

第五讲 U 统计量

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第五讲 U 统计量,

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1.1 Statistical Functional

■ 在很多时候, 感兴趣的参数往往是分布函数 F 的函数, 记为 $\theta = T(F)$, 称为**统计泛函**.

- 均值: $T(F) = \int x dF(x)$, 方差 $T(F) = \int (x - \mu)^2 dF(x)$, 分位数 $T(F) = F^{-1}(p)$
- 相关系数 $\rho(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5) = \frac{t_3 - t_1 t_2}{\sqrt{(t_4 - t_1^2)(t_5 - t_2^2)}}$, 其中 $T_1(F) = \iint x dF(x, y)$, $T_2(F) = \iint y dF(x, y)$, $T_3(F) = \int x y dF(x, y)$, $T_4(F) = \int x^2 dF(x, y)$, $T_5(F) = \int y^2 dF(x, y)$

记 F_n 为经验分布函数, 则统计泛函 $\theta = T(F)$ 的"Plug-in" 估计为 $\hat{\theta} = T(F_n)$.

Definition

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- **Linear statistical functional:** $T(F) = E_F \phi(X)$
 - Note in this case that $T\{\alpha F_1 + (1 - \alpha)F_2\} = \alpha E_{F_1} \phi(X) + (1 - \alpha)E_{F_2} \phi(X) = \alpha T(F_1) + (1 - \alpha)T(F_2)$
 - To generalize this idea, we consider a real-valued function taking more than one real argument, say $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_a)$ for some $a > 1$, and define $T(F) = E_F \phi(X_1, \dots, X_a)$
 - We see that for any permutation π mapping $\{1, \dots, a\}$ onto itself.
 - since there are $a!$ such permutations, consider the function

$$\phi^*(x_1, \dots, x_a) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{a!} \sum_{\text{all } \pi} \phi(x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(a)})$$

Definition For some integer $a \geq 1$, let $\phi : \mathbb{R}^a \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function symmetric in its a arguments. The expectation of $\phi(X_1, \dots, X_a)$ under the assumption that X_1, \dots, X_a are independent and identically distributed from some distribution F will be denoted by $E_F \phi(X_1, \dots, X_a)$. Then the functional

$$T(F) = E_F \phi(X_1, \dots, X_a)$$

is called an **expectation functional**. If $a = 1$, then T is also called a linear functional.

- Expectation functionals are important because they are precisely the functionals that give rise to V-statistics and U-statistics.

1.2 U Statistics

Definition Let $T(F) = E_F \phi(X_1, \dots, X_a)$ be an expectation functional, where $\phi : \mathbb{R}^a \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function that is symmetric in its arguments. In other words, $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_a) = \phi(x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(a)})$ for any permutation π of the integers 1 through a . Then ϕ is called the **kernel function** associated with $T(F)$.

- **V-Statistics:** (Von Mises) $V_n = T(\hat{F}_n) = E_{\hat{F}_n} \phi(X_1, \dots, X_a) = \frac{1}{n^a} \sum_{i_1=1}^n \cdots \sum_{i_a=1}^n \phi(X_{i_1}, \dots, X_{i_a})$
- since the bias in V_n is due to the duplication among the subscripts, we might sum instead over all possible subscripts satisfying $i_1 < \cdots < i_a$

Variance estimates

- First, we'll consider the standard unbiased estimate of variance—a special case of a U-statistic.

$$\begin{aligned}s_n^2 &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 \\&= \frac{1}{2n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \left((X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 + (X_j - \bar{X}_n)^2 \right) \\&= \frac{1}{2n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \left((X_i - \bar{X}_n) - (X_j - \bar{X}_n) \right)^2 \\&= \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2} (X_i - X_j)^2 \\&= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}} \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{2} (X_i - X_j)^2\end{aligned}$$

Variance estimates

- This is unbiased for i.i.d. data:

$$\begin{aligned}Es_n^2 &= \frac{1}{2}E(X_1 - X_2)^2 \\&= \frac{1}{2}E((X_1 - EX_1) - (X_2 - EX_2))^2 \\&= \frac{1}{2}E((X_1 - EX_1)^2 + (X_2 - EX_2)^2) \\&= E(X_1 - EX_1)^2\end{aligned}$$

U-statistics

Definition: A U-statistic of order r with kernel h is

$$U = \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}} \sum_{i \subseteq [n]} h(X_{i_1}, \dots, X_{i_r})$$

where h is symmetric in its arguments.

