

# APMA 1740: Recent Applications of Probability and Statistics

Milan Capoor

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## 0.1 Jan 22

### 0.1.1 Maximum Entropy Principle

**A strange though experiment of Gibbs:** Imagine a physical system  $S$  (say a gas) in an “infinite bath”. Let  $x$  be the state of every particle (positions, velocities, ...) in  $S$ .

For simplicity, let  $S$  be 3 particles in  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  with  $x \in \mathbb{Z}^6$  being the positions. Let  $s$  be the number of states of particles in  $S$ .

*What is  $p(x)$ , the probability that  $S$  has state  $x$ ?*

In the simplest case (each particle is independent and the state distribution is uniform), we trivially have  $P(x) = \frac{1}{s}$ . But in general, these are incredibly strong assumptions.

We can create some constraints to do better.

1. Assume that the average kinetic energy  $\mathcal{E}$  of the infinite heat bath is some constant  $\theta$ .

In this case, we expect the average kinetic energy of  $S$  is approximately  $\theta$ :

$$\sum_x p(x) \mathcal{E}(x) = \theta$$

2. Trivially,  $p$  is a probability distribution, so

$$\sum_x p(x) = 1$$

But still this is far from enough: this gives us only 2 constraints for  $s$  many unknowns!

However, we can approximate with the LLN. Sample  $n \gg s \gg 1$  iid copies of  $S$ ,  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$  with positions  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .

Define the **empirical distribution**

$$\hat{p}_x = \frac{\#\{i : X_i = x\}}{n}$$

So with large  $n$ ,  $\hat{p} = p$ , and

$$\sum_x \hat{p}(x) \mathcal{E}(x) \approx \theta$$

*Claim:* The vast majority of assignments of states to  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  yield a single empirical distribution  $\hat{p}$ .

Consider  $C(\hat{p})$ , the number of ways to assign a state to each of  $n$  systems that would yield  $\hat{p}$ . Then, with  $\hat{n}_x = \hat{p}_x \cdot n = \#\{i : X_i = x\}$ ,

$$C(\hat{p}) = \binom{n}{\prod_{i=1}^s \hat{n}_i}$$

## 0.2 Jan 24

**Recall:** For a system  $S$  with  $s$  states, what is the probability  $p(x)$  that  $S$  is in state  $x$ ?

We know that  $\sum_{x=1}^s p(x) = 1$  and  $\sum_{x=1}^s p(x) \mathcal{E}(x) = \theta$  for some constant  $\theta$ .

We sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  iid from  $S$  ( $n \gg s \gg 1$ ) and define the empirical distribution  $\hat{p}_x = \frac{\#\{i: X_i=x\}}{n}$ . By LLN,  $\hat{p} \approx p$ .

**Claim:**  $\hat{p}$  should maximize  $C(\hat{p})$ , the number of arrangements of  $n$  states  $\{1, \dots, s\}$  that yield  $\hat{p}$ :

$$C(\hat{p}) = \binom{n}{\hat{p}_1 n \dots \hat{p}_s n} = \frac{n!}{(\hat{p}_1 n)! \dots (\hat{p}_s n)!}$$

where  $\hat{p}_i n$  is the number of times we see state  $i$  in the sample.

*Example:* For  $s = 2$ , put  $n$  balls into 2 bins  $\{1, 2\}$ . Then  $\hat{p}_1 n = a$  balls in bin 1,  $\hat{p}_2 n = n - a$  balls in bin 2. We write this

$$C(\hat{p}) = \binom{n}{a} = \binom{n}{a, n-a} = \frac{n!}{a!(n-a)!}$$

**Stirling's Approximation:**

$$k! \approx \frac{k^k}{e^k} \sqrt{2\pi k}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} C(\hat{p}) &= \frac{n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi n}}{\prod_{i=1}^s (\hat{p}_i n)^{\hat{p}_i n} e^{-\hat{p}_i n} \sqrt{2\pi \hat{p}_i n}} \\ \log C(\hat{p}) &= n \log n - n + \log \sqrt{2\pi n} - \sum_{i=1}^s \left[ \hat{p}_i n \log(\hat{p}_i n) - \hat{p}_i n + \log \sqrt{2\pi n} \right] \\ \frac{1}{n} \log C(\hat{p}) &= \log n - 1 + \frac{1}{n} \log \sqrt{2\pi n} - \sum_{i=1}^s \left[ \hat{p}_i \log(\hat{p}_i n) - \hat{p}_i + \frac{1}{n} \log \sqrt{2\pi n} \right] \\ &= \log n - \frac{1}{n} \log \sqrt{2\pi n} - \sum_{i=1}^s \left[ \hat{p}_i \log(\hat{p}_i) + \frac{1}{n} \log \sqrt{2\pi n} \right] \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^s \hat{p}_i \log \hat{p}_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^s \log \sqrt{2\pi \hat{p}_i n} + \frac{1}{n} \log \sqrt{2\pi n} \end{aligned}$$

Since,  $\hat{p}_i \leq 1$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \log \sqrt{2\pi \hat{p}_i n} \leq \log n$ . Further,  $\frac{\log n}{n} \rightarrow 0$  so

$$\frac{1}{n} \log C(\hat{p}) \approx - \sum \hat{p}_i \log \hat{p}_i$$

**Definition:** If  $p$  is a probability distribution, its **Shannon Entropy** is

$$H(p) = \sum p(x) \log \frac{1}{p(x)} = - \sum p(x) \log p(x)$$

*Note:*  $H(p) \geq 0$  since  $p(x) \leq 1$  for all  $p$ .

Back to our original problem, we seek  $\hat{p}$  that satisfies

- $\sum_{x=1}^s \hat{p}_x = 1$
- $\sum_{x=1}^s \hat{p}_x \mathcal{E}(x) \approx \theta$
- $\hat{p}$  maximizes  $C(\hat{p})$ , i.e. maximizes Shannon Entropy  $H(\hat{p})$

We turn to our trusty friend, Lagrange multipliers. We seek to choose  $p$  to maximize

$$H(p) + \gamma \sum_{x=1}^s p_x + \lambda \sum_{x=1}^s p_x \mathcal{E}(x)$$

Taking derivatives WRT  $p_x$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left[ H(p) + \gamma \sum_{x=1}^s p_x + \lambda \sum_{x=1}^s p_x \mathcal{E}(x) \right] &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left[ - \sum_x p_x \log p_x \right] + \gamma + \lambda \mathcal{E}(x) \\ &= - \log p_x - 1 + \gamma + \lambda \mathcal{E}(x) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So  $\gamma + \lambda \mathcal{E}(x) - 1 = \log p(x)$  and

$$\begin{aligned} p(x) &= e^{-1} e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)} e^{\gamma + \lambda \mathcal{E}(x)} \\ &= \frac{1}{z_\lambda} e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)} \end{aligned}$$

where  $Z_\lambda = \sum_{x=1}^s e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)}$ .

To find  $\lambda$ , we use the constraint  $\sum p_x \mathcal{E}(x) \theta$ .

## 0.3 Jan 27

**Example:** Find the maximum entropy distribution  $p$  on  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  (i.e.  $s = 3$ ) satisfying  $\mathbb{E}_p X^2 = 2$ , i.e.  $\sum_{x=1}^s p_x x^2 = 2$ .

Since  $\mathbb{E}_p X^2 = \sum_{x=1}^s p(x) x^2 = 2$ ,  $\mathcal{E}(x) = x^2$ ,

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)} = \frac{1}{Z} e^{\lambda x^2}, \quad x = 1, 2, 3$$

We need to find  $Z, \lambda$  satisfying

- $\mathbb{E}_p X^2 = 2$
- $\sum p_x = 1$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{Z} [e^\lambda + 4e^{4\lambda} + 9e^{9\lambda}] = 2 \\ \frac{1}{Z} [e^\lambda + e^{4\lambda} + e^{9\lambda}] = 1 \end{cases} &\implies Z = e^\lambda + e^{4\lambda} + e^{9\lambda} \\ &\implies e^\lambda + 4e^{4\lambda} + 9e^{9\lambda} = 2(e^\lambda + e^{4\lambda} + e^{9\lambda}) \\ &\implies e^\lambda - 2e^{4\lambda} - 7e^{9\lambda} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We can solve for  $\lambda$  with any numeric method.

