

# Topic7: Combinations of Random Variables



# Outline

## Topic7: Combinations of Random Variables

Example: Luggage Limits on A380 Qantas Flight

Linear Function of a Random Variable

Independence of Random Variables

Sums of Random Variables

Sums of Normal Random Variables

Sums of Non-Normal Random Variables (CLT)

Application of the CLT to the Binomial Distribution

## Example: Luggage Limits on A380 Flight

When booking flights, explicit luggage limits are specified, and bags are weighed at check-in. For example, for most International flights, the economy checked bag allowance is 30kg. This is essential for the safety and efficiency of the flight, as each plane has a maximum Payload (maximum weight allowed for passengers, crew, luggage and cargo). [▶ QantasCheckedLuggageLimits](#)



For the popular A380 plane, the Operational Weight is 270,000kg and the Zero Fuel Weight is 361,000, giving a maximum PayLoad of 91,000. [▶ A380](#) [▶ A380Specs](#)

**What is the expected PayLoad for 530 passengers and 25 crew? Should passengers be weighed? Should hand luggage be weighted? Is it better to give a maximum luggage limit or specify limits for individual items? What baggage limits would you suggest?**

Overbooking of passengers on intercontinental flights is a common practice among airlines. Aircraft which are capable of carrying 300 passengers are booked to carry 320 passengers.

**If 10% of passengers who have a booking fail to turn up for their flights, what is the probability that at least one passenger who has a booking, will end up without a seat on a particular flight?**

# Linear Function of a Random Variable

## Definition (Linear Function of Random Variable)

Given a random variable  $X$ , then  $Y = a + bX$  has moments

$$E(Y) = a + bE(X)$$

and

$$Var(Y) = b^2 Var(X)$$

for all 2 constants  $a$  and  $b$ .

Special Case: If  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $Y \sim N(a + b\mu, b^2\sigma^2)$ .

Notes:

- (1) Expectation retains linearity.
- (2) 'A linear function of a Normal is a Normal'. This is the reason that we can standardise a Normal.

## Example: Linear Function

Suppose the weight of an Australian women  $W \sim N(71.1, 12^2)$ .

► AustralianWeights

Find the distribution of the weight of an Australian women in pounds, given  $1\text{kg} = 1 \text{ pound}/2.2046$ .

Let  $P = \text{Weight of an Australian women in pounds} = 2.2406W$ .  
This is a linear function where  $a = 0$  and  $b = 2.2406$ .

Hence

$$E(P) = 0 + 2.2406E(W) = 2.2406 \times 71.1 = 159.3067$$

$$Var(P) = 2.2406^2 Var(W) = 2.2406^2 \times 12^2 = 722.9215$$

So  $P \sim N(159.3067, 26.8872^2)$

## Definition (Independence for Random Variables)

For any random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , we say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent iff

$$P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = P(X \leq x)P(Y \leq y)$$

i.e. the joint CDF splits into the 2 individual CDFs.

Notes:

- (1) It follows that if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) = 0$ . However the inverse is not true.
- (2) You will not need to justify independence. Rather it will be assumed in any question requiring it.
- (3) Compare to set independence: [▶ Set Independence](#)

# Sums of Random Variables

## Definition (Total of Random Variables)

Given any sequence of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , the total  $T = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  has moments

$$E(T) = \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i)$$

and assuming independence,

$$Var(T) = \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i)$$



## Definition (Sample Mean of Random Variables)

Given any sequence of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , the sample mean  $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  has moments

$$E(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i)$$

and assuming independence,

$$Var(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i)$$

These are nice results are not very useful when we don't know the shape of distribution. Hence, we will concentrate on sums of *Normal* random variables.

# Sums of Normal Random Variables

## Definition (Total and Sample Mean of Normal RVs)

Given a sequence of random variables  $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$  (for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ )

then

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2\right)$$

and

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim N\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i, \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2\right)$$

Summary: for constants  $a_i$ ,

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2\right)$$

## Example: Total

Suppose the weight of an Australian women is  $W \sim N(71.1, 12^2)$ , a carry on bag is  $C \sim N(6.9, 0.5^2)$  and a handbag is  $H \sim N(1.3, 0.4^2)$ . ▶ QantasCarryonLuggage

Find the probability that the total weight of an Australian woman with carry on luggage is more than 100kg.

