

Problems 1

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1 Probabilities, random variables

1. A fair die is thrown until a 6 appears. What is the probability that it must be thrown at least k times?

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{at least } k \text{ throws}) &= 1 - P(\text{fewer than } k \text{ throws}) \\P(\text{fewer than } k \text{ throws}) &= P(\text{success in first } k - 1 \text{ throws}) \\P(\text{success in first } k - 1 \text{ throws}) &= 1 - \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{k-1}\end{aligned}$$

2. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^K$, let $f_\theta(x) := h(x) \exp(\eta(\theta)'T(x) - A(\theta))$ for functions h, η, T, A . When is this a pdf? i.e. when is $f(x) \geq 0$ and such that its integral is equal to one?

Non-negativity: $f_\theta(x) \geq 0$

$$\begin{aligned}h(x) &\geq 0 \quad \forall x \text{ in the support} \\ \exp(\eta(\theta)'T(x) - A(\theta)) &\geq 0\end{aligned}$$

Integrating to 1:

This is where the log-partition function $A(\theta)$ plays a crucial role:

$$\begin{aligned}\int f_\theta(x) dx &= \int h(x) \exp(\eta(\theta)'T(x) - A(\theta)) dx = 1 \\ &= \exp(-A(\theta)) \int h(x) \exp(\eta(\theta)'T(x)) dx = 1 \\ \therefore A(\theta) &= \log \int h(x) \exp(\eta(\theta)'T(x)) dx\end{aligned}$$

3. For each $i = 1, \dots, K$, let f_i be pdfs (resp.) and define $f(x) := \sum_{i=1}^K w_i f_i(x)$ where $w_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^K w_i = 1$. Show that f is a probability density (resp. probability mass) function. i.e. show that $f(x) \geq 0$ and its integral / sum is equal to one in the density / mass case respectively

Here we need to verify two conditions:

- **Non-negativity:** Show that $f(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$
- **Normalization:** Show that the integral (or sum) equals 1

Non-negativity:

Since each $f_i(x)$ is a valid pdf/pmf, we have $f_i(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \wedge (i = 1, \dots, K)$

Additionally, we have given that $w_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, K$

$$\therefore f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^K w_i f_i(x) \geq 0$$

Since we are summing non-negative terms ($w_i \geq 0 \wedge f_i \geq 0$)

Normalization:

Case 1: pdf

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^K w_i f_i(x) dx \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K w_i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_i(x) dx \quad (\text{linearity of integration}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K w_i \times 1 \quad (\text{since each } f_i \text{ is a valid pdf}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K w_i \\ &= 1 \quad (\text{given the constraint } \sum_{i=1}^K w_i = 1) \end{aligned}$$

Case 2: pmf

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_x f(x) &= \sum_x \sum_{i=1}^K w_i f_i(x) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K w_i \sum_x f_i(x) \quad (\text{linearity of summation}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K w_i \times 1 \quad (\text{since each } f_i \text{ is a valid pmf}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K w_i \\ &= 1 \quad (\text{given constraint}) \end{aligned}$$

4. Let X be a Poisson r.v. with mass function $f(x) = \lambda^x \exp(-\lambda)/x!$, $x = 0, 1, \dots$ for $\lambda > 0$. Find the probability that X is odd

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(\lambda) &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = 1 + \frac{\lambda}{1!} + \frac{\lambda^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} \\ \exp(-\lambda) &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{-\lambda^x}{x!} = 1 + \frac{-\lambda}{1!} + \frac{-\lambda^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{-\lambda^n}{n!} \\ P(X \text{ is odd}) &= \sum_{x \text{ odd}} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x \text{ odd}} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}e^{\lambda} &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \quad (\text{sum of all terms}) \\ e^{-\lambda} &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^x \lambda^x}{x!} \quad (\text{alternating signs})\end{aligned}$$

$$e^{\lambda} + e^{-\lambda} = 2 \sum_{x \text{ even}} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \quad (\text{even terms don't cancel})$$

$$e^{\lambda} - e^{-\lambda} = 2 \sum_{x \text{ odd}} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \quad (\text{odd terms don't cancel})$$

$$\rightarrow \sum_{x \text{ odd}} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = \frac{e^{\lambda} - e^{-\lambda}}{2}$$

$$P(X \text{ is odd}) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{e^{\lambda} - e^{-\lambda}}{2} = \frac{1 - e^{-2\lambda}}{2}$$

5. Prove that $F(x) := (1 + \exp(-x))^{-1} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a CDF

Recall that a CDF must satisfy these requirements:

- **Monotonicity:** F is non-decreasing (i.e. $x_1 \leq x_2 \rightarrow F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$)
- **Right-continuity:** F is right-continuous at every point
- **Limit conditions:**
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$

Limit conditions: It is trivial that the function satisfies these two conditions.

Monotonicity: We prove that $F'(x) \geq 0$:

$$F'(x) = \frac{\exp(-x)}{(1 + \exp(-x))^2} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Right-continuity:

Since $F(x)$ is continuous everywhere (as a composition of continuous functions), it is automatically right-continuous

$\therefore F(x)$ is a CDF

□

6. Show that any CDF F , i.e. $F(x) := P(X \leq x)$, can have at most a countable number of discontinuities

The key here is to use the monotonicity of CDFs combined with the fact that rational numbers are countable.

For any CDF F , discontinuities can only be “jump” discontinuities due to monotonicity. At each discontinuity point x_0 we have:

- Left limit: $F(x_0^-) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F(x)$ exists
- Right limit: $F(x_0^+) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} F(x) = F(x_0)$ (right-continuity)
- Jump size: $F(x_0) - F(x_0^-) > 0$

Associate each discontinuity with a rational number:

- Let D be the set of discontinuity points
- For each $x \in D$, the jump size is $F(x) - F(x^-) > 0$
- Between any two consecutive jumps $F(x^-)$ and $F(x)$, there exists a rational number
- Since F is monotonic, these rational intervals are disjoint

Rationals are countable:

- Each discontinuity corresponds to a unique rational number in $(F(x^-), F(x)]$
- Since $\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$ is countable, and all these rationals are distinct
- Therefore D is at most countable

2 Expectations

1. Show that $\mathbb{E}[\alpha] = \alpha$ for any non-random α

By the definition of the expected value (and the fact that all pdfs integrate to one):

$$\mathbb{E}[c] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c f(x) dx = c \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = c \cdot 1 = c$$

2. Let X be the sum of two rolls of a fair die. What is the mean and variance of X ?

X itself is defined as $X = X_1 + X_2$, where $X_1, X_2 \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, 6\}$, independent.

This means that:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X_1 + X_2] = \mathbb{E}[X_1] + \mathbb{E}[X_2]$$

Since the die are identical, $\mathbb{E}[X_1] = \mathbb{E}[X_2]$, and thus:

$$\mathbb{E}[X_1] = \sum_{i=1}^6 P(x=i) = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^6 i = \frac{7}{2}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X_1 + X_2] = \mathbb{E}[X_1] + \mathbb{E}[X_2] = \frac{7}{2} + \frac{7}{2} = 7$$

Since the die are independent, we only need to compute the one variance:

$$\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X_1^2] = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^6 i^2 = \frac{91}{6}$$

$$\text{Variance of one die: } \frac{91}{6} - \left(\frac{7}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{35}{12}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \text{Var}(X_1) + \text{Var}(X_2) = 2 \cdot \frac{35}{12} = \frac{35}{6} = 5.8\bar{3}$$

3. X is uniformly distributed on $[a, b]$ if its density is $f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$. Compute the mean and variance of X .

Recall that $\mathbb{E}[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X] &= \int_a^b x \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot \int_a^b x dx \\ &= \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} = \frac{x^2}{2(b-a)} \Big|_a^b = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2(b-a)} \\ &= \frac{b+a}{2}\end{aligned}$$

Nice. Also recall that $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X^2] &= \int_a^b x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot \int_a^b x^2 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot \frac{x^3}{3} = \frac{x^3}{3(b-a)} \Big|_a^b = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3(b-a)} = \frac{b^2 + ab + a^2}{3}\end{aligned}$$

Thus:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[X] &= \frac{b^2 + ab + a^2}{3} - \left(\frac{b+a}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{b^2 + ab + a^2}{3} - \frac{b^2 + 2ab + a^2}{4} \\ &= \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}\end{aligned}$$

4. Calculate the mean of $X \sim t(v)$. Are restrictions on v required for the mean to exist?

First we should define the student's t -distribution:

$$f(t) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{v+1}{2})}{\sqrt{\pi v} \Gamma(\frac{v}{2})} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{v}\right)^{-\frac{(v+1)}{2}}$$

By symmetry the integrand $xf(x)$ is an odd function, so if the expectation integral converges, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx = 0$$

Existence: for large $|x|$, the density behaves like a constant times $|x|^{-(v+1)}$. Hence:

$$\mathbb{E}[|X|] \asymp \int_1^{\infty} x \cdot x^{-(v+1)} dx = \int_1^{\infty} x^{-v} dx$$

Which converges iff $v > 1$

5. Prove Proposition 2.6 for the discrete case.

Prop. 6:

Let X be a random variable, α a constant and g_1 and g_2 such that $\mathbb{E}g_1(X)$ and $\mathbb{E}g_2(X)$ exist. Then

- i) $\mathbb{E}[\alpha g_1(X)] = \alpha \mathbb{E}g_1(X)$ and $\mathbb{E}[g_1(X) + g_2(X)] = \mathbb{E}g_1(X) + \mathbb{E}g_2(X)$;
- ii) If $g_1(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$ with $P(X = x) > 0$, then $\mathbb{E}g_1(X) \geq 0$

Let X be a discrete r.v. with pmf $P(X = x)$, where x ranges over the support of X

Part i): linearity of expectation

For scalar multiplication:

$$\mathbb{E}[\alpha g_1(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \alpha g_1(x) P(X = x) = \alpha \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g_1(x) P(X = x) = \alpha \mathbb{E}[g_1(X)]$$

For addition:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[g_1(X) + g_2(X)] &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} [g_1(x) + g_2(x)] P(X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g_1(x) P(X = x) + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g_2(x) P(X = x) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[g_1(X)] + \mathbb{E}[g_2(X)] \end{aligned}$$

Part ii): non-negative property:

