

Appendix A

Poisson Process and Poisson Random Measure

Reference [130] is the main source for the material on Poisson process and Poisson random measure.

A.1 Definitions

Definition A.1. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space, and S be a locally compact, separable metric space with Borel σ -algebra \mathcal{B} . The set \mathcal{S} denotes the collection of all countable subsets of S . A *Poisson process* with state space S , defined on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, is a map F from $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ to \mathcal{S} satisfying:

(a) for each B in \mathcal{B} ,

$$N(B) = \#\{F \cap B\}$$

is a Poisson random variable with parameter

$$\mu(B) = \mathbb{E}[N(B)];$$

(b) for disjoint sets B_1, \dots, B_n in \mathcal{B} , $N(B_1), \dots, N(B_n)$ are independent.

If B_1, B_2, \dots are disjoint, then, by definition, we have

$$N(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} N(B_i),$$

and

$$\mu(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(B_i).$$

Hence, N is a random measure, and μ is a measure, both on (S, \mathcal{B}) . The random measure N can also be written in the following form:

$$N = \sum_{\zeta \in F} \delta_{\zeta}.$$

Definition A.2. The measure μ is called the *mean measure* of the Poisson process F , and N is called a *Poisson random measure* associated with the Poisson process F . The measure μ is also called the mean measure of N .

Remark: Let $S = [0, \infty)$ and μ be the Lebesgue measure on S . Then the Poisson random measure associated with the Poisson process F with state space S and mean measure μ is just the one-dimensional time-homogeneous Poisson process that is defined as a pure-birth Markov chain with birth rate one. The random set F is composed of all jump times of the process.

Definition A.3. Assume that $S = \mathbb{R}^d$ for some $d \geq 1$. Then the mean measure is also called the *intensity measure*. If there exists a positive constant c such that for any measurable set B ,

$$\mu(B) = c|B|, \quad |B| = \text{Lebesgue measure of } B,$$

then the Poisson process F is said to be *homogeneous* with *intensity* c .

A.2 Properties

Theorem A.1. Let μ be the mean measure of a Poisson process F with state space S . Then μ is *diffuse*; i.e., for every x in S ,

$$\mu(\{x\}) = 0.$$

Proof. For any fixed x in S , set $a = \mu(\{x\})$. Then, by definition,

$$\mathbb{P}\{N(\{x\}) = 2\} = \frac{a^2}{2}e^{-a} = 0,$$

which leads to the result. □

The next theorem describes the close relation between a Poisson process and the multinomial distribution.

Theorem A.2. Let F be a Poisson process with state space S and mean measure μ . Assume that the total mass $\mu(S)$ is finite. Then, for any $n \geq 1, 1 \leq m \leq n$, and any set partition B_1, \dots, B_m of S , the conditional distribution of the random vector $(N(B_1), \dots, N(B_m))$ given $N(S) = n$ is a multinomial distribution with parameters n and

$$\left(\frac{\mu(B_1)}{\mu(S)}, \dots, \frac{\mu(B_m)}{\mu(S)} \right).$$

Proof. For any partitions n_1, \dots, n_m of n ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \mathbb{P}\{N(B_1) = n_1, \dots, N(B_m) = n_m \mid N(S) = n\} \\
 &= \frac{\mathbb{P}\{N(B_1) = n_1, \dots, N(B_m) = n_m\}}{\mathbb{P}\{N(S) = n\}} \\
 &= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^m \frac{\mu(B_i)^{n_i} e^{-\mu(B_i)}}{n_i!}}{\frac{\mu(S)^n e^{-\mu(S)}}{n!}} \\
 &= \binom{n}{n_1, \dots, n_m} \prod_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{\mu(B_i)}{\mu(S)} \right)^{n_i}.
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem A.3. (Restriction and union)

(1) Let F be a Poisson process with state space S . Then, for every B in \mathcal{B} , $F \cap B$ is a Poisson process with state space S and mean measure

$$\mu_B(\cdot) = \mu(\cdot \cap B).$$

Equivalently, $F \cap B$ can also be viewed as a Poisson process with state space B with mean measure given by the restriction of μ on B .

