# Lecture 21 : The Sample Total and Mean and The Central Limit Theorem

## 1. Statistics and Sampling Distributions

Suppose we have a random sample from some population with mean  $\mu_X$  and variance  $\sigma_X^z$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y_X, \sigma_X^2 \end{bmatrix} - - - - - \times X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$$

and a function  $w = h(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$  of n variables. Then (as we know) the combined random variable

$$W = h(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$$

is called a statistic.

If the population random variable X is discrete then  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  will all be discrete and since W is a combination of discrete random variables it too will be discrete.

## The \$64,000 question

How is W distributed?

More precisely, what is the *pmf*  $P_W(x)$  of W.

The distribution  $P_W(x)$  of W is called a "sampling distribution".

Similarly if the population random variable X is continuous we want to compute the  $pdf f_W(x)$  of W (now it is continuous)

We will jump to \$5.5.

The most common  $h(x_1, ..., x_n)$  is a linear function

$$h(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)=a_1x_1+\cdots+a_nx_n$$

where

$$W = a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + \cdots + a_n X_n$$

## Proposition L (page 219)

Suppose  $W = a_1 X_1 + \cdots + a_n X_n$ .

Then

(i) 
$$E(W) = E(a_1X + \cdots + a_nX_n)$$
  
=  $a_1E(X_1) + \cdots + a_nE(X_n)$ 

(ii) If  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are independent then

$$V(a_1X_1 + \cdots + a_nX_n) = a_1^2V(X_1) + \cdots + a_n^2V(X_n)$$

$$(so V(cX) = c^2V(X))$$

# Proposition L (Cont.)

Now suppose  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are a random sample from a population of mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  so

$$E(X_i) = E(X) = \mu, \quad 1 \le i \le n$$
  
 $V(X_i) = V(X) = \sigma^2, \quad 1 \le i \le n$ 

and  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are independent.

We recall

$$\overline{X}$$
 = the sample total =  $X_1 + \cdots + X_n$   
 $\overline{X}$  = the sample mean =  $\frac{X_1 + \cdots + X_n}{n}$ 

As an immediate consequence of the previous proposition we have

# Proposition M

Suppose  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  is a random sample from a population of mean  $\mu_X$  and variance  $\sigma_X^2$ . Then

(i) 
$$E(T_0) = n\mu_{X_2}$$

(ii) 
$$V(T_0) = n\sigma_X^2$$

(iii) 
$$E(\overline{X}) = \mu_X$$

(iv) 
$$V(\overline{X}) = \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n}$$

# Proof (this is important)

(i) 
$$E(T_0) = E(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$$
  
by the Prop.  
 $= E(X_1) + \dots + E(X_n)$   
why  
 $= \underbrace{\mu_X + \dots + \mu_X}_{n \text{ copies}}$   
 $= n\mu_X$   
(ii)  $V(T_0) = V(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$   
by the Prop  
 $= V(X_1) + \dots + V(X_n)$   
 $= \sigma_X^2 + \dots + \sigma_X^2$   
 $= n\sigma_X^2$ 

# Proof (Cont.)

(iii) 
$$E(\overline{X}) = E\left(\frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}E(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$$

$$= \text{by (i)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}(n\mu_X)$$

$$= \mu_X$$
(iv) 
$$V(\overline{X}) = V\left(\frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)\right)$$
by the Prop.
$$= \frac{1}{n^2}V(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$$
by (ii)
$$= \frac{1}{n^2}(n\sigma_X^2)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n^2}$$

#### Remark

It is important to understand the symbols  $-\mu_X$  and  $\sigma_X^2$  are the mean and variance of the underlying population.

In fact they are called the population mean and the population variance. Given a statistic  $W=h(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$  we would like to compute  $E(W)=\mu_W$  and  $V(W)=\sigma_W^2$  in terms of the population mean  $\mu_X$  and

# Remark (Cont.)

population variance  $\sigma_X^2$ .

So we solved this problem for  $W = \overline{X}$  namely

$$\mu_{\overline{X}} = \mu_X$$

and

$$\sigma_{\overline{X}}^2 = \frac{1}{n}\sigma_X^2$$

Never confuse population quantities with sample quantities.

# Corollary

$$\sigma_{\overline{X}}$$
 = the standard deviation of  $\overline{X}$ 

$$= \frac{\sigma_X}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\text{population standard deviation}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

## Proof.

$$\sigma_{\overline{X}} = \sqrt{V(\overline{X})}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_X^2}{n}}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_X^2}}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sigma_X}{\sqrt{n}}$$

# Sampling from a Normal Distribution

#### Theorem LCN (Linear combination of normal is normal)

Suppose  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are independent and

$$X_1 \sim N(\mu, \sigma_1^2), \ldots, X_n \sim N(\mu_n, \sigma_n^2).$$

Let  $W = a_1X_1 + \cdots + a_nX_n$ . Then

$$W \sim N(a_1\mu_1 + \cdots + a_n\mu_n, a_1^2\sigma_1^2 + \cdots + a_n^2\sigma_n^2)$$

#### **Proof**

At this stage we can't prove W is normal (we could if we have moment

# Proof (Cont.)

generating functions available).

But we can compute the mean and variance of W using Proposition L.

$$E(W) = E(a_1X_1 + \dots + a_nX_n)$$

$$= a_1E(X_1) + \dots + a_nE(X_n)$$

$$= a_1\mu_1 + \dots + a_n\mu_n$$

and

$$V(W) = V(a_1X_1 + \dots + a_nX_n)$$

$$= a_1^2V(X_1) + \dots + a_n^2V(X_n)$$

$$= a_1^2\sigma_1^2 + \dots + a_n^2\sigma_n^2$$

Now We can state the theorem we need.

