

Lesson 15

Convergence of Random

Variables

(Stochastic Convergence)

Stochastic Convergence is

concerned about convergence

of sequences of random

variables, and is of

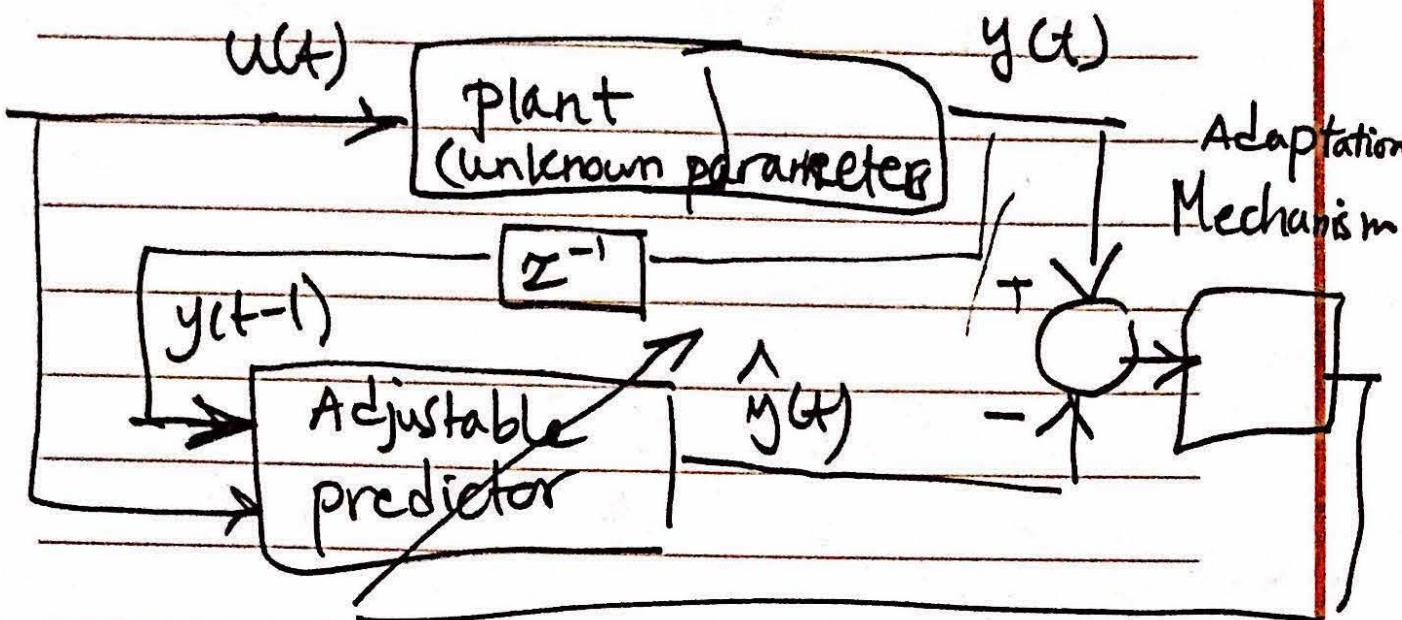
extreme importance in

probability theory and random processes. One reason for that is because "limit theorems" in probability theory concern

themselves with asymptotic limiting behavior of random variables.

Consider the following online parameter estimation scheme

in an adaptive control system



This scheme uses the error between predictions of an adjustable predictor and the true output of the system to estimate the

unknown parameters of
the system and "adapt"
a controller for desired
performance.

The parameter estimates

are sequences of random
variables that update as the
plant operates. Of particular
interest is whether the
parameter estimates converge

to the true parameters
of the system in some
sense.

Sequences Again !!

Recall that a sequence
is a function from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{R}
(actually it can be a function
from any countable set to any set)

Def (Limit of a Sequence

Again): We say that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to some $a \in \mathbb{R}$ iff $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t $\forall n > N,$

$$|a_n - a| < \epsilon$$

and we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a.$

Convergence of Sequences of Functions

Pointwise Convergence

(Convergence Everywhere,

Sure Convergence, Convergence

Surely)

