Computer Science 351 Random Variables and Expectation

Instructor: Wayne Eberly

Department of Computer Science University of Calgary

Lecture #20

Learning Goals

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• Introduce *random variable* and their *expected values* as a way to consider numerical information that can be considered as part of an experiment (and may be the main reason why you want to consider the experiment, at all).

When we consider an experiment there is often a numerical value that we wish to *count* or *bound*.

Examples:

- When tossing a sequence of coins, how many coins are tossed before a *head* is tossed for the first time?
- When tossing a sequence of *n* coins, *how many times* is a "head" tossed?
- When shuffling a deck of cards, what is the highest rank of the first five cards (where an Ace has rank 1, a Jack has rank 11, a Queen has rank 12, and King has rank 13, and the rank of any numbered card is its number)?
- When inserting a sequence of keys into a hash table, what is the length of the linked list of values at position 0 of the table?

Definition: Let Ω be a sample space. A **random variable over** Ω is a (total) function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.

- We will often shorten this phrase from "random variable over Ω" to "random variable" when the context makes it clear what sample space, Ω, is being considered.
- Any *probability distribution* P : Ω → ℝ is an example of a "random variable over Ω".

We will often be interested in random variable whose ranges are particular *subsets* V of \mathbb{R} — so that these functions can also be viewed as functions $X : \Omega \to V$ (as well as functions $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$).

- For example, an *integer-valued random variable* is a random variable X : Ω → ℝ such that X(σ) ∈ ℤ for all σ ∈ Ω so that, in effect, X : Ω → ℤ.
- The (even more special) case that X : Ω → N will often be of interest too.

So will be the (even more special) case that $X(\sigma) \in \{0, 1\}$ for all $\sigma \in \Omega$, so that $X : \Omega \to \{0, 1\}$.

 This kind of random variable is often called an *indicator* random variable because it "indicates" an event, namely the event

$$\{\sigma \in \Omega \mid X(\sigma) = 1\} \subseteq \Omega.$$

Example: Consider the experiment of tossing a sequence of three coins — so that

$$\begin{split} \Omega = \{(\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H}),(\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T}),(\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{H}),(\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{T}),\\ (\mathrm{T},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H}),(\mathrm{T},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T}),(\mathrm{T},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{H}),(\mathrm{T},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{T})\}. \end{split}$$

The *random variable* "number of heads tossed" is the function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{N}$ such that

- X((H, H, H)) = 3.
- X((H,H,T)) = X((H,T,H)) = X((T,H,H)) = 2.
- X((H,T,T)) = X((T,H,T)) = X((T,T,H)) = 1.
- X((T, T, T)) = 0.

Once again, let Ω be a sample space and let $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.

• We will write "X = r" as the name of the event

$$\{\sigma \in \Omega \mid X(\sigma) = r\} \subseteq \Omega.$$

• We will write " $X \ge r$ " as the name of the event

$$\{\sigma \in \Omega \mid X(\sigma) \geq r\} \subseteq \Omega.$$

 "X ≤ r", "X > r", X < r", and X ≠ r" can be used as the names for (corresponding) events in the same way.

Continuing the previous example,

$$X = 3 = \{(H, H, H)\},\$$

$$"X = 2" = \{(H, H, T), (H, T, H), (T, H, H)\},\$$

and

$$X \ge 2$$
 = {H, H, H), (H, H, T), (H, T, H), (T, H, H)}.

Expectation

Let Ω be a sample space with probability distribution $\mathsf{P} : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, and let $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ be a random variable over Ω .

Suppose that

$$\sum_{\sigma \in \Omega} \mathsf{P}(\sigma) imes |X(\sigma)|$$

is finite — that is, " less than $+\infty$ ".¹

Then the **expected value of X**, with respect to probability **distribution P**, is the value

$$\mathsf{E}[X] = \sum_{\sigma \in \Omega} \mathsf{P}(\sigma) \times X(\sigma).$$

 $^{^{1}}$ This is a "technical restriction" that you will not need to worry about whenever Ω is a finite set.



- The phrase "with respect to probability distribution *P*" will be dropped when it is clear, from context, which probability distribution is being used.
- This value has other names in the literature including
 - the *mean* of X,
 - the *expectation* of X, and
 - the *first moment* of X.

Expectation

Continuing this example — with the uniform distribution $\mathsf{P}:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$ —

Recall, from the lecture on "Conditional Probability", that if Ω is a sample space, $P : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a probability distribution, and $B \subseteq \Omega$ is an event such that P(B) > 0, then a *conditional probability distribution* $P_B : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ can be defined by setting

$$\mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}(\sigma) = egin{cases} rac{\mathsf{P}(\sigma)}{\mathsf{P}(\mathcal{B})} & ext{if } \sigma \in \mathcal{B}, \ 0 & ext{if } \sigma \notin \mathcal{B} \end{cases}$$

for every outcome $\sigma \in \Omega$.

