

Discrete-Event Simulation: A First Course

Section 6.1: Discrete Random Variables

Section 6.1: Discrete Random Variables

- A random variable X is *discrete* if and only if its set of possible values \mathcal{X} is finite or, at most, countably infinite
- A discrete random variable X is uniquely determined by
 - Its set of possible values \mathcal{X}
 - Its *probability density function* (pdf):
A real-valued function $f(\cdot)$ defined for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$ as the probability that X has the value x

$$f(x) = Pr(X = x)$$

By definition,

$$\sum_x f(x) = 1$$

Examples

- **Example 6.1.1** X is *Equilikely*(a, b)

$|\mathcal{X}| = b - a + 1$ and each possible value is equally likely

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{b - a + 1} \quad x = a, a + 1, \dots, b$$

- **Example 6.1.2** Roll two fair face

If X is the sum of the two up faces, $\mathcal{X} = \{x | x = 2, 3, \dots, 12\}$

From example 2.3.1,

$$f(x) = \frac{6 - |7 - x|}{36} \quad x = 2, 3, \dots, 12$$

Example 6.1.3

- A coin has p as its probability of a head
- Toss it until the *first* tail occurs
- If X is the number of heads, $\mathcal{X} = \{x|x = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ and the pdf is

$$f(x) = p^x(1 - p) \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- X is *Geometric*(p) and the set of possible values is *infinite*
- Verify that $\sum_x f(x) = 1$:

$$\sum_x f(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} p^x(1-p) = (1-p)(1+p+p^2+p^3+p^4+\dots) = 1$$

Cumulative Distribution Function

- The *cumulative distribution function* (*cdf*) of the discrete random variable X is the real-valued function $F(\cdot)$ for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$ as

$$F(x) = \Pr(X \leq x) = \sum_{t \leq x} f(t)$$

- If X is *Equilikely*(a, b) then the cdf is

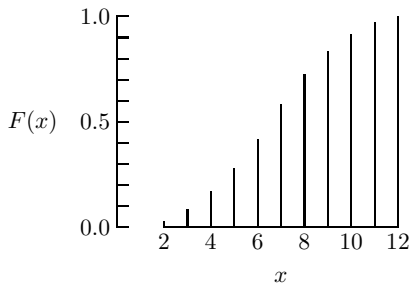
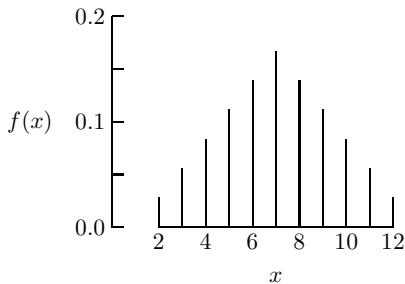
$$F(x) = \sum_{t=a}^x 1/(b-a+1) = (x-a+1)/(b-a+1) \quad x = a, a+1, \dots, b$$

- If X is *Geometric*(p) then the cdf is

$$F(x) = \sum_{t=0}^x p^t(1-p) = (1-p)(1+p+\dots+p^x) = 1-p^{x+1} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Example 6.1.5

- No simple equation for $F(\cdot)$ for sum of two dice
- $|\mathcal{X}|$ is small enough to tabulate the cdf



Relationship Between cdfs and pdfs

- A cdf can be generated from its corresponding pdf by recursion

For example, $\mathcal{X} = \{x | x = a, a + 1, \dots, b\}$

$$F(a) = f(a)$$

$$F(x) = F(x - 1) + f(x) \quad x = a + 1, a + 2, \dots, b$$

- A pdf can be generated from its corresponding cdf by subtraction

$$f(a) = F(a)$$

$$f(x) = F(x) - F(x - 1) \quad x = a + 1, a + 2, \dots, b$$

- A discrete random variable can be defined by specifying *either* its pdf or its cdf

Other cdf Properties

- A cdf is strictly monotone increasing:
if $x_1 < x_2$, then $F(x_1) < F(x_2)$
- The cdf values are bounded between 0.0 and 1.0
- Monotonicity of $F(\cdot)$ is the basis to generate discrete random variates in the next section

