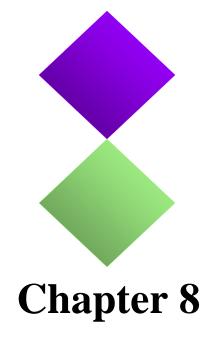
Announcements:

- Quiz starts after class today, ends Monday
- Last chance to take probability survey ends Sunday morning.
- Next few lectures:
 - Today, Sections 8.1 to 8.3
 - Monday, Section 7.7 and extra material
 - Wed, Section 8.4 and extra material

Homework (Due Mon, Feb 11):

Chapter 8: #14abc, 18, 36



Random Variables

8.1 What is a Random Variable?



Random Variable: assigns a number to each outcome of a random circumstance, or, equivalently, to each unit in a population.

Two different broad classes of random variables:

- 1. A **continuous random variable** can take <u>any</u> value in an interval or collection of intervals.
- 2. A **discrete random variable** can take one of a countable list of <u>distinct</u> values.

Notation for either type: X, Y, Z, W, etc.

Examples of Discrete Random Variables

Assigns a number to each outcome in the sample space for a random circumstance, or to each unit in a population.

1. Couple plans to have 3 children.

The *random circumstance* includes the 3 births, specifically the sexes of the 3 children.

Possible outcomes (sample space): {BBB, BBG, etc.}

X = number of girls

X is *discrete* and can be 0, 1, 2, 3

For example, the number assigned to BBB is X=0

2. Population consists of UCI students (*unit* = student)

Y = number of siblings a student has

Y is *discrete* and can be 0, 1, 2, ...??

Examples of Continuous Random Variables

Assigns a number to each outcome of a random circumstance, or to each unit in a population.

1. Population consists of UC female students

Unit = female student

W = height

W is *continuous* – can be anything in an interval, even if we report it to nearest inch or half inch

2. You are waiting at a bus stop for the next bus

Random circumstance = when the bus arrives

Y = time you have to wait

Y is *continuous* – anything in an interval

Today: Discrete Random Variables

X =the random variable (r.v.), such as number of girls.

 $k = a \ number$ the discrete r. v. could equal (0, 1, etc).

P(X = k) is the *probability* that X equals k.

Example (shown on board):

Two Clicker questions with 4 choices each X = points earned if you are just guessing. What are the possible values for k?

Probability distribution function (pdf) for a discrete r.v. X is a table or rule that assigns probabilities to possible values of X.

Discrete random variables, continued

NOTE: Sometimes the probabilities are given or observed, and sometimes you have to compute them using rules from Ch. 7.

Probability distribution function (pdf) for clicker points, shown on board, computed using rules from Chapter 7.

Cumulative distribution function (cdf) is a rule or table that provides $P(X \le k)$ for every real number k. (More useful for continuous random variables than for discrete, as we will see.)

Conditions for Probabilities for Discrete Random Variables

Condition 1

The *sum of the probabilities* over all possible values of a discrete random variable must equal 1.

Condition 2

The *probability of any specific outcome* for a discrete random variable, P(X = k), must be between 0 and 1.

Note: The possible values of *k* are *mutually exclusive*

Ex: For 2 clicker questions, you can't earn both 3 points and 4 points.

Another example of computing the PDF and CDF from Chapter 7 Rules

Example:

- You buy 2 tickets for the Daily 3 lottery (different days)
- Probability that you win each time is 1/1000 = .001
- Results on the two days are independent.
- \blacksquare X = number of winning tickets you have
- X could be 0, 1, 2.

$$P(X=0) = (.999)^2 = .998001$$
, (Rule 3b), 998,001 in a million $P(X=2) = (.001)^2 = .000001$, (Rule 3b), 1 in a million $P(X=1) = 1 - P(X=0 \text{ or } X=2)$ = $1 - (.998001 + .000001) = .001998$ (Rule 1), 1998 in a million

PDF and CDF for Buying Two Lottery Tickets

k	pdf $P(X=k)$	$cdf P(X \le k)$
0	.998001	.998001
1	.001998	.999999
2	.000001	1.0

For example, probability of *exactly* one winning ticket is .001998, but probability of *less than or equal to one* winning ticket is .999999.

