# STA347 Final Preparation

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### 1 Experiments, Events and Sample Spaces

**Definition 1.1.** Experiment, Sample space and event

- Experiment: Any process, real or hypothetical, in which the possible outcomes can be identified ahead of time;
- $\bullet$  Sample space: The collection of all possible outcomes, denoted by S;
- Event: A well-defined subset of sample space

**Definition 1.2** (countably infinity). A set is **countably infinite** if its elements can be put in one-to-one correspondence with the set of natural numbers.

**Definition 1.3** (At most countable sets). A set that is either finite or countably infinite is called an **at most** countable set.

**Theorem 1.1.** Suppose  $E, E_1, E_2, \ldots$  are events. The following are also events

- 1.  $E^c$
- 2.  $E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \ldots E_n$
- 3.  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i$

### 2 Definition and Properties of Probability

**Definition 2.1** ( $\sigma$ -field). Let  $\chi$  be a space. A collection  $\mathcal{F}$  of subsets of  $\chi$  is called a  $\sigma$ -field if

- 1.  $\chi \in \mathcal{F}$
- 2. (closure under complement) if  $E \in \mathcal{F}$ , then  $E^c \in \mathcal{F}$
- 3. (closure under countable union) if  $E_1, E_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{F}$ , then  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \in \mathcal{F}$

Remark 2.1. A  $\sigma$ -field refers to the collection of subsets of a sample space that we should use in order to establish a mathematically formal definition of probability. The sets in the  $\sigma$ -field constitute the events from our sample space.

**Axiom 2.1** (Axioms of Probability). Let S be a sample space, and let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a  $\sigma$ -field of S.

- Axiom 1 (non-negativity)  $P(E) \ge 0$  for any event  $E \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- Axiom 2 P(S) = 1
- Axiom 3 (countable additivity) For every sequence of disjoint events  $E_1, E_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{F}$

$$P\left(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P\left(E_i\right)$$

**Definition 2.2** (probability). Any function P on a sample space S satisfying Axioms 1-3 is called a **probability**.

**Definition 2.3** (disjoint sets). Sets A and B are disjoint if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

Theorem 2.1. Properties of Probability

1. 
$$P(\emptyset) = 0$$

2. (finite additivity) For any disjoint events  $E_1, \ldots, E_n$ ,

$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(E_i)$$

- 3.  $P(A^c) = 1 P(A)$
- 4. For  $A \subset B$ ,  $P(A) \leq P(B)$
- 5.  $0 \le P(A) \le 1$
- 6.  $P(A B) = P(A) P(A \cap B)$
- 7.  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$
- 8. (subadditivity, Boole's inequality) For any events  $E_1, \ldots, E_n$ ,

$$P(\cup_{i=1}^{n} E_i) \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(E_i)$$

**Theorem 2.2** (Continuity from below and above). Let P be a probability. (continuity from below) If  $A_n \nearrow A$  (i.e.  $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \ldots$  and  $\cup_n A_n = A$ ), then  $P(A_n) \nearrow P(A)$  (continuity from above) If  $A_n \searrow A$  (i.e.  $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \ldots$  and  $\cap_n A_n = A$ ), then  $P(A_n) \searrow P(A)$ 

### 2.1 Finite Sample Spaces

Suppose |S| = n, that is,  $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$ . Then each member has probability, that is,  $p_i = P(\{s_i\})$  such that

$$p_i \ge 0$$
 and  $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$ 

### 3 Classical Equal Probability and Combinatorics

**Definition 3.1** (permutation). When there are n elements, the number of events pulling k elements out of n elements is called a **permutation** of n elements taken k at a time and denoted by  $P_{n,k}$ .

Theorem 3.1.

$$P_{n,k} = n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

**Definition 3.2** (combination). The number of combinations of n elements taken k at a time is denoted by  $C_{n,k}$  or  $\binom{n}{k}$ .

Theorem 3.2.

$$C_{n,k} = \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = P_{n,k}/k!$$

Theorem 3.3 (Binomial coefficients).

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

**Theorem 3.4** (Newton Expansion). For |z| < 1, the term  $(1+z)^r$  can be expanded as

$$(1+z)^r = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{r}{k} z^k$$

Theorem 3.5.

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{r(r-1)\dots(r-k+1)}{k!} = \frac{\Gamma(r+1)}{\Gamma(r-k+1)\Gamma(k+1)}$$

with  $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-x} dx$ 

**Theorem 3.6.** For any numbers  $x_1, \ldots, x_k$  and non-negative integer n,

$$(x_1 + \ldots + x_k)^n = \sum \binom{n}{n_1, \ldots, n_k} x_1^{n_1} \ldots x_k^{n_k}$$

It is easy to see that

$$\begin{pmatrix} n \\ n_1, \dots, n_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} n \\ n_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n_2 + \dots + n_k \\ n_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n_3 + \dots + n_k \\ n_3 \end{pmatrix} \dots \begin{pmatrix} n_k \\ n_k \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{n_1! \cdots n_k!}$$
(1)

Theorem 3.7 (Stirling's formula).

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \log(n!) - \left[ \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) + (n + \frac{1}{2}) \log(n) - n \right] \right| = 0$$

#### 4 Inclusion-Exclusion Formula

For any n events  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ ,

$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i) - \sum_{i < j} P(A_i \cap A_j) + \sum_{i < j < k} P(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} P(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n)$$
(2)

### 5 Conditional Probability

**Definition 5.1** (conditional probability). When P(B) > 0, the **conditional probability** of an event A given B is defined by

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

**Theorem 5.1.** If P(B) > 0, then  $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$ .

**Theorem 5.2.** Let  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$  be events with  $P(A_1 \cap \ldots \cap A_n) > 0$ . Then

$$P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) P(A_2 | A_1) P(A_3 | A_1, A_2) \dots P(A_n | A_1, \dots, A_{n-1})$$
(3)

## 6 Independence

**Definition 6.1** (independence). Two events A and B are **independent** if and only if

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

. A collection of events  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  are said to be (mutually) independent if

$$P(\cap_{i\in J} A_i) = \prod_{i\in J} P(A_i)$$

for any  $\emptyset \neq J \subset I$ .

A collection of events  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  are said to be **pair-wise independent** if

$$P(A_i \cap A_i) = P(A_i)P(A_i)$$

for  $i \neq j \in I$ .

