

## 5. Convergence and Independence

### 5.1 Convergence

**Definition 5.1** (Almost sure convergence). *We say  $X_n \rightarrow X$  almost surely (a.s.) or with probability 1 if*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left\{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\right\}\right) = 1.$$

Recall that in the original MCT in Theorem 4.2, we suppose that  $0 \leq X_n(\omega) \leq X_{n+1}(\omega)$  and  $X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega)$  for all  $\omega \in \Omega$ . Here, we show that we can replace the condition “for all  $\omega \in \Omega$ ” with “almost surely”. Let

$$A = \{\omega : X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega), 0 \leq X_n(\omega) \leq X_{n+1}(\omega), n \geq 1\}$$

and suppose  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$ . We have  $0 \leq X_n \mathbf{1}_A(\omega) \leq X_{n+1} \mathbf{1}_A(\omega)$ , and  $X_n \mathbf{1}_A(\omega) \rightarrow X \mathbf{1}_A(\omega)$   $\forall \omega \in \Omega$ . Then from the MCT in Theorem 4.2, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n \mathbf{1}_A] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X \mathbf{1}_A].$$

For any  $Y \geq 0$ , let  $Y \wedge n = \min(Y, n)$  for  $n \geq 1$ . Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[Y \mathbf{1}_{A^c}] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (Y \wedge n) \mathbf{1}_{A^c}\right] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[(Y \wedge n) \mathbf{1}_{A^c}] \\ &\leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \mathbb{P}(A^c) \\ &= 0, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where we have use the MCT in (1). Therefore,  $\mathbb{E}[X_n \mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}X_n$  and  $\mathbb{E}[X \mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}X$ , and the MCT holds if “ $\forall \omega \in \Omega$ ” is replaced with “almost surely” in its theorem statement. The same thing applies for Fatou’s Lemma and the DCT.

**Definition 5.2** (Convergence in probability). *If  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) = 0,$$

*we say that  $X_n$  converges to  $X$  in probability and write  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ .*

**Lemma 5.1.** *If  $X_n \rightarrow X$  a.s., then  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose  $X_n \rightarrow X$  a.s., then  $\mathbf{1}_{\{|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon\}} \rightarrow 0$  a.s. From DCT (since probability measure is finite), we have  $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$ .  $\square$

The converse is not true and here is an example.

**Example 5.1.** *Suppose  $\Omega = [0, 1]$ . Consider the random variables  $X_n$  shown in Fig. 1, where  $X_n$  follows a similar pattern for  $n \geq 5$ . We have  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ , but clearly  $X_n \not\rightarrow 0$  a.s. as  $X_n(\omega) = 1$  for infinitely many values of  $n$  for every  $\omega \in \Omega$ .*

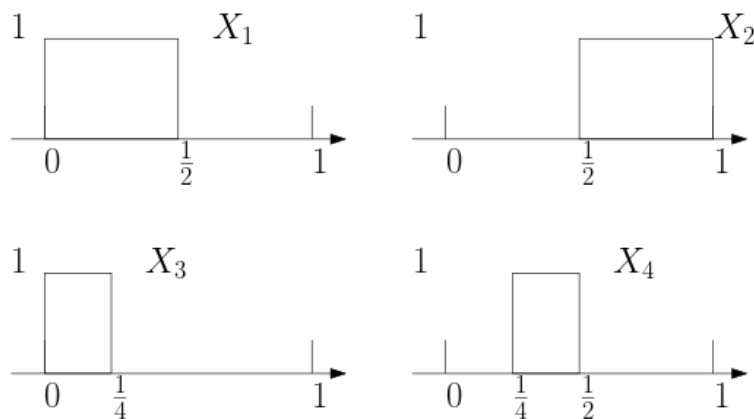


Fig. 1:  $X_n$  converges in probability but not almost surely.

