Expected Value, Variance, Distributions

Hayk Aprikyan, Hayk Tarkhanyan

April 18, 2025



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Would you play this game?





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Would you play this game? What if instead of \$36, you won \$150 if it fell on 8?



Suppose you are playing roulette, with numbers 1 to 38 on it. You bet a number and spin it. Say you have picked the number 8 and bet \$1.

- If it falls on 8, you win \$36,
- Otherwise, you lose \$1.

Would you play this game? What if instead of \$36, you won \$150 if it fell on 8? How about \$37.01?

Since the chance of winning is only $\frac{1}{38}$, if you play it a couple of thousands times (say 38000), then you can expect to win about \sim 1000 times and lose \sim 37000 times. Your net revenue would then be:

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These examples motivate the notion of the **mean** or **expected value** of a random variable.

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$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{x_i} x_i \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x_i)$$

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In words, the expected value is the weighted average of all its possible values, each of the values being weighted by its probability.

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Theorem

If X is a continuous random variable, then for any continuous function g,

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot f_X(x) \, dx$$

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Properties

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$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If X and Y are independent random variables, then

$$\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X) \cdot \mathbb{E}(Y)$$

The converse is not necessarily true.

Now assume you are offered to play one of these two games:

- You toss a coin and win \$1 if it is Heads, otherwise you lose \$1,
- You toss a coin and win \$10000 if it is Heads, otherwise you lose \$10000.

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In both games, your overall winnings is on average \$0. However in the first game the amounts differ from \$0 by a small amount, while in the second game, they differ by such a large amount you might not take a risk of playing at all.

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In this case, we say that the winnings of the second game have a **higher** variance than those of the first one.

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The standard deviation shows how much, in average, do the values of the random variable deviate from their average $(\mathbb{E}(X))$.

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To calculate Var(X), we need $\mathbb{E}(X^2)$:

$$\mathbb{E}(X^2) = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 9 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 16 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 25 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 36 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{91}{6}$$

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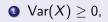
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$$Var(X) = \mathbb{E}(X^2) - (\mathbb{E}(X))^2 = \frac{91}{6} - (\frac{7}{2})^2 = \frac{91}{6} - \frac{49}{4} \approx 2.92$$

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- ② If X is constant, Var(X) = 0,

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

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- ② If X is constant, Var(X) = 0,
- $Var(X + Y) \neq Var(X) + Var(Y)$, instead:

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If X and Y are independent,

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Why do you think the 4th point makes sense?

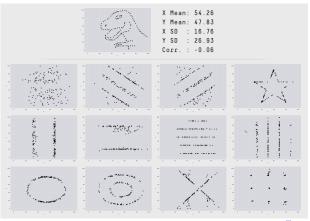


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Warning

Expected value and variance are very useful to describe random variables, **but they are not everything!** They do not replace CDF/PDF/PMF!

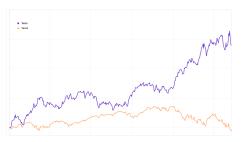


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Due to some reasons, the stock of Tesla starts to decrease. Naturally, you are interested in how could that affect your Yeraz stocks, i.e.

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How would a change of X affect Y?

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How would a change of X affect Y?

More specifically, if X goes up by 1 unit, how much would Y change?

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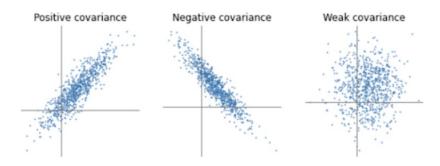
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Covariance shows how much the linear growth of one RV is related to the linear growth of the other RV. It is very similar to the concept of dot product of the two vectors.



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Cov(X, Y) can be any number (positive/negative, large/small, zero, etc). What if we want a normalized, universal method to measure the relatedness level of two random variables?

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Definition

For two non-constant $(Var(X), Var(Y) \neq 0)$ random variables X and Y, the **correlation** (or **Pearson correlation coefficient**) between them is defined as:

$$\rho(X,Y) = \operatorname{Corr}(X,Y) = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X) \cdot \operatorname{Var}(Y)}}$$

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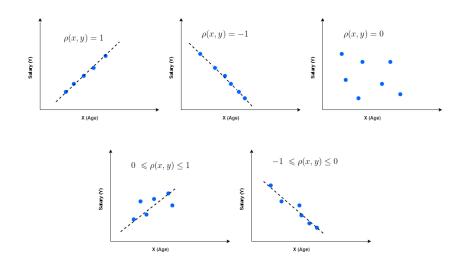
Properties

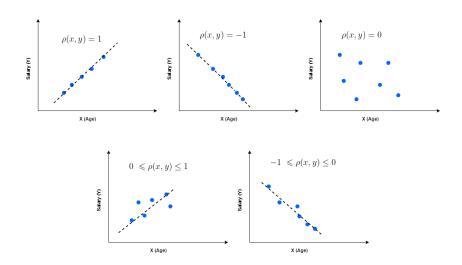
- **2** $-1 \le \rho(X, Y) \le 1$,
- **3** Y = aX + b for some constants a, b if and only if $\rho(X, Y) = \pm 1$.

