

Lecture 3 : Random variables and their distributions

3.1 Random variables

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}) and (S, \mathcal{S}) be two measurable spaces. A map $X : \Omega \rightarrow S$ is *measurable* or a *random variable* (denoted r.v.) if

$$X^{-1}(A) \equiv \{\omega : X(\omega) \in A\} \in \mathcal{F} \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{S}$$

One can write $\{X \in A\}$ or $(X \in A)$ as a shorthand for $\{\omega : X(\omega) \in A\} = X^{-1}(A)$. If $(S, \mathcal{S}) = (\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{R}^d)$, then X is called a d -dimensional random vector. Here, \mathcal{R} is the Borel σ -field or the σ -field generated by the open subsets of \mathbb{R}^n , and \mathcal{R}^d is the d -fold product σ -algebra of \mathcal{R} with itself, which will be defined shortly.

Perhaps the simplest example of a measurable function is an indicator function of a measurable set. The indicator function of a set $F \in \mathcal{F}$ is defined as

$$1_F(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in F \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin F \end{cases}$$

3.2 Generation of σ -field

Let \mathcal{A} be a collection of subsets of Ω . The σ -field generated by \mathcal{A} , denoted by $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$, is the smallest σ -field on Ω which contains \mathcal{A} , which is the intersection of all σ -fields containing \mathcal{A} .

Let $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ be a family of mappings of Ω into measurable spaces (S_i, \mathcal{S}_i) , $i \in I$. Here, $I \neq \emptyset$ is an arbitrary (possibly uncountable) index set. The σ -field generated by $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$, denoted by $\sigma(\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}})$, is the smallest σ -field on Ω with respect to which each X_i is measurable. Taking $\mathcal{A} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \{X_i^{-1}(S) : S \in \mathcal{S}_i\}$, we can see that this case reduces to the previous one.

We now introduce product spaces and product σ -fields. Given measurable spaces (S_i, \mathcal{S}_i) and index set \mathcal{I} , define the product sample space as $\Omega = \prod_i S_i = \{(\omega_i, i \in \mathcal{I}) : \omega_i \in S_i\}$, the Cartesian product of the S_i . Given $S_i \in \mathcal{S}_i$, let \bar{S}_i be the set of points in $\omega \in \Omega$ for which the the i^{th} coordinate lies in S_i , that is, $\bar{S}_i = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega_i \in S_i\}$.

Let $\mathcal{A} = \{\bigcap_{i \in F} \bar{S}_i : F \subseteq \mathcal{S} \text{ is finite}\}$, that is, \mathcal{A} is the set of finite intersections of \bar{S}_i . The product σ -field is defined to be $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$.

3.3 Checking measurability

Theorem 3.3.1 *Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}) be a measurable space and $X : \Omega \rightarrow S$. If S has the σ -field $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ for an arbitrary collection of sets \mathcal{A} , then X is measurable iff $\{X \in A\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for $A \in \mathcal{A}$.*

Proof: We first prove the reverse direction. Since $\{X \in A\} = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in A\} = X^{-1}(A)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X^{-1}(A^c) &= (X^{-1}(A))^c \\ X^{-1}\left(\bigcup_i A_i\right) &= \bigcup_i X^{-1}(A_i) \\ X^{-1}\left(\bigcap_i A_i\right) &= \bigcap_i X^{-1}(A_i) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{A})) = \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{A}))$.

To prove the forward direction, note that the collection \mathcal{C} of subsets of S given by $\mathcal{C} = \{B \subset S : X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is a σ -field which contains \mathcal{A} and hence $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ which is the σ -field generated by \mathcal{A} . ■

Similarly, if S has the σ -field $\sigma(Y_i, i \in I)$, X is measurable iff each $Y_i \circ X$ is measurable.

Fact: The composition of two measurable maps is measurable.

3.4 Real and extended real random variables

Let S be a topological space. The *Borel σ -field* on S , denoted by $\mathcal{B}(S)$, is the σ -field generated by open subsets of S . If $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a continuous function, then f is measurable from $(S, \mathcal{B}(S))$ to $(T, \mathcal{B}(T))$ by the previous theorem.

If $(S, \mathcal{S}) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{R})$, then some possible choices of \mathcal{A} are $\{(-\infty, x] : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ or $\{(-\infty, x] : x \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ where $\mathbb{Q} =$ the rationals.

For the real line $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$ and extended real line $\bar{\mathbb{R}} = [-\infty, \infty]$, the Borel σ -fields can be defined as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) &= \sigma\{(-\infty, x], x \in \mathbb{R}\} \\ \mathcal{B}(\bar{\mathbb{R}}) &= \sigma\{[-\infty, x], x \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}\} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 3.4.1 (Real Random Variable) Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}) be a measurable space. A real random variable (r.r.v.) is a measurable map from Ω to \mathbb{R} .

