

Mathematics for Informatics 4a

José Figueroa-O'Farrill



Lecture 6
3 February 2012

The story of the film so far...

- Experiments with integer outcomes give rise to probability distributions $p : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, satisfying $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} p(x) = 1$.

The story of the film so far...

- Experiments with integer outcomes give rise to probability distributions $p : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, satisfying $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} p(x) = 1$.
- We met several famous discrete probability distributions:

The story of the film so far...

- Experiments with integer outcomes give rise to probability distributions $p : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, satisfying $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} p(x) = 1$.
- We met several famous discrete probability distributions:
 - **uniform** on $E = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$: $p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n}, & x \in E \\ 0, & x \notin E \end{cases}$

The story of the film so far...

- Experiments with integer outcomes give rise to probability distributions $p : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, satisfying $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} p(x) = 1$.
- We met several famous discrete probability distributions:
 - **uniform** on $E = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$: $p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n}, & x \in E \\ 0, & x \notin E \end{cases}$
 - **2-digit Benford**: $p(x) = \begin{cases} \log_{10}(1 + x^{-1}), & 10 \leq x \leq 99 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

The story of the film so far...

- Experiments with integer outcomes give rise to probability distributions $p : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, satisfying $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} p(x) = 1$.
- We met several famous discrete probability distributions:

- uniform** on $E = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$:
$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n}, & x \in E \\ 0, & x \notin E \end{cases}$$

- 2-digit Benford**:
$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \log_{10}(1 + x^{-1}), & 10 \leq x \leq 99 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- binomial** with parameters n, p :

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, & 0 \leq x \leq n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

the probability of exactly x successes in n independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p

The story of the film so far...

- Experiments with integer outcomes give rise to probability distributions $p : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, satisfying $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} p(x) = 1$.
- We met several famous discrete probability distributions:

- uniform** on $E = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$: $p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n}, & x \in E \\ 0, & x \notin E \end{cases}$

- 2-digit Benford**: $p(x) = \begin{cases} \log_{10}(1 + x^{-1}), & 10 \leq x \leq 99 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

- binomial** with parameters n, p :

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, & 0 \leq x \leq n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

the probability of exactly x successes in n independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p

- We also introduced the distribution function $F : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ associated to p , defined by $F(x) = \sum_{t \leq x} p(t)$:
monotonically increasing from 0 to 1.

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up H. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up H. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

Let $p(k)$ be the probability of stopping at the k th toss.

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up H. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

Let $p(k)$ be the probability of stopping at the k th toss. Clearly,

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k = 0, -1, -2, \dots \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up **H**. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

Let $p(k)$ be the probability of stopping at the k th toss. Clearly,

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k = 0, -1, -2, \dots \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

This is called the **geometric distribution** with parameter $\frac{1}{2}$.

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up **H**. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

Let $p(k)$ be the probability of stopping at the k th toss. Clearly,

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k = 0, -1, -2, \dots \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

This is called the **geometric distribution** with parameter $\frac{1}{2}$. Of course,

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} p(k)$$

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up **H**. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

Let $p(k)$ be the probability of stopping at the k th toss. Clearly,

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k = 0, -1, -2, \dots \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

This is called the **geometric distribution** with parameter $\frac{1}{2}$. Of course,

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} p(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2})^k$$

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up **H**. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

Let $p(k)$ be the probability of stopping at the k th toss. Clearly,

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k = 0, -1, -2, \dots \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

This is called the **geometric distribution** with parameter $\frac{1}{2}$. Of course,

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} p(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2})^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2})^k - 1$$

The mathematics of waiting

Example (Alice and Bob's favourite game)

We toss a fair coin until it comes up **H**. *How long must we wait for the game to end?*

Let $p(k)$ be the probability of stopping at the k th toss. Clearly,

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k = 0, -1, -2, \dots \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, 3, \dots \end{cases}$$

This is called the **geometric distribution** with parameter $\frac{1}{2}$. Of course,

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} p(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2})^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2})^k - 1 = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} - 1 = 1.$$

Example

- Suppose we decide to toss the coin at most N times, whether or not a head appears.

Example

- Suppose we decide to toss the coin at most N times, whether or not a head appears.
- Stopping at the N th toss is equiprobable to getting tails in the first $N - 1$ tosses: $p(N) = (\frac{1}{2})^{N-1}$.

