## Overview of Stochastic Convergence

#### Statistical Theory

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# Motivation: Functions of Random Variables

#### Functions of Random Variables

Let  $X_1,...,X_n$  be i.i.d. with  $\mathbb{E}X_i = \mu$  and  $\text{var}[X_i] = \sigma^2$ . Consider:

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

- If  $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  or  $X_i \sim \exp(\lambda = 1/\mu)$  then know dist $[\bar{X}_n]$ .
- But  $X_i$  may be from some more general distribution
- ullet Joint distribution of  $X_i$  may not even be completely understood

Would like to be able to say something about  $\bar{X}_n$  even in those cases!

Perhaps this is not easy for fixed n, but what about letting  $n \to \infty$ ?  $\hookrightarrow$  (a very common approach in mathematics)

#### Functions of Random Variables

Once we assume that  $n \to \infty$  we start understanding dist $[\bar{X}_n]$  more:

ullet At a crude level  $ar{X}_n$  becomes concentrated around  $\mu$ 

$$\mathbb{P}[|\bar{X}_n - \mu| < \epsilon] \approx 1, \quad \forall \ \epsilon > 0, \ \text{as} \ n \to \infty$$

Perhaps more informative is to look at the "magnified difference"

$$\mathbb{P}[\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \le x] \stackrel{n \to \infty}{pprox} ? \text{ could yield } \mathbb{P}[\bar{X}_n \le x]$$

More generally  $\longrightarrow$  Want to understand distribution of  $Y = g(X_1, ..., X_n)$  for some general g:

- Often intractable
- ullet Resort to asymptotic approximations to understand behaviour of Y

Warning: asymptotics are often abused (n small!)

# Stochastic Convergence

## Convergence of Random Variables

Need to make precise what we mean by:

- $Y_n$  is "concentrated" around  $\mu$  as  $n \to \infty$
- More generally what " $Y_n$  behaves like Y" for large n means
- dist $[g(X_1,...,X_n)] \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\approx}$ ?
- → Need appropriate notions of convergence for random variables

Recall: random variables are functions between measurable spaces

- ⇒ Convergence of random variables can be defined in various ways:
  - Convergence in probability (convergence in measure)
  - Convergence in distribution (weak convergence)
  - Convergence with probability 1 (almost sure convergence)
  - Convergence in  $L^p$  (convergence in the p-th moment)

Each of these is qualitatively different - Some notions stronger than others

## Convergence in Probability

## Definition (Convergence in Probability)

Let  $\{X_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  and X be random variables defined on the same probability space. We say that  $X_n$  converges in probability to X as  $n\to\infty$  (and write  $X_n\stackrel{p}{\to} X$ ) if for any  $\epsilon>0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \epsilon] \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

Intuitively, if  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ , then with high probability  $X_n \approx X$  for large n.

#### Example

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{U}[0,1]$ , and define  $M_n = \max\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ . Then,

$$F_{M_n}(x) = x^n \implies \mathbb{P}[|M_n - 1| > \epsilon] = \mathbb{P}[M_n < 1 - \epsilon]$$
  
=  $(1 - \epsilon)^n \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ 

for any  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ . Hence  $M_n \stackrel{p}{\to} 1$ .

## Convergence in Probability

#### Lemma (Ky-Fan definition of convergence in probability)

 $X_n \stackrel{P}{\to} X$  if and only if there exists some  $\alpha_n \downarrow 0$  such that

$$\mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \alpha_n] \le \alpha_n, \qquad \forall \, n \ge 1.$$

#### Proof.

Suppose that there exists such an  $\alpha_n$ . Then given any  $\epsilon>0$ , there exists n sufficiently large so that  $\alpha_n<\epsilon$ . It follows that

$$\mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \epsilon] \leq \mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \alpha_n] \leq \alpha_n \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

and thus  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ . For the converse, suppose that  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ . Then,  $\exists \{n_k\}_{k \ge 1}$  s.t.

$$n_k < n_{k+1}, \quad \& \quad \mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > 1/k] \le \frac{1}{k}, \forall n \ge n_k.$$

Define  $\alpha_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} \mathbf{1}\{n_k \le n < n_{k+1}\}$ , and observe that  $\mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \alpha_n] \le \alpha_n$ , for all  $n \ge 1$ , and  $\alpha_n \downarrow 0$ , thus completing the proof.

