### Convergence of Random Variables

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### Outline

- Last lecture: review some basic probability concepts; introduce the statistics
- 4 types of convergence
- Relationship between different types of convergence
- Stochastic orders

#### Terms

- Converge in probability; Converge in  $L^p$ ; converge in quadratic mean; almost sure converge; converge in distribution;
- $\bullet$   $O_p, o_p$

Note: May take 1-2 lectures for this topic.

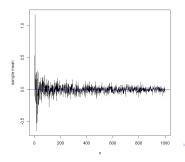
### Look into Sample mean

• Recall:

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

Note: When  $n \neq m$ ,  $X_n$  and  $X_m$  share the same expectation  $\mu$  but have different distribution.

• Intuitively, when  $n \to \infty$ ,  $\bar{X}$  is very close to  $\mu = E(X)$ .

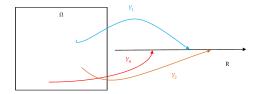


```
1 rm(list=ls())
2 n.vec <- seq(1, 10^3, 1)
3 n.len <- length(n.vec)
4 mean.full <- NULL
5 for(i in 1:n.len) {
6    mean.full[i] <- mean(rnorm(n.vec[i]))
7 }
8 plot(n.vec, mean.full, type="l",xlab = "n",
9    ylab = "sample mean")
10 abline(h=0,lwd=1,col="blue")</pre>
```

If  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n, \ldots$  is an array of numbers, we know how to describe whether they convergence or not. But what if they are random variables? How to describe it?

#### Generalization

- Let  $\{Y_n\}_{i=1}^{\infty} = Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n, \dots$  denotes a sequence of random variables
- Problem: How to describe the limit of  $Y_n$
- Consider 2 cases:
  - Case 1.  $Y_i \sim F$  independently,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$
  - Case 2.  $Z_1=Z_2=Z_3=\ldots$ , where  $Z_1\sim F$ . Let  $X\sim F$ . Can we say  $Y_i\to X$ ? Can we say  $Z_i\to X$  How to differentiate these two cases?
- Recall:  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n : \Omega \to R$ . A sequence of functions



## Convergence in Probability

#### Definition 5.5.1: Convergence in Probability

For a sequence of r.v.'s  $\{X_n\}_{i=1}^\infty=X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_n,\ldots$ , we say they converge in probability towards the r.v. X (i.e.  $X_n\overset{p}{\to}X$ ) if for any  $\varepsilon>0$ ,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P(|X_n - X| \ge \varepsilon) = 0.$$

- ullet The target X has the same sample space with all the  $X_i$ 's
- $\bullet$   $\{X_n\}$  are usually dependent, but not identically distribution.
- Practically, find the sequence of events  $A_n = \{\omega \in \Omega, |X_n(\omega) X(\omega)| \geq \varepsilon\} \text{ by obtaining } |X_n X| \text{ as a new r.v., and check if } P(A_n) \to 0 \text{ when } n \to \infty.$
- Interpretation: for any  $\varepsilon$ , the event that  $|X_n-X|$  has probability smaller than  $\delta$  when n is large enough. It concerns more about the probability measure and r.v., instead of the CDF only.

# Example: Convergence in Probability

• Let X be a r.v. with prob 1 at 1, and  $X_n \sim N\left(1,\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$ . According to the property of normal distribution., $X_n - X \sim N\left(0,\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$ , so

$$P(|X_n - X| \ge \varepsilon) = P(|N(0, \frac{1}{n^2})|)$$

$$\le \frac{1}{n^2 \varepsilon^2} \le \delta, \ n \ge \frac{1}{\varepsilon \sqrt{\delta}}$$

So,  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X^{1}$ 

$$P(|X - \mu| \ge \varepsilon) \le \frac{\mathbf{Var}(X)}{\varepsilon^2}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Chebychev's inequality.

