## Lecture 6

With every random variable, we would like to associate a probability function that will represent the probability that X returns a specific value. Such functions are called distributions.

**Definition 0.1** (Distribution). Let S be some set. A distribution over S is a function  $\mu: S \to [0,1]$  such that the set  $\{x \in S : \mu(x) \neq 0\}$  is finite or infinitely countable, and

$$\sum_{x \in S} \mu(x) = 1.$$

The set  $\{x \in S : \mu(x) \neq 0\}$  is called the support of  $\mu$ . We will also denote by

$$\sum_{x} \mu(x),$$

the sum over all elements in the support of  $\mu$ . This sum is well-defined since  $\mu$  is a non-negative function.

## Example 1:

- 1. Let  $S = \mathbb{R}$ , let  $\mu(1) = \mu(0) = \frac{1}{2}$ , and let  $\mu(x) = 0$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ .
- 2. Let  $S = \mathbb{R}$ , let  $\mu(k) = \frac{1}{2^k}$  for every positive integer k, and let  $\mu(k) = 0$  for every other real number k.
- 3. For every probability space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$ , the function  $\mathbb{P} : \Omega \to [0, 1]$  is a distribution over  $S = \Omega$ .

**Definition 0.2** (Distribution of a Random Variable). Let  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space, and let  $X : \Omega \to S$  be a random variable. The distribution of X is a distribution over S, which will be denoted by  $\mu_X$ , and is defined as

$$\mu_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x) \text{ for every } x \in S.$$

**Remark 0.3.** We will use X = x to indicate the event  $\{X = x\}$ , which is in fact the event

$$\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\}$$
.

**Example 2:** We revisit the cases listed in an example from Lecture 5.

1. A fair die is rolled twice, the two rolls being independent. Let X be the sum of the two outcomes. Then X is a random variable taking values in  $\{2, 3, ..., 12\}$  with positive probability, that is, the set  $\{2, 3, ..., 12\}$  is the *support* of  $\mu_X$ . The distribution of X is then

$$\mu_X(2) = \mathbb{P}(X = 2) = \mathbb{P}(\{(1, 1)\}) = \frac{1}{36},$$

$$\mu_X(3) = \mathbb{P}(X = 3) = \mathbb{P}(\{(1, 2), (2, 1)\}) = \frac{2}{36},$$

and so on. In general we have

$$\mu_X(j) = \begin{cases} \frac{j-1}{36} & \text{if } 2 \le j \le 7\\ \frac{13-j}{36} & \text{if } 8 \le j \le 12\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Indeed, let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  denote the result of the first and second die rolls, respectively. Assume first that  $x_1 + x_2 = j$  for some  $2 \le j \le 7$ . Since  $x_2 \ge 1$ , it follows that  $1 \le x_1 \le j - 1$ . Moreover, for every such value of  $x_1$ , there is exactly one possibility for the value of  $x_2$ , namely,  $x_2 = j - x_1$ . Assume now that  $x_1 + x_2 = j$  for some  $8 \le j \le 12$ . Since  $x_2 \le 6$ , it follows that  $j - 6 \le x_1 \le 6$ ; the number of choices for  $x_1$  is thus 6 - (j - 6) + 1 = 13 - j. Moreover, for every such value of  $x_1$ , there is exactly one possibility for the value of  $x_2$ , namely,  $x_2 = j - x_1$ .

We will sometimes write

$$X \sim \begin{cases} 2 & 1/36 \\ 3 & 2/36 \\ \vdots & & \\ 12 & 1/36 \end{cases}$$

2. A coin with probability 1/3 for heads is tossed 4 times, all coin tosses being mutually independent. Let  $Y_1$  be the number of heads in the first two tosses, and let  $Y_2$  be the number of heads in the second and third tosses. Then the support of  $\mu_{Y_1}$  is  $\{0, 1, 2\}$  and its distribution is

$$Y_1 \sim \begin{cases} 0 & 4/9 \\ 1 & 4/9 \\ 2 & 1/9 \end{cases}$$

Similarly

$$Y_2 \sim \begin{cases} 0 & 4/9 \\ 1 & 4/9 \\ 2 & 1/9 \end{cases}$$

Observe that even though  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are distributed exactly the same, i.e.,  $\mu_{Y_1} \equiv \mu_{Y_2}$ , there is no equality between the two random variables, since as functions over  $\Omega$  they return different values, e.g.,

$$Y_1((0,0,1,1)) = 0 \neq 1 = Y_2((0,0,1,1)).$$

In general, we say that two random variables, X and Y, have the same distribution if

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(Y = x)$$

holds for every x.

