

## Q1

Let  $0 \leq h(X) \leq M$  and  $0 \leq a < M$ . Define

$$Y = M - h(X) \geq 0.$$

Applying Markov's inequality with  $t = M - a > 0$  gives

$$\mathbb{P}(Y \geq M - a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[Y]}{M - a} = \frac{M - \mathbb{E}[h(X)]}{M - a}.$$

Since

$$Y \geq M - a \iff h(X) \leq a,$$

we obtain

$$\mathbb{P}(h(X) \leq a) \leq \frac{M - \mathbb{E}[h(X)]}{M - a}.$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}(h(X) \geq a) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(h(X) < a) \geq 1 - \mathbb{P}(h(X) \leq a) = \frac{\mathbb{E}[h(X)] - a}{M - a}.$$

$$\mathbb{P}(h(X) \geq a) \geq \frac{\mathbb{E}[h(X)] - a}{M - a}. \quad (1)$$

**Q2** We consider the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  where:

- $\Omega = [0, 1]$
- $\mathcal{F}$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $[0, 1]$
- $P$  is the uniform probability measure:  $P([a, b]) = b - a$  for all  $0 \leq a \leq b \leq 1$

$$X_n(\omega) = \frac{n}{n+1}\omega + (1-\omega)^n, \quad \omega \in [0, 1]$$

$$X(\omega) = \omega, \quad \omega \in [0, 1]$$

We want to show that  $X_n$  converges to  $X$  almost surely as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Definition 1.** A sequence of random variables  $(X_n)$  converges almost surely to  $X$  if:

$$P\left(\{\omega \in [0, 1] : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}\right) = 1$$

That is, for almost every  $\omega \in [0, 1]$ , we have  $X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Fix  $\omega \in [0, 1]$  and examine  $X_n(\omega)$ :

$$X_n(\omega) = \frac{n}{n+1}\omega + (1-\omega)^n$$

Check the behavior as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  by considering different cases:

**Case 1:**  $\omega = 0$

$$X_n(0) = \frac{n}{n+1} \cdot 0 + (1-0)^n = 0 + 1^n = 1 \quad \text{for all } n$$

Thus:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(0) = 1$$

But  $X(0) = 0$ , so:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(0) = 1 \neq 0 = X(0)$$

**Conclusion:** At  $\omega = 0$ ,  $X_n$  does NOT converge to  $X$ .

**Case 2:**  $\omega = 1$

$$X_n(1) = \frac{n}{n+1} \cdot 1 + (1-1)^n = \frac{n}{n+1} + 0^n = \frac{n}{n+1}$$

Thus:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(1) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1$$

And  $X(1) = 1$ , so:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(1) = 1 = X(1)$$

**Conclusion:** At  $\omega = 1$ ,  $X_n$  converges to  $X$ .

**Case 3:**  $0 < \omega < 1$  For  $0 < \omega < 1$ , we have:

- $\frac{n}{n+1}\omega \rightarrow 1 \cdot \omega = \omega$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- $(1 - \omega)^n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  since  $|1 - \omega| < 1$

Therefore:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = \omega + 0 = \omega = X(\omega)$$

**Conclusion:** For all  $\omega \in (0, 1)$ ,  $X_n$  converges to  $X$ .

From the case analysis above:

- For  $\omega = 0$ :  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) \neq X(\omega)$
- For  $\omega \in (0, 1]$ :  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)$

Thus, the set where  $X_n$  does NOT converge to  $X$  is:

$$\{\omega \in [0, 1] : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) \neq X(\omega)\} = \{0\}$$

The set where  $X_n$  converges to  $X$  is:

$$\{\omega \in [0, 1] : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\} = (0, 1]$$

The probability measure is uniform on  $[0, 1]$ , so:

$$P(\{0\}) = 0$$

$$P((0, 1]) = P([0, 1]) - P(\{0\}) = 1 - 0 = 1$$

Therefore:

$$P\left(\{\omega \in [0, 1] : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}\right) = P((0, 1]) = 1$$

We have shown that:

$$P\left(\{\omega \in [0, 1] : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}\right) = 1$$

which means:

$$X_n \rightarrow X \text{ almost surely}$$

The only point of non-convergence is  $\omega = 0$ , which has probability zero under the uniform distribution on  $[0, 1]$ .

