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Lecture Notes for Probability Limiting Theory Seminar (2020 Spring, SUSTech)					
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Lastest Updated: March 1, 2020, 11:18					

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### Lecture 1

## Preliminary

## 1.1 Basis for Martingale

Let  $(\Omega, \mathscr{A}, P)$  is a probability space and X is an integrable random variable,  $\mathscr{G}$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathscr{A}$ .

**Definition 1.1.1.** For an integrable random variable *X*, if there exist a random varibale *Y* such that

- Y is  $\mathscr{G}$  measurable;
- for any  $A \in \mathcal{G}$  we have

$$\int_{A} Y dP = \int_{A} X dP,$$

then we say Y is the conditional expectation of X given  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathscr{G}$ . We can write it as  $\mathsf{E}[X|\mathscr{G}]$ .

**Remark 1.1.2.** The conditional expectation is unique in the sense of *a.s.*, see Jacod and Protter [2012].

**Remark 1.1.3.** • For any real number  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ , we have

$$\mathsf{E} (c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 | \mathscr{G}) = c_1 \mathsf{E} (X_1 | \mathscr{G}) + c_2 \mathsf{E} (X_2 | \mathscr{G})$$
 a.s.

• Let Y is  $\mathscr{G}$ -measurable,  $E|XY| < \infty$ ,  $E|X| < \infty$ , then we have

$$E(XY|\mathscr{G}) = YE(X|\mathscr{F})$$
 a.s.

• Let  $\mathscr{G}_1 \subset \mathscr{G}_2 \subset \mathscr{A}$ , then we have

$$E\left[E\left(X|\mathscr{G}_{2}\right)|\mathscr{G}_{1}\right] = E\left(X|\mathscr{G}_{1}\right) = E\left[E\left(X|\mathscr{G}_{1}\right)|\mathscr{G}_{2}\right]$$
 a.s

Note that when  $\mathcal{G}_1 = \emptyset$  the first equality will turn to the normal Adam's law.

Let  $\{X_n\}$  is a sequence of independent random variables with zero mean and  $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ . Then we have

$$E(S_{n+1}|X_1,\dots,X_n) = E(S_n + X_{n+1}|X_1,\dots,X_n)$$
  
=  $S_n + EX_{n+1} = S_n$  a.s.,

which indicates that the conditional expectation of  $S_{n+1}$  only relates to the previous n random variables.

**Definition 1.1.4.** Let  $\{\mathscr{A}_n\}$  is an increasing sequence of sub  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathscr{A}$ . We say a sequence of random variables  $\{S_n\}$  is a **martingle** if

- (i)  $S_n$  is  $\mathcal{A}_n$ —measurable;
- (ii)  $E|S_n| < \infty$ ;
- (iii) for m < n,  $\mathsf{E}(S_n | \mathscr{A}_m) = S_m$  a.s.,

if the equality in (iii) turns out to be  $\leq$  ( $\geq$ ) then we say { $S_n$ } is a supermartingale (submartingale).

**Example 1.1.1.** See pp.24.

**Example 1.1.2.** See pp.24.

**Lemma 1.1.5.** (i)  $\{S_n\}$  is a submartingale (supermartingale),  $\Phi$  is a non-decreasing convex (concave) real function. if  $\mathsf{E} |\Phi(S_n)| < \infty$ , then  $\{\Phi(S_n)\}$  is also a submartingale (supermartingale).

(ii)  $\{S_n\}$  is a martingale,  $\Phi$  is a real convex function. if  $E|\Phi(S_n)| < \infty$ , then  $\{\Phi(S_n)\}$  is a submartingale.

*Proof.* We only prove the submartingale case in (i).

- (Measurability.) Since  $\Phi$  is a convex function on real line, we can see that  $\{x: f(x) < a\}$  will be either an empty set or an inteval for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . And the mixture of measurable function will be mearable function. Thus  $\{\Phi(S_n)\}$  is  $\mathscr{A}_n$ —measurable.
- (Inequality.) By Jensen's inequality, we have

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\Phi\left(S_{n}\right)|\mathscr{A}_{n-1}\right]\geqslant\Phi\left[\mathsf{E}\left(S_{n}|\mathscr{A}_{n-1}\right)\right]\geqslant\Phi\left(S_{n-1}\right)\quad a.s..$$

**Example 1.1.3.**  $\Phi(x) = x^+$  and  $\Phi(x) = |x|^p$ .

Let  $\{\mathscr{A}_n\}$  is an increasing sequence of sub  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathscr{A}$  and  $N_\infty = \{1, 2, \dots, \infty\}$ .