7 BAYES THEOREM 6

**Theorem 6.1.** Two events A and B are independent if and only if A and  $B^c$  are independent.

**Definition 6.2** (conditionally independence). Two events A and B are conditionally independent given C if

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

Remark 6.1. Conditional independence does not imply independence.

### 7 Bayes Theorem

**Definition 7.1.** A collection of sets  $B_1, \ldots, B_k$  is called a **partition** of A if and only if  $B_1, \ldots, B_k$  are disjoint and  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^k B_i$ .

**Theorem 7.1** (Law of total probability). Let events  $B_1, \ldots, B_k$  be a partition of S with  $P(B_j) > 0$  for all  $j = 1, \ldots, k$ . For any event A,

$$P(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} P(B_j)P(A|B_j)$$

**Theorem 7.2** (Bayes' Theorem). If 0 < P(A), P(B) < 1, then

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|B^{c})P(B^{c})}$$

#### 8 Random Variables

**Definition 8.1.** A real-valued function X on the sample space S is called a **random variable** if the probability of X is well-defined, that is,  $\{s \in S : X(s) \le r\}$  is an event for each  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 8.2** (Borel sets in  $\mathbb{R}$ ). The collection of all Borel sets  $\mathcal{B}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  is the smallest collection satisfying the followings

- 1.  $(a, b] \in \mathcal{B}$  for any  $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$
- 2. (closure under complement) For any  $B \in \mathcal{B}, B^c \in \mathcal{B}$
- 3. (closure under countable union) For any  $B_1, B_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{B}, \cup_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j \in \mathcal{B}$

We call the collection  $\mathcal{B}$  the Borel  $\sigma$ -field

**Definition 8.3** (Probability of a random variable). For any Borel set B in  $\mathbb{R}$ , an event  $X \in B$  is defined as  $\{s \in S : X(s) \in B\}$  and often denoted by  $\{X \in B\}$  or  $\{X \in B\}$ . The corresponding probability is

$$P(X \in B) = P(\{s \in S : X(s) \in B\})$$

**Lemma 8.1.** If  $|X(S)| < \infty$  and (X = r) is an event for any  $r \in X(S)$ , then X is a random variable.

**Definition 8.4** (distribution). The **distribution** of X is the collection of all probabilities of all events induced by X, that is,  $(B, P(X \in B))$ . Two random variables X and Y are said to be **identically distributed** if they have the same distribution.

**Remark 8.1.** To show X and Y having the same distribution, we need to check for any event B on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $P(X \in B) = P(Y \in B)$ . Since all Borel sets on  $\mathbb{R}$  are induced by intervals, it is enough to prove

$$P(a < X < b) = P(a < Y < b)$$

for any  $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Even  $P(X \le a) = P(Y \le a)$  for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  guarantees that X and Y are identically distributed.

**Definition 8.5** (discrete random variable). A random variable X is said to be **discrete** if P(X = x) = 0 or P(X = x) > 0 and  $P(X \in \chi_0) = 1$  where  $\chi_0 = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : P(X = x) > 0\}$ 

**Definition 8.6** (probability mass function). The **probability mass function** (pmf) of a discrete random variable X is

$$pmf_X(x) = P(X = x)$$

for any possible value of  $x \in X(S)$ .

**Theorem 8.1.** Let X be a discrete random variable. Then the set of x having P(X = x) is at most countable.

**Theorem 8.2.** Let f be the pmf of a discrete random variable X. The set of possible values of X is  $X(S) = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}$ . For  $x \notin X(S) \ge 0$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(x_i) = 1$ .

**Theorem 8.3.** Let  $X(S) = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}$  be the set of possible values of a discrete random variable X. Then for any subset A of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(X \in A) = \sum_{x \in A} P(\lbrace x \rbrace) = \sum_{x \in A} pmf_X(x)$$

**Definition 8.7** (absolutely continuity and probability density function). A random variable X is said to be absolutely continuous if the probability of each interval [a, b] is of the form

$$P(a < X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx$$

where  $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$  and f is a non-negative function on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Such function f is called a **probability density** function (pdf) of X.

**Theorem 8.4.** Let X be a continuous random variable. Then

$$pdf_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx}P(X \le x)$$

#### 8.1 Examples of Random Variables

**Definition 8.8** (Bernoulli). A random variable X taking value 0 or 1 with P(X = 1) = p and P(X = 0) = 1 - p for some  $p \in [0, 1]$  is called a **Bernoulli** random variable with success probability p and often denoted by  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ .

**Definition 8.9** (discrete uniform). Let  $\chi$  be a non-empty finite set. A random variable X taking values in  $\chi$  with equal probability is called a uniform random variable on  $\chi$  and denoted by  $X \sim uniform(\chi)$ . The probability mass function of  $X \sim uniform(\chi)$  is

$$pmf_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{|\chi|} & \text{if } x \in \chi\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 8.10** (binomial). A random variable X is called a **binomial** random variable if it has the same distribution as Z which is the number of success in n independent trails with success probability p, and denoted by  $X \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$ .

The probability mass function of  $X \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$  is

$$pmf_X(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} & \text{if } n = 0, 1, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 8.11** (continuous uniform). A random variable X defined on (a,b) for finite real numbers a < b satisfying  $P(c < X \le d) = \frac{d-c}{b-a}$  for any c,d such that  $a \le c \le d \le b$  is called a **uniform** random variable on (a,b) which is denoted by  $X \sim \text{uniform}(a,b)$ . The probability mass function of  $X \sim \text{uniform}(a,b)$  is

$$pmf_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a < x < b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 8.12** (geometric). Consider an independent Bernoulli trial with success probability p. The number of trials until the first success is called a **geometric** distribution with parameter p, denoted by geometric(p). The geometric random variable  $X \sim geometric(p)$  has probability mass function as

$$pmf_X(n) = (1-p)^{n-1}p$$

for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 8.13** (negative binomial). Consider an independent Bernoulli trial with success probability p. The number of trials until k-th success is called a **negative binomial** distribution with parameter k and p, denoted by neg-bin(k, p).

The negative binomial random variable  $X \sim neg - bin(k, p)$  has probability mass function as

$$pmf_X(n) = \binom{n-1}{k-1} (1-p)^{n-k} p^k$$

for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $n \geq k$ .

