

chapter five

SUM OF RANDOM VARIABLES
AND LONG-TERM AVERAGES

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be the sequence of random variables, and let S_n be their sum:

$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

The expected value:

Regardless of statistical dependence, the expected value of a sum of n random variables is equal to the sum of the expected values:

$$\begin{aligned} E[S_n] &= E[X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] \\ &= E[X_1] + E[X_2] + \dots + E[X_n] \\ &= \mu_{X_1} + \mu_{X_2} + \dots + \mu_{X_n} \end{aligned}$$

The Variance:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{VAR}[S_n] &= \text{VAR}[X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] \\ &= E \left[\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - E[X_j]) \sum_{k=1}^n (X_k - E[X_k]) \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\overbrace{V_{X_1+X_2+\dots+X_n}}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n E \left[(X_j - E[X_j])(X_k - E[X_k]) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \text{VAR}[X_k] + \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n \text{COV}(X_j, X_k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \overbrace{V_{X_k}}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n \overbrace{V_{X_j X_k}}^{\text{Covariances}}$$

↑ individual variances
 ↑ Covariances

Therefore, in general, the variance of the sum of random variables is not equal to the sum of the individual variances.

Special Case:

When X_i 's are independent random variables,
Then,

$$\text{COV}[X_j, X_k] = \overbrace{V_{X_j X_k}} = 0, \text{ for } j \neq k,$$

and

$$\overbrace{V_{X_1+X_2+\dots+X_n}}^2 = \overbrace{V_{X_1}}^2 + \overbrace{V_{X_2}}^2 + \dots + \overbrace{V_{X_n}}^2.$$

Example:

Find the mean and the variance of the sum of n independent and identically distributed (iid) random variables each with mean μ and variance σ^2 :

$$\begin{aligned} E[S_n] &= E[X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] \\ &= \mu + \mu + \dots + \mu \\ &= n\mu \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{VAR}[S_n] &= \sigma_{S_n}^2 \\ &= n \sigma_{X_i}^2 = n\sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

PDF of Sums of Independent Random Variables

We can show that the transform methods can be used to find the pdf of $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$, where X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent.

Let us consider the $n=2$ case, $Z = X + Y$, X and Y are independent random variables. The characteristic function of Z is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Phi_Z(\omega) &= E[e^{j\omega Z}] \\
 &= E[e^{j\omega(X+Y)}] \\
 &= E[e^{j\omega X} e^{j\omega Y}] \\
 &= E[e^{j\omega X}] E[e^{j\omega Y}] \\
 &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{\Phi_X(\omega)} \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{\Phi_Y(\omega)}
 \end{aligned}$$

• Since X and Y are independent random variables.

$\Phi_Z(\omega)$ can be viewed as the Fourier transform of the pdf of the random variable Z ,

$$\Phi_Z(\omega) = \mathcal{F}[f_Z(z)].$$

$f_Z(z)$ is given by the convolution of the pdf of X and Y (convolution)

$$f_Z(z) = f_X(x) * f_Y(y)$$

The SAMPLE MEAN and

The LAWS OF LARGE Numbers

Let X be a random variable for which the mean, $E[X] = \mu$, is unknown.

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n denote n independent repeated measurements of X , that is, the X_j 's are independent, identically distributed (iid) random variables with the same pdf of X .

SAMPLE MEAN:

The sample mean of the sequence is used to estimate $E[X]$:

$$M_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j.$$

Theorem: WEAK-LAW OF LARGE NUMBERS (Khinchin's Theorem, 1929)

Let X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of iid random variables with mean, $E[X]$, then for $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \{ |M_n - \mu| < \epsilon \} = 1. \quad (A)$$

The weak-law of large numbers states that for a large enough fixed value of n , the sample mean using n samples will be close to the true mean with a high probability.

Do we have an answer this question?

The weak-law of large numbers does not address the question about what happens to the sample mean as a function of n . If we make additional measurements.

This question is taken up by the strong law of large numbers, which we discuss next:

Theorem: STRONG LAW OF LARGE NUMBERS

- Suppose we make a series of independent measurements of the same random variable.
- Let X_1, X_2, \dots be the resulting sequence of iid random variables with mean μ .

