

## LECTURE 3 - 2/9/2021

Topics for today:

- ① Set theory (finite, countable, uncountable)
- ② discrete r.v.
- ③ expectations/expected values.

We want to be able to think about the "sizes" of sample spaces.

A finite (discrete) sample space  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_n\}$ .

A countably infinite (discrete) sample space  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$ .

An uncountable sample space  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}, [0, 1]$

Def: A set  $\Omega$  is finite if there exists  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$  such that  $f(x): [1, 2, \dots, n] \rightarrow \Omega$ , where  $f$  is one-to-one and onto.

Def: A set  $\Omega$  is infinitely countable if there exists  $f(x): \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \Omega$

Theorem:  $\mathbb{R}, [0, 1]$  are uncountable (not countable).

How do these facts about sets help us in probability?

Finite sample space  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_n\}$ .

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$$

$$P(\omega_i) = a_i$$

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = 1$$

$$a_i \geq 0$$

$$\text{Define } P(A) = \sum_{\omega_i \in A} P(\omega_i) = \sum_{\omega_i \in A} a_i$$

We created probability measures as in this structure.

In a countable infinite space it is similar:

$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \dots\}$$

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$$

$$P(\omega_i) = a_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i = 1, a_i \geq 0$$

$$P(A) = \sum_{\omega_i \in A} P(\omega_i) = \sum_{\omega_i \in A} a_i$$

we can still construct probability measures in this way for countably infinite sample spaces

Note: this just requires infinite sums, limits, etc.

we will deal with uncountable sample space later, but note:

$$\text{If } \Omega = \mathbb{R}$$

$$P(\omega_i) = a_i \text{ for all } \omega_i \in \Omega$$

$a_1 + a_2 + \dots = 1$   $\leftarrow$  this is not possible for uncountable to do this sum in this ordered way.

$\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} a_{\omega} = 1$   $\leftarrow$  Also not possible because we can't add incrementally.

Likewise, all components of our method of building probability measures collapse.

$\Rightarrow$  we cannot add up uncountably many summands!

$\hookrightarrow$  we will revisit this.

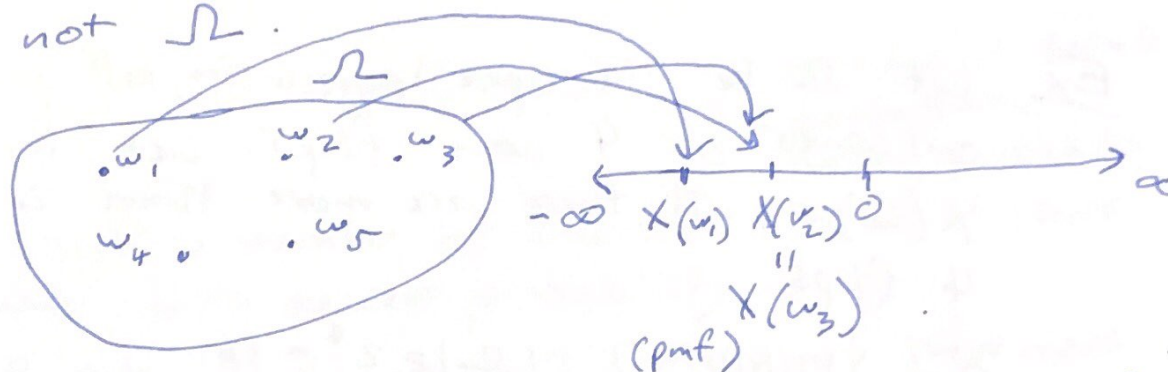


## Random Variables

Def: A discrete random variable is a function  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $\Omega$  is a sample space of  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and the range or image of  $X$  ( $\text{Im}(X)$ ) takes on only countably many values.

Last week's definition stated that  $\Omega$  be finite. However, what needs to be countable or finite is  $\text{Im}(X)$ , not  $\Omega$ .

