

## Covariance and Independence:

Recall that joint random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if  $f(x, y) = g(x) \cdot h(y)$ ; i.e. their joint distribution is the product of the marginal distributions.

The following theorem is a consequence of this.

**Theorem 4.2.13** *If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then*

$$E(XY) = E(X) \cdot E(Y)$$

*and  $\sigma_{XY} = 0$ .*

This theorem is only a one-way implication as seen in the next example.

**Example 4.2.14** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be discrete random variables with joint distribution given by,

		$x$		
		$-1$	$0$	$1$
$y$	$-1$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$
	$0$	$0$	$0$	$0$
	$1$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$0$	$\frac{1}{6}$

Find  $\text{cov}(X, Y)$ . Determine whether  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

To find  $\text{cov}(X, Y)$  first we need the marginal distributions,  $g(x)$  and  $h(y)$ .

Then we can find  $\mu_X$  and  $\mu_Y$ :

$$\mu_X = \sum_x x \cdot g(x) = (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{3} + (0) \cdot \frac{1}{3} + (1) \cdot \frac{1}{3} = 0$$

$$\mu_Y =$$

		$x$			
		-1	0	1	
$y$	-1	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
	0	0	0	0	0
	1	$\frac{1}{6}$	0	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
		$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	

Next we need  $E(XY) = \sum_x \sum_y xy \cdot f(x, y)$ :

$$= ((-1) \cdot (-1)) \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \dots$$

So,  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = E(XY) - \mu_X \mu_Y = 0 - (0)(-\frac{1}{3}) = 0$ .

**However, the random variables are not independent**, as can be seen by the example that  $f(-1, -1) = \frac{1}{6} \neq g(-1) \cdot h(-1) = \frac{2}{9}$ .

		$x$			
		0	1	2	
$y$	0	$\frac{6}{36}$	$\frac{12}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{21}{36}$
	1	$\frac{8}{36}$	$\frac{6}{36}$		$\frac{14}{36}$
	2	$\frac{1}{36}$			$\frac{1}{36}$
		$\frac{15}{36}$	$\frac{18}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	

Are the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  of the caplet example independent?

No. We found that  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = -\frac{7}{54} \neq 0$ .

Therefore they are not independent.

**Example 4.2.15** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be jointly continuous random variables with joint density*

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2x^2y}{41} & \text{for } 1 < x < 2, 1 < y < 3 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find the covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$  and determine whether they are independent.

## Conditional Expectations:

Earlier we defined conditional probability  $f(x|y)$ , for joint random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , we can also talk about conditional expectation.

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  have probability distribution/density  $f(x, y)$ , and let  $u(X)$  be some function of  $X$ . The **conditional expected value of  $u(X)$  given  $Y = y$**  is

$$\text{discrete case: } E(X|y) = \sum_x u(x) \cdot f(x|y)$$

$$\text{continuous case: } E(X|y) = \int_x u(x) \cdot f(x|y) dx$$

$E(X|y)$  is called the **conditional mean of  $X$  given  $Y = y$** .

		$x$																							
		$0$	$1$	$2$																					
<b>Example 4.2.16</b>	$y$	<table> <tr> <td><math>0</math></td> <td><math>\frac{6}{36}</math></td> <td><math>\frac{12}{36}</math></td> <td><math>\frac{3}{36}</math></td> <td><math>\frac{21}{36}</math></td> </tr> <tr> <td><math>1</math></td> <td><math>\frac{8}{36}</math></td> <td><math>\frac{6}{36}</math></td> <td></td> <td><math>\frac{14}{36}</math></td> </tr> <tr> <td><math>2</math></td> <td><math>\frac{1}{36}</math></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td><math>\frac{1}{36}</math></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td><math>\frac{15}{36}</math></td> <td><math>\frac{18}{36}</math></td> <td><math>\frac{3}{36}</math></td> <td></td> </tr> </table>			$0$	$\frac{6}{36}$	$\frac{12}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{21}{36}$	$1$	$\frac{8}{36}$	$\frac{6}{36}$		$\frac{14}{36}$	$2$	$\frac{1}{36}$			$\frac{1}{36}$		$\frac{15}{36}$	$\frac{18}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$		
	$0$	$\frac{6}{36}$	$\frac{12}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{21}{36}$																				
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	$2$	$\frac{1}{36}$			$\frac{1}{36}$																				
	$\frac{15}{36}$	$\frac{18}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$																						

Find the expected value (conditional mean) of  $X$  given that  $Y = 1$ .

