

## CHAPTER 2

# Discrete Random Variables

### § 1. Random Variable and Expectation

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. We assume that  $\Omega$  is discrete and countable (finite or infinite). Note that  $\mathcal{F}$  can be any subset of powerset  $2^\Omega$ . A random variable  $X$  is a “function”  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = r\} \in \mathcal{F}$  for any  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\Omega$  is discrete, we can assume,  $X$  takes at the most discretely countable values. For most part of this chapter, we take that  $X$  takes integer values.

A random variable  $X$  is characterised by its distribution i.e., the probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(X = x)$  for different values of  $x$ . Two random variables are said to be identically distributed if their distributions are same i.e.,

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(Y = x)$$

for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . In such a case we write  $X \stackrel{d}{=} Y$ .

Two random variables can be equal as if two  $X$  and  $Y$  are same as “functions” i.e.,  $X(\omega) = Y(\omega)$  for each  $\omega \in \Omega$ . However, the most useful concept, apart from the above distributional equivalence, is the almost sure equivalence. Two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to be almost surely equal if

$$\mathbb{P}\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \neq Y(\omega)\} = 0$$

and we write  $X = Y$  a.s.

An important point to note here is that the distributional equivalence does not require that the random variables have to be defined on the same sample space.

The smallest  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{F}_X \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  containing the events  $\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\}$  for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is called the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $X$  (or information space generated by  $X$ ).

Two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to be independent if  $\mathcal{F}_X$  and  $\mathcal{F}_Y$  are independent i.e.,  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$  for any  $A \in \mathcal{F}_X$  and  $B \in \mathcal{F}_Y$ . In other words,

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)\mathbb{P}(Y = y)$$

for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Independence of random variables extends naturally to a family of random variables. A family of random variables is said to be pairwise independent if any two of the random variables are independent.

Expectation of the random variable  $X$  is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}X = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x\mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

Since  $X$  takes at most countably infinite values, the above sum makes “sense”. The variance of a random variable is given by

$$\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X - \mathbb{E}X)^2.$$

(1.1). THEOREM. Let  $X, Y$  be two random variables and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}(X + Y) = \mathbb{E}X + \mathbb{E}Y$  and  $\mathbb{E}cX = c\mathbb{E}X$ .

PROOF. Consider

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}(X + Y) &= \sum_z z \mathbb{P}(X + Y = z) = \sum_z \sum_y z \mathbb{P}(X + Y = z | Y = y) \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \\
&= \sum_z \sum_y z \mathbb{P}(X = z - y) \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \\
&= \sum_z \sum_y (z - y) \mathbb{P}(X = z - y) \mathbb{P}(Y = y) + \sum_z \sum_y y \mathbb{P}(X = z - y) \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \\
&= \sum_y \left[ \sum_z (z - y) \mathbb{P}(X = z - y) \right] \mathbb{P}(Y = y) + \sum_y y \left[ \sum_z \mathbb{P}(X = z - y) \right] \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \\
&= \sum_y (\mathbb{E}X) \mathbb{P}(Y = y) + \sum_y y \cdot 1 \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \\
&= \mathbb{E}X + \mathbb{E}Y.
\end{aligned}$$

Next

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}cX &= \sum_x x \mathbb{P}(cX = x) = \sum_x c \frac{x}{c} \mathbb{P}(X = \frac{x}{c}) \\
&= c \mathbb{E}X.
\end{aligned}$$

□

An important property of nonnegative integer valued random variable is the following:

(1.2). PROPOSITION. *Let  $X$  be nonnegative integer valued random variable. Then*

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X > n).$$

An important property of convex functions is the following:

(1.3). THEOREM (Jensen's Inequality). *For any convex function  $f$ ,*

$$f(\mathbb{E}[X]) \leq \mathbb{E}f(\mathbb{E}[X]).$$

(1.4). EXAMPLE. Bernoulli random variable:  $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  if

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } p \\ 0 & \text{with probability } 1 - p. \end{cases}$$

Note that  $\mathbb{E}X = p$ . Find  $\text{Var}(X)$ .

(1.5). EXAMPLE. Binomial random variable:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  if

$$X = k \text{ with probability } \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$$

Observe that  $X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$  where  $X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots$  are iid (independent and identically distributed) with Bernoulli distribution. Find expectation and variance.

An important consequence of the independence of two random variables is the following:

(1.6). THEOREM. *Let  $X, Y$  be two independent random variables, then*

$$\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}X \mathbb{E}Y.$$

## § 2. Bernoulli's Law of Large Numbers

Let  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  where  $0 < p < 1$ . Bernoulli proved the following

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{X}{n} - p\right| > \epsilon\right) = 0.$$

This is known as Bernoulli's law of large numbers. In the modern language, this is the weak law of large numbers for Bernoulli random variables.

