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We have the following relations among different modes of convergence

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- ▶ In general, almost sure convergence does not imply convergence in r^{th} mean and vice versa

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- ► (Lindberg-Levy) Central Limit Theorem

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left[\tilde{S}_n \le x\right] = \lim_{n \to \infty} P\left[\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \le x\right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt, \ \forall x$$

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lackbox For example, binomial rv is well approximated by normal for large n

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$$\begin{split} P\left[\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \epsilon\right] &= P\left[\left|\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right| > \frac{n\epsilon}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right] \\ &\approx 1 - \left(\Phi\left(\frac{n\epsilon}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right) - \Phi\left(-\frac{n\epsilon}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right)\right) \\ &= 2\left(1 - \Phi\left(\frac{n\epsilon}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right)\right) \end{split}$$

(because
$$\Phi(-x) = (1 - \Phi(x))$$
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- ▶ If the RHS above is δ , then we can say that $\frac{S_n}{r} \in [\mu c, \ \mu + c]$ with probability (1δ)
- ▶ This interval is called the $100(1-\delta)\%$ confidence interval.

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- ► In analyzing any experimental data the confidence intervals or the variance term is important

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- How doe we specify or characterize an infinite collection of random variables?
- We need the joint distribution of every finite subcollection of them.

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- Sum of iid random variables is a Markov chain

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- Number of packets coming into a network switch, number people joining the queue in a bank, can be modeled as Markov chains.
 In such applications, it is called a queing chain.
- Markov chain is a useful model for many dynamic systems or processes

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- ► It can be more general

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(Notice the big change of notation)

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In this course we will consider only homogeneous chains

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- From now on, without loss of generality, we take $S = \{0, 1, \cdots\}$



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Now we can extend this as

$$Pr[X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2] = Pr[X_2 = x_2 | X_1 = x_1, X_0 = x_0]$$

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$$= \pi_0(0) (1 - p) p + \pi_0(1) q p$$

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We have the formula

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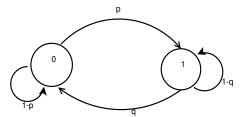
$$Pr[X_0 = x_0, \dots X_n = x_n] = \pi_0(x_0)P(x_0, x_1)\dots P(x_{n-1}, x_n)$$

► This can easily be seen through a graphical notation.

$$P = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 - p & p \\ q & 1 - q \end{array} \right]$$

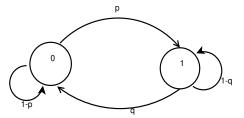
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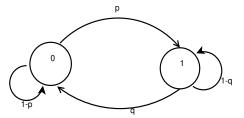
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$$Pr[X_0 = 0, X_1 = 1, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 0] = \pi_0(0)p(1-q)q$$

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▶ We may want to know about $\lim_{n\to\infty} Pr[X_n=1]$

▶ A man has 4 umbrellas. carries them from home to office and back when needed. Probability of rain in the morning and evening is same, namely, p.

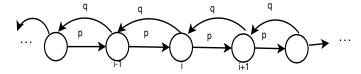
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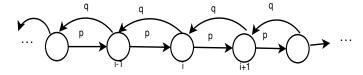
- ▶ A man has 4 umbrellas. carries them from home to office and back when needed. Probability of rain in the morning and evening is same, namely, p.
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- ▶ $S = \{0, 1, \dots, 5\}$. The transition probabilities are

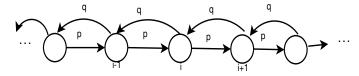
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 - p & p \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 - p & p & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 - p & p & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 - p & p & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



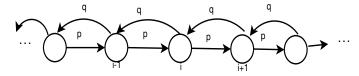
► The following Markov chain is known as a birth-death chain



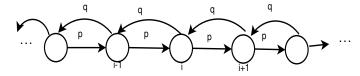
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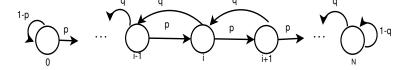


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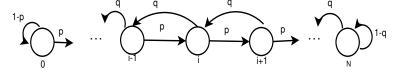


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- In general, the transition probabilities can be different for different states.
- Birth-death chains can also have self-loops on states

 We can have birth-death chains with finite state space also

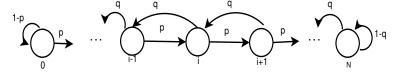


 We can have birth-death chains with finite state space also



▶ We can say it has 'reflecting boundaries'

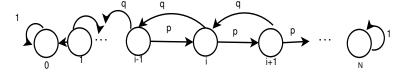
 We can have birth-death chains with finite state space also



- ▶ We can say it has 'reflecting boundaries'
- ► This chain keeps visiting all the states again and again.

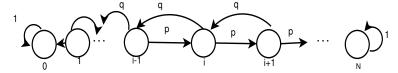
Gambler's Ruin chain

► The following chain is called Gambler's ruin chain



Gambler's Ruin chain

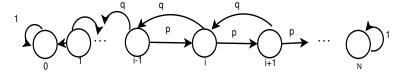
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Gambler's Ruin chain

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- lacktriangle Here, the chain is ultimately absorbed either in 0 or in N
- ► Here state can be the current funds that the gambler has

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- ► The Markov property implies that it is the most recent past that matters. For example

$$Pr[X_{n+m} = y | X_n = x, X_0] = Pr[X_{n+m} = y | X_n = x]$$

$$Pr[X_3 = y | X_1 = x, X_0 = z]$$

$$Pr[X_3 = y | X_1 = x, X_0 = z] = \frac{Pr[X_3 = y, X_1 = x, X_0 = z]}{Pr[X_1 = x, X_0 = z]}$$

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We also have

$$Pr[X_3 = y | X_1 = x] = Pr[X_2 = y | X_0 = x]$$

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► Thus we get

$$Pr[X_3 = y | X_1 = x, X_0 = z] = Pr[X_3 = y | X_1 = x]$$

$$Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_{m-1} \cdots] = Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x]$$

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► Or, in general,

$$f_{X_{m+n}|X_m,\cdots,X_0}(y|x,\cdots) = f_{X_{m+n}|X_m}(y|x)$$

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$$\Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_{m-k} \in A_k, k = 1, \dots, m] = Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x]$$

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$$Pr[X_{m+n+r} \in B_r, \ r = 0, \cdots, s \mid X_m = x, \ X_{m-k} \in A_k, \ k = 1, \cdots, m]$$

= $Pr[X_{m+n+r} \in B_r, \ r = 0, \cdots, s \mid X_m = x]$

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