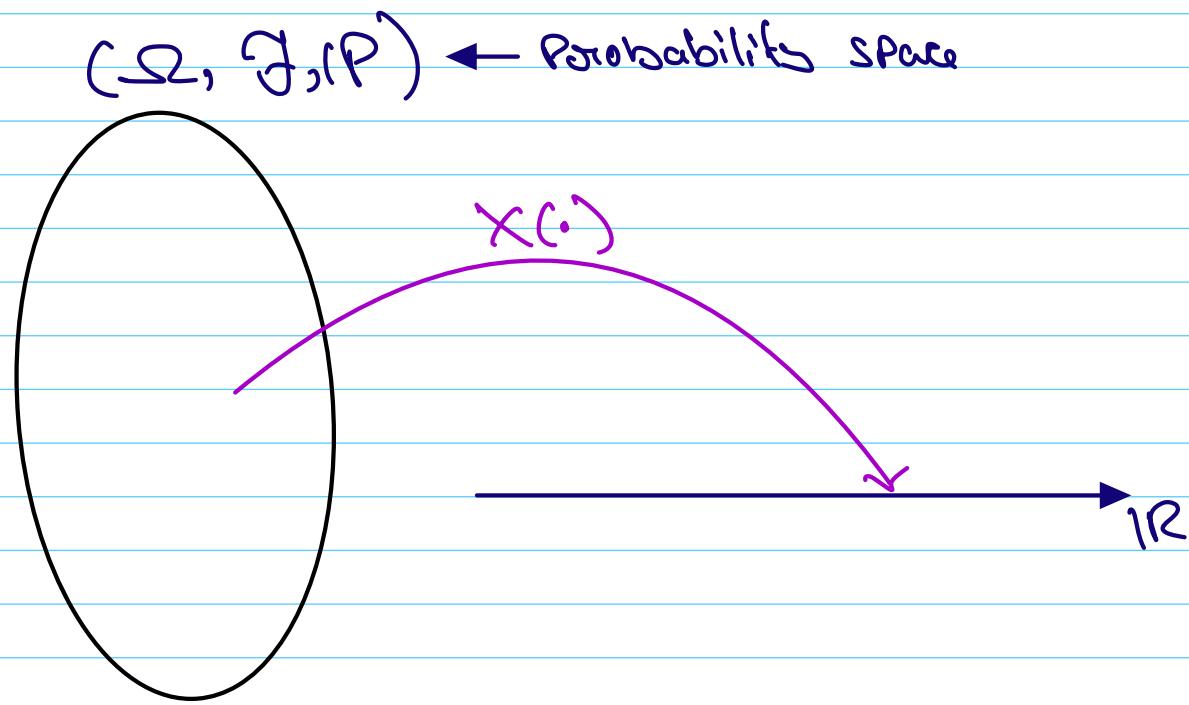


Random variables

- * in a random experiment, in the sample space Ω , we may be interested in the specific elementary outcome $\omega \in \Omega$.
- * we don't really care about what specific precise little omega ω occurs.
- * we are more interested in some numerical function of the elementary outcome.
- * For example. in an experiment involving ten coin tosses, the experiment may only want to know the total number of heads, rather than the precise seqⁿ of heads and tails.

The term random variable is a misnomer, because a r.v. is neither random, nor is it a variable. If not random, it's a deterministic function, and it's not a variable. It's a function.

Random variables are just numerical function's of your outcomes. It's a function defined on sample space & give a real number in general.



* If it's a mapping from sample space Ω to Real number line

- * Once we fix ω , then the real number is fixed.
- * The only source of randomness is the ω in Little omega $\omega \in \Omega$, That ω selected

by mother nature or something. that is
the only random thing. after ω realizes
there is no randomness in the r.v. its
a deterministic mapping, give ω , then
it will give you $x(\omega)$

- * Not all subset's of Ω are considered event's, in the similar way Not all function's from $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are considered Random variables
- * Random variables are certain nice function's called measurable function's

Measurable function:

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}) be a measurable space. A function $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is
said to be \mathcal{F} -measurable function

if the Pre-Image of every Borel set
is a \mathcal{F} -measurable set

$\Rightarrow X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a \mathcal{F} -measurable
function, if for every Borel set
 $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ the pre-image $X^{-1}(B)$
is a \mathcal{F} -measurable set.

$$X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in B\}$$

Definition:

