

## 1 Measure and Integral

**Definition 1.** (Measurable space and measurable sets). Let  $\Omega$  be the universal set (sample space) with  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  is called measurable space and the subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$  are called measurable sets.

**Definition 2.** (Measure or probability measure). A non-negative  $\sigma$ -additive set function  $\mu$  on a  $\sigma$ -algebra is called measure. It is called probability measure if  $\mu(\Omega)(= P(\Omega)) = 1$ .

**Definition 3.** A Lebesgue-Stieljes measure on  $\mathbb{R}$  is a measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $\mu(I) < \infty$  for each bounded interval  $I$ . A distribution function on  $\mathbb{R}$  is a map  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that is increasing ( $a < b$  implies  $F(a) \leq F(b)$ ) and right continuous  $\lim_{h \downarrow 0} F(x+h) = F(x)$ .

**Theorem 1.** Let  $\mu$  be a Lebesgue-Stieljes (LS) measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined, up to an additive constant,  $F(b) - F(a) = \mu(a, b]$ . Then  $F$  is a distribution function.

**Theorem 2.** Let  $F$  be a distribution function on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and let  $\mu(a, b] = F(b) - F(a)$ ,  $a < b$ . There is a unique extension of  $\mu$  to a LS measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 4.** (Measurable function). The function  $f : \Omega_1 \rightarrow \Omega_2$  is measurable relative to the  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{A}_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  iff  $f^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{A}_1$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}_2$ , i.e.,  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{A}_2) = \mathcal{A}_1$ .

**Definition 5.** A measurable function  $f : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  is called Borel measurable.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $f_1, f_2, \dots$ , be Borel measurable and  $f_n \rightarrow f$ . Then  $f(= \lim f_n)$  is Borel measurable. (The same applies to  $\lim \sup$  and  $\lim \inf$ .)

**Theorem 4.** Any Borel-measurable function  $f \geq 0$  is the limit of an increasing sequence of simple functions.

**Definition 6.** (Integral). Let  $\mu$  be a measure on a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ .

- For  $f = 1_A$ ,  $\mu f = \int f d\mu = \int 1_A d\mu = \mu A$ .
- For  $f = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k 1_{A_k}$ , set  $\mu f = \int \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k 1_{A_k} d\mu = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \mu A_k$  provided  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$  do not occur in the sum together.
- $f \geq 0$  is Borel-measurable, set  $\mu f = \sup\{\mu s : s \text{ is simple}, 0 \leq s \leq f\}$ .
- For Borel-measurable  $f$ , set  $\mu f = \mu f^+ - \mu f^-$  provided  $\infty - \infty$  can be excluded.  $f$  is called integrable if  $\mu f$  is finite.

**Theorem 5.** (Radon-Nikodym theorem). Let  $\mu$  be a  $\sigma$ -finite measure and  $\nu$  be a ( $\sigma$ -finite) signed measure on  $\mathcal{A}$  with  $\nu \ll \mu$ . Then there is a measurable function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with

$$\nu A = \mu 1_A f = \int_A f d\mu$$

for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $g$  is another function with  $\nu A = \mu 1_A g$ , then,  $f = g$  everywhere.  $f$  is called  $\mu$ -density or Radon-Nikodym density.

**Definition 7.** (Measurable rectangles and product- $\sigma$ -algebra). Let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \cdots \times \Omega_n$  be the cartesian product of  $\Omega_k, k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , and  $\mathcal{A}_k$  the associated  $\sigma$ -algebras. A measurable rectangle in  $\Omega$  is a set

$$\times_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n, A_k \in \mathcal{A}_k.$$

The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the measurable rectangles is called product  $\sigma$ -algebra,  $\mathcal{A} = \otimes \mathcal{A}_k$ , and  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  is called product measurable space.