Let  $T = \text{Total Weight of a woman with carry on luggage.}$

This is a sum of 3 random variables,  $T = W + C + H$ .

Hence

$$E(T) = E(W) + E(C) + E(H) = 71.1 + 6.9 + 1.3 = 79.3$$

$$\text{Var}(T) = \text{Var}(W) + \text{Var}(C) + \text{Var}(H) = 12^2 + .5^2 + .4^2 = 144.41$$

$$\text{So } T \sim N(79.3, 144.41) = T \sim N(79.3, 12.01707^2)$$

So using standardising (Topic 6),

$$P(T > 100) = P\left(\frac{T - 79.3}{12.01707} > \frac{100 - 79.3}{12.01707}\right) = P(Z > 1.72255) \approx 0.04$$

```
1-pnorm(100,79.3,12.01707)
```

```
## [1] 0.042485
```

```
1-pnorm(1.72255)
```

```
## [1] 0.04248497
```

## Definition (Total and Sample Mean of iid Normal RVs)

Given a sequence of iid random variables  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  (for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ )

then

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$$

and

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

## Example: Sample Mean

Find the probability that the average weight of 10 Australian women with carry on luggage is more than 100kg.

We have already worked out that 1 woman has a total carry on weight of  $T \sim N(79.3, 12.01707^2)$ .

Now change the notation and consider a sequence of 10 women:

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{10}$  where

$X_i = \text{carry on weight} \sim N(79.3, 12.01707^2)$ .

Assuming the women are independent, let

$\bar{X} = \text{Average Weight of 10 women with carry on luggage.}$

We have

$$\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}) = N(79.3, \frac{12.01707^2}{10}) = N(79.3, 3.80013^2)$$

So using standardising,

$$P(\bar{X} > 100) = P(\frac{\bar{X} - 79.3}{3.80013} > \frac{100 - 79.3}{3.80013}) = P(Z > 5.447182) \approx 0$$

```
1-pnorm(100,79.3,3.80013)
```

```
## [1] 2.558704e-08
```

```
1-pnorm(5.447182)
```

```
## [1] 2.558705e-08
```

# What is the Distribution of the Sample Mean for Any Population?

If the population has distribution  $X \sim ?(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , what is the distribution of  $\bar{X}$ ? We introduce a miracle theorem, which effectively allows us to use the results on Sums from the previous section, even when the random variable are not Normal!

## Definition (Central Limit Theorem (CLT))

If  $X_i \sim (\mu, \sigma^2)$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  then

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

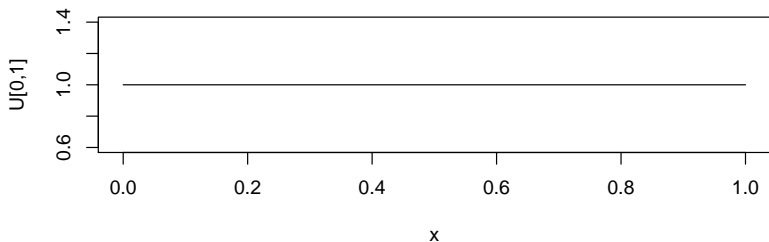


## Notes:

- ▶ The CLT is the most important result in this course, and in much of statistical theory.
- ▶ The CLT requires few assumptions:
  - ▶ We must have a 'big enough' sample size  $n$ ;
  - ▶ We must have finite variance  $\sigma^2 < \infty$ .
- ▶ What is a 'big enough' sample size? Some textbooks give a rule of thumb (eg  $n > 25$ ), but it all depends on the type of distribution. If  $X$  is fairly symmetric, then  $n$  could be small; if  $X$  is highly asymmetric, then  $n$  could be larger.
- ▶ To visualise the CLT [▶ Lock5 Stat Key](#) [▶ App](#)

## Examples of the CLT

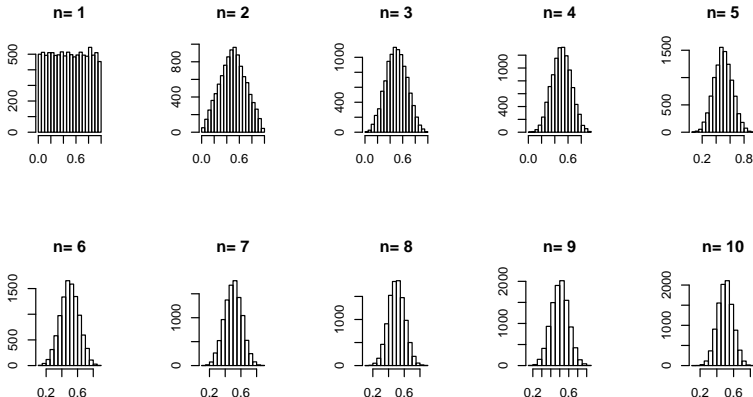
(1) Uniform Distribution:  $X \sim U(0, 1)$ , with  $\mu = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}$ .



