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.

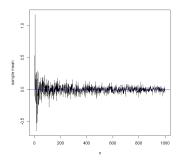
Look into Sample mean

• 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 μ but have different distribution.

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

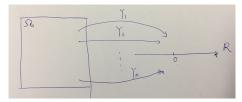


```
N(0,1)
1 rm(list=ls())
2 n.vec <- seq(1, 10^3, 1)
3 n.len <- length(n.vec)
4 mean.full <- NULL
5 for(i in 1:n.len) {
6    mean.full[i] <- mean(rnorm(n.vec[i]))
7 }
8 plot(n.vec, mean.full, type="l",xlab = "n",
9    ylab = "sample mean")
10 abline(h=0,lwd=1,col="blue")</pre>
```

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, $i = 1, 2, \ldots$
 - Case 2. $Z_1=Z_2=Z_3=\dots$, 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. $X_n\stackrel{p}{\to} X$) 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
- $\{X_n\}$ 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 ε , the event that $|X_n-X|$ has probability smaller than δ 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 $X_n \sim N\Big(1,\frac{1}{n^2}\Big)$. According to the property of normal distribution., $X_n - X \sim N\Big(0,\frac{1}{n^2}\Big)$, so

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

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

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

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

¹Chebychev'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,

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

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

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

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

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 $X_n \sim N\left(1,\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$. According to the property of normal distribution., $X_n - X \sim N\left(0,\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$, so

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

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 $X_n \xrightarrow{L_r} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{L_s} X$.

• 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).
- ullet 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:

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

Some special cases: Markov's Inequality

$$g(x) = |x| \Longrightarrow P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E|X|}{a}$$

$$g(x) = x^p \Longrightarrow P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E|g(X|^p)}{a^p}$$

$$g(x) = x^2 \Longrightarrow P(|X - EX| \ge a) \le \frac{Var(X)}{a^2}$$

$$g(x) = e^{t|x|} \Longrightarrow P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E\left[e^{t|X|}\right]}{e^{ta}}$$

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. $X_n\overset{a.s.}{\to}X$) 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.
- ullet $\{X_n\}$ and X are usually dependent
- Practically, to show the a.s. convergence,
 - For each outcome ω , find the sequence $X_1(\omega), X_2(\omega), \ldots$ (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 ω !, 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 $X_n(\omega) = 1 \rightarrow X(\omega) = 0$.
- 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 $0\leq a\leq b\leq 1$.
- 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 ω , 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:

- $\forall \varepsilon > 0, P\Big(\bigcap_{k \ge n} \{|X_k X| < \varepsilon\}\Big) = 1$

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

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 $\varepsilon > 0$,

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

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 $\{X_n\}_{i=1}^{\infty}=X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_n,\ldots$ be a sequence of r.v.'s with CDF F_1,\ldots,F_n,\ldots , 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.

- $\{X_n\}$ 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

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

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

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

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

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

On the other hand,

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

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

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

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

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

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 $\phi_X(t) = E(e^{\imath t})$. 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



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

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

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

- 2 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 $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X$, 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 $X_n\stackrel{p}{\to} 0$. However, $X_n\stackrel{a.s.}{\to} 0$ since for any $0<\varepsilon<1$, we have

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

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

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

• (b) If $X_n \stackrel{L_r}{\to} X$, 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 $X_n \stackrel{p}{\nrightarrow} X$ since

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

• (2) If $0 < s < r < \infty$, $X_n \overset{L_r}{\to} X \Rightarrow X_n \overset{L_s}{\to} X.$ 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 $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} 0$, but $X_n \stackrel{L_1}{\to} 0$. Since

$$P\left(\bigcup_{k\geq n} \{|X_k - 0| \geq \varepsilon\}\right) = P\left(\lim_{r \to \infty} \bigcup_{k\geq n}^r \{|X_k| \geq \varepsilon\}\right)$$
$$= \lim_{r \to \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{k\geq n}^r \{|X_k| \geq \varepsilon\}\right) = \lim_{r \to \infty} \sum_{k=n}^r \frac{1}{k^2}$$
$$= \lim_{r \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{r^2} \to 0.$$

However,

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

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

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

Properties of Convergence

- \bullet $X_n \to X$ 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 $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X + Y$,
 - $X_n \stackrel{L_{\Gamma}}{\longrightarrow} X, Y_n \stackrel{L_{\Gamma}}{\longrightarrow} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{L_{\Gamma}}{\longrightarrow} X + Y$,
 - $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X, Y_n \xrightarrow{p} Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{p} X + Y$,
 - $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X, Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} Y$, 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

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

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

Outline



Thank you