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1.1 Measure Theory Chapter 6

1.1 Problem 6.1a.

Consider on \mathbb{R} the family Σ of all Borel sets which are symmetric w.r.t. the origin. Show that Σ is a σ -algebra.

Proof.

1. To show that $\mathbb{R} \in \Sigma$, note that \mathbb{R} is a Borel set that is symmetric w.r.t. to the origin.
2. To show that $A \in \Sigma \Rightarrow A^c \in \Sigma$, it suffices to show that

$$\forall x \in A : -x \in A \implies \forall y \in A^c : -y \in A^c,$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\forall x \in A : -x \in A \implies \forall y \notin A : -y \notin A,$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\exists y \notin A : -y \in A \implies \exists x \in A : -x \notin A.$$

This last statement hold if we set $x := -y$.

3. To show that Σ is stable under countable unions, assume $A_j = B_j \cup B_j^c$ for some $B_j \in \mathcal{B}([0, \infty))$. We have

$$\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} B_j \cup \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} -B_j \in \Sigma$$

□

1.2 Problem 6.3i.

Show that non-void open sets in \mathbb{R}^n have always strictly positive Lebesgue measure.

Proof.

First remember that

1. $\lambda^n[a, b] = \prod_{j=1}^n (b_j - a_j)$
2. λ^n is a pre-measure that can be extended to a measure on $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$.
3. λ^n is invariant under translations
4. $A \subseteq B \implies \mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$
5. $Q_\epsilon = [-\epsilon, \epsilon)$

To show that $\lambda^n(U) > 0$ it suffices

$$\lambda^n(U') > 0$$

where $0 \in U'$ and $U' = x + U$ for some $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. To show that it suffices to show that

$$\lambda^n(B_\epsilon(0)) > 0$$

where $B_\epsilon(0) \subseteq U$. To show that it suffices to show that $Q_{\epsilon'} \subseteq B_\epsilon$ for some $\epsilon' > 0$. This holds if we set $\epsilon' := \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2n}}$. \square

1.3 Problem 6.3ii.

Is 6.3i still true for closed sets ?

Proof.

No, take $\{0\}$, then $\lambda\{x\} = 0$. \square

1.4 Problem 6.4i.

Show that $\lambda(a, b) = b - a$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a \leq b$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(a, b) &= \lambda([b - a] - \{b\}) \\ &= \lambda[b, a] - \lambda\{b\} && \text{T4.3iii} \\ &= b - a - 0 && \text{Problem 4.11i} \end{aligned}$$

□

1.5 Problem 6.4ii.

Let $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be a hyperplane which is perpendicular to the x_1 -direction (that is to say: H is a translate of the x_2 axis). Show that

1. $H \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$
2. $\lambda^2(H) = 0$

Proof.

1. To show that $H \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$, it suffices to show that H is writable as an intersection of countable half-open sets. Note that:

$$H := \{y\} \times \mathbb{R} = \bigcap_{j \in \mathbb{N}} [y, y + 1/j) \times \mathbb{R}$$

2. We have that for any $\epsilon > 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda^2(H) &= \lambda^2(\{y\} \times \mathbb{R}) \\ &\leq \lambda^2\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} [y, y + \epsilon_n) \times [-n, n)\right) \\ &\leq 2 \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \epsilon_n n \\ &= \epsilon L \end{aligned}$$

This follows if we choose $\epsilon_n := \frac{\epsilon}{2^n}$. Therefore $\lambda^2(H) = 0$.

□

1.6 Definition.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space such that all singletons $\{x\} \in \mathcal{A}$. A point x is called an atom, if $\mu\{x\} > 0$. A measure is called *non-atomic* or *diffuse*, there are no atoms.

1.7 Problem 6.5i.

Show that λ^1 is diffuse.

Proof.

We've already shown that $\lambda\{x\} = 0$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$. □

1.8 Problem 6.5iii.

Show that for a diffuse measure μ on (X, \mathcal{A}) all countable sets are null sets.

Proof.

All countable sets are writable as

$$\bigcup_{j=0}^{\infty} \{x_j\}$$

where $x_i \neq x_j$. So we get

$$\lambda\left(\bigcup_{j=0}^{\infty} \{x_j\}\right) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \lambda\{x_j\} = 0.$$

□

1.9 Definition.

A set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called *bounded* if it can be contained in a ball $B_r \supseteq A$ of finite radius r . A set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called *connected*, if we can go along a curve from any point $a \in A$ to any point $a' \in A$ without ever leaving A .

1.10 Problem 6.6a.

Construct an open and unbounded set in \mathbb{R} with finite, strictly positive Lebesgue measure.

Proof.

Consider the set

$$U := \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(n - \frac{1}{2^n}, n + \frac{1}{2^n}\right).$$

This is an open set, as it union of countable open sets. It is unbounded, for any $B_r(0)$ we have that $r + 1 \in U$ and not in $B_r(0)$. We have to show that it has finite lebesgue measure.

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(U) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(n - \frac{1}{2^n}, n + \frac{1}{2^n}\right) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{2^n} = 2. \end{aligned}$$

□

1.11 Problem 6.6ii.

Construct an open, unbounded and connected set in \mathbb{R} with finite, strictly positive Lebesgue measure.

Proof.

Consider

$$U = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} [0, 0 + \epsilon/(2^j)) \times [-j, j)$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda^2(U) &= \left(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \left(-\frac{1}{2^j}, \frac{1}{2^j}\right) \times (-j, j) \right) \\ &\leq \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{4j}{2^j} \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{j}{2^j}$$

converges.

□

1.12 Problem 6.6iii.

Is there a connected, open and unbounded set in \mathbb{R} with finite, strictly positive Lebesgue measure ?

Proof.

No, this is impossible. Since we are in one dimension, connectedness forces us to go between points in a straight, uninterrupted line. Since the set is unbounded, this means we must have a line of the sort (a, ∞) or $(-\infty, b)$ in our set and in both cases Lebesgue measure is infinite. □

1.13 Definition.

Let $A \subset X$. The closure of A , denoted by \bar{A} , is the smallest closed set containing A , i.e.

$$\bar{A} = \bigcap_{\substack{F \in \mathcal{C} \\ F \supset A}} F$$

1.14 Definition.

A set $A \subseteq X$ is dense in X if $\bar{A} = X$

1.15 Problem 6.7.

Let $\lambda := \lambda^1|_{[0,1]}$ be a Lebesgue measure on $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}[0, 1])$. Show that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a dense open set $U \subseteq [0, 1]$ with $\lambda(U) \leq \epsilon$.

Proof.

Note that \mathbb{Q} is dense. We are going to make an open set contained in \mathbb{Q} . Consider

$$U := \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (q_j - \epsilon_j, q_j + \epsilon_j)$$

Then

$$\lambda(U) = \lambda\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (q_j - \epsilon_j, q_j + \epsilon_j)\right) \leq \sum 2\epsilon_j.$$

So set $\epsilon_j := \frac{\epsilon}{2^j - 1}$. And we are done. \square

1.16 Problem 6.10i.

Let μ be a measure on $\mathcal{A} = \{\emptyset, [0, 1), [1, 2), [0, 2)\}$ of $X = [0, 2)$. Such that

$$\mu[0, 1) = \mu[1, 2) = 1/2 \quad \mu[0, 2) = 1.$$

Define for each $A \subseteq [0, 2)$ the family of countable \mathcal{A} -coverings of A

$$\mathcal{C}(A) := \{(A_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{A} : \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j \supseteq A\}$$

and set

$$\mu^*(A) := \inf \left\{ \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(S_j) : (S_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{C}(A) \right\}.$$

Define $\mathcal{A}^* := \{A \subseteq [0, 2) : \mu^*(B) = \mu^*(B \cap A) + \mu^*(B - A) \quad \forall B \subseteq X\}$

Show that

1. Find $\mu^*(a, b), \mu^*\{a\}$
2. $(0, 1), \{0\} \notin \mathcal{A}^*$

Note that in T6.1 it is proven that:

- $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{A}^*$
- $\mu^*(A) = \mu(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$
- \mathcal{A}^* is a σ -algebra and μ^* is a measure on $([0, 2], \mathcal{A}^*)$

Proof.

1. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\mu^*(a, b) &= \mu[0, 1) && \text{if } a, b \in [0, 1) \\ \mu^*(a, b) &= \mu[1, 2) && \text{if } a, b \in [1, 2) \\ \mu^*(a, b) &= \mu[0, 2) && \text{if } a \in [0, 1), b \in [1, 2)\end{aligned}$$

In the case of a singleton $\{a\}$ the best possible cover is always either $[0, 1)$ or $[1, 2)$ so that $\mu^*\{a\} = 1/2$.

2. Suppose that $(0, 1) \in \mathcal{A}^*$ then we would have that

$$\{0\} = [0, 1) - (0, 1) \in \mathcal{A}^*.$$

But this gives

$$\frac{1}{2} = \mu^*[0, 1) = \mu^*(0, 1) + \mu^*\{0\} = 1$$

□

2 10-10-2014

2.1 Measure Theory Chapter 7

2.1 Definition.

Let $(X, \mathcal{A}), (X', \mathcal{A}')$ be two measurable spaces. A map $T : X \rightarrow X'$ is called \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{A}' -measurable (or *measurable* unless this is too ambiguous) if the pre-image of every measurable set is a measurable set:

$$T^{-1}(A') \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall A' \in \mathcal{A}'.$$

We often denote this by $T^{-1}(\mathcal{A}') \subseteq \mathcal{A}$.

2.2 Definition.

A *random variable* is a measurable map from a probability space (i.e. $\mu(X) = 1$) to any measurable space.

2.3 Lemma 7.2.

Let $(X, \mathcal{A}), (X', \mathcal{A}')$ be measurable spaces and let $\mathcal{A}' = \sigma(\mathcal{G}')$. Then $T : X \rightarrow X'$ is \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{A}' -measurable if and only if

$$T^{-1}(G') \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall G' \in \mathcal{G}'.$$

2.4 Problem 7.1.

Show that

$$\tau_x : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n : B \mapsto B - x$$

is a $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ measurable map.

Proof.

Showing that

$$\tau_x : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) : B \mapsto B - x$$

is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ measurable, is equivalent with showing that

$$\tau_x^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) \quad \forall B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n),$$

which in turn is equivalent with showing that

$$x + B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) \quad \forall B \in \mathcal{J}(\mathbb{R}^n),$$

which in turn is equivalent with showing that

$$x + [a, b] \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

This follows as $x + [a, b] = [x + a, x + b] \in \mathcal{J}(\mathbb{R}^n) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. \square

2.5 Theorem.

Every continuous map $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is $\mathcal{B}^n/\mathcal{B}^m$ measurable.

Proof.

Showing that

$$T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

is $\mathcal{B}^n/\mathcal{B}^m$ measurable, is equivalent with showing that

$$T^{-1}(\mathcal{O}^m) \subseteq \mathcal{B}^n.$$

As $\mathcal{O}^n \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{O}^n) = \mathcal{B}^n$, it suffices to show that

$$T^{-1}(\mathcal{O}^m) \subseteq \mathcal{O}^n,$$

which follows from the continuity of T . \square

2.6 Definition.

Let $(T_i)_{i \in I}$ be arbitrarily many mappings $T_i : X \rightarrow X_i$ from the same space X into measurable spaces (X_i, \mathcal{A}_i) . The smallest σ -algebra on X that makes all T_i simultaneously measurable is

$$\sigma(T_i : i \in I) := \sigma\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} T_i^{-1}(\mathcal{A}_i)\right).$$

We say that $\sigma(T_i : i \in I)$ is *generated by the family $(T_i)_{i \in I}$* .

2.7 Theorem.

Let (X_j, \mathcal{A}_j) , $j = 1, 2, 3$, be measurable spaces and $T : X_1 \rightarrow X_2$, $S : X_2 \rightarrow X_3$ be $\mathcal{A}_1/\mathcal{A}_2$ - resp. $\mathcal{A}_2/\mathcal{A}_3$ -measurable maps. Then $S \circ T : X_1 \rightarrow X_3$ is $\mathcal{A}_1/\mathcal{A}_3$ -measurable.

2.8 Problem 7.4.

Let X be a set, $(X_i, \mathcal{A}_i), i \in I$, be arbitrarily many measurable spaces, and $T_i : X \rightarrow X_i$ be a family of maps. Show that a map f from a measurable space (F, \mathcal{F}) to $(X, \sigma(T_i : i \in I))$ is measurable if, and only if, all maps $T_i \circ f$ are $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{A}_i$ -measurable.

Proof of \implies .

To show that all maps $T_i \circ f$ are $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{A}_i$ -measurable, it suffices to show that $T_i : X \rightarrow X_i$ is $\sigma(T_i : i \in I)/\mathcal{A}_i$ -measurable and $f : F \rightarrow X$ is $\mathcal{F}/\sigma(T_i : i \in I)$ -measurable.

By hypothesis, it suffices to show that $T_i : X \rightarrow X_i$ is $\sigma(T_i : i \in I)/\mathcal{A}_i$ -measurable, which is equivalent with showing that

$$T_i^{-1}(A_i) \in \sigma(T_i : i \in I) \quad \forall A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i.$$

It suffices to assume $A_i \in \mathcal{A}_i$ and show that

$$T_i^{-1}(A_i) \in \bigcup_{i \in I} T_i^{-1}(\mathcal{A}_i) \quad \checkmark.$$

□

Proof of \impliedby .

To show that a map f from a measurable space (F, \mathcal{F}) to $(X, \sigma(T_i : i \in I))$ is measurable, it suffices to show that

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} T_i^{-1}(\mathcal{A}_i)\right) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$$

To show this it suffices to show that

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}(T_i^{-1}(\mathcal{A}_i)) \subseteq \mathcal{F},$$

to show this it suffices to show that

$$f^{-1}(T_i^{-1}(\mathcal{A}_i)) \subseteq \mathcal{F},$$

to show this it suffices to show that

$$(T_i \circ f)^{-1}(\mathcal{A}_i) \subseteq \mathcal{F}.$$

This follows by hypothesis. □

2.9 Problem 7.8.

Let $T : X \rightarrow Y$ be any map. Show that

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

holds for arbitrary families of \mathcal{G} of subsets of Y .

Proof.

To show that

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

it suffices to show:

1. $T^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{G})) \subseteq \sigma(T^{-1}(\mathcal{G}))$
2. $\sigma(T^{-1}(\mathcal{G})) \subseteq T^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{G}))$

To show

$$T^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{G})) \subseteq \sigma(T^{-1}(\mathcal{G})),$$

it suffices to show that T is $\sigma(T^{-1}(\mathcal{G}))/\sigma(\mathcal{G})$ measurable.

To show that it suffices to show that

$$T^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \sigma(T^{-1}(\mathcal{G})) \quad \checkmark.$$

To show

$$\sigma(T^{-1}(\mathcal{G})) \subseteq T^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{G})),$$

it suffices to show that

$$T^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq T^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{G})) \quad \checkmark.$$

□

2.2 Measure Theory Chapter 5

2.10 Definition.

A family $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ is a *Dynkin system* if

$$\begin{aligned} X &\in \mathcal{D} \\ D \in \mathcal{D} &\implies D^c \in \mathcal{D} \\ (D_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{D} \text{ pairwise disjoint} &\implies \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} D_j \in \mathcal{D} \end{aligned}$$

2.11 Definition.

Let $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$. Then there is a smallest Dynkin system $\delta(\mathcal{G})$ containing \mathcal{G} . $\delta(\mathcal{G})$ is called the *Dynkin system generated by \mathcal{G}* .

2.12 Proposition.

Show that

$$\mathcal{G} \subseteq \delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{G}).$$

Proof.

We have that $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{G})$. And therefore $\delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \delta(\sigma(\mathcal{G})) = \sigma(\mathcal{G})$. \square

2.13 Theorem.

A Dynkin system \mathcal{D} is a σ -algebra if, and only if, it is stable under finite intersections: $D, E \in \mathcal{D} \implies D \cap E \in \mathcal{D}$

Proof.