## Convergence in Distribution

## Definition (Convergence in Distribution)

Let  $\{X_n\}$  and X be random variables (not necessarily defined on the same probability space). We say that  $X_n$  converges in distribution to X as  $n \to \infty$  (and write  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ ) if

$$\mathbb{P}[X_n \leq x] \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{P}[X \leq x],$$

at every continuity point of  $F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}[X \leq x]$ .

#### Example

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{U}[0,1]$ ,  $M_n = \max\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ , and  $Q_n = n(1-M_n)$ .

$$\mathbb{P}[Q_n \le x] = \mathbb{P}[M_n \ge 1 - x/n] = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{x}{n}\right)^n \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 1 - e^{-x}$$

for all x > 0. Hence  $Q_n \stackrel{d}{\to} Q$ , with  $Q \sim exp(1)$ .

# Some Comments on " $\stackrel{p}{\rightarrow}$ " and " $\stackrel{d}{\rightarrow}$ "

- Convergence in probability implies convergence in distribution.
- Convergence in distribution does NOT imply convergence in probability
  - $\hookrightarrow$  Consider  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ ,  $-X + \frac{1}{n} \stackrel{d}{\to} X$  but  $-X + \frac{1}{n} \stackrel{p}{\to} -X$ .
- " $\stackrel{d}{\rightarrow}$ " relates distribution functions
  - → Can use to approximate distributions (approximation error?).
- Both notions of convergence are metrizable
  - i.e. there exist metrics on the space of random variables and distribution functions that are compatible with the notion of convergence.
  - → Hence can use things such as the triangle inequality etc.
- " $\stackrel{d}{\rightarrow}$ " is also known as "weak convergence" (will see why).

Equivalent Def:  $X \stackrel{d}{\to} X \iff \mathbb{E}f(X_n) \to \mathbb{E}f(X) \ \forall \ \text{cts and bounded} \ f$ 

# **Useful Theorems**

## Some Basic Results

#### Theorem

- (a)  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X \implies X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$
- (b)  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} c \implies X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} c, c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

#### Proof

(a)Let x be a continuity point of  $F_X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then,

$$\mathbb{P}[X_n < x] = \mathbb{P}[X_n < x, |X_n - X| < \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[X_n < x, |X_n - X| > \epsilon]$$

$$\leq \mathbb{P}[X \leq x + \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \epsilon]$$

since  $\{X \le x + \epsilon\}$  contains  $\{X_n \le x, |X_n - X| \le \epsilon\}$ . Similarly,

$$\mathbb{P}[X \le x - \epsilon] = \mathbb{P}[X \le x - \epsilon, |X_n - X| \le \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[X \le x - \epsilon, |X_n - X| > \epsilon]$$

$$\leq \mathbb{P}[X_n \leq x] + \mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \epsilon]$$

#### (proof cont'd).

which yields  $\mathbb{P}[X \leq x - \epsilon] - \mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \epsilon] \leq \mathbb{P}[X_n \leq x].$ 

Combining the two inequalities and "sandwitching" yields the result.

(b) Let F be the distribution function of a constant r.v. c,

$$F(x) = \mathbb{P}[c \le x] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \ge c, \\ 0 & \text{if } x < c. \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbb{P}[|X_n - c| > \epsilon] = \mathbb{P}[\{X_n - c > \epsilon\} \cup \{c - X_n > \epsilon\}] \\
= \mathbb{P}[X_n > c + \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[X_n < c - \epsilon] \\
\leq 1 - \mathbb{P}[X_n \le c + \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[X_n \le c - \epsilon] \\
\xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 1 - F(\underbrace{c + \epsilon}) + F(\underbrace{c - \epsilon}) = 0$$

Since  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} c$ .



## Theorem (Continuous Mapping Theorem)

Let  $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Then,

- (a)  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X \implies g(X_n) \stackrel{p}{\to} g(X)$
- (b)  $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} Y \implies g(Y_n) \stackrel{d}{\to} g(Y)$

#### Exercise

Prove part (a). You may assume without proof the *Subsequence Lemma*:  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$  if and only if every subsequence  $X_{n_m}$  of  $X_n$ , has a further subsequence  $X_{n_{m(k)}}$  such that  $\mathbb{P}[X_{n_{m(k)}} \stackrel{k \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} X] = 1$ .

