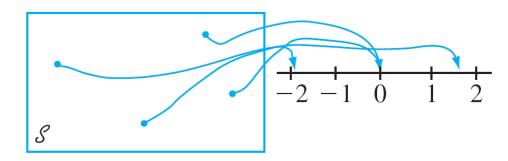


Stat 4570/5570

Based on Devore's book (Ed 8)

Random Variables

We can associate each single outcome of an experiment with a real number:



We refer to the outcomes of such experiments as a "random variable".

Why is it called a "random variable"?

Random Variables

Definition

For a given sample space **S** of some experiment, a **random variable (r.v.)** is a rule that associates a number with each outcome in the sample space **S**.

In mathematical language, <u>a random variable is a "function"</u> whose domain is the sample space and whose range is the set of real numbers:

$$X: \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}$$

So, for any event s, we have X(s)=x is a real number.

Random Variables

Notation!

- Random variables usually denoted by uppercase letters near the end of our alphabet (e.g. *X*, *Y*).
- 2. Particular value now use lowercase letters, such as *x*, which correspond to the r.v. *X*.

Birth weight example

Two Types of Random Variables

A discrete random variable:

Values constitute a finite or countably infinite set

A continuous random variable:

- 1. Its set of possible values is the set of real numbers **R**, one interval, or a disjoint union of intervals on the real line (e.g., $[0, 10] \cup [20, 30]$).
- No one single value of the variable has positive probability, that is, P(X = c) = 0 for any possible value c. Only intervals have positive probabilities.

Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Probabilities assigned to various outcomes in the sample space S, in turn, determine probabilities associated with the values of any particular random variable defined on S.

The <u>probability mass function (pmf) of X</u>, p(X) describes how the total probability is distributed among all the possible range values of the r.v. X:

p(X=x), for each value x in the range of X

Often, p(X=x) is simply written as p(x) and by definition $p(X=x) = P(\{s \in S | X(s) = x\}) = P(X^{-1}(x))$

Note that the <u>domain</u> and <u>range</u> of p(x) are **real numbers**.

Example

A lab has 6 computers.

Let X denote the number of these computers that are in use during lunch hour -- $\{0, 1, 2..., 6\}$.

Suppose that the probability distribution of *X* is as given in the following table:

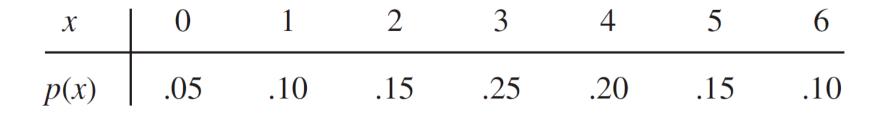
X	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
p(x)	.05	.10	.15	.25	.20	.15	.10

Example, cont

cont' d

From here, we can find many things:

- 1. Probability that at most 2 computers are in use
- 2. Probability that at least half of the computers are in use
- 3. Probability that there are 3 or 4 computers free



Bernoulli r.v.

Any random variable whose only possible values are 0 and 1 is called a **Bernoulli random variable**.

This is a discrete random variable – values?

This distribution is specified with a single parameter: $\pi = p(X=1)$

Examples?

Geometric r.v. -- Example

Starting at a fixed time, we observe the gender of each newborn child at a certain hospital <u>until</u> a boy (*B*) is born. Let p = P(B), assume that successive births are independent, and let *X* be the <u>number of births observed</u> <u>until a first boy is born</u>.

Then

$$p(1) = P(X = 1) = P(B) = p$$

And,

$$p(2)=?, p(3)=?$$

The Geometric r.v.

cont' d

Continuing in this way, a general formula for the pmf emerges:

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} (1-p)^{x-1}p & \text{if } x = 1, 2, 3, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The parameter p can assume any value between 0 and 1. Depending on what parameter p is, we get different members of the *geometric* distribution.

The Cumulative Distribution Function

Definition

The **cumulative distribution function** (*cdf*) denoted F(x) of a discrete *r.v.* X with *pmf* p(x) is defined for every real number x by

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{y:y < x} p(y)$$

For any number x, the cdf F(x) is the probability that the observed value of X will be at most x.

