



Statistical Sciences

DoSS Summer Bootcamp Probability Module 8

Ichiro Hashimoto

University of Toronto

July 22, 2025

Recap

Learnt in last module:

- Stochastic convergence
 - ▷ Convergence in distribution
 - ▷ Convergence in probability
 - ▷ Convergence almost surely
 - ▷ Convergence in L^p
 - ▷ Relationship between convergences

$$\text{in } L^q \stackrel{q \geq p}{\Rightarrow} \text{in } L^p$$

↓

a.s. \Rightarrow in probability \Rightarrow in distribution
CDF

Outline

- Convergence of functions of random variables
 - ▷ Slutsky's theorem
 - ▷ Continuous mapping theorem
- Laws of large numbers
 - ▷ WLLN
 - ▷ SLLN
 - ▷ Glivenko-Cantelli theorem
- Central limit theorem

Convergence of functions of random variables

Recall: Stochastic convergence If $X_n \rightarrow X$, $Y_n \rightarrow Y$ in some sense, how is the limiting property of $f(X_n, Y_n)$?

could be

in prob.

in distribution

a.s

L^p

e.g. $X_n + Y_n \rightarrow ?$

$$X_n \cdot Y_n \rightarrow ?$$

$$\frac{X_n}{Y_n} \rightarrow ?$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \dots + Y_n \rightarrow ?$$

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n^c} \rightarrow ?$$

Convergence of functions of random variables

Recall: Stochastic convergence If $X_n \rightarrow X$, $Y_n \rightarrow Y$ in some sense, how is the limiting property of $f(X_n, Y_n)$?

Convergence of functions of random variables (a.s.)

Suppose the probability space is complete, if $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} Y$, then for any real numbers a, b ,

- $aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} aX + bY$;
- $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} XY$.

Remark:

- Still require all the random variables to be defined on the same probability space

Recall $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s. if $\mathbb{P}(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X) = 1$

(Pf) Since $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s., there exists $\exists N_x \subset \Omega$ s.t.

$\underbrace{X_n \rightarrow X}$ on N_x and $\underbrace{P(N_x)} = 1$.
pointwise

Since $Y_n \rightarrow Y$ a.s., there exists $N_Y \subset \Omega$ s.t.

$\underbrace{Y_n \rightarrow Y}$ on N_Y and $\underbrace{P(N_Y)} = 1$.

On $N_x \cap N_Y$, we know $X_n \rightarrow X, Y_n \rightarrow Y$ pointwise.

Thus, we have on $N_x \cap N_Y$,

$$aX_n + bY_n \rightarrow aX + bY \text{ pointwise}$$

$$X_n \cdot Y_n \rightarrow X \cdot Y \text{ pointwise.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(N_x \cap N_Y) &= 1 - P((N_x \cap N_Y)^c) \\ &= 1 - P(\underbrace{N_x^c \cup N_Y^c}_{\text{apply union bound}}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\geq 1 - \left(\frac{P(N_x^c)}{=0} + \frac{P(N_Y^c)}{=0} \right) = 1 - 0 = 1$$

$$\therefore P(N_x \cap N_Y) = 1.$$

Thus we have confirmed pointwise convergence of
 $aX_n + bY_n \rightarrow X$ and $X_n \cdot Y_n \rightarrow X \cdot Y$
hold with probability 1.

Convergence of functions of random variables

Convergence of functions of random variables (probability)

Suppose the probability space is complete, if $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$, then for any real numbers a, b ,

- $aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{P} aX + bY$;
- $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{P} XY$.

Remark:

- Still require all the random variables to be defined on the same probability space

Recall $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) = 0$.

$X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{P} X + Y$ if $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$

(pf.) Let $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$

$$\|p\left(\underbrace{|x_n + z_n - (x+y)|}_{>\varepsilon}\right)\|.$$

L) by triangle inequality.

$$\left\{ |x_i + \gamma_i - (x + \gamma)| > \varepsilon \right\} \subset \left\{ |x_i - x| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \right\} \cup \left\{ |\gamma_i - \gamma| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \right\}$$

$$\therefore |x+y| < |x| + |y|$$

$$= \left| (x_i - x) + (\gamma_i - \gamma) \right|$$

$$\leq |x_n - x| + |\gamma_n - \gamma|.$$

it's impossible to have both of them $\leq \frac{c}{2}$

$$\leq \mathbb{P} \left(\left\{ |X_n - Y| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \right\} \cup \left\{ |\bar{Y}_n - Y| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \right\} \right)$$

by union bound

$$\frac{\Pr\left(|Y_n - X| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)}{\rightarrow 0 \text{ since } X_n \xrightarrow{P} X} + \frac{\Pr\left(|Y_n - Y| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)}{\rightarrow 0 \text{ since } Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y}$$

$\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Therefore, $x_n + y_n \xrightarrow{P} x + y$.

