Stat 928: Statistical Learning Theory

Lecture: 4

The Central Limit Theorem; Large Deviations; and Rate Functions

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1 The Central Limit Theorem

While true under more general conditions, a rather simple proof exists of the central limit theorem. This proof provides some insight into our theory of large deviations.

Recall that $M_X(\lambda) = Ee^{\lambda X}$ is the moment generating function of a random variable X.

Theorem 1.1. Suppose $X_1, X_2, ... X_n$ is a sequence of independent, identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with mean μ and variance σ_2 . Suppose that the $M_X(\lambda)$ exists for all λ in a neighborhood of 0. Let $\bar{X}_n = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Then for all x,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \Pr\left(\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \le z\right) = \Phi(z)$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the standard normal CDF.

Proof. Without loss of generality, assume $\mu=0$. Define $Z_n=\frac{\bar{X}_n-\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$. By independence and properties of the MGF, we have $M_{Z_n}(\lambda)=(M_X(\frac{\lambda}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}))^n$. As the moment generating function exists around 0 (and the derivatives of the moment generating function are the moments), Taylor's theorem implies:

$$M_X(s) = M_X(0) + M_X'(0)s + \frac{1}{2}M_X''(0)s^2 + \frac{1}{3!}M_X'''(0)s^3 \dots$$

= 1 + 0 + \frac{1}{2}M_X''(0) + o(s^2)

where a function $g(s) = o(s^2)$ if $g(s)/s^2 \to 0$ as $s \to 0$. Hence,

$$M_X(\frac{\lambda}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}) = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\lambda^2}{n} + o(\frac{\lambda^2}{n})$$

where the last term is with respect to $n \to \infty$. Hence,

$$M_{Z_n}(\lambda) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\lambda^2}{n} + o(\frac{\lambda^2}{n})\right)^n \to \exp(\frac{\lambda^2}{2})$$

Thus the limiting moment generating function of Z_n is identical to that of a standard normal (in a neighborhood of 0 for λ). This proves they have identical CDFs (using properties of the MGF).

2 Large Deviations

Note that the CLT says

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr\left(\bar{X}_n \le \mu + z\sigma\sqrt{n}\right) = \Phi(z)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr\left(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + z\sigma\sqrt{n}\right) = 1 - \Phi(z)$$

which is the (asymptotic) probability in the tail.

Instead, suppose we seek the following probability

$$\Pr\left(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon\right) = ??$$

, where ϵ is fixed. Does the central limit theorem say anything useful? It is easy to see that, for any ϵ

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr\left(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon\right) = 0$$

Instead, we seek a more meaningful limit. In particular, we will examine:

$$\frac{1}{n}\ln\Pr\left(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon\right) = ??$$

Does the CLT provide the limit of the above quantity? Why have we chosen $\frac{1}{n}$?

The answer to the former question is "no" since the key difference is that ϵ is fixed in the above (while the CLT only quantifies a limit for ϵ which scales as $1/\sqrt{n}$.

2.1 Large Deviations for a Gaussian random variable

Let X be a standard Gaussian random variable: $X \sim N(0, 1)$, with density function

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}.$$

For $\epsilon > 0$, what is the probability $P(X \ge \epsilon)$?

We have the following upper bound

$$\begin{split} P(X \ge \epsilon) &= \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} dx \\ &= \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x+\epsilon)^2/2} dx \le \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x^2+\epsilon^2)/2} dx \\ &= 0.5 e^{-\epsilon^2/2} dx \end{split}$$

and lower bound

$$P(X \ge \epsilon) = \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x+\epsilon)^2/2} dx$$

$$\ge \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x+\epsilon)^2/2} dx \ge 0.34 e^{-(2\epsilon+\epsilon^2)/2} dx$$

$$\ge 0.5 e^{-(\epsilon+1)^2/2} dx.$$

Therefore we have

$$0.5e^{-(\epsilon+1)^2/2} \le P(X \ge \epsilon) \le 0.5e^{-\epsilon^2/2}$$
.

Equivalently,

$$P(X \ge \epsilon) \le 0.5e^{-\epsilon^2/2} \le P(X \ge \epsilon - 1)$$

which shows that our upper bound is sandwiched between the tail probabilities within one deviation.