(2) Let F_1 and F_2 be two independent Poisson processes with state space S , and respective mean measures μ_1 and μ_2 . Then $F_1 \cup F_2$ is a Poisson process with state space S and mean measure

$$\mu = \mu_1 + \mu_2.$$

Proof. Direct verification of the definition of Poisson process.

□

The remaining theorems in this section are stated without proof. The details can be found in [130].

Theorem A.4. (Mapping) Let F be a Poisson process with state space S and σ -finite mean measure $\mu(\cdot)$. Consider a measurable map h from S to another locally compact, separable metric space S' . If the measure

$$\mu'(\cdot) = \mu(f^{-1}(\cdot))$$

is diffuse, then $f(F) = \{f(\varsigma) : \varsigma \in F\}$ is a Poisson process with state space S' and mean measure μ' .

Theorem A.5. (Marking) Let F be a Poisson process with state space S and mean measure μ . The mark of each point ς in F , denoted by m_ς , is a random variable, taking values in a locally compact, separable metric space S' , with distribution $q(z, \cdot)$. Assume that:

- (1) for every measurable set B' in S' , $q(\cdot, B')$ is a measurable function on (S, \mathcal{B}) ;
- (2) given F , the random variables $\{m_\varsigma : \varsigma \in F\}$ are independent;

then $\tilde{F} = \{(\varsigma, m_\varsigma) : \varsigma \in F\}$ is a Poisson process on with state space $S \times S'$ and mean measure

$$\tilde{\mu}(dx, dm) = \mu(dx)q(x, dm).$$

The Poisson process \tilde{F} is aptly called a marked Poisson process.

Theorem A.6. (Campbell) Let F be a Poisson process on space (S, \mathcal{B}) with mean measure μ . Then for any non-negative measurable function f ,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\exp \left\{ - \sum_{\varsigma \in F} f(\varsigma) \right\} \right] = \exp \left\{ \int_S (e^{-f(x)} - 1) \mu(dx) \right\}.$$

If f is a real-valued measurable function on (S, \mathcal{B}) satisfying

$$\int_S \min(|f(\mathbf{x})|, 1) \mu(d\mathbf{x}) < \infty,$$

then for any complex number λ such that the integral

$$\int_S (e^{\lambda f(x)} - 1) \mu(dx)$$

converges, we have

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\exp \left\{ \lambda \sum_{\varsigma \in F} f(\varsigma) \right\} \right] = \exp \left\{ \int_S (e^{\lambda f(x)} - 1) \mu(dx) \right\}.$$

Moreover, if

$$\int_S |f(x)| \mu(dx) < \infty, \tag{A.1}$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{\varsigma \in F} f(\varsigma) \right] &= \int_S f(x) \mu(dx), \\ \text{Var} \left[\sum_{\varsigma \in F} f(\varsigma) \right] &= \int_S f^2(x) \mu(dx). \end{aligned}$$

In general, for any $n \geq 1$, and any real-valued measurable functions f_1, \dots, f_n satisfying (A.1), we have

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{\text{distinct } \varsigma_1, \dots, \varsigma_n \in F} f_1(\varsigma_1) \cdots f_n(\varsigma_n) \right] = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{\varsigma_i \in F} f_i(\varsigma_i) \right]. \tag{A.2}$$

Appendix B

Basics of Large Deviations

In probability theory, the law of large numbers describes the limiting average or mean behavior of a random population. The fluctuations around the average are characterized by a fluctuation theorem such as the central limit theorem. The theory of large deviations is concerned with the rare event of deviations from the average. Here we give a brief account of the basic definitions and results of large deviations. Everything will be stated in a form that will be sufficient for our needs. All proofs will be omitted. Classical references on large deviations include [30], [50], [168], and [175]. More recent developments can be found in [46], [28], and [69]. The formulations here follow mainly Dembo and Zeitouni [28]. Theorem B.6 is from [157].

