

Definition 5.5. The sequence of probability measures $\{P_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges generally to the measure P , denoted by $P_n \Longrightarrow P$ if

$$P_n(E) \rightarrow P(E) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ for all } E \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } P(\partial E) = 0,$$

where $\partial E = \bar{E} \cap \overline{E^c}$ is the boundary of E and \bar{E} is the closure of E .

Theorem 5.8. The following convergence statements are equivalent:

1. $P_n \xrightarrow{w} P$,
2. $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \leq P(E)$ if $E \in \mathcal{B}$ is closed,
3. $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \geq P(E)$ if $E \in \mathcal{B}$ is open,
4. $P_n \Longrightarrow P$.

Proof. (1. \implies 2.) Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and define $|x - E| = \inf\{|x - y| : y \in E\}$, $E(\varepsilon) = \{x : |x - E| < \varepsilon\}$ for $\varepsilon > 0$, $f(x) = I_E(x)$,

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 - x, & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

and $f_\varepsilon(x) = g(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}|x - E|)$. Note that if $x \in E(\varepsilon)$ then $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}|x - E| < 1$ and $f_\varepsilon(x) > 0$. Also, if $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$ then $E(\varepsilon) \downarrow E$. Since g is bounded and continuous, so is f_ε . Now,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f dP_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}} I_E P_n = P_n(E) \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_\varepsilon dP_n. \quad (5.4)$$

The inequality follows because if $x \in E$, $\varepsilon^{-1}|x - E| = 0$ and $f_\varepsilon(x) = g(0) = 1 = I_E(x)$, but if $x \notin E$ then $\varepsilon^{-1}|x - E| > 0$ and $f_\varepsilon(x) = g(\varepsilon^{-1}|x - E|) \geq 0 = I_E(x)$. Then, taking limits on both sides of equation (5.4) gives

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_\varepsilon dP_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_\varepsilon dP$$

where the last equality follows from the fact that f_ε is continuous and bounded on \mathbb{R} and the assumption that 1) holds. But

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_\varepsilon dP \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} I_{E(\varepsilon)} dP = P(E(\varepsilon)) \quad (5.5)$$

where the inequality follows from the fact that if $x \in E(\varepsilon)$ then $\varepsilon^{-1}|x - E| < 1$ and consequently $0 < f_\varepsilon(x) \leq 1 = I_{E(\varepsilon)}$. If $x \notin E(\varepsilon)$ then $f_\varepsilon(x) = 0 = I_{E(\varepsilon)}$. Consequently, combining equations (5.4) and (5.5) we obtain $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \leq P(E(\varepsilon))$. Given that if $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$, $E(\varepsilon) \downarrow E$, by continuity of probability measure we have $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \leq P(E)$.

(2. \implies 3.) If E is open, then E^c is closed. Thus, from 2) $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E^c) \leq P(E^c)$. But since $P_n(E^c) = 1 - P_n(E)$ and $P(E^c) = 1 - P(E)$ we have

$$1 + \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-P_n(E)) \leq 1 - P(E) \iff 1 - \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \leq 1 - P(E) \iff \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \geq P(E).$$

It is evident from this argument that (3. \implies 2.).

(3. \implies 4.) The interior of E , denoted by $\text{int}(E)$, is open and $\text{int}(E) = E - \partial E$. Since, 2. and 3. are equivalent and $\text{int}(E)$ is open and \bar{E} is closed we have

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(\bar{E}) \leq P(\bar{E}), \quad (5.6)$$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \geq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(\text{int}(E)) \geq P(\text{int}(E)). \quad (5.7)$$

But if $P(\partial E) = 0$ then $P(\bar{E}) = P(\text{int}(E)) = P(E)$ and $P_n(E) \rightarrow P(E)$ whenever $P(\partial E) = 0$, i.e., $P_n \implies P$.

(4. \implies 1.) Let f be bounded and continuous with $|f| < C$ and define

$$D = \{d \in \mathbb{R} : P(\{x : f(x) = d\}) > 0\}.$$

Now, choose $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^k$ such that $y_0 = -C < y_1 < \dots < y_k = C$. $d \in D$ implies $P(f^{-1}(\{d\})) > 0$. Since f is a function, for any two $d \neq d'$ such that $d, d' \in D$ we have $f^{-1}(\{d\}) \cap f^{-1}(\{d'\}) = \emptyset$, and since $P \leq 1$, there can be at most countably many elements in D . Suppose $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^k \not\subseteq D$

and $B_i = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : y_i \leq f(x) < y_{i+1}\}$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$. Then,

