

Chapters 1–2

Discrete random variables

Permutations

Binomial and related distributions

Expected value and variance

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Math 283

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Sample spaces and events

- Flip a coin 3 times. The possible *outcomes* are

HHH HHT HTH HTT THH THT TTH TTT

- The *sample space* is the set of all possible outcomes:

$$S = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$$

- An *event* is any subset of S .

The event that there are exactly two heads is

$$A = \{HHT, HTH, THH\}$$

- The probability of heads is p and of tails is $q = 1 - p$. The flips are independent, which gives these *probabilities for each outcome*:

$$P(HHH) = p^3 \quad P(HHT) = P(HTH) = P(THH) = p^2q$$

$$P(TTT) = q^3 \quad P(HTT) = P(THT) = P(TTH) = pq^2$$

- These are each between 0 and 1, and they add up to 1:

$$p^3 + 3p^2q + 3pq^2 + q^3 = (p + q)^3 = 1^3 = 1$$

Sample spaces and events

- Flip a coin 3 times. The possible *outcomes* are

HHH HHT HTH HTT THH THT TTH TTT

- The *sample space* is the set of all possible outcomes:

$S = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$

- An *event* is any subset of S .

The event that there are exactly two heads is

$A = \{HHT, HTH, THH\}$

- The probability of heads is p and of tails is $q = 1 - p$. The flips are independent, which gives these *probabilities for each outcome*:

$$P(HHH) = p^3 \quad P(HHT) = P(HTH) = P(THH) = p^2q$$

$$P(TTT) = q^3 \quad P(HTT) = P(THT) = P(TTH) = pq^2$$

- The *probability of an event* is the sum of probabilities of its outcomes:

$$P(A) = P(HHT) + P(HTH) + P(THH) = 3p^2q$$

Random variables

- A *random variable* X is a function assigning a real number to each outcome.

- Let X be the number of heads:

$$X(HHH) = 3 \quad X(HHT) = X(HTH) = X(THH) = 2$$

$$X(TTT) = 0 \quad X(HTT) = X(THT) = X(TTH) = 1$$

- The *range of X* is $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$.
- That range is a *discrete set* as opposed to a continuum, such as all real numbers $[0, 3]$. So X is a *discrete random variable*.
- The discrete *probability density function (pdf)* or *probability mass function (pmf)* is $p_X(k) = P(X = k)$, defined for *all* real numbers k :
$$p_X(0) = q^3 \quad p_X(1) = 3pq^2 \quad p_X(2) = 3p^2q \quad p_X(3) = p^3$$

$$p_X(k) = 0 \text{ otherwise:} \quad p_X(2.5) = 0 \quad p_X(-1) = 0$$
- Use capital letters (X) for random variables and lowercase (k) to stand for numeric values.

Joint probability density

- Measure several properties at once using multiple random variables:

$X = \# \text{ heads}$

$Y = \text{position of first head (1,2,3) or 4 if no heads}$

$HHH: X = 3, Y = 1$ $THH: X = 2, Y = 2$

$HHT: X = 2, Y = 1$ $THT: X = 1, Y = 2$

$HTH: X = 2, Y = 1$ $TTH: X = 1, Y = 3$

$HTT: X = 1, Y = 1$ $TTT: X = 0, Y = 4$

- Reorganize as a two dimensional table:

	$X = 0$	$X = 1$	$X = 2$	$X = 3$
$Y = 1$		HTT	HHT, HTH	HHH
$Y = 2$		THT	THH	
$Y = 3$		TTH		
$Y = 4$	TTT			

Joint probability density

- The (discrete) *joint probability density function* is

$$p_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y):$$

$p_{X,Y}(x, y)$	$x = 0$	$x = 1$	$x = 2$	$x = 3$	Total $p_Y(y)$
$y = 1$	0	pq^2	$2p^2q$	p^3	p
$y = 2$	0	pq^2	p^2q	0	pq
$y = 3$	0	pq^2	0	0	pq^2
$y = 4$	q^3	0	0	0	q^3
Total $p_X(x)$	q^3	$3pq^2$	$3p^2q$	p^3	1

- It's defined for all real numbers. It equals zero outside the table.
In table: $p_{X,Y}(3, 1) = p^3$ **Not in table:** $p_{X,Y}(1, -.5) = 0$
- Row totals:** $p_Y(y) = \sum_x p_{X,Y}(x, y)$ **Columns:** $p_X(x) = \sum_y p_{X,Y}(x, y)$

These are in the right and bottom margins of the table, so $p_X(x)$, $p_Y(y)$ are called *marginal densities* of the joint pdf $p_{X,Y}(x, y)$.

Joint probability density — marginal density

$p_{X,Y}(x, y)$	$x = 0$	$x = 1$	$x = 2$	$x = 3$	Total $p_Y(y)$
$y = 1$	0	pq^2	$2p^2q$	p^3	p
$y = 2$	0	pq^2	p^2q	0	pq
$y = 3$	0	pq^2	0	0	pq^2
$y = 4$	q^3	0	0	0	q^3
Total $p_X(x)$	q^3	$3pq^2$	$3p^2q$	p^3	1

Row totals

- **Row total for $y = 1$:**

$$pq^2 + 2p^2q + p^3 = p(q^2 + 2pq + p^2) = p(q + p)^2 = p \cdot 1^2 = p$$

- **Row total for $y = 2$:**

$$pq^2 + p^2q = pq(p + q) = pq \cdot 1 = pq$$

- Or, for $y = 1, 2, 3$, the probability that the first heads is flip # y is

$$P(Y = y) = P(y - 1 \text{ tails followed by heads}) = q^{y-1}p$$

and the probability of no heads is $P(Y = 4) = P(TTT) = q^3$.

Conditional probability

- Bob flips a coin 3 times and tells you that $X = 2$ (two heads), but no further information.
What does that tell you about Y (flip number of first head)?
- The possible outcomes with $X = 2$ are HHT , HTH , THH , each with the same probability p^2q .
- We're restricted to three equally likely outcomes HHT , HTH , THH :
 - Probability $Y = 1$ is $2/3$ (HHT , HTH)
 - Probability $Y = 2$ is $1/3$ (THH)
 - Other values of Y are not possible
- These are called *conditional probabilities*.

Conditional probability formula

- You know that event B holds. What's the probability of event A ?

Conditional Probability Formula

The conditional probability of A , given B , is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \text{ and } B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

- The probability that $Y = 1$ given $X = 2$ is $P(Y = 1 | X = 2)$:
 - The event $Y = 1$ is $A = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT\}$.
 - The event $X = 2$ is $B = \{HHT, HTH, THH\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y = 1 | X = 2) &= \frac{P(X = 2 \text{ and } Y = 1)}{P(X = 2)} \\ &= \frac{P(\{HHT, HTH\})}{P(\{HHT, HTH, THH\})} = \frac{2p^2q}{3p^2q} = \frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Conditional probability formula

Bayes' Theorem

The conditional probability of A , given B , is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \text{ and } B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

The conditional probability that $Y = y$ given that $X = x$ is

$$P(Y = y | X = x) = \frac{P(Y = y \text{ and } X = x)}{P(X = x)} = \frac{p_{X,Y}(x, y)}{p_X(x)}$$

$$P(Y = 1 | X = 2) = \frac{p_{X,Y}(2, 1)}{p_X(2)} = \frac{2p^2q}{3p^2q} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Independent random variables

- In the previous example, knowing $X = 2$ affected the probabilities of the values of Y . So X and Y are *dependent*.
- Discrete random variables U, V, W are *independent* if
$$P(U = u, V = v, W = w) = P(U = u)P(V = v)P(W = w)$$
factorizes for *all* values of u, v, w , and *dependent* if there are any exceptions. This generalizes to any number of random variables.
- In terms of conditional probability, X and Y are independent if $P(Y = y|X = x) = P(Y = y)$ for all x, y (with $P(X = x) \neq 0$).

