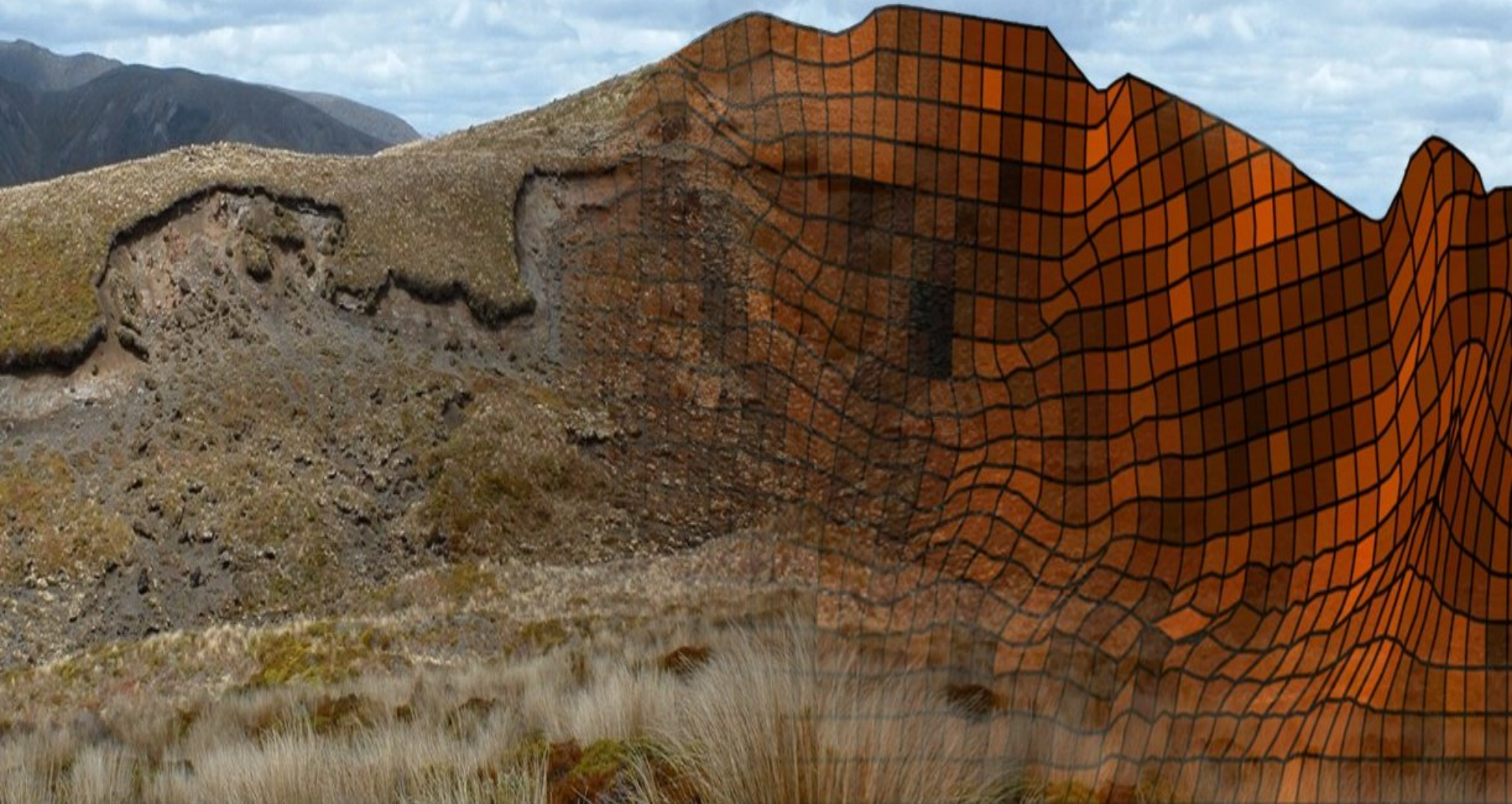


Random Variables

in Stochastic Analysis and Inverse Modelling

Presented by

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Random Variables

A random variable is a **mapping from a real event to a number**,
i.e.,

Let $X_i = 1$ if the i 'th pile adequately supports its load
= 0 if not

Now we can use math. For example

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

gives the number of piles which adequately support their loads, out of n piles.

Discrete and Continuous Random Variables

Discrete: A random variable is called a discrete random variable if its set of possible outcomes is countable. This usually occurs for any random variable which is a count of occurrences or of items.

