# Solutions to Selected Exercises in Rick Durrett's Probability: Theory and Examples, 4th edition

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#### 1.1.4

A  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{F}$  is said to be countably generated if there is a countable collection  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{F}$  so that  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{F}$ . Show that  $\mathcal{R}^d$  is countably generated.

Since the rationals,  $\mathbf{Q}$  are dense in the real line,  $\mathbf{R}$ , it follows that any  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  can be represented as the limit of a sequence  $\{q_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  where  $q_n \in \mathbf{Q} \ \forall n$ .

Let  $\mathbf{C} = \{(a, b) : -\infty \le a < b \le \infty; a, b \in \mathbf{Q}\}$ . Any open set in  $\mathbf{R}$  may be constructed as a countable union of the elements in  $\mathbf{C}$ 

Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be the Borel sets on  $\mathbf{R}$ . By definition,  $\mathcal{R}$  is the smallest sigma-algebra containing the open sets. Therefore,  $\mathbf{C} \subset \mathcal{R}$  since every element of  $\mathbf{C}$  is an open set. Then,

 $\mathbf{C} \subset \mathcal{R} \implies \sigma(\mathbf{C}) \subset \sigma(\mathcal{R}) = \mathcal{R}$ 

By the definiton of sigma-algebras and  $\mathbf{C}$ , we have that every open set is contained in  $\sigma(\mathbf{C})$ . By the definition of Borel sets,  $\mathcal{R}$  is the smallest sigma-algebra containing the open sets. Therefore  $\mathcal{R} \subset \sigma(\mathbf{C})$ .

Thus,  $\mathcal{R} = \sigma(\mathbf{C})$ .

To extend the proof to  $\mathcal{R}^d$ , we use  $\mathbf{C}^d = \{(a_1, b_2) \times ... \times (a_d, b_d) : -\infty \leq a_i < b_i \leq \infty; a_i, b_i \in \mathbf{Q} \forall i\}$ . Note that  $\mathbf{C}^d$  is a countable set.

Lemma 2: For any open set  $G \subset \mathcal{R}^d$ , there exists a countable collection  $\{G_i\}$  of open sets such that  $G = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} G_i$ 

Proof of Lemma 2: Since G is open, for every  $x \in G$  there exists an open ball centred around x contained in G. Within this open ball, there exists an open rectangle with rational endpoints containing x. We will denote this box by  $\mathbf{C}_x^d$  and note that  $\mathbf{C}_x^d \in \mathbf{C}^d$ . Furthermore,  $G = \bigcup_{x \in G} \mathbf{C}_x^d \subset \mathbf{C}^d$ .

 $\bigcup_{x \in G} \mathbf{C}_x^d \text{ is an uncountable union of the elements of a countable set } \mathbf{C}^d.$  Therefore,  $G = \bigcup_{x \in G} \mathbf{C}_x^d$  may be re-indexed as a countable union, for example  $G = \bigcup_{i=1} G_i$  where  $G_i \in \mathbf{C}^d$ .

The result for  $\mathcal{R}^d$  follows from the  $\mathcal{R}$  case and *Lemma 2*.

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#### 1.2.3

#### Show that a distribution function has at most countably many discontinuities.

This a consequence of the monotonicity of the distribution function. Let F be a distribution function. And let D be the set of points at which F is discontinuous. For each  $d \in D$ ,  $F(d-) = \lim_{x \uparrow d} F(x) < \lim_{x \downarrow d} F(x) = F(d+)$ . Therefore for all  $d \in D$  there exists a unique rational number  $q_d$  such that  $F(d-) < q_d < F(d+)$ . The collection  $\{q_d\}_{d \in D}$  is consists of but D is uncountable. This is a contradiction and therefore a distribution function function cannot have uncountably many discontinuities.

# 1.2.5

Suppose X has continuous density  $f, P(\alpha \leq X \leq \beta) = 1$  and g is a function that is strictly increasing and differentiable on  $(\alpha, \beta)$ . Then g(X) has density  $f(g^{-1}(y))/g'(g^{-1}(y))$  for  $y \in (g(\alpha), g(\beta))$  and 0 otherwise.

This follows from the chain rule, the fact that

$$\frac{d}{dx}[g^{-1}](x) = \frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(x))} \tag{1}$$

and the fact that g is invertible since it is strictly increasing and differentiable.

Let  $F_g$  and  $f_g$  be the distribution and density functions for g(X) respectively; and let  $F_X$  and  $f_X$  be the distribution and density functions for X.

$$F_g(y) = P(g(X) \le y) \tag{2}$$

$$= P(g^{-1}(g(X)) \le g^{-1}(y))$$
(3)

$$=F_X(g^{-1}(y))\tag{4}$$

Then by the definition of density,

$$f_g(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_g(y) \tag{5}$$

$$=\frac{d}{dy}F_X(g^{-1}(y))\tag{6}$$

$$= f_X(g^{-1}(y))\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y)$$
(7)

$$=f_X(g^{-1}(y))\frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(y))}$$
(8)

Going from (7) to (8) uses (1).

#### 1.3.5

Show that f is lower semicontinuous if and only if  $x : f(x) \le a$  is closed for each  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and conclude that semicontinuous functions are measurable.

f is l.s.c.  $\Rightarrow \{x : f(x) \leq a\}$  is closed for all  $a \in \mathbf{R}$ . *Proof:* 

Suppose f is l.s.c., then by definition:  $\liminf_{y\to x} f(y) \ge f(x)$ . For an arbitrary  $a \in \mathbf{R}$  let  $X_a = \{x : f(x) \le a\}$ . Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence such that it converges to some limit  $\eta$  and  $x_n \in X_a \forall n$ . If we show that  $\eta \in X_a$  then we are done.

Suppose for a contradiction that  $\eta \notin X_a$ . Then  $f(\eta) > a$ .

 $\liminf_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) \le a \text{ since } x_n \in X_a \forall n$ 

 $\liminf_{x \to \eta} f(x) \ge f(\eta) \text{ since by assumption f is l.s.c.}$ 

Then putting it all together, we have:

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) \le a < f(\eta) \le \liminf_{x \to \eta} f(x)$$

This is a contradiction because  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) \ge \liminf_{x \to \eta} f(x)$ 

f is l.s.c.  $\leftarrow \{x : f(x) \le a\}$  is closed for all  $a \in \mathbf{R}$ . *Proof:* 

Fix x and suppose  $A_{x,\epsilon} = \{y : f(y) \le f(x) - \epsilon\}$  is a closed set. Then  $A_{x,\epsilon}^C = \{y : f(y) > f(x) - \epsilon\}$  is open. By definition,  $\liminf_{y \to x} f(y) = \liminf_{\delta \to 0} [\inf\{f(y) : y \in B(x,\delta) \setminus x\}]$  where  $B(x,\delta)$  is an open ball of radius  $\delta$  centered at x.

By definition  $A_{x,\epsilon}^C$  is an open set containing of x and so  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0$  such that  $B(x, \delta) \subset A_{x,\epsilon}^C$ . Thus we can say

$$\liminf_{y \to x} f(y) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} [\inf\{f(y) : y \in B(x, \delta) \setminus x\}]$$
(9)

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\inf\{f(y) : y \in A_{x,\epsilon}^C \setminus x\}]$$
(10)

By definition,  $f(y) > f(x) - \epsilon \ \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \forall y \in A_{x,\epsilon}^C$ ; therefore  $\inf\{f(y) : y \in A_{x,\epsilon}^C \setminus x\} > f(x) - \epsilon$ It follows that

$$\liminf_{y \to x} f(y) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} [\inf\{f(y) : y \in A_{x,\epsilon}^C \setminus x\}]$$
(11)

$$\geq f(x) \tag{12}$$

1.6.3

$$X = \begin{cases} a, & \text{with probability } b^2/a^2 \\ 0, & \text{with probability } 1 - b^2/a^2 \end{cases}$$

Then  $\mathbb{P}(|X| \ge a) = \mathbb{P}(|X| = a) = b^2/a^2$  and  $\mathbb{E}X^2 = 0^2(1 - b^2/a^2) + a^2(b^2/a^2) = b^2$ 

(ii) Show that if  $0 < \mathbb{E}X^2 < \infty$  then  $\lim_{a \to \infty} a^2 \mathbb{P}(|X| \ge a) / \mathbb{E}X^2 = 0$ 

$$a^{2}1_{\{|X|\geq a\}} \leq X^{2}$$
 and  $X^{2}$  is integrable, and  
 $a^{2}1_{\{|X|\geq a\}} \stackrel{a\to\infty}{\to} 0$ 

Therefore, 
$$a^2 \mathbb{P}(|X| \ge a) = \int a^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{|X| \ge a\}} dP \xrightarrow[DCT]{a \to \infty} 0$$
  
Hence,  $a^2 \mathbb{P}(|X| \ge a) / \mathbb{E}X^2 \xrightarrow[a \to \infty]{a \to \infty} 0$  as desired



To show that f is measurable, we will apply *Theorem 1.3.1*.

