

The (Weak) Law of Large Numbers

Steve Ziskind

References

-  Hoel, Port, Stone, *Introduction to Probability Theory*, Houghton Mifflin, 1971
-  Papoulis, *Probability, Random Variables, and Stochastic Processes*, MacGraw-Hill, 1965.
-  Lamperti, *Probability*, W.A.Benjamin, 1966
-  Feller, *An Introduction to Probability Theory and its Applications*, 3rd Ed., Wiley, 1968

Overview

- ▶ The theorem that we will discuss is best understood in the context of coin flipping. Coin flipping illustrates the Central Limit Theorem and the Law of Large Numbers: the two most important non-trivial results in probability theory.

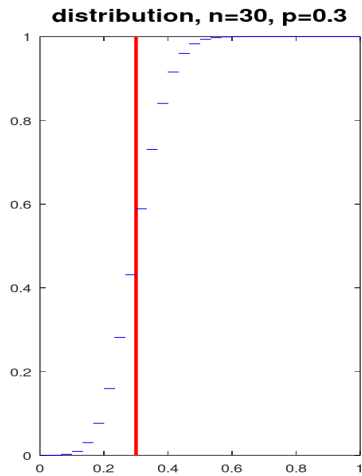
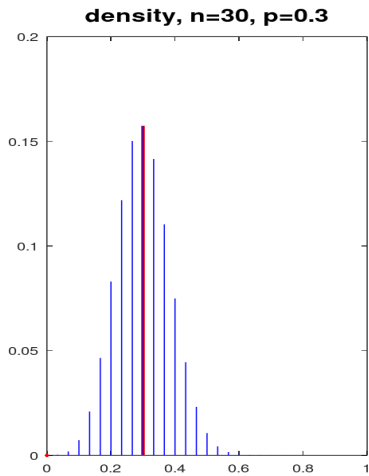
Overview

- ▶ The theorem that we will discuss is best understood in the context of coin flipping. Coin flipping illustrates the Central Limit Theorem and the Law of Large Numbers: the two most important non-trivial results in probability theory.
- ▶ When a coin is flipped it can result in a head or a tail, and we will say that a tail has value 0, while a head has value 1. If the coin is flipped n times, count the total of the values and divide by n , giving an average of the number of heads. This average can range from 0 for all tails to 1 for all heads, altogether $n+1$ different possibilities. We can plot both the probability of the possible values (density), and the probability that the average is $\leq$ various values (distribution). Let us suppose the probability of a head is p and a tail is $1-p$. The probability of getting precisely k heads is $\binom{n}{k} * p^k * (1-p)^{n-k}$.

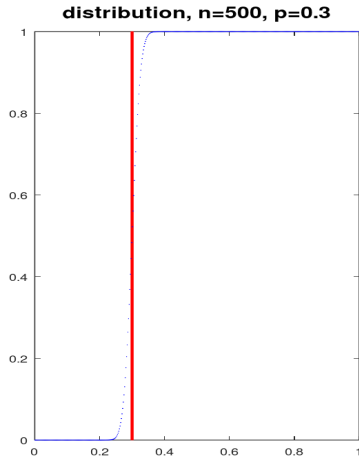
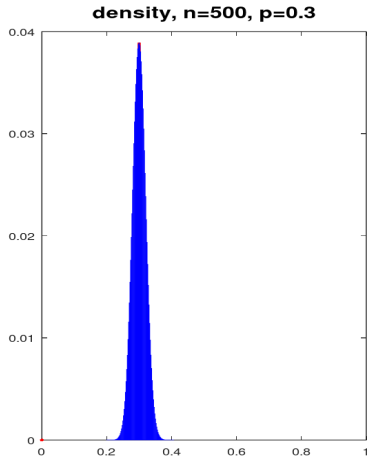
Overview

- ▶ The theorem that we will discuss is best understood in the context of coin flipping. Coin flipping illustrates the Central Limit Theorem and the Law of Large Numbers: the two most important non-trivial results in probability theory.
- ▶ When a coin is flipped it can result in a head or a tail, and we will say that a tail has value 0, while a head has value 1. If the coin is flipped n times, count the total of the values and divide by n , giving an average of the number of heads. This average can range from 0 for all tails to 1 for all heads, altogether $n+1$ different possibilities. We can plot both the probability of the possible values (density), and the probability that the average is $\leq$ various values (distribution). Let us suppose the probability of a head is p and a tail is $1-p$. The probability of getting precisely k heads is $\binom{n}{k} * p^k * (1-p)^{n-k}$.
- ▶ When $p=0.3$, here are the results for $n=30$ and $n=500$.

