

Lecture 2: 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

Theorem 1 (Terms)

- *Converge in probability; Converge in L_p ; converge in quadratic mean; almost sure converge; converge in distribution;*
- O_p, o_p

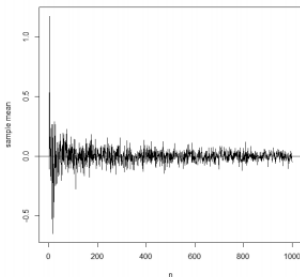
Note: May take 1-2 lectures for this topic.

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 μ but have different distribution.

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



Real data

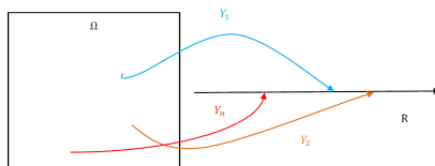
N(0,1)

```
1 rm(list=ls())
2 n.vec <- seq(1, 103, 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")
```

If $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots$ 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 $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} = Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n, \dots$ 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. $Z_1 = Z_2 = Z_3 = \dots$, where $Z_1 \sim F$. Let $X \sim F$. Can we say $Y_i \rightarrow X$? Can we say $Z_i \rightarrow X$. How to differentiate these two cases?
 - Recall: $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n : \omega \rightarrow R$. A sequence of functions



Convergence in Probability

Definition 2 (Convergence in Probability)

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

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) = 0$$

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

For random p -vectors, $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_n, \dots$ and \mathbf{X} , if

$$\|\mathbf{X}_n - \mathbf{X}\| \xrightarrow{P} 0,$$

we say $\mathbf{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mathbf{X}$, where $\|\mathbf{z}\| = (\sum_{i=1}^p z_i^2)^{1/2}$ denotes the Euclidean distance (L2-norm) for $\mathbf{z} \in R^p$.

- It is easily to seen that $\mathbf{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mathbf{X}$ iff the corresponding component-wise convergence holds.

Example: Convergence in Probability

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

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) &= P(|N(0, \frac{1}{n^2})|) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n^2 \epsilon^2} \leq \delta, n \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon \sqrt{\delta}}, n \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon \sqrt{\delta}} \end{aligned}$$

So, $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$.¹

¹Chebychevs inequality.

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{\epsilon^2}$$

Example: Convergence in Probability

- Let $X_n \sim \text{Ber}(0.5)$, and $X \sim \text{Ber}(0.5)$, X_n and X are independent. Note for any n ,

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X_n - X| \geq 1) &= P(\{X_n = 1, X = 0\} \cup \{X_n = 0, X = 1\}) \\ &= P(\{X_n = 1, X = 0\}) + P(\{X_n = 0, X = 1\}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \not\rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, X_n does NOT converge to X in probability.

Convergence in L_r (r th mean)

Definition 3 (Convergence in L_r)

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

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E|X_n - X|^r = 0$$

. where $[E(|X_n - X|^r)]^{\frac{1}{r}}$ is the L^r distance between X_n and X

- 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., $X_n \xrightarrow{qm} X$, The convergence in quadratic mean is generally used.
- To show L^r convergence, just figure out an upper bound of $E(|X_n - X|^r)$, 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 $X_n \sim N(1, \frac{1}{n^2})$. According to the property of normal distribution., $X_n - X \sim N(0, \frac{1}{n^2})$, so

$$\begin{aligned} E(|X_n - X|^2) &= (E(X_n - X))^2 + \text{Var}(X_n - X) \\ &= 0 + \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n^2} \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $X_n \xrightarrow{L^2} X$

Properties: Convergence in L_2

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

$$E(|X_n - X|^2) = (E(X_n - X))^2 + \text{Var}(X_n - X) \rightarrow 0$$

Proposition 1

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

Properties: Convergence in L_2

Proposition 2

Let $0 < s < r < \infty$ if $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{L^s} X$

- Recall that with [Holder inequality](#), there is

$$|E(XY)| \leq E|XY| \leq (E|X|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (E|Y|^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

where $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$

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

$$\begin{aligned} E(|X_n - X|^s) &= E(|X_n - X|^s \times 1) \\ &\leq \left[E(|X_n - X|^r) \right]^{s/r} \times 1^{1/k} \\ &= \left[E(|X_n - X|^r) \right]^{s/r} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

Properties: Convergence in L_2

Proposition 3

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

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X_n - X| \geq \varepsilon) &= P(|X_n - X|^r \geq \varepsilon^r) \\ &\leq \frac{E(|X_n - X|^r)}{\varepsilon^r} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E(X)}{a}$$

Markovs Inequality

Theorem 4 (Markovs(Chebyshevs) 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 $a > 0$

$$P(|X| \geq a) \leq \frac{E[g(X)]}{g(a)}$$

Proof:

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

Some special cases: Markov's Inequality

$$g(x) = |x| \rightarrow P(|X| \geq a) \leq \frac{E|X|}{a}$$

$$g(x) = x^p \rightarrow P(|X| \geq a) \leq \frac{E[g(X^p)]}{a^p}$$

$$g(x) = x^2 \rightarrow P(|X - EX| \geq a) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{a^2}$$

$$g(x) = e^{t|x|} \rightarrow P(|X| \geq a) \leq \frac{E[e^{t|X|}]}{e^{ta}}$$

for some constant $t \geq 0$

Almost Sure Convergence

Definition 5

For a sequence of r.v.'s $X_{n,i=1}^{\infty} = X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots$, we say they **almost sure convergence** to r.v. X (i.e. $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$) if any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X\right) = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\right) = 1$$

- 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 ω , find the sequence $X_1(\omega), X_2(\omega), \dots$ (sequence of real numbers) and the real number $X(\omega)$. Figure out whether $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)$ is true or not.
 - Let the event **$A = \omega, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)$** .
 - Check if $P(A) = 1$
- Interpretation: for almost all the outcomes ω ! when n is large enough, $|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| \leq \epsilon$ for any $\epsilon > 0$

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

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

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq \omega < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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

- If $\omega \in [0, \frac{1}{2})$, then $X_n(\omega) = 1 = X(\omega)$.
- If $\omega = \frac{1}{2}$, 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 $n \geq \frac{1}{2\omega-1}$.
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 $0 \leq a \leq b \leq 1$.
- Define r.v.

$$X_n(\omega) = \omega + \omega^n \quad \text{and} \quad X(\omega) = \omega$$

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

- If $\omega \in [0, 1)$, $\omega^n \rightarrow 0$, then $X_n(\omega) \rightarrow \omega = X(\omega)$.
- If $\omega = 1$, then $X_n(\omega) = 2 \not\rightarrow X(\omega) = 1$ 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 $P(|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| > \epsilon)$, and check the limit of this probability
 - Almost sure convergence: for each ω , check the limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega)$, 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 6 (Almost Sure Convergence)

The following statements are equivalent:

- $X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$
- $\forall \epsilon > 0, P(\cap_{k \geq n} \{|X_k - X| < \epsilon\}) \rightarrow 1$
- $\forall \epsilon > 0, P(\cup_{k \geq n} \{|X_k - X| \geq \epsilon\}) \rightarrow 0$
- $\forall \epsilon > 0,$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\sup_{k \geq n} |X_k - X| > \epsilon) = 0$$

Here, we consider that set $\cup_{k \geq n} \{|X_k - X| > \epsilon\}$

Property 1: Almost Sure Convergence

Proposition 4

If $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$

Proof: for any $\varepsilon > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq P(|X_n - X| \geq \varepsilon) \\ &\leq P\left(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} |X_k - X| \geq \varepsilon\right) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

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

Convergence in Distribution

Definition 7

Let $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} = X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n, \dots$ 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. $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$) if

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

at very point at which F is continuous.

- $\{X_n\}$ and X can be dependent or independent
- Convergence:
 - 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

Proposition 5

If $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$

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

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

Or

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

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_n(x) &= 1 - P(X_n \geq x) \\
 &= 1 - P(X_n \geq x, |X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) + P(X_n \geq x, |X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) \\
 &\geq 1 - P(X \geq x - (X_n - X), |X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) + P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) \\
 &\geq 1 - P(X \leq x - \epsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) \\
 &= F(x - \epsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon)
 \end{aligned}$$

Or

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_n(x) &= 1 - P(X_n \geq x) \\
 &= 1 - P(X_n > x, X \leq x - \epsilon) - P(X_n > x, X > x - \epsilon) \\
 &\geq 1 - P(X > x - \epsilon) + P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) \\
 &\geq 1 - P(X \leq x - \epsilon) + P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) \\
 &= F(x - \epsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon)
 \end{aligned}$$

Combining the two, we have

$$F(x - \epsilon) - P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) \leq F_n(x) \leq F(x + \epsilon) + P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon)$$

Letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ and since $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$,

$$F(x - \epsilon) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) \leq F(x + \epsilon)$$

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

$$F(x) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) \leq F(x)$$

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 8 (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,

$$X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Phi_{X_n}(t) = \Phi_X(t)$$

Example: Suppose that $X_n \sim N(\mu + 1/n, \sigma^2 + 1/n)$, then $\Phi_{X_n}(t) = \exp\{(\mu + 1/n^2)t - t^2(\sigma^2 + 1/n)/2\} \rightarrow \exp\{\mu t - t^2\sigma^2/2\}$. Note that the limit is the characteristic function for $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

So, $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$. It is easier than the analysis on the CDF of X_n .

Relationship Between 4 Types of Convergence

Theorem 9



$$\begin{aligned}
 X_n &\xrightarrow{a.s.} X \\
 &\Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \\
 X_n &\xrightarrow{L_r}
 \end{aligned}$$

- If $0 < s < r < \infty$, $X_n \xrightarrow{L_r} X \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{L_s} X$.
- No other implications hold in general.

- (1).(a) If $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$. 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

$$P(|X_n - 0| > \epsilon) = P(X_n = 1) = n^{-1} \rightarrow 0, \text{ Then}$$

$X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$. However, $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0$ since for any $0 < \epsilon < 1$, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\cap_{k \geq n} \{|X_k - 0| < \epsilon\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \cap_{k \geq n}^r \{|X_k| < \epsilon\})$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} P(\cap_{k \geq n}^r \{|X_k| < \epsilon\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{k=n}^r (1 - \frac{1}{k})$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n-1}{n} \frac{n}{n+1} \cdots \frac{r-1}{r} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n-1}{r} = 0 \neq 1$$

(b) If $X_n \xrightarrow{L_r} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$. The converse may not hold.

