

# WuS - Lecture Notes Week 4

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# 1 Discrete and Continuous Random Variables

## 1.1 Discontinuity & Continuity Points of $F$

We have seen that the distribution function  $F = F_X$  of a random variable  $X$  is always *right continuous*. What about left continuous?

**Example:** For a Bernoulli random variable  $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  with  $p < 1$ , we have  $F_X(-h) = 0$  for every  $h > 0$ , but  $F_X(0) = 1 - p \neq 0$ . Therefore,  $F_X$  is not left continuous at 0, i.e.

$$\lim_{h \downarrow 0} F_X(-h) = 0 \neq F_X(0).$$

The following proposition gives an interpretation of the limit

$$F(a-) := \lim_{h \downarrow 0} F(a - h)$$

at a given point  $a$  for a general distribution function.

**Proposition (probability of a given value):** Let  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a random variable with distribution function  $F$ . Then for every  $a$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  we have

$$\mathbb{P}[X = a] = F(a) - F(a-).$$

We give the following interpretation of the above introduced proposition. Fix some  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then:

- If  $F$  is not continuous at a point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then the "jump size"  $F(a) - F(a-)$  is equal to the probability that  $X = a$ .
- If  $F$  is continuous at a point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\mathbb{P}[X = a] = 0$ .

## 1.2 Almost Sure Events

**Definition:** Let  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  be an event. We say that  $A$  occurs **almost surely (a.s.)** if

$$\mathbb{P}[A] = 1.$$

*Remark:* This notion can be extended to any set  $A \subset \Omega$ : We say that  $A$  occurs almost surely if there exists an event  $A' \in \mathcal{F}$  such that  $A' \subset A$  and  $\mathbb{P}[A'] = 1$ .

## 1.3 Discrete Random Variables

**Definition (Discrete Random Variables):** A random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be **discrete** if there exists some set  $W \subset \mathbb{R}$  finite or countable such that

$$X \in W \quad \text{a.s.}$$

*Remark:* If the sample space  $\Omega$  is finite or countable, then every random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is discrete.

**Definition:** Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable taking some values in some finite or countable set  $W \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The **distribution of  $X$**  is the sequence of numbers  $(p(x))_{x \in W}$  defined by

$$\forall x \in W : p(x) := \mathbb{P}[X = x].$$

**Proposition:** The distribution  $(p(x))_{x \in W}$  of a discrete random variable satisfies

$$\sum_{x \in W} p(x) = 1.$$

**Example:** Consider the random variable defined by

$$\forall \omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) := \begin{cases} -1, & \text{if } \omega = 1, 2, 3, \\ 0, & \text{if } \omega = 4, \\ 2, & \text{if } \omega = 5, 6. \end{cases}$$

Then  $X$  takes values in  $W = \{-1, 0, 2\}$  almost surely and its distribution is given by

$$p(-1) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad p(0) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad p(2) = \frac{1}{3}.$$

*Remark:* Conversely, if we are given a sequence of numbers  $(p(x))_{x \in W}$  with values in  $[0, 1]$  and such that  $\sum_{x \in W} p(x) = 1$ , then there exists a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  and a random variable  $X$  with associated distribution  $(p(x))$ . This observation is important in practice, it allows us to write: "Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable with distribution  $(p(x))_{x \in W}$ ."

### 1.3.1 From $p$ to $F_X$

**Proposition:** Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable with values in a finite or countable set  $W$  almost surely, and distribution  $p$ . Then the distribution function of  $X$  is given by

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} : F_X(x) = \sum_{y \leq x, y \in W} p(y).$$

### 1.3.2 From $F_X$ to $p$

Given a discrete random variable  $X$ . A random variable with a piecewise constant function  $F$  is discrete and  $W$  and  $p$  are given by:

- $W = \{\text{positions of the jumps of } F_X\}$
- $p(x) = \text{"height of the jump" at } x \in W$

## 1.4 Examples of Discrete Random Variables

### 1.4.1 Bernoulli Distribution

**Definition (Bernoulli):** Let  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ . A random variable  $X$  is said to be a **Bernoulli random variable with parameter  $p$**  if it takes values in  $W = \{0, 1\}$  and

$$\mathbb{P}[X = 0] = 1 - p \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}[X = 1] = p.$$

In that case, we write  $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ .

### 1.4.2 Binomial Distribution

**Definition (Binomial):** Let  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ , let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . A random variable  $X$  is said to be a **binomial random variable with parameters  $n$  and  $p$**  if it takes values in  $W = \{0, \dots, n\}$  and

$$\forall k \in \{0, \dots, n\} : \mathbb{P}[X = k] = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}.$$

In that case we write  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ . This appears in applications when we consider the number of successes in a repetition of Bernoulli experiments.

**Proposition (Sum of independent Bernoulli and binomial):** Let  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ , let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p$ . Then

$$S_n := X_1 + \dots + X_n$$

is a binomial random variable with parameter  $n$  and  $p$ .

*Remark:* In particular, the distribution  $\text{Bin}(1, p)$  is the same as the distribution  $\text{Ber}(p)$ . One can also check that if  $X \sim \text{Bin}(m, p)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  and  $X, Y$  are independent, then  $X + Y \sim \text{Bin}(m + n, p)$ .

### 1.4.3 Geometric Distribution

**Definition (Geometric):** Let  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ . A random variable  $X$  is said to be a **geometric random variable with parameter  $p$**  if it takes values in  $W = \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  and

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} : \mathbb{P}[X = k] = (1 - p)^{k-1} \cdot p.$$

In that case, we write  $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$ .

The geometric random variable appears naturally as the first success in an infinite sequence of Bernoulli experiments with parameter  $p$ . This is formalized by the following proposition.

**Proposition:** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of infinitely many independent Bernoulli r.v.'s with parameter  $p$ . Then

$$T := \min\{n \geq 1 : X_n = 1\}$$

is a geometric random variable with parameter  $p$ .

**Proposition:** Let  $T \sim \text{Geom}(p)$  for some  $0 < p < 1$ . Then

$$\forall n \geq 0, \forall k \geq 1 : \mathbb{P}[T \geq n + k \mid T > n] = \mathbb{P}[T \geq k].$$

### 1.4.4 Poisson Distribution

**Definition:** Let  $\lambda > 0$  be a positive real number. A random variable  $X$  is said to be a **Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda$**  if it takes values in  $W = \mathbb{N}$  and

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{N} : \mathbb{P}[X = k] = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}.$$

In this case, we write  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ .

The Poisson distribution appears naturally as an approximation of a binomial distribution when the parameter  $n$  is large and the parameter  $p$  is small, as stated formally in the following proposition.

**Proposition (Poisson approximation of the binomial):** Let  $\lambda > 0$ . For every  $n \geq 1$ , consider a random variable  $X_n \sim \text{Bin}(n, \frac{\lambda}{n})$ . Then

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{N} : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}[X_n = k] = \mathbb{P}[N = k],$$

where  $N$  is a Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda$ .

## 1.5 Continuous Random Variables

**Definition (Continuous Random Variables):** A random variable  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be **continuous** if its distribution function  $F_X$  can be written as

$$F_X(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx \quad \text{for all } a \in \mathbb{R}$$

for some nonnegative function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ , called the **density** of  $X$ .

*Intuition:*  $f(x) dx$  represents the probability that  $X$  takes a value in the infinitesimal interval  $[x, x + dx]$ .

**Proposition:** The density  $f$  of a random variable satisfies

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = 1.$$

### 1.5.1 From $f$ to $F_X$

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with density  $f$ . By definition, the distribution function  $F_X$  can be calculated as the integral

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y) dy.$$

### 1.5.2 From $F_X$ to $f$

Since one goes from  $f$  to  $F_X$  by integrating, it is natural to expect that the reverse operation is to take the derivative. This is in general the case, provided  $F_X$  is regular enough. The following theorem will be useful in applications to calculate densities.

**Theorem:** Let  $X$  be a random variable. Assume that the distribution function  $F_X$  is continuous and piecewise  $\mathcal{C}^1$ , i.e. that there exists  $x_0 = -\infty < x_1 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = +\infty$  such that  $F_X$  is  $\mathcal{C}^1$  on every interval  $(x_i, x_{i+1})$ . Then  $X$  is a continuous random variable and a density  $f$  can be constructed by defining

$$\forall x \in (x_i, x_{i+1}) : f(x) = F'_X(x)$$

and setting arbitrary values at  $x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}$ .