

. Convergence of random variables.

- a.s. convergence
 - convergence in prob
 - L^p convergence
 - convergence in distribution.
- $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ and X living in the same sample space.
 (e.g. It makes sense to talk about $|X_n - X|$).
- Don't require anything about joint distribution of $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ and X .
 Convergence is only in probability law.

Def. $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n, \dots$ a sequence of random variables

Let F_n be cdf of X_n .

We say $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(t) = F(t)$ ($\forall t$)

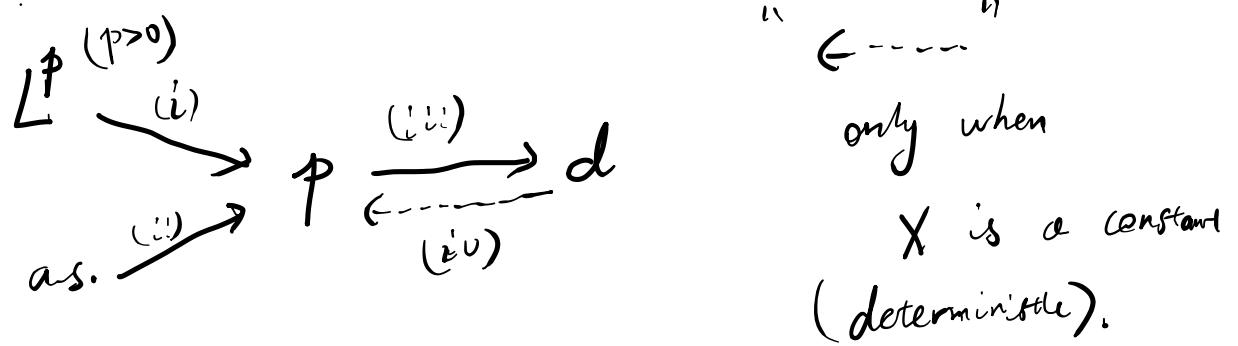
where F is the cdf of X , F is continuous.

(only comparing marginal distributions of X_n and X).

Equivalent definition. for any bounded continuous function h

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[h(X_n)] = E[h(X)].$$

(the cdf definition takes $h(x) = \mathbb{1}\{X \leq x\}$).



(i). $P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) = P(|X_n - X|^p > \varepsilon^p)$

$$\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}|X_n - X|^p}{\varepsilon^p} \rightarrow 0$$

(for any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$)

(ii) $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, with probability 1, $\{n : |X_n - X| > \varepsilon\}$ is finite

$$M = \max \{n : |X_n - X| > \varepsilon\}, \quad P(M < \infty) = 1.$$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} P(M > k) = 0.$$

$$\{ |X_n - X| > \varepsilon \} \subseteq \{ M \geq n \}$$

$$\text{So } \overline{P}(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0.$$

(iii). Recall F_n, F are cdf's of X_n and X .

$$F_n(t) = P(X_n \leq t)$$

$$\leq P(X \leq t + \varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon).$$

$$\{X_n \leq t\} \subseteq \underbrace{\{X_n - x| \geq \varepsilon\}}_{\text{II}} \cup \underbrace{\{X \leq t + \varepsilon\}}_{\text{II'}}$$

$$\underbrace{\{X_n \leq t, |X_n - x| \geq \varepsilon\}}_{\text{II}} \cup \underbrace{\{X_n \leq t, |X_n - x| < \varepsilon\}}_{\text{II'}}$$

$$\text{So } \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(t) \leq F(t + \varepsilon)$$

Repeating the arguments on the other side,

$$F_n(t) \geq F(t - \varepsilon) - \mathbb{P}(|X_n - x| \geq \varepsilon).$$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(t) \geq F(t - \varepsilon).$$

This holds true for any $\varepsilon > 0$, F is continuous.

$$\text{So } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(t) = F(t)$$

(iv). Fact. If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} c$ (c is deterministic)

then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} c$.

