

Master Program in *Data Science and Business Informatics*

Statistics for Data Science

Lesson 09 - Expectation and variance. Computations with random variables

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Expectation of a discrete random variable

- Buy lottery ticket every week, $p = 1/10000$, what is probability of winning at k^{th} week?

$$X \sim \text{Geo}(p) \quad P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} \cdot p \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots$$

- What is the average number of weeks to wait (expected) before winning?

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

because $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot x^{k-1} = 1/(1-x)^2$

DEFINITION. The *expectation* of a discrete random variable X taking the values a_1, a_2, \dots and with probability mass function p is the number

$$E[X] = \sum_i a_i P(X = a_i) = \sum_i a_i p(a_i).$$

- Expected value, mean value (weighted by probability of occurrence), center of gravity

See seeing-theory.brown.edu

Expected value may be infinite or may not exist!

- Fair coin: win 2^k euros if first H appears at k^{th} toss

[St. Petersburg paradox]

- ▶ X with p.m.f. $p(2^k) = 2^{-k}$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots$
- ▶ $p(\cdot)$ is a p.m.f. since $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^{-k} = 1$
- ▶ Expected win (fair value to enter the game):

using $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a^k = \frac{1}{1-a}$ for $|a| < 1$

$$E[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^k \cdot 2^{-k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty$$

- Expectation does not exist when $\sum_i a_i p(a_i)$ does not converge

- ▶ X with p.m.f. $p(2^k) = p(-2^k) = 2^{-k}$ for $k = 2, 3, \dots$
- ▶ $E[X] = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (2^k \cdot 2^{-k} - 2^k \cdot 2^{-k}) = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (1 - 1) = 0$ *wrong!*
- ▶ $E[X] = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} 2^k \cdot 2^{-k} - \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} 2^k \cdot 2^{-k} = \infty - \infty$ *undefined*
- ▶ $E[X]$ is finite if $\sum_i |a_i| p(a_i) < \infty$
- ▶ In the case above, $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (|2^k| \cdot 2^{-k} + |-2^k| \cdot 2^{-k}) = \infty$

Expectation of some other discrete distributions

- Expectation of some other discrete distributions

- ▶ $X \sim U(m, M) \quad E[X] = (m+M)/2$

- $\sum_{i=m}^M \frac{i}{M-m+1} = \frac{1}{M-m+1} \sum_{i=0}^{M-m} (m+i) = m + (M-m)/2 = \frac{m+M}{2}$

- ▶ $X \sim Ber(p) \quad E[X] = p$

- $0 \cdot (1-p) + 1 \cdot p = p$

[Expectation may not belong to the support]

- ▶ $X \sim Bin(n, p) \quad E[X] = n \cdot p$

- Because ... we'll see later

- ▶ $X \sim NBin(n, p) \quad E[X] = \frac{n \cdot p}{1-p}$

- Because ... we'll see later

- ▶ $X \sim Poi(\mu) \quad E[X] = \mu$

- Because, when $n \rightarrow \infty$: $Bin(n, \mu/n) \rightarrow Poi(\mu)$

Expectation of a continuous random variable

DEFINITION. The *expectation* of a continuous random variable X with probability density function f is the number

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx.$$

- Expectation of some continuous distributions

- ▶ $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ $E[X] = (\alpha + \beta)/2$

- ▶ $X \sim Exp(\lambda)$ $E[X] = 1/\lambda$

- Because $\int_0^{\infty} x\lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = [-e^{-\lambda x}(x + 1/\lambda)]_0^{\infty} = e^0(0 + 1/\lambda)$

[See Lesson 06]

- ▶ $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ $E[X] = \mu$

- Because: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})^2} dx = \mu + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu) \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})^2} dx \underset{z=\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}{=} \mu + \sigma \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz = \mu$

- ▶ $X \sim Erl(n, \lambda)$ $E[X] = n/\lambda$

- Because ... we'll see later

Expected value may not exist!

