PROBABILITY THEORY

Math Tools Lab #7 November 1st, 2019

OUTLINE

- (1) Summary statistics: review intuition for norms
- (2) Code break 1
- (3) Random variables and probability distributions: discrete and continuous
- (4) Expected value, variance, and standard deviation
- (5) Moments
- (6) Code break 2
- (7) Covariance and correlation
- (8) Code break 3

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

We've already looked at a few: mean, median, mode, etc.

What is the point of these? We want a single number that can represent the data well, which we can measure by looking at the discrepancies from all data points using a metric.

What metric should we use? Norms: L_0 , L_1 , L_2 , ..., L_p

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

We've already looked at a few: mean, median, mode, etc.

What is the point of these? We want a single number that can represent the data well, which we can measure by looking at the discrepancies from all data points using a metric.

What metric should we use? Norms: L_0 , L_1 , L_2 , ..., L_p

Generalized L_p norm

$$argmin_{c} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_{n} - c|^{p} \right]^{1/p}$$

 L_0 norm

mode

 L_1 norm

median

 L_2 norm

mean

More intuitively, norm refers to a function which assigns size to each vector in some vector space. There are different ways to do this:

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

More intuitively, norm refers to a function which assigns size to each vector in some vector space. There are different ways to do this:

 L_0 Norm

Number of nonzero elements in a vector

$$X = [0,1]$$

$$||X||_0 = 1$$

More intuitively, norm refers to a function which assigns size to each vector in some vector space. There are different ways to do this:

$$L_0$$
 Norm

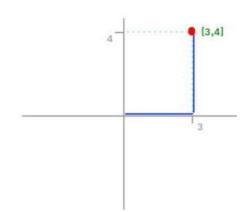
Number of nonzero elements in a vector

$$X = [0,1]$$

$$||X||_0 = 1$$

$$L_1$$
 Norm

Manhattan distance or taxicab norm: sum of magnitude of vectors



$$||X||_1 = |3| + |4| = 7$$

More intuitively, norm refers to a function which assigns size to each vector in some vector space. There are different ways to do this:

 L_0 Norm

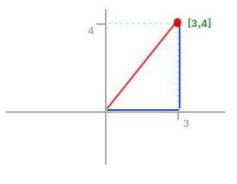
Number of nonzero elements in a vector

$$X = [0,1]$$

$$X = [0,1]$$
$$||X||_0 = 1$$



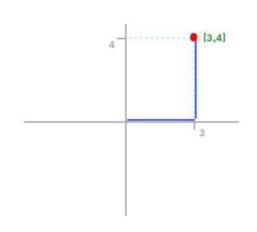
Euclidean norm: shortest distance between points



$$||X||_2 = \sqrt{|3|^2 + |4|^2} = 25$$

$$L_1$$
 Norm

Manhattan distance or taxicab norm: sum of magnitude of vectors



$$||X||_1 = |3| + |4| = 7$$

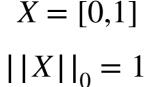
More intuitively, norm refers to a function which assigns size to each vector in some vector space. There are different ways to do this:

 L_0 Norm

Number of nonzero elements in a vector

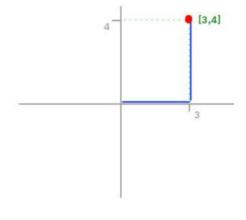
$$X = [0,1]$$

$$||X||_{0} = 1$$





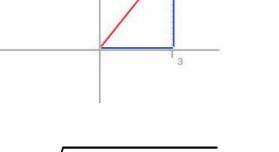
Manhattan distance or taxicab norm: sum of magnitude of vectors



$$||X||_1 = |3| + |4| = 7$$

$$L_2$$
 Norm

Euclidean norm: shortest distance between points



$$||X||_2 = \sqrt{|3|^2 + |4|^2} = 25$$

$$L_{\infty}$$
 Norm

Largest magnitude element in a vector

$$X = [-6,4,2]$$

$$||X||_{\infty} = 6$$

CODE BREAK 1

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: PMF

A discrete random variable is one that can equal a **finite number of values**. We can describe the distribution of a discrete r.v. using a **probability mass function (pmf)**, which must be non-negative for all inputs and sum to 1. A pmf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X takes on a particular value, P(X = x).

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: PMF

A discrete random variable is one that can equal a **finite number of values**. We can describe the distribution of a discrete r.v. using a **probability mass function (pmf)**, which must be non-negative for all inputs and sum to 1. A pmf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X takes on a particular value, P(X=x).

