is a unique Hilbert space automorphism  $F: \mathcal{L}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^2$   
 such that  $F[f] = [(2\pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \hat{f}] \quad \forall f \in L^1 \cap L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$

**Note**  $F(\alpha u + \beta v) = \alpha F(u) + \beta F(v) \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, u, v \in \mathcal{L}^2$   
 $\|F(u)\|_2 = \|u\|_2$

**Proof** First suppose that  $f \in L^1$  and  $\hat{f} \in L^1$  ( $\Rightarrow f, \hat{f} \in L^\infty$ )  
 Then  $(2\pi)^d \|f\|_2^2 = (2\pi)^d \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) \overline{f(x)} dx$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(u) e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du \right) \overline{f(x)} dx$   
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{f(x)} e^{i\langle u, x \rangle} dx \right) \hat{f}(u) du$   
 by Fubini's theorem  
 (since  $(x, u) \mapsto \overline{f(x)} \hat{f}(u)$  is integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$ )  
 $= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(u) \overline{\hat{f}(u)} du$   
 $= \|\hat{f}\|_2^2$



## Probability and Measure

Now suppose  $f \in L^1 \cap L^2$

Consider for  $t > 0$  the Gaussian convolution  $f_t = f * g_t$   
 Then  $f_t \rightarrow f$  in  $L^2$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$  by Lemma 7.4.2

$$\Rightarrow \|f_t\|_2 \rightarrow \|f\|_2$$

$$\text{Also } \hat{f}_t(u) = \hat{f}(u) e^{-|u|^2 t/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\hat{f}_t\|_2^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\hat{f}(u)|^2 e^{-|u|^2 t} du$$

$$\uparrow \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\hat{f}(u)|^2 du \quad \text{as } t \downarrow 0 \quad \text{by Monotone convergence}$$

$$= \|\hat{f}\|_2^2$$

But  $f_t, \hat{f}_t \in L^1 \Rightarrow$  the Plancherel identity holds for  $f_t$   
 and so, on letting  $t \rightarrow 0$ , we obtain the Plancherel identity for  $f$

Define  $F_0: L^1 \cap L^2 \rightarrow L^2$

$$\text{by } F_0[f] = [(2\pi)^{-d/2} \hat{f}]$$

Then by Plancherel's identity,  $F_0$  is a linear isometry (of  $\|\cdot\|_2$ )

ie  $F_0$  preserves the  $L^2$  norm

$L^1 \cap L^2$  is dense in  $L^2$  (by Gaussian convolutions)

$\Rightarrow F_0$  extends uniquely to a linear isometry  $F$  from  $L^2$  injectively into  $L^2$

Consider  $V = \{[f] : f \in L^1, \hat{f} \in L^1\}$

By the inversion formula,  $F_0(V) \subseteq V$

$$F_0^2[f] = [f] \quad \forall [f] \in V$$

But  $V$  contains all Gaussian convolutions

$\Rightarrow V$  is dense in  $L^2$

$\Rightarrow F$  is surjective onto  $L^2$   $\square$

## 7.7 Weak convergence and characteristic functions

Let  $\mu$  be a Borel probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}^d$

$(\mu_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of Borel probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}^d$

Definition  $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$  weakly if  $\mu_n(f) \rightarrow \mu(f) \forall f \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^d)$

exercise  $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$  weakly  $\Leftrightarrow \mu_n(f) \rightarrow \mu(f) \forall f \in C_c^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$

exercise If  $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$  weakly and  $\mu_n \rightarrow \nu$  weakly, then  $\mu = \nu$

Let  $X$  be a random variable in  $\mathbb{R}^d$

$(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of random variables in  $\mathbb{R}^d$

Definition  $X_n \rightarrow X$  weakly if  $\mu_{X_n} \rightarrow \mu_X$  weakly

exercise For  $d=1$ , weak convergence is equivalent to convergence in distribution [as defined in section 2.5]

Note If  $X$  is a weak limit of the sequence of random variables  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  then so is any other random variable with the same distribution as  $X$ .

Theorem 7.7.1 Let  $X$  be a random variable in  $\mathbb{R}^d$   
 Then the distribution  $\mu_X$  of  $X$  is uniquely determined by its characteristic function  $\phi_X(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{i\langle u, X \rangle})$

Moreover, if  $\phi_X$  is integrable (ie  $\phi_X \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ )  
 then  $\mu_X$  has a continuous bounded density function given by  

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \phi_X(u) e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du$$

Moreover, if  $(X_n: n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence of random variables in  $\mathbb{R}^d$   
 such that  $\phi_{X_n}(u) \rightarrow \phi_X(u)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\forall u \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  
 then  $X_n \rightarrow X$  weakly

Proof Let  $Z$  be a standard Gaussian random variable in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , independent of  $X$   
 So  $Z$  has density  $g$ ,  
 $\sqrt{t}Z$  has density  $g_t$

$X + \sqrt{t}Z$  has density given by the Gaussian convolution  $f_t = \mu_X * g_t$   
 We have  $\hat{f}_t(u) = \phi_X(u) e^{-|u|^2 \frac{t}{2}}$ , so, by the Fourier inversion formula,  

$$f_t(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \phi_X(u) e^{-|u|^2 \frac{t}{2}} e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du$$

$\forall g \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^d)$  (ie  $\forall$  continuous bounded functions  $g$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ )  

