





University of New South Wales

SCHOOL OF MATHEMATICS AND STATISTICS

Assignment 2

Measure Theory

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1.1

Let μ and ν be probability measures on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$. We wish to show that the convolution

$$\mu * \nu(B) = \int \nu(B - x)\mu(dx) \tag{1}$$

of these two measures is well defined in the sense that $\nu(B-x)$ is measurable in x and the integral exists. Firstly see that

$$\nu(B-x) = \int \chi_{B-x}(y)\nu(dy) \tag{2}$$

$$= \int \chi_B(x+y)\nu(dy) \tag{3}$$

and by seeing that $\phi(x,y) = \chi_B(x+y)$ is $\mathcal{B}(R) \otimes \mathcal{B}(R)$ measurable and so applying Tonelli's theorem $\nu(B-x)$ is measurable.

We now need to show that the integral exists. This is clear because

$$0 \le \nu(B - x) \le 1 \tag{4}$$

and thus

$$\int \nu(B-x)\mu(dx) \le \int 1\mu(dx) \tag{5}$$

$$=1 \tag{6}$$

because μ is a probability measure.

1.2

Suppose there exists a bounded set $F \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$\mu * \nu(F) = 1 \tag{7}$$

we wish to show that there exists bounded sets $G, H \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$\mu(G) = 1 \text{ and } \nu(H) = 1.$$
 (8)

See that if

$$1 = \mu * \nu(F) \tag{9}$$

$$= \int \nu(F - x)\mu(dx) \tag{10}$$

$$= \int \int \chi_F(x+y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx) \tag{11}$$

Now as F is bounded there exist intervals G = [a, b] and H = [c, d] such that

$$\int \int \chi_F(x+y)\chi_G(x)\chi_H(y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx) \tag{12}$$

and further

$$1 = \int \int \chi_F(x+y)\chi_G(x)\chi_H(y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx) \le \int \int \chi_G(x)\chi_H(y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx)$$
 (13)

$$= \int \chi_H(y)\nu(dy) \int \chi_G(x)\mu(dx)$$
 (14)

¹ which implies that

$$\int \chi_G(x)\mu(dx) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \int \chi_H(y)\nu(dy) = 1$$
(15)

that is $\mu(G) = 1$ and $\nu(H) = 1$.

Suppose that F is now countable but such that $\mu * \nu(F) = 1$. Then

$$1 = \int \nu(F - x)\mu(dx) \tag{16}$$

$$= \int \int \chi_F(x+y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx) \tag{17}$$

now since $F = \{(x_k, y_k)\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is countable then there must exist countable sets $G = \{x_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, $H = \{y_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that

$$\int \int \chi_F(x+y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx) = \int \int \chi_F(x+y)\chi_G(x)\chi_H(y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx)$$
 (18)

and further

$$1 = \int \int \chi_F(x+y)\chi_G(x)\chi_H(y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx) \le \int \int \chi_G(x)\chi_H(y)\nu(dy)\mu(dx)$$
 (19)

$$= \int \chi_H(y)\nu(dy) \int \chi_G(x)\mu(dx) \tag{20}$$

which as before implies $\mu(G) = 1$ and $\nu(H) = 1$.

Then argument above also holds for finite F with exactly the same construction and so if F is finite and such that $\mu * \nu(F) = 1$ then there must exist finite sets G and H such that $\mu(G) = 1$ and $\nu(H) = 1$.

2

2.1

Suppose u and ν are σ -finite positive measures on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) . Then suppose that $\mu << \nu$ and $\nu << \mu$. Then for $A \in \mathcal{F}$ we have that $\mu(a) = 0 \Rightarrow \nu(A) = 0$ and $\nu(A) = 0 \Rightarrow \mu(A)$. That is to say that $\nu(A) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mu(A) = 0$. That is to say that ν and μ have the same null sets. This argument is symmetric so it is clear that the reverse implication also holds.

