Sequences of random variables

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The weak law of large numbers. Convergence in probability The central limit theorem. Convergence in distribution Convergence in mean square and in *r*-mean Almost surely convergence. The strong law of large numbers Relations between the convergence concepts Operations with limits. Additional results Borel-Cantelli lemmas. Examples

1 / 63

The weak law of large numbers

Theorem (WLLN)

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k, \ldots$ *be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables with* fi*nite expectation m and* fi*nite variance.*

Set

$$
\overline{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}, \quad n \geqslant 1.
$$

Then, for all $\epsilon > 0$ *,*

$$
\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}\left(|\overline{X}_n-m|\geqslant\epsilon\right)=0
$$

The weak law of large numbers

Proof: We know that $\mathbb{E}(\overline{X}_n) = m$ and $\text{Var}(\overline{X}_n) = \text{Var}(X_1)/n$. Applying Chebyshev's inequality,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\overline{X}_n-m\right|\geqslant\epsilon\right)\leqslant\frac{\text{Var}(X_1)}{n\epsilon^2}
$$

Therefore,

For all $\epsilon > 0$ *the following limit holds:*

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\overline{X}_n-m\right|\geqslant\epsilon\right)\to 0\quad\text{as }n\to\infty
$$

The sequence of random variables $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$ converges in *some sense to the limit value* $m = \mathbb{E}(X_1)$ *.*

Convergence in probability

Definition

The sequence of random variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ converges in probability to the random variable *X* if for all $\epsilon > 0$.

 $P(|X_n - X| \ge \epsilon) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$

Notation: $X_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} X$

Therefore, the sequence of sample means $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$ converges in probability to the common expected value *m*:

$$
\overline{X}_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} m
$$

Example

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_n = -1) = \mathbb{P}(X_n = 1) = \frac{1}{2n}, \quad n \ge 1
$$

Let us show that $X_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} 0$.

5 / 63

Example

We have to prove that $\mathbb{P}(|X_n| \geq \epsilon) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Equivalently, we have to prove that

$$
\mathbb{P}(|X_n|<\epsilon)\longrightarrow 1\ \ \text{as}\ n\to\infty
$$

$$
\quad \ \blacktriangleright \ \text{If } \epsilon > 1, \text{ then } \mathbb{P}(|X_n| < \epsilon) = 1 \text{ for all } n \geqslant 1.
$$

 \blacktriangleright Otherwise, if $\epsilon \leqslant 1$, then

$$
\mathbb{P}(|X_n|<\epsilon)=\mathbb{P}(X_n=0)=1-\frac{1}{n}\longrightarrow 1
$$

Probability as the limit of the relative frequency

An important consequence of the WLLN is the following one.

- ► Let *A* be an event with probability $P(A)$.
- ► In each of *n* independent repetitions of the random experiment, we observe weather or not *A* occurs. More precisely, for $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n$, let X_k be the indicator of the event "*A* happens in the *k*-th repetition".

Hence, $\mathbb{E}(X_k) = \mathbb{P}(A)$, and, moreover,

$$
\overline{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n}{n} = f_n(A)
$$

is the relative frequency of the event *A*.

Probability as the limit of the relative frequency

Corollary

The sequence of relative frequencies ${f_n(A) : n \geq 1}$ *converges in probability to* P(*A*)*:*

$$
f_n(A) \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{P}(A)
$$

That is to say, for all $\epsilon > 0$, $\mathbb{P}(|f_n(A) - \mathbb{P}(A)| \geq \epsilon) \to 0$ *as* $n \to \infty$ *or, equivalently,*

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(|f_n(A)-\mathbb{P}(A)|<\epsilon\right)\to 1 \text{ as } n\to\infty
$$

The standardized sample mean

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k, \ldots$ be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables such that $E(X_k) = m$ and $Var(X_k) = \sigma^2$, and let us consider the sequence of the standardized sample means:

$$
Z_n = \frac{\overline{X}_n - m}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{X_k - m}{\sigma}
$$

$$
= \frac{(X_1 + \dots + X_n) - n m}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}, \quad n \ge 1
$$