Suppose f is l.s.c. and let  $A = (-\infty, a], a \in \mathbf{R}$ , where **R** is the real line.

Then  $f^{-1}(A) = \{x : f(x) \in A\}$  is a closed a set and  $A \in \mathcal{R}$  where  $\mathcal{R}$  is the Borel sets.

 $f^{-1}(A) \subset \mathcal{R}$  because  $f^{-1}(A)$  is closed,  $\mathcal{R}$  is the smallest sigma-algebra generated from the open sets, and  $\mathcal{R}$  is closed under complements.

Next, to prove that  $\sigma(\{(-\infty, a] : a \in \mathbf{R}\}) = \mathcal{R}$ , it suffices to show that any open interval (p, q) may be expressed as the countable unions and intersections of the sets  $\{(-\infty, a] : a \in \mathbf{R}\}$  and its complements.

$$(p,q) = (-\infty,p] \bigcap \left( \bigcup_{i \ge 1} (-\infty,q-\frac{1}{n}] \right)$$

Then the result follows from exercise 1.1.4.

#### 1.6.3

Chebyshev's inequality is and is not sharp.

(i) Show that for fixed  $0 < b \le a$  there exists an X with  $\mathbb{E}X^2 = b^2$  for which  $\mathbb{P}(|X| \ge a) = b^2/a^2$ 

# 1.6.5

Two nonexistent lower bounds.

(i) Show that if  $\epsilon > 0$ , then  $\inf \{ \mathbb{P}(|X| > \epsilon) : \mathbb{E}X = 0, \operatorname{var}(X) = 1 \} = 0$ Let

$$X_n = \begin{cases} -n, & \text{with probability } 1/(2n^2) \\ n, & \text{with probability } 1/(2n^2) \\ 0, & \text{with probability } 1 - 1/(n^2) \end{cases}$$

Then  $\mathbb{E}X_n = (-n)\frac{1}{2n^2} + (n)\frac{1}{2n^2} + (0)\frac{1}{n^2} = 0$  and  $\operatorname{var}(X_n) = \mathbb{E}[X_n - \mathbb{E}X_n]^2 = \mathbb{E}(X_n)^2 = (-n)^2\frac{1}{2n^2} + (n)^2\frac{1}{2n^2} + (0)^2(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}) = 1$ Note that  $\mathbb{P}(|X_n| > \epsilon) = 1/n^2 \ \forall n > 1/\epsilon$ 

Since  $1/n^2$  may be arbitrarily small, the result follows.

(ii) Show that if 
$$y \ge 1$$
,  $\sigma^2 \in (0, 1)$ , then  $\inf\{\mathbb{P}(|X| > y) : \mathbb{E}X = 1, \operatorname{var}(X) = \sigma^2\} = 0$ 

Let 
$$Y_n = \sigma X_n + 1$$

Then 
$$\mathbb{E}Y_n = \mathbb{E}(\sigma X_n + 1) = \sigma \mathbb{E}X_n + 1 = 1$$
 and  
 $\operatorname{var}(Y_n) = \mathbb{E}[Y_n - \mathbb{E}Y_n]^2 = \mathbb{E}Y_n^2 - (\mathbb{E}Y_n)^2 = \left((-\sigma n + 1)^2 \frac{1}{2n^2} + (\sigma n + 1)^2 \frac{1}{2n^2} + (0 + 1)(1 - \frac{1}{n^2})\right) - 1^2 = \frac{\sigma^2 n^2 - 2\sigma n + 1}{2n^2} + \frac{\sigma^2 n^2 + 2\sigma n + 1}{2n^2} + (1 - \frac{1}{n^2}) - 1 = \sigma^2$   
Similar to (i) note that  $\mathbb{P}(|Y| > z + 1) = 1/n^2 \forall n > 1/n^2$ 

Similar to (i), note that  $\mathbb{P}(|Y_n| > \epsilon + 1) = 1/n^2 \ \forall n > 1/\epsilon$ 

Since  $1/n^2$  may be arbitrarily small, the result follows.

### 1.6.8

Suppose the probability measure  $\mu$  has  $\mu(A) = \int_A f(x)dx$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{R}$ . Use the proof technique in Theorem 1.6.9 to show that for any g with  $g \ge 0$  or  $\int |g(x)|\mu(dx) < \infty$  we have

$$\int g(x)\mu(dx) = \int g(x)f(x)dx$$

(i) Indicator Functions: if  $B \in S$  and  $g = 1_B$  then

$$\int g(x)\mu(dx) = \int_B \mu(dx) = \mu(B) = \int_B f(x)dx = \int g(x)f(x)dx$$

(ii) Simple Functions: let  $g = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i 1_{B_i}$ , where  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $B_i \in \mathcal{R}$ . Using (i) and the linearity of integration, we have:

$$\int g(x)\mu(dx) = \int \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i 1_{B_i} \mu(dx)$$
(13)

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}\int 1_{B_{i}}\mu(dx) \tag{14}$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}\int_{B_{i}}\mu(dx)$$
(15)

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}\mu(B_{i})\tag{16}$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}\int_{B_{i}}f(x)dx$$
(17)

$$= \int_{B_i} \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x) dx \tag{18}$$

$$=\int \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathbf{1}_{B_i} f(x) dx \tag{19}$$

$$= \int g(x)f(x)dx \tag{20}$$

(iii) Non-negative Functions let  $g \ge 0$ , and  $g_n = \min\left(\left(\left[2^n f(x)\right]/2^n\right), n\right)$ , where [x] = floor(x). Then  $g_n$  is simple for all n, and  $g_n \uparrow g$ . By applying MCT, we have

$$\int g(x)\mu(dx) = \int \lim_{n \to \infty} g_n(x)\mu(dx)$$
(21)

$$=\lim_{n\to\infty}\int g_n(x)\mu(dx) \tag{22}$$

$$=\lim_{n\to\infty}\int g_n(x)f(x)dx$$
(23)

$$= \int g(x)f(x)dx \tag{24}$$

(iv) Integrable Functions for integrable g, let  $g^+ = max(g,0)$  and  $g^- = max(-g,0)$ ; then  $g = g^+ - g^-$ , and

$$\int g(x)\mu(dx) = \int g^{+}(x) - g^{-}(x)\mu(dx) = \int \left(g^{+}(x) - g^{-}(x)\right)f(x)dx = \int g(x)f(x)dx$$

# 1.7.3

Let F, G be Stieltjes measure functions and let  $\mu$ ,  $\nu$  be the corresponding measures on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{R})$ . Show that:

(i) 
$$\int_{(a,b]} \{F(y) - F(a)\} dG(y) = (\mu \times \nu) (\{(x,y) : a < x \le y \le b\})$$

Note that, by the definition of Stieltjes measure functions,

$$F(y) - F(a) = \mu((a, y]) = \int_{(a, y]} d\mu = \int \mathbf{1}_{(a, y]}(x) d\mu(x)$$

