

MAT 5171 Probability Theory II - Lecture Notes

April 11, 2020

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$$(V_n, W_n) \xrightarrow{d} (V, W)$$

iff

$$aV_n + bW_n \xrightarrow{d} aV + bW$$

for any choice of a, b For example, $V_n = \sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)$ and V is normal: $P(V_n \leq x) \rightarrow \Phi(x)$ Here: $P(V_n \leq x, W_n \leq y) \rightarrow F(x, y)$

2 Laws of Large Numbers. Maximal Inequalities. Convergence of Random Series (Chapter 22)

Make sure that you are familiar with the following topics:

- Markov and Chebyshev inequality;
- Basic properties of the expectation;
- Borel-Cantelli lemma;

What we covered?

- In class I discussed material related to Section 22 in the textbook (Patrick Billingsley, *Probability and Measure* - I am using the anniversary edition).
- More specifically, I discussed in class:
 - A simple version of the weak law of large numbers: if $\{X_i, i \geq 1\}$ are i.i.d. random variables with finite variance and $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, then S_n/n converges in probability to $E[X_1]$. The proof is simple: we need to show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - E[X_1]\right| > \epsilon\right) = 0$$

for each $\epsilon > 0$. In order to do this we apply Chebyshev inequality.

- A simple version of the strong law of large numbers: if $\{X_i, i \geq 1\}$ are i.i.d. random variables with finite fourth moment and $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, then S_n/n converges almost surely to $E[X_1]$. The proof:
 - * Assume for simplicity that $E[X_1] = 0$;
 - * Calculate $E[S_n^4]$;
 - * Use Markov inequality to get $P(|S_n| > n\epsilon) \leq C/n^2$, where C is a constant;
 - * Since $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(|S_n| > n\epsilon) < \infty$, use the Borel-Cantelli lemma to get that

$$P\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n}\right| > \epsilon \text{ infinitely often}\right) = 0.$$

This means that S_n/n converges almost surely to 0.

- * Note that this method will not work by assuming finite variance only. Indeed, then we can only obtain $P(|S_n| > n\epsilon) \leq C/n$ and the Borel-Cantelli lemma is not applicable.
- Proof of Theorem 22.1 - strong law of large numbers, assuming only that the mean is finite. Method of proof:
 - * Introduce truncated variables $Y_k = 1\{X_k \leq k\}$. These random variables are independent, but have different distribution. In particular, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E[Y_k] = E[X_1]$;
 - * Consider the truncated sum $S_n^* = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$. Calculate its variance (it is finite since Y_i 's are bounded!!!), apply Chebyshev inequality and the Borel-Cantelli lemma to obtain almost sure convergence of the truncated sum;
 - * Next,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(X_n \neq Y_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(X_1 > n) \leq E[X_1] < \infty.$$

Use the Borel-Cantelli lemma to conclude that $(S_n^* - S_n)/n$ converge to zero almost surely.

- Proof of Theorems 22.4. Important tool: Define the sets $A_k = \{|S_k| > \epsilon, |S_j| < \epsilon, j = 1, \dots, k-1\}$. The sets are disjoint and

$$\left\{\max_{1 \leq k \leq n} |S_k| > \epsilon\right\} = \bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k.$$

Also, split $S_n = S_k + (S_n - S_k)$, $k < n$, to use independence.

Additional material:

- Rick Durrett, *Probability. Theory and Examples. Fourth Edition.* (Available in the library). Theorems 2.2.1, 2.2.3, 2.2.6, 2.2.7, 2.3.5, 2.5.2, 2.5.3; Lemmas 2.2.2, 2.4.3. All those theorems and lemmas are either repetitions of results I proved in class or extensions of laws of large numbers and maximal inequalities.

3 Convergence in Distribution (Chapter 25)

What we covered?

- Definitions, Examples 25.1, 25.2;
- Convergence in Distributions, Example 25.5 (convergence of maxima for exponential random variables), also convergence of maxima for Pareto random variables;
- Convergence in Probability, relation between different types of convergence: Theorem 25.2. **February 10**
- Properties of Convergence in Distribution: Theorem 25.4. **February 10**
- Skorokhod's theorem: Theorem 25.6 - how we can make weak convergence and almost sure convergence equivalent? **February 10 - presentation; see relevant preliminary result in Lemma 1 below.**
- Mapping theorems: Theorems 25.7, 25.8. **February 10**
- Integration to the limit. **February 10**

