

# **Lecture 13:**

## **Limit theorems**

# Law of large numbers

# Law of large numbers

Assume we have i.i.d.  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  with finite mean  $\mu$  and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . Let

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

be the sample mean (of  $X_1$  through  $X_n$ ) - it itself is a r.v. with mean  $\mu$ :

$$E(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{1}{n}E(X_1 + \dots + X_n) = \frac{1}{n}(E(X_1) + \dots + E(X_n)) = \mu$$

and variance  $\sigma^2/n$ :

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{1}{n^2}\text{Var}(X_1 + \dots + X_n) = \frac{1}{n^2}(\text{Var}(X_1) + \dots + \text{Var}(X_n)) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

The **law of large numbers (LLN)** says that as  $n$  grows, the sample mean  $\bar{X}_n$  converges to the true mean  $\mu$ . LLN has two versions – “weak” and “strong”.

# Law of large numbers

**Theorem 10.2.1** (Strong LLN). The sample mean  $\bar{X}_n$  converges to the true mean  $\mu$  pointwise, with probability 1. Recall that r.v.s are functions from the sample space  $S$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  – **pointwise convergence** says that  $\bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu$  for each point  $s \in S$ , except maybe some set  $B_0$  of points, as long as  $P(B_0) = 0$ . In short,  $P(\bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu) = 1$ .

**Theorem 10.2.2** (Weak LLN). For all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . (This is called **convergence in probability**).

**Proof:** Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By Chebyshev's ineq.,  $P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \varepsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n\varepsilon^2}$ .

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the r.h.s goes to 0, and so must the l.h.s.

