MATH 556: MATHEMATICAL STATISTICS I

STOCHASTIC CONVERGENCE

The following definitions relate to a sequence $\{X_n\}$ of random variables defined on the same probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The statements are given in terms of P for simplicity.

1. Convergence Almost Surely: $\{X_n\}$ converges almost surely to random variable X, denoted $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$, if for every $\epsilon > 0$

$$P\left[\lim_{n \to \infty} |X_n - X| < \epsilon\right] = 1,$$

that is, if $A \equiv \{\omega : X_n(\omega) \longrightarrow X(\omega)\}$, then P(A) = 1. Equivalently, $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$

$$P\left[\lim_{n \to \infty} |X_n - X| \ge \epsilon\right] = 0.$$

Equivalent terminology is

$$X_n \longrightarrow X$$
 almost everywhere, $X_n \stackrel{a.e.}{\longrightarrow} X$ $X_n \longrightarrow X$ with probability 1, $X_n \stackrel{w.p.1}{\longrightarrow} X$

Interpretation: The sequence of random variables $\{X_n\}$ corresponds to a sequence of functions defined on elements of Ω . Almost sure convergence requires that the sequence of real numbers $X_n(\omega)$ converges to $X(\omega)$ (as a real sequence) for all $\omega \in \Omega$, as $n \longrightarrow \infty$, except perhaps when ω is in a set having probability zero under the probability distribution of X. That is, for every $\omega \in \Omega$, except possibly those lying in a set of probability zero under P, we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega).$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$, and for each $n \ge 1$, consider sets $A_n(\epsilon), B_n(\epsilon) \in \mathcal{F}$ defined by

$$A_n(\epsilon) \equiv \{\omega : |X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| \ge \epsilon\}$$
 $B_n(\epsilon) \equiv \bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m(\epsilon).$

Then we have $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ if and only if $\lim_{n \to \infty} P(B_n(\epsilon)) = 0$. Note that

$$A_n(\epsilon) \subseteq B_n(\epsilon) \implies P(A_n(\epsilon)) \le P(B_n(\epsilon))$$

so

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(B_n(\epsilon)) = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n(\epsilon)) = 0.$$

Note also that by continuity of probability,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(B_n(\epsilon)) = P\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} B_n(\epsilon)\right) \equiv P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n(\epsilon)\right) = P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m(\epsilon)\right)$$

where, as $B_{n+1}(\epsilon) \subseteq B_n(\epsilon)$, $\{B_n(\epsilon)\}$ is a decreasing sequence of sets, we may define

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} B_n(\epsilon) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n(\epsilon).$$

• Strong Law Of Large Numbers: Suppose that $\{X_n\}$ is a sequence of random variables each with expectation μ . Let \overline{X}_n be the sample mean. Then for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$P\left[\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \overline{X}_n - \mu \right| < \epsilon \right] = 1,$$

that is, $\overline{X}_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu$, and thus the mean of X_1, \ldots, X_n converges almost surely to μ .

2. **Convergence in Probability:** The sequence $\{X_n\}$ **converges in probability** to random variable X, $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$, if, for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n\longrightarrow\infty}P\left[|X_n-X|<\epsilon\right]=1\qquad\text{or equivalently}\qquad\lim_{n\longrightarrow\infty}P\left[|X_n-X|\geq\epsilon\right]=0$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$, and consider $A_n(\epsilon)$ defined above. Then we have $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$ if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n(\epsilon)) = 0$$

that is, if there exists an n such that for all $m \ge n$, $P(A_m(\epsilon))$ is arbitrarily small.

• As a special case, $\{X_n\}$ converges in probability to a **constant** c, denoted $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} c$, if for every $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P[|X_n - c| < \epsilon] = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} P[|X_n - c| \ge \epsilon] = 0$$

that is, if the limiting distribution of X_1, \ldots, X_n is **degenerate at** c.

• Weak Law Of Large Numbers: Suppose that $\{X_n\}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with expectation μ . Let \overline{X}_n be the sample mean. Then for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left[\left|\overline{X}_n - \mu\right| < \epsilon\right] = 1,$$

that is, $\overline{X}_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \mu$, and thus the mean of X_1, \dots, X_n converges in probability to μ . The Weak Law can be proved in a straightforward fashion using Chebychev's Inequality if the variables have finite variance σ^2 ; this inequality states that for any random variable X, and $\epsilon > 0$,

$$P_X[|X - \mu| < \epsilon] \ge 1 - \sigma^2/\epsilon^2$$
.

