

Almost Sure Convergence

Let X_n ($X_1, \dots$) be random variables in a sequence (e.g. $X_n \sim N(0, \frac{1}{n})$) of random variables defined on a common probability space. Let X be another r.v. on that probability space. We say X_n converges almost surely a.s. to X (or converges to X with probability 1 or WPL, or strongly, or almost everywhere, a.e.) if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| < \epsilon, \text{ all } m \geq n) = 1 \text{ every } \epsilon > 0$$

If $X_n \neq X$ is not true infinitely often, there is almost sure convergence

For example, if $X_1, X_2, \dots$ is a sequence of iid $U(0,1)$ and $X_{(n)}$ is a sequence of the maximums of the r.v.s ≤ 1 , then $P(|X_{(n)} - 1| < \epsilon, \forall n \geq m) = P(X_{(n)} \geq 1 - \epsilon, \forall n \geq m) = P(X_{(m)} \geq 1 - \epsilon) = 1 - (1 - \epsilon)^m \rightarrow 1$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$. The maximum strictly increases, and always increases, the probability it doesn't surpass any $1 - \epsilon$ is zero, so the probability the max is less than 1 i.o. is zero.

Convergence In Probability

Let $X_n (X_1, X_2, \dots)$ be a sequence of random variables defined on a common probability space. Let X be another r.v. also defined on that probability space. X_n converges in probability to X if, for any ϵ greater than 0, it is true that

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| < \epsilon) = 1$$

In other words, the probability that the difference between X_n and X is larger than any fixed ϵ goes to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$

For example, $X_n = N(u, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$, $X = u$

$$X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$$

Because $\forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|u - N(u, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})| < \epsilon)$

approaches 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and the variance shrinks to zero

Example

Let $X_n = (X_1, \dots)$ be a sequence of random variables such that $X_n = 1$ with probability $\frac{1}{n}$ and $X_n = 0$ with probability $1 - \frac{1}{n}$.

First, note that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i} = \infty$, so $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(X_i \neq 0) = \infty$.

By the Borel-Cantelli lemma, this means $X_n = 1$ occurs infinitely often, so $X_n \not\stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\rightarrow} 0$.

However, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - 0| < \epsilon) =$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \frac{1}{n}) = 1 \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$, so $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$.

So X_n converges to zero in probability, but not almost surely.

Convergence In Distribution

Let $X_n (X_1, X_2, \dots)$ be r.v.s,
Consider their distribution functions F_{X_n} and
the distribution function of a r.v. X , F_X ,
We say that X_n converges in distribution
to X if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(t) = F_X(t) \text{ at every point } t \text{ continuous in } F_X$$

$$\text{let } X_n \sim N\left(\mu, \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{n})}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2(\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{n})}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad \text{So}$$

$$X_n \xrightarrow{d} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\text{Note that if } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[e^{X_n t}] = E[e^{X t}]$$

This convergence in MGF implies convergence
in distribution

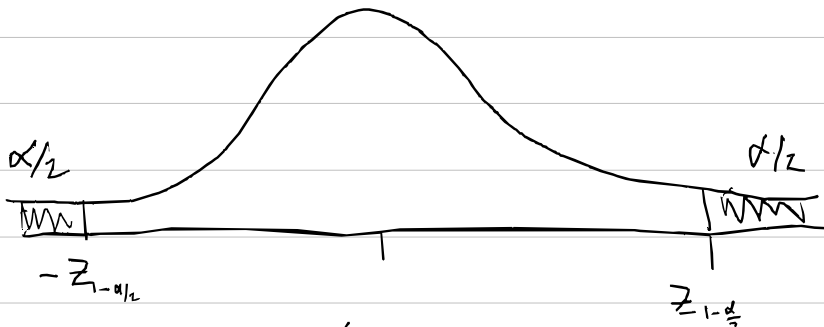
Bounded In Probability

A sequence of random variables X_n is said to be bounded in probability if, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a constant K such that $P(|X_n| > K) \leq \epsilon \quad \forall n$

In other words, the sequence is bounded in probability when the probability that $|X_n|$ is larger than some constant K doesn't "blow up", it's fixed below ϵ

For example, $X_1, X_2, \dots$ iid $N(0, 1)$

X_n is bounded in probability, since $\forall n \quad P(|X_n| > Z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}) \leq \alpha$ since