Thus a function X with range \mathbb{R} is a r.v. iff $(X \leq x) \in \mathcal{F}$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ (by theorem 2.1). Similarly, extended real random variables (e.r.r.v.) can be defined on range $\bar{\mathbb{R}}$.

Operations on real numbers are performed pointwise on real-valued functions, e.g.,

$$Z = X + Y \text{ means } Z(\omega) = X(\omega) + Y(\omega) \text{ for all } \omega \in \Omega$$

$$\text{and } Z = \lim_n Z_n \text{ means } Z(\omega) = \lim_n Z_n(\omega) \text{ for all } \omega \in \Omega$$

Notation for real numbers: $x \vee y = \max(x, y)$, $x \wedge y = \min(x, y)$, $x^+ = x \vee 0$, $x^- = -(x \wedge 0)$. Note that $|x| = x^+ + x^-$ and $x = x^+ - x^-$.

Theorem 3.4.2 If X_1, X_2, \dots are e.r.r.v.'s on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) , then they are closed under all limiting operations, i.e.,

$$\inf_n X_n, \sup_n X_n, \liminf_n X_n, \limsup_n X_n$$

are also e.r.r.v.

Proof: Since the infimum of a sequence is $< a$ iff some term is $< a$, we have

$$\left\{ \inf_n X_n < a \right\} = \bigcup_n \{X_n < a\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

The proof for supremum follows similarly.

For limit inferior of X_n , we have

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n := \sup_n \left\{ \inf_{m \geq n} X_m \right\}$$

Now note that $Y_n = \inf_{m \geq n} X_m$ is an e.r.r.v. for each n and so $\sup_n Y_n$ is also an e.r.r.v. The proof for limit superior follows similarly. ■

From the above proof we see that

$$\Omega_0 \equiv \left\{ \omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \text{ exists} \right\} = \left\{ \omega : \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n - \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = 0 \right\}$$

is a measurable set. If $X_n(\omega)$ converges for almost all ω , i.e., $\mathbb{P}(\Omega_0) = 1$, we say that X_n converges almost surely to a limit X which is defined on Ω_0 . X can be defined arbitrarily on $\Omega \setminus \Omega_0$, with different authors preferring different conventions.

Definition 3.4.3 (Simple Random Variable) X is a simple random variable iff X is a finite linear combination of indicators, i.e., X can be expressed as $X(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i 1_{A_i}(\omega)$ where $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$. A simple r.v. can only take finitely many values.

Theorem 3.4.4 Every real r.v. X is a pointwise limit of a sequence of simple r.v.'s, which can be taken to be increasing if $X \geq 0$.

Proof: For $X \geq 0$ let,

$$X_n = \begin{cases} \frac{k-1}{2^n} & \text{on } \{\frac{k-1}{2^n} \leq X < \frac{k}{2^n}\}, 0 \leq k \leq n2^n \\ n & \text{on } \{X \geq n\} \end{cases}$$

Then $X_n \uparrow X$. For general X use the decomposition $X = X^+ - X^-$. ■

Corollary 3.4.5 Let X and Y be real valued r.v.'s. Then so are XY , $X+Y$, $X-Y$, $\min(X, Y)$, $\max(X, Y)$.

Proof: Consider $X_n \uparrow X$ and $Y_n \uparrow Y$. This implies $X_n Y_n \uparrow XY$. Similarly, use the previous theorem to pass from simple case to the more general cases. ■

Lecture 4 : Expected Value

References: Durrett [Section 1.3]

4.5 Expected Value

Denote by $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ a probability space.

Definition 4.5.1 *Let $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a \mathcal{F} -measurable random variable. The expected value of X is defined by*

$$\mathbb{E}(X) := \int_{\Omega} X d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) \mathbb{P}(d\omega) \quad (4.1)$$

The integral is defined as in Lebesgue integration, whenever $\int_{\Omega} |X| d\mathbb{P} < \infty$.

Theorem 4.5.2 (Existence of the integral for nonnegative e.r.r.v.) *Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space. There is a unique functional $\mathbb{E} : X \mapsto \mathbb{E}(X) \in [0, \infty]$ such that*

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{1}_A) = \mathbb{P}(A), \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{F} \quad (4.2)$$

$$\mathbb{E}(cX) = c\mathbb{E}(X), \quad \forall c \geq 0, X \geq 0 \quad (4.3)$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X + Y) = \mathbb{E}(X) + \mathbb{E}(Y), \quad \forall X, Y \geq 0 \quad (4.4)$$

$$X \leq Y \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y) \quad (4.5)$$

$$X_n \uparrow X \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X) \quad (4.6)$$

Proof Sketch: From these desired properties, we see immediately how to define $\mathbb{E}(X)$. The procedure is well known from Lebesgue integration. First extend \mathbb{E} from indicators to simple r.v.'s by linearity, then to positive r.v.'s by continuity from below, and finally check that everything is consistent.

