# **CS145: Probability & Computing** Lecture 4-5: Discrete Random Variables, Expected Values



# Instructors: Eli Upfal and Alessio Mazzetto

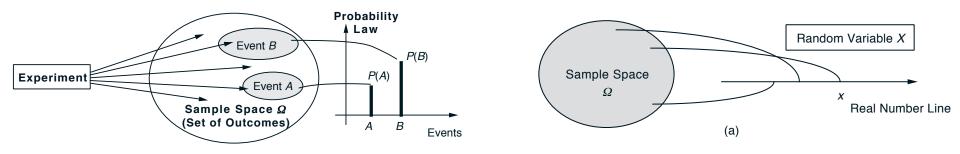
**Brown University Computer Science** 

Figure credits: Bertsekas & Tsitsiklis, **Introduction to Probability**, 2008 Pitman, **Probability**, 1999

### CS145: Lecture 5 Outline

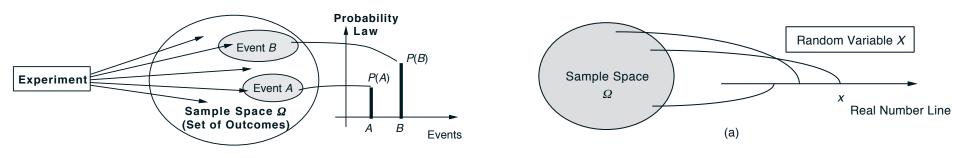
- Discrete random variables
- Expectations of discrete variables

> A random variable assigns values to outcomes of uncertain experiments  $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$   $x = X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $\omega \in \Omega$ 



- $\succ$  Mathematically: A function from sample space  $\Omega$  to real numbers  $\mathbb R$
- May define several random variables on the same sample space, if there are several quantities you would like to measure
- > Example:
  - Sample space: students at Brown.
  - Random variables: grade in CS 145, grade in CS 15, age,...

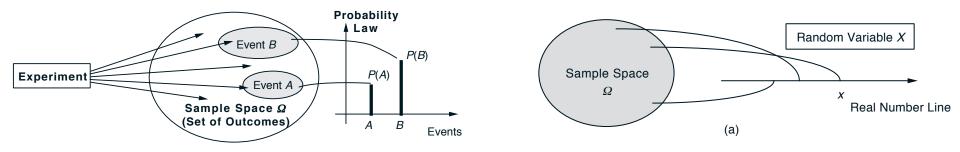
 $\begin{array}{ll} & \blacktriangleright \ \text{A random variable assigns values to outcomes of uncertain experiments} \\ & X:\Omega \to \mathbb{R} \qquad \qquad x = X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R} \ \text{ for } \omega \in \Omega \end{array}$ 



- Example random variables for a day in a casino:
- > Number of gamblers who visited
- Total money won (or probably, lost)
- Number of hands of poker played
- Total power consumed
- Number of gamblers caught cheating



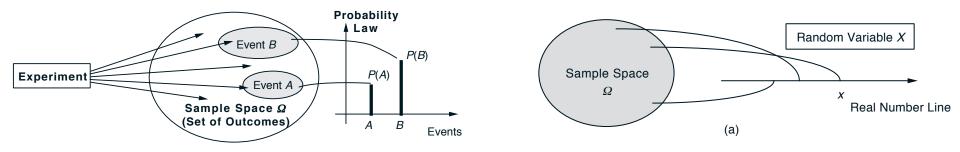
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> The range of a random variable is the set of values with positive probability  $\mathcal{X} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid X(\omega) = x \text{ for some } \omega \in \Omega, P(\omega) > 0 \}$ 

For a *discrete random variable*, the range is finite or countably infinite (we can map it to the integers). *Coming later: continuous random variables.* 

> A random variable assigns values to outcomes of uncertain experiments  $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$   $x = X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $\omega \in \Omega$ 



> The probability mass function (PMF) or probability distribution of variable:

 $\sum p_X(x) = 1.$ 

 $x \in \mathcal{X}$ 

 $p_X(x) \ge 0,$ 

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) = x\})$$

If range is finite, this is a vector of non-negative numbers that sums to one.

