

## Lecture 17: Sept 37

### Last time

- Exam 1 covers up to today's lecture
- Expectations (2.2)

### Today

- Expectations (2.2)
- Moments and moment generation function

The process of taking expectations is a linear operation, which means that the expectation of a linear function of  $X$  can be easily evaluated by noting that for any constants  $a$  and  $b$ , such that

$$E(aX + b) = aEX + b$$

**Theorem** Let  $X$  be a random variable and let  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  be constants. Then for any functions  $g_1(x)$  and  $g_2(x)$  whose expectations exist,

1.  $E(ag_1(X) + bg_2(X) + c) = aEg_1(X) + bEg_2(X) + c$ .
2. If  $g_1(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ , then  $Eg_1(X) \geq 0$ .
3. If  $g_1(x) \geq g_2(x)$  for all  $x$ , then  $Eg_1(X) \geq Eg_2(X)$ .
4. If  $a \leq g_1(x) \leq b$  for all  $x$ , then  $a \leq Eg_1(X) \leq b$ .

*Proof:*

**Example** (Method of indicators) An example of how the above properties are useful. Let  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$  for  $n$  positive integer and  $0 \leq p \leq 1$  ( $n$  is the number of independent identical binary trials and  $p$  is the probability of success). We can write

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^n I_i$$

where  $I_i$  is the indicator that  $i^{\text{th}}$  trial is a success (i.e.  $I_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ ). We have

$$EI_i = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot (1 - p) = p.$$

Therefore,

$$EX = \sum_{i=1}^n EI_i = \sum_{i=1}^n p = np.$$

**Theorem** For a non-negative random variable  $X$  (i.e.,  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x < 0$ ).

$$EX = \begin{cases} \int_0^\infty (1 - F(x))dx, & X \text{ continuous} \\ \sum_{x=0}^\infty (1 - F(x)), & X \text{ discrete} \end{cases}$$

*Proof:*

## Moments

**Example** (Minimizing distance) The expected value of a random variable has another property, one that we can think of as relating to the interpretation of  $EX$  as a good guess at a value of  $X$ .

Suppose we measure the distance between a random variable  $X$  and a constant  $b$  by  $(X - b)^2$ . The closer  $b$  is to  $X$ , the smaller this quantity is. We can now determine the value of  $b$  that minimizes  $E[(X - b)^2]$  and, hence, will provide us with a good predictor of  $X$ . (Note that it does no good to look for a value of  $b$  that minimizes  $(X - b)^2$ , since the answer would depend on  $X$ , making it a useless predictor of  $X$ .)

We could proceed with the minimization of  $E(X - b)^2$  by using calculus, but there is a simpler method:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X - b)^2 &= E(X - EX + EX - b)^2 \\ &= E[(X - EX) + (EX - b)]^2 \\ &= E(X - EX)^2 + (EX - b)^2 + 2E[(X - EX)(EX - b)], \end{aligned}$$

where we have expanded the square. Note that  $E[(X - EX)(EX - b)] = (EX - b)E(X - EX) = 0$ , since  $EX - b$  is constant and comes out of the expectation,  $E(X - EX) = EX - EX = 0$ . This means

$$E(X - b)^2 = E(X - EX)^2 + (EX - b)^2.$$

Such that  $E(X - b)^2$  is minimized at  $b = EX$ . And  $E(X - EX)^2$  is actually the variance of  $X$  ( $Var X = E(X - EX)^2$ ).

The various moments of a distribution are an important class of expectations.

**Definition** For each integer  $n$ , the  $n$ th *moment* of  $X$  (or  $F_X(x)$ ),  $\mu'_n$ , is

$$\mu'_n = EX^n.$$

The  $n$ th *central moment* of  $X$ ,  $\mu_n$ , is

$$\mu_n = E(X - \mu)^n,$$

where  $\mu = \mu'_1 = EX$ .

