

Random Variables

Expectation

&

Variance

Distributions over The Reals

Point-Mass Dist.: $P(x_1) = p_1, P(x_2) = p_2, \dots, P(x_n) = p_n$
PMF

Density Dist.: $f(x) \geq 0$ $P([a, b]) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$
PDF

Cumulative Dist. function *CDF*

$$\boxed{CDF(a) = F(a) = \text{Prob}(X \leq a)}$$

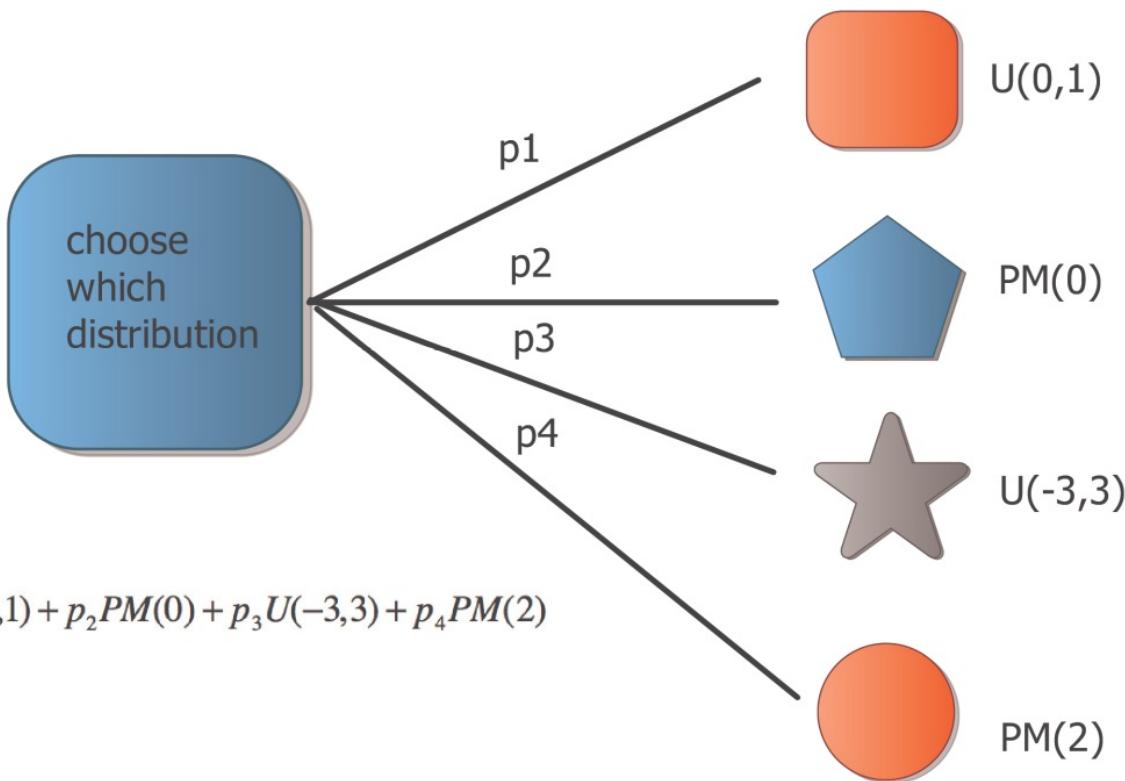
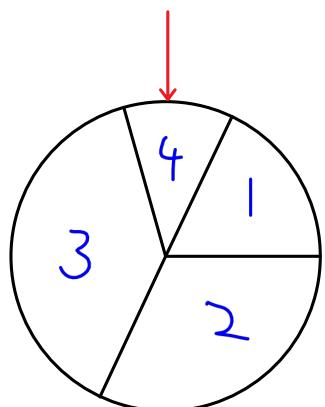
CDF for PMF: $F(a) = \sum_{x_i \leq a} p(x_i)$

