## 1. CONVENTIONS

•  $X \sim f(x,\xi)$ : a random variables X with the PDF  $f(x,\xi)$ .

#### 2. GENERAL PROBABILITY THEORY

#### 2.1. Random Variables

**Definition 2.1.** A probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{R}, \mathbb{P})$  is a triple of a set  $\Omega$  and  $\sigma$ -additive measure  $\mathbb{P}$  with domain  $\mathfrak{R}$ , a  $\sigma$ -algebra defined on  $\Omega$ , satisfying  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\varnothing) = 0$ .

A event can be represented as an element in  $\Omega$ . A type of events can be abstracted as a subset  $A \in \Omega$ . The measure  $\mathbb{P}(A)$  is called the probability of event A happens. If  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$ , we say that A will occurs almost surely.

**Definition 2.2.** A random variable X on  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{R}, \mathbb{P})$  is a  $\mathfrak{R}$ -measurable function  $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ . The  $\mathfrak{R}$ -measurable here means:

$$X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega : \omega \in \Omega, X(\omega) \in B\} \in \mathfrak{R}, \tag{1}$$

where B is any Borel subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

A random variables is a function encoding events into real numbers for mathematical modeling purpose. Furthermore, as a random variable is a mapping from  $\Omega$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , it will naturally induce the following practical conceptation.

**Definition 2.3.** The **distribution measure**  $\mu_X$  of X is a pushforward measure induced by X as  $\mu_X(B) = X_*\mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P}\{X^{-1}(B)\}$ , where B is any Borel subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

The **Radon-Nikodym**'s theorem implies that there exists a non-negative function f(x) bridged the distribution measure  $\mu_X$  and the natural linear measure of  $\mathbb{R}$  as

$$\mu_X(B) = \int_B f(x)dx, \quad \forall B \in \mathbb{R},$$
 (2)

where the B is a Borel subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . This function f(X) is called the **probability density function** (PDF). A **cumulative distribution function**(CDF) F(x) is defined as  $F(x) = \mathbb{P}\{X \leq x\}$ . Assum g is a measurable function and g(x)f(x) is integrable, then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x)d\mu_X = \int_{X^{-1}(\mathbb{R})} (g \circ X)(\omega)d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x)f(x)dx.$$
(3)

To simplify, we assume that  $X^{-1}(\mathbb{R}) = \Omega$  for any random variable defined on  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{R}, \mathbb{P})$ . Furthermore, suppose G(x) is a function of X, and f(x) is PDF of X, then

$$\int_{\Omega} G[X(\omega)]d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x)f(x)dx, \tag{4}$$

if G(x)f(x) is integrable over  $\mathbb{R}$  respect to the natural linear measure.

**Definition 2.4.** If a random vairable X is integrable, the **expectation** of X, denoted as  $\mathbb{E}(X)$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) d\mathbb{P}.$$
 (5)

Based on the Eq.4, the expectation  $\mathbb{E}(X)$  can be calculated from

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) dx.$$

**Definition 2.5.** A  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by a random variable X, denoted as  $\sigma(X)$  is the collection of subsets  $X^{-1}(B)$  where B is any Borel subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since X is required to be  $\mathfrak{R}$ -measurable by definition, it follows  $\sigma(X) \subseteq \mathfrak{R}$ . Furthermore, suppose two  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{G}, \mathfrak{H} \subseteq \mathfrak{R}$ , we called them are **independent** with each other if

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B), \quad \forall A \in \mathfrak{G}, \forall B \in \mathfrak{H}. \tag{6}$$

We say two random variables X and Y are independent if  $\sigma(X)$  and  $\sigma(Y)$  are independent, denoted as  $X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y$ .

**Definition 2.6.** A moment generating function  $M_X(t)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  for a random variable X is definted as  $M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}e^{tX}$ .

**Theorem 2.1.** The following properties of moment generating functions are straight forward:

- 1.  $\mathbb{E}(X^n) = M_X^{(n)}(0)$ , nth derivative of  $M_X(t)$ .
- 2. If  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$ , then X = Y.

# 2.2. Joint Probabilities and Independence

**Definition 2.7.** Given two random variables X, Y, the pair (X, Y) forms a mapping  $X \times Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^2$ , the **joint probability measure**  $\mu_{X,Y}$  is defined as a pushforward measure

$$\mu_{X,Y}(A \times B) = \mathbb{P}[(X \times Y)^{-1}(A \times B)], \quad \forall A \times B \in \mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}^2),$$
(7)

where  $\mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$  represent all the Borel subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and

$$(X \times Y)^{-1}(A \times B) = X^{-1}(A) \cap Y^{-1}(B),$$
 (8)

**Theorem 2.2.** Suppose X, Y, then the following conditions are equivalent

- 1.  $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y$ ;
- 2. For the joint measure  $\mu_{X,Y}(A \times B) = \mu_X(A)\mu_Y(B)$ ,  $\forall A \times B \in \mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$

