

Chapter 6

Independence of random variables

We want to speak of independence of random variables, but all we have is the notion of independence of events. A function $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ is a random variable (measurable function) if $\forall B \in \mathcal{B}, X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$, or equivalently, from a notational perspective $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathcal{F}$. In addition, recall from Example 1.1.4 that $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ is a σ -algebra associated with Ω . Hence, we will say that $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ is a sub- σ -algebra of \mathcal{F} , as $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathcal{F}$. In particular, we will say that $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ is the σ -algebra generated by X and it is common to write $\sigma(X) := X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$.

Before we proceed with the notion of independence of random variables we establish the following theorem.

Theorem 6.1. *Let $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (T, \mathcal{T})$ and \mathcal{C} a class of subsets of T . Then,*

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

Proof. From Example 1.1.4 $X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}))$ is a σ -algebra associated with Ω . Since $\mathcal{C} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{C})$, $X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}) \subset X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}))$ and consequently $\sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C})) \subset X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C}))$.

Now, as in Theorem 3.1, $\mathcal{U} = \{U \in 2^T : X^{-1}(U) \in \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}))\}$ is a σ -algebra. By definition of \mathcal{U}

$$X^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C})).$$

Also, $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{U}$ since $X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}) \subset X^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C}))$. Since \mathcal{U} is a σ -algebra we have that

$\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subset \mathcal{U}$. So,

$$X^{-1}(\sigma(\mathcal{C})) \subset X^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset \sigma(X^{-1}(\mathcal{C})).$$

The last set containment combined with the reverse obtained on the last paragraph completes the proof. ■

Earlier, we defined a finite collection of events $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^n$ and $n \geq 2$ as being independent if

$$P\left(\bigcap_{j \in J} E_j\right) = \prod_{j \in J} P(E_j) \text{ for any } J \subset I = \{1, \dots, n\}. \quad (6.1)$$

We will use this definition to speak of independence of sub- σ -algebras and associated random variables.

Definition 6.1. *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 2$ and $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be a collection of classes of events. That is, each \mathcal{C}_i contains events associated with the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The collection $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is said to be independent if for any $E_i \in \mathcal{C}_i$ we have that $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is an independent collection of events.*

This definition motivates the following:

Definition 6.2. *(Independence of σ -algebras). Let $I = \{1, \dots, n\}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 2$ and (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space. Then,*

(a) *Sub- σ -algebras \mathcal{F}_i of \mathcal{F} with $i \in I$ are independent if for every $J \subset I$ and all $E_i \in \mathcal{F}_i$*

$$P\left(\bigcap_{j \in J} E_j\right) = \prod_{j \in J} P(E_j),$$

(b) *Random variables $X_i : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ for $i \in I$ are independent if the sub σ -algebras $X_i^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ are independent.*

Remark 6.1. *Recall that by definition $X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in B\}$. Hence, when we write $P(X \in B)$ we mean $P(X^{-1}(B))$, for $B \in \mathcal{B}$.*

The following theorem provides a criterion for establishing the independence of σ -algebras.

Theorem 6.2. *Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space. For each $i \in I = \{1, \dots, n\}$ let \mathcal{C}_i be a non-empty collection of events satisfying*

1. \mathcal{C}_i is a π -system,
2. $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i \in I}$ is an independent collection.

Then, $\{\sigma(\mathcal{C}_i)\}_{i \in I}$ is an independent collection.

Proof. First, let $n = 2$. In this case we need to consider \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 . Choose an arbitrary $A_2 \in \mathcal{C}_2$ and let $L = \{A \in \mathcal{F} : P(A \cap A_2) = P(A)P(A_2)\}$. L is the collection of P -measurable sets (events) that are independent of A_2 . Now, note that:

1. $P(\Omega \cap A_2) = P(A_2) = P(\Omega)P(A_2)$ since $P(\Omega) = 1$. Thus, $\Omega \in L$.
2. Suppose $A \in L$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} P(A^c \cap A_2) &= P((\Omega - A) \cap A_2) = P(A_2 - (A \cap A_2)) = P(A_2) - P(A \cap A_2) \\ &= P(A_2) - P(A)P(A_2) \text{ since } A \in L \\ &= P(A_2)(1 - P(A)) = P(A_2)P(A^c). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, if $A \in L$ we have that $A^c \in L$.

