

1 Miscellaneous measure-theory related topics

Theorem 1.1 (Kolmogorov 0-1 Law). (X_1, X_2, \dots) with any range space.

Define $\tau_n = \sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$.

Define the tail σ -field

$$\tau = \bigcap_{n \geq 1} \tau_n \quad (1.1)$$

If (X_1, X_2, \dots) independent, then τ is trivial i.e.

$$\forall A \in \tau, P(A) \in \{0, 1\} \quad (1.2)$$

Proof. Define $\mathcal{F}_{n-1} = \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$.

$$\mathcal{F}_{n-1} \text{ is independent of } \tau_n \quad (1.3)$$

$$\implies \mathcal{F}_{n-1} \text{ independent of } \tau \quad (1.4)$$

$$\implies \text{field } \cup_n \mathcal{F}_n \text{ independent of } \tau \quad (1.5)$$

$$\text{TODO: Dynkin? } \pi - \lambda \text{ Lemma } \implies \sigma(\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n) = \sigma(X_1, X_2, \dots) \text{ independent of } \tau \quad (1.6)$$

$$\implies \tau \text{ is independent of } \tau \quad (1.7)$$

$$A \in \tau \implies P(A \cap A) = P(A)P(A) = P(A) \quad (1.8)$$

$$x^2 = x \implies x = 0 \text{ or } 1 \quad (1.9)$$

□

Lemma 1.2. If \mathcal{A} is a trivial σ -field, X an \mathcal{A} -measurable RV with values in $[-\infty, \infty]$, then $\exists x_0$ such that $P(X = x_0) = 1$.

Proof. Define $x_0 = \inf\{x : P(X \leq x)\}$. **TODO: Finish**

□

1.1 Modes of convergence for \mathbb{R} -valued RVs

Almost-sure convergence $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$ means $P(\omega : X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega)) = 1$

Converges in L^p space $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$ means $\mathbb{E}|X_n - X|^p \rightarrow 0$ and $\sup_n \mathbb{E}|X_n|^p < \infty$ ($1 \leq p < \infty$)

Converges in probability $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ means $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty, \forall \epsilon > 0$

(a) $\xrightarrow{L^p}$ implies \xrightarrow{P} , not conversely

Example 1.3. U uniform on $[0, 1]$. $X_n = n1_{U \leq \frac{1}{n}}$. $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$, $\mathbb{E}X_n = 1$, but $X_n \not\xrightarrow{P} 0$

(b) $\xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}}$ implies \xrightarrow{P} , not conversely

Proof. $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$ means

$$0 = P(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon \text{ i.o.}) \geq \limsup_n P(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) = 0 \quad (1.10)$$

$$\implies X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \quad (1.11)$$

□

Example 1.4. Take independent events (A_n) with $P(A_n) \rightarrow 0 \implies 1_{A_n} \xrightarrow{P} 0$.

$$\sum_n P(A_n) = \infty \xRightarrow{\text{(BC 2)}} P(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 1 \quad (1.12)$$

$$\implies 1_{A_n} \not\xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0 \quad (1.13)$$

Recall the dominated convergence theorem, restated here

Theorem 1.5. If $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$, if $\exists Y \geq 0$ with $\mathbb{E}Y < \infty$ and $|X_n| \leq Y$ for all n , then $\mathbb{E}|X_n - X| \rightarrow 0$ and $\mathbb{E}X_n \rightarrow \mathbb{E}X$.

Lemma 1.6. If $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ then \exists subsequence $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$ such that $X_{n_j} \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Choose n_j inductively: $n_j = \min \{n > n_{j-1} : P(|X_n - X| \geq 2^{-j}) \leq 2^{-j}\}$.

$$\sum_j P(|X_{n_j} - X| \geq 2^{-j}) \leq \frac{1}{2} < \infty \quad (1.14)$$

$$\xRightarrow{\text{(BC 1)}} |X_{n_j} - X| \leq 2^{-j} \text{ ult. in } j \text{ a.s.} \quad (1.15)$$

$$\iff X_{n_j} \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X \quad (1.16)$$

□

Remark 1.7. Related to fact “a.s. convergence” not convergence in a metric.

Corollary 1.8. The dominated convergence theorem (DCT) remains true under assumption $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$.

Proof. Suppose false: $\exists \epsilon > 0$ and a subsequence $m_1 < m_2 < \dots$ such that $\mathbb{E}|X_{m_j} - X| \geq \epsilon$ for all j .

Now $X_{m_j} \xrightarrow{P} X$ so lemma implies \exists subsequence n_j of m_j such that $X_{n_j} \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$ and $\mathbb{E}|X_{n_j} - X| \geq \epsilon$ for all j , contradicting DCT. □

1.2 2 views of integration calculus

(1) Given f, a, b , $\int_a^b f(x)dx = \text{a number}$

(2) $F(x) = \int_0^x f(y)dy \iff f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$

An operator $f \mapsto F$, opposite of $F \mapsto F'$.

The analogue of $\frac{dF(x)}{dx}$ involves measures, not functions.