We now wish to show that there is an \mathcal{F} -measurable function g that satisfies $0 < g(\omega) < +\infty$ at each $\omega \in \Omega$ and is such that $\nu(A) = \int_A g d\mu$ for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$.

Now suppose that there is a \mathcal{F} measurable function $0 < g(\omega) < \infty$ such that $\nu(A) = \int_A g d\mu$. Suppose $\nu(A) = 0$ then

$$0 = \nu(A) = \int_A g d\mu \tag{21}$$

$$= \int \chi_A g d\mu \tag{22}$$

¹Note that the reason we could split up the integrals to a product in both cases is because $\int \chi_H(y)\nu(y)$ is a constant with respect to x.

Now as $\chi_A g >= 0$ and μ is a positive measure then by theorem 2.18 (3) we must that $\chi_A g = 0$, μ -a.e. As g > 0 we have that $\chi_A = 0$ μ -a.e. which means that $\mu(A) = 0$. So $\mu \ll \nu$.

We claim that $\nu \ll \mu$ as well. Suppose $\mu(A) = 0$ then note that as g is a measurable function we have that by Theorem 2.11 $g(\omega) = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n(\omega)$ for all ω and a sequence of increasing simple functions. That is

$$\int_{A} g d\mu = \int_{A} \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n d\mu. \tag{23}$$

Further by the monotone convergence theorem we have that

$$\int_{A} \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n d\mu = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{A} s_n d\mu. \tag{24}$$

Now for some simple function s we have that if $\mu(A) = 0$ then

$$\int_{A} s d\mu = \int_{A} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k \chi_{B_k} d\mu \tag{25}$$

$$=\sum_{k=1}^{N}\alpha_k\int_A\chi_{B_k}d\mu\tag{26}$$

$$=\sum_{k=1}^{N}\alpha_k\int\chi_{B_k\cap A}d\mu\tag{27}$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k \int \chi_A d\mu \tag{28}$$

$$=\sum_{k=1}^{N}\alpha_k 0\tag{29}$$

$$=0 (30)$$

thus if $\mu(A) = 0$ then $\int_A s_n d\mu = 0$ for all n and so $\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_A s_n d\mu = 0$ and hence $\nu(A) = 0$. This means that $\nu \ll \mu$ as well.

2.2

Let $\{B_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a covering of Ω by disjoint sets with $0 < \mu(B_n) < \infty$ for all n. Such a covering exists because μ is σ -finite. Now select a sequence of constants $\{\alpha_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ such that $\alpha_n > 0$ for all n and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n = 1. \tag{31}$$

For example we could select $\alpha_n = 2^{-n}$.

We claim that the function $\nu: \mathcal{F} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$\nu(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n \frac{\mu(A \cap B_n)}{\mu(B_n)}$$
(32)

is a probability measure with the same null sets as μ . Firstly we show that it is a measure, that is we show σ -additivity.

For a collection of disjoint sets $\{A_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ we have that

$$\nu\left(\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}A_n\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty}A_n \cap B_k\right)}{\mu(B_k)}$$
(33)

and by σ -additivity of μ we get

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cap B_k\right)}{\mu(B_k)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu\left(A_n \cap B_k\right)}{\mu(B_k)}$$
(34)

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu(A_n \cap B_k)}{\mu(B_k)}$$
 (35)

$$=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\nu(A_n). \tag{36}$$

The interchange of the order of summation can be justified by the fact that $\mu(A_n \cap B_k) \geq 0$ and

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu\left(A_n \cap B_k\right)}{\mu(B_k)} < \infty \tag{37}$$

which we prove now (by proving ν is a probability measure). See that

$$\nu(\Omega) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu(\Omega \cap B_k)}{\mu(B_k)}$$
(38)

$$=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu(B_k)}{\mu(B_k)} \tag{39}$$

$$=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\alpha_k\tag{40}$$

$$=1. (41)$$

We now just have to show that μ and ν share the same null sets. Suppose $\mu(A) = 0$ then

$$\mu(A) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu(A \cap B_k)}{\mu(B_k)} \tag{42}$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu(A)}{\mu(B_k)} \tag{43}$$

