

Lecture 2

Limit theorems

1 Useful Inequalities

Theorem 1. (*Markov inequality*) Let X be any nonnegative random variable such that $E[X]$ exists. Then for any $t > 0$, we have $P\{X \geq t\} \leq E[X]/t$.

Proof. Since X is nonnegative,

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= \int_0^\infty xf(x)dx = \int_0^t xf(x)dx + \int_t^\infty xf(x)dx \\ &\geq \int_t^\infty xf(x)dx \geq t \int_t^\infty f(x)dx = tP\{X \geq t\} \end{aligned}$$

where f denotes the pdf of X . A similar argument works for other types of random variables (not-continuous) as well. \square

Theorem 2. (*Chebyshev inequality*) For any random variable X with mean μ and finite variance and for any $t > 0$, we have $P\{|X - \mu| \geq t\} \leq \text{Var}(X)/t^2$.

Proof. Note that $|X - \mu| \geq t$ if and only if $|X - \mu|^2 \geq t^2$. Thus, $P\{|X - \mu| \geq t\} = P\{|X - \mu|^2 \geq t^2\}$. Since $|X - \mu|^2$ is a nonnegative random variable, $P\{|X - \mu|^2 \geq t^2\} \leq E[|X - \mu|^2]/t^2 = \text{Var}(X)/t^2$ by Markov inequality. \square

Theorem 3. (*Hölder's inequality*) If $p > 1$ and $1/p + 1/q = 1$, and if $E|X|^p < \infty$ and $E|Y|^q < \infty$, then $E|XY| \leq (E|X|^p)^{1/p}(E|Y|^q)^{1/q}$.

2 Convergence in probability and Law of Large Numbers

Definition 4. Let X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots be a sequence of random variables. We say that $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ converges to X in probability if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ $P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In this case we write $X_n \rightarrow^p X$.

Theorem 5. If $E(X_n - X)^2 \rightarrow 0$, then $X_n \rightarrow^p X$.

Proof. By Markov inequality, for any $\varepsilon > 0$

$$P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\} = P\{|X_n - X|^2 > \varepsilon^2\} \leq E[|X_n - X|^2]/\varepsilon^2 \rightarrow 0$$

□

Theorem 6. If $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with $E[X_i] = \mu$ and $Var(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$, then $\bar{X}_n := \sum_{i=1}^n X_i/n \rightarrow^p \mu$.

Proof. By linearity of expectation, $E[\bar{X}_n] = E[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i/n] = \sum_{i=1}^n E[X_i]/n = \mu$. Thus,

$$E[|\bar{X}_n - \mu|^2] = V(\bar{X}) = V\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i/n\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n V(X_i)/n^2 = \sigma^2/n.$$

Thus, $E|\bar{X}_n - \mu|^2 \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. □

Theorem 6 uses very strong i.i.d. assumption, in Econometrics we often consider cases when it is not satisfied. Limit theorems for dependent random variables are discussed in 14.384 Time Series. It is easy to get an extension for independent but non-identically distributed random variables. Assume that $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ are independent random variables with $E[X_i] = \mu$ but $Var(X_i) = \sigma_i^2$. Show that LLN holds if $\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \rightarrow 0$.

Another version of the law of large numbers is

Theorem 7. If $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of iid random variables with $EX_n = \mu$ and $E|X_n| < \infty$, then $\bar{X}_n \rightarrow_p \mu$

3 Weak convergence and Central Limit Theorem

Definition 8. We say that $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to X in distribution or weakly if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ where $F_X(x)$ is continuous. In this case we write $X_n \Rightarrow X$.

Theorem 9. If $X_n \rightarrow_p X$, then $X_n \Rightarrow X$.

