

Lecture 2

Monday, January 5, 2026 7:39 PM

→ In this lecture, we review some of the basic concepts in order to study Wiener process.

Consider a set Ω of all possible outcomes.

Definition 1.1.5. A σ -algebra $\mathcal{F}$ is a collection of subsets of Ω such that

1. If $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ for countable n , then $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathcal{F}$.

2. If $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$.

3. $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$.

↗ ⇒ Countable intersection ✓
↖ ⇒ $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$.

An element $A \in \mathcal{F}$ is called an $(\mathcal{F})$ -measurable set or an event.

Definition 1.1.7. Let $\{A_i\}$ be a (not necessarily countable) collection of subsets of Ω . Then $\mathcal{F} = \sigma\{A_i\}$ denotes the smallest σ -algebra that contains every set A_i , and is called the σ -algebra generated by $\{A_i\}$.

It is obvious that there exist at least one σ -algebra that contains every set A_i ; namely the power set.

To show uniqueness, note that if $\{\mathcal{F}_j\}$ is a collection of σ -algebras (not nec. countable) then $\bigcap_j \mathcal{F}_j$ is a σ -algebra.

— How to think of a σ -algebra $\mathcal{F}$?

the collection of information that is available to us!

Ex: $\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$, $\mathcal{F} = \sigma(\{1\}, \{6\})$.

then we can answer questions like:

— Did 1 happen? did 6 happen?

— Did any thing but 1 or 6 happen? $\rightarrow \{1, 6\}^c$

Definition 1.1.11. A probability measure is a map $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that

1. For countable $\{A_n\}$ s.t. $A_n \cap A_m = \emptyset$ for $n \neq m$, $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_n A_n) = \sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n)$.

2. $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$, $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$.

"Countable additivity of disjoint events"

Def: A probability space is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

Example: consider Borel σ -algebra of $\mathbb{R}$; i.e., the

σ -algebra generated by open sets of $\mathbb{R}$,
denoted by $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

Theorem 1.1.15. Let $\mathbb{P}$ be a probability measure on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$. Then the function $F(x) = \mathbb{P}((-\infty, x])$ is nondecreasing, right-continuous, and $F(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$, $F(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Conversely, for any function $F(x)$ with these properties, there exists a unique probability measure $\mathbb{P}$ on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ such that $F(x) = \mathbb{P}((-\infty, x])$.

- F is the CDF for $\mathbb{P}$ on $\mathbb{R}$.
- if $\mathcal{F}$ is the power set of $\mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \nexists$ any probability meas. on $\mathcal{F}$.

Lemma: (We can take limits of monotone sequences!)

Consider $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

- $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\bigcup_n A_n)$
- $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \dots \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\bigcap_n A_n)$

proof: By using Countable Additivity of disjoint events:

define disjoint events $B_1 = A_1, B_k = A_k \setminus A_{k-1}, \dots$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(B_k) = \mathbb{P}(A_k) - \mathbb{P}(A_{k-1}) \Rightarrow$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_n A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\bigcup_n B_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} [\mathbb{P}(A_k) - \mathbb{P}(A_{k-1})]$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) . \quad \square$$

Infinitely often event: $\{A_n\}_1^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{F}$

$$w \in A_n \Leftrightarrow w \in \bigcup_{k \geq n} A_k, \forall n \Leftrightarrow w \in \bigcap_{n \geq 1} \bigcup_{k \geq n} A_k \triangleq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$$

Lemma (Borell-Cantelli):

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) < \infty \Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(\limsup A_n) = 0 .$$

measurable functions $\leftrightarrow$ Random variables :

Definition 1.3.1. An $(\mathcal{F})$ -measurable function is a map $f : \Omega \rightarrow S$ from $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ to $(S, \mathcal{S})$ such that $f^{-1}(A) \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) \in A\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $A \in \mathcal{S}$. If $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a probability space and $(S, \mathcal{S})$ is a measurable space, then a measurable function $f : \Omega \rightarrow S$ is called an S -valued random variable. A real-valued random variable ($S = \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{S} = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$) is often just called a random variable.