**Definition 8.14** (hypergeometric). Consider a jar containing n balls of which r are black and the remainder n-r are white. The random variable X is the number of black balls when m balls are drawn without replacement. The probability of k black balls are drawn is

$$\operatorname{pmf}_X(k) = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \left( \begin{array}{c} n-r \\ m-k \end{array} \right) / \left( \begin{array}{c} n \\ m \end{array} \right) & \text{if } k = 0, \dots, \min(r,m) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{array} \right.$$

Such distribution is called a hypergeometric distribution.

**Definition 8.15** (zeta/zipf). A positive integer valued random variable X follows a **Zeta** or **Zipf** distribution if

$$\operatorname{pmf}_X(n) = \frac{n^{-s}}{\zeta(s)}$$

for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  and s > 1 where  $\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-s}$ 

**Definition 8.16** (Poisson). A **Poisson** distribution with parameter  $\mu > 0$  has the probability mass function

$$pmf_X(n) = e^{-\mu} \frac{\mu^n}{n!}$$

for non-negative integer n.

**Theorem 8.5.** If  $X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$  and the distribution of Y, conditional on X = k, is a binomial distribution,  $Y | (X = k) \sim Binom(k, p)$ , then the distribution of Y follows a Poisson distribution  $Y \sim Poisson(\lambda \cdot p)$ 

**Theorem 8.6** (Sums of Poisson-distributed random variables). If  $X_i \sim Poisson(\lambda_i)$  for i = 1, ..., n are independent, and  $\lambda = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$ , then  $Y = (\sum_{i=1}^n X_i) \sim Poisson(\lambda)$ .

**Definition 8.17** (Exponential). A continuous random variable W having the probability density

$$pdf_W(w) = \lambda e^{-\lambda w} 1(w > 0)$$

is distributed from an exponential distribution with parameter  $\lambda > 0$ , which is denoted by  $W \sim$  exponential  $(\lambda)$ .

#### 8.2 Cumulative Distribution Function

The (cumulative) distribution function of a random variable X is the function

$$\operatorname{cdf}_X(x) = F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$$

for  $-\infty < x < \infty$ .

**Theorem 8.7** (properties of distribution functions). Let F be a distribution function. Then

- (a) F is nondecreasing,
- (b)  $\lim_{x\to\infty} F(x) = 1$  and  $\lim_{x\to-\infty} F(x) = 0$ ,
- (c) F is right continuous, that is,  $\lim_{y \searrow x} F(y) = F(x)$ ,
- (d)  $F(x-) := \lim_{y \nearrow x} F(y) = P(X < x)$
- (e) P(X = x) = F(x) F(x-)

**Theorem 8.8.** If a real function F satisfies (a)-(c) in the above properties, then it is a distribution function of a random variable.

**Definition 8.18** (p-quantile). The p-quantile of a random variable X is x such that  $P(X \le x) \ge p$  and  $P(X \ge x) \ge 1 - p$ .

**Definition 8.19.** The median, lower quartile, upper quartile are 0.5-, 0.25-, 0.75-quantile. The inter quartile range (IQR) is the difference between upper and lower quartile.

#### 8.3 Multivariate Distributions

#### 8.3.1 Bivariage Distributions

**Definition 8.20.** The **joint/bivariate distribution** of two random variables X and Y is the collection of all possible probabilities, that is,  $P((X,Y) \in B)$  where B is a Borel set in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Definition 8.21.** Two random variables X and Y are jointly continuously distributed if and only if there exists a non-negative function f such that for any Borel set B in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 

$$P((X,Y) \in B) = \iint_B f(x,y) \, dx \, dy$$

Such function f is called a **joint density function** of (X,Y).

**Theorem 8.9** (Properties of joint density functions). Joint density functions satisfies

1.

$$pdf_{X,Y}(x,y) \ge 0$$

2.

$$\iint p df_{X,Y}(x,y) \, dx \, dy = 1$$

**Definition 8.22.** The joint (cumulative) distribution function of X and Y is

$$cdf_{XY}(x,y) = P(X \le x, Y \le y)$$

**Definition 8.23.** When X and Y are discrete, then the **joint probability mass function** of X and Y is defined by

$$pmf_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

**Theorem 8.10** (Properties of joint probability mass functions). Satisfies

1.

$$pmf_{X,Y}(x,y) \ge 0$$

2.

$$\sum_{x,y} pm f_{X,Y}(x,y) = 1$$

**Theorem 8.11.** Consider two random variables X and Y.

$$\lim_{y \to -\infty} cdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} cdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = 0$$

$$\lim_{y \to \infty} cdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = cdf_X(x)$$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} cdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = cdf_Y(y)$$

#### 8.3.2 Marginal Distributions

Suppose X and Y are random variables. The cdf or pmf or pdf of X (or Y) derived from the joint cdf or pmf or pdf is called the **marginal** cdf or pmf or pdf of X (or Y).

**Theorem 8.12.** 1.

$$pmf_X(x) = \sum_{y} pmf_{X,Y}(x,y)$$

2.

$$pdf_X(x) = \int pdf_{X,Y}(x,y) dy$$

**Definition 8.24.** Two random variables X and Y are **independent** if and only if

$$P(X \in A, Y \in B) = P(X \in A)P(Y \in B)$$

**Theorem 8.13.** If two random variables X and Y are independent, then the following hold if the functions exist.

- 1.  $cdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = cdf_X(x) \times cdf_Y(y)$  for all x,y
- 2.  $pmf_{X,Y}(x,y) = pmf_X(x) \times pmf_Y(y)$  for all x,y
- 3.  $pdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = pdf_X(x) \times pdf_Y(y)$  for all x,y

**Theorem 8.14.** If one of the following hold, then two random variables X and Y are independent.

- 1.  $cdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = cdf_X(x) \times cdf_Y(y)$  for all x,y
- 2.  $pmf_{X,Y}(x,y) = pmf_X(x) \times pmf_Y(y)$  for all x,y
- 3.  $pdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = pdf_X(x) \times pdf_Y(y)$  for all x,y

#### 8.3.3 Conditional Distributions

**Definition 8.25.** The conditional density of X given Y = y is

$$pdf_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{pdf_{X,Y}(x,y)}{pdf_Y(y)}$$

Theorem 8.15.

$$pdf_{X,Y}(x,y) = pdf_X(x)pdf_{X|Y}(x|y)$$

#### 8.3.4 Multivariate Distributions

**Definition 8.26.** The joint cumulative distribution function of n variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is defined by

$$cdf_{X_1,\ldots,X_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = P(X_1 \le x_1,\ldots,X_n \le x_n)$$