- “U” for “unbiased.” Introduced by Wassily Hoeffding in the 1940s.

U-statistics

Theorem:[Halmos, 1946] A parameter θ admits an unbiased estimator (ie: for all sufficiently large n , some function of the i.i.d. sample has expectation θ) iff for some k there is an h such that

$$\theta = E h(X_1, \dots, X_k)$$

Necessity is trivial. Sufficiency uses the estimator

$$\hat{\theta}(X_1, \dots, X_n) = h(X_1, \dots, X_k)$$

U-statistics make better use of the sample than this, since they are a symmetric function of the data.

U-statistics: Examples

- s_n^2 is a U -statistic of order 2 with kernel $h(x, y) = (1/2)(x - y)^2$
- \bar{X}_n is a U -statistic of order 1 with kernel $h(x) = x$
- The U -statistic with kernel $h(x, y) = |x - y|$ estimates the mean pairwise deviation or Gini mean difference. [The Gini coefficient, $G = E|X - Y|/(2EX)$, is commonly used as a measure of income inequality.]
- Third k-statistic, $k_3 = \frac{n}{(n-1)(n-2)} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^3$ is a U -statistic that estimates the 3rd cumulant $\kappa_3 = K^{(3)}(0)$, where $K(t) = \log E[e^{tX}]$.

U-statistics: Examples

- The U-statistic with kernel $h(x, y) = (x - y)(x - y)^T$ estimates the variance-covariance matrix.
- **Kendall's τ** : For a random pair $P_1 = (X_1, Y_1)$, $P_2 = (X_2, Y_2)$ of points in the plane,

$$\begin{aligned}\tau &= Pr(P_1 P_2 \text{ has positive slope}) - Pr(P_1 P_2 \text{ has negative slope}) \\ &= E1[(X_1 - X_2)(Y_1 - Y_2) > 0] - E1[(X_1 - X_2)(Y_1 - Y_2) < 0] \\ &= 4P(X_1 < X_2, Y_1 < Y_2) - 1\end{aligned}$$

where $P_1 P_2$ is the line from P_1 to P_2 . It is a measure of correlation: $\tau \in [-1, 1]$, $\tau = 0$ for independent X, Y , $\tau = \pm 1$ for $Y = f(X)$ for monotone f . Clearly, τ can be estimated using a U -statistic of order 2.

U-statistics: Examples

- The Wilcoxon one-sample rank statistic:

$$T^+ = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i 1 [X_i > 0]$$

where R_i is the rank (position when $|X_1|, \dots, |X_n|$ are arranged in ascending order). It's used to test if the distribution is symmetric about zero. Assuming the $|X_i|$ are all distinct, then we can write

$$R_i = \sum_{j=1}^n 1 [|X_j| \leq |X_i|]$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}T^+ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n 1[|X_j| \leq X_i] \\&= \sum_{i < j} 1[|X_j| < X_i] + \sum_{i < j} 1[|X_i| < X_j] + \sum_i 1[X_i > 0] \\&= \sum_{i < j} 1[X_i + X_j > 0] + \sum_i 1[X_i > 0] \\&= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}} \sum_{i < j} \binom{n}{2} 1[X_i + X_j > 0] + \frac{1}{n} \sum_i n 1[X_i > 0] \\&= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}} \sum_{i < j} h_2(X_i, X_j) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_i h_1(X_i)\end{aligned}$$

U-statistics: Examples

where

$$h_2(X_i, X_j) = \binom{n}{2}^{-1} \mathbb{1}[X_i + X_j > 0]$$

$$h_1(X_i) = n^{-1} \mathbb{1}[X_i > 0]$$

So it' s a sum of U-statistics. [Why is it not a U-statistic?]

