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Note: The format of the scribe notes has been borrowed from EECS, U. C. Berkeley.

1.1 Different Types of Models

1.1.1 Parametric models

A parametric model is a set of distributions (or densities or regression functions) that can be parameterized by a finite number of parameters. For example, linear models.

Example 1.1. (Linear models). Given inputs $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(k)}$, the linear model to predict output y is:

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_i x^{(i)} + \varepsilon,$$

where ε is the intercept (Gaussian noise in some applications).

1.1.2 Nonparametric models

A nonparametric model is a set of distributions (or densities or regression functions) that can not be parameterized by a finite number of parameters.

Example 1.2. (Nonparametric density estimation). X_1, \dots, X_n are observations from a cdf F, we want to estimate the pdf f, assuming some smoothness of f that $f \in \mathcal{F}_{DENS} \cap \mathcal{F}_{SOB}$, where \mathcal{F}_{DENS} is a set of all probability density functions, and

$$\mathcal{F}_{SOB} = \left\{ f : \int \left(f''(x) \right)^2 dx < \infty \right\}.$$

The class \mathcal{F}_{SOB} is called a **Sobolev space**.

Example 1.3. (Regression). Estimate h(x) = E(Y|X = x) using k observed pairs of data (X_i, Y_i) , $i = 1, \dots, k$. Regression model is like

$$\mathcal{L} = h(x_1, \cdots, x_k) + \varepsilon, \ \varepsilon \sim Gaussian^1,$$

where $h(\cdot)$ is not necessarily linear and it is from a non-finite dimensional set.

¹Note that while $E[\varepsilon] = 0$ must hold, ε does not need to be Gaussian.

1.1.3 Semiparametric models

A semi-parmetric model can be partly written as parametric model and partly as nonparametric model. An example is like

$$\mathcal{L} = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + h(x_3, x_4, x_5) + \varepsilon,$$

which is a summation of linear model and regression model.

1.2 Convergence of Random Variables

Definition 1.1. Let X_1, X_2, \cdots be a sequence of random variables and let X be another random variable. We have the following two types of convergence:

1). X_n converges to X in probability, written $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$,

$$P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) \to 0, \tag{1.1}$$

as $n \to \infty$.

2). X_n converges to X in distribution, written $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ or $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$, if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{P}(X_n \le t) = \mathcal{P}(X \le t), \tag{1.2}$$

 $\forall t \ s.t. \ P(X \leq t)$ is continuous at t.

Example 1.4. (Convergence in probability). Suppose $X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, then

$$P(\left|\overline{X_n} - \mu\right| > \varepsilon) = P((\overline{X_n} - \mu)^2 > \varepsilon^2) \le \frac{E\left[(\overline{X_n} - \mu)^2\right]}{\varepsilon^2} = \frac{Var(\overline{X_n})}{\varepsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\varepsilon^2} \to 0, \ n \to 0,$$

where the "less than or equal to" is obtained by using Markov's inequality. You could also just use Chebyshev's inequality. So we have $\overline{X_n} \xrightarrow{P} \mu$. This is none other than our old friend – the Weak Law of Large Numbers.

Example 1.5. (Convergence in distribution). Suppose $X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, then

$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - \mu) \to N(0, 1)$$

This is none other than our old friend – the Central Limit Theorem.

Example 1.6. Suppose $X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{n})$, also by using Markov's inequality,

$$P(|X_n - 0| > \varepsilon) \le \frac{Var(X_n)}{\varepsilon^2} = \frac{1}{n\varepsilon^2} \to 0,$$

so $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$.

Now we have a point mass at 0 (P(X = 0) = 1), then

$$P(0 \le t) = \mathbf{1}(t \ge 0) \to \begin{cases} 1 & t \ge 0, \\ 0 & t < 0. \end{cases}$$
(1.3)

Remember that $\sqrt{n}X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, consider

$$P(X_n \le t) = P(\sqrt{n}X_n \le \sqrt{n}t) = \Phi(\sqrt{n}t) \to \begin{cases} 1 & t > 0, \\ \frac{1}{2} & t = 0, \\ 0 & t < 0. \end{cases}$$
(1.4)

Compare (1.3) and (1.4), we can conclude that $X_n \xrightarrow{d} 0$. Note that although convergence fails at t = 0, the convergence in distribution also holds because the CDF of the limiting random variable X (which is 0 with probability 1) is not a continuous point at 0 (as shown in Figure 1.1).



Figure 1.1. Jump function $\mathbf{1}(t \ge 0)$.

Remark 1.1. We have the following relationship:

$$X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{d} X,$$

however, the reverse does not hold:

$$X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \not\Rightarrow X_n \xrightarrow{P} X.$$

Example 1.7. A counter-example for the second part of Remark 1.1 is $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, let $X_n = -X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, so $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$. However,

$$P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) = P(2|X_n| > \varepsilon) = P(|X_n| > \frac{\varepsilon}{2}) \neq 0,$$

so $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ does not hold.

Remark 1.2. X_n converges in probability to a random variable X does not imply the expectation of X_n converges to E[X].

$$X_n \xrightarrow{P} X,$$
$$E[X_n] \nrightarrow E[X],$$

The point is that the tail is not well behaved. There is too much mass on the tail.

Example 1.8. A counter-example for Remark 1.2 is

$$X_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{with probability } 1 - \frac{1}{n}, \\ n^2 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{n}, \end{cases}$$

We can see $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ while $E[X_n] = n \to \infty$.

Theorem 1.1. (Slutsky's theorem) Given two sequences of random variables such that $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} c$, then

$$X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + c,$$

and

$$X_n \cdot Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X \cdot c,$$

1.2.1 Delta Method

The Delta Method establishes the Convergence in Distribution of a transformation of a random variable under certain conditions.

Theorem 1.2. (The Delta Method) Suppose that

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(Y_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$$

and that g is a differentiable function such that $g'(\mu) \neq 0$. Then

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(g(Y_n) - g(\mu))}{|g'(\mu)|\sigma} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$$

References

[1] Wasserman, Larry. All of statistics: a concise course in statistical inference. Springer Science & Business Media, 2013.