Definition: If X is a random variable then the **conditional expectation of X given B** is the expected value of X with the respect to the conditional probability P_B :

$$\mathsf{E}[X | B] = \sum_{\sigma \in \Omega} \mathsf{P}_{B}(\sigma) \times X(\sigma).$$

Continuing this example, let us consider the event

B = "First toss is H",

that is, the event

$$B = \{(H, H, H), (H, H, T), (H, T, H), (H, T, T)\}.$$

Now

$$\mathsf{P}_B((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H})) = \frac{\mathsf{P}((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H}))}{\mathsf{P}(B)} = \frac{1/8}{1/2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

and

$$P_B((H, H, T)) = \frac{P((H, H, T))}{P(B)} = \frac{1/8}{1/2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

since $P((H,H,H)) = P((H,H,T)) = \frac{1}{8}$.

Indeed,

$$\mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{H}))=\mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{T}))=\frac{1}{4}$$

as well.

On the other hand,

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H},\mathsf{H})) &= \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H},\mathsf{T})) \\ &= \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H})) = \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T})) = \mathbf{0}, \end{split}$$

since none of (T, H, H), (T, H, T), (T, T, H) or (T, T, T) belong to B.

It now follows that

E[X | B] $= \mathsf{P}_B((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H})) \times X((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H})) + \mathsf{P}_B((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T})) \times X((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T}))$ $+ \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{H})) \times X((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{H})) + \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{T})) \times X((\mathrm{H},\mathrm{T},\mathrm{T}))$ $+ \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H},\mathsf{H})) \times X((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H},\mathsf{H})) + \mathsf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H},\mathsf{T})) \times X((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H},\mathsf{T}))$ $+ \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{B}}(\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H})) \times X((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T},\mathsf{H})) + \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{B}}((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T})) \times X((\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T},\mathsf{T}))$ $=\frac{1}{4} \times 3 + \frac{1}{4} \times 2 + \frac{1}{4} \times 2 + \frac{1}{4} \times 1 + 0 \times 2 + 0 \times 1$ $+ 0 \times 1 + 0 \times 0$ $=\frac{1}{4}\times 8+0=2.$

Exercise: Prove that Ω is a sample space with probability distribution $P : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, $B \subseteq \Omega$ is an event such that P(B) > 0, and *X* is a random variable, then

$$\mathsf{E}[X | B] = \frac{1}{\mathsf{P}(B)} \times \sum_{\sigma \in B} \left(\mathsf{P}(\sigma) \times X(\sigma)\right).$$

Recall that — since P_B is also a probability distribution for the sample space Ω whenever *B* is an event such that P(B) > 0, properties of *probability distributions* could be applied to P_B , in order to establish corresponding results for *conditional probabilities*.

• Since a *conditional expectation* is just the expected value of a random variable, defined using the conditional probability distribution *P*_B, properties of expectations can be used to establish corresponding properties of conditional expectations, in essentially the same way.

The following result is useful just as the "Law of Total Probability" (Claim #3 from Lecture #19) is: It describes a way to compute an expectation by considering cases (corresponding to whether, or not, an event has occurred). Recall that if $B \subseteq \Omega$, then

$$\boldsymbol{B}^{\boldsymbol{C}} = \{ \boldsymbol{\sigma} \in \boldsymbol{\Omega} \mid \boldsymbol{\sigma} \notin \boldsymbol{B} \}.$$

Claim #1: Let Ω be a sample space with probability distribution $P: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, let $B \subseteq \Omega$ be an event such that P(B) > 0 and $P(B^{C}) > 0$, and let *X* be a random variable. Then

$$\mathsf{E}[X] = \mathsf{E}[X | B] \times \mathsf{P}(B) + \mathsf{E}[X | B^{C}] \times \mathsf{P}(B^{C}).$$

Proof: Exercise.

Let Ω be a sample space with a probability distribution $P: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, and let $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ be random variables, for some positive integer *n*. " $X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ " denotes a random variable such that

$$(X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n)(\sigma) = X_1(\sigma) + X_2(\sigma) + \cdots + X_n(\sigma)$$

for each outcome $\sigma \in \Omega$. Similarly, if $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ then " $a \cdot X + b$ " denotes a random variable such that

$$(aX+b)(\sigma) = a \cdot X(\sigma) + b$$

for every outcome $\sigma \in \Omega$, as well.

Claim #2 (Linearity of Expectation): Let Ω be a sample space with probability distribution $P : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.

(a) If $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ are random variables over Ω , for a positive integer *n*, then

$$E[X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] = E[X_1] + E[X_2] + \dots + E[X_n].$$

(b) If $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a random variable over Ω and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ then

$$\mathsf{E}[a \cdot X + b] = a \cdot \mathsf{E}[X] + b.$$

Proof: Another exercise.

Once again, consider the random variable

X = "Number of Heads Tossed".

Note that

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$$

where, for $1 \leq i \leq 3$ and $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3) \in \Omega$,

$$X_i(\sigma) = X_i((\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \alpha_i = \mathbb{H}, \\ 0 & \text{if } \alpha_i = \mathbb{T}. \end{cases}$$

Linearity of Expectation

Note that

Exercise: Confirm that

$$E[X_2] = E[X_3] = \frac{1}{2}$$

as well.