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g(x) f_t(x) dx = \mathbb{E}(g(X + \sqrt{t}Z))$$
  

$$\rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(X))$$
 by bounded convergence  

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g(x) \mu_X(dx)$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \phi_X$  determines  $\mu_X$  uniquely

Suppose  $\phi_X \in L^1$  (ie  $\phi_X$  is integrable)  
 Then  $|f_t(x)| \leq (2\pi)^d \|\phi_X\|_1$ ,  $\forall x$   
 $\Rightarrow f_t(x) \rightarrow f_X(x)$   $\forall x$  by dominated convergence (dominated by  $(2\pi)^d \|\phi_X\|_1$ )  
 So  $f_t(x) \geq 0 \forall t, x \Rightarrow f_X(x) \geq 0 \forall x$   
 Consider  $g \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^d)$  (ie  $g$  of compact support)  

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g(x) f_X(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g(x) f_t(x) dx$$
 by bounded convergence  

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g(x) \mu_X(dx)$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \mu_X$  has density function  $f_X$

Suppose  $(X_n: n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence of random variables such that  $\phi_{X_n}(u) \rightarrow \phi_X(u)$   
 Consider  $g \in C_c^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$  (so  $g$  is differentiable, with bounded derivative)  $\forall u$   
 Given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists t > 0$  such that  $\sqrt{t} \|\nabla g\|_\infty \mathbb{E}|Z| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$   
 Then  $\mathbb{E}|g(X + \sqrt{t}Z) - g(X)| \leq \sqrt{t} \|\nabla g\|_\infty \mathbb{E}|Z|$  by the Mean Value Theorem  

$$\leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$
 for  $t$  sufficiently small

Similarly  $\mathbb{E}|g(X_n + \sqrt{t}Z) - g(X_n)| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$   
 Also  $|\mathbb{E}(g(X_n + \sqrt{t}Z)) - \mathbb{E}(g(X + \sqrt{t}Z))|$   

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (\phi_{X_n}(u) - \phi_X(u)) e^{-|u|^2 \frac{t}{2}} e^{-i\langle u, x \rangle} du \right) g(x) dx$$
  

$$\rightarrow 0$$
 by dominated convergence, dominated by  $2 \|\phi_X\|_1 \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$   $\in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$   
 $\leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$  for  $n$  sufficiently large, by dominated convergence.

Then  $|\mathbb{E}(g(X_n)) - \mathbb{E}(g(X))| \leq |\mathbb{E}(g(X_n)) - \mathbb{E}(g(X_n + \sqrt{t}Z))| + |\mathbb{E}(g(X_n + \sqrt{t}Z)) - \mathbb{E}(g(X + \sqrt{t}Z))| + |\mathbb{E}(g(X + \sqrt{t}Z)) - \mathbb{E}(g(X))|$   

$$\leq \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(X_n)) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(X))$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$



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$$\begin{aligned}
|\mathbb{E}(g(X_n)) - \mathbb{E}(g(X))| &\leq |\mathbb{E}(g(X_n) - g(X_n + \sqrt{t}Z))| \\
&\quad + |\mathbb{E}(g(X_n + \sqrt{t}Z)) - \mathbb{E}(g(X + \sqrt{t}Z))| \\
&\quad + |\mathbb{E}(g(X + \sqrt{t}Z) - g(X))| \\
&\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \\
&= \varepsilon
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(X_n)) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(X))$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_{X_n}(g) \rightarrow \mu_X(g)$$

$$\Rightarrow X_n \rightarrow X \text{ weakly as } n \rightarrow \infty \quad \square$$

**Theorem** Lévy's ~~Theorem~~ continuity theorem for characteristic functions  
 If  $\phi_{X_n}(u)$  converges as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , with limit  $\phi(u)$ , say,  $\forall u \in \mathbb{R}$   
 and if  $\phi$  is continuous in a neighbourhood of 0  
 then  $\phi$  is the characteristic function of some random variable  $X$   
 and  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in distribution

This is a stronger version of the final assertion of Theorem 7.7.1

**Proof** omitted

**Claim** Let  $(\mu_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of Borel probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}^d$   
 Suppose  $\mu_n(f) \rightarrow \mu(f) \quad \forall f \in C_c'(\mathbb{R}^d)$   
 Then  $\mu_n(f) \rightarrow \mu(f) \quad \forall f \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^d)$   
 ie  $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$  weakly

**Proof** Fix  $f \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^d)$  with  $\|f\|_\infty \leq 1$   
 Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists R < \infty$  such that  $\mu(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : |x| \geq R\}) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$   
 Then  $\exists g$  continuous with  $\mathbb{1}_{|x| \leq R} \leq g(x) \leq \mathbb{1}_{|x| \leq R+1}$   
 $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that,  $\forall n \geq N$ ,  $\mu_n(g) \geq \mu(g) - \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$   
 But  $\mu(1-g) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$   
 $\Rightarrow \mu_n(1-g) = 1 - \mu_n(g)$   
 $\leq 1 - \mu(g) + \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$   
 $= \mu(1-g) + \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$   
 $\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

$\exists M \in \mathbb{N}$  such that,  $\forall n \geq M$ ,  $|\mu_n(fg) - \mu(fg)| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$

Let  $N = \max\{K, M\}$

Then  $\forall n \geq N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
|\mu_n(f) - \mu(f)| &\leq |\mu_n(f(1-g))| + |\mu_n(fg) - \mu(fg)| + |\mu(f(1-g))| \\
&\leq \mu_n(1-g) + |\mu_n(fg) - \mu(fg)| + \mu(1-g) \\
&\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} \\
&= \varepsilon \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

## §8 Gaussian random variables

### 8.1 Gaussian random variables in $\mathbb{R}$

**Definition** A real-valued random variable  $X$  is Gaussian if it has density function  
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
 for some  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$   
 $\sigma^2 \in (0, \infty)$

We also admit as Gaussian any random variable  $X$  such that  $X = \mu$  almost surely, for some  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ . This degenerate case corresponds to the case  $\sigma^2 = 0$ .