Applying this to \overline{X}_n yields the result, as the variance converges to zero. However the result can be proved even without the finite variance assumption using characteristic functions.

3. Convergence in Distribution: Suppose $\{X_n\}$ have corresponding sequence of cdfs, F_{X_1}, F_{X_2}, \ldots so that for $n=1,2,\ldots F_{X_n}(x)=P\left[X_n\leq x\right]$. Suppose that there exists a cdf, F_X , such that for all x at which F_X is continuous,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x).$$

Then $\{X_n\}$ converges in distribution to X with cdf F_X , denoted $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$, and F_X is the limiting distribution.

• Convergence of a sequence of mgfs or cfs also indicates convergence in distribution. For example, if for all t at which $M_X(t)$ is defined, as $n \to \infty$, we have

$$M_{X_i}(t) \longrightarrow M_X(t) \iff X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X.$$

• The sequence of random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n converges in distribution to constant c if the limiting distribution of X_1, \ldots, X_n is **degenerate at** c, that is,

$$X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$$

and P[X = c] = 1, so that

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < c \\ 1 & x \ge c \end{cases}$$

This special case occurs when the limiting distribution is discrete, with the probability mass function only being non-zero at a single value, that is, if the limiting random variable is X, then P[X=c]=1 and zero otherwise. We say that the sequence of random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n converges in distribution to c if and only if, for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left[|X_n - c| < \epsilon\right] = 1$$

This definition indicates that convergence in distribution to a constant c occurs if and only if the probability becomes increasingly concentrated around c as $n \longrightarrow \infty$.

To show that we should ignore points of discontinuity of F_X in the definition of convergence in distribution, consider the following example: let

$$F_{\epsilon}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < \epsilon \\ 1 & x \ge \epsilon \end{cases}$$

be the cdf of a degenerate distribution with probability mass 1 at $x = \epsilon$. Now consider a sequence $\{\epsilon_n\}$ of real values converging to ϵ from **below**. Then, as $\epsilon_n < \epsilon$, we have

$$F_{\epsilon_n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < \epsilon_n \\ 1 & x \ge \epsilon_n \end{cases}$$

which converges to $F_{\epsilon}(x)$ at all real values of x. However, if instead $\{\epsilon_n\}$ converges to ϵ from **above**, then $F_{\epsilon_n}(\epsilon) = 0$ for each finite n, as $\epsilon_n > \epsilon$, so $\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{\epsilon_n}(\epsilon) = 0$. Hence, as $n \to \infty$,

$$F_{\epsilon_n}(\epsilon) \longrightarrow 0 \neq 1 = F_{\epsilon}(\epsilon).$$

Thus the limiting function in this case is

$$F_{\epsilon}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \le \epsilon \\ 1 & x > \epsilon \end{cases}$$

which is not a cdf as it is not right-continuous. However, if $\{X_n\}$ and X are random variables with distributions $\{F_{\epsilon_n}\}$ and F_{ϵ_n} , then $P[X_n = \epsilon_n] = 1$ converges to $P[X = \epsilon] = 1$, however we take the limit, so F_{ϵ} does describe the limiting distribution of the sequence $\{F_{\epsilon_n}\}$. Thus, because of right-continuity, we ignore points of discontinuity in the limiting function.

4. Convergence In rth Mean The sequence of random variables $\{X_n\}$ converges in rth mean to random variable X, denoted $X_n \stackrel{r}{\longrightarrow} X$ if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}\left[|X_n - X|^r \right] = 0.$$