Let  $p_X(i) := \mathbb{P}(X = i)$ . then

$$\frac{p_X(i)}{p_X(i-1)} = \frac{n-i+1}{i} \frac{p}{q}.$$

Thus  $p_X(i) \geq p_X(i-1)$  if and only if  $(n+1)p \geq i$

Let  $r \geq (n+1)p$  and  $k \geq 1$ , then

$$\frac{p_X(r+k)}{p_X(r+k-1)} \leq \frac{n-r}{r+k} \frac{p}{q} \leq \frac{n-r}{r} \frac{p}{q}.$$

Set  $R = \frac{n-r}{r} \frac{p}{q}$  then  $R \leq 1$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X \geq r) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-r} p_X(r+k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-r} p_X(r) \frac{p_X(r+1)}{p_X(r)} \cdots \frac{p_X(r+k)}{p_X(r+k-1)} \\ &\leq \sum_{k=0}^{n-r} p_X(r) R^k \\ &\leq p_X(r) \frac{1}{1-R}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $r \geq (n+1)p$ ,  $r \geq \lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor$  and hence  $p_X$  decreases between  $[\lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor, r]$ . Therefore for  $\lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor \leq i \leq r$ ,  $p_X(r) \leq p_X(i)$ . Now

$$1 = \sum_{i=0}^n p_X(i) \geq \sum_{i=\lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor}^r p_X(i) \geq (r - \lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor + 1) p_X(r).$$

This implies that  $p_X(r) \leq \frac{1}{r - np}$  and hence  $\mathbb{P}(X \geq r) \leq \frac{rq}{(r - np)^2}$ .

For large  $n$ , we have  $n\epsilon > p$  (by Archemedian property). Take  $r = \lfloor np + n\epsilon \rfloor$ . Then

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{X}{n} - p > \epsilon\right) = \mathbb{P}(X > np + n\epsilon) \leq \mathbb{P}(X \geq \lfloor np + n\epsilon \rfloor) \leq \frac{\lfloor np + n\epsilon \rfloor q}{(\lfloor np + n\epsilon \rfloor - np)^2} \leq \frac{pq}{\epsilon^2 n} + \frac{q}{\epsilon n} + \frac{q}{\epsilon^2 n^2}$$

Hence,  $\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{X}{n} - p > \epsilon\right) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

For the other implication, we consider  $Y = n - X$ . Then  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, q)$  and

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{X}{n} - p < -\epsilon\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{n - Y}{n} - p < -\epsilon\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{Y}{n} - q > \epsilon\right)$$

Now applying the above estimate for  $Y$ , we obtain

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{X}{n} - p < -\epsilon\right) \leq \frac{pq}{\epsilon^2 n} + \frac{p}{\epsilon n} + \frac{p}{\epsilon^2 n^2}.$$

Combining these two estimates, we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{X}{n} - p\right| > \epsilon\right) \leq \frac{2pq}{\epsilon^2 n} + \frac{1}{\epsilon n} + \frac{1}{\epsilon^2 n^2} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

This proves the Bernoulli's law of large numbers.

### § 3. Moment and Markov Inequality

(3.1). THEOREM (Markov's Inequality). *Let  $X$  be non-negative random variable. Then*

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}X}{a}$$

for any  $a > 0$ .

PROOF. For an event  $A$ , define the indicator random variable by

$$\mathbf{1}_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let  $A = \{X \geq a\}$ . Then  $X = X\mathbf{1}_A + X\mathbf{1}_{A^c}$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}X &= \mathbb{E}(X\mathbf{1}_A) + \mathbb{E}(X\mathbf{1}_{A^c}) \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}(a\mathbf{1}_A) + \mathbb{E}(X\mathbf{1}_{A^c}) \\ &= a\mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{E}(X\mathbf{1}_{A^c}) \\ &\geq a\mathbb{P}(A).\end{aligned}$$

The last inequality follows since  $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbf{1}_{A^c}) \geq 0$  (recall that  $X$  is non-negative). And the Markov's inequality follows.  $\square$

An important consequence of the Markov's inequality is the Chebyshev's inequality.

(3.2). THEOREM (Chebyshev's Inequality). *Let  $X$  be a random variable. Then, for any  $a > 0$ ,*

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mathbb{E}X| \geq a) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{a^2}.$$

PROOF. First note that

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mathbb{E}X| \geq a) = \mathbb{P}(|X - \mathbb{E}X|^2 \geq a^2)$$

Applying Markov's inequality to the non-negative random variable  $|X - \mathbb{E}X|^2$ , we now have

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mathbb{E}X| \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}|X - \mathbb{E}X|^2}{a^2} = \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{a^2}$$

proving the Chebyshev's inequality.  $\square$

One important corollary of the Chebyshev's inequality is weak law of large numbers.

(3.3). THEOREM (Weak Law of Large Numbers). *Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables. Then*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} - \mathbb{E}X_1\right| \geq a\right) \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

PROOF. Since  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are i.i.d., we have  $\mathbb{E}X_i = \mathbb{E}X_1$  and  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \text{Var}(X_1)$  for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ . Consequently

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n^2}(\text{Var}(X_1) + \text{Var}(X_2) + \dots + \text{Var}(X_n)) = \frac{\text{Var}(X_1)}{n}$$

Now applying Chebyshev's inequality, we have, for every  $a > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} - \mathbb{E}X_1\right| \geq a\right) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X_1)}{na^2} \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . This proves the weak law.  $\square$