Example

- Suppose we decide to toss the coin at most N times, whether or not a head appears.
- Stopping at the N th toss is equiprobable to getting tails in the first $N - 1$ tosses: $p(N) = (\frac{1}{2})^{N-1}$.
- The resulting probability distribution is now

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k \leq 0 \text{ or } k > N \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, \dots, N-1 \\ (\frac{1}{2})^{N-1}, & k = N \end{cases}$$

and is called the **truncated geometric distribution** with parameters N and $\frac{1}{2}$.

Example

- Suppose we decide to toss the coin at most N times, whether or not a head appears.
- Stopping at the N th toss is equiprobable to getting tails in the first $N - 1$ tosses: $p(N) = (\frac{1}{2})^{N-1}$.
- The resulting probability distribution is now

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k \leq 0 \text{ or } k > N \\ (\frac{1}{2})^k, & k = 1, 2, \dots, N-1 \\ (\frac{1}{2})^{N-1}, & k = N \end{cases}$$

and is called the **truncated geometric distribution** with parameters N and $\frac{1}{2}$.

- Again one has $\sum_k p(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} (\frac{1}{2})^k + (\frac{1}{2})^{N-1} = 1$.

Example (Dice instead of coins)

Suppose that now Alice and Bob roll a fair die instead and the game ends when one of them rolls a 6. *What is the probability $p(k)$ that the game ends with the k th roll?*

Example (Dice instead of coins)

Suppose that now Alice and Bob roll a fair die instead and the game ends when one of them rolls a $\boxed{1}$. What is the probability $p(k)$ that the game ends with the k th roll?

Let S denote the event of rolling a $\boxed{1}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(S) = \frac{1}{6}$ and hence $\mathbb{P}(S^c) = \frac{5}{6}$.

Example (Dice instead of coins)

Suppose that now Alice and Bob roll a fair die instead and the game ends when one of them rolls a $\boxed{1}$. *What is the probability $p(k)$ that the game ends with the k th roll?*

Let S denote the event of rolling a $\boxed{1}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(S) = \frac{1}{6}$ and hence $\mathbb{P}(S^c) = \frac{5}{6}$. The game ends with the k th roll if the first $k - 1$ rolls do not show $\boxed{1}$ and the k th roll does.

Example (Dice instead of coins)

Suppose that now Alice and Bob roll a fair die instead and the game ends when one of them rolls a $\boxed{1}$. What is the probability $p(k)$ that the game ends with the k th roll?

Let S denote the event of rolling a $\boxed{1}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(S) = \frac{1}{6}$ and hence $\mathbb{P}(S^c) = \frac{5}{6}$. The game ends with the k th roll if the first $k - 1$ rolls do not show $\boxed{1}$ and the k th roll does. The probability of such a sequence of rolls is then

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{k-1} \frac{1}{6}, & k \geq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Example (Dice instead of coins)

Suppose that now Alice and Bob roll a fair die instead and the game ends when one of them rolls a $\boxed{1}$. What is the probability $p(k)$ that the game ends with the k th roll?

Let S denote the event of rolling a $\boxed{1}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(S) = \frac{1}{6}$ and hence $\mathbb{P}(S^c) = \frac{5}{6}$. The game ends with the k th roll if the first $k - 1$ rolls do not show $\boxed{1}$ and the k th roll does. The probability of such a sequence of rolls is then

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{k-1} \frac{1}{6}, & k \geq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This is called the **geometric distribution** with parameter $\frac{1}{6}$.

Geometric distribution

Definition

The **geometric distribution** with parameter p is given by

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} (1-p)^{k-1}p, & k \geq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Geometric distribution

Definition

The **geometric distribution** with parameter p is given by

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} (1-p)^{k-1}p, & k \geq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The number $p(k)$ is the probability that in independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p , the first success occurs at the k th trial.