It now follows that

$$E[X] = E[X_1 + X_2 + X_3]$$
 (since $X = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$)
= $E[X_1] + E[X_2] + E[X_3]$ (by Linearity of Expectation)
= $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$

— as previously noted. "Linearity of Expectation" can give a way to compute the expected value of a complicated random variable by considering simpler ones, instead.

It follows by Claim #2 that if X_1 and X_2 are random variables over Ω , then E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y].

• It might be reasonable to wonder whether

$$\mathsf{E}[X \times Y] = \mathsf{E}[X] \times \mathsf{E}[Y]$$

as well?

It turns out that this is not generally true.

Consider, again, the random variable

$$X_1:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$$

- recalling that

$$X_1((H, H, H)) = X_1((H, H, T)) =$$

 $X_1((H, T, H)) = X_1((H, T, T)) = 1$

and

$$X_1((T, H, H)) = X_1((T, H, T)) =$$

 $X_1((T, T, H)) = X_1((T, T, T)) = 0.$

Let $Y = X = X_1$ — noting, in this case, that

$$X \times Y(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_1(\sigma) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } X_1(\sigma) = 0. \end{cases}$$

This can be used to establish that

$$E[X \times Y] = E[X_1] = \frac{1}{2},$$

$$\mathsf{E}[X] \times \mathsf{E}[Y] = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

so that

while

 $\mathsf{E}[X \times Y] \neq \mathsf{E}[X] \times \mathsf{E}[Y]$

in this case.

Once again, suppose that Ω is a sample space with probability distribution $P : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Consider random variables $X : \Omega \to V_X$ and $Y : \Omega \to V_Y$, where $V_X, V_Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Recall that, for $a \in V_X$ and $b \in V_Y$,

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{a}^{"} = \{ \sigma \in \Omega \mid \mathbf{X}(\sigma) = \mathbf{a} \}$$

and

"
$$Y = b$$
" = { $\tau \in \Omega \mid Y(\tau) = b$ },

so that

$$"X = a \land Y = b" = \{ \mu \in \Omega \mid X(\mu) = a \text{ and } Y(\mu) = b \}.$$

Definition: The above random variables X and Y are *independent* if

$$\mathsf{P}(X = a \land Y = b) = \mathsf{P}(X = a) \times \mathsf{P}(Y = b)$$

for all values $a \in V_X$ and $b \in V_Y$.

In other words, X and Y are "independent" if *all* events corresponding to choices of values for X and for Y, respectively, are independent.

Continuing the above example, consider the random variables

 $X_1 : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ and $X_2 : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$

as previously described - so that

$$X_1(\sigma) \in \{0,1\}$$
 and $X_2(\sigma) \in \{0,1\}$

for all $\sigma \in \Omega$.

Exercise: Confirm that

$$P(X_1 = 0) = P(X_1 = 1) = P(X_2 = 0) = P(X_2) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Confirm, as well, that

$$P(X_1 = i \land X_2 = j) = \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$$

for all $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$.

Thus

$$\mathsf{P}(X_1 = i \land \mathsf{P}(X)_2 = j) = \mathsf{P}(X_i = j) \times \mathsf{P}(X_2 = j)$$

for all $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$ — so that the random variables X_1 and X_2 are independent.

Pairwise Independent Random Variables

Once again, let Ω be a sample space with probability distribution $P : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Let *k* be a positive integer and let

$$X_1: \Omega \rightarrow V_1, X_2: \Omega \rightarrow V_2, \dots, X_k: \Omega \rightarrow V_k$$

be random variables over Ω (so that $V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k \subseteq \mathbb{R}$).

Definition: The random variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_k$ are **pairwise independent** if the random variables X_i and X_j are independent, for every pair of numbers *i* and *j* such that $1 \le i < j \le k$.

Mutually Independent Random Variables

Finally, let Ω be a sample space with probability distribution $P : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. Let *k* be a positive integer and let

$$X_1: \Omega \rightarrow V_1, X_2: \Omega \rightarrow V_2, \dots, X_k: \Omega \rightarrow V_k$$

be random variables over Ω (so that $V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k \subseteq \mathbb{R}$).

Definition: The random variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_k$ are **mutually independent** if the following condition is satisfied: **For every** subset $S \subseteq \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ and **for all** combinations of $a_i \in V_i$, for $i \in S$,

$$\mathsf{P}\left(\bigwedge_{i\in\mathcal{S}}(X_i=a_i)\right)=\prod_{i\in\mathcal{S}}\mathsf{P}(X_i=a_i).$$

With a bit of work one can show that this is *equivalent* to the definition of the independence of a pair of random variables, X_1 and X_2 , when k = 2.

Mutually Independent Random Variables

- Returning to the example of tossing three coins once again

 with quite a bit more work, it can be shown that the
 random variables X₁, X₂ and X₃, included in the example,
 are mutually independent.
- If $k \ge 3$ and $X_1, X_2, ..., X_k$ are random variables, as above, and $X_1, X_2, ..., X_k$ are **mutually independent**, then $X_1, X_2, ..., X_k$ must be **pairwise independent** as well.
- However, it is possible that *X*₁, *X*₂,..., *X*_k are *pairwise independent*, but *not mutually independent*.