The joint probability mass/density function of n discrete/continuous random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is

$$pmf_{X_1,...,X_n}(x_1,...,x_n) = P(X_1 = x_1,...,X_n = x_n)$$

$$P((X_1,\ldots,X_n)\in B)=\int \ldots \int pdf_{X_1,\ldots,X_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\,dx_n\ldots dx_1$$

**Definition 8.27.** Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be random variables. Marginal cumulative distribution, probability mass, probability density functions of  $X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, \ldots, X_n$  are

$$cdf_{X_1,\dots,X_{i-1},X_{i+1},\dots,X_n(x_1,\dots,x_{i-1},x_{i+1},\dots,x_n)} = \lim_{x_i \to \infty} cdf_{X_1,\dots,X_{i-1},X_i,X_{i+1},\dots,X_n}(x_1,\dots,x_{i-1},x_i,x_{i+1},\dots,x_n)$$
(4)

$$pmf_{X_1,\dots,X_{i-1},X_{i+1},\dots,X_n(x_1,\dots,x_{i-1},x_{i+1},\dots,x_n)} = \sum_{x_i} pmf_{X_1,\dots,X_{i-1},X_i,X_{i+1},\dots,X_n}(x_1,\dots,x_{i-1},x_i,x_{i+1},\dots,x_n)$$
(5)

$$pdf_{X_1,\dots,X_{i-1},X_{i+1},\dots,X_n(x_1,\dots,x_{i-1},x_{i+1},\dots,x_n)} = \int pdf_{X_1,\dots,X_{i-1},X_i,X_{i+1},\dots,X_n}(x_1,\dots,x_{i-1},x_i,x_{i+1},\dots,x_n) dx_i$$
 (6)

**Theorem 8.16.** Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be continuous random variables having cdf. Then

$$pdf_{X_1,\dots,X_n}(x_1,\dots,x_n) = \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x_1\dots\partial x_n} F(x_1,\dots,x_n)$$

**Definition 8.28.** Random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are **independent** if and only if for any Borel sets  $B_1, \ldots, B_n$ 

$$P(X_1 \in B_1, \dots, X_n \in B_n) = P(X_1 \in B_1) \dots P(X_n \in B_n)$$

**Theorem 8.17.** Random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are **independent** if and only if

$$cdf_{X_1,\ldots,X_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = cdf_{X_1}(x_1)\ldots cdf_{X_n}(x_n)$$

#### 8.4 Functions of Random Variables

**Theorem 8.18.** Let X be a discrete random variable and Y = g(X) be a <u>transformed random variable</u> where  $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function. The pmf of Y is

$$pmf_Y(y) = \sum_{x:g(x)=y} pmf_X(x)$$

**Theorem 8.19.** Let X be a continuous random variable and Y = g(X) be a <u>transformed random variable</u> where g is an appropriate transformation like continuous increasing. The cdf of Y is

$$cdf_Y(y) = \int_{\{x:g(x) \le y\}} pdf_X(x) dx$$

The probability density function of Y is

$$pdf_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy}cdf_Y(y)$$

**Theorem 8.20.** Let X be a continuous random variable and  $F(x) = cdf_X(x)$ . Then new random variable Y = F(X) is uniformly distributed on (0,1), that is,  $Y \sim uniform(0,1)$ .

**Theorem 8.21** (change of variable). Let X be a continuous random variable and g be a one-to-one and differentiable function. Then the density of random variable Y = g(X) is

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$$pdf_Y(y) = pdf_X(g^{-1}(y)) |\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y)|$$

whenever y is in the range of Y(S).

**Theorem 8.22.** Consider discrete random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ . There exist m functions  $g_1, \ldots, g_m$  so that  $Y_i = g_i(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ . The joint probability mass function of  $Y = (Y_1, \ldots, Y_m)$  is

$$pmf_Y(y) = \sum_{x:g_i(x)=y_i, i=1,...,m} pmf_X(x)$$

**Definition 8.29.** Random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are said to be **independent** and **identically distributed** (i.i.d) if all random variables have the same distribution and are independent.

**Theorem 8.23.** Let X and Y be jointly continuous random variables. The density of Z = X + Y is

$$pdf_Z(z) = \int pdf_{X,Y}(x, z - x) dx$$

If X and Y are independent, then

$$pdf_X(z) = \int pdf_X(x)pdf_Y(z-x) dx$$

**Theorem 8.24** (change of variable). Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  have a joint density function  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and  $Y_i = g_i(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  for one-to-one correspondent and differentiable functions  $g_i$ 's, say y = g(x). The joint density of  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  is

$$pdf_Y(y) = pdf_X(x) \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_n)} \right) \right|$$

where  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n) = g^{-1}(y)$ 

#### 8.5 Expectation

**Definition 8.30.** expectation The **expectation** (or expected value or mean value) of a discrete random variable is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x} x \times P(X = x) = \sum_{x} x \times pmf_X(x)$$

when the sum is absolutely convergent.

**Definition 8.31.** The expectation of a continuous random variable X is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int x \times p df_X(x) \, dx$$

**Theorem 8.25.** Assume a discrete random variable X is non-negative. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty P(X > z) \, dz = \int_0^\infty x \, dF(x)$$

Corollary 8.1. Let X be a non-negative integer valued random variables. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(X \ge n)$$

**Lemma 8.2.** Let F be the cumulative distribution function of a random variable X. For an interval,

$$P(a < X \le b) = \mathbb{E}[1(a < X \le b)]$$

In general, for each event A of X,

$$P(X \in A) = \mathbb{E}[1(X \in A)]$$

**Theorem 8.26.** For any random variable X with finite expectation,

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty P(X > z) \, dz - \int_{-\infty}^0 P(X < z) \, dz = \int_{-\infty}^\infty x \, dF(x)$$

**Theorem 8.27.** Let X be a random variable and g be a function on  $\mathbb{R}$ . If expectation of Y = g(X) is defined, then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int g(x) \, d \, c df_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot p df_X(x) \, dx$$

or

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int g(x) \, d \, c df_X(x) = \sum_x g(x) \cdot p df_X(x)$$

**Lemma 8.3.** Assume  $X, Y \ge 0$  with probability 1, that is,  $P(X \ge 0, Y \ge 0) = 1$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}[X+Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}[X - Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] - \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

Theorem 8.28 (Properties of Expectation). Satisfies

1. (linearity) Let Y = aX + b, then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b$$

- 2. (monotonicity) If  $X \geq 0$ , that is,  $P(X \geq 0) = 1$ , then  $E(X) \geq 0$
- 3. (additivity)  $\mathbb{E}[(|X+Y)] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$
- 4. For constant random variable 1,  $\mathbb{E}[1] = 1$

**Theorem 8.29.** Let X and Y be two independent random variables and g and h be real functions satisfying g(X) and h(Y) are random variables with finite expectations. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)h(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[g(X)]\mathbb{E}[h(Y)]$$

#### 8.6 Moments

**Definition 8.32.** For positive integer k, the k-th moment of X is  $\mathbb{E}[X^k]$  and the k-th central moment is  $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^k]$ .

