

# Lecture 7

## 1 Common Distributions

### 1.1 Uniform Distribution – $U(S)$

The Uniform distribution, parametrized with a *finite* set  $S$ , is a distribution  $\mu$  over  $S$ , which is defined as  $\mu(s) = \frac{1}{|S|}$  for every  $s \in S$ . Clearly this is a distribution as the support of  $\mu$  is the finite set  $S$ , for every  $s \in S$  we have  $\mu(s) = \frac{1}{|S|} \in [0, 1]$  and  $\sum_{s \in S} \mu(s) = \sum_{s \in S} \frac{1}{|S|} = \frac{|S|}{|S|} = 1$ .

When  $S = \{a, \dots, b\}$  is a set of consecutive integers, we will sometimes write  $X \sim U(a, b)$  instead of  $X \sim U(\{a, a + 1, \dots, b\})$ .

**Example 1:** Let  $X$  be the outcome of one roll of a fair die. As we previously saw  $X \sim U(1, 6)$ .

### 1.2 Bernoulli Distribution – $Ber(p)$

The Bernoulli distribution, parametrized with a real number  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ , is a distribution  $\mu$  over  $\{0, 1\}$ , which is defined as  $\mu(1) = p$  and  $\mu(0) = 1 - p$ . Clearly this is a distribution as the support of  $\mu$  is the finite set  $\{0, 1\}$ , for every  $s \in \{0, 1\}$  we have  $0 \leq \mu(s) \leq 1$  and  $p + (1 - p) = 1$ .

**Example 2:** Let  $A$  be an event with probability  $p$ . Then, as we previously saw,  $1_A$  is random variable which satisfies  $1_A \sim Ber(p)$ . For example, toss a coin with probability  $p$  for heads. Let  $A$  be the event “the outcome of the coin toss is heads”. Then  $1_A \sim Ber(p)$ .

### 1.3 Binomial Distribution – $Bin(n, p)$

The Binomial distribution, parametrized with a natural number  $n$  and a real number  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ , is a distribution  $\mu$  over  $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ , which is defined as

$$\mu(k) = \binom{n}{k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1 - p)^{n-k}$$

for every  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ . This is a distribution as the support of  $\mu$  is the finite set  $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ , and since, moreover,  $\mu(k) \geq 0$  for every  $k$ , it suffices to show that  $\sum_k \mu(k) = 1$ . Indeed

$$\sum_k \mu(k) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1 - p)^{n-k} = (p + (1 - p))^n = 1,$$

where the second equality holds by the binomial formula.

**Example 3:** Toss a coin with probability  $p$  for heads  $n$  times, all coin tosses being mutually independent. Let  $X$  be the total number of tosses whose outcome was heads. Then  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ .

The following theorem relates the Binomial and Bernoulli distributions (and also justifies the example above). Before stating it, we need the following definition.

**Definition 1.1** (Independence of Random Variables). *For every  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , let  $X_i : \Omega \rightarrow S_i$  be a random variable.  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are said to be independent (or mutually independent) if*

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1) \cdot \dots \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_n = x_n)$$

*holds for every  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in S_1 \times \dots \times S_n$ .*

**Theorem 1.2.** *Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and let  $0 \leq p \leq 1$  be a real number. Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  be independent random variables, and let  $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ . Then  $S_n \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ .*

*Proof.* Since every  $X_i$  takes values in  $\{0, 1\}$ , it follows that  $S_n$  takes values in  $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ . For any  $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  define the event

$$A_{\mathcal{I}} = \left( \bigcap_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \{X_i = 1\} \right) \cap \left( \bigcap_{i \notin \mathcal{I}} \{X_i = 0\} \right).$$

Then for every  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$  it holds that

$$\{S_n = k\} = \bigcup_{\mathcal{I}: |\mathcal{I}|=k} A_{\mathcal{I}}.$$

Since these events are pairwise disjoint we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(S_n = k) &= \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{\mathcal{I}: |\mathcal{I}|=k} A_{\mathcal{I}}\right) \\ &= \sum_{\mathcal{I}: |\mathcal{I}|=k} \mathbb{P}(A_{\mathcal{I}}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathcal{I}: |\mathcal{I}|=k} \prod_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) \cdot \prod_{i \notin \mathcal{I}} \mathbb{P}(X_i = 0) \\ &= \sum_{\mathcal{I}: |\mathcal{I}|=k} p^k \cdot (1-p)^{n-k} \\ &= \binom{n}{k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{n-k}, \end{aligned}$$

where the third equality holds since  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent and the fourth equality holds by the definition of the Bernoulli distribution.  $\square$

## 1.4 Geometric Distribution – $\text{Geom}(p)$

The Geometric distribution, parametrized with a real number  $0 < p < 1$ , is a distribution  $\mu$  over  $\mathbb{N}$  (without 0), which is defined as

$$\mu(k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} \cdot p,$$

for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . This is a distribution as the support of  $\mu$  is the countably infinite set  $\mathbb{N}$ , and since, moreover,  $\mu(k) \geq 0$  for every  $k$ , it suffices to show that  $\sum_k \mu(k) = 1$ . Indeed, by the formula for the sum of an infinite geometric series, we have

$$\sum_k \mu(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1 - p)^{k-1} \cdot p = p \cdot \frac{1}{1 - (1 - p)} = 1.$$

**Example 4:** Toss a coin with probability  $p$  for heads until the first time the outcome is heads, all coin tosses being mutually independent. Let  $X$  be the total number of tosses. Then  $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$ . Indeed, if  $X = k$ , then in each of the first  $k - 1$  tosses the outcome was tails and in the  $k$ th toss it was heads. Since all coin tosses are mutually independent, this happens with probability  $(1 - p)^{k-1} \cdot p$ .

## 1.5 Hypergeometric Distribution – $\text{Hyp}(N, D, n)$

The Hypergeometric distribution, parametrized with 3 natural numbers  $N, D$ , and  $n$ , is a distribution  $\mu$  over  $\{\max\{0, n + D - N\}, \dots, \min\{n, D\}\}$ , which is defined as

$$\mu(k) = \frac{\binom{D}{k} \cdot \binom{N-D}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

for every  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ . The proof that  $\mu$  is a distribution is left as an exercise.

**Example 5:** Consider an urn that contains  $N$  balls of which  $D$  are red and  $N - D$  are blue. We draw  $n$  balls uniformly at random from the urn *without* replacement. Let  $X$  be the number of red balls that were drawn from the urn. Then  $X \sim \text{Hyp}(N, D, n)$ . Indeed, since the balls are drawn uniformly without replacement, it follows that

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \frac{|\{X = k\}|}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

for every  $0 \leq k \leq n$ . Moreover, every choice of  $k$  red balls and  $n - k$  blue balls is counted exactly once in  $\{X = k\}$ . Hence  $|\{X = k\}| = \binom{D}{k} \cdot \binom{N-D}{n-k}$ . We conclude that

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \frac{\binom{D}{k} \cdot \binom{N-D}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

as claimed

**Remark 1.3.** *If the balls are drawn **with** replacement (and still independently and uniformly at random), then  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, D/N)$ . Whenever  $n$  is “much smaller” than  $N$  and  $D$ , the binomial distribution  $\text{Bin}(n, D/N)$  is a good approximation of the hypergeometric distribution  $\text{Hyp}(N, D, n)$ .*