

# Background

$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  - natural #'s

$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$  - integers

sets which can be put into a

1-1 correspondence with  $\mathbb{N}$  are

countably infinite . sets which

have a finite # of elements are

countably finite .

These two <sup>types</sup> are

the countable sets . Usually

countable will mean countably infinite .

$\mathbb{Z}$  is countable . So is  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  + so

is  $\mathbb{Q}$  = set of rationals

$\frac{m}{n}$  ← integers  
 $n \neq 0$

If a set is not

countable it is uncountable .

An example would be  $[0, 1]$  or  $\mathbb{R}$  .

Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots$  be a sequence. Consider

$$\sup \{a_m : m \geq N\} = \text{lub} \{a_m : m \geq N\}$$

(this is either finite or  $+\infty$ ).

Now define

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sup \{a_m : m \geq N\}$$

This is either finite or  $\pm\infty$ . We will denote it by  $\overline{\lim} a_n$ . In the

same way

$$\underline{\lim} a_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \overset{\text{glb}}{\inf} \{a_m : m \geq N\}$$

This is either finite or  $\pm\infty$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a \Leftrightarrow \underline{\lim} a_n = \overline{\lim} a_n = a$$

Also it is always true  $\underline{\lim} a_n \leq \overline{\lim} a_n$ .

This can be extended to  $a(t)$ ,  $-\infty < t < \infty$  in the obvious way so we have

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} a(t)$$

$a_n \rightarrow a$  if  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N$   
such that  $n > N \Rightarrow |a_n - a| < \epsilon$

$a_n \rightarrow a \Rightarrow a_{m_k} \rightarrow a$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$   
where  $\{a_{m_k}\}$  is a subsequence

By convention  $m_1 < m_2 < \dots$   
On the other hand, if every

$a_{m_k} \rightarrow a \Rightarrow a_n \rightarrow a$

Prop Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence of  $\mathbb{R}$ 's.  
If every subsequence  $\{a_{m_k}\}$   
has a further subsequence

$a_{m_{k_j}} \rightarrow a$

then  $a_n \rightarrow a$ .

$a_n \rightarrow a$  if for every rational  
 $\epsilon_n > 0 \exists N$  st  $n \geq N$   
 $\Rightarrow |a_n - a| \leq \epsilon_n$

$a_n \uparrow a$  if  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots$  and  $a_n \rightarrow a$   
 $a_n \downarrow a$  if  $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq \dots$  "

Fact  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = l$  if  $\forall x_n \rightarrow a$   
 $g(x_n) \rightarrow l$ . In fact this is  
 $\Leftrightarrow$  if  $\forall x_n \uparrow a$  or  $x_n \downarrow a$  we have  
 $g(x_n) \rightarrow l$ .

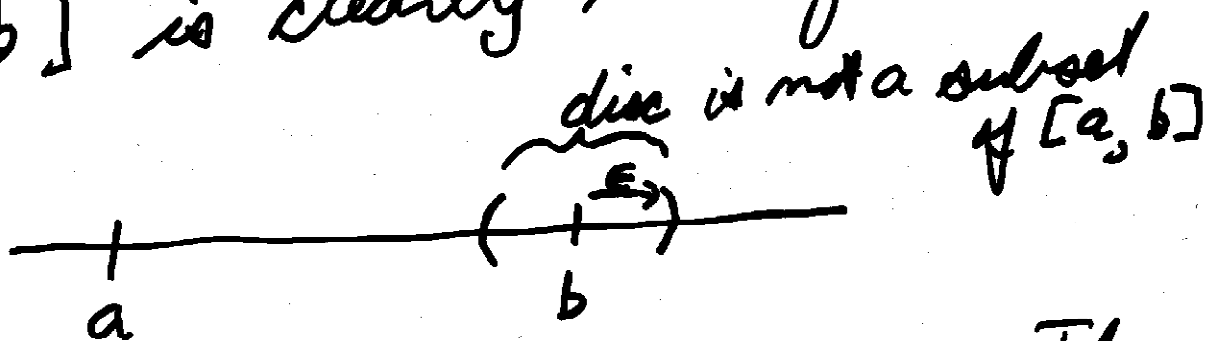
Another way of approaching  $a_n \rightarrow a$ .

