Random Variables, pt. II

ECON 3640-001

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Motivation

Housekeeping

Notes based on Keller (2009), ch. 8

From discrete to continuous

Last week, we were introduced to random variables.

The starting point was to study **discrete** outcomes

• That is, events from experiments that can be **listed**.

However, in many cases one is **not able** to count all possible outcomes from an experiment.

• For instance, how much money would you like to make five years from now?

This answer is probably best given through an **interval**, and not an exact amount.

That is where continuous random variables come in.

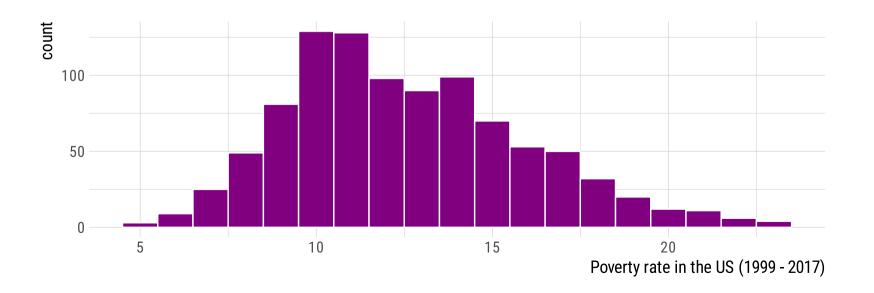
A continuous random variable can take on any real value in an interval.

Going back to the salary example, there is an **infinite** number of possible values one can think of.

This way, the probability of each individual value is virtually 0.

Thus, the probability is best given through a **range** of values.

Visually, this can be represented through a **histogram**.



Recall that, in a **histogram**, we count the number of occurrences of a range values of a variable in a predetermined **interval**.

These intervals configure the histogram's bin size (or bin width).

By dividing the number of counts within each bin by the sample size, we obtain the **relative frequencies** of each range of values.

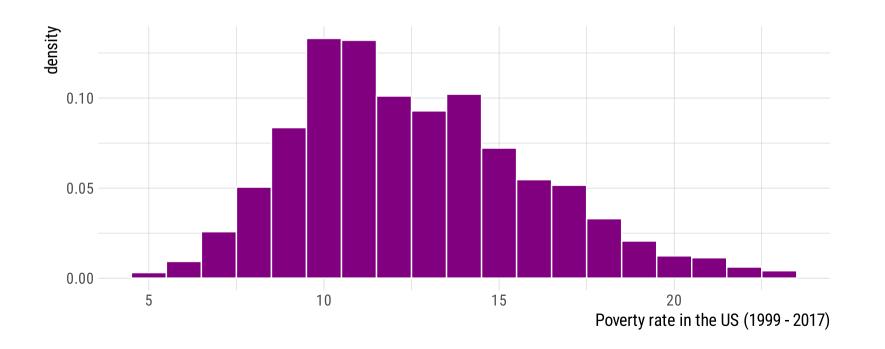
```
data %>% nrow()
```

#> [1] 969

For instance, there are 129 values that fall within the [10 —11) interval, and 90 values within the [13 —14) interval.

- 129/969 = 0.13 is the **probability** that a randomly chosen poverty rate will lie *between* 10% and 10.99%.
- 90/969 = 0.092 is the **probability** that a randomly chosen poverty rate will lie *between* 13% and 13.99%.

```
data %>%
ggplot(aes(poverty_rate)) +
geom_histogram(aes(y = ..density..), color = "white", fill = "#800080", binwidth = 1) +
labs(x = "Poverty rate in the US (1999 - 2017)") +
easy_x_axis_title_size(13) +
easy_y_axis_title_size(13)
```



The **sum** of all relative frequencies must add up to 1.

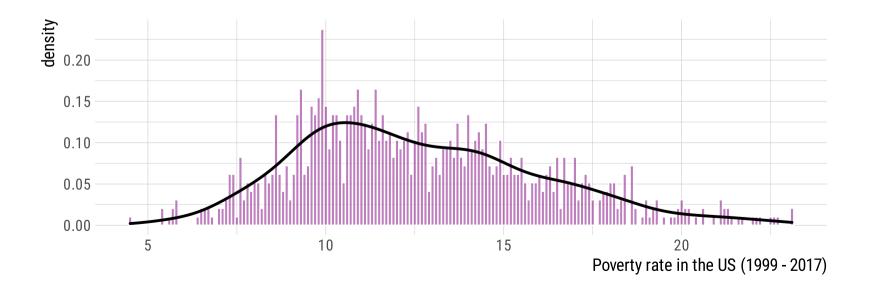
In case we draw the histogram with a large number of **small** bins, it is possible to **smooth** its edges.