**Notation**  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

**Proposition 8.1.1** Suppose  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

i.  $E(X) = \mu$  ( $X \in L^2(\mathbb{P})$ )

ii.  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$

iii.  $aX + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$

iv.  $\phi_X(u) = e^{iu\mu - \frac{1}{2}u^2\sigma^2}$

### 8.2 Gaussian random variables in $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Definition** A random variable  $X$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is Gaussian if  $\langle u, X \rangle (= \sum_{i=1}^n u_i X_i)$  is Gaussian in  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\forall u \in \mathbb{R}^n$

**example** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent  $N(0, 1)$  random variables

$$X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

Then  $E(e^{i\langle u, X \rangle}) = E\left(\prod_{k=1}^n e^{iu_k X_k}\right)$   
 $= e^{-\frac{1}{2}|u|^2}$

$\Rightarrow \langle u, X \rangle \sim N(0, |u|^2) \quad \forall u \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$\Rightarrow X$  is Gaussian

**Theorem 8.2.1** Let  $X$  be a Gaussian random variable in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix, and let  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then

i.  $AX + b$  is a Gaussian random variable in  $\mathbb{R}^m$

ii.  $X \in L^2(\mathbb{P})$

and the distribution  $\mu_X$  of  $X$  is determined by

its mean  $\mu = E(X)$

and its variance  $V = \text{Var}(X)$

$$= E((X - \mu)(X - \mu)^T)$$

iii.  $\phi_X(u) = e^{i\langle u, \mu \rangle - \frac{1}{2}\langle u, Vu \rangle}$

iv. If  $V$  is invertible, then  $X$  has a density function on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det V}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle x - \mu, V^{-1}(x - \mu) \rangle}$$



v. Suppose  $X = (X_1, X_2)$  with  $X_1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n_1}$ ,  $X_2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n_2}$

Then  $\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0 \Rightarrow X_1, X_2$  are independent

Proof

i. Take  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\text{Then } \langle u, AX + b \rangle = \langle A^T u, X \rangle + \langle u, b \rangle$$

$$= \langle v, X \rangle + \langle u, b \rangle \quad \text{where } v = A^T u$$

which is Gaussian by Proposition 8.1.1

$\Rightarrow AX + b$  is Gaussian

iii. Let  $e_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow i^{\text{th}} \text{ component}$

Then  $\forall i, \langle e_i, X \rangle = X_i$  is Gaussian

$$\Rightarrow X_i \in L^2(\mathbb{P})$$

$$\Rightarrow X \in L^2(\mathbb{P})$$

For  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $\mathbb{E}(\langle u, X \rangle) = \langle u, \mu \rangle$

$$\text{var}(\langle u, X \rangle) = \text{cov}(\langle u, X \rangle, \langle u, X \rangle)$$

$$= \langle u, Vu \rangle$$

Since  $\langle u, X \rangle$  is Gaussian, we must have

$$\langle u, X \rangle \sim N(\langle u, \mu \rangle, \langle u, Vu \rangle) \quad \text{by Proposition 8.1.1}$$

$$\phi_X(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{i\langle u, X \rangle})$$

$$= e^{i\langle u, \mu \rangle - \frac{1}{2}\langle u, Vu \rangle}$$

ii. follows from iii. by uniqueness of characteristic functions

iv. Let  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  be independent  $N(0, 1)$  random variables

Then  $Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$  has density  $f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}|y|^2}$

Set  $\tilde{X} = V^{\frac{1}{2}} Y + \mu$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{writing } V = UDU^T, \text{ where } D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_i \geq 0, \\ \text{define } V^{\frac{1}{2}} = UD^{\frac{1}{2}}U^T, \text{ where } D^{\frac{1}{2}} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sqrt{\lambda_n} \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{then } (V^{\frac{1}{2}})^2 = V \end{array} \right]$$

Then  $\tilde{X}$  is Gaussian, with  $\mathbb{E}(\tilde{X}) = \mu$

$$\text{Var}(\tilde{X}) = V$$

$\Rightarrow X$  and  $\tilde{X}$  have the same distribution

If  $V$  is invertible, then, by a linear change of variables in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\tilde{X}$ , and hence  $X$ , have density  $f_X(x)$

V. Suppose  $X = (X_1, X_2)$  with  $\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0$   
We have  $V = \begin{pmatrix} V_{11} & \\ & V_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  where  $V_{11} = \text{var}(X_1)$   
 $V_{22} = \text{var}(X_2)$

$$\text{Let } u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \langle u, Vu \rangle &= (u_1, u_2) V \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= u_1^T V_{11} u_1 + u_2^T V_{22} u_2 \\ &= \langle u_1, V_{11} u_1 \rangle + \langle u_2, V_{22} u_2 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \phi_X(u) &= e^{i \langle u, u \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \langle u, Vu \rangle} \\ &= \phi_{X_1}(u_1) \phi_{X_2}(u_2) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent.  $\square$



## Probability and Measure

## §9 Ergodic Theory

## 9.1 Measure-preserving transformations

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space.

