

# Mathematical Statistics I

## Chapter 4: Expected Values

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1. Discrete random variables
2. Continuous random variables

# Discrete random variables

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# Introduction

- This material comes primarily from Rice (2007, Chapter 4).
- We will cover the ideas of expected value, variance, as well as higher-order moments.
- This includes topics such as conditional expectation, which is one of the fundamental ideas behind many branches of statistics and machine learning.
- For instance, most regression / prediction algorithms are built with the idea of minimizing some conditional expectation.

## Expectation: Discrete random variables

### Definition: Expectation of discrete random variables

Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable with pmf  $p(x)$ , which takes values in the space  $\mathcal{X}$ . The **expected value** of  $X$  is

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p(x),$$

provided that  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |x| p(x) < \infty$ ; otherwise, the expectation is not defined.

- This is not the most mathematically precise definition of expectation, but a more complete treatment of the topic is outside the scope of this course (See Resnick, 2019).

## Expectation: Discrete random variables II

- The concept of the expected value parallels the notion of a *weighted average*.
- That is, we weight each possibility  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  by their corresponding probability:  $\sum_x x p(x)$ .
- $E(X)$  is also referred to as the **mean** of  $X$ , and is typically denoted  $\mu$  or  $\mu_X$ .
- If the function  $p$  is thought of as a weight, then  $E(X)$  is the center; that is, if we place the mass  $p(x_i)$  at the points  $x_i$ , then the balancing point is  $E(X)$ .
- Like with the pmf and cdf, we often use subscripts to denote which probability law we are using for the expectation, if it is not clear:  $E_X(X)$ .

## Expectation: Discrete random variables III

### Roulette

A roulette wheel has the numbers 1 through 36, as well as 0 and 00. If you bet \$1 that an odd number comes up, you win or lose \$1 according to whether that event occurs. If  $X$  denotes your net gain,  $X = 1$  with probability  $18/38$  and  $X = -1$  with probability  $20/38$ . The expected value of  $X$  is

$$E(X) = 1 \times \frac{18}{38} + (-1) \times \frac{20}{38} = -\frac{1}{19}.$$

- As you might imagine, the expected value coincides in the limit with the actual average loss per game, if you play many games (Chapter 5).

## Expectation: Discrete random variables IV

- Most casino games have a negative expected value by design; you may win some money, but if a large number of games are played, the house will come out on top.



## Expectation: Discrete random variables V

### Geometric Random Variable

Suppose that items are produced in a plant are independently defective with probability  $p$ . If items are inspected one by one until a defective item is found, then how many items must be inspected on average?

*Solution:*

## Expectation: Discrete random variables VI

### Poisson Distribution

The  $\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  distribution has pmf  $p(k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$ , for all  $k \geq 0$ . Thus, if  $X \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda)$ , then what is  $E[X]$ ?

*Solution:*

## Continuous random variables

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# Expectation: Continuous random variables

## Definition: Expectation of continuous random variables

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with pdf  $f(x)$ , which takes values in the space  $\mathcal{X}$ . The **expected value** of  $X$  is

$$E(X) = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x f(x) dx.$$

provided that  $\int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x f(x) dx < \infty$ , otherwise the expectation is undefined.

- As before, this is not the most mathematically precise definition of expectation, but a more complete treatment of the topic is outside the scope of this course (See Resnick, 2019).

## Expectation: Continuous random variables II

- We can still think of  $E(X)$  as the center of mass of the density.

## Expectation: Continuous random variables III

### Gamma Density

If  $X$  follows a gamma density with parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$ , then the pdf of  $X$  is

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \geq 0.$$

Find  $E(X)$ .

*Solution.*

# Functions of random variables

- We are often interested in functions of random variables:  
 $Y = g(X)$ .
- Ideas that we have already covered enable us to calculate  $E(Y)$ .
- For instance, you could use the change-of-variables theorem to get the density of  $Y$ , then use the definition to calculate  $E[Y]$ .
- Fortunately, we don't have to do this. We can instead calculate  $E[Y]$  by integrating (or summing) with respect to  $X$ :

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) f(x) dx.$$

- We will justify this for the discrete analog.

## Functions of random variables II

### Theorem 4.1: Expectation of transformed random variables

Suppose that  $X$  is a random variable and that  $Y = g(X)$  for some function  $g$ . Then,

- If  $X$  is discrete with pmf  $p(x)$ :

$$E(Y) = \sum_x g(x) p(x),$$

provided that  $\sum_x |g(x)|p(x) < \infty$ .

- If  $X$  is continuous with pdf  $f(x)$ :

$$E(Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx,$$

provided that  $\int |g(x)|f(x) dx < \infty$ .



## Functions of random variables: proof

*Proof:*

## Functions of random variables: proof II

- The proof for the continuous case is similar, but does require a measure-theoretic approach to integration.
- One important thing to note is that  $g(E(X))$  is not usually equal to  $E(g(x))$ .
- For example, let  $Z$  be a standard normal. We know that  $E[Z] = 0$ , because it's symmetric. However,  $P(|Z| > 0) = 1$ , thus we can readily deduce that  $E[|Z|] \geq 0 = |E[Z]|$ .
- An immediate consequence is that if for all non-negative random variables  $X$  that have finite expectation, if  $g(x) \leq x$  for some function  $g$ , then  $E[g(X)] \leq E[X]$ .