## Solution to Problem 3

Let  $S_n$  be the number of smokers in a random sample of size  $n$  and define the estimator

$$M_n = \frac{S_n}{n}.$$

Then  $\mathbb{E}[M_n] = f$  and

$$\text{Var}(M_n) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var}(S_n) = \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot nf(1-f) = \frac{f(1-f)}{n}.$$

Since  $f(1-f) \leq \frac{1}{4}$  for any  $f \in [0, 1]$ , we have the uniform bound

$$\text{Var}(M_n) \leq \frac{1}{4n}.$$

By Chebyshev's inequality,

$$\mathbb{P}(|M_n - f| \geq \varepsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(M_n)}{\varepsilon^2} \leq \frac{1}{4n\varepsilon^2}.$$

Requiring this to be at most  $\delta$  gives

$$\frac{1}{4n\varepsilon^2} \leq \delta \implies n \geq \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2\delta}.$$

Thus the smallest sample size (using this bound) can be taken as

$$n = \left\lceil \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2\delta} \right\rceil.$$

**(a)** If  $\varepsilon$  is reduced to  $\frac{2}{3}$  of its original value, i.e.  $\varepsilon' = \frac{2}{3}\varepsilon$ , then

$$n' = \left\lceil \frac{1}{4(\varepsilon')^2\delta} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{1}{4\left(\frac{2}{3}\varepsilon\right)^2\delta} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{1}{4 \cdot \frac{4}{9}\varepsilon^2\delta} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{9}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2\delta} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{9}{4}n \right\rceil.$$

So the recommended  $n$  increases by a factor of  $(3/2)^2 = 9/4$  (approximately 2.25×).

**(b)** If  $\delta$  is reduced to  $\frac{3}{5}$  of its original value, i.e.  $\delta' = \frac{3}{5}\delta$ , then

$$n' = \left\lceil \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2\delta'} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2 \cdot \frac{3}{5}\delta} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{5}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2\delta} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{5}{3}n \right\rceil.$$

So the recommended  $n$  increases by a factor of  $5/3$  (approximately 1.6667×).

## Problem 4

Suppose that  $X_n$  converges almost surely to  $X$  and  $Y_n$  converges almost surely to  $Y$ . Show that  $X_n + Y_n$  converges almost surely to  $X + Y$ . Does the corresponding result also hold for convergence in probability and convergence in distribution?

**Solution:**

### Almost Sure Convergence

We are given  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$ . By definition, this means the set of outcomes where the sequences do not converge to their limits has probability 0.

Let  $Z_X$  be the set of outcomes where  $X_n$  does not converge to  $X$ :

$$Z_X = \left\{ \omega \in \Omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) \neq X(\omega) \right\}$$

We are given  $P(Z_X) = 0$ .

Let  $Z_Y$  be the event where  $Y_n$  does not converge to  $Y$ :

$$Z_Y = \left\{ \omega \in \Omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Y_n(\omega) \neq Y(\omega) \right\}$$

We are given  $P(Z_Y) = 0$ .

We are interested in the event  $Z_{X+Y}$ , where the sum  $X_n + Y_n$  does not converge to  $X + Y$ :

$$Z_{X+Y} = \left\{ \omega \in \Omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (X_n(\omega) + Y_n(\omega)) \neq X(\omega) + Y(\omega) \right\}$$

From the properties of limits of real numbers, if the sum  $\lim(X_n + Y_n)$  fails to equal  $X + Y$ , it must be because at least one of the original sequences failed to converge to its respective limit. Therefore, any outcome  $\omega$  in  $Z_{X+Y}$  must also be in  $Z_X$  or in  $Z_Y$ .