If $g_1(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$ with $P(X = x) > 0$, then:

$$\mathbb{E}[g_1(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g_1(x) P(X = x)$$

Since each term $g_1(x)P(X = x) \geq 0$ (because $g_1(x) \geq 0$ and $P(X = x) \geq 0$), we have:

$$\mathbb{E}[g_1(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g_1(x) P(X = x) \geq 0$$

6. Prove Lemma 2.1:

It states that *If $\text{Var}(X)$ exists, then for any constants a, b*

$$\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

Recall that $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[(aX + b)^2] - (\mathbb{E}[(aX + b)])^2 &= \mathbb{E}[(aX + b) - \mathbb{E}[(aX + b)]]^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(aX - a\mathbb{E}[X])^2] = a^2 \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \\ &= a^2 \text{Var}(X) \end{aligned}$$

□

7. Prove Lemma 2.2:

It states that [Properties of indicators]: *If A, B are events and X an r.v.:*

$$\begin{aligned} (i) \quad \mathbb{1}_A \mathbb{1}_B &= \mathbb{1}_{A \cap B} \\ (ii) \quad P(X \in A) &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_A(X)] \\ (iii) \quad P(X \in A)[1 - P(X \in A)] &= \text{Var}(\mathbb{1}_A(X)) \end{aligned}$$

For an event E , its indicator $\mathbb{1}_E$ takes value 1 on E and 0 on E^c . If X is an r.v. and A is a measurable set in the state space of X , then $\mathbb{1}_A(X)$ means the indicator of the event $\{\omega : X(\omega) \in A\}$, i.e. $\mathbb{1}_{X \in A}$

$$(i) \quad \mathbb{1}_A \mathbb{1}_B = \mathbb{1}_{A \cap B}$$

Pointwise check: for any ω , the left side is 1 iff. $\omega \in A \wedge \omega \in B$, otherwise it is 0. That is exactly the indicator of $A \cap B$ □

$$(ii) \quad P(X \in A) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_A(X)]$$

Let $E = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in A\} = X^{-1}(A)$. Then $\mathbb{1}_A(X) = \mathbb{1}_E$

For any event E , $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_E] = \int \mathbb{1}_E dP = P(E)$. Hence $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_A(X)] = P(X \in A)$ □

$$(iii) \quad P(X \in A)[1 - P(X \in A)] = \text{Var}(\mathbb{1}_A(X))$$

Set $Y = \mathbb{1}_A(X)$. Then $Y \in \{0, 1\}$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y] = P(X \in A) =: p$

Since $Y^2 = Y$, $\text{Var}(Y) = \mathbb{E}[Y^2] - (\mathbb{E}[Y])^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p)$

$\therefore \text{Var}(\mathbb{1}_A(X)) = P(X \in A)[1 - P(X \in A)]$ □

8. Let X and Y be r.v.s with $\mathbb{E}|X| < \infty$, $\mathbb{E}|Y| < \infty$ and let $X \wedge Y := \min\{X, Y\}$ and $X \vee Y := \max\{X, Y\}$. Show that $\mathbb{E}[X \vee Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y] - \mathbb{E}[X \wedge Y]$ [Hint: What is $(X \vee Y) + (X \wedge Y)$?]

Consider what happens when we add the max and min of two numbers: $\min\{a, b\} + \max\{a, b\} = a + b$

$$\therefore (X \vee Y) + (X \wedge Y) = X + Y$$

Since $(X \vee Y) + (X \wedge Y) = X + Y$, we can carry expectation operations:

$$\mathbb{E}[(X \vee Y) + (X \wedge Y)] = \mathbb{E}[X + Y]$$

We can use linearity of expectation since $\mathbb{E}|X|, \mathbb{E}|Y| < \infty$:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X \vee Y] + \mathbb{E}[X \wedge Y] &= \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X \vee Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y] - \mathbb{E}[X \wedge Y]\end{aligned}$$

□

3 Conditioning & independence

1. If P is a probability and B an event with $P(B) > 0$, show that $P(\cdot|B)$ is also a probability. $P(\cdot|B)$ must satisfy the three axioms of probability.

Definition: For an event A , we have $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$ where $P(B) > 0$

Axiom 1: Non-negativity: For any event A , we need $P(A|B) \geq 0$.

Since P is a probability measure:

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap B) &\geq 0 \quad (\text{by non-negativity of } P) \\ P(B) &> 0 \quad (\text{given condition}) \\ \therefore P(A|B) &= \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Axiom 2: Normalization: we need $P(\Omega|B) = 1$, where Ω is the sample space.

$$P(\Omega|B) = \frac{P(\Omega \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B)}{P(B)} = 1 \quad (\text{since } \Omega \cap B = B)$$

Axiom 3: Countable additivity: For countably many disjoint events A_1, \dots, A_n , we need:

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \middle| B\right) &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i|B) \\ P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \middle| B\right) &= \frac{P((\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (A_i \cap B))}{P(B)} \quad (\text{using the distributive property of intersection over union}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{P(A_i \cap B)}{P(B)} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i|B) \end{aligned}$$

Since the A_i are disjoint, the events $A_i \cap B$ are also disjoint. Therefore, by countable additivity of P :

Since $P(\cdot|B)$ satisfies all three axioms of probability, it is indeed a probability measure □

2. If $P(B \cap C) > 0$ show that $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A|B \cap C)P(B|C)P(C)$

We know that $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$

Let $B_c = B \cap C \quad \therefore P(A \cap B_c) = P(A|B \cap C)P(B \cap C)$

By the definition: $P(B \cap C) = P(B|C)P(C)$

Substitute back in: $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A|B \cap C)P(B|C)P(C)$ □

3. Prove Lemma 2.3

It states that *If $X = (X_1, \dots, X_K)$ is a random vector and $\text{Var}(X)$ exists then for any (constant) vector $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^K$ and any (constant) matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times K}$,*

$$\text{Var}(AX + b) = A\text{Var}(X)A'$$

Fix dimensions: $X \in \mathbb{R}^K$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times K} \rightarrow AX \in \mathbb{R}^m$

Let $Y = AX + b$, where $X \in \mathbb{R}^K$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times K}$, and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ (note that the dimensions of b must match AX)

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[YY'] &= \mathbb{E}[(AX + b)(AX + b)'] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[AXX'A' + AX'b + bX'A' + bb'] \\ &= A\mathbb{E}[XX']A' + A\mathbb{E}[X]b' + b\mathbb{E}[X]'A' + bb' \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[Y]\mathbb{E}[Y]' &= (A\mathbb{E}[X] + b)(A\mathbb{E}[X] + b)' \\ &= A\mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X]'A' + A\mathbb{E}[X]b' + b\mathbb{E}[X]'A' + bb' \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Var}(AX + b) &= \mathbb{E}[Y]\mathbb{E}[Y]' \\ &= A(\mathbb{E}[XX'] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X]')A' \\ &= A\text{Var}(X)A' \end{aligned}$$

4. Prove Lemma 2.4

Lemma 2.4: If X , Z and Y are random vectors in \mathbb{R}^K , \mathbb{R}^K and \mathbb{R}^L , respectively, $a \in \mathbb{R}^K$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^L$ are constant vectors and A and B are constant matrices with K and L columns respectively,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X + Z, Y) &= \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(Z, Y) \\ &\text{and} \\ \text{Cov}(AX + a, BY + b) &= A\text{Cov}(X, Y)B'\end{aligned}$$

Recall that the matrix covariance of random vectors $X \in \mathbb{R}^K$ and $Y \in \mathbb{R}^L$ is

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}X)(Y - \mathbb{E}Y)']$$

Additivity in the first argument:

Let $\mu_X = \mathbb{E}X$, $\mu_Z = \mathbb{E}Z$, $\mu_Y = \mathbb{E}Y$, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X + Z, Y) &= \mathbb{E}[(X + Z - \mu_X - \mu_Z)(Y - \mu_Y)'] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)' + (Z - \mu_Z)(Y - \mu_Y)'] \\ &= \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(Z, Y)\end{aligned}$$

□

Affine equivariance:

Let $U = AX + a$ and $V = BY + b$. Then $\mathbb{E}U = A\mathbb{E}X + a$ and $\mathbb{E}V = B\mathbb{E}Y + b$, so

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(U, V) &= \mathbb{E}[(U - \mathbb{E}U)(V - \mathbb{E}V)'] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(AX + a - (A\mathbb{E}X + a))(BY + b - (B\mathbb{E}Y + b))'] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[A(X - \mathbb{E}X)(B(Y - \mathbb{E}Y))'] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[A(X - \mathbb{E}X)(Y - \mathbb{E}Y)'B'] \\ &= A\mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}X)(Y - \mathbb{E}Y)']B' \\ &= A\text{Cov}(X, Y)B'\end{aligned}$$

□

5. Prove Lemma 2.5

If X , Z and Y are r.v.s. then

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

If X and Y are random vectors of the same dimension then

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(X, Y)'$$

Key identity: $\text{Var}(Z) = \text{Cov}(Z, Z)$, and for any r.v./vectors U, V, W ,

$$\text{Cov}(U + V, W) = \text{Cov}(U, W) + \text{Cov}(V, W)$$

$$\text{Cov}(U, V + W) = \text{Cov}(U, V) + \text{Cov}(U, W)$$

Scalar case (real-valued X, Y):

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X + Y) &= \text{Cov}(X + Y, X + Y) \\ &= \text{Cov}(X, X) + \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(Y, X) + \text{Cov}(Y, Y) \\ &= \text{Var}(X) + \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Var}(Y) \\ &= \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)\end{aligned}$$

Vector case ($X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^d$):

Use $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}X)(Y - \mathbb{E}Y)']$ (a $d \times d$ matrix) so $\text{Cov}(Y, X) = \text{Cov}(X, Y)'$:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X + Y) &= \text{Cov}(X + Y, X + Y) \\ &= \text{Cov}(X, X) + \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(Y, X) + \text{Cov}(Y, Y) \\ &= \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(X, Y)'\end{aligned}$$

□

6. Prove Corollary 2.1

If X and Y are independent, then $\text{Cov} = 0$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

Using conditional expectation,

$$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[XY|X]] = \mathbb{E}[X\mathbb{E}[Y|X]]$$

If X and Y are independent, then $\mathbb{E}[Y|X] = \mathbb{E}[Y]$. Hence $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$, and therefore $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$

□

7. Prove Proposition 2.10

Let X and Y be random vectors, α a constant and g_1 and g_2 such that $\mathbb{E}g_1(X)$ and $\mathbb{E}g_2(X)$ exist. Then

- (i) $\mathbb{E}[\alpha g_1(X)|Y] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[g_1(X)|Y]$ and $\mathbb{E}[g_1(X) + g_2(X)|Y] = \mathbb{E}[g_1(X)|Y] + \mathbb{E}[g_2(X)|Y]$;
- (ii) If $g_1 \geq 0$ $\forall x$ with $f(x|y) > 0$, then $\mathbb{E}[g_1(X)|Y] \geq 0$

Let $Z_1 := g_1(X)$ and $Z_2 := g_2(X)$, and let $\mathcal{G} := \sigma(Y)$. Recall the defining property of conditional expectation: For any integrable Z , a version of $\mathbb{E}[Z|\mathcal{G}]$ is the \mathcal{G} -measurable W s.t. for every $A \in \mathcal{G}$, $\mathbb{E}[Z\mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}[W\mathbf{1}_A]$

Such W is unique a.s.

