

### 3.4 The Expected Value of a Function of a Random Variable

Often times in the real world, we wish to look at a function of our variables – or transform them. Changing feet into meters, Fahrenheit into centigrade, etc. In this section we seek to determine the expected value of this new variable. If we transform a random variable  $X$  by some function  $Y = g(X)$ , it should be clear that  $Y$  itself is a random variable.

Suppose that we have a discrete random variable  $X$  with pmf given below. We now let  $Y = 2X + 5$ . What is the expected value of  $Y$ ? By definition  $E[Y] = \sum y f_Y(y)$ . So to determine the  $E[Y]$ , we will find  $f_Y(y)$  and then compute  $E[Y] = \sum y f_Y(y)$ .

$x$	$f_X(x)$
-2	1/8
-1	1/8
0	2/8
1	1/8
2	1/8
3	1/8
4	1/8

$$Y = 2X + 5 \rightarrow$$

$y$	$f_Y(y)$
1	1/8
3	1/8
5	2/8
7	1/8
9	1/8
11	1/8
13	1/8

$$\text{So, } E[Y] = \sum y f_Y(y) = (1 + 3 + 7 + 9 + 11 + 13) \left( \frac{1}{8} \right) + 5 \left( \frac{2}{8} \right) = \frac{54}{8}.$$

We also note that,

$$E[Y] = \sum y f_Y(y) = \sum_{x=-2}^4 (2x + 5) f_X(x) = \sum_{x \in \text{Support}(X)} g(x) f_X(x)$$

**Theorem:** Given a discrete random variable  $X$  and the linear transformation  $Y = g(X) = aX + b$ ,

$$E[Y] = E[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in \text{Support}(X)} g(x) f_X(x).$$

**Proof:** Since  $Y = g(X) = aX + b$  is a 1 to 1 function, this will be rather straight forward.

$$E[Y] = \sum y f_Y(y) = \sum (ax + b) P(Y = ax + b) = \sum (ax + b) P(X = x) = \sum g(x) f_X(x)$$

Note that the argument above would work with any function  $Y = g(X)$  that is 1 to 1.

**Theorem:** Given a discrete random variable  $X$  and the linear transformation  $Y = g(X) = aX + b$ ,

$$E[Y] = E[aX + b] = aE[X] + b.$$

$$\text{Proof: } E[aX + b] = \sum (ax + b) f(x) = \sum (ax) f(x) + \sum (b) f(x)$$

$$a \sum x f(x) + b \sum f(x) = aE[X] + b = a\mu_X + b$$

Thus, the expected value of a random variable is a **linear operator**.

**Example:** If a random variable  $X$  has mean  $\mu=4$ , determine the mean of  $Y$ , where  $Y=2X+3$

$$\mu_Y = 2\mu_X + 3 = 11 \text{ or } E[Y] = E[2X + 3] = 2E[X] + 3 = 11$$

If we think about this last example, it seems like a no brainer that it is true. Suppose that the average score is 4. I now double everybody's score. The new average is 8. I now add 3 to everybody's already doubled score. The new average is 11.

In this linear case, notice if we consider  $Y = g(X) = 2X + 3$ , then  $E[Y] = E[g(X)] = 2X + 3 = g(E[X])$ . We would naturally wonder if that statement always holds. That is, will it always be true that If  $Y = g(X)$  then  $E[Y] = g(E[X])$ ? The answer is no, this is not always true. **How will we show this?**

Suppose that we have a discrete random variable  $X$  with pmf given below. The expected value of  $X$  can be determined by  $\sum xf(x) = 7/8$ . We now let  $Y = X^2$ . What is the expected value of  $Y$ ? By definition  $E[Y] = \sum yf_Y(y)$ . So to determine the  $E[Y]$ , we will find  $f_Y(y)$  and then compute  $E[Y] = \sum yf_Y(y)$ .

x	$f_X(x)$	$xf_X(x)$	$Y = X^2$ $\rightarrow$	y	$f_Y(y)$	$yf_Y(y)$	$=$	y	$f_Y(y)$	$yf_Y(y)$
-2	1/8	-2/8		4	1/8	4/8		0	2/8	0
-1	1/8	-1/8		1	1/8	1/8		1	2/8	2/8
0	2/8	0		0	2/8	0		4	2/8	8/8
1	1/8	1/8		1	1/8	1/8		9	1/8	9/8
2	1/8	2/8		4	1/8	4/8		16	1/8	16/8
3	1/8	3/8		9	1/8	9/8				
4	1/8	4/8		16	1/8	16/8				

$$E[X] = 7/8$$

$$E[Y] = 35/8$$

We note that  $E^2[X] = (7/8)^2 \neq 35/8 = E[Y] = E[X^2]$ . So, we have our counter example and in general, it is not true that  $E[Y] = g(E[X])$ . We do however see something helpful when looking at the first two groupings in the above table. We see that the probabilities are identical and that each y-value is the square of the x-value. This leads us to the following theorem that will help us determine  $E[Y]$ :

**Theorem:** Given a discrete random variable  $X$  and a function  $Y = g(X)$ ,  $E[Y] = E[g(X)] = \sum g(x) \cdot f_X(x)$ .