## Theorem (Slutsky's Theorem)

Let  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$  and  $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

- (a)  $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} X + c$
- (b)  $X_n Y_n \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} cX$

#### Proof of Slutsky's Theorem.

(a) We may assume c = 0. Let x be a continuity point of  $F_X$ . We have

$$\mathbb{P}[X_n + Y_n \le x] = \mathbb{P}[X_n + Y_n \le x, |Y_n| \le \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[X_n + Y_n \le x, |Y_n| > \epsilon]$$

$$\le \mathbb{P}[X_n \le x + \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[|Y_n| > \epsilon]$$

Similarly, 
$$\mathbb{P}[X_n \le x - \epsilon] \le \mathbb{P}[X_n + Y_n \le x] + \mathbb{P}[|Y_n| > \epsilon],$$
 therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}[X_n \le x - \epsilon] - \mathbb{P}[|Y_n| > \epsilon] \le \mathbb{P}[X_n + Y_n \le x] \le \mathbb{P}[X_n \le x + \epsilon] + \mathbb{P}[|Y_n| > \epsilon]$$
  
Since  $\epsilon$  is arbitrary, this proves (a) by taking  $n \to \infty$ .

#### Proof.

(b) It suffices to assume c=0 (since  $(Y_n+c)X_n=X_nY_n+X_nc$ , so if we can show  $X_nY_n\stackrel{d}{\to} 0$ , then (a) gives conclusion). Let  $\epsilon,M>0$ :

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}[|X_n Y_n| > \epsilon] & \leq & \mathbb{P}[|X_n Y_n| > \epsilon, |Y_n| \leq 1/M] + \mathbb{P}[|Y_n| \geq 1/M] \\ & \leq & \mathbb{P}[|X_n| > \epsilon M] + \mathbb{P}[|Y_n| \geq 1/M] \\ & \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} & \mathbb{P}[|X| > \epsilon M] + 0 \end{split}$$

The first term can be made arbitrarily small by letting  $M \to \infty$ .



## Theorem (General Version of Slutsky's Theorem)

Let  $g: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous and suppose that  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$  and  $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then,  $g(X_n, Y_n) \to g(X, c)$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

→Notice that the general version of Slutsky's theorem <u>does not follow</u> immediately from the continuous mapping theorem.

- The continuous mapping theorem would be applicable if  $(X_n, Y_n)$  weakly converged jointly (i.e. their joint distribution) to (X, c).
- But here we assume only marginal convergence (i.e.  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$  and  $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} c$  separately, but their joint behaviour is unspecified).
- The key of the proof is that in the special case where  $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} c$  where c is a constant, then marginal convergence  $\iff$  joint convergence.
- However if  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$  where X is non-degenerate, and  $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} Y$  where Y is non-degenerate, then the theorem fails.
- Notice that even the special cases (addition and multiplication) of Slutsky's theorem fail of both X and Y are non-degenerate.

## Theorem (The Delta Method)

Let  $Z_n := a_n(X_n - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\to} Z$  where  $a_n, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$  for all n and  $a_n \uparrow \infty$ . Let  $g(\cdot)$  be continuously differentiable at  $\theta$ . Then,  $a_n(g(X_n) - g(\theta)) \stackrel{d}{\to} g'(\theta)Z$ .

#### Proof

Taylor expanding around  $\theta$  gives:

$$g(X_n) = g(\theta) + g'(\theta_n^*)(X_n - \theta), \quad \theta_n^* \text{ between } X_n, \theta.$$

Thus  $|\theta_n^* - \theta| < |X_n - \theta| = a_n^{-1} \cdot |a_n(X_n - \theta)| = a_n^{-1} Z_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$  [by Slutsky] Therefore,  $\theta_n^* \xrightarrow{P} \theta$ . By the continuous mapping theorem  $g'(\theta_n^*) \xrightarrow{P} g'(\theta)$ .

