

# STAT 709: My notes

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# Chapter 1

## Intro

### 1.1 Textbook

As of Fall 2018, this class uses the book *Mathematical Statistics* by Jun Shao (2nd. edition). Unless otherwise noted, all definitions, lemmas, proposition, theorems, etc. can be found there. Numbering might not match.

### 1.2 Conventions re: $\infty$

We will use the following conventions:

- $\infty + x = \infty, x \in \mathbb{R}$
- $x \cdot \infty = \infty$  if  $x > 0$
- $x \cdot \infty = -\infty$  if  $x < 0$
- $0 \cdot \infty = 0$
- $\infty + \infty = \infty$
- $\infty^a = \infty, \forall a > 0$
- $\infty - \infty$  and  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  are not defined



# Chapter 2

## Lecture Notes

### 2.1 Chapter 1: Probability Theory

#### 2.1.1 Lecture 1: Measure space, measurable function, and integration

##### 2.1.1.1 $\sigma$ -fields

**Definition 2.1** ( $\sigma$ -field (or  $\sigma$ -algebra)). A  $\mathcal{F}$  collection of subsets of  $\Omega$  is called a  $\sigma$ -field (or  $\sigma$ -algebra) if the following three conditions hold:

- i)  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$
- ii)  $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$
- iii) If  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , then  $\bigcup_i A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ .

**Example 2.1** (A Few  $\sigma$ -fields). There are some trivial examples. One is the example where  $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$ . It is easy to check that the three conditions are met for this collection of subsets. Another trivial example would be  $\mathcal{F} = \mathbb{P}(\Omega)$ <sup>1</sup>.

The simplest non-trivial example is  $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, A, A^c, \Omega\}$  where  $A \subset \Omega$ . Since this collection of subsets is so small, it is easy to check the three conditions mentioned above.

**Definition 2.2** (Measurable Space). If  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$ , then we call  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  a *measurable space*.

##### 2.1.1.2 $\sigma$ -field generated by a collection of subsets

Sometimes we are interested in a specific collection of subsets,  $\mathcal{C}$ , that is NOT a  $\sigma$ -field. But since all the machinery we will develop works with  $\sigma$ -fields, we are interested in creating a  $\sigma$ -field that contains  $\mathcal{C}$ . So we introduce the notion of a  *$\sigma$ -field generated by a collection of subsets*.

**Definition 2.3** (Generated  $\sigma$ -field). The smallest  $\sigma$ -field containing a collection of subsets,  $\mathcal{C}$ , is called the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ .

$\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  is used to denote the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ , and is by definition the smallest  $\sigma$ -field that contains  $\mathcal{C}$ : if  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field with  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{F}$ , then  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ .

##### 2.1.1.3 Borel $\sigma$ -field

A particular important  $\sigma$ -field is the Borel  $\sigma$ -field. In general, this is defined as the  $\sigma$ -field generated by the collection of all open subsets of a specific topology. In particular, if we consider  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is the  $k$ -dimensional

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<sup>1</sup>P is used to denote the collection of all subsets.

Euclidean space,  $\mathcal{O} = \{O \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k \mid O \text{ open set}\}$ , then  $\sigma(\mathcal{O}) = \mathcal{B}^k$  (the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $\mathbb{R}^k$ ).

It can be shown that the  $\sigma$ -field generated by the collection of all closed sets is also the Borel  $\sigma$ -field.

Sometimes it is useful to be able to limit ourselves to a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . In such cases, we can create the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on that subspace in the following way: if  $C \in \mathcal{B}^k$ , then  $\mathcal{B}_C = \{C \cap B \mid B \in \mathcal{B}^k\}$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $C$ .

#### 2.1.1.4 Measures

**Definition 2.4** (Measure). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is a measurable space

$\nu : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$  is said to be a *measure* if

- i)  $0 \leq \nu(A) \leq \infty$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{F}$
- ii)  $\nu(\emptyset) = 0$
- iii) If  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , and  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i \neq j$  (i.e.  $A_i$ 's are pairwise disjoint), then it must hold that

$$\nu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_i)$$

**Example 2.2** (Counting Measure). The *counting measure* is simply the measure that returns the number of elements in a set.

**Example 2.3** (Lebesgue Measure). The measure  $m : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfying that for all intervals  $[a, b], a < b$ ,

$$m([a, b]) = b - a,$$

is called the *lebesgue measure*. This measure is unique.

**Definition 2.5** ( $\sigma$ -finite measures). A measure  $\nu$  is called  *$\sigma$ -finite* if and only if there exists a sequence  $\{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$  such that  $\cup A_i = \Omega$  and  $\nu(A_i) < \infty, \forall i$ .

**Definition 2.6** (Measure Space). If  $\nu$  is a measure on  $\mathcal{F}$ , and  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is a measurable space, then  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  is a *measure space*.

**Example 2.4.** Both the Lebesgue measure is  $\sigma$ -finite.

The counting measure is  $\sigma$ -finite if and only if  $\Omega$  is countable.

**Definition 2.7** (Probability Space). If  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  is a measurable space with  $\nu(\Omega) = 1$ , then it is called a *probability space*.

**Proposition 2.1** (Properties of measures). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  be a measure space. Then the following holds:

- i) **Monotonicity:** if  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $\nu(A) \leq \nu(B)$
- ii) **Subadditivity:** for any sequence,  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ ,

$$\nu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_i)$$

- iii) **Continuity:** if  $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots$  (or  $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \dots$ ), then

$$\nu\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n),$$

where

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \left( \text{or} = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right)$$



**Definition 2.8** (Cumulative Distribution Function). The *cumulative distribution function* (c.d.f.) of a measure  $\nu$  is defined as

$$F(x) = \nu((-\infty, x]), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

There is a one-to-one correspondence between probability measures on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  and the set of c.d.f.'s.