Additional material

- Rick Durrett, *Probability. Theory and Examples. Fourth Edition.* (Available in the library). Section 3.2.2 - Theorem 3.2.2, 3.2.3, 3.2.4, 3.2.5. All those theorems and lemmas are either repetitions of results I proved in class or extensions

Lemma 1 *Let X and Y be random variables with continuous and strictly increasing distributions functions F and G . We say that X is stochastically smaller than Y if $F(x) \geq G(x)$ for all x (the inequality is correct, there is no mistake). Then there exists a probability space and random variables \tilde{X} , \tilde{Y} , such that \tilde{X} has the same distribution as X , \tilde{Y} has the same distribution as Y and $\tilde{X} \leq \tilde{Y}$ almost surely.*

Proof: $\Omega = [0, 1]$; \mathcal{F} - Borel sigma field; $P = \lambda$, the Lebesgue measure. Let $U : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be defined as $U(\omega) = \omega$. Then for $x \in [0, 1]$,

$$P(U \leq x) = P(\{\omega : U(\omega) \leq x\}) = \lambda(\{\omega : \omega \leq x\}) = x.$$

Define $\tilde{X}(\omega) = F^{\leftarrow}(\omega)$, $\tilde{Y}(\omega) = G^{\leftarrow}(\omega)$. Clearly, $P(\tilde{X}(\omega) \leq x) = F(x)$.

Now, since $F(x) \geq G(x)$, we also have $\{x : G(x) > \omega\} \subseteq \{x : F(x) > \omega\}$ and thus

$$\inf_x \{x : G(x) > \omega\} \subseteq \inf_x \{x : F(x) > \omega\}.$$

This means that $G^{\leftarrow}(\omega) \geq F^{\leftarrow}(\omega)$ and $\tilde{Y} \geq \tilde{X}$ almost surely.

4 Characteristic functions

Material related to Section 26 in the textbook. Outline:

- Definition;
- Moments and Derivatives, Theorem 26.1
- Independence
- Uniqueness, proof of Theorem 26.2 - presentation
- Continuity, proof of Theorem 26.3.
- Additional material:
 - Rick Durrett, *Probability. Theory and Examples. Fourth Edition.* (Available in the library). Section 3.3. Look especially at Theorem 3.3.4 - this is the inversion theorem in case when μ has possibly some mass. Theorem 3.3.6, 3.3.8

5 Central Limit Theorem

Material related to Section 27 in the textbook. Outline:

- Theorems 27.1, 27.2, 27.3
- Some inequalities to remember:

$$\left| \prod_{i=1}^d z_i - \prod_{i=1}^d w_i \right| \leq \sum_{i=1}^d |z_i - w_i|$$

$$|e^z - 1 - z| \leq |z|^2 e^{|z|}$$

$$|e^{itx} - (1 + itx - \frac{1}{2}t^2x^2)| \leq |tx|^2 \wedge |tx|^3$$

- Additional material:
 - Theorem 27.5, CLT for dependent variables;
 - Rick Durrett, *Probability. Theory and Examples. Fourth Edition.* (Available in the library). Section 3.4.

6 Conditional Expectation

Material related to Sections 32-34 in the textbook.

6.1 Some Measure Theory

In what follows, (S, \mathcal{G}, μ) is a measurable space and $g : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ is a nonnegative function. We recall several properties and definitions.

- A measure μ is finite if $\mu(S) < \infty$. A measure μ is σ -finite if we can write $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ such that $\mu(A_i) < \infty$ for each $i \geq 1$. For example, the Lebesgue measure on $[0, 1]$ is finite. The Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} is σ -finite, but not finite.
- Notation: $\mu(g) = \int g \, d\mu$. For example, if $A \in \mathcal{G}$ and $g = 1_A$, then

$$\mu(g) = \int g \, d\mu = \int_A d\mu = \mu(A).$$

$\mu(g)$ is a real number!!!

- Let μ be a measure on (S, \mathcal{G}) . For a function $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ we define a new measure $\nu = f\mu$ by

$$\nu(A) = (f\mu)(A) = \int_A f \, d\mu, \quad A \in \mathcal{G}.$$

Note that we can write $(f\mu)(A) = \mu(f1_A)$. $f\mu$ is a measure!!!

- Assume additionally that f is bounded. Then

$$\nu(A) \leq \mu(A) \sup_{x \in S} f(x).$$

Hence, if $\mu(A) = 0$ then also $\nu(A) = 0$.

