# Lecture 7: Random Variables and Probability Distributions 

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## Recap: independence and conditional independence

## Independence:

- Two events $A$ and $B$ are independent if $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B)=\mathbb{P}(A)$, denoted as $A \Perp B$. They are dependent otherwise, denoted as $A \nVdash B$.
- Events $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ are (mutually) independent if for every $k=2,3, \ldots, n$ and every subset of indices $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{k}$,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{1}} \cap A_{i_{2}} \cap \ldots \cap A_{i_{k}}\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{1}}\right) \mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{2}}\right) \cdots \mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{k}}\right)
$$

## Conditional independence:

- Two events $A$ and $B$ are independent conditioning on event $C$ if $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B \mid C)=\mathbb{P}(A \mid C) \mathbb{P}(B \mid C)$, denoted as $(A \Perp B) \mid C$. They are dependent otherwise, denoted as $(A \not \Perp B) \mid C$.
- Events $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ are (mutually) independent conditioning on event $C$ if for every $k=2,3, \ldots, n$ and every subset of indices $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{k}$,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{1}} \cap A_{i_{2}} \cap \ldots \cap A_{i_{k}} \mid C\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{1}} \mid C\right) \mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{2}} \mid C\right) \cdots \mathbb{P}\left(A_{i_{k}} \mid C\right)
$$

## Recap: probability calculation

$\mathbb{P}(\cdot): A \in$ a set of all events $\rightarrow$ a number $\mathbb{P}(A)$ (a mapping/function which maps an event to a number)

## Three axioms:

- $0 \leq \mathbb{P}(A) \leq 1$ for any event $A \subseteq \Omega$
- $\mathbb{P}(\Omega)=1, \mathbb{P}(\emptyset)=0$
- If $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}, \ldots, A_{n}$ is a collection of disjoint (mutually exclusive) events, then

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup \ldots \cup A_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}\left(A_{i}\right)
$$

Theorem: In an experiment consisting of $N$ outcomes with equal probability, for any event $A$,

$$
\mathbb{P}(A)=\frac{N(A)}{N}
$$

where we use counting techniques to calculate $N(A)$ and $N$.

## Recap: probability calculation

## General idea to calculate probability:

(1) Translate the conditions and the event of interest by probability language
(2) Calculate.

- For equally likely outcomes, consider $\mathbb{P}(A)=\frac{N(A)}{N}$ combined with counting techniques
$\triangleright$ If conditional probability is easier to calculate or it is given, consider multiplication rule, rule of total probability, and Bayes' Theorem
$\triangleright$ See whether there are independence/conditional independence or not, which may help us to do the calculation


## Today's goal

- Understand the random variable and know how to use it in practice
- Understand the probability distribution, probability mass function (pmf), probability density function (pdf), and cumulative distribution function (cdf)
- Know the difference between discrete and continuous random variables
- See some examples of discrete and continuous random variables


## Random Variables

## Why do we need random variables

It seems that we have covered everything about probability...

- Frequently, we are interested in some numerical aspects of the outcome


## Example:

$\triangleright$ In political poll, the number of people voting for Trump among 100
$\triangleright$ The number of heads when flipping a coin 10 times

- And sometimes we are interested in the probability of many events instead of a single one, where we want to systematically give a formula for every case instead of studying the event separately


## Example:

$\triangleright$ The number of people voting for Trump among 100 (denoted as $X): \mathbb{P}(\{$ the number $=20\})=?, \mathbb{P}(\{$ the number $=50\})=$ ?, $\mathbb{P}(\{$ the number $=100\})=$ ?
$\triangleright$ The number of heads when flipping a coin 10 times (denoted as $X): \mathbb{P}(\{$ the number $=5\})=?, \mathbb{P}(\{$ the number $=0\})=$ ?, $\mathbb{P}(\{$ the number $=10\})=$ ?

## Random variables

Definition: Given an experiment and the sample space $\Omega$, a random variable is a function mapping a outcome $(\omega \in \Omega)$ into a real number, i.e.

$$
X: \omega \in \Omega \mapsto X(\omega) \in(-\infty,+\infty)
$$

Example 1: Toss a coin 3 times: the sample space is $\overline{\Omega=\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}} \times\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\} \times\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$. Random variable $X=$ the number of heads.


For instance: $X(\{\mathrm{HHH}\})=3, X(\{\mathrm{THH}\})=X(\{\mathrm{HHT}\})=2$,
$X(\{\mathrm{TTT}\})=0$

## Random variables

Definition: Given an experiment and the sample space $\Omega$, a random variable is a function mapping a outcome $(\omega \in \Omega)$ into a real number, ie.

$$
X: \omega \in \Omega \mapsto X(\omega) \in(-\infty,+\infty)
$$

Example 2: Toss two dice: the sample space is
$\Omega=\{1,2, \ldots, 6\} \times\{1,2, \ldots, 6\}$. Random variable $X=$ the sum of dice.