Binomial Distribution



Binomial Distribution



Two Observations

- ▶ Two things should be noted from these plots.

Two Observations

- ▶ Two things should be noted from these plots.
- ▶ First, as the value of n increases the likelihood increases that the result will be close to p . This is an example of the Law of Large Numbers, which is true for more situations than coin flipping.

Two Observations

- ▶ Two things should be noted from these plots.
- ▶ First, as the value of n increases the likelihood increases that the result will be close to p . This is an example of the Law of Large Numbers, which is true for more situations than coin flipping.
- ▶ Second, the density plots have a definite shape, which becomes more and more like the function e^{-x^2} , the famous Bell Shaped Curve. Also true in very general situations, this second note is the Central Limit Theorem.

Two Observations

- ▶ Two things should be noted from these plots.
- ▶ First, as the value of n increases the likelihood increases that the result will be close to p . This is an example of the Law of Large Numbers, which is true for more situations than coin flipping.
- ▶ Second, the density plots have a definite shape, which becomes more and more like the function e^{-x^2} , the famous Bell Shaped Curve. Also true in very general situations, this second note is the Central Limit Theorem.
- ▶ In this talk we will prove a version of the Law of Large Numbers.

Two Observations

- ▶ Two things should be noted from these plots.
- ▶ First, as the value of n increases the likelihood increases that the result will be close to p . This is an example of the Law of Large Numbers, which is true for more situations than coin flipping.
- ▶ Second, the density plots have a definite shape, which becomes more and more like the function e^{-x^2} , the famous Bell Shaped Curve. Also true in very general situations, this second note is the Central Limit Theorem.
- ▶ In this talk we will prove a version of the Law of Large Numbers.
- ▶ In order to state things properly, we need to define some terms.

Some Basic Definitions

Some Basic Definitions

- ▶ A Sample Space (Ω) is any set, considered as the collection of possible outcomes of an experiment.

Some Basic Definitions

- ▶ A Sample Space (Ω) is any set, considered as the collection of possible outcomes of an experiment.
- ▶ Events are subsets of Ω that form a set closed under complementation, countable intersections, and countable unions.

Some Basic Definitions

- ▶ A Sample Space (Ω) is any set, considered as the collection of possible outcomes of an experiment.
- ▶ Events are subsets of Ω that form a set closed under complementation, countable intersections, and countable unions.
- ▶ A probability measure (P) is a function that assigns to every event a number between 0 and 1, satisfying these properties:
 1. $P(\Omega) = 1$
 2. P is countably additive. i.e. if A_n are mutually disjoint events, then
$$P(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)$$

A Few Fundamental Examples

A Few Fundamental Examples

- ▶ Coin Flipping: $\Omega = \{H, T\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(H) = P(T) = 1/2$

A Few Fundamental Examples

- ▶ Coin Flipping: $\Omega = \{H, T\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(H) = P(T) = 1/2$
- ▶ Dice: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(1) = \dots P(6) = 1/6$

A Few Fundamental Examples

- ▶ Coin Flipping: $\Omega = \{H, T\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(H) = P(T) = 1/2$
- ▶ Dice: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(1) = \dots P(6) = 1/6$
- ▶ $\Omega = [0, 1]$. The measure of an event is its length (whatever that means). Thus the probability of an event occurring, i.e. of a point being picked within the set, is the size of the set. Unfortunately, not all subsets can be events, but most are.

A Few Fundamental Examples

- ▶ Coin Flipping: $\Omega = \{H, T\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(H) = P(T) = 1/2$
- ▶ Dice: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(1) = \dots P(6) = 1/6$
- ▶ $\Omega = [0, 1]$. The measure of an event is its length (whatever that means). Thus the probability of an event occurring, i.e. of a point being picked within the set, is the size of the set. Unfortunately, not all subsets can be events, but most are.
- ▶ Let f be a non-negative function on $\mathbb{R}$ satisfying $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f = 1$ Then
 $P(A) = \int_A f$.