## 5.2 Weak Law of Large Numbers

Markov's inequality: Suppose  $a > 0$  and  $X \geq 0$ . Then,

$$a\mathbf{1}_{\{X \geq a\}}(\omega) \leq X\mathbf{1}_{\{X \geq a\}}(\omega) \leq X.$$

Taking expectations, we have

$$\begin{aligned} a\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) &\leq \mathbb{E}X, \\ \mathbb{P}(X \geq a) &\leq \frac{1}{a}\mathbb{E}X. \end{aligned}$$

Chebyshev's inequality follows from Markov's inequality by replacing  $X$  with  $|X - \mathbb{E}X|^2$  and setting  $a = \epsilon^2$ : for  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mathbb{E}X| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \text{var}(X).$$

**Theorem 5.1** (Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)). *Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are such that  $\mathbb{E}X_i = 0$ ,  $\mathbb{E}X_i^2 = \sigma^2 < \infty$  and  $\mathbb{E}[X_i X_j] \leq 0$  for  $i \neq j$ . Then,*

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{p} 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right)^2 \right] &= \frac{1}{n^2} \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_i X_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i < j} X_i X_j \right] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_i \mathbb{E} X_i^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

From Chebyshev's inequality, we then have for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right| \geq \epsilon \right) \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \rightarrow 0,$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . □

## 5.3 Product Measures

Given two measure spaces  $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{A}_1, \mu_1)$  and  $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{A}_2, \mu_2)$ , where both  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  are  $\sigma$ -finite, we can define a new measurable space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ , where  $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$  and

$$\mathcal{F} = \sigma \{A \times B : A \in \mathcal{A}_1, B \in \mathcal{A}_2\}.$$

We call  $A \times B$  a rectangle. A natural measure  $\mu$  for this measurable space satisfies

$$\mu(A \times B) = \mu_1(A) \mu_2(B) \tag{2}$$

for all rectangles  $A \times B$ . It can be checked that the collection of finite disjoint unions of rectangles is an algebra (exercise). To extend this measure  $\mu$  to  $\mathcal{F}$ , we make use of Caratheodory's Extension Theorem (Theorem 3.1): we show that for  $A \times B = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} A_i \times B_i$  a disjoint union of rectangles, we have  $\mu(A \times B) = \sum_{i \geq 1} \mu_1(A_i) \mu_2(B_i)$ .

For  $x \in A$ , let  $I(x) = \{i : x \in A_i\}$  and  $B = \bigcup_{i \in I(x)} B_i$  a disjoint union. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{1}_A(x) \mu_2(B) &= \mathbf{1}_A(x) \mu_2 \left( \bigcup_{i \in I(x)} B_i \right) \\ &= \sum_{i \in I(x)} \mathbf{1}_A(x) \mu_2(B_i) \\ &= \sum_{i \geq 1} \mathbf{1}_{A_i}(x) \mu_2(B_i). \end{aligned}$$

Integrating w.r.t.  $\mu_1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu(A \times B) &= \int \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{A_i}(x) \mu_2(B_i) d\mu_1 \\
&\stackrel{\text{MCT}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{A_i}(x) \mu_2(B_i) d\mu_1 \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \int \mathbf{1}_{A_i}(x) \mu_2(B_i) d\mu_1 \\
&= \sum_{i \geq 1} \mu_1(A_i) \mu_2(B_i),
\end{aligned}$$

where the interchange of the sum and integral in the penultimate equality holds because the number of terms is finite. Therefore, Caratheodory's Extension Theorem shows that there is a unique extension of  $\mu$  defined by (2) to  $\mathcal{F}$ . This is called a *product measure*. Notationally, we write  $\mu = \mu_1 \times \mu_2$ .

The next theorem tells us when we can interchange integrals in general.

**Theorem 5.2** (Fubini or Fubini-Tonelli). *Suppose  $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{A}_1, \mu_1)$  and  $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{A}_2, \mu_2)$  are  $\sigma$ -finite and  $\mu = \mu_1 \times \mu_2$  is the product measure. Consider  $f : \Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ . If  $f \geq 0$  or  $\int |f| d\mu < \infty$ , then*

$$\int_{\Omega_1} \int_{\Omega_2} f(x, y) d\mu_2 d\mu_1 = \int_{\Omega} f d\mu = \int_{\Omega_2} \int_{\Omega_1} f(x, y) d\mu_1 d\mu_2.$$

*Proof.* Note that implicit in the theorem statement are the following that we need to prove:

- (i) For each  $x \in \Omega_1$ ,  $y \mapsto f(x, y)$  is  $\mathcal{A}_2$ -measurable.
- (ii)  $x \mapsto \int_{\Omega_2} f(x, y) d\mu_2$  is  $\mathcal{A}_1$ -measurable.
- (iii)  $\int_{\Omega_1} \int_{\Omega_2} f(x, y) d\mu_2 d\mu_1 = \int_{\Omega} f d\mu$ .