Given a sequence of functions

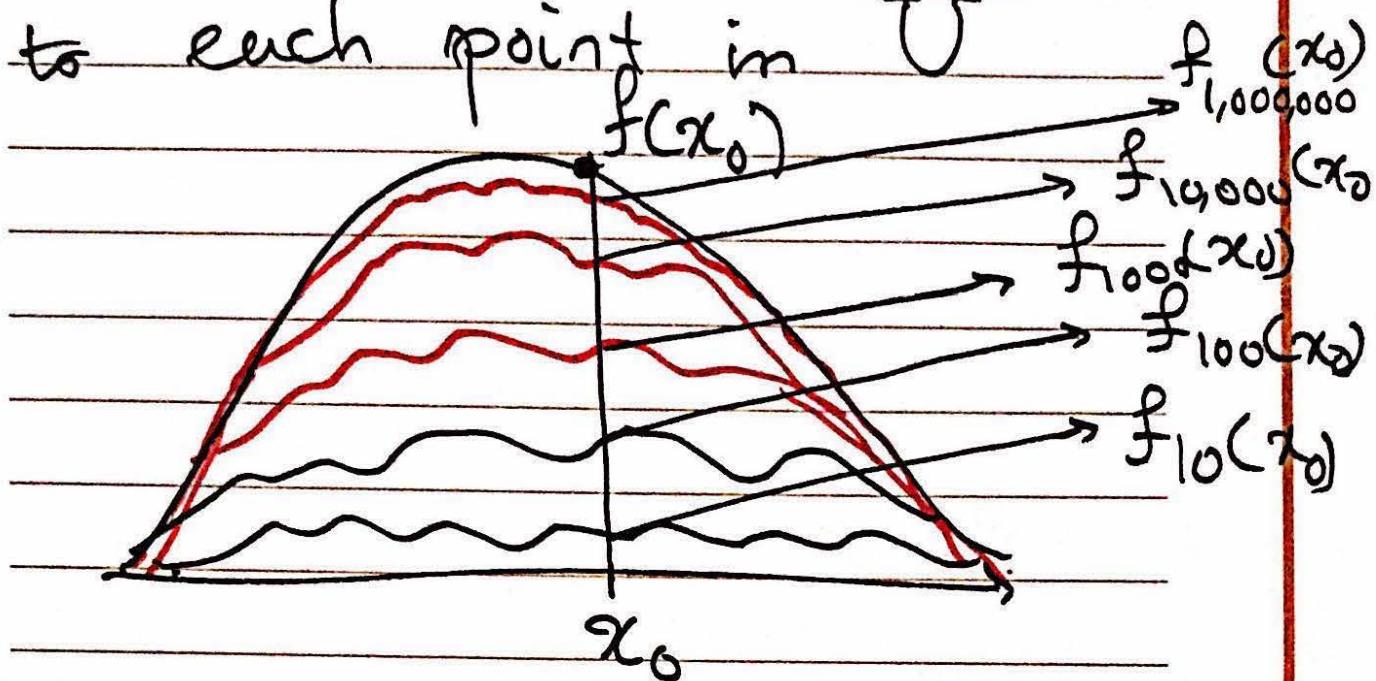
$\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} : f_n : U \rightarrow V,$

pointwise convergence or

Convergence everywhere

applies sequence convergence

to each point in U



$\forall x \in U \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$

i.e.

$\forall x \in U, \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ s.t.}$

Uniform Convergence

Uniform Convergence is -

stricter than pointwise

convergence, in the sense that $N(\epsilon)$ is

the same for all $x \in U$,

i.e. $\forall x \in U, N(x) = N$

Recall that sequences of r.v.'s $X_n: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are just sequences of \mathcal{F} -measurable functions, so convergence everywhere and uniformly

apply to $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as well.

Before going into details, we

summarize modes of convergence in a single table for r.v.'s

Summary of convergence Modes

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$$

Mode	a_n	a	Comment
Everywhere (pointwise)	$X_n(\omega)$	$X(\omega)$	$\forall \omega \in \Omega$
Almost surely (with prob.)	$X_n(\omega)$	$X(\omega)$	$\forall \omega \in A \in \mathcal{F}$ $P(A) = 1$
In r^{th} moment	$E[X_n - X ^r]$	0	-
In probability	$P(X_n - X > \epsilon)$	0	$\forall \epsilon > 0$
In distribution	$F_{X_n}(x)$	$F_X(x)$	$\forall x$ for which $F_X(x)$ is continuous

Simple Exercise: Modify

a_n 's in the previous

table such that all

a 's become 0.

Let's focus on each

mode of convergence

Pointwise (everywhere/sure)

Convergence

Def)

Assume that $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is
a sequence of r.v.'s that

are defined on the same probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

X_n is said to converge to X everywhere/pointwise (p.w.) iff:

Remark: Since for a fixed $\omega \in \Omega$, $\{X_n(\omega)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of real numbers, the meaning of convergence is clear.

Theorem: Assume that

$$\forall \omega \in \Omega, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega),$$

where X_n 's are r.v.'s on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . Then X is a r.v. on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) .

Proof: Omitted.

Remark: The above Theorem

says if X is the limit

of X_n 's, it is indeed a

r.v., ie. is an $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{B})$ measurable function itself.

Remark: Since pointwise convergence is for all members of the sample space, it is too strict for most practical applications. We can relax

it to almost sure convergence.