$a_n \rightarrow a$  if for every  $\epsilon_n > 0$  only  
a finite number of the statements  
 $|a_n - a| > \epsilon_n$  hold.

$(a, b)$  is an open interval

$\{\underline{x} \mid |\underline{x} - \underline{a}| < \epsilon\}$  is an open disc (the inside of a circle/sphere of radius  $\epsilon$ ). A set  $B \subset \mathbb{R}^k$  is open if for every  $\underline{a} \in B$  there is a disc  $\{\underline{x} \mid |\underline{x} - \underline{a}| < \epsilon\} \subset B$ .

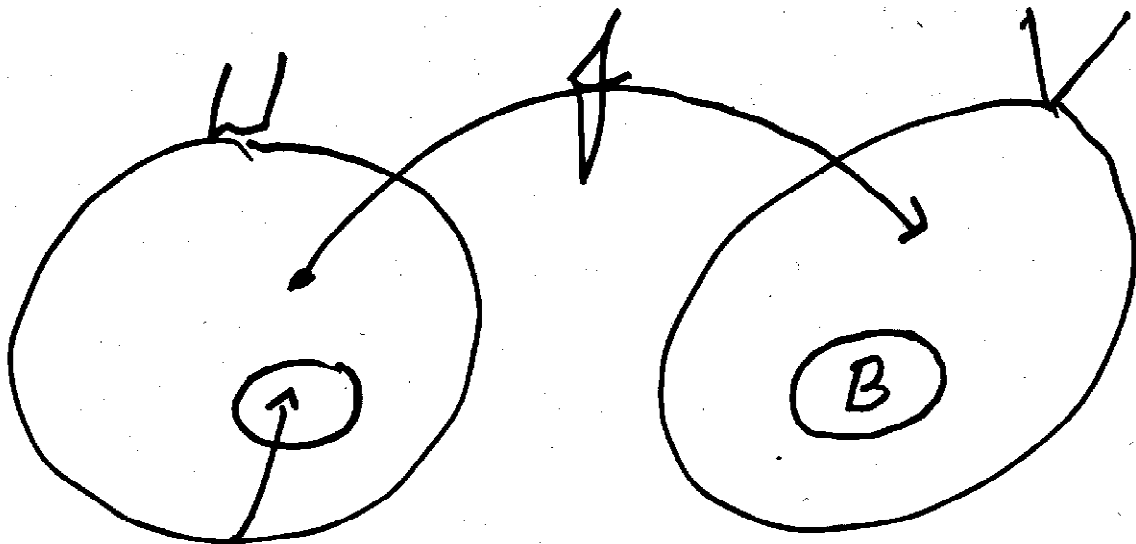
$[a, b]$  is clearly not open



Suppose  $B \subset \mathbb{R}$  is open. Then  $B$  is a countable union of disjoint open intervals.

The rationals are dense in  $\mathbb{R}^{(k)}$

$$f: U \rightarrow V$$



Let  $\mathcal{G}$  = set of subsets of  $V$ .  
Then  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) = \{f^{-1}(B) \mid B \in \mathcal{G}\}$

Let  $\Omega = \{\omega\}$  be a finite set.  
The collection of all subsets of  $\Omega$  is called the power set on  $\Omega$ . This power set includes  $\Omega$  &  $\emptyset$ . The # of elements in this power set is  $2^{|\Omega|}$ .

Now suppose  $\Omega = \mathbb{N}$ . Would the power set be countable? No!  
o.o the # of sequences of the type  $1, 1, 0, 1, 0, \dots$  is uncountable.

