

# STA 711: Probability & Measure Theory

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## 8 The Laws of Large Numbers

The traditional interpretation of the *probability* of an event  $E$  is its *asymptotic frequency*: the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  of the fraction of  $n$  repeated, similar, and independent trials in which  $E$  occurs. Similarly the “expectation” of a random variable  $X$  is taken to be its *asymptotic average*, the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  of the average of  $n$  repeated, similar, and independent replications of  $X$ . For statisticians trying to make inference about the underlying probability distribution  $f(x | \theta)$  governing observed random variables  $X_i$ , this suggests that we should be interested in the probability distribution for large  $n$  of quantities like the average of the RVs,  $\bar{X}_n \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ .

Three of the most celebrated theorems of probability theory concern this sum. For independent random variables  $X_i$ , all with the same probability distribution satisfying  $E|X_i|^3 < \infty$ , set  $\mu = EX_i$ ,  $\sigma^2 = E|X_i - \mu|^2$ , and  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . The three main results are:

**Laws of Large Numbers:**

$$\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma n} \rightarrow 0 \quad (\text{pr. and a.s.})$$

**Central Limit Theorem:**

$$\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \Rightarrow \text{No}(0, 1) \quad (\text{in dist.})$$

**Law of the Iterated Logarithm:**

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \pm \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2n \log \log n}} = 1.0 \quad (\text{a.s.})$$

Together these three give a clear picture of how quickly and in what sense  $\frac{1}{n}S_n$  tends to  $\mu$ . We begin with the Law of Large Numbers (LLN), first in its “weak” form (asserting convergence *pr.*) and then in its “strong” form (convergence *a.s.*). There are several versions of both theorems. The simplest requires the  $X_i$  to be IID and  $L_2$ ; stronger results allow us to weaken (but not eliminate) the independence requirement, permit non-identical distributions, and consider what happens if we relax the  $L_3$  requirement and allow the RVs to be only  $L_2$  or  $L_1$  (or worse!).

The text covers these things well; to complement it I am going to: (1) Prove the simplest version, and with it the Borel-Cantelli theorems; and (2) Show what happens with Cauchy random variables, which don’t satisfy the requirements (the LLN fails).

### 8.1 Proofs of the Weak and Strong Laws

Here are two simple versions (one Weak, one Strong) of the Law of Large Numbers; first we prove an elementary but very useful result:

**Proposition 1 (Markov’s Inequality)** *Let  $\phi(x) \geq 0$  be non-decreasing on  $\mathbb{R}_+$ . For any random variable  $X \geq 0$  and constant  $a \in \mathbb{R}_+$ ,*

$$P[X \geq a] \leq P[\phi(X) \geq \phi(a)] \leq E[\phi(X)]/\phi(a)$$

To see this, set  $Y := \phi(a)\mathbf{1}_A$  for the event  $A := \{\phi(X) \geq \phi(a)\}$  and note  $Y \leq \phi(X)$  so  $EY \leq E\phi(X)$ .

**Theorem 1 ( $L_2$  WLLN)** Let  $\{X_n\}$  be independent random variables with the same mean  $\mu = E[X_n]$  and uniformly bounded variance  $E(X_n - \mu)^2 \leq B$  for some fixed bound  $B < \infty$ . Set  $S_n := \sum_{j \leq n} X_j$  and  $\bar{X}_n := S_n/n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \leq n} X_j$ . Then:

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) \quad P[|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon] \rightarrow 0. \quad (1)$$

**Proof.**

$$E(S_n - n\mu)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i - \mu)^2 \leq nB$$

so for  $\epsilon > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} P[|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon] &= P[(S_n - n\mu)^2 > (n\epsilon)^2] \\ &\leq E[(S_n - n\mu)^2]/n^2\epsilon^2 \\ &\leq B/n\epsilon^2 \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

□

This Law of Large Numbers is called *weak* because its conclusion is only that  $\bar{X}_n$  converges to zero *in probability* (Eqn (1)); the *strong* Law of Large Numbers asserts convergence of a stronger sort, called *almost sure* convergence (Eqn (2) below). If  $P[|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon]$  were *summable* then by B-C we could conclude almost-sure convergence; unfortunately we have only the bound  $P[|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon] < c/n$  which tends to zero but isn't summable. It is summable along the *subsequence*  $n^2$ , however; our approach to proving a strong LLN is to show that  $|S_k - S_{n^2}|$  isn't too big for any  $n^2 \leq k < (n+1)^2$ .