**Theorem 6.** (Fubini's theorem). Let  $(\Omega_k, \mathcal{A}_k, \mu_k), k = 1, 2$  be  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces and let  $f \in L_1(\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2, \mathcal{A}_1 \otimes \mathcal{A}_2, \mu)$ , where  $\mu = \mu_1 \otimes \mu_2$  denotes the product measure (with  $\mu(A_1 \times A_2) = \mu_1(A_1)\mu_2(A_2)$ ). Then there are sets  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  such that  $\mu_k(\Omega_k \setminus B_k) = 0$ , for  $k = 1, 2$ , and (a) for  $\omega_1 \in B_1$ ,  $f(\omega_1, \cdot) \in L_1(\Omega_2, \mathcal{A}_2, \mu_2)$  and  $g_1(\omega_1) = \int_{\Omega_2} f(\omega_1, \omega_2) \mu_2(d\omega_2) 1_{B_1}(\omega_1)$  is  $\mathcal{A}_1$  measurable; (b) for  $\omega_2 \in B_2$ ,  $f(\cdot, \omega_2) \in L_1(\Omega_1, \mathcal{A}_1, \mu_1)$  and  $g_2(\omega_2) = \int_{\Omega_1} f(\omega_1, \omega_2) \mu_1(d\omega_1) 1_{B_2}(\omega_2)$  is  $\mathcal{A}_2$  measurable.

In particular,

$$\int_{\Omega_1} \int_{\Omega_2} f(\omega_1, \omega_2) \mu_2(d\omega_2) \mu_1(d\omega_1) = \int_{\Omega_2} \int_{\Omega_1} f(\omega_1, \omega_2) \mu_1(d\omega_1) \mu_2(d\omega_2) = \int_{\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2} f d(\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2).$$

## 2 Convergence of random variables and strong laws of large numbers

In the following, we consider the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ .

**Definition 8.** A Borel measurable function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a random vector (or random variable if  $n = 1$ ). The probability measure  $P^X$  on  $\mathcal{B}^n$  induced by  $X$  is defined by

$$P^X B = P(X \in B) = P\{\omega : X(\omega) \in B\} = P X^{-1} B, B \in \mathcal{B}^n.$$

**Definition 9.** Consider random variables  $X, X_1, X_2, \dots \in L_p, p > 0$ .

- a.  $X_n$  convergence to  $X$  in  $L_p$  (in  $p$ -th norm or “in  $p$ th mean”),  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in  $L_p$ , if  $\|X_n - X\|_p = E(|X_n - X|^p)^{1/p} \rightarrow 0$
- b.  $X_n$  converges to  $X$  in probability,  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ , if  $\forall \epsilon > 0, P(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- c.  $X_n$  converges to  $X$  almost surely if there is a  $N \subset \Omega$  with  $P_N = 0$  such that for all  $\omega \notin N, X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega)$  (or  $P\{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X\} = 1$ ).

**Remark 1.**  $X_n \xrightarrow{L_p} X \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{P} X, X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ . The reverse is not always true.

**Theorem 7.** (SLLN). Suppose that  $X_1, X_2, \dots \in L_2$  are independent and  $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a sequence with  $0 < b_n \uparrow \infty$ . If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \text{Var}(X_n)/b_n^2 < \infty$ , then, for  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ ,

$$\frac{S_n - ES_n}{b_n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

almost surely. A special case is  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are i.i.d and  $b_n = n$ . Then  $S_n/b_n = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{a.s.} EX_1$ .

**Remark 2.** Marcinkiewics-Zygmund SLLNs. Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are identically distributed random variables and  $p \in (0, 2)$ . Then

- a. If  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , are pairwise independent and  $(S_n - nc)/n^{1/p}$  converges a.s. for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $E|X_1|^p < \infty$ .
- b. If  $E|X_1|^p < \infty$  and  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are independent, then  $(S_n - nc)/n^{1/p}$  converges a.s. with any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  if  $p \in (0, 1)$  and  $c = EX_1$  if  $p \in [1, 2)$ .

**Corollary 1.** (Kolmogorov’s SLLN). Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , are i.i.d. random variables. Then  $(S_n - nc)/n$  converges a.s. for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  if and only if  $E|X_1| < \infty$ , in which case,  $c = EX_1$ .

**Definition 10.** Consider probability measures  $P, P_1, P_2, \dots$  on  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then  $P_n$  converges to  $P$ , written as  $P_n \Rightarrow P$ , if for all bounded continuous functions  $f, P_n f \rightarrow P f$ . If  $X, X_1, X_2, \dots$  are random variables with  $P^{X_n} \Rightarrow P^X$ , then we say  $X_n$  converges to  $X$  in distribution and write  $X_n \Rightarrow X$  or  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ .

**Remark 3.**  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ . The reverse is in general not true.

### 3 Convergence of integrals and expectations

We begin with  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  (which contains  $\mu = P$  as a special case).

