

# Economics 103 – Statistics for Economists

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Lecture # 9

# Discrete RVs – Part II

# Linearity of Expectation

Holds for Continuous RVs as well, but proof is different.

Let  $X$  be a RV and  $a, b$  be constants. Then:

$$E[a + bX] = a + bE[X]$$

This is one of the most important facts in the course: the special case in which  $E[g(X)] = g(E[X])$  is  $g = a + bX$ .

## Proof: Linearity of Expectation For Discrete RV

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# Variance and Standard Deviation of a RV

The Defs are the same for continuous RVs, but the method of calculating will differ.

## Variance (Var)

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

## Standard Deviation (SD)

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2} = \text{SD}(X)$$

# Key Point

Variance and std. dev. are *expectations of functions of a RV*

It follows that:

1. Variance and SD are constants
2. To derive facts about them you can use the facts you know about expected value

# How To Calculate Variance for Discrete RV?

Remember: it's just a function of  $X$ !

$$\text{Recall that } \mu = E[X] = \sum_{\text{all } x} xp(x)$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sum_{\text{all } x} (x - \mu)^2 p(x)$$

## Shortcut Formula For Variance

This is *not* the definition, it's a shortcut for doing calculations:

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

We'll prove this in an upcoming lecture.

## Variance of Bernoulli RV – via the Shortcut Formula

Step 1 –  $E[X]$

$$\mu = E[X] = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} p(x) \cdot x = (1-p) \cdot 0 + p \cdot 1 = p$$

## Variance of Bernoulli RV – via the Shortcut Formula

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Step 2 –  $E[X^2]$

$$E[X^2] = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} x^2 p(x) = 0^2(1-p) + 1^2 p = p$$

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Step 3 – Combine with Shortcut Formula

$$\sigma^2 = \text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 = p - p^2 = p(1-p)$$

## Variance of Bernoulli RV – Without Shortcut

You will fill in the missing steps on Problem Set 5.

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= \text{Var}(X) = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} (x - \mu)^2 p(x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} (x - p)^2 p(x) \\ &\vdots \\ &= p(1 - p)\end{aligned}$$



## Variance of a Linear Function



Suppose  $X$  is a random variable with  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$  and  $a, b$  are constants. What is  $\text{Var}(a + bX)$ ?

- (a)  $\sigma^2$
- (b)  $a + \sigma^2$
- (c)  $b\sigma^2$
- (d)  $a + b\sigma^2$
- (e)  $b^2\sigma^2$

## Variance and SD are *NOT* Linear

$$\text{Var}(a + bX) = b^2\sigma^2$$

$$\text{SD}(a + bX) = |b|\sigma$$

These should look familiar from the related results for sample variance and std. dev. that you worked out on an earlier problem set.

## Variance of a Linear Transformation

$$\text{Var}(a + bX) = E \left[ \{(a + bX) - E(a + bX)\}^2 \right]$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(a + bX) &= E \left[ \{(a + bX) - E(a + bX)\}^2 \right] \\ &= E \left[ \{(a + bX) - (a + bE[X])\}^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

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The key point here is that variance is defined in terms of expectation and expectation is linear.



# Binomial Random Variable

What we get if we sum a bunch of indep. Bernoulli RVs



### Question

Suppose we flip a fair coin 3 times. What is the probability that we get exactly 2 heads?



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Three basic outcomes make up this event:  $\{HHT, HTH, THH\}$ .



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Three basic outcomes make up this event:  $\{HHT, HTH, THH\}$ .

Each of these has probability  $1/8 = 1/2 \times 1/2 \times 1/2$  so, since

basic outcomes are mutually exclusive we sum to get  $3/8 = 0.375$

## A More Complicated Example

### Question

Suppose we flip an *unfair* coin 3 times, where the probability of heads is  $1/3$ . What is the probability that we get exactly 2 heads?

### Answer

The basic outcomes of the experiment are no longer equally likely, but those with exactly two heads *remain so*

$$P(HHT) = (1/3)^2(1 - 1/3) = 2/27$$

$$P(THH) = 2/27$$

$$P(HTH) = 2/27$$

Summing gives  $2/9 \approx 0.22$

## Starting to see a pattern?

Suppose we flip an unfair coin 4 times, where the probability of heads is  $1/3$ . What is the probability that we get exactly 2 heads?

