## Math 525: Lecture 9

February 1, 2018

# 1 Convergence of random variables

In a previous lecture, we saw that (roughly speaking)  $B(n, \frac{\lambda}{n}) \to \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  as  $n \to \infty$ . But what does " $\to$ " mean here? More generally, consider a sequence of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  What does it mean for this sequence to converge? Are there multiple notions of convergence available? Which notions of convergence are useful? This will be the topic of today's lecture.

**Definition 1.1.** The sequence  $(X_n)_n$  of random variables converges pointwise to a random variable X if  $X_n(\omega) \to X(\omega)$  for each  $\omega$  in the sample space.

This is the usual definition of pointwise convergence for functions, but it's not the most useful in probability. Why? Consider two random variables X and Y which are equal to a.s., but we can find  $\omega$  such that  $X(\omega) \neq Y(\omega)$ . Then, the alternating sequence  $X, Y, X, Y, \ldots$  does not have a pointwise limit, even though the two random variables are "essentially" the same!

The above discussion implies that we need a weaker notion of convergence when it comes to probability:

**Definition 1.2.** Let  $(X_n)_n$  be a sequence of random variables and X be a random variable.

1.  $(X_n)_n$  converges in probability to X if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\right\} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

- 2.  $(X_n)_n$  converges to X with probability one or almost everywhere (a.e.) if  $X_n(\omega) \to X(\omega)$  for all  $\omega \notin \Lambda$  where  $\mathbb{P}(\Lambda) = 0$ .
- 3.  $(X_n)_n$  converges to X in  $\mathbb{L}^p$  if  $X^p$  is integrable and

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left|X_n - X\right|^p\right] \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

We write  $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathbb{L}^p} X$  in this case. When p = 1, we call this "convergence in mean".

4. Let  $F_n$  and F denote the distribution functions of  $X_n$  and X, respectively.  $(X_n)_n$  converges to X in distribution if  $F_n(x) \to F(x)$  for all continuity points of F. We write  $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} X$  in this case.

Some notions of convergence are stronger than others:

**Proposition 1.3.** If  $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathbb{L}^p} X$ , then  $X_n \to X$  in probability.

*Proof.* This is a consequence of Chebyshev's inequality:

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\right\} \le \frac{1}{\epsilon^p} \mathbb{E}\left[|X_n - X|^p\right] \to 0.$$

**Proposition 1.4.** If  $X_n \to X$  a.e., then  $X_n \to X$  in probability.

*Proof.* Suppose  $X_n \to X$  pointwise for all  $\omega \notin \Lambda$  where  $\mathbb{P}(\Lambda) = 1$ . Let

$$Z_n = \sup_{k \ge n} |X_k - X|$$

and note that  $\lim_n Z_n = \lim \sup_n |X_n - X|$ . Therefore,

$$X_n(\omega) \to X(\omega) \iff Z_n(\omega) \to 0.$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and

$$\Gamma_n^{\epsilon} = \{Z_n \geq \epsilon\}.$$

If  $\omega \in \cap_n \Gamma_n^{\epsilon}$ , then  $Z(\omega) \to 0$ , and hence  $\cap_n \Gamma_n^{\epsilon} \subset \Lambda$ . Moreover, note that these sets are decreasing in containment:

$$\Gamma_1^{\epsilon} \supset \Gamma_2^{\epsilon} \supset \cdots$$

Therefore,  $\mathbb{P}(\Gamma_n^{\epsilon}) \to \mathbb{P}(\cap_n \Gamma_n^{\epsilon}) \leq \mathbb{P}(\Lambda) = 0$ . Since  $|X_n - X| \leq Z_n$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{|X_n - X| \ge \epsilon\right\} \le \mathbb{P}(\Gamma_n^{\epsilon}) \to 0.$$

The converse of the above is not true in general:

**Example 1.5.** Let  $Y \sim U[0,1]$  and define

$$X_{1} = 1$$

$$X_{2} = I_{[0,1/2]}(Y)$$

$$X_{3} = I_{(1/2,1]}(Y)$$

$$X_{4} = I_{[0,1/4]}(Y)$$

$$X_{5} = I_{(1/4,1/2]}(Y)$$
:

Note that  $X_n \to 0$  in probability. However, there is no  $\omega$  for which  $X_n(\omega) \to 0$ !

