

LECTURE 3

Example 4. Let $n = 2$ $(X_1, X_2) = (1, 2)$ be a random sample of size 2 from a distribution with probability density function

$$p(x|\theta) = \binom{x}{3} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{3-x}, \quad x = 0, 1, 2, 3.$$

If the prior density of θ is

$$p(\theta) = \begin{cases} k, & \text{if } 1/2 < \theta < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

what is the posterior distribution of θ ?

Solution. Since $p(\theta)$ is the probability density function of θ , we should get

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(\theta) d\theta = 1, \quad \text{that is} \quad \int_{1/2}^1 k d\theta = 1.$$

Therefore $k = 2$. The joint density of the sample and the parameter is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, x_2, \theta) &= p(x_1|\theta) \cdot p(x_2|\theta) \cdot p(\theta) = \binom{3}{x_1} \theta^{x_1} (1 - \theta)^{3-x_1} \cdot \binom{3}{x_2} \theta^{x_2} (1 - \theta)^{3-x_2} \cdot 2 \\ &= 2 \binom{3}{x_1} \binom{3}{x_2} \theta^{x_1+x_2} (1 - \theta)^{6-x_1-x_2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$f(1, 2, \theta) = 2 \binom{3}{1} \binom{3}{2} \theta^3 (1 - \theta)^3 = 18 \theta^3 (1 - \theta)^3.$$

The marginal distribution of the sample

$$\begin{aligned} g(1, 2) &= \int_{1/2}^1 f(1, 2, \theta) d\theta = 18 \int_{1/2}^1 \theta^3 (1 - \theta)^3 d\theta = 18 \int_{1/2}^1 \theta^3 (1 + 3\theta^2 - 3\theta - \theta^3) d\theta = \\ &= 18 \int_{1/2}^1 (\theta^3 + 3\theta^5 - 3\theta^4 - \theta^6) d\theta = \frac{9}{140}. \end{aligned}$$

The conditional distribution of the parameter θ given the sample $X_1 = 1$ and $X_2 = 2$ is given by

$$p(\theta|x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2) = \frac{f(1, 2, \theta)}{g(1, 2)} = \frac{18 \cdot \theta^3 (1 - \theta)^3}{9/140} = 280 \theta^3 (1 - \theta)^3.$$

Therefore, the posterior distribution of θ is

$$p(\theta|x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2) = \begin{cases} 280 \cdot \theta^3 (1 - \theta)^3, & \text{if } 1/2 < \theta < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

§7. DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS

Definition 0. Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space, i. e. Ω is a sample space on which a probability P has been defined. A *random variable* is a function η from Ω to the set of real numbers

$$\eta: \quad \Omega \longmapsto \mathbf{R}^1,$$

i. e. for every outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ there is a real number, denoted by $\eta(\omega)$, which is called the value of $\eta(\cdot)$ at ω .

We can also give the following definition of distribution function.

The distribution function F of a random variable $\eta(\omega)$ is defined for all real numbers $x \in \mathbf{R}^1$, by the formula

$$F(x) = P(\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x). \quad (7)$$

In words, $F(x)$ denotes the probability that the random variable $\eta(\omega)$ takes on a value that is less than or equal to x .

Some properties of the distribution function are the following:

Property 0. $0 \leq F(x) \leq 1$.

Property 1. F is a nondecreasing function, that is, if $x_1 \leq x_2$ then $F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$.

Proof: We will present two proofs. For $x_1 \leq x_2$ the event $\{\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_1\}$ is contained in the event $\{\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_2\}$ and so cannot have a larger probability (see Property 5 of Probabilities), i. e.

$$P(\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_1) \leq P(\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_2).$$

Therefore, by definition of the distribution function we have $F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$.

Another proof of the property 1 is the following. Let us prove the formula

$$P(\omega: x_1 < \eta(\omega) \leq x_2) = F(x_2) - F(x_1), \quad \text{for all } x_1 < x_2. \quad (8)$$

This can best be seen by writing the event $\{\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_2\}$ as the union of the mutually exclusive events $\{\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_1\}$ and $\{\omega: x_1 < \eta(\omega) \leq x_2\}$. That is,

$$\{\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_2\} = \{\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_1\} \bigcup \{\omega: x_1 < \eta(\omega) \leq x_2\}.$$

and so

$$P(\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_2) = P(\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x_1) + P(\omega: x_1 < \eta(\omega) \leq x_2)$$

which established equation (8). By Axiom 1 the left-hand side of (8) is nonnegative, and therefore $F(x_2) - F(x_1) \geq 0$. The proof is complete.