This implies  $Z_{X+Y} \subseteq Z_X \cup Z_Y$ , and thus:

$$0 \leq P(Z_{X+Y}) \leq P(Z_X \cup Z_Y) \leq P(Z_X) + P(Z_Y)$$

Substituting the given values:

$$P(Z_{X+Y}) \leq 0 + 0 = 0$$

By definition, this means  $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X + Y$ .

### Convergence in Probability

We are given  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$ . For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we need to show that:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|(X_n + Y_n) - (X + Y)| > \epsilon) = 0$$

First, by the triangle inequality:

$$|(X_n + Y_n) - (X + Y)| \leq |X_n - X| + |Y_n - Y|$$

If the sum  $|X_n - X| + |Y_n - Y|$  is greater than  $\epsilon$ , then at least one of the terms must be greater than  $\epsilon/2$ . This allows us to relate the events:

$$\{|(X_n + Y_n) - (X + Y)| > \epsilon\} \subseteq \left\{ |X_n - X| > \frac{\epsilon}{2} \right\} \cup \left\{ |Y_n - Y| > \frac{\epsilon}{2} \right\}$$

Therefore,

$$P(|(X_n + Y_n) - (X + Y)| > \epsilon) \leq P\left(|X_n - X| > \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) + P\left(|Y_n - Y| > \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)$$

Now, we take the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . By our premises,  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$ , which means both terms on the right-hand side go to 0, and thus we get:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|(X_n + Y_n) - (X + Y)| > \epsilon) \leq 0 + 0$$

The limit must be 0. Thus,  $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{P} X + Y$ .

### Convergence in Distribution

No, the result does not hold. Convergence in distribution only describes the convergence of the marginal CDFs ( $F_{X_n}$  and  $F_{Y_n}$ ) and does not preserve the **joint distribution** of  $(X_n, Y_n)$ , which is required to find the distribution of the sum  $X_n + Y_n$ . We can show this via the construction of a counter-example.

Let  $X$  be a single Bernoulli( $1/2$ ) random variable, and define the sequences  $X_n$  and  $Y_n$  as:

$$\begin{aligned} X_n &= X, \quad \text{for all } n \\ Y_n &= 1 - X, \quad \text{for all } n \end{aligned}$$

$X_n$  has a Bernoulli( $1/2$ ) distribution for all  $n$ . This sequence of distributions trivially converges to the Bernoulli( $1/2$ ) distribution of  $X$ . So,  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ .

Notice that,  $Y_n$  also has a Bernoulli( $1/2$ ) distribution for all  $n$ . Let  $Y$  be a variable with a Bernoulli( $1/2$ ) distribution. The sequence  $F_{Y_n}$  trivially converges to  $F_Y$ . So,  $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$ .

Now, to check if the sum converges, look at the limit of the sum, say  $Z_n = X_n + Y_n$ .

$$Z_n = X_n + Y_n = X + (1 - X) = 1 \quad \text{for all } n$$

$Z_n$  is a constant random variable 1 for all  $n$ . Hence, this sequence converges in distribution to a constant variable.

Now, look at the sum of the limits, say  $Z = X + Y$ .

Here,  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(1/2)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Bernoulli}(1/2)$ . Since the premises do not define a joint distribution for the limits, we check against the case where  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

The distribution of  $Z$  (a sum of two independent Bernoulli variables) is Binomial( $2, 1/2$ ): The limit of  $Z_n$  converges in distribution to the constant 1. The distribution of the (independent) sum of limits is  $P(Z = 0) = 1/4, P(Z = 1) = 1/2, P(Z = 2) = 1/4$ . Since both the distributions are not the same, the statement does not hold.

If interested: Check out Slutsky's Theorem.

## Q5

Let  $\{N_t, t \geq 0\}$  be a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda > 0$ . For  $0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2$  we want the joint pmf of  $(N_{t_1}, N_{t_2})$ .