**Theorem 8.30.** If  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^t] < \infty$  for some t > 0, then  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^s] < \infty$  for any  $0 \le s \le t$ .

**Definition 8.33** (variance). The **variance** of a random variable X is

$$\operatorname{Var} X = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]$$

The **covariance** and **correlation** between two random variables X and Y are

$$Cov(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])]$$

and

$$Cor(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var} X \operatorname{Var} Y}}$$

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Theorem 8.31 (Properties of variance). satisfies

- 1.  $\operatorname{Var} X \ge 0$
- 2.  $\operatorname{Var} X = \mathbb{E}[X^2] (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$
- 3.  $\operatorname{Var} aX + b = a^2 \operatorname{Var} X$
- 4.  $\operatorname{Var} X + Y = \operatorname{Var} X + \operatorname{Var} Y + 2Cov(X, Y)$
- 5.  $\operatorname{Var} X + Y = \operatorname{Var} X + \operatorname{Var} Y$  if and only if X and Y are uncorrelated.
- **6.** If a random variable X is bounded, then it must has finite variance.
- 7. Var X=0 if and only if P(X=c)=1 for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Theorem 8.32 (Properties of covariance).

$$Cov[X, Y] = \mathbb{E}[X, Y] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

**Definition 8.34** (skewness and kurtosis). The standardized third and fourth moments are said to be **skewness** and **kurtosis**, that is,

skewness = 
$$\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^3]/\sigma^3$$
, kurtosis =  $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^4]/\sigma^4$  where  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$  and  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var } X$ .

### 9 Inequalities

**Theorem 9.1** (Chebychev's inequality). Let X be a random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then, for any  $\alpha > 0$ ,

$$P(|X - \mu| \ge \alpha \sigma) \le \frac{1}{\alpha^2}$$

Equivalently, for  $\alpha > 0$ ,

$$P(|X - \mu| > \alpha) \le \frac{\operatorname{Var} X}{\alpha^2}$$

**Theorem 9.2** (Markov's inequality). If  $X \geq 0$  with  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X] < \infty$ , then for any  $\alpha > 0$ ,

$$P(X \ge \alpha) \le \mu/\alpha$$

**Remark 9.1.** The Chebychev's inequality is a special case of Markov's inequality by considering

$$Y = (X - \mu)^2$$

Note that  $A = \{s \in \Omega : |X(s) - E(X)| \ge r\} = \{s \in \Omega : (X(s) - E(X))^2 \ge r^2\}$ 

Now, consider the random variable, Y, where  $Y(s) = (X(s) - E(X))^2$ .

Note that Y is a non-negative random variable.

Thus, we can apply Markov's inequality to it, to get:

$$P(A) = P(Y \ge r^2) \le \frac{E(Y)}{r^2} = \frac{E((X - E(X))^2)}{r^2} = \frac{V(X)}{r^2}.$$

**Theorem 9.3** (Cauchy-Schwartz' inequality). Let X and Y be two random variables having finite second moment. Then

$$[\mathbb{E}[XY]]^2 \le \mathbb{E}[X^2]\mathbb{E}[Y^2]$$

where the equality holds if and only if P(aX = bY) = 1 for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 9.4.** Let X and Y be two random variables with finite second moment. Then Y = aX + b for some a, b if and only if |Corr(X, Y)| = 1.

**Lemma 9.1** (Young's inequality). For p, q > 1 with 1/p + 1/q = 1 and two nonnegative real numbers  $x, y \ge 0$ ,

$$xy \le x^p/p + y^q/q$$

**Theorem 9.5** (Hölder's inequality). For p, q > 1 with 1/p + 1/q = 1,

$$\mathbb{E}[|XY|] \le ||X||_p ||Y||_q$$

when the expectations exist and are finite where  $||X||_r = \mathbb{E}[|X|^r]^{1/r}$  for r > 0.

**Remark 9.2.** The Cauchy-Schwartz' inequality is a special case of Hölder's inequality (p = q = 2)

**Theorem 9.6** (Jensen's inequality). For a convex function  $\varphi$ ,

$$\varphi(\mathbb{E}[X]) \le \mathbb{E}[\varphi(X)]$$

**Theorem 9.7** (Minkowski's inequality). For p > 1,

$$||X + Y||_p \le ||X||_p + ||Y||_p$$

### 10 Conditional Expectation

**Definition 10.1.** conditional expectation The conditional expectation of Y given X = x is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X=x] = \int y \, dc df_{Y|X}(y|x)$$

**Remark 10.1.** The conditional expectation  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X=x]$  is always a function of x, say h(x). Then denote  $h(X) = \mathbb{E}[Y|X]$  as a random variable.