Geometric distribution

Definition

The **geometric distribution** with parameter p is given by

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} (1-p)^{k-1}p, & k \geq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The number $p(k)$ is the probability that in independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p , the first success occurs at the k th trial. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} p(k) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1-p)^{k-1}p = p \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} (1-p)^{\ell} \\ &= p \frac{1}{1-(1-p)} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Example (Weekly lottery)

Let p be the probability that a given number d is drawn in any given week. After n successive draws, let $p(k)$ be the probability that d last appeared k weeks ago. *What is $p(k)$?*

Example (Weekly lottery)

Let p be the probability that a given number d is drawn in any given week. After n successive draws, let $p(k)$ be the probability that d last appeared k weeks ago. *What is $p(k)$?*

The number d appears with probability p and does not appear with probability $1 - p$.

Example (Weekly lottery)

Let p be the probability that a given number d is drawn in any given week. After n successive draws, let $p(k)$ be the probability that d last appeared k weeks ago. *What is $p(k)$?* The number d appears with probability p and does not appear with probability $1 - p$. Then since d appeared k weeks ago and has not appeared since, we have

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} p(1 - p)^k, & 0 \leq k \leq n - 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example (Weekly lottery)

Let p be the probability that a given number d is drawn in any given week. After n successive draws, let $p(k)$ be the probability that d last appeared k weeks ago. *What is $p(k)$?* The number d appears with probability p and does not appear with probability $1 - p$. Then since d appeared k weeks ago and has not appeared since, we have

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} p(1-p)^k, & 0 \leq k \leq n-1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notice that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} p(k) = 1 - (1-p)^n,$$

Example (Weekly lottery)

Let p be the probability that a given number d is drawn in any given week. After n successive draws, let $p(k)$ be the probability that d last appeared k weeks ago. *What is $p(k)$?* The number d appears with probability p and does not appear with probability $1 - p$. Then since d appeared k weeks ago and has not appeared since, we have

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} p(1 - p)^k, & 0 \leq k \leq n - 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notice that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} p(k) = 1 - (1 - p)^n,$$

where $(1 - p)^n$ is the probability that d does not appear in all n weeks.

Negative binomial distribution

The binomial distribution answers the question:

Given n trials, what is the chance of k successes?

Negative binomial distribution

The binomial distribution answers the question:

Given n trials, what is the chance of k successes?

Suppose, instead, that we ask:

What is the chance we need n trials to obtain k successes?

Negative binomial distribution

The binomial distribution answers the question:

Given n trials, what is the chance of k successes?

Suppose, instead, that we ask:

What is the chance we need n trials to obtain k successes?

A Bernoulli trial is repeated until we attain k successes and let us call $p_k(n)$ the probability that the total number of trials is n .

Negative binomial distribution

The binomial distribution answers the question:

Given n trials, what is the chance of k successes?

Suppose, instead, that we ask:

What is the chance we need n trials to obtain k successes?

A Bernoulli trial is repeated until we attain k successes and let us call $p_k(n)$ the probability that the total number of trials is n . If we need n trials, it is because there are $k - 1$ successes in the first $n - 1$ trials and the n th trial was a success.

Negative binomial distribution

The binomial distribution answers the question:

Given n trials, what is the chance of k successes?

Suppose, instead, that we ask:

What is the chance we need n trials to obtain k successes?

A Bernoulli trial is repeated until we attain k successes and let us call $p_k(n)$ the probability that the total number of trials is n . If we need n trials, it is because there are $k - 1$ successes in the first $n - 1$ trials and the n th trial was a success. By independence,

$$p_k(n) = \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^{k-1} q^{n-k} \times p = \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^k q^{n-k}$$

for $n \geq k$. This is the **negative binomial distribution**.

Discrete random variables

- We have seen how to assign a probability distribution to experiments with numerical (particularly, integer) outcomes. However not all interesting experiments are of this type.

Discrete random variables

- We have seen how to assign a probability distribution to experiments with numerical (particularly, integer) outcomes. However not all interesting experiments are of this type.
- Even if the outcomes are numerical, we may be interested in some other numerical measure of the outcome; e.g., gamblers might be more interested in the monetary values of their winnings/losses than in the actual number of times that they win or lose. Such numerical measures are called *random variables*.

Discrete random variables

- We have seen how to assign a probability distribution to experiments with numerical (particularly, integer) outcomes. However not all interesting experiments are of this type.
- Even if the outcomes are numerical, we may be interested in some other numerical measure of the outcome; e.g., gamblers might be more interested in the monetary values of their winnings/losses than in the actual number of times that they win or lose. Such numerical measures are called *random variables*.

