

SDS 321: Introduction to Probability and Statistics Lecture 13: Expectation and Variance and joint distributions

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Multiple random variables

So far we have been talking about single random variables and associated PMF's. However, often we are interested in multiple random variables.

- Consider two discrete random variables X, and Y associated with the same experiment.
- ► The joint PMF of X and Y are defined as p_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y) for all pairs of values x, y X and Y can take.
- This is none other than $P({X = x} \cap {Y = y})$.
- Of course the order does not matter.

• Recall that if
$$A_1, A_2, \dots, A_K$$
 is a partition of Ω ,
 $P(B) = P\left(\bigcup_k (B \cap A_k)\right) = \sum_k P(B \cap A_k).$

{X = x} is the disjoint union of {X = x} ∩ {Y = y} for all y values Y can take.

• $\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\}$ is none other than $\{X = x, Y = y\}$

• We can extend this to PMFs:
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$$\sum_{x} \sum_{y} P(X = x, Y = y) = \sum_{x} P(X = x) = 1.$$

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- And now the normalization rule gives us the result!

	Right Handed (L=0)	Left handed (L=1)	
Men (X=0)	43	7	50
Women (X=1)	47	3	50
	90	10	100

▶
$$P(X = 0, L = 0) =$$

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Alice says that there are more left handed women than left handed men. Bob gives her some numbers to count probabilities.

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- $P(X = 1) = \frac{1}{2} \leftarrow \text{Marginal probability}!$
- ▶ $P(L = 1) = \frac{10}{100} \leftarrow \text{Marginal probability}!$

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- $P(L = 1) = \frac{10}{100} \leftarrow \text{Marginal probability}!$
- Remember! These really are estimated numbers, and hence approximations. I am estimating the fraction of left handed men in a population via my sample!

Functions of multiple random variables

•
$$E(g(X, Y)) = \sum_{x,y} g(x, y) P(X = x, Y = y).$$

• Let
$$g(X, Y) = aX + bY$$
.

•
$$E(g(X, Y)) = \sum_{x,y} (ax + by) P(X = x, Y = y) = aE[X] + bE[Y].$$

• What if
$$g(X, Y) = aX^2 + bY^2 + c?$$

•
$$E[g(X, Y)] = aE[X^2] + bE[Y^2] + c$$

Common Mistake: E[g(X, Y)] ≠ g(E[X], E[Y])! unless g is linear in X and Y!

Multiple random variables

How about three random variables?

• We will write $p_{X,Y,Z}(x,y,z) = P(X = x, Y = y, Z = z)$

► The rules are the same:

Generalizes easily to more than 3 random variables.

Linearity of expectation

Perhaps one of the most useful and powerful results!

•
$$E[aX + bY + cZ + d] = aE[X] + bE[Y] + cE[Z] + d$$

More generally,

 $E[a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n] = a_1E[X_1] + a_2E[X_2] + \dots + a_nE[X_n]$

► This is extremely general! X₁,..., X_n do not have to be mutually independent for this to hold!

▶ This generalizes to
$$E\left[\sum_{i} a_i f(X_i)\right] = \sum_{i} a_i E[f(X_i)]$$
, as long as the expectations are well defined.

Expectation of $Y \sim Binomial(n, p)$

Remember that a Binomial(n, p) random variable is nothing other than the sum of n independent Bernoulli's!

•
$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$
, where $X_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(n, p)$.

Using our newfound tool, we have:

$$E[Y] = E[\sum_{i} X_{i}] = \sum_{i} E[X_{i}] = np.$$

We do not need the mutual independence of the Bernoullis to get this result!

I am throwing m distinguishable balls into n distinguishable bins. What is the expected number of empty bins (call this Y)?

• Let
$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{The } i^{th} \text{ bin is empty} \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- We want E[Y].
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$$E[X_i] = P(\text{No ball falls in bin } i) = (1 - 1/n)^m$$

$$\blacktriangleright E[Y] = n(1-1/n)^m$$

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• When m = n, for large n, $E[Y] = n(1 - 1/n)^n \approx n/e$.

So we have started thinking about how *knowing about one random variable* alters out belief about another random variable. This brings us to conditional PMFs!

► The conditional PMF of a random variable X, conditioned on a particular event A with P(A) > 0, is defined by:

$$p_{X|A}(x) = P(X = x|A) = \frac{P(\{X = x\} \cap A)}{P(A)}$$

So we have

$$\sum_{X} P(X = x | A) = \sum_{X} \frac{P(\{X = x\} \cap A)}{P(A)} = \frac{\sum_{X} P(\{X = x\} \cap A)}{P(A)}$$

- But A can be written as a disjoint union of the events {X = x} ∩ A for all numerical values X takes.
- ► Total probability rule gives: $P(A) = \sum_{x} P(\{X = x\} \cap A)$, and so $\sum_{x} P(X = x | A) = 1.$

Conditioning one random variable on another

Let X and Y be two random variables associated with the same experiment. Now the knowledge of Y = y for some particular value y provides us with partial knowledge about what value X may take.

- ► The **conditional PMF** of X given Y is given by $p_{X|Y}(x, y) = P(X = x | \{Y = y\}).$
- Using the same set of rules as before we can write:

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)} = \frac{P_{X,Y}(x, y)}{P_Y(y)}$$

- For any fixed y such that P(Y = y) > 0, we also have: $\sum_{x} P(X = x | Y = y) = 1.$
- So, a conditional PMF satisfies the properties of a PMF.

Bob and Alice are interested in finding out the conditional probability of being left handed given a person is a man. Bob finds his data again.