For example, if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}\left[(X_n - X)^2 \right] = 0$$

then we write $X_n \xrightarrow{r=2} X$. In this case, we say that $\{X_n\}$ converges to X in mean-square or in quadratic mean. For $r_1 > r_2 \ge 1$,

$$X_n \stackrel{r=r_1}{\longrightarrow} X \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad X_n \stackrel{r=r_2}{\longrightarrow} X$$

as, by Lyapunov's inequality

$$\mathbb{E}[\,|X_n - X|^{r_2}\,]^{1/r_2} \le \mathbb{E}[\,|X_n - X|^{r_1}\,]^{1/r_1} \qquad \therefore \qquad \mathbb{E}[\,|X_n - X|^{r_2}\,] \le \mathbb{E}[\,|X_n - X|^{r_1}\,]^{r_2/r_1} \longrightarrow 0$$
 as $n \longrightarrow \infty$, as $r_2 < r_1$. Thus

$$\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^{r_2}] \longrightarrow 0$$

and $X_n \stackrel{r=r_2}{\longrightarrow} X$. The converse does not hold in general.

Notes:

(a) **Relating The Modes Of Convergence** For sequence of random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n ,

$$\begin{cases}
X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \\
\text{or} \\
X_n \xrightarrow{r} X
\end{cases} \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$$

so almost sure convergence and convergence in rth mean for some r both imply convergence in probability, which in turn implies convergence in distribution to random variable X.

No other relationships hold in general, although there are some partial converse results.

- (b) **Slutsky's Theorem:** Suppose that $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ for some constant c. Then
 - (i) $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c$
 - (ii) $X_n Y_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} cX$
 - (iii) $X_n/Y_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X/c$ provided $c \neq 0$.
- (c) **The Central Limit Theorem:** Suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n are i.i.d. random variables with cf φ_X , with expectation μ and variance σ^2 , both finite. Let the random variable Z_n be defined by

$$Z_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

and denote by φ_{Z_n} the cf of Z_n . Then, as $n \longrightarrow \infty$,

$$\varphi_{Z_n}(t) \longrightarrow \exp\{-t^2/2\}$$

irrespective of the form of φ_X . Thus, as $n \longrightarrow \infty$, $Z_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} Z \sim Normal(0,1)$.

Proof. First, let $Y_i = (X_i - \mu)/\sigma$ for i = 1, ..., n. Then $Y_1, ..., Y_n$ are i.i.d. with cf φ_Y say, and

$$\mathbb{E}_Y[Y_i] = 0$$
 $\operatorname{Var}_Y[Y] = 1$

for each i. By a previous result for cfs concerning moments, using a Taylor expansion for t in a neighbourhood of zero, we have

$$\varphi_Y(t) = 1 - \frac{t^2}{2} + o(t^3)$$

Re-writing Z_n as

$$Z_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

as Y_1, \dots, Y_n are independent, we have by a standard cf result that

$$\varphi_{Z_n}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n \left\{ \varphi_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \right\} = \left\{ 1 - \frac{t^2}{2n} + \mathrm{o}(n^{-3/2}) \right\}^n = \left\{ 1 - \frac{t^2}{2n} + \mathrm{o}(n^{-1}) \right\}^n.$$

so that, by the definition of the exponential function, as $n \longrightarrow \infty$

$$\varphi_{Z_n}(t) \longrightarrow \exp\{-t^2/2\}$$
 : $Z_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} Z \sim Normal(0,1)$

where no further assumptions on φ_X are required.

Alternative statement: The theorem can also be stated in terms of

$$Z_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{n}(\overline{X}_n - \mu)$$

so that

$$Z_n \xrightarrow{d} Z \sim Normal(0, \sigma^2).$$

and σ^2 is termed the **asymptotic variance** of Z_n .

Notes:

- (i) The theorem holds for the i.i.d. case, but there are similar theorems for **non identically distributed**, and **dependent** random variables.
- (ii) The theorem allows the construction of **asymptotic normal approximations**. For example, for **large but finite** *n*, by using the properties of the Normal distribution,

$$\overline{X}_n \sim \mathcal{AN}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$$

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \mathcal{AN}(n\mu, n\sigma^2).$$

where $\mathcal{AN}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ denotes an asymptotic normal distribution. The notation

$$\overline{X}_n \stackrel{.}{\sim} Normal(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$$

is sometimes used.

