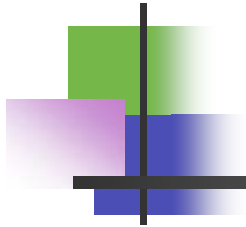


Chapter 4

Expectation



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Outlines

- ◆ The Expectation of a $R.V.$
- ◆ The Expectation of typical distributions
- ◆ Properties of Expectations
- ◆ The mean and the Median
- ◆ Variance
- ◆ The Variance of typical distributions
- ◆ Moments
- ◆ Covariance and Correlation
- ◆ Conditional Expectation



Expectation of a Discrete Distribution-1

◆ **Ex1 (Book Ex4.1.2) Stock Price Change.** Suppose that the change in price of a stock is a *R.V.* X that can assume only the four different values $-2, 0, 1$, and 4 , and that $\Pr(X=-2) = 0.1$, $\Pr(X=0) = 0.4$, $\Pr(X=1) = 0.3$, and $\Pr(X=4) = 0.2$. Then the weighted average of these values is

$$-2(0.1) + 0(0.4) + 1(0.3) + 4(0.2) = 0.9.$$

0.9 is the *average value*, or *expected value*, or the *mean*, or the *expectation* of X .

◆ **Definition 4.1.1 Mean of Bounded Discrete *R.V.*** Let X be a bounded discrete *R.V.* whose p.f. is f . The *expectation of X* , denoted by $E(X)$, is a **number** defined:

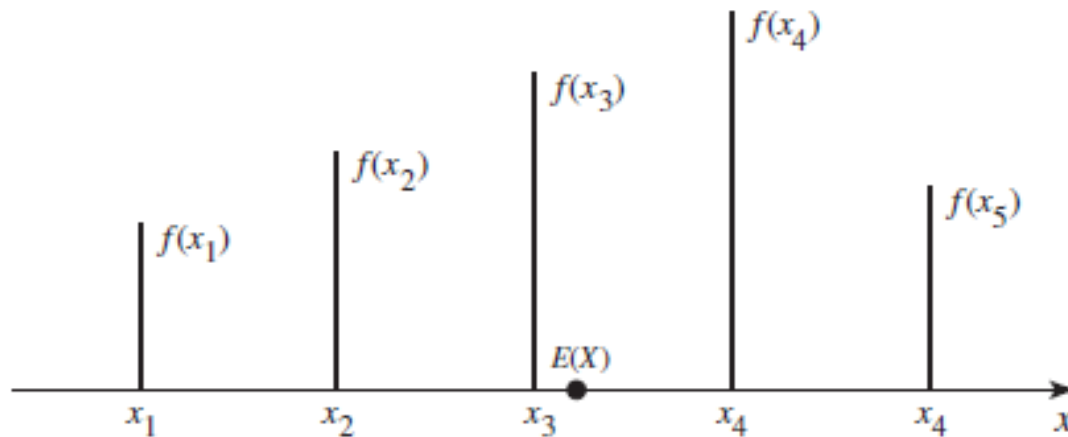
$$E(X) = \sum_{\text{All } x} xf(x).$$

Q: Suppose X is a Bernoulli *R.V.*, what's $E(X)$?



Interpretation of the Expectation

- ◆ The mean of a distribution can be regarded as being the center of gravity of that distribution.



- ◆ x -axis may be regarded as a long weightless rod;
- ◆ $f(x_i)$ is the weight attached to this rod at each point x_i ;
- ◆ The rod will be balanced if it is supported at the point $E(X)$.

Every two *R.V.s* that have the same distribution will have the same mean. However, not vice versa.



Expectation of a Discrete Distribution-2

◆ **Definition 4.1.2 Mean of General Discrete R.V.** Let X be a discrete R.V. whose p.f. is f . Suppose that at least one of the following sums is finite:

$$\sum_{\text{Positive } x} xf(x), \quad \sum_{\text{Negative } x} xf(x).$$

Then the *mean*, *expectation*, or *expected value* of X is said to **exist** and is defined to be

$$E(X) = \sum_{\text{All } x} xf(x).$$

If both of the sums in are infinite, then $E(X)$ does not exist. Why? Fails to converge or converge to many different values in different orders of the terms.





Expectation of a Discrete Distribution-2

◆ Ex2 (Book Ex4.1.4) The Mean of X Does Not Exist.

Let X be a $R.V.$ whose p.f. is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2|x|(|x|+1)} & \text{if } x = \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

It can be verified that this function satisfies the conditions required to be a p.f. The two sums are

$$\sum_{x=-1}^{-\infty} x \frac{1}{2|x|(|x|+1)} = -\infty \text{ and } \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{2x(x+1)} = \infty;$$

hence, $E(X)$ does not exist.





Expectation of a Discrete Distribution-3

◆ Ex3 (Book Ex4.1.5) An Infinite Mean.

Let X be a $R.V.$ whose p.f. is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x(x+1)} & \text{if } x = 1, 2, 3, \dots, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The sum over negative values $\sum_{\text{Negative } x} xf(x)$ is 0,

so the mean of X exists and is

$$E(X) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{x(x+1)} = \infty.$$

We say that the mean of X is infinite in this case.



Mean of a Continuous Distribution-1

◆ Definition 4.1.3 Mean of Bounded Continuous $R.V.$

Let X be a bounded continuous $R.V.$ whose p.d.f. is f . The expectation of X , denoted $E(X)$, is defined as follows:

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

◆ **Ex4 (Book Ex4.1.6) Expected Failure Time.** An appliance has a maximum lifetime of one year. The time X until it fails is a $R.V.$ with a continuous distribution having p.d.f.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{for } 0 < x < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = \int_0^1 x(2x)dx = \left. \frac{2}{3}x^3 \right|_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}.$$





Mean of a Continuous Distribution-2

Definition 4.1.4 Mean of General Continuous R.V.

Let X be a continuous random variable whose p.d.f. is f . Suppose that at least one of the following integrals is finite

$$\int_0^{\infty} xf(x)dx, \int_{-\infty}^0 xf(x)dx.$$

Then the *mean*, *expectation*, or *expected value* of X is said to exist and is defined to be

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

If both of the integrals are infinite, then *$E(X)$ does not exist*.



The Expectation of a Function - 1

◆ **Functions of a Single R.V.** If X is a R.V. for which the p.d.f. is f , then the expectation (if exists) of each real-valued function $Y=r(X)$ can be found by:

$$E[r(X)] = E(Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yg(y)dy.$$

◆ **Ex5 (Book Ex4.1.11)** Suppose the p.d.f. of X is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 3x^2 & \text{if } 0 < x < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$Y=1/X$. Find $E(Y)$.

Let $Y=r(X) = 1/X$. Then $g(y) = \begin{cases} 3y^{-4} & \text{if } y > 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

The mean of Y is $E(Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y3y^{-4}dy = \frac{3}{2}$.





The Expectation of a Function - 2

◆ Theorem 4.1.1 Law of the Unconscious Statistician.

Let X be a $R.V.$, and let r be a real valued function of a real variable. If X has a continuous distribution, then

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

if the mean exists. If X has a discrete distribution, then

$$E[r(X)] = \sum_{\text{All } x} r(x)f(x),$$

if the mean exists.

Ex6 (Book Ex4.1.12) Failure Rate and Time to Failure.

$$E(Y) = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} 3x^2 dx = \frac{3}{2}.$$



The Expectation of a Function - 3

◆ **Note: In General, $E[g(x)] \neq g[E(x)]$.**

◆ e.g., In Ex4, we have that for the R.V., X ,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{for } 0 < x < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = \int_0^1 x(2x)dx = \left. \frac{2}{3}x^3 \right|_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Suppose $g(X) = \sqrt{X}$.

$$E[g(X)] = \int_0^1 \sqrt{x}(2x)dx = 2 \int_0^1 x^{\frac{3}{2}}dx = \frac{4}{5}.$$

$$g[E(X)] = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}. \quad E[g(X)] \neq g[E(X)].$$

A linear function g does satisfy $E[g(x)] = g[E(x)]$.





Functions of Several *R.V.s* - 1

◆ **Theorem 4.1.2 Law of the Unconscious Statistician.**

Suppose that X_1, \dots, X_n are *R.V.s* with the joint p.d.f. $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. Let r be a real-valued function of n real variables, and suppose that $Y = r(X_1, \dots, X_n)$. Then $E(Y)$ can be determined directly from the relation

$$E(Y) = \int \cdots \int_{R^n} r(x_1, \dots, x_n) f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n,$$

if the mean exists. Similarly, if X_1, \dots, X_n have a discrete joint distribution with p.f. $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, the mean of $Y = r(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is

$$E(Y) = \sum_{\text{All } x_1, \dots, x_n} r(x_1, \dots, x_n) f(x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

if the mean exists.





Functions of Several *R.V.s* - 2

◆ **Ex6 (Book Ex4.1.16) Determining the Expectation of a Function of Two Variables.** Suppose that a point (X, Y) is chosen at random from the square S containing all points (x, y) , such that $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 1$. Determine the expected value of $X^2 + Y^2$.