Property 2. $F(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$.

Property 3. $F(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$.

Property 4. $F(x)$ is right continuous. That is, for any x and any decreasing sequence x_n that converges to x ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_n) = F(x).$$

Thus, Properties 1 – 4 are necessary conditions for a function $G(x)$ to be a distribution function.

However, these properties are also sufficient. This assertion follows from the following theorem which we cite without proof.

Theorem 1 (about Distribution Function). *Let a function $G(x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$ satisfy the Properties 1 — 4. Then there exist a probability space (Ω, P) and a random variable $\eta(\omega)$ for which distribution function coincides with given function $G(x)$, i. e.*

$$P(\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x) = G(x).$$

Therefore, for giving an example of a random variable we have to cite a function which satisfies the Properties 1 — 4.

We want to stress that in Theorem about distribution function a random variable $\eta(\omega)$ is determined by non-unique way.

Example 5. Let (Ω, P) be a probability space and $P(A) = P(\bar{A}) = 0.5$. We define the following two random variables

$$\eta_1(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ -1 & \text{if } \omega \notin A \end{cases}, \quad \eta_2(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in \bar{A} \\ -1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \end{cases}.$$

It is obvious that $\{\omega: \eta_1(\omega) \neq \eta_2(\omega)\} = \Omega$. However,

$$F_{\eta_1}(x) = F_{\eta_2}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < -1 \\ 0.5 & \text{if } -1 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}.$$

Definition 1. Two random variables $\eta_1(\omega)$ and $\eta_2(\omega)$ are said to be *Identically Distributed* if their distribution functions are equal, that is,

$$F_{\eta_1}(x) = F_{\eta_2}(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^1.$$

§8. EXAMPLES OF DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS

Example 6. A random variable $\eta(\omega)$ is said to be *Normally distributed* if its distribution function has the following form

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x \exp\left(-\frac{(y-a)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dy, \quad (9)$$

where a and σ are constants, moreover $a \in \mathbb{R}^1$ and $\sigma > 0$.

In order to show the correctness of Example 6 we have to verify that the function in the right-hand side of (9) satisfies the Properties 1 — 4. The correctness of Example 6 can be found in the Appendix of the present lecture.

The normal distribution plays a central role in probability and statistics. This distribution is also called the Gaussian distribution after Carl Friedrich Gauss, who proposed it as a model for measurement errors.

Example 7. A random variable is said to be *Uniformly distributed* on the interval (a, b) if its distribution function is given by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq b \end{cases}. \quad (10)$$

It is obvious that the function (10) satisfies all Properties 1 — 4.

Example 8. A random variable is said to be *Exponentially distributed* with parameter $\lambda > 0$ if its distribution function is given by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}. \quad (11)$$

It is obvious that the function (11) satisfies all Properties 1 — 4.

Like the Poisson distribution, the exponential distribution depends on the only parameter.

Example 9. If $\eta(\omega) \equiv c$ then corresponding distribution function has the form

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < c \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq c \end{cases}. \quad (12)$$

Consider the experiment of flipping a symmetrical coin once. The two possible outcomes are “heads” (outcome ω_1) and “tails” (outcome ω_2), that is, $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2\}$. Suppose $\eta(\omega)$ is defined by putting $\eta(\omega_1) = 1$ and $\eta(\omega_2) = -1$. We may think of it as earning of the player who receives or loses a dollar according as the outcome is heads or tails. Corresponding distribution function has the form

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < -1 \\ 1/2 & \text{if } -1 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}.$$

Lemma 1. Let $F(x)$ be a distribution function of a random variable $\eta(\omega)$. Then for any real number x we have

$$P\{\omega: \eta(\omega) = x\} = F(x) - F(x-0), \quad (13)$$

where $F(x-0)$ is the left-hand limit at x .

Therefore, for continuous distribution function (as in Examples 6 — 8) we have

$$P(\omega: \eta(\omega) = x) = 0 \quad \text{for any } x \in \mathbb{R}^1. \quad (14)$$

§9. CONTINUOUS RANDOM VARIABLES

We say that $\eta(\omega)$ is an *absolutely continuous* random variable if there exists a function $f(x)$ defined for all real numbers and the distribution function $F(x)$ of the random variable $\eta(\omega)$ is represented in the form

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y) dy. \quad (14)$$

The function f is called the *Density function* of $\eta(\omega)$.

