

2 Random Variable

⇒ A random variable is a mapping

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

that assigns a real number $X(\omega)$ to each outcome ω .

⇒ Most of the probability course, the sample space is hardly mentioned, we work directly with random variables.

⇒ Given a random variable X and a subset A of a real line, define $X^{-1}(A) = \{\omega \in \Omega: X(\omega) \in A\}$

$$P(X \in A) = P(X^{-1}(A)) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega: X(\omega) \in A\})$$

$$P(X = x) = P(X^{-1}(x)) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega: X(\omega) = x\})$$

$X \Rightarrow$ denotes random variable

$x \Rightarrow$ denotes a particular value of X .

* Distribution Function and Probability Functions

⇒ The cumulative distribution function or CDF is the function $F_X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$ defined by

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

⇒ Theorem: Let X have CDF F and let Y have CDF G . If $F(x) = G(x) \forall x$, then $P(X \in A) = P(Y \in A) \forall A$.

⇒ X is discrete if it takes countably many values $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$. We define the probability function or probability mass function for X by $f_X(x) = P(X=x)$.

⇒ A random variable X is continuous if there exist a function f_X such that $f_X(x) \geq 0 \forall x$, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$ and for every $a \leq b$

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx$$

The function f_X is called Probability density function (PDF).

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt$$

and $f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx} (F_X(x))$ at all point at which F_X is differentiable.

⇒ Let X be a random variable with CDF F . The inverse CDF or quantile function is defined by

$$F^{-1}(a) = \inf \{x: F(x) \geq a\}$$

↓
Infimum

$\forall a \in [0, 1]$

$$X \stackrel{d}{=} Y \text{ — if } F_X(x) = F_Y(x) \quad \forall x$$

This does not mean that X and Y are equal. Rather, it means that all probability statements about X and Y will be the same.

★ Some important discrete random variables

$X \sim F \Rightarrow X$ has distribution F

Point Mass Distribution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \forall x = a \\ 0 & \forall x \neq a \end{cases}$$

Discrete Uniform Distribution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/K & \forall x = 1, \dots, K \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Bernoulli distribution

→ Let x be binary
→ If $P(X=1)=p$ & $P(X=0)=1-p$
for $p \in [0,1]$. We say X has a Bernoulli distribution.

→ $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$

$$f(x) = p^x (1-p)^{1-x} \quad \forall x \in \{0,1\}$$

Binomial distribution

$X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} & \forall x=0, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Geometric Distribution

$X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$

$$f(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1} \quad \forall x \geq 1$$

Poisson distribution

$X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$

$$f(x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \quad x \geq 0$$

★ Some important Continuous Random Variables

Uniform Distribution $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \forall x \in [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Normal (Gaussian) $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2\right\}$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\mu \in \mathbb{R} \quad \& \quad \sigma > 0$$

↓
mean

↓
standard deviation

⇒ We say that X has a standard Normal distribution if $\mu=0$ & $\sigma=1$.

- Standard normal random variable is denoted by Z
- PDF and CDF of a standard Normal are denoted by $\phi(z)$ and $\Phi(z)$

⇒ Important facts about normal distribution:

→ If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then,

$$Z = (X - \mu) / \sigma \sim N(0, 1)$$

→ If $Z \sim N(0, 1)$, then

$$X = \mu + \sigma Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

→ If $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$, $i=1, \dots, n$ are independent then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2\right)$$

Exponential distribution

$$X \sim \text{Exp}(\beta)$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-x/\beta} \quad x > 0$$

(where $\beta > 0$)

→ Used to model the lifetime of electronic components and the waiting times between rare events.

Gamma distribution

$$X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$$

~~Gamma function~~ ⇒ $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^{\infty} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$

↓
Gamma function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} \quad x > 0$$

Where $\alpha, \beta > 0$

\Rightarrow The exponential distribution is just a $\text{Gamma}(1, \beta)$ distribution.

