

## MATH 321: Mathematical Statistics

### Lecture 5: The Central Limit Theorem

Chapter 5: Distributions of Functions of Random Variables (5.6 and 5.7)

#### The Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

##### Introduction

- The sample mean is one statistic whose large-sample behavior is quite important. In particular, we want to investigate its limiting distribution. This is summarized in one of the most important in statistics, the central limit theorem (CLT).
- In MATH 320, we introduced the CLT and thought about it as a sum of random variables.
- **Central Limit Theorem:** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent random variables, all of which have the same probability distribution and thus the same mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . If  $n$  is large, the sum

$$S = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$$

will be approximately normal with mean  $n\mu$  and variance  $n\sigma^2$ .

- Written succinctly: If  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f(x)$  with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \stackrel{approx}{\sim} \text{Normal}(n\mu, n\sigma^2) \quad \text{if } n \text{ is large}$$

- We used it to solve problems like this for example:

Suppose the number of claims filed on for a particular policy follow a Poisson distribution with a mean of 2 claims per year and the company has a portfolio of 500 active policies this year, which are assumed to be independent.

Find the distribution of the total number of filed claims for the entire portfolio.

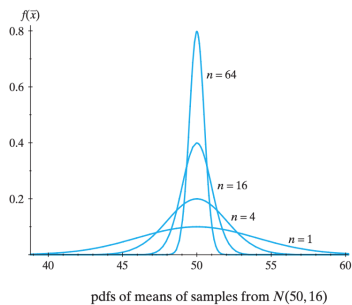
## CLT - Different perspective

- Now we will think about the CLT from a convergence (in distribution) point of view.
- Build up to CLT / convergence in distribution.

Let  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and let  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ .

1. For a fixed  $n$ :

2. As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :



The variance decreases until all probability is a single point.

3. Suppose we “center the distribution” with  $\bar{X}_n - \mu$ :

Even with the location adjustment, the variance of  $\bar{X}_n$  disappears when the sample size  $n$  increases (without bound).

4. We want to stop (or slow down) the “decay” of the variance, or we can think about this as spreading out the probability, so that when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\bar{X}_n$  (and  $\bar{X}_n - \mu$ ) does not converge to a constant, but rather distribution that still has some variation.

To do this, we multiply the quantity of interest by a factor of  $n$ :

Now this result doesn’t converge to a constant because the variance doesn’t depend on  $n$  and remains “in tact” when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

5. Then, we standardize the variance (adjusting the scale) by dividing by  $\sigma$ :
6. Lastly, it turns out that regardless of the distribution of  $X_i$  (so we are dropping the normal assumption), this result is always true!

This is the CLT.

- Convergence in distribution
  - Definition: A sequence of random variables,  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots$ , **converges in distribution** to a random variable  $Y$  if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{Y_n}(y) = F_Y(y)$$

at all points  $y$  where  $F_Y(y)$  is continuous (notation:  $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$ ).

- Although we talk of a sequence of random variables converging in distribution, it is really **the cdfs that converge, not the random variable (or statistic)**.

So for the CLT, we technically have:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{Y_n}(y) = F_Y(y)$$

Restating CLT

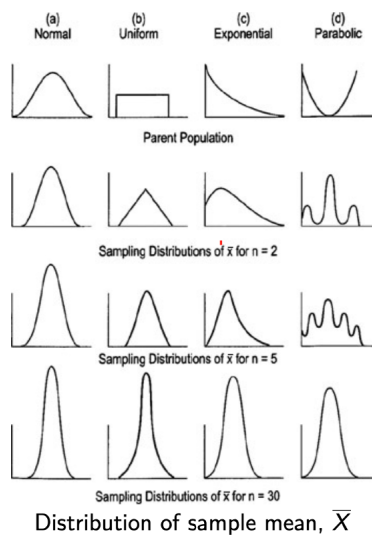
- **Theoretical result**

**Central Limit Theorem:** Let  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f(x)$  with  $E(X) = \mu$  and  $V(X) = \sigma^2 > 0$ . Then the distribution of

$$W = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1) \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

- **In practice**

This means for **any** random variable  $X$  with  $E(X) = \mu$  and  $V(X) = \sigma^2 > 0$ , as  $n$  gets larger the distribution of  $W = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$  can be more closely approximated by the standard normal distribution.



