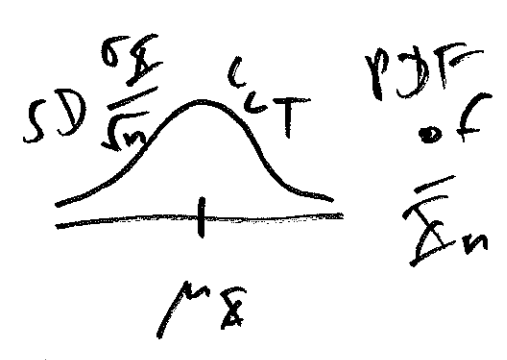


The Delta Method

The CLT says that if $X_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim}$ (any) dist. with finite mean μ_X and finite variance σ_X^2 , then

The distribution of $\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu_X}{\sigma_X/\sqrt{n}}$ for large n is approximately normal, where $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

This is equivalent to saying that



$$\bar{X}_n \sim N(\mu_X, \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n})$$

Question: If $g(x)$ is

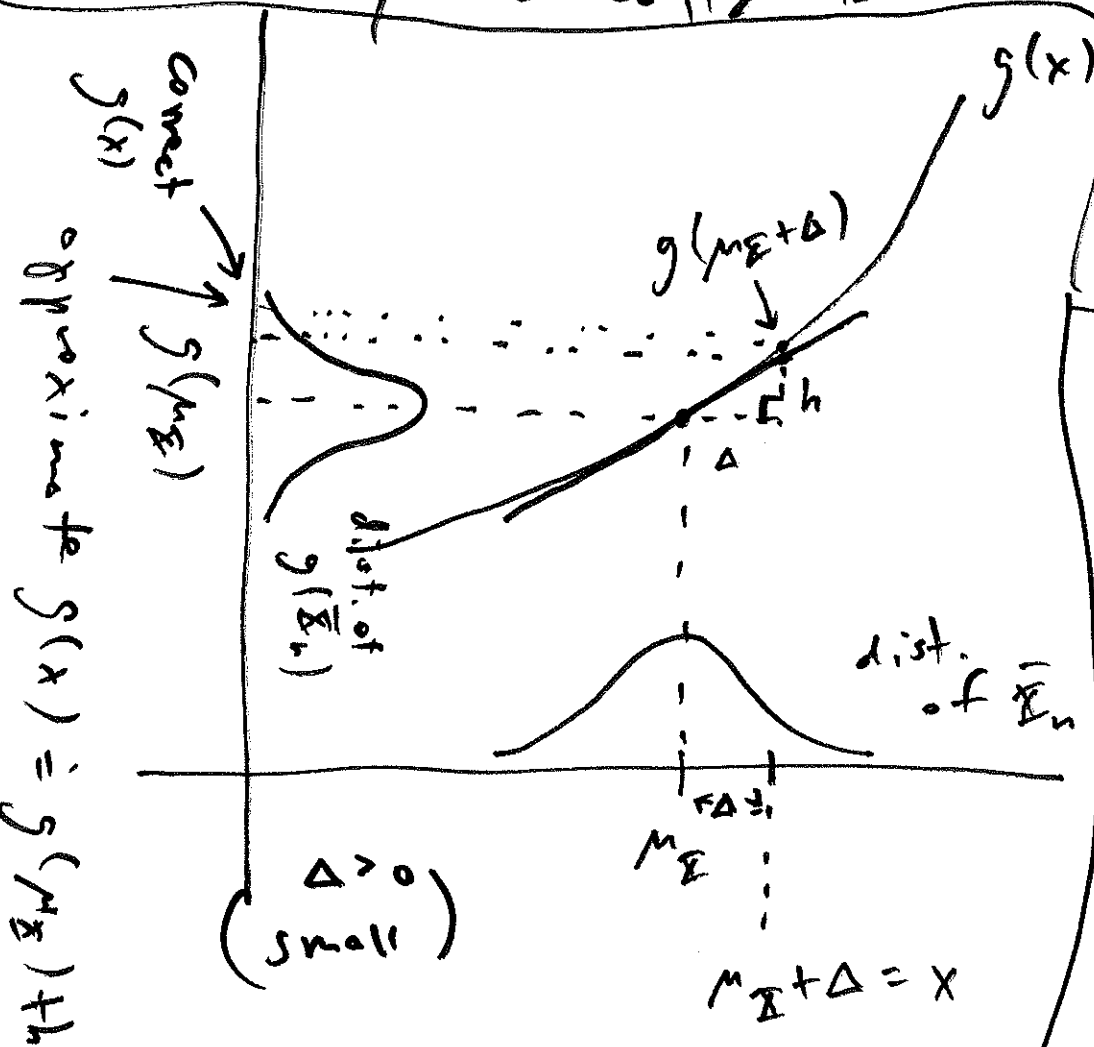
a sufficiently "nice" function, is there a comparable result for $g(\bar{X}_n)$?

