Notes on Measure-Theoretic Probability

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1 Measure spaces

A set S contains s if $s \in S$. A set S includes F if $F \subseteq S$.

An algebra Σ_0 on a set S is a set of subsets of S such that

- $S \in \Sigma_0$,
- If $F \in \Sigma_0$, then $F^c \in \Sigma_0$, where $F^c = S \setminus F$,
- If $F, G \in \Sigma_0$, then $F \cup G \in \Sigma_0$.

Consequently, if Σ_0 is an algebra on S,

- $\emptyset \in \Sigma_0$,
- If $F, G \in \Sigma_0$, then $F \cap G \in \Sigma_0$.

A trivial algebra on S is given by $\{\emptyset, S\}$.

A σ-algebra Σ on S is an algebra on S such that

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n \in \Sigma$$

for any sequence $(F_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, which also implies

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n \in \Sigma.$$

A measurable space (S, Σ) is a pair composed of a set S and a σ-algebra Σ on S. An element of Σ is called a Σ-measurable subset of S.

Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a set of subsets of S. The σ-algebra $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ generated by $\mathcal{C}$ is the smallest σ-algebra Σ on S such that $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \Sigma$. The σ-algebra $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ is the intersection of all the σ-algebras on S that include $\mathcal{C}$. Note that the set $\mathcal{P}(S)$ of all subsets of S is a σ-algebra on S that includes any set of subsets $\mathcal{C}$.

The Borel $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ σ-algebra is the σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$ generated by the set of open sets of real numbers.

Let $\pi(\mathbb{R}) = \{(-\infty, x] \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ be the set that contains every interval that contains every real number smaller or equal to every real number $x \in \mathbb{R}$. We will now show that the σ-algebra generated by $\pi(\mathbb{R})$ is $\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R})) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

First, recall that $(-\infty, x] = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}^+}(-\infty, x + n^{-1})$. Because $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ is a σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$ that contains every $(-\infty, x + n^{-1})$, we have $(-\infty, x] \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Because $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ is a σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$ that includes $\pi(\mathbb{R})$ and $\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$ is the smallest σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$ that includes $\pi(\mathbb{R})$, we have $\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R})) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

Second, recall that every open set of real numbers is a countable union of open intervals. Because $\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$ is a σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$, if it contains every open interval, then it contains every open set of real numbers. This would also imply that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq \sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$, since $\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$ is a σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ is the the smallest σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$ that contains every open set of real numbers. In order to show that $\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$ contains every open interval, first note that $(a, u] = (-\infty, u] \cap (-\infty, a]^c \in \sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$ for any $u > a$ and then note that $(a, b) = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}^+}(a, b - \epsilon n^{-1}]$ for $\epsilon = (b - a)/2$.

Consider an algebra Σ_0 on a set S. A function $\mu_0 : \Sigma_0 \to [0, \infty]$ is called additive if $\mu_0(\emptyset) = 0$ and, for any $F, G \in \Sigma_0$ such that $F \cap G = \emptyset$,

$$\mu_0(F \cup G) = \mu_0(F) + \mu_0(G).$$

A function $\mu_0 : \Sigma_0 \to [0, \infty]$ is called countably additive if $\mu_0(\emptyset) = 0$ and, for any sequence $(F_n \in \Sigma_0 \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $F_n \cap F_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$,

$$\mu_0\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n\right) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mu_0(F_n)$$

whenever $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n \in \Sigma_0$. This last requirement is always met when Σ_0 is a σ-algebra.

Let (S, Σ) be a measurable space. A countably additive function $\mu : \Sigma \to [0, \infty]$ is called a measure on (S, Σ). The triple (S, Σ, μ) is called a measure space, which has the following properties:

- If $\mu(S) < \infty$ and $A, B \in \Sigma$, then $\mu(A \cup B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B) - \mu(A \cap B)$,
- If $A, B \in \Sigma$, then $\mu(A \cup B) \leq \mu(A) + \mu(B)$,
- $\mu\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n\right) \leq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(F_n)$ for any sequence $(F_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$.

A measure μ on the measurable space (S, Σ) is called finite if $\mu(S) < \infty$. A measure μ on the measurable space (S, Σ) is called σ-finite if there is a sequence $(S_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\mu(S_n) < \infty$ and $\cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} S_n = S$.

A measure μ on the measurable space (S, Σ) is called a probability measure if $\mu(S) = 1$. The triple (S, Σ, μ) is then called a probability triple. A set $F \in \Sigma$ is called μ-null if $\mu(F) = 0$. If a statement is false only for elements of a μ-null set $F \in \Sigma$, then the statement is said to be true almost everywhere.

A π-system $\mathcal{I}$ on S is a set of subsets of S such that if $I_1, I_2 \in \mathcal{I}$, then $I_1 \cap I_2 \in \mathcal{I}$. Let $\Sigma = \sigma(\mathcal{I})$ be the σ-algebra generated by a π-system $\mathcal{I}$. If μ_1 and μ_2 are measures on the measurable space (S, Σ) such that $\mu_1(S) = \mu_2(S) < \infty$ and $\mu_1(I) = \mu_2(I)$ for any $I \in \mathcal{I}$, then $\mu_1(F) = \mu_2(F)$ for any $F \in \Sigma$. Therefore, if two probability measures agree on a π-system, then they agree on the σ-algebra generated by that π-system.

Carathéodory's extension theorem states that if Σ_0 is an algebra on S and $\Sigma = \sigma(\Sigma_0)$ is the σ-algebra generated by Σ_0 and $\mu_0 : \Sigma_0 \to [0, \infty]$ is a countably additive function, then there exists a measure μ on the measurable space (S, Σ) such that $\mu(F) = \mu_0(F)$ for any $F \in \Sigma_0$. If $\mu_0(S) < \infty$, then μ is unique, since an algebra is a π-system.

Let Σ_0 be the algebra on the set $S = (0, 1]$ that contains every F such that

$$F = \bigcup_{k=1}^{r} (a_k, b_k],$$

where $r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $0 \leq a_1 \leq b_1 \leq \ldots \leq a_r \leq b_r \leq 1$.

Let $\mu_0 : \Sigma_0 \to [0, 1]$ denote the countably additive function given by

$$\mu_0(F) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} (b_k - a_k).$$

Let $\mathcal{B}((0, 1]) = \sigma(\Sigma_0)$ be the σ-algebra generated by Σ_0. The unique measure $\mu : \mathcal{B}((0, 1]) \to [0, 1]$ on the measurable space $((0, 1], \mathcal{B}((0, 1]))$ that agrees with μ_0 on the algebra Σ_0 is called the Lebesgue measure Leb on $((0, 1], \mathcal{B}((0, 1]))$. The σ-finite Lebesgue measure Leb on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ is similarly defined. Intuitively, a Lebesgue measure Leb assigns *lenghts*.

Let $a_n \uparrow a$ denote that a sequence of real numbers $(a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is such that $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$ and $a = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$. Similarly, let $a_n \downarrow a$ denote that a sequence of real numbers $(a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is such that $a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ and $a = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$.

Let $A_n \uparrow A$ denote that a sequence of sets $(A_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is such that $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ and $A = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$. Similarly, let $A_n \downarrow A$ denote that a sequence of sets $(A_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is such that $A_{n+1} \subseteq A_n$ and $A = \cap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$.

Consider the measure space (S, Σ, μ). For a sequence $(F_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, the monotone-convergence property of measure guarantees that if $F_n \uparrow F$, then $\mu(F_n) \uparrow \mu(F)$. Similarly, for a sequence $(G_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, if $G_n \downarrow G$ and $\mu(G_k) < \infty$ for some k, then $\mu(G_n) \downarrow \mu(G)$.

2 Events

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. An element $\omega \in \Omega$ is called an outcome. The set Ω is called an outcome space. A set of outcomes $F \in \mathcal{F}$ is called an event. The probability measure $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \to [0, 1]$ is defined on a σ-algebra $\mathcal{F}$ on the outcome space Ω.

A probability $\mathbb{P}(F)$ assigns a degree of belief to the statement that the outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ of an experiment belongs to the event $F \in \mathcal{F}$. For instance, a probability $\mathbb{P}(F) = 1$ indicates that $\omega \in F$ almost surely, while a probability $\mathbb{P}(F) = 0$ indicates that $\omega \notin F$ almost surely. In general, a statement about an outcome is said to be true almost surely if $\mathbb{P}(F) = 1$, where $F \in \mathcal{F}$ is the event that contains every outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ for which the statement is true.

As an example, consider an experiment where a coin is tossed twice. Let $H = 0$ represent heads and $T = 1$ represent tails. The outcome space Ω may be defined as $\Omega = \{(H, H), (H, T), (T, H), (T, T)\}$. The σ-algebra $\mathcal{F}$ on the outcome space Ω may be defined as the set of all subsets of Ω, which is denoted by $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$. The event F where at least one head is observed is then given by $F = \{(H, H), (H, T), (T, H)\}$.

More interestingly, consider an experiment where a coin is tossed infinitely often. The outcome space Ω may be defined as the set of infinite binary sequences $\Omega = \{H, T\}^{\mathbb{N}}$. In order to at least assign probabilities to every event $F = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \omega_n = W\}$ where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $W \in \{H, T\}$, the σ-algebra $\mathcal{F}$ on the outcome space Ω may be generated as $\mathcal{F} = \sigma(\{\{\omega \in \Omega \mid \omega_n = W\} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, W \in \{H, T\}\})$.

Consider a sequence of events $(F_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. If $\mathbb{P}(F_n) = 1$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\mathbb{P}(\cap_{n\in\mathbb{N}} F_n) = 1$.

The infimum $\inf_n x_n$ of a sequence of real numbers $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is the largest $r \in [-\infty, \infty]$ such that $r \leq x_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The supremum $\sup_n x_n$ of a sequence of real numbers $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is the smallest $r \in [-\infty, \infty]$ such that $r \geq x_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The limit inferior of a sequence of real numbers $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is defined by

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n = \sup_m \inf_{n\geq m} x_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} \inf_{n\geq m} x_n.$$

Note that the sequence $(\inf_{n\geq m} x_n \mid m \in \mathbb{N})$ is non-decreasing. Let $z \in [-\infty, \infty]$. If $z < \liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n$, then $z < x_n$ for all sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $z > \liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n$, then $z > x_n$ for infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The limit superior of a sequence of real numbers $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is defined by

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n = \inf_m \sup_{n\geq m} x_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} \sup_{n\geq m} x_n.$$

Note that the sequence $(\sup_{n\geq m} x_n \mid m \in \mathbb{N})$ is non-increasing. Let $z \in [-\infty, \infty]$. If $z > \limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n$, then $z > x_n$ for all sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $z < \limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n$, then $z < x_n$ for infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

For any sequence $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, the limit inferior and the limit superior are related by the fact that

$$-\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} -\inf_{n\geq m} x_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} \sup_{n\geq m} -x_n = \limsup_{n\to\infty} -x_n.$$

A sequence of real numbers $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is said to converge in $[-\infty, \infty]$ if and only if

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n = \limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n.$$

The limit inferior of a sequence of sets $(E_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is defined by

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n = \bigcup_{m\in\mathbb{N}} \bigcap_{n\geq m} E_n.$$

Let $F_m = \bigcap_{n\geq m} E_n$. Note that $F_m \subseteq F_{m+1}$. Furthermore, $\omega \in \liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n$ if and only if $\omega \in E_n$ for all sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The limit superior of a sequence of sets $(E_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is defined by

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n = \bigcap_{m\in\mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{n\geq m} E_n.$$

Let $F_m = \bigcup_{n\geq m} E_n$. Note that $F_m \supseteq F_{m+1}$. Furthermore, $\omega \in \limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n$ if and only if $\omega \in E_n$ for infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

For any sequence of sets $(E_n \subseteq \Omega \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, the limit inferior and the limit superior are related by the fact that

$$\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n\right)^C = \limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n^C.$$

Consider a measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$. The indicator function $\mathbb{I}_F : \Omega \to \{0, 1\}$ of an event $F \in \mathcal{F}$ is defined by

$$\mathbb{I}_F(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \omega \in F, \\ 0, & \text{if } \omega \notin F. \end{cases}$$

For any outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ and sequence of events $(E_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$,

$$\mathbb{I}_{\liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n}(\omega) = \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{I}_{E_n}(\omega),$$
$$\mathbb{I}_{\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n}(\omega) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{I}_{E_n}(\omega).$$

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence $(E_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. The reverse Fatou Lemma states that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right) \geq \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

We will now show this lemma. Let $F_m = \bigcup_{n \geq m} E_n$ such that $F_m \supseteq F_{m+1}$. By definition, $F_m \downarrow \limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n$, which implies $\mathbb{P}(F_m) \downarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right)$. Because $A \subseteq (B \cup A)$ implies $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B \cup A)$ for any events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(F_m\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n \geq m} E_n\right) \geq \sup_{n \geq m} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

By taking the limit of both sides of the equation above when $m \to \infty$,

$$\lim_{m\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(F_m) = \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right) \geq \lim_{m\to\infty} \sup_{n \geq m} \mathbb{P}(E_n) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence $(E_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. The Fatou Lemma for sets states that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n\right) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

We will now show this lemma. Let $F_m = \bigcap_{n \geq m} E_n$ such that $F_m \subseteq F_{m+1}$. By definition, $F_m \uparrow \liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n$, which implies $\mathbb{P}(F_m) \uparrow \mathbb{P}(\liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n)$. Because $(A \cap B) \subseteq B$ implies $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$ for any events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$\mathbb{P}(F_m) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n \geq m} E_n\right) \leq \inf_{n \geq m} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

By taking the limit of both sides of the equation above when $m \to \infty$,

$$\lim_{m\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(F_m) = \mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n\right) \leq \lim_{m\to\infty} \inf_{n \geq m} \mathbb{P}(E_n) = \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence of events $(E_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(E_n) < \infty$. The first Borel-Cantelli Lemma states that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right) = 0.$$

We will now show this lemma. Let $F_m = \bigcup_{n \geq m} E_n$ such that $F_m \supseteq F_{m+1}$. By definition, $F_m \downarrow \limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n$, which implies $\mathbb{P}(F_m) \downarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right)$. Because $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) \leq \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B)$ for any events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(F_m\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n \geq m} E_n\right) \leq \sum_{n \geq m} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

By taking the limit of both sides of the equation above when $m \to \infty$,

$$\lim_{m\to\infty} \mathbb{P}\left(F_m\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right) \leq \lim_{m\to\infty} \sum_{n \geq m} \mathbb{P}(E_n) = 0,$$

where the last equality comes from the fact that, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for all $m - 1 \geq N$,

$$\epsilon > \left| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(E_n) - \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} \mathbb{P}(E_n) \right| = \sum_{n \geq m} \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

3 Random variables

Consider a measurable space (S, Σ) and a function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$. The function h^{-1} is defined as

$$h^{-1}(A) = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in A\}$$

for any $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The function h is called Σ-measurable if $h^{-1}(A) \in \Sigma$ for every $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. In an extended definition, a function $h : S \to [-\infty, \infty]$ is called Σ-measurable if $h^{-1}(A) \in \Sigma$ for every $A \in \mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$. A $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable function $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be Borel.

The set of Σ-measurable functions on S is denoted by $\mathrm{m}\Sigma$. The set of non-negative Σ-measurable functions on S is denoted by $(\mathrm{m}\Sigma)^+$. The set of bounded Σ-measurable functions on S is denoted by $\mathrm{b}\Sigma$.

Consider a function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$. For any set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$,

$$h^{-1}(A^c) = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in A^c\} = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in A\}^c = (h^{-1}(A))^c.$$

Consider a function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$. For any sequence of sets $(A_n \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$,

$$h^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} A_n\right) = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} A_n\} = \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in A_n\} = \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} h^{-1}(A_n).$$

Similarly,

$$h^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{n\in\mathbb{N}} A_n\right) = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in \bigcap_{n\in\mathbb{N}} A_n\} = \bigcap_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in A_n\} = \bigcap_{n\in\mathbb{N}} h^{-1}\left(A_n\right).$$

Consider a measurable space (S, Σ) and a function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$. The set $\mathcal{E} = \{B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \mid h^{-1}(B) \in \Sigma\}$ is a σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$. First, note that $h^{-1}(\mathbb{R}) = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in \mathbb{R}\} = S$ and $S \in \Sigma$. Therefore, $\mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{E}$. Consider an element $B \in \mathcal{E}$. In that case, $h^{-1}(B) \in \Sigma$, which implies $(h^{-1}(B))^c = h^{-1}(B^c) \in \Sigma$. Therefore, $B^c \in \mathcal{E}$. Finally, consider a sequence $(B_n \in \mathcal{E} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. In that case, $h^{-1}(B_n) \in \Sigma$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, which implies $\cup_n h^{-1}(B_n) \in \Sigma$. Therefore, $h^{-1}(\cup_n B_n) \in \Sigma$ and $\cup_n B_n \in \mathcal{E}$.

Consider a measurable space (S, Σ), a function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$, and a set $\mathcal{C}$ of subsets of $\mathbb{R}$. If $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $h^{-1}(C) \in \Sigma$ for every $C \in \mathcal{C}$, then h is Σ-measurable. First, note that the set $\mathcal{E} = \{B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \mid h^{-1}(B) \in \Sigma\}$ is a σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}$. Because $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$, $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, and $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ is the smallest σ-algebra that includes $\mathcal{C}$, we know that $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, which implies that $h^{-1}(B) \in \Sigma$ for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

If a function $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then it is Borel. First, consider the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ and let $\mathcal{C}$ be the set of open sets of real numbers. Recall that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$. Second, recall that a function h is continuous if $h^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{C}$ is an open set for every open set $A \in \mathcal{C}$. Using the previous result, $h^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

Consider a measurable space (S, Σ) and a function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$. For any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, define

$$\{h \leq c\} = h^{-1}((-\infty, c]) = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \leq c\}.$$

If $\{h \leq c\} \in \Sigma$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then h is Σ-measurable. First, let $\mathcal{C} = \{(-\infty, x] \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ be the set that contains every interval that contains every real number smaller or equal to every real number $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Recall that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$. By assumption, $h^{-1}(C) \in \Sigma$ for every $C \in \mathcal{C}$, and so h^{-1} is Σ-measurable. Note that analogous results apply for $\{h \geq c\}$, $\{h < c\}$, and $\{h > c\}$.

Consider a measurable space (S, Σ). Let $h : S \to \mathbb{R}, h_1 : S \to \mathbb{R}$, and $h_2 : S \to \mathbb{R}$ be Σ-measurable functions and let $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ be a constant. In that case, $h_1 + h_2$ is a Σ-measurable function, $h_1 h_2$ is a Σ-measurable function, and λh is a Σ-measurable function. We will now show the first of these statements. Based on the previous result, if $\{h_1 + h_2 > c\} = \{s \in S \mid h_1(s) + h_2(s) > c\} \in \Sigma$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $h_1 + h_2$ is Σ-measurable. Recall that $h_1(s) + h_2(s) > c$ if and only if there is a rational $q \in \mathcal{Q}$ such that $h_1(s) > q > c - h_2(s)$. Therefore,

$$\{h_1 + h_2 > c\} = \{s \in S \mid h_1(s) > q \text{ and } q > c - h_2(s) \text{ for some } q \in \mathcal{Q}\} = \bigcup_{q\in\mathcal{Q}} \{s \in S \mid h_1(s) > q \text{ and } q > c - h_2(s)\},$$

which is a countable union of elements of Σ given by

$$\{h_1 + h_2 > c\} = \bigcup_{q\in\mathcal{Q}} \{s \in S \mid h_1(s) > q\} \cap \{s \in S \mid q > c - h_2(s)\} = \bigcup_{q\in\mathcal{Q}} \{h_1 > q\} \cap \{h_2 > c - q\}.$$

Consider a measurable space (S, Σ) and a Σ-measurable function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$. Consider also the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ and a $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. For all $s \in S$, let $(f \circ h)(s) = f(h(s))$. For any $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$,

$$(f \circ h)^{-1}(A) = \{s \in S \mid (f \circ h)(s) \in A\} = \{s \in S \mid f(h(s)) \in A\}.$$

Note that $f^{-1}(A) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ for any $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, since $f^{-1}(A) = \{r \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(r) \in A\}$. Therefore,

$$(h^{-1} \circ f^{-1})(A) = h^{-1}(f^{-1}(A)) = \{s \in S \mid h(s) \in f^{-1}(A)\} = \{s \in S \mid f(h(s)) \in A\} = (f \circ h)^{-1}(A),$$

where we used the fact that $f(h(s)) \in A$ if and only if $h(s) \in f^{-1}(A)$, for all $s \in S$ and $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Furthermore, since $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ for any $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $h^{-1}(f^{-1}(A)) \in \Sigma$ for any $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, the function $f \circ h$ is Σ-measurable.

Consider the measurable spaces (S_1, Σ_1) and (S_2, Σ_2). A function $h : S_1 \to S_2$ is called Σ_1/Σ_2-measurable if $h^{-1}(A) \in \Sigma_1$ for every $A \in \Sigma_2$. Therefore, a function on a measurable space (S, Σ) is Σ-measurable if it is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable.

Consider a measurable space (S, Σ) and a sequence of $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable functions $(h_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$.

For any $s \in S$, the function $\inf_n h_n : S \to [-\infty, \infty]$ is given by

$$\left(\inf_n h_n\right)(s) = \inf_n h_n(s).$$

We will now show that $\inf_n h_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. Note that if $\{\inf_n h_n \geq c\} \in \Sigma$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\inf_n h_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. For every $c \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\{\inf_n h_n \geq c\} = \{s \in S \mid \inf_n h_n(s) \geq c\} = \{s \in S \mid h_n(s) \geq c \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}\},$$

where we used the fact that $\inf_n h_n(s) \geq c$ if and only if $h_n(s) \geq c$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, for all $s \in S$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Therefore,

$$\{\inf_n h_n \geq c\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{s \in S \mid h_n(s) \geq c\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{h_n \geq c\},$$

which is a countable intersection of elements of Σ.

For any $s \in S$, the function $\sup_n h_n : S \to [-\infty, \infty]$ is given by

$$\left(\sup_n h_n\right)(s) = \sup_n h_n(s).$$

We will now show that $\sup_n h_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. Note that if $\{\sup_n h_n \leq c\} \in \Sigma$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\sup_n h_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. For every $c \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\{\sup_n h_n \leq c\} = \{s \in S \mid \sup_n h_n(s) \leq c\} = \{s \in S \mid h_n(s) \leq c \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}\},$$

where we used the fact that $\sup_n h_n(s) \leq c$ if and only if $h_n(s) \leq c$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, for all $s \in S$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Therefore,

$$\{\sup_n h_n \leq c\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{s \in S \mid h_n(s) \leq c\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{h_n \leq c\},$$

which is a countable intersection of elements of Σ.

For any $s \in S$, the function $\liminf_{n \to \infty} h_n : S \to [-\infty, \infty]$ is given by

$$\left(\liminf_{n \to \infty} h_n\right)(s) = \liminf_{n \to \infty} h_n(s).$$

We will now show that $\liminf_{n \to \infty} h_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. Each function in the sequence $(L_n = \inf_{r \geq n} h_r \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable, which implies that $\sup_n L_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. Also,

$$\left(\liminf_{n \to \infty} h_n\right)(s) = \liminf_{n \to \infty} h_n(s) = \sup_n \inf_{r \geq n} h_r(s) = \sup_n \left(\inf_{r \geq n} h_r\right)(s) = \sup_n L_n(s) = \left(\sup_n L_n\right)(s).$$

For any $s \in S$, the function $\limsup_{n \to \infty} h_n : S \to [-\infty, \infty]$ is given by

$$\left(\limsup_{n \to \infty} h_n\right)(s) = \limsup_{n \to \infty} h_n(s).$$

We will now show that $\limsup_{n \to \infty} h_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. Each function in the sequence $(L_n = \sup_{r \geq n} h_r \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable, which implies that $\inf_n L_n$ is $\Sigma/\mathcal{B}([-\infty, \infty])$-measurable. Also,

$$\left(\limsup_{n \to \infty} h_n\right)(s) = \limsup_{n \to \infty} h_n(s) = \inf_n \sup_{r \geq n} h_r(s) = \inf_n \left(\sup_{r \geq n} h_r\right)(s) = \inf_n L_n(s) = \left(\inf_n L_n\right)(s).$$

Consider the set $F = \{s \in S \mid \lim_{n\to\infty} h_n(s) \text{ exists in } \mathbb{R}\}$. Recall that $\lim_{n\to\infty} h_n(s)$ exists in $\mathbb{R}$ if and only if

$$-\infty < \liminf_{n\to\infty} h_n(s) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} h_n(s) < \infty.$$

Therefore, $F \in \Sigma$, since F is an intersection of elements of Σ:

$$F = \{s \in S \mid \liminf_{n\to\infty} h_n(s) > -\infty\} \cap \{s \in S \mid \limsup_{n\to\infty} h_n(s) < \infty\} \cap \{s \in S \mid \left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} h_n - \liminf_{n\to\infty} h_n\right)(s) = 0\}.$$

Consider a measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$. An $\mathcal{F}$-measurable function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable. By definition, for any $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$.

The indicator function $\mathbb{I}_F : \Omega \to \{0, 1\}$ of any event $F \in \mathcal{F}$ is a random variable. The function $\mathbb{I}_F$ is defined by

$$\mathbb{I}_F(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \omega \in F, \\ 0, & \text{if } \omega \notin F. \end{cases}$$

Recall that if $\{\omega \in \Omega \mid \mathbb{I}_F(\omega) \leq c\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{I}_F$ is $\mathcal{F}$-measurable. For every $c < 1$, we have $\{\omega \in \Omega \mid \mathbb{I}_F(\omega) \leq c\} = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \omega \notin F\} = F^c$. For every $c \geq 1$, we have $\{\omega \in \Omega \mid \mathbb{I}_F(\omega) \leq c\} = \Omega$.

More interestingly, once again consider an experiment where a coin is tossed infinitely often. Let $H = 0$ represent heads and $T = 1$ represent tails. The outcome space Ω may be defined as the set of infinite binary sequences $\Omega = \{H, T\}^{\mathbb{N}^+}$. Let $F_{n,W} = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \omega_n = W\}$ be the set of infinite binary sequences whose n-th element is W. The σ-algebra $\mathcal{F}$ on the outcome space Ω may be generated as $\mathcal{F} = \sigma(\{F_{n,W} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}^+, W \in \{H, T\}\})$. Note that $\mathbb{I}_{F_{n,W}}$ is a random variable, since $F_{n,W} \in \mathcal{F}$. Therefore, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, the function $A_{n,W}$ given by

$$A_{n,W}(\omega) = \left(n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}_{F_{i,W}}\right)(\omega) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}_{F_{i,W}}(\omega)$$

is also a random variable. For a given sequence $\omega \in \Omega$, $A_{n,W}(\omega)$ is the fraction of the first n tosses resulting in W.

For a given $p \in [0, 1]$, consider the set $\Lambda_W = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \lim_{n\to\infty} A_{n,W}(\omega) = p\}$. Clearly,

$$\Lambda_W = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \liminf_{n\to\infty} A_{n,W}(\omega) = p\} \cap \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \limsup_{n\to\infty} A_{n,W}(\omega) = p\},$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\Lambda_W = \left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} A_{n,W}\right)^{-1} (\{p\}) \cap \left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} A_{n,W}\right)^{-1} (\{p\}).$$

Note that $\Lambda_W \in \mathcal{F}$, since both the limit inferior and the limit superior of the sequence of $\mathcal{F}$-measurable functions $(A_{n,W} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$ are $\mathcal{F}$-measurable functions. Therefore, a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ would define the probability $\mathbb{P}(\Lambda_W)$ that the fraction of tosses with result W tends to a given $p \in [0, 1]$.

Consider a function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. The σ-algebra $\sigma(X)$ on Ω is defined as $\sigma(X) = \sigma(\{X^{-1}(B) \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\})$. Note that if X is a random variable on a measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$, then $\sigma(X) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$.

Consider a set of functions $\{Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}\}$ where $Y_\gamma : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. The σ-algebra $\sigma(\{Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}\})$ is defined by

$$\sigma(\{Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}\}) = \sigma(\{Y_\gamma^{-1}(B) \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\}).$$

Note that if $Y_\gamma : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable on a measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ for every γ, then $\sigma(\{Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}\}) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$.

Consider a measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ and a random variable $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. For a set $\mathcal{E}$ of subsets of $\mathbb{R}$, let $Y^{-1}(\mathcal{E}) = \{Y^{-1}(E) \mid E \in \mathcal{E}\}$. By definition, $\sigma(Y) = \sigma(Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})))$. We will now show that $\sigma(Y) = Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$.

By definition, $Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})) = \{Y^{-1}(B) \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\}$. Because $\mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, $Y^{-1}(\mathbb{R}) \in Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$, where $Y^{-1}(\mathbb{R}) = \Omega$. Consider an element $Y^{-1}(B) \in Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$. Because $B^c \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, $Y^{-1}(B^c) \in Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$, where $Y^{-1}(B^c) = (Y^{-1}(B))^c$. Finally, consider a sequence $(Y^{-1}(B_n) \in Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. Because $\cup_n B_n \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, $Y^{-1}(\cup_n B_n) \in Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$, where $Y^{-1}(\cup_n B_n) = \cup_n Y^{-1}(B_n)$. Therefore, $Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ is a σ-algebra on Ω. Because $\sigma(Y)$ is the smallest σ-algebra on Ω that includes $Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$, we know that $\sigma(Y) = Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$.

Furthermore, consider the π-system $\pi(\mathbb{R}) = \{(-\infty, x] \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and let $\pi(Y) = Y^{-1}(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$. We will now show that $\sigma(Y) = \sigma(\pi(Y))$.

By definition, $\sigma(\pi(Y)) = \sigma(\{Y^{-1}((-\infty, x]) \mid (-\infty, x] \in \pi(\mathbb{R})\})$. Clearly, $\pi(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ implies $\sigma(\pi(Y)) \subseteq \sigma(Y)$, since $\sigma(Y) = \sigma(\{Y^{-1}(B) \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\})$. Because $\{Y \leq x\} \in \sigma(\pi(Y))$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, Y is $\sigma(\pi(Y))$-measurable. Therefore, $\sigma(Y) \subseteq \sigma(\pi(Y))$.

If $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, then $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a $\sigma(Y)$-measurable function if and only if there is a Borel function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $Z = f \circ Y$.

If $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$ are functions from Ω to $\mathbb{R}$, then a function $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is $\sigma(\{Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n\})$-measurable if and only if there is a Borel function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $Z(\omega) = f(Y_1(\omega), Y_2(\omega), \dots, Y_n(\omega))$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. For any $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, $X^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(X)$, $\sigma(X) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, and $\mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B)) \in [0, 1]$. For any $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, this allows defining the law $\mathcal{L}_X : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \to [0, 1]$ of X as

$$\mathcal{L}_X(B) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B)).$$

The law $\mathcal{L}_X$ is a probability measure on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$. First, note that

$$\mathcal{L}_X(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(\mathbb{R})) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}\}) = \mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1,$$
$$\mathcal{L}_X(\emptyset) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(\emptyset)) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in \emptyset\}) = \mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0.$$

Second, consider a sequence of sets $(B_n \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $B_n \cap B_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$ and note that

$$\mathcal{L}_X\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(X^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n\right)\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X^{-1}(B_n)\right) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B_n)) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{L}_X(B_n),$$

where we used the fact that $X^{-1}(B_n) \cap X^{-1}(B_m) = X^{-1}(B_n \cap B_m) = X^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$.

The (cumulative) distribution function $F_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1]$ of the random variable X is defined by

$$F_X(c) = \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, c]) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}((-\infty, c])) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \leq c\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{X \leq c\}).$$

Recall that the σ-algebra generated by $\pi(\mathbb{R}) = \{(-\infty, x] \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is $\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R})) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Consider a probability measure μ on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ such that $\mu((-\infty, c]) = F_X(c) = \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, c])$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Because μ and $\mathcal{L}_X$ agree on the π-system $\pi(\mathbb{R})$, we have $\mu = \mathcal{L}_X$. Therefore, F_X fully determines the law $\mathcal{L}_X$ of X.

Consider a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ carried by a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the distribution function $F_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1]$.

If $a \leq b$, then $F_X(a) \leq F_X(b)$. Clearly, $\{X \leq a\} \subseteq \{X \leq b\}$, which implies $\mathbb{P}(\{X \leq a\}) \leq \mathbb{P}(\{X \leq b\})$.

We will now show that $\lim_{x \to -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$. Recall that $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function such that $\lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = L$ for some $L \in \mathbb{R}$ if and only if $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = L$ for all non-increasing sequences $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = -\infty$.

Consider a non-increasing sequence $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = -\infty$ and the sequence of sets $(A_n = (-\infty, x_n] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. Because $A_n \downarrow \emptyset$, $\mathcal{L}_X(A_n) \downarrow 0$. Therefore, $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x_n]) = 0$, which implies

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} F_X(x) = \lim_{x \to -\infty} \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x]) = 0.$$

We will now show that $\lim_{x \to \infty} F_X(x) = 1$. Recall that $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function such that $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L$ for some $L \in \mathbb{R}$ if and only if $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = L$ for all non-decreasing sequences $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = +\infty$.

