

mas550 homework

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Problem (1.1.2).

Let $A = \prod_{i=1}^d (a_i, b_i]$. Then

$$A = \left(\prod_{i=1}^d [a_i - 1, b_i] \right) \cap \left(\prod_{i=1}^d (a_i, b_i + 1) \right)$$

which is intersection of open set and closed set. So, $A \in \mathcal{R}^d$ therefore $\sigma(S_d) \subset \mathcal{R}^d$.

On the other hand, let $B = \prod_{i=1}^d (a_i, b_i)$ where $-\infty < a_i < b_i < \infty$. We can choose sequences $\{a_{i,j}\}_{j=1}^\infty$ and $\{b_{i,j}\}_{j=1}^\infty$ for each $1 \leq i \leq d$ such that $a_{i,j} \downarrow a_i$ and $b_{i,j} \uparrow b_i$. Then $B_n = \prod_{i=1}^d (a_{i,n}, b_{i,n}] \uparrow B$. So B is a countable union of open rectangles, hence $B \in \sigma(S_d)$. Since such B forms basis of topology on \mathbb{R}^d , we can conclude that $\mathcal{R}^d \subset \sigma(S_d)$.

Problem (1.2.3).

Let F be a distribution function. It is nonnegative, nondecreasing. So $\lim_{y \downarrow x} F(y)$ and $\lim_{y \uparrow x} F(y)$ always exist. Let x be a point where F is discontinuous. Since F is discontinuous at x , we can assume without loss of generality $\lim_{y \downarrow x} F(y) > F(x)$. Choose a rational number $q_x \in (F(x), \lim_{y \downarrow x} F(y))$. Then function $x \mapsto q_x$ is injective since F is nondecreasing. So there is injection from set of discontinuities to rational numbers. Now we can conclude that set of discontinuities is at most countable.

Problem (1.3.4).

(a) Let $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Consider $\mathcal{B} = \{U \subset \mathbb{R} : f^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{R}^d\}$.

It is well known that \mathcal{B} is a σ -field. By continuity of f , \mathcal{B} contains every open set of \mathbb{R} , hence $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathcal{B}$. Therefore f is a measurable function.

(b) Let \mathcal{F} be a σ -field that makes all the continuous functions measurable.

Let $\pi_i : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the projection on i -th factor, which is continuous. Then $\cap_{i=1}^d \pi_i^{-1}((a_i, b_i)) = \prod_{i=1}^d (a_i, b_i) \in \mathcal{F}$. Since \mathcal{F} contains every open rectangles in \mathbb{R}^d , we can conclude that $\mathcal{R}^d \subset \mathcal{F}$. This means \mathcal{R}^d is the smallest such σ -field. The fact that \mathcal{R}^d makes all the continuous functions measurable is written in (a).

Problem (1.3.1).

Since $\sigma(X)$ is the smallest σ -field which makes X measurable, it is sufficient to show that X is measurable with respect to $\sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{A}))$.

Let $X : \Omega \rightarrow S$. It is clear that $\{X \in A\} \in \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{A}))$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$. But by theorem 1.3.1, since \mathcal{A} generates \mathcal{S} , X is measurable with respect to $\sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{A}))$.

Therefore we can conclude that $\sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{A})) \subset \sigma(X)$, and reverse inclusion is canonical since $X^{-1}(\mathcal{A}) \subset \sigma(X)$.

Problem (1.4.1).

Let $E_n = \{x : f(x) > \frac{1}{n}\}$. Then $\int f d\mu \geq \int_{E_n} f d\mu \geq \int_{E_n} \frac{1}{n} d\mu = \frac{1}{n} \mu(E_n)$. Therefore $\mu(E_n) = 0$ for every positive integer n . So, $\mu(\{f > 0\}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_n) = 0$. This says $f = 0$ a.e.

Problem (1.4.2). Since $E_{n+1,2m} \cup E_{n+1,2m+1} = E_{n,m}$ and $\frac{2m+1}{2^{n+1}} \geq \frac{m}{2^n}$, we can easily see that $\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{m}{2^n} \mu(E_{n,m})$ is monotonically increasing as n grows.