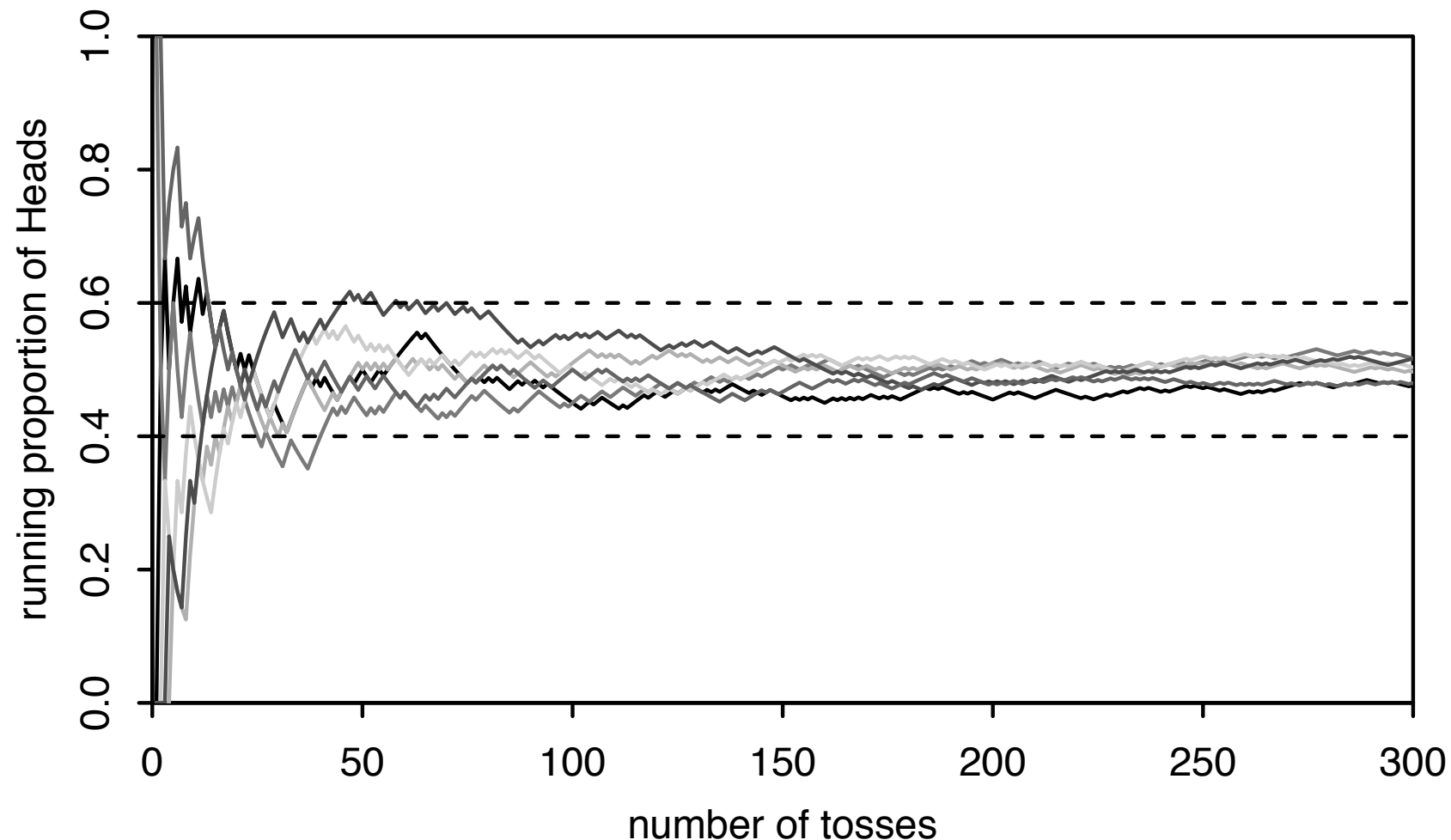
# Law of large numbers

LLN is essential for simulations, statistics and science in general – when generating data by replicating an experiment and averaging the result to approximate the theoretical average, we appeal to LLN.

**Example 10.2.3** (Running proportion of Heads). Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be i.i.d.  $\text{Bern}(1/2)$  (coin tosses).  $\bar{X}_n$  – the proportion of Heads after  $n$  tosses, by SLLN, the sequence  $\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2, \dots$  will converge to  $1/2$ .

Outcomes like HHHH... or HHTHHT... are possible, but collectively have zero probability of occurring. The WLLN says that  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $P(|\bar{X}_n - 1/2| > \varepsilon)$  can be made as small as we like as  $n$  grows

# Law of large numbers



LLN does not contradict the memoryless-ness of the coin: the fact that the proportion of Heads converges to  $1/2$  does ***not*** imply that after a long string of Heads the coin is “due” for a Tails to balance things – convergence happens by past tosses being swamped away by infinitely many tosses yet to come.