Example

Suppose we are given the following pmf:

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} .500 & x = 0\\ .167 & x = 1\\ .333 & x = 2\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then, calculate: F(0), F(1), F(2)

What about F(1.5)? F(20.5)?

Is $P(X < 1) = P(X \le 1)$?

The Binomial Probability Distribution

Binomial experiments conform to the following:

- The experiment consists of a sequence of n <u>identical</u> and <u>independent</u> Bernoulli experiments called *trials*, where n is fixed in advance.
- 2. Each trial outcome is a <u>Bernoulli r.v.</u>, *i.e.*, each trial can result in only one of 2 possible outcomes. We generically denote one outcome by "success" (*S*, or 1) and "failure" (*F*, or 0).
- 3. The probability of success P(S) (or P(1)) is identical across trials; we denote this probability by *p*.
- 4. The trials are independent, so that the outcome on any particular trial does not influence the outcome on any other trial.

The Binomial Random Variable and Distribution

The Binomial r.v. counts the **total number of successes**:

Definition

The **binomial random variable** *X* associated with a binomial experiment consisting of *n* trials is defined as

X = the number of S's among the *n* trials

This is an identical definition as X = sum of n independent and identically distributed Bernoulli random variables, where S is coded as 1, and F as 0.

The Binomial Random Variable and Distribution

Suppose, for example, that n = 3. What is the sample space?

Using the definition of X, X(SSF) = ? X(SFF) = ? What are the possible values for X if there are n trials?

NOTATION: We write $X \sim Bin(n, p)$ to indicate that X is a binomial rv based on *n* Bernoulli trials with success probability *p*.

What distribution do we have if n = 1?

Example – Binomial r.v.

A coin is tossed 6 times.

From the knowledge about fair coin-tossing probabilities, p = P(H) = P(S) = 0.5.

How do we express that X is a binomial r.v. in mathematical notation?

What is P(X = 3)? $P(X \ge 3)$? $P(X \le 5)$?

Can we derive the binomial distribution?

GEOMETRIC AND BINOMIAL RANDOM VARIABLES IN R.

Back to theory: Mean (Expected Value) of X

Let X be a <u>discrete</u> r.v. with set of possible values D and pmf p(x). The <u>expected value</u> or mean value of X, denoted by E(X) or μ_X or just μ , is

$$E(X) = \mu_X = \sum_{x \in D} x \cdot p(x)$$

Note that if p(x)=1/N where N is the size of D then we get the arithmetic average.

Example

Consider a university having 15,000 students and let X = of courses for which a randomly selected student is registered. The pmf of X is given to you as follows:

X	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p(x)	.01	.03	.13	.25	.39	.17	.02
Number registered	150	450	1950	3750	5850	2550	300

Calculate µ

The Expected Value of a Function

Sometimes interest will focus on the expected value of some function of X, say h(X) rather than on just E(X).

Proposition

If the r.v. X has a set of possible values D and pmf p(x), then the expected value of any function h(X), denoted by E[h(X)] or $\mu_{h(X)}$, is computed by

$$E[h(X)] = \sum_{D} h(x) \cdot p(x)$$

That is, E[h(X)] is computed in the same way that E(X) itself is, except that h(x) is substituted in place of x.

Example

A computer store has purchased 3 computers of a certain type at \$500 apiece. It will sell them for \$1000 apiece. The manufacturer has agreed to repurchase any computers still unsold after a specified period at \$200 apiece.

Let X denote the number of computers sold, and suppose that

p(0) = .1, p(1) = .2, p(2) = .3 and p(3) = .4.

What is the expected profit?

Rules of Averages (Expected Values)

The h(X) function of interest is often a linear function aX + b. In this case, E[h(X)] is easily computed from E(X).

Proposition

 $E(aX + b) = a \cdot E(X) + b$

(Or, using alternative notation, $\mu_{aX+b} = a \cdot \mu_x + b$)

How can this be applied to the previous example?