It suffices to show that a \cap -stable Dynkin system is stable under countable unions. To show this, it suffices to show that given $(D_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{D}$, we have

$$D := \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} D_j \in \mathcal{D}.$$

Set $E_1 = D_1 \in \mathcal{D}$. And $E_2 := D_2 \cap D_1^c$. And $E_3 = D_3 \cap D_2^c \cap D_1^c$. And so on. Then

$$D = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} E_j \in \mathcal{D}.$$

\square

2.14 Theorem.

If $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ is stable under finite intersections, then $\delta(\mathcal{G}) = \sigma(\mathcal{G})$.

Proof.

It suffices to show that $\sigma(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \delta(\mathcal{G})$. As $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \delta(\mathcal{G})$ it suffices to show that $\delta(\mathcal{G})$ is a σ -algebra. To show that $\delta(\mathcal{G})$ is a σ -algebra, it suffices to show that $\delta(\mathcal{G})$ is stable under finite intersections.

Fix $D \in \delta(\mathcal{G})$. Consider $\mathcal{D}_D := \{Q \subseteq X : Q \cap D \in \delta(\mathcal{G})\}$. It suffices to show that $\delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \mathcal{D}_D$. To show that it suffices to show that \mathcal{D}_D is a Dynkin system and that $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_D$.

To show that $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_D$, it suffices to show that

$$G \cap D \in \delta(\mathcal{G}) \quad \forall G \in \mathcal{G},$$

to show that it suffices to show that

$$\delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \mathcal{D}_G \quad \forall G \in \mathcal{G},$$

to show that it suffices to show that (as \mathcal{D}_G is a dynkin system)

$$\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_G \quad \forall G \in \mathcal{G}.$$

This follows from $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \delta(\mathcal{G})$ and \mathcal{G} is \cap -stable. □

2.15 Proposition.

$$A_j \uparrow A \implies A_j \cap B \uparrow A \cap B$$

Proof.

To show that

$$A_j \uparrow A \implies A_j \cap B \uparrow A \cap B,$$

it suffices to show that

$$A = \bigcup_j A_j \implies A \cap B = \bigcup_j A_j \cap B,$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\left(\bigcup_j A_j \right) \cap B = \bigcup_j A_j \cap B \quad \checkmark.$$

□

2.16 Definition.

An *exhausting sequence* $(A_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is an increasing sequence of sets $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_3 \subseteq \dots$ such that $\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j = X$.

2.17 Theorem.

Assume that (X, \mathcal{A}) is a measurable space and that $\mathcal{A} = \sigma(\mathcal{G})$ is generated by a family \mathcal{G} such that

- \mathcal{G} is stable under finite intersections $G, H \in \mathcal{G} \implies G \cap H \in \mathcal{G}$
- there exists an exhausting sequence $(G_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ with $G_j \uparrow X$

Any two measure μ, ν that coincide on \mathcal{G} and are finite for all members of the exhausting sequence $\mu(G_j) = \nu(G_j) < \infty$, are equal on \mathcal{A} , i.e.

$$\mu(A) = \nu(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Proof.

Remember that for any increasing sequence $(A_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ with $A_j \uparrow A \in \mathcal{A}$ we have

$$\mu(A) = \lim_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(A_j).$$

To show that

$$\mu(A) = \nu(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$$

it suffices to show that (as $G_j \cap A \uparrow X \cap A$)

$$\lim_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(G_j \cap A) = \lim_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \nu(G_j \cap A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$$

To show that it suffices to show that

$$\mu(G_j \cap A) = \nu(G_j \cap A) \quad \forall j \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Consider $\mathcal{D}_j := \{A \in \mathcal{A} : \mu(G_j \cap A) = \nu(G_j \cap A)\}$. It suffices to show that $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_j$, which is equivalent with showing $\sigma(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \mathcal{D}_j$.

As \mathcal{G} is stable under finite intersections, it suffices to show that $\delta(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \mathcal{D}_j$.

As \mathcal{G} is stable under finite intersections and $\mu(\mathcal{G}) = \nu(\mathcal{G})$, we have that $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_j$ and therefore it suffices to show that \mathcal{D}_j is a Dynkin system.

Which you can check. □

2.18 Theorem.

The n -dimensional Lebesgue measure λ^n is invariant under translations, i.e.

$$\lambda^n(x + B) = \lambda^n(B) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n).$$

Proof.

Set $\nu(B) := \lambda^n(x + B)$ for some fixed $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. It suffices to show that

$$\lambda^n(B) = \nu(B) \quad B \in \mathcal{B}.$$

To show that, it suffices to show that

1. \mathcal{J} is \cap -stable ✓
2. \mathcal{J} admits an exhausting sequence
 - $[-j, j) \uparrow \mathbb{R}^n$ ✓
3. $\lambda^n|_{\mathcal{J}} = \nu|_{\mathcal{J}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \nu([a, b)) &= \lambda^n[x + a, x + b) \\ &= \lambda^n[a, b) \end{aligned}$$

4. ν is a measure on \mathcal{B}^n

To show that ν is a measure on \mathcal{B}^n , it suffices to show that

$$\nu\left(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} B_j\right) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \nu(B_j),$$

which is equivalent with

$$\lambda^n\left(x + \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} B_j\right) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \lambda^n(x + B_j).$$

It suffices to show

$$B \in \mathcal{B}^n \implies x + B \in \mathcal{B}^n.$$

Which we have already proven. □

2.19 Theorem.

Let $(X, \mathcal{A}), (X, \mathcal{A}')$ be measurable spaces and $T : X \rightarrow X'$ be an \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{A}' measurable map. For every measure μ on (X, \mathcal{A}) ,

$$\mu'(A') := \mu(T^{-1}(A')), \quad A' \in \mathcal{A}'.$$

The measure μ' is called the image measure of μ under T and is denoted by $T \circ \mu$ or $\mu \circ T^{-1}$.

2.3 Measure Theory Chapter 7

2.20 Problem 7.7.

Use image measures to give a new proof of Problem 5.8, i.e. to show that

$$\lambda^n(t \cdot B) = t^n \lambda^n(B) \quad \forall B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n), \forall t > 0$$

Proof.

Set $\nu(B) := t^n \lambda^n(B)$ for some fixed $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. It suffices to show that

$$\lambda^n(tB) = \nu(B) \quad \forall B \in \mathcal{B}.$$

To show that, it suffices to show that

1. \mathcal{J} is \cap -stable ✓
2. \mathcal{J} admits an exhausting sequence
 - $[-j, j) \uparrow \mathbb{R}^n$ ✓
3. $\lambda^n|_{\mathcal{J}} = \nu|_{\mathcal{J}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \nu([a, b)) &= \lambda^n[ta, tb) \\ &= t^n \lambda^n[a, b) \end{aligned}$$

4. ν is a measure on \mathcal{B}^n as it is a composition of the inverse of a measurable map and a measure.

□

3 11-10-2014

3.1 Measure Theory Chapter 8

3.1 Definition.

Note that: $u^{-1}[a, \infty) = \{x \in X : u(x) \in [a, \infty)\} = \{x \in X : u(x) \geq a\}$. We define:

$$\{u(x) \geq a\} = u^{-1}[a, \infty).$$

3.2 Theorem.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}) be a measurable space. The function $u : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{B} -measurable if, and only if, one, hence all, of the following conditions hold

1. $\{u \geq a\} \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$
2. $\{u > a\} \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$
3. $\{u \leq a\} \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$
4. $\{u < a\} \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$

3.3 Definition.

We define the *extended real line* $\bar{\mathbb{R}} := [-\infty, \infty]$ with the following rules for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\begin{aligned} x + \infty &= \infty + x = \infty & x + -\infty &= -\infty + x = -\infty \\ \infty + \infty &= \infty & -\infty - \infty &= -\infty \end{aligned}$$

And for $x \in (0, \infty]$:

$$\begin{aligned} \pm x \cdot \infty &= \infty \cdot \pm x = \pm\infty \\ \pm x \cdot -\infty &= -\infty \cdot \pm x = \mp\infty \\ 0 \cdot \pm\infty &= \pm\infty \cdot 0 = 0 \\ \frac{1}{\pm\infty} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

3.4 Definition.

Functions which take values in $\bar{\mathbb{R}}$ are called *numerical functions*.

