

# STAT 810 Probability Theory I

## Chapter 3: Random Variables, Elements, and Measurable Maps

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# Introduction

We will precisely define a random variable. A random variable is a real valued function with domain  $\Omega$  which has an extra property called **measurability** that allows us to make probability statements about the random variable.

## 3.1 Inverse Maps

Suppose  $\Omega$  and  $\Omega'$  are two sets. Frequently,  $\Omega' = \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose

$$X : \Omega \mapsto \Omega'$$

meaning  $X$  is a function with domain  $\Omega$  and range  $\Omega'$ . Then  $X$  determines a function

$$X^{-1} : \mathcal{P}(\Omega') \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$$

defined by

$$X^{-1}(A') = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A'\}$$

for  $A' \subset \Omega'$ .

For example,  $\Omega = \{hh, ht, th, tt\}$  collects all possible results of flipping a coin twice,  $X$  denotes the number of heads which is a map from  $\Omega$  to  $\Omega' = \{0, 1, 2\}$ , where  $X(hh) = 2$ ,  $X(ht) = X(th) = 1$ , and  $X(tt) = 0$ .

## 3.1 Inverse Maps

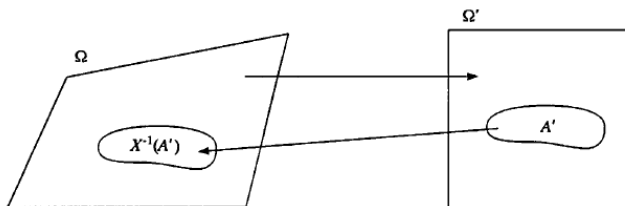


FIGURE 3.1 Inverses

The  $X^{-1}$  preserves complementation, union, and intersections as the following properties show. For  $A' \subset \Omega'$ ,  $A'_t \subset \Omega'$ , and  $T$  an arbitrary index set, we have

- (i)  $X^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$  and  $X^{-1}(\Omega') = \Omega$ .
- (ii)  $X^{-1}(A'^c) = \{X^{-1}(A')\}^c$  or  $X^{-1}\{\Omega' \setminus A'\} = \Omega \setminus X^{-1}(A')$ .
- (iii)  $X^{-1}(\cup_{t \in T} A'_t) = \cup_{t \in T} X^{-1}(A'_t)$  and  
 $X^{-1}(\cap_{t \in T} A'_t) = \cap_{t \in T} X^{-1}(A'_t)$ .

## 3.1 Inverse Maps

Notation: If  $\mathcal{C}' \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega')$  is a class of subsets of  $\Omega'$ , define

$$X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}') = \{X^{-1}(C') : C' \in \mathcal{C}'\}.$$

### Proposition 3.1.1

If  $\mathcal{B}'$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of  $\Omega'$ , then  $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}')$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of  $\Omega$ .

### Proposition 3.1.2

If  $\mathcal{C}'$  is a class of subsets of  $\Omega'$  then

$$X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}')) = \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}'))$$

that is, the inverse image of the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{C}'$  in  $\Omega'$  is the same as the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated in  $\Omega$  by the inverse image.

## 3.1 Inverse Maps

### Proof of Proposition 3.1.2

From Proposition 3.1.1,  $X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}'))$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, and since  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}') \supset \mathcal{C}'$ ,  $X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}')) \supset X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}')$ . Therefore  $X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}')) \supset \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}'))$ . Conversely, define

$$\mathcal{F}' = \{B' \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega') : X^{-1}(B') \in \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}'))\} \supset \mathcal{C}'.$$

Then  $\mathcal{F}'$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra since

1.  $\Omega' \in \mathcal{F}'$ , since  $X^{-1}(\Omega') = \Omega \in \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}'))$ .
2.  $A' \in \mathcal{F}'$  implies  $A'^c \in \mathcal{F}'$  since  $X^{-1}(A'^c) = (X^{-1}(A'))^c$ .
3.  $B'_n \in \mathcal{F}'$  implies  $\cup_n B'_n \in \mathcal{F}'$  since  $X^{-1}(\cup_n B'_n) = \cup_n X^{-1}(B'_n) \in \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}'))$ .

