

Statistics 100A

Homework 4 Solutions

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Problem 1

For a discrete random variable X ,

Note that all of the problems below ask you to *prove* the statement. We are proving the properties of expectation and variance, thus you cannot just use them right off the bat.

(1) *Prove* $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$.

Proof. By definition,

$$E(X) = \sum_x xp(x)$$

where f is a discrete probability distribution. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} E(aX + b) &= \sum_x (ax + b)p(x) \\ &= \sum_x axp(x) + \sum_x bp(x) \\ &= a \sum_x xp(x) + b \sum_x p(x) \\ &\quad \text{Note that } E(X) = \sum_x xp(x) \text{ and } \sum_x p(x) = 1. \\ &= aE(X) + b \end{aligned}$$

This proves linearity of expectation with respect to one variable.

□

(2) *Prove* $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$.

First, prove a lemma: $\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$.

Proof. By definition, $\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - \mu)^2]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E[(X - \mu)^2] \\ &= E[X^2 + \mu^2 - 2\mu X] \\ &\quad \text{Recall that } \mu = E(X). \\ &= E[X^2 - \mu^2] \\ &\quad \text{By part 1, linearity:} \\ &= E(X^2) - \mu^2 \\ &= E(X^2) - E(X)^2 \end{aligned}$$

□

Then we can work with $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2\text{Var}(X)$.

Proof. We can use the result from part 1 and the lemma to solve this problem.

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

□

Or, we can start with basic principles. Let $Z = aX + b$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var}(Z) &= E(Z^2) - E(Z)^2 \\
 &= \left(\sum_x (aX + b)^2 f(x) \right) - (aX + b)^2 \\
 &= \left(\sum_x [(aX)^2 + b^2 + 2abX] f(x) \right) - [(aE(X))^2 + b^2 + 2abE(X)] \\
 &= \left(a^2 \sum_x X^2 f(x) + b^2 \sum_x f(x) + 2ab \sum_x x f(x) \right) - [a^2 E(X)^2 + b^2 + 2abE(X)] \\
 &= a^2 E(X^2) + b^2 + 2abE(X) - a^2 E(X)^2 - b^2 - 2abE(X) \\
 &= a^2 E(X^2) - a^2 E(X)^2 \\
 &= a^2 (E(X^2) - E(X)^2) \\
 &= a^2 \text{Var}(X)
 \end{aligned}$$

□

(3) Let $\mu = E(X)$ and $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X)$. Let $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$, calculate $E(Z)$ and $\text{Var}(Z)$.

We want to find the expected value and variance of Z where $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$. This is called a z score, and is the primary metric associated with the normal distribution. The z scores measures how far from the mean, in standard deviations, a particular value x is.

$$E(Z) = E\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

By linearity (part 1), we get:

$$= E\left(\frac{X}{\sigma}\right) - E\left(\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

But since μ and σ are constants, they can be pulled out of the expectation by linearity (part 1).

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma}E(X) - \frac{\mu}{\sigma}$$

But since $E(X) = \mu$ we get

$$= \frac{\mu}{\sigma} - \frac{\mu}{\sigma}$$

$$= 0$$

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

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

Where $\mu_Z = E(Z) = 0$ from the previous part.

$$= E[Z^2]$$

$$= E\left[\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$$

$$= E\left[\frac{X^2 + \mu^2 - 2\mu X}{\sigma^2}\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} [E(X^2) + \mu^2 - 2\mu E(X)]$$

But $E(X) = \mu$ so

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} [E(X^2) - \mu^2]$$

From the lemma proven in part 2,

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \text{var}(X)$$

and since $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X)$,

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2}$$

$$= 1$$

We have proven that $Z \sim N(0, 1)$. $N(0, 1)$ is called the standard normal distribution.

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

This was the lemma that we proved in part 2.

Problem 2

Suppose in the population of voters, the proportion of those who would vote for a certain candidate is 20%.

- (1) If we randomly sample 5 people from the population of voters, what is the probability that we get at least 2 supporters of this candidate?

Each person's support is independent. The probability that a person supports this candidate is 0.2. Let X be the number of people that support this candidate, $n = 5$ and $p = 0.2$.

