

# STATISTICS 2

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# WEEK 3

## Expected Value of R.V.

Suppose  $X$  is a discrete random variable with range  $T_x$  and PMF  $f_x$ . The expected value of  $X$ , denoted  $E[X]$ , is defined as

$$E[X] = \sum_{t \in T_x} t f_x(t) = \sum_{t \in T_x} t \cdot P(X=t)$$

assuming above sum exists.

- other names : mean of  $X$
- $E[X]$  may or may not belong to the range of  $X$
- $E[X]$  has the same units as  $X$ .

Examples : Easy Summation given PMF

(1)  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$

$$E[X] = 0(1-p) + 1(p) = p$$

(2)  $X \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

$$E[X] = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 5 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 6 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = 3.5$$

(3) Value of lottery ticket (in Rs.) is  $\{200, 20, 0\}$

$$E[X] = 200 \cdot \frac{1}{1000} + 20 \cdot \frac{27}{1000} + 0 \cdot \frac{972}{1000} = \text{₹}0.56$$

(4) Change in temperature (in  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) is  $\{-2, -1, 0, 1\}$

$$E[X] = -2 \cdot \frac{1}{5} + (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{5} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{10} = -0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$$

**Example : Uniform  $\{a, a+1, \dots, b\}$**

$X \sim \text{Uniform } \{a, a+1, \dots, b\}$

$$E[X] = a \cdot \frac{1}{b-a+1} + (a+1) \cdot \frac{1}{b-a+1} + \dots + b \cdot \frac{1}{b-a+1}$$

\* How to simplify sum?

$$\text{Identity : } a + (a+1) + \dots + b = (b-a+1) \left( \frac{a+b}{2} \right)$$

$$\therefore E[X] = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

**$X \sim \text{Geometric } (p)$**

$$E[X] = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} t (1-p)^{t-1} p = \frac{1}{p}$$

$E[X] = \frac{1}{p}$
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$X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$

$$E[X] = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} t \cdot e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^t}{t!} = \lambda$$

$$E[X] = \lambda$$

$X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$

$$E[X] = \sum_{t=0}^n t \cdot {}^n C_t (p)^t (1-p)^{n-t} = np$$

$$E[X] = np$$

HOW TO SIMPLIFY SUMS ?

(1) Difference Eq'n (DE) :  $a_{t+1} - ra_t = b_t$  ( $r \neq 1$ )

$$\sum_{t=1}^n a_t = \frac{a_1 - ran}{1-r} + \frac{1}{1-r} \cdot \sum_{t=1}^{n-1} b_t$$

(2) Geometric Progression (GP) :  $a_{t+1} - ra_t = 0$  ( $r \neq 1$ )

$$\sum_{t=1}^n a_t = \frac{a_1 - ran}{1-r} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{|r| < 1} \frac{a_1}{1-r}$$

(3) Exponential F'n :

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} e^x \frac{\lambda^t}{t!} = 1$$

(4) Binomial formula :

$$\sum_{k=0}^n {}^n C_k a^k b^{k-1} = (a+b)^n$$

# Properties of Expected Value

## I. CONSTANT R.V and POSITIVE R.V

$$E[X] = \sum_{t \in T_X} t \cdot P(X=t)$$

(1) Consider a constant  $c$  as random variable  $X$  with  $P(X=c) = 1$

$$E[c] = c \cdot 1 = c$$

(2) Suppose  $X$  takes only non-negative values, i.e.,  $P(X \geq 0) = 1$ . Then,

$$E[X] \geq 0$$

## II. EXPECTED VALUE OF A FUNCTION OF R.V

Theorem: Suppose  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  have joint PMF  $f_{X_1 \dots X_n}$  with range of  $X_i$  denoted  $T_{X_i}$ . Let  $g : T_{X_1} \times \dots \times T_{X_n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function. & let  $Y = g(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  have range  $T_Y$  and PMF  $f_Y$ . Then,

$$E[g(X_1, \dots, X_n)] = \sum_{t \in T_Y} t \cdot f_Y(t) = \sum_{t_i \in T_{X_i}} g(t_1, \dots, t_n) f_{X_1 \dots X_n}(t_1, \dots, t_n)$$

⇒ We have seen how to find  $f_Y$ , PMF of a function of multiple R.V.