Sol: the joint p.d.f. of X and Y is

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } (x, y) \in S, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2 + Y^2) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x^2 + y^2) f(x, y) dx dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) f(x, y) dx dy = \frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$



The expectation of Typical R.V.s-1

◆ Definition 5.2.1 Bernoulli Distribution

A R.V. X has the *Bernoulli distribution with parameter p* ($0 \leq p \leq 1$) if X can take **only the values 0 and 1** and the probabilities are

$$\Pr(X=1)=p \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr(X=0)=1-p.$$

The p.f. of X is

$$f(x | p) = \begin{cases} p^x (1-p)^{1-x} & \text{for } x = 0, 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The expectation of X is

$$E(X) = 0 \times (1-p) + 1 \times p = p.$$

$$E(X^2) = 0^2 \times (1-p) + 1^2 \times p = p.$$



The expectation of Typical *R.V.s*-2

◆ Definition 5.2.3 Binomial Distribution

A *R.V.* X has the binomial distribution with parameters n and p if X has a discrete distribution with the p.f.

$$f(x | n, p) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} & \text{for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Where $0 \leq p \leq 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{i=0}^n i \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i} = np \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n-1}{i-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(i-1)} p^{i-1} \\ &= np[p + (1-p)]^{n-1} = np. \end{aligned}$$



The expectation of Typical R.V.s-3

◆ **Theorem 5.2.1** If the R.V.s X_1, \dots, X_n form n Bernoulli trials with parameter p , and if $X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$, then X has the binomial distribution with parameters n and p .

◆ **Two conditions of Theorem 5.2.1**

- 1) All X_i are mutually independent.
- 2) All X_i have the same parameter p .

◆ In this case

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i) = np.$$



The expectation of Typical R.V.s-4

◆ Definition 5.4.1 Poisson Distribution.

Let $\lambda > 0$, a R.V. X has the *Poisson distribution with mean λ* if the p.f. of X is as follows

$$f(x | \lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{x=0}^{+\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=1}^{+\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!} \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \quad (k = x - 1) \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda} = \lambda \end{aligned}$$





The expectation of Typical R.V.s-5

◆ **Theorem 3.2.1 Uniform Distribution p.d.f.** If X has the uniform distribution on an interval $[a, b]$, then the p.d.f of X is

$$f(x | a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b xdx = \frac{a+b}{2}$$



The expectation of Typical R.V.s-6

◆ **Definition 5.6.1** A R.V. X has the *normal distribution* with mean μ and variance σ^2 ($-\infty < \mu < \infty$ and $\sigma > 0$) if X has a continuous distribution with the following p.d.f.:

$$f(x | \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} \quad \text{for } -\infty < x < \infty$$

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$$

$$\stackrel{t=\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} (\mu + \sigma t) e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sigma t e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt + \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \mu e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

$$= 0 + \mu \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt = \mu.$$



The expectation of Typical R.V.s-7

◆ **Definition 5.7.3** A R.V. X has *the exponential distribution with parameter β* ($\beta > 0$) if X has a continuous distribution with the following p.d.f.:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \beta e^{-\beta x} & \text{for } x > 0, \\ 0 & \text{for } x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = \int_0^{\infty} x \beta e^{-\beta x} dx \quad \stackrel{\text{set } u=x\beta}{=} \frac{1}{\beta} \int_0^{+\infty} u e^{-u} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-x} (-x - 1) \Big|_0^{+\infty} = \frac{1}{\beta}.$$



Properties of Expectations - 1

◆ **Theorem 4.2.1 Linear Function.** If $Y = aX + b$, where a and b are finite constants, then $E(Y) = aE(X) + b$.

Proof: first assume, for convenience, that X has a continuous distribution for which the p.d.f. is f . Then

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y) &= E(aX + b) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (ax + b)f(x)dx \\ &= a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx + b \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx \\ &= aE(x) + b. \end{aligned}$$

A similar proof can be given for a discrete distribution.

◆ **Corollary 4.2.1** If $X=c$ with probability 1, then $E(X)=c$.



Properties of Expectations - 2

◆ **Theorem 4.2.2** If there exists a constant such that $\Pr(X \geq a) = 1$, then $E(X) \geq a$. If there exists a constant b such that $\Pr(X \leq b) = 1$, then $E(X) \leq b$.

Proof. For convenience, assume X is continuous and p.d.f. f , and $\Pr(X \geq a) = 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx = \int_a^{\infty} xf(x)dx \\ &\geq \int_a^{\infty} af(x)dx = a \int_a^{\infty} f(x)dx \\ &= a \Pr(X \geq a) = a. \end{aligned}$$

The proof of the other part is similar.



Properties of Expectations - 3

◆ **Theorem 4.2.3** Suppose that $E(X) = a$ and that either $Pr(X \geq a) = 1$ or $Pr(X \leq a) = 1$. Then $Pr(X = a) = 1$.

◆ **Theorem 4.2.4** If X_1, \dots, X_n are n R.V.s such that each expectation $E(X_i)$ is finite ($i = 1, \dots, n$), then $E(X_1 + \dots + X_n) = E(X_1) + \dots + E(X_n)$.

Here regardless of whether X_1, \dots, X_n are independent or not, regardless of what the joint distribution is.

◆ **Corollary 4.2.2** Assume that $E(X_i)$ is finite for $i = 1, \dots, n$. For all constants a_1, \dots, a_n and b , $E(a_1X_1 + \dots + a_nX_n + b) = a_1E(X_1) + \dots + a_nE(X_n) + b$.



Properties of Expectations - 3

◆ Theorem 4.2.4 Proof: assume $n=2$, also X_1 and X_2 have a continuous joint distribution for convenience.

$$\begin{aligned} E(X_1 + X_2) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x_1 + x_2) f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_2 f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 f(x_1, x_2) dx_2 \right] dx_1 + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_2 f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 \right] dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, x_2) dx_2 \right] dx_1 + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_2 \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 \right] dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 f(x_1) dx_1 + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_2 f(x_2) dx_2 \\ &= E(X_1) + E(X_2) \end{aligned}$$

Q: X and Y are two standard normal R.V.s, what's $E(X-Y)$?

$$E(X-Y) = E(X) - E(Y) = 0.$$



Properties of Expectations - 4

◆ Ex7 (Book Ex4.2.4) Sampling without Replacement.

Suppose that a box contains red balls and blue balls. The proportion of red balls in the box is p ($0 \leq p \leq 1$). Suppose that n balls are selected from the box at random without replacement, and let X denote the number of red balls that are selected. Determine $E(X)$.

Sol: Define n R.V.s X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n . For $i=1, \dots, n$, let $X_i=1$ if the i th selected ball is red, and $X_i=0$ if it is blue. Since the n balls are selected without replacement, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are dependent ($\because X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$, which is the total number of red balls that are selected).

$\Pr(X_i=1) = p$, $\Pr(X_i=0) = 1-p$, $E(X_i) = 1 \times p + 0 \times (1-p) = p$.

$$E(X) = E(X_1) + \dots + E(X_n) = np.$$

Compare Ex4.2.5



Properties of Expectations - 4

◆ **Ex7-continued** Suppose that a class contains 10 boys and 15 girls, and 8 students are to be selected at random from the class without replacement. Let X denote the number of boys that are selected, and let Y denote the number of girls that are selected. Find $E(X-Y)$.

$$E(X) = np = 8 \cdot \frac{10}{25} = \frac{16}{5}.$$

$$Y = 8 - X.$$

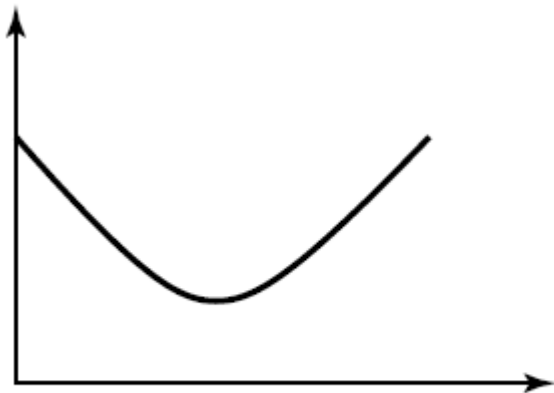
$$E(Y) = 8 - E(X) = \frac{24}{5}.$$

$$E(X - Y) = E(X) - E(Y) = -\frac{8}{5}.$$

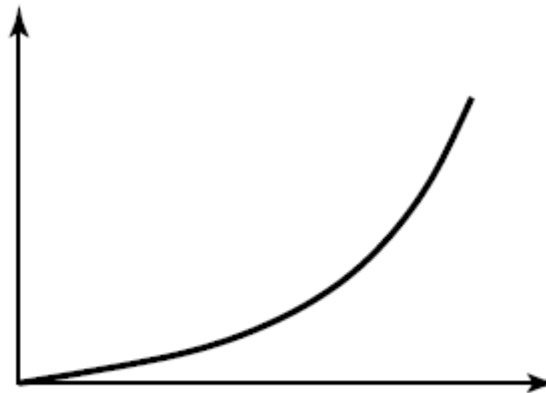


Convex and Concave

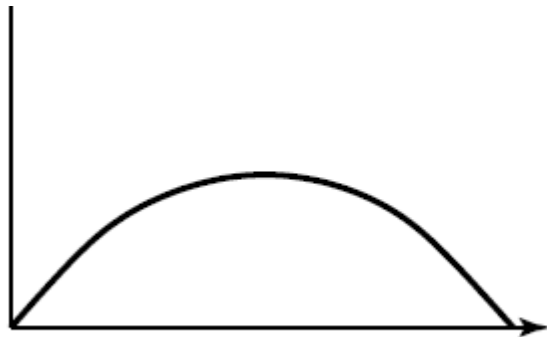
Theorem If the function g has a second derivative that is nonnegative (positive) over an interval, the function is *convex* (strictly convex) over that interval.