Answer: Yes, via a Taylor-series-based approach called the Delta Method

\bar{X}_n should be close to μ_{Σ} for large n
 (that's the (weak) law of large numbers);
 this suggests making a two-term Taylor
 expansion of $g(\bar{X}_n)$ around the point

$$x = \mu_{\Sigma} : g(\bar{X}_n) \approx g(\mu_{\Sigma}) + g'(\mu_{\Sigma})(\bar{X}_n - \mu_{\Sigma})$$

this is why it's called the Δ (Delta) - Method



$$\frac{h}{\Delta} = g'(\mu_{\Sigma})$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &\approx g(\mu_{\Sigma}) + h \\ &= g(\mu_{\Sigma}) + g'(\mu_{\Sigma}) \cdot \Delta \\ &= g(\mu_{\Sigma}) + g'(\mu_{\Sigma})(x - \mu_{\Sigma}) \end{aligned}$$

so $\Delta = x - \mu_{\Sigma}$

$$g(\bar{X}_n) = g(\mu_X) + g'(\mu_X)(\bar{X}_n - \mu_X) \quad \text{so}$$

↑ constant ↑ r.v. ↓

$$E[g(\bar{X}_n)] = E[g(\mu_X) + g'(\mu_X)(\bar{X}_n - \mu_X)]$$

$$= g(\mu_X) + g'(\mu_X) [E(\bar{X}_n) - \mu_X]$$

so $E[g(\bar{X}_n)] = g(\mu_X) = g[E(\bar{X}_n)]$ and

$$V[g(\bar{X}_n)] = V[g(\mu_X) + g'(\mu_X)(\bar{X}_n - \mu_X)]$$

↓ constant ↓ r.v.

$$= [g'(\mu_X)]^2 \cdot V(\bar{X}_n - \mu_X)$$

so $V[g(\bar{X}_n)] = [g'(\mu_X)]^2 V(\bar{X}_n)$

$$V[g(\bar{X}_n)] = [g'(\mu_X)]^2 \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n}$$

There's one hidden assumption in this calculation: $g'(\mu_X) \neq 0$.

This works for any $r.v.$ with finite variance, not just \bar{X}_n :

V any $r.v.$ with finite variance σ_V^2 (and therefore finite mean μ_V), $W = g(V)$

$\rightarrow E(W) = g(\mu_V)$ and

$V(W) = [g'(\mu_V)]^2 \sigma_V^2$, Δ method
part 1

provided $g'(v)$ is continuous and

$g'(\mu_V) \neq 0$

Moreover, if V is Normal then $W = g(V)$ is Normal also

Δ method part 2

Example A bank typically has a 316
single queue (line) at which customers
arrive to transact banking business.

Let X_i = time customer i waits from
reaching the head of the queue until
served.