Examples of discrete r.v.'s

- (1) X = sum of two rolled dice
- (2) X = maximum of two rolled dice
- (3) X = # of coin flips until the 1st heads
- (4) X = number of kids in a family

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: PMF

A discrete random variable is one that can equal a **finite number of values**. We can describe the distribution of a discrete r.v. using a **probability mass function (pmf)**, which must be non-negative for all inputs and sum to 1. A pmf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X takes on a particular value, P(X = x).

What is the pmf of (1)?

13

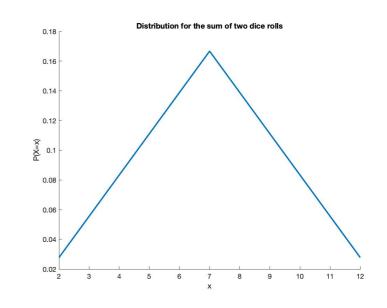
Examples of discrete r.v.'s

- (1) X = sum of two rolled dice
- (2) X = maximum of two rolled dice
- (3) X = # of coin flips until the 1st heads
- (4) X = number of kids in a family

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS:

PMF

A discrete random variable is one that can equal a **finite number of values**. We can describe the distribution of a discrete r.v. using a **probability mass function (pmf)**, which must be non-negative for all inputs and sum to 1. A pmf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X takes on a particular value, P(X = x).



14

What is the pmf of (1)?

Examples of discrete r.v.'s

| (1) | X | = sum | of two | rolled | dice |
|------------|---|-------|--------|--------|------|
|------------|---|-------|--------|--------|------|

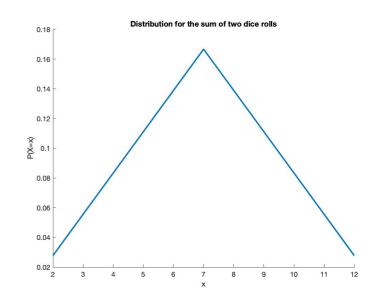
- (2) X = maximum of two rolled dice
- (3) X = # of coin flips until the 1st heads
- (4) X = number of kids in a family

| х | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| P(X=x) | 1/36 | 2/36 | 3/36 | 4/36 | 5/36 | 6/36 | 5/36 | 4/36 | 3/36 | 2/36 | 1/36 |

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS:

PMF

A discrete random variable is one that can equal a **finite number of values**. We can describe the distribution of a discrete r.v. using a **probability mass function (pmf)**, which must be non-negative for all inputs and sum to 1. A pmf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X takes on a particular value, P(X = x).



15

What is the pmf of (1)?

| Examp | les of | discrete | r. v. | 'S |
|-------|--------|----------|--------------|----|
|-------|--------|----------|--------------|----|

| (1) | \boldsymbol{X} | = | sum | of | two | rol | led | dice |
|------------|------------------|---|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|------|
|------------|------------------|---|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|------|

- (2) X = maximum of two rolled dice
- (3) X = # of coin flips until the 1st heads
- (4) X = number of kids in a family

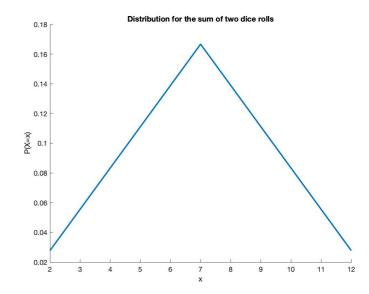
| x | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| P(X=x) | 1/36 | 2/36 | 3/36 | 4/36 | 5/36 | 6/36 | 5/36 | 4/36 | 3/36 | 2/36 | 1/36 |

Now, what is the probability that the sum of two rolls is at least 5? What about no more than 8?

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS:

PMF

A discrete random variable is one that can equal a **finite number of values**. We can describe the distribution of a discrete r.v. using a **probability mass function (pmf)**, which must be non-negative for all inputs and sum to 1. A pmf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X takes on a particular value, P(X = x).



16

Examples of discrete r.v.'s

- (1) X = sum of two rolled dice
- (2) X = maximum of two rolled dice
- (3) X = # of coin flips until the 1st heads
- (4) X = number of kids in a family

What is the pmf of (1)?

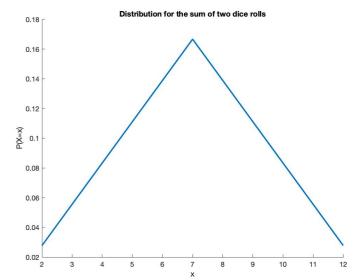
| х | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| P(X=x) | 1/36 | 2/36 | 3/36 | 4/36 | 5/36 | 6/36 | 5/36 | 4/36 | 3/36 | 2/36 | 1/36 |

Now, what is the probability that the sum of two rolls is at least 5? What about no more than 8?

$$P(X \ge 5) = \frac{4}{36} + \frac{5}{36} + \frac{6}{36} + \frac{4}{36} + \frac{3}{36} + \frac{2}{36} + \frac{1}{36} = \frac{25}{36}$$

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: PMF

A discrete random variable is one that can equal a **finite number of values**. We can describe the distribution of a discrete r.v. using a **probability mass function (pmf)**, which must be non-negative for all inputs and sum to 1. A pmf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X takes on a particular value, P(X = x).



