

# Manipulation of Discrete Random Variables with `discreteRV`

by Eric Riemer Hare, Andreas Buja, and Heike Hofmann

**Abstract** A major issue in statistics education is the sometimes large disparity between the mathematical and theoretical coursework, and the computational coursework. **`discreteRV`** is an R package for manipulation of discrete random variables which uses clean and familiar syntax similar to that which is found in introductory probability courses. It is simple enough for those less experienced with statistical programming, but has more advanced features which are suitable for a large number of more complex applications. In this paper, I introduce and motivate **`discreteRV`**, describe its functionality, and provide reproducible examples illustrating its use.

## Introduction

One of the primary hurdles in teaching probability courses in an undergraduate setting is the missing link between theoretical statements from textbooks and lectures, and the notation used in statistical software required in more and more classes. Depending on the background of the student, this missing link can manifest itself in a couple of different ways. Some students will master the theoretical concepts and notation, but struggle in a computing environment. Others will feel very comfortable with statistical programming, but sometimes struggle to translate that back to the classroom probability setting.

**`discreteRV`** is an attempt to bridge this gap. It provides a comprehensive set of functions to create, manipulate, and simulate from discrete random variables. It uses syntax which in most cases closely matches probability textbooks to allow for a more seamless connection between a probability classroom setting and the use of statistical software. **`discreteRV`** is available for download on the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN).

The functions of **`discreteRV`** are organized into two logical areas, termed probabilities and simulations.

## Probabilities

**`discreteRV`** includes a suite of functions to create, manipulate, and compute distributional quantities for the random variables defined. A list of these functions and brief descriptions of their functionality is available in Table 1. In Table 2, the notational similarities between **`discreteRV`** and the commonly used book by Casella and Berger (2001) is shown.

## Creating random variables

The centerpiece of **`discreteRV`** is a set of functions to create and manipulate discrete random variables. A random variable  $X$  is defined (see e.g. Wild and Seber, 1999) as a theoretical construct representing the value of an outcome of a random experiment. A discrete random variable is a special case that can only take on a countable and finite set of values. Discrete random variables are associated with probability mass functions, which map the set of possible outcomes of the random experiment to probabilities which must sum to one. Throughout this document, we will work with a simple example of a discrete random variable representing the value of a roll of a fair die. Formally, we can define such a random variable and its probability mass function as follows:

Let  $X$  be a random variable representing a single roll of a fair die. Then,

$$f(x) = P(X = x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{6} & x \in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In **`discreteRV`**, a discrete random variable is defined through the use of the `make.RV` function. `make.RV` accepts a vector of probabilities and a vector of outcome values, and returns an RV object. Consider our example of an RV object  $x$  which we will use to represent a single roll of a fair die. The code to create such a random variable is as follows:

Name	Description
<b>Creation</b>	
as.RV	Turn a probability vector with possible outcome values in the names() attribute into a random variable
make.RV	Make a random variable consisting of possible outcome values and their probabilities or odds
<b>Manipulation</b>	
margins	Marginal distribution of a joint random variable
mult	Joint probability mass function of random variables X and Y
multN	Probability mass function of $X^n$
SofI	Sum of independent random variables
SofIID	Sum of independent identically distributed random variables
<b>Probabilities</b>	
E	Expected value of a random variable
KURT	Kurtosis of a random variable
P	Calculate probabilities of events
probs	Probability mass function of random variable X
SD	Standard deviation of a random variable
SKEW	Skewness of a random variable
V	Variance of a random variable
<b>Methods</b>	
plot.RV	Plot a random variable of class RV
print.RV	Print a random variable of class RV
qqnorm.RV	Normal quantile plot for RVs to answer the question how close to normal it is

**Table 1:** Overview of functions provided in **discreteRV** ordered by topics.

discreteRV	Casella and Berger
E(X)	$E(X)$
P(X == x)	$P(X = x)$
P(X >= x)	$P(X \geq x)$
P((X < x1) %AND% (X > x2))	$P(X < x_1 \cap X > x_2)$
P((X < x1) %OR% (X > x2))	$P(X < x_1 \cup X > x_2)$
P((X == x1)   (X > x2))	$P(X < x_1   X > x_2)$
probs(X)	$f(x)$
SD(X)	$sd(X)$
V(X)	$var(X)$

