

# MSH2 - PROBABILITY THEORY

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## 1. LECTURE 1 - THURSDAY 3 MARCH

**Definition 1.1** ( $\sigma$ -field). Let  $\Omega$  be a non-empty set. Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ . We call  $\mathcal{F}$  a  $\sigma$ -field if

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ ,
- $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ ,
- $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in \mathcal{F}$
- If  $(A_i) \in \mathcal{F}$ , then  $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \in \mathcal{F}$ .

**Definition 1.2** (Probability measure). Let  $\mathbb{P}$  be a function on  $\mathcal{F}$  satisfying

- If  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  then  $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ ,
- $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ ,
- If  $(A_j) \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ , then  $\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_j)$ .

Then we call  $\mathbb{P}$  a **probability measure** on  $\mathcal{F}$ .

**Definition 1.3** ( $\sigma$ -field generated by a set). If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a class of sets, then  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -field that contains  $\mathcal{A}$ .

**Example 1.4.** For a set  $B$ ,  $\sigma(B) = \{\emptyset, \Omega, B, B^c\}$ .

**Definition 1.5** (Borel  $\sigma$ -field). Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be the class of all **finite** unions of intervals of the form  $(a, b]$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ . The  $\sigma$ -field  $\sigma(\mathcal{B})$  is called the **Borel  $\sigma$ -field**.

Note that  $\mathcal{B}$  itself is not a  $\sigma$ -field - consider  $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} (0, \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{j}] = (0, \frac{1}{2}] \notin \mathcal{B}$ .

## 1.1. Constructing extensions of functions to form probability measures.

**Lemma 1.6** (Continuity property). Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a field of subsets of  $\Omega$ . Assume  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$  and that  $\mathcal{A}$  is closed under complements and finite unions.

If  $A_j \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $A_{j+1} \subset A_j$  with  $\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j = \emptyset$ , then  $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_j) = 0$ .

**Theorem 1.7.** Let  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  be the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{A}$ . If the continuity property holds, then there is a **unique** probability measure on  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$  which is an extension of  $\mathbb{P}$ , i.e. the measures agree on all elements of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

**Definition 1.8** (Limits of sets). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space, and assume  $(A_i) \in \mathcal{F}$ . Then define  $\limsup_{m \rightarrow \infty} A_n$  as

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m = \overline{\lim} A_n$$

An element  $\omega \in \overline{\lim} A_n$  if and only if  $\omega \in A_m$  for some  $m \geq n$  for all  $n$  - that is,  $\omega$  is in infinitely many of the sets  $A_m$ .

Similarly, define  $\liminf_{m \rightarrow \infty} A_n$  as

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{m \geq n} A_m = \underline{\lim} A_n$$

An element  $\omega \in \underline{\lim} A_n$  if and only if  $\omega$  is in all but a finite number of sets  $A_m$ .

Clearly,

$$\underline{\lim} A_n \subseteq \overline{\lim} A_n$$

If  $\underline{\lim} A_n$  and  $\overline{\lim} A_n$  coincide we write it as  $\lim A_n$ .

**Lemma 1.9.** *Assume the continuity property holds. If  $A_n \downarrow A$  then  $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \downarrow \mathbb{P}(A)$ , and if  $A_n \uparrow A$  then  $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \uparrow \mathbb{P}(A)$ .*

*Proof.* If  $A_n \downarrow A$ , then  $A_n \supseteq A_{n+1} \dots$  and  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = A$ . We can write  $A_n = (A_n - A) \cup A$ . Then we have

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_n - A) + \mathbb{P}(A)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n) \geq \mathbb{P}(A)$$

By the continuity property,  $\mathbb{P}(A_n - A) \rightarrow 0$ , and so  $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \downarrow \mathbb{P}(A)$ . □

## 2. LECTURE 2 - THURSDAY 3 MARCH

**Theorem 2.1.**

$$\mathbb{P}(\underline{\lim} A_n) \leq \underline{\lim} \mathbb{P}(A_n) \leq \overline{\lim} \mathbb{P}(A_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(\overline{\lim} A_n)$$

*Proof.* We know  $A_n \downarrow \underline{\lim} A_n$ , and so from Lemma 1.9 we have that  $a$ . □

**Definition 2.2** (Measurable function). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. Let  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be real valued function on  $\Omega$ . Then  $X$  is **measurable** with respect to  $\mathcal{F}$  if  $X^{-1}(B)$  is an element of  $\mathcal{F}$  for every  $B$  in the Borel  $\sigma$ -field of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 2.3** (Random variable). A random variable is a measurable function from  $\Omega$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 2.4** (Expectation). If  $\int_{\Omega} |X(\omega)| d\mathbb{P} < \infty$  then we can define  $\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) d\mathbb{P}$

**Definition 2.5** (Distribution).  $X$  induces a probability measure  $\mathbb{P}_X$  on  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbb{P}_X(B) = \mathbb{P}(X^{-1}(B)), B \in \mathcal{B}$$

$\mathbb{P}_X$  is called the **distribution** of  $X$ .  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}, \mathbb{P}_X)$  is a probability space. The distribution function  $F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega : X(\omega) \leq x\}) = \mathbb{P}_X((-\infty, x])$ . We have  $\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x d\mathbb{P}_X(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x dF_X(x)$ .

### 2.1. Key results from Measure Theory.

**Theorem 2.6** (Monotone convergence theorem). *If  $0 \leq X_n \uparrow X$  a.s then  $0 \leq \mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow \mathbb{E}(X)$  where  $\mathbb{E}(X)$  is infinite if  $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \uparrow \infty$ .*

**Theorem 2.7** (Dominated convergence theorem). *If  $\lim X_n = X$  a.s. and  $|X_n| \leq Y$  for all  $n \geq 1$ , with  $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) < \infty$  then  $\lim \mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mathbb{E}(X)$ .*

**Theorem 2.8** (Fatau's Lemma). *If  $X_n \geq Y$  for all  $n$  with  $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) < \infty$  then*

$$\mathbb{E}(\liminf X_n) \leq \liminf \mathbb{E}(X_n)$$

**Theorem 2.9** (Composition). *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  and  $(\Omega', \mathcal{F}')$  be spaces. Let  $\Phi : \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma'$  be measurable. Define  $\mathbb{P}_\Phi$  on  $\mathcal{F}$  by  $\mathbb{P}_\Phi(M) = \mathbb{P}(\Phi^{-1}(M))$ . Let  $X'$  be a measurable function from  $\Sigma'$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $X(\omega) = X'(\Phi(\omega))$  is a measurable function. Then we have*

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{\Omega'} X' d\mathbb{P}_\varphi$$

*Proof.* Suppose  $X'$  is an indicator function for  $A \in \mathcal{F}'$ . Then

$$\int_{\Omega'} X' d\mathbb{P}_\varphi = \int_A d\mathbb{P}_\varphi = \mathbb{P}_\varphi(A) = \mathbb{P}(\varphi^{-1}(A)) = \mathbb{E}(X)$$

So the result is true for simple functions.

Now, suppose  $X' \geq 0$ . Then there exists a pointwise increasing sequence of simple functions  $X'_n$  such that  $X'_n \rightarrow X'$ . By the monotone convergence theorem, we know

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega'} X'_n d\mathbb{P}_\varphi = \int_{\Omega'} X' d\mathbb{P}_\varphi$$

But  $X_n(\omega) = X'_n(\Phi(\omega))$  are also simple functions increasing to  $X$ . Hence, we know that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mathbb{E}(X)$ .  $\square$

### 3. LECTURE 3 - THURSDAY 10 MARCH

**Theorem 3.1** (Jensen's inequality). *Let  $\varphi(x)$  be a convex function on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $X$  be a random variable. Assume  $\mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$ ,  $\mathbb{E}(\varphi(X)) < \infty$ . Then*

$$\varphi(\mathbb{E}(X)) \leq \mathbb{E}(\varphi(X))$$

**Theorem 3.2** (Hölder's inequality). *Let  $1 < p < \infty$  and  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ . Then we have*

$$|\mathbb{E}(XY)| \leq \mathbb{E}(|XY|) \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p} (\mathbb{E}(|Y|^q))^{1/q}$$

*If  $p = q = 2$  we obtain the Cauchy-Swartz inequality  $\mathbb{E}(|XY|) \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^2))^{1/2} (\mathbb{E}(|Y|^2))^{1/2}$ .*

*If  $Y = 1$  then  $\mathbb{E}(|X|) \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $W$  be a random variable taking values  $a_1$  with probability  $1/p$ ,  $a_2$  with probability  $1/q$ , with  $1/p + 1/q = 1$ . Applying Jensen's inequality with  $\varphi(x) = -\log(x)$  gives

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(-\log W) &\geq -\log \mathbb{E}(W) \\ \frac{1}{p}(\log a_1) + \frac{1}{q}(-\log a_2) &\geq -\log\left(\frac{a_1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{q}\right) \\ -\log(a_1^{1/p} \cdot a_2^{1/q}) &\geq -\log\left(\frac{a_1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{q}\right) \\ a_1^{1/p} \cdot a_2^{1/q} &\leq \frac{a_1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{q}\end{aligned}$$

Where the inequality is trivial if  $a_1$  or  $a_2$  is zero.

Setting  $a_1 = |x|^p$  and  $a_2 = |y|^q$ , we obtain

$$|xy| \leq \frac{|x|^p}{p} + \frac{|y|^q}{q}.$$

Let  $x = \frac{X}{(\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p}}$  and  $y = \frac{Y}{(\mathbb{E}(|Y|^q))^{1/q}}$  or take expectations across the inequality, we obtain

$$\mathbb{E}(|XY|) \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p} (\mathbb{E}(|Y|^q))^{1/q}$$

□

**Example 3.3.** If  $1 < r < r'$  then  $\frac{r'}{r} > 1$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(|X|^r) \leq (\mathbb{E}((|X|^r)^{r'/r}))^{1/(r'/r)} = (\mathbb{E}(|X|^{r'}))^{r'/r}$$

**Theorem 3.4** (Liapounov's inequality).

$$(\mathbb{E}|X|^r)^{1/r} \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^{r'}))^{1/r'}$$

**Corollary 3.5.** Thus if  $\mathbb{E}(|X|^r) < \infty$  then  $X$  has all moments of lower order finite i.e.  $\mathbb{E}(|X|^p) < \infty$  for all  $1 \leq p \leq r$

**Theorem 3.6** (Minkowski's inequality). If  $p \geq 1$ , then

$$(\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^p))^{1/p} \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p} + (\mathbb{E}(|Y|^p))^{1/p}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^p) &\leq \mathbb{E}(|X| \cdot |X + Y|^{p-1}) + \mathbb{E}(|Y| \cdot |X + Y|^{p-1}) \\ &= \mathbb{E}(|X|^p)^{1/p} (\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^{p-1})^q)^{1/q} + \mathbb{E}(|Y|^p)^{1/p} (\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^{p-1})^q)^{1/q}\end{aligned}$$

Let  $1/p + 1/q = 1$ . Then from Hölder,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^p) \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^p))^{1/q} \cdot ((\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p} + (\mathbb{E}(|Y|^p))^{1/p})$$

and so

$$(\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^p))^{1/p} \leq (\mathbb{E}(|X|^p))^{1/p} + (\mathbb{E}(|Y|^p))^{1/p}$$

□

**3.1. Modes of Convergence.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space and  $X_n(\omega), n \geq 1$  is a sequence of random variables.

**Definition 3.7** (Almost surely convergence). We say  $X_n$  converges almost surely if

$$\mathbb{P}(\{\omega \mid X_n(\omega) \text{ has a limit}\}) = 1$$

We write  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$  where  $X$  denotes the limiting random variable.

**Definition 3.8** (Convergence in probability).  $X_n$  converges in probability to  $X$

$$X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$$

if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(\{\omega \mid |X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| > \epsilon\}) \rightarrow 0$$

or alternatively,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$$

**Definition 3.9** (Convergence in mean).  $X_n$  converges to  $X$  in mean of order  $p$  (or in  $L^p$ ) if

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|^p) \rightarrow 0$$

We write  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$ . We note that for convergence of order  $L^p$ , we need  $\mathbb{E}(|X_n|^p) < \infty$ .

**Theorem 3.10.** If  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$  then  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  for any  $p > 0$ .

#### 4. LECTURE 4 - THURSDAY 10 MARCH

**Lemma 4.1.** Let  $C_1, C_2, \dots$  be sets in  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(C_n) < \infty$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(\overline{\lim} C_n) = 0$

*Proof.* Since  $\overline{\lim} C_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{m \geq n} C_m$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\overline{\lim} C_n) \leq \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{m \geq n} C_m\right) \leq \sum_{m \geq n} \mathbb{P}(C_m) \rightarrow 0$$

□

**Theorem 4.2.** If there exists a sequence of positive constants  $\{\epsilon_n\}$  with  $\sum_n \epsilon_n < \infty$  and

$$\sum_n \mathbb{P}(|X_{n+1} - X_n| > \epsilon_n) < \infty$$

then  $X_n$  converges almost surely to some limit  $X$ .

*Proof.* Let  $A_n = \{|X_{n+1} - X_n| > \epsilon_n\}$ . So from the above Lemma,  $\mathbb{P}(\overline{\lim} A_n) = 0$ . We also have that  $\omega \in \overline{\lim} A_n$  if and only if  $\omega$  is in infinitely many  $A_m$ . For  $\omega \notin \overline{\lim} A_n$ , then there is a last set containing  $\omega$ . Define  $N(\omega) = n$  if  $\omega \in \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m - \bigcup_{m > n} A_m$ , and zero if  $\omega \in (\bigcup_{m \geq 1} A_m)^c$ .

For  $\omega \notin \overline{\lim} A_n$ , we have  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_{n+1}(\omega) - X_n(\omega)$  exists as  $\sum_n \epsilon_n < \infty$ . Since

$$X_n(\omega) = X_1(\omega) + (X_2(\omega) - X_1(\omega)) + \cdots + (X_n(\omega) - X_{n-1}(\omega))$$

we know  $\lim X_n(\omega)$  exists - i.e.  $\mathbb{P}(\lim X_n(\omega) \text{ exists}) = 1$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 4.3.** *Every sequence of random variables  $X_n$  that converges almost surely converges in probability. Conversely, if  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  then there exists a subsequence  $\{X_{n_k}\}$  which converges almost surely.*

*Proof.* Assume  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Consider  $\overline{\lim} \mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \leq \mathbb{P}(\limsup\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\})$  by a previous theorem (Theorem 2 in Lecture Notes). We have

$$\begin{aligned} \limsup\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\} &= \{\omega \mid |X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| > \epsilon \text{ infinitely often}\} \\ &\subseteq \{\omega \mid \lim X_n(\omega) \neq X(\omega)\} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\overline{\lim}|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \leq 1 - P(\lim X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)) = 0 \quad \text{as } X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$$

since  $\lim \mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0$ .