**Proposition 2.2** (Properties of c.d.f.'s). *i) For a c.d.f.  $F$ , on  $\mathbb{R}$ , it holds that: a)  $F(-\infty) = 0$  b)  $F(\infty) = 1$  c)  $x \leq y \Rightarrow F(x) \leq F(y)$  (non-decreasing) d)  $\lim_{y \rightarrow x^+} F(y) = F(x)$  (right continuous) ii) If a function  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfies the four conditions above, it is a c.d.f. of a unique probability measure on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ .*

**Proposition 2.3** (The Product Measure Theorem). *If  $(\Omega_i, \mathcal{F}_i, \nu_i), i = 1, \dots, k$  are measure spaces with  $\sigma$ -finite measures. Then there exists a unique measure on the  $\sigma$ -field  $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_1 \times \dots \times \mathcal{F}_k)$ :*

$$\nu_1 \times \dots \times \nu_k(A_1 \times \dots \times A_k) = \nu_1(A_1) \dots \nu_k(A_k)$$

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

This measure is called the *product measure*.

**Definition 2.9** (Joint and Marginal c.d.f.'s). The *join c.d.f.* of a probability measure on  $(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathcal{B}^k)$  is defined as

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_k) = P((-\infty, x_1] \times \dots \times (-\infty, x_k]), \quad x_i \in \mathbb{R}.$$

## 2.2 Lecture 2: 9/11

**Definition 2.10** (Measurable Function). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  and  $(\Lambda, \mathcal{G})$  be measurable spaces. Let  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Lambda$ .

$f$  is called a *measurable function* if and only if

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) \subset \mathcal{F} \text{ (i.e. } f^{-1}(G) \in \mathcal{F} \forall G \in \mathcal{G}).$$

Note that if  $\mathcal{F}$  is the collection of all subsets of  $\Omega$ , then all functions are measurable.

**Definition 2.11** ( $\sigma$ -field generated by a function). Let  $f$  be as in @ref{measurable-function}. Then  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{G})$  is a sub- $\sigma$ -field of  $\mathcal{F}$ . We call it the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $f$ , and denote it by  $\sigma(f)$ .

**Definition 2.12** (Borel Functions). A function from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  to  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  is called a *Borel function* if it is measurable.

**Proposition 2.4** (Properties of Borel Functions). *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  be a measurable space.*

- i) A function is Borel if and only if  $f^{-1}(a, \infty) \in \mathcal{F}$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ .*
- ii) If  $f$  and  $g$  are Borel, then so are  $fg$  and  $af + bg$ , where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Also, if  $g(\omega) \neq 0$  for all  $\omega \in \Omega$ , then  $f/g$  is also Borel.*
- iii) If  $f_1, f_2, \dots$  are all Borel functions, then so are  $\sup_n f_n, \inf_n f_n, \limsup_n f_n$ , and  $\liminf_n f_n$ . Furthermore, the set*

$$A = \left\{ \omega \in \Omega \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(\omega) \text{ exists} \right\}$$

*is an event, and the function*

$$h(\omega) = \begin{cases} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(\omega) & \omega \in A \\ f_1(\omega) & \omega \notin A \end{cases}$$

*is Borel.*

- iv) Suppose that  $f$  is measurable from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  to  $(\Lambda, \mathcal{G})$  and  $g$  is measurable from  $(\Lambda, \mathcal{G})$  to  $(\Delta, \mathcal{H})$ . Then the composite function  $g \circ f$  is measurable from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  to  $(\Delta, \mathcal{H})$ .*

- v) Let  $\Omega$  be a Borel set in  $\mathbb{R}^p$ . If  $f$  is a continuous function from  $\Omega$  to  $\mathbb{R}^q$ , then  $f$  is measurable.*

**Proposition 2.5.** *For any non-negative Borel function  $f$  there exists a sequence of non-negative simple functions  $f_1, f_2, \dots$  such that*

$$f_n \rightarrow f \text{ for } n \rightarrow \infty$$

**Definition 2.13** (Distribution). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  be a measure space, and  $f$  a measurable function from this measure space into the measurable space  $(\Lambda, \mathcal{G})$ .

The measure defined as

$$\nu \circ f^{-1}(B) = \nu(f \in B) = \nu(f^{-1}(B)), \quad B \in \mathcal{G}$$

is called the *induced measure* by  $f$ .

If  $\nu$  is a probability measure and  $f$  is a random variable (i.e. a Borel function), then  $\nu \circ f^{-1}$  is called the *distribution* (or *law*) of  $f$ , and is denoted  $\nu_f$ .

Notice that there are many notations for the same thing. If  $P$  is a probability measure and  $X$  a random variable, then

$$P_X(B) = P(X \in B) = P(X^{-1}(B)) = P \circ X^{-1}.$$

### 2.2.1 Integration

**Definition 2.14** (Simple Function). A function  $\phi$  is called a *simple function* if it is of the form

$$\phi = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i 1_{A_i},$$

where  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are sets. If  $a_i \geq 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$ , then  $\phi$  is a non-negative simple function.

**Definition 2.15** (Integral of a Non-negative Simple Function). The integral of a non-negative simple function  $\phi$  with respect to a measure  $\nu$  is defined as

$$\int \phi d\nu = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \nu(A_i).$$

**Definition 2.16** (Integral of Non-negative Borel Function). Let  $f$  be a non-negative Borel function. Let  $\mathcal{S}_f$  be the collection of ALL non-negative simple function with  $\phi(\omega) \leq f(\omega), \forall \omega \in \Omega$ .