For instance: $X(\{(1,3)\})=4, X(\{(4,5)\})=9, X(\{(6,6)\})=12$

## Random variables

Definition: Given an experiment and the sample space $\Omega$, a random variable is a function mapping a outcome $(\omega \in \Omega)$ into a real number, i.e.

$$
X: \omega \in \Omega \mapsto X(\omega) \in(-\infty,+\infty)
$$

Example 3: Suppose that we select a location at random (defined by latitude and longitude) and define $X$ to be the temperature at that location at the current time.


## Discrete and continuous random variables

- When the possible values of of a random variable are countable ${ }^{1}$, the random variable is discrete. Examples: the number of heads/tails of coin flipping, the number of dice etc.
- When both of the following apply, the random variable is continuous.
$\triangleright$ The range is uncountable (e.g.: an interval on the number line)
$\triangleright$ No possible value of the variable has positive probability, i.e. $\mathbb{P}(X=c)=0$ for any number $c$.
Examples: the temperature at a random location

[^0]
## Exercise

Describe the set of possible values for the variable, and state whether the variable is discrete.
(1) $X=$ the number of unbroken eggs in a randomly chosen standard egg carton
(2) $Y=$ the number of students on a class list for a particular course who are absent on the first day of classes
(3) $U=$ the number of times a duffer has to swing at a golf ball before hitting it
(4) $X=$ the length of a randomly selected rattlesnake
(5) $Z=$ the sales tax percentage for a randomly selected Amazon purchase
(6) $Y=$ the pH of a randomly chosen soil sample
(7) $X=$ the tension (psi) at which a randomly selected tennis racket has been strung
(8) $X=$ the total number of times three tennis players must spin their rackets to obtain something other than UUU or DDD (to determine which two play next)

## Random variables and random events

Compare their definitions:

- A random variable is a function mapping a outcome $(\omega \in \Omega)$ into a real number, i.e. $X: \omega \in \Omega \mapsto X(\omega) \in(-\infty,+\infty)$.
- An event is a set (collection) of outcomes.

Furthermore, for any subset $\mathcal{B}$ on the number line ${ }^{2},\{\omega: X(\omega) \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a random event, which is a set (collection) of outcomes. And we can calculate the corresponding probability.

Therefore, $\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{B})=\mathbb{P}(\{\omega: X(\omega) \in \mathcal{B}\})$.

[^1]
## Random variables and random events

 Let's recall our previous example:Toss a fair coin 3 times: the sample space is $\Omega=\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\} \times\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\} \times\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$. Random variable $X=$ the number of heads.


Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}(X=3)=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathrm{HHH}\})=\frac{1}{8}, \\
& \mathbb{P}(X=2)=\mathbb{P}(\{\text { HTH }, \text { THH }, \text { HHT }\})=\frac{3}{8}, \\
& \mathbb{P}(X=1)=\mathbb{P}(\{\text { HTT, THT, TTH }\})=\frac{3}{8}, \\
& \mathbb{P}(X=0)=\mathbb{P}(\{\text { TTT }\})=\frac{1}{8} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Distribution of Random Variables

## Distribution

Definition: The (probability) distribution of a random variable $X$ describes how the total probability of 1 is distributed among all possible values of $X$. It tells us $\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{B})=\mathbb{P}(\{\omega: X(\omega) \in \mathcal{B}\})$ for any subset $\mathcal{B}$ of number line ${ }^{3}$.

Definition: Cumulative distribution function (cdf) of a r.v. $X$ is defined as

$$
F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)
$$

for any number $x$ (including $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ ).
Proposition: The cdf can describe the distribution of random variables.
Why? (Not need to know): Because any subset $\mathcal{B}$ of the real line can be expressed as the union/intersection/difference of intervals like $(-\infty, x]$. E.g.: $(5,10]=(-\infty, 10] \backslash(-\infty, 5])$
$\Rightarrow$ Then $\mathbb{P}(X \in(5,10]) \stackrel{\text { why? }}{=} \mathbb{P}(X \leq 10)-\mathbb{P}(X \leq 5)=F(10)-F(5)$.

[^2] $\mathcal{B}$ can be $(0,1),[-2,+\infty),(5,5.5],\{1\},\{-1,2.5\},(-3,-1) \cup(9,10]$ etc.

## Distribution

Definition: Cumulative distribution function (cdf) of a r.v. $X$ is defined as

$$
F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)
$$

for any number $x$ (including $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ ).

