

# Chapter 9

## Conditional expectation

### 9.1 Inner product spaces

There are several ways to introduce the notion of conditional expectation. We begin by introducing inner-product spaces and motivate a definition of conditional expectation by using the Projection Theorem.

**Definition 9.1.** *A real vector space  $\mathbb{X}$  is called an inner-product space if for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{X}$ , there exists a function  $\langle x, y \rangle$ , called an inner-product, such that for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{X}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ <sup>1</sup>*

1.  $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
2.  $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$
3.  $\langle ax, y \rangle = a\langle x, y \rangle$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}$
4.  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ , for all  $x$
5.  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = \theta$ , where  $\theta$  is the null vector in  $\mathbb{X}$ .

The following theorem shows that a general version of the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality holds for inner-product spaces.

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<sup>1</sup>If the vector space  $\mathbb{X}$  is associated with a complex field, property 1 becomes  $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$ , where for  $x \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\bar{x}$  is the complex conjugate of  $x$ , and in property 3  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Theorem 9.1.** Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be an inner-product space and  $x, y \in \mathbb{X}$ . Then,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $y \neq \theta$  and note that for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq \langle x - ay, x - ay \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle - 2a\langle x, y \rangle + a^2\langle y, y \rangle \\ &\leq \langle x, x \rangle - \frac{\langle x, y \rangle^2}{\langle y, y \rangle} \text{ by letting } a = \langle x, y \rangle / \langle y, y \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality is equivalent to  $\langle x, y \rangle^2 \leq \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$  or  $|\langle x, y \rangle| = \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}$ . Lastly, if  $y = \theta$  then the inequality holds with equality and  $\langle x, \theta \rangle = 0$ . ■

It can be easily shown that the function  $\|\cdot\| : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  defined as  $\|x\| = \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2}$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{X}$ . Thus, every inner-product space can be taken to be a normed space with this induced norm. Another important property in inner-product spaces is the Parallelogram Law, which is given in the next theorem.

**Theorem 9.2.** In an inner-product space  $\|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2$ .

*Proof.*  $\|x + y\|^2 = \langle x + y, x + y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle + 2\langle x, y \rangle$  and  $\|x - y\|^2 = \langle x - y, x - y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle - 2\langle x, y \rangle$ . Hence, we obtain

$$\|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2.$$

■

**Example 9.1.** Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and define  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$ . It can be easily shown that  $\langle x, y \rangle$  is an inner-product for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} = \|x\| = (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)^{1/2}$  is a norm.

**Example 9.2.** Consider the space  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  of random variables  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  such that  $\int_{\Omega} X^2 dP < \infty$ . By Theorem 5.10.1  $XY \in \mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and by Theorem 5.10.3

$\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is a vector space. Now, define  $\langle X, Y \rangle = E(XY) = \int_{\Omega} XY dP$ . Using the properties of integrals, conditions 1-4 in Definition 9.1 are easily verified. However, condition 5 does not hold. Whereas it is true that  $X(\omega) = 0$  for all  $\omega$ , the null vector in  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , gives  $\langle X, X \rangle = \int_{\Omega} X^2(\omega) dP = 0$ ,  $\int_{\Omega} X^2(\omega) dP = 0$  does not imply  $X(\omega) = 0$  for all  $\omega$ . This is true since a random variable  $Z$  that takes non-zero values in sets of measure zero and is equal to 0 elsewhere will be such that  $\int_{\Omega} Z^2(\omega) dP = 0$ . If we treat any two variables  $X$  and  $Z$  in  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  as being identical if they differ only in a set of measure zero, that is if  $P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \neq Z(\omega)\}) = 0$ , then condition 5 is met and  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is an inner product space with  $\|X\|_2 = \left( \int_{\Omega} X^2 dP \right)^{1/2}$ . We know from the Riez-Fisher Theorem that  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is a Banach space, viz., a complete vector space. Hence,  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is a Hilbert space.

**Theorem 9.3.** Let  $\{X_n\}_{n=1,2,\dots}$  and  $\{Y_n\}_{n=1,2,\dots}$  be sequences in a Hilbert space with inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and norm  $\|\cdot\| = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle^{1/2}$ . Let  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in that  $\|X_n - X\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $Y_n \rightarrow Y$ . Then,  $\langle X_n, Y_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle X, Y \rangle$ .