**Definitions** A measurable function  $\theta: E \rightarrow E$  is a measure-preserving transformation if

ie  $\mu \circ \theta^{-1} = \mu$   
 $\mu(\theta^{-1}(A)) = \mu(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{E}$

A set  $A \in \mathcal{E}$  is invariant if  $\theta^{-1}(A) = A$ .

**exercise**  $\mathcal{E}_\theta = \{A \in \mathcal{E} : A \text{ is invariant}\}$   
 $\mathcal{E}_\theta$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra

**Definition** A measurable function  $f$  is invariant if  $f = f \circ \theta$

**exercise** Then  $f$  is invariant  $\Leftrightarrow f$  is  $\mathcal{E}_\theta$ -measurable

**Definition**  $\theta$  is ergodic if  $\forall A \in \mathcal{E}_\theta$ , either  $\mu(A) = 0$   
 or  $\mu(A^c) = 0$

**examples** 1.  $E = \{1, \dots, n\}$

$$\mu(A) = |A|$$

Then  $\theta: E \rightarrow E$  is a measure-preserving transformation

$\Leftrightarrow \theta$  is a bijection (ie a permutation)

and  $\theta$  is ergodic  $\Leftrightarrow \theta$  is just one cycle

2. Rotations / Translation map on the torus

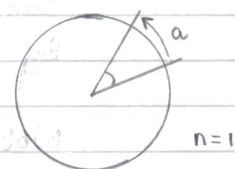
$$E = [0, 1)^n$$

with Lebesgue measure on its Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra

For each  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in E$

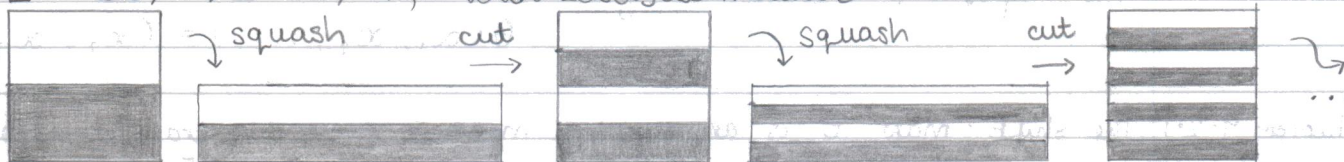
$$\text{set } \theta_a(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1 + a_1 \pmod{1}, \dots, x_n + a_n \pmod{1})$$

Then  $\theta_a$  is a measure-preserving transformation



3. Bakers' map

$E = [0, 1) \times [0, 1)$ , with Lebesgue measure



$$\theta(x) = 2x - \lfloor 2x \rfloor$$

is a measure-preserving transformation.

Proposition 9.1.1 If  $f$  is integrable and  $\theta$  is measure-preserving then  $f \circ \theta$  is integrable and  $\int_E f d\mu = \int_E f \circ \theta d\mu$

$$\begin{aligned} f &\in L^1(\mu) \\ f \circ \theta &\in L^1(\mu) \\ \mu(f \circ \theta) &= \mu(f) \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 9.1.2 If  $\theta$  is an ergodic measure-preserving transformation and  $f$  is invariant then  $\exists c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f = c$  almost surely

## 9.2 Bernoulli shifts

Let  $m$  be a Borel probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}$

In section 2.4, we constructed a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

on which  $\exists$  a sequence of independent random variables  $(Y_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$ , all having distribution  $m$

Consider the infinite product space

$$E = \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$$

$$= \{ \omega = (\omega_n : n \in \mathbb{N}) : \omega_n \in \mathbb{R} \forall n \}$$

Define coordinate maps  $X_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{by } X_n(\omega) = \omega_n$$

and set  $\mathcal{E} = \sigma(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$ , a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $E$

Then  $\mathcal{E}$  is also generated by the  $\pi$ -system

$$\mathcal{A} = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$$

$$= \{ \omega \in E : \omega_n \in A_n \forall n \}$$

where  $A_n = \mathbb{R} \forall$  but finitely many  $n$

Define  $Y : \Omega \rightarrow E$

$$\text{by } Y(\omega) = (Y_n(\omega) : n \in \mathbb{N})$$

Then  $Y$  is a measurable random variable

Let  $\mu = \mathbb{P} \circ Y^{-1}$  be the image measure of  $Y$

Then  $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu(A) = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} m(A_n)$

By uniqueness of extension,  $\mu$  is the unique measure on  $\mathcal{E}$  with this property

Note that, under the probability measure  $\mu$ , the coordinate maps  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  are themselves a sequence of independent random variables with law  $m$ .

The probability space  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$

is called the canonical model for such sequences.