### 0.3.1 Maximum Entropy Principle in the Continuum

**Definition:** Let  $p$  be a PDF. Its **entropy** is defined as

$$H(p) = - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) \log p(x) dx$$

**Example (MEP with multiple constraints):** Find  $p$  that maximizes  $H(p)$  subject to

$$\begin{cases} \sum p_x \mathcal{E}_1(x) = \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \sum p_x \mathcal{E}_k(x) = \theta_k \\ \sum p_x = 1 \end{cases}$$

Our Lagrange multipliers are given by

$$\max \left[ H(p) + \lambda_1 \sum p_x \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \lambda_2 \sum p_x \mathcal{E}_2(x) + \cdots + \lambda_k \sum p_x \mathcal{E}_k(x) + \gamma \sum p_x \right]$$

Taking derivatives WRT  $p_x$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} H(p) &= -\log p_x - 1 + \lambda_1 \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \cdots + \lambda_k \mathcal{E}_k(x) + \gamma = 0 \\ \implies p_x &= \frac{1}{Z} \exp [\lambda_1 \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \cdots + \lambda_k \mathcal{E}_k(x)] \end{aligned}$$

The rest follows as before.

**Example:** Find the max entropy density subject to  $\mathbb{E}_p X^2 = 1$  and  $\mathbb{E}_p X = 0$ .

In this case,

$$p_x = \frac{1}{Z} \exp [\lambda_1 \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \lambda_2 \mathcal{E}_2(x)]$$

where

$$\mathcal{E}_1(x) = x^2, \quad \mathcal{E}_2(x) = x$$

Hence, we have constraints

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{Z} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 x} x^2 dx \right] = 1 \\ \frac{1}{Z} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 x} x dx \right] = 0 \\ \frac{1}{Z} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 x} dx \right] = 1 \end{cases}$$

We can complete the square to get the integrals in the forms of a Gaussian:

$$\frac{1}{Z} e^{\lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 x} = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left[ \lambda_1 \left( x - \frac{\lambda_2}{2\lambda_1} \right)^2 \right] \sim N\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{2\lambda_1}, \frac{-1}{2\lambda_1}\right)$$

But we have mean 0 and variance 1 so

$$\frac{\lambda_2}{2\lambda_1} = 0 \implies \lambda_2 = 0, \quad -\frac{1}{2\lambda_1} = 1 \implies \lambda_1 = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$Z$  follows from simply computing

$$Z = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(\lambda_1 x^2 + \lambda_2 x) dx$$

### 0.3.2 Large Deviation Principle

**Large Deviation Principle:** Take  $p$  on  $\{1, 2, \dots, s\}$ ,  $\mathcal{E} : \{1, \dots, s\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Observe  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p$ . Define

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \mathcal{E}(X_k) = \theta$$

. Define the empirical distribution  $\hat{p}_x = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \#\{i : X_i = x\}$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}} \mathcal{E}(X) = \theta$

*Proof:*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}} \mathcal{E}(X) &= \sum_{x=1}^s \hat{p}_x \mathcal{E}(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{x=1}^s \mathcal{E}(x) \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{X_i=x} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{x=1}^s \mathbb{1}_{X_i=x} \cdot \mathcal{E}(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{E}(X_i) = \theta \end{aligned}$$

Let  $q$  be some probability distribution on  $\{1, \dots, s\}$ . What is  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q)$ ?

Recall that the  $C(\hat{p})$  function gave the number of ways to assign a state to each of  $n$  systems that would yield  $\hat{p}$ . Similarly, here we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q) = \binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_s} \prod_{x=1}^s p_x^{q_x \cdot n}$$

**Example:** Take  $X_1, X_2 \sim p$ . Let  $q = \frac{1}{2}\delta_{\{1\}} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{\{2\}}$ . What is  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q)$ ?

1. How many ways can we sample 5 and 1 from  $X_1, X_2$ ? Two ways: (1, 5) or (5, 1).
2. Now what is the probability  $X_1 = 1, X_2 = 5$ ? This is  $p_1 p_5$ . Similarly,  $\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 5, X_2 = 1) = p_5 p_1$ .

Hence,  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q) = 2p_1 p_5$ .

## 0.4 Jan 29

### 0.4.1 Relative Entropy Function

**Motivation:**

- $p$  a PMF  $\{1, \dots, s\}$
- $\mathcal{E} : \{1, \dots, s\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  an energy function
- $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p$
- $\hat{p}$  the empirical distribution,  $\hat{p}_x = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \#\{i : X_i = x\}$

*Question:* what does  $\hat{p}$  look like?

Let  $q$  be a given PMF on  $\{1, \dots, s\}$ .

**Heuristic:**  $\frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q) \approx -D(q \parallel p)$

**Remark:** We have to be careful about this approximation. Indeed, it holds under LLN for  $q = p$  and since we can approximate  $p$  via an arbitrary distribution, it holds in general under certain conditions. However, we could easily construct a pathological example:

- $p = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3})$
- $q = (\frac{1}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{K}, \frac{1}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{K}, \frac{1}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{K})$  for very large  $K$

Now since  $p$  is rational,  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{p}q) = 0$  so  $\frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q) = -\infty$ .

### KL Entropy:

$$D(q \parallel p) = \sum_{x=1}^s q_x \log \frac{q_x}{p_x}$$

measures how close  $q$  is to  $p$ .

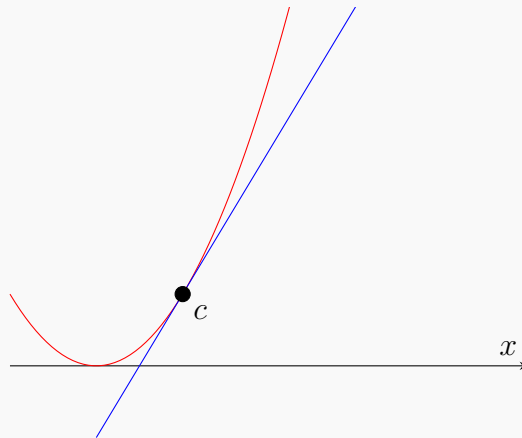
**Jensen's Inequality:** For every  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  convex,

$$\mathbb{E}g(X) \geq g(\mathbb{E}X)$$

*Special Case:*  $\mathbb{E}(X^2) \geq (\mathbb{E}X)^2$

*Proof:* Consider the tangent line to  $g$  at  $c = \mathbb{E}X$ :  $y = g'(c)(x - c) + g(c)$ .

By convexity,  $g(x) \geq g(c) + g'(c)(x - c)$  for all  $x$ .



Hence,

$$\mathbb{E}g(X) \geq \mathbb{E}g'(c)(X - c) + \mathbb{E}g(c) = g'(c)(\mathbb{E}X - c) + g(c) = g(c) = g(\mathbb{E}X)$$

### Properties of KL Entropy:

1.  $D(q \parallel p) \geq 0$
2.  $D(q \parallel p) = 0 \iff q = p$

*Proof:*

1.

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(q \parallel p) &= \sum_{x=1}^s q_x \log \frac{q_x}{p_x} \\
 &= \mathbb{E}_q \log \frac{q(X)}{p(X)} \\
 &= -\mathbb{E}_q \log \frac{p(X)}{q(X)} \\
 &= -\mathbb{E}_q \log Y
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $Y = \frac{p_x}{q_x}$ . Define  $g(y) = -\log y$ .