- Cauchy distribution (distribution of the ratio of two standard normals)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}$$

- ▶ $X_1, X_2 \sim N(0, 1)$ i.i.d., $X = X_1/X_2 \sim \text{Cau}(0, 1)$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^0 xf(x)dx + \int_0^{\infty} xf(x)dx$$

- ▶ $\int_{-\infty}^0 xf(x)dx = \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \log(1+x^2)\right]_{-\infty}^0 = -\infty$

- ▶ $\int_0^{\infty} xf(x)dx = \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \log(1+x^2)\right]_0^{\infty} = \infty$

$$E[X] = -\infty + \infty$$

- $E[X]$ is finite if $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|f(x)dx < \infty$

Mean value does not always make sense in your data analytics project!

$E[g(X)] \neq g(E[X])$

- Recall that *velocity* = *space/time*, and then *time* = *space/velocity*!
- Vector v of speed (Km/h) to reach school and probabilities p using feet, bike, bus, train:

$$v = c(5, 10, 20, 30) \quad p = c(0.1, 0.4, 0.25, 0.25)$$

- Distance house-schools is 2 Km
- What is the average time to reach school?
 - ▶ $2/\sum(v*p)$ i.e., *space/E[velocity]*, or
 - ▶ $\sum(2/v*p)$ i.e., *E[space/velocity]*
- X = velocity, $g(X) = 2/X$ time to reach school
 - ▶ $E[g(X)] \neq g(E[X])$
 - ▶ $E[g(X)]$ mean time
 - ▶ $g(E[X])$ time at mean velocity

The change of variable formula (or rule of the lazy statistician)

- $X \sim U(0, 10)$, width of a square field, $E[X] = 5$
- $g(X) = X^2$ is the area of the field, $E[g(X)] = ?$
- $F_g(a) = P(g(X) \leq a) = P(X \leq \sqrt{a}) = \sqrt{a}/10$ for $0 \leq a \leq 100$
- Hence, $f_g(a) = dF_g(a)/da = 1/20\sqrt{a}$
- $E[g(X)] = \frac{1}{20} \int_0^{100} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x}} dx = \frac{1}{20} \frac{2}{3} [x^{3/2}]_0^{100} = 100/3$
- A more direct way:

$$[E[g(X)] \neq g(E[X])]$$

[later on, a general theorem]

THE CHANGE-OF-VARIABLE FORMULA. Let X be a random variable, and let $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function.

If X is discrete, taking the values a_1, a_2, \dots , then

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_i g(a_i)P(X = a_i).$$

If X is continuous, with probability density function f , then

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x) dx.$$

- $E[g(X)] = \int_0^{10} x^2 \frac{1}{10} dx = \frac{1}{10} \frac{1}{3} [x^3]_0^{10} = 100/3$

See R script

Change of units

Theorem (Change of units)

$$E[rX + s] = rE[X] + s$$

- Example: for $Y = 1.8X + 32$, we have $E[Y] = 1.8E[X] + 32$

[Celsius to Fahrenheit]

Corollary.

$$E[X - E[X]] = E[X] - E[X] = 0$$

Theorem. Expectation minimizes the square error, i.e., for $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$E[(X - E[X])^2] \leq E[(X - a)^2]$$

- ▶ Proof. (sketch) set $\frac{d}{da} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - a)^2 f(x) dx = 0$

Computation with discrete random variables

Theorem

For a discrete random variable X , the p.m.f. of $Y = g(X)$ is:

$$P_Y(Y = y) = \sum_{g(x)=y} P_X(X = x) = \sum_{x \in g^{-1}(y)} P_X(X = x)$$

► **Proof.** $\{Y = y\} = \{g(X) = y\} = \{x \in g^{-1}(y)\}$

Corollary (the change-of-variable formula):

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_y y P_Y(Y = y) = \sum_y y \sum_{g(x)=y} P_X(X = x) = \sum_x g(x) P_X(X = x)$$

Example

- $X \sim U(1, 200)$ number of tickets sold
- Capacity is 150
- $Y = \max\{X - 150, 0\}$ overbooked tickets

$$P_Y(Y = y) = \begin{cases} 150/200 & \text{if } y = 0 \\ 1/200 & \text{if } 1 \leq y \leq 50 \end{cases} \quad \begin{matrix} g^{-1}(0) = \{1, \dots, 150\} \\ g^{-1}(y) = \{y + 150\} \end{matrix}$$