Notation: Consider R.V. $X : \Omega \rightarrow S$, $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, $A \in \mathcal{S}$.

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

$$\Rightarrow P(X \in A) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega; X(\omega) \in A\})$$

• σ -algebra generated by a function:

Consider a set Ω , a meas. space $(S, \mathcal{S})$, and

$h: \Omega \rightarrow S$. Then, the σ -algebra generated by h is

$\sigma(h) = \sigma\{h^{-1}(A): A \in \mathcal{S}\}$ and h will be measurable w.r.t. $(\Omega, \sigma(h))$.

• What is the meaning of $\sigma(X)$ for a R.V. $X: (\Omega, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (S, \mathcal{S})$?

you should view it as the set of information that allows us to answer those yes-no question by measuring the X !

example: -Toss a fair coin twice:

$$\rightarrow \Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}, \mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega.$$

- suppose we only observe the outcome of the first coin: $\rightarrow X: \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ defined as

$$X(HH) = X(HT) = 1, \quad X(TH) = X(TT) = 0.$$

- what is $\sigma(X)$?

$$\sigma(X) = \left\{ \emptyset, \underbrace{\{HH, HT\}}, \{TH, TT\}, \Omega \right\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

this event says the first coin came up heads!

$$\text{For } X: (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$$

$$E[X] = \int X dP = \int X(\omega) P(d\omega)$$

$\nearrow$ Riemann integral (if all functions are cont.)
 $\searrow$ Lebesgue integral (if functions are only measurable)

$\rightarrow E[X]$: Review Lebesgue integral defined as the limit of integrals constructed by so called seq of "simple functions" $\{X_n\}$ increasing monotonically to $X: X_n \uparrow X$.

Converging

→ Ex: Review basic properties of $E(x)$ like:

- $|E(x)| \leq E(|x|)$
- if $|E(x)| < \infty \Rightarrow |x| < \infty$ a.s.
- if $x \geq 0$ a.s. and $E(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$ a.s.
- Chebyshev / Markov inequality:
$$P(|x| > \alpha) \leq \frac{E(|x|)}{\alpha}$$
- Jensen inequality: $g(\cdot)$ is real-valued convex func.
 $|E(x)| < \infty \Rightarrow E[g(x)] \geq g(E(x))$.

The L^p space: $L^p = L^p(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) = \{x: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: \|x\|_p < \infty\}$
where $\|x\|_p \triangleq [E(|x|^p)]^{1/p}$ for $p \geq 1$.

- $L^p \subset L^q$ if $p > q$.
- L^p is linear: $\alpha x + \beta y \in L^p$ if $x, y \in L^p, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Hölder ineq: $|\langle x, y \rangle| \triangleq |E[xy]| \leq \|x\|_p \cdot \|y\|_q$
where $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$ i.e.
if $x \in L^p, y \in L^q \Rightarrow xy$
- Minkowski ineq: $\|x+y\|_p \leq \|x\|_p + \|y\|_p$.

modes of convergence:

Definition 1.5.1. Let X be a random variable and $\{X_n\}$ be a sequence of random variables on the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

1. $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s. if $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega: X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega)\}) = 1$ (why is this event in $\mathcal{F}$?).
2. $X_n \rightarrow X$ in probability if $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for every $\varepsilon > 0$.
3. $X_n \rightarrow X$ in L^p if $\|X_n - X\|_p \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
4. $X_n \rightarrow X$ in law (or in distribution, or weakly) if $\mathbb{E}(f(X_n)) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(f(X))$ for every bounded continuous function f .