**Definition 1.1.6.** Let  $\alpha$  is a random variable:

$$\alpha:\Omega\to N_{\infty}$$
.

If  $\alpha$  satisfies

$$\{\alpha = n\} \in \mathcal{A}_n, \quad n \geqslant 1$$

or equvilently

$$\{\alpha \leqslant n\} \in \mathcal{A}_n, \quad n \geqslant 1 \tag{1.1.1}$$

then we say  $\alpha$  is a **stopping time**.

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**Remark 1.1.7.** It means that the "decision" of whether to stop at time n must be based only on the information present at time n, not on any future info.

**Definition 1.1.8.** Let  $\alpha$  is a stopping time and  $\mathscr{A}_{\infty} = \sigma(\{\mathscr{A}_n, n \geqslant 1\})$ . We define

$$\mathscr{A}_{\alpha} = \left\{ E : E \in \mathscr{A}_{\infty}, \ E \bigcap \{\alpha = n\} \in \mathscr{A}_{n}, n \geqslant 1 \right\}$$

as the stopping time  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}_{\alpha}$ .

By checking  $\mathscr{A}_{\alpha}$  is closed under complement of sets and union of countable sets we can see that this definition is reasonable.

**Lemma 1.1.9** (**Doob's**). Let  $\{S_n\}$  is a martingale (submartingale) and  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  are two bounded stopping time. If  $\alpha \leq \beta$ , then we have

$$E(S_{\beta}|\mathscr{A}_{\alpha}) = S_{\alpha}(\geqslant S_{\alpha})$$
 a.s.

*Proof.* We only prove the case of submartingale. To compelte our proof, we need to verify

- integrability of  $S_{\beta}$ ;
- $S_{\alpha}$  is  $\mathscr{A}_{\alpha}$ —measurable;
- Inequality.

Assume  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  can be bounded by m. We have  $S_{\beta} = \sum_{n=1}^{m} S_n \mathbb{1}\{\beta = n\}$  and  $\{S_n\}$  is a martingale. It follows that  $S_{\beta}$  is integrable. Let B is a Borel set on real line. Since

$${S_{\alpha} \in B} = \bigcup_{k=1}^{m} \left( {S_k \in B} \cap {\alpha = k} \right) \in \mathscr{A}_{\infty}$$

$${S_{\alpha} \in B} \bigcup {\alpha = n} = {S_n \in B} \bigcup {\alpha = n} \in \mathscr{A}_n.$$

Thus,  $S_{\alpha}$  is  $\mathscr{A}_{\alpha}$ —measurable. To prove the inequality we only need to prove that for any  $\Lambda \in \mathscr{A}_{\alpha}$ 

$$\int_{\Lambda} S_{\alpha} dP \leqslant \int_{\Lambda} \mathsf{E} \left( S_{\beta} | \mathscr{A}_{\alpha} \right) dP = \int_{\Lambda} S_{\beta} dP. \tag{1.1.2}$$

What we want to do is to fix the index in (1.1.2) and change problem into fixed  $\alpha$  and fixed  $\beta$ . Thus we define  $\Lambda_n = \Lambda \cap \{\alpha = n\}$  to fix  $\alpha$  and  $\Lambda_j \cap \{\beta > k\}$  to fixed  $\beta$ , here  $k \ge j$ . The details of proof can be found in pp.25.

**Definition 1.1.10.** (Continuous case.) See pp.26.

#### Lecture 2

## Infinite Divisible Distribution Function and General CLT

#### 2.1 Infinite Divisible Distribution

#### 2.1.1 Definition of Infinite Divisible Distribution Function

**Definition 2.1.1.** (From the perspective of c.f.) We say a characteristic function f(t) is infinite divisible (i.d.) iff.  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^*$ , there exist some characteristic function  $f_n(t)$  such that

$$f(t) = [f_n(t)]^n.$$

And the corresponding distribution function *F* is called infinite divisible distribution function.