1.2.1 Properties of U-statistics

- U for unbiased: U is an unbiased estimator for $Eh(X_1, \dots, X_r)$, $EU = Eh(X_1, \dots, X_r)$
- U is a lower variance estimate than $h(X_1, \dots, X_r)$, because U is an average over permutations. Indeed, since U is an average over permutations π of $h(X_\pi(1), \dots, X_\pi(r))$, we can write

$$U(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{E} [h(X_1, \dots, X_r) | X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}]$$

where $(X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)})$ is the data in some sorted order. Thus, for $EU = \theta$, we can write the variance as:

Properties of U-statistics

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}(U - \theta)^2 &= \mathbf{E} \left(\mathbf{E} [h(X_1, \dots, X_r) - \theta | X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}] \right)^2 \\ &\leq \mathbf{E} \mathbf{E} [(h(X_1, \dots, X_r) - \theta)^2 | X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}] \\ &= \mathbf{E} (h(X_1, \dots, X_r) - \theta)^2\end{aligned}$$

by Jensen's inequality (for a convex function ϕ , we have

$$\phi(\mathbf{E}X) \leq \mathbf{E}\phi(X))$$

This is the [Rao-Blackwell theorem](#): the mean squared error of the estimator $h(X_1, \dots, X_r)$ is reduced by replacing it by its conditional expectation, given the sufficient statistic $(X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)})$

Recall: Bounded Differences Inequality

Theorem: Suppose $f : \mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies the following bounded differences inequality: for all $x_1, \dots, x_n, x'_i \in \mathcal{X}$

$$|f(x_1, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x'_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)| \leq B_i$$

Then

$$P(|f(X) - \mathbb{E}f(X)| \geq t) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_i B_i^2}\right)$$

Bounded Differences Inequality

Consider a U-statistic of order 2.

$$U = \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}} \sum_{i < j} h(X_i, X_j)$$

Theorem: If $|h(X_1, X_2)| \leq B$ a.s., then

$$P(|U - \mathbf{E}U| \geq t) \leq 2 \exp(-nt^2 / (8B^2))$$

Bounded Differences Inequality

Proof: For X, X' differing in a single coordinate, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |U - U'| &\leq \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}} \sum_{i < j} |h(X_i, X_j) - h(X'_i, X'_j)| \\ &\leq \frac{2B(n-1)}{\binom{n}{2}} \\ &= \frac{4B}{n} \end{aligned}$$

The bounded differences inequality implies the result.

Variance of U-statistics

Now we'll compute the asymptotic variance of a U-statistic.
Recall the definition:

$$U = \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}} \sum_{i \subseteq [n]} h(X_{i_1}, \dots, X_{i_r})$$

So [letting S, S' range over subsets of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ of size r]:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(U) &= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}^2} \sum_S \sum_{S'} \text{Cov}(h(X_S), h(X_{S'})) \\ &= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}^2} \sum_{c=0}^r \binom{n}{r} \binom{r}{c} \binom{n-r}{r-c} \zeta_c \end{aligned}$$

where $\binom{n}{r} \binom{r}{c} \binom{n-r}{r-c}$ is the number of ways of choosing S and S' with an intersection of size c (first choose S , then choose the intersection from S' , then choose the non-intersection for the rest of S').

Variance of U-statistics

Also, $\zeta_c = \text{Cov}(h(X_S), h(X_{S'}))$ depends only on $c = |S \cap S'|$.
To see this, suppose that $S \cap S' = I$ with $|I| = c$,

$$\begin{aligned}\zeta_c &= \text{Cov}(h(X_S), h(X_{S'})) \\ &= \text{Cov}(h(X_I, X_{S-I}), h(X_I, X_{S'-I})) \\ &= \text{Cov}(h(X_1^c, X_{c+1}^r), h(X_1^c, X_{r+1}^{2r-c})) \\ &= \text{Cov}(\mathbb{E}[h(X_1^c, X_{c+1}^r) | X_1^c], \mathbb{E}[h(X_1^c, X_{r+1}^{2r-c}) | X_1^c]) \\ &\quad + \text{ECov}[h(X_1^c, X_{c+1}^r), h(X_1^c, X_{r+1}^{2r-c}) | X_1^c] \\ &= \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[h(X_1^c, X_{c+1}^r) | X_1^c])\end{aligned}$$

where $X_1^c = (X_1, \dots, X_c)$. Clearly, $\zeta_0 = 0$.

Variance of U-statistics

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(U) &= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}^2} \sum_{c=1}^r \binom{n}{r} \binom{r}{c} \binom{n-r}{r-c} \zeta_c \\&= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}} \sum_{c=1}^r \binom{r}{c} \binom{n-r}{r-c} \zeta_c \\&= \theta (n^{-r}) \sum_{c=1}^r \theta (n^{r-c}) \zeta_c \\&= \sum_{c=1}^r \theta (n^{-c}) \zeta_c\end{aligned}$$

Variance of U-statistics

So if $\zeta_1 \neq 0$, the first term dominates:

$$n \operatorname{Var}(U) \rightarrow \frac{nr!(n-r)!r(n-r)!}{n!(r-1)!(n-2r+1)!} \zeta_1 \rightarrow r^2 \zeta_1$$

If $r^2 \zeta_1 = 0$, we say that U is degenerate.