CDF for PDF: $F(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$

Mixture

Distributions

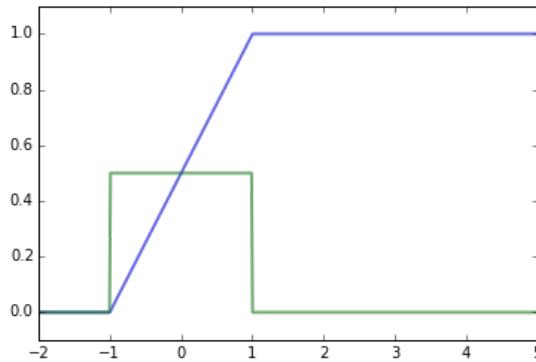
Mixtures distributions



0.2

$U(-1, +1)$

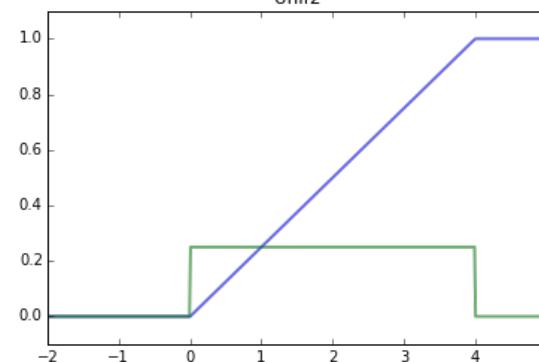
Unif1



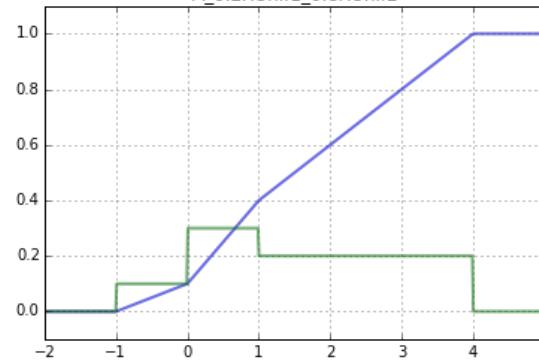
0.8

$U(0, 4)$

Unif2



M_0.2XUnif1_0.8XUnif2



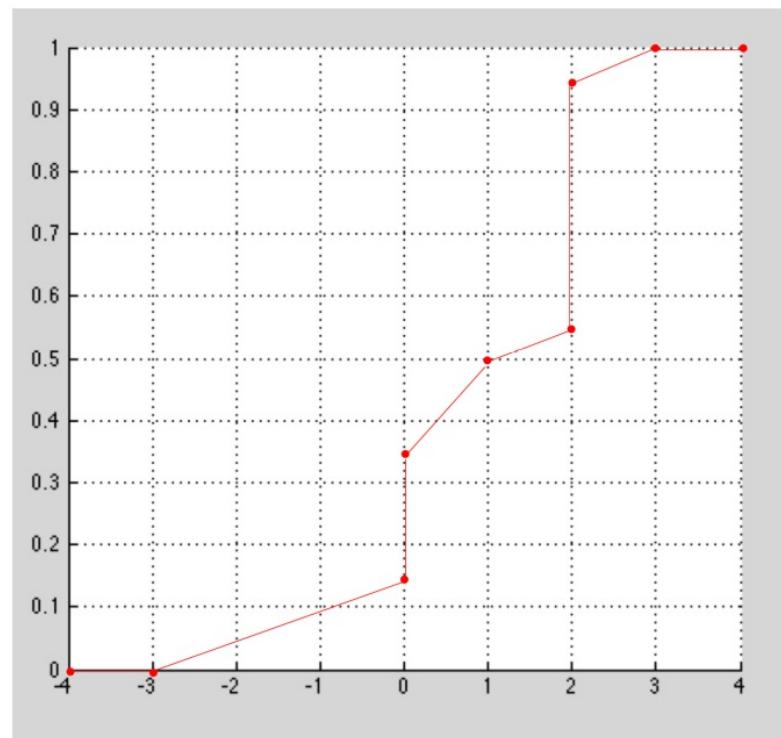
$$.1U(0,1) + .2PM(0) + .3U(-3,3) + .4PM(2)$$

