## Lecture 4: Expectation

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### Outline

- Expectation & Variance
- 2 Geometric and Negative Binomial
- Indicator R.V.s and The Fundamental Bridge
- Moments and Indicators
- Poisson
- 6 Distance between Two Probability Distributions
- Probability Generating Functions
- Reading for Fun

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- 3 Indicator R.V.s and The Fundamental Bridge
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## Expectation of A Discrete R.V.

#### **Definition**

The expected value (also called the expectation or mean) of a discrete r.v. X whose distinct possible values are  $x_1, x_2, \cdots$  is defined by

$$E(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j P(X = x_j)$$

If the support is finite, then this is replaced by a finite sum. We can also write

$$E(X) = \sum_{x} \underbrace{x}_{\text{value}} \underbrace{P(X = x)}_{\text{PMF at } x}$$

where the sum is over the support of X.

### Distribution

#### **Theorem**

If X and Y are discrete r.v.s with the same distribution, then E(X) = E(Y) (if either side exists).

### Linearity

The expected value of a sum of r.v.s is the sum of the individual expected values.

#### **Theorem**

For any r.v.s X, Y and any constant c,

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

$$E(cX) = cE(X)$$

### Monotonicity of Expectation

#### **Theorem**

Let X and Y be r.v.s such that  $X \ge Y$  with probability 1. Then  $E(X) \ge E(Y)$ , with equality holding if and only if X = Y with probability 1.

## **Expectation via Survival Function**

#### **Theorem**

Let X be a nonnegative integer-valued r.v. Let F be the CDF of X, and G(x) = 1 - F(x) = P(X > x). The function G is called the survival function of X. Then

$$E(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} G(n)$$

That is, we can obtain the expectation of X by summing up the survival function (or, stated otherwise, summing up tail probabilities of the distribution).

### **Proof**

# Law Of The Unconscious Statistician (LOTUS)

#### **Theorem**

If X is a discrete r.v. and g is a function from  $\mathbb R$  to  $\mathbb R$ , then

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_{x} g(x) P(X = x)$$

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

### Variance and Standard Deviation

#### **Definition**

The variance of an r.v. X is

$$Var(X) = E(X - EX)^{2}.$$

The square root of the variance is called the *standard deviation (SD)*:

$$SD(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)}.$$

## Properties of Variance

- For any r.v. X,  $Var(X) = E(X^2) (EX)^2$ .
- Var(X + c) = Var(X) for any constant c.
- $Var(cX) = c^2 Var(X)$  for any constant c.
- If X and Y are independent, then Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y).
- $Var(X) \ge 0$  with equality if and only if P(X = a) = 1 for some constant a.

# Properties of Variance

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## Story: Geometric Distribution

Consider a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials, each with the same success probability  $p \in (0,1)$ , with trials performed until a success occurs. Let X be the number of **failures** before the first successful trial. Then X has the Geometric distribution with parameter p; we denote this by  $X \sim Geom(p)$ .

### Geometric PMF

#### **Theorem**

If  $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$ , then the PMF of X is

$$P(X=k)=q^kp$$

for k = 0, 1, 2, ..., where q = 1 - p.

## Memoryless Property

#### **Theorem**

If  $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$ , then for any positive integer n,

$$P(X \ge n + k | X \ge k) = P(X \ge n)$$

for k = 0, 1, 2, ...

## Memoryless Property

#### **Theorem**

Suppose for any positive integer n, discrete random variable X satisfies

$$P(X \ge n + k | X \ge k) = P(X \ge n)$$

for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ..., then X \sim Geom(p)$ .

### Memoryless Property

#### **Theorem**

Geometric distribution is the one and the only one discrete distribution that is memoryless.

### First Success Distribution

#### **Definition**

In a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p, let Y be the number of trials until the first successful trial, including the success. Then Y has the First Success distribution with parameter p; we denote this by  $Y \sim FS(p)$ .

## Example: Geometric & First Success Expectation

Let  $X \sim Geom(p)$  and  $Y \sim FS(p)$ , find E(X) and E(Y).

## Story: Negative Binomial Distribution

In a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p, if X is the number of failures before the  $r^{th}$  success, then X is said to have the Negative Binomial distribution with parameters r and p, denoted  $X \sim NBin(r, p)$ .

## Negative Binomial PMF

#### **Theorem**

If  $X \sim NBin(r, p)$ , then the PMF of X is

$$P(X = n) = \binom{n+r-1}{r-1} p^r q^n$$

for  $n = 0, 1, 2 \cdots$ , where q = 1 - p.