Definition

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space. A function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a **discrete random variable** on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ if

Discrete random variables

- We have seen how to assign a probability distribution to experiments with numerical (particularly, integer) outcomes. However not all interesting experiments are of this type.
- Even if the outcomes are numerical, we may be interested in some other numerical measure of the outcome; e.g., gamblers might be more interested in the monetary values of their winnings/losses than in the actual number of times that they win or lose. Such numerical measures are called *random variables*.

Definition

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space. A function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a **discrete random variable** on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ if

- 1 it takes countably many values $D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \subset \mathbb{R}$, and

Discrete random variables

- We have seen how to assign a probability distribution to experiments with numerical (particularly, integer) outcomes. However not all interesting experiments are of this type.
- Even if the outcomes are numerical, we may be interested in some other numerical measure of the outcome; e.g., gamblers might be more interested in the monetary values of their winnings/losses than in the actual number of times that they win or lose. Such numerical measures are called *random variables*.

Definition

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space. A function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a **discrete random variable** on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ if

- 1 it takes countably many values $D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \subset \mathbb{R}$, and
- 2 for every $x_i \in D$, the set $\{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) = x_i\} \in \mathcal{F}$.

Examples

- If Ω is finite then any function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a discrete random variable.

Examples

- If Ω is finite then any function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a discrete random variable.
- In many practical situations, if Ω is a countable subset of \mathbb{R} (e.g., $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$) then the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$ is a discrete random variable.

Examples

- If Ω is finite then any function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a discrete random variable.
- In many practical situations, if Ω is a countable subset of \mathbb{R} (e.g., $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$) then the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$ is a discrete random variable.
- In the game of darts, Ω is uncountable since it contains all the points in the dartboard on which the dart can land, but the score $X : \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, 60\}$ is a discrete random variable.

Examples

- If Ω is finite then any function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a discrete random variable.
- In many practical situations, if Ω is a countable subset of \mathbb{R} (e.g., $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$) then the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$ is a discrete random variable.
- In the game of darts, Ω is uncountable since it contains all the points in the dartboard on which the dart can land, but the score $X : \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, 60\}$ is a discrete random variable.

Notation

We will denote random variables by capital letters T, V, X, Y, Z, \dots and their values by lowercase letters t, v, x, y, z, \dots

Examples

- If Ω is finite then any function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a discrete random variable.
- In many practical situations, if Ω is a countable subset of \mathbb{R} (e.g., $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$) then the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$ is a discrete random variable.
- In the game of darts, Ω is uncountable since it contains all the points in the dartboard on which the dart can land, but the score $X : \Omega \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, 60\}$ is a discrete random variable.

Notation

We will denote random variables by capital letters T, V, X, Y, Z, \dots and their values by lowercase letters t, v, x, y, z, \dots

Please observe this convention very carefully!!!

Probability mass function

- Let X be a discrete random variable on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ taking integer values. (There is no loss of generality in doing this, since any countable set can be labelled by integers.)

Probability mass function

- Let X be a discrete random variable on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ taking integer values. (There is no loss of generality in doing this, since any countable set can be labelled by integers.)
- By definition of a discrete random variable, the subset $A_x = \{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) = x\}$ of Ω is an event and therefore it has a well-defined probability $\mathbb{P}(A_x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.

Probability mass function

- Let X be a discrete random variable on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ taking integer values. (There is no loss of generality in doing this, since any countable set can be labelled by integers.)
- By definition of a discrete random variable, the subset $A_x = \{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) = x\}$ of Ω is an event and therefore it has a well-defined probability $\mathbb{P}(A_x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.
- This allows us to define a function f_X by $f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$, called the **probability mass function** of X .

Probability mass function

- Let X be a discrete random variable on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ taking integer values. (There is no loss of generality in doing this, since any countable set can be labelled by integers.)
- By definition of a discrete random variable, the subset $A_x = \{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) = x\}$ of Ω is an event and therefore it has a well-defined probability $\mathbb{P}(A_x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.
- This allows us to define a function f_X by $f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$, called the **probability mass function** of X .
- Being a probability, $0 \leq f_X(x) \leq 1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Probability mass function

- Let X be a discrete random variable on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ taking integer values. (There is no loss of generality in doing this, since any countable set can be labelled by integers.)
- By definition of a discrete random variable, the subset $A_x = \{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) = x\}$ of Ω is an event and therefore it has a well-defined probability $\mathbb{P}(A_x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.
- This allows us to define a function f_X by $f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$, called the **probability mass function** of X .
- Being a probability, $0 \leq f_X(x) \leq 1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Since the A_x for $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ are a countable partition of Ω , the countable additivity of \mathbb{P} implies that

$$\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} f_X(x) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{P}(A_x) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} A_x\right) = \mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1.$$

Remarks

- In the case of $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$ and X being the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$, $f_X(x)$ is what we called the probability distribution $p(x)$.

