Lecture Note 7 \* Random Sample

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### 17 Definitions

### 17.1 Random Sample

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be mutually independent RVs such that  $f_{X_i}(x) = f_{X_j}(x) \forall i \neq j$ . Denote  $f_{X_i}(x) = f(x)$ . Then, the collection  $X_1, ..., X_n$  is called a random sample of size *n* from the population f(x).

Examples:

- Rolling a die n times.
- Selecting 10 MIT students and measuring their height.

• Sampling with and without replacement: Sampling from a large population ("nearly independent").

• Alternatively, this collection (or sampling),  $X_1, ..., X_n$ , is also called <u>independent and</u> identically distributed random variables with pmf/pdf f(x), or *iid* sample for short.

• Note that the difference between X and x still holds (we continue to deal with random variables).

<sup>\*</sup>Caution: These notes are not necessarily self-explanatory notes. They are to be used as a complement to (and not as a substitute for) the lectures.

### 17.2 Statistic

Let the RVs  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be a random sample of size *n* from the population f(x). Then, any real-valued function  $T = r(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$  is called a statistic.

• Remember that  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  are RVs, and therefore T is a RV too, which can take any real value t with pmf/pdf  $f_T(t)$ .

#### 17.3 Sample Mean

The <u>sample mean</u>, denoted by  $\bar{X}_n$ , is a statistic defined as the arithmetic average of the values in a random sample of size n.

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$
(52)

#### 17.4 Sample Variance

The <u>sample variance</u>, denoted by  $S_n^2$ , is a statistic defined as:

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$
(53)

The sample standard deviation is the statistic defined by  $S_n = \sqrt{S_n^2}$ .<sup>1</sup>

• Remember, the observed value of the statistic is denoted by lowercase letters. So,  $\bar{x}, s^2$ , and s denote observed values of the RVs  $\bar{X}, S^2$ , and S.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The sample variance and the sample standard deviation are sometimes denoted by  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$ , respectively.

# 18 Important Properties of the Sample Mean Distribution and the Sample Variance Distribution

## **18.1** Mean and Variance of $\bar{X}$ and $S^2$

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be a random sample of size *n* from a population f(x) with mean  $\mu$  (finite) and variance  $\sigma^2$  (finite). Then,

$$E(\bar{X}) = \mu, \qquad E(S^2) = \sigma^2, \qquad Var(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}, \quad \text{and} \quad Var_{n \to \infty}(S^2) \to 0.$$
 (54)

• <u>Standard Error</u>:  $\sqrt{Var(\bar{X})}$ 

Example 18.1. Show the first 3 statements of (54).

# 18.2 The Special Case of a Random Sample from a Normal Population

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be a random sample of size n from a  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  population. Then,

- **a.**  $\bar{X}$  and  $S^2$  are independent random variables. (55)
- **b.**  $\bar{X}$  has a  $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$  distribution. (56)  $(n-1)S^2$

c. 
$$\frac{(n-1)S}{\sigma^2}$$
 has a  $\chi^2_{(n-1)}$  distribution. (57)

**Example 18.2.** Show (56).

## 18.3 Limiting Results $(n \to \infty)$

These concepts are extensively used in econometrics.

#### 18.3.1 (Weak) Law of Large Numbers

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be independent and identically distributed *(iid)* random variables with  $E(X_i) = \mu$  (finite) and  $\operatorname{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$  (finite). Define  $\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| < \varepsilon) = 1 .$$
(58)

This condition is denoted,

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{p} \mu \qquad (\bar{X}_n \text{ converges in probability to } \mu.)$$
 (59)

**Example 18.3.** Prove (58) using Chebyshev's inequality. Note that  $S^2 \xrightarrow{p} \sigma^2$  can be proved in a similar way.

#### 18.3.2 Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be independent and identically distributed *(iid)* random variables with  $E(X_i) = \mu$  (finite) and  $\operatorname{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$  (finite). Define  $\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then, for any value  $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} < x\right) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} = \Phi(x) \tag{60}$$

Where  $\Phi()$  is the cdf of a standard normal.

In words...From (56) we know that if the  $X_i$ s are normally distributed, the sample mean statistic,  $\bar{X}_n$ , will also be normally distributed. (60) says that if  $n \to \infty$ , the function of the sample mean statistic,  $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-\mu)}{\sigma}$ , will be normally distributed **regardless** of the distribution of the  $X_i$ s.

In practice(1)...If n is sufficiently large, we can assume the distribution of a function of  $\bar{X}_n$ ,  $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-\mu)}{\sigma}$ , without knowing the underlining distribution of the random sample  $f_{X_i}(x)$ . [Very powerful result!] In practice(2)...Define  $Z = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma}$ . If n is sufficiently large, then

$$F_Z\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x}_n-\mu)}{\sigma}\right) \approx \Phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x}_n-\mu)}{\sigma}\right) \qquad (61)$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \stackrel{a}{\sim} N(0, 1) \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{X}_n \stackrel{a}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2/n) \qquad (a: \text{ for approximately}) \tag{62}$$

...**regardless** of the pmf/pdf  $f_{X_i}(x)$  !

• The larger the value of n is, the better the approximation. But, how much is "sufficiently large"? There is no straight forward rule. It will depend on the underlying distribution  $f_{X_i}(x)$ . The less bell-shaped  $f_{X_i}(x)$  is, the larger the n required. Having said this, some authors suggest the following rule of thumb:  $n \geq 30$ .

• Magnifying glass (see simulations).

**Example 18.4.** An astronomer is interested in measuring the distance from his observatory to a distant star (in light years). Due to changing atmospheric conditions and measuring errors, each time a measurement is made it will not yield the exact distance. As a result, the astronomer plans to take several measurements and then use the average as his estimated distance. He believes that measurement values are *iid* with mean *d* (the actual distance) and variance 4 (light years). How many measurements does he need to perform to be reasonably sure that his estimated distance is accurate within  $\pm 0.5$  light years?