# Geometric & Negative Binomial

#### **Theorem**

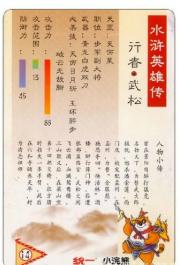
Let  $X \sim \mathrm{NBin}(r, p)$ , viewed as the number of failures before the rth success in a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p. Then we can write  $X = X_1 + \cdots + X_r$  where the  $X_i$  are i.i.d.  $\mathrm{Geom}(p)$ .

## Example: Expectation

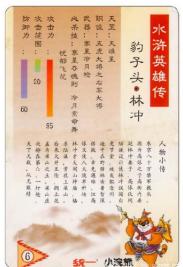
Let  $X \sim NBin(r, p)$ , find E(X).











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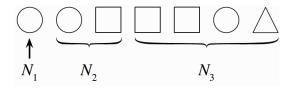




### Model: Coupon Collector

Suppose there are n types of toys, which you are collecting one by one, with the goal of getting a complete set. When collecting toys, the toy types are random (as is sometimes the case, for example, with toys included in cereal boxes or included with kids' meals from a fast food restaurant). Assume that each time you collect a toy, it is equally likely to be any of the n types. Let N denote the number of toys needed until you have a complete set. Find E(N) and Var(N).

### Solution: Coupon Collector



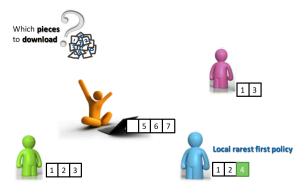
# Solution: Coupon Collector

## Application: Peer-to-Peer System

- Target file is decomposed into *n* pieces.
- Each peer randomly downloads pieces and uploads pieces from its neighbors.
- $\Theta(n \ln n)$  downloads to complete the downloading file.
- The last block problem: missing the last piece (stop at 99% downloading progress)

## Application: Peer-to-Peer System

- Solution adopted by BitTorrent:
  - tries to download a block that is least replicated among its neighbors
  - maximize the diversity of content in the system, i.e., make the number of replicas of each block as equal as possible.



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# Properties of Indicator R.V.

Let A and B be events. Then the following properties hold.

- $(I_A)^k = I_A$  for any positive integer k.
- $I_{A^c} = 1 I_A$ .

# Fundamental Bridge Between Probability and Expectation

#### **Theorem**

There is a one-to-one correspondence between events and indicator r.v.s., and the probability of an event A is the expected value of its indicator r.v.  $I_A$ :

$$P(A) = E(I_A).$$

# Example: Booler's Inequality

For any n events  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ ,

$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

# Solution: Booler's Inequality

# **Example: Inclusion-Exclusion Formula**

For any events  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ :

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\right) = \sum_{i} P(A_{i}) - \sum_{i < j} P(A_{i} \cap A_{j}) + \sum_{i < j < k} P(A_{i} \cap A_{j} \cap A_{k})$$
$$- \cdots + (-1)^{n+1} P(A_{1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{n}).$$

## Solution: Inclusion-Exclusion Formula

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#### Moments of Indicator Methods

- Given *n* events  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$  and indicators  $I_j, j = 1, \ldots, n$ .
- $X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{j}$ : the number of events that occur
- $\binom{X}{2} = \sum_{i < j} I_i I_j$ : the number of pairs of distinct events that occur
- $E(\binom{X}{2}) = \sum_{i < j} P(A_i \cap A_j)$ 
  - $\blacktriangleright E(X^2) = 2\sum_{i < j} P(A_i \cap A_j) + E(X).$
  - ►  $Var(X) = 2 \sum_{i < j} P(A_i \cap A_j) + E(X) (E(X))^2$ .

#### Moments of Binomial Random Variables

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#### Poisson Distribution

#### **Definition**

An r.v. X has the *Poisson distribution* with parameter  $\lambda$  if the PMF of X is

$$P(X = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{k}}{k!}, \ k = 0, 1, 2, \cdots$$

We write this as  $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda)$ .

## Example: Poisson Expectation & Variance

# Poisson Approximation

Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  be events with  $p_j = P(A_j)$ , where n is large, the  $p_j$  are small, and the  $A_j$  are independent or weakly dependent. Let

$$X = \sum_{j=1}^{n} I(A_j)$$

count how many of the  $A_j$  occur. Then X is approximately  $\operatorname{Pois}(\lambda)$ , with  $\lambda = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j$ .

