

STAT 460/560 Class 3: Convergence of random variables

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Reading: Chapter 2.1–2.2, [van98]. Supplement: Chapter 5, [Was04].

1. Modes of convergence

One of the main applications of probability to statistical problems is to analyze the asymptotic (as $n \rightarrow \infty$) behavior of a sequence of random variables $X_1, X_2, \dots$. Unlike a sequence of numbers, which essentially has only one type of convergence, a sequence of random variables may converge in different ways. This may seem counter-intuitive, but remember: a random variable is a function, and sequences of functions can converge in different ways (e.g., uniformly, pointwise, in norm, etc.) The different notions of convergence of random variables are basically expressing different types of functional convergence, which gets a little more complicated when a probability measure is thrown in.

In this course, we will work primarily with three types of convergence. Let $X_1, X_2, \dots$ be a sequence of random vectors in $\mathbb{R}^k$, and X another random vector in $\mathbb{R}^k$.

1. **Convergence in distribution.** The sequence $X_1, X_2, \dots$ converges in distribution to X , written $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$, if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \leq t) = P(X \leq t) \quad (3.1)$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{R}^k$ for which the function $t \mapsto P(X \leq t)$ is continuous. (The inequality is applied element-wise.) Note that when $k = 1$, this is just the usual CDF.

2. **Convergence in probability.** The sequence $X_1, X_2, \dots$ converges in probability to X , written $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$, if for every $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\|X_n - X\| > \epsilon) = 0. \quad (3.2)$$

The norm here is the Euclidean norm, but this definition extends naturally to non-Euclidean metric spaces.

3. **Convergence in quadratic mean.** The sequence $X_1, X_2, \dots$ converges in quadratic mean to X , written $X_n \xrightarrow{qm} X$, if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[\|X_n - X\|^2] = 0. \quad (3.3)$$

This is also known as **convergence in L_2** .

Note that another strong mode of convergence is **almost sure convergence**, $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$. This can be understood as “pointwise convergence on a set of probability 1”:

$$P\{\omega: \liminf_n X_n(\omega) = \limsup_n X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\} = 1. \quad (3.4)$$

We won’t encounter almost sure convergence much in this course because it’s too strong to be satisfied in most statistical settings.

Example 3.1. As an example of a type of convergence that occurs regularly in statistics, suppose that $X_1, \dots, X_n$ are IID random variables with finite mean $\mathbb{E}(X)$ and variance σ^2 . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(\bar{X}_n^2) = \frac{1}{n^2} \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n X_j \right) \right] = \frac{1}{n^2} n \mathbb{E} \left(X_1 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right) = \frac{1}{n^2} (n(\sigma^2 + n\mathbb{E}(X)^2)) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \mathbb{E}(X)^2. \quad (3.5)$$

Because $\mathbb{E}[(\bar{X}_n - \mathbb{E}(X))^2] = \mathbb{E}(\bar{X}_n^2) - \mathbb{E}(X)^2$, we see that $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{\text{qm}} \mathbb{E}(X)$.

Activity 3.1. Let $X_1, \dots, X_n$ be IID random variables with finite mean and variance. Show that $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{E}(X)$.

We proved a version of the **Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)**.

Theorem 3.1. Let $X_1, \dots, X_n$ be IID random variables with finite mean $\mathbb{E}(X)$ and variance. Then $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{E}(X)$.

The interpretation of the WLLN is that the distribution of $\bar{X}_n$ concentrates around $\mathbb{E}(X)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

In most cases, either almost sure convergence is too strong (it won't be achieved); or convergence in probability is good enough even when almost sure convergence is achieved. The next theorem formalizes what implications are possible.

Theorem 3.2. Let X_n, X and Y be random vectors, and c a constant. Then

- (i) $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$ implies that $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$.
- (ii) $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{qm}} X$ implies that $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$.
- (iii) $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ implies that $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$.
- (iv) $X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ if and only if $X_n \rightsquigarrow c$.
- (v) If $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ then $(X_n, Y_n) \rightsquigarrow (X, c)$.
- (vi) If $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} Y$ then $(X_n, Y_n) \xrightarrow{p} (X, Y)$.

Note that (iv) is a partial converse of (iii). The other converses are in general false without additional conditions. Note also that it is in general, if $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$ and $Y_n \rightsquigarrow Y$, $(X_n, Y_n) \not\rightsquigarrow (X, Y)$; (v) is the strongest such statement that can be made.

Note that there is no relationship that can be given between convergence in quadratic mean and convergence almost surely. While both imply convergence in probability, neither implies the other.

Here are some examples to illustrate the differences of the modes of convergence.

