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Table 3 shows the relations Hip between sample points and values of W. To each point in S there corresponds exactly one value of W. Generally, the reverse is not true. While it is possible to study the calculus of probabilities without specifically defining r. If the sample space S in Table 3 actually refers to successive rolls of a three-sided die, possibly with unequal probabilities for the three sides, it is natural to consider only the sum of the two rolls as the event of interest [see Sufficiency]. W defined above and illustrated in Table 3 combines both approaches in a simple and unambiguous way. The advantages of a formal concept are even more pronounced when it is desirable to consider two or more measurements jointly. Thus, in the earlier example an investigator might not be interested in considering weight and sex of students each by itself but as they relate to one another. This is accomplished by considering for every point in the sample space the number pair Y,Z where Y and Z are the r. Perhaps most important, the concept of r. The function f x defined in This way is called the frequency function of X. For example, in the dice model the frequency function of W is Mean and variance of a random variable The expected value of the r. E X is also called the mean of X. More generally, if H x is a function of x, the expected value of the r. Its expected value is called the variance of X and is denoted by varX The positive square root of the variance is called the standard deviation and is denoted by s. Y is a linear function of the r. The mean and variance of a r. Their true theoretical significance emerges in connection with such advanced theorems as the law of large numbers and the central limit theorem see below. The useful additive property of means and variances is also stated below. On an elementary level, the mean and th variance are useful descriptive or summary measures [see Statistics, descriptive , article on Location and dispersion]. Another average is the median, Med, defined by the two inequalities Thus the medianâ€"which may not be uniquely definedâ€"is a number that cuts in half, as nearly as possible, the frequency function of X. The standard deviation is a measure of variability or spread around the mean, a small standard deviation indicating little variability among the possible values of the r. This rather vague statement is made more precise by the BienaymeChebyshev inequality. This inequality establishes a connection between the size of the standard deviation and the concentration of probability in intervals centered at the mean. The probability that a r. Often the complementary result is more interesting. Although there are r. An example is given below. Th Chebyshev inequality illustrates the fact that for probabilistic purposes the standard deviation is th natural unit of measurement. The binomial distribution Consider an experiment that has only two possible outcomes, called success and failure. The word trial will be used to denote a single performance of such an experiment. A possible sample space for describing the results of n trials consists of all possible sequences of length n of the type Ffsssâ€¦F, where S stand for success and F for failure. If successive trials ar independent and the probability of success in any given trial is a constant p, then The r. X is called the binomial r. For the binomial variable with n â€" 50 and for example, the exact probability is only. Joint frequency functions Let X and Y be tw r. Let X take the values x1,â€¦xk, and let Y take the value y1,â€¦, yh. In terms of f x,y the marginal frequency function of X is given by and, similarly, the marginal frequency function of Y by Marginal distributions are used to make probability statements that involve only one of the variables without regard to the value of the other variable. A different situation arises if the value of one of the variables becomes known. In that case, probability statements involving the other variable should be conditional on what is known. For example, in the empirical model for the guessing-sequence experiment, associate a r. X with the first guess and a r. Y with the second guess. In Table 2 the last column on the right represents the marginal distribution of X and the last row on the bottom the marginal distribution of Y. It i noteworthy that these marginal distributions do not differ very much from the marginal distributions for the dice model in which all probabilities equal. If Y are independent, their covariance and, consequently, their correlation are zero. The reverse, however, is not necessarily true; two r. The covariance of two r. Although the covariance does not depend on the zero points of the scales in which X and Y are measured, it does depend on the units of measurement. By di viding the covariance by the product of the standard deviations a normalization is introduced making the resulting correlation coefficient independent of the units of measurement as well. If, for example, X and Y represent temperature measurements, the correlation between X and Y is the same whether temperatures are measured as degrees Fahrenhei or as degrees centigrade. The concepts of covariance and correlation are closely tied to linear as sociation. One may have very strong even complete nonlinear association and very small even zero correlation. The concepts discussed in This section generalize from two to more than two variables. In This article only some of the simpler, although nevertheless highly important, results will be stated. The mean and variance of Z are. For the remainder assume that the r. This is the mathematical model assumed for many statistical investigations. The common mean of the r. For the sum The law of large numbers. In more advanced treatments This law is called the weak law of large numbers, to distinguish it from a stronger form. The central limit theorem The law of large numbers has more theoretical than practical significance, since it does not furnish precise or even approXimate probabilities in any given situation. Such information is, however, provided by the central limit theorem: As n increases indefinitely, the distribution function of the standardized variable converges to so-called standard normal distribution. A general discussion of the normal distribution is given below. In particular, the probability that in a binomial experiment the number of successes is at least k1 and at most k2 where k1 and k2 are integers is approximately equal to the area under the normal curve between the limits , provided n is sufficiently large. Here a continuity correction of has been used in order to improve the approximation. The central limit theorem occupies a basic position not only in theory but also in application. From This point of view, a statistic is a r. The problem of determining the sampling distributions of statistics of interest to the statistician is one of the important problems of the calculus of probabilities. The central limit theorem states that under very general conditions the sampling distribution of the statistic Sn can, for sufficiently large samples, be approximated in a suitable manner by the normal distribution. More complicated versions of the law of large numbers and the central limit theorem exist for the case of r. A more general view A more general view of random variables and their distributions will now be presented. Discrete and continuous random variables. For reasons of mathematical simplicity the discussion so far has been in terms of r. Actually This limitation was used explicitly only when giving such definitions as that of an expected value. Indeed, they are true for very general r. The remainder of This article will be concerned with such r. Of necessity the mathematical tools have to be of a more advanced nature. For infinite sample spaces, there arises the need for a concept called measurability in the discussion of events and of random variables. For simplicity such discussion is omitted here. By definition, a r. X is a single-valued function defined on a sample space. F x is called the cumulative distribution function of the r. The following properties of a distribution function are consequences of the definition: Such a function may be continuous or discontinuous. If discontinuous, it has at most a denumerable number of discontinuities, at each of which F x has a simple jump, or saltus. The height of This jump is equal to the probability with which the r. X takes the value x where the discontinuity occurs. Let F x be discontinuous with discontinuities occurring at the points x1, x2, â€¦, xn, â€¦. If the are only a finite number of discontinuities, denote their number by n. As before, call f x the frequency function of the r. If F x is continuous for all x, X is said to be continuous r. Consider the case where there exists a function f x such that. In statistical applications this restriction is of little importance. Furthermore, , since for a continuous r. It follows that for a continuous r. X with density function f x the probability that X takes a value between two numbers x1 and x2 is given by the area between the curve representing f x and the x-axis and bounded by the ordinates at x1 and x2 Figure 3. For two continuous r.

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