(i) Linearity:

Scalar multiple: for any $A \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\mathbb{E}[(\alpha Z_1)\mathbf{1}_A] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[Z_1\mathbf{1}_A] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Z_1|\mathcal{G}]\mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}[\alpha \mathbb{E}[Z_1|\mathcal{G}]\mathbf{1}_A]$$

Both $\mathbb{E}[\alpha Z_1|\mathcal{G}]$ and $\alpha \mathbb{E}[Z_1|\mathcal{G}]$ are \mathcal{G} -measurable and satisfy the same defining identity, hence

$$\mathbb{E}[\alpha Z_1|\mathcal{G}] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[Z_1|\mathcal{G}] \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Replacing Z_1 by $g_1(X)$ and \mathcal{G} by $\sigma(Y)$ gives $\mathbb{E}[\alpha g_1(X)|Y] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[g_1(X)|Y]$ a.s.

Sum: For any $A \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\mathbb{E}[(Z_1 + Z_2)\mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}[Z_1\mathbf{1}_A] + \mathbb{E}[Z_2\mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Z_1|\mathcal{G}]\mathbf{1}_A] + \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Z_2|\mathcal{G}]\mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbb{E}[Z_1|\mathcal{G}] + \mathbb{E}[Z_2|\mathcal{G}])\mathbf{1}_A]$$

By the same uniqueness argument,

$$\mathbb{E}[Z_1 + Z_2|\mathcal{G}] = \mathbb{E}[Z_1|\mathcal{G}] + \mathbb{E}[Z_2|\mathcal{G}] \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Substituting $Z_i = g_i(X)$ and $\mathcal{G} = \sigma(Y)$ gives the desired result

□

(ii) Positivity:

Assume $g_1(X) \geq 0$ a.s. Let $W := \mathbb{E}[g_1(X)|\mathcal{G}]$. For any $A \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\mathbb{E}[W\mathbf{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}[g_1(X)\mathbf{1}_A] \geq 0$$

If $\mathbb{P}(W < 0) > 0$, take $A = \{W < 0\} \in \mathcal{G}$; then $\mathbb{E}[W\mathbf{1}_A] < 0$, a contradiction. Hence $\mathbb{P}(W \geq 0) = 1$, i.e.

$$\mathbb{E}[g_1(X)|Y] \geq 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

□

7. Prove the “law of total variance”: if $\text{Var}(X) < \infty$ then $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(X|Y)] + \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[X|Y])$ [Hint: $\text{Var}(X|Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X|Y])^2]$].

Recall the definition of variance in terms of \mathbb{E} :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 \\ &\rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^2] = \text{Var}(X) + (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 \\ &\rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^2] = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(X|Y) + \mathbb{E}[X|Y]^2] \quad (\text{applying the law of total expectation}) \\ &\quad \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(X|Y) + \mathbb{E}[X|Y]^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 \\ &\rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(X|Y) + \mathbb{E}[X|Y]^2] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]]^2 \quad (\text{applying the law of total expectation}) \\ &\quad \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(X|Y)] + \left(\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]^2] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]]^2 \right) \\ &\quad \text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(X|Y)] + \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[X|Y]) \end{aligned}$$

□

4 Key results

1. Prove Corollary 2.2:

If $t > 0$ then

$$P(\|X\| > t) \leq t^{-p} \mathbb{E}\|X\|^p$$

This is Markov's inequality applied to the nonnegative r.v. $\|X\|^p$

Let $Z := \|X\|^p \geq 0$ and assume $\mathbb{E}\|X\|^p < \infty$

For any $a > 0$:

$$\mathbb{P}(Z > a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}Z}{a}$$

Taking $a = t^p$ with $t > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}(\|X\| > t) = \mathbb{P}(\|X\|^p > t^p) = \mathbb{P}(Z > t^p) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}Z}{t^p} = t^{-p} \mathbb{E}\|X\|^p$$

□

2. Let X be a random vector. Prove that its characteristic function exists:

Proposition: Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space and $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ a random vector. For each $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$\varphi_X(t) := \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t, X \rangle}]$$

exists.

Fix $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$. The map $g_t : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, g_t(x) = e^{i\langle t, x \rangle}$, is continuous, hence Borel measurable, and bounded with $|g_t(x)| = 1 \quad \forall x$.

Since X is Borel measurable, the composition $c_t \circ X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is \mathcal{F} -measurable. Moreover,

$$|g_t(X(\omega))| = 1 \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega$$

so $g_t \circ X$ is bounded and therefore integrable. Consequently, the expectation

$$\varphi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[g_t(X)] = \int_{\Omega} e^{i\langle t, X(\omega) \rangle} d\mathbb{P}(\omega)$$

is well-defined. Equivalently, if $\mu_X = \mathbb{P} \circ X^{-1}$ denotes the law of X , then

$$\varphi_X(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\langle t, x \rangle} \mu_X(dx),$$

which exists because the integrand is bounded by 1 and μ_X is a probability measure

□

3. Complete the proof of Proposition 2.13

It states that *For any random vector X its characteristic function ψ has the following properties:*

- (i) $\psi(0) = 1$;
- (ii) $\psi(-t) = \overline{\psi(t)}$;
- (iii) $|\psi(t)| \leq \mathbb{E}|\exp(it'X)| = 1$;
- (iv) $|\psi(t+h) - \psi(t)| \leq \mathbb{E}|\exp(ih'X) - 1|$;
- (v) $\mathbb{E}\exp(it'[AX+b]) = \exp(it'b)\psi(A't)$.

(i) Let $\psi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t, X \rangle}]$. By definition the **dot product** of $t = 0$ and any vector \vec{X} is 0.

Thus, $\mathbb{E}[e^0] = \mathbb{E}[1] = 1$ □

(ii) $\phi(-t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-i\langle t, X \rangle}] = \mathbb{E}[\overline{e^{i\langle t, X \rangle}}] = \overline{\psi(t)}$. (conjugation passes through the expectation) □

(iii) Let $Z = \exp(i\langle t, X \rangle)$. Then $\psi(t) = \mathbb{E}[Z]$.

Thus, $|\psi(t)| = |\mathbb{E}[Z]| \leq \mathbb{E}[|Z|]$

But $|Z| = |\exp(i\theta)| = 1 \quad \forall \theta$, hence $\mathbb{E}[|Z|] = 1$, $\therefore |\psi(t)| \leq 1$ □

(iv) Let X be a random vector in \mathbb{R}^d and let $\psi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t, X \rangle}]$ for $t, h \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Using linearity, $|\mathbb{E}Z| \leq \mathbb{E}|Z|$ and $|e^{i\theta}| = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_X(t+h) - \psi_X(t)| &= \left| \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t+h, X \rangle} - e^{i\langle t, X \rangle}] \right| \\ &= \left| \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t+h, X \rangle} (e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1)] \right| \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}[|e^{i\langle t, X \rangle}| |e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1|] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[|e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1|] \end{aligned}$$

□

(v) With $A : d \times d$ matrix and $b \in \mathbb{R}^d$, let $Y = AX + b$. Then, using $e^{i(a+b)} = e^{ia}e^{ib}$ and $\langle t, AX \rangle = \langle A't, X \rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t, Y \rangle}] &= \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t, AX+b \rangle}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t, b \rangle} e^{i\langle t, AX \rangle}] \\ &= e^{i\langle t, b \rangle} \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle A't, X \rangle}] = e^{i\langle t, b \rangle} \psi_X(A't) \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\mathbb{E}\exp(it'[AX+b]) = \exp(it'b)\psi_X(A't)$$

4. Let ψ be a characteristic function. Prove that ψ is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} . [Hint: use prop 2.13]

Let $\psi(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{i\langle t, X \rangle}]$, $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$

By property (iv) in prop 2.13, $\forall t, h \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$|\psi(t+h) - \psi(t)| \leq \mathbb{E}|\exp(ih'X) - 1|$$

RHS depends only on h , not on t . We claim that

$$\mathbb{E}|e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1| \xrightarrow{h \rightarrow 0} 0$$

For each outcome ω ,

$$|e^{i\langle h, X(\omega) \rangle} - 1| \xrightarrow{h \rightarrow 0} 0$$

by continuity of $z \mapsto e^{iz}$, and

$$0 \leq |e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1| \leq 2 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Hence, by the dominated convergence thm.,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \mathbb{E}|e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1| = 0$$

Therefore, for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. $\|h\| < \delta$ implies

$$\mathbb{E}|e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1| < \epsilon$$

Combining with property (iv), we get $\forall t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and all $\|h\| < \delta$,

$$|\psi(t+h) - \psi(t)| \leq \mathbb{E}|e^{i\langle h, X \rangle} - 1| < \epsilon.$$

This shows that ψ is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R}^d

□

5. Given that (i) if $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$, $Z = AX + \mu$ for $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ and $\Sigma = AA'$ and (ii) the characteristic function of a standard normal r.v. is $\exp(-t^2/2)$, compute the characteristic function of $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

Let $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ in \mathbb{R}^d . By (i), $\exists A$ with $\Sigma = AA'$ and

$$Z = \mu + AX, \quad X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_d)$$

For any $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the characteristic function of Z is

$$\varphi_Z(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{it'Z}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{it'(\mu+AX)}] = e^{it'\mu} \mathbb{E}[e^{it'AX}] = e^{it'\mu} \mathbb{E}[e^{i(A't)'X}]$$

