

# 3 Discrete Random Variables

We need good data and good statistical thinking in order to make good predictions.

## 3.1 Random variables

It is better to define a random variable as a *function* mapping the sample space to the real line.

### Definition of Random Variable:

Given an experiment with sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ , a *random variable* is a function from the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$  to the real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ .

A random variable  $X$  assigns a numerical value  $X(s)$  to each possible outcome  $s$  of the experiment. The randomness comes from the fact that we have a **random experiment** the mapping itself is **deterministic**.

### Example: coin tosses

We toss a fair coin twice. The sample space  $\mathcal{S} = HH, HT, TH, TT$ .

Some random variables on this space:

- $X$  is the number of Heads. So  $X(HH) = 2, X(TH) = X(HT) = 1, X(TT) = 0$ ;
- $Y$  is the number of Tails.  $Y = 2 - X$  or  $Y(s) = 2 - X(s) \forall s$ ;
- $I$  is 1 if the first toss lands Heads and 0 otherwise. This is an example of *indicator random variable*.

We also can encode sample space as  $(1, 1), (1, 0), (0, 1), (0, 0)$ . Then we can give explicit formulas for  $X, Y, I$  :

$$X(s_1, s_2) = s_1 + s_2, Y(s_1, s_2) = 2 - s_1 - s_2, I(s_1, s_2) = s_1$$

After we perform the experiment and the outcome  $s$  has been realized, the random variable *crystallizes* into the numerical value  $X(s)$ .

## 3.2 Distributions and probability mass functions

$X$  is said to be **discrete** if there is a finite list of values  $a_1, a_2, \dots$  such that  $P(X = a_j \text{ for some } j) = 1$ . If  $X$  is a discrete, then set of values  $x$  such that  $P(X = x) > 0$  is called the **support** of  $X$ .

In contrast, a *continuous* RV can take on any real value in an interval (possibly even the entire real line);

It is also possible to have an RV that is a *hybrid* of discrete and continuous.

The *distribution* of a RV specifies (for example) the probabilities of all events associated with the random value, such as the probability of it equaling 3 and the probability of it being at least 110.

For a discrete RV, the most natural way to do so is with a **probability mass function (PMF)**:

PMF of discrete RV  $X$  is the function  $p_X$  given by  $p_X(x) = P(X = x)$ . If  $x$  not in support of  $X$ ,  $p_X(x) = 0$ .  $X = x$  denotes as an *event*, all outcomes  $s$  to which  $X$  assigns to the number  $x$ .

### PMF example:

Two fair coin tosses. RV:  $X$ , the number of Heads:

$$p_X(0) = P(X = 0) = 1/4$$

$$p_X(1) = P(X = 1) = 1/2$$

$$p_X(2) = P(X = 2) = 1/4$$

### Properties of a valid PMF:

$X$  is a discrete RV with support  $x_1, x_2, \dots$

The PMF  $p_X$  of  $X$  must satisfy following criteria:

- Nonnegative  $p_X(x) \geq 0$  if  $x = x_j$  for some  $j$  and  $p_X(x) = 0$  otherwise;
- Sums to 1:  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_X(x_j) = 1$

## Example: Poisson Distribution

An RV  $X$  has the Poisson distribution with parameter  $\lambda$  where  $\lambda > 0$  if PMF of  $X$ :

$$P(X = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

The Poisson also arises through the Poisson process, a model that is used in a wide variety of problems in which events occur at random points in time.

## 3.3 Bernoulli and Binomial

Named distributions!

RV  $X$  has *Bernoulli distribution* with parameter  $p$  if  $P(X = 1) = p$  and  $P(X = 0) = 1 - p$  where  $0 < p < 1$ . It can be written as  $X \sim \text{Bern}(p)$ .

Any event has a Bernoulli RV that is naturally associated with it! This is called the *indicator RV*.

Indicator RV of event  $A$  is  $I_A$  or  $I(A)$ .

*Bernoulli trial*: an experiment which can result in “success” or “failure” (not both).

$n$  independent Bernoulli trials each with success probability  $p$ . RV  $X$  is the number of success. The distribution of  $X$  is called *Binomial distribution* with parameters  $n$  and  $p$ .  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ .

*Binomial PMF*: If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  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.

PMF of the  $\text{Bin}(10, 1/2)$  is symmetric about 5. If  $p \neq 1/2$ , the PMF is *skewed*.

If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  and  $q = 1 - p$  (so  $q$  is failure probability of Bernoulli trial),  $n - X \sim \text{Bin}(n, q)$ .

Corollary:

Distribution of  $X$  is symmetric about  $n/2$ . Why?

$$P(X = k) = P(n - X = k) = P(X = n - k) \forall k > 0$$

## 3.4 Hypergeometric

Experiment with an urn filled with  $w$  white and  $b$  black balls. For number of white balls obtained  $n$  with replacement:  $\text{Bin}(n, w/(w + b))$ . If we do the same but without replacement, the number of white balls follows a *Hypergeometric distribution*.

We draw  $n$  balls out of the urn, all  $\binom{w+b}{n}$  samples are equally likely. Number of balls  $X$  have the *Hypergeometric distribution*.

*Hypergeometric PMF*: If  $X \sim \text{HGeom}(w, b, n)$ , then PMF of  $X$  is

$$P(X = k) = \frac{\binom{w}{k} \binom{b}{n-k}}{\binom{w+b}{n}}$$

for  $k$   $0 \leq k \leq w$  and  $0 \leq n - k \leq b$  and  $P(X = k) = 0$  otherwise.

The Hypergeometric distribution comes up in many scenarios!

Example: Elk capture-recapture

Forest has  $N$  elk. Today  $m$  of elk captured and released, later  $n$  elk are recaptured. The number of tagged and recaptured elk has  $\text{HGeom}(m, N - m, n)$  distribution where  $m$  is number of tagged elk,  $N - m$  is number of untagged elk.

Warning: **Binomial vs Hypergeometric!**

The Binomial and Hypergeometric distributions are often confused. But in Binomial all Bernoulli trials are **independent** while in Hypergeometric trials are **dependent**.

## 3.5 Discrete Uniform

Picking a random number from some finite set of possibilities. Let  $C$  be a finite, nonempty set of numbers.

RV  $X$  has the *Discrete Uniform distribution* with parameters  $C$ ; we denote this by  $X \sim DUnif(C)$ . The PMF of  $X \sim DUnif(C)$  is:

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

For  $x \in C$  and 0 otherwise. And  $\forall A \subseteq C$ :

$$P(X \in A) = \frac{|A|}{|C|}.$$

## 3.6 Cumulative distribution functions