Variance of U-statistics: Example

■ Estimator of variance: $h(X_1, X_2) = (1/2)(X_1 - X_2)^2$

$$\begin{aligned}\zeta_1 &= \text{Cov}(h(X_1, X_2), h(X_1, X_3)) \\&= \text{Var}(\mathbf{E}[h(X_1, X_2) | X_1]) + \mathbf{E}[\text{Cov}(h(X_1, X_2), h(X_1, X_3) | X_1)] \\&= \text{Var}(\mathbf{E}[h(X_1, X_2) | X_1]) = \text{Var}\left(\mathbf{E}\left[\frac{1}{2}(X_1 - X_2)^2 | X_1\right]\right) \\&= \text{Var}\left(\mathbf{E}\left[\frac{1}{2}(X_1 - \mu + \mu - X_2)^2 | X_1\right]\right) \\&= \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{2}((X_1 - \mu)^2 + \sigma^2)\right) = \frac{1}{4}(\mu_4 - \sigma^4)\end{aligned}$$

where $\mu_4 = \mathbf{E}((X_1 - \mu)^4)$ is the 4 th central moment. So $n \text{Var}(U) \rightarrow \mu_4 - \sigma^4$. We'll see that $\sqrt{n}(U - \sigma^2) \rightsquigarrow N(0, \mu_4 - \sigma^4)$. (What if $\mu_4 - \sigma^4 = 0$?)

Variance of U-statistics: Example

Recall Kendall's τ : For a random pair $P_1 = (X_1, Y_1), P_2 = (X_2, Y_2)$ of points in the plane, if X, Y are independent and continuous [and $P_1 P_2$ is the line from P_1 to P_2]

$$h(P_1, P_2) = (1 [P_1 P_2 \text{ has positive slope}] - 1 [P_1 P_2 \text{ has negative slope}])$$

$$\zeta_1 = \text{Cov}(h(P_1, P_2), h(P_1, P_3))$$

$$\dots = 1/9$$

so $n \text{Var}(U) \rightarrow 4/9$. We'll see that $\sqrt{n}U \rightsquigarrow N(0, 4/9)$. And this gives a test for independence.

1.2.2 Asymptotic distribution of U-statistics

How do we find the asymptotic distribution of a U-statistic?

We' ll appeal to this theorem:

Theorem:

$$X_n \rightsquigarrow X \text{ and } d(X_n, Y_n) \xrightarrow{P} 0 \implies Y_n \rightsquigarrow X$$

In particular, we find another sequence \hat{U} such that

- $\sqrt{n}(U - \theta - \hat{U}) \xrightarrow{P} 0$, and
- The asymptotics of \hat{U} are easy to understand.

In this case, we find \hat{U} of the form $\hat{U} = \sum_i f(X_i)$. Then the CLT gives the result.

Asymptotic distribution of U-statistics

1. Why do functions of a single variable suffice? Because the interactions are weak
2. How do we find suitable functions? By projecting: finding the element of the linear space of functions of single variables that captures most of the variance of U .

This leads us to the idea of **Hájek projections**.

Projection Theorem

Consider a random variable T and a linear space \mathcal{S} of random variables, with $ES^2 < \infty$ for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$ and $ET^2 < \infty$. [Write $T \in L_2(P)$, $\mathcal{S} \subset L_2(P)$, the Hilbert space of finite variance random variables defined on a probability space.] A projection \hat{S} of T on \mathcal{S} is a minimizer over \mathcal{S} of $\mathbf{E}(T - S)^2$.]

Theorem: \hat{S} is a projection of T on \mathcal{S} iff $\hat{S} \in \mathcal{S}$ and, for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, the error $T - \hat{S}$ is orthogonal to \mathcal{S} , that is,

$$\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})S = 0$$

If \hat{S}_1 and \hat{S}_2 are projections of T onto \mathcal{S} , then $\hat{S}_1 = \hat{S}_2$ a.s.