Set $s := A't$. Since $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_d)$, the scalar $s'X$ is univariate normal with mean 0 and variance

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(s'X) &= s' \text{Cov}(X) s = s' I s = \|s\|^2 \\ &\quad (\text{see } \|s\|^2 = s's) \end{aligned}$$

By (ii), the characteristic function of a univariate $\mathcal{N}(0, \|s\|^2)$ variable is $\exp(-\frac{1}{2}t'AA't) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}t'\Sigma t)$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[e^{is'X}] &= \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\|s\|^2) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}t'AA't) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}t'\Sigma t) \\ \therefore \varphi_Z(t) &= \exp(it'\mu - \frac{1}{2}t'\Sigma t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}^d \end{aligned}$$

5 Stochastic convergence

1. Prove Lemma 2.7

Let $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random vectors and X a random vector. For $\epsilon > 0$, let $E_{n,\epsilon} := \{\|X_n - X\| > \epsilon\}$. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ iff. for each $\epsilon > 0$

$$P(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_{n,\epsilon}) = 0 \quad (\text{limit superior - limiting upper bounds of sequence})$$

For $\epsilon > 0$ set $E_{n,\epsilon} := \{\|X_n - X\| > \epsilon\}$. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_{n,\epsilon}\right) = 0$

$$\text{where } \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_{n,\epsilon} := \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n \geq m} E_{n,\epsilon} = \{\omega : \omega \in E_{n,\epsilon} \text{ i.o.}\}$$

(\Rightarrow) Assume $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s. Then $\exists N_\epsilon(\omega)$ s.t. $\forall n \geq N_\epsilon(\omega), \|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)\|$

Hence $E_{n,\epsilon}(\omega)$ happens only finitely often, i.e., $\omega \notin \limsup_n E_{n,\epsilon}$. $\therefore \mathbb{P} \limsup_n E_{n,\epsilon} = 0$

$$(\Leftarrow) \text{ Assume } \forall \epsilon > 0, \mathbb{P} \limsup_n E_{n,\epsilon} = 0. \text{ Set } A := \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \limsup_n E_{n,1/k},$$

$$\text{so } \exists N_k(\omega) \text{ s.t. } n \geq N_k(\omega) \implies \|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)\| < \delta,$$

hence $\|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)\| \rightarrow 0$. Since $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1$, we have $X_n \rightarrow X$ a.s. \square

2. Fill in the missing details in the proof of thm. 2.8:

Thm: Let $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random vectors and X a random vector. The following are equivalent:

- (i) $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$,
- (ii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}f(X_n) = \mathbb{E}f(X)$,
- (iii) $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in F) \leq P(X \in F)$ for all closed sets F ,
- (iv) $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in G) \geq P(X \in G)$ for all open sets G ,
- (v) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X - n \in A) = P(X \in A)$ for all X -continuity sets A ,
- (vi) if F_n is the CDF of X_n and F that of X , $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$ for all x at which F is continuous

Proof:

(i) \implies (ii) : obvious since every Lipschitz-continuous function is continuous.

(ii) \implies (iii) : let F be a closed set, $F^\epsilon := \{x : \rho(x, F) < \epsilon\}$ and define $f(x) := \max\{1 - \rho(x, F)/\epsilon, 0\}$. We note that $\mathbb{1}_F(x) \leq \mathbb{1}_{F^\epsilon}(x)$ and f is (Lipschitz) continuous [Exercise].

Then by (i) or (ii)

$$P(X_n \in F) = \mathbb{E}\mathbb{1}_F(X_n) \leq \mathbb{E}f(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}f(X) \leq \mathbb{E}\mathbb{1}_{F^\epsilon}(X) = P(X \in F^\epsilon)$$

As F is closed, taking the limit as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ yields the required inequality [Exercise].

(iii) \implies (iv) : Take complements [Exercise]

(iv) & (iv) \implies (v) : Combining (iii) and (iv):

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \in \text{cl } A) &\geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in \text{cl } A) \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in A) \\ &\geq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in A) \geq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in \text{int } A) \geq P(X \in \text{int } A) \end{aligned}$$

If $P(X \in \delta A) = 0$, i.e. A is an X -continuity set the left and right hand side terms coincide (both are equal to $P(X \in A)$), which implies (v)

(v) \implies (vi) : Let x be a continuity point of F and set $A = (-\infty, x]$. Then A is an X -continuity set as $\delta A = \{x\}$ and $P(X = x) = 0$ [Exercise]. Then by (v) $F_n(x) = P(X_n \in A) \rightarrow P(X \in A) = F(x)$

(v) \implies (i) : It is enough to consider the case that $0 \leq f \leq 1$ [Exercise]. Then

$$\mathbb{E}f(X) = \int_0^1 P(f(X) > t) dt, \quad \mathbb{E}f(X_n) = \int_0^1 P(f(X_n) > t) dt,$$

by e.g. Lemma 2.2.13 in [5] Since f is continuous, $\delta\{x : f(x) > t\} \subset \{x : f(x) = t\}$ and so $\{x : f(x) > t\}$ is an X -continuity set except for at countably many t [Exercise]. By (v) and the bounded convergence thm

$$\mathbb{E}f(X_n) = \int_0^1 P(f(X_n) > t) dt \rightarrow \int_0^1 P(f(X) > t) dt = \mathbb{E}f(X)$$

(vi) \implies (iv) : Define $D^i := \{x : P(X \in H_c^i) > 0\}$ for $H_c^i := \{x : x_i = c\}$. Note that D^i is at most countable. Let A be a rectangle $A = \prod_{i=1}^K (a_i, b_i]$ with $a_i, b_i \notin D^i$ for each i . By $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$, for any such A , $P(X_n \in A) \rightarrow P(X \in A)$ and therefore for any finite collection of disjoint such rectangles A_1, \dots, A_k , their union B_k also satisfies $P(X_n \in B_k) \rightarrow P(X \in B_k)$. As any open set $G \in \mathbb{R}^K$ can be written as the increasing limit of such a disjoint union of rectangles with $a_i, b_i \notin D^i$,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in G) \geq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in B_k) = P(X \in B_k)$$

Taking $B_k \uparrow G$ completes the proof. \square

Answers:

(i) \implies (ii) : This is immediate: convergence in distribution means $\mathbb{E}g(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$ for every bounded continuous g . Every Lipschitz function is bounded and continuous on \mathbb{R}^k \square

(ii) \implies (iii) : Let $F \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ be closed. For $\epsilon > 0$ define the open ϵ -neighborhood $F^\epsilon = \{x : \rho(x, F) < \epsilon\}$ and the function

$$f_\epsilon(x) = \max\{1 - \rho(x, F)/\epsilon, 0\}$$

Properties of f_ϵ :

- f_ϵ is continuous (indeed Lipschitz with constant $1/\epsilon$)
 - $f_\epsilon(x) = 1 \quad \forall x \in F$
 - $f_\epsilon(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \notin F^\epsilon$
- Hence $\mathbb{1}_F \leq f_\epsilon \leq \mathbb{1}_{F^\epsilon}$

Now apply (ii):

$$P(X_n \in F) = \mathbb{E}\mathbb{1}_F(X_n) \leq \mathbb{E}f_\epsilon(X_n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}f_\epsilon(X)$$

But $\mathbb{E}f_\epsilon(X) \leq \mathbb{E}\mathbb{1}_{F^\epsilon}(X) = P(X \in F^\epsilon)$. So

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in F) \leq P(X \in F^\epsilon)$$

Finally let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$. Because F is closed the sets F^ϵ decrease to F , so by continuity from above of probability measures,

$$\lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} P(X \in F^\epsilon) = P\left(\bigcap_{\epsilon > 0} F^\epsilon\right) = P(F)$$

Thus, $\limsup_n P(X_n \in F) \leq P(X \in F)$, proving (iii) \square

(iii) \implies (iv) : Take complements. if G is open then G^c is closed, so by (iii):

$$\limsup_n P(X_n \in G^c) \leq P(X \in G^c)$$

But $P(X_n \in G^c) = 1 - P(X_n \in G)$ and similarly for X . Rearranging gives

$$\liminf_n P(X_n \in G) \geq P(X \in G)$$

which is (iv) □

(v) \implies (vi) : Take a real x at which the (univariate) distribution function F of X is continuous. Set $A = (-\infty, x]$. Then $\delta A = \{x\}$, and since F is continuous at x we have $P(X = x) = 0$. Hence A is an X -continuity set. By (v),

$$F_n(x) = P(X_n \leq x) = P(X_n \in A) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X \in A) = F(x),$$

so $F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$ at every continuity point x of F . This is (vi) □

(vi) \implies (iv) : We now show that convergence of CDFs at continuity points (componentwise) implies (iv) for multivariate open sets.

