

DISCRETE RANDOM VARIABLES

CHAPTER-3

CS6015-LINEAR ALGEBRA AND RANDOM PROCESSES

Probability mass function

- A random variable X is *discrete* if it takes values only in some countable set $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$

- Its distribution function is represented as

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

- The **(probability) mass function** of a discrete random variable X is the function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$ given by $f(x) = P(X = x)$.

- The distribution and mass functions are related by

$$F(x) = \sum_{i: x_i \leq x} f(x_i)$$

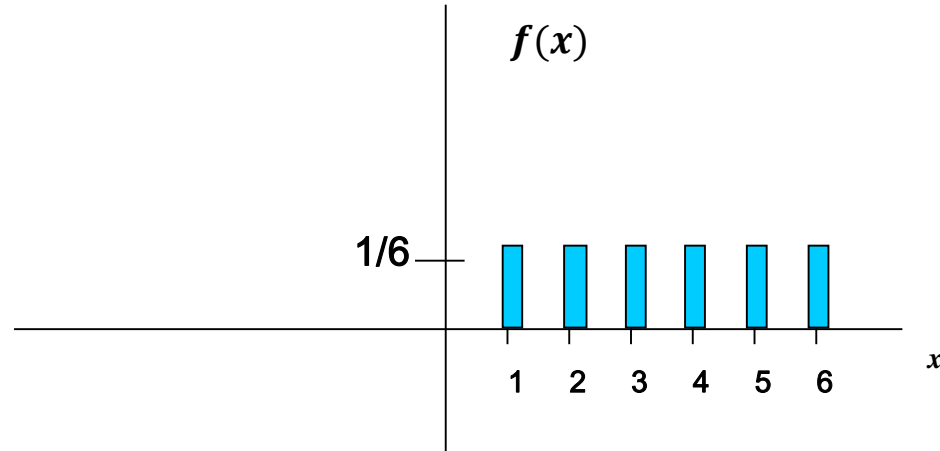
- The probability mass function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$ satisfies:

(a) the set of x such that $f(x) \neq 0$ is *countable*,

(b) $\sum_i f(x_i) = 1$ where x_1, x_2, \dots are the values of x such that

$$f(x) \neq 0.$$

Discrete example: roll of a die



$$\sum_{\text{all } x} f(x) = 1$$

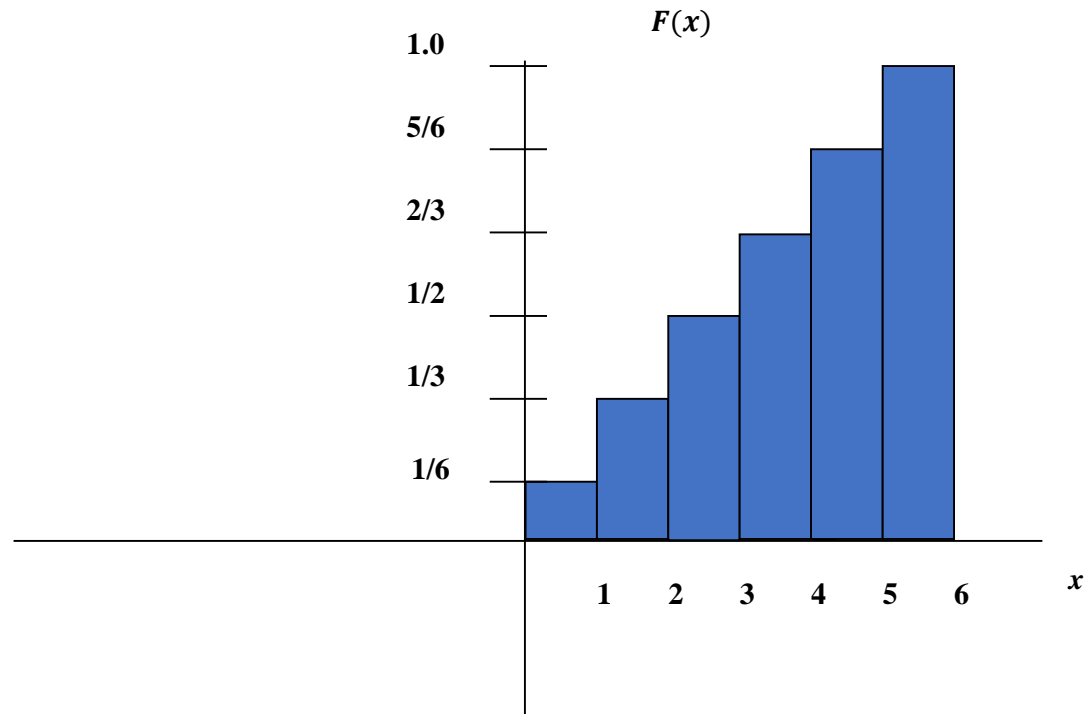
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Probability mass function (pmf)