Proposition 1.5.2. Let X be a random variable and $\{X_n\}$ be a sequence of random variables on the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. The following implications hold:

1. $X_n \rightarrow X \text{ a.s.} \implies X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in probability.}$ $\nleftarrow$
 2. $X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in } \mathcal{L}^p \implies X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in probability.}$ $\nleftarrow$
 3. $X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in } \mathcal{L}^p \implies X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in } \mathcal{L}^q \ (q \leq p).$ $\nleftarrow$
 4. $X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in probability} \implies X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in law.}$ $\nleftarrow$
- } in general!

Proof:

- 1) $\limsup P(|X_n - x| > \varepsilon) \leq P(\limsup \{|X_n - x| > \varepsilon\})$
 $= P(|X_n - x| > \varepsilon, \text{ i.o.}) = 0.$
- 2) By Chebyshev's ineq. $P(|X_n - x| > \varepsilon) \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} E[|X_n - x|^2] \rightarrow 0.$
- 3) $x \mapsto x^{p/q}$ is convex, so by Jensen's inequality:
 $(E[|X_n - x|^q])^{1/q} \leq E[|X_n - x|^p]^{1/p} \rightarrow 0.$

$$4) |E[f(X_n) - f(x)]| \leq E|f(X_n) - f(x)|$$

$$\leq E\left[1_{\{|f(X_n) - f(x)| > \varepsilon\}} |f(X_n) - f(x)|\right]$$

$$+ E\left[1_{\{|f(X_n) - f(x)| \leq \varepsilon\}} |f(X_n) - f(x)|\right]$$

(by cont. of f , $\exists \delta > 0 \Rightarrow \leq 2 \|f\|_\infty \cdot P(|X_n - x| > \delta) + \varepsilon$, $\forall \varepsilon > 0.$
 $\hookrightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.)

so $\limsup |E f(X_n) - E f(x)| \leq \varepsilon$, $\forall \varepsilon \Rightarrow X_n \rightarrow X$ in law $\square$

Important Non-examples:

(E.1) Convergence in law $\nRightarrow$ Convergence in probability

$\Omega = \{a_1, a_2\}, \mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega, P(\{a_1\}) = P(\{a_2\}) = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow$ fair coin

$X: \Omega \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}: X(a_1) = -X(a_2) = 1.$

$X_n \triangleq (-1)^n X.$

Then $X_n \rightarrow X$ in law (distribution) but not in any other form! in particular, the sample paths $n \mapsto X_n(\omega)$ for a fixed ω is just fluctuating!

very weak convergence!

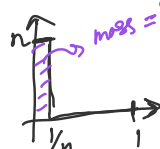
why?!

$$E[f(X_n)] = E[f((-1)^n X)] = \int f((-1)^n x) P(d\omega)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= f((-1)^n) \cdot \frac{1}{2} + f((-1)^n(-1)) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (f((-1)^n) + f((-1)^{n+1})) \\
 &\stackrel{\text{why}}{=} \frac{1}{2} (f(1) + f(-1))
 \end{aligned}$$

Consider $\Omega = [0, 1]$, $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}([0, 1])$, P is uniform meas. on $[0, 1]$.

(E.2) Convergence a.s. but not in L^p :

 $x_n(w) = n I_{(0, \frac{1}{n}]}(w)$, $w \in [0, 1]$.

$x_n \rightarrow 0$ a.s. but $\|x_n\|_1 = 1 \Rightarrow x_n \not\rightarrow 0$ in L^1
 $\Rightarrow x_n \not\rightarrow 0$ in any L^p , $p \geq 1$.

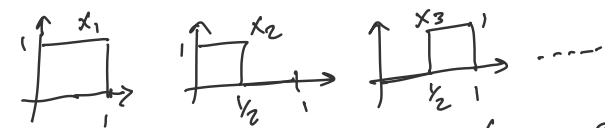
(E.3) ($q < p$) Convergence in L^q but not in L^p :

$x_n(w) = n^{1/p} I_{(0, \frac{1}{n}]}(w)$.

$x_n \rightarrow 0$ in L^q , $q < p$ but not for any $q \geq p$!