3.5 Definition.

The Borel σ -algebra $\bar{\mathcal{B}} = \mathcal{B}(\bar{\mathbb{R}})$ is defined by:

$$\bar{\mathcal{B}} := \left\{ B \cup S : B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ and } S \in \left\{ \emptyset, \{-\infty\}, \{\infty\}, \{-\infty, \infty\} \right\} \right\}$$

3.6 Theorem.

We have $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R} \cap \mathcal{B}(\bar{\mathbb{R}})$. Moreover $\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ is generated by all sets of the form $[a, \infty]$ or $(a, \infty]$ or $[-\infty, a]$ or $[-\infty, a)$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}$

3.7 Definition.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}) be a measurable space. We write $\mathcal{M} := \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ and $\mathcal{M}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}} := \mathcal{M}_{\bar{\mathbb{R}}}(\mathcal{A})$ for the families of real valued \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{B} -measurable and numerical $\mathcal{A}/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ -measurable functions on X .

3.8 Definition.

A *simple function* $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on a measurable space (X, \mathcal{A}) is a function of the form

$$g(x) := \sum_{j=1}^M y_j \mathbf{1}_{A_j}(x)$$

with finitely many sets $A_1, \dots, A_M \in \mathcal{A}$ and $y_1, \dots, y_M \in \mathbb{R}$. The set of simple functions is denoted by \mathcal{E} or $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{A})$.

If the sets A_1, \dots, A_M are mutually disjoint we call

$$\sum_{j=0}^M y_j \mathbf{1}_{A_j}(x)$$

with $y_0 := 0$ and $A_0 := (A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_M)^c$ a *standard representation* of g . Caution, this representation is not unique.

3.9 Theorem.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}) be a measurable space. Every $\mathcal{A}/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ -measurable numerical function $u : X \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}}$ is the pointwise limit of simple functions:

$$u(x) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j(x)$$

where $f_j \in \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{A})$ and $|f_j| \leq |u|$.

If $u \geq 0$, all f_j can be chosen to be positive and increasing towards u so that $u = \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} f_j$.

3.10 Theorem.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}) be a measurable space. If $u_j : X \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}}, j \in \mathbb{N}$ are measurable functions, then so are

$$\sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} u_j \quad \inf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} u_j \quad \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} u_j \quad \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} u_j$$

and whenever it exists

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} u_j.$$

3.11 Theorem.

Let u, v be $\mathcal{A}/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ -measurable functions. Then the functions

$$u \pm v \quad uv \quad u \vee v := \max\{u, v\} \quad u \wedge v := \min\{u, v\}$$

are $\mathcal{A}/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ -measurable (whenever they are defined).

3.12 Theorem.

A function u is $\mathcal{A}/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ measurable if, and only if, u^\pm are $\mathcal{A}/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ measurable.

3.13 Theorem.

Let $T : (X, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (X', \mathcal{A}')$ be an \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{A}' -measurable map and let $\sigma(T) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ be the σ -algebra generated by T . Then $u = w(T)$ for some $\mathcal{A}'/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ measurable function $w : X' \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}}$ if and only if $u : X \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}}$ is $\sigma(T)/\bar{\mathcal{B}}$ -measurable.

3.14 Proposition.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}) be a measurable space. We define the indicator function:

$$1_A : X \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}} : x \in A \mapsto 1 \quad x \in X - A \mapsto 0$$

Show that the indicator function is measurable if, and only if, $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

Proof.

To show that 1_A is measurable, it suffices to show that

$$1_A^{-1}(a, \infty) \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Note that

$$1_A^{-1}(a, \infty) = \{x \in X : 1_A(x) \in (a, \infty)\} = \{1_A > a\}$$

If $a \geq 1$, then $1_A^{-1}(a, \infty) = \emptyset$.

If $a \in [0, 1)$, then $1_A^{-1}(a, \infty) = A$.

If $a < 0$, then $1_A^{-1}(a, \infty) = X$. □

3.15 Proposition.

Let $A_1, \dots, A_M \in \mathcal{A}$ be mutually disjoint sets and $y_1, \dots, y_M \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the function

$$g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto \sum_{j=1}^M y_j 1_{A_j}(x)$$

is measurable.

Proof.

To show that g is measurable it suffices to show that

$$\{g > a\} \in \mathcal{A}$$

i.e.

$$\left\{x \in X : \sum_{j=1}^M y_j 1_{A_j}(x) > a\right\} = \bigcup_{j: y_j > a} A_j \in \mathcal{A}.$$

□

3.16 Problem 8.3i.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}) be a measurable space. Let $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be measurable functions. Show that for every $A \in \mathcal{A}$ the functions $h(x) := f(x)$ if $x \in A$ and $h(x) := g(x)$, if $x \notin A$, is measurable.

Proof.

Note that

$$h(x) := 1_A(x)f(x) + 1_{A^c}(x)g(x).$$

And remember that sums and products of measurable functions are again measurable. □

3.17 Problem 8.3ii.

Let $(f_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of measurable functions and let $(A_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ such that $\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j = X$. Suppose that $f_j|_{A_j \cap A_k} = f_k|_{A_j \cap A_k}$ for all $j, k \in \mathbb{N}$ and set $f(x) := f_j(x)$ if $x \in A_j$. Show that $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is measurable.

Proof.

We have that:

$$f^{-1}(B) = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j \cap f^{-1}(B) = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j \cap f_j^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{A}$$

□

3.18 Problem 8.4.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}) be a measurable space and let $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{A}$ be a sub- σ -algebra. Show that $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$.

Proof.

To show that

$$\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$$

it suffices to show there exists a \mathcal{A} -measurable function that is not \mathcal{B} -measurable. By hypothesis, we have an element $A \in \mathcal{A}$, that is not in \mathcal{B} , i.e. $A \notin \mathcal{B}$. Since 1_A is \mathcal{B} -measurable if, and only if, $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have find the \mathcal{A} -measurable function where we were looking for. □

3.19 Theorem.

Let $u : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. Explain why u and $u' = du/dx$ are measurable.

Proof.

If u is differentiable, it is continuous, hence measurable. Since u' exists, we can write it in the form

$$u'(x) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(x + 1/k) - u(x)}{1/k}$$

i.e. as limit of measurable functions. Thus, u' is also measurable. □

3.20 Problem 8.17.

Show that the measurability of $|u|$ does not, in general, imply the measurability of u .

Proof.

Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be such that $A \notin \mathcal{B}$. Then it is clear that

$$u(x) := 1_A(x) - 1_{A^c}(x)$$

is not measurable. Take

$$\{u = 1\} = A \notin \mathcal{A}.$$

But $|u(x)| = 1$, which is a continuous function and therefore measurable.

□

3.21 Problem 8.14.

Consider $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ and $u : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Show that $\{x\} \in \sigma(u)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ if, and only if, u is injective.

Proof.

To show that u is injective, it suffices to assume $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and show that

$$u(x) = u(y) \implies x = y.$$

Showing that is equivalent with showing that

$$|\{u = u(x_0)\}| = 1.$$

We surely have that $\{x_0\} \subseteq \{u = u(x_0)\}$. And note that

$$\{x_0\} \in \sigma(u) = \sigma(u^{-1}(\mathcal{B}))$$

just means that $\{x_0\} = u^{-1}(B)$ for some $B \in \mathcal{B}$. □

Proof.

Assume that u is injective,. This means that every point in the range $u(\mathbb{R})$ comes exactly from unique defined $x \in \mathbb{R}$. This can be expressed by saying that $\{x\} = u^{-1}(\{u(x)\}) = \{u(x)\}$. But then

$$\{x\} \in \sigma(u) = \sigma(u^{-1}(\mathcal{B})).$$

□

4 12-10-2014

4.1 Measure Theory Chapter 9

4.1 Definition.

Let $f = \sum_{j=0}^M y_j 1_{A_j} \in \mathcal{E}^+$ be a simple function in standard representation. Then the number

$$I_\mu(f) := \sum_{j=0}^M y_j \mu(A_j) \in [0, \infty]$$

is called the (μ) -integral of f .