(a)



(a) Convex
(b) Concave



(b)





Jensen's Inequality

◆ **Theorem 4.2.5** Let g be a convex function, and let \underline{X} be a random vector with finite mean. Then

$$E[g(\underline{X})] \geq g[E(\underline{X})]$$

◆ **Definition 4.2.1** A function g of a vector argument is convex if, for every $\alpha \in (0,1)$, and every \underline{x} and \underline{y} ,

$$g[\alpha \underline{x} + (1 - \alpha) \underline{y}] \leq \alpha g(\underline{x}) + (1 - \alpha)g(\underline{y})$$

Textbook made a mistake!



Mean of a Product of Independent R.V.s - 1

◆ **Theorem 4.2.6** If X_1, \dots, X_n are n independent R.V.s such that each expectation $E(X_i)$ is finite ($i = 1, \dots, n$), then

$$E\left(\prod_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n E(X_i).$$

Proof : since X_1, \dots, X_n are independent, it follows that every point $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in R^n$,

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i).$$

$$\begin{aligned} E\left(\prod_{i=1}^n X_i\right) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\prod_{i=1}^n x_i\right) f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\prod_{i=1}^n x_i f_i(x_i)\right] dx_1 \cdots dx_n \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_i f_i(x_i) dx_i = \prod_{i=1}^n E(X_i). \end{aligned}$$





Mean of a Product of Independent *R.V.s* - 2

◆ **Ex8 (Book Ex4.2.7) Calculating the Expectation of a Combination of Random Variables.** Suppose that X_1, X_2 , and X_3 are independent *R.V.s* such that $E(X_i) = 0$ and $E(X_i^2) = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$. We shall determine the value of $E[X_1^2(X_2 - 4X_3)^2]$.

Sol: since X_1, X_2 , and X_3 are independent, it follows that X_1^2 and $(X_2 - 4X_3)^2$ are also independent. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} E[X_1^2(X_2 - 4X_3)^2] &= E(X_1^2)E[(X_2 - 4X_3)^2] \\ &= E(X_2^2 - 8X_2X_3 + 16X_3^2) \\ &= E(X_2^2) - 8E(X_2X_3) + 16E(X_3^2) \\ &= 1 - 8E(X_2)E(X_3) + 16 \\ &= 17. \end{aligned}$$



The Mean and the Median - 1

◆ Mean. → Expectation.

◆ Median. **Definition 4.5.1** Let X be a $R.V.$ Every number m with the following property is called a median of the distribution of X :

$$\Pr(X \leq m) \geq 1/2 \text{ and } \Pr(X \geq m) \geq 1/2.$$

A median is a point m that satisfies the following two requirements: 1) if m is included with the values of X to the left of m , then

$$\Pr(X \leq m) \geq \Pr(X > m).$$

2) if m is included with the values of X to the right of m ,

$$\Pr(X \geq m) \geq \Pr(X < m).$$

This means that the number m actually divide the total probability into two equal parts.





The Mean and the Median - 2

◆ **Ex9 (Book Ex4.5.1) The Median of a Discrete Distribution.** Suppose that X has the following discrete distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(X = 1) &= 0.1, \Pr(X = 2) = 0.2, \\ \Pr(X = 3) &= 0.3, \Pr(X = 4) = 0.4.\end{aligned}$$

Q: what's the median? What's the mean?

The value 3 is a median of this distribution because $\Pr(X \leq 3) = 0.6$, which is greater than $1/2$, and $\Pr(X \geq 3) = 0.7$, which is also greater than $1/2$.

Furthermore, 3 is the unique median of this distribution.

The mean is $E(X) = 1(0.1) + 2(0.2) + 3(0.3) + 4(0.4) = 3$





The Mean and the Median - 3

◆ **Ex10 (Book Ex4.5.3) The Median of a Discrete Distribution for Which the Median is Not Unique.**

Suppose that X has the following discrete distribution:

$$\Pr(X = 1) = 0.1, \Pr(X = 2) = 0.4,$$

$$\Pr(X = 3) = 0.3, \Pr(X = 4) = 0.2.$$

Q: what's the median?

Here, $\Pr(X \leq 2) = 1/2$, and $\Pr(X \geq 3) = 1/2$. Therefore, every value of m in the closed interval $2 \leq m \leq 3$ will be a median of this distribution.

The most popular choice of median of this distribution would be the midpoint 2.5





The Mean and the Median - 4

◆ **Ex11 (Book Ex4.5.4) The Median of a Continuous Distribution.** Suppose that X has a continuous distribution for which the p.d.f. is as follows:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 4x^3 & \text{for } 0 < x < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The unique median of this distribution will be the number m such that

$$\int_0^m 4x^3 dx = \int_m^1 4x^3 dx = \frac{1}{2}.$$

This number is $m = (1/2)^{1/4}$.



The Mean and the Median - 5

The median has one convenient property that the mean does not have.

◆ Theorem 4.5.1 One-to-One Function.

Let X be $R.V.$ that takes values in an interval I of real numbers. Let r be a one-to-one function defined on the interval I . If m is a median of X , then $r(m)$ is a median of $r(X)$.

Proof: Let $Y=r(X)$. Since r is one-to-one on the interval I , it must be either increasing or decreasing over I . (Wrong)

If r is increasing, then $Y \geq r(m)$ if and only if $X \geq m$.

Thus, $\Pr(Y \geq r(m)) = \Pr(X \geq m) \geq 1/2$.

Similarly, $Y \leq r(m)$ if and only if $X \leq m$.

So $\Pr(Y \leq r(m)) = \Pr(X \leq m) \geq 1/2$.

If r is decreasing, the proof is similar to the above.



Variance - 1

◆ **Definition 4.3.1 Variance/ Standard Deviation.** Let X be a R.V. with finite mean $\mu=E(X)$. The variance of X , denoted by $Var(X)$, is defined as follows:

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

If X has infinite mean or if the mean of X does not exist, we say that $Var(X)$ does not exist.

The **standard deviation of X** is the nonnegative square root of $Var(X)$ if the variance exists.





Variance - 2

◆ Ex12 (Book Ex4.3.1&4.3.2) Stock Price Changes.

Consider the prices A and B of two stocks at a time in the future. Assume that A has the uniform distribution on the interval $[25, 35]$ and B has the uniform distribution on the interval $[15, 45]$.

Q1: What are their means and variances, respectively?

Sol: Both stocks have a mean price of 30.

$$\text{Var}(A) = \int_{25}^{35} (a - 30)^2 \frac{1}{10} da = \frac{1}{10} \int_{-5}^5 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{10} \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_{x=-5}^5 = \frac{25}{3},$$

$$\text{Var}(B) = \int_{15}^{45} (b - 30)^2 \frac{1}{30} db = \frac{1}{30} \int_{-15}^{15} y^2 dy = \frac{1}{30} \frac{y^3}{3} \Big|_{y=-15}^{15} = 75.$$

$\text{Var}(B)$ is 9 times as large as $\text{Var}(A)$.

