# Lecture 3: Expectations, moments, and distributions

STATS 101: Foundations of Statistics

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#### Announcements

- ► Review survey
- Question: How long did last homework take?
- ▶ Next assignment will be posted tonight
  - ▶ Due 12/11 @ 11:59pm
- Classes will be recorded going forward

### Outline

#### Expectations, moments, and distributions

- ► Expected value
- Moments
- ► Moment generating functions
- Distributions

The *expected value* of rv X is defined as

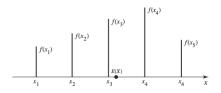
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \begin{cases} \sum_{x} x f_X(x) & \text{if x is discrete} \\ \int x f_X(x) dx & \text{if x is continuous} \end{cases}$$
 (1)

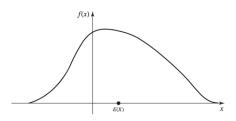
For functions g of X,

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \begin{cases} \sum_{x} g(x) f_X(x) & \text{if x is discrete} \\ \int g(x) f_X(x) dx & \text{if x is continuous} \end{cases}$$
 (2)

n.b. In general,  $\mathbb{E}[g(X)] \neq g(\mathbb{E}[X])$ 

#### **Examples**:





Important: Expectations might not exist!

**Example:** Suppose  $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ , defined on  $[1, \infty]$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int x f_X(x) dx = \int x \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \infty$$
 (3)

Important: Expectations might not exist!

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Some properties of expectations:

- ▶ Linearity:  $\mathbb{E}[ag(X) + bh(X)] = \mathbb{E}[ag(X)] + \mathbb{E}[bh(X)]$
- ▶ Order preserving:  $g(X) \le h(X), \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[g(X)] \le \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$

The *variance* of rv X is defined as

$$var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] : \mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$$
 (4)

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#### Some notes:

- ▶ If  $\mathbb{E}[X]$  doesn't exist then var(X) doesn't exist.
- var(X) can be infinite.
- ▶ The standard deviation  $\sigma$  of X is  $\sqrt{var(X)}$ .

With some algebra, we see that

$$var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]$$
 (5)

$$= \mathbb{E}[X^2 - 2X\mu - \mu^2] \tag{6}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[2X\mu] - \mathbb{E}[\mu^2] \tag{7}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu^2 \tag{8}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2 \tag{9}$$

#### Some properties:

- ▶ If X is bounded, then var(X) exists and is finite.
- ▶  $var(X) = 0 \iff P(X = c) = 1$  for some constant c.
- ▶  $var(cX) = c^2 var(X)$  for some constant c.
- ▶ variance is linear, i.e.  $var(X_1 + X_2) = var(X_1) + var(X_2)$ .

The  $k^{th}$  moment of rv X is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X^k] = \mu_k : k \in \mathbb{N} \tag{10}$$

The  $k^{th}$  central/centered moment of rv X is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[(X-\mu)^k] = \mu_k : k \in \mathbb{N}$$
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 (11)

#### Notes:

- $\mu_k$  exists if and only if  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^k] < \infty$ .
- ▶ If  $\mu_k$  exists, then for all j < k,  $\mu_j$  also exists.
- Variance is μ<sub>2</sub>.
- *Skewness* is  $\mu_3/\sigma^2$ .
- Kurtosis is  $\mu_4/\sigma^4$ .

**Example:** Suppose  $X \sim N(0,1)$   $\ni f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right)$ .

$$\mu_1' = \mathbb{E}[X] = \int x f_X(x) dx = f_X(x)|_{-\infty}^{\infty} = 0$$
 (12)

n.b. For the normal distribution,  $xf_X(x) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}f_X(x)$ .

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n.b. For the normal distribution,  $xf_X(x) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}f_X(x)$ .

$$\mu_2 = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] = \mathbb{E}[(X - 0)^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] = \int x^2 f_X(x) dx$$
 (13)

using integration by parts, we get

$$x^{2}f_{X}(x)dx = \underbrace{-xf_{X}(x)|_{-\infty}^{\infty}}_{=0} + \underbrace{f_{X}(x)|_{-\infty}^{\infty}}_{=1}$$
 (14)

*Moment generating functions* (mgf) are used to calculate the moments of a rv. The mgf of a rv X is a function  $M_X: \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  such that

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] : t \in \mathbb{R}$$
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#### Notes:

- ▶ The mgf is a function of t; X is integrated out by  $\mathbb{E}$ .
- ▶ The mgf only applies if the moments of the rv exists.
- ▶ If two rv X, Y have the same mgf (i.e.  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$ ), then they have the same distribution.
- Even if a rv has moments, the mgf may yield infinity (e.g. log-normal distribution).