For every positive integer M , $\sum_{m=1}^M \frac{m}{2^n} \mu(E_{n,m}) \leq \int f d\mu$. So $\sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{m}{2^n} \mu(E_{n,m}) \leq \int f d\mu$.

Let $s_n = \sum_{m=1}^{n2^n} \frac{m}{2^n} 1_{E_{n,m}}$. Then $\int s_n d\mu \leq \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{m}{2^n} \mu(E_{n,m}) \leq \int f d\mu$. But $s_n \uparrow f$ monotonically. By monotone convergence theorem, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int s_n d\mu = \int f d\mu$. Hence by sandwich lemma, the desired result follows.

Problem (1.5.1).

First, we will show that $|g| \leq \|g\|_\infty$ a.e.

It is true because

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(|g| > \|g\|_\infty) &= \mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{|g| \geq \|g\|_\infty + \frac{1}{n}\right\}\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu\left(\left\{|g| > \|g\|_\infty + \frac{1}{n}\right\}\right) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

by definition of $\|g\|_\infty$.

Hence $|g| \leq \|g\|_\infty$ a.e.

Then, $\int |fg| d\mu \leq \|g\|_\infty \int |f| d\mu = \|g\|_\infty \|f\|_1$.

Problem (1.5.3).

(a) Since $p > 1$, $x \mapsto |x|^p$ is convex function. $|f + g|^p \leq 2^{p-1}(|f|^p + |g|^p)$ follows from convexity of $|x|^p$.

$\int |f + g|^p d\mu \leq \int 2^p |f|^p d\mu + \int 2^p |g|^p d\mu$. Therefore finiteness of $\|f\|_p$ and $\|g\|_p$ leads $\|f + g\|_p < \infty$.

Now, consider $\int |f + g|^p d\mu = \int |f + g| |f + g|^{p-1} d\mu \leq \int |f| |f + g|^{p-1} d\mu + \int |g| |f + g|^{p-1} d\mu$. Let q be Holder conjugate of p . Then by applying Holder inequality, we get $\|f + g\|_p^p \leq \|f + g\|_p^{p/q} (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p)$. Simple calculating leads Minkowski's inequality.

(b) First consider $p = 1$. By using triangle inequality, the result follows directly. Next consider $p = \infty$. $|f + g| \leq |f| + |g| \leq \|f\|_\infty + \|g\|_\infty$ a.e. Therefore $\|f + g\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_\infty + \|g\|_\infty$.

Problem (1.6.8).

First assume $g = 1_A$. Then $\int g d\mu = \mu(A) = \int_A f(x) dx = \int 1_A f d\mu$ where m is Lebesgue measure.

Next, assume $g = \sum_i a_i 1_{A_i}$, simple function. Then $\int g d\mu = \sum_i a_i \mu(A_i) = \sum_i a_i \int 1_{A_i} f d\mu$.

Next, assume g is nonnegative measurable. Let $\{s_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ be increasing sequence of simple function converges to g pointwisely. Then $\int g d\mu = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int s_n d\mu =$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int s_n f dm$. But $s_n f \uparrow gf$ since f is nonnegative. By monotone convergence theorem, we can get $\int g d\mu = \int g f dm$.

Last, assume g is integrable function. We can decompose g by $g = g^+ - g^-$. Applying 3rd step for g^+, g^- each, we can get $\int g d\mu = \int g^+ f dm - \int g^- f dm = \int g f dm$ since f is nonnegative.

Problem (1.6.13).

Since $X_n \uparrow X$, $X_n^+ \uparrow X^+$ and $X_n^- \downarrow X^-$. And note that $X_n^- \leq X_1^-$ which is integrable. Apply monotone convergence theorem to X_n^+ and apply dominated convergence theorem to X_n^- to get $\lim EX_n = \lim EX_n^+ - \lim EX_n^- = EX^+ - EX^- = EX$.

Problem (1.7.1).

We need to show that $\int_{X \times Y} |f| d(\mu_1 \times \mu_2) < \infty$.

