Definition: The random variables

X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n

are said to form a **random sample of size** n if:

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- Each X_i has the same probability distribution

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These conditions also imply that the expected values and variances of the random variables are the same:

•
$$E(X_i) = \mu$$
 for each X_i

•
$$V(X_i) = \sigma^2$$
 for each X_i

Regardless of what the exact probability distribution is, the following is true:

lf

$$\overline{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} = \text{the sample mean}$$

then

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The above statement is true for a random sample from a distribution for which $E(X_i)$ exists. There are pathological distributions for which $E(X_i)$ does not exist but they are rare.

Again regardless of what the exact probability distribution is, the following is true:

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 $V(\overline{x}) =$ variance of the sample mean

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As before, we note that the variance $V(X_i)$ of each X_i must exists for this to hold.

Normal Population Random Sample

Proposition: If the random sample is from a normal population with mean μ and standard deviation σ ,

$$X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

That is, if each X_i has a normal or bell curve distribution, then the sample mean \overline{x} also has a normal distribution:

$$\overline{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

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$$\overline{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

It should be emphasized that mean and standard deviation of \overline{x} are:

What if the underlying population for the random sample does not have a normal distribution?

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The larger the sample, the closer the actual distribution of \overline{x} is to a normal distribution.

The practical importance of this theorem cannot be overstated.

It means that instead of having to develop separate tables and procedures for each possible distribution, we can treat the mean of any sufficiently large random sample as if it were that of a sample from a normal population.

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Some authors say n = 30, others (DeVore) say n = 50. There really is no hard and fast number.

Practically speaking, it is not a big issue. A study with enough subjects to produce a statistically meaningful result usually has enough to justify the use of the central limit theorem.

We will note in passing that the Central Limit Theorem is actually considerably more general than what is stated in the text.

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Although we will not make use of it in its full generality, the Central Limit Theorem actually does not require identically distributed random variables.

The least restrictive sufficient conditions for the theorem to hold are rather technical so most authors state a less general version of the theorem that is adequate for most purposes.

An IQ test is standardized to have a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. Suppose a random sample of 100 subjects is given the test.

Assuming individual scores are normally distributed with mean 100 and standard deviation 15, what is the distribution of the sample mean IQ score, \overline{x} ?

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An earlier proposition states that

$$\overline{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = N\left(100, \frac{15}{\sqrt{100}}\right) = N(100, 1.5)$$

In the previous example, what is the probability that the sample mean \overline{x} is less than 103?

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This is just the probability that a normal random variable with mean 100 and standard deviation 1.5 is less than (or equal to, equality doesn't really matter) 103, which we can calculate as

- = NORMDIST(103, 100, 1.5, TRUE) using a spreadsheet
- **•** pnorm(103, 100, 1.5) using R

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Either way, the result is:

$$P(\overline{x} \le 103) = 0.9772$$

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Either way, the result is:

$$P(98 \le \overline{x} \le 102) = 0.8176$$

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Either way, the result is:

```
P(98 \le X \le 102) = 0.1061
```

You should compare this to the previous example and understand why they are different.