## Example: Convergence in Probability

• Let  $X_n \sim Ber(0.5)$ , and  $X \sim Ber(0.5)$ ,  $X_n$  and X are independent. Note for any n,

$$P(|X_n - X| \ge 1)$$

$$= P(\{X_n = 1, X = 0\} \cup \{X_n = 0, X = 1\})$$

$$= P(\{X_n = 1, X = 0\}) + P(\{X_n = 0, X = 1\})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \nrightarrow 0$$

So,  $X_n$  does NOT converge to X in probability.

# Convergence in $L_r$ (rth mean)

#### Definition: Convergence in $L_r$

For a sequence of r.v.'s  $\{X_n\}_{i=1}^{\infty}=X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_n,\ldots$ , we say they converge in  $L_r$  towards the r.v. X (i.e.  $X_n\overset{L^r}{\to}X$ ) if for any  $\varepsilon>0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbf{E} \Big( |X_n - X|^r \Big) = 0.$$

where  $\left[\mathbf{E}\Big(|X_n-X|^r\Big)\right]^{1/r}$  is the  $L^r$  distance between  $X_n$  and X

- ullet The target X has the same sample space with all the  $X_i$ 's
- When r=2, converge in  $L^2$  is also called converge in quadratic mean, i.e.,  $X_n \stackrel{qm}{\to} X$ . The convergence in quadratic mean is generally used.
- To show  $L^r$  convergence, just figure out an upper bound of  $\mathbf{E}(|X_n-X|^r)$ , and show this upper bound goes to 0.

# Example: Convergence in $L_2$

• Recall the pervious example when X has a point mass at 1, and  $X_n \sim N\Big(1,\frac{1}{n^2}\Big)$ . According to the property of normal distribution., $X_n - X \sim N\Big(0,\frac{1}{n^2}\Big)$ , so

$$\mathbf{E}(|X_n - X|^2) = (\mathbf{E}(X_n - X))^2 + \mathbf{Var}(X_n - X)$$
$$= 0 + \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n^2} \to 0.$$

Hence,  $X_n \stackrel{L^2}{\rightarrow} X$ 

## Properties: Convergence in $L_2$

• According to the deviation, if  $Var(X_n-X) \to 0$ , and  $E(X_n-X) \to 0$ , then there is

$$E(|X_n - X|^2) = (E(X_n - X))^2 + Var(X_n - X) \to 0$$

#### Property 1

if  $Var(X_n - X) \to 0$ , and  $E(X_n - X) \to 0$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{L^2}{\to} X$ .

# Properties: Convergence in $L_2$

#### Property 2

Let  $0 < s < r < \infty$  if  $X_n \stackrel{L_r}{\to} X$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{L_s}{\to} X$ .

Recall that with Holder inequality, there is

$$E(|YZ|) \le E(|Y|^k)^{1/k} E(|Z|^l)^{1/l}$$

for  $1 < k, l < \infty$  with  $\frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{l} = 1$ .

• Let Y=1,  $Z=|X_n-X|^r, l=r/s$ , and k=1/(1-s/r)>1. Then

$$E(|X_n - X|^s) = E(|X_n - X|^s \times 1)$$

$$\leq \left[E(|X_n - X|^r)\right]^{s/r} \times 1^{1/k}$$

$$= \left[E(|X_n - X|^r)\right]^{s/r} \to 0$$

## Properties: Convergence in $L_2$

#### Property 3

Let  $0 < r < \infty$  if  $X_n \stackrel{L^r}{\to} X$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ .

Proof:

$$P(|X_n - X| \ge \varepsilon) = P(|X_n - X|^r \ge \varepsilon^r)$$
  
  $\le \frac{E(|X_n - X|^r)}{\varepsilon^r} \to 0$ 

Markov's Inequality: non-negative r.v.

$$P(x \ge a) \le \frac{E(X)}{a}$$

## Markov's Inequality

#### Markov's (Chebyshev's) Inequality

- If g is strictly increasing and positive on  $(0, \infty)$ , g(x) = g(-x).
- X is a r.v. such that  $E[g(X)] < \infty$ , then for each a > 0

$$P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E[g(X)]}{g(a)}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} E[g(X)] &\geq E[g(X)I_{\{g(X)\geq g(a)\}}] \\ &\geq g(a)E[I_{\{g(X)\geq g(a)\}}] \\ &= g(a)E[I_{\{|X|\geq a\}}] \\ &= g(a)P(|X|\geq a) \end{split}$$