By definition,  $X^{-1}(\mathcal{F}') \subset \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}'))$  and  $\mathcal{C}' \subset \mathcal{F}'$ . Because  $\mathcal{F}'$  is an algebra,  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}') \subset \mathcal{F}'$ . Thus  $X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}')) \subset X^{-1}(\mathcal{F}')$ . Done.

## 3.2 Measurable Maps, Random Elements, Induced Probability Measures

A pair  $(\Omega, \mathcal{B})$  consisting of a set and a  $\sigma$ -field of subsets is called a **measurable space**. If  $(\Omega, \mathcal{B})$  and  $(\Omega', \mathcal{B}')$  are two measurable spaces, then a map  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega'$  is called measurable if

$$X^{-1}(B') \in \mathcal{B}.$$

$X$  is also called a **random element** of  $\Omega'$ . We will use the notation that

$$X \in \mathcal{B}/\mathcal{B}' \text{ or } X : (\Omega, \mathcal{B}) \mapsto (\Omega', \mathcal{B}').$$

A special case occurs when  $(\Omega', \mathcal{B}') = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ . In this case,  $X$  is called a **random variable**. (e.g.,  $X = I_A$  is a random variable iff  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ ).

## 3.2 Measurable Maps, Random Elements, Induced Probability Measures

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, P)$  be a probability space and suppose

$$X : (\Omega, \mathcal{B}) \mapsto (\Omega', \mathcal{B}')$$

is measurable. Define for  $A' \subset \Omega'$ ,

$$[X \in A'] = X^{-1}(A') = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in A'\}.$$

Define the set function  $P \circ X^{-1}$  on  $\mathcal{B}'$  by

$$P \circ X^{-1}(A') = P(X^{-1}(A')),$$

$P \circ X^{-1}$  is a probability on  $(\Omega', \mathcal{B}')$  called the **induced** probability on the **distribution** of  $X$ . Usually, we write

$$P \circ X^{-1}(A) = P[X \in A].$$

If  $X$  is a random variable, then  $P \circ X^{-1}$  is the measure induced on  $\mathbb{R}$  by the distribution function  $P \circ X^{-1}(-\infty, x] = P[X \leq x]$ .



## Example

Consider the experiment of tossing two die and let

$$\Omega = \{(i, j) : 1 \leq i, j \leq 6\}$$

and Define  $X : \Omega \mapsto \{2, 3, \dots, 12\} = \Omega'$  by  $X((i, j)) = i + j$ . Then

$$X^{-1}(\{4\}) = [X \in \{4\}] = [X = 4] = \{(1, 3), (3, 1), (2, 2)\} \subset \Omega$$

and

$$X^{-1}(\{2, 3\}) = [X \in \{2, 3\}] = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1)\} \subset \Omega.$$

The distribution of  $X$  is the probability measure on  $\Omega'$  specified by

$$P \circ X^{-1}(\{i\}) = P[X = i], \quad i \in \Omega'.$$

## 3.2 Measurable Maps, Random Elements, Induced Probability Measures

We now verify  $P \circ X^{-1}$  is a probability measure on  $\mathcal{B}'$ :

(a)  $P \circ X^{-1}(\Omega') = P(\Omega) = 1$

(b)  $P \circ X^{-1}(A') = P(X^{-1}(A')) \geq 0$

(c) if  $\{A'_n\}$  are disjoint in  $\mathcal{B}'$ , then  $\{X^{-1}(A'_n)\}$  are disjoint in  $\mathcal{B}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} P \circ X^{-1}(\cup_n A'_n) &= P(X^{-1}(\cup_n A'_n)) = P(\cup_n X^{-1}(A'_n)) \\ &= \sum_n P(X^{-1}(A'_n)) = \sum_n P \circ X^{-1}(A'_n). \end{aligned}$$

Remark: When  $X$  is a random element of  $\mathcal{B}'$ , we can make probability statements about  $X$ , since  $X^{-1}(B') \in \mathcal{B}$  and the probability measure  $P$  knows how to assign probabilities to elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ . The concept of measurability is logically necessary in order to be able to assign probabilities to sets determined by random elements.