Def'n  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field of subsets of  $\Omega$  if

- (i)  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$
- (ii)  $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$
- (iii)  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \bigcup_i A_i \in \mathcal{F}$

Recall  $\left. \begin{aligned} \left( \bigcup_t A_t \right)^c &= \bigcap_t A_t^c \\ \left( \bigcap_t A_t \right)^c &= \bigcup_t A_t^c \end{aligned} \right\} \text{de Morgan}$

Fact If  $\{F_t, t \in T\}$  is a collection of  $\sigma$ -fields then  $\bigcap_{t \in T} F_t$  is a  $\sigma$ -field.  
index set

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ . Clearly

$$\mathcal{C} \subseteq \underbrace{\text{power set}}_{\sigma\text{-field}}$$

$\bigcap_{F \supseteq \mathcal{C}} F$  is the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\mathcal{C}$  & is denoted by  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ . It is the smallest  $\sigma$ -field which includes  $\mathcal{C}$ .



On  $\mathbb{R}^k$  the  $\sigma$ -field generated by the open sets is called the Borel  $\sigma$ -field & denoted by  $\mathcal{B}_k$ . This  $\sigma$ -field is very rich & includes open / closed sets etc...

Now consider

$$X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$ .

If  $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$  then

we say that  $X$  is measurable wrt  $\mathcal{F}$  &  $\mathcal{B}$ .

$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is called a probability space.  
↑  
sample space

$X_m \xrightarrow[\uparrow]{\text{wpl}} X \quad \approx \quad X_m \xrightarrow[\uparrow]{\text{as}} X$   
 "with prob 1"                      "almost surely"

if  $P(\underbrace{\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} X_m}_{\text{r.v.}} = X) = 1$ . This is  $\Leftrightarrow$

$$P(\{\omega \mid X_m(\omega) \not\rightarrow X(\omega)\}) = 0$$

Suppose for each rational  $\epsilon_n > 0$

$$P(\underbrace{|X_m - X| > \epsilon_n \text{ i.o.}}_{\text{infinitely often}}) = 0$$

$A_{\epsilon_n}$  {The event that an  $\infty$  # of  $|X_m - X| > \epsilon_n$ . i.o. stands for "infinitely often".}

Since  $P(\bigcup_{\epsilon_n > 0} A_{\epsilon_n}) \leq \sum_{\epsilon_n > 0} P(A_{\epsilon_n}) = 0$  we

conclude that there is an event  $A^c$  with  $P(A^c) = 1$   
 such that for each  $\epsilon_r > 0$

$$P(\{\omega \in A^c \mid \text{a finite \# of } |X_m(\omega) - X(\omega)| > \epsilon_r\}) = 1$$

Note  $A^c$  does not depend on  $\epsilon_n$ . It then follows

$$X_m \xrightarrow{\text{as}} X$$

## More on convergence

Events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  ( $\infty$  #)

### Borel Cantelli Lemma

(i)  $P(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 0$  if  $\sum P(A_k) < \infty$

(ii)  $A_n$ 's ind &  $\sum P(A_k) = \infty$  then  $P(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 1$

$X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$  ( $X_n \xrightarrow{w.p.1} X$ )

Suppose

$$\sum P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \infty$$

$$\stackrel{\text{BCL}}{\Rightarrow} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon_n \text{ i.o.}) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow$  All  $X_n$  are within  $\epsilon_n$  of  $X$  w.p.1

Now let  $B_n$  be this event st  $P(B_n) = 1$ . Set  $B = \bigcap_n B_n \Rightarrow P(B) = 1$  & on  $B$  all  $X_n$  are within  $\epsilon$  of  $X$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

$\Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$

Lemma Let  $B_n$  be st  $P(B_n) = 1, \forall n \in \mathbb{Q}$   
Then  $P(\bigcap_n B_n) = 1$

Proof  $P((\bigcap_n B_n)^c)$

$$= P(\bigcup_n B_n^c) \leq \sum_n P(B_n^c) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow P((\bigcap_n B_n)^c) = 0 \Rightarrow P(\bigcap_n B_n) = 1$$

qed

$$X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \quad (P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists X_{n_k} \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$$

example Suppose  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  &  $|X_n| \leq W$   
where  $E(W) < \infty$ . Then  $E(X_n) \rightarrow E(X)$

