# Chapter 1

# **SAMPLING DISTRIBUTIONS**

#### 1.1 Introduction

Statistics concerns itself mainly with conclusions and predictions resulting from chance outcomes that occur carefully experiments or investigations. In the finite case, these chance outcomes constitute a subset or *sample* of measurements or observations from a larger set of values called the *population*. In the continuous case they are usually values of i.i.d (independent identically distributed) random variables, whose distribution we refer to as the *population distribution*, or the *infinite population sampled*. The word "infinite" implies that there is, logically speaking, no limit to the number of values we could observe.

## **Definition 1.1 Population**

The totality of elements which are under discussion or investigation and about which information is desired will be called the *target population*.

## **Definition 1.2 Random sample**

If  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , ...,  $X_n$  are i.i.d. r.v.'s, we say that they constitute a random sample (abbreviated by R.S.) from the infinite population given by their common distribution

An important part f the definition of a R.S. is the meaning of the r.v.'s  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , ...,  $X_n$ . The r.v.  $X_i$  is a representation for the numerical value that the  $i^{th}$  item (or element) sampled will be assumed. After the sample is observed, the actual values of  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , ...,  $X_n$  are known, we denote these observed values by  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ , ...,  $x_n$ .

One of central problems in statistics is the following:

If it is desired to study a population which has a known density function but it contains some unknown parameters. For example, suppose that we have a population, which has the normal distribution, but the parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are unknown.

The procedure is to take a random sample (R.S.)  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , ...,  $X_n$  of size n from this population and let the value of some function represent or estimate the unknown

parameter. This function is called a *statistic*. Since many random samples are possible from the same population, we would expect every statistic to vary somewhat from sample to sample. Hence a statistic is a random variable, and as such it must have a probability distribution.

#### **Definition 1.3**

If  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are i.i.d. r.v.'s, we say that they constitute a random sample from the infinite population given by their common distribution.

If  $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$  is the joint p.m.f. (or p.d.f.) of such a set of r.v.'s, we can write

$$f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = f(x_1) f(x_2) ... f(x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$$

where  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x_i})$  is the common p.m.f. (or p.d.f.) of each  $X_i$  (or of the population sampled).

#### **Definition 1.4**

A statistic is a function of observable r.v.'s, which is itself an observable r.v. and does not contain any unknown parameter.

For example, if  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  is a r.s., then the sample mean

$$\overline{\overline{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}$$

and the sample variance

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

are statistics.

Since statistics are r.v.'s, their values will vary from sample to sample, and it is customary to refer to their distributions as *sampling distributions*. Note that;

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\overline{\mathbf{X}}\right) = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{X}_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{E}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{n} n \mu = \mu, \text{ and}$$

$$Var\left(\overline{X}\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n Var\left(X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} n\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

# 1.2 Stochastic Convergence

Sometimes the distribution of a r.v. (perhaps a statistic) depends upon a +ve integer n. Clearly, the distribution function (CDF)  ${\bf F}$  of that r.v. will also depends upon n and

denote it by  $\mathbf{F}_n$ . We now define a limiting distribution of a r.v. whose distribution depends upon n.

#### **Definition 1.5**

Let the CDF  $\mathbf{F}_{n}(x)$  of the r.v.  $\mathbf{X}_{n}$  depends upon  $\mathbf{n}$ . If

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$$

for every point y at which F(y) is continuous where F(x) is a CDF, then the r.v.  $X_n$  is said to have a limiting distribution with CDF F(x).

#### Theorem 1.1 (Weak law of large numbers)

Let  $(X_n)_{n=1,2,...}$  be a sequence of independent r.v's such that all have the same expectation,  $E(X_n) = \mu$  and the same variance  $Var(X_n) = \sigma^2$  then we say that the r.v.  $X_n$  converges stochastically (or in probability) to the constant  $\mu$  iff, for every  $\epsilon > 0$  we have

$$\underset{n\to\infty}{lim}P(|X_n-\mu|<\epsilon)=1$$

and we may write

$$X_n \xrightarrow{p} \mu$$

We should like to point out a simple but useful fact. Clearly

$$P(|X_n - \mu| < \epsilon) + P(|X_n - \mu| \ge \epsilon) = 1$$

Thus the limit of  $P(|X_n - \mu| < \varepsilon)$  is equal to 1 when and only when

$$\underset{n\to\infty}{lim}P(|X_n-\mu|\geq\epsilon)=0$$

That is, the last limit is also a necessary and sufficient condition for the stochastic convergence of the r.v.  $X_n$  to  $\mu$ .

