



Relations

Theorem: Each arrow in Figure ?? indicates a direction of implication, e.g., almost sure convergence implies convergence in probability.

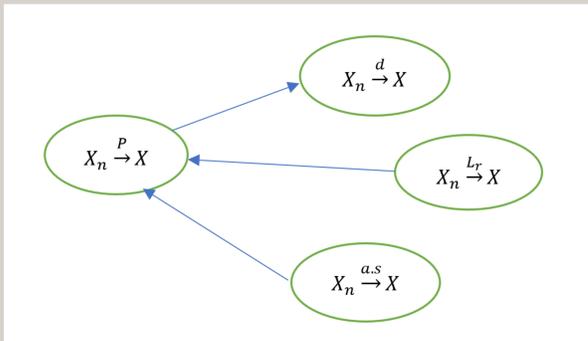


Figure 1. Relationship between various modes of convergence

Important Lemmas:

- If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} c \in \mathbb{R}$ where c is a constant, then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} c$.
- If $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, where $X_n \geq 0$ and $\mathbb{E}(X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{L_1} X$.
- $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ if and only if given any subsequence n_k , \exists a further subsequence n_{k_l} such that $X_{n_{k_l}} \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ as $l \rightarrow \infty$.
- If $F_n \xrightarrow{d} F$ and F is continuous, then $\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |F_n(x) - F(x)| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$\xrightarrow{P}, \xrightarrow{L^r}$ does not imply $\xrightarrow{a.s.}$.

Let $\Omega = (0, 1)$ and let P corresponds to the $U(0, 1)$ distribution. Let

$$A_1 = (0, 1/2], A_2 = (1/2, 1), A_3 = (0, 1/4], \\ A_4 = (1/4, 1/2], A_5 = (1/2, 3/4], A_6 = (3/4, 1), \dots$$

Let $X_n(\omega) = \mathbf{1}_{A_n}(\omega)$ for $n \geq 1$. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$, and $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} 0$ for any $r > 0$.

To see why, note that $P(|X_n| > \epsilon) = P(X_n = 1) = P(\omega \in A_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (as the length of A_n converges to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$).

Similar argument holds for the L_r convergence. Next, fix any $\omega \in (0, 1)$. Observe that for any $\omega \in (0, 1)$, $X_n(\omega)$ takes both the values 0 and 1 infinitely often. Hence $X_n(\omega) \not\rightarrow 0$ (in fact, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega)$ does not exist) for any $\omega \in (0, 1)$. Hence

$$P(\{\omega : X_n(\omega) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty\}) = 0.$$

So, in particular, $X_n \not\xrightarrow{a.s.} 0$. Thus, convergence in probability or convergence in L_r does not imply convergence almost surely.

\xrightarrow{d} does not imply \xrightarrow{P}

$X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(0, 1)$. Then clearly $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X_1$. But does $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X_1$?

Why?: Fix any $\epsilon > 0$. Then for any $n \geq 2$, note that $P(|X_n - X_1| > \epsilon) = P(|V_n| > \epsilon)$ where $X_n - X_1 = V_n \sim N(0, 2)$. But clearly $P(|V_n| > \epsilon)$ is a non-zero positive quantity (independent of n) and can't converge to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus $X_n \not\xrightarrow{P} X_1$. Convergence in distribution does not imply convergence in probability.

Types of convergence

Convergence in Distribution:

A sequence $\{X_n\}$ of random variables with d.f. F_n is said to converge in distribution or weakly (or, in law) to a random variable X with d.f. F if

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{C}_F, F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x).$$

We write $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ to denote that X_n converges to X in distribution.

- **Convergence in probability:** Let $\{X_n\}$ and X be defined as the same probability space (Ω, \mathcal{A}, P) . We say X_n converges in probability to X , and write $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- **Almost sure convergence:** Let $\{X_n\}$, X be defined on the same probability space. We say X_n converges to X with probability 1 (w.p. 1) or almost surely (a.s.) if

$$P(\{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}) = 1.$$

We write $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ or $X_n \xrightarrow{w.p.1} X$.

- **Convergence in r -th mean** Let $\{X_n\}$, X be defined on the same probability space. We say X_n converges to X in r -th mean if

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|^r) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

We say $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$. For $r = 2$, it is called convergence in quadratic mean.

Motivating example

Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, σ^2 unknown. Then the usual t -test rejects $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ against $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$ at significance level α if

$$|t| = \left| \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu_0)}{s} \right| > t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, (n-1)}$$

where symbols have their usual meanings. In the case of normal, this test has the verifiable optimality property that it is *Unbiased Most Powerful Uniformly*. However, it is a fact that t -test is very popular and is used all the times, normal data or not. Does Asymptotic theory give any justification for such universal use of the t -test? Yes, in a limited way. Suppose $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F(x)$ and $\mathbb{E}_F(X_1) = \mu_0$. Then assuming that $\mathbb{E}_F(X_1^2) < \infty$, you can show that

$$\mathbb{P}(|t| > t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, (n-1)}) \rightarrow \alpha \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Thus asymptotically the derived level α is preserved. So by asymptotic analysis, it becomes clear that the t -test is *level-robust* for any F with finite variance.

Results:

- If the in probability convergence occur at a rate fast enough so that

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \Pr(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \infty,$$

then we can say that $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$.

- If $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, then there exists a subsequence n_k , such that $X_{n_k} \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.