3. If $\{A_n\}_{n=1, \dots} \in L$ is a pairwise disjoint collection

$$\begin{aligned} P(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cap A_2) &= P(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} (A_n \cap A_2)) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n \cap A_2) \text{ since the sets in the union are disjoint} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)P(A_2) = P(A_2)P(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) \text{ since the sets } A_n \text{ are in } L. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, if $\{A_n\}_{n=1, \dots} \in L$ is a pairwise disjoint collection, we have that $\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in L$.

Since 1-3 are the defining properties of a Dynkin system, we conclude that L is a Dynkin system. Note also that, by assumption, \mathcal{C}_1 is independent of \mathcal{C}_2 , every $A_1 \in \mathcal{C}_1$ is in L . Thus, $\mathcal{C}_1 \subset L$. By Theorem [2.3](#), since \mathcal{C}_1 is a π -system $L \supseteq \delta(\mathcal{C}_1) = \sigma(\mathcal{C}_1)$.¹ Thus, all the events in $\sigma(\mathcal{C}_1)$ are in L and we can conclude that $\sigma(\mathcal{C}_1)$ is independent of \mathcal{C}_2 . We can also conclude, by the symmetry of the argument, that $\sigma(\mathcal{C}_2)$ is independent of \mathcal{C}_1 .

Now, repeat the argument above by choosing an arbitrary $A_2 \in \sigma(\mathcal{C}_2)$. Then, L is a Dynkin system, and by the fact that $\sigma(\mathcal{C}_2)$ is independent of \mathcal{C}_1 we have that $\mathcal{C}_1 \subset L$ and, as above, $\sigma(\mathcal{C}_1) \subset L$. Consequently, $\sigma(\mathcal{C}_1)$ is independent of $\sigma(\mathcal{C}_2)$. Finally, use induction to establish that this is true for all n finite. ■

Definition 6.3. *Let \mathcal{I} be an arbitrary index set (not necessarily finite or even countable). The collection $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ is independent if for each finite $I \subset \mathcal{I}$, the collection $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i \in I}$ is independent.*

The following is a corollary to Theorem [6.2](#).

Corollary 6.1. *Let $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ be a collection of non-empty independent π -systems. Then, $\{\sigma(\mathcal{C}_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ is an independent collection.*

Definition [6.2](#) can be naturally expanded in accordance to Definition [6.3](#) to accommodate an arbitrarily indexed collection of random variables. We now provide some characterizations for independence of random variables.

Definition 6.4. *Let $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ be a collection of random variables defined on the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The finite dimensional distribution functions (fddf) are the collection*

$$F_I(x_i, i \in I) = P(\{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x_i, i \in I\}) \text{ for all } x_i \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (6.2)$$

for all finite subsets $I \subset \mathcal{I}$.

¹ $\delta(\mathcal{C}_1)$ is the smallest Dynkin system generated by \mathcal{C}_1 .

Theorem 6.3. *The collection $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ of random variables defined on the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is independent if, and only if, for all finite subsets $I \subset \mathcal{I}$ we have*

$$F_I(x_i, i \in I) = \prod_{i \in I} P(\{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x_i\}) \text{ for all } x_i \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (6.3)$$

Proof. From definition [6.3](#) it suffices to show that for an arbitrary finite $I \subset \mathcal{I}$ the collection $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$ is independent if, and only if, equation [\(6.3\)](#) holds.

(\Leftarrow) Let $\mathcal{C}_i = \{\{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x\}, x \in \mathbb{R}\} := \{X_i^{-1}((-\infty, x]), x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and note that these are subsets of Ω . Furthermore,

1. \mathcal{C}_i is a π -system since

$$\{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x\} \cap \{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq y\} = \{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq \min\{x, y\}\}.$$

2. Recall that $\sigma(\{(-\infty, x], x \in \mathbb{R}\}) = \mathcal{B}$. By Theorem [3.1](#) X_i is a random variable ($X_i^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathcal{F}$) if, and only if,

$$\{X_i^{-1}((-\infty, x]), x \in \mathbb{R}\} = \mathcal{C}_i \subset \mathcal{F}.$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(\mathcal{C}_i) &= \sigma(\{X_i^{-1}((-\infty, x]), x \in \mathbb{R}\}) \\ &= X_i^{-1}(\sigma(\{(-\infty, x], x \in \mathbb{R}\})) \text{ by Theorem [6.1](#)} \\ &= X_i^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) = \sigma(X_i). \end{aligned}$$

Now, equation [\(6.3\)](#) implies that $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i \in I}$ is independent collection and, therefore, by Theorem [6.2](#), the collection $\{\sigma(\mathcal{C}_i) = \sigma(X_i)\}_{i \in I}$ is independent. Consequently, by definition, $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$ are forms an independent collection of random variables.