Examples of independent random variables

- Let U, V, W denote three flips of a coin, coded 0=tails, 1=heads.
- Let X_1, \dots, X_{10} denote the values of 10 separate rolls of a die.

Example of dependent random variables

- Drawing cards U, V from a deck without replacement (so $V \neq U$).

Permutations of distinct objects

Permutations

Here are all the **permutations** of A, B, C :

$ABC \quad ACB \quad BAC \quad BCA \quad CAB \quad CBA$

- There are 3 items: A, B, C .
- There are 3 choices for which item to put first.
- There are 2 choices remaining to put second.
- There is 1 choice remaining to put third.
- Thus, the total number of permutations is $3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 6$.

Factorials

- The number of permutations of n distinct items is “ **n -factorial**”:
 $n! = n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots 1$ for integers $n = 1, 2, \dots$
- $0! = 1$

Permutations with repetitions

Here are all the permutations of the letters of ALLELE:

<i>EEALLL</i>	<i>EELALL</i>	<i>EELLAL</i>	<i>EELLLA</i>	<i>EAELLL</i>	<i>EALELL</i>
<i>EALLEL</i>	<i>EALLLE</i>	<i>ELEALL</i>	<i>ELELAL</i>	<i>ELELLA</i>	<i>ELAELL</i>
<i>ELALEL</i>	<i>ELALLE</i>	<i>ELLEAL</i>	<i>ELLELA</i>	<i>ELLAEL</i>	<i>ELLALE</i>
<i>ELLLEA</i>	<i>ELLLAE</i>	<i>AEELLL</i>	<i>AELELL</i>	<i>AELLEL</i>	<i>AELLLE</i>
<i>ALEELL</i>	<i>ALELEL</i>	<i>AELLE</i>	<i>ALLEEL</i>	<i>ALLELE</i>	<i>ALLLEE</i>
<i>LEEALL</i>	<i>LEELAL</i>	<i>LEELLA</i>	<i>LEAELL</i>	<i>LEALEL</i>	<i>LEALLE</i>
<i>LELEAL</i>	<i>LELELA</i>	<i>LELAEL</i>	<i>LELALE</i>	<i>LELLEA</i>	<i>LELLAE</i>
<i>LAEELL</i>	<i>LAELEL</i>	<i>LAELLE</i>	<i>LALEEL</i>	<i>LALELE</i>	<i>LALLEE</i>
<i>LLEEAL</i>	<i>LLEELA</i>	<i>LLEAEL</i>	<i>LLEALE</i>	<i>LLELEA</i>	<i>LLELAE</i>
<i>LLAEEL</i>	<i>LLAELE</i>	<i>LLALEE</i>	<i>LLLEEA</i>	<i>LLLEAE</i>	<i>LLLAEE</i>

Permutations with repetitions

- There are $6! = 720$ ways to permute the subscripted letters $A_1, L_1, L_2, E_1, L_3, E_2$.
- Here are all the ways to put subscripts on EALLEL:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} E_1A_1L_1L_2E_2L_3 & E_1A_1L_1L_3E_2L_2 & E_2A_1L_1L_2E_1L_3 & E_2A_1L_1L_3E_1L_2 \\ E_1A_1L_2L_1E_2L_3 & E_1A_1L_2L_3E_2L_1 & E_2A_1L_2L_1E_1L_3 & E_2A_1L_2L_3E_1L_1 \\ E_1A_1L_3L_1E_2L_2 & E_1A_1L_3L_2E_2L_1 & E_2A_1L_3L_1E_1L_2 & E_2A_1L_3L_2E_1L_1 \end{array}$$

- Each rearrangement of ALLELE has
 - $1! = 1$ way to subscript the A's;
 - $2! = 2$ ways to subscript the E's; and
 - $3! = 6$ ways to subscript the L's,giving $1! \cdot 2! \cdot 3! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 6 = 12$ ways to assign subscripts.
- Since each permutation of ALLELE is represented 12 different ways in permutations of $A_1L_1L_2E_1L_3E_2$, the number of permutations of ALLELE is

$$\frac{6!}{1!2!3!} = \frac{720}{12} = 60.$$

Multinomial coefficients

For a word of length n with k_1 of one letter, k_2 of a second letter, etc., the number of permutations is given by the **multinomial coefficient**:

$$\binom{n}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r} = \frac{n!}{k_1! k_2! \cdots k_r!}$$

where n, k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r are integers ≥ 0 and $n = k_1 + \cdots + k_r$.