This generates a **density curve**.

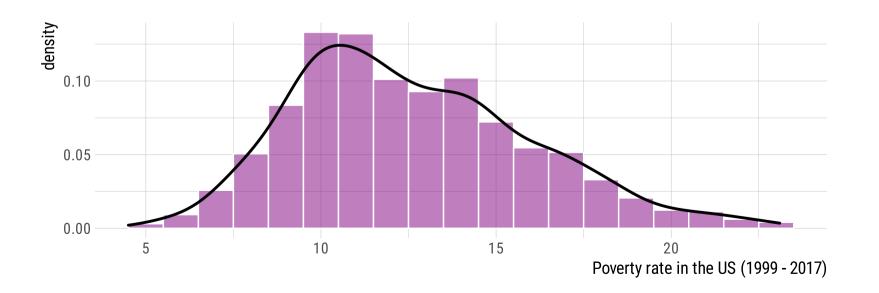
It is possible to approximate this density curve through calculus, obtaining a function f(x).

f(x) is called a **probability density function**.

```
data %>%
 ggplot(aes(poverty_rate)) +
 geom_histogram(aes(y = ..density..), color = "white", fill = "#800080", binwidth = 0.1, alpha = 0.5) +
 geom_density(alpha = .3, size = 1) +
 labs(x = "Poverty rate in the US (1999 - 2017)") +
 easy_x_axis_title_size(13) +
 easy_y_axis_title_size(13)
```



```
data %>%
ggplot(aes(poverty_rate)) +
geom_histogram(aes(y = ..density..), color = "white", fill = "#800080", binwidth = 1, alpha = 0.5) +
geom_density(alpha = .3, size = 1) +
labs(x = "Poverty rate in the US (1999 - 2017)") +
easy_x_axis_title_size(13) +
easy_y_axis_title_size(13)
```



A probability density function (PDF) whose range is $a \le x \le b$ must fulfill the following two requirements:

- 1. $f(x) \ge 0$ for all x between a and b;
- 2. The total area under the curve between a and b is 1.

Just as with discrete RVs, some random variables show such *specific behaviors* that they can be put into certain categories of PDFs.

We will study **two** of the most popular *continuous probability distributions*:

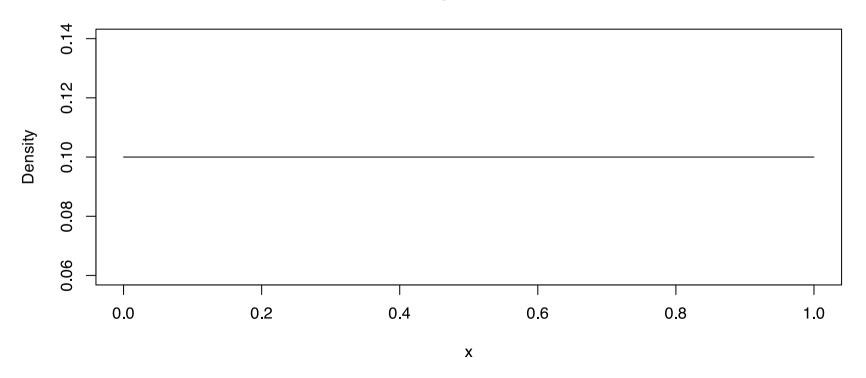
- The **Uniform**;
- And the **Normal** (Gaussian) distribution.

The Uniform distribution

The Uniform distribution

The **Uniform** (aka rectangular) distribution is useful when a random variable is **uniformly** or **equally likely** to take on any value in a given range.