(\Rightarrow) This follows directly from the definition of independence. \blacksquare

Remark 6.2. 1. It follows directly from Theorem [6.3](#) that a finite collection of random variables $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^m$ is independent if, and only if,

$$P(\cap_{i \in J} \{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x_i\}) = \prod_{i \in J} P(\{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x_i\}), \text{ for all } J \subset \{1, \dots, m\}.$$

2. If X_i has a density $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^m$ are independent if, and only if,

$$P(\cap_{i \in J} \{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq x_i\}) = \prod_{i \in J} \int_{(-\infty, x_i]} f_{X_i} d\lambda.$$

6.1 Random elements

The most common cases where we deal with random elements occur when the co-domain of the element is endowed with a metric, so that the co-domain is a metric space.

Definition 6.5. Let $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (T, \mathcal{T} = \sigma(\mathcal{O}))$, where \mathcal{O} are the open sets in T . Then, X is a random element if

$$X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F} \text{ for all } B \in \mathcal{T}.$$

In this definition, \mathcal{T} is the collection of Borel sets of T and we write $\mathcal{B}(T)$. The following examples include definitions.

Example 6.1. Let $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^k, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^k))$ where $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then X is a random vector if $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$ for all $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^k)$. Now, define $d_E : \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ as $d_E(x, y) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^k (x_i - y_i)^2\right)^{1/2}$. It can be easily verified that d_E is a metric on \mathbb{R}^k .

Example 6.2. Let $m : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $m(x_1, x_2) = \frac{|x_1 - x_2|}{1 + |x_1 - x_2|}$. Clearly, from the definition of m , $m \geq 0$, $m = 0$ if, and only if, $x_1 = x_2$ and $m(x_1, x_2) = m(x_2, x_1)$. To verify that $m(x_1, x_2) \leq m(x_1, z) + m(z, x_2)$ we note that $|x_1 - x_2| = \frac{m(x_1, x_2)}{1 - m(x_1, x_2)}$. Since $|x_1 - x_2| = |x_1 - z + z - x_2| \leq |x_1 - z| + |z - x_2|$, we have

$$\frac{m(x_1, x_2)}{1 - m(x_1, x_2)} \leq \frac{m(x_1, z)}{1 - m(x_1, z)} + \frac{m(z, x_2)}{1 - m(z, x_2)}.$$

Let $c = m(x_1, x_2)$, $a = m(x_1, z)$ and $b = m(z, x_2)$. Then, $\frac{c}{1-c} \leq \frac{a}{1-a} + \frac{b}{1-b} = \frac{a+b-2ab}{(1-a)(1-b)}$ and

$$a + b \geq \frac{c}{1-c}(1-a)(1-b) + 2ab = -\frac{c}{1-c}(a+b) + \frac{c}{1-c} + \frac{1}{1-c}(2ab - abc).$$

Then,

$$\frac{a+b}{1-c} \geq \frac{c}{1-c} + \frac{1}{1-c}(2ab - abc) \iff a+b \geq c + ab(2-c).$$

Since $0 \leq m \leq 1$, $ab(2-c) \geq 0$ and $c \leq a+b$. Hence, $m(x_1, x_2) \leq m(x_1, z) + m(z, x_2)$. This shows that m is a metric on \mathbb{R} .

Now, consider a space of sequences $\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for all i and define $m_\infty : \mathbb{R}^\infty \times \mathbb{R}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as $m_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2^j} m(x_j, y_j) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$. Since $0 \leq S_1 \leq S_2 \leq \dots$ is a monotonic sequence, it converges if, and only if, it is bounded. Boundedness follows from the fact that $|S_n| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2^j} m(x_j, y_j) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2^j} \leq \sum_{j=1}^\infty \frac{1}{2^j} = 1$. Hence, the limit in the definition of m_∞ exists and $0 \leq m_\infty \leq 1$. If $m_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) = 0$ then it must be that $m(x_j, y_j) = 0$ for all j , which implies $x_j = y_j$ for all j . Clearly, if $x_j = y_j$ for all j we have $m_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) = 0$.