Since $|f|^\pm$ is nonnegative, by Fubini's theorem, $\int_X \int_Y |f|^\pm \mu_2(dy) \mu_1(dx) < \infty$. Then, their sum is also finite, and the sum is $\int_{X \times Y} |f| d(\mu_1 \times \mu_2)$ by Fubini's theorem. This leads the conclusion of the exercise.

Corollary is immediate if we take $\mu_1 = c$ and $\mu_2 = \mu$.

Problem (1.7.3).

1.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{(a,b]} \{F(y) - F(a)\} dG(y) &= \int_{(a,b]} \int_{(a,y]} 1 \mu(dx) \nu(dy) \\ &= \int_{a < x \leq y \leq b} 1 d(\mu \times \nu) \\ &= \mu \times \nu(1 < X \leq Y \leq b) \end{aligned}$$

by Fubini's theorem on nonnegative function 1.

2.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{(a,b]} F(y) dG(y) &= \int_{(a,b]} \int_{-\infty}^y 1 \mu(dx) \nu(dy) \\ &= \int_{(-\infty, a]} \int_{(a,b]} 1 \nu(dy) \mu(dx) + \int_{(a,b]} \int_{[x,b]} \nu(dy) \mu(dx) \\ &= F(a) \{G(b) - G(a)\} + G(b) \{F(b) - F(a)\} \\ &\quad - \int_{(a,b]} G(x) \mu(dx) + \int_{(a,b]} G(x) - G(x^-) \mu(dx) \end{aligned}$$

We can get similar result for $\int_{(a,b]} G(y) dF(y)$. By simple calculation, we get the conclusion of (2).

3. If $F = G$ continuous, Then $\mu(\{x\}) = \nu(\{x\}) = F(x) - F(x^-) = G(x) - G(x^-) = 0$. Therefore, by using (2), we can get the conclusion.

Problem (2.1.3).

1. If $h(\alpha) = 0$ for some $\alpha > 0$, by mean value theorem, $h'(\beta) = 0$ for some $\beta \in (0, \alpha)$. It contradicts to $h'(x) > 0$ for positive x . Therefore $h > 0$ for positive x .

$x = y$ iff $\rho(x, y) = 0$ iff $h(\rho(x, y)) = 0$. And $h(\rho(x, y)) = h(\rho(y, x))$ since $\rho(x, y) = \rho(y, x)$.

Now consider $x \geq y > 0$ and $\frac{h(x+y)-h(x)}{y} = h'(x+\theta)$ and $\frac{h(y)}{y} = h'(y-\delta)$. Since h' is decreasing, $h(x+y) - h(x) \leq h(y)$. Using this, we can prove triangle inequality of $h \circ \rho$.

2. $h(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{1+x}$ so $h'(x) = \frac{1}{(1+x)^2}$ and $h''(x) = \frac{-2}{(1+x)^3}$. Given h satisfies all of (1).

Problem (2.1.9).

Let $\mathcal{A}_1 = \{\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}\}$, $\mathcal{A}_2 = \{\{1, 4\}\}$. For $A_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1$ and $A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2$, $P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1)P(A_2) = 1/4$. But, $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_1) = 2^\Omega$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_2) = \{\Omega, \{1, 4\}, \{2, 3\}, \emptyset\}$. They are not independent by considering $A_1 = \{2, 3, 4\}$ and $A_2 = \{2, 3\}$.

Problem (2.2.3).

(a) $f(U_i)$'s are iid because $P(\bigcap_i (f \circ U_i) \in B_i) = P(\bigcap_i \{U_i \in f^{-1}(B_i)\}) = \prod_i P(U_i \in f^{-1}(B_i)) = \prod_i P(f(U_i) \in B_i)$. Also, for borel set B , $P(f(U_i) \in B) = P(U_i \in f^{-1}(B))$ are all same for i .

$$Ef(U_i) = \int_0^1 f(x)dx, E|f(U_i)| = \int_0^1 |f(x)|dx < \infty.$$

Now, by WLLN, $\frac{\sum f(U_i)}{n}$ converges to $\int_0^1 f(x)dx$ in probability.

$$(b) P(|I_n - I| > a/n^{0.5}) \leq \frac{n}{a^2} E|I_n - I|^2 = \frac{n}{a^2} \text{Var}(I_n) = \text{Var}(\sum f(U_i))/na^2 = \text{Var}(f(U_i))/a^2 = \left[\int_0^1 f(x)^2 dx - \left(\int_0^1 f(x) dx \right)^2 \right] / a^2.$$

Problem (2.2.5).