**Definition 2.1.2.** (From the perspective of r.v.) Let X is a random variable, we say the distribution of X is infinite divisible iff.  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , there exist an i.i.d random variable sequence  $\{X_k^{(n)}\}_{n \geqslant k \geqslant 1}$  such that

$$X = X_1^{(n)} + X_2^{(n)} + \dots + X_n^{(n)}$$
.

**Definition 2.1.3.** (From the perspective of d.f.) We say a distribution function F is a **infinite divisible** distribution function iff.  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , there exist another distribution function  $F_n$  such that

$$F = F_n^{*n}$$
.

Remark 2.1.4. From Definition 2.1.1 we have

$$[f(t)]^{\frac{1}{n}}=f_n(t).$$

Thus, for i.d.c.f. f(t),  $[f(t)]^{\frac{1}{n}}$  will always be a c.f.

**Example 2.1.1.** See pp.30.

#### 2.1.2 Properties of i.d.c.f.

**Theorem 2.1.5.** (i) I.d.c.f. are closed under finite multiplications; (ii) if f is a i.d.c.f., so does |f|.

**Theorem 2.1.6.** If f(t) is a i.d.c.f., then  $f(t) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* It's hard to consider the zeros of a complex function, thus we consider  $g = |f|^2$ . We assme  $f(t) = [f_n(t)]^n$ , then  $g = |f|^2 = |f_n|^{2n} \triangleq g_n^n$ , where  $g_n = |f_n|^2$  is also a c.f. Here we transform a problem of complex function into a problem of real function. We define

$$h(t) \triangleq \lim_{n \to \infty} g_n = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } g(t) > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } g(t) = 0. \end{cases}$$

we only need to show  $h \equiv 1$ . Note that g(0) = 1 which indicates that h(0) = 1. Since  $g_n$ s are continous, thus h(t) will also be continous. Thus, h is nowhere 0.

**Theorem 2.1.7.** Let  $\{f^{(m)}(t)\}$  is a sequence of i.d.c.f. If there exist a c.f. f(t) such that

$$f^{(m)}(t) \to f(t)$$
,

then f(t) is a i.d.c.f.

*Proof.* Note that  $f(t) = \lim_{m \to \infty} f^{(m)}(t) = \left[\lim_m f_n^{(m)}(t)\right]^n$ . By Continuity Theorm we obtain the conclusion.

**Remark 2.1.8.** Note that this theorem does not tell us that i.d.c.f. are closed in the sense of limitation because we need the limiting function is a c.f.

**Definition 2.1.9.** If c.f. f(t) satisfies

$$f(t) = \exp\{i\alpha t + \lambda(e^{i\beta t} - 1)\},\,$$

where  $\lambda \geq 0$  and  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  are real number, then we say f(t) is a **poisson type c.f.** 

**Remark 2.1.10.** If *X* is a **Poisson type r.v.** i.e. there exist  $\beta \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\lambda > 0$  and real number  $\alpha$  such that for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ \*

$$\Pr\left(X = \alpha + k\beta\right) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}.$$

Then corresponding c.f. of *X* is  $f(t) = \exp\left[i\alpha t + \lambda(e^{i\beta t} - 1)\right]$ .

**Theorem 2.1.11.** f(t) is an i.d.c.f. iff. it can be written as the limitation of the product of finite poisson type c.f.

*Proof.* For the sufficient part we need to prove f(t) is a c.f. and it is i.d. We assume

$$f(t) = \lim_{\triangle} \prod_{k=1}^{n} \exp\{i\alpha_k t + \lambda_k (e^{i\beta_k t} - 1)\}.$$

Note that the finite multiplication of c.f. is also a c.f. and f(t) is continous at 0, we conclude that f(t) is a c.f. And it's easy to see f(t) is i.d. The proof of necessary condition can be found at pp.31.