Proof. Note that $X_n \leq x$ and $X > x + \varepsilon$ implies $|X_n - X| > \varepsilon$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X_n}(x) &= P\{X_n \leq x\} \\ &= P\{X_n \leq x, X \leq x + \varepsilon\} + P\{X_n \leq x, X > x + \varepsilon\} \\ &\leq P\{X \leq x + \varepsilon\} + P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\} \\ &= F_X(x + \varepsilon) + P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\}. \end{aligned}$$

for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Similarly,

$$F_X(x - \varepsilon) \leq F_{X_n}(x) + P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\}.$$

Thus,

$$F_X(x - \varepsilon) - P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\} \leq F_{X_n}(x) \leq F_X(x + \varepsilon) + P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon\}.$$

Next, if x is a point of continuity of F_X , for any $\delta > 0$, there exists $\varepsilon(\delta) > 0$ such that

$$F_X(x + \varepsilon(\delta)) - \delta \leq F_X(x) \leq F_X(x - \varepsilon(\delta)) + \delta.$$

Therefore

$$F_X(x) - \delta - P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon(\delta)\} \leq F_{X_n}(x) \leq F_X(x) + \delta + P\{|X_n - X| > \varepsilon(\delta)\}.$$

Next, since $X_n \rightarrow_p X$, by definition:

$$\lim_n |F_{X_n}(x) - F_X(x)| \leq \delta$$

So, $F_{X_n}(x) \rightarrow F_X(x)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$ where $F_X(x)$ is continuous. \square

As an exercise, prove that if c is some constant and $X_n \Rightarrow c$, then $X_n \rightarrow_p c$.

Theorem 10. (*Central limit theorem*) Let $\{X_i\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)/\sqrt{n} \Rightarrow N(0, \sigma^2)$.

In the multivariate case, if $\text{Var}(X_i) = E[(X_i - E[X_i])(X_i - E[X_i])^T] = \Sigma$, then $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)/\sqrt{n} \Rightarrow N(0, \Sigma)$.

We often will need to consider non-identically distributed random variables, in such a case we should use Linderberg- Feller's CLT:

Theorem 11. Let $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ be a sequence of independent random variables with $EX_i = \mu_i$ and $V(X_i) = \sigma_i^2$. Denote $c_n^2 = V(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2$. If for any $\varepsilon > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{c_n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n E((X_i - \mu_i)^2 \mathbb{I}\{|X_i - \mu_i| > \varepsilon c_n\}) = 0 \quad (1)$$

then $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu_i)}{c_n} \Rightarrow N(0, 1)$.

Sometimes Linderberg's condition (1) is called "asymptotic negligibility" as in particular it implies that $\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \frac{\sigma_i^2}{c_n^2} \rightarrow 0$ and guarantees that a personal contribution of any X_i to the variance of the sum is sufficiently small for large n . The following sufficient condition for (1) is called Lyapunov's:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{c_n^{2+\delta}} \sum_{i=1}^n E|X_i - \mu_i|^{2+\delta} = 0 \text{ for some } \delta > 0.$$

4 Asymptotic statements derived from basic limit theorems

Theorem 12. (*Slutsky theorem and Continuous mapping theorem*) Let $X, X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots$ and $Y, Y_1, \dots, Y_n, \dots$ be some random variables. Let g be some continuous function. Let c be some constant. Then

1. If $X_n \rightarrow_p X$ and $Y_n \rightarrow_p Y$, then $X_n + Y_n \rightarrow_p X + Y$ and $X_n Y_n \rightarrow_p XY$.
2. If $X_n \Rightarrow X$ and $Y \rightarrow_p c$, then $X_n + Y_n \Rightarrow X + c$ and $X_n Y_n \Rightarrow cX$.

3. If $X_n \rightarrow_p X$, then $g(X_n) \rightarrow_p g(X)$.

4. If $X_n \Rightarrow X$, then $g(X_n) \Rightarrow g(X)$

The first and second statements are known as the Slutsky theorem. The third and fourth statements are known as the Continuous mapping theorem. These theorems are widely used in statistics.

4.1 Symbols o_p and O_p

First, let us talk about some notation for **non-stochastic** sequences x_n and b_n . We would write $x_n = o(b_n)$ when $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_n}{b_n} = 0$. Often it is described as “ x_n is asymptotically smaller than b_n ”. We would write $x_n = O(b_n)$ when $\sup_n \frac{x_n}{b_n} < \infty$. In general we will use some easy-to-describe sequences as b_n , such as \sqrt{n} , $\frac{1}{n}$ or 1. Notice that $x_n = o(1)$ means $x_n \rightarrow 0$ and $x_n = O(1)$ means that x_n is a bounded sequence. Now let us adopt similar notations for sequences of random variables $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$:

Definition 13. We say that $X_n = o_p(b_n)$ iff $\frac{X_n}{b_n} \rightarrow_p 0$.