Then, using indicator functions and applying Fubini's theorem we have:

$$\int_{(a,b]} \{F(y) - F(a)\} dG(y) = \int_{(a,b]} \int \mathbf{1}_{(a,y]} d\mu(x) dG(y)$$
(25)

$$= \int_{(a,b]} (y) \int \mathbf{1}_{(a,y]}(x) d\mu(x) d\nu(y)$$
(26)

$$= \int_{a} 1_{(a,b]}(y) \int_{a} 1_{(a,y]}(x) d\mu(x) d\nu(y)$$
(27)

$$= \int \mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(y) \int \mathbf{1}_{(a,y]}(x) d\mu(x) d\nu(y)$$
(28)

$$= \int \int 1_{(a,b]}(y) 1_{(a,y]}(x) d\mu(x) d\nu(y)$$
(29)

$$= \int \int \mathbf{1}_{\{a < x \le y \le b\}}(x, y) d\mu(x) d\nu(y) \tag{30}$$

$$= (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, y) : a < x \le y \le b \} \big)$$
(31)

(32)

(ii) 
$$\int_{(a,b]} F(y) dG(y) + \int_{(a,b]} G(y) dF(y) = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) + \sum_{x \in (a,b]} \mu(\{x\})\nu(\{x\})$$

That by adding and subtracting F(a), using part (i), and simplifying we get

$$\int_{(a,b]} F(y) dG(y) = \int_{(a,b]} F(y) - F(a) + F(a) dG(y)$$
(33)

$$= \int_{(a,b]} F(y) - F(a)dG(y) + \int_{(a,b]} F(a)dG(y)$$
(34)

$$= (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, y) : a < x \le y \le b \} \big) + \int_{(a, b]} F(a) dG(y)$$
(35)

$$= (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, y) : a < x \le y \le b \} \big) + F(a) \int_{(a, b]} dG(y)$$
(36)

$$= (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, y) : a < x \le y \le b \} \big) + F(a) \int_{(a, b]} d\nu$$
(37)

$$= (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, y) : a < x \le y \le b \} \big) + F(a) [G(b) - G(a)]$$
(38)

(39)

And similarly, for the second term, we have

$$\int_{(a,b]} G(y)dF(y) = (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x,y) : a < y \le x \le b \} \big) + G(a)[F(b) - F(a)]$$
(40)

Note that

$$(\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, y) : a < x \le y \le b \} \big) + (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, y) : a < y \le x \le b \} \big)$$
(42)

$$= \int \int \mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(x) \mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(y) dF(x) dG(y) + \int \int \mathbf{1}_{(a < x = y \le b]}(x,y) dF(x) dG(y)$$
(43)

And that

$$\int \int \mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(x)\mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(y)dF(x)dG(y) = (F(b) - F(a))(G(b) - G(a))$$
(44)

$$= F(b)G(b) - F(b)G(a) - F(a)G(b) + F(a)G(a)$$
(45)

Also, since F, and G are Stieltjes measure functions (i.e. non-decreasing and right-continuous), they may have at most countably many discontinuities, as proven in exercise 1.2.3 in Homework 1. Hence  $\mu(x)$  and  $\nu(x)$  are non-zero on at most countably many  $x \in (a, b]$ . It follows that

$$\int \int 1_{\{a < x = y \le b\}}(x, y) dF(x) dG(y) = (\mu \times \nu) \big(\{(x, y) : a < x = y \le b\}\big)$$
(46)

$$= (\mu \times \nu) \big( \{ (x, x) : a < x \le b \} \big)$$
(47)

$$=\sum_{x\in(a,b]}\mu\{x\}\times\nu\{x\}$$
(48)

Putting it all together, we have

$$\int_{(a,b]} F(y)dG(y) + \int_{(a,b]} G(y)dF(y) = \int \int \mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(x)\mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(y)dF(x)dG(y)$$
(49)

$$+ \int \int \mathbf{1}_{\{a < x = y \le b\}}(x, y) dF(x) dG(y)$$
(50)

$$+F(a)[G(b) - G(a)] + G(a)[F(b) - F(a)]$$
(51)

$$F(b)G(b) - F(b)G(a) - F(a)G(b) + F(a)G(a)$$
(52)  
+ F(a)G(b) - F(a)G(a) + F(b)G(a) - F(a)G(a) (53)

$$+\sum_{x\in(a,b]}\mu\{x\}\times\nu\{x\}\tag{54}$$

$$= F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) + \sum_{x \in (a,b]} \mu\{x\} \times \nu\{x\}$$
(55)

(iii) if F = G is continuous then  $\int_{(a,b]} 2F(y)dF(y) = F^2(b) - F^2(a)$ 

 $F = G \implies \mu = \nu$ . Furthermore, continuity of F implies that  $\mu(\{x\}) = 0$  for all x. Substituting these into part (ii), we get

=

$$\int_{(a,b]} F(y)dG(y) + \int_{(a,b]} G(y)dF(y) = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) + \sum_{x \in (a,b]} \mu\{x\} \times \nu\{x\}$$
(56)

$$= F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) + \sum_{x \in (a,b]} \mu\{x\} \times \mu\{x\}$$
(57)

$$= F(b)F(b) - F(a)F(a) + 0$$
(58)

$$=F^{2}(b) - F^{2}(a) \tag{59}$$

#### 2.1.12

Let  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  and  $\mathcal{F} = 2^{\Omega}$ , and  $\mathbb{P}(\{i\}) = 1/4$ . Give an example of two collections of sets  $\mathcal{A}_1$  and  $\mathcal{A}_2$  that are independent but such that  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_1)$  and  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_2)$  are not independent.

Let 
$$A_1 = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}\}$$
 and  $A_2 = \{\{1, 3\}\}$ . Then  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are independent since

$$\mathbb{P}(\{1,2\} \cap \{1,3\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{1\}) = 1/4 = 1/2 \times 1/2 = \mathbb{P}(\{1,2\})\mathbb{P}(\{1,3\}),$$
 and

 $\mathbb{P}(\{2,3\} \cap \{1,3\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{3\}) = 1/4 = 1/2 \times 1/2 = \mathbb{P}(\{2,3\})\mathbb{P}(\{1,3\})$ 

But  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_1)$  and  $\sigma(\mathcal{A}_2)$  are not independent since

$$\{1,2\} \cup \{2,3\} = \{1,2,3\} \in \sigma(\mathcal{A}_1), \text{ and } \{1,3\} \in \sigma(\mathcal{A}_2) \text{ and }$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\{1,2,3\} \cap \{1,3\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{1,3\}) = 1/2 \neq 3/4 \times 1/2 = \mathbb{P}(\{1,2,3\})\mathbb{P}(\{1,3\}) \square$$

Let  $F_n, F$  be distribution functions of random variables  $X_n, X$ . Show that if  $X_n \Rightarrow X$  and  $P(X_n = x) \rightarrow P(X = x)$  for all x, then  $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$  for all x.

Proof

By theorem 3.2.5 in Durrett, the following statements are equivalent:

- (i)  $X_n \Rightarrow X$
- (ii) For all open sets G,  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} P(X_n \in G) \ge P(X \in G)$
- (iii) For all closed sets K,  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} P(X_n \in K) \le P(X \in K)$

Therefore, using that (i)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii), we have

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} P(X_n \le x) \le P(X \le x) \text{ for all } x \tag{60}$$

Then, using that (i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii), we have

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} P(X_n < x) \ge P(X < x) \text{ for all } x \tag{61}$$

Furthermore, we are given  $P(X_n = x) \to P(X = x)$  which implies that  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} P(X_n = x) = P(X = x)$ , which implies that

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} P(X_n = x) \ge P(X = x) \tag{62}$$

Then, adding (2) and (3) we get that

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} P(X_n \le x) \ge P(X \le x) \text{ for all } x \tag{63}$$

Then, combining (1) and (4), we have

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} P(X_n \le x) \le P(X \le x) \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} P(X_n \le x) \text{ for all } x$$
(64)

which implies that  $P(X_n = x) \to P(X = x)$  as desired.

#### 3.2.1

Give an example of randm variables  $X_n$  with densities  $f_n$  so that  $X_n \Rightarrow$  a uniform distribution on (0,1) but  $f_n(x)$  does not converge to 1 for any  $x \in [0,1]$ 

Let  $X_n$  be the random variable with density  $f_n(x) = 1 + 2\pi \cos(2\pi nx)$ .