Remarks

- In the case of $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$ and X being the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$, $f_X(x)$ is what we called the probability distribution $p(x)$.
- Provided that we are only interested in X (and other random variables we may build out of X), we can essentially forget about $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and work with only the probability mass function f_X .

Remarks

- In the case of $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$ and X being the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$, $f_X(x)$ is what we called the probability distribution $p(x)$.
- Provided that we are only interested in X (and other random variables we may build out of X), we can essentially forget about $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and work with only the probability mass function f_X . We often speak about “a *discrete random variable X with probability mass function f_X* ” without bothering to mention the probability space on which X is defined.

Remarks

- In the case of $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$ and X being the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$, $f_X(x)$ is what we called the probability distribution $p(x)$.
- Provided that we are only interested in X (and other random variables we may build out of X), we can essentially forget about $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and work with only the probability mass function f_X . We often speak about “a *discrete random variable X with probability mass function f_X* ” without bothering to mention the probability space on which X is defined.
- The probability distributions we have been discussing can play the rôle of probability mass functions.

Remarks

- In the case of $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$ and X being the identity function $X(\omega) = \omega$, $f_X(x)$ is what we called the probability distribution $p(x)$.
- Provided that we are only interested in X (and other random variables we may build out of X), we can essentially forget about $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and work with only the probability mass function f_X . We often speak about “a *discrete random variable X with probability mass function f_X* ” without bothering to mention the probability space on which X is defined.
- The probability distributions we have been discussing can play the rôle of probability mass functions.
- One can talk about discrete random variables with uniform, binomial, geometric, Benford,... probability mass functions.

Example (Poisson distribution)

Let $\lambda > 0$ be a positive real number. The **Poisson distribution** with parameter λ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example (Poisson distribution)

Let $\lambda > 0$ be a positive real number. The **Poisson distribution** with parameter λ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It is clear that $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x and that it is nonzero only for a countable subset of \mathbb{R} ; namely, the natural numbers.

Example (Poisson distribution)

Let $\lambda > 0$ be a positive real number. The **Poisson distribution** with parameter λ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It is clear that $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x and that it is nonzero only for a countable subset of \mathbb{R} ; namely, the natural numbers. Finally

$$\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} f(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

Example (Poisson distribution)

Let $\lambda > 0$ be a positive real number. The **Poisson distribution** with parameter λ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It is clear that $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x and that it is nonzero only for a countable subset of \mathbb{R} ; namely, the natural numbers. Finally

$$\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} f(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

Example (Poisson distribution)

Let $\lambda > 0$ be a positive real number. The **Poisson distribution** with parameter λ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It is clear that $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x and that it is nonzero only for a countable subset of \mathbb{R} ; namely, the natural numbers. Finally

$$\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} f(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} = 1$$

Example (Poisson distribution)

Let $\lambda > 0$ be a positive real number. The **Poisson distribution** with parameter λ is defined by

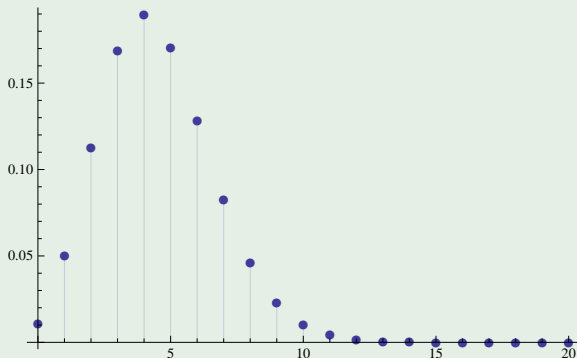
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It is clear that $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x and that it is nonzero only for a countable subset of \mathbb{R} ; namely, the natural numbers. Finally

$$\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} f(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} = 1$$

