ASEN 5044, Fall 2024

Statistical Estimation for Dynamical Systems

Lecture 10: Random Variables, Probability Distributions, Density Functions, Expected Values

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Thurs 09/26/2024





Announcements

- HW 3 Due Fri 09/27 (tomorrow)
- HW 4: Out today, Due Thurs 10/03 [1 week]
- Quiz 4: out tomorrow Fri 09/27, due Tues 10/01
- First advanced topic lecture: tomorrow Fri 9/27 (pre-recorded, to be posted)
 - Optional: focused on Bayesian estimation and related topics
 - Will post blank + written slides
- Midterm 1: out next Thurs 10/03, due Thurs 10/10 (Gradescope)
 - One week long take home exam posted to Canvas
 - Open book/notes honor code applies (must complete by yourself)
 - Will cover HW 1-4 (solns will be posted) + Quizzes 1-4 + associated lectures
 - No office hours 10/07-10/10 for TFs or Prof. Ahmed (send private email/Piazza posts for clarification questions only)
 - Expected effort: ~5.5 8 hrs

Last Time...

- Joint probabilities
- Marginal probabilities
- Conditional probabilities
- Bayes' rule
- Independent/dependent random variables

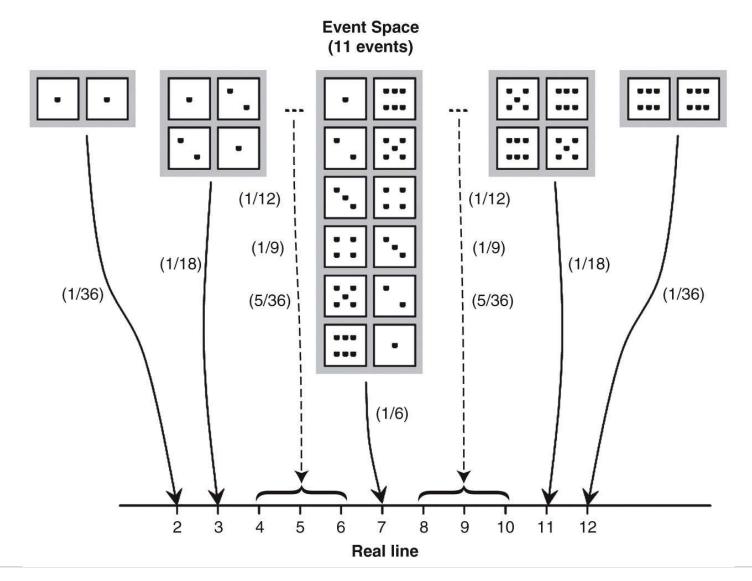
Today...

- discrete and continuous random variables (i.e. "random quantities")
- probability mass functions (pmfs) for discrete random variables
- probability density functions (pdfs) for continuous random variables
- Expectation operators and expected values, examples

READ SIMON BOOK, CHAPTER 2.5

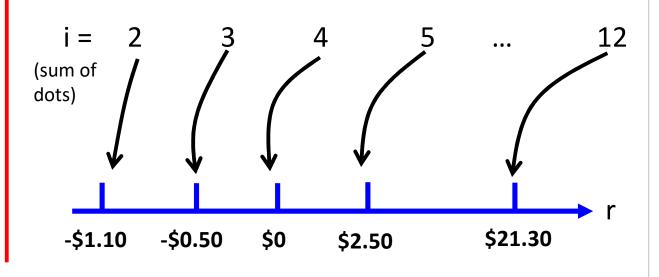
Random Variables

- A random variable (RV) is a function that maps every point in an event space {A_i} to points on the real line
- Example: RVs for two dice: Fxn #1: add up dots



Fxn #2: Suppose you receive arbitrary reward R for getting certain # of dots

→ can assign R=r to be a random variable



What's the Point of Defining RVs?