# Computing a PMF

• Notation:

$$p_X(x) = \mathbf{P}(X = x)$$
  
=  $\mathbf{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \text{ s.t. } X(\omega) =$ 

- collect all possible outcomes for which x}) X is equal to x
  - add their probabilities
  - repeat for all x

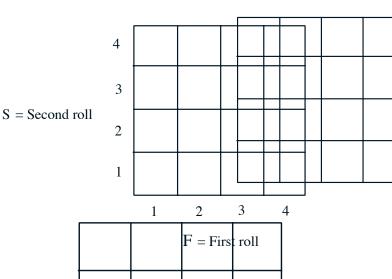
•  $p_X(x) \ge 0$   $\sum_x p_X(x) = 1$ 

• Example: Two independent rools of a fair tetrahedral die

F: outcome of first throw S: outcome of second throw  $X = \min(F, S)$ 







# Computing a PMF

Sample space =  $S = \{s_1, s_2, ..., s_m\}$ , a group of students at CIT. Distribution: P(s) = probability that I choose student s. Random variables:

- X = 1, 2, 3, 0 grade in CS 145 of the student I chose
- Y = 1, 2, 3, 0 grade in CS 155 of the student I chose
- Z = 1, 2, 3, 4 years in Brown of the student I chose

 $P(X = 2) = \sum_{s:X(s)=2} P(s)$  $P(2 \le Z \le 4) = \sum_{s:2 \le Z(s) \le 4} P(z)$ 



# **Geometric Probabilities**

Repeatedly flip a coin with probability of Heads p, count the number of tosses X until the first Head is observed:

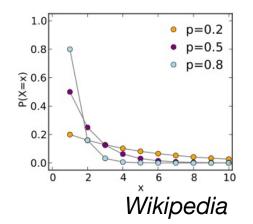
$$P(X = 1) = p, P(X = 2) = (1 - p)p, P(X = 3) = (1 - p)^2 p, \dots$$

$$P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$$
 for  $k = 1, 2, 3, ...$ 

The number of possible outcomes is *infinite*: there is no k after which the next toss is guaranteed to be Heads

#### Example:

Your laptop hard drive independently fails on each day with (hopefully small) probability p. What is the distribution of the number of days until failure?



# **Geometric Probabilities**

Repeatedly flip a coin with probability of Heads p, count the number of tosses X until the first Head is observed:

$$P(X = 1) = p, P(X = 2) = (1 - p)p, P(X = 3) = (1 - p)^2 p, \dots$$

 $\sim$ 

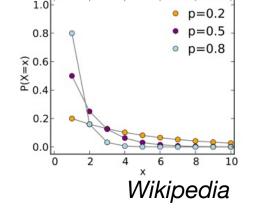
$$P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$$
 for  $k = 1, 2, 3, ...$ 

Recall the geometric series:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} q^k = \frac{1}{1-q}, 0 < q < 1.$$

> Verify that geometric probabilities are *normalized*:

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



# **Geometric Probabilities**

Repeatedly flip a coin with probability of Heads p, count the number of tosses X until the first Head is observed:

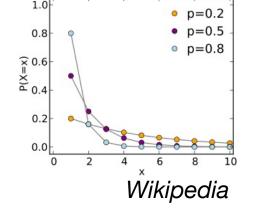
$$P(X = 1) = p, P(X = 2) = (1 - p)p, P(X = 3) = (1 - p)^2 p, \dots$$
$$P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} p \text{ for } k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

> What is the probability that the number of tosses X is odd?

$$P(X \text{ odd}) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1-p)^{2(k-1)} p = \frac{1}{2-p}$$

 $\succ$  For a fair coin, this equals

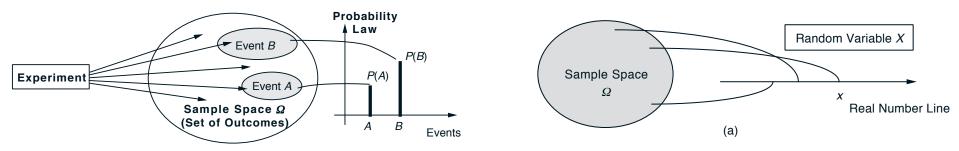
$$P(X \text{ odd}) = \frac{2}{3} \text{ if } p = \frac{1}{2}$$