Proof. cdf of a constant c is $\{x \geq c\}$.
 (ignoring discontinuity issue).

$$F_n(t) = \mathbb{P}(X_n \leq t) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 0 & \text{when } t < c \\ 1 & \text{when } t \geq c. \end{cases}$$

$$P(|X_n - c| \geq \varepsilon) = P(X_n \geq c + \varepsilon) + P(X_n \leq c - \varepsilon).$$

$\rightarrow 0.$

Operations and convergence.

Thm: $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$, X , $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$, Y be random variables.

- If $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$ then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{P} X + Y$
 $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{P} XY$.

- If $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{P} X + Y$.

(not necessarily for product, because $E[|X_n Y_n|^p]$ may not be finite.)

← If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} c$. (equiv. $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} c$)

" Slutsky theorem": then we have $\begin{cases} X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} c + X \\ X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} cX. \end{cases}$

When $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$ (or even in probability)
with Y random, this does not hold true.

- For any continuous function g

$X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ implies $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} g(X)$.

Notation :

- For limit of nonrandom seq. $(b_n > 0)$.

Use $a_n = O(b_n)$ to denote

$\frac{|a_n|}{b_n}$ is bounded.

Use $a_n = o(b_n)$ to denote

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_n|}{b_n} = 0$$

e.g. $a_n = 2n^2 + n \quad b_n = n^2$

$$a_n = O(b_n) = O(n^2)$$

e.g. $a_n = \frac{1}{n^2 + n} \quad a_n = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

- Probabilistic versions. $(X_n, Y_n)_{n \geq 0}, \quad Y_n \geq 0$

We say $X_n = O_p(Y_n)$ when

$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists k$ indep of n

s.t. $\overline{P}\left(\frac{|X_n|}{Y_n} > k\right) \leq \varepsilon \quad (O_p)$.

We say $X_n = o_p(Y_n)$ when

$$X_n / Y_n \xrightarrow{P} 0.$$

- $O_p(1) + o_p(1) = O_p(1)$
- $O_p(1) \cdot o_p(1) = o_p(1)$.

• Law of large numbers.

Thm (WLLN) $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P$. $E[X_i] < \infty$.

then $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{P} E[X]$.

Thm (SLLN). Under the same conditions.

$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{as.} E[X]$.

Proof under stronger assumption:

Assuming $E[|X_i|^2] < \infty$. then

$$\begin{aligned} E\left[\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - E[X]\right|^2\right] &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n E[(X_i - E[X])^2] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n} E[|X_i|^2] \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

So $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{L^2} E[X]$.

We also know that L^2 convergence implies \xrightarrow{P} .

(In general: use some truncation).

• Central limit thm.

Thm $X_1, \dots, X_n \dots \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P$. $E[|X_i|^2] < \infty$.

then $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - E[X]) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \text{var}(X))$.

Multivariate version.

$$X_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n, \dots \sim \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P$ random vectors.

$$\mathbb{E}[||X_1||_2^2] < +\infty. \text{ then}$$

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Sigma), \quad \mu = \mathbb{E}[X_1]$$

where $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ defined as

$$\Sigma = \mathbb{E}[(X_1 - \mu)(X_1 - \mu)^T].$$

Covariance matrix of X_1 .

e.g. $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P. \quad \mu = \mathbb{E}[X_1]$

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2) \quad \sigma^2 = \text{var}(X_1).$$

In practice, σ^2 is unknown in statistics.

Replace by the "estimated variance".

$$S_n = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2}$$

(sometimes, we use normalization $\frac{1}{n-1}$ not changing the result).

$$\text{Thm. } \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{S_n} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).$$

(S_n is computed from data — useful in stats)

$$\text{Proof: CLT } \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).$$

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \underbrace{(\bar{X}_n)^2}_{\sim}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i^2] < \infty, \text{ by WLLN,}$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}[X_1^2]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X_1] \text{ a.s., by WLLN}$$

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}[X_1]$$

and therefore

$$\bar{X}_n^2 \xrightarrow{P} (\mathbb{E}[X_1])^2$$

Taking the difference.

$$S_n^2 \xrightarrow{P} \text{var}(X_1).$$

Applying Slutsky theorem.

$$\xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{S_n} = \underbrace{\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma}}_{\sim} \cdot \underbrace{\left[\frac{\sigma}{S_n} \right]}_{\xrightarrow{P} 1}$$

"Delta method."

