Searching for Universal Truths Measure-theoretic Treatment of Statistics

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Navigating Mathematical and Statistical Territories

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Notations

- sets of numbers
 - N set of natural numbers
 - Z set of integers
 - Z₊ set of nonnegative integers
 - **Q** set of rational numbers
 - R set of real numbers
 - R_+ set of nonnegative real numbers
 - R_{++} set of positive real numbers
 - C set of complex numbers
- sequences $\langle x_i \rangle$ and the like
 - finite $\langle x_i \rangle_{i=1}^n$, infinite $\langle x_i \rangle_{i=1}^\infty$ use $\langle x_i \rangle$ whenever unambiguously understood
 - similarly for other operations, e.g., $\sum x_i$, $\prod x_i$, $\cup A_i$, $\cap A_i$, $\times A_i$
 - similarly for integrals, e.g., $\int f$ for $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$
- sets
 - $ilde{A}$ complement of A

- $A \sim B$ $A \cap \tilde{B}$
- $-A\Delta B (A\cap \tilde{B}) \cup (\tilde{A}\cap B)$
- $\mathcal{P}(A)$ set of all subsets of A
- sets in metric vector spaces
 - $-\overline{A}$ closure of set A
 - $-A^{\circ}$ interior of set A
 - relint A relative interior of set A
 - $\operatorname{bd} A$ boundary of set A
- set algebra
 - $-\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{A} , *i.e.*, smallest σ -algebra containing \mathcal{A}
- norms in \mathbb{R}^n
 - $||x||_p \ (p \ge 1)$ p-norm of $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$, i.e., $(|x_1|^p + \cdots + |x_n|^p)^{1/p}$
 - e.g., $||x||_2$ Euclidean norm
- matrices and vectors
 - a_i i-th entry of vector a
 - A_{ij} entry of matrix A at position (i,j), i.e., entry in i-th row and j-th column
 - $\mathbf{Tr}(A)$ trace of $A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$, i.e., $A_{1,1} + \cdots + A_{n,n}$

symmetric, positive definite, and positive semi-definite matrices

- $\mathbf{S}^n \subset \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ set of symmetric matrices
- $\mathbf{S}^n_+ \subset \mathbf{S}^n$ set of positive semi-definite matrices; $A \succeq 0 \Leftrightarrow A \in \mathbf{S}^n_+$
- $-\mathbf{S}_{++}^n\subset\mathbf{S}^n$ set of positive definite matrices; $A\succ 0\Leftrightarrow A\in\mathbf{S}_{++}^n$
- sometimes, use Python script-like notations (with serious abuse of mathematical notations)
 - use $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ as if it were $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$, e.g.,

$$\exp(x) = (\exp(x_1), \dots, \exp(x_n))$$
 for $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$

and

$$\log(x) = (\log(x_1), \dots, \log(x_n)) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbf{R}_{++}^n$$

which corresponds to Python code numpy.exp(x) or numpy.log(x) where x is instance of numpy.ndarray, i.e., numpy array

- use $\sum x$ to mean $\mathbf{1}^T x$ for $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$, *i.e.*

$$\sum x = x_1 + \dots + x_n$$

which corresponds to Python code x.sum() where x is numpy array

- use x/y for $x, y \in \mathbf{R}^n$ to mean

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1/y_1 & \cdots & x_n/y_n \end{bmatrix}^T$$

which corresponds to Python code x / y where x and y are 1-d numpy arrays – use X/Y for $X,Y\in \mathbf{R}^{m\times n}$ to mean

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_{1,1}/Y_{1,1} & X_{1,2}/Y_{1,2} & \cdots & X_{1,n}/Y_{1,n} \\ X_{2,1}/Y_{2,1} & X_{2,2}/Y_{2,2} & \cdots & X_{2,n}/Y_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{m,1}/Y_{m,1} & X_{m,2}/Y_{m,2} & \cdots & X_{m,n}/Y_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

which corresponds to Python code $X \ / \ Y$ where X and Y are 2-d numpy arrays

Some definitions

Definition 1. [infinitely often - i.o.] statement P_n , said to happen infinitely often or i.o. if

$$(\forall N \in \mathbf{N}) (\exists n > N) (P_n)$$

Definition 2. [almost everywhere - a.e.] statement P(x), said to happen almost everywhere or a.e. or almost surely or a.s. (depending on context) associated with measure space (X, \mathcal{B}, μ) if

$$\mu\{x|P(x)\} = 1$$

or equivalently

$$\mu\{x| \sim P(x)\} = 0$$

Some conventions

• (for some subjects) use following conventions

$$-0\cdot\infty=\infty\cdot0=0$$

$$- (\forall x \in \mathbf{R}_{++})(x \cdot \infty = \infty \cdot x = \infty)$$

$$-\infty\cdot\infty=\infty$$

Measure-theoretic Treatment of Probabilities



Measurable functions

- denote n-dimensional Borel sets by \mathcal{R}^n
- for two measurable spaces, (Ω, \mathscr{F}) and (Ω', \mathscr{F}') , function, $f: \Omega \to \Omega'$ with

$$(\forall A' \in \mathscr{F}') \left(f^{-1}(A') \in \mathscr{F} \right)$$

said to be *measurable with respect to* \mathscr{F}/\mathscr{F}' (thus, measurable functions defined on page ?? and page ?? can be said to be measurable with respect to \mathcal{B}/\mathscr{R})