Note  $g$  is convex:  $g''(y) = \frac{1}{y^2} > 0$ . Hence, by Jensen's inequality,

$$\mathbb{E}g(Y) \geq g(\mathbb{E}Y) = -\log(\mathbb{E}Y) = -\log\left(\mathbb{E}_q \frac{p_x}{q_x}\right) = -\log\left(\underbrace{\sum_{x=1}^s q_x \frac{p_x}{q_x}}_{\sum p_x \leq 1}\right) \geq 0$$

2. For  $Y = \frac{p_x}{q_x}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}Y = \sum q_x \frac{p_x}{q_x} = 1 \implies Y = \mathbb{E}Y \text{ a.s.} \implies \frac{p_x}{q_x} = 1 \text{ a.s.} \implies p_x = q_x \quad \forall x \text{ a.s.}$$

**Another Heuristic:**

$$\frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(\hat{q} = q) \approx -D(q \parallel p) = -\sum q_x \log \frac{q_x}{p_x}$$

Find

$$q = \arg \max_{\sum q_x \mathcal{E}(x) = \theta} (-D(q \parallel p))$$

using Lagrange multipliers

## 0.5 Jan 31

**Recall:**  $D(q \parallel p) = 0$  iff  $p = q$ .

*Proof:*

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(q \parallel p) &= \sum_{x=1}^s q_x \log \frac{p_x}{q_x} \\
 X \sim q &= \mathbb{E}[\log \frac{q_x}{p_x}] = -\mathbb{E}[\log \frac{p_x}{q_x}] \\
 &\stackrel{\text{Jensen}}{\geq} -\log[\mathbb{E} \frac{p_x}{q_x}] \\
 &= -\log[\sum q_x \frac{p_x}{q_x}] = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we get the equality iff  $\mathbb{E}g(Y) = g(\mathbb{E}Y)$  where  $Y = \frac{p_x}{q_x}$  ( $x \sim q$ ) and  $g(Y) = -\log Y$ . ( $g$  is strictly convex, i.e.  $\mathbb{E}g(Y) = g(\mathbb{E}Y)$ , iff  $Y$  is a const a.s.)

But since  $Y = \mathbb{E}Y = 1$ ,  $\frac{p_x}{q_x} = 1 \implies p_x = q_x$  a.s.



Last time, we discussed the cases in which the approximation  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q) \approx D(q \parallel p)$  fails. But why does this happen?

Recall

$$\mathbb{P}(\hat{p} = q) = \binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_s} \prod_i p_i^{n_i}$$

where  $n_i = q_i \cdot n$ .

But this binomial coefficient is well defined only if  $q_i n \in \mathbb{N}$  for all  $i$ . Hence, the approximation only holds for distributions  $q$  with  $q_i \cdot n \in \mathbb{N}$  for all  $i$ .

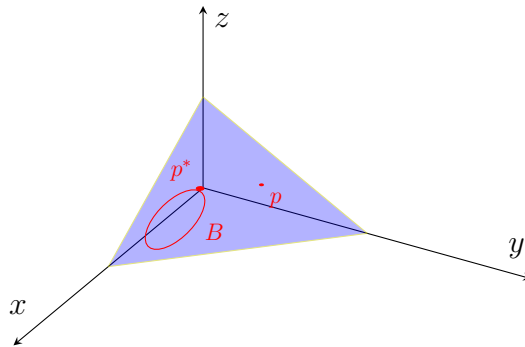
### 0.5.1 Sanov's Theorem

**Motivation:** As usual, let  $p$  be a PMF on  $\{1, \dots, s\}$  and  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p$ . We know that for large  $n$ ,  $\hat{p} \approx p$ . But this relation is only probabilistic. How do we quantify the probability that  $\hat{p}$  is far from  $p$ ?

**Example:** Let  $s = 3$  and say  $\hat{p} = (\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \hat{p}_3) = (a, b, c)$ . Then

$$\begin{cases} a, b, c \geq 0 \\ a + b + c = 1 \end{cases}$$

gives us a triangle in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :



**Sanov's Theorem:** Let  $B$  be an open subset of the space of all PMF on  $\{1, \dots, s\}$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(\hat{p} \in B) = - \inf_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p)$$

Further, if  $p^* = \arg \min_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p)$  is unique, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(\|\hat{p} - p^*\| > \varepsilon \mid \hat{p} \in B) = 0 \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0$$

where  $\|\hat{p} - p^*\|$  is any metric, say  $\|\hat{p} - p^*\| = \max_{x \in \{1, \dots, s\}} |\hat{p}_x - p_x|$

*Proof:*

**Remark:** What if  $p \in B$ ? Then  $\inf_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p) = 0$ , so

$$\frac{1}{n} \log \underbrace{e^{-o(n)}} \mathbb{P}(\hat{p} \in B) = 0$$

## 0.6 Feb 5

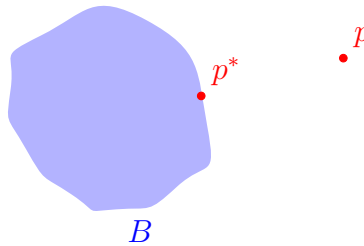
**Recall (Sanov's Theorem):** For  $B$  open,

1.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}(\hat{p}_{x_1, \dots, x_n} \in B) = - \inf_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p)$$

2. If  $\exists! p^* = \arg \min_{q \in \bar{B}} D(q \parallel p)$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(\|\hat{p} - p\| > \varepsilon \mid \hat{p} \in B) = 0 \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0$$



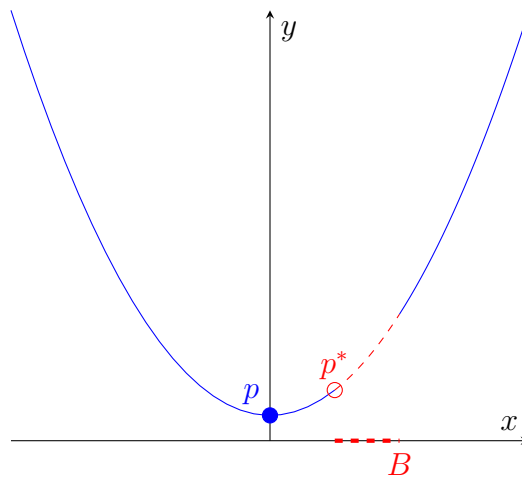
This leads to some interesting questions:

1. Why is  $p^*$  drawn on the boundary?
2. Is there a case when  $p^*$  lies in the interior?

For the second: yes, if  $p \in B$  (in which case  $p$  is the global minimizer of  $D(q \parallel p)$ ).

For the first, it suffices to show that since  $D(q \parallel p)$  is a convex function, on any set  $B$  with  $p \notin B$ , the minimizer  $p^*$  must lie on the boundary.

*Example:*



*Example:*  $B = \{q \mid \exists x : |q_x - p_x| > 0\}$

By Sanov,

$$\mathbb{P}(\hat{p}_n \in B) \approx \exp(-n \inf_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p)) \leq e^{-n/2} < 10\%$$

Now let's prove the claim:

*Proof:*

$$\begin{aligned}
 F(q) &= D(q \parallel p) = \sum q_x \log \frac{p_x}{q_x} \\
 &= \sum q_x \log q_x - \sum q_x \log p_x \\
 \frac{\partial F}{\partial q_x} &= \log q_x + 1 - \log p_x \\
 \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial q_x \partial q_y} &= \begin{cases} 1/q_x & x = y \\ 0 & x \neq y \end{cases} \\
 H &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{q_1} & & & \\ & \frac{1}{q_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \frac{1}{q_s} \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

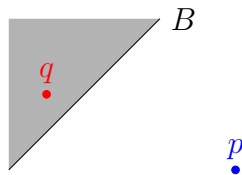
But  $\forall v \in \mathbb{R}^s$ ,  $v^T H v = \sum v_i^2 \frac{1}{q_i} \geq 0 \implies H$  is positive semi-definite. Hence  $F$  is convex.

### 0.6.1 Back to Gibbs' Heat Bath

Recall the original motivating example where  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim p$ , and  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{E}(X_i) = \theta$ .

Previously, we showed that  $\theta = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{E}(X_i) = \mathbb{E}_p[\mathcal{E}(X)]$ .

Now consider the set  $B = \{q \mid \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}(X)] > \theta\}$  and define  $\Omega = \{q : \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}(X)] = \theta\}$ .



Imagine we observe some sample with energy higher than expected (i.e.  $q \in B$ ). What is the probability of this occurring?

By Sanov, in order to find  $\inf_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p)$ , it suffices to find  $p^*$  such that  $D(p^* \parallel p) = \inf_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p)$ .

In the past, we used Lagrange multipliers to confirm our solution is in the **exponential family**

$$p_x^* = \frac{1}{Z_\lambda} p_x \exp(\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)) \quad \forall x$$

for some  $\lambda$ .

