

Selected Topics of Chapter 7: Limiting Distributions (and some Section 6.5)

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Sequence of random variables

Statistical applications often involve data, $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ **independent and identically distributed**, i.e. they are independent and having the same cdf (and pdf)

- ▶ Body heights of high school students
- ▶ Housing prices
- ▶ Annual income
- ▶

Random sample

Definition (See Section 4.6 for details)

If random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are *independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.)*, then $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ is called a *random sample of size n*

- ▶ To make sense of data, the first step is to compute the *sample average*

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i.$$

Is it a good estimate of the mean of X ?

- ▶ For a moment, let's consider a general sequence of r.v.'s Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n , and introduce some useful notions. Later, we will specialize the discussion on $Y_n = \bar{X}_n$

Converge in distribution

Definition (Definition 7.2.1)

$G_n(y) = P(Y_n \leq y)$ converges to $G(y)$ *in distribution* if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} G_n(y) = G(y),$$

for *all values y at which $G(y)$ is continuous*, denoted by

$$Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y$$

The distribution corresponding to the CDF $G(y)$ is called the *limiting distribution of Y_n* .

Smallest order statistics (Section 6.5)

An ideal situation: cdf $F(x)$ of X_i is known (all have same cdf).

$X_{1:n} = \min\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$: the **smallest order statistics**

The CDF of $X_{1:n}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{1:n} \leq x) &= 1 - P(X_{1:n} > x) \\ &= 1 - P(\{X_1 > x\} \cap \{X_2 > x\} \cap \dots \cap \{X_n > x\}) \\ &\quad \text{[if the **smallest** of } X_i\text{'s is } > x\text{, every single } X_i > x\text{]} \\ &= 1 - P(X_1 > x)P(X_2 > x)\dots P(X_n > x) \quad \text{[all } X_i \text{ independent]} \\ &= 1 - (1 - F(x))^n. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the CDF of $X_{1:n}$ is

$$1 - (1 - F(x))^n$$

Largest order statistics (Section 6.5)

$X_{n:n} = \max\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$: the largest order statistics

The CDF of $X_{n:n}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{n:n} \leq x) &= P(\{X_1 \leq x\} \cap \{X_2 \leq x\} \cap \dots \cap \{X_n \leq x\}) \\ &\quad \text{[if the largest of } X_i \text{'s is } \leq x, \text{ every single } X_i \leq x\text{]} \\ &= P(X_1 \leq x)P(X_2 \leq x)\dots P(X_n \leq x) \\ &= F(x)^n. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the CDF of $X_{n:n}$ is

$$F(x)^n$$

Example of convergence in distribution

$F(x) = 1 - (1 + x)^{-1}$ the Pareto(1,1) distribution.

$Y_n = nX_{1:n} = n * \min\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$.

If $y \leq 0$, $P(Y_n \leq y) = 0$ (why?). If $y > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned}P(Y_n \leq y) &= P\left(\min\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\} \leq \frac{y}{n}\right) \\&= 1 - (1 - F(y/n))^n \\&= 1 - \left(1 + \frac{y}{n}\right)^{-n}\end{aligned}$$

Calculus:

$$\left(1 + \frac{y}{n}\right)^{-n} \rightarrow e^{-y}, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Hence, as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$P(Y_n \leq y) \rightarrow \text{the cdf of Exp}(1),$$

so, $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} \text{Exp}(1)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Convergence in probability

Another notion of convergence is stronger than the convergence in distribution.

Definition (Definition 7.7.1)

Infinite sequence Y_1, Y_2, \dots is said to *converge in probability* to a random variable Y , if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|Y_n - Y| > \epsilon) = 0$$

Denote by $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$

- Sometimes the limit Y can be a fixed constant c instead of a random variable

\xrightarrow{P} is stronger than \xrightarrow{d}

Theorem (Theorem 7.7.1)

$$\text{If } Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y, \text{ then } Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Y \quad (1)$$

In general, the converse of (1) is false. The converse of (1) is only true when $Y = c$ is a fixed constant, i.e. if $Y_n \xrightarrow{d} c$ then $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} c$.

Example of converging in probability

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent and identically distributed. Suppose X_i 's share the same mean μ and variance σ^2 . However, they are unknown to us. The distribution of X_i is also unknown. Let

$$Y_n = \bar{X}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{sample average}$$

Distribution of Y_n is unknown, because we do not know the distribution of X_i 's

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_n] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu = \mu$$

$$\text{Var} [Y_n] = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var} [X_i] = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

Example of converging in probability

Recall that $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}_n] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}[\bar{X}_n] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$, for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon) &= P\left(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \underbrace{\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n)}}}_{\text{viewed as "k"}} \sqrt{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n)}\right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{k^2} \quad [\text{Chebychev's inequality (Sect. 2.4)}] \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by squeezing,

$$0 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2} = 0,$$

so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon) = 0 \quad \text{that is, } \bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$$

Amazing things about the deduction above

- ▶ This is the (weak) law of large number (WLLN) (Theorem 7.6.2):

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{P} \mu, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

- ▶ in words, sample average is close to μ when huge data size n is available, so using \bar{X}_n to estimate mean μ makes perfect sense!
- ▶ This holds even when the distribution of X is **unknown** to us
- ▶ Alternative view with normal distribution: see example 7.2.7

Estimation error

- ▶ Ok, now we know $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ is close to μ when "huge" data size n is available
- ▶ But, say, I only have $n = 50$, this does not seem too large

Can we quantify the difference between \bar{X}_n and μ for small n ?

