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Andrew Dabrowski CLT

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The tool we need to prove the CLT is the sequence of **moments** of a probability distribution.

Moments provide a way of describing distributions different from density functions or c.d.f.s, and better suited to the CLT.

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If  $g(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_kx^k$ , then

$$E(g(X)) = a_0 + a_1M_1 + a_2M_2 + \cdots + a_kM_k.$$

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$$E(g(X)) = a_0 + a_1M_1 + a_2M_2 + \cdots + a_kM_k.$$

In other words we can compute the expected value of any polynomial function of X just using the  $M_n$ 's.

$$\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{a} \leq \mathbf{X} \leq \mathbf{a} + \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}).$$

How?

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This is just a very narrow bell curve, in which 99% of the bell is within  $3\epsilon$  of *a*.

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Note that b is equivalent to a normal p.d.f., but I'm not using it here as a p.d.f., I'm using it like the g on the previous slide: I'm going to find E(b(X)).

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And the shape of b is useful because it focuses attention on a small range of x values.





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$$E(b(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} b(x)f(x) dx$$
$$= \int_{|X-a| \le 3\epsilon} b(x)f(x) dx + \int_{|X-a| \le 3\epsilon} b(x)f(x) dx$$



That means

$$E(b(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} b(x)f(x) dx$$
$$= \int_{|X-a|>3\epsilon} b(x)f(x) dx + \int_{|X-a|\le3\epsilon} b(x)f(x) dx$$
$$\approx 0 + f(a) \int_{|X-a|\le3\epsilon} b(x) dx \approx f(a).$$

This means that the density function f of X is determined by the expected values of RV's like b(X).

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This means that the density function f of X is determined by the expected values of RV's like b(X). And that in turn means that f is determined by the  $M_n$ 's, because although b(x) is not a polynomial, it is a *limit* of polynomials:

$$b(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\epsilon}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-a}{\epsilon})^2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\epsilon}} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-a}{\epsilon})^2)^k}{k!}$$

In a similar way it can be shown that those functions b also determine the probabilities in discrete distributions.

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In a similar way it can be shown that those functions b also determine the probabilities in discrete distributions.

I'll consider it established now that the  $M_n$ 's determine all the properties of a distribution. Hence if we can show that two distributions have finite and equal  $M_n$  for all n we will know they are actually the same distribution.

Now let's use the moments  $M_n$  to prove the Central Limit Theorem.

## Theorem

Let  $X_i$  for i = 1, 2, 3, ... be i.i.d. RVs with mean 0 and s.d. 1. Define

$$A_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i.$$

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Then as  $n \to \infty$  the distribution of  $A_n$  approaches the standard normal.

Note that the particular distribution of the  $X_i$ 's does not matter — the limiting distribution is the same no matter what you start out with.

The basic idea is to show that the moments of the limiting distribution depend only on the first and second moments of the  $X_i$  — nothing else.

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Let's warm up by computing a few easy moments of  $A_n$ .

$$\mathbf{E}(A_n) = \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}(X_i)\right) = \mathbf{0}$$

because all the  $X_i$  have mean 0.

$$\operatorname{E}(A_n^2) = \operatorname{E}\left(\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^2\right) = \frac{1}{n}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{E}(X_i^2) + \sum_{i\neq j}\operatorname{E}(X_iX_j)\right]$$

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We conclude therefore the limiting distribution of the  $A_n$  also has mean 0 and s.d. 1.

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$$= \frac{1}{n^{3/2}} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathrm{E}(X_i^3) + \sum_{i \neq j} \mathrm{E}(X_i X_j^2) + \sum_{\mathrm{distinct } i, j, k} \mathrm{E}(X_i X_j X_k) \right]$$

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$$= \frac{1}{n^{3/2}} \left[ n E(X_1^3) + n(n-1)E(X_1)E(X_2^2) + \binom{n}{3}E(X_1)^3 \right]$$

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$$= \frac{1}{n^{3/2}} (n M_3)$$

where  $M_3$  is the third moment of  $X_1$ .

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where  $M_3$  is the third moment of  $X_1$ . But this expression goes to 0 as  $n \to \infty$ . So the third moment of the limiting distribution of  $A_n$  is 0.

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So the only terms to worry about are those in which each factor is a second or higher moment of  $X_i$ .

There's another pattern lurking here though...

 $\sum_{i\neq j} \mathrm{E}(X_i^2) \mathrm{E}(X_j^3).$ 

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$$\sum_{i\neq j} \mathrm{E}(X_i^2) \mathrm{E}(X_j^3).$$

Each summand is equal to  $M_2M_3$ , and the number of summands is no more (actually fewer than)  $n^2$ .

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Now recall that  $A_n$  includes a factor of  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ , so that the fifth moment of  $A_n$  in includes as factor of  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n^5}} = \frac{1}{n^{5/2}}$ .

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Multiplying these two expressions together gives  $\frac{M_2M_3}{\sqrt{n}}$  which once again approaches 0 as  $n \to \infty$ .

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$$\frac{1}{n^{k/2}}\sum_{\text{distinct }i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_{k/2}} \mathrm{E}(X_{i_1}^2)\mathrm{E}(X_{i_2}^2)\ldots\mathrm{E}(X_{i_{k/2}}^2)$$

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$$\frac{1}{n^{k/2}} \sum_{\text{distinct } i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{k/2}} E(X_{i_1}^2) E(X_{i_2}^2) \dots E(X_{i_{k/2}}^2)$$
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Note that even this is only possible if k is even,

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Note that even this is only possible if k is even, so we conclude that odd moments of  $A_n$  approach 0 in the limit.

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Now we know that the limiting distribution of  $A_n$  depends only on  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ . That means that any  $X_i$ 's with the same mean (0) and the same s.d. (1) will have the same limiting distribution.

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I refer of course to the standard normal distribution.

If the  $X_i$  are standard normal, then  $A_n$ , being a linear combination of independent standard normals is also normal.

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I.e., if the  $X_i$ 's are standard normal then so are the  $A_n$ 's.

And if every single  $A_n$  is standard normal, then the limiting distribution is also.

To put this together:

Since there is *some* distribution for the  $X_i$  which produces the standard normal as the limit of  $A_n$ ,

then in fact *every* distribution, once it's been standardized to have mean 0 and s.d. 1, must produce the standard normal in the limit also.

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Q.E.D.