$$\partial B_i = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : y_i = f(x)\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{R} : y_{i+1} = f(x)\} = f^{-1}(y_i) \cup f^{-1}(y_{i+1})$$

and $P(\partial B_i) = 0$ since $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^k \not\subseteq D$. Since, $\text{int}(B_i) = B_i - \partial B_i$ we have that $P(B_i) = P(\text{int}(B_i))$ and by 4) $P_n(B_i) - P(B_i) \rightarrow 0$. Consequently,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P_n(B_i) \rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P(B_i). \quad (5.8)$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} f dP_n - \int_{\mathbb{R}} f dP \right| &\leq \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} f dP_n - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P_n(B_i) \right| + \left| \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P_n(B_i) - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P(B_i) \right| \\ &\quad + \left| \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P(B_i) - \int_{\mathbb{R}} f dP \right| \\ &\leq 2 \max_{0 \leq i \leq k-1} (y_{i+1} - y_i) + \left| \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P_n(B_i) - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i P(B_i) \right|. \end{aligned}$$

By equation (5.8) and the fact that $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^k$ are arbitrary we have the result. ■

Recall that with a random variable $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ we can associate a distribution function $F_X(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ with the following properties:

- (i) F_X is non-decreasing,
- (ii) F_X is right-continuous,
- (iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_X(x) = 1, \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$.

Let $C(F_X) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : F_X \text{ is continuous at } x\}$ and note that $C(F_X)^c$ is a countable set.

Definition 5.6. Let F_n, F_X be distribution functions associated with random variables X_n, X with $n = 1, 2, \dots$. We say that X_n converges in distribution to X and write $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ if

$$F_n(x) \rightarrow F_X(x), \text{ for all } x \in C(F_X).$$

In this case, we write $F_n \implies F_X$ and say that F_n converges generally to F_X .

Theorem 5.9. *The following statements are equivalent:*

1. $P_n \xrightarrow{w} P$,
2. $P_n \implies P$,
3. $F_n \xrightarrow{w} F$,
4. $F_n \implies F$.

Proof. We have proved that 1. and 2. are equivalent. In addition, by construction 1. and 3. are equivalent, so we need only show that 2 and 4 are equivalent.

(2. \implies 4.) Since $P_n \implies P$ we have, in particular, that

$$P_n((-\infty, x]) \rightarrow P((-\infty, x])$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $P(\{x\}) = 0$. But this means that $F_n \implies F$.

(4. \implies 2.) We need to prove that $P_n \implies P$, but since by Theorem [5.8](#) we have that $P_n \implies P$ is equivalent to $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \geq P(E)$ if $E \in \mathcal{B}$ is open, this is what we will establish. Since E is an open set in \mathbb{R} it can be written as $E = \cup_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{I}_k$ where $\mathcal{I}_k = (a_k, b_k)$ are component intervals (disjoint). Let $\epsilon > 0$ and for each \mathcal{I}_k choose $\mathcal{I}'_k = (a'_k, b'_k]$ a sub-interval such that a'_k, b'_k are points of continuity of F and $P(\mathcal{I}_k) \leq P(\mathcal{I}'_k) + 2^{-k}\epsilon$. The existence of these intervals is assured by the fact that F has at most countable many discontinuities.

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) &= \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P_n(\mathcal{I}_k) \\ &\geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(\mathcal{I}_k) \text{ by Fatou's Lemma} \\ &\geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(\mathcal{I}'_k). \end{aligned}$$

But by 4. we have that $P_n(\mathcal{I}'_k) = F_n(b'_k) - F_n(a'_k) \rightarrow F(b'_k) - F(a'_k) = P(\mathcal{I}'_k)$. Hence,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(E) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(\mathcal{I}'_k) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (P(\mathcal{I}_k) - 2^{-k}\epsilon) = P(E) - \epsilon.$$

Since ϵ is arbitrary the proof is complete. ■

Remark 5.2. 1. *Convergence in distribution says nothing about $X_n(\omega)$, rather it focuses on F_n , as $n \rightarrow \infty$. For example, let $X_n = (-1)^n \mathcal{Z}$ where $\mathcal{Z} \sim N(0, 1)$. Then, let $f_{\mathcal{Z}}(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}x^2\}$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. For n odd,*

$$\begin{aligned} F_n(x) &= P(\{\omega : X_n(\omega) \leq x\}) = P(\{\omega : -\mathcal{Z} \leq x\}) = P(\{\omega : \mathcal{Z} \geq -x\}) \\ &= 1 - P(\{\omega : \mathcal{Z} < -x\}) = 1 - \int_{(-\infty, -x)} f_{\mathcal{Z}}(y) dy \\ &= \int_{[-x, \infty)} f_{\mathcal{Z}}(y) dy = \int_{(-\infty, x]} f_{\mathcal{Z}}(y) dy = F_{\mathcal{Z}}(x). \end{aligned}$$

