Lecture 23

Definition: The *covariance* between the rvs X and Y is given by

$$Cov(X,Y) = E((X - E(X))(Y - E(Y)))$$
$$= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

Interpretation:

- positive covariance
 - large x's occur with large y's
 - small x's occur with small y's
- negative covariance
 - large x's occur with small y's
 - small x's occur with large y's

Correlation is the scaled and preferred version of covariance.

Definition: The *correlation* between the rvs X and Y is given by

$$\rho = \operatorname{Corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{V}(X)}\sqrt{\operatorname{V}(Y)}}$$

Discussion points:

- $-1 \leq \operatorname{Corr}(X, Y) \leq 1$
- correlation is location/scale invariant
- ρ is the population analogue of r
- ρ typically relevant to continuous rvs
- if a > 0, then Corr(X, aX + b) = 1
- if a < 0, then $\operatorname{Corr}(X, aX + b) = -1$

Example: Obtain the correlation between X and Y where the joint pmf of X and Y is given in the following table.

	X=1	X=2	X=3
Y=1	0.1	0.2	0.3
Y=2	0.0	0.2	0.2

Proposition: If X and Y are independent, then Cov(X, Y) = 0

In addition, Corr(X, Y) = 0 provided V(X) and V(Y) are nonzero. The converse is not true.

Also, recall that correlation does not imply causation. **Proposition:** V(X + Y) = V(X) + V(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y)

Proposition: More generally,

 $\mathbf{V}(aX+bY+c)=a^2\mathbf{V}(X)+b^2\mathbf{V}(Y)+2ab\mathbf{Cov}(X,Y)$

Proposition: Even more generally,

$$V\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i X_i + c\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 V(X_i) + 2\sum_{i < j} a_i a_j \operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$$
$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i X_i + c\right) = c + \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i E(X_i)$$

Lets put some of this stuff together to provide a useful result.

Corollary: Suppose that the rv's X_1, \ldots, X_n are a *sample*. In other words, the X's are independent and arise from a common distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then the sample mean has the following properties:

• $E(\bar{X}) = \mu$

•
$$V(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$$

Suprisingly, we have reached this point in our Statistics course and we have not yet defined the word *statistic*.

Definition: A *statistic* is a function of the data.

Some examples:

- $\bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i / n$ is a statistic
- $S^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i \bar{X})^2 / (n-1)$ is a statistic

Since data are variable, statistics are also variable. Sometimes we are interested in the distributions of statistics. Example: Obtain the distribution of the statistic Q = X + Y where the joint pmf of X and Y is given in the following table.

	X=1	X=2	X=3
Y=1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Y=2	0.2	0.3	0.1

The previous example was simple. To generalize, we need to go a little crazy with notation.

Suppose that X_1, \ldots, X_n are discrete with joint pmf $p(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. Then the pmf for the general statistic $Q(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ is

$$p_Q(q) = \sum_A p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

where the sum is a multiple sum and A is the set of x_1, \ldots, x_n such that $Q(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = q$.

Suppose that X_1, \ldots, X_n are continuous with joint pdf $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. Then the cdf for the general statistic $Q(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ is

$$F_Q(q) = P(Q \le q) = \int_A f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \ dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

where the integral is a multiple integral and A is the set of x_1, \ldots, x_n such that $Q(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \leq q$. I have mentioned previously that statistical practice relies heavily on computation. Here is a simulation procedure that can be used to approximate distributions of statistics when the sums and integrals from the previous page are too difficult to obtain analytically.

- Repeat the following two steps M times where M is large and let i denote the i-th iteration
 - generate x_1, \ldots, x_n according to $p(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ or $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ (depending whether the data are discrete or continuous)
 - -calculate $Q_i = Q(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ for the data
- approximate the distbn of **Q** with a histogram based on generated outcomes Q_1, \ldots, Q_M