By the independent increments property the random variables  $N_{t_1}$  and  $N_{t_2} - N_{t_1}$  are independent. Thus for integers  $x, y \geq 0$ ,

$$P(N_{t_1} = x, N_{t_2} = y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < x, \\ P(N_{t_1} = x) P(N_{t_2} - N_{t_1} = y - x), & y \geq x. \end{cases}$$

Now use that  $N_{t_1} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda t_1)$  and  $N_{t_2} - N_{t_1} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda(t_2 - t_1))$ . For  $y \geq x$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} P(N_{t_1} = x, N_{t_2} = y) &= \frac{e^{-\lambda t_1} (\lambda t_1)^x}{x!} \cdot \frac{e^{-\lambda(t_2-t_1)} (\lambda(t_2-t_1))^{y-x}}{(y-x)!} \\ &= e^{-\lambda t_2} \frac{\lambda^y t_1^x (t_2 - t_1)^{y-x}}{x! (y-x)!}. \end{aligned}$$

So the joint pmf is

$$P(N_{t_1} = x, N_{t_2} = y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < x, \\ e^{-\lambda t_2} \frac{\lambda^y t_1^x (t_2 - t_1)^{y-x}}{x! (y-x)!}, & y \geq x, \end{cases}$$

for integers  $x, y \geq 0$ .

## Problem 6

A process is WSS if it satisfies two conditions:

1. The mean function  $\mu_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[X_t]$  is constant.
2. The autocorrelation function  $R_X(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[X_{t_1} X_{t_2}]$  depends only on the time lag  $\tau = t_1 - t_2$ .

Keep in mind that if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, then for functions  $g$  and  $h$ , the random variables  $g(X)$  and  $h(Y)$  are also independent. We compute the mean  $\mu_X(t)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_X(t) &= \mathbb{E}[X_t] = \mathbb{E}[A \cos(\omega_c t + \Theta)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[A] \cdot \mathbb{E}[\cos(\omega_c t + \Theta)] \quad (\text{Since } A \text{ and } \Theta \text{ are independent})\end{aligned}$$

Now, we compute the expectation of the cosine term. Since  $\Theta \sim U[0, 2\pi]$ , its PDF is  $f_\Theta(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\cos(\omega_c t + \Theta)] &= \int_0^{2\pi} \cos(\omega_c t + \theta) \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} [\sin(\omega_c t + \theta)]_0^{2\pi} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} (\sin(\omega_c t + 2\pi) - \sin(\omega_c t + 0)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} (\sin(\omega_c t) - \sin(\omega_c t)) = 0\end{aligned}$$

Substituting this back into the mean function:

$$\mu_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[A] \cdot 0 = 0$$

The mean is constant.

Next, we compute  $R_X(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[X_{t_1} X_{t_2}]$ .

$$\begin{aligned}R_X(t_1, t_2) &= \mathbb{E}[(A \cos(\omega_c t_1 + \Theta))(A \cos(\omega_c t_2 + \Theta))] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[A^2 \cos(\omega_c t_1 + \Theta) \cos(\omega_c t_2 + \Theta)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[A^2] \cdot \mathbb{E}[\cos(\omega_c t_1 + \Theta) \cos(\omega_c t_2 + \Theta)]\end{aligned}$$

We use the following identity

$$\cos(\alpha) \cos(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(\alpha - \beta) + \cos(\alpha + \beta)]$$

The expression simplifies as follows

$$\begin{aligned}&\mathbb{E}[\cos(\omega_c t_1 + \Theta) \cos(\omega_c t_2 + \Theta)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{2} (\cos(\omega_c(t_1 - t_2)) + \cos(\omega_c(t_1 + t_2) + 2\Theta))\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[\cos(\omega_c(t_1 - t_2))] + \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[\cos(\omega_c(t_1 + t_2) + 2\Theta)]\end{aligned}$$

The first term is a constant (dependent only on the time lag). Upon expanding the second term into an integral and solving, we get the following result.

$$\mathbb{E}[\dots] = \frac{1}{2} \cos(\omega_c(t_1 - t_2)) + 0 = \frac{1}{2} \cos(\omega_c(t_1 - t_2))$$

Finally, we get the full autocorrelation function:

$$R_X(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{E}[A^2] \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cos(\omega_c(t_1 - t_2))$$

Let  $\tau = t_1 - t_2$ . The function is:

$$R_X(\tau) = \frac{\mathbb{E}[A^2]}{2} \cos(\omega_c \tau)$$

This function depends only on the time lag  $\tau$ .