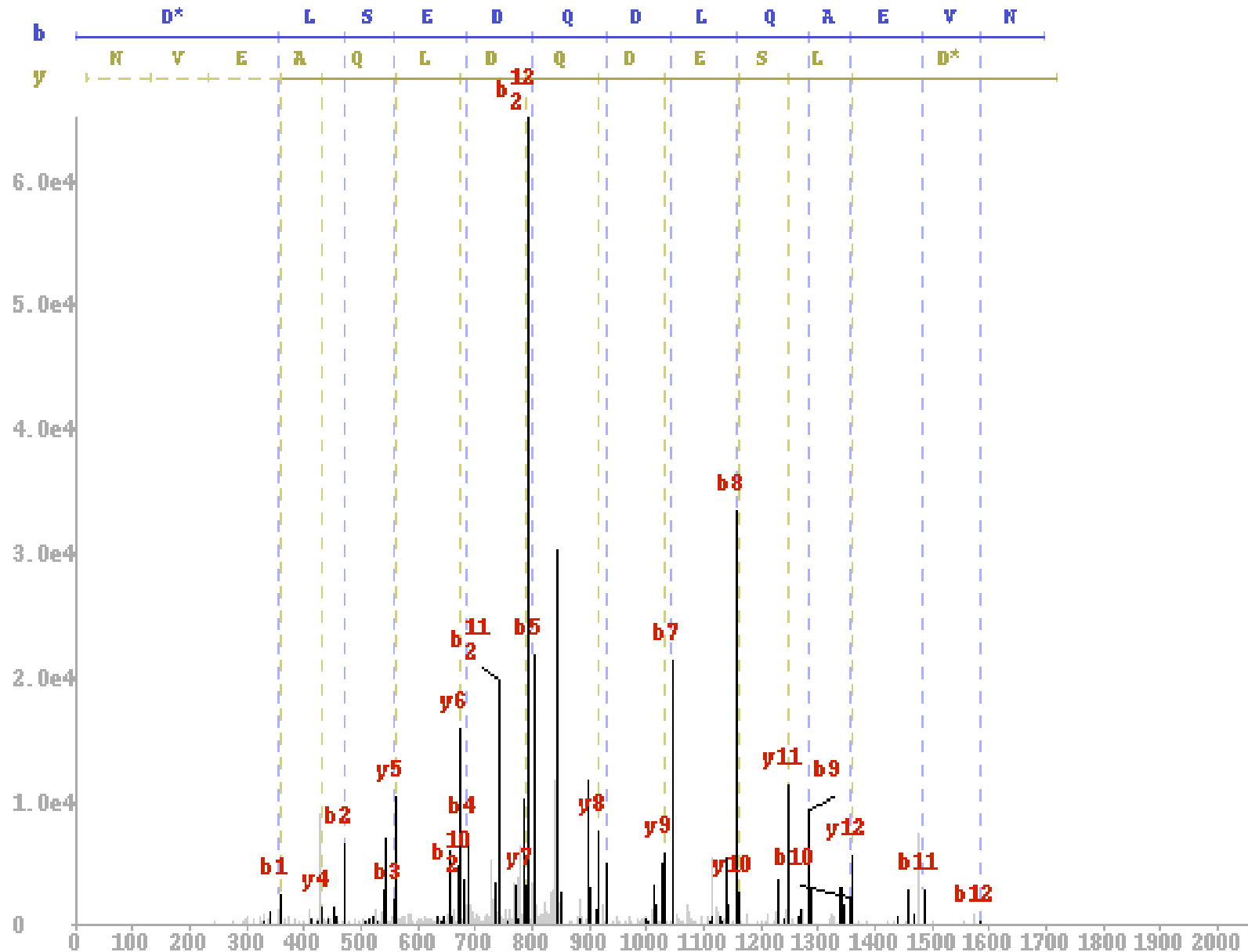
Previous slide example: ALLELE

$n = 6$ letters, with 1 A, 2 E's, 3 L's:

$$\binom{6}{1, 2, 3} = \frac{6!}{1! 2! 3!} = \frac{720}{12} = 60$$

Mass Spectrometry (Mass Spec)

Peptide [242.3]D[I,L]SED[Q,K]D[I,L][Q,K]AEVN; Figure courtesy Nuno Bandeira



Mass Spectrometry

Peptide ABCDEF is ionized into fragments

A / BCDEF, AB / CDEF, etc.

giving a spectrum with intermingled peaks:

- **b-ions:** $b_1 = \text{mass}(A)$, $b_2 = \text{mass}(AB)$, \dots , $b_6 = \text{mass}(ABCDEF)$
successively separated by $\text{mass}(B)$, $\text{mass}(C)$, \dots , $\text{mass}(F)$
- **y-ions:** $y_1 = \text{mass}(F)$, $y_2 = \text{mass}(EF)$, \dots , $y_6 = \text{mass}(ABCDEF)$
successively separated by $\text{mass}(E)$, $\text{mass}(D)$, \dots , $\text{mass}(A)$
- Plus more peaks (multiple fragments, \pm smaller chemicals, etc.).

Mass Spectrometry — Amino Acid Composition

List of the 20 amino acids

Amino Acid	Code	Mass (Daltons)	Amino Acid	Code	Mass (Daltons)
Alanine	A	71.037113787	Leucine	L	113.084063979
Arginine	R	156.101111026	Lysine	K	128.094963016
Aspartic acid	D	115.026943031	Methionine	M	131.040484605
Asparagine	N	114.042927446	Phenylalanine	F	147.068413915
Cysteine	C	160.030648200	Proline	P	97.052763851
Glutamic acid	E	129.042593095	Serine	S	87.032028409
Glutamine	Q	128.058577510	Threonine	T	101.047678473
Glycine	G	57.021463723	Tryptophan	W	186.079312952
Histidine	H	137.058911861	Tyrosine	Y	163.063328537
Isoleucine	I	113.084063979	Valine	V	99.068413915

- Note $\text{mass(I)} = \text{mass(L)}$, $\text{mass(N)} = \text{mass(GG)}$ and $\text{mass(GA)} = \text{mass(Q)} \approx \text{mass(K)}$.
- A fragment of mass ≈ 242.3 could be
 $\text{mass(NE)} = 243.09$ $\text{mass(LQ)} = 241.14$ $\text{mass(KI)} = 241.18$
 $\text{mass(GGE)} = 243.09$ $\text{mass(GAL)} = 241.14$
- Or any permutations of those since they have the same mass:
NE, EN, LQ, QL, KI, IK, GGE, GEG, EGG, GAL, GLA, ALG, etc.

Multinomial distribution

- Consider a biased 6-sided die:
 - q_i is the probability of rolling i , for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 6$.
 - Each q_i is between 0 and 1, and $q_1 + \dots + q_6 = 1$.
 - 6 sides is an example; it could be any # sides.

- The probability of a sequence of independent rolls is

$$P(1131326) = q_1 q_1 q_3 q_1 q_3 q_2 q_6 = q_1^3 q_2 q_3^2 q_6 = \prod_{i=1}^6 q_i^{\# \text{ } i\text{'s}}$$

- Roll the die n times ($n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$).

Let X_1 be the number of 1's, X_2 be the number of 2's, etc.

$$p_{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_6}(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_6) = P(X_1 = k_1, X_2 = k_2, \dots, X_6 = k_6)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \binom{n}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_6} q_1^{k_1} q_2^{k_2} \dots q_6^{k_6} & \text{if } k_1, \dots, k_6 \text{ are integers } \geq 0 \text{ adding up to } n; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Binomial coefficients

Suppose you flip a coin $n = 5$ times. How many sequences of flips are there with $k = 3$ heads? Ten:

HHHTT HHTHT HHTTH HTHHT HTHTH
HTTHH THHHT THHTH THTHH TTHHH

Definition (Binomial coefficient)

- “ n choose k ” = $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$
provided n, k are integers and $0 \leq k \leq n$.
- $\binom{n}{0} = 1$
- Some people use ${}_n C_k$ instead of $\binom{n}{k}$.
- Binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k}$ = multinomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k, n-k}$.

Top of slide: $\binom{5}{3} = \frac{5!}{3!(5-3)!} = \frac{120}{(6)(2)} = 10$.

Binomial distribution

- A biased coin has probability p of heads, $q = 1 - p$ of tails.
- Flip the coin n times ($n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$).
- $P(HHTHTTH) = ppqpqp = p^4 q^3 = p^{\# \text{ heads}} q^{\# \text{ tails}}$
- Let X be the number of heads in the n flips.
The probability density function (pdf) of X is

$$p_X(k) = P(X = k) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} & \text{if } k = 0, 1, \dots, n; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

