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Probability theory and mathematical statistics:

Variance, covariance, correlation
Law of large numbers

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Definition

The *variance* (also called the *dispersion*) of the random variable X is defined as

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

Standard deviation is defined as

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

Properties:

1. $\text{Var } X \geq 0$. If $X = C$ (a non-random constant), $\text{Var } X = \mathbf{E}(C - \mathbf{E}C)^2 = 0$. If $\text{Var } X = 0$ then X is constant (not random) almost sure: there exists C such that $P(X = C) = 1$.

$$2. \text{Var } X = \mathbf{E}X^2 - (\mathbf{E}X)^2$$

Proof. Direct computation:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var } X &= \mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}X)^2 \\ &= \mathbf{E}(X^2 - 2X\mathbf{E}X + (\mathbf{E}X)^2) \\ &= \mathbf{E}X^2 - 2(\mathbf{E}X)^2 + (\mathbf{E}X)^2 = \mathbf{E}X^2 - (\mathbf{E}X)^2.\end{aligned}$$

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Example. Let X have the uniform distribution on the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, $P(X = k) = \frac{1}{n}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. We've seen that $\mathbf{E}X = \frac{n+1}{2}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}X^2 &= \frac{1}{n}(1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}, \\ \text{Var } X &= \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} - \frac{(n+1)^2}{4} = \frac{n^2 - 1}{12}. \end{aligned}$$

3. $\text{Var } X = \mathbf{E}[X(X - 1)] + \mathbf{E}X - (\mathbf{E}X)^2.$

Proof. Notice that $\mathbf{E}X^2 = \mathbf{E}[X(X - 1 + 1)] = \mathbf{E}[X(X - 1)] + \mathbf{E}X$, then use the previous formula.

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It is useful when X is an integer random variable.

Example. Let X have the binomial distribution. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[X(X - 1)] &= \sum_{k=0}^n k(k - 1)C_n^k p^k (1 - p)^{n-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=2}^n (k - 1)nC_{n-1}^{k-1} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=2}^n n(n - 1)C_{n-2}^{k-2} p^{(k-2)+2} (1 - p)^{n-2-(k-2)} = n(n - 1)p^2, \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Var } X = n(n - 1)p^2 + np - n^2p^2 = np(1 - p).$$

Example. Let X have a geometric distribution, then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}[X(X-1)] &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(k-1)p(1-p)^{k-1} \\ &= p(1-p) \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} ((1-p)^k)'' \\ &= p(1-p) \left(\frac{(1-p)^2}{1-(1-p)} \right)'' \\ &= 2 \frac{1-p}{p^2}, \\ \text{Var } X &= \frac{1-p}{p^2}\end{aligned}$$

Example. Let X have a Poisson distribution with parameter λ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}[X(X-1)] &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1) \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} \\ &= \lambda^2 \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k-2}}{(k-2)!} e^{-\lambda} = \lambda^2, \\ \text{Var } X &= \lambda^2 + \lambda - \lambda^2 = \lambda.\end{aligned}$$

4. For a constant a , $\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \text{Var } X$.

Proof. From the definition,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(aX) &= \mathbf{E}(aX - \mathbf{E}(aX))^2 \\ &= \mathbf{E}(a(X - \mathbf{E}X))^2 = a^2 \mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}X)^2\end{aligned}$$

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Definition

The *covariance* of X and Y is defined as

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

If $\text{Var } X > 0$, $\text{Var } Y > 0$, then

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var } X \text{Var } Y}}$$

is called the *correlation coefficient* of X and Y .

Another useful formula:

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \mathbf{E}(XY) - \mathbf{E}X\mathbf{E}Y$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cov}(X, Y) &= \mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}X)(Y - \mathbf{E}Y) = \mathbf{E}(XY - X\mathbf{E}Y - Y\mathbf{E}X + \mathbf{E}X\mathbf{E}Y) \\ &= \mathbf{E}(XY) - (\mathbf{E}X)(\mathbf{E}Y) - (\mathbf{E}X)(\mathbf{E}Y) + (\mathbf{E}X)(\mathbf{E}Y) = \mathbf{E}(XY) - (\mathbf{E}X)(\mathbf{E}Y).\end{aligned}$$

It follows from the Cauchy-Bunyakowsky inequality:

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) \leq \sigma(X)\sigma(Y)$$

More facts:

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

$$\text{cov}(aX_1 + bX_2, Y) = a \text{cov}(X_1, Y) + b \text{cov}(X_2, Y)$$

5. For random variables X and Y ,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X + Y) &= \mathbf{E}((X - \mathbf{E}X) + (Y - \mathbf{E}Y))^2 \\ &= \mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}X)^2 + 2\mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}X)(Y - \mathbf{E}Y) + \mathbf{E}(Y - \mathbf{E}Y)^2 \\ &= \text{Var } X + \text{Var } Y + 2 \text{cov}(X, Y).\end{aligned}$$