x	$f(x)$
1	$P(X = 1) = 1/6$
2	$P(X = 2) = 1/6$
3	$P(X = 3) = 1/6$
4	$P(X = 4) = 1/6$
5	$P(X = 5) = 1/6$
6	$P(X = 6) = 1/6$

1.0

Cumulative distribution function (CDF)



Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

x	$P(X \leq x)$
1	$P(X \leq 1) = 1/6$
2	$P(X \leq 2) = 2/6$
3	$P(X \leq 3) = 3/6$
4	$P(X \leq 4) = 4/6$
5	$P(X \leq 5) = 5/6$
6	$P(X \leq 6) = 6/6$ $=1$

Examples

1. What's the probability that you roll a 3 or less?

$$P(x \leq 3) = 1/2$$

2. What's the probability that you roll a 5 or higher?

$$P(x \geq 5) = 1 - P(x \leq 4) = 1 - 2/3 = 1/3$$

Practice Problem

Which of the following are probability functions?

a. $f(x) = .25$ for $x = 9, 10, 11, 12$

b. $f(x) = \frac{3-x}{2}$ for $x = 1, 2, 3, 4$

c. $f(x) = \frac{x^2+x+1}{25}$ for $x = 0, 1, 2, 3$

Answer (a)

a. $f(x) = .25$ for $x = 9, 10, 11, 12$

x	$f(x)$
9	.25
10	.25
11	.25
12	<u>.25</u>

1.0

Yes, probability
function!

Answer (b)

b. $f(x) = \frac{3-x}{2}$ for $x = 1, 2, 3, 4$

x	$f(x)$
1	$(3-1)/2=1.0$
2	$(3-2)/2=.5$
3	$(3-3)/2=0$
4	$(3-4)/2=-.5$

Though this sums to 1, you can't have a negative probability; therefore, it's not a probability function.

Answer (c)

c. $f(x) = \frac{x^2+x+1}{25}$ for $x = 0,1,2,3$

x	f(x)
0	1/25
1	3/25
2	7/25
3	<u>13/25</u>

$24/25$

Doesn't sum to 1. Thus, it's not a probability function.

Practice Problem

- The number of ships to arrive at a harbor on any given day is a random variable represented by x . The probability distribution for x is:

x	10	11	12	13	14
$P(x)$.4	.2	.2	.1	.1

Find the probability that on a given day:

- exactly 14 ships arrive $P(x = 14) = .1$
- At least 12 ships arrive $P(x \geq 12) = (.2 + .1 + .1) = .4$
- At most 11 ships arrive $P(x \leq 11) = (.4 + .2) = .6$

Practice Problem

You are lecturing to a group of 1000 students. You ask each of them to randomly pick an integer between 1 and 10. Assuming, their picks are truly random:

- What's your best guess for how many students picked the number 9?

Since $P(x = 9) = 1/10$, we'd expect about $1/10^{\text{th}}$ of the 1000 students to pick 9.

Answer: 100 students.

- What percentage of the students would you expect, picked a number less than or equal to 6?