The above theorem says: To find  $E[Y]$ , you do not always need  $f_Y$ . The joint PMF of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  can be used directly.

### Examples for Illustration

$$(1) \quad X \sim \left\{ -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 \right\} \text{ . } g(x) = x^2 \sim \left\{ 0, 1, 4 \right\}$$

$$E[g(x)] = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{5} + 1 \cdot \frac{2}{5} + 4 \cdot \frac{2}{5} = 2$$

$$E[g(x)] = (-2)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{5} + (-1)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{5} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{5} + (1)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{5} + (2)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{5} = 2$$

$$(2) \quad (X, Y) \sim \text{Uniform} \left\{ (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (1,1), (-1,1), (1,-1) \right\}$$

$$g(x,y) = x^2 + xy + y^2 \sim \left\{ 0, 1, 3 \right\}$$

$$E[g(x,y)] = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{7}{6}$$

$$E[g(x,y)] = 0 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) + 1 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) + 1 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) + 3 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) + 1 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) + 1 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) = \frac{7}{6}$$

### III. LINEARITY OF EXPECTED VALUE

(1)  $E[cX] = c \cdot E[X]$  for a R.V.  $X$  and a constant  $c$ .

Proof:  $E[cX] = \sum_{t \in T_x} ct f_X(t) = c \sum_{t \in T_x} t f_X(t) = c \cdot E[X]$

(2)  $E[X+Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$  for any two random variables  $X, Y$ .

Proof:  $E[X+Y] = \sum_{t_1 \in T_x, t_2 \in T_y} (t_1 + t_2) f_{XY}(t_1, t_2)$

$$= \sum_{t_1 \in T_x, t_2 \in T_y} t_2 \cdot f_{XY}(t_1 + t_2) + \sum_{t_1 \in T_x, t_2 \in T_y} t_2 \cdot f_{XY}(t_1, t_2)$$

$\Rightarrow E[X+Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$

(3)  $E[aX+bY] = aE[X] + bE[Y]$

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# One of the most useful properties of expected value!

### Illustrative Examples

1.  $(X, Y) \sim \text{Uniform} \{(0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (1,1), (-1,1), (1,-1)\}$

$$g(X, Y) = X^2 + XY + Y^2 \sim \left\{ \frac{1}{6}, \frac{4}{6}, \frac{1}{6} \right\}$$

$$E[g(X, Y)] = \frac{7}{6}$$

$$\therefore E[g(X, Y)] = E[X^2 + XY + Y^2] = E[X^2] + E[XY] + E[Y^2] = \frac{7}{6}$$

$$(E[X^2] = \frac{4}{6}; E[XY] = -\frac{1}{6}, E[Y^2] = \frac{4}{6})$$

2.  $X \sim f_x, Y \sim f_y$ , the joint PMF  $f_{XY}$  is not given.  
Can you compute  $E[X+Y]$ ? Yes!

$$E[X+Y] = E[X] + E[Y] = \sum_{t \in T_X} t \cdot f_X(t) + \sum_{t \in T_Y} t \cdot f_Y(t)$$

Note: Expected value of the form  $E[g(X) + h(Y)]$  can be computed with marginal PMFs, and it does not depend on the joint PMF.

## PROBLEMS :

(1) Throw a fair die twice : What is the expected value of the sum of the two numbers seen?

X : first no.

Y : second no.

$$E[X+Y] = E[X] + E[Y] = 3.5 + 3.5 = 7$$

(2) Expected Value of Binomial ( $n, p$ ) :

Suppose  $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ .

$$E[Y] = \sum_{k=0}^n k \cdot {}^n C_k p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = np$$

- Such summations may be difficult to simplify.
- Alternative method using linearity of expected value.