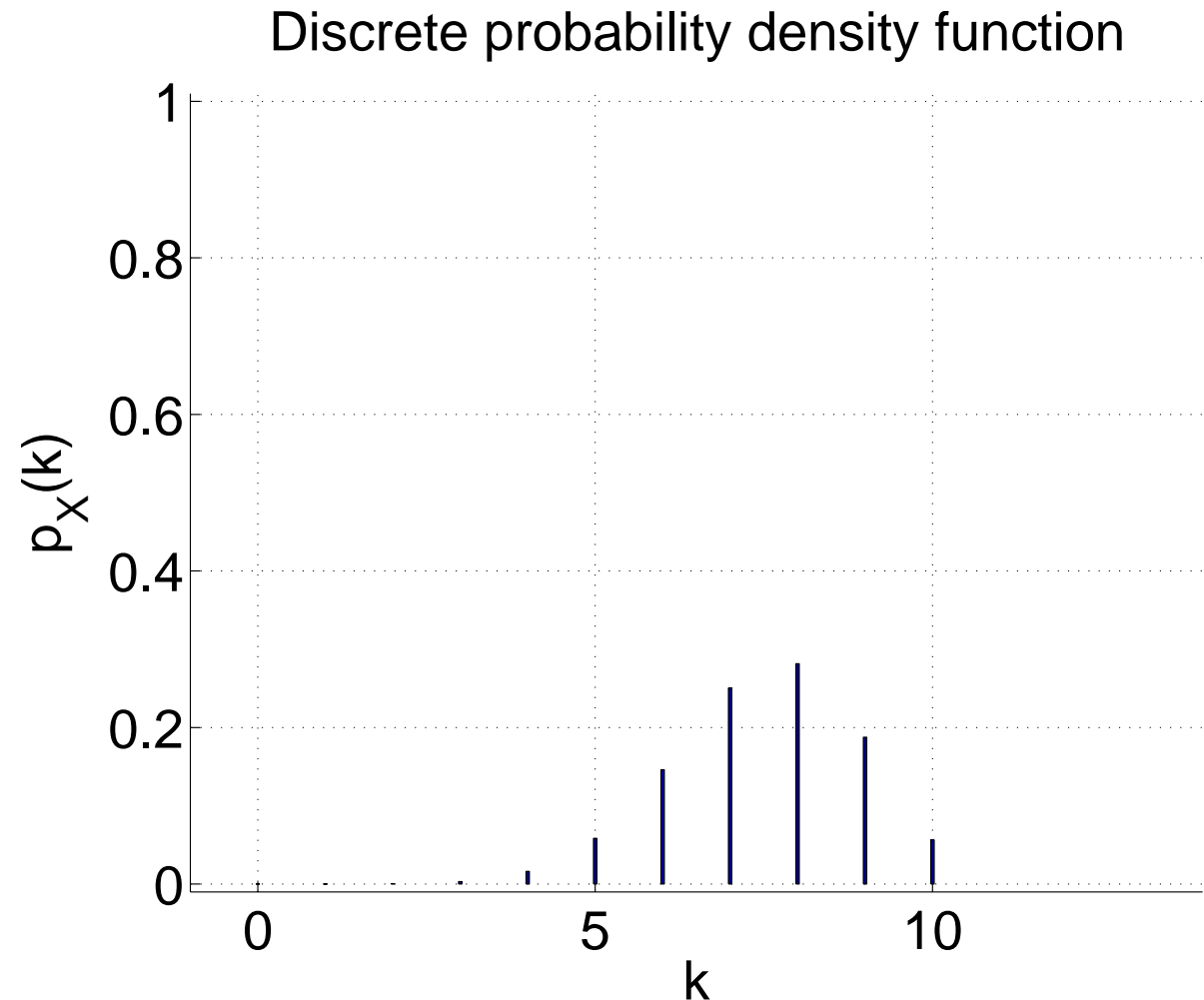
It's ≥ 0 and the total is $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} = (p + q)^n = 1^n = 1$.

- **Interpretation:** Repeat this experiment (flipping a coin n times and counting the heads) a huge number of times. The fraction of experiments with $X = k$ will usually be approximately $p_X(k)$.

Binomial distribution for $n = 10, p = 3/4$

$$p_X(k) = \begin{cases} \binom{10}{k} (3/4)^k (1/4)^{10-k} & \text{if } k = 0, 1, \dots, 10; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

k	pdf
0	0.00000095
1	0.00002861
2	0.00038624
3	0.00308990
4	0.01622200
5	0.05839920
6	0.14599800
7	0.25028229
8	0.28156757
9	0.18771172
10	0.05631351
other	0



Where the distribution names come from

Binomial Theorem

For integers $n \geq 0$,

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

$$(x + y)^3 = \binom{3}{0}x^0y^3 + \binom{3}{1}x^1y^2 + \binom{3}{2}x^2y^1 + \binom{3}{3}x^3y^0 = y^3 + 3xy^2 + 3x^2y + x^3$$

Multinomial Theorem

For integers $n \geq 0$,

$$(x + y + z)^n = \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=0}^n}_{i+j+k=n} \binom{n}{i, j, k} x^i y^j z^k$$

$$\begin{aligned} (x + y + z)^2 &= \binom{2}{2,0,0}x^2y^0z^0 + \binom{2}{0,2,0}x^0y^2z^0 + \binom{2}{0,0,2}x^0y^0z^2 \\ &\quad + \binom{2}{1,1,0}x^1y^1z^0 + \binom{2}{1,0,1}x^1y^0z^1 + \binom{2}{0,1,1}x^0y^1z^1 \\ &= x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 2xy + 2xz + 2yz \end{aligned}$$

$(x_1 + \cdots + x_m)^n$ works similarly with m iterated sums.

Genetics example

- Consider a cross of two pea plants.
- We will study the genes for plant height (alleles T =tall, t =short) and pea shape (R =round, r =wrinkled).
- T, R are dominant and t, r are recessive.
- The T and R loci are on different chromosomes so these recombine independently.
- Consider a $TtRR \times TtRr$ cross of pea plants:

Punnett Square			Genotype	Prob.
	TR (1/2)	tR (1/2)	$TTRR$	1/8
TR (1/4)	$TTRR$ (1/8)	$TtRR$ (1/8)	$TtRR$	2/8 = 1/4
Tr (1/4)	$TTRr$ (1/8)	$TtRr$ (1/8)	$TTRr$	1/8
tR (1/4)	$TtRR$ (1/8)	$ttRR$ (1/8)	$TtRr$	2/8 = 1/4
tr (1/4)	$TtRr$ (1/8)	$ttRr$ (1/8)	$ttRR$	1/8
			$ttRr$	1/8

Genetics example

If there are 27 offspring, what is the probability that 9 offspring have genotype TTRR, 2 have genotype TtRR, 3 have genotype TTRr, 5 have genotype TtRr, 7 have genotype ttRR, and 1 has genotype ttRr?

Use the multinomial distribution:

Genotype	Probability	Frequency
TTRR	1/8	9
TtRR	1/4	2
TTRr	1/8	3
TtRr	1/4	5
ttRR	1/8	7
ttRr	1/8	1
Total	1	27

$$P = \frac{27!}{9!2!3!5!7!1!} \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^9 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^3 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^5 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^7 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^1 \approx 2.19 \cdot 10^{-7}$$

Genetics example

If there are **25** offspring, what is the probability that 9 offspring have genotype TTRR, 2 have genotype TtRR, 3 have genotype TTRr, 5 have genotype TtRr, 7 have genotype ttRR, and 1 has genotype ttRr?

$P = 0$ because the numbers 9, 2, 3, 5, 7, 1 do not add up to 25.

Genetics example

Genotype	Probability	Phenotype
TTRR	1/8	tall and round
TtRR	1/4	tall and round
TTRr	1/8	tall and round
TtRr	1/4	tall and round
ttRR	1/8	short and round
ttRr	1/8	short and round

For phenotypes,

$$P(\text{tall and round}) = 1/8 + 1/4 + 1/8 + 1/4 = 3/4$$

$$P(\text{short and round}) = 1/8 + 1/8 = 1/4$$

$$P(\text{tall and wrinkled}) = P(\text{short and wrinkled}) = 0$$

If there are 10 offspring, the number of tall offspring has a binomial distribution with $n = 10$, $p = 3/4$.