By definition,

$$E(X|1) = \sum_x x f(x|1).$$

Recall that  $f(x|y) = \frac{f(x,y)}{h(y)}$ , and so

$$f(0|1) = \frac{8}{14}, \quad f(1|1) = \frac{6}{14}, \quad f(2|1) = 0.$$

Therefore we have

$$E(X|1) = 0 \cdot \frac{8}{14} + 1 \cdot \frac{6}{14} + 2 \cdot 0 = \frac{6}{14} \approx 0.4286.$$

## Chapter 5

# Special Probability Distributions

This chapter presents some commonly used probability distributions for discrete random variables. Having a pre-determined probability distribution to model a chance experiment prevents from having to re-derive its properties each time (e.g. mean and variance).

The models presented depend on **parameters**; input values which tailor the probability distribution to the particular example.

In some cases the values of the distribution for a range of parameters are recorded in a table which can be used to evaluate probabilities, rather than computing the sums directly, (or integrating in the case of continuous random variables).

This is not only a convenience, in some cases it may be impractical to compute such values on the spot, or impossible if, for example, no exact expression exists for an integral.



## 5.1 Discrete Uniform Distribution

Suppose a random variable  $X$  has a finite range of  $k$  values,  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}$ . Then  $X$  has **discrete uniform distribution** if

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{k}$$

for  $x \in \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}$ . In other words each outcome is equally likely.

Our only parameter in this case is  $k$ . For the discrete uniform distribution:

$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i f(x_i) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i}{k}.$$

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (x_i - \mu)^2 f(x_i) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k (x_i - \mu)^2}{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i^2}{k} - \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i}{k} \right)^2$$

## 5.2 The Bernoulli Distribution

Consider an experiment with two possible outcomes, either success or failure. (For example, a single coin toss.)

Assign random variable  $X$  the value 1 for success and 0 for failure.

If the probability of success is  $\theta$ , then the probability of a failure is  $1 - \theta$ .

In this case  $X$  is called a **Bernoulli random variable** and has **Bernoulli distribution** given by

$$f(x; \theta) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x} \quad \text{for } x = 0, 1.$$

**Exercise:** Show that the Bernoulli distribution has

$$\mu = \theta, \quad \sigma^2 = \theta(1 - \theta).$$

## 5.3 Binomial Distribution

Now consider an experiment with repeated trials, in which the outcome of each trial is either a success or failure.

Random variable  $X$  will denote the number of successes, the probability of success is known to be  $\theta$ , and  $n$  is the given number of trials in the experiment.

Then  $X$  has **binomial distribution** which is given by

$$b(x; n, \theta) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n-x} \quad \text{for } x = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Random variable  $X$  is called a **binomial random variable** if and only if it has this distribution.

The Bernoulli distribution is the special case of the binomial distribution when  $n = 1$ ; a single trial experiment.

**Example 5.3.1** *Some examples of binomial random variables:*

- *Number of heads in 35 flips of a coin with 0.63 probability of heads and 0.37 probability of tails.*

$$P(17 \text{ heads}) = b(17; 35, 0.63)$$

- *There is a %6.6 chance that a person has O- blood type. In a selection of 20 people what is the probability that 5 of them will have O- blood.*

$$P(5 \text{ people have O-}) = b(5; 20, 0.066)$$

Values for  $b(x; n, \theta)$  can be found in tables (see the textbook for example). These tables are usually computed for  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 20$  and  $\theta = 0.5, 0.10, 0.15, \dots, 0.50$ .