The next to last equality follows from $f_{\mathcal{Z}}(z) = f_{\mathcal{Z}}(-z)$. For n even it is obvious that $F_n(x) = F_{\mathcal{Z}}(x)$. Hence, $F_n(x) = F_{\mathcal{Z}}(x)$, for all n and trivially $F_n(x) \rightarrow F_{\mathcal{Z}}(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

However, if $E_n = \{\omega : |X_n(\omega) - \mathcal{Z}(\omega)| < \epsilon\}$, then $E_1 = \{\omega : |-\mathcal{Z}(\omega) - \mathcal{Z}(\omega)| < \epsilon\} = \{\omega : |\mathcal{Z}| < \epsilon/2\}$, $E_2 = \Omega, \dots$. Hence, there is no limit for $\{P(E_n)\}_{n=1,2,\dots}$ and $X_n \not\rightarrow \mathcal{Z}$ (neither does $X_n \xrightarrow{as} \mathcal{Z}$). This shows that convergence in distribution is a very weak mode of convergence relative to the ones we have seen so far.

2. *Contrary to other modes of convergence, here there is no need to have the random variables defined in the same probability space.*

Theorem 5.10. (Continuous Mapping Theorem) *Let $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random variables and X be a random variable such that $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Let $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous at every point of a set C such that $P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in C\}) = 1$. Then,*

$$h(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} h(X).$$

Proof. For any closed set G let $E_n = \{\omega : h(X_n(\omega)) \in G\} = \{\omega : X_n(\omega) \in h^{-1}(G)\} = X_n^{-1}(h^{-1}(G))$. Note that $P(E_n) = P(X_n^{-1}(h^{-1}(G))) = P_n(h^{-1}(G))$ and

$$h^{-1}(G) \subseteq \overline{h^{-1}(G)} \subseteq h^{-1}(G) \cup C^c. \quad (5.9)$$

The first set containment follows from the fact that every set is a subset of its closure. For the second set containment, note that

$$\overline{h^{-1}(G)} = (\overline{h^{-1}(G)} \cap C) \cup (\overline{h^{-1}(G)} \cap C^c) \subseteq (\overline{h^{-1}(G)} \cap C) \cup C^c$$

Now, $(\overline{h^{-1}(G)} \cap C) = (h^{-1}(G) \cup [h^{-1}(G)]^D) \cap C = (h^{-1}(G) \cap C) \cup ([h^{-1}(G)]^D \cap C)$, where $[h^{-1}(G)]^D$ is the derived set of $h^{-1}(G)$.¹ If $x \in [h^{-1}(G)]^D$ there exists a sequence $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in h^{-1}(G) \iff \{h(x_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in G$ such that $x_n \rightarrow x$. Furthermore, if $x \in C$, then if $x_n \rightarrow x$ we have that $h(x_n) \rightarrow h(x)$ and $h(x) \in G$ since G is closed. But $x \in [h^{-1}(G)]^D$ implies $x \notin h^{-1}(G) \iff h(x) \notin G$. Hence, $[h^{-1}(G)]^D \cap C = \emptyset$ and $\overline{h^{-1}(G)} \subseteq h^{-1}(G) \cup C^c$.

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(E_n) &= \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(h^{-1}(G)) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(\overline{h^{-1}(G)}) \\ &\leq P_X(\overline{h^{-1}(G)}), \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from part 2 of Theorem 5.8. Since $P_X(C^c) = 0$, we have from 5.9 that $P_X(\overline{h^{-1}(G)}) \leq P_X(h^{-1}(G))$ and we have

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(h^{-1}(G)) \leq P_X(h^{-1}(G)).$$

Repeating the argument in the opposite direction completes the proof.

■

Theorem 5.11. Let D be dense² in \mathbb{R} . Suppose $F_D : D \rightarrow [0, 1]$ satisfies:

¹The collection of its limit points.

²A set S is dense in \mathbb{R} if $\bar{S} = \mathbb{R}$ where $\bar{S} = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : S \cap B(x, \epsilon) \neq \emptyset \text{ for all } \epsilon > 0\}$ is the closure of the set S and $B(x, \epsilon) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : |y - x| < \epsilon\}$.

1. F_D is non-decreasing on D .

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_D(x) = 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_D(x) = 1$ for $x \in D$.