**Table 2:** Probability functions in **discreteRV** and their corresponding syntax in introductory statistics courses.

```
X <- make.RV(vals = 1:6, probs = rep("1/6", times = 6))
X

## random variable with 6 outcomes
##
##      1      2      3      4      5      6
## 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6
```

## Structure

The syntactic structure of the included functions lends itself both to a natural presentation in an introductory probability course, as well as more advanced modeling of discrete random variables. The object is constructed by setting a standard R vector object to the possible values that the random variable can take (the sample space). It is preferred, though not required, that these be encoded as integers, since this allows to compute expected values, variances, and other distributional properties. This vector of outcomes is then named by the respective probability of each outcome. The probability can be encoded as a string, such as "1/6", if this aids in readability, but the string must be coercable to a numeric.

The choice to encode the probabilities in the names of the vector may seem counterintuitive. However, it is this choice which allows for the familiar syntax employed by introductory statistics courses and textbooks to be seamlessly replicated.

Note that although the print method does not illustrate the inherent structure of the object, the probabilities (1/6, for each of the 6 outcomes of the die roll) are actually stored in the names of the object `X`.

```
names(X)

## [1] "1/6" "1/6" "1/6" "1/6" "1/6" "1/6"
```

## Probabilities

By storing the outcomes as the principle component of the object `X`, we can now make a number of probability statements in R. For instance, we can ask what the probability of obtaining a roll greater than 1 is by using the code `P(X > 1)`. R will check which values in the vector `X` are greater than 1. In this case, these are the outcomes 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. Hence, R will return `TRUE` for these elements of `X`, and then we can encode a function `P` to compute the probability of this occurrence by simply summing over the probability values stored in the names of these particular outcomes. Likewise, we can make slightly more complicated probability statements such as  $P(X > 5 \cup X = 1)$ , using the `%OR%` and `%AND%` operators.

In addition, conditional probabilities are also supported. For instance, to calculate the probability of obtaining a roll of one given that the roll is no more than 3, you would use the code `P(X == 1 | X <= 3)`. The use of the pipe operator may be less intuitive to the seasoned R programmer, but overcomes a major notational issue in that conditional probabilities are most commonly specified with the pipe. This issue led to the creation of the `%OR%` and `%AND%` operators specified previously.

Several other distributional quantities are computable, including the expected value and the variance of a random variable. As in notation from probability courses, expected values can be found with the `E` function. To compute the expected value for a single roll of a fair die, we run the code `E(X)`.

## Joint Distributions

Aside from moments and probability statements, **discreteRV** includes a powerful set of functions used to create joint probability distributions. Once again letting `X` be a random variable representing a single die roll, we can use the `multN` function to compute the probability mass function of  $n$  trials of `X`. Table 3 gives the first eight outcomes for  $n = 2$ , and Table 4 gives the first eight outcomes for  $n = 3$ . Notice again that the probabilities have been coerced into fractions for readability. Notice also that the outcomes are encoded by the outcomes on each trial separated by a period.

**discreteRV** also includes functions to compute the sum of independent random variables. If the variables are identically distributed, the `SofIID` function can be used to compute probabilities for the sum of  $n$  independent realizations of the random variable. In our fair die example, `SofIID(X, 2)` would create a random variable object with the representation given in 5

Outcome	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	2.1	2.2
Probability	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36

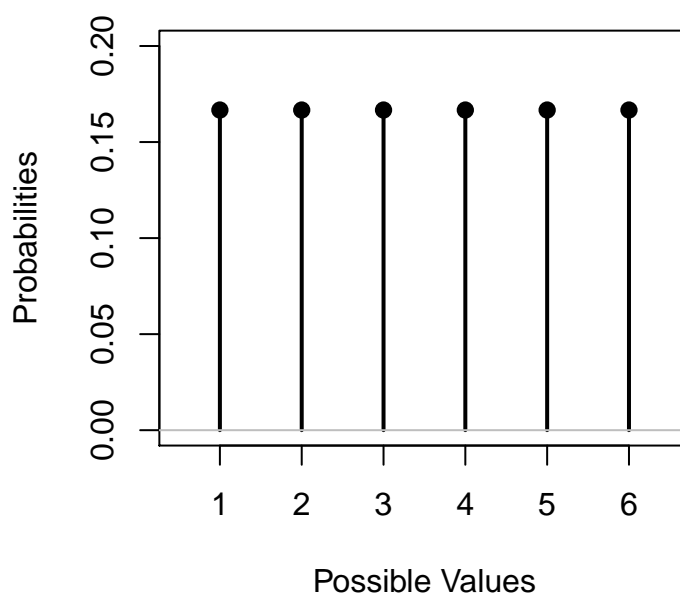
**Table 3:** First eight Outcomes and their associated Probabilities for a variable representing two independent rolls of a die.