Conversely, assume  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ . Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , consider  $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X_m| > \epsilon) \leq \mathbb{P}(|X - X_m| > \epsilon/2 + \mathbb{P}(|X - X_n| > \epsilon/2))$  (If  $|X - X_n| \leq \epsilon/2$  and  $|X - X_m| \leq \epsilon/2$ , then  $|X_n - X_m| \leq \epsilon$  by the triangle inequality). Thus,  $\mathbb{P}(|X_m - X_n| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $m$  and  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Set  $n_1 = 1$  and define  $n_j$  to be the smallest integer  $N > n_{j-1}$  such that

$$\mathbb{P}(|X_r - X_s| > 2^{-j}) < 2^{-j} \quad \text{when } r, s > N$$

Then apply Theorem 4.2, and as

$$\sum_j \mathbb{P}(|X_{n_{j+1}} - X_{n_j}| > 2^{-j}) < \sum_j 2^{-j} = 1 < \infty$$

we know that  $X_{n_j}$  converges almost surely.  $\square$

**Example 4.4.** We now construct an example where  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$  but  $X_n$  does not converge almost surely to 0.

Let  $\Omega = [0, 1]$ ,  $\mathcal{F}$  the Borel  $\sigma$ -field, and  $\mathbb{P}$  the Lebesgue measure. Let  $\varphi_{kj} = \mathbb{I}_{[j-1/k, j/k]}$  for  $j = 1, \dots, k$  and  $k = 1, 2, \dots$

Let  $X_1 = \varphi_{11}, X_2 = \varphi_{21}, X_3 = \varphi_{22}$ , etc. For any  $p > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_n|^p) = \int X_n d\mathbb{P} = [j_n - 1/k_n, j_n/k_n] \rightarrow 0$$

and so  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} 0$ .



However, for each  $\omega \in \Omega$  and each  $k$  there are some  $j$  such that  $\varphi_{kj}(\omega) = 1$ . Thus  $X_n(\omega) = 1$  infinitely often. Similarly  $X_n(\omega) = 0$  infinitely often. Hence  $X_n$  does not converge almost surely to 0.

## 5. LECTURE 5 - THURSDAY 17 MARCH

Following from the previous lecture, we now modify the examples to show convergence in probability does not imply convergence in  $L^p$  even when  $\mathbb{E}(|X_n|^p) < \infty$ .

From 4.4, replace  $\varphi_{kj}$  by  $k^{1/p}\varphi_{kj}$ . Then

$$\mathbb{P}(|X_n| > 0) = 1/k_n \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Similarly,

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_n|^p) = (k_n^{1/p})^p \mathbb{P}(X_n \neq 0) = 1$$

and so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n|^p) = 1$$

and thus  $X_n$  does not converge in  $L^p$  to zero. Thus convergence in probability does not imply convergence in  $L^p$ .

Next define  $X_1 = \varphi_{11}$ ,  $X_n = \varphi_{n1}n^{1/p}$ . Then

$$X_n(\omega) \rightarrow 0$$

for  $\omega > 0$  so  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0$ . We also have

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_n|^p) = (n^{1/p})^p \frac{1}{n} = 1$$

and so  $X_n$  does not converge in  $L^p$  to zero.

**Definition 5.1** (Uniform integrability). A sequence  $\{X_n\}$  is uniformly integrable if

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \sup_n \int_{|X_n| \geq y} |X_n| d\mathbb{P} = 0$$

**Theorem 5.2** (Convergence in probability and uniform integrability imply convergence in  $L^p$ ). *If  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  and  $\{|X_n|\}$  is uniformly integrable, then  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$ .*

**Definition 5.3** (Independence). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ . The events are said to be independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(A_{i_1}, \dots, A_{i_k}) = \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1}) \dots \mathbb{P}(A_{i_k})$$

for all  $1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq n$ ,  $k = 2, 3, \dots, n$ .

In the infinite case, let  $\{A_\alpha, \alpha \in I\}$ ,  $I$  an index set, is a set of independent events if each finite subset is independent.

**Definition 5.4** (Independence of random variables). Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ .  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent if  $A_i = \{X_i \in S_i\}$  are independent for every set of Borel sets,  $S_i \in \mathcal{B}$ .

Alternatively, let  $X$  and  $Y$  be random variables. Let  $\mathcal{B}_2$  be the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .  $Z(\omega) = (X(\omega), Y(\omega))$  is then a map from  $\Omega$  to  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .  $Z$  is Borel measurable if

$$Z^{-1}(S) \in \mathcal{F}$$

for all  $S \in \mathcal{B}_2$ .  $\mathbb{P}_{X,Y}$  is the induced measure on  $\mathcal{B}_2$ , and  $F_{X,Y}$  is the joint distribution of  $(X, Y)$ . Let

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = \mathbb{P}_{X,Y}((-\infty, x], (-\infty, y]) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega : X(\omega) \leq x, Y(\omega) \leq y\})$$

**Theorem 5.5.** *If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent then*

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y)$$

**Theorem 5.6.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent, with  $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$  and  $\mathbb{E}(|Y|) < \infty$ . Then*

$$\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$$

*Proof.* Start with simple functions. Then

$$X(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mathbf{1}_{A_i}(\omega)$$

with  $\{A_i\}$  disjoint. Let

$$Y(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^m b_j \mathbf{1}_{B_j}(\omega)$$

with  $\{B_j\}$  disjoint.

Independence implies  $\mathbb{P}(A_i B_j) = \mathbb{P}(A_i)\mathbb{P}(B_j)$ .

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(XY) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m a_i b_j \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{1}_{A_i} \mathbf{1}_{B_j}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m a_i b_j \mathbb{P}(A_i B_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m a_i b_j \mathbb{P}(A_i) \mathbb{P}(B_j) \end{aligned}$$

by independence.

Now extend to non-negative random variables  $X, Y$  by constructing sequences of simple functions using monotone convergence theorem. Let

$$X_n(\omega) = \frac{i}{2^n} \quad \text{if} \quad \frac{i}{2^n} < X(\omega) \leq \frac{i+1}{2^n}, i = 0, 1, \dots, n2^n$$

and zero if  $X(\omega) > n$ .

For simple functions, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(X_n Y_n) = \mathbb{E}(X_n) \mathbb{E}(Y_n)$$

and so by the monotone convergence theorem,

$$\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X) \mathbb{E}(Y)$$

□

**Theorem 5.7.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent random variables. Then*

$$\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^r) < \infty$$

*if and only if*

$$\mathbb{E}(|X|^r) < \infty \text{ and } \mathbb{E}(|Y|^r) < \infty$$

*for any  $r > 0$ .*

**Lemma 5.8** ( $c_r$  inequality). *We have*

$$|x + y|^r \leq c_r (|x|^r + |y|^r)$$

*for  $x, y$  real,  $c_r$  constant,  $r \geq 0$ .*

*Proof.* If  $r = 0$ , trivial.

If  $r = 1$ , we obtain the triangle inequality.

If  $r > 1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} |x + y|^r &\leq [2 \max(|x|, |y|)]^r \\ &= 2^r \max(|x|^r, |y|^r) \\ &\leq 2^r (|x|^r + |y|^r) \end{aligned}$$

and setting  $c_r = 2^r$  proves for  $r > 1$ .

If  $0 < r < 1$ , consider  $f(t) = 1 + t^r - (1 + t)^r$ , with  $f(0) = 0$ . Differentiating, we have  $f'(t) = rt^{r-1} - r(1 + t)^{r-1} \geq 0$  for  $t > 0$ . Thus  $f(t)$  is increasing for  $t > 0$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &> f(0) = 0 \\ 1 + t^r &\geq (1 + t)^r. \end{aligned}$$

Using  $t = \frac{|y|}{|x|}$ , we obtain

$$(|x| + |y|)^r \leq |x|^r + |y|^r$$

□

## 6. LECTURE 6 - THURSDAY 17 MARCH

**Lemma 6.1.** For any  $\alpha > 0$  and distribution function  $F$ ,

$$\int_0^\infty x^\alpha dF(x) = \alpha \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} [1 - F(x)] dx$$

*Proof.* Consider. Integrating by parts, we have that this is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^b x^\alpha dF(x) &= - \int_0^b x^\alpha d(1 - F(x)) \\ &= [-x^\alpha](1 - F(x))|_0^b + \int_0^b \alpha x^{\alpha-1} (1 - F(x)) dx \\ &= -b^\alpha (1 - F(b)) + \int_0^b \alpha x^{\alpha-1} (1 - F(x)) dx \end{aligned}$$

We also have

$$0 \leq b^\alpha (1 - F(b)) \leq \int_b^\infty x^\alpha dF(x)$$

If the LHS converges then  $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\infty x^\alpha dF(x) \rightarrow 0$ . Thus the term  $b^\alpha (1 - F(b))$  is squeezed to zero.

Conversely,

$$\int_0^b x^\alpha dF(x) \leq \int_0^b \alpha x^{\alpha-1} (1 - F(x)) dx$$

and so

$$\int_0^\infty \alpha x^{\alpha-1} (1 - F(x)) dx < \infty \Rightarrow \int_0^\infty x^\alpha dF(x) < \infty.$$

□

**Theorem 6.2.** Let  $X, Y$  independent and  $r > 0$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^r) < \infty \iff \mathbb{E}(|X|^r) < \infty, \mathbb{E}(|Y|^r) < \infty$$

*Proof.* If  $\mathbb{E}(|X|^r) < \infty, \mathbb{E}(|Y|^r) < \infty$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^r) \leq c_r (\mathbb{E}(|X|^r) + \mathbb{E}(|Y|^r)) < \infty$$

Assume  $\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^r) < \infty$ . Assume  $X$  and  $Y$  have median 0 (without loss of generality). Then

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq 0) \geq \frac{1}{2}, \mathbb{P}(X \geq 0) \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

Similarly for  $Y$ .

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P}(|X| > t) &= P(X < -t) + P(X > t), t > 0 \\
 &= \frac{P(X < -t, Y \leq 0)}{P(Y \leq 0)} + \frac{P(X > t, Y \geq 0)}{P(Y \geq 0)} \\
 &= 2P(X + Y \leq -t) + 2P(X + Y > t) \\
 &= 2P(|X + Y| > t)
 \end{aligned}$$

by independence.

Using the previous lemma, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}(|X|^r) \int_0^\infty x^r dF(x) &= r \int_0^\infty x^{r-1} P(|X| > x) dx \\
 &\leq 2r \int_0^\infty x^{r-1} P(|X + Y| > x) dx \\
 &= 2r \mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^r).
 \end{aligned}$$

So  $\mathbb{E}(|X + Y|^r) < \infty \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(|X|^r) < \infty$ . Similarly for  $\mathbb{E}(|Y|^r) < \infty$ .

□

**Theorem 6.3.** *If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent with distribution functions  $F$  and  $G$  respectively, then*

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X + Y \leq x) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(x - y) dG(y) \\
 &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} G(x - y) dF(y)
 \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* This is just a simple statement of Fubini's theorem.

□

**Corollary 6.4.** *Suppose that  $X$  has an absolutely continuous distribution function*

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du$$

*for some density function  $f$  with  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) dx = 1$  and  $f \geq 0$ .*

*Let  $Y$  be independent of  $X$ . Then  $X + Y$  has an absolutely continuous distribution with density*

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x - y) dG(y)$$

*Thus we have*

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X + Y \leq x) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{-\infty}^x f(t - y) dt dG(y) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t - y) dG(y) dt
 \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 6.5.** A distribution function  $F$  that can be represented in the form

$$F(x) = \sum_j b_j \mathbf{1}_{[a_j, \infty]}(x)$$

with  $a_j$  real,  $b_j \geq 0$ ,  $\sum b_j = 1$  is called **discrete**.

If a distribution function is continuous then it may be:

- (1) **Absolutely continuous**, in which case there is a density function  $f \geq 0$  such that  $F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(u) du$ .  $f$  is called the density.
- (2) **Singular**, in which case  $F'(x)$  exists and equal zero almost everywhere with respect to the Lebesgue measure (see Chung §1.3)

**Theorem 6.6.** Any distribution function  $F$  can be written uniquely as a convex combination of a discrete, an absolutely continuous, and a singular distribution. By convex, we mean a linear combination with non-negative coefficients summing to one.

**Theorem 6.7** (Chebyshev's inequality). Let  $X$  be a random variable and  $g$  an increasing, non-negative function. If  $g(a) > 0$ , then

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(g(X))}{g(a)}.$$

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(g(X)) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) dF(x) \\ &\geq \int_a^{\infty} g(x) dF(x) \\ &\geq g(a) \int_a^{\infty} dF(x) \\ &= g(a) P(X \geq a) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Corollary 6.8.** Let  $g(x) = x^2$ . Then

$$P(|X - \mathbb{E}(X)| > a) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{a^2}$$

Let  $g(x) = e^{ax}$ . Then

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(e^{cX})}{e^{ca}} = e^{-ca} \mathbb{E}(e^{cX})$$

Let  $g(x) = |x|^k, k > 0$ . Then

$$P(|X| \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(|X|^k)}{a^k}.$$

## 7. LECTURE 7 - THURSDAY 24 MARCH

**Definition 7.1** (Weak law of large numbers). Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \dots$  be IID random variables with  $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu, \text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ . Then

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{p} \mu$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon) &\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)^2}{\epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2/n}{\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

We have

$$\mathbb{E}(|\bar{X}_n - \mu|^2) = \sigma^2/n \rightarrow 0$$

and so  $\bar{X}_n$  converges to  $\mu$  in  $L^2$  □

We can relax the assumptions to  $E(|X|) < \infty$  (no need to have finite variance). See Chung (1974) p.109, Theorem 5.2.2.

**Theorem 7.2.** Let  $X_i$  be uncorrelated, and  $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu_i$ ,  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma_i^2 < \infty$  with

$$\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \rightarrow 0$$

then we have

$$\bar{X}_n - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \xrightarrow{p} 0$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} P(|\bar{X}_n - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i| > \epsilon) &= P(|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu_i)| > \epsilon) \\ &\leq \frac{\text{Var}(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu_i))}{\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as  $\sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \rightarrow 0$ . □

**Theorem 7.3** (Borel-Cantelli lemma). Let  $A_1, \dots$  be events in a probability space. Let  $B = \limsup A_n = \bigcap_{n \geq 1} \bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m$ . Then

(i)  $\sum_n P(A_n) < \infty$  then  $P(B) = 0$ .

(ii) If  $A_i$  are independent and  $\sum_n P(A_n) \rightarrow \infty$  then  $P(B) = 1$ .

For (ii) we need independence. Consider  $A_i = A$  where  $P(A) = \frac{1}{3}$ . Then

$$B = \limsup A_n = A$$

and  $P(B) = \frac{1}{3}$

*Proof.* Preliminary lemma - if  $0 < x < 1$ , then  $\log(1 - x) < -x$ . We can then show that if  $\sum_n a_n \rightarrow \infty$  then  $\prod_n (1 - a_n) \rightarrow 0$ .

(i)

$$P(B) \leq P\left(\bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m\right) \leq \sum_{m \geq n} P(A_m) \rightarrow 0$$

and so  $P(B) = 0$ .