Later: We'll cover other Bioinformatics applications using the binomial distribution, including genome assembly and Haldane's model of recombination.

Expected value of a random variable

(Technical name for long term average)

- Consider a biased coin with probability $p = 3/4$ for heads.
- Flip it 10 times and record the number of heads, x_1 .
Flip it another 10 times, get x_2 heads.
Repeat to get x_1, \dots, x_{1000} .

- **Estimate the average of x_1, \dots, x_{1000} : $10(3/4) = 7.5$**

- **An estimate based on the pdf:**

About $1000p_X(k)$ of the x_i 's equal k for each $k = 0, \dots, 10$, so

$$\text{average of } x_i \text{'s} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{1000} x_i}{1000} \approx \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{10} k \cdot 1000 p_X(k)}{1000} = \sum_{k=0}^{10} k \cdot p_X(k)$$

Expected value of a random variable

(Technical name for long term average)

- The **expected value** of a discrete random variable X is

$$E(X) = \sum_x x \cdot p_X(x)$$

- $E(X)$ is often called the **mean value of X** and denoted μ (or μ_X if there are other random variables).
 - It turns out $E(X) = np$ for the binomial distribution.
- On the previous slide, although $E(X) = np = 10(3/4) = 7.5$, this is not a possible value for X .
 - Expected value does *not* mean we anticipate observing that value.
 - It means the long term average of many independent measurements of X will be approximately $E(X)$.

Mean of the Binomial Distribution

Proof that $\mu = np$ for binomial distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_k k \cdot p_X(k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n k \cdot \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

Calculus Trick:

$$(p + q)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$$

Differentiate:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} (p + q)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n k \binom{n}{k} p^{k-1} q^{n-k}$$

Times p :

$$p \frac{\partial}{\partial p} (p + q)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n k \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} = E(X)$$

Evaluate left side:

$$\begin{aligned} p \frac{\partial}{\partial p} (p + q)^n &= p \cdot n(p + q)^{n-1} \\ &= p \cdot n \cdot 1^{n-1} = np \quad \text{since } p + q = 1. \end{aligned}$$

So $E(X) = np$. □

Expected values of functions

- Let $X =$ roll of a biased 6-sided die and $Z = (X - 3)^2$.

x	$p_X(x)$	$z = (x - 3)^2$	$p_Z(z)$
1	q_1	4	
2	q_2	1	
3	q_3	0	$p_Z(0) = q_3$
4	q_4	1	$p_Z(1) = q_2 + q_4$
5	q_5	4	$p_Z(4) = q_1 + q_5$
6	q_6	9	$p_Z(9) = q_6$

pdf of X : Each $q_i \geq 0$ and $q_1 + \dots + q_6 = 1$.

pdf of Z : Each probability is also ≥ 0 , and the total sum is also 1.

- $E(Z)$, in terms of values of Z and the pdf of Z , is

$$E(Z) = \sum_z z \cdot p_Z(z) = 0(q_3) + 1(q_2 + q_4) + 4(q_1 + q_5) + 9(q_6)$$

- Regroup it in terms of X :

$$= 4q_1 + 1q_2 + 0q_3 + 1q_4 + 4q_5 + 9q_6 = \sum_{x=1}^6 (x - 3)^2 q_x$$

Expected values of functions

- Define

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x) \cdot p_X(x)$$

In general, if $Z = g(X)$ then $E(Z) = E(g(X))$.

The preceding slide demonstrates this for $Z = (X - 3)^2$.

- For functions of two variables, define

$$E(g(X, Y)) = \sum_x \sum_y g(x, y) p_{X, Y}(x, y)$$

and for more variables, do more iterated sums.

Expected values — properties

- $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$ where a, b are constants:

$$\begin{aligned} E(aX + b) &= \sum_x p_X(x)(ax + b) = a \sum_x xp_X(x) + b \sum_x p_X(x) \\ &= aE(X) + b \cdot 1 = aE(X) + b \end{aligned}$$

- $E(ag(X)) = aE(g(X))$

$$E(a) = a$$

$$E(g(X, Y) + h(X, Y)) = E(g(X, Y)) + E(h(X, Y))$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} E(XY) &= \sum_x \sum_y p_{X,Y}(x, y) \cdot xy \\ &= \sum_x \sum_y p_X(x)p_Y(y) \cdot xy \quad \text{if } X, Y \text{ independent!} \\ &= \left(\sum_x p_X(x)x \right) \left(\sum_y p_Y(y)y \right) = E(X)E(Y) \end{aligned}$$

Expected value of a product — dependent variables

Example (Dependent)

- Let U be the roll of a fair 6-sided die.
- Let V be the value of the exact same roll of the die ($U = V$).
- $E(U) = E(V) = \frac{1+2+3+4+5+6}{6} = \frac{21}{6} = \frac{7}{2}$ and $E(U)E(V) = \frac{49}{4}$.
- $E(UV) = \frac{1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 3 + 4 \cdot 4 + 5 \cdot 5 + 6 \cdot 6}{6} = \frac{91}{6}$

Example (Independent)

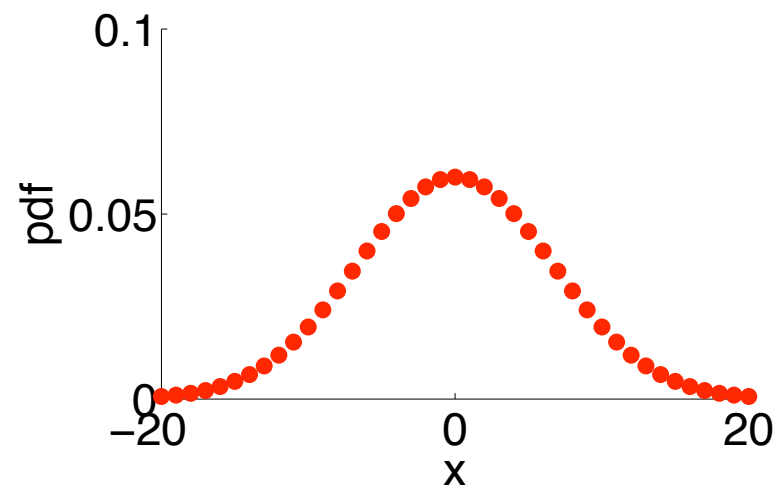
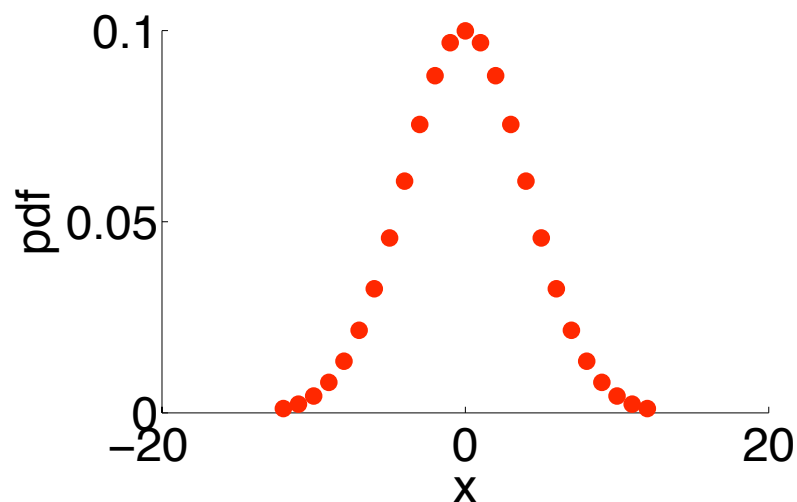
- Now let U, V be the values of two independent rolls of a fair 6-sided die.

