

## 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;*
- $O_p, o_p$

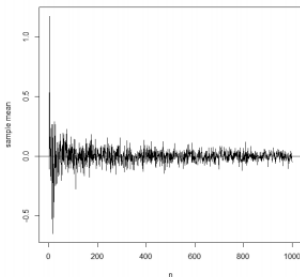
Note: May take 1-2 lectures for this topic.

# 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  $\mu$  but have different distribution.

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



# Real data

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$N(0, 1)$

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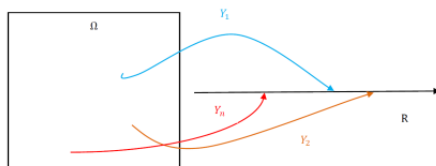
```
1 rm(list=ls())
2 n.vec <- seq(1, 103, 1)
3 n.len <- length(n.vec)
4 mean.full <- NULL
5 for(i in 1:n.len){
6   mean.full[i] <- mean(rnorm(n.vec[i]))
7 }
8 plot(n.vec, mean.full, type="l", xlab = "n",
9       ylab = "sample mean")
10 abline(h=0, lwd=1, col="blue")
```

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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  $\epsilon$ , 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,  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ .<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Chebychevs 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  $\omega$ , 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  $\omega$ ! 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  $X_n(\omega) = 2 \nrightarrow X(\omega) = 1$  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  $P(|X_n(\omega) - X(\omega)| > \epsilon)$ , and check the limit of this probability
  - Almost sure convergence: for each  $\omega$ , 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  $n$ ;  $a_n = O(b_n)$  means  $a_n/b_n = O(1)$ .

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  $\sqrt{n}\bar{X}_n/S_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$