The Variance of X

Definition

Let X have pmf p(x) and expected value μ . Then the **variance** of X, denoted by V(X) or σ^2_X , or just σ^2 , is

$$V(X) = \sum_{D} (x - \mu)^2 \cdot p(x) = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sigma_X^2$$

The standard deviation (SD) of X is

$$\sigma_X = \sqrt{\sigma_X^2}$$

Note these are <u>population</u> (theoretical) values, not <u>sample</u> values as before.

Example

Let X denote the number of books checked out to a randomly selected individual (max is 6). The pmf of X is as follows:

X						
p(x)	.30	.25	.15	.05	.10	.15

The expected value of X is μ = 2.85. What is Var(X)? Sd(X)?

A Shortcut Formula for σ^2

The variance can also be calcualted using an alternative formula:

$$V(x) = \sigma^2 = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$$

Why would we use this equation instead?

Can we show that the two equations for variance are equal?

Rules of Variance

The variance of h(X) is calculated similarly:

$$V[h(x)] = \sigma_{h(x)}^2 = \sum_{D} \{h(x) - E[h(X)]\}^2 p(x)$$

Proposition

$$V(aX + b) = \sigma_{aX+b}^2 = a^2 \cdot \sigma_{xa}^2 \text{ and } \sigma_{aX+b}^2 =$$

Why is the absolute value necessary? Examples of when this equation is useful?

Can we do a simple proof to show this is true?

The Mean and Variance of a Binomial R.V.

The mean value of a Bernoulli variable is $\mu = p$.

So, the expected number of S's on any **single** trial is *p*.

Since a binomial experiment consists of *n* trials, intuition suggests that for $X \sim Bin(n, p)$, E(X) = np, the product of the number of trials and the probability of success on a single trial.

The expression for V(X) is not so intuitive.

Mean and Variance of Binomial r.v.

If $X \sim Bin(n, p)$, then

<u>Expectation</u>: E(X) = np (let's prove this one)

<u>Variance</u>: V(X) = np(1-p) = npq, and

<u>Standard Deviation</u>: $\sigma_x = \sqrt{npq}$ (where q = 1 - p)

Example

A biased coin is tossed 10 times, so that the odds of "heads" are 3:1.

What notation do we use to describe X?

What is the mean of X? The variance?

Example, cont.

cont' d

NOTE: even though X can take on only integer values, E(X) need not be an integer.

If we perform a large number of independent binomial experiments, each with n = 10 trials and p = .75, then the average number of S' s per experiment will be close to 7.5.

What is the probability that X is within 1 standard deviation of its mean value?

The Negative Binomial Distribution

- 1. The experiment is a sequence of independent trials where each trial can result in a success (S) or a failure (F)
- 3. The probability of success is constant from trial to trial
- 4. The experiment continues (trials are performed) until a <u>total of r</u> <u>successes have been observed</u> (so the # of trials is not fixed)
- 5. The random variable of interest is X = the number of <u>failures</u> that precede the *r*th success
- 6. In contrast to the binomial rv, the number of successes is fixed and the number of trials is random.

The Negative Binomial Distribution

Possible values of X are 0, 1, 2,

Let
$$nb(x; r, p)$$
 denote the pmf of X. Consider
 $nb(7; 3, p) = P(X = 7)$
the probability that exactly 7 F's occur before the 3rd S.

In order for this to happen, the 10th trial must be an S and there must be exactly 2 S's among the first 9 trials. Thus

$$nb(7; 3, p) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 9\\2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot p^2 (1-p)^7 \right\} \cdot p = \begin{pmatrix} 9\\2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot p^3 (1-p)^7$$

Generalizing this line of reasoning gives the following formula for the negative binomial pmf.