The shift map is defined by

$$\theta : E \rightarrow E$$

$$\theta(x_1, x_2, \dots) = (x_2, x_3, \dots)$$

Theorem 9.2.1 The shift-map  $\theta$  is an ergodic measure-preserving transformation on  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$



Recall

Tail  $\sigma$ -algebras

$$\mathcal{T}_n = \sigma(X_m : m \geq n+1)$$

$$\mathcal{T} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{T}_n$$

Proof that  $\theta$  is ergodic

Consider  $A = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{A}$

We have  $\theta^{-n}(A) = \{X_{n+k} \in A_k \forall k\} \in \mathcal{T}_n$

Since  $\mathcal{T}_n$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra,

$\{A \in \mathcal{E} : \theta^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{T}_n\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{A}$

$$\Rightarrow \theta^{-n}(A) \in \mathcal{T}_n \forall A \in \mathcal{E}$$

Hence if  $A \in \mathcal{E}_0$

$$\text{then } A = \theta^{-n}(A) \in \mathcal{T}_n$$

$$\Rightarrow A \in \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{T}_n$$

$$\mathcal{E}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu(A) \in \{0, 1\} \text{ by Kolmogorov's zero-one law } \square$$

### 9.3 Birkhoff's and von Neumann's ergodic theorems

Throughout this section, let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be a measure space

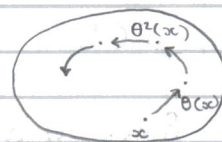
$\theta$  be a measure-preserving transformation

Given a measurable function  $f$ ,

$$\text{set } S_0 = 0$$

and define  $S_n \mathbb{E} = S_n(f)$

$$= f + f \circ \theta + \dots + f \circ \theta^{n-1}$$



for  $n \geq 1$

#### Lemma 9.3.1 Maximal ergodic lemma

Let  $f$  be an integrable function on  $E$

$$\text{Set } S^* = S^*(f)$$

$$= \sup_{n \geq 0} S_n(f)$$

$$\text{Then } \int_{\{S^* > 0\}} f \, d\mu \geq 0$$

Proof

$$\text{Set } S_n^* = \max_{0 \leq m \leq n} S_m$$

$$A_n = \{S_n^* > 0\}$$

$$\text{Then, for } 1 \leq m \leq n, \quad S_m = f + S_{m-1} \circ \theta \leq f + S_n^* \circ \theta$$

$$\text{On } A_n, \quad S_n^* = \max_{1 \leq m \leq n} S_m$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n^* \leq f + S_n^* \circ \theta$$

$$\text{On } A_n^c, \quad S_n^* = 0$$

$$\leq S_n^* \circ \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n^* \leq f \mathbb{1}_{A_n} + S_n^* \circ \theta$$

$$\int_E S_n^* \, d\mu \leq \int_{A_n} f \, d\mu + \int_E S_n^* \circ \theta \, d\mu,$$

$$= \int_{A_n} f \, d\mu + \int_E S_n^* \, d\mu$$

$$< \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{A_n} f \, d\mu \geq 0 \quad \forall n$$

$S_n$  is integrable  $\forall n$   
 $\theta$  is measure-preserving

Now  $A_n \uparrow \{S^* > 0\}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and  $f$  is integrable,  
 so by dominated convergence, dominated by  $|f|$ ,  
 $\int_{\{S^* > 0\}} f d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{A_n} f d\mu$   
 $\geq 0$   $\square$

Theorem 9.3.2 Birkhoff's almost everywhere ergodic theorem

Suppose that  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is  $\sigma$ -finite

and that  $f$  is an integrable function on  $E$

Then  $\exists$  an invariant function  $\bar{f}$

such that  $\mu(|\bar{f}|) \leq \mu(|f|)$

and  $\frac{S_n(f)}{n} \rightarrow \bar{f}$  almost everywhere as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof

The functions  $\liminf_n \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right)$  and  $\limsup_n \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right)$  are invariant

$\Rightarrow$  for  $a < b$ ,

$D = D(a, b)$

$= \left\{ \liminf_n \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right) < a < b < \limsup_n \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right) \right\}$  is invariant

Claim

$\mu(D) = 0$

Proof

Since  $D$  is invariant, we can restrict  $\mu, \theta$  to  $D$

and reduce to the case  $D = E$

Either  $b > 0$  or  $a < 0$ ; replacing  $f$  by  $-f$  if necessary,  
 assume  $b > 0$

Let  $B \in \mathcal{E}$  with  $\mu(B) < \infty$

Then  $g = f - b \mathbb{1}_B$  is integrable

and, for each  $x \in D$ , for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$S_n(g)(x) \geq S_n(f)(x) - nb > 0$$

$\Rightarrow S^*(g) > 0$  everywhere on  $D$

So by the Maximal ergodic lemma,

$$0 \leq \int_D g d\mu$$

$$= \int_D f d\mu - b\mu(B)$$

Since  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -finite,  $\exists$  a sequence of sets  $B_n \in \mathcal{E}$

with  $\mu(B_n) < \infty \forall n$  and  $B_n \uparrow D$

$$\Rightarrow b\mu(D) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b\mu(B_n)$$

$$\leq \int_D f d\mu$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu(D) < \infty$$

A similar argument, applied to  $-f$  and  $-a$ ,

with  $B = D$ ,

gives  $(-a)\mu(D) \leq \int_D (-f) d\mu$



## Probability and Measure

Hence  $b\mu(D) \leq \int_0^1 f d\mu \leq a\mu(D)$

Since  $a < b$  and  $\int_0^1 f d\mu < \infty$ ,

this  $\Rightarrow \mu(D) = 0$

Set  $\Delta = \left\{ \liminf_n \left( \frac{S_n}{n} \right) < \limsup_n \left( \frac{S_n}{n} \right) \right\}$