Examples of discrete r.v.'s

- (1) X = sum of two rolled dice
- (2) X = maximum of two rolled dice
- (3) X = # of coin flips until the 1st heads
- (4) X = number of kids in a family

What is the pmf of (1)?

| х | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| P(X=x) | 1/36 | 2/36 | 3/36 | 4/36 | 5/36 | 6/36 | 5/36 | 4/36 | 3/36 | 2/36 | 1/36 |

Now, what is the probability that the sum of two rolls is at least 5? What about no more than 8?

$$P(X \ge 5) = \frac{4}{36} + \frac{5}{36} + \frac{6}{36} + \frac{4}{36} + \frac{3}{36} + \frac{2}{36} + \frac{1}{36} = \frac{25}{36}$$

$$P(X \le 8) = \frac{1}{36} + \frac{2}{36} + \frac{3}{36} + \frac{4}{36} + \frac{5}{36} + \frac{6}{36} + \frac{5}{36} = \frac{26}{36}$$

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: CDF

Another way to describe a r.v.'s distribution is with a **cumulative distribution function (cdf)**, which is a non-decreasing, right continuous step function for discrete r.v.'s. A cdf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X is less than or equal to a particular value k, $P(X \le k)$.

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: CDF

Another way to describe a r.v.'s distribution is with a **cumulative distribution function (cdf)**, which is a non-decreasing, right continuous step function for discrete r.v.'s. A cdf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X is less than or equal to a particular value k, $P(X \le k)$.

Back to our example: what is the cdf of the sum of two dice rolls?

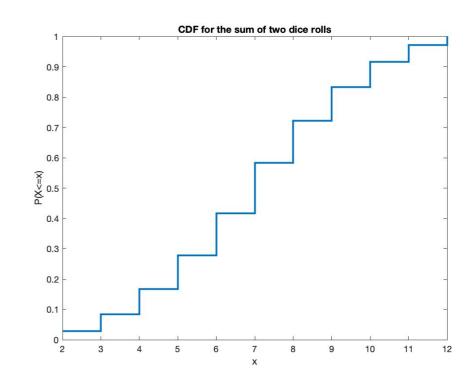
November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: CDF

Another way to describe a r.v.'s distribution is with a **cumulative distribution function (cdf)**, which is a non-decreasing, right continuous step function for discrete r.v.'s. A cdf describes the probability that a discrete r.v. X is less than or equal to a particular value k, $P(X \le k)$.

Back to our example: what is the cdf of the sum of two dice rolls?

| Х | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| P(X≤x) | 1/36 | 3/36 | 6/36 | 10/36 | 15/36 | 21/36 | 26/36 | 30/36 | 33/36 | 35/36 | 36/36 |



20

Binomial Distribution

The distribution for the number of successes in a sequence of n independent experiments, each with 2 possible outcomes where p is the probability of success. Example: flipping a coin.

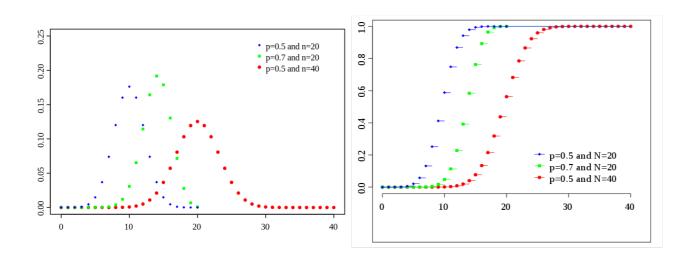
$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n - k}$$

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

Binomial Distribution

The distribution for the number of successes in a sequence of n independent experiments, each with 2 possible outcomes where p is the probability of success. Example: flipping a coin.

$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n - k}$$

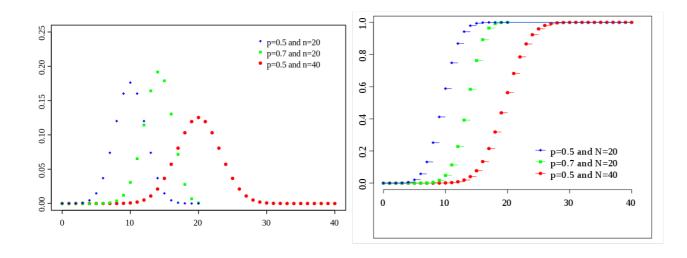


November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

Binomial Distribution

The distribution for the number of successes in a sequence of n independent experiments, each with 2 possible outcomes where p is the probability of success. Example: flipping a coin.

