

Recap: Random Variables

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- ▶ It essentially results in an induced probability space

$$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \xrightarrow{X} (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}, P_X)$$

where \mathcal{B} is the Borel σ -algebra and

$$P_X(B) = P[X \in B] = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in B\})$$

Recap: σ -algebra

- ▶ An $\mathcal{F} \subset 2^\Omega$ is called a σ -algebra (also called σ -field) on Ω if it satisfies
 1. $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$
 2. $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$
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- ▶ Thus a σ -algebra is a collection of subsets of Ω that is closed under complements and countable unions (and hence countable intersections).
- ▶ The Borel σ -algebra (on \mathbb{R}), \mathcal{B} , is the smallest σ -algebra containing all intervals.
- ▶ We also have $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\{(-\infty, x] : x \in \mathbb{R}\})$

Recap: Distribution function of a random variable

- ▶ Let X be a random variable. Its distribution function, $F_X : \Re \rightarrow \Re$, is defined by

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- ▶ The distribution function, F_X , completely specifies the probability measure, P_X .
- ▶ Thus, given the distribution function of X , one can (in principle) calculate probability of any event $[X \in B]$.

Recap: Properties of distribution function

► The distribution function satisfies

1. $0 \leq F_X(x) \leq 1, \forall x$
2. $F_X(-\infty) = 0; F_X(\infty) = 1$
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$$P[a < X \leq b] = F_X(b) - F_X(a).$$

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- ▶ Note that the distribution function is defined for **all** random variables.

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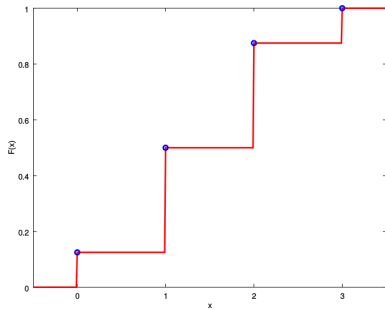
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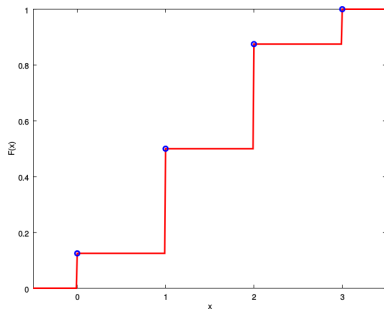
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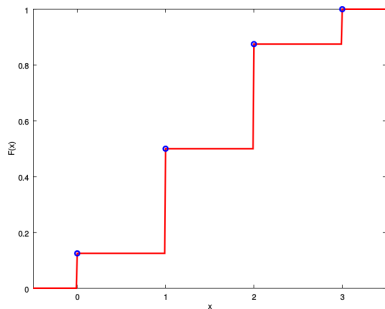


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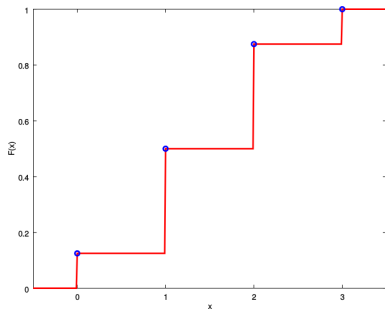
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- The jump at, e.g., $x = 2$ is $3/8$ which is the probability of X taking that value.

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- ▶ All discrete random variables would have this general form of distribution function.

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- ▶ If $a_2 \leq x < a_3$ then
 $[X \leq x] = [X = a_1] \cup [X = a_2] = B_1 + B_2$

► Hence we can write the distribution function as

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a_1 \\ P(B_1) & a_1 \leq x < a_2 \\ P(B_1) + P(B_2) & a_2 \leq x < a_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^k P(B_i) & a_k \leq x < a_{k+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x \geq a_n \end{cases}$$

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- Note that all this holds even when X takes countably infinitely many values.

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- ▶ We can get pmf from df and df from pmf.

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- ▶ Please remember that we have defined distribution function for any random variable. But pmf is defined only for discrete random variables

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- ▶ As we saw this is how we can specify a probability assignment on any countable sample space.

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- ▶ We next look at some standard discrete random variable models

Bernoulli Distribution

- ▶ Bernoulli random variable: $X \in \{0, 1\}$ with

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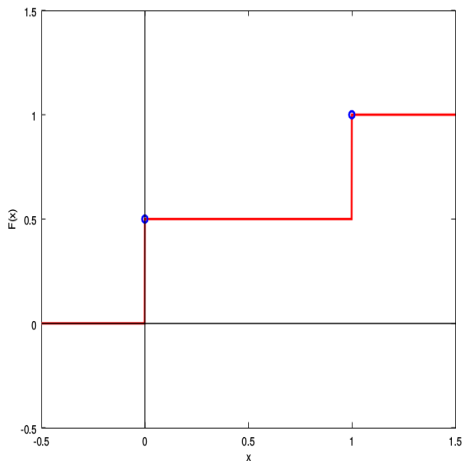
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- ▶ $P[I_B = 1] = P(\{\omega : I_B(\omega) = 1\}) = P(B)$
- ▶ Thus, this indicator rv has Bernoulli distribution with $p = P(B)$

One of the df examples we saw earlier is that of Bernoulli



Binomial Distribution

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- ▶ $X \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ with pmf

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where n, p are parameters (n is a +ve integer and $0 < p < 1$).