Proof Set  $a_n = E(X_n)$  &  $a = E(X)$ . Let  $a_{n_k}$  be any subsequence of  $\{a_n\}$ .  
Now look at  $X_{n_k} \xrightarrow{p} X$ . Then there is a subsequence of this subsequence, say  $X_{n_{k_i}}$  such that  $X_{n_{k_i}} \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ . Now use the

DCT to get

$$E(X_{m_{k_i}}) \rightarrow E(X)$$

That is

$$a_{m_{k_i}} \rightarrow a$$

$$\therefore a_m \rightarrow a$$

QED

A bit more on  $\sigma$ -fields

$(a, b) \leftarrow$  open interval  $\subset \mathbb{R}$

open subset of  $\mathbb{R}$

closed set = complement of an open set

open set on  $\mathbb{R}$  = countable union of disjoint open intervals

open set on  $\underbrace{\mathbb{R}^m}_{m > 1}$  = countable union of open "intervals"  
 $\{x \mid a < x < b\}$

On  $\mathbb{R}$   $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\text{open sets}) = \text{Borel } \sigma\text{-field}$   
 $= \sigma(\text{open intervals}) = \sigma(\text{closed sets})$

=  $\sigma$  (closed intervals)

=  $\sigma(\{(a, b]\}) = \sigma(\{(-\infty, b]\})$  etc...

Now let  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be cts.

Then  $g^{-1}$ (open set) is open which

means  $g^{-1}(B) \subset B \Rightarrow g$  is

measurable wrt  $B \vee \mathbb{B}$  (also true

$g: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ).

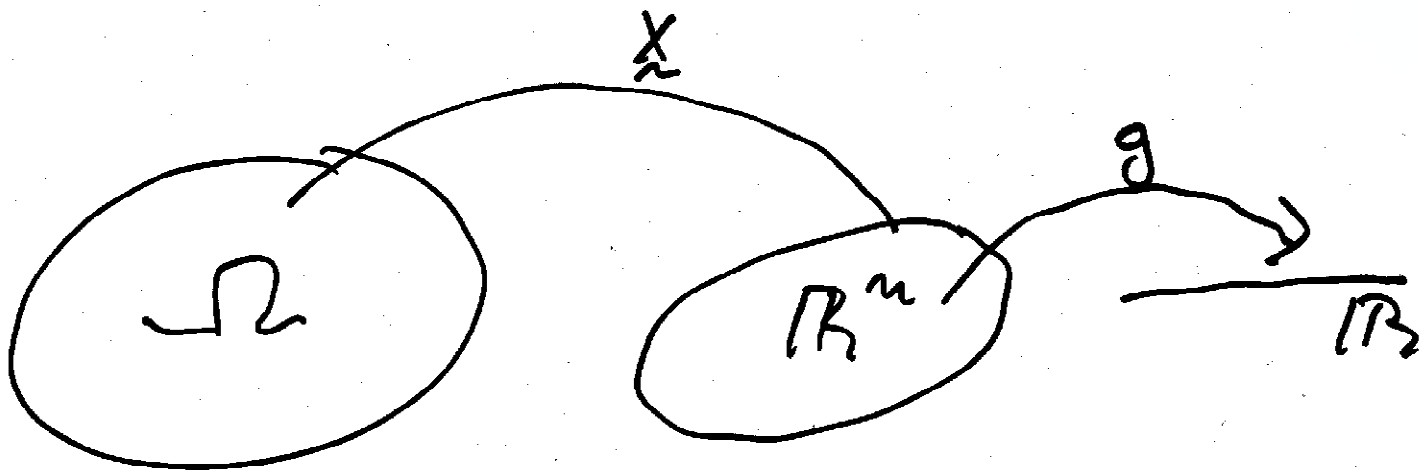
Look at all the cts f'ns  $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and

limits of convergent sequences of

cts f'ns. These are the Baire f'ns  
& they = set of measurable f'ns  
wr't  $\mathbb{B}$

(also true from  $\mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ )

Proposition Let  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be  
a rvec &  $g: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be cts.  
Then  $g(X): \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is measurable.