Thus 
$$a_n(g(X_n) - g(\theta)) = a_n(g(\theta) + g'(\theta_n^*)(X_n - \theta) - g(\theta))$$
  
=  $g'(\theta_n^*)a_n(X - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\to} g'(\theta)Z$ .

The delta method actually applies even when  $g'(\theta)$  is not continuous (proof uses Skorokhod representation).

Exercise: Give a counterexample to show that neither of  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$  or  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$  ensures that  $\mathbb{E} X_n \to \mathbb{E} X$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

## Theorem (Convergence of Expecations)

If  $|X_n| < M < \infty$  and  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ , then  $\mathbb{E} X$  exists and  $\mathbb{E} X_n \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{E} X$ .

#### Proof.

Assume first that  $X_n$  are non-negative  $\forall n$ . Then,

$$|\mathbb{E}X_{n} - \mathbb{E}X| = \left| \int_{0}^{M} \mathbb{P}[X_{n} > x] - \mathbb{P}[X > x] dx \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{0}^{M} |\mathbb{P}[X_{n} > x] - \mathbb{P}[X > x]| dx \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0.$$

since  $M < \infty$  and the integration domain is bounded.

Exercise: Generalise the proof to arbitrary random variables.

## Remarks on Weak Convergence

- Often difficult to establish weak convergence directly (from definition)
- Indeed, if  $F_n$  known, establishing weak convergence is "useless"
- Need other more "handy" sufficient conditions

#### Scheffé's Theorem

Let  $X_n$  have density functions (or probability functions)  $f_n$ , and let X have density function (or probability function) f. Then

$$f_n \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} f$$
 (a.e.)  $\implies X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ 

 The converse to Scheffé's theorem is NOT true (why?).

#### Continuity Theorem

Let  $X_n$  and X have characteristic functions  $\varphi_n(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX_n}]$ , and  $\varphi(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX}]$ , respectively. Then, (a)  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X \Leftrightarrow \phi_n \to \phi$  pointwise (b) If  $\phi_n(t)$  converges pointwise to some limit function  $\psi(t)$  that is continuous at zero, then:

- (i)  $\exists$  a measure  $\nu$  with c.f.  $\psi$
- (ii)  $F_{X_n} \stackrel{w}{\to} \nu$ .

## Weak Convergence of Random Vectors

#### Definition

Let  $\{\mathbf{X}_n\}$  be a sequence of random vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and  $\mathbf{X}$  a random vector of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with  $\mathbf{X}_n = (X_n^{(1)},...,X_n^{(d)})^\mathsf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{X} = (X^{(1)},...,X^{(d)})^\mathsf{T}$ . Define the distribution functions  $F_{\mathbf{X}_n}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}[X_n^{(1)} \leq x^{(1)},...,X_n^{(d)} \leq x^{(d)}]$  and  $F_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}[X^{(1)} \leq x^{(1)},...,X^{(d)} \leq x^{(d)}]$ , for  $\mathbf{x} = (x^{(1)},...,x^{(d)})^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . We say that  $\mathbf{X}_n$  converges in distribution to  $\mathbf{X}$  as  $n \to \infty$  (and write  $\mathbf{X}_n \overset{d}{\to} \mathbf{X}$ ) if for every continuity point of  $F_{\mathbf{X}}$  we have

$$F_{X_n}(X) \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} F_X(x).$$

There is a link between univariate and multivariate weak convergence:

## Theorem (Cramér-Wold Device)

Let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of random vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and X a random vector of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then,

$$\mathbf{X}_{n} \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathbf{X} \Leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X}_{n} \stackrel{d}{\to} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X}, \ \forall \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}.$$

# Stronger Notions of Convergence

## Almost Sure Convergence and Convergence in $L^p$

There are also two stronger convergence concepts (that do not compare)

## Definition (Almost Sure Convergence)

Let  $\{X_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  and X be random variables defined on the same probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . Let  $A:=\{\omega\in\Omega: X_n(\omega)\stackrel{n\to\infty}{\to} X(\omega)\}$ . We say that  $X_n$  converges almost surely to X as  $n\to\infty$  (and write  $X_n\stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$ ) if  $\mathbb{P}[A]=1$ .

More plainly, we say  $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$  if  $\mathbb{P}[X_n \to X] = 1$ .