Since $P(x \leq 6) = \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} = .6$

Answer: 60%

Binomial Distribution

- A coin is tossed n times, and a head turns up each time with probability $p(= 1 - q)$.
- Then $\Omega = \{H, T\}^n$.
- The total number X of heads takes values in the set $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and is a discrete random variable.
- Its probability mass function $f(x) = P(X = x)$ satisfies $f(x) = 0$ if $x \notin \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

Binomial Distribution

- Let $0 \leq k \leq n$ and consider $f(k)$. Exactly $\binom{n}{k}$ points in Ω give a total of k heads; each of these points occurs with probability $p^k q^{n-k}$ and so

$$f(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} \text{ if } 0 \leq k \leq n$$

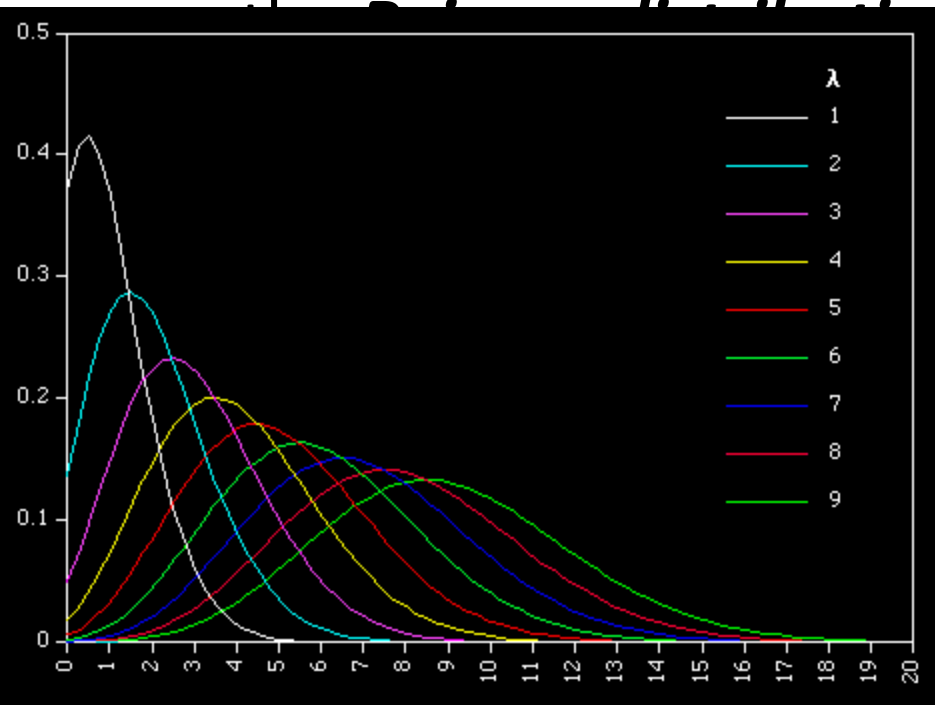
- The random variable X is said to have the *binomial distribution* with parameters n and p , written as: $\text{bin}(n, p)$. It is the sum $X = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n$ of n Bernoulli variables.

Poisson Distribution

- If a random variable X takes values in the set $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ with mass function

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

$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ where $\lambda > 0$, then X is said to have the Poisson distribution with parameter λ .



Joint probability mass function

- Remember that for a discrete R.V. X , we define the PMF as $f(x) = P_X(x) = P(X = x)$.
- Now if we have two R.V.s X and Y and we would like to study them jointly, then we define the joint probability mass function as follows:

$$P_{XY}(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

- $P_X(x)$ and $P_Y(y)$ are called marginal PMFs.

Joint Distribution Function

- The joint distribution function $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0,1]$ of X and Y , where X and Y are discrete variables is given by :

$$F(x, y) = P(X \leq x \text{ and } Y \leq y)$$

- The discrete random variables X and Y are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Independence

- Remember that events A and B are called '**independent**' if the occurrence of A does not change the subsequent probability of B occurring.
- More rigorously, A and B are independent if and only if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.
- Discrete variables X and Y are independent if the events $\{X = x\}$ and $\{Y = y\}$ are independent for all x and y .