Notes:

- $\mu'_0 = EX^0 = 1$
- $\mu'_1$  is the *mean*, usually denoted by  $\mu$ .
- $\mu_0 = E(X - \mu)^0 = 1$
- $\mu_1 = 0$
- $\mu_2 = E(X - EX)^2$  is the *variance*
- $\mu_3 = E(X - EX)^3$  is related to the *skewness*.
- $\mu_4 = E(X - EX)^4$  is related to the *kurtosis*.

**Definition** The *variance* of a random variable  $X$  is its second central moment,  $\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - EX)^2]$ . The positive square root of  $\text{Var}(X)$  is the *standard deviation* of  $X$ .

The variance gives a measure of the degree of spread of a distribution around its mean. Figure 16.1 shows a plot of two samples, one sample draws 100 numbers from a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1,  $N(0, 1)$ . The other sample draws 100 numbers from a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 100,  $N(0, 100)$ .

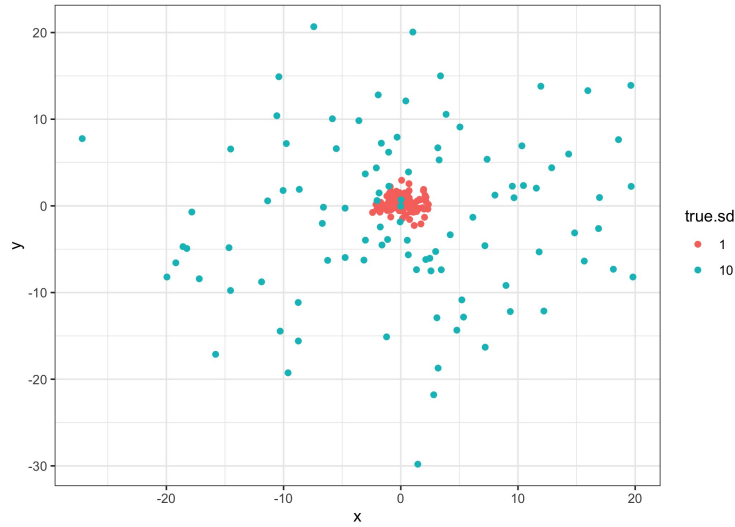


Figure 16.1: Figure 2.1.2. Two samples of 100 numbers drawn from  $N(0, 1)$  and  $N(0, 100)$ .

**Example** (Exponential variance) Let  $X$  have the exponential( $\lambda$ ) distribution. We can calculate the variance of  $X$  now.

*Solution:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E(X - \lambda)^2 \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} (x - \lambda)^2 \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-x/\lambda} dx \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem** If  $X$  is a random variable with finite variance, then for any constants  $a$  and  $b$ ,

$$\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X).$$

*Proof:*

From the definition, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(aX + b) &= E[(aX + b) - E(aX + b)]^2 \\ &= E(aX - aEX)^2 \\ &= a^2 E(X - EX)^2 \\ &= a^2 \text{Var}(X). \end{aligned}$$

It is sometimes to use an alternative formula for the variance, given by

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - (EX)^2,$$

which is easily established by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E(X - EX)^2 = E[X^2 - 2XEX + (EX)^2] \\ &= EX^2 - 2(EX)^2 + (EX)^2 \\ &= EX^2 - (EX)^2. \end{aligned}$$

**Example** (Binomial variance) Let  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ , that is ,

$$\Pr(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}.$$

What is the variance of  $X$ ?

*Solutions:*

**Example** A random variable  $X$  has a discrete uniform  $(1, N)$  distribution,  $X \sim \text{Unif}\{1, N\}$ , if

$$\Pr(X = x|N) = \frac{1}{N}, \quad x = 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

where  $N$  is a specified integer. This distribution puts equal mass on each of the outcomes  $1, 2, \dots, N$ . Question: what is the cdf of this r.v.?

*Solutions:*

**Example** The continuous uniform distribution is defined by spreading mass uniformly over an interval  $[a, b]$ . A random variable  $X$  has a continuous uniform  $[a, b]$  distribution,  $X \sim \text{Unif}(a, b)$ , if its pdf is given by

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

Question: what is the cdf?

*Solutions:*