*Example of Exponential Family:*  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  has PDF  $\frac{1}{Z} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$

If instead we had many constraints  $\mathbb{E}_p[\mathcal{E}_i(X)] = \theta_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , we found minimizer

$$p^* = \frac{1}{Z_{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_k}} p_x \exp(\lambda_1 \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \dots + \lambda_k \mathcal{E}_k(x))$$

where we found  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$  using Lagrange multipliers to satisfy the constraints and

$$Z_{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_k} = \sum_x p_x \exp(\lambda_1 \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \lambda_k \mathcal{E}_k(x))$$

These must also satisfy:

1.  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_k} \log Z_k = \mathbb{E}_\lambda[\mathcal{E}_k(X)]$
2.  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda_k \partial \lambda_l} \log Z_k = \text{Cov}_\lambda(\mathcal{E}_k(X), \mathcal{E}_l(X)) \quad \forall k, l$
3.  $\log Z_k$  is a convex function of  $\lambda$  and it is strictly convex unless  $\exists \alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_c)$  such that  $\alpha \neq 0$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^c \alpha_k \mathcal{E}_k(x) = \text{const} \quad \forall x$
4.  $\log Z_\lambda - \sum \lambda_k \theta_k$  is convex in  $\lambda$  and minimized when  $\mathbb{E}_\lambda[\mathcal{E}(X)] = \theta_k$

## 0.7 Feb 7

Last time, we defined the set

$$B = \{q : \mathbb{E}_q \mathcal{E}(X) < \theta\}$$

For  $p \notin B$  known, we know that the minimizer  $p^* = \arg \min_{q \in B} D(q \parallel p)$  lies on the boundary of  $B$ ,  $\Omega = \{q : \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}(X)] = \theta\}$ .

Using Lagrange Multipliers, we found

$$p_x^* = \frac{1}{Z_\lambda} p_x e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)} \quad \forall x$$

with

$$Z_\lambda = \sum_{x=1}^s p_x e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)}$$

Now, we want to find  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_s)$  that satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}_{p^*}[\mathcal{E}(X)] = \theta \iff \sum p_x^* \mathcal{E}(x) = \theta \iff \sum \frac{1}{Z_\lambda} p_x e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)} \mathcal{E}(x) = \theta$$

### Proposition:

1.  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_k} \log Z_\lambda = \mathbb{E}_\lambda[\mathcal{E}_k(X)] \quad \forall k = 1, \dots, c$
2.  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda_k \partial \lambda_l} \log Z_\lambda = \text{Cov}_\lambda(\mathcal{E}_k(X), \mathcal{E}_l(X)) \quad \forall k, l$
3.  $\log Z_\lambda$  is convex in  $\lambda$  and, in general, strictly convex (unless the equations  $\{\mathbb{E}_{p^*} \mathcal{E}_k(X) = \theta_k\}_{k=1}^c$  are redundant, i.e.  $\exists b_1, \dots, b_c \neq (0, \dots, 0)$ )
4. Assuming (3), the function

$$\log Z_\lambda - \sum_{k=1}^c \lambda_k \theta_k$$

is in general strictly convex and is minimized when

$$\mathbb{E}_\lambda[\mathcal{E}_k(X)] = \theta_k \quad \forall k$$

(i.e. at exactly the  $\lambda$  that we need to find)

*Proof:*

1.

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_k} \log Z_\lambda &= \frac{1}{Z_\lambda} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_k} Z_\lambda \\
&= \frac{1}{Z_\lambda} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_k} \left[ \sum p_x e^{\lambda_1 \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \dots + \lambda_c \mathcal{E}_c(x)} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{Z_\lambda} \cdot \sum_x p_x e^{\lambda_1 \mathcal{E}_1(x) + \dots + \lambda_c \mathcal{E}_c(x)} \cdot \mathcal{E}_k(x) \\
&= \frac{1}{Z_\lambda} \cdot \sum_x p_x \mathcal{E}_k(x) e^{\lambda \mathcal{E}(x)} \\
&= \sum_x p_x^* \mathcal{E}_k(x) \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{p^*}[\mathcal{E}_k(X)] = \mathbb{E}_\lambda[\mathcal{E}_k(X)]
\end{aligned}$$

**Remark:** We write  $\mathbb{E}_\lambda$  instead of  $\mathbb{E}_{p^*}$  just to emphasize that this is a function of  $\lambda$

**Exercise:** Email the proof to oanh\_nguyen1@brown.edu for bonus points.

2.

*Proof:* In part 1, we showed that  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_k} \log Z_\lambda = \mathbb{E}_\lambda[\mathcal{E}_k(X)]$ . Hence, it suffices now to show

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_l} \mathbb{E}_\lambda[\mathcal{E}_k(X)] = \text{Cov}_\lambda(\mathcal{E}_k(X), \mathcal{E}_l(X))$$

TODO

3.

$$H(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_c) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda_k \partial \lambda_l} \log Z_\lambda \right)_{c \times c}$$

We need to show  $\forall v \neq \vec{0}$ ,

$$v^T H v = \sum_{k,l} v_k v_l H_{kl} \geq 0 \implies \log_Z \text{ convex}$$

But

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum v_k v_l H_{kl} &= \sum v_k v_l \text{Cov}(\mathcal{E}_k(X), \mathcal{E}_l(X)) \\
&= \text{Var} \left( \sum v_k \mathcal{E}_k(X) \right) \geq 0
\end{aligned}$$

since

$$\sum v_k v_l \text{Cov}(Y_k, T_l) = \text{Var} \left( \sum v_k y_k \right)$$

## 0.8 Feb 10

Let  $B = \{q : \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}(X)] < \theta\}$ . Suppose we have two constraints

- $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}}[\mathcal{E}_1(X)] = \theta_1$
- $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}}[\mathcal{E}_2(X)] = \theta_2$

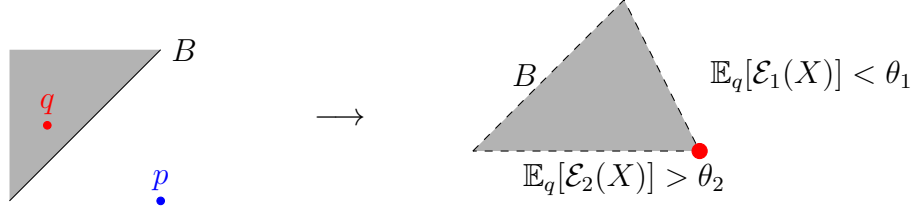
and we know

- $\mathbb{E}_p[\mathcal{E}_1(X)] > \theta_1$
- $\mathbb{E}_p[\mathcal{E}_2(X)] > \theta_2$

Then we can tighten

$$B = \{q : \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}_1(X)] < \theta_1, \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}_2(X)] > \theta_2\}$$

which updates our partition of the space from:



which tells us

$$\Omega = \{q : \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}_1(X)] = \theta_1, \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}_2(X)] = \theta_2\}$$

We already know what to do if  $p^* \in \Omega$ , so consider just one constraint:

$$\mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}_2(X)] = \theta_2$$

We can easily find  $p_2^*$  WRT this constraint:

$$\begin{aligned} B_2 &= \{q : \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}_2(X)] > \theta_2\} \\ \Omega_2 &= \{q : \mathbb{E}_q[\mathcal{E}_2(X)] = \theta_2\} p_2^* \end{aligned} \quad = \arg \min_{q \in \Omega_2} D(q \parallel p)$$

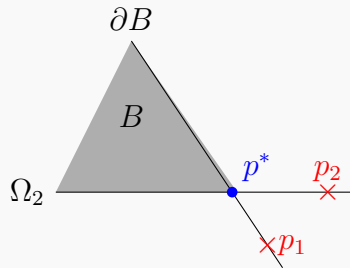
Further, we know if  $p_2^* \in \overline{B}$ , then  $p^* = p_2^*$  and we are done.

Otherwise, we can just try again using the first constraint to find  $p_1^*$ . If  $p_1^* \in \overline{B}$ , then  $p^* = p_1^*$  and we are done.

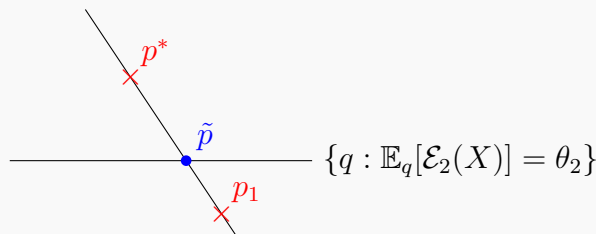
What if we get unlucky both times and  $p_1^*, p_2^* \notin \overline{B}$ ?