# Some special cases: Markov's Inequality

$$\begin{split} g(x) &= |x| \Longrightarrow P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E|X|}{a} \\ g(x) &= x^p \Longrightarrow P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E|g(X^p)|}{a^p} \\ g(x) &= x^2 \Longrightarrow P(|X - EX| \ge a) \le \frac{Var(X)}{a^2} \\ g(x) &= e^{t|x|} \Longrightarrow P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E\left[e^{t|X|}\right]}{e^{ta}} \end{split}$$

for some constant  $t \ge 0$ 

## Almost Sure Convergence

#### Definition 5.5.6

For a sequence of r.v.'s  $\{X_n\}_{i=1}^{\infty}=X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_n,\ldots$ , we say they almost sure convergence to r.v. X (i.e.  $X_n\overset{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$ ) if for any  $\varepsilon>0$ ,

$$P\Big(\lim_{n\to\infty}X_n(\omega)=X(\omega)\Big)=1 \text{ or } P\Big(\lim_{n\to\infty}|X_n(\omega)-X(\omega)|<\varepsilon\Big)=1$$

- The target X has the same sample space with all the  $X_i$ 's.
- $\{X_n\}$  and X are usually dependent
- Practically, to show the a.s. convergence,
  - For each outcome  $\omega$ , find the sequence  $X_1(\omega), X_2(\omega), \ldots$  (sequence of real numbers) and the real number  $X(\omega)$ . Figure out whether  $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)$  is true or not.
  - Let the event  $A = \{\omega, \lim_{n \to \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}.$
  - Check if P(A) = 1
- Interpretation: for almost all the outcomes  $\omega$  !, when n is large enough,  $|X_n(\omega) X(\omega)| \le \varepsilon$  for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

## Example 1: Almost Sure Convergence

- Let the sample space  $\Omega=[0,1]$ , with a probability measure that is uniform on this space, i.e. P([a,b])=b-a for any  $0\leq a\leq b\leq 1$ .
- Let

$$X_n(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le \omega < \frac{n+1}{2n} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \text{ and } X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le \omega < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For each  $\omega \in [0,1]$ .

- If  $\omega \in [0, 1/2)$ , then  $X_n(\omega) = 1 = X(\omega)$ .
- If  $\omega = 1/2$ , then  $X_n(\omega) = 1 \nrightarrow X(\omega) = 0$ .
- If  $\omega \in (1/2, 1]$ , then  $X_n(\omega) = 0 = X(\omega)$ , when  $\frac{n+1}{2n} < \omega$ , which is equivalent with  $n \ge \frac{1}{2\omega 1}$ .

So, 
$$A=[0,1/2)\cup(1/2,1]$$
. Check  $P(A)=1?$ 

# Example 5.5.7: Almost Sure Convergence

- Let the sample space  $\Omega=[0,1]$ , with a probability measure that is uniform on this space, i.e. P([a,b])=b-a for any  $0 \le a \le b \le 1$ .
- Define r.v.

$$X_n(\omega) = \omega + \omega^n$$
 and  $X(\omega) = \omega$ 

For each  $\omega \in [0,1]$ .

- If  $\omega \in [0,1)$ ,  $\omega^n \to 0$ , then  $X_n(\omega) \to \omega = X(\omega)$ .
- If  $\omega = 1$ , then  $X_n(\omega) = 2 \nrightarrow X(\omega) = 1$  for every n

So, 
$$A = [0, 1)$$
. Check  $P(A) = 1$ ?

## Almost Sure Convergence

- Comparison between almost sure convergence and converge in probability
  - Convergence in probability: for each n, consider  $P(|X_n(\omega) X(\omega)| > \varepsilon)$ , and check the limit of this probability
  - Almost sure convergence: for each  $\omega$ , check the limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n(\omega)$ , and find the probability of the set that the limit does not equal to  $X(\omega)$

## Almost Sure Convergence

• Can we express it as the limit of probability?