**Theorem 2 ( $L_2$  SLLN)** Under the same conditions,

$$P[\bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu] = 1. \quad (2)$$

**Proof.** Without loss of generality take  $\mu = 0$  (otherwise subtract  $\mu$  from each  $X_n$ ), and fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Set  $S_n := \sum_{j \leq n} X_j$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} P[|S_n| > n\epsilon] &\leq E|S_n|^2/(n\epsilon)^2 \leq nB/n^2\epsilon^2 = B/n\epsilon^2 \\ P[|S_{n^2}| > n^2\epsilon \text{ i.o.}] &= 0 \text{ by B-C} \Rightarrow S_{n^2}/n^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ a.s. Set} \\ D_n &:= \max_{n^2 \leq k < (n+1)^2} |S_k - S_{n^2}| \\ ED_n^2 &= E \left[ \max_{n^2 \leq k < (n+1)^2} |S_k - S_{n^2}|^2 \right] \\ &\leq E \sum_{n^2 \leq k < (n+1)^2} |S_k - S_{n^2}|^2 = \sum_{n^2 \leq k < (n+1)^2} E|S_k - S_{n^2}|^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{n^2 \leq k < (n+1)^2} (k - n^2)B \leq 4n^2B, \text{ so} \\ P[D_n > n^2\epsilon] &\leq 4n^2B/n^4\epsilon^2 \Rightarrow D_n/n^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ a.s.} \\ \left| \frac{S_k}{k} \right| &\leq \frac{|S_{n^2}| + D_n}{n^2} \rightarrow 0 \text{ a.s. as } k \rightarrow \infty, \text{ where } n = \lfloor \sqrt{k} \rfloor. \end{aligned}$$

□

Each of these LLNs required only that  $\text{Cov}(X_n, X_m) \leq 0$ , not pairwise (let alone full) independence. We'll see below in Section (8.3) that even positive correlations are okay if they fall off fast enough—*e.g.*, if  $|\text{Cov}(X_n, X_m)| \leq ar^n$  for some  $a > 0$ ,  $0 < r < 1$ —with a similar proof. The uniform  $L_2$  bound isn't necessary either. There are a variety of LLNs with either or both of the  $L_2$  bound and independence weakened in some way, but they can't be dispensed with altogether—consider iid Cauchy random variables, for example, to show  $L_2$  isn't entirely superfluous, or  $X_n \equiv X_1$  with any nontrivial distribution to show the need for at least a modicum of independence.

## 8.2 Other Strong Laws

**Lemma 1 (Lévy)** *If  $\{X_n\}$  is an independent sequence then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$  converges pr. if and only if it converges a.s.*

**Lemma 2 (Kronecker)** *Suppose  $\{x_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $0 < a_n \nearrow \infty$ . Then*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_k}{a_k} \text{ converges} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \rightarrow 0.$$

**Theorem 3 (Kolmogorov Convergence Criterion)** *Let  $\{X_n\} \subset L_2$  be an independent sequence with means  $\mu_n := \mathbb{E}X_n$  and variances  $\sigma_n^2 := \mathbb{V}(X_n)$ . Then*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_n^2 < \infty \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (X_n - \mu_n) \text{ converges a.s.}$$

**Theorem 4 (Kronecker  $L_2$  SLLN)** *Let  $\{X_n\} \subset L_2$  be an independent sequence, and let  $\{b_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}_+$  be a monotone sequence such that*

$$\sum_k \mathbb{V}\left(\frac{X_k}{b_k}\right) < \infty.$$

Then

$$\frac{S_n - \mathbb{E}S_n}{b_n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ a.s.}$$

In particular, for iid  $\{X_n\}$  we may take  $b_n = n$ .

**Lemma 3** *The following are equivalent for any iid sequence of random variables:*

1.  $X_1 \in L_1$ .
2.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |X_n/n| = 0$  a.s.
3. For each  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}[|X_1| > n\epsilon] < \infty$ .

The most-cited and most-used version of the Strong Law for iid sequences is that due to Kolmogorov, with no moment assumptions:

**Theorem 5 (Kolmogorov's  $L_1$  SLLN)** *Let  $\{X_n\}$  be iid and set  $S_n := \sum_{i \leq n} X_i$ . There exists  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that*

$$\bar{X}_n = S_n/n \rightarrow c \quad \text{a.s.}$$

*if and only if  $E|X_1| < \infty$ , in which case  $c = EX_1$ .*

This has the pleasant consequence that the usual estimators for the mean and variance of iid sequences are consistent:

**Corollary 1**

$$\begin{aligned} \{X_n\} \subset L_1 &\Rightarrow \bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu \quad \text{a.s.} \\ \{X_n\} \subset L_2 &\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \leq n} (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 \rightarrow \sigma^2 \quad \text{a.s.} \end{aligned}$$

Here's a quick summary of some LLN facts:

- I. Weak version, non-*iid*,  $L_2$ :  $\mu_i = \mathbb{E}X_i$ ,  $\sigma_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[X_i - \mu_i][X_j - \mu_j]$
- A.  $Y_n = (S_n - \sum \mu_i)/n$  satisfies  $\mathbb{E}Y_n = 0$ ,  $\mathbb{E}Y_n^2 = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i \leq n} \sigma_{ii} + \frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i < j \leq n} \sigma_{ij}$ ;
1. If  $\sigma_{ii} \leq M$  and  $\sigma_{ij} \leq 0$  or  $|\sigma_{ij}| < Mr^{|i-j|}$ ,  $r < 1$ ,  
Chebychev  $\implies Y_n \rightarrow 0$ , *pr.*
  2. (pairwise) IID  $L_2$  is OK
- II. Strong version, non-*iid*,  $L_2$ :  $\mathbb{E}X_i = 0$ ,  $\mathbb{E}X_i^2 \leq M$ ,  $\mathbb{E}X_i X_j \leq 0$ .
- A.  $\mathbb{P}[|S_n| > n\epsilon] < \frac{Mn}{n^2\epsilon^2} = \frac{M}{n\epsilon^2}$
1.  $\mathbb{P}[|S_{n^2}| > n^2\epsilon] < \frac{M}{n^2\epsilon^2}$ ,  $\sum_n \mathbb{P}[|S_{n^2}| > n^2\epsilon] < \frac{M\pi^2}{6\epsilon^2} < \infty$
  2. Borel-Cantelli:  $\mathbb{P}[|S_{n^2}| > n^2\epsilon \text{ i.o.}] = 0$ ,  $\therefore \frac{1}{n^2} S_{n^2} \rightarrow 0$  *a.s.*
  3.  $D_n \equiv \max_{n^2 \leq k < (n+1)^2} |S_k - S_{n^2}|$ , so  
 $\mathbb{E}D_n^2 \leq 2n\mathbb{E}|S_{(n+1)^2-1} - S_{n^2}| \leq 4n^2M$
  4. Chebychev:  $\mathbb{P}[D_n > n^2\epsilon] < \frac{4n^2M}{n^4\epsilon^2}$ ,  $\therefore D_n/n^2 \rightarrow 0$  *a.s.*
- B.  $|S_k/k| \leq \frac{|S_{n^2}| + D_n}{n^2} \rightarrow 0$  *a.s.* as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , QED
1. Bernoulli RVs, normal number theorem, Monte Carlo integration.
- III. Weak version, pairwise-*iid*,  $L_1$
- A. Equivalent sequences: If  $\sum_n \mathbb{P}[X_n \neq Y_n] < \infty$ , then:
1.  $\sum_n |X_n - Y_n| < \infty$  *a.s.*
  2.  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  converges iff  $\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$  converges
  3. If  $(\exists a_n \nearrow)(\exists X) \ni \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{i \leq n} X_i \rightarrow X$  then  $\frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{i \leq n} Y_i \rightarrow X$  too.
- B. If  $\{X_n\}$  are iid  $L_1$  then  $X_n, Y_n := X_n 1_{\{|X_n| \leq n\}}$  are equivalent
- IV. Strong version, *iid*,  $L_1$
- A. Kolmogorov: For  $\{X_n\}$  IID,  $(\exists c \ni \bar{X}_n \rightarrow c \text{ a.s.}) \Leftrightarrow (X_n \in L_1)$ .
- V. Counterexamples: Cauchy,
- A.  $X_i \sim \frac{dx}{\pi[1+x^2]} \implies \mathbb{P}[|S_n|/n \leq \epsilon] \equiv \frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1}(\epsilon) \not\rightarrow 1$ , WLLN fails.
  - B.  $\mathbb{P}[X_i = \pm n] = \frac{c}{n^2}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ;  $X_i \notin L_1$ , and  $S_n/n \not\rightarrow 0$  *pr.* or *a.s.*
  - C.  $\mathbb{P}[X_i = \pm n] = \frac{c}{n^2 \log n}$ ,  $n > 1$ ;  $X_i \notin L_1$ , but  $S_n/n \rightarrow 0$  *pr.* and not *a.s.*
  - D. Medians: for ANY RVs  $X_n \rightarrow X_\infty$  *pr.*, then  $m_n \rightarrow m_\infty$  if  $m_\infty$  is unique.