The Negative Binomial Distribution

The pmf of the negative binomial rv X with parameters r = number of S' s and p = P(S) is

$$nb(x; r, p) = \binom{x + r - 1}{r - 1} p^{r} (1 - p)^{x} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then,

$$E(X) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p} \qquad V(X) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}$$

The Hypergeometric Distribution

- 1. The population consists of *N* elements (a *finite* population)
- 2. Each element can be characterized as a success (S) or failure (F)
- 3. There are *M* successes in the population, and *N*-*M* failures
- 4. A sample of *n* elements is selected without replacement, in such a way that each sample of *n* elements is equally likely to be selected

The random variable of interest is

X = the number of S's in the sample of size n

The Hypergeometric Distribution

If X is the number of S' s in a completely random sample of size *n* drawn from a population consisting of *M* S' s and (N - M) F' s, then the probability distribution of X, called the **hypergeometric distribution**, is given by

$$P(X = x) = h(x; n, M, N) = \frac{\binom{M}{x}\binom{N-M}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

for x, an integer, satisfying max $(0, n - N + M) \le x \le \min(n, M)$.

Example

During a particular period a university's information technology office received **20 service orders** for problems with printers, of which **8 were laser printers and 12 were inkjet models**.

A **sample of 5** of these service orders is to be selected for inclusion in a customer satisfaction survey.

What then is the probability that exactly x (where x can be 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) of the 5 selected service orders were for inkjet printers?

The Hypergeometric Distribution

Proposition

The mean and variance of the hypergeometric rv X having pmf h(x; n, M, N) are

$$E(X) = n \cdot \frac{M}{N}$$
 $V(X) = \left(\frac{N-n}{N-1}\right) \cdot n \cdot \frac{M}{N} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{M}{N}\right)$

The ratio M/N is the proportion of S' s in the population. If we replace M/N by p in E(X) and V(X), we get

$$E(X) = np$$
$$V(X) = \left(\frac{N-n}{N-1}\right) \cdot np(1-p)$$

Example

Five of a certain type of fox thought to be near extinction in a certain region have been caught, tagged, and released to mix into the population.

After they have had an opportunity to mix, a random sample of 10 of these foxes are selected. Let x = the number of tagged foxes in the second sample.

If there are actually 25 foxes in the region, what is the E(X) and V(X)?

The Poisson Probability Distribution

Poisson r.v. describes the total number of events that happen in a certain time period.

Eg:

- # of vehicles arriving at a parking lot in one week
- # of gamma rays hitting a satellite per hour
- # of neurons firing per minute
- # of cookies chips in a length of cookie dough

A discrete random variable X is said to have a **Poisson distribution** with parameter μ ($\mu > 0$) if the pmf of X is

$$p(x; \mu) = \frac{e^{-\mu} \cdot \mu^x}{x!}$$
 $x = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

The Poisson Probability Distribution

It is no accident that we are using the symbol μ for the Poisson parameter; we shall see shortly that μ is in fact the expected value of *X*.

The letter *e* in the pmf represents the base of the natural logarithm; its numerical value is approximately 2.71828.

The Poisson Probability Distribution

It is not obvious by inspection that $p(x; \mu)$ specifies a legitimate pmf, let alone that this distribution is useful.

First of all, $p(x; \mu) > 0$ for every possible x value because of the requirement that $\mu > 0$.

The fact that $\sum p(x; \mu) = 1$ is a consequence of the Maclaurin series expansion of e^{μ} (check your calculus book for this result):

$$e^{\mu} = 1 + \mu + \frac{\mu^2}{2!} + \frac{\mu^3}{3!} + \cdots = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mu^x}{x!}$$
 (3.18)

The Mean and Variance of Poisson

Proposition

If X has a Poisson distribution with parameter μ , then $E(X) = V(X) = \mu$.

These results can be derived directly from the definitions of mean and variance.

Example

Let X denote the number of mosquitoes captured in a trap during a given time period.

Suppose that X has a Poisson distribution with μ = 4.5, so on average traps will contain 4.5 mosquitoes.

What is the probability that the trap contains 5 mosquitoes? What is the probability that the trap has at most 5 mosquitoes? What is the standard deviation of the number of trapped mosquitoes?

POISSON IN R

WORKING WITH DATA FRAMES IN R