- Hence:

$$E[Y] = 0 \cdot \frac{150}{200} + \frac{1}{200} \cdot \sum_{y=1}^{50} y = 6.375$$

or using the change-of-variable formula:

$$E[Y] = \frac{1}{200} \cdot \sum_{x=1}^{200} \max\{X - 150, 0\} = \frac{1}{200} \cdot \sum_{x=151}^{200} (X - 150) = 6.375$$

Computation with continuous random variables

Theorem

For a continuous random variable X , the density functions of $Y = g(X)$ when $g(\cdot)$ is increasing/decreasing are:

$$F_Y(y) = F_X(g^{-1}(y)) \quad f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy} \right|$$

- **Proof.** (for $g(\cdot)$ increasing) Since $g(\cdot)$ is invertible and $g(x) \leq y$ iff $x \leq g^{-1}(y)$:

$$F_Y(y) = P_Y(g(X) \leq y) = P_X(X \leq g^{-1}(y)) = F_X(g^{-1}(y))$$

and then:

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{dF_Y(y)}{dy} = \frac{dF_X(g^{-1}(y))}{dy} = \frac{dF_X(g^{-1}(y))}{dg^{-1}} \frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy} = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy}$$

Exercise at home: show the case $g(\cdot)$ decreasing!

Change of units

CHANGE-OF-UNITS TRANSFORMATION. Let X be a continuous random variable with distribution function F_X and probability density function f_X . If we change units to $Y = rX + s$ for real numbers $r > 0$ and s , then

$$F_Y(y) = F_X\left(\frac{y-s}{r}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{r}f_X\left(\frac{y-s}{r}\right).$$

For $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, how is $Z = \frac{1}{\sigma}X + \frac{-\mu}{\sigma} = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$ distributed?

- $f_Z(z) = \sigma f_X(\sigma z + \mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2}$
- Hence, $Z \sim N(0, 1)$
- In particular, for $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we have:

$$P(X \leq a) = P\left(Z \leq \frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

[See Lesson 08]

Example: $\Lambda(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Log-normal distribution $Y = e^X$ for $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, i.e., $\log(Y) \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

• $Y = g(X) = e^X$ $\text{dom}(Y) =]0, \infty[$

• $g(x) = e^x$ is increasing, and $g^{-1}(y) = \log y$, and $\frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy} = \frac{1}{y}$

$$F_Y(y) = F_X(g^{-1}(y)) = \Phi\left(\frac{\log y - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \quad f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy} = \frac{1}{y\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\log y - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

• $E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f_X(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yf_Y(y)dy = e^{\mu + \sigma^2/2}$

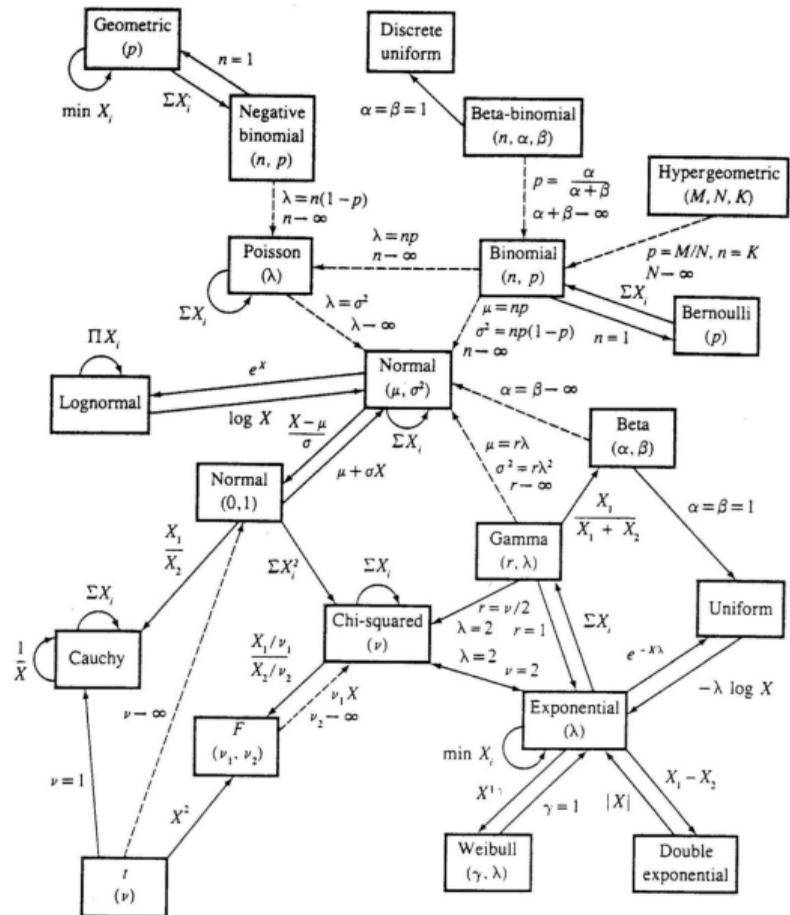
• Plausible and empirically adequate model for long-tailed distributions:

- ▶ length of comments in posts, dwell time reading online articles, length of chess games, ...
- ▶ size of living tissue, number of hospitalized cases in epidemics, blood pressure, ...
- ▶ income of 97%–99% of the population, the number of citations, log of city size, ...
- ▶ times to repair a maintainable system, size of audio-video files, amount of internet traffic per unit time, ...

See R script

Common distributions

- Probability distributions at Wikipedia
- Probability distributions in R
-  C. Forbes, M. Evans, N. Hastings, B. Peacock (2010) Statistical Distributions, 4th Edition Wiley



Relationships among common distributions. Solid lines represent transformations and special cases, dashed lines represent limits. Adapted from Leemis (1986).

Example

- $X \sim U(0, 1)$ radius $f_X(x) = 1$ $F_X(x) = x$ for $x \in [0, 1]$

- $Y = g(X) = \pi \cdot X^2$

Support is $[0, \pi]$

- $g(x) = \pi x^2$ is increasing, and $g^{-1}(y) = \sqrt{\frac{y}{\pi}}$, and $\frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi y}}$

$$F_Y(y) = F_X(g^{-1}(y)) = \sqrt{\frac{y}{\pi}} \quad f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi y}}$$

**Do not lift distributions from a data column
to a derived column in your data analytics project!**

See R script

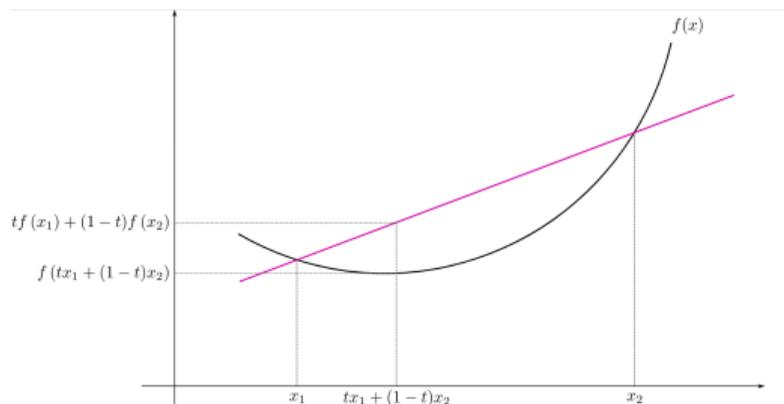
- Notice that: $g(E[X]) = \pi/4 \leq E[g(X)] = \int_0^1 g(x)f_X(x)dx = \int_0^\pi yf_Y(y)dy = \frac{\pi}{3}$

Jensen's inequality

JENSEN'S INEQUALITY. Let g be a convex function, and let X be a random variable. Then

$$g(\mathbb{E}[X]) \leq \mathbb{E}[g(X)].$$

- $f(\cdot)$ is convex if $f(tx_1 + (1-t)x_2) \leq tf(x_1) + (1-t)f(x_2)$ for $t \in [0, 1]$