Without loss of generality, we may assume  $\mu_1, \mu_2 < \infty$  as the same proof is valid on each partition of  $\Omega$  and then we can apply the MCT.

The proof follows the steps discussed at the end of Section 4.2. We first prove the theorem for the simplest case where  $f = \mathbf{1}_E$ , where  $E \in \mathcal{F}$ , the product  $\sigma$ -algebra. Let  $E_x = \{y : (x, y) \in E\}$ .

(i): Fix  $x$ , then  $y \mapsto f(x, y) = \mathbf{1}_{E_x}(y)$ . We need to show  $E_x \in \mathcal{A}_2$ . Let  $\mathcal{E} = \{E \in \mathcal{F} : E_x \in \mathcal{A}_2\}$ . We have  $(E^c)_x = (E_x)^c$  since  $y \in (E^c)_x \Leftrightarrow (x, y) \in E^c \Leftrightarrow y \in (E_x)^c$ , and  $(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} E_i)_x = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} (E_i)_x$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{E}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra and it contains all rectangles  $A \times B$  where  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , which implies that  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{E}$ .

(ii) & (iii): Let  $\mathcal{L} = \{E \in \mathcal{F} : f = \mathbf{1}_E \text{ satisfies (ii) \& (iii)}\}$ .

- $\Omega \in \mathcal{L}$ .
- If  $E \in \mathcal{L}$ ,  $\mu_2((E^c)_x) = \mu_2((E_x)^c) = \mu_2(\Omega_2) - \mu_2(E_x)$ . Since  $\mu_2(\Omega_2) < \infty$  and  $\mu_2(E_x)$  is  $\mathcal{A}_1$ -measurable,  $\mu_2((E^c)_x)$  is  $\mathcal{A}_1$ -measurable. We also have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \mu_2((E^c)_x) d\mu_1 &= \mu_2(\Omega_2)\mu_1(\Omega_1) - \int \mu_2(E_x) d\mu_1 \\ &= \mu(\Omega) - \mu(E) \\ &= \mu(E^c). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $E^c \in \mathcal{L}$ .

- If  $E_i \in \mathcal{L}$ ,  $i \geq 1$ , are disjoint, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_2\left(\left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} E_i\right)_x\right) &= \mu_2\left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} (E_i)_x\right) \\ &= \sum_{i \geq 1} \mu_2((E_i)_x) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_2((E_i)_x), \end{aligned}$$

which is  $\mathcal{A}_1$ -measurable from Lemma 4.2 since each  $\mu_2((E_i)_x)$  is  $\mathcal{A}_1$ -measurable. From the MCT, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \mu_2\left(\left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} E_i\right)_x\right) d\mu_1 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_2((E_i)_x) d\mu_1 \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \int \mu_2((E_i)_x) d\mu_1 \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(E_i) \\ &= \mu\left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} E_i\right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\mathcal{L}$  is a  $\lambda$ -system containing the collection of rectangles, which is a  $\pi$ -system. From the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  Theorem, we obtain  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{L}$ . We have now shown that Fubini's Theorem holds for  $f = \mathbf{1}_E$ ,  $E \in \mathcal{F}$ .

From linearity of integrals, the theorem holds for all simple functions  $f$ .

For  $f \geq 0$ ,  $\exists$  simple  $f_i \uparrow f$ . Applying MCT gives Fubini's theorem for non-negative  $f$ .