Then  $\int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = 1$  and  $F_n = \int f_n(x) dx = x + \frac{\sin(2\pi x)}{n} \to x$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$  while  $f_n(x) \not\rightarrow x$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ 

#### 3.2.9

If  $F_n \Rightarrow F$  and F is continuous then  $\sup_x |F_n(x) - F(x)| \to 0$ 

Fix  $\epsilon > 0$  and choose k such that  $\frac{1}{k} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ , and for i = 0, 1, ..., k - 1, k, choose  $x_i \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$  such that  $F(x_i) = \frac{i}{k}$ . Such  $x_i$  exist by continuity of F.

Since  $F_n \Rightarrow F$ ,  $\exists N_i \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|F_n(x_i) - F(x_i)| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for i = 0, 1, ..., k - 1, k, for all  $n > N_i$ .

Fix i and note that for all  $x \in (x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , we have  $F_n(x) \leq F_n(x_i)$ , and  $F_n(x_{i-1}) \leq F(x)$  by monotonicity of F and  $F_n$ . Hence,

$$F_n(x) - F(x) \le F_n(x_i) - F(x_{i-1}) = F_n(x_i) - (F(x_i) - \frac{1}{k}) < \epsilon$$
(65)

$$F_n(x) - F(x) \ge F_n(x_{i-1}) - F(x_i) = F_n(x_{i-1}) - (F(x_{i-1}) + \frac{1}{k}) > -\epsilon$$
(66)

so  $|F_n(x) - F(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $n > N_i$ , i = 0, 1, ..., k - 1, k. Now choose  $N^* = \max\{N_i : i = 0, 1, ..., k - 1, k\}$  to get  $|F_n(x) - F(x)| < \epsilon$  for all x, for all  $n > N_*$ , and we have the desired result.

#### 3.2.11

Let  $X_n, 1 \le n \le \infty$  be integer valued. Show that  $X_n \Rightarrow X$  if and only  $P(X_n = m) \rightarrow P(X_\infty = m)$  for all m.

Proof

 $(\Rightarrow)$ 

Suppose  $X_n \Rightarrow X$ . Then  $F_n(x) \to F(x)$  for all continuity points x of F. Fix m and let  $a \in [m, m+1)$  and  $b \in [m-1, m)$  be continuity points. Note that F may have at most countably many discontinuity points so a and b must always exist.

$$P(X_n = m) = F_n(a) - F_n(b) \to F(a) - F(b) = P(X_\infty = m)$$

 $(\Leftarrow)$ 

Suppose  $P(X_n = m) \to P(X_\infty = m)$ . Then  $F_n(x) = \sum_{m \le x} P(X_n = m) \to \sum_{m \le x} P(X_\infty = m) = F(x)$ 

# 3.3.2

(i) Show that  $\mu(\{a\}) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{-ita} \phi(t) dt$ 

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{-ita} \phi(t) dt = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{-ita} \int_{\mathbb{R}}^{T} e^{itx} d\mu(x) dt$$

$$= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-ita} e^{itx} d\mu(x) dt$$

$$= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{-ita} e^{itx} dt d\mu(x) \quad \text{by Fubini}$$

$$= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{it(x-a)} dt d\mu(x)$$

$$= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{x=a} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{it(x-a)} dt d\mu(x) + \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{x\neq a} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{it(x-a)} dt d\mu(x)$$

$$= \mu(\{a\}) + 0$$

$$(67)$$

since

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{x=a} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{it(x-a)} dt d\mu(x) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{0} \mathbf{1}_{\{a\}}(x) dt d\mu(x)$$
$$= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{\mathbb{R}} 2T \mathbf{1}_{\{a\}}(x) d\mu(x)$$
$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbf{1}_{\{a\}}(x) d\mu(x) = \mu(\{a\})$$
(68)

$$\begin{split} \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{x \neq a} \int_{-T}^{T} e^{it(x-a)} dt d\mu(x) &= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-T}^{T} \cos(t(x-a)) + i \sin(t(x-a)) dt d\mu(x) \\ &= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \frac{1}{x-a} \int_{x \neq a} \sin(t(x-a)) |_{-T}^{T} - i \cos(t(x-a))|_{-T}^{T} d\mu(x) \\ &= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \frac{1}{x-a} \int_{x \neq a} \sin(T(x-a)) - \sin(-T(x-a)) \\ &- i (\cos(T(x-a)) - \cos(-T(x-a))) d\mu(x) \\ &= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \frac{1}{x-a} \int_{x \neq a} \sin(T(x-a)) + \sin(T(x-a)) \\ &- i (\cos(T(x-a)) - \cos(T(x-a))) d\mu(x) \\ &= \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \frac{1}{x-a} \int_{x \neq a} 2 \sin(T(x-a))) d\mu(x) \\ &= \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{x \neq a} \frac{\sin(T(x-a))}{T(x-a)} d\mu(x) \\ &= \int_{x \neq a} \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{\sin(T(x-a))}{T(x-a)} d\mu(x) \\ &= \int_{x \neq a} \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{\sin(T(x-a))}{T(x-a)} d\mu(x) \\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

Note that I'm using  $y \in h\mathbb{Z}$  in place of the  $x \in h\mathbb{Z}$  that Durett uses for this question.

$$\frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{-ity} \phi(t) dt = \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-ity} e^{itx} d\mu(x) dt$$

$$= \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{it(x-y)} d\mu(x) dt$$

$$= \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{it(x-y)} dt d\mu(x) \quad \text{by Fubini}$$

$$= \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{x=y} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{it(x-y)} dt d\mu(x) + \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{x\neq y} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{it(x-y)} dt d\mu(x)$$

$$\frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{x=y} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{it(x-y)} dt d\mu(x) = \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{it(y-y)} \mathbf{1}_{\{y\}}(x) dt d\mu(x)$$

$$= \frac{h}{2\pi} \frac{2\pi}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} \mathbf{1}_{\{y\}}(x) dt d\mu(x)$$

$$= \frac{h}{2\pi} \frac{2\pi}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} \mathbf{1}_{\{y\}}(x) dt d\mu(x)$$

$$= \mu(\{y\}) = \mathbb{P}(X = y)$$
(70)

$$\frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{x \neq y} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{it(x-y)} dt d\mu(x) = \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{x \neq y} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} \cos(t(x-y)) + i \sin(t(x-y)) dt d\mu(x) 
= \frac{h}{2\pi} \frac{1}{x-y} \int_{x \neq y} \sin(t(x-y)) |_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} - i \cos(t(x-y))|_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} d\mu(x) 
= \int_{x \neq y} \frac{h}{2\pi} \frac{2 \sin(\frac{\pi}{h}(x-y))}{x-y} d\mu(x) 
= \int_{x \neq y} \frac{h}{\pi} \frac{\sin(\frac{\pi}{h}(x-y))}{x-y} d\mu(x) = (*)$$
(72)

If show (\*) = 0 then the proof is complete. To see why it is zero, first note that  $\sin(n\pi) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ; second, note that  $y \in h\mathbb{Z}$  by assumption – this implies that  $y/h \in \mathbb{Z}$ ; and third, note that  $\mathbb{P}(X \in h\mathbb{Z}) = 1$  by assumption. Therefore,  $\frac{x-y}{h} \in \mathbb{Z}$  and thus  $\sin(\pi \frac{(x-y)}{h}) = 0$ .

(iii) If X = Y + b then Eexp(itX) = eitbEexp(itY). So if  $P(X \in b + h\mathbb{Z}) = 1$ , the inversion formula in (ii) is valid for  $x \in b + h\mathbb{Z}$ .

 $\phi_X(t) = e^{itb}\phi_Y(t)$  and so

$$P(X = x) = \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{-itx} \phi_X(t) dt$$
  
$$= \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{-itx} e^{itb} \phi_Y(t) dt$$
  
$$= \frac{h}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{-it(x-b)} \phi_Y(t) dt$$
  
$$= P(Y = x - b)$$
  
(73)

#### 3.3.8

Use the last result to conclude that if  $X_1, X_2, ...$  are independent and have the Cauchy distribution, then  $(X_1 + ... + X_n)/n$  has the same distribution as  $X_1$ .