(ii) We will prove  $P(\bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m) = 1$  for all  $n$ . Take  $K > n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - P\left(\bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m\right) &\leq 1 - P\left(\bigcup_{m=n}^K A_m\right) \\ &= P\left(\left(\bigcup_{m=n}^K A_m\right)^c\right) \\ &= P\left(\bigcap_{m=n}^K A_m^c\right) \\ &= \prod_{m=n}^K (1 - P(A_m)) \quad \text{by independence} \\ &\rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as  $\sum_n P(A_n) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $K \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus

$$P\left(\bigcup_{m \geq n} A_m\right) = 1$$

for all  $n$ , and so  $P(B) = 1$ .

□

**Theorem 7.4** (Strong law of large numbers). *Let  $X_1, \dots$  be IID random variables. Let  $\mathbb{E}(X_1) = \mu$ ,  $\mathbb{E}(X_1^4) < \infty$ . Let  $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ . Then*

$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} S_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mu$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)\right)^4 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_i - \mu)^4 + 6 \binom{n}{2} \sigma^4 \\ &= n \mathbb{E}(X_1 - \mu)^4 + 3n(n-1) \sigma^4 \\ &\leq Cn^2. \end{aligned}$$



From Chebyshev, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(|S_n - \mu n| > \epsilon n) &\leq \frac{E(S_n - \mu n)^4}{(\epsilon n)^4} \\ &\leq \frac{cn^2}{\epsilon^4 n^4} = \frac{k}{n^2} \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\sum_n P(|S_n - n\mu| > n\epsilon) < \infty,$$

and so  $P(\limsup\{|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu| > \epsilon\}) = 0$ . Letting  $A_\epsilon = \{|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu| > \epsilon\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu| \text{ does not converge to zero}) &= P(\bigcup_k A_{1/k}) \\ &\leq \sum_k P(A_{1/k}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

by Borel-Cantelli. □

## 8. LECTURE 8 - THURSDAY 24 MARCH

Let  $X_1, \dots$  be IID random variables with mean  $\mu$ . Then

$$P(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_n}{n} = \mu) = 1$$

Conversely, if  $\mathbb{E}(|X|)$  does not exist, then

$$P(\limsup |\frac{S_n}{n}| = \infty) = 1$$

**Theorem 8.1.** *If  $E(X^2) < \infty$ , and  $\mu = 0$  (WLOG),*

$$\begin{aligned} P(|n^{-\alpha} S_n| \geq \epsilon) &\leq \frac{E(S_n^2)}{n^{2\alpha} \epsilon^2} \\ &= n^{1-2\alpha} \sigma^2 / \epsilon^2 \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

*provided  $S \geq \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $n^{-\alpha} S_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ .*

**Theorem 8.2** (Hausdorff (1913)).  $|S_n| = \mathcal{O}(n^{\frac{1}{2}+\epsilon})$  a.s for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

*Assumes  $\mathbb{E}(|X_i|^r) < \infty$  for  $r = 1, 2, \dots$*

*Proof.* Previously, we showed  $\mathbb{E}(S_n^4) \leq Cn^2$  for some  $C > 0$ . Then we can extend this to

$$\mathbb{E}(S_n^{2k}) \leq c_k n^k, k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(n^{-\alpha}|S_n| > a) &\geq \frac{c_k n^k}{(an^\alpha)^{2k}} \\ &= c_k a^{-2k} n^{k(1-2\alpha)} \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\sum P(n^{-\alpha}|S_n| > a) < \infty$$

if  $k(1-2\alpha) > -1$  i.e.  $\alpha \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2k}$ .

By Borel-Cantelli,  $P(|S_n| > an^\alpha \text{ i.o.}) = 0$  if  $\alpha > \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2k}$ . □

**Theorem 8.3** (Hardy and Littlewood (1914)).  $|S_n| = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n \log n})$  a.s.

**Lemma 8.4.** Suppose  $|X_i| \leq M$  a.s. ( $X_i$  is bounded). Then for any  $x \in [0, \frac{2}{M}]$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}(e^{xS_n}) \leq \exp\left[\frac{nx^2\sigma^2}{2}(1+xM)\right]$$

*Proof.* The random variables  $e^{xX_i}$  are independent, so  $\mathbb{E}(e^{xS_n}) = [\mathbb{E}(e^{xX_1})]^n$ . We can then evaluate

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(e^{xX_1}) &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(xX_1)^k}{k!}\right] \\ &= 1 + 0 + x^2\sigma^2/2 + \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{(xX_1)^k}{k!}\right) \\ &\leq 1 + x^2\sigma^2/2 + \sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{x^k M^{k-2}\sigma^2}{k!} \\ &\leq 1 + x^2\sigma^2/2 + \sigma^2 M^{-2}/3! \sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{x^k M^k}{3^{k-3}} \\ &= 1 + x^2\sigma^2/2 + \sigma^2 M^{-2}/6 \frac{(xM/3)^3}{(1-xM/3)} \\ &= 1 + x^2\sigma^2/2 = \frac{\sigma^2 M x^3}{6(1-xM/3)}. \end{aligned}$$

If  $0 \leq x \leq 2/M$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(e^{xX_1}) &\leq 1 + \sigma^2 x^2/2 + \sigma^2 x^2/2(xM) \\ &= 1 + \sigma^2 x^2/2(1+xM) \\ &\leq \exp(\sigma^2 x^2/2(1+xM)) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Corollary 8.5.** For  $0 < a < \frac{2\sigma^2 n}{M}$ , under the conditions of the above Lemma,

$$P(S_n \geq a) \leq e^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2n\sigma^2})^{1-\frac{Ma}{n\sigma^2}}}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_n \geq a) &\leq \frac{E(e^{xS_n})}{e^{ax}} \\ &\leq \exp\left(\frac{n\sigma^2 x^2}{2}(1 + xM) - ax\right) \quad 0 < x \leq \frac{2}{M} \end{aligned}$$

Put  $x = \frac{a}{n\sigma^2}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_n \geq a) &\leq \exp\left(\frac{a^2}{2n\sigma^2}\left(1 - \frac{aM}{n\sigma^2}\right) - \frac{a^2}{n\sigma^2}\right) \\ &= \exp\left(\frac{-a^2}{2n\sigma^2}\left(1 - \frac{aM}{n\sigma^2}\right)\right) \end{aligned}$$

□

We can now prove the Hardy-Littlewood result. If  $|X_i| \leq M$  almost surely then  $|S_n| = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n \log n})$  a.s.

*Proof.* Put  $a = c\sqrt{n \log n}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_n \geq c\sqrt{n \log n}) &\leq \exp\left(\frac{c^2 \log n}{2\sigma^2}\left(1 - \frac{Mc\sqrt{\log n}}{\sqrt{n}\sigma^2}\right)\right) \\ &= n^{-c^2/2\sigma^2} \exp\left(\frac{Mc^3 \log n \sqrt{\log n}}{2\sigma^4 \sqrt{n}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

If  $c^2 > 2\sigma^2$  then  $\sum_n P(S_n > c\sqrt{n \log n}) < \infty$ . By Borel-Cantelli, we then have

$$P(S_n > c\sqrt{n \log n} \text{ i.o.}) = 0$$

Now apply the argument to  $-X_i$ . Then

$$P(-S_n > c\sqrt{n \log n} \text{ i.o.}) = 0$$

□

**Theorem 8.6** (Khinchine (1923)).  $|S_n| = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n \log \log n})$  a.s.

**Theorem 8.7** (Khinchine (1924)). Let  $X_i = \pm 1$  with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Then

$$\limsup \frac{|S_n|}{\sqrt{n \log \log n}} = \sqrt{2} \text{ a.s.}$$

## 9. LECTURE 9 - THURSDAY 31 MARCH

**Definition 9.1** (Induced  $\sigma$ -field). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. Let  $Y$  be a set of random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . Then  $\sigma(Y)$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -field contained in  $\mathcal{F}$  with respect to which each  $X \in Y$  is measurable.

That is, for each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , the Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $\mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$X^{-1}(B) \in \sigma(Y)$$

Thus  $\sigma(Y)$  is the intersection of all  $\sigma$ -fields which contain every set of the form  $X^{-1}(B)$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}, X \in Y$ .

**Definition 9.2** (Independent  $\sigma$ -fields). If  $X_1, \dots$  are independent random variables and  $A_i \in \sigma(X_i)$ , then

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \quad (\star)$$

If  $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \dots$  are  $\sigma$ -fields contained in  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $(\star)$  holds for any  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}_i$  then we say the  $\sigma$ -fields are independent.

**Theorem 9.3.** Let  $\mathcal{F}_0, \mathcal{F}_1, \dots$  be independent  $\sigma$ -fields and let  $\mathcal{G}$  be  $\sigma$ -fields generated by any subset of  $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \dots$ . Then  $\mathcal{F}_0$  is independent of  $\mathcal{G}$ .

*Proof. Outline.* Take  $\mathcal{G}$  to be the smallest  $\sigma$ -field containing  $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \dots$ .

If  $A \in \mathcal{F}_0, B \in \mathcal{G}$ , then we need to show

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

- (1) Assume  $P(A) > 0$ .
- (2) If  $B = A_1 \cap A_2 \dots A_n$  then the result is true.
- (3) Let  $\mathcal{G}_a$  be the class of **finite** unions of  $B$ . Then  $\mathcal{G}_a$  is a finitely additive field, and  $G \in \mathcal{G}_a$  can be written as  $G = \bigcup_{i=1}^k G_i$  where  $G_i$  has the form of  $B$  above. Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap G) &= P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^k A \cap G_i\right) \\ &= \sum P(A \cap G_i) = \sum_{i=j} P(A \cap G_i \cap G_j) + \dots \\ &= P(A)P(G) \end{aligned}$$

by the inclusion-exclusion formula and independence of  $A$  and  $G_i$ .

- (4) Now, let  $P_A(B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$ . Then  $P_A$  and  $P$  are measures on  $\mathcal{F}$ , and  $P$  and  $P_A$  agree on  $\mathcal{G}_a$ .

Thus by the extension theorem they agree on the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{G}_a$  which includes  $\mathcal{G}$ .

□

**Definition 9.4** (Tail  $\sigma$ -field). Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of random variables and let

$$\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(\{X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots\})$$

be the  $\sigma$  field generated by  $X_n, X_{n+1}$ . Then

$$\mathcal{F}_n \supseteq \mathcal{F}_{n+1} \supseteq \mathcal{F}_{n+2} \dots$$

and let

$$\mathcal{T} = \bigcap_n \mathcal{F}_n$$

be the **tail  $\sigma$ -field**.

$\mathcal{T}$  is the collection of events defined in terms of  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  not affected by altering a finite number of the random variables.

**Theorem 9.5** (The 0 – 1 law). *Any set belonging to the tail  $\sigma$ -field of a sequence of independent random variables has probability 0 or 1.*

*Proof.* We have  $\sigma(X_n)$  is independent of  $\sigma(\{X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots\}) = \mathcal{F}_{n+1} \supseteq \mathcal{T}$  and so  $\mathcal{T}$  is independent of  $\sigma(X_n)$  for every  $n$ . By the previous theorem, it follows that  $\mathcal{F}$  is independent of  $\mathcal{G} = \sigma(\{X_1, X_2, \dots\})$  but as  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ , we know that  $\mathcal{T}$  is independent of itself. Thus, for any  $A \in \mathcal{T}$ ,

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

and so  $P(A) = 0$  or  $1$ . □

### 9.1. Martingales.

**Definition 9.6** (Martingale). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. Let  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$  be an increasing sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields.

$$\mathcal{F}_n \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{n+1} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathcal{F}.$$

Let  $\{S_n\}$  be a sequence of random variables on  $\Omega$ . Then  $\{S_n\}$  is a **martingale** with respect to  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$  if

- (1)  $S_n$  is measurable with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_n$ .
- (2)  $\mathbb{E}(|S_n|) < \infty$ .
- (3)  $\mathbb{E}(S_n | \mathcal{F}_m) = S_m$  almost surely for all  $m \leq n$ .

## 10. LECTURE 10 - THURSDAY 31 MARCH

**Definition 10.1** (Supermartingale).  $\{S_n\}$  is a **supermartingale** with respect to  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$  if

- (1)  $S_n$  is measurable with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_n$ .
- (2)  $\mathbb{E}(|S_n|) < \infty$ .
- (3)  $\mathbb{E}(S_n | \mathcal{F}_m) \leq S_m$  almost surely for all  $m \leq n$ .

**Definition 10.2** (Submartingale).  $\{S_n\}$  is a **submartingale** with respect to  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$  if

- (1)  $S_n$  is measurable with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_n$ .
- (2)  $\mathbb{E}(|S_n|) < \infty$ .
- (3)  $\mathbb{E}(S_n | \mathcal{F}_m) \geq S_m$  almost surely for all  $m \leq n$ .

**Definition 10.3** (Regular martingale). Let  $X$  is a random variable  $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$ ,  $S_n = \mathbb{E}(X | \mathcal{F}_n)$  and assume  $\{S_n\}$  is a martingale with respect to  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$ .

If a martingale can be written in this way for some  $X$  then it is **regular**.

Not every martingale is a regular martingale.

**Example 10.4.** Assume  $P(X_i = 1) = p$ ,  $P(X_i = -1) = 1 - p$ , and let  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . If  $p \neq \frac{1}{2}$  then

$$Y_n = \left( \frac{1-p}{p} \right)^{S_n}$$

is a martingale with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ , since

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(Y_n | \mathcal{F}_{n-1}) &= \mathbb{E} \left( \left( \frac{1-p}{p} \right)^{S_n + X_n} | \mathcal{F}_{n-1} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{1-p}{p} \right)^{S_n} \left[ \left( \frac{1-p}{p} \right) p + \left( \frac{1-p}{p} \right)^{-1} (1-p) \right] \\ &= Y_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

**10.1. Conditional expectations.** If  $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  then

$$L^2(\mathcal{G}) = \{X | \mathbb{E}(X^2) < \infty, X \text{ is } \mathcal{G}\text{-measurable}\}$$

If  $Y \in L^2$  define  $Z = \mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G})$  to be the projection of  $Y$  onto  $L^2(\mathcal{G})$ , where

$$\mathbb{E}(Y - Z)^2 = \inf_{U \in L^2(\mathcal{G})} \mathbb{E}(Y - U)^2$$

Then  $Y - Z$  will be orthogonal to the elements of  $L^2(\mathcal{G})$ . That is,

$$\int (Y - Z)X \, dP = 0$$

for all  $X \in L^2(\mathcal{G})$ . If  $A \in \mathcal{G}$ , then letting  $X = \mathbf{1}_A$ , we have

$$\boxed{\int_A Y \, dP = \int_A \mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}) \, dP}$$

If  $Y \geq 0$  construct  $\{Y_n\}$  with  $Y_n \in L^2$  such that  $Y_n \uparrow Y$ . Define

$$\mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(Y_n | \mathcal{G}).$$

The limit exists as

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_n | \mathcal{G}) \geq \mathbb{E}(Y_m | \mathcal{G}), n \geq m.$$

We still have

- (1)  $\mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G})$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable, and
- (2) For all  $A \in \mathcal{G}$ ,

$$\int_A Y \, dP = \int_A \mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}) \, dP$$

as

$$\int_A \mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}) \, dP = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_A \mathbb{E}(Y_n | \mathcal{G}) \, dP = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_A Y_n \, dP = \int_A Y \, dP$$

by the monotone convergence theorem.