Convergence of functions of random variables

Convergence of functions of random variables (L^p)

Suppose the probability space is complete, if $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{L^p} Y$, then for any real numbers a, b ,

- $aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{L^p} aX + bY$;

Remark:

- Still require all the random variables to be defined on the same probability space

$$x_n + y_n \xrightarrow{L^p} x + y \text{ if } x_n \xrightarrow{L^p} x, y_n \xrightarrow{L^p} y$$

(pf) Recall that $\|x\|_{L^p} = (\mathbb{E}|x|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ is a norm if $p \geq 1$.

Therefore, we have triangle inequality, i.e.

$$\|x + y\|_{L^p} \leq \|x\|_{L^p} + \|y\|_{L^p}$$

↓ apply

$$\|(x_n + y_n) - (x + y)\|_{L^p} \leq \underbrace{\|x_n - x\|_{L^p}}_{\rightarrow 0} + \underbrace{\|y_n - y\|_{L^p}}_{\rightarrow 0} \rightarrow 0.$$

since $x_n \xrightarrow{L^p} x$ since $y_n \xrightarrow{L^p} y$

Convergence of functions of random variables

Even $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + Y$ fails
in general

Remark: Convergence in distribution is different.

Slutsky's theorem

If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} c$ (c is a constant), then

- $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c;$
- $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} cX;$
- $X_n / Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/c$, where $c \neq 0$.

Convergence of functions of random variables

Remark: Convergence in distribution is different.

Slutsky's theorem

If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} c$ (c is a constant), then

- $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c;$
- $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} cX;$
- $X_n / Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/c$, where $c \neq 0$.

Remark:

- The theorem remains valid if we replace all the convergence in distribution with convergence in probability.

Convergence of functions of random variables

Remark: The requirement that $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} c$ (c is a constant) is necessary.

Convergence of functions of random variables

Remark: The requirement that $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} c$ (c is a constant) is necessary.

Examples:

$X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $Y_n = -X_n$, then $Y_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ as well.

- $\underbrace{X_n \xrightarrow{d} Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)}$, $\underbrace{Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)}$;
- $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} 0$; $\cancel{X} \cancel{+} \cancel{Y}$
- $X_n Y_n = -X_n^2 \xrightarrow{d} -\chi^2(1)$; $\neq Z^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$
- $X_n / Y_n = -1$. $\cancel{1} \in \mathbb{Z}/2$

Convergence of functions of random variables

Continuous mapping theorem

Let X_n, X be random variables, if $g(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies $\mathbb{P}(X \in D_g) = 0$, then

- $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} g(X)$;
- $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{P} g(X)$;
- $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} g(X)$;

\downarrow
 \Rightarrow *g is essentially continuous w.r.t X*

where D_g is the set of discontinuity points of $g(\cdot)$.

L^p convergence fail in general.

Let $X_n = X$ when $X \in L^p$ but $\notin L^{2p}$.

Let $g(x) = x^2$.

Then $g(X_n) \notin L^p$. So L^p convergence doesn't make sense.

Convergence of functions of random variables

Continuous mapping theorem

Let X_n, X be random variables, if $g(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies $\mathbb{P}(X \in D_g) = 0$, then

- $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} g(X)$;
- $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{P} g(X)$;
- $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} g(X)$;

where D_g is the set of discontinuity points of $g(\cdot)$.

Remark:

- If $g(\cdot)$ is continuous, then ...
- If X is a continuous random variable, and D_g only include countably many points, then ...

Law of large numbers

$$\mu = \mathbb{E} X$$

Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)

If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are i.i.d. random variables, $\mathbb{E}(|X_i|) < \infty$, then

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} \xrightarrow{P} \mu.$$

Remark:

A more easy-to-prove version is the L^2 weak law, where an additional assumption $\text{Var}(X_i) < \infty$ is required.

$$\bar{X} \xrightarrow{L^2} \mu$$

Sketch of the proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E} |\bar{X} - \mu|^2 &= \text{Var}(\bar{X}) \\ &= \text{Var}\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}\right)\end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i)}{m^2}. \text{ since. } X_i's \text{ are independent.}$$

$$= \frac{n \text{Var}(X_i)}{m^2}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Var}(X_i)}{m} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty.$$

Therefore. $\overline{X} \rightarrow \mu$ in L^2 .