Projection Theorem

Notice that if \mathcal{S} contains constants, then $S = 1 \in \mathcal{S}$ shows that

$$\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S}) = 0, \quad \text{i.e., } \mathbf{E}T = \mathbf{E}\hat{S}$$

Also, for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, $S - \mathbf{E}S \in \mathcal{S}$, so

$$\text{Cov}(T - \hat{S}, S) = \mathbf{E}((T - \hat{S})(S - \mathbf{E}S)) = 0$$

Projection Theorem Proof

Theorem: 1. $\hat{S} \in \mathcal{S}$ is a projection of T on \mathcal{S} (minimizes $\mathbf{E}(T - S)^2$) iff, for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, $\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})S = 0$. 2. If \hat{S}_1 and \hat{S}_2 are projections of T onto \mathcal{S} , then $\hat{S}_1 = \hat{S}_2$ as.

We can write the criterion, for any $S \in \mathcal{S}$ as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}(T - S)^2 &= \mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S} + \hat{S} - S)^2 \\ &= \mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})^2 + 2\mathbf{E}((T - \hat{S})(\hat{S} - S)) + (\hat{S} - S)^2\end{aligned}$$

If $\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})S = 0$, then this is $\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})^2 + (\hat{S} - S)^2$, which is minimized for $S = \hat{S}$, and strictly minimized unless $\mathbf{E}(\hat{S} - S)^2 = 0$, so \hat{S} is unique.

Projection Theorem Proof

If \hat{S} is a projection, then

$$\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S} - \alpha S)^2 = \mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})^2 - 2\alpha \mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})S + \alpha^2 \mathbf{E}S^2$$

is at least $\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})^2$ for any $S \in \mathcal{S}$ and any α . And this implies that

$$\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})S = 0$$

Projection Theorem

- Pythagoras theorem: $\mathbf{E}(T)^2 = \mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S} + \hat{S})^2 = \mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})^2 + \mathbf{E}(\hat{S})^2$
- If \mathcal{S} contains constants, $\mathbf{E}(T) = \mathbf{E}(\hat{S})$ and $\text{Var}(T) = \text{Var}(T - \hat{S}) + \text{Var}(\hat{S})$
- So if \mathcal{S} contains constants and \hat{S} and T have the same variance, then $\hat{S} = T$ a.s.
- A similar property holds asymptotically...

Projections and Asymptotics

Consider \mathcal{S}_n a sequence of linear spaces of random variables that contain the constants and that have finite second moments.

Theorem: For T_n with projections \hat{S}_n on \mathcal{S}_n ,

$$\frac{\text{Var}(T_n)}{\text{Var}(\hat{S}_n)} \rightarrow 1 \quad \implies \quad \frac{T_n - \mathbb{E}T_n}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(T_n)}} - \frac{\hat{S}_n - \mathbb{E}\hat{S}_n}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{S}_n)}} \xrightarrow{P} 0$$

Projections and Asymptotics: Proof

Define

$$Z_n = \frac{T_n - \mathbf{E}T_n}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(T_n)}} - \frac{\hat{S}_n - \mathbf{E}\hat{S}_n}{\sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{S}_n)}}$$

Clearly, $\mathbf{E}Z_n = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(Z_n) &= 2 - 2 \frac{\text{Cov}(T_n, \hat{S}_n)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(T_n)}\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{S}_n)}} \\ &= 2 - 2 \frac{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{S}_n)}}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(T_n)}} \rightarrow 0\end{aligned}$$

where the second equality is because \mathcal{S} contains constants, so $\text{Cov}(T_n - \hat{S}_n, \hat{S}_n) = 0$, hence $\text{Cov}(T_n, \hat{S}_n) = \text{Var}(\hat{S}_n)$.

Linear Spaces

■ What linear spaces should we project onto? We need a rich space, since we have to lose nothing asymptotically when we project.

■ We'll consider the space of functions of a single random variable. Then projection corresponds to computing conditional expectations. Just as $EX = \arg \min_{a \in \mathbb{R}} E(X - a)^2$

$$E[X|Y] = \arg \min_{g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} E(X - g(Y))^2$$

This is the projection of X onto the linear space \mathcal{S} of measurable functions of Y .