Let E be a complete, separable metric space with metric ρ . Generic elements of E are denoted by x, y , etc.

Definition B.1. A function I on E is called a *rate function* if it takes values in $[0, +\infty]$ and is lower semicontinuous. For each c in $[0, +\infty)$, the set

$$\{x \in E : I(x) \leq c\}$$

is called a level set. The *effective domain* of I is defined as

$$\{x \in E : I(x) < \infty\}.$$

If all level sets are compact, the rate function is said to be *good*.

Rate functions will be denoted by other symbols as the need arises. Let $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ be a family of E -valued random variables with distributions $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$, defined on the Borel σ -algebra \mathcal{B} of E .

Definition B.2. The family $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ or the family $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ is said to satisfy a large deviation principle (LDP) on E as ε converges to zero, with speed ε and a good rate function I if

$$\text{for any closed set } F, \limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon\{F\} \leq -\inf_{x \in F} I(x), \quad (\text{B.1})$$

$$\text{for any open set } G, \liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon\{G\} \geq -\inf_{x \in G} I(x). \quad (\text{B.2})$$

Estimates (B.1) and (B.2) are called the upper bound and lower bound, respectively. Let $a(\varepsilon)$ be a function of ε satisfying

$$a(\varepsilon) > 0, \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} a(\varepsilon) = 0.$$

If the multiplication factor ε in front of the logarithm is replaced by $a(\varepsilon)$, then the LDP has speed $a(\varepsilon)$.

It is clear that the upper and lower bounds are equivalent to the following statement: for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$,

$$\begin{aligned} -\inf_{x \in B^\circ} I(x) &\leq \liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon\{B\} \\ \limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon\{B\} &\leq -\inf_{x \in \bar{B}} I(x), \end{aligned}$$

where B° and \bar{B} denote the interior and closure of B respectively. An event $B \in \mathcal{B}$ satisfying

$$\inf_{x \in B^\circ} I(x) = \inf_{x \in \bar{B}} I(x)$$

is called a I -continuity set. Thus for a I -continuity set B , we have that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon\{B\} = -\inf_{x \in B} I(x).$$

If the values for ε are only $\{1/n : n \geq 1\}$, we will write P_n instead of $P_{1/n}$.

If the upper bound (B.1) holds only for compact sets, then we say the family $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies the *weak LDP*. To establish an LDP from the weak LDP, one needs to check the following condition which is known as *exponential tightness*: For any $M > 0$, there is a compact set K such that on the complement K^c of K we have

$$\limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon\{K^c\} \leq -M. \quad (\text{B.3})$$

Definition B.3. The family $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ is said to be *exponentially tight* if (B.3) holds.

An interesting consequence of an LDP is the following theorem.

Theorem B.1. (Varadhan's lemma) *Assume that the family $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed ε and good rate function I . Let f and the family $\{f_\varepsilon : \varepsilon \geq 1\}$ be bounded continuous functions on E satisfying*

$$\limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \rho(f_\varepsilon(x), f(x)) = 0.$$

Then

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log E^{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon} \left[e^{\frac{f_\varepsilon(x)}{\varepsilon}} \right] = \sup_{x \in E} \{f(x) - I(x)\}.$$

Remark: Without knowing the existence of an LDP, one can guess the form of the rate function by calculating the left-hand side of the above equation.

The next result shows that an LDP can be transformed by a continuous function from one space to another.

Theorem B.2. (Contraction principle) *Let E, F be complete, separable spaces, and h be a measurable function from E to F . If the family of probability measures $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ on E satisfies an LDP with speed ε and good rate function I and the function h is continuous at every point in the effective domain of I , then the family of probability measures $\{P_\varepsilon \circ h^{-1} : \varepsilon > 0\}$ on F satisfies an LDP with speed ε and good rate function, I' , where*

$$I'(y) = \inf\{I(x) : x \in E, y = h(x)\}.$$

Theorem B.3. *Let $\{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ be a family of random variables satisfying an LDP on space E with speed ε and rate function I . If E_0 is a closed subset of E , and*

$$\mathbb{P}\{Y_\varepsilon \in E_0\} = 1, \{x \in E : I(x) < \infty\} \subset E_0$$

then the LDP for $\{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ holds on E_0 .

