

Lecture 2. Distributions and Random Variables

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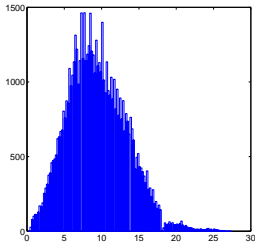
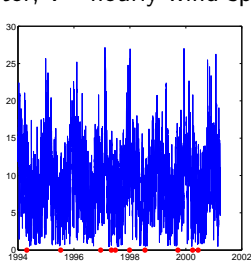
Chalmers

Department of Mathematical Sciences

Probability, Statistics and Risk, MVE300 • Chalmers • March 2011. Click
on **red text** for extra material.

Wind Energy production:

Available Wind Power $p = 0.5\rho_{air}A_r v^3$, ρ_{air} air density, A_r area swept by rotor, v - hourly wind speed.



Left: 7 years data.
Right: Histogram wind "distribution".

Estimate of possible yearly production:

$$p_{yr} = \frac{1}{7} 0.5 \rho_{air} A_r \sum_{i=1}^{61354} v_i^3 = 116678, \quad [\text{some units}].$$

Before age of computers one could estimate p_{yr} using statistics (random variables, law of large numbers): [click for details](#)

Random variables:

Often in engineering or the natural sciences, outcomes of random experiments are numbers associated with some physical quantities. Such experiments, called **random variables**, will be denoted by capital letters, e.g., U, X, Y, N, K .

The set S of possible values of a random variable is a sample space which can be all real numbers, all integer numbers, or subsets thereof.

Example 1

For the experiment flipping a coin, let to the outcomes “Tails” and “Heads” assign the values 0 and 1 and denote by X . One say that X is **Bernoulli distributed**. What does it mean “distributed”?

Probability distribution function:

A statement of the type “ $X \leq x$ ” for any fixed real value x , e.g. $x = -2.1$ or $x = 5.375$, plays an important role in computation of probabilities for statements on random variables and a function

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$$

is called the **probability distribution, cumulative distribution function**, or **cdf** for short.

Example 2

Data, Figures

The probability of any statement about the random variable X is computable (at least in theory) when $F_X(x)$ is known.

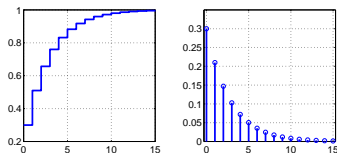
Example 3

Probability mass function

If K takes a finite or (countable) number of values it is called **discrete** random variables and the distribution function $F_K(x)$ is a “stair” looking function that is constant except the possible jumps. The size of a jump at $x = k$, say, is equal to the probability $P(K = k)$, denoted by p_k , and called the **probability-mass function**.

Example 4

Pmf



Geometrical distribution with
 $p_k = 0.70^k \cdot 0.30$, for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

Left: Distribution function.

Right: Probability-mass function.

Counting variables

Geometric probability-mass function:

$$P(K = k) = p(1 - p)^k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Binomial probability-mass function:

$$P(K = k) = p_k = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Poisson probability-mass function:

$$P(K = k) = e^{-m} \frac{m^k}{k!}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Example 5

Ladislaus Bortkiewicz



Ladislaus Bortkiewicz
(1868-1931)

Important book published in 1898:

Das Gesetz der kleinen Zahlen

Law of Small Numbers

If an experiment is carried out by n independent trials and the probability for “success” in each trial is p , then the number of successes K is given by the binomial distribution:

$$K \in \text{Bin}(n, p).$$

If $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $p \rightarrow 0$ so that $m = n \cdot p$ is constant, we have approximately that

$$K \in \text{Po}(np).$$

(The approximation is satisfactory if $p < 0.1$ and $n > 10$.)

Example 6

Let p be probability that accident occurs during one year, n be number of structures (years) then number of accidents during one year $K \in \text{Po}(np)$, **example of accident.**

Example 7

CDF - defining properties:

Any function $F(x)$ satisfying the following three properties is a distribution of some random variable:

- ▶ The distribution function $F_X(x)$ is non-decreasing function.
- ▶ $F_X(-\infty) = 0$ while $F_X(+\infty) = 1$.
- ▶ $F_X(x)$ is right continuous.

If $F_X(x)$ is continuous then $P(X = x) = 0$ for all x and X is called **continuous**. The derivative $f_X(x) = F'_X(x)$ is called **probability density function** (pdf) and

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(z) dz.$$

Hence any positive function that integrates to one defines a cdf.

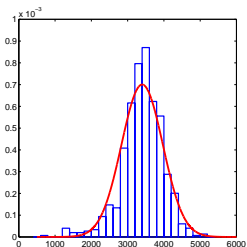
Example 8

Normal pdf- and cdf-function:

The cdf of standard normal cdf is defined through its pdf-function:

$$P(X \leq x) = \Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\xi^2/2} d\xi.$$

The class of normal distributed variables $Y = m + \sigma X$, where $m, \sigma > 0$ are constants is extremely versatile. From a theoretical point of view, it has many advantageous features; in addition, variability of measurements of quantities in science and technology are often well described by normal distributions.



Example 9

Normalized histogram of weights of 750 newborn children in Malmö.

Solid line the normal pdf with $m = 3400$ g, $\sigma = 570$ g.