**Theorem 8.** (Beppo Levi's monotone convergence theorem). Let  $0 \leq f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots$  and  $f = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n$ . Then,  $\mu f_n \rightarrow \mu f$ , i.e.,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu f_n = \mu(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n)$ . In the special case  $\mu = P$  and  $f_n = X_n$ , we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} EX_n = E(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n)$ .

**Lemma 1.** (Fatou's Lemma). Consider  $f_n \geq 0, n \in \mathbb{N}$  are measurable. Then,

a.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{k \geq n} \mu f_k \geq \mu(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{k \geq n} f_k)$ .

b.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{k \geq n} \mu f_k \leq \mu(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{k \geq n} f_k)$ .

**Theorem 9.** (Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem). Consider  $f_1, f_2, \dots$ , are measurable,  $f_n \rightarrow f$ , and  $|f_n| \leq g$  where  $g$  is integrable. Then,  $f$  is integrable and  $\mu f_n \rightarrow \mu f$ , i.e.,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu f_n = \mu(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n)$ .

**Theorem 10.** If  $\{T_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is UI and  $T_n \xrightarrow{d} T$ , then  $ET_n \rightarrow ET$ .

## 4 Important Asymptotic Theorems

**Theorem 11.** (Scheffé Lemma). Consider probability measures  $P, P_1, P_2, \dots$  with Lebesgue-densities  $f, f_1, f_2, \dots$ . If  $f_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f$  pointwise, then

$$\sup_{A \in \mathcal{B}} |P_n A - P A| \rightarrow 0.$$

**Theorem 12.** Suppose  $X, X_1, X_2, \dots$  are random variables with distribution functions  $F, F_1, F_2, \dots$ , i.e.,  $F_n(t) = P(X_n \leq t)$ . Then the following two statements are equivalent

a.  $P^{X_n} \Rightarrow P^X$

b.  $F_n(t) \rightarrow F(t)$  if  $F$  is continuous at  $t$ .

**Remark 4.** a. A sequence of random vectors  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , (taking values in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ) is said to converge in distribution to a random vector  $X$ , " $X_n \stackrel{d}{=} X$ " or " $P^{X_n} \Rightarrow P^X$ ", if

$$P(X_n \leq x) \rightarrow P(X \leq x), \quad \text{for all } x \in C(n \rightarrow \infty),$$

where " $\leq$ " refers to the components and where  $C = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : P(X_i = x_i) = 0 \text{ for } 1, \dots, d\}$ .

b. Cramer-Wold device:

$$X_n \stackrel{d}{=} X \Leftrightarrow a^T X_n \stackrel{d}{=} a^T X, \text{ for all } a \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

**Theorem 13.** (Portmanteau theorem). Consider probability measures  $P, P_1, P_2, \dots$ , on  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then the following statements are equivalent.

- a.  $P_n \Rightarrow P$ .
- b.  $\liminf P_n A \geq PA$ , for all open sets  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ .
- c.  $\limsup P_n A \leq PA$ , for all closed sets  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ .
- d.  $P_n A \rightarrow PA$ , for all  $A$  with  $P(\delta A) = 0$ , where  $\delta A$  denotes the boundary of  $A$ .

**Remark 5.** a. Portmanteau's theorem can also be phrased for random variables: replace  $P_n$  and  $P$  by the induced measures  $P^{X_n}$  and  $P^X$ .

b. Another statement refers to the characteristic function: if  $X_n \stackrel{d}{=} X$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $E(e^{itX_n}) \rightarrow E(e^{itX})$ . The reverse holds if  $E(e^{itX})$  is continuous at 0.

c. Further, if  $E|X_n|^k < \infty$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $Ee^{tX} < \infty$  for all  $|t| < \epsilon$ , and

$$EX_n^k \rightarrow EX^k \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{N},$$

then  $X_n \stackrel{d}{=} X$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Theorem 14.** (Polya's theorem). If  $T_n \xrightarrow{d} T$  and if, additionally, the distribution function of  $T$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $P(T_n \leq x)$  converges uniformly,

$$\sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} |P(T_n \leq t) - P(T \leq t)| \rightarrow 0 \quad (n \rightarrow \infty).$$

**Theorem 15.** (Continuous mapping theorem). Let  $h$  be a measurable function and  $X, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are random variables. Then,

- a. If  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  and  $h$  is continuous, then  $h(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} h(X)$ .
- b. If  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$  and  $h$  is continuous, then  $h(X_n) \xrightarrow{p} h(c)$ .

