

# Central Limit Theorem

Ryan Miller

- ▶ John Kerrich, a South African mathematician, was visiting Copenhagen in 1940
- ▶ When Germany invaded Denmark he was sent to an internment camp, where he spend the next five years
- ▶ To pass time, Kerrich conducted experiments exploring probability
  - ▶ One of these experiments involved flipping a coin 10,000 times

# Kerrich's Experiment and Probability

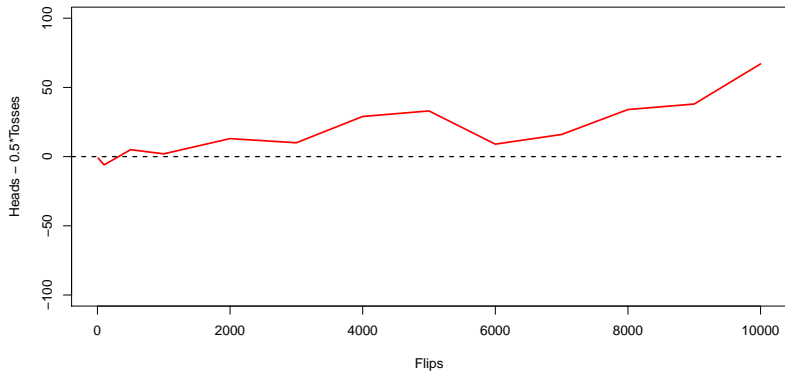
- ▶ We know that a fair coin shows “Heads” with a probability of 50%
- ▶ So, if we flip a coin many times you might expect roughly even numbers of “Heads” and “Tails”
  - ▶ We'll explore the results of Kerrich's experiment to understand more precisely what probability theory tells about flipping a coin 10,000 times

# Kerrich's Results

Number of Tosses ( $n$ )	Number of Heads	Heads - $0.5 * \text{Tosses}$
10	4	-1
100	44	-6
500	255	5
1,000	502	2
2,000	1,013	13
3,000	1,510	10
4,000	2,029	29
5,000	2,533	33
6,000	3,009	9
7,000	3,516	16
8,000	4,034	34
9,000	4,538	38
10,000	5,067	67

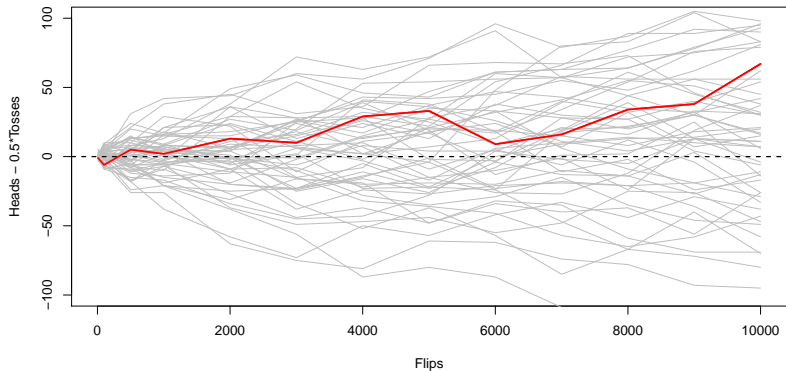
# Kerrich's Results

It seems like the number of heads and tails are actually getting further apart... could this be a fluke?



# Kerrich's Experiment Repeated 50 times

No, the phenomenon occurs systematically when repeating Kerrich's experiment

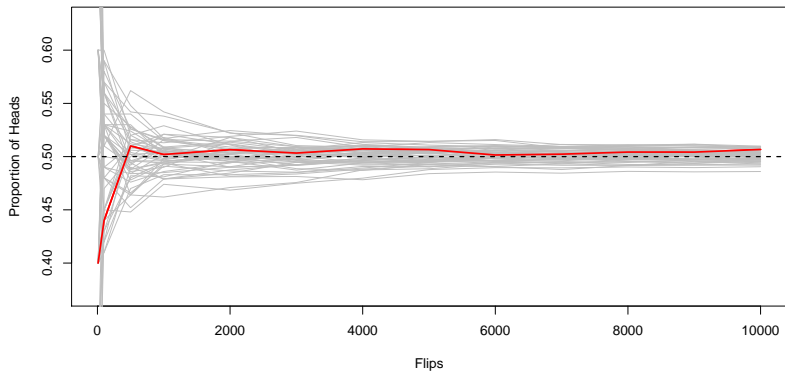


# How we Summarize

- ▶ Hopefully you recognize it is a little out of the ordinary to summarize Kerrich's experiment by reporting "Heads -  $0.5 * \text{Tosses}$ "
  - ▶ The summary measure seems reasonable, but it isn't something you see very often
- ▶ Instead, it's very likely your first thought was that this experiment should be summarized using the proportion of heads
  - ▶ There is a reason for this...