Clearly, this is a symmetric distribution.

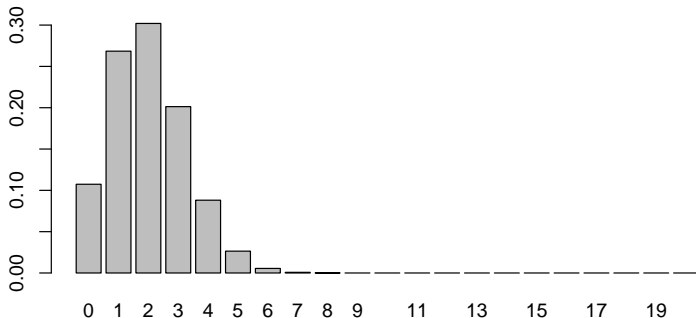
Simulation of Sample Mean for  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 10$ :

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \approx N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) = N\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{12n}\right)$$



Given symmetry of  $X$ ,  $\bar{X}$  looks Normal for even  $n = 5$ .

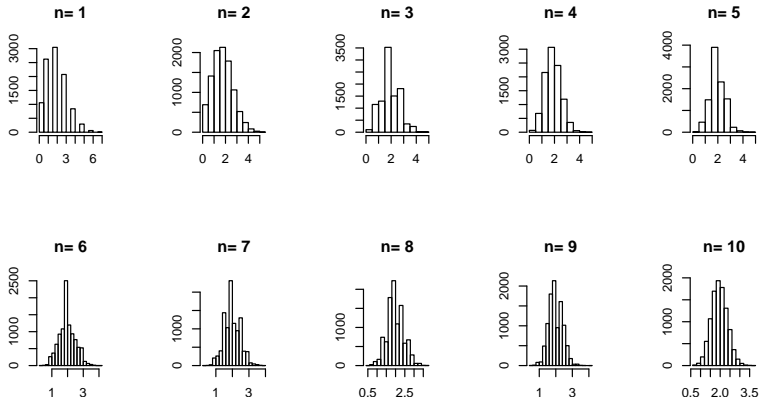
(2) Binomial Distribution:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(10, 0.2)$ , with  $\mu = 2$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1.6$ .



Clearly, this is a skewed distribution, as  $p = 0.2$ .

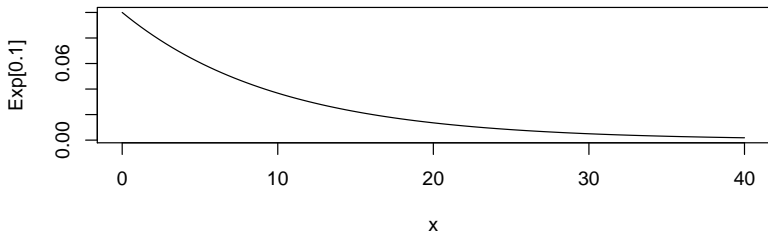
Simulation of Sample Mean for  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 10$ :

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \approx N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) = N\left(2, \frac{1.6}{n}\right)$$



Notice, the approximation to Normal distribution, for about  $n = 10$ .

