# Lecture 5+6: Random Variables

**STAT 324** 

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#### Why Random Variables?

We introduce random variables to

- formalize the notion of an experiment
- simplify notation
- have a rigorous way of discussing probabilities

All of this will be super helpful when talking about Statistical Hypothesis Testing later.

#### What is a "Random Variable"?

A random variable is a variable tied to the outcome of an experiment.

The value of it is unknown and uncertain before the experiment is conducted.

Conducting the experiment results in a realization of the RV.

Distinguish between discrete and continuous RVs.

#### **Examples:**

- 1. X = flip of a coin. Possible outcomes: heads and tails. Discrete RV.
- 2. X = state of origin or randomly chosen student. Possible outcomes: Discrete RV.
- 3. X = age of randomly chosen student. Possible outcomes: Any value greater than 0. Continuous RV.
- 4. X = height of randomly chosen student. Possible outcomes: any number greater than 0. Continuous RV.

Talk about probabilities of different outcomes:

- 1. X = flip of a coin. What is P(X = heads)?
- 2. X = state of origin or randomly chosen student. What is  $P(X \neq \text{Wisconsin})$ ?.

To calculate these probabilities, we need the *distribution* of the random variable.

For a discrete RV, the distribution is a function that **specifies the probability of every possible outcome**.

#### Example 1

X = flip of a coin. The distribution of X is given by

| X | $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$ |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 0 | 0.5                                   |
| 1 | 0.5                                   |

P(X=x) is called the *probability mass function* (p.m.f.) of the random variable X.

#### Example 2

 $X={
m state}$  of origin or randomly chosen student. The distribution is shown on the right.

| What state did you grow up in? (x) | <b>P(X = x)</b> |
|------------------------------------|-----------------|
| wisconsin                          | 0.471           |
| illinois                           | 0.137           |
| minnesota                          | 0.137           |
| california                         | 0.049           |
| outside of the US                  | 0.039           |
| michigan                           | 0.029           |
| malaysia                           | 0.020           |
| NA                                 | 0.020           |
| china                              | 0.010           |
| florida                            | 0.010           |
| guam                               | 0.010           |
| indiana                            | 0.010           |
| korea                              | 0.010           |
| massachusetts                      | 0.010           |
| none of them                       | 0.010           |
| ohio                               | 0.010           |
| shanghai                           | 0.010           |
| singapore                          | 0.010           |

#### Example 3

X = number of Packers fans in a sample of 3 students.

Possible outcomes: 0, 1, 2, 3.

Distribution: need to specify P(X=0), P(X=1), P(X=2), P(X=3). How can we do that?

Use math, or perform the experiment many, many, many times. Let's start with the latter.

From the sampling on the previous slide:

| x | n     | proportion |
|---|-------|------------|
| 0 | 15890 | 0.15890    |
| 1 | 40917 | 0.40917    |
| 2 | 34065 | 0.34065    |
| 3 | 9128  | 0.09128    |

Math:

| x | P(X = x) |
|---|----------|
| 0 | 0.161    |
| 1 | 0.405    |
| 2 | 0.339    |
| 3 | 0.094    |

Notice how close they are.

#### **Properties**

Random variables have certain properties that are closely linked to the population that they represent.

- 1. Expected value
- 2. Variance/SD

These are calculated slightly differently for discrete and continuous RVs. We will use the discrete case to gain some insights, and simply state similar results for continuous RVs.

#### **Expected Value**

The *expected value* of a discrete random variable X is defined as follows:

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X=x_i) \cdot x_i.$$

Interpretation: this is the mean/average of the *entire population*.

#### **Variance**

The *variance* of a discrete random variable *X* is defined as follows:

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) \cdot (x_i - E(X))^2.$$

Interpretation: this is the variance of the *entire population*.

In the following, X is a random variable, and c is a constant.

#### Working with ${\cal E}$

- E(c) = c
- $E(c \cdot X) = c \cdot E(X)$
- E(X+c) = E(X) + c
- E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)

#### **Working with Var**

- Var(c) = 0
- $Var(c \cdot X) = c^2 Var(X)$
- Var(X+c) = Var(X)
- Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) ONLY IF INDEPENDENT!!!!