Then  $\Delta$  is invariant

Also  $\Delta = \bigcup_{\substack{a, b \in \mathbb{Q} \\ a < b}} D(a, b)$

$\Rightarrow \mu(\Delta) = 0$

On  $\Delta^c$ ,  $\frac{S_n}{n}$  converges in  $[-\infty, \infty]$

so we can define an invariant function  $\bar{f}$  by

$$\bar{f} = \begin{cases} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{S_n}{n} \right) & \text{on } \Delta^c \\ 0 & \text{on } \Delta \end{cases}$$

Then  $\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \bar{f}$  almost everywhere

Finally,  $\mu(|f \circ \theta^n|) = \mu(|f| \circ \theta^n)$

$$= \mu(|f|)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu(|S_n(f)|) = \mu(|S_n|)$$

$$\leq n \mu(|f|) \quad \forall n$$

$$\text{Hence } \mu(|\bar{f}|) = \mu\left(\liminf_n | \frac{S_n}{n} | \right) \leq \liminf_n \mu\left(| \frac{S_n}{n} |\right) \leq \mu(|f|) < \infty$$

by Fatou's Lemma

□

Theorem 9.3.3 von Neumann's  $L^p$  ergodic theorem

Suppose  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is a finite measure space ie  $\mu(E) < \infty$

Let  $p \in [1, \infty)$

Then,  $\forall f \in L^p(\mu)$ ,  $\frac{S_n(f)}{n} \rightarrow \bar{f}$  in  $L^p$

Proof

Note that  $\|f \circ \theta^n\|_p = \left( \int_E |f|^p \circ \theta^n d\mu \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \|f\|_p$

So, by Minkowski's inequality,  $\left\| \frac{S_n(f)}{n} \right\|_p \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \|f \circ \theta^k\|_p = \|f\|_p$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $K < \infty$  such that  $\|f - g\|_p < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ , where  $g = \min_{\max} \{ \max_{\min} \{ -K, f \} \}$ ,  $K \}$

By Birkhoff's theorem,  $\frac{S_n(g)}{n} \rightarrow \bar{g}$  almost everywhere

we have  $\left| \frac{S_n(g)}{n} \right| \leq K \quad \forall n$

So, by bounded convergence,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall n \gg N$ ,

$$\left\| \frac{S_n(g)}{n} - \bar{g} \right\|_p < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Now } \|\bar{f} - \bar{g}\|_p^p &= \int_E \liminf_n \left| \frac{S_n(f-g)}{n} \right|^p d\mu \\
 &\leq \liminf_n \int_E \left| \frac{S_n(f-g)}{n} \right|^p d\mu \quad \text{by Fatou's Lemma} \\
 &\leq \|f - g\|_p^p
 \end{aligned}$$

So,  $\forall n \geq N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left\| \frac{S_n(f)}{n} - \bar{f} \right\|_p &\leq \left\| \frac{S_n(f-g)}{n} \right\|_p + \left\| \frac{S_n(g)}{n} - \bar{g} \right\|_p + \|\bar{g} - \bar{f}\|_p \\
 &\leq \|f - g\|_p + \left\| \frac{S_n(g)}{n} - \bar{g} \right\|_p + \|f - g\|_p \\
 &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\
 &= \epsilon
 \end{aligned}$$

□



## Probability and Measure

## §10 Sums of Independent Random Variables

10.0 Weak Law for Random Variables in  $L^2(\mathbb{P})$ 

Let  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of random variables in  $L^2(\mathbb{P})$   
 $\mathbb{E}(X_n^2) < \infty \quad \forall n$

Suppose  $\mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mu_n$   
 $\text{Var}(X_n) = \sigma_n^2$   
 $\text{cov}(X_i, X_j) = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$

Set  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \text{Var}\left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right) &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} \text{cov}(X_i, X_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}\left(\left(\frac{S_n}{n} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i\right)^2\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \quad \text{Recall } \text{Var}(Y) = \mathbb{E}(Y^2) - (\mathbb{E}(Y))^2$$

So, if  $\mu_n \equiv \mu$   
and  $\sigma_n^2 \equiv \sigma^2$

then  $\mathbb{E}\left(\left(\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right)^2\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sigma^2$

$\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \mu$  in  $L^2(\mathbb{P})$

and hence also in probability

## 10.1 Strong Law of Large Numbers for Random Variables of Finite Fourth Moment

Theorem

10.1.1 Let  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of independent random variables

with  $\mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mu$

$\mathbb{E}(X_n^4) \leq M \quad \forall n$ , some  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $M < \infty$

Set  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$

Then  $\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \mu$  almost surely as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof

Consider  $Y_n = X_n - \mu$

Then  $(Y_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  is a sequence of independent random variables

Also  $Y_n^4 \leq 2^4 (X_n^4 + \mu^4)$

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(Y_n^4) \leq 16(M + \mu^4) \quad \forall n$

and  $\mathbb{E}(Y_n) = 0$

It suffices to show that  $\frac{Y_1 + \dots + Y_n}{n} \rightarrow 0$  almost surely

So we are reduced to the case  $\mu = 0$

Note that  $X_n, X_n^2, X_n^3$  are all integrable, since  $X_n^4$  is integrable.