Observe that
$$
\mathbb{E}(Z_n) = 0
$$
, $\text{Var}(Z_n) = 1$, and $\overline{X}_n = (\sigma/\sqrt{n}) Z_n + m$

9 / 63

The standardized sample mean

If $M_Z(\omega)$ is the characteristic function of $Z_1 = (X_1 - m)/\sigma$, then the characteristic function $M_n(\omega)$ of Z_n is given by

$$
M_n(\omega) = \mathbb{E}\left(e^{i\omega Z_n}\right)
$$

= $\mathbb{E}\left(e^{i\omega \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{X_k - m}{\sigma}}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(\prod_{k=1}^n e^{i\frac{\omega_k}{\sqrt{n}}\frac{X_k - m}{\sigma}}\right)$
= $\prod_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}\left(e^{i\frac{\omega_k}{\sqrt{n}}\frac{X_k - m}{\sigma}}\right) = \left(M_Z\left(\frac{\omega}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^n$

The standardized sample mean

The first terms of the series expansion of $M_Z(u)$ are:

$$
M_Z(u) = 1 + i E(Z)u + \frac{i^2 E(Z^2)}{2}u^2 + o(u^2)
$$

= $1 - \frac{1}{2}u^2 + o(u^2)$,

where

$$
\frac{o(u^2)}{u^2} \to 0 \quad \text{as } u \to 0
$$

Therefore,

$$
M_n(\omega) = \left(M_Z \left(\frac{\omega}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^n
$$

=
$$
\left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\omega}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 + o\left(\frac{\omega}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2\right)^n
$$

=
$$
\left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\omega^2}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n
$$

The standardized sample mean

Taking logarithms and using that $ln(1 + z) = z + o(|z|)$,

$$
\ln M_n(\omega) = n \cdot \ln \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\omega^2}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \right)
$$

= $n \left(-\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\omega^2}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \right)$
= $-\frac{1}{2} \omega^2 + \frac{o(1/n)}{1/n} \longrightarrow -\frac{1}{2} \omega^2$ as $n \to \infty$

13 / 63

The standardized sample mean

(Remark)

We have proved that

$$
M_n(\omega)\to e^{-\omega^2/2}, \quad \text{as } n\to\infty,
$$

where the convergence is pointwise for all ^ω [∈] ^R*, and the limit function* $M(\omega) = e^{-\omega^2/2}$ *is the characteristic function of a standard normal random variable.*

This kind of convergence (in terms of characteristic functions) can also be understood in terms of distribution functions. We need a result known as the continuity theorem

The continuity theorem

Let ${F_n(x) : n \ge 1}$ be a sequence of probability distribution functions, and let $\{M_n(\omega): n \geq 1\}$ be the sequence of the corresponding characteristic functions.

Theorem (Continuity Theorem)

- 1. *If* $M(\omega) = \lim_{n \to \infty} M_n(\omega)$ *exists and is continuous at* $\omega = 0$ *, then M*(ω) *is the characteristic function of some distribution function* $F(x)$ *and* $F_n(x) \to F(x)$ *at each point x where the limit function F*(*x*) *is continuous.*
- 2. *If for some distribution function F*(*x*)*, with characteristic function* $M(\omega)$ *, we have that* $F_n(x) \to F(x)$ *at each point* x *where* $F(x)$ *is continuous, then* $M_n(\omega) \to M(\omega)$ for all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$.

The central limit theorem

Therefore, we have the following result.