Since the mean is constant and the autocorrelation depends only on  $\tau$ ,  $X_t$  is **WSS**.

A process is **SSS** if for any  $k \geq 1$ , any set of time points  $(t_1, \dots, t_k)$ , and any time shift  $h$ , the joint distribution of  $(X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_k})$  is identical to the joint distribution of  $(X_{t_1+h}, \dots, X_{t_k+h})$ .

Let's examine the time-shifted vector  $\mathbf{X}_{t+h}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}_{t+h} &= (X_{t_1+h}, \dots, X_{t_k+h}) \\ &= (A \cos(\omega_c(t_1 + h) + \Theta), \dots, A \cos(\omega_c(t_k + h) + \Theta)) \\ &= (A \cos(\omega_c t_1 + \omega_c h + \Theta), \dots, A \cos(\omega_c t_k + \omega_c h + \Theta)) \end{aligned}$$

Let's define a new random variable  $\Phi = (\omega_c h + \Theta) \pmod{2\pi}$ . Since  $\Theta$  is uniformly distributed over  $[0, 2\pi]$ , adding any constant  $\omega_c h$  and taking modulo  $2\pi$  results in a new random variable  $\Phi$  that is *also* uniformly distributed over  $[0, 2\pi]$ . So,  $\Phi$  and  $\Theta$  have the exact same distribution (they are identically distributed). Since  $A$  and  $\Theta$  are independent,  $A$  and  $\Phi$  are also independent.

We can now write the shifted vector  $\mathbf{X}_{t+h}$  in terms of  $\Phi$ :

$$\mathbf{X}_{t+h} = (A \cos(\omega_c t_1 + \Phi), \dots, A \cos(\omega_c t_k + \Phi))$$

Compare this to the original vector  $\mathbf{X}_t$ :

$$\mathbf{X}_t = (A \cos(\omega_c t_1 + \Theta), \dots, A \cos(\omega_c t_k + \Theta))$$

Since  $A$  is the same in both expressions, and  $\Theta$  and  $\Phi$  are identically distributed and independent of  $A$ , the two vectors  $\mathbf{X}_t$  and  $\mathbf{X}_{t+h}$  must have the same joint probability distribution.

This holds true for any  $k$  and any  $h$ . Thus, this is an **SSS** process!

**Problem 7.** Consider a WSS process  $X_t$  with autocorrelation  $R_X(\tau) = e^{-a|\tau|}$ , where  $a > 0$ , for all  $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$ . Find the power spectral density of  $X_t$ .

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**Solution:**

$$\begin{aligned}
S_X(\omega) &= \mathcal{F}\{R_X(\tau)\} \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_X(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-a|\tau|} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-a(-\tau)} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-a\tau} e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{(a-j\omega)\tau} d\tau + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(a+j\omega)\tau} d\tau \\
&= \left[ \frac{e^{(a-j\omega)\tau}}{a-j\omega} \right]_{-\infty}^0 + \left[ \frac{e^{-(a+j\omega)\tau}}{-(a+j\omega)} \right]_0^{\infty} \\
&= \left( \frac{e^0}{a-j\omega} - \lim_{\tau \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{e^{(a-j\omega)\tau}}{a-j\omega} \right) + \left( \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-(a+j\omega)\tau}}{-(a+j\omega)} - \frac{e^0}{-(a+j\omega)} \right) \\
&= \left( \frac{1}{a-j\omega} - 0 \right) + \left( 0 - \frac{1}{-(a+j\omega)} \right) \quad (\text{since } a > 0) \\
&= \frac{1}{a-j\omega} + \frac{1}{a+j\omega} \\
&= \frac{(a+j\omega) + (a-j\omega)}{(a-j\omega)(a+j\omega)} \\
&= \frac{2a}{a^2 - (j\omega)^2} \\
&= \frac{2a}{a^2 + \omega^2}
\end{aligned}$$

$$S_X(\omega) = \frac{2a}{a^2 + \omega^2}$$