(iv) The **multivariate version** of this theorem can be stated as follows: Suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n are i.i.d. d-dimensional random variables with

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{X}_i] = \boldsymbol{\mu} \quad \operatorname{Var}_{\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{X}_i] = \Sigma$$

where Σ is a positive definite, symmetric $d \times d$ matrix defining the variance-covariance matrix of the \mathbf{X}_i . Let the random variable \mathbf{Z}_n be defined by

$$\mathbf{Z}_n = \sqrt{n}(\overline{\mathbf{X}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

where

$$\overline{\mathbf{X}}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{X}_i.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{Z}_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{Z} \sim Normal_d(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$$

as $n \longrightarrow \infty$.

Appendix: Technical Details

Alternative characterizations of almost sure convergence:

(i) Let $\epsilon > 0$, and define the sets $A_n(\epsilon)$ and $B_n(\epsilon)$ be defined for $n \ge 1$ by

$$A_n(\epsilon) \equiv \{\omega : |X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| \ge \epsilon\}$$
 $B_n(\epsilon) \equiv \bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m(\epsilon).$

- $A_n(\epsilon)$ is the set of ω for which $X_n(\omega)$ is at least ϵ away from X.
- $B_n(\epsilon)$ is the set of ω for which $X_m(\omega)$ at least ϵ away from X, for at least one $m \geq n$.
- The event $B_n(\epsilon)$ occurs if there exists an $m \ge n$ such that $|X_m X| \ge \epsilon$.
- $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ if and only if $P(B_n(\epsilon)) \longrightarrow 0$.
- (ii) $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ if and only if

$$P[|X_n - X| \ge \epsilon \text{ infinitely often }] = 0$$

that is, $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ if and only if there are **only finitely many** X_n for which $|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| \ge \epsilon$ if ω lies in a set of probability greater than zero.

Note that $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ if and only if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(B_n(\epsilon)) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m(\epsilon)\right) = 0$$

in contrast with the definition of convergence in probability, where $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$ if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n(\epsilon)) = 0.$$

Clearly $A_n(\epsilon) \subseteq \bigcup\limits_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m(\epsilon)$ so therefore

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} A_m(\epsilon)\right) = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} P(A_n(\epsilon)) = 0$$

and hence almost sure convergence implies convergence in probability.

Proof. Relating the modes of convergence.

(a)
$$X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \Longrightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$$
. Suppose $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, and let $\epsilon > 0$. Then
$$P[|X_n - X| < \epsilon] \ge P[|X_m - X| < \epsilon, \ \forall m \ge n]$$
(1)

as, considering the original sample space,

$$\{\omega: |X_m(\omega) - X(\omega)| < \epsilon, \ \forall m \ge n\} \subseteq \{\omega: |X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| < \epsilon\}$$

But, as $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, $P[|X_m - X| < \epsilon, \ \forall m \ge n] \longrightarrow 1$, as $n \longrightarrow \infty$. So, after taking limits in equation (1), we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P[|X_n - X| < \epsilon] \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} P[|X_m - X| < \epsilon, \ \forall m \ge n] = 1$$

and so

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P[|X_n - X| < \epsilon] = 1 \qquad \therefore \qquad X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X.$$

(b) $X_n \xrightarrow{r} X \Longrightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$. Suppose $X_n \xrightarrow{r} X$, and let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, using an argument similar to Chebychev's Lemma,

$$\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^r] \ge \mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^r \mathbb{1}\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\}] \ge \epsilon^r P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon].$$

Taking limits as $n \longrightarrow \infty$, as $X_n \stackrel{r}{\longrightarrow} X$, $\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^r] \longrightarrow 0$ as $n \longrightarrow \infty$, so therefore

$$P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon] \longrightarrow 0$$
 \therefore $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$.

(c) $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \Longrightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$. Suppose $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$, and let $\epsilon > 0$. Denote, in the usual way,

$$F_{X_n}(x) = P[X_n \le x]$$
 and $F_X(x) = P[X \le x]$.

Then, by the theorem of total probability, we have two inequalities

$$F_{X_n}(x) = P[X_n \le x] = P[X_n \le x, X \le x + \epsilon] + P[X_n \le x, X > x + \epsilon] \le F_X(x + \epsilon) + P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon]$$

$$F_X(x - \epsilon) = P[X \le x - \epsilon] = P[X \le x - \epsilon, X_n \le x] + P[X \le x - \epsilon, X_n > x] \le F_{X_n}(x) + P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon].$$
as $A \subseteq B \Longrightarrow P(A) \le P(B)$ yields

$$P[X_n \le x, X \le x + \epsilon] \le F_X(x + \epsilon)$$
 and $P[X \le x - \epsilon, X_n \le x] \le F_{X_n}(x)$.