If  $Y \in L^1$ , defining  $Y = Y^+ - Y^-$ , we define

$$\mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}(Y^+ | \mathcal{G}) - \mathbb{E}(Y^- | \mathcal{G}).$$

## 10.2. Stopping times.

**Definition 10.5.** A map

$$\nu : \Omega \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{N}} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty\}$$

is called a **stopping time** with respect to  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$ , an increasing sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields, if

$$\{\nu = n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n.$$

and thus

$$\{\nu \leq n\}, \{\nu > n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n$$

**Theorem 10.6** (Properties of stopping times). *Let  $\mathcal{F}_\infty = \bigvee_{n=1}^\infty \mathcal{F}_n$ , the  $\sigma$ -field generated by all  $\mathcal{F}_n$ . Then we have*

(1) *For all stopping times  $\nu$ ,  $\nu$  is  $\mathcal{F}_\infty$ -measurable.*

$$\{\nu = n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n, \{\nu = \infty\} = \left\{ \bigcup_n \{\nu = n\} \right\}^c \in \mathcal{F}_\infty$$

(2) *The minimum and maximum of a countable sequence of stopping times is a stopping time. To prove this, let  $\{v_k\}$  be a sequence of stopping times. Then*

$$\begin{aligned} \{\max_k v_k \leq n\} &= \bigcap_k \{v_k \leq n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n \\ \{\min_k v_k > n\} &= \bigcap_k \{v_k > n\} \in \mathcal{F}_n \end{aligned}$$

**Lemma 10.7.** *Let  $\{Y_n^1\}$  and  $\{Y_n^2\}$  be two positive supermartingales with respect to  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$ , an increasing sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields. Let  $\nu$  be a stopping time. If  $Y_n^1 \geq Y_n^2$  on  $[\nu = n]$ , then*

$$Z_n = Y_n^1 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu > n\}} + Y_n^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu \leq n\}}$$

*is a positive supermartingale.*

*Proof.* We have that  $Z_n$  is  $\mathcal{F}_n$ -measurable and positive. We then have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(Z_n | \mathcal{F}_{n-1}) &= \mathbb{E}(Y_n^1 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu > n\}} + Y_n^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu \leq n\}} | \mathcal{F}_{n-1}) \\ &= \mathbb{E}(Y_n^1 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu > n-1\}} - Y_n^1 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu = n\}} + Y_n^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu \leq n-1\}} + Y_n^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu = n\}} | \mathcal{F}_{n-1}) \\ &\leq Y_{n-1}^1 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu > n-1\}} + Y_{n-1}^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu \leq n-1\}} + \mathbb{E}((Y_n^2 - Y_n^1) \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu = n\}} | \mathcal{F}_{n-1}) \\ &\leq Z_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

as  $Y_n^2 - Y_n^1 < 0$  on  $\{\nu = n\}$ . □

## 11. LECTURE 11 - THURSDAY 7 APRIL

**Theorem 11.1** (Maximal inequality for positive supermartingales). *Let  $\{Y_n\}$  be a positive supermartingale with respect to  $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}$ . Then*

$$\sup_n Y_n < \infty \text{ a.s.}$$

on  $[Y_0 < \infty]$  and

$$P(\sup_n Y_n > a \mid \mathcal{F}_0) \leq \min(1, \frac{Y_0}{a})$$

*Proof.* Fix  $a > 0$  and let  $\nu_a = \inf\{n : Y_n > a\} = \infty$  if  $\sup_n Y_n \leq a$ . Then the sequence  $Y_n(2) = a$  is a positive supermartingale, and so

$$Z_n = Y_n \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_a > n\}} + a \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_a \leq n\}}$$

is a positive supermartingale by the previous lemma. Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}(Z_n \mid \mathcal{F}_0) \leq Z_0 = \begin{cases} Y_0 & Y_0 \leq a \\ a & Y_0 > a \end{cases}$$

Thus  $Z_n \geq a \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_a \leq n\}}$  and so

$$aP(\nu_a \leq n \mid \mathcal{F}_0) \leq \min(Y_0, a)$$

for all  $a$ . Thus

$$P(\sup_n Y_n > a \mid \mathcal{F}_0) = P(\nu_a < \infty \mid \mathcal{F}_0) \leq \min(1, \frac{Y_0}{a})$$

□

Write

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y_0 < \infty, \sup_n Y_n > a) &= \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{1}_{\{Y_0 < \infty\}} \mathbf{1}_{\{\sup_n Y_n > a\}}) \\ &= \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{1}_{\{Y_0 < \infty\}}) \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{1}_{\{\sup_n Y_n > a\}} \mid \mathcal{F}_0) \\ &\leq \int_{Y_0 < \infty} \min(1, \frac{Y_0}{a}) dP \\ &\rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as  $a \rightarrow \infty$  by the dominated convergence theorem.

Thus, we have

$$P(Y_0 < \infty, \sup_n Y_n < \infty) = 1 \text{ a.s.}$$



Fix  $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$ . For any process  $Y_n$ , define the following random variables

$$\nu_1 = \min(n \geq 0, Y_n \leq a)$$

$$\nu_2 = \min(n > \nu_1, Y_n \geq b)$$

$$\nu_3 = \min(n > \nu_2, Y_n \leq a)$$

and so on. If any  $\nu_i$  is undefined it is subsequently set to infinity.

Define  $\beta_{ab} = \max p : \nu_{2p} < \infty$ , equal to the number of upcrossings of  $(a, b)$  by  $Y_n$ . We have  $\beta_{ab} = \infty$  if and only if  $\liminf y_n \leq a < b \leq \limsup y_n$ . We also have  $Y_n$  converges if and only if  $\beta_{ab} < \infty$  for all rationals  $a, b$ ,  $a < b$ .

**Theorem 11.2** (Dubin's inequality). *If  $Y_n$  is a positive supermartingale, then  $\beta_{ab}(\omega)$  are random variables and for each integer  $k \geq 1$ , we have*

$$P(\beta_{ab} \geq k \mid \mathcal{F}_0) \leq \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^k \min(1, \frac{Y_0}{a}), 0 < a < b.$$

*Proof.* The  $\nu_k$  defined above are stopping times with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_n$ , as

$$[\nu_{2p} = n] = \bigcup_{m=0}^{n-1} [\nu_{2p-1} = m, Y_{m+1} \leq b, \dots, Y_{n-1} < b, Y_n \geq b]$$

and as  $\nu_1$  is a stopping time, we then use induction.

We then have  $[\beta_{ab} \geq k] = [\nu_{2k} < \infty]$ . Then define

$$\begin{aligned} Z_n &= \mathbf{1}_{\{0 \leq n < \nu_1\}} + \sum_{k=1}^K \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{k-1} \frac{Y_n}{a} \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_{2k-1} \leq n \leq \nu_{2k}\}} \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^k \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_{2k} \leq n < \nu_{2k+1}\}} + \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^K \mathbf{1}_{\{n \geq \nu_{2K+1}\}} \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $\mathbf{1}_{\{0 \leq n < \nu_1\}} + \frac{Y_n}{a} \mathbf{1}_{\{ \}} \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_1 \leq n < \nu_2\}} + \frac{b}{a} \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_2 \leq n < \nu_3\}} + \dots + \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^K \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_{2K} \leq n\}}$ .

We now apply the previous lemma to show  $\{Z_n\}$  is a positive supermartingale. We have

$$\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^k, \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{k-1} \frac{Y_n}{a}$$

are positive supermartingales. On  $[\nu_1 = n]$ , we have  $1 \geq \frac{Y_n}{a}$ . On  $[\nu_{2k-1} = n]$  we have

$$\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{k-1} \geq \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{k-1} \frac{Y_n}{a}$$

On the even stopping times, we have  $\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{k-1} \frac{Y_n}{a} \geq \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^k$ . Thus

$$\mathbb{E}(Z_n \mid \mathcal{F}_0) \leq Z_0$$

as  $Z_n$  is a positive supermartingale. d

Since  $Z_n \geq \frac{b}{a} \mathbf{1}_{\{\nu_{2k} \leq n\}}$ , we have

$$P(\nu_{2k} \leq n | \mathcal{F}_0) \leq \frac{a}{b} \min(1, \frac{Y_0}{a})$$

Letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(\beta_{ab} \geq k | \mathcal{F}_0) &= P(\nu_{2k} < \infty | \mathcal{F}_0) \\ &\leq \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^K \min(1, \frac{Y_0}{a}). \end{aligned}$$

□

## 12. LECTURE 12 - THURSDAY 7 APRIL

**Theorem 12.1.** *Let  $\{Y_n\}$  be a positive supermartingale. Then there exists a random variable  $Y_\infty$  such that  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y_\infty$  and  $\mathbb{E}(Y_\infty | \mathcal{F}_n) \leq Y_n$  for all  $n$ .*

*Proof.* From Durbin's inequality,

$$P(\beta_{ab} \geq k) \leq \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^k$$

By Borel-Cantelli, as we have a summable sequence of probabilities,  $\beta_{ab} < \infty$  almost surely. Hence

$$P(Y_n \text{ converges}) = P\left(\bigcap_{\substack{a < b \\ a, b \in \mathbb{Q}}} \beta_{ab} < \infty\right) = 1$$

Let  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Y_n = Y_\infty$ . If  $p < n$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\inf_{m \geq n} Y_m | \mathcal{F}_p\right) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y_n | \mathcal{F}_p) \leq Y_p.$$

Furthermore,  $\inf_{m \geq n} Y_m \uparrow Y_\infty$  so by the monotone convergence theorem, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_\infty | \mathcal{F}_p) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}\left(\inf_{m \geq n} Y_m | \mathcal{F}_p\right) \leq Y_p.$$

□

**Theorem 12.2.** *Let  $Z$  be a positive random variable with  $\mathbb{E}Z^p < \infty$ ,  $p \geq 1$ . Then*

$$Y_n = \mathbb{E}(Z_n | \mathcal{F}_n) \xrightarrow{a.s.}, \xrightarrow{L^p} \mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{F}_\infty),$$

*Note that almost sure convergence does not, in general, imply  $L^p$  convergence, although they both imply convergence in probability.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $Z \leq a$  almost surely. Then there exists  $Y_\infty$  such that  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y_\infty$  (as  $Y_n$  are positive martingales). Fix  $n$  and let  $B \in \mathcal{F}_n$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_B Y_{m+n} dP = \int_B Z dP$$

by definition of conditional expectation. Now  $0 \leq Y_n \leq a$  so by the dominated convergence theorem,

$$\int_B Y_\infty dP = \int_B Z dP$$

and hence

$$Y_\infty = \mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{F}_\infty)$$

and so the random variable  $Y_\infty$  can be identified as the conditional expectation.

Since  $|Y_n| \leq a$ , the  $\{Y_n^p\}$  are uniformly integrable, and so  $Y_n \xrightarrow{L^p} Y_\infty$ . This follows from noting that  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y_\infty$ , and using that if  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  and  $\{|X_n|^p\}$  is uniformly integrable then  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$ .

Now remove the assumption that  $Z \leq a$ . Taking the  $L^p$  norm of the conditional expectations gives

$$\|E(Z | \mathcal{F}_n) - \mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{F}_\infty)\|_p \leq \|E(Z \wedge a | \mathcal{F}_n) - \mathbb{E}(Z \wedge a | \mathcal{F}_\infty)\|_p + 2\|(Z - a)^+\|_p.$$

Now we know that  $\|(Z - a)^+\|_p \rightarrow 0$  as  $a \rightarrow \infty$ , as  $\mathbb{E}(Z^p) < \infty$ . Hence we have

$$Y_n \xrightarrow{L^p} \mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{F}_\infty).$$

By uniqueness of limits, we obtain our required result.  $\square$

**Corollary 12.3.** *If  $Z \in L^p$  and  $Y_n = \mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{F}_n)$  then  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.}, \xrightarrow{L^p} \mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{F}_\infty)$*

**Theorem 12.4.** *Martingale convergence theorem*

(a) *If  $\{Y_n\}$  is an integrable submartingale and  $\sup_n \mathbb{E}(Y_n^+) < \infty$  then there exists an integrable  $Y_\infty$  such that*

$$Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y_\infty$$

(b) *If  $\{Y_n\}$  is an integrable martingale satisfying  $\sup_n \mathbb{E}|Y_n| < \infty$  then there exists an integrable  $Y_\infty$  such that*

$$Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y_\infty.$$

*Proof.*

(a)  $\{Y_n^+\}$  is a positive submartingale as

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_{n+1}^+ | \mathcal{F}_n) \geq \mathbb{E}(Y_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) \geq Y_n$$

If  $p > n$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(Y_{p+1}^+ | \mathcal{F}_n) &= \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(Y_{p+1}^+ | \mathcal{F}_p) | \mathcal{F}_n) \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}(Y_p^+ | \mathcal{F}_n). \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $M_n = \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(Y_p^+ | \mathcal{F}_n)$  as we have a monotone sequence.

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(M_n) &= \mathbb{E}\left(\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(Y_p^+ | \mathcal{F}_n)\right) \\ &= \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(Y_p^+ | \mathcal{F}_n)) \quad \text{MCT} \\ &= \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(Y_p^+) < \infty\end{aligned}$$

so  $M_n$  is positive and integrable.  $M_n$  is a martingale as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(M_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) &= \mathbb{E}\left(\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(Y_p^+ | \mathcal{F}_{n+1}) | \mathcal{F}_n\right) \\ &= \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(Y_p^+ | \mathcal{F}_n) \quad \text{MCT} \\ &= M_n.\end{aligned}$$

Let  $Z_n = M_n - Y_n$ . Then  $Z_n$  is integrable as  $M, Y_n$  are, and  $Z_n$  is a positive supermartingale, as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(Z_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) &= \mathbb{E}(M_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) - \mathbb{E}(Y_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) \\ &\leq M_n - Y_n \quad \text{as } Y_n \text{ is submartingale} \\ &= Z_n\end{aligned}$$

and so  $Z_n$  is a positive supermartingale. Note that  $M_n \geq Y_n^+$  and so

$$M_n - Y_n = M_n - (Y_n^+ - Y_n^-) \geq Y_n^+ - (Y_n^+ - Y_n^-) = Y_n^-$$

Thus  $Z_n$  and  $M_n$  converge almost surely to  $Z_\infty$  and  $M_\infty$  respectively, and so

$$Y_n = M_n - Z_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} M_\infty - Z_\infty = Y_\infty \in L^1.$$

(b) Note that  $|Y_n| = 2Y_n^+ - Y_n$ , and if  $\{Y_n\}$  is a martingale, then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}|Y_n| &= 2\mathbb{E}Y_n^+ - \mathbb{E}Y_n \\ &= 2\mathbb{E}Y_n^+ - \mathbb{E}Y_0\end{aligned}$$

and so  $\sup \mathbb{E}Y_n^+ < \infty$  if and only if  $\sup_n \mathbb{E}|Y_n| < \infty$ .