$$=0 \tag{44}$$

and thus $\nu \ll \mu$. Now suppose $\nu(A) = 0$ then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \frac{\mu(A \cap B_k)}{\mu(B_k)} = 0 \tag{45}$$

and as $\mu(B_k) < \infty$ for all k this implies that $\mu(A \cap B_k) = 0$ for all k. Now

$$0 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(A \cap B_k) \tag{46}$$

$$=\mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty}(A\cap B_k)\right) \tag{47}$$

$$=\mu\left(A\cap\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty}B_{k}\right)$$
(48)

$$=\mu(A\cap\Omega)\tag{49}$$

$$=\mu(A). \tag{50}$$

Thus $\mu \ll \nu$.

So ν is a finite measure on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) which is equivalent to μ .

3

3.1

Firstly note that the definition of the characteristic function is

$$\hat{\mu}_X(u) = \mathbb{E}[\exp(i\langle X, u \rangle)] \tag{51}$$

and so for the random vector cX with $c \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that

$$\hat{\mu}_{cX}(u) = \mathbb{E}[\exp(i\langle cX, u\rangle)] \tag{52}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[\exp(i\langle X, cu\rangle)] \tag{53}$$

$$=\hat{\mu}_X(cu)\tag{54}$$

3.2

By definition we have that

$$\hat{\mu}(\mathbf{u}) = \int \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) d\mathbb{P}_X(\mathbf{x}). \tag{55}$$

We can say that

$$\frac{d^{\alpha}\hat{\mu}(\mathbf{u})}{d\mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} = \frac{d^{\alpha}}{d\mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} \int \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) d\mathbb{P}_{X}(\mathbf{x}). \tag{56}$$

We wish to justify taking this derivative through the integral sign. To do this we use an extension of corollary 2.28 (2) from the notes.

Claim

If the partial derivative

$$\frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) \tag{57}$$

exists for all $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) \in X \times [a, b]^d$ and if there is a function $g \in L^1(\mu)$ such that

$$\left| \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) \right| \le g \tag{58}$$

for every $\mathbf{x} \in X$ and $\mathbf{u} \in (a,b)^d$ then

$$\frac{d^{\alpha}}{d\mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} \int f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \int \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{for } \mathbf{u} \in (a, b)^{d}$$
(59)

Proof

We induct on $|\alpha|$. For $|\alpha| = 0$ the result is degenerate. Suppose it is true for $|\alpha|$ we wish to show that it is true for $|\alpha| + 1$. If it is true for $|\alpha|$ then we have that

$$\frac{d^{\alpha}}{d\mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} \int f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \int \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{for } \mathbf{u} \in (a, b)^{d}$$
(60)

then for $|\alpha| + 1$ with a derivative with respect to the *ith* component we would have

$$\frac{d}{du_i}\frac{d^{\alpha}}{d\mathbf{u}^{\alpha}}\int f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})d\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{d}{du_i}\int \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})d\mu(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{for } \mathbf{u} \in (a, b)^d$$
 (61)

but by corollary 2.28 (2) we have

$$\frac{d}{du_i} \int \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \int \frac{\partial}{\partial u_k} \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) d\mu(\mathbf{x})$$
(62)

$$= \int \frac{\partial^{\alpha+1}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha+1}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) \qquad \text{for } \mathbf{u} \in (a, b)^d$$
 (63)

and so we have the result by induction. ^a

We have that

$$\frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) = i^{|\alpha|} \prod_{k=1}^{d} x_k^{\alpha_k} \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle)$$
(64)

and that

$$\left| \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) \right| \leq \underbrace{\prod_{k=1}^{d} |x_{k}|^{\alpha_{k}}}_{\circledast}. \tag{65}$$

Now because

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\prod_{k=1}^{d}|X_{k}|^{\alpha_{k}}\right) = \int \prod_{k=1}^{d}|x_{k}|^{\alpha_{k}} d\mathbb{P}_{X}(\mathbf{x}) < \infty \tag{66}$$