In addition, a very important result on law of large numbers, is:

Let  $\bar{\mathbf{X}}_{n}$  be the mean of a random sample of size n, then;

$$\bar{\mathbf{X}}_{n} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{p}} \mu \iff \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbf{P}(|\bar{\mathbf{X}}_{n} - \mu| < \varepsilon) = 1$$

# **1.3** The Distribution of $\overline{X}$

#### Theorem 1.2

If  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,..., $X_n$  constitute a R.S. from a normal population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then  $\overline{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$  i.e.  $Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$ .

#### **Proof**

Since  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  is the mean of a r.s., then  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are i.i.d. with common M.G.F.,

$$\mathbf{M}_{X}(t) = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2}t^{2}}$$

Now, the M.G.F. of  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  is,

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{M}_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}}(t) &= \mathbf{E} \left[ \mathbf{e}^{\overline{\mathbf{X}}t} \right] = \mathbf{E} \left[ \mathbf{e}^{\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{X}_{i}\right)t} \right] \\ &= \mathbf{E} \left[ \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{X}_{1} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right)} \right] \mathbf{E} \left[ \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{X}_{2} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right)} \right] ... \mathbf{E} \left[ \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{X}_{n} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right)} \right] \\ &= \mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{X}_{1}} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right) \mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{X}_{2}} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right) ... \mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{X}_{n}} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right) \\ &= \left[ \mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{X}} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right) \right]^{n} \\ &= \left( \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{\mu} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right)^{2}} \right)^{n} \\ &= \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{\mu} t + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}\right) t^{2}} \\ &= \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{\mu} t} \end{split}$$

which is the M.G.F. of  $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ . Therefore  $\overline{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$  i.e.  $Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$ .

From this theorem we also conclude that the mean and variance of  $\bar{X}$  are given by

$$\mu_{\overline{X}} = E(\overline{X}) = \mu$$
, and  $\sigma_{\overline{X}}^2 = var(\overline{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$  (1.1)

### Theorem 1. 3 (Central Limit Theorem)

If random samples of size n are drawn from any infinite population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , the limiting distribution

$$\mathbf{Z} = \frac{\overline{\mathbf{X}} - \mu}{\sigma \sqrt{\mathbf{n}}}$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  is the standard normal distribution N(0,1).

The Proof is omitted.

The Normal approximation in the central limit theorem will be good if  $n \ge 30$  regardless of the shape of the population. If the population variance  $\sigma 2$  is unknown, the central limit theorem still valid when we replace  $\sigma 2$  by the sample variance  $S^2$ , i.e. for large **n** enough, we have

$$Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

It is interested to note that when the population we are sampling is normal, the distribution of  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  is a normal distribution (see theorem 1.1) regardless of the size of n.

### Example 1.1

Certain tubes manufactured by a company have a mean lifetime of 900 hr and standard deviation of 50 hr. Find the probability that a random sample of 64 tubes taken from the group will have a mean lifetime between 895 and 910 hrs.

