

Chapter 2 Summary

Discrete Random Variables

- If $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{P}(X = x) = 1$, then X is a *discrete random variable*.
- The *probability function* is $p_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.
- The *law of total probability*, discrete random variable version, is

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{P}(X = x) \mathbb{P}(A | X = x) .$$

- **Degenerate distributions:** $\mathbb{P}(X = c) = 1$ for some c .
- **Bernoulli distributions:** $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$. Single coin toss. $\mathbb{P}(X = 1) = \theta$, $\mathbb{P}(X = 0) = 1 - \theta$ where $0 < \theta < 1$ is a parameter.
- **Binomial distributions:** $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$. Number of heads in n coin tosses, probability of a head is θ for each toss where $0 < \theta < 1$ and n is a positive integer.

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} \theta^k (1 - \theta)^{n-k} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n .$$

$X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ where $X_i \sim \text{i.i.d. Bernoulli}(\theta)$.

- **Geometric distributions:** $X \sim \text{Geometric}(\theta)$. Number of tails before the first head in repeated coin tosses with head probability θ for each toss where $0 < \theta < 1$.

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \theta(1 - \theta)^k \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots .$$

- **Negative Binomial distributions:**
 $X \sim \text{Negative Binomial}(r, \theta)$. Number of tails before the r th head in repeated coin tosses with head probability θ for each toss where $0 < \theta < 1$.

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \binom{k+r-1}{r-1} \theta^r (1-\theta)^k \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots .$$

$X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ where $X_i \sim \text{i.i.d. Geometric}(\theta)$.

- **Poisson distributions:** $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. For parameter $\lambda > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots .$$

If $X_n \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta_n)$ for $\lambda = n\theta_n$, n large and θ_n very small, then $\mathbb{P}(X_n = k) \approx \mathbb{P}(X = k)$.

- **Hypergeometric distributions:**
 $X \sim \text{Hypergeometric}(N, M, n)$. Sample n balls without replacement from M white and $N - M$ black balls, counting the number of white balls in the sample.

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \frac{\binom{M}{k} \binom{N-M}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}},$$

where $k = \max\{0, n - N + M\}, \dots, \min\{M, n\}$.

Absolutely Continuous Random Variables

- If $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{P}(X = x) = 0$, then X is a *continuous random variable*.
- An *absolutely continuous random variable* X has a *density function* $f_X(x)$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx$$

for all $a \leq b$.

- For density functions, $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$.

- **Uniform distributions:** $X \sim \text{Uniform}(L, R)$.

$$f(x) = 1/(R - L) \quad \text{for } L < x < R .$$

$X \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ is a special case.

- **Exponential distributions:** $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$. For parameter $\lambda > 0$, the density is

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \quad \text{for } x \geq 0 .$$

The right tail probability is $\mathbb{P}(X > x) = e^{-\lambda x}$.

- **Gamma distributions:** $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$, for shape parameter $\alpha > 0$ and scale parameter $\lambda > 0$. The density is

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \quad \text{for } x \geq 0,$$

where

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx$$

is the *gamma function*, defined when $\alpha > 0$.

Note that $\Gamma(n + 1) = n!$ for nonnegative integer n , $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$, and $\Gamma(\alpha + 1) = \alpha\Gamma(\alpha)$.

$\text{Gamma}(1, \lambda)$ is $\text{Exponential}(\lambda)$.

$X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ where $X_i \sim \text{i.i.d. Exponential}(\lambda)$.

- **Normal distributions:** $X \sim \text{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Bell-shaped curves. The density is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-((x-\mu)/\sigma)^2/2} \quad (-\infty < x < \infty) .$$

In the *standard normal distribution*, $\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1$ and the density is

$$\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} .$$

If $Z \sim \text{N}(0, 1)$, then $X = \mu + \sigma Z \sim \text{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

The cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution is

$$\Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \phi(z) dz .$$

If $X \sim \text{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \Phi\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right) .$$

- **Beta distributions:** $X \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$. With parameters $a > 0, b > 0$, the density is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{B(a, b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} \quad \text{for } 0 < x < 1.$$

where the *beta function* $B(a, b)$ is defined for $a > 0, b > 0$ as

$$B(a, b) = \int_0^1 x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx = \frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)}.$$

Beta(1,1) is Uniform(0,1).

Cumulative Distribution Functions

- The *cumulative distribution function (cdf)* is defined as $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$.
- F determines the distribution.
- For an absolutely continuous random variable X with density f , $\frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x)$.
- $0 \leq F(x) \leq 1$ for all x , F is nondecreasing.
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0, \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$.

One-Dimensional Change of Variable

- If X is a discrete random variable and $Y = h(X)$, then

$$P(Y = y) = \sum_{x:h(x)=y} P(X = x).$$

- If X is an absolutely continuous random variable with density f_X ; if $Y = h(X)$ where h is strictly increasing or strictly decreasing when $f_X(x) > 0$ so that $y = h(x)$ implies that $x = h^{-1}(y)$ is unique; and if h is differentiable with derivative h' ; then

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(h^{-1}(y)) / |h'(h^{-1}(y))|.$$

Joint Distributions

- The *joint distribution* of random variables X and Y is the collection of probabilities $P((X, Y) \in B)$ for all measurable subsets $B \in \mathbb{R}^2$.
- The *joint cumulative distribution function* $F_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$ determines the joint distribution of X and Y .
- The joint distribution of X and Y determines the *marginal distributions* of X and of Y .
- For discrete random variables X and Y , the *joint probability function* $p_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$ determines the joint distribution.
- $\sum_x \sum_y p_{X,Y}(x, y) = 1$.

