

# MERGING OF OPINIONS WITH INCREASING INFORMATION<sup>1</sup>

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**1. History.** One of us [1] has shown that if  $Z_n, n = 1, 2, \dots$  is a stochastic process with  $D$  states,  $0, 1, \dots, D - 1$  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  $Z_1, \dots, Z_k$  converges with probability one as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  to the uniform distribution on the unit interval, in the sense that for each  $\lambda, 0 < \lambda \leq 1, P(R_k < \lambda | Z_1, \dots, Z_k) \rightarrow \lambda$  with probability 1 as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . It follows that the unconditional distribution of  $R_k$  converges to the uniform distribution as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . 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  $Z_1, \dots, Z_k$  converges in a much stronger sense. All probabilities in this paper are countably additive.

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

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

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 0, the distance between  $P^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $Q^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  converges to 0 as  $n$  converges to  $\infty$ .*

**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 Lebesgue* if  $\sup_n |y_n|$  has a finite expectation.

**THEOREM 2.** *Suppose that  $\{y_n\}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , 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  $\mathfrak{U}_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots$  converging to a  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathfrak{U}$ ,*

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

*almost everywhere and in  $L_1$ .*

In this note we are primarily interested in the weaker conclusion that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[y_n | \mathfrak{U}_n] = E[y | \mathfrak{U}]$ . 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  $n \geq k$ . Equalities and inequalities below are asserted to hold with probability 1. Fix  $k$  for a moment and let  $n \geq k$ . Then  $y_n \leq g_k$  and

$$(3) \quad E[y_n | \mathfrak{U}_i] \leq E[g_k | \mathfrak{U}_i].$$

Letting

$$(4) \quad \begin{aligned} z &= \limsup_j E[y_n | \mathfrak{U}_i], \\ x &= \liminf_j E[y_n | \mathfrak{U}_i], \end{aligned}$$

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

$$(5) \quad z \leq \lim_j \sup_{i \geq j} E[g_k | \mathfrak{U}_i] = \lim_i E[g_k | \mathfrak{U}_i] = E[g_k | \mathfrak{U}].$$

Therefore  $z \leq \lim E[g_k | \mathfrak{U}] = E[y | \mathfrak{U}]$  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,  $x \geq E[y | \mathfrak{U}]$ , 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  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  occur. Then for any monotone sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields  $\mathfrak{U}_1, \mathfrak{U}_2, \dots$

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

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

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  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

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

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

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

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

and let

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

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

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

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

$$(11) \quad Q[|d_n - 1| > \epsilon \mid x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

PROOF OF COROLLARY 3. With respect to  $P$  measure,

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

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  $d_n \rightarrow 1$  a.s.  $Q$  since  $q > 0$  a.s.  $Q$ . An application of Corollary 2 completes the proof.

**4. Proof of main theorem.** Define

$$(13) \quad \begin{aligned} & Q^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)(C) \\ &= \int_C d_n(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots) dP^n(x_{n+1}, \dots \mid x_1, \dots, x_n), \end{aligned}$$

for all  $C \in \mathfrak{B}_{n+1} \times \dots$ .

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:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \rho(P^n(x_1, \dots, x_n), Q^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \\
 &= \rho(P^n(u), Q^n(u)) \\
 &= \int (d_n(u, v) - 1) dP^n(v | u) \text{ over } v: d_n(u, v) - 1 > 0 \\
 (14) \quad & \leq \epsilon + \int d_n(u, v) dP^n(v | u) \text{ over } v: d_n(u, v) - 1 > \epsilon \\
 &= \epsilon + Q^n(u)(v: d_n(u, v) - 1 > \epsilon) \\
 &= \epsilon + Q[d_n - 1 > \epsilon | x_1, \dots, x_n] \\
 &= \epsilon + \epsilon
 \end{aligned}$$

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  $P(n)(D) = P(X_1 \times \dots \times X_n \times D)$  for all  $D \in \mathfrak{B}_{n+1} \times \dots$ , 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  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  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  $0 \leq r \leq 1$ ,  $0 \leq s \leq 1$ , and  $r \neq s$ . Now let  $0 < p < q < 1$  and let  $P$  and  $Q$  be mixtures of  $R$  and  $S$ :  $P = pR + (1 - p)S$ ,  $Q = qR + (1 - q)S$ . Since  $P(n) = P$  and  $Q(n) = Q$  for all  $n$ , there is no tendency for  $P(n)$  and  $Q(n)$  to merge.

**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  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ .

## REFERENCES

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