## Stats 310A Session 5

November 22, 2019

## 1 Kolmogorov's extension theorem

We state and prove the Kolmogorov's extension theorem when the index set is  $T = \{1, 2, 3, ...\} = \mathbb{N}$ .

<span id="page-0-0"></span>**Theorem 1** (Theorem 1.4.22, Dembo's Notes). Suppose we are give probability measures  $\mu_n$  on  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n})$  *that are consistent, that is,* 

<span id="page-0-2"></span>
$$
\mu_{n+1}(B_1 \times \cdots \times B_n \times \mathbb{R}) = \mu_n(B_1 \times \cdots \times B_n) \quad \forall B_i \in \mathcal{B}, \ i = 1, \dots, n < \infty. \tag{1}
$$

*Then, there exists a unique probability measure*  $\mathbb P$  *on*  $(\mathbb R^{\mathbb N}, \mathcal B_c)$  *such that* 

$$
\mathbb{P}(\{\omega:\omega_i\in B_i,i=1,\ldots,n\})=\mu_n(B_1\times\cdots\times B_n)\quad\forall B_i\in\mathcal{B},\ i=1,\ldots,n<\infty.
$$

**Remark** Kolmogorov's extension theorem builds the foundation on which stochastic processes are defined: namely, for any index set  $T$ , to define the distribution of a stochastic process  $X_T$ , it suffices to give a consistent collection of joint distributions of  $(X_{t_1},...,X_{t_n})$  on finitely many coordinates. The measure of  $X_T$  on  $(\mathbb{R}^T, \mathcal{B}_c)$ , then, by the extension theorem, is guaranteed to exist and is unique.

The theorem is trivial when  $T = \{1, \ldots, n\}$  is finite: just take  $\mathbb{P} = \mu_n$ .  $T = \mathbb{N}$  is the first non-trivial case of the theorem. This case can give us, for example, the probability measure of countably many i.i.d. R.V.-s  $(X_1, X_2, \ldots)$ .

**Proof of Theorem [1](#page-0-0)** The proof mainly follows that of [\[1,](#page-1-0) Chapter 36]. Let  $\mathbb{R}_0^{\mathbb{N}}$  be the collection of cylindral sets of the form

<span id="page-0-1"></span>
$$
A = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in H \right\},\tag{2}
$$

where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $H \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ . That is, we consider sets that require the first *n* coordinates lie in some Borel set  $H \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . By definition of the cylindral  $\sigma$ -algebra, we have  $\mathcal{B}_c = \sigma(\mathbb{R}_0^N)$ . On this collection, define the set function

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) = \mu_n(H).
$$

We are going to use Caratheodory's extension theorem to extend  $\mathbb P$  to  $\mathcal{B}_c$ , which we divide into the following steps.

 $\mathbb P$  is well-defined To show this, we need to verify that if a cylindral set A has two representations of the form [\(2\)](#page-0-1) then they give coinciding values of  $\mathbb{P}(A)$ . Consider

$$
A = \{x : (x_1, \ldots, x_{n_1}) \in H_1\} = \{x : (x_1, \ldots, x_{n_2}) \in H_2\}
$$

for some  $n_1 \geq n_2$ , then it is easy to see that  $H_1 = H_2 \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1-n_2}$ . (Check this!) It remains to show that

<span id="page-1-1"></span>
$$
\mu_{n_1}(H_1) = \mu_{n_1}(H_2 \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1 - n_2}) = \mu_{n_2}(H_2). \tag{3}
$$

Repeating the consistency condition ([1](#page-0-2)) gives that  $\mu_{n_1}(B_1 \times \cdots \times B_{n_2} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1-n_2}) = \mu_{n_2}(B_1 \times \cdots \times B_{n_2}),$ and a standard extension argument shows that  $\mu_{n_1}(\cdot \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1-n_2}) = \mu_{n_2}(\cdot)$ , verifying ([3](#page-1-1)).