#### **Solution**

Here we have  $\mu = 900$ ,  $\sigma = 50$ . Let  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  denotes the sample mean lifetime of the tubes and since n = 64 is large enough, then by the central limit theorem

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

Thus

$$\begin{split} P\left(895 < \overline{X} < 910\right) &= P\left(\frac{895 - 900}{50 \, / \, 8} < \frac{\overline{X} \cdot \mu}{\sigma \, / \, \sqrt{n}} < \frac{910 - 900}{50 \, / \, 8}\right) = P(-8.0 < Z < 1.6) \\ &= \Phi(1.6) \cdot \Phi(-0.8) = \Phi(1.6) \cdot 1 + \Phi(0.8) = 0.733 \end{split}$$

# Case of two populations

If two **independent** random samples of sizes  $\mathbf{n}_1$  and  $\mathbf{n}_2$  are drawn from any two populations with means  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ , and variances  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$ , respectively, the sampling distribution of  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}_1 - \overline{\mathbf{X}}_2$  will be approximately distributed with mean and variance given by

$$\mu_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \mu_{\bar{X}_1} - \mu_{\bar{X}_2} = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$
, and  $\sigma_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}^2 = \sigma_{\bar{X}_1}^2 + \sigma_{\bar{X}_2}^2 = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}$ 

Hence,

$$Z = \frac{(\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2) \cdot (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}} \sim N(0,1)$$

If both  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are greater than or equal to 30, the normal approximation for the distribution of  $\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2$  will be good regardless of the shapes of the two populations. Similarly, if the variances  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$  are unknown, the central limit theorem still valid with using the sample variances  $S_1^2$  and  $S_2^2$  instead of  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$ . Therefore

$$Z = \frac{(\overline{X}_{1} - \overline{X}_{2}) - (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2})}{\sqrt{\frac{S_{1}^{2}}{n_{1}} + \frac{S_{2}^{2}}{n_{2}}}} \sim N(0,1)$$

### Example 1.2

The electric light bulbs of manufacturer A have a mean lifetime of 1400 hrs with a standard deviation of 200 hrs, while those of manufacturer B have a mean lifetime of 1200 hours with a standard deviation of 100 hours. If random samples of 125 bulbs of each brand are tested, what is the probability that the brand A bulbs will have a mean lifetime which is at least 160 hours more than the brand B bulbs?

#### **Solution**

Let  $\overline{X}_A$  and  $\overline{X}_B$  denote the mean lifetimes of samples A and B respectively. Then the variable

$$Z = \frac{(\overline{X}_A - \overline{X}_B) - \mu_{\overline{X}_A} - \overline{X}_B}{\sigma_{\overline{X}_A} - \overline{X}_B} = \frac{(\overline{X}_A - \overline{X}_B) - 200}{20} \sim N(0,1)$$

The required probability is then, given by

$$P(\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B \ge 160) = P\left(Z \ge \frac{160 - 200}{20}\right) = P(Z \ge -2.0) = 1 - \Phi(-2.0) = \Phi(2.0) = 0.977$$

## 1.4 The Chi-Squared Distribution

If  $\mathbf{Z}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_2$ ,..., $\mathbf{Z}_v$  are independent r.v.'s having standard normal distribution N(0,1),

then the r.v.

$$U = Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \dots + Z_{\nu}^2 \tag{1.2}$$

has the so called Chi-Squared Distribution (often denoted by  $\chi^2$  distribution) with v degrees of freedom (d.f.) and it has the following properties;

**1-** The mean and variance of the  $\chi^2_{\nu}$  distribution are

$$\mu = v$$
 and  $\sigma^2 = 2 v$ 

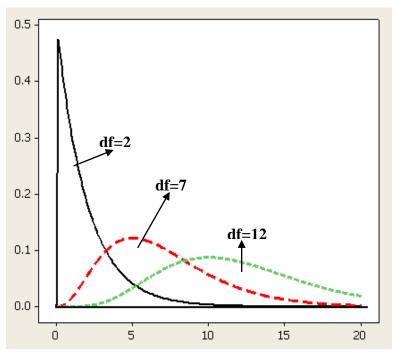


Fig.  $1.1\chi_{\nu}^2$  distribution curves for various values of v

**3-** If  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$ ,..., $U_k$  are independent r.v.'s having chi-squared distributions with  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,..., $v_k$  d.f., then

$$\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbf{U}_{i}$$

has the chi-squared distribution with  $v=v_1+v_2+...+v_k$  d.f.

