Notation and Basic Facts

EMALCA 2025: High-dimensional Statistics

Class of June 30

General Notation

- 1. For sequences of real numbers a_n and b_n we write $a_n = O(b_n)$ if $a_n \leq Cb_n$ for all n and for some constant C > 0. An equivalent notation is sometimes used and this is expressed as $a_n \lesssim b_n$.
- 2. The ℓ_p for p > 0 norm in \mathbb{R}^d is defined as $\|v\|_p = (\sum_{i=1}^d v_i^p)^{1/p}$ for $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$. When the context is clear, sometimes for the case p = 2 we drop the index p and simply denote the resulting norm as $\|v\|$. The ℓ_∞ norm of a vector is defined as

$$||x||_{\infty} := \max_{i=1,\dots,d} |x_i|$$

for $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Furthermore, for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $p \in (0, \infty]$, the triangle inequality holds:

$$||a+b||_p \le ||a||_p + ||b||_p.$$

3. For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ its Frobenius norm is defined as

$$||A||_F := \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m A_{i,j}^2},$$

where $A_{i,j}$ is the entry in the *i*th row and *j*th column of A.

4. Throughout, we think of vectors as column vectors, thus $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ means

$$x = \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{array}\right)$$

and $x^{\top} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. The inner product in \mathbb{R}^n is written as

$$x^{\top}y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i, \quad \forall \ x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

1

though sometimes we denote this as $\langle x, y \rangle$.

5. For an event A_n depending on n, we say that A_n holds with high probability if

$$a_n := \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}_n)$$

satisfies $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 1$.

- 6. For a collection of vectors $v_1, \ldots, v_n \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, the notation span $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ refers to the vector subspace generated by v_1, \ldots, v_n .
- 7. For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we define its kernel as

$$Ker(A) := \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n : Av = 0 \}.$$

The column space of is defined as

$$C(A) := \{ w \in \mathbb{R}^m : w = Av \text{ for some } v \in \mathbb{R}^n \}.$$

8. For a function $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, the notation

$$x_0 = \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{C}} f(x)$$

indicates that $f(x_0) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{C}$.

- 9. For a vector $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $S \subset \{1, ..., n\}$, we denote the vector $\theta_S \in \mathbb{R}^{|S|}$ as the subvector of θ obtained by only keeping the entries corresponding to S. For instance, for $\theta = (1, 4, 5, 6)^{\top}$ and $S = \{1, 3\}$, we have that $\theta_S = (1, 5)^{\top}$.
- 10. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, denote $[n] := \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Random Variables

- 1. Let X be a continuous random variable (r.v.) $-\infty < X < \infty$.
- 2. The function f(x) is the so called probability density function (pdf) if
 - a) $f(x) \ge 0$
 - b) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$,
 - c) $\mathbb{P}(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$, $\mathbb{P}(X < b) = \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$, $\mathbb{P}(a < X) = \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$.

Note that for a continuous random variable

$$\mathbb{P}(X \le a) = \mathbb{P}(X < a),$$

but this is not true for a discrete random variable.

3. Cumulative distribution function (cdf):

$$F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x).$$

Also,

$$F'(x) = f(x).$$

4. Compute probabilities using cdf:

$$\mathbb{P}(a < X < b) = \mathbb{P}(X \le b) - \mathbb{P}(X \le a) = F(b) - F(a).$$

5. Mean of a continuous r.v.

$$\mu := E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx.$$

6. For a random variable X with pdf f and a function g, we have that

$$E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx.$$

7. Variance of continuous r.v.

$$Var(X) := E((X - \mu)^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \mu^2.$$

Sometimes we denote $\sigma^2 = Var(X)$.

8. Some properties. Let a and b be constants and X, Y r.v. When the quantities exist, we have that:

a)
$$E(X + a) = a + E(X)$$
.

b)
$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$$
.

c)
$$var(X + a) = var(X)$$
.

d)
$$var(aX) = a^2 var(X)$$
.

e) If X and Y are independent then

$$var(X + Y) = var(X) + var(Y).$$

9. If X is a continuous non-negative random variable, then

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(X \ge u) du.$$

10. For a collection of events A_1, \ldots, A_n the union bound inequality states that:

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \ldots \cup A_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i).$$

11. The moment generating function of random variable X is defined as

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}(\exp(tX)).$$

Informal: Therefore, If X is discrete

$$M_X(t) = \sum_x e^{tx} P(x).$$

If X is continuous

$$M_X(t) = \int_x e^{tx} f(x) dx.$$

Aside

$$e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Similarly,

$$e^{tx} = 1 + \frac{tx}{1!} + \frac{(tx)^2}{2!} + \frac{(tx)^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Let X be a discrete random variable. Then

$$\mathbb{E}(e^{tX}) = \sum_{x} e^{tx} P(x) = \sum_{x} \left[1 + \frac{tx}{1!} + \frac{(tx)^2}{2!} + \frac{(tx)^3}{3!} + \dots \right] P(x).$$

Or

$$M_x(t) = \sum_x P(x) + \frac{t}{1!} \sum_x xP(x) + \frac{t^2}{2!} \sum_x x^2 P(x) + \dots$$

To find the kth moment simply evaluate the kth derivative of the $M_X(t)$ at t=0. Thus

$$\mathbb{E}(X^k) = M_X^{(k)}(0).$$

For example: since

$$M_x(t) = \sum_x P(x) + \frac{t}{1!} \sum_x x P(x) + \frac{t^2}{2!} \sum_x x^2 P(x) + \dots,$$

first moment:

$$M'_X(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\sum_x P(x) \right) + \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{t}{1!} \sum_x x P(x) \right) + \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{t^2}{2!} \sum_x x^2 P(x) \right) + \dots$$
$$= \sum_x x P(x) + \frac{2t}{2!} \sum_x x^2 P(x) + \dots$$

This implies

$$M_X'(0) = \mathbb{E}(X).$$

Similarly, for the second moment

$$M_X''(t) = \sum_x x^2 P(x) + \frac{6t}{3!} \sum_x x^3 P(x) + \dots$$

Therefore,

$$M_X''(0) = \mathbb{E}(X^2).$$

Example: Poisson. Suppose that $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. Then

$$M_X(t) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{tx} \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

$$= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{tx} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{(e^t \lambda)^x}{x!}$$

$$= \exp(-\lambda) \exp(e^t \lambda)$$

$$= \exp(-\lambda + e^t \lambda).$$

12. Central Limit Theorem:

Lindeberg–Lévy CLT—Suppose $X_1,X_2,X_3\dots$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with $\mathrm{E}[X_i]=\mu$ and $\mathrm{Var}[X_i]=\sigma^2<\infty$. Then, as n approaches infinity, the random variables $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-\mu)$ converge in distribution to a normal $\mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2)$: $^{[4]}$

$$\sqrt{n}\left(ar{X}_n-\mu
ight)\stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow}\mathcal{N}\left(0,\sigma^2
ight).$$