

# CMPT 210: Probability and Computing

## Lecture 14

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# Recap

- **Random variable:** A random “variable”  $R$  on a probability space is a total function whose domain is the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ . The codomain is denoted by  $V$  (usually a subset of the real numbers), meaning that  $R : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow V$ . A r.v partitions the sample space into several blocks.

*Example:* Suppose we toss three independent, unbiased coins. In this case,  $\mathcal{S} = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$ .  $C$  is a random variable equal to the number of heads that appear such that  $C : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ .  $C(HHT) = 2$ .

- For r.v.  $R$ , for all  $i \in \text{Range}(R)$ , the event  $[R = i] = \{\omega \in \mathcal{S} | R(\omega) = i\}$ . For any r.v.  $R$ ,  $\sum_{i \in \text{Range}(R)} \Pr[R = i] = 1$ .

*Example:*  $[C = 2] = \{HHT, HTH, THH\}$  and  $\Pr[C = 2] = \frac{3}{8}$ .

$\sum_{i \in \text{Range}(C)} \Pr[C = i] = \Pr[C = 0] + \Pr[C = 1] + \Pr[C = 2] + \Pr[C = 3] = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = 1$ .

## Recap

- **Indicator Random Variable:** An indicator random variable corresponding to an event  $E$  is denoted as  $\mathcal{I}_E$  and is defined such that for  $\omega \in E$ ,  $\mathcal{I}_E[\omega] = 1$  and for  $\omega \notin E$ ,  $\mathcal{I}_E[\omega] = 0$ .

*Example:* When throwing two dice, if  $E$  is the event that both throws of the dice result in a prime number, then  $\mathcal{I}_E((2, 4)) = 0$  and  $\mathcal{I}_E((2, 3)) = 1$ .

- **Probability density function (PDF):** Let  $R$  be a r.v. with codomain  $V$ . The probability density function of  $R$  is the function  $\text{PDF}_R : V \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , such that  $\text{PDF}_R[x] = \Pr[R = x]$  if  $x \in \text{Range}(R)$  and equal to zero if  $x \notin \text{Range}(R)$ .

- **Cumulative distribution function (CDF):** The cumulative distribution function of  $R$  is the function  $\text{CDF}_R : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , such that  $\text{CDF}_R[x] = \Pr[R \leq x]$ .

Importantly, neither  $\text{PDF}_R$  nor  $\text{CDF}_R$  involves the sample space of an experiment.

*Example:* If we flip three coins, and  $C$  counts the number of heads, then

$$\text{PDF}_C[0] = \Pr[C = 0] = \frac{1}{8}, \text{ and}$$

$$\text{CDF}_C[2.3] = \Pr[C \leq 2.3] = \Pr[C = 0] + \Pr[C = 1] + \Pr[C = 2] = \frac{7}{8}.$$

Many random variables turn out to have the same PDF and CDF. In other words, even though  $R$  and  $T$  might be different random variables on different probability spaces, it is often the case that  $\text{PDF}_R = \text{PDF}_T$ . Hence, by studying the properties of such PDFs, we can study different random variables and experiments.

- **Distribution** over a random variable can be fully specified using the cumulative distribution function (CDF) (usually denoted by  $F$ ). The corresponding probability density function (PDF) is denoted by  $f$ .
- **Common Discrete Distributions** in Computer Science:
  - Bernoulli Distribution
  - Uniform Distribution
  - Binomial Distribution
  - Geometric Distribution

# Bernoulli Distribution

*Canonical Example:* We toss a biased coin such that the probability of getting a heads is  $p$ . Let  $R$  be the random variable such that  $R = 1$  when the coin comes up heads and  $R = 0$  if the coin comes up tails.  $R$  follows the Bernoulli distribution.

**PDF<sub>R</sub> for Bernoulli distribution:**  $f: \{0, 1\} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  meaning that Bernoulli random variables take values in  $\{0, 1\}$ . It can be fully specified by the “probability of success” (of an experiment)  $p$  (probability of getting a heads in the example). Formally, PDF<sub>R</sub> is given by:

$$f(1) = p \quad ; \quad f(0) = q := 1 - p.$$

In the example,  $\Pr[R = 1] = f(1) = p = \Pr[\text{event that we get a heads}]$ .

**CDF<sub>R</sub> for Bernoulli distribution:**  $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ :

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= 0 && \text{(for } x < 0) \\ &= 1 - p && \text{(for } 0 \leq x < 1) \\ &= 1 && \text{(for } x \geq 1) \end{aligned}$$

# Uniform Distribution

*Canonical Example:* We roll a standard die. Let  $R$  be the random variable equal to the number that shows up on the die.  $R$  follows the uniform distribution.

A random variable  $R$  that takes on each possible value in its codomain  $V$  with the same probability is said to be uniform.

**PDF<sub>R</sub> for Uniform distribution:**  $f : V \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that for all  $v \in V$ ,  $f(v) = 1/|V|$ . In the example,  $f(1) = f(2) = \dots = f(6) = \frac{1}{6}$ .

