Lecture 9: Discrete random variables; L&M 3.3 Wed Oct 10, 2018

9.1 Definitions and examples

- (i) **Definition:** A random variable X is a real-valued function on the sample space.
- (ii) Example: the number of heads in n tosses of a fair coin.
- (iii) Example: the number of red-flowered pea-plants out of n, from crosses of $RW \times RW$ pea plants.
- (iv) Example: the number of plants grown in (iii) until we see the first white flowered plant.
- (v) Example: the number of red fish, in sampling n fish without replacement, from a pond in which there are N fish of which k are red.
- (vi) Example: the number of traffic accidents in a large city in a year.

9.2: Discrete Random variables

- (i) **Definition:** A random variable X is discrete if it can take only at most a countable set of values.
- (ii) Example (ii) above: X takes a value in $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, 2, ..., n\}$.
- (iii) Example (iii) above: ditto.
- (iv) X takes values in $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\} = \mathcal{Z}_+$.
- (v) Example (v) above: X takes values in $\mathcal{X} = \{\max(0, k + n N), \dots, \min(k, n)\}.$
- (vi) Example (vi) above: X takes values in $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, 2, ...\} = \{0\} \cup \mathcal{Z}_{+}$.

9.3 Probability mass function

(i) **Definition:** The probability mass function (p.m.f.) of a discrete random variable X is the set of probabilities P(X = x) for each of the values $x \in \mathcal{X}$ that X can take.

(ii) Example (ii):
$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} (1/2)^n$$
 for $x = 0, 1, 2, ...n$.

(iii) Example (iii):
$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} (3/4)^x (1/4)^{n-x}$$
 for $x = 0, 1, 2, ...n$.

(iv) Example (iv):
$$P(X = x) = (3/4)^{(x-1)} \cdot (1/4)$$
 for $x = 1, 2, 3, ...$:

(v) Example (v):
$$P(X=x) = {k \choose x} {N-k \choose n-x} / {N \choose n}$$
 for $x = \max(0, k+n-N), \dots, \min(k,n)$.

(vi) Example (vi):
$$P(X = x) = \exp(-\mu)\mu^x/x!$$
 for $x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4...$

9.4 Properties of probability mass functions

- (i) $P(X=x) \geq 0$ for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$. (For discrete random variables, in fact P(X=x) > 0 for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$.)
- (ii) $\sum_{x} P(X = x) = 1$ where the sum is over all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
- (iii) The subsets E_x of Ω that give $\{X = x\}$ for each x are disjoint events: $P(X \in B) = \sum_{x \in B} P(X = x)$.

9.5 Names of some standard probability mass functions

- (i) Binomial: Examples (ii) and (iii) are Binomial random variables, Bin(n,p), with index n and parameter p = (1/2) and (3/4) respectively.
- (ii) Bernoulli; If n = 1, examples (ii) and (iii) are Bernoulli random variables, Bernoulli(p).
- (iii) Multinomial: If there are more that two types (for example, number of each of types A, B, AB and O in sample size n from a population) then we have a Multinomial random variable.
- (iv) Geometric: In example (iv), X is a Geometric random variable.
- (iv) Hypergeometric: In example (v), X is a Hypergeometric random variable.
- (v) Poisson: In example (vi), X is a Poisson random variable, with parameter μ , $\mathcal{P}o(\mu)$.

Lecture 10: Continuous random variables: L&M 3.4 Fri Oct 12 (a)

10.1 Definitions and examples

- (i) **Definition:** A *continuous* random variable X is one that takes values in $(-\infty, \infty)$. That is, in principle: some values may be impossible.
- (ii) Example: A random number between a and b: values in the interval (a, b).
- (iii) Example: The waiting time until the bus arrives: values in $(0, \infty)$.
- (iv) Example: The USA national debt in 2050: values in $(-\infty, +\infty)$ (in principle).

10.2 The probability density function: definition and basic properties.

(i) **Definition:** The probability density function (p.d.f.) of a continuous random variable X is a non-negative function f defined for all values x in $(-\infty, \infty)$ such that for any subset B for which $X \in B$ is an event

$$P(X \in B) = \int_B f(x) \ dx$$

(ii) In fact. (way beyond this course), sets B corresponding to events can be made up of countable unions and intersections of intervals of the form (a, b]:

$$P(X \in (a,b]) = P(a < X \le b) = \int_a^b f(x) \ dx$$

(iii) Note the value at the boundary does not matter:

$$P(X=a) = \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$
 for any continuous random variable.