 $\phi_{X_i}(t) = \exp(-|t|) \Rightarrow \phi_{\frac{X_i}{n}}(t) = \phi_{X_i}(\frac{t}{n}) = \exp(-|\frac{t}{n}|) \Rightarrow \phi_{(\frac{X_1}{n}+\ldots+\frac{X_n}{n})}(t) = \exp(-|\frac{t}{n}|)^n = \exp(-|t|) \text{ for iid } X_i,$  by theorem 3.3.2

#### 3.3.9

Suppose  $X_n \Rightarrow X$  and  $X_n$  has a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma_n^2$ . Prove that  $\sigma_n^2 \rightarrow \sigma \in [0, \infty)$ 

 $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \Rightarrow \phi_{X_n}(t) \to \phi_X(t)$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Since  $X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$ , we have  $\phi_{X_n}(t) = \exp(-\sigma_n^2 t^2/2)$  for all n.

 $\phi_{X_n}(0) = 1$  for all n, which implies that  $\phi_X(0) = 1$ . And also,  $\phi_{X_n}(t) \leq 1$  for all t, n, which implies that  $\phi_X(t) \leq 1$  for all t.

By theorem 3.3.1,  $\phi_X(t)$  is uniformly continuous. Therefore for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\phi_X(r) - \phi_X(r)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|r - s| < \delta$ .

Set  $\epsilon = 1/2$  and r = 0, then by uniform continuity and the fact that  $\phi_X(0) = 1$ , we have  $|1 - \phi_X(s)| < 1/2$ . A little manipulation gives  $1 - \phi_X(s) \le |1 - \phi_X(s)| < 1/2 \Rightarrow 1/2 < \phi_X(s)$  for  $s \in (-\delta, \delta)$ .

Note that  $\sigma_n^2 = -\frac{2}{t^2} \log(\phi_{X_n}(t))$  for all  $t \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . And by continuity of logarithm and the fact that  $\phi_{X_n}(t) \to \phi_X(t)$ , we have  $-\frac{2}{t^2} \log(\phi_{X_n}(t)) \to -\frac{2}{t^2} \log(\phi_X(t))$ 

Fix  $t = s^* \in (0, s)$ , then  $1/2 < \phi_X(s^*) \le 1$ . then  $\sigma_n^2 = -\frac{2}{s^{*2}} \log(\phi_{X_n}(s^*)) \to -\frac{2}{s^{*2}} \log(\phi_X(s^*)) = \sigma^2$  $\sigma^2 \in [0, \infty)$  because  $1/2 < \phi_X(s^*) \le 1$ .

#### 3.3.10

Show that if  $X_n$  and  $Y_n$  are independent for  $1 \le n \le \infty, X_n \Rightarrow X_\infty$ , and  $Y_n \Rightarrow Y_\infty$ , then  $X_n + Y_n \Rightarrow X_\infty + Y_\infty$ 

Since  $X_n$  and  $Y_n$  are independent, we have

$$\phi_{X_n+Y_n}(t) = \phi_{X_n}(t)\phi_{Y_n}(t) \to \phi_{X_\infty}(t)\phi_{Y_\infty}(t) = \phi_{X_\infty+Y_\infty}(t) \qquad \Box$$

#### 3.3.13

Let  $X_1, X_2, ...$  be independent taking values 0 and 1 with probability 1/2 each.  $X = \sum_{j \ge 1} X_j/3^j$  has the Cantor distribution. Compute the ch.f.  $\phi$  of X and notice that  $\phi$  has the same value at  $t = 3^k \pi$  for k = 1, 2, 3, ...

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{X_{i}}(t) &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}e^{it} \\ \phi_{\frac{2X_{j}}{3J}}(t) &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}e^{i2t/3^{j}} \\ \phi_{X}(t) &= \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \phi_{\frac{2X_{j}}{3J}}(t) = \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}e^{i2t/3^{j}}\right] \\ \phi_{X}(3^{k}\pi) &= \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \phi_{\frac{2X_{j}}{3J}}(3^{k}\pi) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}e^{i2(3^{k}\pi)/3^{j}}\right] \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}e^{i2\pi3^{k-j}}\right] \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\cos(2\pi3^{k-j}) + i\frac{1}{2}\sin(2\pi3^{k-j})\right] \\ &= \prod_{j\leq k}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\cos(2\pi3^{k-j}) + i\frac{1}{2}\sin(2\pi3^{k-j})\right] \prod_{j>k}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\cos(2\pi3^{k-j}) + i\frac{1}{2}\sin(2\pi3^{k-j})\right] \\ &= \prod_{j\leq k}^{\infty} \left[1 + 0\right] \prod_{j>k}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\cos(2\pi3^{k-j}) + i\frac{1}{2}\sin(2\pi3^{k-j})\right] \quad (*) \\ &= \prod_{j>0}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\cos(2\pi3^{-j}) + i\frac{1}{2}\sin(2\pi3^{-j})\right] \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\cos(2\pi3^{-j}) + i\frac{1}{2}\sin(2\pi3^{-j})\right] \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}e^{it3^{-j}}\right] \end{aligned}$$

which does not depend on k.

Note that (\*) holds because for all  $j \leq k$ ,  $\cos(2\pi 3^{k-j}) = 1$  and  $\sin(2\pi 3^{k-j}) = 0$ .

# 3.3.23

If  $X_1, X_2, ...$  are independent and have characteristic function  $exp(-|t|^{\alpha})$  then  $(X_1 + ... + X_n)/n^{1/\alpha}$  has the same distribution as  $X_1$ .

$$\phi_{X_i}(t) = \exp(-|t|^{\alpha}) \Rightarrow \phi_{\frac{X_i}{n^{1/\alpha}}}(t) = \exp(-|\frac{t}{n^{1/\alpha}}|^{\alpha}) = \exp(-\frac{|t|^{\alpha}}{n}) \Rightarrow \phi_{\frac{X_1}{n^{1/\alpha}} + \dots + \frac{X_n}{n^{1/\alpha}}}(t) = \left[\exp(-\frac{|t|^{\alpha}}{n})\right]^n = \exp(-|t|^{\alpha}) = \phi_{X_1}(t)$$

#### 3.3.26

Show that if X and Y are independent and X + Y and X have the same distribution then Y = 0 a.s.

$$\phi_{X+Y}(t) = \phi_X(t)\phi_Y(t) = \phi_X(t)$$

 $\Rightarrow \phi_X(t)(1-\phi_Y(t)) = 0 \text{ for all } t. \text{ So either } \phi_X(t) = 0 \text{ or } (1-\phi_Y(t)) = 0 \text{ for all } t.$ Since, by definition,  $\phi_X(0) = 1$ , it follows that  $\phi_X(t) \neq 0$  for all t, and therefore,  $\phi_Y(t) = 1$  for all t.  $\phi_Y(t) = 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{h \downarrow 0} \frac{\phi_Y(h) - 2\phi_Y(0) + \phi_Y(-h)}{h^2} = \lim_{h \downarrow 0} \frac{1-2+1}{h^2} = 0 \Rightarrow E|Y|^2 < \infty$  by theorem 3.3.9. Then we apply theorem 3.3.8 (since  $E|Y|^2 < \infty$ ) to get  $\phi_Y(t) = 1 + itEY - t^2E(Y^2)/2 + o(t^2)$ . But since we know that  $\phi_X(0) = 1$ , it follows that EY = 0 and  $E(Y^2)$ . Therefore Y = 0 a.s.