The integral of  $f$  with respect to  $\nu$  is defined as

$$\int f d\nu = \sup \left\{ \int \phi d\nu \mid \phi \in \mathcal{S}_f \right\}.$$

Note: one consequence of this is that for any non-negative Borel function, there exists a sequence of simple functions  $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots$  such that  $0 \leq \phi_i \leq f$  for all  $i$  and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \phi_n d\nu = \int f d\nu$$

**Definition 2.17** (Integral of General Borel Function). Let  $f$  be a Borel function, and let  $f_+(\omega) = \max\{f(\omega), 0\}$  (i.e. the positive part) and  $f_-(\omega) = \max\{-f(\omega), 0\}$  (i.e. the negative part). If at least one of  $\int f_+ d\nu$  and  $\int f_- d\nu$  is finite, we say that  $\int f d\nu$  exists and

$$\int f d\nu = \int f_+ d\nu - \int f_- d\nu.$$

**Definition 2.18** (Integrable Functions). When  $\int f d\nu < \infty$ , i.e. the integral of both the positive and negative part of  $f$  is finite, we say that  $f$  is *integrable*.

Note: as a consequence of the definition of an integrable function we have that a Borel function is integrable if and only if  $|f|$  is integrable. (This is true since  $|f| = f_+ + f_-$ .)

Notation: There are many different ways to write down an integral:

$$\int f d\nu = \int_{\Omega} f d\nu = \int f(\omega) d\nu = \int f(\omega) d\nu(\omega) = \int f(\omega) \nu(d\omega),$$

and if  $F$  is the c.d.f. (2.8) of a probability measure  $P$  on  $(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathcal{B}^k)$ ,

$$\int f(x) dP = \int f(x) dF(x) = \int f dF$$

**Proposition 2.6** (Linearity of Integrals). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  be a measure space, and  $f$  and  $g$  be Borel functions.

i) If  $\int f d\nu$  exists, then for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\int (af) d\nu$  exists, and

$$\int (af) d\nu = a \int f d\nu$$

ii) If  $\int f d\nu$  and  $\int g d\nu$  both are well defined, then  $\int (f + g) d\nu$  exists and

$$\int (f + g) d\nu = \int f d\nu + \int g d\nu$$

*Proof.* Show that it holds for indicator functions, simple functions, non-negative functions, and then all functions.  $\square$

**Definition 2.19** (Almost Everywhere or Almost Surely). A statement is said to be true  $\nu$ -a.e. (or  $\nu$ -a.s.) if it is true for all  $\omega \notin N$  and  $\nu(N) = 0$ .

**Proposition 2.7** (a.e. for integrals). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$  be a measure space, and  $f$  and  $g$  be Borel functions.

i) If  $f \leq g$   $\nu$ -a.e., then  $\int f d\nu \leq \int g d\nu$ , given that both integrals exist

ii) If  $f \geq 0$   $\nu$ -a.e. and  $\int f d\nu = 0$ , then  $f = 0$   $\nu$ -a.e.

*Proof.* ii) Let  $A = \{f > 0\}$  and  $A_n = \{f \geq n^{-1}\}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then  $A_n \subset A$  for any  $n$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \cup A_n = A$  (**show that this holds**).

Then, by (iii) of 2.1,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n) = \nu(A)$ . By part (i) and proposition 2.6, we get that, for any  $n$ ,

$$n^{-1} \nu(A_n) = \int n^{-1} I_{A_n} d\nu \leq \int f I_{A_n} d\nu \leq \int f d\nu = 0.$$

$\square$

## 2.2.2 Radon-Nikodym Derivatives

## 2.3 Lecture 3: 9/13

Proof of Ex 1.11: for any borel set A: if  $A = (-\infty, x)$ , it holds. If not, then...

$\pi$ - and  $\lambda$ -systems.

**Definition:**  $\pi$ -system

If  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of subsets, and it holds that  $A, B \in \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{C}$ .

For a  $\pi$  system,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{B}$

**Proposition 2.8** (Calculus with Radon-Nikodym Derivatives). *Let  $\nu$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite measure on a measure space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . All other measures discussed in the following are defined on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ .*

i) *If  $\lambda$  is a measure,  $\lambda \ll \nu$ , and  $f \geq 0$ , then*

$$\int f d\lambda = \int f \frac{d\lambda}{d\nu} d\nu.$$

ii) *If  $\lambda_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , are measures and  $\lambda_i \ll \nu$ , then  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \ll \nu$  and*

$$\frac{d(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}{d\nu} = \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu} + \frac{d\lambda_2}{d\nu} \quad \nu\text{-a.e.}$$

iii) *If  $\tau$  is a measure,  $\lambda$  a  $\sigma$ -finite measure, and  $\tau \ll \lambda \ll \nu$ , then*

$$\frac{d\tau}{d\nu} = \frac{d\tau}{d\lambda} \frac{d\lambda}{d\nu} \quad \nu\text{-a.e.}$$

iv) *Let  $(\Omega_i, \mathcal{F}_i, \nu_i)$  be a measure space and  $\nu_i$  be  $\sigma$ -finite,  $i = 1, 2$ . Let  $\lambda_i$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite measure on  $(\Omega_i, \mathcal{F}_i)$  and  $\lambda_i \ll \nu_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ . Then  $\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2 \ll \nu_1 \times \nu_2$  and*

$$\frac{d(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)}{d(\nu_1 \times \nu_2)}(\omega_1, \omega_2) = \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu_1}(\omega_1) \frac{d\lambda_2}{d\nu_2}(\omega_2) \quad \nu_1 \times \nu_2\text{-a.e.}$$

# Chapter 3

## Discussion Notes

### 3.1 Discussion 1: 5/14

#### 3.1.1 $\sigma$ -fields

**Exercise 3.1** (Countable intersection/union of  $\sigma$ -fields). Let  $\mathcal{F}_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$  be a sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields on  $\Omega$ . Show the following:

- a)  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$  is a  $\sigma$ -field.
- b) If  $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2 \subset \dots$ , then  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$  is not necessarily a  $\sigma$ -field.

*Solution* (ref(exr:ex11) a)). We need to show (i)-(iii) from definition 2.1.

- i) Since  $\mathcal{F}_n$  are all  $\sigma$ -fields,  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}_n$  for all  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Hence,  $\emptyset \in \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$ .
- ii) As (i).
- iii) Let  $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of subsets from  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}_n$  for all  $n$ . Since  $\mathcal{F}_n$  is a  $\sigma$ -field,  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}_n$  for all  $n$ , and so  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$ .