\Rightarrow If $X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_i, \beta)$ are independent then $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i, \beta)$

Beta distribution $X \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}$$

$0 < \alpha < 1$

t and Cauchy distribution $X \sim t_v$

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{v+1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{v}{2})} \frac{1}{(1 + \frac{x^2}{v})^{\frac{v+1}{2}}}$$

\rightarrow The t distribution is similar to a Normal but it has thicker tails.

\rightarrow Normal corresponds to t with $v = \infty$.

\rightarrow Cauchy distribution is a special case of t corresponding to $v = 1$.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}$$

χ^2 Distribution $X \sim \chi_p^2$

→ X has a χ^2 distribution with p degree of freedom if

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(p/2) 2^{p/2}} x^{(p/2)-1} e^{-x/2}, x > 0$$

* Bivariate Distributions

⇒ Given a pair of discrete random variable X and Y , define the joint mass function by $f(x, y) = P(X=x \text{ \& } Y=y)$.

⇔

$P(X=x, Y=y)$
→ We write f as f_{XY} when we want to be more explicit.

⇒ In the continuous case, we call a function $f(x, y)$ a PDF for the random variable (X, Y) if

(i) $f(x, y) \geq 0 \quad \forall (x, y)$

(ii) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy = 1$

(iii) \forall set $A \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$, $P((X, Y) \in A)$
 $= \int \int_A f(x, y) dx dy$

⇒ In the discrete or continuous case we define the joint CDF as $F_{XY}(x, y)$
 $= P(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$

* Marginal Distribution

⇒ If (X, Y) have joint distribution with mass function f_{XY} , then the marginal mass function for X is defined by

$$f_X(x) = P(X=x) = \sum_y P(X=x, Y=y) = \sum_y f(x, y)$$

⇒ For continuous random variables, the marginal densities are

$$f_X(x) = \int f(x, y) dy$$

* Independent Random Variable

⇒ Two random variables X and Y are independent if for every A and B ,

$$P(X \in A, Y \in B) = P(X \in A) P(Y \in B)$$

and we write $X \perp Y$.

↳ Otherwise we say that X and Y are dependent and we write $X \not\perp Y$.

Theorem

Theorem

* \subseteq

⇒

⇒

Theorem: Let X and Y have joint PDF $f_{X,Y}$. Then $X \perp Y$ if and only if $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y) \quad \forall x, y$.

Theorem: Suppose that the range of X and Y is a (possibly infinite) rectangle. If $f(x,y) = g(x) h(y)$ for some functions g and h (not necessarily probability density function) then X and Y are independent.

* Conditional Distribution

\Rightarrow The conditional probability mass function is

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = P(X=x|Y=y) = \frac{P(X=x, Y=y)}{P(Y=y)}$$

$$= \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)} \quad \text{if } f_Y(y) > 0$$

\Rightarrow For continuous random variables, the conditional probability density function is

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}$$

assuming that $f_Y(y) > 0$. Then,

$$P(X \in A | Y=y) = \int_A f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx$$

* Multivariate Distributions and IID Samples

⇒ Let $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ where X_1, \dots, X_n are random variables.

→ Let $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ denote the PDF.

→ We call X a random vector.

→ We say that X_1, \dots, X_n are independent if, for every A_1, \dots, A_n ,

$$P(X_1 \in A_1, \dots, X_n \in A_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \in A_i)$$

→ It suffices to check that

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{X_i}(x_i)$$

⇒ If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and each has the same marginal distribution with CDF F , we say that X_1, \dots, X_n are IID (independent and identically distributed) and we write

$$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim F$$

→ If F has density f we also write $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim f$. We also call X_1, \dots, X_n a random sample of size n from F .

