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The central limit theorem

Theorem 1.1

(The central limit theorem, Lindeberg-Lévy) Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence of identically distributed and independent random variables having mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then

$$\frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \rightarrow N(0, 1) \text{ or}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \leq a \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^a \exp(-t^2/2) dt, \forall a \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The central limit theorem

- The central limit theorem allows to estimate probabilities for sum of independent random variables.
- On the other hand, the theorem explains why so many processes (from social sciences, biology, psychology etc) follow the normal law.
- Essentially the central limit theorem says that, for large samples ($n \geq 30$), the variable

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$$

- behaves like a standard normal law, $N(0, 1)$.
- The central limit theorem holds even for dependent variables, if their correlation is very small.

Normal approximation to the binomial distribution

- Let X_n be a sequence of Bernoulli(p) independent variables.
- $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ is a binomial distributed variable, $B(n, p)$.
- Using the central limit theorem we get the de Moivre-Laplace theorem which says that for large values of n the variable

$$Y = \frac{X - \mathbb{E}[X]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[X]}} = \frac{X - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}$$

is a standard normal variable ($N(0, 1)$).

- The estimation is good for $np(1-p) \geq 10$.

Normal approximation to the binomial distribution

Theorem 2.1

(de Moivre-Laplace theorem) When k is around np , as n grows large we have

$$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \sim \frac{\exp -\frac{(k-np)^2}{2np(1-p)}}{\sqrt{2\pi np(1-p)}}.$$

- Consider the following example: let X be the number of tail occurrences in 40 flippings of a fair coin.
- Compute $P(X = 20)$.

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = 20) &= P(19.5 \leq X \leq 20.5) = \\ &= P\left(\frac{19.5 - 20}{\sqrt{10}} \leq \frac{X - 20}{\sqrt{10}} \leq \frac{20.5 - 20}{\sqrt{10}}\right) = \end{aligned}$$

The continuity correction

$$P\left(-0.16 \leq \frac{X - 20}{\sqrt{10}} \leq 0.16\right) \sim \\ \sim \Phi(0.16) - \Phi(-0.16) = 0.1272,$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the distribution function of $N(0, 1)$.

- *Continuity correction* is an adjustment that is made whenever a discrete distribution is approximated by a continuous one.
- $P(X = 10) = P(9.5 \leq X \leq 10.5)$, $P(X > 15) = P(X \geq 15.5)$,
 $P(X < 13) = P(X \leq 12.5)$.

Generate uniform random numbers

- When we talk about random numbers we often understand values of a uniform random variable.
- There are two types of uniform random variables: discrete and continuous.
- For example in order to choose uniformly at random an integer between 1 and n (sometimes between 0 and $(n - 1)$) we have to generate a value of a discrete random variable U_n .
- On the other hand for choosing uniformly at random a number in $[0, 1]$ we have to generate a value of a continuous random variable $U_{[0,1]}$.
- Generally speaking, *to simulate a certain random variable means to generate values that follow its distribution.*

Generate random numbers

- Almost every programming language has random number generators of both types; we will use the random number generators from R.
- We review the R commands for commonly employed discrete and continuous distributions.
- Functions that start with p , q , d and r give the (cumulative) distribution function - CDF, the inverse of CDF, the probability density function - PDF, and (a value of a) a random variable having the specified distribution, respectively.
- For generating discrete uniform random numbers one can use the `sample()` function.

Generate random numbers

Distribution	Commands			
Binomial	<code>pbinom()</code>	<code>qbinom()</code>	<code>dbinom()</code>	<code>rbinom()</code>
Geometric	<code>pgeom()</code>	<code>qgeom()</code>	<code>dgeom()</code>	<code>rgeom()</code>
Poisson	<code>ppois()</code>	<code>qpois()</code>	<code>dpois()</code>	<code>rpois()</code>
Uniform	<code>punif()</code>	<code>qunif()</code>	<code>dunif()</code>	<code>runif()</code>
Exponential	<code>pexp()</code>	<code>qexp()</code>	<code>dexp()</code>	<code>rexp()</code>
Normal	<code>pnorm()</code>	<code>qnorm()</code>	<code>dnorm()</code>	<code>rnorm()</code>
Student	<code>pt()</code>	<code>qt()</code>	<code>dt()</code>	<code>rt()</code>
Gamma	<code>pgamma()</code>	<code>qgamma()</code>	<code>dgamma()</code>	<code>rgamma()</code>

- You can find details about all these function using `help(name)` in R or RStudio.