**Remark 2.1.12.** This theorem implies that the limitation of a sequenc of i.d.c.f. must be a c.f. Keep this result in mind, and combine it with Theorem 2.1.7 indicate that the i.d.c.f. class is closed under limitation.

**Example 2.1.2.** See pp.32.

#### 2.1.3 Levy-Khinchine Representation

Let  $\gamma$  is a real constant and G(x) is a non-decreasing bounded and left continous (in this book, distribution function is defined as  $\Pr(X < x)$ ) function. We define

$$\psi(t) = i\gamma t + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t, x) dG(x),$$

where

$$g(t,x) = \begin{cases} \left(e^{itx} - 1 - \frac{itx}{1+x^2}\right) \frac{1+x^2}{x^2}, & if \ x \neq 0, \\ -\frac{t^2}{2}, & if \ x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Thus it's easy to see g(t, x) is continous and bounded on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . (Check the limit of g(t, x) at x = 0.)

**Theorem 2.1.13.**  $e^{\psi(t)}$  is a i.d.c.f.

*Proof.* Note that g(t,x) has different form at 0 and other points, we separate the integral into three differenc parts. For any  $1 > \epsilon > 0$ , let

$$\epsilon = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = 1/\epsilon, \ x_k \le \xi_k < x_{k+1} \ (k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1).$$

We consider

$$\begin{split} & \int_{\varepsilon}^{1/\epsilon} g(t,x) \mathrm{d}G(x) \\ & = \int_{\varepsilon}^{1/\epsilon} \left( e^{\mathrm{i}tx} - 1 - \frac{\mathrm{i}tx}{1+x^2} \right) \frac{1+x^2}{x^2} dG(x) \\ & = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left( e^{\mathrm{i}t\xi_k} - 1 - \frac{\mathrm{i}t\xi_k}{1+\xi_k^2} \right) \frac{1+\xi_k^2}{\xi_k^2} \left[ G\left( x_{k+1} \right) - G\left( x_k \right) \right] \\ & = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left( \mathrm{i} \frac{\xi_k (1+\xi_k^2) \left[ G(x_{k+1}) - G(x_k) \right]}{(1+\xi_k^2) \xi_k^2} t + \frac{1+\xi_k^2}{\xi_k^2} \left[ G\left( x_{k+1} \right) - G\left( x_k \right) \right] \left( e^{\mathrm{i}\xi_k t} - 1 \right) \right). \end{split}$$

Thus, by Theorem 2.1.11 we see that

$$f_1^{(\epsilon)}(t) = \exp\{\int_0^{1/\epsilon} g(t, x) dG(x)\}$$

is an i.d.c.f. By Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem (LDCT) we got

$$f_1^{(\varepsilon)}(t) \to I_1(t) = \exp\{\int_{x>0} g(t,x) \mathrm{d}G(x)\},$$

again, by Theorem 2.1.7 or 2.1.11 we can see that  $I_1(t)$  is also a i.d.c.f. Similarly, if we consider the integral of g(t,x) on  $(-\epsilon,-\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  we can prove that

$$I_2(t) = \exp\{\int_{x<0} g(t,x) dG(x)\}\$$

is also an i.d.c.f. Now we write

$$e^{\psi(t)} = I_1 \times I_2 \times e^{i\gamma t} \times (-\frac{t^2}{2})[G(+0) - G(-0)].$$

Then for any |y| > b,  $|x| = (1 - \frac{\sin y}{2}) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} > 0$   $\Rightarrow \exists C_1 > 0$ ,  $\exists C_2 > 0$ ,  $\exists C_3 > 0$ .

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Then we can see that  $e^{\psi(t)}$  is a i.d.c.f.

Then we can see that  $e^{\psi(t)}$  is a i.d.c.f.