(E.4) Convergence in L^p but not a.s.: "Dancing sequence" or "Typewriter seq."

$\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{For each } n=1, 2, 3, \dots \\ \rightarrow \text{divide } [0, 1] \text{ to } 2^{n-1} \text{ equal intervals, } U_k^n, k=1, 2, \dots, 2^{n-1} \\ \rightarrow \text{sequentially from left to right, set} \\ x_{n+k}(w) = I_{U_k^n}(w) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } w \in U_k^n \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \end{array} \right.$



$x_n \rightarrow 0$ in L^p for any $p \geq 1$. $\left(E(|x_n|^p) = |U_k^n| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \right)$

But, fix any $w \in [0, 1]$, the sequence $x_n(w)$ always fluctuates between 0, 1 $\Rightarrow x_n(w) \not\rightarrow 0$ for any $w \in [0, 1]$.
 $\Rightarrow x_n(w) \not\rightarrow 0$ a.s.

From (E.4) we learned $x_n \rightarrow x$ in prob. $\not\Rightarrow x_n \rightarrow x$ a.s.

4.12 (15)

because possible irregularity like the "dancing seq."

Question: Is there an additional regularity assumption s.t. convergence in prob $\Rightarrow$ conv. a.s. ?

Lemma: if $X_n \rightarrow X$ in prob. $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0, \forall \epsilon > 0.$
and
 $\sum_n P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \infty, \forall \epsilon > 0.$
 $\Rightarrow X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s.

Proof: By Borell-Cantelli, $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon, i.o.) = 0, \forall \epsilon > 0.$

Thus, $P(\text{fix any } k, |X_n - X| > 1/k \text{ for finite \# of } n's) = 0.$

So, for any fixed k , $\exists N$ s.t. $\forall n \geq N, |X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| \leq 1/k$
for a.e. $\omega \in \Omega.$

Corollary: if $X_n \rightarrow X$ in prob., then there exist a subsequence $X_{n_k} \rightarrow X$ a.s.

Proof: $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$; choose the subsequence $n_k \uparrow \infty$
such that $P(|X_{n_k} - X| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{1}{2^k}$. Apply Lemma above. $\square$

In (E.2), we learned that (by $\bigwedge_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$)
 $X_n \rightarrow X$, a.s. $\not\Rightarrow X_n \rightarrow X$ in L^p .

this also automatically means

$X_n \rightarrow X$ in prob $\not\Rightarrow X_n \rightarrow X$ in L^p .

Question: Is there an additional regularity that allows this ?!

(Def) **Theorem 1.5.12 (Dominated convergence)**. Let $X_n \rightarrow X$ in probability, and suppose there exists a nonnegative $Y \in L^p$, with $p \geq 1$, such that $|X_n| \leq Y$ a.s. for all n . Then X and X_n are in L^p for all n , $X_n \rightarrow X$ in L^p , and $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$.

Proof: needs Monotone Convergence Theorem and Fatou's Lemma.
... page 36, in van Handel's note.

Theorem 1.5.10 (Monotone convergence). Let $\{X_n\}$ be a sequence of random variables such that $0 \leq X_1 \leq X_2 \leq \dots$ a.s. Then $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \nearrow \mathbb{E}(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n)$.

↳ pointwise!

Lemma 1.5.11 (Fatou's lemma). Let $\{X_n\}$ be a sequence of a.s. nonnegative random variables. Then $\mathbb{E}(\liminf X_n) \leq \liminf \mathbb{E}(X_n)$. In there exists a Y such that $X_n \leq Y$ a.s. for all n and $\mathbb{E}(Y) < \infty$, then $\mathbb{E}(\limsup X_n) \geq \limsup \mathbb{E}(X_n)$.