Since $m(x_j, y_j) \leq m(x_j, z_j) + m(z_j, y_j)$ we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^n 2^{-j} m(x_j, y_j) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n 2^{-j} m(x_j, z_j) + \sum_{j=1}^n 2^{-j} m(z_j, y_j).$$

Taking limits on both sides as $n \rightarrow \infty$ gives $m_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) \leq m_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{z_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) + m_\infty(\{z_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}})$. Hence, m_∞ is a metric in the space of infinite sequences.

Alternatively, we can define $\mu_\infty : \mathbb{R}^\infty \times \mathbb{R}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2^j} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^j |x_i - y_i|}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^j |x_i - y_i|} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2^j} u_j(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^j, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^j) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n. \end{aligned}$$

As in the case of m_∞ , $0 \leq S_1 \leq S_2 \leq \dots$ and $|S_n| \leq 1$. Hence, $0 \leq \mu_\infty \leq 1$ and $\mu_\infty = 0$ if, and only if, $x_i = y_i$ for all i . Now, write $S_1(x_1, y_1) = \frac{1}{2} m(x_1, y_1)$ and since

$m(x_1, y_1) \leq m(x_1, z_1) + m(z_1, y_1)$ we have that $S_1(x_1, y_1) \leq S_1(x_1, z_1) + S_1(z_1, y_1)$. Now, suppose

$$S_n(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n) \leq S_n(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{z_i\}_{i=1}^n) + S_n(\{z_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n).$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} S_{n+1}(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) &= \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{2^j} u_j(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^j, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^j) = S_n(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} u_{n+1}(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) \\ &\leq S_n(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{z_i\}_{i=1}^n) + S_n(\{z_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} u_{n+1}(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) \end{aligned}$$

Following the same arguments used for m , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} u_{n+1}(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) &\leq \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} u_{n+1}(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{z_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} u_{n+1}(\{z_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |x_i - z_i|}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |x_i - z_i|} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |z_i - y_i|}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |z_i - y_i|}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} S_{n+1}(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) &\leq S_n(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{z_i\}_{i=1}^n) + S_n(\{z_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |x_i - z_i|}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |x_i - z_i|} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |z_i - y_i|}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} |z_i - y_i|} \\ &= S_{n+1}(\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{z_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}) + S_{n+1}(\{z_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}, \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{n+1}). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by induction, and taking limits we have $\mu_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) \leq \mu_\infty(\{x_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{z_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) + \mu_\infty(\{z_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}, \{y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}})$.

Example 6.3. Let $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^\infty, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^\infty))$ where $\mathbb{R}^\infty = \times_{n=1}^\infty \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^\infty) = \sigma(\mathcal{C})$ with $\mathcal{C} = \{C : C = \theta_i^{-1}(B), B \in \mathcal{B}^i, \theta_i(x) = (X_1, \dots, X_i) : \mathbb{R}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^i, i \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then X is a random sequence if $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$ for all $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$ and $d : \mathbb{R}^\infty \times \mathbb{R}^\infty \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is $d(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty \frac{1}{2^i} \left(\frac{\sum_{j=1}^i |x_j - y_j|}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^i |x_j - y_j|} \right)^{1/2}$ is the metric on \mathbb{R}^∞ .

Remark 6.3. 1. Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^k$ be a random vector and $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be measurable. Then, $h : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ with $h(\omega) = f(X(\omega)) = (f \circ X)(\omega)$ is a random variable since compositions of measurable functions are measurable by Theorem 3.3. In particular the result follows if f is continuous. That is, real valued continuous functions of random vectors are random variables.

2. In 1, if $f(X) = \pi_i(X) = X_i$ and X is random vector then X_i is a random variable for $i = 1, \dots, k$.

Theorem 6.4. $X \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is a random vector $\iff X_i$ is a random variable, where X_i is the i th component of X .

Proof. (\Leftarrow) Suppose X_i is a random variable for $i = 1, \dots, k$. Let $R_k = I_1 \times \dots \times I_k$, where $I_i = [a_i, b_i)$ are intervals in \mathbb{R} . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} X^{-1}(R_k) &= \{\omega : X_i(\omega) \in [a_i, b_i) \forall i\} \\ &= \{\omega : X_i^{-1}([a_i, b_i)) \forall i\} = \bigcap_{i=1}^k X_i^{-1}(I_i). \end{aligned}$$

Since X_i is a random variable, $X_i^{-1}(I_i) \in \mathcal{F}$. Furthermore, since \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra, it is closed under intersections, and $X^{-1}(R_k) \in \mathcal{F}$. The other direction of the equivalence follows from the previous remark. ■

Remark 6.4. 1. Theorem 6.4 extends to $X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots\}$. That is, X is a random sequence if, and only if, each X_i is a random variable. Furthermore, X is a random sequence if, and only if, $(X_1 \cdots X_k)$ is random vector for any k .