- Much easier to work with/visualize probabilities on RVs than "raw" events and outcomes
- Think of "random quantity" as another name for a "random variable"
- Other examples of random quantities (or RVs) that can be readily assigned to otherwise non-quantitative outcomes/events for random experiments:
 - \circ Select a person on the street at random & then **measure** their height **h**, or weight **w**, or age **a**, or GPA **g**,... \rightarrow any particular person is now "quantified" by a number on the real line
 - → example of continuous random quantity (i.e. a continuous RV)
 - \circ Flip a coin 5 times & then count (i.e. measure) number of heads \rightarrow any particular outcome (e.g. THHHH, HTHHH,...) now maps to a number on the real line (integer in this case)
 - → example of discrete random quantity (i.e. a discrete RV)
 - Take a reading from a Geiger counter and report the value you see on the dial
 → continuous RV (identity mapping)

Discrete Random Variables

X is a discrete RV if X maps outcomes/events to integer quantities

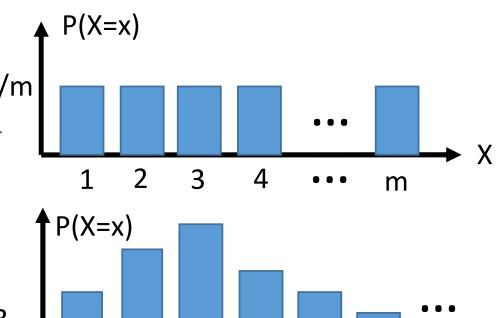
- o Can be finite or countably infinite (e.g. number of e-mails between now and midnight)
- \circ A fxn that assigns a single probability to each possible realization x of X, i.e. P(X=x), is called a probability mass function (pmf)
- The pmf is also sometimes called a discrete probability distribution
- Example discrete probability distributions (pmfs):

Uniform:
$$P(X = x) = \frac{1}{m}$$
, for $x \in \{1, ..., m\}$

Poisson: $P(X = x) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$, for $x \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., \}, \lambda \ge 0$ (→countably infinite outcomes, e.g. # arrivals per hour)

Bernoulli: $P(X = x) = p^x (1 - p)^{1 - x}$, for $x \in \{0, 1\}$ \rightarrow binary outcomes, e.g. coin flips; p = probability of x=1)

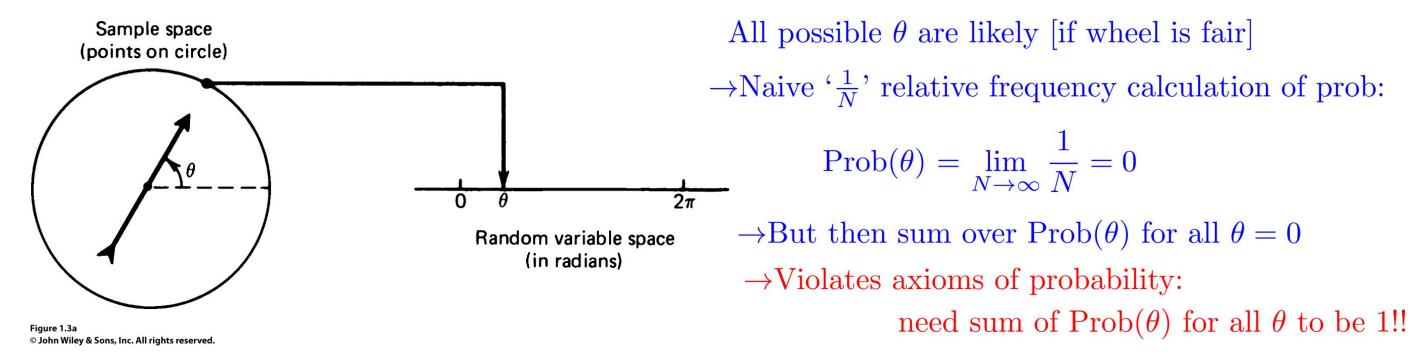
Binomial:
$$P(X=x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!}p^x(1-p)^{n-x}$$
, for $x \in \{0,1,...,n\}$ (>probability on total # of "1's" in a sequence of n Bernoulli trials)



Continuous Random Variables

X is a continuous RV if it maps to continuous quantities (real-valued, for our purposes)

- Uncountably infinite (e.g. there is a continuum of numbers between 100 and 100.1)
- We need to be careful about assigning and defining what P(X=x) really means!!!
- Example: spinning the pointer on a wheel



- Recall: probabilities defined on events for outcome space -- so we need a way to properly define events over a continuum of outcomes, and then assign probabilities to such events ...
- o Most natural way: define events to be intervals (lengths) on continuous real line
- o So then we need a way to assign probabilities to arbitrary intervals (events) on real line

Probability Density Function (pdf)