**Theorem 10.1.** Assume  $\mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \infty$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X = x] = \int_0^\infty P(Y > z|X = x) \, dz - \int_{-\infty}^0 P(Y < z|X = x) \, dz$$

If Y is discrete, then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X=x] = \sum_{y} y \times pmf_{Y|X}(y|x)$$

If Y is continuous, then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X=x] = \int y \times pm f_{Y|X}(y|x) \, dy$$

**Theorem 10.2** (Properties of conditional expectation). Satisfies

- 1.  $\mathbb{E}[aY + b|X] = a\mathbb{E}[Y|X] + b$
- 2. If  $P(Y \ge 0|X) = 1$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[Y|X] \ge 0$
- 3.  $\mathbb{E}[Y+Z|X] = \mathbb{E}[Y|X] + \mathbb{E}[Z|X]$
- 4. for constant random variable 1,  $\mathbb{E}[1|X]=1$
- 5. for convex function  $\phi$ ,  $\varphi(\mathbb{E}[Y|X]) \leq \mathbb{E}[\varphi(Y)|X]$

**Theorem 10.3** (Law of Total Expectation).

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Y|X]] = \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

i.e. The expected value of the conditional expected value of Y given X is the same as the expected value of Y. One special case states that if  $\{A_i\}_i$  is a finite or countable partition of the sample space, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i} \mathbb{E}[X|A_i]P(A_i)$$

**Definition 10.2.** conditional variance The conditional variance is given by

$$\operatorname{Var} Y|X = x = \mathbb{E}[(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|X = x])^2|X = x]$$

Theorem 10.4.

$$\operatorname{Var} Y = \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Var} Y|X] + \operatorname{Var} \mathbb{E}[Y|X]$$

### 11 Probability Related Functions

Let X be a random variable.

- 1. moment generating function:  $mgf_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}]$
- 2. cumulant generating function:  $cgf_X(t) = \log \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}]$
- 3. probability generating function:  $pgf_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[z^X]$
- 4. characteristic generating function:  $chf_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX}]$

where  $t \in \mathbb{R}, z > 0$  and  $i = \sqrt{-1}$  is the unit imaginary number.

Theorem 11.1 (properties of mgf). As follows

- 1.  $mgf_X(0) = 1$
- 2.  $\mathbb{E}[X^k] = \frac{d^k}{dt_k} mgf_X(0)$  if it exists
- 3. If  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^k] < \infty$ , then for  $\mu_j = \mathbb{E}[X^j]$  where  $j = 1, \dots, k$ ,

$$mgf_X(t) = 1 + \mu_1 t + \mu_2 \frac{t^2}{2!} + \dots + \mu_k \frac{t^k}{k!} + o(|t|^k)$$

- 4.  $mgf_{aX+b}(t) = e^{bt}mgf_X(at)$
- 5. If X and Y are independent, then

$$mgf_{X,Y}(s,t) = mgf_X(s)mgf_Y(t)$$

**Theorem 11.2** (properties of cgf). As follows

- 1.  $cgf_X(0) = 0$
- 2. If X and Y are independent, then

$$cgf_{X,Y}(s,t) = cgf_X(s) + cgf_Y(t)$$

**Theorem 11.3** (properties of pgf). As follows

- 1.  $pgf_X(1) = 1$
- 2.  $\mathbb{E}[X(X-1)\dots(X-k+1)] = \frac{d^k}{dz^k}pgf_X(1)$  if it exists.
- 3. If X and Y are independent, then

$$pgf_{X,Y}(s,t) = pgf_X(s) + pgf_Y(t)$$

**Theorem 11.4** (properties of chf). As follows

- 1.  $chf_X(0) = 1$
- 2.  $\mathbb{E}[X^k] = (i)^{-k} \frac{d^k}{dt^k} ch f_X(0)$  if it exists
- 3. If  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^k] < \infty$ , then for  $\mu_j = \mathbb{E}[X^j]$  where  $j = 1, \dots, k$ ,

$$chf_X(t) = 1 + i\mu_1 t - \mu_2 \frac{t^2}{2!} + \dots + i^k \mu_k \frac{t^k}{k!} + o(|t|^k)$$

- 4.  $chf_{aX+b} = e^{ibt}chf_X(at)$
- 5. If X and Y are independent, then

$$chf_{X,Y}(s,t) = chf_X(s)chf_Y(t)$$

- 6.  $|chf_X(t)| \leq 1$  for all t
- 7. chf is uniformly continuous
- 8. for any  $t_1, \ldots, t_n \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $z_1, \ldots, z_n \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\sum_{j,k} ch f_X(t_j - t_k) z_j \bar{z}_k \ge 0$$

**Theorem 11.5.** If two random variables X and Y have the same moment generating functions in an open neighbourhood of 0, that is, (-a, b) for a, b > 0, then X and Y are identically distributed.

**Theorem 11.6.** If a function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$  satisfies 5 - 8 in Theorem 11.4, then there exists a random variable having  $\varphi$  as its characteristic function.

**Definition 11.1.** The joint probability/moment/cumulant generating and characteristic functions of X and Y are

- 1.  $mgf_{X,Y}(s,t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{sX+tY}]$
- 2.  $cgf_{X,Y}(s,t) = \log mgf_{X,Y}(s,t)$
- 3.  $pgf_{X,Y}(s,t) = \mathbb{E}[s^X t^Y]$
- 4.  $chf_{X,Y}(s,t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{isX+itY}]$

**Theorem 11.7** (Inversion Formula). Let  $\varphi$  be a characteristic function of a random variable X. Then for any a, b,

$$P(a < X < b) + \{P(X = a) + P(X = b)\}/2 = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-iat} - e^{-ibt}}{it} \varphi(t) dt$$

**Theorem 11.8** (Chernoff Bound). Let X be a random variable having moment generating function. For any constant x,

$$P(X \ge x) \le \inf_{t>0} e^{-xt} mgf_X(t)$$

#### 11.1 Survival Functions

Let X be a non-negative valued random variable.

The survival function of X is  $S_X(t) = P(X > t)$  or  $S_X(t) = 1 - F_X(t)$ .

(the probability of surviving longer than time x.

The **hazard** function is

$$h_X(t) = \frac{pdf_X(t)}{S_X(t)} = \frac{pdf_X(t)}{1 - F_X(t)}$$

(measures the risk of event (or death) at time x. The **cumulative hazard** function is

$$H_X(t) = \int_0^t h_X(z) \, dz$$

for t > 0.

The **residual** (or future) lifetime given X > t is defined by

$$R_X(t) = X - t$$

The **mean residual lifetime** is the conditional expectation of residual lifetime given X > t, that is,

$$\mathbb{E}[R_X(t)|X>t] = \int_0^\infty P(R_X(t)>z|X>t) \, dz = \int_t^\infty \frac{S_X(z)}{S_X(t)} \tag{7}$$

Particularly for t = 0 and  $S_X(0) = 1$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[R_X(0)|X>0] = \int_0^\infty S_X(z) \, dz = \mathbb{E}[X]$$

### 12 Stochastic process

**Definition 12.1.** A stochastic process is a collection of time indexed random variables

$$\{X_t: t \in \mathcal{T}\}$$

A collection of  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}}$  is called a **filtration** if  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{F}_t$  for any  $0 \le s \le t$ .