- Let $(S, \mathcal{G}) = ([0, 1], \mathcal{B})$, where \mathcal{B} is the Borel σ -field. Let λ be a Lebesgue measure. Let F be a distribution function and we assume that $f = F'$ exists and is bounded. Set

$$\nu((a, b]) = F(b) - F(a), \quad a < b.$$

Then

$$\nu((a, b]) = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \leq |b - a| \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} f(x).$$

Hence, if $A \in \mathcal{B}$ is such that $\lambda(A) = 0$ then also $\nu(A) = 0$.

Here: $\nu = f\lambda$, where f is the density and λ is the Lebesgue measure. Since F is differentiable, F is absolutely continuous. This explains the name absolute continuity.

The last two examples lead to *absolute continuity of measures*.

Definition 1 Assume that (S, \mathcal{G}) is a measurable space. Let μ, ν be two measures. We say that ν is *absolutely continuous with respect to μ* if $\mu(A) = 0$ implies $\nu(A) = 0$ for any $A \in \mathcal{G}$. We write $\nu \ll \mu$.

One of the most important statements in the probability theory is **Radon-Nikodym** theorem.

Theorem 1 (Radon-Nikodym) Assume that (S, \mathcal{G}) is a measurable space. Let μ, ν be two σ -finite measures such that $\nu \ll \mu$.

There exists a function $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ such that

$$\nu(A) = \int_A f \, d\mu, \quad \text{for all } A \in \mathcal{G}.$$

The meaning is: If the measures are absolutely continuous, then $\nu = f\mu$.

- Notation:

$$f = \frac{d\nu}{d\mu}.$$

- In the example above, $\nu = F$, $\mu = \lambda$ and f is just standard derivative.
- If $h : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$, then we have the following formula

$$\int_A h \, d\nu = \int_A hf \, d\mu.$$

The above formula is just change of variables

Goal: Prove Theorem 1.

- Theorem 1 is valid for σ -finite measures, but I will prove it for finite measures only.

In order to do this, we introduce a concept of *singular measures* and prove *Lebesgue decomposition theorem*.

Definition 2 (Singular measures) Assume that (S, \mathcal{G}) is a measurable space. Let μ, ν be two measures.

The measures are *mutually singular* (written as $\mu \perp \nu$) if there exists $A \in \mathcal{G}$ such that $\mu(A) = 0 = \nu(A^c)$.

- Note: the above property does not need to hold for all sets $A \in \mathcal{G}$. One set is enough.

Theorem 2 (Lebesgue decomposition) Assume that (S, \mathcal{G}) is a measurable space. Let μ, ν be two σ -finite measures *such that $\nu \ll \mu$* . Then $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$, where $\nu_s \perp \mu$ and $\nu_a = f\mu$ for some function $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$.

- We will not prove this theorem, but to get some intuition, assume that S is countable so that $\mathcal{G} = 2^S$. Define

$$S_\mu = \{s \in S : \mu(\{s\}) = 0\}.$$

Then clearly $\mu(S_\mu) = 0$ (it would not be true if the space is uncountable. Take for example real line and the Lebesgue measure. Then $\mu(\{s\}) = 0$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$, but $\mu(\mathbb{R}) = \infty$. The countability of the space is very important here). We can take

$$\nu_s(A) = \nu(A \cap S_\mu), \quad \nu_a(A) = \nu(A \cap S_\mu^c), \quad A \in \mathcal{G}.$$

Choose $A = S_\mu^c$, then $\nu_s(A) = \nu(S_\mu^c \cap S_\mu) = 0$. Hence, $\nu_s \perp \mu$. Furthermore, the function f can be chosen as

$$f(s) = \frac{\nu(\{s\})}{\mu(\{s\})}$$

for all s such that $\mu(\{s\}) > 0$. To see this you need to check that $\nu_a = f\mu$. For this start evaluating

$$\int_A f d\mu = \sum_{s \in A} \frac{\nu(\{s\})}{\mu(\{s\})} \mu(\{s\}) = \sum_{s \in A} \nu(\{s\}) = \nu(A) = \nu(A \cap S_\mu^c) = \nu_a(A)$$

The integral becomes the sum because we have countable space. Also, since $\mu(S_\mu) = 0$ and $\nu \ll \mu$, $\nu(S_\mu) = 0$, hence $\nu(A) = \nu(A \cap S_\mu^c)$

- Note that the meaning of Theorem 2 is that f is the Radon-Nikodym derivative $\frac{d\nu_a}{d\mu}$.

