

# **STA 35C: Statistical Data Science III**

## **Lecture 3: Bayes' Theorem and Random Variables**

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# Announcements

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## Homework 1 is now posted

- Due: Tue, April 7, 11:59 PM PT
- Please follow the submission instructions (e.g., formatting)
- Make sure you can access the homework PDF and know where to submit your solutions
  - Late submissions will not be accepted for any reason and will receive 0 points

If you are unsure about anything related to the course:

1. See the [syllabus](#) for information
2. Check Piazza first; someone may already have asked a similar question
3. Feel free to ask on Piazza, in class, or during office hours
  - Reserve email for urgent or private matters only

# Agenda

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Last time:

- Set theory basics
- Probabilistic models
- Conditional probability & Independence

Today:

- Bayes' theorem
- Random variables
  - PMFs, PDFs, and CDFs
  - Expectation and variance
  - Joint, marginal, and conditional distributions
  - Covariance and correlation
  - Sums of random variables

## Recap: Outcomes, events, probability

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**Outcome:** a possible result of an experiment (often denoted  $\omega$ )

- “Head” or “Tail”
- The outcome 6 on a die roll
- Stock price change of \$5

**Event:** a subset  $A \subseteq \Omega$ ; the event  $A$  occurs if the realized outcome  $\omega$  lies in  $A$

- $\emptyset, \{6\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- For example, if  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ , then  $A$  occurs if and only if  $\omega \in A$ , i.e., iff  $\omega = 1, 2$ , or  $3$ 
  - This does **NOT** mean “ $\omega = 1$  and  $\omega = 2$  and  $\omega = 3$ ”

**Probability law:** a function  $P$  that assigns each event  $A$  a number  $P(A)$  such that

- $P(A) \geq 0$
- $A \cap B = \emptyset \implies P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$
- $P(\Omega) = 1$

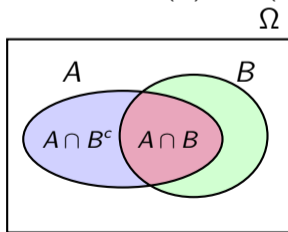
## Recap: Conditional probability

For an event  $B$  with  $P(B) > 0$ , the **conditional probability**<sup>1</sup> of  $A$  given  $B$  is

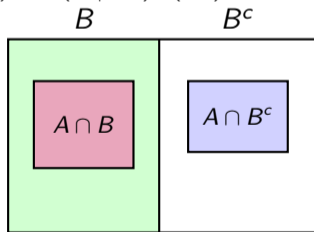
$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

- **Example:**  $A = \{6\}$ ,  $B = \{2, 4, 6\}$   $\rightarrow$   $P(A) = 1/6$  vs.  $P(A | B) = 1/3$
- **Multiplication rule:**  $P(A \cap B) = P(B)P(A | B)$
- **Law of total probability:** If  $0 < P(B) < 1$ , then

$$P(A) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^c) = P(A | B)P(B) + P(A | B^c)P(B^c)$$



partition by  $B$



<sup>1</sup>For any fixed  $B$ ,  $P(\cdot | B)$  satisfies the three axioms

# Bayes' theorem

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Often, we know  $P(B | A)$ , but want  $P(A | B)$

- $A$ : a hypothesis/model/state of the world
- $B$ : observed data or evidence
- Example:  $A =$  having a disease,  $B =$  positive screening result

After observing  $B$ , Bayes' theorem updates  $P(A)$  to  $P(A | B)$

- *Prior*:  $P(A)$  and  $P(A^c)$
- *Likelihood*:  $P(B | A)$  and  $P(B | A^c)$
- *Posterior*:  $P(A | B)$  and  $P(A^c | B)$

**Bayes' theorem** states that

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(B | A) P(A)}{P(B)} \quad \text{where} \quad P(B) = P(B | A)P(A) + P(B | A^c)P(A^c)$$