Hence,  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$  is a  $\sigma$ -field.

*Solution* (ref(exr:ex11) b)). Let  $\Omega = [0, 1]$ , and  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma \left\{ [0, \frac{1}{2^n}), [\frac{1}{2^n}, \frac{2}{2^n}), \dots, [\frac{2^{n-1}}{2^n}, 1) \right\}$ .

Now, consider the set  $B_n = [0, \frac{1}{2^n})$ . Clearly  $B_n \in \mathcal{F}_n$  for all  $n$ , hence  $B_n \in \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$ . However,  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_n = \{0\} \notin \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$ . So  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_n$  is not closed under countable intersection, i.e. it is not a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

#### 3.1.2 $\pi - \lambda$ systems

**Definition 3.1** ( $\pi$ -system). Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ .  $\mathcal{D}$  is said to be a  $\pi$ -**system** if it is closed under intersection, i.e. if

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

**Definition 3.2** ( $\lambda$ -system). Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ .  $\mathcal{L}$  is said to be a  $\lambda$ -**system** if it satisfies that

- i)  $\Omega \in \mathcal{L}$ ,
- ii) If  $A, B \in \mathcal{L}$  with  $A \subset B$ , then  $B \setminus A \in \mathcal{L}$
- iii) If  $A_n \in \mathcal{L}$  and  $A_n \subset A_{n+1}$  for all  $n$ , then

$$\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{L}$$

**Theorem 3.1** ( $\pi - \lambda$  Theorem). *If  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\pi$ -system and  $\mathcal{L}$  is a  $\lambda$ -system s.t.  $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{L}$ , the  $\sigma\{(D)\} \subset \mathcal{L}$ .*

**Exercise 3.2** (Proof of the  $\pi - \lambda$  Theorem).

*Solution.* Proof hints:

- 1) If  $\mathcal{L}_t$  is  $\lambda$ -system for all  $t \in I$ ,  $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{L}_t$ , then  $\cap_{t \in I} \mathcal{L}_t$  is a  $\lambda$ -system. Denote this  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})$  (smallest  $\lambda$ -system containing  $\mathcal{D}$ ).
- 2) If  $\mathcal{L}$  is a  $\pi$ -system AND a  $\lambda$ -system, then  $\mathcal{L}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field.
- 3) If  $\mathcal{D}$  is  $\pi$ -system, then  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})$  is  $\pi$ -system.

By 1)-3),  $\mathcal{L} = \sigma(\mathcal{D})$ , which implies ...

### 3.1.3 The “Good Sets” Principle

**Exercise 3.3.** Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a  $\pi$ -system, and  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  two measures that agree on  $\mathcal{P}$ , i.e.

$$\nu_1(A) = \nu_2(A) \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{P}.$$

Assume there is a sequence of sets  $A_n \in \mathcal{P}$  with  $A_n \uparrow \Omega$  and  $\nu_i(A_n) < \infty$  for all  $n$ .

Use the  $\pi - \lambda$  theorem to prove that  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  agree on  $\sigma(\mathcal{P})$ .

*Solution.* Let  $\mathcal{F}_n$  be given by

$$\mathcal{F}_n = \{A \in \sigma(\mathcal{P}) \mid \nu_1(A \cap A_n) = \nu_2(A \cap A_n) \forall n\}$$

Let  $A \in \mathcal{P}$ . Since  $A_n \in \mathcal{P}$  for all  $n$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  is a  $\pi$ -system,  $A \cap A_n \in \mathcal{P}$ . So  $\nu_1(A \cap A_n) = \nu_2(A \cap A_n)$ , hence  $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{F}_n$ .

By definition,  $\mathcal{F}_n \subset \sigma(\mathcal{P})$ , so  $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{F}_n \subset \sigma(\mathcal{P})$ .

Now, if we can prove that  $\mathcal{F}_n$  is a  $\lambda$ -system for all  $n$ , then by the  $\pi - \lambda$  theorem (theorem 3.1), we have that  $\sigma(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{F}_n$ , which combined with the paragraph above gives us that  $\sigma(\mathcal{P}) = \mathcal{F}_n$ , hence  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  agree on  $\sigma(\mathcal{P})$ .

So let us show that  $\mathcal{F}_n$  is indeed a  $\lambda$ -system:

- i)  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}_n$ . Since  $A_n \uparrow \Omega$ , we can use continuity of measure (proposition 2.1) to conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu_i(A_n) &= \nu_i(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n) \\ &= \nu_i(\Omega). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\nu_1(A_n) = \nu_2(A_n)$  ( $A_n \in \mathcal{P}$ ), it holds that  $\nu_1(\Omega) = \nu_2(\Omega)$ , so  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}_n$ .

- ii) Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}_n$  with  $A \subset B$ . So,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_1((A \setminus B) \cap A_n) &= \nu_1(A \cap A_n) - \nu_1(B \cap A_n) \\ &= \nu_2(A \cap A_n) - \nu_2(B \cap A_n) \\ &= \nu_2((A \setminus B) \cap A_n), \end{aligned}$$

which means that  $A \setminus B \in \mathcal{F}_n$ .

- iii) Let  $B_i \in \mathcal{F}_n$  s.t.  $B_i \subset B_{i+1}$ . Then, once again using continuity of measures to move limits around, we have

$$\nu_1(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \cap A_n) = \nu_1(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} (B_i \cap A_n)) \quad (3.1)$$

$$= \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \nu_1(B_i \cap A_n) \quad (3.2)$$

$$= \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \nu_2(B_i \cap A_n) \quad (3.3)$$

$$= \nu_2(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} (B_i \cap A_n)) \quad (3.4)$$

$$= \nu_2(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \cap A_n), \quad (3.5)$$

which gives us that  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \in \mathcal{F}_n$ , hence  $\mathcal{F}_n$  is a  $\lambda$ -system.