$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n - k}$$



Poisson Distribution

The distribution that expresses the probability that a given number of events will occur in a fixed interval of time λ . The event must occur with a constant rate and independently of the last event. Example: neural spike counts.

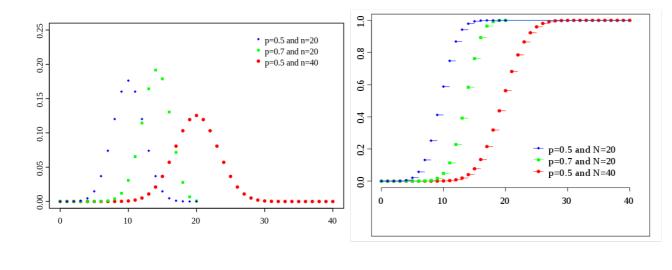
$$P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$$

23

Binomial Distribution

The distribution for the number of successes in a sequence of n independent experiments, each with 2 possible outcomes where p is the probability of success. Example: flipping a coin.

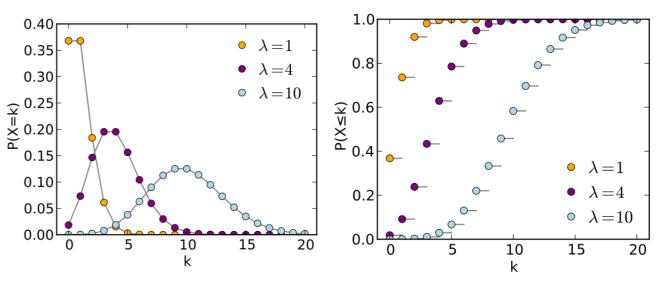
$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n - k}$$



Poisson Distribution

The distribution that expresses the probability that a given number of events will occur in a fixed interval of time λ . The event must occur with a constant rate and independently of the last event. Example: neural spike counts.

$$P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$$



November 1st, 2019

Math Tools Lab: Probability

Of course, we sometimes have r.v.'s whose possible values can't be listed because they are **continuous**. In this case, we use a smooth curve called a **probability density function (pdf)** to assign a distribution to the r.v. To be a valid pdf, f(x) must be non-negative and integrate to 1. The **area under the pdf is what represents probability**. Our cdf is still defined as $P(X \le k)$, but this is now the integral of the pdf $f_x(x)$.

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

Of course, we sometimes have r.v.'s whose possible values can't be listed because they are **continuous**. In this case, we use a smooth curve called a **probability density function (pdf)** to assign a distribution to the r.v. To be a valid pdf, f(x) must be non-negative and integrate to 1. The **area under the pdf is what represents probability**. Our cdf is still defined as $P(X \le k)$, but this is now the integral of the pdf $f_x(x)$.

Example: calculating probability using a pdf

Suppose $f(y) = 4y^3$ for 0 < y < 1. Find P(0 < Y < 0.5).

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

Of course, we sometimes have r.v.'s whose possible values can't be listed because they are **continuous**. In this case, we use a smooth curve called a **probability density function (pdf)** to assign a distribution to the r.v. To be a valid pdf, f(x) must be non-negative and integrate to 1. The **area under the pdf is what represents probability**. Our cdf is still defined as $P(X \le k)$, but this is now the integral of the pdf $f_x(x)$.

Example: calculating probability using a pdf

Suppose
$$f(y) = 4y^3$$
 for $0 < y < 1$. Find $P(0 < Y < 0.5)$.

$$P(0 < Y < 0.5) = \int_0^{0.5} 4y^3 dy = y^4 \big|_0^{0.5} = 0.0625$$

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

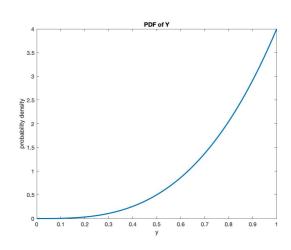
Of course, we sometimes have r.v.'s whose possible values can't be listed because they are **continuous**. In this case, we use a smooth curve called a **probability density function (pdf)** to assign a distribution to the r.v. To be a valid pdf, f(x) must be non-negative and integrate to 1. The **area under the pdf is what represents probability**. Our cdf is still defined as $P(X \le k)$, but this is now the integral of the pdf $f_x(x)$.