The next concept describes the situation when two families of random variables are indistinguishable exponentially.

Definition B.4. Let

$$\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}, \{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$$

be two families of E -valued random variables on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. If for any $\delta > 0$ the family $\{\mathcal{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ of joint distributions of $(X_\varepsilon, Y_\varepsilon)$ satisfies

$$\limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathcal{P}_\varepsilon \{\{(x, y) : \rho(x, y) > \delta\}\} = -\infty,$$

then we say that $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ and $\{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ are *exponentially equivalent* with speed ε .

The following theorem shows that the LDPs for exponentially equivalent families of random variables are the same.

Theorem B.4. *Let $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ and $\{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ be two exponentially equivalent families of E -valued random variables. If an LDP holds for $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$, then the same LDP holds for $\{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ and vice versa.*

To generalize the notion of exponential equivalence, we introduce the concept of exponential approximation next.

Definition B.5. Consider a family of random variables $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ and a sequence of families of random variables $\{Y_\varepsilon^n : \varepsilon > 0\}, n = 1, 2, \dots$, all defined on the same probability space. Denote the joint distribution of $(X_\varepsilon, Y_\varepsilon^n)$ by $\mathcal{P}_\varepsilon^n$. Assume that for any $\delta > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathcal{P}_\varepsilon^n \{ \{(x, y) : \rho(x, y) > \delta\} \} = -\infty, \quad (\text{B.4})$$

then the sequence $\{Y_\varepsilon^n : \varepsilon > 0\}$ is called an *exponentially good approximation* of $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$.

Theorem B.5. Let the sequence of families $\{Y_\varepsilon^n : \varepsilon > 0\}, n = 1, 2, \dots$, be an exponentially good approximation to the family $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$. Assume that for each $n \geq 1$, the family $\{Y_\varepsilon^n : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed ε and good rate function I_n . Set

$$I(x) = \sup_{\delta > 0} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{\{y : \rho(y, x) < \delta\}} I_n(y). \quad (\text{B.5})$$

If I is a good rate function, and for any closed set F ,

$$\inf_{x \in F} I(x) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{y \in F} I_n(y), \quad (\text{B.6})$$

then the family $\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed ε and good rate function I .

The basic theory of convergence of sequences of probability measures on a metric space have an analog in the theory of large deviations. Prohorov's theorem, relating compactness to tightness, has the following parallel that links exponential tightness to a partial LDP, defined below.

Definition B.6. A family of probability measures $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ is said to satisfy the *partial LDP* if for every sequence ε_n converging to zero there is a subsequence ε'_n such that the family $\{\mathbb{P}_{\varepsilon'_n} : \varepsilon'_n > 0\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed ε'_n and a good rate function I' .

Remark: The partial LDP becomes an LDP if the rate functions associated with different subsequences are the same.

Theorem B.6. (Pukhalskii)

(1) The partial LDP is equivalent to exponential tightness. Thus the partial LDP always holds on a compact space E .

(2) Assume that $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies the partial LDP with speed ε , and for every x in E

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon \{ \rho(y, x) \leq \delta \} \\ = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \mathbb{P}_\varepsilon \{ \rho(y, x) < \delta \} = -I(x). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.7})$$

Then $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed ε and good rate function I .

