

# Lindeberg-Feller central limit theorem

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# Introduction

- Last time, we proved the central limit theorem for the iid case
- Obviously, this is very useful, but at the same time, has clear limitations – the majority of practical applications of statistics involve modeling the relationship between some outcome  $Y$  and a collection of potential predictors  $\{X_j\}_{j=1}^d$
- Those predictors are not the same for each observation; hence,  $Y$  is not iid and the ordinary CLT does not apply

## Introduction (cont'd)

- Nevertheless, we'd certainly hope it to be the case that  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta} - \beta)$  converges to a normal distribution even if the errors are not normally distributed
- Does it? If so, under what circumstances?
- Before getting to this question, let's first introduce the concept of a "triangular array" of variables

# Triangular array

- A triangular array of random variables is of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_{11} & & \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & \\ X_{31} & X_{32} & X_{33} \\ \dots, & & \end{array}$$

where the random variables in each row (i) are independent of each other, (ii) have zero mean and (iii) have finite variance.

- The requirement that the variables have zero mean is only for convenience; we can always construct zero-mean variables by considering  $X_{ni} = Y_{ni} - \mu_{ni}$
- I've stated the definition here in terms of scalar variables, but the entries in this triangle can also be random vectors  $\mathbf{x}_{ni}$

## Triangular array (cont'd)

- We are going to be concerned with  $Z_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ni}$ , the row-wise sum of the array
- Since the elements of each row are independent, we have

$$s_n^2 = \mathbb{V}Z_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{V}X_{ni} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{ni}^2$$

or, if the elements in the array are random vectors,

$$\mathbf{V}_n = \mathbb{V}\mathbf{z}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{V}\mathbf{x}_{ni} = \sum_{i=1}^n \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ni}$$

## Non-IID laws of large numbers

- Before moving on to central limit theorems, it's worth mentioning how the law of large numbers extends to the non-iid case
- **Theorem (Law of Large Numbers, non-IID):** Suppose  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots$  are independent random variables with  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_i \boldsymbol{\mu}_i \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\mu}$  and  $\frac{1}{n} \sum \mathbb{V}\mathbf{x}_i$  is bounded. Then  $\bar{\mathbf{x}} \xrightarrow{P} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ .
- Note that if there is a uniform bound on the individual variances, meaning that  $(\mathbb{V}\mathbf{x}_i)_{jk} < M$  for all  $i, j, k$ , then  $\frac{1}{n} \sum \mathbb{V}\mathbf{x}_i$  is bounded as well

# Lindeberg condition

- There are a few different ways of extending the central limit theorem to non-iid random variables; the most general of these is the Lindeberg-Feller theorem
- This version of the CLT involves a new condition known as the *Lindeberg condition*: for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\{X_{ni}^2 1(|X_{ni}| \geq \epsilon s_n)\} \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

- We'll discuss the multivariate version of this condition a bit later

# Example

- The Lindeberg condition is a bit abstract at first, so let's see how it works, starting with the simplest case: iid random variables
- **Theorem:** Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are iid with mean zero and finite variance. Then the Lindeberg condition is satisfied.
- There are three key steps in this proof:
  - (1) Replacing the infinite sum with a single quantity  $\propto \mathbb{E}T_n$
  - (2)  $T_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$  (which happens if  $s_n \rightarrow \infty$ )
  - (3)  $\mathbb{E}T_n \rightarrow 0$  by the Dominated Convergence Theorem (requires finite variance)



## Non-iid case

- The last two steps work out essentially the same way in non-iid settings
- The first step, however, requires some resourcefulness
- Typically, the proof proceeds along the lines of bounding the elements of the sum by their “worst-case scenario”; this eliminates the sum, but requires a condition requiring that the worst-case scenario can't be too extreme
- We'll see a specific example of this later as it pertains to regression

# Lindeberg's theorem

- We are now ready to present the Lindeberg-Feller theorem, although we won't be proving it in this course
- **Theorem (Lindeberg):** Suppose  $\{X_{ni}\}$  is a triangular array with  $Z_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ni}$  and  $s_n^2 = \mathbb{V}Z_n$ . If the Lindeberg condition holds: for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\{X_{ni}^2 1(|X_{ni}| \geq \epsilon s_n)\} \rightarrow 0,$$

then  $Z_n/s_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$ .