Consider a non-decreasing sequence $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = +\infty$ and the sequence of sets $(A_n = (-\infty, x_n] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. Because $A_n \uparrow \mathbb{R}$, $\mathcal{L}_X(A_n) \uparrow 1$. Therefore, $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x_n]) = 1$, which implies

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} F_X(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x]) = 1.$$

We will now show that F_X is right-continuous. Recall that $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is right continuous if and only if $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = f(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and every non-increasing sequence $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x$ and $x_n > x$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Consider $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and a non-increasing sequence $(x_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x$ and $x_n > x$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider also the sequence of sets $(A_n = (-\infty, x_n] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. Because $A_n \downarrow (-\infty, x]$, $\mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x_n]) \downarrow \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x])$. Therefore, $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x_n]) = \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x])$, which implies

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_X(x_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x_n]) = \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x]) = F_X(x).$$

Consider a right-continuous function $F : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1]$ such that if $a \leq b$, then $F(a) \leq F(b)$; $\lim_{x \to -\infty} F(x) = 0$; and $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = 1$. We will show that there is a unique probability measure $\mathcal{L}$ on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ such that $\mathcal{L}((-\infty, x]) = F(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Consider the probability triple $((0,1), \mathcal{B}((0,1)), \text{Leb})$ and a function $X^- : (0,1) \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$X^-(\omega) = \inf\{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid F(z) \geq \omega\}.$$

In words, $X^-(\omega)$ is the infimum $z \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $F(z)$ reaches $\omega \in (0,1)$.

First, note that $\omega \leq F(c)$ if and only if $X^-(\omega) \leq c$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Clearly, if $\omega \leq F(c)$, then $X^-(\omega) \leq c$. Now suppose $X^-(\omega) \leq c$. Because F is non-decreasing, $F(X^-(\omega)) \leq F(c)$. Because F is also right-continuous, $F(X^-(\omega)) \geq \omega$. Therefore, $\omega \leq F(c)$. This also implies that X^- is a random variable since, for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\{X^- \leq c\} = \{\omega \in (0,1) \mid X^-(\omega) \leq c\} = \{\omega \in (0,1) \mid \omega \leq F(c)\} = (0, F(c)].$$

For every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, the distribution function F_{X^-} on the probability triple $((0,1), \mathcal{B}((0,1)), \text{Leb})$ is given by

$$F_{X^-}(c) = \mathcal{L}_{X^-}((-\infty, c]) = \text{Leb}(\{X^- \leq c\}) = \text{Leb}((0, F(c)]) = F(c).$$

Finally, recall that the distribution function F_{X^-} fully determines the law $\mathcal{L}_{X^-}$ of X^-, which is the desired unique probability measure on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ such that $\mathcal{L}_{X^-}((-\infty, x]) = F(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

The monotone-class theorem states that if

- $\mathcal{H}$ is a set of bounded functions from a set S into $\mathbb{R}$,
- $\mathcal{H}$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$,
- The constant function 1 is an element of $\mathcal{H}$,
- If $(f_n \in \mathcal{H} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of non-negative functions in $\mathcal{H}$ such that $f_n \uparrow f$, where f is a bounded function on S, then $f \in \mathcal{H}$,
- $\mathcal{H}$ contains the indicator function of every set in some π-system $\mathcal{I}$,

then $\mathcal{H}$ contains every bounded $\sigma(\mathcal{I})$-measurable function on S.

4 Independence

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

The sub-σ-algebras $\mathcal{G}_1, \mathcal{G}_2, \ldots$ of $\mathcal{F}$ are called independent if, for every choice of distinct indices $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n$ and events $G_{i_1}, G_{i_2}, \ldots, G_{i_n}$ such that $G_{i_k} \in \mathcal{G}_{i_k}$ for every i_k,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{n} G_{i_k}\right) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(G_{i_k}).$$

The random variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots$ are called independent if the σ-algebras $\sigma(X_1), \sigma(X_2), ...$ are independent.

The events $E_1, E_2, \ldots$ are called independent if the σ-algebras $\mathcal{E}_1, \mathcal{E}_2, \ldots$ are independent, where $\mathcal{E}_k = \{\emptyset, E_k, E_k^c, \Omega\}$. We have already shown that each indicator function $\mathbb{I}_{E_k}$ is $\mathcal{E}_k$-measurable. Since $\mathbb{I}_{E_k}^{-1}(\{1\}) = E_k$, we know that $E_k \in \sigma(\mathbb{I}_{E_k})$, which implies $\mathcal{E}_k = \sigma(\mathbb{I}_{E_k})$. Therefore, the events $E_1, E_2, \ldots$ are called independent if and only if the random variables $\mathbb{I}_{E_1}, \mathbb{I}_{E_2}, \ldots$ are independent.

The events $E_1, E_2, \ldots$ are independent if and only if, for every choice of distinct indices $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{n} E_{i_k}\right) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(E_{i_k}).$$

If $X_1, X_2, \ldots$ are independent random variables, then the events $\{X_1 \leq x_1\}, \{X_2 \leq x_2\}, \ldots$ are independent for every $x_1, x_2, \ldots \in \mathbb{R}$, since $X_n^{-1}((-\infty, x_n]) \in \sigma(X_n)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$.

Suppose that $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{H}$ are sub-σ-algebras of $\mathcal{F}$. Furthermore, let $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{J}$ be π-systems such that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \mathcal{G}$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{J}) = \mathcal{H}$. If $\mathbb{P}(I \cap J) = \mathbb{P}(I)\mathbb{P}(J)$ for every $I \in \mathcal{I}$ and $J \in \mathcal{J}$, we say that $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{J}$ are independent. We will show that $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{H}$ are independent if and only if $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{J}$ are independent.

Suppose that $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{H}$ are independent. In that case, $\mathbb{P}(G \cap H) = \mathbb{P}(G)\mathbb{P}(H)$ for every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$. Since $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$, $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{J}$ are independent.

Suppose that $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{J}$ are independent. For every $I \in \mathcal{I}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, let $\mu_I(H) = \mathbb{P}(I \cap H)$ and $\eta_I(H) = \mathbb{P}(I)\mathbb{P}(H)$. Clearly, $\mu_I(\emptyset) = 0 = \eta_I(\emptyset)$. Also, $\mu_I(\Omega) = \mathbb{P}(I) = \eta_I(\Omega)$. Finally, if $(H_n \in \mathcal{H} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of events such that $H_n \cap H_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$,

$$\mu_I\left(\bigcup_n H_n\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(I \cap \left(\bigcup_n H_n\right)\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n (I \cap H_n)\right) = \sum_n \mathbb{P}(I \cap H_n) = \sum_n \mu_I(H_n),$$

$$\eta_I\left(\bigcup_n H_n\right) = \mathbb{P}(I)\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n H_n\right) = \mathbb{P}(I)\sum_n \mathbb{P}(H_n) = \sum_n \mathbb{P}(I)\mathbb{P}(H_n) = \sum_n \eta_I(H_n).$$

Considered together, these results imply that μ_I and η_I are finite measures on $(\Omega, \mathcal{H})$. By assumption, $\mu_I(J) = \mathbb{P}(I \cap J) = \mathbb{P}(I)\mathbb{P}(J) = \eta_I(J)$ for every $I \in \mathcal{I}$ and $J \in \mathcal{J}$. Therefore, μ_I and η_I agree on the π-system $\mathcal{J}$, which implies that they agree on the σ-algebra $\sigma(\mathcal{J}) = \mathcal{H}$. In other words, for every $I \in \mathcal{I}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we have $\mathbb{P}(I \cap H) = \mu_I(H) = \eta_I(H) = \mathbb{P}(I)\mathbb{P}(H)$.

For every $H \in \mathcal{H}$ and $G \in \mathcal{G}$, let $\mu'_H(G) = \mathbb{P}(H \cap G)$ and $\eta'_H(G) = \mathbb{P}(H)\mathbb{P}(G)$. Analogously, μ'_H and η'_H are finite measures on $(\Omega, \mathcal{G})$. From our previous result, for every $I \in \mathcal{I}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we have $\mathbb{P}(I \cap H) = \mu'_H(I) = \eta'_H(I) = \mathbb{P}(I)\mathbb{P}(H)$. Therefore, μ'_H and η'_H agree on the π-system $\mathcal{I}$, which implies that they agree on the σ-algebra $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \mathcal{G}$. In other words, for every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we have $\mathbb{P}(G \cap H) = \mu'_H(G) = \eta'_H(G) = \mathbb{P}(G)\mathbb{P}(H)$.

Consider the random variables X and Y on the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. For every $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ such that $\mathbb{P}(Y^{-1}(B)) > 0$, let $\mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(A) \mid Y^{-1}(B)) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(A) \cap Y^{-1}(B))/\mathbb{P}(Y^{-1}(B))$. If X and Y are independent, then $\mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(A) \mid Y^{-1}(B)) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(A))$, since $X^{-1}(A) \in \sigma(X)$ and $Y^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(Y)$.

In what follows, we will employ a common abuse of notation. Consider the random variables X and Y on the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, we will let $\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$ denote $\mathbb{P}(\{X \leq x\})$. Furthermore, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, we will let $\mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$ denote $\mathbb{P}(\{X \leq x\} \cap \{Y \leq y\})$. We will employ analogous notation when there are more random variables and different predicates.

Consider the random variables X and Y on the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Suppose that, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y)$. We will now show that X and Y are independent.

Recall that $\pi(\mathbb{R}) = \{(-\infty, x] \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and $\pi(X) = \{X^{-1}((-\infty, x]) \mid (-\infty, x] \in \pi(\mathbb{R})\} = \{\{X \leq x\} \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Note that $\pi(X)$ is a π-system on Ω: for any $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, if $\{X \leq x_1\} \in \pi(X)$ and $\{X \leq x_2\} \in \pi(X)$, then $\{X \leq x_1\} \cap \{X \leq x_2\} = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \leq x_1 \text{ and } X(\omega) \leq x_2\} = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \leq \min(x_1, x_2)\} = \{X \leq \min(x_1, x_2)\}$. By assumption, $\mathbb{P}(\{X \leq x\} \cap \{Y \leq y\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{X \leq x\})\mathbb{P}(\{Y \leq y\})$ for any $\{X \leq x\} \in \pi(X)$ and $\{Y \leq y\} \in \pi(Y)$. By definition, the π-systems $\pi(X)$ and $\pi(Y)$ are independent. Therefore, $\sigma(\pi(X))$ and $\sigma(\pi(Y))$ are independent. Based on a previous result, we know that $\sigma(\pi(X)) = \sigma(X)$ and $\sigma(\pi(Y)) = \sigma(Y)$.

In general, the random variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ are independent if and only if, for every $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2, \ldots, X_n \leq x_n) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^n \{X_k \leq x_k\}\right) = \prod_{k=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_k \leq x_k).$$

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence of independent events $(E_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\sum_{n=0}^\infty \mathbb{P}(E_n) = \infty$. The second Borel-Cantelli Lemma states that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n \to \infty} E_n\right) = 1.$$

Because the events are independent, for any $m, r \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $m \leq r$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{m \leq n \leq r} E_n^c\right) = \prod_{m \leq n \leq r} \mathbb{P}(E_n^c) = \prod_{m \leq n \leq r} (1 - \mathbb{P}(E_n)).$$

Let e denote Euler's number. For any $x \geq 0$, recall that $1 - x \leq e^{-x}$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{m \leq n \leq r} E_n^c\right) \leq \prod_{m \leq n \leq r} e^{-\mathbb{P}(E_n)} = e^{-\sum_{m \leq n \leq r} \mathbb{P}(E_n)}.$$

Because both sides of the inequation above are non-increasing with respect to r, we may take the limit of both sides when $r \to \infty$ and use the fact that $\sum_{n=0}^\infty \mathbb{P}(E_n) = \infty$ to conclude that

$$\lim_{r \to \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{m \leq n \leq r} E_n^c\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n \geq m} E_n^c\right) \leq \lim_{r \to \infty} e^{-\sum_{m \leq n \leq r} \mathbb{P}(E_n)} = 0.$$

Using the relationship between the limit superior and the limit inferior,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} E_n\right)^c\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} E_n^C\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_m \bigcap_{n\geq m} E_n^c\right) \leq \sum_m \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n\geq m} E_n^c\right) = 0.$$

A valid distribution function $F : \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$ is a right-continuous function such that if $a \leq b$, then $F(a) \leq F(b)$; $\lim_{x\to-\infty} F(x) = 0$; and $\lim_{x\to\infty} F(x) = 1$. For any sequence of valid distribution functions $(F_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, it is possible to show that there is a sequence of independent random variables $(X_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ on the probability triple $([0,1], \mathcal{B}([0,1]), \text{Leb})$ such that F_n is the distribution function of X_n.

Let $(X_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ be a sequence of independent random variables on the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. If $\mathbb{P}(X_n \leq x) = F(x)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$, and a distribution function $F : \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$, then the random variables are considered independent and identically distributed.

As an application of the Borel-Cantelli lemmas, consider a sequence $(X_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$ of independent random variables on the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Suppose that each random variable X_n is exponentially distributed with rate 1 such that $\mathbb{P}(X_n > x_n) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(X_n \leq x_n) = e^{-x_n}$ for every $x_n \geq 0$. If $x_n = \alpha \log n$ for some $\alpha > 0$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(X_n > \alpha \log n) = e^{-\alpha \log n} = (e^{\log n})^{-\alpha} = \frac{1}{n^\alpha}.$$

For some $\alpha > 0$, consider the sequence of independent events $(\{X_n > \alpha \log n\} \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$ and recall that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X_n > \alpha \log n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} < \infty$$

if and only if $\alpha > 1$. Using the Borel-Cantelli lemmas,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} \ \{X_n > \alpha \log n\}\right) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \alpha > 1, \\ 1, & \text{if } \alpha \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Recall that $\omega \in \limsup_{n\to\infty} \ \{X_n > \alpha \log n\}$ if and only if $X_n(\omega) > \alpha \log n$ for infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Furthermore, consider the random variable $\limsup_{n\to\infty} X_n / \log n$. It is also possible to show that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} \frac{X_n}{\log n} = 1\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\left\{\omega \in \Omega \mid \limsup_{n\to\infty} \frac{X_n(\omega)}{\log n} = 1\right\}\right) = 1.$$

For any set $\mathcal{C}$, a set (or sequence) of random variables $Y = (Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C})$ on a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is called a stochastic process parameterized by $\mathcal{C}$.

Consider a measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ and a function $X : \Omega \to C$, where $C \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. We will show that if $\{X = c\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $c \in C$, then X is $\mathcal{F}$-measurable. For any $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, let $A = B \cap C$ and note that

$$X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in B\} = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in B \text{ and } X(\omega) \in C\} = X^{-1}(B \cap C) = X^{-1}(A).$$

Furthermore, note that

$$X^{-1}(A) = X^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{a\in A} \{a\}\right) = \bigcup_{a\in A} X^{-1}(\{a\}) = \bigcup_{a\in A} \{X = a\}.$$

Because $A \subseteq C$, we have $\{X = a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $a \in A$. Because $\mathcal{F}$ is a σ-algebra, we have $X^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F}$. Therefore, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, we have $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$.

Consider a set $E \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. For every $i, j \in E$, let P be a stochastic matrix whose (i,j)-th element is given by $p_{i,j} \geq 0$ and suppose that $\sum_k p_{i,k} = 1$. Let μ be a probability measure on the measurable space $(E, \mathcal{P}(E))$, where $\mathcal{P}(E)$ is the set of all subsets of E, and let μ_i denote $\mu(\{i\})$ for every $i \in E$. A time-homogeneous Markov chain $Z = (Z_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ on E with initial distribution μ and 1-step transition matrix P is a stochastic process parameterized by $\mathbb{N}$ such that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i_0, i_1, \ldots, i_n \in E$,

$$\mathbb{P}(Z_0 = i_0, Z_1 = i_1, \ldots, Z_n = i_n) = \mu_{i_0} p_{i_0,i_1} \ldots p_{i_{n-1},i_n} = \mu_{i_0} \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_{i_{k-1},i_k}.$$

We will now show that a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ carrying the aforementioned stochastic process Z exists.

First, for any set of valid distribution functions $\{F_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, recall that there is a set of independent random variables $\{X_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ on a certain probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ such that F_n is the distribution function of X_n. Using this result, for every $i, j \in E$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, let $Z_0 : \Omega \to E$ and $Y_{i,n} : \Omega \to E$ be independent random variables on a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ such that $\mathbb{P}(Z_0 = i) = \mu_i$ and $\mathbb{P}(Y_{i,n} = j) = p_{i,j}$.

For every $\omega \in \Omega$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, let $Z_n(\omega) = Y_{Z_{n-1}(\omega),n}(\omega)$. Using induction, we will show that the function $Z_n : \Omega \to E$ is a random variable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We already know that Z_0 is a random variable. Suppose that Z_{n-1} is a random variable. We will show that $\{Z_n = i_n\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $i_n \in E$. By definition,

$$\{Z_n = i_n\} = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid Z_n(\omega) = i_n\} = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid Y_{Z_{n-1}(\omega),n}(\omega) = i_n\} = \bigcup_{i \in E} \{\omega \in \Omega \mid Z_{n-1}(\omega) = i \text{ and } Y_{i,n}(\omega) = i_n\},$$

which implies

$$\{Z_n = i_n\} = \bigcup_{i \in E} \{Z_{n-1} = i\} \cap \{Y_{i,n} = i_n\}.$$

Because Z_{n-1} and $Y_{i,n}$ are random variables for every $i \in E$, $\{Z_n = i_n\} \in \mathcal{F}$, as we wanted to show.

Using induction, we will now show that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i_0, i_1, \dots, i_n \in E$,

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^{n} \{Z_k = i_k\} = \{Z_0 = i_0\} \cap \bigcap_{k=1}^{n} \{Y_{i_{k-1},k} = i_k\}.$$

The statement above is true when $n = 0$, so suppose it is true for some $n - 1 \in \mathbb{N}$. Using a previous result,

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^{n} \{Z_k = i_k\} = \left(\bigcap_{k=0}^{n-1} \{Z_k = i_k\} \right) \cap \{Z_n = i_n\} = \left(\bigcap_{k=0}^{n-1} \{Z_k = i_k\} \right) \cap \left(\bigcup_{i \in E} \{Z_{n-1} = i\} \cap \{Y_{i,n} = i_n\} \right).$$

By distributing the intersection over the union,

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^{n} \{Z_k = i_k\} = \bigcup_{i \in E} \left(\bigcap_{k=0}^{n-1} \{Z_k = i_k\} \right) \cap \{Z_{n-1} = i\} \cap \{Y_{i,n} = i_n\}.$$

Because $\{Z_{n-1} = i_{n-1}\} \cap \{Z_{n-1} = i\} = \emptyset$ whenever $i \neq i_{n-1}$,

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^{n} \{Z_k = i_k\} = \left(\bigcap_{k=0}^{n-1} \{Z_k = i_k\} \right) \cap \{Y_{i_{n-1},n} = i_n\} = \{Z_0 = i_0\} \cap \bigcap_{k=1}^{n} \{Y_{i_{k-1},k} = i_k\},$$

where the last equation follows from the inductive hypothesis.

The event above is the intersection of events from the σ-algebras of independent random variables, which implies

$$\mathbb{P}(Z_0 = i_0, Z_1 = i_1, \dots, Z_n = i_n) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{k=0}^{n} \{Z_k = i_k\} \right) = \mathbb{P}(Z_0 = i_0) \prod_{k=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(Y_{i_{k-1},k} = i_k) = \mu_{i_0} \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_{i_{k-1},i_k}.$$

Consider a time-homogeneous Markov chain $Z = (Z_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ on E with initial distribution μ and 1-step transition matrix P. Consider also a finite sequence of elements of E given by $I = i_0, i_1, \dots i_n$. We say that the sequence I appears in outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ at time t if $Z_{t+k}(\omega) = i_k$ for every $k \leq n$. We will now show how several interesting events related to the appearance of the sequence I may be defined.

The event M_t composed of outcomes where the sequence I appears at time t is given by

$$M_t = \bigcap_{k=0}^{n} \{Z_{t+k} = i_k\} = \bigcap_{k=0}^{n} \{\omega \in \Omega \mid Z_{t+k}(\omega) = i_k\}.$$

The event S_t composed of outcomes where the sequence I appears at least once at or after time t is given by

$$S_t = \bigcup_{t' \geq t} M_{t'}.$$

The event $L_{t,m}$ composed of outcomes where the sequence I appears at least m times up to time t is given by

$$L_{t,m} = \bigcup_{l_1,\ldots,l_m} \bigcap_{k=1}^{m} M_{l_k},$$

where $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ is a finite sequence of distinct elements of E such that $l_k \leq t$ for every $k \leq m$.

The event L_m composed of outcomes where I appears at least m times is given by $L_{t,m}$ when $t = \infty$.

The event E composed of outcomes where the sequence I appears infinitely many times is given by

$$E = \limsup_{t\to\infty} M_t.$$

5 Integration

Consider a measure space (S, Σ, μ). The integral with respect to μ of a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is denoted by $\mu(f)$.

For any set $A \in \Sigma$, the integral with respect to μ of the indicator function $\mathbb{I}_A : S \to \{0, 1\}$ is defined as

$$\mu(\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(A).$$

A simple function is a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ that can be written as

$$f(s) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k}(s)$$

for every $s \in S$, for some fixed $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m \in [0, \infty]$ and $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m \in \Sigma$. Intuitively, when $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m$ partition S, each set A_k is assigned a value a_k.

The integral with respect to μ of the simple function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ as written above is defined as

$$\mu(f) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \mu(A_k).$$

It is possible to show that the right side of the equation above is equivalent for every choice of sets and constants used to write the simple function f. Therefore, the integral $\mu(f)$ with respect to μ of a simple function f is well-defined. Intuitively, when $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m$ partition S, the integral with respect to μ accumulates the measure $\mu(A_k)$ of each set A_k multiplied by the value a_k assigned to it.

If $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ and $g : S \to [0, \infty]$ are simple functions, then

- $f + g$ is a simple function and $\mu(f + g) = \mu(f) + \mu(g)$,
- if $c \geq 0$, then cf is a simple function and $\mu(cf) = c\mu(f)$,
- if $\mu(f \neq g) = \mu(\{s \in S \mid f(s) \neq g(s)\}) = 0$, then $\mu(f) = \mu(g)$,
- if $f \leq g$ such that $f(s) \leq g(s)$ for every $s \in S$, then $\mu(f) \leq \mu(g)$,
- if $h = \min(f, g)$ such that $h(s) = \min(f(s), g(s))$ for every $s \in S$, then h is a simple function,
- if $h = \max(f, g)$ such that $h(s) = \max(f(s), g(s))$ for every $s \in S$, then h is a simple function.

The integral with respect to μ of a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ is defined as

$$\mu(f) = \sup\{\mu(h) \mid h \text{ is simple and } h \leq f\}.$$

Consider a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$. We will now show that if $\mu(f) = 0$, then $\mu(\{f > 0\}) = 0$. Because the measure μ is non-negative, this is equivalent to showing that if $\mu(\{f > 0\}) > 0$, then $\mu(f) > 0$.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, let $A_n = \{f > n^{-1}\} = \{s \in S \mid f(s) > n^{-1}\}$ and note that

$$\{f > 0\} = \{s \in S \mid f(s) > 0\} = \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}^+} \{s \in S \mid f(s) > n^{-1}\} = \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}^+} A_n.$$

For every $s \in S$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, if $f(s) > n^{-1}$, then $f(s) > (n+1)^{-1}$. Therefore, $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ and $A_n \uparrow \{f > 0\}$. Furthermore, the monotone-convergence property of measure guarantees that $\mu(A_n) \uparrow \mu(\{f > 0\})$.

Suppose that $\mu(\{f > 0\}) > 0$. In that case, there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ such that

$$\mu(\mathbb{I}_{\{f > n^{-1}\}}) = \mu(\{f > n^{-1}\}) = \mu(A_n) > 0.$$

For such an $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, consider now the simple function $g = n^{-1}\mathbb{I}_{\{f > n^{-1}\}}$ given by

$$g(s) = n^{-1}\mathbb{I}_{\{f > n^{-1}\}}(s) = \begin{cases} n^{-1} & f(s) > n^{-1}, \\ 0 & f(s) \leq n^{-1}. \end{cases}$$

The fact that $f \geq g$ implies that $\mu(f) \geq \mu(g)$ even if f is not simple. Therefore,

$$\mu(f) \geq \mu(g) = \mu(n^{-1}\mathbb{I}_{\{f > n^{-1}\}}) = n^{-1}\mu(\mathbb{I}_{\{f > n^{-1}\}}) > 0,$$

where the last inequality follows from the fact that $n^{-1} > 0$.

Let $f_n \uparrow f$ denote that a sequence of functions $(f_n : S \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is such that $f_n(s) \uparrow f(s)$ for every $s \in S$. Similarly, let $f_n \downarrow f$ denote that a sequence of functions $(f_n : S \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is such that $f_n(s) \downarrow f(s)$ for every $s \in S$.

The monotone-convergence theorem states that if $(f_n : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of Σ-measurable functions such that $f_n \uparrow f$, then $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$.

Before showing how the integral with respect to μ of a given Σ-measurable function is the limit of a sequence of integrals with respect to μ of simple functions, it is convenient to introduce staircase functions.

Let $\alpha_n : [0, \infty] \to [0, n]$ denote the n-th staircase function given by $\alpha_n(x) = \min(n, \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor / 2^n)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in [0, \infty]$. Intuitively, the n-th staircase function partitions its domain into a sequence of intervals of length $1/2^n$. The value assigned to the first interval is zero, and the value of each following interval is $1/2^n$ plus the value of the previous interval, with values truncated at n. Furthermore, let $h : [0, \infty] \to [0, \infty]$ denote the identity function given by $h(x) = x$ for every $x \in [0, \infty]$. We will now show that $\alpha_n \uparrow h$.

We will start by showing that $\min(n, \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor / 2^n) = \alpha_n(x) \leq \alpha_{n+1}(x) = \min(n+1, \lfloor 2^{n+1} x \rfloor / 2^{n+1})$, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in [0, \infty]$. When $x = \infty$, we have $\alpha_n(x) = n \leq n + 1 = \alpha_{n+1}(x)$. When $x < \infty$, the fact that $n \leq n+1$ implies that we only need to show that $\lfloor 2^n x \rfloor / 2^n \leq \lfloor 2^{n+1} x \rfloor / 2^{n+1}$. Note that $\lfloor 2^n x \rfloor \leq 2^n x$, which implies $2\lfloor 2^n x \rfloor \leq 2^{n+1} x$. By the monotonicity of the floor function, $\lfloor 2\lfloor 2^n x \rfloor \rfloor \leq \lfloor 2^{n+1} x \rfloor$. Because the floor of an integer is itself an integer, $2\lfloor 2^n x \rfloor \leq \lfloor 2^{n+1} x \rfloor$. Dividing both sides of the previous inequation by 2^{n+1} completes the proof.

In order to show that $\alpha_n \uparrow h$, it remains to show that, for every $x \in [0, \infty]$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \alpha_n(x) = x.$$

The case where $x = \infty$ is trivial, since $\alpha_n(x) = n$. When $x < \infty$, note that $2^n x \geq \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor$ implies $x \geq \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor / 2^n$, and so $n > x$ implies $n > \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor / 2^n$. Therefore, for every sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\alpha_n(x) = \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor / 2^n$ when $x < \infty$. It remains to show that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor / 2^n = x$. By noting that $2^n x - 1 \leq \lfloor 2^n x \rfloor \leq 2^n x$ and dividing each term by 2^n,

$$x - \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{2^n x - 1}{2^n} \leq \frac{\lfloor 2^n x \rfloor}{2^n} \leq \frac{2^n x}{2^n} = x.$$

Using the squeeze theorem with $n \to \infty$ completes the proof that $\alpha_n \uparrow h$.

Consider a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider $f_n : S \to [0, n]$ such that

$$f_n(s) = \alpha_n(f(s)) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \mathbb{I}_{\{f_n = a_k\}}(s),$$

where $a_1, \dots, a_m \in [0, n]$ are the (distinct) elements of the (finite) image of the function f_n. Because f is Σ-measurable and α_n is $\mathcal{B}([0, \infty])$-measurable, we know that $f_n = \alpha_n \circ f$ is Σ-measurable, which implies that f_n is also simple. For every $s \in S$, we have $f(s) \in [0, \infty]$ and $(\alpha_n \circ f)(s) \uparrow f(s)$. Therefore, $f_n \uparrow f$. From the monotone-convergence theorem, $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$. Therefore, the integral with respect to μ of a given Σ-measurable function f is the limit of a sequence of integrals with respect to μ of simple functions $(f_n : S \to [0, n] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$.

Let $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ and $g : S \to [0, \infty]$ be Σ-measurable functions. We will show that if $\mu(\{f \neq g\}) = 0$, then $\mu(f) = \mu(g)$. Recall that we already have the analogous result for simple functions.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f_n = \alpha_n \circ f$ and $g_n = \alpha_n \circ g$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Note that

$$\{f_n \neq g_n\} = \{s \in S \mid f_n(s) \neq g_n(s)\} \subseteq \{s \in S \mid f(s) \neq g(s)\} = \{f \neq g\},$$

which implies $\mu(\{f_n \neq g_n\}) \leq \mu(\{f \neq g\}) = 0$. Because f_n and g_n are simple functions such that $\mu(\{f_n \neq g_n\}) = 0$, we know that $\mu(f_n) = \mu(g_n)$. From the monotone-convergence theorem, $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$ and $\mu(g_n) \uparrow \mu(g)$, so

$$\mu(f) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(g_n) = \mu(g).$$

Consider a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ and a sequence of Σ-measurable functions $(f_n : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $f_n(s) \uparrow f(s)$ for every $s \in S \setminus N$ for some μ-null set $N \subseteq S$. We will show that $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$.

Consider the Σ-measurable function $f\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N}$ such that $(f\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N})(s) = f(s)\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N}(s)$ for every $s \in S$. Clearly, $\{f\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N} \neq f\} \subseteq N$. Therefore, $\mu(\{f\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N} \neq f\}) \leq \mu(N) = 0$ and $\mu(f\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N}) = \mu(f)$.

Analogously, consider the Σ-measurable function $f_n\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N}$ such that $(f_n\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N})(s) = f_n(s)\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N}(s)$ for every $s \in S$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Clearly, $\{f_n\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N} \neq f_n\} \subseteq N$. Therefore, $\mu(\{f_n\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N} \neq f_n\}) \leq \mu(N) = 0$ and $\mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N}) = \mu(f_n)$.

Note that $(f_n\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N})(s) \uparrow (f\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N})(s)$, whether $s \in N$ or $s \in S \setminus N$. Therefore, $\mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N}) \uparrow \mu(f\mathbb{I}_{S\setminus N})$, which implies $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$.

Consider a sequence of Σ-measurable functions $(f_n : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. The Fatou lemma states that

$$\mu\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n\right) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n).$$

We will now show this lemma. For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the function $g_m = \inf_{n \geq m} f_n$ such that

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} \inf_{n\geq m} f_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} g_m.$$

Because $g_{m+1} \geq g_m$ for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$, we have that $g_m \uparrow \liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n$. Because $g_m : S \to [0, \infty]$ is also Σ-measurable for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mu(g_m) \uparrow \mu(\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n)$.

For any $n \geq m$, note that $g_m \leq f_n$ and $\mu(g_m) \leq \mu(f_n)$, which also implies $\mu(g_m) \leq \inf_{n\geq m} \mu(f_n)$. By taking the limit of both sides of the previous inequation when $m \to \infty$,

$$\mu\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n\right) = \lim_{m\to\infty} \mu(g_m) \leq \lim_{m\to\infty} \inf_{n\geq m} \mu(f_n) = \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n).$$

Consider a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ and a constant $c \geq 0$. We will now show that $\mu(cf) = c\mu(f)$. Recall that we already have the analogous result for simple functions.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f_n = \alpha_n \circ f$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Because $f_n \uparrow f$, we know that $cf_n \uparrow cf$. Because cf_n is Σ-measurable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mu(cf_n) \uparrow \mu(cf)$. Because $\mu(cf_n) = c\mu(f_n)$, we have $c\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(cf)$. Because $c\mu(f_n) \uparrow c\mu(f)$, we have $\mu(cf) = c\mu(f)$.

Consider a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ and a Σ-measurable function $g : S \to [0, \infty]$. We will now show that $\mu(f + g) = \mu(f) + \mu(g)$. Recall that we already have the analogous result for simple functions.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f_n = \alpha_n \circ f$ and $g_n = \alpha_n \circ g$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Because $f_n \uparrow f$ and $g_n \uparrow g$, we know that $f_n + g_n \uparrow f + g$. Because $f_n + g_n$ is Σ-measurable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mu(f_n + g_n) \uparrow \mu(f + g)$. Because $\mu(f_n + g_n) \uparrow \mu(f) + \mu(g)$, we have $\mu(f + g) = \mu(f) + \mu(g)$.

Consider a sequence of Σ-measurable functions $(f_n : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $f_n \leq g$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and some Σ-measurable function $g : S \to [0, \infty]$ such that $\mu(g) < \infty$. The reverse Fatou lemma states that

$$\mu\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} f_n\right) \geq \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n).$$

We will now show this lemma. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the function $h_n = g - f_n$. Because g and f_n are Σ-measurable and $f_n \leq g$, we know that $h_n : S \to [0, \infty]$ is Σ-measurable. From the Fatou lemma,

$$\mu\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} (g - f_n)\right) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(g - f_n).$$

By using the fact that $\mu(g) = \mu(g - f_n) + \mu(f_n)$ and moving g and $\mu(g)$ outside the corresponding limits,

$$\mu\left(g + \liminf_{n\to\infty} -f_n\right) \leq \mu(g) + \liminf_{n\to\infty} -\mu(f_n).$$

By using the relationship between limit inferior and limit superior,

$$\mu\left(g - \limsup_{n\to\infty} f_n\right) \leq \mu(g) - \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n).$$

By using the fact that $\mu(g) = \mu(g - \limsup_{n\to\infty} f_n) + \mu(\limsup_{n\to\infty} f_n)$,

$$\mu(g) - \mu\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} f_n\right) \leq \mu(g) - \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n).$$

The proof is completed by reorganizing terms in the inequation above.