^aWe abused notation with $|\alpha| + 1$ and $\alpha + 1$ but by $\alpha + 1$ we mean we increase the order of the derivative of the *ith* variable. Also note that we assume that we can interchange the orders of differentiation (or combine them). This is only allowed if f has continuous partial derivatives of the appropriate order. For this case we assume this is ok.

then $\circledast \in L^1(\mathbb{P}_X)$ and so we can apply our claim (the DCT) to get

$$\frac{\partial^{\alpha} \hat{\mu}(\mathbf{u})}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} = \int \frac{\partial^{\alpha}}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) d\mathbb{P}_{X}(\mathbf{x})$$
(67)

$$= \int i^{|\alpha|} \prod_{k=1}^{d} x_k^{\alpha_k} \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) d\mathbb{P}_X(\mathbf{x})$$
 (68)

$$= i^{|\alpha|} \int \prod_{k=1}^{d} x_k^{\alpha_k} \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) d\mathbb{P}_X(\mathbf{x})$$
 (69)

and so

$$\frac{\partial^{\alpha} \hat{\mu}(\mathbf{u})}{\partial \mathbf{u}^{\alpha}} \Big|_{\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}} = i^{|\alpha|} \int \prod_{k=1}^{d} x_k^{\alpha_k} \exp(i\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{0} \rangle) d\mathbb{P}_X(\mathbf{x})$$
(70)

$$=i^{|\alpha|} \int \prod_{k=1}^{d} x_k^{\alpha_k} d\mathbb{P}_X(\mathbf{x}) \tag{71}$$

$$=i^{|\alpha|}\mathbb{E}(X^{\alpha})\tag{72}$$

3.3

Notice that as the distribution is symmetric we have that

$$\hat{\mu}(u) = \int e^{iux} f(x) dx \tag{73}$$

$$= \int f(x)(\cos(ux) + i\sin(ux))dx \tag{74}$$

$$= \int f(x)\cos(ux)dx \tag{75}$$

Now notice that

$$\left| \frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(x) \cos(ux) \right| = |x f(x) \sin(xu)| \tag{76}$$

Now notice that

$$\int |xf(x)\sin(ux)|dx = \underbrace{\int_{-K}^{K} |xf(x)\sin(ux)|dx}_{\leq M_1} + \int_{-\infty}^{-K} |xf(x)\sin(ux)|dx + \int_{K}^{\infty} |xf(x)\sin(ux)|dx$$
 (77)

for some constant M_1 and a constants K and J chosen such that

$$\int_{K}^{\infty} |xf(x)\sin(ux)|dx \le \int_{K}^{\infty} \frac{|\sin(ux)|}{Jx} dx. \tag{78}$$

We can therefore say that

$$\int |xf(x)\sin(ux)|dx \le M_1 + 2\int_K^\infty \frac{|\sin(ux)|}{Jx}dx.$$
 (79)

Now appealing to a result in special functions we can say that

$$\int_{K}^{\infty} \frac{|\sin(ux)|}{Jx} dx = \lim_{x \to \infty} \operatorname{Si}(ux) \operatorname{sgn}(\sin(ux)) - \operatorname{Si}(uK) \operatorname{sgn}(\sin(uK))$$
(80)

and it turns out that $\frac{1}{I}\lim_{x\to\infty} \mathrm{Si}(ux)\,\mathrm{sgn}(\sin(ux)) < \infty$ so long as $u\neq 0$ which means that

$$\left| \frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(x) \cos(ux) \right| \in L^1(\mu) \tag{81}$$

for every $u \neq 0$. We can then apply the dominated convergence theorem corollary 2.28 (2) to say that $\hat{\mu}(u)$ is differentiable for all $u \neq 0$ and by extension, sufficiently close to 0.

4

Let μ be the binomial distribution with n trials and probability of success p, that is $\mu = \text{Bin}(n, p)$, and let ν be the Poisson distribution with mean $\lambda > 0$.