- when $\Omega = \mathbf{R}^n$ in (Ω, \mathscr{F}) , \mathscr{F} is assumed to be \mathscr{R}^n , and sometimes drop \mathscr{R}^n – thus, e.g., we say $f: \Omega \to \mathbf{R}^n$ is measurable with respect to \mathscr{F} (instead of $\mathscr{F}/\mathscr{R}^n$)
- measurable function, $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ (i.e., measurable with respect to $\mathscr{R}^n/\mathscr{R}^m$), called Borel functions
- $f: \Omega \to \mathbf{R}^n$ is measurable with respect to $\mathscr{F}/\mathscr{R}^n$ if and only if every component, $f_i: \Omega \to \mathbf{R}$, is measurable with respect to \mathscr{F}/\mathscr{R}

Probability (measure) spaces

• set function, $P: \mathscr{F} \to [0,1]$, defined on algebra, \mathscr{F} , of set Ω , satisfying following properties, called *probability measure* (refer to page **??** for resumblance with measurable spaces)

- $(\forall A \in \mathscr{F})(0 \le P(A) \le 1)$
- $-P(\emptyset) = 0, P(\Omega) = 1$
- $(\forall \text{ disjoint } \langle A_n \rangle \subset \mathscr{F})(P(\bigcup A_n) = \sum P(A_n))$
- for σ -algebra, \mathscr{F} , (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P) , called *probability measure space* or *probability space*
- set $A \in \mathscr{F}$ with P(A) = 1, called a support of P

Dynkin's π - λ theorem

• class, \mathcal{P} , of subsets of Ω closed under finite intersection, called π -system, i.e.,

$$- (\forall A, B \in \mathcal{P})(A \cap B \in \mathcal{P})$$

- class, \mathcal{L} , of subsets of Ω containing Ω closed under complements and countable disjoint unions called λ -system
 - $-\Omega \in \mathcal{L}$
 - $(\forall A \in \mathcal{L})(\tilde{A} \in \mathcal{L})$
 - $(\forall \text{ disjoint } \langle A_n \rangle)(\bigcup A_n \in \mathcal{L})$
- class that is both π -system and λ -system is σ -algebra
- Dynkin's π - λ theorem for π -system, \mathcal{P} , and λ -system, \mathcal{L} , with $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{L}$,

$$\sigma(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{L}$$

• for π -system, \mathscr{P} , two probability measures, P_1 and P_2 , on $\sigma(\mathscr{P})$, agreeing \mathscr{P} , agree on $\sigma(\mathscr{P})$

Limits of Events

Theorem 1. [convergence-of-events] no for sequence of subsets, $\langle A_n \rangle$,

$$P(\liminf A_n) \le \liminf P(A_n) \le \limsup P(A_n) \le P(\limsup A_n)$$

- for $\langle A_n \rangle$ converging to A

$$\lim P(A_n) = P(A)$$

Theorem 2. [independence-of-smallest-sig-alg] no for sequence of π -systems, $\langle \mathscr{A}_n \rangle$, $\langle \sigma(\mathscr{A}_n) \rangle$ is independent

Probabilistic independence

- given probability space, (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P)
- $A, B \in \mathscr{F}$ with

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

said to be independent

• indexed collection, $\langle A_{\lambda} \rangle$, with

$$(\forall n \in \mathbf{N}, \text{ distinct } \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \Lambda) \left(P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_{\lambda_i}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_{\lambda_i}) \right)$$

said to be independent

Independence of classes of events

• indexed collection, $\langle A_{\lambda} \rangle$, of classes of events (*i.e.*, subsets) with

$$(\forall A_{\lambda} \in \mathcal{A}_{\lambda}) (\langle A_{\lambda} \rangle \text{ are independent})$$

said to be independent

- for independent indexed collection, $\langle A_{\lambda} \rangle$, with every A_{λ} being π -sytem, $\langle \sigma(A_{\lambda}) \rangle$ are independent
- for independent (countable) collection of events, $\langle \langle A_{ni} \rangle_{i=1}^{\infty} \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\langle \mathscr{F}_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ with $\mathscr{F}_n = \sigma(\langle A_{ni} \rangle_{i=1}^{\infty})$ are independent

Borel-Cantelli lemmas

• Lemma 1. [first Borel-Cantelli] for sequence of events, $\langle A_n \rangle$, with $\sum P(A_n)$ converging

$$P(\limsup A_n) = 0$$

• Lemma 2. [second Borel-Cantelli] for independent sequence of events, $\langle A_n \rangle$, with $\sum P(A_n)$ diverging

$$P(\limsup A_n) = 1$$

Tail events and Kolmogorov's zero-one law

ullet for sequence of events, $\langle A_n \rangle$

$$\mathscr{T} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma\left(\langle A_i \rangle_{i=n}^{\infty}\right)$$

called tail σ -algebra associated with $\langle A_n \rangle$; its lements are called tail events

• Kolmogorov's zero-one law - for independent sequence of events, $\langle A_n \rangle$ every event in tail σ -algebra has probability measure either 0 or 1

Product probability spaces

ullet for two measure spaces, (X, \mathcal{X}, μ) and (Y, \mathcal{Y}, ν) , want to find product measure, π , such that

$$(\forall A \in \mathcal{X}, B \in \mathcal{Y}) (\pi(A \times B) = \mu(A)\nu(B))$$