- $$E(UV) = \sum_{x=1}^6 \sum_{y=1}^6 \frac{x \cdot y}{36} = \frac{441}{36} = \frac{49}{4}$$

and $E(U)E(V) = (7/2)(7/2) = 49/4$

Variance

- These distributions both have mean=0, but the right one is more spread out.



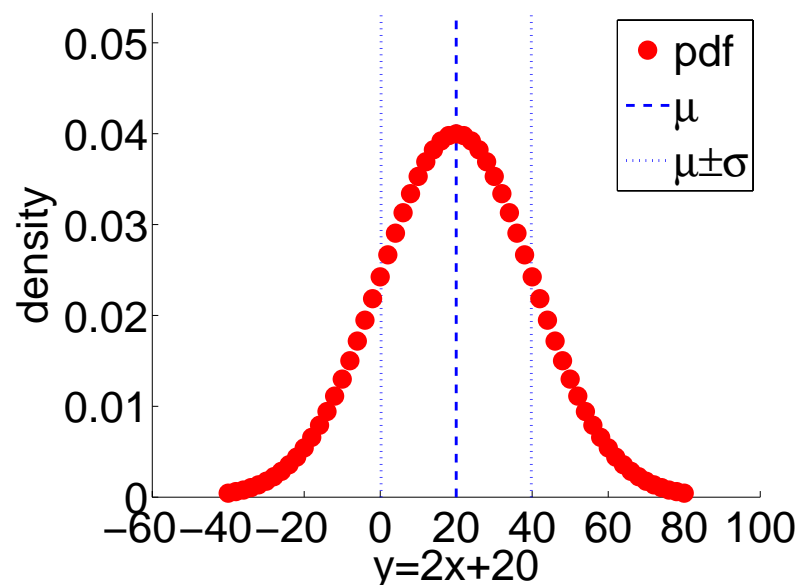
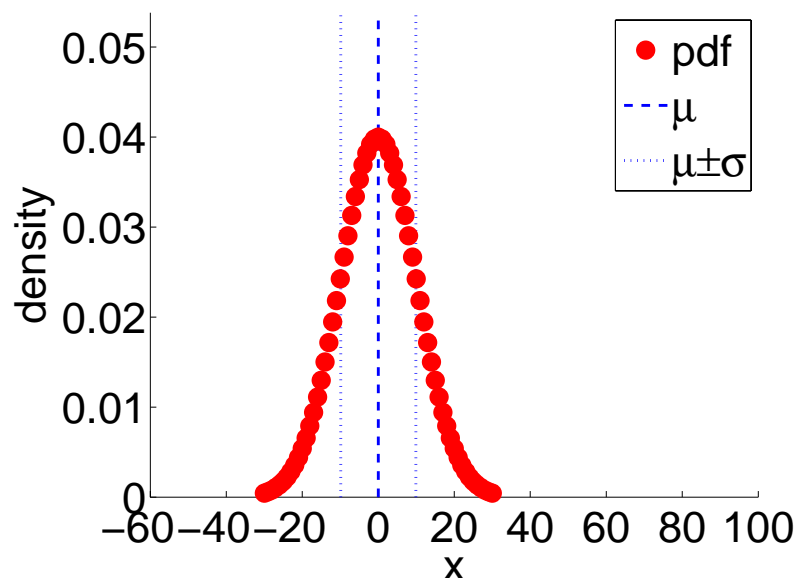
- **Variance** measures the square of the spread from the mean:

$$\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X) = E((X - \mu)^2)$$

- **Standard deviation** measures how wide the curve is:

$$\sigma = \text{SD}(X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$$

Variance — properties



- $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$ $\text{SD}(aX + b) = |a| \text{SD}(X)$
- Adding b shifts the curve without changing the width, so b disappears on the right side of the variance formula.
- Multiplying by a dilates the width a factor of a , so variance goes up a factor a^2 .
- For $Y = aX + b$, we have $\sigma_Y = |a| \sigma_X$ and $\mu_Y = a \mu_X + b$.
- **Example:** Convert measurements in $^\circ\text{C}$ to $^\circ\text{F}$:
 $F = (9/5)C + 32$ $\mu_F = (9/5)\mu_C + 32$ $\sigma_F = (9/5)\sigma_C$

Variance — properties

Useful alternative formula for variance

$$\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - \mu^2 = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X) &= E((X - \mu)^2) = E(X^2 - 2\mu X + \mu^2) \\ &= E(X^2) - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2 \\ &= E(X^2) - 2\mu \cdot \mu + \mu^2 = E(X^2) - \mu^2 \quad \square\end{aligned}$$

Proof of $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$.

$$\begin{aligned}E((aX + b)^2) &= E(a^2X^2 + 2abX + b^2) = a^2E(X^2) + 2abE(X) + b^2 \\ (E(aX + b))^2 &= (aE(X) + b)^2 = a^2(E(X))^2 + 2abE(X) + b^2 \\ \text{Var}(aX + b) &= \text{difference} = a^2 \left(E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 \right) \\ &= a^2 \text{Var}(X) \quad \square\end{aligned}$$

Variance of a sum — dependent variables

- We will show that if X, Y are independent, then

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$$

Example (Dependent)

First consider this dependent example:

Let X be any non-constant random variable and $Y = -X$.

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(0) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) &= \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(-X) \\ &= \text{Var}(X) + (-1)^2 \text{Var}(X) = 2 \text{Var}(X)\end{aligned}$$

but usually $\text{Var}(X) \neq 0$ (the only exception would be if X is a constant).

Variance of a sum — independent variables

Theorem

If X, Y are independent, then $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} E((X + Y)^2) &= E(X^2 + 2XY + Y^2) = E(X^2) + 2E(XY) + E(Y^2) \\ (E(X + Y))^2 &= (E(X) + E(Y))^2 = (E(X))^2 + 2E(X)E(Y) + (E(Y))^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X + Y) &= E((X + Y)^2) - (E(X + Y))^2 \\ &= (E(X^2) - (E(X))^2) \\ &\quad + 2(E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)) \\ &\quad + (E(Y^2) - (E(Y))^2) \\ &= \text{Var}(X) + 2(E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)) + \text{Var}(Y) \end{aligned}$$

If X, Y are independent, $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$, so the middle term is 0. \square

Generalization

If X, Y, Z, \dots are pairwise independent:

$$\text{Var}(X + Y + Z + \dots) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + \text{Var}(Z) + \dots$$

$$\text{Var}(aX + bY + cZ + \dots) = a^2 \text{Var}(X) + b^2 \text{Var}(Y) + c^2 \text{Var}(Z) + \dots$$

Variance of a sum — dependent variables

Covariance

- For dependent variables, the cross-terms remain:

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + 2(E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)) + \text{Var}(Y)$$

- Define $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$. Then

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

Two formulas for covariance:

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)) &= E(XY) - \mu_X E(Y) - E(X)\mu_Y + \mu_X \mu_Y \\ &= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) - E(X)E(Y) + E(X)E(Y) \\ &= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) \end{aligned}$$

Covariance properties

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X) &= E((X - \mu_X)^2) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 \\ \text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)\end{aligned}$$

Additional properties

- $\text{Cov}(X, X) = \text{Var}(X)$
- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$
- If X, Y are independent then $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$.
Beware, this is not reversible: $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ could be 0 for dependent variables.
- $\text{Cov}(aX + b, cY + d) = ac \text{Cov}(X, Y)$ (a, b, c, d are constants)
- $\text{Cov}(X + Z, Y) = \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(Z, Y)$ and
 $\text{Cov}(X, Y + Z) = \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(X, Z)$
- $\text{Var}(X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n) = \text{Var}(X_1) + \cdots + \text{Var}(X_n) + 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$

Mean and variance of the Binomial Distribution

- A **Bernoulli trial** is a single coin flip,

$$P(\text{heads}) = p, \quad P(\text{tails}) = 1 - p = q.$$

- Do n coin flips (n Bernoulli trials). Set

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if flip } i \text{ is heads;} \\ 0 & \text{if flip } i \text{ is tails.} \end{cases}$$

- The total number of heads in all flips is $X = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$.
- Flips *HTTHT*: $X = 1 + 0 + 0 + 1 + 0 = 2$.
- X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and have the same pdfs, so they are **i.i.d. (independent identically distributed) random variables**.

- $$E(X_1) = 0(1-p) + 1p = p$$
$$E(X_1^2) = 0^2(1-p) + 1^2p = p$$
$$\text{Var}(X_1) = E(X_1^2) - (E(X_1))^2 = p - p^2 = p(1-p)$$
- $E(X_i) = p$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) = p(1-p)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$ because they are identically distributed.

Mean and variance of the Binomial Distribution

- The total number of heads in all flips is $X = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$.
- $E(X_i) = p$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) = p(1 - p)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Mean:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_X = E(X) &= E(X_1 + \cdots + X_n) \\ &= E(X_1) + \cdots + E(X_n) \\ &= p + \cdots + p = np \quad \text{identically distributed}\end{aligned}$$

Variance:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_X^2 = \text{Var}(X) &= \text{Var}(X_1 + \cdots + X_n) \\ &= \text{Var}(X_1) + \cdots + \text{Var}(X_n) \quad \text{by independence} \\ &= p(1 - p) + \cdots + p(1 - p) \quad \text{identically distributed} \\ &= np(1 - p) = npq\end{aligned}$$

Standard deviation:

$$\sigma_X = \sqrt{np(1 - p)} = \sqrt{npq}$$

Mean and variance of the Binomial Distribution

- For the binomial distribution,

Mean: $\mu = np$

Variance:

$$\sigma^2 = np(1 - p)$$

Standard deviation:

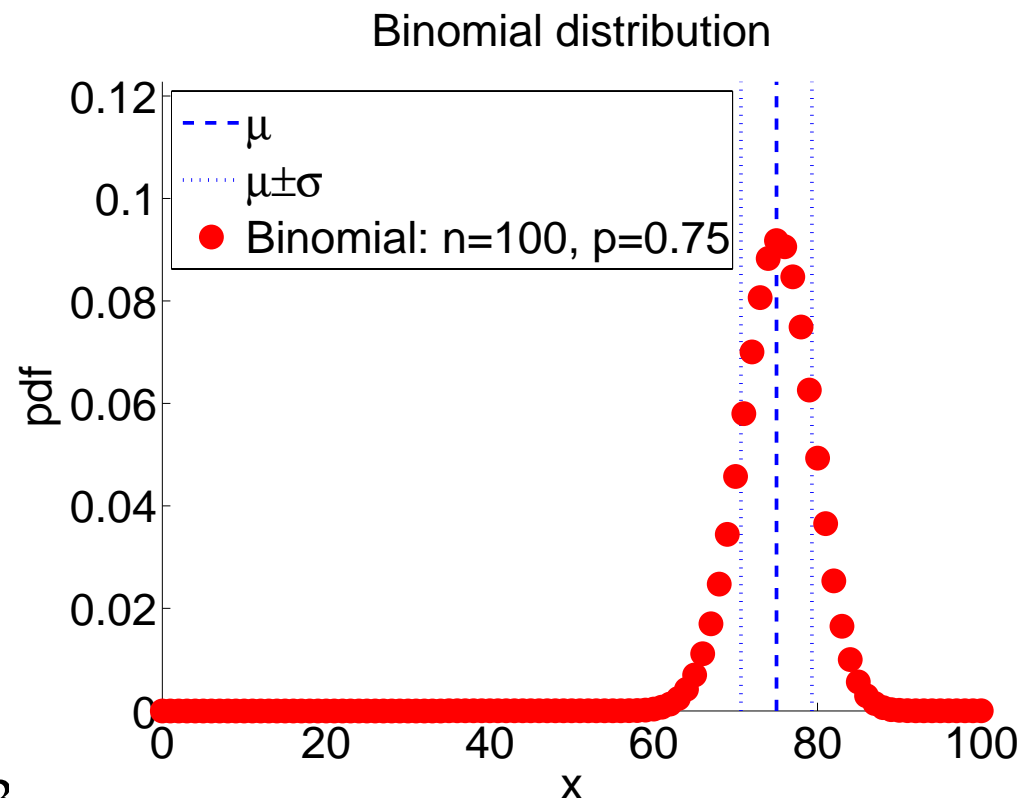
$$\sigma = \sqrt{np(1 - p)}$$

- At $n = 100$ and $p = 3/4$:

$$\mu = 100(3/4) = 75$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{100(3/4)(1/4)} \approx 4.33$$

- Approximately 68% of the probability is for X between $\mu \pm \sigma$.
Approximately 95% of the probability is for X between $\mu \pm 2\sigma$.
More on that later when we do the normal distribution.



Geometric Distribution

- Consider a biased coin with probability p of heads.
- Flip it repeatedly (potentially ∞ times).
- Let X be the number of flips until the first head.
- **Example:** $TTTHTTHHT$ has $X = 4$.
- The pdf is

$$p_X(k) = \begin{cases} (1-p)^{k-1}p & \text{for } k = 1, 2, 3, \dots; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- **Mean:** $\mu = \frac{1}{p}$ **Variance:** $\sigma^2 = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$ **Std dev:** $\sigma = \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p}$

Negative Binomial Distribution

- Consider a biased coin with probability p of heads.
- Flip it repeatedly (potentially ∞ times).
- Let X be the number of flips until the r th head ($r = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ is a fixed parameter).
- For $r = 3$, $TTTHTHHTTH$ has $X = 7$.
- $X = k$ when
 - **first $k - 1$ flips:** $r - 1$ heads and $k - r$ tails in any order;
 - **k th flip:** heads

so the pdf is

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

provided $k = r, r + 1, r + 2, \dots$;

$$p_X(k) = 0 \text{ otherwise.}$$

Negative Binomial Distribution – mean and variance

- Consider the sequence of flips $T T T H T H H T T H$.