Is this a good model? Have girls and boys the same weights variability?

Classes of distributions - scale and location parameters

For a r.v. X having $F_X(x)$ a random variable $Y = aX + b$ has distribution

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(X \leq (y - b)/a) = F_X((y - b)/a)$$

where a and b are deterministic constants (may be unknown).

If two variables X and Y have distributions satisfying the equation

$$F_Y(y) = F_X\left(\frac{y - b}{a}\right)$$

for some constants a and b , we say that the distributions F_Y and F_X belong to the same **class**; a is called **scale parameter** and b is called **location parameter**.

Standard Distributions

In this course we shall meet many classes of discrete cdf: Binomial, Geometrical, Poisson, ...; and continuous cdf: uniform, normal (Gaussian), log-normal, exponential, χ^2 , Weibull, Gumbel, beta ...

Distribution	
Beta distribution, Beta(a, b)	$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}, 0 < x < 1$
Binomial distribution, Bin(n, p)	$p_k = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, k = 0, 1, \dots, n$
First success distribution	$p_k = p(1-p)^{k-1}, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
Geometric distribution	$p_k = p(1-p)^k, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
Poisson distribution, Po(m)	$p_k = e^{-m} \frac{m^k}{k!}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
Exponential distribution, Exp(a)	$F(x) = 1 - e^{-x/a}, x \geq 0$
Gamma distribution, Gamma(a, b)	$f(x) = \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} e^{-bx}, x \geq 0$
Gumbel distribution	$F(x) = e^{-e^{-(x-b)/a}}, x \in \mathbb{R}$
Normal distribution, N(m, σ^2)	$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-m)^2/2\sigma^2}, x \in \mathbb{R}$ $F(x) = \Phi((x-m)/\sigma), x \in \mathbb{R}$
Log-normal distribution, $\ln X \in N(m, \sigma^2)$	$F(x) = \Phi\left(\frac{\ln x - m}{\sigma}\right), x > 0$
Uniform distribution, U(a, b)	$f(x) = 1/(b-a), a \leq x \leq b$
Weibull distribution	$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\left(\frac{x-b}{a}\right)^c}, x \geq b$

Quantiles

The α *quantile* x_α , $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$, is a generalization of the concepts of median and quartiles and is defined as follows:

The **quantile** x_α for a random variable X is defined by the following relations:

$$P(X \leq x_\alpha) = 1 - \alpha, \quad x_\alpha = F^{-1}(1 - \alpha).$$

In some textbooks, quantiles are defined by the relation $P(X \leq x_\alpha) = \alpha$; then the inverse function $F^{-1}(y)$ could be called the “quantile function”.

Example 10

Independent random variables

The variables X_1 and X_2 with distributions $F_1(x)$ and $F_2(x)$, respectively, are **independent** if for all values x_1 and x_2

$$P(X_1 \leq x_1 \text{ and } X_2 \leq x_2) = F_1(x_1) \cdot F_2(x_2).$$

Similarly, variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are **independent** if for all x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

$$P(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2, \dots, X_n \leq x_n) = F_1(x_1) \cdot F_2(x_2) \cdot \dots \cdot F_n(x_n).$$

If in addition, for all i , $F_i(x) = F(x)$ then X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are called **independent, identically distributed** variables (**iid** variables).

Empirical probability distribution

- ▶ Suppose experiment was repeated n times resulting in a sequence of X values, x_1, \dots, x_n . The fraction $F_n(x)$ of the observations satisfying the condition " $x_i \leq x$ "

$$F_n(x) = \frac{\text{number of } x_i \leq x, i = 1, \dots, n}{n}$$

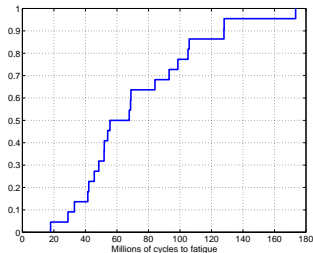
is called the **empirical cumulative distribution function** (ecdf).

- ▶ The **Glivenko–Cantelli Theorem** states that the maximal distance between $F_n(x)$ and $F_X(x)$ tends to zero when n increases without bounds, viz. $\max_x |F_X(x) - F_n(x)| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- ▶ Assuming that $F_X(x) = F_n(x)$, means that the uncertainty in the future (yet unknown) value of X is model by means of drawing a lot from an urn, where lots contain only the observed values x_i . By Glivenko-Cantelli th. this is a good model when n is large.

Example: lifetimes for ball bearings

Data:

17.88, 28.92, 33.00, 41.52, 42.12, 45.60, 48.48,
51.84, 51.96, 54.12, 55.56, 67.80, 68.64, 68.88,
84.12, 93.12, 98.64, 105.12, 105.84, 127.92, 128.04,
173.40.



ECDF of ball bearings life time.

Example wind speed data

In this lecture we met following concepts:

- ▶ Random variables (rv).
- ▶ Probability distribution (cdf), mass function (pmf), density (pdf).
- ▶ Law of small numbers.
- ▶ Quantiles.
- ▶ Empirical cdf.
- ▶ You should read how to generate uniformly distributed random numbers.
- ▶ How to generate non-uniformly distributed random numbers by just transforming uniform random numbers.

Examples in this lecture "click"