We say that $X_n = O_p(b_n)$ iff for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists constant $C < \infty$ such that $P\left\{\frac{X_n}{b_n} > C\right\} < \varepsilon$ for all n .

Sometimes statement $X_n = O_p(b_n)$ is described as “sequence $\frac{X_n}{b_n}$ is stochastically bounded.” Some examples of the use of these symbols are given below:

- If $X_n \Rightarrow N(0, 1)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ then $X_n = O_p(1)$;
- If $X_n \rightarrow_p X$ then $X_n = X + o_p(1)$;
- Chebyshev’s inequality for i.i.d. X_i with finite variance implies $\bar{X}_n = O_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$

We will often use the following statements :

- If $X_n = O_p(n^{-\delta})$ for some $\delta > 0$ then $X_n = o_p(1)$;
- If $X_n = o_p(b_n)$ then $X_n = O_p(b_n)$;
- If $X_n = O_p(n^\alpha)$ and $Y_n = O_p(n^\beta)$, then $X_n Y_n = O_p(n^{\alpha+\beta})$ and $X_n + Y_n = O_p(\max\{n^\alpha, n^\beta\})$;
- If $X_n = O_p(n^\alpha)$ and $Y_n = o_p(n^\beta)$, then $X_n Y_n = o_p(n^{\alpha+\beta})$;
- If $X_n = O_p(n^\alpha)$ and $Y_n = o_p(n^\alpha)$, then $X_n + Y_n = O_p(n^\alpha)$

5 Delta method

Theorem 14. Assume that for a sequence of random variables X_n and constants μ and σ we have $\sqrt{n}(X_n - \mu) \Rightarrow N(0, \sigma^2)$. If $g'(\mu) \neq 0$, then $\sqrt{n}(g(X_n) - g(\mu)) \Rightarrow N(0, \sigma^2(g'(\mu))^2)$.

Proof. By the mean value theorem, for any realization $X_n(\omega)$, there is some $\mu_n^*(\omega)$ between μ and $X_n(\omega)$ such that

$$g(\bar{X}_n(\omega)) - g(\mu) = g'(\mu_n^*)(\bar{X}_n(\omega) - \mu). \quad (2)$$

Thus, we have defined a new sequence of random variables, $\{\mu_n^*\}_{n=1}^\infty$. By assumptions we have $\sqrt{n}(X_n - \mu) = O_p(1)$, thus $(X_n - \mu) = o_p(1)$ and $X_n \xrightarrow{p} \mu$. Since μ_n^* is between μ and X_n , $\mu_n^* \xrightarrow{p} \mu$ as well. By the Continuous mapping theorem, $g'(\mu_n^*) \xrightarrow{p} g'(\mu)$ since $g'(x)$ is continuous. Moreover, by the Slutsky theorem and by the Central limit theorem, $\sqrt{n}g'(\mu_n^*)(X_n(\omega) - \mu) \Rightarrow g'(\mu)N(0, \sigma^2)$. \square

Note that this theorem also holds when $g'(\mu) = 0$ but in this case the asymptotic distribution will be 0 (constant), i.e. degenerate. I recommend that you remember the argument used in this theorem as it is very typical in statistics and econometrics.

The Delta method has a multidimensional extension. Let X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots be a sequence of iid $k \times 1$ random vectors with mean μ and covariance matrix Σ . Then, by the multidimensional Central limit theorem, $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \Rightarrow N(0, \Sigma)$. Let $g : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a twice continuously differentiable function. Let $\tau^2 = (\partial g(\mu)/\partial \mu)^T \Sigma (\partial g(\mu)/\partial \mu)$. Here $\partial g(\mu)/\partial \mu$ is a $k \times 1$ vector with i -th component equals $\partial g(\mu)/\partial \mu_i$. Then $\sqrt{n}(g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\mu)) \Rightarrow N(0, \tau^2)$.

5.1 Example

Let X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots be a sequence of iid random variables with mean μ and variance σ^2 . What is the limiting distribution of $(\bar{X}_n)^2$? Let $g(x) = x^2$. Then $g'(\mu) = 2\mu$. Thus, by the Delta method, $\sqrt{n}((\bar{X}_n)^2 - \mu^2) \Rightarrow N(0, 4\mu^2\sigma^2)$. Note that if $\mu = 0$, then the limit distribution is degenerate.

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