#### Computing probabilities of sets of values:

 $p_X(x) \ge 0,$ 

$$P(X \in S) = \sum_{x \in S} p_X(x) \text{ for any } S \subset \mathbb{R}.$$



> The *probability mass function* or *probability distribution* of random variable:

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) = x\})$$

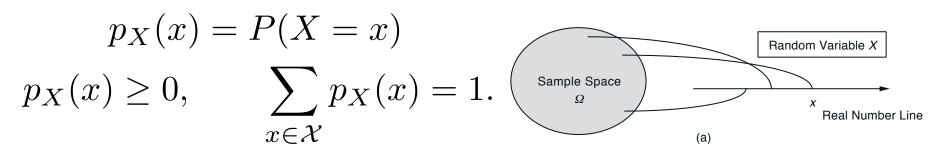
 $\sum p_X(x) = 1.$ 

 $x \in \mathcal{X}$ 

If range is finite, this is a vector of non-negative numbers that sums to one.

# Functions of Random Variables

> A random variable assigns values to outcomes of uncertain experiments  $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$   $x = X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $\omega \in \Omega$ 



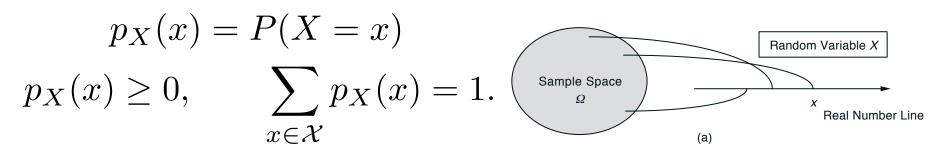
➢ If we take any non-random (deterministic) function of a random variable, we produce another random variable:  $Y = g(X) \qquad \begin{array}{c} g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \\ g \circ X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \end{array}$ 

- > Example: Degrees Celsius X to degrees Fahrenheit Y: Y = 1.8X + 32
- *Example:* Current drawn *X* to power consumed *Y*:

$$Y = rX^2$$

# Functions of Random Variables

> A random variable assigns values to outcomes of uncertain experiments  $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$   $x = X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $\omega \in \Omega$ 



➢ If we take any non-random (deterministic) function of a random variable, we produce another random variable:  $Y = g(X) \qquad \begin{array}{c} g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \\ g \circ X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \end{array}$ 

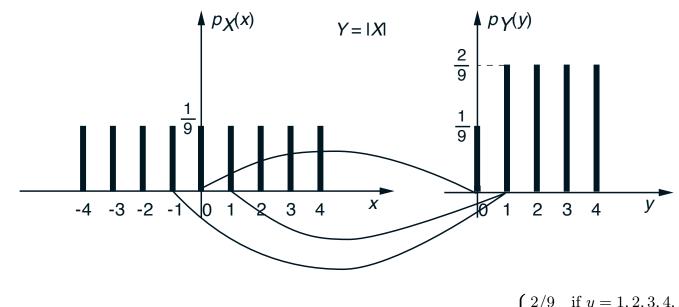
= 1.

By definition, the probability mass function of Y equals

$$p_Y(y) = \sum_{\{x \mid g(x) = y\}} p_X(x)$$
  $p_Y(y) \ge 0,$   $\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p_Y(y)$ 

#### Example: Absolute Value





 $p_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/9 & \text{if } x \text{ is an integer in the range } [-4,4], \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \qquad p_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 2/9 & \text{if } y = 1,2,3,4, \\ 1/9 & \text{if } y = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ 

### CS145: Lecture 5 Outline

- Discrete random variables
- Expectations of discrete variables

> The *expectation* or *expected value* of a discrete random variable is:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p_X(x)$$

- The expectation is a single number, not a random variable. It encodes the "center of mass" of the probability distribution:
- > The random variable has an expectation iff  $E[|X|] < \infty$
- > We may also use the terms mean, average, first moment
- Median is a different concept. It's the value M such that