**Claim:** Because of convexity, if  $p_1^*, p_2^* \notin \overline{B}$ , then  $p^* \in \Omega$

*Proof:*



WLOG,  $p^* \in \Omega_1$  so let  $\tilde{p} = [p^*, p_1^*] \cap \Omega \implies \tilde{p} \in \Omega$ .



Then the  $\tilde{p}$  should have been  $p^*$  (contradiction.)

Or

$$\tilde{p} = \lambda p^* + (1 - \lambda) p_{\perp}^* \quad \lambda(0, 1)$$

so

$$D(\tilde{p} \parallel p) \leq \lambda D(p^* \parallel p) + (1 - \lambda) D(p_{\perp}^* \parallel p)$$

but  $D(p^* \parallel p)$  and  $D(p_{\perp}^* \parallel p)$  are the smallest among the points while  $D(\tilde{p} \parallel p)$  should be the largest. Contradiction.

## 0.8.1 Information Point of View for Shannon Entropy

In the following section, let  $\log = \log_2$

Here, **Shannon Entropy** “measures the minimal number of bits needed to encode a message optimally”.

For example, let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \{1, 2\}$  with  $p = (p_1, p_2)$  and  $p_2 = 1 - p_1$ .

As before, let  $\hat{p}_1 = \frac{\#\{i: X_i=1\}}{n}$  and  $\hat{p}_2 = 1 - \hat{p}_1$ .

**Question:** What is the probability of any particular sequence? (say  $\hat{p}_1 \approx p_1, \hat{p}_2 \approx p_2$ )

*Answer:*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n) &= p_1^{\hat{p}_1 n} p_2^{\hat{p}_2 n} \\ &\approx p_1^{p_1 n} p_2^{p_2 n} \\ &= 2^{n(\log p_1)p_1} \cdot 2^{n(\log p_2)p_2} \\ &= 2^{-nH(p)} \end{aligned}$$

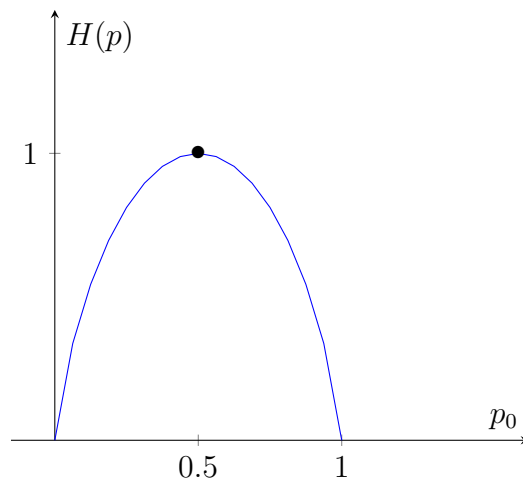
and this makes some sense: if we have no information, we would expect the probability of any sequence to be  $2^{-n}$ .

## 0.9 Feb 12

Let  $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n \sim \{0, 1\}$  with  $p = (p_0, p_1) = (p_0, 1 - p_0)$ . The Shannon Entropy is

$$\begin{aligned} H(p) &= - \sum p_x \log p_x \\ &= -p_0 \log p_0 - p_1 \log p_1 \\ &= -p_0 \log p_0 - (1 - p_0) \log(1 - p_0) = F(p_0) \end{aligned}$$

for some function  $F$ .



What is the relationship between the Shannon Entropy and the KL-Divergence?

$$\begin{aligned} D(p \parallel h) &= \sum p_x \log \frac{p_x}{h_x} \\ &= \sum p_x \log p_x - \sum p_x \log h_x \\ &= -H(p) - \log \frac{1}{s} \end{aligned}$$

for  $h \sim \text{Unif}(1, s)$ . Hence, up to a constant,  $H(p) \approx D(p \parallel \text{Unif}\{1, \dots, s\})$ .

And indeed this justifies that  $H(p)$  has its max at  $1/2$  when  $p = (1/2, 1/2)$ .

This also explains what we found last class: we only need  $2^{nH(p)}$  bits rather than  $2^n$  because in the worst case,  $H(p) = 1 \implies 2^{n \cdot 1} = 2^n$ .

### 0.9.1 Source Coding

More generally, we can take  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n) \sim p$  on states  $\{1, \dots, t\}$  for  $t = 2^n$ .

Let  $C : \{1, \dots, t\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  be a **source code** where  $\{0, 1\}^*$  is the set of finite non-empty strings of 0s and 1s.

We let  $|C(x)|$  denote the length of the code. In general, we want  $|C(x)|$  to be small across different  $x$ .

**Example:** A trivial code is the identity:  $C(x) = x$  for all  $x$ . For  $p = 1/2$ , this is the best we can do.

If, however,  $p = (0.99, 0.01)$  we can do better in expectation.

**Prefix:** A *prefix code* is a code  $C$  for which  $C(x)$  is not a prefix for  $C(\tilde{x})$  for any  $x \neq \tilde{x}$ .

*Example:*

$x$	$C(x)$	$C'(x)$
1	0	0
2	1	10
3	00	11

Here,  $C$  is not a prefix because under  $C$ , if we are trying to encode 0100, we do not know if it should be 120 or 1211. However,  $C'$  is a prefix because there is no ambiguity.

**Remark:** Being a prefix is not necessary for unique decoding. For example,

$x$	$C(x)$
1	0
2	01
3	011

is not a prefix but any string can be uniquely decoded by looking back.

**Question:** What is the minimal  $(|C(x)|)_x$  (i.e.  $C = \arg \min \mathbb{E}_p |C(x)| = \sum p_x |C_x|$ ) where  $C$  is a prefix code?

If we simply return the message, every encoded message is of equal length so  $C$  is a prefix code of expected length  $n$ . Can we do better?

**Proposition (Kraft-McMillan Inequality):** For all prefix codes  $C$ ,

$$\sum_{x=1}^t 2^{-|C(x)|} \leq 1$$



and for any code lengths  $\ell_1, \dots, \ell_t$  such that

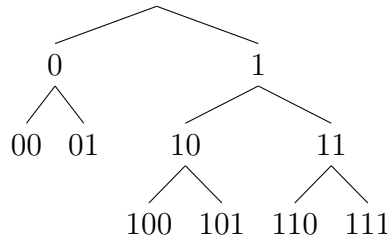
$$\sum_{x=1}^t 2^{-\ell_x} \leq 1$$

there exists a prefix code  $C$  with  $|C_x| = \ell_x$  (letting  $C_x = C(x)$ ).

*Example:* In the non-prefix example, we say  $\ell_1 = 1, \ell_2 = 2, \ell_3 = 3$  so

$$\sum_{x=1}^t 2^{-\ell_x} = 2^{-1} + 2^{-2} + 2^{-3} \leq 1 \quad \checkmark$$

We can visualize this as a tree:



We will see next time that the optimal code  $C^*$  satisfies  $H(p) \leq \mathbb{E}|C^*(X)| \leq H(p)$

## 0.10 Feb 14

**Motivation:** Let  $p = (p_1, p_2)$  be a distribution on  $\{0, 1\}$  ( $s = 2$ ).

Sample  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  corresponding to  $n$  bits. Hence, there are  $2^n$  possible sequences.

We can design a prefix code  $C : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ .

*Example:* For  $n = 3$ ,

$X_1 X_2 X_3$	$C(X_1 X_2 X_3)$
000	00
001	01
$\vdots$	
111	

with  $\mathbb{E}_p[|C_x|] \approx H(p)n$ . And indeed this is a prefix since every image is the same length.

We know that for the identity code,  $C(x) = x$ ,  $\mathbb{E}_p[|C_{(X_1, \dots, X_n)}|] = n$ .

**Theorem:** Let  $\vec{X} \sim \vec{p}$ . For the optimal code  $C^* = \arg \min_{C \text{ prefix}} \mathbb{E}_{\vec{p}}[|C(X)|]$ ,

$$H(\vec{p}) \leq \mathbb{E}_{\vec{p}}|C^*(X)| \leq H(\vec{p}) + 1$$

**Remark:** In our example,  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ ,  $X_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p$  so

$$H(\vec{p}) \leq \mathbb{E}_{\vec{p}}|C(X)| \leq H(\vec{p}) + 1$$

where  $\vec{p} = p \otimes \dots \otimes p$ .