If X and Y are independent, so are $X - \mathbf{E}X$ and $Y - \mathbf{E}Y$. By a property of expectation,

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}X)\mathbf{E}(Y - \mathbf{E}Y) = 0.$$

5'. For independent random variables X and Y

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var } X + \text{Var } Y$$

Example. Given the joint distribution of random variables X and Y , compute $\text{Var } X$, $\text{Var } Y$, $\text{cov}(X, Y)$.

$X \setminus Y$	-1	0	1
-1	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$
1	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$

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$$\mathbf{E}X = (-1) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6}\right) + 1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4}\right) = 0,$$

$$\mathbf{E}X^2 = (-1)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6}\right) + 1^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4}\right) = 1,$$

$$\text{Var } X = 1 - 0^2 = 1,$$

$$\mathbf{E}Y = (-1) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + 0 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + 1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{4}\right) = \frac{1}{8},$$

$$\text{Var } Y = (-1)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + 0^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + 1^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{4}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^2 = \frac{133}{192},$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}XY &= (-1) \cdot (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{6} + (-1) \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + (-1) \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \\ &+ 1 \cdot (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{8} + 1 \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{1}{8} + 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \mathbf{E}(XY) - \mathbf{E}X\mathbf{E}Y = \frac{1}{8}.$$

Example. Let X and Y denote the number of Heads and Tails in n tosses. Find the covariance of X and Y and the correlation coefficient.

Since $X + Y = n$, $Y = n - X$, $\mathbf{E}Y = \mathbf{E}X = \frac{n}{2}$,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cov}(X, Y) &= \mathbf{E}\left(X - \frac{n}{2}\right)\left(Y - \frac{n}{2}\right) \\ &= \mathbf{E}\left(X - \frac{n}{2}\right)\left(n - X - \frac{n}{2}\right) = \mathbf{E}\left(nX - X^2 - \frac{n^2}{4}\right),\end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{E}X^2 = \text{Var } X + (\mathbf{E}X)^2 = \frac{n}{4} + \frac{n^2}{4},$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n}{4} - \frac{n^2}{4} - \frac{n^2}{4} = -\frac{n}{4},$$

$$\rho(X, Y) = -1.$$

Example. Let X and Y be independent random variables, then

$$\text{Var}(X - Y) = \text{Var } X + \text{Var } Y.$$

Indeed,

$$\text{Var}(-Y) = (-1)^2 \text{Var } Y = \text{Var } Y,$$

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

Example. Let X have the binomial distribution $b(n, p)$, I_k be the indicator variable of a success in the k th trial. Then I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n are independent,

$$\mathbf{E}I_k = p, \quad \mathbf{E}I_k^2 = \mathbf{E}I_k = p, \quad \text{Var } I_k = p - p^2 = p(1 - p),$$

$$\text{Var } X = \text{Var } I_1 + \text{Var } I_2 + \dots + \text{Var } I_n = np(1 - p)$$

The result is re-established.

Notice that $\frac{X}{n}$ is the frequency of successes,

$$\mathbf{E} \left(\frac{X}{n} \right) = p, \quad \text{Var} \left(\frac{X}{n} \right) = \frac{p(1 - p)}{n}.$$

Example. There are N balls in the urn, M blue balls and $N - M$ red balls. r balls are sampled without replacement ($r < M$, $r < N - M$). Let X denote the number of blue balls among r (i.e. in the sample). Find $\text{Var } X$.

Let I_i equal 1 if the i ball is blue, equal 0 otherwise. It was proved in the previous lectures that $P(I_i = 1) = \frac{M}{N}$ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$. Moreover it can be proved that

$$P(I_i I_j = 1) = \frac{M(M-1)}{N(N-1)}, i \neq j.$$

Then $X = I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_r$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}X^2 &= \mathbf{E}I_1^2 + \mathbf{E}I_2^2 + \dots + \mathbf{E}I_r^2 + 2(\mathbf{E}I_1 I_2 + \dots + \mathbf{E}I_{r-1} I_r) = \\ &= r \frac{M}{N} + 2 \frac{r(r-1)}{2} \frac{M(M-1)}{N(N-1)}, \\ \text{Var } X &= r \frac{M}{N} \left(1 - \frac{M}{N}\right) \frac{M-r}{N-1}. \end{aligned}$$

If $\text{cov}(X, Y) = 0$ ($\rho(X, Y) = 0$) then X and Y are called *uncorrelated*. Consider two random variables X and Y . Suppose that only X can be observed. If X and Y are correlated we may expect that knowing the value of X allows us to make some inference about the values of the unobserved variable Y .