Conditional Expectations as Projections

The projection theorem says: for all measurable g ,

$$\mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}[X|Y])g(Y) = 0$$

Properties of $\mathbf{E}[X|Y]$:

- $\mathbf{E}X = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}[X|Y]$ (consider $g=1$)
- For a joint density $f(x, y)$

$$\mathbf{E}[X|Y] = \int x \frac{f(x, Y)}{f(Y)} dx$$

- For independent X, Y , $\mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}X)g(Y) = 0$, so $\mathbf{E}[X|Y] = \mathbf{E}X$

Conditional Expectations as Projections

Properties of $E[X|Y]$:

- $E[f(Y)X|Y] = f(Y)E[X|Y]$ (Because $E[f(Y)X - f(Y)E[X|Y]]g(Y) = E[X - E[X|Y]]f(Y)g(Y) = 0$.)
- $E[E[X|Y, Z]|Y] = E[X|Y]$ (Because $E(E[X|Y, Z] - E[X|Y])g(Y) = E(E[g(Y)X|Y, Z] - E[g(Y)X|Y]) = 0$.)

Definition: For independent random vectors X_1, \dots, X_n , the Hájek projection of a random variable is its projection onto the set of sums

$$\sum_{i=1}^n g_i(X_i)$$

$\sum_{i=1}^n g_i(X_i)$ of measurable functions satisfying $E g_i(X_i)^2 < \infty$

Hájek Projections

Theorem: [Hájek projection principle:] The Hájek projection of $T \in L_2(P)$ is

$$\hat{S} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}[T|X_i] - (n-1)\mathbf{E}T$$

Hájek Projections Principle: Proof

From the projection theorem, we need to check that $T - \hat{S}$ is orthogonal to each $g_i(X_i)$. It suffices if $\mathbf{E}[T|X_i] = \mathbf{E}[\hat{S}|X_i]$:

$$\mathbf{E}(T - \hat{S})g_i(X_i) = \mathbf{E}\left(\mathbf{E}[T - \hat{S}|X_i] g_i(X_i)\right)$$

But

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}[\hat{S}|X_i] &= \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{E}[T|X_j] - (n-1)\mathbf{E}T|X_i\right] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[T|X_i] + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{E}[T|X_j]|X_i] - (n-1)\mathbf{E}T \\ &= \mathbf{E}[T|X_i]\end{aligned}$$

because the X_i are independent, so $T - \hat{S}$ is orthogonal to \mathcal{S} .

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics

Theorem: If $Eh^2 < \infty$, define \hat{U} as the Hájek projection of $U - \theta$. Then

$$\hat{U} = \frac{r}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h_1(X_i),$$

with

$$h_1(x) = Eh(x, X_2, \dots, X_r) - \theta$$

$$\sqrt{n}(U - \theta - \hat{U}) \xrightarrow{P} 0,$$

$$\sqrt{n}(U - \theta) \rightsquigarrow N(0, r^2 \zeta_1), \quad \text{where}$$

$$\zeta_1 = Eh_1^2(X_1)$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Proof

Recall:

$$U = \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}} \sum_{j \subseteq [n]} h(X_{j_1}, \dots, X_{j_r})$$

By the Hájek projection principle, the projection of $U - \theta$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{U} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}[U - \theta | X_i] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\binom{n}{r}} \sum_{j \subseteq [n]} \mathbf{E}[h(X_{j_1}, \dots, X_{j_r}) - \theta | X_i]\end{aligned}$$

But

$$\mathbf{E}[h(X_{j_1}, \dots, X_{j_r}) - \theta | X_i] = \begin{cases} h_1(X_i) & \text{if } i \in j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Proof

For each X_i , there are $\binom{n-1}{r-1}$ of the $\binom{n}{r}$ subsets that contain i . Thus,

$$\hat{U} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{r!(n-r)!(n-1)!}{n!(r-1)!(n-r)!} h_1(X_i) = \frac{r}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h_1(X_i)$$

To see that \hat{U} has the same asymptotics as U , notice that $E\hat{U} = 0$ and so its variance is asymptotically the same as that of U :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var } \hat{U} &= \frac{r^2}{n} E h_1^2(X_1) = \frac{r^2}{n} E (E[h(X_1^r) | X_1] - \theta)^2 \\ &= \frac{r^2}{n} \text{Var}(E[h(X_1^r) | X_1]) = \frac{r^2}{n} \zeta_1 \end{aligned}$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Proof

CLT (and finiteness of $\text{Var}(\hat{U})$) implies $\sqrt{n}\hat{U} \rightsquigarrow N(0, r^2\zeta_1)$

