

Lecture #2: Random Variables

Definition - A random variable is a function X from Ω to $\mathbb{R}$, i.e., $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that $X^{-1}((-\infty, a]) \in \mathcal{F}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

Example:

Flip a coin twice.

$$\Rightarrow \Omega = \{(H, H), (H, T), (T, H), (T, T)\}$$

$\mathcal{F}$ is generated by Ω , i.e., is the set of all subsets.

Principle of indifference:

$$P((H, H)) = 1/4, P((H, T)) = 1/4, P((T, H)) = 1/4, P((T, T)) = 1/4.$$

Define

$X(\omega)$ = sum of heads that appear

Notation:

$$\begin{aligned} - P(X=2) &= P(\{\omega: X(\omega)=2\}) \\ &= P(X^{-1}(2)) \\ &= P((H, H)) \\ &= 1/4 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} - P(X=1) &= P(\{\omega: X(\omega)=1\}) \\ &= P(X^{-1}(1)) \\ &= P((H, T) \cup (T, H)) \\ &= P((H, T)) + P((T, H)) \\ &= 1/4 + 1/4 = 1/2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} - P(X=0) &= P(\{\omega: X(\omega)=0\}) \\ &= P((T, T)) \\ &= 1/4 \end{aligned}$$

Defines new probability on a new sample space

$$\Omega' = \{0, 1, 2\}.$$

with $\mathcal{F}'$ the power set.

$$\begin{aligned}
 - P(X = -1) &= P(\{\omega : X(\omega) = -1\}) \\
 &= P(\emptyset) \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 - P(X \geq 1) &= P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \geq 1\}) \\
 &= P((H, T) \cup (T, H) \cup (H, H)) \\
 &= P((H, T)) + P((T, H)) + P((H, H)) \\
 &= 3/4.
 \end{aligned}$$

Definition - The distribution of a random variable X , denoted $\mathbb{P}_X$ is a function on subsets $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P}_X(A) &= P(X \in A) \\
 &= P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A\}) \\
 &= P(X^{-1}(A))
 \end{aligned}$$

* Implicitly, we are assuming $X^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{F}$. Such functions are called measurable.

Definition - The cumulative distribution function (CDF) is defined by $F_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ defined by

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_X(x) &= P(X \leq x) \\
 \Rightarrow \mathbb{P}_X([a, b]) &= F_X(b) - F_X(a)
 \end{aligned}$$

If F_X is differentiable, there exists a probability density function (PDF) $f(x)$ such that

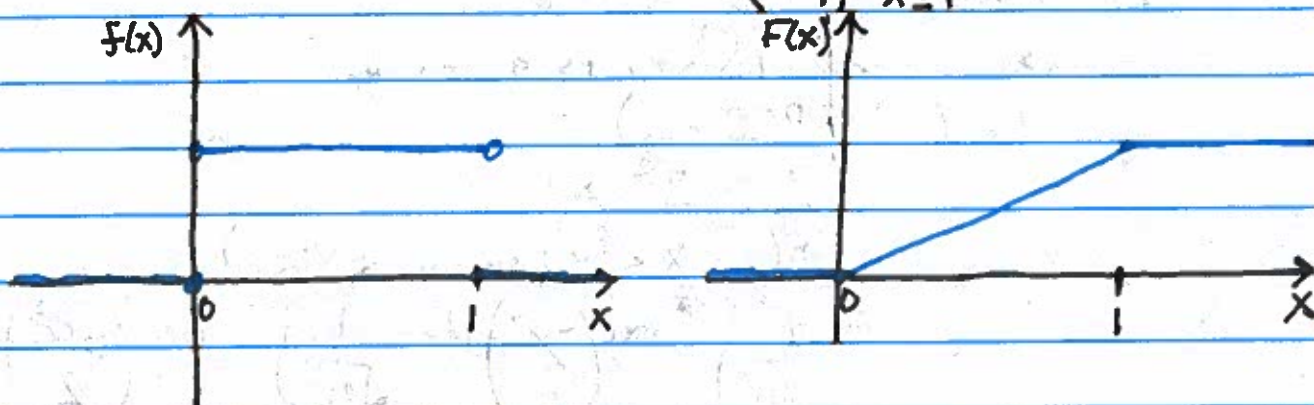
$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P}_X((a, b)) &= F_X(b) - F_X(a) \\
 &= \int_a^b F'_X(x) dx \\
 &= \int_a^b f(x) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

* The key point is that a distribution defines a probability on $\mathbb{R}$.

