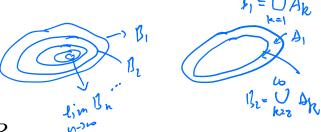
$$\Omega = \{ \omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots, \omega_n \}$$

$$A_{n} = \{ \omega_{2}, \omega_{3}, \omega_{5} \} \qquad f = \{ \{ \omega_{1}, \omega_{2} \} \dots \} \{ \omega_{2}, \omega_{3}, \omega_{5} \} \dots \}$$

Let $\Omega \supset A_n \in \mathcal{F}$.

Define $B_n = \bigcup_{k \ge n} A_k$ and

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"limsup A_n " represents the event that infinitely many A_n take place. Sometimes we write $\{A_n, i.o.\}$ to denote that.

Note that $B_n \downarrow \text{limsup} A_n$ and therefore by laws of probability,

$$P(\operatorname{limsup} A_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(B_n).$$

$$S = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(A_k) < \infty \qquad S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} P(A_k)$$

No independence assumed.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{p(A_k)}{p} = S - S_{n-1}$$

Fact: 1st Borel-Cantelli lemma. $\lim_{n\to\infty} P(A_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} S_n = 0$.

 $Proof. \ 0 \leq P(limsup A_n) = lim_{n\to\infty} P(B_n)$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} P(\bigcup_{k \ge n} A_k) \le \overline{\lim}_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k = n}^{\infty} P(A_k) = 0.$$

$$\le \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k = n}^{\infty} P(A_k) \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{k \ge n} \sum_{k \ge n}^{\infty} P(A_k) = 0$$
Almost sure convergence.

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《 课 $\lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{n \to \infty$

Almost sure convergence.

Recall: $X_n \to X$, almost surely iff $P\{\omega : \text{For every } \epsilon > 0, \text{ there exists } N(\omega, \epsilon), \text{ such that } \}$ $|X_n - X| \le \epsilon$, for all $n \ge N(\omega, \epsilon)$ = 1 $P(\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n = X) = |$

Equivolent

Claim: It is enough to establish the following seemingly weaker statement: For each $\epsilon > 0$, $P\{\omega : \text{There exists } N(\omega, \epsilon), \text{ such that } |X_n - X| \le \epsilon$, for all $n \ge N(\omega, \epsilon)\} = 1$.

Why?

Because we can interest countably infinitely many sure events to get a sure event. (Prove at home)

Let $k \ge 1$ be an arbitrary integer. Use $\epsilon = 1/k$. Then we get $P\{\omega : \text{There exists } N(\omega, k), \text{ such that } |X_n - X| \le 1/k, \text{ for all } n \ge N(\omega, k)\} = 1.$

Hence $P \cap \{\omega : \text{There exists } N(\omega, k), \text{ such that } \}$

$$|X_n - X| \le 1/k$$
, for all $n \ge N(\omega, k)$ = 1

$$P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}A_{n}\right) = 1 - P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}A_{n}\right)^{c} = 1 - P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(A_{n}\right)^{c}\right) > 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}P\left(A_{n}^{c}\right)^{c}$$

$$P\left(A_{n}^{c}\right) = 1$$

$$= 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}0$$

Note $\bigcap_k \{\omega : \text{There exists } N(\omega, k), \text{ such that } |X_n - X| \leq 1/k,$ for all $n \geq N(\omega, k)\} = \bigcap_{\epsilon \geq 0} \{\omega : \text{There exists } N(\omega, \epsilon), \text{ such that } |X_n - X| \leq \epsilon, \text{ for all } n \geq N(\omega, \epsilon)\}$

Hence we have established the seemingly stronger statement in the definition of almost sure convergence.

Suppose $X_n \stackrel{P}{\to} X$, which means for each $\epsilon > 0$, $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \to 0$. However it is hard to combine the sets $\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\}$ without knowing how fast these probabilities go to zero. $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon, i.o.) = 0$

$$P(\lim_{N\to\infty} X_n(\omega) = X_{(\omega)}) = 1$$

$$(R, Z)$$

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} P(|X_n(\omega) - X_{(\omega)}| < E) = 1$$

Complete Convergence

Suppose for each $\epsilon > 0$, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \infty$. This is called

Suppose for each
$$\epsilon > 0$$
, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \infty$. This is called complete convergence; we write $X_n \stackrel{c}{\to} X$.