Consider a measurable space (S, \mathcal{S}) . Fix a σ -finite μ . Consider measurable $h : S \rightarrow [0, \infty)$. For $A \in \mathcal{S}$, define $\nu(A) = \int_A h d\mu \leq \infty$.

Proposition 1.9. ν is a σ -finite measure on (S, \mathcal{S}) .

Proof. μ σ -finite $\implies \exists A_n \uparrow S, \mu(A_n) < \infty$.

Define $B_n = A_n \cap \{s : h(s) \leq n\}$. Then $B_n \uparrow S$ and $\nu(B_n) \leq n, \mu(A_n) \leq \infty$. \square

The two measures ν and μ have a relationship:

Definition 1.10. ν is *absolutely continuous* wrt μ , written $\nu \ll \mu$, if

$$\forall A \in \mathcal{S} : \mu(A) = 0 \implies \nu(A) = 0 \quad (1.17)$$

Theorem 1.11 (Radon-Nikodym). If μ and ν are σ -finite measures on (S, \mathcal{S}) , if $\nu \ll \mu$, then \exists measurable $h : S \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ such that

$$\forall A \in \mathcal{S} : \nu(A) = \int_A h d\mu \quad (1.18)$$

Proof. Two ways: (1) See MT Text, (2) Via martingales, later \square

Definition 1.12. We write h from theorem 1.11 as $h = \frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$ and call it the *Radon-Nikodym density* of ν with respect to μ

In particular, if μ is a probability measure on \mathbb{R}^1 , $\mu \ll \text{Leb}$, then $h = \frac{d\mu}{d\text{Leb}}$ exists: the *density function*.

1.3 Probability measures on \mathbb{R}

Know 1-1 correspondence between probability measures μ and distribution functions F

$$F(x) = \mu(-\infty, x] \quad (1.19)$$

There are three basic types of PMs μ

(1) $\mu \ll \text{Leb}$, so can be described by density f

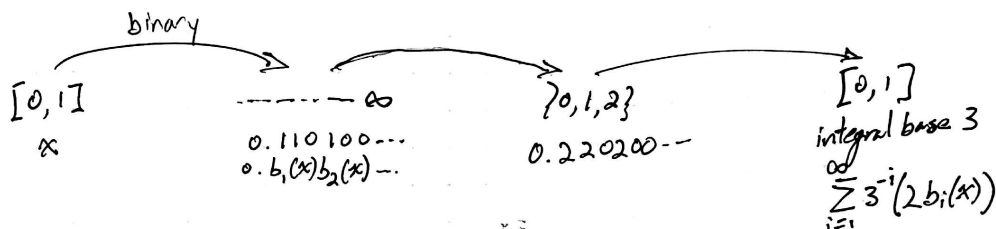
$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y)dy \quad (1.20)$$

Here, f can be any measurable function with $f \geq 0$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

(2) μ is purely atomic (discrete):

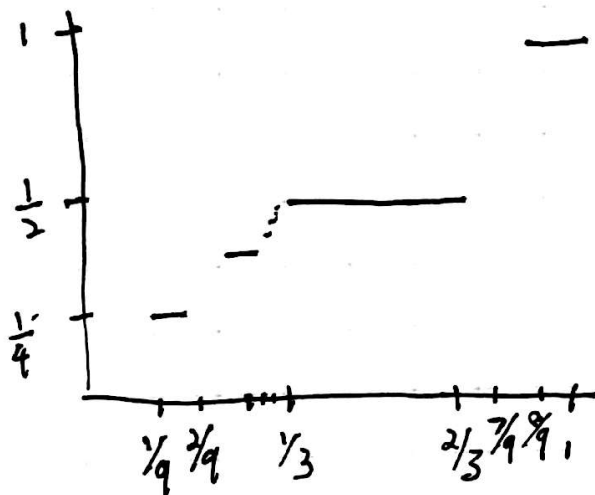
\exists countable set of atoms x_1, x_2, \dots and $\sum_i \mu(\{x_i\}) = 1, \implies \mu(\mathbb{R} \setminus \cup_i \{x_i\}) = 0$

Example 1.13 (Uniform distribution on Cantor set). $x \in [0, 1]$, write out binary expansion $x = 0.10110100\dots = 0.b_1(x)b_2(x)b_3(x)\dots$



Put together gives measurable map $H : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$. Take U uniform $[0, 1]$. What is the distribution of $H(U)$?

$$F(x) = P(H(U) \leq x) \quad (1.21)$$



The set of possible values of H = "base-3 expansion has no 1" = Cantor set = \mathcal{C} and $\text{Leb}(\mathcal{C}) = 0$ while $P(H(U) \in \mathcal{C}) = 1$.

(3) μ is a singular measure:

$\exists A$ such that $\text{Leb}(A) = 0, \mu(A) = 1$ but no atoms.

Proposition 1.14. Any PM μ on \mathbb{R}^1 has a unique decomposition

$$\mu = a_1\mu_1 + a_2\mu_2 + a_3\mu_3 \quad (1.22)$$

where μ_1 admits a density, μ_2 is purely atomic, and μ_3 is singular, $a_i \geq 0, \sum_1^3 a_i = 1$.