### 3.1.4 From Indicator Function to General (Borel) Function

When we define the Lebesgue integral, we define it in three steps.

- 1) First for indicator functions, which in turn is generalized to simple non-negative functions (i.e. linear combinations of indicator functions).
- 2) Second for any non-negative functions (which is done by utilizing that any such function can be described as the limit of a sequence of simple functions)
- 3) A general function (by separating the positive and negative parts)

**Exercise 3.4.** Let  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$  be a countable set,  $\mathcal{F}$  all subsets of  $\Omega$ , and  $\nu$  the counting measure on  $\Omega$ . Show that for any Borel function  $f$ , the integral of  $f$  with respect to  $\nu$  is

$$\int f d\nu = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(\omega_i) \quad (3.6)$$

*Solution.* Let  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  and define  $f = 1_A$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int f d\nu &= \int_A d\nu \\ &= \nu(A) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 1_A(\omega_i) \end{aligned}$$

I.e. (3.6) holds for indicator functions, and hence also for simple functions.

Now, let  $f$  be a non-negative Borel function. Then we know that there exists a sequence  $(f_n)_i^{\infty}$  of simple functions such that  $f_n \uparrow f$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int f d\nu &= \int \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\nu \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\nu. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $f_n$  is a simple function, we know that [@ref{eq:ex14}](#) holds. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\int f d\nu &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_n(\omega_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(\omega_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(\omega_i),
\end{aligned}$$

and so (3.6) holds for non-negative Borel functions.

Finally, let  $f$  be any Borel function. Then we can write  $f = f_+ - f_-$ , where  $f_+ = \max(f, 0)$  and  $f_- = \max(-f, 0)$ . Then both  $f_+$  and  $f_-$  are non-negative Borel functions, hence (3.6) holds for both. So

$$\begin{aligned}
\int f d\nu &= \int f_+ d\nu - \int f_- d\nu \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_+(\omega_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_-(\omega_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_+(\omega_i) - f_-(\omega_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(\omega_i).
\end{aligned}$$

So (3.6) holds for all Borel functions.

### 3.1.5 Switch the Order of Integration and Limit

**Exercise 3.5** (Generalized Dominated Convergence Theorem). If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$  and there exists a sequence of integrable functions  $g_1, g_2, g_3, \dots$  such that

- $|f_n| \leq g_n$  a.e.
- $g_n \rightarrow g$  a.e.
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int g_n d\nu = \int g d\nu$

then

$$\int \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n d\nu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\nu \tag{3.7}$$



# Chapter 4

## Homework

### 4.1 First Exam Period

#### 4.1.1 Assigned Problems

**Exercise 4.1** (Ex 2). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$  and let  $\Gamma = \{\mathcal{F} | \mathcal{F} \text{ is a } \sigma\text{-field on } \Omega \text{ and } \mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{F}\}$ . Show that  $\Gamma \neq \emptyset$  and  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \cap_{\mathcal{F} \in \Gamma} \mathcal{F}$ .

*Solution* (Ex 2). Let  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega)$  be the collection of all subsets of  $\Omega$ . We know that this is a  $\sigma$ -field. It also contains  $\mathcal{C}$ . Hence,  $\Gamma \neq \emptyset$ .

By definition,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -field that contains  $\mathcal{C}$ , hence  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \in \Gamma$  and  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{F}$  for all  $\mathcal{F} \in \Gamma$ . Therefore,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \cap_{\mathcal{F} \in \Gamma} \mathcal{F}$ . But since  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \in \Gamma$ ,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \in \cap_{\mathcal{F} \in \Gamma} \mathcal{F}$ , which in turn ensures that  $\cap_{\mathcal{F} \in \Gamma} \mathcal{F} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ .

Hence  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \cap_{\mathcal{F} \in \Gamma} \mathcal{F}$ .

**Exercise 4.2** (Ex 5). a) Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a  $\pi$ -system and  $\mathcal{D}$  be a  $\lambda$ -system such that  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$ . Show that  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{D}$ .

*Solution* (Ex 5).

**Exercise 4.3** (Ex 12). Let  $\nu$  and  $\lambda$  be two measures on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  such that  $\nu(A) = \lambda(A)$  for any  $A \in \mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{F}$ , where  $\mathcal{C}$  is a  $\pi$ -system (3.1). Assume that  $\nu$  is  $\sigma$ -finite (2.5).

Show that  $\nu(A) = \lambda(A)$  for all  $A \in \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ .

*Solution* (Ex 12). Let  $\mathcal{F} = \{A \in \sigma(\mathcal{C}) | \nu(A) = \lambda(A)\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{F}$ . If we can show that  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field, then  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{F}$  (since  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -field that contains  $\mathcal{C}$ ), which proves that  $\nu(A) = \lambda(A)$  for all  $A \in \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ .

**Exercise 4.4** (Ex 14). Prove proposition 1.4 (proposition 2.4)

*Solution* (Ex 14 (i)). Assume  $f$  is Borel. Then  $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F}$  for all open sets  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ , hence  $f^{-1}(a, \infty) \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Now assume  $f^{-1}(a, \infty) \in \mathcal{F}$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , and let  $\mathcal{G} = \{A \in \mathcal{B} | f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F}\}$ . So,  $(a, \infty) \in \mathcal{G}$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . If we can show that  $\mathcal{G}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field, then we will have that  $\sigma((a, \infty)) = \mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{G}$ , hence  $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , meaning that  $f$  is measurable.

So let us prove that  $\mathcal{G}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field.

- a) First of all,  $f^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- b) Second, let  $A \in \mathcal{G}$ . Since  $f^{-1}(A^C) = (f^{-1}(A))^C \in \mathcal{F}$  ( $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field and  $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F}$ , so  $(f^{-1}(A))^C \in \mathcal{F}$ ).
- c) Finally, let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a sequence of sets such that  $A_i \in \mathcal{G}$  for all  $i$ . Then  $f^{-1}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(A_i)$ . Since  $f^{-1}(A_i) \in \mathcal{F}$  for all  $i$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field,  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(A_i) \in \mathcal{F}$ , so  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{G}$ .