$$\sigma_A = \sqrt{25/3} = 2.87, \text{ and } \sigma_B = \sqrt{75} = 8.66.$$



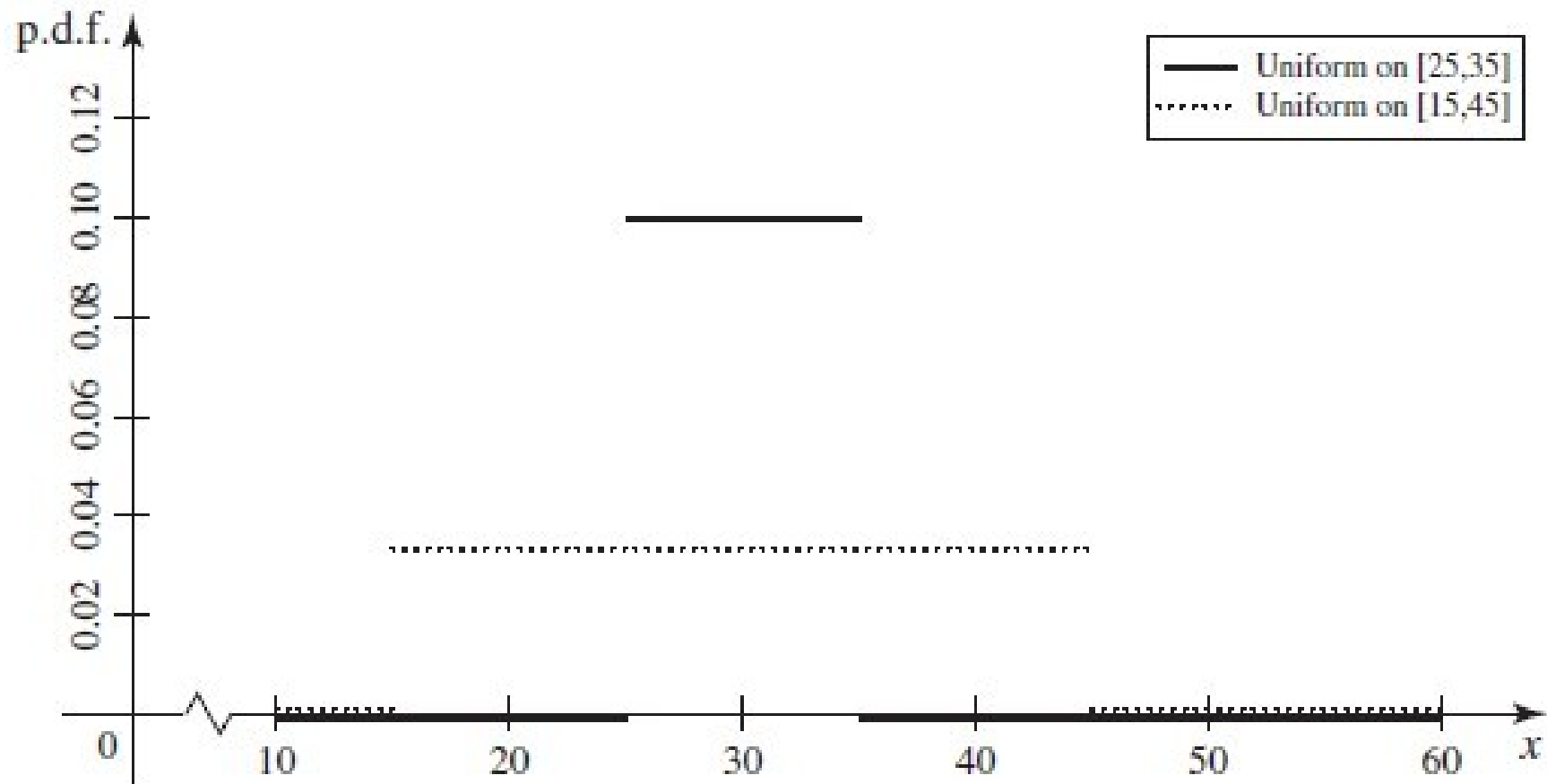


Figure 4.5 The p.d.f.'s of two uniform distributions in Example 4.3.1. Both distributions have mean equal to 30, but they are spread out differently.

Note: Variance depends only on the distribution.

Variance - 3

◆ Ex13 (Book Ex4.3.3) Variance of a Discrete

Distribution. Suppose that a *R.V.* X can take each of the five values $-2, 0, 1, 3$, and 4 with equal probability. We shall determine the variance and standard deviation of X .

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{5}(-2 + 0 + 1 + 3 + 4) = 1.2.$$

Let $\mu = E(X) = 1.2$, and define $W = (X - \mu)^2$. Then $Var(X) = E(W)$. We can easily compute the p.f. f of W :

x	-2	0	1	3	4
w	10.24	1.44	0.04	3.24	7.84
f(w)	1/5	1/5	1/5	1/5	1/5

$$Var(X) = E(W) = \frac{1}{5}[10.24 + 1.44 + 0.04 + 3.24 + 7.84] = 4.56.$$

$$\sigma_X = 2.135.$$





Variance - 4

◆ **Theorem 4.3.1 Alternative Method for Calculating the Variance.** For every R.V. X ,

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

Proof: let $E(X) = \mu$. Then

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



Variance - 5

◆ **Ex14 (Book Ex4.3.4) Variance of a Discrete Distribution.** Suppose that a *R.V.* X can take each of the five values $-2, 0, 1, 3$, and 4 with equal probability. Determine the variance and standard deviation of X .

Sol:
$$E(X^2) = \frac{1}{5}[(-2)^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 + 3^2 + 4^2] = 6.$$

Because $E(X) = 1.2$, Theorem 4.3.1 says that

$$\text{Var}(X) = 6 - (1.2)^2 = 4.56,$$

which agrees with the calculation in Example 4.3.3.

The variance of a distribution provides a measure of the **spread** or **dispersion** of the distribution **around its mean**. The small (large) the variance, the tightly concentration (wide spread) around μ .



Properties of the Variance - 1

◆ **Theorem 4.3.2** For each X , $Var(X) \geq 0$. If X is a bounded R.V., then $Var(X)$ must exist and be finite.

◆ **Theorem 4.3.3** $Var(X) = 0$ if and only if there exists a constant c such that $Pr(X = c) = 1$.

Proof: if there exists a constant c such that $Pr(X = c) = 1$,
Then $E(X) = c$, and $Pr[(X - c)^2 = 0] = 1$. Therefore,
 $Var(X) = E[(X - c)^2] = 0$.

For only if, suppose that $Var(X) = 0$. As $Pr[(X - \mu)^2 \geq 0] = 1$,
but $E[(X - \mu)^2] = 0$. Based on Theorem 4.2.3 “Suppose
that $E(X) = a$ and that either $Pr(X \geq a) = 1$ or $Pr(X \leq a) = 1$.
Then $Pr(X = a) = 1$.”, we have that $Pr[(X - \mu)^2 = 0] = 1$.
Hence, $Pr(X = \mu) = 1$.



Properties of the Variance - 2

◆ **Theorem 4.3.4** For constants a and b , let $Y = aX + b$. Then $Var(Y) = a^2 Var(X)$, and $\sigma_Y = |a|\sigma_X$.

Proof: let $E(X) = \mu$, then $E(Y) = a\mu + b$. Therefore,

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

Q: What's $Var(X+b)$?

What's $Var(-X)$?



Properties of the Variance - 3

◆ **Theorem 4.3.5** If X_1, \dots, X_n are **independent** R.V.s with finite means, then $Var(X_1 + \dots + X_n) = Var(X_1) + \dots + Var(X_n)$.

Proof: suppose first that $n=2$, $E(X_1)=\mu_1$, $E(X_2)=\mu_2$, then

$$E(X_1 + X_2) = \mu_1 + \mu_2.$$

$$\begin{aligned} Var(X_1 + X_2) &= E[(X_1 + X_2 - \mu_1 - \mu_2)^2] \\ &= E[(X_1 - \mu_1)^2 + (X_2 - \mu_2)^2 + 2(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)] \\ &= Var(X_1) + Var(X_2) + 2E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)] \end{aligned}$$

Since X_1 and X_2 are independent,

$$E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)] = E(X_1 - \mu_1)E(X_2 - \mu_2) = 0$$

Therefore, $Var(X_1 + X_2) = Var(X_1) + Var(X_2)$



Properties of the Variance - 4

◆ **Corollary 4.3.1** If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent R.V.s with finite means, and if a_1, \dots, a_n and b are arbitrary constants, then

$$\text{Var}(a_1X_1 + \dots + a_nX_n + b) = a_1^2\text{Var}(X_1) + \dots + a_n^2\text{Var}(X_n).$$

◆ **Ex15** Suppose that X and Y are independent R.V.s with $\text{Var}(X)=2$, $\text{Var}(Y)=3$. Find the values of $\text{Var}(2X-3Y+1)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Sol: } \text{Var}(2X - 3Y + 1) &= \text{Var}(2X) + \text{Var}(-3Y) \\ &= 4\text{Var}(X) + 9\text{Var}(Y) \\ &= 4 \times 2 + 9 \times 3 \\ &= 35.\end{aligned}$$



Interquartile Range (IQR)

◆ **Definition 4.3.2** Let X be a $R.V.$ with quantile function $F^{-1}(p)$ for $0 < p < 1$. The **interquartile range (IQR)** is defined to be $F^{-1}(0.75) - F^{-1}(0.25)$.

◆ IQR is the **length of the interval** that contains the **middle half** of the distribution.