**Remark 0.4.** If X = Y (as functions), then they have the same distribution.

3. Let  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space, and let  $A \subseteq \Omega$  be an event. Then the *indicator of* A is distributed as follows

$$1_{A} \sim \begin{cases} 1 & \mathbb{P}(A) \\ 0 & 1 - \mathbb{P}(A) \end{cases}$$

We prove that the distribution of a random variable is indeed a distribution.

Claim 0.5. The distribution of a random variable X over S is a distribution over S.

*Proof.* Let  $T = \{x \in S : \exists \omega \in \Omega \text{ such that } X(\omega) = x\}$  be the image of X. The support of  $\mu_X$  is

$${x \in S : \mu_X(x) \neq 0} = {x \in S : \mathbb{P}(X = x) > 0} \subseteq T,$$

where the inclusion holds since if  $\mathbb{P}(X = x) > 0$ , then  $\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\} \neq \emptyset$ . Since, moreover,  $|T| \leq |\Omega|$  (as  $X : \Omega \to T$  is onto T) and  $\Omega$  is finite or infinitely countable (as  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$  is a probability space), it follows that the support of  $\mu_X$  is finite or infinitely countable. Since

$$\mu_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x) \in [0, 1],$$

for every  $x \in S$ , it remains to verify that

$$\sum_{x} \mu_X(x) = 1.$$

Note that T is finite or infinitely countable and observe that

$$\sum_{x} \mu_X(x) = \sum_{x \in T} \mu_X(x) = \sum_{x \in T} \mathbb{P}(X = x).$$

Moreover

$$\bigcup_{x \in T} \{X = x\} = \bigcup_{x \in T} \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\} = \Omega,$$

where the last equality holds by the definition of T. Furthermore, these events are pairwise disjoint (as X is a function). Hence

$$\sum_{x \in T} \mathbb{P}\left(X = x\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{x \in T} \left\{X = x\right\}\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\Omega\right) = 1.$$

## 0.1 Pairs of Random Variables

**Definition 0.6** (Joint and Marginal Distribution). Let  $X, Y : \Omega \to S$  be two random variables over the same probability space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$ . Then we can view (X, Y) as a single random variable  $(X, Y) : \Omega \to S^2$ , defined as

$$(X,Y)(\omega) = (X(\omega),Y(\omega)) \in S^2.$$

The distribution of this random variable is

$$\mu_{(X,Y)}(x,y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)$$

over  $S^2$ , and it will be called the joint distribution of X and Y. The distributions of X and Y when considered separately, are called marginal distributions.

Recall the following example from the previous lecture: a coin with probability 1/3 for heads is tossed 4 times, all coin tosses being mutually independent. Let  $Y_1$  be the number of heads in the first two tosses, let  $Y_2$  be the number of heads in the second and third tosses, and let  $Y_3$  be the number of heads in the last two tosses. What is the *joint distribution* of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ ? The support of both  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  is  $\{0,1,2\}$ . Hence the support of  $(Y_1,Y_2)$  is a subset of  $\{0,1,2\}^2$ . Since the support is small, it will be convenient in this case to represent the joint distribution in a table. The joint distribution of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  is described in Table 1.

$Y_2 \backslash Y_1$	0	1	2
0	$\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^3 = \frac{8}{27}$	$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{4}{27}$	0
1	$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{4}{27}$	$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{6}{27}$	$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{27}$
2	0	$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{27}$	$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{27}$

Table 1

We next compute the *joint distribution* of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_3$ . Observe that for every x and y, the events  $Y_1 = x$  and  $Y_3 = y$  are independent, since they correspond to the outcomes of two pairs of independent coin tosses. Their joint distribution is described in Table 2.

Recall that the marginal distribution of  $Y_2$  equals the marginal distribution of  $Y_3$ . However, Table 1 and Table 2 demonstrate that the joint distribution of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_3$  is different from the joint distribution of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ . In other words, the marginal distributions do not determine the joint distribution. On the other hand, the marginal distributions are determined by the joint distribution. This is done as follows

$$\{X=x\}=\bigcup_y(\{X=x\}\cap\{Y=y\}),$$

$Y_3 \backslash Y_1$	0	1	2
0	$\left(\frac{4}{9}\right)^2$	$\left(\frac{4}{9}\right)^2$	$\frac{4}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{9}$
1	$\left(\frac{4}{9}\right)^2$	$\left(\frac{4}{9}\right)^2$	$\frac{4}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{9}$
2	$\frac{4}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{4}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{9}$

Table 2

and the events are pairwise disjoint. Therefore

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \sum_{y} \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y).$$