

## Revision: Discrete Random Variables

In L8 we met discrete random variables and their distributions. We begin with a brisk recap; the definitions here should feel familiar.

**Definition.** A **discrete random variable**  $X$  is a quantity whose value depends on chance, taking values in some finite or countable set. Its **probability mass function** (pmf) is the function

$$x \mapsto \mathbb{P}(X = x),$$

and since  $X$  must take some value,

$$\sum_x \mathbb{P}(X = x) = 1$$

where the sum is over all possible values of  $X$ .

**Definition.** The **expectation** and **variance** of  $X$  are

$$\mu = \mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_x x \mathbb{P}(X = x), \quad \sigma^2 = \text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2].$$

**Fact** (Expectation of a function of  $X$ ) — For a function  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_x g(x) \mathbb{P}(X = x).$$

In particular  $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \sum_x x^2 \mathbb{P}(X = x)$  — note this is *not* the same as  $(\mathbb{E}[X])^2$  in general.

**Theorem** (Computational form of the variance)

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2.$$

**Theorem (Linear coding)**

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  are constants,

$$\mathbb{E}[aX + b] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b, \quad \text{Var}[aX + b] = a^2 \text{Var}[X].$$

Adding a constant shifts the distribution without changing its spread; scaling by  $a$  scales the standard deviation by  $|a|$  and hence the variance by  $a^2$ .

**Example**

The discrete random variable  $X$  has probability distribution

$x$	1	2	3	4
$\mathbb{P}(X = x)$	0.1	$k$	0.3	$2k$

- (a) Find  $k$ .
- (b) Find  $\mathbb{E}[X]$  and  $\text{Var}[X]$ .
- (c) Find  $\mathbb{E}[5X - 2]$  and  $\text{Var}[5X - 2]$ .

### Standard distributions as models

Four families of discrete distributions appear so often that they have their own names; you must know when each applies and the formulae for the mean and variance. We prove the results we can reach directly; the remaining proofs become one-liners once we have probability generating functions.

**Fact (Discrete uniform distribution)** —  $X \sim U(n)$  takes each value in  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  with equal probability:

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \frac{1}{n}, \quad x \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \quad \mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{n+1}{2}, \quad \text{Var}[X] = \frac{n^2-1}{12}.$$

**Fact (Bernoulli distribution)** —  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  records a *single* trial:  $X = 1$  (success) with probability  $p$  and  $X = 0$  (failure) with probability  $q = 1 - p$ .

$$\mathbb{P}(X = 1) = p, \quad \mathbb{P}(X = 0) = q, \quad \mathbb{E}[X] = p, \quad \text{Var}[X] = pq.$$

**Fact (Binomial distribution)** —  $X \sim B(n, p)$  counts the number of successes in a *fixed* number  $n$  of independent trials, each a success with the same probability  $p$ . With  $q = 1 - p$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}, \quad x \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}, \quad \mathbb{E}[X] = np, \quad \text{Var}[X] = npq.$$

Equivalently:  $X$  is the sum of  $n$  independent Bernoulli( $p$ ) variables — one per trial. The formulae for the mean and variance are then  $n$  copies of the Bernoulli ones; expectation algebra (later in this chapter) explains why this addition is legitimate.

**Fact (Geometric distribution)** —  $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$  counts the number of trials up to *and including* the first success, in repeated independent trials with constant success probability  $p$ . With  $q = 1 - p$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = q^{x-1} p, \quad x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}, \quad \mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{p}, \quad \text{Var}[X] = \frac{q}{p^2}.$$

The useful tail formula  $\mathbb{P}(X > x) = q^x$  (“the first  $x$  trials all fail”) is quotable. The mean and variance we will prove with probability generating functions.

### Example

A fair twelve-sided die is rolled repeatedly.

- Find the mean and variance of the score on a single roll.
- Find the probability that the first score of 12 occurs on the fifth roll.
- In 36 rolls, find the mean and variance of the number of scores of 12.

### Tip

In modelling questions, always *define* your random variable (“let  $X$  be the number of ...”), *name* the distribution with its parameters, and check the modelling conditions: fixed  $n$ , independence, constant  $p$  for binomial; independent trials with constant  $p$  for geometric.

**Example (OCR Further Stats, June 2024)**

A discrete random variable  $X$  has the following distribution, where  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are constants.

$x$	0	1	2	3
$\mathbb{P}(X = x)$	$a$	$b$	$c$	0.1

It is given that  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 1.25$  and  $\text{Var}[X] = 0.8875$ .

- Determine the values of  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ .
- The random variable  $Y$  is defined by  $Y = 7 - 2X$ . Write down the value of  $\text{Var}[Y]$ .
- Twenty independent observations of  $X$  are obtained. The number of those observations for which  $X = 3$  is denoted by  $T$ . Find the value of  $\text{Var}[T]$ .

**Textbook Exercises:** [CUPS] Ch 1 and Ch 2 (revision of discrete random variables and the standard distributions)

## Joint Random Variables

So far each random variable has lived alone. Frequently we observe *two* quantities at once — a height and a weight, two dice, the scores of two players — and we care about how they vary together. This bivariate point of view underpins expectation algebra now, and correlation, regression and contingency tables later.

**Definition.** For discrete random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  defined on the same sample space, the **joint probability distribution** is the function

$$(x, y) \mapsto \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y),$$

usually displayed as a two-way table. As always, the probabilities over all cells sum to 1.

**Definition.** The **marginal distribution** of  $X$  is recovered by summing across the values of  $Y$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \sum_y \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y),$$

and similarly for  $Y$ . (The name comes from writing these row and column totals in the *margins* of the table.)