So  $\mathcal{G}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field, which concludes the proof.

*Solution* (Ex 14 (ii)). Assume  $f$  and  $g$  are Borel functions. Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $af$  is Borel, since

$$(af)^{-1}((c, \infty)) = \{\omega \in \Omega : a \cdot f(\omega) \in (c, \infty)\}.$$

If  $a \neq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} (af)^{-1}((c, \infty)) &= \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) \in (\frac{c}{a}, \infty)\} \\ &= f^{-1}(\frac{c}{a}, \infty). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $f$  is Borel, this is a measurable set (by (i)). If  $a = 0$ , then

$$(af)^{-1}((c, \infty)) = \begin{cases} \Omega & \text{if } c \leq 0 \\ \emptyset & \text{if } c > 0 \end{cases}$$

In either case,  $(af)^{-1}((c, \infty)) \in \mathcal{F}$ . Since it holds that for all  $a, c \in \mathbb{R}$  that  $(af)^{-1}((c, \infty)) \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $af$  is measurable by (i).

Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Now consider the sum of  $f$  and  $g$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (f+g)^{-1}((c, \infty)) &= \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) + g(\omega) > c\} \\ &= \cup_{t \in \mathbb{Q}} \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) > c - t\} \cap \{\omega \in \Omega : g(\omega) > t\} \\ &= \cup_{t \in \mathbb{Q}} f^{-1}((c - t, \infty)) \cap g^{-1}((t, \infty)). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $f$  and  $g$  are both measurable,  $f^{-1}((c - t, \infty)) \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $g^{-1}((t, \infty)) \in \mathcal{F}$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence, the intersection of the two is measurable for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , which in turn implies that the union over all rational numbers is measurable (countable union of measurable sets). Hence,  $f + g$  is measurable.

Combine the two results to get the final result.<sup>1</sup>

*Solution* (Ex 14 (iii)).

*Solution* (Ex 14 (iv)). Assume  $f$  is measurable from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  to  $(\Lambda, \mathcal{G})$ , and  $g$  measurable from  $(\Lambda, \mathcal{G})$  to  $(\Delta, \mathcal{H})$ . Let  $H \in \mathcal{H}$ . We want to show that  $(g \circ f)^{-1}(H) \in \mathcal{F}$ , since this would mean  $g \circ f$  is measurable. So,

$$\begin{aligned} (g \circ f)^{-1}(H) &= \{\omega \in \Omega : g(f(\omega)) \in H\} \\ &= \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) \in g^{-1}(H)\} \\ &= f^{-1}(g^{-1}(H)). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $g$  is measurable,  $g^{-1}(H) \in \mathcal{G}$ , and since  $f$  is measurable,  $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(H)) \in \mathcal{F}$ . So,  $g \circ f$  is measurable.

*Solution* (Ex 14 (v)). Let  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ , where  $\Omega$  is a Borel set. Assume  $f$  is continuous. Then, if  $A$  is an open set,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is an open set, and therefore Borel. Hence,  $f^{-1}((a, \infty))$  is a Borel set for all  $a$ , and by (i) we have that  $f$  is a Borel function.

**Exercise 4.5** (Ex 19). Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of Borel functions on a measurable space. Show that

- a)  $\sigma(f_1, f_2, \dots) = \sigma(\cup_{j=1}^{\infty} \sigma(f_j)) = \sigma(\cup_{j=1}^{\infty} \sigma(f_1, \dots, f_j))$ .
- b)  $\sigma(\limsup_n f_n) \subset \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(f_n, f_{n+1}, \dots)$ .

*Solution* (Ex 19).

**Exercise 4.6** (Ex 24). Let  $f$  be an integrable function on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$ . Show that for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta_\epsilon$  such that for  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ :

$$\nu(A) < \delta_\epsilon \Rightarrow \int_A |f| d\nu < \epsilon.$$

<sup>1</sup>Note: This could be done in one step, but I found it easier to split up into two.

*Solution.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $\nu(A) < \delta_\epsilon = \frac{\epsilon}{\sup_{\omega \in A} |f(\omega)|}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_A |f| d\nu &\leq \int_A \sup_{\omega \in A} |f(\omega)| d\nu \\ &= \sup_{\omega \in A} |f(\omega)| \nu(A) \\ &< \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 4.7** (Ex 30). For any c.d.f.  $F$  and any  $a \geq 0$ , show that  $\int [F(x+a) - F(x)] dx = a$

*Solution.*

**Exercise 4.8** (Ex 34). Prove proposition 2.8

*Solution* (Ex 34 i)). Let  $g$  be the unique function denoted by  $\frac{d\lambda}{d\nu}$ . Assume  $f = 1_A$  for some  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ . Since  $\lambda \ll \nu$ , we know that  $\lambda(A) = \int_A g d\nu$ . So,

$$\begin{aligned} \int f d\lambda &= \int 1_A d\lambda \\ &= \lambda(A) \\ &= \int_A g d\nu \\ &= \int 1_A g d\nu = \int f g d\nu. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, (i) is true for all indicator functions, and so by linearity of integrals (2.6) for all non-negative simple functions.

Now, let  $f$  be a general non-negative Borel function. Then we know that there exists a sequence of simple functions  $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots$  such that  $\phi_n \uparrow f$ . Hence, utilizing the monotone convergence theorem and the fact that we know (i) holds for simple functions,

$$\begin{aligned} \int f d\lambda &= \int \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_n d\lambda \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \phi_n d\lambda \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \phi_n g d\nu \\ &= \int \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_n g d\nu \\ &= \int f g d\nu, \end{aligned}$$

and so we have shown that (i) holds for any non-negative Borel function.

