

Probability and Random Process

COSE382

Expectation

Definition 4.1.1(Expectation of a discrete r.v.). The *expected value* (also called the *expectation* or *mean*) of a discrete r.v. X is defined by

$$E(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{x_j}_{\text{value}} \underbrace{P(X = x_j)}_{\text{PMF at } x} = \sum_x \underbrace{x}_{\text{value}} \underbrace{p_X(x)}_{\text{PMF at } x},$$

a weighted average of the possible values that X can take on.

Examples

1. $X \sim \text{DUnif}(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\})$

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{6}(1 + 2 + \cdots + 6) = 3.5,$$

2. Let $X \sim \text{Bern}(p)$ and $q = 1 - p$. Then

$$E(X) = 1p + 0q = p,$$

Note that $E(X)$ depends only on the *distribution* of X .

Linearity of Expectation

Theorem 4.2.1(Linearity of expectation.). For any r.v.s X, Y and any constant c ,

$$\begin{aligned}E(X + Y) &= E(X) + E(Y), \\E(cX) &= cE(X).\end{aligned}$$

Proof: will be presented later (after *joint distribution* is introduced)

Example 4.2.2(Binomial expectation). For $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$,

$$\underline{E(X) = np}$$

Proof in two ways

Handwritten note: Bern(p) & n times v₀.

1) Since X is the sum of n i.i.d. Bernoulli r.v.s I_j

$$X = I_1 + \cdots + I_n,$$

where each I_j has expectation $E(I_j) = 1p + 0q = p$ By linearity,

$$E(X) = E(I_1) + \cdots + E(I_n) = np.$$

2) From $k \binom{n}{k} = n \binom{n-1}{k-1}$,

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{k=0}^n k \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} = n \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^k q^{n-k} = np \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^{k-1} q^{n-k} \\ &= np \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{j} p^j q^{n-1-j} = np \end{aligned}$$

Discrete R.V. = $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Bern}(p) \\ \text{Bin}(n, p) \\ \text{Geom}(p) \leftrightarrow \text{FS}(p) \\ \text{Poisson}(\lambda) \end{array} \right\}$

Definition 4.3.1(Geometric R.V.).

$X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$: In a sequence of i.i.d. Bernoulli trials with success probability p , X is a number of failures before the first success. X is called *Geometric random variable* or *Geometric distribution*.

Theorem 4.3.2(Geometric PMF). If $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$, then the PMF of X is

$$P(X = k) = (1 - p)^k p \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

This is a valid PMF because

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1 - p)^k p = p \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1 - p)^k = p \cdot \frac{1}{1 - (1 - p)} = 1.$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$$

Example:

A newlywed couple plans to have children and will continue until the first girl. What is the probability that the couple have a boy and a girl?

Solution:

$$p_X(1) = (1/2)^1 (1/2)^1 = 0.25$$

Geomel 2/14/2

Definition 4.3.4(First Success distribution).

$Y \sim \text{FS}(p)$: In a sequence of i.i.d. Bernoulli trials with success probability p , Y is the number of trials to have the first success.

- PMF of $Y \sim \text{FS}(p)$ \rightarrow ~~1st trial~~ \rightarrow 1st trial

$$Y(k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Example:

Products produced by a machine has a 3% defective rate. What is the probability that the first defective occurs in the fifth item inspected?

Solution:

$$p_X(5) = (0.03)^1 (0.97)^4 \approx 0.02655878$$

- Relation between $\text{Geom}(p)$ and $\text{FS}(p)$ \rightarrow ~~1st trial~~ \rightarrow 1st trial

– If $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$ then $X + 1$ $\sim \text{FS}(p)$

$$P(X + 1 = k) = P(X = k - 1) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

– If $Y \sim \text{FS}(p)$ then $Y - 1 \sim \text{Geom}(p)$

$$P(Y - 1 = k) = P(Y = k + 1) = (1 - p)^k p, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

Example 4.3.5(Geometric Expectation). Let $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$, then

$$E(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(1-p)^k p = \frac{1-p}{p}.$$

Proof: Consider $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1-p)^k = \left(\frac{1}{1-p}\right)$ Differentiating both sides with respect to p ,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(1-p)^{k-1} = \frac{1}{p^2}. \quad \text{Hence,}$$

$$E(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(1-p)^k p = p(1-p) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(1-p)^{k-1} = p(1-p) \frac{1}{p^2} = \frac{1-p}{p}.$$

Example 4.3.6(First Success expectation). For $Y \sim \text{FS}(p)$, $Y = X + 1$ ($X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$),

$$E(Y) = E(X + 1) = \frac{1-p}{p} + 1 = \frac{1}{p}.$$

평균의 역수가 기댓값

→ n 개 종류가 다 다르다

Example 4.3.11 (Coupon collector). There are n types of toys. Assume that each time you get a toy, it is equally likely to be any of the n types. What is the expected number of toys needed until you have a complete set?

