

## Lecture 14: August 22

Lecturer: Alessandro Rinaldo

Scribes: Trey McNeely

**Note:** *LaTeX template courtesy of UC Berkeley EECS dept.*

**Disclaimer:** *These notes have not been subjected to the usual scrutiny reserved for formal publications. They may be distributed outside this class only with the permission of the Instructor.*

## 14.1 Convergence in Measure/Probability

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mu)$  be a measure space, and let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of random variables taking values in a metric space  $(\mathcal{X}, d)$ . Let  $X$  also be a random variable taking a value in  $(\mathcal{X}, d)$ . Recall that a metric  $d: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \mapsto [0, \infty)$  satisfies the following properties:

1.  $d(x_1, x_2) \geq 0$
2.  $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(y, z)$
3.  $d(x, y) = 0$  iff  $x = y$

**Definition 14.1 (Convergence in Measure)**  $X_n$  is said to converge in measure to  $X$  when  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $\mu(\{\omega : d(X_n(\omega), X(\omega)) > \epsilon\}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . If  $\mu$  is a probability measure, this becomes convergence in probability. This is denoted  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ .

To conclude that  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ , we need to know joint distribution of  $X_n, X$ . See the the Bernoulli example, Example 13.3, for intuition.

### 14.1.1 Extension to Random Vectors

Now let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of random vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Let  $\{X\}$  also be a random vector in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then,  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  means that  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $P(\|X_n - X\| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

For homework: Let  $X_n(J)$  and  $X(J)$  indicate the  $J$ th coordinate of  $X_n, X$  respectively ( $J = 1, \dots, k$ ). We will show that  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  iff  $X_n(J) \xrightarrow{P} X(J) \forall J$ .

### 14.1.2 Little-oh Notation

**Definition 14.2 ( $o(\cdot)$  notation)** Let  $\{X_n\}$  and  $\{Y_n\}$  be sequences in some common probability space. Then, in little-oh notation,  $X_n = o(Y_n)$  means that  $\frac{X_n}{Y_n} \xrightarrow{P} 0$ . Then,  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists n_0 = n_0(\epsilon)$  s.t.  $\forall n > n_0$ ,  $|\frac{X_n}{Y_n}| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 14.3 ( $op(\cdot)$  notation)** Let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of random variables/vectors in some probability space, and let  $\{r_n\}$  be a sequence of positive numbers. Then,  $X_n = op(r_n)$  means that  $\frac{X_n}{r_n} \xrightarrow{P} 0$ . Then,  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists n_0 = n_0(\epsilon)$  s.t.  $\forall n > n_0$ ,  $|\frac{X_n}{r_n}| < \epsilon$  or  $\frac{\|X_n\|}{r_n} < \epsilon$ .

We can use the  $o(\cdot)$  and  $op(\cdot)$  to cleanly express the Weak Law of Large Numbers.

**Theorem 14.4 (WLLN)** Let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of random variables s.t.  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] = \mu \forall n$ ,  $V[X_n] = \sigma^2 < \infty$ , and  $cov(x_n, x_{n'}) = 0 \forall n \neq n'$ . If  $\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \rightarrow 0$ , then  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ .

**Proof:** Let  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_n$ . By Chebyshev's inequality,  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,

$$P\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right|\right) \leq \frac{V\left[\frac{S_n}{n}\right]}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \rightarrow 0$$

■

Then, we can say that  $\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu = op(1) \iff \frac{S_n}{n} = \mu + op(1)$ . We can view  $op(1)$  as the random fluctuations about the mean, which converge to 0.

This notation says nothing about rates. In fact, asymptotics are hidden by the notation. For example:

$$\begin{aligned} X_n = op(1) \ \& \ Y_n = op(1) \implies X_n + Y_n = op(1) \\ X_n = op(r_n) \ \& \ Y_n = op(r_n) \implies X_n + Y_n = op(r_n) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,  $X_n = op(r_n) \implies KX_n = op(r_n) \forall K \in \mathbb{R}$ . We can also extend  $op(\cdot)$  notation to include  $X_n = op(Y_n)$ , which signifies  $\frac{X_n}{Y_n} = op(1)$ . Again, this tells us nothing about the asymptotics.

### 14.1.3 Taylor Expansions

Let a function  $f$  have  $d$  derivatives at the point  $\theta_0$ . Also suppose that  $X_n = \theta_0 + op(1)$  (i.e.  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} \theta_0$ ). Then there exists a sequence  $\{Y_n\}$  s.t.  $Y_n = op(1)$  s.t.

$$f(X_n) = f(\theta_0) + (X_n - \theta_0)f'(\theta_0) + \dots + \frac{(X_n - \theta_0)^d}{d!} [f^{(d)}(\theta_0) + Y_n]$$

In particular,

$$\frac{(X_n - \theta_0)^d}{d!} [f^{(d)}(\theta_0) + Y_n] = \frac{(X_n - \theta_0)^d}{d!} f^{(d)}(\theta_0) + op((X_n - \theta_0)^d)$$

where  $op((X_n - \theta_0)^d) = op(1)$ ; recall that  $X_n op(1) = op(X_n)$ .