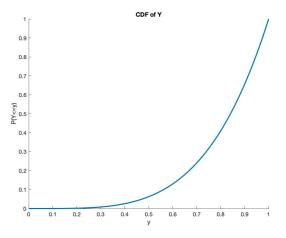
Example: calculating probability using a pdf

Suppose
$$f(y) = 4y^3$$
 for $0 < y < 1$. Find $P(0 < Y < 0.5)$.

$$P(0 < Y < 0.5) = \int_0^{0.5} 4y^3 dy = y^4 \big|_0^{0.5} = 0.0625$$

Note: the y axis of a continuous pdf no longer represents probability as in the discrete case, but rather a probability density. Additionally, the probability for a single x value occurring is always 0 and instead we typically look at a range of x values and integrate to find probability.





28

CONTINUOUS PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: EXAMPLES

Exponential Distribution

The distribution for the time between events that occur continuously and independently at a constant average rate

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\beta}$$
 (this is a specific case of the gamma

distribution). Example: time spent waiting at a restaurant before being served.

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} = \frac{1}{\beta} e^{\frac{-x}{\beta}}$$

The exponential distribution is memoryless, meaning that the past has no bearing on its future behavior.

CONTINUOUS PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS: EXAMPLES

Exponential Distribution

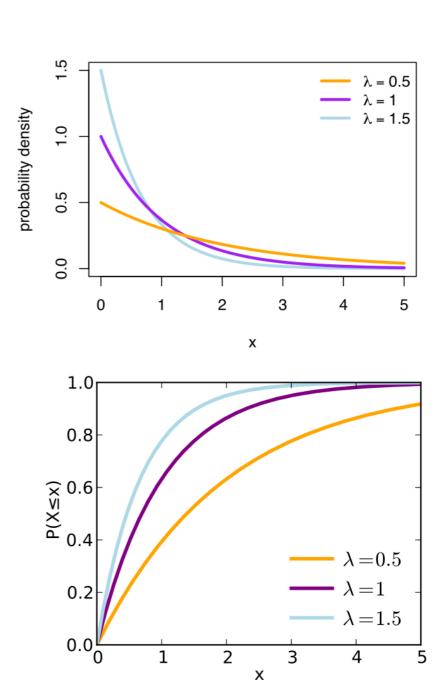
The distribution for the time between events that occur continuously and independently at a constant average rate

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\beta}$$
 (this is a specific case of the gamma

distribution). Example: time spent waiting at a restaurant before being served.

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} = \frac{1}{\beta} e^{\frac{-x}{\beta}}$$

The exponential distribution is memoryless, meaning that the past has no bearing on its future behavior.



The expected value of a r.v. X is a weighted average of all the possible values of X.

Discrete r.v.: E(X) is a sum

Continuous r.v.: E(X) is an integral

Linearity of expectation: If Y = aX + b, then E(Y) = E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

The expected value of a r.v. X is a weighted average of all the possible values of X.

Discrete r.v.: E(X) is a sum

Continuous r.v.: E(X) is an integral

Linearity of expectation: If Y = aX + b, then E(Y) = E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b

Example 1: Suppose you roll a die, and are paid \$1 for odd rolls and \$2 for even rolls. What is the expected value for one roll?

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

The expected value of a r.v. X is a weighted average of all the possible values of X.

Discrete r.v.: E(X) is a sum

Continuous r.v.: E(X) is an integral

Linearity of expectation: If Y = aX + b, then E(Y) = E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b

Example 1: Suppose you roll a die, and are paid \$1 for odd rolls and \$2 for even rolls. What is the expected value for one roll?

| Х | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| P(X=x) | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 |
| Amount (\$) | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |

$$E(X) = 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) = \frac{9}{6} = 1.5$$

The expected value of a r.v. X is a weighted average of all the possible values of X.

Discrete r.v.: E(X) is a sum

Continuous r.v.: E(X) is an integral

Linearity of expectation: If Y = aX + b, then E(Y) = E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b

Example 1: Suppose you roll a die, and are paid \$1 for odd rolls and \$2 for even rolls. What is the expected value for one roll?

| Х | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| P(X=x) | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 |
| Amount (\$) | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |

$$E(X) = 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) = \frac{9}{6} = 1.5$$

Example 2: St. Petersburg Paradox A fair coin is flipped until the 1st tail appears, and you win $\$2^k$ if it appears on the k^{th} toss. If X = your winnings, how much should you pay in order for this to be a fair game?

The expected value of a r.v. X is a weighted average of all the possible values of X.

Discrete r.v.: E(X) is a sum

Continuous r.v.: E(X) is an integral

Linearity of expectation: If Y = aX + b, then E(Y) = E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b

Example 1: Suppose you roll a die, and are paid \$1 for odd rolls and \$2 for even rolls. What is the expected value for one roll?

| Х | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| P(X=x) | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 | 1/6 |
| Amount (\$) | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |

$$E(X) = 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) = \frac{9}{6} = 1.5$$

Example 2: St. Petersburg Paradox A fair coin is flipped until the 1st tail appears, and you win $\$2^k$ if it appears on the k^{th} toss. If X = your winnings, how much should you pay in order for this to be a fair game?

$$E(X) = \sum kP(x = k) = 2(\frac{1}{2}) + 4(\frac{1}{4}) + \dots = \infty$$

This leads to an ill-advised gambling strategy where you are guaranteed to make \$1 (or an arbitrarily large amount of money)

VARIANCE AND STANDARD DEVIATION

For any r.v., we want to summarize its central tendency but also its spread. The variance of a r.v. X is given by finding the **average squared deviation** of X from its mean, E(X).