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$$P(X = 0) = 50/100$$
. So $\frac{P(L = 1, X = 0)}{P(X = 0)} = 7/50$.

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What is P(L = 0|X = 0)? Its just the fraction of all men who are right handed! So 43/50.

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- What is P(L = 0|X = 0)? Its just the fraction of all men who are right handed! So 43/50.
- P(L = 0|X = 0) + P(L = 1|X = 0) = 1!

- Remember that a conditional PMF is a valid PMF.
- Since $P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}$, we also have the multiplication rule:

multiplication rule:

•
$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x | Y = y)P(Y = y)$$

- But P(X = x, Y = y) = P(Y = y, X = x), and so we also have: P(X = x, Y = y) = P(Y = y|X = x)P(X = x).
- Same as multiplication rule from before!
- We can also draw trees to get conditional probabilities!

Independence of random variables

- Lets first consider two events {X = x} and A. We know that these two events are independent if P({X = x}, A) = P({X = x})P(A)
- In other words if P(A) > 0, then P(X = x|A) = P(X = x), i.e. knowing the occurrence of A does not change our belief about {X = x}.
- We will call the random variable X and event A to be independent if

$$P(X = x, A) = P(X = x)P(A)$$
 For all x

Two random variables are said to be independent if

$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)$$
 For all x and y

To put it a bit differently,

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = P(X = x)$$
 For all x and y such that $P(Y = y) > 0$

A super important implication

We saw that E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y] no matter whether X and Y are independent or not.

• If X and Y are independent, E[XY] = E[X]E[Y]

$$E[XY] = \sum_{x,y} xyP(X = x, Y = y) = \sum_{x,y} xyP(X = x)P(Y = y)$$
$$= \left(\sum_{x} xP(X = x)\right) \left(\sum_{y} yP(Y = y)\right) = E[X]E[Y]$$

• In fact, E[g(X)h(Y)] = E[g(X)]E[h(Y)]

Variance of sum of independent random variables

Let X and Y be two independent random variables. What is var(X + Y)?

• Remember! $var(X + Y) = E[(X + Y)^2] - (E[X + Y])^2$

►
$$E[(X + Y)^2] = E[X^2 + Y^2 + 2XY] = E[X^2] + E[Y^2] + 2E[XY]$$

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

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 $var(X + Y) = E[(X + Y)^2] - (E[X + Y])^2$
 $= \underbrace{E[X^2] - E[X]^2}_{var(X)} + \underbrace{E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2}_{var(Y)} = var(X) + var(Y)$

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 $= E[X^2] + E[Y^2] + 2E[X]E[Y]$
 $E[X + Y]^2 = (E[X] + E[Y])^2 = E[X]^2 + E[Y]^2 + 2E[X]E[Y]$
 $\operatorname{var}(X + Y) = E[(X + Y)^2] - (E[X + Y])^2$
 $= \underbrace{E[X^2] - E[X]^2}_{\operatorname{var}(X)} + \underbrace{E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2}_{\operatorname{var}(Y)} = \operatorname{var}(X) + \operatorname{var}(Y)$

Variance of sum of independent random variables equals the sum of the variances!

Independence of several random variables

▶ Three random variables X, Y and Z are said to be independent if

$$P(X = x, Y = y, Z = z) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)P(Z = z)$$
 For all x, y, z

- ▶ If X, Y, Z are independent, then so are f(X), g(Y) and h(Z).
- ▶ Also, any random variable f(X, Y) and g(Z) are independent.
- Are f(X, Y) and g(Y, Z) independent?

Independence of several random variables

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 - Not necessarily, both have Y in common.

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- Also, any random variable f(X, Y) and g(Z) are independent.
- Are f(X, Y) and g(Y, Z) independent?
 - Not necessarily, both have Y in common.
- For *n* independent random variables, X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n , we also have:

$$\operatorname{var}(X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots + X_n) = \operatorname{var}(X_1) + \operatorname{var}(X_2) + \dots + \operatorname{var}(X_n)$$

Variance of a Binomial

Consider *n* independent Bernoulli variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$, each with probability *p* of having value "1". The sum $Y = \sum_i X_i$ is a *Binomial*(*n*,*p*) random variable.

• We saw last time that $E[Y] = \sum_{i} E[X_i] = np$. What about the

variance?

• Recall that $\operatorname{var}(X_i) = p(1-p)$ for $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

•
$$\operatorname{var}(Y) = \operatorname{var}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{var}(X_i) = np(1-p).$$

Conditional Independence

- Very similar to conditional independence of events!
- X and Y are conditionally independent, given a positive probability event A if

$$P(X = x, Y = y|A) = P(X = x|A)P(Y = y|A)$$
 For all x and y

- Same as saying P(X = x | Y = y, A) = P(X = x | A), i.e.
- Once you know that A has occurred, knowing {Y = y} has occurred does not give you any more information!
- Like we learned before, conditional independence does not imply unconditional independence.

- I separately phone two students (Alice and Bob) and tell them the midterm grade.
- ▶ To each, I report the same grade, $G \in \{A+, A..., C\}$.
- The signal is bad and, Alice and Bob each independently make an educated guess of what I said.
- Let the grades guessed by Alice and Bob be X and Y.
- Are X and Y marginally independent?

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- The signal is bad and, Alice and Bob each independently make an educated guess of what I said.
- Let the grades guessed by Alice and Bob be X and Y.
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 - YES! Because if we know the grade I actually said, the two variables are no longer dependent.

Example-marginally independent but not conditionally

- ▶ I toss two dice independently and X and Y are the readings on them.
- Are X and Y independent?
- Now I tell you that X + Y = 12. Are they still independent?