#### Theorem N

Suppose  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  is a random sample from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
  $---- > X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ 

Then

$$T_0 \sim N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$$

and

$$\overline{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

#### Proof

The hard part is that  $T_0$  and  $\overline{X}$  are normal (this is Theorem LCN)

# Proof (Cont.)

You show the mean of  $\overline{X}$  is  $\mu$  using either Proposition M or Theorem 11 and the same for showing the variance of  $\overline{X}$  is  $\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ .

#### Remark

It is very important for statistics that the sample variance

$$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})^{2}$$

satisfies

$$S^2 \sim \chi^2(n-1).$$

This is one reason that the chi-squared distribution is so important.

# 3. The Central Limit Theorem (§5.4)

In Theorem N we saw that if we sampled n times from a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  then

- (i)  $T_0 \sim N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$
- (ii)  $\overline{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$

# So both $T_0$ and $\overline{X}$ are still normal

The Central Limit Theorem says that if we sample n times with n large enough from any distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  then  $T_0$  has approximately  $N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$  distribution and  $\overline{X}$  has approximately  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  distribution.

We now state the CLT.

#### The Central Limit Theorem

$$X, \mu, \sigma^2$$
  $---- \times X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ 

 $\overline{X} \approx N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  provided n > 30.

## Remark

This result would not be satisfactory to professional mathematicians because there is no estimate of the error involved in the approximation. However an error estimate is known - you have to take a more advanced course. The n > 30 is a "rule of thumb". In this case the error will be neglible up to a large number of decimal places (but I don't know how many). So the Central Limit Theorem says that for the purposes of sampling if n > 30 then the sample mean behaves as if the sample were drawn from a NORMAL population with the same mean and variation of the actual population.

## Example 5.27

A certain consumer organization reports the number of major defects for each new automobile that it tests. Suppose that the number of such defects for a certain model is a random variable with mean 3.2 and standard deviation 2.4. Among 100 randomly selected cars of this model what is the probability that the average number of defects exceeds 4.

## Solution

Let  $X_i = \sharp$  of defects for the i-th car

$$X \mu = 3.2, 6 = 24$$

n = 100 > 30 so we can use the CLT

$$\overline{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{100}}{100}$$

So

 $\overline{X}$  = average number of defects

So we want

$$P(\overline{X} > 4)$$

## Solution (Cont.)

Now

$$E(\overline{X}) = \mu = 3.2$$

$$V(\overline{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{(2.4)^2}{100}$$

Let

$$Y \sim N\left(3.2, \frac{(2.4)^2}{100}\right)$$

$$\sigma_y = \frac{2.4}{10}$$

$$= .24$$

By the CLT  $\overline{X} \approx Y$  so

$$P(\overline{X} \ge 4) \approx P(Y \ge 4)$$

$$= P\left(\frac{\overline{Y} - 3.2}{2.24} \ge \frac{4 - 3.2}{.24}\right)$$

$$= P\left(Z \ge \frac{.8}{.24}\right) 3.33$$

$$= I - \Phi(3.33) = 1 - .9996$$

$$= .0004$$

#### How the Central Limit Theorem Gets Used More Often

The CLT is much more useful than one would expect. That is because many well-known distributions can be realized as sample totals of a sample drawn from another distribution. I will state this as

## General Principle

Suppose a random variable W can be realized as a sample total  $W = T_0 = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$  from some X and n > 30. Then W is approximately normal.

## Examples (This isn't ?????)

- 1  $W \sim Bin(n, p)$  with n large.
- **2** W ~ Gamma( $\alpha$ , $\beta$ ) with  $\alpha$  large.
- **3** W ~ Poisson( $\lambda$ ) with  $\lambda$  large.

We will do the example of  $W \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n,p)$  and recover (more or less) the normal approximation to the binomial so

 $CLT \Rightarrow normal approx to binomial.$ 

#### The point is

## Theorem (sum of binomials is binomial)

Suppose X and Y are independent,  $X \sim \text{Bin}(m, p)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ . Then

$$W = X + Y \sim Bin(m + n, p)$$

## Proof

For simplicity we will assume  $p = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Suppose Fred tosses a fair coin m times and Jack tosses a fair coin n times.

# Proof (Cont.)

Let

 $X = \sharp$  of head Fred observes

 $Y = \sharp$  of heads Jack observes

So

$$X \sim \operatorname{Bin}\left(m, \frac{1}{2}\right)$$
 and  $Y \sim \operatorname{Bin}\left(n, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ 

What is X + Y?

Forget who was doing the tossing, X + Y is just the total number of heads in m + n tosses of a fair coin so

$$X + Y \sim Bin\left(m + n, \frac{1}{2}\right).$$

Ш

Now suppose we have

$$X \sim \text{Bin}(1, p)$$
  $---- > X_1, \dots, X_n$ 

Then  $X_i \sim \text{Bin}(1, p)$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ ,

$$T_0 = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n, p)$$

Now if n > 30 we know  $T_0$  is approximately normal so if  $W \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  and n > 30 the  $W \approx \text{normal}$ 

$$E(W) = np$$
 and  $V(W) = npq$  AND

$$W \sim N(np, npq)$$

So we get the normal approximation to the binomial (with n > 30 replacing  $np \ge 10$  and  $nq \ge 10$ )

## Remark

If  $p = \frac{1}{2}$  then the second conditions gives n > 20.

- so better then CLT but if  $p = \frac{1}{5}$  then the second conditions gives n > 50.
- so worse than the CLT.