Now, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ define

$$F(x) := \inf_{y > x, y \in D} F_D(y) = \lim_{y \downarrow x, y \in D} F_D(y).$$

Then, F is a right continuous distribution function. Thus, any two right continuous functions that coincide on a dense set D , coincide on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Since D is dense in \mathbb{R} , for all $\delta > 0$ there exists $x' \in D$ such that $x' \in B(x, \delta)$. Take $x' > x$ and note that by right-continuity and monotonicity of F_D , there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$F_D(x') - \lim_{y \downarrow x, y \in D} F_D(y) = F_D(x') - F(x) \leq \epsilon \implies F_D(x') \leq F(x) + \epsilon \quad (5.10)$$

For $y \in (x, x')$, and since by definition $F(y) = \inf_{z > y, z \in D} F_D(z)$

$$F(y) \leq F_D(x'). \quad (5.11)$$

Thus, equations (5.10) and (5.11) give $F(y) \leq F(x) + \epsilon$ for all $y \in (x, x')$. Consequently, as $y \downarrow x$, $\lim_{y \downarrow x} F(y) \leq F(x)$. But monotonicity of F gives

$$\lim_{y \downarrow x} F(y) \geq F(x).$$

Thus, the last two inequalities give $F(x) = \lim_{y \downarrow x} F(y)$, establishing right-continuity of F .

■

The next theorem establishes uniqueness of weak limits of distribution functions.

Theorem 5.12. *If $F_n \implies F$ and $F_n \implies G$, then $F = G$.*

Proof. By De Morgan's Laws $C(F)^c \cup C(G)^c = (C(F) \cap C(G))^c = \mathbb{R} - (C(F) \cap C(G))$, which implies that $C(F) \cap C(G) = \mathbb{R} - (C(F)^c \cup C(G)^c)$, where $C(F)^c \cup C(G)^c$ is a countable set. Now, if $x \in C(F) \cap C(G)$, $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$ and $F_n(x) \rightarrow G(x)$, hence $F = G$ in $C(F) \cap C(G)$, since limits are unique. But note that $C(F) \cap C(G)$ is dense in \mathbb{R} . To see this, let $C \subset \mathbb{R}$, C countable. For each $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ($x \in C$ or not), $B(x, \epsilon)$ contains uncountable many points. Hence, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the set $(\mathbb{R} - C) \cap B(x; \epsilon)$ is nonempty for all $\epsilon > 0$, so $x \in \overline{\mathbb{R} - C}$. Thus $\mathbb{R} - C \subseteq (\mathbb{R} - C) \cup C = \mathbb{R} \subseteq \overline{\mathbb{R} - C}$. Thus, F and G coincide on a dense set of \mathbb{R} . But since any two distribution functions coinciding on a dense set of \mathbb{R} coincide everywhere, $F = G \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$. ■

Theorem 5.13. *Let X_n, Y_n, W_n, X, Y be random variables defined on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) .*

1. $X_n - Y_n \xrightarrow{p} 0, Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y \implies X_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$
2. $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$
3. $X_n \xrightarrow{d} c \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ where c is a constant
4. $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X, Y_n \xrightarrow{d} a, W_n \xrightarrow{p} b$ where a, b are constant, then $Y_n X_n + W_n \xrightarrow{d} aX + b$, if $a \neq 0$.

Proof. 1. $A_n = \{\omega : |X_n - Y_n| < \epsilon\}$, $B_n = \{\omega : X_n \leq x\}$, $C_n = \{\omega : Y_n \leq x + \epsilon\}$, $D_n = \{\omega : Y_n > x - \epsilon\}$ for any $\epsilon > 0$ and $x \in C(F_Y)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X_n}(x) &= P(\{\omega : X_n(\omega) \leq x\}) = P(B_n) = P(B_n \cap A_n) + P(B_n \cap A_n^c) \\ 1 - F_{X_n}(x) &= P(B_n^c) = P(B_n^c \cap A_n) + P(B_n^c \cap A_n^c). \end{aligned}$$

Now, $B_n \cap A_n = \{\omega : X_n \leq x \text{ and } |X_n - Y_n| < \epsilon\} = \{\omega : X_n \leq x \text{ and } X_n - \epsilon < Y_n < X_n + \epsilon\} \subset \{\omega : Y_n \leq x + \epsilon\} = C_n$. $B_n^c \cap A_n = \{\omega : X_n > x \text{ and } X_n - \epsilon < Y_n < X_n + \epsilon\} \subset \{\omega : x - \epsilon < Y_n\} = D_n$. Thus,

1. $F_{X_n}(x) = P(B_n) \leq P(C_n) + P(A_n^c) = F_{Y_n}(x + \epsilon) + P(A_n^c)$
2. $1 - F_{X_n}(x) = P(B_n^c) \leq P(D_n) + P(A_n^c) = 1 - F_{Y_n}(x - \epsilon) + P(A_n^c)$, or $F_{X_n}(x) \geq F_{Y_n}(x - \epsilon) - P(A_n^c)$.