## Remark:

- $F(+\infty)=1$
because $(-\infty,+\infty] \supseteq \Omega \Rightarrow F(+\infty)=\mathbb{P}((-\infty,+\infty]) \geq \mathbb{P}(\Omega)=1$
- $F(-\infty)=0$
because $(-\infty,-\infty)$ behaves like an empty set ${ }^{4}$
$\Rightarrow F(-\infty)=\mathbb{P}((-\infty,-\infty))=0$
- Therefore $0 \leq F(x) \leq 1$ for any number $x$
- $F(x)$ is an increasing function, i.e. for $x_{1} \leq x_{2}, F\left(x_{1}\right) \leq F\left(x_{2}\right)$ (why?)
- (Not required to know) $F(x)$ is right-continuous, i.e.
$\lim _{z \rightarrow x+0} F(z)=F(x)$

[^3]
## Distribution

Definition: For a discrete r.v. $X$, its distribution can also be described by probability mass function (pmf)

$$
p(x)=\mathbb{P}(X=x)=\mathbb{P}(\{\omega: X(\omega)=x\})
$$

for any number $x$ (including $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ ).

- For discrete r.v., suppose $S=\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, \ldots\right\}$ including all possible values of $X$, then:
$\triangleright p(x)>0$ only when $x \in S$, and $p(x)=0$ elsewhere
$\triangleright F(x)=\sum_{i: z_{i} \leq x} p\left(z_{i}\right)$
$\triangleright p\left(z_{i}\right)=F\left(x_{2}\right)-F\left(x_{1}\right)$ for any $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ with $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right] \cap S=\left\{z_{i}\right\}$
- Two conditions for a valid pmf:
(1) $p(x) \geq 0$ for any $x$;
(2) $\sum_{x \in S} p(x)=1$.
- It's senseless to talk about pmf of continuous r.v., because $\mathbb{P}(X=x)=0$ for any number $x$ if $X$ is continuous! (will see that from the view of integral)


## cdf and pmf of discrete random variables

cdf: $F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$
pmf: $p(x)=\mathbb{P}(X=x)$
For discrete r.v., suppose $S=\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, \ldots\right\}$ including all possible values of $X$, then:

- $p(x)>0$ only when $x \in S$, and $p(x)=0$ elsewhere
- $F(x)=\sum_{i: z_{i} \leq x} p\left(z_{i}\right)$
- $p\left(z_{i}\right)=F\left(x_{2}\right)-F\left(x_{1}\right)$ for any $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ with $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right] \cap S=\left\{z_{i}\right\}$
- $\mathbb{P}\left(x_{1}<X \leq x_{2}\right)=F\left(x_{2}\right)-F\left(x_{1}\right)=\sum_{i: x_{1}<z_{i} \leq x_{2}} p\left(z_{i}\right)$

Example: The pmf of a discrete r.v. is

| $x$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $p(x)$ | . 05 | . 10 | . 15 | . 25 | . 20 | . 15 | . 10 |
| $\begin{aligned} & F(2)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq 2)=p(0)+p(1)+p(2)=0.05+0.1+0.15=0.3, F(1)= \\ & \mathbb{P}(X \leq 1)=p(0)+p(1)=0.05+0.1=0.15 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## Example of discrete distribution: binomial distribution

Toss a unfair coin 10 times. Suppose each time the probabilities of heads and tails are $p$ and $1-p$, respectively. Random variable $X=$ the number of heads.

- $\mathbb{P}(X=0)=\mathbb{P}(\{$ TTTTTTTTTT $\})=(1-p)^{10}$
- $\mathbb{P}(X=1)=\mathbb{P}(\{9$ T's and 1 H$\})=\binom{10}{1} p(1-p)^{9}$
- ...
- In general, the pmf

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p(x)=\mathbb{P}(X=x)=\mathbb{P}\left(\left\{(10-x) \text { T's and } x \mathrm{H}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}\right\}\right)=\binom{10}{x} p^{x}(1-p)^{10-x}, \\
& x=0, \ldots, 10 .
\end{aligned}
$$

- The cdf $F(x)=\sum_{k: 0 \leq k \leq x} p(k)=\sum_{k: 0 \leq k \leq x}\binom{10}{k} p^{k}(1-p)^{10-k}$

We call such a variable $X$ as binomial random variable and its distribution as the binomial distribution.

## cdf and pdf of continuous random variables

Definition: For a continuous r.v. $X$, its distribution can also be described by a non-negative probability density function (pdf) $f(x)$ which satisfies

$$
\mathbb{P}(a<X \leq b)=F(b)-F(a)=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x
$$

for any two numbers $a$ and $b$ with $a \leq b$ (including $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ ).