Recall:



Def: The probability mass function or distribution of  $X$  is a function  $P(z): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  defined by  $P(z) = P(X=z) = P(\{w \mid X(w)=z\})$ .

Bernoulli Random Variable:  $X=0$  or  $X=1$  (a coin flip)

Ex  $\Omega = \{0, 1\}$

$$P(0) = q, P(1) = 1 - q$$

$(\Omega, \mathcal{B}(\Omega), P)$

$$X(0) = 0, X(1) = 1.$$

no  $X$  here yet, just a probability space.

Note that there is only one parameter to the Bernoulli Random Variable  $q$ .

$$\Rightarrow P(X=0) = P(\{w \mid X(w)=0\}) = q$$

$$P(X=1) = 1 - q$$

$$\Rightarrow X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{prob } q \\ 1 & \text{prob } 1 - q \end{cases} \quad \text{this is pmf.}$$

$1-q$  is known as the success probability, the probability that you get a 1.

Ex  $\Omega = \{H, T\}$

$$P(H) = q$$

$$P(T) = 1-q$$

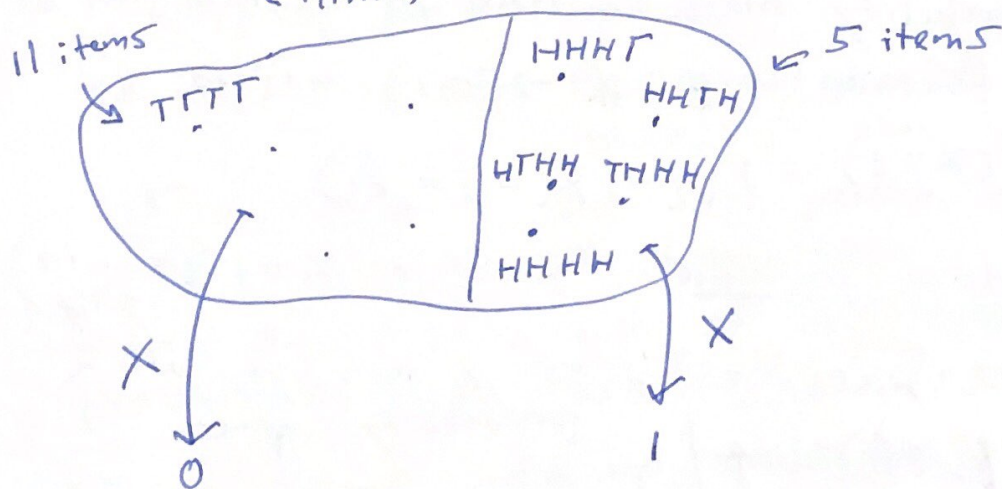
$$X(H) = 0$$

$$X(T) = 1$$

$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{prob } q \\ 1 & \text{prob } 1-q \end{cases} \leftarrow \begin{matrix} \text{success} \\ \text{probability} \end{matrix}$$

Ex Let  $\Omega$  be the space representing all possible outcomes of 4 coin flips. Let for  $w \in \Omega$ ,  $X(w) = 1$  if there are more than 2 H in the 4 flips.

$$\Omega = \{HHHH, \dots\}, |\Omega| = 2^4 = 16.$$



$$P(X=1) = \frac{5}{16}, P(X=0) = \frac{11}{16}.$$

so  $X$  is a Bernoulli r.v. with success probability  $\frac{5}{16}$ .



Ex  $X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{prob } 1-p \\ 1 & \text{prob } p \end{cases} \rightarrow \text{where is } \Omega? \text{ Doesn't matter.}$

Note; as in this example, we often don't get an  $\Omega$ , but there is always an  $\Omega$  "behind the scenes".

↳ Theorem 2.7 in the Book: we can always construct an  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  to match  $X$ .

Binomial r.v.  $\text{Binomial}(n, p)$ ,  $n = \text{number of trials}$   
 $p = \text{probability of success}$

$\text{Binomial}(n, p) = \text{number of successful trials if there are } n \text{ trials with success probability } p$ .