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

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \geq 2) &= 1 - P(X \leq 1) \\ &= 1 - [P(X = 0) + P(X = 1)] \\ &= 1 - \left[\binom{5}{0} (0.2)^0 (0.8)^5 + \binom{5}{1} (0.2)^1 (0.8)^4 \right] \\ &= 1 - ((0.8)^5 + 5(0.2)^1 (0.8)^4) \\ &= 0.26272 \end{aligned}$$

Of course, computing $P(X \geq 2)$ brute force is also acceptable.

- (2) If we randomly sample 100 people from the population of voters. Let X be the number of people among these 100 people who support the candidate. What is the probability that $X > 28$? You only need to write down this probability. You do not need to calculate it.

Now we have $n = 100$ and $p = 0.2$. So,

$$P(X > 28) = \sum_{k=29}^{100} \binom{100}{k} 0.2^k 0.8^{100-k}$$

Aside: We can calculate this on a computer in software such as R:

```
n <- 100
p <- 0.2
k <- seq(29, 100)
sum(choose(n, k) * (p**k) * ((1-p)**(n - k)))
[1] 0.02002021
```

Thus, the exact answer is $P(X > 28) \approx 0.02$.

Aside: There is a way to compute this directly. Since n is large, and p is not too close to 0 or 1 (or, from Stats 10, since $np > 10$ and $n(1 - p) > 10$) we can use the normal distribution to approximate the normal distribution where $\mu = np = 100 \cdot 0.2 = 20$ and $\sigma = \sqrt{np(1 - p)} = \sqrt{16} = 4$.

$$\begin{aligned}
P(X > 28) &= P\left(Z > \frac{28 - 20}{4}\right) \\
&= P\left(Z > \frac{8}{4}\right) \\
&= P(Z > 2) \\
&= 1 - P(Z < 2)
\end{aligned}$$

Which can be found in a z table or by using R:

$$\approx 0.0228$$

Note that the normal approximation is fairly close, but with an error of 10^{-4} which is OK but not great.

(3) *What is $E(X)$ and $\text{Var}(X)$? What is the standard deviation of X ?*

There is an ambiguity in this problem. It is not clear which n to use from the problem.

In any case, $E(X) = np$ and $\text{Var}(X) = np(1 - p)$ and $\sigma_x = \sqrt{np(1 - p)}$.

	$n = 5$	$n = 100$
$E(X)$	1	20
$\text{Var}(X)$	0.8	16
σ_x	$\sqrt{0.8} = 0.984$	4

Problem 3

For $T \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$, calculate $E(T)$. If $p = .2$, then what is the probability that $T > 5$?

We need to derive $E(T)$ from basic principles. Recall that there are two parameterizations for the geometric distributions.

(1) If t is the number of failures before the first success, then $P(T = t) = (1 - p)^t p$.

(2) If the t th attempt is the first success, then $P(T = t) = (1 - p)^{t-1} p$.

By definition,

$$E(T) = \sum_t tP(T = t)$$

Using the second parameterization,

$$\begin{aligned} E(T) &= \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} tP(T = t) \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} t(1 - p)^{t-1} p \\ &= p \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} t(1 - p)^{t-1} \\ &\quad \text{Trick here:} \\ &= p \left[\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} (1 - p)^{t-1} + \sum_{t=2}^{\infty} (1 - p)^{t-1} + \dots \right] \\ &= p \left[\{1 + (1 - p) + (1 - p)^2 + \dots\} + \{(1 - p) + (1 - p)^2 + \dots\} + \dots \right] \\ &\quad \text{Each term is a convergent geometric series: } \Sigma = \frac{a_0}{1 - \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}} \\ &= p \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - p)} + \frac{1 - p}{1 - (1 - p)} + \dots \right] \\ &= p \left[\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1 - p}{p} + \dots \right] \\ &= 1 + (1 - p) + (1 - p)^2 + \dots \\ &\quad \text{which is a geometric series itself, so} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - (1 - p)} \\ &= \frac{1}{p} \end{aligned}$$

The proof is very similar for the other parameterization, and there are other ways to do this. One common way is by using derivatives.