Proof of Theorem 1:

1. Assume for simplicity that the space S is countable.
2. From Theorem 2 we know that $\nu = \nu_a + \nu_s$ and $\nu_a = f\mu$ for some function f .
3. The proof will be finished if we are able to show that $\nu_s \equiv 0$, so that there is no singular part, so that $\nu = f\mu$.
4. From Theorem 2 we also know that there exists a set $A \in \mathcal{G}$ such that $\nu_s(A^c) = \mu(A) = 0$. Indeed, we can choose $A = S_\mu$, then $\nu_s(A^c) = \nu_s(S_\mu^c \cap S_\mu) = 0$ and from the explanation to Theorem 2, $\mu(S_\mu) = 0$.
5. We also assumed that $\nu \ll \mu$. Hence, from the previous step, for the selected set A , we have $\nu(A) = 0$. This also means that $\nu_s(A) = 0$.
6. We combine the last two steps. We have $\nu_s(A^c) = 0$ and $\nu_s(A) = 0$, which implies $\nu(A \cup A^c) = \nu_s(S) = 0$.

□

6.2 Conditional expectation

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space and let X be a random variable defined on it. We say that $X \in L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ if $E[|X|] = \int |X| dP < \infty$.

Theorem 3 *Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space and let $X \in L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$. Given $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ there exists a random variable Y such that for all $H \in \mathcal{H}$ we have*

$$E[X1_H] = E[Y1_H], E[X1_H] = E[E[X | \mathcal{H}]1_H] \quad . \quad (1)$$

The random variable Y is called the conditional expectation of X given \mathcal{H} and is denoted by $Y = E[X|\mathcal{H}]$. Note that Y is \mathcal{H} -measurable.

- Note that if

$$E[X1_F] = E[Y1_F]$$

for all $F \in \mathcal{F}$, then $X = Y$ almost surely.

- If X and Z are random variables defined on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , then the notation $E[X | Z]$ stands for $E[X | \sigma(Z)]$, where $\sigma(Z)$ is the sigma-field generated by Z . If $Z = X$, then $E[X | \sigma(X)] = X$.
- This is very important to understand that the conditional expectation is a random variable. Intuitively, in the context above, the value of the conditional expectation depends on the outcome of the random variable Z . The outcome of the latter changes, then the conditional expectation changes.
- If X and Z are independent, then $E[X | Z] = E[X]$.

Proof of Theorem 3: Assume first that X is nonnegative. Let μ denote the probability measure obtained by restriction of P to (Ω, \mathcal{H}) , that is $\mu(H) = P(H)$ for all $H \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\mu(\Omega) = 1$.

Recall that XP denotes the measure on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) such that $(XP)(A) = \int_A X dP$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$ (recall the notation $f\mu$ from the previous section - here $f = X$, $P = \mu$). Let ν be the restriction of XP to (Ω, \mathcal{H}) . Note that ν is a finite measure since $\nu(\Omega) = E[X] < \infty$.

If $H \in \mathcal{H}$ is such that $\mu(H) = P(H) = 0$ then $\nu(H) = 0$. Therefore, $\nu \ll \mu$. By Theorem 1 there exists a function $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ such that $\nu = Y\mu$. This implies that for all $H \in \mathcal{H}$ we have

$$E[X1_H] = \int_H X dP = (XP)(H) = \nu(H) = (Y\mu)(H) = \int_H Y d\mu = \int_H Y dP = E[Y1_H] \quad .$$

This finishes the proof. The proof for an arbitrary random variable follows by splitting X into the positive and the negative part.

Example 1 Assume that $X(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i 1_{\omega \in A_i}$, $Z(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^n z_j 1_{\omega \in B_j}$, where A_1, \dots, A_m and B_1, \dots, B_n are two disjoint partitions of Ω . From classical probability,

$$E[X|Z = z_j] = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i P(X = x_i | Z = z_j) .$$

Then $Y(\omega) = E[X|Z = z_j]$ whenever $Z(\omega) = z_j$ is our conditional expectation.