The countability fact: For each coordinate i , define

$$D^i = \{c \in \mathbb{R} : P(X_i = c) > 0\}$$

Each D^i is at most countable because $\sum_{c \in D^i} P(X_i = c) \leq 1$ and only countably many positive numbers can sum to ≤ 1

Rectangles: Let $A = \prod_{i=1}^k (a_i, b_i]$ be a rectangle with $a_i, b_i \notin D^i$ for all i . Then each endpoint is a continuity point of the univariate marginal CDFs, so by (vi) every joint CDF evaluation at the 2^k corner points of the rectangle converges to the corresponding value for X . The probability of the rectangle can be written by the inclusion-exclusion formula as a finite alternating sum of the joint CDF values at the corners. Since each corner CDF converges, the finite sum converges:

$$P(X_n \in A) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X \in A)$$

Finite unions: If A_1, \dots, A_m are disjoint such rectangles then the same is true for the union $B = \bigsqcup_{j=1}^m A_j$: one adds the limits, so $P(X_n \in B) \rightarrow P(X \in B)$

Approximation of open sets: Any open $G \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ can be written as an increasing union of countably many disjoint rectangles with rational endpoints (standard fact using a grid with rational coordinates). Because the sets D^i are countable we can choose rational endpoints that avoid D^i (rationals are dense and uncountable choices exist). Hence one can construct an increasing sequence of finite unions $B_1 \subset B_2 \subset \dots \subset B_k$ of disjoint rectangles (each rectangle having endpoints not in D^i) with $B_m \uparrow G$. For each m ,

$$P(X_n \in B_m) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X \in B_m)$$

Thus

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in G) \geq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in B_m) = P(X \in B_m)$$

Let $m \rightarrow \infty$ and use monotone convergence of Probabilities ($B_m \uparrow G$) to get

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in G) \geq P(X \in G)$$

This is exactly (iv) □

(v) \implies (i) : **Detail of the layer-cake argument:** We now sketch the standard argument that (v) implies convergence in distribution, i.e. $\mathbb{E}f(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}f(X)$ for every bounded continuous f . It suffices to check this for $0 \leq f \leq 1$ (any bounded f is an affine transform of such a function and linearity handles the rest)

Use the identity (layer-cake representation)

$$\mathbb{E}f(X) = \int_0^1 P(f(X) > t) dt,$$

and similarly for X_n . For each fixed t the level set $A_t := \{x : f(x) > t\}$ is open. Its boundary ∂A_t is contained in $\{x : f(x) = 1\}$. The set of t for which $P(f(X) = t) > 0$ is at most countable because $\sum_{t \in \mathbb{R}} P(f(X) = t) \leq 1$. Hence for all t except a countable set, A_t is an X -continuity set. for such t , by (v),

$$P(f(X_n) > t) = P(X_n \in A) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X \in A_t) = P(f(X) > t)$$

Dominated convergence (the integrands are bounded by 1) gives

$$\mathbb{E}f(X_n) = \int_0^1 P(f(X_n) > t) dt \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 P(f(X) > t) dt = \mathbb{E}f(X)$$

Thus we obtain convergence of expectations for every bounded continuous f , i.e. convergence in distribution (i) \square

3. Complete the proof of thm. 2.9

Theorem 2.9:

Let $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random vectors, X a random vector and c a constant vector. We have the following relationships between the methods of convergence:

- (i) $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$,
- (ii) $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ iff. every subsequence of (X_n) has a further subsequence which converges to X a.s.,
- (iii) For $X \in L_p$, $X_n \xrightarrow{L_p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$,
- (iv) $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$,
- (v) $X_n \xrightarrow{D} c \implies X_n \xrightarrow{P} c$

Proof:

- (i) Let $\epsilon > 0$. Since $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, we have $P(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\}) = 0$

By definition of \limsup :

$$(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\}) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \{|X_k - X| > \epsilon\}$$

Since this set has probability 0, and $\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\} \subseteq \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} \{|X_k - X| > \epsilon\}$ we have:

$$P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \leq P(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} \{|X_k - X| > \epsilon\}) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\therefore X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$$

\square

(iii) Let $\epsilon > 0$. By Markov's inequality:

$$P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = P(|X_n - X|^p > \epsilon^p) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^p]}{\epsilon^p}$$

Since $X_n \xrightarrow{L_p} X$, we have $\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^p] \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^p]}{\epsilon^p} = 0$$

Hence, $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ □

(iv) Let x be a continuity point of F_x and $\epsilon > 0$. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X_n}(x) &= P(X_n \leq x) \\ &= P(X_n \leq x, |X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) + P(X_n \leq x, |X_n - X| > \epsilon) \\ &\leq P(X \leq x + \epsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \\ &= F_X(x + \epsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly:

$$F_{X_n}(x) \geq P(X \leq x - \epsilon) - P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = F_X(x - \epsilon) - P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon)$$

Since $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, letting $n \rightarrow \infty$:

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

Since x is a continuity point of F_X , letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ gives $F_{X_n}(x) \rightarrow F_X(x)$ □

(v) Let $\epsilon > 0$. The distribution function of the constant c is:

$$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x < c \\ 0 & \text{if } x \geq c \end{cases}$$

Since $X_n \xrightarrow{D} c$, we have $F_{X_n} \rightarrow F_c(x)$ at continuity points of F_c .

For any $\epsilon > 0$, both $c - \epsilon$ and $c + \epsilon$ are continuity points of F_c . Therefore:

- $F_{X_n}(c - \epsilon) \rightarrow F_c(c - \epsilon) = 0$
- $F_{X_n}(c + \epsilon) \rightarrow F_c(c + \epsilon) = 1$

Now:

$$P(|X_n - c| > \epsilon) = P(X_n < c - \epsilon) + P(X_n > c + \epsilon) = F_{X_n}(c - \epsilon) + (1 - F_{X_n}(c + \epsilon)) \rightarrow 0 + (1 - 1) = 0$$

$\therefore X_n \xrightarrow{P} c$ □

4. Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in \mathbb{R} . Prove $x_n \rightarrow x$ iff. each subsequence $(x_{n_m})_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$ has a further subsequence which converges to x . Note: this is true much more generally: if $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence in a topological space this remains true.

(\Rightarrow) If $x_n \rightarrow x$, then every subsequence (x_{n_m}) also converges to x . Hence it (trivially) has a further subsequence converging to x (itself)

(\Leftarrow) Suppose every subsequence has a further subsequence converging to x , but $x_n \not\rightarrow x$. Then there exists an open neighborhood U of x s.t. for every N there is $n \geq N$ with $x_n \notin U$. By recursion choose $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k$ with $x_{n_k} \notin U \quad \forall k$. Then (x_{n_k}) is a subsequence none of whose terms lie in U . Any further subsequence of (x_{n_k}) still has all its terms outside of U , hence cannot converge to x (convergence to x would force eventual inclusion in every neighborhood of x , in particular in U). This contradicts the assumption. Therefore $x_n \rightarrow x$.

In the metric case $X = \mathbb{R}$, one can take $U = B_\epsilon(x)$ for some $\epsilon > 0$ □

5. Prove lemma 2.8:

Let $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $(Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random vectors and $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ sequences of non-negative numbers. Then,

- (i) If $X_n = o_P(a_n)$, then $X_n = O_P(a_n)$,
- (ii) If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$, $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$ then for any $k \in \mathbb{R}$, $kX_n = O_P(a_n)$ and $kY_n = o_P(b_n)$,
- (iii) If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$, $Y_n = O_P(b_n)$, then $X_n + Y_n = O_P(a_n + b_n)$ and $X_n Y_n = O_P(a_n b_n)$,
- (iv) If $X_n = o_P(a_n)$, $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$, then $X_n + Y_n = o_P(a_n + b_n)$ and $X_n Y_n = o_P(a_n b_n)$,
- (v) If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$, $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$, then $X_n + Y_n = O_P(a_n + b_n)$ and $X_n Y_n = o_P(a_n b_n)$,
- (vi) If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$ and $a_n \rightarrow 0$ then $X_n = o_P(1)$

Proof:

Recall that

$$X_n = o_P(a_n) \text{ means: for every } \epsilon > 0, P(|X_n| > \epsilon a_n) \rightarrow 0$$

$$X_n = O_P(a_n) \text{ means: for every } \delta > 0, \exists M < \infty \text{ and } N \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N, P(|X_n| > M a_n) \leq \delta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \{|X + Y| > t(a + b)\} &\subseteq \{|X| > ta\} \cup \{|Y| > tb\} \\ \{|XY| > tab\} &\subseteq \{|X| > \sqrt{ta}\} \cup \{|Y| > \sqrt{tb}\} \end{aligned}$$

Proofs:

- (i) If $X_n = o_P(a_n)$, then for any fixed $M > 0$ we have $P(|X_n| > M a_n) \rightarrow 0$; hence given $\delta > 0$ choose N with $P(|X_n| > M a_n) \leq \delta$ for $n \geq N$. Thus $X_n = O_P(a_n)$ □

- (ii) Let $k \in \mathbb{R}$

- If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$, then for any $\delta > 0$ pick M, N with $P(|X_n| > M a_n) \leq \delta$ ($n \geq N$). Then for $n \geq N$, $P(|kX_n| > (|k|M)a_n) = P(|X_n| > M a_n) \leq \delta$, so $kX_n = O_P(a_n)$. For $k = 0$ this is trivial.
- If $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$, then for any $\epsilon > 0$, $P(|kY_n| > \epsilon b_n) = P(|Y_n| > (\epsilon/|k|)b_n) \rightarrow 0$ (and if $k = 0$ the probability is identically 0). Hence $kY_n = o_P(b_n)$ □

(iii) If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$, $Y_n = O_P(b_n)$

- Sum: For $t > 0$, $P(|X_n + Y_n| > t(a_n + b_n)) \leq P(|X_n| > ta_n) + P(|Y_n| > tb_n)$. Given $\delta > 0$ choose M_X , M_Y and N so that $P(|X_n| > M_X a_n) \leq \delta/2$ and $P(|Y_n| > M_Y b_n) \leq \delta/2$ for $n \geq N$. With $t := \max(M_X, M_Y)$ the RHS $\leq \delta$ for $n \geq N$. Hence $X_n + Y_n = O_P(a_n + b_n)$
- Product: For $t > 0$, $P(|X_n Y_n| > ta_n b_n) \leq P(|X_n| > \sqrt{t}a_n) + P(|Y_n| > \sqrt{t}b_n)$. Choose M_X , M_Y and N so that $P(|X_n| > M_X a_n) \leq \delta/2$ and $P(|Y_n| > M_Y b_n) \leq \delta/2$ for $n \geq N$; with $t := \max(M_X^2, M_Y^2)$ we get $X_n Y_n = O_P(a_n b_n)$ \square

(iv) If $X_n = o_P(a_n)$, $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$

- Sum: For any $\epsilon > 0$, $P(|X_n + Y_n| > \epsilon(a_n + b_n)) \leq P(|X_n| > \epsilon a_n) + P(|Y_n| > \epsilon b_n) \rightarrow 0$
- Product: For any $\epsilon > 0$, $P(|X_n Y_n| > \epsilon a_n b_n) \leq P(|X_n| > \sqrt{\epsilon}a_n) + P(|Y_n| > \sqrt{\epsilon}b_n) \rightarrow 0$. So $X_n + Y_n = o_P(a_n + b_n)$ and $X_n Y_n = o_P(a_n b_n)$ \square

(v) If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$, $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$

