

Topic 2.3: Moments

We do 4 things in this class

① Build models

* counting when all elements of discrete sample space are equally likely

* conditional events

* any $g(x) \geq 0$ that is piecewise continuous with finite integral.

② Compute probabilities for a given model

* Axioms of probability

* pmf, pdf, cdf

③ Learn

* Bayes Rule

④ compute summary statistics

- expected value, variance, moments

Topic 2.3: Moments of RVs (Chapter 3.3 and 4.3)

Once we know $p_X(x)$, $f_X(x)$, or $F_X(x)$, we know everything about the probability model for the RV X .

But it may take a lot of detail to convey.

Sometimes, we just care about summary information.

minimum
maximum

* mean

mode ————— most common value

median ————— "middle": half of experiments

percentile (quartile)

will have an outcome larger than the median

* standard deviation

* variance

* n^{th} moments

Expected value (mean)

$$\mu_X = \mu_X = E(X)$$

← a real number, even if X is discrete

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in S_X} x p_X(x)$$

for discrete X ,
when $S_X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

for continuous X

(Defined only if this sum or integral converges absolutely)

Examples (discrete RV)

$$\text{Bernoulli RV} \quad p_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1-p & x=0 \\ p & x=1 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(x) &= \sum_{x \in S_x} x p_x(x) \\ &= 0 \cdot (1-p) + 1 \cdot p = p \end{aligned}$$

Uniform Discrete RV

$$p_x(x) = \frac{1}{m} \quad \text{for each } x \in S_x$$

$$\text{Suppose } S_x = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(x) &= \sum_{x \in S_x} x p_x(x) = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{m} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{m} + \dots + (m-1) \frac{1}{m} \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} i = \frac{1}{m} \frac{m(m-1)}{2} = \frac{m-1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Note: if m is even, say, $m=6$, then

$$E(x) = \frac{6-1}{2} = \frac{5}{2}. \quad \text{This is OK, even though } E(x) \text{ is not a member of } S_x.$$

Examples (discrete RV)

the 3-game series, alternating home and away.

X = # times team C wins

Y = # games the teams play

$$P_X(x) = \begin{cases} p(1-p) & x=0 \\ p^2(1-p) + (1-p)^3 & x=1 \\ p(1-p) + p^3 + (1-p)^2 p & x=2 \end{cases}$$

$$P_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 2p(1-p) & y=2 \\ 1-2p(1-p) & y=3 \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in S_X} x P_X(x)$$

$$= 0 \cdot p(1-p) + 1 \left[p^2(1-p) + (1-p)^3 \right] + 2 \left[p(1-p) + p^3 + (1-p)^2 p \right]$$

$$= p^2 - p^3 + 1 - 3p + 3p^2 - p^3 + 2p - 2p^2 + 2p^3 + 2p - 4p^2 + 2p^3$$

$$= 2p^3 - 2p^2 + p + 1 \quad (\text{if I did the math right})$$

$$E(Y) = \sum_{y \in S_Y} y P_Y(y) = 2 \left[2p(1-p) \right] + 3 \left[1 - 2p(1-p) \right]$$

$$= 4p(1-p) - 6p(1-p) + 3 = 3 - 2p(1-p)$$

Examples (continuous RV)

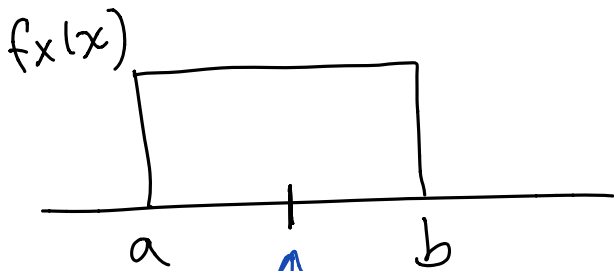
Continuous uniform RV (section 4.4.1)

A uniform RV in the interval $[a, b]$ has PDF

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/(b-a) & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx = \int_a^b \frac{x}{b-a} dx$$

$$= \frac{x^2}{2(b-a)} \Big|_a^b = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2(b-a)} = \frac{b+a}{2} \quad \text{if } b \neq a.$$



$$E(X) = \frac{b+a}{2} \quad \text{the middle.}$$

Intuitively, $E(X)$ is the balance point,
the center of mass.