Indeed, let $\mathcal{H} = \sigma(Z)$. If $H \in \mathcal{H}$ then $H = \bigcup_{j \in I} B_j$ for $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y 1_H] &= \sum_{j \in I} E[Y 1_{B_j}] = \sum_{j \in I} E[E[X|Z = z_j] 1_{B_j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \in I} E[X|Z = z_j] \times E[1_{B_j}] = \sum_{j \in I} E[X|Z = z_j] \times P(B_j) = E[X 1_H] . \end{aligned}$$

Example 2 Assume that \mathcal{H} is generated by a finite collection H_1, \dots, H_n . We claim that

$$Y(\omega) = E[X | \mathcal{H}](\omega) = \frac{1}{P(H_i)} \int_{H_i} X dP , \quad \omega \in H_i .$$

Note that the right hand side is

$$\frac{E[X 1_{H_i}]}{P(H_i)}$$

if $\omega \in H_i$. The above expression is a random variable (since it depends on ω , but once ω is fixed this is just a number).

Indeed, we will verify (1). Any set in \mathcal{H} is a finite union of sets H_1, \dots, H_n . Thus, (1) will hold for any H if we will verify it for any of the sets H_j , $j = 1, \dots, n$. We have

$$E[Y 1_{H_j}] = E \left[\frac{1}{P(H_j)} E[X 1_{H_j}] 1_{H_j} \right] = E[X 1_{H_j}] E \left[\frac{1}{P(H_j)} 1_{H_j} \right] = E[X 1_{H_j}] .$$

Example 3 In what follows,

- V, W are integrable random variable;
- $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$,
- X_0 is independent of \mathcal{H} and integrable;
- X_1 is \mathcal{H} -measurable and integrable;
- Z is a random variable. If $\mathcal{H} = \sigma(Z)$ then X_1 is \mathcal{H} -measurable if and only if $X_1 = f(Z)$ for a measurable function f . Moreover, X_0 is independent of \mathcal{H} if and only if X_0 is independent of Z .

(a) For constants a, b we have

$$E[aV + bW \mid \mathcal{H}] = a \underbrace{E[V \mid \mathcal{H}]}_{=V_0} + b \underbrace{E[W \mid \mathcal{H}]}_{=W_0} .$$

Note that (1) means for example that

$$E[V1_H] = E[V_01_H] = E[E[V \mid \mathcal{H}]1_H] .$$

For any $H \in \mathcal{H}$:

$$\begin{aligned} E[(aV + bW)1_H] &= E[aV1_H] + E[bW1_H] = aE[V1_H] + bE[W1_H] \\ &= aE[V_01_H] + bE[W_01_H] \\ &= E[(aV_0 + bW_0)1_H] . \end{aligned}$$

This means that $aV_0 + bW_0$ is the conditional expectation of $(aV + bW)$ given \mathcal{H} .

(b) It holds:

$$E[\psi(X_0) \mid \mathcal{H}] = E[\psi(X_0)] =: \mu .$$

In order to prove it, you have to verify the identity (1), following the same steps as in Exercise 3 in the last Assignment. We need to show that for each $H \in \mathcal{H}$

$$E[\psi(X_0)1_H] = E[\mu1_H] .$$

Since X_0 is independent of \mathcal{H} , $E[\psi(X_0)1_H] = E[\psi(X_0)]E[1_H] = \mu \times P(H)$. End of the proof.

(c) It holds:

$$E[\phi(X_1) \mid \mathcal{H}] = \phi(X_1) . \quad (2)$$

In order to prove it, you have to verify the identity (1), following the same steps as in Exercise 3 in the last Assignment. We need to show

$$E[\phi(X_1)1_H] = E[\phi(X_1)1_H] .$$

There is nothing to prove here.

Assume additionally that the random variable X_0 has mean zero. Can we take

$$E[\phi(X_1) \mid \mathcal{H}] = \phi(X_1) + X_0?$$

We evaluate

$$E[(\phi(X_1) + X_0)1_H] = E[\phi(X_1)1_H] + E[X_01_H] = E[\phi(X_1)1_H] + E[X_0]P(H) = E[\phi(X_1)1_H] .$$

In the first equation we used part (a), the next one is part (b). Thus, $\phi(X_1) + X_0$ fulfills (1). But, $\phi(X_1) + X_0$ is not \mathcal{H} -measurable!

(d) We have

$$E[X_1 V \mid \mathcal{H}] = X_1 E[V \mid \mathcal{H}] .$$

Note that our candidate for the conditional expectation (the random variable on the right hand side) is \mathcal{H} -measurable.