**Theorem 16.** (Classical Slutsky's theorem). Consider random variables  $(X_n, Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  defined on  $(\Omega_n, \mathcal{A}_n, P_n)$ . Suppose  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

- a.  $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c$ .
- b.  $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} cX$ .
- c.  $X_n / Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/c$ , provided  $c \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 17.** (Generalized Slutsky's theorem). Consider  $(X_n, Y_n)$  with  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ . Suppose  $h$  is continuous, then  $h(X_n, Y_n) \xrightarrow{d} h(X, c)$ .

**Theorem 18.** (Central limit theorem (i.i.d. version)). If  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are i.i.d random variables with  $E(X_i) = \mu$  and  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ , then

$$n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) \Rightarrow N(0, \sigma^2)$$

or

$$\frac{\sum X_i - E(\sum X_i)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\sum X_i)}} \Rightarrow X \sim N(0, 1).$$

**Remark 6.** There are many generalizations.

- a. Example: the Lindeberg- Feller central limit theorem for independent but not identically distributed random variables  $X_{n1}, \dots, X_{nn}$  with  $E(X_{ni}) = \mu_{ni}$  and  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma_{ni}^2$  (which contains the i.i.d version as a special case). Then

$$n^{-1/2} \sum (X_i - \mu_{ni}) \Rightarrow N(0, \sigma^2).$$

follows from the Feller condition  $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{ni}^2 \rightarrow \sigma^2 < \infty$  and the Lindeberg condition

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(1_{\{|X_{ni} - \mu_{ni}| > \sqrt{n}\epsilon\}} |X_{ni} - \mu_{ni}|^2) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0.$$

- b. A multivariate version of the Lindeberg central limit theorem: For each  $n \geq 1$ , let  $\{X_{in}, i = 1, \dots, r_n\}$  be a collection of independent mean zero variables satisfying  $\sum_{i=1}^{r_n} E(X_{in} X_{in}^T) = \mathbb{I}$ . Suppose that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{r_n} E[\|X_{in}\|^2 1(\|X_{in}\| > \epsilon)] = 0 \quad \text{for all } \epsilon > 0,$$

Then  $\sum_{i=1}^{r_n} X_{in} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \mathbb{I})$ .

## 5 Conditional expectation

**Definition 11.** (Conditional Expectation). Let  $B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $PB > 0$ . Suppose  $X$  is  $\mathcal{A}$ -measurable and integrable. The conditional expectation  $X$  given  $B$  is

$$E(X | B) = \frac{1}{PB} E1_B X = \int X(\omega) P(d\omega | B).$$

**Theorem 19.** (Alternative definition).  $\mathcal{G}$  is a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $X$  is  $\mathcal{A}$ -measurable and integrable. The conditional expectation  $E(X | \mathcal{G})$  of  $X$  given  $\mathcal{G}$  is defined as

- a.  $E(X | \mathcal{G})$  is  $\mathcal{G}$  measurable
- b.  $E1_C X = E1_C E(X | \mathcal{G})$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{G}$ .

$E(X | \mathcal{G})$  exists and is almost unique.

**Theorem 20.** The conditional expectation  $E(X | \mathcal{A}(Y))$  can be written as  $E(X | Y) \circ Y$ . It is characterized by

$$E1_{Y \in B} X = \int_B E(X | Y = y) P^Y(dy).$$

**Theorem 21.** (Monotone convergence theorem for conditional expectations). Suppose  $0 \leq X_n \uparrow X$ . Then  $E(X_n | \mathcal{G}) \uparrow E(X | \mathcal{G})$ .

**Theorem 22.** (Dominated convergence theorem for conditional expectations). Suppose  $X_n \rightarrow X$  Then  $E(X_n | \mathcal{G}) \uparrow E(X | \mathcal{G})$ .

**Theorem 23.** Assume  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable,  $X$  and  $XY$  are integrable. Then  $E(XY | \mathcal{G}) = YE(X | \mathcal{G})$ . Hence  $E(XY | Y) = YE(X | Y)$ .

**Theorem 24.** (Jensen's inequality). Let  $I$  be an open interval and  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be convex.  $X : \Omega \rightarrow I$  is  $\mathcal{A}$ -measurable and integrable. Then

$$E(f \circ X | \mathcal{G}) \geq f \circ E(X | \mathcal{G}).$$