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2]$$
 or equivalently $Var(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

For any r.v., we want to summarize its central tendency but also its spread. The variance of a r.v. X is given by finding the **average squared deviation** of X from its mean, E(X).

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2]$$
 or equivalently $Var(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$

Since variance averages **squared deviations**, its units are the square of the units of the original r.v. So we define **standard deviation**:

$$sd(X) = sqrt(Var(X))$$

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

For any r.v., we want to summarize its central tendency but also its spread. The variance of a r.v. X is given by finding the **average squared deviation** of X from its mean, E(X).

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2]$$
 or equivalently $Var(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$

Since variance averages **squared deviations**, its units are the square of the units of the original r.v. So we define **standard deviation**:

$$sd(X) = sqrt(Var(X))$$

Example: Let X = the number of bases a baseball player earns per at-bat. Given the probability function below, find the expected value, variance, and standard deviation of X.

| k | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| P(X=k) | 0.65 | 0.25 | 0.06 | 0.01 | 0.03 |

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

For any r.v., we want to summarize its central tendency but also its spread. The variance of a r.v. X is given by finding the **average squared deviation** of X from its mean, E(X).

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2]$$
 or equivalently $Var(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$

Since variance averages **squared deviations**, its units are the square of the units of the original r.v. So we define **standard deviation**:

$$sd(X) = sqrt(Var(X))$$

Example: Let X = the number of bases a baseball player earns per at-bat. Given the probability function below, find the expected value, variance, and standard deviation of X.

| k | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| P(X=k) | 0.65 | 0.25 | 0.06 | 0.01 | 0.03 |

$$E(X) = 0(0.65) + 1(0.25) + 2(0.06) + 3(0.01) + 4(0.03) = 0.52$$

$$E(X^2) = \sum_{k=0}^{4} k^2 P(X = k) = 1.06$$

For any r.v., we want to summarize its central tendency but also its spread. The variance of a r.v. X is given by finding the **average squared deviation** of X from its mean, E(X).

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2]$$
 or equivalently $Var(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$

Since variance averages **squared deviations**, its units are the square of the units of the original r.v. So we define **standard deviation**:

$$sd(X) = sqrt(Var(X))$$

Example: Let X = the number of bases a baseball player earns per at-bat. Given the probability function below, find the expected value, variance, and standard deviation of X.

| k | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| P(X=k) | 0.65 | 0.25 | 0.06 | 0.01 | 0.03 |

$$E(X) = 0(0.65) + 1(0.25) + 2(0.06) + 3(0.01) + 4(0.03) = 0.52$$

$$E(X^2) = \sum_{k=0}^{4} k^2 P(X = k) = 1.06$$

$$Var(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = 1.06 - 0.52^2 = 0.7896$$

$$sd(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)} = 0.8886$$

If X is a r.v., then we can define $E(X^n)$ as the n^{th} moment of X. Each moment gives us some insight into the characteristics of the distribution.

In the discrete case,
$$E(X^n) = \sum_i x_i^n p(x)$$
 or centered $\sum_i (x_i - \mu)^n p(x_i)$
In the continuous case, $E(X^n) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$ or centered $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^n f(x) dx$

If X is a r.v., then we can define $E(X^n)$ as the n^{th} moment of X. Each moment gives us some insight into the characteristics of the distribution.

In the discrete case,
$$E(X^n) = \sum_i x_i^n p(x)$$
 or centered $\sum_i (x_i - \mu)^n p(x_i)$
In the continuous case, $E(X^n) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$ or centered $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^n f(x) dx$

First moment: mean

Central tendency, ie the sum of the products and their probabilities (their average)

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

If X is a r.v., then we can define $E(X^n)$ as the n^{th} moment of X. Each moment gives us some insight into the characteristics of the distribution.

In the discrete case,
$$E(X^n) = \sum_i x_i^n p(x)$$
 or centered $\sum_i (x_i - \mu)^n p(x_i)$
In the continuous case, $E(X^n) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$ or centered $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^n f(x) dx$

First moment: mean

Second moment: variance

43

Central tendency, ie the sum of the products and their probabilities (their average)

Spread of the observations from their average value, ie the squared deviation of the r.v. from the mean

If X is a r.v., then we can define $E(X^n)$ as the n^{th} moment of X. Each moment gives us some insight into the characteristics of the distribution.