**4-** The percentage points of the  $\chi^2_{\nu}$  distribution have been extensively tabulated. Define  $\chi^2_{\alpha,\nu}$  as the percentage point or value of the chi-square r.v. U with  $\nu$  d.f. such that

$$P(U \ge \chi_{\alpha, \nu}^2) = \int_{\chi_{\alpha, \nu}^2}^{\infty} f_{\chi^2} (u) du = \alpha$$

This probability is shown as the shaded area in Fig.1.2 Note that if  $X_1, X_2,...,X_n$  constitute a R.S. from a normal population with mean  $\mu$  and

variance  $\sigma^2$ , then  $\mathbf{Z}_i = \frac{\mathbf{X}_i - \mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathbf{N}(0, 1)$  and therefore the variable

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2.$$

Has the  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{n}$  d.f.

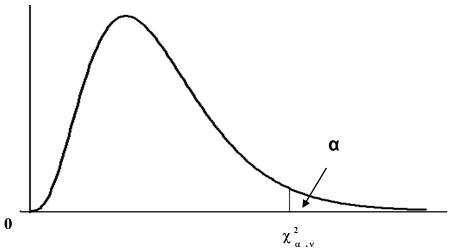
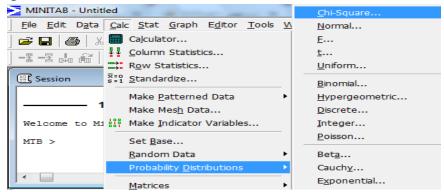
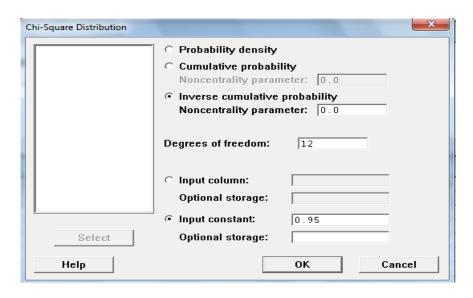


Fig. 1.2 Percentages point of the chi-squared distribution

#### **Using MINITAB**

Suppose we want to find  $\chi^2_{.05,12}$ , then its CDF is  $F(\chi^2_{.05,12}) = 1$ -  $\alpha = 0.95$ . Now press  $Calc \rightarrow Probabilty Distributions \rightarrow Chi-Square$  then click on "inverse cumulative distribution" and write 12 for the degrees of freedom and 0.95 for "input constant" as in the following Figures.





Click on " "ok" we obtain:

$$P(X \le x)$$
  $x < 0.95$   $21.0261$ 

i.e. 
$$\chi^2_{.05,12} = 21.02$$
.

# The Distribution of S<sup>2</sup>

#### Theorem 1.4

If  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are a random sample from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then

1-  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  and the terms  $\mathbf{X}_{i} - \overline{\mathbf{X}}$ ; i=1,..., n are independent,

**2-**  $\overline{X}$  and  $S^2$  are independent.

The proof is omitted.

### Theorem 1.5

If  $\overline{\bm{X}}$  and  $\,S^2$  are the mean and variance of a r.s. of size n from a population having  $N(\mu,\!\sigma^2),$  then

**1-**  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  and  $\mathbf{S}^2$  are independent;

**2-** the r.v.  $\mathbf{U} = \frac{(\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{1}) \mathbf{S}^2}{\sigma^2}$  has the chi-squared distribution with  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{n} - \mathbf{1}$  d.f.

#### **Proof**

First note that by adding and subtracting  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  and then expanding, we obtain the

relationship

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

$$= U_{1} + U_{2}$$
(6.3)

Since

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(X_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i^2 \sim \chi_n^2$$

and

$$\overline{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n) \implies Z = \frac{\overline{X} \cdot \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0,1) \implies Z^2 = \frac{(\overline{X} \cdot \mu)^2}{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}} = \frac{n(\overline{X} \cdot \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} = U_2 \sim \chi_1^2$$