We start with the left hand side. We need to evaluate $E[X_1 V 1_H]$ for $H \in \mathcal{H}$. Take first $X_1 = 1_{H_0}$, $H_0 \in \mathcal{H}$. Then

$$E[X_1 V 1_H] = E[V 1_{H \cap H_0}] .$$

Let us denote $V_0 = E[V \mid \mathcal{H}]$. By (1),

$$E[V 1_{H \cap H_0}] = E[V_0 1_{H \cap H_0}] = E[1_{H_0} V_0 1_H] = E[X_1 V_0 1_H] .$$

Thus, we have

$$E[X_1 V 1_H] = E[X_1 V_0 1_H] .$$

But this means that

$$E[X_1 V \mid \mathcal{H}] = X_1 V_0 = X_1 E[V \mid \mathcal{H}] .$$

(e) Assume that (X, W) is a bivariate normal vector, such that both components are standard normal. the correlation is assumed to be ρ . What is $E[W \mid X]$? Here we will not prove equality (1), rather we will use the properties (a), (b), (c) proven above.

Recall that W can be written as $W = \rho X + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} Z$, where Z is standard normal, independent of everything else. Then

$$\begin{aligned} E[W \mid X] &= E[\rho X + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} Z \mid X] = E[\rho X \mid X] + E[\sqrt{1 - \rho^2} Z \mid X] \\ &= \rho X + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} E[Z] = \rho X . \end{aligned}$$

If $X = W$, then $E[W \mid X] = E[W \mid W] = W$

Example 4 (a) If $Y = E[X \mid \mathcal{H}]$ then

$$E[Y] = E[X] \quad (3)$$

Indeed, (1) can be written as

$$\int_H X dP = \int_H Y dP$$

for all $H \in \mathcal{H}$. Take $H = \Omega$ to get

$$\int_{\Omega} X dP = \int_{\Omega} Y dP$$

which can be recognized as (3). We can re-write (3) as

$$E[E[X \mid \mathcal{H}]] = E[X] . \quad (4)$$

(b) We know that

$$E[|X|] \geq |E[X]| .$$

We have

$$E[|X| \mid \mathcal{H}] \geq |E[X \mid \mathcal{H}]| . \quad (5)$$

Additional material:

- Properties of conditional expectations: Theorem 34.2, 34.3, 34.4.

7 Martingales

A martingale is a model for a fair game. Suppose we have a probability spaces (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and a sequence of σ -algebras

$$\mathcal{F}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{F}_2 \subseteq \dots .$$

Such an increasing sequence $\{\mathcal{F}_n, n \geq 1\}$ of σ -fields is called *filtration*. Intuitively, \mathcal{F}_n represents the information up to time n (including time n).

Definition 3 Let M_1, M_2, \dots , be a sequence of random variables defined on a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The sequence $\{(M_n, \mathcal{F}_n), n \geq 1\}$ is a martingale if

- (i) $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$ is a filtration;
- (ii) M_n is \mathcal{F}_n -measurable;
- (iii) $E[|M_n|] < \infty$;
- (iv)

$$E[M_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] = M_n . \quad (6)$$

Alternatively, we say that the sequence $\{M_n\}$ is a martingale w.r.t the filtration $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$

Natural filtration. Let $\mathcal{G}_n = \sigma(M_1, \dots, M_n)$. Then $\{\mathcal{G}_n, n \geq 1\}$ is a *natural filtration* of the sequence $\{M_n\}$. Then (6) is equivalently written as

$$M_n = E[M_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}_n] = E[M_{n+1} \mid \sigma(M_1, \dots, M_n)] = E[M_{n+1} \mid M_1, \dots, M_n] .$$

Martingale difference. Since M_n is \mathcal{F}_n -measurable, $E[M_n \mid \mathcal{F}_n] = M_n$ and hence the martingale property (6) can be written equivalently as

$$\begin{aligned} E[M_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] &= E[M_n \mid \mathcal{F}_n] , \\ E[M_{n+1} - M_n \mid \mathcal{F}_n] &= 0 . \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

The last expression leads to the definition of the *martingale difference* sequence: $\{(X_n, \mathcal{F}_n)\}$ is a martingale difference if

$$E[X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] = 0 .$$

Above, $X_{n+1} = M_{n+1} - M_n$. Hence:

- If $\{M_n\}$ is a martingale, then the sequence $\{X_n\}$ defined by $X_{n+1} = M_{n+1} - M_n$ is a martingale difference;
- If $\{X_n\}$ is a martingale difference, then the sequence $\{M_n\}$ defined by $M_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ is a martingale.

