CSE 312 Foundations of Computing II

Lecture 11: Zoo of Discrete RVs, part I

Slido.com/3680281

Agenda

- Recap
- Independent R.V.s and their properties
- Zoo of Discrete RVs
 - Uniform Random Variables
 - Bernoulli Random Variables
 - Binomial Random Variables
 - Geometric Random Variables

Review Expected Value of a Random Variable

Definition. Given a discrete $\mathbb{RV} X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, the **expectation** or **expected value** or **mean** of *X* is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega) \cdot P(\omega)$$

or equivalently

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} x \cdot P(X = x) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} x \cdot p_X(x)$$

Intuition: "Weighted average" of the possible outcomes (weighted by probability)

Another Interpretation

"If X is how much you win playing the game in one round. How much would you expect to win, <u>on average</u>, per game, when repeatedly playing?"

Answer: $\mathbb{E}[X]$

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"If X is how much you win playing the game in one round. How much would you expect to win, <u>on average</u>, per game, when repeatedly playing?"

Answer: $\mathbb{E}[X]$

The Law of Large Numbers*

If $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) (all have same pmf), then their average value tends to $\mathbb{E}[X]$ with probability 1, i.e., $\Pr(|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mathbb{E}[X]| \ge \epsilon) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$

Recap Linearity of Expectation

Theorem. For any two random variables X and Y $\mathbb{E}[X + Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y].$

Or, more generally: For any random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n ,

 $\mathbb{E}[X_1 + \dots + X_n] = \mathbb{E}[X_1] + \dots + \mathbb{E}[X_n].$

Theorem. For any random variables *X*, and constants *a* and *b* $\mathbb{E}[aX + b] = a \cdot \mathbb{E}[X] + b.$

Recap Using LOE to compute complicated expectations

Often boils down to the following three steps:

<u>Decompose</u>: Finding the right way to decompose the random variable into sum of simple random variables

 $X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$

• LOE: Apply linearity of expectation.

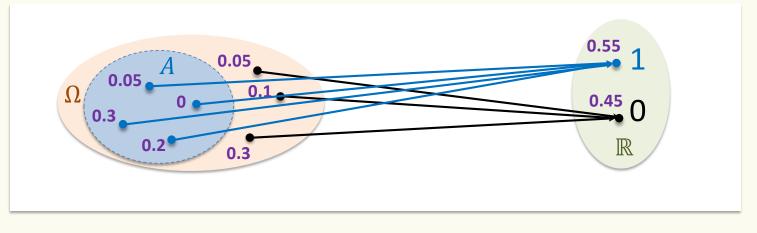
 $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X_1] + \dots + \mathbb{E}[X_n].$

<u>Conquer</u>: Compute the expectation of each X_i

Often, X_i are indicator (0/1) random variables.

Recap Indicator random variables – 0/1 valued

For any event *A*, can define the indicator random variable X_A for *A* $X_A = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if event } A \text{ occurs} \\ 0 & \text{if event } A \text{ does not occur} \end{cases} \begin{cases} P(X_A = 1) = P(A) \\ P(X_A = 0) = 1 - P(A) \end{cases}$



 $\mathbb{E}[X_A] = P(A) = p$

Recap Expected Value of g(X) -- LOTUS

Definition. Given a discrete RV $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, the **expectation** or **expected** value or mean of g(X) is

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} g(X(\omega)) \cdot P(\omega)$$

or equivalently

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} g(x) \cdot P(X = x) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} g(x) \cdot p_X(x)$$

Also known as LOTUS: "Law of the unconscious statistician

(nothing special going on in the discrete case)

Recap Variance – Properties

Definition. The **variance** of a (discrete) RV *X* is $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \sum_x p_X(x) \cdot (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^2$ **Theorem.** $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$

Theorem. For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $Var(a \cdot X + b) = a^2 \cdot Var(X)$

Questions

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The variance of a (discrete) RV X is

Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \sum_x p_X(x) \cdot (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^2.
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- Can the variance of a random variable be negative?
- Is Var(X + 5) = Var (X) + 5?
- Is it true that if Var(X) = 0, then X is a constant?
- What is the relationship between $E(X^2)$ and $[E(X)]^2$?

