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## MERGING OF OPINIONS WITH INCREASING INFORMATION1

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1. History. One of us [1] has shown that if Zn,  $n=1, 2, \cdots$  is a stochastic process with D states,  $0, 1, \cdots, D-1$  such that  $X=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Z_n/D^n$  has an absolutely continuous distribution with respect to Lebesgue measure, then the conditional distribution of  $R_k=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Z_{k+n}/D^n$  given  $Z_1, \cdots, Z_k$  converges with probability one as  $k\to\infty$  to the uniform distribution on the unit interval, in the sense that for each  $\lambda$ ,  $0<\lambda\leq 1$ ,  $P(R_k<\lambda\mid Z_1,\cdots,Z_k)\to\lambda$  with probability 1 as  $k\to\infty$ . It follows that the unconditional distribution of  $R_k$  converges to the uniform distribution as  $k\to\infty$ . If  $\{Z_n\}$  is stationary, the distribution of  $R_k$  is independent of k, and hence uniform, a result obtained earlier by Harris [3]. Earlier work relevant to convergence of opinion can be found in [4, Chap. 3, Sect. 6].

Here we generalize these results and also show that the conditional distribution of  $R_k$  given  $Z_1$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $Z_k$  converges in a much stronger sense. All probabilities in this paper are countably additive.

**2. Statement of the theorem.** Let  $\mathfrak{B}_i$  be a  $\sigma$ -field of subsets of a set  $X_i$ ,  $i=1,2,\cdots$ ; and let  $(X,\mathfrak{B})=(X_1\times X_2\times\cdots,\mathfrak{B}_1\times \mathfrak{B}_2\times\cdots)$ . Suppose  $(X,\mathfrak{B},P)$  is a probability space and let  $P_n$  be the marginal distribution of  $(X_1\times\cdots\times X_n,\mathfrak{B}_1\times\cdots\times \mathfrak{B}_n)$ ; that is,  $P_n(A)=P(A\times X_{n+1}\times\cdots)$  for all  $A\in\mathfrak{B}_1\times\cdots\times \mathfrak{B}_n$ . The probability P is predictive if for every  $n\geq 1$ , there exists a conditional distribution  $P^n$  for the future  $X_{n+1}\times\cdots$  given the past  $X_1,\cdots,X_n$ ; that is, if there exists a function  $P^n(x_1,\cdots,x_n)(C)$  where  $(x_1,\cdots,x_n)$  ranges over  $X_1\times\cdots\times X_n$  and C ranges over  $\mathfrak{B}_{n+1}\times\cdots$  with the usual three properties:  $P^n(x_1,\cdots,x_n)(C)$  is  $\mathfrak{B}_1\times\cdots\times \mathfrak{B}_n$ -measurable for fixed C; a probability distribution on  $(X_{n+1}\times\cdots;\mathfrak{B}_{n+1}\times\cdots)$  for fixed  $(x_1,\cdots,x_n)$ ; and for bounded  $\mathfrak{B}$ -measurable  $\phi$ 

(1) 
$$\int \phi \ dP = \int [(\phi(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots) \ dP^n \ (x_{n+1}, \dots \mid x_1, \dots, x_n)]$$
$$\cdot dP_n \ (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

holds.

The assumption that P is predictive is mild and applies to all natural probabilities known to us. It is easy to verify that any probability which is absolutely continuous with respect to a predictive probability is also predictive.

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For any two probabilities  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  on the same  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathfrak{F}$ , the well known distance  $\rho(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  between  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  is the least upper bound over  $D \in \mathfrak{F}$  of  $|\mu_1(D) - \mu_2(D)|$ . Of course  $\mu_i$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $(\mu_1 + \mu_2)/2 = m$  and has a density  $\phi_i$ , so that  $\rho(\mu_1, \mu_2) = \int_A (\phi_1 - \phi_2) dm = (1/2) \int |\phi_1 - \phi_2| dm$  where A is the set where  $\phi_1 - \phi_2 > 0$ .

