

# Class Lectures (for Chapter 6)

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So,  $(\Omega, \mathcal{M}, P)$  governs some “random experiment” where  $P$  tells us the “likelihood” that  $\omega$  (chosen “randomly”) falls in different sets.

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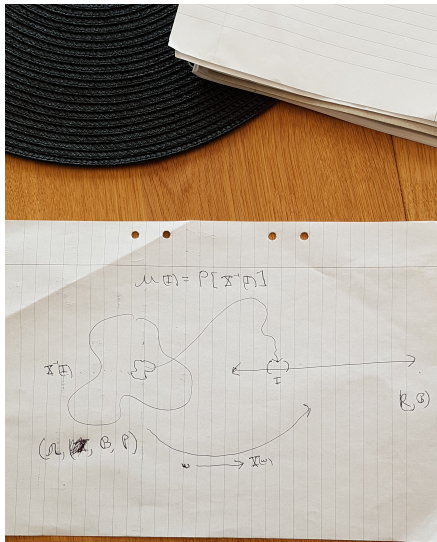
## Definition

If  $X$  is a random variable on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{M}, P)$ , its **expectation**, denoted  $E(X)$ , is simply defined by

$$E(X) = \int X dP$$

provided this exists, meaning at least one of  $\int X^+ dP$  and  $\int X^- dP$  is finite.

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$$\mu_X(k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}.$$

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QED For the unit interval with Lebesgue measure, let  $E_n = [0, 1/n]$ , what is happening?



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Why?  $P(|I_{E_n} - 0| \geq \epsilon) = P(E_n)$  which goes to 0. Hence convergence in measure. However, the second Borel-Cantelli Lemma says that  $P(\limsup E_j) = 1$  and this means that it is not the case that  $I_{E_n}$  converges to 0 a.s.. In fact it says that  $I_{E_n}$  converges to 0 only on a set of probability 0.

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The number of terms of type (b) is  $n(n-1)3$  (elementary combinatorics). Hence  $E(S_n^4)$  is  $n + n(n-1)3 \leq 3n^2$ . QED

# General SLLN

## Theorem

*(Strong Law of Large Numbers: General case) Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be independent random variables with the same distribution with  $E(|X|) < \infty$ . Then*

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What is happening? How could this be occurring?

For very large  $n$ ,  $\frac{S_n}{n}$  is very likely to be close to 0, but if you watch the trajectory in time, there will be these very rare times at which  $\frac{S_n}{n}$  is close to  $\infty$  and times close to  $-\infty$ .

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$$X_n(x) = 1 \text{ if } a_n(x) = 1 \text{ and } -1 \text{ if } a_n(x) = 0.$$



## Infinite number of independent random variables?

How do we know that we can have a probability space with an *infinite* number of independent random variables. There are two approaches.

Approach 1: Constructing an infinite product space (see notes).

Approach 2: Use  $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}_{[0,1]}, m)$  where  $m$  is Lebesgue measure as our probability space.

Given  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,  $x$  has a binary expansion

$$x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n(x)}{2^n}$$

where each  $a_n(x) \in \{0, 1\}$ . (Nonuniqueness only occurs at countably many  $x$ 's and so can ignore.) Now, for each  $n \geq 1$ , define the random variable

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One can show that  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are independent and each has distribution  $(\delta_1 + \delta_{-1})/2$ .

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Explanation: The variance of  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{X_k}{k^\alpha} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^{2\alpha}}$  converges to  $\infty$  if and only if  $\theta \leq 1/2$ .

## A few words about the variance

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- Assuming  $X$  has finite expectation,  $Var(X) < \infty$  if and only if  $X \in L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{M}, P)$
- $Var(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$ , which is something you might have seen, is actually the pythagorean theorem, viewed properly.

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Hence  $E(X)$  and  $X - E(X)$  are orthogonal. The pythagorean theorem tells us that  $E(X^2) = E(X - E(X))^2 + (E(X))^2 = \text{Var}(X) + (E(X))^2$ .

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Hence  $E(X)$  and  $X - E(X)$  are orthogonal. The pythagorean theorem tells us that  $E(X^2) = E(X - E(X))^2 + (E(X))^2 = \text{Var}(X) + (E(X))^2$ . So, the variance is the "squared distance from  $X$  to its projection onto the 1-dimensional space of constant functions".

A fun aside: the arc sign law for coin tossing

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Since  $\frac{S_n}{n}$  approaches 0 in probability (WLLN),  
 $P(\frac{S_n}{n} < -.001) \leq P(|\frac{S_n}{n} - 0| \geq .001)$  which goes to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

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False: the above limit is not zero and rather equals

$$\frac{2}{\pi} \arcsin(\sqrt{.1})$$



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