Example of using observed proportions to create a pdf

Survey of 173 students in introductory statistics:

k	Number with <i>k</i> siblings	pdf <i>P(X=k)</i>	$cdf \\ P(X \le k)$
0	14	14/173 = .08	.08
1	68	68/ <mark>173</mark> = .39	.39 + .08 = .47
2	53	.31	.47 + .31 = .78
3	21	.12	.90
4	8	.05	.95
5	6	.03	.98
6	3	.02	1.00

Clicker data collection (non credit)

How many siblings (brothers and sisters) do you have? Count half-siblings (share one parent), but not step siblings.

A. 0

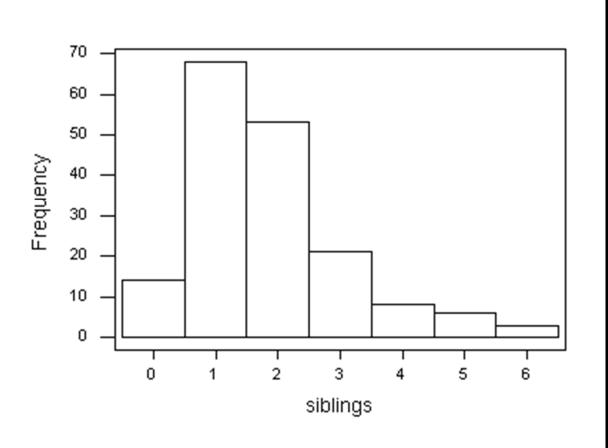
B. 1

C. 2

D. 3

E. 4 or more

Graph of pdf for number of siblings (with frequency instead of relative frequency) Compare class results.



k	proportion $P(X=k)$
0	.08
1	.39
2	.31
3	.12
4	.05
5	.03
6	.02

More Complicated Examples for Discrete R.V.s

Probability distribution function (pdf) X is a table or rule that assigns probabilities to possible values of X.

Using the sample space to find probabilities:

- Step 1: List all simple events in sample space.
- **Step 2:** Find probability for each simple event.
- **Step 3:** List possible values for random variable *X* and identify the value for each simple event.
- **Step 4:** Find all simple events for which X = k, for each possible value k.
- **Step 5:** P(X = k) is the sum of the probabilities for all simple events for which X = k.

Example: Sibling blood types

Suppose:

- Father has OO (type O blood)
- Mother has OA (type A blood; A is dominant)
- They have 3 children.
- Let X = number with Blood type A.
- Each child equally likely to inherit:

<u>Father</u>	<u>Mother</u>	Child blood type
O	O	Blood type O
O	A	Blood type A

• So, each child has Type O or Type A, each with probability ½, independent across children.

Example: Sibling blood types

Family has 3 children. Probability of type A is ½ for each child. What are the probabilities of 0, 1, 2, or 3 with type A?

Sample Space: For each child, write either O or A. There are eight possible arrangements of O and A for three births. These are the *simple events*.

 $S = \{OOO, OOA, OAO, AOO, OAA, AOA, AAO, AAA\}$

Sample Space and Probabilities: The eight simple events are equally likely. Each has probability (1/2)(1/2)(1/2) = 1/8

Random Variable X: number of Type A in three children. For each simple event, the value of X is the number of A's listed.