A Few Fundamental Examples

- ▶ Coin Flipping: $\Omega = \{H, T\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(H) = P(T) = 1/2$
- ▶ Dice: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and all possible subsets are events.
 $P(1) = \dots P(6) = 1/6$
- ▶ $\Omega = [0, 1]$. The measure of an event is its length (whatever that means). Thus the probability of an event occurring, i.e. of a point being picked within the set, is the size of the set. Unfortunately, not all subsets can be events, but most are.
- ▶ Let f be a non-negative function on $\mathbb{R}$ satisfying $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f = 1$ Then
 $P(A) = \int_A f$.
- ▶ On the sample space $[0,1]$ let the probability of the event $[0.5,1]$ be $1/2$. This is equivalent to flipping a fair coin, where the event $[0,0.5]$ is a tail and $[0.5,1]$ is a head.

A Confession

A Confession

- ▶ Some of the examples on the preceding slide are not well defined or explained.

A Confession

- ▶ Some of the examples on the preceding slide are not well defined or explained.
- ▶ Carefully defining which subsets of the line are events requires Measure Theory.

A Confession

- ▶ Some of the examples on the preceding slide are not well defined or explained.
- ▶ Carefully defining which subsets of the line are events requires Measure Theory.
- ▶ The integral in the last example is taken in the sense of Lebesgue, not Riemann.

A Confession

- ▶ Some of the examples on the preceding slide are not well defined or explained.
- ▶ Carefully defining which subsets of the line are events requires Measure Theory.
- ▶ The integral in the last example is taken in the sense of Lebesgue, not Riemann.
- ▶ Measure Theory and the Lebesgue Integral, while very interesting topics, are “Beyond the Scope of this Talk”.

A Confession

- ▶ Some of the examples on the preceding slide are not well defined or explained.
- ▶ Carefully defining which subsets of the line are events requires Measure Theory.
- ▶ The integral in the last example is taken in the sense of Lebesgue, not Riemann.
- ▶ Measure Theory and the Lebesgue Integral, while very interesting topics, are “Beyond the Scope of this Talk”.
- ▶ If demanded, a separate talk might address them.

More Definitions

More Definitions

- ▶ A Random Variable (r.v.) is a real valued function on the sample space. (More or less)

More Definitions

- ▶ A Random Variable (r.v.) is a real valued function on the sample space. (More or less)
- ▶ The Distribution Function of the r.v. X is defined as:
$$F_X(t) = P(X \leq t)$$

More Definitions

- ▶ A Random Variable (r.v.) is a real valued function on the sample space. (More or less)
- ▶ The Distribution Function of the r.v. X is defined as:
$$F_X(t) = P(X \leq t)$$
- ▶ Two r.v.s are Identically Distributed if they have equal distribution functions.

More Definitions

- ▶ A Random Variable (r.v.) is a real valued function on the sample space. (More or less)
- ▶ The Distribution Function of the r.v. X is defined as:
$$F_X(t) = P(X \leq t)$$
- ▶ Two r.v.s are Identically Distributed if they have equal distribution functions.
- ▶ If the distribution of the r.v. X satisfies $F_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f dx$, then f is called the Density of X .

More Definitions

- ▶ A Random Variable (r.v.) is a real valued function on the sample space. (More or less)
- ▶ The Distribution Function of the r.v. X is defined as:
$$F_X(t) = P(X \leq t)$$
- ▶ Two r.v.s are Identically Distributed if they have equal distribution functions.
- ▶ If the distribution of the r.v. X satisfies $F_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f dx$, then f is called the Density of X .
- ▶ If $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and X has the density f , The Mean Value (a.k.a. Expected Value) of an r.v. X is $E(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(t)f(t)dt$

More Definitions

- ▶ A Random Variable (r.v.) is a real valued function on the sample space. (More or less)
- ▶ The Distribution Function of the r.v. X is defined as:
$$F_X(t) = P(X \leq t)$$
- ▶ Two r.v.s are Identically Distributed if they have equal distribution functions.
- ▶ If the distribution of the r.v. X satisfies $F_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f dx$, then f is called the Density of X .
- ▶ If $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and X has the density f , The Mean Value (a.k.a. Expected Value) of an r.v. X is $E(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(t)f(t)dt$
- ▶ For discrete sample spaces (coins, dice, etc.), $E(X)$ is defined as
$$\sum t * P(X = t)$$

More Definitions

- ▶ A Random Variable (r.v.) is a real valued function on the sample space. (More or less)
- ▶ The Distribution Function of the r.v. X is defined as:
$$F_X(t) = P(X \leq t)$$
- ▶ Two r.v.s are Identically Distributed if they have equal distribution functions.
- ▶ If the distribution of the r.v. X satisfies $F_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f dx$, then f is called the Density of X .
- ▶ If $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and X has the density f , The Mean Value (a.k.a. Expected Value) of an r.v. X is $E(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} X(t)f(t)dt$
- ▶ For discrete sample spaces (coins, dice, etc.), $E(X)$ is defined as
$$\sum t * P(X = t)$$
- ▶ We will generally denote mean value with μ . Be careful: sometimes the mean value is not defined.