#### 5.1.3

Prove Chebyshev's inquality. If a>0 then  $P(|X| \ge |\mathcal{F}) \le a^{-2}E(X^2|\mathcal{F})$ 

Note that  $\mathbf{1}_{|X|\geq a} = \mathbf{1}_{|X|/a\geq 1} = \mathbf{1}_{X^2/a^2\geq 1} \leq X^2/a^2$ . Thus,

$$P(X \ge a | \mathcal{F}) = E[\mathbf{1}_{|X| \ge a} | \mathcal{F}]$$
  
=  $E[\mathbf{1}_{X^2/a^2 \ge 1} | \mathcal{F}]$   
 $\le E[X^2/a^2 | \mathcal{F}]$   
=  $a^{-2}E[X^2 | \mathcal{F}]$  (75)

-	-	-	-

#### 5.1.4

Suppose  $X \ge 0$  and  $EX = \infty$ . Show that there exists a unique  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable Y with  $0 \le Y \le \infty$  such that for all  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  we have

$$\int_{A} XdP = \int_{A} YdP$$

Hint: Let  $X_M = X \wedge M, Y_M = E(X_M | \mathcal{F})$ , and let  $M \to \infty$ 

We will use the hint and let  $X_M = X \land M, Y_M = E(X_M | \mathcal{F})$ . Note that  $X_M \uparrow X$  as  $M \to \infty$  and therefore  $Y_M \uparrow$  to some limit. Let  $Y = \lim_{M \to \infty} Y_M$ .

By the definition of conditional expectation, we have

$$\int_A X \wedge M dP = \int_A Y_M dP \quad \text{for all } A \in \mathcal{F}$$

Taking the limit as  $M \to \infty$  and applying MCT to both sides of the equation (since  $X_M \uparrow X$  and  $Y_M \uparrow Y$ ) we get

$$\int_{A} X dP = \int_{A} \lim_{M \to \infty} X \wedge M dP = \lim_{M \to \infty} \int_{A} X \wedge M dP = \lim_{M \to \infty} \int_{A} Y_{M} dP = \int_{A} \lim_{M \to \infty} Y_{M} dP = \int_{A} Y dP$$

#### 5.1.7

Show that when E|X|, E|Y|, and E|XY| are finite, each statement implies the next one and give examples with  $X, Y \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$  a.s. that show the reverse implications are false: (i) X and Y are independent, (ii) E(Y|X) = EY, (iii) E(XY) = EXEY.

First note that  $E(Y|X) = E(Y|\sigma(X))$ 

(i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii)

Let  $A \in \sigma(X)$ . Then by the definition of conditional expectation we have  $\int_A Y dP = \int_A E(Y|\sigma(X)) dP$ Then  $\int_A Y dP = E[Y \mathbf{1}_A] = EY E \mathbf{1}_A = \int_A EY dP$ , where the second equality follows from independence. Example to demonstrate the converse is false:

Let  $X, Y \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$  with the following joint distribution:

X/Y	-1	0	1
-1	0	0.25	0
0	0.25	0	0.25
1	0	0.25	0

Then,  $P(X = 0, Y = 0) = 0 \neq 1/4 = 1/2 \times 1/2 = P(X = 0)P(Y = 0)$ . Therefore X and Y are not independent.

(ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii)

CLAIM:  $E[E(Z|\mathcal{G})] = EZ$ PROOF: By the second property of conditional expectation, for all  $A \in \mathcal{G}$ ,  $\int_A ZdP = \int_A E(Z|\mathcal{G})dP$ . Let  $A = \Omega$ , and we get  $EZ = \int_{\Omega} ZdP = \int_{\Omega} E(Z|\mathcal{G})dP = E[E(Z|\mathcal{G})]$ 

By theorem 5.1.7, if  $X \in \mathcal{F}$  and E|Y|, and E|XY| are finite, then  $E(XY|\mathcal{F}) = XE(Y|\mathcal{F})$ 

 $X \in \sigma(X)$  and the expectations are finite, so  $E(XY|\sigma(X)) = XE(Y|\sigma(X)) = XEY$ , where the second equality follows from (ii). Then taking expectation of left and right sides of the equality we get: LHS:  $E(XY) = E[E(XY|\sigma(X))]$  and RHS: E[XEY] = EXEY

Example to demonstrate the converse is false:

Let  $X \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$  and  $X \in \{-1, 1\}$  with the following joint distribution:

X/Y	-1	1
-1	0	0.25
0	0.5	0
1	0	0.25

Then EXY = 0 = EXEY but  $E(Y|X = -1) = 1 \neq 0 = EY$ 

#### 5.1.9

Let 
$$var(X|\mathcal{F}) = E(X^2|\mathcal{F}) - E(X|\mathcal{F})^2$$
. Show that  $var(X) = E(var(X|\mathcal{F})) + var(E(X|\mathcal{F}))$   

$$E(var(X|\mathcal{F})) = E[E(X^2|\mathcal{F}) - E(X|\mathcal{F})^2] = E[E(X^2|\mathcal{F})] - E[E(X|\mathcal{F})^2]$$

$$= E[X^2] - E[E(X|\mathcal{F})^2]$$
(76)

$$var(E(X|\mathcal{F})) = E[E(X|\mathcal{F})^{2}] - E[E(X|\mathcal{F})]^{2}$$
  
=  $E[E(X|\mathcal{F})^{2}] - E[X]^{2}$  (77)

Then,

$$E(var(X|\mathcal{F})) + var(E(X|\mathcal{F})) = E[X^2] - E[E(X|\mathcal{F})^2] + E[E(X|\mathcal{F})^2] - E[X]^2$$
  
$$= E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$
  
$$= var(X)$$
(78)

#### 5.1.11

Show that if X and Y are random variables with  $E(Y|\mathcal{G}) = X$  and  $EY^2 = EX^2 < \infty$ , then X = Y a.s.

By theorem 5.1.7, if  $X \in \mathcal{G}$  and  $E|Y|, E|XY| < \infty$  then  $E(XY|\mathcal{G}) = XE(Y|\mathcal{G})$ 

Note that  $X = E(Y|\mathcal{G}) \in \mathcal{G}$  by definition of conditional expectation. And  $(EXY)^2 \leq EX^2 EY^2 < \infty$  by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the assumption of the question. Therefore, we can apply the theorem to get  $E(XY|\mathcal{G}) = XE(Y|\mathcal{G})$ . Taking expectation on both sides gives:

$$E[E(XY|\mathcal{G})] = E[XE(Y|\mathcal{G})]$$
  
=  $E[X^2]$  (79)

Then

$$E(X - Y)^{2} = E(X^{2}) - 2E(XY) + E(Y^{2})$$
  
=  $E(X^{2}) - 2E(X^{2}) + E(Y^{2})$   
=  $E(X^{2}) - 2E(X^{2}) + E(X^{2})$   
=  $0$  (80)

Then by Markov's inequality we have for all  $\epsilon > 0$   $P(|X - Y| \ge \epsilon) \le \frac{E(X - Y)^2}{\epsilon^2} = 0$ . Therefore X = Y a.s.

#### 5.1.12

The result in the last exercise implies that if  $EY^2 < \infty$  and  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  has the same distribution as Y, then  $E(Y|\mathcal{G}) = Y$  a.s. Prove this under the assumption  $E|Y| < \infty$ . Hint: The trick is to prove that  $sgn(X) = sgn(E(X|\mathcal{G}))$  a.s. and then take X = Y - c to get the desired result.

Suppose X is a random variable with  $E|X| < \infty$  such that  $X \stackrel{d}{=} E(X|\mathcal{G})$ . Let  $A = \{\omega : X(\omega) > 0\}, B = \{\omega : E(X|\mathcal{G})(\omega) > 0\}.$ 

By the definition of conditional expectation we have  $\int_B X dP = \int_B E(X|\mathcal{G}) dP$ .

And since  $X \stackrel{d}{=} E(X|\mathcal{G})$ , we have  $\int_B E(X|\mathcal{G})dP = \int_A XdP$ . Therefore  $\int_B XdP = \int_A XdP$ . Furthermore,

$$\int_{A\cap B} XdP + \int_{A\cap B^C} XdP = \int_A XdP$$

$$= \int_B XdP$$

$$= \int_{A\cap B} XdP + \int_{A^C\cap B} XdP$$
(81)

which implies that  $\int_{A \cap B^C} X dP = \int_{A^C \cap B} X dP$ 

Note that  $X(A \cap B^C) > 0$  and  $X(A^C \cap B) \le 0$ . Therefore, both integrals above are =0, and hence  $\{X > 0, E(X|\mathcal{G}) \le 0\} = A \cap B^C = \phi$ . Since  $X \stackrel{d}{=} E(X|\mathcal{G})$  it follows that  $\{E(X|\mathcal{G}) > 0, X \le 0\} = \phi$  also. Thus  $\operatorname{sgn}(X) = \operatorname{sgn}(E(X|G))$  a.s.