Since  $\mu = 0$ , by independence,

$$\mathbb{E}(X_i X_j^3) = \mathbb{E}(X_i X_j X_k^2) = \mathbb{E}(X_i X_j X_k X_l) = 0$$

for distinct indices  $i, j, k, l$

Also  $\mathbb{E}(X_i^4) \leq M$

and  $\mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j^2) = \mathbb{E}(X_i^2) \mathbb{E}(X_j^2)$  for  $i \neq j$ , by independence  
 $\leq (\mathbb{E}(X_i^4))^{1/2} (\mathbb{E}(X_j^4))^{1/2}$   
 by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality  
 $\leq M$

So  $\mathbb{E}(S_n^4) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} X_i^4 + \binom{4}{2} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} X_i^2 X_j^2\right)$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathbb{E}(X_i^4) + 6 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j^2)$$

$$\leq nM + 6 \cdot \frac{1}{2} n(n-1)M$$

$$\leq 3n^2 M$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right)^4\right) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n^2 M}{n^4} \quad \text{by Monotone convergence}$$

$$= 3M \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

$$< \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right)^4 < \infty \quad \text{almost surely}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{almost surely}$$

## 10.2 Strong Law of Large Numbers

Recall If  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  is the canonical model for sequences of independent random variables having law  $m$

then  $E = \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$

$$= \{x = (x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}) : x_n \in \mathbb{R} \forall n\}$$

$$X_n(x) = x_n$$

$$\mathcal{E} = \sigma(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$$

$$\mu\left(\prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n\right) = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} m(A_n)$$

Theorem 10.2.1 Let  $m$  be a Borel probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} |x| m(dx) < \infty$

$$v = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x m(dx)$$

Let  $(E, \mathcal{E}, \mu)$  be the canonical model for a sequence of independent random variables with law  $m$

Then  $\mu\left(\left\{x \in E : \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n} \rightarrow v \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty\right\}\right) = 1$



Proof

Consider the shift map  $\theta: E \rightarrow E$   
 given by  $\theta(x_1, x_2, \dots) = (x_2, x_3, \dots)$

Then  $\theta$  is measure-preserving and ergodic, by Theorem 9.2.1

The coordinate function  $f = X_1$  is integrable

$$\text{since } \mu(|f|) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |x| m(dx) < \infty$$

$$\text{Now } S_n(f) = f + f \circ \theta + \dots + f \circ \theta^{n-1} \\ = X_1 + \dots + X_n$$

So by Birkhoff's theorem (and von Neumann's theorem)

$\exists$  an invariant function  $\bar{f}$  such that  $\frac{S_n(f)}{n} \rightarrow \bar{f}$  almost everywhere and in  $L^1$

Since  $\theta$  is ergodic,  $\bar{f} = c$  almost everywhere for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{Then } c = \mu(\bar{f}) \\ = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu\left(\frac{S_n(f)}{n}\right) \\ = \mu(X_1) \\ = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x m(dx) \\ = \nu \quad \square$$

Theorem 10.2.2 Strong Law of Large Numbers

Let  $(Y_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of independent, identically distributed random variables in  $\mathbb{R}$

such that  $\mathbb{E}|Y_1| < \infty$  i.e. the variables are integrable  
 $\mathbb{E}(Y_1) = \nu$

$$\text{Set } S_n = Y_1 + \dots + Y_n$$

Then  $\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \nu$  almost surely as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof

In the notation of Theorem 10.2.1,  
 take  $m$  to be the law of the random variables  $Y_n$ .

Define  $Y: \Omega \rightarrow E$   
 by  $Y(\omega) = (Y_n(\omega) : n \in \mathbb{N})$

Then  $\mu = \mathbb{P} \circ Y^{-1}$  i.e.  $\mu$  is the distribution of  $Y$

$$\text{Set } A = \left\{ x \in E : \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n} \rightarrow \nu \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \right\}$$

$$\text{Then } \left\{ \frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \nu \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \right\} = \{Y \in A\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \nu \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty\right) = \mathbb{P}(Y \in A)$$

$$= \mu(A)$$

$$= 1 \quad \square$$

### 10.3 Central Limit Theorem

Let  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of independent random variables  
 $X_n \in L^2(\mathbb{P})$  having means  $\mu_n$  and variances  $\sigma_n^2$  (in  $\mathbb{R}$ )

Set  $m_n = \mu_1 + \dots + \mu_n$   
 $s_n^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2$   
 $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$

Let  $Z_n = \frac{S_n - m_n}{s_n}$

Then  $\mathbb{E}(Z_n) = 0$   
 $\text{Var}(Z_n) = 1$

Lindeberg condition

$$\frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}((X_k - \mu_k)^2 \mathbb{1}_{|X_k - \mu_k| > \varepsilon s_n}) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad (L)$$

Fact (L)  $\Rightarrow Z_n \rightarrow Z$  weakly in distribution as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$

#### Theorem 10.3.1 Central Limit Theorem

Let  $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  be a sequence of independent, identically distributed random variables with mean 0 and variance 1

Set  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$

Then,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} \leq x\right) \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} dy \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof By Theorem 7.7.1 it is sufficient to show that

$$\phi_{\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}}}(u) \rightarrow e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} \quad \forall u \in \mathbb{R}$$

Since  $\mathbb{E}(X_1^2) < \infty$  [ $X_1 \in L^2(\mathbb{P})$ ]

we can differentiate  $\phi_{X_1}(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{iuX_1})$  twice under the expectation, to obtain  $\phi_{X_1}(0) = 1$

$$\phi_{X_1}'(0) = 0$$

$$\phi_{X_1}''(0) = -1$$

$$\phi_{X_1}' = i \mathbb{E}(X_1 e^{iuX_1})$$

$$\phi_{X_1}'' = -\mathbb{E}(X_1^2 e^{iuX_1})$$

Hence, by Taylor's Theorem,  $\phi_{X_1}(u) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}u^2 + o(u^2)$  as  $u \rightarrow 0$