For an \mathbb{R}^d -valued random variable Y , we define the *logarithmic moment generating function* of Y or its law μ as

$$\Lambda(\lambda) = \log E[e^{\langle \lambda, Y \rangle}] \text{ for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^d \quad (\text{B.8})$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the usual inner product in \mathbb{R}^d . $\Lambda(\cdot)$ is also called the *cumulant generating function* of Y . The Fenchel–Legendre transformation of $\Lambda(\lambda)$ is defined as

$$\Lambda^*(x) := \sup_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ \langle \lambda, x \rangle - \Lambda(\lambda) \}. \quad (\text{B.9})$$

Theorem B.7. (Cramér) *Let $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables in \mathbb{R}^d . Denote the law of $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ by \mathbb{P}_n . Assume that*

$$\Lambda(\lambda) = \log E[e^{\langle \lambda, X_1 \rangle}] < \infty \text{ for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Then the family $\{\mathbb{P}_n : n \geq 1\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed $1/n$ and good rate function $I(x) = \Lambda^(x)$.*

The i.i.d. assumption plays a crucial role in Cramér's theorem. For general situations one has the following Gärtner–Ellis theorem.

Theorem B.8. (Gärtner–Ellis) *Let $\{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ be a family of random vectors in \mathbb{R}^d . Denote the law of Y_ε by \mathbb{P}_ε . Define*

$$\Lambda_\varepsilon(\lambda) = \log E[e^{\langle \lambda, Y_\varepsilon \rangle}].$$

Assume that the limit

$$\Lambda(\lambda) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow \infty} \varepsilon \Lambda_\varepsilon(\lambda/\varepsilon),$$

exists, and is lower semicontinuous. Set

$$\mathcal{D} = \{ \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^d : \Lambda(\lambda) < \infty \}.$$

If \mathcal{D} has a nonempty interior \mathcal{D}° on which Λ is differentiable, and the norm of the gradient of $\Lambda(\lambda_n)$ converges to infinity, whenever λ_n in \mathcal{D}° converges to a boundary point of \mathcal{D}° (Λ satisfying these conditions is said to be essentially smooth), then the family $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed ε and good rate function $I = \Lambda^$.*

The next result can be derived from the Gärtner–Ellis theorem.

Corollary B.9 *Assume that*

$$\{X_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}, \{Y_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}, \{Z_\varepsilon : \varepsilon > 0\}$$

are three families of real-valued random variables, all defined on the same probability space with respective laws

$$\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon^1 : \varepsilon > 0\}, \{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon^2 : \varepsilon > 0\}, \{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon^3 : \varepsilon > 0\}.$$

If both $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon^1 : \varepsilon > 0\}$ and $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon^3 : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfy the assumptions in Theorem B.8 with the same $\Lambda(\cdot)$, and with probability one

$$X \leq Y \leq Z,$$

then $\{\mathbb{P}_\varepsilon^2 : \varepsilon > 0\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed ε and a good rate function given by

$$I(x) = \sup_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}} \{\lambda x - \Lambda(\lambda)\}.$$

Infinite-dimensional generalizations of Cramér's theorem are also available. Here we only mention one particular case: Sanov's theorem.

Let $\{X_k : k \geq 1\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables in \mathbb{R}^d with common distribution μ . For any $n \geq 1$, define

$$\eta_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \delta_{X_k}$$

where δ_x is the Dirac measure concentrated at x . The empirical distribution η_n belong to the space $M_1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ of all probability measures on \mathbb{R}^d equipped with the weak topology. A well-known result from statistics says that when n becomes large one will recover the true distribution μ from η_n . Clearly $M_1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ is an infinite dimensional space. Denote the law of η_n , on $M_1(\mathbb{R}^d)$, by \mathbb{Q}_n . Then we have:

Theorem B.10. (Sanov) *The family $\{\mathbb{Q}_n : n \geq 1\}$ satisfies an LDP with speed $1/n$ and good rate function*

$$H(\nu|\mu) = \begin{cases} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \log \frac{d\nu}{d\mu} d\nu, & \text{if } \nu \ll \mu \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (\text{B.10})$$

where $\nu \ll \mu$ means that ν is absolutely continuous with respect to μ and $H(\nu|\mu)$ is called the relative entropy of ν with respect to μ .

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