Finally, for general  $f = f^+ - f^-$ , we note that  $\int |f| d\mu < \infty$  implies  $\int f^+ d\mu, \int f^- d\mu < \infty$ , and

$$\begin{aligned}\int f^+ d\mu &= \int \int f^+(x, y) d\mu_1 d\mu_2 \implies \int f^+(x, y) d\mu_1 < \infty \text{ } \mu_2\text{-a.e.} \\ &= \int \int f^+(x, y) d\mu_2 d\mu_1 \implies \int f^+(x, y) d\mu_2 < \infty \text{ } \mu_1\text{-a.e.}\end{aligned}$$

Similarly for  $f^-$  so that

$$\int \int f^+(x, y) d\mu_1 d\mu_2 - \int \int f^-(x, y) d\mu_1 d\mu_2 = \int \int f(x, y) d\mu_1 d\mu_2.$$

The proof is now complete. □

**Example 5.2.**

$$\begin{array}{c} x \longrightarrow \\ y \uparrow \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & \dots \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \end{pmatrix} \end{array} \quad (3)$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_y \sum_x f(x, y) &= \sum_y 0 = 0. \\ \sum_x \sum_y f(x, y) &= 1 + 0 + 0 + \dots = 1.\end{aligned}$$

*This example shows that the conditions in Fubini's Theorem are essentially necessary.*

**Example 5.3.** Suppose  $((0, 1), \mathcal{B}(0, 1), \lambda) \times ((0, 1), 2^{(0, 1)}, \nu)$ , where  $\nu(A) = |A|$  is the counting measure, which is not  $\sigma$ -finite. Let

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x = y, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}\int f(x, y) d\nu &= 1 \text{ for each } x \implies \int \int f(x, y) d\nu d\lambda = 1, \\ \int f(x, y) d\lambda &= 0 \text{ for each } y \implies \int \int f(x, y) d\lambda d\nu = 0.\end{aligned}$$

*This example shows that  $\sigma$ -finiteness of the measures is necessary.*

## 5.4 Independence

Throughout this section, we consider a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ .

**Definition 5.3.** Two events  $A$  and  $B$  are independent if  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$ . We write  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ .

If  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ , then it is easy to verify the following:

- (i)  $A^c \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ .
- (ii)  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B^c$ .
- (iii)  $A^c \perp\!\!\!\perp B^c$ .

I.e., the two  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\{\emptyset, \Omega, A, A^c\}$  and  $\{\emptyset, \Omega, B, B^c\}$  are “independent”.

**Definition 5.4.** The sub- $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}_i \subset \mathcal{A}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , are independent if  $\forall A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i).$$

They are said to be pairwise independent if  $\mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j) = \mathbb{P}(A_i)\mathbb{P}(A_j) \forall i \neq j$ .

We say that the random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent if  $\sigma(X_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , are independent, i.e.,  $\forall B_i \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \in B_1, X_2 \in B_2, \dots, X_n \in B_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_i \in B_i).$$

Note that independence  $\implies$  pairwise independence but the converse is false. Here are two counter examples to show that pairwise independence does not imply independence.

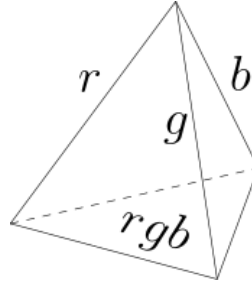


Fig. 2: Dice example: pairwise independence does not imply independence.

**Example 5.4.** Consider a fair tetrahedron dice that has one red edge, one green edge and one blue edge as shown in Fig. 2. The bottom has all three colors. Let  $r$  be the event that the

dice when tossed lands on a face with a red boundary. The events  $b$ ,  $g$  and  $rgb$  are defined similarly. Then, by symmetry, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(r) &= \mathbb{P}(g) = \mathbb{P}(b) = \frac{1}{2}, \\ \mathbb{P}(rgb) &= \mathbb{P}(rg) = \mathbb{P}(gb) = \mathbb{P}(rb) = \frac{1}{4}.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, these events are pairwise independent but not independent.

**Example 5.5.** Consider two six-sided fair dice. Let

$$\begin{aligned}A_1 &= \{1st\ dice\ is\ odd\}, \\ A_2 &= \{2nd\ dice\ is\ odd\}, \\ A_{sum} &= \{sum\ of\ the\ two\ dice\ is\ odd\}.\end{aligned}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(A_1) &= \mathbb{P}(A_2) = \mathbb{P}(A_{sum}) = \frac{1}{2}, \\ \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_2) &= \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_{sum}) = \mathbb{P}(A_2 \cap A_{sum}) = \frac{1}{4}, \\ \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_{sum}) &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the events are pairwise independent but not independent. In particular,  $\sigma(A_1)$  is not independent with  $\sigma(\{A_2, A_{sum}\})$ .