 $P(X \le M) \ge 1/2$  and  $P(X \ge M) \ge 1/2$ 

# Bernoulli Probability Distribution

> A *Bernoulli* or *indicator* random variable X has one parameter *p*:

$$p_X(1) = p, \qquad p_X(0) = 1 - p, \qquad \mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$$

The expectation of an indicator random variable is its probability:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x \cdot P(X = x) = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot (1 - p) = p$$

Examples:

- Flip a possibly biased coin with probability of coming up heads p
- A user answers a true/false question in an online survey
- Does it snow or not on some day



Jakob Bernoulli

# Expectation – First Moment

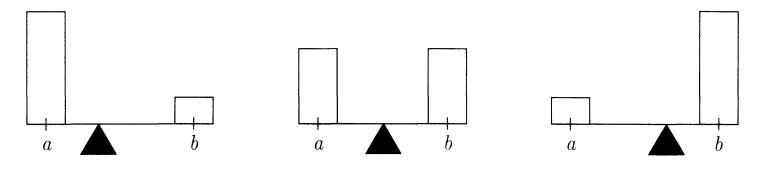
> The *expectation* or *expected value* of a discrete random variable is:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p_X(x)$$

The expectation is a single number, not a random variable. It encodes the "center of mass" of the probability distribution:

If X takes two possible values, say a and b, with probabilities P(a) and P(b), then

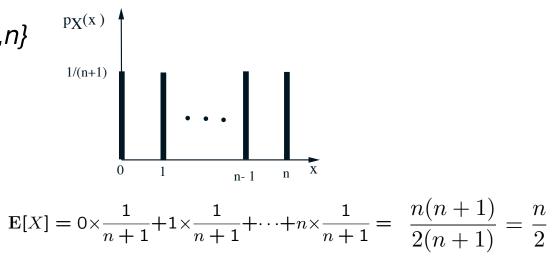
$$E(X) = aP(a) + bP(b) \qquad P(a) + P(b) = 1$$



> The *expectation* or *expected value* of a discrete random variable is:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p_X(x)$$

- The expectation is a number, not a random variable. It encodes the "center of mass" of the probability distribution
- Example: Uniform distribution on {0,1,...,n}



> The *expectation* or *expected value* of a discrete random variable is:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p_X(x)$$

> Example: Uniform distribution on  $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ ,  $P(X=i) = \frac{1}{n+1}$ ,  $E[X] = \frac{n}{2}$ 

 $\succ \text{ Example:} \quad P(X=i) = \begin{cases} \frac{i}{\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)} & \text{for } 0 \le i \le n\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ Proper distribution:  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} P(X=i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{i}{\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)} = 1$ 

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=0}^{n} i \frac{i}{\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)} = \frac{\frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)}{\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)} = \frac{2}{3}n + \frac{1}{3}$$

> The *expectation* or *expected value* of a discrete random variable is:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p_X(x)$$

$$x_{\min} \le E[x] \le x_{\max} \qquad x_{\min} = \min\{x \mid x \in \mathcal{X}\}$$
$$x_{\max} = \max\{x \mid x \in \mathcal{X}\}$$

> The expectation is an average or interpolation. It is possible that  $p_X(E[x]) = 0$  for some random variables X.

**Example:**  $p_X(1) = p$ ,  $p_X(0) = 1 - p$ ,  $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$  E[X] = p

# **Geometric Probability Distribution**

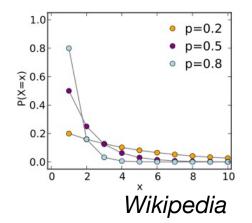
Recall the geometric series:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} q^k = \frac{1}{1-q}, 0 < q < 1.$$

A geometric random variable X has parameter p, countably infinite range:  $p_X(k) = (1-p)^{k-1}p$   $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$ 

#### Examples:

- Flip a coin with bias p, count number of tosses until first heads (success)
- Your laptop hard drive independently fails on each day with (hopefully small) probability p. What is the distribution of the number of days until failure?