It is not trivial that a limit of a sequence of random variables is a random variable itself, so we prove that next. As a technical point, since limits may introduce values of  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$ , we need to work with random variables which can take on infinite values:

**Definition 1.6.** Let  $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, +\infty\}$  denote the *extended real line*. An *extended real valued (ERV) random variable* is a function  $X : \Omega \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  such that

$$\{X \le x\} \in \mathcal{F} \quad \text{for all } x \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}.$$

**Proposition 1.7.** Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  be ERV random variables. Then, M, m, and  $X_{\infty}$  are also ERV random variables where

1. 
$$M(\omega) = \sup X_n(\omega)$$
.

2. 
$$m(\omega) = \limsup_{n \to \infty} X_n(\omega)$$
.

3. 
$$X_{\infty}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \lim_{n} X_{n}(\omega) & \text{if the limit exists} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that by taking the negation of the first two, we find that  $\inf X_n$  and  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} X_n$  are also ERV random variables.

Proof.

- 1. We need to show that  $\{\omega \colon M(\omega) \leq x\} = \bigcap_n \{\omega \colon X_n(\omega) \leq x\}$  is in  $\mathcal{F}$  for any  $x \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ . Since it is a countable intersection of sets in  $\mathcal{F}$ , the desired result follows.
- 2. Note that  $m = \inf_n Y_n$  where  $Y_n = \sup_{k \ge n} X_k$ . We know by the previous point that  $Y_n$  is an ERV random variable for each n. Therefore,  $\sup_n -Y_n = -\inf_n Y_n$  is an ERV random variable, and so too is m.
- 3. Let

$$\Lambda_{\infty} = \left\{ \omega \colon \limsup_{n} X_{n}(\omega) = \liminf_{n} X_{n}(\omega) \right\}.$$

This set is in  $\mathcal{F}$ , and hence we can define the random variable

$$Y_n = I_{\Lambda_{\infty}} X_n.$$

The desired result follows because

$$\limsup_{n} Y_n = \lim_{n} X_n$$

is an extended real-valued random variable.

#### 2 Borel-Cantelli lemma

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $(\Lambda_n)_n$  be a sequence of subsets of  $\Omega$ . Define

$$\limsup_{n} \Lambda_{n} = \{ \omega \mid \forall N \colon \exists n \geq N \colon \omega \in \Lambda_{n} \}$$
$$\liminf_{n} \Lambda_{n} = \{ \omega \mid \exists N \colon \forall n \geq N \colon \omega \in \Lambda_{n} \}.$$

Intuitively, we can think of  $\limsup_n \Lambda_n$  as the set of all  $\omega$  such that  $\omega \in \Lambda_n$  for "infinitely many n". Similarly,  $\liminf_n \Lambda_n$  is the set of all  $\omega$  such that  $\omega \in \Lambda_n$  for "all but finitely many n". Expressed in an equivalent way,

$$\limsup_{n} \Lambda_{n} = \bigcap_{N} \bigcup_{n \geq N} \Lambda_{m}$$
$$\liminf_{n} \Lambda_{n} = \bigcup_{N} \bigcap_{n > N} \Lambda_{m}.$$

Applying De Morgan's law, we see

$$(\limsup \Lambda_n)^c = \left(\bigcap_{N} \bigcup_{n \ge N} \Lambda_m\right)^c = \bigcup_{N} \bigcap_{n \ge N} \Lambda_m^c = \liminf \Lambda_n^c$$

and hence  $\limsup \Lambda_n^c = (\liminf \Lambda_n)^c$  also.