For a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$, the Σ-measurable function $f^+ : S \to [0, \infty]$ is given by

$$f^+(s) = \max(f(s), 0) = \begin{cases} f(s), & \text{if } f(s) > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } f(s) \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

For a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$, the Σ-measurable function $f^- : S \to [0, \infty]$ is given by

$$f^-(s) = \max(-f(s), 0) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } f(s) > 0, \\ -f(s), & \text{if } f(s) \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, for a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$, whether $f(s) > 0$ or $f(s) \leq 0$,

$$f(s) = f^+(s) - f^-(s).$$

Furthermore, whether $f(s) > 0$ or $f(s) \leq 0$,

$$|f(s)| = f^+(s) + f^-(s).$$

In other words, $f = f^+ - f^-$ and $|f| = f^+ + f^-$.

A function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is μ-integrable if it is Σ-measurable and $\mu(|f|) = \mu(f^+ + f^-) = \mu(f^+) + \mu(f^-) < \infty$.

The set of all μ-integrable functions in the measure space (S, Σ, μ) is denoted by $\mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$. The set of all non-negative μ-integrable functions in the measure space (S, Σ, μ) is denoted by $\mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)^+$.

The integral $\mu(f)$ with respect to μ of a μ-integrable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined as

$$\mu(f) = \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-).$$

Alternatively, the integral $\mu(f)$ with respect to μ of a μ-integrable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is denoted by

$$\int_S f d\mu = \int_S f(s)\mu(ds) = \mu(f).$$

If a function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is μ-integrable, then $\mu(f^+) < \infty$ and $\mu(f^-) < \infty$. By the triangle inequality,

$$|\mu(f)| = |\mu(f^+) + (-\mu(f^-))| \leq |\mu(f^+)| + |-\mu(f^-)| = \mu(f^+) + \mu(f^-) = \mu(|f|).$$

Consider a μ-integrable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$. Because $-f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is Σ-measurable and $\mu(|-f|) = \mu(|f|) < \infty$, we know that $-f$ is μ-integrable. We will now show that $\mu(-f) = -\mu(f)$. For every $s \in S$, $(-f)^+(s) = \max(-f(s), 0) = f^-(s)$ and $(-f)^-(s) = \max(f(s), 0) = f^+(s)$. Therefore,

$$\mu(-f) = \mu((-f)^+) - \mu((-f)^-) = -(\mu((-f)^-) - \mu((-f)^+)) = -(\mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-)) = -\mu(f).$$

Consider a μ-integrable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ and a constant $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Because $cf : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is Σ-measurable and $\mu(|cf|) = \mu(|c||f|) = |c|\mu(|f|) < \infty$, we know that cf is μ-integrable. We will now show that $\mu(cf) = c\mu(f)$.

Because $f = f^+ - f^-$, we know that $cf = cf^+ - cf^-$. Furthermore, $(cf) = (cf)^+ - (cf)^-$. Therefore,

$$(cf)^+ - (cf)^- = cf^+ - cf^-.$$

By rearranging negative terms,

$$(cf)^+ + cf^- = (cf)^- + cf^+.$$

We will now consider the case where $c \geq 0$. By the linearity of the integral of non-negative functions,

$$\mu((cf)^+) + \mu(cf^-) = \mu((cf)^-) + \mu(cf^+).$$

By rearranging terms,

$$\mu((cf)^+) - \mu((cf)^-) = \mu(cf^+) - \mu(cf^-).$$

Because cf is μ-integrable and by the linearity of the integral of non-negative functions,

$$\mu(cf) = c\mu(f^+) - c\mu(f^-) = c(\mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-)) = c\mu(f).$$

When $c < 0$, note that $\mu(cf) = \mu(-|c|f) = |c|\mu(-f) = -|c|\mu(f) = c\mu(f)$.

Consider a μ-integrable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ and a μ-integrable function $g : S \to \mathbb{R}$. Because $f + g : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is Σ-measurable and $|f + g| \leq |f| + |g|$ implies $\mu(|f + g|) \leq \mu(|f|) + \mu(|g|) < \infty$, we know that $f + g$ is μ-integrable. We will now show that $\mu(f + g) = \mu(f) + \mu(g)$.

We know that $f + g = (f^+ - f^-) + (g^+ - g^-)$. Furthermore, $(f + g) = (f + g)^+ - (f + g)^-$. Therefore,

$$(f + g)^+ - (f + g)^- = (f^+ - f^-) + (g^+ - g^-).$$

By rearranging negative terms,

$$(f + g)^+ + f^- + g^- = (f + g)^- + f^+ + g^+.$$

By the linearity of the integral of non-negative functions,

$$\mu((f + g)^+) + \mu(f^-) + \mu(g^-) = \mu((f + g)^-) + \mu(f^+) + \mu(g^+).$$

By rearranging terms,

$$\mu((f + g)^+) - \mu((f + g)^-) = (\mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-)) + (\mu(g^+) - \mu(g^-))$$

Because $f + g$ is μ-integrable,

$$\mu(f + g) = \mu(f) + \mu(g).$$

Let $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g : S \to \mathbb{R}$ be μ-integrable functions. We will now show that if $\mu(\{f \neq g\}) = 0$, then $\mu(f) = \mu(g)$. Recall that we already have the analogous result for non-negative Σ-measurable functions.

First, note that if $f^+(s) \neq g^+(s)$ or $f^-(s) \neq g^-(s)$ for some $s \in S$, then $f(s) \neq g(s)$. Therefore,

$$\{s \in S \mid f^+(s) \neq g^+(s)\} \cup \{s \in S \mid f^-(s) \neq g^-(s)\} \subseteq \{s \in S \mid f(s) \neq g(s)\},$$

so that $\mu(\{f^+ \neq g^+\}) + \mu(\{f^- \neq g^-\}) \leq \mu(\{f \neq g\})$. Because $\mu(\{f \neq g\}) = 0$, we know that $\mu(\{f^+ \neq g^+\}) = 0$ and $\mu(\{f^- \neq g^-\}) = 0$. Because f^+, f^-, g^+, and g^- are non-negative Σ-measurable functions, we know that $\mu(f^+) = \mu(g^+)$ and $\mu(f^-) = \mu(g^-)$. Therefore,

$$\mu(f) = \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-) = \mu(g^+) - \mu(g^-) = \mu(g).$$

The integral with respect to μ of a μ-integrable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ over the set $A \in \Sigma$ is defined as

$$\mu(f; A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A).$$

Because $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is Σ-measurable and $|f\mathbb{I}_A| \leq |f|$ implies $\mu(|f\mathbb{I}_A|) \leq \mu(|f|) < \infty$, we know that $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is μ-integrable.

Alternatively, the integral $\mu(f; A)$ with respect to μ of f over the set $A \in \Sigma$ is denoted by

$$\int_A f d\mu = \int_A f(s)\mu(ds) = \mu(f; A).$$

Consider a sequence of real numbers $(x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and the measure space $(\mathbb{N}, \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}), \mu)$, where $\mu(\{n\}) = 1$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Furthermore, consider a function $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(n) = x_n$. We will now show that f is μ-integrable if and only if $\sum_n |x_n| < \infty$. Also, if f is μ-integrable, then $\mu(f) = \sum_n x_n$.

Suppose that $f(n) \geq 0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For every $k \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the function $f_k : \mathbb{N} \to [0, \infty]$ given by

$$f_k(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} f(i)\mathbb{I}_{\{i\}}(n) = \begin{cases} f(n), & \text{if } n \leq k, \\ 0, & \text{if } n > k. \end{cases}$$

Clearly, if $k \to \infty$, then $f_k \to f$. Because f_k is a simple function,

$$\mu(f_k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} f(i)\mu(\{i\}) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} f(i) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} x_i.$$

Because $f_k \leq f_{k+1}$, we have $f_k \uparrow f$. By the monotone-convergence theorem, $\mu(f_k) \uparrow \mu(f)$. Therefore,

$$\mu(f) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{i=0}^{k} x_i = \sum_{n} x_n.$$

Now suppose $f(n) \in \mathbb{R}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Based on our previous result,

$$\mu(|f|) = \mu(f^+) + \mu(f^-) = \sum_{n} \max(x_n, 0) + \max(-x_n, 0) = \sum_{n} |x_n|.$$

By definition, f is integrable if and only if $\mu(|f|) = \sum_n |x_n| < \infty$, in which case

$$\mu(f) = \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-) = \sum_{n} \max(x_n, 0) - \max(-x_n, 0) = \sum_{n} x_n.$$

Consider a sequence of Σ-measurable functions $(f_n : S \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$. Furthermore, suppose there is a μ-integrable non-negative function $g \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)^+$ that dominates this sequence of functions such that $|f_n| \leq g$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The dominated convergence theorem states that f is μ-integrable and $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \mu(f)$. We will now show this theorem.

Because g is μ-integrable and non-negative, $\mu(g) = \mu(|g|) < \infty$. Because $|f_n| \leq g$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\mu(|f_n|) \leq \mu(g) < \infty$, which implies that f_n is μ-integrable. Because the function $|\cdot|$ is continuous, we know that $\lim_{n\to\infty} |f_n| = |f|$, which implies $|f| \leq g$. Because $\mu(|f|) \leq \mu(g) < \infty$, we know that f is μ-integrable.

Because $|f_n| \leq g$ and $|f| \leq g$, we know that $|f_n| + |f| \leq 2g$. By the triangle inequality,

$$|f_n - f| = |f_n + (-f)| \leq |f_n| + |f| \leq 2g.$$

Because $|f_n - f| : S \to [0, \infty]$ is a Σ-measurable function and $|f_n - f| \leq 2g$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $2g : S \to [0, \infty]$ is a Σ-measurable function such that $\mu(2g) = 2\mu(g) < \infty$, the reverse Fatou lemma states that

$$\mu\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f|\right) \geq \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|).$$

Since the function $|\cdot|$ is continuous, we know that $\lim_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f| = 0$, where 0 is the zero function. Therefore,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f| = \liminf_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f| = \lim_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f| = 0.$$

By taking the integral with respect to μ of these non-negative functions,

$$\mu\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f|\right) = \mu\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f|\right) = \mu\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} |f_n - f|\right) = \mu(0) = 0.$$

Because $f_n - f$ is μ-integrable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $|\mu(f_n - f)| \leq \mu(|f_n - f|)$,

$$0 \geq \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|) \geq \limsup_{n\to\infty} |\mu(f_n - f)| \geq \liminf_{n\to\infty} |\mu(f_n - f)| \geq 0.$$

Because the limit superior and limit inferior in the inequation above must be equal to zero, we know that $\lim_{n\to\infty} |\mu(f_n - f)| = 0$, which implies $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n - f) = 0$. By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \mu(f).$$

Consider a sequence of μ-integrable non-negative functions $(f_n : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and a μ-integrable non-negative function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$ (almost everywhere). Scheffé's lemma for non-negative functions states that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|) = 0 \text{ if and only if } \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \mu(f).$$

We will now show this lemma. First, suppose $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|) = 0$. Since $0 \leq |\mu(f_n - f)| \leq \mu(|f_n - f|)$, the squeeze theorem implies that $\lim_{n\to\infty} |\mu(f_n - f)| = 0$, which also implies that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n - f) = 0$. By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ, we conclude that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \mu(f)$.

Now suppose $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \mu(f)$ and consider the function $(f_n - f)^- : S \to [0, \infty]$ given by

$$(f_n - f)^-(s) = \max(-(f_n - f)(s), 0) = \max((f - f_n)(s), 0) = (f - f_n)^+(s) = \begin{cases} f(s) - f_n(s), & \text{if } f(s) > f_n(s), \\ 0, & \text{if } f(s) \leq f_n(s). \end{cases}$$

Note that $(f_n - f)^- \leq f$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Because $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$, we know that for every $s \in S$ and $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > N$ guarantees that $|f(s) - f_n(s)| < \epsilon$. Note that, for every $n > N$, if $f(s) > f_n(s)$, then $|(f_n - f)^-(s)| = |f(s) - f_n(s)| < \epsilon$. If $f(s) \leq f_n(s)$, then $|(f_n - f)^-(s)| = 0 < \epsilon$. Therefore, for every $s \in S$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > N$ guarantees that $|(f_n - f)^-(s)| < \epsilon$. By definition, $\lim_{n\to\infty} (f_n - f)^- = 0$, where 0 denotes the zero function.

Consider the sequence of Σ-measurable functions $((f_n - f)^- : S \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and the Σ-measurable function $0 : S \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} (f_n - f)^- = 0$. Furthermore, consider the μ-integrable non-negative function $f \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)^+$ such that $|(f_n - f)^-| = (f_n - f)^- \leq f$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. By the dominated convergence theorem, we know that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu((f_n - f)^-) = \mu(0) = 0$.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, recall that $(f_n - f)^+ = (f_n - f) + (f_n - f)^-$. By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu((f_n - f)^+) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) - \mu(f) + \mu((f_n - f)^-) = \mu(f) - \mu(f) + \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu((f_n - f)^-) = 0.$$

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, recall that $|f_n - f| = (f_n - f)^+ + (f_n - f)^-$. By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu((f_n - f)^+) + \mu((f_n - f)^-) = 0.$$

Consider a sequence of μ-integrable functions $(f_n : S \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and a μ-integrable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$ (almost everywhere). Scheffé's lemma states that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|) = 0 \text{ if and only if } \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n|) = \mu(|f|).$$

We will now show this lemma. First, suppose $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|) = 0$. By the triangle inequality,

$$|f_n| = |(f_n - f) + f| \leq |f_n - f| + |f|,$$
$$|f| = |(f - f_n) + f_n| \leq |f_n - f| + |f_n|.$$

Because the integral with respect to μ is non-decreasing and linear,

$$\mu(|f_n - f|) \geq \mu(|f_n|) - \mu(|f|),$$
$$\mu(|f_n - f|) \geq \mu(|f|) - \mu(|f_n|).$$

Because $\mu(|f_n - f|) \geq a$ and $\mu(|f_n - f|) \geq -a$ for $a = \mu(|f_n|) - \mu(|f|)$,

$$\mu(|f_n - f|) \geq |\mu(|f_n|) - \mu(|f|)| \geq 0. \tag{1}$$

By the squeeze theorem, $\lim_{n\to\infty} |\mu(|f_n|) - \mu(|f|)| = 0$, which implies $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n|) - \mu(|f|) = 0$. By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ, we conclude that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n|) = \mu(|f|)$.

Now suppose $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n|) = \mu(|f|)$. Because the function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $g(x) = \max(x, 0)$ is continuous,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n^+(s) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \max(f_n(s), 0) = \max(f(s), 0) = f^+(s),$$
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n^-(s) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \max(-f_n(s), 0) = \max(-f(s), 0) = f^-(s).$$

Because $(f_n^+ : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and $(f_n^- : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ are sequences of Σ-measurable functions, the Fatou lemma guarantees that

$$\mu(f^+) = \mu\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n^+\right) = \mu\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n^+\right) \le \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+),$$
$$\mu(f^-) = \mu\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n^-\right) = \mu\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} f_n^-\right) \le \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-).$$

Consider the integrals $\mu(f_n^+)$ and $\mu(f_n^-)$ written as

$$\mu(f_n^+) = \mu(f_n^+) + \mu(f_n^-) - \mu(f_n^-),$$
$$\mu(f_n^-) = \mu(f_n^-) + \mu(f_n^+) - \mu(f_n^+).$$

By taking the limit superior of both sides,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \left(\mu(f_n^+) + \mu(f_n^-) - \mu(f_n^-)\right),$$
$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \left(\mu(f_n^-) + \mu(f_n^+) - \mu(f_n^+)\right).$$

By the subadditivity of the limit superior,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+) \le \limsup_{n\to\infty} \left(\mu(f_n^+) + \mu(f_n^-)\right) + \limsup_{n\to\infty} -\mu(f_n^-)$$
$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-) \le \limsup_{n\to\infty} \left(\mu(f_n^-) + \mu(f_n^+)\right) + \limsup_{n\to\infty} -\mu(f_n^+).$$

From our assumption that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n|) = \mu(|f|)$,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \left(\mu(f_n^+) + \mu(f_n^-)\right) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \left(\mu(f_n^-) + \mu(f_n^+)\right) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n|) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n|) = \mu(|f|).$$

Therefore, by the relationship between the limit inferior and the limit superior,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+) \le \mu(|f|) - \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-),$$
$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-) \le \mu(|f|) - \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+).$$

By non-decreasing the right sides of the previous inequations using our previous result,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+) \le \mu(|f|) - \mu(f^-) = \mu(f^+) + \mu(f^-) - \mu(f^-) = \mu(f^+),$$
$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-) \le \mu(|f|) - \mu(f^+) = \mu(f^+) + \mu(f^-) - \mu(f^+) = \mu(f^-).$$

By noting that the limit superior is at least as large as the limit inferior and combining the previous results,

$$\mu(f^+) \le \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+) \le \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+) \le \mu(f^+),$$
$$\mu(f^-) \le \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-) \le \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-) \le \mu(f^-).$$

Because the previous inequations imply that the limits must match,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^+) = \mu(f^+),$$
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n^-) = \mu(f^-).$$

Because $(f_n^+ : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and $(f_n^- : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ are sequences of μ-integrable non-negative functions and $f^+ : S \to [0, \infty]$ and $f^- : S \to [0, \infty]$ are μ-integrable non-negative functions such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n^+ = f^+$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n^- = f^-$, Scheffé's lemma for non-negative functions guarantees that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n^+ - f^+|) = 0,$$
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n^- - f^-|) = 0.$$

By the triangle inequality,

$$|f_n - f| = |(f_n^+ - f_n^-) - (f^+ - f^-)| = |(f_n^+ - f^+) + (f^- - f_n^-)| \leq |f_n^+ - f^+| + |f_n^- - f^-|.$$

Because the integral with respect to μ is non-negative for non-negative functions, non-decreasing, and linear,

$$0 \leq \mu(|f_n - f|) \leq \mu(|f_n^+ - f^+|) + \mu(|f_n^- - f^-|).$$

By the squeeze theorem, and as we wanted to show,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(|f_n - f|) = 0.$$

Consider the measure space (S, Σ, μ). For a set $A \in \Sigma$, consider the triple (A, Σ_A, μ_A) such that $\Sigma_A = \{B \in \Sigma \mid B \subseteq A\}$ and $\mu_A(B) = \mu(B)$ for every $B \in \Sigma_A$. We will now show that (A, Σ_A, μ_A) is a measure space restricted to A.

First, we will show that Σ_A is a σ-algebra on A. Because $A \in \Sigma$ and $A \subseteq A$, we have $A \in \Sigma_A$. If $B \in \Sigma_A$, then $B \in \Sigma$ and $A \cap B^c \in \Sigma$. Because $A \cap B^c \subseteq A$, we have $A \setminus B \in \Sigma_A$. For any sequence $(B_n \in \Sigma_A \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, the fact that $B_n \in \Sigma$ guarantees that $\cup_n B_n \in \Sigma$. Because $B_n \subseteq A$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\cup_n B_n \subseteq A$, which implies $\cup_n B_n \in \Sigma_A$.

Second, we will show that the non-negative function $\mu_A : \Sigma_A \to [0, \infty]$ is a measure on the measurable space (A, Σ_A). Because $\emptyset \in \Sigma$ and $\emptyset \in \Sigma_A$, we know that $\mu_A(\emptyset) = \mu(\emptyset) = 0$. For any sequence $(B_n \in \Sigma_A \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $B_n \cap B_m = \emptyset$ for every $n \neq m$, we know that $\cup_n B_n \in \Sigma$ and $\cup_n B_n \in \Sigma_A$ and

$$\mu_A\left(\bigcup_n B_n\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup_n B_n\right) = \sum_n \mu(B_n) = \sum_n \mu_A(B_n).$$

Consider the measure space (S, Σ, μ) and a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$. Consider also the measure space (A, Σ_A, μ_A) restricted to $A \in \Sigma$ and the function $f|_A : A \to \mathbb{R}$ restricted to A given by $f|_A(a) = f(a)$ for every $a \in A$. The function $f|_A$ is Σ_A-measurable because, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$(f|_A)^{-1}(B) = \{a \in A \mid f(a) \in B\} = \{s \in S \mid f(s) \in B\} \cap A = f^{-1}(B) \cap A.$$

Consider the measure space (S, Σ, μ), a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$, and a set $A \in \Sigma$. We will now show that $f|_A$ is μ_A-integrable if and only if $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is μ-integrable, in which case $\mu_A(f|_A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(f; A)$.

First, suppose $f = \mathbb{I}_B$ for some set $B \in \Sigma$. Clearly, $\mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(\mathbb{I}_B\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(\mathbb{I}_{B\cap A}) = \mu(B \cap A)$ and $\mu_A(f|_A) = \mu_A(\mathbb{I}_B|_A) = \mu_A(\mathbb{I}_{B\cap A}) = \mu_A(B \cap A)$. Because $B \cap A \subseteq A$, we have $\mu_A(B \cap A) = \mu(B \cap A)$, which implies $\mu_A(f|_A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A)$. Because $\mu(|f\mathbb{I}_A|) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f|_A) = \mu_A(|f|_A|)$, we know that $f|_A$ is μ_A-integrable if and only if $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is μ-integrable.

Next, suppose f is a simple function that can be written as $f = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}$ for some fixed $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m \in [0, \infty]$ and $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m \in \Sigma$. In that case, the integral with respect to μ of the function $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is given by

$$\mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}\mathbb{I}_A\right) = \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap A}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mu(A_k \cap A).$$

Furthermore, the integral of the function $f|_A$ with respect to μ_A is given by

$$\mu_A(f|_A) = \mu_A\left(\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}\right)\Bigg|_A\right) = \mu_A\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap A}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mu_A(\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap A}) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mu_A(A_k \cap A).$$

Because $A_k \cap A \subseteq A$ for every $k \leq m$, we have $\mu_A(A_k \cap A) = \mu(A_k \cap A)$, which implies $\mu_A(f|_A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A)$. Because $\mu(|f\mathbb{I}_A|) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f|_A) = \mu_A(|f|_A|)$, we know that $f|_A$ is μ_A-integrable if and only if $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is μ-integrable.

Next, suppose f is non-negative. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f_n = \alpha_n \circ f$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Because $(f_n\mathbb{I}_A \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of Σ-measurable functions such that $f_n\mathbb{I}_A \uparrow f\mathbb{I}_A$, we know that $\mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_A) \uparrow \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A)$. Because $(f_n|_A \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of Σ_A-measurable functions such that $f_n|_A \uparrow f|_A$, we know that $\mu_A(f_n|_A) \uparrow \mu_A(f|_A)$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the fact that f_n is a simple function implies $\mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f_n|_A)$. Therefore, $\mu_A(f_n|_A) \uparrow \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A)$, and $\mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_A) \uparrow \mu_A(f|_A)$, and $\mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f|_A)$. Because $\mu(|f\mathbb{I}_A|) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f|_A) = \mu_A(|f|_A|)$, we know that $f|_A$ is μ_A-integrable if and only if $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is μ-integrable.

Finally, suppose $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$. By definition,

$$\mu(|f\mathbb{I}_A|) = \mu((f\mathbb{I}_A)^+) + \mu((f\mathbb{I}_A)^-) = \mu(f^+\mathbb{I}_A) + \mu(f^-\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f^+|_A) + \mu_A(f^-|_A) = \mu_A((f|_A)^+) + \mu_A((f|_A)^-) = \mu(|f|_A|).$$

Therefore, $f|_A$ is μ_A-integrable if and only if $f\mathbb{I}_A$ is μ-integrable. In that case,

$$\mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu((f\mathbb{I}_A)^+) - \mu((f\mathbb{I}_A)^-) = \mu(f^+\mathbb{I}_A) - \mu(f^-\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f^+|_A) - \mu_A(f^-|_A) = \mu_A((f|_A)^+) - \mu_A((f|_A)^-) = \mu(f|_A).$$

Consider a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ and the function $(f\mu) : \Sigma \to [0, \infty]$ defined by

$$(f\mu)(A) = \mu(f; A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu_A(f|_A).$$

We will now show that $(f\mu)$ is a measure on (S, Σ). Clearly, $(f\mu)(\emptyset) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_\emptyset) = \mu(0) = 0$.

Consider a sequence $(B_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $B_n \cap B_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$. First, suppose f is a simple function that can be written as $f = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}$ for some fixed $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m \in [0, \infty]$ and $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m \in \Sigma$. In that case,

$$(f\mu)(\cup_n B_n) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_{\cup_n B_n}) = \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}\mathbb{I}_{\cup_n B_n}\right) = \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap(\cup_n B_n)}\right) = \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{\cup_n(A_k\cap B_n)}\right).$$

By the definition of integral with respect to μ of a simple function and countable additivity,

$$(f\mu)(\cup_n B_n) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mu\left(\cup_n(A_k \cap B_n)\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \sum_n \mu\left(A_k \cap B_n\right) = \sum_n \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mu\left(A_k \cap B_n\right).$$

By the definition of integral with respect to μ of a simple function,

$$(f\mu)(\cup_n B_n) = \sum_n \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap B_n}\right) = \sum_n \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}\mathbb{I}_{B_n}\right) = \sum_n \mu\left(f\mathbb{I}_{B_n}\right) = \sum_n (f\mu)(B_n).$$

Now suppose f is non-negative. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f_n = \alpha_n \circ f$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. For every set $B \in \Sigma$, we know that $(f_n\mathbb{I}_B : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of Σ-measurable functions such that $f_n\mathbb{I}_B \uparrow f\mathbb{I}_B$, which implies that $\mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_B) \uparrow \mu(f\mathbb{I}_B)$. Therefore,

$$(f\mu)(\cup_j B_j) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_{\cup_j B_j}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_{\cup_j B_j}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_j \mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_{B_j}) = \sum_j \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n\mathbb{I}_{B_j}) = \sum_j \mu(f\mathbb{I}_{B_j}) = \sum_j (f\mu)(B_j).$$

Consider a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ and the measure space $(S, \Sigma, (f\mu))$. By definition, the integral with respect to $(f\mu)$ of a Σ-measurable function $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$ over the set A is given by

$$(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = (f\mu)(h; A) = (h(f\mu))(A).$$

We will now show that $(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(fh\mathbb{I}_A)$.

First, suppose $h = \mathbb{I}_B$ for some set $B \in \Sigma$. In that case, the integral with respect to $(f\mu)$ of h over the set A is given by

$$(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = (f\mu)(\mathbb{I}_B\mathbb{I}_A) = (f\mu)(\mathbb{I}_{B\cap A}) = (f\mu)(B \cap A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_{B\cap A}) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_B\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(fh\mathbb{I}_A).$$

Next, suppose h is a simple function that can be written as $h = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}$ for some fixed $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m \in [0, \infty]$ and $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m \in \Sigma$. In that case, the integral with respect to $(f\mu)$ of h over the set A is given by

$$(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = (f\mu)\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}\mathbb{I}_A\right) = (f\mu)\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap A}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k(f\mu)(A_k \cap A) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mu(f\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap A}).$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ,

$$(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k f\mathbb{I}_{A_k\cap A}\right) = \mu\left(f\mathbb{I}_A \sum_{k=1}^m a_k\mathbb{I}_{A_k}\right) = \mu(fh\mathbb{I}_A).$$

Next, suppose h is non-negative. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $h_n = \alpha_n \circ h$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Because $(h_n\mathbb{I}_A : S \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of Σ-measurable functions such that $h_n\mathbb{I}_A \uparrow h\mathbb{I}_A$, we know that $(f\mu)(h_n\mathbb{I}_A) \uparrow (f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A)$. Furthermore, because $(fh_n\mathbb{I}_A : S \to [0,\infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of Σ-measurable functions such that $fh_n\mathbb{I}_A \uparrow fh\mathbb{I}_A$, we know that $\mu(fh_n\mathbb{I}_A) \uparrow \mu(fh\mathbb{I}_A)$. Therefore, the integral with respect to $(f\mu)$ of h over the set A is given by

$$(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = \lim_{n\to\infty} (f\mu)(h_n\mathbb{I}_A) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(fh_n\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(fh\mathbb{I}_A).$$

Finally, suppose $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$. By definition,

$$(f\mu)(|h\mathbb{I}_A|) = (f\mu)((h\mathbb{I}_A)^+) + (f\mu)((h\mathbb{I}_A)^-) = (f\mu)(h^+\mathbb{I}_A) + (f\mu)(h^-\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(fh^+\mathbb{I}_A) + \mu(fh^-\mathbb{I}_A)$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ,

$$(f\mu)(|h\mathbb{I}_A|) = \mu(fh^+\mathbb{I}_A + fh^-\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A(h^+ + h^-)) = \mu(f|h|\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(|fh\mathbb{I}_A|).$$

Therefore, $h\mathbb{I}_A$ is $(f\mu)$-integrable if and only if $fh\mathbb{I}_A$ is μ-integrable. In that case,

$$(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = (f\mu)((h\mathbb{I}_A)^+) - (f\mu)((h\mathbb{I}_A)^-) = (f\mu)(h^+\mathbb{I}_A) - (f\mu)(h^-\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(fh^+\mathbb{I}_A) - \mu(fh^-\mathbb{I}_A)$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ,

$$(f\mu)(h\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(fh^+\mathbb{I}_A - fh^-\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A(h^+ - h^-)) = \mu(fh\mathbb{I}_A).$$

Therefore, by considering integrals over the set S, if $f : S \to [0,\infty]$ and $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$ are Σ-measurable functions, then h is $(f\mu)$-measurable if and only if fh is μ-measurable, in which case $(f\mu)(h) = \mu(fh)$.

Consider a measure space (S,Σ,μ), a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0,\infty]$, and the measure $\lambda = (f\mu)$ on (S,Σ). We say that λ has density f relative to μ, which is denoted by $d\lambda/d\mu = f$.

For every $A \in \Sigma$, if $\mu(A) = 0$, we will now show that $\lambda(A) = (f\mu)(A) = \mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = 0$. The fact that $\{f\mathbb{I}_A \neq 0\} \subseteq A$ implies $\mu(\{f\mathbb{I}_A \neq 0\}) \leq \mu(A) = 0$. Because $f\mathbb{I}_A$ and 0 are Σ-measurable functions such that $\mu(\{f\mathbb{I}_A \neq 0\}) = 0$, we know that $\mu(f\mathbb{I}_A) = \mu(0) = 0$.

If μ and λ are σ-finite measures on (S,Σ) such that if $\mu(A) = 0$ then $\lambda(A) = 0$ for every $A \in \Sigma$, the Radon-Nykodým theorem states that $\lambda = (f\mu)$ for some Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0,\infty]$.

6 Expectation

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega,\mathcal{F},\mathbb{P})$. The expectation $\mathbb{E}(X)$ of a $\mathbb{P}$-integrable random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined as the integral of X with respect to the probability measure $\mathbb{P}$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \mathbb{P}(X) = \int_\Omega X d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega X(\omega)\mathbb{P}(d\omega).$$

The expectation $\mathbb{E}(X)$ of a non-negative random variable $X : \Omega \to [0,\infty]$ is also defined as the integral of X with respect to the probability measure $\mathbb{P}$.

Consider a sequence of random variables $(X_n : \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n = X\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid \lim_{n\to\infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}\right) = 1.$$

The integration results discussed in the previous section can be restated as follows:

- By the monotone-convergence theorem, if $X_n \geq 0$ and $X_n \leq X_{n+1}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X)$.
- By the Fatou lemma, if $X_n \geq 0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\mathbb{E}(X) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}[X_n]$.
- By the dominated convergence theorem, if there is a $\mathbb{P}$-integrable non-negative function $Y : \Omega \to [0,\infty]$ such that $|X_n| \leq Y$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then X is $\mathbb{P}$-integrable and $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mathbb{E}(X)$.
- By Scheffé's lemma, if X and X_n are $\mathbb{P}$-integrable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|) = 0$ if and only if $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n|) = \mathbb{E}(|X|)$.

As a special case of the dominated convergence theorem, the bounded convergence theorem guarantees that if there is a $K \in [0, \infty)$ such that $|X_n| \leq K$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|) = 0$. Note that the simple function $Y = K$ is $\mathbb{P}$-integrable, since $\mathbb{P}(|Y|) = \mathbb{P}(Y) = \mathbb{P}(K\mathbb{I}_\Omega) = K\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = K$. Therefore, X is $\mathbb{P}$-integrable and $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mathbb{E}(X)$. The dominated convergence theorem also guarantees that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|) = 0$.

The expectation $\mathbb{E}(X; F)$ of the $\mathbb{P}$-integrable random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ over the set $F \in \mathcal{F}$ is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}(X; F) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_F) = \mathbb{P}(X; F) = \mathbb{P}(X\mathbb{I}_F) = \int_F X d\mathbb{P} = \int_F X(\omega)\mathbb{P}(d\omega).$$

Consider a random variable $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and a $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable non-negative function $g : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ such that $a \leq b$ implies $g(a) \leq g(b)$. Recall that the function $g(Z) : \Omega \to [0, \infty]$ defined by $g(Z) = g \circ Z$ is also a random variable. For every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, Markov's inequality states that

$$\mathbb{E}(g(Z)) \geq g(c)\mathbb{P}(Z \geq c),$$

since $g(Z) \geq g(Z)\mathbb{I}_{\{Z\geq c\}} \geq g(c)\mathbb{I}_{\{Z\geq c\}}$ implies $\mathbb{E}(g(Z)) \geq \mathbb{E}(g(c)\mathbb{I}_{\{Z\geq c\}}) = g(c)\mathbb{P}(Z \geq c)$.