More Definitions (Sorry, these will be the last)

More Definitions (Sorry, these will be the last)

- ▶ Two r.v.s, X and Y , both defined on a common sample space, have a Joint Distribution defined by $F_{s,t} = P(X \leq s, Y \leq t)$

More Definitions (Sorry, these will be the last)

- ▶ Two r.v.s, X and Y , both defined on a common sample space, have a Joint Distribution defined by $F_{s,t} = P(X \leq s, Y \leq t)$
- ▶ X and Y are Independent if $P(a < X \leq b, c < Y \leq d) = P(a < X \leq b) * P(c < Y \leq d)$. If each has a density, this is equivalent to saying that $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$

More Definitions (Sorry, these will be the last)

- ▶ Two r.v.s, X and Y , both defined on a common sample space, have a Joint Distribution defined by $F_{s,t} = P(X \leq s, Y \leq t)$
- ▶ X and Y are Independent if $P(a < X \leq b, c < Y \leq d) = P(a < X \leq b) * P(c < Y \leq d)$. If each has a density, this is equivalent to saying that $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$
- ▶ If X has an expected value of μ , the the Variance of X (generally denoted σ^2) is $E((X - \mu)^2)$. Some r.v.s can have expectations but not have variances. The square root of the variance is called the Standard Deviation.

More Definitions (Sorry, these will be the last)

- ▶ Two r.v.s, X and Y , both defined on a common sample space, have a Joint Distribution defined by $F_{s,t} = P(X \leq s, Y \leq t)$
- ▶ X and Y are Independent if $P(a < X \leq b, c < Y \leq d) = P(a < X \leq b) * P(c < Y \leq d)$. If each has a density, this is equivalent to saying that $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$
- ▶ If X has an expected value of μ , the the Variance of X (generally denoted σ^2) is $E((X - \mu)^2)$. Some r.v.s can have expectations but not have variances. The square root of the variance is called the Standard Deviation.
- ▶ A handy fact: $\sigma^2 = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 = E(X^2) - \mu^2$

More Definitions (Sorry, these will be the last)

- ▶ Two r.v.s, X and Y , both defined on a common sample space, have a Joint Distribution defined by $F_{s,t} = P(X \leq s, Y \leq t)$
- ▶ X and Y are Independent if $P(a < X \leq b, c < Y \leq d) = P(a < X \leq b) * P(c < Y \leq d)$. If each has a density, this is equivalent to saying that $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$
- ▶ If X has an expected value of μ , the the Variance of X (generally denoted σ^2) is $E((X - \mu)^2)$. Some r.v.s can have expectations but not have variances. The square root of the variance is called the Standard Deviation.
- ▶ A handy fact: $\sigma^2 = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 = E(X^2) - \mu^2$
- ▶ Even handier: $E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$ and, when X and Y are independent, $Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)$. Also, for any constant k , $Var(kX) = k^2 Var(X)$

Examples

- ▶ If X is the r.v. corresponding to the value of a rolled die (i.e. 6 members of the sample space, each equally likely), then the expected value of X is $1 * \frac{1}{6} + 2 * \frac{1}{6} + \dots + 6 * \frac{1}{6} = \frac{7}{2}$

Examples

- ▶ If X is the r.v. corresponding to the value of a rolled die (i.e. 6 members of the sample space, each equally likely), then the expected value of X is $1 * \frac{1}{6} + 2 * \frac{1}{6} + \dots + 6 * \frac{1}{6} = \frac{7}{2}$
- ▶ The variance of the rolled die is $((1 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + (2 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + \dots + (6 - \frac{7}{2})^2) * \frac{1}{6} = \frac{35}{12}$

Examples

- ▶ If X is the r.v. corresponding to the value of a rolled die (i.e. 6 members of the sample space, each equally likely), then the expected value of X is $1 * \frac{1}{6} + 2 * \frac{1}{6} + \dots + 6 * \frac{1}{6} = \frac{7}{2}$
- ▶ The variance of the rolled die is $((1 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + (2 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + \dots + (6 - \frac{7}{2})^2) * \frac{1}{6} = \frac{35}{12}$
- ▶ If X assigns a value of -1 to a tail and 1 to a head when tossing a fair coin, then $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$.