**Claim:**

1.  $H(\vec{p}) = nH(p)$ .
2.  $H(X, Y) = H(X) + H(Y)$  if  $X, Y$  independent

*Proof:* 1. Follows as a corollary from (2).

---

2. Let  $X$  take values  $\{x_1, \dots, x_A\}$  and  $Y$  take values  $\{y_1, \dots, y_B\}$ .

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(X, Y) &= - \sum_{i=1}^{AB} p_i \log p_i \\
 &= - \sum_{x=1}^A \sum_{y=1}^B p_{xy} \log p_{xy} \\
 &= - \sum_x \sum_y p_x q_y \log p_x q_y \quad (X, Y \text{ independent}) \\
 &= - \sum_x \sum_y p_x q_y \log p_x + p_x q_y \log q_y \\
 &= - \sum_y p_y \sum_x p_x \log p_x - \sum_x p_x \sum_y q_y \log q_y \quad (\text{Tonelli}) \\
 &= \sum_y q_y H(x) + \sum_x p_x H(y) \\
 &= H(X) + H(Y) \quad \blacksquare
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$nH(p) \leq \mathbb{E}|C(X)| \leq nH(p) + 1$$

In particular, our propositions from earlier in the week follow immediately. Most importantly, we have confirmed that we indeed only need  $2^{nH(p)}$  bits to encode a message.

At last, we are ready to actually prove the theorem:

**Theorem:** Let  $\vec{X} \sim \vec{p}$ . For the optimal code  $C^* = \arg \min_{C \text{ prefix}} \mathbb{E}_{\vec{p}}[|C(X)|]$ ,

$$H(\vec{p}) \leq |\mathbb{E}_{\vec{p}}| C^*(X) \leq H(\vec{p}) + 1$$

*Proof:* Let  $X \sim p$ .

1.  $H(p) \leq \mathbb{E}_p |C(X)|$

Let  $\ell_x = |C_x|$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E} |C(X)| - H(p) &= \sum p_x \ell_x + \sum p_x \log p_x \\
 &= \sum p_x \log(2^{\ell_x} p_x) \\
 &= \sum p_x \log \frac{p_x}{2^{-\ell_x}} \\
 &= \sum p_x \log \frac{p_x}{2^{-\ell_x} \cdot \frac{\sum_y 2^{-\ell_y}}{\sum_y 2^{-\ell_y}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Let  $S = \sum_x 2^{-\ell_x}$ . By Kraft-McMillan,  $S \leq 1$  so

$$= \sum_x p_x \log \frac{p_x}{q_x S} \quad (1)$$

$$= \sum_x p_x \log \frac{p_x}{q_x} - \sum_x p_x \log S \quad (2)$$

$$= D(p \parallel q) - \log S \geq 0 \quad (3)$$

2.  $\mathbb{E}|C^*(X)| \leq H(p) + 1$ .

It suffices to show  $\exists C$  prefix such that

$$\mathbb{E}_p |C(X)| \leq H(p) + 1$$

In fact, our Part I gives us a place to start: We would like to find  $\ell_x$  such that  $q_x \propto 2^{-\ell_x} \approx p_x$ . Hence, let  $\ell_x = \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_x} \right\rceil$ .

Now, we just need to show  $\exists C$  prefix such that  $\ell_x = |C_x|$ . But by Kraft-McMillan, it suffices to show  $\sum_x 2^{-\ell_x} \leq 1$ .

With a little more work, we can show this exactly. Heuristically, if we did not need to round to get an integer  $\ell_x$ , we would have  $H(p)$  exactly. Rounding, we get  $H(p) + 1$ .

## 0.11 Feb 19

**Example:**  $s = 3$  with  $p = (1/2, 1/4, 1/4)$ .

Then

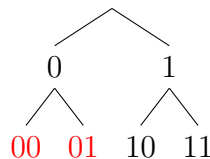
$$H(p) = \sum p_x \log \frac{1}{p_x} = \frac{1}{2} \log 2 + \frac{1}{4} \log 4 + \frac{1}{4} \log 4 = \frac{3}{2}$$

If we want to encode  $X_1 \cdots X_n$ , we have  $3^n$  possible sequences. We would naturally like to design a prefix code  $C$  with length  $\left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_x} \right\rceil$ .

One way is via block coding. We first choose the lengths:

$X_1$	$p_x$	$\ell_x = \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_x} \right\rceil$
1	1/2	1
2	1/4	2
3	1/4	2

If we say  $C(1) = 0$ , then we can prune the resulting tree for all other encodings:



which naturally leads us to a full prefix code:

$X_1$	$C(x)$
1	0
2	10
3	11

**Example:** Now consider  $s = 3$ ,  $p = (1/3, 1/3, 1/3)$ . Then  $H(p) = \log 3 \approx 1.58$ . So

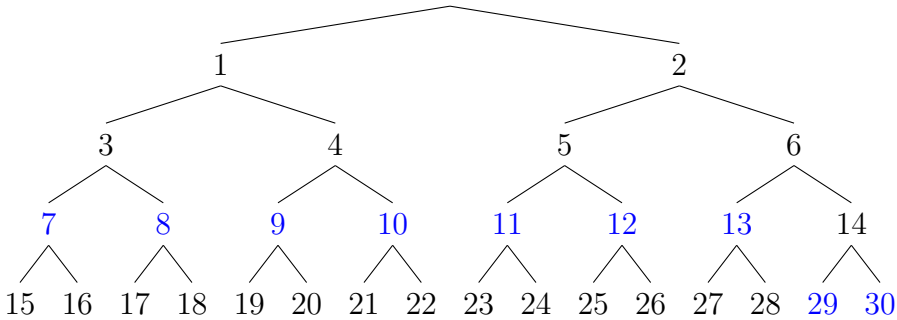
For  $n = 1$ ,

$x$	$p(x)$	$\ell_x$	$C(x)$
1	1/3	$\lceil \log_2(3) \rceil = 2$	0
2	1/3	2	10
3	1/3	2	11

with

$$\mathbb{E} |C_x| = \frac{2}{3}(2) + \frac{1}{3}(1) = \frac{5}{3}$$

But with  $n = 2$ , we have  $3^2 = 9$  possible sequences. Looking at the tree, we can choose a reasonable minimal encoding:



$x$	$p(x)$	$\ell_x$	$C(x)$
11	1/3	4	000
12			001
13			$\vdots$
21			
22			
23			
31			110
32			1110
33			1111

which gives

which has

$$\mathbb{E} |C_x| = \frac{7}{9}(3) + \frac{2}{9}(4) \approx 3.222 = 1.611 \cdot 2$$

which means we use 1.611 bits per signal.

If  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then the best prefix code has an average  $H(p)$  bits per symbol.

# Chapter 1

## Statistical Inference

### 1.1 Feb 19

#### 1.1.1 Probability Estimation

**Motivation:** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} P_\theta$ . We want to estimate  $\theta$ .

*Example:* If  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$ .

**Unbiased Estimation:** Suppose  $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is an estimation of  $\theta$ . If  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$ , we say  $\hat{\theta}$  is *unbiased*.

**Example:** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

- $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$  is unbiased since

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mu}] = \frac{1}{n} \sum \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{1}{n}(n)(\mu) = \mu$$

- What is an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma^2$ ? We know  $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}X)^2 = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]$  so

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \hat{\mu})^2$$

- In fact,  $\hat{\hat{\sigma}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \hat{\mu})^2$  is a biased estimator:

*Proof:* WLOG  $\mu = 0$  (else  $Y_i = X_i - \mu \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \implies \hat{\mu}_X = \hat{\mu}_Y - \mu$ ).