Consider a non-negative random variable $Z : \Omega \to [0, \infty]$ and let $g(c) = \max(c, 0)$. For $c \geq 0$, Markov's inequality implies that $\mathbb{E}(Z) \geq c\mathbb{P}(Z \geq c)$.

Consider a random variable $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and let $g(c) = e^{\theta c}$ for some $\theta > 0$. Markov's inequality implies that $\mathbb{E}(e^{\theta Z}) \geq e^{\theta c}\mathbb{P}(Z \geq c)$.

Consider a non-negative random variable $X : \Omega \to [0, \infty]$. If $\mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$, then $\mathbb{P}(X < \infty) = 1$. Note that $\infty\mathbb{I}_{\{X=\infty\}} \leq X$, such that $\infty\mathbb{P}(X = \infty) \leq \mathbb{E}(X)$. Therefore, $\mathbb{P}(X = \infty) > 0$ implies $\mathbb{E}[X] = \infty$.

Consider a sequence $(Z_n : \Omega \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ of non-negative random variables. We will now show that

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\sum_k Z_k\right) = \sum_k \mathbb{E}(Z_k).$$

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $Y_n = \sum_{k=0}^n Z_k$, such that $\mathbb{E}(Y_n) = \sum_{k=0}^n \mathbb{E}(Z_k)$. Clearly, $Y_n \geq 0$, $Y_n \leq Y_{n+1}$, and $\lim_{n\to\infty} Y_n = \sum_k Z_k$. Therefore, $Y_n \uparrow \sum_k Z_k$. By the monotone-convergence theorem, $\mathbb{E}(Y_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(\sum_k Z_k)$.

Consider a sequence $(Z_n : \Omega \to [0, \infty] \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ of non-negative random variables such that $\sum_k \mathbb{E}(Z_k) < \infty$. We will now show that $\sum_k Z_k < \infty$ almost surely and $\lim_{n\to\infty} Z_n = 0$ almost surely, where 0 denotes the zero function. Because $\mathbb{E}(\sum_k Z_k) < \infty$, we know that $\mathbb{P}(\sum_k Z_k < \infty) = 1$. Because the n-th term test implies that $\{\sum_k Z_k < \infty\} \subseteq \{\lim_{n\to\infty} Z_n = 0\}$, we know that $1 = \mathbb{P}(\sum_k Z_k < \infty) \leq \mathbb{P}(\lim_{n\to\infty} Z_n = 0)$.

Consider a sequence of events $(F_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(F_n) < \infty$. Let $(\mathbb{I}_{F_n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ be the corresponding sequence of indicator functions. Because $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_{F_k}) = \mathbb{P}(F_k)$, we know that $\sum_n \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_{F_n}) < \infty$, which implies $\sum_n \mathbb{I}_{F_n} < \infty$ almost surely. Because $\sum_n \mathbb{I}_{F_n}(\omega)$ is the number of times that the outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ belongs to an event in the sequence, we know that the outcome ω almost surely belongs to a finite number of events in the sequence, which implies that $\mathbb{P}(\limsup_{n\to\infty} F_n) = 0$. This is the Borel-Cantelli lemma.

A function $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex if $\lambda\phi(x) + (1-\lambda)\phi(y) \geq \phi(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $y \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. If $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex, it is also continuous and therefore $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable. Important examples of convex functions include $x \mapsto |x|$, $x \mapsto x^2$, and $x \mapsto e^{\theta x}$ for $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a convex function, for every $z \in \mathbb{R}$ there is a function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $g(x) = ax + b$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and some $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $g(z) = \phi(z)$ and $g(x) \leq \phi(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$. In other words, for every point in the domain of a convex function, there is a linear function that never surpasses the convex function such that the value of the linear function at that point matches the value of the convex function at that point.

Consider a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$ and a convex function $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. Jensen's inequality states that $\mathbb{E}(\phi(X)) \geq \phi(\mathbb{E}(X))$. We will now show this inequality.

Consider a function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $g(\mathbb{E}(X)) = \phi(\mathbb{E}(X))$ and $g(x) = ax + b \leq \phi(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Clearly $g(X) = g \circ X \leq \phi \circ X = \phi(X)$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(\phi(X)) \geq \mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \mathbb{E}[aX + b] = a\mathbb{E}(X) + b = g(\mathbb{E}(X)) = \phi(\mathbb{E}(X)).$$

For every $p \in [1, \infty)$, the set $\mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ contains exactly each random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbb{E}(|X|^p) < \infty$. If $X \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, the p-norm $\|X\|_p$ of the random variable X is given by $\|X\|_p = \mathbb{E}(|X|^p)^{1/p}$.

For every $p \in [1, \infty)$ and $r \in [1, \infty)$ such that $p \leq r$, we will now show that if $Y \in \mathcal{L}^r(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ then $Y \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $\|Y\|_p \leq \|Y\|_r$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the function $X_n = \min(|Y|, n)^p$. Clearly, $0 \leq X_n \leq n^p$, so $0 \leq \mathbb{E}(|X_n|) = \mathbb{E}(X_n) \leq n^p$. Consider also the convex function $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $\phi(x) = |x|^{r/p}$ such that

$\phi(X_n) = |X_n|^{r/p} = X_n^{r/p}$. Clearly, $0 \leq X_n^{r/p} = \min(|Y|, n)^r \leq n^r$, so $0 \leq \mathbb{E}(|X_n^{r/p}|) = \mathbb{E}(X_n^{r/p}) \leq n^r$. Using Jensen's inequality,

$$\mathbb{E}(X_n^{r/p}) = \mathbb{E}(\phi(X_n)) \geq \phi(\mathbb{E}(X_n)) = |\mathbb{E}(X_n)|^{r/p} = \mathbb{E}(X_n)^{r/p}.$$

Because $X_n^{r/p} \geq 0$ and $X_n^{r/p} \uparrow |Y|^r$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mathbb{E}(X_n^{r/p}) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(|Y|^r)$. Because $X_n \geq 0$ and $X_n \uparrow |Y|^p$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(|Y|^p)$. By taking the limit of both sides of the previous inequation,

$$\mathbb{E}(|Y|^r) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n^{r/p}) \geq \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n)^{r/p} = \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n) \right)^{r/p} = \mathbb{E}(|Y|^p)^{r/p}.$$

By taking the r-th root of both sides of the previous inequation,

$$\infty > \mathbb{E}(|Y|^r)^{1/r} \geq \mathbb{E}(|Y|^p)^{1/p}.$$

For every $p \in [1, \infty)$, we will now show that $\mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a vector space over the field $\mathbb{R}$. First, recall that the set of all functions from Ω to $\mathbb{R}$ is a vector space over the field $\mathbb{R}$ when scalar multiplication and addition are performed pointwise. Because such set includes $\mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, it is sufficient to show that $\mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is non-empty and closed under scalar multiplication and addition. Because $0 : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable and $\mathbb{E}(|0|^p) = \mathbb{E}(0) = 0$, we know that $0 \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. If $X \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $cX : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable and $\mathbb{E}(|cX|^p) = \mathbb{E}(|c|^p|X|^p) = |c|^p\mathbb{E}(|X|^p)$, we know that $cX \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Finally, if $X \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, then

$$|X + Y|^p \leq (|X| + |Y|)^p \leq (2 \max(|X|, |Y|)^p \leq 2^p(|X|^p + |Y|^p),$$

which implies $X + Y \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ since

$$\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^p) \leq \mathbb{E}(2^p(|X|^p + |Y|^p)) = 2^p\mathbb{E}(|X|^p) + 2^p\mathbb{E}(|Y|^p) < \infty.$$

Consider the random variables $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. The Schwarz inequality states that $XY \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $\mathbb{E}(|XY|) \leq \|X\|_2\|Y\|_2$. We will now show this inequality.

First, consider the case where $\|X\|_2 \neq 0$ and $\|Y\|_2 \neq 0$. Let $Z = |X|/\|X\|_2$ and $W = |Y|/\|Y\|_2$. Clearly, $\mathbb{E}(Z^2) = \mathbb{E}(|X|^2)/\|X\|_2^2 = 1$. Analogously, $\mathbb{E}(W^2) = 1$. Because $(Z - W)^2 \geq 0$, we know that

$$0 \leq \mathbb{E}((Z - W)^2) = \mathbb{E}(Z^2) + \mathbb{E}(W^2) - \mathbb{E}(2ZW) = 2 - \mathbb{E}(2ZW).$$

Because the previous inequation implies that $\mathbb{E}(ZW) \leq 1$,

$$1 \geq \mathbb{E}(ZW) = \mathbb{E}(|X||Y|/\|X\|_2\|Y\|_2) = \mathbb{E}(|XY|)/\|X\|_2\|Y\|_2.$$

Using the fact that $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$,

$$\mathbb{E}(|XY|) \leq \|X\|_2\|Y\|_2 < \infty.$$

Finally, consider the case where $\|X\|_2 = \mathbb{E}(X^2)^{1/2} = 0$, which will prove analogous to the case where $\|Y\|_2 = 0$. Because X^2 is a non-negative random variable, the fact that $\mathbb{E}(X^2) = 0$ implies that $\mathbb{P}(X^2 > 0) = \mathbb{P}(X \neq 0) = 0$. Therefore, $\mathbb{P}(X = 0) = 1$. Because $\{X = 0\} \subseteq \{XY = 0\}$, we know that $\mathbb{P}(X = 0) \leq \mathbb{P}(XY = 0)$, which implies $\mathbb{P}(XY = 0) = \mathbb{P}(|XY| = 0) = 1$. Because $\{|XY| = 0\}$ happens almost surely, we know that $\mathbb{E}(|XY|) = \mathbb{E}(0) = 0$. Therefore, $XY \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $0 = \mathbb{E}(|XY|) \leq \|X\|_2\|Y\|_2 = 0$.

Consider the random variables $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Because $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$, we know that $X + Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. We will now show that $\|X + Y\|_2 \leq \|X\|_2 + \|Y\|_2$.

Since $|X + Y| \leq |X| + |Y|$, we know that $|X + Y|^2 \leq (|X| + |Y|)^2 = |X|^2 + 2|X||Y| + |Y|^2$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^2) \leq \mathbb{E}(|X|^2) + 2\mathbb{E}(|X||Y|) + \mathbb{E}(|Y|^2) = \mathbb{E}(|X|^2) + 2\mathbb{E}(|XY|) + \mathbb{E}(|Y|^2).$$

Using the Schwarz inequality,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^2) \leq \mathbb{E}(|X|^2) + 2\|X\|_2\|Y\|_2 + \mathbb{E}(|Y|^2) = (\|X\|_2 + \|Y\|_2)^2$$

By taking the square root of both sides,

$$\|X + Y\|_2 = \mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^2)^{1/2} \leq \|X\|_2 + \|Y\|_2.$$

Consider the random variables $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Recall that $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Let $\mu_X = \mathbb{E}(X)$ and $\mu_Y = \mathbb{E}(Y)$. Because $(X - \mu_X) \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $(Y - \mu_Y) \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, we know that $(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. The covariance $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ between X and Y is defined by

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)) = \mathbb{E}(XY) - \mathbb{E}(X\mu_Y) - \mathbb{E}(Y\mu_X) + \mathbb{E}(\mu_X\mu_Y) = \mathbb{E}(XY) - \mu_X\mu_Y.$$

Consider the random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. The variance $\text{Var}(X)$ of X is defined by

$$\text{Var}(X) = \text{Cov}(X, X) = \mathbb{E}((X - \mu_X)^2) = \mathbb{E}(X^2) - \mu_X^2.$$

Consider the random variables $U \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. The inner product $\langle U, V\rangle$ between U and V is given by $\langle U, V\rangle = \mathbb{E}(UV)$. If $\|U\|_2 \neq 0$ and $\|V\|_2 \neq 0$, the cosine of the angle θ between U and V is defined as

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\langle U, V\rangle}{\|U\|_2\|V\|_2}.$$

Because $|\langle U, V\rangle| = |\mathbb{E}(UV)| \leq \mathbb{E}(|UV|) \leq \|U\|_2\|V\|_2$, we know that $|\cos\theta| \leq 1$.

Consider the random variables $U, V, W, Z \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Note the following properties of the inner product:

- $\langle U, U\rangle = \mathbb{E}(U^2) = \|U\|_2^2$.
- $\langle U, V\rangle = \mathbb{E}(UV) = \mathbb{E}(VU) = \langle V, U\rangle$.
- $\langle aU, V\rangle = \mathbb{E}(aUV) = a\mathbb{E}(UV) = a\langle U, V\rangle$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $\langle U, aV\rangle = \mathbb{E}(UaV) = a\mathbb{E}(UV) = a\langle U, V\rangle$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $\langle U + V, W\rangle = \mathbb{E}((U + V)W) = \mathbb{E}(UW + VW) = \langle U, W\rangle + \langle V, W\rangle$.
- $\langle U, V + W\rangle = \mathbb{E}(U(V + W)) = \mathbb{E}(UV + UW) = \langle U, V\rangle + \langle U, W\rangle$.
- $\langle U + V, W + Z\rangle = \langle U, W + Z\rangle + \langle V, W + Z\rangle = \langle U, W\rangle + \langle U, Z\rangle + \langle V, W\rangle + \langle V, Z\rangle$.

Consider the random variables $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Let $\mu_X = \mathbb{E}(X)$ and $\mu_Y = \mathbb{E}(Y)$. The correlation ρ between X and Y is defined as the cosine of the angle between $X - \mu_X$ and $Y - \mu_Y$, which is given by

$$\rho = \frac{\langle X - \mu_X, Y - \mu_Y\rangle}{\|X - \mu_X\|_2\|Y - \mu_Y\|_2} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\,\text{Var}(Y)}}.$$

Consider the random variables $U \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Because $U + V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$,

$$\|U + V\|_2^2 = \mathbb{E}(|U + V|^2) = \mathbb{E}((U + V)^2) = \mathbb{E}(U^2) + 2\mathbb{E}(UV) + \mathbb{E}(V^2) = \|U\|_2^2 + \|V\|_2^2 + 2\langle U, V\rangle.$$

When $\langle U, V\rangle = 0$, we say that U and V are orthogonal, which is denoted by $U \perp V$. In that case,

$$\|U + V\|_2^2 = \|U\|_2^2 + \|V\|_2^2.$$

Consider the random variables $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Note that $X + Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \mathbb{E}((X + Y)^2) - \mathbb{E}(X + Y)^2 = \mathbb{E}(X^2 + 2XY + Y^2) - (\mathbb{E}(X)^2 + 2\mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y) + \mathbb{E}(Y)^2).$$

By the linearity of expectation and reorganizing terms,

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\,\text{Cov}(X, Y).$$

Therefore, if $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$, then $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$.

More generally, if $X_1, \ldots, X_n \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, then

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \text{Var}(X_k) + 2\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j).$$

Consider the random variables $U \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. The parallelogram law states that

$$\|U + V\|_2^2 + \|U - V\|_2^2 = 2\|U\|_2^2 + 2\|V\|_2^2.$$

We will now show this law. Using the relationship between the inner product and the 2-norm,

$$\|U+V\|_2^2 + \|U-V\|_2^2 = \langle U+V, U+V\rangle + \langle U-V, U-V\rangle.$$

By the bilinearity of the inner product,

$$\|U+V\|_2^2 + \|U-V\|_2^2 = \langle U,U\rangle + \langle U,V\rangle + \langle V,U\rangle + \langle V,V\rangle + \langle U,U\rangle + \langle U,-V\rangle + \langle -V,U\rangle + \langle -V,-V\rangle.$$

By cancelling terms,

$$\|U+V\|_2^2 + \|U-V\|_2^2 = 2\langle U,U\rangle + 2\langle V,V\rangle = 2\|U\|_2^2 + 2\|V\|_2^2.$$

For some $p \in [1,\infty)$, consider a sequence of random variables $(X_n \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega,\mathcal{F},\mathbb{P}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} \sup_{r,s\geq k} \|X_r - X_s\|_p = 0.$$

We will now show that there is a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega,\mathcal{F},\mathbb{P})$ such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \|X_n - X\|_p = 0.$$

By definition, for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $k \geq N$ implies $\sup_{r,s\geq k} \|X_r - X_s\|_p < \epsilon$. Therefore, there is a sequence $(k_n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $k_{n+1} \geq k_n$ and $\sup_{r,s\geq k_n} \|X_r - X_s\|_p < 1/2^n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the monotonicity of the norm implies that

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}|) = \|X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}\|_1 \leq \|X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}\|_p < \frac{1}{2^n}.$$

Because $|X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}|$ is a non-negative random variable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\sum_n \mathbb{E}(|X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}|) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_n |X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}|\right) \leq \sum_n \frac{1}{2^n} < \infty.$$

Because the expectation above is finite,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\sum_n |X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}| < \infty\right) = 1.$$

Suppose $\sum_n |X_{k_{n+1}}(\omega) - X_{k_n}(\omega)| < \infty$ for some $\omega \in \Omega$. For every $\epsilon > 0$, the Cauchy test guarantees that there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $j > i > N$ implies

$$\left|\sum_{n=i}^{j} |X_{k_{n+1}}(\omega) - X_{k_n}(\omega)|\right| = \sum_{n=i}^{j} |X_{k_{n+1}}(\omega) - X_{k_n}(\omega)| < \epsilon.$$

Furthermore, for every $j > i$,

$$|X_{k_j}(\omega) - X_{k_i}(\omega)| = \left|X_{k_j}(\omega) - X_{k_i}(\omega) + \sum_{n=i+1}^{j-1} X_{k_n}(\omega) - \sum_{n=i+1}^{j-1} X_{k_n}(\omega)\right| = \left|\sum_{n=i+1}^{j} X_{k_n}(\omega) - \sum_{n=i}^{j-1} X_{k_n}(\omega)\right|.$$

By shifting indices and using the triangle inequality, for $j > i > N$,

$$|X_{k_j}(\omega) - X_{k_i}(\omega)| = \left|\sum_{n=i}^{j-1} X_{k_{n+1}}(\omega) - X_{k_n}(\omega)\right| \leq \sum_{n=i}^{j-1} \left|X_{k_{n+1}}(\omega) - X_{k_n}(\omega)\right| < \epsilon.$$

For $j = i > N$, note that $|X_{k_j}(\omega) - X_{k_i}(\omega)| = 0 < \epsilon$. Therefore, for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $j > N$ and $i > N$ implies $|X_{k_j}(\omega) - X_{k_i}(\omega)| < \epsilon$, such that $(X_{k_n}(\omega) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a Cauchy sequence of real numbers.

Because every Cauchy sequence of real numbers converges to a real number, consider the random variable $X = \limsup_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n}$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n}(\omega) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n}(\omega) = X(\omega)$.

Since $\{\sum_n |X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}| < \infty\} \subseteq \{\lim_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n} = X\}$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n} = X\right) \geq \mathbb{P}\left(\sum_n |X_{k_{n+1}} - X_{k_n}| < \infty\right) = 1.$$

Suppose $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n}(\omega) = X(\omega)$ for some $\omega \in \Omega$. For every $r \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\left|\lim_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n}(\omega) - X_r(\omega)\right|^p = \lim_{n\to\infty} |X_{k_n}(\omega) - X_r(\omega)|^p = |X(\omega) - X_r(\omega)|^p.$$

Because $\{\lim_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n} = X\} \subseteq \{\lim_{n\to\infty} |X_{k_n} - X_r|^p = |X - X_r|^p\}$ for every $r \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} |X_{k_n} - X_r|^p = |X - X_r|^p\right) \geq \mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} X_{k_n} = X\right) = 1.$$

Because $|X_{k_n} - X_r|^p \geq 0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, by the Fatou lemma,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X - X_r|^p) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_{k_n} - X_r|^p).$$

For any $t \in \mathbb{N}$, suppose $r \geq k_t$ and recall that $k_n \geq k_t$ whenever $n \geq t$. In that case,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_{k_n} - X_r|^p) = \|X_{k_n} - X_r\|_p^p < \frac{1}{2^{tp}}.$$

For any $\epsilon > 0$, choose $t \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $1/2^{tp} < \epsilon$. In that case, for any $r \geq k_t$,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X - X_r|^p) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_{k_n} - X_r|^p) \leq \frac{1}{2^{tp}} < \epsilon.$$

Because $\mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a vector space over the field $\mathbb{R}$, the fact that $(X - X_r) \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $X_r \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ implies that $X \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. The previous inequality also shows that

$$\lim_{r\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(|X - X_r|^p) = \lim_{r\to\infty} \|X - X_r\|_p^p = 0.$$

A vector space $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is said to be complete if for every sequence $(V_n \in \mathcal{K} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} \sup_{r,s\geq k} \|V_r - V_s\|_p = 0$$

there is a $V \in \mathcal{K}$ such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \|V_n - V\|_p = 0.$$

We will now show that if the vector space $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is complete, then for every $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ there is a so-called version $Y \in \mathcal{K}$ of the orthogonal projection of X onto $\mathcal{K}$ such that $\|X - Y\|_2 = \inf\{\|X - W\|_2 \mid W \in \mathcal{K}\}$ and $X - Y \perp Z$ for every $Z \in \mathcal{K}$. Furthermore, if Y and $\tilde{Y}$ are versions of the orthogonal projection of X onto $\mathcal{K}$, then $\mathbb{P}(Y = \tilde{Y}) = 1$.

For some $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, let $\Delta = \inf\{\|X - W\|_2 \mid W \in \mathcal{K}\}$. First, we will show that it is possible to choose a sequence $(Y_n \in \mathcal{K} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \|X - Y_n\|_2 = \Delta$. Recall that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $W \in \mathcal{K}$ such that $\|X - W\|_2 < \Delta + \epsilon$. Choose Y_n such that $\|X - Y_n\| < \Delta + \frac{1}{n+1}$. For every $\epsilon > 0$, there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n \geq N$ implies that $\|X - Y_n\|_2 < \Delta + \epsilon$, which is equivalent to $|\|X - Y_n\|_2 - \Delta| < \epsilon$ since $\Delta \leq \|X - Y_n\|_2$.

Let $U = X - \frac{1}{2}(Y_r + Y_s)$ and $V = \frac{1}{2}(Y_r - Y_s)$ such that $U + V = X - Y_s$ and $U - V = X - Y_r$. Because $U \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, the parallelogram law guarantees that

$$\|X - Y_s\|_2^2 + \|X - Y_r\|_2^2 = 2\left\|X - \frac{1}{2}(Y_r + Y_s)\right\|_2^2 + 2\left\|\frac{1}{2}(Y_r - Y_s)\right\|_2^2.$$

Therefore,

$$2\left\|\frac{1}{2}(Y_r - Y_s)\right\|_2^2 = 2\left\langle\frac{1}{2}(Y_r - Y_s), \frac{1}{2}(Y_r - Y_s)\right\rangle = \|X - Y_s\|_2^2 + \|X - Y_r\|_2^2 - 2\left\|X - \frac{1}{2}(Y_r + Y_s)\right\|_2^2.$$

Using properties of the inner product and reorganizing terms,

$$\|Y_r - Y_s\|_2^2 = 2\|X - Y_s\|_2^2 + 2\|X - Y_r\|_2^2 - 4\left\|X - \frac{1}{2}(Y_r + Y_s)\right\|_2^2.$$

Because $(Y_r + Y_s)/2 \in \mathcal{K}$, we know that $\|X - (Y_r + Y_s)/2\|_2^2 \geq \Delta^2$. Therefore,

$$\|Y_r - Y_s\|_2^2 \leq 2\|X - Y_s\|_2^2 + 2\|X - Y_r\|_2^2 - 4\Delta^2.$$

For every $\epsilon > 0$, since $\lim_{n\to\infty} \|X - Y_n\|_2^2 = \Delta^2$, there is a k such that $n \geq k$ implies $|\|X - Y_n\|_2^2 - \Delta^2| < \frac{\epsilon}{4}$, which is equivalent to $\|X - Y_n\|_2^2 < \frac{\epsilon}{4} + \Delta^2$. Therefore, whenever $r, s \geq k$,

$$\|Y_r - Y_s\|_2^2 \leq 2\|X - Y_s\|_2^2 + 2\|X - Y_r\|_2^2 - 4\Delta^2 < 2\left(\frac{\epsilon}{4} + \Delta^2\right) + 2\left(\frac{\epsilon}{4} + \Delta^2\right) - 4\Delta^2 = \epsilon,$$

which implies

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} \sup_{r,s\geq k} \|Y_r - Y_s\|_2 = 0.$$

Because $\mathcal{K}$ is complete, there is an $Y \in \mathcal{K}$ such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \|Y_n - Y\|_2 = 0.$$

Let $U = X - Y_n$ and $V = Y_n - Y$ such that $U + V = X - Y$. Because $U \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$,

$$\Delta \leq \|X - Y\|_2 \leq \|X - Y_n\|_2 + \|Y_n - Y\|_2.$$

Using the squeeze theorem when $n \to \infty$ shows that $\|X - Y\|_2 = \Delta = \inf\{\|X - W\|_2 \mid W \in \mathcal{K}\}$.

For some $Z \in \mathcal{K}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$, let $U = X - Y$ and $V = -tZ$ such that $U + V = X - Y - tZ$. Because $U \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and considering the bilinearity of the inner product,

$$\|X - Y - tZ\|_2^2 = \|X - Y\|_2^2 + \| - tZ\|_2^2 + 2\langle X - Y, -tZ\rangle = \|X - Y\|_2^2 + t^2\|Z\|_2^2 - 2t\langle X - Y, Z\rangle.$$

Because $(Y + tZ) \in \mathcal{K}$, we know that $\|X - Y\|_2^2 \leq \|X - (Y + tZ)\|_2^2$. Therefore, for every $Z \in \mathcal{K}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$t^2\|Z\|_2^2 \geq 2t\langle X - Y, Z\rangle.$$

We will now show that the previous inequation can only be true for every $Z \in \mathcal{K}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$ if $\langle X - Y, Z\rangle = 0$ for every $Z \in \mathcal{K}$, which implies $X - Y \perp Z$ for every $Z \in \mathcal{K}$.

In order to find a contradiction, suppose that $\langle X - Y, Z\rangle \neq 0$ for some $Z \in \mathcal{K}$. Because $(X - Y) \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Z \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, the Schwarz inequality implies that

$$\|X - Y\|_2\|Z\|_2 \geq \mathbb{E}(|(X - Y)Z|) \geq |\mathbb{E}((X - Y)Z)| \geq 0.$$

Clearly, $|\mathbb{E}((X-Y)Z)| = 0$ when $\|Z\|_2 = 0$, which implies $\mathbb{E}((X-Y)Z) = \langle X-Y, Z\rangle = 0$. Therefore, we can suppose that $\|Z\|_2 > 0$. If $\langle X - Y, Z\rangle > 0$, then choose a $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $0 < t < 2\langle X - Y, Z\rangle/\|Z\|_2^2$. If $\langle X - Y, Z\rangle < 0$, then choose a $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $2\langle X - Y, Z\rangle/\|Z\|_2^2 < t < 0$. In either case, $t^2\|Z\|_2^2 < 2t\langle X - Y, Z\rangle$, which is a contradiction.

Suppose that Y and $\tilde{Y}$ are versions of the orthogonal projection of X onto $\mathcal{K}$. Because $(\tilde{Y} - Y) \in \mathcal{K}$,

$$\langle X - Y, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle = \langle X - \tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle = 0.$$

By the bilinearity of the inner product,

$$\langle X, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle + \langle -Y, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle - \langle X, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle - \langle -\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle = \langle -Y, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle - \langle -\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle = \langle \tilde{Y} - Y, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle = 0$$

Because $\langle \tilde{Y} - Y, \tilde{Y} - Y\rangle = \mathbb{E}((\tilde{Y} - Y)^2) = 0$ and $(\tilde{Y} - Y)^2$ is a non-negative random variable, we know that $\mathbb{P}((\tilde{Y} - Y)^2 \neq 0) = 0$, which implies that $\mathbb{P}(\tilde{Y} = Y) = 1$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Recall that $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \Lambda_X)$ is also a probability triple, where $\Lambda_X : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \to [0, 1]$ is the law of X given by $\Lambda_X(B) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B))$ for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. We will now show that if $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Borel function, then $(h \circ X) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ if and only if $h \in \mathcal{L}^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \Lambda_X)$. Furthermore, in that case,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X) \; d\mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P}(h \circ X) = \Lambda_X(h) = \int_\mathbb{R} h \; d\Lambda_X.$$

First, suppose $h = \mathbb{I}_B$ for some $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. For every $\omega \in \Omega$,

$$(h \circ X)(\omega) = \mathbb{I}_B(X(\omega)) = \mathbb{I}_{X^{-1}(B)}(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } X(\omega) \in B, \\ 0, & \text{if } X(\omega) \notin B. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, $\mathbb{P}(h \circ X) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{I}_{X^{-1}(B)}) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B)) = \Lambda_X(B) = \Lambda_X(\mathbb{I}_B) = \Lambda_X(h) < \infty$. Because h is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable and $(h \circ X)$ is $\mathcal{F}$-measurable, this step is complete.

Next, suppose h is a simple function that can be written as $h = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k}$ for some fixed $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m \in [0, \infty]$ and $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. For every $\omega \in \Omega$,

$$(h \circ X)(\omega) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k}(X(\omega)) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{I}_{X^{-1}(A_k)}(\omega).$$

Therefore, $\mathbb{P}(h \circ X) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(A_k)) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \Lambda_X(A_k) = \Lambda_X(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k}) = \Lambda_X(h)$. Because h is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable and $(h \circ X)$ is $\mathcal{F}$-measurable, this step is complete since $\Lambda_X(h) < \infty$ if and only if $\mathbb{P}(h \circ X) < \infty$.

Next, suppose h is a non-negative Borel function. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the simple function $h_n = \alpha_n \circ h$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Because $h_n \uparrow h$, the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\Lambda_X(h_n) \uparrow \Lambda_X(h)$. Similarly, consider the simple function $\alpha_n \circ (h \circ X) = (\alpha_n \circ h) \circ X = h_n \circ X$. Because $(h_n \circ X) \uparrow (h \circ X)$, the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\mathbb{P}(h_n \circ X) \uparrow \mathbb{P}(h \circ X)$. Because our previous result implies that $\mathbb{P}(h_n \circ X) = \Lambda_X(h_n)$, the limit when $n \to \infty$ shows that $\mathbb{P}(h \circ X) = \Lambda_X(h)$. Because h is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable and $(h \circ X)$ is $\mathcal{F}$-measurable, this step is complete since $\Lambda_X(h) < \infty$ if and only if $\mathbb{P}(h \circ X) < \infty$.

Finally, suppose h is a Borel function. Recall that $h = h^+ - h^-$, where h^+ and h^- are non-negative Borel functions. Therefore, if either $\mathbb{P}(|h \circ X|) < \infty$ or $\Lambda_X(|h|) < \infty$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(h \circ X) = \mathbb{P}((h \circ X)^+) - \mathbb{P}((h \circ X)^-) = \mathbb{P}(h^+ \circ X) - \mathbb{P}(h^- \circ X) = \Lambda_X(h^+) - \Lambda_X(h^-) = \Lambda_X(h) < \infty,$$

where the second equality follows from associativity. Because h is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable and $(h \circ X)$ is $\mathcal{F}$-measurable, this completes the proof, since $\mathbb{P}(|h \circ X|) = \Lambda_X(|h|) = \infty$ implies $(h \circ X) \notin \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $h \notin \mathcal{L}^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \Lambda_X)$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. A random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ has a probability density function f_X if $f_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ is a Borel function such that the law Λ_X of X is given by

$$\Lambda_X(B) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B)) = \text{Leb}(f_X; B) = \text{Leb}(f_X \mathbb{I}_B) = \int_B f_X \; d\,\text{Leb},$$

for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, where Leb is the Lebesgue measure on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$.

In that case, since $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \text{Leb})$ is a measure space and $f_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable, recall that the measure $(f_X \,\text{Leb})$ on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ is given by $(f_X \,\text{Leb})(B) = \text{Leb}(f_X; B)$ for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, so that $\Lambda_X = (f_X \,\text{Leb})$. Therefore, using the terminology introduced in the previous section, the law Λ_X of X has density f_X relative to the Lebesgue measure Leb, which is denoted by

$$\frac{d\Lambda_X}{d\,\text{Leb}} = f_X.$$

Consider a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ that has a probability density function $f_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$. Furthermore, consider a Borel function $g_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ such that $\text{Leb}(\{f_X \neq g_X\}) = 0$. Because these two functions are non-negative and $\text{Leb}(\{f_X \mathbb{I}_B \neq g_X \mathbb{I}_B\}) = 0$, we know that $\text{Leb}(f_X \mathbb{I}_B) = \text{Leb}(g_X \mathbb{I}_B)$, which implies that the random variable X also has a probability density function g_X.

Consider a measure space (S, Σ, μ), a Σ-measurable function $f : S \to [0, \infty]$, and the measure $\lambda = (f\mu)$ on (S, Σ). Recall that we say that λ has density f relative to μ, which is denoted by $d\lambda/d\mu = f$. We will now show that if $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Σ-measurable function, then $h \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \lambda)$ if and only if $hf \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$. Furthermore, in that case,

$$\int_S h \; d\lambda = \lambda(h) = \mu(hf) = \int_S hf \; d\mu.$$

First, note that if h is Σ-measurable then hf is also Σ-measurable.

Next, let $h = \mathbb{I}_A$ for some $A \in \Sigma$. In that case, $\mu(hf) = \mu(\mathbb{I}_A f) = \mu(f; A) = \lambda(A) = \lambda(\mathbb{I}_A) = \lambda(h)$. This step is complete since $\mu(|hf|) < \infty$ if and only if $\lambda(|h|) < \infty$.