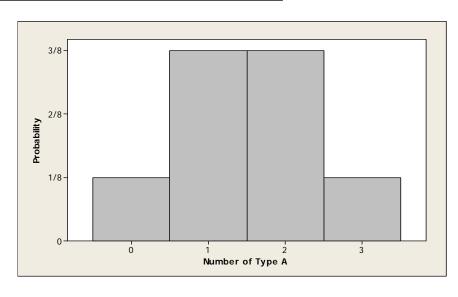
How Many Children with Type A? Value of X for each simple event:

Simple Event	000	OOA	OAO	AOO	OAA	AOA	AAO	AAA
Probability	1/8	1/8	1/8	1/8	1/8	1/8	1/8	1/8
X = # Type A	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	3

Probability distribution function for X = # of Type A:

$$k$$
 0 1 2 3 $P(X = k)$ 1/8 3/8 3/8 1/8

Graph of the pdf of X:



Cumulative Distribution Function for number of Type A:



Cumulative distribution function (cdf) provides the probabilities $P(X \le k)$ for any real number k.

Cumulative probability = probability that X is less than or equal to a particular value.

Example: Cumulative Distribution Function for the Number of Kids with Type A

k	0	1	2	3
$P(X \leq k)$	1/8	4/8	7/8	1

For example, the probability is 7/8 that ≤ 2 kids have Type A.

8.3 Expected Value (Mean) for Random Variables



The **expected value** of a random variable is the **mean** value of the variable X in the sample space, or population, of possible outcomes.

If X is a random variable with possible values x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots , occurring with probabilities p_1, p_2, p_3, \ldots , then the **expected value** of X is calculated as

$$\mu = E(X) = \sum x_i p_i$$

Example of expected value

Number of siblings for intro stat students:

X _i	p _i	$x_i p_i$
0	14/173 = .08	.00
1	68/173 = .39	.39
2	.31	.62
3	.12	.36
4	.05	.20
5	.03	.15
6	.02	.12

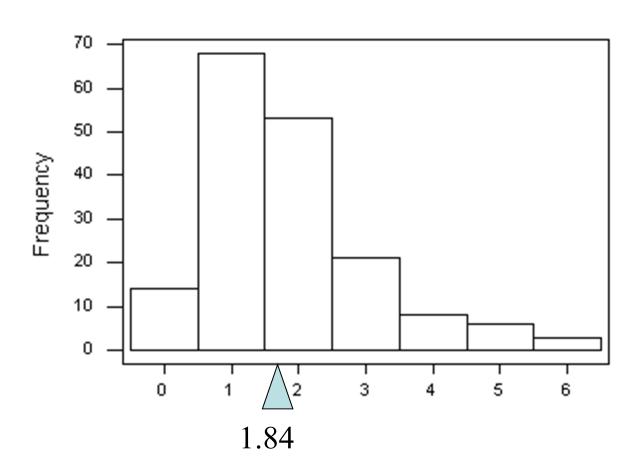
$$\mu = E(X) = \sum x_i p_i$$
$$= 1.84$$

= mean number of siblings

Sum = 1.0

Sum = 1.84

Expected value = mean value is where the picture of the pdf "balances"



Other examples of expected value

Example 1: How much better off are you doing clicker questions instead of quiz each week?

Just guessing for 2 questions on clicker, quiz

X = clicker, Y = quiz;

Clicker: 1 point for answering, 1 point for getting it right.

Quiz: 2 points for getting it right (no points for answering)

E(X)=2.5, E(Y)=1, (on board)

EXAMPLE 2: Raffle ticket costs \$2.00. You win

- \$5.00 with probability 10/100, so net gain = \$3
- \$100 with probability 1/100, so net gain = \$98
- Nothing with probability 89/100, so net gain = -\$2

X = net gain. What is E(X)?
$$\mu = E(X) = \sum x_i p_i$$
$$= \$3 \times (10/100) + \$98 \times (1/100) - \$2.00 \times (89/100)$$
$$= \$(30 + 98 - 178)/100 = -\$50/100$$

A *loss* of 50 cents on average for each \$2.00 ticket. People running the raffle *gain* 50 cents per ticket.

