Lecture 7: Conditional Probability - Part IV & Discrete Random Variables

Satyajit Thakor IIT Mandi

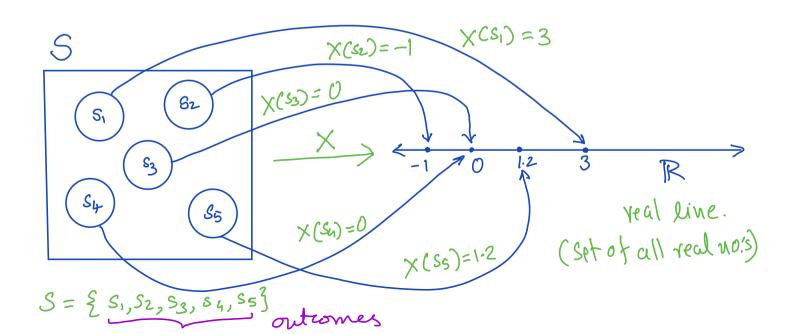
- ▶ Usually, we may not be interested in the outcome of an experiment itself but rather in some numerical function of the outcome or an event.
- The <u>idea of random variable</u> enables us to put aside the complex structure of the sample space and its events by assigning a real number to the elements of the sample space.
- ▶ Thus we can simply work with numbers rather than complexly defined outcomes and events.
- Given an experiment with sample space S, a random variable (r.v.) is a function from the sample space S to the real numbers \mathbb{R} .

A random variable is a function: 5 -> 12.

▶ It is common to <u>denote</u> random variables by <u>capital letters</u>. For example,

$$X:S\to\mathbb{R}$$

denotes a random variable X and to each $s \in S$ it assigns a numerical value (real number) X(s).



- Example: Consider an experiment where we toss a fair coin twice. The sample space consists of four possible outcomes: $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$. Here are some random variables on this space. Each r.v. is a numerical summary of some aspect of the experiment.
- Let X be the number of Heads. Then:

$$X(HH)=2$$
, $X(HT)=X(TH)=1$, $X(TT)=0$.

Let Y be the number of Tails.

The r.v. Y is a function of the x.v. X.

Let I be 1 if the first toss is Heads and 0 otherwise.

$$I(HH) = I(HT) = I$$
, Such an r.v. is called an "indicator" r.v. $I(TH) = I(TT) = 0$. Since it indicates whether an event has occurred(1) or not (0).

- Note that, a random variable is <u>neither random</u> <u>nor a variable!</u> It is a function.
- ▶ The source of randomness is the choice of an outcome (form S) of the experiment according to the probability function P.
- A random variable X is said to be **discrete** if there is a finite list of values a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n or an <u>infinite</u> list of values a_1, a_2, \ldots such that $P(X = a_j \text{ for some } j) = 1$. i.e., $P(X = a_i \text{ or } X = a_2 \text{ or } \cdots) = 1$
- If X is a discrete r.v., then the finite or countably infinite set of values x such that P(X = x) > 0 is called the support of X.
- ► Example: In the "Two-coin" experiment

-P(
$$X=0$$
 or $X=1$ or $X=2$) = 1.
-The set $\{0,1,2\}$ is finite. Hence, X is a discrete random variable.

- ▶ Given a random variable, we would like to be able to describe its behaviour using the language of probability.
- For example, we might want to answer questions about the probability that the r.v. will fall into a given range: if L is the lifetime earnings of a randomly chosen U.S. college graduate, what is the probability that L exceeds a million dollars?

- ► The <u>distribution</u> of a random variable provides the answers to such <u>questions</u>.
- There are several equivalent ways to express the distribution of an r.v., e.g., <u>cumulative distribution function</u>, <u>probability mass</u> function.
- ► For a discrete r.v., the most natural way to do so is with a probability mass function.

i.e.,
$$k_x: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$$
.

- The probability mass function (PMF) of a discrete r.v. X is the function p_X given by $p_X(x) = P(X = x)$. Note that this is positive if x is in the support of X, and 0 otherwise.
- Note that the event that X takes the value x, i.e.,

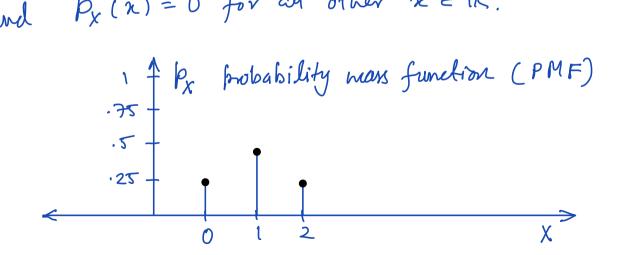
The subscript x is used to
$$\{X = x\}$$
 specify that the PMF is for X (not for Some another $r.v.Y$) is equivalent to the event that "s occurred where $X(s) = x$ ", i.e.,

$$\underbrace{\{s \in S : X(s) = x\}.}_{\text{e.g.,}} \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} \zeta^{\text{S}_{1}} & \zeta^{\text{S}_{2}} \\ \xi \text{ HT, TH} \end{array}}_{\text{TH}} \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} \zeta^{\text{C}_{1}} & \chi(\text{HT}) = 1 \\ \chi(\text{TH}) = 1 \end{array}}_{\text{TH}}$$

- ▶ But the notation $\{X = x\}$ is shorter, more convenient and does not involve reference to the sample space.
- Example: In the "Two-coins" example $\{X = 1\}$ refers to $\{HT, TH\}$, i.e., the event that "the outcome is HT or TH".

- Example: Find the PMFs of all the random variables in the "Two-coins" example considering fair coins.
- \triangleright X: the number of Heads.

$$P_{X}(0) = P(X=0) = 1/4$$
,
 $P_{X}(1) = P(X=1) = 1/2$,
 $P_{X}(2) = P(X=2) = 1/4$,
 $P_{X}(x) = 0$ for all other $x \in \mathbb{R}$.



 \triangleright Y: the number of Tails.

 \triangleright I: 1 if the first toss is Heads and 0 otherwise.

$$p_{I}(0) = 1/2, \quad p_{I}(1) = 1/2.$$

- Homework: Plot PMFs for Y and I.

Conditional probability

Monty Hall problem

- Example: On a TV game show, hosted by Monty Hall, a contestant chooses one of three closed doors, two of which have a goat behind them and one of which has a car. Monty, who knows where the car is, then opens one of the two remaining doors. The door he opens always has a goat behind it (he never reveals the car!). If he has a choice, then he picks a door at random with equal probabilities. Monty then offers the contestant the option of switching to the other unopened door.
- ► If the <u>contestant</u>'s goal is to get the car, should <u>she</u> switch doors?
 - Let W be the event that she wins.
 - We want to find the best of the two strategies to win (i.e., the one with the higher prob. of winning)
 Strategies: O Switch, O No Switch.

Conditional probability

- Let Ci be the event that the car is behind door i.
- Assume without loss of generality that she picks the the door I (else we can relabel/vename the doors)
- Then:
- 1) P(W) = P(W/C1). P(C1) + P(W/C2). P(C2) + P(W/C3) P(C3) Since switch from door (given that the our is behind door) = 0.1/3 + 1.1/3 + 1.1/3 = 2/3.
- (2) $P(W) = P(W|C_1) \cdot P(C_1) + P(W|C_2) \cdot P(C_2) + P(W|C_3) P(C_3)$ $=1.\frac{1}{3}+0.\frac{1}{3}+0.\frac{1}{3}=\frac{1}{3}$
- Hene, to switch is the best strategy (from () & (2))