□

**Theorem 12.5** (Martingale convergence theorem (restated)). *Let  $\{Y_n\}$  be an integrable (sub/super) martingale, that is,  $\sup_n \mathbb{E}|Y_n| < \infty$ . Then there exists an almost sure limit*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Y_t = Y_\infty$$

*and  $Y_\infty$  is an integrable random variable.*

## 13. LECTURE 13, 14 - THURSDAY 14 APRIL

**Definition 13.1** (Reverse martingale).  $\{Y_n, \mathcal{G}_n\}$  is a reverse martingale if  $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$  is a decreasing sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields,

$$\mathcal{G}_n \supseteq \mathcal{G}_{n+1}$$

$Y_n$  is  $\mathcal{G}_n$ -measurable,  $\mathbb{E}(|Y_n|) < \infty$ , and

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_n | \mathcal{G}_n) = Y_m \text{ a.s for } m \geq n$$

**Proposition 13.2.** *We have*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(|Y_n|) &= \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(|Y_n| | \mathcal{G}_{n+1})) \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}(|\mathbb{E}(Y_n | \mathcal{G}_{n+1})|) \\ &= \mathbb{E}(|Y_{n+1}|) \end{aligned}$$

and so  $\mathbb{E}(|Y_n|) \leq \mathbb{E}(|Y_0|)$  for all  $n$ , and

$$Y_n = \mathbb{E}(Y_0 | \mathcal{G}_n).$$

**Theorem 13.3.** *If  $\{Y_n\}$  is a reverse martingale with respect to  $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$ , then there exists a random variable  $Y_\infty$  such that*

$$Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y_\infty, Y_n \xrightarrow{L^1} Y_\infty = \mathbb{E}(Y_0 | \mathcal{G}_\infty)$$

where  $\mathcal{G}_\infty = \bigcap \mathcal{G}_n$ .

*Proof.* We have  $Y_n = \mathbb{E}(Y_0 | \mathcal{G}_n)$  and so  $\{Y_n\}$  is uniformly integrable. Hence if  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y_\infty$  it also converges in  $L^1$ . Let

$$Z_n = \mathbb{E}(Y_0^+ | \mathcal{G}_n) - Y_n.$$

Note that  $Z_n \geq 0$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(Z_n | \mathcal{G}_{n+1}) = Z_{n+1}$$

and so we only need to consider convergence for positive reverse martingales.

Let  $\beta_{a,b}^{(n)}$  be the number of upcrossings of  $[a, b]$  by  $\{Y_0, Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$ . Applying Dubin's inequality to the martingale

$$\{Y_n, Y_{n+1}, \dots, Y_1, Y_0\}$$

Then

$$P(\beta_{a,b}^{(n)} \geq k | \mathcal{G}_n) \leq \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^k$$

which is independent of  $n$ , and thus

$$P(\beta_{a,b}^{(n)} \geq k | \mathcal{G}_\infty) \leq \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^k$$

for all  $n$ , and so

$$P(\beta_{a,b} \geq k | \mathcal{G}_\infty) \leq \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^k.$$

where  $\beta_{a,b}$  is the number of upcrossings for  $\{Y_n\}$ , which implies

$$\beta_{a,b} < \infty \text{ a.s.}$$

Arguing as in the positive supermartingale case, we have  $\{Y_n\}$  converges almost surely, and we have  $Y_\infty = \limsup Y_n$  is  $\mathcal{G}_n$  measurable for all  $n$  and so is  $\mathcal{G}_\infty$  measurable.  $\square$

**Theorem 13.4** (Strong law of large numbers). *Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be IID with  $\mathbb{E}(|X_1|) < \infty$ . Let  $\mathbb{E}(X_1) = \mu$ . Let  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then*

$$\frac{1}{n} S_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mu.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{G}_n = \sigma\{S_n, S_{n+1}, S_{n+2}, \dots\} = \sigma\{S_n, X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots\}$ . We then have  $\mathcal{G}_n \supseteq \mathcal{G}_{n+1}$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} S_n &= \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{n} S_n \mid \mathcal{G}_n\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_i \mid \mathcal{G}_n) \\ &= \mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}_n), \end{aligned}$$

as

$$\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}_n) = \mathbb{E}(X_2 \mid \mathcal{G}_n) = \dots \mathbb{E}(X_n \mid \mathcal{G}_n)$$

by IID/symmetry.

Thus  $\frac{1}{n} S_n$  is a reverse martingale with respect to  $\{\mathcal{G}_n\}$ . From above, we have have

$$\frac{1}{n} S_n = \bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}}, \xrightarrow{L^1} \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}_\infty).$$

We have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  is in the tail  $\sigma$ -field of the sequence of  $\{X_n\}$  and  $X_i$  are IID and so the limiting random variable is degenerate.

Consider  $\bar{X}_\infty = \mathbb{E}(X \mid \mathcal{G}_\infty)$ . By the Kolmogorov 0-1 law, we have

$$P(\{\bar{X}_\infty \leq a\}) = 0 \text{ or } 1.$$

Thus  $\bar{X}_\infty$  is a constant with probability one. Since

$$\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}_n) \xrightarrow{L^1} \mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}_\infty)$$

we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{n} S_n\right) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X_1 \mid \mathcal{G}_\infty)) = \mathbb{E}(X_1) = \mu.$$

Thus  $\bar{X}_\infty = \mu$  almost surely, that is,

$$\frac{1}{n} S_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}}, \xrightarrow{L^1} \mu.$$

$\square$

### 13.1. Characteristic functions. Following Fallow Volume 2.

**Definition 13.5** (Characteristic function). Let  $X$  be a random variable. Then the characteristic function is defined by

$$\varphi(t) = \mathbb{E}(e^{itX}).$$

$\varphi(t)$  is always defined (unlike moment generating function (MGF), probability generating function (PGF)).

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi(t)$  be the characteristic function of the random variable  $X$ . Then

- (i)  $|\varphi(t)| \leq \mathbb{E}(|e^{itX}|) = 1 = \varphi(0)$ .
- (ii)  $\varphi(-t) = \mathbb{E}(e^{-itX}) = \overline{\varphi(t)}$ .
- (iii) If  $X$  is symmetric about 0 then  $\varphi(t)$  is real.
- (iv)  $\varphi(t)$  is uniformly continuous in  $t$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} |\varphi(t+h) - \varphi(t)| &= \left| \int e^{i(t+h)X} - e^{itX} dF(x) \right| \\ &= \left| \int e^{itX} (e^{ihX} - 1) dF(x) \right| \\ &\leq \int |e^{ihX} - 1| dF(x) \\ &= \int \sqrt{\cos^2(xh) - 1 + \sin^2(xh)} dF(x) \\ &= \int \sqrt{2 - 2\cos hx} dF(x) \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as  $h \rightarrow 0$  by the dominated convergence theorem.  $\square$

- (v) If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables with characteristic functions  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  respectively, then  $X + Y$  has characteristic function

$$\chi(t) = \varphi(t) \cdot \psi(t)$$

- (vi) If  $X$  has a characteristic function  $\varphi$  then  $aX + b$  has a characteristic function  $e^{itb}\varphi(at)$ .
- (vii) If  $\varphi$  is a characteristic function then so is  $|\varphi|^2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $X$  and  $Y$  have the same distribution, with  $X$  independent of  $Y$ . Then  $Z = X - Y$  has a characteristic function  $\varphi(t)\varphi(-t) = |\varphi(t)|^2$ .  $\square$

- (viii) Let  $X$  have a MGF  $M(t)$ . Then  $\varphi(t) = M(it)$ .

$\square$

**Example 13.6.** (i) Let  $X \sim N(0, 1)$ . Then

$$\varphi(t) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}t^2}.$$

(ii) Let  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then

$$\varphi(t) = e^{it\mu - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}.$$

as  $Y = \mu + \sigma Z$  with  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

(iii) Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  Then

$$\varphi(t) = e^{\lambda(e^{it} - 1)}.$$

(iv) Let  $P(X = 1) = \frac{1}{2} = P(X = -1)$ . Then

$$\varphi(t) = \frac{1}{2} (e^{it} + e^{-it}) = \cos t.$$

(v) Let  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(t) &= \int_0^\infty e^{itx} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \lambda e^{-x(\lambda - it)} dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - it} \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 13.7** (Parseval's relation). *Let  $F$  and  $G$  be distribution functions with associate characteristic functions  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$ . Then*

$$\int e^{-izt} \varphi(z) dG(z) = \int \psi(x - t) dF(x)$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \int e^{-izt} \varphi(z) dG(z) &= \int e^{-izt} \left( \int e^{izt} dF(x) \right) dG(z) \\ &= \int \int e^{iz(x-t)} dF(x) dG(z) \\ &= \int \left( \int e^{iz(x-t)} dG(z) \right) dF(x) \quad \text{by Fubini's theorem} \\ &= \int \psi(x - t) dF(x) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Corollary 13.8.** *If  $G$  is the distribution function of a  $N(0, \frac{1}{\sigma^2})$  random variable. Then  $\psi(t) = e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}t^2}$ , and so the above relationship becomes*

$$\int e^{izt} \varphi(z) \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2\sigma^2} dz = \int e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-t)^2} dF(x).$$



Rearranging, we obtain

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int e^{-izt} \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2\sigma^2} dz = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-t)^2} dF(x)$$

Then the right hand side is the density of the convolution of  $F$  and a  $N(t, \sigma^2)$  distribution. Call the convolution distribution  $F_\sigma$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} F_\sigma(\beta) - F_\sigma(\alpha) &= \int_\alpha^\beta \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int e^{-izt} \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2\sigma^2} dz \right) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2\sigma^2} \frac{e^{-iz\beta} - e^{-iz\alpha}}{-iz} dz \end{aligned}$$

If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are continuity points of  $F$ , then

$$F(\beta) - F(\alpha) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2\sigma^2} \frac{e^{-iz\beta} - e^{-iz\alpha}}{-iz} dz \quad (\star)$$

for as  $\sigma \rightarrow 0$ ,  $F_\sigma \rightarrow F$ .

Since a function has only countably many points of discontinuity, we can then derive the following theorem.

**Theorem 13.9.** Let  $X$  be a random variable with distribution function  $F$  and characteristic function  $\varphi$ . Assume

$$\int |\varphi(t)| dt < \infty.$$

Then  $F$  has a bounded, continuous density  $f$  given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int e^{-itx} \varphi(t) dt$$

*Proof.* From  $(\star)$  apply DCT. Then

$$\begin{aligned} F(\beta) - F(\alpha) &= F(\beta) - F(\alpha) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \int_\alpha^\beta \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2\sigma^2} dz \right) dt \\ &= \int_\alpha^\beta \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int e^{-izt} \varphi(z) dz \right) dt \end{aligned}$$

□

**Corollary 13.10.** If  $\varphi(t)$  is non-negative and integrable continuous function associated with a distribution function  $F$ . Then  $\frac{\varphi(t)}{2\pi F'(0)}$  is a density function with characteristic function  $\frac{F'(x)}{F'(0)}$ .

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int e^{-izx} \varphi(z) dz \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \cos(xz) \varphi(z) dz \quad \text{as } \varphi(z) \text{ is real} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} F'(0) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \varphi(z) dz \\ 1 &= \frac{1}{2F'(0)\pi} \int \varphi(z) dz \end{aligned}$$

and thus

$$\frac{F'(x)}{F'(0)} = \int \cos(xz) \frac{\varphi(z)}{2\varphi F'(0)} dz$$

□

14. LECTURE 14 - THURSDAY 14 APRIL

15. LECTURE 15 - THURSDAY 21 APRIL

**Example 15.1.**  $X$  has density  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-|x|}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(t) &= \frac{1}{2} \int e^{itx} e^{-|x|} dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \cos tx e^{-x} dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{2} (e^{itx} + e^{-itx}) e^{-x} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty e^{-x(1-it)} + e^{-x(1+it)} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{-1}{1-it} e^{-x(1+it)} + \frac{-1}{1+it} e^{-x(1-it)} \right]_0^\infty \\ &= \frac{1}{1+t^2} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\varphi(t) = \frac{1}{1+t^2}$  which is a non-negative, integrable characteristic function. Thus,

$$\frac{\varphi(t)}{2\pi f(0)} = \frac{1}{\pi(1+t^2)}$$

which is the Cauchy distribution. We then know that the characteristic function of the Cauchy distribution is

$$\gamma(t) = \frac{F'(x)}{F'(0)} = \frac{f(x)}{f(0)} = e^{-|t|}$$

from Corollary 13.10.

**Theorem 15.2** (Moment theorem). *Let  $F$  be the distribution function of  $X$ . Assume  $X$  has finite moments up to order  $n$ , i.e.  $\mathbb{E}(|X|^n) < \infty$ . Then the characteristic function  $\varphi(t)$  has uniformly continuous derivatives up to order  $n$ , and*

$$\varphi^{(k)}(t) = i^k \mathbb{E}(|X|^k), k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

and

$$\varphi(t) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X^k) \frac{(it)^k}{k!} + o(t^n)$$

as  $t \rightarrow 0$ .

Conversely, if  $\varphi$  can be written as

$$\varphi(t) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \frac{(it)^k}{k!} + o(t^n)$$

as  $t \rightarrow 0$ , then the associated density function has finite moments up to order  $n$  if  $n$  is even, and up to order  $n-1$  if  $n$  is odd, with  $a_k = \mathbb{E}(|X|^k)$ .

*Proof.*

**Lemma 15.3.** For any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\left| e^{it} - 1 - it \cdots - \frac{(it)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \right| \leq \frac{|t|^n}{n!}.$$

*Proof.* Taylor's Theorem. □

Suppose  $\mathbb{E}(|X|^k) < \infty$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Then

$$|x^k e^{itx}| \leq |x|^k$$

, so

$$\int x^k e^{itx} dF(x)$$

exists. Now

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\varphi(t+h) - \varphi(t)}{h} &= \left| \int \frac{e^{i(t+h)x} - e^{itx}}{h} dF(x) \right| \\ &= \left| \int e^{itx} \cdot \frac{e^{ihx} - 1}{h} dF(x) \right| \\ &\leq \int |x| dF(x) < \infty \end{aligned}$$

from Lemma 15.3.

So by DCT,

$$\varphi'(t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(t+h) - \varphi(t)}{h} = i \int x e^{itx} dF(x)$$

and thus

$$\varphi'(0) = i\mathbb{E}(X).$$

Using induction, we obtain

$$\varphi^{(k)}(t) = i^k \int x^k e^{itx} dF(x)$$

and  $\varphi^{(k)}(0) = i^k \mathbb{E}(X^k)$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Arguing as in the proof of characteristic functions uniform continuity.

