18.175: Lecture 4

Expectation properties, law of large numbers statement, and Kolmogorov's extension theorem

Scott Sheffield

MIT

Lebesgue integration and expectation

Stating the law of large numbers

Kolmogorov extension theorem

Lebesgue integration and expectation

Stating the law of large numbers

Kolmogorov extension theorem

► Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.

- Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.
- In more words: if (Ω, F) is a measure space with a measure µ with µ(Ω) < ∞ and f : Ω → ℝ is F-measurable, then try to define ∫ fdµ.

- Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.
- In more words: if (Ω, F) is a measure space with a measure µ with µ(Ω) < ∞ and f : Ω → ℝ is F-measurable, then try to define ∫ fdµ.</p>
- Idea: define integral, verify linearity and positivity (a.e. non-negative functions have non-negative integrals) in 4 cases:

- Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.
- In more words: if (Ω, F) is a measure space with a measure µ with µ(Ω) < ∞ and f : Ω → ℝ is F-measurable, then try to define ∫ fdµ.</p>
- Idea: define integral, verify linearity and positivity (a.e. non-negative functions have non-negative integrals) in 4 cases:
 - f takes only finitely many values.

- Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.
- In more words: if (Ω, F) is a measure space with a measure µ with µ(Ω) < ∞ and f : Ω → ℝ is F-measurable, then try to define ∫ fdµ.</p>
- Idea: define integral, verify linearity and positivity (a.e. non-negative functions have non-negative integrals) in 4 cases:
 - *f* takes only finitely many values.
 - ▶ *f* is bounded (hint: reduce to previous case by rounding down or up to nearest multiple of ϵ for $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$).

- Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.
- In more words: if (Ω, F) is a measure space with a measure µ with µ(Ω) < ∞ and f : Ω → ℝ is F-measurable, then try to define ∫ fdµ.</p>
- Idea: define integral, verify linearity and positivity (a.e. non-negative functions have non-negative integrals) in 4 cases:
 - *f* takes only finitely many values.
 - *f* is bounded (hint: reduce to previous case by rounding down or up to nearest multiple of *e* for *e* → 0).
 - ▶ *f* is non-negative (hint: reduce to previous case by taking $f \land N$ for $N \to \infty$).

- Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.
- In more words: if (Ω, F) is a measure space with a measure µ with µ(Ω) < ∞ and f : Ω → ℝ is F-measurable, then try to define ∫ fdµ.</p>
- Idea: define integral, verify linearity and positivity (a.e. non-negative functions have non-negative integrals) in 4 cases:
 - *f* takes only finitely many values.
 - *f* is bounded (hint: reduce to previous case by rounding down or up to nearest multiple of *e* for *e* → 0).
 - ▶ *f* is non-negative (hint: reduce to previous case by taking $f \land N$ for $N \to \infty$).
 - f is any measurable function (hint: treat positive/negative parts separately, difference makes sense if both integrals finite).

- Lebesgue: If you can measure, you can integrate.
- In more words: if (Ω, F) is a measure space with a measure µ with µ(Ω) < ∞ and f : Ω → ℝ is F-measurable, then try to define ∫ fdµ.
- Idea: define integral, verify linearity and positivity (a.e. non-negative functions have non-negative integrals) in 4 cases:
 - f takes only finitely many values.
 - *f* is bounded (hint: reduce to previous case by rounding down or up to nearest multiple of *e* for *e* → 0).
 - ▶ *f* is non-negative (hint: reduce to previous case by taking $f \land N$ for $N \to \infty$).
 - f is any measurable function (hint: treat positive/negative parts separately, difference makes sense if both integrals finite).
- Then extend to case $\mu(\Omega) = \infty$.

• If $f \ge 0$ a.s. then $\int f d\mu \ge 0$.

- If $f \ge 0$ a.s. then $\int f d\mu \ge 0$.
- For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, have $\int (af + bg)d\mu = a \int fd\mu + b \int gd\mu$.

- If $f \ge 0$ a.s. then $\int f d\mu \ge 0$.
- For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, have $\int (af + bg)d\mu = a \int f d\mu + b \int g d\mu$.
- If $g \leq f$ a.s. then $\int g d\mu \leq \int f d\mu$.

- If $f \ge 0$ a.s. then $\int f d\mu \ge 0$.
- For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, have $\int (af + bg)d\mu = a \int fd\mu + b \int gd\mu$.
- If $g \leq f$ a.s. then $\int g d\mu \leq \int f d\mu$.
- If g = f a.e. then $\int g d\mu = \int f d\mu$.