Using bullets 2 and 4: if X and Y are independent, then

• 
$$Var(X - Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)$$
.

#### Bernoulli Distribution: definition and properties

The *Bernoulli distribution* is a distribution with only two possible outcomes. When we say X is a random variable following the *Bernoulli distribution*, this simply means that X can only take on one of two values -- often denoted 1 (success) and 0 (failure).

We also refer to this as a *Bernoulli trial*.

The Bernoulli distribution has one parameter that we need to specify. We will denote this by  $\pi$ .

 $\pi \in [0,1]$  is called the *probability of success*.

Notation:  $X \sim \mathrm{Bernoulli}(p)$  simply means that X can take two possible outcomes ( 0 and 1 ) and P(X=1)=p. What is P(X=0)?

$$P(X=0) + P(X=1) = 1$$
, so  $P(X=0) = 1 - \pi$ .

What is E(X) and Var(X)?

#### Bernoulli Distribution: Example

Snapdragon plants have a gene that determines the presence of chlorophyll. The dominant allele (C) causes the plant to make chlorophyll, while the recessive allele (c) makes none. Snapdragons that are homozygous dominiant (CC) are green, whereas those that are heterozygous (Cc or cC) are yellow. The homozygous recessive plants die almost immediately due to lack of chlorophyll. Thus, a healthy adult snapdragon has either zero or one copy of the recessive allele. When two heterozygotic plants are crossed, the offspring have a 1/4 chance to be CC, with zero copies of the recessive, a 1/2 chance to be heterozygous, with one copy of the recessive, and a 1/4 chance to be cc and die. Therefore, if a healthy adult snapdragon is chosen at random from a large population of offspring of a heterozygous cross, about 1/3 will have zero copies of the recessive, and 2/3 will have one copy.

X= number of copies of the **recessive allele** for a randomly selected **healthy adult** snapdragon.

Possible values of X?

What is the pmf?

| x | $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$ |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 0 | 1/3                                   |
| 1 | 2/3                                   |

#### Bernoulli Distribution: Example

 $X \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}(\pi = 2/3)$ . What is E(X) and  $\operatorname{Var}(X)$ ?

$$E(X)=\pi=2/3$$

and

$$Var(X) = \pi \cdot (1 - \pi) = 2/3 \cdot 1/3 = 2/9.$$

#### Binomial Distribution: definition and properties

The *Binomial* distribution with size n and probability of success  $\pi$  is the sum of n independent Bernoulli trials with success parameter  $\pi$ .

I.e. if 
$$X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}(\pi)$$
, then  $Y = X_1 + X_2 + \ldots + X_n \sim \operatorname{Binomial}(n, \pi)$ .

The distribution of Y:  $P(Y = k) = \binom{n}{k} \pi^k (1 - \pi)^{n-k}$ .

Illustration: app.

$$E(Y) = n \cdot \pi$$

and

$$\mathrm{Var}(Y) = n \cdot \pi \cdot (1-\pi)$$

Really enforces the idea that the binomial is n Bernoulli's.

#### **Binomial Distribution: Example**

Consider the previous example, but say we sample 10 healthy adult snapdragon plants independently. Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_{10}$  denote the number of copies of the recessive allele for the 10 plants.

Then,  $X_i \sim \mathrm{Bernoulli}(\pi=2/3)$ . Since these are independent, the *total* number of plants with the recessive allele Y follow a Binomial distribution with n=10 and  $\pi=2/3$ .

$$Y = X_1 + X_2 + \ldots + X_{10} \sim \text{Binomial}(10, 2/3).$$

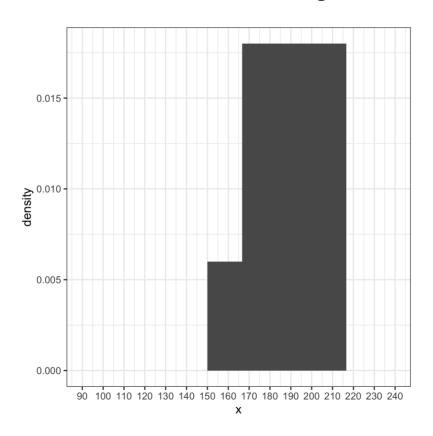
$$E(Y) = 10 \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{20}{3} \approx 6.67.$$

$$Var(Y) = 10 \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{9} = \frac{20}{9} \approx 2.22.$$

