## Euler Convergence: Probabilistic Considerations

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In mathematical analysis and its applications, the need sometimes arises to generalize the concept of limit of a sequence (or of sum of a series) in order to include cases in which the sequence (or the series) does not converge in the ordinary sense. One of the several methods devised bears Euler's name.

A sequence of real numbers  $\{x_n\}$  is said to converge to x in the sense of Euler (or, usually, to be Euler-convergent) if there exists s in the open interval (0, 1) such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} s^j (1-s)^{n-j} x_j = x.$$

The first key theorem on Euler convergence is as follows:

THEOREM 1. If a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  of real numbers converges to  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  then it converges to the same limit in the sense of Euler for every  $s \in (0, 1)$ .

Euler convergence is used in a natural way in the study of the asymptotic behavior of cyclic Markov chains (see [5], Chapter V). While teaching Markov chains using the approach of [5], we noticed that Theorem 1 could be proved in an elementary manner by relying only on the Chebyshev inequality, which appears in introductory courses in probability. Our proof provides a good chance to practice probabilistic reasoning. For a purely analytical proof of Theorem 1, one is often (e.g., in [3]) referred to [4]. But Hardy's book is hard reading for an undergraduate—even more so since it deals with series rather than with sequences.

A sequence of real numbers may be Euler-convergent without being convergent. Consider, for instance the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  with  $x_{2j} = 1$ ,  $x_{2j+1} = 0$   $(j \ge 0)$ , which does not converge. As for Euler convergence, notice that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} x_{j} = \sum_{\substack{j=0\\j \text{ even}}}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j};$$

this latter sum represents the probability that a binomial random variable  $S_n$  takes an even value. Here  $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ , where the  $X_j$ 's are Bernoulli random variables with  $P(X_n = 1) = s$ . By the binomial theorem,

$$\sum_{\substack{j=0\\j \text{ even}}}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} + \sum_{\substack{j=0\\j \text{ odd}}}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} = (s+1-s)^{n} = 1,$$

and

$$\sum_{\substack{j=0\\j \text{ even}}}^{n} \binom{n}{j} (-s)^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} + \sum_{\substack{j=0\\j \text{ odd}}}^{n} \binom{n}{j} (-s)^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} = (1-2s)^{n}.$$

Adding the last two equations yields

$$P\left(\bigcup_{\substack{j \text{ even }}} \{S_n = j\}\right) = \sum_{\substack{j=0\\j \text{ even }}}^n \binom{n}{j} s^j (1-s)^{n-j} = \frac{1 + (1-2s)^n}{2};$$

this tends to 1/2 as *n* tends to  $\infty$ .

Now we prove that Euler convergence is implied by ordinary convergence.

Proof of Theorem 1. Since

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} {n \choose j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} = (s+1-s)^{n} = 1,$$

it suffices to consider sequences that converge to zero. Let  $\{x_n\}$  be such a sequence. For a fixed  $\varepsilon \in (0, s)$  there exists  $\nu \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|x_n| < \varepsilon$  for every  $n \ge \nu$ . Now let  $\lambda := \max\{|x_j| : j = 0, 1, ...\}$  Then, for  $n > \nu$ , we have

$$\begin{split} \left| \sum_{j=0}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} x_{j} \right| &\leq \left| \sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} x_{j} \right| + \left| \sum_{j=\nu}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} x_{j} \right| \\ &< \lambda \sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} + \varepsilon \sum_{j=\nu}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} \\ &< \lambda \sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} + \varepsilon. \end{split}$$

Notice that if  $n > (\nu - 1)/(s - \varepsilon)$  then  $ns - (\nu - 1) > n\varepsilon$  and, a fortiori,  $ns - j > n\varepsilon$  for  $j = 0, 1, ..., \nu - 1$ . Finally, observe that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1} \binom{n}{j} s^j (1-s)^{n-j} = P\left(\bigcup_{j=0}^{\nu-1} \{S_n = j\}\right) \le P\left(|S_n - ns| \ge n\varepsilon\right).$$

Now, since the variance of the binomial distribution is equal to ns(1-s) if  $s \in (0,1)$  is the probability of success, Chebyshev's inequality yields

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1} \binom{n}{j} s^j (1-s)^{n-j} \le \frac{ns(1-s)}{n^2 \varepsilon^2} \le \frac{1}{4n\varepsilon^2} \to 0.$$

Therefore,

$$\left|\sum_{j=0}^{n} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} x_{j}\right|$$

tends to zero as  $n \to \infty$ .

Alternatively, in a more analytical vein, one could avoid recourse to the Chebysbev inequality by considering the sum

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1} \binom{n}{j} s^{j} (1-s)^{n-j} \tag{1}$$

and noting that the number of terms  $(\nu)$  is fixed, and that the binomial coefficient tends to infinity like  $n^j$  while the factor  $(1-s)^{n-j}$  tends to zero exponentially. Thus each term in the sum (1), and hence the whole sum, tends to zero. Even this second approach has a probabilistic meaning: it is well-known (see, e.g., [7; Section 3.3]) that the terms of the binomial distribution increase in j from 0 to (n + 1)s and decrease when j runs from (n + 1)s + 1 to n. Since  $\nu$  is fixed , the sum (1) represents, when n goes to infinity, the ever-decreasing probability of the tail of the binomial distribution.

The first proof given above is an adaptation of the argument used by Bernstein [1] in his proof of the Weierstrass theorem on uniform approximation by polynomials of all functions that are continuous on a closed interval. A modern presentation can be found in the exercises of [6] or in [2].

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