◆ **Ex16 (Book Ex4.3.9) The Cauchy Distribution.** Let X have the Cauchy distribution. The c.d.f. F of X is

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{dy}{\pi(1+y^2)} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\tan^{-1}(x)}{\pi},$$

where $\tan^{-1}(x)$ is the principal inverse of the tangent function, taking values from $-\pi/2$ to $\pi/2$ as x runs from $-\infty$ to ∞ . The quantile function of X is then $F^{-1}(p) = \tan[\pi(p - 1/2)]$ for $0 < p < 1$. The IQR is

$$F^{-1}(0.75) - F^{-1}(0.25) = \tan(\pi/4) - \tan(-\pi/4) = 2.$$





The Variance of typical distributions - 1

◆ **The Bernoulli Distribution.** Let X have the Bernoulli distribution with parameter p , its c.d.f. is

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0, \\ 1 - p & \text{for } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = 1 \times p + 0 \times (1 - p) = p,$$

$$E(X^2) = 1^2 \times p + 0^2 \times (1 - p) = p,$$

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



The Variance of typical distributions - 2

◆ **Ex17** Suppose that a box contains red balls and blue balls, and the proportion of red balls is p ($0 \leq p \leq 1$). Suppose also that random sample of n balls is selected from the box with replacement. For $i=1, \dots, n$. Let $X_i=1$ if the i th selected ball is red and $X_i=0$ otherwise. If $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, what's the distribution of X ?

X is a **binomial R.V.** with parameter p and n . $Var(X)=?$
Since X_1, \dots, X_n are independent,

$$Var(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i).$$

$\therefore E(X_i) = p$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, and $X_i^2 = X_i$ for each i .

$$Var(X_i) = E(X_i^2) - [E(X_i)]^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p).$$

$$\therefore Var(X) = np(1 - p).$$



The Variance of typical distributions - 3

◆ **The Poisson Distribution.** Let $\lambda > 0$. A R.V. X has the Poisson distribution with **mean λ** . Its p.f. is

$$f(x | \lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} & \text{for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[X(X-1)] &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x(x-1)f(x | \lambda) = \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} x(x-1) \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \\ &= \lambda^2 \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x-2}}{(x-2)!} \stackrel{y=x-2}{=} \lambda^2 \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!} = \lambda^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore E[X(X-1)] = E(X^2) - E(X) = E(X^2) - \lambda \Rightarrow E(X^2) = \lambda^2 + \lambda$$

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





The Variance of typical distributions - 4

◆ **The Uniform Distribution.** If X has the uniform distribution on an interval $[a, b]$, then the p.d.f of X is

$$f(x | a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b xdx = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

$$E(X^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x)dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3} = \frac{b^2 + ab + a^2}{3}$$

$$Var(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 = \frac{b^2 + ab + a^2}{3} - \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$



The Variance of typical distributions - 5

◆ **The Normal Distribution.** A R.V. X has the *normal distribution* with **mean μ** and **variance σ^2** ($-\infty < \mu < \infty$ and $\sigma > 0$) if X has a continuous distribution with the following p.d.f.:

$$f(x | \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} \quad \text{for } -\infty < x < \infty.$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x-\mu)^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x-\mu)^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} t^2 e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt = -\frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} t de^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} = \sigma^2$$



The Variance of typical distributions - 8

◆ **The Exponential Distribution.** A R.V. X has *the exponential distribution with parameter β* ($\beta > 0$) if X has a continuous distribution with the following p.d.f.:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \beta e^{-\beta x} & \text{for } x > 0, \\ 0 & \text{for } x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = \int_0^{\infty} x \beta e^{-\beta x} dx \stackrel{\text{set } u=x\beta}{=} \frac{1}{\beta} \int_0^{+\infty} u e^{-u} du = \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-x} (-x-1) \Big|_0^{+\infty} = \frac{1}{\beta}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2) &= \int_0^{\infty} x^2 \beta e^{-\beta x} dx = \frac{1}{\beta^2} \int_0^{\infty} (\beta x)^2 e^{-\beta x} d\beta x \stackrel{\text{set } u=x\beta}{=} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \int_0^{+\infty} u^2 e^{-u} du \\ &= -\frac{1}{\beta^2} e^{-x} (x^2 + 2x + 2) \Big|_0^{\infty} = \frac{2}{\beta^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 = \frac{2}{\beta^2} - \frac{1}{\beta^2} = \frac{1}{\beta^2}$$





PROPERTIES OF SPECIAL DISTRIBUTIONS

- ◆ **Bernoulli Distribution.**

$$E(X) = p, \text{Var}(X) = p(1 - p).$$

- ◆ **Binomial Distribution. $X \sim B(n, p)$**

$$E(X) = np, \text{Var}(X) = np(1 - p).$$

- ◆ **Poisson Distribution. $X \sim P(\lambda)$**

$$E(X) = \lambda, \text{Var}(X) = \lambda.$$

- ◆ **Uniform Distribution. $X \sim U(a, b)$**

$$E(X) = (a + b)/2, \text{Var}(X) = (b - a)^2/12.$$

- ◆ **Exponential Distribution.**

$$E(X) = 1/\beta, \text{Var}(X) = 1/\beta^2.$$

- ◆ **Normal Distribution. $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$**

$$E(X) = \mu, \text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2.$$



M.S.E. vs. M.A.E. - 1

◆ **Definition 4.5.2 Mean Squared Error/M.S.E.** The number $E[(X - d)^2]$ is the *mean square error (M.S.E.)* of the prediction d .

◆ **Theorem 4.5.2** Let X be a *R.V.* with finite variance σ^2 and let $\mu = E(X)$. For every value d ,

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

The number d for which the M.S.E. is minimized is $E(X)$.

◆ **Definition 4.5.3 Mean Absolute Error/ M.A.E.** The value $E(|X - d|)$ is the *mean absolute error (M.A.E.)* of the prediction d .

◆ **Theorem 4.5.3** Let X be a *R.V.* with finite mean, and let m be a median of the distribution of X . For every d ,

$$E(|X - m|) \leq E(|X - d|).$$





M.S.E. vs. M.A.E. - 2

◆ Ex18 (Book Ex4.5.9) Predicting a Discrete

Uniform $R.V.$ Suppose that the probability is $1/6$ that a $R.V. X$ will take each of the following 6 values: 1,2,3,4,5,6. We shall determine the prediction for which the M.S.E. is minimum and the prediction for which the M.A.E is minimum.

Sol:
$$E(X) = \frac{1}{6}(1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6) = 3.5$$

Thus, the M.S.E. will be minimized by the unique value $d=3.5$.

Every number m in the closed interval $3 \leq m \leq 4$ is a median of the given distribution. Thus, the M.A.E. will be minimized by every value of d such that $3 \leq d \leq 4$. In this case the mean is also a median of X .



Moments - 1

◆ **Definition Moments**. For each R.V. X and every positive integer k , the expectation $E(X^k)$ is called *the k th moment of X* .

◆ The k th moment exists if and only if $E(|X|^k) < \infty$. It is possible that all moments of X exist even though X is not bounded.

◆ **Theorem 4.4.1** If $E(|X|^k) < \infty$ for some positive integer k , then $E(|X|^j) < \infty$ for every positive integer j such that $j < k$.

Theorem 4.4.1 says that if the k th moment of X exists, then all moments of lower order must also exist.



Moments - 2

◆ Proof: we assume, for convenience, that the distribution of X is continuous and the p.d.f. is f . Then

$$\begin{aligned} E(|X|^j) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^j f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{|x| \leq 1} |x|^j f(x) dx + \int_{|x| > 1} |x|^j f(x) dx \\ &\leq \int_{|x| \leq 1} 1 \cdot f(x) dx + \int_{|x| > 1} |x|^k f(x) dx \\ &\leq \int_{|x| \leq 1} 1 \cdot f(x) dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^k f(x) dx \\ &= \Pr(|X| \leq 1) + E(|x|^k). \end{aligned}$$

◆ It follows from Theorem 4.4.1 that if $E(X^2) < \infty$, then both the mean of X and the variance of X exist.



Moments - 3

◆ **Definition Central Moments.** Suppose that X is a R.V. for which $E(X) = \mu$. For every positive integer k , the expectation $E[(X - \mu)^k]$ is called *the k th central moment of X* or *the k th moment of X about the mean*.

◆ The variance of X is the 2nd central moment of X .

◆ For every distribution, the first central moment is ?
0. Because $E(X - \mu) = E(X) - \mu = 0$.

◆ If the distribution of X is symmetric with respect to its mean μ , and if the central moment $E[(X - \mu)^k]$ exists for a given odd integer k , then the value of $E[(X - \mu)^k]$ will be 0 because the positive and negative terms in this expectation will cancel on another.

e.g., $f(x) = ce^{-(x-3)^2/2}$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$.



Moments - 4

- ◆ **Definition 4.4.1 Skewness.** Let X be a $R.V.$ with mean μ , standard deviation σ , and finite third moment. The skewness of X is defined to be $E[(X - \mu)^3]/\sigma^3$.
- ◆ It measures only the lack of symmetry rather than the spread of the distribution.