## 3.2 Measurable Maps, Random Elements, Induced Probability Measures

The definition of measurability makes it seem like we have to check  $X^{-1}(A') \in \mathcal{B}$  for every  $A' \in \mathcal{B}'$ ; that is  $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}') \subset \mathcal{B}$ . In fact, it usually suffices to check that  $X^{-1}$  is well behaved on a smaller class than  $\mathcal{B}'$ .

### Proposition 3.2.1 (Test for measurability)

Suppose  $X : \Omega \mapsto \omega'$  where  $(\Omega, \mathcal{B})$  and  $(\Omega', \mathcal{B}')$  are two measurable spaces. Suppose  $\mathcal{C}'$  generates  $\mathcal{B}'$ ; that

$$\mathcal{B}' = \sigma(\mathcal{C}').$$

Then  $X$  is measurable iff

$$X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}') \subset \mathcal{B}.$$

## 3.2 Measurable Maps, Random Elements, Induced Probability Measures

**Proof of Proposition 3.2.1.** if  $X^{-1}(C') \subset \mathcal{B}$ , then by minimality  $\sigma(X^{-1}(C')) \subset \mathcal{B}$ . However we get

$$X^{-1}(\sigma(C')) = X^{-1}(B') = \sigma(X^{-1}(C')) \subset \mathcal{B},$$

which is the definition of measurability.

**Corollary 3.2.1 (Special case of random variables)**

The real valued function  $X : \Omega \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  is a random variable iff  $X^{-1}((-\infty, x]) = [X \leq x] \in \mathcal{B}$ , for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proof of Corollary 3.2.1**

This follows directly from

$$\sigma((-\infty, x], x \in \mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}).$$

## 3.2.1 Composition

Proposition 3.2.2 (Composition) (HW 3-1: prove this proposition)

Let  $X_1, X_2$  be two measurable maps  $X_1 : (\Omega_1, \mathcal{B}_1) \mapsto (\Omega_2, \mathcal{B}_2)$  and  $X_2 : (\Omega_2, \mathcal{B}_2) \mapsto (\Omega_3, \mathcal{B}_3)$  where  $(\Omega_i, \mathcal{B}_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3$  are measurable spaces. Define

$$X = X_2 \circ X_1 : \Omega_1 \mapsto \Omega_3$$

by  $X(\omega) = X_2 \circ X_1(\omega) = X_2(X_1(\omega))$ ,  $\omega \in \Omega_1$ . Then

$$X = X_2 \circ X_1 \in \mathcal{B}_1 / \mathcal{B}_3.$$

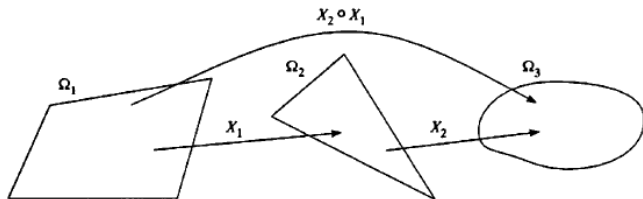


FIGURE 3.2

## 3.2.2 Random Elements of Metric Spaces

The most common use of the name random elements is when the range is a metric space. Let  $(S, d)$  be a metric space with metric  $d$  so that  $d : S \times S \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$  satisfies

(i)  $d(x, y) \geq 0$ .

(ii)  $d(x, y) = 0$  iff  $x = y$ .

(iii)  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ .

(iv)  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ .

Let  $\mathcal{O}$  be the class of open subsets of  $S$ . Define the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{S} = \sigma(\mathcal{O})$ . If  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{B}) \mapsto (S, \mathcal{S})$ , that is  $X \in \mathcal{B}/\mathcal{S}$ , then call  $X$  a random element of  $S$ .