- e.g., if both μ and u are Lebesgue measure on ${f R}$, π will be Lebesgue measure on ${f R}^2$
- $A \times B$ for $A \in \mathcal{X}$ and $B \in \mathcal{Y}$ is measurable rectangle
- \bullet σ -algebra generated by measurable rectangles denoted by

$$\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$$

- thus, not Cartesian product in usual sense
- generally *much larger* than class of measurable rectangles

Sections of measurable subsets and functions

for two measure spaces, (X, \mathcal{X}, μ) and (Y, \mathcal{Y}, ν)

- sections of measurable subsets
 - $\{y \in Y | (x, y) \in E\}$ is section of E determined by x
 - $\{x \in X | (x,y) \in E\}$ is section of E determined by y
- ullet sections of measurable functions for measurable function, f, with respect to $\mathscr{X} imes \mathscr{Y}$
 - $f(x,\cdot)$ is section of f determined by x
 - $f(\cdot,y)$ is section of f determined by y
- sections of measurable subsets are measurable
 - $(\forall x \in X, E \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}) (\{y \in Y | (x, y) \in E\} \in \mathcal{Y})$
 - $(\forall y \in Y, E \in \mathscr{X} \times \mathscr{Y}) (\{x \in X | (x, y) \in E\} \in \mathscr{X})$
- sections of measurable functions are measurable
 - $-f(x,\cdot)$ is measurable with respect to $\mathscr Y$ for every $x\in X$
 - $f(\cdot,y)$ is measurable with respect to $\mathscr X$ for every $y\in Y$

Product measure

for two σ -finite measure spaces, (X,\mathscr{X},μ) and (Y,\mathscr{Y},ν)

• two functions defined below for every $E \in \mathscr{X} \times \mathscr{Y}$ are σ -finite measures

$$- \pi'(E) = \int_X \nu\{y \in Y | (x, y) \in E\} d\mu$$

$$-\pi''(E) = \int_{Y} \mu\{x \in X | (x, y) \in E\} d\nu$$

ullet for every measurable rectangle, $A \times B$, with $A \in \mathscr{X}$ and $B \in \mathscr{Y}$

$$\pi'(A \times B) = \pi''(A \times B) = \mu(A)\nu(B)$$

(use conventions in page 7 for extended real values)

- indeed, $\pi'(E) = \pi''(E)$ for every $E \in \mathscr{X} \times \mathscr{Y}$; let $\pi = \pi' = \pi''$
- \bullet π is
 - called *product measure* and denoted by $\mu \times \nu$
 - $-\sigma$ -finite measure
 - only measure such that $\pi(A \times B) = \mu(A)\nu(B)$ for every measurable rectangle

Fubini's theorem

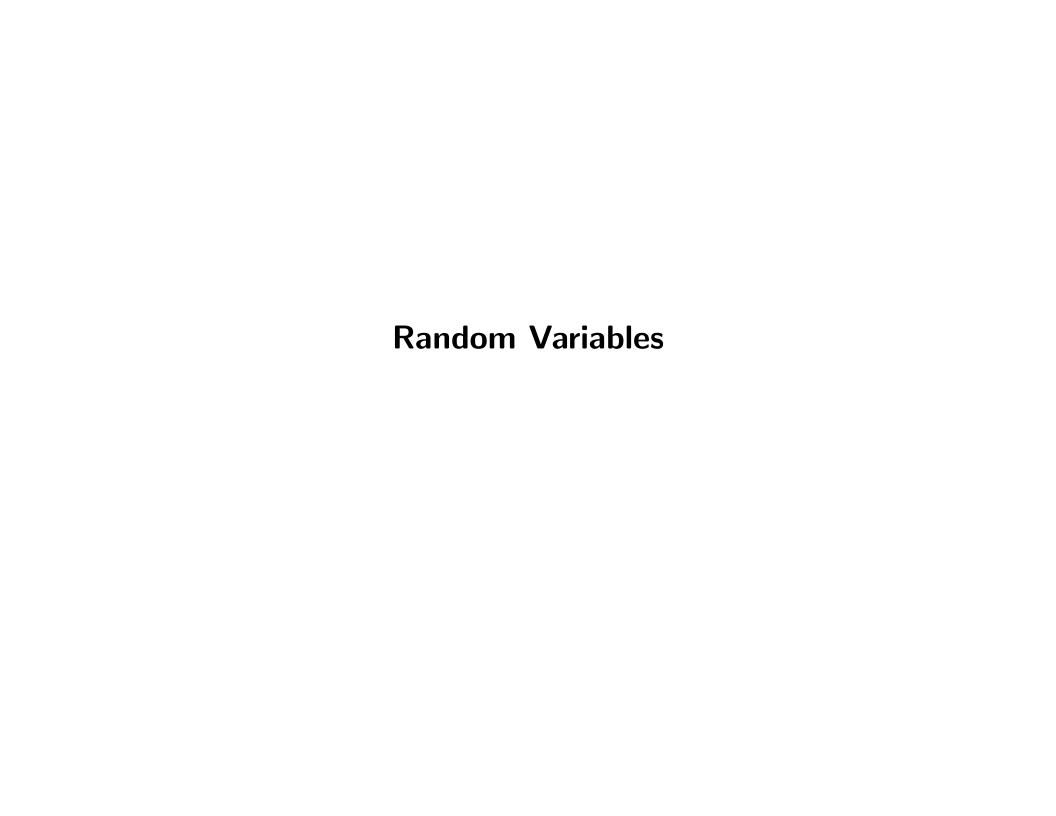
- ullet suppose two σ -finite measure spaces, (X,\mathscr{X},μ) and (Y,\mathscr{Y},ν) define
 - $-X_0 = \{x \in X | \int_V |f(x,y)| d\nu < \infty\} \subset X$
 - $-Y_0 = \{ y \in Y | \int_X |f(x,y)| d\nu < \infty \} \subset Y$
- Fubini's theorem for nonnegative measurable function, f, following are measurable with respect to $\mathscr X$ and $\mathscr Y$ respectively