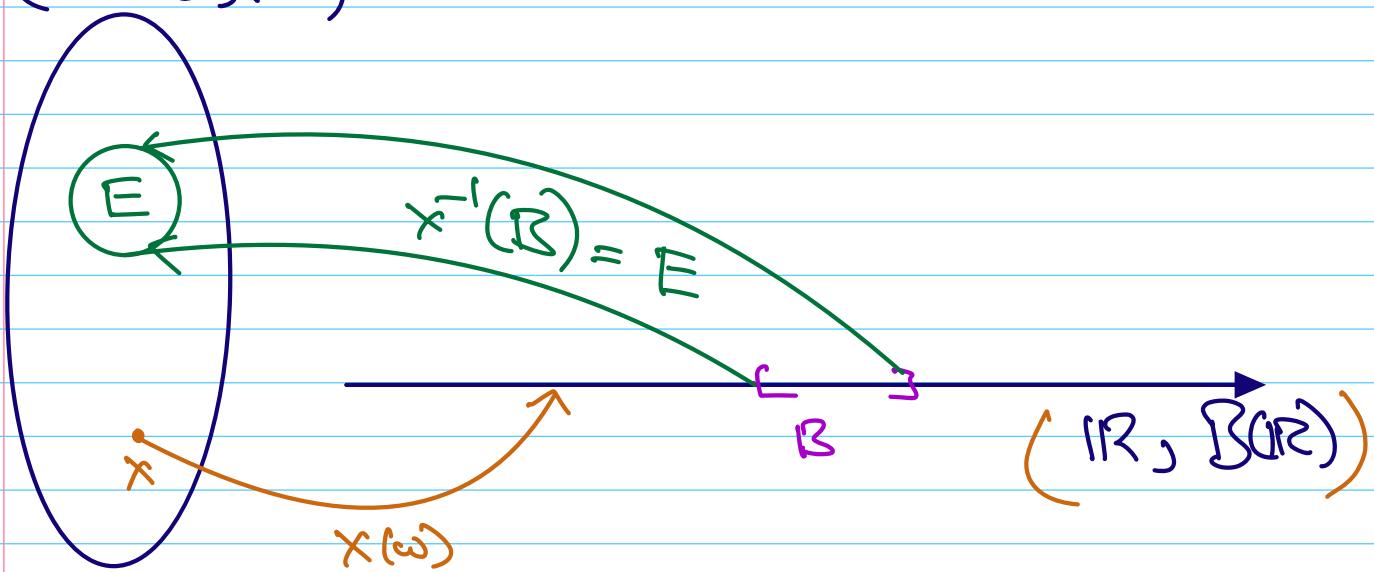
Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space.
then the random variable X on the probability space
is a \mathcal{F} -measurable function

$$X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

\Rightarrow in other words, for every Borel set B
its pre-image $X^{-1}(B)$ is an event.

- * $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, X s.t. X maps ω to real number
- * B is a Borel set i.e. $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$
- * The inverse image of B is a event $E \in \mathcal{F}$

$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \text{IP})$



why do we insist that we want a RV to be this very special function, \mathcal{F} -measurable function. What is the problem with saying all the function's mapping form

$\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are random variables?

- * Because, ultimately the probability measure is only defined for \mathcal{F} -mea-

suitable sets. if you give me some arbitrary subsets of omega (Ω) , it may not be an event , and we may not define Probability measure for it.

- + what we ultimately want to do is assign Probability measure to Borel sets on \mathbb{R} .
- + so, if we have a Borel set whose pre-image $X^{-1}(\beta)$ is not \mathcal{F} -measurable , we cannot assign Probability to Borel set on \mathbb{R} . so A r.v has to be a \mathcal{F} -measurable function.

Def: Probability Law of random variable X :