Our goal is to prove the sufficiency of Theorem 2.1.13. Before that we assume  $G(-\infty) = 0$  and define  $|x| = \frac{1}{2} |x| + \frac{$ 

$$\Lambda(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} A(y) dG(y), \tag{2.1.1}$$

where

$$A(y) = \begin{cases} \left(1 - \frac{\sin y}{y}\right) \frac{1 + y^2}{y^2}, & \text{if } y \neq 0; \\ \frac{1}{3!}, & \text{if } y = 0. \end{cases}$$

and

$$\lambda(t) = \psi(t) - \int_0^1 \frac{\psi(t+h) - \psi(t-h)}{2} dh.$$
 (2.1.2)

Then we have following observations:

**Lemma 2.1.14.**  $\lambda(x)/\Lambda(+\infty)$  is the characteristic function of  $\Lambda(x)/\Lambda(+\infty)$ .

*Proof.* **Step 1.**  $\Lambda(x)/\Lambda(+\infty)$  **is a distribution function.** By the definition of A(y), we can easily see that A(y) is a continuous function, and there exists  $0 < C_1 < C_2$  such that

$$C_1 \leq A(y) \leq C_2$$
.

Thus,  $\Lambda(x)$  is well-defined and non-decreasing. By the boundeness and left-continuity of G, we can see that  $\Lambda(x)$  is also a bounded and left continuous function. Hence,  $\Lambda(x)/\Lambda(+\infty)$  is a distribution function.

Step 2. Construction of 
$$\mu_{\Lambda} \Rightarrow \mu_{\Lambda} \ll \mu_{G} \Rightarrow \frac{d\mu_{\Lambda}}{d\mu_{G}} = \left(1 - \frac{\sin x}{x}\right) \frac{1 + x^{2}}{x^{2}}$$
.

- (1) Let  $S = \{(a,b] : a, \in \mathbb{R}\}$  and define set function  $\mu_{\Lambda}((a,b]) = \Lambda(b) \Lambda(a)$ . It is easy to verify that S is a semiring (closed under finite intersection + difference) and  $\mu_{\Lambda}$  is a premeasure (finite additivity + countably monotone, see pp.437, Royden and Fitzpatrick). Then by Caratheodory-Hahn Theorme, we can extend  $\mu_{\Lambda}$  onto  $\sigma(S)$ , and the extension of  $\mu_{\Lambda}$ , which is still denoted by  $\mu_{\Lambda}$ , is the corresponding measure on  $\sigma(S)$ . Moremover, by the definition of S, we have  $\sigma(S) = B$ , where B denotes the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra.
  - (2) We only need to prove: for any  $B \in \mathcal{B}$

$$\mu_{\Lambda}(B) = \int_{B} A(y) d\mu_{G}(y). \tag{2.1.3}$$

Latest Updated: March 1, 2020

By <u>transfinite induction</u> we can prove that to prove certain facts about Borel sets, it is sufficient to prove it for open sets. (The deail of the proof can be found <u>here</u>.) Thus, by the definition of  $\mu_{\Lambda}((a,b])$ , we obtain (2.1.3).

(3) By the conclusion in (2), we have  $\frac{d\mu_{\Lambda}}{d\mu_{G}} = \left(1 - \frac{\sin x}{x}\right) \frac{1+x^2}{x^2}$ . ( the uniqueness of R-N derivative) Step 3. We take  $\psi(t)$  into (2.1.2), then

$$\lambda(t) = \psi(t) - \int_0^1 \frac{\psi(t+h) - \psi(t-h)}{2} dh$$
  
=  $\int_0^1 \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{itx} (1 - \cos(hx)) \frac{1 + x^2}{x^2} dG(x) dh$ 

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{0}^{1} e^{itx} (1 - \cos(hx)) \frac{1 + x^{2}}{x^{2}} dh dG(x) \text{ (Boundedness (Measurability)} + \text{Fubini's Theorem)}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{itx} (1 - \frac{\sin(x)}{x}) \frac{1 + x^{2}}{x^{2}} dG(x)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{itx} d\Lambda(x).$$

To proof the other side of Theorem 2.1.13 we need the following two lemmas.