Step 1: Simple random variables

Check that if $X = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \mathbf{1}_{A_i}$ is a simple random variable, then

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \mathbb{P}(A_i) \quad (4.7)$$

works. Verify that \mathbb{E} is well defined, etc.

Step 2: Nonnegative random variables

Now use (4.6) to extend \mathbb{E} for general $X \geq 0$. We know that there exists an increasing sequence X_n of simple r.v. with $X_n \uparrow X$. Now see that $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow$ (by monotonicity of \mathbb{E}). Define

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n) \quad (4.8)$$

Verify again that $\mathbb{E}(X)$ is well defined.

Remark 4.5.3 Note that $\mathbb{E}(X) = +\infty$ is possible even if $\mathbb{P}(X < \infty) = 1$. As an example look at G which is a geometric r.v., i.e. $\mathbb{P}(G = g) = 2^{-g}, \forall g = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Note that $\mathbb{P}(G < \infty) = 1$, but $\mathbb{E}(2^G) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 2^g 2^{-g} = \infty$.

Step 3: Signed random variables

Write X as $X = X^+ - X^-$, where $X^+ := \max(X, 0)$ and $X^- := -\min(X, 0)$. Define $\mathbb{E}(X)$ as follows

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X^+) - \mathbb{E}(X^-) \quad (4.9)$$

provided this expression is not $\infty - \infty$. Such X are *quasi-integrable*. X is *integrable* if $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$.

■

4.6 Integration and Limit

Theorem 4.6.1 (Fatou's Lemma) If $X_n \geq 0$ then $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}X_n \geq \mathbb{E}(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n)$.

Example 4.6.2 Define X_n on $[0, 1]$ as $X_n = n\mathbf{1}_{(0, 1/n)}$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 = 1 \geq 0 = \mathbb{E}(0) = \mathbb{E}\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n\right) \quad (4.10)$$

Theorem 4.6.3 (Monotone Convergence Theorem) If $0 \leq X_n \uparrow X$ then $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X)$.

Theorem 4.6.4 (Dominated Convergence Theorem) If $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s., $|X_n| \leq Y$ for all n , and $\mathbb{E}(Y) < \infty$, then $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$.

Remark 4.6.5 Fatou's Lemma is usually applied when $\lim_n X_n$ exists, so the \liminf on the left is a \lim . Remember example 4.6.2 to get the inequality the right way.

Remark 4.6.6 The simplest bound Y in the dominated convergence theorem is a constant. (This works because we are in a finite measure space!)

Lecture 5 : Inequalities

5.7 Inequalities

Let X, Y etc. be real r.v.'s defined on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

Theorem 5.7.1 (Jensen's Inequality) *Let φ be convex, $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$, $\mathbb{E}(|\varphi(X)|) < \infty$. Then*

$$\varphi(\mathbb{E}(X)) \leq \mathbb{E}(\varphi(X)) \quad (5.11)$$

Proof Sketch: As φ is convex, φ is the supremum of a countable collection of lines.

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(x) &= \sup_n L_n(x), \quad L_n(x) = a_n x + b_n \\ L_n(\mathbb{E}X) &\stackrel{(1)}{=} \mathbb{E}(L_n(X)) \\ &\stackrel{(2)}{\leq} \mathbb{E}(\varphi(X)) \end{aligned}$$

Take sup on n .

(1) used linearity, (2) used monotonicity. ■

Keep the following example in mind to remember the direction of the inequality.

Example 5.7.2

$$\mathbb{E}X^2 \geq (\mathbb{E}X)^2. \quad (5.12)$$

In other words, if we define $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X - \mathbb{E}(X))^2$ then we get $\text{Var}(X) \geq 0$.

Example 5.7.3 *Let $\Omega = \{-1, 1\}^n$ and $S_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ then we can calculate*

$$\mathbb{E}(S_n(x)) = \mathbb{E} \left(\frac{1}{2} (2^1 \cdot 2^{S_{n-1}(x)} + 2^{-1} \cdot 2^{S_{n-1}(x)}) \right) = \frac{5}{4} \mathbb{E}(2^{S_{n-1}(x)}).$$

By induction we see that $\mathbb{E}(2^{S_n}) = (\frac{5}{4})^n$ and

$$\left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^n = \mathbb{E}(2^{S_n}) \geq 2^{\mathbb{E}(S_n)} = 2^0 = 1.$$

Other noteworthy facts can be derived as corollaries of Jensen's Inequality.