- Sum: For $t > 0$, $P(|X_n + Y_n| > t(a_n + b_n)) \leq P(|X_n| > ta_n) + P(|Y_n| > tb_n)$. Given $\delta > 0$ pick M, N_1 with $P(|X_n| > Ma_n) \leq \delta/2$ for $n \geq N_1$. With this fixed $t := M$, use $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$ to get N_2 s.t. $P(|Y_n| > tb_n) \leq \delta/2$ for $n \geq N_2$. Hence $X_n + Y_n = O_P(a_n + b_n)$
- Product: For $\epsilon > 0$ and any $M > 0$, $P(|X_n Y_n| > \epsilon a_n b_n) \leq P(|X_n| > Ma_n) + P(|Y_n| > (\epsilon/M)b_n)$. Given $\delta > 0$ choose M, N_1 with $P(|X_n| > Ma_n) \leq \delta/2$ for $n \geq N_1$. With this M fixed, $Y_n = o_P(b_n)$ yields N_2 s.t. $P(|Y_n| > (\epsilon/M)b_n) \leq \delta/2$ for $n \geq N_2$. Hence $X_n Y_n = o_P(a_n b_n)$ \square

(vi) If $X_n = O_P(a_n)$ and $a_n \rightarrow 0$, then $X_n = o_P(1)$

Indeed, given $\epsilon, \delta > 0$ choose M, N_1 with $P(|X_n| > Ma_n) \leq \delta$ for $n \geq N_1$. Since $a_n \rightarrow 0$, choose N_2 s.t. $Ma_n \leq \epsilon$ for $n \geq N_2$. Then for $n \geq N := \max(N_1, N_2)$,

$$P(|X_n| > \epsilon) \leq P(|X_n| > Ma_n) \leq \delta$$

Thus, $P(|X_n| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$, i.e., $X_n \rightarrow 0$ in probability. \square

6. Show: (i) if $Z_n \xrightarrow{D} Z$ then $Z_n = O_P(1)$; (ii) if $Z_n = O_P(1)$ then $o(\|Z_n\|) = o_P(1)$ and $o_P(\|Z_n\|) = o_P(1)$

Definitions: For random elements X_n taking values in a normed space:

- $X : n = O_P(1)$ means the sequence is bounded in probability: for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $M < \infty$ and N s.t. for all $n \geq N$, $P(\|X_n\| > M) \leq \epsilon$
 - $X_n = o_P(1)$ means $X_n \rightarrow 0$ in probability
 - For random Y_n , $X_n = o_P(Y_n)$ means $X_n/Y_n \rightarrow 0$ in probability (with the convention $|x|/0 = \infty^+$ for $x \neq 0$). If $X_n/Y_n \rightarrow 0$ almost surely we write $X_n = o(Y_n)$
- (i) Convergence in distribution implies $O_P(1)$. Suppose $Z_n \Rightarrow Z$. For any $M > 0$ let $F_M = \{x : \|x\| \geq M\}$, a closed set. By Portmanteau,

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\|Z_n\| \geq M) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Z_n \in F_M) \leq P(Z \in F_M)$$

Choose M so large that $P(\|Z\| \geq M) \leq \epsilon$. Then $\limsup_n P(\|Z_n\| \geq M) \leq \epsilon$, hence for all large n , $P(\|Z_n\| > M) \leq \epsilon$. Thus $Z_n = O_P(1)$

(ii) If $Z_n = O_P(1)$, then $o(\|Z_n\|) = o_P(1)$ and $o_P(\|Z_n\|) = o_P(1)$. More precisely:

Lemma: If $Y_n = O_P(1)$ and $X_n/Y_n \rightarrow 0$ in probability (resp. a.s.), then $X_n \rightarrow 0$ in probability.

Proof: Fix $\epsilon > 0$ and $M > 0$. Using the convention $|x|/0 = \infty^+$

$$P(|X_n| > \epsilon) \leq P(|Y_n| > M) + P(|X_n| > \epsilon, |Y_n| \leq M) + P(|X_n|/|Y_n| > \epsilon/M)$$

Since $Y_n = O_P(1)$, choose M so that $\sup_{n \geq N} P(|Y_n| > M) \leq \delta$ for some small $\delta > 0$ and all $n \geq N$. Because $|X_n|/|Y_n| \rightarrow 0$ in probability, the second term tends to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n| > \epsilon) \leq \delta$; letting $\delta \downarrow 0$ gives $X_n = o_P(1)$

Applying the lemma with $Y_n = \|Z_n\|$ yields:

- If $X_n = o(\|Z_n\|)$ (i.e., $X_n/\|Z_n\| \rightarrow 0$ a.s.), then $X_n = o_P(1)$.
- If $X_n = O_P(\|Z_n\|)$ (i.e., $X_n/\|Z_n\| \rightarrow 0$ in probability), then $X_n = o_P(1)$ □

7. Show that X_n defined in example 2.13 satisfies $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$

Example 2.13 states: Let X_n be an r.v. with $P(X_n = n) = 1/n$ and $P(X_n = 0) = 1 - 1/n$. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ (hence also weakly) but $\mathbb{E}X_n = n \times 1/n = 1$ for each n .

Proof:

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be fixed. Then

- if $n \leq \epsilon$, we have $|X_n| \leq n \leq \epsilon$ a.s., so $P(|X_n| > \epsilon) = 0$;
- if $n > \epsilon$, the event $\{|X_n| > \epsilon\}$ is exactly $\{X_n = n\}$, hence $P(|X_n| > \epsilon) = P(X_n = n) = 1/n$

Therefore, for all sufficiently large n (namely $n > \epsilon$), $P(|X_n| > \epsilon) = 1/n \rightarrow 0$. Since this holds for every $\epsilon > 0$, we conclude $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$.

Moreover, for each n ,

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n] = n \cdot \frac{1}{n} + 0 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) = 1$$

So the expectations do not converge to 0 even though $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ □

8. Show that if $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is uniformly integrable then $\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{E}||X_n|| < \infty$

Using the standard tail characterization of uniform integrability:

$$\lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{E}[||X_n|| \mathbb{1}_{\{||X_n|| > K\}}] = 0$$

Fix, for instance, $\epsilon = 1$. Then $\exists K > 0$ s.t.

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[||X_n|| \mathbb{1}_{\{||X_n|| > K\}}] \leq 1$$

For any n ,

$$\mathbb{E}||X_n|| = \mathbb{E}[||X_n|| \mathbb{1}_{\{||X_n|| \leq K\}}] + \mathbb{E}[||X_n|| \mathbb{1}_{\{||X_n|| > K\}}] \leq K + \mathbb{E}[||X_n|| \mathbb{1}_{\{||X_n|| > K\}}] \leq K + 1$$

Taking the supremum over n yields

$$\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{E}||X_n|| \leq K + 1 < \infty$$

Hence a uniformly integrable family is bounded in L^1

□

9. Fill in the details for the general case of thm 2.14. Hint: an r.v. X may be written as $X = Y + Z$ with $Y = X\mathbb{1}_{\{X \geq 0\}}$ and $Z = X\mathbb{1}_{\{X < 0\}}$

Thm 2.14 states: Suppose that $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$ and $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is uniformly integrable. Then X is integrable and $\mathbb{E}X_n \rightarrow \mathbb{E}X$

Proof: That X is integrable follows from thm 2.13 since $\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{E}\|X_n\| < \infty$. [Exercise]. We give the proof for the case where X_n is a non-negative r.v., leaving the extension to the general case as an exercise. We have for $M \in (0, \infty)$,

$$|\mathbb{E}X_n - \mathbb{E}X| \leq |\mathbb{E}X_n - \mathbb{E}[X_n \wedge M]| + |\mathbb{E}[X_n \wedge M] - \mathbb{E}[X \wedge M] - \mathbb{E}X|,$$

where $a \wedge b := \min\{a, b\}$. The function $x \mapsto x \wedge M$ is a bounded continuous function, so the middle right hand side term converges to zero by $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$. Since X_n is non-negative, the first right hand side term is upper bounded by $\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{E}[|X_n| \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n| > M\}}]$ which can be made arbitrarily small by taking M large enough given the uniform integrability. The third term can also be made arbitrarily small by increasing M by either the monotone convergence theorem or the dominated convergence theorem. \square

Proof:

Let $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$ and assume that the family (X_n) is uniformly integrable. Write the positive and negative parts as:

$$X_n^+ := X_n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_n \geq 0\}} \quad X_n^- := (-X_n) \mathbb{1}_{\{X_n < 0\}}, \quad \text{s.t.} \\ X_n = X_n^+ - X_n^- \quad \text{and} \quad |X_n| = X_n^+ + X_n^-$$

And similarly for X .

Uniform integrability passes to these parts. Indeed, for any $K > 0$,

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n^+ \mathbb{1}_{\{X_n^+ > K\}}] \leq \mathbb{E}[|X_n| \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n| > K\}}],$$

Hence (X_n^+) is uniformly integrable; likewise (X_n^-) is uniformly integrable because $X_n^- = (-X_n)^+$.

By the continuous mapping theorem applied to the continuous maps $x \mapsto x^+$ and $x \mapsto x^-$,

$$X_n^+ \xrightarrow{D} X^+, \quad X_n^- \xrightarrow{D} X^-$$

By the already proved nonnegative case of the theorem, for each of these sequences,

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n^+] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^+], \quad \mathbb{E}[X_n^-] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^-]$$

In particular X^+ and X^- are integrable, so X is integrable and

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n] = \mathbb{E}[X_n^+] - \mathbb{E}[X_n^-] \longrightarrow \mathbb{E}[X^+] - \mathbb{E}[X^-] = \mathbb{E}[X]$$

\square

10. Prove lemma 2.10

It states that *If $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to X weakly and $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded, continuous function, $\mathbb{E}f(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}f(X)$*

Proof:

To solve this, we can apply Skorokhods theorem: there exists a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ supporting r.v.s Y_n and Y s.t.:

- Y_n has the same distribution as X_n for each n ,
- Y has the same distribution as X ,
- $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$

Since f is continuous, $f(Y_n) \xrightarrow{a.s.} f(Y)$. Moreover, since f is bounded (say $|f| \leq M$), the sequence $|f(Y_n)| \leq M$ is dominated by the integrable constant M .