Law of large numbers

A generalization of the theorem: triangular array

Triangular array

A triangular array of random variables is a collection $\{X_{n,k}\}_{1 \leq k \leq n}$.

$$\begin{aligned} n=1 &\rightarrow X_{1,1} \xrightarrow{\text{sum}} S_1 \\ n=2 &\rightarrow X_{2,1}, X_{2,2} \xrightarrow{\text{sum}} S_2 \\ n=3 &\rightarrow X_{3,1}, X_{3,2}, X_{3,3} \xrightarrow{\text{sum}} S_3 \\ &\vdots \\ n &\rightarrow X_{n,1}, X_{n,2}, \dots, X_{n,n} \xrightarrow{\text{sum}} S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_{n,k} \end{aligned}$$

Remark: We can consider the limiting property of the row sum S_n .

Law of Large Numbers

L^2 weak law for triangular array

Suppose $\{X_{n,k}\}$ is a triangular array, $n = 1, 2, \dots, k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Let

$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_{n,k}$, $\mu_n = \mathbb{E}(S_n)$, if $\sigma_n^2/b_n^2 \rightarrow 0$, where $\sigma_n^2 = \text{Var}(S_n)$ and b_n is a sequence of positive real numbers, then

$$\frac{S_n - \mu_n}{b_n} \xrightarrow{P} 0.$$

Remark:

The L^2 weak law for i.i.d. random variables is a special case of that for triangular array.

Law of large numbers

Proof:

$$\mathbb{E} \left| \frac{\hat{\mu}_n - \mu_n}{b_n} \right|^2 = \frac{\sigma_n^2}{b_n^2} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{So, } \frac{\hat{\mu}_n - \mu_n}{b_n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } L^2,$$

and hence $\rightarrow 0$ in probability.

Law of large numbers

Proof:

Remark:

A more generalized version incorporates truncation, then the second-moment constraint is relieved.

Law of large numbers

Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN)

Let X_1, X_2, \dots be an i.i.d. sequence satisfying $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu$ and $\mathbb{E}(|X_i|) < \infty$, then

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu.$$

Remark: The proof needs Borel-Cantelli lemma.

Law of large numbers

Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN)

Let X_1, X_2, \dots be an i.i.d. sequence satisfying $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu$ and $\mathbb{E}(|X_i|) < \infty$, then
 $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu.$

Remark: The proof needs Borel-Cantelli lemma.

Glivenko-Cantelli theorem

Let $X_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ i.i.d. with distribution function $F(\cdot)$, and let
 $F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i \leq x)$, then as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |F(x) - F_n(x)| \rightarrow 0, \quad a.s.$$

\uparrow
of X_i 's $\leq x$
 n

Law of large numbers

Weak version : $|F(x) - F_n(x)| \rightarrow 0$ a.s. on Ω .

Proof:

Note that $0 \leq I(X_i \leq x) \leq 1$

So, $0 \leq \mathbb{E} I(X_i \leq x) = P(X_i \leq x) = F(x) \leq 1$.

finite

By SLLN, $F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i \leq x)$

apply to $Y_i = I(X_i \leq x)$

$\xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}}$ $\mathbb{E} I(X_i \leq x) = F(x)$.

Limit Theorems and Counterexamples

Recall: For the law of large numbers to hold, the assumption $E|X| < \infty$ is crucial.

Law of Large Numbers fail for infinite mean i.i.d. random variables

If X_1, X_2, \dots are i.i.d. to X with $E|X_i| = \infty$, then for $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$,
 $P(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n/n \in (-\infty, \infty)) = 0$.

Proof: Omitted

$\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow 0$ fails with probability 1.

Central Limit Theorem

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$\text{Std}(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \Leftrightarrow \text{Std}(\sqrt{n}\bar{X}) = \sigma$$

What is the limiting distribution of the sample mean?

Classic CLT

Suppose X_1, \dots, X_n is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu$, $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$, then

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

Remark:

- The proof involves characteristic function.
- A more generalized CLT is referred to as "Lindeberg CLT".

Central Limit Theorem

Example:

Suppose $\underbrace{X_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)}$, i.i.d., consider $Z_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}$, then by CLT, $Z_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ asymptotically.



$$\text{Var}(X_i) = p(1-p)$$

Monotone Convergence Theorem

Monotone Convergence Theorem

If $X_n \geq c$ and $X_n \nearrow X$, then $\mathbb{E}X_n \nearrow \mathbb{E}X$

Usage: \hookrightarrow fails if X_n is not lower bounded.

but $X_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n^2} & \text{w.p. } p \\ 0 & \text{w.p. } 1-p \end{cases}$ and $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$.