HHTT    TTHH

HTHT    THTH

HTTH    THTT

Six equally likely, mutually exclusive  
basic outcomes make up this event:

$$\binom{4}{2} (1/3)^2 (2/3)^2$$

# Binomial Random Variable

Let  $X$  = the sum of  $n$  independent Bernoulli trials, each with probability of success  $p$ . Then we say that:  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$

## Parameters

$p$  = probability of “success,”  $n$  = # of trials

## Support

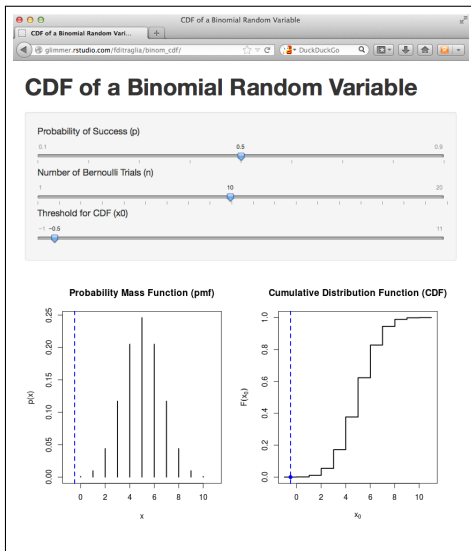
$\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

## Probability Mass Function (pmf)

$$p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$$

[http://glimmer.rstudio.com/fditraglia/binom\\_cdf/](http://glimmer.rstudio.com/fditraglia/binom_cdf/)

Try playing around with all three sliders. If you set the second to 1 you get a Bernoulli.





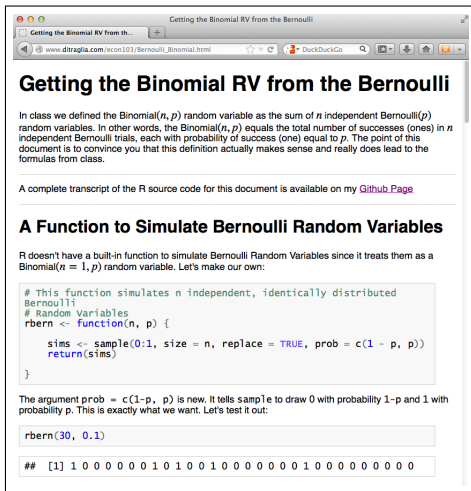
Don't forget this!

A Binomial Random Variable counts up the *total* number of successes (ones) in  $n$  independent Bernoulli trials, each with probability of success  $p$ .

We'll learn more about the Binomial RV in the coming lectures...

[http://fditraglia.github.com/Econ103Public/Rtutorials/Bernoulli\\_Binomial.html](http://fditraglia.github.com/Econ103Public/Rtutorials/Bernoulli_Binomial.html)

Source Code on my [Github Page](#)



Getting the Binomial RV from the Bernoulli

In class we defined the  $\text{Binomial}(n, p)$  random variable as the sum of  $n$  independent  $\text{Bernoulli}(p)$  random variables. In other words, the  $\text{Binomial}(n, p)$  equals the total number of successes (ones) in  $n$  independent Bernoulli trials, each with probability of success (one) equal to  $p$ . The point of this document is to convince you that this definition actually makes sense and really does lead to the formulas from class.

A complete transcript of the R source code for this document is available on my [Github Page](#)

### A Function to Simulate Bernoulli Random Variables

R doesn't have a built-in function to simulate Bernoulli Random Variables since it treats them as a  $\text{Binomial}(n = 1, p)$  random variable. Let's make our own:

```
# This function simulates n independent, identically distributed
# Bernoulli
# Random Variables
rbern <- function(n, p) {
  sims <- sample(0:1, size = n, replace = TRUE, prob = c(1 - p, p))
  return(sims)
}
```

The argument `prob = c(1-p, p)` is new. It tells `sample` to draw 0 with probability  $1-p$  and 1 with probability  $p$ . This is exactly what we want. Let's test it out:

```
rbern(30, 0.1)
```

```
## [1] 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
```