4.1

We wish to verify that $\hat{\mu}(u) = (1 - p + pe^{iu})^n$. Because the binomial distribution is just the convolution of identical independent Bernoulli distributions then we just have to verify that $(1-p+pe^{iu})$ is the characteristic function for Bernoulli(p).

If ν is the Bernoulli measure and X has law ν then

$$\hat{\nu}(u) = \mathbb{E}[\exp(iuX)] \tag{82}$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \{0,1\}} e^{iuk} \nu_X(k) \tag{83}$$

$$= pe^{iu} + (1 - p). (84)$$

Then by repeated application of the convolution theorem we get that $\hat{\mu}(u) = (1 - p + pe^{iu})^n$.

4.2

We wish to verify that $\hat{\nu}(u) = \exp(\lambda(e^{iu} - 1))$. The probability mass function of the Poisson distribution is

$$\frac{\lambda^k}{k!}e^{-\lambda} \tag{85}$$

and thus

$$\mathbb{E}[\exp(iuX)] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} e^{iuk}$$
(86)

$$=e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} (e^{iu})^k \tag{87}$$

$$=e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda e^{iu})^k}{k!} \tag{88}$$

$$=e^{-\lambda}e^{\lambda e^{iu}}\tag{89}$$

$$=e^{\lambda(e^{iu}-1)}\tag{90}$$

4.3

We wish to show that if p_n is a sequence in [0,1] such that $p_n \downarrow 0$ and $np_n \longrightarrow \lambda$ then $\mu_n \longrightarrow \nu$ in the weak sense where $\mu_n = \text{Bin}(n, p_n)$. Let $f \in C_b$ then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} f(k) \binom{n}{k} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^{n-k} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \chi_{k \le n} \cdot f(k) \binom{n}{k} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^{n-k}$$

$$(91)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{k \le n} \cdot f(k) \binom{n}{k} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^{n-k}. \tag{92}$$

The interchange of the order of the limit and the sum is justified by the uniform convergence of the sum. To see this let $M = \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^0} f(k)$ (which exists because $f \in C_b$) and then note that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \chi_{k \le n} \cdot f(k) \binom{n}{k} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^{n-k} \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \chi_{k \le n} \cdot M \binom{n}{k} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^{n-k}$$
(93)

$$= M < \infty \tag{94}$$

and so by the Weierstrass M test the series converges uniformly. Now as $np_n \longrightarrow \lambda$ or $p_n \longrightarrow \frac{\lambda}{n}$ we get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{k \le n} \cdot f(k) \binom{n}{k} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^{n-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{k \le n} \cdot f(k) \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^n (1 - p_n)^{-k}$$
(95)

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{k \le n} \cdot f(k) \frac{n^k + O(n^{k-1})}{k!} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^n (1 - p_n)^{-k}$$
 (96)

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k) \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n^k + O(n^{k-1})}{k!} p_n^k (1 - p_n)^n \underbrace{(1 - p_n)^{-k}}_{\longrightarrow 0}$$
(97)

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k) \lim_{n \to \infty} \underbrace{\frac{n^k + O(n^{k-1})}{k!} p_n^k} (1 - p_n)^n$$
(98)

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} f(k) \lim_{n \to \infty} \underbrace{(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n})^n}_{\longrightarrow e^{-\lambda}}$$
(99)

$$=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} f(k). \tag{100}$$

This proves the weak convergence.

4.4

This argument holds whether one takes the integral (sum) or not. So $\mu_n(\{k\}) \longrightarrow \nu(\{k\})$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}^0$.