- *Posterior* = *Likelihood*  $\times$  *Prior* / *Evidence*

# Bayes' theorem: Example 1

## Example (Disease screening)

Let  $A$  = disease and  $B$  = positive screening result

- Suppose  $P(A) = 0.01$
- $P(B | A) = 0.8$  (true positive)
- $P(B | A^c) = 0.1$  (false positive; positive screening though a person does not have cancer)

**Q:** If the test is positive, how likely is it that the person actually has the disease?

$$\begin{aligned}P(A | B) &= \frac{P(B | A) P(A)}{P(B | A) P(A) + P(B | A^c) P(A^c)} \\ &= \frac{0.8 \times 0.01}{0.8 \times 0.01 + 0.1 \times 0.99} \approx 0.075\end{aligned}$$

- A positive result raises the probability from 1% to about 7.5%, but it is still far from certain
- When the disease is rare, even a fairly accurate test can produce many false positives

## Bayes' theorem: Example 2

### Example (Fair or double-headed?)

Let  $A$  = the coin is double-headed and  $A^c$  = the coin is fair

Let  $B$  = the first toss is Head

- Suppose  $P(A) = 0.5$
- $P(B | A) = 1$  (the double-headed (biased) coin always lands Head)
- $P(B | A^c) = 0.5$  (the fair coin lands Head with probability 1/2)

**Q:** After observing one Head, how likely is it that the coin is double-headed?

$$\begin{aligned}P(A | B) &= \frac{P(B | A)P(A)}{P(B | A)P(A) + P(B | A^c)P(A^c)} \\ &= \frac{1 \times 0.5}{1 \times 0.5 + 0.5 \times 0.5} = \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.667.\end{aligned}$$

- One Head raises the probability from 50% to 66.7%
- Data increase the probability of the model that better explains the observation

# Random variables

A **random variable**<sup>2</sup>  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  assigns a real number to each outcome  $\omega \in \Omega$

- Once the outcome  $\omega$  is realized,  $X = X(\omega)$  is just a number
- Probabilities on  $\Omega$  induce a distribution on the values of  $X$

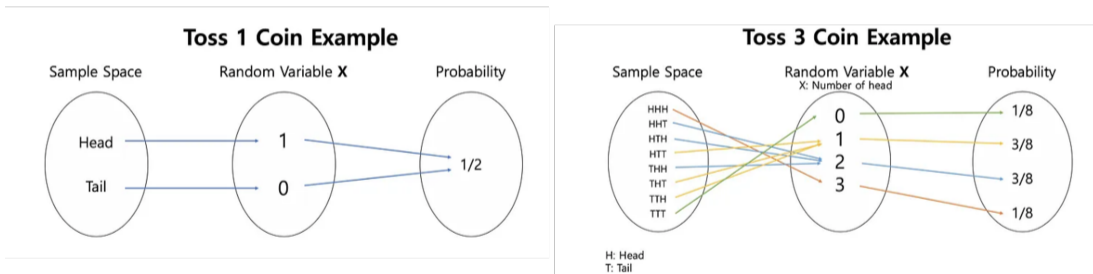


Figure: Random variable example: outcome of tossing a coin<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup>A fully rigorous definition is beyond the scope of STA 35C

<sup>3</sup>Source: <https://medium.com/jun94-devpblog/prob-stats-1-random-variable-483c45242b3c>

# Distribution of a random variable

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How do we describe how probability is distributed over the values of a random variable?

- If  $X$  is **discrete**, its **probability mass function** (PMF) is

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x) \quad \text{where} \quad p_X(x) \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_x p_X(x) = 1$$

- If  $X$  is **continuous**, its **probability density function** (PDF) is a function  $f_X \geq 0$  such that

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx \quad \text{and therefore} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$$

- If  $X$  is continuous, then  $P(X = x) = 0$  for every single  $x$
- Thus,  $f_X(x)$  is a density, not a point probability
- In both cases, the **cumulative distribution function** (CDF) is

$$F_X(x) := P(X \leq x)$$

## Distribution functions: Examples of discrete RVs

### Example (Biased coin)

Suppose a biased coin lands Head twice as often as Tail, and define

$$X = \mathbf{1}\{\text{Head}\} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Head,} \\ 0 & \text{Tail.} \end{cases} \quad \rightarrow \quad p_X(k) = \begin{cases} 2/3 & k = 1, \\ 1/3 & k = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The CDF is