- Using this practical result

– Needed theorem: If  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ , and  $\mu$  and  $\sigma > 0$  are constants, then

$$X = \sigma Z + \mu \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

Proof:

– Results

(a)  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}W + \mu = \bar{X}$  can be approximated by

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}Z + \mu \sim \text{Normal}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \text{ for "large" } n.$$

(b)  $n\bar{X} = X_1 + \dots + X_n = S$  can be approximated by

$$(\sigma\sqrt{n})Z + n\mu \sim \text{Normal}(n\mu, n\sigma^2) \text{ for "large" } n.$$

- How large must  $n$  be?
  - Although CLT gives us a useful general approximation, we have no automatic way of knowing how good the approximation is in general. In fact, the goodness of the approximation is a function of the original distribution, and so much be checked case by case.
  - The more the distribution of  $X$  (population distribution) is “like” a normal distribution (symmetric, unimodal, continuous, etc.), the smaller the  $n$  needed for  $\bar{X}$  to be approximated well by a normal distribution.
  - **The rule  $n \geq 30$  is a lie!!** But for “school” purposes, we can just use this rule of thumb as our check.
  - With the current availability of cheap, plentiful computing power, the importance of approximation like the CLT is somewhat lessened. However, despite its limitation, it is still a marvelous result.

#### Examples

1. Let  $\bar{X}$  be the mean of a random sample of size 36 from  $\text{Exp}(\lambda = 1/3)$ . Approximate  $P(2.5 \leq \bar{X} \leq 4)$ .
2. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_{20}$  denote a random sample of size 20 from continuous Uniform  $(2, 8)$ . If  $S = X_1 + \dots + X_{20}$ , approximate  $P(S < 95)$ .

$t$ ,  $Z$ , and the CLT

- Previously, we learned the following

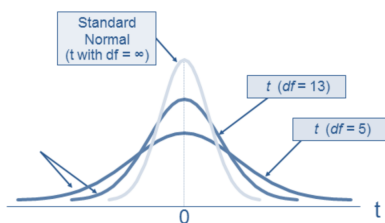
1. If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are a random sample for a  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , we know that the quantity

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$

2. (Building on 1.) However, if  $\sigma$  is unknown, we substitute  $S$  then

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

3. (Building on 2.) As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $t_{n-1} \rightarrow Z$



4. If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are **not normal** random variables, when the sample size is large

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

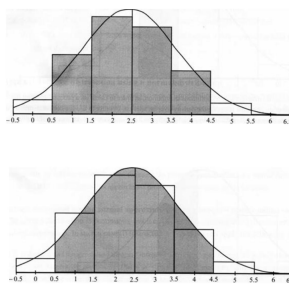
## Approximations for discrete distributions

### Continuity correction

- Motivation: Now we are going to use the CLT as an approximation tool when sampling from **discrete distributions**.

Specifically, we will discuss a way to improve our approximations to account for the discrepancy created from using a continuous distribution / probability methods (integral to calculate area under curve) on originally discrete distributions.

- This is called the (half unit) **continuity correction** and is demonstrated below.



- Estimate the following probabilities using the continuity correction:
  - (a)  $P(1 \leq X \leq 4) \approx$
  - (b)  $P(X = 2) \approx$
  - (c)  $P(1 \leq X < 4) =$
  - (d)  $P(X > 2.5) =$
- In general, if  $X$  is the original discrete random variable of interest,  $S$  is the corresponding normal random variable based on the CLT, and  $a, b$  are some integers ( $a \leq b$ ), then we can summarize the adjustments for the **continuity correction** with:

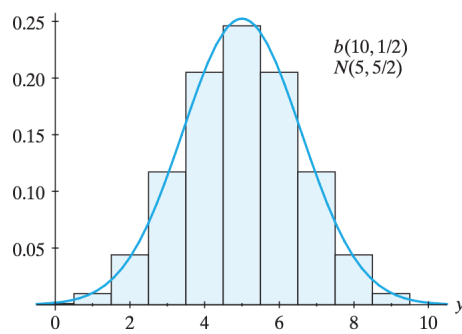
$$P(X = a) = P(a - 0.5 \leq S \leq a + 0.5)$$

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a - 0.5 \leq S \leq b + 0.5)$$

Just need to take care to decide if we are want to include or exclude  $a$  or  $b$  (so can rewrite strict inequalities  $< >$  as inclusive  $\leq \geq$  and then use rule).