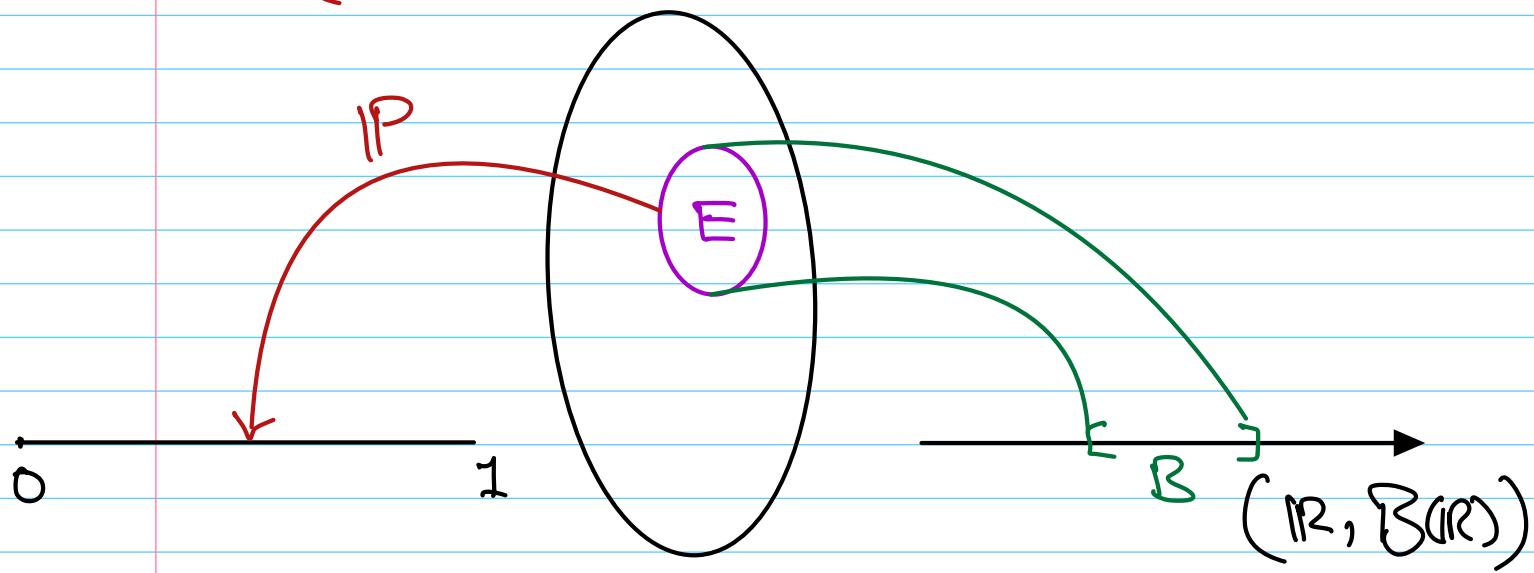
The Probability law of a r.v X is a function

$P_X : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow [0,1]$, which is defined as

$$P_X(B) \triangleq P(X^{-1}(B)) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in B\})$$

↑
original measure on (Ω, \mathcal{F})

(Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)



two function's are involving here

$$P_X = P \circ X^{-1} =$$

$$P_X(B) = P \circ X^{-1}(B)$$

$$= P(X^{-1}(B))$$

$$= \text{IP}(\{\in\})$$

\Rightarrow let's divide into 2 function's

$$\text{IP}_x : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow [0,1]$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{IP}_0 x^{-1}(\cdot) : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow [0,1]$$



Step 1

$$x^{-1}(\cdot) : \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow \mathcal{G}$$

Step 2

$$\text{IP}(\cdot) : \mathcal{G} \longrightarrow [0,1]$$

Example:

$$B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) \quad \& \quad x^{-1}(B) = E \in \mathcal{G}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{IP}_x(B) = \text{IP}(x^{-1}(B)) = \text{IP}(E)$$

$$IP_x = IP_0 x^{-1}$$

(IP composition x^{-1})

IP = Original Probability measure
on (Ω, \mathcal{F})

IP_x = Induced Probability measure
on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$

Theorem: $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), IP_x)$ is a
Probability measure.

Proof:

① $IP_x(\emptyset) = IP_0 x^{-1}(\emptyset)$
 $= IP(x^{-1}(\emptyset))$
 $= IP(\emptyset)$
 $= 0$

② $IP_x(\mathbb{R}) = IP_0 x^{-1}(\mathbb{R})$
 $= IP(x^{-1}(\mathbb{R}))$

$$= \text{IP}(\Omega)$$

$$= 1$$

Q. What does a random variable do?

Why are we defining it?

Ans: it effectively pushes , the measure IP on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) onto $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$

and

IP_x is the probability measure induced on the Real Line.

- Once we have $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), \text{IP}_x)$ and we can throw away $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \text{IP})$ because we are only interested in X .