# Proportions

The *sample proportion* of heads behaves exactly as we'd expect, but why?



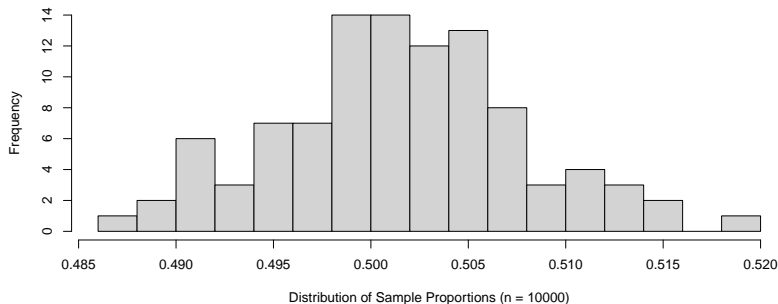


# Law of Large Numbers

- ▶ Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are random variables with the same expected value  $E(X) = \mu$
- ▶ The **law of large numbers** states that as a  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the sample average will converge to the random variable's expected value, or  $\sum_i X_i / n \rightarrow \mu$
- ▶ For binary events, the sample proportion is just the average of a sequence of Bernoulli (binary) random variables!

# Distribution of the Sample Proportion

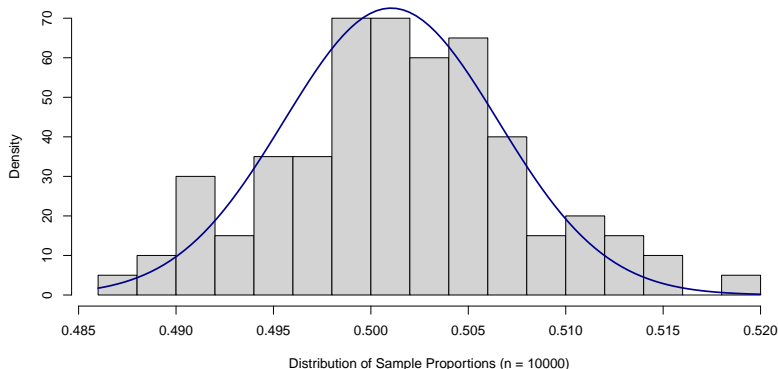
Even when conducting 10,000 coin flips, none of the sample proportions were *precisely* 0.5, below is a histogram:



However, this distribution is incredibly useful, it allows us to express the variability that can be expected in a sample proportion *by random chance alone*

# Distribution of the Sample Proportion

Even more useful is that it can be proven that the *distribution of the sample proportion* follows a *normal curve*!



# Central Limit Theorem

- ▶ Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables with expected value  $E(X) = \mu$  and variance  $Var(X) = \sigma^2$  (see Probability Part 2 for a definition of variance)
- ▶ Let  $\bar{X}$  denote the mean of all  $n$  random variables, **Central Limit Theorem** (CLT) states:

$$\sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \rightarrow N(0, 1)$$

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- ▶ Often it is more useful to think of CLT in the following way (which abuses notation):

$$\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$$

# The Power of CLT

- ▶ Central Limit Theorem is one of the most important theoretical results in all of statistics
- ▶ In the real world, it is nearly impossible to ever figure out the precise distribution of your data
- ▶ But if we focus on *sample averages* we don't need to worry about this, CLT tells us what the distribution of sample averages will look like

# Example

- ▶ The Transport Security Administration (TSA) oversees all travel in the United States, which includes screening all persons and personal possessions traveling via airplane.
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- ▶ In 2004, the average claim amount against the TSA was \$820.38 with a standard deviation of \$20321.43
  - ▶ Notice these data are extremely right-skewed (the median claim was only \$150)
- ▶ Suppose the TSA anticipates 300 new claims in any given month (consider this a random sample from the population)
  - ▶ What is the probability the month's average claim will exceed \$2000?

## Example (solution)

- ▶ For a sample of size  $n = 300$ , Central Limit Theorem suggests:

$$\bar{X} \sim N(820.38, 20321.43/\sqrt{300})$$

- ▶ We can then calculate  $P(\bar{X} \geq 1000)$  using the normal distribution:

```
pnorm(2000, mean = 820.38,  
      sd = 20321.43/sqrt(300), lower.tail = FALSE)
```

```
## [1] 0.1573468
```

- ▶ So there's a 15.7% chance the sample average exceeds \$2000

# The “Fuzzy” Central Limit Theorem

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- ▶ Each of these examples depends upon thousands of genetic and/or environmental factors making small contributions
  - ▶ For an individual observation, what we see is the average of all of these numerous factors, making the population appear normally distributed
- ▶ Put differently, CLT tells us that the distribution of averages is normal
  - ▶ So if a person's observed height reflects the average effect of thousands of genes, the distribution of heights across the population will be approximately normal