*Proof.* By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality (Theorem 9.1),  $|\langle X, Y \rangle| \leq \|X\| \|Y\|$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle X, Y \rangle - \langle X_n, Y_n \rangle| &= |\langle X, Y_n \rangle - \langle X_n, Y_n \rangle + \langle X, Y \rangle - \langle X, Y_n \rangle - \langle X_n, Y \rangle + \langle X_n, Y_n \rangle \\ &\quad + \langle X_n, Y \rangle - \langle X_n, Y_n \rangle| \\ &= |\langle X - X_n, Y_n \rangle + \langle X - X_n, Y - Y_n \rangle + \langle X_n, Y - Y_n \rangle| \\ &\leq |\langle X - X_n, Y_n \rangle| + |\langle X - X_n, Y - Y_n \rangle| + |\langle X_n, Y - Y_n \rangle| \\ &\leq \|X - X_n\| \|Y_n\| + \|X - X_n\| \|Y - Y_n\| + \|X_n\| \|Y - Y_n\|. \end{aligned}$$

By convergence,  $\|X - X_n\|, \|Y - Y_n\| \rightarrow 0$  and since  $\|X_n\|, \|Y_n\| < \infty$  for all  $n$ ,  $|\langle X, Y \rangle - \langle X_n, Y_n \rangle| \rightarrow 0$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . ■

**Definition 9.2.** Let  $S$  be a closed subset of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . The distance from  $Y \in \mathcal{H}$  to  $S$  is denoted by

$$d(Y, S) = \inf\{\|Y - X\| : X \in S\}.$$

If  $Y \in S$ ,  $d(Y, S) = 0$ .

**Theorem 9.4.** (*Projection Theorem*): Let  $S$  be a closed subspace of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $Y \in \mathcal{H}$ . There exists a unique  $X \in S$  such that  $\|Y - X\| := \inf\{\|Y - X'\| : X' \in S\}$ . Furthermore,  $\langle Y - X, s \rangle = 0$ , for all  $s \in S$ .

*Proof.* First, consider existence of  $X$ . If  $Y \in S$ , put  $X = Y$ . If  $Y \notin S$ , we would like to obtain  $X \in S$  such that  $\|Y - X\| = \inf_{X' \in S} \{\|Y - X'\|\} = \delta > 0$ .

Let  $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in S$  such that  $\|X_i - Y\| \rightarrow \delta$ . Now, if  $X_i$  and  $Y$  are in a Hilbert space, we have by the Parallelogram Law

$$\|(X_j - Y) + (Y - X_i)\|^2 + \|(X_j - Y) - (Y - X_i)\|^2 = 2\|X_j - Y\|^2 + 2\|Y - X_i\|^2$$

and

$$\|X_j - X_i\|^2 = 2\|X_j - Y\|^2 + 2\|Y - X_i\|^2 - 4\|Y - \frac{X_i + X_j}{2}\|^2.$$

For all  $i, j$  the vector  $\frac{X_i + X_j}{2} \in S$  (since  $S$  is a subspace). Therefore, by definition of  $\delta$ ,  $\|Y - \frac{X_i + X_j}{2}\| \geq \delta$  and we obtain  $\|X_j - X_i\|^2 \leq 2\|X_j - Y\|^2 + 2\|Y - X_i\|^2 - 4\delta^2$ . Since  $\|X_i - Y\|^2 \rightarrow \delta^2$  by continuity of inner product (Theorem 9.3),  $\|X_j - X_i\|^2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $i, j \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence,  $\{X_i\}$  is a Cauchy sequence. Since  $S$  is closed,  $\{X_i\}$  converges to  $\tilde{X} \in S$ . Furthermore,  $\delta \leq \|Y - \tilde{X}\| \leq \|Y - X_i\| + \|X_i - \tilde{X}\| \leq \delta$ . Hence,  $\tilde{X} = X$  which we wanted to show existed.

Now, consider the proof of  $\langle Y - X, s \rangle = 0$  for all  $s \in S$ . Suppose there exists  $s \in S$  such that  $\langle Y - X, s \rangle \neq 0$ . Without loss of generality assume that  $\|s\| = 1$  and that  $\langle Y - X, s \rangle = \delta \neq 0$  and define  $s_1 \in S$  such that  $s_1 = X + \delta s$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \|Y - s_1\|^2 &= \|Y - X - \delta s\|^2 \text{ by definition of } s_1 \\ &= \|Y - X\|^2 - \langle Y - X, \delta s \rangle - \langle \delta s, Y - X \rangle + \delta^2 \|s\|^2 \\ &= \|Y - X\|^2 - \delta^2 - \delta^2 + \delta^2 \\ &= \|Y - X\|^2 - \delta^2 < \|Y - X\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, if  $\langle Y - X, s \rangle \neq 0$ , then  $X$  is not the minimizing element of  $S$  and it must be that for all  $s \in S$ ,  $\langle Y - X, s \rangle = 0$ .