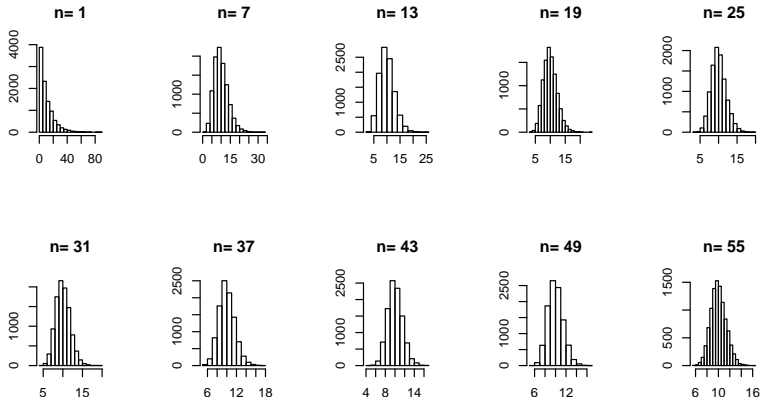
(3) Exponential Distribution:  $X \sim \text{Exp}(0.1)$ , with  $\mu = 10$  and  $\sigma^2 = 100$ .



This is a highly skewed distribution.

Simulation of Sample Mean for  $n = 50$ :

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \approx N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) = N\left(10, \frac{100}{n}\right)$$



Notice, the approximation to Normal distribution, for  $n = 50+$ .

## Example: CLT

Assume that checked in luggage is highly skewed, as most people pack to the limit of 32kg, so  $L \sim (31.9, 1^2)$ . Find the probability that the average weight of the checked in luggage of 555 passengers and crew (independent) is over 32 kg.

Consider the 555 bags:  $L_1, L_2, \dots, L_{555}$  where  $L_i = \text{checked in luggage} \sim (31.9, 1^2)$ .

Assuming independence, let  $\bar{L} = \text{Average Weight of the checked in luggage}$ .

Using the CLT,

$$\bar{L} \approx N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) = N\left(31.9, \frac{1^2}{555}\right) = N(31.9, 0.04244764^2)$$



So using standardising,

$$P(\bar{L} > 32) = P\left(\frac{\bar{L} - 31.9}{0.04244764} > \frac{32 - 31.9}{0.04244764}\right) = P(Z > 2.355844) \approx 0$$

```
1-pnorm(32,31.9,0.04244764)
```

```
## [1] 0.009240349
```

```
1-pnorm(2.355844)
```

```
## [1] 0.009240338
```

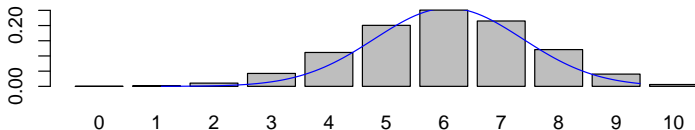
# Application of the CLT to the Binomial Distribution

## Definition (CLT for Binomial)

For the exact Binomial  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ , the approximating Normal is  $Y \approx N(np, np(1 - p))$ .

Given we are approximating a discrete distribution by a continuous distribution, we usually improve the approximation by using a continuity correction (cc).

If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(10, 0.6)$ , and we want  $P(X \leq 6)$ , then we would find the Normal approximation from 6.5.



```
pbinom(6,10,0.6)
```

```
## [1] 0.6177194
```

```
pnorm(6.5,10*0.6,10*0.6*0.4) # With cc
```

```
## [1] 0.5825156
```

```
pnorm(6,10*0.6,10*0.6*0.4) # Without cc
```

```
## [1] 0.5
```

## Example: CLT for Binomial

Assume that 90% of passengers pack over the checked in limit of 32kg. In a random sample of 30 passengers, what is the probability more than 28 have overpacked.

### Exact Solution:

Let  $X$  = number of passengers that have overpacked  $\sim \text{Bin}(n = 30, p = 0.9)$ .

$$P(X \geq 29) = 0.183695$$

```
dbinom(29,30,0.9) + dbinom(30,30,0.9)
```

```
## [1] 0.183695
```

```
1-pbinom(28,30,0.9)
```

```
## [1] 0.183695
```

## Approximation:

Exact Binomial:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n = 30, p = 0.9)$

Approximating Normal (CLT):

$$Y \sim N(np, np(1 - p)) = N(27, 2.7) = N(27, 1.643168^2)$$

So first using a continuity correction (cc),

$$P(X \geq 29) \approx P(Y \geq 28.5)$$

and then standardising,

$$P(Y \geq 28.5) = P\left(\frac{\bar{Y} - 27}{1.643168} \geq \frac{28.5 - 27}{1.643168}\right) = P(Z \geq 0.9128707) \approx 0.18$$

```
1-pnorm(28.5,27,1.643168)
```

```
## [1] 0.1806553
```

```
1-pnorm(0.9128707)
```

```
## [1] 0.1806553
```