3. For the PDF  $f_X(x)$ ,  $f_Y(y)$  and  $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$  or CDF  $F_X(x)$ , etc:

$$f_{X,Y}(a,b) = f_X(a)f_Y(b), \quad \forall \text{a.e.}(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2,$$
  
$$F_{X,Y}(a,b) = F_X(a)F_Y(b), \quad \forall (a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2;$$
(9)

4. For the joint moment generating function:

$$\mathbb{E}e^{uX+vY} = \mathbb{E}e^{uX}\mathbb{E}e^{vY}; \tag{10}$$

*Proof.* Assuming the condition satisfied, the 2nd condition comes immediately from the Eq. 6. Consequently, 3rd one holds as

$$F_{X,Y}(a,b) = \mu_{X,Y}([-\infty, a] \times [-\infty, b]).$$
 (11)

The 2nd condition also implies that Fubini's theorem valid for any h(x,y) integrable function and we have

$$\mathbb{E}h(x,y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} h(x,y) d\mu_{X,Y}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x,y) f_X(x) dx f_Y(y) dy.$$
(12)

This leads to 4th condition holds.

### 2.3. Information and Conditioning

For a given probability space  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{R}, \mathbb{P})$ ,  $\Omega$  suppose to contained all the possible events occur, and the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{R}$  represents all the possible set to be distinguished, or measured by probability  $\mathbb{P}$ . The information about the event is ability to label the event with more details. This means that the more information we have, the smaller subset of  $\Omega$  can be measured. Based on this idea, a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{G} \subseteq \mathfrak{R}$  stays for the limit we can measure under certain information condition.

**Definition 2.8.** Let  $\mathfrak{G}$  be a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathfrak{R}$  in  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{R}, \mathbb{P})$  and X is a non-negative or integrable random variable. The **conditional expectation** of X given condition  $\mathfrak{G}$ , denoted as  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G})$ , is any random variable satisfies

- 1. Measurability:  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G})$  is  $\mathfrak{G}$ -measurable;
- 2. Partial average:

$$\int_{A} \mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G})(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega) = \int_{A} X(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega), \quad \forall A \in \mathfrak{G}. \quad (13)$$

If  $\mathfrak{G} = \sigma(W)$ , a  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by random variable W, then we denoted  $\mathbb{E}(X|W) := \mathbb{E}(X|\sigma(W))$ .

The requriements in the definitions preserved the existance and the uniqueness of the  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G})$ . The Eq. 13 defined a new measure, denoted as  $\mu_X|_{\mathfrak{G}}$  on  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{G}, \mathbb{P}|_{\mathfrak{G}})$  where  $\mathbb{P}|_{\mathfrak{G}}$  is a restrict of  $\mathbb{P}$  to  $\mathfrak{G}$ . Based on the Radon-Nikodym theorem, it implies the existance of

 $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G})$  which equal to the Radon-Nikodym derivative  $d\mu_X|_{\mathfrak{G}}/d\mathbb{P}|_{\mathfrak{G}}$ . The uniqueness can be varified as follow: Assuming Y,Z are two variables satisfying the Eq. 13, and A is a set that  $Y(a) \leq Z(a), \forall a \in A$ , then the integral of Z-Y should be non-negative, however,

$$\int_{A} \{Z(a) - Y(a)\} d\mathbb{P} = 0, \quad \forall A \in \mathfrak{G},$$

which implies that Z = Y by mean (in other term, it is called Z = Y almost surely).

**Theorem 2.3.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathfrak{R}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space, X be a integrable random variable, and  $\mathfrak{G}, \mathfrak{H}$  be sub- $\sigma$ -algebra.

1. Linearilty: Given integrable random variables X,Y and  $a,b\in\mathbb{R},$  then

$$\mathbb{E}(aX + bY|\mathfrak{G}) = a\mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G}) + b\mathbb{E}(Y|\mathfrak{G}). \tag{14}$$

2. If X, Y are integrable, XY is integrable as well, and X is  $\mathfrak{G}$ -measurable, then

$$\mathbb{E}(XY|\mathfrak{G}) = X\mathbb{E}(Y|\mathfrak{G}). \tag{15}$$

3. Suppose  $\mathfrak{H}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra that  $\mathfrak{H} \subseteq \mathfrak{G}$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}\left[(X|\mathfrak{G})|\mathfrak{H}\right] = \mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{H}). \tag{16}$$

4. If  $\sigma(X) \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathfrak{G}$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G}) = \mathbb{E}X\tag{17}$$

5. Jensen's inequality: If  $\varphi(x)$  is a convex function, then

$$\mathbb{E}[\varphi(X)|\mathfrak{G}] \ge \varphi\left[\mathbb{E}(X|\mathfrak{G})\right]. \tag{18}$$

# 3. DISTRIBUTIONS

## 3.1. Poisson Distribution

**Definition 3.1** (Poisson assumption). Assume a integer valued random variable K with a PDF g(k,h) where an parameter h satisfying the following assumption when  $h \to 0$ :

- 1.  $g(1,h) = \lambda h + o(h);$
- 2.  $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} g(k,h) = o(h);$
- 3. q(0,h)q(0,w) = q(0,h+w);
- 4. q(x, w + h) = q(x, w)q(0, h) + q(x 1, w)q(1, h).