Now suppose that Y is a random variable such that  $E|Y| < \infty$  such that  $X \stackrel{d}{=} E(Y|\mathcal{G})$ . Let X = Y - c. By the above arguments, we have that  $\{Y - c > 0, E(Y - c|\mathcal{G}) \le 0\} = \{E(Y - c|\mathcal{G}) > 0, Y - c \le 0\} = \phi$  or equivalently  $\{Y > c, E(Y|\mathcal{G}) \le c\} = \{E(Y|\mathcal{G}) > c, Y \le c\} = \phi$ .

Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$  we have that

$$\{Y \neq E(Y|G)\} = \bigcup_{c \in \mathbb{Q}} \left(\{Y > c, E(Y|G) \le c\} \cup \{E(Y|\mathcal{G}) > c, Y \le c\}\right) = \phi$$

Therefore  $E(Y|\mathcal{G}) = Y$  a.s. as desired

#5.3.2. ### Give an example of a martingale  $X_n$  with  $\sup_n |X_n| < 1$  and  $P(X_n = ai.o.) = 1$  for a = -1, 0, 1. This example shows that it is not enough to have  $\sup |X_{n+1} - X_n| < \infty$  in Theorem 5.3.1.

Let  $U_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} Uniform(0,1), i \in \mathbb{N}.$ 

If  $X_n = 0$  then let  $X_{n+1} = 1$  if  $U_{n+1} \ge 1/2$ , and  $X_{n+1} = -1$  if  $U_{n+1} < 1/2$ .

If  $X_n \neq 0$  then let  $X_{n+1} = 0$  if  $U_{n+1} > 1/n^2$ , and  $X_{n+1} = n^2 X_n$  if  $U_{n+1} < 1/n^2$ .

 $\sum 1/n^2 < \infty$  so by the Borel Cantelli lemma we even entually just go from 0 to  $\pm 1$  and then back to 0 again, so sup  $|X_n| < \infty$ .

#### 5.4.7

Let  $X_n$  and  $Y_n$  be martingales with  $EX_n^2 < \infty$  and  $EY_n^2 < \infty$ .

$$EX_nY_n - EX_0Y_0 = \sum_{m=1}^n E(X_m - X_{m-1})(Y_m - Y_{m-1})$$

Note that

$$E(X_m - X_{m-1})(Y_m - Y_{m-1}) = E[(X_m - X_{m-1})Y_m] - E[(X_m - X_{m-1})Y_{m-1})]$$
  
=  $EX_m Y_m - EX_{m-1}Y_m - EX_m Y_{m-1} + EX_{m-1}Y_{m-1}$  (82)

By theorem 5.4.6 (orthogonality of martingale increments) we have that  $E[(X_m - X_{m-1})Y_{m-1}] = 0$  Then we have

$$E[(X_m - X_{m-1})Y_{m-1}] = 0 \Rightarrow E[X_m Y_m - X_{m-1}Y_{m-1}] = 0 \Rightarrow EX_m Y_{m-1} = EX_{m-1}Y_{m-1}$$

and similarly

$$EY_m X_{m-1} = EX_{m-1} Y_{m-1}$$

Substituting these into (1) and summing from m = 1 to n we have

$$\sum_{m=1}^{n} E(X_m - X_{m-1})(Y_m - Y_{m-1}) = \sum_{m=1}^{n} E[(X_m - X_{m-1})Y_m] - E[(X_m - X_{m-1})Y_{m-1})]$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{n} EX_m Y_m - EX_{m-1}Y_m - EX_m Y_{m-1} + EX_{m-1}Y_{m-1}$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{n} EX_m Y_m - EX_{m-1}Y_{m-1} - EX_{m-1}Y_{m-1} + EX_{m-1}Y_{m-1}$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{n} EX_m Y_m - EX_{m-1}Y_{m-1}$$

$$= EX_n Y_n - EX_0 Y_0$$
(83)

(The last equality follows by telescoping the sum)

#### 5.4.8

Let  $X_n, n \ge 0$  be a martingale and let  $\xi_n = X_n - X_{n-1}$  for  $n \ge 0$ . Show that if  $EX_0^2, \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \xi_m^2 < \infty$  for  $n \ge 1$  then  $X_n \to X_\infty$  a.s. and in  $L^2$ 

In the previous exercise, let X = Y and note that

$$\sum_{m=1}^{n} \xi_m^2 = \sum_{m=1}^{n} E(X_m - X_{m-1})^2$$
  
= 
$$\sum_{m=1}^{n} E(X_m - X_{m-1})(X_m - X_{m-1})$$
  
= 
$$EX_n X_n - EX_0 X_0$$
  
= 
$$EX_n^2 - EX_0^2$$
 (84)

Rearranging (3) and using that  $EX_0^2, \sum_{m=1}^n \xi_m^2 < \infty$  we get  $EX_n^2 = EX_0^2 + \sum_{m=1}^n \xi_m^2 < \infty$ .

Thus  $\sup EX_n^2 < \infty$ , and so  $X_n \longrightarrow X$  a.s. and in  $L^p$  by theorem 5.4.5 ( $L^p$  convergence theorem).

#### 5.4.10

Let  $\xi_1, \xi_2, ...$  be i.i.d. with  $E\xi_i = 0$  and  $E\xi_i^2 < \infty$ . Let  $S_n = \xi_1 + ... + \xi_n$ . Theorem 5.4.1 implies that for any stopping time N,  $ES_{N^n} = 0$ . Use Theorem 5.4.12 to conclude that if  $EN^{1/2} < \infty$  then  $ES_N = 0$ .

 $S_n$  is a martingale.

By theorem 5.2.6, for any stopping time N, and martingale  $S_n$ ,  $S_{N \wedge n}$  is a martingale.

Note that  $EN^{1/2} < \infty \Rightarrow N^{1/2} < \infty$  a.s.  $\Rightarrow N < \infty$  a.s.

Furthermore,  $ES_{N \wedge n} = 0$ , because  $\{N \wedge n = n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n$  for all n so  $N \wedge n$  is a stopping time, and,  $P(N \wedge n \leq n) = 1$  so by theorem 5.4.1, we have  $0 = ES_0 = ES_{N \wedge n} = ES_n = 0$ .

Also, note that  $S_{N \wedge m} - S_{N \wedge m-1} = \begin{cases} S_m - S_{m-1}, & \text{if } N \ge m \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

and 
$$A_n = \sum_{m=1}^n E((S_{N \wedge m} - S_{N \wedge m-1})^2 | \mathcal{F}_{m-1}) = \sum_{m=1}^{N \wedge n} E(\xi_m^2 | \mathcal{F}_{m-1}) = \sum_{m=1}^{N \wedge n} E\xi_m^2 < \infty$$

by the assumptions of independence and finiteness of second moments of  $\xi_i$ 's.

Letting  $n \to \infty$ , we have that  $A_{\infty} < \infty$  since  $N < \infty$  a.s..

Now by theorem 5.4.12, we have  $E(\sup |S_{N \wedge n}|) \leq 3EA_{\infty}^{1/2} < \infty$ .

Finally, since i.  $|S_{N \wedge n}| \leq \sup |S_{N \wedge n}|$  for all n, and ii.  $E(\sup |S_{N \wedge n}|) < \infty$ , and iii.  $ES_{N \wedge n} = 0$ , we can use the dominated convergence theorem to get

$$ES_N = E(\lim_{n \to \infty} S_{N \wedge n}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} E(S_{N \wedge n}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} 0 = 0$$

#### 5.5.2

Let  $Z_1, Z_2, ...$  be i.i.d. with  $E|Z_i| < \infty$ , let  $\theta$  be an independent r.v. with finite mean, and let  $Y_i = Z_i + \theta$ . If  $Z_i$  is normal(0,1) then in statistical terms we have a sample from a normal population with variance 1 and unknown mean. The distribution of  $\theta$  is called the prior distribution, and  $P(\theta \in \mathfrak{u}|Y_1, ..., Y_n)$  is called the posterior distribution after n observations. Show that  $E(\theta|Y_1, ..., Y_n) \to \theta$  a.s.