Def) $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to converge to X almost surely (a.s.)

iff

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) =$$

Alternatively,

$$P(\{\omega \mid X_n(\omega) \rightarrow X(\omega)\}) = 1$$

Therefore, a.s. convergence is

also called convergence

with probability 1 \equiv w.p.1.

This mode of convergence

gives the sequence of r.v.'s

the freedom not to converge

on a set of zero probability,

i.e., for some $\omega \in A^c$,

$X_n(\omega)$, $X_n(\omega) \not\rightarrow X(\omega)$; therefore,

it is weaker than sure/

pointwise convergence.

Remark: Almost Sure convergence

is quite strict itself, so a

weaker mode of convergence

can be defined.

Def) (Convergence in

probability (i.p.)

on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

$\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to converge

in probability (i.p.) to x iff

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\underbrace{\quad}_{P_n}\right) = 0 \text{ a.s.}$$

Remark: Instead of dealing with values of r.v.'s at some

ω 's, convergence in probability concerns itself with a sequence of probabilities. Therefore, it is different from a.s. convergence. It says

the probability of the event

$$\{ \omega \mid |X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| > \epsilon \}$$

(ω 's for which X_n deviates

from X by $\epsilon > 0$) approaches

zero when $n \rightarrow \infty$, for all

positive ϵ 's.

Def) (Convergence in the r^{th} moment / r^{th} mean / L^r convergence)

A sequence of r.v.'s on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

$\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to converge

in the r^{th} moment (mean) to

α iff

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E \underbrace{\dots}_{e_n} =$$

In particular, when $r=2$,
this mode of convergence

is called L^2 convergence or
convergence in the mean-squared
sense.

The last mode of convergence
is the weakest mode of
convergence, i.e., in distribution.
Essentially, we look at the
distributions of a sequence

of r.v.'s converging to
some distribution. This mode of
convergence is extremely
important in understanding
the Central Limit Theorem.

Def. A Sequence of r.v.'s

$\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to converge
to X in distribution (i.d)

iff:-

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$$

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$, where

In other words, the sequence
~~D~~
of distributions must converge

at all points of continuity
of $F_X(\cdot)$

Important remark: Convergence
in distribution is different
from other modes of convergence
in the sense that it does
not need all of the r.v.'s

to be defined on the same
probability space

Notation

Point wise Convergence $X_n \rightarrow X$

Almost Sure Convergence $X_n \rightarrow X$

$X_n \rightarrow X$

Convergence in probability $X_n \rightarrow X$

Convergence in r^{th} moment $X_n \rightarrow X$

$X_n \rightarrow X$

$r=2$

$X_n \rightarrow X$

Convergence in distribution $X_n \rightarrow X$

Example: Assume that

$$\Omega = [0, 1] \text{ and } P([a, b]) = b - a \\ \forall [a, b] \subseteq [0, 1]$$

Define

$$X_n(\omega) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } \omega \in [0, 1/n] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Determine if X_n converges in

any sense.

Hierarchy of Modes of Convergence

An essential ~~other~~ issue in

Convergence of r.r's is whether

a mode of convergence is

stronger than another mode

of convergence. In other words,

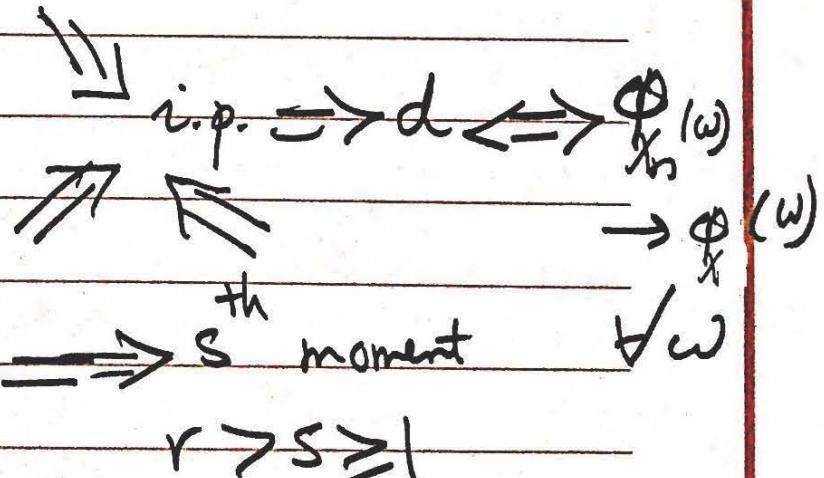
does a mode of convergence

imply another mode of convergence?

The following diagram

summarizes a hierarchy of
modes of convergence

$u \Rightarrow p.w. \Rightarrow a.s.$



Remark: It is often easier to

prove convergence in r^{th} mean

than Convergence in probability.

Also proving convergence in

probability may sometimes be

easier than proving convergence

in distribution.

If asked to prove \xrightarrow{P}

Check $\xrightarrow{\text{M.S.}}$ as well.