By the dominated convergence theorem,

$$\mathbb{E}[f(Y_n)] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[f(Y)],$$

As Y_n and X_n are equal in distribution, $\mathbb{E}[f(Y_n)] = \mathbb{E}[f(X_n)]$. Similarly $\mathbb{E}[f(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[f(X)]$. Thus,

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X_n)] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[f(X)]$$

□

11. Prove lemma 2.11

It states that *If $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of random vectors which converges to X in L_p , then for any $1 \leq q \leq p$, $\mathbb{E}\|X_n\|^q \rightarrow \mathbb{E}\|X\|^q$*

Proof:

Let $Y_n = \|X_n\|$ and $Y = \|X\|$. These are non-negative r.v.s. By the reverse triangle inequality, $|Y_n - Y| \leq \|X_n - X\|$. Let $Z_n = \|X_n - X\|$, so $Z_n \rightarrow 0$ in L_p (i.e., $\mathbb{E}Z_n^p \rightarrow 0$).

Since we are on a probability space and $1 \leq q \leq p$, L_p -convergence implies L_q -convergence: specifically, $\mathbb{E}|W|^q \leq (\mathbb{E}|W|^p)^{q/p}$ by Hölder's inequality, so $\|W\|_q \leq \|W\|_p$. Thus, $|Y_n - Y| \leq Z_n$ implies $\|Y_n - Y\| \leq \|Z_n\|_q \leq \|Z_n\|_p \rightarrow 0$, so $Y_n \rightarrow Y$ in L_q .

- Case $q = p$: Then $\mathbb{E}\|X_n\|^p \rightarrow \mathbb{E}\|X\|^p$ because $\| \|X_n\| \|_p = \|X_n\|_p \rightarrow \|X\|_p = \| \|X\| \|_p$ by the triangle inequality for L_p -norms.
- Case $1 \leq q < p$: The family $\{\|X_n\|^q\}$ is bounded in $L_{p/q}$ with $p/q > 1$, since $\mathbb{E}(\|X_n^q\|^{p/q}) = \mathbb{E}\|X_n\|^p$ and $\sup_n \mathbb{E}\|X_n\|^p < \infty$ (as $\|X_n\|_p \rightarrow \|X\|_p < \infty$). A family bounded in L_r for $r > 1$ is uniformly integrable.

Since $Y_n \rightarrow Y$ in L_q , there exists a subsequence $Y_{n_k} \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$, so $\|X_{n_k}\|^q \xrightarrow{a.s.} \|X\|^q$. By uniform integrability, $\mathbb{E}\|X_{n_k}\|^q \rightarrow \mathbb{E}\|X\|^q$.

For the full sequence, suppose $\mathbb{E}\|X_n\|^q \not\rightarrow \mathbb{E}\|X\|^q$. Then there exists $\epsilon > 0$ and a subsequence where $|\mathbb{E}\|X_{n_m}\|^q - \mathbb{E}\|X\|^q| \geq \epsilon$. But $X_{n_m} \rightarrow X$ in L_p , so applying the above yields a subsubsequence contradicting the assumption. Thus $\mathbb{E}\|X_n\|^q \rightarrow \mathbb{E}\|X\|^q$ □

12. Prove lemma 2.12

It states: *Suppose there is a uniformly integrable sequence $(Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ s.t. $\|X_n\| \leq \|Y_n\|$ a.s. for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is uniformly integrable.*

Proof:

Here it suffices to show that $\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|X_n\|] < \infty$ and that for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. if A is any event with $\mathbb{P}(A) < \delta$, then $\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|X_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon$.

Since $\|X_n\| \leq \|Y_n\|$ a.s., we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\|X_n\|] \leq \mathbb{E}[\|Y_n\|] \leq \sup_m \mathbb{E}[\|Y_m\|] < \infty,$$

where the finiteness follows from the uniform integrability of (Y_n) . Thus $\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|X_n\|] < \infty$.

Now fix $\epsilon > 0$. Since (Y_n) is uniformly integrable, there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. if $\mathbb{P}(A) < \delta$, then $\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|Y_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon$.

For this δ , if $\mathbb{P}(A) < \delta$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[\|X_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] \leq \mathbb{E}[\|Y_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] \leq \sup_m \mathbb{E}[\|Y_m\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon$$

for every n , where the first inequality holds because $\|X_n\| \leq \|Y_n\|$ a.s. Thus, $\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|X_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon$. □

13. Prove lemma 2.13

It states: *Suppose that $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are uniformly integrable. Then $(X_n + Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is uniformly integrable.*

Proof:

Recall the definition of uniform integrability: a family (Z_n) is uniformly integrable if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. for all measurable A with $\mathbb{P}(A) < \delta$,

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|Z_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon$$

Assume (X_n) and (Y_n) are uniformly integrable. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exist $\delta_1, \delta_2 > 0$ s.t. for all A with $\mathbb{P}(A) < \delta_1$,

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|X_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon/2,$$

and for all A with $\mathbb{P}(A) < \delta_2$,

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|Y_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon/2$$

Set $\delta := \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$. If $\mathbb{P}(A) < \delta$, then for every n ,

$$\mathbb{E}[\|X_n + Y_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] \leq \mathbb{E}[(\|X_n\| + \|Y_n\|) \mathbb{1}_A] = \mathbb{E}[\|X_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] + \mathbb{E}[\|Y_n\| \mathbb{1}_A]$$

Taking sup over n and using $\sup_n (a_n + b_n) \leq \sup_n a_n + \sup_n b_n$ yields

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|X_n + Y_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] \leq \sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|X_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] + \sup_n \mathbb{E}[\|Y_n\| \mathbb{1}_A] < \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$$

Hence $(X_n + Y_n)$ is uniformly integrable. □

14. Prove lemma 2.14

It states that *Let $1 < p, q < \infty$ with $1/p + 1/q = 1$ and suppose that $(\|X_n\|^p)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(\|Y_n\|^q)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are uniformly integrable. Then $(X_n Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is uniformly integrable.*

Proof:

Recall that a family $\mathcal{F} \subset L^1$ is uniformly integrable (UI) iff

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{Z \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{E}[|Z| \mathbb{1}_{\{|Z| > M\}}] = 0$$

In particular, if \mathcal{F} is UI, then $\sup_{Z \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{E}|Z| < \infty$ (take $M = 1$).

Set $U_n := |X_n|^p$ and $V_n := |Y_n|^q$. By hypothesis, (U_n) and (V_n) are UI. Hence

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[U_n] < \infty, \quad \sup_n \mathbb{E}[V_n] < \infty$$

By uniform integrability, choose $K > 0$ so large that

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[U_n \mathbb{1}_{\{U_n > K\}}] < \epsilon^p, \quad \sup_n \mathbb{E}[V_n \mathbb{1}_{\{V_n > K\}}] < \epsilon^q$$

Let

$$M := \frac{K}{p} + \frac{K}{q}$$

By Young's inequality, for all $a, b \geq 0$,

$$ab \leq \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}$$

Applying this with $a = |X_n|, b = |Y_n|$ gives

$$|X_n Y_n| \leq \frac{U_n}{p} + \frac{V_n}{q}$$

Therefore, on the event $\{U_n \leq K\} \cap \{V_n \leq K\}$ we have $|X_n Y_n| \leq M$. Hence

$$\{|X_n Y_n| > M\} \subset \{U_n > K\} \cup \{V_n > K\}$$

It follows that

$$\mathbb{E}[|X_n Y_n| \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n Y_n| > M\}}] \leq (\mathbb{E}[U_n \mathbb{1}_{\{U_n > K\}}])^{1/p} (\mathbb{E}[V_n])^{1/q}$$

And similarly:

$$\mathbb{E}[|X_n Y_n| \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n Y_n| > M\}}] \leq (\mathbb{E}[U_n])^{1/p} (\mathbb{E}[V_n \mathbb{1}_{\{V_n > K\}}])^{1/q}$$

Taking suprema over n and using the bounds chosen for K , we get

$$\sup_n \mathbb{E}[|X_n Y_n| \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n Y_n| > M\}}] \leq \left(\sup_n \mathbb{E}[V_n] \right)^{1/q} \epsilon + \left(\sup_n \mathbb{E}[U_n] \right)^{1/p} \epsilon$$

Since $\epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary and $M = K/p + K/q \rightarrow \infty$ as $K \rightarrow \infty$, this shows

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \sup_n \mathbb{E}[|X_n Y_n| \mathbb{1}_{\{|X_n Y_n| > M\}}] = 0$$

i.e., $(X_n Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is uniformly integrable □

15. Prove lemma 2.16

It states: *Let $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random vectors and X a random vector. Then for $m \in \{a.s., P, L_p\}$, $X_n \xrightarrow{m} X \iff X_{n,k} \xrightarrow{m} X_k$*

Proof:

We fix the Euclidean norm $\|\cdot\|$ on \mathbb{R}^d (any norm would do by norm-equivalence in finite dimensions), and $p \in [1, \infty)$.

Recall that for $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{for each } k, |x_k| \leq \|x\| \\ \|x\| & \leq \sum_{k=1}^d |x_k|, \text{ hence for } p \geq 1, \|x\|^p \leq \left(\sum_{k=1}^d |x_k| \right)^p \leq d^{p-1} \sum_{k=1}^d |x_k|^p \end{aligned}$$

Vector convergence implies coordinate convergence (all three modes):

- a.s.: if $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, then by continuity of the projections $\pi_k(x) = x_k$, we have $X_{n,k} = \pi_k(X_n) \rightarrow \pi_k(X) = X_k$ a.s.
- In probability: same by the continuous mapping theorem, or directly from $|X_{n,k} - X_k| \leq \|X_n - X\|$.
- In L_p : $|X_{n,k} - X_k|^p \leq \|X_n - X\|^p$, so $\mathbb{E}|X_{n,k} - X_k|^p \leq \mathbb{E}\|X_n - X\|^p \rightarrow 0$.