- For absolutely continuous random variables X and Y , the *joint density function* $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ defined so that $P(a \leq X \leq b, c \leq Y \leq d) = \int_c^d \int_a^b f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy$ determines the joint distribution.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy = 1$$

- For discrete random variables X and Y ,

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

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

- For absolutely continuous random variables X and Y with joint density $f_{X,Y}$,

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy$$

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx$$

Conditional Distributions

- For discrete random variables X and Y , the *conditional distribution of Y given $X = x$* is the collection of probabilities

$$P(Y \in B | X = x) = \frac{P(Y \in B \cap X = x)}{P(X = x)}$$

defined whenever $P(X = x) > 0$.

- The *conditional probability function* of Y given X is

$$p_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(X = x)}$$

defined whenever $P(X = x) > 0$.

- For absolutely continuous random variables X and Y , the *conditional density of Y given $X = x$* is defined to be

$$f_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y)}{f_X(x)}$$

defined whenever $f_X(x) > 0$.

- The *conditional distribution* of Y given X is the collection of probabilities

$$P(Y \in B | X = x) = \int_a^b f_{Y|X}(y | x) dy$$

for $a \leq b$ defined whenever $P(X = x) > 0$.

Independence

- Two random variables X and Y are *independent* if $P(X \in B_1, Y \in B_2) = P(X \in B_1)P(Y \in B_2)$ for all measurable sets $B_1, B_2 \subset \mathbb{R}$. In other words, random variables X and Y are independent if any event involving X and any event involving Y are independent.

- Discrete random variables X and Y are independent if and only if $P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. In addition, discrete random variables X and Y are independent if and only if $P(Y = y | X = x) = P(Y = y)$ for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $P(X = x) > 0$.
- Absolutely continuous random variables X and Y are independent if and only if the densities can be chosen so that $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. In addition, absolutely continuous random variables X and Y are independent if and only if $f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f_Y(y)$ for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_X(x) > 0$.
- If random variables X and Y are independent, then random variables $g(X)$ and $h(Y)$ are also independent.
- Collections of discrete random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent if

$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i = x_i)$$

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

- Collections of absolutely continuous random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent if density functions can be chosen so that

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{X_i}(x_i)$$

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

- A collection of random variables is *independent and identically distributed*, or *i.i.d.* if they are independent and have the same marginal distributions.

Order Statistics

- Random variables X_1, \dots, X_n sorted from smallest to largest are labeled

$$X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}$$

and are called the *order statistics* of the sample.

- $X_{(1)}$ is the minimum, $X_{(n)}$ is the maximum.

Multidimensional Change of Variable

- If $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a differentiable function, its *Jacobian derivative* is defined as

$$\frac{\partial(h_1, \dots, h_n)}{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)} = J(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \det M$$

where M is an $n \times n$ matrix whose i, j element is $\frac{\partial h_j}{\partial x_i}$. In particular for $n = 2$,

$$J = \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_1}$$

- If X_1, \dots, X_n are absolutely continuous random variables with joint density f_{X_1, \dots, X_n} and if random variables $Y_i = h_i(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ are defined so that h_i is differentiable and so that $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n)$ is one-to-one on the region where $f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) > 0$, then

$$f_{Y_1, \dots, Y_n}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \frac{f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(h^{-1}(y_1, \dots, y_n))}{|J(h^{-1}(y_1, \dots, y_n))|}$$

Convolution

- If X and Y are independent discrete random variables and $Z = X + Y$, then

$$P(Z = z) = \sum_x P(X = x)P(Y = z - x) \quad \text{for all } z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

- If X and Y are independent absolutely continuous random variables and $Z = X + Y$, then

$$f_Z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x)f_Y(z - x) dx \quad \text{for all } z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Simulation

- Some special distributions can be simulated from directly as functions of uniform random variables.
- If $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$, then $X = (R - L)U + L \sim \text{Uniform}(L, R)$.
- If $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$, then $X = -\ln(U)/\lambda \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$.
- If $U_1, U_2 \sim \text{i.i.d. Uniform}(0, 1)$, and we define

$$X = \sqrt{-2 \ln(U_1)} \cos(2\pi U_2)$$

and

$$Y = \sqrt{-2 \ln(U_1)} \sin(2\pi U_2),$$

then $X \sim N(0, 1)$, $Y \sim N(0, 1)$, and X and Y are independent.

- If $Z \sim N(0, 1)$, then $X = \mu + \sigma Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.
- If X is a random variable with cumulative distribution function F , then $F^{-1}(t) = \min\{x : F(x) \geq t\}$ for $0 < t < 1$ is the *inverse cdf* or *quantile function* of X .
- If $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$, then $Y = F^{-1}(U)$ is a random variable with cdf F .