Consider the sequence of sample means that results from the above measurements:

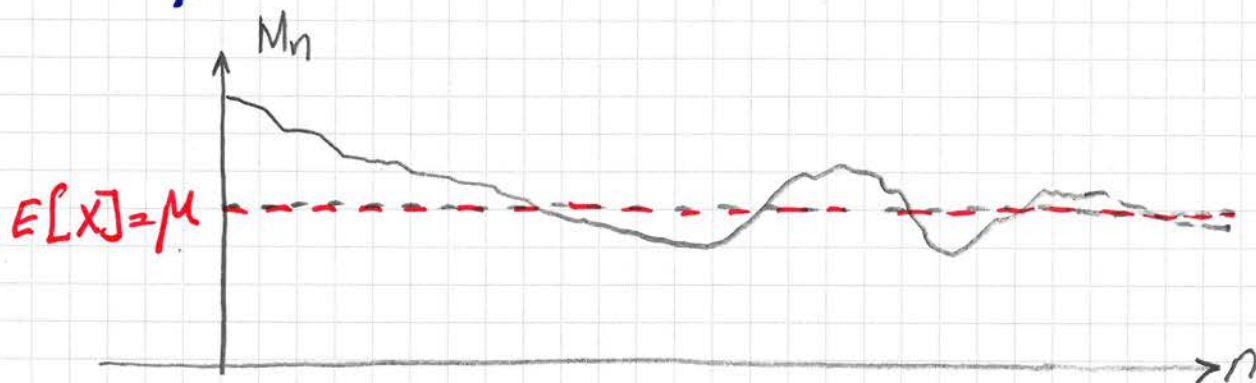
$$M_1 = X_1$$

$$M_2 = \frac{1}{2} (X_1 + X_2)$$

$$M_3 = \frac{1}{3} (X_1 + X_2 + X_3)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$M_n = \frac{1}{n} (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)$$

$$\vdots$$


- Each particular sequence of sample means M_1, M_2, M_3, \dots converges to μ , that is, we expect that with a high probability,
 - each particular sequence of sample means approaches to μ and stays there.

The statistical regularity notion that we discussed in chapter 1 leads to this expectation or convergence.

Strong Law of Large Numbers:

Let X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of iid random variables with finite mean $E[X] = \mu < \infty$ and finite variance $\sigma_X^2 < \infty$, then

$$\Pr\left\{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n = \mu\right\} = 1. \quad (B)$$

This equation appears similar to equation

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr\{|M_n - \mu| < \epsilon\} = 1, \text{ for } \epsilon > 0.$$

but it makes a dramatically different statements.

This new equation (B) states that with probability 1, every sequence of sample mean calculations will eventually approach and stay close to $E[X] = \mu$.

In physical situations where statistical regularity holds, we expect this type of convergence.

The Central Limit Theorem

Let

$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

be the sum n iid random variables with finite mean $E[X] = \mu < \infty$ and finite variance, $\sigma^2 < \infty$, and let Z_n be zero-mean and unit variance random variable defined by

$$Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma \sqrt{n}}$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr\{Z_n \leq z\} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^z e^{-x^2/2} dx}_{\text{This is the cdf of the standard normal (Gaussian) random variable.}}$$

Proof:

It is given in the textbook and will not be repeated here.

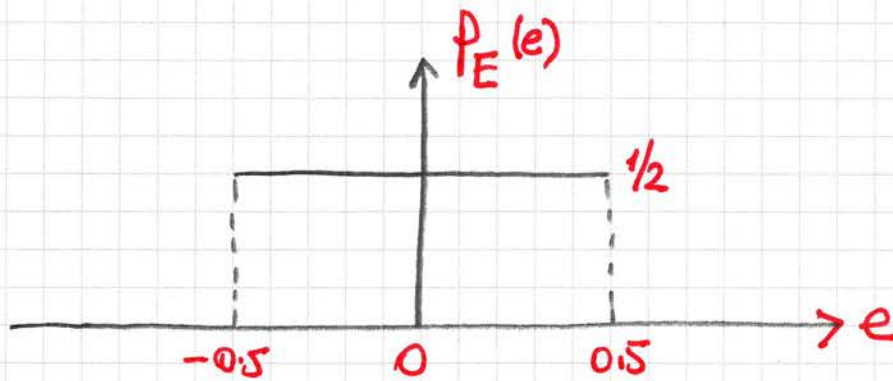
This is the cdf of the standard normal (Gaussian) random variable.

