

Topic 2: Random Variables and their Distributions

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Sample spaces and random variables

The outcomes of some experiments inherently take the form of real numbers:

- crop yields with the application of a new type of fertiliser
- students scores on an exam
- miles per litre of an automobile

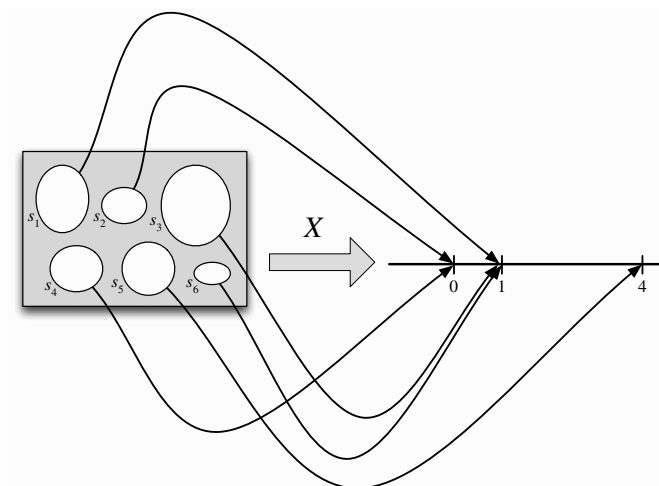
Other experiments have a sample space that is not inherently a subset of Euclidean space

- Outcomes from a series of coin tosses
- The character of a politician
- The modes of transport taken by a city's population
- The degree of satisfaction respondents report for a service provider -patients in a hospital may be asked whether they are very satisfied, satisfied or dissatisfied with the quality of treatment. Our sample space would consist of arrays of the form (VS, S, S, DS,....)
- The caste composition of elected politicians.
- The gender composition of children attending school.

A **random variable** is a function that assigns a real number to each possible outcome $s \in S$.

Random variables

Definition (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, $\mathbf{X} : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.



The mapping itself is deterministic, the randomness comes from the sample space.

X is a function that takes us from a probability space $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ to an induced probability space $(\mathbb{R}(X), \mathcal{B}, \mathbb{P}_X(A))$.

As long as every set $A \in \mathbb{R}(X)$ is associated with an event in our original sample space \mathcal{S} , $\mathbb{P}_X(A)$ is just the probability assigned to that event by \mathbb{P}

We usually omit the X in $\mathbb{P}_X(A)$ unless there is ambiguity.

Random variables..examples

1. Tossing a coin ten times.

The sample space consists of the 2^{10} possible sequences of heads and tails.

There are many different random variables that could be associated with this experiment: X_1 could be the number of heads, X_2 the longest run of heads divided by the longest run of tails, X_3 the number of times we get two heads immediately before a tail, etc...

For $s = \text{HTTTHHHTTTH}$, what are the values of these random variables?

2. Choosing a point in a rectangle within a plane

An experiment involves choosing a point $s = (x, y)$ at random from the rectangle

$$S = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 1/2\}$$

The random variable X could be the x -coordinate of the point and an event is X taking values in $[1, 2]$

Another random variable Z would be the distance of the point from the origin,

$$Z(s) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

Heights, weights, distances, temperature, scores, incomes... In these cases, we can have

$X(s) = s$ since these are already expressed as real numbers.

Discrete random variables

Random variables can be **discrete**, **continuous** or a mixture of these two.

Definition (discrete random variable) : *A random variable \mathbf{X} is said to be discrete if there is a finite list of values $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$ or an infinite list of values $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots$ such that $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{a}_j \text{ for some } j) = 1$. If \mathbf{X} is a discrete r.v., then the finite or countably infinite set of values \mathbf{x} such that $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) > \mathbf{0}$ is called the support of \mathbf{X} .*

Definition (probability mass function): *The probability mass function (PMF) of a discrete r.v. is given by the function $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$. This is positive if \mathbf{x} is in the support of \mathbf{X} and $\mathbf{0}$ otherwise.*

Note that the event $\{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\}$ is defined as $\{s \in \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{X}(s) = \mathbf{x}\}$ so $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$ is meaningful, but $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X})$ is not since probabilities are defined for events, not for random variables.

Some probability distributions are so common and useful that they have names and we study them thoroughly. We now introduce some of these.

Bernoulli distribution

Definition (Bernoulli distribution) : A random variable \mathbf{X} is said to have the Bernoulli distribution with parameter \mathbf{p} if $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = 1) = \mathbf{p}$ and $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = 0) = 1 - \mathbf{p}$, where $0 < \mathbf{p} < 1$. We write this as $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathbf{Bern}(\mathbf{p})$

Any experiment that can result in only a success or failure is called a **Bernoulli trial**

The parameter \mathbf{p} is called the **success probability** of the $\mathbf{Bern}(\mathbf{p})$ distribution.