Recap Variance of Indicator Random Variables

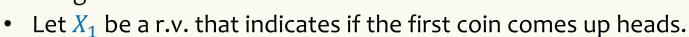
Suppose that X_A is an indicator RV for event A with P(A) = p so $\mathbb{E}[X_A] = P(A) = p$

Since X_A only takes on values 0 and 1, we always have $X_A^2 = X_A$ so

 $Var(X_A) = \mathbb{E}[X_A^2] - \mathbb{E}[X_A]^2 = \mathbb{E}[X_A] - \mathbb{E}[X_A]^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p)$

Recap In General, $Var(X + Y) \neq Var(X) + Var(Y)$

Proof by counter-example: Recall glued coins



- Let X_2 be a r.v. that indicates if the second coin comes up heads.
- Outcomes are HT and TH, each with probability 0.5
- Therefore, X_1 and X_2 are indicator random variables with probability 0.5 of being 1.
- Therefore, they both have expectation 0.5 and variance 0.25.
- Thus $Var(X_1) + Var(X_2) = 0.5$
- On the other hand, $X_1 + X_2$ counts the number of heads in the outcome, which is always 1. Therefore $Var(X_1 + X_2) = 0$



Recap Random Variables and Independence

Comma is shorthand for AND

Definition. Two random variables *X*, *Y* are **(mutually) independent** if for all *x*, *y*,

$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x) \cdot P(Y = y)$$

Intuition: Knowing X doesn't help you guess Y and vice versa

Definition. The random variables $X_1, ..., X_n$ are **(mutually) independent** if for all $x_1, ..., x_n$,

$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n) = P(X_1 = x_1) \cdots P(X_n = x_n)$$

Note: No need to check for all subsets, but need to check for all values!

Important Facts about Independent Random Variables

Theorem. If *X*, *Y* independent, $\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$

Theorem. If *X*, *Y* independent, Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)

Corollary. If $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ mutually independent, $\operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_i^n \operatorname{Var}(X_i)$

Proof not covered

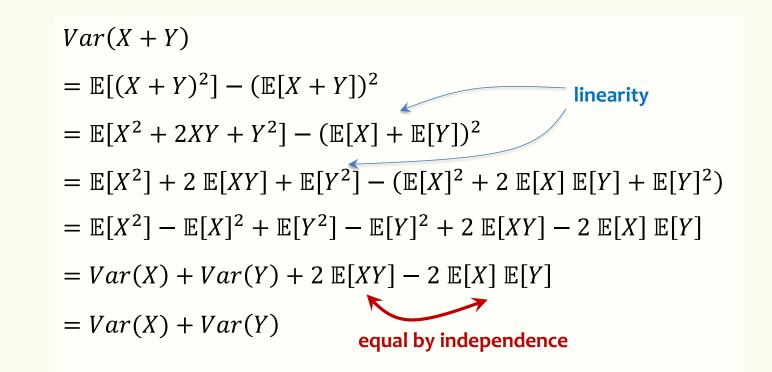
Theorem. If X, Y independent, $\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$ Proof Let x_i , y_i , i = 1, 2, ... be the possible values of X, Y. $\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} x_{i} \cdot y_{j} \cdot P(X = x_{i} \wedge Y = y_{j})$ independence $=\sum_{i}\sum_{i}x_{i}\cdot y_{i}\cdot P(X=x_{i})\cdot P(Y=y_{j})$ $=\sum_{i} x_{i} \cdot P(X = x_{i}) \cdot \left(\sum_{i} y_{j} \cdot P(Y = y_{j})\right)$ $= \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$ Note: NOT true in general; see earlier example $\mathbb{E}[X^2] \neq \mathbb{E}[X]^2$

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Proof not covered

Theorem. If *X*, *Y* independent, Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)

Proof



Example – Coin Tosses

We flip n independent coins, each one heads with probability p

- $X_i = \begin{cases} 1, \ i^{\text{th}} \text{ outcome is heads} \\ 0, \ i^{\text{th}} \text{ outcome is tails.} \end{cases}$ - Z = number of headsBy LOE $\mathbb{E}[Z] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_i) = np$ $P(X_i = 1) = p$ $P(X_i = 0) = 1 - p$ $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = p$ $P(Z = k) = {n \choose k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$

