

# Mathematical Statistics I

## Chapter 1: Probability

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1. Introduction

2. Discrete Random Variables

Bernoulli Random Variables

# Introduction

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# Introduction

Formally, a **random variable** is a function from a sample space  $\Omega$  to the real numbers<sup>1</sup>.

That is, for any element  $\omega \in \Omega$ , a random variable  $X$  will map  $\omega$  to a real number:  $X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Most often people think of random variables as random numbers rather than functions; in most instances in this class, this treatment will be sufficient.

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<sup>1</sup>In this class, will assume real-valued spaces, though more generally a random variable can map to any measureable space

## Example of a random variable

Consider the experiment of flipping three coins. The sample space is

$$\Omega = \{hhh, hht, hth, thh, htt, tht, tth, ttt\}.$$

Some possible random variables include (1) the number of heads, (2) the number of tails, (3) the number of heads minus the number of tails.

Importantly, a random variable must assign a value to all possible outcomes  $\omega \in \Omega$ .

### Number of Heads

Let  $X$  be the random variable representing the number of heads. If the result of the outcome is the event  $hth$ , the  $X(\{hth\}) = 2$ .

## A few comments on random variables

- Sometimes in this course I will use the abbreviation RV to mean “random variable”, and you can do so as well.
- It is conventional to use uppercase letters (math text or italics) to denote random variables.
- While a random variable is a function, the outcome of an experiment  $\omega \in \Omega$  is random (that’s the point), and we only ever see a single outcome. Thus, the fact that  $X$  is a function is often dropped, and we just write  $X$ . The realized value of  $X$  is random, because the input is random.

# Discrete Random Variables

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# Discrete Random Variables

## **Definition: Discrete random variable**

A discrete random variable is a random variable that can take on only a finite or at most a countably infinite number of values.

Example: The number of heads in three coin flips can only be in the set  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . Alternatively, consider flipping a coin indefinitely until you achieve a heads. The possible outcomes are in the set  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ , which is countably infinite.



## Probabilities

The probability measure on the sample space determines the probability of the values of  $X$ . In our example, if a coin is fair, then we can assign a uniform probability measure on the sample set of flipping a coin three times. That is, all outcomes are equally likely, each with probability  $1/8$ . The probability that  $X$  takes on it's potential values is easily computed, by counting the number of outcomes that result in the particular value of  $X$ :

$$P(X = 0) = \frac{1}{8}$$

$$P(X = 1) = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$P(X = 2) = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$P(X = 3) = \frac{1}{8}.$$

## Probabilities III

More generally, let's assume that  $X$  is a discrete RV, and denote the possible values as  $x_1, x_2, \dots$ . There exists a function  $p$  such that  $p(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$  that satisfies  $\sum_i p(x_i) = 1$ . This function  $p$  is called the **probability mass function** (PMF) of the random variable  $X$ .

We may also be interested in calculating for all values  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , the probability  $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ ; the function  $F$  is called the **cumulative distribution function** (CDF). The CDF plays a number of important roles in probability and statistics that we will see later on.

## Probabilities IV

Some notes:

- The CDF is non-decreasing (see Theorem 1.2), and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1.$$

- The PMF and CDF are connected: the CDF “jumps” at all values that the pdf  $p(x) > 0$ .
- Conventionally, the PMF is usually denoted with lower-case letters (e.g.,  $p$ ,  $f$ ), whereas the CDF is usually denoted with upper-case letters (e.g.,  $F$ ).

# Independence

Jumping ahead a little bit, we will define what it means for random variables to be independent (a chapter 3 topic), as it will be useful for our discussions in this chapter.

## Definition: Independent random variables

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be discrete random variables defined on the same probability space, taking values  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  and  $y_1, y_2, \dots$ , respectively.  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to be independent if, for all  $i, j$ ,

$$P(X = x_i, Y = y_j) = P(X = x_i)P(Y = y_j).$$

This definition follows very similarly to that of independent events. Similar to that case, we can extend this definition to **mutual independence** of many variables if the probabilities of all combinations of variables can be factored.

# Bernoulli Random Variables

A Bernoulli RV only takes on two values<sup>2</sup>, 0 and 1, with probabilities  $1 - p$  and  $p$ , respectively. The PMF is therefore

$$p(1) = p$$

$$p(0) = 1 - p$$

$$p(x) = 0, \quad \text{if } x \neq 0 \text{ and } x \neq 1.$$

By using the output of 0 and 1, the PMF is usually written in a more compact form:

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p^x(1-p)^{1-x}, & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ or } x = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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<sup>2</sup>Sometimes you'll see the random variable take values  $-1$  and  $1$ .

# Indicator functions

A common instance of a Bernoulli RV is an **indicator random variable**. Let  $I_A$  be the random variable that takes on the value of 1 if the event  $A \subset \Omega$  occurs, and 0 otherwise:

$$I_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Here, we see that  $P(I_A = 1) = P(A)$ .

Rice (2007)



## References and Acknowledgements

Rice JA (2007). *Mathematical statistics and data analysis*, volume 371. 3 edition. Thomson/Brooks/Cole Belmont, CA.

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