$$F(-3) = 0; F(-.01) \approx .5 * .3 = .15$$

$$F(0) = .35; F(1) = .35 + .1 + \frac{.3}{6} = 0.5;$$

$$F(1.99) \approx 0.5 + 0.05 = 0.55; F(2) = 0.95$$

$$F(3) = 0.95 + \frac{.3}{6} = 1.0$$

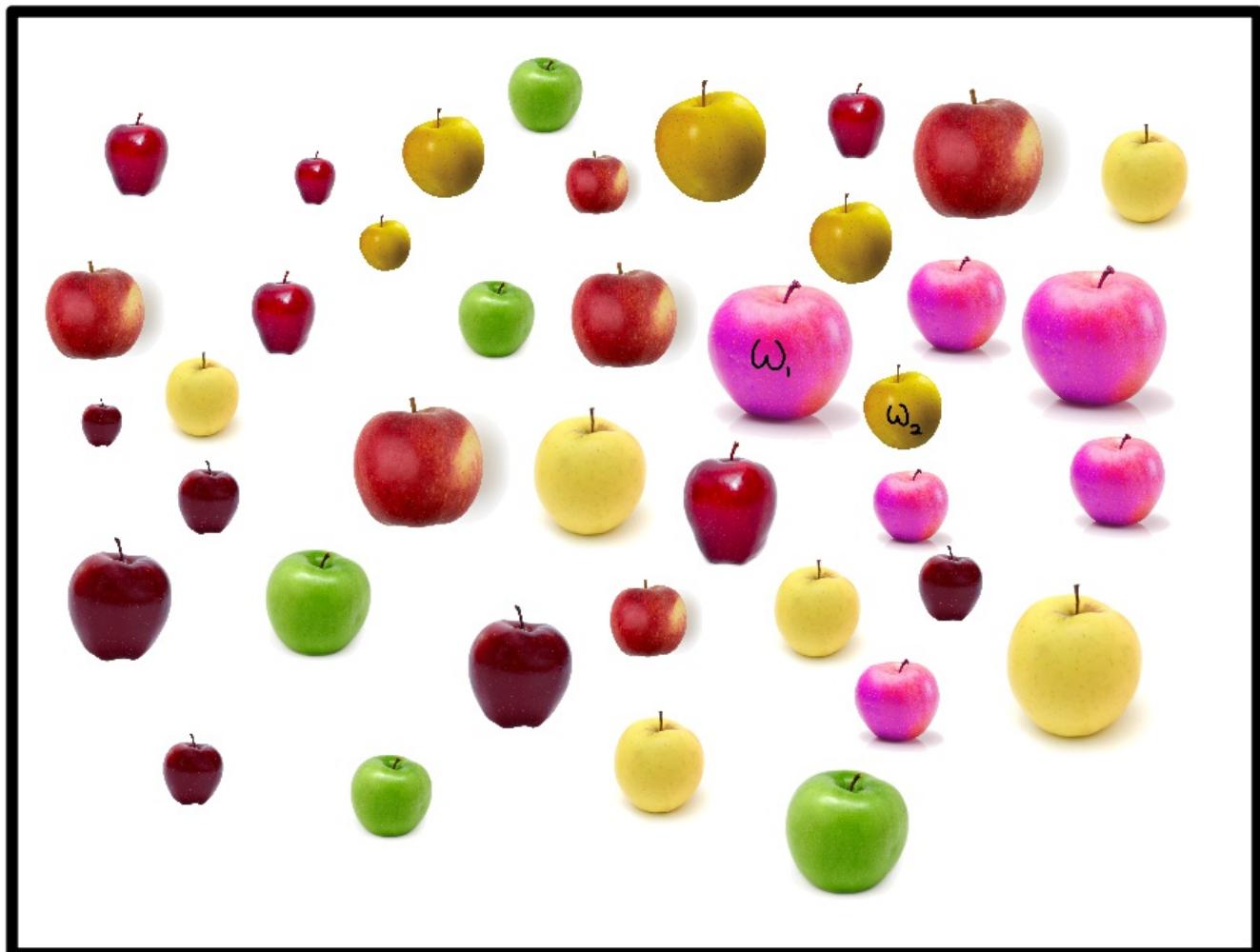


Random

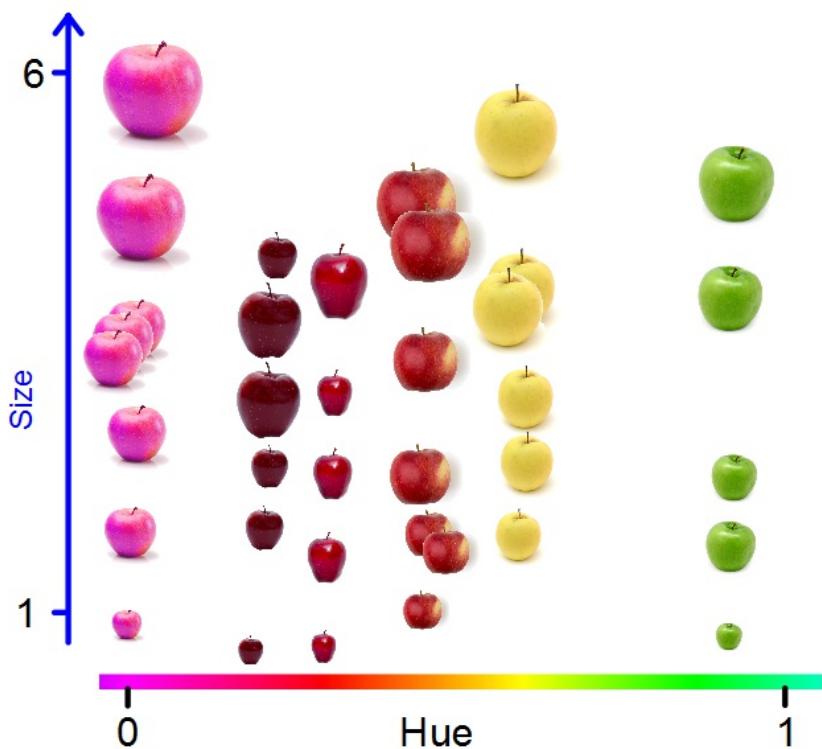
Variables

(RVs)

Sample space = apples
An outcome is an apple



Two random Variables over One outcome space



Usual notation

for Rv's:

$$X(\omega), Y(\omega), S_1(\omega), S_2(\omega) \dots$$

We often drop the w (it is always implied)

Events & RVs

from RV to event

$$A = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) > 5\}$$

from Event to RV

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin A \end{cases}$$

RVs $X(\omega), Y(\omega)$ are independent

if $\forall A, B$, A defined using X
B defined using Y

A, B are independent

Two Random Variables $X(\omega), Y(\omega)$ are Independent

If for any event A defined using only $X(\omega)$
and any event B defined using only $Y(\omega)$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

Example: the rainfall in Spain