Then  $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2]$  so

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{\mu} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i \\
 \hat{\sigma}^2 &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (X_i - \hat{\mu})^2 \mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}^2] &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (X_i - \hat{\mu})^2 \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum \mathbb{E}[(X_i - \hat{\mu})^2] \\
 &= \frac{n}{n-1} \mathbb{E}[(X_i - \hat{\mu})^2] \\
 &= \frac{n}{n-1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( X_i - \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \right)^2 \right] \\
 &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{n-1}{n} X_1 - \frac{1}{n} X_2 \dots - \frac{1}{n} X_n \right)^2 \right] \\
 &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{n-1}{n} \right)^2 X_1^2 + \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{1}{n^2} X_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} X_i X_j \right] \\
 &= \left( \frac{n-1}{n} \right)^2 \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] + \frac{n-1}{n^2} \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] \\
 &= \frac{(n-1)^2}{n^2} \sigma^2 \\
 &= \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2
 \end{aligned}$$

since for  $i \neq j$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[X_i X_j] \stackrel{X_i \perp X_j}{=} (\mathbb{E}X_i)(\mathbb{E}X_j)$

**Consistent:** We say  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is *consistent* if  $\hat{\theta}_n \rightarrow \theta$  in some sense as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . For example,

- $\hat{\theta}_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \implies \mathbb{P}(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\theta}_n = \theta) = 1$
- $\hat{\theta}_n \xrightarrow{P} \theta \implies \forall \varepsilon > 0, \mathbb{P}(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta| > \varepsilon) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$
- $\hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{\text{mean square}} \theta \implies \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)^2] \rightarrow 0.$

Is  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  consistent in any sense? As we will see, yes. But not trivially so.

## 1.2 Feb 21

**Recall:** Let  $\theta = \sigma^2$  and take  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p$ . Then

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

is an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma^2$ .

Further,

$$\hat{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

is a biased estimator for  $\sigma^2$ .

**Mean Squared Error (MSE):**  $\text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}_n) = \mathbb{E}|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta|^2.$

Notice,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}) &= \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)^2 \\
 &= \mathbb{E}(\underbrace{\hat{\theta}_n - \mathbb{E}\hat{\theta}_n}_a + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\hat{\theta}_n - \theta}_b)^2 \\
 &= \mathbb{E}(a + b)^2 \\
 &= \mathbb{E}a^2 + 2b \underbrace{\mathbb{E}a}_0 + \underbrace{b^2}_{\text{bias}^2} \\
 &= \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}) + \text{bias}^2
 \end{aligned}$$

**Example:** Calculate  $\text{MSE}(S_n^2)$  vs.  $\text{MSE}(\hat{\sigma}_n^2)$ . For simplicity, assume  $\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1$  and  $\mathbb{E}_p X^4 = 3$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{MSE}(S_n^2) &= \text{Var}(S_n^2) + \text{bias}^2 \\
 &= \text{Var}(S_n^2) \quad \text{since } S_n^2 \text{ is unbiased} \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[(S_n^2 - \mathbb{E}S_n^2)^2] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[(S_n^2 - \sigma^2)^2] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[(S_n^2 - 1)^2] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[S_n^4] - 2\mathbb{E}[S_n^2] + 1 \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[S_n^4] - 2 + 1 \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[S_n^4] - 1
 \end{aligned}$$

We know

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_n^2 &= \frac{1}{n-1} \left( \sum (X_i - \frac{\sum X_j}{n}) \right)^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{n-1}{n} X_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq i} X_j \right)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

We want

$$\mathbb{E}[S_n^4] = \frac{1}{(n-1)^2} \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_i \left( \frac{n-1}{n} X_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq i} X_j \right)^2 \right]^2$$

up to coefficients, we will only have  $X_i^4, X_i^3 X_j, X_i^2 X_j^2, X_i^2 X_j X_k, X_i X_j X_k X_l$  terms in the expansion.

Under expectation, however, only the  $X_i^4$  and  $X_i^2 X_j^2$  terms will survive.

After a little more work, we find

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{MSE}(S_n^2) &= \frac{2}{n-1} \sigma^4 \\
 \text{MSE}(\hat{\sigma}_n^2) &= \frac{2n-1}{n^2} \sigma^4
 \end{aligned}$$

but then  $\text{MSE}(\hat{\sigma}_n^2) < \text{MSE}(S_n^2)$  so even though it is biased, it is a better estimator (in the sense of minimizing MSE).

### 1.2.1 Nonparametric Estimation

**Example:** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p$ . We want to estimate  $p$ .

Suppose we have one observation  $\hat{p}_x = \frac{1}{n} \#\{i : X_i = x\}$ . How good an estimator is this?

First, is it unbiased? We know that for a set  $B$ ,

$$\hat{p}(B) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \#\{i : X_i \in B\} = \sum_{x \in B} \hat{p}_x$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{p}(B)] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{X_i \in B}] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i p(B) = p(B)$$

so  $\hat{p}_x$  is unbiased.

Next, is it consistent? That is, for  $B$  measurable, does  $\hat{p}_n(B) \rightarrow p(B)$  in some sense?

By LLN,

$$\hat{p}_n(B) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbb{1}_{X_i \in B} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i Y_i \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mathbb{E}Y = \mathbb{E}\mathbb{1}_{X_i \in B} = \mathbb{P}(X_i \in B) = p(B)$$

**Exercise:** In the above proof, we depended on  $B$  being fixed. Here we show that this condition was necessary.

Let  $p = \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ . For all  $n$ , show that there exists a set  $B_n(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  such that  $\hat{p}_n(B_n)$  is far from  $p(B_n)$ .

## 1.3 Feb 24

**Motivation:** Let  $f$  be the density of  $p$ . We want to estimate  $f$ . We can approximate  $\hat{p}$  but this is discrete so we cannot have a continuous  $\hat{f}$ .

Formally, how can we approximate the Dirac measure  $\delta_a(A) = \mathbb{1}_{a \in A}$  by a continuous measure?

### 1.3.1 Kernel Density Estimation

**Density Function:** a function  $k$  satisfying

1.  $k(x) \geq 0$
2.  $\int xk(x) dx = 0$
3.  $\int x^2k(x) dx = 1$

i.e  $Y \sim k \implies \mathbb{E}Y = 0 \wedge \text{Var } Y = 1$ .

*Example:*  $k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$

*Example:* We want to approximate  $\delta_0$ . For  $Z = 0$ , we know  $\delta_0 = \text{dist}(Z)$ .

One approach is to approximate  $Z$  by  $Z + Y$  where  $Y$  is continuous (hence  $\mathbb{E}Y = 0$ ) and therefore  $Z + Y$  is continuous.

A natural solution is  $Y_\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \varepsilon)$  for  $\varepsilon \ll 1$ . Notice,  $Y_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \implies \varepsilon Y_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \varepsilon^2)$ .

In general, if  $Y \sim k$ , what is the density of  $\varepsilon Y$ ?

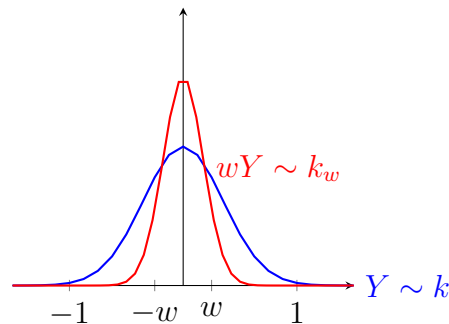


We can consider the CDF:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_Y(x) &= \mathbb{P}(Y \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x k(t) dt \\
 F_{\varepsilon Y}(x) &= \mathbb{P}(\varepsilon Y \leq x) = \mathbb{P}\left(Y \leq \frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{x/\varepsilon} k(s) ds \\
 &\stackrel{s=t/\varepsilon}{=} \int_{-\infty}^x k\left(\frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right) \frac{dt}{\varepsilon} \\
 \implies k_\varepsilon(t) &= \frac{1}{\varepsilon} k\left(\frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

**Definition:** for each **smoothing parameter**  $w$  (aka bandwidth),

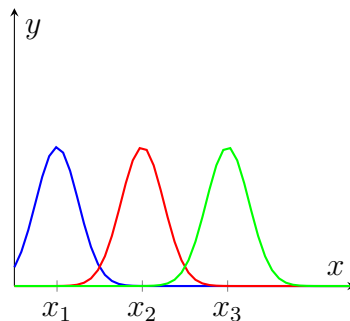
$$k_w(x) = \frac{1}{w} k\left(\frac{x}{w}\right)$$



Now, our goal is to find the optimal  $w$  to approximate  $Z(\sim \delta_0)$  by  $Z + Y_w$ .