Solution: Let N be the number of toys needed; we want to find $E(N)$. Our strategy will be to break up N into a sum of simpler r.v.s so that we can apply linearity.

$$N = N_1 + N_2 + \cdots + N_n, \quad \therefore N = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{FS}\left(\frac{n-i}{n}\right)$$

where N_i is the additional numbers of toys until the i th new toy type after $i-1$ toy types.

Then, $N_1 = 1$, $N_2 \sim \text{FS}\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)$ and $N_3 \sim \text{FS}\left(\frac{n-2}{n}\right)$

N_1 은 1개
 N_2 은 1개
 N_3 은 1개

$$N_i \sim \text{FS}\left(\frac{n-i+1}{n}\right).$$

이항분포의 확률이 > (다들)

$$E(N) = E(N_1) + E(N_2) + \cdots + E(N_n) = 1 + \frac{n}{n-1} + \cdots + n$$

$$= n\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{1}{n-2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{1}\right) = n \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}.$$

For large n , this is very close to $n(\log n + 0.577)$.

Example 4.3.13 (St. Petersburg paradox). If you flip a fair coin n times to see Head for the first time, you win the game and will receive $\$2^n$.

- 1) What is the expected number of trials to win ?
- 2) What is the expected money you will get ?

Solution: Let N be the number of trials to win the game.

- 1) From $N \sim FS(1/2)$,

$$E(N) = 2$$

- 2) Let X be the prize when the game ends at N trials. $X = 2^N$.

$$E(X) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^k P(N = k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^k \frac{1}{2^k} = \infty \quad ? \quad \text{Zero probability of winning!!}$$

Here, we have $2^{E(N)} = 4 \neq \infty$, illustrating the danger of confusing $E(g(X))$ with $g(E(X))$ when g is not linear.

$$2^{E(N)} \leq E(2^N)$$

\star $E(g(X))$ with $g(E(X))$
non-linear g .

Law of unconscious statistician

Theorem 4.5.1 (LOTUS). If X is a discrete r.v. and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then for $Y = g(X)$

$$E(Y) = E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x)P(X = x),$$

where the sum is taken over all possible values of X .

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y) &= \sum_y yP(Y = y) \\ &= \sum_{\{x|g(x)=y\}} g(x)P(X = x) \\ &= \sum_x g(x)P(X = x). \end{aligned}$$

Variance

Definition 4.6.1 (Variance and standard deviation). The *variance* of an r.v. X is

$$\text{Var}(X) := E(X - EX)^2.$$

The square root of the variance is called the *standard deviation (SD)*:

$$\text{SD}(X) := \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$$

Recall that when we write $E(X - EX)^2$, we mean the expectation of the random variable $(X - EX)^2$, not $(E(X - EX))^2$ (which is 0 by linearity).

Theorem 4.6.2 For any r.v. X ,

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - (EX)^2.$$

Proof. Let $\mu = EX$. Expand $(X - \mu)^2$ and use linearity:

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X - \mu)^2 = E(X^2 - 2\mu X + \mu^2) = E(X^2) - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2 = E(X^2) - \mu^2.$$

Properties of Variance

- $\text{Var}(X + c) = \text{Var}(X)$
- $\text{Var}(cX) = c^2 \text{Var}(X)$
- If X and Y are independent, then $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$
- $\text{Var}(X) \geq 0$

(Variance is not linear). Unlike expectation, variance is *not* linear.

- The constant comes out *squared* in $\text{Var}(cX) = c^2 \text{Var}(X)$
- The variance of the sum of r.v.s may or may not be the sum of their variances.
For example, if $X = Y$,

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(2X) = 4\text{Var}(X) \neq 2\text{Var}(X)$$

Example 4.6.4 (Variance of Geometric R.V). Let $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$.

$$E(X^2) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 P(X = k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 p(1-p)^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 p(1-p)^k.$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(1-p)^k = \frac{1-p}{p^2}, \quad \frac{d}{dt} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(1-p)^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2(1-p)^{k-1} = \frac{2-p}{p^3}.$$

Hence,

$$E(X^2) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 p(1-p)^k = p(1-p) \frac{2-p}{p^3} = \frac{(1-p)(2-p)}{p^2}.$$

Finally,

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - (EX)^2 = \frac{(1-p)(2-p)}{p^2} - \left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^2 = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

$$- \text{ For } Y \sim \text{FS}(p), \text{ Var}(Y) = \text{Var}(X) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}.$$

Example 4.6.5(Binomial variance). For $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$, $X = Y_1 + Y_2 + \cdots + Y_n$, where $Y_j \sim \text{Bern}(p)$. Each Y_j has variance

$$\text{Var}(Y_j) = E(Y_j^2) - (E(Y_j))^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p)$$

Since the $\{Y_i\}$ are independent, we have

$$\text{Var}(X) = \text{Var}(Y_1) + \cdots + \text{Var}(Y_n) = np(1 - p).$$

Poisson random variable

Definition 4.7.1 (Poisson distribution). $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda)$: X has the *Poisson distribution* with parameter λ , where $\lambda > 0$, if the PMF of X is

$$P(X = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- This is a valid PMF because of the Taylor series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = e^{\lambda}.$$

- In practice,
 - λ is interpreted as a *rate* of occurrence of rare events of interest during a time interval
 - $P(X = k)$ tells the probability that k events occurs during the time interval.

