Probability and Statistics

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Independent Random Variables



3 Sampling Distribution of the Sample Mean $ar{X}$

4 Linear Combinations of Random Variables

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Objectives

Objectives:

- Recognize independent random variables.
- Explain what is meant by the sampling distribution of a statistic.
- Use the sampling distribution of the sample mean to find probabilities.
- Obtain the expected value and variance of a linear combination of random variables.
- Obtain the distribution of a linear combination of normal random variables.

Independent Random Variables (5.1)

• Two random variables X and Y are said to be *independent* if for *every* two intervals

 $A = (a_0, a_1)$ and $B = (b_0, b_1),$

the events $X \in A$ and $Y \in B$ are independent **events**, i.e.

 $P(Y \in B \mid X \in A) = P(Y \in B)$

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or equivalently

$$P((X \in A) \cap (Y \in B)) = P(X \in A) \times P(Y \in B).$$

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or equivalently

 $P\left(\left(X\in A\right)\,\cap\,\left(Y\in B\right)\right)\ =\ P(X\in A)\times P(Y\in B).$

Intuitively, X and Y are independent if their values don't influence each other.

• We can extend the definition of **independence** to more than two random variables.

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• We can extend the definition of **independence** to more than two random variables.

 X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are said to be *independent* if for every k $(k = 2, 3, \ldots, n)$, every set of indices i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_k , and every collection of intervals A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k ,

$$P((X_{i_1} \in A_1) \cap (X_{i_2} \in A_2) \cap \dots \cap (X_{i_k} \in A_k))$$

= $P(X_{i_1} \in A_1) \times P(X_{i_2} \in A_2) \times \dots \times P(X_{i_k} \in A_k)$

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 Intuitively, X₁, X₂,..., X_n are independent if their values don't influence each other.

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 Random variables X₁, X₂,..., X_n that are independent and all follow the same probability distribution are called a *random sample* from that distribution.

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- Random variables X₁, X₂,..., X_n that are independent and all follow the same probability distribution are called a *random sample* from that distribution.
- Random samples are also sometimes called *iid samples* (for **independent** and **identically distributed**).

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Sampling Distributions Sampling Distribution of the Sample Mean \bar{X} Linear Combinations of Random Variables

Uniform Distribution



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Right Skewed Distribution



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Sampling Distributions Sampling Distribution of the Sample Mean \bar{X} Linear Combinations of Random Variables

Normal Distribution



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Normal Distribution



Sampling Distributions of Statistics (5.3)

 A statistic is any numerical value computed from a set of random sample data. Therefore a statistic is a random variable.

Example

The sample mean \bar{X} , median \tilde{X} , and standard deviation S are all **statistics**.

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• The **probability distribution** of a statistic is called its *sampling distribution*.

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Population Distribution and Sampling Distribution of \overline{X}



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Population Distribution and Sampling Distribution of \overline{X}



Sampling Distribution of the Sample Mean $ar{X}$ (5.4)

Proposition

Mean and Variance of \bar{X} : Suppose X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are a random sample from a population whose mean and standard deviation are μ and σ . Then the sampling distribution of \bar{X} has mean $\mu_{\bar{x}}$ given by

$$\mu_{\bar{x}} = E(\bar{X}) = \mu$$

and variance $\sigma^2_{ar{x}}$ given by

$$\sigma_{\bar{x}}^2 = V(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

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• Recall that the sample mean \bar{X} is an **estimator** of the population mean μ .

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- Because $E(\bar{X}) = \mu$, it's called an *unbiased* estimator of μ .

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is sometimes called the *standard error of* \bar{X} . It represents a **typical deviation** of \bar{X} away from μ .

- The standard error will be small if either:
 - 1. The population standard deviation σ is **small**, or

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2. The sample size n is large

Proposition

Normality of \bar{X} : Suppose X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are a random sample from a **normal** population whose mean and standard deviation are μ and σ . Then

$$\bar{X} \sim \mathsf{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$
.

Thus the **standardized** version of \bar{X} follows a **standard normal** distribution, i.e.

$$Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathsf{N}(0, 1) \; .$$

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Population Distribution and Sampling Distribution of \overline{X}



Population Distribution



Example

The U.S. army reports that head circumferences among male soldiers follow a **normal** distribution with **mean** $\mu = 22.8$ inches and **standard deviation** $\sigma = 1.1$ inches.

A random sample of n = 9 soldiers is to be taken.

The sampling distribution of \bar{X} is:

$$ar{X} \sim \mathsf{N}\left(\mu, rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}
ight).$$

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We'll find the probability $P(22.3 \le \overline{X} \le 23.3)$ that \overline{X} will be within 0.5 of an inch of the population mean μ (22.8 inches).

