

CH 3.1 Random Variables

Definition: Random Variable

Given an experiment with sample space S, a random variable is a function from the sample space S to the real numbers R.

A random variable assigns a numerical value X(s) to each possible outcome. S of the experiment.

CH 3.2 Distributions & Mass prob. functions

Definition: (3.2.1) Discrete Random Variables

A random variable X is said to be discrete if there is a finite list of values $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ or an infinite list of values $a_1, a_2, ...$ such that P(X = a) for some j = 1. If X is a discrete r.v., then finite or countably infinite set of values x s.t. P(X = x) > 0 is called the support of X.

In contrast, a continuous r.v. can take on any real value in an interval.

Definition: (3.2.2) Probability Mass Function

The PMF of a discrete r.v. X is the function p_X given by $p_X(x) = P(X=x)$.

Remark: This is positive if x is in the support of X, and O otherwise.

In writing P(X=x), we use X=x to denote an event, consisting of all outcomes s to which X assigns the number x.

Formally, EX=x} is defined as EseS : X(s) = x}.

Theorem: (3.2.7) Valid PMFs

Let X be a discrete r.v. with support x, , xz , ... (assume these values are distinct and , for motational simplicity , that the support is countably infinite; the analogous results hold if the support is finite). The PMF px must satisfy:

- (c) Nonnegative: $p_x(x) > 0$ if x = x; for some j, and $p_x(x) = 0$ otherwise;
- (ii) Sums to 1: \Sign Px(xj) = 1

Proof:

First criterion is true since probability is non-negative. Second is true since X must take on some value, and the events $\{X = x_j\}$ are disjoint, so

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P(X=x_j) = P\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \{X=x_j\}\right) = P(X=x_i \text{ or } X=x_1 \text{ or } ...) = 1$$

In general, giving a discrete r.v. X and a set B of real numbers, if we know the PMF of X we can find $P(X \in B)$, the probability that X is in B, by summing up the heights of the vertical boxs at points in B in the plot of the PMF of X.

CH 3.3 Bernoulli & Binomial

Definition: (3.3.1) Bernoulli distribution

An ru. X is said to have the Bernoulli distribution with parameter p if P(X=1)=p and P(X=0)=1-p, where $0 We write this as <math>X \sim Bern(p)$. The \sim is read "is distributed as".

Definition: (3.3.2) Indicator Random Variable

The Indicator Random Variable of an event A is the rv which equals 1 if A occurs and 0 otherwise. We will denote the indicator r.v. of A by Ia or I(A). Note that $I_A \sim Bern(p)$ with p=P(A).

Theorem: (3.3.5) Binomial PMF

If X ~ Bin(n,p), then the PMF of X is

$$P(X = K) = \binom{n}{k} p^{k} (1-p)^{n-k}$$

for K=0, $1, \dots, n$ (and P(X=K)=0 otherwise).

Remark: (3.3.6)

If two discrete r.v.s have the same PMF, then they must have the same support.

Proof: (of 3.3.5)

An experiment consisting of n independent Bernoulli trials produce a sequence of successes and failures. The probability of any specific sequence of k successes and n-k failures is $p^{n}(1-p)^{n-k}$. There are $\binom{n}{k}$ such sequences, since we just need to select where the successes are. Therefore, letting X be the number of successes,

$$P(X=K)=\binom{n}{k}p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k}$$

for K=0,1,...,n, and P(X=K)=0 and otherwise. This is a valid PMF because it is nonnegative and sums up to 1 by the binomial theorem.

Theorem: (3.3.7)

Let X2 Bin (n,p), and q=1-p. Then n-X 2 Bin (n,q)

Interpret X as the # of successes in n independent Bernoulli trials. Then n-X is the # of failures in those trials. Then we have $n-X \sim Bin(n,q)$.

Alternatively, let Y= n-x. Then

$$P(Y=K) = P(X=n-k) = \binom{n}{n-k} p^{n-k} q^{k} = \binom{n}{k} q^{k} p^{n-k}$$

for K= 0 , 1 , ... , n

Corollary: (3.3.8)

Let $X \sim Bin(n,p)$, with $p=\frac{1}{2}$ and n even. Then the distribution of X is symmetric about $\frac{1}{2}$, in the rense that $P(X=\frac{1}{2}+j)=P(X=\frac{1}{2}-j)$ for all nonnegative integers j.

Proof:

By theorem 3.3.7 , n-X is also Bin (n. 1/2) , so .

$$P(X=k) = P(n-x=k) = P(X=n-k)$$

for all nonnegative integers. K. Letting. K= 2+j, the desired result follows.

CH 3.4 Hypergeometric

Story: (3.4.1) Hypergeometric Distribution

Consider an urn with w white balls and b black balls. We draw n balls out of the urn at random without replacement, such that all $\binom{m+b}{n}$ samples are equally likely. Let X be the # of white balls in the sample. Then X is said to have the Hypergeometric distribution with parameters w, b, and n; we denote this by $X \sim H$ Geom (w,b,n).

Theorem: (3.4.2) Hypergeometric PMF

It X ~ H.Geom(w,b,n), then the PMF of X is

$$b(X = K) = \frac{\binom{n}{m+p}}{\binom{n}{m}\binom{n-k}{p}}$$

For integers k satisfying DEKEW and DEn-KEB, and P(X=K)=0 otherwise.

Proof:

To get P(X=K), we first count the # of possible ways to araw exactly K white balls and n-K black balls from the urn (without distinguishing between different orderings for getting the same set of balls). There are $\binom{w}{k}\binom{b}{n-k}$ ways to araw K white and n-K black balls by the multiplication rule, and there are $\binom{w+b}{n}$ total ways to draw n balls.

Proof : (continued ...)

Then
$$P(x=k)=\frac{\binom{2}{k}\binom{5}{n-k}}{\binom{5}{n-k}}$$

The ovem:

The HGeom (w,b,n) and HGeom (n, w+b-n, w) distributions are identical. That is, if X ~ HGeom (w,b,n) and Y ~ HGeom (n, w+b-n, w), then X and Y have the same distribution.

Proof:

They have the same PMF. We can check this algebraically with X and Y.

CH 3.5 Discrete Uniform

Story (3.5.1) Discrete Uniform Distribution

Let C be a finite, nonempty set of numbers. Choose one of these numbers uniformly at random. (i.e. all values in C are equally likely). Then $X \sim DU_n$ if (C).

The PMF of X ~ Dunif (c) is

$$P(X=x) = \frac{1}{101}$$

for xeC, since a PMF must sum to 1.

CH 3.6 CDF

Definition: (3.6.1)

The cumulative distribution function (CDF) of an r.v. X is the function F_X given by $F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$. When there is no risk of ambiguity, we sometimes drop the subscript and just write F for a CDF.