4.2 Theorem.

1. $I_\mu(1_A) = \mu(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$
2. $I_\mu(\lambda f) = \lambda I_\mu(f) \quad \forall \lambda \geq 0$
3. $I_\mu(f + g) = I_\mu(f) + I_\mu(g)$
4. $f \leq g \implies I_\mu(f) \leq I_\mu(g)$

4.3 Definition.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space. The (μ) -integral of a positive numerical function $u \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{R}}^+$ is given by

$$\int u d\mu := \sup\{I_\mu(g) : g \leq u, g \in \mathcal{E}^+\} \in [0, \infty].$$

If we need to emphasize the integration variable, we also write

$$\int u(x) \mu(dx) \quad \text{or} \quad \int u(x) d\mu(x)$$

4.4 Theorem.

For all $f \in \mathcal{E}^+$ we have $\int f du = I_\mu(f)$.

4.5 Theorem.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space. For an increasing sequence of numerical functions $(u_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{R}}^+, 0 \leq u_j \leq u_{j+1} \leq \dots$, we have $u := \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} u_j \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{R}}^+$ and

$$\int \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} u_j d\mu = \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int u_j d\mu$$

4.6 Theorem.

Let $u \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{R}}^+$. Then

$$\int u d\mu = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int f_j d\mu$$

holds for every increasing sequence $(f_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{E}^+$ with $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} f_j = u$.

4.7 Theorem.

Let $u, v \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{R}}^+$. Then

1. $\int 1_A d\mu = \mu(A) \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$
2. $\int \alpha u d\mu = \alpha \int u d\mu$
3. $\int (u + v) d\mu = \int u d\mu + \int v d\mu$
4. $u \leq v \implies \int u d\mu \leq \int v d\mu$

4.8 Theorem.

Let $(u_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{R}}^+$. Then $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} u_j$ is measurable and we have

$$\int \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} u_j d\mu = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \int u_j d\mu$$

4.9 Theorem.

Let $(u_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{\mathbb{R}}^+$ be a sequence of positive measurable numerical functions.

Then $u := \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int u_j d\mu$ is measurable and

$$\int \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} u_j d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int u_j d\mu$$

4.10 Problem 9.1.

Let $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a positive simple function of the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_j 1_{A_j}(x) \quad \xi_j \geq 0, A_j \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Show that

$$I_{\mu}(f) = \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_j \mu(A_j)$$

Proof.

$$I_\mu(f) = I_\mu\left(\sum_{j=1}^m \xi_j 1_{A_j}\right) = \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_j I_\mu(1_{A_j}) = \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_j \mu(A_j)$$

□

4.11 Problem 9.5.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space and $u \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathcal{A})$. Show that the set-function

$$A \mapsto \int 1_A u d\mu \quad A \in \mathcal{A}$$

is a measure.

Proof.

Set

$$\nu : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty] : A \mapsto \int 1_A u d\mu.$$

1. To show that $\nu(\emptyset) = 0$. Notice that $1_\emptyset \equiv 0$.
2. Let $A = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j$ a disjoint union of sets $A_j \in \mathcal{A}$. Note that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1_{A_j} = 1_A$$

We have to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \nu\left(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j\right) &= \int \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1_{A_j}\right) \cdot u d\mu \\ &= \int \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1_{A_j} u\right) d\mu \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \int 1_{A_j} u d\mu \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \nu(A_j). \end{aligned}$$

□

4.12 Problem 9.8.

Let (X, \mathcal{A}, μ) be a measure space and $(u_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}^+(\mathcal{A})$. If $u_j \leq u$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$ and some $u \in \mathcal{M}^+(\mathcal{A})$ with $\int u d\mu < \infty$, then

$$\limsup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int u_j d\mu \leq \int \limsup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} u_j d\mu.$$

Proof.

Showing that

$$\limsup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int u_j d\mu \leq \int \limsup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} u_j d\mu$$

is equivalent with showing that

$$-\liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int -u_j d\mu \leq -\int \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} -u_j d\mu$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\int \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} -u_j d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int -u_j d\mu$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\int u d\mu + \int \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} -u_j d\mu \leq \int u d\mu + \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \int -u_j d\mu$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\int u + \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} -u_j d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \left(\int u d\mu + \int -u_j d\mu \right)$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\int \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} (u - u_j) d\mu \leq \liminf_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \left(\int u - u_j d\mu \right).$$

By hypothesis, $u_j \leq u$. So we have that $u - u_j$ is a sequence of positive measurable functions and therefore our last statement follows by the theorem of Fatou. □

4.2 Measure Theory Chapter 7

4.13 Proposition.

Let $(X, \mathcal{A}), (X', \mathcal{A}')$ be measurable spaces and let $\mathcal{A}' = \sigma(\mathcal{G}')$. Then $T : X \rightarrow X'$ is \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{A}' -measurable if and only if $T^{-1}(\mathcal{G}') \subseteq \mathcal{A}$.

It suffices to show assume $T^{-1}(\mathcal{G}') \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ and show that

$$T^{-1}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{A}.$$

Consider $\Sigma := \{A' \subseteq X' : T^{-1}(A') \in \mathcal{A}\}$. We have that $\mathcal{G}' \subseteq \Sigma$. It suffices to show that

$$\mathcal{A}' \subseteq \Sigma.$$

It suffices to show that Σ is a σ -algebra.

1. To show that $X' \in \Sigma$, it suffices to show that $T^{-1}(X') \in \mathcal{A}$.
2. Showing that

$$A' \in \Sigma \implies A'^c \in \Sigma$$

is equivalent with showing that

$$T^{-1}(A') \in \mathcal{A} \implies T^{-1}(A'^c) \in \mathcal{A} \quad \checkmark$$

3. Showing that

$$(A'_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \Sigma \implies \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A'_j \in \Sigma$$

is equivalent with showing that

$$T^{-1}(A'_j) \in \mathcal{A} \implies T^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A'_j\right) \in \mathcal{A} \quad \checkmark$$

4.14 Proposition.

Let $(X, \mathcal{A}), (X', \mathcal{A}')$ be measurable spaces and $T : X \rightarrow X'$ be an \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{A}' -measurable map. For every measure μ on (X, \mathcal{A}) ,

$$\mu'(A') := T(\mu)(A') := \mu(T^{-1}(A')), \quad A' \in \mathcal{A}'$$

defines a measure on (X', \mathcal{A}') .

Proof.

1. To show that

$$\mu(T^{-1}(\emptyset)) = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

2. Assume $(A'_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}'$ mutually disjoint sets and show that

$$\mu'(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A'_j) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \mu'(A'_j),$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\mu(T^{-1}(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A'_j)) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(T^{-1}(A'_j)),$$

which is equivalent with showing that

$$\mu(T^{-1}(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A'_j)) = \mu(\bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} T^{-1}(A'_j)) \quad \checkmark.$$

□

4.15 Problem 7.9i.

Let μ be a measure on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$. Show that

$$F_\mu(x) := \begin{cases} \mu[0, x) & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ -\mu[x, 0) & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

1. is monotonically increasing
2. left-continuous function

Proof.