Now  $\phi_{\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}}}(u) = \mathbb{E}(e^{iu \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)})$

$$= (\mathbb{E}(e^{i \frac{u}{\sqrt{n}} X_1}))^n$$

$$= (\phi_{X_1}(\frac{u}{\sqrt{n}}))^n$$

$$= (1 - \frac{u^2}{2n} + o(\frac{u^2}{n}))^n \quad \leftarrow \text{complex}$$

The complex logarithm satisfies  $\log(1+z) = z + o(|z|)$  as  $z \rightarrow 0$

So, for each  $u \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\log(\phi_{\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}}}(u)) = n \log(1 - \frac{u^2}{2n} + o(\frac{u^2}{n}))$

$$= -\frac{u^2}{2} + o(1)$$

$$\rightarrow -\frac{u^2}{2} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$= \log(e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}})$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi_{\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}}}(u) \rightarrow e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow N(0, 1) \text{ in distribution} \quad \square$$



## Probability and Measure

The Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{L}$  is the completion  $\overline{\mathcal{B}}$  of the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra with respect to the Lebesgue measure (on  $\mathbb{R}$ )

We know  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$

To show  $\overline{\mathcal{B}} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$  it is sufficient to show that

for  $A \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $N \in \mathcal{B}$ , where  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  is such that  $\mu(B) = 0$

$$\mu^*(A) = \mu^*(A \cap \overline{B}) + \mu^*(A \cap N^c)$$

By countable sub-additivity,  $\mu^*(A) \leq \mu^*(A \cap N) + \mu^*(A \cap N^c)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also } \mu^*(A \cap N) &\leq \mu^*(A \cap B) \\ &\leq \mu^*(B) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} \mu^*(A \cap N) &\leq \mu^*(A \cap B) \\ &\leq \mu^*(B) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{ again by sub-additivity}$$

$$\text{and } \mu^*(A \cap N^c) \leq \mu^*(A)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu^*(A) \geq \mu^*(A \cap N) + \mu^*(A \cap N^c)$$

Lecture 4

## Approximation of Borel sets

Suppose  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $\mu(B) < \infty$

Then  $\mu(B) = \inf \sum_n \mu(A_n)$

where the infimum is taken over all sequences  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$  of finite unions of disjoint intervals such that  $B \subseteq \bigcup_n A_n$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose such a sequence  $(A_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$

$$\text{so that } \sum_n \mu(A_n) \leq \mu(B) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Then  $\exists N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sum_{n > N_0} \mu(A_n) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Let  $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{N_0} A_n$

Then  $\mu(B \Delta A) \leq \varepsilon$ , where  $B \Delta A = (B \setminus A) \cup (A \setminus B)$

Note that  $A$  is also a finite union of disjoint intervals

Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra

From  $\mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{T}$  we get not only a Borel measure

but a further extension to the set  $\mathcal{M}$  of outer measurable sets.

In this context  $\mathcal{M}$  is called the Lebesgue  $\sigma$ -algebra

In fact  $\mathcal{M} = \{ A \cup N : A \in \mathcal{B}, N \in \mathcal{B}, \text{ where } B \in \mathcal{B}, \mu(B) = 0 \}$

$\uparrow$  or  $\Delta$

$\uparrow$  null

$$\text{and } \mu(A \cup N) = \mu(A)$$

Note  $\mathcal{M} \neq 2^{\mathbb{R}}$

Let  $B$  be a Borel Lebesgue measurable set.

Suppose for now  $B \subseteq I$  for some finite interval  $I$ ,  
and set  $B' = I \setminus B$

Then  $\mu(I) = \mu(B) + \mu(B')$

$\exists$  open sets  $A_k^n$  such that  $B \subseteq \bigcup_k A_k^n$   
and  $\sum_k \mu(A_k^n) \leq \mu(B) + \frac{1}{n}$  (by definition of outer measure)

Set  $G_n = \bigcup_k A_k^n$

Then  $G_n$  is open,  $B \subseteq G_n$   
 $\mu(G_n) \leq \mu(B) + \frac{1}{n}$

Set  $G = \bigcap_n G_n$

Then  $B \subseteq G$ ,  $\mu(G) = \mu(B)$

Construct  $G'$  similarly for  $B'$

Then we must have  $\mu(G \cap G') = 0$   
and  $G \setminus B \subseteq G \cap G'$

What is the regularity of indefinite integrals?

Take  $f \geq 0$  integrable

Set  $F_0(t) = \int_0^t f(x) dx$

Then for  $t_n \uparrow t$ ,  $F_0(t_n) = \int_0^{\infty} 1_{[0, t_n]}(x) f(x) dx$   
 $\rightarrow F(t)$  by monotone convergence

Similarly for  $t_n \downarrow t$

So  $F$  is always continuous

$\exists$  a continuous, non-decreasing function  $F$  on  $\mathbb{R}$   
which is differentiable almost everywhere with derivative 0  
and such that  $F(0) = 0$ ,  $F(1) = 1$

So  $F(1) - F(0) \neq \int_0^1 F'(x) dx = 0$   $F$  is not always differentiable