Generate random numbers

- In order to simulate a discrete random variable all we need to know is its distribution.

$$X : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_k & \dots \\ p_1 & p_2 & \dots & p_k & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

- We simulate X like follows: we generate an uniform random number

$$U \text{ and return } x_i \text{ if } \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} p_j \leq U < \sum_{j=1}^i p_j.$$

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

Example 1. (LLN - Buffon's needle problem) The problem (stated in 1733 and first solved in 1777 by french naturalist and mathematician Comte de Buffon) asks to find the probability that a needle of length l will cross a line, given a straight surface with equally spaced parallel lines at distance $2d$.

Suppose that the needle length is less than the distance between the lines (the easiest situation to analyse); there are two variables that determine the relative position of the needle to the closest line: the angle, x , at which the needle falls and the distance from the middle of the needle to this (closest) line, y .

The needle will cross the closest line if and only if $y \leq l/2 \sin x$, for every $x \in [0, \pi]$.

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

All the cases are completely described by the pairs $(x, y) \in [0, \pi] \times [0, d]$, and the favorable cases are the pairs belonging to the area under the graph of the function $f : [0, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f(x) = l/2 \sin x$.

Thus, the probability is

$$\frac{\int_0^{\pi} f(x) dx}{\pi \cdot d} = \frac{1}{\pi d} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{l}{2} \sin x dx = \frac{l}{2\pi d} [-\cos x]_0^{\pi} = \frac{l}{\pi d}.$$

For $l = d = 1$, that is the needle length is half of the distance between the lines, the probability is $1/\pi$.

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

Introduce the random experiment of launching the needle and define a Bernoulli variable, X , with value 1 if and only if the needle cross a line; the probability of success and the expectation of X is $1/\pi$.

If we independently repeat n times this experiment we will get an n size sample $(X_i)_{i=1,n}$. Because of the Law of Large Numbers $\bar{x}_n \rightarrow 1/\pi$, thus, for large enough values of n ,

$$\bar{x}_n = \frac{\text{number of successes}}{n} \approx \frac{1}{\pi}.$$

This kind of relation could be used to obtain an experimental approximation of π . Several needle casters already performed this experiment.

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

Example 2. (Verifying LLN) Consider a given probability distribution, X , having mean μ and variance σ^2 , and a sequence of n independent identical distributed random variables X_i , $i = \overline{1, n}$. The Law of Large Numbers says that in a certain probabilistic sense, the sample mean converges to the known mean:

$$\bar{x}_n \rightarrow \mu \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Let us verify this law using the Poisson distribution with different λ parameters (for a *Poisson* distribution $\mu = \lambda$).

λ	2	3	4	6	8	12	15
\bar{x}_n	1.955	2.977	4.003	6.027	8.018	12.093	14.925

We observe that the resulted statistics ($n = 5000$) are very close to the corresponding known expectations. (The samples are obtained using $rpois(n, \lambda)$.)

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

If we repeat the former test with Gamma distribution for different pairs of (α, λ) parameters (the expectation is $\mu = \alpha/\lambda$) we get

α	2	2	3	4	6	6	6	12
λ	1.5	2	2	3	5	4	8	4
\bar{x}_n	1.361	1.009	1.489	1.345	1.204	1.501	0.752	2.973
μ	1.333	1.000	1.500	1.333	1.200	1.500	0.750	3.000

Again, the resulted sample means ($n = 5000$) are very close to the corresponding expectations. (The samples are obtained using `rgamma(n, alpha, lambda)`.)

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

Example 3. (CLT - de Moivre-Laplace) The ideal size of a first-year class at a particular college is 150 students. The college, knowing from past experience that, on the average, only 30% of those accepted for admission will actually attend, uses a policy of approving the applications of 450 students. Compute the probability that at least 151 first-year students attend this college.