Examples

- ▶ If X is the r.v. corresponding to the value of a rolled die (i.e. 6 members of the sample space, each equally likely), then the expected value of X is $1 * \frac{1}{6} + 2 * \frac{1}{6} + \dots + 6 * \frac{1}{6} = \frac{7}{2}$
- ▶ The variance of the rolled die is $((1 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + (2 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + \dots + (6 - \frac{7}{2})^2) * \frac{1}{6} = \frac{35}{12}$
- ▶ If X assigns a value of -1 to a tail and 1 to a head when tossing a fair coin, then $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$.
- ▶ If X is the value of a point chosen from $[-1,1]$, with all choices equally likely, then the density is $f(t) = \frac{1}{2}$. Then $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = \int_{-1}^1 (t - 0)^2 * \frac{1}{2} dt = \frac{1}{3}$

The Law of Large Numbers

The Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ If $X_1, X_2, \dots$ are independent, identically distribution random variables (iidrv's), define the n^{th} sample sum as
$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

The Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ If $X_1, X_2, \dots$ are independent, identically distribution random variables (iidrv's), define the n^{th} sample sum as
$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$
- ▶ (Weak Law of Large Numbers) Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ , and let $\{S_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be the corresponding sample sums. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \epsilon\right) = 0$$

The Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ If $X_1, X_2, \dots$ are independent, identically distribution random variables (iidrv's), define the n^{th} sample sum as
$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$
- ▶ (Weak Law of Large Numbers) Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ , and let $\{S_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be the corresponding sample sums. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \left(\left| \frac{S_n}{n} - \mu \right| > \epsilon \right) = 0$$

- ▶ We will not prove this result in this generality. However, there is a slightly weaker version that can be proved simply, using Chebyshev's Inequality.

The Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ If $X_1, X_2, \dots$ are independent, identically distribution random variables (iidrv's), define the n^{th} sample sum as
$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$
- ▶ (Weak Law of Large Numbers) Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ , and let $\{S_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be the corresponding sample sums. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \left(\left| \frac{S_n}{n} - \mu \right| > \epsilon \right) = 0$$

- ▶ We will not prove this result in this generality. However, there is a slightly weaker version that can be proved simply, using Chebyshev's Inequality.
- ▶ The simpler version still has enough power to prove a surprising theorem of Weierstrass.

Chebyshev's Inequality

Chebyshev's Inequality

- ▶ Lemma: If $X \geq 0$ is a r.v. with expected value $E(X)$ and $t > 0$, then $P(X \geq t) \leq E(X)/t$

Chebyshev's Inequality

- ▶ Lemma: If $X \geq 0$ is a r.v. with expected value $E(X)$ and $t > 0$, then $P(X \geq t) \leq E(X)/t$
- ▶ Proof: Define a new r.v. Y , by $Y = 0$ when $X < t$ and $Y = t$ when $X \geq t$. Note that $X \geq Y$, so $E(X) \geq E(Y)$

Chebyshev's Inequality

- ▶ Lemma: If $X \geq 0$ is a r.v. with expected value $E(X)$ and $t > 0$, then $P(X \geq t) \leq E(X)/t$
- ▶ Proof: Define a new r.v. Y , by $Y = 0$ when $X < t$ and $Y = t$ when $X \geq t$. Note that $X \geq Y$, so $E(X) \geq E(Y)$
- ▶ Y has only values of 0 and t , so
$$E(Y) = 0 * P(Y = 0) + t * P(Y = t) = t * P(X \geq t) \quad \text{QED}$$

Chebyshev's Inequality

- ▶ Lemma: If $X \geq 0$ is a r.v. with expected value $E(X)$ and $t > 0$, then $P(X \geq t) \leq E(X)/t$
- ▶ Proof: Define a new r.v. Y , by $Y = 0$ when $X < t$ and $Y = t$ when $X \geq t$. Note that $X \geq Y$, so $E(X) \geq E(Y)$
- ▶ Y has only values of 0 and t , so
$$E(Y) = 0 * P(Y = 0) + t * P(Y = t) = t * P(X \geq t) \quad \text{QED}$$
- ▶ (Chebyshev's Inequality) Let X be an r.v. with $E(X) = \mu$ and $\text{Variance} = \sigma^2$. Then for any real $t > 0$, $P(|X - \mu| \geq t) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{t^2}$