**Lemma 2.1.15.** There is a one-to-one corresponding between  $\psi(t)$  and  $(\gamma, G)$ .

*Proof.* It is obvious that each pair of  $(\gamma, G)$  will determine a  $\psi(t)$ . We will consider the other side. The following chain holds:

$$\psi(t) \Rightarrow \lambda(t) \Rightarrow \Lambda(x),$$

then we only need to prove that  $\Lambda(x)$  can determine a unique G(x)

**Step 1.**  $\mu_G \ll \mu_{\Lambda}$ . By (2.1.3) and the fact that A(y) is a positive function, we can see that for any

measurable set A such that  $\mu_{\Lambda}(A)=0$ , it must follow that  $\mu_{G}(A)=0$ . Step 2.  $\frac{\mathrm{d}\mu_{G}}{\mathrm{d}\mu_{\Lambda}}=\left(1-\frac{\sin x}{x}\right)^{-1}\frac{x^{2}}{1+x^{2}}$  By the chain rule, the conclusion can be obtained immediately.

Step 3. By Step 2. we have

$$\left(1 - \frac{\sin x}{x}\right)^{-1} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} \mathrm{d}\mu_{\Lambda} = \mathrm{d}\mu_{G},$$

then the  $\mu_G$  can be deduced as

$$\mu_G(A) = \int_A \left(1 - \frac{\sin x}{x}\right)^{-1} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} d\mu_{\Lambda}$$
, for any  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ .

It can be verified that

$$G(x) = \mu_G((-\infty, x)) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \left(1 - \frac{\sin x}{x}\right)^{-1} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} d\mu_{\Lambda}, \tag{2.1.4}$$

is a bounded, non-decreasing, left continuous function with zero value at  $-\infty$ .

**Remark 2.1.16.** From now on, we use  $\psi = (\gamma, G)$  to denote the  $\psi(t)$  that determined by  $(\gamma, G)$  or the  $(\gamma, G)$  that determined by  $\psi(t)$ .

#### Lemma 2.1.17. Let

$$\psi_n(t) = \mathrm{i} \gamma_n t + \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left( e^{itx} - 1 - \frac{\mathrm{i} tx}{1+x^2} \right) \frac{1+x^2}{x^2} \mathrm{d} G_n(x),$$

where  $\gamma_n > 0$ ,  $G_n(x)$  is a non-decreasing bonded and left continous function,  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . Then we have

1. if  $\gamma_n \to \gamma$  and  $G_n \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} G$ , then we have

$$\psi_n(t) \to \psi(t) = (\gamma, G).$$

2. If  $\psi_n(t) \to \psi(t)$  and  $\psi(t)$  is continous at t = 0. Then there exist a constant  $\gamma$  and a a non-decreasing bonded left continous function G, such that  $\gamma_n \to \gamma$ ,  $G_n \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} G$  and  $\psi = (\gamma, G)$ .

*Proof.* We want to show: the convergence of  $\psi_n(t)$  implies the convergence of  $\gamma_n$  and  $G_n$ . To do this we only neet to follow the following chain:

By the unifom convergence of  $\psi_n(t)$  arrow ① can be easily seen and  $\lambda(t) = \psi(t) - \int_0^1 \frac{\psi(t+h) - \psi(t-h)}{2} \mathrm{d}h$ . Note the corresponding  $\Lambda_n(x)$  and  $\Lambda(x)$  w.r.t  $\lambda_n(t)$  and  $\lambda(t)$ , to prove arrow ② , we need to prove  $\lambda_n(t)/\Lambda_n(+\infty) \to \lambda(t)/\Lambda(+\infty)$ . Since  $\lambda_n(-\infty) = \lambda(-\infty) = 0$ ,  $\lambda_n(0) \to \lambda(0)$  and

$$\lambda_n(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\Lambda_n(x), \quad \lambda(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\Lambda(x),$$

we have  $\Lambda_n(\infty) \to \Lambda(\infty)$ . It follows that  $\Lambda_n \stackrel{d}{\to} \Lambda$ . Combine this fact with (2.1.4) and by the definition of weak convergence, we can obtain 4. Thus we have

$$i\gamma_n t \to \psi(t) - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( e^{itx} - 1 - \frac{itx}{1+x^2} \right) \frac{1+x^2}{x^2} dG(x).$$

Finally, the conclusion in 1. tells us  $\psi = (\gamma, G)$ .