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0, \\ 1/3, & 0 \leq x < 1, \\ 1, & x \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

**Exercise:** Let  $X$  denote the number on the face after rolling a fair die:

$$p_X(k) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad \forall k \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

Write down the CDF of  $X$  and draw its graph

# Distribution functions: Examples of continuous RVs

## Example (Uniform)

Let  $X$  be a random variable uniform on the interval  $[0, 2]$

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, & 0 \leq x \leq 2, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that<sup>a</sup>  $0 \leq a \leq b \leq 2$

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2}$$

The CDF

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0, \\ \frac{x}{2} & 0 \leq x < 2, \\ 1 & x \geq 2. \end{cases}$$

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<sup>a</sup>Question: What if  $a < 0$  or  $b > 2$ ?

## Expectation and variance

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The distribution of a random variable contains all information we need

Describing the full distribution can be complicated

→ We often summarize it by location and spread

- The **expected value** of a random variable  $X$  is its probability-weighted average:
  - Discrete:  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_x x \cdot p_X(x)$
  - Continuous:  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$
- The **variance** of a random variable  $X$  is the “spread” around the mean:
  - $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]$
  - Alternative formula:  $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$

# Expectation and variance: Example 1

## Example (Tossing a coin with head probability $p$ )

The PMF of a Bernoulli random variable  $X \sim \text{Bern}(p)$  is

$$p_X(x) = p(X = x) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } x = 1 \text{ (head),} \\ 1 - p & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ (tail).} \end{cases}$$

- *Expectation:*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X] &= \sum_x x \cdot p(x) \\ &= 0 \cdot (1 - p) + 1 \cdot p \\ &= p \end{aligned}$$

- *Variance:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \\ &= \sum_x (x - p)^2 \cdot p(x) \\ &= (-p)^2 \cdot (1 - p) + (1 - p)^2 \cdot p \\ &= p(1 - p) \end{aligned}$$

## Expectation and variance: Example 2

### Example (Uniform distribution)

The PDF of a uniform random variable on  $[a, b]$  is

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & a \leq x \leq b, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

**Expectation:**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X] &= \int_a^b x \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx \\ &= \frac{a+b}{2} \end{aligned}$$

**Variance:**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X^2] &= \int_a^b x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx \\ &= \frac{a^2 + ab + b^2}{3} \\ \text{Var}(X) &= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2 \\ &= \frac{(b-a)^2}{12} \end{aligned}$$

## Some properties of expectation and variance

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Let  $X$  be a random variable and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

### Expectation:

- $\mathbb{E}[a] = a$

$$\because \mathbb{E}[a] = \sum_x a p_X(x) = a \underbrace{\sum_x p_X(x)}_{=1} = a$$

- $\mathbb{E}[bX] = b \cdot \mathbb{E}[X]$

$$\because \mathbb{E}[bX] = \sum_x (bx) p_X(x) = b \sum_x x p_X(x) = b \mathbb{E}[X]$$

### Variance:

- $\text{Var}(a) = 0$

- $\text{Var}(bX) = b^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X)$

$$\because \text{Var}(bX) = \mathbb{E}[(bX)^2] - \mathbb{E}[bX]^2 = b^2 \cdot \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (b \cdot \mathbb{E}[X])^2 = b^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

# Distribution of multiple random variables

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Let  $X, Y$  be discrete random variables

## Joint distribution:

- The joint PMF of  $X$  and  $Y$  satisfies  $p_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$
- The joint CDF of  $X$  and  $Y$  is defined by  $F_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$

**Marginal distributions:** The marginal PMF of  $X$  (and of  $Y$ ) are:

$$p_X(x) = \sum_y p_{X,Y}(x, y), \quad p_Y(y) = \sum_x p_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

**Conditional distribution:** The conditional PMF of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is

$$p_{X|Y}(x | y) = \frac{p_{X,Y}(x, y)}{p_Y(y)} = \frac{p_{X,Y}(x, y)}{\sum_{x'} p_{X,Y}(x', y)}$$