2. $X^{-1}((-\infty, a_1] \times \dots \times (-\infty, a_k]) \in \mathcal{F}$ and we write $P(X^{-1}((-\infty, a_1] \times \dots \times (-\infty, a_k])) = P \circ X^{-1}(\times_{i=1}^k (-\infty, a_i]) = P_X(\times_{i=1}^k (-\infty, a_i])$.

Also, if there exists a non-negative Borel measurable function $f_X : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies

$$P_X(\times_{i=1}^k (-\infty, a_i]) = \int_{C(a)} f_X d\lambda^k,$$

where $C(a) = \times_{i=1}^k (-\infty, a_i]$ and $a = (a_1 \cdots a_k)^T$, we call f_X the “joint density” of X . Naturally, the joint distribution function associated with X is

$$F_X(a) : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow [0, 1],$$

where $F_X(a) = P(C(a))$ for $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$. We can write $C(a) = \cap_{i=1}^k \{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq a_i\}$. That $\{\omega : X_i(\omega) \leq a_i\}$ is an element of \mathcal{F} follows from Theorem [6.4](#).

Theorem 6.5. Consider two random variables $X_1, X_2 : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$. X_1 and X_2 are independent if, and only if, one of the following holds:

- a) $P(\{X_1 \in A_1\} \cap \{X_2 \in A_2\}) := P(X \in A_1, X \in A_2) = P(X_1 \in A_1)P(X_2 \in A_2)$, for all $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{B}$,
- b) $P(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A_2) = P(X_1 \in A_1)P(X_2 \in A_2)$, for all $A_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2$, where $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$ are π systems which generate \mathcal{B} ,
- c) $f(X_1)$ and $g(X_2)$ are independent for each pair (f, g) of measurable functions,
- d) $E(f(X_1), g(X_2)) = E(f(X_1))E(g(X_2))$ for each pair of (f, g) of bounded measurable (or non-negative measurable) functions.

Proof. First, note that X_1 and X_2 independent means that $\sigma(X_1) = X_1^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ and $\sigma(X_2) = X_2^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ are independent. That is, for all $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{B}$,

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_1^{-1}(A_1) \cap X_2^{-1}(A_2)) &= P(X_1^{-1}(A_1))P(X_2^{-1}(A_2)) \\ \iff P(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A_2) &= P(X_1 \in A_1)P(X_2 \in A_2). \end{aligned}$$

[a) \implies b)] Since \mathcal{A}_1 generates \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{A}_2 generates \mathcal{B} , $A_1 \subset \mathcal{B}$ and $A_2 \subset \mathcal{B}$, and if a) is true for all $A_1 \in \mathcal{B}, A_2 \in \mathcal{B}$, then b) is true.

[b) \implies a)] Let $C_1 = \{A \in \mathcal{B} : P(X_1 \in A, X_2 \in A_2) = P(X_1 \in A)P(X_2 \in A_2) \text{ for a given } A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2\}$. From the proof of Theorem [6.2](#), C_1 is a Dynkin system. $\mathcal{A}_1 \subset C_1$ and

$\delta(\mathcal{A}_1) = \sigma(\mathcal{A}_1) = \mathcal{B} \subset C_1$. Analogously, $C_2 = \{A \in \mathcal{B}_2 : P(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A) = P(X_1 \in A_1)P(X_2 \in A) \text{ for a given } A_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1\}$ is such that $\delta(\mathcal{A}_2) = \sigma(\mathcal{A}_2) = \mathcal{B} \subset C_2$. Consequently, $b) \implies a)$.

