

# 1 Probability

## 1.1 Probability spaces

We will briefly look at the definition of a probability space, probability measures, conditional probability and independence of probability events.

**Definition 1.1.** *The set of all possible outcomes of an experiment is called the sample space and is denoted by  $\Omega$ .*

**Definition 1.2.** *A collection  $\mathcal{F}$  of subsets of the sample space  $\Omega$  is called a  $\sigma$ -algebra (or a  $\sigma$ -field) if it satisfies the following conditions:*

1. *The empty set, denoted by  $\emptyset$ , is an element of  $\mathcal{F}$ . We write  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ .*
2. *If  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  then  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ .*
3. *If the countable collection of sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  is in  $\mathcal{F}$  (we write by  $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ ) then*

$$\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i \in \mathcal{F}.$$

**Remark 1.3.** 1. The smallest possible  $\sigma$ -algebra is  $\{\emptyset, \Omega\}$ .

2. If  $A \subseteq \Omega$  then  $\{\emptyset, A, A^c, \Omega\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.
3. The collection of all subsets of  $\Omega$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra. Sadly if  $\Omega$  is uncountable then it is often not possible to define a probability measure on this  $\sigma$ -algebra and in this case it is not of much practical use.

We already mentioned probability measure, but what is it exactly?

**Definition 1.4.** *A probability measure  $\mathbb{P}$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is a function  $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  satisfying the following conditions:*

1.  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ .
2. *If  $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a collection of disjoint elements of  $\mathcal{F}$  in the sense that  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  whenever  $i \neq j$  then*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i\right) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{P}(A_i).$$

*The triple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  comprising a set  $\Omega$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  and a probability measure  $\mathbb{P}$  is called a probability space.*

To check your understanding you may want to answer the following questions.

1. Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be some probability space. Is it possible that there is  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  such that  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 0$ ?
2. Let  $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a collection of disjoint elements of  $\mathcal{F}$ . Is there  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{P}(A_i) \leq c?$$

**Definition 1.5.** If  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$  then the conditional probability that  $A$  occurs given that  $B$  occurs is defined to be

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) := \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

**Definition 1.6.** Events  $A$  and  $B$  are called independent if  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$ .

## 1.2 Random variables

Let a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be given.

**Definition 1.7.** Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ . The intersection of all  $\sigma$ -algebras contained in  $\mathcal{F}$  that themselves contain  $\mathcal{G}$  is called the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{G}$  and we will denote it by  $\sigma(\mathcal{G})$ . We can write

$$\sigma(\mathcal{G}) := \bigcap \{ \mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{F} : \mathcal{H} \text{ is a } \sigma\text{-algebra and } \mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{H} \}.$$

We take  $d \in \mathbb{N}$  indicating the dimension of the space that our random variables take values in. Note that it is possible to define random variables taking values in more general spaces than  $\mathbb{R}^d$  but we shall not need that.

**Definition 1.8.** The Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the collection of all open sets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . We will denote it by  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .

Since we know that the complement of an open set is a closed set it is not hard to see that this is equivalent to saying that the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra is generated by all closed sets in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Furthermore, this definition extends to any metric spaces.

We can finally define random variables:

**Definition 1.9.** A random variable is a function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  with the property that

$$X^{-1}(B) := \{ \omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in B \} \in \mathcal{F}$$

for any  $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .

We say that  $X$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable.

Here we used the *pre-image* of set  $B$  under  $X$  and denoted it by  $X^{-1}(B)$ . It is important to note that this has nothing to do with the inverse of a function. The function inverse is only defined for one-to-one and onto functions, while the pre-image of a set under  $X$  *always* exists.

For any real valued random variable we can define its distribution function.

**Definition 1.10.** The distribution function of a random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the function  $F_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  given by

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x).$$

We now look at two special types of random variables:

**Definition 1.11.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  be a set containing only countably many elements. A random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow S$  is then called discrete.

**Definition 1.12.** The random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called continuous if there is a function  $f_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  such that its distribution function can be expressed, for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , as

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(u) du.$$

The function  $f_X$  is called the probability density function.

**The normal distribution.** The probability density function of normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  is given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{|x - \mu|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

Note that there are random variables that are neither continuous nor discrete. Further note that saying that a random variable is continuous is not related to the continuity of the function  $X$ , it is instead related to the continuity of the distribution function of the random variable  $X$ .

We will now turn to what it means for random variables to be independent. It may be useful to recall that we call two events  $A$  and  $B$  independent if  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$ .

**Definition 1.13.** The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by a random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is the collection of all pre-images of elements of the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and is denoted by  $\sigma(X)$ . We can write

$$\sigma(X) := X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)) := \left\{ X^{-1}(B) : B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \right\}.$$

While in the definition we called the collection of sets  $\sigma(X)$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra it is perhaps not immediately obvious that this collection is indeed a  $\sigma$ -algebra. It may be a good exercise to show that this is indeed the case.

**Definition 1.14.** Two  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{F}_1$  and  $\mathcal{F}_2$  over the same sample space  $\Omega$  are called independent if for all  $A \in \mathcal{F}_1$  and  $B \in \mathcal{F}_2$  the events  $A$  and  $B$  are independent.

Two random variables  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  are called independent if the  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\sigma(X)$  and  $\sigma(Y)$  are independent.

We will return to independence briefly once we have defined expectation, variance and covariance.

### 1.3 Integration and the Expectation Operator

Let a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be given. We would like to define the integral with respect to a probability measure. To this end, we first define the integral for special type of random variables.