- **Independence:**  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if  $p_{X,Y}(x, y) = p_X(x) p_Y(y)$  for all  $x, y$

For continuous RVs, PMFs are replaced by PDFs and sums are replaced by integrals

# Joint, marginal, conditional distributions: Example

## Example (One fair die)

Suppose rolling a fair die and let

$$X = \mathbf{1}\{\text{roll is even}\}, \quad Y = \mathbf{1}\{\text{roll} > 3\}.$$

$$(X, Y) = \begin{cases} (0, 0) & \text{if } \omega \in \{1, 3\} \\ (0, 1) & \text{if } \omega \in \{5\} \\ (1, 0) & \text{if } \omega \in \{2\} \\ (1, 1) & \text{if } \omega \in \{4, 6\} \end{cases}$$

$\implies$

	$Y = 0$	$Y = 1$	$p_X(x)$
$X = 0$	1/3	1/6	1/2
$X = 1$	1/6	1/3	1/2
$p_Y(y)$	1/2	1/2	

So the conditional probability

$$p_{X|Y}(1 | 1) = \frac{p_{X,Y}(1, 1)}{p_Y(1)} = \frac{1/3}{1/2} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Also,  $X$  and  $Y$  are not independent, since

$$p_{X,Y}(1, 1) = \frac{1}{3} \neq p_X(1)p_Y(1) = \frac{1}{4}$$

## Covariance and correlation

The **covariance** between  $X$  and  $Y$  measures how they vary together:

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y].$$

- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) > 0$ : large values of  $X$  tend to occur with large values of  $Y$
- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) < 0$ : large values of  $X$  tend to occur with small values of  $Y$
- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ ; the converse is false in general

Correlation is the normalized version of covariance:

$$\rho(X, Y) := \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}\sqrt{\text{Var}(Y)}} \in [-1, 1] \quad (\text{when } \text{Var}(X), \text{Var}(Y) > 0).$$

### Example (One fair die)

	$Y = 0$	$Y = 1$
$X = 0$	1/3	1/6
$X = 1$	1/6	1/3

- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{12}$
- $\rho(X, Y) = \frac{1}{3}$

## Sum of random variables: Expectation and variance are easy

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Sums arise naturally when we combine several sources of randomness:

- Total number of heads in  $n$  tosses:  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$
- Total score, total revenue, total waiting time
- Total measurement error from several noisy components

For  $Z = X + Y$ , the expectation and variance are often easy to compute:

- $\mathbb{E}[Z] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$

$$\begin{aligned}\because \mathbb{E}[X + Y] &= \sum_{x,y} (x + y) p_{X,Y}(x,y) = \sum_x x p_X(x) + \sum_y y p_Y(y) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]\end{aligned}$$

- $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ 
  - *Exercise:* Verify this using properties of expectation
  - If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ , so  $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$

## Sum of random variables: Distributions can be harder

Even when  $\mathbb{E}[X + Y]$  and  $\text{Var}(X + Y)$  are easy, the full distribution of  $X + Y$  may not be

- We usually need the *joint distribution* of  $(X, Y)$ , not just the separate marginals

### Example (Same marginals, different joint)

Suppose  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  each take values 0 or 1 with probability  $1/2$

- If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent, then

$$P(X_1 + X_2 = k) = \begin{cases} 1/4 & k = 0, \\ 1/2 & k = 1, \\ 1/4 & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

- If  $X_1 = X_2$  always, then

$$P(X_1 + X_2 = k) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & k = 0, \\ 1/2 & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

## Wrap-up

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- Bayes' theorem updates prior beliefs to posterior beliefs based on observed data
- A random variable is a numerical function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 
  - Probabilities on  $\Omega$  induce a distribution on the values of  $X$
- PMFs, PDFs, and CDFs describe distributions
- Expectation and variance summarize center and spread, and facilitates computation
- Joint, marginal, and conditional distributions
  - Covariance and correlation summarize linear association
- For sums of random variables, expectations and variances are often easy to compute