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

Then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ since

$$P(|X_n - 0| > \epsilon) = P(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$$

. But $EX_n = 1 \neq 0$.

If $X_n \xrightarrow{L_r} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$. The converse may not hold.

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

Then $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$. but $X_n \not\xrightarrow{P} X$ since

$$P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = P(2|X| > \epsilon) \not\rightarrow 0$$

.

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

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

Then $X_n \xrightarrow{L_1} X$ since

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

But $X_n \not\xrightarrow{L_2} X$ since

$$E|X_n - 0|^2 = \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n^2 = 1 \neq 0$$

(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 $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0$, but $X_n \not\xrightarrow{L_1} 0$. Since

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\cup_{k \geq n} \{|X_k - 0| \geq \epsilon\}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \cup_{k \geq n}^r \{|X_k| \geq \epsilon\}) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} P(\cup_{k \geq n}^r \{|X_k| \geq \epsilon\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=n}^r \frac{1}{k^2} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{r^2} \right) \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

However,

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

- $X_n \xrightarrow{L_1} 0$, but $X_n \not\xrightarrow{a.s.} 0$

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

Properties of Convergence

- $X_n \rightarrow X$ and $Y_n \rightarrow Y$, then $X_n \pm Y_n \rightarrow X + Y$
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X, Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$, then $X_n \pm Y_n \rightarrow X + Y$,
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{L_r} X, Y_n \xrightarrow{L_r} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X + Y$,
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X, Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{L_r} X + Y$,
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X, Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$, it is **not sure** that $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + Y$
- **Slutsky's Theorem** Let $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} C$, then
 - $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + C$
 - $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} CX$
 - $X_n / Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X / C$ if $C \neq 0$
- **The Continuous Mapping Theorem:** if $g(\cdot)$ is a continuous function, then
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, then $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{a.s.} g(X)$,
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, then $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{P} g(X)$,
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$, then $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} g(X)$.

The Continuous Mapping Theorem

Theorem 10 (Continuous Mapping Theorem)

- Let $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots$, and \mathbf{X} be random p -vectors defined on a probability space
- let $g(\cdot)$ be a vector-valued (including real-valued) continuous function defined on R^p .

If \mathbf{X}_n converges to \mathbf{X} in probability, almost surely, or in law, then $g(\mathbf{X}_n)$ converges to $g(\mathbf{X})$ in probability, almost surely, or in law, respectively.

Remark The condition that $g(\cdot)$ is continuous function in Theorem can be further relaxed to that $g(\cdot)$ is continuous a.s., i.e., $P(\mathbf{X} \in C(g)) = 1$ where $C(g) = \{\mathbf{x} : g \text{ is continuous at } \mathbf{x}\}$ is called the continuity set of g .

Example

- If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \sim N(0, 1)$, then $1/X_n \xrightarrow{d} 1/X$?
- If $X_n = 1/n$, and

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

Then $X_n g(X_n) \xrightarrow{d} ?$

- If $(X_n, Y_n) \xrightarrow{d} N_2(0, I_2)$, then $X_n/Y_n \xrightarrow{d} ?$

Stochastic Orders

Recall:

- In mathematics, we use o and O notations to denote the order of terms
- $a_n = o(1)$ means $a_n \rightarrow 0$ when $n \rightarrow \infty$; $a_n = o(b_n)$ 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 11 (o_p)

If $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$, i.e. $P(|X_n| \geq \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$ for every $\epsilon > 0$, then we say that $X_n = o_p(1)$

Definition 12 (O_p)

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

$$P(|X_n| > C_\epsilon) \leq \epsilon$$

Stochastic Orders

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

- For a r.v. $X, X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ 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 $X_n \sim N(0, \frac{1}{n})$, then $X_n = o_p(1)$ and $X_n = O_p(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}})$
- If $X_n = o_p(1)$, then $X_n = O_p(1)$
- $O_p(1)o_p(1) = o_p(1), O_p(1)O_p(1) = O_p(1)$
- $O_p(1) + o_p(1) = O_p(1)$
- $O_p(a_n)o_p(b_n) = o_p(a_nb_n), O_p(a_n)O_p(b_n) = O_p(a_nb_n)$
- $(1 + o_p)^{-1} = O_p(1)$
- $o_p(O_p(1)) = o_p(1)$

Homework

- ① Show that if $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ for a random variable X , then $X_n = O_p(1)$.
- ② Let X, X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of random variables. Show that $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ if and only if

$$E\left(\frac{|X_n - X|}{1 + |X_n - X|}\right) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- ③ Prove that $O_{P(1)} + o_{P(1)} = O_{P(1)}$.
- ④ Let X_1, X_2, \dots be iid random variables with $EX_1 = 0, EX_1^2 < \infty$, then $\sqrt{n}\bar{X}_n/S_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$