# Lindeberg's theorem, alternate statement

- The preceding theorem is expressed in terms of sums; it is often more natural to think about Lindeberg's theorem in terms of means
- **Theorem (Lindeberg):** Suppose  $\{X_{ni}\}$  is a triangular array such that  $Z_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ni}$ ,  $s_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{V}X_{ni}$ , and  $s_n^2 \rightarrow s^2 \neq 0$ . If the Lindeberg condition holds: for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\{X_{ni}^2 1(|X_{ni}| \geq \epsilon\sqrt{n})\} \rightarrow 0,$$

then  $\sqrt{n}Z_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, s^2)$ .

- Note: we've added an assumption that  $s_n^2 \rightarrow s^2$ , but made the Lindeberg condition easier to handle ( $s_n$  no longer appears)

# Feller's Theorem

- The preceding theorem(s) show that the Lindeberg condition is sufficient for asymptotic normality
- Feller showed that it was also a necessary condition, if we introduce another requirement:

$$\max_i \frac{\sigma_{ni}^2}{\sum_{j=1}^n \sigma_{nj}^2} \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; i.e., no one term dominates the sum

- **Theorem (Feller):** Suppose  $\{X_{ni}\}$  is a triangular array with  $Z_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ni}$  and  $s_n^2 = \mathbb{V}Z_n$ . If  $Z_n/s_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1)$  and  $\max_i \sigma_{ni}^2/s_n^2 \rightarrow 0$ , then the Lindeberg condition holds.

# Lindeberg-Feller theorem

- Putting these two theorems together, the Lindeberg-Feller Central Limit Theorem says that if no one term dominates the variance, then we have asymptotic normality if and only if the Lindeberg condition holds
- The forward (Lindeberg) part of the theorem is the most important part in practice, as our goal is typically to prove asymptotic normality
- However, it is worth noting that the Lindeberg condition is the minimal condition that must be met to ensure this
- For example, there is another CLT for non-iid variables called the Lyapunov CLT, which requires a “Lyapunov condition”; not surprisingly, this implies the Lindeberg condition, as it is a stronger condition than necessary for asymptotic normality

# Multivariate CLT

- Now let's look at the multivariate form of the Lindeberg-Feller CLT, which I'll give in the "mean" form
- **Theorem (Lindeberg-Feller CLT):** Suppose  $\{\mathbf{x}_{ni}\}$  is a triangular array of  $d \times 1$  random vectors such that  $\mathbf{z}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_{ni}$  and  $\mathbf{V}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{V} \mathbf{x}_{ni} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$ , where  $\mathbf{V}$  is positive definite. If for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\{\|\mathbf{x}_{ni}\|^2 \mathbf{1}(\|\mathbf{x}_{ni}\| \geq \epsilon\sqrt{n})\} \rightarrow 0,$$

then  $\sqrt{n}\mathbf{z}_n \xrightarrow{d} N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V})$ .

- Or equivalently,  $\sqrt{n}\mathbf{V}_n^{-1/2}\mathbf{z}_n \xrightarrow{d} N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$

# Multivariate Feller condition

- Similar to the univariate case, the Lindeberg condition is both necessary and sufficient if we add the condition that no one term dominates the variance
- In the multivariate setting, this means that

$$\frac{\mathbb{V}\mathbf{x}_i}{\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{V}\mathbf{x}_j} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}_{d \times d}$$

for all  $i$ ; the division here is element-wise

## CLT for linear regression

- OK, now let's take what we've learned and put it into practice, answering our question from the beginning of lecture: do we have a central limit theorem for linear regression?
- **Theorem:** Suppose  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}^* + \mathbf{w}$ , where  $w_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} (0, \sigma^2)$ . Suppose  $\frac{1}{n}\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ , where  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  is positive definite, and let  $\mathbf{x}_i$  denote the  $d \times 1$  vector of covariates for subject  $i$  (taken to be fixed, not random). If  $\|\mathbf{x}_i\|$  is uniformly bounded, then

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{1/2}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}^*) \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}).$$

- In other words,  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim \mathbf{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1})$