## 3.2.2 Random Elements of Metric Spaces

### Noteworthy Examples

1.  $S = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ , a random element  $X$  of  $S$  is called a **random variable**.
2.  $S = \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2$  (Euclidean norm), a random element  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$  of  $S$  is called a **random vector**.
3.  $S = \mathbb{R}^\infty$ ,

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^{-k} \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k |x_i - y_i|}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^k |x_i - y_i|} \right),$$

a random element  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots)$  of  $S$  is called a **random sequence**.

## 3.2.2 Random Elements of Metric Spaces

### Noteworthy Examples (continued)

4.  $S = C[0, \infty)$  be the set of all real valued continuous functions with domain  $[0, \infty)$ . Define

$$\|x - y\|_m = \sup_{0 \leq t \leq m} |x(t) - y(t)|$$

and

$$d(x, y) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} 2^{-m} \left( \frac{\|x - y\|_m}{1 + \|x - y\|_m} \right),$$

a random element  $X = X(\cdot)$  of  $S$  is called a **random (continuous) function**.



## 3.2.3 Measurability and Continuity

### Proposition 3.2.3

Suppose  $(S_i, d_i), i = 1, 2$  are two metric spaces. Let the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra (generated by open sets) be  $\mathcal{S}_i, i = 1, 2$ . If  $X : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is continuous, then  $X$  is measurable:  $X \in \mathcal{S}_1/\mathcal{S}_2$ .

### Proof

Let  $\mathcal{O}_i$  be the class of open subsets of  $S_i, i = 1, 2$ . If  $X$  is continuous, then inverse images of open sets are open, which means that  $X^{-1}(\mathcal{O}_2) \subset \mathcal{O}_1 \subset \sigma(\mathcal{O}_1) = \mathcal{S}_1$ . So  $X \in \mathcal{S}_1/\mathcal{S}_2$  by Proposition 3.2.1.

## 3.2.3 Measurability and Continuity

### Corollary 3.2.2

If  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$  is a random vector, and

$$g : \mathbb{R}^k \mapsto \mathbb{R}, \quad g \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^k)/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}),$$

then from Proposition 3.2.2,  $g(\mathbf{X})$  is a random variable. In particular, if  $g$  is continuous, then  $g$  is measurable and the result holds.

We often consider  $g(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i$ ,  $k^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k x_i$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^k x_i$ ,  $\prod_{i=1}^k x_i$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^k x_i^2$ , or  $x_j$  (projection).

## 3.2.3 Measurability and Continuity

### Proposition 3.2.4

$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$  is a random vector, that is a measurable map from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}) \mapsto (\mathbb{R}^k, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^k))$ , iff  $X_i$  is a random variable for each  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .

### Proposition 3.2.5

$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots)$  is a random sequence iff  $X_i$  is a random variable for each  $i$ . Furthermore, iff  $(X_1, \dots, X_k)$  is a random vector for any  $k$ .

## 3.2.4 Measurability and Limits

### Proposition 3.2.6

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be random variables defined on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{B})$ . Then

- (i)  $\bigvee_n X_n$  and  $\bigwedge_n X_n$  are random variables.
  - (ii)  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$  and  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$  are random variables.
  - (iii) If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega)$  exists for all  $\omega$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$  is a random variable.
  - (iv) The set on which  $\{X_n\}$  has a limit is measurable; that is  $\{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) \text{ exists}\} \in \mathcal{B}$ .
- (i)  $[\bigvee_n X_n \leq x] = \bigcap_n [X_n \leq x] \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $[\bigwedge_n X_n \leq x] = \bigcup_n [X_n \leq x] \in \mathcal{B}$ .
- (ii)  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = \sup_{n \geq 1} \inf_{k \geq n} X_k$ , then use (i).
- (iii) If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega)$  exists for all  $\omega$ , then  $[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq x] = [\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq x] \in \mathcal{B}$  by (ii).