Theorem (CLT)

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k, \ldots$ *be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables such that* $E(X_k) = m$ and $Var(X_k) = \sigma^2$. Let

$$
Z_n=\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{k=1}^n\frac{X_k-m}{\sigma},\quad n\geqslant 1
$$

Then, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ *,*

$$
\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{Z_n}(x) = F_{N(0,1)}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-t^2/2} dt
$$

17 / 63

The central limit theorem

(Remark)

The CLT is sometimes expressed by saying that \overline{X}_n *is asymptotically normally distributed with mean m and variance* σ ²/*n, in the following sense:*

$$
\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{\mathbb{P}\left(\overline{X}_n\leqslant x\right)}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\left(\sigma^2/n\right)}}\int_{-\infty}^x e^{-(t-m)^2/(2\sigma^2/n)}}=1
$$

The denominator is $\mathbb{P}(Y_n \leq x)$, being $Y_n \sim \mathbb{N}\left(m, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$.

Convergence in distribution

Definition

- 1. We say that a sequence *F*1, *F*2, . . . , *F*n, . . . of distribution functions converges to the distribution function *F*, written $F_n \to F$, if $F_n(x) \to F(x)$ at each point *x* where the limit function *F* is continuous.
- 2. The sequence *X*1, *X*2, . . . , *X*n, . . . of random variables converges in distribution to the random variable *X* if $F_{X_n} \to F_X$.

Notation: $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ Example. The Central Limit Theorem:

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{k=1}^n\frac{X_k-m}{\sigma}\stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow}\mathsf{N}(0,1)\quad\text{as }n\to\infty
$$

WLLN versus CLT

Example:

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ be a sequence of independent random variables, each one uniformly distributed in [0, 1]. Hence, $\mathbb{E}(X_n) = 1/2$ and $\text{Var}(X_n) = 1/12$.

By the WLLN we know that, given $\alpha > 0$.

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\overline{X}_n - \frac{1}{2}\right| > \frac{1}{\alpha}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

WLLN versus CLT

The CLT provides more detailed quantitative information.

$$
\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\overline{X}_n-\frac{1}{2}\right|&> \frac{1}{\alpha}\right)&=1-\mathbb{P}\left(-\frac{1}{\alpha}\leqslant \overline{X}_n-\frac{1}{2}\leqslant \frac{1}{\alpha}\right)\\ &=1-\mathbb{P}\left(-\frac{\sqrt{12n}}{\alpha}\leqslant \frac{\overline{X}_n-1/2}{1/\sqrt{12n}}\leqslant \frac{\sqrt{12n}}{\alpha}\right)\\ &\approx 2\left(1-F_{N(0,1)}\left(\frac{\sqrt{12n}}{\alpha}\right)\right) \end{aligned}
$$

► We have taken into account that $(\overline{X}_n - 1/2)/(1/\sqrt{12n})$ converges in distribution to a standard normal. Thus, its distribution function can be approximated by $F_{N(0,1)}$.

21 / 63

A local version of the CLT

Theorem

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k, \ldots$ *be independent identically distributed random variables with zero mean and unit variance, and suppose that their common characteristic function* $M_X(\omega)$ *satisfies* $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |M_X(\omega)|^r \ d\omega < \infty$ for some integer $r \geqslant 1$.

*Then the density f*n(*u*) *of*

$$
U_n = \frac{(X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n)}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

exists for n r and

$$
f_n(u) \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2}
$$
 as $n \to \infty$, uniformly on R

De Moivre-Laplace Theorem

If each *X*^k is a Bernoulli random variable with parameter *p*, then

$$
S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n
$$

follows a Bin(*n*, *p*) distribution with expected value *np* and variance *npq*.

Hence, the CLT implies

Theorem (De Moivre-Laplace)
Let
$$
S_n \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)
$$
. Then

$$
\frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{npq}} \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} \mathsf{N}(0,1) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

22 / 63

Example: sum of uniform random variables

Suppose that each variable X_i is uniform on $[-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3}]$ so that $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = 0$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) = 1$.