Note that by Borel-Cantelli lemma for each $\epsilon > 0$

Note that by, Borel-Cantelli lemma, for each
$$\epsilon > 0$$
,
$$P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon, i.o.) = 0 \text{ and hence } X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X.$$

$$E_n = |X_n - X| > 2$$

$$E_n, i.o. \text{ hoppens, infinitely many } |X_n - X| > 2$$

$$\text{We can show a.s. convergence implies convergence in probability.}$$

$$\text{Since } P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon, i.o.) = 0, \text{ we get } \lim_{n \to \infty} P(B_n) = 0$$

We can show a.s. convergence implies convergence in probability. Since $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon, i.o.) = 0$, we get $\lim_{n \to \infty} P(B_n) = 0$

where $B_n = \bigcup_{k > n} A_k \supset A_n$, with $A_n = \{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\}$. Hence $P(A_n) \to 0$, showing $X_n \stackrel{P}{\to} X$.

$$A_{n} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} |X_{n} - X| > 5 \end{array} \right\}, \quad B_{n} = \bigcup_{k=n}^{n} A_{k} \quad DA_{n}$$

$$X_{n} \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies P(|X_{n} - X| > 5, i.o.) = 0 \implies P(A_{n}, i.o.) = 0 \implies P(A_{n}$$

$$P(X_n \in X) \rightarrow P(X \leq X)$$
 for $\forall X$ continuous

Convergence in distribution

(If the distribution is Normal, then
all points are required to converge.

 X_n converges in distribution to X, written as $X_n \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} X$, if

 $F_{X_n}(x) \to F_X(x)$, whenever F_X is continuous at x.

Why not at all x?

Because, that will be too much to ask as shown by the following example.

xample.
$$X_n = \frac{1}{n}$$
, with probability 1

X = 0, with probability 1.



$$F_{X_n}(0) = 0$$
, for all $n \rightarrow 0$

but $F_X(0) = 1$.

Note that the limiting distribution function F_X is discontinuous at 0.

In general, X_n and X do not have to be defined on the same probability space.

The most important example of distribution convergence in statistics is due to the central limit theorem (CLT).

$$Y_i$$
, $i \ge 1$, i.i.d. $E(Y_i) = \mu$, $Var(Y_i) = \sigma^2$.

Then

$$X_n = \frac{\overline{Y}_n - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) = X$$

 $\begin{cases} X_{n}-X > \varepsilon \\ X_{n}-X < -\varepsilon \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} X < X_{n}-\varepsilon \\ X > X_{n}+\varepsilon \end{cases}$

Fact: Convergence in probability implies convergence in distribution.

Suppose F_X is continuous at x.

Note
$$\{X_n \leq x\} \subset \{X \leq x + \epsilon\} \cup \{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\}$$

Hence

$$\begin{cases} \chi \leq \chi \end{cases} \quad \mathcal{L} \quad \begin{cases} \chi_{n} \leq \chi + \ \ell \end{cases} \cup \quad \begin{cases} |\chi_{n} - \chi| > \ell \end{cases}$$

$$\downarrow_{\chi} (x) \quad \leq \quad \downarrow_{\chi_{n}} (x + \ell) + P(|\chi_{n} - \chi| > \ell)$$

$$F_{\chi_{n}}(x) \leq F_{\chi}(x + \epsilon) + P(|\chi_{n} - \chi| > \epsilon)$$

$$limsup_{n\to\infty}F_{X_n}(x) \le F_X(x+\epsilon) + 0$$

Now let $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, and use the fact that F_X is continuous at x, to obtain $lim sup_{n\to\infty} F_{X_n}(x) \leq F_X(x)$.

Similarly, one can show (try this at home) that

$$limin f_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) \ge F_X(x)$$

Thus

$$F_{x}(x) \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} F_{x_{n}}(x+\epsilon) + P(|x_{n}-x|>\epsilon)$$

$$F_{x}(x) \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} F_{x_{n}}(x+\epsilon)$$

$$F_X(x) \leq limin f_{n\to\infty} F_{X_n}(x) \leq lim sup_{n\to\infty} F_{X_n}(x) \leq F_X(x)$$

– sandwich trick!

Hence

$$\lim F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x).$$

Distribution convergence does not imply convergence in probability.

Easy counter example: Suppose Z is a given random variable that is standard normally distributed.

Let
$$X_n = -Z$$
 and $X = Z$

Then

$$F_{X_n}(x) = \Phi(x)$$
, for all n , and x

$$F_X(x) = \Phi(x)$$
, for all x

Hence

$$F_{X_n}(x) \to F_X(x)$$
, for all x

and $X_n \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} X$.

However, $X_n - X = 2Z \stackrel{p}{\nrightarrow} 0$.

Exc. If $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} c$, where c is a constant, then $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} c$.

$$P(X_n \leq \chi) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow 16} P(C \leq \chi)$$

To prove
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P(|x_n-c|\leq \epsilon)=1$$

$$= P(x_n \in ct2) - P(x_n \leq c-2)$$

$$= P(c \le C+2) - P(c \le C-2)$$

$$= P(0 \leq \xi) - P(0 \leq -\xi)$$

$$= 10 = 12$$