**Proposition 2.2** (Borel-Cantelli lemma). Let  $(\Lambda_n)_n$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{F}$ . Suppose  $\sum_n \mathbb{P}(\Lambda_n) < \infty$ . Then,

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\limsup \Lambda_n\right\} = 0.$$

*Proof.* Recall that

$$\limsup_{n} \Lambda_n = \bigcap_{N} A_N \quad \text{where} \quad A_N = \bigcup_{n>N} \Lambda_n.$$

In particular,  $(A_N)_N$  is decreasing in containment:  $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \cdots$  Therefore,

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_N) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_N A_N\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_n \Lambda_n\right) \quad \text{as} \quad N \to \infty.$$

But note that

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_N) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n \ge N} \Lambda_n\right) \le \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n \ge N} \Lambda_n \to 0.$$

Next, we look at an important application of the Borel-Cantelli lemma:

**Proposition 2.3.** Let  $(X_n)_n$  be a sequence of ERV random variables and suppose  $X_n \to X$  in probability. Then, there exists a subsequence  $(n_k)_k$  such that  $X_{n_k} \to X$  a.e.

*Proof.* Taking  $\epsilon = 1/m$  in the definition of convergence in probability, we find that for each m,

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{|X_n - X| > 1/m\right\} \to 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.$$

Choose an increasing sequence  $(n_m)_m$  such that

$$\mathbb{P}(\Lambda_m) < 1/2^m.$$

where

$$\Lambda_m = \left\{ |X_{n_m} - X| > \frac{1}{m} \right\}.$$

Then,  $\sum_{m} \mathbb{P}(\Lambda_m) < \infty$ , and therefore  $\mathbb{P}(\limsup_{m} \Lambda_m) = 0$  by the Borel-Cantelli lemma. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{m} \Lambda_{m}^{c}\right) = 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{m} \Lambda_{m}\right) = 1.$$

Recall now that

$$\liminf_{m} \Lambda_{m}^{c} = \{ \omega \mid \exists N \colon \forall m \geq N \colon \omega \notin \Lambda_{n} \} .$$

Therefore, for each  $\omega \in \liminf_m \Lambda_m$ , we can find an  $N(\omega)$  (depending on  $\omega$ ) such that for all  $m \geq N(\omega)$ , we have  $\omega \notin \Lambda_m$ . It follows that for  $\omega \in \liminf_m \Lambda_m$ ,

$$|X_{n_m}(\omega) - X(\omega)| \le \frac{1}{m}$$
 for all  $m \ge N(\omega)$ 

and hence

$$|X_{n_m}(\omega) - X(\omega)| \to 0.$$

That is,  $X_{n_m} \to X$  pointwise on the set  $\liminf_m \Lambda_m$ , which is exactly the definition of a.e. convergence.

### 3 Modes of convergence diagram

The following diagram summarizes convergence relationships in a probability space. AE refers to a.e. convergence,  $L^p$  refers to what we've been calling  $\mathbb{L}^p$  convergence, and M refers to convergence in probability. AU is a.u. convergence which we will most likely not encounter, though it's definition is below for those who are interested.

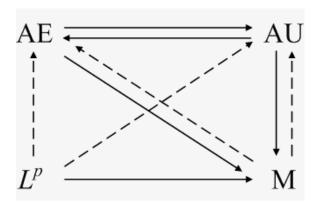


Figure 1: Modes of convergence (diagram by John Cook). A solid line from one mode of convergence to another indicates implication (e.g., a.e. convergence implies convergence in probability). A dashed line means that we can extract a subsequence, as in Proposition 2.3.

### 3.1 Almost uniform convergence (optional)

Let  $(f_n)_n$  be a sequence of real-valued functions and f be a real-valued function such that  $f_n$  and f have the same domain. We say  $f_n \to f$  uniformly if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find N such that for all  $n \ge N$ ,

$$||f_n - f||_{\infty} \equiv \sup_{x} |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon.$$

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $(X_n)_n$  be a sequence of random variables and X be a random variable. We say  $X_n \to X$  almost uniformly (a.u.) if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a set  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $\mathbb{P}(A) < \epsilon$  such that  $X_n \mid_A \to X \mid_A$  converges uniformly. Here, the symbol  $\cdot \mid_A$  is the restriction of a function to the set A.