Example 5.7.4

$$\|X\|_p \uparrow \text{ as } p \uparrow \quad (5.13)$$

$$|\mathbb{E}(X)| \leq \mathbb{E}(|X|) \quad (5.14)$$

Theorem 5.7.5 (Markov's Inequality) *If $X \geq 0$, $a > 0$, then*

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \mathbb{E}(X)/a \quad (5.15)$$

Proof: Integrate $\mathbf{1}_{X \geq a} \leq X/a$. The stated result follows by monotonicity and linearity. ■

Theorem 5.7.6 (Chebyshev's Inequality) *Let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ be increasing. Then*

$$\mathbb{P}(|Y| > b) \leq \mathbb{E}(\psi(|Y|))/\psi(b) \quad (5.16)$$

Proof:

$$\mathbb{P}(|Y| > b) \stackrel{(1)}{=} \mathbb{P}(\psi(|Y|) > \psi(b)) \stackrel{(2)}{\leq} \mathbb{E}(\psi(|Y|))/\psi(b)$$

(1) used that ψ is increasing, and (2) used Markov's inequality. ■

Example 5.7.7 *Note important examples $\psi(x) = x^p, \exp(x)$, etc.*

$$\psi(x) = x^2 \implies \mathbb{P}(|Y| > b) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y^2)/b^2 \quad (5.17)$$

$$X = Y - \mathbb{E}(Y) \implies \mathbb{P}(|Y - \mathbb{E}(Y)| > b) \leq \mathbb{E}((Y - \mathbb{E}(Y))^2)/b^2 \quad (5.18)$$

Consider $\Omega = \{-1, 1\}^N$ and $S_N(x) = \sum_1^N x_i$. Then with $\psi(y) = 2^y$ we get

$$\mathbb{P}(S_N(x) > \frac{1}{2}N) = \mathbb{P}(2^{S_N(x)} > 2^{N/2}) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(2^{S_N(x)})}{2^{N/2}} \leq \frac{5^N}{4^N 2^{N/2}} \leq .9^N.$$

With a little more work we can show that for every $\lambda > 0$ there exists $\alpha > 1$ and $\beta < 1$ such that using Chebychev's inequality with $\psi(y) = \alpha^y$ we get

$$\mathbb{P}(S_N(x) > \lambda N) = \mathbb{P}(\alpha^{S_N(x)} > \alpha^{\lambda N}) \leq \beta^N.$$

On the first day of the quarter we did this same calculation with $\psi(y) = y^2$. We calculated that $\mathbb{E}(S_N^2) = N$ and that

$$\mathbb{P}(|S_N| > \lambda N) \leq \frac{N}{(\lambda N)^2} = \frac{1}{\lambda^2 N}.$$

Does there exist a random variable Y and $b > 0$ such that Chebychev's inequality is an equality,

$$\mathbb{P}(|Y| \geq b) = \frac{\mathbb{E}(Y^2)}{b^2}?$$

Yes. We can choose $b = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = 1$. More generally we could set $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = 1 - p$ and $\mathbb{P}(Y = -1) = p$.

Does there exist Y such that

$$\limsup_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b^2 \mathbb{P}(|Y| > b)}{\mathbb{E}(Y^2)} > 0?$$

Fix Y and $\epsilon > 0$. Pick N such that $\mathbb{E}(Y \mathbf{1}_{|Y| > N}) < \epsilon$ and $b > N$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(|Y| > b) = \mathbb{P}(|Y \mathbf{1}_{|Y| > b}| > b)$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}(|Y \mathbf{1}_{|Y| > b}|) < \mathbb{E}(|Y \mathbf{1}_{|Y| > N}|) < \epsilon.$$

By Chebychev's inequality

$$b^2 \mathbb{P}(|Y \mathbf{1}_{|Y| > b}| > b) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y^2 (\mathbf{1}_{|Y| > b})^2) \tag{5.19}$$

$$\leq \mathbb{E}(Y^2 \mathbf{1}_{|Y| > b}) \tag{5.20}$$

$$\leq \epsilon \tag{5.21}$$

Thus

$$\frac{b^2 \mathbb{P}(|Y| > b)}{\mathbb{E}(Y^2)} = b^2 \mathbb{P}(|Y| > b) \tag{5.22}$$

$$\leq \epsilon \tag{5.23}$$