Independence

- Suppose X takes values in the set $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ and Y takes values in the set $\{y_1, y_2, \dots\}$.
- Let $A_i = \{X = x_i\}$ and $B_j = \{Y = y_j\}$

The random variables X and Y are independent if and only if A_i and B_j are independent for all pairs i, j . A similar definition holds for collections $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ of discrete variables.

Example: Poisson Flips

- A coin is tossed once and heads turns up with probability $p = 1 - q$. Let X and Y be the numbers of heads and tails respectively. It is no surprise that X and Y are not independent. After all,

$$P(X = Y = 1) = 0 ; P(X = 1)P(Y = 1) = p(1 - p)$$

- Suppose now that the coin is tossed a random N number of times, where N has the Poisson distribution with parameter λ .
- It is a remarkable fact that the resulting numbers X and Y of heads and tails *are* independent, since

$$P(X = x, Y = y)$$

$$= P(X = x, Y = y | N = x + y) P(N = x + y)$$

$$= \binom{x + y}{x} p^x q^y \cdot \frac{\lambda^{x+y}}{(x+y)!} e^{-\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{(x+y)!}{x!y!} p^x q^y \frac{\lambda^{x+y}}{(x+y)!} e^{-\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{(\lambda p)^x (\lambda q)^y}{x!y!} e^{-\lambda}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\bullet P(X = x) &= \sum_{n \geq x}^{\infty} P(X = x | N = n) P(N = n) \\
&= \sum_{n \geq x} P(X = x | N = n) P(N = n) \\
&= \sum_{n \geq x} \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} \frac{\lambda^n e^{-\lambda}}{n!} \\
&= \sum_{n \geq x} \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \frac{(\lambda p)^x (\lambda q)^{n-x}}{n!} e^{-\lambda} \\
&= \frac{(\lambda p)^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!} \sum_{n \geq x} \frac{(\lambda q)^{n-x}}{(n-x)!} = \frac{(\lambda p)^x e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda q}}{x!} \\
&= \frac{(\lambda p)^x e^{-\lambda p}}{x!}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\bullet \text{ Similarly } P(Y = y) = \frac{(\lambda q)^y e^{-\lambda q}}{y!}$$

- $$\begin{aligned}
 P(X = x, Y = y) &= \frac{(\lambda p)^x (\lambda q)^y}{x! y!} e^{-\lambda} \\
 &= \frac{(\lambda p)^x e^{-\lambda p}}{x!} \frac{(\lambda q)^y e^{-\lambda q}}{y!} \\
 &= P(X = x) P(Y = y) = \frac{(\lambda p)^x (\lambda q)^y}{x! y!} e^{-\lambda}
 \end{aligned}$$

This shows that X and Y are independent.

- If X and Y are independent and $g, h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then $g(X)$ and $h(Y)$ are independent also.

- $\{X_i : i \in I\}$ is an independent family if and only if

$$P(X_i = x_i \text{ for all } i \in J) = \prod_{i \in J} P(X_i = x_i)$$

Example

- Consider two random variables X and Y with joint PMF as given in the table:

	Y=2	Y=4	Y=5
X=1	1/12	1/24	1/24
X=2	1/6	1/12	1/8
X=3	1/4	1/8	1/12

- Find $P(X \leq 2, Y \leq 4)$
- Find the marginal PMFs of X and Y
- Are X and Y independent?

a. To find $P(X \leq 2, Y \leq 4)$, we can write :

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \leq 2, Y \leq 4) &= P_{XY}(1,2) + P_{XY}(1,4) + P_{XY}(2,2) + P_{XY}(2,4) \\ &= \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{12} = \frac{3}{8} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{b. } P_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{6} & x = 1 \\ \frac{3}{8} & x = 2 \\ \frac{11}{24} & x = 3 \\ 0 & \text{o/w} \end{cases}$$

$$P_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & y = 2 \\ \frac{1}{4} & y = 4 \\ \frac{1}{4} & y = 5 \\ 0 & \text{o/w} \end{cases}$$

c. To check if X and Y are independent, we need to check if $P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)$.