Example (Poisson distribution). Customers of an Internet service provider initiate new accounts at the average rate of 10 accounts per day.

- What is the probability that more than 2 new accounts will be initiated today ?
- What is the probability that more than 4 accounts will be initiated within 2 days ?

Solution. Let X be the number of initiated new accounts in a day. $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda)$, where $\lambda = 10$ accounts per day. $p_X(k) = e^{-10} \frac{10^k}{k!}$

$$P(X > 2) = 1 - p_X(0) - p_X(1) - p_X(2) = 1 - e^{-10}(1 + 10 + 10^2/2) = 0.9995$$

Let Y be the number of initiated new accounts in two days. $Y \sim \text{Pois}(2\lambda)$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X > 4) &= 1 - p_Y(0) - p_Y(1) - p_Y(2) - p_Y(3) - p_Y(4) \\ &= 1 - e^{-20}(1 + 20 + 20^2/2 + 20^3/6 + 20^4/24) \approx 1 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.7.2 (Poisson expectation and variance). Let $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda)$.

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} = \lambda. \end{aligned}$$

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \frac{\lambda^{k-1}}{k!} = e^{\lambda} \\ \frac{d}{d\lambda} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 \frac{\lambda^{k-1}}{k!} = \frac{d}{d\lambda} \lambda e^{\lambda} = e^{\lambda} + \lambda e^{\lambda} = e^{\lambda}(1 + \lambda), \end{aligned}$$

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2) &= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} \lambda(1 + \lambda) = \lambda(1 + \lambda), \\ \text{Var}(X) &= E(X^2) - (EX)^2 = \lambda(1 + \lambda) - \lambda^2 = \lambda. \end{aligned}$$

Note that $E(X) = \text{Var}(X) = \lambda$

Connection between Poisson and Binomial

Theorem 4.8.3 (Poisson approximation to Binomial). If $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ and we let $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $p \rightarrow 0$ such that $\lambda = np$ remains fixed, then the PMF of X converges to the $\text{Pois}(\lambda)$ PMF.

Proof. Since $\lambda = np$, $p = \lambda/n$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = k) &= \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-k} \\ &= \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{n^k} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-k} \end{aligned}$$

Letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ with k fixed,

$$\frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{n^k} \rightarrow 1, \quad \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \rightarrow e^{-\lambda}, \quad \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-k} \rightarrow 1,$$

Hence,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X = k) \rightarrow \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!},$$

Theorem 4.8.1 (Sum of independent Poissons). If $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1)$, $Y \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_2)$, and X is independent of Y , then $X + Y \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$

Proof.

Method 1: Consider two Binomial r.v.s $X_b \sim \text{Bin}(n_1, p)$ and $Y_b \sim \text{Bin}(n_2, p)$ where $n_1 p = \lambda_1$ and $n_2 p = \lambda_2$. $X_b + Y_b \sim \text{Bin}(n_1 + n_2, p)$ and as $n_1, n_2 \rightarrow \infty$ with $n_1 p = \lambda_1$, $n_2 p = \lambda_2$ remain fixed, $X_b + Y_b \rightarrow X + Y$ and $X_b + Y_b \rightarrow \text{Pois}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$

Method 2: Alternatively, to get the PMF of $X + Y$, condition on X and use the law of total probability:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X + Y = k) &= \sum_{j=0}^k P(X + Y = k | X = j) P(X = j) = \sum_{j=0}^k P(Y = k - j) P(X = j) \\
 &= \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{e^{-\lambda_2} \lambda_2^{k-j}}{(k-j)!} \frac{e^{-\lambda_1} \lambda_1^j}{j!} = \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}}{k!} \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} \lambda_1^j \lambda_2^{k-j} \\
 &= \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^k}{k!}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 4.8.2 (Poisson given a sum of Poissons). If $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1)$, $Y \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_2)$, and X is independent of Y , then the conditional distribution of X given $X + Y = n$ is $\text{Bin}\left(n, \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}\right)$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X = k | X + Y = n) &= \frac{P(X + Y = n | X = k)P(X = k)}{P(X + Y = n)} \\
 &= \frac{P(Y = n - k)P(X = k)}{P(X + Y = n)} \\
 &= \frac{\left(\frac{e^{-\lambda_2} \lambda_2^{n-k}}{(n-k)!}\right) \left(\frac{e^{-\lambda_1} \lambda_1^k}{k!}\right)}{\frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^n}{n!}} \\
 &= \binom{n}{k} \frac{\lambda_1^k \lambda_2^{n-k}}{(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^n} \\
 &= \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}\right)^k \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}\right)^{n-k}
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the $\text{Bin}\left(n, \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}\right)$ PMF, as desired.