Is independent of the unemployment

In the US.

Joint distribution of two independent random variables

	X=1	X=2	X=10	P(Y=y)
Y=-1	1/12	1/12	2/12	4/12 = 1/3
Y=+1	2/12	2/12	4/12	8/12 = 2/3
P(X=x)	3/12 = 1/4	3/12 = 1/4	6/12 = 1/2	

Marginals

Joint distribution of two dependent random variables

	X=1	X=2	X=10	P(Y=y)
Y=-1	1/12	2/12	1/12	4/12 = 1/3
Y=+1	2/12	1/12	5/12	8/12 = 2/3
P(X=x)	3/12 = 1/4	3/12 = 1/4	6/12 = 1/2	

Marginals

The diagram illustrates the joint distribution of two dependent random variables, X and Y. The joint probability distribution is represented by a 4x5 grid. The columns represent the values of X (X=1, X=2, X=10) and the rows represent the values of Y (Y=-1, Y=+1). The bottom row is labeled P(X=x) and the rightmost column is labeled P(Y=y). The probabilities are calculated as follows:

- For X=1: P(X=1, Y=-1) = 1/12, P(X=1, Y=+1) = 2/12, P(X=1) = 3/12 = 1/4.
- For X=2: P(X=2, Y=-1) = 2/12, P(X=2, Y=+1) = 1/12, P(X=2) = 3/12 = 1/4.
- For X=10: P(X=10, Y=-1) = 1/12, P(X=10, Y=+1) = 5/12, P(X=10) = 6/12 = 1/2.
- For Y=-1: P(Y=-1) = 4/12 = 1/3.
- For Y=+1: P(Y=+1) = 8/12 = 2/3.

