



Random Vectors

Mathematical Biostatistics Boot Camp

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Random vectors

- Random vectors are simply random variables collected into a vector
 - For example if X and Y are random variables (X, Y) is a random vector
- Joint density $f(x, y)$ satisfies $f > 0$ and $\int \int f(x, y) dx dy = 1$
- For discrete random variables $\sum \sum f(x, y) = 1$
- In this lecture we focus on **independent** random variables where $f(x, y) = f(x)g(y)$

Independent events

- Two events A and B are independent if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

- Two random variables, X and Y are independent if for any two sets A and B

$$P([X \in A] \cap [Y \in B]) = P(X \in A)P(Y \in B)$$

- If A is independent of B then
 - A^c is independent of B
 - A is independent of B^c
 - A^c is independent of B^c

Example

- What is the probability of getting two consecutive heads?
- $A = \{\text{Head on flip 1}\} \sim P(A) = .5$
- $B = \{\text{Head on flip 2}\} \sim P(B) = .5$
- $A \cap B = \{\text{Head on flips 1 and 2}\}$
- $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) = .5 \times .5 = .25$

Example

- Volume 309 of *Science* reports on a physician who was on trial for expert testimony in a criminal trial
- Based on an estimated prevalence of sudden infant death syndrome of 1 out of 8,543, Dr Meadow testified that the probability of a mother having two children with SIDS was $\left(\frac{1}{8,543}\right)^2$
- The mother on trial was convicted of murder
- What was Dr Meadow's mistake(s)?

Example: continued

- For the purposes of this class, the principal mistake was to *assume* that the probabilities of having SIDs within a family are independent
- That is, $P(A_1 \cap A_2)$ is not necessarily equal to $P(A_1)P(A_2)$
- Biological processes that have a believed genetic or familiar environmental component, of course, tend to be dependent within families
- In addition, the estimated prevalence was obtained from an *unpublished* report on single cases; hence having no information about recurrence of SIDs within families

Useful fact

- We will use the following fact extensively in this class:

If a collection of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent, then their joint distribution is the product of their individual densities or mass functions

That is, if f_i is the density for random variable X_i we have that

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i)$$

IID random variables

- In the instance where $f_1 = f_2 = \dots = f_n$ we say that the X_i are **iid** for *independent* and *identically distributed*
- iid random variables are the default model for random samples
- Many of the important theories of statistics are founded on assuming that variables are iid

Example

- Suppose that we flip a biased coin with success probability p n times, what is the joint density of the collection of outcomes?
- These random variables are iid with densities $p^{x_i}(1-p)^{1-x_i}$
- Therefore

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i} = p^{\sum x_i} (1-p)^{n-\sum x_i}$$

Correlation

- The **covariance** between two random variables X and Y is defined as

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

- The following are useful facts about covariance

1. $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$
2. $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ can be negative or positive
3. $|\text{Cov}(X, Y)| \leq \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(y)}$

Correlation

- The **correlation** between X and Y is

$$Cor(X, Y) = Cov(X, Y) / \sqrt{Var(X)Var(y)}$$

1. $-1 \leq Cor(X, Y) \leq 1$
2. $Cor(X, Y) = \pm 1$ if and only if $X = a + bY$ for some constants a and b
3. $Cor(X, Y)$ is unitless
4. X and Y are **uncorrelated** if $Cor(X, Y) = 0$
5. X and Y are more positively correlated, the closer $Cor(X, Y)$ is to 1
6. X and Y are more negatively correlated, the closer $Cor(X, Y)$ is to -1

Some useful results

- Let $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be a collection of random variables
 - When the $\{X_i\}$ are uncorrelated

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i + b\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}(X_i)$$

- Otherwise

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i + b\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i}^n a_i a_j \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) \end{aligned}$$

- If the X_i are iid with variance σ^2 then $\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$ and $E[S^2] = \sigma^2$

Example proof

Prove that $Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y)$

$$\begin{aligned} & Var(X + Y) \\ &= E[(X + Y)(X + Y)] - E[X + Y]^2 \\ &= E[X^2 + 2XY + Y^2] - (\mu_x + \mu_y)^2 \\ &= E[X^2 + 2XY + Y^2] - \mu_x^2 - 2\mu_x\mu_y - \mu_y^2 \\ &= (E[X^2] - \mu_x^2) + (E[Y^2] - \mu_y^2) + 2(E[XY] - \mu_x\mu_y) \\ &= Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y) \end{aligned}$$

Result

- A commonly used subcase from these properties is that if a collection of random variables $\{X_i\}$ are uncorrelated, then the variance of the sum is the sum of the variances

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i)$$

- Therefore, it is sums of variances that tend to be useful, not sums of standard deviations; that is, the standard deviation of the sum of bunch of independent random variables is the square root of the sum of the variances, not the sum of the standard deviations

The sample mean

Suppose X_i are iid with variance σ^2

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\bar{X}) &= \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \times n\sigma^2 \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Some comments

- When X_i are independent with a common variance $Var(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$
- σ/\sqrt{n} is called the standard error of the sample mean
- The standard error of the sample mean is the standard deviation of the distribution of the sample mean
- σ is the standard deviation of the distribution of a single observation
- Easy way to remember, the sample mean has to be less variable than a single observation, therefore its standard deviation is divided by a \sqrt{n}

The sample variance

- The **sample variance** is defined as

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

- The sample variance is an estimator of σ^2
- The numerator has a version that's quicker for calculation

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

- The sample variance is (nearly) the mean of the squared deviations from the mean

The sample variance is unbiased

$$\begin{aligned} E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right] &= \sum_{i=1}^n E[X_i^2] - nE[\bar{X}^2] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \{ \text{Var}(X_i) + \mu^2 \} - n \{ \text{Var}(\bar{X}) + \mu^2 \} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \{ \sigma^2 + \mu^2 \} - n \{ \sigma^2/n + \mu^2 \} \\ &= n\sigma^2 + n\mu^2 - \sigma^2 - n\mu^2 \\ &= (n-1)\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

Hoping to avoid some confusion

- Suppose X_i are iid with mean μ and variance σ^2
- S^2 estimates σ^2
- The calculation of S^2 involves dividing by $n - 1$
- S/\sqrt{n} estimates σ/\sqrt{n} the standard error of the mean
- S/\sqrt{n} is called the sample standard error (of the mean)

Example

- In a study of 495 organo-lead workers, the following summaries were obtained for TBV in cm^3
- mean = 1151.281
- sum of squared observations = 662361978
- sample sd = $\sqrt{(662361978 - 495 \times 1151.281^2)/494} = 112.6215$
- estimated se of the mean = $112.6215/\sqrt{495} = 5.062$