Lastly, let's prove uniqueness. For all  $s \in S$ , the theorem of Pythagoras says that  $\|Y - s\|^2 = \|Y - X + X - s\|^2 = \|Y - X\|^2 + \|X - s\|^2$ . (Note that  $\langle Y - X, X - s \rangle = 0$  due to the fact that  $\langle Y - X, s \rangle = 0, \forall s \in S$ ). Hence,  $\|Y - s\| > \|Y - X\|$  for  $s \neq X$ . ■

As a matter of terminology, we call any two elements  $X$  and  $Y$  of a Hilbert space orthogonal if  $\langle X, Y \rangle = 0$ .

## 9.2 Conditional expectation for random variables in $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$

Now consider the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{L}^2$  composed of all random variables defined on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and for precision denote this space by  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . Let  $X$  be a random vector taking values in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  defined in the same probability space with  $\sigma(X) \subset \mathcal{F}$ . Then,  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \sigma(X), P) \subset \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is a Hilbert space with the same inner product. Furthermore,  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \sigma(X), P)$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . We now define conditional expectation.

**Definition 9.3.** *Let  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . The conditional expectation of  $Y$  given  $X$  is the unique element  $\hat{Y} \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \sigma(X), P)$  such that*

$$E((Y - \hat{Y})s) = 0, \text{ for all } s \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \sigma(X), P).$$

We write  $\hat{Y} = E(Y|X)$  or  $\hat{Y} = E(Y|\sigma(X))$ .

Recall that if  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}^n)$  is a random vector, then  $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}^n) \subset \mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra and we wrote  $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}^n) = \sigma(X)$ , the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $X$ . Consider a random variable  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ . It is legitimate to ask when  $Y$  is measurable (a random variable) with respect to  $\sigma(X)$ .<sup>2</sup> The following theorem provides a useful characterization.

<sup>2</sup>More generally, for  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{F}$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra, we say that  $X$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable if for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{G}$ . There may be many of these  $\mathcal{G}$ 's. The intersection of all of them, i.e.  $\sigma(X) := \bigcap_{i \in I} \mathcal{G}_i$  is called the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $X$ .

**Theorem 9.5.** Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}^n)$  be a random vector and  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  be a random variable.  $Y$  is  $\sigma(X)$ -measurable if, and only if, there exists  $f : (\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}^n) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  such that  $Y = f(X)$  and  $f$  is  $\mathcal{B}^n$ -measurable.

*Proof.* (  $\Leftarrow$  ) We want to show that for every  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  we have  $Y^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(X)$ . But  $Y^{-1}(B) = X^{-1}(f^{-1}(B))$  and by measurability of  $f$ ,  $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{B}^n$  and since  $X$  is a random vector  $X^{-1}(f^{-1}(B)) \in \sigma(X)$ . Thus,  $Y$  is  $\sigma(X)$ -measurable.

(  $\Rightarrow$  ) Suppose  $Y^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(X)$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ . First, assume that  $Y$  is simple. Then, for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i I_{A_i}$  for  $a_i$  distinct and  $A_i$  pairwise-disjoint. In this case,  $Y^{-1}(\{a_i\}) = A_i$  and by assumption  $A_i \in \sigma(X)$ . Hence there exists  $B_i \in \mathcal{B}^n$  such that  $X^{-1}(B_i) = A_i$  (definition of  $\sigma(X)$ ). Let  $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i I_{B_i}(x)$ , then  $Y = f(X)$ ,  $f$   $\mathcal{B}^n$ -measurable. Thus, the implication is proved for every  $Y$  simple that is  $\sigma(X)$ -measurable.

If  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  then, by Theorem 4.4, there exist  $Y_n(\omega)$  simple such that

$$Y(\omega) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Y_n(\omega), \quad 0 \leq Y_n(\omega) \leq Y_{n+1}(\omega).$$

Each  $Y_n$  is  $\sigma(X)$ -measurable and  $Y_n = f_n(X)$  from the first part of the proof. Now, set  $f(x) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$  and note  $Y = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Y_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(X)$ .