**CDF<sub>R</sub> for Uniform distribution:** For  $n$  elements in  $V$  arranged in increasing order –  $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ , the CDF is:

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= 0 && \text{(for } x < v_1) \\ &= k/n && \text{(for } v_k \leq x < v_{k+1}) \\ &= 1 && \text{(for } x \geq v_n) \end{aligned}$$

**Q:** If  $X$  has a Bernoulli distribution, when is  $X$  also uniform? **Ans:** When  $p = 1/2$

# Binomial Distribution

*Canonical Example:* We toss  $n$  biased coins independently. The probability of getting a heads for each coin is  $p$ . Let  $R$  be the random variable equal to the number of heads in the  $n$  coin tosses.  $R$  follows the Binomial distribution.

**PDF<sub>R</sub> for Binomial distribution:**  $f : \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ . For  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ ,  
 $f(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$ .

*Proof:* Let  $E_k$  be the event we get  $k$  heads. Let  $A_i$  be the event we get a heads in toss  $i$ .

$$E_k = (A_1 \cap A_2 \dots A_k \cap A_{k+1}^c \cap A_{k+2}^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c) \cup (A_1^c \cap A_2 \dots A_k \cap A_{k+1} \cap A_{k+2}^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c) \cup \dots$$

$$\Pr[E_k] = \Pr[(A_1 \cap A_2 \dots A_k \cap A_{k+1}^c \cap A_{k+2}^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c)] + \Pr[A_1^c \cap A_2 \dots A_k \cap A_{k+1} \cap \dots \cap A_n^c] + \dots$$

$$= \Pr[A_1] \Pr[A_2] \Pr[A_k] \Pr[A_{k+1}^c] \Pr[A_{k+2}^c] \dots \Pr[A_n^c] + \dots \quad (\text{Independence of tosses})$$

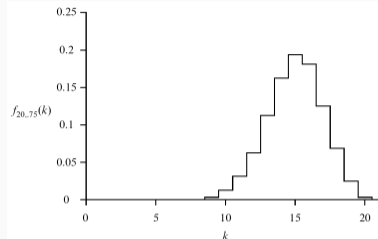
$$= p^k (1-p)^{n-k} + p^k (1-p)^{n-k} + \dots$$

$$\implies \Pr[E_k] = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

(Number of terms = number of ways to choose the  $k$  tosses that result in heads =  $\binom{n}{k}$ )

# Binomial Distribution

For the Binomial distribution,  $\text{PDF}_R(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$ .



**Q:** Prove that  $\sum_{k \in \text{Range}(R)} \text{PDF}_R[k] = 1$ .

By the Binomial Theorem,  $\sum_{k \in \text{Range}(R)} \text{PDF}_R[k] = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = (p + 1 - p)^n = 1$ .

**CDF<sub>R</sub> for Binomial distribution:**  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ :

$$F(x) = 0 \quad (\text{for } x < 0)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i} \quad (\text{for } k \leq x < k+1)$$

$$= 1. \quad (\text{for } x \geq n)$$



# Geometric Distribution

*Canonical Example:* We toss a biased coin independently multiple times. The probability of getting a heads is  $p$ . Let  $R$  be the random variable equal to the number of tosses needed to get the first heads.  $R$  follows the geometric distribution.

**PDF<sub>R</sub> for Geometric distribution:**  $f : \{1, 2, \dots\} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ . For  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, \infty\}$ ,  
 $f(k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} p$ .

*Proof:* Let  $E_k$  be the event that we need  $k$  tosses to get the first heads. Let  $A_i$  be the event that we get a heads in toss  $i$ .

$$E_k = A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap \dots \cap A_k$$

$$\Pr[E_k] = \Pr[A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap \dots \cap A_k] = \Pr[A_1^c] \Pr[A_2^c] \dots \Pr[A_k] \quad (\text{Independence of tosses})$$

$$\implies \Pr[E_k] = (1 - p)^{k-1} p$$

**Q:** Prove that  $\sum_{k \in \text{Range}(R)} \text{PDF}_R[k] = 1$ .

By the sum of geometric series,  $\sum_{k \in \text{Range}(R)} \text{PDF}_R[k] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1 - p)^{k-1} p = \frac{p}{1 - (1 - p)} = 1$ .

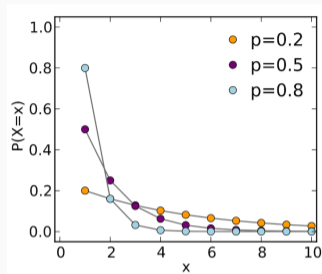
# Geometric Distribution

For the Geometric distribution,  $\text{PDF}_R(k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$ .

**CDF<sub>R</sub> for Geometric distribution:**  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ :

$$F(x) = 0 \quad (\text{for } x < 1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k (1 - p)^{i-1} p \quad (\text{for } k \leq x < k + 1)$$



Questions?

**Q:** It is known that disks produced by a certain company will be defective with probability 0.01 independently of each other. The company sells the disks in packages of 10 and offers a money-back guarantee that at most 1 of the 10 disks is defective (the package can be returned if there is more than 1 defective disk). What proportion of packages is returned?

Let  $X$  be the random variable corresponding to the number of defective disks in a package. Let  $E$  be the event that the package is returned. We wish to compute  $\Pr[E] = \Pr[X > 1]$ .  $X$  follows the Binomial distribution  $\text{Bin}(10, 0.01)$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[E] &= \Pr[X > 1] = 1 - \Pr[X \leq 1] = 1 - \Pr[X = 0] - \Pr[X = 1] \\ &= 1 - \binom{10}{0}(0.99)^{10} - \binom{10}{1}(0.99)^9(0.01)^1 \approx 0.005\end{aligned}$$