A function $f(x)$ must have certain properties in order to be a density function. Since $F(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$ we obtain

Property 1.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = 1. \quad (15)$$

Property 2. $f(x)$ is a nonnegative function.

Proof: Differentiating both sides of (14) yields

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x). \quad (16)$$

That is, the density is the derivative of the distribution function. We know that the first derivative of a nondecreasing function is always nonnegative. Therefore the proof is complete as $F(x)$ is nondecreasing.

Remarkably that these two properties are also sufficient for a function $g(x)$ be a density function.

Theorem 2 (About Density Function). *Let a function $g(x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$ satisfy (15) and, in addition, satisfies the condition*

$$g(x) \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^1.$$

Then there exist a probability space (Ω, P) and an absolutely continuous random variable $\eta(\omega)$ for which density function coincides with given function $g(x)$.

Proof: Let us define a function

$$G(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x g(y) dy.$$

It is not difficult to verify that $G(x)$ satisfies all conditions 1 — 4 for distribution function. Therefore by Theorem 1 about distribution function, there exists a random variable $\eta(\omega)$ for which distribution function coincides with $G(x)$. By definition of density function, $g(x)$ is a density function of the random variable $\eta(\omega)$. The proof is complete.

Therefore, for giving an example of an absolutely continuous random variable we have to cite a **non-negative** function which satisfies (15).

The normally distributed random variable (see Example 6) is absolutely continuous and its density function has the form

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{(x-a)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right), \quad (17)$$

where a and σ are constant, moreover $a \in \mathbb{R}^1$ and $\sigma > 0$.

The uniformly distributed random variable over the interval (a, b) (see Example 7) is absolutely continuous and its density function has the form

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \notin (a, b) \\ \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \end{cases}. \quad (18)$$

It is obvious that the function (18) satisfies (15).

The exponentially distributed random variable with parameter $\lambda > 0$ (see Example 8) is absolutely continuous and its density function has the form

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}. \quad (19)$$

It is obvious that the function (19) satisfies (15).

We obtain from (8) that

$$\begin{aligned} P(\omega: a \leq \eta(\omega) \leq b) &= P(\omega: a \leq \eta(\omega) < b) = \\ &= P(\omega: a < \eta(\omega) \leq b) = P(\omega: a < \eta(\omega) < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

As the distribution function of an absolutely continuous random variable is continuous at all points thus

$$P(\omega: \eta(\omega) = x) = 0$$

for any fixed x .

Therefore this equation states that the probability that an absolutely continuous random variable will assume any fixed value is zero.

A somewhat more intuitive interpretation of the density function may be obtained from (18). If $\eta(\omega)$ is an absolutely continuous random variable having density function $f(x)$, then for small dx

$$P(\omega: x \leq \eta(\omega) \leq x + dx) = f(x) dx + o(dx).$$

In general case (for any distribution function) we have the following formulae:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\omega: a \leq \eta(\omega) \leq b) &= F(b) - F(a - 0), \\ P(\omega: a \leq \eta(\omega) < b) &= F(b - 0) - F(a - 0), \\ P(\omega: a < \eta(\omega) \leq b) &= F(b) - F(a), \\ P(\omega: a < \eta(\omega) < b) &= F(b - 0) - F(a), \end{aligned}$$

where $F(a - 0)$ is the left-limit of $F(x)$ at point a .

APPENDIX 3.

Proof of Lemma 1: Let us prove the following equation

$$P(\omega: \eta(\omega) < x) = F(x - 0), \quad (21)$$

i. e. we want to compute the probability that $\eta(\omega)$ is less than x .
It is not difficult to verify that

$$\{\omega: \eta(\omega) < x\} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n,$$

where $A_n = \left\{ \omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x - \frac{1}{n} \right\}$.

A_n is an increasing sequence and therefore, tends to the event $\{\omega: \eta(\omega) < x\}$. Thus

$$A_n \uparrow \{\omega: \eta(\omega) < x\}.$$

By a property of Probability we get

$$P(A_n) \uparrow P(\omega: \eta(\omega) < x).$$

Hence (21) is proved.

As

$$P(\omega: \eta(\omega) = x) = P(\omega: \eta(\omega) \leq x) - P(\omega: \eta(\omega) < x) = F(x) - F(x - 0)$$

the assertion of the Lemma follows from the equation (21). The proof is complete.