

**ALMOST NONE OF THE SEQUENCES OF 0's AND 1's  
ARE ALMOST CONVERGENT**

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**Abstract.** We establish that, in the sense of the Law of Large Numbers, almost none of the sequences of 0's and 1's are assigned the same value by every Banach limit.

**KEYWORDS AND PHRASES.** Banach limit, almost convergence

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The result established in this note is precisely the result promised in the title. To place the theorem in perspective, however, it will be helpful to recall a few definitions and a fundamental result of probability theory.

First we recall an extremely useful extension of the usual notion of convergence. A sequence  $x = (x_n)$  is said to be Cesaro summable to  $s$  provided  $\lim_n n^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k = s$ . If  $x$  is Cesaro summable to  $s$ , we write  $C\text{-}\lim x = s$ .

Banach limits provide the first step in developing another extension of the usual definition of convergence.

**DEFINITION.** A real valued function  $f$  defined on the bounded real number sequences is a Banach limit provided

- (1)  $f(ax + by) = af(x) + bf(y)$ ,
- (2)  $f(x) \geq 0$  if  $x_n \geq 0$ ,  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ,
- (3)  $f(x) = f(Tx)$  where  $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) = (x_2, x_3, \dots)$
- (4)  $f(e) = 1$  where  $e = (1, 1, \dots)$

for all bounded real sequences  $x = (x_n)$ ,  $y = (y_n)$  and real numbers  $a, b$ .

The existence of Banach limits can be established by a corollary of the Hahn-Banach theorem [1]. G.G. Lorentz used these functionals to give meaning to the phrase "almost convergent to  $s$ ."

**DEFINITION.** A bounded real sequence  $x$  is almost convergent to  $s$  provided  $f(x) = s$  for every Banach limit  $f$ .

The notions of Cesaro summability and almost convergence both extend the usual concept of convergence in a non-trivial fashion. Straightforward applications of the definitions yield that  $C\text{-}\lim x = \lim x = f(x)$  for every convergent sequence  $x$  and every Banach limit  $f$ . It can also be

readily established (from the definitions) that the sequence  $0, 1, 0, 1, \dots$  is both Cesaro summable and almost convergent to  $1/2$ .

Lorentz also characterized the almost convergent sequences as being the ‘uniformly’ Cesaro summable sequences.

**THEOREM [4].** *A bounded real sequence  $x = (x_n)$  is almost convergent to  $s$  if and only if*

$$\lim_k k^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k x_{n+i} = s$$

*uniformly with respect to  $n$ .*

An elegant proof of Lorentz’s theorem which also yields the existence of Banach limits is given by G. Bennett and N. Kalton in [2]. Observe that if a sequence is almost convergent to  $s$  then it must also be Cesaro summable to  $s$ .

We now establish the framework for computing the promised probability.

We let  $\Omega = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\Sigma$  denote the  $\sigma$ -field of subsets generated by the coordinate projections and  $P$  denote the natural ‘fair coin’ probability measure defined on  $\Sigma$ .

Now let  $(X_n)$  be the sequence of  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued random variables defined on  $\Omega$  by  $X_n(\omega) = \omega_n$ ;  $(X_n)$  is a sequence of independent identically distributed random variables, each with expected value  $1/2$ . Observe that if we set  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ , the Law of Large Numbers yields that

$$P[\omega \in \Omega : \lim_n S_n(\omega)/n = 1/2] = 1$$

or equivalently

$$P[\omega \in \Omega : C\text{-}\lim_n \omega_n = 1/2] = 1$$

This early version of the law of large numbers was known to Emile Borel [3]. In more conventional language we have established that almost all of the sequences of 0’s and 1’s are Cesaro summable to  $1/2$ .

Borel’s Law of Large Numbers indicates that the Cesaro method is, in the sense of measure, extremely effective on  $\Omega$ . We now show that the method of almost convergence is not nearly as effective.

**THEOREM.** *Almost none of the sequences of 0’s and 1’s are almost convergent.*

**PROOF:** Borel’s theorem together with Lorentz’s criterion tells us that almost all of the  $\omega$ ’s in  $\Omega$  that are almost convergent are almost convergent to  $1/2$ .

Lorentz’s criterion also tells us that if  $\omega \in \Omega$  satisfies the condition that for each  $k \geq 2$  there is an  $n$  such that

$$X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \dots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) = k,$$

then  $\omega$  is not almost convergent to  $1/2$ . Alternatively, if  $\omega \in \Omega$  is almost convergent to  $1/2$ , the there is a  $k \geq 2$  for which, regardless of  $n$ , we have

$$X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \dots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) < k$$

With this in mind, let  $k \geq 2$  and define

$$A_k = \bigcap_{n \geq 1} [\omega \in \Omega : X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \cdots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) < k].$$

Now observe that the independence of the sequence  $(X_n)$  implies that of the sequence

$$(X_{nk+1} + \cdots + X_{nk+k})_{n \geq 1};$$

correspondingly, given  $j$

$$\begin{aligned} & P\left[\bigcap_{n \geq 1}^j \omega \in \Omega : X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \cdots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) < k\right] \\ &= \prod_{n=1}^j P[\omega \in \Omega : X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \cdots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) < k] \\ &= (1 - 2^{-k})^j \end{aligned}$$

since each event  $[\omega \in \Omega : X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \cdots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) < k]$  has probability  $1 - 2^{-k}$ . Since

$$A_k \subset \bigcap_{n \geq 1}^j [\omega \in \Omega : X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \cdots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) < k]$$

it follows that  $P(A_k) \leq (1 - 2^{-k})^j$  for all  $j$ , i.e.,  $P(A_k) = 0$ , and so  $P(\bigcup_{k \geq 2} A_k) = 0$ .

Now set  $F = \Omega - \bigcup_{k \geq 2} A_k$  and note that  $P(F) = 1$ . By construction, if  $\omega \in F$  then for each  $k \geq 2$  there is an  $n$  such that

$$X_{nk+1}(\omega) + \cdots + X_{nk+k}(\omega) = k,$$

or equivalently,

$$(\omega_{nk+1} + \cdots + \omega_{nk+k})/k = 1.$$

This shows us that  $\omega$  is not almost convergent to  $1/2$ . Since

$$F \subset \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \text{ is not almost convergent to } 1/2\},$$

we have established that  $P[\omega \in \Omega : \omega \text{ is almost convergent}] = 0$ . ■

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