$$g(x) = \int_{Y} f(x, y) d\nu, \quad h(y) = \int_{X} f(x, y) d\mu$$

and following holds

$$\int_{X\times Y} f(x,y) d\pi = \int_X \left(\int_Y f(x,y) d\nu \right) d\mu = \int_Y \left(\int_X f(x,y) d\mu \right) d\nu$$

- for f, (not necessarily nonnegative) integrable function with respect to π
 - $-\mu(X \sim X_0) = 0, \ \nu(Y \sim Y_0) = 0$
 - g and h are finite measurable on X_0 and Y_0 respectively
 - (above) equalities of double integral holds



Random variables

- for probability space, (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,
- measurable function (with respect to \mathscr{F}/\mathscr{R}), $X:\Omega\to \mathbf{R}$, called random variable
- measurable function (with respect to $\mathscr{F}/\mathscr{R}^n$), $X:\Omega\to \mathbf{R}^n$, called random vector
 - when expressing $X(\omega)=(X_1(\omega),\ldots,X_n(\omega))$, X is measurable if and only if every X_i is measurable
 - thus, n-dimensional random vaector is simply n-tuple of random variables
- ullet smallest σ -algebra with respect to which X is measurable, called σ -algebra generated by X and denoted by $\sigma(X)$
 - $\sigma(X)$ consists exactly of sets, $\{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) \in H\}$, for $H \in \mathcal{R}^n$
 - random variable, Y, is measurable with respect to $\sigma(X)$ if and only if exists measurable function, $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ such that $Y(\omega) = f(X(\omega))$ for all ω , i.e., $Y = f \circ X$

Probability distributions for random variables

• probability measure on **R**, $\mu = PX^{-1}$, *i.e.*,

$$\mu(A) = P(X \in A) \text{ for } A \in \mathcal{R}$$

called *distribution* or *law* of random variable, X

ullet function, $F: \mathbf{R} \to [0,1]$, defined by

$$F(x) = \mu(-\infty, x] = P(X \le x)$$

called distribution function or cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X

- Borel set, S, with P(S) = 1, called *support*
- random variable, its distribution, its distribution function, said to be discrete when has countable support

Probability distribution of mappings of random variables

• for measurable $g: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$,

$$(\forall A \in \mathscr{R}) \left(\mathbf{Prob} \left(g(X) \in A \right) = \mathbf{Prob} \left(X \in g^{-1}(A) \right) = \mu(g^{-1}(A)) \right)$$

hence, g(X) has distribution of μg^{-1}

Probability density for random variables

ullet Borel function, $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}_+$, satisfying

$$(\forall A \in \mathcal{R}) \left(\mu(A) = P(X \in A) = \int_A f(x) dx \right)$$

called *density* or *probability density function (PDF)* of random variable

above is equivalent to

$$(\forall a < b \in \mathbf{R}) \left(\int_a^b f(x) dx = P(a < X \le b) = F(b) - F(a) \right)$$

(refer to statement on page 12)

- note, though, ${\cal F}$ does not need to differentiate to f everywhere; only f required to integrate properly
- if F does differentiate to f and f is continuous, fundamental theorem of calculus implies f indeed is density for F

Probability distribution for random vectors

ullet (similarly to random variables) probability measure on ${f R}^n$, $\mu=PX^{-1}$, i.e.,

$$\mu(A) = P(X \in A) \text{ for } A \in \mathscr{B}^k$$

called *distribution* or *law* of random vector, X

• function, $F: \mathbf{R}^k \to [0,1]$, defined by

$$F(x) = \mu S_x = P(X \leq x)$$

where

$$S_x = \{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) \leq x\} = \{\omega \in \Omega | X_i(\omega) \leq x_i\}$$

called distribution function or cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X

• (similarly to random variables) random vector, its distribution, its distribution function, said to be *discrete* when has *countable* support

Marginal distribution for random vectors

• (similarly to random variables) for measurable $g: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$

$$(\forall A \in \mathscr{R}^m) \left(\mathbf{Prob} \left(g(X) \in A \right) = \mathbf{Prob} \left(X \in g^{-1}(A) \right) = \mu(g^{-1}(A)) \right)$$

hence, g(X) has distribution of μg^{-1}

• for $g_i: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ with $g_i(x) = x_i$

$$(\forall A \in \mathcal{R}) (\mathbf{Prob} (g(X) \in A) = \mathbf{Prob} (X_i \in A))$$