## Definition (Convergence in $L^p$ )

Let  $\{X_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  and X be random variables defined on the same probability space. We say that  $X_n$  converges to X in  $L^p$  as  $n\to\infty$  (and write  $X_n\stackrel{L^p}{\to} X$ ) if

$$\mathbb{E}|X_n-X|^p\stackrel{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

Note that  $\|X\|_{L^p}:=(\mathbb{E}|X|^p)^{1/p}$  defines a complete norm (when finite)

## Relationship Between Different Types of Convergence

- $\bullet \ X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$
- $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$ , for  $p > 0 \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$
- for  $p \ge q$ ,  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{L^q} X$
- There is no implicative relationship between " $\stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow}$ " and " $\stackrel{L^p}{\longrightarrow}$ "

## Theorem (Skorokhod's Representation Theorem)

Let  $\{X_n\}_{n\geq 1}, X$  be random variables defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  with  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ . Then, there exist random variables  $\{Y_n\}_{n\geq 1}, Y$  defined on some probability space  $(\Omega', \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{Q})$  such that:

- (i)  $Y \stackrel{d}{=} X \& Y_n \stackrel{d}{=} X_n, \forall n \geq 1$ ,
- (ii)  $Y_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} Y$ .

#### Exercise

Prove part (b) of the continuous mapping theorem.

# The Two "Big" Theorems

## Recalling two basic Theorems

Multivariate Random Variables  $\rightarrow$  " $\stackrel{d}{\rightarrow}$ " defined coordinatewise

## Theorem (Strong Law of Large Numbers)

Let  $\{X_n\}$  be pairwise iid random variables with  $\mathbb{E}X_k = \mu$  and  $\mathbb{E}|X_k| < \infty$ , for all  $k \ge 1$ . Then,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu$$

- "Strong" is as opposed to the "weak" law which requires  $\mathbb{E}X_k^2 < \infty$  instead of  $\mathbb{E}|X_k| < \infty$  and gives " $\stackrel{p}{\rightarrow}$ " instead of " $\stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow}$ "
- This is insanely strong:  $(E)|X_k| < \infty$  is the weakest condition for it to have an expected value. The theorem reads: if there is an expected value, we can find it with the empirical mean.
- The strong law says **nothing useful** about the **size** of the error.

## Recalling two basic theorems

#### Theorem (Central Limit Theorem)

Let  $\{\mathbf{X}_n\}$  be an iid sequence of random vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with mean  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  and covariance  $\Sigma$  and define  $\bar{\mathbf{X}}_n := \sum_{m=1}^n \mathbf{X}_m/n$ . Then,

$$\sqrt{n}\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}(ar{\mathbf{X}}-oldsymbol{\mu})\overset{d}{
ightarrow}\mathbf{Z}\sim\mathcal{N}_d(\mathbf{0},I_d).$$

- Insanely strong theorem: as soon as the covariance exist, we are in business.
- Once more, no control on the size of error.
- There are many variants of this basic CLT.

## Convergence Rates

The mathematician rarely cares about convergence speed. The statistician does (should?) because **data is money**.

- Law of Large Numbers: assuming finite variance,  $L^2$  rate of  $n^{-1/2}$ . Optimal because of CLT.
- What about Central Limit Theorem?

## The Berry-Esseen theorem

## Theorem (Berry-Essen {Bentkus, 2005, Theory Prob Appl})

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be iid random vectors taking values in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and such that  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = 0$ ,  $cov[X_i] = I_d$ . Define,

$$\mathbf{S}_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(\mathbf{X}_1 + \ldots + \mathbf{X}_n).$$

If  $\mathcal A$  denotes the class of convex subsets of  $\mathbb R^d$ , then for  $\mathbf Z \sim \mathcal N_d(\mathbf 0, I_d)$ ,

$$\sup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} |\mathbb{P}[\mathbf{S}_n \in A] - \mathbb{P}[\mathbf{Z} \in A]| \le C \frac{d^{1/4} \mathbb{E} \|\mathbf{X}_i\|^3}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

The constant C is universal.  $C \leq 4$ .

Using this theorem, we can construct confidence regions with guaranteed coverage.