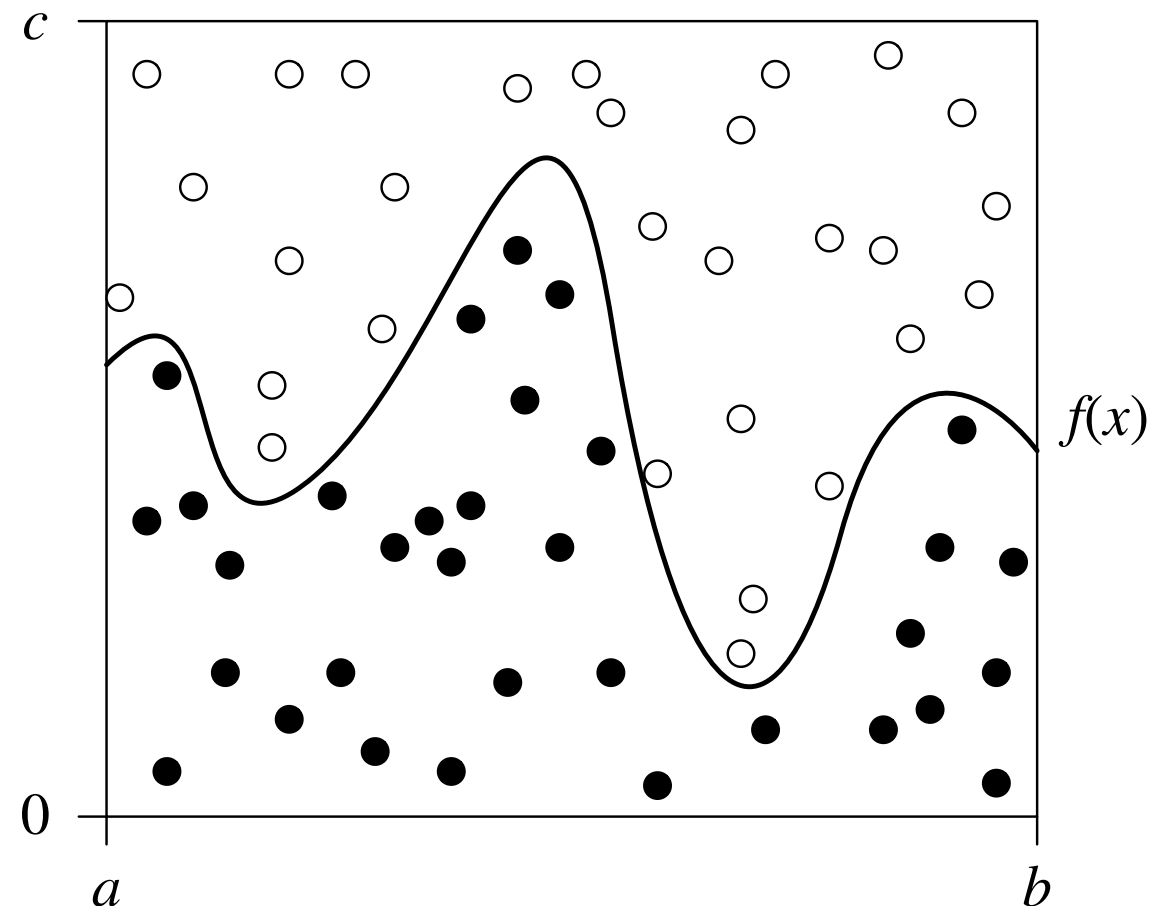
# Law of large numbers

**Example 10.2.5** (Monte Carlo integration). Let  $f$  be some

complicated function whose integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  we'd like to

approximate. Assume  $0 \leq f(x) \leq c$ , so we know the integral is finite.

By randomly (uniformly) generating points from the rectangle  $a \leq x \leq b$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq c$ , area under  $y = f(x)$  (the integral's value) can be approximated by  $c \cdot (b - a) \cdot p$ , where  $p$  is the fraction of points under  $y = f(x)$



# The Central Limit Theorem



# Central Limit Theorem

Assume we have i.i.d.  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  with finite mean  $\mu$  and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . LLN says that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\bar{X}_n$  converges to  $\mu$  with probability 1. But what is the distribution?

**Theorem 10.3.1** (Central limit theorem). As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0,1) \text{ in distribution.}$$

That means that the CDF of the l.h.s converges to  $\Phi$ , the CDF of the standard Normal distribution.

# Central Limit Theorem

**Proof:** Let  $M(t) = E(e^{tX_j})$  – be the moment generating function (MGF) of  $X_j$ . Assume  $\mu = 0$ ,  $\sigma^2 = 1$ . (We would standardise  $\bar{X}_n$  for the theorem anyway, so we might as well standardise  $X_j$ ).

Then  $M(0) = 1$ ,  $M'(0) = \mu = 0$  and  $M''(0) = \sigma^2 = 1$ .

We wish to show that the MGF of  $\sqrt{n}\bar{X}_n = (X_1 + \dots + X_n)/\sqrt{n}$  converges to the MGF of the  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ , which is  $e^{t^2/2}$ . (This is because convergence of MGFs implies convergence of distributions)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } E(e^{t(X_1 + \dots + X_n)/\sqrt{n}}) &= E(e^{tX_1/\sqrt{n}}) E(e^{tX_2/\sqrt{n}}) \dots E(e^{tX_n/\sqrt{n}}) = \\ &= \left( M(t/\sqrt{n}) \right)^n. \end{aligned}$$

# Central Limit Theorem

**Proof:**  $E(e^{t(X_1+\dots+X_n)/\sqrt{n}}) = \left(M(t/\sqrt{n})\right)^n$  – as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , this is

indeterminate of form  $1^\infty$ , so let's look at the logarithm (and then exponentiate):

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \log M\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log M(yt)}{y^2} \quad \text{where } y = 1/\sqrt{n}$$

$$= \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{t M'(yt)}{2y M(yt)} \quad \text{by L'Hôpital's rule}$$

$$= \frac{t}{2} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{M'(yt)}{y} \quad \text{since } M(yt) \rightarrow 1$$

$$= \frac{t^2}{2} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} M''(yt) \quad \text{by L'Hôpital's rule}$$

$= t^2/2$ . So the MGF of  $\sqrt{n}\bar{X}_n$  approaches  $e^{t^2/2}$ , the  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$  MGF.

# Central Limit Theorem

CLT gives an **approximation** for the distr. of  $\bar{X}_n$  for  $n$  large, but finite:

**Approximation 10.3.2** (CLT approximation). For large  $n$ , the distribution of  $\bar{X}_n \dot{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$  – is approximately normal.