There is therefore a whole family of Bernoulli distributions and we specify a particular one when we pin down this parameter.

Definition (Indicator random variable) : The indicator random variable of an event \mathbf{A} is the r.v. which equals 1 \mathbf{A} occurs and zero otherwise. The indicator r.v. of event \mathbf{A} is denoted by $\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{A}}$. Note that

$$\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{A}} \sim \mathbf{Bern}(\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{A}))$$

Binomial distribution

Definition (Binomial distribution) : Let \mathbf{X} be the number of successes in \mathbf{n} independent Bernoulli trials with success probability \mathbf{p} . Then \mathbf{X} has a Binomial distribution with parameters \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{p} . We write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \mathbf{Bin}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{p})$$

Definition (Binomial PMF) : If $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathbf{Bin}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{p})$, then the PMF of X is

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

for $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \dots, \mathbf{n}$ and zero otherwise.

Proof: The probability of any specific sequence of \mathbf{k} successes and $\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{k}$ failures is $\mathbf{p}^{\mathbf{k}} (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{p})^{\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{k}}$. There are $\binom{\mathbf{n}}{\mathbf{k}}$ such sequences since we just need to select the position of the successes. The above expression is non-negative and sums to 1 by the binomial theorem, so we have a valid PMF.

Note: If $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathbf{Bin}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{p})$, then $\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{X} \sim \mathbf{Bin}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{q})$, where $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{p}$. Also, with \mathbf{n} even, $\mathbf{Bin}(\mathbf{n}, \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{2}})$ is symmetric around $\frac{\mathbf{n}}{\mathbf{2}}$. Try to prove both these results.

The hypergeometric distribution

Think of an urn with w white and b black balls. If we draw n balls with replacement, the number of white balls drawn $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, \frac{w}{w+b})$.

If we draw without replacement, X follows a **hypergeometric distribution**, with parameters w, b and n . We denote this by $\text{HGeom}(w, b, n)$.

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

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

for integers $0 \leq k \leq w$ and $0 \leq n - k \leq b$, and zero otherwise.

The number of white balls k can take values from 0 to n , the sum of these is $\binom{w+b}{n}$ so we have a valid PMF.

Applications: All experiments where there are two types of items in the population, each of which may or may not be in the sample (**double-tagged** items: type w or b is the first tag, in and out of the sample is the second)

Discrete uniform distribution

Think of a finite, non-empty set C of numbers. Choose one of these numbers at random and call the chosen number X . Then $X \sim \text{DUnif}(C)$

Definition (Discrete Uniform PMF) : If $X \sim \text{DUnif}(C)$, then the PMF of X is

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

for $x \in C$, and zero otherwise.

For any $A \subseteq C$,

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

The cumulative distribution function

All random variables can be described completely by their **cumulative distribution function**

Definition (cumulative distribution function): *The cumulative distribution function of a random variable X is the function F_X given by $F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$*

The X subscript denotes the r.v. in question and is usually dropped when there is no ambiguity.

If there are a finite number of elements w in \mathcal{A} , this probability can be computed as

$$F(x) = \sum_{w \leq x} f(w)$$

In this case, the distribution function will be a step function, jumping at all points x in $\mathcal{R}(X)$ which are assigned positive probability.

Practice: Derive and plot CDFs for the four discrete distributions we have studied so far.

Properties of the CDF

Any CDF has the following **three properties**:

1. **Increasing:** If $x_1 \leq x_2$ then $F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$.

(The occurrence of the event $\{X \leq x_1\}$ implies the occurrence of $\{X \leq x_2\}$ so $P(X \leq x_1) \leq P(X \leq x_2)$)

2. **Right continuous:** $F(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} F(x)$

For continuous r.v.s it will be continuous throughout, for discrete r.v.s it will jump at all points with positive probability.

3. **Convergence to 0 and 1 in the limits:** $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$

($\{x : x \leq \infty\}$ is the entire sample space and $\{x : x \leq -\infty\}$ is the null set.)

An advantage of a distribution function is that it is defined in the same way for all types of random variables and also has an empirical counterpart.

Definition (Empirical distribution function): Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be i.i.d random variables with CDF F .

