18.05 Lecture 8

February 22, 2005

## §3.1 - Random Variables and Distributions

Transforms the outcome of an experiment into a number.
Definitions:
Probability Space: $(\mathrm{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$
S - sample space, $\mathcal{A}$ - events, $\mathbb{P}$ - probability
Random variable is a function on $S$ with values in real numbers, $X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

## Examples:

Toss a coin 10 times, Sample Space $=\{$ HTH...HT, $\ldots$.$\} , all configurations of H \& T.$
Random Variable X $=$ number of heads, $\mathrm{X}: \mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$X: S \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, 10\}$ for this example.
There are fewer outcomes than in $S$, you need to give the distribution of the random variable in order to get the entire picture. Probabilities are therefore given.

Definition: The distribution of a random variable $\mathrm{X}: \mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is defined by: $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{P}(A)=\mathbb{P}(X \in A)$ $=\mathbb{P}(s \in S: X(s) \in A)$


The random variable maps outcomes and probabilities to real numbers.
This simplifies the problem, as you only need to define the mapped $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{P}$, not the original $\mathrm{S}, \mathbb{P}$.
The mapped variables describe X, so you don't need to consider the original complicated probability space.

From the example, $\mathbb{P}(X=\#$ (heads in 10 tosses $)=k)=\binom{10}{k}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{10-k}=\binom{10}{k} \frac{1}{2^{10}}$
Note: need to distribute the heads among the tosses, account for probability of both heads and tails tossed.
This is a specific example of the more general binomial problem:
A random variable $\mathrm{X} \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$

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

This distribution is called the binomial distribution: $B(n, p)$, which is an example of a discrete distribution.

## Discrete Distribution

A random variable X is called discrete if it takes a finite or countable number (sequence) of values:
$X \in\left\{s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}, \ldots\right\}$
It is completely described by telling the probability of each outcome.
Distribution defined by: $\mathbb{P}\left(X=s_{k}\right)=f\left(s_{k}\right)$, the probability function (p.f.)
p.f. cannot be negative and should sum to 1 over all outcomes.
$\mathbb{P}(X \in A)=\sum_{s_{k} \in A} f\left(s_{k}\right)$
Example: Uniform distribution of a finite number of values $\{1,2,3, \ldots, n\}$ each outcome
has equal probability $\rightarrow f\left(s_{k}\right)=\frac{1}{n}$ : uniform probability function.
random variable $\mathrm{X} \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{P}(A)=\mathbb{P}(X \in A), A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$
can redefine probability space on random variable distribution:
$(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ - sample space, $\mathrm{X}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, X(x)=x$ (identity map)
$\mathbb{P}(A)=\mathbb{P}(X: X(x) \in A)=\mathbb{P}(x \in A)=\mathbb{P}(x \in A)=\mathbb{P}(A)$
all you need is the outcomes mapped to real numbers and relative probabilities of the mapped outcomes.

Example: Poisson Distribution, $\{0,1,2,3, \ldots\} \Pi(\lambda), \lambda=$ intensity probability function:

$$
f(k)=\mathbb{P}(X=k)=\frac{\lambda^{k}}{k!} e^{-\lambda}, \text { where } \lambda \text { parameter }>0
$$

$\sum_{k \geq 0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k}}{k!} e^{-\lambda}=e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k \geq 0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k}}{k!}=e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda}=e^{0}=1$
Very common distribution, will be used later in statistics.
Represents a variety of situations - ex. distribution of "typos" in a book on a particular page, number of stars in a random spot in the sky, etc.
Good approximation for real world problems, as $\mathbb{P}>10$ is small.

## Continuous Distribution

Need to consider intervals not points.
Probability distribution function (p.d.f.): $f(x) \geq 0$.
Summation replaced by integral: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) d x=1$
then, $\mathbb{P}(A)=\int_{A} f(x) d x$, as shown:


If you were to choose a random point on an interval, the probability of choosing a particular point is equal to zero.
You can't assign positive probability to any point, as it would add up infinitely on a continuous interval.
It is necessary to take P (point is in a particular sub-interval).
Definition implies that $\mathbb{P}(\{a\})=\int_{a}^{a} f(x) d x=0$
Example: In a uniform distribution $[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$, denoted $\mathrm{U}[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$ :
p.d.f.: $f(x)=\frac{1}{b-a}$, for $\mathrm{x} \in[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}] ; 0$, for $\mathrm{x} \notin[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$

Example: On an interval [a, b], such that $a<c<d<b$,
$\mathbb{P}([c, d])=\int_{c}^{d} \frac{1}{b-a} d x=\frac{d-c}{b-a}$ (probability on a subinterval)

## Example: Exponential Distribution

$$
E(\alpha), \alpha>0 \text { parameter }
$$

p.d.f.: $f(x)=\alpha e^{-\alpha x}$, if $x \geq 0 ; 0$, if $x<0$

Check that it integrates to 1 :
$\int_{0}^{\infty} \alpha e^{-\alpha x} d x=\alpha\left(-\left.\frac{1}{\alpha} e^{-\alpha x}\right|_{0} ^{\infty}=1\right.$
Real world: Exponential distribution describes the life span of quality products (electronics).
** End of Lecture 8