### **Geometric Probability Distribution**

 $\succ$  A *geometric* random variable X has parameter *p*, countably infinite range:

$$p_X(k) = (1-p)^{k-1}p$$
  $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$ 

> The expected value equals:

$$E[X] = \sum_{k \ge 1} k(1-p)^{k-1}p = \sum_{k \ge 1} (1-p)^{k-1} = \frac{1}{p}$$

In general, for any non-negative random variable X:

$$E[X] = \sum_{k \ge 1} kP(X = k) = \sum_{k \ge 1} \sum_{j \ge k} P(X = j) = \sum_{k \ge 1} P(X \ge k)$$

# Expectation of Non-Negative R. V.

$$\begin{split} E[X] &= P(X=1) + 2P(X=2) + 3P(X=3) + 4P(X=4) + 5P(X=5) + \dots \\ &= P(X=1) + P(X=2) + P(X=3) + P(X=4) + P(X=5) + \dots \\ &+ P(X=2) + P(X=3) + P(X=4) + P(X=5) + \dots \\ &+ P(X=4) + P(X=5) + \dots \\ &+ P(X=5) + \dots \\ &+ P(X=5) + \dots \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 2) + P(X\geq 3) + P(X\geq 4) + P(X\geq 5) + \dots \\ &\sum = P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq 1) \\ &= P(X\geq 1) + P(X\geq$$

$$= \sum_{k \ge 1} P(X \ge k)$$

$$E[X] = \sum_{k \ge 1} kP(X = k) = \sum_{k \ge 1} \sum_{j \ge k} P(X = j) = \sum_{k \ge 1} P(X \ge k)$$

# **Expected Values of Functions**

 $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{V})$ 

Consider a non-random (deterministic) function of a random variable:

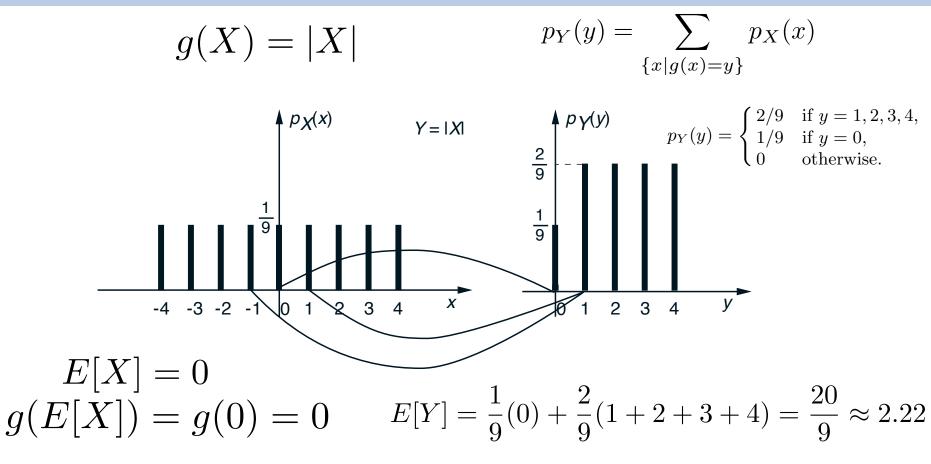
$$p_X(x) = P(X = x)$$
  $p_Y(x) = \sum_{\{x | g(x) = y\}} p_X(x)$ 

- > What is the expected value of random variable Y? E[Y] = E[g(X)]
- Correct approach #1:
- Correct approach #2:
- Incorrect approach:

$$E[Y] = \sum_{y} y p_{Y}(y)$$
$$E[Y] = E[g(X)] = \sum_{x} g(x) p_{X}(x)$$

 $g(E[X]) \neq E[g(X)] \quad \ \text{(except in special cases)}$ 

#### Example: Absolute Value



# Linearity of Expectation

- ➤ Consider a linear function: Y = g(X) = aX + b
- > Example: Change of units (temperature, length, mass, currency, ...)
- > In this special case, mean of Y is the linear function applied to E[X]:

$$E[Y] = g(E[X]) = aE[X] + b$$
$$\mathbf{E}[Y] = \sum_{x} (ax+b)p_X(x) = a\sum_{x} xp_X(x) + b\sum_{x} p_X(x) = a\mathbf{E}[X] + b.$$