- If $f \ge 0$ a.s. then $\int f d\mu \ge 0$.
- For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, have $\int (af + bg)d\mu = a \int f d\mu + b \int g d\mu$.
- If $g \leq f$ a.s. then $\int g d\mu \leq \int f d\mu$.
- If g = f a.e. then $\int g d\mu = \int f d\mu$.
- $|\int f d\mu| \leq \int |f| d\mu.$

- If $f \ge 0$ a.s. then $\int f d\mu \ge 0$.
- For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, have $\int (af + bg)d\mu = a \int f d\mu + b \int g d\mu$.
- If $g \leq f$ a.s. then $\int g d\mu \leq \int f d\mu$.
- If g = f a.e. then $\int g d\mu = \int f d\mu$.
- $|\int f d\mu| \leq \int |f| d\mu.$

• When $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu) = (\mathbb{R}^d, \mathcal{R}^d, \lambda)$, write $\int_E f(x) dx = \int 1_E f d\lambda$.

Given probability space (Ω, F, P) and random variable X, we write EX = ∫ XdP. Always defined if X ≥ 0, or if integrals of max{X,0} and min{X,0} are separately finite.

- Given probability space (Ω, F, P) and random variable X, we write EX = ∫ XdP. Always defined if X ≥ 0, or if integrals of max{X,0} and min{X,0} are separately finite.
- Since expectation is an integral, we can interpret our basic properties of integrals (as well as results to come: Jensen's inequality, Hölder's inequality, Fatou's lemma, monotone convergence, dominated convergence, etc.) as properties of expectation.

- Given probability space (Ω, F, P) and random variable X, we write EX = ∫ XdP. Always defined if X ≥ 0, or if integrals of max{X,0} and min{X,0} are separately finite.
- Since expectation is an integral, we can interpret our basic properties of integrals (as well as results to come: Jensen's inequality, Hölder's inequality, Fatou's lemma, monotone convergence, dominated convergence, etc.) as properties of expectation.
- EX^k is called *k*th moment of *X*. Also, if m = EX then $E(X m)^2$ is called the variance of *X*.

▶ Jensen's inequality: If μ is probability measure and $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex then $\phi(\int fd\mu) \leq \int \phi(f)d\mu$. If X is random variable then $E\phi(X) \geq \phi(EX)$.

- ▶ Jensen's inequality: If μ is probability measure and $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex then $\phi(\int f d\mu) \leq \int \phi(f) d\mu$. If X is random variable then $E\phi(X) \geq \phi(EX)$.
- Main idea of proof: Approximate φ below by linear function L that agrees with φ at EX.

- ▶ Jensen's inequality: If μ is probability measure and $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex then $\phi(\int f d\mu) \leq \int \phi(f) d\mu$. If X is random variable then $E\phi(X) \geq \phi(EX)$.
- ► Main idea of proof: Approximate φ below by linear function L that agrees with φ at EX.
- **Applications:** Utility, hedge fund payout functions.

- ▶ Jensen's inequality: If μ is probability measure and $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex then $\phi(\int f d\mu) \leq \int \phi(f) d\mu$. If X is random variable then $E\phi(X) \geq \phi(EX)$.
- Main idea of proof: Approximate φ below by linear function L that agrees with φ at EX.
- **Applications:** Utility, hedge fund payout functions.
- ► Hölder's inequality: Write $||f||_p = (\int |f|^p d\mu)^{1/p}$ for $1 \le p < \infty$. If 1/p + 1/q = 1, then $\int |fg| d\mu \le ||f||_p ||g||_q$.

- ▶ Jensen's inequality: If μ is probability measure and $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex then $\phi(\int f d\mu) \leq \int \phi(f) d\mu$. If X is random variable then $E\phi(X) \geq \phi(EX)$.
- ► Main idea of proof: Approximate φ below by linear function L that agrees with φ at EX.
- **Applications:** Utility, hedge fund payout functions.
- ▶ Hölder's inequality: Write $||f||_p = (\int |f|^p d\mu)^{1/p}$ for $1 \le p < \infty$. If 1/p + 1/q = 1, then $\int |fg| d\mu \le ||f||_p ||g||_q$.
- Main idea of proof: Rescale so that ||f||_p||g||_q = 1. Use some basic calculus to check that for any positive x and y we have xy ≤ x^p/p + y^q/p. Write x = |f|, y = |g| and integrate to get ∫ |fg|dµ ≤ ¹/_p + ¹/_q = 1 = ||f||_p||g||_q.