Looking at the table and results from the previous parts, we get:

$$P(X = 2, Y = 2) = \frac{1}{6} \neq P(X = 2)P(Y = 2) = \frac{3}{16}$$

Thus **X and Y are not independent.**

Expectation

- The **mean value, or expectation, or expected value** of the random variable X with mass function f is defined to be:

$$E(X) = \sum_{x:f(x)>0} xf(x)$$

- Example: $x \rightarrow -2, -1, 1, 3$

$$f(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{4}, \quad \frac{1}{8}, \quad \frac{1}{4}, \quad \frac{3}{8}$$

$$E(X) = -2 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) + (-1) \left(\frac{1}{8} \right) + 1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) + 3 \left(\frac{3}{8} \right) = \frac{3}{4}$$

- The random variable $Y = X^2$ takes values 1,4,9 with probabilities $\frac{3}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{8}$ respectively
- So, $E(Y) = 1 \left(\frac{3}{8}\right) + 4 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 9 \left(\frac{3}{8}\right) = \frac{19}{4}$
- Alternatively, $E(X^2) = \sum_x x^2 P(X = x)$
 $= 4 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 1 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + 1 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 9 \left(\frac{3}{8}\right) = \frac{19}{4}$
- Lemma: If X has mass function f and $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then
$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x) f(x)$$

- If k is a positive integer, the k^{th} moment m_k of X is defined to be $\mathbf{m}_k = \mathbf{E}(X^k)$.
- The k^{th} central moment $\sigma_k = \mathbf{E}((X - m_1)^k)$
- The two moments of most use are $\mathbf{m}_1 = \mathbf{E}(X) = \boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_2 = \mathbf{E}\left((X - \mathbf{E}X)^2\right) = \mathbf{var}(X)$ called the **mean** (or expectation) and **variance** respectively.
- $\sigma = \sqrt{\mathbf{var}(X)}$ is called the **standard deviation**.

- $\sigma_2 = E((X - m_1)^2)$
 $= \sum_x (x - m_1)^2 f(x)$
 $= \sum_x x^2 f(x) - 2m_1 \sum_x x f(x) + m_1^2 \sum_x f(x)$
 $= m_2 - m_1^2$
- Thus $\mathbf{var}(X) = E((X - EX)^2) = E(X^2) - (EX)^2$

Indicator variable

- Expected value of an indicator variable is just the probability of that event. (Remember that a random variable I_A is the indicator random variable for event A , if $I_A = 1$ when A occurs and $I_A = 0$ otherwise.)
- i.e., $E(I_A) = P(A)$
- **Proof:**
$$E(I_A) = 1 \cdot P(I_A = 1) + 0 \cdot P(I_A = 0)$$
$$= P(I_A = 1) = P(A)$$

Bernoulli Variable

- Let X be a Bernoulli variable taking the value 1 with probability $p (= 1 - q)$.
- Then $E(X) = \sum_x x f(x) = 0 \cdot q + 1 \cdot p = p$
- $E(X^2) = \sum_x x^2 f(x) = 0 \cdot q + 1 \cdot p = p$
- So $\mathbf{var}(X) = E(X^2) - (EX)^2 = p - p^2$
 $= p(1 - p) = \mathbf{pq}$

Binomial Variable

- $EX = \sum_{k=0}^n k f(k)$
 $= \sum_{k=0}^n k \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$
 $= np \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-k)!(k-1)!} p^{k-1} q^{n-k}$
 $= np \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{l} p^l q^{n-1-l} = \mathbf{np}$

- Likewise, $\mathit{var}(X) = \mathbf{npq}$

Theorem

- The expectation operator E has the following properties :
 - a. If $X \geq 0$ then $E(X) \geq 0$
 - b. If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ then
$$E(aX + bY) = aE(X) + bE(Y)$$
 - c. The random variable 1 , taking the value 1 always, has expectation $E(1) = 1$