Example – Coin Tosses

We flip n independent coins, each one heads with probability p

- $X_i = \begin{cases} 1, \ i^{\text{th}} \text{ outcome is heads} \\ 0, \ i^{\text{th}} \text{ outcome is tails.} \end{cases}$ Fact. $Z = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ $P(X_i = 1) = p$ - Z = number of heads $P(X_i = 0) = 1 - p$ $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = p$ By LOE $\mathbb{E}[Z] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(X_i) = np$ $P(Z=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$ Note: X_1 , ..., X_n are <u>mutually</u> independent! $Var(Z) = \sum Var(X_i) = n \cdot p(1-p)$ Note $Var(X_i) = p(1-p)$ 20

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- Zoo of Discrete RVs, Part I 🗨
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 - Bernoulli Random Variables
 - Binomial Random Variables
 - Geometric Random Variables

Motivation for "Named" Random Variables

Random Variables that show up all over the place.

 Easily solve a problem by recognizing it's a special case of one of these random variables.

Each RV introduced today will show:

- A general situation it models
- Its name and parameters
- Its PMF, Expectation, and Variance
- Example scenarios you can use it

Welcome to the Zoo! (Preview) 🄝 🐄 😂 🦐 🦙 🦒

$X \sim \text{Unif}(a, b)$	$X \sim \operatorname{Ber}(p)$	$X \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n, p)$
$P(X = k) = \frac{1}{b - a + 1}$ $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{a + b}{2}$	P(X = 1) = p, P(X = 0) = 1 - p	$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$
	$\mathbb{E}[X] = p$	$\mathbb{E}[X] = np$
$Var(X) = \frac{(b-a)(b-a+2)}{12}$	Var(X) = p(1-p)	Var(X) = np(1-p)
V C ()		
$X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$	$X \sim \operatorname{NegBin}(r, p)$	$X \sim \text{HypGeo}(N, K, n)$
	$P(X = k) = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r}$	$P(X = k) = \frac{\binom{K}{k}\binom{N-K}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}}$
$X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$ $P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k - 1}p$ $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{p}$ $Var(X) = \frac{1 - p}{p^2}$		

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Discrete Uniform Random Variables

A discrete random variable X equally likely to take any (integer) value between integers a and b (inclusive), is uniform.

Notation:

PMF:

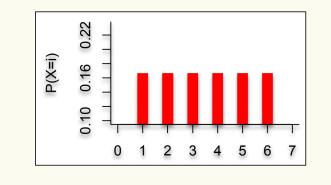
Expectation:

Variance:

Example: value shown on one roll of a fair die is Unif(1,6):

- P(X = i) = 1/6
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = 7/2$

•
$$Var(X) = 35/12$$



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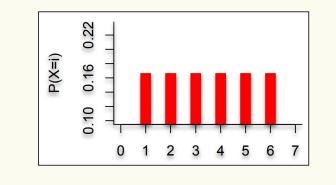
Discrete Uniform Random Variables

A discrete random variable X equally likely to take any (integer) value between integers a and b (inclusive), is uniform.

Notation: $X \sim \text{Unif}(a, b)$ PMF: $P(X = i) = \frac{1}{b - a + 1}$ Expectation: $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{a + b}{2}$ Variance: $Var(X) = \frac{(b - a)(b - a + 2)}{12}$ Example: value shown on one roll of a fair die is Unif(1,6): • P(X = i) = 1/6

• $\mathbb{E}[X] = 7/2$

•
$$Var(X) = 35/12$$



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Bernoulli Random Variables

A random variable X that takes value 1 ("Success") with probability p, and 0 ("Failure") otherwise. X is called a Bernoulli random variable. Notation: $X \sim Ber(p)$ PMF: P(X = 1) = p, P(X = 0) = 1 - pExpectation: Variance: Poll: Slide com/3680281

Poll:		
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Mean	Variance	
A. <i>p</i>	p	
В. <i>р</i>	1 - p	
C. <i>p</i>	p(1-p)	
D. <i>p</i>	p^2	

Bernoulli Random Variables

A random variable X that takes value 1 ("Success") with probability p, and 0 ("Failure") otherwise. X is called a Bernoulli random variable. Notation: $X \sim Ber(p)$ PMF: P(X = 1) = p, P(X = 0) = 1 - pExpectation: $\mathbb{E}[X] = p$ Note: $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = p$ Variance: $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p)$

Examples:

- Coin flip
- Randomly guessing on a MC test question
- A server in a cluster fails
- Whether or not a share of a particular stock pays off or not
- Any indicator r.v.