Note that the distribution of  $X_j$  can be **any!** – as long as the mean and variance are finite, and yet large-sample average would be approximately normally distributed!

**Example 10.3.3** (Running proportion of Heads). Again  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  – i.i.d. Bern(1/2). LLN says  $\bar{X}_n \rightarrow 1/2$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Now we can say more:  $\bar{X}_n \dot{\sim} \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4n}\right)$ . For example, when  $n = 100$ ,

$\text{SD}(\bar{X}_n) = 1/20 = 0.05$ , so the 68-95-99.7 rule says there's a 95% chance that  $\bar{X}_n$  is in the interval  $[0.4, 0.6]$ .

# Central Limit Theorem

Equivalently,  $W_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n = n\bar{X}_n$  is also approximately Normally distributed:  $W_n \dot{\sim} \mathcal{N}(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$ .

**Example 10.3.4** (Poisson). Let  $Y \sim \text{Pois}(n)$ . We can consider  $Y$  to be a sum of  $n$  i.i.d.  $\text{Pois}(1)$  r.v.s. So, for large  $n$ :

$$Y \dot{\sim} \mathcal{N}(n, n)$$

**Example 10.3.5** (Gamma). Let  $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$ . We can consider  $Y$  to be a sum of  $n$  i.i.d.  $\text{Expo}(\lambda)$  r.v.s. So, for large  $n$ ,

$$Y \dot{\sim} \mathcal{N}(n/\lambda, n/\lambda^2)$$

**Example 10.3.6** (Binomial). Let  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ . We can consider  $Y$  to be a sum of  $n$  i.i.d.  $\text{Bern}(p)$  r.v.s. So, for large  $n$ ,

$$Y \dot{\sim} \mathcal{N}(np, np(1 - p))$$

The latter is very widely used in Statistics!

# Chi-Square and Student-*t*

# Chi-Square and Student- $t$

These are two continuous distributions closely related to the Normal

**Definition 10.4.1** (Chi-Square) Let  $V = Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_n^2$  where  $Z_i$  are all i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ . Then  $V$  is said to have the Chi-Square distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom, written as  $V \sim \chi_n^2$ .

Actually,  $\chi_n^2$  is a special case of the Gamma:

**Theorem 10.4.2** The  $\chi_n^2$  distribution is the  $\text{Gamma}(\frac{n}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  distribution

**Proof** follows from the PDF of  $Z_i^2 \sim \chi_1^2$  being the PDF of  $\text{Gamma}(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ , and so  $V = Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_n^2$  – sum of  $n$  independent  $\text{Gamma}(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  r.v.s – is  $V \sim \text{Gamma}(\frac{n}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ .

# Chi-Square and Student- $t$

Expectation of Chi-Square is  $E(V) = nE(Z_1^2) = n$  and variance:

$$\text{Var}(V) = n\text{Var}(Z_1^2) = n(E(Z_1^4) - (EZ_1^2)^2) = n(3 - 1) = 2n.$$

Chi-Square is important in Statistics because it's related to **sample variance** – used to estimate the true variance of a distribution:

**Example 10.4.3** (Distribution of sample variance). For i.i.d.

$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , the sample variance is the r.v.

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X}_n)^2$$

which is  $\frac{(n-1)S_n^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$  – distributed.



# Chi-Square and Student- $t$

The Student- $t$  is defined in terms of standard Normal and  $\chi_n^2$ :

**Definition 10.4.4** (Student- $t$ ). Let  $T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{V/n}}$  where  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ ,

$V \sim \chi_n^2$  and  $Z$  is independent of  $V$ . Then  $T$  is said to have the Student- $t$  distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom, written  $T \sim t_n$ .

This distribution was introduced in 1908 by William Gosset, a Master Brewer at Guinness, working on quality control of beer. He was required to publish this work under a pseudonym.