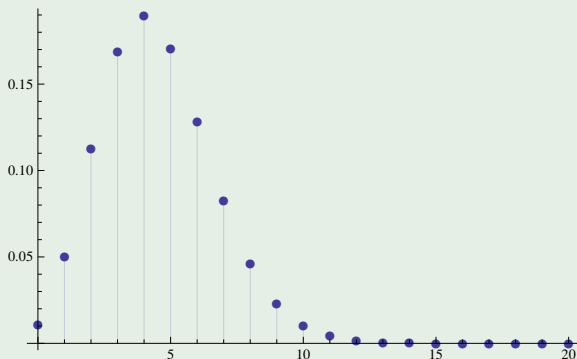
We can therefore talk about discrete random variables whose probability mass function is Poisson with parameter λ .

Example (Poisson distribution – continued)



We will see later that the Poisson distribution is a limit of the binomial distribution for large n and small p keeping np fixed.

Example (Poisson distribution – continued)



We will see later that the Poisson distribution is a limit of the binomial distribution for large n and small p keeping np fixed. This means that we can use it to approximate the binomial distribution in that limit.

Expectation value as a weighted average

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X . The **expectation value** $\mathbb{E}(X)$ of X is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x) .$$

Expectation value as a weighted average

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X . The **expectation value** $\mathbb{E}(X)$ of X is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x) .$$

(provided that $\sum_x |x| f_X(x) < \infty$.)

Expectation value as a weighted average

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X . The **expectation value** $\mathbb{E}(X)$ of X is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x) .$$

(provided that $\sum_x |x| f_X(x) < \infty$.)

The expectation value agrees with our notion of *mean* or *average* in the case of a uniform distribution.

Expectation value as a weighted average

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X . The **expectation value** $\mathbb{E}(X)$ of X is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x) .$$

(provided that $\sum_x |x| f_X(x) < \infty$.)

The expectation value agrees with our notion of *mean* or *average* in the case of a uniform distribution.

Example (Dice)

Consider rolling a dice and let X denote the random variable $X(\text{⬢}) = 1$, $X(\text{⬤}) = 2$, et cetera.

Expectation value as a weighted average

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X . The **expectation value** $\mathbb{E}(X)$ of X is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x) .$$

(provided that $\sum_x |x| f_X(x) < \infty$.)

The expectation value agrees with our notion of *mean* or *average* in the case of a uniform distribution.

Example (Dice)

Consider rolling a dice and let X denote the random variable $X(\square) = 1$, $X(\blacksquare) = 2$, et cetera. Then $\mathbb{E}(X)$ is the average score:

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{x=1}^6 x f_X(x) = \sum_{x=1}^6 x \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{6} (1 + 2 + \cdots + 6) = \frac{7}{2} .$$

Example (Betting)

Consider a betting game based on a Bernoulli trial with success probability p . Every bet costs £1: if you win you get your £1 back and an additional £2, if you lose you get nothing. *How much do you expect to win/lose on average?*

Example (Betting)

Consider a betting game based on a Bernoulli trial with success probability p . Every bet costs $\pounds 1$: if you win you get your $\pounds 1$ back and an additional $\pounds 2$, if you lose you get nothing. *How much do you expect to win/lose on average?*

Introduce the random variable X with values $X(S) = 2$ and $X(F) = -1$ which measures the amount (in \pounds) you win: in the case of success you win $\pounds 2$ and in the case of failure you lose $\pounds 1$, which is the same as winning $-\pounds 1$.

Example (Betting)

Consider a betting game based on a Bernoulli trial with success probability p . Every bet costs $\pounds 1$: if you win you get your $\pounds 1$ back and an additional $\pounds 2$, if you lose you get nothing. *How much do you expect to win/lose on average?*

Introduce the random variable X with values $X(S) = 2$ and $X(F) = -1$ which measures the amount (in \pounds) you win: in the case of success you win $\pounds 2$ and in the case of failure you lose $\pounds 1$, which is the same as winning $-\pounds 1$. We are after the expectation value of X :

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = X(S)\mathbb{P}(S) + X(F)\mathbb{P}(F) = 2p + (-1)(1 - p) = 3p - 1 .$$

Example (Betting)