$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{prob } \binom{n}{0} p^0 (1-p)^n \\ 1 & \binom{n}{1} p^1 (1-p)^{n-1} \\ 2 & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ n & \vdots \end{cases} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ \vdots \\ n \end{matrix}} \right\} \text{note that these must be in } [0, 1] \text{ and the sum is 1.}$$

$$P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

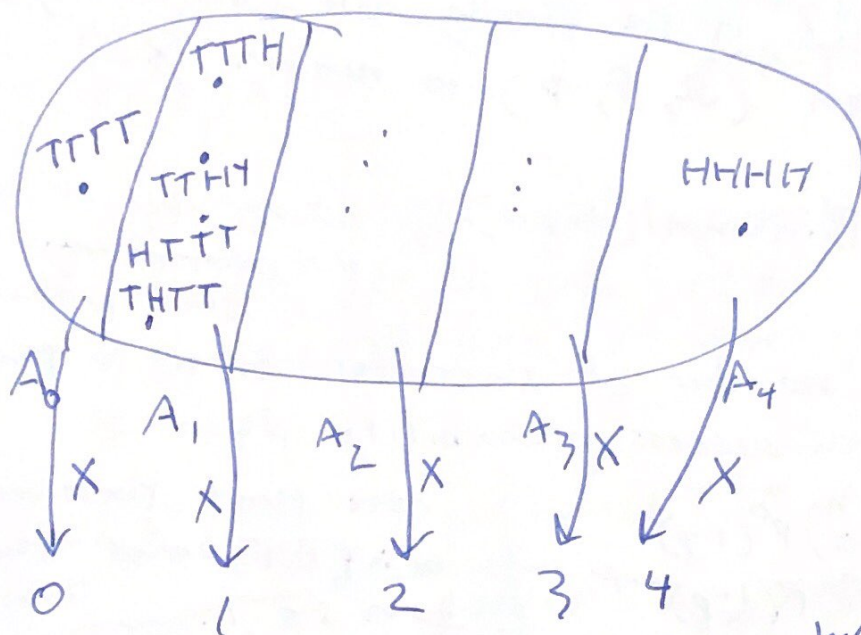
Therefore it must be true that  $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = 1$   
 and this can be proven and is called the Binomial Theorem.

$$(p + (1-p))^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \leftarrow \text{the Binomial Theorem.}$$

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k} \leftarrow \text{in more general terms}$$

~~Ex~~ Ex Let  $\Omega$  be the space representing all possible outcomes of 4 coin flips.  $X(\omega) = \#$  of H in the outcome  $\omega$ . (same  $\Omega$  from above).

$$\Omega = \{HHHH, THHH, \dots\}, |\Omega| = 16.$$



the number of ways of getting  $k$  H out of  $n$  tosses, where  $n=4$  is  $\binom{n}{k}$ .

$$P(X=k) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4 |A_k| = \binom{4}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4$$

In general  $\Rightarrow P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-k}$

So  $X$  is binomial  $\left(4, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ .



## Geometric r.v.

Geometric( $p$ ) ~ the number of trials (flips of coin) needed before a success is achieved, with probability of success in each trial of  $p$ .

Note! this is a countably infinite.

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Prob } p \\ 2 & \text{Prob } p(1-p) \\ 3 & \text{Prob } p(1-p)^2 \\ 4 & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \infty & \vdots \end{cases}$$

$\rightarrow$  ~~prob~~  
 $P(X=k) = p(1-p)^{k-1}$   
for  $k=1, 2, \dots$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(X=k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p(1-p)^{k-1} = p \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1-p)^{k-1} = p \left( \frac{1}{1-p} \right) = 1.$$

Quick proof:

~~$T = 1 + a + a^2 + \dots$~~   
 $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a^j = a^0 + a^1 + a^2 + a^3 + \dots$   
 $T = 1 + a + a^2 + a^3 + \dots$

$$- aT = a + a^2 + a^3 + a^4 + \dots$$

$$\hline T - aT = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow T(1-a) = 1 \Rightarrow T = \frac{1}{1-a}$$