 $\mathbb{R}_0^{\mathbb{N}}$  is an algebra;  $\mathbb{P}$  finitely additive on  $\mathbb{R}_0^{\mathbb{N}}$  Clearly  $\emptyset \in \mathbb{R}_0^{\mathbb{N}}$ . For any cylindral set  $A$ , we have  $A^{c} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in H^c\}$ , so  $A^{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}_0$ . Let *A*, *B* be two cylindral sets:

 $A = \{x : (x_1, \ldots, x_{n_1}) \in H_1\}, \quad B = \{x : (x_1, \ldots, x_{n_2}) \in H_2\}.$ 

Without loss of generality, let  $n_1 \geq n_2$ . We then have

$$
A \cup B = \{x : (x_1, \dots, x_{n_1}) \in H_1 \cup (H_2 \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1 - n_2})\} \in \mathbb{R}_0^{\mathbb{N}}.
$$
 (4)

This shows that  $\mathbb{R}_0^{\mathbb{N}}$  is an algebra. If *A* and *B* are disjoint, then  $H_2 \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1-n_2} \cap H_1 = \emptyset$ , giving that

$$
\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mu_{n_1}(H_1 \cup (H_2 \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1 - n_2})) = \mu_{n_1}(H_1) + \mu_1(H_2 \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1 - n_2}) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B),
$$

so  $P$  is finitely additive.

**P** is a probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}_0^N$  Clearly  $\mathbb{P} \ge 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$ . Let A be a cylindral set, then  $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = \mu_n(H^c) = 1 - \mu_n(H) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A).$ 

It remains to show countable additivity. As it is finitely additive, it suffices to show that  $A_k \in \mathbb{R}_0^{\mathbb{N}}$ with  $A_k \downarrow \emptyset$  implies  $\mathbb{P}(A_k) \to 0$ . (See the Remark in Dembo notes, page 14). As we can always make the defining index non-decreasing, we can let

$$
A_k = \{x : (x_1, \ldots, x_{n_k}) \in H_k\}
$$

where  $n_k \in \mathbb{N}$  is increasing and  $H_k \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_k}$ .

Suppose  $\mathbb{P}(A_k) \nrightarrow 0$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(A_k) \geq \varepsilon$  holds for all *k*, for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ . This means  $\mu_{n_k}(H_k) \geq \varepsilon$ . Applying [\[1,](#page-1-0) Theorem 12.3], there exists compact sets  $K_k \subseteq H_k$  such that  $\mu_{n_k}(H_k \setminus K_k) \leq \varepsilon/2^{k+1}$ . Define

$$
B_k = \{x : (x_1, \ldots, x_{n_k}) \in K_k\},\
$$

then  $\mathbb{P}(A_k \setminus B_k) \leq \varepsilon/2^{k+1}$ . Define  $C_k = \bigcap_{j=1}^k B_j$ , then we have  $C_k \subset B_k \subset A_k$  and  $\mathbb{P}(A_k \setminus C_k) \leq \varepsilon/2$ , so  $\mathbb{P}(C_k) \geq \varepsilon/2$ , and thus  $C_k$  is non-empty.

Now, for all *k*, choose a point  $x^{(k)} \in C_k$ . As  $C_k$  is the intersection of  ${B_j}_{j \leq k}$ , we have  $(x_1^{(k)},\ldots,x_{n_j}^{(k)})\in K_j$  for all  $j\leq k$ . In other words, the first  $n_j$  indices of  $\{x^{(k)}\}_{k\geq j}$  lie in the compact set  $K_j$ . Hence, there exists a subsequence  $k_i$  such that  $(x_1^{(k_i)}, \ldots, x_{n_j}^{(k_i)})$  converges. By the diagonal method, we can find a subsequence  $k_i$  such that  $(x_1^{(k_i)}, \ldots, x_{n_j}^{(k_i)})$  converges for all *j*. Let *x* be the point in  $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $(x_1, \ldots, x_{n_j})$  is the limit of the above sequence (as the limits are consistent, *x* exists). The closedness of  $K_j$  implies that  $(x_1, \ldots, x_{n_j}) \in K_j$ , so  $x \in A_j$ . Thus we have found a point  $x \in \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$ , contradictory to that  $A_j \emptyset$ . Hence our assumption is wrong so we must have  $\mathbb{P}(A_i) \to 0$ .

## References

<span id="page-1-0"></span>[1] P. Billingsley. *Probability and measure*. John Wiley & Sons, 2008.