Mean and Standard Deviation

- The *mean* μ of the discrete random variable X is

$$\mu = \sum_x xf(x)$$

- The corresponding *standard deviation* σ is

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum_x (x - \mu)^2 f(x)} \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\left(\sum_x x^2 f(x)\right) - \mu^2}$$

- The *variance* is σ^2

Examples

- If X is *Equilikely*(a, b) then the mean and standard deviation are

$$\mu = \frac{a + b}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{(b - a + 1)^2 - 1}{12}}$$

When X is *Equilikely*(1, 6), $\mu = 3.5$ and $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{35}{12}} \cong 1.708$

- If X is the sum of two dice then

$$\mu = \sum_{x=2}^{12} xf(x) = 7 \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\sum_{x=2}^{12} (x - \mu)^2 f(x)} = \sqrt{35/6} \cong 2.415$$

Another Example

- If X is *Geometric*(p) then the mean and standard deviation are

$$\mu = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} xf(x) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} xp^x(1-p) = \dots = \frac{p}{1-p}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \left(\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) \right) - \mu^2 = \left(\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x^2 p^x (1-p) \right) - \frac{p^2}{(1-p)^2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{p}{(1-p)^2}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{\sqrt{p}}{(1-p)}$$

Expected Value

- The mean of a random variable is also known as the *expected value*
- The expected value of the discrete random variable X is

$$E[X] = \sum_x xf(x) = \mu$$

- Expected value refers to the *expected average* of a large sample x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n corresponding to X : $\bar{x} \rightarrow E[X] = \mu$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- The *most likely* value x (with largest $f(x)$) is the *mode*, which can be different from the expected value

Example 6.1.10

- Toss a fair coin until the first tail appears
- The most likely number of heads is 0
- The expected number of heads is 1
- 0 occurs with probability $1/2$ and 1 occurs with probability $1/4$

The most likely value is twice as likely as the expected value

- For some random variables, the mean and mode may be the same

For the sum of two dice, the most likely value and expected value are both 7

More on Expectation

- Define function $h(\cdot)$ for all possible values of X
 $h(\cdot) : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$
- $Y = h(X)$ is a *new* random variable, with possible values \mathcal{Y}
- The expected value of Y is

$$E[Y] = E[h(X)] = \sum_x h(x)f(x)$$

Note: in general, this is *not* equal to $h(E[X])$

Example 6.1.11

- If $y = (x - \mu)^2$ with $\mu = E[X]$,

$$E[Y] = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sum_x (x - \mu)^2 f(x) = \sigma^2$$

- If $y = x^2 - \mu^2$,

$$E[Y] = E[X^2 - \mu^2] = \sum_x (x^2 - \mu^2) f(x) = \left(\sum_x x^2 f(x) \right) - \mu^2 = \sigma^2$$

- So that $\sigma^2 = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$
- $E[X^2] \geq E[X]^2$ with equality if and only if X is not really random

Example 6.1.12

- If $Y = aX + b$ for constants a and b ,

$$E[Y] = E[aX + b] = \sum_x (ax + b)f(x) = a \left(\sum_x xf(x) \right) + b = aE[X] + b$$

- Suppose
 - X is the number of heads before the first tail
 - Win \$2 for every head and let Y be the amount you win
- The possible values Y you win are defined by

$$y = h(x) = 2x \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- Your *expected winnings* are

$$E[Y] = E[2X] = 2E[X] = 2$$

Discrete Random Variable Models

- A random *variable* is an abstract, but well defined, mathematical object
- A random *variate* is an algorithmically generated possible value of a random *variable*
- For example, the functions `Equilikely` and `Geometric` generate random *variates* corresponding to $Equilikely(a, b)$ and $Geometric(p)$ random *variables*, respectively

Bernoulli Random Variable

- The discrete random *variable* X with possible values $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$
- $X = 1$ with probability p and $X = 0$ with probability $1 - p$
- The pdf: $f(x) = p^x(1 - p)^{1-x}$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}$
- The cdf: $F(x) = (1 - p)^{1-x}$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}$
- The mean: $\mu = 0 \cdot (1 - p) + 1 \cdot p = p$
- The variance: $\sigma^2 = (0 - p)^2(1 - p) + (1 - p)^2p = p(1 - p)$
- The standard deviation: $\sigma = \sqrt{p(1 - p)}$