Note that $P(X_i \leq a) = 0$ for all $a < e$.

$$xP(X_i > x) = \frac{e}{\log x} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

$E|X_i| = EX_i = \int_e^\infty P(X_i > x)dx = \int_e^\infty \frac{e}{x \log x} dx = \infty$ since $X_i \geq 0$ almost surely.

But $\mu_n = \int_{|X_i| \leq n} X_i dP \uparrow EX_i = \infty$ by monotone convergence theorem.

Now, theorem 2.2.12 says $\frac{s_n}{n} - \mu_n$ converges to 0 in probability.

Problem (2.3.5).

- (a) Let $F_N = \{Y \leq N\}$ and $Y_N = Y1_{F_N}$. Then $EY_N \uparrow EY$ by MCT. So choose N so that $EY - EY_N < \varepsilon$. Now consider $|EX_n - EX| \leq E|X_n - X| \leq \int_{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon} 2Y dP + \int_{|X_n - X| \leq \varepsilon} |X_n - X| dP \leq \varepsilon + \int_{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon} 2Y dP$.

Let $E_n = \{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\}$. Then $\int_{E_n} 2Y dP = \int_{E_n} 2Y - 2Y_N + 2Y_N dP \leq E(2Y - 2Y_N) + 2NP(E_n)$, where the last term goes to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- (b) Let h, g be continuous functions, $h(0) = 0$, $g > 0$ for large x , $|h|/g \rightarrow 0$ as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$, and $Eg(X_n) \leq C < \infty$.

Choose M so large that $g > 0$ on $|x| > M$. $\varepsilon_M = \sup_{|x| \geq M} |h|/g$ and $\bar{Y} = Y1_{|Y| \leq M}$.

Then $|Eh(X_n) - Eh(X)| \leq E|h(X_n) - Eh(\bar{X}_n)| + E|h(\bar{X}_n) - h(\bar{X})| + E|h(\bar{X}) - h(X)|$. First term and third term are bounded by $\varepsilon_M C$ which goes to 0 as $M \rightarrow \infty$. And the second term goes to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by bounded convergence thm.

Therefore the conclusions hold.

Problem (2.3.6.).

- (a) We already show that $\rho(x, y) = \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|}$ is a metric in problem 2.1.3.

First consider $d(X, Y) = 0$ iff $E \frac{|X-Y|}{1+|X-Y|} = 0$ iff $\frac{|X-Y|}{1+|X-Y|} = 0$ a.s. iff $X = Y$ a.s.

Next, it is trivial to check $d(X, Y) = d(Y, X)$.

Lastly, $d(X, Z) = E\rho(X, Z) \leq E(\rho(X, Y) + \rho(Y, Z)) = E\rho(X, Y) + E\rho(Y, Z) = d(X, Y) + d(Y, Z)$.

Therefore given function is a metric of class of random variables.

- (b) First assume $X_n \rightarrow X$ in probability. Then $\frac{|X_n - X|}{1+|X_n - X|} \leq 1$ and it goes to 0 in probability. So bounded convergence thm implies $d(X_n, X) \rightarrow 0$.

Next assume $d(X_n, X) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\begin{aligned}
P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) &= P\left(\frac{|X_n - X|}{1 + |X_n - X|} > \frac{\varepsilon}{1 + \varepsilon}\right) \\
&\leq E \frac{|X_n - X|}{1 + |X_n - X|} \frac{1 + \varepsilon}{\varepsilon} \\
&= d(X_n, X) \frac{1 + \varepsilon}{\varepsilon} \rightarrow 0
\end{aligned}$$

by Markov's inequality.

Problem (2.3.8).

Independence of A_n implies independence of A_n^c . Let $B_n = \cap_{k=1}^n A_k^c$. Then $0 = P(\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(B_n)$.