Expanding  $\varphi(t)$  about  $t = 0$  in a Taylor series, we have

$$\varphi(t) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \varphi^{(k)}(0) \frac{t^k}{k!} + R_n(t), t > 0.$$

with

$$R_n(t) = \frac{t^n}{n!} \left[ \varphi^{(n)}(\theta t) - \varphi^{(n)}(0) \right], 0 < \theta < 1.$$

We then have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{R_n(t)}{t^n} \right| &\leq \frac{1}{n!} \int |x|^n |e^{i\theta tx} - 1| dF(x) \\ &\leq \frac{2}{n!} \int |x|^n dF(x). \end{aligned}$$

and so by the DCT,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left| \frac{R_n(t)}{t^n} \right| = 0,$$

and thus  $R_n(t) = o(t^n)$ .

Conversely, suppose  $\varphi$  has an expansion up to order  $2k$ . Then  $\varphi$  has a finite derivative of order  $2k$  at  $t = 0$  Then

$$\begin{aligned} -\varphi^{(2)}(0) &= -\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(h) - 2\varphi(0) - \varphi(-h)}{h^2} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2 \int \frac{1 - \cos hx}{x^2} dF(x) \\ &\geq 2 \int \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos hx}{h^2} dF(x) \text{ by Fatau} \\ &= \int x^2 dF(x) = E(X^2) \end{aligned}$$

and so  $\varphi^{(2)}(0) < \infty \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X^2) < \infty$ .

Using induction, assume finite  $2(k-1)^{\text{th}}$  derivative at 0  $\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X^{2(k-1)}) < \infty$ . Then from the first part,

$$\varphi^{(2(k-2))}(t) = (-1)^{k-1} \int x^{2k-2} e^{itx} dF(x)$$

Suppose  $\varphi^{2k}(0) < \infty$ . Then let

$$G(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x y^{2k-2} dF(y).$$

so  $\frac{G(x)}{G(\infty)}$  is a distribution function with characteristic function

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(t) &= \frac{1}{G(\infty)} \int e^{itx} x^{2k-2} dF(x) \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{k-1} \varphi^{(2k-2)}(t)}{G(\infty)}\end{aligned}$$

As  $\varphi^{(2k-2)}(t)$  is twice differentiable at  $t = 0$ . So

$$\psi^{(2)}(0) \geq \int y^2 y^{2k-2} \frac{dF(y)}{G(\infty)}$$

and thus  $\mathbb{E}(X^{2k}) < \infty$ . as required.  $\square$

## 16. LECTURE 16 THURSDAY 21 APRIL

**Corollary 16.1.** *Let  $\varphi$  be a characteristic function associated with a random variable  $X$ . Then  $\varphi$  has continuous derivatives of all orders if and only if  $X$  has finite moments of all orders.*

**Corollary 16.2.** *The function  $\varphi(t) = e^{-|t|^\alpha}$  is not a characteristic function if  $\alpha > 2$ . Note that  $\alpha = 1$  was the Cauchy distribution,  $\alpha = 2$  is the Normal distribution.*

*Proof.* If  $\alpha > 2$  then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \varphi^{(2)}(t) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X^2) = 0$$

which implies  $X$  is degenerate. But if  $X$  is degenerate at  $b$ , then

$$\varphi(t) = e^{itb} \neq e^{-|t|^\alpha}$$

Thus by uniqueness of characteristic functions,  $e^{-|t|^\alpha}$  is not a characteristic function.  $\square$

### 16.1. Lattice distributions.

**Theorem 16.3** (Lattice distributions). *Let  $X$  be a random variable with distribution function  $F$ , characteristic function  $\varphi$ . If  $c \neq 0$  then the following are equivalent.*

- (i)  $X$  has a lattice distribution whose range is contained in  $0, \pm b, \pm 2b, \dots$ ,  $b = \frac{2\pi}{c}$ .
- (ii)  $\varphi(t + nc) = \varphi(t)$  for  $n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ , that is,  $\varphi$  is periodic with period  $c$ .
- (iii)  $\varphi(c) = 1$ .

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2).

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(t) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} P(X = kb) e^{itkb} \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} P(X = kb) e^{2\pi itk/c}\end{aligned}$$

which implies

$$\varphi(t + nc) = \varphi(t)$$

as  $e^{2\pi i n c k / c} = 1$ .

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3). Simply set  $t = 0, n = 1$ . Then  $\varphi(0) = \varphi(c) = 1$ .

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1).

$$1 - \mathbb{E}(\cos cX) = 0$$

$$\mathbb{E}(1 - \cos cX) = 0$$

but as  $1 - \cos cX \geq 0$ ,  $X$  must have probability components on points where  $\cos cX = 1$ , that is,  $cX$  takes on the values  $0, \pm\pi, \pm2\pi, \dots$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 16.4.**  $X$  is degenerate if and only if  $|\varphi(t)| = 1$  for all  $t$ .

*Proof.* If  $P(X = b) = 1$ , then  $\varphi(t) = e^{itb}$ , and so  $|\varphi(t)| = 1$  for all  $t$ .

If  $|\varphi(c)| = 1$  for  $c \neq 0$ , then  $\varphi(c) = e^{i\theta}$  for some  $\theta$ . Let  $\varphi_1(t) = \varphi(t)e^{-i\theta t/c}$  is characteristic function of  $X - \frac{\theta}{c}$ . Then  $\varphi_1(c) = 1$ , thus  $X - \frac{\theta}{c}$  is a lattice taking values in  $0, \pm\frac{2\pi}{c}, \pm\frac{4\pi}{c}, \dots$ .

Now, pick some  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $\frac{b}{c}$  irrational. Then  $|\varphi(b)| = 1$ , and then  $X - a_2$  is a lattice taking values in  $0, \pm\frac{2\pi}{b}, \pm\frac{4\pi}{b}, \dots$ . Then

- (i)  $|\varphi(t)| < 1$  for  $t \neq 0$  (e.g. Normal,  $e^{-\frac{1}{2}t^2}$ ).
- (ii)  $|\varphi(\lambda)| = 1$  and  $|\varphi(t)| < 1$  on  $0 < t < \lambda$  (e.g. discrete  $\pm 1, \cos t$ ).
- (iii)  $|\varphi(t)| = 1 \forall t$ , degenerate distributions.

$\square$

**Example 16.5.** We can construct 3 nontrivial distribution functions  $\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_3$  such that

- (i)  $\varphi_1(t) = \varphi_2(t), \forall t \in [-1, 1]$ .
- (ii)  $|\varphi(t)| = |\varphi_3(t)|, \forall t$ .

Consider  $g(x) = 1 - |x|, x \in [-1, 1]$ . This has characteristic function  $\varphi(t) = \frac{2(1 - \cos t)}{t^2}$ . But the characteristic function is positive and integrable, and so

$$\varphi_1(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - |t| & |t| \leq 1 \\ 0 & |t| > 1 \end{cases}$$

is the characteristic function of the density

$$f(x) = \frac{1 - \cos x}{\pi x^2}.$$

We can express  $\varphi_1(t)$  as the trigonometric series,

$$\varphi_1(t) = 1 - |t| = \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \cos(k\pi t)$$

with

$$a_k = 2 \int_0^1 (1-t) \cos(k\pi t) dt = \begin{cases} \frac{4}{k\pi^2} & k \text{ odd} \\ 0 & k \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

We can thus write

$$\varphi_1(t) = \frac{1}{1} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{4}{(2k-1)^2 \pi^2} \cos(2k-1)\pi t.$$

Let  $V$  be a random variable, with

$$P(V=0) = \frac{1}{2}, P(V=\nu) = \frac{2}{\nu^2}, \nu = \pm\pi, \pm3\pi, \pm5\pi, \dots$$

Then  $V$  is a lattice distribution, with characteristic function

$$\varphi_2(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{4}{\pi^2} \left( \cos \pi t + \frac{\cos 3\pi t}{9} + \frac{\cos 5\pi t}{25} + \dots \right)$$

and thus  $\varphi_1(t) = \varphi_2(t)$  on  $[-1, 1]$ , but have different density functions.

Finally, let  $U$  be a lattice random variable with distribution

$$P(U = \pm \frac{(2k+1)\pi}{2}) = \frac{4}{\pi^2(2k+1)^2}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then  $U$  has a characteristic function  $\varphi_3(t) = 2 [\varphi_2(\frac{t}{2}) - \frac{1}{2}]$ . Thus

$$|\varphi_3(t)| = |\varphi_2(t)| \quad \forall t.$$

## 17. LECTURE 17 - THURSDAY 5 MAY

### 17.1. Sequences of characteristic functions.

**Lemma 17.1** (Helly selection theorem). *Given a sequence of distribution functions  $\{F_n\}$  then there exists a sequence  $\{n_k\}$  and a non decreasing right continuous function  $F$  such that*

$$F_{n_k}(x) \rightarrow F(x)$$

*at all continuity points  $x$  of  $F$ .*

*Proof.* First order the rationals to get a sequence  $\{r_k\}$ . From  $\{F_n(r_1)\}$  we choose a subsequence  $\{F_{n_{1k}}(r_1)\}$  which converges.

Now from the sequence  $\{n_{1k}\}$  choose a subsequence  $\{n_{2k}\}$  such that  $\{F_{n_{2k}}(r_2)\}$  converges, etc.

Now let  $n_k = n_{kk}$ . Then for each rational number  $r$ , the limit  $F_{n_k}(r)$  exists as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Define  $L(R) = \lim F_{n_k}(r), r \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then  $L(r)$  is non-decreasing and takes values in  $[0, 1]$ . Let  $F(x) = \inf_{r \leq x} L(r)$ . Then  $F$  is non-decreasing, and right continuous, and  $F_{n_k}(x) \rightarrow F(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  and at all points of continuity of  $F$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 17.2** (Extended Helly-Bragg theorem). *If a sequence of distribution functions  $\{F_n\}$  converges to a function  $F$  at all continuity points of  $F$  and  $g$  is a **bounded, continuous, real valued***

**function** then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} g dF_n \rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{R}} g dF$$

*Proof.* Let  $M = \sup_x |g(x)|$ , and let  $a, b$  be continuity points of  $F$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} g dF_n - \int_{\mathbb{R}} g dF \right| &\leq \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} g dF_n - \int_a^b g dF_n \right| + \left| \int_a^b g dF_n - \int_a^b g dF \right| + \left| \int_a^b g dF - \int_{\mathbb{R}} g dF \right| \\ &\leq M[F_n(a) - F_n(-\infty) + F_n(\infty) - F_n(b)] + \left| \int_a^b g dF_n - \int_a^b g dF \right| \\ &\quad + M[F(a) - F(-\infty) + F(\infty) - F(b)] \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$F_n(a) \rightarrow F(a), F_n(b) \rightarrow F(b)$$

as  $a, b$  are continuity points, we can choose  $a, b$  large enough to make the 3rd term small ( $< \frac{\epsilon}{3}$  for arbitrary  $\epsilon > 0$ ), and then  $N$  large enough to make the first term small.

Now we deal with the middle term. Let  $a = x_{0N} < x_{1N} < \cdots < x_{\nu_N, N} = b$  be a sequence of subdivisions of  $[a, b]$ , such that  $\Delta_n \rightarrow 0$  (partition width) as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Then

$$g_N(x) = \sum_{\nu=1}^{\nu_N} g(x_{\nu}, N) \mathbf{1}_{\{x_{\nu-1, N} \leq x \leq x_{\nu, N}\}}$$

Then  $\sup_{x \in [a, b]} |g_N(x) - g(x)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$  (as  $g$  is bounded and continuous.) Then by DCT we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b g dF_n &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b g_N dF_n \\ \int_a^b g dF &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b g_N dF \end{aligned}$$

Next, we will show

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b g_N dF_n = \int_a^b g_N dF$$

Let  $x_{\nu, N}$  be continuity points of  $F$  so

$$F_n(x_{\nu, N}) - F_n(x_{\nu-1, N}) \rightarrow F(x_{\nu, N}) - F(x_{\nu-1, N}).$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^B g_N(x) dF_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{\nu=1}^{\nu_N} g(x_{\nu, N}) (F_n(x_{\nu, N}) - F_n(x_{\nu-1, N})) \\ &= \int_a^b g_N(x) dF(x) \end{aligned}$$



If  $M_N = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |g_N(x) - g(x)|$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b g dF_N - \int_a^b g dF \right| &\leq \int_a^b |g - g_n| dF_n + \left| \int_a^b g_n dF_n - \int_a^b g_n dF \right| + \int_a^b |g - g_N| dF \\ &\leq M_N[F_n(b) - F_n(a)] + \left| \int_a^b g_N dF_n - \int_a^b g_N dF \right| + M_N[F(b) - F(a)] \end{aligned}$$

Since  $M_N \rightarrow 0$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . Then choosing  $N$  large enough to make  $M_N$  small enough, for a large  $N$  fixed,  $N_2$  say, we have

$$\left| \int_a^b g_{N_2} dF_n - \int_a^b g_{N_2} dF \right| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{9}$$

The result then follows.  $\square$

**Lemma 17.3.** *Let  $\{F_n\}$  be a sequence of distribution functions with associated characteristic function  $\{\varphi_n\}$ . Assume  $\varphi_n(t) \rightarrow \varphi(t)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then there exists a non-decreasing right continuous function  $F$  such that  $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$  at all continuity points  $x$  of  $F$ .*

*Proof.* From Lemma 17.1 there exists a subsequence  $\{n_k\}$  and a non-decreasing continuous function  $F$  such that  $F_{n_k}(x) \rightarrow F(x)$  at all continuity points of  $F$ . Using Parseval's relation on  $\{F_{n_k}, \varphi_{n_k}\}$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-izt} \varphi_{n_k}(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 z^2} dz = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-t}{\sigma}\right)^2} dF_{n_k}(x)$$

Let  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Then the LHS becomes

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-izt} \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 z^2} dz$$

by the dominated convergence theorem.

The RHS becomes

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-t}{\sigma}\right)^2} dF(x)$$

by an application of Lemma 17.2. Thus  $\varphi$  determines  $F$  uniquely (as before), so the limit  $F$  must be the same for all convergent subsequences.  $\square$

**Theorem 17.4** (Continuity theorem). *Let  $\{F_n\}$  be a sequence of distribution functions converging to a distribution function  $F$  at all continuity points  $x$  of  $F$ . This happens if and only if  $\varphi_n(t) \rightarrow \varphi$  pointwise and  $\varphi$  is continuous in the neighbourhood of the origin. If this is the case then  $\varphi$  is the characteristic function associated with  $F$ , and is continuous everywhere.*

*Proof.* If  $\{F_n\}$  converges to  $F$ , use Lemma 17.2, with  $g(x) = \cos(xt) + \sin(xt)$ .  $\square$

## 18. LECTURE 18 - THURSDAY 12 MAY

**Theorem 18.1.** Assume  $F_n \rightarrow F$  at continuity points of  $F$ , and associated characteristic function  $\varphi_n \rightarrow \varphi$  pointwise. If  $\varphi_n \rightarrow \varphi$  and  $\varphi$  is continuous in a neighbourhood of 0, then  $F_n \rightarrow F$  and  $F$  is distribution function associated with  $\varphi$ .