Next, suppose h is a simple function that can be written as $h = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k}$ for some fixed $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m \in [0, \infty]$ and $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m \in \Sigma$. By the linearity of the integral and considering the previous step,

$$\mu(hf) = \mu\left(\sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k} f\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \mu(\mathbb{I}_{A_k} f) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \lambda(\mathbb{I}_{A_k}) = \lambda\left(\sum_{k=1}^{m} a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k}\right) = \lambda(h).$$

This step is complete since $\mu(|hf|) < \infty$ if and only if $\lambda(|h|) < \infty$.

Next, suppose h is a non-negative Σ-measurable function. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the simple function $h_n = \alpha_n \circ h$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Because $h_n \uparrow h$, the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\lambda(h_n) \uparrow \lambda(h)$. Similarly, because $h_n f \uparrow hf$, the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\mu(h_n f) \uparrow \mu(hf)$. Because our previous result implies that $\lambda(h_n) = \mu(h_n f)$, the limit when $n \to \infty$ shows that $\mu(hf) = \lambda(h)$. This step is complete since $\mu(|hf|) < \infty$ if and only if $\lambda(|h|) < \infty$.

Finally, suppose $h : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Σ-measurable function. Recall that $h = h^+ - h^-$, where h^+ and h^- are non-negative Σ-measurable functions. If either $\lambda(|h|) < \infty$ or $\mu(|hf|) < \infty$, then

$$\mu(hf) = \mu((h^+ - h^-)f) = \mu(h^+ f) - \mu(h^- f) = \lambda(h^+) - \lambda(h^-) = \lambda(h) < \infty.$$

Since $\lambda(|h|) = \mu(|hf|) = \infty$ implies $h \notin \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \lambda)$ and $hf \notin \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$, the proof is complete.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ with a probability density function $f_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$. Recall that the law $\Lambda_X = (f_X \,\mathrm{Leb})$ of X has density f_X relative to Leb, which is denoted by $d\Lambda_X / d\,\mathrm{Leb} = f_X$. If $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Borel function, the fact that $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \mathrm{Leb})$ is a measure space implies that $h \in \mathcal{L}^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \Lambda_X)$ if and only if $hf_X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \mathrm{Leb})$. Furthermore, in that case,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} h \, d\Lambda_X = \Lambda_X(h) = \mathrm{Leb}(hf_X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} hf_X \, d\,\mathrm{Leb}.$$

Consider a measure space (S, Σ, μ). For every $p \in [1, \infty)$, the set $\mathcal{L}^p(S, \Sigma, \mu)$ contains exactly each Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mu(|f|^p) < \infty$. If $f \in \mathcal{L}^p(S, \Sigma, \mu)$, the p-norm $\|f\|_p$ of the function f is given by $\|f\|_p = \mu(|f|^p)^{1/p}$.

Suppose that $p > 1$ and $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$. Furthermore, suppose $f, g \in \mathcal{L}^p(S, \Sigma, \mu)$ and $h \in \mathcal{L}^q(S, \Sigma, \mu)$. Hölder's inequality states that $fh \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$ and $\mu(|fh|) \leq \|f\|_p \|h\|_q$. Minkowski's inequality states that $\|f + g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p$. We will now show these inequalities.

First, note that $fh \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$ and $\mu(|fh|) \leq \|f\|_p \|h\|_q$ if and only if $|f||h| \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$ and $\mu(||f||h||) \leq \||f|\|_p \||h|\|_q$. Therefore, we only need to consider the case where f and h are non-negative. In that case, if $\mu(f^p) = 0$, then $0 = \mu(\{f^p > 0\}) = \mu(\{f \neq 0\}) \geq \mu(\{fh \neq 0\})$ and $\mu(fh) = 0$, so that Hölder's inequality is trivial.

Consider the case where f and h are non-negative and $0 < \mu(f^p) < \infty$. Let $\mathbb{P} : \Sigma \to [0, 1]$ be given by

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{(f^p \mu)(A)}{\mu(f^p)} = \frac{\mu(f^p; A)}{\mu(f^p)} = \frac{\mu(f^p \mathbb{I}_A)}{\mu(f^p)} = \mu\left(\frac{f^p}{\mu(f^p)} \mathbb{I}_A\right) = \mu\left(\frac{f^p}{\mu(f^p)}; A\right).$$

The function $\mathbb{P}$ is a probability measure on (S, Σ). Clearly, $\mathbb{P}(S) = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$. Because $(f^p \mu)$ is a measure on (S, Σ), for any sequence $(A_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $A_n \cap A_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) = \frac{(f^p \mu)(\cup_n A_n)}{\mu(f^p)} = \frac{\sum_n (f^p \mu)(A_n)}{\mu(f^p)} = \sum_n \frac{(f^p \mu)(A_n)}{\mu(f^p)} = \sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n).$$

Note that the probability measure $\mathbb{P}$ has density $f^p / \mu(f^p)$ relative to μ, so that $d\mathbb{P}/d\mu = f^p / \mu(f^p)$. Therefore, if $v : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Σ-measurable function, then $v \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mathbb{P})$ if and only if $vf^p / \mu(f^p) \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$. In that case,

$$\int_S v \, d\mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P}(v) = \mu\left(\frac{vf^p}{\mu(f^p)}\right) = \int_S \frac{vf^p}{\mu(f^p)} \, d\mu.$$

Consider the Σ-measurable function $u : S \to [0, \infty]$ given by

$$u(s) = \begin{cases} \frac{h(s)}{f(s)^{p-1}}, & \text{if } f(s) > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } f(s) = 0. \end{cases}$$

By inspecting the pointwise definition of uf^p,

$$\mathbb{P}(u) = \mu\left(\frac{uf^p}{\mu(f^p)}\right) = \frac{\mu\left(uf^p\right)}{\mu(f^p)} = \frac{\mu(hf)}{\mu(f^p)}.$$

Similarly, by inspecting the pointwise definition of $u^q f^p$ and using the fact that $q(p-1) = p$,

$$\mathbb{P}(u^q) = \mu\left(\frac{u^q f^p}{\mu(f^p)}\right) = \frac{\mu\left(u^q f^p\right)}{\mu(f^p)} = \frac{\mu(h^q \mathbb{I}_{\{f>0\}})}{\mu(f^p)}.$$

Suppose $\mathbb{P}(u) = \infty$. In that case, $\mathbb{P}(u) = \mathbb{P}(u\mathbb{I}_{\{u<1\}}) + \mathbb{P}(u\mathbb{I}_{\{u\geq 1\}}) = \infty$. The fact that $\mathbb{P}(u\mathbb{I}_{\{u<1\}}) \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{I}_{\{u<1\}}) = \mathbb{P}(\{u < 1\}) \leq 1$ implies that $\mathbb{P}(u\mathbb{I}_{\{u\geq 1\}}) = \infty$. Consequently, $\mathbb{P}(u^q) \geq \mathbb{P}(u^q\mathbb{I}_{\{u\geq 1\}}) \geq \mathbb{P}(u\mathbb{I}_{\{u\geq 1\}}) = \infty$, so that $\mathbb{P}(u^q) \geq \mathbb{P}(u)^q$. In contrast, suppose $\mathbb{P}(u) < \infty$. Consider the convex function $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $\phi(x) = |x|^q$. Jensen's inequality also guarantees that $\mathbb{P}(u^q) \geq \mathbb{P}(u)^q$. Therefore,

$$\frac{\mu(h^q \mathbb{I}_{\{f>0\}})}{\mu(f^p)} \geq \frac{\mu(hf)^q}{\mu(f^p)^q}.$$

By multiplying both sides of the previous inequality by $\mu(f^p)^q$,

$$\mu(h^q \mathbb{I}_{\{f>0\}})\frac{\mu(f^p)^q}{\mu(f^p)} = \mu(h^q \mathbb{I}_{\{f>0\}})\mu(f^p)^{q-1} \geq \mu(hf)^q.$$

Because $\mu(h^q) \geq \mu(h^q \mathbb{I}_{\{f>0\}})$,

$$\mu(h^q)\mu(f^p)^{q-1} \geq \mu(hf)^q.$$

From the definition of norm and using the fact that $p(q-1) = q$,

$$\|h\|_q^q \|f\|_p^q \geq \mu(hf)^q,$$

which completes the proof of Hölder's inequality.

In order to show Minkowski's inequality, recall that $|f + g| \leq |f| + |g|$. Therefore,

$$|f + g|^p = |f + g||f + g|^{p-1} \leq |f||f + g|^{p-1} + |g||f + g|^{p-1}.$$

By integrating both sides of the previous inequality with respect to μ and employing Hölder's inequality,

$$\mu(|f + g|^p) \leq \mu(|f||f + g|^{p-1}) + \mu(|g||f + g|^{p-1}) \leq \|f\|_p \||f + g|^{p-1}\|_q + \|g\|_p \||f + g|^{p-1}\|_q.$$

Note that $\||f + g|^{p-1}\|_q = \mu(||f + g|^{p-1}|^q)^{1/q} = \mu(|f + g|^p)^{1/q} < \infty$ because $q(p-1) = p$. Therefore,

$$\mu(|f + g|^p) \leq (\|f\|_p + \|g\|_p)\mu(|f + g|^p)^{1/q}.$$

By dividing both sides of the previous inequality by $\mu(|f + g|^p)^{1/q}$ and using the fact that $p^{-1} = 1 - q^{-1}$,

$$\|f + g\|_p = \mu(|f + g|^p)^{1/p} \leq \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p.$$

7 Strong law

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a random variable $Y \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. We will now show that if X and Y are independent, then $XY \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$.

First, suppose that X and Y are non-negative and let α_n denote the n-th staircase function. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the simple function $X_n = \alpha_n \circ X = \sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x} a_{k_x}\mathbb{I}_{A_{k_x}}$, where $a_1, \ldots, a_{m_x} \in [0, n]$ are distinct and $A_1, \ldots, A_{m_x} \in \mathcal{F}$ partition Ω. Similarly, consider the simple function $Y_n = \alpha_n \circ Y = \sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} b_{k_y}\mathbb{I}_{B_{k_y}}$, where $b_1, \ldots, b_{m_y} \in [0, n]$ are distinct and $B_1, \ldots, B_{m_y} \in \mathcal{F}$ partition Ω. In that case,

$$\mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x} a_{k_x}\mathbb{I}_{A_{k_x}}\right) = \sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x} a_{k_x}\mathbb{P}(A_{k_x}),$$

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_n) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} b_{k_y}\mathbb{I}_{B_{k_y}}\right) = \sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} b_{k_y}\mathbb{P}(B_{k_y}).$$

Because $X_n \uparrow X$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X)$. Similarly, because $Y_n \uparrow Y$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mathbb{E}(Y_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(Y)$. Because $\mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$ and $\mathbb{E}(Y) < \infty$, we also know that $\mathbb{E}(X_n)\mathbb{E}(Y_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$. By distributing terms and using the fact that $\mathbb{I}_{A_{k_x}}\mathbb{I}_{B_{k_y}} = \mathbb{I}_{A_{k_x} \cap B_{k_y}}$,

$$\mathbb{E}(X_nY_n) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x} a_{k_x}\mathbb{I}_{A_{k_x}}\right)\left(\sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} b_{k_y}\mathbb{I}_{B_{k_y}}\right)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x}\sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} a_{k_x}b_{k_y}\mathbb{I}_{A_{k_x}\cap B_{k_y}}\right) = \sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x}\sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} a_{k_x}b_{k_y}\mathbb{P}(A_{k_x}\cap B_{k_y}).$$

Recall that if $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Borel function and $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable, then

$$\sigma(f \circ Z) = \{(f \circ Z)^{-1}(B) \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\} = \{Z^{-1}(f^{-1}(B)) \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\} \subseteq \{Z^{-1}(A) \mid A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\} = \sigma(Z).$$

Recall that X and Y are independent if and only if $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$ for every $A \in \sigma(X)$ and $B \in \sigma(Y)$. Therefore, X_n and Y_n are also independent. Because $A_{k_x} = X_n^{-1}(\{a_{k_x}\})$, we know that $A_{k_x} \in \sigma(X_n)$. Because $B_{k_y} = Y_n^{-1}(\{b_{k_y}\})$, we know that $B_{k_y} \in \sigma(Y_n)$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(X_nY_n) = \sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x}\sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} a_{k_x}b_{k_y}\mathbb{P}(A_{k_x})\mathbb{P}(B_{k_y}) = \left(\sum_{k_x=1}^{m_x} a_{k_x}\mathbb{P}(A_{k_x})\right)\left(\sum_{k_y=1}^{m_y} b_{k_y}\mathbb{P}(B_{k_y})\right) = \mathbb{E}(X_n)\mathbb{E}(Y_n).$$

Since $X_n \uparrow X$ and $Y_n \uparrow Y$ imply $X_nY_n \uparrow XY$, the monotone-convergence theorem guarantees that $\mathbb{E}(X_nY_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(XY)$. Since $\mathbb{E}(X_nY_n) = \mathbb{E}(X_n)\mathbb{E}(Y_n)$, taking the limit when $n \to \infty$ shows that $\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y) < \infty$, which completes the proof when X and Y are non-negative.

Finally, let $X = X^+ - X^-$, where $X^+ \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $X^- \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ are non-negative. Analogously, let $Y = Y^+ - Y^-$. Because the absolute value function is Borel, we know that $XY \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}\left((X^+ - X^-)(Y^+ - Y^-)\right) = \mathbb{E}(X^+Y^+) - \mathbb{E}(X^+Y^-) - \mathbb{E}(X^-Y^+) + \mathbb{E}(X^-Y^-).$$

Since X and Y are independent, each pair of variables inside an expectation above is independent. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X^+)\mathbb{E}(Y^+) - \mathbb{E}(X^+)\mathbb{E}(Y^-) - \mathbb{E}(X^-)\mathbb{E}(Y^+) + \mathbb{E}(X^-)\mathbb{E}(Y^-) = (\mathbb{E}(X^+) - \mathbb{E}(X^-))(\mathbb{E}(Y^+) - \mathbb{E}(Y^-)),$$

which completes the proof.

Consider the random variables $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. If X and Y are independent, the previous result guarantees that $\mathrm{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ and $\mathrm{Var}(X + Y) = \mathrm{Var}(X) + \mathrm{Var}(Y)$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, and the random variables $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$. Suppose that $X, Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ are independent. We will now show that if $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Borel function and $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable given by $Z(\omega) = f(Y_1(\omega), \ldots, Y_n(\omega))$, then X and Z are independent.

First, recall that a previous result establishes that Z is $\sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\})$-measurable, so that

$$\sigma(Z) \subseteq \sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}) = \sigma(\{Y_i^{-1}(B) \mid i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\}) = \sigma\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n \sigma(Y_i)\right).$$

Therefore, if $\sigma(X)$ and $\sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\})$ are independent, then X and Z are independent.

Consider the set $\mathcal{I} = \{\cap_{i=1}^n A_i \mid (A_1, \ldots, A_n) \in \sigma(Y_1) \times \cdots \times \sigma(Y_n)\}$. If $B \in \mathcal{I}$ and $C \in \mathcal{I}$, then $B = \cap_{i=1}^n A_i$ and $C = \cap_{i=1}^n A'_i$, where $A_i \in \sigma(Y_i)$ and $A'_i \in \sigma(Y_i)$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$. Because

$$B \cap C = \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) \cap \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A'_i\right) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (A_i \cap A'_i)$$

and $(A_i \cap A'_i) \in \sigma(Y_i)$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, we know that $(B \cap C) \in \mathcal{I}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{I}$ is a π-system on Ω.

Let $\mathcal{J} = \sigma(X)$ and note that $\mathcal{J}$ is also a π-system on Ω. Consider a set $(\cap_{i=1}^n A_i) \in \mathcal{I}$, where $A_i \in \sigma(Y_i)$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, and a set $B \in \mathcal{J}$. Since $X, Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ are independent,

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

which implies that $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{J}$ are independent. Because $\sigma(\mathcal{I})$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{J})$ are then independent from a previous result and $\sigma(\mathcal{J}) = \sigma(X)$, the proof will be complete if $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\})$, which we will now show.

Note that $\Omega \in \sigma(Y_i)$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, which implies $\sigma(Y_i) \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$. Therefore, $\cup_{i=1}^{n} \sigma(Y_i) \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ and $\sigma(\cup_{i=1}^{n} \sigma(Y_i)) = \sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{I})$.

Consider a set $(\cap_{i=1}^{n} A_i) \in \mathcal{I}$, where $A_i \in \sigma(Y_i)$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$. Clearly, $A_i \in \cup_{j=1}^{n} \sigma(Y_j)$. Because $\sigma(\cup_{j=1}^{n} \sigma(Y_j)) = \sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\})$ is a σ-algebra, we know that $(\cap_{i=1}^{n} A_i) \in \sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\})$, which implies $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\})$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) \subseteq \sigma(\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\})$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence of independent random variables $(X_k : \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \mid k \in \mathbb{N}^+)$. Furthermore, suppose $\mathbb{E}(X_k) = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}(X_k^4) \leq K$ for some $K \in [0, \infty)$, for every $k \in \mathbb{N}^+$. The strong law of large numbers for a finite fourth moment guarantees that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k = 0 \right) = 1.$$

We will now prove this law. Consider the random variable $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k$. From the multinomial theorem,

$$S_n^4 = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k \right)^4 = \sum_{(k_1, \ldots, k_n) \in I_4^{(n)}} \frac{4!}{k_1! \cdots k_n!} \prod_{t=1}^{n} X_t^{k_t},$$

where $I_p^{(n)} = \{(k_1, \ldots, k_n) \mid k_i \in \{0, \ldots, p\}$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $\sum_i k_i = p\}$. By the linearity of expectation,

$$\mathbb{E}(S_n^4) = \sum_{(k_1, \ldots, k_n) \in I_4^{(n)}} \frac{4!}{k_1! \cdots k_n!} \mathbb{E}\left(\prod_{t=1}^{n} X_t^{k_t} \right).$$

From the restrictions imposed on $(k_1, \ldots, k_n) \in I_4^{(n)}$, the expectation $\mathbb{E}\left(\prod_{t=1}^{n} X_t^{k_t} \right)$ can be written as either $\mathbb{E}(X_i^4)$, $\mathbb{E}(X_i^3 X_j)$, $\mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j^2)$, $\mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j X_k)$, or $\mathbb{E}(X_i X_j X_k X_l)$, where $i, j, k, l \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ are distinct indices.

Consider the expectation $\mathbb{E}(X_i^3 X_j)$. Because X_i and X_j are independent, X_i^3 and X_j are independent. By the monotonicity of the norm, $X_i^3 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $X_j \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}(X_i^3 X_j) = \mathbb{E}(X_i^3)\mathbb{E}(X_j) = 0$.

Consider the expectation $\mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j X_k)$. Because X_i^2, X_j, X_k are independent, $X_i^2 X_j$ and X_k are independent. By the monotonicity of the norm, $X_i^2 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, $X_j \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, and $X_k \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Due to independence, $X_i^2 X_j \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j X_k) = \mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j)\mathbb{E}(X_k) = 0$.

Consider the expectation $\mathbb{E}(X_i X_j X_k X_l)$. Because X_i, X_j, X_k, X_l are independent, $X_i X_j X_k$ and X_l are independent. By the monotonicity of the norm, $X_i, X_j, X_k, X_l \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Because X_i and X_j are independent, $X_i X_j \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Because $X_i X_j$ and X_k are independent, $X_i X_j X_k \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}(X_i X_j X_k X_l) = \mathbb{E}(X_i X_j X_k)\mathbb{E}(X_l) = 0$.

These observations allow rewriting the expectation $\mathbb{E}(S_n^4)$ as

$$\mathbb{E}(S_n^4) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(X_i^4) + 6 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j^2).$$

For every $k \in \mathbb{N}^+$, recall that $\|X_k\|_2 = \mathbb{E}(X_k^2)^{1/2} \leq \mathbb{E}(X_k^4)^{1/4} = \|X_k\|_4$. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}(X_k^2) \leq \mathbb{E}(X_k^4)^{1/2} \leq K^{1/2}$. For every $i \neq j$, X_i^2 and X_j^2 are independent and $X_i^2, X_j^2 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ by the monotonicity of the norm. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(X_i^2 X_j^2) = \mathbb{E}(X_i^2)\mathbb{E}(X_j^2) \leq \mathbb{E}(X_i^4)^{1/2}\mathbb{E}(X_j^4)^{1/2} \leq K.$$

Consequently,

$$\mathbb{E}(S_n^4) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} K + 6 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} K = nK + 3n(n-1)K = K(3n^2 - 2n) \leq 3Kn^2.$$

Because $\mathbb{E}(S_n^4/n^4) \leq 3K/n^2$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{S_n^4}{n^4} \right) \leq 3K \sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n^2}.$$

Because the summation on the right of the inequality above converges to a real number when $k \to \infty$,

$$\sum_n \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{S_n^4}{n^4}\right) < \infty.$$

Since S_n^4/n^4 is a non-negative random variable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, a previous result guarantees that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{S_n^4}{n^4} = 0\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{S_n}{n} = 0\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^n X_k = 0\right) = 1.$$

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence of independent random variables $(X_k : \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \mid k \in \mathbb{N}^+)$. Furthermore, suppose $\mathbb{E}(X_k) = \mu$ and $\mathbb{E}(X_k^4) \leq K$ for some $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $K \in [0, \infty)$, for every $k \in \mathbb{N}^+$. As a corollary, the strong law of large numbers for a finite fourth moment guarantees that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^n X_k = \mu\right) = 1.$$

We will now show this corollary. For every $k \in \mathbb{N}^+$, let $Y_k = X_k - \mu$. By the monotonicity of the norm, $X_k \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, so that $\mathbb{E}(Y_k) = \mathbb{E}(X_k) - \mu = 0$. Furthermore, $(Y_k : \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \mid k \in \mathbb{N}^+)$ is a sequence of independent random variables, since $\sigma(Y_k) \subseteq \sigma(X_k)$. Using Minkowski's inequality and the fact that $X_k \in \mathcal{L}^4(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$,

$$\infty > \|X_k\|_4 + |\mu| = \|X_k\|_4 + \| - \mu \mathbb{I}_\Omega\|_4 \geq \|X_k - \mu\mathbb{I}_\Omega\|_4 = \|X_k - \mu\|_4 = \|Y_k\|_4.$$

Therefore, $\mathbb{E}(Y_k^4) \leq K'$ for some $K' \in [0, \infty)$. Using the strong law of large numbers for a finite fourth moment,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^n Y_k = 0\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^n X_k = \mu\right) = 1$$

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and let $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X)$. For $c \geq 0$, Chebyshev's inequality states that

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}(|X - \mu|^2) \geq c^2 \mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq c),$$

where the inequality above is a consequence of Markov's inequality.

As an application of Chebyshev's inequality, consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables $(X_k : \Omega \to \{0, 1\} \mid k \in \mathbb{N}^+)$. Let $p = \mathbb{E}(X_k) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_{\{X_k = 1\}}) = \mathbb{P}(X_k = 1)$. Since $X_k^2 = X_k$, $X_k \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $\operatorname{Var}(X_k) = \mathbb{E}(X_k^2) - \mathbb{E}(X_k)^2 = p - p^2$, so that $\operatorname{Var}(X_k) \leq 1/4$.

Let $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$. so that $\mathbb{E}(S_n) = \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_k) = np$. Due to independence,

$$\operatorname{Var}(S_n) = \operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{k=1}^n X_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \operatorname{Var}(X_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n p - p^2 = n(p - p^2) \leq \frac{n}{4}.$$

For any $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\operatorname{Var}(aY) = \mathbb{E}((aY)^2) - \mathbb{E}(aY)^2 = a^2\mathbb{E}(Y^2) - a^2\mathbb{E}(Y)^2 = a^2 \operatorname{Var}(Y)$. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}(S_n/n) = p$ and $\operatorname{Var}(S_n/n) \leq 1/4n$. Using Chebyshev's inequality, for any $\delta > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^n X_k\right) - p\right| \geq \delta\right) \leq \frac{1}{4n\delta^2}.$$

8 Product measure

Consider a measurable space (S_1, Σ_1) and a measurable space (S_2, Σ_2). Let $S = S_1 \times S_2$. Consider also the functions $\rho_1 : S \to S_1$ and $\rho_2 : S \to S_2$ given by $\rho_1(s_1, s_2) = s_1$ and $\rho_2(s_1, s_2) = s_2$. For $B_1 \in \Sigma_1$ and $B_2 \in \Sigma_2$, let

$$\rho_1^{-1}(B_1) = \{(s_1, s_2) \in S \mid \rho_1(s_1, s_2) \in B_1\} = \{(s_1, s_2) \in S \mid s_1 \in B_1\} = B_1 \times S_2,$$
$$\rho_2^{-1}(B_2) = \{(s_1, s_2) \in S \mid \rho_2(s_1, s_2) \in B_2\} = \{(s_1, s_2) \in S \mid s_2 \in B_2\} = S_1 \times B_2.$$

For $i \in \{1, 2\}$, let $\mathcal{A}_i = \{\rho_i^{-1}(B_i) \mid B_i \in \Sigma_i\}$. We will now show that $\mathcal{A}_i$ is a σ-algebra on S. First, note that $\rho_i^{-1}(S_i) = S$ and $S_i \in \Sigma_i$. Therefore, $S \in \mathcal{A}_i$. Consider an element $\rho_i^{-1}(B_i) \in \mathcal{A}_i$. Note that $B_i^c \in \Sigma_i$ and

$\rho_i^{-1}(B_i^c) = \rho_i^{-1}(B_i)^c$. Therefore, $\rho_i^{-1}(B_i)^c \in \mathcal{A}_i$. Finally, consider a sequence of sets $(\rho_i^{-1}(B_{i,j}) \in \mathcal{A}_i \mid j \in \mathbb{N})$. Note that $\cup_j B_{i,j} \in \Sigma_i$ and $\rho_i^{-1}(\cup_j B_{i,j}) = \cup_j \rho_i^{-1}(B_{i,j})$. Therefore, $\cup_j \rho_i^{-1}(B_{i,j}) \in \mathcal{A}_i$.

Considering the previous result, let $\sigma(\rho_1)$ and $\sigma(\rho_2)$ denote the σ-algebras on S given by

$$\sigma(\rho_1) = \mathcal{A}_1 = \{\rho_1^{-1}(B_1) \mid B_1 \in \Sigma_1\} = \{B_1 \times S_2 \mid B_1 \in \Sigma_1\},$$
$$\sigma(\rho_2) = \mathcal{A}_2 = \{\rho_2^{-1}(B_2) \mid B_2 \in \Sigma_2\} = \{S_1 \times B_2 \mid B_2 \in \Sigma_2\}.$$

The product Σ between the σ-algebras Σ_1 and Σ_2 is a σ-algebra on S denoted by $\Sigma_1 \times \Sigma_2$ but defined by

$$\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \times \Sigma_2 = \sigma(\{\rho_1, \rho_2\}) = \sigma(\sigma(\rho_1) \cup \sigma(\rho_2)),$$

which should not be confused with the Cartesian product between Σ_1 and Σ_2.

Consider the set $\mathcal{I} = \{B_1 \times B_2 \mid B_1 \in \Sigma_1 \text{ and } B_2 \in \Sigma_2\}$. For any $B_1 \in \Sigma_1$ and $B_2 \in \Sigma_2$, note that

$$B_1 \times B_2 = (B_1 \cap S_1) \times (S_2 \cap B_2) = (B_1 \times S_2) \cap (S_1 \times B_2).$$

Suppose $B_1 \times B_2 \in \mathcal{I}$ and $B_1' \times B_2' \in \mathcal{I}$. In that case, $(B_1 \times B_2) \cap (B_1' \times B_2') = (B_1 \cap B_1') \times (B_2 \cap B_2')$. Because $(B_1 \cap B_1') \in \Sigma_1$ and $(B_2 \cap B_2') \in \Sigma_2$, this implies that $\mathcal{I}$ is a π-system on S.

We will now show that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \Sigma$. For any $B_1 \times B_2 \in \mathcal{I}$, we know that $B_1 \times B_2 \in \Sigma$ because $(B_1 \times S_2) \in \sigma(\rho_1)$ and $(S_1 \times B_2) \in \sigma(\rho_1)$. Since Σ is a σ-algebra, $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) \subseteq \Sigma$. For any $B_1 \in \Sigma_1$ and $B_2 \in \Sigma_2$, we know that $B_1 \times S_2 \in \mathcal{I}$ and $S_1 \times B_2 \in \mathcal{I}$. Therefore, $\sigma(\rho_1) \cup \sigma(\rho_2) \subseteq \mathcal{I}$. Because $\sigma(\mathcal{I})$ is a σ-algebra, $\Sigma \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{I})$.

Consider a measurable space (S_1, Σ_1) and a measurable space (S_2, Σ_2). Furthermore, consider the measurable space (S, Σ), where $S = S_1 \times S_2$ and $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \times \Sigma_2$. Let $\mathcal{H}$ denote a set that contains exactly each bounded Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ for which there is a Σ_2-measurable function $f_{s_1} : S_2 \to \mathbb{R}$ and a Σ_1-measurable function $f_{s_2} : S_1 \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(s_1, s_2) = f_{s_1}(s_2) = f_{s_2}(s_1)$ for every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$. We will now show that $\mathcal{H}$ contains every bounded Σ-measurable function on S, so that $\mathcal{H} = \mathrm{b}\Sigma$.

Note that the set of bounded Σ-measurable functions $\mathrm{b}\Sigma$ is a vector space over the field $\mathbb{R}$ when scalar multiplication and addition are performed pointwise, Because $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathrm{b}\Sigma$, showing that $\mathcal{H}$ is a vector space only requires showing that $\mathcal{H}$ is non-empty and closed under scalar multiplication and addition. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, let $f = \mathbb{I}_S$, $f_{s_1} = \mathbb{I}_{S_2}$, and $f_{s_2} = \mathbb{I}_{S_1}$, so that that $\mathbb{I}_S(s_1, s_2) = \mathbb{I}_{S_2}(s_2) = \mathbb{I}_{S_1}(s_1) = 1$. Clearly, $f \in \mathcal{H}$. Now suppose $f \in \mathcal{H}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Note that $af \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, also note that af_{s_1} is Σ_2-measurable, af_{s_2} is Σ_1-measurable, and $(af)(s_1, s_2) = (af_{s_1})(s_2) = (af_{s_2})(s_1)$. Therefore, $af \in \mathcal{H}$. Finally, suppose that $g, h \in \mathcal{H}$. Note that $g + h \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $g_{s_1} + h_{s_1}$ is Σ_2-measurable, $g_{s_2} + h_{s_2}$ is Σ_1-measurable, and $(g + h)(s_1, s_2) = (g_{s_1} + h_{s_1})(s_2) = (g_{s_2} + h_{s_2})(s_1)$. Therefore, $g + h \in \mathcal{H}$.

Suppose $(f_n \in \mathcal{H} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of non-negative functions in $\mathcal{H}$ such that $f_n \uparrow f$, where $f : S \to [0, \infty)$ is a bounded function. Note that $f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$, since f is the limit of a sequence of (bounded) Σ-measurable functions. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $f_{s_1} = \lim_{n\to\infty} f_{n,s_1}$ is Σ_2-measurable, $f_{s_2} = \lim_{n\to\infty} f_{n,s_2}$ is Σ_1-measurable, and $f(s_1, s_2) = f_{s_1}(s_2) = f_{s_2}(s_1)$. Therefore, $f \in \mathcal{H}$.

Consider the π-system $\mathcal{I} = \{B_1 \times B_2 \mid B_1 \in \Sigma_1 \text{ and } B_2 \in \Sigma_2\}$ and the indicator function $f = \mathbb{I}_{B_1 \times B_2}$ of a set $B_1 \times B_2 \in \mathcal{I}$. Note that f is a bounded Σ-measurable function, since $B_1 \times B_2 \in \Sigma$. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $f_{s_1} = \mathbb{I}_{B_1}(s_1)\mathbb{I}_{B_2}$ is Σ_2-measurable, $f_{s_2} = \mathbb{I}_{B_2}(s_2)\mathbb{I}_{B_1}$ is Σ_1-measurable, and $f(s_1, s_2) = f_{s_1}(s_2) = f_{s_2}(s_1)$. Therefore, $f \in \mathcal{H}$. Since $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \Sigma$, the monotone-class theorem completes the proof.

Consider a measure space (S_1, Σ_1, μ_1), a measure space (S_2, Σ_2, μ_2), and the measurable space (S, Σ), where $S = S_1 \times S_2$ and $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \times \Sigma_2$. Furthermore, suppose μ_1 and μ_2 are finite measures.

For any bounded Σ-measurable function $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$, let $I_1^f : S_1 \to \mathbb{R}$ and $I_2^f : S_2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$I_1^f(s_1) = \int_{S_2} f(s_1, s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \int_{S_2} f_{s_1}(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(f_{s_1}),$$
$$I_2^f(s_2) = \int_{S_1} f(s_1, s_2)\mu_1(ds_1) = \int_{S_1} f_{s_2}(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \mu_1(f_{s_2}),$$

where $f_{s_1} : S_2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Σ_2-measurable function, $f_{s_2} : S_1 \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Σ_1-measurable function, and $f(s_1, s_2) = f_{s_1}(s_2) = f_{s_2}(s_1)$, for every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$. Note that $\mu_2(|f_{s_1}|) < \infty$ because μ_2 is finite and $|f_{s_1}| \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$. Similarly, $\mu_1(|f_{s_2}|) < \infty$ because μ_1 is finite and $|f_{s_2}| \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$. Therefore, I_1^f and I_2^f are bounded.