- measure, μ_i , defined by $\mu_i(A) = \operatorname{Prob}(X_i \in A)$, called *(i-th) marginal distribution* of X
- ullet for μ having density function, $f: {f R}^n o {f R}_+$, density function of marginal distribution is

$$f_i(x) = \int_{\Re^{n-1}} f(x_{-i}) d\mu_{-i}$$

where $x_{-i}=(x_1,\ldots,x_{i-1},x_{i+1},\ldots,x_n)$ and similarly for $d\mu_{-i}$

Independence of random variables

• random variables, X_1, \ldots, X_n , with independent σ -algebras generated by them, said to be *independent*

(refer to page 15 for independence of collections of subsets)

- because $\sigma(X_i) = X_i^{-1}(\mathscr{R}) = \{X_i^{-1}(H) | H \in \mathscr{R}\}$, independent if and only if

$$(\forall H_1,\ldots,H_n\in\mathscr{R})\ \Big(P(X_1\in H_1,\ldots,X_n\in H_n)=\prod P(X_i\in H_i)\Big)$$

i.e.,

$$(\forall H_1, \dots, H_n \in \mathcal{R}) \left(P\left(\bigcap X_i^{-1}(H_i)\right) = \prod P\left(X_i^{-1}(H_i)\right) \right)$$

Equivalent statements of independence of random variables

• for random variables, X_1, \ldots, X_n , having μ and $F: \mathbf{R}^n \to [0,1]$ as their distribution and CDF, with each X_i having μ_i and $F_i: \mathbf{R} \to [0,1]$ as its distribution and CDF, following statements are equivalent

```
- X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent
```

$$- (\forall H_1, \dots, H_n \in \mathcal{R}) \left(P \left(\bigcap X_i^{-1}(H_i) \right) = \prod P \left(X_i^{-1}(H_i) \right) \right)$$

$$- (\forall H_1, \ldots, H_n \in \mathcal{R}) (P(X_1 \in H_1, \ldots, X_n \in H_n) = \prod P(X_i \in H_i))$$

$$- (\forall x \in \mathbf{R}^n) (P(X_1 \le x_1, \dots, X_n \le x_n) = \prod P(X_i \le x_i))$$

$$- (\forall x \in \mathbf{R}^n) (F(x) = \prod F_i(x_i))$$

$$-\mu = \mu_1 \times \cdots \times \mu_n$$

$$- (\forall x \in \mathbf{R}^n) (f(x) = \prod f_i(x_i))$$

Independence of random variables with separate σ -algebra

- given probability space, (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)
- random variables, X_1, \ldots, X_n , each of which is measurable with respect to each of n independent σ -algebras, $\mathscr{G}_1 \subset \mathscr{F}$, ..., $\mathscr{G}_n \subset \mathscr{F}$ respectively, are independent

Independence of random vectors

• for random vectors, $X_1:\Omega\to \mathbf{R}^{d_1},\ldots,X_n:\Omega\to \mathbf{R}^{d_n}$, having μ and $F:\mathbf{R}^{d_1}\times\cdots\times\mathbf{R}^{d_n}\to[0,1]$ as their distribution and CDF, with each X_i having μ_i and $F_i:\mathbf{R}^{d_i}\to[0,1]$ as its distribution and CDF, following statements are equivalent

-
$$X_1, \ldots, X_n$$
 are independent

$$- \left(\forall H_1 \in \mathcal{R}^{d_1}, \dots, H_n \in \mathcal{R}^{d_n} \right) \left(P \left(\bigcap X_i^{-1}(H_i) \right) = \prod P \left(X_i^{-1}(H_i) \right) \right)$$

-
$$(\forall H_1 \in \mathcal{R}^{d_1}, \dots, H_n \in \mathcal{R}^{d_n}) (P(X_1 \in H_1, \dots, X_n \in H_n) = \prod P(X_i \in H_i))$$

$$- \left(\forall x_1 \in \mathbf{R}^{d_1}, \dots, x_n \in \mathbf{R}^{d_n} \right) \left(P(X_1 \leq x_1, \dots, X_n \leq x_n) = \prod P(X_i \leq x_i) \right)$$

$$-\left(\forall x_1 \in \mathbf{R}^{d_1}, \dots, x_n \in \mathbf{R}^{d_n}\right) \left(F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod F_i(x_i)\right)$$

$$-\mu = \mu_1 \times \cdots \times \mu_n$$

$$-\left(\forall x_1 \in \mathbf{R}^{d_1}, \dots, x_n \in \mathbf{R}^{d_n}\right) \left(f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod f_i(x_i)\right)$$

Independence of infinite collection of random vectors

• infinite collection of random vectors for which every finite subcollection is independent, said to be *independent*

• for independent (countable) collection of random vectors, $\langle\langle X_{ni}\rangle_{i=1}^{\infty}\rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\langle\mathscr{F}_{n}\rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ with $\mathscr{F}_{n}=\sigma(\langle X_{ni}\rangle_{i=1}^{\infty})$ are independent

Probability evaluation for two independent random vectors

Theorem 3. [Probability evaluation for two independent random vectors] for independent random vectors, X and Y, with distributions, μ and ν , in \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{R}^m respectively

$$\left(\forall B \in \mathscr{R}^{n+m}\right) \left(\operatorname{Prob}\left((X,Y) \in B\right) = \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} \operatorname{Prob}\left((x,Y) \in B\right) d\mu_X\right)$$

and

$$\left(\forall A \in \mathcal{R}^n, B \in \mathcal{R}^{n+m}\right)$$

$$\left(\operatorname{Prob}\left(X \in A, (X, Y) \in B\right) = \int_A \operatorname{Prob}\left((x, Y) \in B\right) d\mu_X\right)$$