To be completely realistic, the
dist. of X_i would vary by day of week
and time of day, so pick a single time
slot (e.g. Tue 10-10.15am) and observe
the X_i from week to week only in
that time slot; now the $\{X_i, i=1, 2, \dots\}$
form a stationary stochastic process
with fixed (non-time-varying) ^{finite} $E(X_i) = \mu_X$

and fixed (non-time-varying) finite (317)

$$V(\bar{X}_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

Gather data over many

weeks and form $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

for large n .

The rate of service

Complications:
seasonal effects
(ignored here)

is defined to be $g(\mu_X) = \frac{1}{\mu_X}$, which

would naturally be estimated by $g(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{1}{\bar{X}_n}$.

$$E(\bar{X}_n) = \mu_X$$

$$V(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{x} = x^{-1}$$

$$g'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$g'(\mu_X) = -\frac{1}{\mu_X^2}$$

$\bar{X}_n \sim \text{Normal}$
by CLT

so Δ -method says $g(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{1}{\bar{X}_n} \sim \text{Normal}$

with mean $g(\mu_X) = \frac{1}{\mu_X}$ and variance

$$\left[g'(\mu_X) \right]^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_X^4} \neq 0$$

$$\sigma_X^2 / (n \mu_X^4)$$

Specific
Calculation

Under some plausible assumptions, 318
we've seen that $(X_i | \lambda) \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$

may be a reasonable model for waiting times.

$E(X_i) = \frac{1}{\lambda}$, $V(X_i) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$ $(X_i | \lambda)$ has PDF
 $= \mu_X$, $= \sigma_X^2$
 $f_{X_i}(x_i | \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x_i} I(x_i > 0)$

so $\frac{1}{\bar{X}_n}$ should (large n)

be approximately Normal with mean $\frac{1}{\lambda} = \lambda$

and SD $\frac{\sigma_X}{\mu_X^2 \sqrt{n}} = \frac{\frac{1}{\lambda}}{(\frac{1}{\lambda})^2 \sqrt{n}} = \frac{\lambda}{\sqrt{n}}$

(discrete or continuous)

Formal version
of Δ -method

X_1, X_2, \dots sequence of i.i.d.
 F^* continuous cdf;

θ a real number; $a_1, a_2, \dots \uparrow \infty$
positive sequence

$g(\cdot)$ a ^{real-valued} function of a real variable
 such that $g'(\cdot)$ is continuous and
 $g'(\theta) \neq 0$; then if $a_n(\bar{Y}_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{D} F^*$,

$$a_n \left[\frac{g(\bar{Y}_n) - g(\theta)}{|g'(\theta)|} \right] \xrightarrow{D} F^* \text{ also}$$

Typical application:
 X_1, X_2, \dots IID

$$\bar{Y}_n = \bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i; \quad \theta = \mu_X; \quad a_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sigma_X}$$

$F^* = \Phi$, the standard normal CDF.

In this context the theorem says that

$$\text{if } \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu_X}{\sigma_X / \sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1) \text{ then } \frac{g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\mu_X)}{|g'(\mu_X)| \sigma_X / \sqrt{n}}$$

(28 Aug 17)
~~(29 Aug 17)~~ is also $\sim N(0, 1)$

A little bit more about the continuity correction

T97-Sochs care study, revisited

$$X = \# \text{ T-S babies}$$

in family of $n=5$ children, both parents carriers so that

$$P(\text{T-S baby}) = \frac{1}{4} = p \quad \left[X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p) \right]$$

But also let $T_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if child } i \text{ is T-S baby} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

Then $(T_i) \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ and $X = \sum_{i=1}^n T_i$
($i=1, \dots, n$)