Expected
Value

Expected Value

Pages 104-106
In OpenIntro
Statistics

i	1	2	3	Total
x_i	\$0	\$137	\$170	-
$P(X = x_i)$	0.20	0.55	0.25	1.00

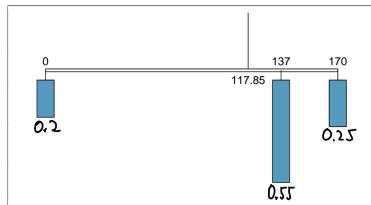


Figure 2.22: A weight system representing the probability distribution for X . The string holds the distribution at the mean to keep the system balanced.

$$\mu_x \doteq E(x) = \$0 \times 0.2 + \$137 \times 0.55 + \$170 \times 0.25 = 117.85$$

Subtracting the mean creates
a new Rv with zero Mean:

$$(0 - 117.85) \times 0.2 + (137 - 117.85) \times 0.55 + (170 - 117.85) \times 0.25 = \\ -117.85 \times 0.2 + 19.15 \times 0.55 + 52.15 \times 0.25 = 0$$

$$\underline{-23.57 + 10.5325 + 13.0375}$$

In general
 $\forall a : E(X-a) = E(x)-a$

Setting $a = E(x)$ we get:

$$E(X - E(x)) = E(x) - E(x) = 0$$

Expected Value =

Center of mass of the Distribution

$$\begin{aligned}E(X) &= 0 \times P(X = 0) + 137 \times P(X = 137) + 170 \times P(X = 170) \\&= 0 \times 0.20 + 137 \times 0.55 + 170 \times 0.25 = 117.85\end{aligned}$$

Expected value of a Discrete Random Variable

If X takes outcomes x_1, \dots, x_k with probabilities $P(X = x_1), \dots, P(X = x_k)$, the expected value of X is the sum of each outcome multiplied by its corresponding probability:

$$\begin{aligned}E(X) &= x_1 \times P(X = x_1) + \cdots + x_k \times P(X = x_k) \\&= \sum_{i=1}^k x_i P(X = x_i)\end{aligned}\tag{2.71}$$

The Greek letter μ may be used in place of the notation $E(X)$.

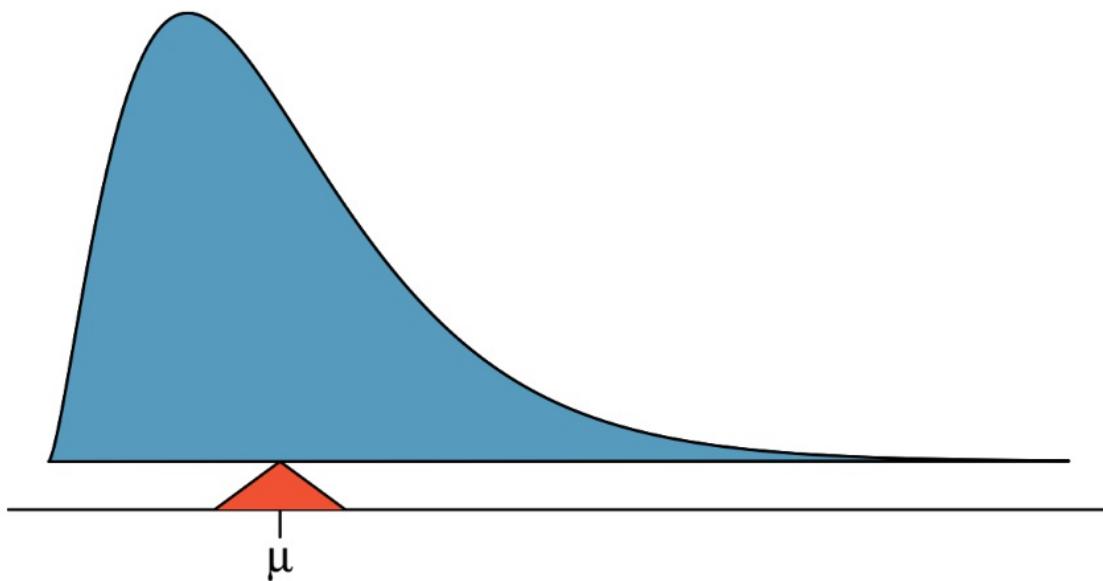


Figure 2.23: A continuous distribution can also be balanced at its mean.