1. Showing that F_μ is monotonically increasing is equivalent with showing that

$$x \leq y \implies F_\mu(x) \leq F_\mu(y).$$

- (a) $x \leq 0 \leq y$: Then $F_\mu(x) = -\mu[x, 0] \leq 0$ and $F_\mu(y) = \mu[0, y] \geq 0$.
 - (b) $0 < x \leq y$: Then $[0, x] \subseteq [0, y]$. And $\mu[0, x] \leq \mu[0, y]$.
 - (c) $x \leq y < 0$: Then $[y, 0] \subseteq [x, 0]$. And $\mu[y, 0] \leq \mu[x, 0]$.
2. Showing that F_μ is left continuous is equivalent with assuming (x_k) a sequence such that $x_k < x$ and $x_k \uparrow x$ and showing that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F_\mu(x_k) = F_\mu(x).$$

If $x > 0$, it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu[0, x_k] = \mu[0, x].$$

If $x < 0$ it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} -\mu[x_k, 0] = -\mu[x, 0].$$

If $x = 0$ it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} -\mu[x_k, 0] = 0.$$

Remember that:

1. For any increasing sequence $(A_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ with $A_j \uparrow A \in \mathcal{A}$ we have

$$\mu(A) = \mu(\cup A_j) = \lim_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(A_j)$$

2. For any decreasing sequence $(A_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ with $A_j \downarrow A \in \mathcal{A}$ we have

$$\mu(A) = \mu(\cap A_j) = \lim_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(A_j)$$

□

4.16 Problem 7.9ii.

Let $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a Stieltjes function. Show that

$$\nu_F[a, b) = F(b) - F(a) \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b$$

has a unique extension to a measure on \mathcal{B} .

Proof.

By theorem 6.1 it suffices to show that ν_F is a pre-measure. To show this it suffices to show that

1. $\nu_F(\emptyset) = \nu_F[a, a) = 0$
2. $\nu_F([a, b) \cup [b, c)) = \nu_F([a, b)) + \nu_F([b, c))$

•

$$\begin{aligned}
 \nu_F([a, b)) + \nu_F([b, c)) &= F(b) - F(a) + F(c) - F(b) \\
 &= F(c) - F(a) \\
 &= \nu_F[a, c) \\
 &= \nu_F([a, b) \cup [b, c))
 \end{aligned}$$

3. For any decreasing sequence $[a_j, b_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{J}$ with $[a_j, b) \downarrow [a, b) \in \mathcal{J}$ we have

$$\nu_F([a, b)) = \lim_{j \in \infty} \nu_F[a_j, b).$$

This last statement is equivalent with

$$F(b) - F(a) = \lim_{j \in \infty} (F(b) - F(a_j)).$$

Note that since $[a_j, b_j) \downarrow [a, b) \in \mathcal{J}$ we have that $a_j \uparrow a, a_j \leq a$ and therefore

$$\lim_{j \in \infty} (F(b) - F(a_j)) = F(b) - F(a),$$

as F is left-continuous.

4. \mathcal{J} contains an exhausting sequence $[a_j, b_j)$ such that $[a_j, b_j) \uparrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\nu_F[a_j, b_j) < \infty$

□

5 13-10-2014

5.1 Markov Chains 1.2

5.1 Definition.

We say that i leads to j and write $i \rightarrow j$ if

$$\mathbb{P}_i(X_n = j \text{ for some } n \geq 0) > 0.$$

5.2 Definition.

We say i communicates with j and write $i \leftrightarrow j$ if both $i \rightarrow j$ and $j \rightarrow i$.

5.3 Theorem.

For distinct states i and j the following are equivalent:

1. $i \rightarrow j \iff \mathbb{P}_i(X_n = j \text{ for some } n \geq 0) > 0$
2. $p_{i_1 i_2} p_{i_2 i_3} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} i_n} > 0$ for some states i_1, \dots, i_n with $i_1 = i$ and $i_n = j$
3. $p_{ij}^n > 0$ for some $n \geq 0$

Proof.

Remember that

$$p_{ij}^n = \mathbb{P}_i(X_n = j) = \sum_{i_2, \dots, i_{n-1}} p_{ii_2} p_{i_2 i_3} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} j}.$$

From this everything follows. □

5.4 Proposition.

Show that $i \rightarrow i$.

Proof.

$$i \rightarrow i \iff \mathbb{P}_i(X_n = i \text{ for some } n \geq 0) > 0$$

This follows, as $\mathbb{P}_i(X_0 = i) = 1$. □

5.5 Definition.

The equivalence classes of the equivalence relations \leftrightarrow are called *communicating classes*. We say that a class C is closed if

$$i \in C, i \rightarrow j \implies j \in C$$

5.6 Definition.

A state i is *absorbing* if $\{i\}$ is a closed class.

5.7 Definition.

A chain or transition matrix P where I is a single class is called *irreducible*.

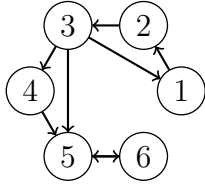
5.8 Example 1.2.2.

Find the communicating classes associated to the stochastic matrix

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof.

The solution is obvious from the diagram. The classes being $\{1, 2, 3\}$, $\{4\}$ and $\{5, 6\}$. With only $\{5, 6\}$ closed.



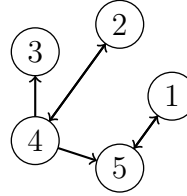
□

5.9 Exercise 1.2.1.

Identify the communicating classes of the following transition matrix:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

The solution is obvious from the diagram. The classes being $\{1, 5\}$, $\{2, 4\}$



and $\{3\}$. With $\{1, 5\}$ closed and $\{3\}$ absorbing.

5.2 Markov Chains 1.3

5.10 Definition.

Let X_n be a Markov chain with transition matrix P . The *hitting time* of a subset A of I is the random variable

$$H^A : \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty\}$$

given by

$$H^A(\omega) = \inf\{n \geq 0 : X_n(\omega) \in A\}$$

where we agree that the infimum of the empty set \emptyset is ∞ . The probability starting from i that $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ ever hits A is then

$$h_i^A = \mathbb{P}_i(H^A < \infty).$$

When A is a closed class, h_i^A is called the *absorption probability*. The mean time taken for X_n to reach A is given by

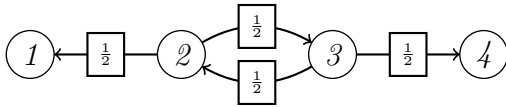
$$k_i^A = E_i(H^A) = \sum_{n < \infty} n \mathbb{P}(H^A = n) + \infty \mathbb{P}(H^A = \infty).$$

We shall often write less formally

$$h_i^A = \mathbb{P}_i(\text{hit } A) \quad k_i^A = E_i(\text{time to hit } A).$$

5.11 Example 1.3.1.

Consider the chain with following diagram:



1. Starting from 2, what is the probability of absorption in 4?
2. How long does it take until the chain is absorbed in 1 or 4 ?

Proof.

1. Note that $A = \{4\}$ is a closed class. The absorption probability is defined as

$$h_i := h_i^{\{4\}} = \mathbb{P}_i(\text{hit } 4).$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} h_1 &= 0 \\ h_4 &= 1 \\ h_2 &= \frac{1}{2}h_1 + \frac{1}{2}h_3 = \frac{1}{2}h_3 \\ h_3 &= \frac{1}{2}h_2 + \frac{1}{2}h_4 = \frac{1}{2}h_2 + \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} h_2 &= \frac{1}{4}h_2 + \frac{1}{4} \\ \implies \frac{3}{4}h_2 &= \frac{1}{4} \\ \implies h_2 &= \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

2. We need to compute

$$k_2 = k_2^{\{1,4\}} = E_2(\text{time to hit } \{1,4\}).$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} k_1 &= 0 \\ k_4 &= 0 \\ k_2 &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}k_3 \\ k_3 &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}k_2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} k_2 &= \frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{4}k_2 \\ \implies \frac{3}{4}k_2 &= \frac{3}{2} \\ \implies k_2 &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

□

5.12 Theorem 1.3.2.

The vector of hitting probabilities $h^A = (h_i^A : i \in I)$ is the minimal non-negative solution to the system

$$\begin{cases} h_i^A = 1 & \text{for } i \in A \\ h_i^A = \sum_{j \in I} p_{ij} h_j^A & \text{for } i \notin A. \end{cases}$$

Minimality means that if $x = (x_i : i \in I)$ is another solution with $x_i \geq 0$ for all i , then $x_i \geq h_i$ for all i .

5.13 Example 1.3.1(continued).

Use theorem 1.3.2 to compute h_2 again.

Proof.