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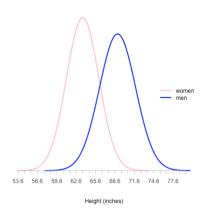




- Play with this correlation visualization!

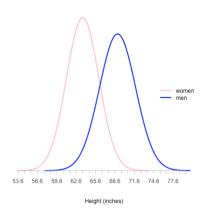
Distributions

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The way the values of an RV are distributed is called a distribution.

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A random variable X is said to be a **Bernoulli** random variable with parameter p, denoted by $X \sim Bernoulli(p)$, if it only takes two values and its PMF is given by:

$$\mathbb{P}(X=x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} p & \text{for } x=1 \\ 1-p & \text{for } x=0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

where 0 .

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Bernoulli Distribution

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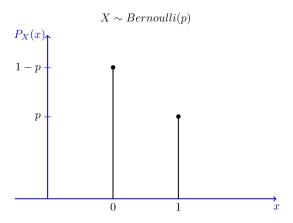
$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \begin{cases} p & \text{for } x = 1\\ 1 - p & \text{for } x = 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where 0 .

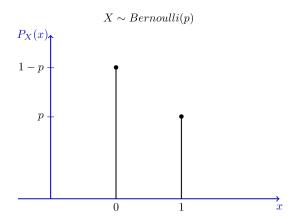
A series of n independent experiments all following Bernoulli distribution Bernoulli(p), is called **Bernoulli trials**.

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Bernoulli Distribution



Bernoulli Distribution



If $X \sim Bernoulli(p)$,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = p, \qquad \mathsf{Var}(X) = p(1-p)$$

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Suppose we have a coin with $\mathbb{P}(\text{Heads}) = p$ and we toss it until we observe the first Heads, after which we stop. We define X as the total number of coin tosses in this experiment. Then X is said to have *geometric distribution* with parameter p.

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For any natural number $k \geq 1$:

$$\mathbb{P}(X=k)=(1-p)^{k-1}p$$

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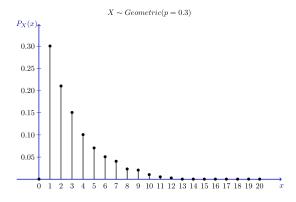
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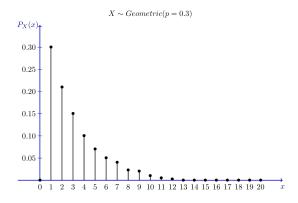
Definition

A random variable X is said to be a **geometric** random variable with parameter p, denoted by $X \sim Geo(p)$, if its PMF is given by:

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

where 0 .





If
$$X \sim Geo(p)$$
,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = rac{1}{
ho}, \qquad \mathsf{Var}(X) = rac{1-
ho}{
ho^2}$$



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Suppose we have a coin with $\mathbb{P}(\text{Heads}) = p$ and we toss it n times. We define X to be the total number of Heads observed. Then X is said to have *binomial distribution* with parameter n and p.

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Suppose we have a coin with $\mathbb{P}(\text{Heads}) = p$ and we toss it n times. We define X to be the total number of Heads observed. Then X is said to have binomial distribution with parameter n and p. For any whole number $k \geq 0$:

$$\mathbb{P}(X=k)=C_n^kp^k(1-p)^{n-k}$$

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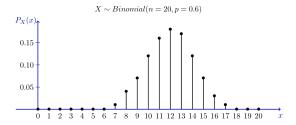
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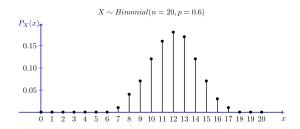
A random variable X is said to be a **binomial** random variable with parameters n and p, denoted by $X \sim B(n, p)$, if its PMF is given by:

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \begin{cases} C_n^k p^k (1-p)^{n-k} & \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where 0 .

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If
$$X \sim B(n, p)$$
,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = np, \qquad \mathsf{Var}(X) = np(1-p)$$

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The Poisson distribution is one of the most widely used probability distributions. It is usually used in scenarios where we are counting the occurrences of certain events in an interval of time or space. In practice, it is often an approximation of a real-life random variable.