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be iid Bernoulli ( $p$ ). Then,  $E[X_i] = p$

and

$$Y = X_1 + \dots + X_n \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

$$\text{So, } E[Y] = E[X_1] + \dots + E[X_n] = np$$

## Zero Mean Random Variable

A random variable  $X$  with  $E[X] = 0$  is said to be a zero-mean random variable.

### Translation of a random variable

$X + c$ , where  $c$  is a constant, is a "translated" version of  $X$ .

→ Range of  $X + c$  is  $\{t + c : t \in T_X\}$ , which is translated version of  $T_X$ , the range of  $X$

→  $P(X + c = t + c) = P(X = t)$  & the pmf is 'translated' as well.

### Translation by expected value

$E[X]$  is a constant.

$Y = X - E[X]$  is translated version of  $X$  &  $E[Y] = 0$

So,  $X - E[X]$  is a zero-mean random variable.

## Problem: Balls in Bins

Suppose 10 balls are thrown uniformly at random into 3 bins. What is the expected no. of empty bins?

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & , \text{ if bin } i \text{ is empty} \\ 0 & , \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}, i = 1, 2, 3$$

$$P(X_i = 1) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{10} \quad P(X_i = 0) = 1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{10}$$

$$Y = \text{no. of empty bins} = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$$

$$E[Y] = E[X_1] + E[X_2] + E[X_3] = 3 \cdot \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{10}$$

# Variance

## Variance & Standard Deviation

- The variance of a random variable  $X$ , denoted  $\text{Var}(X)$ , is defined as

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

- The standard deviation of  $X$ , denoted  $\text{SD}(X)$ , is defined as

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

- Variance is expected value of the random variable  $(X - E[X])^2$ .

- $\text{Var}(X) = \sum_{t \in T_X} (t - E[X])^2 \cdot P(X=t)$

- Variance is non-negative, & std. deviation is well defined.

- Units of  $\text{SD}(X)$  are same as units of  $X$ .

- Intuitively, the more the 'spread' in  $T_X$ , the more will be the  $\text{Var}(X)$ .

Example: Throw a die

$$X \sim \text{Uniform} \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$\rightarrow E[X] = 3.5$$

$$\begin{aligned}\rightarrow \text{Var}(X) &= (1 - 3.5)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + (2 - 3.5)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \dots + (6 - 3.5)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} \\ &= 35/12 = 2.916\end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{SD}(X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)} = \sqrt{2.916} = 1.7078$$

# Given PMF of  $X$  with a small range, variance & std. dev. can be readily computed.

## PROPERTIES : Scaling and Translation

Let  $X$  be a random variable. Let  $a$  be a constant real number.

$$1. \text{Var}(ax) = a^2 \cdot \text{Var}(x)$$

$$2. \nexists \text{SD}(ax) = |a| \cdot \text{SD}(x)$$

$$3. \text{Var}(X+a) = \text{Var}(X)$$

$$4. \text{SD}(X+a) = \text{SD}(X)$$

## Alternative Formula for Variance

The variance of a random variable is given by,

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

- #  $E[x]$  → first moment
  - $E[x^2]$  → second moment
  - $\text{Var}(X)$  → second central moment
- 

## SUM & PRODUCT of Independent RV

For any 2 random variables  $x$  &  $y$  (independent or dependent),

$$E[x+y] = E[x] + E[y].$$

- Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variable  
Then,

$$(1) \quad E[xy] = E[x] \cdot E[y]$$

$$(2) \quad \text{Var}(x+y) = \text{Var}(x) + \text{Var}(y)$$


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$$\begin{aligned}
 (3) \quad \text{Var}(x-y) &= \text{Var}(x) + \text{Var}(-y) \\
 &= \text{Var}(x) + (-1)^2 \cdot \text{Var}(y) \\
 &= \text{Var}(x) + \text{Var}(y)
 \end{aligned}$$

# Variance of Common Distributions

Distribution	Expected Value	Variance
Bernoulli ( $p$ )	$p$	$p(1-p)$
Binomial ( $n, p$ )	$np$	$np(1-p)$
Geometric ( $p$ )	$\frac{1}{p}$	$(1-p) / p^2$
Poisson ( $\lambda$ )	$\lambda$	$\lambda$
Uniform $\{1, \dots, n\}$	$(n+1)/2$	$(n^2-1)/12$

## Standardised Random Variables

Definition: A random variable  $X$  is said to be standardised if

$$E[X] = 0, \text{Var}(X) = 1$$

Theorem: Let  $X$  be a random variable. Then,

$$Y = \frac{X - E[X]}{\text{SD}(X)}$$

is a standardised R.V.