Continuous: A random variable is called a continuous random variable if it can take on values on a continuous scale. This is usually the case with measured data, such as cohesion.

- Examples:**
- 1) Let X be the number of blows in an Standard Penetration Test
-- X is *discrete*.
 - 2) Let Y be the number of piles driven in one day
-- Y is *discrete*.
 - 3) Let Z be the time till consolidation settlement exceeds some threshold
-- Z is *continuous*.
 - 4) Let W be the undrained shear strength of a soil deposit.
-- W is *continuous*.

Random variables are *unknown*.

The *most* we can say about a random variable is what its probability is of taking on each of its possible values.

We call this a *probability distribution*. For example if the random variable X can take on possible values 0, 1, 2, and 3, then the complete description of X would be the four numbers;

$$P[X = 0] = 0.22$$

$$P[X = 1] = 0.47$$

$$P[X = 2] = 0.18$$

$$P[X = 3] = 0.13$$

(for example) which must add up to 1.0.

Probability Distributions

Discrete Random Variables: The set of probabilities

$$P[X = x_1] = p_1$$

$$P[X = x_2] = p_2$$

⋮

is called a **Probability Mass Function (PMF)**

Continuous Random Variables:

$$P[X = 12.0000000000\dots000] = 0$$

so we **must define probabilities over a range**

$$P[x < X \leq x + dx] = f_x(x) dx$$

where $f_x(x)$ is called a **Probability Density Function (PDF)**

Probability Density Function

Definition :

The function $f(x)$ is a probability density function (PDF) for the continuous random variable X , defined over the set of real numbers, if

1) $0 \leq f(x) < \infty$, for all $-\infty < x < \infty$,

2) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ (the area under the PDF is unity)

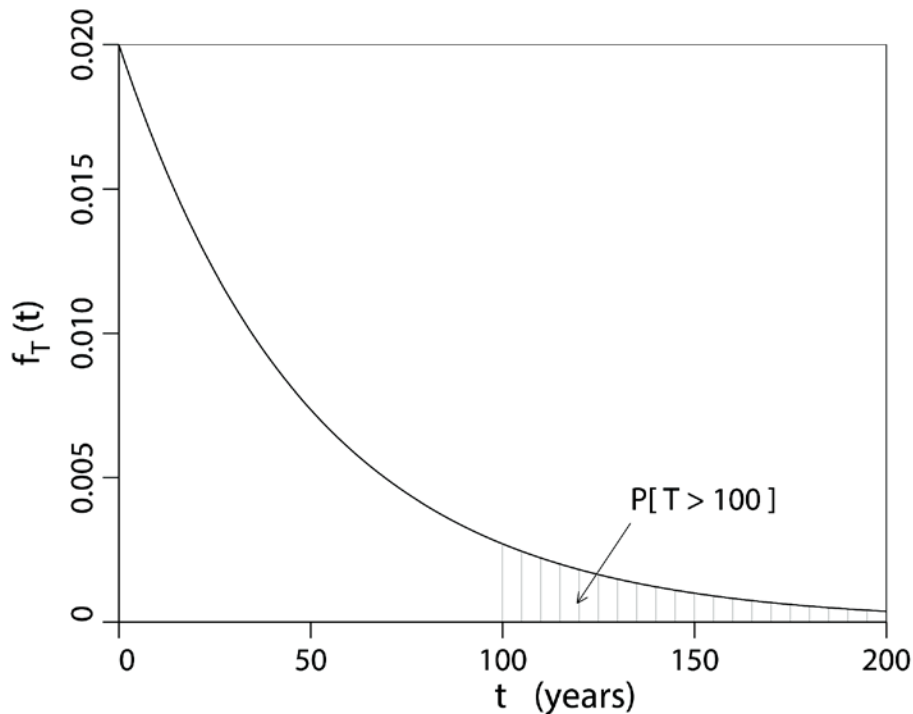
3) $P[a < X < b] = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

NOTE : it is important to recognize that, in the continuous case, $f(x)$ is not a probability. It has units of probability per unit length. In order to get probabilities, we have to find *areas* under the pdf, ie. sum up values of $f(x) dx$.