5

5.1

We wish to show that $\mathbb{P}(B_n) = 1/2$ for every $n \geq 1$. Note that

$$B_n = \bigcup_{k=0}^{2^{n-1}-1} \left[\frac{2k}{2^n}, \frac{2k+1}{2^n} \right)$$
 (101)

and thus

$$\mathbb{P}(B_n) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{2^{n-1}-1} \left[\frac{2k}{2^n}, \frac{2k+1}{2^n}\right)\right)$$
 (102)

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{2^{n-1}-1} \mathbb{P}\left(\left[\frac{2k}{2^n}, \frac{2k+1}{2^n}\right)\right)$$
 (103)

$$=\sum_{k=0}^{2^{n-1}-1} \frac{1}{2^n} \tag{104}$$

$$=2^{n-1}\frac{1}{2^n}\tag{105}$$

$$=\frac{1}{2}.\tag{106}$$

5.2

We now wish to show that the sequence of events B_n form an infinite sequence of independent events. Take a finite subset $J \subset \mathbb{N}$ with |J| = m and $\max J = r$ then

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n\in J} B_n\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n\in J} \bigcup_{k=0}^{2^{n-1}-1} \left[\frac{2k}{2^n}, \frac{2k+1}{2^n}\right)\right)$$
(107)

$$= \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{2^{r-m}-1} \left[\frac{2k}{2^r}, \frac{2k+1}{2^r}\right)\right)$$
 (108)

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{2^{r-m}-1} \mathbb{P}\left(\left[\frac{2k}{2^n}, \frac{2k+1}{2^n}\right)\right)$$
 (109)

$$=2^{r-m}\frac{1}{2^r} (110)$$

$$=\frac{1}{2^m}\tag{111}$$

$$=\prod_{n\in J}\mathbb{P}\left(B_{n}\right)\tag{112}$$

and so the sequence of events B_n form an infinite sequence of independent events.

5.3

We wish to show / argue that the probability that a randomly sampled number ω will have the sequence 5825 occur infinitely often in its decimal expansion is 1.

We use the Borel-Cantelli lemma. Ignoring possible overlaps (on the 5s) we can see that we can break any decimal expansion of ω up into blocks of 4 digits.

Then by we can define E_i as the probability of obtaining 5285 in the i-th block possition. By the same argument as above these events are independent.

The for any i we have that $\mathbb{P}(E_i) = \frac{1}{10000}$ (the same argument as above applied to a decimal expansion). Then clearly

$$\mathbb{P}(E_i) = \infty. \tag{113}$$

By the Borel-Cantelli lemma this implies

$$\mathbb{P}(\limsup_{n}(E_n) = 1. \tag{114}$$

Now

$$\lim_{n} \sup_{n} (E_n) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j=n}^{\infty} E_j$$
(115)

can be intuitively read as E_j happens infinitely often. Which is to say that 5285 occurs blockwise in the expansion of ω infinitely often. Clearly as allowing for overlaps allows for more configurations then the probability is 1 (it can be no more).

6

We wish to prove that if A and B are i.i.d random variables with finite variance and A + B and A - B are independent then A and B are normal. This result is actually called Bernstein's Theorem. (Actually there are lots of things called Bernstein's Theorem, but this is one of them.)².

Firstly write $X = (A - \mathbb{E}(A))/\sqrt{\mathbb{E}(A^2)}$ and $Y = (B - \mathbb{E}(B))/\sqrt{\mathbb{E}(B^2)}$. $\mathbb{E}(A)$, $\mathbb{E}(A^2)$, $\mathbb{E}(B)$ and $\mathbb{E}(B^2)$ exist because $\text{Var}(A) < \infty$ and $\text{Var}(B) < \infty$.

Notice that $\mathbb{E}(X) = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}(X^2) = 1$.

Notice that we can write

$$X = \frac{1}{2}((X+Y) + (X-Y)). \tag{116}$$

So if we write $\hat{\mu_X}(u)$, $\hat{\mu_Y}(u)$, $\hat{\mu_X}(u)$ and $\hat{\mu_X}(u)$ as the characteristic functions of X, Y, X + Y and X - Y respectively we can write.

$$\hat{\mu}_X(u) = \hat{\mu}_{X+Y}(\frac{u}{2})\hat{\mu}_{X-Y}(\frac{u}{2}) \tag{117}$$

because X + Y and X - Y are independent. Now because X and Y are independent we can further write

$$\hat{\mu}_X(u) = \hat{\mu}_X(\frac{u}{2})^2 \hat{\mu}_Y(u/2) \hat{\mu}_Y(-\frac{u}{2}). \tag{118}$$