A solution is to use the square root of $Var [\bar{X}_n] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ to measure the error, e.g.

$$|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \leq q \sqrt{Var [\bar{X}_n]} = q \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (2)$$

with **high probability** if the constant $q > 0$ is large.

How large should q be?

- ▶ The answer depends on how much **confidence** one wants for (2) to be true
- ▶ Exact distribution of \bar{X}_n is unknown since the distribution of X_i 's are unknown

Central limit theorem (CLT)

Theorem (Theorem 7.3.1)

If $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ are i.i.d. with mean $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}[X] = \sigma^2 < \infty$, then

$$Z_n := \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (3)$$

- ▶ Although $n \rightarrow \infty$ in (3), Z usually approximates the distribution of Z_n well when n is mildly large, e.g. $n = 30$, and approximation is best when the distribution of X is symmetric
- ▶ The variance condition excludes Pareto distribution with $\kappa \leq 2$, so CLT does not hold for all distributions

Sketch of the proof of CLT

- ▶ **Moment generating function of Z_n** is (after Taylor expansion and some calculations)

$$M_{Z_n}(t) = \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2n} + \frac{d(n)}{n}\right)^n$$

where $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(n) \rightarrow 0$ is the remainder term

- ▶ By calculus, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$M_{Z_n}(t) = \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2n} + \frac{d(n)}{n}\right)^n \rightarrow e^{\frac{t^2}{2}} = M_Z(t),$$

where $M_Z(t) = E[e^{tZ}]$ is the moment generating function of $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$

Now, using CLT to find a reasonable q in (2).

Divide both sides of (2) by $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$:

$$\left| \underbrace{\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}}_{\stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ by CLT}} \right| \leq q$$

so, we find q that satisfies

$$|Z| \leq q \quad \text{or} \quad -q < Z < q \tag{4}$$

with high probability $1 - \alpha$ (or small $\alpha > 0$)

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 - \alpha &\stackrel{(4)}{=} P(-q < Z < q) \\
 &= P(Z < q) - P(Z < -q) \\
 &= P(Z < q) - (1 - P(Z < q)) \\
 &\quad \text{symmetry of } Z: P(Z > -q) = P(Z < q) \\
 &= 2P(Z < q) - 1
 \end{aligned}$$

So, q should satisfy

$$P(Z < q) = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad q = z_{1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}}$$

γ	0.90	0.95	0.975	0.99	0.995	0.999
z_γ	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576	3.090

Figure: The z_γ such that $P(Z < z_\gamma) = \gamma$ (bottom of Table 3).

Confidence interval

Plugging $q = z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ in (2), we have

$$|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} * \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \text{ with confidence } 1 - \alpha$$

Breaking the absolute value yields the **confidence interval for μ** :

$$\mu \in \left[\bar{X}_n \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} * \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right] \text{ with confidence } 1 - \alpha \quad (5)$$

Say, $\alpha = 10\%$, $\gamma = 1 - \alpha/2 = 0.95$, and $z_\gamma = 1.645$. Suppose our data have size $n = 50$ with $\sigma = 2$

$$\mu \in [\bar{X}_n - 0.4653, \bar{X}_n + 0.4653]$$

with **probability 90%**.

$$\mu \in \left[\bar{X}_n \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} * \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right] \text{ with confidence } 1 - \alpha$$

The confidence interval is **wider** when

- ▶ confidence is high (α small and $\gamma = 1 - \alpha/2$ high)

γ	0.90	0.95	0.975	0.99	0.995	0.999
z_γ	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576	3.090

- ▶ $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X)$ is large (more uncertainty in the data)

A caveat: σ is typically not known to practitioners, so one has to guess a σ before using (5)

We can deal with it by finding an estimator $\hat{\sigma}^2$ of σ^2 that depends on the data $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ such that

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

This can be achieved by setting

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2$$

which is the **sample variance**

To determine q , can we have a modification of the CLT (3) such that

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty? \quad (6)$$

The answer is YES!

Slutsky's Theorem

Theorem (Theorem 7.7.4)

If $W_n \xrightarrow{P} c$ and $V_n \xrightarrow{d} V$, then

1. $W_n + V_n \xrightarrow{d} c + V$
2. $W_n V_n \xrightarrow{d} cV$
3. $V_n/W_n \xrightarrow{d} V/c$, if $c \neq 0$

(6) is warranted by 2. of Slutsky's theorem by viewing

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\underbrace{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}_{= V_n}} \frac{\cancel{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}}{\underbrace{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}}_{= W_n}} \xrightarrow{d} Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \quad (7)$$

and $V_n \xrightarrow{d} Z$ and $W_n \xrightarrow{P} 1$

Confidence interval with unknown σ

The confidence interval holds with probability $1 - \alpha$:

$$|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} * \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (8)$$

where $z_{1-\alpha/2}$ is determined as before

- ▶ This approach may require n to be larger than that needed for the case of known σ
- ▶ In practice, n may be small. A more refined confidence interval of using t distribution for q will be covered in the continuation of this course

Appendix: Chebychev's inequality

Theorem (Theorem 2.4.7)

If X is a random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then for any $k > 0$,

$$P(|X - \mu| > k\sigma) = P(|X - \mu| > k\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

▶ [Back to convergence in probability](#)