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Binomial Random Variables

A discrete random variable $X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$ where each $Y_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$. Counts number of successes in *n* independent trials, each with probability *p* of success.

X is a Binomial random variable

Examples: # of heads in n indep coin flips # of 1s in a randomly generated n bit string # of servers that fail in a cluster of n computers # of bit errors in file written to disk # of elements in a bucket of a large hash table # of n different stocks that "pay off"

Poll:
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$$P(X = k) =$$

A. $p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k}$
B. np
C. $\binom{n}{k}p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k}$
D. $\binom{n}{n-k}p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k}$

Binomial Random Variables

A discrete random variable $X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$ where each $Y_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$. Counts number of successes in n independent trials, each with probability p of success.

X is a Binomial random variable

Notation: $X \sim Bin(n, p)$ PMF: $P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k}p^k(1-p)^{n-k}$ Expectation: Variance:

Poll: Slido.com/3680281		
	Mean	Variance
A.	p	p
Β.	np	np(1-p)
С.	np	np^2
D.	np	n^2p

Binomial Random Variables

A discrete random variable $X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$ where each $Y_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$. Counts number of successes in *n* independent trials, each with probability *p* of success. *X* is a Binomial random variable

Notation: $X \sim Bin(n, p)$ PMF: $P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k}p^k(1-p)^{n-k}$ Expectation: $\mathbb{E}[X] = np$ Variance: Var(X) = np(1-p)

Mean, Variance of the Binomial "i.i.d." is a commonly used phrase. It means "independent & identically distributed"

If
$$Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n \sim \text{Ber}(p)$$
 and independent (i.i.d.), then
 $X = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i, \quad X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$

Claim
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = np$$

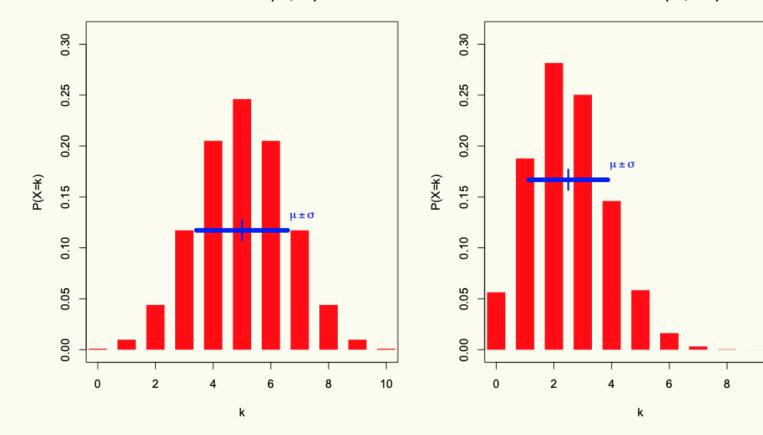
 $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}[Y_i] = n\mathbb{E}[Y_1] = np$
Claim $Var(X) = np(1-p)$

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{i}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}(Y_{i}) = n\operatorname{Var}(Y_{1}) = np(1-p)$$

Binomial PMFs

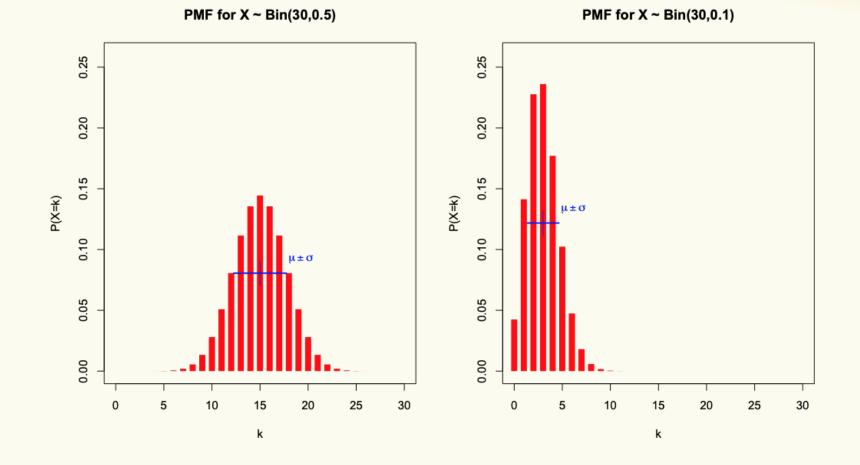
PMF for X ~ Bin(10,0.5)

PMF for X ~ Bin(10,0.25)



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Binomial PMFs



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Geometric Random Variables

A discrete random variable X that models the number of independent trials $Y_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ before seeing the first success.