Given that  $(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n)(X) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(X)$ , by Theorem 3.6,  $f(x)$  is  $\mathcal{B}^n$ -measurable. For general  $Y$ , write  $Y = Y^+ - Y^-$  which reduces to the preceding case. ■

**Remark 9.1.** 1. An equivalent way to think of Definition 9.3 using the previous theorem is to write

$$E(Y|X) = \arg \inf_{s \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \sigma(X), P)} \|Y - s\| = \arg \inf_{f \in F} \|Y - f(X)\|.$$

where  $F$  is the set of Borel measurable functions from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

2. Since  $\hat{Y} = E(Y|X)$  is  $\sigma(X)$ -measurable, by Theorem 9.5, there exists  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  which is Borel measurable such that  $E(Y|X) = f(X)$  and  $f$  is unique. Hence, we

can write  $E[(Y - f(X))g(X)] = 0$ , for all  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  Borel measurable such that  $\int g^2 dP < \infty$ .

We can free the concept of conditional expectation from a particular set of random variables (or element) that produces  $\sigma(X)$  and speak more generally of conditioning on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{F}$ , that is a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ .

**Definition 9.4.**  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  be a random variable with  $\int Y^2 dP < \infty$ . Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ . Then  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  is the unique  $\hat{Y} \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$  such that

$$E((Y - \hat{Y})s) = E([Y - E(Y|\mathcal{G})]s) = 0,$$

for all measurable  $s \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$ .

**Remark 9.2.** 1. The definition gives  $E(Ys) = E(sE(Y|\mathcal{G}))$ .

2. Since  $s = 1 \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$ ,  $E(Y) = E(E(Y|\mathcal{G}))$ .

3. If  $U, V \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , then  $E(U + \alpha V|\mathcal{G})$  satisfies  $E((U + \alpha V)s) = E(E(U + \alpha V|\mathcal{G})s)$ .

But,

$$\begin{aligned} E((U + \alpha V)s) &= E(Us) + \alpha E(Vs) \\ &= E(E(U|\mathcal{G})s) + \alpha E(E(V|\mathcal{G})s) \\ &= E([E(U|\mathcal{G}) + \alpha E(V|\mathcal{G})]s). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $E(U + \alpha V|\mathcal{G}) = E(U|\mathcal{G}) + \alpha E(V|\mathcal{G})$ . That is  $E(\cdot|\mathcal{G})$  is a linear function.

**Theorem 9.6.** Assume that  $Z := \begin{pmatrix} Y \\ X \end{pmatrix}$  is a random vector defined on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  taking values in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and having density  $f$ .

1.  $Y$  and  $X$  have densities on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  given by  $f_Y(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y, x) d\lambda(x)$  and  $f_X(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y, x) d\lambda(y)$ .

2. For every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f_X(x) \neq 0$  we have that  $f_{Y|X=x}(y) = \frac{f(y,x)}{f_X(x)}$  is a density on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

3.  $E(Y|X) = h(X)$  where  $h(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_{Y|X=x}(y) d\lambda(y)$ .

*Proof.* 1. Let  $E \in \mathcal{B}$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y \in E) &= P(Z \in E \times \mathbb{R}) = \int_{E \times \mathbb{R}} f(y, x) d\lambda^2(y, x) \\ &= \int_E \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y, x) d\lambda(y) d\lambda(x) = \int_E f_Y(y) d\lambda(y) \end{aligned}$$

with  $f_Y(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y, x) d\lambda(x)$ . Therefore,  $P(Y \in E) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} I_E f_Y(y) d\lambda(y)$  and  $f_Y$  is a density for  $Y$ .

2.  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{Y|X=x}(y) d\lambda(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{f(y,x)}{f_X(x)} d\lambda(y) = 1$ .

3. Let  $h(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_{Y|X=x}(y) d\lambda(y)$  and consider any bounded Borel measurable function  $g : (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} E(h(X)g(X)) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)g(x)f_X(x)d\lambda(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_{Y|X=x}(y) d\lambda(y) g(x) f_X(x) d\lambda(x) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} y \frac{f(y,x)}{f_X(x)} d\lambda(y) g(x) f_X(x) d\lambda(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y,x) d\lambda(y) g(x) d\lambda(x) \\ &= E(Yg(X)) \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$E(h(X)g(X)) - E(Yg(X)) = E((Y - h(X))g(X)) = 0$$

which gives  $E(Y|X) = h(X)$ . ■

**Theorem 9.7.** Let  $Y$  be a random variable in  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and  $S$  be a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . Then,

1. there exists a unique function  $P_S : \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow S$  such that  $(\mathcal{I} - P_S) : \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow S^\perp$  where  $S^\perp$  is the orthogonal complement of  $S$ .<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>The orthogonal complement of a subset  $S$  of an inner-product space is the set of all vectors in the space that are orthogonal to  $S$ .