- A fxn that assigns a single probability to each possible interval (x_1, x_2) of X=x, i.e. $P(x_1 < x < x_2)$, is called a probability density function (pdf)
- The pdf is also sometimes called a continuous probability distribution
- Since probability is dimensionless, it follows that the pdf must have units = 1/[units of X]
- o **Example pdfs:** uniform, Gaussian, exponential, Gamma, Beta, Rayleigh, Student's-t, Laplace, Weibull...
- Formally:
- \circ Event: $\{x: \xi d\xi < x < \xi\}$ (i.e. either x falls inside the interval $[\xi d\xi, \xi]$, or it does not)
- o The **probability density function (pdf)** of a scalar RV: ≜(≯((→ ()))

$$\lim_{d\xi \to 0} \frac{P(\xi - d\xi < x < \xi)}{d\xi} \stackrel{\P}{=} p_x(\xi) = p_X(x) = p(x)$$

- o From axioms of probability, it follows that: $P(\eta < x < \xi) = \int_{\eta}^{\xi} p(x) dx = c(\xi) c(\eta)$
- \circ Cumulative distribution function (cdf): $P(-\infty < x \le \xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\xi} p(x) dx \equiv c(\xi)$
- \circ From probability axioms, must <u>always</u> have: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$ $p(x) = \frac{dP(-\infty < x \le \xi)}{dx}$

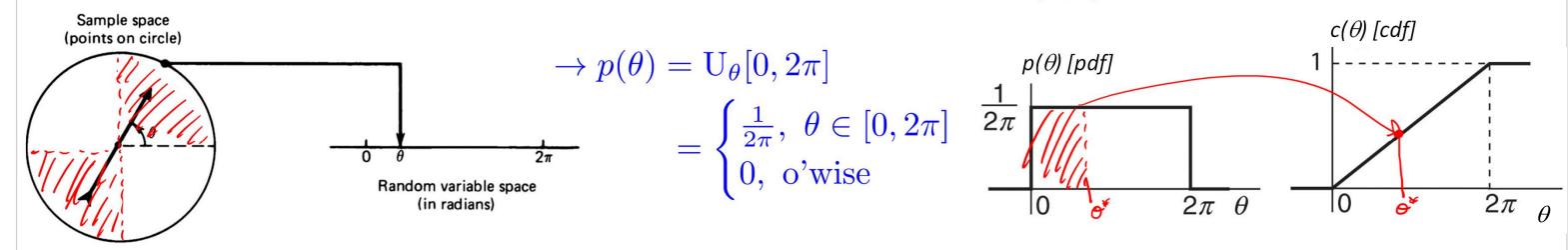
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x)dx = 1$$

$$p(x) = \frac{dP(-\infty < x \le \xi)}{dx}$$

(i.e. pdf is derivative of cdf. when cdf is continuous and differentiable)

PDF Example: Spinning Pointer on Wheel

• If spinner fairly constructed, then θ has uniform pdf: $\theta \stackrel{\wedge}{\sim} U[a,b]$ (' \sim ': 'distributed as'; $a=0, b=2\pi$)



(i) What is
$$P(0 \le \theta \le \frac{\pi}{2}) = ?$$

$$P(0 \le \theta \le \frac{\pi}{2}) = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} p(\theta) d\theta = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} 1 \ d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \theta \Big|_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

(ii) What is
$$P([0 \le \theta \le \frac{\pi}{2}]$$
 $\bigcirc \mathbb{R}$ $[\pi \le \theta \le \frac{3\pi}{2}]) = ?$

$$P(0 \le \theta \le \frac{\pi}{2}) + P(\pi \le \theta \le \frac{3\pi}{2}) \quad \text{(where } P(\pi \le \theta \le \frac{3\pi}{2}) = \int_{\pi}^{\frac{3\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \theta|_{\pi}^{3\pi/2} = \frac{1}{4})$$

$$=\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{4}=\frac{1}{2}$$

Expected Values and the Expectation Operator

- Not surprisingly, the function Y = g(X) of a RV X is also a RV (i.e. Y is a RV)
- We could try to find the distribution of Y, but this can be difficult or unnecessary
- Sometimes we just need a "summary of what to expect" from Y without enumerating all possible values for Y
- i.e. what is the "average value" of some arbitrary function g(x) of random var X?