X is called a Geometric random variable with parameter *p*.

Examples:

- # of coin flips until first head
- # of random guesses on MC questions until you get one right
- # of random guesses at a password until you hit it

Geometric Random Variables

A discrete random variable X that models the number of independent trials $Y_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ before seeing the first success.

X is called a Geometric random variable with parameter *p*.

Notation: $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$ PMF: $P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$ Expectation: $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{p}$

Variance: $Var(X) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$

Examples:

- # of coin flips until first head
- # of random guesses on MC questions until you get one right
- # of random guesses at a password until you hit it
- # hash trials until a miner successfully mines a Bitcoin

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 - More examples 🗨

Example

Sending a binary message of length 1024 bits over a network with probability 0.999 of correctly sending each bit in the message without corruption (independent of other bits).

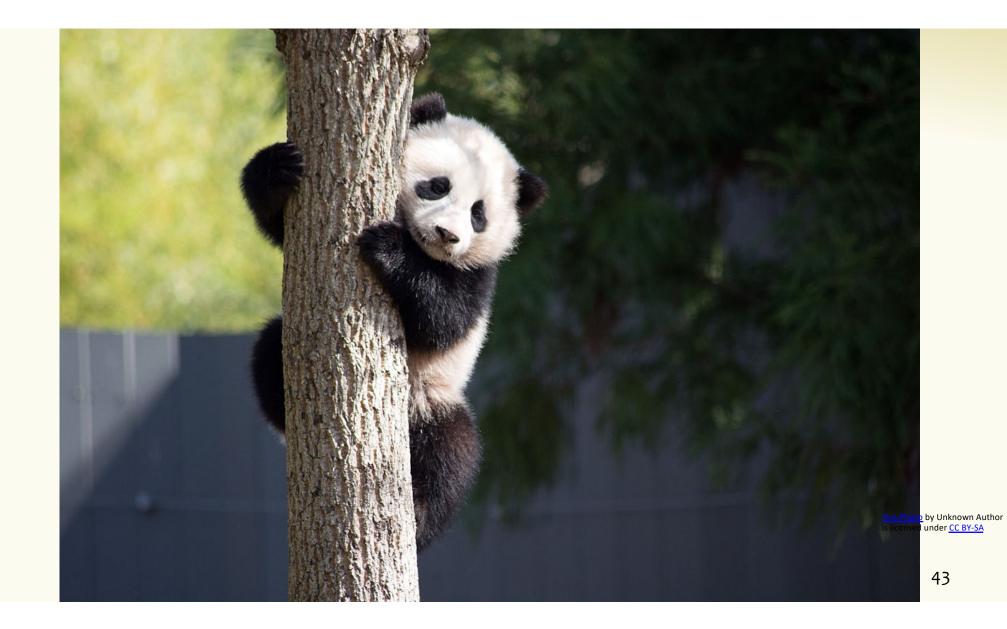
Let *X* be the number of corrupted bits.

What kind of random variable is this and what is $\mathbb{E}[X]$?

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Example: Music Lessons

Your music teacher requires you to play a 1000 note song without mistake. You have been practicing, so you have a probability of 0.999 of getting each note correct (independent of the others). If you mess up a single note in the song, you must start over and play from the beginning. Let X be the number of times you have to play the song from the start. What kind of random variable is this and what is $\mathbb{E}[X]$?



Agenda

• Zoo of Discrete RVs

- Uniform Random Variables
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- Binomial Random Variables
- Geometric Random variables
- Examples
- Poisson Distribution
 - Approximate Binomial distribution using Poisson distribution

Preview: Poisson

Model: *X* is *#* events that occur in an hour

- Expect to see 3 events per hour (but will be random)
- The expected number of events in t hours, is 3t
- Occurrence of events on disjoint time intervals is independent