From this result, we understand that n becomes large, the cdf of a properly normalized S_n , namely Z_n , approaches a Gaussian random variable.

There are several examples in the book to verify this theorem.

Example 1:

We are summing 100 numbers by rounding the closest integer. Each rounding error is independent and uniformly distributed in the interval $(-0.5, 0.5)$,



$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 X_i & = & X_{q_i} & + & E_i \\
 \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
 \text{The original} & & \text{The rounded} & & \text{Rounding} \\
 \text{ith number} & & \text{to closest} & & \text{error} \\
 & & \text{integer} & &
 \end{array}$$

The sum of errors

$$S_{100} = E_1 + E_2 + \dots + E_{100}$$

and

$$E_i \sim \text{Unif}(-0.5, 0.5), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, 100.$$

According to the central limit theorem, the random variable S_{100} is gaussian (normal) distributed.

$$\mu_{S_{100}} = 100 \mu_{E_i}$$

and

$$\sigma_{S_{100}}^2 = 100 \sigma_{E_i}^2$$

From $f_E(e)$, we can calculate

$$\mu_{E_i} = \int_{-0.5}^{0.5} e f_E(e) de = \int_{-0.5}^{0.5} e \frac{1}{2} de = 0$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{E_i}^2 &= \int_{-0.5}^{0.5} (e-0)^2 f_E(e) de \\ &= \int_{-0.5}^{0.5} e^2 \frac{1}{2} de = \frac{1}{12} \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{S_{100}} &= 100 \mu_{E_i} \\ &= 100 \cdot (0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{S_{100}}^2 &= 100 \sigma_{E_i}^2 \\ &= 100 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{12}\right) = \frac{100}{12} \end{aligned}$$

Question ?

$$\Pr\{|S_{100}| > 5\} = ?$$

↑
The absolute value of
the sum of the errors.

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{|S_{100}| > 5\} &= 1 - \Pr\{|S_{100}| \leq 5\} \\ &= 1 - \Pr\{-5 \leq S_{100} \leq 5\} \\ &= 1 - \left[\Phi\left(\frac{5-0}{\sqrt{\frac{100}{12}}}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{-5-0}{\sqrt{\frac{100}{12}}}\right) \right] \\ &= 1 - \left[\Phi(1.73) - \Phi(-1.73) \right] \\ &= 1 - [0.9582 - 0.0418] = 0.08.\end{aligned}$$

Example:

Within an hour, the average number of costumers coming into a bank branch is 30. What is the probability of coming more than 35 costumers?

X random variable shows the number of costumers visiting a bank within a hour is a Poisson distribution, $X \sim \text{Poisson}(30)$.

$$\Pr\{X > 35\} = P_{36} + P_{37} + P_{38} + \dots$$

$$= 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{35} P_k$$

$$= 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{35} \frac{30^k}{k!} e^{-30}$$

Instead of calculating this expression, we can use the normal distribution

approximation, (remember $E[X] = \sqrt{\lambda}^2 = 30$)

$$\Pr\{X > 35\} = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{35-30}{\sqrt{30}}\right)$$

$$= 1 - \Phi(0.91)$$

$$= 1 - 0.8186$$

$$= 0.1814.$$

Example [18]:

Suppose that a random variable X has a continuous uniform distribution

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, & 4 \leq x \leq 6 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Find the distribution of the sample mean of a random sample of size $n=40$, namely,

$$M_{40} = \frac{1}{40} (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{40}).$$

The mean and variance of X are $\mu=5$ and $\sigma^2 = (6-4)^2/12 = 1/3$. The central limit theorem indicates that the distribution of M_{40} is approximately normal with mean

$$\mu_{M_{40}} = \frac{1}{40} (\mu_{X_1} + \mu_{X_2} + \dots + \mu_{X_{40}}) = \frac{1}{40} (5+5+\dots+5) = 5$$

and variance

$$\sigma_{M_{40}}^2 = \frac{1}{40^2} (\sigma_{X_1}^2 + \sigma_{X_2}^2 + \dots + \sigma_{X_{40}}^2) = \frac{1}{40} \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{3} \right) = \frac{1/3}{1/40} = \frac{1}{120}$$

and $M_{40} \sim \mathcal{N}(5, \frac{1}{120})$

$X \sim \text{Uni}(4, 6)$