Take a  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{F}$ . Suppose for the moment that  $\mathcal{F}$  is countable & the nonempty elements of  $\mathcal{F}$  are

$$A_1, A_2, \dots$$

Let  $\vec{z} = (z_1, z_2, \dots)$ .  $\{\vec{z}\}$  is uncountable  
 $\uparrow \quad \nearrow$   
 $0 \text{ or } 1$

$$\text{Set } A^{\vec{z}} = A_1^{z_1} A_2^{z_2} \dots \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} A_m^0 = A_m^c \\ A_m^1 = A_m \end{array} \right)$$

$$A_m = \bigcup_{\substack{\vec{z}: z_m = 1 \\ \wedge A^{\vec{z}} \neq \emptyset}} A^{\vec{z}}$$

$\Rightarrow$  countable # of  $A^{\vec{z}}$  disjoint  $\wedge$  int =  $\emptyset$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$  is uncountable  $\in \mathcal{F}$

## A bit more on rv's & other matters

$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \leftarrow$  probability space  
 $\uparrow$   
 $\sigma$ -field

If  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  &  $P(A) = 0$  &  $A_0 \subset A$  then we will assume  $A_0 \in \mathcal{F}$ . That is  $\mathcal{F}$  is complete.

Recall  $P$  satisfies

1  $P(\Omega) = 1$

$\leftarrow$  finite

2  $P(A) \geq 0$

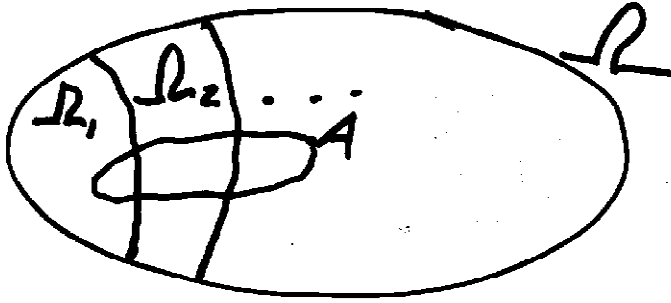
$\leftarrow$  positive

3  $P(\sum A_i) = \sum P(A_i) \leftarrow \sigma$ -additive

Drop 1  $\Rightarrow$  measure  $\mu(A)$ . If  $\Omega$  can be partitioned into sets  $\Omega_1, \Omega_2, \dots$  such that  $\mu(\Omega_i) < \infty$  then  $\mu$  is a  $\sigma$ -finite measure. In this case

$$\mu = \sum P_i$$





$$P_i(A) = \frac{\mu(A \cap \Omega_i)}{\mu(\Omega_i)}$$

Note  $\mu(A) = c_1 P_1(A) + c_2 P_2(A) + \dots$ . The  $P_i$  are restricted to  $\Omega_i$ . In this case

$$\int X d\mu = c_1 \underbrace{\int X dP_1}_{E_1(X)} + c_2 \underbrace{\int X dP_2}_{E_2(X)} + \dots$$

The  $c$ 's are just the  $\mu(\Omega_i)$ . The

DCT & MCT continue to hold for these integrals.

eg Look at  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $\mathcal{B}$   $\leftarrow$  Borel  $\sigma$ -field. Let  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ .

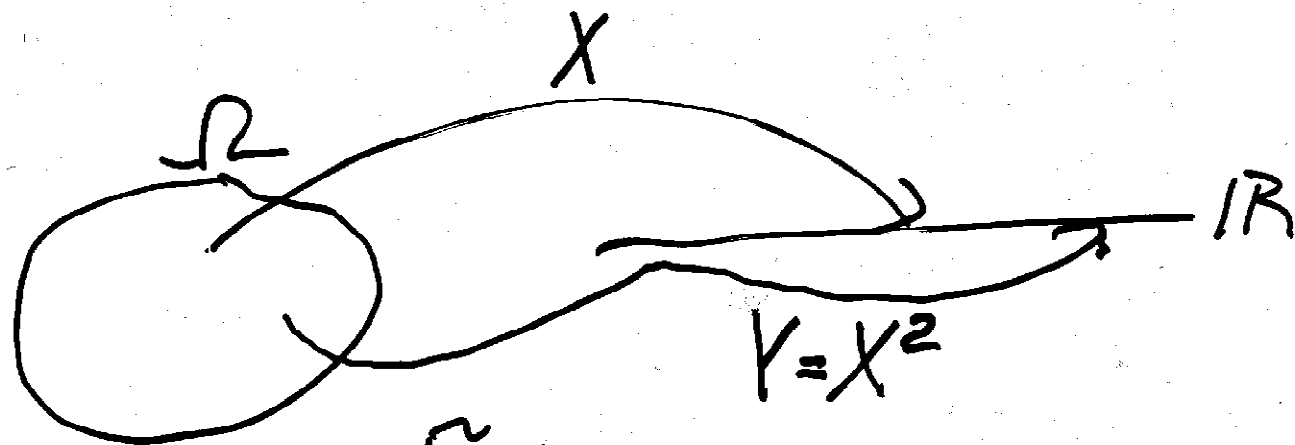
Let  $P_i$  be uniform on  $(i, i+1]$ .

Define the length of  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  as

Lebesgue  $\rightarrow$  measure  $\lambda(B) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} P_i(B)$

+  $\int (\cdot) d\mu$  is the Lebesgue integral. You see it as  $\int g(x) dx$ .

Note  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is mble wrt  $\mathcal{B} \otimes \mathcal{B}$ .



$$\underbrace{X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})}_{\sigma\text{-field}} \subset \mathcal{F}$$

$$Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \subset X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$$

If  $Y = h(X)$  then  $Y^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \subset X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$

Start with  $X \rightarrow \sigma\text{-field } X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$   
 $\sigma\text{-fields which are subsets of } X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$   
 correspond to rv's which are f'ns of  $X$ .

We have defined  $E(Y|X)$  as a function of  $X$ . It is convenient to define  $E(Y|\mathcal{G})$  as that rv which is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable which best predicts  $Y$ . Most of the time (for us)  $\mathcal{G}$  corresponds to a  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{X}$  which is why we started with  $E(Y|X)$

Finally

For any integers  $m, n$   $\exists k, r$  where  $r \in [0, |m|)$  such that  $m = km + r$

Def'n The gcd of integers  $m, n$  is an integer  $k > 0$  such that  $k|m$  &  $k|n$  & if  $l > 0$  divides  $m$  &  $n$  then  $l|k$ .

## Remarks

1 The gcd is just the largest divisor  
2 If  $i, j \geq 0$  have  $\text{gcd} = 1$  then

$$\{c_1 i + c_2 j \mid \underbrace{c_1, c_2}_{\text{integers } \geq 0} \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$$

includes all of  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  except possibly for a finite #. Is this still true for  $i_1, \dots, i_k$  with  $\text{gcd} = 1$ ?

Yes.

EA  $m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \Rightarrow q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ \& } r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  
where  $0 \leq r < n$  such that

$$m = qn + r$$

If  $i, j$  are such that  $\text{gcd} = 1$  then  $\exists$   
integers  $a \times b$  st  $ai + bj = 1$

$\Rightarrow \{c_1 i + c_2 j \mid c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  includes  
all of  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  except possibly a finite #.

Also true for  $i_1, \dots, i_k \geq 0$  with  $\text{gcd} = 1$   
 $\circ \circ \exists$  integers  $a_1, \dots, a_k$  st  $a_1 i_1 + \dots + a_k i_k = 1$