Chebyshev's Inequality

- ▶ Lemma: If $X \geq 0$ is a r.v. with expected value $E(X)$ and $t > 0$, then $P(X \geq t) \leq E(X)/t$
- ▶ Proof: Define a new r.v. Y , by $Y = 0$ when $X < t$ and $Y = t$ when $X \geq t$. Note that $X \geq Y$, so $E(X) \geq E(Y)$
- ▶ Y has only values of 0 and t , so
$$E(Y) = 0 * P(Y = 0) + t * P(Y = t) = t * P(X \geq t) \quad \text{QED}$$
- ▶ (Chebyshev's Inequality) Let X be an r.v. with $E(X) = \mu$ and Variance $= \sigma^2$. Then for any real $t > 0$, $P(|X - \mu| \geq t) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{t^2}$
- ▶ Proof: Apply the lemma to the r.v. $(X - \mu)^2$ and the number t^2 .
QED

Chebyshev's Inequality

- ▶ Lemma: If $X \geq 0$ is a r.v. with expected value $E(X)$ and $t > 0$, then $P(X \geq t) \leq E(X)/t$
- ▶ Proof: Define a new r.v. Y , by $Y = 0$ when $X < t$ and $Y = t$ when $X \geq t$. Note that $X \geq Y$, so $E(X) \geq E(Y)$
- ▶ Y has only values of 0 and t , so
$$E(Y) = 0 * P(Y = 0) + t * P(Y = t) = t * P(X \geq t) \quad \text{QED}$$
- ▶ (Chebyshev's Inequality) Let X be an r.v. with $E(X) = \mu$ and $\text{Variance} = \sigma^2$. Then for any real $t > 0$, $P(|X - \mu| \geq t) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{t^2}$
- ▶ Proof: Apply the lemma to the r.v. $(X - \mu)^2$ and the number t^2 . QED
- ▶ Feller: A small variance indicates that large deviations from the mean are improbable.

The Very Weak Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ Very Weak Law of Large Numbers Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ , and finite variances of σ^2 . Let $\{S_n\} = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ be the corresponding partial sums. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \epsilon\right) = 0$$

The Very Weak Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ Very Weak Law of Large Numbers Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ , and finite variances of σ^2 . Let $\{S_n\} = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ be the corresponding partial sums. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \epsilon\right) = 0$$

- ▶ The difference from the full Weak Law is that we assume finite variances. The theorem is true without this assumption, but the proof is harder. [Feller] has a nice proof of the full result.

The Very Weak Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ Very Weak Law of Large Numbers Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ , and finite variances of σ^2 . Let $\{S_n\} = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ be the corresponding partial sums. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \epsilon\right) = 0$$

- ▶ The difference from the full Weak Law is that we assume finite variances. The theorem is true without this assumption, but the proof is harder. [Feller] has a nice proof of the full result.
- ▶ Proof: $E(S_n) = n\mu$. Because of independence, $\text{Var}(S_n) = n\sigma^2$. Apply Chebyshev to find that

$$P(|S_n - n\mu| > n\epsilon) \leq \frac{n\sigma^2}{(n\epsilon)^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0$$

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Using the VWLLN, we can provide a relatively short proof of a remarkable theorem of Weierstrass: Every continuous function on a closed bounded interval can be approximated uniformly by a polynomial. WLOG we will take the interval to be $[0,1]$.

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Using the VWLLN, we can provide a relatively short proof of a remarkable theorem of Weierstrass: Every continuous function on a closed bounded interval can be approximated uniformly by a polynomial. WLOG we will take the interval to be $[0,1]$.
- ▶ We need a fact proved in advanced calculus: Any continuous function f on a closed bounded interval is Uniformly Continuous. This means that in the δ, ϵ definition of continuity a single δ can be chosen that will satisfy the $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$ requirement everywhere on the interval. If the interval is not closed, then each point might require its own special δ for the given ϵ .