The common characteristic function is

$$
M_X(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega x} f_X(x) dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \int_{-\sqrt{3}}^{\sqrt{3}} e^{i\omega x} dx = \frac{\sin(\sqrt{3}\,\omega)}{\sqrt{3}\,\omega}
$$

Example: sum of uniform random variables

It can be shown that

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |M_X(\omega)|^2 \ d\omega = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\sin(\sqrt{3} \omega)}{\sqrt{3} \omega} \right)^2 \ d\omega = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} < \infty,
$$

Hence, the sufficient condition of the theorem holds for $r = 2$. Thus, the density f_n of

$$
U_n = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

exists for all $n \geq 1$ and

$$
f_n(u) \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2}
$$

Example: sum of uniform random variables

For instance, let

$$
U_3=\frac{X_1+X_2+X_3}{\sqrt{3}}
$$

The density function of the variable U_3 can be expressed as

$$
f_3(u)=\sqrt{3}\;f(\sqrt{3}\;u),
$$

where

$$
f(s) = f_X(s) * f_X(s) * f_X(s)
$$

 $25/63$

Example: sum of uniform random variables

The calculation of $f_3(u)$ gives

$$
f_3(u) = \begin{cases} 0, & u < -3 \\ (u+3)^2/16, & -3 \le u < -1 \\ (3-u^2)/8, & -1 \le u < 1 \\ (3-u)^2/16, & 1 \le u < 3 \\ 0, & u \ge 3 \end{cases}
$$

 $26/63$

Example: sum of uniform random variables

Poisson's theorem

Another application of the continuity theorem is the following result.

Theorem (Poisson)

If $X_n \sim \text{Bin}(n, \lambda/n)$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{d} \text{Po}(\lambda)$.

Proof:

$$
M_{X_n}(\omega) = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n} + \frac{\lambda}{n} e^{i\omega}\right)^n
$$

=
$$
\left(1 + \frac{\lambda(e^{i\omega} - 1)}{n}\right)^n \to e^{\lambda(e^{i\omega} - 1)} \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

29 / 63

Convergence in mean square

Given a probability space $(Ω, F, P)$, let us consider the vector space H whose elements (vectors) are the random variables *X* such that $\mathbb{E}(X^2) < \infty$ (i.e., with a finite second order moment).

- \blacktriangleright We can define an inner product in $\mathcal H$ by $\langle X, Y \rangle = \mathbb E(XY)$.
- \blacktriangleright The norm induced by this inner product is $\| X \| = \sqrt{\langle X, X \rangle}$, that is, $\parallel X \parallel = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}(X^2)}$
- \blacktriangleright Moreover, a distance between points (random variables) of $\mathcal H$ can be considered:

$$
d(X,Y) = || X - Y || = \sqrt{\mathbb{E} \left((X - Y)^2 \right)}
$$

Convergence in distribution: a result

Theorem

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ and X be random variables taking *nonnegative integer values. A necessary and su*ffi*cient condition for* $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ is

$$
\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}(X_n=k)=\mathbb{P}(X=k) \text{ for all } k\geqslant 0
$$

For example, by Poisson's theorem and this result, we have that for all $k \geq 0$, if $n \to \infty$, then

$$
\binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-k} \longrightarrow e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}
$$

30 / 63

Convergence in mean square

Definition

The sequence $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ converges in mean square to the random variable *X* if $d(X_n, X) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Equivalently, E $((X_n - X)^2) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$

Notation: $X_n \xrightarrow{2} X$

Example: The sequence of sample means \overline{X}_n converges in mean square to the expected value *m*, because

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\left(\overline{X}_n-m\right)^2\right)=\text{Var}\left(\overline{X}_n\right)=\frac{\text{Var}(X_1)}{n}\to 0
$$

More generally

Definition

The sequence $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ converges in *r*-mean to the random variable *X* if

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(|X_n-X|^r\right)\to 0 \text{ as } n\to\infty
$$