## Expected value of indicator functions

- An interesting example is **indicator** functions.
- For example, suppose that  $X$  is a random variable. Then  $Y = 1[X \in A]$  for some  $A \subset \mathcal{X}$  is a random variable.
- Example: Let  $X$  follow a standard normal distribution, and  $A = [-1, 1]$ . Then  $Y = 1[X \in A]$  is defined as the random variables such that  $Y(\omega) = 1$  if  $X(\omega) \in A$ , and  $Y(\omega) = 0$  otherwise.

## Expected value of indicator functions II

- Expectations of indicator variables are **probabilities**:

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y) &= E(1[X \in A]) \\ &= \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} 1[X \in A] f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{x \in A} f(x) dx = P(X \in A). \end{aligned}$$

- This fact is useful for deriving some important inequalities.
- Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with expectation  $E(X)$ . From our definition, this implies that  $\int |x| f(x) dx < \infty$ .

## Expected value of indicator functions III

- Now suppose that for some random variable  $Y = g(X)$  such that  $|Y| \leq |X|$ . Then, if  $Y$  has a pdf, we can deduce that  $\int |y| f(x) dx < \infty$ , and therefore  $E[Y]$  exists.
- Now suppose that  $\varphi$  is a non-decreasing, non-negative function, and that for some  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\varphi(a) > 0$ . Then, for all  $x \geq a$ ,  $\varphi(x)/\varphi(a) \geq 1$ .
- Define  $Y = 1[X \geq a]$ . Note that for all possible outcomes  $\omega \in \Omega$ ,

$$Y = 1[X \geq a] \leq \varphi(X)/\varphi(a)1[X \geq a] \leq \varphi(X)/\varphi(a).$$

## Expected value of indicator functions IV

- Taking expectations of both sides,

$$E(1[X \geq a]) = P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E[\varphi(X)]}{\varphi(a)} = E[\varphi(X)/\varphi(a)].$$

- This inequality is known as **Markov's (general) inequality**, and is very useful for bounding the probability of particular events.
- Specifically, if  $\varphi(x) = |x|^p$ , with  $p > 0$ , then because  $|X|$  is always positive,  $\varphi$  is non-negative, non-decreasing, and therefore

$$P(|X| \geq a) \leq \frac{E[|X|^p]}{a^p},$$

- If we restrict ourselves to the case where  $X$  is non-negative, we get the most standard version of the inequality:

$$P(X \geq a) \leq E(X)/a.$$

## Expected value of indicator functions V

### Markov's Inequality in Action

suppose that an individual is taken randomly from a population that has an average salary of \$50,000. If we assume that salary from the population is approximately independently and identically distributed, we can provide an upper-bound for the probability that the individual is wealthy.

Let  $X_i$  be the salary of individual  $i$ , randomly drawn from said population. Even though all we know is the average salary, Markov's inequality tells us that:

$$P(X \geq 200,000) \leq \frac{50,000}{200,000} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

## Expected value of indicator functions VI

- Returning to expectations of functions of random variables, we can extend to the multi-variate case



## Expected value of indicator functions VII

### Theorem 4.2: functions of multiple variables

Suppose that  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are jointly distributed RVs and  $Y = g(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . Then

- IF  $X_i$  are discrete with pmf  $p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , then

$$E(Y) = \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_n} g(x_1, \dots, x_n) p(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

- If  $X_i$  are continuous with pdf  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , then

$$E(Y) = \int_{\mathcal{X}_1, \dots, \mathcal{X}_n} g(x_1, \dots, x_n) f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots, dx_n.$$

In both cases, we need the sum (or integral) of  $|g|$  to converge.

## Expected value of indicator functions VIII

- The proof for the discrete case of Theorem 4.2 follows directly that of Theorem 4.1
- An immediate consequence of Theorem 4.2 is the following

### Corollary 4.2.1

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, and  $g$  and  $h$  are fixed functions, then

$$E[g(X)h(Y)] = \left( E[g(X)] E[h(Y)] \right),$$

provided that the expectations on the right-hand side exist.

## Expected value of indicator functions IX

### Example: Breaking sticks

A stick of unit-length is broken randomly (uniformly) in two places. What is the average length of the middle piece?

We will interpret this problem to mean that the locations of the two break-points are independent uniform random variables,  $U_1$  and  $U_2$ , and we need to computing  $E|U_1 - U_2|$ .

*Solution:*

# Linear Combinations of Random Variables

- A useful property of expectation is that it is a **linear operator**.

## Theorem 4.3: Linear combinations

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are jointly distributed random variables with expectations  $E(X_i)$ , respectively, and  $Y = a + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i X_i$ , then,

$$E(Y) = a + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i E(X_i).$$

## Linear Combinations of Random Variables II

*Proof.*

## References and Acknowledgements

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Rice JA (2007). *Mathematical statistics and data analysis*, volume 371. 3 edition. Thomson/Brooks/Cole Belmont, CA.

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