So, for arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a positive integer N_ε such that $n \geq N_\varepsilon$ implies $P(B_n) = P(\cap_{k=1}^n A_k^c) = \prod_{k=1}^n (1 - P(A_k)) = e^{\sum_{k=1}^n \log(1 - P(A_k))} < \varepsilon$. But as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{\sum_{k=1}^n \log(1 - P(A_k))} = 0$$

This means that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \log(1 - P(A_k)) = -\infty$, therefore $\log(1 - P(A_k))$ does not converge to 0, which is equivalent to that $P(A_k)$ does not converge to 0. Therefore $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) = \infty$.

Problem (2.3.12).

Let $\Omega = \{\omega_i : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Without loss of generality, we can assume $P(\{\omega_i\}) > 0$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$.

If there is ω_i such that $X_n(\omega_i)$ does not converge to $X(\omega_i)$, then for some $\varepsilon > 0$, and for all $N \in \mathbb{N}$, there is $n_N \geq N$ but $|X_{n_N}(\omega_i) - X(\omega_i)| > \varepsilon$.

This means $\{|X_{n_N} - X| > \varepsilon\}$ contains ω_i for all N . So $0 < P(\{\omega_i\}) \leq P(|X_{n_N} - X| > \varepsilon)$.

But $X_n \rightarrow X$ in probability implies $X_{n_N} \rightarrow X$ in probability. This contradicts to above. Therefore there is no such ω_i hence X_n converges to X almost surely.

Problem (2.5.2).

If $E|X_1|^p = \infty$, then for each positive integer k , $E|X_1|^p \leq \sum_n P(|X_1|^p > nk) = \infty$. But $P(|X_1|^p > nk) = P(|X_n| > (nk)^{1/p})$. Then by Borel Cantelli lemma $P(|X_n| > (nk)^{1/p} \text{ i.o.}) = 1$. That is, $\limsup_n |X_n|/n^{1/p} \geq k^{1/p}$ for infinitely many k . Therefore $\limsup_n |X_n|/n^{1/p} = \infty$.

But $|X_n| \leq |S_n| + |S_{n-1}|$. That leads $\limsup_n |S_n|/n^{1/p} = \infty$. By taking contrapositive, we get the conclusion.

Problem (2.5.5).

The first one leads the second one directly because Kolmogorov's three series lemma with $A = 1$ tells it.

The second one implies the third one because $\frac{X_n}{1+X_n} \leq 1_{X_n>1} + X_n 1_{X_n \leq 1}$ and monotone convergence theorem.

The third one implies $\sum_n \frac{X_n}{1+X_n} < \infty$ a.s. And convergence of $\sum_n \frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$ for $a_n \geq 0$ gives the convergence of $\sum_n a_n$. It is because $\lim a_n = 0$ and $|a_N + \dots + a_{N+n}| \leq (1+\varepsilon) \left| \frac{a_N}{1+a_N} + \dots + \frac{a_{N+n}}{1+a_{N+n}} \right|$ for large N . Therefore $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ is Cauchy hence converges. Therefore $\sum_n X_n$ converges a.s.

Problem (3.2.4).

Since $X_n \rightarrow X_\infty$ in distribution, there are $Y_n =_d X_n$ and $Y_\infty =_d X_\infty$ such that $Y_n \rightarrow Y_\infty$ a.s.

Then $g(Y_n) \geq 0$ and $g(Y_n) \rightarrow g(Y_\infty)$ a.s. Therefore by Fatou's lemma, $\liminf Eg(Y_n) \geq Eg(Y_\infty)$ which is equivalent to $\liminf Eg(X_n) \geq Eg(X_\infty)$ since $X_n =_d Y_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \infty$.

Problem (3.2.5).

There are $Y_n \rightarrow Y_\infty$ a.s. and distribution function of Y_n is equal to F_n . $F_\infty = F$.

Then by theorem 1.6.8, $Eh(Y_n) \rightarrow Eh(Y_\infty)$ which is equivalent to $\int h(x)dF_n(x) \rightarrow \int h(x)dF(x)$ because distribution function of Y_n is F_n .