# 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 $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ 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

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=0}^{n}\binom{n}{j} s^{j}(1-s)^{n-j} x_{j}=x
$$

The first key theorem on Euler convergence is as follows:
Theorem 1. If a sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ 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 $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ with $x_{2 j}=1, x_{2 j+1}=0(j \geq 0)$, 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 $P\left(X_{n}=1\right)=s$. 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

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

Adding the last two equations yields

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1}\binom{n}{j} s^{j}(1-s)^{n-j}=P\left(\bigcup_{j=0}^{\nu-1}\left\{S_{n}=j\right\}\right) \leq P\left(\left|S_{n}-n s\right| \geq n \varepsilon\right) .
$$

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

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{\nu-1}\binom{n}{j} s^{j}(1-s)^{n-j} \leq \frac{n s(1-s)}{n^{2} \varepsilon^{2}} \leq \frac{1}{4 n \varepsilon^{2}} \rightarrow 0
$$

Therefore,

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

tends to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
Alternatively, in a more analytical vein, one could avoid recourse to the Chebysbev inequality by considering the sum

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

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].

## REFERENCES

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