Let  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(Y_1, ..., Y_n)$  and  $\mathcal{F}_{\infty} = \sigma(\bigcup_n \mathcal{F}_n)$ . Then

$$E(\theta|\mathcal{F}_n) \xrightarrow{a.s.} E(\theta|\mathcal{F}_\infty) = \theta$$

where the a.s. convergence on the left is due to theorem 5.5.7, and the equality on the right is due to the fact that  $\theta \in \mathcal{F}_{\infty}$  which is a consequence of the strong law of large numbers as follows:

$$\frac{Y_1 + \dots + Y_n}{n} = \theta + \frac{Z_1 + \dots + Z_n}{n} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta + EZ_i = \theta + 0$$

#### 5.5.5

Let  $X_n$  be a r.v.'s taking values in  $[0,\infty)$ . Let  $D = \{X_n = 0 \text{ for some } n \ge 1\}$  and assume that  $P(D|X_1,...,X_n) \ge \delta(x) > 0$  on  $\{X_n \le x\}$ . Use theorem 5.5.8 to conclude that

$$P(D \cup \{\lim_{n \to \infty} X_n = \infty\}) = 1$$

By theorem 5.5.8, if  $\mathcal{F}_n \uparrow \mathcal{F}_\infty$  and  $A \in \mathcal{F}_\infty$ , then  $E(\mathbf{1}_A | \mathcal{F}_n) \to \mathbf{1}_A$ Let  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_1, ..., X_n)$  and  $\mathcal{F}_\infty = \sigma(\bigcup_n \mathcal{F}_n)$ . Then  $D \in \mathcal{F}_\infty$ . Let  $B = \{\omega : \lim_{n \to \infty} X_n(\omega) \neq \infty\}$ . Note that  $P(B \cup B^c) = 1$ . Let  $B_M = \{\omega : \liminf_{n \to \infty} X_n(\omega) \leq M\}$  for  $M \in \mathbb{N}$ . Note that  $B = \bigcup_M B_M$ , Fix some  $M \in \mathbb{N}$ , and note that for all  $\omega \in B_M$ , we have  $X_n(\omega) \leq M + 1$  infinitely often. In other words,  $B_M \subset \{\omega : X_n(\omega) \leq M + 1 \text{ i.o.}\}$ . Then by theorem 5.5.8, we have

$$0 < \delta(M+1) \le P(D|X_1, ..., X_n) = P(D|\mathcal{F}_n) = E(\mathbf{1}_D|\mathcal{F}_n) \longrightarrow \mathbf{1}_D$$
(85)

which implies that  $B_M \subset \{\omega : X_n(\omega) \leq M + 1 \text{ i.o.}\} \subset D$  (because  $0 < E(\mathbf{1}_D | \mathcal{F}_{\infty}) \in \{0, 1\}$ ) Since  $B_M \subset D$ , and  $B = \bigcup_M B_M$ , we have  $B \subset D$ , and it follows that

$$1 \ge P(D \cup \{\lim_{n \to \infty} X_n = \infty\}) = P(D \cup B^c) \ge P(B \cup B^c) = 1$$

which gives the desired result.

#### 5.7.2

Let  $S_n$  be an asymmetric simple random walk with  $1/2 , and let <math>\sigma^2 = pq$ . Use the fact that  $X_n = (S_n - (p-q)n)^2 - \sigma^2 n$  is a martingale to show  $var(T_b) = b\sigma^2/(p-q)^3$ .

Since  $X_n = (S_n - (p - q)n)^2 - \sigma^2 n$  is a martingale, and  $T_b = \inf\{n : S_n = b\}$  is a stopping time, it follows by theorem 5.2.6 that  $X_{T_b \wedge n} = (S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p - q)(T_b \wedge n))^2 - \sigma^2(T_b \wedge n)$  is also a martingale.

Since  $X_{T_b \wedge 0} = X_0 = (S_0 - (p - q)0)^2 - \sigma^2 0 = 0$ , and  $(T_b \wedge n)$  is a bounded stopping time, it follows by theorem 5.4.1 that

$$EX_{T_b \wedge 0} = EX_{T_b \wedge n} = E[(S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p - q)(T_b \wedge n))^2 - \sigma^2(T_b \wedge n)] = 0$$

Then we have

$$E[(S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p-q)(T_b \wedge n))^2] = E[\sigma^2(T_b \wedge n)]$$

Using Fatou's lemma (since  $(S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p-q)(T_b \wedge n))^2 \ge 0$ ), and bounded convergence theorem since  $(T_b \wedge n)$  is bounded) we have

$$E[(b - (p - q)T_b)^2] = E[\lim_{n \to \infty} (S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p - q)(T_b \wedge n))^2]$$
  

$$= E[\liminf_{n \to \infty} (S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p - q)(T_b \wedge n))^2]$$
  

$$\leq \liminf_{n \to \infty} E[(S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p - q)(T_b \wedge n))^2]$$
  

$$= \liminf_{n \to \infty} E[\sigma^2(T_b \wedge n)]$$
  

$$= E[\lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma^2(T_b \wedge n)] = \sigma^2 ET_b = b/(2p - 1) < \infty$$
(86)

Thus  $ET_b^2 \leq b/(2p-1) < \infty$ . Then,

$$0 = EX_{T_b \wedge n} = E[(S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p-q)(T_b \wedge n))^2 - \sigma^2(T_b \wedge n)]$$
  
=  $E[S_{T_b \wedge n}^2 - 2S_{T_b \wedge n}(p-q)(T_b \wedge n) + (p-q)^2(T_b \wedge n)^2 - \sigma^2(T_b \wedge n)]$  (87)

Note that  $S_{T_b \wedge n}^2 \leq b^2 < \infty$ . Moreover,  $E[T_b \wedge n] \leq E[T_b] = b/(2p-1) < \infty$  by theorem 5.7.7 (d). And  $ES_{T_b \wedge n}(T_b \wedge n) \leq \left[E[S_{T_b \wedge n}^2]E[(T_b \wedge n)^2]\right]^{1/2} < \infty$  by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and (5).

Thus we can apply dominated convergence theorem to (6) to get

$$0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} E[S_{T_b \wedge n} - (p-q)(T_b \wedge n))^2 - \sigma^2 (T_b \wedge n)]$$
  

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} E[S_{T_b \wedge n}^2 - 2S_{T_b \wedge n}(p-q)(T_b \wedge n) + (p-q)^2 (T_b \wedge n)^2 - \sigma^2 (T_b \wedge n)]$$
  

$$= E \lim_{n \to \infty} [S_{T_b \wedge n}^2 - 2S_{T_b \wedge n}(p-q)(T_b \wedge n) + (p-q)^2 (T_b \wedge n)^2 - \sigma^2 (T_b \wedge n)]$$
  

$$= E[b^2 - 2b(p-q)T_b + (p-q)^2 T_b^2 - \sigma^2 T_b]$$
  

$$= b^2 - 2b(p-q)b/(2p-1) + (p-q)^2 E T_b^2 - \sigma^2 b/(2p-1)$$
  

$$= b^2 - 2b(p-q)b/(p-q) + (p-q)^2 E T_b^2 - \sigma^2 b/(p-q)$$
  

$$= -b^2 + (p-q)^2 E T_b^2 - \sigma^2 b/(p-q)$$
  
(88)

Rearranging (7) gives  $ET_b^2 = \frac{\sigma^2 b/(p-q)+b^2}{(p-q)^2} = \sigma^2 b/(p-q)^3 + b^2/(p-q)^2$ 

Finally, using the fact that (p-q) = 2p - 1 and  $E[T_b] = b/(2p - 1)$  (theorem 5.7.7 d), we get the desired result:

$$Var(T_b) = E[T_b^2] - E[T_b]^2 = \sigma^2 b/(p-q)^3 + b^2/(p-q)^2 - b^2/(2p-1)^2 = \sigma^2 b/(p-q)^3$$