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Suppose we are counting the number of customers who visit a certain store from 13:00 to 14:00. Based on data from previous days, we know that on average, $\lambda=15$ customers visit the store.

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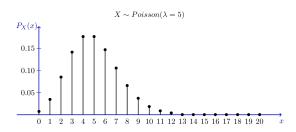
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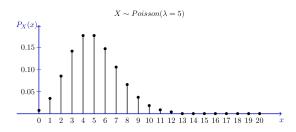
A random variable X is said to be a **Poisson** random variable with parameter λ , denoted by $X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$, if its PMF is given by:

$$\mathbb{P}(X=k) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} & \text{for } k=0,1,2,\dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

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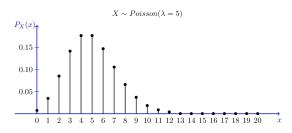
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If
$$X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$$
,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \lambda, \quad Var(X) = \lambda$$

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If
$$X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$$
,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \lambda, \quad Var(X) = \lambda$$

Remark

If $X \sim B(n, p)$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(X=k) pprox rac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}, \qquad ext{where } \lambda = np$$

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So far, we have considered only discrete RVs. Let's observe some common distributions for continuous RVs.

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If we pick a random number X from a given interval, without any number being "more probable" than another, then X is said to be uniformly distributed

So far, we have considered only discrete RVs. Let's observe some common distributions for continuous RVs.

If we pick a random number X from a given interval, without any number being "more probable" than another, then X is said to be *uniformly* distributed.

Definition

A random variable X is said to be a **uniform** random variable over the interval [a,b], denoted by $X \sim U(a,b)$, if its PDF is given by:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in (a,b) \\ 0 & x \notin (a,b) \end{cases}$$

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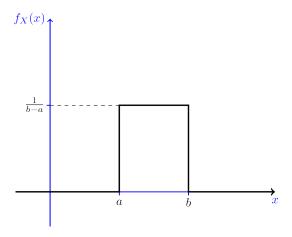
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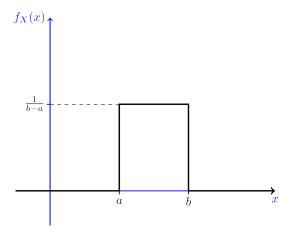
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$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in (a,b) \\ 0 & x \notin (a,b) \end{cases}$$

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \le a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & a < x < b \\ 1 & x \ge b \end{cases}$$

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If $X \sim U(a, b)$,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}, \qquad \mathsf{Var}(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

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The *exponential* distribution is the continuous analog of the geometric distribution. It is one of the widely used continuous distributions, and is often used to model the time elapsed between events.

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Definition

A random variable X is said to be a **exponential** random variable with parameter $\lambda > 0$, denoted by $X \sim Exp(\lambda)$, if its PDF is given by:

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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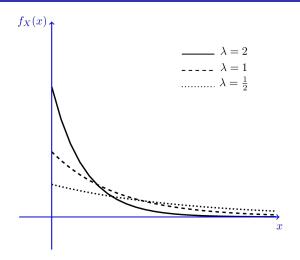
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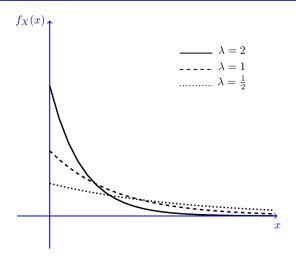
Remark

If $X \sim Exp(\lambda)$, then X is a **memoryless** random variable, that is

$$\mathbb{P}(X > x + a \mid X > a) = \mathbb{P}(X > x), \text{ for } a, x \ge 0.$$

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If
$$X \sim Exp(\lambda)$$
,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = rac{1}{\lambda}, \qquad \mathsf{Var}(X) = rac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

The *normal* distribution is by far the most important probability distribution.

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The *normal* distribution is by far the most important probability distribution.

One of the main reasons for that is that if you add a large number of random variables, the distribution of the sum will be approximately normal under certain conditions. In real life, many RVs can be expressed as the sum of a large number of random variables, and their distribution is normal.

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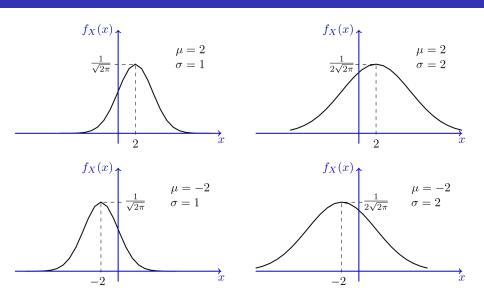
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Definition

A random variable X is said to be a **normal** random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 , denoted by $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, if its PDF is given by:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}$$



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