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# Covariance

Definition: Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are random variables on the same probability space. The covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$ , denoted  $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ , is defined as

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]$$

- #  $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$  is positive.
  - $(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])$  tends to be positive
  - When  $X$  is above / below its average,  $Y$  tends to be correspondingly above / below its average.
- #  $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$  is negative
  - $(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])$  tends to be negative
  - When  $X$  is above / below its average,  $Y$  tends to be correspondingly below / above its average.
- #  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ 
  - $X$  and  $Y$  are said to be "uncorrelated"

## Example: Computing Covariance

$y/x$	-1	0	1	$f_x$
$f(x)$	$1/3$	$1/3$	$1/3$	
-1	$1/15$	$2/15$	$2/15$	$1/3$
0	$2/15$	$1/15$	$2/15$	$1/3$
1	$2/15$	$2/15$	$1/15$	$1/3$

$$E[X] = 0$$

$$E[Y] = 0$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = (-1)(-1)\frac{1}{15} + (-1)(1)\frac{2}{15} + (-1)(1)\frac{2}{15} + (1)(1)\frac{1}{15}$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \frac{-2}{15}$$

## PROPERTIES

$$\text{cov}(X, X) = \text{var}(X)$$

→ Proof :  $\text{cov}(X, X) = E[(X - E[X])(X - E[X])] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X] \cdot E[Y]$$

→ Proof :  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]$   
 $= E[XY - X \cdot E[Y] - Y \cdot E[X] + E[X] \cdot E[Y]]$

3. Covariance is symmetric,  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = \text{cov}(Y, X)$

4. Covariance is a 'linear' quantity

$$\rightarrow \text{cov}(X, aY + bZ) = a \text{cov}(X, Y) + b \text{cov}(X, Z)$$

$$\rightarrow \text{cov}(aX + bY, Z) = a \text{cov}(X, Z) + b \text{cov}(Y, Z)$$

## COVARIANCE & INDEPENDENCE

1. If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent,  $X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated.  
 i.e.,  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = 0$

2. Conversely, not true. If  $X$  &  $Y$  are uncorrelated, they may be dependent.

# Correlation Coefficient.

Definition: The correlation coefficient or simply correlation of two random variables  $X$  &  $Y$ , denoted  $\rho(X, Y)$ , is defined as

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\text{SD}(X) \cdot \text{SD}(Y)}$$

# RESULT :  $-\text{SD}(X) \cdot \text{SD}(Y) \leq \text{Cov}(X, Y) \leq \text{SD}(X) \cdot \text{SD}(Y)$

→ Simplify  $E\left[\left(\frac{X - E[X]}{\text{SD}(X)} + \frac{Y - E[Y]}{\text{SD}(Y)}\right)^2\right] \geq 0$  to get lower bound.

→ Simplify  $E\left[\left(\frac{X - E[X]}{\text{SD}(X)} - \frac{Y - E[Y]}{\text{SD}(Y)}\right)^2\right] \geq 0$  to get upper bound.

# Using the above,  $-1 \leq \rho(X, Y) \leq 1$

## PROPERTIES

1.  $\rho(X, Y)$

- One no. that summarizes 'trend' between two R.V.
- Dimensionless qby.

2.  $\rho(X, Y)$  is close to zero

- $X$  and  $Y$  are close to being uncorrelated
- No clear trend b/w  $X$  and  $Y$ .

3.  $\rho(x, y) = 1$  or  $\rho(x, y) = -1$

→ There exist  $a \neq 0$  and  $b$  so that  $y = ax + b$   
with probability 1

→  $y$  is linear fn of  $x$ .