$$E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s f(s) ds$$

Example - Binary random variables:

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{100}

Be **independent** binary random variables: $P(X_i = 0) = P(X_i = 1) = \frac{1}{2}$



Let $S = \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{100} X_i$ S is the _____, S is/is-not a random variable?



$E(X_i) = 0 \times \frac{1}{2} + 1 \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$, $E(X_i)$ is/is-not a random variable?

What is $E(S)$?

Rules for expected value:

1. If a, b are constants and X is a random variable then

$$E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$$

2. If X, Y are random variables (dependent or independent)

$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$$

—> what is $E(aX + bY + c) = ?$



3. If the distribution of the RV X is a mixture of two distributions:

$$P = \mu P_1 + (1 - \mu) P_2 \quad \text{then}$$

$$E_P(X) = \mu E_{P_1}(X) + (1 - \mu) E_{P_2}(X)$$



So now, $S = \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{100} X_i$, what is $E(S)$?

Mean ≠ Average

Mean • $E(X)$ is a property of the distribution, it is not a random variable.

- The average is a random variable:
 - $\text{Average}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \doteq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$
- When n is large, the average tends to be close to the mean.

Example - Binary random variables:

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{100}

Be independent binary random variables: $P(X_i = 0) = P(X_i = 1) = \frac{1}{2}$



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$E(X_i) = 0 \times \frac{1}{2} + 1 \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$, $E(X_i)$ is/is-not a random variable?

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So now, $S = \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{100} X_i$, what is $E(S)$?

The mean is the center of mass of the distribution

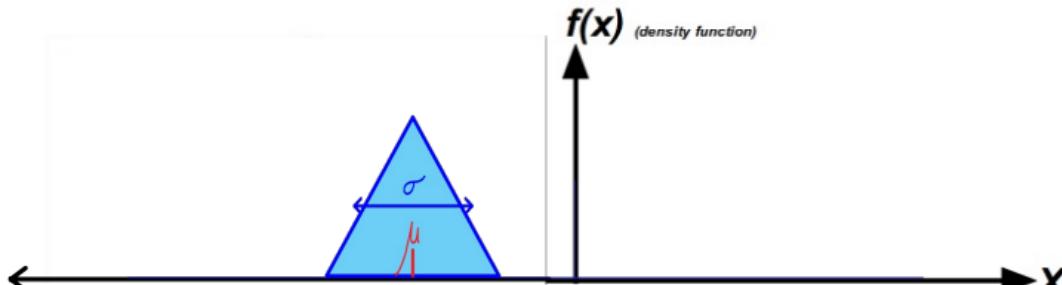
If the distribution is symmetric around zero, then the mean is zero.

If the distribution is symmetric around a , then the mean is a .

1. If a, b are constants and X is a random variable then

$$E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$$

$E(X)$ corresponds to the location. If we subtract the mean we have a distribution centered at zero: $E(X - E(X)) = E(X) - E(X) = 0$



$\mu = E(x)$ corresponds to the Shift
How do we measure the Scale?

Or Scale

Measuring the width of the distribution

Lets use $\mu \doteq E(X)$

We already know that $E(X - \mu) = 0$

To find the width we could use $E(|X - \mu|)$

But it is much more convenient to use:

$$Var(X) \doteq E((X - \mu)^2)$$

Using the rules for expected value (remember that μ is a constant)

$$\begin{aligned} Var(X) \doteq E((X - \mu)^2) &= E(X^2 - 2\mu X + \mu^2) \\ &= E(X^2) - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2 = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Properties of the variance

□

1. If a, b are constants and X is a random variable then

$$\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

2. If X, Y are **Independent** Random Variables, then

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$$

3. If the distribution of the RV X is a mixture of two distributions:

$$P = \mu P_1 + (1 - \mu) P_2 \quad \text{then..... (nothing)}$$

Why do we need the std-dev?

