

Lecture 33

Andrei Antonenko

April 20, 2005

1 Limit Theorems

Consider a sequence X_1, X_2, \dots of independent identically distributed random variables with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Let

$$S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n \quad (1)$$

be the sum of the first n of them. Limit theorems are mostly concerned with the properties of S_n and related random variables, as n becomes very large. We have:

$$\mathbf{E}[S_n] = \mathbf{E}[X_1] + \dots + \mathbf{E}[X_n] = n\mu. \quad (2)$$

Moreover, because of independence, we have

$$\mathbf{var}(S_n) = \mathbf{var}(X_1) + \dots + \mathbf{var}(X_n) = n\sigma^2. \quad (3)$$

Thus, the distribution of S_n spreads out as n increases, and does not have a meaningful limit.

The situation is different if we consider the sample mean

$$M_n = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} = \frac{S_n}{n}. \quad (4)$$

A quick calculation yields

$$\mathbf{E}[M_n] = \mu, \quad \mathbf{var}(M_n) = \mathbf{var}\left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}. \quad (5)$$

In particular, the variance of M_n decreases to zero as n increases, and the bulk of its distribution must be very close to the mean μ . This phenomenon is the subject of certain laws of large numbers, which generally assert that the sample mean M_n (a random variable) converges to the true mean μ (a number), in a precise sense. These laws provide a mathematical basis for the loose interpretation of an expectation $\mathbf{E}[X] = \mu$ as the average of a large number of independent samples drawn from the distribution of X . We will also consider a quantity which is intermediate between S_n and M_n . We first subtract $n\mu$ from S_n , to obtain the zero-mean random variable $S_n - n\mu$ and then divide by $\sigma\sqrt{n}$, to obtain

$$Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}. \quad (6)$$

We have:

$$\mathbf{E}[Z_n] = \frac{\mathbf{E}[S_n] - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} = 0 \quad (7)$$

and

$$\mathbf{var}(Z_n) = \mathbf{var}\left(\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2 \cdot n} \cdot \mathbf{var}(S_n) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2 \cdot n} \cdot n\sigma^2 = 1. \quad (8)$$

Since the mean and the variance of Z_n remain unchanged as n increases, its distribution neither spreads, nor shrinks to a point. The central limit theorem is concerned with the asymptotic shape of the distribution of Z_n and asserts that it becomes the standard normal distribution. Limit theorems are useful for several reasons:

- (a) Conceptually, they provide an interpretation of expectations (as well as probabilities) in terms of a long sequence of identical independent experiments.
- (b) They allow for an approximate analysis of the properties of random variables such as S_n . This is to be contrasted with an exact analysis which would require a formula for the PMF or PDF of S_n , a complicated and tedious task when n is large.

2 Inequalities

2.1 Markov Inequality

If X is a nonnegative random variable, then the following inequality holds:

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbf{E}[X]}{a} \quad \text{for all } a \geq 0. \quad (9)$$

This inequality is called **Markov inequality**. The meaning of the Markov inequality is that the probability that the random variable will take the value far from its mean is small.

Proof. Let's fix a positive number a and consider the random variable Y_a , defined as follows:

$$Y_a = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } X < a \\ a, & \text{if } X \geq a. \end{cases}$$

We see that always $Y_a \leq X$, and therefore

$$\mathbf{E}[Y_a] \leq \mathbf{E}[X].$$

But

$$\mathbf{E}[Y_a] = 0 \cdot P(Y_a = 0) + a \cdot P(Y_a = a) = a \cdot P(X \geq a),$$

and therefore

$$a \cdot P(X \geq a) \leq \mathbf{E}[X],$$

from where we get Markov inequality by dividing both parts by a . □

Example 2.1. Let X be uniformly distributed on the interval $[0, 4]$ and note that $\mathbf{E}[X] = 2$. Then, the Markov inequality asserts that

$$P(X \geq 2) \leq \frac{2}{2} = 1, \quad P(X \geq 3) \leq \frac{2}{3} = 0.67, \quad P(X \geq 4) \leq \frac{2}{4} = 0.5.$$

By comparing with the exact probabilities

$$P(X \geq 2) = 0.5, \quad P(X \geq 3) = 0.25, \quad P(X \geq 4) = 0,$$

we see that the bounds provided by the Markov inequality can be quite loose.

2.2 Chebyshev's Inequality

If X is a random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq c) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{c^2}, \text{ for all } c > 0. \quad (10)$$

This inequality is called **Chebyshev's Inequality**.

Loosely speaking, asserts that if the variance of a random variable is small, then the probability that it takes a value far from its mean is also small.

Proof. To justify the Chebyshev inequality, we consider the nonnegative random variable $(X - \mu)^2$ and apply the Markov inequality with $a = c^2$. We obtain

$$P((X - \mu)^2 \geq c^2) \leq \frac{\mathbf{E}[X - \mu]^2}{c^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{c^2}.$$

The derivation is completed by observing that the event $(X - \mu)^2 \geq c^2$ is identical to the event $|X - \mu| \geq c$ and

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq c) = P((X - \mu)^2 \geq c^2) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{c^2}.$$

□

Example 2.2. As in the previous example, let X be uniformly distributed on $[0, 4]$. Let us use the Chebyshev inequality to bound the probability that $|X - 2| \geq 1$. We have $\sigma^2 = 16/12 = 4/3$, and

$$P(|X - 2| \geq 1) \leq \frac{4}{3},$$

which is not particularly informative.

Example 2.3. For another example, let X be exponentially distributed with parameter $\lambda = 1$, so that $\mathbf{E}[X] = \mathbf{var}(X) = 1$. For $c > 1$, using Chebyshev's inequality, we obtain

$$P(X \geq c) = P(X - 1 \geq c - 1) \leq P(|X - 1| \geq c - 1) \leq \frac{1}{(c - 1)^2}.$$

This is again conservative compared to the exact answer

$$P(X \geq c) = e^{-c}.$$