The sequence $X_n \sim N(0, 1+n)$ would not be bounded in Prob

O_p

and

 O_p

For notational purposes the statement " $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ " and " X_n is bounded in Probability" are often abbreviated with "Big O " and "little O " notation

$$X_n = O_p(g(n)) \text{ means } \frac{X_n}{g(n)} \xrightarrow{P} 0$$

$$X_n = O_p(g(n)) \text{ means } \frac{X_n}{g(n)} \text{ is bounded in Probability}$$

For example, CLT says that $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{d} N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$. As a result, we can say, using O_p notation that

$$\bar{X} = \mu + O_p(1) \text{ since } \bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu \Leftrightarrow \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{1} \xrightarrow{P} 0$$

We can also say with O_p notation that

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} = O_p(n^{-1/2}) \text{ since } \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \text{ is bounded in Probability (since it converges to the normal distribution)}$$

Convergence Continued

Let sequence X_n and X be r.v.s defined on common probability space. For $r > 0$, we say X_n converges to X in r th mean, $X_n \xrightarrow{rth} X$, if

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

By Jensen's inequality, $X_n \xrightarrow{rth} X \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{sth} X$, $s < r$

(Jensen's: $g(\cdot)$ convex, X & g integrable, $g(E[X]) \leq E[g(X)]$)

The strengths of convergence types are as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} X_n \xrightarrow{wpt} X \\ X_n \xrightarrow{rth} X, r > 0 \end{array} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \\ X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \end{array}$$

Also, if, $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \infty$,
Then $X_n \xrightarrow{wpt} X$

Markov Inequality

Let X be a r.v., then for $r > 0$ $P(|X| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{E[|X|^r]}{\epsilon^r}$

$$\text{Pf: } E[|X|^r] = \int |X|^r dP$$

$$= \int_{|X|^r \leq \epsilon^r} |X|^r dP + \int_{|X|^r > \epsilon^r} |X|^r dP$$

$$\geq \int_{|X|^r \leq \epsilon^r} |X|^r dP + \int_{|X|^r > \epsilon^r} \epsilon^r dP$$

$$= \int_{|X|^r \leq \epsilon^r} |X|^r dP + \epsilon^r \int_{|X|^r > \epsilon^r} 1 dP$$

$$= \int_{|X|^r \leq \epsilon^r} |X|^r dP + \epsilon^r P(|X|^r > \epsilon^r)$$

$$\geq \epsilon^r P(|X|^r > \epsilon^r)$$

Since in this part $|X|^r > \epsilon^r$ we are replacing $|X|^r$ with something strictly smaller

$$E[|X|^r] \geq \epsilon^r P(|X|^r > \epsilon^r)$$

$$\frac{E[|X|^r]}{\epsilon^r} \geq P(|X| > \epsilon)$$

Chebyshev's Inequality

Consider Markov's Inequality where $r=2$ and let $X = Y_n - c$

$$\begin{aligned} P(|Y_n - c| > \epsilon) &\leq \frac{E[(Y_n - c)^2]}{\epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{\text{var}(Y_n) + (E[Y_n] - c)^2}{\epsilon^2} \end{aligned}$$

As a result, if some X is an integrable r.v. with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 < \infty$, then for any real number $k > 0$,

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

Since the top becomes the variance which cancels with σ^2 on the bottom.
Alternatively

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq k) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{k^2}$$

Laws of Large Numbers

The Weak Law of Large Numbers says that if $X_1, \dots, X_n$ are i.i.d. with finite mean $\mu = E[X_1]$, then $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$

The Strong Law of Large Numbers says that if $X_1, \dots, X_n$ are i.i.d. with finite mean $\mu = E[X_1]$, then $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu$

Pf of WLLN: Use Chebyshev's + def of conv. in prob.

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \varepsilon) \leq \frac{E[(\bar{X}_n - \mu)^2]}{\varepsilon^2}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E[(\bar{X}_n - \mu)^2]}{\varepsilon^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n)}{\varepsilon^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var}(\sum X_i)}{\varepsilon^2}, \text{ since}$$

$$X_i \text{ are i.i.d., } \text{Var}(\sum X_i) = \sum \text{Var}(X_i) = \sum \sigma^2 = n\sigma^2$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n^2} n\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sigma^2}{n\varepsilon^2} = 0, \text{ thus } \forall \varepsilon$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \varepsilon) = 0, \text{ by def this means } \bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$$

Central Limit Theorem

Suppose $X_1, \dots$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with $E[X] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 < \infty$.