Of course, each time we need to remember about the filtration. We note that

$$\sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sigma(M_1, \dots, M_n) .$$

7.1 Properties

- Why a martingale is a fair game? Let's take (6) and re-write it using the definition of the conditional expectation

$$\int_A M_{n+1} dP = \int_A M_n dP$$

for all $A \in \mathcal{F}_n$. Take $A = \Omega$. Then the above property reads

$$E[M_{n+1}] = E[M_n] .$$

- Let now $\{X_n\}$ be a martingale difference. Then $E[X_n] = 0$. Furthermore, by (4)

$$E[X_n X_{n+1}] = E[E[X_n X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n]] = E[X_n E[X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n]] = 0 .$$

Thus, the martingale difference has covariance zero, but $\{X_n\}$ are not independent. Note also that we do not need a finite variance for the covariance to exist.

- A function of a martingale is not necessarily a martingale. Indeed, let M_n be a martingale and consider $\widetilde{M}_n = |M_n|$. Then

$$E[\widetilde{M}_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] = E[|M_{n+1}| \mid \mathcal{F}_n] \geq |E[M_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n]| = |M_n| = \widetilde{M}_n .$$

In fact, $|M_n|$ is a submartingale.

7.2 Examples

- (1) Assume that $\{X_n\}$ are i.i.d with mean zero. Let $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$ be a natural filtration, that is $\mathcal{G}_n = \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$. Then $\{X_n\}$ is a martingale difference and $M_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ is a martingale. Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} E[M_{n+1} \mid M_1, \dots, M_n] &= E[M_n + X_{n+1} \mid M_1, \dots, M_n] \\ &= E[M_n \mid M_1, \dots, M_n] + E[X_{n+1} \mid M_1, \dots, M_n] \\ &= M_n + E[X_{n+1} \mid X_1, \dots, X_n] = M_n + E[X_{n+1}] \\ &= M_n + 0 . \end{aligned}$$

Note further that if $E[X_n] \neq 0$, then $\{M_n\}$ is not a martingale.

- (2) Assume that $\{X_n\}$ are i.i.d with mean zero and variance σ^2 . Let $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$ be a natural filtration. Let $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$. Then

$$M_n = S_n^2 - n\sigma^2$$

is a martingale.

- (3) Let Z be an integrable random variable and let $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$ be a filtration. Define

$$M_n = E[Z \mid \mathcal{F}_n] .$$

Then $\{M_n\}$ is a martingale. Indeed, M_n is \mathcal{F}_n -measurable and by (4)

$$E[|M_n|] = E[|E[Z \mid \mathcal{F}_n]|] \leq E[E[|Z| \mid \mathcal{F}_n]] = E[|Z|]$$

- (4) Assume that $\{X_n\}$ are i.i.d with mean zero. Let $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$ be a natural filtration. For each n , let B_n be a bounded random variable which is measurable with respect to \mathcal{G}_{n-1} . We think of B_n as being the "bet" on the game X_n ; we can see the results of X_1, \dots, X_{n-1} before choosing a bet but one cannot see X_n . The total fortune by time n is given by $M_0 = 0$ and

$$M_n = B_1 X_1 + \dots + B_n X_n .$$

Then $\{M_n\}$ is a martingale w.r.t $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$.

- (5) Let $\{Z_n\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with mean zero. Define

$$X_n = \sigma_n Z_n$$

and let \mathcal{G}_n be the natural filtration of $\{X_n\}$. Here: $\{Z_n\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with mean zero and variance 1 such that Z_{n+1} is independent of \mathcal{G}_n and σ_n is assumed to be \mathcal{G}_{n-1} -measurable. Then

$$\begin{aligned} E[X_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}_n] &= E[\sigma_{n+1} Z_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}_n] = \sigma_{n+1} E[Z_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{G}_n] \\ &= \sigma_{n+1} E[Z_{n+1}] = 0 . \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\{X_n\}$ is a martingale difference. On the other hand

$$E[X_{n+1}^2 \mid \mathcal{G}_n] = \sigma_{n+1}^2 .$$

- (6) Assume that on the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) we have a probability measure Q . Consider a sequence of random variables $\{Y_n\}$ and let \mathcal{G}_n be its natural filtration. Assume that (Y_1, \dots, Y_n) has a density p_n under measure P and density q_n under measure Q . Define

$$M_n = \frac{q_n(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)}{p_n(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)} .$$

Note that an element of \mathcal{G}_n is $\{(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \in H\}$, where H is a "nice" set in R^n . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} E[M_n 1\{(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \in H\}] &= \int_{(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \in H} M_n dP \\ &= \int_{(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \in H} \frac{q_n(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)}{p_n(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)} dP \\ &= \int_H \frac{q_n(y_1, \dots, y_n)}{p_n(y_1, \dots, y_n)} p_n(y_1, \dots, y_n) dy_1 \dots dy_n \\ &= \int_H q_n(y_1, \dots, y_n) dy_1 \dots dy_n = Q(H) . \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, $\{M_n\}$ is a martingale.