Let  $X_i$  be iid standard Cauchy RVs, with

$$P[X_1 \leq t] = \int_{-\infty}^t \frac{dx}{\pi[1+x^2]} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan(t)$$

and characteristic function (we'll learn more about these next week)

$$E e^{i\omega X_1} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega x} \frac{dx}{\pi[1+x^2]} = e^{-|\omega|},$$

so  $S_n/n$  has characteristic function

$$E e^{i\omega S_n/n} = E e^{i\frac{\omega}{n}[X_1+\dots+X_n]} = \left( E e^{i\frac{\omega}{n} X_1} \right)^n = (e^{-|\frac{\omega}{n}|})^n = e^{-|\omega|}.$$

Thus  $S_n/n$  also has the standard Cauchy distribution with  $P[S_n/n \leq t] = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan(t)$ ; in particular,  $S_n/n$  does not converge almost surely, or even in probability.

### 8.3 An LLN for Correlated Sequences

In many applications we would like a Law of Large Numbers for sequences of random variables that are *not* independent; for example, in Markov Chain Monte Carlo integration, we have a stationary Markov chain  $\{X_t\}$  (this means that the distribution of  $X_t$  is the same for all  $t$  and that the conditional distribution of  $X_u$  for  $u > t$ , given  $\{X_s \mid s \leq t\}$ , depends only on  $X_t$ ) and want to estimate the population mean  $E[\phi(X_t)]$  for some function  $\phi(\cdot)$  by the sample mean

$$E[\phi(X_t)] \approx \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \phi(X_t).$$

Even though they are identically distributed, the random variables  $Y_t \equiv \phi(X_t)$  won't be independent if the  $X_t$  aren't independent, so the LLN we already have doesn't quite apply.

A sequence of random variables  $Y_t$  is called *stationary* if each  $Y_t$  has the same probability distribution and, moreover, each finite set  $(Y_{t_1+h}, Y_{t_2+h}, \dots, Y_{t_k+h})$  has a joint distribution that doesn't depend on  $h$ . The sequence is called " $L_2$ " if each  $Y_t$  has a finite variance  $\sigma^2$  (and hence also a well-defined mean  $\mu$ ); by stationarity it also follows that the *covariance*

$$\gamma_{st} = E[(Y_s - \mu)(Y_t - \mu)]$$

is finite and depends only on the absolute difference  $|t - s|$  (write:  $\gamma_{st} = \gamma(s - t) = \gamma(t - s)$ ).

**Theorem 6** *If a stationary  $L_2$  sequence has a summable covariance, i.e., satisfies  $\sum_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(t)| \leq c < \infty$ , then*

$$E[Y_t] = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} Y_t.$$

*Proof.* Let  $S_T$  be the sum of the first  $T$   $Y_t$ s and set (as usual)  $\bar{Y}_T \equiv S_T/T$ . The variance of  $S_T$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[(S_T - T\mu)^2] &= \sum_{s=0}^{T-1} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{E}[(X_s - \mu)(X_t - \mu)] \\ &\leq \sum_{s=0}^{T-1} \sum_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(s-t)| \\ &\leq Tc, \end{aligned}$$

so  $\bar{Y}_T$  has variance  $\mathbb{V}[\bar{Y}_T] \leq c/T$  and by Chebychev's inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[|\bar{Y}_T - \mu| > \epsilon] &\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\bar{Y}_T - \mu)^2]}{\epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{E}[(S_T - T\mu)^2]}{T^2\epsilon^2} \\ &\leq \frac{Tc}{T^2\epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{c}{T\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

A strong LLN follows with a bit more work, just as for *iid* random variables. Note we didn't need full stationarity. It would be good enough for  $\{Y_t\}$  to be " $2^{nd}$ -order stationary," *i.e.*, to have a common mean  $\mu = \mathbb{E}Y_t$  and a covariance function  $\gamma_{st} = \mathbb{E}(Y_s - \mu)(Y_t - \mu) = \gamma(s-t)$  that depends only on the absolute difference  $|s-t|$ .