Ex: ~~Let  $\Omega$  be the space of all possible infinitely many coin flips.~~

~~$\Omega = \{ HHH\dots, THH\dots \}$~~

Ex: I flip a coin repeatedly until it lands H. Let  $X$  be the number of flips. The coin lands H with probability  $p$ .

$$\Omega = \{H, TH, TTH, TTT H, \dots\}$$

$$P(X=k) = (1-p)^{k-1} p \Rightarrow X \text{ is geometric with success probability } p \text{ or } X \text{ is geometric}(p).$$

Notation:  $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$ .  $\leftarrow$  This means  $X$  has this pmf or dist.

Poisson r.v.:  $X$  can have values  $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$P(X=k) = \frac{e^{-\mu} \mu^k}{k!} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

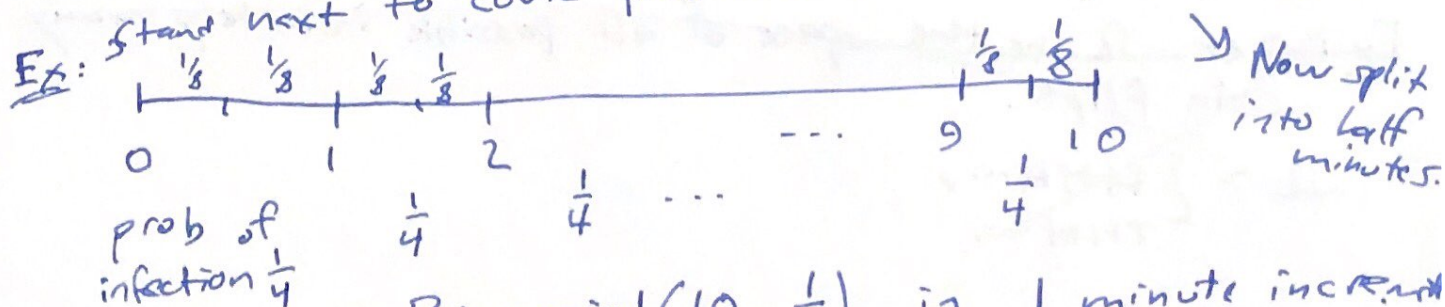
$\mu$  is the mean.

If  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$   
 $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$

If we choose  $p = \mu/n$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Binomial}(n, \frac{\mu}{n}) \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu).$$

Intuitively, the more trials with lower probability.



$\text{Binomial}(10, \frac{1}{4})$  in 1 minute increment

If we look at 2x increments  $\text{Binomial}(20, \frac{1}{8})$ , and



we could do  $\text{Binomial}(40, \frac{1}{16})$  in  $\frac{1}{4}$  min increments

Note:  $10 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 2.5$ ,  $20 \cdot \frac{1}{8} = 2.5$ ,  $40 \cdot \frac{1}{16} = 2.5$ .

It looks like  $2.5 = \mu$ . ~~So  $p = \frac{\mu}{n}$~~  So  $p = \frac{\mu}{n}$ .

This is like  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Binomial}(n, \frac{\mu}{n}) \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$

The proof is in the book and will be in HW.

Examples of things that follow Poisson:

- 1) # infection events (as above).
- 2) # highway deaths in a year
- 3) # gamma-rays given off by radioactive substance.

Summary: Remember these random variables:

$\text{Bernoulli}(p) \rightarrow$  like coin flip

$\text{Binomial}(n, p) \rightarrow$  like # of H in  $n$  coin flips

$\text{Geometric}(p) \rightarrow$  like # of flips before a H.

$\text{Poisson}(\mu) \rightarrow$  like # of infections at a constant rate.

Recall: week 1: Prob space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ ,  $P(A) = \text{prob of an event } A$ .

week 2/3: X r.v. why?