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Using the VWLLN, we can provide a relatively short proof of a remarkable theorem of Weierstrass: Every continuous function on a closed bounded interval can be approximated uniformly by a polynomial. WLOG we will take the interval to be $[0,1]$.
- ▶ We need a fact proved in advanced calculus: Any continuous function f on a closed bounded interval is Uniformly Continuous. This means that in the δ, ϵ definition of continuity a single δ can be chosen that will satisfy the $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$ requirement everywhere on the interval. If the interval is not closed, then each point might require its own special δ for the given ϵ .
- ▶ The use of uniform continuity is this: by breaking $[0,1]$ into sufficiently small intervals, we can treat the continuous function f as if it were nearly constant on each piece. Then we can approximate f by approximating a single value in each piece, turning a continuous problem into a discrete problem.

Lagrange Interpolation

- ▶ Given any two points $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$, with $a_1 \neq a_2$, there is a line (linear function) passing through the two points. If we are given three points then there is a quadratic passing through the three points. In general, given $n+1$ points, (a_i, b_i) there is a polynomial of degree $\leq n$ whose graph passes through these points.

Lagrange Interpolation

- ▶ Given any two points $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$, with $a_1 \neq a_2$, there is a line (linear function) passing through the two points. If we are given three points then there is a quadratic passing through the three points. In general, given $n+1$ points, (a_i, b_i) there is a polynomial of degree $\leq n$ whose graph passes through these points.
- ▶ The simple idea is to build a personal polynomial for each of the points, having the desired value of b_i at a_i , but which is zero at the other a_k values.

Lagrange Interpolation

- ▶ Given any two points $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$, with $a_1 \neq a_2$, there is a line (linear function) passing through the two points. If we are given three points then there is a quadratic passing through the three points. In general, given $n+1$ points, (a_i, b_i) there is a polynomial of degree $\leq n$ whose graph passes through these points.
- ▶ The simple idea is to build a personal polynomial for each of the points, having the desired value of b_i at a_i , but which is zero at the other a_k values.
- ▶ The i^{th} polynomial is $p_i(x) = b_i * \prod_{k \neq i} \frac{x - a_k}{a_i - a_k}$

Lagrange Interpolation

- ▶ Given any two points $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$, with $a_1 \neq a_2$, there is a line (linear function) passing through the two points. If we are given three points then there is a quadratic passing through the three points. In general, given $n+1$ points, (a_i, b_i) there is a polynomial of degree $\leq n$ whose graph passes through these points.
- ▶ The simple idea is to build a personal polynomial for each of the points, having the desired value of b_i at a_i , but which is zero at the other a_k values.
- ▶ The i^{th} polynomial is $p_i(x) = b_i * \prod_{k \neq i} \frac{x - a_k}{a_i - a_k}$
- ▶ Now the full solution is $\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} p_i(x)$, the Lagrange Interpolating Polynomial

Lagrange Interpolation

- ▶ Given any two points $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$, with $a_1 \neq a_2$, there is a line (linear function) passing through the two points. If we are given three points then there is a quadratic passing through the three points. In general, given $n+1$ points, (a_i, b_i) there is a polynomial of degree $\leq n$ whose graph passes through these points.
- ▶ The simple idea is to build a personal polynomial for each of the points, having the desired value of b_i at a_i , but which is zero at the other a_k values.
- ▶ The i^{th} polynomial is $p_i(x) = b_i * \prod_{k \neq i} \frac{x - a_k}{a_i - a_k}$
- ▶ Now the full solution is $\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} p_i(x)$, the Lagrange Interpolating Polynomial
- ▶ The important idea is to deal with each point separately, and in such a way that each does not interfere with the others.

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Let $t \in [0, 1]$, and let $X_1 \dots X_n$ be i.i.d.r.v.'s satisfying $P(X_k = 1) = t, P(X_k = 0) = (1 - t)$. Then define

$$B_n(t; f) = E \left(f \left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \right) \right) = \sum_{k=0}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \binom{n}{k} t^k (1 - t)^{n-k}$$

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Let $t \in [0, 1]$, and let $X_1 \dots X_n$ be i.i.d.r.v's satisfying $P(X_k = 1) = t, P(X_k = 0) = (1 - t)$. Then define

$$B_n(t; f) = E \left(f \left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \right) \right) = \sum_{k=0}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \binom{n}{k} t^k (1 - t)^{n-k}$$

- ▶ $B_n(t; f)$ is a polynomial in t , called a Bernstein Polynomial.