Examples

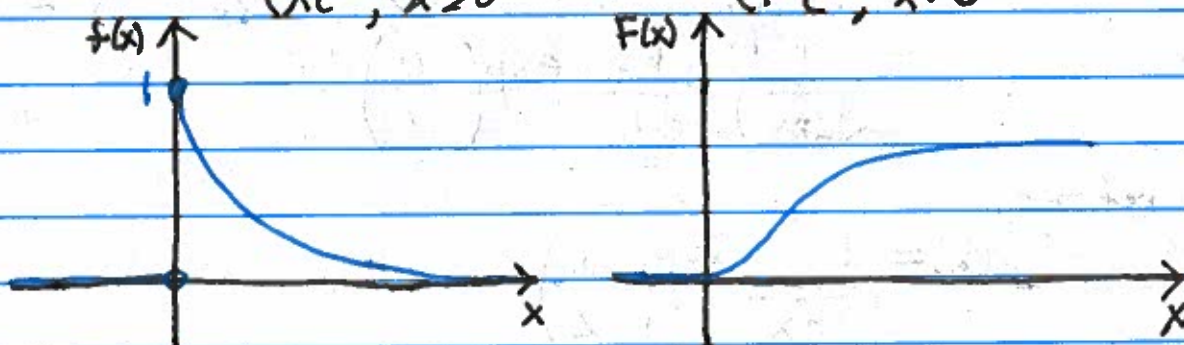
1. Uniform Distribution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \Rightarrow F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0 \\ x, & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1, & x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$



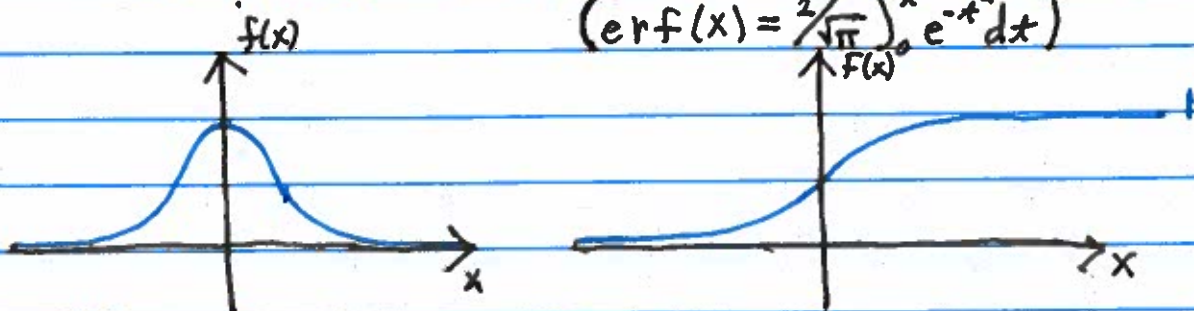
2. Exponential Distribution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0 \\ \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & x > 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-\lambda x}, & x > 0 \end{cases}$$



3. Standard Gaussian

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \Rightarrow F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$
$$\left(\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt \right)$$



Example:

Let X have a standard Gaussian distribution. What is the probability density of X^2 ?

- If $x < 0$, then $P(X^2 < x) = 0$

- If $x > 0$, then $P(X^2 < x)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}F_{X^2}(x) &= P(X^2 < x) \\&= P(0 < X^2 < x) \\&= P(0 < X < \sqrt{x} \text{ or } -\sqrt{x} < X < 0) \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{\sqrt{x}} \exp\left(-\frac{y^2}{2}\right) dy + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^0 \exp\left(-\frac{y^2}{2}\right) dy\end{aligned}$$

Let $u = y^2 \Rightarrow du = 2y dy = 2\sqrt{u} du$, $v = y^2 \Rightarrow dv = 2y dy = -2\sqrt{v} dy$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}F_{X^2}(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\int_0^x \exp\left(-\frac{u}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} du - \int_x^0 \exp\left(-\frac{v}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2\sqrt{v}} dv \right) \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \exp\left(-\frac{u}{2}\right) du\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$f_{X^2}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi x}} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{2}\right).$$