The theorem is much bigger than it seems. It allows us to determine the expected value of a transformation of a random variable without determining the distribution of the new random variable. We easily found  $f_Y(y)$  in the above problem. With continuous random variables, it can often be difficult to determine  $f_Y(y)$ , so this will be huge when we get to continuous random variables.

### 3.5 Some Important Functions of a Random Variable (Moments and Variance)

**Definition:** The **Variance** of a discrete random variable  $X$  is defined by the formula

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{x \in \text{Support}} (x - \mu)^2 f(x) \text{ (provided the sum converges). Alternatively, } \sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2].$$

**Definition:** The **Standard Deviation** of a random variable, denoted by  $\sigma$ , is defined by  $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$

Note that we can consider the function  $Y = g(X) = (x - \mu)^2$ . Then the variance is just  $E[g(X)] = E[Y]$ .

In a data set, we use the standard deviation of the data set to denote a measure of the variation of the data. The standard deviation of a random variable does the same thing. It gives us a measure of how spread out the support is with respect to the associated probabilities.

**Example:** Determine the standard deviation for rolling a single die.

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{x=1}^6 (x - 3.5)^2 \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{6} \left( (1 - 3.5)^2 + (2 - 3.5)^2 + \cdots + (6 - 3.5)^2 \right) = \frac{17.5}{6} \approx 2.916667. \text{ So } \sigma = 1.7078.$$

**Theorem:**  $\sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2] = E[X^2] - E^2[X]$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof: } E[(x - \mu)^2] &= \sum (x - \mu)^2 f(x) = \sum (x^2 - 2x\mu + \mu^2) f(x) \\ &= \sum x^2 f(x) - 2\mu \sum x f(x) + \mu^2 \sum f(x) \\ &= E[X^2] - 2\mu^2 + \mu^2 = E[X^2] - \mu^2 = E[X^2] - E^2[X] \end{aligned}$$

**Example:** Recalculate the variance of a single die using the theorem.

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{6} (1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2) - 3.5^2 = \frac{91}{6} - 3.5^2 \approx 2.916667$$

In general, this theorem allows a much easier calculation than the definition. Soon, we will see problems where this formula is a necessity.

Not all random variables have a finite variance. We saw earlier that we can have a random variable that does not have a finite mean. We can also have a random variable with finite mean, but not finite variance.

$f(x) = \frac{k}{x^3}$  for  $x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ , where  $k$  is the value that makes  $f(x)$  a pmf. That is, so that  $\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{x^3} = 1$ . This random variable has finite mean since  $E[X] = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{k}{x^3} = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{x^2} = \frac{k\pi^2}{6}$ , which is finite. To determine the variance of our random variable, we need to determine  $E[X^2]$ .  $E[X^2] = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x^2 \frac{k}{x^3} = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{x}$  which diverges. So, this random variable has finite mean but not finite variance.

**Theorem:** Given a discrete random variable  $X$  and the linear transformation  $Y = g(X) = aX + b$ ,  $Var[Y] = Var[aX + b] = a^2 Var[X]$ . Or, we can write  $\sigma_{aX+b}^2 = a^2 \sigma_X^2$

**Proof:**  $Var[(aX + b)] = E[\{(aX + b) - E[aX + b]\}^2] = E[\{(aX + b) - aE[X] - b\}^2]$   
 $= E[(aX - aE[X])^2] = E[a^2(X - E[X])^2]$   
 $= a^2 E[(X - E[X])^2]$   
 $= a^2 Var[X]$

**Exercise:** Given a random variable  $X$ , with variance  $\sigma_X^2 = 8$ , determine the variance of  $Y = 3X - 5$ .

**Exercise:** Given a random variable  $X$ , with variance  $\sigma_X^2 = 8$ , determine the variance of  $Y = 5 - 3X$ .

The  $E[X]$  is often called the **first moment** of  $X$  and  $E[X^2]$  is called the **second moment** of  $X$ .

**Definition:** The ***k*th moment** of  $X$  is defined to be  $E[X^k]$

These moments are important features of a random variable. Sometimes they are called the moments about the origin and then moments about the mean would be defined as  $E[(X - \mu)^k]$ .