

## 1. DELTA METHOD

**Local linear approximations:** The idea of using a first-order (linear) Taylor expansion of a function  $g$ , in the neighborhood of that constant limit is a very useful technique known as the *delta method*. This module introduces this method, named after the  $\Delta$  in the following expansion

$$g(x + \Delta x) \approx g(x) + \Delta x g'(x).$$

**Asymptotic distributions of transformed sequences:** In the central limit theorem, we consider a sequence  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . In this case, the central limit theorem states that

$$\frac{\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} Z \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

where  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X_1]$  and  $Z$  is a standard normal random variable. In this module, we wish to consider the asymptotic distribution of some function of  $\bar{X}_n$ .

In the simplest case, the answer depends on results already known: Consider a *linear* function  $g(t) = at + b$  for some known constants  $a$  and  $b$ . Since  $\mathbf{E}[\bar{X}_n] = \mu$ , clearly  $\mathbf{E}[g(\bar{X}_n)] = a\mu + b = g(\mu)$  (linearity of the expectation). Therefore, it is reasonable to ask whether  $\sqrt{n} [g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\mu)]$  tends to some distribution as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . But, the linearity of  $g(t)$  allows one to write

$$\sqrt{n} [g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\mu)] = a\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - \mu).$$

We conclude by Slutsky's theorem that

$$\frac{\sqrt{n} [g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\mu)]}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} aZ \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Of course, the distribution on the right hand side above is  $N(0, a^2)$ .

None of the preceding developments is especially deep; one might even say that it is obvious that a linear transformation of the random variable  $\bar{X}_n$  alters its asymptotic distribution by a constant multiple. Yet, what if the function  $g(t)$  is non-linear? It is in this non-linear case that a strong understanding of the argument above, as simple as it may be, pays real dividends. Since  $\bar{X}_n$  is consistent for  $\mu$  (say), then we know that, roughly speaking,  $\bar{X}_n$  will be very close to  $\mu$  for large  $n$ . Therefore, the only meaningful aspect of the behavior of  $g(t)$  will be its behavior in a small neighborhood of  $\mu$ . In a small neighborhood of  $\mu$ ,  $g(\mu)$  may be considered to be roughly a linear function if we use a first-order Taylor expansion. In particular, we may approximate

$$g(t) \approx g(\mu) + g'(\mu)(t - \mu)$$

for  $t$  in a small neighborhood of  $\mu$ . We see that  $g'(\mu)$  is the multiple of  $t$ , and the logic of the linear case above suggests

$$\frac{\sqrt{n} \{g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\mu)\}}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} g'(\mu)Z \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

Indeed, this expression is a special case of the powerful theorem known as the delta method, which we now state.

**Theorem 1.** (*Delta method*) If  $g'(a) \neq 0$  and  $n^b (X_n - a) \xrightarrow{D} X$  for  $b > 0$ , then

$$n^b \{g(X_n) - g(a)\} \xrightarrow{D} g'(a)X \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

The often used *special case* of this theorem (in which the limiting random variable is normally distributed) states the following:

**Theorem 2.** If  $g'(\mu) \neq 0$  and  $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} Z$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then

$$\frac{\sqrt{n} \{g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\mu)\}}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} g'(\mu)Z \sim N(0, [g'(\mu)]^2) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

## 2. POISSON LIMIT FOR RARE EVENTS

Let  $X_k \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  be independent random variables. The central limit theorem says that if  $p$  is fixed and  $n$  is large, the distribution of  $(S_n - np)/\sqrt{np(1-p)}$  is close to the  $N(0, 1)$  distribution.

Now, we consider a slightly different situation. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  have  $\text{Ber}(p_n)$  distribution, where  $p_n = \frac{\lambda}{n}$  and  $\lambda > 0$  is fixed. Then, we shall show that the distribution of  $X_1 + \dots + X_n$  is close to that of  $\text{Pois}(\lambda)$ . Note that the distribution of  $X_1$  changes with  $n$  and hence it would be more correct to write  $X_{n,1}, \dots, X_{n,n}$ .

**Theorem 3.** Let  $\lambda > 0$  be fixed and let  $X_{n,1}, \dots, X_{n,n}$  be i.i.d.  $\text{Ber}(\lambda/n)$ . Let  $S_n = X_{n,1} + \dots + X_{n,n}$ . Then, for every  $k \geq 0$

$$\mathbf{P}\{S_n = k\} \rightarrow e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

*Proof.* Fix  $k$  and observe that

$$\mathbf{P}\{S_n = k\} = \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-k} = \frac{n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1)}{k!} \frac{\lambda^k}{n^k} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-k}.$$

Note that  $\frac{n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1)}{n^k} \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (since  $k$  is fixed). Also,  $(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n})^{n-k} \rightarrow e^{-\lambda}$  (if not clear, note that  $(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n})^n \rightarrow e^{-\lambda}$  and  $(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n})^{-k} \rightarrow 1$ ). Hence, the right hand side above converges to  $e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}$  which is what we wanted to show. ■

What is the meaning of this? Bernoulli random variables may be thought of as indicators of events, i.e., think of  $X_{n,1}$  as  $\mathbf{1}_{A_1}$ , etc. The theorem considers  $n$  events which are independent and each of them is “rare” (since the probability of it occurring is  $\lambda/n$  which becomes small as  $n$  increases). The number of events increases, but the chance of each events decreases in such a way that the expected number of events that occur stays constant. Then, the total number of events that actually occur has an approximately Poisson distribution.

**Example 4.** (A physical example). A large amount of custard is made in the hostel mess to serve 100 students. The cook adds 300 raisins and mixes the custard so that on an average they get 3 raisins per student. But, the number of raisins that a given student gets is random and the above theorem says that it has approximately  $\text{Pois}(3)$  distribution. How so? Let  $X_k$  be the indicator of the event that the  $k$ th raisin ends up in your cup. Since there are 100 cups, the chance of this happening is  $1/100$ . The number of raisins in your cup is precisely  $X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{300}$ . Apply the theorem (take  $n = 100$  and  $\lambda = 3$ ).

**Exercise 5.** Place  $r$  balls into  $m$  bins at random. If  $m = 1000$  and  $r = 500$ , then the number of balls in the first bin has approximately  $\text{Pois}(1/2)$  distribution. Work out how this comes from the theorem.