$$2. \|Y\|^2 = \|P_S(Y)\|^2 + \|(I - P_S)(Y)\|^2,$$

$$3. P_S(Y_n) \rightarrow P_S(Y) \text{ if } \|Y_n - Y\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

$$4. \text{ if } S_1, S_2 \text{ are closed subspaces of } \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \text{ such that } S_1 \subset S_2 \implies P_{S_1}(P_{S_2}(Y)) = P_{S_1}(Y).$$

*Proof.* 1. By the Projection Theorem, for each  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  there exists a unique  $\hat{Y} \in S$ . Thus, we write the function  $P_S(Y) = \hat{Y}$ . In addition  $E\{(Y - P_S(Y))s\} = 0$  for all  $s \in S$ . That is,  $Y - P_S(Y)$  is orthogonal to the subspace  $S$ . Any  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  can be written as  $Y - P_S(Y) + P_S(Y) = Y$  or  $Y = (\mathcal{I} - P_S)(Y) + P_S(Y)$  where  $\mathcal{I}$  is the identity operator in  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and  $\mathcal{I} - P_S$  projects  $Y$  onto the orthogonal complement of  $S$ .

2. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \|Y\|^2 &= \|Y - P_S Y + P_S Y\|^2 \\ &= \|Y - P_S(Y)\|^2 + \|P_S(Y)\|^2 \text{ by Pythagoras' theorem} \\ &= \|(\mathcal{I} - P_S)(Y)\|^2 + \|P_S(Y)\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

3. Note that  $\|P_S(Y_n) - P_S(Y)\|^2 = \|P_S(Y_n - Y)\|^2$ . By the last equality in part 2.,

$$\begin{aligned} \|Y_n - Y\|^2 &= \|(\mathcal{I} - P_S)(Y_n - Y)\|^2 + \|P_S(Y_n - Y)\|^2 \\ &= \|(\mathcal{I} - P_S)(Y_n - Y)\|^2 + \|P_S(Y_n) - P_S(Y)\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$\|P_S(Y_n) - P_S(Y)\|^2 = \|Y_n - Y\|^2 - \|(\mathcal{I} - P_S)(Y_n - Y)\|^2 \leq \|Y_n - Y\|^2.$$

Hence, if  $\|Y_n - Y\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $\|P_S(Y_n) - P_S(Y)\|^2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

4.  $Y = P_{S_2}(Y) + (\mathcal{I} - P_{S_2})(Y)$  and  $P_{S_1}(Y) = P_{S_1}(P_{S_2}(Y)) + P_{S_1}((\mathcal{I} - P_{S_2})(Y))$ . In the last term, the argument of  $P_{S_1}$  is an element of the orthogonal complement of  $S_2$ . That is  $\langle (\mathcal{I} - P_{S_2})(Y), s \rangle = 0$  for every  $s \in S_2$ . But since  $S_1 \subset S_2$ , it must be that  $\langle (\mathcal{I} - P_{S_2})(Y), s_1 \rangle = 0$  for all  $s_1 \in S_1$ . Thus,  $(\mathcal{I} - P_{S_2})(Y) \in S_1^\perp$  and consequently  $P_{S_1}((\mathcal{I} - P_{S_2})(Y)) = 0$ . ■

In Theorem [9.7](#), if we take the closed subspace of  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  to be  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$  for  $\mathcal{G}$  a sub  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ , we write  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  for  $P_S(Y)$ . In particular, we have:

1.  $\|Y\|^2 = \|E(Y|\mathcal{G})\|^2 + \|Y - E(Y|\mathcal{G})\|^2$ ,
2.  $E(Y_n|\mathcal{G}) \rightarrow E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  if  $Y_n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}^2} Y$ ,
3. if  $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{G}$  then  $E(E(Y|\mathcal{G})|\mathcal{H}) = E(Y|\mathcal{H})$ .

### 9.3 Conditional expectation for random variables in $\mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$

It is desirable to extend the concept of conditional expectation to random variables  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  such that  $Y \in \mathcal{L}$ . The word extend is justified, since by the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality (or Rogers-Hölder Inequality with  $p = q = 2$ )

$$E(|XY|) \leq \|X\|_2 \|Y\|_2.$$

Taking  $Y = 1$  almost everywhere, we have  $E(|X|)^2 \leq E(X^2)$ . Hence, if  $E(X^2) < C$  then  $E|X| < C$ . Consequently,  $\mathcal{L}^2 \subset \mathcal{L}$ .