Example: Suppose that the time to failure, T in years, of a clay barrier has the following probability density function:

$$f_T(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{for } t \geq 0 \quad \text{where } \lambda = 0.02$$

What is the probability that T will exceed 100 years?



$$\begin{aligned} P[T > 100] &= \int_{100}^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt \\ &= e^{-100\lambda} = e^{-100(0.02)} \\ &= e^{-2} = 0.1353 \end{aligned}$$

Cumulative Distribution Function

An “equivalent” description of a random variable is the cumulative distribution function, $F_X(x)$, defined as

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x) = \mathbf{P}[X \leq x] &= \sum_{x_i \leq x} \mathbf{P}[X = x_i] \quad (\text{discrete case}) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(s) ds \quad (\text{continuous case}) \end{aligned}$$

In the continuous case, knowledge of $F_X(x)$ allows us to **avoid integration**. For example, if $f_T(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$, for $t \geq 0$ then

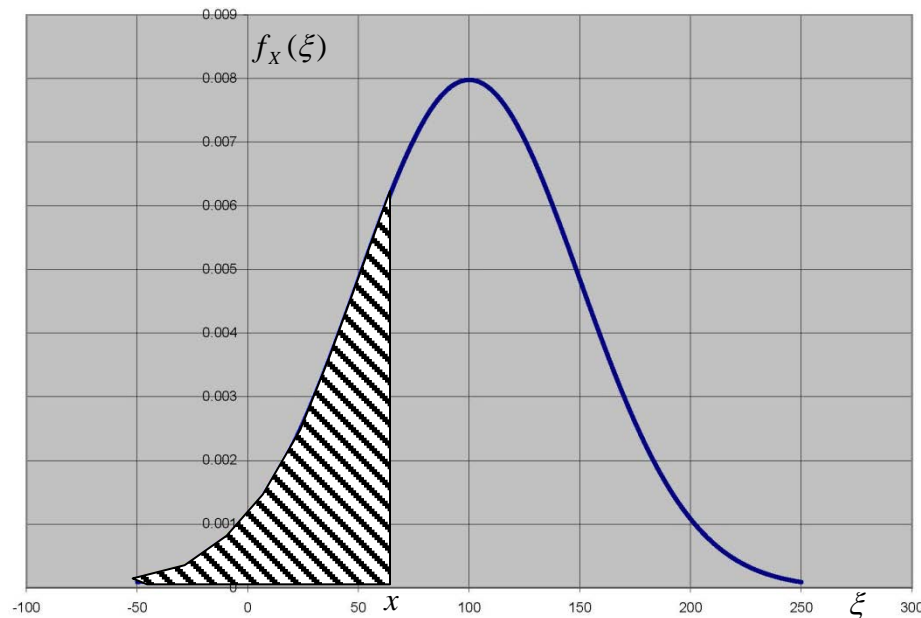
$$F_T(t) = \mathbf{P}[T \leq t] = \int_0^t f_T(s) ds = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\text{and } \mathbf{P}[T > 100] = 1 - F_T(100) = 1 - (1 - e^{-100\lambda}) = e^{-100\lambda}$$

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

The Cumulative Distribution Function for a random variable gives the probability that the random variable will take a value less than or equal to a given value x .
Hence,

$$F_X(x) = P[X \leq x] = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(\xi) d\xi$$



Expectation Operator

Let a random variable X be described by a probability density function (PDF), $f_X(x)$

If $g(X)$ is a function of the random variable X , then the expected value of $g(X)$ is its average value after it has been weighted by the PDF of X , thus

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx$$

Examples: $E[X^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f_X(x) dx$

$$E[\cos(X - \mu_X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cos(x - \mu_X) f_X(x) dx$$

More About Expectations

Expectation of a sum = sum of expectations

$$E[a_1X_1 + a_2X_2] = a_1E[X_1] + a_2E[X_2]$$

Linear function of a single random variable (SRV)

$$E[a + bX] = a + bE[X]$$

Linear function of a two random variables

$$E[a + bX + cY] = a + bE[X] + cE[Y]$$

Sum of multiple random variables

$$E[X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] = E[X_1] + E[X_2] + \dots + E[X_n]$$

Sum of functions of random variables

$$E[f(X) + g(Y)] = E[f(X)] + E[g(Y)]$$

Main Descriptors of a Random Variable

Mean: $\mu_X = E[X] = \sum_i x_i P[X = x_i]$ (discrete case)

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$
 (continuous case)