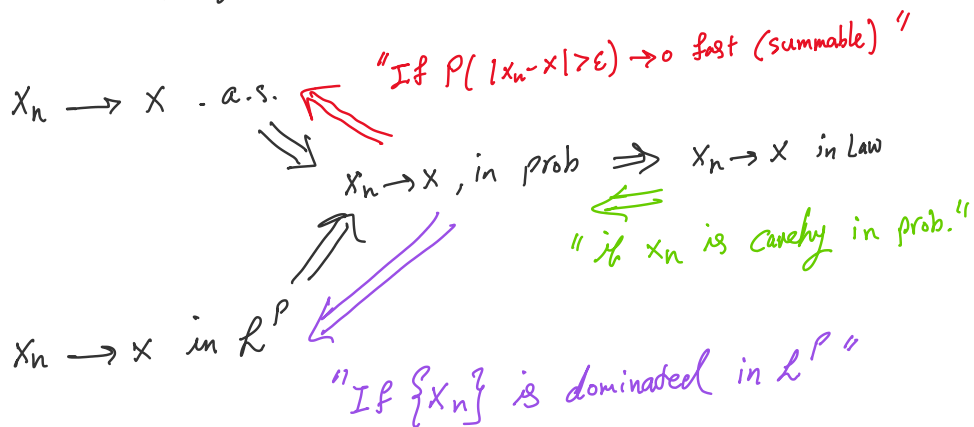
But, the usefulness of DCT is that often $\{X_n\}$ is a seq. of bounded r.v.; that, $X_n \rightarrow X$ in prob $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} X_n \rightarrow X \text{ in any } L^p \\ \text{and} \\ \mathbb{E}[X_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X] \end{cases}$

we like L^p convergence because, it is strong enough and also is a "complete space"; i.e.
if $\{X_n\}$ is Cauchy in L^p ($\|X_n - X_m\|_{L^p} \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow \infty$)
Then, $\exists X \in L^p$ s.t. $X_n \rightarrow X$, in L^p .

* the strong convergence enables us to argue about sample paths
 $t \mapsto X_t(\omega)$ for each fixed $\omega \in \Omega$.

Summary of convergence modes:

stronger $\leftarrow \dots \rightarrow$ weaker



Induced measures and laws?

Definition 1.6.1. If $h : \Omega \rightarrow S$ is measurable, then the map $\mu : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ defined by $\mu(A) = \mathbb{P}(h^{-1}(A))$ is a probability measure (why?), called the *induced measure*.

If h is a r.v. then μ_h on $\mathcal{S}$ is called the law of h .

Definition 1.6.2. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space.

1. A countable set of events $\{A_n\}_{n \in I} \subset \mathcal{F}$ are *independent* if

$$\mathbb{P}(A_{k_1} \cap A_{k_2} \cap \dots \cap A_{k_n}) = \mathbb{P}(A_{k_1}) \mathbb{P}(A_{k_2}) \dots \mathbb{P}(A_{k_n}),$$

for all finite ($n < \infty$) subsets $\{k_1, \dots, k_n\}$ of the index set I .

2. A countable set $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}_{n \in I}$ of σ -algebras $\mathcal{G}_n \subset \mathcal{F}$ are *independent* if any finite set of events $A_1, \dots, A_n$ from distinct $\mathcal{G}_k$ are independent.
3. A countable set $\{X_n\}_{n \in I}$ of random variables are *independent* if the σ -algebras generated by these random variables $\mathcal{X}_n = \sigma(X_n)$ are independent.

Definition 1.6.5. Given two measurable spaces $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{F}_1)$ and $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{F}_2)$, we define the *product space* $\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \equiv \{(\omega_1, \omega_2) : \omega_1 \in \Omega_1, \omega_2 \in \Omega_2\}$. The *product σ -algebra* on $\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$ is defined as $\mathcal{F}_1 \times \mathcal{F}_2 \equiv \sigma\{\rho_1, \rho_2\}$, where $\rho_i : \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \rightarrow \Omega_i$ are the projection maps $\rho_1 : (\omega_1, \omega_2) \mapsto \omega_1$ and $\rho_2 : (\omega_1, \omega_2) \mapsto \omega_2$.