- ▶ Jensen's inequality: If μ is probability measure and $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex then $\phi(\int f d\mu) \leq \int \phi(f) d\mu$. If X is random variable then $E\phi(X) \geq \phi(EX)$.
- Main idea of proof: Approximate φ below by linear function L that agrees with φ at EX.
- Applications: Utility, hedge fund payout functions.
- ▶ Hölder's inequality: Write $||f||_p = (\int |f|^p d\mu)^{1/p}$ for $1 \le p < \infty$. If 1/p + 1/q = 1, then $\int |fg| d\mu \le ||f||_p ||g||_q$.
- Main idea of proof: Rescale so that ||f||_p||g||_q = 1. Use some basic calculus to check that for any positive x and y we have xy ≤ x^p/p + y^q/p. Write x = |f|, y = |g| and integrate to get ∫ |fg|dµ ≤ ¹/_p + ¹/_q = 1 = ||f||_p||g||_q.
- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: Special case p = q = 2. Gives ∫ |fg|dµ ≤ ||f||₂||g||₂. Says that dot product of two vectors is at most product of vector lengths.

Bounded convergence theorem

▶ Bounded convergence theorem: Consider probability measure μ and suppose $|f_n| \le M$ a.s. for all n and some fixed M > 0, and that $f_n \to f$ in probability (i.e., $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu\{x : |f_n(x) - f(x)| > \epsilon\} = 0$ for all $\epsilon > 0$). Then

$$\int f d\mu = \lim_{n\to\infty} \int f_n d\mu.$$

(Build counterexample for infinite measure space using wide and short rectangles?...)

٠

Bounded convergence theorem

▶ Bounded convergence theorem: Consider probability measure μ and suppose $|f_n| \le M$ a.s. for all *n* and some fixed M > 0, and that $f_n \to f$ in probability (i.e., $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu\{x : |f_n(x) - f(x)| > \epsilon\} = 0$ for all $\epsilon > 0$). Then

$$\int f d\mu = \lim_{n\to\infty} \int f_n d\mu.$$

(Build counterexample for infinite measure space using wide and short rectangles?...)

▶ Main idea of proof: for any ϵ , δ can take *n* large enough so $\int |f_n - f| d\mu < M\delta + \epsilon$.

Fatou's lemma: If $f_n \ge 0$ then

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}\int f_nd\mu\geq\int (\liminf_{n\to\infty}f_n)d\mu.$$

(Counterexample for opposite-direction inequality using thin and tall rectangles?)

Fatou's lemma: If $f_n \ge 0$ then

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}\int f_nd\mu\geq\int (\liminf_{n\to\infty}f_n)d\mu.$$

(Counterexample for opposite-direction inequality using thin and tall rectangles?)

Main idea of proof: first reduce to case that the f_n are increasing by writing g_n(x) = inf_{m≥n} f_m(x) and observing that g_n(x) ↑ g(x) = lim inf_{n→∞} f_n(x). Then truncate, used bounded convergence, take limits.

• Monotone convergence: If $f_n \ge 0$ and $f_n \uparrow f$ then

$$\int f_n d\mu \uparrow \int f d\mu.$$

▶ Monotone convergence: If $f_n \ge 0$ and $f_n \uparrow f$ then

$$\int f_n d\mu \uparrow \int f d\mu.$$

> Main idea of proof: one direction obvious, Fatou gives other.

• Monotone convergence: If $f_n \ge 0$ and $f_n \uparrow f$ then

$$\int f_n d\mu \uparrow \int f d\mu.$$

- ► Main idea of proof: one direction obvious, Fatou gives other.
- ▶ **Dominated convergence:** If $f_n \to f$ a.e. and $|f_n| \le g$ for all n and g is integrable, then $\int f_n d\mu \to \int f d\mu$.

• Monotone convergence: If $f_n \ge 0$ and $f_n \uparrow f$ then

$$\int f_n d\mu \uparrow \int f d\mu.$$

- ► Main idea of proof: one direction obvious, Fatou gives other.
- ▶ **Dominated convergence:** If $f_n \to f$ a.e. and $|f_n| \le g$ for all n and g is integrable, then $\int f_n d\mu \to \int f d\mu$.
- ► Main idea of proof: Fatou for functions g + f_n ≥ 0 gives one side. Fatou for g f_n ≥ 0 gives other.