#### Theorem: Almost Sure Convergence

The following statements are equivalent:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\sup_{k > n} |X_k - X| > \varepsilon\right) = 0$$

Here, we consider the set  $\bigcup_{k\geq n}\{|X_k-X|>\varepsilon\}$ 

# Property 1: Almost Sure Convergence

#### Property 1

If  $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ .

Proof: for for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$0 \le P(|X_n - X| \ge \varepsilon)$$

$$\le P(\bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} |X_k - X| \ge \varepsilon)$$

$$= 0$$

Hence,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} P(|X_n-X|\geq \varepsilon)=0$ , which implies  $X_n\stackrel{p}{\to} X$ .

### Convergence in Distribution

#### Definition 5.5.9

Let  $\{X_n\}_{i=1}^{\infty} = X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n, \dots$  be a sequence of r.v.'s with CDF  $F_1, \dots, F_n, \dots$ , and X be r.v. with CDF F. we say they converges in distribution to r.v. X (i.e.  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ ) if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$$

at every point at which F is continuous.

- ullet  $\{X_n\}$  and X can be dependent or independent
- Convergence:
  - $\bullet$  If X is discrete, the convergence stands at points F does not jump
  - If X is cont., the convergence stands at every point
- Convergence in distribution is really the CDFs that converge, not the r.v. Hence it quite different from conv. in prob. or alm. sure conv.

## Property 1: Convergence in Distribution

#### Property 1

If  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ .

Proof: Denote  $F_n(x) = P(X_n \le x)$  and  $F(X) = P(X \le x)$ . First we have

$$F_n(x) = P(X_n \le x)$$

$$= P(X_n \le x, |X_n - X| \le \varepsilon) + P(X_n \le x, |X_n - X| > \varepsilon)$$

$$\le P(X \le x - (X_n - X), |X_n - X| \le \varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon)$$

$$\le P(X \le x + \varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon)$$

$$= F(x + \varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon)$$

Or

$$F_n(x) = P(X_n \le x)$$

$$= P(X_n \le x, X \le x + \varepsilon) + P(X_n \le x, X > x + \varepsilon)$$

$$\le P(X_n \le x, X \le x + \varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon)$$

$$\le P(X \le x + \varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon)$$

$$= F(x + \varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon)$$

On the other hand,

$$F_n(x) = 1 - P(X_n \ge x)$$

$$= 1 - P(X_n \ge x, |X_n - X| \ge \varepsilon) - P(X_n \ge x, |X_n - X| \le \varepsilon)$$

$$\ge 1 - P(X \ge x - (X_n - X), |X_n - X| \le \varepsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon)$$

$$\ge 1 - P(X \le x - \varepsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon)$$

$$= F(x - \varepsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon)$$

Or

$$F_n(x) = 1 - P(X_n \ge x)$$

$$= 1 - P(X_n > x, X \le x - \varepsilon) - P(X_n > x, X > x - \varepsilon)$$

$$\ge 1 - P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon) - P(X > x - \varepsilon)$$

$$\ge 1 - P(X \le x - \varepsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon)$$

$$= F(x - \varepsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon)$$

Combining the two, we have

$$F(x-\varepsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon) \le F_n(x) \le F(x+\varepsilon) + P(|X_n - X| \le \varepsilon)$$

Letting  $n \to \infty$  and since  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ ,

$$F(x - \varepsilon) \le \lim \inf_{n \to \infty} \le F_n(x) \le \lim \sup_{n \to \infty} \le F(x + \varepsilon)$$

Recall that F is continuous at x, which means  $F(x-\varepsilon)\to F(x)$  and  $F(x+\varepsilon)\to F(x)$  as  $\varepsilon\to 0$ . Hence,

$$F(x) \le \lim \inf_{n \to \infty} \le F_n(x) \le \lim \sup_{n \to \infty} \le F(x)$$

## Theorem: Convergence in Distribution

Recall the characteristic function for  $X \sim F$  is  $\phi_X(t) = E(e^{it})$ . If  $\phi_X(t) = \phi_Y(t)$  then X and Y have the same distribution.