Theorem 1.6.6. Let $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathbb{P}_1)$ and $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{F}_2, \mathbb{P}_2)$ be two probability spaces, and denote by $\rho_1 : \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \rightarrow \Omega_1$ and $\rho_2 : \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \rightarrow \Omega_2$ the projection maps.

1. There exists a unique probability measure $\mathbb{P}_1 \times \mathbb{P}_2$ on $\mathcal{F}_1 \times \mathcal{F}_2$, called the *product measure*, under which the law of ρ_1 is $\mathbb{P}_1$, the law of ρ_2 is $\mathbb{P}_2$, and ρ_1 and ρ_2 are independent Ω_1 - and Ω_2 -valued random variables, respectively.
2. The construction is in some sense unique: suppose that on some probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ are defined an S -valued random variable X (with law μ_X) and a T -valued random variable Y (with law μ_Y). Then the law of the $S \times T$ -valued random variable (X, Y) is the product measure $\mu_X \times \mu_Y$.
3. If $f : \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{F}_1 \times \mathcal{F}_2$ -measurable, then $f(\omega_1, \cdot) : \Omega_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{F}_2$ -measurable for all ω_1 , and $f(\cdot, \omega_2) : \Omega_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{F}_1$ -measurable for all ω_2 .
4. (**Tonelli**) If $f : \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{F}_1 \times \mathcal{F}_2$ -measurable and $f \geq 0$ a.s., then

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_1 \times \mathbb{P}_2}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_2} \left[\int f(\omega_1, \omega_2) \mathbb{P}_1(d\omega_1) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_1} \left[\int f(\omega_1, \omega_2) \mathbb{P}_2(d\omega_2) \right].$$

In particular, these expressions make sense (the inner integrals are measurable).

5. (**Fubini**) The previous statement still holds for random variables f that are not necessarily nonnegative, provided that $\mathbb{E}(|f|) < \infty$.

Tonelli and Fubini theorems are useful for interpreting

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_1 \times \mathbb{P}_2} [f(x_1, x_2)] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_1} [\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_2} [f(x_1, x_2)]]$$

Stochastic process : $\{X_t, t \in [0, T]\}$ is

a stochastic process on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ if each X_t is a r.v. .

— Such a process is called measurable or
 $X: [0, T] \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{B}([0, T]) \times \mathcal{F}$ -measurable

so, $Y: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $Y(\omega) = \int_0^T X_t(\omega) dt$ is a well-defined r.v.

Now, under mild assumptions of Fubini or Tonelli, we get

$$E[Y] = E\left[\int_0^T X_t(\omega) dt\right] = \int_0^T E[X_t] dt !$$

— Next time we do

— Conditional Expectation

— Martingales

— Stochastic processes

Recall that we think of the Wiener process as the limit as $N \rightarrow \infty$, in a suitable sense, of the random walk

$$x_t(N) = \sum_{n=1}^{\lfloor Nt \rfloor} \frac{\xi_n}{\sqrt{N}},$$

where ξ_n are i.i.d. random variables with zero mean and unit variance. That there

Lemma 3.1.1 (Finite dimensional distributions). For any finite set of times $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$, $n < \infty$, the n -dimensional random variable $(x_{t_1}(N), \dots, x_{t_n}(N))$ converges in law as $N \rightarrow \infty$ to an n -dimensional random variable $(x_{t_1}, \dots, x_{t_n})$ such that $x_{t_1}, x_{t_2} - x_{t_1}, \dots, x_{t_n} - x_{t_{n-1}}$ are independent Gaussian random variables with zero mean and variance $t_1, t_2 - t_1, \dots, t_n - t_{n-1}$, respectively.

Definition 3.1.3. A stochastic process W_t is called a Wiener process if

1. the finite dimensional distributions of W_t are those of lemma 3.1.1; and
2. the sample paths of W_t are continuous.