Variance: $\sigma_X^2 = \text{Var}[X] = E[(X - \mu_X)^2] = E[X^2] - E^2[X]$

$$= \sum_i (x_i - \mu_X)^2 P[X = x_i]$$
 (discrete case)
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_X)^2 f_X(x) dx$$
 (continuous case)

Skewness: $\psi_X = \frac{E[(X - \mu_X)^3]}{\sigma_X^3} = \frac{1}{\sigma_X^3} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_X)^3 f_X(x) dx$

IDENTITIES RELATING TO VARIANCE

Single random variable (SRV)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[X] &= \text{E}\left[(X - \mu_X)^2\right] \\ &= \text{E}\left[X^2 - 2X\mu_X + \mu_X^2\right] \\ &= \text{E}\left[X^2\right] - 2\text{E}^2[X] + \text{E}^2[X] \\ &= \text{E}\left[X^2\right] - \text{E}^2[X]\end{aligned}$$

Linear function of a single random variable (SRV)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[a + bX] &= \text{E}\left[\left((a + bX) - (a + b\mu_X)\right)^2\right] \\ &= b^2 \text{E}\left[(X - \mu_X)^2\right] \\ &= b^2 \text{Var}[X]\end{aligned}$$

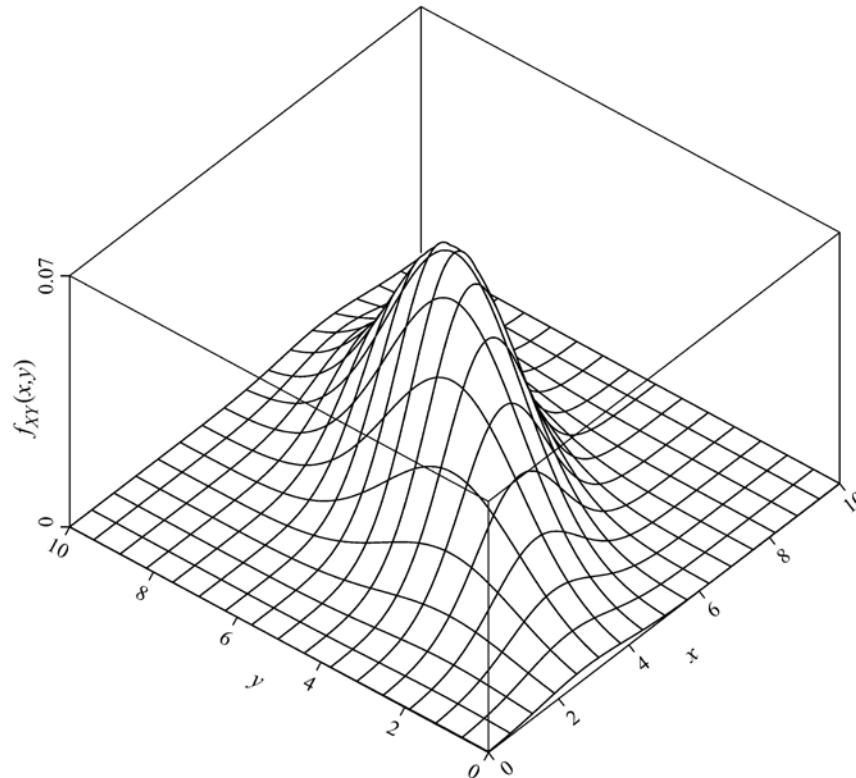
hence

$$\sigma_{a+bX} = b\sigma_X$$

Pairs of Random Variables

If we consider two random variables, X and Y , their relationship is fully prescribed by a **bivariate probability distribution**;

$$P[X = x \cap Y = y] = f_{XY}(x, y) dx dy$$



Covariance

The most important piece of information about the relationship between two random variables is their *degree of linear dependence*. This is determined by their *covariance*;

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

where $E[XY] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xy f_{XY}(x, y) dx dy$

If X and Y are *independent*, then

$$P[X = x \cap Y = y] = P[X = x]P[Y = y]$$

so that $f_{XY}(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$ and $E[XY] = E[X]E[Y]$

which means that $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = 0$

(NOTE: the converse is not generally true)

Linear function of two random variables

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Var}[a + bX + cY] \\ &= \text{E} \left[\left((a + bX + cY) - (a + b\mu_X + c\mu_Y) \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \text{E} \left[\left(b(X - \mu_X) + c(Y - \mu_Y) \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \text{E} \left[\left(b^2 (X - \mu_X)^2 + 2bc(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y) + c^2 (Y - \mu_Y)^2 \right) \right] \\ &= b^2 \text{Var}[X] + 2bc \text{Cov}[X, Y] + c^2 \text{Var}[Y] \end{aligned}$$

where $\text{Cov}[X, Y]$ is the "Covariance" of X and Y , defined by
 $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = \text{E} \left[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y) \right]$

Covariance is a measure of the linear dependence between random variables, e.g. when X is greater than its mean, Y is also greater than its mean, and so on.