Example: if we are interested in Number of Heads in 3 coin tosses

then

$$\Omega = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{HHH} \\ \text{HHT} \\ \text{HTH} \\ \text{THH} \\ \text{TTT} \\ \text{TTH} \\ \text{THT} \\ \text{HTT} \end{array} \right\}, |\Omega| = 8$$

$$\mathcal{Y} = 2^\Omega, |\mathcal{Y}| = 2^8$$

$$P(\{\omega\}) = \frac{1}{8}$$

or X : Number of heads in 3 coin tosses.

then the new sample space

$$\Omega_{\text{new}} = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, |\Omega_{\text{new}}| = 4$$

$$\mathcal{Y}_{\text{new}} = 2^{\Omega_{\text{new}}}, |\mathcal{Y}_{\text{new}}| = 2^4$$

$$P_X(\{0\}) = \frac{1}{8}, P_X(\{1\}) = \frac{3}{8}, P_X(2) = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$P_X(\{3\}) = \frac{1}{8}$$

Now we can throw (Ω, \mathcal{Y}, P)

* So, it appears as though, in order to give you a complete description of a S.V., we need to have the $P_x(\cdot)$ for every Borel set. It turns out that we don't need $P_x(\cdot)$ for all Borel sets.

* There are multiple ways to generate Borel sets on Real line \mathbb{R} .

Ex: ① Using open intervals

② Using open closed intervals

③ Using semi-infinite intervals

$(-\infty, x]$ where $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\sigma((-\infty, x]: x \in \mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$$

* The Probability Law IP_x that defined
on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ for all Borel sets
must be defined for semi-interval
subsets (The generating class)

* Note that: sets of form $(-\infty, x]$ where
 $x \in \mathbb{R}$ are Borel sets.

$\Rightarrow \text{IP}_x(\cdot)$ is defined well on generating
class $(-\infty, x]$

$\Rightarrow \text{IP}_x((-\infty, x])$ is well defined

$\Rightarrow \text{IP}_x((-\infty, x]) \triangleq \text{IP}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid x(\omega) \leq x\})$

this is called CDF

$$F_x(x) = \text{IP}_x((-\infty, x])$$

$$= \text{IP}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid x(\omega) \leq x\})$$

in short hand notation

$\text{IP}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \leq x\})$ is written

as $\text{IP}_X(X \leq x)$. its a abusive
notation, but its a short hand.

$\text{IP}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \in B\})$

= $\text{IP}_X(X \in B)$

abusive notion but we
use this

π - system:

A collection \mathcal{G} of subsets of
 Ω is said to be a π -system if

$$A, B \in \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{G}$$

only finite intersection, No compliments

No countable union's & intersection.

\Rightarrow this is weaker than algebra also.

one of the most commonly used π -system
on \mathbb{R} is the class of all closed
semi-infinite intervals

$$\pi(\mathbb{R}) \triangleq \{(-\infty, x]: x \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

The σ -algebra generated by $\pi(\mathbb{R})$ is the
Borel σ -algebra $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R}))$

- * there is a non-trivial result in measure theory. if we uniquely specify a measure on a π -system, it gets uniquely specified on σ -algebra generated by \mathcal{G} .

Theorem: Uniqueness of extension, π -system's.

Let \mathcal{G} be a π -system on Ω , and $\mathcal{F} = \sigma(\mathcal{G})$. Let

IP_1 & IP_2 are two probability measure on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) that 'agree' on \mathcal{G} .
i.e $IP_1 = IP_2$ on \mathcal{G} , then $IP_1 = IP_2$

on \mathcal{F} .

Explanation:

$$\mathcal{F} = \sigma(\mathcal{G})$$

where \mathcal{G} is a π -system.

* Now let's take two probability space

$$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, IP_1) \text{ & } (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, IP_2)$$

* these both agree on \mathcal{G} i.e

$$IP_1(\mathcal{G}) = IP_2(\mathcal{G})$$

* Then

$$IP_1(\mathcal{F}) = IP_2(\mathcal{F})$$

- + if we uniquely specify measure on π -system
then the measure is uniquely specified
on the entire σ -algebra.
- + Why is this useful. because π -system
are easy, σ -algebra is difficult.

Now, $\pi(\mathbb{R}) \triangleq \{(-\infty, x] \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$
is a π -system

$$\sigma(\pi(\mathbb{R})) = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$$

- + SO, if we specify CDF (which is simply specifying the Probability measure on the $\pi(\mathbb{R})$)
then it get uniquely specified on entire
Borel σ -algebra.

Theorem: The CDF $F_X(\cdot)$ is

uniquely specifies the probability law

\mathbb{P}_X for any s.r.v X

\Rightarrow if you tell me CDF of a s.r.v, we
can uniquely specify probability measure
 \mathbb{P}_X on entire Borel σ -algebra.

* In general \mathbb{P}_X is the complete
description of s.r.v X , BUT in practice
we use $F_X(\cdot)$, because it captures
all the information $\mathbb{P}_X(\cdot)$.