So by the CLT the dist. of X should be approximately Normal with mean

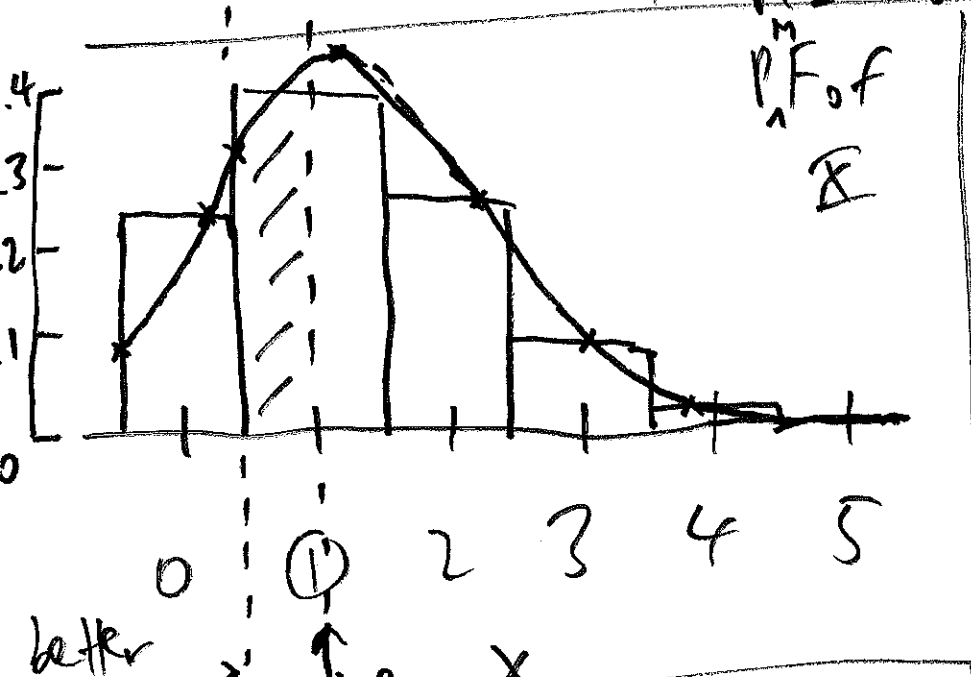
$$\mu_X = E(X) = np = 1.25 \text{ and } \sigma$$

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}} = \sqrt{V(\bar{X})} = \sqrt{np(1-p)} \approx 0.98 \quad (321)$$

on day 1 of this class we worked out that $P(\text{1 or more T-S babies}) = P(\bar{X} \geq 1)$

$$1 - P(\text{no T-S babies}) = 1 - (1-p)^n \approx 0.76$$

$$= 1 - P(\bar{X} = 0)$$



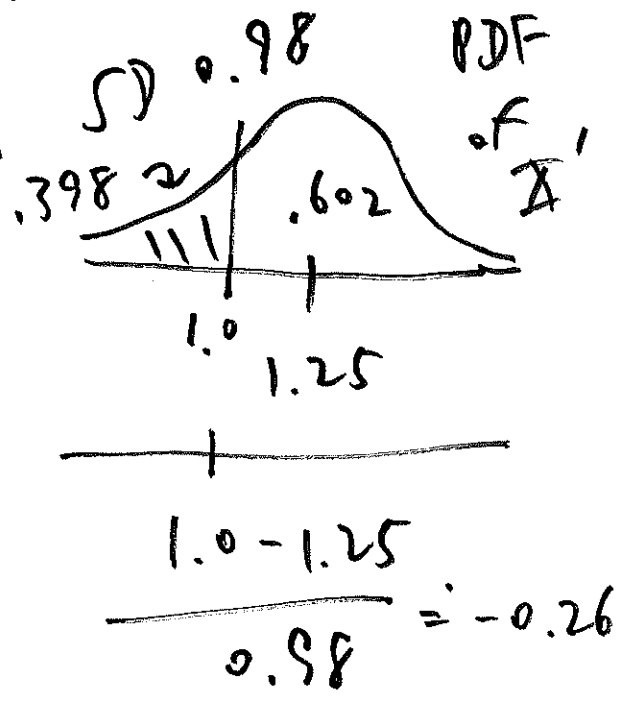
Naive Normal approximation, from CLT:

better approx → naive approx

$$P(\bar{X} \geq 1) = 1 - P(\bar{X}' < 1)$$

$$= 1 - 0.398$$

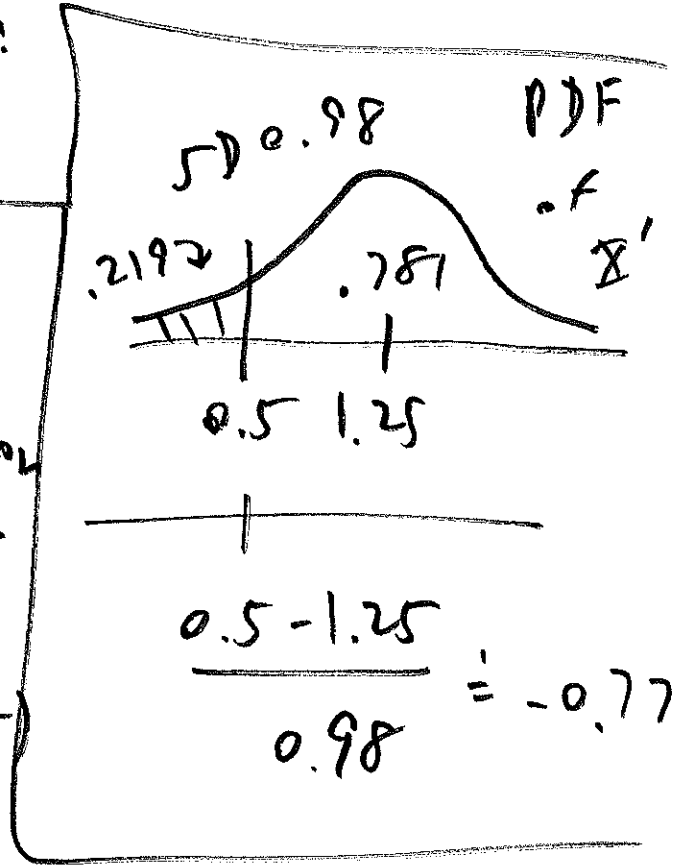
≈ 0.602 (quite a bad approximation)



Improved approximation obtained by paying attention to the edges of the histogram (PDF) bars:

Normal approximation with continuity correction

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X \geq 1) &= 1 - P(X' < 0.5) \\
 &= 1 - .219 \\
 &= 0.781
 \end{aligned}$$



(correct answer 0.76; much better approx.)

Markov Chains

Recall the definition of a stochastic process:

Def. A sequence of rvs X_1, X_2, \dots (323)
is called a stochastic process with
discrete time parameter $t = 1, 2, \dots$.

X_1 is the initial state of the process;

$X_n, n \geq 1$ is the state of the process
at time $t = n$.

The simplest possible
discrete-time stochastic process is
an IID sequence of rvs (X_1, X_2, \dots) .

Suppose that there's a parameter θ
such that $(X_i | \theta) \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim}$ from some dist.

depending on θ . Q: Does this process
have a memory?

Example, Machine with a dial from (324) revisited
0 to 1, produces IID Bernoulli(θ)

trials X_i : The process (X_1, X_2, \dots)

does have a memory ^{for you} if θ is unknown

to you: the information that 17 out of the first 20 trials were successes helps you to predict X_{21} , because it's reasonable to conclude from X_1, \dots, X_{20} that θ is around $\frac{17}{20} = 0.85$, so X_{21} ~~is~~ ^{will} probably ^{be} a success.

But the process

$\{(X_i | \theta), i=1, 2, \dots\}$ has no memory once θ is known: information about

The first n trials is irrelevant to (325)
your prediction of X_{n+1} if you know

Q. An IID process $(X_i | \theta) \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim}$

is called a white-noise (stochastic)
process or a white noise time series.

Q: What's the next level of complexity
for discrete-time stochastic processes
up from white noise?

