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Discrete random variables

[Introduction](#)

This material comes primarily from [Chapter 4]rice07.

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.

For instance, most regression / prediction algorithms are built with the idea of minimizing some conditional expectation.

[\[allowframebreaks\]](#)Expectation: Discrete random variables Definition: Expectation of discrete random variables Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable with probability mass function  $p(x)$ .

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 out of the scope of this course.

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:  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p(x)$ .

Combining the factors of  $x$  in the integrand, we obtain

Now we will apply the “integration by density function” trick: we will re-write the integrand so that it corresponds to the representation of the gamma distribution. We will use the following identity:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \left( \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \right) \left( \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\lambda^\alpha} \right) \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \left( \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \right) \left( \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\lambda^\alpha} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Where the last step is a result of the fact that the integrand (and support of the integral) matches the representation of the gamma distribution.

*Solution.* Expectation of functions of random variables

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

Fortunately, we don’t have to do this. We can instead calculate  $E[Y]$  by integrating (or summing) with respect to  $X$ :

We will justify this for the discrete case.

Theorem 4.1: Expectation of transformed random variables Suppose that  $X$  is a random variable and that  $Y = g(X)$  for

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

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

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

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

Functions of random variables: proof

*Proof:*

*Proof:* By definition of expectation,

Now let  $A_i$  denote the set of  $x$ ’s that are mapped to  $y_i$  by  $g$ . That is,  $A_i$  is the pre-image of  $y_i$ , meaning that  $x \in A_i$  if and only if  $g(x) = y_i$ .

and we can express the expectation as  $E(Y) = \sum_i y_i p_Y(y_i)$

$= \sum_i y_i \sum_{x \in A_i} p(x)$

$= \sum_i \sum_{x \in A_i} y_i p(x)$

$= \sum_i \sum_{x \in A_i} g(x) p(x)$

$= \sum_x g(x) p(x)$  Here, the second to last step is because for all  $x \in A_i$ ,  $g(x) = y_i$  by definition. The final step is a result of the fact that the sets  $A_i$  are disjoint.

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  $E[|Z|] > 0$ .

This idea can be extended to show that if for all non-negative random variables  $X$  that have finite expectation, if  $g(x) \leq f(x)$  then  $E[g(X)] \leq E[f(X)]$ .

Expected value of indicator functions

Another important example of expectations is indicator random variables.

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 variable that is 1 if  $X$  is in  $A$  and 0 otherwise.

Expectations of indicator variables are probabilities:  $E(Y) = E(1[X \in A])$

$= \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} 1[X \in A] f(x) dx$

$= \int_{x \in A} f(x) dx = P(X \in A)$ .

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

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  $\int |y| f_Y(y) dy < \infty$ .

Now suppose that  $\varphi$  is a non-decreasing, non-negative function, and that for some  $a \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $\varphi(a) > 0$ . Then, for all  $x \geq a$ ,  $\varphi(x) \geq \varphi(a)$ .

Define  $Y = 1[X \geq a]$ . Note that for all possible outcomes  $\omega \in \Omega$ ,

Taking expectations of both sides,

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 the inequality applies.

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