Examples (continuous RV)

Exponential RV

$$f_x(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_x(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \lambda x e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

Integrate by parts. $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$

$$u = x \quad dv = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

$$du = dx \quad v = -e^{-\lambda x}$$

$$E(x) = -x e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

$$= -x e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} - \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty}$$

$$= -(0 - 0) - \frac{1}{\lambda} (0 - 1) = \boxed{\frac{1}{\lambda}}$$

mean of an exponential RV with parameter λ is $\frac{1}{\lambda}$.

Expectation of a function of a RV (Chapter 3.3.1)

what if we know $p_x(x)$ and we have another RV $Y = g(X)$. what's $E(Y)$?

Example: X is a voltage, among the set

$$S_x = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$

where all are equally likely: $p_x(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{8} & x \in S_x \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$

We know how to compute

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in S_x} x p_x(x) = \frac{1}{8} [-2 + -1 + 0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5] = \frac{12}{8} = \frac{3}{2}$$

Let $Y = X^2$ Find $E(Y) = m_y$.

Method 1: Find $S_y = \{0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25\}$

① Find $p_y(y)$

x	y	$p_y(y)$
0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
-1, +1	1	$\frac{2}{8}$
-2, +2	4	$\frac{2}{8}$
3	9	$\frac{1}{8}$
4	16	$\frac{1}{8}$
5	25	$\frac{1}{8}$

② $E(Y) = \sum_{y \in S_y} y p_y(y)$

using the table

$$\begin{aligned} &= 0\left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + 1\left(\frac{2}{8}\right) \\ &\quad + 4\left(\frac{2}{8}\right) + 9\left(\frac{1}{8}\right) \\ &\quad + 16\left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + 25\left(\frac{1}{8}\right) \\ &= 7.5 \end{aligned}$$

Method 2: what if you just want $E(Y)$,
and don't care about $p_Y(y)$?

$$E(Y) = E(X^2) = \sum_{x \in S_X} x^2 p_X(x) = \frac{1}{8} [4+1+0+1+4 + 9+16+25] = 7.5$$

more generally:

$$E(Y) = E(g(X)) = \sum_{x \in S_X} g(x) p_X(x)$$

discrete
RVs

$$E(Y) = E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx$$

continuous
RVs

Why? if we group terms of x that
map to the same $y = g(x)$

$$E(Y) = \sum_{y \in S_Y} y \left[\sum p_X(x) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{y \in S_Y} y p_Y(y)$$

sum is over those
 x such that $g(x) = y$
(which is $p_Y(y)$)

Law of the Unconscious Statistician (LOTUS)

Another way to look at the same example

$x^2 p_x(x)$	$p_x(x)$	x	$y = x^2$	$p_y(y)$	$y p_y(y)$
0	1/8	0	0	1/8	0
1/8	1/8	-1	1	2/8	2/8
1/8	1/8	+1	1	2/8	2/8
4/8	1/8	-2	4	2/8	8/8
4/8	1/8	+2	4	2/8	8/8
9/8	1/8	+3	9	1/8	9/8
16/8	1/8	+4	16	1/8	16/8
25/8	1/8	+5	25	1/8	25/8
Sum 60/8			Sum 60/8		

$$= \sum_{x \in S_x} x^2 p_x(x)$$

$$= \sum_{y \in S_y} y p_y(y)$$

Properties of $E(x)$

Linearity : $E(g(x) + h(x)) = E(g(x)) + E(h(x))$

Scale : $E(cX) = cE(X)$ (where c is constant)

DC shift : $E(X+d) = E(X) + d$ (where d is a constant)

$E(d) = d$ (where d is a constant)

Applying properties of Expectation

Example : Let X be a noise voltage, uniformly distributed

$$S_x = \{-3, -1, 1, 3\}$$

Let $Y = 2X + 10$. Let $Z = Y^2$. What is $E(Z)$?

Solution : $E(Z) = E(Y^2) = E((2X+10)^2)$

$$= E(4X^2 + 40X + 100)$$

$$= 4E(X^2) + 40E(X) + 100$$

Compute $E(X) = 0$; $E(X^2) = \frac{1}{4}(9+1+1+9) = 5$

So $E(Z) = 20 + 100 = 120$

Example:

$X =$ temperature in $^{\circ}\text{F}$

$Y =$ temperature in $^{\circ}\text{C}$

$$Y = (X - 32) \frac{5}{9}$$

$$E(Y) = \frac{5}{9} (E(X) - 32)$$

Is $E(g(X)) = g(E(X))$?

In general, no!