Discrete Case

 $E[g(x)] = \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} g(x=i) P(x=i)$ = single constant with \times ER (where \times is the H possible outcomes) for \times

Continuous Case

$$E[g(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)p(x)dx$$
It is a finite of $f(x) = f(x)$ is a specified value of $f(x) = f(x)$ is a squared in the expected value of $f(x) = f(x)$ is a squared and $f(x) = f(x)$ is a squared of $f(x) = f(x)$.

Interpretation of Expected Values

• Consider the "relative frequency" view of probabilities (for discrete RVs):

$$p_i = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{N_i}{N}, \quad x_i \in \{1, 2, 3, \cdots, N_x\} \Rightarrow \# \text{ times we } typically \text{ expect to see } x_i \text{ in } N \to \infty \text{ trials:}$$
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• So given some sample of outcomes, the 'typical' *N-sample mean* for corresponding RVs would be:

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\bar{x}_{sample} \equiv \frac{(N_1 \cdot x_1) + (N_2 \cdot x_2) + \dots + (N_{N_x} \cdot x_{N_x})}{N} \Rightarrow \frac{([p_1 \cdot N] \cdot x_1) + ([p_2 \cdot N] \cdot x_2) + \dots + ([p_{N_x} \cdot N] \cdot x_{N_x})}{N} (typical sample mean, i.e. typical sample avg. value for arbitrary finite sample size N) = (p_1 \cdot x_1) + (p_2 \cdot x_2) + \dots + (p_{N_x} \cdot x_{N_x}) (no dependence on N!!)
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- The **expected value (EV)** = *conceptual average* obtained over *infinite # of trials* N
 - Key idea: don't actually need to run infinite # of trials N if we know probability of outcomes
 - EV is what you expect to see in a "typical" random trial (not what you actually will see b/c trial is <u>random!</u>)
 - o Expected value is NOT the same as the sample average (sample mean) for finite N
 - Expected value says NOTHING about the actual number you will obtain for finite N

Some Common/Important Expected Values

- Things you will see a lot in estimation problems: $E[x] = \overline{x} = \mu_x = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x)dx & (\text{cont RV}) & (g(x) = x) \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2p(x)dx & (\text{cont RV}) & \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} xP(x) & (\text{disc RV}) \end{cases}$ 2nd moment: $E[x^2] = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2p(x)dx & (\text{cont RV}) & \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} xP(x) & (\text{disc RV}) \\ \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} x^2P(x) & (\text{disc RV}) & \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} x^2P(x) & (\text{disc RV}) \end{cases}$ Variance (aka 2nd moment about the mean): $var(x) = \sigma_x^2 = E[(x-\mu_x)^2] = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu_x)^2p(x)dx & (\text{cont RV}) \\ \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} (x-\mu_x)^2P(x) & (\text{disc RV}) \end{cases}$
 - Standard deviation: $std(x) = \sigma_x = \sigma = \sqrt{var(x)} > 0$
- Higher order nth moment (pdf/pmf shape info, e.g. skewness, kurtosis): $E[x^n] = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n p(x) dx \pmod{RV} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} x^n P(x) \pmod{RV} \end{cases}$ Expected cost/reward fxn value J(x): $E[J(x)] = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} J(x) p(x) dx \pmod{RV} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} J(x) P(x) \pmod{RV} \end{cases}$

Useful Properties of Expectations (both continuous and discrete)

• FACT 1: The expectation operator is linear

$$E_{\underline{x}}\left[\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)\right] = \alpha \cdot E_{x}[f(x)] + \beta \cdot E_{x}[g(x)]$$

for any constants α, β and (integrable/summable) fxns f(x), g(x)

FACT 2: Variance can always be computed more simply as

$$var(x) = E_x [(x - \mu_x)^2] = E[x^2] - (E[x])^2$$
$$= E[x^2] - (\mu_x)^2$$

Example #1: Die Rolls

(a) Compute the expected face value i for the roll of a single fair die

$$\bar{x} = \mu_x = E[x] = \sum_{i=1}^{6} x_i \cdot P(x_i) = 1 \cdot P(x_i = 1) + 2 \cdot P(x_i = 2) + \dots + 6 \cdot P(x_i = 6)$$

$$= 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \dots + 6 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot 21$$

$$\rightarrow \bar{x} = \mu_x = E[x] = 3.5$$

(b) Find expected reward ("expected take") for a single roll, if given reward function R(i)