Example – Modelling car arrivals at an intersection

X = # of cars passing through a light in 1 hour

Example – Model the process of cars passing through a light in 1 hour

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X = # cars passing through a light in 1 hour. \mathbb{E}[X] = 3
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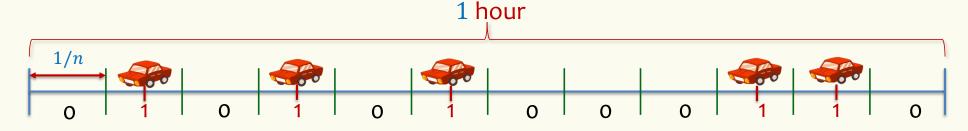
Assume: Occurrence of events on disjoint time intervals is independent

Approximation idea: Divide hour into *n* intervals of length 1/n



Example – Model the process of cars passing through a light in 1 hour

X = # cars passing through a light in 1 hour. Disjoint time intervals are independent. Know: $\mathbb{E}[X] = 3$

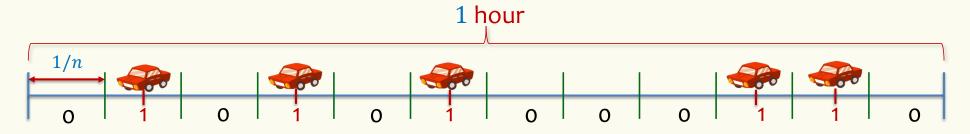


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This gives us n independent intervals
Assume either zero or one car per interval
p = probability car arrives in an interval
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What should *p* be? Slido.com/3680281 A. 3/n B. 3n C. 3 D. 3/60 47

Example – Model the process of cars passing through a light in 1 hour

X = # cars passing through a light in 1 hour. Disjoint time intervals are independent. Know: $\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda$ for some given $\lambda > 0$

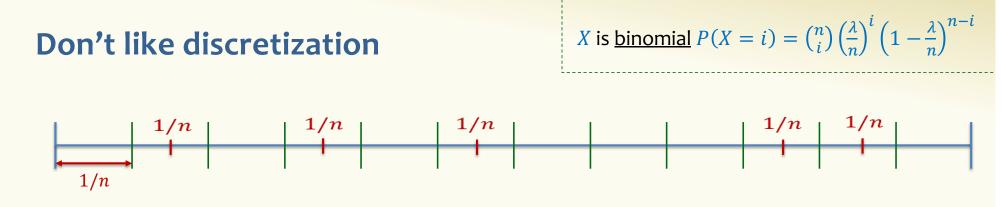


Discrete version: *n* intervals, each of length 1/n. In each interval, there is a car with probability $p = \lambda/n$ (assume ≤ 1 car can pass by)

Each interval is Bernoulli: $X_i = 1$ if car in i^{th} interval (0 otherwise). $P(X_i = 1) = \lambda / n$

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \qquad X \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n, p) \qquad P(X = i) = {\binom{n}{i}} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{i} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-i}$$

indeed! $\mathbb{E}[X] = pn = \lambda$ 48

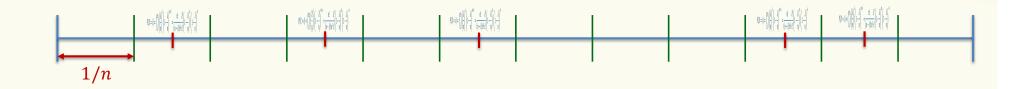


We want now $n \rightarrow \infty$

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Don't like discretization

X is <u>binomial</u> $P(X = i) = {\binom{n}{i}} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{i} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-i}$



We want now $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$P(X = i) = {\binom{n}{i}} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{i} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-i} = \frac{n!}{(n-i)! n^{i}} \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-i}$$

$$\rightarrow P(X = i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!}$$
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Poisson Distribution

- Suppose "events" happen, independently, at an *average* rate of λ per unit time.
- Let X be the actual number of events happening in a given time unit. Then X is a Poisson r.v. with parameter λ (denoted X ~ Poi(λ)) and has distribution (PMF):

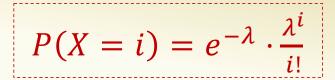
$$P(X = i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