For this purpose, recall that  $Y \in \mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  if  $Y^+ = \max\{Y(\omega), 0\}$  and  $Y^- = -\min\{Y(\omega), 0\}$  are such that  $E(Y^+), E(Y^-) < \infty$  and, in this case, we define  $E(Y) = E(Y^+) - E(Y^-)$ . If  $Y \geq 0$ , then  $Y^- = 0$  and  $Y = Y^+$ . We first consider  $Y \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . As in Definition [4.4](#) we allow  $Y(\omega) = \infty$ . The next theorem provides the basis for extending our definition of conditional expectation to random variables in  $\mathcal{L}$ .

**Theorem 9.8.** *i) Let  $Y \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ . There exists a unique element  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  of  $\mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$  such that  $E([Y - E(Y|\mathcal{G})]X) = 0$  for all  $X \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$ .*

*ii) If  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  then the conditional expectation  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  in i) is the same as  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  in Definition [9.3](#) with  $\sigma(X) = \mathcal{G}$ .*

iii) If  $Y \leq Y'$  then  $E(Y|\mathcal{G}) \leq E(Y'|\mathcal{G})$ .

*Proof.* i) We first consider the existence  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$ . Let  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and  $Y \geq 0$ . In this case, define  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  as in Definition 9.3. Now, for  $X \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$  let

$$X_n(\omega) = \min\{X(\omega), n\} = \begin{cases} X(\omega), & \text{if } X(\omega) \leq n, \\ n, & \text{if } X(\omega) > n, \end{cases}$$

and note that

$$X_n^2(\omega) = \begin{cases} X^2(\omega), & \text{if } X(\omega) \leq n \\ n^2, & \text{if } X(\omega) > n \end{cases}.$$

Hence,

$$\int_{\Omega} X_n^2 dP = \begin{cases} \int_{\Omega} X^2 dP \leq n^2 \int_{\Omega} dP = n^2 < \infty, & \text{if } X(\omega) \leq n \\ n^2 \int_{\Omega} dP = n^2 < \infty, & \text{if } X(\omega) > n \end{cases}$$

so that  $X_n \in \mathcal{L}^2$ .

Now,  $0 \leq X_1(\omega) \leq X_2(\omega) \leq \dots \leq X(\omega)$  and  $X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega)$  almost everywhere as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Then, by Beppo-Levi's Theorem, we have that

$$E\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Y X_n\right) = E(YX) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(Y X_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(E(Y|\mathcal{G})X_n).$$

The last equality follows from the fact that  $EY^2 < \infty$ ,  $EX_n^2 < \infty$  and Definition 9.3. Now, again by Beppo-Levi's Theorem, we have

$$E(YX) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(E(Y|\mathcal{G})X_n) = E(E(Y|\mathcal{G})X), \text{ for all } X \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P).$$

If  $Y \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  then let  $Y_m(\omega) = \min\{Y(\omega), m\}$  and from the argument above  $Y_m \in \mathcal{L}^2$ .

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_m X_n) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})X_n) = E(E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n) \\ &= E(E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})X). \end{aligned}$$

Now, since  $Y_m \geq 0$ , then  $E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})$  as defined in Definition 9.3 is such that  $E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) \geq 0$ .

To see this, consider  $Z = I_{\{E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) < 0\}}$  and note that  $E(Z^2) = P(E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) < 0)$ ,  $E(Y_m Z) =$

$E(E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})Z) = E(E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})I_{\{E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})<0\}})$ . Now, since  $Y_m \geq 0$  and  $Z = 1$  or  $Z = 0$  we have that  $E(Y_m Z) \geq 0$ . But the right-hand side of the last equality is less than 0 if  $E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) < 0$ , so it must be that  $E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) \geq 0$  if  $Y_m \geq 0$ . Hence,  $E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})$  is increasing with  $m$ , and by Beppo-Levi's Theorem we have

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_m X_n) = E(YX) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})X) = E\left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})X\right).$$

Now, since  $E(YX) = E\left(\left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})\right)X\right)$  or  $E\left(\left(Y - \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_m|\mathcal{G})\right)X\right) = 0$  for all  $X \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$ , we define

$$E(Y|\mathcal{G}) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) \tag{9.1}$$

for  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^+(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ .

We now consider uniqueness of  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$ . Let  $U$  and  $V$  be two versions of  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  and let  $\Lambda_n = \{\omega : U < V \leq n\}$ . Since  $U$  and  $V$  are versions of  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  we know that  $U$  and  $V$  are  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable. Consequently,  $\{\omega : U \leq n\} \in \mathcal{G}$ ,  $\{\omega : V \leq n\} \in \mathcal{G}$  and  $\Lambda_n = \{\omega : U < V \leq n\} \in \mathcal{G}$ .

Note that  $E(YI_{\Lambda_n}) = E(UI_{\Lambda_n}) = E(VI_{\Lambda_n})$  since  $U = V = E(Y|\mathcal{G})$ . Furthermore,  $0 \leq UI_{\Lambda_n} \leq VI_{\Lambda_n} \leq n$  and if  $P(\Lambda_n) > 0$  ( $\Lambda_n \neq \emptyset$ ),  $UI_{\Lambda_n} < VI_{\Lambda_n}$  which implies that  $E(UI_{\Lambda_n}) < E(VI_{\Lambda_n})$ , which contradicts  $E(UI_{\Lambda_n}) = E(VI_{\Lambda_n})$ . Therefore,  $P(\Lambda_n) = 0$  for all  $n$ . Now, note that  $\Lambda_1 \subset \Lambda_2 \subset \Lambda_3 \subset \dots \subset \{U < V\}$ . Now  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \cup_{i=1}^n \Lambda_i = \{U < V\}$  and  $P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \cup_{i=1}^n \Lambda_i\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\cup_{i=1}^n \Lambda_i) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n P(\Lambda_i)$ . Thus,  $P(\{U < V\}) = 0$ . Repeating the argument for  $\Gamma_n = \{\omega : V < U \leq n\}$  we conclude that  $P(\{V < U\}) = 0$ . Hence, it must be that  $U$  and  $V$  coincide with probability 1.

ii) The proof follows from the first part of the argument in item i).

iii) If  $Y \leq Y'$  then  $Y_m \leq Y'_m$  for all  $m$  and  $E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) \leq E(Y'_m|\mathcal{G})$  and consequently

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_m|\mathcal{G}) \leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E(Y'_m|\mathcal{G}) \iff E(Y|\mathcal{G}) \leq E(Y'|\mathcal{G}).$$

■

We now consider conditional expectations for random variables in  $\mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ .

**Theorem 9.9.** *Let  $Y \in \mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ . There exists a unique element  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  in  $\mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$  such that*

$$E((Y - E(Y|\mathcal{G}))X) = 0, \text{ for all bounded } \mathcal{G}\text{-measurable } X.$$

$E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  coincides with those in Definition 9.3 and Theorem 9.8 when  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2$  and  $Y \in \mathcal{L}_+$ . In addition, (i) if  $Y \geq 0$ , then  $E(Y|\mathcal{G}) \geq 0$  and (ii)  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  is a linear in  $Y$ .

*Proof.* We first consider existence of the conditional expectation. Since  $Y \in \mathcal{L}$ , we can write  $Y = Y^+ - Y^-$  and  $Y^+, Y^- \in \mathcal{L}$ . Now,  $Y^+$  and  $Y^-$  are such that

$$\begin{aligned} E((Y^+ - E(Y^+|\mathcal{G}))X) &= 0, \text{ for all } X \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P) \text{ and} \\ E((Y^- - E(Y^-|\mathcal{G}))X) &= 0, \text{ for all } X \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P). \end{aligned}$$

Define  $E(Y|\mathcal{G}) = E(Y^+|\mathcal{G}) - E(Y^-|\mathcal{G})$  and note that for  $X \in \mathcal{L}_+(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, P)$

$$\begin{aligned} E(YX) &= E((Y^+ - Y^-)X) = E(Y^+X) - E(Y^-X) \\ &= E(E(Y^+|\mathcal{G})X) - E(E(Y^-|\mathcal{G})X) \text{ by Theorem 9.8} \\ &= E((E(Y^+|\mathcal{G}) - E(Y^-|\mathcal{G})))X = E(E(Y|\mathcal{G})X). \end{aligned}$$

We now establish uniqueness of  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$ . Suppose  $U$  and  $V$  are two versions of  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  and let  $\wedge = \{U < V\}$ . Then, since  $U$  and  $V$  are  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable, then  $\wedge \in \mathcal{G}$ . Therefore  $I_\wedge$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable.

$$E(YI_\wedge) = E(E(Y|\mathcal{G})I_\wedge) = E(UI_\wedge) = E(VI_\wedge).$$

But, if  $P(\wedge) > 0$ , then  $E(UI_\wedge) < E(VI_\wedge)$ , a contradiction. Thus,  $P(\wedge) = 0$ . A similar reverse argument gives  $P(V < U) = 0$ .