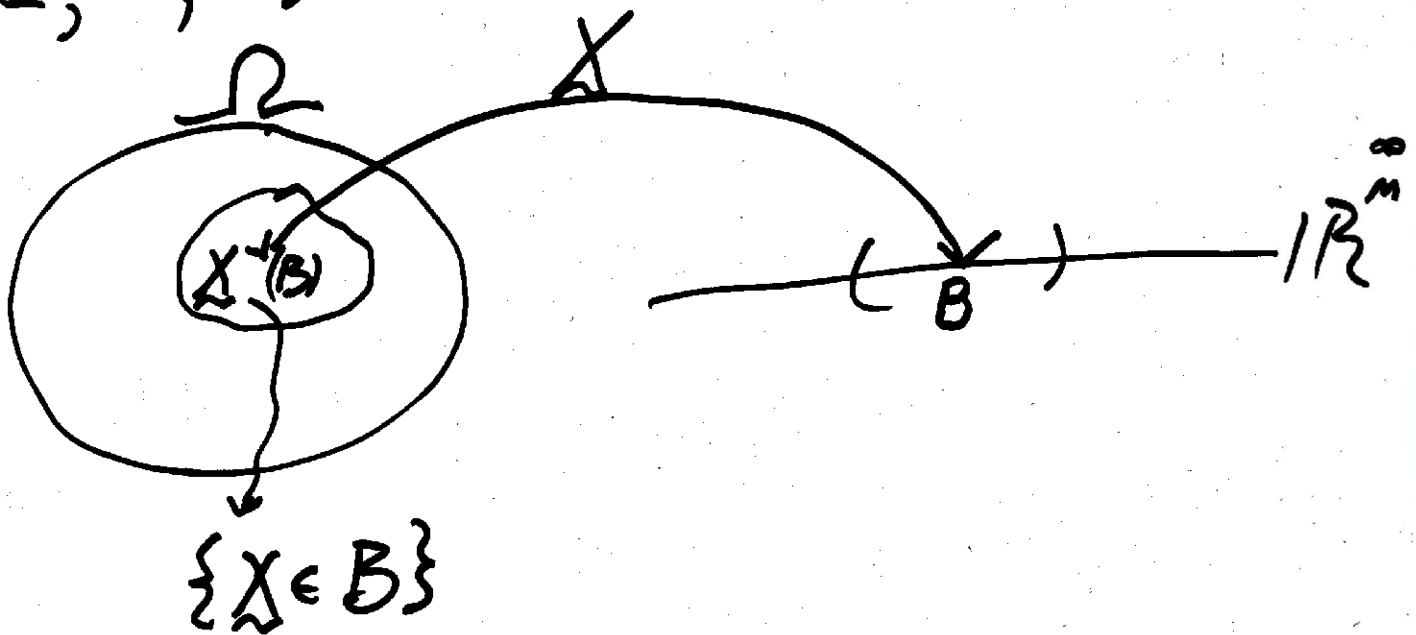
$\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  = Borel  $\sigma$ -field

$\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\mathcal{B}_m$  = " "

$\mathbb{R}^\infty = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^m = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

$\mathcal{B}_\infty$  = Borel  $\sigma$ -field on  $\mathbb{R}^\infty$

$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$



$$X^{-1}(B) \subset \mathcal{F}$$

$\sigma$ -field generated by  $X$  -  $\sigma(X)$

Let  $X \in \mathbb{R}^\infty$  & suppose we want to calculate  $P(X \in B)$ . This can be approximated by  $P(X_n \in B_n)$ .

Notice that for  $\mathcal{B}_1$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ , it is generated by sets of the type

$$\underline{\quad \quad \quad \mathcal{B}_1 \quad \quad \quad}$$

Thus the smallest  $\sigma$ -field including these types of sets is  $\mathcal{B}_1$ . For  $\mathcal{B}_2$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  we generate it by product sets of the type

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{I} \\ \text{I} \\ \hline \text{I} \\ \text{I} \end{array} \quad \boxed{\mathcal{B}_1 \times \mathcal{B}_2}$$

$$\underline{\quad \quad \quad \mathcal{B}_1 \quad \quad \quad}$$

So  $\mathcal{B}_2 = \sigma(\{\mathcal{B}_1 \times \mathcal{B}_2\})$

For  $\mathbb{R}^\infty = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}_\infty = \sigma(\{\mathcal{B}_1 \times \mathcal{B}_2 \times \dots\})$