**Definition 1.15.** A random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is called simple if there exist real numbers  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  and elements of  $\mathcal{F}$  denoted  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N$  such that

$$X(\omega) = \sum_{k=1}^N x_k \mathbb{1}_{A_k}(\omega),$$

where we have used the indicator function of an event defined, for any event  $B$ , as

$$\mathbb{1}_B(\omega) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in B, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

So simple functions can only take certain fixed values on certain sets. In a sense they are like they are like discrete random variables that you are no doubt familiar with. We all know that for a discrete random variable  $Y$ , its expectation is

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \sum_{k=1}^N y_k \mathbb{P}(Y = y_k).$$

We define the expectation for simple random variables analogously.

**Definition 1.16.** *If  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is a simple random variable then we can define its integral over  $\Omega$  and thus its expectation as*

$$\mathbb{E}(X) := \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega) := \sum_{k=1}^N x_k \mathbb{P}(A_k).$$

If  $B \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $X$  is a simple random variable then we can easily check that  $X\mathbb{1}_B$  is also a simple random variable.

**Definition 1.17.** *If  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is a simple random variable then we can define its integral over  $B \in \mathcal{F}$  as*

$$\int_B X(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega) := \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) \mathbb{1}_B(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega).$$

From the definition we immediately see that

1. If  $X$  is a simple random variable then

$$|\mathbb{E}X| \leq \mathbb{E}(|X|).$$

2. If  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  then for any two simple random variables  $X$  and  $Y$

$$\mathbb{E}(\alpha X + \beta Y) = \alpha \mathbb{E}X + \beta \mathbb{E}Y$$

(and similarly for the notation with integrals). This is referred to as *linearity*.

Now we wish to define the (Lebesgue) integral for any random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We start by noting that we can split  $X$  into its positive and negative parts  $X^+$  and  $X^-$  with  $X^+ := X\mathbb{1}_{\{X \geq 0\}} \geq 0$  and  $X^- := -X\mathbb{1}_{\{X < 0\}} \geq 0$ . Then  $X = X^+ - X^-$ . So it is enough to first define the integral for  $X \geq 0$ . This is done as follows:

**Definition 1.18.** *If  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is non-negative, i.e.  $X \geq 0$  then we define the expectation of  $X$  as*

$$\mathbb{E}X := \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega) := \sup_{\xi \leq X \text{ and } \xi \text{ simple}} \int_{\Omega} \xi(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega).$$

Note that it may happen that  $\mathbb{E}X$  is infinite.

For a general  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  we now define

$$\mathbb{E}X := \mathbb{E}X^+ - \mathbb{E}X^-,$$

provided that either  $\mathbb{E}X^+$  is finite (in which case  $\mathbb{E}X$  is minus infinity) or that  $\mathbb{E}X^-$  is finite (in which case  $\mathbb{E}X$  is plus infinity). If both  $\mathbb{E}X^+$  and  $\mathbb{E}X^-$  are infinite then the expectation is not defined.

**Definition 1.19.** We say  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable if  $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$  and square integrable if  $\mathbb{E}(|X|^2) < \infty$ .

If  $X$  is integrable then we say its *mean* is  $\mathbb{E}X$ .

If  $X$  is square integrable we say its *variance* is  $\text{Var}(X) := \mathbb{E}(X^2) - (\mathbb{E}X)^2$ . Exercise: show that  $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}((X - \mathbb{E}X)^2)$ .

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are two square integrable random variables then their covariance is

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

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent then  $\mathbb{E}(XY) = 0$  and hence  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ . The converse is not true. Consider e.g.  $X$  normally distributed with mean 0 and variance 1 and  $Y := X^2 - 1$ . Clearly  $X$  and  $Y$  are not independent but  $\mathbb{E}(XY) = 0$  and  $(\mathbb{E}X)(\mathbb{E}Y) = 0$  and so  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ .

**Lemma 1.20.** Let  $X$  be an integrable random variable. Let  $F_X$  denote the distribution of  $X$ . Let  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be Borel measurable. Then

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) dF_X(x).$$

Assume further that  $X$  is a continuous random variable with density  $f_X$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) f_X(x) dx.$$

## 1.4 Conditional Expectation

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be given.

**Definition 1.21.** Let  $X$  be an integrable random variable. If  $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra then there exists a unique  $\mathcal{G}$  measurable random variable  $Z$  such that

$$\forall G \in \mathcal{G} \quad \int_G X d\mathbb{P} = \int_G Z d\mathbb{P}.$$

We say that  $Z$  is the conditional expectation of  $X$  given  $\mathcal{G}$  and write  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}) := Z$ .

Of course it has to be proved that this new random variable exists, is unique and is  $\mathcal{G}$  measurable for the definition to make sense. Here are some further important properties which we present without proof.

**Theorem 1.22** (Properties of conditional expectations). Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be random variables. Let  $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ .

1. For any  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbb{E}(\alpha X + \beta Y | \mathcal{G}) = \alpha \mathbb{E}(X | \mathcal{G}) + \beta \mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}).$$

This is called *linearity*.

2. Let  $\mathcal{G}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{G}_2 \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  be  $\sigma$ -algebras. Then

$$\mathbb{E}(X | \mathcal{G}_1) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X | \mathcal{G}_2) | \mathcal{G}_1).$$

This is called the *tower property*. A special case is  $\mathbb{E}X = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X | \mathcal{G}))$ .

3. If  $X$  is  $\mathcal{G}$  measurable then  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}) = X$ .
4. If  $\sigma(X)$  is independent of  $\mathcal{G}$  then  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}X$ .
5. If  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{G}$  measurable then  $\mathbb{E}(XY|\mathcal{G}) = Y\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})$ .

**Definition 1.23.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two random variables. The conditional expectation of  $X$  given  $Y$  is defined as  $\mathbb{E}(X|Y) := \mathbb{E}(X|\sigma(Y))$ , that is, it is the conditional expectation of  $X$  given the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $Y$ .