The vector of hitting probabilities $h^{\{4\}} = (h_1^{\{4\}}, h_2^{\{4\}}, h_3^{\{4\}}, h_4^{\{4\}})$ is the minimal non-negative solution to the system

$$\begin{aligned}h_1^{\{4\}} &= \sum_{j \in I} p_{ij} h_j^{\{4\}} = h_1^{\{4\}} \\h_2^{\{4\}} &= \sum_{j \in I} p_{ij} h_j^{\{4\}} = \frac{1}{2} h_1^{\{4\}} + \frac{1}{2} h_3^{\{4\}} \\h_3^{\{4\}} &= \sum_{j \in I} p_{ij} h_j^{\{4\}} = \frac{1}{2} h_2^{\{4\}} + \frac{1}{2} h_4^{\{4\}} \\h_4^{\{4\}} &= 1\end{aligned}$$

The minimality condition gives, that $h_1^{\{4\}} = 0$. So that

$$\begin{aligned}h_2^{\{4\}} &= \frac{1}{2} h_3^{\{4\}} \\h_3^{\{4\}} &= \frac{1}{2} h_2^{\{4\}} + \frac{1}{2}\end{aligned}$$

which gives:

$$\begin{aligned}h_2^{\{4\}} &= \frac{1}{4} h_2^{\{4\}} + \frac{1}{4} \implies h_2^{\{4\}} = \frac{1}{3} \\h_3^{\{4\}} &= \frac{1}{4} h_3^{\{4\}} + \frac{1}{2} \implies h_3^{\{4\}} = \frac{2}{3}\end{aligned}$$

□

5.14 Theorem.

Consider a recurrence relation of the form

$$ax_{n+1} + bx_n + cx_{n-1} = 0 \quad a, c \neq 0.$$

Let α, β be the roots of the quadratic equation

$$ax^2 + bx + c.$$

Then the general solution is given by

$$x_n = \begin{cases} A\alpha^n + B\beta^n & \text{if } \alpha \neq \beta \\ (A + nB)\alpha^n & \text{if } \alpha = \beta \end{cases}$$

5.15 Proposition.

Give a general solution for the recurrence relation

$$\begin{aligned} h_0 &= 1 \\ h_i &= ph_{i+1} + qh_{i-1} \end{aligned}$$

Proof.

Note that we have $-ph_{i+1} + h_i - qh_{i-1} = 0$. Consider

$$-px^2 + x - 1 + p = 0$$

We have the roots $\alpha = 1, \beta = \frac{q}{p}$. If $q \neq p$, this gives

$$h_i = A\alpha^i + B\beta^i = A + B\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^i.$$

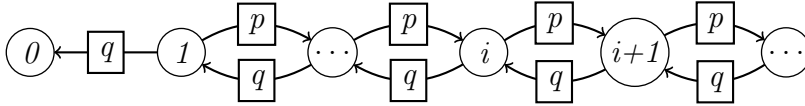
And if $p = q$, then $\alpha = \beta = 1$, and we have

$$h_i = A\alpha^i + B\beta^i = A + iB$$

□

5.16 Example 1.3.3.

Consider the Markov chain with diagram



where $0 < p = 1 - q < 1$. What is $h_i = \mathbb{P}_i(\text{hit } 0)$?

Proof.

We know that h is the minimal non-negative solution to

$$\begin{aligned} h_0 &= 1 \\ h_i &= ph_{i+1} + qh_{i-1} \end{aligned}$$

We consider some cases:

- Suppose $p = q$, then we have

$$h_i = A\alpha^i + B\beta^i = A + iB$$

and as $0 \leq h_i \leq 1$ is a probability, we must have $B = 0$. We then have

$$h_i = A,$$

and as $h_0 = 1$, we must have $h_i = 1$.

- Suppose $p \neq q$, we then have

$$h_i = A\alpha^i + B\beta^i = A + B\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^i.$$

If $\frac{q}{p} > 1$, then we must set $B = 0$ again.

- Suppose $\frac{q}{p} < 1$. We have that $h_0 = 1$, and therefore $A + B = 1$. Hence:

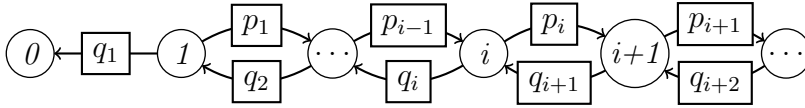
$$h_i = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^i + A\left(1 - \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^i\right)$$

So the minimal non-negative solutions is $h_i = (q/p)^i$.

□

5.17 Example 1.3.4.

Consider the Markov chain with diagram



where for $i = 1, 2, \dots$, we have $0 < p_i = 1 - q_i < 1$. As in the preceding example, 0 is the absorbing state, and we wish to calculate the absorption probability starting from i .

Proof.

Consider the system of equations

$$\begin{aligned} h_0 &= 1 \\ h_i &= p_i h_{i+1} + q_i h_{i-1} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

Consider

$$u_i := h_{i-1} - h_i,$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} p_i u_{i+1} &= p_i h_i - p_i h_{i+1} \\ q_i u_i &= q_i h_{i-1} - q_i h_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\implies q_i u_i - p_i u_{i+1} = h_i - q_i h_i - p_i h_i = 0$$

Therefore $p_i u_{i+1} = q_i u_i$ and we have

$$u_{i+1} = \left(\frac{q_i}{p_i}\right) u_i = \prod_{j=1}^i \frac{q_j}{p_j} u_1 = \gamma_1 u_1$$

We also have

$$u_1 + \dots + u_i = h_0 - h_i$$

so

$$h_i = h_0 - (u_1 + \dots + u_i) = 1 - u_1(\gamma_0 + \dots + \gamma_{n-1}).$$

At this point A remains to be determined. In the case that $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \gamma_i = \infty$, we must have $A = 0$. In the other case, we can't take $A < 0$, but we can take $A > 0$ so long as

$$h_i = 1 - A \sum_{i=0}^{i-1} \gamma_i \geq 0.$$

Which means that

$$A \leq \left(\sum_{i=0}^{i-1} \gamma_i\right)^{-1}$$

but still as big as possible. So we get

$$A = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \gamma_i\right)^{-1}.$$

And therefore

$$h_i = \frac{\sum_{j=i}^{\infty} \gamma_j}{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \gamma_j}$$

□

5.18 Theorem 1.3.5.

The vector of mean hitting times $k^A = (k^A : i \in I)$ is the minimal non-negative solution to the system of linear equations

$$\begin{cases} k_i^A = 0 & \text{for } i \in A \\ k_i^A = 1 + \sum_{j \notin A} p_{ij} k_j^A & \text{for } i \notin A \end{cases}$$

6 14-10-2014

6.1 Markov Chains 1.4

6.1 Definition.

A random variable $T : \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty\}$ is called a *stopping time* if the event $\{T = n\}$ depends only on X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Intuitively, by watching the process, you know at the time when T occurs. If asked to stop at T , you know when to stop.

6.2 Proposition.

The first passage time

$$T_j = \inf\{n \geq 1 : X_n = j\}$$

is a stopping time.

Proof.

To show that T_j is a stopping time, we have to show that

$$\{T_j = n\}$$

depends only on X_0, \dots, X_n .

This follows from

$$\{T_j = n\} = \{X_1 \neq j, \dots, X_{n-1} \neq j, X_n = j\}$$

□

6.3 Proposition.

The first hitting time

$$H^A = \inf\{n \geq 0 : X_n \in A\}$$

is a stopping time.

Proof.

To show that H^A is a stopping time, we have to show that

$$\{H^A = n\}$$

depends only on X_0, \dots, X_n . This follows from

$$\{H^A = n\} = \{X_0 \notin A, \dots, X_{n-1} \notin A, X_n \in A\}$$

□

6.4 Proposition.

The last exit time

$$L^A = \sup\{n \geq 0 : X_n \in A\}$$

is not in general a stopping time.

Proof.