[c) \implies a)] The identity function is measurable, therefore take $f(x) = g(x) = x$

[a) \implies c)] For concreteness, let $f : (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}) \rightarrow (M_f, \mathcal{M}_f)$ and $g : (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}) \rightarrow (M_g, \mathcal{M}_g)$. f measurable implies that for all $M \in \mathcal{M}_f$, $f^{-1}(M) \in \mathcal{B}$. But X_1 a random variable implies that $X_1^{-1}(f^{-1}(M)) \in \mathcal{F}$ which we can write as $(X_1^{-1} \circ f^{-1})(M) \in \mathcal{F}$. In addition, $X_1^{-1}(f^{-1}(M)) := (X_1^{-1} \circ f^{-1})(M) \in X_1^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$. Analogously, $X_2^{-1}(g^{-1}(M')) = X_2^{-1} \circ g^{-1}(M') \in X_2^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$, for all $M' \in \mathcal{M}_g$. But by a) $X_1^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ and $X_2^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ are independent. Therefore $f(X_1)$ and $g(X_2)$ are independent.

[d) \implies a)] Let $f = I_{A_1}$ and $g = I_{A_2}$. Then,

$$f(X_1) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_1 \in A_1 \\ 0 & \text{if } X_1 \notin A_1 \end{cases} \text{ and } g(X_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_2 \in A_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } X_2 \notin A_2. \end{cases}$$

with $E(f(X_1)) = P(X_1 \in A_1)$ and $E(g(X_2)) = P(X_2 \in A_2)$. By d)

$$E(f(X_1)g(X_2)) = P(\{X_1 \in A_1\} \cap \{X_2 \in A_2\}) = P(X_1 \in A_1)P(X_2 \in A_2).$$

Hence, $d) \implies a)$.

[a) \implies d)] From the implication [d) \implies a)] we see that if f, g are indicator functions in d) $E(f(X_1)g(X_2)) = P(\{X_1 \in A_1\} \cap \{X_2 \in A_2\})$, which by independence a) is $P(X_1 \in A_1)P(X_2 \in A_2) = E(f(X_1))E(g(X_2))$.

Now, suppose f and g are simple functions of X_1 and X_2 . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f(X_1) &= \sum_{i=0}^{k_f} a_i^f I_{\{X_1 \in A_i^f\}} \text{ and } E(f(X_1)) = \sum_{i=0}^{k_f} a_i^f P(X_1 \in A_i^f), \\ g(X_2) &= \sum_{i=0}^{k_g} a_i^g I_{\{X_2 \in A_i^g\}} \text{ and } E(g(X_2)) = \sum_{i=0}^{k_g} a_i^g P(X_2 \in A_i^g) \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned}
E(f(X_1)g(X_2)) &= E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k_f} \sum_{j=0}^{k_g} a_i^f a_j^g I_{\{X_1 \in A_i^f\} \cap \{X_2 \in A_j^g\}}\right) \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{k_f} \sum_{j=0}^{k_g} a_i^f a_j^g P(X_1 \in A_i^f) P(X_2 \in A_j^g) \text{ by independence} \\
&= E(f(X_1))E(g(X_2))
\end{aligned} \tag{6.4}$$

Now, let f be a measurable non-negative function such that $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are simple functions increasing to f and g is non-negative and simple. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
E(f(X_1)g(X_2)) &= E\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(X_1)g(X_2)\right) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(f_n(X_1)g(X_2)) \text{ by Lebesgue's Monotone Convergence Theorem} \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(f_n(X_1))E(g(X_2)) \text{ by equation } \boxed{6.4} \\
&= E(f(X_1))E(g(X_2)) \text{ by Lebesgue's Monotone Convergence Theorem}
\end{aligned} \tag{6.5}$$

Now, let f be non-negative and let $\{g_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be non-negative simple functions increasing to g measurable and non-negative. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
E(f(X_1)g(X_2)) &= E\left(f(X_1) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(X_2)\right) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(f(X_1)g_n(X_2)) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(f(X_1))E(g_n(X_2)) \text{ by equation } \boxed{6.5} \\
&= E(f(X_1))E(g(X_2))
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, let $f = f^+ - f^-$ be bounded and measurable and g bounded and non-negative.

$$\begin{aligned}
E(f(X_1)g(X_2)) &= E([f^+(X_1) - f^-(X_1)]g(X_2)) \\
&= E(f^+(X_1)g(X_2)) - E(f^-(X_1)g(X_2)) \\
&= E(f^+(X_1))E(g(X_2)) - E(f^-(X_1))E(g(X_2)) \\
&= E(f(X_1))E(g(X_2)).
\end{aligned}$$

To complete the proof, repeat the last argument for $g = g^+ - g^-$. ■