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Let $t \in [0, 1]$, and let $X_1 \dots X_n$ be i.i.d.r.v's satisfying $P(X_k = 1) = t, P(X_k = 0) = (1 - t)$. Then define

$$B_n(t; f) = E \left(f \left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \right) \right) = \sum_{k=0}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \binom{n}{k} t^k (1 - t)^{n-k}$$

- ▶ $B_n(t; f)$ is a polynomial in t , called a Bernstein Polynomial.
- ▶ Weierstrass Theorem: Let f be continuous on $[0, 1]$, and let $B_n(t; f)$ be as defined above. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{0 \leq t \leq 1} |f(t) - B_n(t; f)| = 0$$

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Let $t \in [0, 1]$, and let $X_1 \dots X_n$ be i.i.d.r.v's satisfying $P(X_k = 1) = t, P(X_k = 0) = (1 - t)$. Then define

$$B_n(t; f) = E \left(f \left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \right) \right) = \sum_{k=0}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \binom{n}{k} t^k (1 - t)^{n-k}$$

- ▶ $B_n(t; f)$ is a polynomial in t , called a Bernstein Polynomial.
- ▶ Weierstrass Theorem: Let f be continuous on $[0, 1]$, and let $B_n(t; f)$ be as defined above. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{0 \leq t \leq 1} |f(t) - B_n(t; f)| = 0$$

- ▶ Proof: Given any small $\epsilon > 0$, uniform continuity allows us to choose δ so that $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ whenever $|x - y| < \delta$. Note that for any value of t , the binomial theorem says that

$$f(t) = f(t) * (t + (1 - t))^n = f(t) * \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} t^k (1 - t)^{n-k}$$

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- Now write $|f(t) - B_n(t; f)| =$

$$\left| \sum_{k=0}^n (f(t) - f(\frac{k}{n})) \binom{n}{k} t^k (1-t)^{n-k} \right| \leq \sum_{|\frac{k}{n} - t| \leq \delta} |\dots| + \sum_{|\frac{k}{n} - t| > \delta} |\dots|$$

- The first sum is bounded by the arbitrarily small ϵ when k/n is close to t , using uniform continuity.

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Now write $|f(t) - B_n(t; f)| =$

$$\left| \sum_{k=0}^n \left(f(t) - f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \right) \binom{n}{k} t^k (1-t)^{n-k} \right| \leq \sum_{|\frac{k}{n}-t| \leq \delta} |\dots| + \sum_{|\frac{k}{n}-t| > \delta} |\dots|$$

- ▶ The first sum is bounded by the arbitrarily small ϵ when k/n is close to t , using uniform continuity.
- ▶ Writing M for $\max(|f|)$ on $[0,1]$, the second sum is bounded by

$$2M * \sum_{|\frac{k}{n}-t| > \delta} \binom{n}{k} t^k (1-t)^{n-k} = 2M * P \left\{ \left| \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} - t \right| > \delta \right\}$$

The Weierstrass Polynomial Approximation Theorem

- ▶ Now write $|f(t) - B_n(t; f)| =$

$$\left| \sum_{k=0}^n (f(t) - f(\frac{k}{n})) \binom{n}{k} t^k (1-t)^{n-k} \right| \leq \sum_{|\frac{k}{n} - t| \leq \delta} |\dots| + \sum_{|\frac{k}{n} - t| > \delta} |\dots|$$

- ▶ The first sum is bounded by the arbitrarily small ϵ when k/n is close to t , using uniform continuity.
- ▶ Writing M for $\max(|f|)$ on $[0,1]$, the second sum is bounded by

$$2M * \sum_{|\frac{k}{n} - t| > \delta} \binom{n}{k} t^k (1-t)^{n-k} = 2M * P \left\{ \left| \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} - t \right| > \delta \right\}$$

- ▶ The VWLLN says that the last probability can be made small by making n large. Thus each of the 2 pieces dominating $|f(t) - B_n(t; f)|$ are small. QED

The Strong Law of Large Numbers

- Strong Law of Large Numbers Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ . Let $\{S_n\} = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ be the corresponding partial sums. Then

$$P\left(\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \mu\right) = 1$$

The Strong Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ Strong Law of Large Numbers Let $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be iidrv's, each having expected value of μ . Let $\{S_n\} = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ be the corresponding partial sums. Then

$$P\left(\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow \mu\right) = 1$$

- ▶ Proof: This requires some measure theory. A subject for another talk.