4. If  $|\rho(x, y)|$  is close to one

→  $x$  and  $y$  are strongly correlated

→ increase in  $X$  is likely to match up with  
an increase in  $Y$ .

# Bounds on Probabilities using mean & variance

## NOTATION FOR MEAN & VARIANCE

1.  $\mu \rightarrow$  denotes the mean  $E[x]$
2.  $\sigma^2 \rightarrow$  denotes the variance  $Var(x)$
3.  $\sigma \rightarrow$  denotes the standard dev.  $SD(x)$ .

## STANDARD UNITS IN STATISTICS

- Consider a random variable  $X$  with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- In an experiment,  $X$  may take a value that is close to  $\mu$  or away from  $\mu$
- $X - \mu$  : measures the distance of  $X$  from the mean  $\mu$ .  
→ could be +ve or -ve
- Standard units : The no. of standard deviations that a realization of a random variable is away from the mean.

- We expect  $X - \mu$  to fall between  $-c\sigma$  and  $c\sigma$  for a small value of  $c$ .
- In other words, we expect  $X$  to fall between  $\mu - c\sigma$  and  $\mu + c\sigma$ .

## MARKOV's INEQUALITY

Theorem: Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable taking non-negative values with a finite  $\mu$ . Then,

$$P(X \geq c) \leq \frac{\mu}{c}$$

Proof:

$$\mu = \sum_{t \in T_X} t \cdot P(X=t) = \sum_{t < c} t \cdot P(X=t) + \sum_{t \geq c} t \cdot P(X=t)$$

Since the first sum is non-negative,

$$\mu \geq \sum_{t \geq c} t \cdot P(X=t) \geq \sum_{t \geq c} c \cdot P(X=t) = c \sum_{t \geq c} P(X=t) = c \cdot P(X \geq c)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu \geq c \cdot P(X \geq c) \Rightarrow P(X \geq c) \leq \mu/c$$

## CHEBYSHEV's INEQUALITY

Theorem: Let  $X$  be a discrete R.V. with a finite mean  $\mu$  and a finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then,

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq 1/k^2$$

Proof: Apply Markov's inequality to  $(X-\mu)^2$ .

Other forms:

- ⇒  $P(|X-\mu| \geq c) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{c^2}$ ,  $P((X-\mu)^2 \geq k^2\sigma^2) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$
- ⇒  $P(\mu-k\sigma \leq X \leq \mu+k\sigma) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{k^2}$
- ⇒  $P(X \geq \mu + k\sigma) + P(X \leq \mu - k\sigma) \leq \frac{2}{k^2}$
- $P(X \geq \mu + k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$ ,  $P(X \leq \mu - k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$

## COMPARE ACTUAL & CHEBYSHEV

Let  $X$  be a random variable with finite mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .

$$P(|X-\mu| \geq 2\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{4}$$

(1)  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(10, 0.5)$ ,  $\mu = 5$ ,  $\sigma = \sqrt{2.5} \approx 1.58$

$$P(|X-5| \geq 2\sigma) = P(X \in \{0, 1, 9, 10\}) \approx 0.021$$

(2)  $X \sim \text{Geometric}(1/4)$ ,  $\mu = 4$ ,  $\sigma \approx 3.46$

$$P(|X-4| \geq 2\sigma) = P(X \in \{11, 12, \dots\}) \approx 0.056$$

# WHAT DO MEAN & VARIANCE SAY ABOUT DISTRIBUTION?

Mean  $\mu$ , through Markov's inequality : bounds the probability that a non-negative random variable takes values much larger than the mean.

Mean  $\mu$  and standard dev.  $\sigma$ , through Chebyshew's inequality : bound the probability that  $X$  is away from  $\mu$  by  $k\sigma$ .

These are some of the most useful measures of expected centre and spread in practice.

- Suppose the average no. of accidents decreases by 10000 per day across the country. Is that a 'significant' decrease?
- If std.dev. of the no. of accidents is unknown, we can find how high 10000 is in terms of std.dev. to answer above question.