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- ▶ If X is a random variable and $g: \Re \to \Re$ is a function, then Y = g(X) is a random variable.
- lacktriangle More formally, Y is a random variable if g is a Borel measurable function.
- lackbox We can determine distribution of Y given the function g and the distribution of X

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- ▶ This probability can be obtained from distribution of X.
- ▶ We have seen many specific examples of this.

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- ▶ Then Y is also discrete and $Y \in \{g(x_1), g(x_2), \dots\}$.
- ightharpoonup We can find the pmf of Y as

$$f_Y(y) = p[Y = y] = P[g(X) = y]$$

$$= P[X \in \{x_i : g(x_i) = y\}]$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{i: \ g(x_i) = y}} f_X(x_i)$$

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$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right|, \ a \le y \le b$$

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► This theorem is useful in some cases to find the densities of functions of continuous random variables



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- Note that expectation is defined for all random variables



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- ▶ But it always exists for non-negative random variables.

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Now, expectation does not exist only when $EX^+ = EX^- = \infty$

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- ➤ To get a feel for the more formal definition, we look at a couple of examples.

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- ▶ But by the formal definition it exists. (Note that here $X^+ = X$ and $X^- = 0$).

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► Hence EX does not exist.

ightharpoonup Consider a continuous random variable X with pdf

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$$EX = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \stackrel{?}{=} 0 \text{ because } \int_{-a}^{a} \frac{x}{1+x^2} = 0?$$

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$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \ dx \quad \triangleq \quad \lim_{c \to \infty, d \to \infty} \int_{-c}^{d} g(x) \ dx$$

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$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx \triangleq \lim_{c \to \infty, d \to \infty} \int_{-c}^{d} g(x) dx$$
$$= \lim_{c \to \infty} \int_{-c}^{0} g(x) dx + \lim_{d \to \infty} \int_{0}^{d} g(x) dx$$

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▶ This depends on the definition of infinite integrals

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx \triangleq \lim_{c \to \infty, d \to \infty} \int_{-c}^{d} g(x) dx$$
$$= \lim_{c \to \infty} \int_{-c}^{0} g(x) dx + \lim_{d \to \infty} \int_{0}^{d} g(x) dx$$

This is not same as $\lim_{a\to\infty}\int_{-a}^a g(x)\ dx$,

which is known as Cauchy principal value of the integral

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- ► Hence $EX = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$ does not exist.
- Essentially, both halves of the integral are infinite and hence we get $\infty \infty$ type expression which is undefined.
- ▶ However, $\lim_{a\to\infty} \int_{-a}^a x \, \frac{1}{\pi} \, \frac{1}{1+r^2} \, dx = 0$.

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- Note that expectation is defined for all random variables
- Let us calculate expectations of some of the standard distributions.

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- ▶ Thus, for example, $EI_A = P(A)$.



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(Left as an exercise for you!)

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▶ This gives us $EX = \frac{1}{p}$

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Expectation of uniform density

▶ Let $X \sim U[a,b]$. $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$, $a \le x \le b$

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$$= \frac{b+a}{2}$$

$$f_X(x) = \lambda \ e^{-\lambda x}, \ x > 0.$$

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$$= \frac{1}{2}$$



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► This theorem is true for all rv's. But we will prove it in only some special cases.



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That completes the proof.

Now we have

$$EY = \sum_{j=1}^{m} y_j f_Y(y_j)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} y_j \sum_{\substack{i: \ x_i \in B_j}} f_X(x_i)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{\substack{i: \ x_i \in B_j}} g(x_i) f_X(x_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(x_i) f_X(x_i)$$

That completes the proof.

► The proof goes through even when X (and Y) take countably infinitely many values (because we assume the expectation sum is absolutely convergent).