A stochastic process  $X = \{X_t\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}}$  is said to be **adapted to the filtration**  $\mathcal{F}$  if  $X_t$  is  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -measurable (or  $\{X_t \leq r\} \in \mathcal{F}_t$  for any real number r).

**Definition 12.2** (Martingales). A stochastic process  $X_n$  is said to be a (discrete-time) martingale if

- 1.  $\mathbb{E}[|X_n|] < \infty$
- 2.  $\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}|X_0,\ldots,X_n]=X_n$  for all n
- 3. A stochastic process  $X_n$  is said to be supermartingale if it satisfies above (1) and

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}|X_0,\ldots,X_n] \le X_n$$

for all n.

4. A stochastic process  $X_n$  is said to be **submartingale** if it satisfies above (1) and

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}|X_0,\ldots,X_n] \ge X_n$$

for all n.

Note: the condition  $X_0, \ldots, X_n$  is often replaced by  $\mathcal{F}$ , that is,

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}|\mathcal{F}_n] = X_n$$

Remark 12.1. A martingale is both supermartingale and submartingale.

If  $X_n$  is a submartingale, then  $-X_n$  is a supermaringale.

**Definition 12.3** (stopping time). A time valued random variable T is said to be a **stopping time** if the event  $\{T \leq n\}$  can be expressed by  $X_0, \ldots, X_n$ 

**Example 12.1.** The first time T that the stochastic process  $X_n$  is bigger than or equal to a constant K is a stopping time by considering

$${T = n} = {X_1 < K, \dots, X_{n-1} < K, X_n \ge K}$$

**Theorem 12.1** (Optional Sampling Theorem). Let  $X_n$  be a submartingale and T is a stopping time with  $P(T \le k) = 1$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[X_0] \le \mathbb{E}[X_T] \le \mathbb{E}[X_k]$$

#### 12.1Random Walk

Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  be a sequence of independent random variables having mean zero and variance 1. Define  $S_n = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$ 

**Theorem 12.2.** For any  $\alpha > 0$ ,

$$P(\max_{k=1,\dots,n}|S_k| \ge \alpha) \le \frac{\operatorname{Var} S_n}{\alpha^2}$$

**Theorem 12.3.** If  $X_n$  is symmetric for each n, then

$$P(\max_{k=1,\dots,n}|S_k| \ge \alpha) \le 2P(S_n \ge \alpha)$$

#### 12.2 Poisson Process

A Poisson process with intensity  $\lambda$  is a stochastic process  $N = \{N_t : t \geq 0\}$  taking values in non-negative integers satisfying

(a)  $N_0 = 0$  and  $N_s \le N_t$  if  $0 \le s \le 1$ 

(a) 
$$N_0 = 0$$
 and  $N_s \le N_t$  if  $0 \le s \le t$   
(b)  $P(N_{t+h} = n + m | N_t = n) = \begin{cases} 1 - \lambda h + o(h) & \text{if } m = 0 \\ \lambda h + o(h) & \text{if } m = 1 \\ o(h) & \text{if } m > 1 \end{cases}$ 

(c) For  $0 \le s < t$ , the arrivals  $N_t - N_s$  in the interval (s, t] is independent of the arrivals  $N_s$  in the interval (0, s].

**Theorem 12.4.** For any fixed time t > 0,  $N_t \sim Poisson(\lambda t)$ 

**Theorem 12.5.** The interarrival times  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  are independent and identically distributed from exponential with  $\lambda$ 

#### Reflection principle (Wiener process) 12.3

**Definition 12.4** (Wiener Process). A continuous-time stochastic process W(t) for t > 0 with W(0) = 0 and such that the increment W(t) - W(s) is Gaussian with mean 0 and variance t - s for any  $0 \le s < t$ , and increments for nonoverlapping time intervals are independent.

Remark 12.2. Brownian motion (i.e. random walk with random step sizes) is the most common example of a Wiener process.

**Theorem 12.6** (Reflection principle). If  $(W(t):t\geq 0)$  is a Wiener process, and a>0 is a threshold, then

$$P\left(\sup_{0 \le s \le t} W(s) \ge a\right) = 2P(W(t) \ge a)$$

**Remark 12.3.** If the path of a Wiener process f(t) reaches a value f(s) = a at time t = s, then the subsequent path after time s has the same distribution as the reflection of the subsequent path about the value a.

### 13 Mode of Convergence

**Definition 13.1.** Modes of convergence

• A sequence of random variables  $X_n$  converges to X in distribution  $(X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X)$  if

$$P(X_n \le x) \to P(X \le x)$$

as  $n \to \infty$  for any x with P(X = x) = 0.

• A sequence of random variables  $X_n$  converges to X in probability  $(X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X)$  if

$$P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ 

• A sequence of random variables  $X_n$  converges to X almost surely  $(X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X)$  if

$$P(\lim \sup_{n \to \infty} |X_n - X| = 0) = 1$$

• A sequence of random variables  $X_n$  converges to X in  $L^p$   $(X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X)$  for p > 0 if

$$\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^p] \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ 

**Theorem 13.1.** Let  $X_n$  and X be discrete random variables with probability mass functions  $f_n(x)$  and f(x) satisfying  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  for any x with f(x) > 0. Then

$$X_n \longrightarrow X$$

in distribution.

**Theorem 13.2** (Relations between modes of convergence). As follows:

- (a)  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$
- (b)  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$
- (c)  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X \implies X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$

### 13.1 $L^1$ Convergence

**Lemma 13.1** (L<sup>1</sup> Convergence). If  $Y \ge 0$  and  $\mathbb{E}[[]Y] < \infty$ , then for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists M > 0 such that

$$\mathbb{E}[Y\mathbb{1}\{Y>M\}]<\epsilon$$

**Lemma 13.2.** Suppose a random variable Y has a finite absolute expectation, that is,  $\mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \infty$ . For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\mathbb{E}[Y\mathbb{1}\{A\}]| < \epsilon$  for any event A with  $P(A) < \delta$  where  $\mathbb{1}\{A\}$  is an indicator function of the event A.