Sequence of random variables

Theorem 4. [squence of random variables] for sequence of probability measures on \mathscr{R} , $\langle \mu_n \rangle$, exists probability space, (X, Ω, P) , and sequence of independent random variables in \mathbf{R} , $\langle X_n \rangle$, such that each X_n has μ_n as distribution

Expected values

Definition 3. [expected values] for random variable, X, on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , integral of X with respect to measure, P

$$\mathbf{E} X = \int X dP = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) dP$$

called expected value of X

- \bullet E X is
 - always defined for nonnegative X
 - for general case
 - defined, or
 - X has an expected value if either ${\bf E}\,X^+<\infty$ or ${\bf E}\,X^-<\infty$ or both, in which case, ${\bf E}\,X={\bf E}\,X^+-{\bf E}\,X^-$
- ullet X is integrable if and only if $\mathbf{E} |X| < \infty$
- limits
 - if $\langle X_n \rangle$ is dominated by integral random variable or they are uniformly integrable, $\mathbf{E} X_n$ converges to $\mathbf{E} X$ if X_n converges to X in probability

Markov and Chebyshev's inequalities

Inequality 1. [Markov inequality] for random variable, X, on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

$$\mathbf{Prob}\left(X\geq\alpha\right)\leq\frac{1}{\alpha}\int_{X>\alpha}XdP\leq\frac{1}{\alpha}\,\mathbf{E}\,X$$

for nonnegative X, hence

$$\mathbf{Prob}\left(|X| \geq \alpha\right) \leq \frac{1}{\alpha^n} \int_{|X| > \alpha} |X|^n dP \leq \frac{1}{\alpha^n} \mathbf{E} \left|X\right|^n$$

for general X

Inequality 2. [Chebyshev's inequality] as special case of Markov inequality,

$$\mathbf{Prob}\left(|X - \mathbf{E}\,X| \geq \alpha\right) \leq \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \int_{|X - \mathbf{E}\,X| > \alpha} (X - \mathbf{E}\,X)^2 dP \leq \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \, \mathbf{Var}\,X$$

for general X

Jensen's, Hölder's, and Lyapunov's inequalities

Inequality 3. [Jensen's inequality] for random variable, X, on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , and convex function, φ

$$\varphi\left(\mathbf{E}\,X\right)\mathbf{Prob}\left(X\geq\alpha\right)\leq\frac{1}{\alpha}\int_{X>\alpha}XdP\leq\frac{1}{\alpha}\,\mathbf{E}\,X$$

Inequality 4. [Holder's inequality] for two random variables, X and Y, on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , and $p, q \in (1, \infty)$ with 1/p + 1/q = 1

$$\mathbf{E}\left|XY\right| \le \left(\mathbf{E}\left|X\right|^{p}\right)^{1/p} \left(\mathbf{E}\left|X\right|^{q}\right)^{1/q}$$

Inequality 5. [Lyapunov's inequality] for random variable, X, on (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P) , and $0 < \alpha < \beta$

$$\left(\mathbf{E}\left|X\right|^{\alpha}\right)^{1/\alpha} \le \left(\mathbf{E}\left|X\right|^{\beta}\right)^{1/\beta}$$

note Hölder's inequality implies Lyapunov's inequality

Maximal inequalities

Theorem 5. [Kolmogorov's zero-one law] if $A \in \mathscr{F} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, \ldots)$ for independent $\langle X_n \rangle$,

$$\mathbf{Prob}(A) = 0 \vee \mathbf{Prob}(A) = 1$$

– define $S_n = \sum X_i$

Inequality 6. [Kolmogorov's maximal inequality] for independent $\langle X_i \rangle_{i=1}^n$ with $\mathbf{E} X_i = 0$ and $\mathbf{Var} X_i < \infty$ and $\alpha > 0$

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left(\max S_i \geq \alpha\right) \leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \operatorname{Var} S_n$$

Inequality 7. [Etemadi's maximal inequality] for independent $\langle X_i \rangle_{i=1}^n$ and $\alpha > 0$

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left(\max|S_i|\geq 3\alpha\right)\leq 3\max\operatorname{Prob}\left(|S_i|\geq \alpha\right)$$

Moments

Definition 4. [moments and absolute moments] for random variable, X, on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , integral of X with respect to measure, P

$$\mathbf{E} X^n = \int x^k d\mu = \int x^k dF(x)$$

called k-th moment of X or μ or F, and

$$\mathbf{E} |X|^n = \int |x|^k d\mu = \int |x|^k dF(x)$$

called k-th absolute moment of X or μ or F

- if $\mathbf{E} |X|^n < \infty$, $\mathbf{E} |X|^k < \infty$ for k < n
- $\mathbf{E} X^n$ defined only when $\mathbf{E} |X|^n < \infty$