Now as X and Y are identically distributed they have the same characteristic function and so we can say $\hat{\mu_X} \equiv \hat{\mu_Y}$ and hence from now on we just write $\hat{\mu}$.

$$\hat{\mu}(u) = \hat{\mu}(\frac{u}{2})^3 \hat{\mu}(-\frac{u}{2}). \tag{119}$$

 $\verb|http://math.stackexchange.com/questions/556030/x-and-y-i-i-d-xy-and-x-y-independent-mathbbex-0-and-mathbbex-0-and-y-i-i-d-xy-and-x-y-independent-mathbbex-0-and-mathbbex-0-and-y-i-i-d-xy-and-x-y-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-and-x-y-i-i-d-xy-and-x-y-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x-i-i-d-xy-x$

²This proof is based off ideas from

Lets define $\Psi(u) = \log(\hat{\mu}(u))$. In this case the functional equation reduces to

$$\Psi(u) = 3\Psi(\frac{u}{2}) + \Psi(-\frac{u}{2}) \tag{120}$$

and

$$\Psi(-u) = 3\Psi(-\frac{u}{2}) + \Psi(\frac{u}{2}) \tag{121}$$

Now by defining $\Xi(u) = \Psi(u) - \Psi(-u)$. We can reduce the functional equation to $\Xi(u) = 2\Xi(\frac{u}{2})$. Then

$$\Xi(\frac{u}{2^n}) = 2^n \Xi(u) \tag{122}$$

and by rearranging and dividing by t we get

$$\frac{\Xi(u)}{u} = \frac{\Xi(\frac{u}{2^n})}{\frac{u}{2^n}}.$$
 (123)

Now if $\mathbb{E}[X] = \alpha$ and $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \beta$ (these values exist because of the assumption of finite variance) we get that $\hat{\mu}'(0) = 0$ and $\hat{\mu}''(0) = -1$ by the results of 3.2 of this assignment. Now as $\hat{\mu}$ is twice differentiable then so are Ξ and Ψ . Now $\Xi'(u) = 2\Psi'(u)$ and $\Psi'(u) = \frac{\hat{\mu}'(u)}{\hat{\mu}(u)}$. Thus $\Xi'(0) = 0$ and since

$$\frac{\Xi(u)}{u} = \frac{\Xi(\frac{u}{2^n})}{\frac{u}{2n}} \tag{124}$$

and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\Xi(\frac{u}{2^n})}{\frac{u}{2n}} = \Xi'(0) \tag{125}$$

and thus $\Xi[u] = i\alpha u$.

Now

$$\Psi''(u) = \frac{\hat{\mu}''(u)\hat{\mu}(u) - (\hat{\mu}'(u))^2}{\hat{\mu}(u)^2}$$
(126)

and at zero this means $\Psi''(0) = -1$. By using the previous result for $\Xi'[u] = 0$ along with its definition we have that

$$\Psi(u) = 4\Psi(\frac{u}{2}) \tag{127}$$

and so

$$\frac{\Psi(u)}{u^2} = \frac{4}{\frac{u^2}{4n}} \Psi(\frac{u}{2^n}). \tag{128}$$

Now

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{4}{\frac{u^2}{4n}} \Psi(\frac{u}{2^n}) = \frac{1}{2} \Psi''(0) \tag{129}$$

through one application of L'Hopitals rule.

Thus $\Psi(u) = -\frac{1}{2}(u^2)$ which means that $\hat{\mu}(u) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(u^2))$. Notice that this is the characteristic function of a standard normal distribution and so X and Y both have standard normal distributions. By rescaling we get that A and B are also normally distributed (just with different parameters).

It is not hard to see that this result generalises to larger collections of random variables. For a proof of that result see Lukacs, Eugene; King, Edgar P. (1954). "A Property of Normal Distribution" The Annals of Mathematical Statistics 25 (2): 389—394.