# Example: Birthday Problem Revisited

#### Poisson & Binomial

- Poisson  $\implies$  Binomial : **conditioning**
- Binomial ⇒ Poisson: taking a limit

# Sum of Independent Poissons

#### **Theorem**

If  $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1)$ ,  $Y \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_2)$ , and X is independent of Y, then  $X + Y \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$ .

#### Poisson Given A Sum of Poissons

#### **Theorem**

If  $X \sim \operatorname{Pois}(\lambda_1)$ ,  $Y \sim \operatorname{Pois}(\lambda_2)$ , and X is independent of Y, then the conditional distribution of X given X + Y = n is  $\operatorname{Bin}(n, \lambda_1/(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2))$ .

# Poisson Approximation to Binomial

#### **Theorem**

If  $X \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n,p)$  and we let  $n \to \infty$  and  $p \to 0$  such that  $\lambda = np$  remains fixed, then the PMF of X converges to the  $\operatorname{Pois}(\lambda)$  PMF. More generally, the same conclusion holds if  $n \to \infty$  and  $p \to 0$  in such a way that np converges to a constant  $\lambda$ .

## **Proof**

#### Visitors to A Website

The owner of a certain website is studying the distribution of the number of visitors to the site. Every day, a million people independently decide whether to visit the site, with probability  $p=2\times 10^{-6}$  of visiting. Give a good approximation for the probability of getting at least three visitors on a particular day.

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# Typical Distance Measures

- Total Variation Distance
- Kullback–Leibler Divergence
- Jensen–Shannon Divergence
- Bhattacharyya Distance
- Wasserstein Distance (or called "Kantorovich–Rubinstein")

#### Total Variation Distance

- Distance measure between two probability distributions
- Apply such measure to characterize the accuracy of Poisson approximation

#### **Definition**

The **total variation distance** between two distributions  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  on a countable set  $\Omega$  is

$$d_{TV}(\mu, \nu) = \| \mu - \nu \|_{TV}$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in \Omega} |\mu(x) - \nu(x)|.$ 

# Example

Let  $\mu$  be the distribution with  $\mu(1) = p$  and  $\mu(0) = 1 - p$ . Let  $\nu$  be a Poisson distribution with mean p. Then we have  $d_{TV}(\mu, \nu) \leq p^2$ .

#### The Law of Small Numbers

#### Theorem

Given independent random variables  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  such that for any  $1 \le m \le n$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(Y_m = 1) = p_m$  and  $\mathbb{P}(Y_m = 0) = 1 - p_m$ . Let  $S_n = Y_1 + \dots + Y_n$ . Suppose

$$\sum_{m=1}^{n} p_m \to \lambda \in (0, \infty) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty,$$

and

$$\max_{1 \le m \le n} p_m \to 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty,$$

then

$$d_{TV}(S_n, Poi(\lambda)) \to 0$$
 as  $n \to \infty$ .

# Gap of Poisson Approximation

• A bound on the gap due to Hodges and Le Cam (1960):

$$d_{TV}(S_n, Poi(\lambda)) \leq \sum_{m=1}^n p_m^2,$$

 by Stein-Chen method (C.Stein 1987) we can have a tighter bound on the gap:

$$d_{TV}(S_n, Poi(\lambda)) \leq \min(1, \frac{1}{\lambda}) \sum_{m=1}^n p_m^2.$$

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# **Probability Generating Function**

#### **Definition**

The probability generating function (PGF) of a nonnegative integer-valued r.v. X with PMF  $p_k = P(X = k)$  is the generating function of the PMF. By LOTUS, this is

$$E(t^X) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k t^k.$$

The PGF converges to a value in [-1,1] for all t in [-1,1] since  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k = 1$  and  $\left| p_k t^k \right| \leq p_k$  for  $|t| \leq 1$ .

# Example: Generating Dice Probabilities

Let X be the total from rolling 6 fair dice, and let  $X_1, \ldots, X_6$  be the individual rolls. What is P(X = 18)?

## Solution

#### PGF and Moments

Let X be a nonnegative integer-valued r.v. with PMF  $p_k = P(X = k)$ , and the PGF of X is  $g(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k t^k$ , we have

- $E(X) = g'(t)|_{t=1}$
- $E(X(X-1)) = g''(t)|_{t=1}$

## PGF and Moments

## PGF and Moments

#### **Binomial PMF**

## **Binomial Moments**

Suppose a coin with probability p for heads is tossed repeatedly, and we obtain a sequence of H and T (H denotes Head and T denotes Tail). Let N denote the number of toss to observe the first occurrence of the pattern "HH". Find E(N) and Var(N).