**Theorem 2.1.18.** f(t) is a i.d.c.f. if and only if there exist a constant  $\gamma$  and a non-decreasing bounded left-continous function G(x) such that

$$f(t) = \exp\left\{i\gamma t + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t, x) dG(x)\right\}.$$

*Proof.* By the proof of Theorem 2.1.11 we have

$$\operatorname{Log} f(t) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} n(e^{itx} - 1) dF_n(x), \tag{2.1.6}$$

where  $F_n(x)$  is the corresponding distribution function of  $f(t)^{\frac{1}{n}}$ . Then

$$(2.1.6) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} n(e^{itx} - 1 + \frac{itx}{1 + x^2} - \frac{itx}{1 + x^2}) dF_n(x)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[ i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{nx}{1 + x^2} dF_n(x) t + \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} n(e^{itx} - 1 - \frac{itx}{1 + x^2}) dF_n(x) \right]$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[ i\gamma_n t + \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (e^{itx} - 1 - \frac{itx}{1 + x^2}) \frac{1 + x^2}{x^2} dG_n(x) \right],$$

where  $\gamma_n = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{nx}{1+x^2} dF_n(x)$  and

$$G_n(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{ny^2}{1+y^2} dF_n(y).$$
 (2.1.7)

Thus by the second result in Lemma 2.1.17 we proved

$$Log f(t) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \psi_n(t) = \psi(t) = (\gamma, G),$$

where 
$$\gamma = \lim_{n \to \infty} \gamma_n$$
 and  $G_n \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} G$ . Thus  $f(t) = e^{\psi(t)}$ .

# 2.2 Asymptotic Distribution for the Sum of Independent Random Variables.

#### 2.2.1 Goal.

We consider a broad generalization of the central limit theorem. Consider the following sequence of random variables:

$$X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{1K_1},$$
 $X_{21}, X_{22}, \dots, X_{2K_2},$ 
 $\dots \dots$ 
 $X_{n1}, X_{n2}, \dots, X_{nK_n},$ 

$$(2.2.1)$$

where the elements within each rows are independent. Let  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{k_n} X_{nk}$ , then we want to consider the limiting distribution of  $S_n$  as n goes to infinity. Note that the question reduce to normal central limiting theorem as there is only one row.

#### 2.2.2 Uniformly Asymptotically Negligible Condition.

Note that if the problem is assumption-free, the limiting distribution of  $S_n$  could be any well-defined distribution function. In fact, for any n > 0, if let  $X_{n1}$  follows some distribution F(x) while other r.v. equal to zero, then  $S_n$  will asymptotically distributed as F(x). This is a trivil situation, thus we need some reasonable condition on the random variables such that the limiting process of  $S_n$  will not be impacted significantly by few random variables.

**Definition 2.2.1.** For random varible sequences (2.2.1), if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\max_{1\leq k\leq n}P\left(\left|X_{nk}\right|>\varepsilon\right)=0,$$

then we say  $\{X_{nk}\}$  follows the **uniformly asymptotically negligible (u.a.n.) condition**.

**Proposition 2.2.2.** Following statements are equvilent:

•  $\{X_{nk}\}$  follows the u.a.n. condition;

- $\max_{k} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} dF_{nk}(x) \to 0.$
- let b > 0, then for any  $|t| \le b$

$$\max_{k} |f_{nk}(t) - 1| \Rightarrow 0.$$

*Proof.* (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i). Note that

$$\max_{k} P\left(|X_{nk}| \ge \epsilon\right) = \max_{k} \int_{|x| > \epsilon} dF_{nk}(x) \le \max_{k} \frac{1 + \epsilon^2}{\epsilon^2} \int_{|x| > \epsilon} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} dF_{nk}(x).$$

(i)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii). Note that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

$$\max_{k} |f_{nk}(t) - 1| \leq \max_{k} \int |e^{itx} - 1| dF_{nk}(x) 
\leq \int_{|x| \leq \epsilon} |itx + o(x)| dF_{nk}(x) + 2 \max_{k} P(|X_{nk}| \geq \epsilon) 
\leq b\epsilon + 2 \max_{k} P(|X_{nk}| \geq \epsilon).$$

(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii). Note that for any d.f. F(x) and corresponding c.f. f(x) we have