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ then $E(aX + bY) = aE(X) + bE(Y)$

• **Proof :**

Let $A_x = \{X = x\}$, $B_y = \{Y = y\}$. Then

$$aX + bY = \sum_{x,y} (aX + bY)I_{A_x \cap B_y}$$

$E(aX + bY) = \sum_{x,y} (aX + bY)P(A_x \cap B_y)$ Since $E(I_A) = P(A)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{However, } \sum_y P(A_x \cap B_y) &= P\left(A_x \cap \left(\bigcup_y B_y\right)\right) \\ &= P(A_x \cap \Omega) = P(A_x) \end{aligned}$$

Likewise, $\sum_x P(A_x \cap B_y) = P(B_y)$

- This gives

$$\begin{aligned} E(aX + bY) &= \sum_x ax \sum_y P(A_x \cap B_y) + \sum_y by \sum_x P(A_x \cap B_y) \\ &= a \sum_x xP(A_x) + b \sum_y yP(B_y) \\ &= aE(X) + bE(Y) \end{aligned}$$

Remark: It is not in general true that $E(XY)$ is the same as $E(X)E(Y)$.

Lemma

- If X and Y are independent then $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$.

Proof :

$$XY = \sum_{x,y} xy I_{A_x \cap B_y}$$

$$E(XY) = \sum_{x,y} xy P(A_x) P(B_y) \text{ by independence}$$

$$= \sum_x x P(A_x) \sum_y y P(B_y)$$

$$= E(X)E(Y)$$

- X and Y are called **uncorrelated** if $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$.
- Independent variables are uncorrelated. The converse is not true.

- **Theorem :**

a. $var(aX) = a^2 var(X)$ for $a \in \mathbb{R}$

b. $var(X + Y) = var(X) + var(Y)$ if X and Y are uncorrelated

Proof :

a. $var(aX) = E((aX - EaX)^2) = E(a^2(X - EX)^2)$
 $= a^2 E((X - EX)^2) = a^2 var(X)$

b. $var(X + Y) = E\{(X + Y - E(X + Y))^2\}$
 $= E[(X - EX)^2 + 2(XY - E(X)E(Y)) + (Y - EY)^2]$
 $= var(X) + 2(E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)) + var(Y)$
 $= var(X) + var(Y)$

{Since $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$ if X and Y are uncorrelated}

Covariance

- The covariance of X and Y is

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - EX)(Y - EY)]$$

- The correlation coefficient of X and Y is

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(X) \cdot \text{var}(Y)}}$$

As long as the variances are non-zero.

- $\text{cov}(X, X) = \text{var}(X)$
- $\text{cov}(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$
- X and Y are uncorrelated if $\text{cov}(X, Y) = 0$
- Also, independent variables are always uncorrelated, although the converse is not true.

Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

- For random variables X and Y ,

$$E\{(XY)\}^2 \leq E(X^2)E(Y^2)$$

with equality if and only if $P(aX = bY) = 1$ for some real a and b , at least one of which is non-zero.

- $\rho = +1$ if and only if Y *increases* linearly with X and
 $\rho = -1$ if and only if Y *decreases* linearly as X increases.

Example

- Let X and Y take values in $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\{-1, 0, 2\}$ respectively, with joint mass function f where $f(x, y)$ is the appropriate entry in Table :

	Y=-1	Y=0	Y=2	f_x
X=1	1/18	3/18	2/18	6/18
X=2	2/18	0	3/18	5/18
X=3	0	4/18	3/18	7/18
f_y	3/18	7/18	8/18	

$$E(XY) = \sum_{x,y} xyf(x, y) = \quad ; E(X) = \sum_x xf(x) =$$
$$E(Y) =$$

- $E(XY) = \sum_{x,y} xyf(x, y) = 29/18$
- $E(X) = \sum_x xf(x) = 37/18$
- $E(Y) = 13/18$

- $var(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = 233/324$
- $var(Y) = 461/324$
- $cov(X, Y) = \frac{41}{324}$
- $\rho(X, Y) = 41/\sqrt{107413}$