It may be easier to prove

Theorem (Skorokhod's Representation Theorem)

Assume that $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, X are

random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

and $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$. Then

there exists a probability

space $(\Omega', \mathcal{F}', P')$ and r.v.'s

$\{\Psi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, Ψ on that probability

space such that :

$$(a) \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad F_{X_n}(x) = F_{Y_n}(x)$$

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$F_X(x) = F_Y(x)$$

$$(b) Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} Y$$

Proof: Omitted.

Theorem: (Continuous Mapping Theorem)

Assume that $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a

continuous function. Then:

$$X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} g(X)$$

$$X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \Rightarrow g(X_n) \xrightarrow{P} g(X)$$

$$x_n \xrightarrow{d} x \Rightarrow g(x_n) \xrightarrow{d} g(x)$$

Note: $x_n \xrightarrow{\text{m.s.}} x \not\Rightarrow g(x_n) \xrightarrow{\text{m.s.}} g(x)$

Proof)

Theorem: ~~If~~ $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ iff
 for every bounded continuous
 function $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we have
 $E[g(X_n)] \rightarrow E[g(X)]$.

Proof: Uses continuous mapping

the proof and is omitted.

Theorem: $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ iff $\varphi_{X_n}(w) \rightarrow \varphi_X(w)$
 for all $w \in \mathbb{R}$

Proof: The necessary condition can
 be proved using continuous mapping

theorem. Sufficiency's proof is omitted.

Remark: This Theorem indicates that unlike other modes of convergence that are hierarchical, convergence in distribution pointwise implies convergence of characteristic functions and vice versa.

Recall that we say

φ_{X_n} converges to φ_X pointwise

when $n \rightarrow \infty$, if $\forall \omega \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_{X_n}(\omega) = \varphi_X(\omega).$$

Theorem (Lévy's continuity/convergence

Theorem): Assume that $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$

is a sequence of r.v./s associated

with a sequence of characteristic

functions $\{\Phi_{X_n}(\omega)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Phi_{X_n}(\omega) = \varphi(\omega) \quad \forall \omega$$

(i.e. $\Phi_{X_n}(\omega) \xrightarrow{\text{everywhere}} \varphi(\omega)$). Then:

(i) If $\varphi(\cdot)$ is continuous at $\omega=0$,

φ is a valid characteristic

function of some random

variable X ,

and $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$

(ii) If $\varphi(\cdot)$ is not continuous at $w=0$, X_n does not converge in distribution.

Remark: A characteristic function is continuous at $w=0$, and that is the only condition that is needed to be checked in this theorem.

Example: Assume that

$X_n \sim N(0, \sigma_n^2)$, and ~~$\sigma_n = \frac{n\sigma - 1}{n+1}$~~

$$\sigma_n = \frac{n\sigma - 1}{n+1}, \text{ in which } \sigma \in \mathbb{R}^+$$

Does $\{X_n\}$ converges in distribution?

Example: Assume that

$X_n \sim N(0, \sigma_n)$, where $\sigma_n = n+1$.

Does $\{X_n\}$ converge in distribution?

So far, we saw that there is a hierarchy in convergence of r.v.'s. An interesting question is if there is a ^{special} case in which a weaker convergence

mode implies a stronger convergence mode. Yes, there is.

Theorem: $X_n \xrightarrow{d} c \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{i.p.} c$, where $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Convergence of Functions of

Multiple Converging Random

Variables

Theorem: If $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and

$\{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are sequences of

random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

and X, Y are r.v.'s on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) :

$$\text{a) } \begin{cases} X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X \\ Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} Y \end{cases} \Rightarrow X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X + Y$$

$$\text{b) } \begin{cases} X_n \xrightarrow{\text{i.p.}} X \\ Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{i.p.}} Y \end{cases} \Rightarrow X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{i.p.}} X + Y$$

$$\text{C) } \begin{cases} X_n \xrightarrow{r} X \\ Y_n \xrightarrow{r} Y \end{cases} \Rightarrow X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{r} X + Y$$

Note: Even if $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$,
in general, one can NOT conclude
that $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + Y$.

Proof)

Slutsky's Theorem

Theorem (Slutsky's):

Let $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $\{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be

sequences of r.v.'s and

$$X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \quad \text{and} \quad Y_n \xrightarrow{d} c \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$$

then

a) $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c$

b) $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} cX$

c) $X_n / Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/c$, if $c \neq 0$

Remark 1: In this theorem,

* $Y_n \rightarrow c$ can be replaced with
 $Y_n \xrightarrow{i.p.} c$.

Remark 2: The requirement that

Y_n converges to a "degenerate"

random variable is essential.

It doesn't work if Y_n converges

to a non-degenerate r.v.

Remark 3: The theorem remains

valid if all convergences in

distribution are replaced with

Convergence in probability.

Proof) Omitted.