Should you buy extended warranties?

You buy a new appliance, computer, etc.

- Extended warranty for a year costs \$10.
- Unknown to you, the probability you will need a repair is 1/50, and it will cost \$200 if you do.

Is the warranty a good deal?

X = your cost to repair the item.

<u>k</u>	P(X = k)	k P(X=k)
\$200	1/50	\$200/50
\$0	49/50	0/50
E(X) =	= \$200/50 =	= \$4.00

If you buy the warranty your cost is fixed at \$10. If you don't, your cost is either \$200 or \$0, but the long run *average* is \$4.00

Notes about expected value

- It's the *average* or *mean* value of the random variable *over the long run*.
- It may not be an actual possible value for the random variable (usually it isn't; e.g. 1.84 sibs).
- In gambling, lotteries, insurance, extended warranty, etc., you can be pretty sure that your "expected" cost per event if you play or buy is more than if you don't the house wins!
- However, for insurance, for example, you might prefer the peace of mind of knowing your fixed cost. For lottery, you might want the thrill of the possibility of winning, even though you lose on average.

Standard Deviation for a Discrete Random Variable



The **standard deviation** of a random variable is essentially the average distance the random variable falls from its mean over the long run.

If X is a random variable with possible values x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots , occurring with probabilities p_1, p_2, p_3, \ldots , and **expected** value $E(X) = \mu$, then

Variance of
$$X = V(X) = \sigma^2 = \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 p_i$$

Standard Deviation of
$$X = \sigma = \sqrt{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2 p_i}$$

Example 8.13 Gain for an investment

Should you choose risky investments?

Investing \$100 – which plan would you choose?

Plan	1	Plan 2		
X = Net Gain Probability		Y = Net Gain	Probability	
\$5,000 \$1,000 \$0	.001 .005 .994	\$20 \$10 \$4	.3 .2 .5	

Same Expected Value for each plan:

Plan 1:

$$E(X) = \$5,000 \times (.001) + \$1,000 \times (.005) + \$0 \times (.994) = \$10.00$$

Plan 2:

$$E(Y) = \$20 \times (.3) + \$10 \times (.2) + \$4 \times (.5) = \$10.00$$

Variability over the years of investing

Very different standard deviations for the two plans:

Plan 1	Plan 2				
$(X-\mu)^2$	р	$(X-\mu)^2p$	$(Y-\mu)^2$	р	$(Y-\mu)^2p$
$(\$5,000 - \$10)^2 = \$24,900,100$.001	\$24,900.1	$(\$20 - \$10)^2 = \$100$.3	\$30
$(\$1,000 - \$10)^2 = \$980,100$.005	\$4,900.5	$(\$10 - \$10)^2 = 0$.2	0
$(\$0 - \$10)^2 = 100$.994	\$99.4	$(\$4 - \$10)^2 = \$36$.5	\$18

Plan 1: *Variance* of X = \$29,900.00 and

$$\sigma = $172.92$$

Plan 2: *Variance* of X = \$48.00

and

$$\sigma = \$6.93$$

- The possible outcomes for Plan 1 are much more variable. If you wanted to *invest cautiously*, you would choose **Plan 2**,
- If you wanted to have the *chance to gain a large amount of money*, you would choose **Plan 1**.

Notes about standard deviation

- Similar to when we used standard deviation for data in Chapter 2, it is most useful for *normal* random variables (next week).
- In general, useful for comparing two random variables to see which is more spread out. *Examples*:

Compare two cities' temperatures over the year:

- City #1: Mean = 65° , st. dev. = 3°
- City #2: Mean = 65° , st. dev. = 20°

Compare two investment funds:

- Fund #1: Mean rate of return = 8%, st. dev. = 2%
- Fund #2: Mean rate of return = 10%, st. dev. = 20%

HOMEWORK (due Mon, Feb 11):

- 8.14abc
- 8.18
- 8.36