Let $\mathcal{H}$ denote a set that contains exactly each function $f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$ such that $I_1^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$ and $I_2^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$ and

$$\mu_1(I_1^f) = \int_{S_1} I_1^f(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \int_{S_2} I_2^f(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(I_2^f).$$

We will now show that $\mathcal{H}$ contains every bounded Σ-measurable function on S, so that $\mathcal{H} = \mathrm{b}\Sigma$.

Because $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathrm{b}\Sigma$, showing that $\mathcal{H}$ is a vector space only requires showing that $\mathcal{H}$ is non-empty and closed under scalar multiplication and addition. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, let $f = \mathbb{I}_S$, $f_{s_1} = \mathbb{I}_{S_2}$, and $f_{s_2} = \mathbb{I}_{S_1}$, so that $I_1^f(s_1) = \mu_2(\mathbb{I}_{S_2}) = \mu_2(S_2)\mathbb{I}_{S_1}(s_1)$ and $I_2^f(s_2) = \mu_1(\mathbb{I}_{S_1}) = \mu_1(S_1)\mathbb{I}_{S_2}(s_2)$. Because $S_1 \in \Sigma_1$, we have $I_1^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$. Similarly, because $S_2 \in \Sigma_2$, we have $I_2^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$. In that case, $f \in \mathcal{H}$, since

$$\mu_1(I_1^f) = \int_{S_1} \mu_2(S_2)\mathbb{I}_{S_1}(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \mu_1(S_1)\mu_2(S_2) = \int_{S_2} \mu_1(S_1)\mathbb{I}_{S_2}(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(I_2^f).$$

Now suppose that $f \in \mathcal{H}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Note that $af \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $I_1^{af}(s_1) = \mu_2(af_{s_1}) = a\mu_2(f_{s_1}) = aI_1^f(s_1)$ and $I_2^{af}(s_2) = \mu_1(af_{s_2}) = a\mu_1(f_{s_2}) = aI_2^f(s_2)$. Clearly, $I_1^{af} \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$ and $I_2^{af} \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$. Therefore, $af \in \mathcal{H}$, since the fact that $\mu_1(I_1^f) = \mu_2(I_2^f)$ implies

$$\mu_1(I_1^{af}) = \int_{S_1} aI_1^f(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = a\mu_1(I_1^f) = a\mu_2(I_2^f) = \int_{S_2} aI_2^f(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(I_2^{af}).$$

Finally, suppose that $g, h \in \mathcal{H}$. Note that $g + h \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $I_1^{g+h}(s_1) = \mu_2(g_{s_1}+h_{s_1}) = \mu_2(g_{s_1})+\mu_2(h_{s_1}) = I_1^g(s_1)+I_1^h(s_1)$ and $I_2^{g+h}(s_2) = \mu_1(g_{s_2}+h_{s_2}) = \mu_1(g_{s_2})+\mu_1(h_{s_2}) = I_2^g(s_2)+I_2^h(s_2)$. Clearly, $I_1^{g+h} \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$ and $I_2^{g+h} \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$. Therefore, $g + h \in \mathcal{H}$, since $\mu_1(I_1^g) = \mu_2(I_2^g)$ and $\mu_1(I_1^h) = \mu_2(I_2^h)$ imply

$$\int_{S_1} \left[I_1^g(s_1) + I_1^h(s_1)\right] \mu_1(ds_1) = \mu_1(I_1^g) + \mu_1(I_1^h) = \mu_2(I_2^g) + \mu_2(I_2^h) = \int_{S_2} \left[I_2^g(s_2) + I_2^h(s_2)\right] \mu_2(ds_2).$$

Suppose $(f_n \in \mathcal{H} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of non-negative functions in $\mathcal{H}$ such that $f_n \uparrow f$, where $f : S \to [0, \infty)$ is a bounded function. Note that $f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$, since f is the limit of a sequence of (bounded) Σ-measurable functions.

For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $f_{n,s_1} \uparrow f_{s_1}$ and $f_{n,s_2} \uparrow f_{s_2}$, so that the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\mu_2(f_{n,s_1}) \uparrow \mu_2(f_{s_1})$ and $\mu_1(f_{n,s_2}) \uparrow \mu_1(f_{s_2})$. Therefore,

$$I_1^f(s_1) = \mu_2(f_{s_1}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_2(f_{n,s_1}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} I_1^{f_n}(s_1),$$
$$I_2^f(s_2) = \mu_1(f_{s_2}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_1(f_{n,s_2}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} I_2^{f_n}(s_2).$$

Because I_1^f is the limit of (bounded) Σ_1-measurable functions, $I_1^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$. Similarly, because I_2^f is the limit of (bounded) Σ_2-measurable functions, $I_2^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$. Furthermore, $I_1^{f_n} \uparrow I_1^f$ and $I_2^{f_n} \uparrow I_2^f$, since $f_{n+1} \geq f_n$ implies

$$I_1^{f_{n+1}}(s_1) = \mu_2(f_{n+1,s_1}) \geq \mu_2(f_{n,s_1}) = I_1^{f_n}(s_1),$$
$$I_2^{f_{n+1}}(s_2) = \mu_1(f_{n+1,s_2}) \geq \mu_1(f_{n,s_2}) = I_2^{f_n}(s_2).$$

Therefore, $f \in \mathcal{H}$, since the monotone-convergence theorem implies that

$$\mu_1(I_1^f) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_1(I_1^{f_n}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_2(I_2^{f_n}) = \mu_2(I_2^f).$$

Consider the π-system $\mathcal{I} = \{B_1 \times B_2 \mid B_1 \in \Sigma_1 \text{ and } B_2 \in \Sigma_2\}$ and the indicator function $f = \mathbb{I}_{B_1\times B_2}$ of a set $B_1 \times B_2 \in \mathcal{I}$. Note that f is a bounded Σ-measurable function, since $B_1 \times B_2 \in \Sigma$. For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $I_1^f(s_1) = \mu_2(\mathbb{I}_{B_1}(s_1)\mathbb{I}_{B_2}) = \mathbb{I}_{B_1}(s_1)\mu_2(B_2)$ and $I_2^f(s_2) = \mu_1(\mathbb{I}_{B_2}(s_2)\mathbb{I}_{B_1}) = \mathbb{I}_{B_2}(s_2)\mu_1(B_1)$. Clearly, $I_1^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$ and $I_2^f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$. Therefore, $f \in \mathcal{H}$, since

$$\mu_1(I_1^f) = \mu_1(\mu_2(B_2)\mathbb{I}_{B_1}) = \mu_1(B_1)\mu_2(B_2) = \mu_2(\mu_1(B_1)\mathbb{I}_{B_2}) = \mu_2(I_2^f).$$

Because $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \Sigma$, the monotone-class theorem completes the proof.

Consider a measure space (S_1, Σ_1, μ_1), a measure space (S_2, Σ_2, μ_2), and the measurable space (S, Σ), where $S = S_1 \times S_2$ and $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \times \Sigma_2$. Furthermore, suppose μ_1 and μ_2 are finite measures. For any $F \in \Sigma$, define $\mu(F)$ by

$$\mu(F) = \mu_1(I_1^{\mathbb{I}_F}) = \int_{S_1} I_1^{\mathbb{I}_F}(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \int_{S_2} I_2^{\mathbb{I}_F}(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(I_2^{\mathbb{I}_F}).$$

We will now show that μ is a measure on (S, Σ). The measure μ is called the product measure of μ_1 and μ_2 and denoted by $\mu = \mu_1 \times \mu_2$. The measure space (S, Σ, μ) is denoted by $(S, \Sigma, \mu) = (S_1, \Sigma_1, \mu_1) \times (S_2, \Sigma_2, \mu_2)$.

Consider the π-system $\mathcal{I} = \{B_1 \times B_2 \mid B_1 \in \Sigma_1 \text{ and } B_2 \in \Sigma_2\}$, the indicator function $f = \mathbb{I}_{B_1 \times B_2}$ of a set $B_1 \times B_2 \in \mathcal{I}$, and recall that $\mu_1(I_1^f) = \mu_1(B_1)\mu_2(B_2) = \mu_2(I_2^f)$. Therefore, $\mu(\emptyset) = \mu_1(\emptyset)\mu_2(\emptyset) = 0$.

Consider a sequence $(F_n \in \Sigma \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $F_n \cap F_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$. Furthermore, consider the sequence of non-negative (bounded) Σ-measurable functions $(f_n : S \to \{0, 1\} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ given by

$$f_n = \mathbb{I}_{\cup_{k=0}^n F_k} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \mathbb{I}_{F_k}.$$

Let $f = \mathbb{I}_{\cup_k F_k}$ so that $f_n \uparrow f$. Because f is a bounded function,

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_k F_k\right) = \mu_1(I_1^f) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_1(I_1^{f_n}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_2(I_2^{f_n}) = \mu_2(I_2^f).$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ_2,

$$I_1^{f_n}(s_1) = \int_{S_2} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \mathbb{I}_{F_k}(s_1, s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \int_{S_2} \mathbb{I}_{F_k}(s_1, s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} I_1^{\mathbb{I}_{F_k}}(s_1).$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to μ_1,

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_k F_k\right) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_1(I_1^{f_n}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \int_{S_1} \sum_{k=0}^{n} I_1^{\mathbb{I}_{F_k}}(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \int_{S_1} I_1^{\mathbb{I}_{F_k}}(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \sum_k \mu(F_k),$$

which completes the proof that μ is a measure on (S, Σ). The measure μ is also finite since $\mu(S_1 \times S_2) = \mu_1(S_1)\mu_2(S_2)$.

Notably, μ is the unique measure on (S, Σ) such that $\mu(B_1 \times B_2) = \mu_1(B_1)\mu_2(B_2)$ for every $B_1 \in \Sigma_1$ and $B_2 \in \Sigma_2$, since $\mathcal{I}$ is a π-system on S such that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \Sigma$ and μ is a finite measure on (S, Σ).

We will now show that if $f : S \to \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded Σ-measurable function, then

$$\mu(f) = \mu_1(I_1^f) = \int_{S_1} I_1^f(s_1)\mu(ds_1) = \int_{S_2} I_2^f(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(I_2^f).$$

Let $\mathcal{H}$ denote a set that contains exactly each function $f \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$ such that $\mu(f) = \mu_1(I_1^f) = \mu_2(I_2^f)$.

Consider the π-system $\mathcal{I} = \{B_1 \times B_2 \mid B_1 \in \Sigma_1 \text{ and } B_2 \in \Sigma_2\}$. Suppose that $f = \mathbb{I}_{B_1 \times B_2}$ is the indicator function of a set $B_1 \times B_2 \in \mathcal{I}$. In that case, $\mu(f) = \mu(B_1 \times B_2) = \mu_1(I_1^f) = \mu_2(I_2^f)$, so that $f \in \mathcal{H}$. In particular, $\mathbb{I}_S \in \mathcal{H}$, since $S_1 \times S_2 \in \mathcal{I}$.

Because $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathrm{b}\Sigma$ and $\mathcal{H}$ is non-empty, showing that $\mathcal{H}$ is a vector space only requires showing that $\mathcal{H}$ is closed under scalar multiplication and addition.

Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{H}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Note that $af \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$ and $af \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$, so that $\mu(af) = a\mu(f)$. Because $f \in \mathcal{H}$, we have $\mu(af) = \mu_1(aI_1^f) = \mu_1(I_1^{af})$ and $\mu(af) = \mu_2(aI_2^f) = \mu_2(I_2^{af})$, so that $af \in \mathcal{H}$.

Now suppose that $g, h \in \mathcal{H}$. Note that $g + h \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$ and $g + h \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$, so that $\mu(g + h) = \mu(g) + \mu(h)$. Because $g, h \in \mathcal{H}$, we have $\mu(g + h) = \mu_1(I_1^g + I_1^h) = \mu_1(I_1^{g+h})$ and $\mu(g + h) = \mu_2(I_2^g + I_2^h) = \mu_2(I_2^{g+h})$, so that $g + h \in \mathcal{H}$.

Finally, suppose $(f_n \in \mathcal{H} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of non-negative functions in $\mathcal{H}$ such that $f_n \uparrow f$, where $f : S \to [0, \infty)$ is a bounded function. By the monotone-convergence theorem, $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$. Since $f_n \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$\mu(f) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_1(I_1^{f_n}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_2(I_2^{f_n}) = \mu_1(I_1^f) = \mu_2(I_2^f),$$

which implies $f \in \mathcal{H}$. Because $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \Sigma$, the monotone-class theorem completes the proof.

We will now show that if $f : S \to [0, \infty]$ is a Σ-measurable function, then

$$\mu(f) = \mu_1(I_1^f) = \int_{S_1} I_1^f(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \int_{S_2} I_2^f(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(I_2^f),$$

where the Σ_1-measurable function $I_1^f : S_1 \to [0, \infty]$ and the Σ_2-measurable function $I_2^f : S_2 \to [0, \infty]$ are given by

$$I_1^f(s_1) = \int_{S_2} f(s_1, s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \int_{S_2} f_{s_1}(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(f_{s_1}),$$
$$I_2^f(s_2) = \int_{S_1} f(s_1, s_2)\mu_1(ds_1) = \int_{S_1} f_{s_2}(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \mu_1(f_{s_2}),$$

where $f_{s_1} : S_2 \to [0, \infty]$ is a Σ_2-measurable function, $f_{s_2} : S_1 \to [0, \infty]$ is a Σ_1-measurable function, and $f(s_1, s_2) = f_{s_1}(s_2) = f_{s_2}(s_1)$, for every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f_n = \alpha_n \circ f$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function. Because $f_n : S \to [0, n]$ is bounded and Σ-measurable, there is a bounded Σ_2-measurable function $f_{n,s_1} : S_2 \to [0, n]$ and a bounded Σ_1-measurable function $f_{n,s_2} : S_1 \to [0, n]$ such that $f_n(s_1, s_2) = f_{n,s_1}(s_2) = f_{n,s_2}(s_1)$ for every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$. Since $f_n \uparrow f$, consider the Σ_2-measurable function $f_{s_1} = \lim_{n\to\infty} f_{n,s_1}$ and the Σ_1-measurable function $f_{s_2} = \lim_{n\to\infty} f_{n,s_2}$. Note that $f(s_1, s_2) = f_{s_1}(s_2) = f_{s_2}(s_1)$.

For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $f_{n,s_1} \uparrow f_{s_1}$ and $f_{n,s_2} \uparrow f_{s_2}$, so that the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\mu_2(f_{n,s_1}) \uparrow \mu_2(f_{s_1})$ and $\mu_1(f_{n,s_2}) \uparrow \mu_1(f_{s_2})$. Therefore,

$$I_1^f(s_1) = \mu_2(f_{s_1}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_2(f_{n,s_1}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} I_1^{f_n}(s_1),$$
$$I_2^f(s_2) = \mu_1(f_{s_2}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_1(f_{n,s_2}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} I_2^{f_n}(s_2).$$

Since $f_n \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$, recall that $I_1^{f_n} \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_1$ and $I_2^{f_n} \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma_2$. Because I_1^f is the limit of Σ_1-measurable functions, $I_1^f \in \mathrm{m}\Sigma_1$. Similarly, because I_2^f is the limit of Σ_2-measurable functions, $I_2^f \in \mathrm{m}\Sigma_2$. Furthermore, $I_1^{f_n} \uparrow I_1^f$ and $I_2^{f_n} \uparrow I_2^f$, since $f_{n+1} \geq f_n$ implies

$$I_1^{f_{n+1}}(s_1) = \mu_2(f_{n+1,s_1}) \geq \mu_2(f_{n,s_1}) = I_1^{f_n}(s_1),$$
$$I_2^{f_{n+1}}(s_2) = \mu_1(f_{n+1,s_2}) \geq \mu_1(f_{n,s_2}) = I_2^{f_n}(s_2).$$

Because $f_n \uparrow f$, the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\mu(f_n) \uparrow \mu(f)$. Because $I_1^{f_n} \uparrow I_1^f$ and $I_2^{f_n} \uparrow I_2^f$, the monotone-convergence theorem implies that $\mu_1(I_1^{f_n}) \uparrow \mu_1(I_1^f)$ and $\mu_2(I_2^{f_n}) \uparrow \mu_2(I_2^f)$. Because $f_n \in \mathrm{b}\Sigma$,

$$\mu(f) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(f_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_1(I_1^{f_n}) = \mu_1(I_1^f) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mu_2(I_2^{f_n}) = \mu_2(I_2^f).$$

Consider the measure space $(S, \Sigma, \mu) = (S_1, \Sigma_1, \mu_1) \times (S_2, \Sigma_2, \mu_2)$, where μ_1 and μ_2 are finite measures. Consider also a function $f \in \mathcal{L}^1(S, \Sigma, \mu)$, and recall that $f = f^+ - f^-$ and $|f| = f^+ + f^-$, where $f^+ : S \to [0, \infty]$ and $f^- : S \to [0, \infty]$ are non-negative Σ-measurable functions. Therefore, for every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$,

$$f(s_1, s_2) = f^+(s_1, s_2) - f^-(s_1, s_2) = f^+_{s_1}(s_2) - f^-_{s_1}(s_2) = f^+_{s_2}(s_1) - f^-_{s_2}(s_1),$$
$$|f(s_1, s_2)| = f^+(s_1, s_2) + f^-(s_1, s_2) = f^+_{s_1}(s_2) + f^-_{s_1}(s_2) = f^+_{s_2}(s_1) + f^-_{s_2}(s_1),$$

where $f^+_{s_1} : S_2 \to [0, \infty]$ and $f^-_{s_1} : S_2 \to [0, \infty]$ are non-negative Σ_2-measurable functions and $f^+_{s_2} : S_1 \to [0, \infty]$ and $f^-_{s_2} : S_1 \to [0, \infty]$ are non-negative Σ_1-measurable functions.

For every $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$, let $f_{s_1} = f^+_{s_1} - f^-_{s_1}$ and $f_{s_2} = f^+_{s_2} - f^-_{s_2}$, so that $f(s_1, s_2) = f_{s_1}(s_2) = f_{s_2}(s_1)$. Note that f_{s_1} is Σ_2-measurable and f_{s_2} is Σ_1-measurable. Furthermore, $|f_{s_1}| = f^+_{s_1} + f^-_{s_1}$ and $|f_{s_2}| = f^+_{s_2} + f^-_{s_2}$.

Finally, let $F_1^f = \{s_1 \in S_1 \mid \mu_2(|f_{s_1}|) < \infty\}$ and $F_2^f = \{s_2 \in S_2 \mid \mu_1(|f_{s_2}|) < \infty\}$. We will now show that

$$\mu(f) = \mu_1(I_1^f; F_1^f) = \int_{F_1^f} I_1^f(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \int_{F_2^f} I_2^f(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(I_2^f; F_2^f),$$

where $I_1^f : S_1 \to \mathbb{R}$ and $I_2^f : S_2 \to \mathbb{R}$ are given by

$$I_1^f(s_1) = \int_{S_2} f(s_1, s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \int_{S_2} f_{s_1}(s_2)\mu_2(ds_2) = \mu_2(f_{s_1}),$$
$$I_2^f(s_2) = \int_{S_1} f(s_1, s_2)\mu_1(ds_1) = \int_{S_1} f_{s_2}(s_1)\mu_1(ds_1) = \mu_1(f_{s_2}),$$

for every $s_1 \in F_1^f$ and $s_2 \in F_2^f$.

Because $|f| : S \to [0, \infty]$ is a non-negative Σ-measurable function such that $\mu(|f|) < \infty$,

$$\mu(|f|) = \mu_1(I_1^{|f|}) = \mu_1(I_1^{f^+ + f^-}) = \mu_1(I_1^{f^+} + I_1^{f^-}) < \infty,$$
$$\mu(|f|) = \mu_2(I_2^{|f|}) = \mu_2(I_2^{f^+ + f^-}) = \mu_2(I_2^{f^+} + I_2^{f^-}) < \infty.$$

For every $s_1 \in S_1$, note that $I_1^{f^+}(s_1) + I_1^{f^-}(s_1) = \mu_2(f_{s_1}^+) + \mu_2(f_{s_1}^-) = \mu_2(|f_{s_1}|)$. Because $\mu_1(I_1^{f^+} + I_1^{f^-}) < \infty$, we know that $\mu_1(S_1 \setminus F_1^f) = \mu_1(\{s_1 \in S_1 \mid \mu_2(|f_{s_1}|) = \infty\}) = 0$. Similarly, for every $s_2 \in S_2$, note that $I_2^{f^+}(s_2) + I_2^{f^-}(s_2) = \mu_1(f_{s_2}^+) + \mu_1(f_{s_2}^-) = \mu_1(|f_{s_2}|)$. Because $\mu_2(I_2^{f^+} + I_2^{f^-}) < \infty$, we know that $\mu_2(S_2 \setminus F_2^f) = \mu_2(\{s_2 \in S_2 \mid \mu_1(|f_{s_2}|) = \infty\}) = 0$. Therefore, by the linearity of the integral,

$$\mu(f) = \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-) = \mu_1(I_1^{f^+}) - \mu_1(I_1^{f^-}) = \mu_1(I_1^{f^+}\mathbb{I}_{F_1^f}) - \mu_1(I_1^{f^-}\mathbb{I}_{F_1^f}) = \mu_1((I_1^{f^+} - I_1^{f^-})\mathbb{I}_{F_1^f}) = \mu_1(I_1^f; F_1^f),$$
$$\mu(f) = \mu(f^+) - \mu(f^-) = \mu_2(I_2^{f^+}) - \mu_2(I_2^{f^-}) = \mu_2(I_2^{f^+}\mathbb{I}_{F_2^f}) - \mu_2(I_2^{f^-}\mathbb{I}_{F_2^f}) = \mu_2((I_2^{f^+} - I_2^{f^-})\mathbb{I}_{F_2^f}) = \mu_2(I_2^f; F_2^f).$$

The previous result is also valid when μ_1 and μ_2 are *σ-finite* measures.

Consider the measure space $(S, \Sigma, \mu) = (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) \times ([0,\infty), \mathcal{B}([0,\infty)), \text{Leb})$, where $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a probability triple. Furthermore, consider a random variable $X : \Omega \to [0, \infty]$. We will now show that

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{[0,\infty)} \mathbb{P}(X \geq x)\,\text{Leb}(dx).$$

First, let $A = \{(\omega, x) \in S \mid x \leq X(\omega)\}$ and $f(\omega, x) = x - X(\omega) = \rho_2(\omega, x) - X(\rho_1(\omega, x))$. Because f is Σ-measurable and $f^{-1}((-\infty, 0]) = A$, we know that $A \in \Sigma$. For every $(\omega, x) \in S$, note that

$$\mathbb{I}_A(\omega, x) = \mathbb{I}_{\{\omega \in \Omega \mid x \leq X(\omega)\}}(\omega) = \mathbb{I}_{\{x \in [0,\infty) \mid x \leq X(\omega)\}}(x).$$

Because $\mathbb{I}_A$ is a bounded Σ-measurable function,

$$I_1^{\mathbb{I}_A}(\omega) = \text{Leb}(\{x \in [0, \infty) \mid x \leq X(\omega)\}) = X(\omega),$$
$$I_2^{\mathbb{I}_A}(x) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid x \leq X(\omega)\}) = \mathbb{P}(X \geq x).$$

By the definition of the product measure μ,

$$\mu(A) = \mathbb{P}(I_1^{\mathbb{I}_A}) = \mathbb{E}(X) = \text{Leb}(I_2^{\mathbb{I}_A}) = \int_{[0,\infty)} P(X \geq x)\,\text{Leb}(dx).$$

Let $\mathcal{C}$ denote the set of open subsets of $\mathbb{R}^2$. The Borel σ-algebra $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ on $\mathbb{R}^2$ is defined as $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2) = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$. We will now show that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, where $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$ is the product between the Borel σ-algebra $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ on $\mathbb{R}$ and itself.

Because the functions $\rho_1 : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ and $\rho_2 : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $\rho_1(x, y) = x$ and $\rho_2(x, y) = y$ for every $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ are continuous, recall that $\rho_1^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{C}$ and $\rho_2^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{C}$ for every open set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, so that a previous result guarantees that ρ_1 and ρ_2 are $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$-measurable. Therefore, $\sigma(\rho_1) \cup \sigma(\rho_2) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Because $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 = \sigma(\sigma(\rho_1) \cup \sigma(\rho_2))$, we know that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$.

Recall that every open subset $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ can be written as $C = \cup_n (a_n, b_n) \times (c_n, d_n)$, where $a_n \leq b_n$ and $c_n \leq d_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Because $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ contains every open interval and $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 = \sigma(\{B_1 \times B_2 \mid B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\})$, we know that $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, so that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Therefore, $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$.

Consider the set $\mathcal{I} = \{(-\infty, x] \times (-\infty, y] \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$. We will now show that $\mathcal{I}$ is a π-system on $\mathbb{R}^2$ such that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, where $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$ is the product between the Borel σ-algebra $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ on $\mathbb{R}$ and itself.

Let $A_1 = (-\infty, x_1] \times (-\infty, y_1]$ and $A_2 = (-\infty, x_2] \times (-\infty, y_2]$ be elements of $\mathcal{I}$. In that case,

$$A_1 \cap A_2 = ((-\infty, x_1] \cap (-\infty, x_2]) \times ((-\infty, y_1] \cap (-\infty, y_2]) = (-\infty, \min(x_1, x_2)] \times (-\infty, \min(y_1, y_2)],$$

so that $A_1 \cap A_2 \in \mathcal{I}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{I}$ is a π-system.

Because $(-\infty, x] \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $(-\infty, y] \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 = \sigma(\{B_1 \times B_2 \mid B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\})$, we know that $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, so that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$.

Note that $(a, b] \times (c, d] \in \sigma(\mathcal{I})$ for every $a \leq b$ and $c \leq d$, since

$$(a, b] \times (c, d] = ((-\infty, b] \times (-\infty, d]) \cap (((-\infty, b] \times (-\infty, c]) \cup ((-\infty, a] \times (-\infty, d]))^c.$$

Also note that $(a, b) \times (c, d] \in \sigma(\mathcal{I})$ for every $a \leq b$ and $c \leq d$, since

$$(a, b) \times (c, d] = \left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}^+} (a, b - \epsilon_1 n^{-1}] \right) \times (c, d] = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}^+} (a, b - \epsilon_1 n^{-1}] \times (c, d],$$

where $\epsilon_1 = (b - a)/2$.

Finally, note that $(a, b) \times (c, d) \in \sigma(\mathcal{I})$ for every $a \leq b$ and $c \leq d$, since

$$(a, b) \times (c, d) = (a, b) \times \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}^+} (c, d - \epsilon_2 n^{-1}] = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}^+} (a, b) \times (c, d - \epsilon_2 n^{-1}],$$

where $\epsilon_2 = (d - c)/2$.

Because every open set $C \in \mathcal{C}$ can be written as $C = \cup_n (a_n, b_n) \times (c_n, d_n)$, where $a_n \leq b_n$ and $c_n \leq d_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{I})$. Since $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, we know that $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{I})$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Let $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be given by $Z(\omega) = (X(\omega), Y(\omega))$. We will now show that Z is $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable.

Let $\rho_1 : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by $\rho_1(x, y) = x$ and $\rho_2 : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by $\rho_2(x, y) = y$. Note that $X = \rho_1 \circ Z$ and $Y = \rho_2 \circ Z$, so that $X^{-1}(B) = (\rho_1 \circ Z)^{-1}(B) = Z^{-1}(\rho_1^{-1}(B))$ and $Y^{-1}(B) = (\rho_2 \circ Z)^{-1}(B) = Z^{-1}(\rho_2^{-1}(B))$ for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Because X and Y are $\mathcal{F}$-measurable, $Z^{-1}(C) \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $C \in (\sigma(\rho_1) \cup \sigma(\rho_2))$.

Note that $\mathcal{E} = \{\Gamma \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 \mid Z^{-1}(\Gamma) \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is a σ-algebra on $\mathbb{R}^2$. Because $(\sigma(\rho_1) \cup \sigma(\rho_2)) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, we know that $\sigma(\sigma(\rho_1) \cup \sigma(\rho_2)) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 \subseteq \mathcal{E}$, so that $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$. Therefore, Z is $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. For any $\Gamma \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, the joint law $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y} : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 \to [0, 1]$ of X and Y is defined by

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\Gamma) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \in \Gamma\}) = \mathbb{P}((X, Y) \in \Gamma).$$

Note that $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$ is a probability measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$. Clearly, $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\mathbb{R}^2) = \mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ and $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\emptyset) = \mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$. Furthermore, for any sequence of sets $(\Gamma_n \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\Gamma_n \cap \Gamma_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$,

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}\left(\bigcup_n \Gamma_n\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\left\{\omega \in \Omega \mid (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \in \bigcup_n \Gamma_n\right\}\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n \{\omega \in \Omega \mid (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \in \Gamma_n\}\right) = \sum_n \mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\Gamma_n).$$

The joint distribution $F_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to [0, 1]$ of X and Y is defined by

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \leq x \text{ and } Y(\omega) \leq y\}) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \mathcal{L}_{X,Y}((-\infty, x] \times (-\infty, y]).$$

Because the π-system $\mathcal{I} = \{(-\infty, x] \times (-\infty, y] \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ generates $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, the joint law $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$ of X and Y is the unique measure on the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$ such that $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}((-\infty, x] \times (-\infty, y]) = F_{X,Y}(x, y)$ for every $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Therefore, the joint distribution $F_{X,Y}$ completely determines the joint law $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Consider also the measure space $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2, \mathrm{Leb}^2) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \mathrm{Leb})^2$. The random variables X and Y have a joint probability density function $f_{X,Y}$ if $f_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to [0, \infty]$ is a $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable function such that the joint law $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$ is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\Gamma) = \int_\Gamma f_{X,Y}(z) \, \mathrm{Leb}^2(dz) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(z) f_{X,Y}(z) \, \mathrm{Leb}^2(dz).$$

In that case, the joint law $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$ has density $f_{X,Y}$ relative to Leb^2, which is denoted by $d\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}/d\,\mathrm{Leb}^2 = f_{X,Y}$. Furthermore, because $\mathbb{I}_\Gamma f_{X,Y}$ is a non-negative $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable function,

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\Gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(x, y) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \mathrm{Leb}(dy)\right] \mathrm{Leb}(dx) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(x, y) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \mathrm{Leb}(dx)\right] \mathrm{Leb}(dy).$$

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Note that

$$\mathcal{L}_X(B) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B)) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in B\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \in (B \times \mathbb{R})\}) = \mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(B \times \mathbb{R}),$$
$$\mathcal{L}_Y(B) = \mathbb{P}(Y^{-1}(B)) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid Y(\omega) \in B\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \in (\mathbb{R} \times B)\}) = \mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\mathbb{R} \times B),$$

for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, where $\mathcal{L}_X$ is the law of X and $\mathcal{L}_Y$ is the law of Y. Therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}_X(B) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{B \times \mathbb{R}}(x, y) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \mathrm{Leb}(dy)\right] \mathrm{Leb}(dx) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(x) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \mathrm{Leb}(dy)\right] \mathrm{Leb}(dx),$$
$$\mathcal{L}_Y(B) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times B}(x, y) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \mathrm{Leb}(dx)\right] \mathrm{Leb}(dy) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(y) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \mathrm{Leb}(dx)\right] \mathrm{Leb}(dy),$$

for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. By the linearity of the integral with respect to Leb,

$$\mathcal{L}_X(B) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(x) \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \text{Leb}(dy) \right] \text{Leb}(dx) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(x) f_X(x) \, \text{Leb}(dx) = \int_B f_X(x) \, \text{Leb}(dx),$$
$$\mathcal{L}_Y(B) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(y) \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \text{Leb}(dx) \right] \text{Leb}(dy) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(y) f_Y(y) \, \text{Leb}(dy) = \int_B f_Y(y) \, \text{Leb}(dy),$$

where $f_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ and $f_Y : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ are Borel functions given by

$$f_X(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \text{Leb}(dy),$$
$$f_Y(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, \text{Leb}(dx).$$

By definition, f_X is a probability density function for X and f_Y is a probability density function for Y.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Let $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$ denote the joint law of X and Y, $\mathcal{L}_X$ denote the law of X, $\mathcal{L}_Y$ denote the law of Y, $F_{X,Y}$ denote the joint distribution function of X and Y, F_X denote the distribution function of X, and F_Y denote the distribution function of Y. We will now show that the following are equivalent: X and Y are independent; $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y} = \mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y$; and $F_{X,Y} = F_X F_Y$.

Suppose X and Y are independent. In that case, for every $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(B_1 \times B_2) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \in (B_1 \times B_2)\}) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B_1) \cap Y^{-1}(B_2)) = \mathcal{L}_X(B_1)\mathcal{L}_Y(B_2).$$

Because $\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y$ is the unique measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$ such that $(\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y)(B_1 \times B_2) = \mathcal{L}_X(B_1)\mathcal{L}_Y(B_2)$ for every $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$ is a measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$, we know that $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y} = \mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y$.

Suppose $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y} = \mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y$. In that case, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = (\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y)((-\infty, x] \times (-\infty, y]) = \mathcal{L}_X((-\infty, x])\mathcal{L}_Y((-\infty, y]) = F_X(x)F_Y(y).$$

Finally, suppose that $F_{X,Y} = F_X F_Y$. In that case, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = F_{X,Y}(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y),$$

so that a previous result implies that X and Y are independent, which completes the proof.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Suppose $f_{X,Y}$ is a joint probability density function for X and Y, f_X is a probability density function for X, and f_Y is a probability density function for Y. Furthermore, let $F = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid f_X(x)f_Y(y) \neq f_{X,Y}(x, y)\}$. We will now show that $\text{Leb}^2(F) = 0$ if and only if X and Y are independent random variables.