Then g(x, w) is a **Poisson distribution**:

$$g(x,w) = \frac{1}{x!} (\lambda w)^x e^{-\lambda w}, \quad x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
 (19)

*Proof.* The o(h) means that  $\lim_{h\to 0} o(h)/h = 0$ .

$$\begin{split} g(0,w+h) &= g(0,w)[1-\lambda h - o(h)],\\ \frac{dg(0,w)}{dw} &= \lambda g(0,w),\\ g(0,w) &= ce^{-\lambda w}. \end{split}$$

Repeat the similar procedure to Eq.4, we get the formula:

$$\partial_w g(x, w) = -\lambda g(x, w) + \lambda g(x - 1, w).$$

Using this equation, the conclusion can be approved by induction.  $\hfill\Box$ 

Suppose g(x,h) is the probability of x changes in a interval with a width h, if it satisfies the Poisson's assumptions, it means that the event that changing of x depends only on the width of the interval and this probability can be approximated linearly when h is small enough. One example of many applications satisfying the Poisson's assumptions is that the atomic decay with time. In this case, g(x,h) represents the number of decays x happened inside of time interval h.

#### 3.2. Normal distributions

**Definition 3.2.** A normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , denoted as  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  is

$$N(\mu, \sigma^2)(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma^2} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}.$$
 (20)

If a random variable  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , this variable is called **Gaussian**. And we call X as **standard normal** variable if  $X \sim N(0,1)$ . A random variable Y is called n-dimensional Gassian random variable if  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$ , where  $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$  and  $X_i \perp \!\!\! \perp X_j, \forall i \neq j$ .

**Theorem 3.1.** Assume  $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ ,  $X_i \perp \!\!\! \perp X_j, \forall i \neq j, \ a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$ , then:

- 1. The moment generating function of X is  $M_X(t) = \exp(\mu t + \sigma^2 t^2/2)$
- 2. The PDF of Y is

$$Y \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}\mu_{i}, \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}\sigma_{i}^{2}\right).$$
 (21)

- 3. If  $Z_i = (X_i \mu_i)/\sigma_i$ , then  $Z_i \sim N(0, 1)$ ;
- 4.  $Z_i^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$ , and if  $Z = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i^2$ , then  $Z \sim \chi^2(n)$ .

*Proof.* Just briefly draw the line of the proof:

1. It follows from the straight forward calculation of  $\mathbb{E}(e^{Xt})$ .

2. Consider n = 2 case, since  $X_i$  are independent, the moment generating function is

$$\begin{split} M_{a_1X_1+a_2X_2}(t) &= M_{a_1X_1}(t)M_{a_2X_2}(t) \\ &= \exp\left[a_1\mu_1 + a_2\mu_2 + \frac{(a_1^2\sigma_1^2 + a_2^2\sigma_2^2)t^2}{2}\right], \end{split}$$

which is the same as the variable  $Z \sim N(a_1\mu_1 + a_2\mu_2, a_1^2\sigma_1 + a_2^2\sigma_2)$ . On the other hand, if we consider the PDF f(cx)dx with substituting the x by y = x/c, the calculation leads to g(y)dy where  $g(y) = N(c\mu, c^2\sigma^2)$ . It implies that  $M_{a_iX_i}(t) = \exp(a_i\mu_i + a_i^2\sigma_i^2/2)$ .

3. Here we need to show that  $X - c \sim N(\mu - c, \sigma^2)$  if  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . In fact, shifting the integral center by a finite number won't affect the integral as the integral range is  $[-\infty, +\infty]$ .

# 3.3. $\chi^2$ istributions

## 4. MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD METHODS

## 4.1. Maximum Likelihood Estimation

**Definition 4.1.** Consider the case that  $X \sim f(x; \theta)$  where  $\theta$  is a parameter, the n samples  $x_i, i = 1, ..., n$  on X at a fix parameter value, say  $\theta = \theta_0$ . The likelihood function  $L(\theta; x)$  is defined as

$$L(\theta; \boldsymbol{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i; \theta). \tag{22}$$

A log likelihood function  $l(\theta; x)$  is

$$l(\theta; \boldsymbol{x}) = \log L(\theta; \boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f(x_i; \theta).$$
 (23)

**Definition 4.2.** (Regularity Conditions) Given a PDF  $f(x;\theta)$  with the set  $\Theta$  as the domain of  $\theta$ , the regularity conditions for this PDF are

- 1. Distinctive:  $f(x;\theta) \neq f(x;\theta')$  if  $\theta \neq \theta'$ ;
- 2. The support of  $f(x;\theta)$  independnt on  $\theta$ ;
- 3. The  $\theta_0$  is a interior point of  $\Theta$ .

# INDEX

Normal Distributions, 3

Probability Space, 1

Random variable, 1

Accumulative distribution function, 1

Distribution measure, 1

Expectation, 1 Independence, 1

Moment generating functions, 1

Probability distribution function, 1