Also [recall that $n \text{Var } U \rightarrow r^2\zeta_1$, $\text{Var } \hat{U} / \text{Var } U \rightarrow 1$, so

$$\frac{U - \theta}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(U)}} - \frac{\hat{U}}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{U})}} \xrightarrow{P} 0$$

which implies $\sqrt{n}(U - \theta - \hat{U}) \xrightarrow{P} 0$, and hence

$$\sqrt{n}(U - \theta) \rightsquigarrow N(0, r^2\zeta_1)$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Examples

Estimator of variance: $h(X_1, X_2) = (1/2)(X_1 - X_2)^2$:

$$\zeta_1 = \frac{1}{4} (\mu_4 - \sigma^4)$$

where $\mu_4 = E((X_1 - \mu)^4)$ is the 4 th central moment. So $n \text{Var}(U) \rightarrow \mu_4 - \sigma^4$, hence $\sqrt{n}(U - \sigma^2) \rightsquigarrow N(0, \mu_4 - \sigma^4)$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Examples

Recall Kendall's τ : For a random pair $P_1 = (X_1, Y_1), P_2 = (X_2, Y_2)$ of points in the plane, if X, Y are independent and continuous [recall: $P_1 P_2$ is the line from P_1 to P_2]

$$h(P_1, P_2) = (1 [P_1 P_2 \text{ has positive slope}] - 1 [P_1 P_2 \text{ has negative slope}])$$

$$E\tau = 0$$

$$\zeta_1 = \text{Cov}(h(P_1, P_2), h(P_1, P_3)) = \frac{1}{9}$$

Thus $\sqrt{n}U \rightsquigarrow N(0, 4/9)$. And this gives a test for independence of X and Y :

$$\Pr\left(\sqrt{9n/4}|\tau| > z_{\alpha/2}\right) \rightarrow \alpha$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Examples

Recall Wilcoxon's one sample rank statistic:

$$\begin{aligned} T^+ &= \sum_{i=1}^n R_i 1 [X_i > 0] \\ &= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}} \sum_{i < j} h_2 (X_i, X_j) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_i h_1 (X_i) \end{aligned}$$

$$h_2 (X_i, X_j) = \binom{n}{2} 1 [X_i + X_j > 0]$$

$$h_1 (X_i) = n 1 [X_i > 0]$$

where R_i is the rank (position when $|X_1|, \dots, |X_n|$ are arranged in ascending order). It's used to test if the distribution is symmetric about zero.

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Examples

It's a sum of U-statistics. The first sum dominates the asymptotics. So consider

$$U = \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}} \sum_{i < j} \binom{n}{2} 1[X_i + X_j > 0]$$

The Hájek projection of $U - \theta$ is

$$\hat{U} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h_1(X_i)$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Examples

and

$$\begin{aligned}h_1(x) &= \text{E}h(x, X_2) - \text{E}h(X_1, X_2) \\&= \binom{n}{2} (P(x + X_2 > 0) - P(X_1 + X_2 > 0)) \\&= -\binom{n}{2} (F(-x) - \text{E}F(-X_1))\end{aligned}$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Examples

For F symmetric about 0, ($F(x) = 1 - F(-x)$), we have

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{U} &= -\frac{2\binom{n}{2}}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (F(-X_i) - \mathbb{E}F(-X_i)) \\ &= \frac{2\binom{n}{2}}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (F(X_i) - \mathbb{E}F(X_i))\end{aligned}$$

But $F(X_i)$ is always uniform on $[0, 1]$, and so $\mathbb{E}F(X_i) = 1/2$ and $\text{Var } F(X_i) = 1/12$. Thus,

$$\text{Var}(\hat{U}) = \frac{4\binom{n}{2}^2}{n} \text{Var}(F(X_i)) = \frac{n(n-1)^2}{12}$$

Asymptotic Normality of U-Statistics: Examples

Thus, for symmetric distributions,

$$n^{-3/2} \left(T^+ - \frac{\binom{n}{2}}{2} \right) \rightsquigarrow N(0, 1/12)$$

So we have a test for symmetry:

$$Pr \left(\sqrt{12}n^{-3/2} \left| T^+ - \frac{\binom{n}{2}}{2} \right| > z_{\alpha/2} \right) \rightarrow \alpha$$