MAIN THEOREM. Suppose that P is a predictive probability on  $(X, \mathfrak{B})$  and that Q is absolutely continuous with respect to P. Then for each conditional distribution  $P^n$  of the future given the past with respect to P, there exists a conditional distribution  $Q^n$  of the future given the past with respect to Q such that, with the exception of a set of histories  $(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots)$  of Q-probability Q, the distance between  $P^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $Q^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  converges to Q as Q as Q as Q converges to Q.

**3. Martingale preliminaries.** The proof of the theorem requires a slightly generalized martingale convergence theorem. Say that a sequence  $\{y_n\}$  of random variables is *dominated in the sense of Lebesque* if  $\sup_n |y_n|$  has a finite expectation.

THEOREM 2. Suppose that  $\{y_n\}$ ,  $n=1, 2, \cdots$ , a sequence of random variables dominated in the sense of Lebesgue, converges almost everywhere to a random variable y. Then for every monotone increasing or monotone decreasing sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields  $\mathfrak{A}_j$ ,  $j=1, 2, \cdots$  converging to a  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathfrak{A}_j$ ,

(2) 
$$\lim_{\substack{j \to \infty \\ n \to \infty}} E[y_n \mid \mathfrak{U}_j] = E[y \mid \mathfrak{U}],$$

almost everywhere and in  $L_1$ .

In this note we are primarily interested in the weaker conclusion that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} E[y_n \mid \mathfrak{U}_n] = E[y \mid \mathfrak{U}]$ . The two important special cases in which either  $y_n$  or  $\mathfrak{U}_n$  is independent of n are in [2].

PROOF OF THEOREM 2. Let  $g_k = \sup y_n$  for  $n \ge k$ . Equalities and inequalities below are asserted to hold with probability 1. Fix k for a moment and let  $n \ge k$ . Then  $y_n \le g_k$  and

$$(3) E[y_n \mid \mathfrak{U}_i] \le E[g_k \mid \mathfrak{U}_i].$$

Letting

$$z = \lim_{\substack{j \quad i \geq j \\ n \geq j}} E[y_n \mid \mathfrak{U}_i],$$

$$x = \lim_{\substack{j \quad i \geq j \\ n \geq j}} E[y_n \mid \mathfrak{U}_i],$$

you conclude from (3) and a usual form of martingale convergence theorem [For example, see 2, Theorem 4.3, Chap. VII] that

$$(5) z \leq \lim_{j \in J} \sup_{i \geq j} E[g_k \mid \mathfrak{A}_i] = \lim_{i \in J} E[g_k \mid \mathfrak{A}_i] = E[g_k \mid \mathfrak{A}].$$

Therefore  $z \leq \lim E[g_k \mid \mathfrak{A}] = E[y \mid \mathfrak{A}]$  by Lebesgue's theorem suitably generalized so as to apply to conditional expectations. [See, for example, 2, CE<sub>5</sub> Section 8, Chap. 1]. Similarly,  $x \geq E[y \mid \mathfrak{A}]$ , and the proof of almost everywhere convergence is complete. The proof of  $L_1$  convergence is routine and omitted.

COROLLARY 1. Suppose that with probability 1, only a finite number of the events  $E_1$ ,  $E_2$ ,  $\cdots$  occur. Then for any monotone sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields  $\mathfrak{A}_1$ ,  $\mathfrak{A}_2$ ,  $\cdots$ 

(6) 
$$P[\bigcup_{k \geq n} E_k \mid \mathfrak{U}_j] \quad \text{and} \quad P[E_n \mid \mathfrak{U}_j] \to 0.$$

almost surely as n and  $j \to \infty$ .

COROLLARY 2. If  $f_n$  is any sequence of random variables that converges almost everywhere to 0 and  $\mathfrak{U}_j$  is a monotone sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields, then with probability 1, for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

(7) 
$$P[\sup_{k\geq n} |f_k| > \epsilon \mid \mathfrak{A}_j], \quad and \quad P[|f_n| > \epsilon \mid \mathfrak{A}_j]$$

converge to 0 as n and j converge to  $\infty$ .