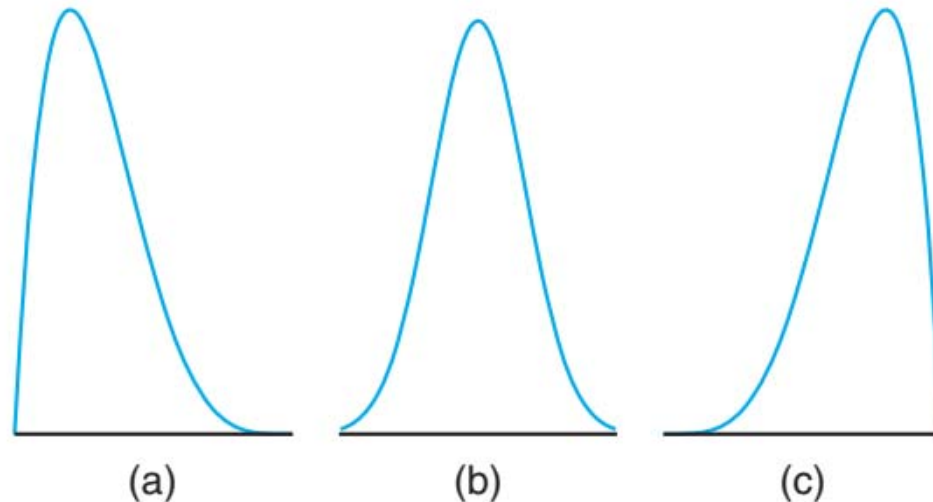


Figure 4.6 Skewness. (a) skewness <0 ; (b) skewness $=0$;
(c) skewness >0 .



Moment Generating Functions-1

◆ Definition 4.4.2 Moment Generating Functions.

Let X be a $R.V.$ For each real number t , define

$$\psi(t) = E(e^{tX}).$$

The function $\psi(t)$ is *called the moment generating function* (abbreviated **m.g.f.**) of X .

- ◆ If $R.V.$ X is bounded, then its m.g.f. must be finite for all values of t .
- ◆ For every $R.V.$ X , $\psi(0) = E(1) = 1$.
- ◆ If $R.V.$ X is unbounded, then its m.g.f. might be finite for some values of t and might not be finite for others.



Moment Generating Functions-2

◆ **Theorem 4.4.2** Let X be a R.V.s whose m.g.f. $\psi(t)$ is finite for all values of t in some open interval around the point $t = 0$. Then, for each integer $n > 0$, the n th moment of X which is $E(X^n)$, is finite and equals the n th derivative $\psi^{(n)}(t)$ at $t = 0$. That is, $E(X^n) = \psi^{(n)}(0)$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$.

It can be shown that the derivative $\psi'(t)$ exists at the point $t=0$.

$$\psi'(0) = \left[\frac{d}{dt} E(e^{tX}) \right]_{t=0} = E \left[\frac{d}{dt} (e^{tX})_{t=0} \right] = E \left[(X e^{tX})_{t=0} \right] = E(X).$$

$$\psi^{(n)}(0) = \left[\frac{d^n}{dt^n} E(e^{tX}) \right]_{t=0} = E \left[\frac{d^n}{dt^n} (e^{tX})_{t=0} \right] = E \left[(X^n e^{tX})_{t=0} \right] = E(X^n).$$

The derivative of m.g.f. is equal to the mean of the derivative.



Moment Generating Functions-3

◆ Ex19 (Book Ex 4.4.3) Calculating an m.g.f.

Suppose that X is a $R.V.$ with the p.d.f. as follows:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x} & \text{for } x > 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We shall determine the m.g.f. of X and also $Var(X)$.

Sol: for each real number t ,

$$\psi(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{tx} e^{-x} dx = \int_0^{\infty} e^{(t-1)x} dx.$$

$\psi(t)$ is finite only for $t < 1$. For such value of t , $\psi(t) = \frac{1}{1-t}$.

The first two derivatives of ψ are

$$\psi'(t) = \frac{1}{(1-t)^2} \text{ and } \psi''(t) = \frac{2}{(1-t)^3}.$$

Therefore, $E(X) = \psi'(0) = 1$ and $E(X^2) = \psi''(0) = 2$.

$$Var(X) = \psi''(0) - [\psi'(0)]^2 = 1.$$





Properties of m.g.f.-1

◆ **Theorem 4.4.3** Let X be a R.V. for which the m.g.f. is ψ_1 ; let $Y = aX + b$, where a and b are given constants; and let ψ_2 denote the m.g.f. of Y . Then for every value of t such that $\psi_1(at)$ is finite,

$$\psi_2(t) = e^{bt} \psi_1(at).$$

Proof: by the definition of an m.g.f.,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_2(t) &= E(e^{tY}) = E[e^{t(aX+b)}] = E[e^{taX} e^{tb}] = e^{tb} E(e^{taX}) \\ &= e^{bt} E(e^{atX}) = e^{bt} \psi_1(at). \end{aligned}$$





Properties of m.g.f.-2

◆ **Ex20 (Book Ex4.4.4) Calculating the m.g.f. of a Linear Function.** Suppose that the p.d.f. of X is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x} & \text{for } x > 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let $Y=3-2X$. What's the m.g.f. of Y ?

Sol: Previously we have obtained that the m.g.f. of X for $t < 1$ is

$$\psi_1(t) = \frac{1}{1-t}.$$

If $Y=3-2X$, the m.g.f. of Y is finite for $t > -1/2$ and will be

$$\psi_2(t) = e^{3t} \psi_1(-2t) = \frac{e^{3t}}{1+2t}.$$



Properties of m.g.f.-3

◆ **Theorem 4.4.4** Suppose that X_1, \dots, X_n are n **independent** R.V.s; and for $i = 1, \dots, n$, let ψ_i denote the m.g.f. of X_i . Let $Y = X_1 + \dots + X_n$, and let the m.g.f. of Y be denoted by ψ . Then for every value of t such that $\psi_i(t)$ is finite for $i = 1, \dots, n$,

$$\psi(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n \psi_i(t).$$

Proof: by the definition of an m.g.f.,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(t) &= E(e^{tY}) = E[e^{t(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)}] = E\left[\prod_{i=1}^n e^{tX_i}\right] = \prod_{i=1}^n E(e^{tX_i}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \psi_i(t). \end{aligned}$$



Properties of m.g.f.-4

◆ m.g.f. is the expected value of a function of X , it depends only on the distribution of X . If X and Y have the same distribution, they have the same m.g.f.

Theorem 4.4.5 If the m.g.f.s of two R.V.s X_1 and X_2 are finite and identical for all values of t in an open interval around the point $t = 0$, then the probability distributions of X_1 and X_2 must be identical.





m.g.f.s for Bernoulli and Binomial R.V.s

◆ **Bernoulli m.g.f.** Let X have the Bernoulli distribution with parameter p , that is, assume that X takes only the two values 0 and 1 with $\Pr(X = 1) = p$. For $-\infty < t < \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(t) &= E(e^{tX}) = \Pr(X = 1)e^{t \cdot 1} + \Pr(X = 0)e^{t \cdot 0} \\ &= pe^t + 1 - p.\end{aligned}$$

◆ **Binomial m.g.f.** Theorem 5.2.1 says if the R.V.s X_1, \dots, X_n form n Bernoulli trials with parameter p , and if $X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$, the X has the binomial distribution with parameters n and p .

For $-\infty < t < \infty$,

$$\psi(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n \psi_i(t) = (pe^t + 1 - p)^n.$$



m.g.f.s for Binomial R.V.s - 2

◆ **Theorem 4.4.6** If X_1 and X_2 are independent R.V.s, and if X_i has the binomial distribution with parameters n_i and p ($i = 1, 2$), then $X_1 + X_2$ has the binomial distribution with parameters $n_1 + n_2$ and p .

Proof: let ψ_i denote the m.g.f. of X_i for $i=1,2$. We know

$$\psi_i(t) = (pe^t + 1 - p)^{n_i}.$$

Let ψ denote the m.g.f. of $X_1 + X_2$. Then by Theorem 4.4.4,

$$\psi(t) = (pe^t + 1 - p)^{n_1 + n_2}.$$

The above function is the m.g.f. of the binomial distribution with parameters $n_1 + n_2$ and p . Hence by Theorem 4.4.5, $X_1 + X_2$ has the binomial distribution.





m.g.f for Poisson Distribution-1

◆ **Theorem 5.4.3** The m.g.f. of the Poisson distribution with mean λ is

$$\psi(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)},$$

for all real t .

Proof: for every value t ($-\infty < t < \infty$),

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(t) &= E(e^{tX}) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{tx} e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{(e^t \lambda)^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{e^t \lambda} \\ &= e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}.\end{aligned}$$





m.g.f for Poisson Distribution-2

◆ **Theorem 5.4.4** If the R.V.s X_1, \dots, X_k are independent and if X_i has the Poisson distribution with mean λ_i ($i=1, 2, \dots, k$), then the sum $X_1 + \dots + X_k$ has the Poisson distribution with mean $\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k$.

Proof : let $\psi_i(t)$ denote the m.g.f. of X_i for $i=1, 2, \dots, k$, and let $\psi(t)$ denote the m.g.f. of the sum $X_1 + \dots + X_k$. Since X_1, \dots, X_k are independent, it follows that, for $-\infty < t < \infty$,

$$\psi(t) = \prod_{i=1}^k \psi_i(t) = \prod_{i=1}^k e^{\lambda_i(e^t - 1)} = e^{(\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k)(e^t - 1)}.$$

This $\psi(t)$ is the m.g.f. of the Poisson distribution with mean $\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k$. Hence, the distribution of $X_1 + \dots + X_k$ must be Poisson.



m.g.f for Normal Distribution-1

◆ **Theorem 5.6.2** The m.g.f. of the normal distribution is

$$\psi(t) = \exp\left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right) \quad \text{for } -\infty < t < \infty.$$

◆ **Theorem 5.6.3** The mean and variance of the normal distribution are μ and σ^2 , respectively.