That is,

$$F_{Y_n}(x - \epsilon) - P(A_n^c) \leq F_{X_n}(x) \leq F_{Y_n}(x + \epsilon) + P(A_n^c).$$

Since $x \in C(F_Y)$ and $P(A_n^c) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ we have that as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$,

$$F_Y(x) \leq \liminf F_{X_n}(x) \leq \limsup F_{X_n}(x) \leq F_Y(x).$$

Hence, $\lim F_{X_n}(x)$ exists and $\lim F_{X_n}(x) = F_Y(x)$.

2. In 1. let $Y_n = X$.

3. $\{\omega : |X_n - c| > \epsilon\} = \{\omega : X_n > c + \epsilon \text{ or } X_n < c - \epsilon\} = \{\omega : X_n > c + \epsilon\} \cup \{\omega : X_n < c - \epsilon\}$

and

$$\begin{aligned} P(\{\omega : |X_n - c| > \epsilon\}) &= P(\{\omega : X_n > c + \epsilon\}) + P(\{\omega : X_n < c - \epsilon\}) \\ &= 1 - F_{X_n}(c + \epsilon) + F_{X_n}(c - \epsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Since $X_n \xrightarrow{d} c$, $F_c(x) = 0$ for all $x < c$ and $F_c(x) = 1$, for all $x \geq c$. Hence, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\{\omega : |X_n - c| > \epsilon\}) = 0$.

4. $W_n - b = Y_n X_n + W_n - Y_n X_n - b = Y_n X_n + W_n - (Y_n X_n + b) \xrightarrow{p} 0$ by assumption. By 1. it suffices to show that $Y_n X_n + b \xrightarrow{d} aX + b$. $Y_n X_n + b - (aX_n + b) = (Y_n - a)X_n$. If $(Y_n - a)X_n \xrightarrow{p} 0$, then it suffices to show that $aX_n + b \xrightarrow{d} aX + b$. Now, let $G_n = F_{aX_n + b}$, that is

$$\begin{aligned} G_n(x) &= P(\{\omega : aX_n + b \leq x\}) = P(\{\omega : aX_n \leq x - b\}) \\ &= P\left(\left\{\omega : X_n \leq \frac{x - b}{a}\right\}\right) \\ &= F_{X_n}\left(\frac{x - b}{a}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Then, $F_{X_n}(\frac{x-b}{a}) \rightarrow F_X(\frac{x-b}{a})$ for $\frac{x-b}{a} \in C(F_X)$. $F_X(\frac{x-b}{a}) = P(\{\omega : X \leq \frac{x-b}{a}\}) = P(aX + b \leq x) = F_{aX+b}(x)$. So, $aX_n + b \xrightarrow{d} aX + b$. We now show that $(Y_n - a)X_n = C_n X_n \xrightarrow{p} 0$. Let $c > 0$. If $-c, c \in C(F_X)$, $P(|X_n| > c) \rightarrow P(|X| > c)$. That is, $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N_\epsilon$ such that $n \geq N_\epsilon$, $-\epsilon \leq P(|X_n| > c) - P(|X| > c) \leq \epsilon$ or $P(|X| > c) - \epsilon \leq P(|X_n| > c) \leq P(|X| > c) + \epsilon$. Choose c such that $P(|X_n| > c) < \delta$, then $P(|X_n| > c) < \delta + \epsilon$. Since $Y_n - a \xrightarrow{p} 0$ and $P(|X_n| > c) < \delta + \epsilon$, $C_n X_n \xrightarrow{p} 0$. ■

Chapter 6

Laws of large numbers

We first discuss the notion of “tail equivalence” of a sequence of random variables. Here, the Borel-Cantelli Lemma is very useful. Recall that it says that if $\{E_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of events with $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(E_n) < \infty$, then $P\left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n\right) = 0$.

Definition 6.1. *Two sequences of random variables $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are tail equivalent if*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(\{\omega : X_n(\omega) \neq Y_n(\omega)\}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(\{\omega : X_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega) \neq 0\}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) < \infty,$$

where $A_n = \{\omega : X_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega) \neq 0\}$.

Theorem 6.1. *Suppose $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are tail equivalent. Then,*

1. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (X_n - Y_n)$ converges almost surely,
2. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$ converges as $\iff \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Y_n$ converges as,
3. If there exists $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ and if there exists a random variable X such that $a_n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, then $a_n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$.