**Lemma 13.3.** Suppose a random variable Y has a finite absolute expectation, that is,  $\mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \infty$  and a sequence  $A_n$  of events satisfy  $P(A_n) \to 0$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y\mathbb{1}\{A_n\}] \to 0$$

**Theorem 13.3** (Dominated Convergence Theorem). Suppose that  $X_n \to X$  in probability,  $|X_n| \le Y$  and  $\mathbb{E}[Y] < \infty$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X]$$

**Theorem 13.4** (Generalized Dominated Convergence Theorem). If all  $X, Y, X_n, Y_n$  have finite absolute expectation,  $|X_n| \leq Y_n$  for all  $n, X_n \to X$  in probability,  $Y_n \to Y$ , and  $\mathbb{E}[Y_n] \to \mathbb{E}[Y]$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X]$$

Theorem 13.5 (Monotone Convergence Theorem). Let  $X_n$  be non-negative non-decreasing random variables. Suppose  $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n = X$  is finite a.s. Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{E}[X_n] = \mathbb{E}[X]$$

**Theorem 13.6** (Fatou's lemma). Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  be a sequence of non-negative random variables. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[\lim_{n\to\infty}\inf X_n] \le \lim_{n\to\infty}\inf \mathbb{E}[X_n]$$

#### 13.2 Almost Sure Convergence

**Theorem 13.7** (Borel-Cantelli lemma). Let  $A = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=m}^{\infty} A_n$  be the event that infinitely many  $A_n$ 's occur.

- 1. P(A) = 0 if  $\sum_{n} P(A_n) < \infty$
- 2. P(A) = 1 if  $\sum_{n} P(A_n) = \infty$  and  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  are independent.

**Theorem 13.8.** If for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \infty$ , then  $X_n \to X$  almost surely.

**Theorem 13.9.** If a sequence of random variables  $X_n$  converges to X in probability, then there exists a subsequence  $n_k$  such that  $X_{n_k}$  converges to X almost surely.

**Theorem 13.10.** A sequence  $x_n$  of real numbers converges to x if and only if for any subsequence  $n_k$  there exists a further subsequence  $n_{k_l}$  such that  $x_{n_{k_l}}$ 

**Theorem 13.11.** A sequence of random variables  $X_n$  converges to X in probability if and only if for any subsequence  $n_k$  there exists a further subsequence  $n_{k_l}$  such that  $X_{n_{k_l}}$  converges to X a.s.

### 13.3 Convergence in distribution

Theorem 13.12. As follows

- (a) If  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} c$  where c is a constant, then  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ .
- (b) If  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$  and  $P(|X_n| \le M) = 1$  for some M > 0, then  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$  for any p > 0

**Theorem 13.13.** Let X be a random variable with P(X = x) = 0 for all x and F be the distribution function of X. Then  $F(X) \sim uniform(0,1)$  and  $F^{-1}(U) \sim X$  for any  $U \sim uniform(0,1)$ 

**Theorem 13.14** (Skorokhod's representation theorem). If  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$ , then there exist random variables  $Y, Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  in a probability space such that

- (a)  $X_n$  and  $Y_n$  have the same distribution as well as X and Y have the same distribution
- (b)  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$

**Theorem 13.15** (Continuous mapping theorem). Let g be a continuous function.

- 1.  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies g(X_n) \xrightarrow{a.s.} g(X)$
- 2.  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies g(X_n) \xrightarrow{p} g(X)$
- 3.  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \implies g(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} g(X)$

**Theorem 13.16.**  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$  if and only if  $\mathbb{E}[g(X_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[g(X)]$  for any bounded continuous function g.

**Theorem 13.17.**  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$  if and only if

$$chf_{X_n}(t) \to chf_X(t)$$

**Theorem 13.18.** If  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$ , then

$$aX_n + b \xrightarrow{d} aX + b$$

for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

**Theorem 13.19** (Slutsky's lemma). Suppose  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} c$  for a constant c.

- 1.  $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c$
- $2. \ X_n Y_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} Xc$
- 3.  $X_n/Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/c \text{ if } c \neq 0$

## 14 Law of Large Numbers

**Theorem 14.1** (Weak Law of Large Numbers). Let  $X_n$  be i.i.d. with  $\mathbb{E}[|X_n|] < \infty$ . Then

$$\bar{X}_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{E}[X_1]$$

**Theorem 14.2** (Strong Law of Large Numbers). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. r.v.s with  $\mathbb{E}[|X_n|] < \infty$ . Then

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mathbb{E}[X_1]$$

**Theorem 14.3.** Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. r.v.s with  $\mathbb{E}[X_n^2] < \infty$ .

$$\bar{X}_n = (X_1 + \ldots + X_n)/n \longrightarrow \mathbb{E}[X_1]$$

almost surely and in  $L^2$ .

### 15 Central Limit Theorem

For  $k \approx np$ , the binomial probability is approximated by

$$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi np(1-p)}} \exp\left(-\frac{(k-np)^2}{2np(1-p)}\right)$$

**Theorem 15.1** (Levy's Central Limit Theorem). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. r.v.s with  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X_i]$  and  $\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var} X_i$ . Then

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1)$$

**Theorem 15.2** (Lindeberg-Feller Central Limit Theorem). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. r.v.s with  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = 0$  and  $\sigma_i^2 = \operatorname{Var} X_i^2 < \infty$ . Let  $s_n^2 = \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] + \ldots + \mathbb{E}[X_n^2]$  The Lindeberg condition

$$\frac{1}{s_n^2 \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_k^2 \mathbb{1}\{X_k^2 > \epsilon s_n^2\}]} \to 0$$

for any  $\epsilon > 0$  holds if and only if

$$(X_1 + \ldots + X_n)/s_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N(0,1)$$

and

$$\max(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2)/s_n^2 \to 0$$

**Theorem 15.3** (Lyapounov's condition). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. r.v.s with  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = 0$  and  $\sigma_i^2 = \operatorname{Var} X_i^2 < \infty$  satisfying Lyapounov's condition

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{s_n^{2+\delta}} \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}[|X_k|^{2+\delta}] = 0$$

Then Lindeberg's condition holds. Hence

$$(X_1 + \ldots + X_n)/s_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N(0,1)$$

**Theorem 15.4** ( $\delta$ -method). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. r.v.s and  $a_n$  is a sequence of positive real numbers diverging to infinity. If  $a_n(X_n - \mu) \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} Z$  for some r.v. Z and a constant  $\mu$ , then for any continuously differentiable function g,

$$a_n(g(X_n) - g(\mu)) \xrightarrow{d} g'(\mu)Z$$