Suppose $\text{Leb}^2(F) = 0$. For every $\Gamma \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$, let $F_\Gamma = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(z) f_X(\rho_1(z)) f_Y(\rho_2(z)) \neq \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(z) f_{X,Y}(z)\}$, so that $F_\Gamma \subseteq \Gamma$. Because $F_\Gamma \subseteq F_{\mathbb{R}^2} = F$, we know that $\text{Leb}^2(F_\Gamma) = 0$. Therefore, because $\mathbb{I}_\Gamma(f_X \circ \rho_1)(f_Y \circ \rho_2)$ and $\mathbb{I}_\Gamma f_{X,Y}$ are non-negative $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable functions,

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(\Gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(z) f_{X,Y}(z) \, \text{Leb}^2(dz) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(z) f_X(\rho_1(z)) f_Y(\rho_2(z)) \, \text{Leb}^2(dz).$$

For every $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, since $\mathbb{I}_\Gamma(f_X \circ \rho_1)(f_Y \circ \rho_2)$ is a non-negative $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable function,

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(B_1 \times B_2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{B_1 \times B_2}(x, y) f_X(x) f_Y(y) \, \text{Leb}(dy) \right] \text{Leb}(dx).$$

Using the fact that $\mathbb{I}_{B_1 \times B_2}(x, y) = \mathbb{I}_{B_1}(x)\mathbb{I}_{B_2}(y)$ and the linearity of the integral with respect to Leb,

$$\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(B_1 \times B_2) = \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{B_1}(x) f_X(x) \, \text{Leb}(dx) \right] \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{B_2}(y) f_Y(y) \, \text{Leb}(dy) \right] = \mathcal{L}_X(B_1)\mathcal{L}_Y(B_2).$$

Because $\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y$ is the unique measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$ such that $(\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y)(B_1 \times B_2) = \mathcal{L}_X(B_1)\mathcal{L}_Y(B_2)$ for every $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}$ is a measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$, we know that X and Y are independent.

Suppose X and Y are independent. Let $f = (f_X \circ \rho_1)(f_Y \circ \rho_2)$. Because f is a $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable non-negative function, recall that $(f \, \text{Leb}^2)$ is a measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$ given by

$$(f \, \text{Leb}^2)(\Gamma) = \int_\Gamma f d \, \text{Leb}^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(z) f_X(\rho_1(z)) f_Y(\rho_2(z)) \, \text{Leb}^2(dz) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_\Gamma(x, y) f_X(x) f_Y(y) \, \text{Leb}(dy) \right] \text{Leb}(dx).$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to Leb, for every $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\mathcal{L}_X(B_1)\mathcal{L}_Y(B_2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{B_1 \times B_2}(x, y) f_X(x) f_Y(y) \, \text{Leb}(dy) \right] \text{Leb}(dx) = (f \, \text{Leb}^2)(B_1 \times B_2).$$

Because $\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y$ is the unique measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$ such that $(\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y)(B_1 \times B_2) = \mathcal{L}_X(B_1)\mathcal{L}_Y(B_2)$ for every $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ and $(f \, \text{Leb}^2)$ is a measure on $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2)$, we know that $\mathcal{L}_X \times \mathcal{L}_Y = (f \, \text{Leb}^2)$. Since X and Y are independent, $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y} = (f \, \text{Leb}^2)$. Therefore, f is a joint probability density function for X and Y.

Let $F_1 = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid f(z) - f_{X,Y}(z) > 0\}$ and $F_2 = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid f_{X,Y}(z) - f(z) > 0\}$, so that $F = F_1 \cup F_2$. Since $F_1 \cap F_2 = \emptyset$, we have $\text{Leb}^2(F) = \text{Leb}^2(F_1) + \text{Leb}^2(F_2)$. In order to find a contradiction, suppose $\text{Leb}^2(F) > 0$, so that $\text{Leb}^2(F_1) > 0$ or $\text{Leb}^2(F_2) > 0$. Because $(f - f_{X,Y})\mathbb{I}_{F_1}$ and $(f_{X,Y} - f)\mathbb{I}_{F_2}$ are non-negative $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable functions, a previous result then implies that $\text{Leb}^2((f - f_{X,Y})\mathbb{I}_{F_1}) > 0$ or $\text{Leb}^2((f_{X,Y} - f)\mathbb{I}_{F_2}) > 0$. The linearity of the integral with respect to Leb^2 then implies that $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(F_1) = \text{Leb}^2(f\mathbb{I}_{F_1}) > \text{Leb}^2(f_{X,Y}\mathbb{I}_{F_1}) = \mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(F_1)$ or $\mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(F_2) = \text{Leb}^2(f_{X,Y}\mathbb{I}_{F_2}) > \text{Leb}^2(f\mathbb{I}_{F_2}) = \mathcal{L}_{X,Y}(F_2)$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $\text{Leb}^2(F) = 0$.

The results in this section can be generalized to products between any number of measure spaces.

Consider the measurable space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ and a sequence of probability measures $(\Lambda_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. Let $\Omega = \prod_n \mathbb{R}$, so that each $\omega \in \Omega$ corresponds to a sequence $(\omega_n \in \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $X_n : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by $X_n(\omega) = \omega_n$. Furthermore, consider the σ-algebra $\mathcal{F}$ on Ω given by $\mathcal{F} = \sigma(\cup_n \sigma(X_n))$. Kolmogorov's extension theorem guarantees that there is a unique probability measure $\mathbb{P}$ on the measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ such that, for every sequence $(B_n \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\prod_n B_n\right) = \prod_n \Lambda_n(B_n).$$

The measure space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is denoted by $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) = \prod_n (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \Lambda_n)$. The sequence $(X_n : \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ is composed of independent random variables on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ so that Λ_n is the law of X_n.

9 Conditional expectation

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. For every $\omega \in \Omega$, note that knowing $\mathbb{I}_{\{X=x\}}(\omega)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is equivalent to knowing $X(\omega)$. Furthermore, from a previous result,

$$\sigma(X) = \left\{ X^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{x \in B} \{x\} \right) \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \right\} = \left\{ \bigcup_{x \in B} X^{-1}(\{x\}) \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \right\} = \left\{ \bigcup_{x \in B} \{X = x\} \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \right\}.$$

Let $F = \cup_{x \in B}\{X = x\}$ for some $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. For every $\omega \in \Omega$, note that $\mathbb{I}_F(\omega) = \sum_{x \in B} \mathbb{I}_{\{X=x\}}(\omega)$, since F is a union of disjoint sets. Finally, note that $\{X = x\} \in \sigma(X)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Therefore, for every $\omega \in \Omega$, knowing $\mathbb{I}_{\{X=x\}}(\omega)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is also equivalent to knowing $\mathbb{I}_F(\omega)$ for every $F \in \sigma(X)$.

In conclusion, for every $\omega \in \Omega$, knowing $X(\omega)$ is equivalent to knowing $\mathbb{I}_F(\omega)$ for every $F \in \sigma(X)$.

More generally, consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a set of random variables $\{Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}\}$ where $Y_\gamma : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ for every $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}$. Suppose that an unknown outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ results in a known value $Y_\gamma(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$ for every $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}$. The σ-algebra $\sigma(\{Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}\})$ contains exactly each event $F \in \mathcal{F}$ such that it is possible to state whether $\omega \in F$. In other words, for every $\omega \in \Omega$, knowing $Y_\gamma(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$ for every $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}$ is equivalent to knowing $\mathbb{I}_F(\omega)$ for every $F \in \sigma(\{Y_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathcal{C}\})$.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Suppose $\sigma(Y) \subseteq \sigma(X)$. For every $\omega \in \Omega$, knowing $X(\omega)$ allows knowing $\mathbb{I}_F(\omega)$ for every $F \in \sigma(Y)$. Therefore, knowing $X(\omega)$ allows knowing $Y(\omega)$.

In fact, it is possible to show that for every function $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, a function $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is $\sigma(Z)$-measurable if and only if there is a Borel function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $Y = f \circ Z$. Furthermore, if $Z_1, Z_2, \ldots, Z_n$ are functions from Ω to $\mathbb{R}$, then a function $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is $\sigma(\{Z_1, Z_2, \ldots, Z_n\})$-measurable if and only if there is a Borel function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $Y(\omega) = f(Z_1(\omega), Z_2(\omega), \ldots, Z_n(\omega))$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$.

Consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$, and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. A random variable $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is called a version of the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ of X given $\mathcal{G}$ if and only if Y is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable, $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) < \infty$, and, for every set $G \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\int_G Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_G X d\mathbb{P}.$$

In that case, we say that $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. We will now show that a version Y of the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ of X given $\mathcal{G}$ always exists. Furthermore, if Y and $\tilde{Y}$ are such versions, then $\mathbb{P}(Y = \tilde{Y}) = 1$.

First, suppose $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and recall that $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ is a complete vector space. Because $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P}) \subseteq \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, there is a version $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ of the orthogonal projection of X onto $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ such that $\|X - Y\|_2 = \inf\{\|X - W\|_2 \mid W \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})\}$ and $\mathbb{E}((X - Y)Z) = 0$, for every $Z \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$. Clearly, Y is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable. By the monotonicity of norm, $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) < \infty$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, we have $\mathbb{I}_G \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$, so that $\mathbb{E}((X - Y)\mathbb{I}_G) = 0$. Therefore, by the linearity of expectation, $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G)$, which completes this step.

Suppose that X is a bounded non-negative random variable, so that $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. As an auxiliary step, we will now show that if $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely, then $\mathbb{P}(Y \geq 0) = 1$. In order to find a contradiction, suppose that $\mathbb{P}(Y \geq 0) < 1$, so that $\mathbb{P}(Y < 0) > 0$. Let $A_n = \{Y < -n^{-1}\} = Y^{-1}((-\infty, -n^{-1}))$, so that $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ and $\cup_n A_n = \{Y < 0\}$. Since $A_n \uparrow \{Y < 0\}$, the monotone-convergence property of measure guarantees that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \uparrow \mathbb{P}(Y < 0)$. Because we supposed that $\mathbb{P}(Y < 0) > 0$, there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(Y < -n^{-1}) > 0$. Consider the random variable $Y\mathbb{I}_{A_n}$ given by

$$(Y\mathbb{I}_{A_n})(\omega) = Y(\omega)\mathbb{I}_{A_n}(\omega) = \begin{cases} Y(\omega), & \text{if } Y(\omega) < -n^{-1}, \\ 0, & \text{if } Y(\omega) \geq -n^{-1}. \end{cases}$$

Because $Y\mathbb{I}_{A_n} < -n^{-1}\mathbb{I}_{A_n}$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) \leq -n^{-1}\mathbb{P}(A_n) < 0$. Because $X \geq 0$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) \geq 0$. However, $A_n \in \mathcal{G}$, so that $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) = \mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_{A_n})$. Because this is a contradiction, we know that $\mathbb{P}(Y \geq 0) = 1$.

Next, suppose $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is non-negative. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $X_n = \alpha_n \circ X$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function, so that $X_n \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Furthermore, let $Y_n = \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. Because X_n is a bounded non-negative random variable, we know that $\mathbb{P}(Y_n \geq 0) = 1$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $G \in \mathcal{G}$, note that

$$\mathbb{E}((Y_{n+1} - Y_n)\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(Y_{n+1}\mathbb{I}_G) - \mathbb{E}(Y_n\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1}\mathbb{I}_G) - \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}((X_{n+1} - X_n)\mathbb{I}_G).$$

Because $Y_n \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Y_{n+1} \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$, we know that $Y_{n+1} - Y_n = \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} - X_n \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. Because $X_{n+1} - X_n$ is non-negative and bounded for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\mathbb{P}(Y_{n+1} - Y_n \geq 0) = 1$.

Consider the set $A^c = \bigcup_n \{Y_n < 0\} \cup \{Y_{n+1} - Y_n < 0\}$. Note that $A \in \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$, since

$$\mathbb{P}(A^c) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n \{Y_n < 0\} \cup \{Y_{n+1} - Y_n < 0\}\right) \leq \sum_n \mathbb{P}(Y_n < 0) + \mathbb{P}(Y_{n+1} - Y_n < 0) = 0.$$

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, note that $Y_n\mathbb{I}_A \geq 0$ and $Y_{n+1}\mathbb{I}_A \geq Y_n\mathbb{I}_A$. Let $Y = \limsup_{n \to \infty} Y_n\mathbb{I}_A$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, because every non-decreasing sequence of real numbers converges (possibly to infinity), we know that $Y_n\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G \uparrow Y\mathbb{I}_G$. By the monotone-convergence theorem, we know that $\mathbb{E}(Y_n\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G)$.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $G \in \mathcal{G}$, we have $(A \cap G) \in \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathbb{P}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G\mathbb{I}_{A^c} \neq 0) = 0$, so that

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_n\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(Y_n\mathbb{I}_{A \cap G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_{A \cap G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G) + \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_{A^c}\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G),$$

which implies $\mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G)$. Since $X_n\mathbb{I}_G \uparrow X\mathbb{I}_G$, we also know that $\mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G)$, so that $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G)$. Because Y is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable and $\Omega \in \mathcal{G}$, we know that $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

Finally, suppose $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Let $X = X^+ - X^-$, where $X^+ : \Omega \to [0, \infty]$ and $X^- : \Omega \to [0, \infty]$. Let $Y^+ = \mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely and $Y^- = \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}((X^+ - X^-)\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(X^+\mathbb{I}_G) - \mathbb{E}(X^-\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(Y^+\mathbb{I}_G) - \mathbb{E}(Y^-\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}((Y^+ - Y^-)\mathbb{I}_G),$$

so that $Y^+ - Y^- = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

It remains to show that if $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely and $\tilde{Y} = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely then $\mathbb{P}(Y = \tilde{Y}) = 1$. For the purpose of finding a contradiction, suppose that $\mathbb{P}(Y = \tilde{Y}) < 1$, so that $\mathbb{P}(Y \neq \tilde{Y}) > 0$. In that case, $\mathbb{P}(Y > \tilde{Y}) + \mathbb{P}(\tilde{Y} > Y) > 0$, so that $\mathbb{P}(Y > \tilde{Y}) > 0$ or $\mathbb{P}(\tilde{Y} > Y) > 0$. Suppose $\mathbb{P}(Y > \tilde{Y}) > 0$. Let $A_n = \{Y > \tilde{Y} + n^{-1}\} = (Y - \tilde{Y})^{-1}((n^{-1}, \infty))$, so that $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ and $\cup_n A_n = \{Y > \tilde{Y}\}$. By the monotone-convergence property of measure, we know that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \uparrow \mathbb{P}(Y > \tilde{Y})$. Because $\mathbb{P}(Y > \tilde{Y}) > 0$, there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(Y > \tilde{Y} + n^{-1}) > 0$. Note that $(Y - \tilde{Y})\mathbb{I}_{A_n} > n^{-1}\mathbb{I}_{A_n}$, since

$$(Y - \tilde{Y})(\omega)\mathbb{I}_{A_n}(\omega) = \begin{cases} (Y - \tilde{Y})(\omega), & \text{if } (Y - \tilde{Y})(\omega) > n^{-1}, \\ 0, & \text{if } (Y - \tilde{Y})(\omega) \leq n^{-1}. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, $\mathbb{E}((Y-\tilde{Y})\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) \geq \mathbb{E}(n^{-1}\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) = n^{-1}\mathbb{P}(A_n) > 0$. However, for every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, note that $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(\tilde{Y}\mathbb{I}_G)$, so that $\mathbb{E}((Y-\tilde{Y})\mathbb{I}_G) = 0$. Because $A_n \in \mathcal{G}$, we arrived at a contradiction. An analogous contradiction is found by supposing that $\mathbb{P}(\tilde{Y} > Y) > 0$. Therefore, $\mathbb{P}(Y = \tilde{Y}) = 1$.

Consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$, and a random variable $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. A random variable $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is called a version of the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}(X \mid Z)$ of X given Z if and only if it is a version of the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \sigma(Z))$ of X given $\sigma(Z)$. An analogous definition applies when Z is a set of random variables.

Suppose $X \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ are random variables and let $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid Z)$ almost surely. Recall that for every $W \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \sigma(Z), \mathbb{P})$ there is a Borel function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $W = f \circ Z$ and that $\mathbb{E}((X-Y)^2) \leq \mathbb{E}((X-W)^2)$. In this sense, if $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Borel function such that $Y = g \circ Z$, then $Y(\omega) = g(Z(\omega))$ is almost surely the best prediction about $X(\omega)$ that can be made given $Z(\omega)$.

The next three examples illustrate the definition of conditional expectation.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathcal{X}$ and $Z : \Omega \to \mathcal{Z}$, where $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ and $\mathcal{Z} = \{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}$. Furthermore, suppose $\mathbb{P}(Z = z) > 0$ for every $z \in \mathcal{Z}$.

Let $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z})$ denote the set of all subsets of $\mathcal{Z}$ and consider the $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z})$-measurable function $E : \mathcal{Z} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$E(z) = \sum_i x_i \frac{\mathbb{P}(X = x_i, Z = z)}{\mathbb{P}(Z = z)}.$$

We will now show that $Y = E \circ Z$ is a $\sigma(Z)$-measurable function such that

$$\int_G Y \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_G X \, d\mathbb{P},$$

for every $G \in \sigma(Z)$, so that $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid Z)$ almost surely.

For every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, recall that $Y^{-1}(B) = Z^{-1}(E^{-1}(B))$. Because $E^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z})$ and $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, we know that $Y^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(Z)$. Therefore, Y is $\sigma(Z)$-measurable.

Because Y is a bounded $\mathcal{F}$-measurable function and $\{Z = z\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $z \in \mathcal{Z}$,

$$\int_{\{Z=z\}} Y \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}}(\omega) E(Z(\omega)) \mathbb{P}(d\omega) = \int_\Omega \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}}(\omega) E(z) \mathbb{P}(d\omega) = E(z)\mathbb{P}(Z = z) = \sum_i x_i \mathbb{P}(X = x_i, Z = z).$$

By the definition of the integral of a simple function with respect to $\mathbb{P}$,

$$\int_{\{Z=z\}} Y \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \left(\sum_i x_i \mathbb{I}_{\{X=x_i, Z=z\}} \right) d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \left(\mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}} \sum_i x_i \mathbb{I}_{\{X=x_i\}} \right) d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}} X \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\{Z=z\}} X \, d\mathbb{P}.$$

Because $Z(\omega) \in \mathcal{Z}$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$ and $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\sigma(Z) = \left\{ \bigcup_{z \in B} \{Z = z\} \mid B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \right\} = \left\{ \bigcup_{z \in B} \{Z = z\} \mid B \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z}) \right\}.$$

Let $G = \bigcup_{z \in B} \{Z = z\}$ for some $B \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z})$. For every $\omega \in \Omega$, note that $\mathbb{I}_G(\omega) = \sum_{z \in B} \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}}(\omega)$, since G is a union of disjoint sets. Therefore, because Y is a bounded $\mathcal{F}$-measurable function and $G \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$\int_G Y \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \sum_{z \in B} \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}}(\omega) Y(\omega) \mathbb{P}(d\omega) = \sum_{z \in B} \int_\Omega \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}}(\omega) Y(\omega) \mathbb{P}(d\omega) = \sum_{z \in B} \int_\Omega \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}}(\omega) X(\omega) \mathbb{P}(d\omega).$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to $\mathbb{P}$ and the fact that $\mathbb{I}_G(\omega) = \sum_{z \in B} \mathbb{I}_{\{Z=z\}}(\omega)$,

$$\int_G Y \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \mathbb{I}_G(\omega) X(\omega) \mathbb{P}(d\omega) = \int_G X \, d\mathbb{P},$$

which completes the proof.

Consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) = ([0,1], \mathcal{B}([0,1]), \text{Leb}) \times ([0,1], \mathcal{B}([0,1]), \text{Leb})$ and the bounded random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Z : \Omega \to [0,1]$, where $Z(a, b) = a$. Furthermore, consider the bounded $\mathcal{B}([0,1])$-measurable function $I_1^X : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$I_1^X(a) = \int_{[0,1]} X(a, b) \, \text{Leb}(db).$$

We will now show that $Y = I_1^X \circ Z$ is a $\sigma(Z)$-measurable function such that

$$\int_G Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_G X d\mathbb{P},$$

for every $G \in \sigma(Z)$, so that $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid Z)$ almost surely.

Recall that $\sigma(Z) = \{A \times [0,1] \mid A \in \mathcal{B}([0,1])\}$. For every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, note that $Y^{-1}(B) = Z^{-1}((I_1^X)^{-1}(B))$. Because $(I_1^X)^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{B}([0,1])$, we know that Y is $\sigma(Z)$-measurable.

Let $G = A \times [0,1]$ for some $A \in \mathcal{B}([0,1])$. Because Y is a bounded $\mathcal{F}$-measurable function and $G \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$\int_G Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_{[0,1]} \left[\int_{[0,1]} \mathbb{I}_{A \times [0,1]}(a,b) Y(a,b) \,\mathrm{Leb}(db) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(da) = \int_{[0,1]} \left[\int_{[0,1]} \mathbb{I}_A(a) I_1^X(a) \,\mathrm{Leb}(db) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(da).$$

By the linearity of the integral with respect to Leb and using the fact that $\mathrm{Leb}([0,1]) = 1$,

$$\int_G Y d\mathbb{P} = \left[\int_{[0,1]} \mathrm{Leb}(db) \right] \left[\int_{[0,1]} \mathbb{I}_A(a) I_1^X(a) \,\mathrm{Leb}(da) \right] = \int_{[0,1]} \mathbb{I}_A(a) \left[\int_{[0,1]} X(a,b) \,\mathrm{Leb}(db) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(da).$$

Therefore, using the fact that $\mathbb{I}_A(a) = \mathbb{I}_{A \times [0,1]}(a,b) = \mathbb{I}_G(a,b)$,

$$\int_G Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_{[0,1]} \left[\int_{[0,1]} \mathbb{I}_G(a,b) X(a,b) \,\mathrm{Leb}(db) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(da) = \int_G X d\mathbb{P}.$$

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Suppose that $f_{X,Z} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to [0,\infty]$ is a joint probability density function for X and Z. Let $f_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0,\infty]$ be a probability density function for X and $f_Z : \mathbb{R} \to [0,\infty]$ be a probability density function for Z such that

$$f_X(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Z}(x,z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dz),$$
$$f_Z(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Z}(x,z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx).$$

Furthermore, consider the elementary conditional probability density function $f_{X|Z} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to [0,\infty]$ given by

$$f_{X|Z}(x,z) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } f_Z(z) = 0, \\ f_{X,Z}(x,z)/f_Z(z), & \text{if } 0 < f_Z(z) < \infty, \\ 0, & \text{if } f_Z(z) = \infty. \end{cases}$$

Let $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a Borel function such that $\mathbb{E}(|h \circ X|) < \infty$, so that

$$\mathbb{E}(h \circ X) = \int_\Omega (h \circ X) d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h \; d\mathcal{L}_X = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) f_X(x) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx),$$

where $\mathcal{L}_X$ is the law of X. Finally, consider the function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } z \notin F_2^g, \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) f_{X|Z}(x,z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx), & \text{if } z \in F_2^g, \end{cases}$$

where $F_2^g = \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x) f_{X|Z}(x,z)| \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) < \infty\}$.

We will now show that $Y = g \circ Z$ is a $\sigma(Z)$-measurable function such that $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) < \infty$ and

$$\int_G Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_G (h \circ X) d\mathbb{P}$$

for every $G \in \sigma(Z)$, so that $Y = \mathbb{E}((h \circ X) \mid Z)$ almost surely.

First, we will show that $(h \circ \rho_1) f_{X|Z}$ is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable. Let $A_1 = \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid f_Z(z) > 0\} \cap \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid f_Z(z) < \infty\}$. Because f_Z is Borel, we know that $\mathbb{R} \times A_1 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$. Furthermore, note that

$$f_{X|Z}(x, z) = \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_1}(x, z) \frac{f_{X,Z}(x, z)}{f_Z(\rho_2(x, z)) + \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_1^c}(x, z)}.$$

Because the function $u : (0, \infty] \to [0, \infty)$ given by $u(r) = 1/r$ is Borel, we know that $f_{X|Z}$ is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable. Because h is Borel, we also know that $(h \circ \rho_1) f_{X|Z}$ is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable.

We will now show that g is Borel. Because $|(h \circ \rho_1) f_{X|Z}|$ is non-negative and $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable, we know that the function $I_2 : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ given by $I_2(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x) f_{X|Z}(x, z)| \operatorname{Leb}(dx)$ is Borel, so that $F_2^g \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Furthermore,

$$g(z) = \mathbb{I}_{F_2^g}(z) \int_{\mathbb{R}} ((h \circ \rho_1) f_{X|Z})^+(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) - \mathbb{I}_{F_2^g}(z) \int_{\mathbb{R}} ((h \circ \rho_1) f_{X|Z})^-(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx).$$

Since $((h \circ \rho_1) f_{X|Z})^+$ and $((h \circ \rho_1) f_{X|Z})^-$ are non-negative and $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2$-measurable, we know that g is Borel, which also implies that $Y = g \circ Z$ is a $\sigma(Z)$-measurable function.

We will now show that $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) < \infty$. Because $|g(z)| \leq I_2(z)$ for every $z \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|g(z)| f_Z(z) \leq I_2(z) f_Z(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x) f_{X|Z}(x, z)| f_Z(z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| \mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z) f_{X,Z}(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx).$$

Because $|g| f_Z$ and $I_2 f_Z$ are non-negative and Borel,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |g(z)| f_Z(z) \operatorname{Leb}(dz) \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| \mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z) f_{X,Z}(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) \right] \operatorname{Leb}(dz).$$

Because a previous result for probability density functions extends to joint probability density functions,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |g(z)| f_Z(z) \operatorname{Leb}(dz) \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} |h \circ \rho_1| (\mathbb{I}_{A_1} \circ \rho_2) f_{X,Z} \, d \operatorname{Leb}^2 = \mathbb{E}(|h \circ X| \mathbb{I}_{Z^{-1}(A_1)}) < \infty,$$

since $(\mathbb{I}_{A_1} \circ Z) = \mathbb{I}_{Z^{-1}(A_1)}$. Because $\operatorname{Leb}(|g| f_Z) = \mathbb{E}(|g \circ Z|)$, we know that $Y \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

Let $\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^2 \to [0, 1]$ denote the joint law of X and Z.

We will now show that $\mathcal{L}_{X,Z}(\mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_1^c}) = 0$. Because a previous result for laws extends to joint laws,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_1^c} \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_1^c} f_{X,Z} \, d \operatorname{Leb}^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{A_1^c}(z) f_{X,Z}(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) \right] \operatorname{Leb}(dz).$$

By rearranging terms,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_1^c} \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{A_1^c}(z) \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Z}(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) \right] \operatorname{Leb}(dz) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{A_1^c}(z) f_Z(z) \operatorname{Leb}(dz).$$

Because $A_1^c = \{f_Z = 0\} \cup \{f_Z = \infty\}$ is a union of disjoint sets, we know that $\mathbb{I}_{A_1^c} = \mathbb{I}_{\{f_Z = 0\}} + \mathbb{I}_{\{f_Z = \infty\}}$. Therefore,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_1^c} \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{\{f_Z = 0\}}(z) f_Z(z) \operatorname{Leb}(dz) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{\{f_Z = \infty\}}(z) f_Z(z) \operatorname{Leb}(dz) = 0,$$

since $\mathbb{I}_{\{f_Z = 0\}} f_Z = 0$ and $\operatorname{Leb}(f_Z) < \infty$.

Let $A_2 = \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| f_{X,Z}(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) < \infty\}$, so that $A_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. We will now show that $\mathcal{L}_{X,Z}(\mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_2^c}) = 0$. From a previous result about probability density functions,

$$\mathbb{E}(|h \circ X|) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| f_X(x) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| f_{X,Z}(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dz) \right] \operatorname{Leb}(dx) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} |h \circ \rho_1| f_{X,Z} \, d \operatorname{Leb}^2.$$

Because $\mathbb{E}(|h \circ X|) < \infty$, we know that $\operatorname{Leb}(A_2^c) = 0$. Because a previous result about laws extends to joint laws,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_2^c} \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R} \times A_2^c} f_{X,Z} \, d \operatorname{Leb}^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{A_2^c}(z) f_{X,Z}(x, z) \operatorname{Leb}(dx) \right] \operatorname{Leb}(dz).$$

By rearranging terms and the using fact that $\mathrm{Leb}(\mathbb{I}_{A_2^c}) = 0$ implies $\mathrm{Leb}(\{\mathbb{I}_{A_2^c} f_Z > 0\}) \leq \mathrm{Leb}(\{\mathbb{I}_{A_2^c} > 0\}) = 0$,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{R}\times A_2^c} \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_{A_2^c}(z) f_Z(z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dz) = 0.$$

Finally, we will show that $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}((h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G)$ for every $G \in \sigma(Z)$. Note that, for every $G \in \sigma(Z)$,

$$\mathbb{I}_G(\omega) = \mathbb{I}_{Z^{-1}(B)}(\omega) = (\mathbb{I}_B \circ Z)(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } Z(\omega) \in B, \\ 0, & \text{if } Z(\omega) \notin B, \end{cases}$$

for some $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Let $S = (\mathbb{R} \times A_1) \cap (\mathbb{R} \times A_2)$, so that $S^c = (\mathbb{R} \times A_1^c) \cup (\mathbb{R} \times A_2^c)$ and $\mathcal{L}_{X,Z}(\mathbb{I}_{S^c}) = 0$. Note that

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega (h \circ X)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ Z) \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (h \circ \rho_1)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2) \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (h \circ \rho_1)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)\mathbb{I}_S \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z},$$

since $(h \circ \rho_1)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)$ and $(h \circ \rho_1)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)\mathbb{I}_S$ are $\mathcal{L}_{X,Z}$-integrable and equal almost everywhere.

Because a previous result for probability density functions extends to joint probability density functions,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (h \circ \rho_1)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)\mathbb{I}_S f_{X,Z} \, d\,\mathrm{Leb}^2.$$

Because $\mathbb{I}_S(x, z) = \mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_2}(z)$ for every $(x, z) \in \mathbb{R}^2$,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_F \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)\mathbb{I}_B(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_2}(z) f_{X,Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(dz),$$

where $F = \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)|\mathbb{I}_B(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_2}(z) f_{X,Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) < \infty\}$.

Because $A_2 \subseteq F$, we know that $\mathbb{I}_F \mathbb{I}_{A_2} = \mathbb{I}_{A_2}$. Therefore,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)\mathbb{I}_B(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_2}(z) f_{X,Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(dz).$$

Because $f_{X,Z}(x, z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z) = f_{X|Z}(x, z) f_Z(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z)$ for every $(x, z) \in \mathbb{R}^2$,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)\mathbb{I}_B(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_2}(z) f_{X|Z}(x, z) f_Z(z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(dz).$$

By rearranging terms,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(z) f_Z(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1 \cap A_2}(z) \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) f_{X|Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(dz).$$

For any $z \in (A_1 \cap A_2)$, by the linearity of the integral with respect to Leb,

$$\mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z) \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| f_{X,Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) = f_Z(z) \int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| f_{X|Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) < \infty.$$

Because $f_Z(z) > 0$, we know that $\int_{\mathbb{R}} |h(x)| f_{X|Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) < \infty$, so that $z \in F_2^g$.
Because $(A_1 \cap A_2) \subseteq F_2^g$ implies $\mathbb{I}_{A_1 \cap A_2} = \mathbb{I}_{A_1 \cap A_2}\mathbb{I}_{F_2^g}$,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(z) f_Z(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1 \cap A_2}(z)\mathbb{I}_{F_2^g}(z) \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) f_{X|Z}(x, z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dx) \right] \mathrm{Leb}(dz).$$

By the definition of g,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{I}_B(z) f_Z(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_1 \cap A_2}(z) g(z) \,\mathrm{Leb}(dz).$$

By once again applying results about probability density functions and joint laws,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega (\mathbb{I}_B \circ Z)(\mathbb{I}_{A_1 \cap A_2} \circ Z)(g \circ Z) \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)(\mathbb{I}_{A_1 \cap A_2} \circ \rho_2)(g \circ \rho_2) \, d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z}.$$

Because $\mathbb{I}_S(x,z) = \mathbb{I}_{A_1}(z)\mathbb{I}_{A_2}(z)$ for every $(x,z) \in \mathbb{R}^2$,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (g \circ \rho_2)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)\mathbb{I}_S \; d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z}.$$

Because $(g \circ \rho_2)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)$ and $(g \circ \rho_2)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2)\mathbb{I}_S$ are $\mathcal{L}_{X,Z}$-integrable functions that are equal almost everywhere,

$$\int_\Omega (h \circ X)\mathbb{I}_G \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (g \circ \rho_2)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ \rho_2) \; d\mathcal{L}_{X,Z} = \int_\Omega (g \circ Z)(\mathbb{I}_B \circ Z) \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega Y\mathbb{I}_G \; d\mathbb{P},$$

which completes the proof.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. For the remainder of this text, we let $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ denote an arbitrary version of the conditional expectation of X given $\mathcal{G}$.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Note that $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_\Omega) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_\Omega) = \mathbb{E}(X)$.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Note that if X is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable, then $X = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and let $Y = \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{I}_\Omega$. We will now show that $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \{\emptyset, \Omega\})$ almost surely. For every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, we have $Y^{-1}(B) = \emptyset$ if $\mathbb{E}(X) \notin B$ and $Y^{-1}(B) = \Omega$ if $\mathbb{E}(X) \in B$. Furthermore, $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{I}_\Omega|) = \mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$. Therefore, $Y \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \{\emptyset, \Omega\}, \mathbb{P})$. Finally, $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_\Omega) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{I}_\Omega\mathbb{I}_\Omega) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_\Omega)$ and $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_\emptyset) = 0 = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_\emptyset)$.

Consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will now show that if $X = 0$ almost surely, then $0 = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely, where 0 denotes the zero function. Clearly, $0 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, because $\mathbb{P}(X\mathbb{I}_G = 0) = 1$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G) = 0 = \mathbb{E}(0\mathbb{I}_G)$.

Consider the random variables $X_1 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $X_2 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will now show that $a_1\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}) + a_2\mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely for every $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Because $\mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ is a vector space, we know that $a_1\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}) + a_2\mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G}) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\mathbb{E}((a_1\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}) + a_2\mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G}))\mathbb{I}_G) = a_1\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_G) + a_2\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_G).$$

From the definition of a version of the conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{E}((a_1\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}) + a_2\mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G}))\mathbb{I}_G) = a_1\mathbb{E}(X_1\mathbb{I}_G) + a_2\mathbb{E}(X_2\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}((a_1X_1 + a_2X_2)\mathbb{I}_G).$$

Consider the random variables $X_1 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $X_2 \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will now show that if $X_1 = X_2$ almost surely, then $\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. Because $\mathbb{P}(X_1 - X_2 = 0) = 1$, we know that $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X_1 - X_2 \mid \mathcal{G}) = 0) = 1$. Therefore, by linearity, $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G})) = 1$.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will again show that if $X \geq 0$, then $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq 0) = 1$.

In order to find a contradiction, suppose that $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq 0) < 1$, so that $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0) > 0$. Let $A_n = \{\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) < -n^{-1}\} = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})^{-1}((-\infty, -n^{-1}))$, so that $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ and $\cup_n A_n = \{\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0\}$. Since $A_n \uparrow \{\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0\}$, the monotone-convergence property of measure guarantees that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \uparrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0)$. Because we supposed that $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0) > 0$, there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) < -n^{-1}) > 0$. Consider the random variable $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_{A_n}$ given by

$$(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_{A_n})(\omega) = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})(\omega)\mathbb{I}_{A_n}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})(\omega), & \text{if } \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})(\omega) < -n^{-1}, \\ 0, & \text{if } \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})(\omega) \geq -n^{-1}. \end{cases}$$

Because $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_{A_n} < -n^{-1}\mathbb{I}_{A_n}$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) \leq -n^{-1}\mathbb{P}(A_n) < 0$. Because $X \geq 0$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) \geq 0$. However, $A_n \in \mathcal{G}$, so that $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_{A_n}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_{A_n})$. Because this is a contradiction, we know that $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq 0) = 1$.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will now show that $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| \leq \mathbb{E}(|X| \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. By the linearity of conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| = \left|\mathbb{E}(X^+ - X^- \mid \mathcal{G})\right| = \left|\mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})\right|\right) = 1,$$
$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(|X| \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X^+ + X^- \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G}) + \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

By the triangle inequality, $|\mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})| \leq |\mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G})| + |\mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})|$.

Because $\mathbb{P}(|\mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G})| = \mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G})) = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(|\mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})| = \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})) = 1$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| \leq \left|\mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G})\right| + \left|\mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G})\right| = \mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G}) + \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(|X| \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

Consider a sequence of non-negative random variables $(X_n \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, a non-negative random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. The conditional monotone-convergence theorem states that if $X_n \uparrow X$, then $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})) = 1$, where $A \in \mathcal{G}$ is a set such that $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$.

We will now show this theorem. Because X_n is a non-negative random variable, $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq 0) = 1$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, because $X_{n+1} - X_n$ is non-negative and $\mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} - X_n \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely, $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq 0) = 1$.

Let $A^c = \bigcup_n \{\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0\} \cup \{\mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0\}$. Note that $A \in \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$, since

$$\mathbb{P}(A^c) \leq \sum_n \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0) + \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) < 0) = 0.$$

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, note that $\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A \geq 0$ and $\mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A \geq \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A$.

Let $Y = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, because every non-decreasing sequence of real numbers converges (possibly to infinity), we know that $\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G \uparrow Y\mathbb{I}_G$, which also implies $\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A \uparrow Y$. By the monotone-convergence theorem, we know that $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G)$.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $G \in \mathcal{G}$, we have $(A \cap G) \in \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathbb{P}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G\mathbb{I}_{A^c} \neq 0) = 0$, so that

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_{A\cap G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_{A\cap G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_A\mathbb{I}_G) + \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_{A^c}\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G),$$

which implies $\mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G)$. Since $X_n\mathbb{I}_G \uparrow X\mathbb{I}_G$, we also know that $\mathbb{E}(X_n\mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G)$, so that $\mathbb{E}(Y\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G)$. Because Y is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable and $\Omega \in \mathcal{G}$, we know that $Y = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

Consider a sequence of non-negative random variables $(X_n \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. The conditional Fatou lemma states that if $\mathbb{E}(\liminf_{n\to\infty} X_n) < \infty$, then

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} X_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

We will now show this lemma. For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the function $Z_m = \inf_{n \geq m} X_n$, such that

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} X_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} \inf_{n\geq m} X_n = \lim_{m\to\infty} Z_m.$$

Because $Z_m \leq Z_{m+1}$ for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $Z_m \uparrow \liminf_{n\to\infty} X_n$. Furthermore, $Z_m \geq 0$ and $Z_m \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, by the conditional monotone-convergence theorem,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(Z_m \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A \uparrow \mathbb{E}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} X_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right)\right) = 1,$$

where $A \in \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$.

For any $n \geq m$, note that $X_n \geq Z_m$. Therefore, $\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(X_n - Z_m \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq 0\right) = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq \mathbb{E}(Z_m \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1$. Furthermore, for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$, because $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\inf_{n\geq m} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq \mathbb{E}(Z_m \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A\right) = 1.$$

By taking the limit of both sides of the previous inequation when $m \to \infty$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq \mathbb{E}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} X_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right)\right) = 1.$$

Consider a sequence of non-negative random variables $(X_n \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, and a non-negative random variable $Y \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ such that $X_n \leq Y$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The reverse conditional Fatou lemma states that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} X_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \geq \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

We will now show this lemma. Because $X_n \leq Y$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(\limsup_{n\to\infty} X_n) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y) < \infty$.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the non-negative function $Z_n = Y - X_n$, so that $Z_n \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. From the conditional Fatou lemma, since $\mathbb{E}(\liminf_{n\to\infty} Z_n) < \infty$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} Y - X_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(Y - X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, by moving constants outside the corresponding limits and linearity,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}\left(Y \mid \mathcal{G}\right) + \mathbb{E}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} -X_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y \mid \mathcal{G}) + \liminf_{n\to\infty} -\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

By the relationship between limit inferior and limit superior and linearity,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}\left(Y \mid \mathcal{G}\right) - \mathbb{E}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} X_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y \mid \mathcal{G}) - \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

The proof is completed by reorganizing terms in the inequation above.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a sequence of random variables $(X_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$, a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, a random variable X, and a non-negative random variable $V \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ such that $|X_n| \leq V$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The conditional dominated convergence theorem states that if $\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n = X\right) = 1$, then $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_C = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

where $C \in \mathcal{G}$ is a set such that $\mathbb{P}(C) = 1$.

We will now show this theorem. Because $|X_n| \leq V$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(|X_n|) \leq \mathbb{E}(V) < \infty$, which implies that $X_n \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Because the function $|\cdot|$ is continuous, we know that $\mathbb{P}(\lim_{n\to\infty} |X_n| = |X|) = 1$. Because $\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} |X_n| \leq V\right) = 1$, we know that $\mathbb{P}\left(|X| \leq V\right) = 1$. Because $\mathbb{P}(|X| \neq |X|\mathbb{I}_{\{|X|\leq V\}}) = 0$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(|X|) = \mathbb{E}(|X|\mathbb{I}_{\{|X|\leq V\}}) \leq \mathbb{E}(V) < \infty$, so that $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

Since $\mathbb{P}(|X_n| \leq V) = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(|X| \leq V) = 1$, we have $\mathbb{P}(|X_n| + |X| \leq 2V) = 1$. By the triangle inequality,

$$|X_n - X| = |X_n + (-X)| \leq |X_n| + |X|,$$

which implies that $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| \leq 2V) = 1$.

Let $A = \{|X_n - X| \leq 2V\}$, so that $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| = |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A) = 1$ and $\mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|) = \mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A)$. Because $|X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A$ is an $\mathcal{F}$-measurable function and $|X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A \leq 2V$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $2V : \Omega \to [0, \infty]$ is an $\mathcal{F}$-measurable function such that $\mathbb{E}(2V) = 2\mathbb{E}(V) < \infty$, the reverse conditional Fatou lemma states that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \geq \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}\left(|X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right)\right) = 1.$$

Since $|\cdot|$ is continuous, we have $\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A = 0\right) = 1$, where 0 is the zero function. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A = \liminf_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A = \lim_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A = 0\right) = 1.$$

Because each of the random variables above is almost surely equal to zero,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = 0\right) = 1.$$

Since $(X_n - X)\mathbb{I}_A \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $\mathbb{P}\left(|\mathbb{E}((X_n - X)\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G})| \leq \mathbb{E}\left(|X_n - X|\,\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right)\right) = 1$. By taking the limit superior of both sides of the previous inequation and employing the previous results,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(0 \leq \limsup_{n\to\infty} |\mathbb{E}((X_n - X)\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G})| \leq \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}\left(|X_n - X|\,\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \leq \mathbb{E}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty} |X_n - X|\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = 0\right) = 1.$$

Therefore, by the relationship between limits,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}((X_n - X)\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}((X_n - X)\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}) = 0\right) = 1.$$

Because $\mathbb{P}\left((X_n - X)\mathbb{I}_A = (X_n - X)\right) = 1$ implies $\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}((X_n - X)\mathbb{I}_A \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X_n - X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1$.

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n - X \mid \mathcal{G}) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n - X \mid \mathcal{G}) = 0\right) = 1.$$

By the linearity of conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

Let $C = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})(\omega) \text{ exists in } \mathbb{R}\}$. Because $\mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})$ is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, recall that $C \in \mathcal{G}$. Because $\mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|) < \infty$, recall that $\mathbb{P}\left(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| < \infty\right) = 1$, so that $\mathbb{P}(C) = 1$. Furthermore,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_C = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1.$$

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, and a convex function $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. The conditional Jensen's inequality states that if $(\phi \circ X) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, then $\mathbb{P}\left((\phi \circ \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})) \leq \mathbb{E}((\phi \circ X) \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1$.

We will now show this inequality. Because ϕ is a convex function, it is possible to show that there is a sequence $((a_n, b_n) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $\phi(x) = \sup_n a_n x + b_n$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Therefore, $\phi(x) \geq a_n x + b_n$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Furthermore, if $(\phi \circ X) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, then $(\phi \circ X) - a_n X - b_n \geq 0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}((\phi \circ X) - a_n X - b_n \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq 0\right) = 1.$$

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, by the linearity of conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}((\phi \circ X) \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq a_n \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) + b_n\right) = 1.$$

By taking the supremum of both sides of the previous inequation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}((\phi \circ X) \mid \mathcal{G}) \geq \sup_n a_n \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) + b_n = (\phi \circ \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}))\right) = 1.$$

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, where $p \in [1, \infty)$, and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will now show that $\|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\|_p \leq \|X\|_p$.

From the monotonicity of norm, we know that $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Consider the convex function $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $\phi(x) = |x|^p$, so that $(\phi \circ X) = |X|^p$. Because $\mathbb{E}(|X|^p) < \infty$, we know that $|X|^p \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. From the conditional Jensen's inequality, $\mathbb{P}\left(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|^p \leq \mathbb{E}(|X|^p \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1$. Let $A = \{|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|^p \leq \mathbb{E}(|X|^p \mid \mathcal{G})\}$.

Because $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|^p$ is non-negative and $\mathcal{G}$-measurable and $\mathbb{E}(|X|^p \mid \mathcal{G}) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$,

$$\mathbb{E}\left(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|^p\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|^p \mathbb{I}_A\right) \leq \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbb{E}(|X|^p \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_A\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbb{E}(|X|^p \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = \mathbb{E}(|X|^p).$$

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$. The tower property states that $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \mid \mathcal{H}) = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{H})$ almost surely. We will now show this property.

Because $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$, we know that $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \mid \mathcal{H}) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{H}, \mathbb{P})$. For every $H \in \mathcal{H}$, since $H \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\int_\Omega \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \mid \mathcal{H})\mathbb{I}_H \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_H \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega X\mathbb{I}_H \, d\mathbb{P},$$

as we wanted to show. For the remainder of this text, we let $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G} \mid \mathcal{H})$ denote $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) \mid \mathcal{H})$.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, and a $\mathcal{G}$-measurable random variable $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. We will now show that if $\mathbb{E}(|ZX|) < \infty$, then $\mathbb{E}(ZX \mid \mathcal{G}) = Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

We will start by assuming that $X \geq 0$.

First, suppose that $Z = \mathbb{I}_A$, where $A \in \mathcal{G}$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, since $ZX \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $A \cap G \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\mathbb{E}(ZX\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_{A\cap G}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_{A\cap G}) = \mathbb{E}(Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\mathbb{I}_G).$$

Because $Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable and $\mathbb{E}(Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})) = \mathbb{E}(ZX) < \infty$, we know that $Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(ZX \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

Next, suppose that Z is a simple function that can be written as $Z = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k}$ for some fixed $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m \in [0, \infty]$ and $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m \in \mathcal{G}$. By the linearity of the conditional expectation and the previous step,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(ZX \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k} X \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbb{I}_{A_k} X \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k \mathbb{I}_{A_k} \mathbb{E}\left(X \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1,$$

where we also used the fact that $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_{A_k} X) \leq \mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$.

Next, suppose that Z is a non-negative $\mathcal{G}$-measurable function. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the simple function $Z_n = \alpha_n \circ Z$, where α_n is the n-th staircase function.

For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, since $Z_n \uparrow Z$ and $X\mathbb{I}_G \geq 0$, note that $Z_n X \mathbb{I}_G \uparrow Z X \mathbb{I}_G$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, since $Z_n \uparrow Z$ and $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G \geq 0$, note that $Z_n|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G \uparrow Z|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G$. Therefore, by the monotone-convergence theorem, we know that $\mathbb{E}(Z_n X \mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(Z X \mathbb{I}_G)$ and $\mathbb{E}(Z_n|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(Z|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G)$.

Because Z_n is a simple $\mathcal{G}$-measurable function and $\mathbb{E}(Z_n X) \leq \mathbb{E}(ZX) < \infty$, note that $\mathbb{E}(Z_n X \mid \mathcal{G}) = Z_n \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. Because $Z_n \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) = Z_n |\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|$ almost surely, $\mathbb{E}(Z_n X \mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(Z_n|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G)$ for every $G \in \mathcal{G}$. Therefore, the previous result implies that $\mathbb{E}(ZX\mathbb{I}_G) = \mathbb{E}(Z|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G)$ for every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, so that $Z|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| = \mathbb{E}(ZX \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. Because $Z|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| = Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely, this step is complete.

Next, suppose that Z is a $\mathcal{G}$-measurable function. Recall that $Z = Z^+ - Z^-$, where Z^+ and Z^- are non-negative $\mathcal{G}$-measurable functions. By the linearity of the conditional expectation and the previous step,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(ZX \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(Z^+ X \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(Z^- X \mid \mathcal{G}) = Z^+\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) - Z^-\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}) = Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1,$$

where we have also used the fact that $\mathbb{E}(Z^+X) + \mathbb{E}(Z^-X) = \mathbb{E}((Z^+ + Z^-)X) = \mathbb{E}(|ZX|) < \infty$.

Finally, suppose that $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Recall that $X = X^+ - X^-$, where X^+ and X^- are non-negative $\mathcal{F}$-measurable functions By the linearity of the conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(ZX \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(ZX^+ \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(ZX^- \mid \mathcal{G}) = Z\mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G}) - Z\mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G}) = Z\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1,$$

where we have also used the fact that $\mathbb{E}(|Z|X^+) + \mathbb{E}(|Z|X^-) = \mathbb{E}(|Z|(X^+ + X^-)) = \mathbb{E}(|ZX|) < \infty$.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will now show that if $\mathcal{H}$ and $\sigma(\sigma(X) \cup \mathcal{G})$ are independent, then $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})) = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

We will start by assuming that $X \geq 0$.

For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$, note that $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G$ is $\mathcal{G}$-measurable. Consider the Borel function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(a, b) = ab$. Since $(X\mathbb{I}_G)(\omega) = f(X(\omega), \mathbb{I}_G(\omega))$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$, we also know that $X\mathbb{I}_G$ is $\sigma(\sigma(X) \cup \mathcal{G})$-measurable.

For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we know that $X\mathbb{I}_G$ and $\mathbb{I}_H$ are independent, since $\mathbb{I}_H$ is $\mathcal{H}$-measurable. We also know that $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G$ and $\mathbb{I}_H$ are independent, since $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \sigma(\sigma(X) \cup \mathcal{G})$.

For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, because $X\mathbb{I}_G \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, and $\mathbb{I}_H \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$,

$$\mathbb{E}(X; G \cap H) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G\mathbb{I}_H) = \mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_G)\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_H) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G)\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_H) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_G\mathbb{I}_H) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|; G \cap H).$$

Consider the set $\mathcal{I} = \{G \cap H \mid G \in \mathcal{G} \text{ and } H \in \mathcal{H}\}$. Suppose that $(G_1 \cap H_1) \in \mathcal{I}$ and $(G_2 \cap H_2) \in \mathcal{I}$, and note that $(G_1 \cap H_1) \cap (G_2 \cap H_2) = (G_1 \cap G_2) \cap (H_1 \cap H_2)$. Because $(G_1 \cap G_2) \in \mathcal{G}$ and $(H_1 \cap H_2) \in \mathcal{H}$, we know that $((G_1 \cap H_1) \cap (G_2 \cap H_2)) \in \mathcal{I}$, so that $\mathcal{I}$ is a π-system.

Since $\Omega \in \mathcal{G}$, we know that $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$. Since $\Omega \in \mathcal{H}$, we know that $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$, so that $\sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{I})$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we know that $(G \cap H) \in \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})$. Therefore $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})$, so that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})$. In conclusion, $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})$.

Consider the measure $(X\mathbb{P}) : \mathcal{F} \to [0, \infty]$ given by $(X\mathbb{P})(A) = \mathbb{E}(X; A)$ and the measure $(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{P}) : \mathcal{F} \to [0, \infty]$ given by $(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{P})(A) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|; A)$. For every $I \in \mathcal{I}$, we know that $(X\mathbb{P})(I) = (|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{P})(I)$. In particular, we know that $(X\mathbb{P})(\Omega) = \mathbb{E}(X) = (|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{P})(\Omega) < \infty$. Therefore, from a previous result, we know that $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_A) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|\mathbb{I}_A)$ for every $A \in \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})$. Because $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|$ is $\sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})$-measurable and $\mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})|) = \mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$, we know that $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H}))$ almost surely. Since $|\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})| = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely, this step is complete.

Finally, suppose $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Recall that $X = X^+ - X^-$, where $X^+ \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $X^- \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ are non-negative. By the linearity of the conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{E}(X \mid \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})) = \mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})) - \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \sigma(\mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H})) = \mathbb{E}(X^+ \mid \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(X^- \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})\right) = 1,$$

where we used the fact that $\sigma(\sigma(X^+) \cup \mathcal{G}) \subseteq \sigma(\sigma(X) \cup \mathcal{G})$ and $\sigma(\sigma(X^-) \cup \mathcal{G}) \subseteq \sigma(\sigma(X) \cup \mathcal{G})$.

Consider a random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. We will now show that if $\mathcal{H}$ and $\sigma(X)$ are independent, then $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{H}) = \mathbb{E}(X)$ almost surely.

Let $\mathcal{G} = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$. Using the previous result, we know that $\mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{H}) = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. Based on a previous result, we know that $\mathbb{E}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

Consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. For every $F \in \mathcal{F}$, we let $\mathbb{P}(F \mid \mathcal{G})$ denote a version of the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_F \mid \mathcal{G})$ of $\mathbb{I}_F$ given $\mathcal{G}$, so that $\mathbb{P}(F \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_F \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely. Note that $\mathbb{P}(F \mid \{\emptyset, \Omega\}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_F \mid \{\emptyset, \Omega\}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_F) = \mathbb{P}(F)$ almost surely.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the random variables $\mathbb{I}_F : \Omega \to \{0, 1\}$ and $Z : \Omega \to \mathcal{Z}$, where $F \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{Z} = \{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}$. Furthermore, suppose $\mathbb{P}(Z = z) > 0$ for every $z \in \mathcal{Z}$. Recall that if $E : \mathcal{Z} \to [0, 1]$ is given by

$$E(z) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{I}_F = 1, Z = z)}{\mathbb{P}(Z = z)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(F \cap \{Z = z\})}{\mathbb{P}(Z = z)},$$

then $E \circ Z = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_F \mid Z) = \mathbb{P}(F \mid Z)$ almost surely.

Consider a sequence of events $(F_n \in \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $F_n \cap F_m = \emptyset$ for every $n \neq m$. We will now show that $\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n F_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \sum_n \mathbb{I}_A \mathbb{P}\left(F_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right)$ almost surely, where $A \in \mathcal{G}$ is a set such that $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$.

For every $k \in \mathbb{N}$, by the linearity of conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=0}^{k} F_i \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbb{I}_{\bigcup_{i=0}^{k} F_i} \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbb{I}_{F_i} \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbb{I}_{F_i} \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbb{P}\left(F_i \mid \mathcal{G}\right)\right) = 1.$$

Because $\mathbb{I}_{\bigcup_{i=0}^{k} F_i} \uparrow \mathbb{I}_{\bigcup_n F_n}$ with respect to k, by the conditional monotone-convergence theorem,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\sum_n \mathbb{I}_A \mathbb{P}\left(F_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \lim_{k\to\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{k} \mathbb{I}_A \mathbb{P}\left(F_i \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \lim_{k\to\infty} \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbb{I}_{\bigcup_{i=0}^{k} F_i} \mid \mathcal{G}\right) \mathbb{I}_A = \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbb{I}_{\bigcup_n F_n} \mid \mathcal{G}\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_n F_n \mid \mathcal{G}\right)\right) = 1,$$

where $A \in \mathcal{G}$ is a set such that $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$.

Consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a σ-algebra $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. A function $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}} : \Omega \times \mathcal{F} \to [0, 1]$ is called a regular conditional probability given $\mathcal{G}$ if

- There is a set $A \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$ and, for every $\omega \in A$, the function $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}(\omega, \cdot) : \mathcal{F} \to [0, 1]$ is a probability measure on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$.
- For every $F \in \mathcal{F}$, the function $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}(\cdot, F) : \Omega \to [0, 1]$ is a version of the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_F \mid \mathcal{G})$ of $\mathbb{I}_F$ given $\mathcal{G}$, so that $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{G}}(\cdot, F) = \mathbb{P}(F \mid \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}_F \mid \mathcal{G})$ almost surely.

It can be shown that a regular conditional probability given $\mathcal{G}$ exists under very permissive assumptions.

Consider the probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a bounded Borel function $h : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, and the independent random variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$. Let $h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)(\omega) = h(X_1(\omega), X_2(\omega), \ldots, X_n(\omega)).$$

Furthermore, for every $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, let $h(x_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$h(x_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)(\omega) = h(x_1, X_2(\omega), \ldots, X_n(\omega)).$$

Finally, let $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$\gamma(x_1) = \mathbb{E}(h(x_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)).$$

We will now show that $\gamma(X_1) = \mathbb{E}(h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) \mid X_1)$ almost surely, where $\gamma(X_1) = \gamma \circ X_1$.

For every $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $h_{x_1} : \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by $h_{x_1}(x_2, \ldots, x_n) = h(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$, and recall that h_{x_1} is a bounded Borel function. Furthermore, recall that the function $Z : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$ given by $Z(\omega) = (X_1(\omega), X_2(\omega), \ldots, X_n(\omega))$ is $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^n$-measurable and that the function $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ given by $Y(\omega) = (X_2(\omega), \ldots, X_n(\omega))$ is $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})^{n-1}$-measurable.

For every $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, note that $h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) = h \circ Z$ and $h(x_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) = h_{x_1} \circ Y$. Because h and h_{x_1} are Borel, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, we know that $Z^{-1}(h^{-1}(B)) \in \mathcal{F}$ and $Y^{-1}(h_{x_1}^{-1}(B)) \in \mathcal{F}$. Because h and h_{x_1} are bounded, $h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $h(x_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

For every $k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, let $\mathcal{L}_k : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \to [0, 1]$ denote the law of X_k. Because the random variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ are independent, recall that the joint law of $X_i, X_{i+1}, \ldots, X_n$ is given by $\mathcal{L}_i \times \mathcal{L}_{i+1} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{L}_n$.

For every $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, because a previous result for laws extends to joint laws,

$$\gamma(x_1) = \int_\Omega h(x_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega (h_{x_1} \circ Y) \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} h_{x_1} \; d(\mathcal{L}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{L}_n).$$

Because h_{x_1} is a bounded Borel function,

$$\gamma(x_1) = \int_\mathbb{R} \cdots \int_\mathbb{R} h(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \mathcal{L}_n(dx_n) \cdots \mathcal{L}_2(dx_2),$$

which also implies that γ is $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$-measurable, so that $\gamma(X_1)$ is $\sigma(X_1)$-measurable.
For every $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, recall that $\mathbb{I}_{X_1^{-1}(B)} = \mathbb{I}_B(X_1)$. Therefore, for every $X_1^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(X_1)$,

$$\int_\Omega h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) \mathbb{I}_{X_1^{-1}(B)} \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} h \mathbb{I}_B(\rho_1) \; d(\mathcal{L}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{L}_n).$$

Because $h\mathbb{I}_B(\rho_1)$ is bounded Borel function,

$$\int_\Omega h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) \mathbb{I}_{X_1^{-1}(B)} \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_\mathbb{R} \mathbb{I}_B(x_1) \left[\int_\mathbb{R} \cdots \int_\mathbb{R} h(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \mathcal{L}_n(dx_n) \cdots \mathcal{L}_2(dx_2) \right] \mathcal{L}_1(dx_1).$$

Using the previous expression for $\gamma(x_1)$ and a previous result for laws,

$$\int_\Omega h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n) \mathbb{I}_{X_1^{-1}(B)} \; d\mathbb{P} = \int_\mathbb{R} \mathbb{I}_B(x_1) \gamma(x_1) \mathcal{L}_1(dx_1) = \int_\Omega \gamma(X_1) \mathbb{I}_{X_1^{-1}(B)} \; d\mathbb{P}.$$

Because $\mathbb{E}(\gamma(X_1)) = \mathbb{E}(h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)) < \infty$, the proof is complete.

Consider a measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ and the sequence of σ-algebras $(\mathcal{F}_n \subseteq \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, let $\mathcal{I}_n = \{\cap_{i=1}^n F_i \mid F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i \text{ for every } i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}\}$. We will now show that $\mathcal{I} = \cup_n \mathcal{I}_n$ is a π-system on Ω such that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \sigma(\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \ldots)$, where $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \ldots) = \sigma(\{\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \ldots\}) = \sigma(\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n)$.

For some $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, consider the sets $B \in \mathcal{I}_n$ and $C \in \mathcal{I}_n$ such that $B = \cap_{i=1}^n F_i$ and $C = \cap_{i=1}^n F'_i$, where $F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i$ and $F'_i \in \mathcal{F}_i$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$. In that case,

$$B \cap C = \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i \right) \cap \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n F'_i \right) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (F_i \cap F'_i).$$

Because $(F_i \cap F'_i) \in \mathcal{F}_i$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, we know that $(B \cap C) \in \mathcal{I}_n$. Therefore, $\mathcal{I}_n$ is a π-system on Ω. Because $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, we know that $\mathcal{I}_n \subseteq \mathcal{I}_{n+1}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{I} = \cup_n \mathcal{I}_n$ is also a π-system on Ω.

Since $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, we also know that $\mathcal{F}_n \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$. Therefore, $\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ and $\sigma(\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{I})$. Consider a set $(\cap_{i=1}^m F_i) \in \mathcal{I}$, where $m \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and $F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$. Clearly, $F_i \in \cup_n \mathcal{F}_n$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$. Because $\sigma(\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n)$ is a σ-algebra, we know that $(\cap_{i=1}^m F_i) \in \sigma(\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n)$, which implies $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \sigma(\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n)$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) \subseteq \sigma(\cup_n \mathcal{F}_n)$, completing the proof.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and the sequence of independent σ-algebras $(\mathcal{F}_n \subseteq \mathcal{F} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$. We will now show that $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_k)$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_{k+1}, \mathcal{F}_{k+2}, \ldots)$ are independent for every $k \in \mathbb{N}^+$.

From the previous proof, we know that $\mathcal{I} = \{\cap_{i=1}^k F_i \mid F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i \text{ for every } i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}\}$ is a π-system on Ω such that $\sigma(\mathcal{I}) = \sigma(\mathcal{F}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_k)$. We also know that $\mathcal{J} = \cup_n \{\cap_{i=k+1}^{k+n} F_i \mid F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i \text{ for every } i \in \{k+1, \ldots, k+n\}\}$ is a π-system on Ω such that $\sigma(\mathcal{J}) = \sigma(\mathcal{F}_{k+1}, \mathcal{F}_{k+2}, \ldots)$.

Consider a set $(\cap_{i=1}^k F_i) \in \mathcal{I}$, where $F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i$ for every $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$, and a set $(\cap_{i=k+1}^{k+n} F_i) \in \mathcal{J}$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and $F_i \in \mathcal{F}_i$ for every $i \in \{k+1, \ldots, k+n\}$. Because $\mathcal{F}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{k+n}$ are independent,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^k F_i \right) \cap \left(\bigcap_{i=k+1}^{k+n} F_i \right) \right) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^k \mathbb{P}(F_i) \right) \left(\prod_{i=k+1}^{k+n} \mathbb{P}(F_i) \right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^k F_i \right) \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{i=k+1}^{k+n} F_i \right),$$

which implies that $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{J}$ are independent. Because $\sigma(\mathcal{I})$ and $\sigma(\mathcal{J})$ are then independent, the proof is complete.

Consider a probability triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a sequence of independent identically distributed random variables $(X_n : \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$, each of which has the same law $\mathcal{L}_X$ as the random variable $X \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Let $S_n : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ be a random variable given by $S_n = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$. We will now show that

$$\mathbb{E}(X_k \mid S_n) = \mathbb{E}(X_k \mid S_n, S_{n+1}, \ldots) = \frac{S_n}{n}$$

almost surely, where $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

We will start by showing that $\sigma(S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots) = \sigma(S_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$. For every $i \in \mathbb{N}^+$, note that $S_{n+i} = S_n + X_{n+1} + \dots + X_{n+i}$, so that $\sigma(S_{n+i}) \subseteq \sigma(S_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$. Therefore, $\sigma(S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots) \subseteq \sigma(S_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$. For every $i \in \mathbb{N}^+$, note that $X_{n+i} = S_{n+i} - S_{n+i-1}$, so that $\sigma(X_{n+i}) \subseteq \sigma(S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots)$. Therefore, $\sigma(S_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots) \subseteq \sigma(S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots)$.

Next, we will show that $\sigma(S_n, X_k)$ and $\sigma(X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$ are independent for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Note that $\sigma(S_n) \subseteq \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$. Therefore, $\sigma(S_n, X_k) \subseteq \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$. From a previous result, we know that $\sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ and $\sigma(X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$ are independent, so that $\sigma(S_n, X_k)$ and $\sigma(X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots)$ are independent.

By considering this independence, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,

$$\mathbb{E}\left(X_k \mid S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(X_k \mid S_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(X_k \mid S_n\right)$$

almost surely.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, recall that $\mathbb{I}_{S_n^{-1}(B)} = \mathbb{I}_B(S_n)$ for all $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$. Since $X_k \in \mathcal{L}^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ for every $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,

$$\int_\Omega X_k \mathbb{I}_{S_n^{-1}(B)} \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega X_k \mathbb{I}_B(S_n) \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega f_B(X_k, X_1, \dots, X_{k-1}, X_{k+1}, \dots, X_n) \, d\mathbb{P},$$

where $f_B : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a Borel function given by $f_B(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_1 \mathbb{I}_B(x_1 + \dots + x_n)$.

Because a previous result for laws extends to joint laws and $X_1, \dots, X_n$ are independent,

$$\int_\Omega X_k \mathbb{I}_{S_n^{-1}(B)} \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f_B \, d\mathcal{L}_{X_k, X_1, \dots, X_{k-1}, X_{k+1}, \dots, X_n} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f_B \, d\mathcal{L}_X^n.$$

Therefore, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, $S_n^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(S_n)$, and $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,

$$\int_\Omega \mathbb{E}(X_i \mid S_n) \mathbb{I}_{S_n^{-1}(B)} \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega X_i \mathbb{I}_{S_n^{-1}(B)} \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f_B \, d\mathcal{L}_X^n = \int_\Omega X_j \mathbb{I}_{S_n^{-1}(B)} \, d\mathbb{P} = \int_\Omega \mathbb{E}(X_j \mid S_n) \mathbb{I}_{S_n^{-1}(B)} \, d\mathbb{P},$$

so that $\mathbb{E}(X_i \mid S_n) = \mathbb{E}(X_j \mid S_n)$ almost surely.

Finally, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,

$$n\mathbb{E}(X_k \mid S_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_k \mid S_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_i \mid S_n) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \mid S_n\right) = \mathbb{E}(S_n \mid S_n) = S_n$$

almost surely, so that $\mathbb{E}(X_k \mid S_n) = S_n / n$ almost surely.

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