Proof. 1. By tail equivalence and the Borel-Cantelli Lemma $P\left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n\right) = 0$. Now, recall that

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n.$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} (\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n)^c &= (\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n)^c = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n^c = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} (\cup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m)^c \\ &= \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} \cap_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m^c = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{\omega : X_n(\omega) = Y_n(\omega)\}\right) &= P\left(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c\right) = 1 - P\left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n\right) \\ &= P\left(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{\omega : X_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega) = 0\}\right) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c = \{\omega : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} I_{A_n}(\omega) < \infty\}$. Thus, $P(\{\omega : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} I_{A_n}(\omega) < \infty\}) = 1$. Hence, there exists a set of ω 's which occurs with probability 1, and in this set $X_n(\omega) = Y_n(\omega)$ for all but finitely many n . That is, for $\omega \in \{\omega : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} I_{A_n}(\omega) < \infty\}$ there are only finitely many n for which $I_{\{X_n(\omega) \neq Y_n(\omega)\}}(\omega) = 1$. That is, there exists $N(\omega)$ such that for all $n > N(\omega)$, $I_{\{X_n(\omega) \neq Y_n(\omega)\}}(\omega) = 0$. Hence, in this same set,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n(\omega) - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Y_n(\omega) = \sum_{n=1}^{N(\omega)} (X_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega)) < \infty \text{ with probability 1 (w.p.1).}$$

Hence, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (X_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega))$ converges almost surely.

2. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Y_n(\omega) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n(\omega) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Y_n(\omega) - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n(\omega) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n(\omega) - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (X_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega))$. But both terms on the right-hand side of the last equality converge almost surely. Hence, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Y_n(\omega) < \infty$ *as*.

3.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j(\omega) &= \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=1}^n [Y_j(\omega) - X_j(\omega) + X_j(\omega)] \\ &= \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=1}^n (Y_j(\omega) - X_j(\omega)) + \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j(\omega) \\ &= \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} (Y_j(\omega) - X_j(\omega)) + \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=N}^n (Y_j(\omega) - X_j(\omega)) + \frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j(\omega). \end{aligned}$$

As $n \rightarrow \infty$ the last term converges as to $X(\omega)$ by assumption. The second term converges to zero since $Y_j(\omega)$ and $X_j(\omega)$ are tail equivalent (and by 1), and the first term goes to 0 as $a_n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence, $\frac{1}{a_n} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j(\omega) \xrightarrow{as} X(\omega)$.

■

The following concepts and notation will be useful.

Definition 6.2. Let $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random variables defined on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and $\{s_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in $(0, \infty)$. We write,

1. $X_n = O_p(s_n)$ if for all $\epsilon > 0$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $B_\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$P\left(\left\{\omega : \frac{|X_n(\omega)|}{s_n} > B_\epsilon\right\}\right) < \epsilon$$

2. $X_n = o_p(s_n)$ if $\frac{X_n}{s_n} \xrightarrow{p} 0$.

Theorem 6.2. (General Law of Large Numbers) Suppose $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of independent random variables defined on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$. If

1. $\sum_{j=1}^n P(\{\omega : |X_j(\omega)| > n\}) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

2. $\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega : |X_j| \leq n\}}) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

then $\frac{S_n}{n} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j I_{\{\omega : |X_j| \leq n\}}) \xrightarrow{p} 0$.

Proof. Let $T_{n,j}(\omega) = X_j(\omega) I_{\{\omega : |X_j| \leq n\}}$ and $S'_n = \sum_{j=1}^n T_{n,j}$. Note that $\{\omega : X_j(\omega) \neq T_{n,j}(\omega)\} = \{\omega : |X_j(\omega)| > n\}$ and by assumption $\sum_{j=1}^n P(\{\omega : T_{n,j}(\omega) \neq X_j(\omega)\}) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Note also that

$$|S_n - S'_n| = \left| \sum_{j=1}^n X_j - \sum_{j=1}^n T_{n,j} \right| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - T_{n,j}|.$$

Thus, for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\{\omega : |S_n - S'_n| > \epsilon\} \subseteq \left\{ \omega : \sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - T_{n,j}| > \epsilon \right\} \subseteq \cup_{j=1}^n \{\omega : |X_j(\omega) - T_{n,j}(\omega)| > \epsilon/n\}.$$

Consequently,

$$P(\{\omega : |S_n - S'_n| > \epsilon\}) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n P(\{\omega : |X_j(\omega) - T_{n,j}(\omega)| > \epsilon/n\}) = \sum_{j=1}^n P(\{\omega : |X_j| > n\}).$$

Taking limits on both sides as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have that $S_n - S'_n \xrightarrow{p} 0$ since by assumption 1 $\sum_{j=1}^n P(\{\omega : |X_j| > n\}) \rightarrow 0$.