Correspondingly, we approximate  $f(x)$  by

$$\hat{f}(x) = \hat{f}_{n,w}(x, X_1, \dots, X_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k_w(x - X_i)$$



Our plan is to use  $\text{MSE} = \text{bias}^2 + \text{variance}$  as

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 w \searrow 0 & \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{bias} \searrow \\ \text{bias} \nearrow \end{array} \right. & \begin{array}{l} \text{variance} \nearrow \\ \text{variance} \searrow \end{array} \\
 w \nearrow \infty & & 
 \end{array}$$

**Integrated Square Error (ISE):**

$$\text{ISE} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{f}_n(x, X_1, \dots, X_n) - f(x) \right|^2 dx$$

Since this is a random variable, we can also define *mean integrated square error*.

## Mean Integrated Square ERROR (MISE):

$$\begin{aligned}\text{MISE} &= \mathbb{E}[\text{ISE}] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E} \left| \widehat{f}(x, X_1, \dots, X_n) - f(x) \right|^2 dx \\&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E} \left| \widehat{f}(x, X_{1:n}) - \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}_n(x, X_{1:n})] + \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}_n(x, X_{1:n})] - f(x) \right|^2 dx \\&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \mathbb{E} \widehat{f}_n(x, X_{1:n}) - f(x) \right|^2 dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E} \left| \widehat{f}_n(x, X_{1:n}) - \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}_n(x, X_{1:n})] \right|^2 dx \\&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \underbrace{\left| \mathbb{E} \widehat{f}_n(x, X_{1:n}) - f(x) \right|^2}_{\text{bias}^2} dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \underbrace{\text{Var} [\widehat{f}_n(x, X_{1:n})]}_{\text{variation}} dx\end{aligned}$$

We can apply this formula to the kernel density estimator so we have bias:

$$\begin{aligned}B_{n,w}(x) &= \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}_n(x, X_1, \dots, X_n)] - f(x) \\&= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[k_w(x - X_i)] - f(x) \\&= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) k_w(x - t) dt - f(x) \\&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) k_w(x - t) dt - f(x)\end{aligned}$$

## 1.4 Feb 26

**Recall:** For a continuous density  $f$  with  $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f$ , we would like to estimate  $f$  but our normal method  $\widehat{p}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{X_i}$  is discrete, hence insufficient.

Hence, we introduce the *Kernel Density Estimator*:

$$\widehat{f}_{n,w}(x, X_1, \dots, X_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k_w(x - X_i)$$

where

$$k_w(t) = \frac{1}{w} k\left(\frac{t}{w}\right), \quad k \text{ some density}$$

is parameterized by the bandwidth  $w$ .

**Remark:** Above, we are using the Dirac Measure  $\delta_x(A) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$  instead of the indicator function  $(\mathbb{1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$  because we need a measure and not a function.

**Goal:** Find the “optimal”  $w$ .

We introduced the *Integrated Square Error* (ISE),  $\int_x \left| \widehat{f}(x) - f(x) \right|^2 dx$  and the *Mean Integrated Square Error* (MISE)

$$\text{MISE} = \mathbb{E}[\text{ISE}] = \int_x [(\text{bias}(x))^2 + \text{Var}(x)] dx$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{bias}(x) &= \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}(x)] - f(x) \\
 \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}(x)] &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}_{X_i}[k_w(x - X_i)] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[k_w(x - X_1)] \quad (X_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f) \\
 &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) k_w(x - t) dt
 \end{aligned}$$

**Convolution:** Let  $Z \sim f$  and  $Y \sim g$  be independent. Then

$$Z + Y \sim (f \star g)(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) g(x - t) dt$$

Hence,

$$\mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}(x)] = (f \star k_w)(x)$$

which means that  $\mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}]$  is the density of  $Z + Y_w$  where  $Z \perp Y_w$  and  $Z \sim f$  and  $Y_w \sim k_w$ .

What does this tell us about the behavior?

- For  $Y \sim k$ ,  $Y_w \sim wY$  so  $\mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}] \rightarrow f$  as  $w \rightarrow 0$ .
- As  $w \rightarrow \infty$ , our support becomes infinitely large so  $\mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}] \rightarrow 0$ .

Hence,

$$(\text{bias}(x))^2 = (\mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}(x)] - f(x))^2 = \begin{cases} 0 & w \rightarrow 0 \\ f^2(x) & w \rightarrow \infty \end{cases}$$

Now, let's calculate the variance term:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var}(x) &= \text{Var}(\widehat{f}(x)) \\
 &= \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k_w(x - X_i)\right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum \text{Var}(k_w(x - X_i)) \quad (\text{independence}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \text{Var}(k_w(x - X_i)) \quad (\text{identically distributed}) \\
 &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}[(k_w(x - X_i))^2]}_{V^{(1)}} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} [\mathbb{E}[k_w(x - X_i)]]^2}_{V^{(2)}}
 \end{aligned}$$

From our previous work,

$$V^{(2)} = \frac{1}{n} \mathcal{I}^2 \rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} f^2(x) & w \rightarrow 0 \\ 0 & w \rightarrow \infty \end{cases}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 V^{(1)} &= \frac{1}{n} \int f(g) k_w^2(x-t) dt \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{w} \int f(t) \frac{1}{w} k^2\left(\frac{x-t}{w}\right) dt \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{w} \int f(ws+t) k^2(s) ds \quad (s = \frac{x-t}{w}) \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{cases} \infty & w \rightarrow 0 \\ 0 & w \rightarrow \infty \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

since the constant  $\frac{1}{w}$  term dominates the bounded  $f, k$ .

## 1.5 Feb 28

**Theorem:** Assume  $f$  and  $k$  smooth. Then as  $w \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$\text{MISE}_{n,w} = \underbrace{\alpha w^4}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\frac{\beta}{nw}}_{\text{variance}} + \text{error}$$

How do we choose  $w$ ? Ignoring  $\alpha, \beta$ , it makes sense we want to minimize MISE:

$$(w^4 + \frac{1}{nw})' = 4w^3 - \frac{1}{nw^2} = 0 \implies w^5 \propto \frac{1}{n} \implies w \propto n^{-1/5}$$

This is **Silverman's Rule of Thumb**: up to unknown bias and variance, choose  $w = n^{-1/5}$ .

However, assuming we do not know  $\alpha, \beta$ , this is not a very good estimate – it does not even depend on the density  $f$ ! Can we do better?

Recall the setup:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f$  with estimator

$$\hat{f}_{n,w}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k_w(x - X_i)$$

We want to find  $w$ . Last time, we looked at the MISE. This time, consider only the ISE. Our goal is to minimize:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ISE} &= \int_x \left| \hat{f}_{n,w}(x) - f(x) \right|^2 dx \\
 &= \int \hat{f}_{n,w}(x) - 2 \int \hat{f} \cdot f + \int f^2(x) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

Define

$$\begin{aligned}
I &= \int_x \widehat{f}_{n,w}(x) \cdot f(x) \, dx \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{X_{n+1} \sim f} [\widehat{f}_{n,w}(X_{n+1})] \quad (X_{1:n} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f) \\
&= \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}_{n,w}(X_{n+1}; X_1, \dots, X_n)] \\
&\approx \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}_{n-1,w}(X_n; X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})] \\
&\approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[\widehat{f}_{n-1,w}(X_i; i^X)] \quad (i^X = X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n) \\
&= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{f}_{n-1,w}^{(i)}(X_i)
\end{aligned}$$

We call this the **cross-validation** (leave-one-out) estimator.

Since the last term does not depend on  $w$ , it suffices to find

$$\arg \min_w \widehat{J}(w) = \int \widehat{f}_{n,w}(x)^2 - 2 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{f}_{n-1,w}^{(i)}(X_i)$$

And this is exactly what we want since this minimization problem depends only on the kernel and not on the distribution  $f$ .

**Theorem (Stone 1984):**

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{ISE}(\widehat{f}_{\widehat{w}_n}, f)}{\inf_w \text{ISE}(\widehat{f}_{w,n}, f)} = 1 \right) = 1$$

(i.e. almost surely)

However, this convergence could be very slow (especially for  $X_i \sim f \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d \gg 1$ )

**Example:** For  $f$  Gaussian in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with  $f(0) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^d$ , to have

$$\left| \widehat{f}_{\widehat{w}_n} - f(0) \right| \leq \frac{1}{10} f(0)$$

$d$	$n$
1	4
2	19
5	768
10	842000
$\vdots$	

which is very fast growth