Now to compute $P(T > 5)$. If we assume that t is the number of failures until the first success, then

$$P(T > 5) = (1 - p)^5 p + (1 - p)^6 p + \dots = \frac{(1 - p)^5 p}{1 - (1 - p)} = (1 - p)^5$$

Thus,

$$P(T > 5) = (0.8)^5 \approx 0.328$$

In general, assuming t is the number of failures until the first success, then $P(T > t) = (1-p)^t$.

Problem 4

Suppose we divide the time axis into small periods $(0, \Delta t), (\Delta t, 2\Delta t), \dots$. Within each period, we flip a coin independently. The probability of getting a head is $\lambda\Delta t$.

- (1) Let X be the number of heads within the interval $[0, t]$. Calculate the limit of $P(X = k)$ as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Also calculate $E(X)$.

Within each subinterval, we flip a coin. The probability of getting a head (a success) is $\lambda\Delta t$ and X is the number of heads that we observe in the interval $[0, t]$. Note that each subinterval forms a Bernoulli trial and the sequence of trials is independent. Start with the binomial distribution.

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

where the probability of success (head) is $\lambda\Delta t$ and the number of trials (subintervals) is $\frac{t}{\Delta t}$. Thus, $n = \frac{t}{\Delta t}, p = \lambda\Delta t$.

The first trick that we need to use is the following

$$(1-p)^{n-k} \approx e^{-np}$$

Proof. If we take the log of $(1-p)^{n-k}$ we get $\log(1-p)^{n-k} = (n-k) \log(1-p)$. Note that for p very small, $p \ll 1$, we can approximate that $\log(1-p) \approx -p$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \log(1-p)^{n-k} &= (n-k) \log(1-p) \\ &\approx (n-k)(-p) \\ &= -p(n-k) \\ &\text{Thus...} \\ (1-p)^{n-k} &\approx e^{-p(n-k)} \\ &\approx e^{-np} \\ &= e^{-\lambda t} \end{aligned}$$

□

Now recall that

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Another trick we can use is that $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \approx n^k$.

Starting with the binomial distribution, we have that $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \approx n^k$ and $(1-p)^{n-k} \approx e^{-np}$, thus in the limit

$$P(X = k) = \frac{(\lambda t)^k e^{-\lambda t}}{k!}$$

- (2) Let T be the time until the first head. Calculate the limit of $P(T > t)$ as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$. In both (1) and (2), let us assume that t is a multiple of λt .

We want to find the probability that the first success occurs after the k th attempt. This is geometric. Recall that $n = \frac{t}{\Delta t}$, $p = \lambda \Delta t$.

$$P(T > k) = (1 - p)^k = (1 - \lambda \Delta t)^{\frac{t}{\Delta t}}$$

Recall that by definition, $(1 + \frac{x}{n})^n \rightarrow e^x$, so $(1 - \lambda \Delta t)^{\frac{t}{\Delta t}} \rightarrow e^{-\lambda t}$

- (3) Please give a real example of X and T with concrete value of λ and its unit. What is the meaning of λ .

Answers will vary.

In general, λ is the rate parameter and specifies the (average) number of events that occur per some unit time (seconds, hours, etc.) Everything, λ , X , and T must all use this same unit of time.

X is a random variable that represents the number of events that happen during *some* unit time.

T is a random variable that represents the time it takes for the first event to occur.

Note that $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. Since T is the amount of time for the first event to occur, $T \sim \text{Geometric}$. If T were the amount of time *between* two events, then T would be exponential.

One common example is a call center. Let's use cell phones since this is 2011. In the call center problem, we have that a particular cell tower receives on average 20 phone calls *per fifteen minutes*. The unit of time here is *fifteen minutes*. Everything in the problem must then be written in terms of *fifteen minutes*. Let X be the number of calls received during some arbitrary *fifteen minute* block of time. Then T represents the amount of time (in *fifteen minute* blocks) until the cell tower receives the first call.

Catch: If we wanted to find the probability that the cell tower receives 70 calls in an *hour*, we need to rewrite it with respect to fifteen minute blocks. This is where λt comes in. The average number of calls *per hour* is $\lambda t = 20 \cdot 4 = 80$ because there are 4 *fifteen minute* blocks in one hour. Then,

$$P(X = 70) = \frac{(80)^{70} e^{-80}}{70!} = 0.025$$