Moment generating functions

Definition 5. [moment generating function] for random variable, X, on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , $M: \mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{C}$ defined by

$$M(s) = \mathbf{E}\left(e^{sX}\right) = \int e^{sx} d\mu = \int e^{sx} dF(x)$$

called moment generating function of X

- n-th derivative of M with respect to s is $M^{(n)}(s)=\frac{d^n}{ds^n}F(s)=\mathbf{E}\left(X^ne^{sX}\right)=\int xe^{sx}d\mu$
- ullet thus, n-th derivative of M with respect to s at s=0 is n-th moment of X

$$M^{(n)}(0) = \mathbf{E} X^n$$

ullet for independent random variables, $\langle X_i \rangle_{i=1}^n$, moment generating function of $\sum X_i$

$$\prod M_i(s)$$

Convergence of Random Variables

Convergences of random variables

Definition 6. [convergence with probability 1] random variables, $\langle X_n \rangle$, with

Prob (
$$\lim X_n = X$$
) = $P(\{\omega \in \Omega | \lim X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}) = 1$

said to converge to X with probability 1 and denoted by $X_n \to X$ a.s.

Definition 7. [convergence in probability] random variables, $\langle X_n \rangle$, with

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) (\lim \mathbf{Prob} (|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0)$$

said to converge to X in probability

Definition 8. [weak convergence] distribution functions, $\langle F_n \rangle$, with

$$(\forall x \text{ in domain of } F) (\lim F_n(x) = F(x))$$

said to converge weakly to distribution function, F, and denoted by $F_n \Rightarrow F$

Definition 9. [converge in distribution] When $F_n \Rightarrow F$, associated random variables, $\langle X_n \rangle$, said to converge in distribution to X, associated with F, and denoted by $X_n \Rightarrow X$

Definition 10. [weak convergence of measures] for measures on $(\mathbf{R}, \mathcal{R})$, $\langle \mu_n \rangle$, associated with distribution functions, $\langle F_n \rangle$, respectively, and measure on $(\mathbf{R}, \mathcal{R})$, μ , associated with distribution function, F, we denote

$$\mu_n \Rightarrow \mu$$

if

$$(\forall A = (-\infty, x] \text{ with } x \in \mathbf{R}) (\lim \mu_n(A) = \mu(A))$$

ullet indeed, if above equation holds for $A=(-\infty,x)$, it holds for many other subsets

Relations of different types of convergences of random variables

Proposition 1. [relations of convergence of random variables] convergence with probability 1 implies convergence in probability, which implies $X_n \Rightarrow X$, i.e.

 $X_n \to X$ a.s., i.e., X_n converge to X with probability 1

 \Rightarrow X_n converge to X in probability

 $\Rightarrow X_n \Rightarrow X$, i.e., X_n converge to X in distribution,

Necessary and sufficient conditions for convergence of probability

 X_n converge in probability

if and only if

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) (\mathbf{Prob} (|X_n - X| > \epsilon \text{ i.o}) = \mathbf{Prob} (\limsup |X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0)$$

if and only if

$$\left(\forall \text{ subsequence } \left\langle X_{n_k} \right\rangle\right)$$

$$\left(\exists \text{ its subsequence } \left\langle X_{n_{k_l}} \right\rangle \text{ converging to } f \text{ with probability } 1\right)$$

Necessary and sufficient conditions for convergence in distribution

$$X_n \Rightarrow X$$
, *i.e.*, X_n converge in distribution

if and only if

$$F_n \Rightarrow F, i.e., F_n$$
 converge weakly

if and only if

$$(\forall A = (-\infty, x] \text{ with } x \in \mathbf{R}) (\lim \mu_n(A) = \mu(A))$$

if and only if

$$(\forall x \text{ with } \mathbf{Prob} (X = x) = 0) (\lim \mathbf{Prob} (X_n \leq x) = \mathbf{Prob} (X \leq x))$$

Strong law of large numbers

- define
$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Theorem 6. [strong law of large numbers] for sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with finite mean, $\langle X_n \rangle$

$$\frac{1}{n}S_n \to \mathbf{E}\,X_1$$

with probability 1

• strong law of large numbers also called Kolmogorov's law

Corollary 1. [strong law of large numbers] for sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with $\mathbf{E} X_1^- < \infty$ and $\mathbf{E} X_1^+ = \infty$ (hence, $\mathbf{E} X = \infty$)

$$\frac{1}{n}S_n \to \infty$$

with probability 1

Weak law of large numbers

- define
$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Theorem 7. [weak law of large numbers] for sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with finite mean, $\langle X_n \rangle$

$$\frac{1}{n}S_n \to \mathbf{E}\,X_1$$

in probability

• because convergence with probability 1 implies convergence in probability (Proposition 1), strong law of large numbers implies weak law of large numbers

Normal distributions

– assume probability space, (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

Definition 11. [normal distributions] Random variable, $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, with

$$(A \in \mathcal{R}) \left(\mathbf{Prob} \left(X \in A \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \int_{A} e^{-(x-c)^{2}/2} d\mu \right)$$

where $\mu = PX^{-1}$ for some $\sigma > 0$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, called normal distribution and denoted by $X \sim \mathcal{N}(c, \sigma^2)$

- note $\mathbf{E} X = c$ and $\mathbf{Var} X = \sigma^2$
- called standard normal distribution when c=0 and $\sigma=1$

Multivariate normal distributions

– assume probability space, (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P)