Consider a betting game based on a Bernoulli trial with success probability p . Every bet costs $\pounds 1$: if you win you get your $\pounds 1$ back and an additional $\pounds 2$, if you lose you get nothing. *How much do you expect to win/lose on average?*

Introduce the random variable X with values $X(S) = 2$ and $X(F) = -1$ which measures the amount (in \pounds) you win: in the case of success you win $\pounds 2$ and in the case of failure you lose $\pounds 1$, which is the same as winning $-\pounds 1$. We are after the expectation value of X :

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = X(S)\mathbb{P}(S) + X(F)\mathbb{P}(F) = 2p + (-1)(1 - p) = 3p - 1.$$

So if $p < \frac{1}{3}$ you shouldn't play!

Example (Betting)

Consider a betting game based on a Bernoulli trial with success probability p . Every bet costs $\pounds 1$: if you win you get your $\pounds 1$ back and an additional $\pounds 2$, if you lose you get nothing. *How much do you expect to win/lose on average?*

Introduce the random variable X with values $X(S) = 2$ and $X(F) = -1$ which measures the amount (in \pounds) you win: in the case of success you win $\pounds 2$ and in the case of failure you lose $\pounds 1$, which is the same as winning $-\pounds 1$. We are after the expectation value of X :

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = X(S)\mathbb{P}(S) + X(F)\mathbb{P}(F) = 2p + (-1)(1 - p) = 3p - 1 .$$

So if $p < \frac{1}{3}$ you shouldn't play!

Notice that

$$X(S)\mathbb{P}(S) + X(F)\mathbb{P}(F) = 2f_X(2) + (-1)f_X(-1) .$$

Example (Expectation value of Poisson distribution)

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X given by a Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$. *What is its expectation value?*

Example (Expectation value of Poisson distribution)

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X given by a Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$. What is its expectation value? By definition

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(X) &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \\ &= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{(x-1)!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{z=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{z+1}}{z!} \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{z=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^z}{z!} = \lambda\end{aligned}$$

Example (Expectation value of binomial distribution)

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X given by a binomial distribution with parameters n and p . What is $\mathbb{E}(X)$?

Example (Expectation value of binomial distribution)

Let X be a discrete random variable with probability mass function f_X given by a binomial distribution with parameters n and p . What is $\mathbb{E}(X)$? By definition,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{x=0}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} = \sum_{x=1}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}.$$

But now for $0 < x \leq n$,

$$x \binom{n}{x} = x \frac{n!}{(n-x)!x!} = \frac{n!}{(n-x)!(x-1)!} = n \binom{n-1}{x-1}$$

whence

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{x=1}^n n \binom{n-1}{x-1} p^x q^{n-x} = \sum_{z=0}^{n-1} n \binom{n-1}{z} p^{z+1} q^{n-1-z} = np.$$

Summary

- A **discrete random variable** X in a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a function $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which can take only countably many values and such that the subsets $\{X = x\}$ are events.

Summary

- A **discrete random variable** X in a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a function $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which can take only countably many values and such that the subsets $\{X = x\}$ are events.
- Since they are events, they have a probability $\mathbb{P}(X = x)$, which defines a **probability mass function** $f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ obeying $0 \leq f_X(x) \leq 1$ and $\sum_x f_X(x) = 1$.

Summary

- A **discrete random variable** X in a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a function $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which can take only countably many values and such that the subsets $\{X = x\}$ are events.
- Since they are events, they have a probability $\mathbb{P}(X = x)$, which defines a **probability mass function** $f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ obeying $0 \leq f_X(x) \leq 1$ and $\sum_x f_X(x) = 1$.
- Given a discrete random variable X with probability mass function f_X , its **expectation value** is $\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x)$.

Summary

- A **discrete random variable** X in a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a function $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which can take only countably many values and such that the subsets $\{X = x\}$ are events.
- Since they are events, they have a probability $\mathbb{P}(X = x)$, which defines a **probability mass function** $f_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ obeying $0 \leq f_X(x) \leq 1$ and $\sum_x f_X(x) = 1$.
- Given a discrete random variable X with probability mass function f_X , its **expectation value** is $\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x)$.
- We met the **Poisson distribution** with parameter $\lambda > 0$

$$f(x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

for $x \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f(x) = 0$ otherwise. It has expectation value λ .