Outcome	1.1.1	1.1.2	1.1.3	1.1.4	1.1.5	1.1.6	1.2.1	1.2.2
Probability	1/216	1/216	1/216	1/216	1/216	1/216	1/216	1/216

**Table 4:** First eight Outcomes and their associated Probabilities for a variable representing three independent rolls of a die.

## Plotting

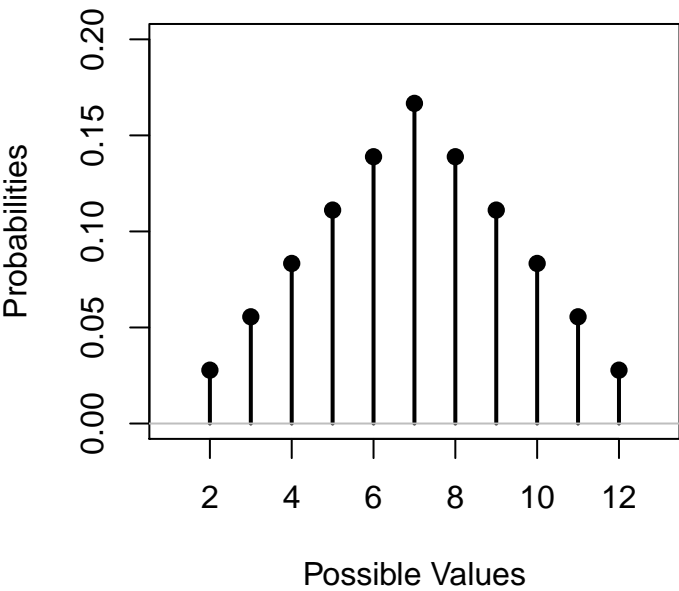
**discreteRV** includes a plot method for random variable objects so that a visualization of the outcomes and probabilities can be made simply by calling `plot(X)`. The result of plotting the random variable representing a fair die is given in Figure 1. The x axis includes all outcomes, and the y axis includes the probabilities of each particular outcome. The result of plotting a random variable representing the sum of two independent rolls of a die is given in Figure 2. The result of plotting a random variable representing the sum of 100 independent rolls of a die is given in Figure 3.



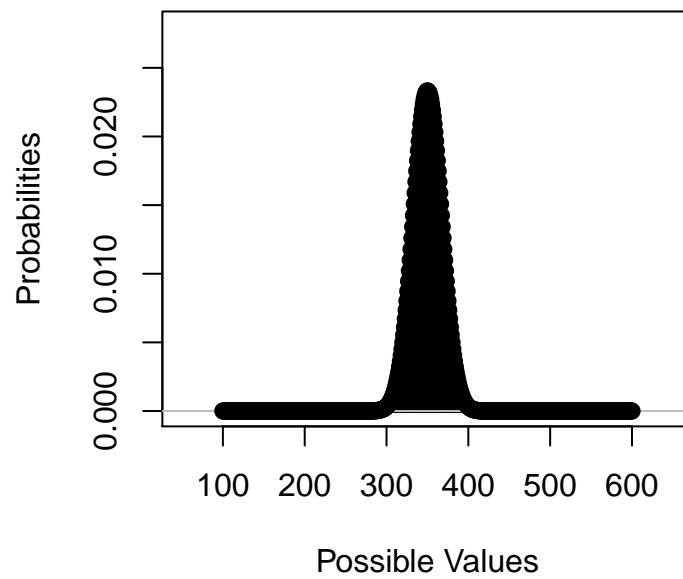
**Figure 1:** Plot method called on a fair die random variable.