Change of variables. Measure space (Ω, F, P). Let X be random variable in (S, S) with distribution µ. Then if f(S, S) → (R, R) is measurable we have Ef(X) = ∫_S f(y)µ(dy).

- Change of variables. Measure space (Ω, F, P). Let X be random variable in (S, S) with distribution µ. Then if f(S, S) → (R, R) is measurable we have Ef(X) = ∫_S f(y)µ(dy).
- Prove by checking for indicators, simple functions, non-negative functions, integrable functions.

- Change of variables. Measure space (Ω, F, P). Let X be random variable in (S, S) with distribution µ. Then if f(S, S) → (R, R) is measurable we have Ef(X) = ∫_S f(y)µ(dy).
- Prove by checking for indicators, simple functions, non-negative functions, integrable functions.
- Examples: normal, exponential, Bernoulli, Poisson, geometric...

Stating the law of large numbers

Kolmogorov extension theorem

Stating the law of large numbers

Kolmogorov extension theorem

Given probability space (Ω, F, P) and random variable X (i.e., measurable function X from Ω to ℝ), we write EX = ∫ XdP.

- Given probability space (Ω, F, P) and random variable X (i.e., measurable function X from Ω to ℝ), we write EX = ∫ XdP.
- ► Expectation is always defined if X ≥ 0 a.s., or if integrals of max{X,0} and min{X,0} are separately finite.

▶ **Theorem (strong law):** If $X_1, X_2, ...$ are i.i.d. real-valued random variables with expectation m and $A_n := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ are the *empirical means* then $\lim_{n\to\infty} A_n = m$ almost surely.

- ▶ **Theorem (strong law):** If $X_1, X_2, ...$ are i.i.d. real-valued random variables with expectation m and $A_n := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ are the *empirical means* then $\lim_{n\to\infty} A_n = m$ almost surely.
- What does i.i.d. mean?

- ▶ **Theorem (strong law):** If $X_1, X_2, ...$ are i.i.d. real-valued random variables with expectation m and $A_n := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ are the *empirical means* then $\lim_{n\to\infty} A_n = m$ almost surely.
- What does i.i.d. mean?
- Answer: independent and identically distributed.

- ▶ **Theorem (strong law):** If $X_1, X_2, ...$ are i.i.d. real-valued random variables with expectation m and $A_n := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ are the *empirical means* then $\lim_{n\to\infty} A_n = m$ almost surely.
- What does i.i.d. mean?
- Answer: independent and identically distributed.
- Okay, but what does independent mean in this context? And how do you even define an infinite sequence of independent random variables? Is that even possible? It's kind of an empty theorem if it turns out that the hypotheses are never satisfied. And by the way, what measure space and σ-algebra are we using? And is the event that the limit exists even measurable in this σ-algebra? Because if it's not, what does it mean to say it has probability one? Also, why do they call it the strong law? Is there also a weak law?

Probability space is triple (Ω, F, P) where Ω is sample space, F is set of events (the σ-algebra) and P : F → [0, 1] is the probability function.

- Probability space is triple (Ω, F, P) where Ω is sample space, F is set of events (the σ-algebra) and P : F → [0, 1] is the probability function.
- Two events A and B are independent if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.

- Probability space is triple (Ω, F, P) where Ω is sample space, F is set of events (the σ-algebra) and P : F → [0, 1] is the probability function.
- Two events A and B are independent if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.
- Random variables X and Y are independent if for all C, D ∈ R, we have
 P(X ∈ C, Y ∈ D) = P(X ∈ C)P(Y ∈ D), i.e., the events {X ∈ C} and {Y ∈ D} are independent.

- Probability space is triple (Ω, F, P) where Ω is sample space, F is set of events (the σ-algebra) and P : F → [0, 1] is the probability function.
- Two events A and B are independent if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.
- ▶ Random variables X and Y are independent if for all C, D ∈ R, we have
 P(X ∈ C, Y ∈ D) = P(X ∈ C)P(Y ∈ D), i.e., the events {X ∈ C} and {Y ∈ D} are independent.
- ► Two σ-fields F and G are independent if A and B are independent whenever A ∈ F and B ∈ G. (This definition also makes sense if F and G are arbitrary algebras, semi-algebras, or other collections of measurable sets.)