Thus

$$F_X(x-\epsilon) - P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon] \le F_{X_n}(x) \le F_X(x+\epsilon) + P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon]$$

and taking limits as $n \longrightarrow \infty$ (with care; we cannot yet write $\lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x)$ as we do not know that this limit exists) recalling that $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$,

$$F_X(x-\epsilon) \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) \le F_X(x+\epsilon)$$

Then if F_X is continuous at x, $F_X(x-\epsilon) \longrightarrow F_X(x)$ and $F_X(x+\epsilon) \longrightarrow F_X(x)$ as $\epsilon \longrightarrow 0$, so

$$F_X(x) \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) \le F_X(x)$$

and thus $F_{X_n}(x) \longrightarrow F_X(x)$ as $n \longrightarrow \infty$.

Thus all results follow.

Slutsky's Theorem: Suppose that $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$ and $Y_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} c$ for some constant c. Then

- (a) $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X + c$
- (b) $X_n Y_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} cX$
- (c) $X_n/Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/c$ provided $c \neq 0$.

Proof. For (a), let x-c be a continuity point of F_X , some x, and choose $\epsilon > 0$ such that $x-c-\epsilon$ and $x-c+\epsilon$ are also continuity points. Let $Z_n = X_n + Y_n$. Then, as in the previous proof, by the theorem of total probability, we have the inequalities

$$F_{Z_n}(x) = P[X_n + Y_n \le x] = P[X_n + Y_n \le x, |Y_n - c| < \epsilon] + P[X_n + Y_n \le x, |Y_n - c| \ge \epsilon]$$

$$\le F_{X_n}(x - c + \epsilon) + P[|Y_n - c| \ge \epsilon]$$

and similarly

$$F_{X_n}(x - c - \epsilon) = P[X_n \le x - c - \epsilon] = P[X_n \le x - c - \epsilon, |Y_n - c| < \epsilon]$$

$$+ P[X_n \le x - c - \epsilon, |Y_n - c| \ge \epsilon]$$

$$\le F_{Z_n}(x) + P[|Y_n - c| \ge \epsilon]$$

Thus

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} F_{Z_n}(x) \leq \limsup_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x - c + \epsilon) + \limsup_{n \to \infty} P[|Y_n - c| \geq \epsilon] = F_X(x - c + \epsilon)$$

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} F_{Z_n}(x) \geq \liminf_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x - c - \epsilon) + \liminf_{n \to \infty} P[|Y_n - c| \geq \epsilon] = F_X(x - c - \epsilon)$$

as $x - c - \epsilon$ and $x - c + \epsilon$ are continuity points of F_X . This holds for arbitrary $\epsilon > 0$, and thus

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{Z_n}(x) = F_X(x - c) = P[X \le x - c] = P[X + c \le x] = P[Z \le x] = F_Z(x)$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{Z_n}(x) = F_Z(x) \qquad \therefore \qquad Z \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X + c$$

Results (b) and (c) follow in a similar fashion. ■

Partial Converses

(a) If

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon] < \infty$$

for every $\epsilon > 0$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$.

(b) If, for some positive integer r,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^r] < \infty$$

then $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$.

Proof. The results follow from direct probability arguments.

(a) Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then for $n \ge 1$,

$$P[\,|X_n-X|>\epsilon, \text{ for some } m\geq n\,] \equiv P\left[\bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty}\left\{|X_m-X|>\epsilon\right\}\right] \leq \sum_{m=n}^{\infty}P[\,|X_m-X|>\epsilon\,]$$

as, by elementary probability theory, $P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$. But, as it is the tail sum of a convergent series (by assumption), it follows that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{m=n}^{\infty} P[|X_m - X| > \epsilon] = 0.$$

Hence

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P[|X_n - X| > \epsilon, \text{ for some } m \ge n] = 0$$

and $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$.

(b) Identical to part (a), and using part (b) of the previous theorem on relating the modes of convergence that $X_n \xrightarrow{r} X \Longrightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$.

Thus the partial converse results hold. ■