The empirical CDF of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is defined as $\hat{F}_X(x) = \frac{R_n(x)}{n}$ where $R_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n I(X_j \leq x)$

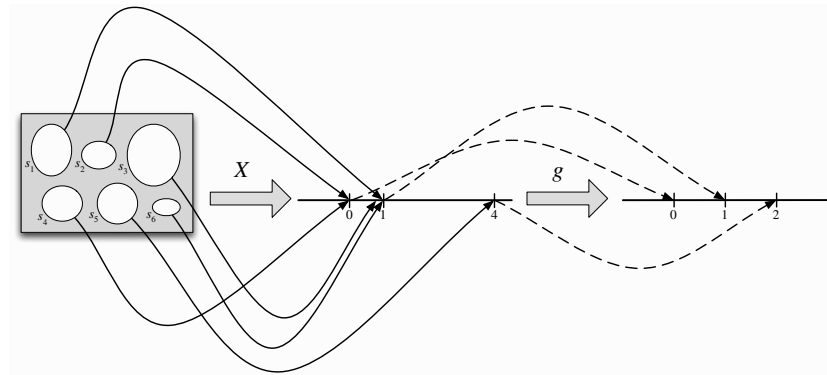
So $\hat{F}_X(x)$ gives us the fraction of sample values below x . This is a central object for all nonparameteric statistics since we make no assumptions about the family of distributions we sample.

Functions of a random variable

If X is an r.v., is it meaningful to talk of X^2 or $\log(X)$? In what sense?

Definition (Function of a random variable): For an experiment with sample space S , an r.v. X , and a function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(X)$ is the r.v. that maps s to $g(X(s))$ for all $s \in S$.

From this definition, we see that $g(X)$ is the **composition** of functions X and g . We first apply X to s and then g . The PMF of $Y = g(X)$ is easily derived if g is one-to-one since the support of Y is just the set of all $g(x)$ with x in the support of X .



If g is not one-to-one, there may be multiple values of x , such that $g(x) = y$, and to compute the PMF, we sum the probabilities of X taking on any of these values.

Functions of two random variables

Definition (Function of two random variables): Given an experiment with sample space \mathcal{S} , if \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are two r.v.s that map $\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}$ to $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s})$ and $\mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{s})$ respectively, then $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$ is the r.v. that maps \mathbf{s} to $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{s}))$.

Examples:

$$\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y}$$

$$\mathbf{Z} = \max(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{X}^2$$

etc...

Draw yourself a picture of the sample space for two fair coin tosses, showing how \mathbf{X} (no. heads), \mathbf{Y} (no. tails) and $\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y}$ map elements of \mathcal{S} to \mathbb{R} .

Functions of r.v.s : an example

A random walk (story): Suppose that a particle takes n steps on a number line, starting at zero. At each step, it moves right or left with equal probabilities and each step is independent. Let X be the number of steps to the right, and Y be the particle's position after n steps. Find the PMFs of these r.v.s

Solution: Clearly $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, .5)$ and if $X = j$, $Y = j - n + j = 2j - n$. So $Y = 2X - n$ and since X takes values in $\{(0, 1, 2, \dots, n)\}$, Y takes values in $\{(-n, 2 - n, 4 - n, \dots, n)\}$

The PMF of Y can be found from the PMF of X :

$$P(Y = k) = P(2X - n = k) = P\left(X = \frac{n + k}{2}\right) = \binom{n}{\frac{n+k}{2}} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

Random variables vs. their distributions

Random variables with identical distributions are not the same! Two random variables can have the same distribution, yet never take the same values

Examples:

$X = \text{head on a fair coin flipped once}$, $Y = \text{tail on a fair coin flipped once}$

$X = \text{head on a fair coin flipped once}$, $Y = \text{even no. on the roll of a fair die}$

This distinction becomes especially important later in the course when we discuss the convergence of sequences of random variables.

Independence of two random variables

Definition (Independence of two r.v.s) : *The two random variables X and Y are said to be independent if, for any two sets A and B of real numbers,*

$$P(X \in A \text{ and } Y \in B) = P(X \in A)P(Y \in B)$$

In words, if A is an event whose occurrence depends only values taken by X and B 's occurrence depends only on values taken by Y , then the random variables X and Y are independent only if the events A and B are independent, for all such events A and B .

- The condition for independence can be alternatively stated in terms of the joint and marginal distribution functions of X and Y by letting the sets A and B be the intervals $(-\infty, x)$ and $(-\infty, y)$ respectively.

$$P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = P(X \leq x)P(Y \leq y)$$

Or $F(x, y) = F_1(x)F_2(y)$

- For discrete distributions, we simply define the sets A and B as the points x and y and require $f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y)$.
- In terms of the density functions, we say that X and Y are independent if it is possible to choose functions f_1 and f_2 such that the following factorization holds for $(-\infty < x < \infty$ and $-\infty < y < \infty)$

$$f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y)$$

Independence of several random variables

Definition (Independence of several r.v.s) : *The random variables X_1, \dots, X_n are said to be independent if*

$$\mathbf{P}(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2, \dots, X_n \leq x_n) = \mathbf{P}(X_1 \leq x_1) \mathbf{P}(X_2 \leq x_2) \dots \mathbf{P}(X_n \leq x_n)$$

for all x_1, \dots, x_n in \mathbb{R} .

For infinitely many r.v.s, we say that they are independent if every finite subset of the r.v.s is independent.