Then $\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \xrightarrow{d} \text{Normal}(0, 1)$

Alternatively, $\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$, this implies $\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - \mu) = O_p(1)$ and $(\bar{X}_n - \mu) = o_p(1)$

Preview for later notes:

Further, if $\hat{\theta}$ is an estimator of some quantity θ , and certain "regularity conditions" are met, we will often be able to use CLT to show

$$\sqrt{n} (\hat{\theta} - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma_{\infty}^2(\hat{\theta}))$$

$\hookrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$

When $\hat{\theta}$ is unbiased and asymptotically eff., often when $\hat{\theta}$ is based on MLE, we'll have

$$\sqrt{n} (\hat{\theta} - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{CRLB}}}{I^{-1}(\theta)}), \quad (\hat{\theta} - \theta) = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{"root-n" convergence}}}{O_p(n^{-1/2})}$$

SILVSKY'S T_{hm} & O_p rules

If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$, then
 $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c$. If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$,
then $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} cX$. If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ and
 $c \neq 0$, then $\frac{X_n}{Y_n} \xrightarrow{d} \frac{X}{c}$.

Results of operations on O_p and o_p terms:

$$O_p(1) + O_p(1) = O_p(1)$$

addition rules

$$O_p(1) + O_p(1) = O_p(1)$$

$$O_p(1) O_p(1) = O_p(1)$$

multiplication rule

$$(1 + O_p(1))^{-1} = O_p(1)$$

inverse rule

$$O_p(R_n) = R_n O_p(1)$$

Factor out rule

$$O_p(R_n) = R_n O_p(1)$$

$$O_p(O_p(1)) = O_p(1)$$

o or $O = 0$ rule

Delta Method

Let $\hat{\theta}_n$ be a sequence of statistics such that $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma_{\infty}^2(\hat{\theta}_n))$

Let $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a once differentiable function at θ with $g'(\theta) \neq 0$. Then

$$\sqrt{n}[g(\hat{\theta}_n) - g(\theta)] \xrightarrow{d} N(0, [g'(\theta)]^2 \sigma_{\infty}^2(\hat{\theta}_n))$$

In general, if $a_n(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} Y$ then

$$a_n[g(\hat{\theta}_n) - g(\theta)] \xrightarrow{d} [g'(\theta)] Y$$

Pf: Use Taylor exp. of $g(\hat{\theta}_n)$ at θ ,
 $g(\hat{\theta}_n) = g(\theta) + (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)g'(\theta) + o_p(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)$,
Since all remaining terms have $(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)^q$ $q > 2$, and $\hat{\theta}_n - \theta = o_p(1)$, thus the terms after $g'(\theta)$ are $o_p(1)$ after dividing by $\hat{\theta}_n - \theta$. Some algebra gives
 $\sqrt{n}(g(\hat{\theta}_n) - g(\theta)) = \sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)g'(\theta) + \sqrt{n}o_p(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)$
 $\sqrt{n}(g(\hat{\theta}_n) - g(\theta)) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma_{\infty}^2(\hat{\theta}_n)g'(\theta)^2) + \sqrt{n}o_p(1) \rightarrow o_p(1)$
 $\sqrt{n}(g(\hat{\theta}_n) - g(\theta)) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma_{\infty}^2(\hat{\theta}_n)(g'(\theta))^2)$

Extensions of Delta Methods

Again, let $\hat{\theta}_n$ be a sequence of statistics s.t.
 $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \text{var}(\hat{\theta}_1))$

Let g be a real valued function differentiable $k(\geq 1)$ at θ w/ $g^{(k)}(\theta) \neq 0$ but $g^{(j)}(\theta) = 0$ for $j < k$. Then

$$(\sqrt{n})^k [g(\hat{\theta}_n) - g(\theta)] \xrightarrow{d} \frac{1}{k!} [g^{(k)}(\theta)] (N(0, \sigma_{\infty}^2(\hat{\theta})))^k$$

i.e. delta method can use higher orders

Multivariate Delta Method: Let $\vec{\hat{\theta}}_n$ be a sequence of k dimensional random vectors s.t. $\sqrt{n}(\vec{\hat{\theta}}_n - \vec{\theta}) \xrightarrow{d} N(\vec{0}, \Sigma(\vec{\hat{\theta}}_1))$
Let $g: \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be once differentiable at θ with the gradient matrix $\nabla g(\theta)$, then

$$\sqrt{n} (g(\vec{\hat{\theta}}_n) - g(\vec{\theta})) \xrightarrow{d} N_m(0, (\nabla g(\vec{\theta}))^T \Sigma(\vec{\hat{\theta}}_1) \nabla g(\vec{\theta}))$$

if $(\nabla g(\vec{\theta}))^T \Sigma(\vec{\hat{\theta}}_1) \nabla g(\vec{\theta})$ is p.s.d. (Positive semi-definite)