Definition 12. [multivariate normal distributions] Random variable, $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$, with

$$(A \in \mathcal{R}^n) \left(\mathbf{Prob} \left(X \in A \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n} \sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \int_A e^{-(x-c)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-c)/2} d\mu \right)$$

where $\mu = PX^{-1}$ for some $\Sigma \succ 0 \in \mathbf{S}^n_{++}$ and $c \in \mathbf{R}^n$, called (n-dimensional) normal distribution, and denoted by $X \sim \mathcal{N}(c, \Sigma)$

- note that $\mathbf{E} X = c$ and covariance matrix is Σ

Lindeberg-Lévy theorem

- define
$$S_n = \sum^n X_i$$

Theorem 8. [Lindeberg-Levy theorem] for independent random variables, $\langle X_n \rangle$, having same distribution with expected value, c, and same variance, $\sigma^2 < \infty$, $(S_n - nc)/\sigma\sqrt{n}$ converges to standard normal distribution in distribution, i.e.,

$$\frac{S_n - nc}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \Rightarrow N$$

where N is standard normal distribution

Theorem 8 implies

$$S_n/n \Rightarrow c$$

Limit theorems in R^n

Theorem 9. [equivalent statements to weak convergence] each of following statements are equivalent to weak convergence of measures, $\langle \mu_n \rangle$, to μ , on measurable space, $(\mathbf{R}^k, \mathscr{R}^k)$

- ullet $\lim \int f d\mu_n = \int f d\mu$ for every bounded continuous f
- $\limsup \mu_n(C) \leq \mu(C)$ for every closed C
- $\liminf \mu_n(G) \ge \mu(G)$ for every open G
- $\lim \mu_n(A) = \mu(A)$ for every μ -continuity A

Theorem 10. [convergence in distribution of random vector] for random vectors, $\langle X_n \rangle$, and random vector, Y, of k-dimension, $X_n \Rightarrow Y$, i.e., X_n converge to Y in distribution if and only if

$$\left(\forall z \in \mathbf{R}^k \right) \left(z^T X_n \Rightarrow z^T Y \right)$$

Central limit theorem

– assume probability space, (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P) and define $\sum^n X_i = S_n$

Theorem 11. [central limit theorem] for random variables, $\langle X_n \rangle$, having same distributions with $\mathbf{E} X_n = c \in \mathbf{R}^k$ and positive definite covariance matrix, $\Sigma \succ 0 \in \mathcal{S}_k$, i.e., $\mathbf{E}(X_n-c)(X_n-c)^T = \Sigma$, where $\Sigma_{ii} < \infty$ (hence $\Sigma \prec MI_n$ for some $M \in \mathbf{R}_{++}$ due to Cauchy-Schwarz inequality),

$$(S_n - nc)/\sqrt{n}$$
 converges in distribution to Y

where $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$

(proof can be found in Proof 1)

Convergence of random series

- ullet for independent $\langle X_n \rangle$, probability of $\sum X_n$ converging is either 0 or 1
- ullet below characterize two cases in terms of distributions of individual X_n

Theorem 12. [convergence with probability 1 for random series] for independent $\langle X_n \rangle$ with $\mathbf{E} X_n = 0$ and $\mathbf{Var} X_n < \infty$

$$\sum X_n$$
 converges with probability 1

Theorem 13. [convergence conditions for random series] for independent $\langle X_n \rangle$, $\sum X_n$ converges with probability 1 if and only if they converges in probability

ullet define trucated version of X_n by $X_n^{(c)}$, i.e., $X_nI_{|X_n|\leq c}$

Theorem 14. [convergence conditions for truncated random series] for independent $\langle X_n \rangle$, $\sum X_n$ converge with probability 1 if all of $\sum \operatorname{Prob}(|X_n| > c)$, $\sum \operatorname{E}(X_n^{(c)})$, and $\sum \operatorname{Var}(X_n^{(c)})$ converge for some c > 0

Selected Proofs

Selected proofs

• **Proof 1.** (Proof for "central limit theorem" on page 54) Let $Z_n(t) = t^T(X_n - c)$ for $t \in \mathbf{R}^k$ and $Z(t) = t^TY$. Then $\langle Z_n(t) \rangle$ are independent random variables having same distribution with $\mathbf{E} Z_n(t) = t^T(\mathbf{E} X_n - c) = 0$ and

$$\operatorname{Var} Z_n(t) = \operatorname{E} Z_n(t)^2 = t^T \operatorname{E} (X_n - c)(X_n - c)^T t = t^T \Sigma t$$

Then by Theorem 8 $\sum^n Z_i(t)/\sqrt{nt^T\Sigma t}$ converges in distribution to standard normal random variable. Because $\mathbf{E}\,Z(t)=0$ and $\mathbf{Var}\,Z(t)=t^T\,\mathbf{E}\,YY^Tz=t^T\Sigma t$, for $t\neq 0$, $Z(t)/\sqrt{t^T\Sigma t}$ is standard normal random variable. Therefore $\sum^n Z_i(t)/\sqrt{nt^T\Sigma t}$ converges in distribution to $Z/\sqrt{t^T\Sigma t}$ for every $t\neq 0$, thus, $\sum^n Z_i(t)/\sqrt{n}=t^T(\sum^n X_i-nc)/\sqrt{n}$ converges in distribution to $Z(t)=t^TY$ for every $t\in\mathbf{R}$. Then Theorem 10 implies $(S_n-nc)/\sqrt{n}$ converges in distribution to Y.

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