7.3 Stopping times

Assume that $\{\mathcal{F}_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a filtration. An integer-valued random variable τ is called a *stopping time* (relative to the filtration) if for all $n \geq 1$,

$$\{\tau = n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n .$$

Equivalently,

$$\{\tau \leq n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n .$$

Indeed,

$$\{\tau \leq n\} = \bigcup_{i=0}^n \{\tau = i\} \in \mathcal{F}_n$$

Furthermore,

$$\{\tau \geq n+1\} \in \mathcal{F}_n \tag{8}$$

since $\{\tau \geq n+1\}$ and $\{\tau \leq n\}$ are complementary events.

Examples:

- Assume that $\{X_i\}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables. Let $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$ be its natural filtration. Let $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ and $A \subset \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\tau = \min\{j : S_j \in A\}$$

is a stopping time.

- More generally, if $\{M_n\}$ is a martingale, then

$$\tau = \min\{j : M_j \in A\}$$

is a stopping time.

- However, $\tau = \max\{j : M_j \in A\}$ is not a stopping time.
- If τ is a stopping time, then $\tau \wedge n$ is also a stopping time.

Theorem 4 Assume that $\{(M_n, \mathcal{F}_n), n \geq 0\}$ is a martingale. Then

$$\widetilde{M}_n = M_{\tau \wedge n} = \begin{cases} M_\tau & \text{if } \tau < n \\ M_n & \text{if } \tau \geq n \end{cases}$$

is also a martingale and

$$\mathbb{E}[\widetilde{M}_n] = \mathbb{E}[M_n] = \mathbb{E}[M_0] .$$

Re-phrasing: "A stopped martingale is again a martingale". See Theorem 35.2 for a generalization.

Proof: Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\widetilde{M}_n &= M_{\tau \wedge n} = M_n 1\{\tau \geq n\} + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} M_j 1\{\tau = j\} \\ \widetilde{M}_{n+1} &= M_{\tau \wedge (n+1)} = M_{n+1} 1\{\tau \geq (n+1)\} + \sum_{j=0}^n M_j 1\{\tau = j\} .\end{aligned}$$

Clearly, \widetilde{M}_n is \mathcal{F}_n -measurable and integrable. Now, we calculate

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\widetilde{M}_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] &= \mathbb{E}[M_{n+1} 1\{\tau \geq (n+1)\} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] + \sum_{j=0}^n \mathbb{E}[M_j 1\{\tau = j\} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] \\ &= 1\{\tau \geq (n+1)\} \mathbb{E}[M_{n+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_n] + \sum_{j=0}^n M_j 1\{\tau = j\} \\ &= 1\{\tau \geq (n+1)\} M_n + \sum_{j=0}^n M_j 1\{\tau = j\} \\ &= \{1\{\tau \geq n\} - 1\{\tau = n\}\} M_n + \sum_{j=0}^n M_j 1\{\tau = j\} = \widetilde{M}_n .\end{aligned}$$

Examples:

- Assume that $\{X_n\}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables such that $P(X_i = 1) = P(X_i = -1) = 1/2$. Let $M_n = a + X_1 + \cdots + X_n$. Define $\tau = \inf\{j : M_j = 0\}$. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[M_{\tau \wedge n}] = \mathbb{E}[M_0] = a .$$

We note at the same time that $\mathbb{E}[M_\tau] = 0$.

- Now, consider $\tau = \inf\{j : M_j = 0 \text{ or } M_n = N\}$ for some integer N . Then again

$$\mathbb{E}[M_{\tau \wedge n}] = \mathbb{E}[M_0] = a .$$

At the same time

$$\mathbb{E}[M_{\tau \wedge n}] = NP(M_\tau = N) ,$$

hence

$$P(M_\tau = N) = a/N .$$

7.4 Martingale convergence theorem

Theorem 5 Assume that $\{M_n\}$ is a martingale such that $K := \sup_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{E}[|M_n|] < \infty$. Then $M_n \rightarrow M$ with probability 1 and $\mathbb{E}[|M|] \leq K$.