- Break it up at each heads:

$$\underbrace{T T T H}_{X_1=4} / \underbrace{T H}_{X_2=2} / \underbrace{H}_{X_3=1} / \underbrace{T T H}_{X_4=3}$$

- X_1 is the number of flips until the first heads;
 X_2 is the number of additional flips until the 2nd heads;
 X_3 is the number of additional flips until the 3rd heads; ...
- The X_i 's are i.i.d. geometric random variables with parameter p ,
and $X = X_1 + \dots + X_r$.

- **Mean:** $E(X) = E(X_1) + \dots + E(X_r) = \frac{1}{p} + \dots + \frac{1}{p} = \frac{r}{p}$

Variance: $\sigma^2 = \frac{1-p}{p^2} + \dots + \frac{1-p}{p^2} = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}$

Standard deviation: $\sigma = \frac{\sqrt{r(1-p)}}{p}$

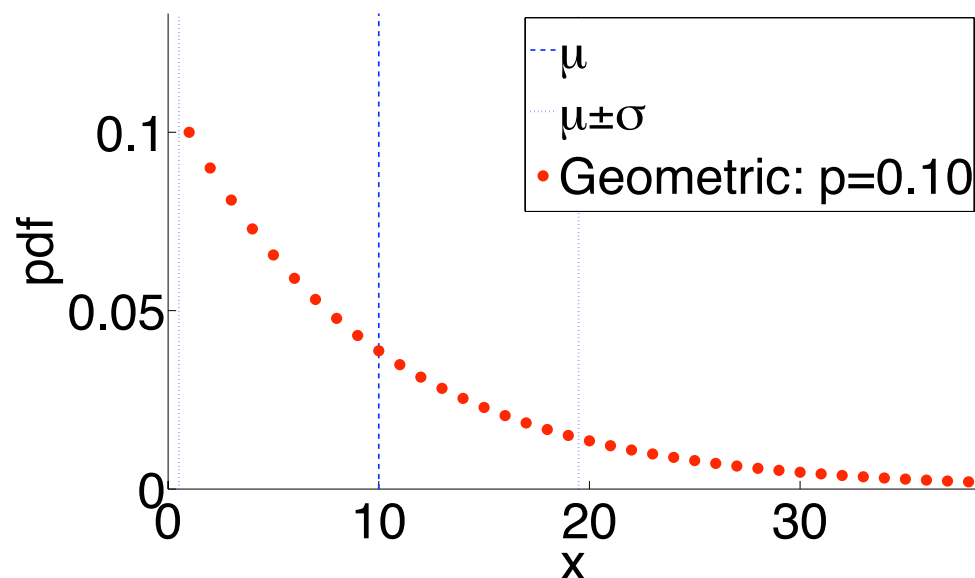
Geometric Distribution – example

- About 10% of the population is left-handed.
- Look at the handedness of babies in birth order in a hospital.
- **Number of births until first left-handed baby:**

Geometric distribution with $p = .1$:

$$p_X(x) = .9^{x-1} \cdot .1 \quad \text{for } x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Geometric distribution



- **Mean:** $\frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{.1} = 10$.

Standard deviation: $\sigma = \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p} = \frac{\sqrt{.9}}{.1} \approx 9.487$, which is HUGE!

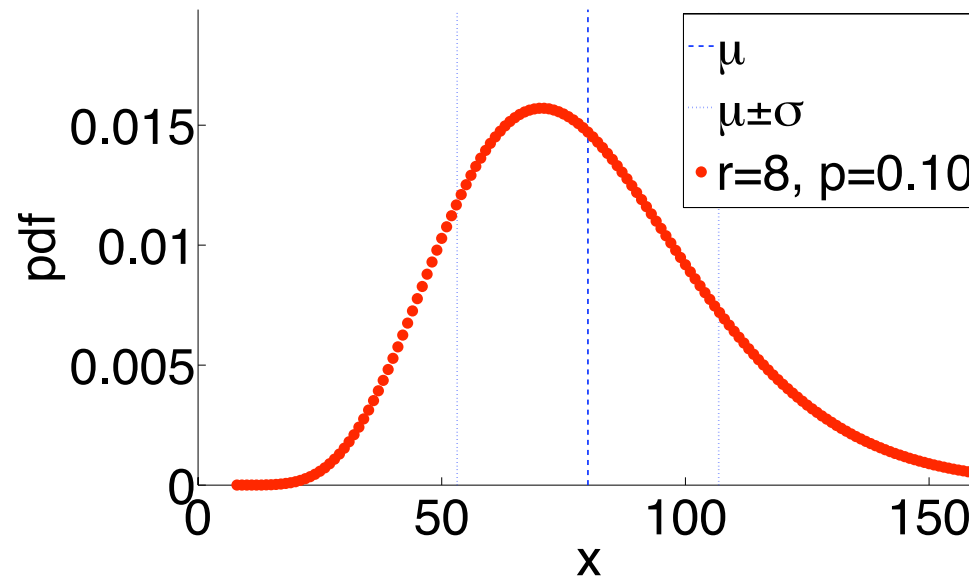
Negative Binomial Distribution – example

- **Number of births until 8th left-handed baby:**

Negative binomial, $r = 8$, $p = .1$.

$$p_X(x) = \binom{x-1}{8-1} (.1)^8 (.9)^{x-8} \quad \text{for } x = 8, 9, 10, \dots$$

Neg. binom. distribution



- **Mean:** $r/p = 8/.1 = 80$.

Standard deviation: $\frac{\sqrt{r(1-p)}}{p} = \frac{\sqrt{8(.9)}}{.1} \approx 26.833$.

- **Probability the 50th baby is the 8th left-handed one:**

$$p_X(50) = \binom{50-1}{8-1} (.1)^8 (.9)^{50-8} = \binom{49}{7} (.1)^8 (.9)^{42} \approx 0.0103$$

Where do the distribution names come from?

The PDFs correspond to the terms in certain Taylor series

Geometric series

- For real a, x with $|x| < 1$,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{a}{1-x} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a x^i \\ &= a + ax + ax^2 + \dots\end{aligned}$$

- Total probability for the geometric distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (1-p)^{k-1} p \\ &= \frac{p}{1-(1-p)} \\ &= \frac{p}{p} = 1\end{aligned}$$

Negative binomial series

- For integer $r > 0$ and real x with $|x| < 1$,

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^r} = \sum_{k=r}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{r-1} x^{k-r}$$

- Total probability for the negative binomial distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=r}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r} \\ &= p^r \sum_{k=r}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{r-1} (1-p)^{k-r} \\ &= p^r \cdot \frac{1}{(1-(1-p))^r} = 1\end{aligned}$$

Geometric and Negative Binomial – versions

Unfortunately, there are 4 versions of the definitions of these distributions. Our book uses versions 1 and 2 below, and you may see the others elsewhere. Authors should be careful to state which definition they're using.

- Version 1: the definitions we already did (call the variable X).
- Version 2 (geometric): Let Y be the number of tails before the first heads, so $TTHTTHHT$ has $Y = 3$.

$$\text{pdf: } p_Y(k) = \begin{cases} (1-p)^k p & \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since $Y = X - 1$, we have $E(Y) = \frac{1}{p} - 1$, $\text{Var}(Y) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$.

- Version 2 (negative binomial): Let Y be the number of tails before the r th heads, so $Y = X - r$.

$$p_Y(k) = \begin{cases} \binom{k+r-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^k & \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Versions 3 and 4: switch the roles of heads and tails in the first two versions (so p and $1-p$ are switched).