* Two important Multivariate Distribution

Multinomial

→ The multivariate version of a Binomial is called a Multinomial.

$$f(x) = \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_k} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \dots p_k^{x_k}$$

⇒ Suppose that $X \sim \text{Multinomial}(n, p)$
where $X = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$ and $p = (p_1, \dots, p_k)$
The marginal distribution of X_j is
Binomial (n, p_j)

Multivariate Normal

→ Here μ is a vector and σ is replaced
by a matrix Σ .

$$\text{let } Z = \begin{pmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_k \end{pmatrix}$$

→ $Z_1, \dots, Z_k \sim N(0, 1)$ are independent

→ the density of Z is

$$f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^k f(z_i) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^k z_j^2 \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} z^T z \right\}$$

⇒ We say that Z has a standard multivariate Normal distribution.

$$\hookrightarrow Z \sim N(0, I)$$

{Vector of
zeros}

{ $K \times K$ Identity
matrix}

⇒ More generally, a vector X has a multivariate Normal distribution, denoted by $X \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$, if it has density

$$f(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{K/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right\}$$

where, $|\Sigma|$ denotes the determinant of Σ

→ μ is a vector of length K

→ Σ is $K \times K$ symmetric, positive definite matrix.

⇒ It can be shown that there exists a matrix $\Sigma^{1/2}$ (called the square root of Σ) with the following properties:

→ $\Sigma^{1/2}$ is symmetric

$$\rightarrow \Sigma = \Sigma^{1/2} \Sigma^{1/2}$$

$$\rightarrow \Sigma^{1/2} \Sigma^{-1/2} = I \quad \text{where} \quad \Sigma^{-1/2} = (\Sigma^{1/2})^{-1}$$

Theorem

⇒

Theorem

Theorem: If $Z \sim N(0, I)$ and $X = \mu + \Sigma^{1/2} Z$
then $X \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$.

\hookrightarrow Conversely, if $X \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ then
 $\Sigma^{-1/2}(X - \mu) \sim N(0, I)$.

\Rightarrow Suppose we partition a random Normal
vector X as $X = (X_a, X_b)$

↳ we can similarly partition

$$\mu = (\mu_a, \mu_b)$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{aa} & \Sigma_{ab} \\ \Sigma_{ba} & \Sigma_{bb} \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem: Let $X \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$. Then:

(1) The marginal distribution of X_a
is $X_a \sim N(\mu_a, \Sigma_{aa})$

(2) The conditional distribution of X_b
given $X_a = x_a$ is

$$X_b | X_a = x_a \sim N\left(\mu_b + \Sigma_{ba} \Sigma_{aa}^{-1} (x_a - \mu_a), \Sigma_{bb} - \Sigma_{ba} \Sigma_{aa}^{-1} \Sigma_{ab}\right)$$

(3) If a is a vector then $a^T X \sim N(a^T \mu, a^T \Sigma a)$

$$(4) V = (X - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu) \sim \chi_k^2$$

★ Transformation of Random Variable

⇒ Suppose that X is a random variable with PDF f_X and CDF F_X .

↳ Let $Y = g(X)$ be a function of X
↳ We call $Y = g(X)$ a transformation of X .

⇒ The mass function of Y is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(y) &= P(Y=y) = P(g(X)=y) \\ &= P(\{x; g(x)=y\}) = P(X \in g^{-1}(y)) \end{aligned}$$

For Continuous Case

- 1) For each y , find set $A_y = \{x; g(x) \leq y\}$
- 2) Find the CDF

$$\begin{aligned} F_Y(y) &= P(Y \leq y) = P(g(X) \leq y) \\ &= P(\{x; g(x) \leq y\}) \\ &= \int_{A_y} f_X(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

- 3) The PDF is $f_Y(y) = F_Y'(y)$

→ When g is strictly monotonic increasing or strictly monotonic decreasing then g has an inverse $s = g^{-1}$.

↳ In this case one can show that

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(s(y)) \left| \frac{ds(y)}{dy} \right|$$

* Transformations of several Random Variable

1) For each z , find the set $A_z = \{(x, y) : g(x, y) \leq z\}$

2) Find the CDF

$$F_Z(z) = P(Z \leq z) = P(g(X, Y) \leq z)$$

$$= P(\{(x, y) : g(x, y) \leq z\})$$

$$= \iint_{A_z} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy$$

3) Then $f_Z(z) = F_Z'(z)$