Now, for any  $X$  that is bounded and  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable consider

$$\begin{aligned} E(YX) &= E(Y(X^+ - X^-)) = E(YX^+) - E(YX^-) \\ &= E(X^+E(Y|\mathcal{G})) - E(X^-E(Y|\mathcal{G})) \\ &\text{using the definition of conditional expectation in this proof.} \\ &= E((X^+ - X^-)E(Y|\mathcal{G})) = E(XE(Y|\mathcal{G})). \end{aligned}$$

The proofs of items (i) and (ii) are left as exercises. ■

**Remark 9.3.** Note that if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables defined on the same probability space, then by Theorem [6.5](#), if  $f$  is a bounded measurable function  $E(Yf(X)) = E(Y)E(f(X))$ . Now,  $E(Yf(X)) = E(E(Y|\sigma(X))f(X))$  and consequently

$$E(Y)E(f(X)) = E(E(Y|\sigma(X))f(X)),$$

taking  $f(X) = 1$  gives  $E(Y) = E(Y|\sigma(X))$ .

Lebesgue's monotone and dominated convergence theorems hold for conditional expectations.

**Theorem 9.10.**  $Y_n(\omega) : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  and let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ .

- a) If  $Y_n \geq 0$ ,  $Y_1 \leq Y_2 \leq Y_3 \leq \dots$  with  $Y_n \xrightarrow{as} Y$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_n|\mathcal{G}) = E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  a.s.
- b) If  $Y_n \xrightarrow{as} Y$  and  $|Y_n| \leq Z$  for some  $Z \in \mathcal{L}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(Y_n|\mathcal{G}) = E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  a.s.

*Proof.* Left as an exercise. ■

We now give an example where conditional expectation is taken to belong to a specific class of measurable functions.

**Example 9.3.** Let  $Y \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and let  $X$  be a random vector defined on the same probability space. Assume that for every component of  $X_k$ , for  $k = 1, \dots, K$  of  $X$  we have  $X_k \in \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ . Now, consider the following class of functions

$$F = \{f : f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^K a_k x_k \text{ where } f \text{ is } \sigma(X)\text{-measurable and } a_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Using Definition [9.3](#) or item 1 in Remark 30

$$E(Y|X) = \underset{a_1, \dots, a_K}{\operatorname{argmin}} \int \left( Y - \sum_{k=1}^k a_k X_k \right)^2 dP = \underset{a_1, \dots, a_K}{\operatorname{argmin}} O(a_1, \dots, a_K).$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} O(a_1, \dots, a_K) &= \int (Y^2 - 2Y \sum_{k=1}^K a_k X_k + (\sum_{i=1}^K a_k X_k)^2) dP \\ &= \int Y^2 dP - 2 \sum_{k=1}^K a_k \int X_k Y dP + \sum_{k=1}^K a_k^2 \int X_k^2 dP \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{k \neq l} a_k a_l \int X_k X_l dP \\ &= \sigma^2 - 2 \sum_{k=1}^K a_k E(X_k Y) + \sum_{k=1}^K a_k^2 \int X_k^2 dP + \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j \neq l} a_k a_l E(X_k X_l). \end{aligned}$$

Now, taking derivatives with respect to  $a_k$  we have  $\frac{\partial}{\partial a_k} O(a_1, \dots, a_K) = -2E(X_k Y) + 2a_k E(X_k^2) + 2 \sum_{k \neq l} a_l E(X_k X_l)$  for  $k = 1, \dots, K$ . Alternatively, using matrices

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial a} O(a_1, \dots, a_K) &= -2 \begin{bmatrix} E(X_1 Y) \\ \vdots \\ E(X_K Y) \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} E(X_1^2) & E(X_1 X_2) & \cdots & E(X_1 X_K) \\ E(X_2 X_1) & E(X_2^2) & \cdots & E(X_2 X_K) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ E(X_K X_1) & E(X_K X_2) & \cdots & E(X_K^2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_K \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -2b + 2Aa \end{aligned}$$

Choosing  $a := \hat{a}$  such that  $\frac{\partial}{\partial a} O(\hat{a}_1, \dots, \hat{a}_K) = 0$  we have  $\hat{a} = A^{-1}b$  if  $A$  is invertible. Invertibility of  $A$  follows positive definiteness of  $A$ , which also assures that  $\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{a}_k x_k$  corresponds to a minimum.