(iv) Note: f(x) = 0 is possible for some x-values (see the p.m.f).

For example, if $X \ge 0$ (as in the waiting-time example), f(x) = 0, if x < 0.

(v) X takes some value in $(-\infty, \infty)$ so

$$1 = P(-\infty < X < \infty) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \ dx$$

(vi) The cumulative distribution function of X is

$$F(x) = P(-\infty < X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(z) dz$$

10.3 Examples: of the probability density function

- (i) In general: any non-negative real-valued function f on the real line such that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$.
- (ii) Example (ii) above: Uniform p.d.f: U(a, b).

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(b-a)}$$
 for $a \le x \le b$ and $f(x) = 0$ otherwise.

(iii) Example (iii) above: Exponential p.d.f (with rate parameter λ): $\mathcal{E}(\lambda)$.

$$f(x) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda x)$$
 for $x \ge 0$ and $f(x) = 0$ if $x < 0$.

(iv) Example (iv) above: Normal p.d.f (with parameters μ and σ^2): $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \text{ for } -\infty < x < \infty.$$

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Lecture 11. Conditioning and functions of a random variable Oct 12 (b)

11.1 Conditioning a discrete random vaiable

Recall P(X = x) is just an event (strictly, defines an event $E_x \subset \Omega$), and $P(X \in B) = \sum_{x \in B} P(X = x)$.

So $P(X \in C \mid X \in B) = P(X \in B \cap C)/P(X \in B)$.

Also $P(X = x \mid X \in B) = P(X = x)/P(X \in B)$, provided $x \in B$.

11.2 Examples of conditioning a discrete random variable

- (i) If X is Poisson, parameter 1: $P(X = x) = e^{-1}1^x/x! = e^{-1}/x!$, $P(X \ge 2) = 1 e^{-1} e^{-1}$, and $P(X = x \mid X \ge 2) = (e^{-1}/x!)/(1 2e^{-1})$, for x = 2, 3, 4, ...
- (ii) If X is Bin(11,0.5): P(X even) = 1/2 and $P(X = x \mid X \text{ even}) = 2P(X = x)$ if x is even, 0 otherwise.
- (iii) The forgetting property of the Geometric Distribution

$$P(X = x) = (1 - p)^{x-1}p$$
 for $x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ Then $P(X > k) = P(\text{first } k \text{ are failures}) = (1 - p)^k$.
 $P(X > k + \ell \mid X > \ell) = P(X > k + \ell)/P(X > \ell) = (1 - p)^{k+\ell}/(1 - p)^{\ell} = (1 - p)^k = P(X > k)$.

11.3 Conditioning a continuous random varible

Recall $X \in B$ is an event and $P(X \in B) = \int_{x \in B} f_X(x) dx$.

So
$$P(X \in C | X \in B) = P(X \in B \cap C)/P(X \in B) = \int_{B \cap C} f(x) dx / \int_B f(x) dx$$

11.4 Examples of conditioning a continuous random variable

(i) Example of a Uniform random variable Suppose X has p.d.f. $f(x) = 1, 0 \le x \le 1$.

$$P(X > 0.6 \mid X \le 0.8) = P(0.6 < X \le 0.8) / P(X \le 0.8) = 0.2 / 0.8 = 0.25.$$

(ii) Example for an exponential random variable

Suppose X has p.d.f. $f(x) = 0.5e^{-0.5x}$ on $0 < x < \infty$: $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(w) dw = 1 - e^{-0.5x}$.

So
$$P(X \le 6 \mid X > 2) = P(2 < X \le 6)/P(X > 2) = (e^{-1} - e^{-3})/e^{-1} = (1 - e^{-2}) \approx 6/7.$$

(iii) The **forgetting property** of the exponential.

Suppose X has p.d.f. $f(x) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda x)$, $0 < x < \infty$.

Note
$$F_X(a) = P(X \le a) = \int_0^a f(x) dx = (1 - \exp(-\lambda a))$$
, so $P(X > a) = \exp(-\lambda a)$. Consider $P(X > a + b \mid X > a) = P(X > a + b)/P(X > a) = \exp(-\lambda (a + b))/\exp(-\lambda a) = \exp(-\lambda b) = P(X > b)$.

11.5 Transformation of a continuous random variable

Example (i): Scaling an exponential random variable.

Suppose $f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ on $x \ge 0$, and let Y = aX (a > 0). What is the pdf of Y?