Correlation Coefficient

Since the covariance has dimensions of XY , its magnitude is **not intuitively meaningful**.

The **correlation coefficient** directly reflects the degree of **linear dependence** between X and Y

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

It can be shown that $-1 \leq \rho_{XY} \leq 1$ since $\text{Var}\left[\frac{X}{\sigma_X} \pm \frac{Y}{\sigma_Y}\right] \geq 0$

If $\rho_{XY} = \pm 1$, then X and Y are **completely linearly dependent**, i.e.

$$Y = a + bX$$

with b **negative** if $\rho_{XY} = -1$ and **positive** if $\rho_{XY} = +1$

Correlation Coefficient

If the random variables are **perfectly correlated** then $Y = a + bX$, so that $\sigma_Y = \sqrt{b^2 \sigma_X^2} = |b| \sigma_X$, and we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}[X, Y] &= E[X(a + bX)] - E[X]E[a + bX] \\ &= aE[X] + bE[X^2] - aE[X] - bE^2[X] \\ &= b(E[X^2] - E^2[X]) \\ &= b\text{Var}[X] \\ &= b\sigma_X^2 \\ &= \text{sign}(b)\sigma_X\sigma_Y \quad (\text{i.e. having the same sign as } b)\end{aligned}$$

The correlation coefficient between X and Y is thus

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{\text{sign}(b)\sigma_X\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X\sigma_Y} = \text{sign}(b) = \pm 1$$

Variance of a Sum

Variance of a sum = sum of all possible covariances

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[a_1X_1 + a_2X_2] &= \text{Cov}[a_1X_1, a_1X_1] + \text{Cov}[a_1X_1, a_2X_2] \\ &\quad + \text{Cov}[a_2X_2, a_1X_1] + \text{Cov}[a_2X_2, a_2X_2] \\ &= a_1^2\text{Cov}[X_1, X_1] + 2a_1a_2\text{Cov}[X_1, X_2] + a_2^2\text{Cov}[X_2, X_2]\end{aligned}$$

where $\text{Cov}[X_i, X_i] = \text{E}\left[(X_i - \mu_{X_i})(X_i - \mu_{X_i})\right]$

$$= \text{E}\left[(X_i - \mu_{X_i})^2\right] = \text{Var}[X_i]$$

so that $\text{Var}[a_1X_1 + a_2X_2] = a_1^2\sigma_{X_1}^2 + a_2^2\sigma_{X_2}^2 + 2a_1a_2\text{Cov}[X_1, X_2]$

If X_1 and X_2 are uncorrelated, then $\text{Cov}[X_1, X_2] = 0$ and

Variance of a sum = sum of the variances

Variance of a Sum

In general if $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$ then

$$\mu_Y = E[Y] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i E[X_i]$$

$$\sigma_Y^2 = \text{Var}[Y] = \text{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j \text{Cov}[X_i, X_j]$$

Note: when $j = i$ the ‘diagonal’ terms are

$$a_i^2 \text{Cov}[X_i, X_i] = a_i^2 \text{Var}[X_i]$$

When the X ’s are uncorrelated, then $\text{Cov}[X_i, X_j] = 0$ for $i \neq j$ and we are left with

$$\sigma_Y^2 = \text{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}[X_i]$$

Variance of an Average

Note that if $Y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, i.e. $a_i = 1/n$,

and $\text{Cov}[X_i, X_j] = \sigma_X^2 \rho_{ij}$ then $\sigma_Y^2 = \sigma_X^2 \left(\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \rho_{ij} \right)$

The bracketed quantity is the **average correlation coefficient between all possible pairs**. We can write this as

$$\sigma_Y^2 = \sigma_X^2 \gamma(n)$$

where $\gamma(n)$ is the variance reduction function

$$\gamma(n) = \left(\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \rho_{ij} \right)$$

If the X 's are **uncorrelated**, then $\gamma(n) = \frac{1}{n}$ as expected