**Proof:** By the Taylor theorem,  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta = \delta(\epsilon)$  s.t.  $\|X_n(\omega) - \theta_0\| < \delta \implies |f(X_n) - f(\theta_0) - \dots - \frac{(X_n - \theta_0)^d}{d!} f^{(d)}(\theta_0)| < \epsilon \forall \omega \in A$  s.t.  $P(A^c) = 0$ . Some details are omitted. ■

**Proof:** In more detail,  $\{|X_n - \theta_0| < \delta\} \implies \{|Y_n| < \epsilon\}$ . Since  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} \theta_0, \exists n_0 = n_0(\delta, \epsilon)$  s.t.  $\forall n > n_0, P(|X_n - \theta_0| > \delta) < \epsilon$ , so  $\forall n > n_0$

$$P(|Y_n| < \epsilon) \geq P(|X_n - \theta_0| < \delta) > 1 - \epsilon$$

Then,  $Y_n = op(1)$  ■

We can take this into multiple dimensions. Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  be twice-differentiable at  $\theta_0$ , and let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of random vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} \theta_0$ . Then, express

$$f(X_n) = f(\theta_0) + \nabla f^T(\theta_0)(X_n - \theta_0) + \frac{1}{2}(X_n - \theta_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_0)(X_n - \theta_0) + Y_n$$

In the above,  $Y_n = op(1)$ . In fact,  $Y_n = op(\|X_n - \theta_0\|^2)$ . See once again that  $op(\cdot)$  notation hides rates from us.

### 14.1.4 Weak Law of Large Numbers

We can now prove a version of the weak law of large numbers with weaker requirements; we drop the finite variance requirement.

**Theorem 14.5 (WLLN)** *Let  $\{X_n\}$  be independent and identically distributed random variables s.t.  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X_1] < \infty$ . Let  $S_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then  $\frac{S_n}{n} \xrightarrow{P} \mu$ .*

**Proof:** We use the truncation technique. Let  $t \in (0, \infty)$ . Let

$$X_{t, k} = X_k \mathbb{I}_{\{|X_k| < t\}}$$

$$Y_{t, k} = X_k \mathbb{I}_{\{|X_k| > t\}}$$

Then,  $X_k = X_{t, k} + Y_{t, k}$ , so  $\frac{S_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{t, k} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_{t, k}$ .

Next, let  $U_{t, k} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{t, k}$  and  $V_{t, k} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_{t, k}$ .

Now, we have  $\mathbb{E}[|V_{t, k}|] \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[|Y_{t, k}|] = \mathbb{E}[X_k \mathbb{I}_{\{|X_1| < t\}}]$

By the Dominated Convergence Theorem,  $\mathbb{E}[X_k \mathbb{I}_{\{|X_1| < t\}}] \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ .

We fix  $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$  and  $\delta \in (0, 1)$ . We choose  $t$  sufficiently large to bound the previous expectation; choose  $t = t(\epsilon, \delta)$  s.t.  $\mathbb{E}[X_k \mathbb{I}_{\{|X_1| < t\}}] \leq \frac{2\delta}{6}$ . Let  $\mu_t = \mathbb{E}[X_1, t]$ . Then,

$$|\mu_t - \mu| \leq \mathbb{E}[|Y_1, t|] \leq \mathbb{E}[|Y_1, t|] < \frac{\epsilon\delta}{6} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

We now let  $B_n = \{|U_{n, t} - \mu_t| > \frac{\epsilon}{3}\}$  and  $C_n = \{|V_{n, t}| > \frac{\epsilon}{3}\}$ .

To bound  $P(B_n)$ , we can use the weaker WLLN proved earlier;  $\mathbb{E}[X_k^2, t] < t^2 \forall k$ . There exists  $n_0 = n_0(\epsilon, \delta)$  s.t.  $P(B_n) < \frac{\delta}{2}$ .

To bound  $P(C_n)$ , we use Markov's inequality.

$$P(C_n) \leq \frac{3\mathbb{E}[|V_{n, t}|]}{\epsilon} \leq \frac{3\mathbb{E}[|V_1, t|]}{\epsilon} \leq \frac{\delta}{2}$$

Now,  $B_n^c \cap C_n^c$  is a good set that has probability at least  $1 - \delta$  by the Union Bound:  $(B_n^c \cap C_n^c) = (B_n \cup C_n)^c$ .

We can set  $|U_{n, t} - \mu_t| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$  and  $|V_{n, t}| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ .

Now, we can decompose  $|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu|$  as

$$|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu| \leq |U_{n, t} - \mu_t| + |\mu_t - \mu| + |V_{n, t}| \leq \epsilon$$

Each of these terms has been bounded by  $\frac{\epsilon}{3}$ , so  $P(|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu| > \epsilon) \leq P(B_n \cup C_n) \leq \delta$ . ■

## 14.2 Almost Sure Convergence

For a sequence to converge almost surely, it can only violate  $|X_n - X| < \epsilon$  finitely many times. In other words,  $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon \text{ infinitely often}) = 0$ .

**Definition 14.6 (Almost Sure Convergence)** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  be a probability space, let  $\{X_n\}$  be a sequence of random variables in that space, and let  $X$  be another random variable. Then,  $X_n$  is said to converge almost surely to  $X$  (denoted  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ ) if any of the following equivalent conditions hold:

- $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon \text{ infinitely often}) = 0$
- $P(\{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}) = 1$
- $P(\limsup_n A_{n, \omega}) = 0$  where  $A_{n, \omega} = \{|X'_n - X| > \epsilon\}$

We note that this includes no guarantees about uniform convergence. For some  $\omega_1 \neq \omega_2$ ,  $X_n(\omega_1) \rightarrow X(\omega_1)$  at a different rate than  $X_n(\omega_2) \rightarrow X(\omega_2)$ .

### 14.3 Next Time: $L_p$ Convergence

Let  $p \geq 1$ . Then,  $X_n \xrightarrow{L_p} X$  if

$$\|X_n - X\|_p = (\mathbb{E}[|X_n - X|^p])^{\frac{1}{p}} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

For the special case where  $p = 2$ , we refer to this as convergence in quadratic mean.  $X_n \xrightarrow{L_2} \mu$  iff  $V[X_n] \rightarrow 0$  and  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \rightarrow \mu$ .