### 8.3.1 Examples

1. **IID:** If  $X_t$  are independent and identically distributed, and if  $Y_t = \phi(X_t)$  has finite variance  $\sigma^2$ , then  $Y_t$  has a well-defined finite mean  $\mu$  and  $\bar{Y}_T \rightarrow \mu$ .

$$\text{Here } \gamma_{st} = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & \text{if } s = t \\ 0 & \text{if } s \neq t \end{cases}, \text{ so } c = \sigma^2 < \infty.$$

2. **AR<sub>1</sub>:** If  $Z_t$  are *iid*  $\text{No}(0, 1)$  for  $-\infty < t < \infty$ ,  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sigma > 0$ ,  $-1 < \rho < 1$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} X_t &\equiv \mu + \sigma \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \rho^s Z_{t-s} \\ &= \rho X_{t-1} + \alpha + \sigma Z_t, \end{aligned} \quad (*)$$

where  $\alpha = (1 - \rho)\mu$ , then the  $X_t$  are identically distributed (all with the  $\text{No}(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2})$  distribution) but not independent (since  $\gamma_{st} = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2} \rho^{|s-t|} \neq 0$  for  $s \neq t$ ). This is called an "autoregressive process" (because of equation (\*), expressing  $X_t$  as a regression of previous  $X_s$ s) of order one (because only one earlier  $X_s$  appears in (\*)), and is about the simplest non-*iid* sequence occurring in applications. Since the covariance is summable,

$$\sum_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(t)| = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2} \frac{1+|\rho|}{1-|\rho|} = \frac{\sigma^2}{(1-|\rho|)^2} < \infty,$$

we again have  $\bar{X}_T \rightarrow \mu$  *a.s.* as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ .

3. **Geometric Ergodicity:** If for some  $0 < \rho < 1$  and  $c > 0$  we have  $\gamma_{st} \leq c\rho^{|s-t|}$  for a Markov chain  $Y_t$  the chain is called *Geometrically Ergodic* (because  $c\rho^t$  is a geometric sequence), and the same argument as for  $\text{AR}_1$  shows that  $\bar{Y}_t$  converges; Meyn & Tweedie (1993), Tierney (1994), and others have given conditions for MCMC chains to be Geometric Ergodic, and hence for the almost-sure convergence of sample averages to population means.
4. **General Ergodicity:** Consider the three sequences of random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  with  $\Omega = (0, 1]$  and  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}(\Omega)$ , each with  $X_0(\omega) = \omega$ :
- (a)  $X_{n+1} \equiv 2X_n \pmod{1}$ ;
  - (b)  $X_{n+1} \equiv X_n + \alpha \pmod{1}$  (Does it matter if  $\alpha$  is rational?);
  - (c)  $X_{n+1} \equiv 4X_n(1 - X_n)$ .

For each, find a probability measure  $\mathbb{P}$  (equivalently find a distribution for the random variable  $X_0$ ) such that the  $X_n$  are all identically distributed; the sequence is called *ergodic* if each  $E \in \mathcal{F}$  left invariant by the transformation  $T$  that takes  $X_n$  to  $X_{n+1}$ ,  $E = T^{-1}(E)$ , is “almost trivial” in the sense that  $\mathbb{P}[E] = 0$  or  $\mathbb{P}[E] = 1$ . Birkhoff’s *Ergodic Theorem* asserts that  $\bar{X}_n$  converges almost-surely to a  $T$ -invariant limit  $X_\infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Since only constants are  $T$ -invariant for ergodic sequences, it follows that  $\bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu = \mathbb{E}X_n$ . The conditions here are weaker than those for the usual LLN; in all three cases above, for example, each  $X_n$  is completely determined by  $X_0$  so there is complete dependence!

For any  $L_1$  distribution  $\mu(dx)$  on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ , we can construct iid random variables  $X_n$  on the product probability space  $(\Omega = \mathbb{R}^\infty, \mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}^\infty, \mathbb{P} = \bigotimes \mu_n)$  and a measure-preserving transformation  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  by

$$T(\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \dots) = (\omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \dots),$$

the left-shift. The  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{T} = \{A : A = T^{-1}(A)\}$  of  $T$ -invariant sets is just the tail  $\sigma$ -algebra for the independent random variables  $\{X_n : X_n(\omega) = \omega_n\}$ , so by Kolmogorov’s zero-one law  $\mathcal{T}$  is almost-trivial and so  $T$  is ergodic. It follows from Birkhoff’s Ergodic Theorem that

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$$

converges almost-surely to a  $T$ -invariant and hence almost-surely constant random variable whose value must be  $\mu$ , proving a strong LLN for iid random variables that assumes only  $L_1$ :

**Theorem 7 ( $L_1$  iid SLLN)** Let  $\{X_n\}$  be iid  $L_1$  random variables with mean  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X_n]$ . Set  $S_n = \sum_{j \leq n} X_j$  and  $\bar{X}_n \equiv S_n/n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \leq n} X_j$ . Then:

$$\mathbb{P}[\bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu] = 1.$$