COROLLARY 3. Let  $q \ge 0$  be a density function for which  $Q(B) = \int_B q dP$  for all  $B \in \mathfrak{B}$ ; let

(8) 
$$q_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int q(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots) dP^n(x_{n+1}, \dots | x_1, \dots, x_n);$$

and let

(9) 
$$d_n(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots) = q(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots) / q_n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$
 or 1,

according as  $q_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) \neq 0$  or not. Then, with P-probability 1, for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

(10) 
$$P[d_n - 1 > \epsilon \mid x_1, \dots, x_n] \to 0 \quad \text{as} \quad n \to \infty,$$

and with Q-probability 1, for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$(11) Q[|d_n-1| > \epsilon | x_1, \cdots, x_n] \to 0 as n \to \infty.$$

PROOF OF COROLLARY 3. With respect to P measure,

(12) 
$$E[q \mid x_1, \dots, x_n] = q_n(x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

so that according to Doob's martingale convergence theorem,  $q_n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  converges to  $q(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots)$  almost surely with respect to P. Consequently,  $\overline{\lim} d_n \leq 1$  a.s. P and  $d_n \to 1$  a.s. Q since q > 0 a.s. Q. An application of Corollary 2 completes the proof.

## 4. Proof of main theorem. Define

$$Q^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)(C)$$

(13) 
$$= \int_{\mathcal{C}} d_n (x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots) dP^n(x_{n+1}, \dots \mid x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

for all  $C \in \mathfrak{G}_{n+1} \times \cdots$ .

It is routine to verify that  $Q^n$  is a conditional distribution for the future given the past. Let  $u = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $v = (x_{n+1}, \dots)$ , and compute thus:

$$\rho(P^{n}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}), Q^{n}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n})) 
= \rho(P^{n}(u), Q^{n}(u)) 
= \int (d_{n}(u, v) - 1) dP^{n}(v \mid u) \text{ over } v : d_{n}(u, v) - 1 > 0 
\leq \epsilon + \int d_{n}(u, v) dP^{n}(v \mid u) \text{ over } v : d_{n}(u, v) - 1 > \epsilon 
= \epsilon + Q^{n}(u) (v : d_{n}(u, v) - 1 > \epsilon) 
= \epsilon + Q[d_{n} - 1 > \epsilon \mid x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}] 
= \epsilon + \epsilon$$

for all but a finite number of n with Q-probability 1, according to (11). This completes the proof.

- 5. Interpretation. Usually, there is essentially only one conditional distribution  $Q^n$  of the future given the past. Therefore, our theorem may be interpreted to imply that if the opinions of two individuals, as summarized by P and Q, agree only in that  $P(D) > 0 \leftrightarrow Q(D) > 0$ , then they are certain that after a sufficiently large finite number of observations  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , their opinions will become and remain close to each other, where close means that for every event E the probability that one man assigns to E differs by at most  $\epsilon$  from the probability that the other man assigns to it, where  $\epsilon$  does not depend on E. Leonard J. Savage observed that our theorem applies to the particularly interesting case in which P and Q are symmetric (or exchangeable). That is, if the measures P and Q on the sequences  $x_i$  are those that arise when the  $x_i$  are, for a fixed parameter value, independent and identically distributed observations, with prior distributions p and q on the parameter, then the relations of absolute continuity between P and Q are precisely those between p and q.
- **6. Caution.** Though the conditional distributions of the future  $P^n$  and  $Q^n$  merge as n becomes large, this need not happen to the unconditional distributions of the future. That is, let  $P(n)(D) = P(X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n \times D)$  for all  $D \in \mathfrak{G}_{n+1} \times \cdots$ , and let Q(n) be similarly defined. The following is a simple example of two probabilities P and Q absolutely continuous with respect to each other for which P(n) and Q(n) do not merge with increasing n. Let R be the probability on infinite sequences  $x_1, x_2, \cdots$  of 0's and 1's determined by independent tosses of a coin which has probability r of success, and let S be the probability determined if the coin has probability s for success, with  $0 \le r \le 1$ ,  $0 \le s \le 1$ , and  $r \ne s$ . Now let 0 and let <math>P and Q be mixtures of P and P and

7. An application. By viewing the unit interval as a product of two point spaces, the interested reader will see that the main theorem yields information about the local behavior of positive integrable functions q(x) defined for  $0 \le x \le 1$ .

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