*Example:* You went on vacation to Europe, and want to find the average amount you spent on lodging per day. The following are equivalent (assuming a fixed exchange rate from Euros to US dollars):

- $\succ$  *E*[*g*(*X*)] = convert each receipt from Euros to US dollars, average result
- $\succ$  g(E[X]) = average receipts in Euros, convert result to US dollars

# Linearity of Expectation

- ➤ Consider a linear function: Y = g(X) = aX + b
- > Example: Change of units (temperature, length, mass, currency, ...)
- > In this special case, mean of Y is the linear function applied to E[X]:

$$E[Y] = g(E[X]) = aE[X] + b$$

*Example:* I offer you to let you play a game where you pay a \$20 entrance fee, and then I let you roll a fair 6-sided die, and pay you the rolled value times \$5. What is your expected change in money?

Y = 5X - 20 (change in money Y for dice outcome X) E[X] = 3.5E[Y] = 5E[X] - 20 = -2.5

# Travel at a Random Speed

- You want to travel 200 miles to New York
- With 50% probability, the new high-speed train runs at a constant velocity of 200 mph
- With 50% probability, the train engine overheats and it runs at a constant velocity of 1 mph

• time in hours = 
$$T = t(V) = \frac{200}{V}$$

• 
$$\mathbf{E}[T] = \mathbf{E}[t(V)] = \sum_{v} t(v) p_V(v) =$$

- $\mathbf{E}[TV] = 200 \neq \mathbf{E}[T] \cdot \mathbf{E}[V]$
- $E[200/V] = E[T] \neq 200/E[V].$

$$p_{V}(v) = \frac{1/2}{1} = \frac{1/2}{200} v$$
$$E[V] = \frac{201}{2} = 100.5$$

$$E[T] = 1 * 1/2 + 200 * 1/2 = 100.5$$

# Expectation of Multiple Variables

- > The *expectation* or *expected value* of a function of two discrete variables:  $E[g(X,Y)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} g(x,y) p_{XY}(x,y)$
- > A similar formula applies to functions of 3 or more variables
- Expectations of sums of functions are sums of expectations:  $E[g(X) + h(Y)] = E[g(X)] + E[h(Y)] = \left[\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x)p_X(x)\right] + \left[\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h(y)p_Y(y)\right]$
- > This is always true, whether or not X and Y are independent
- > Specializing to *linear functions*, this implies that:

$$E[aX + bY + c] = aE[X] + bE[Y] + c$$

# Mean of Binomial Probability Distribution

- Suppose you flip *n* coins with bias *p*, count number of heads
- A binomial random variable X has parameters n, p:

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

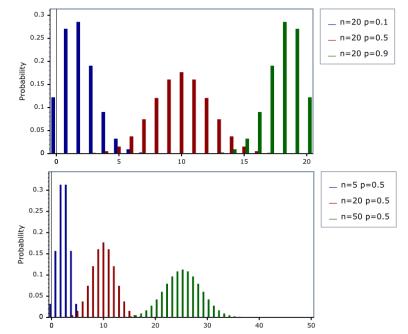
For binomial, expected values are expected counts of events:

$$E[X] = pn$$

Simple proof uses indicator variables  $X_i$  for whether each of n tosses is heads:

$$E[X_i] = p \cdot 1 + (1 - p) \cdot 0 = p = \Pr(X_i = 1).$$
$$E[X] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E[X_i] = np.$$

$$\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$



### Binomial Mean: The Hard Way

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[X] &= \sum_{j=0}^{n} j {n \choose j} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n} j \frac{n!}{j!(n-j)!} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{n!}{(j-1)!(n-j)!} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j} \\ &= np \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{(n-1)!}{(j-1)!((n-1)-(j-1))!} p^{j-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(j-1)} \\ &= np \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(n-1)!}{k!((n-1)-k)!} p^{k} (1-p)^{(n-1)-k} \\ &= np \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose k} p^{k} (1-p)^{(n-1)-k} = np. \end{split}$$