Notation: $X_n \xrightarrow{r} X$

33 / 63

Almost surely convergence

- Given a sequence $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ of random variables, the sequence $\{X_n(\omega): n \geq 1\}$ is, for each outcome ω of the random experiment, a numeric sequence of real numbers.
- \blacktriangleright If *X* is a random variable and $X(\omega)$ is the numerical value taken by *X* if the outcome is ω, then it makes sense to consider the event

$$
\{\omega\in\Omega: X_n(\omega)\to X(\omega)\ \text{as}\ n\to\infty\}
$$

Example

Consider the sequence $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ such that

$$
\begin{cases} \mathbb{P}(X_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \\ \mathbb{P}(X_n = -1) = \mathbb{P}(X_n = 1) = \frac{1}{2n} \end{cases}, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots
$$

Let us prove that $X_n \rightharpoonup^n 0$ for any $r > 0$.

Proof: We have to show that $\mathbb{E}(|X_n|^r) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Indeed,

$$
\mathbb{E}(|X_n|^r) = 0 \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_n = 0) + 1 \cdot (\mathbb{P}(X_n = -1) + \mathbb{P}(X_n = 1))
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2n} \longrightarrow 0
$$

Almost surely convergence

Definition

The sequence $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ converges almost surely (or with probability 1) to the random variable *X* if

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\{\omega\in\Omega:X_n(\omega)\to X(\omega)\text{ as }n\to\infty\}\right)=1
$$

Notation: $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$

(Remark)

 $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$ if and only if the set

 $N = \{ \omega \in \Omega : X_n(\omega) \to X(\omega) \text{ as } n \to \infty \}$

is a null event, that is to say, $P(N) = 0$.

Strong laws of large numbers

Theorem (SLLN)

*Let X*1, *X*2, . . . , *X*^k , . . . *be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables and set*

$$
\overline{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n}{n}, \quad n \geqslant 1
$$

Then

$$
\overline{X}_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} m \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

for some constant m, if and only if $\mathbb{E}(|X_1|) < \infty$. In this case, $E(X_1) = m$.

Uniqueness

Theorem

*Let X*1, *X*2, . . . , *X*n, . . . *be a sequence of random variables. If the sequence converges*

- ▶ *almost surely*,
- ◮ *in probability,*
- ◮ *in r -mean,*
- **►** *in distribution*

then the limiting random variable (distribution) is unique

37 / 63

Uniqueness

For example, let us prove the uniqueness of the limit in the case of almost sure convergence.

Suppose that $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$ and $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} Y$ and let

$$
N_X = \{ \omega : X_n(\omega) \nrightarrow X(\omega) \text{ as } n \to \infty \}
$$

$$
N_Y = \{ \omega : X_n(\omega) \nrightarrow Y(\omega) \text{ as } n \to \infty \}
$$

So we have that

$$
\mathbb{P}(N_X)=\mathbb{P}(N_Y)=0
$$

Uniqueness

Let $\omega \in \overline{N_X} \cap \overline{N_Y} = \overline{N_X \cup N_Y}$. Then

$$
|X(\omega) - Y(\omega)| \leq |X(\omega) - X_n(\omega)| + |X_n(\omega) - Y(\omega)| \longrightarrow 0
$$

So, if $\omega \in \overline{N_X \cup N_Y}$, then $X(\omega) = Y(\omega)$; hence, if $X(\omega) \neq Y(\omega)$, then $\omega \in N_X \cup N_Y$.

Thus

$$
\mathbb{P}(X \neq Y) \leqslant \mathbb{P}(N_X \cup N_Y) \leqslant \mathbb{P}(N_X) + \mathbb{P}(N_Y) = 0
$$

That is,

$$
X = Y
$$
 with probability 1

Theorem

The following implications hold:

$$
\begin{aligned}\n&\blacktriangleright \left(X_n \xrightarrow{s_X} X \right) \Longrightarrow \left(X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \right) \\
&\blacktriangleright \left(X_n \xrightarrow{f} X \right) \Longrightarrow \left(X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \right) \text{ for any } r \geq 1. \\
&\blacktriangleright \left(X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \right) \Longrightarrow \left(X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \right) \\
&\blacktriangleright \left(f \wedge r > s \geq 1, \text{ then } \left(X_n \xrightarrow{f} X \right) \Longrightarrow \left(X_n \xrightarrow{a} \right)\n\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\blacktriangleright
$$
 If $r > s \geq 1$, then $\left(X_n \stackrel{r}{\longrightarrow} X\right) \Longrightarrow \left(X_n \stackrel{s}{\longrightarrow} X\right)$

All implications are strict.

