

Lecture 15: March 27

Lecturer: Alessandro Rinaldo

Scribes: Riccardo Fogliato

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Example 17: Consider the measure space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , where $\Omega = (0, 1)$ and P is the Lebesgue measure. Define the following series of functions:

$$f_1 = 1, \quad f_2 = \mathbb{1}_{(0,1/2]}, \quad f_3 = \mathbb{1}_{[1/2,1)}, \quad f_4 = \mathbb{1}_{[2/3,1)}, \quad \dots$$

Then

$$f_n \xrightarrow{L^p} 0 \quad \forall p,$$

but f_n does not convergence to 0 since $\limsup f_n \neq \liminf f_n$.

Example 18: Consider

$$f_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 < \omega < \frac{1}{n} \\ \frac{1}{\omega} & \text{if } \omega \geq \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(\omega) = \frac{1}{\omega} \quad \forall \omega \in (0, 1)$$

but f_n does not converge in L^p even if $f_n \in L^p \forall n$.

Example 19: Consider

$$f_n(\omega) \begin{cases} n & \text{if } 0 < \omega < \frac{1}{n} \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \geq \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

Then $f_n \xrightarrow{as} 0$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} 0$ where $Y_n = f_n(X)$ with X being a uniformly distributed random variable on $[0, 1]$. However, $\int_0^1 |f_n| dx = n \forall n, p \geq 1$; hence f_n does not convergence in L^p to 0.

Claim 15.1 *L^p convergence implies convergence in probability.*

Almost sure convergence implies convergence in probability.

Proof: First part: prove it using Markov's inequality.

Second part: fix $\epsilon > 0$, $A_{n,\epsilon} = \{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\}$. Then $A_{n,\epsilon}$ is a decreasing sequence so that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_{n,\epsilon}) = \limsup_n \mathbb{P}(A_{n,\epsilon}) \leq \mathbb{P}(\limsup_n A_{n,\epsilon}) = 0$$

by Fatou's lemma. ■

Lemma 15.2 *Let $\{f_n\}$ and f be non negative functions in $L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$. If $f_n \xrightarrow{as} f$, then $\int |f_n - f| dP \rightarrow 0$ if and only if $\int f_n dP \rightarrow \int f dP$ (L^1 convergence).*

Proof: First part:

$$\left| \int f_n - \int f \right| dP \leq \int |f_n - f| dP \rightarrow 0.$$

Second part: let $g_n = \min\{f_n, f\}$; then $g_n \leq f$ a.e. and $\int g_n \rightarrow \int f$ by dominated convergence theorem. Then

$$\int |f_n - f| dP = \int f_n dP + \int f dP - 2 \int g_n dP \rightarrow \int f dP + \int f dP - 2 \int f dP = 0.$$

■

Corollary 15.3 Let μ_n and μ be measures on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \nu)$ with $\mu_n(A) = \int_A f_n d\nu_n$ and $\mu(A) = \int_A f d\nu \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$. If $\mu(\Omega) = \mu_n(\Omega) < \infty$ and $f_n \xrightarrow{as} f$, then

$$\sup_{A \in \mathcal{F}} |\mu_n(A) - \mu(A)| \leq \int |f_n - f| d\nu \rightarrow 0.$$

15.1 Strong law of large numbers

Definition 15.4 (Tail σ -field) Let $\tau_n = \sigma(\{X_i, i \geq n\})$. The tail σ -field is defined as $\tau = \bigcap_n \tau_n$

Events in τ are not affected by changes in a finite number of terms in the sequence. Some examples of tail events:

- $\{\lim_n X_n = x\}$;
- $\{\sum_n X_n \text{ converges}\}$;
- $\sup_n X_n$ is measurable with respect to τ .

Theorem 15.5 (Kolmogorov 0-1 law) Let $\{X_n\}$ be a sequence of independent random variables. If $A \in \tau$, then $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is either 1 or 0.