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• We can similarly show this for the case where $g'(x) < 0, \ \forall x$

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- ▶ However, this theorem is true for all random variables.
- ▶ Now, for any function, g, we can write

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- $E[ag_1(X) + bg_2(X)] = aE[g_1(X)] + bE[g_2(X)]$



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$$2c^* = 2E[X] \implies c^* = E[X]$$



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$$= E[(X-EX)^{2}] + (EX-c)^{2}$$

$$> E[(X-EX)^{2}]$$

$$\begin{split} E[(X-c)^2] &= E[(X-EX+EX-c)^2] \\ &= E[(X-EX)^2 + (EX-c)^2 + 2(EX-c)(X-EX)] \\ &= E[(X-EX)^2] + (EX-c)^2 + 2(EX-c)E[(X-EX)] \\ &= E[(X-EX)^2] + (EX-c)^2 + 2(EX-c)(EX-EX) \\ &= E[(X-EX)^2] + (EX-c)^2 \\ &\geq E[(X-EX)^2] \end{split}$$

► Thus $E[(X - c)^2] \ge E[(X - EX)^2], \forall c$

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- ► Thus $E[(X c)^2] \ge E[(X EX)^2], \forall c$
- ▶ So, $E[(X-c)^2]$ is minimized when c=EX and the minimum value is $E[(X-EX)^2]$

Variance of a Random variable

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▶ This also implies: $E[X^2] > (EX)^2$



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$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Var}(X) &= EX^2 - (EX)^2 \\ &= \frac{b^2 + ab + a^2}{3} - \frac{(b+a)^2}{4} \\ &= \frac{4(b^2 + ab + a^2) - 3(b^2 + 2ab + a^2)}{12} \end{aligned}$$

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► Hence the variance is now given by

$$Var(X) = \frac{2}{\lambda^2} - \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

Let $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$. That is, $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}, \ -\infty < x < \infty.$

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$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = EX^{2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^{2}}{2}} dx$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \left(x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^{2}}{2}} \right) dx$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Var}(X) &= EX^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \, dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \, \left(x \, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \right) \, dx \\ &= x \, \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \, dx \end{aligned}$$

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- ▶ Take $\sigma > 0$ and Y = g(X).

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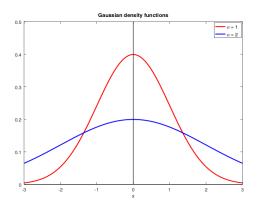
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- Not all moments may exist for a given random variable. (For example, m_1 does not exist for Cauchy rv)

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► In general

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(Exercise: Differentiate it twice to find EX^2 and hence show that variance is λ).

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- ► We are not saying moments uniquely determine the distribution; we are saying mgf uniquely determines the distribution

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▶ We would consider ϕ_X later in the course



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▶ The pmf can be obtained from the generating function



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Hence, we get

$$f_X(0) = P_X(0); \ f_X(1) = \frac{P_X'(0)}{1!}; \ f_X(2) = \frac{P_X''(0)}{2!}$$



► The moments (when they exist) can be obtained from the generating function: $P_X(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_X(k) s^k$

$$P'_X(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k f_X(k) s^{k-1}$$

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► For (positive integer valued) discrete random variables, it is more convenient to deal with generating functions than mgf.

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- ► Thus,

$$EX = P_X'(1) = np;$$

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 - $p < P[X < x] = F_X(x)$
 - 1 p < 1 P[X < x] = 1 (P[X < x] P[X = x]) $\Rightarrow 1 - p < 1 - F_{Y}(x) + P[X = x]$

$$P[X \leq x] \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad P[X \geq x] \geq 1 - p$$

is called the quantile of order p or the $100p^{th}$ percentile of ry X.

- ightharpoonup Suppose x is a quantile of order p. Then we have
 - $p \le P[X \le x] = F_X(x)$
 - $1 p \le 1 P[X < x] = 1 (P[X \le x] P[X = x])$
 - $\Rightarrow 1 p \le 1 F_X(x) + P[X = x]$
 - $\Rightarrow F_X(x) \le p + P[X = x]$

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Note that for a given p there can be multiple values for x to satisfy the above.