- if $f''(x) \geq 0$ then $f(\cdot)$ is convex, e.g., $g(x) = \pi x^2$ or $g(x) = 1/x$ for $x \geq 0$

Corollary [T, Ex. 8.11]. For a concave function g , namely $g''(x) \leq 0$: $g(\mathbb{E}[X]) \geq \mathbb{E}[g(X)]$

Variance

- **Investment A.** $P(X = 450) = 0.5$ $P(X = 550) = 0.5$ $E[X] = 500$
- **Investment B.** $P(X = 0) = 0.5$ $P(X = 1000) = 0.5$ $E[X] = 500$

Spread around the mean is important!

Variance and standard deviations

The *variance* $Var(X)$ of a random variable X is the number:

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

$\sigma_X = \sqrt{Var(X)}$ is called the *standard deviation* of X .

- The standard deviation has the same dimension as $E[X]$ (and as X)
- For X discrete, $Var(X) = \sum_i (a_i - E[X])^2 p(a_i)$
- **Investment A.** $Var(X) = 50^2$ and $\sigma_X = 50$
- **Investment B.** $Var(X) = 500^2$ and $\sigma_X = 500$

Examples

- For $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$E[|X - a|] \leq \sqrt{E[(X - a)^2]}$$

- ▶ Apply Jensen's ineq. for $g(y) = y^2$ convex on the r.v. $Y = |X - a|$

- Median minimizes absolute deviation, i.e., for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$E[|X - m_X|] \leq E[|X - a|]$$

- ▶ **Prove it!** (for continuous functions) Hint: $\frac{d}{dx}|x| = x/|x|$

- Maximum distance between expectation and median:

$$|E[X] - m_X| \leq E[|X - m_X|] \leq E[|X - E[X]|] \leq \sqrt{E[(X - E[X])^2]} = \sigma_X$$

- ▶ Jensen's ineq. for $g(y) = |y|$ convex on the r.v. $Y = X - m_X$ plus the two results above

Mode

- For discrete r.v. X with p.m.f. $p(\cdot)$: the values a such that $p(a)$ is maximum, i.e.:

$$\arg \max_a p(a)$$

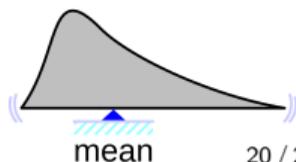
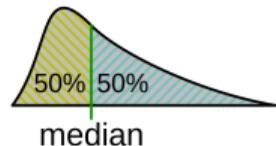
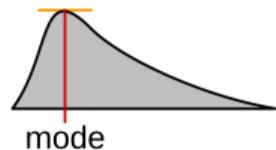
- ▶ Can be more than one, e.g., in $Ber(0.5)$

- For continuous r.v. X with d.f. $f(\cdot)$: the values x such that $f(x)$ is a local maximum, e.g.:

$$f'(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f''(x) < 0$$

- ▶ Notice: **local** maximum!

- Unimodal distribution = that have only one mode



Theorem

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

► **Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X) &= E[(X - E[X])(X - E[X])] \\ &= E[X^2 + E[X]^2 - 2XE[X]] \\ &= E[X^2] + E[X]^2 - E[2XE[X]] \\ &= E[X^2] + E[X]^2 - 2E[X]E[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2\end{aligned}$$

- $E[X^2]$ is called the *second moment* of X for continuous r.v.'s: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx$

Corollary.

$$\text{Var}(rX + s) = r^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

Prove it!

- Variance insensitive to shift s !

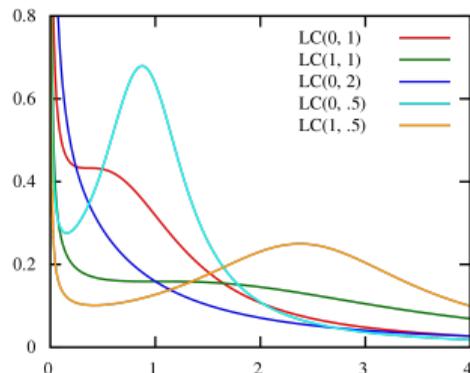
Variance may be infinite or may not exist!