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$$P(22.3 \le \overline{X} \le 23.3) = P\left(\frac{22.3-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \le \frac{\overline{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \le \frac{23.3-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

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$$= P\left(\frac{22.3-22.8}{1.1/\sqrt{9}} \le Z \le \frac{23.3-22.8}{1.1/\sqrt{9}}\right)$$

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$$= P(-1.36 \le Z \le 1.36)$$

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$$= 0.8262.$$

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Proposition

The Central Limit Theorem: Suppose $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are a random sample from **any** population whose mean is μ and whose standard deviation is σ (with $\sigma < \infty$). Then **if** *n* **is large**,

$$ar{X} \sim \mathsf{N}\left(\mu, \, rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}
ight)$$
 (approximately)

The larger n is, the closer to a normal distribution the \bar{X} distribution will be.

Furthermore, if $T_o = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$, then

$$T_o \sim \mathsf{N}\left(n\mu, \sqrt{n}\sigma\right)$$
 (approximately)

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Sampling Distributions

Sampling Distribution of the Sample Mean \bar{X}

Probability

Probability

Linear Combinations of Random Variables



Population Distribution



In practice, n is (usually) large enough for the Central Limit Theorem to apply as long as n ≥ 30.

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Linear Combinations of Random Variables (5.5)

Given a collection of random variables X₁, X₂,..., X_n and constants a₁, a₂,..., a_n, we call

$$Y = a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + \dots + a_n X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$$

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a *linear combination* the X_i 's.

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a *linear combination* the X_i 's.

- A linear combination of random variables is itself a random variable.
- The sample mean \bar{X} is a linear combination of the sample X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n (with $a_i = 1/n$ for all *i*).

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Example

Consider someone who owns **100** shares of stock **A**, **200** shares of stock **B**, and **500** shares of stock **C**. Denote the share prices of these three stocks by X_1, X_2 , and X_3 , respectively.

Then the value of this individual's stock holdings is the **linear** combination

$$Y = 100 X_1 + 200 X_2 + 500 X_3.$$

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Proposition

Mean and Variance of a Linear Combination: Suppose

 X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n have means $\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_n$ and variances $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \ldots, \sigma_n^2$. Let a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n be any constants. Then

1. Regardless of whether or not the X_i 's are independent,

$$E(a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n)$$

$$= a_1 E(X_1) + a_2 E(X_2) + \dots + a_n E(X_n)$$

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$$= a_1\mu_1 + a_2\mu_2 + \cdots + a_n\mu_n.$$

1. If the X_i 's are **independent**, then

$$V(a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n)$$

= $a_1^2V(X_1) + a_2^2V(X_2) + \dots + a_n^2V(X_n)$
= $a_1^2\sigma_1^2 + a_2^2\sigma_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2\sigma_n^2$

and thus

$$SD(a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n) = \sqrt{a_1^2\sigma_1^2 + a_2^2\sigma_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2\sigma_n^2}.$$

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Example

A town has two industrial plants: a cement production plant and a steel mill.

The daily SO₂ emissions (lbs) X_1 from the cement plant varies from day to day, with

 $X_1 \sim \mathsf{N}(8800, 340).$

Likewise, the daily emissions X_2 from the steel mill varies, with

 $X_2 \sim \mathsf{N}(410, 75).$

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The total **combined** emissions from these two sources, $X_1 + X_2$, is a random variable, with

$$E(X_1 + X_2) = 8,800 + 410 = 9,210$$
 lb.

and

$$SD(X_1 + X_2) = \sqrt{340^2 + 75^2} = 348$$
 lb.

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 An important special case of the last proposition is the difference between two random variables X₁ - X₂.

Corollary

Mean and Variance of a Difference:

1. Regardless of whether or not X_1 and X_2 are independent,

$$E(X_1 - X_2) = E(X_1) - E(X_2) = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

2. If X_1 and X_2 are **independent**, then

$$V(X_1 - X_2) = V(X_1) + V(X_2) = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$$

and thus

$$SD(X_1 - X_2) = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}$$

Proposition

Distribution of a Linear Combination: Suppose $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are independent **normal** random variables (with possibly different means and/or variances).

Then any **linear combination** of the X_i 's also follows a **normal** distribution (with mean and variance as in the last proposition).

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Example

Consider again the daily SO_2 emissions (lbs) from a town's cement plant, X_1 , and from its its steel mill, X_2 , with with

 $X_1 \sim \mathsf{N}(8800, 340)$ and $X_2 \sim \mathsf{N}(410, 75)$.

Then the total **combined** emissions from these two sources, $X_1 + X_2$, is a random variable, with

 $X_1 + X_2 \sim N(9210, 348).$

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$$X_1 + X_2 \sim N(9210, 348).$$

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• An important special case of the last proposition is the difference $X_1 - X_2$ between two normal random variables.

Corollary

Distribution of a Difference: Suppose $X_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$ and $X_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$, and X_1 and X_2 are **independent**. Then

$$X_1 - X_2 \sim \mathsf{N}\left(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}\right)$$

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