# Babies Revisited (again)

- ▶ On the first day of class we looked at a study involving babies choosing between a “helper” and “hinderer” toy
  - ▶ Recall that 14 of 16 infants chose the “helper” toy
  - ▶ We used simulation to determine that this result would be very unlikely to happen by random chance alone

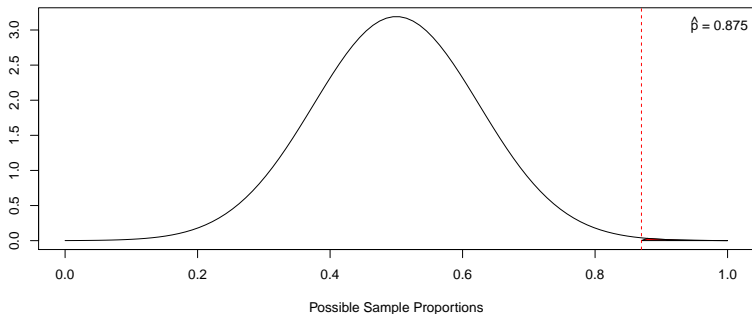
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  - ▶ Recall that 14 of 16 infants chose the “helper” toy
  - ▶ We used simulation to determine that this result would be very unlikely to happen by random chance alone
- ▶ Now we can use Central Limit Theorem:
  - ▶ Let  $X_i$  denote the  $i^{th}$  baby's choice, then  $E(X) = p$
  - ▶ Because  $X$  is a Bernoulli random variable,  $Var(X) = p * (1 - p)$
  - ▶ All together:

$$\hat{p} \sim N\left(p, \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}\right)$$

# Babies Revisited (again)

- ▶ Under the null model,  $p = 0.5$  so  $\hat{p} \sim N(0.5, \sqrt{\frac{.5(1-.5)}{16}})$
- ▶ The probability of observing a sample proportion at least as large as  $\hat{p} = 14/16 = 0.875$  is depicted below
  - ▶ The  $p$ -value is minuscule, 0.0013

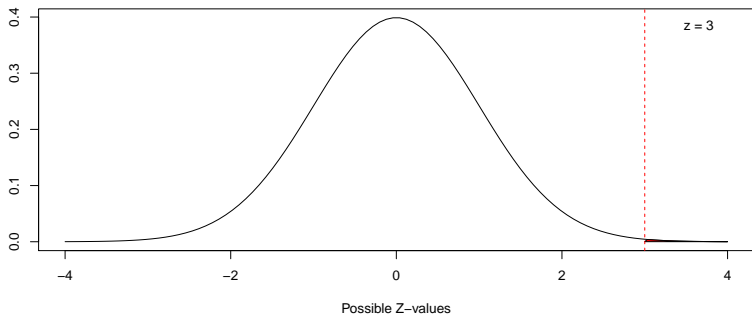




# Babies Revisited (again)

Historically, we'd *standardize* our observed proportion in order to find this  $p$ -value using the standard normal distribution:

$$z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/n}} = \frac{0.875 - 0.5}{.25/16} = 3$$



# The Z-Test

The general procedure we just walked through is known as the “Z-Test”, it involves the following steps:

1. Decide upon a suitable summary measure (ie: the sample proportion,  $\hat{p}$ )
2. Decide upon a null model for that summary measure (ie: coin flips, or  $p = 0.5$ )
3. Standardize the observed summary measure to obtain a z-score (ie:  $z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/n}}$ ), this describes how unusual our sample is relative to other samples that we'd expect under the null model
4. Use the standard normal distribution to calculate the probability of observing a z-score as extreme as the one in our sample

The Z-Test is extremely general, but be aware that it does really on an *asymptotic result* that is only perfectly accurate in the limit.

- ▶ CLT only applies to *independent* observations
- ▶ CLT tells us about the distribution of sample averages (noting that proportions are a average of zeros and ones)
  - ▶ It doesn't tell us about other summary measures (see our original summary of Kerrich's experiment)
- ▶ CLT is an *asymptotic* result, meaning its results may not be accurate for sample sample sizes ( $n = 30$  is a commonly cited threshold)

Broadly speaking, *statistical inference* primarily addresses two goals:

- ▶ Hypothesis testing
  - ▶ Using sample data to evaluate a null model of a population
- ▶ Estimation
  - ▶ Using sample data to accurately determine some aspect of a population (ie: the population mean, the correlation between two variables, etc.)

The next portion of the course cover these two topics in detail