Taking the derivative of the mgf, we see that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} M_X(t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int e^{tx} f_X(x) dx = \int x \cdot e^{tx} f_X(x) dx \qquad (16)$$

What happens when t = 0?

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What happens when t = 0 for the  $k^{th}$  derivative?

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t^k} M_X(t) = \int x^k \cdot e^{tx} f_X(x) dx \tag{18}$$

At t=0, we get  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t^k} M_X(t)|_{t=0} = \mathbb{E}[X^k]$ 

Evaluating the  $k^{th}$  derivative at t = 0 gives us the  $k^{th}$  moment of X.

**Example:** The standard normal distribution

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] = \int e^{tX} f_X(x) dx$$

$$= \int e^{tX} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-t)^2}{2}\right) \exp\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right) dx$$

$$= \exp\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right) \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-t)^2}{2}\right) dx$$

$$= \exp\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right)$$

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(23)

The mgf for affine transformations is straight forward, e.g. If Y = aX + b, then  $M_Y(t) = e^{bt}M_X(at)$ .

**Example:** Let  $X = \mu + \sigma Z : Z \sim N(0,1)$ . Then

$$M_X(t) = M_{\mu+\sigma Z}(t) = e^{\mu t} M_Z(\sigma t) = e^{\mu t} e^{\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2} = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}$$
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#### **Another example:**

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P_0$  and  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then

$$M_{Y}(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tY}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{t(X_{1} + \dots + X_{n})}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\prod_{i=1}^{n} e^{tX_{i}}\right]$$
(25)  
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}\left[e^{tX_{i}}\right] = \prod_{i=1}^{n} M_{Y}(t)$$
(26)

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 (26)

#### Distributions

Most useful distributions have names, e.g.

- Normal distribution
- Uniform distribution
- Bernoulli distribution
- Binomial distribution
- ▶ Poisson distribution
- Gamma distribution

#### Normal distribution

A rv X follows a *Normal distribution*, denoted as  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , if X is continuous with pdf

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) : x \in \mathbb{R}$$
 (27)

#### Note:

If  $Z \sim N(0,1)$  then  $X = \mu + \sigma Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . It follows that

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[\mu + \sigma Z] = \mu + \sigma \mathbb{E}[Z] = \mu.$
- $var(X) = var(\mu + \sigma Z) = \sigma^2 var(Z) = \sigma^2$ .

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Most well known distribution due to:

- 1. Good mathematical properties
- 2. Often (approximately) observed in the real world (e.g. heights, weights, etc.)
- 3. Central limit theorem

#### Central limit theorem

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P_0$ , where  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$  and  $var(X_i) = \sigma^2$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\frac{n^{1/2}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \le x\right) = \Phi(x)$$
 (28)

where  $\Phi(x)$  is the cdf for the standard normal distribution.

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where  $\Phi(x)$  is the cdf for the standard normal distribution.

Example: The sample mean

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$
 (29)

The 95% CI:  $\bar{X}_n \pm z_{\alpha/2} \hat{se}_n$ 

### Uniform distribution

A rv X follows a Uniform distribution U(a,b) if X is continuous with pdf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (30)

Under U(a, b), all observations are "equally likely"

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{a+b}{2}$$
,  $var(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$ , and  $M_X(t) = \frac{e^{bt} - e^{at}}{(b-a)t}$ .

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Note: if  $X \sim U(a,b)$ , then  $X = (b-a)\tilde{X} + a$ :  $\tilde{X} \sim U(0,1)$  and

$$f_{\tilde{X}}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (31)

### Bernoulli distribution

A rv X follows a Bernoulli distribution Ber(p) if X is discrete with pmf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } x = 1\\ 1 - p & \text{if } x = 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (32)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = p$$
,  $var(X) = p(1-p)$ , and  $M_X(t) = e^t p + (1-p)$ .

### Binomial distribution

A rv X follows a Binomial distribution Bin(n,p) if X is discrete with pmf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-1} & \text{if } x \in \{0, 1, ..., n\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(33)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = np, \ var(X) = np(1-p), \ and \ M_X(t) = (e^t p + (1-p))^n.$$

If  $X_1, ..., X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} Ber(p)$ , then  $Y = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$  follows B(n, p).