**Definition.**  $X$  and  $Y$  are **independent** iff

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)\mathbb{P}(Y = y) \quad \text{for all } x, y.$$

Equivalently: every cell of the joint table is the product of its row and column totals.

### Example

The joint distribution of  $X$  and  $Y$  is given by

	$Y = 0$	$Y = 1$	$Y = 2$
$X = 1$	0.10	0.20	0.10
$X = 2$	0.20	0.10	0.30

- Write down the marginal distributions of  $X$  and of  $Y$ .
- Find  $\mathbb{P}(X + Y = 2)$ .
- Determine whether  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

## Expectation Algebra

### Theorem (Linearity of expectation)

For any random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  and constants  $a, b, c$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[aX + bY + c] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b\mathbb{E}[Y] + c.$$

This holds with *no assumption of independence whatsoever*.

The key new ingredient is  $\mathbb{E}[X + Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$ , which we proved in L8 by summing over the joint distribution; combining it with the coding result  $\mathbb{E}[aX + b] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b$  gives the theorem. The sketch is worth seeing once:

## Variance of Linear Combinations

Variance is not linear — but for *independent* variables something almost as good holds.

### Theorem

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, then for constants  $a, b, c$ :

$$\text{Var}[aX + bY + c] = a^2 \text{Var}[X] + b^2 \text{Var}[Y].$$

In particular, taking  $a = 1, b = -1$ :

$$\text{Var}[X - Y] = \text{Var}[X] + \text{Var}[Y].$$

**Tip**

The variances always **add**, even when the variables are subtracted:  $(-1)^2 = 1$ . Subtracting an independent source of randomness makes the result *more* spread out, not less. Writing  $\text{Var}[X - Y] = \text{Var}[X] - \text{Var}[Y]$  is one of the most heavily penalised errors on this paper (it can even give a negative variance!).

**Example**

$X$  and  $Y$  are independent with  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 5$ ,  $\text{Var}[X] = 4$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[Y] = 2$ ,  $\text{Var}[Y] = 3$ . Find the mean and variance of:

- (a)  $X + Y$
- (b)  $3X - 2Y + 1$
- (c)  $\frac{X + Y}{2}$

**$2X$  is not  $X_1 + X_2$**

The following distinction catches out many candidates every year.

**Fact** — Let  $X_1, X_2$  be *independent* random variables each with the same distribution as  $X$ . Then

$$\text{Var}[X_1 + X_2] = 2 \text{Var}[X], \quad \text{but} \quad \text{Var}[2X] = \text{Var}[X + X] = 4 \text{Var}[X].$$

Why the difference?  $X_1 + X_2$  is the sum of two *separate* observations: sometimes one is large while the other is small, and the fluctuations partially cancel. But  $2X$  is a *single* observation doubled — there is no cancellation, every fluctuation is amplified by the factor 2, so the variance picks up the factor  $2^2$ . Note  $X + X$  means  $2X$ : it is the same  $X$  both times, and  $X$  is certainly not independent of itself. The means, of course, agree:  $\mathbb{E}[X_1 + X_2] = \mathbb{E}[2X] = 2\mathbb{E}[X]$ .

**Example**

A machine fills bags of flour; the mass of flour in a bag has mean 1000 g and standard deviation 5 g, independently for different bags.

- Find the mean and variance of the total mass of flour in two randomly chosen bags.
- A shopkeeper instead estimates the mass of flour bought by a customer with two bags as “twice the mass of the first bag”. Find the mean and variance of this estimate, and comment.

**Example (OCR Further Stats, June 2023 (part))**

The discrete random variable  $W$  has the distribution  $U(11)$ . The independent discrete random variable  $V$  has the distribution  $U(5)$ . It is given that, for constants  $m$  and  $n$ , with  $m > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[mW + nV] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Var}[mW + nV] = 1.$$

Determine the exact values of  $m$  and  $n$ .

**Example** (OCR S4, June 2012)

The random variables  $S$  and  $T$  are *independent* and have joint probability distribution given in the table.

	$S = 0$	$S = 1$	$S = 2$
$T = 1$	$a$	0.18	$b$
$T = 2$	0.08	0.12	0.20

- (i) Show that  $a = 0.12$  and find the value of  $b$ .
- (ii) Find  $\mathbb{P}(T - S = 1)$ .
- (iii) Find  $\text{Var}[T - S]$ .

Textbook Exercises: [CUPS] Ch 8 §1; [S3/4] S3 Ch 2, S4 Ch 6

## Covariance

When  $X$  and  $Y$  are *not* independent, how wrong is the formula  $\text{Var}[X + Y] = \text{Var}[X] + \text{Var}[Y]$ ? Exactly by a term measuring how the two variables move together.

**Definition.** The **covariance** of  $X$  and  $Y$  is

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

If large  $X$  tends to come with large  $Y$ , the product  $(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)$  is usually positive and the covariance is positive; if large  $X$  comes with small  $Y$  it is negative. Note  $\text{Cov}[X, X] = \text{Var}[X]$ : covariance generalises variance.

### Theorem

For any random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  (independent or not),

$$\text{Var}[X + Y] = \text{Var}[X] + \text{Var}[Y] + 2\text{Cov}[X, Y].$$

**Fact** — If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent then  $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$ , so  $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = 0$  — which recovers our addition rule for variances. **The converse is false:** zero covariance does *not* imply independence.

### Example (Uncorrelated but dependent)

Let  $X$  take the values  $-1, 0, 1$  each with probability  $\frac{1}{3}$ , and let  $Y = X^2$ . Show that  $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = 0$ , but that  $X$  and  $Y$  are not independent.

Textbook Exercises: [S3/4] S4 Ch 6