To evaluate  $b(x; n, \theta)$  from these tables for when  $\theta > 0.50$  we can use the following property:

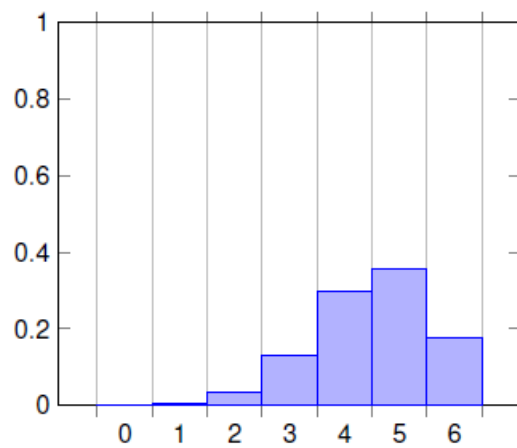
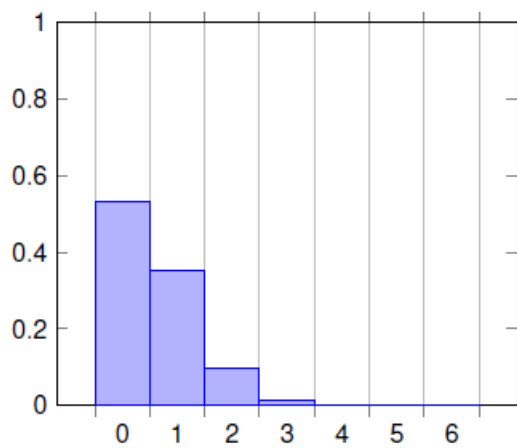
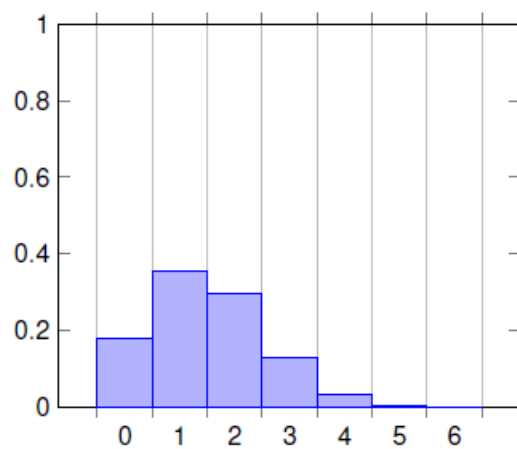
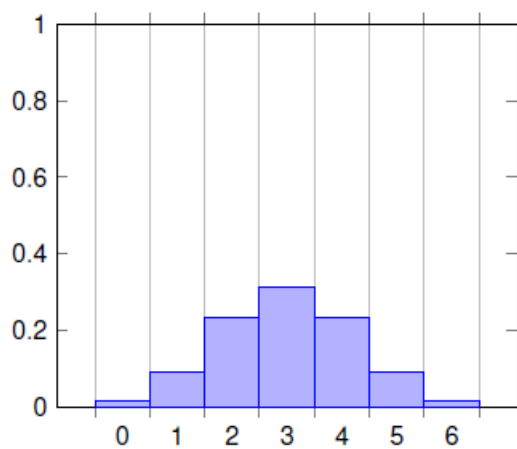
**Theorem 5.3.2**

$$b(x; n, \theta) = b(n - x; n, 1 - \theta)$$

For example,

$$b(7; 11, 0.75) = b(4; 11, 0.25) = 0.1721$$

**Exercise:** Show that the theorem holds.



For each graph of  $b(x; n, \theta)$  we have  $n = 6$ . Determine which of these has  $\theta = 0.1, 0.25, 0.5$ , and  $0.75$

## Moments of the Binomial Distribution:

**Theorem 5.3.3** *Moment generating function of the binomial distribution is*

$$M_X(t) = (1 + \theta(e^t - 1))^n.$$

### Proof 5.3.4

$$\begin{aligned} M_X(t) &= E(e^{tX}) \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^n (e^{tx}) \cdot \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n-x} \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} (e^t \theta)^x (1 - \theta)^{n-x} \\ &= (e^t \theta + (1 - \theta))^n \quad (\text{by the binomial theorem}) \\ &= (1 + \theta(e^t - 1))^n. \end{aligned}$$

From the moment generating function, we can find the mean.

Finding the **mean** from the moment generating function:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu &= \left. \frac{d}{dt} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0} \\&= \left. \frac{d}{dt} (1 + \theta(e^t - 1))^n \right|_{t=0} \\&= n(1 + \theta(e^t - 1))^{n-1} \cdot (\theta e^t) \Big|_{t=0} \\&= n(1 + \theta(e^0 - 1))^{n-1} \cdot (\theta e^0) \\&= n\theta.\end{aligned}$$