## Negative Binomial distribution

A rv X follows a Negative Binomial distribution NB(r,p) if X is discrete with pmf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{r+x-1}{x} p^r (1-p)^x & \text{if } x \in \{0,1,...,n\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(34)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{r(1-p)}{p}$$
,  $var(X) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}$ , and  $M_X(t) = \left(\frac{p}{1-qe^t}\right)^r : t < \log\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)$ .

When r = 1, we refer to it as the *Geometric distribution*.

▶ It has a *memoryless* property.

#### Poisson distribution

A rv X follows a Poisson distribution  $Pois(\lambda)$  if X is discrete with pmf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} e^{\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} & x \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (35)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda$$
,  $var(X) = \lambda$ , and  $M_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$ .

#### Some notes:

- ▶  $Bin(n, p) \approx Pois(np)$  when n is large and np is small.
- "Poisson Processes" are typically used to model rates, e.g. mortality rates
  - 1. The number of events in each fixed time interval t has a Poisson distribution with mean  $\lambda t$ .
  - 2. The number of events in each time interval is independent.

### Gamma distribution

A rv X follows a Gamma distribution  $\operatorname{Gamma}(\alpha,\beta)$  if X is continuous with pdf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} & x > 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (36)

where  $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty t^{\alpha-1} e^{-t} dt : \alpha > 0$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \alpha \beta$$
,  $var(X) = \alpha \beta^2$ , and

$$M_X(t) = \left(1 - \frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{-\alpha} : t < \beta.$$

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,  $var(X) = \alpha \beta^2$ , and  $M_X(t) = \left(1 - \frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{-\alpha} : t < \beta$ .

#### Notes:

- $ightharpoonup rac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}}$  is often referred to as the 'normalizing constant'.
- ▶ When  $\alpha = 1$ , we get the exponential distribution.

#### Beta distribution

A rv X follows a Beta distribution  $Beta(\alpha, \beta)$  if X is continuous with pdf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} & 0 < x < 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(37)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}, \ var(X) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}, \ \text{and}$$

$$M_X(t) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^1 x^{\alpha + k - 1} (1 - x)^{\beta - 1} dx.$$

n.b. Very popular distribution in Bayesian statistics.

### Multinomial distribution

Suppose rv  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, ..., X_k)$  represents counts of k different classes. Then it follows a Multinomial distribution  $Multi(p_1, ..., p_k)$  if it has pdf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_k} p_1^{x_1} \cdots p_k^{x_k} & x_1 \ge 0, \dots, x_k \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(38)

where  $n = \sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i] = np$$
,  $var(X_i) = np_i(1 - p_i)$ , and  $Cov(X_i, X_j) = -np_ip_j$ .

### Dirac delta function

While not technically a pdf, often used for e.g. mixture of discrete distributions

The Dirac delta function is defined as  $\delta: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \cup \infty$   $\ni$ 

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} +\infty & x = 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (39)

and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$ 

The sifting property:

$$\int f(x)\delta(x-a)dx = f(a) \tag{40}$$

### Dirac delta function

#### Example: Let

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w.p. } \alpha \\ U(0,1) & \text{w.p. } 1 - \alpha \end{cases}$$
 (41)

Then 
$$f_Y(y) = \alpha \delta(y-1) + (1-\alpha)\mathbb{I}(y \in [0,1])$$

### Dirac delta function

#### Example: Let

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w.p. } \alpha \\ U(0,1) & \text{w.p. } 1 - \alpha \end{cases} \tag{41}$$

Then  $f_Y(y) = \alpha \delta(y-1) + (1-\alpha)\mathbb{I}(y \in [0,1])$ 

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y(\alpha\delta(y-1) + (1-\alpha)\mathbb{I}(y \in [0,1]))dy \quad (42)$$

$$= \alpha \int_{\infty}^{\infty} y(\delta(y-1)dy + (1-\alpha) \int_{0}^{1} ydy$$
 (43)

$$= \alpha + (1 - \alpha) \frac{y^2}{2} \Big|_0^1 \tag{44}$$

$$= \alpha + \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \tag{45}$$

$$= \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \tag{46}$$

#### References

- ▶ DeGroot & Schervish Chapters 4.1-4.5,5.1-5.9
- ► Grinstead & Snell Chapters 5,6