Proof: the first two derivatives of the normal m.g.f are

$$\psi'(t) = (\mu + \sigma^2 t) \exp\left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right)$$

$$\psi''(t) = [(\mu + \sigma^2 t)^2 + \sigma^2] \exp\left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right)$$

Plugging $t=0$ into each of these derivatives yields

$$E(x) = \psi'(0) = \mu, \quad \text{Var}(x) = \psi''(0) - [\psi'(0)]^2 = \sigma^2.$$





m.g.f for Normal Distribution - 2

◆ **Theorem 5.6.7** If the R.V.s X_1, \dots, X_k are independent and if X_i has the normal distribution with mean μ_i and variance σ_i^2 ($i = 1, \dots, k$), then the sum $X_1 + \dots + X_k$ has the normal distribution with *mean* $\mu_1 + \dots + \mu_k$ and variance $\sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_k^2$.

Proof: let $\psi_i(t)$ denote the m.g.f. of X_i for $i=1,2,\dots,k$, and let $\psi(t)$ denote the m.g.f. of the sum $X_1+\dots+X_k$. Since X_1,\dots,X_k are independent,

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(t) &= \prod_{i=1}^k \psi_i(t) = \prod_{i=1}^k \exp\left(\mu_i t + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i^2 t^2\right) \\ &= \exp\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \mu_i\right)t + \frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2\right)t^2\right] \quad \text{for } -\infty < t < \infty.\end{aligned}$$





m.g.f for Normal Distribution - 3

◆ **Corollary 5.6.1** If the R.V.s X_1, \dots, X_k are independent, if X_i has the normal distribution with mean μ_i and variance σ_i^2 ($i = 1, \dots, k$), and if a_1, \dots, a_k and b are constants for which at least one of the values a_1, \dots, a_k is different from 0, then the variable $a_1X_1 + \dots + a_kX_k + b$ has the normal distribution with mean $a_1\mu_1 + \dots + a_k\mu_k + b$ and variance $a_1^2\sigma_1^2 + \dots + a_k^2\sigma_k^2$.





Sample Mean

◆ **Definition 5.6.3 Sample Mean.** Let X_1, \dots, X_n be $R.V.s$. The average of these n random variables,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

is called their **sample mean** and is commonly denoted by \bar{X}_n .

◆ **Corollary 5.6.2** Suppose that the $R.V.s$ X_1, \dots, X_n form a random sample from the normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , and let \bar{X}_n denote their sample mean. Then \bar{X}_n *has the normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2/n .*





m.g.f for Exponential Distribution

◆ **Theorem 5.7.8** The m.g.f for an exponential distribution with parameter β is

$$\psi(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{tx} \beta e^{-\beta x} dx = \int_0^{\infty} \beta e^{(t-\beta)x} dx$$

$$= \frac{\beta}{t - \beta} e^{(t-\beta)x} \Big|_0^{\infty}$$

$$\text{for } t < \beta \\ = \frac{\beta}{\beta - t}.$$





m.g.f for Uniform Distribution

◆ The m.g.f for the **uniform distribution** in the interval $[a, b]$ is :

$$\psi(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \int_a^b e^{tx} \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{e^{tb} - e^{ta}}{t(b-a)}.$$



Covariance - 1

◆ **Definition 4.6.1 Covariance.** Let X and Y be R.V.s having finite means. Let $E(X) = \mu_X$ and $E(Y) = \mu_Y$. The covariance of X and Y , which is denoted by $Cov(X, Y)$, is defined as $Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$, if the above expectation exists.

◆ The value of $Cov(X, Y)$ can be positive, negative, or 0.

◆ The covariance attempts to measure the dependence of two R.V.s, or the degree to which X and Y vary together.

In particular, if $Cov(X, Y) > 0$, it's more likely that $X > \mu_X$ and $Y > \mu_Y$ (or $X < \mu_X$ and $Y < \mu_Y$) occurs than that $X > \mu_X$ and $Y < \mu_Y$ (or $X < \mu_X$ and $Y > \mu_Y$).

If $Cov(X, Y) = 0$, the prob. that X and Y on the same sides of their respective means are the same as the prob. that X and Y on the opposite sides of their means.





Covariance - 2

◆ **Ex21 (Book Ex4.6.2) Test Scores.** Let X and Y be the test scores and they have the joint p.d.f.

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2xy + 0.5 & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq y \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Compute the covariance $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$.

Sol: The symmetry in the joint p.d.f. means that X and Y have the same marginal distribution; hence, $\mu_X = \mu_Y$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_X &= \int_0^1 x \left[\int_0^1 (2xy + 0.5x) dy \right] dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 [2x^2 y + 0.5x] dy dx \\ &= \int_0^1 [x^2 + 0.5x] dx = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{7}{12}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left(x - \frac{7}{12}\right) \left(y - \frac{7}{12}\right) (2xy + 0.5) dy dx = \frac{1}{144}.$$



Covariance - 3

◆ **Theorem 4.6.1** For all R.V.s X and Y such that $\sigma_X^2 < \infty$ and $\sigma_Y^2 < \infty$, $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$.

Proof:
$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \\ &= E(XY - X\mu_Y - \mu_X Y + \mu_X \mu_Y) \\ &= E(XY) - \mu_Y \mu_X - \mu_X \mu_Y + \mu_X \mu_Y \\ &= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y).\end{aligned}$$

Ex22 For all R.V.s X and Y for all constants a, b, c, d , show

$$\text{Cov}(aX+b, cY+d) = ac \text{Cov}(X, Y).$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(aX+b, cY+d) &= E[(aX+b)(cY+d)] - E(aX+b)E(cY+d) \\ &= acE(XY) + adE(X) + bcE(Y) + bd - acE(X)E(Y) - adE(X) \\ &\quad - bcE(Y) - bd \\ &= ac\text{Cov}(X, Y).\end{aligned}$$



Correlation - 1

◆ **Definition 4.6.2 Correlation.** Let X and Y be $R.V.s$ with finite variances σ_X^2 and σ_Y^2 , respectively. Then the correlation of X and Y , which is denoted by $\rho(X, Y)$, is defined as follows:

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}.$$

- ◆ The magnitude of $Cov(X, Y)$ is influenced by the overall magnitudes of X and Y .
- ◆ Correlation is a measure of association between X and Y that is not driven by arbitrary changes in the scales of one or the other $R.V.$
- ◆ e.g., $Cov(2X, Y) = 2Cov(X, Y)$.



Correlation - 2

◆ **Theorem 4.6.2 Schwarz Inequality.** For all R.V.s U and V such that $E(UV)$ exists,

$$[E(UV)]^2 \leq E(U^2)E(V^2).$$

If, in addition, the right-hand side is finite, then the two sides are equal **if and only if** there are nonzero constants a and b such that $aU + bV = 0$ with probability 1.

◆ **Theorem 4.6.3 Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality.** Let X and Y be R.V.s with finite variance. Then

$$[Cov(X, Y)]^2 \leq \sigma_X^2 \sigma_Y^2,$$

and

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

Furthermore, the equality holds if and only if there are nonzero constants a and b and a constant c such that $aX + bY = c$ with probability 1.





Correlation - 3

◆ **Definition 4.6.3 Positively / Negatively Correlated / Uncorrelated.** It is said that X and Y are **positively correlated** if $\rho(X, Y) > 0$, that X and Y are **negatively correlated** if $\rho(X, Y) < 0$, and that X and Y are **uncorrelated** if $\rho(X, Y) = 0$.

◆ **Ex23 (Book Ex4.6.3) Test Scores.** Back in Ex4.6.2, we've already calculated that $Cov(X, Y) = 1/144$. The variances of X and Y are both equal to $11/144$, so the correlation is

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{1}{11}.$$



Properties of Covariance and Correlation-1

◆ **Theorem 4.6.4** If X and Y are independent $R.V.s$ with $0 < \sigma_X^2 < \infty$ and $0 < \sigma_Y^2 < \infty$, then $Cov(X, Y) = \rho(X, Y) = 0$.

Proof: if X and Y are independent, then $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$. Therefore, $Cov(X, Y) = 0$. Also, it follows that $\rho(X, Y) = 0$.

◆ **Ex24 (Book Ex4.6.4) Dependent but Uncorrelated $R.V.s$.** Suppose that $R.V. X$ can take only the three values $-1, 0$, and 1 , and that each of these three values has the same probability. Also, let the $R.V. Y$ be defined by the relation $Y = X^2$. We shall show that X and Y are dependent but uncorrelated.

$$E(XY) = E(X^3) = E(X) = 0, Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) = 0.$$

Here, X and Y are clearly dependent, but are uncorrelated.