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# Probability Method

- Paul Erdős initiated this method: Erdős Method
- Widely used in information theory & combinatorics & theoretical computer science
- Main idea: to prove the existence of a structure with certain properties using probability or expectation

## Principle I

- First we construct an appropriate probability space of structures.
- Then we show that a randomly chosen element in this space has the desired properties with positive probability

### Theorem (The Possibility Principle)

Let A be the event that a randomly chosen object in a collection has a certain property. If P(A) > 0, then there exists an object with such property.

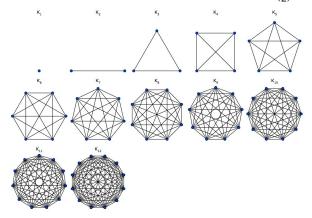
# Principle II

### Theorem (The Good Score Principle)

Let X be the score of a randomly chosen object. If  $E(X) \ge c$ , then there exists an object with a score of at least c.

# Example: Graph Coloring

- Complete graph (clique): a simple undirected graph in which every pair of distinct vertices is connected by a unique edge.
- Complete graph  $K_n$ : a graph with n nodes and  $\binom{n}{2}$  edges.



# Example: Graph Coloring

#### **Theorem**

Given a complete graph  $K_n$   $(n \ge 3)$ , if  $\binom{n}{m} 2^{-\binom{m}{2}+1} < 1$ , then it is possible to color the edges of  $K_n$  with two colors so that it has no monochromatic  $K_m$  subgraph (1 < m < n).

# Testing Polynomial Identities

- Randomized algorithms can be dramatically more efficient than their best known deterministic counterparts.
- Input two polynomials Q and R over n variables, with coefficients in some field, and decides whether  $Q \equiv R$ .
- Example:  $Q(x_1, x_2) = (1 + x_1)(1 + x_2)$ ,  $R(x_1, x_2) = 1 + x_1 + x_2 + x_1x_2$ .
- *n*-variable polynomial  $\prod_{i=1}^{n} (x_i + x_{i+1})$  expands into  $O(2^n)$  monomials.

# The Schwartz-Zippel Algorithm

- A Monte Carlo algorithm with a bounded probability of false positive and no false negative.
- Input polynomial  $M(x_1, ..., x_n)$  and test whether  $M \equiv 0$  (M = Q R).
- Assign values  $r_1, \ldots, r_n$  chosen independently and uniformly at random from a finite set S to  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ .
- Test if  $M(r_1, ..., r_n) = 0$ , outputting "Yes" if so and "No" otherwise.
- If "No", then  $M \not\equiv 0$ .
- If "Yes", it is possible that  $M \not\equiv 0$  but  $r_1, \ldots, r_n$  happens to be a zero of M.

# Schwartz-Zippel Lemma

#### Lemma

Let  $M \in F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$  be a non-zero polynomial of total degree  $d \ge 0$  over a field F. Let S be a finite subset of F and let  $r_1, r_2, ..., r_n$  be selected at random independently and uniformly from S. Then

$$P[M(r_1,r_2,\ldots,r_n)=0]\leq \frac{d}{|S|}.$$

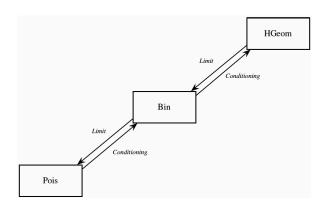
#### Remarks

- If we take the set S to have cardinality at least twice the degree of our polynomial  $(|S| \ge 2d)$ , we can bound the probability of error (false positive) by 1/2.
- This can be reduced to any desired small number by repeated trials.

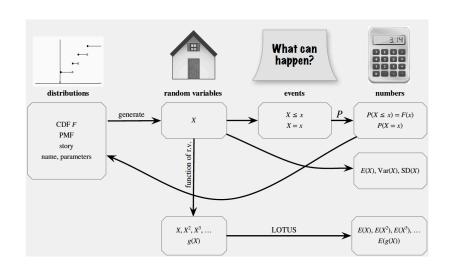
# Summary 1

	With replacement	Without replacement
Fixed number of trials	Binomial	Hypergeometric
Fixed number of successes	Negative Binomial	Negative Hypergeometric

# Summary 2



# Summary 3



#### References

- Chapters 4 & 6 of **BH**
- Chapter 2 of **BT**