In the discrete case,
$$E(X^n) = \sum_i x_i^n p(x)$$
 or centered $\sum_i (x_i - \mu)^n p(x_i)$
In the continuous case, $E(X^n) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$ or centered $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^n f(x) dx$

First moment: mean

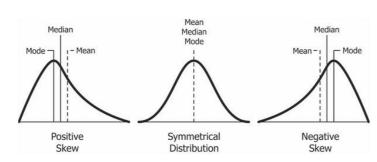
Second moment: variance

Central tendency, ie the sum of the products and their probabilities (their average)

Spread of the observations from their average value, ie the squared deviation of the r.v. from the mean

Third moment: skewness

Symmetry of the distribution around the mean



If X is a r.v., then we can define $E(X^n)$ as the n^{th} moment of X. Each moment gives us some insight into the characteristics of the distribution.

In the discrete case,
$$E(X^n) = \sum_i x_i^n p(x)$$
 or centered $\sum_i (x_i - \mu)^n p(x_i)$
In the continuous case, $E(X^n) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$ or centered $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^n f(x) dx$

First moment: mean

Second moment: variance

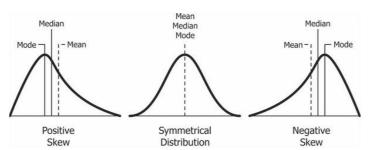
Central tendency, ie the sum of the products and their probabilities (their average)

Spread of the observations from their average value, ie the squared deviation of the r.v. from the mean

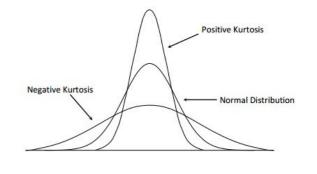
Third moment: skewness

Fourth moment: kurtosis

Symmetry of the distribution around the mean



How heavy the tails of the distribution are



CODE BREAK 2

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

Covariance measures the **joint variability of two r.v.'s.** If both X and Y tend to be "big" at the same time, then Cov(X,Y)>0. If one tends to be "big" when the other is "small", then Cov(X,Y)<0.

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$Cov(X, X) = Var(X)$$

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

Covariance measures the **joint variability of two r.v.'s**. If both X and Y tend to be "big" at the same time, then Cov(X,Y)>0. If one tends to be "big" when the other is "small", then Cov(X,Y)<0.

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$Cov(X, X) = Var(X)$$

Correlation measures the linear relation between two r.v.'s, and is just the covariance of the variables divided by the product of their standard deviations.

48

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$
$$-1 \le Corr(X, Y) \le 1$$

Covariance measures the **joint variability of two r.v.'s**. If both X and Y tend to be "big" at the same time, then Cov(X,Y)>0. If one tends to be "big" when the other is "small", then Cov(X,Y)<0.

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$Cov(X, X) = Var(X)$$

Example: Suppose X and Y are discrete r.v.'s with the joint probability function below. Find Corr(X, Y).

| (x,y) | (1,2) | (1,3) | (2,1) | (2,4) |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| P(X=x, Y=y) | 0.5 | 0.25 | 0.125 | 0.125 |

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$
$$-1 \le Corr(X, Y) \le 1$$

Covariance measures the **joint variability of two r.v.'s**. If both X and Y tend to be "big" at the same time, then Cov(X,Y)>0. If one tends to be "big" when the other is "small", then Cov(X,Y)<0.

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

 $Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$
 $Cov(X, X) = Var(X)$

Example: Suppose X and Y are discrete r.v.'s with the joint probability function below. Find Corr(X, Y).

| (x,y) | (1,2) | (1,3) | (2,1) | (2,4) |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| P(X=x, Y=y) | 0.5 | 0.25 | 0.125 | 0.125 |

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$
$$-1 \le Corr(X, Y) \le 1$$

$$E(X) = 1(0.75) + 2(0.25) = 1.25$$

$$E(Y) = 2(0.5) + 3(0.25) + 1(0.125) + 4(0.125) = 2.375$$

$$E(XY) = 2(0.625) + 3(0.25) + 8(0.125) = 3$$

Covariance measures the **joint variability of two r.v.'s**. If both X and Y tend to be "big" at the same time, then Cov(X,Y)>0. If one tends to be "big" when the other is "small", then Cov(X,Y)<0.