Suppose $E(x) = 0$, $\text{Var}(x) = 1$

The mean of $2x$ is still 0 $E(2x) = 0$

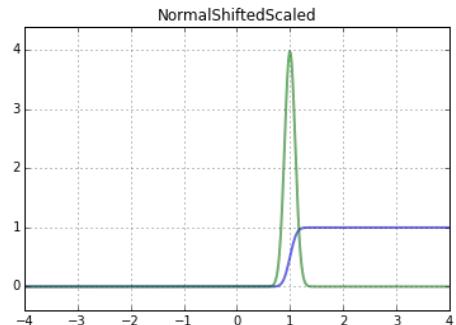
The width should be 2

But $\text{Var}(2x) = 4\text{Var}(x) = 4$

So, instead of using $\text{Var}(x)$

We define the width to be
the standard deviation (std)

$$\sigma(x) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(x)}$$



Shifted and Scaled Normal $N(\mu, \sigma)$

Shift: $\mu = 1$ scale: $\sigma = 0.1$

PDF:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

CDF:

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(s)ds = 1 - Q\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

If the RV X is distributed according to $N(\mu, \sigma)$

Then:

$$E(X) = \mu$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$$

True (or underlying) Distribution

Vs

Empirical Distribution

We have a biased Coin $P(\text{Head}) = \frac{2}{3} = 0.666\dots$

We flip the Coin 100 times and get $\frac{60}{100}$ heads

The empirical distribution is $\hat{P}(\text{Head}) = 0.6$

The empirical distribution is a Random Variable

The true distribution is NOT a Random Variable

Using the empirical distribution We can define:

- Empirical mean = average
- Empirical Variance
- Empirical prob. of events.

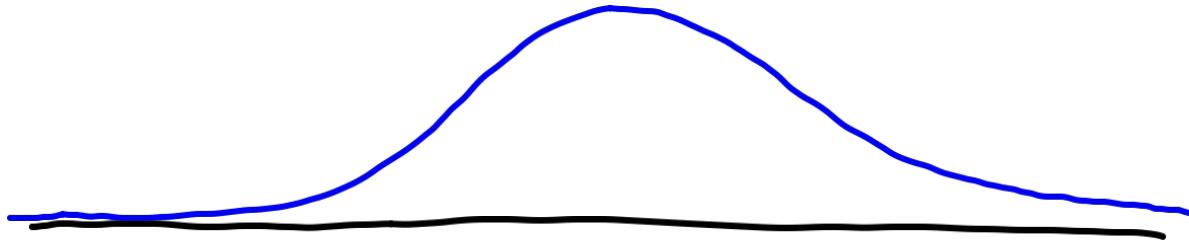
As the number of samples (Coin flips) increases