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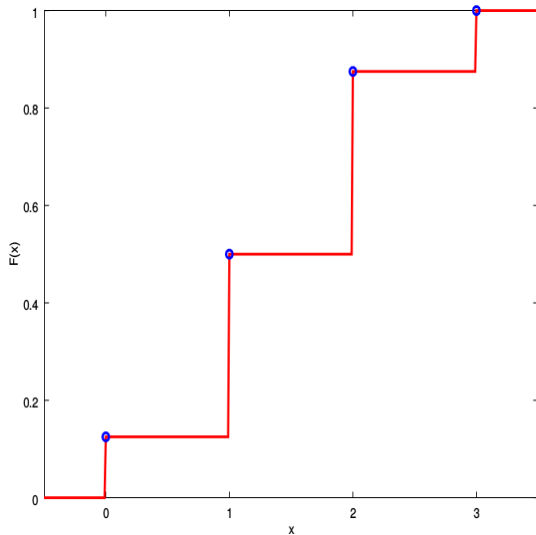
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(Number of successes in n bernoulli trials)
- ▶ Any one outcome (a seq of length n) with k heads would have probability $p^k(1-p)^{n-k}$. There are nC_k outcomes with exactly k heads.

One of the df examples we considered was that of Binomial



Poisson Distribution

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- $X \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ with pmf

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

where $\lambda > 0$ is a parameter.

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- ▶ Poisson distribution is also useful in many applications

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- ▶ Consider tossing a coin (with prob of H being p) repeatedly till we get a head. X is the toss number on which we got the first head.
- ▶ In general waiting for 'success' in independent Bernoulli trials.

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(Does this also tell us what is df of geometric rv?)

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- ▶ This is pmf of geometric (with $q = (1-p)$)

Continuous Random Variables

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- ▶ A rv, X , is said to be continuous (or of continuous type) if its distribution function, F_X is absolutely continuous.

Absolute Continuity

- ▶ A function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is absolutely continuous on an interval, I , if given any $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for any finite sequence of pair-wise disjoint subintervals, (x_k, y_k) , with $x_k, y_k \in I$, $\forall k$, satisfying $\sum_k (y_k - x_k) < \delta$, we have $\sum_k |f(y_k) - f(x_k)| < \epsilon$

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- ▶ In the above, g would be differentiable almost everywhere and h would be its derivative (wherever g is differentiable).

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- ▶ Note that F_X here is continuous
- ▶ By the fundamental theorem of calculus, we have

$$\frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} = f_X(x), \quad \forall x \text{ where } f_X \text{ is continuous}$$

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- ▶ As mentioned earlier, there would be many random variables that are neither discrete nor continuous.

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- ▶ This shows the the F_X is a df and hence f_X is a pdf

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- ▶ On the same probability space, consider rv $Y(\omega) = 1 - \omega$.

Continuous rv – example

- ▶ Consider a probability space with $\Omega = [0, 1]$ and with the ‘usual’ probability assignment (where probability of an interval is its length)
- ▶ Earlier we considered the rv $X(\omega) = \omega$ on this probability space.
- ▶ We found that the df for this is

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

This is absolutely continuous and we can get the pdf as

$$f_X(x) = 1 \text{ if } 0 < x < 1; (f_X(x) = 0, \text{ otherwise})$$

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- ▶ Let us find F_Y and f_Y .

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► We have $F_X = F_Y$ and thus $f_X = f_Y$. (However, note that $X(\omega) \neq Y(\omega)$ except at $\omega = 0.5$).

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- ▶ Recall that for a general rv

$$F_X(b) - F_X(a) = P[a < X \leq b]$$

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- ▶ That is why f_X is called probability density function.

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- ▶ We can say $f_X(x) dx \approx P[x \leq X \leq x + dx]$

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- ▶ We next consider a few standard continuous random variables.

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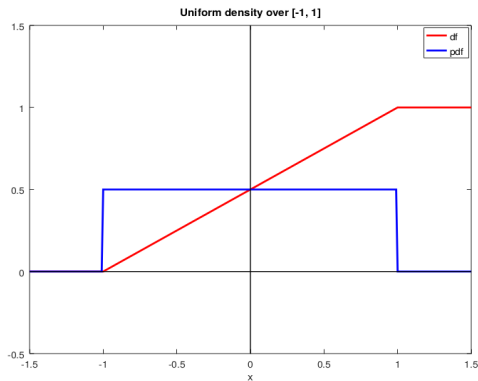
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- ▶ The earlier examples we considered are uniform over $[0, 1]$.

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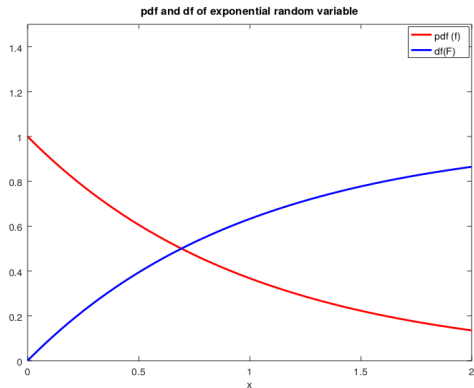
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- ▶ This also gives us: $P[X > x] = 1 - F_X(x) = e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x > 0$.

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- ▶ If the distribution of a non-negative continuous random variable is memory less then it must be exponential.

Gaussian Distribution

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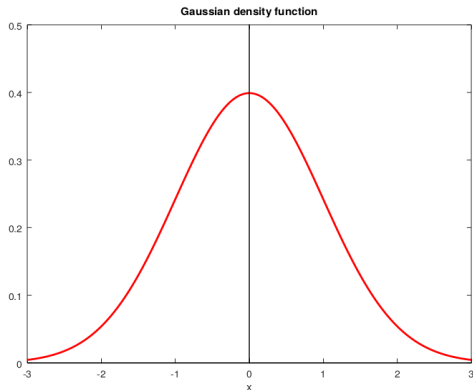
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- ▶ The special case where $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$ is called standard Gaussian (or standard Normal) distribution.

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(Left as an exercise for you!)