*Proof.* From previous lemma, there exists a non-decreasing, right continuous non-negative function  $F$  such that  $F_n \rightarrow F$ . We need to show  $F$  is a distribution function, that is  $F(+\infty) - F(-\infty) \geq 1$ . By Parseval's relation, we have

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-izt} \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 z^2} dz = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-t}{\sigma})^2} dF(x) \leq F(+\infty) - F(-\infty)$$

The left hand side is equal to

$$\mathbb{E}(e^{-iN_\sigma t} \varphi(N_\sigma))$$

where  $N_\sigma \sim N(0, \frac{1}{\sigma^2})$ . Since

$$|e^{-izt} \varphi(t)| \leq 1$$

Assume  $\varphi$  is continuous on  $|t| < A$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(e^{-iN_\sigma t} \varphi(N_\sigma)) &= \mathbb{E}(e^{-iN_\sigma t} \varphi(N_\sigma) | |N_\sigma| \geq A) \cdot P(|N_\sigma| \geq A) \\ &\quad + \mathbb{E}(e^{-iN_\sigma t} \varphi(N_\sigma) | |N_\sigma| < A) P(|N_\sigma| < A). \end{aligned}$$

The first term tends to zero as  $\sigma \rightarrow \infty$ , as  $P(|N_\sigma| \geq A) \rightarrow 0$  on  $|N_\sigma| < A$ . Then the distribution function tends to

$$G(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0 \\ 1 & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

as  $\sigma \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$\lim_{\sigma \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-izt} \varphi(z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 z^2} dz = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-izt} \varphi(z) dG(z) = 1$$

by the extended Helly-Bragg theorem. □

**Corollary 18.2.** If  $X_n$  has distribution function  $F_n$  and characteristic function  $\varphi_n$ , and  $X$  has distribution function  $F$  and characteristic function  $\varphi$ . Then the following are equivalent.

- i)  $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$  at all continuity points  $x$  of  $F$ .
- ii)  $\varphi_n(t) \rightarrow \varphi(t)$  for all  $t$ ,
- iii)  $\mathbb{E}(g(X_n)) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(X))$  for all real, bounded, continuous functions  $g$ .

In these cases we write  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  ( $X_n$  converges in distribution to  $X$ )

**Corollary 18.3.** Suppose  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ . If  $h$  is any continuous real valued function, then  $h(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} h(X)$ .

*Proof.*  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  if and only if  $\mathbb{E}(g(X_n)) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(X))$ . Then  $g(h(x))$  is real, bounded, and continuous. Then

$$\mathbb{E}(g(h(X_n))) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(g(h(X))) \Rightarrow h(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} h(x)$$

for all  $g$  real, bounded, continuous.  $\square$

**Theorem 18.4** (Slutsky's theorem). *IF  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} a$ , then*

$$X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + a$$

*Proof.* Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , choose  $x$  such that  $x, x - a \pm \epsilon$  are continuity points of  $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_n + Y_n \leq x) &= P(X_n + Y_n \leq x, |Y_n - a| > \epsilon) + P(X_n + Y_n \leq x, |Y_n - a| \leq \epsilon) \\ &\leq P(|Y_n - a| > \epsilon) + P(X_n \leq x - a + \epsilon) \\ P(X_n \leq x - a - \epsilon) &= P(X_n \leq x - a - \epsilon, |Y_n - a| > \epsilon) + P(X_n \leq x - a - \epsilon, |Y_n - a| \leq \epsilon) \\ &\leq P(|Y_n - a| > \epsilon) + P(X_n + Y_n \leq x) \end{aligned}$$

Taking limits as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$P(X \leq x - a - \epsilon) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n + Y_n \leq x) \leq P(X \leq x - a + \epsilon)$$

Since  $x - a \pm \epsilon$  are continuity points of  $F$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X - n + Y_n \leq x) = P(X \leq x - a). \quad \square$$

### 18.1. Central limit theorem.

*Note* (Notation). Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are independent random variables with characteristic functions  $\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots$  and distribution functions  $F_1, F_2, \dots$ . Let  $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = 0, \text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma_i^2 < \infty, i = 1, 2, \dots$ . Let

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad s_n^2 = \text{Var}(S_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2$$

**Theorem 18.5** (Lindeberg conditions). *Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned} L_n(\epsilon) &= \frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_i^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{|X_i| > \epsilon s_n\}}) \\ &= \frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{|x| > \epsilon s_n} x^2 dF_i(x) \end{aligned}$$

*Then the **Lindeberg condition** is*

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \quad L_n(\epsilon) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

**Example 18.6.** Assume  $\mathbb{E}(|X_i|^3) < \infty$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} L_n(\epsilon) &\leq \frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_i^2 \frac{|X_i|}{\epsilon s_n}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} \frac{1}{s_n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(|X_i|^3) \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 18.7** (Liapounov's condition).

$$\frac{1}{s_n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(|X_i|^3) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

From above, Liapounov's condition implies Lindeberg's condition.

**Theorem 18.8** (Central limit theorem). If for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $L_n(\epsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then

$$\frac{S_n}{s_n} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$$

*Proof.* Preliminaries.

(i) If  $|a_k| \leq 1$  and  $|b_k| \leq 1$  for all  $k$ , then

$$\left| \prod_{i=1}^n a_i - \prod_{i=1}^n b_i \right| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i - b_i|$$

as  $a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 = (a_1 - b_1)a_2 - b_1(a_1 - b_2)$  and use induction.

(ii)  $|e^z - 1 - z| \leq \delta|z|$ ,  $\delta > 0$ , for  $|z|$  sufficiently small.

It is sufficient to prove

$$\varphi_{S_n/s_n}(t) = \prod_{k=1}^n \varphi_k(t/s_n) \rightarrow e^{-\frac{1}{2}t^2} \quad (\ddagger)$$

for all  $t$ .

Now

$$\begin{aligned} |\varphi_k(t/s_n) - 1| &= \left| \int (e^{\frac{itx}{s_n}} - 1 - \frac{itx}{s_n}) dF_k(x) \right| \quad \text{as } \mathbb{E}(X_k) = 0 \\ &\leq \int \frac{t^2}{x^2} 2s_n^2 dF_k(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_k^2}{s_n^2} t^2 \end{aligned} \quad (\star)$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_k^2 &= \mathbb{E}(X_k^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{|X_k| \leq us_n\}}) + \mathbb{E}(X_k^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{|X_k| > us_n\}}) \\ &\leq (us_n)^2 + s_n^2 L_n(u) \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\frac{\sigma_k^2}{s_n^2} \leq u^2 + L_n(u)$$

and since there are no  $k$  on the RHS, we have

$$\max_{k \leq n} \frac{\sigma_k^2}{s_n^2} \leq u^2 + L_n(u)$$

By Lindenberg's condition, we have  $L_n(u) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and as  $u$  was arbitrary, we have

$$\max_{k \leq n} \frac{\sigma_k^2}{s_n^2} \rightarrow 0$$

From Assignment 5, we know

$$\exp(\varphi_k(t) - 1)$$

is a characteristic function. Let  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \exp\left(\sum_{k=1}^n (\varphi_k(t/s_n)) - 1\right) - \prod_{k=1}^n \varphi_k(t/s_n) \right| &\leq \sum_{k=1}^n \left| e^{\varphi_k(t/s_n) - 1} - \varphi_k(t/s_n) \right| \quad \text{by (i)} \\ &\leq \delta \sum_{k=1}^n |\varphi_k(t/s_n) - 1| \quad \text{by (ii)} \\ &\leq \frac{\delta t^2}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\sigma_k^2}{s_n^2} \quad \text{by } (\star) \\ &= \frac{\delta t^2}{2}. \quad \text{if } n \text{ is sufficiently large} \end{aligned}$$

By  $(\dagger)$ , we must show

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (\varphi_k(t/s_n) - 1) + \frac{1}{2} t^2 \rightarrow 0$$

that is,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \int \left( e^{itx/s_n} - 1 - \frac{itx}{s_n} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{t^2 x^2}{s_n^2} \right) dF_k(x) \rightarrow 0 \quad (\dagger)$$

The modulus of the integral in  $(\dagger)$  is bounded by

$$\frac{1}{6} \left| \frac{tx}{s_n} \right|^3 \leq u \frac{|t|^3 x^2}{6s_n^2}$$

if  $|x| \leq us_n$  and

$$\frac{x^2 t^2}{2s_n^2} + \frac{x^2 t^2}{2s_n^2}$$

when  $|x| > us_n$ . Hence the integral of  $(\dagger)$  is bounded above by

$$\frac{u|t|^3}{6} + \frac{t^2}{s_n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{|x| > us_n} x^2 dF_k(x) = \frac{u|t|^3}{6} + L_n(u)t^2$$

as the integral is the Lindeberg's condition.

Given  $t, \epsilon > 0$ , choose  $u$  such that  $\frac{u|t|^3}{6} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ , and  $N_0$  large enough such that  $L_n(u)t^2 < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for  $n > N_0$ . So the left hand side of  $(\dagger)$  is bounded above by  $\epsilon$ , and so the result follows.  $\square$

**Theorem 18.9** (Partial converse of the central limit theorem). *Suppose that  $s_n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\frac{\sigma_n}{s_n} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Then the Lindeberg condition is necessary for*

$$\frac{S_n}{s_n} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).$$

*Proof.* By assumption, given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N_1 > 0$  such that

$$\frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_n} < \frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_k} < \epsilon$$

for  $N_1 \leq k \leq n$  as  $s_n^2 \leq s_k^2 (k \leq n)$ . We also have

$$\frac{\sigma_k}{s_n} < \epsilon, k = 1, 2, \dots, N_1$$

for  $n > N_1$  as  $s_n^2 \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence

$$\max_{1 \leq k \leq n} \frac{\sigma_k}{s_n} \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Assume  $\frac{S_n}{s_n} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$ . If (5) holds then this convergence is equivalent to (1)  $\iff$  (3)  $(\implies)$  (4) as (1)  $\iff$  (3) requiring (5), to ensure

$$\left| \varphi_k\left(\frac{t}{s_n}\right) - 1 \right|$$

can be made uniformly small.

The real part of (4),

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \int \left( \cos\left(\frac{xt}{s_n}\right) - 1 + \frac{x^2 t^2}{2s_n^2} \right) dF_k(x) \geq \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{|x| > us_n} \left( \cos\left(\frac{xt}{s_n}\right) - 1 + \frac{x^2 t^2}{2s_n^2} \right) dF_k(x)$$

For any  $u > 0$ , choose  $t$  such that  $\frac{x^2 t^2}{2s_n^2} - 2 > 0$  if  $|x| > us_n$  (i.e.  $t^2 > \frac{4}{n^2}$ ). Continuing, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\geq \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{|x| > us_n} \left( \frac{x^2 t^2}{2s_n^2} - 2 \right) dF_k(x) \\ &\geq \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{|x| > us_n} \left( \frac{x^2 t^2}{2s_n^2} - 2 \frac{x^2}{u^2 s_n^2} \right) dF_k(x) \\ &= \left( \frac{t^2}{2} - \frac{2}{u^2} \right) \frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{|x| > us_n} x^2 dF_k(x) \\ &= \left( \frac{t^2}{2} - \frac{2}{u^2} \right) L_n(u) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $L_n(u) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , that is, Lindeberg's condition holds.  $\square$

**Corollary 18.10.** *Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  IID with  $\mathbb{E}(X_1) = 0$ ,  $\text{Var}(X_1) = \sigma^2$ . Then*

$$\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$$

Let  $\bar{X}_k = \frac{S_n}{n}$ .

*Proof.* We have  $s_n^2 = n\sigma^2$ . For  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} L_n(\epsilon) &= \frac{1}{n\sigma^2} \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_k^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{|X_k| > \epsilon\sigma\sqrt{n}\}}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbb{E}(X_1^2 \mathbf{1}_{\{|X_1| > \epsilon\sigma\sqrt{n}\}}) \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  as  $\mathbb{E}(X_1^2) < \infty$ . □

## 19. LECTURE 19 - THURSDAY 19 MAY

The central limit theorem is about distribution functions. It is not an automatic consequence that the derivatives (densities) converge.

If  $\frac{S_n}{s_n}$  has density  $f_n(x)$  we need further conditions to ensure  $f_n(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Theorem 19.1.** *If  $X_i$  are IID with characteristic functions  $\varphi(t)$  and  $|\varphi(t)|$  is integrable then*

$$f_n(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}$$

**Example 19.2** (Densities not converging). Let  $X_i$  have density

$$f(x) = \frac{C}{x(\log x)^2}, \quad 0 < x < \frac{1}{2}.$$

Then  $\mathbb{E}(X^2) < \infty$  but  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  has an unbounded density on  $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ .

### 19.1. Stable Laws.

**Definition 19.3** (Stable distribution). A distribution  $F$  is said to be stable if it is not concentrated at one point, and when  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent with distribution function  $F$  and  $a_1, a_2$  are arbitrary constants there exists some  $\alpha > 0, \beta$  such that

$$\frac{\alpha_1 X_1 + \alpha_2 X_2 - \beta}{\alpha}$$

has distribution function  $F$ .

**Example 19.4.** If  $X_1$  has a characteristic function  $\varphi(t)$  then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha X_3 + \beta &= a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 \\ e^{i\beta t} \varphi(\alpha t) &= \varphi(a_1 t) \varphi(a_2 t) \end{aligned}$$

If  $\varphi(t) = e^{-c|t|^\gamma}$ ,  $0 < \gamma \leq 2$ , then

$$\varphi(a_1 t) \varphi(a_2 t) = e^{-c(|a_1|^\gamma + |a_2|^\gamma)|t|^\gamma}.$$

As these distributions are symmetric, we have  $\beta = 0$ , and so setting  $\alpha = (|a_1|^\gamma + |a_2|^\gamma)$ . Thus distributions with characteristic functions of the form  $e^{-c|t|^\gamma}$  are stable. Hence the Cauchy distribution is stable ( $\gamma = 1$ ), and the normal distribution is stable ( $\gamma = 2$ ).

**Theorem 19.5.** *If  $\varphi$  is the characteristic function of a symmetric random variable ( $X \stackrel{d}{=} -X$ ) with a stable distribution then  $\varphi(t) = e^{-c|t|^\gamma}$  for some  $c > 0$ ,  $\gamma \in (0, 2]$ .*

*Recall that a distribution is symmetric if and only if  $\varphi$  is real.*

*Partial.*  $\varphi(t)\varphi(t) = \varphi(\alpha t)$  used to show that  $\varphi(t) \neq 0$ . (Since  $\varphi(0) = 1$  and  $\varphi(t)$  is continuous).

Then build up properties of  $\varphi$ . □

**Theorem 19.6** (Lévy). *Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be independent and identically distributed random variables with distribution functions  $G$ . Let  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Suppose that there exists a sequence of constants  $(a_n, b_n)$  with  $b_n > 0$ , such that*

$$\frac{S_n - a_n}{b_n} \xrightarrow{d} X$$

*where  $X$  is not a constant. Then  $X$  is stable.*

**Definition 19.7** (Domain of attraction). If  $X$  has distribution function  $F$  then we say  $G$  is in the **domain of attraction** of  $F$ .