Proof: Let $U_n = \sigma(\{X_i : i \leq n\})$ and $U = \bigcup_n U_n$. Then U is not a σ -field. Let $B \in U, A \in \tau$, then $B \in U \Rightarrow \exists n_0$ s.t. $B \in U_{n_0}$. But since $A \in \tau$, then $A \in \tau_{n_0+1}$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B),$$

ie U and τ are independent, hence $\sigma(U)$ is independent of τ . On the other hand, $\tau \subset \sigma(U)$; hence τ is independent of itself. Therefore

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap A) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(A) \forall A \in \tau.$$

This equality is satisfied if and only if $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is either 0 or 1. ■

Theorem 15.6 (First Borel Cantelli Lemma) Let $\{A_n\}$ be a sequence of events in \mathcal{F} such that $\sum_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{P}(A_n) < \infty$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(\limsup A_n) = 0$$

Proof: Let $B_i = \cup_{n=i}^{\infty} A_n$. Then B_i is a decreasing sequence, and

$$\lim_n \mathbb{P}(B_i) = \mathbb{P}(\lim B_i) = \mathbb{P}(\cap_i B_i) = \mathbb{P}(\limsup A_n).$$

Then

$$\mathbb{P}(B_i) \leq \sum_{n=i}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } i \rightarrow \infty.$$

■

Theorem 15.7 (Second Borel Cantelli Lemma) Let $\{A_n\}$ be a sequence of independent events in \mathcal{F} and $\sum_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \infty$. Then $\mathbb{P}(\limsup A_n) = 1$.

Corollary 15.8 If $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$, then $\exists \{n_k\}$ st. $X_{n_k} \xrightarrow{as} X$.

Proof: Wlog consider $n_k > n_{k-1}$ and $\mathbb{P}(d(X_{n_k}, X) > \frac{1}{2^k}) < \frac{1}{2^k}$. Then $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(d(X_{n_k}, X) > \frac{1}{2^k}) < \infty$. By the first Borel Cantelli lemma $\mathbb{P}(d(X_{n_k}, X) > \frac{1}{2^k} \text{ i.o.}) = 0$. Hence $X_{n_k} \xrightarrow{as} X \forall \omega \in A^c$, $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1$. ■

15.1.1 Completeness of L^p spaces

Definition 15.9 Let (X, d) be a metric space. A sequence $\{X_n\} \subset \chi$ is Cauchy if $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists n$ s.t. $\forall n, m > N$, $d(X_n, X_m) < \epsilon$.

Example: Let $X = \mathbb{Q}$, $d(x, y) = |x - y|$. Then $x_n = (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ but $x_n \rightarrow e \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Therefore \mathbb{Q} is not complete.

Claim 15.10 If x_n is Cauchy and a subsequence converges to x , then the whole sequence converges to x .

Lemma 15.11 L^p spaces are complete.

15.2 Strong Law of Large Numbers

Theorem 15.12 (Kolmogorov's maximal inequality) Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent random variables with mean 0 and finite variance. Let $S_k = \sum_{i=1}^k X_i$, $k = 1, \dots, n$; then

$$\mathbb{P}(\max_{k=1, \dots, n} |S_k| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(S_n)}{\epsilon^2}$$

Theorem 15.13 Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent random variables with mean 0 and bounded variance. If $\sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 < \infty \forall n$, then $\exists S_{\infty}$ s.t. $S_n \rightarrow S_{\infty}$ almost surely and in L^2 with $\mathbb{E}[S_{\infty}^2] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sigma_i^2$.

Proof: L^2 convergence follows from completeness of the space L^2 .

For almost surely convergence: S_n is almost surely Cauchy if $\sup_{p, q > n} |S_p - S_q| \xrightarrow{as} 0 \forall n$. This occurs if $\mathbb{P}(\sup_{p, q > n} |S_p - S_q| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0 \forall \epsilon$ by the homework. ■