► Say events $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ are independent if for each $I \subset \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ we have $P(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) = \prod_{i \in I} P(A_i)$.

- ► Say events $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ are independent if for each $I \subset \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ we have $P(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) = \prod_{i \in I} P(A_i)$.
- Question: does pairwise independence imply independence?

- ► Say events $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ are independent if for each $I \subset \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ we have $P(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) = \prod_{i \in I} P(A_i)$.
- Question: does pairwise independence imply independence?
- Say random variables X₁, X₂,..., X_n are independent if for any measurable sets B₁, B₂,..., B_n, the events that X_i ∈ B_i are independent.

- ► Say events $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ are independent if for each $I \subset \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ we have $P(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) = \prod_{i \in I} P(A_i)$.
- Question: does pairwise independence imply independence?
- Say random variables X₁, X₂,..., X_n are independent if for any measurable sets B₁, B₂,..., B_n, the events that X_i ∈ B_i are independent.
- Say σ-algebras F₁, F₂,..., F_n if any collection of events (one from each σ-algebra) are independent. (This definition also makes sense if the F_i are algebras, semi-algebras, or other collections of measurable sets.)

Stating the law of large numbers

Kolmogorov extension theorem

Stating the law of large numbers

Kolmogorov extension theorem

Theorem: If A₁, A₂,..., A_n are independent, and each A_i is a π-system, then σ(A₁),..., σ(A_n) are independent.

- ► Theorem: If A₁, A₂,..., A_n are independent, and each A_i is a π-system, then σ(A₁),..., σ(A_n) are independent.
- Main idea of proof: Apply the π - λ theorem.

Kolmogorov's Extension Theorem

► Task: make sense of this statement. Let Ω be the set of all countable sequences ω = (ω₁, ω₂, ω₃...) of real numbers. Let F be the smallest σ-algebra that makes the maps ω → ω_i measurable. Let P be the probability measure that makes the ω_i independent identically distributed normals with mean zero, variance one.

Kolmogorov's Extension Theorem

- ► Task: make sense of this statement. Let Ω be the set of all countable sequences ω = (ω₁, ω₂, ω₃...) of real numbers. Let F be the smallest σ-algebra that makes the maps ω → ω_i measurable. Let P be the probability measure that makes the ω_i independent identically distributed normals with mean zero, variance one.
- We could also ask about i.i.d. sequences of coin tosses or i.i.d. samples from some other space.

- ► Task: make sense of this statement. Let Ω be the set of all countable sequences ω = (ω₁, ω₂, ω₃...) of real numbers. Let F be the smallest σ-algebra that makes the maps ω → ω_i measurable. Let P be the probability measure that makes the ω_i independent identically distributed normals with mean zero, variance one.
- We could also ask about i.i.d. sequences of coin tosses or i.i.d. samples from some other space.
- The *F* described above is the natural product *σ*-algebra: smallest *σ*-algebra generated by the "finite dimensional rectangles" of form {*ω* : *ω_i* ∈ (*a_i*, *b_i*], 1 ≤ *i* ≤ *n*}.

- ► Task: make sense of this statement. Let Ω be the set of all countable sequences ω = (ω₁, ω₂, ω₃...) of real numbers. Let F be the smallest σ-algebra that makes the maps ω → ω_i measurable. Let P be the probability measure that makes the ω_i independent identically distributed normals with mean zero, variance one.
- We could also ask about i.i.d. sequences of coin tosses or i.i.d. samples from some other space.
- The *F* described above is the natural product *σ*-algebra: smallest *σ*-algebra generated by the "finite dimensional rectangles" of form {*ω* : *ω_i* ∈ (*a_i*, *b_i*], 1 ≤ *i* ≤ *n*}.
- Question: what things are in this σ-algebra? How about the event that the ω_i converge to a limit?

► Kolmogorov extension theorem: If we have consistent probability measures on (ℝⁿ, ℝⁿ), then we can extend them uniquely to a probability measure on ℝ^N.

- ► Kolmogorov extension theorem: If we have consistent probability measures on (ℝⁿ, ℝⁿ), then we can extend them uniquely to a probability measure on ℝ^N.
- Proved using semi-algebra variant of Carathéeodory's extension theorem.