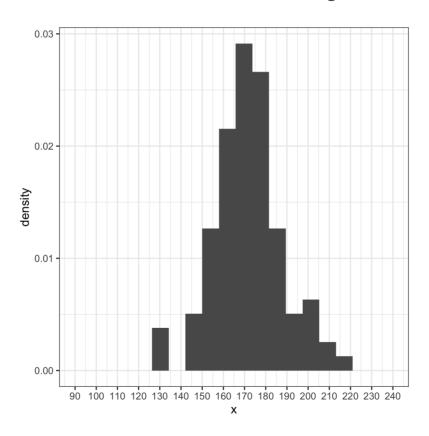
For a continuous variable, can we specify the probability of every single possible outcome? No, because number of outcomes is uncountable!

Instead, define a curve.

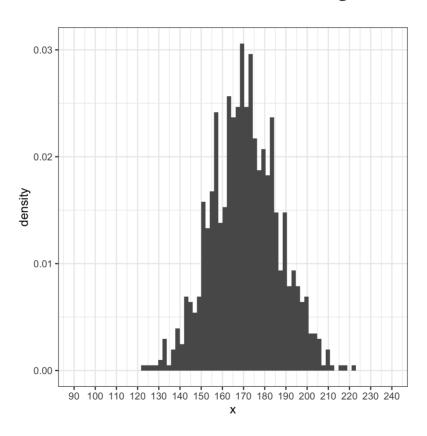
Observe the height of 10 individuals, draw a histogram with 10 bins.



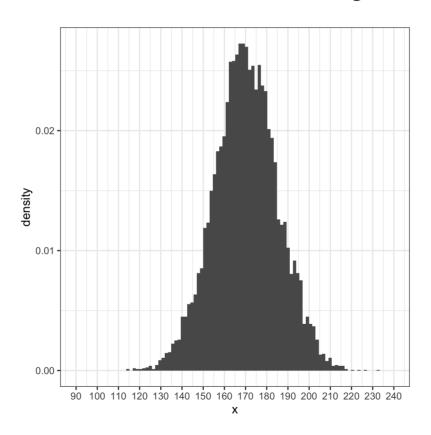
Observe the height of 100 individuals, draw a histogram with 20 bins.



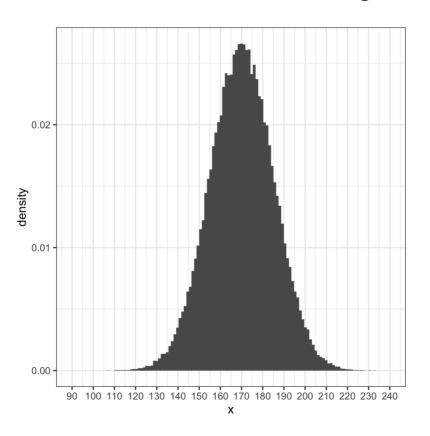
Observe the height of 1000 individuals, draw a histogram with 75 bins.



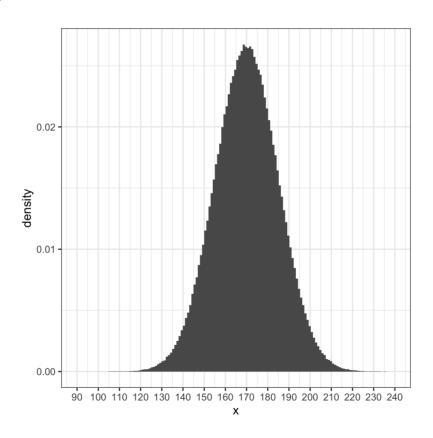
Observe the height of 10000 individuals, draw a histogram with 100 bins



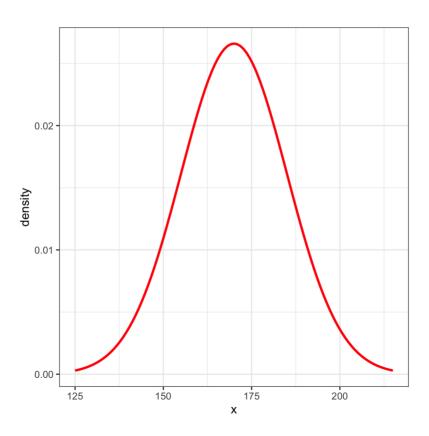
Observe the height of 100000 individuals, draw a histogram with 125 bins.