If  $\tilde{X}$  is a rvec (f'n from  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ )  
 then  $\{ \tilde{X} \in B \}$  in an event in  $\tilde{F}$ . We  
 denote it by  $X^{-1}(B)$ . Formally it  
 is  $\{ \omega : X(\omega) \in B \}$ . The collection  
 of such events,  $\{ X^{-1}(B) : B \in \mathcal{B}_m \}$ ,  
 is a  $\sigma$ -field  $\subset \tilde{F}$  & is denoted  
 by  $\sigma(\tilde{X})$  or  $X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ . Notice  $\tilde{X}$   
 induces the new probability space  
 $(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathcal{B}_m, P_{\tilde{X}})$ , where  $P_{\tilde{X}}(B) = P(\underbrace{X \in B}_{\in \tilde{F}})$   
 Now take  $g: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  to be cts  
 & hence measurable wrt  $\mathcal{B}_m \times \mathcal{B}$ .  
 The composition  $g \circ \tilde{X} = g(\tilde{X})$  is  
 of course measurable wrt  $\tilde{F} \times \mathcal{B}$ .  
 This only requires  $g$  to be mbl  
 wrt  $\mathcal{B}_m \times \mathcal{B}$  (& not necessarily) cts.

Take a countably  $\infty$  # of events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ . We denote the event  $\{\text{an } \infty \# \text{ of the } A_i \text{ occurs}\}$

by  $\{A_n \text{ i.o.}\}$  or just  $\overline{\lim} A_n$ . It is also denoted by  $\bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n \geq m} A_n$ . Notice

$$\overline{\lim} A_n = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n \geq m} A_n$$

## Borel-Cantelli

$$(a) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) < \infty \Rightarrow P(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 0$$

$$(b) A_i \text{ ind.} \ \& \ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) = \infty \Rightarrow P(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 1$$

Proof (a)  $P(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = P\left(\bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n \geq m} A_n\right)$

$$= P\left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \bigcup_{n \geq m} A_n\right)$$

$$= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{n \geq m} A_n\right)$$

$$\leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} P(A_n) \quad (\text{Boole})$$

$$= 0 \quad (\text{series converges})$$



$$\frac{For(b)}{P(\{A_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}^c) = P\left[\left(\bigcap_{n \geq m} A_n\right)^c\right]}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{de Morgan}}{=} P\left(\bigcup_{n \geq m} A_n^c\right)$$

$$= P\left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \bigcap_{n \geq m} A_n^c\right)$$

$$= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcap_{n \geq m} A_n^c\right)$$

$$= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n=m}^{\infty} P(A_n^c) \quad (\text{ind})$$

$$= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n=m}^{\infty} [1 - P(A_n)]$$

$$\leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n=m}^{\infty} e^{-P(A_n)} \quad (e^{-x} \geq 1-x)$$

$$= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} e^{-\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} P(A_n)} = 0$$

qed

Notice that the occurrence of  $\{A_{n^{i_0}}\}$  does not depend on any finite # of the  $A$ 's. It is not a coincidence that  $P(A_{n^{i_0}})$  is either 0 or 1 (in the independent case). This is an example of a Zero-One Law.

By the way, notice

$$\text{eg } X = c \Rightarrow X^{-1}(B) = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$$

↑          ↑  
events have  
prob 0 or 1

This would also be the case if  $X \stackrel{a.s.}{=} c$  (that is,  $X^{-1}(B)$  would consist of events having prob 0 or 1).

Look at a sequence of rv's

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, \underbrace{X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots}_{\sim X}$$

Look at  $\sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots)$

$$\subset \mathcal{F}$$

$$\bigcap_n \sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots) = \underbrace{\text{Tail } \sigma\text{-field}}_{\substack{\text{events} \\ \text{called} \\ \text{Tail events}}}$$

a  $\sigma$ -field

eg Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be iid with mean  $\mu$  & var

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

Let  $A = \{ \bar{X}_n \text{ converges} \}$

This is a tail event!