Bernoulli Random Variate

- To generate a *Bernoulli*(p) random variate

Generating a Bernoulli Random Variate

```
if (Random() < 1.0-p)
    return 0;
else
    return 1;
```

- Monte Carlo simulation that uses n replications to estimate an unknown probability p is equivalent to generating an *iid* sequence of n *Bernoulli*(p) random variates

Example 6.1.14

- *Pick-3* Lottery: pick a 3-digit number between 000 and 999
- Costs \$1 to play the game and wins \$500 if a player matches the 3-digit number chosen by the state
- Let $Y = h(X)$ be the player's yield

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & x=0 \\ 499 & x=1 \end{cases}$$

- The player's *expected* yield is

$$E[Y] = \sum_0^1 h(x)f(x) = h(0)(1 - p) + h(1)p = \dots = -0.5$$

Binomial Random Variable

- A coin has p as its probability of a head and toss this coin n times
- Let X be the number of heads; X is a *Binomial*(n, p) random variable
- $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and the pdf is

$$f(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- n tosses of the coin generate an *iid* sequence X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n of *Bernoulli*(p) random variables and $X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$

Verify that $\sum_x f(x) = 1$

- *Binomial equation*

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} a^x b^{n-x}$$

- In the particular case where $a = p$ and $b = 1 - p$

$$1 = (1)^n = (p + (1 - p))^n = \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$$

Mean and Variance of $Binomial(n, p)$

- The mean is

$$\begin{aligned}\mu = E[X] &= \sum_{x=0}^n xf(x) = \sum_{x=0}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= np \sum_{x=1}^n \frac{(n-1)!}{(x-1)!(n-x)!} p^{x-1} (1-p)^{n-x}\end{aligned}$$

Let $m = n - 1$ and $t = x - 1$

$$\mu = np \sum_{t=0}^m \frac{m!}{t!(m-t)!} p^t (1-p)^{m-t} = np(p + (1-p))^m = np(1)^m = np$$

- The variance is

$$\sigma^2 = E[X^2] - \mu^2 = \left(\sum_{x=0}^n x^2 f(x) \right) - \mu^2 = \dots = np(1-p)$$

Pascal Random Variable

- A coin has p as its probability of a head and toss this coin until the n^{th} tail occurs
- If X is the number of heads, X is a $Pascal(n, p)$ random variable
- $\mathcal{X}=\{0,1,2,\dots\}$ and the pdf is

$$f(x) = \binom{n+x-1}{x} p^x (1-p)^n \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Pascal Random Variable ctd.

- Negative binomial expansion:

$$(1-p)^{-n} = 1 + \binom{n}{1} p + \binom{n+1}{2} p^2 + \dots + \binom{n+x-1}{x} p^x + \dots$$

- Prove that the infinite pdf sum converges to 1

$$\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+x-1}{x} p^x (1-p)^n = (1-p)^n (1-p)^{-n} = 1$$

- It can also be shown that

$$\mu = E[X] = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x f(x) = \dots = \frac{np}{1-p}$$

$$\sigma^2 = E[X^2] - \mu^2 = \left(\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) \right) - \mu^2 = \dots = \frac{np}{(1-p)^2}$$

Example 6.1.17

- If $n > 1$ and X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is an *iid* sequence of n *Geometric*(p) random variables, the sum is a *Pascal*(n, p) random variable
- For example, if $n = 4$ and p is large, a head/tail sequence might be

$$\underbrace{hhhhhht}_{X_1=6} \quad \underbrace{hhhhhhhhht}_{X_2=9} \quad \underbrace{hhhht}_{X_3=4} \quad \underbrace{hhhhhhht}_{X_4=7}$$

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4 = 26$$

- We see that a *Pascal*(n, p) random variable is the sum of *iid* *Geometric*(p) random variables

Poisson Random Variable

- $Poisson(\mu)$ is a limiting case of $Binomial(n, \mu/n)$
- Fix μ and x as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$f(x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \left(\frac{\mu}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{n}\right)^{n-x} = \frac{\mu^x}{x!} \frac{n!}{(n-x)!(n-\mu)^x} \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{n}\right)^n$$

It can be shown that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{(n-x)!(n-\mu)^x} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{n}\right)^n = \exp(-\mu)$$

So that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \frac{\mu^x}{x!} \exp(-\mu)$$