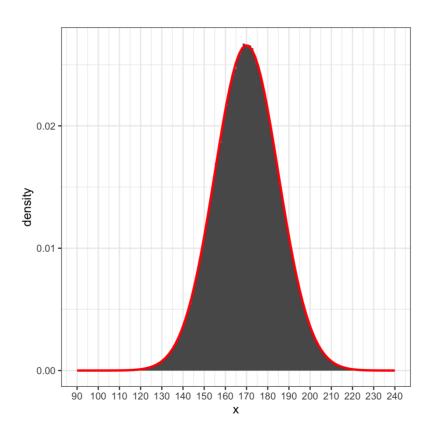
Observe the height of 1000000 individuals, and 150 bins.



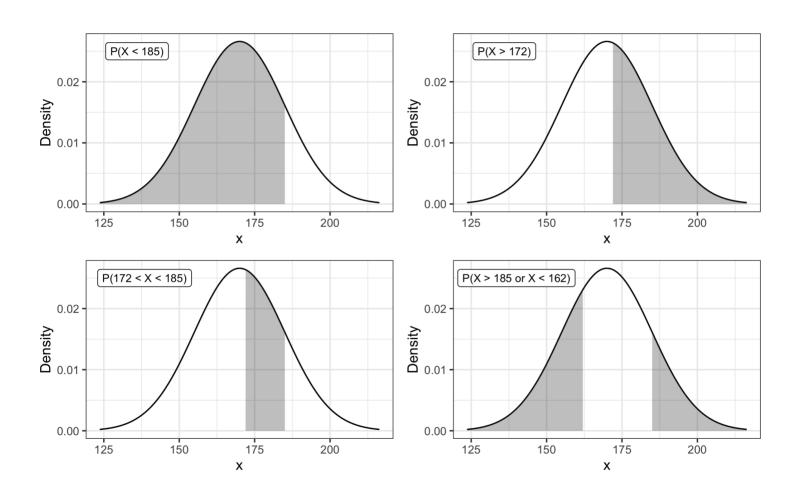
The data here was simulated from a *normal distribution* with mean 170 and variance 225 (more on this in a second). This distribution looks like this:



If we overlay it:



In words: the distribution of a continuous RV is the curve that appears when a histogram with narrow bars of many, many, many observations is drawn. \$64/83\$



Question: If X is a continuous RV, what is P(X = x)?

No matter what x you pick, and no matter what (continuous) distribution X follows, P(X=x)=0!!!

This also means that

$$P(X \le x) = P(X < x) + P(X = x) = P(X < x).$$

In the following, X and Y are RVs, and c is a constant.

#### Working with E

- E(c) = c
- $E(c \cdot X) = c \cdot E(X)$
- E(X+c) = E(X) + c
- E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)

#### **Working with Var**

- Var(c) = 0
- $Var(c \cdot X) = c^2 Var(X)$
- Var(X+c) = Var(X)
- $\operatorname{Var}(X+Y) = \operatorname{Var}(X) + \operatorname{Var}(Y)$ ONLY IF INDEPENDENT!!!!

Using bullets 2 and 4: if X and Y are independent, then

$$ullet {
m Var}(X-Y) = {
m Var}(X) + {
m Var}(Y)$$

#### **Normal Distribution**

The Normal Distribution (also known as the Gaussian Distribution) is a continuous distribution.

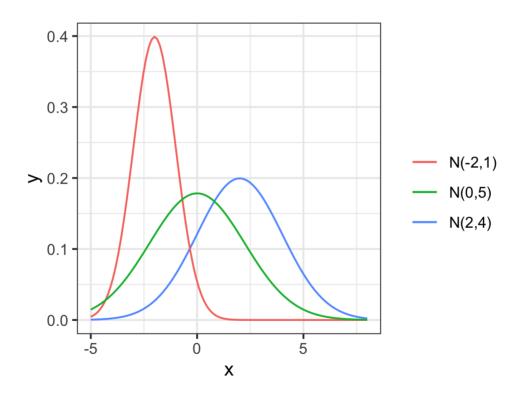
It is specified using two parameters: the mean  $\mu$ , and the variance  $\sigma^2$ . If X follows a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$ , and variance  $\sigma^2$ , we write  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  (or  $X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ).