## Normal approximation to the binomial distribution

- The most common scenario when applying the normal approximation is to the binomial distribution.
- Recall if  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$
- This means for “large  $n$ ”,  $X =$   
 “Rule of thumb” is that  $n$  is sufficiently large if  $np \geq 5$  and  $n(1 - p) \geq 5$ .  
 We will discuss reasoning behind this after some examples.



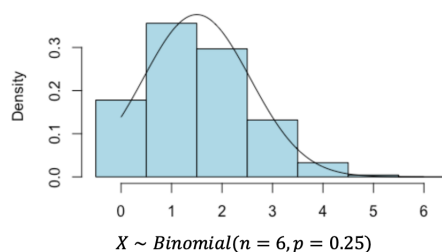
- Examples → Good use of the normal approximation
  1. Suppose that a multiple choice exam has 40 questions, each with 5 possible answers. A student feels that he has a probability of 0.55 of getting any particular question correct, with independence from one question to another.  
 Approximate the probability of the student getting at least 25 correct.
    - (a) With continuity correction:
    - (b) Without continuity correction:
    - (c) Exact answer using binomial distribution:



- Bad example: Suppose we change the scenario in example 1 so that there are only 20 questions and the probability of getting any particular question correct is now 0.10.

Compare the approximate answer and exact answer for  $P(X \geq 3)$ .

- Why is the approximation bad??
  - Lets take a look at the histogram and overlaid normal pdf for a similar scenario:



- This illustrates the mismatch between the skewed probability histogram for and the symmetric pdf of the normal distribution. In order to do a good job of approximating the binomial distribution, the normal curve must have the bulk of its own distribution between legitimate outcomes for the Binomial distribution  $[0, n]$ .
- How do we apply / check this: Based on the empirical rule, the central 95% of any normal distribution lies within two standard deviations of its mean.

- Thus, as long as we ensure that \_\_\_\_\_, the normal approximation to the a binomial distribution will be good.

Contextually, this condition means that we must expect (expected value) the number of success ( $np$ ) and failures ( $nq$ ) to be at least 5.

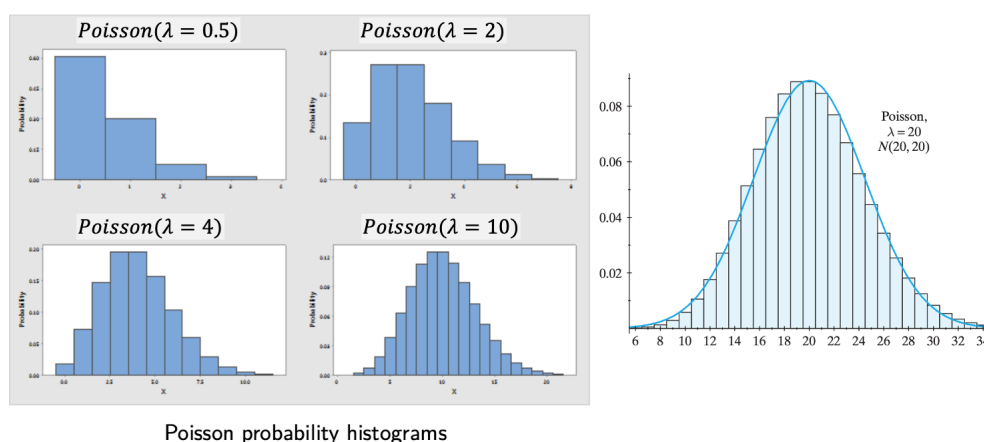
- This relationship between a large sample binomial and normal is important for confidence intervals and hypothesis tests of population proportions which we will cover next.

### Normal approximation to the Poisson distribution

- A Poisson distribution with large enough mean can also be approximated with the use of a normal distribution.

Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ , with  $E(X) = V(X) = \lambda$ , where  $\lambda = 1, 2, \dots$  (in general, we just need  $\lambda > 0$ , but for demonstration let's assume  $\lambda$  is a positive integer).