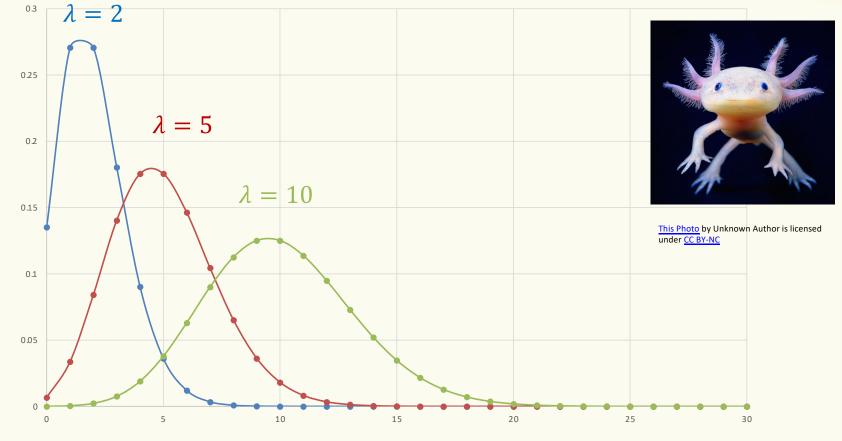
Several examples of "Poisson processes":

- *#* of cars passing through a traffic light <u>in 1 hour</u>
- *#* of requests to web servers <u>in an hour</u>
- # of photons hitting a light detector in a given interval
- # of patients arriving to ER within an hour

Assume fixed average rate

Probability Mass Function





Validity of Distribution

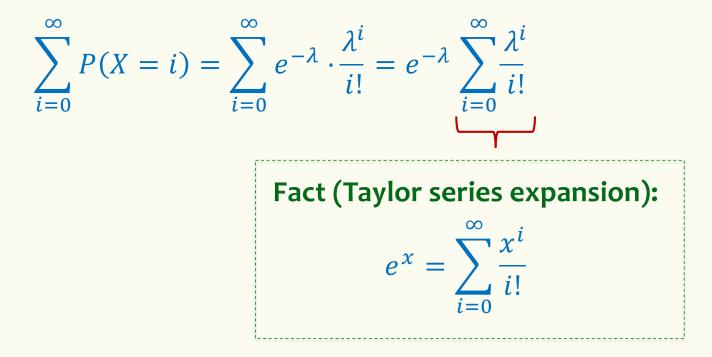
$$P(X = i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!}$$
 $i = 0, 1, 2, ...$

Is this a valid probability mass function?

Validity of Distribution

$$P(X=i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

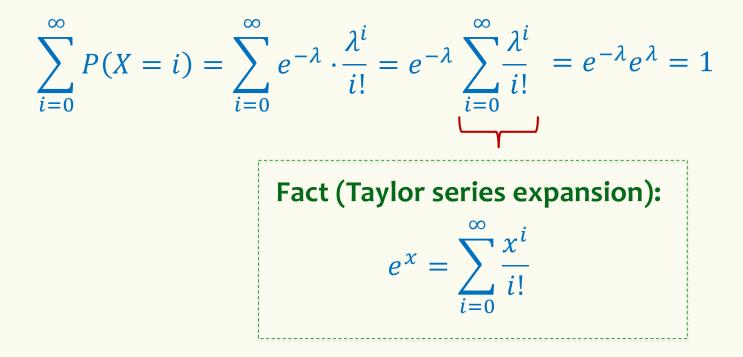
We first want to verify that Poisson probabilities sum up to 1.



Validity of Distribution

$$P(X=i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

We first want to verify that Poisson probabilities sum up to 1.



Expectation

$$P(X=i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

Theorem. If *X* is a Poisson RV with parameter $\lambda \ge 0$, then $\mathbb{E}[X] = ?$

Proof.
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P(X=i) \cdot i =$$

Expectation

$$P(X=i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

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Theorem. If *X* is a Poisson RV with parameter λ , then $\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda$

Proof.
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P(X=i) \cdot i = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!} \cdot i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i}}{(i-1)!}$$
$$= \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i-1}}{(i-1)!}$$
$$= \lambda \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!} = 1 \text{ (see prior slides!)}$$
$$= \lambda \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!} = \lambda \cdot 1 = \lambda$$

Variance

$$P(X=i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

Theorem. If *X* is a Poisson RV with parameter λ , then $Var(X) = \lambda$

Proof.
$$\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P(X=i) \cdot i^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} \cdot i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{(i-1)!} i$$
$$= \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{i-1}}{(i-1)!} \cdot i = \lambda \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^j}{j!} \cdot (j+1)$$
$$= \lambda \left[\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^j}{j!} \cdot j + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^j}{j!} \right] = \lambda^2 + \lambda$$
Similar to the previous proof Verify offline.

 $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2 = \lambda^2 + \lambda - \lambda^2 = \lambda$ 58