#### Theorem: Convergence in Distribution

Let  $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  be a sequence of r.v.'s with characteristic functions  $\phi_{X_n}(t)$  and X be a r.v. with the characteristic function  $\phi_X(t)$ . Then,

$$X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X \iff \lim_{n \to \infty} \phi_{X_n}(X) = \phi_X(t)$$

Example: Suppose that  $X_n \sim N(\mu + 1/n, \sigma^2 + 1/n)$ , then

$$\phi_{X_n}(t) = \exp\{(\mu + 1/n^2)it - t^2(\sigma^2 + 1/n)/2\} \to \exp\{\mu it - t^2\sigma^2/2\}$$

Note that the limit is the characteristic function for  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . So,  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ . It is easier than the analysis on the CDF of  $X_n$ .

## Relationship Between 4 Types of Convergence

#### Theorem



$$X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X$$

$$\Rightarrow X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X \Rightarrow X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$$

$$X_n \stackrel{L_r}{\to} X$$

- 3 No other implications hold in general.

• (1). (a) If  $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ . The converse may not hold. Let

$$P(X_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}, \ P(X_n = 1) = \frac{1}{n}$$

and  $X_n$ 's are independent. Since  $P(|X_n-0|>\varepsilon)=P(X_n=1)=n^{-1}\to 0$ , Then  $X_n\overset{p}{\to}0$ . However,  $X_n\overset{a.s.}{\to}0$  since for any  $0<\varepsilon<1$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\bigcap_{k \ge n} \{|X_k - 0| < \varepsilon\}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\lim_{r \to \infty} \bigcap_{k \ge n} \{|X_k| < \varepsilon\}\right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{r \to \infty} P\left(\bigcap_{k \ge n} \{|X_k| < \varepsilon\}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{r \to \infty} \prod_{k = n}^{r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{r \to \infty} \frac{n - 1}{n} \frac{n}{n + 1} \dots \frac{r - 1}{r} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{r \to \infty} \frac{n - 1}{r} = 0 \ne 1$$

• (b) If  $X_n \stackrel{L_\tau}{\to} X$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ . The converse may not hold.

$$P(X_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}, \ P(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n}$$

Then  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} 0$  since

$$P(|X_n - 0| > \varepsilon) = P(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n} \to 0.$$

But  $EX_n = 1 \nrightarrow 0$ .

• (b) If  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ , then  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ . The converse may not hold.

$$X \sim N(0,1), \ X_n = -X \sim N(0,1)$$

Then  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ , but  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$  since

$$P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) = P(2|X| > \varepsilon) \nrightarrow 0.$$

• (2) If  $0 < s < r < \infty$  ,  $X_n \stackrel{L_s}{\to} X \Rightarrow X_n \stackrel{L_s}{\to} X$ . The converse may not hold.

$$P(X_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}, \ P(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Then  $X_n \stackrel{L_1}{\to} X$  since

$$E|X_n - 0| = \frac{1}{n^2} \times n = \frac{1}{n} \to 0$$

. But  $X_n \stackrel{L_2}{\to} X$  since

$$E|X_n - 0|^2 = \frac{1}{n^2} \times n^2 = 1 \rightarrow 0$$

.

- (3). We now show that "a.s. convergence" and "mean convergence" do not imply each other.
  - Let  $P(X_n=0)=1-n^{-2}$  and  $P(X_n=n^3)=n^{-2}$ . Then  $X_n\overset{a.s.}{\to}0$ , but  $X_n\overset{L_1}{\to}0$ . Since

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{k \ge n} \{|X_k - 0| \ge \varepsilon\}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\lim_{r \to \infty} \bigcup_{k \ge n}^r \{|X_k| \ge \varepsilon\}\right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{r \to \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{k \ge n}^r \{|X_k| \ge \varepsilon\}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{r \to \infty} \sum_{k = n}^r \frac{1}{k^2}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{r \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{r^2} \to 0.$$