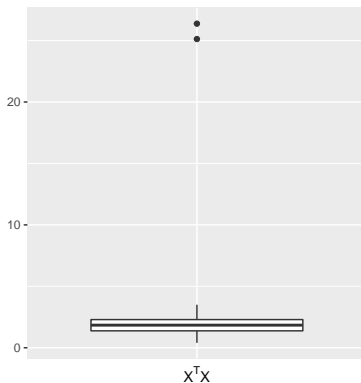
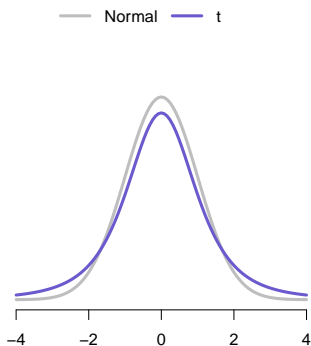
## Remarks

- Note that in proving this result, we needed two key conditions
  - $\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  converging to a p.d. matrix; this seems obvious since if  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  was not invertible,  $\hat{\beta}$  isn't even well-defined
  - $\|\mathbf{x}_i\|$  bounded; this is less obvious, but is connected to the idea of influence in regression
- In iid data, all observations essentially carry the same weight for the purposes of estimation and inference
- In regression, however, observations far from the mean of the covariate have much greater influence over the model fit
- This is essentially what  $\|\mathbf{x}_i\|$  is measuring: in words, we are requiring that no one observation can exhibit too great an influence

# Simulation

- This is one of those situations where theory helps to guide intuition and practice
- Let's carry out a simulation to illustrate
- We will challenge the central limit theorem in two ways:
  - $\mathbf{w}$  will follow a  $t$  distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom
  - The elements of  $\mathbf{X}$  will be uniformly distributed (from -1 to 1) except for the first two elements of column 1, which will be set to  $\pm a$
- In what follows,  $n = 100$  unless otherwise noted; 1000 simulations were run for each example

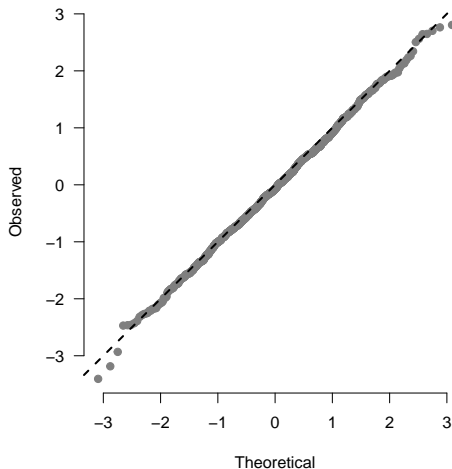
# Illustration of the two conditions ( $\nu = 3, a = 5$ )



As we will see, the more comfortably the Lindeberg condition holds, the faster the rate of convergence to normality

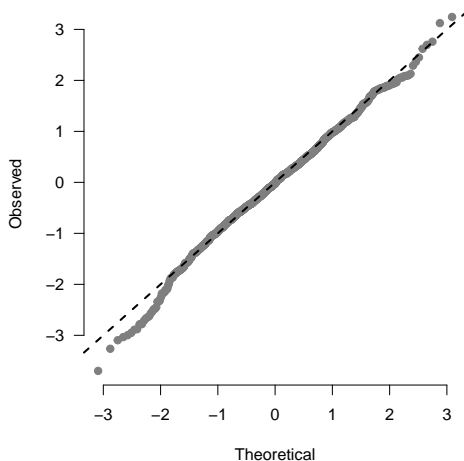
Results:  $\nu = 50, a = 5$

Influential observations, but  $\varepsilon$  close to normal



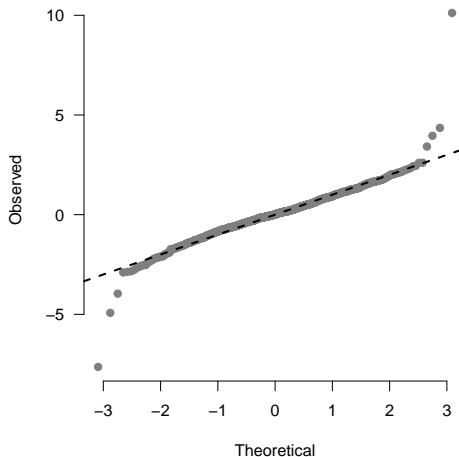
# Results: $\nu = 3, a = 1$

Heavy tails, but no terribly influential observations



Results:  $\nu = 3, a = 5$

## Heavy tails and influential observations



# Results: $\nu = 3, a = 5$

Heavy tails and influential observations, but  $n = 1000$