## 3.2.4 Measurability and Limits

(iv) Let  $\mathbb{Q}$  be the set of all rational real numbers so that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable. We have

$$\begin{aligned} & \{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) \text{ exists}\}^c \\ &= \{\omega : \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) < \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega)\} \\ &= \bigcup_{r \in \mathbb{Q}} \left[ \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq r < \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \right] \\ &= \bigcup_{r \in \mathbb{Q}} \left[ \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq r \right] \cap \left[ \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq r \right]^c \in \mathcal{B} \end{aligned}$$

since  $[\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq r] \in \mathcal{B}$ , and  $[\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq r] \in \mathcal{B}$ .

## $\sigma$ -Algebras Generated by Maps

Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{B}) \mapsto (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$  be a random variable. The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $X$ , denoted by  $\sigma(X)$ , is defined as

$$\sigma(X) = X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})) \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \{[X \in A] : A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})\}.$$

This is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by information about  $X$ , which is away of isolating that information in the probability space that pertains to  $X$ .

More generally, suppose  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{B}) \mapsto (\Omega', \mathcal{B}')$ . Then we define

$$\sigma(X) = X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}').$$

If  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{B}$  is a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{B}$ , we say  $X$  is measurable with respect to  $\mathcal{F}$ , written,  $X \in \mathcal{F}$ , if  $\sigma(X) \subset \mathcal{F}$ .

## $\sigma$ -Algebras Generated by Maps

**Extreme example:** Let  $X(\omega) = 810$  for all  $\omega$ .  $X$  can only be 810.  $X^{-1}(\{810\}) = \Omega$ . Therefore,

$$\sigma(X) = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}.$$

**Less extreme example:** Let  $X(\omega) = I_A$  for some  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ .  $X$  can only take 0 or 1.  $X^{-1}(\{0\}) = A^c$  and  $X^{-1}(\{1\}) = A$ . Thus

$$\sigma(X) = \{\emptyset, \Omega, A, A^c\}.$$

**Useful example: Simple function.** A random variable is simple if it has a finite range. Suppose the range of  $X$  is  $\{a_1, \dots, a_k\}$ , where the  $a$ 's are distinct. Then define

$$A_i = X^{-1}(\{a_i\}) = [X = a_i].$$

Then  $\{A_i : i = 1, \dots, k\}$  partitions  $\Omega$ ,  $X = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i I_{A_i}$ , and

$$\sigma(X) = \sigma(A_1, \dots, A_k) = \{\cup_{i \in T} A_i : T \subset \{1, \dots, k\}\}.$$

## $\sigma$ -Algebras Generated by Maps

In stochastic process theory, we frequently keep track of potential information that can be revealed to us by observing the evolution of a stochastic process by an increasing family of  $\sigma$ -algebras. If  $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$  is a (discrete time) stochastic process, we may define

$$\mathcal{B}_n = \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n), \quad n \geq 1.$$

Thus,  $\mathcal{B}_n \subset \mathcal{B}_{n+1}$  and we think  $\mathcal{B}_n$  as the information potentially available at time  $n$ . This is a way of cataloguing what information is contained in the probability model.



## $\sigma$ -Algebras Generated by Maps

### Proposition 3.3.1

Suppose  $X$  is a random variable and  $\mathcal{C}$  is a class of subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ , such that  $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathbb{R}$  (e.g.,  $\mathcal{C} = \{(-\infty, x] : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ ), then

$$\sigma(X) = \sigma(\{X \in B\} : B \in \mathcal{C}).$$

**Proof:** We have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma(\{X \in B\}, B \in \mathcal{C}) &= \sigma(X^{-1}(B), B \in \mathcal{C}) \\ &= \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C})) = X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C})) \\ &= X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})) = \sigma(X).\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\sigma(X) = (\{[X \leq t] : t \in \mathbb{R}\})$ .

(Other HW 3 problems: Section 3.4, Q1-2, Q4-5, Q8, Q11-12, Q14-17, Q19)