Q: on average, what happens in etc?

$\hookrightarrow$  requires numbers/implies number.

Q: what is the probability to an extreme outcome?  
(p-value)

$\Rightarrow$  Random Variables help us quantify our prob. spaces.

Expected Value: (mean).

Def: The expected value of r.v.  $X$  is given by

$$E[X] = \sum_{z \in \text{Im}(X)} z P(X=z)$$

Ex: Bernoulli( $p$ ).  $X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{prob } 1-p \\ 1 & \text{prob } p \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= 0 \cdot P(X=0) + 1 \cdot P(X=1) \\ &= 0 + p \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow E[X] = p.$$

Ex:  $X = \begin{cases} 7 & \text{prob } 1/4 \\ 23 & \text{prob } 3/4 \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow E[X] &= 7 \cdot P(X=7) + 23 \cdot (P(X=23)) \\ &= 7 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 23 \left(\frac{3}{4}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Ex: Binomial( $n, p$ )

$$X \sim \text{Binomial}(100, \frac{1}{2})$$

$$E[X] = \sum_{k=0}^{100} k P(X=k) = \sum_{k=0}^{100} k \binom{100}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{100}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{100} \sum_{k=0}^{100} k \binom{100}{k} = ?$$

Note:  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$   
 $\Rightarrow E[X] = np$



Functions of r.v. (nothing to do with expected value, but touch on this is needed).

Given  $X$ , we might want to think about functions of  $X$  such as  $x^2$ ,  $x^5$ ,  $2x^2+x+3$ ,  $e^{-5x}$ , etc.

function  $g(x): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} g(x) = x^2 \\ g(x) = x^5 \\ g(x) = 2x^2 + x + 3 \\ g(x) = e^{5x} \end{array} \right\} \text{these are not random, "pre-calc".}$$

Then define  $Y \sim g(x)$ , e.g.  $Y \sim x^2$ ,  $Y \sim 2x^2 + x + 3$ .

$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{prob } 1-p \\ 1 & \text{prob } p \end{cases} \Rightarrow Y = \begin{cases} 3 & \text{prob } 1-p \\ 6 & \text{prob } p \end{cases}$$

This "inexact" translation may be too computationally cumbersome, especially for infinite cases.

(Back to Expected Value)

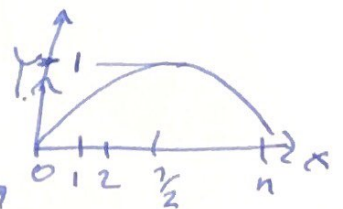
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} E[Y] = 3 \cdot p(Y=3) + 6 \cdot p(Y=6) \\ E[g(x)] = g(0) \cdot p(X=0) + g(1) \cdot p(X=1) \end{array} \right\} \text{when you want to get expected value of a function.}$$

Ex:  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p) \Rightarrow X$  takes vals  $0, \dots, n$

$\hookrightarrow$  This range "blows up", how to control?

$$Y \sim 4 \frac{x}{n} \left(1 - \frac{x}{n}\right) \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} x=0, Y=0 \\ x=n, Y=0 \\ x=\frac{n}{2}, Y=1 \end{array}$$

so  $Y$  is always between  $[0, 1]$ .



$$\left. \begin{aligned} Y &\sim 4 \frac{x}{n} \left(1 - \frac{x}{n}\right) \\ g(x) &= 4 \frac{x}{n} \left(1 - \frac{x}{n}\right) \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow Y \sim g(x) \rightarrow \text{not } 1-1.$$

$\Rightarrow E[Y] =$  what values does  $Y$  take on?  
what is its pmf?

But we know  $X$  well...

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{k=0}^n g(k) P(X=k) = E[Y]$$

↑ Proof of this is in the Book.

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n 4 \frac{k}{n} \left(1 - \frac{k}{n}\right) \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

we did this by the fact that we know dist of  $X$   
but not of  $Y$ .