Outcome	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Probability	1/36	1/18	1/12	1/9	5/36	1/6	5/36	1/9	1/12	1/18	1/36

**Table 5:** Outcomes and their associated Probabilities for a variable representing the sum of two independent rolls of a die.

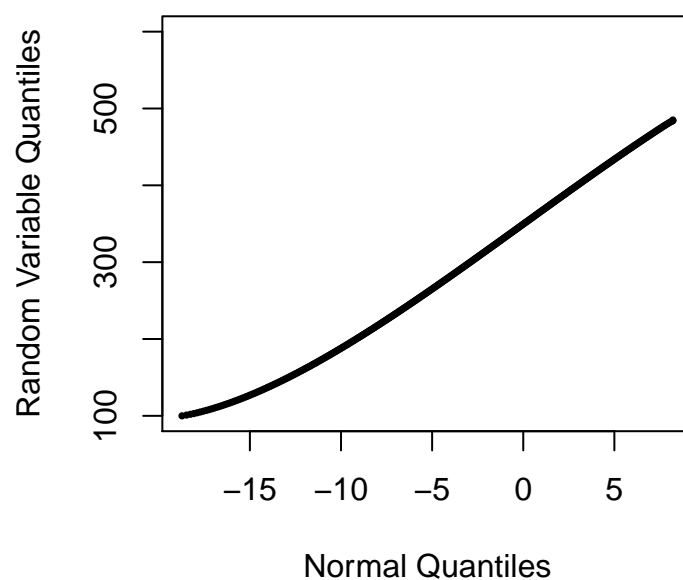


**Figure 2:** Plot method called on a sum of two fair die random variable.



**Figure 3:** Plot method called on a sum of 100 fair die random variable.

In addition to a plotting method, there is also a method for `qqnorm` to allow assessment of normality for random variable objects, as displayed in Figure 4.



**Figure 4:** `qqnorm` method called on a sum of 100 fair die random variable.

## Simulation

**discreteRV** also includes a set of functions to simulate trials from a random variable. A list of these functions and brief descriptions of their functionality is available in Table 6.

Name	Description
plot.RVsim	Plot a simulated random vector
Prop	Proportion of an event observed in a vector of simulated trials
props	Proportions of observed outcomes in one or more vectors of simulated trials
rsim	Simulate $n$ independent trials from a random variable $X$
skewSim	Skew of the empirical distribution of simulated data

**Table 6:** List of the simulation functions contained in **discreteRV**.

## Creation

Creating a simulated random vector is done by using the `rsim` function. `rsim` accepts a parameter  $n$  representing the number of independent trials to simulate, and a parameter  $X$  representing the random variable with which to simulate from. For example, suppose we'd like to simulate ten trials from a fair die. We have already created a random variable object  $X$ , so we simply call `rsim` as follows:

```
X.sim <- rsim(10, X)
X.sim

## 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6
## 1 2 5 2 6 2 1 1 5 6
## attr("RV")
## random variable with 6 outcomes
##
## 1 2 3 4 5 6
## 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6 1/6
## attr("class")
## [1] "RVsim"
```

The object returned is a vector of simulated values, with a class attribute to contain the random variable that was used for the simulation. If we would like to retrieve only the simulated values and exclude the attached probabilities, we can coerce the object into a vector using R's built-in `as.vector` function.

```
as.vector(X.sim)

## [1] 1 2 5 2 6 2 1 1 5 6
```

It is also possible to retrieve some quantities from the simulation. We can retrieve the empirical distribution of simulated values with the `props` function. This will return the outcomes from the original random variable object, and the observed proportion of simulated values for each of the outcomes. We can also compute observed proportions of events by using the `Prop` function. Similar to the `P` function for probability computations on random variable objects, `Prop` accepts a variety of logical statements.

```
props(X.sim)

## RV
## 1 2 3 4 5 6
## 0.3 0.3 0.0 0.0 0.2 0.2

Prop(X.sim == 3)

## [1] 0

Prop(X.sim > 3)

## [1] 0.4
```

## Conclusion

The power of **discreteRV** is truly in its simplicity. Because it uses familiar introductory probability syntax, it can allow students who may not be experienced or comfortable with programming to ease into computer-based computations. Nonetheless, **discreteRV** also includes several powerful functions for analyzing, summing, and combining discrete random variables which can be of use to the experienced programmer.

## Bibliography

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