- We can rewrite  $X$  as a sum of Poisson random variables:
- This means for “large  $n$ ”,  $X =$   
 “Rule of thumb” is that  $n$  is sufficiently large if  $\lambda \geq 10$  (doesn't need to be an integer).



- Example  
 Let  $X$  equal the number of alpha particles emitted by barium-133 per second and counted by a Geiger counter. Assume that  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda = 49)$ .  
 Approximate  $P(45 \leq X < 60)$ .

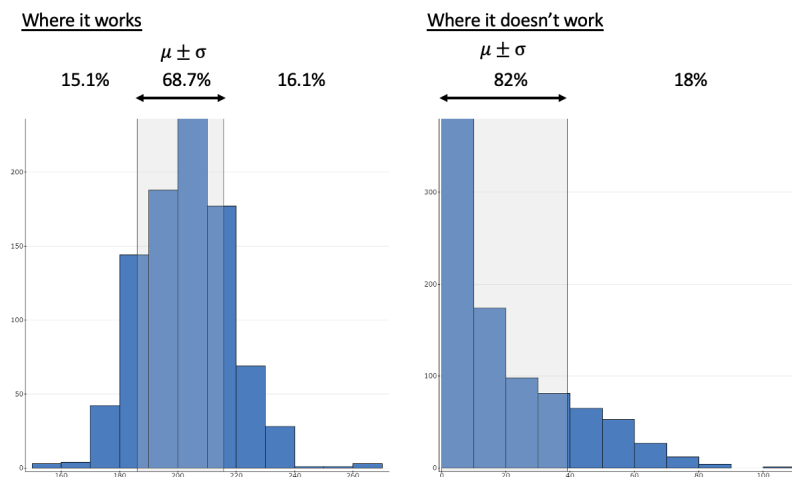
### Summary of normal approximation to the binomial and Poisson distributions

- Suppose  $n$  is large and  $a = 0, 1, \dots, n$ 
  - (a) CLT:
    - If  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p) \implies X \approx S \sim \text{Normal}(\mu = np, \sigma = \sqrt{npq})$
    - If  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda) \implies X \approx S \sim \text{Normal}(\mu = \lambda, \sigma = \sqrt{\lambda})$
  - (b) Continuity correction:
    - $P(X \leq a) \approx \text{Normalcdf}(\text{lower} = 0, \text{upper} = a + 0.5)$
    - $P(X < a) \approx \text{Normalcdf}(\text{lower} = 0, \text{upper} = a - 0.5)$
- Final note: In practice, if you have technology / software, just compute discrete probabilities exactly. However, it is important to learn how to apply the central limit theorem.

### Central interval probabilities

#### Empirical rule

- Motivation: Because the normal distribution can be used in so many scenarios due to the CLT, there are common generalizations that are made about **central interval** probabilities for distributions that are approximately bell-shaped.
- First, let's calculate these exactly for the standard normal curve. These will of course apply to any normal distribution  $X$  with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  because we can standardize to get  $Z$ .
  1.  $P(-1 \leq Z \leq 1) =$
  2.  $P(|Z| \leq 2) =$
  3.  $P(|Z| \leq 3) =$
- Not all data is exactly normally distributed of course, but because of the CLT many distributions can be approximated by a normal distribution. So we can use the exact probabilities above to make generalizations about these distributions that have a similar shape.
- The **empirical rule** states that for approximately normal distribution:
  1. Approximately \_\_\_\_\_ of data falls within \_\_\_\_\_ standard deviation of the mean.
  2. Approximately \_\_\_\_\_ of data falls within \_\_\_\_\_ standard deviations of the mean.
  3. Approximately \_\_\_\_\_ (nearly all) of data falls within \_\_\_\_\_ standard deviations of the mean.



- Example: Suppose that the scores on an achievement test are known to have, approximately, a normal distribution with mean  $\mu = 64$  and standard deviation  $\sigma = 10$ .
  - Find the scores probability scores are between 54 and 74.
  - Find which two values lies the central 95%?
  - Find the percent of scores above 94.
- Thus, knowledge of the mean and the standard deviation gives us a fairly good picture of the frequency distribution of scores when the bell-shape is present (or assumed).