Lecture 6 - Moments of Random Variables

Functions of Random Variables

- A measurable real-valued function Y=g(X) of a random variable X is also a random variable
- The distribution of a function of a random variable is defined as:

$$P_Y(A) = P_X(g^{-1}(A))$$

or in the event notation:

$$P(Y \in A) = P(X \in g^{-1}(A))$$

• If g is a discrete function, i.e. $X \in \{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}$ and $Y = g(X) \in \{y_1, y_1, \ldots\}$ then:

$$P(Y=y) = \sum_{x:g(x)=y} P(X=x)$$

• In other words, to calculate the probability of P(Y=y) we sum probabilities P(X=x) for all x such that g(x)=y.

Expected value

• Let $X \in \{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}$ be a discrete random variable. The expected value (expectation, mean value) of X is a number:

$$E(X) = \sum_i x_i \cdot P(X = x_i)$$

• We will often drop the parentheses and denote ${\cal E}(X)$ as ${\cal E}X.$

- If X is always larger or equal to a then $EX \geq a$.
- If X is always smaller or equal to b then $EX \leq b$.
- Alternatively we can define expected value for a random variable that takes values only within nonnegative integers as:

$$EX = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(X \geq k)$$

- A random variable might not have a finite expectation, i.e. it might diverge to infinity.
- We can calculate the expected value of a function of a random variable by:

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x) \cdot P(X = x)$$

• Expectation is linear:

$$E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$$

- In particular:
 - $\circ~$ The expected value of any number b is E(b)=b
 - \circ Hence, E(EX) = EX
 - $\circ~$ A constant multiplying X can be taken outside the expectation: $E(aX) = a \cdot EX$

Distribution	Expected Value
Bernoulli	EX = p
Binomial	EX=np
Geometric	$EX=rac{1}{p}$
Negative Binomial	$EX=rac{rp}{1-p}$
Poisson distribution	$EX=\lambda$

St. Petersburg paradox

- Consider a game in which we toss a fair coin until the first head. The winning in this game is 2^k dollars, where k number of tosses. How much entry fee are we willing to pay to play this game?
- X number of tosses till first head, $X \sim G_1(rac{1}{2})$:

•
$$P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p = (\frac{1}{2})^k$$

- $\bullet \ \ Y=g(X)=2^X-\text{winning}$
- We are willing to pay a dollars as long as EY a > 0.

•
$$EY = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^k (\frac{1}{2})^k = 1 + 1 + 1 + \ldots = \infty$$

Are we willing to pay any amount of the entry fee???

Utility theory (optional)

- Utility theory explain the behaviour of people in such games (as in St. Petersburg paradox)
 - People do not decide based on the expected winning, but rather the expected utility of winning
 - The utility grows much slower than the winning itself
- Example: consider a game in which with probability 20% we get 10 times the amount of bet, while with probability 80% we lose the bet. The expected winning is 1.2 times the money we bet. Would you bet the savings of your entire life in this game?
- To analyse this example we first need to choose our utility function. A popular choice is the logarithmic utility function:

$$U(y) = \log_2(y)$$

- In the previous example having initial capital y_0 and betting a dollars, the expected utility is:
- $EU = 0.2 \cdot \log_2(y_0 + 10a) + 0.8 \cdot \log_2(y_0 a)$

This the expected utility increase is:

$$\Delta U = EU - U(y_0) = 0.2 \cdot \log_2(y_0 + 10a) + 0.8 \cdot \log_2(y_0 - a) - \log_2(y_0)$$

- If $y_0=1000$ and a=10 then $\Delta U \simeq 0.02$
- If $y_0=105000$ and a=100000 then $\Delta U \simeq -2.83$
- In St. Petersburg paradox:
 - $\circ~$ Given capital $y_0=1000000$ the expected utility increase is positive for a<20.88
 - $\circ~$ Given capital $y_0=1000$ the expected utility increase is positive for a<10.96
 - $\circ~$ Given capital $y_0=1$ the expected utility increase is positive for a<2.82

Variance

ullet Variance of a random variable X is the expected squared deviation from the expectation:

$$D^{2}(X) = E((X - EX)^{2}) = \sum_{x} (x - EX)^{2} \cdot P(X = x)$$

- The variance measures the concentration of the distribution around the mean (expectation)
- The square in the definition ensures that deviations with different signs will not cancel each other
- · Short formula for variance

$$D^{2}(X) = E(X^{2}) - (EX)^{2}$$

- $D^2(X) \ge 0$
- $D^2(X)=0$ if and only if X has a degenerate distribution
- $D^2(aX+b) = a^2D^2(X)$

Distribution	Variance
Bernoulli	$D^2(X)=p(1-p)$
Binomial	$D^2(X) = np(1-p)$
Geometric	$D^2(X)=rac{1-p}{p^2}$
Negative Binomial	$D^2(X)=rac{rp}{(1-p)^2}$
Poisson distribution	$D^2(X)=\lambda$

Standard deviation

- The variance has a different "scale" than the random variable itself.
- Standard deviation is defined as the square root of variance:

$$D(X) = \sqrt{D^2(X)}$$

• The standard deviation is often denoted by σ , therefore the variance is denoted by σ^2 .

Moments of random variable

A value:

$$m_k = E(X^k)$$

- is called the k-th moment of a random variable X.
- A value:

$$\mu_k = E((X - EX)^k)$$

• is called the k-th central moment of a random variable X.

Markov's inequality

• Let X be a nonnegative random variable. For any a>0:

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{EX}{a}$$

Chebyshev's inequality

• For a random variable with finite expected value and finite variance:

$$P(|X-EX| \geq \epsilon) \leq rac{D^2(X)}{\epsilon^2}$$