Conditional Distribution Function

- The conditional distribution function of Y given $X = x$, written $F_{(Y|X)}(\cdot | \mathbf{x})$ is defined by:

$$F_{(Y|X)}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) = P(Y \leq \mathbf{y} | X = \mathbf{x})$$

for any x such that $P(X = x) > 0$

Conditional (probability) mass function

- The conditional (probability) mass function of Y given $X = x$, written $f_{(Y|X)}(\cdot | x)$, is defined by

$$f_{(Y|X)}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) = P(Y = \mathbf{y} | X = \mathbf{x})$$

- $f_{(Y|X)} = \frac{f_{X,Y}}{f_X}$

for any x such that $P(X = x) > 0$

- Clearly X and Y are independent if and only if
$$f_{(Y|X)} = f_Y$$

Conditional Expectation

- Let $\psi(x) = E(Y|X = x)$. Then $\psi(X)$ is called the **conditional expectation** of Y given X , written as $E(Y|X)$.
- Although 'conditional expectation' sounds like a number, **it is actually a random variable**.
- $\psi(X) = \sum_y y f_{(Y|X)}(y|x)$

- **Theorem** : The conditional expectation $\psi(X) = E(Y|X)$ satisfies

$$E(\psi(X)) = E(Y)$$

Proof :

$$\begin{aligned} E(\psi(X)) &= \sum_x \psi(x) f_X(x) = \sum_{x,y} y f_{(Y|X)}(y|x) f_X(x) \\ &= \sum_{x,y} y f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \sum_y y f_Y(y) = E(Y) \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, $E(Y) = \sum_x E(Y|X = x) P(X = x)$

Theorem

- The conditional expectation $\psi(X) = E(Y|X)$ satisfies

$$E(\psi(X)g(X)) = E(Yg(X))$$

For any function g for which both expectations exist.

Proof :
$$\begin{aligned} E(\psi(X)g(X)) &= \sum_x \psi(x)g(x) f_X(x) \\ &= \sum_{x,y} yg(x) f_{(Y|X)}(y|x)f_X(x) \\ &= \sum_{x,y} yg(x) f_{X,Y}(x,y) \\ &= \mathbf{E(Yg(X))} \end{aligned}$$

Example problem

- To transmit message i using an optical communication system.
- When light of intensity λ_i strikes the photodetector, the number of photoelectrons generated is a Poisson (λ_i) random variable.
- Find the conditional probability that the number of photoelectrons observed at the photodetector is less than 2 given that message i was sent.

Solution

- Let X denote the message to be sent, and let Y denote the number of photoelectrons generated by the photodetector.

- The problem statement is telling us that

$$P(Y = n|X = i) = \frac{\lambda_i^n e^{-\lambda_i}}{n!}, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- The conditional probability to be calculated is

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y < 2|X = i) &= P(Y = 0 \text{ or } Y = 1|X = i) \\ &= P(Y = 0|X = i) + P(Y = 1|X = i) \\ &= e^{-\lambda_i} + \lambda_i e^{-\lambda_i} \end{aligned}$$

Sums of Random Variables

- $Z = X + Y$
- Given joint pmf $f(x, y)$, we want to find pmf of Z .
- $\{X + Y = Z\} = \cup_x (\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = z - x\})$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X+Y}(z) &= P(X + Y = z) \\ &= P(\cup_x \{X = x\} \cap \{Y = z - x\}) \\ &= \sum_x P(X = x, Y = z - x) \\ &= \sum_x f(x, z - x) \end{aligned}$$

- If X and Y are independent, then

$$\begin{aligned}P(X + Y = z) &= f_{X+Y}(z) \\ &= \sum_x f_X(x) f_Y(z - x) \\ &= \sum_y f_X(z - y) f_Y(y)\end{aligned}$$

- The mass function of $X + Y$ is called the ***convolution*** of the mass functions of X and Y , and is written

$$f_{X+Y} = f_X * f_Y$$