A: Allow X_{n+1}
to depend on X_n but not on X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots
(i.e., let the process have a short-term
memory, (1) time period back in the
past).

From now on, I'll suppress the dependence of the process on θ in the notation.

discrete-time

Def. A stochastic process is a (first-order) Markov chain if for $n = 1, 2, \dots$; b any real number; and for all possible sequences of states x_1, x_2, \dots

$$P(X_{n+1} \leq b \mid X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n)$$

$$= P(X_{n+1} \leq b \mid X_n = x_n).$$

In other words, the only thing you need to know to simulate where the Markov chain is going next is where it is now.

(Can define higher-order Markov chains with memory of 2 or more time periods; we won't pursue that here.)

Def.

The set of values ~~the~~^s Markov chain can take on is called its state space S , which may be finite or infinite.

(Can also have Markov chains unfolding in continuous time, e.g. X_t = stock price at time t = seconds, milliseconds, microseconds, ...; we also won't pursue that here.)

It's easy to write down the joint P^T of a Markov chain with finite S :

Consequences

① (X_1, X_2, \dots) finite Markov chain \rightarrow

Def. A Markov chain with a finite state space is called a finite Markov chain.

$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n) =$$

$$P(X_1 = x_1) \cdot P(X_2 = x_2 | X_1 = x_1) \cdot$$

$$P(X_3 = x_3 | X_2 = x_2) \cdot \dots$$

$$P(X_n = x_n | X_{n-1} = x_{n-1}).$$

Def. Suppose you have a finite Markov chain with k possible states numbered $1, \dots, k$

(k integer ≥ 2) $\rightarrow \{P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i),$

$i, j = 1, \dots, k, n = 1, 2, \dots\}$ are called the transition distribution of the Markov chain.

If $P(X_{n+1}=j | X_n=i)$ is the same for all n , the transition distribution is said to be stationary (DS) (time-homogeneous). If

the Markov chain does have a stationary transition distribution, then the probabilities

$P_{ij} \triangleq P(X_{n+1}=j | X_n=i)$ completely characterize the Markov chain's

behavior.

in a matrix called the transition matrix.

Can arrange the P_{ij} to state P_{ij}

$$\begin{matrix}
 & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & k \end{matrix} \\
 \begin{matrix} P_1 \\ P_2 \\ \vdots \\ P_k \end{matrix} & = & \begin{matrix} \text{from} \\ \text{state} \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & \dots & P_{1k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{k1} & P_{k2} & \dots & P_{kk} \end{bmatrix}
 \end{matrix}$$

All of the elements of \underline{P} are non-negative (they're probabilities), and all of the row sums are 1 (because the chain has to go somewhere), i.e.

$$\sum_{j=1}^k p_{ij} = 1 \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, k. \quad \text{Def.}$$

matrix versus quaternion

A square matrix $\underline{P}_{k \times k}$ with non-negative entries and ^{all} row sums equal to 1 is called a stochastic matrix.

~~(Dominant/recessive)~~

Example } Gene inheritance is Markovian.
all we need to know to predict you is the genetic story of your parents

(your grand parents, ..., are irrelevant) (33)

Suppose that

A gene of interest to you has two alleles, A and a

Then a state in

the Markov chain is of the form

{ allele 1 from parent 1, allele 2 from parent 1, allele 1 from parent 2, allele 2 from parent 2 }, for

example {Aa, Aa}.