*Solution* (Ex 34 ii)). Assume  $\lambda_1 \ll \nu$  and  $\lambda_2 \ll \nu$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)(A) &= \lambda_1(A) + \lambda_2(A) \\ &= \int_A g_1 d\nu + \int_A g_2 d\nu \\ &= \int_A (g_1 + g_2) d\nu, \end{aligned}$$

so  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \ll \nu$ , and

$$\frac{d(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}{d\nu} = g_1 + g_2 = \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu} + \frac{d\lambda_2}{d\nu}.$$

*Solution* (Ex 34 iii)). Since  $\tau \ll \lambda$ ,

$$\tau(A) = \int_A \frac{d\tau}{d\lambda} d\lambda.$$

Since  $\lambda \ll \nu$ , we can use (i) with  $f = \frac{d\tau}{d\lambda}$ , to get

$$\tau(A) = \int_A \frac{d\tau}{d\lambda} \frac{d\lambda}{d\tau} d\tau,$$

which tells us that  $\tau \ll \nu$  and

$$\frac{d\tau}{d\nu} = \frac{d\tau}{d\lambda} \frac{d\lambda}{d\tau}.$$

*Solution* (Ex 34 iv)). By definition,  $(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)(A) = \int_A d(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2) = \int 1_A d(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)$ . Since  $1_A \geq 0$ , we can use Fubini to get

$$(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)(A) = \int \int 1_A d\lambda_1 d\lambda_2.$$

Since  $\lambda_1 \ll \nu_1$ , we can use (i) with  $f = 1_A$  ( $1_A$  is non-negative) to obtain that

$$(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)(A) = \int \int 1_A \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu_1} d\nu_1 d\lambda_2,$$

and then, since  $\lambda_2 \ll \nu_2$ , using (i) again with  $f = \int 1_A \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu_1} d\nu_1$  (which is non-negative) to get

$$(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)(A) = \int \int 1_A \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu_1} d\nu_1 \frac{d\lambda_2}{d\nu_2} d\nu_2.$$

Finally, using Fubini again we get

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)(A) &= \int \int 1_A \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu_1} \frac{d\lambda_2}{d\nu_2} d\nu_1 d\nu_2 \\ &= \int_A \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu_1} \frac{d\lambda_2}{d\nu_2} d(\nu_1 \times \nu_2). \end{aligned}$$

I.e.  $\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2 \ll \nu_1 \times \nu_2$  and  $\frac{d(\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2)}{d(\nu_1 \times \nu_2)} = \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\nu_1} \frac{d\lambda_2}{d\nu_2}$ .

**Exercise 4.9** (Ex 35). Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence of positive number with  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = 1$ , and  $\{P_n\}$  a sequence of probability measure on a common measurable space,  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . Define  $P = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n$ .

- a) Show that  $P$  is a probability measure.
- b) Let  $\nu$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite measure. Show that

$$P_n \ll \nu \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N} \iff P \ll \nu.$$

- c) Derive the Lebesgue p.d.f. of  $P$  when  $P_n$  is the gamma distribution  $\Gamma(\alpha, n^{-1})$  with  $\alpha > 1$  and  $a_n \propto n^{-\alpha}$ .

*Solution* (Ex 35 a)). Need to show that  $P = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n P_n$  is a probability measure. So we check the three properties for a probability measure (2.4), with the extra property that  $P(\Omega) = 1$ :

- i)  $P(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n P_n(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A$  since  $a_n > 0$  for all  $n$  by assumption, and  $P_n(A) \geq 0$  for all  $n$ , since  $P_n$  is a probability measure. Furthermore,  $P(\Omega) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n P_n(\Omega) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = 1$ , where the second equality holds since  $P_n$  is a probability measure (by assumption), and the last equality is exactly the assumption we made about the  $a_n$ s. I.e.  $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ .
- ii) Since  $P_n(\emptyset) = 0$ ,  $P(\emptyset) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n P_n(\emptyset) = 0$ .
- iii) Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a countable sequence of pairwise disjoint sets. Then using that  $P_n$  is a measure for all  $n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} P(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n P_n(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P_n(A_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n P_n(A_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i). \end{aligned}$$

*Solution* (Ex 35 b)). Assume  $P \ll \nu$ . Let  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $\nu(A) = 0$ . Assume there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $P_n(A) > 0$ . Then  $P(A) > a_n P_n(A) > 0$ . But  $P \ll \nu$  implies that  $P(A) = 0$ , so by contradiction,  $P_n(A) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Now assume  $P_n \ll \nu$ . Let  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $\nu(A) = 0$ . Then  $P_n(A) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence,  $P(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n P_n(A) = 0$ , which means that  $P \ll \nu$ .

**Exercise 4.10** (Ex 50).

**Exercise 4.11** (Ex 55).

**Exercise 4.12** (Ex 56).

**Exercise 4.13** (Ex 65).

**Exercise 4.14** (Ex 74).

**Exercise 4.15** (Ex 83).

**Exercise 4.16** (Ex 85).

**Exercise 4.17** (Ex 93).

**Exercise 4.18** (Ex 99).

**Exercise 4.19** (Ex 101).

**Exercise 4.20** (Ex 106).

**Exercise 4.21** (Ex 115).

**Exercise 4.22** (Ex 117).

**Exercise 4.23** (Ex 126). Prove (vii) of Theorem 1.8

*Solution.* Let  $X_n \rightarrow_d X$ ,  $P(X = c) = 1$ .

Apply triangle inequality and assumption:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\|X_n - c\| > \epsilon) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\|X_n - X\| > \epsilon) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\|X - c\| > \epsilon) = 0.$$

**Exercise 4.24** (Ex 127).

**Exercise 4.25** (Ex 128).

**Exercise 4.26** (Ex 137). Let  $\{X_n\}$  and  $\{Y_n\}$  be two sequences of R.Vs. Assume  $X_n \rightarrow_d X$  and  $P_{Y_n|X_n=x_n} \rightarrow_w P_Y$  almost surely for every sequence of numbers  $\{x_n\}$ , where  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables. Show that  $X_n + Y_n \rightarrow_d X + Y$ .