Solution. Let X be the number of students that attend; we can assume that each accepted applicant will independently attend. Thus $X : B(450, 0.3)$ and

$$\begin{aligned} P(X > 150) &= P(X \geq 150.5) = P\left(\frac{X - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \geq \frac{150.5 - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}\right) = \\ &= P\left(\frac{X - 135}{\sqrt{81}} \geq \frac{15.5}{\sqrt{81}}\right) \approx P(Z \geq 1.722) \end{aligned}$$

where $Z : N(0, 1)$. Hence $P(X \geq 150) \approx 1 - \text{pnorm}(1.722) = 0.0425$.

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

Example 4. (*CLT*) The weights of a population of workers have mean 167 and standard deviation 27. If a sample of 36 workers is chosen, what is the probability that the sample mean of their weights lies between 163 and 170?

Solution. Let us denote by \bar{x}_n the sample mean, from CLT, $\frac{\bar{x}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ approximately follows a standard normal distribution, therefore

$$\begin{aligned} P(163 \leq \bar{x}_n \leq 170) &= P\left(\frac{163 - 167}{4.5} \leq \frac{\bar{x}_n - 167}{4.5} \leq \frac{170 - 167}{4.5}\right) = \\ &= P\left(-0.888 \leq \frac{\bar{x}_n - 167}{4.5} \leq 0.888\right) \approx P(-0.888 \leq Z \leq 0.888) = \\ &= \text{pnorm}(0.888) - \text{pnorm}(-0.888) = 2 \cdot \text{pnorm}(0.888) - 1 = 0.625 \end{aligned}$$

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

Example 5. (Verifying CLT) Consider a given probability distribution, X , with mean μ and variance σ^2 , and a sequence of n independent identically distributed (with X) random variables X_i , $i = \overline{1, n}$. According to CLT, for large n , the sample mean, \bar{x}_n , has a normal distribution, $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$.

We want to check this assertion and take N such sample means and build a histogram. For our examples we used the geometric distribution $G(0.35)$ and the Exponential distribution $Exp(5)$ ($n = 50$, $N = 10000$).

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

Example 6. (Verifying CLT) Consider a given probability distribution, X , having mean μ and variance σ^2 , and a sequence of n independent identical distributed random variables X_i , $i = \overline{1, n}$. This sequence can always be viewed as a sample; if \bar{x}_n is the sample mean, CLT says that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \left[\frac{\bar{x}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq z \right] = P(Z \leq z),$$

where $Z : N(0, 1)$. Usually, for large values of n we can make the following approximation

$$P_n(z) = P \left[\frac{\bar{x}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq z \right] \approx P(Z \leq z).$$

A method to verify if this approximation is a good one: choose independently N samples (sequences) $(X_i^k)_{i=1, n}^{k=1, N}$, and compute

$$P^N = \frac{|\{k : \bar{x}_n^k \leq z\sigma/\sqrt{n} + \mu\}|}{N}.$$

Illustrations of LLN and CLT

That is, P^N is the number of samples (from those N) satisfying the inequality $\frac{\bar{x}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq z$ over the number of samples. This statistic should approximate $P[Z \leq z]$. For Exponential distribution with $\lambda = 2$, $n = 50$, and $N = 2000$ the results are tabulated below (a sample of size n can be obtained with $\text{rexp}(n, \lambda)$).

z	-1.5	-1.0	-0.5	0	0.5	1.0	1.5
$P^N(z)$	0.055	0.154	0.313	0.509	0.723	0.831	0.931
<i>Rel. err</i>	16%	2.5%	1.6%	1.8%	4.6%	1.8%	0.2%
$\text{pnorm}(z)$	0.066	0.158	0.308	0.5	0.691	0.847	0.933

The relative error is equal with $\frac{|P(Z \leq z) - P^N(z)|}{P(Z \leq z)}$.

Illustrations of LLN and CLT






For computing $P^N(z)$ we used the following algorithm

```

 $\mu \leftarrow 1/\lambda;$ 
 $\sigma \leftarrow 1/\lambda; // \text{why?}$ 
 $c \leftarrow z * \sigma / \sqrt{n} + \mu;$ 
 $j \leftarrow 1;$ 
for( $i = 1, N$ )
    if( $mean(rexp(n, \lambda)) \leq c$ )
         $j++;$ 
return  $j/N;$ 

```


Bibliography I

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