However,

$$E|X_n - 0| = \frac{1}{n^2} \times n^3 \to \infty$$

•  $X_n \stackrel{L_1}{\to} 0$ , but  $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} 0$ 

$$P(X_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}, \ P(X_n = 1) = \frac{1}{n}$$

# Properties of Convergence

- $X_n \to X$  and  $Y_n \to Y$ , then  $X_n \pm Y_n \to X + Y$ 
  - $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X, Y_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} Y$ , then  $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X + Y$ ,
  - $X_n \stackrel{L_r}{\to} X, Y_n \stackrel{L_r}{\to} Y$ , then  $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{L_r}{\to} X + Y$ ,
  - $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X, Y_n \stackrel{p}{\to} Y$ , then  $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X + Y$ ,
  - $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X, Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} Y$ , it is not sure that  $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X + Y$
- ullet Slutsky's Theorem Let  $X_n \overset{d}{ o} X$  and  $Y_n \overset{d}{ o} C$ , then

  - $2 X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} CX$
  - $3 X_n/Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X/C id C \neq 0$
- $\bullet$  The Continuous Mapping Theorem: if  $g(\cdot)$  is a continuous function, then
  - $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X$ , then  $g(X_n) \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} g(X)$ ,
  - $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ , then  $g(X_n) \stackrel{p}{\to} g(X)$ ,
  - $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ , then  $g(X_n) \stackrel{d}{\to} g(X)$ ,



#### Stochastic Orders

#### Recall:

- ullet In mathematics, we use o and O notations to denote the order of terms
- $a_n = o(1)$  means  $a_n \to 0$  when  $n \to \infty$ ;  $a_n = o(b_n)$  means that  $a_n/b_n = o(1)$ .
- $a_n=O(1)$  means  $|a_n|\leq C$  for some constant C>0, for all large n;  $a_n=O(b_n)$  mean  $a_n/b_n=O(1)$ .

Now we consider the probabilistic version:

#### Definition $o_p$

If  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} 0$ , i.e.  $P(|X_n| \ge \varepsilon) \to 0$  for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then we say that  $X_n = o_p(1)$ 

#### Definition $O_p$

We say that  $X_n = O_p(1)$ , or  $X_n$  is bounded in probability, if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $C_{\varepsilon} > 0$ , such that

$$P(|X_n| > C_{\varepsilon}) \le \varepsilon.$$

### Stochastic Orders

Generalisation: Consider a sequence  $X_1, X_2 \dots$  of of r.v.'s and  $a_1, a_2, \dots$ , a sequence of positive real numbers,

- For a r.v. X,  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$  if only if  $X_n X = o_p(1)$
- $X_n = o_p(a_n)$  if only if  $a_n^{-1}X_n = o_p(1)$ .  $a_n$  is the rate.
- $X_n = O_p(a_n)$  if only if  $a_n^{-1}X_n = O_p(1)$ .  $a_n$  is the rate.

#### Examples:

- If  $X_n \sim N(0,1/n)$ , then  $X_n = o_p(1)$  and  $X_n = O_p(1/\sqrt{n})$
- If  $X_n = o_p(1)$ , then  $X_n = O_p(1)$

#### Properties:

- $O_p(1)o_p(1) = o_p(1), O_p(1)O_p(1) = O_p(1)$
- $O_p(1) + o_p(1) = O_p(1)$
- $O_p(a_n)o_p(b_n) = o_p(a_nb_n), O_p(a_n)O_p(b_n) = O_p(a_nb_n)$
- $o_p(O_p(1)) = o_p(1)$



### Homework

 $\textbf{ 1} \text{ If } \mu = EX \geq 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq \mu < 1 \text{, then }$ 

$$P(X > \lambda \mu) \ge \frac{(1-\lambda)^2 \mu^2}{EX^2}$$

Consequently, if  $E|Y|=1, P(|Y|>\lambda)\geq (1-\lambda)^2)/EY^2$  (This gives a lower bound complementing Chebyshev's inequality.)



Thank you