Thus,

$$U \sim \chi_n^2$$
 and  $U_2 \sim \chi_1^2$ 

Therefore by property (3) of the chi-square distribution we have

$$U_1 = U - U_2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$$

## Corollary

Since the mean and variance of the  $\chi^2_{n-1}$  are respectively, (n-1) and 2(n-1), it follows that

$$E\left(\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}\right) = n-1 \implies E(S^2) = \sigma^2$$

and

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{(n-1)S^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}\right) = 2(n-1) \implies \operatorname{var}\left(S^{2}\right) = \frac{2\sigma^{4}}{n-1}$$

### 1.5 The t- Distribution

We know that if  $X_1, X_2,...,X_n$  are a R.S. from a normal population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then  $\overline{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$  i.e.

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

Most of the time we are not fortunate enough to know the variance of the population from which we select our random samples. For samples of size n < 30, a good estimate of  $\sigma^2$  is provided by calculating  $S^2$ . What then happens to the distribution of the Z values in the

central limit theorem if we replace  $\sigma^2$  by  $S^2$ ? As long as  $S^2$  is a good estimate of  $\sigma^2$  and does not vary much from sample to sample, which is usually the case for  $n \ge 30$ , the values

$$\frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}}$$

are still approximately distributed as a standard normal variable, and central limit theorem is valid. If the sample size is small (n<30), the values of  $S^2$  fluctuate considerably from sample to sample and the distribution of the values  $(\overline{X} - \mu)/(S/\sqrt{n})$  is no longer a standard normal distribution.

Thus the theory which follows leads to the exact distribution of

$$T = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}}$$

for r.s.'s from normal populations.

#### Theorem 1.6

Let Z and U be two r.v.'s with

1- 
$$Z \sim N(0,1)$$
,

2- 
$$U \sim \chi_r^2$$

**3-** Z and U are independent.

Then the distribution of

$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/r}}$$

is called the t-distribution with  $\mathbf{r}$  degrees of freedom and its p.d.f. is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{r}{2} + 1\right)}{\sqrt{\pi r} \Gamma\left(\frac{r}{2}\right)} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{r}\right)^{\frac{r+1}{2}} - \infty < x < \infty$$

The t-distribution is also known as the student-t distribution. The t-distribution is similar to the N(0,1) distribution in that they both are symmetric about a mean of zero. Both distributions are bell shaped but the t-distribution is more variable. The areas under the curve have been tabulated in sufficient detail to meet the requirements of most problems. The distribution of t is similar to the distribution of Z, in that they both are symmetric about a mean of zero. Both distributions are bell shaped but the t distribution is more

variable. The distribution of t differs from that of Z in that the t-distribution depends on the degrees of freedom r and is always greater than 1. Only when  $r \to \infty$  (or r large > 30) will the two distributions become the same. In Figure 1, we show the relationship between a standard normal distribution ( $r = \infty$ ), and t distribution with 4 and 8 degrees of freedom

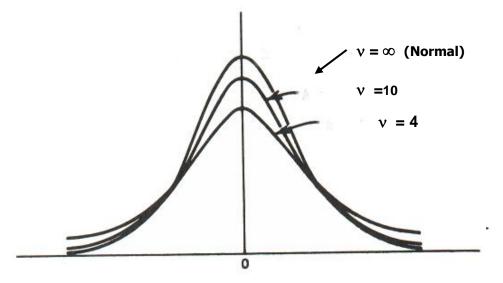


Fig. 1.3 t distribution curves for v = 4, 10 and  $\infty$ .

### Theorem 1.7

If  $\overline{X}$  and  $S^2$  are the mean and variance, respectively, of a random sample of size n taken from a population that is normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and unknown variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then the variable

$$T = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

has a t-distribution with v = n-1 degrees of freedom.