Then $0 \leq S_n \nearrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} S \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} < \infty$.

By Monotone convergence theorem,

$$\mathbb{E}S \stackrel{?}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}X_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{p}{k^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \cdot p$$

Dominated Convergence Theorem

Dominated Convergence Theorem

If $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s. and $|X_n| \leq Y$ a.s. for all n and Y is integrable, then $EX_n \rightarrow EX$

Usage:

independent of n

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} EX_n = E \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$$

Prop Suppose $M(t) = E e^{tx} < \infty$ for any $t \in [-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]$.
MGF of X .

$$\text{Then, } \frac{d}{dt} M(t) \Big|_{t=0} = EX$$

(pf) For $h \in (-\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_2)$

$$\frac{M(h) - M(0)}{h} = E \frac{e^{hx} - 1}{h}$$

$$\text{Note that } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{hx} - 1}{h} = x$$

By MVT, there exists ζ between 0 and $h \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\left| \frac{e^{hx} - 1}{h} \right| = \left| \frac{hx \cdot e^{\zeta x}}{h} \right| = |x| e^{\zeta x},$$

$$By \quad |u| \leq e^u + e^{-u}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{e^{hx} - 1}{h} \right| &= |x| e^{\zeta x} \\ &= \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \cdot \left(\underbrace{\frac{\varepsilon}{2} |x|}_{\zeta} \right) e^{\zeta x} \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \left(e^{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}x} + e^{-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}x} \right) \cdot e^{\zeta x}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \left(e^{(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+3)x} + e^{-(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-3)x} \right)$$

$$\leq \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \left(e^{\varepsilon x} + e^{-\varepsilon x} \right) \quad \text{since } |\zeta| \leq |u| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Now note that

$$\mathbb{E} (e^{\varepsilon x} + e^{-\varepsilon x}) = M_x(\varepsilon) + M_x(-\varepsilon) < \infty$$

by the assumption.

Therefore, $\frac{e^{hx} - 1}{h}$ is dominated by integrable. $\underbrace{\frac{2}{\epsilon} (e^{\epsilon x} + e^{-\epsilon x})}_{\text{independent of } h}$

By the dominated convergence theorem,

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} M(t) \right|_{t=0} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{M(h) - M(0)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \mathbb{E} \frac{e^{hx} - 1}{h}$$

$$\stackrel{\circ}{=} \mathbb{E} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{hx} - 1}{h}$$

$$= \mathbb{E} \overline{X_n}$$

Delta Method

$$\text{CLT} : \sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

More about CLT: Delta method

Suppose X_n are i.i.d. random variables with $EX_n = 0$, $\text{VAR}(X_n) = \sigma^2 > 0$. Let g be a measurable function that is differentiable at 0 with $g'(0) \neq 0$. Then

$$\sqrt{n} \left(g\left(\frac{\sum_{k=1}^n X_k}{n}\right) - g(0) \right) \rightarrow N(0, \sigma^2 g'(0)^2) \text{ weakly.}$$

Proof under stronger assumption: Here, we suppose g is continuously differentiable on \mathbb{R} . If you are interested in a general proof refer to Robert Keener's *Theoretical Statistics*.

$$\sqrt{n} (g(\bar{X}) - g(0))$$

By MVT, there exists c_n s.t.

$$g(\bar{X}) - g(0) = g'(c_n) \cdot \bar{X}, \text{ where}$$

c_n is between 0 and \bar{X} ,

By SLLN, $\bar{X} \rightarrow 0$ a.s.

Since c_n is between 0 and \bar{X} , we have $c_n \rightarrow 0$ a.s.

Since g is continuously differentiable,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g'(c_n) = \frac{g'(0)}{\text{const.}} \text{ a.s.}$$

By CLT, $\sqrt{n} \bar{X} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$

$$\sqrt{n} \left(g(\bar{X}) - g(0) \right) = \underbrace{g'(c_n)}_{\substack{\xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \\ \text{const}}} \cdot \underbrace{\sqrt{n} \bar{X}}_{\substack{\xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, g'(0)^2 \sigma^2)$$

↳ Slutsky's theorem.

Problem Set

Problem 1: Prove that on a complete probability space, if $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X + Y$.

Problem 2: Prove that on a complete probability space, if $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{P} X + Y$.

Problem 3: A bank teller serves customers standing in the queue one by one. Suppose that the service time X_i for customer i has mean $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = 2$ (minutes) and $\text{Var}(X_i) = 1$. We assume that service times for different bank customers are independent. Let Y be the total time the bank teller spends serving 50 customers. Find $\mathbb{P}(90 < Y < 110)$.