**Corollary 19.8.** *If  $X$  has finite variance then  $G$  is in the domain of attraction of the normal distribution.*

**Corollary 19.9.** *If  $G$  satisfies  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x(1 - G(x)) = c > 0$  then  $G$  is in the domain of attraction of the Cauchy distribution, that is,*

$$x \mathbb{P}(X > x) \rightarrow c.$$

*A necessary and sufficient condition to be in the domain of attraction for the Cauchy distribution is*

$$1 - G(x) = P(X_1 > x) = \frac{L(x)}{x}$$

*where  $L(x)$  is a **slowly varying function**.  $L(x)$  is a slowly varying function if for all  $C > 0$ ,*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L(Cx)}{L(x)} = 1.$$

*For example,  $L(x) = 1$ ,  $L(x) = \log x$  are slowly varying functions.*

**Theorem 19.10.** *All stable laws are absolutely continuous and the distribution functions have derivatives of all orders.*

**Theorem 19.11.** *The normal distribution is the only stable law with finite variance.*



**Theorem 19.12.** *It can be shown that the canonical form of the characteristic function of a stable law is*

$$\varphi(t) = \exp \left[ i\gamma t - c|t|^\gamma \left\{ 1 + \frac{i\beta t}{|t|} \omega(t, \alpha) \right\} \right]$$

where

$$\gamma \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha \in (0, 2], c > 0, |\beta| \leq 1, \omega(t, \alpha) = \begin{cases} \tan \frac{\pi\alpha}{2} & \alpha \neq 1 \\ \frac{2}{\pi} \log |t| & \alpha = 1 \end{cases}$$

If  $\varphi$  is real, then  $\beta = \gamma = 0$ .

## 20. LECTURE 20 - THURSDAY 19 MAY

**20.1. Infinitely divisible distributions.** Consider a triangular array  $\{X_{nk}\}_{k=1}^n$  where for each  $n$ ,  $X_{n1}, X_{n2}, \dots, X_{nn}$  are independent random variables. We assume that the distribution are identically distributed for each  $n$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} X_{11} & & & & & & \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & & & & & \\ X_{31} & X_{32} & X_{33} & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & & \end{array}$$

**Example 20.1.** Let  $X_{nk} \sim B(1, p_n)$ . Then  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_{nk} \sim B(n, p_n)$ . We know that if  $np_n \rightarrow \lambda$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then

$$S_n \xrightarrow{d} \text{POISSON}(\lambda).$$

Note that the Poisson distribution is not continuous, nor is it stable. Consider  $X_1, X_2$  Poisson distributed, and let  $Y = 2X_1 + 3X_2$ . Then  $Y$  is not in the Poisson family as  $P(Y = 1) = 0$ .

**Definition 20.2** (Infinitely divisible). A distribution function  $F$  is infinitely divisible if for every positive integer  $k$ ,  $F$  is the  $k$ -fold convolution of some distribution  $G_k$  with itself.

**Example 20.3.** (1) The Poisson distribution is infinitely divisible, as

$$\varphi(t) = e^{\lambda(e^{it} - 1)} = \left[ e^{\frac{\lambda}{k}(e^{it} - 1)} \right]^k$$

(2) Symmetric stable laws are infinitely divisible, as

$$\varphi(t) = e^{-c|t|^\alpha} = \left( e^{-\frac{c}{k}|t|^\alpha} \right)^k$$

**Lemma 20.4.** Assume  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ ,  $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$ ,  $\{X_n\}, \{Y_n\}$  independent. Then

$$X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + Y.$$

*Proof.*  $X_n$  has a characteristic function  $\varphi_n(t) \rightarrow \varphi(t)$ .  $Y_n$  has characteristic function  $\psi(t) \rightarrow \psi(t)$ . Then

$$\varphi_n(t)\psi_n(t) \rightarrow \varphi(t)\psi(t).$$

□

**Theorem 20.5.** *Given the array  $\{X_{nk}\}$ , letting  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_{nk}$ . If  $P(S_n \leq x) \rightarrow F(x)$  then  $F$  is infinitely divisible.*

*Proof.* Fix  $k$ . We must show that  $F$  is the  $k$ -fold convolution of some  $G_k$ . Let  $n' = mk$ ,  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ , and let

$$Y_i^{(m)} = X_{n', (i-1)m+1} + \dots + X_{n', im}, \quad i = 1, \dots, k.$$

Then

$$S_{mn} = Y_1^{(m)} + \dots + Y_k^{(m)}$$

and  $Y_f^{(m)}$  are IID.

If  $P(Y_1^{(m)} \leq x) \rightarrow G_k(x)$  as  $m \rightarrow \infty$  then

$$G_k^{*k} = F$$

So we need to show that  $G_k$  is a well defined distribution. We have  $Y_1^{(m)}$  is the sum of  $m$  iid random variables, and

$$H_m(x) = P(Y_1^{(m)} \leq x).$$

We need to ensure “no probability escapes to infinity.” Given a convergent subsequence of distribution functions, we know that the limit satisfies  $G_k(x)$ ,  $G_k$  right continuous, non-decreasing. We need to show  $G(+\infty) = 1$ . Suppose that there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that for any  $M > 0$  we can find a subsequence  $m'_n$  such that

$$P(|Y_1^{(m'_n)}| > M) > \epsilon$$

There is a subsequence of  $\{m'_n\}$ ,  $\{m''_n\}$  say, such that

$$P(Y_1^{m''_n} > M) > \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad P(Y_1^{m''_n} < -M) > \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

So

$$P(Y_1^{m''_n} + \dots + Y_k^{m''_n} > kM) > \left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)^k$$

and so  $F(kM) \leq 1 - \left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)^k$  (modulo choosing continuity points  $kM$  of  $F$ ). Now, since we know that our limiting distribution  $F$  is a proper distribution function, we obtain our contradiction (no such  $\epsilon > 0$  exists).

Hence  $G_k$  is a proper distribution function, and so  $G_k^{*k} = F$ . □

**Definition 20.6** (Compound Poisson distribution). Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  IID random variables. and let  $N \sim \text{POISSON}(\lambda)$ . Then let  $S_N = X_1 + \dots + X_N$ . Then  $S_N$  has a compound Poisson distribution.

If  $X$  has characteristic function  $\varphi$ , then  $S_N$  has characteristic function

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(e^{itS_N}) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}(e^{itS_N} | N = n)P(N = n) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \varphi(t)^n e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} \\ &= e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda\varphi(t)} \\ &= e^{\lambda(\varphi(t)-1)}.\end{aligned}$$

The compound Poisson distribution is clearly infinitely divisible.

**Theorem 20.7.** *A distribution function  $F$  is infinitely divisible if and only if it is the weak limit of a sequence of distributions, each of which is compound Poisson.*

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**Theorem 21.1.** *A distribution function is infinitely divisible if and only if it is the weak limit (limit in distribution) of a sequence of distribution functions each of which is compound Poisson.*

**Lemma 21.2.** *The weak limit of a sequence of infinitely divisible distributions is infinitely divisible.*

*Proof.* Let  $F_n(x)$  be a sequence of distribution functions that are infinitely divisible with

$$F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$$

at all continuity points  $x$  of  $F$ . Form an array  $\{X_{nk}\}_{k=1}^n$  where for a given  $n$ ,  $X_{n1}, X_{n2}, \dots, X_{nn}$  are IID with distribution function  $nF_n(x)$ , the  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of  $F_n$ . Then

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_{nk}$$

has distribution function  $F_n$ .

We know  $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$  so from the previous result  $F$  is infinitely divisible as it is the limit of the row sums of a triangular array of row-wise infinitely divisible random variables.  $\square$

**Lemma 21.3.** *The characteristic function of an infinitely divisible distribution is never zero.*

*Proof.* If  $\varphi(0) = 1$  and  $\varphi$  is continuous, without loss of generality assume  $\varphi$  is real (if not, consider  $|\varphi|^2 = \varphi\bar{\varphi}$  which is real and infinitely divisible.)

Let  $\varphi_k(t)^k = \varphi(t)$ . Assume  $\varphi(t) > 0$  for  $|t| \leq a$ . Then for  $t \in (-a, a)$ ,  $\varphi_k(t) \rightarrow 1$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

Now note that

$$1 - \varphi(2t) \leq 4(1 - \varphi(t)), \quad (\star)$$

as

$$\begin{aligned}
1 - \varphi(2t) &= \int (1 - \cos 2tx) dF(x) \quad \text{as } \varphi \text{ is real} \\
&= \int (2 - 2 \cos^2 tx) dF(x) \quad \cos 2\theta = 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1 \\
&= 2 \int (1 - \cos tx)(1 + \cos tx) dF(x) \\
&\leq 4 \int (1 - \cos tx) dF(x) \quad 1 - \cos tx \geq 0 \\
&= 4(1 - \varphi(t))
\end{aligned}$$

as required.

Then we have  $1 - |\varphi(2t)| \leq 1 - |\varphi(t)|^2 \leq 4(1 - |\varphi(t)|^2) \leq 8(1 - |\varphi(t)|)$ . If  $\varphi(t) \neq 0$  on  $0 < t < a$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  arbitrary, we can find  $k$  large enough such that

$$1 - |\varphi_k(t)| < \frac{\epsilon}{8}$$

which implies  $1 - |\varphi_k(2t)| < \epsilon$  and so  $|\varphi_k(2t)| \neq 0$  on  $|t| < a$ . So  $|\varphi_k(t)| \neq 0$  on  $|t| < 2a$ , and hence  $|\varphi(t)| \neq 0$  on  $|t| < 2a$ .

Iterating this argument, we have that  $|\varphi(t)| > 0$  for all  $t$ . □

**Lemma 21.4.** *For each  $k$ , let  $\varphi_k$  be a characteristic function such that  $\varphi_k^k(t) = \varphi(t)$ .  $\varphi(t)$  is a characteristic function of an infinitely divisible distribution. Then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_k(t) = 1$  for all  $t$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $\varphi$  is continuous and  $\varphi(0) = 1$ , we have

$$|\varphi_k(t)| = |\varphi(t)|^{1/k} \rightarrow 1$$

as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

We have  $k \arg \varphi_k(t) = \arg \varphi(t) + 2\pi j, j = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$ . Since

$$\arg \varphi_k(0) = \arg(1) = 0 \quad \text{so } j = 0$$

$$\arg \varphi_k(t) = \frac{1}{k} \arg \varphi(t) \rightarrow 0$$

as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , and so  $\varphi_k(t) \rightarrow 1$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . □

*Proof of theorem.* Let  $\varphi$  be the characteristic function of an infinitely divisible distribution  $F$ . Let  $\varphi_k^k(t) = \varphi(t)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\log \varphi(t) &= k \log \varphi_k(t) \\
&= k \log(1 - (1 - \varphi_k(t)))
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $1 - \varphi_k(t) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}\log \varphi(t) &= -k[1 - \varphi_k(t) + \frac{(1 - \varphi_k(t))^2}{2} + \dots] \\ &= -k[1 - \varphi_k(t)](1 + \frac{1 - \varphi_k(t)}{2} + \dots) \\ &= -k[1 - \varphi_k(t)] + o(1)\end{aligned}$$

and so  $\varphi(t) \sim e^{-k(1-\varphi_k(t))}$  which is a compound Poisson characteristic function.  $\square$

**Example 21.5.** Show that the  $U([-1, 1])$  distribution is not infinitely divisible. This has associated characteristic function  $\frac{\sin t}{t}$ . Then  $\varphi(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 0$ , and so the distribution is not infinitely divisible.

## 22. EXAM MATERIAL

- Borel-Cantelli lemma.
- Martingales, central limit theorems, strong law of large numbers.
- Inequalities of random variables.

**Example 22.1** (Q2b) of 2010 Exam). Let  $(X_j)$  be IID. Then

$$\mathbb{E}|X_1| < \infty \iff \mathbb{P}(|X_n| \geq n \text{ i.o.}) = 0$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}|X_1| < \infty &\iff \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(|X_1| \geq j) < \infty \\ &\iff \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(|X_j| \geq j) \quad \text{by IID} \\ &\iff \mathbb{P}(|X_j| \geq j \text{ i.o.}) = 0\end{aligned}$$

by Borel-Cantelli lemma.

**Example 22.2** (Q7 of 2010 Exam). Let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of IID random variables on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  with

$$P(X_1 = 1) = P(X_1 = -1) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Let  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  and let  $\{B_n\}$  be a sequence of events with  $B_n \in \mathcal{F}_n$ , satisfying

$$B_1 = \Omega, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(B_n) = 0, P(\limsup B_n) = 1.$$

Define  $Y_1 = 0$  and

$$Y_{n+1} = Y_n(1 + X_{n+1}) + \mathbf{1}_{B_n} X_{n+1}, n = 1, 2, \dots$$

- Show that  $\{Y_n\}$  is a martingale.
- Show that  $Y_n$  converges in probability to 0.

- (c) Show that  $\limsup B_n \subseteq \limsup\{Y_n \neq 0\}$  and hence show that  $\{Y_n\}$  does not converge almost surely.

*Proof.*

- (a) Note that  $Y_1$  is  $\mathcal{F}_1$ -measurable. By induction, we have that  $Y_n + 1$  is  $\mathcal{F}_{n+1}$ -measurable.

We have

$$\mathbb{E}|Y_{n+1}| \leq 2\mathbb{E}|Y_n| + P(B_n) \quad \text{as } |X_{n+1}| \leq 1$$

as  $\mathbb{E}|Y_1| = 0$ ,  $P(B_n) \leq 1$ , so by induction,  $\mathbb{E}|Y_n| < \infty$  for all  $n$ .

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(Y_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) &= Y_n \mathbb{E}(1 + X_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) + \mathbf{1}_{B_n} \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) \\ &= Y_n \quad \text{as } \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1} | \mathcal{F}_n) = \mathbb{E}(X_{n+1}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $Y_n$  is a martingale.

- (b) Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . We must show  $P(|Y_n| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Consider  $P(Y_{n+1} \neq 0)$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y_{n+1} \neq 0) &\leq P(B_n \text{ occurs or } Y_n \neq 0 \text{ and } X_{n+1} = 1) \\ &= P(B_n) + \frac{1}{2}P(Y_n \neq 0). \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_{n+1} \neq 0) \leq 2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(B_n) = 0$$

and so  $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} 0$ .

- (c) If  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$  almost surely then by uniqueness of limits in probability  $Y = 0$  almost surely. We have

$$Y_{n+1} = \begin{cases} 2Y_n + \mathbf{1}_{B_n} & X_{n+1} = 1 \\ -\mathbf{1}_{B_n} & X_{n+1} = -1 \end{cases}$$

Hence  $B_n \subseteq \{\omega : Y_{n+1}(\omega) \neq 0\}$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \limsup B_n &= \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=m}^{\infty} B_n \subseteq \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=m}^{\infty} \{Y_{n+1} \neq 0\} \\ &= \limsup\{Y_n \neq 0\} \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $1 = P(\limsup B_n) \leq P(\limsup\{Y_n \neq 0\})$  and so  $P(Y_n \neq 0 \text{ i.o.}) = 1$ , and so  $Y_n$  does not converge almost surely.

□