Standard deviation σ_X is a measure of the margin of error around a predicted value

- ▶ E.g., temperature “ 20 ± 1.5 ”

An infinite or non-existent margin of error is no prediction at all.

- Variance may not exist!
 - ▶ If expectation does not exist!
 - ▶ Also in cases when expectation exists: we'll see later *Power laws*.
- Variance can be infinite
 - ▶ Distributions have fat upper tails that decrease at an extremely slow rate.
 - ▶ The slow decay of probability increases the odds of very extreme values (*outliers*)
 - ▶ E.g., e^X for $X \sim \text{Cau}(0, 1)$



[log-Cauchy distribution]

Variance

- Variance of some discrete distributions

- ▶ $X \sim U(m, M)$ $E[X] = \frac{(m+M)}{2}$ $Var(X) = \frac{(M-m+1)^2-1}{12}$
 - use $Var(X) = Var(X - m)$, call $n = M - m + 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i^2 = \frac{(n-1)n(2n-1)}{6}$
- ▶ $X \sim Ber(p)$ $E[X] = p$ $Var(X) = p^2(1-p) + (1-p)^2p = p(1-p)$
- ▶ $X \sim Bin(n, p)$ $E[X] = n \cdot p$ $Var(X) = np(1-p)$
 - Because ... we'll see later
- ▶ $X \sim Geo(p)$ $E[X] = \frac{1}{p}$ $Var(X) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$
 - Hint: use $Var(X) = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 \cdot x^{k-1} = \frac{1+x}{(1-x)^3}$
- ▶ $X \sim NBin(n, p)$ $E[X] = \frac{n \cdot p}{1-p}$ $Var(X) = n \frac{1-p}{p^2}$
 - Because ... we'll see later
- ▶ $X \sim Poi(\mu)$ $E[X] = \mu$ $Var(X) = \mu$
 - Because, when $n \rightarrow \infty$: $Bin(n, \mu/n) \rightarrow Poi(\mu)$

See seeing-theory.brown.edu

Variance

- Variance of some continuous distributions

- ▶ $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ $E[X] = (\alpha + \beta)/2$ $\text{Var}(X) = (\beta - \alpha)^2/12$

- **Prove it!** Recall that $f(x) = 1/(\beta - \alpha)$

- ▶ $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ $E[X] = 1/\lambda$ $\text{Var}(X) = 1/\lambda^2$

- **Prove it!** Recall that $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$

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

- **Prove it!** Hint: use $z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$ and integration by parts.

- ▶ $X \sim \text{Erl}(n, \lambda)$ $E[X] = n/\lambda$ $\text{Var}(X) = n/\lambda^2$

- Because . . . we'll see later

$E[\cdot]$ and $Var(\cdot)$ of random variables with bounded support

- Assume $a \leq X \leq b$, or more generally $P(a \leq X \leq b) = 1$ [almost surely or a.s.]
- It turns out that expectation and variance are finite!

(A) $a \leq E[X] \leq b$

▶ E.g., for X continuous, $E[X] = \int_a^b xf(x)dx \leq \int_a^b bf(x)dx = b$

(B) $0 \leq Var(X) \leq (b-a)^2/4$

Proof.

- ▶ From **(A)**, since $0 \leq (X - E[X])^2$, we have $0 \leq E[(X - E[X])^2] = Var(X)$
- ▶ For any $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $E[(X - E[X])^2] \leq E[(X - \gamma)^2]$ [See slide 9]
 - Thus, $E[(X - E[X])^2] = Var(X) \leq E[(X - \gamma)^2]$
- ▶ For $\gamma = (a+b)/2$, we have $(X - \gamma)^2 \leq (b - \gamma)^2$, and then by **(A)**:

$$Var(X) \leq E[(X - \gamma)^2] \leq (b - \gamma)^2 = \left(b - \frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{(b-a)^2}{4}$$

- **Exercise at home:** show that the bound $(b-a)^2/4$ can be reached for some distribution.