#### **Proof**

If  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are a random sample from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then

**1-** 
$$\overline{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$$
 i.e.  $Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$ 

2- U = 
$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$$

**3-**  $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$  and  $S^2$  are independent, thus also Z and U are independent. Therefore by theorem 1.7, we have

$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/r}} = \frac{\frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n-1) S^2}{\sigma^2} / (n-1)}} = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

For a t-distribution with (n-1) degrees of freedom the symbol  $t_{\alpha}$  denotes the t-value leaving area of  $\alpha$  to the right.  $t_{\alpha}$  is the upper  $\alpha$ - point of the t-distribution with (n-1) degrees of freedom (see Fig. 1.4). The t-table is arranged to give the values  $t_{\alpha}$  for several frequently used values of  $\alpha$  and different values of  $\mathbf{v} = (n-1)$ .

Since the t-distribution is symmetrical about the value t=0, the lower points can be obtained form the, upper points. The relationship between the lower and upper points is

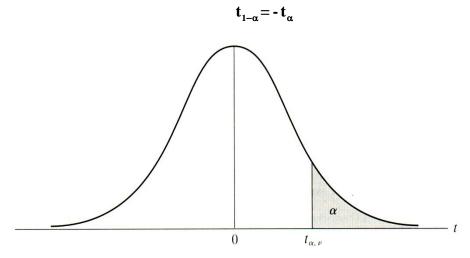


Fig. 1.4  $\alpha$ - point of the t-distribution with (n-1) d.f.

For example; if  $\mathbf{v} = n-1 = 5$ , then from the t-table we have

$$t_{0.025} = 2.57 \qquad therefore \qquad \qquad t_{0.975} = -2.57 \label{eq:t0025}$$

#### **Using MINITAB**

Suppose we want to find  $t_{0.025,5}$ , then its CDF is  $F(t_{0.025,5}) = 1$ -  $\alpha/2 = 0.975$ . Now press  $Calc \rightarrow Probabilty Distributions \rightarrow t$  then click on "inverse cumulative distribution" and write 5 for the degrees of freedom and 0.975 for "input constant". Click on "ok" we obtain:

i.e.  $t_{0.025, 5} = 2.57058$ .

#### 1.6 The F- Distribution

Another derived distribution of great importance in statistics is called the F distribution.

#### Theorem 1.8

Let U<sub>1</sub> and U<sub>2</sub> be two r.v.'s with

1. 
$$U_1 \sim \chi_{r_1}^2$$
,

2. 
$$U_2 \sim \chi_{r,}^2$$

**3-**  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  are independent.

Then the distribution of the r.v.

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{\mathbf{U}_1 / \mathbf{r}_1}{\mathbf{U}_2 / \mathbf{r}_2}$$

is called the F distribution with  $(r_1, r_2)$  degrees of freedom and its p.d.f. is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{r_1 + r_2}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{r_1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{r_2}{2}\right)} \left(\frac{r_1}{r_2}\right)^{r_1/2} x^{\frac{r_1}{2}-1} \left(1 + \frac{r_1}{r_2}x\right)^{-\frac{r_1 + r_2}{2}} - \infty < x < \infty$$

### **Corollary**

Let  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,..., $X_n$  and  $Y_1$ ,  $Y_2$ ,..., $Y_n$  be independent random samples from populations with respective distributions  $X_i \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$  and  $Y_j \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ . If  $r_1 = n_1-1$  and  $r_2 = n_2-1$ , then

$$\mathbf{U}_{1} = \frac{(\mathbf{n}_{1} - 1)\mathbf{S}_{1}^{2}}{\sigma_{1}^{2}} \sim \chi_{\mathbf{n}_{1} - 1}^{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{U}_{2} = \frac{(\mathbf{n}_{2} - 1)\mathbf{S}_{2}^{2}}{\sigma_{2}^{2}} \sim \chi_{\mathbf{n}_{2} - 1}^{2}$$

so that

$$F = \frac{U_1 / (n_1 - 1)}{U_2 / (n_2 - 1)} = \frac{S_1^2 \sigma_2^2}{S_2^2 \sigma_1^2} \sim F_{n_1 - 1, n_2 - 1}$$

## **EXERCISES**

[1] Certain tubes manufactured by a company have a mean lifetime of 800 hours and a standard deviation of 40 hours. Find the probability that a random sample of 36 tubes taken from the group will have a mean lifetime.