Now let X_1,\ldots,X_n be n iid Gaussians $X_i\sim N(\mu,\sigma^2)$, and let $\bar{X}_n=n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Then since $P(\bar{X}_n\geq \mu+\epsilon)=P(\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-\mu)/\sigma\geq \sqrt{n}\epsilon/\sigma)$, where $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-\mu)/\sigma\sim N(0,1)$, the above bound becomes

$$0.5e^{-n(\epsilon+\sigma/\sqrt{n})^2/2\sigma^2} \le P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon) \le 0.5e^{-n\epsilon^2/2\sigma^2}.$$

The tail probability decays exponentially fast. The bound is tight, meaning that any fixed ϵ :

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} n^{-1} \ln P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon) = -\epsilon^2 / 2\sigma^2.$$

This is a large deviation result (meaning fixed deviation ϵ from the mean is much larger than standard deviation σ/\sqrt{n} of X).

3 Markov Inequality

More generally, let X_1, \ldots, X_n be n iid random variables (not necessarily Gaussian) with mean μ , and let $\bar{X}_n = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, we are interested in estimating the tail bound $P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon)$ and $P(\bar{X}_n \le \mu - \epsilon)$ for some $\epsilon > 0$.

Generally, this is achieved through Markov inequality:

Lemma 3.1. Suppose $Z \ge 0$, with probability 1. For all $t \ge 0$,

$$\Pr(Z \ge t) \le \mathbb{E}[Z]/t$$

Proof. Observe that

$$\mathbb{E}(Z) \ge \mathbb{E}[Z \ \mathrm{I}[Z > t]] \ge t \mathbb{E}[\mathrm{I}[Z > t]] = t \Pr(Z \ge t)$$

which proves the result.

Corollary 3.2. Suppose $g(x) \ge 0$ and that $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$. Then:

$$P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon) \le \frac{Eg(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\inf_{z > \epsilon} g(z)}.$$

One can use moment inequality with $g(z)=|z|^m$ for some m. However, one needs to estimate $Eg(\bar{X}_n-\mu)$. In particular, Chebyshev inequality picks $g(z)=z^2$, which is easy to estimate:

$$Eg(\bar{X}_n - \mu) = E(\bar{X}_n - \mu)^2 = \frac{1}{n} Var(X_1).$$

Therefore

$$P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon) \le \frac{Var(X_1)}{n\epsilon^2}.$$

4 Exponential Inequality

In order to get exponential tail bounds, we choose $g(z)=e^{\lambda nz}$ for some tuning parameter $\lambda>0$. Then Markov inequality becomes

$$P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon) \le \frac{Ee^{\lambda n(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}}{e^{\lambda n \epsilon}} = \frac{Ee^{\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)}}{e^{\lambda n \epsilon}} = e^{-\lambda n \epsilon} E^n e^{\lambda (X_1 - \mu)}.$$

Note that in order to use this estimate, we have to assume that $Ee^{\lambda(X_1-\mu)}<\infty$ for some $\lambda>0$. Taking logarithm, it follows that we have the following theorem

Theorem 4.1. *For any* n *and* $\epsilon > 0$:

$$n^{-1} \ln P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon) \le \inf_{\lambda > 0} [-\lambda \epsilon + \ln E e^{\lambda(X_1 - \mu)}].$$

Similarly

$$n^{-1} \ln P(\bar{X}_n \le \mu - \epsilon) \le \inf_{\lambda < 0} [\lambda \epsilon + \ln E e^{\lambda(X_1 - \mu)}].$$

The function $\Gamma(\lambda) = \ln E e^{\lambda X_1}$ is called logarithmic moment generating function of a random variable X_1 . Exponential inequality for sum of independent random variables is very easy to apply because independence allows us to change the problem of estimating the exponential moment of the sum of independent random variables into the estimating of the exponential moment of a single random variable. Another way to write tail bound is

Corollary 4.2. We have that

$$P(\bar{X}_n \ge \mu + \epsilon) \le \exp[-nI(\mu + \epsilon)],$$

where I(z) defined as

$$-I(z) = \inf_{\lambda > 0} \left[-\lambda z + \ln E e^{\lambda X_1} \right]$$

is the rate function.

Example: Gaussian random variable $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then

$$Ee^{\lambda(X_1 - \mu)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{\lambda x} e^{-x^2/2\sigma^2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\lambda^2 \sigma^2/2} e^{-(x/\sigma - \lambda\sigma)^2/2} dx / \sigma = e^{\lambda^2 \sigma^2/2}.$$

Therefore (with optimal $\lambda = \epsilon/\sigma^2$ below)

$$\inf_{\lambda>0} \left[-\lambda \epsilon + \ln E e^{-\lambda (X_1 - \mu)} \right] = \inf_{\lambda>0} \left[-\lambda \epsilon + \lambda^2 \sigma^2 / 2 \right] = -\epsilon^2 / 2\sigma^2.$$

Exactly the same (and tight) estimate of Gaussian tail inequality derived by integration.