**Lemma 5.2.** Suppose the two collections of subsets  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  are  $\pi$ -systems and  $\mathbb{P}(B \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(C)$ ,  $\forall B \in \mathcal{E}, C \in \mathcal{C}$ . Then  $\sigma(\mathcal{E})$  and  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  are independent.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{D}_1 = \{D \in \mathcal{A} : \mathbb{P}(D \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(D)\mathbb{P}(C), \forall C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ . As an exercise, one can check that  $\mathcal{D}_1$  is a  $\lambda$ -system. Since  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{D}_1$ , from the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem we have  $\sigma(\mathcal{E}) \subset \mathcal{D}_1$ .

Let  $\mathcal{D}_2 = \{D \in \mathcal{A} : \mathbb{P}(B \cap D) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(D), \forall B \in \sigma(\mathcal{E})\}$ . Similarly  $\mathcal{D}_2$  is a  $\lambda$ -system. From above,  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}_2$  and by the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem, we have  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}_2$ . Therefore,  $\sigma(\mathcal{E}) \perp\!\!\!\perp \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ .  $\square$

By induction, if  $\mathcal{B}_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  are  $\pi$ -systems and are independent, then  $\sigma(\mathcal{B}_i)$  are independent.

**Corollary 5.1.** The random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq t_1, X_2 \leq t_2, \dots, X_n \leq t_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_i \leq t_i).$$

*Proof.* Since  $\{(-\infty, t] : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$  is a  $\pi$ -system that generates  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ , the corollary follows from Lemma 5.2.  $\square$



**Lemma 5.3.** Suppose that each random variable  $X_i$  has pdf  $f_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Then  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent iff  $\exists$  a joint pdf  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(X_i)$ .

*Proof.* ‘ $\Leftarrow$ ’:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n \{X_i \in A_i\}\right) &= \int_{A_1 \times \dots \times A_n} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n \\ &= \int_{A_1 \times \dots \times A_n} \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i) dx_1 \cdots dx_n \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \int_{A_i} f_i(x_i) dx_i \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_i \in A_i). \end{aligned}$$

‘ $\Rightarrow$ ’: Let  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . For  $A_i \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , we are given

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X \in A_1 \times \dots \times A_n) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_i \in A_i) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \int_{A_i} f_i(x_i) dx_i \\ &= \int_{A_1 \times \dots \times A_n} \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i) dx_1 \cdots dx_n. \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

We want to show that

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = \int_A \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i) dx_1 \cdots dx_n$$

for all  $A$  in the product  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \sigma\{A_1 \times \dots \times A_n : A_i \in \mathcal{B}\}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{L} = \{A \in \mathcal{E} : \mathbb{P}(X \in A) = \int_A \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i) dx_1 \cdots dx_n\}$ . It can be checked that  $\mathcal{L}$  is a  $\lambda$ -system and  $\mathcal{P} = \{A_1 \times \dots \times A_n : A_i \in \mathcal{B}\}$  is a  $\pi$ -system and generates  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Since  $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{L}$  from (5), by the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  Theorem, we have  $\sigma(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{L}$  and the proof is complete.  $\square$

**Lemma 5.4.** If  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$  and are integrable, then  $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}X\mathbb{E}Y$ .

*Proof.* The distribution of  $(X, Y)$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is the product measure  $\mathbb{P}_X \times \mathbb{P}_Y$ . From Fubini's theorem, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} xy d\mathbb{P}_X \times \mathbb{P}_Y(x, y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x d\mathbb{P}_X(x) \int_{\mathbb{R}} y d\mathbb{P}_Y(y) = \mathbb{E}X\mathbb{E}Y.$$

$\square$

Suppose  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ . For any measurable functions  $f$  and  $g$ ,  $f(X) \perp\!\!\!\perp g(Y)$  since  $\sigma(f(X)) \subset \sigma(X)$ .