The empirical Converges to the True

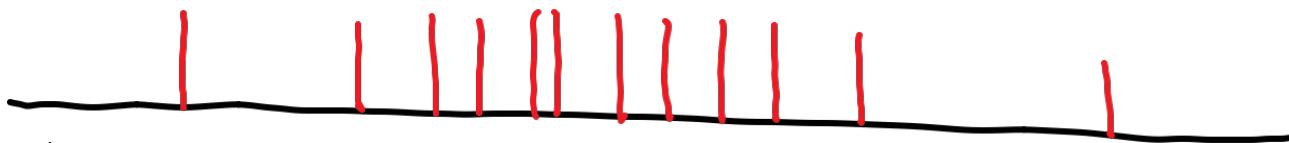
The Question is **How Fast?**

Empirical Dist. Over the Reals

Suppose the true dist. is a density dist over the reals

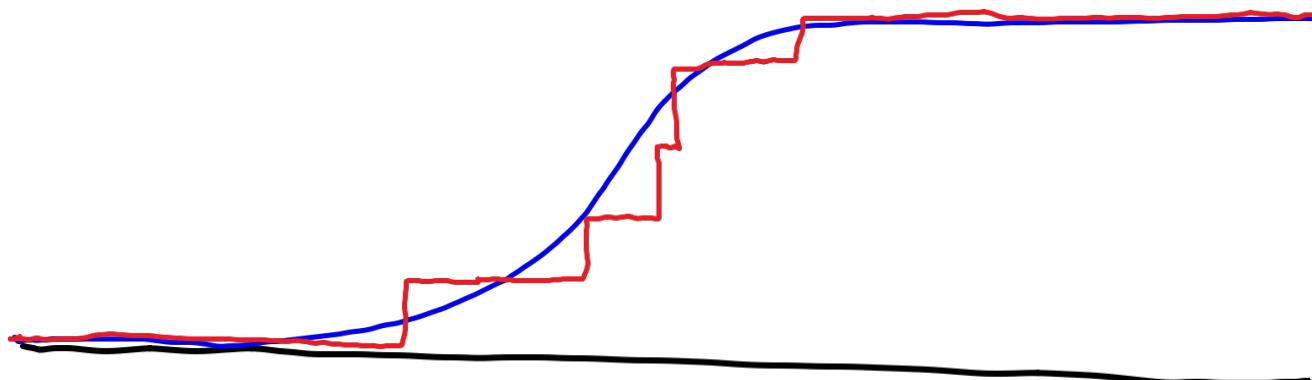


The empirical dist is a point-mass distribution

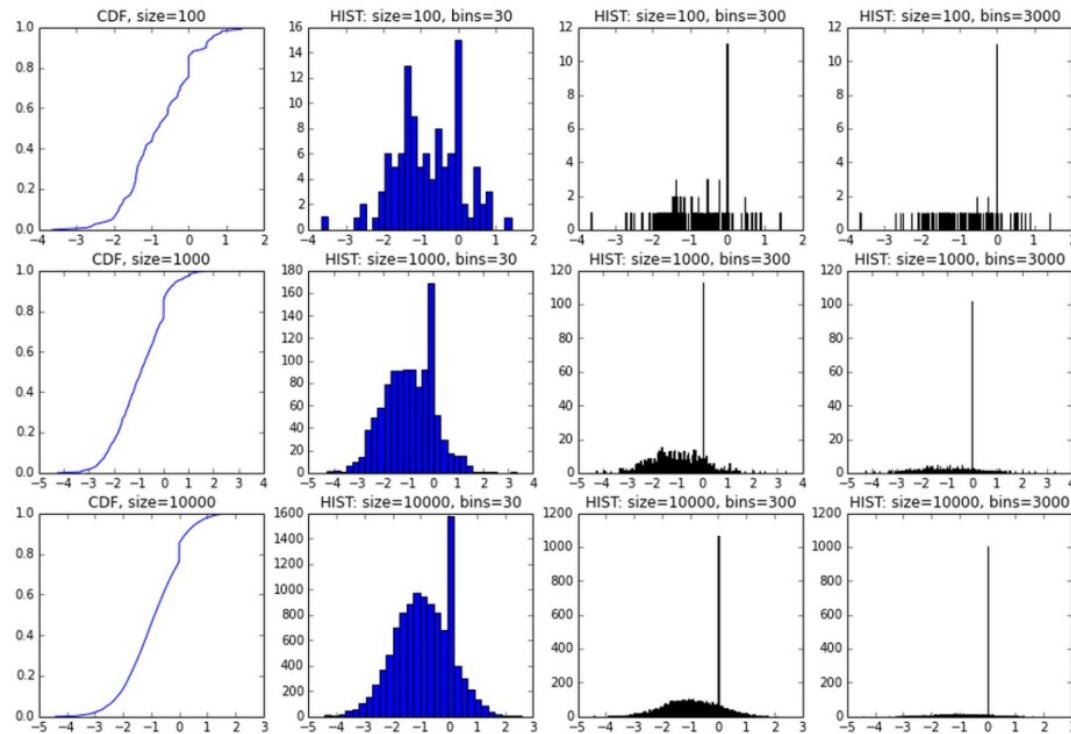


How can the empirical Converge to the density?

Answer: Consider the CDF



**A mixture of the normal and a point-mass
($10^*N(-1,1) + PM(0)$)**



$N(-1, 1) = \text{A normal distribution centered at } -1, \text{ with width 1}$