Now, since $\{X_n\}_{n=1,2,\dots}$ is an independent sequence $E((T_{n,k} - E(T_{n,k}))(T_{n,l} - E(T_{n,l}))) = 0$ and consequently $V(S'_n) = \sum_{j=1}^n V(T_{n,j}) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n E(T_{n,j}^2)$. Note also that for given n

$$E(T_{n,j}^2) = \int_{\Omega} X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq n\}} dP \leq n^2 \int_{\Omega} dP = n^2.$$

Consequently, since $V(S'_n)$ exists for every n , and by Chebyshev's Inequality,

$$P\left(\left\{\omega : \left|\frac{S'_n - E(S'_n)}{n}\right| > \epsilon\right\}\right) \leq \frac{V(S'_n)}{n^2 \epsilon^2} \leq \frac{1}{n^2 \epsilon^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| < n\}}).$$

Taking limits on both sides as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and by the assumption that $\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| < n\}}) \rightarrow 0$, we have $\frac{S'_n}{n} - \frac{E(S'_n)}{n} \xrightarrow{p} 0$. Now, since

$$\frac{S_n}{n} - E\left(\frac{S'_n}{n}\right) = \frac{S_n}{n} - \frac{S'_n}{n} + \frac{S'_n}{n} - E\left(\frac{S'_n}{n}\right)$$

we can immediately conclude that $\frac{S_n}{n} - E\left(\frac{S'_n}{n}\right) = o_p(1)$. Finally, from the definition of S'_n we have that $\frac{S_n}{n} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq n\}}) = o_p(1)$. ■

We now provide examples where conditions 1 and 2 in the statement of Theorem [6.2](#) hold.

Example 6.1. Let $\{X_n\}_{n=1,2,\dots}$ be an independent and identically distributed sequence of random variables with $E(X_n) = \mu$, $E(X_n^2) \leq C < \infty$. Then, we verify condition 1 by noting that the identical distribution assumption and Markov's Inequality

$$\sum_{j=1}^n P(|X_j| > n) = nP(|X_1| > n) \leq n \frac{E(X_1^2)}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n} E(X_1^2) \leq \frac{C}{n}.$$

Taking limits on both sides as $n \rightarrow \infty$ gives $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n P(|X_j| > n) = 0$. For condition 2, note that by the identical distribution assumption

$$\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{|X_j| \leq n\}}) = \frac{1}{n} E(X_1^2 I_{\{|X_1| \leq n\}}) \leq \frac{1}{n} E(X_1^2) \leq \frac{C}{n}.$$

Again, taking limits on both sides as $n \rightarrow \infty$ gives $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{|X_j| \leq n\}}) = 0$.

Finally, observe that

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j I_{\{|X_j| \leq n\}})}{n} = E(X_1 I_{\{|X_1| \leq n\}}) \rightarrow E(X_1) = \mu$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem. Thus, $\frac{1}{n} S_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$.

Example 6.2. Let $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an independent and identically distributed sequence with $E(|X_1|) \leq C < \infty$ and let $E(X_1) = \mu$. For condition 1, note that

$$\sum_{j=1}^n P(|X_j| > n) = nP(|X_1| > n) = E(nI_{\{\omega: |X_1| > n\}}).$$

But since $nI_{\{\omega: |X_1| > n\}} \leq |X_1| I_{\{\omega: |X_1| > n\}}$, we have that

$$\sum_{j=1}^n P(|X_j| > n) \leq E(|X_1| I_{\{\omega: |X_1| > n\}})$$

Consequently, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n P(|X_j| > n) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(|X_1| I_{\{\omega: |X_1| > n\}})$. And since $E(|X_1|) < C$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(|X_1| I_{\{\omega: |X_1| > n\}}) = 0$.