Relations between the convergence concepts

With additional hypothesis some converse implications also hold.

Theorem

- ► If c is a constant, then $(X_n \xrightarrow{d} c) \Longrightarrow (X_n \xrightarrow{p} c)$
- \blacktriangleright *If* $X_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow}$ $H X_n \longrightarrow X$ and there exists a constant C such that
 $\mathbb{P}(|X_n| \leq C) = 1$ for all n, then $X_n \longrightarrow X$ for all $r \geq 1$.
- ► *If* $P_n(\epsilon) = \mathbb{P}(|X_n X| > \epsilon)$ *satisfies* $\sum_n P_n(\epsilon) < \infty$ for all $\epsilon > 0$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$

41 / 63

 \mathcal{L}

Relations between the convergence concepts

For instance, let us consider the proof of the implication

$$
\left(X_n\stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow}c\right)\Longrightarrow \left(X_n\stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow}c\right)
$$

Hence, assume that $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ where $X = c$ is a "constant" random variable with distribution function

$$
\digamma_X(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0, & x < c \\ 1, & x \geqslant c \end{array} \right.
$$

Relations between the convergence concepts

If $\epsilon > 0$ is a fixed number, we have that

$$
P(|X_n - c| > \epsilon) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(c - \epsilon \leq X_n \leq c + \epsilon)
$$

= 1 - (F_{X_n}(c + \epsilon) - F_{X_n}(c - \epsilon) + \mathbb{P}(X_n = c - \epsilon))
< 1 - F_{X_n}(c + \epsilon) + F_{X_n}(c - \epsilon) \longrightarrow 0,

because

$$
F_{X_n}(c+\epsilon) \to F_X(c+\epsilon) = 1, \quad F_{X_n}(c-\epsilon) \to F_X(c-\epsilon) = 0
$$

Therefore

 $X_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} c$

Example

Consider the sequence $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ such that

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1) = 1,
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_n = 1) = 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad \mathbb{P}(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad n \ge 2
$$

Let us prove that the sequence converges almost surely to 1.

We have that

$$
P_n(\epsilon) = \mathbb{P}(|X_n - 1| > \epsilon) = \begin{cases} 0, & n = 1 \\ 1/n^2, & n \ge 2 \end{cases}
$$

Therefore

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n(\epsilon) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} < \infty
$$

$$
X_n \xrightarrow{a.s} 1
$$

Hence

45 / 63

Operations with limits

Cramer's Theorem

Theorem (Cramer)

Suppose that
$$
X_n \xrightarrow{d} X
$$
 and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} a$, where a is a constant. Then

- ► $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + a$. ► $X_n - Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X - a$. ► $X_n \cdot Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X \cdot a$.
- ▶ $X_n/Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/a$, for $a \neq 0$.

- ▶ If $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X + Y$.
- ► If $X_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} X$ and $Y_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} X + Y$.
- ► *If* X_n $\stackrel{r}{\longrightarrow}$ *X* and Y_n $\stackrel{r}{\longrightarrow}$ *Y* for some $r > 0$, then $X_n + Y_n$ $\stackrel{r}{\longrightarrow}$ *X* + *Y*.

Operations with limits

Theorem

Let $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$ and $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} Y$. If X_n and Y_n are independent *random variables for all n and, moreover, X and Y are independent, then* $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + Y$.