Coordinate convergence implies vector convergence:

- a.s.: if $X_{n,k} \xrightarrow{a.s.} X_k \forall k$, then on the intersection of the probability-1 events, for any $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N(\omega)$ with $|X_{n,k}(\omega) - X_k(\omega)| < \epsilon/\sqrt{d} \quad \forall k$ and $n \geq N(\omega)$. Hence $\|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)\| \leq \sqrt{\sum_k (\epsilon^2/d)} = \epsilon$, so $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$.
- In probability: for any $\epsilon > 0$:

$$\{\|X_n - X\| > \epsilon\} \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^d \{|X_{n,k} - X_k| > \epsilon/\sqrt{d}\},$$

thus

$$\mathbb{P}(\|X_n - X\| > \epsilon) \leq \sum_{k=1}^d \mathbb{P}(|X_{n,k} - X_k| > \epsilon/\sqrt{d}) \rightarrow 0$$

- in L_p : by the inequality above:

$$\mathbb{E}\|X_n - X\|^p \leq d^{p-1} \sum_{k=1}^d \mathbb{E}|X_{n,k} - X_k|^p \rightarrow 0$$

\therefore for $m \in \{a.s., P, L_p\}$,

$$X_n \xrightarrow{m} X \iff X_{n,k} \xrightarrow{m} X_k \text{ for each } k = 1, \dots, d$$

□

16. Fill in the missing details in the proof of Prop. 2.14:

Proposition 2.14 states that:

Let $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of random vectors and X a random vector. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$ implies that $X_{n,k} \xrightarrow{D} X_k$ but $X_{n,k} \xrightarrow{D}$ does not imply that $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$.

Proof:

Let f be a bounded continuous function from $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then $g := f \circ \pi_k$ is a bounded continuous function from $\mathbb{R}^K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $\pi_k(x) := x_k$. Then $\mathbb{E}f(X_{n,k}) = \mathbb{E}g(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}g(x) = \mathbb{E}f(X_k)$, hence $X_{n,k} \xrightarrow{D} X_k$.

For the converse, let $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and set $X_n = (Z, (-1)^n Z)$. Both $X_{n,1}$ and $X_{n,2}$ are standard normal for each n , and hence weakly converge to Z [Why?]. X_n does not weakly converge to a limit. If it did, then we would have $\mathbb{E}[X_{n,1}X_{n,2}] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X_1X_2]$ where X is the hypothesised weak limit [Why?]. But $\mathbb{E}[X_{n,1}X_{n,2}] = (-1)^n \mathbb{E}[Z^2] = (-1)^n$ which does not converge. \square

1. Why do $X_{n,1}$ and $X_{n,2}$ weakly converge to X ?

Here $X_n = (Z, (-1)^n Z)$ with $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. Thus, $X_{n,1} = Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \quad \forall n$, and $X_{n,2} = (-1)^n Z \stackrel{d}{=} Z$ because the standard normal law is symmetric. Hence both coordinate laws are identically $\mathcal{N}(0, 1) \quad \forall n$, so the (constant) sequences of distributions trivially converge to $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$; i.e., $X_{n,1} \xrightarrow{D} Z$ and $X_{n,2} \xrightarrow{D} Z$.

2. Why would $\mathbb{E}[X_{n,1}X_{n,2}] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X_1X_2]$ if $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$?

Let $h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be $h(x_1, x_2) = x_1x_2$, which is continuous. By the Continuous Mapping Theorem, $h(X_n) \xrightarrow{D} h(X)$, that is, $X_{n,1}X_{n,2} \xrightarrow{D} X_1X_2$. In our example, $X_{n,1}X_{n,2} = (-1)^n Z^2$, so $|X_{n,1}X_{n,2}| = Z^2 \quad \forall n$ and $\mathbb{E}[Z^2] = 1 < \infty$. Therefore the family $\{X_{n,1}X_{n,2}\}$ is uniformly integrable. Convergence in distribution together with uniform integrability implies convergence of expectations, hence $\mathbb{E}[X_{n,1}X_{n,2}] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X_1X_2]$

But here $\mathbb{E}[X_{n,1}X_{n,2}] = (-1)^n \mathbb{E}[Z^2] = (-1)^n$, which does not converge, a contradiction. Thus (X_n) does not converge in distribution. \square

17. Prove Corollary 2.5

It states that if $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \rightarrow \mu$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then

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

Proof:

The r.v.s satisfy Markov's WLLN. Let $S_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ and $m_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i$. Then

$$P(|S_n - \mu| > \epsilon) \leq P(|S_n - m_n| > \epsilon/2) + \mathbb{1}_{\{|m_n - \mu| > \epsilon/2\}}$$

By assumption $m_n \rightarrow \mu$, so the indicator term vanishes for large n . For the first term, Chebyshev's inequality gives

$$P(|S_n - m_n| > \epsilon/2) \leq \frac{4}{\epsilon^2} \text{Var}(S_n)$$

Using uncorrelatedness,

$$\text{Var}(S_n) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu_i)\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

Hence $P(|S_n - \mu| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$, i.e., $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{P} \mu$ □

Remark: if $\sup_i \text{Var}(X_i) \leq C < \infty$, then $\text{Var}(S_n) \leq C/n \rightarrow 0$, which is a common and easy-to-check sufficient condition.

18. Prove the following WLLN:

THEOREM [L_2 WLLN]: If $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are uncorrelated r.v.s with $\mathbb{E}X_i = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) \leq C < \infty$ then $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n$ converges to μ in L_2 and end in probability.

Proof:

Let $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Since $\mathbb{E}X_i = \mu$ for all i , we have $\mathbb{E}\bar{X}_n = \mu$

Because the X_i are uncorrelated,

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) \leq \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot nC = \frac{C}{n}$$

Therefore

$$\mathbb{E}[(\bar{X}_n - \mu)^2] = \text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) \rightarrow 0$$

so $\bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu$ in L_2 □

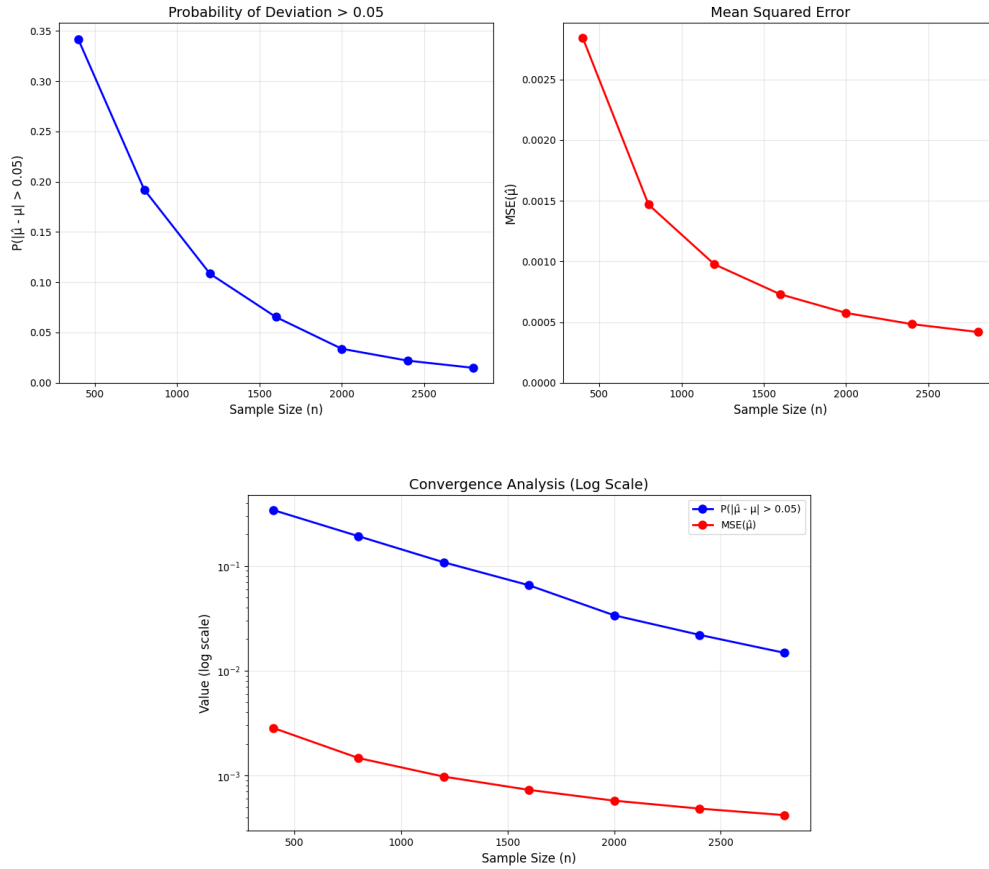
19. Draw $M = 5000$ samples of size $n = 400k$ for $k = 1, \dots, 7$ from the model:

$$X = \mu + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim t(15), \quad \mu = 1$$

Let $\hat{\mu}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ and calculate (i) the empirical probability that the distance between $\hat{\mu}_n$ and μ is greater than 0.05: $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{|\hat{\mu}_{n,i} - \mu| > 0.05\}}$ and (ii) the (empirical) mean squared error $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\mu}_{n,i} - \mu)^2$ in our sample. Plot these and comment on how the results relate to Thm. 2.15 and the preceding exercise.

THEOREM 2.15 [Weak law of large numbers, i.i.d.]: *If $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an i.i.d. sequence of random vectors with $\mathbb{E}[X_1] < \infty$, then for $\mu := \mathbb{E}X_1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,*

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



As n increases:

- $P(|\hat{\mu} - \mu| > 0.05)$ decreases to 0 (convergence in probability)
- $MSE(\hat{\mu})$ decreases to 0 (consistent estimator)

This demonstrates the WLLN

- The $t(15)$ distribution has finite mean ($\mu = 1$) and finite variance ($15/13 \cong 1.154$)
- Since $\mathbb{E}[|X_1|] < \infty$, the conditions of the WLLN are satisfied
- The empirical results confirm that $\hat{\mu}_n \rightarrow \mu$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

20. Prove Corollary 2.6 [Multivariate CLT, i.i.d.]

It states that *If $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an i.i.d. sequence of random vectors with $\text{Var}(X_1) = \Sigma$ ($\|\Sigma\| < \infty$), then for $\mu := \mathbb{E}X_1$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$*

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$$

Proof:

Let $Y_i := X_i - \mu$ and $S_n := \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$. Fix $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Then the scalar r.v.s $t^\top Y_i$ are i.i.d. with mean 0 and variance $(t^\top Y_1) = t^\top \Sigma t < \infty$. By the (univariate) central limit theorem,

$$t^\top S_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n t^\top Y_i \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{N}(0, t^\top \Sigma t)$$

Let $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$. Then for every $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $t^\top Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t^\top \Sigma t)$. Hence $t^\top S_n \xrightarrow{D} t^\top Z \quad \forall t$. By the Cramér-Wold device (equivalently, Lévy's continuity theorem), this implies $S_n \xrightarrow{D} Z$. Therefore

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$$

This remains true even if Σ is singular (the limit is then a degenerate Gaussian on a subspace). □