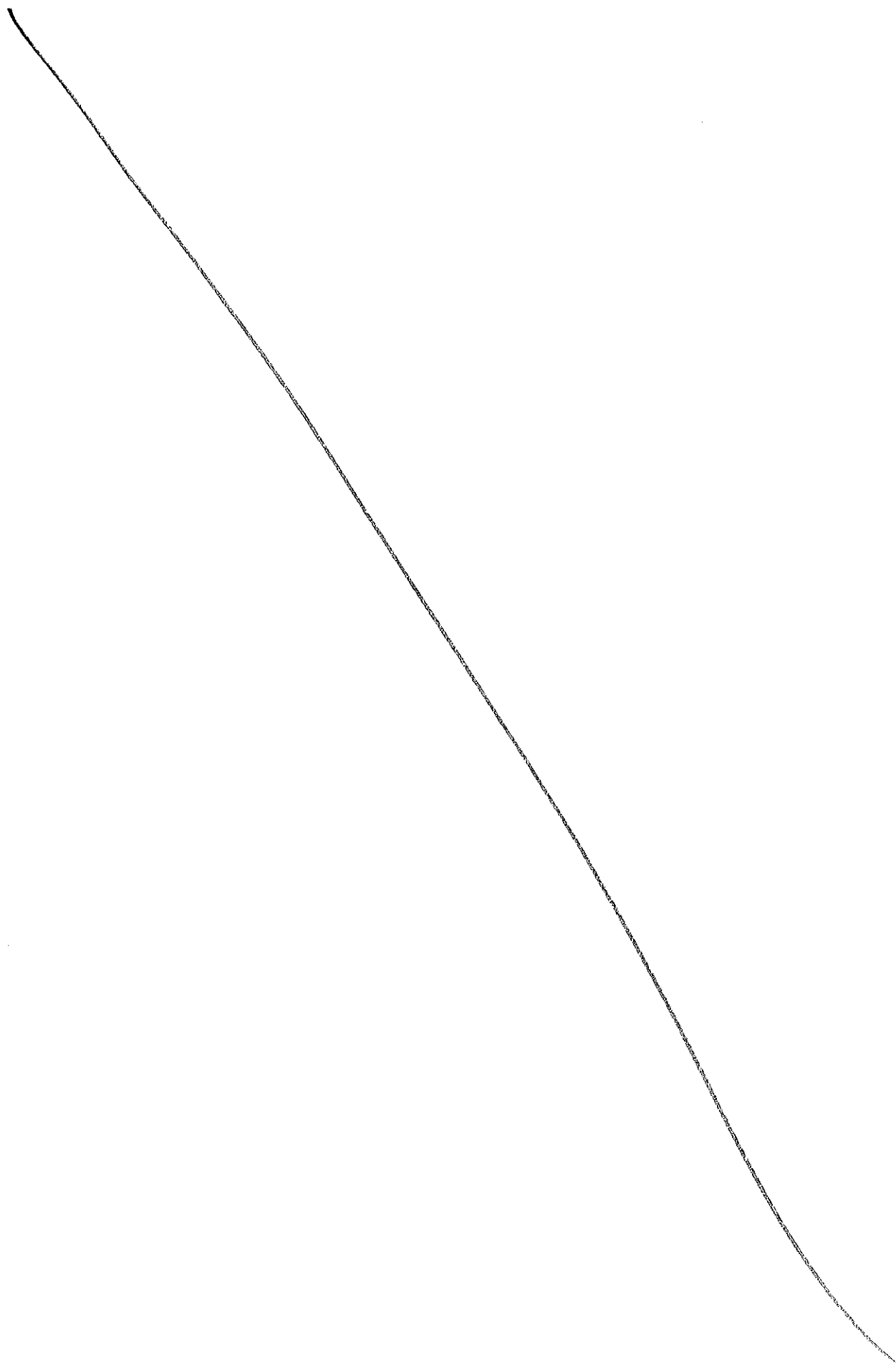
Ignoring order

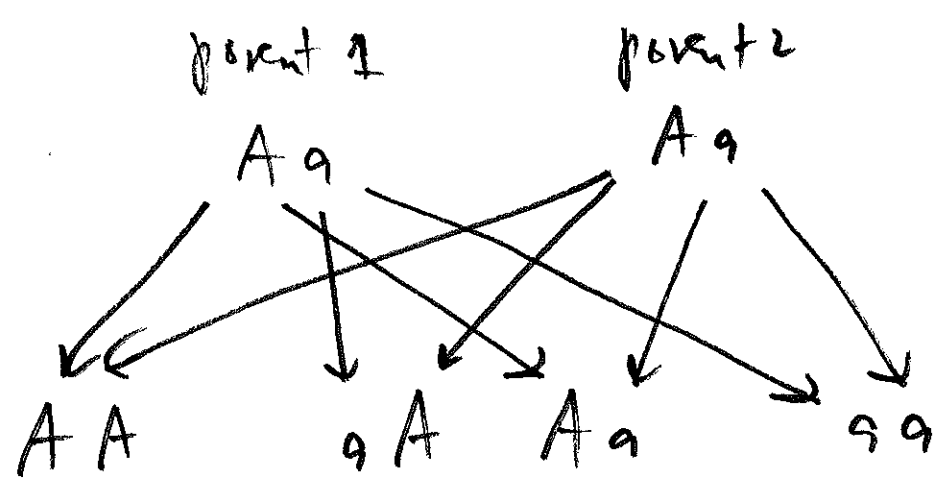
(because it's irrelevant in inheritance),

there are 6 possible states: {AA, AA}

{AA, Aa}, {AA, aa}, {Aa, Aa}, {Aa, aa}

and {aa, aa}.





one possible inheritance sequence

offspring gets A or a from parent 1 and A or a (independently) from parent 2, each with probability $\frac{1}{2}$

Transition matrix

From \ To	{AA, AA}	{AA, Aa}	{AA, aa}	{Aa, Aa}	{Aa, aa}	{aa, aa}
{AA, AA}	1	0	0	0	0	0
{AA, Aa}	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0
{AA, aa}	0	0	0	1	0	0
{Aa, Aa}	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$
{Aa, aa}	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$
{aa, aa}	0	0	0	0	0	1

Example / (random walk) You're watching 334

a particle move around on the

integers $\mathcal{S} = \{ \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots \}$

over time: here are the rules:

whenever it is at time $t = n$,

it moves left 1 unit with prob p_1 ,

—— right 1 unit —— p_3 ,

and it stays where it is with prob p_2 ,

where $0 < p_i < 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^3 p_i = 1$ This is

clearly a Markov chain (why?);

what is its transition matrix?

	to → ...	-2	-1	0	1	2	...	
from ↓	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	
	-2	...	p_2	p_3	0	0	0	...
	-1	...	p_1	p_2	p_3	0	0	...
	0	...	0	p_1	p_2	p_3	0	...
	1	...	0	0	p_1	p_2	p_3	...
	2	...	0	0	0	p_1	p_2	...