The Uniform distribution

Its **probability density function (PDF)** is given by:

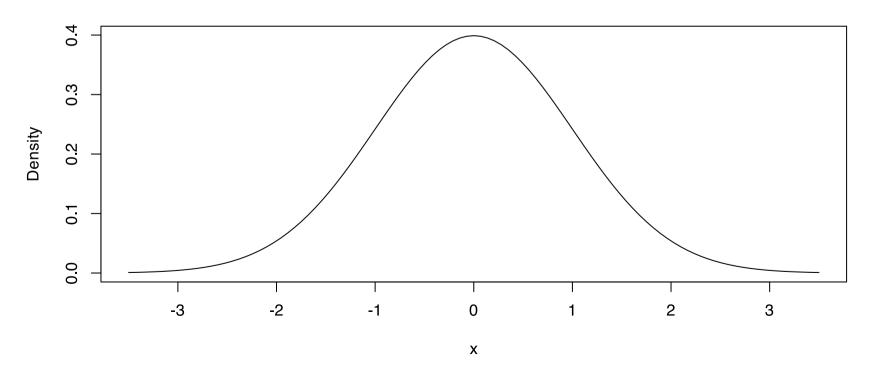
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

where $a \le x \le b$.

The **Normal** (aka Gaussian) distribution is the **most popular** probability distribution in Statistics.

It is called "Normal" due to its patterns being so commonly observed in data.





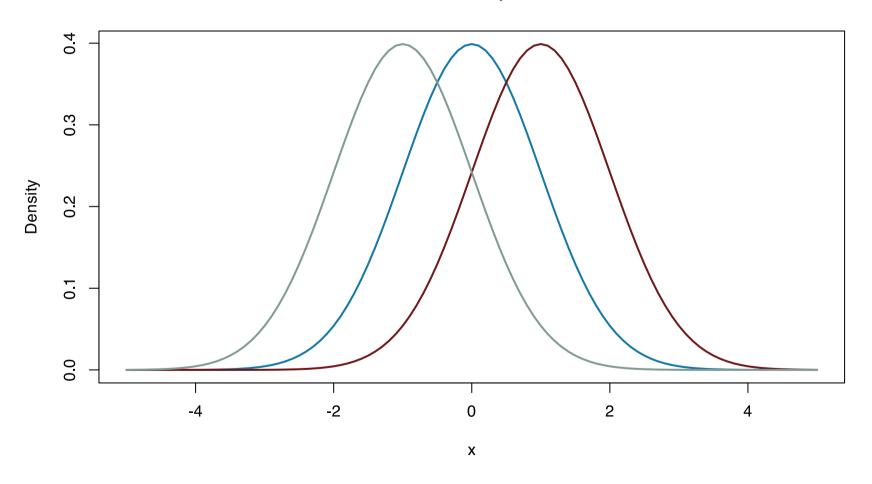
Its **probability density function (PDF)** is given by:

$$f(x) = rac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{rac{1}{2}(rac{x-\mu}{\sigma})^2}~;~~-\infty < x < \infty$$

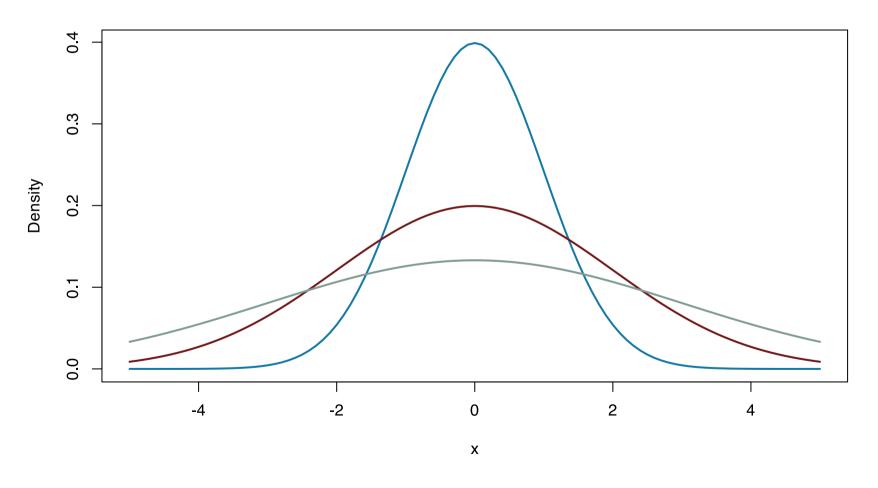
As it is possible to see from the formula, the Normal distribution is described by two parameters:

- 1. The population **mean**, μ;
- 2. And the population **standard deviation**, σ .





Same means, different SDs



Next time: Dealing with continuous distributions