**Exercise 4.27** (Ex 138).

**Exercise 4.28** (Ex 140). FILL OUT!

**Exercise 4.29** (Ex 142).  $f_n$  is the Lebesgue p.d.f. of the t-distribution  $t_n$ . Show that  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , where  $f$  is the Lebesgue p.d.f. for standard normal.

*Solution.* By definition,  $f_n(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n+1}{2})}{\sqrt{n\pi}\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{\frac{-(n+1)}{2}}$ .

Note that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = e^x$ . So, since  $\sqrt{1 + \frac{x^2}{n}} \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$\left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{\frac{-(n+1)}{2}} = \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{x^2/2}{n/2}\right)^{-n/2} \sqrt{1 + \frac{x^2}{n}}} \rightarrow e^{-x^2/2}.$$

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Gamma(n+c)}{\Gamma(n)n^c} = 1$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2} + \frac{1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})\sqrt{n/2}} = 1.$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n+1}{2})}{\sqrt{n\pi}\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{\frac{-(n+1)}{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2} + \frac{1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})\sqrt{n/2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}. \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 4.30** (Ex 146). FILL OUT!

**Exercise 4.31** (Ex 149). FILL OUT!

**Exercise 4.32** (Ex 152).

**Exercise 4.33** (Ex 153).

**Exercise 4.34** (Ex 163).

**Exercise 4.35** (Ex 164).

### 4.1.2 Suggested Problems

**Exercise 4.36** (Ex 3). Let  $\Omega, \mathcal{F}_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots$ , be measurable spaces such that  $\mathcal{F}_j \subset \mathcal{F}_{j+1}$ . Is  $\cup_j \mathcal{F}_j$  a  $\sigma$ -field?

*Solution* (Ex 3). No.

Let  $\Omega = [0, 1]$ , and  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma\left\{[0, \frac{1}{2^n}), [\frac{1}{2^n}, \frac{2}{2^n}), \dots, [\frac{2^{n-1}}{2^n}, 1)\right\}$ .

Now, consider the set  $B_n = [0, \frac{1}{2^n})$ . Clearly  $B_n \in \mathcal{F}_n$  for all  $n$ , hence  $B_n \in \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_i$ . However,  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \{0\} \notin \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_i$ . So  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_i$  is not closed under countable intersection, i.e. it is not a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

**Exercise 4.37** (Ex 6). Prove part (ii) and (iii) of proposition 2.1.

*Solution* (Ex 6). i) Let  $A \subset B$ . Then  $B \setminus A \cap A = \emptyset$ , hence  $\nu(B) = \nu((B \setminus A) \cup A) = \nu(B \setminus A) + \nu(A) \geq \nu(A)$ .

ii) Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a sequence of sets. Define  $B_i = A_i \setminus (\cup_{k=1}^{i-1} A_k)$ . Then the  $B_i$ s are pairwise disjoint. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\nu(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) &= \nu(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nu(B_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_i \setminus (\cup_{k=1}^{i-1} A_k)).
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $A_i \setminus (\cup_{k=1}^{i-1} A_k) \subset A_i$ , we use (i) to get the result:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_i \setminus (\cup_{k=1}^{i-1} A_k)) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_i)$$

iii) Let  $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset A_3 \subset \dots$ . Define  $B_i = A_i \setminus A_{i-1}$ . Then  $B_1, B_2, \dots$  is a sequence of pairwise disjoint sets, and  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\nu(\cup_{i=1}^k A_i) &= \nu(\cup_{i=1}^k B_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^k \nu(B_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^k \nu(A_i \setminus A_{i-1}) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^k \nu(A_i) - \nu(A_{i-1}) \\
&= \nu(A_k).
\end{aligned}$$

Taking the limit on both sides gives us

$$\nu(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu(A_n).$$

**Exercise 4.38** (Ex 15). Show that a monotone function from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  is Borel, and a c.d.f. on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is Borel.

**Exercise 4.39** (Ex 17). Let  $f$  be a non-negative Borel function on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . Show that  $f$  is the limit of a sequence of simple functions  $\{\phi_n\}$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  with  $0 \leq \phi_1 \leq \phi_2 \leq \dots \leq f$ .

**Exercise 4.40** (Ex 23).

**Exercise 4.41** (Ex 25).

**Exercise 4.42** (Ex 31).

**Exercise 4.43** (Ex 36).

**Exercise 4.44** (Ex 46).

**Exercise 4.45** (Ex 53).

**Exercise 4.46** (Ex 57).

**Exercise 4.47** (Ex 61).

**Exercise 4.48** (Ex 66).

**Exercise 4.49** (Ex 70).

**Exercise 4.50** (Ex 73).

**Exercise 4.51** (Ex 78).

**Exercise 4.52** (Ex 79).

**Exercise 4.53** (Ex 81).

**Exercise 4.54** (Ex 82).  
**Exercise 4.55** (Ex 86).  
**Exercise 4.56** (Ex 88).  
**Exercise 4.57** (Ex 91).  
**Exercise 4.58** (Ex 97).  
**Exercise 4.59** (Ex 98).  
**Exercise 4.60** (Ex 102).  
**Exercise 4.61** (Ex 104).  
**Exercise 4.62** (Ex 114).  
**Exercise 4.63** (Ex 116).  
**Exercise 4.64** (Ex 116).  
**Exercise 4.65** (Ex 118).  
**Exercise 4.66** (Ex 119).  
**Exercise 4.67** (Ex 121).  
**Exercise 4.68** (Ex 122).  
**Exercise 4.69** (Ex 125).  
**Exercise 4.70** (Ex 136).  
**Exercise 4.71** (Ex 141).  
**Exercise 4.72** (Ex 144).  
**Exercise 4.73** (Ex 145).  
**Exercise 4.74** (Ex 150).  
**Exercise 4.75** (Ex 154).  
**Exercise 4.76** (Ex 156).  
**Exercise 4.77** (Ex 161).  
**Exercise 4.78** (Ex 166).