Any function $f(X)$ is called *an estimator* for X . We call an estimator $f^*(X)$ *the best mean-square estimator* if

$$\mathbf{E}(Y - f^*(X))^2 \leq \mathbf{E}(Y - f(X))^2$$

for any other estimator $f(X)$.

Let's find the best linear estimator. Consider the function $g(a, b) = \mathbf{E}(Y - (a + bX))^2$. Differentiating $g(a, b)$ with respect to x and b , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial g(a, b)}{\partial a} &= -2\mathbf{E}(Y - (a + bX)), \\ \frac{\partial g(a, b)}{\partial b} &= -2\mathbf{E}(Y - (a + bX))X,\end{aligned}$$

and setting the derivatives equal to zero, we find

$$a = \mathbf{E}Y - b\mathbf{E}X, \quad b = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\text{Var } X}.$$

In other words, the best linear estimator

$$f^*(X) = \mathbf{E}Y + \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\text{Var } X}(X - \mathbf{E}X).$$

The number $\mathbf{E}(Y - f^*(X))^2$ is called the *mean-square error of observation*. An easy calculation shows that it is equal to

$$(1 - \rho^2(X, Y)) \operatorname{Var} Y.$$

The larger (in absolute value) the correlation coefficient $\rho(X, Y)$ between X and Y , the smaller the mean-square error of observation. In particular, if $|\rho(X, Y)| = 1$, then this error is zero. On the other hand, if X and Y are uncorrelated, ($\rho(X, Y) = 0$), then $f^*(X) = \mathbf{E}Y$, i.e. in the absence of correlation the best estimate of Y in terms of X is simply $\mathbf{E}Y$.

Uncorrelated random variables are not necessary independent!

Example. Let $\Omega = \{0, \frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\}$, the outcomes are equally likely, $X(\omega) = \sin \omega$, $Y(\omega) = \cos \omega$. Then

$$\mathbf{E}X = \sin 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \sin \pi \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3},$$

$$\mathbf{E}Y = \cos 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \cos \pi \cdot \frac{1}{3} = 0,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(X, Y) &= \left(\sin 0 - \frac{1}{3}\right) \cos 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \left(\sin \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right) \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \\ &\quad + \left(\sin \pi - \frac{1}{3}\right) \cos \pi \cdot \frac{1}{3} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

6. If $X \geq 0$, then

$$P(X > a) \leq \frac{EX}{a}.$$

Proof. Let $Y = 1$ when $X > a$, and $Y = 0$ whenever $X \leq a$. Then

$$EX = E(XY + X(1-Y)) = EXY + EX(1-Y) \geq EXY \geq EaY = aP(X > a).$$

6' (Chebyshev's inequality) For any $a > 0$

$$P(|X - EX| > a) \leq \frac{\text{Var } X}{a^2}.$$

The standard deviation $\sigma(X)$ measures the average deviation of the random variable X from its expected value. This is called the *rule of 6 sigmas*:

$$P(|X - \mathbf{E}X| > 3\sigma(X)) \leq \frac{\text{Var } X}{9\sigma^2(X)} = \frac{1}{9}$$

The law of large numbers

We say that random variables X_1, X_2, \dots with finite expectations $\mathbf{E}X_1, \mathbf{E}X_2, \dots$ follow the (weak) law of large numbers if for any $a > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}X_i\right| > a\right) = 0$$

Chebyshev's law of large numbers

Let random variables X_1, X_2, \dots be pairwise independent, have finite variances bounded by the same constant C ($\text{Var } X_i \leq C$) then for any $a > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}X_i\right| > a\right) = 0$$

Proof. When the conditions of the theorem hold,

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n \text{Var} X_k,$$

hence

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k\right) \leq \frac{C}{n}.$$

Now,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}X_i\right| > a\right) \leq \frac{\text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k\right)}{a^2} \leq \frac{C}{na^2} \rightarrow 0$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Now the Law of large numbers by Bernoulli follows from the previous theorem. Let $\mu(A; n)$ denote the number of occurrences of the event A in n independent trials, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}\left(\left|\frac{\mu(A; n)}{n} - p\right| > a\right) = 0.$$

Poisson's law of large numbers. Let the probability of observing the event A in the k th trial equal p_k , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}\left(\left|\frac{\mu(A; n)}{n} - \frac{p_1 + p_2 + \dots + p_n}{n}\right| > a\right) = 0.$$