The converse of Theorem 4.6.4 is not true.



Properties of Covariance and Correlation-2

◆ **Theorem 4.6.5** Suppose that X is a R.V. such that $0 < \sigma_X^2 < \infty$, and $Y = aX + b$ for some constants a and b , where $a \neq 0$. If $a > 0$, then $\rho(X, Y) = 1$. If $a < 0$, then $\rho(X, Y) = -1$.

Proof: since $Y = aX + b$, then $\mu_Y = a\mu_X + b$. $Y - \mu_Y = a(X - \mu_X)$.

Therefore,

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = aE[(X - \mu_X)^2] = a\sigma_X^2$$

Since $\sigma_Y = |a| \sigma_X$,

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{a\sigma_X^2}{|a| \sigma_X^2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } a < 0 \end{cases}$$

$|\rho(X, Y)| = 1$ implies that X and Y are linearly related.

There is a converse to Theorem 4.6.5.



Properties of Covariance and Correlation-3

◆ Proof: let $\mu_X = E(X)$, $\mu_Y = E(Y)$. Apply Theorem 4.6.2 (Schwarz Inequality) with $U = X - \mu_X$, $V = Y - \mu_Y$, then

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y)^2 \leq \text{Var}(X) \text{Var}(Y). \quad (1)$$

Now $|\rho(X, Y)| = 1$ is equivalent to the equality in (1).

According to Theorem 4.6.2, we obtain the equality in (1) if and only if there exist constants a and b such that $aU + bV = 0$, that $a(X - \mu_X) + b(Y - \mu_Y) = 0$ with probability 1.

So $|\rho(X, Y)| = 1$ implies that $aX + bY = a\mu_X + b\mu_Y$.

Therefore, $|\rho(X, Y)| = 1$ implies that X and Y are linearly related.





Properties of Covariance and Correlation-4

◆ **Theorem 4.6.6** If X and Y are $R.V.s$ such that $Var(X) < \infty$ and $Var(Y) < \infty$, then

$$Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y).$$

Proof: since $E(X + Y) = \mu_X + \mu_Y$, then

$$\begin{aligned} Var(X + Y) &= E[(X + Y - \mu_X - \mu_Y)^2] \\ &= E[(X - \mu_X)^2 + (Y - \mu_Y)^2 + 2(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \\ &= Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y). \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 4.6.1 Let a , b , and c be constants. Under the conditions of Theorem 4.6.6,

$$Var(aX + bY + c) = a^2Var(X) + b^2Var(Y) + 2abCov(X, Y).$$

$$Var(X - Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) - 2Cov(X, Y).$$



Properties of Covariance and Correlation-5

◆ **Ex25** Prove that

$$\text{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^m a_i X_i, \sum_{j=1}^n b_j Y_j\right) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_i b_j \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j).$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^m a_i X_i, \sum_{j=1}^n b_j Y_j\right) &= E\left[\sum_{i=1}^m a_i (X_i - \mu_{X_i}) \sum_{j=1}^n b_j (Y_j - \mu_{Y_j})\right] \\ &= E\left[\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_i b_j (X_i - \mu_{X_i})(Y_j - \mu_{Y_j})\right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_i b_j E[(X_i - \mu_{X_i})(Y_j - \mu_{Y_j})] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_i b_j \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j). \end{aligned}$$



Properties of Covariance and Correlation-6

◆ **Theorem 4.6.7** If X_1, \dots, X_n are R.V.s such that $Var(X_i) < \infty$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, then

$$Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n Cov(X_i, X_j).$$

Proof: for every R.V. Y , $Cov(Y, Y) = Var(Y)$. We can obtain

$$Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = Cov\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \sum_{j=1}^n X_j\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n Cov(X_i, X_j).$$

$$\begin{aligned} Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) &= \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i) + \sum_{i \neq j} Cov(X_i, X_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n Cov(X_i, X_j). \end{aligned}$$





Properties of Covariance and Correlation-7

◆ **Corollary 4.6.2** If X_1, \dots, X_n are uncorrelated random variables (that is, if X_i and X_j are uncorrelated whenever $i \neq j$), then

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i).$$



Conditional Expectation - 1

◆ **Definition 4.7.1 Conditional Expectation/Mean** Let X and Y be R.V.s such that the mean of Y exists and is finite. The conditional expectation (or conditional mean) of Y given $X = x$ is denoted by $E(Y|x)$ and is defined to be the expectation of the conditional distribution of Y given $X = x$.

if Y has a continuous conditional distribution given $X = x$ with conditional p.d.f. $g_2(y|x)$, then

$$E(Y | x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yg_2(y | x)dy$$

If Y has a discrete conditional distribution given $X = x$ with conditional p.f. $g_2(y|x)$, then

$$E(Y | x) = \sum_{\text{All } y} yg_2(y | x).$$



Table 4.2 Joint p.f. $f(x, y)$ of X and Y in Example 4.7.2 together with marginal p.f.'s $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(y)$									
y	x								$f_2(y)$
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
0	0.040	0.028	0.012	0.008	0.008	0.004	0	0	0.100
1	0.048	0.084	0.100	0.120	0.100	0.060	0.020	0.004	0.536
2	0.004	0.020	0.040	0.060	0.080	0.044	0.020	0.012	0.280
3	0	0.008	0.012	0.020	0.020	0.012	0.008	0.004	0.084
$f_1(x)$	0.092	0.140	0.164	0.208	0.208	0.120	0.048	0.020	

Ex25 (Book Ex4.7.2) Calculate $E(Y|x)$.

Suppose $x=4$. $E(Y|x=4)=\sum_{\text{All } y} yg_2(y | x = 4) = \sum_{\text{All } y} y \frac{f(4, y)}{f_1(4)}$

$$E(Y | 4)=0 \times 0.0385+1 \times 0.5769+2 \times 0.2885+3 \times 0.0962=1.442.$$

x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$E(Y x)$	0.609	1.057	1.317	1.442	1.538	1.533	1.75	2

Conditional Expectation - 2

◆ **Definition 4.7.2 Conditional Means as R.V.s.** Let $h(x)$ stand for the function of x that is denoted $E(Y|x)$ in either

$$E(Y | x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yg_2(y | x)dy$$

or

$$E(Y | x) = \sum_{\text{All } y} yg_2(y | x).$$

Define the symbol $E(Y|X)$ to mean $h(X)$ and call it the **conditional mean of Y given X** .

◆ $E(Y|X)$ is a R.V. (a function of X) whose value when $X=x$ is $E(Y|x)$. $E(Y|X)$ is itself a R.V. with its own probability distribution, which can be derived from X .

◆ Back in Ex25, what is $E(Y|X)$?

x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$E(Y x)$	0.609	1.057	1.317	1.442	1.538	1.533	1.75	2

Conditional Expectation - 3

◆ **Theorem 4.7.1 Law of Total Probability for Expectations.** Let X and Y be $R.V.$ s such that Y has finite mean. Then **$E[E(Y|X)] = E(Y)$** .

Proof: assume, for convenience, that X and Y have a continuous joint distribution

$$\begin{aligned} E[E(Y | X)] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(Y | x) f_1(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y g_2(y | x) f_1(x) dy dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \frac{f(x, y)}{f_1(x)} f_1(x) dy dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx \right] dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_2(y) dy = E(Y). \end{aligned}$$

$$E\{E[r(X, Y)|X]\} = E[r(X, Y)].$$





Conditional Expectation - 4

◆ **Ex26 (Book Ex4.7.6).** Suppose that a point X is chosen in accordance with the uniform distribution on the interval $[0,1]$. After the value $X=x$ has been observed ($0 < x < 1$), a point Y is chosen in accordance with a uniform distribution on the interval $[x,1]$. Determine $E(Y)$.

Sol: for each given value of x ($0 < x < 1$),

$$E(Y | x) = \frac{x+1}{2}. \quad E(Y | X) = \frac{X+1}{2}.$$

$$E(Y) = E[E(Y | X)] = \frac{E(X)+1}{2} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}+1}{2} = \frac{3}{4}.$$





Conditional Expectation - 5

◆ **Ex26 (Book Ex4.7.7). Linear Conditional**

Expectation. Suppose that $E(Y|X) = aX + b$ for some constants a and b . Determine the value of $E(XY)$ in terms of $E(X)$ and $E(X^2)$.

◆ Sol: we know that

$$E(XY) = E[E(XY | X)]$$

here X is considered to be given and fixed in the conditional expectation,

$$\begin{aligned} E[E(XY | X)] &= E[XE(Y | X)] = E[aX^2 + bX] \\ &= aE(X^2) + bE(X). \end{aligned}$$



Conditional Expectation - 6

◆ **Definition 4.7.3 Conditional Variance.** For every given value x , let $Var(Y|x)$ denote the variance of the conditional distribution of Y given that $X=x$. That is

$$Var(Y | x) = E\{[Y - E(Y | x)]^2 | x\}.$$

We call $Var(Y|x)$ *the conditional variance of Y given $X=x$* .

Similarly, $Var(Y|X)$ is a function of X and is called the *conditional variance of Y given X* .