The curve is given by the function

$$f(x) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \expigg(-rac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}igg).$$

$$E(X) = \mu$$
 and  $\mathrm{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$ .

#### **Normal Distribution**



#### **Normal Distribution: properties**

Let's say that  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then

- X+c also follows a Normal distribution. Specifically,  $X+c \sim N(\mu+c,\sigma^2)$
- $c \cdot X$  also follows a Normal distribution. Specifically,  $c \cdot X \sim N(c \cdot \mu, c^2 \sigma^2)$

If  $Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ , then X + Y is also a normally distributed RV. Specifically, (if X and Y are independent)

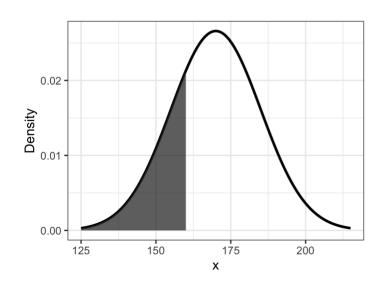
$$X+Y\sim N(\mu+\mu_Y,\sigma^2+\sigma_Y^2).$$

#### Probabilities from a curve

Probability = area under the curve.  $X \sim N(170, 15^2)$ 

What is  $P(X \leq 160)$ ?

It is the shaded area on the following figure



```
library(distributions3)

X <- Normal(mu = 170, sigma = 15

cdf(X, 160)</pre>
```

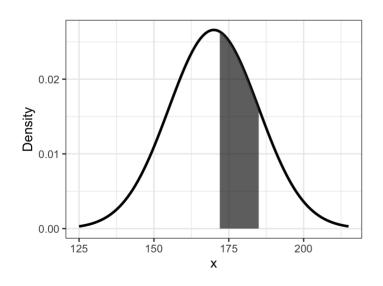
## [1] 0.2524925

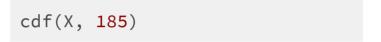
#### Probabilities from a curve

Probability = area under the curve.

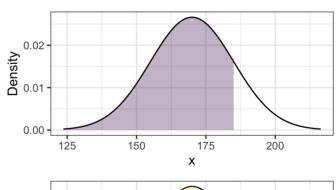
What is 
$$P(172 < X < 185)$$
?

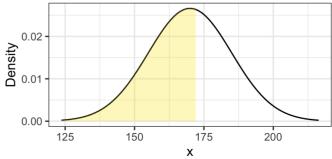
It is the shaded area on the following figure





## [1] 0.8413447

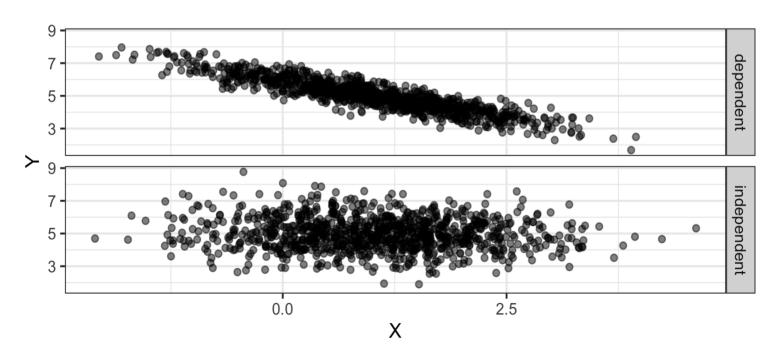




Revisit Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) ONLY IF INDEPENDENT.

Let's just take a moment to think about especially the last point.

Here are two data sets. Each has two variables. In one data set the variables are independent, in the other they are not.



What does X+Y mean? It means "perform experiment X, perform experiment Y, then add the outcomes."

We do that, and look at the distributions of the results (i.e. histograms):