Proof:

It suffices to proof that $M_{X_n+Y_n}(\omega) \to M_{X+Y}(\omega)$ as $n \to \infty$ (pointwise). Thus, it suffices to proof that

$$
M_{X_n}(\omega)M_{Y_n}(\omega)\to M_X(\omega)M_Y(\omega)
$$

But this is a simple consequence of $M_{X_n}(\omega) \to M_X(\omega)$ and $M_{Y_n}(\omega) \to M_Y(\omega)$.

49 / 63

Continuous functions

Proof:

Given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $|g(x) - g(a)| < \epsilon$ if [|]*^x* [−] *^a*[|] < ^δ. Hence,

$$
\{|g(X_n)-g(a)|\geqslant \epsilon\}\subseteq \{|X_n-a|\geqslant \delta\}
$$

and so

$$
\mathbb{P}(|g(X_n)-g(a)|\geqslant \epsilon)\leqslant \mathbb{P}(|X_n-a|\geqslant \delta)
$$

But $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - a| \geqslant \delta) \to 0$, because $X_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} a$. Therefore $\mathbb{P}(|g(\hat{X}_n) - g(a)| \geq \epsilon) \to 0$, that is

$$
g(X_n) \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} g(a) \quad \text{as } n \longrightarrow \infty
$$

Continuous functions

Theorem

Let $X_n \longrightarrow a$, where *a* is a constant. Suppose, further, that g is a *continuous function at point a. Then*

$$
g(X_n)\stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow}g(a)\quad\text{as }n\longrightarrow\infty.
$$

50 / 63

Delta method

Let

- (a) ${a_n : n \ge 1}$ *be a sequence of real numbers such that* $a_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$, and $a_n \neq 0$ for all n.
- (b) $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$ *be a sequence of random variables an* θ *be a real number such that* $a_n(X_n - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N(0, \sigma)$,
- (c) *g be a real function with a continuous derivative in an interval* $that$ *contains* θ *and such* $g'(\theta) \neq 0$ *.*

Then

$$
a_n(g(X_n)-g(\theta))\stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} \mathsf{N}\left(0,\left|g'(\theta)\right|\sigma\right)
$$

Theorem

*Let X*1, *X*2, . . . , *X*^k , . . . *and X be random variables such that* $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ as $n \to \infty$.

Then there exists a probability space ($Ω', Γ', ℤ'$) *and random variables Y*1, *Y*2, . . . , *Y*^k , . . . *and Y , which map* Ω ′ *into* R*, such that:*

- $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k, \ldots$ and Y have the same distribution functions *that X*1, *X*2, . . . , *X*^k , . . . *and X, respectively.*
- ► $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s} Y$.

Borel-Cantelli lemmas

Given a sequence of events $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n, \ldots$, let

$$
B_n=\bigcup_{k=n}^\infty A_k,\quad n\geqslant 1
$$

Notice that $B_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq B_n \supseteq B_{n+1} \supseteq \cdots$ is a decreasing sequence of events.

The limit of the sequence $B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_n, \ldots$ is

$$
\lim_{n \to \infty} B_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k
$$

53 / 63

Borel-Cantelli lemmas

Definition

Given a sequence of events $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n, \ldots$ *, the event* A^* *de*fi*ned by*

$$
A^* = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k
$$

is called the limit superior of the sequence and is denoted by lim sup_n A_n .

► Notice that $\omega \in A^*$ if and only if ω belongs to infinitely many of the events A_n . That is, the event $A^* = \limsup_n A_n$ happens if and only if infinitely many of the events A_n occur.

Borel-Cantelli lemmas

Theorem (Borel-Cantelli lemmas)

Let $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n, \ldots$ be a sequence of events and A^* its limit *superior. Then*

- ► $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 0$ *if* $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) < \infty$ *.*
- \blacktriangleright $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 1$ *if* $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \infty$ and the events A_1, A_2, \ldots are *independent.*

Corollary (zero-one law)

*Let A*1, *A*2, . . . , *A*n, . . . *be a sequence of independent events and let* A^* *be its limit superior. Then either* $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 0$ *or* $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 1$ $according \ as \ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n)$ *converges or diverges, respectively.*

For example, the proof of the first Borel-Cantelli lemma is:

$$
\mathbb{P}(A^*) = \mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} B_n\right) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(B_n)
$$

$$
= \lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k\right) \le \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_k) = 0
$$

because $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n)$ converges by hypothesis.