For condition 2, note that by the identical distribution assumption

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq n\}}) &= \frac{1}{n} E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq n\}}) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} (E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq \epsilon\sqrt{n}\}}) + E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: \epsilon\sqrt{n} \leq |X_j| \leq n\}})) \text{ for any } \epsilon \in (0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

Since $E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq \epsilon\sqrt{n}\}}) = \int_{\Omega} X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq \epsilon\sqrt{n}\}} dP \leq n\epsilon^2 \int_{\Omega} dP = n\epsilon^2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq n\}}) &\leq \epsilon^2 + \frac{1}{n} E(|X_j| |X_j| I_{\{\omega: \epsilon\sqrt{n} \leq |X_j| \leq n\}}) \\ &\leq \epsilon^2 + \frac{1}{n} E(n|X_j| I_{\{\omega: \epsilon\sqrt{n} \leq |X_j| \leq n\}}) \\ &\leq \epsilon^2 + E(|X_j| I_{\{\omega: \epsilon\sqrt{n} \leq |X_j| \leq n\}}) \end{aligned}$$

Taking limits on both sides as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and noting that $E(|X_1|) < C$, we have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(|X_j| I_{\{\omega: \epsilon \sqrt{n} \leq |X_j|\}}) = 0.$$

And, since ϵ can be made arbitrarily small, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq n\}}) = 0$. Consequently, $\frac{S_n}{n} - E(X_1 I_{\{\omega: |X_1| \leq n\}}) \xrightarrow{p} 0$. Lastly, note that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\int_{\Omega} X_1 dP - \int_{\Omega} X_1 I_{\{|X_1| \leq n\}} dP \right) = \int_{\Omega} X_1 dP - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} X_1 I_{\{|X_1| \leq n\}} dP = E(X_1) - E(X_1) = 0$$

by the previous example. Hence,

$$\frac{S_n}{n} - E(X_1) = \frac{S_n}{n} + E(X_1 I_{\{|X_1| \leq n\}}) - E(X_1 I_{\{|X_1| \leq n\}}) - E(X_1) = o_p(1) + o(1) = o_p(1).$$

Example 6.3. Suppose $\{X_n\}_{n=1,2,\dots}$ is an independent and identically distributed sequence with $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} xP(|X_1| > x) = 0$. For condition 1, given the identically distributed assumption, we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^n P(|X_j| > n) = nP(|X_1| > n) \rightarrow 0$$

by assumption. For condition 2, note that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^n E(X_j^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_j| \leq n\}}) &= \frac{1}{n} E(X_1^2 I_{\{\omega: |X_1| \leq n\}}) = \frac{1}{n} \int_{|x| \leq n} x^2 dF_{X_1}(x) \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \int_{|x| \leq n} \left(\int_0^{|x|} s ds \right) dF_{X_1}(x) = \frac{2}{n} \int_0^n s \left(\int_{s < |x| \leq n} dF_{X_1}(x) \right) ds \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \int_0^n s (P(|X_1| \leq n) - P(|X_1| < s)) ds \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \int_0^n s (1 - P(|X_1| > n) - 1 + P(|X_1| \geq s)) ds \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \int_0^n s (P(|X_1| \geq s) - P(|X_1| > n)) ds \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \int_0^n \tau(s) ds - 2P(|X_1| > n) \frac{1}{n} \int_0^n s ds, \text{ where } \tau(s) = sP(|X_1| > s) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \int_0^n \tau(s) ds - 2P(|X_1| > n) \frac{1}{n} \frac{n^2}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \int_0^n \tau(s) ds - nP(|X_1| > n) = \frac{1}{n} \int_0^n \tau(s) ds - \tau(n). \end{aligned}$$

Since, $\tau(n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have that for all $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N_ϵ such that if $n > N_\epsilon$, $\tau(n) \leq \epsilon$. Consequently,

$$\frac{1}{n} \int_0^n \tau(s) ds = \frac{1}{n} \int_0^{N_\epsilon} \tau(s) ds + \frac{1}{n} \int_{N_\epsilon}^n \tau(s) ds \leq \frac{1}{n} \int_0^{N_\epsilon} \tau(s) ds + \epsilon.$$

Taking limits on both sides as $n \rightarrow \infty$ gives $\frac{1}{n} \int_0^n \tau(s) ds \rightarrow 0$. Then, $\frac{S_n}{n} - E(X_1 I_{|X_1| \leq n}) \xrightarrow{p} 0$.

The following is called Markov's Law of Large Numbers.

Theorem 6.3. (Markov's LLN) Let $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of independent random variables with $E(X_n) = \mu_n$. If for some $\delta > 0$ we have $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{E|X_n - \mu_n|^{1+\delta}}{n^{1+\delta}} < \infty$,

$$S_n - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \xrightarrow{p} 0.$$

Proof. Exercise. ■

We call Theorem [6.2](#) a Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN). A stronger result for independent and identically distributed random sequences is Kolmogorov's Strong LLN. We state it without proof.

Theorem 6.4. (Kolmogorov's SLLN) Let $\{X_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence of IID random variables and set $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. There exists a real number C such that

$$\frac{S_n}{n} \xrightarrow{as} C \iff E(|X_1|) < \infty.$$

In this case, $C = E(X_1)$.