Example 3.2 (Convergence in probability but not almost surely (easy one)). Let $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ and define $X_n = U + B_n$ where $B_n \sim \text{Bern}(1/n)$ are independent Bernoulli random variables, also independent of U .

Clearly, for any $\epsilon > 0$, $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - U| > \epsilon) = \mathbb{P}(|B_n| > \epsilon) = \mathbb{P}(B_n = 1) = 1/n \rightarrow 0$, so $X_n \xrightarrow{p} U$.

However,

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}(\{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = U(\omega)\}) \\
&= \mathbb{P}\left(\{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n(\omega) = 0\}\right) && \text{definition of } X_n \\
&= \mathbb{P}(\{\omega : \text{there exists } m \text{ such that, for all } n \geq m, B_n(\omega) = 0\}) && \text{because } B_n \in \{0, 1\} \\
&= \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=m}^{\infty} \{\omega : B_n(\omega) = 0\}\right) && \text{definition of limit of } B_n \\
&= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n=m}^{\infty} \{B_n = 0\}\right) && \text{continuity of probability} \\
&= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n=m}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(B_n = 0) && \text{independence of } B_n \\
&= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{n=m}^{\infty} (1 - 1/n) = 0 \neq 1.
\end{aligned}$$

Example 3.3 (Convergence in probability but not almost surely (typical one)). Let $\Omega = (0, 1]$, and P the Lebesgue measure, so that $P((a, b)) = |b - a|$. Let $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, \dots$ be the indicators of $(0, 1]$, $(0, 1/2]$, $(1/2, 1]$, $(0, 1/3]$, $(1/3, 2/3]$, $(2/3, 1]$, $(0, 1/4]$, $\dots$, respectively. Then for arbitrary $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$, the probabilities $P\{X_n > \epsilon\} = P(X_n = 1)$ are the sequence $1, 1/2, 1/2, 1/3, 1/3, 1/3, 1/4, \dots$, whose limit is 0. Thus, $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$. But, for every $\omega \in \Omega$, the sequence $(X_n(\omega))_{n \geq 1}$ consists of zeros and ones without end (i.e., switching back and forth infinitely often). Therefore, $\liminf_n X_n(\omega) = 0$ and $\limsup_n X_n(\omega) = 1$, and the set of ω for which $(X_n(\omega))_{n \geq 1}$ converges is empty.

Example 3.4 (Convergence in probability and not quadratic mean). Using the same setup as Example 3.3, we have that $X_n \xrightarrow{qm} 0$, as well, because $\mathbb{E}[X_n^2] \rightarrow 0$.

A slight alteration changes that. Let $(\hat{X}_n)_{n \geq 1} = (X_1, \sqrt{2}X_2, \sqrt{2}X_3, \sqrt{3}X_4, \sqrt{3}X_5, \sqrt{3}X_6, \sqrt{4}X_7, \dots)$. Now for $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$, $P\{\hat{X}_n > \epsilon\} = P\{X_n > \epsilon\}$ for each n , so $\hat{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$. However, $\mathbb{E}[\hat{X}_n^2] = 1$ for all n ,^a so $(\hat{X}_n)_{n \geq 1}$ does not converge to 0 in quadratic mean. But it cannot converge elsewhere, say some $a \neq 0$, otherwise Theorem 3.2(ii) would imply that $X_n \xrightarrow{P} a$. So $(\hat{X}_n)$ does not converge in quadratic mean.

^aWrite $p_n = P(\hat{X}_n = 1)$. Then note that $\hat{X}_n = \sqrt{p_n}X_n$. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}[\hat{X}_n^2] = \mathbb{E}[p_n X_n^2] = p_n P(X_n = 1) = p_n/p_n = 1$.

Exercise 3.1. Exercise 5.2, [Was04].

Some modes of convergence are preserved by continuous functions.

Theorem 3.3 (Continuous mapping theorem). *Let X_n, X be random vectors in $\mathbb{R}^k$ and let $g: \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be continuous at every point of a set C such that $P\{X \in C\} = 1$. Then*

- (i) *If $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$ then $g(X_n) \rightsquigarrow g(X)$.*
- (ii) *If $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ then $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{P} g(X)$.*
- (iii) *If $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$ then $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} g(X)$.*

Activity 3.2. Suppose that $X_n \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} \sigma$. Show that $X_n Y_n \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$.

References

- [van98] A. W. van der Vaart. *Asymptotic Statistics*. Cambridge Series in Statistical and Probabilistic Mathematics. Cambridge University Press, 1998.
- [Was04] L. Wasserman. *All of Statistics*. Springer New York, 2004.