	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

= P

This is an example of a band matrix, in which the only non-zero entries are on the ^{main} diagonal and 1 diagonal either way from the main diagonal; since there are only 3 non-zero diagonals, P is said to be tridiagonal.

Moreover, all of the main diagonal entries are the same (p_2); all of the entries 1 diagonal ~~above~~ ^{below} are also the same (p_1); and all of the entries 1 diagonal above are also the same (p_3).

Such matrices are called Toeplitz

(named after Otto Toeplitz, (1881-1940) a German mathematician who was fired by the Nazis from his university position in 1935 for being Jewish. ^(died of tuberculosis at 58))

Start this process, which is called a random walk, at 0 & let it go; where is the particle likely to be at time n , n large?

A: Suppose, for example, that $(p_1, p_2, p_3) = (0.1, 0.3, 0.6)$. Then you would expect the particle

(337)

to drift off to $+\infty$. Similarly,

$(p_1, p_2, p_3) = (0.5, 0.25, 0.25)$ should yield a drift to $-\infty$. $(p_1, p_2, p_3) = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3})$?

Can show that as $n \rightarrow \infty$ every integer is visited infinitely many times, and the expected time you must wait for the chain to return to 0 (having started here) is also infinite.

The infinite random walk evidently has "too much freedom" to move around to get interesting results; let's bound it.