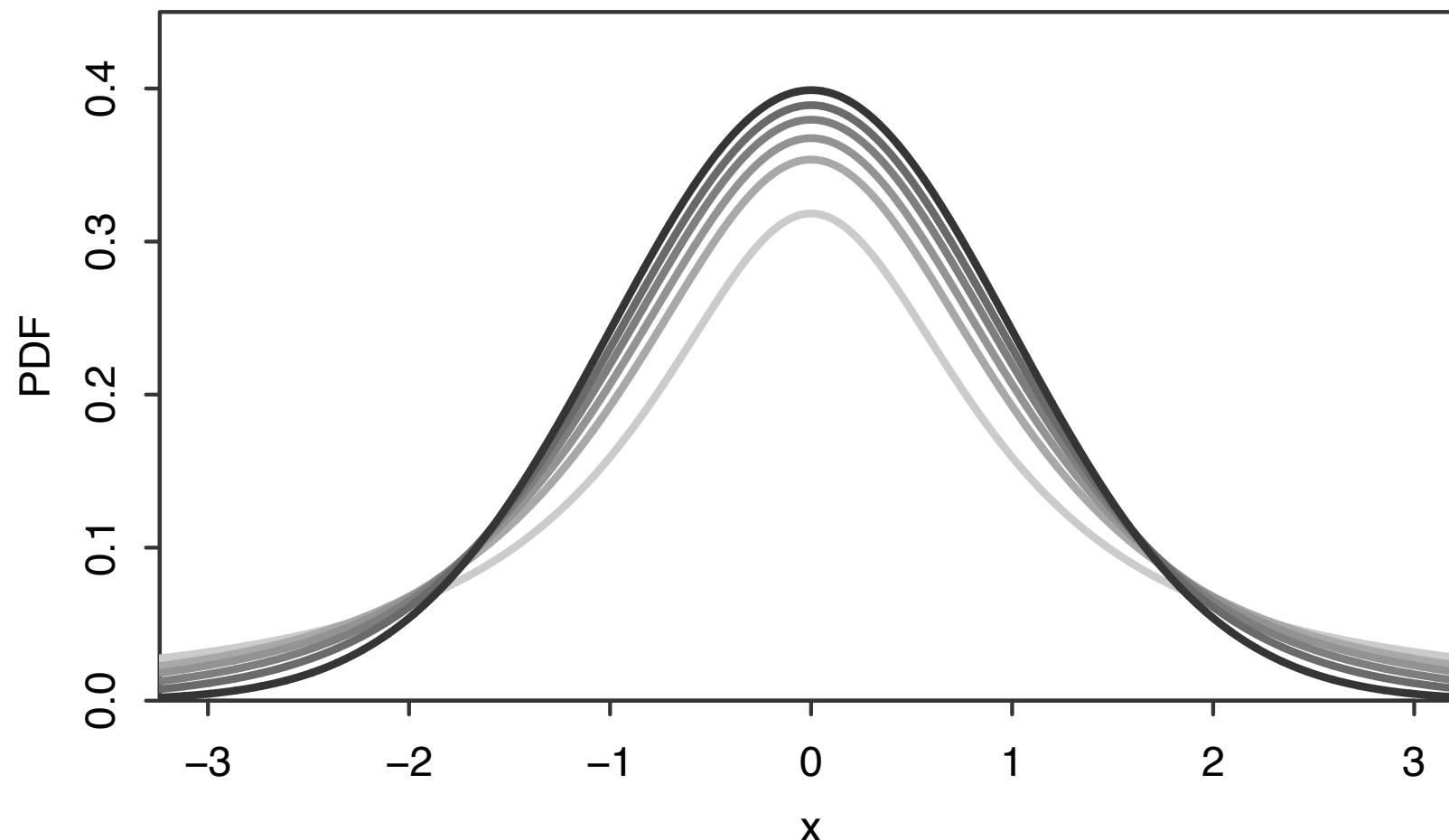
The  $t$  distribution forms the basis of hypothesis testing,  **$t$ -tests**, extremely widely used in practice.

# Chi-Square and Student- $t$

The PDF of the Student- $t$  with  $n$  d.o.f. looks like standard Normal, except with heavier tails:

$$f_T(t) = \frac{\Gamma((n+1)/2)}{\sqrt{n\pi} \Gamma(n/2)} \left(1 + t^2/n\right)^{-(n+1)/2}$$

Here's how it looks for different  $n$  (smaller  $n$  – heavier tails):



# Chi-Square and Student- $t$

**Theorem 10.4.5** (Student- $t$  properties). The Student- $t$  distribution  $t_n$  has the following properties:

1. Symmetry: If  $T \sim t_n$ , then  $-T \sim t_n$  as well.
2. Cauchy as special case: The  $t_1$  distribution is the same as the Cauchy distribution!
3. Convergence to Normal: as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the  $t_n$  distribution converges to the standard Normal  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$