57 / 63

Examples

Example 2.

Now, let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ be independent random variables such that

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_n = 0) = \frac{1}{n}, \quad \mathbb{P}(X_n = 1) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}, \quad n \geq 1
$$

Let $A_n = \{X_n = 0\}, n \ge 1$.

- Since $\sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \infty$ and the events A_n are independent, the second Borel-Cantelli lemma implies that, with probability 1, infinitely many of the events $A_n = \{X_n = 0\}$ occur.
- Analogously, the probability that $\overline{A}_n = \{X_n = 1\}$ occurs infinitel<u>y</u> often is also 1, because $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(\overline{A}_n) = \infty$ and the events \overline{A}_n are independent.
- ► Hence, with probability 1, $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n$ does not exist.

Examples

Example 1.

Let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n, \ldots$ be a sequence of random variables such that

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_n = 0) = \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad \mathbb{P}(X_n = 1) = 1 - \frac{1}{n^2} \quad n \geq 1
$$

Let $A_n = \{X_n = 0\}$, $n \ge 1$.

- Since $\sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(A_n) \leq \infty$, the first Borel-Cantelli lemma implies that $\mathbb{P}(A^*) = 0$. Thus, there is a 0 probability that $\{X_n = 0\}$ happens infinitely often.
- Therefore $P(X_n = 1$ for all *n* suficiently large) = 1. We deduce that $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n = 1$ (with probability 1).

58 / 63

Examples

Example 3.

Let a fair coin be tossed infinitely many times and denote by A^* the event "heads occurs infinitely often". Thus, $A^* = \limsup_n A_n$, where A_n is the event "the *n*-th toss lands heads".

- ► Since the events *A_n* are independent, the second Borel-Cantelly lemma implies $P(A^*) = 1$, because $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/2) = \infty.$
- ▶ What happens if $P(\text{heads}) = e$, being $e > 0$ a very small number. Is it still true that "heads will occur infinitely often"?

Again, $\mathbb{P}(A^{\star}) = 1$, because $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \epsilon = \infty$.

Example 4.

Now, let P_k be a given pattern (of heads and tails) of length k , for instance $P_6 = HHTTHT$.

Fact

If a coin with $P(\text{heads}) = p, 0 < p < 1$ *is tossed infinitely many times, the probability of observing* P^k *in*fi*nitely often is* 1*, no matters how large is k.*

Examples

Proof: Let A_n be the event "the pattern \mathcal{P}_k is observed between the $[(n-1)k + 1]$ -th and the $[nk]$ -th toss, $n \ge 1$ ".

- ► If *A_n* happens infinitely often, then it is true that the pattern \mathcal{P}_{k} is observed infinitely often.
- \blacktriangleright The events *A_n* are independent, because if $i \neq i$, then *A_i* and *A*^j correspond to two non-ovelapping sequences of tosses.
- ► $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \epsilon$, where $\epsilon = p^r(1-p)^{k-r}$, being *r* the number of heads in the pattern P_k . If *k* is large, then ϵ is very small, but we have $\epsilon > 0$.
- ▶ By the second Borel-Cantelli lemma, we conclude that $\mathbb{P}(\lim \sup_n A_n) = 1$, because $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \epsilon = \infty$. So, with probability 1, the pattern P_k occurs infinitely often.

61 / 63

The infinite monkey theorem

Theorem

*A monkey hitting keys at random on a typewriter keyboard for an in*fi*nite amount of time will almost surely type any given text, such as the complete works of William Shakespeare.*

In fact, the monkey would almost surely type every possible fi*nite text an in*fi*nite number of times.*

Proof: see Wiquipedia:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Infinite monkey theorem