- By letting $a=-\infty$ : cdf $F(b)=\int_{-\infty}^{b} f(x) d x$
- By Fundamental theorem of calculus (Newton-Leibniz Theorem): the cdf $F$ of a continuous variable is differentiable and $F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)$
- For continuous r.v., the single point doesn't matter, i.e. $\mathbb{P}(a<X \leq b)=\mathbb{P}(a \leq X \leq b)$ (why?)
- An appropriate pdf should satisfy two conditions:
(1) $f(x) \geq 0$ for any number $x$
(2) $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) d x=1$


## cdf and pdf of continuous random variables

Definition: For a continuous r.v. $X$, its distribution can also be described by probability density function (pdf) $f(x)$ which satisfies

$$
\mathbb{P}(a<X \leq b)=F(b)-F(a)=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x
$$

for any two numbers $a$ and $b$ with $a \leq b$ (including $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ ).


The probability of a r.v. falling into a region is the area of shaded region under pdf $f(x)$, which connects to the physical meaning of the integral!

## cdf and pdf of continuous random variables

Definition: Probability density function (pdf) $f(x)$ satisfies

$$
\mathbb{P}(a<X \leq b)=F(b)-F(a)=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x
$$

for any two numbers $a$ and $b$ with $a \leq b$ (including $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ ).

- By letting $a=-\infty$ : cdf $F(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x) d x$
- $F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)$




## Exercise: continuous variables

Given the pdf, write down the corresponding cdf :
(1) $f(x)=1,0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $f(x)=0$ elsewhere
(2) $f(x)=\frac{3}{2} x^{2},-1 \leq x \leq 1$ and $f(x)=0$ elsewhere
(3) $f(x)=2 e^{-2 x}, x \geq 0$ and $f(x)=0$ elsewhere

Given the cdf, write down the corresponding pdf:
(1) $F(x)=x, 0 \leq x \leq 1$
(2) $F(x)=1-e^{-x}, x \geq 0$

## Example of continuous distribution: uniform distribution

We say $X$ follow a uniform distribution on $[A, B]$, if:

- Its pdf is $f(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{B-A}, & A \leq x \leq B \\ 0, & \text { elsewhere }\end{cases}$
- Its cdf is $F(x)= \begin{cases}0, & x \leq A \\ \frac{x-A}{B-A}, & A<x \leq B \\ 1, & x>B\end{cases}$




## Example: uniform distribution

We say $X$ follow a uniform distribution on $[A, B]$, if:

- Its pdf is $f(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{B-A}, & A \leq x \leq B \\ 0, & \text { elsewhere }\end{cases}$
- Its cdf is $F(x)= \begin{cases}0, & x \leq A \\ \frac{x-A}{B-A}, & A<x \leq B \\ 1, & x>B\end{cases}$



## Comparison: discrete and continuous variables

Underlying intuition:

- The probability "mass" of discrete variables concentrates at a few points
- The probability "mass" of continuous variables spreads out in a dense region

Characterization of their distributions:

- cdf is available for both of them: $F(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$
- pmf only works for discrete variables: $p(x)=\mathbb{P}(X=x)$
- pdf only works for continuous variables: $f(x)=F^{\prime}(x)$ and $F(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t) d t$


## Comparison: discrete and continuous variables

Discrete distribution:



Continuous distribution:



## Relative frequency bar chart and pmf

Suppose a r.v. $X$ has distribution with this pmf. I sampled $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$, $X_{1000}$ independently from this distribution.


- Empirical relative frequency is an approximation of pmf.
- If we sample infinite points, the relative frequency will equal pmf.
- We will discuss more on this next week.


## Density histogram and pdf

Suppose a r.v. $X$ has distribution with this pdf. I sampled $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$, $X_{1000}$ independently from this distribution.


- Empirical density histogram is an approximation of pdf.
- If we sample infinite points and the bin width is infinitely small, the density histogram will be the same as the pdf curve.


## Reading list (optional)

- "Probability and Statistics for Engineering and the Sciences" (9th edition):
$\triangleright$ Chapter 3.1, 3.2, 4.1 and 4.2 (skip the part of expectations)
- "OpenIntro statistics" (4th edition, free online, download [here]):
$\triangleright$ Chapter 3.4 and 3.5 (It's ok if you feel difficult to understand the expectation and variance. We will cover them next week.)

Many thanks to

- Yang Feng
- Joyce Robbins
- Chengliang Tang
- Owen Ward
- Wenda Zhou
- And all my teachers in the past 25 years


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ either constitute a finite set or else can be listed in an infinite sequence in which there is a first element, a second element, and so on ("countably" infinite)

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Actually not "any" subset, but the current statement is enough and correct for this course. You will learn more in a PhD-level probability course in the future. Currently, $\mathcal{B}$ can be any union/intersection of intervals/points on the real line. E.g., $\mathcal{B}$ can be $(0,1)$, $[-2,+\infty),(5,5.5],\{1\},\{-1,2.5\},(-3,-1) \cup(9,10]$ etc.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Currently, $\mathcal{B}$ can be any union/intersection of intervals/points on the real line. E.g.,

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ not accurate, but enough for this course