Thm: Suppose that $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$ satisfies

$$\frac{\sqrt{n} (Y_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).$$

(Y_n does not have to be iid average).

Let g be a differentiable function. $g'(\mu) \neq 0$
then we have

$$\frac{\sqrt{n} (g(Y_n) - g(\mu))}{g'(\mu) \sigma} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).$$

Proof. $g(Y_n) - g(\mu)$ (in op notation).
 $= g'(\mu) \cdot (Y_n - \mu) + o_p(|Y_n - \mu|)$

More rigorously, we can get

$$R_n = g(Y_n) - g(\mu) - g'(\mu) \cdot (Y_n - \mu).$$

We know $\frac{|R_n|}{|Y_n - \mu|} \xrightarrow{P} 0$ by calculus.

$$\sqrt{n}(Y_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2). \text{ (by assumption)}$$

$$\sqrt{n} \left(g(Y_n) - g(\mu) \right) = \underbrace{\sqrt{n} \cdot g'(\mu)(Y_n - \mu)}_{\xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2 g'(\mu)^2)} + \sqrt{n} \cdot R_n.$$

$$\sqrt{n} |R_n| = \frac{|R_n|}{|Y_n - \mu|} \xrightarrow{P} 0 \quad \text{by Slutsky}$$

$\xrightarrow{d} \text{something}$

Once again by Slutsky.

$$\sqrt{n} \left(g(Y_n) - g(\mu) \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2 g'(\mu)^2).$$

Remark: different limit when one of assumptions break.

$$\text{e.g. } \sqrt{n} Y_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2). \quad g(y) = |y|.$$

then $\sqrt{n} |Y_n| \xrightarrow{d} M$, where $Y \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

eg. If g is ^Vdifferentiable, but $g'(\mu) = 0$.
twice over
 $g''(\mu) \neq 0$.

$$g(Y_n) - g(\mu) = \cancel{g'(\mu)(Y_n - \mu)} + \frac{1}{2} g''(\mu) \cdot (Y_n - \mu)^2 + R_n.$$

this leads to the limit

$$\text{Thm. } \frac{2n(g(Y_n) - g(\mu))}{g''(\mu) \cdot \sigma^2} \xrightarrow{d} \chi_2(1).$$

"second-order Delta method".

Another extension: multivariate Delta method.

$Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n, \dots \in \mathbb{R}^d$, random vectors.

Suppose that $\sqrt{n}(Y_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \Sigma)$.

Let $g: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. differentiable, $\nabla g(\mu) \neq 0$.

Then we have

$$\sqrt{n}(g(Y_n) - g(\mu)) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \nabla g(\mu)^T \Sigma \nabla g(\mu)).$$

More generally, g can be vector-valued functions.

there's also multivariate, second-order Delta method.

Now, back to statistics.

"Statistical model": a class of distributions

Goal: learn something about the true distribution
using data.

parametric : $P_{\Theta} := \{P_{\theta} : \theta \in \Theta\}$ for $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{cl}$
 nonparametric : "parametrized by θ "

also "parametrized", but θ can live
 in an infinite-dimensional space.

e.g. $\{N(\mu, \sigma^2) : \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma \in \mathbb{R}_+\}$ is a parametric model

e.g. $\mathcal{F} := \{\text{the set of all cdfs}\}.$

for $F \in \mathcal{F}$. we observe $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F$.

nonparametric model

e.g. $\mathcal{P} = \{p \text{ is a pdf, s.t. } |p'(x)| \leq 1 \quad \forall x\}$
 nonparametric.

e.g. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{\text{class of distributions s.t. } \mathbb{E}|X|^2 \leq \sigma^2\}$
 is a nonparametric model.

But we may want to estimate a "statistical functional".

Estimate : e.g. $\mu = T(\mathbb{P}) := \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[X]$.

e.g. $\mu = T(\mathbb{P}) = \text{median of } \mathbb{P}$.