The event $\{L^A = n\}$ depends on whether $(X_{n+m})_{m \geq 0}$ visits A or not. So we don't have a stopping time. □

6.5 Theorem 1.4.2 (Strong Markov property).

Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be Markov(λ, P) and let T be a stopping time of $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$. Then, conditional on $T < \infty$ and $X_T = i$, $(X_{T+n})_{n \geq 0}$ is Markov(δ_i, P) and independent of X_0, \dots, X_T .

We now consider an application of the strong Markov property to a Markov chain $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ observed only at certain times. In the first instance suppose that J is some subset of the state space I and that we observe the chain only when it takes values in J .

6.6 Proposition.

Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a Markov chain. Consider

$$T_0 = \inf\{n \geq 0 : X_n \in J\}$$

and, for $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$T_{m+1} = \inf\{n > T_m : X_n \in J\}.$$

Assume $P(T_m < \infty) = 1$ for all m . Show that $Y_m = X_{T_m}$ is a Markov chain and compute its transition matrix in terms of the transition matrix P of X_n .

Proof.

Showing that (Y_m) is a markov chain is equivalent with showing that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(Y_{m+1} = i_{m+1} | Y_0 = i_1, \dots, Y_m = i_m) \\ = \mathbb{P}(Y_{m+1} = i_{m+1} | Y_m = i_m)\end{aligned}$$

which in turn is equivalent with showing that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(X_{T_{m+1}} = i_{m+1} | X_{T_0} = i_1, \dots, X_{T_m} = i_m) \\ = \mathbb{P}(X_{T_{m+1}} = i_{m+1} | X_{T_m} = i_m).\end{aligned}$$

The Markov property gives that $(X_{T_m+n})_{n \geq 0}$ is a markov chain and independent of X_0, \dots, X_{T_m} , and so surely independent of $X_{T_0} = i_1, \dots, X_{T_{m-1}}$. Now $X_{T_{m+1}} = X_{T_m+n}$ for some n . So the equality follows.

Now the question is, starting from $i \in J$ what is the chance that we hit $j \in J$ the first time we hit J ? Call this chance h_i^j . Well this chance is surely greater than p_{ij} as there is also a chance that we first get outside of J and then next time hit J , and so on. With a similar reasoning as in Theorem 1.3.2 we can show that for $j \in J$ the vector $(h_i^j : i \in I)$ is the minimal non-negative solution to

$$h_i^j = p_{ij} + \sum_{k \notin J} p_{ik} h_k^j.$$

□

6.7 Proposition.

Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a markov chain. Consider

$$T_0 = \inf\{n \geq 0 : X_n \neq X_0\}$$

and, for $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$T_{m+1} = \inf\{n \geq T_m : X_n \neq X_{T_m}\}.$$

Assume $\mathbb{P}(T_m < \infty) = 1$ for all m . Show that $Y_m = X_{T_m}$ is a markov chain and compute its transition matrix in terms of the transition matrix P of X_n .

Proof.

Showing that (Y_m) is a markov chain is equivalent with showing that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(Y_{m+1} = i_{m+1} | Y_0 = i_1, \dots, Y_m = i_m) \\ = \mathbb{P}(Y_{m+1} = i_{m+1} | Y_m = i_m)\end{aligned}$$

which in turn is equivalent with showing that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(X_{T_{m+1}} = i_{m+1} | X_{T_0} = i_1, \dots, X_{T_m} = i_m) \\ = \mathbb{P}(X_{T_{m+1}} = i_{m+1} | X_{T_m} = i_m).\end{aligned}$$

The Markov property gives that $(X_{T_m+n})_{n \geq 0}$ is a markov chain and independent of X_0, \dots, X_{T_m} , and so surely independent of $X_{T_0} = i_1, \dots, X_{T_{m-1}}$. Now $X_{T_{m+1}} = X_{T_m+n}$ for some n . So the equality follows.

Now, the question is, starting from i what is the chance to go to j now, if we set the chance $p_{ii} = 0$. Call this chance \tilde{p}_{ij} . We have

$$\tilde{p}_{ij} = \frac{p_{ij}}{\sum_{k \neq i} p_{ik}}$$

□

6.2 Markov Chains 1.5

6.8 Definition.

Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a Markov chain with transition matrix P . We say that a state i is *recurrent* if

$$\mathbb{P}_i(X_n = i \text{ for infinitely many } n) = 1.$$

A recurrent state is a state i where you keep coming back.

6.9 Definition.

We say that a state i is *transient* if

$$\mathbb{P}_i(X_n = i \text{ for infinitely many } n) = 0.$$

A transient state is a state i which you eventually leave for ever.

6.10 Theorem.

A state i is either recurrent or transient.

6.11 Definition.

Recall that the first passage time to a state i is the random variable T_i defined by

$$T_i(\omega) = \inf\{n \geq 1 : X_n(\omega) = i\}$$

where $\inf \emptyset = \infty$. We now define inductively the r th passage time $T_i^{(r)}$ to state i by

$$T_i^{(0)}(\omega) = 0 \quad T_i^{(1)}(\omega) = T_i(\omega)$$

and for $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$,

$$T_i^{(r+1)}(\omega) = \inf\{n \geq T_i^{(r)}(\omega) + 1 : X_n(\omega) = i\}.$$

The length of the r th excursion to i is then

$$S_i^{(r)} = \begin{cases} T_i^{(r)} - T_i^{(r-1)} & \text{if } T_i^{(r-1)} < \infty \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

6.12 Lemma 1.5.1.

For $r = 2, 3, \dots$, conditional on $T_i^{(r-1)} < \infty$, $S_i^{(r)}$ is independent of $\{X_m : m \leq T_i^{(r-1)}\}$ and

$$\mathbb{P}(S_i^{(r)} = n | T_i^{(r-1)} < \infty) = \mathbb{P}_i(T_i = n)$$

6.13 Definition.

The number of visits to i is denoted by

$$V_i = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1_{\{X_n=i\}}.$$

6.14 Theorem.

$$E_i(V_i) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)}$$

Proof.

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_i(V_i) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E_i(1_{\{X_n=i\}}) \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}_i(X_n = i) \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

6.15 Definition.

The *return probability* of i is denoted by

$$f_i = \mathbb{P}_i(T_i < \infty).$$

6.16 Lemma 1.5.2.

For $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, we have $\mathbb{P}_i(V_i > r) = f_i^r$.

Proof.

Showing that

$$\mathbb{P}_i(V_i > r) = f_i^r$$

is equivalent with showing that

$$\mathbb{P}_i(V_i > r) = \mathbb{P}_i(T_i < \infty)^r$$

which in turn is equivalent with

$$\mathbb{P}_i(T_i^{(r)} < \infty) = \mathbb{P}_i(T_i < \infty)^r.$$

This last statement can be proven by induction.

□

6.17 Theorem 1.5.3.

The following dichotomy holds:

1. if $\mathbb{P}_i(T_i < \infty) = 1$, then i is recurrent and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)} = \infty$
2. if $\mathbb{P}_i(T_i < \infty) < 1$, then i is transient and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)} < \infty$

6.18 Theorem 1.5.4.

Let C be a communicating class. Then either all states in C are transient or all are recurrent.

6.19 Theorem 1.5.5.

*Every recurrent class is closed. And the contrapositive:
Every class that is not closed, is transient.*

6.20 Theorem 1.5.6.

*Every finite closed class is recurrent. And the contrapositive:
Every transient class is either infinite or not closed..*

6.21 Theorem 1.5.7.

Suppose P is irreducible and recurrent. Then for all $j \in I$ we have

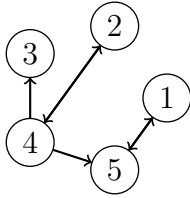
$$\mathbb{P}(T_j < \infty) = 1.$$

6.22 Exercise 1.5.1.

Identify the recurrent and transient states of the Markov chain with the following transition matrix:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

The solution is obvious from the diagram:



The classes being $\{1, 5\}$, $\{2, 4\}$ and $\{3\}$. With $\{1, 5\}$ closed and finite, and therefore recurrent. The class $\{3\}$ is absorbing, so closed and finite, and therefore recurrent. The other class $\{2, 4\}$ is not closed, and therefore, not recurrent. So we have that $\{2, 4\}$ is transient.