**a-** Between 790 and 810 hours,

**b-** More than 815 hours.

[2] A and B manufacture two types of cables, having mean breaking strengths of 4000 and 4500 pounds and standard deviations of 300 and 200 pounds respectively. If 100 cables of brand A and 50 cables of brand B are tested, what is the probability that the mean breaking strength of B will be

**a-** At least 600 pounds more than A,

**b-** At least 450 pounds more than A.

**[3]** Find **a-** P( $-t_{0.005} < t < t_{0.01}$ )

**b-** Find P(t >- $t_{0.025}$ ).

[4] Given a random sample of size 24 from a normal distribution, find, K such that

**a-** P(-2.069 < t < K) = 0.965

**b-** P(K < t < 2.807) = 0.095.

**C-** P(-K < t < K) = 0.90.

[5] Consider the four independent random variables X, Y, U and V such that  $X \sim$ N(0,16), Y ~ N(5,4), U ~  $\chi^2(4)$  and V ~  $\chi^2(16)$ .

State the distribution of each of the following variables

 $a - \frac{X^2}{16} + \frac{(Y-5)^2}{4}$   $b - \frac{X}{\sqrt{V}}$   $c - \frac{4U}{V}$  d - X + 2Y e - 2X - Y

[6] If  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , ...,  $X_n$  are i.i.d.  $N(0,\sigma^2)$ , state the distribution of each of the following variables:

**a-** U = 3  $X_1$  - 5  $X_2$  + 8 **b-** V =  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ 

 $c-W = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}\right)^{2} / n \sigma^{2}$   $d-Y = \frac{2X_{1}^{2}}{X_{2}^{2} + X_{2}^{2}}$   $e-Y = \frac{\sum X_{i}}{\sqrt{\sum X_{i}^{2}}}$ 

[7] If  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , ...,  $X_n$  are i.i.d.  $N(0,\sigma^2)$ , state the distribution of each of the following variables:

**a-** Y = 5 X<sub>1</sub> -7 X<sub>2</sub> +2 **b-** Y =  $\frac{2 X_1^2}{X_2^2 + X_3^2}$  **c-** Y =  $\frac{\sum X_i}{\sqrt{\sum X_i^2}}$ 

[8] Suppose that  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$  and  $X_4$  are i.i.d.  $N(0,\sigma^2)$ , then the distribution of the random

variable  $Y = \frac{X_1 + X_2}{\sqrt{X_3^2 + X_4^2}}$  is a.  $\chi^2(2)$  b. t(2)

c. F(2,2)

**d.** None of the above.

- [9] Consider the three independent random variables X, U and V such that  $X \sim N(0,1)$ ,  $U \sim \chi^2(4)$  and  $V \sim \chi^2(16)$ . Find the distribution of  $W = X^2 + U + V$ .
- [10] Let  $\overline{X}$  and  $\overline{Y}$  be sample means of two independent random samples of sizes 10 and 20 from N(4,9) and N(5,16) respectively. Find mean, variance and distribution of  $Z = \overline{X} - 2\overline{Y} + 3$ .
- [11] Show that if X has a t distribution with v d.f., then  $Y=X^2$  has an F distribution with  $\mathbf{v}_1 = 1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{v}$  d.f.
- [12] Circle the best answer from each of the following multiple-choice questions: Let X ~ N(1,16), Y ~ N(0,4) and U ~  $\chi^2$  (15) be three independent r.v's.
  - **a-** The distribution of 2X-3Y+5 is

i. N(7,28)

ii. N(7,100)

iii. N(2,105) iv. None of the above.

**b-** One of the following r.v.'s has F(16,1)

i.  $\frac{U+Y^2/4}{(X-1)^2/16}$  ii.  $\frac{U+Y^2/4}{(X-1)^2}$  iii.  $\frac{(U+Y^2/4)/16}{(X-1)^2}$  iv. None of the above.

**c-** The distribution of  $\frac{X-1}{\sqrt{Z^2+U}}$  is

**i.** t(3)

iii. t(16) iv. None of the above.

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