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-t} (1 - \Re(f(t))) dt = \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} dF_{nk}(x) .$$
 (2.2.2)

Then we have for any T > 0

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} dF_{nk}(x) \le \int_{0}^{\infty} |e^{-t}(1-\Re(f_{nk}(t)))| dt$$

$$\le \int_{0}^{T} \max_{k} |1-f_{nk}(t)| dt + 2e^{-T}.$$

**Proposition 2.2.3.** If  $\{X_{nk}\}$  follows the u.a.n. condition, then for any  $\tau > 0$ , r > 0 we have  $\max_k |mX_{nk}| \to 0$  and  $\max_k \int_{|X| < \tau} |x|^r dF_{nk}(x)$ .

*Proof.* Note for any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

$$1 = 1 - \lim_{n \to \infty} \max_{1 \le k \le n} P\left(|X_{nk}| \ge \varepsilon\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \min_{1 \le k \le n} P\left(|X_{nk}| < \varepsilon\right).$$

Thus for *n* large sufficently, it follows

$$\min_{1 \le k \le n} P\left(|X_{nk}| < \varepsilon\right) > 1/2.$$

By the definition of medium number we have  $\max_{k} |mX_{nk}| < \epsilon$ . Also, for  $0 < \epsilon < \tau$ 

$$\max_{k} \int_{|x| < \tau} |x|^{r} dF_{nk}(x) \leq \max_{k} \int_{|x| < \epsilon} |x|^{r} dF_{nk}(x) + \max_{k} \int_{\epsilon \leq |x| < \tau} |x|^{r} dF_{nk}(x)$$

$$\leq \epsilon^r + \tau^r \max_k P(|X_{nk}| \geq \epsilon).$$

#### 2.2.3 Fundamental Theorem.

**Theorem 2.2.4.** Suppose  $\{X_{nk}\}$  follows u.a.n. condition, then there is an one-to-one corresponding betwee the limiting distribution of  $S_n$  and i.d. family.

Proof. Part 1. First we prove that for any i.d.c.f. F(x) is a limiting distribution function of some  $S_n$ . Suppose that the c.f. of F(x) is f(t) and by the definition of i.d.d.f. we know that for any  $k_n$ , there exist a c.f.  $f_{k_n}(t)$  such that  $f(t) = [f_{k_n}(t)]^{k_n}$ . We draw random variables  $X_{nk}$  such that the c.f. of  $X_{nk}$  is  $f_{k_n}(t)$ ,  $k = 1, 2, ..., k_n$ . Then the c.f. of  $S_n$  is  $\prod_{k=1}^{k_n} f_{k_n}(t) = (f_{k_n}(t))^{k_n} = f(t)$ . If we take limit on both sides, we can see that the c.f. of  $S_n$  will tend to f(t) which is a i.d.c.f. Now we only need to verify if the  $\{X_{nk}\}$  we defined above will follow the u.a.n. condition. To do this, we need we only

#### Part2.

First we introduce some notations: for any  $0 < \tau < \infty$ ,

$$a_{nk} = \int_{|x| < \tau} x dF_{nk}(x), \quad \overline{F}_{nk}(x) = F_{nk}(x + a_{nk}), \quad \overline{f}_{nk}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} d\overline{F}_{nk}(x).$$

**Lemma 2.2.5.** Suppose that  $\{X_{nk}\}$  follows the u.a.n. condition, then  $\{\overline{X}_{nk}\}$ , where  $\overline{X}_{nk} = X_{nk} - a_{nk}$  will also follow the u.a.n. condition.

*Proof.* From Proposition 2.2.3

$$\max_{k} |a_{nk}| \leq \max_{k} \int_{|x| < \tau} |x| dF_{nk}(x) \to 0.$$

For any  $\epsilon > 0$  and n large enough, we have

$$\max_{k} P\left(\left|\overline{X}_{nk}\right| \geqslant \varepsilon\right) \leqslant \max_{k} P\left(\left|X_{nk}\right| + \left|a_{nk}\right| \geqslant \varepsilon\right) \leqslant \max_{k} P\left(\left|X_{nk}\right| \geqslant \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right).$$

## Bibliography

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