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$Cov(X, X) = Var(X)$$

Example: Suppose X and Y are discrete r.v.'s with the joint probability function below. Find Corr(X, Y).

| (x,y) | (1,2) | (1,3) | (2,1) | (2,4) |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| P(X=x, Y=y) | 0.5 | 0.25 | 0.125 | 0.125 |

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$
$$-1 \le Corr(X, Y) \le 1$$

$$E(X) = 1(0.75) + 2(0.25) = 1.25$$

$$E(Y) = 2(0.5) + 3(0.25) + 1(0.125) + 4(0.125) = 2.375$$

$$E(XY) = 2(0.625) + 3(0.25) + 8(0.125) = 3$$

$$E(X^{2}) = 1.75, Var(X) = 0.1875$$

$$E(Y^{2}) = 6.375, Var(Y) = 0.1734$$

Covariance measures the **joint variability of two r.v.'s**. If both X and Y tend to be "big" at the same time, then Cov(X,Y)>0. If one tends to be "big" when the other is "small", then Cov(X,Y)<0.

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$Cov(X, X) = Var(X)$$

Example: Suppose X and Y are discrete r.v.'s with the joint probability function below. Find Corr(X, Y).

| (x,y) | (1,2) | (1,3) | (2,1) | (2,4) |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| P(X=x, Y=y) | 0.5 | 0.25 | 0.125 | 0.125 |

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$
$$-1 \le Corr(X, Y) \le 1$$

$$E(X) = 1(0.75) + 2(0.25) = 1.25$$

$$E(Y) = 2(0.5) + 3(0.25) + 1(0.125) + 4(0.125) = 2.375$$

$$E(XY) = 2(0.625) + 3(0.25) + 8(0.125) = 3$$

$$E(X^2) = 1.75, Var(X) = 0.1875$$

$$E(Y^2) = 6.375, Var(Y) = 0.1734$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) = 0.03125$$

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}} = 0.0842$$

THE COVARIANCE MATRIX

The covariance matrix is a matrix whose element in the i, j position represents the covariance between the i^{th} and j^{th} elements of a random vector (a r.v. with multiple dimensions). This generalizes the notion of covariance to multiple dimensions. For example, the variation of a collection of two-dimensional points cannot be fully characterized by a single number or just the variances in the x and y directions: a 2x2 matrix is needed.

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

THE COVARIANCE MATRIX

The covariance matrix is a matrix whose element in the i, j position represents the covariance between the i^{th} and j^{th} elements of a random vector (a r.v. with multiple dimensions). This generalizes the notion of covariance to multiple dimensions. For example, the variation of a collection of two-dimensional points cannot be fully characterized by a single number or just the variances in the x and y directions: a 2x2 matrix is needed.

Assume we have a matrix $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)^T$ where each entry X_i is the entire distribution of a random variable.

We each entry of the covariance matrix, K_{xx} , as:

$$K_{X_i X_j} = Cov(X_i, X_j) = E[(X_i - E(X_i))(X_j - E(X_j))]$$

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

THE COVARIANCE MATRIX

The covariance matrix is a matrix whose element in the i, j position represents the covariance between the i^{th} and j^{th} elements of a random vector (a r.v. with multiple dimensions). This generalizes the notion of covariance to multiple dimensions. For example, the variation of a collection of two-dimensional points cannot be fully characterized by a single number or just the variances in the x and y directions: a 2x2 matrix is needed.

Assume we have a matrix $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)^T$ where each entry X_i is the entire distribution of a random variable.

We each entry of the covariance matrix, K_{xx} , as:

$$K_{X_i X_j} = Cov(X_i, X_j) = E[(X_i - E(X_i))(X_j - E(X_j))]$$

So the full matrix for n r.v.'s is equal to the matrix equation $E(XX^T) - \mu_x \mu_x^T$:

$$\mathbf{K_{XX}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}[(X_1 - \mathbf{E}[X_1])(X_1 - \mathbf{E}[X_1])] & \mathbf{E}[(X_1 - \mathbf{E}[X_1])(X_2 - \mathbf{E}[X_2])] & \cdots & \mathbf{E}[(X_1 - \mathbf{E}[X_1])(X_n - \mathbf{E}[X_n])] \\ \mathbf{E}[(X_2 - \mathbf{E}[X_2])(X_1 - \mathbf{E}[X_1])] & \mathbf{E}[(X_2 - \mathbf{E}[X_2])(X_2 - \mathbf{E}[X_2])] & \cdots & \mathbf{E}[(X_2 - \mathbf{E}[X_2])(X_n - \mathbf{E}[X_n])] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{E}[(X_n - \mathbf{E}[X_n])(X_1 - \mathbf{E}[X_1])] & \mathbf{E}[(X_n - \mathbf{E}[X_n])(X_2 - \mathbf{E}[X_2])] & \cdots & \mathbf{E}[(X_n - \mathbf{E}[X_n])(X_n - \mathbf{E}[X_n])] \end{bmatrix}$$

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability

CODE BREAK 3

November 1st, 2019 Math Tools Lab: Probability