First,
$$F_X(x) = \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda w} dw = [-e^{-\lambda w}]_0^x = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$$
 on $x \ge 0$.
Now, $F_Y(y) = P(Y \le y) = P(aX \le y) = P(X \le y/a) = F_X(y/a) = (1 - e^{\lambda y/a})$, so $f_Y(y) = F_Y'(y) = \frac{d}{dy}(1 - e^{-\lambda y/a}) = (\lambda/a)e^{-(\lambda/a)y}$ on $y \ge 0$.

That is Y is an exponential random variable with parameter λ/a .

Example (ii): Suppose X is Uniform U(0,1). What is the pdf of $Y = X^3$?

$$f_X(x) = 1, \ 0 \le x \le 1; \quad F_X(x) = x, \ 0 \le x \le 1$$

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \le y) = P(X^3 \le y) = P(X \le y^{1/3}) = F_X(y^{1/3}) = y^{1/3}, \ 0 \le y \le 1$$

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = (1/3) y^{-2/3} \ 0 \le y \le 1$$

Some notes about cumulative distribution functions

- 1 (i) **Definition:** For any random variable X, the *cumulative distribution function* is defined as $F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$.
- (ii) For a discrete random variable with pmf $p_X(x)$, $F_X(b) = \sum_{x \le b} p_X(x)$.
- (iii) For a continuous random variable with pdf $f_X(x)$, $F_X(b) = \int_{-\infty}^b f_X(x) dx$.
- (iv) For all random variables, $P(a < X \le b) = F(b) F(a)$

because $\{X \leq b\} = \{X \leq a\} \cup \{a < X \leq b\}$ and $\{X \leq a\} \cap \{a < X \leq b\} = \Phi$ (empty set).

2 Properties:

- (i) F_X is a non-decreasing function: if a < b, then $F_X(a) \le F_X(b)$, because $\{X \le a\} \subset \{X \le b\}$.
- (ii) $\lim_{b\to\infty} F_X(b) = 1$, because for any increasing sequence $b_n \to \infty$, n = 1, 2, 3, ...,

$$\Omega = \{X < \infty\} = \bigcup \{X \le b_n\}, \text{ so } 1 = P(\Omega) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(X \le b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} F_X(b_n).$$

(iii) $\lim_{b\to\infty} F_X(b) = 0$, because for any decreasing sequence $b_n \to -\infty$, n = 1, 2, 3, ...,

$$\Phi = \{X = -\infty\} = \cap \{X \le b_n\}, \text{ so } 0 = P(\Phi) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P(X \le b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} F_X(b_n).$$

(iv) F_X is right-continuous. That is, for any b and any decreasing sequence b_n , n = 1, 2, 3, ..., with $b_n \to b$ as $n \to \infty$, $\lim_{n \to \infty} F_X(b_n) = F_X(b)$, because $\{X \le b\} = \bigcap \{X \le b_n\}$.

Note $P(X \le b) = P(X < b) + P(X = b)$, and $P(X < b) = \lim_{x \to b^{-}} F(x)$.

If X is discrete, with P(X = b) > 0, F_X will be discontinuous at x = b.

3 Case of continuous random variables:

For discrete random variables, $F_X(x)$ is just a set of flat (constant) pieces, with jumps in amount $P(X = x_i)$ at each possible value x_i of X. This is not very useful.

For continuous random variables, the cdf is very useful!

$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(w)dw$$
 so $\frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} = f_X(x)$.

That is, we get the pdf by differentiating the cdf: the cdf is often easier to consider.

Notes and an exercise: Approximating discrete by continuous distributions

Note the geometric and exponential distributions both have the "forgetting" property.

In fact, geometric is just a discrete version of the exponential.

For the Geom(p): $P(X > k) = (1-p)^k \approx \exp(-kp)$ for large k and small p.

For the $\mathcal{E}(\lambda)$: $P(X > x) = \exp(-\lambda x)$

Consider a r.v. T with geometric distribution with p = 0.02 and also T with an exponential with rate parameter $\lambda = 0.02$.

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- (i)Compare $P(T \ge 50)$ under the two models.
- (ii) Repeat for p=0.001 (geometric) and $\lambda=0.001$ (exponential).
- (iii) Using either model (p or $\lambda = 0.02$), what is $P(T \ge 100 \mid T \ge 50)$?
- (iv) Using either model (p or $\lambda = 0.02$), what is $P(T \le 50 \mid T \le 100)$?
- (v) Compare $P(T \le 1)$ for both distributions (p or $\lambda = 0.02$). What about p or $\lambda = 0.2$?