Example, $E(X^2) \neq (E(X))^2$

in general

Variance (and standard deviation) of a RV

(Chapter 3.3.2)

mean is often called the first moment of X

$$E(X) = 1^{\text{st}} \text{ moment}$$

$$E(X^2) = 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ moment}$$

$$E(X^n) = n^{\text{th}} \text{ moment}$$

Variance is the 2nd central moment

$$\sigma_x^2 = \text{VAR}(X) = E((X - m_x)^2)$$

Central moments measure moments of the RV with the mean removed \Rightarrow "centralized"

\Rightarrow Variance describes how much X varies about its mean during different experiments.

Since $(X - m_x)^2$ is a function of X,

we can compute

$$\text{VAR}(X) = \sum_{x \in S_x} (x - m_x)^2 p_x(x)$$

discrete
RVs

$$\text{VAR}(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - m_x)^2 f_x(x) dx$$

continuous
RVs

Standard deviation

$$\sigma_X = \text{STD}(X) = \sqrt{\text{VAR}(X)}$$

Why standard deviation and not variance?

Units!

σ_X^2 has units (units of X)²

σ_X has units (units of X)

unit: meters, feet, pounds, kg/m²

Example: the temperature in July is on average 85°F with a standard deviation of 16°F

A short cut for computing variance

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

$$= E(X^2 - 2Xm_X + m_X^2)$$

$$= E(X^2) - 2m_X E(X) + m_X^2$$

$$\boxed{\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - m_X^2}$$

I'll often express this as

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

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \text{Note: } E(X^2) &= \text{Var}(X) + E(X)^2 \\ &= \sigma^2 + \mu^2 \end{aligned}}$$

Warning about computing variance on a computer

method 1

```
sum1 = 0
sum2 = 0
for i = 1:n
    sum1 += x(n)
    sum2 += x(n)^2
end
sum1 /= n
sum2 /= n
var = sum2 - sum1 * sum1
```

implements

$$E(x^2) - E(x)^2$$

method 2

```
sum1 = 0
for i = 1:n
    sum1 += x(n)
end
sum1 /= n

sum2 = 0
for i = 1:n
    sum2 += (x(n) - sum1)^2
end
sum2 /= n

var = sum2
```

implements

$$E((x - E(x))^2)$$

If n is very large, why might these not give the same numerical result? Which one will be more accurate?

(The difference is also magnified when most $x(n)$ are near $E(x)$)

Variance examples

Bernoulli RV. Recall $X_A = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{event } A \text{ occurs} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

$$S_x = \{0, 1\}$$

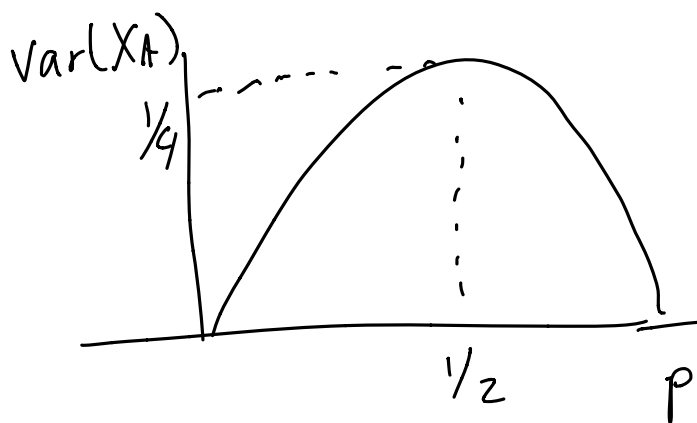
$$P_x(1) = P(A) = p$$

$$P_x(0) = 1 - p$$

$$E(X_A) = 0 \cdot P_x(0) + 1 \cdot P_x(1) = p.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X_A) &= E(X^2) - E(X)^2 \\ &= [0^2 P_x(0) + 1^2 P_x(1)] - p^2 \\ &= p - p^2 = \boxed{p(1-p)} \end{aligned}$$

Coin toss w/ a biased coin



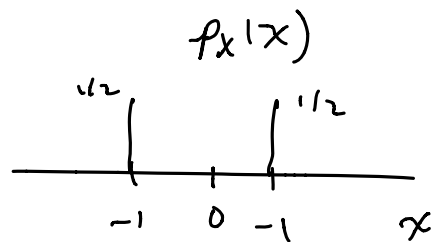
(symmetric)

Variance of a Bernoulli RV is small if p is small or if p is near 1.

Variance is largest when $p = 1/2$

Variance examples

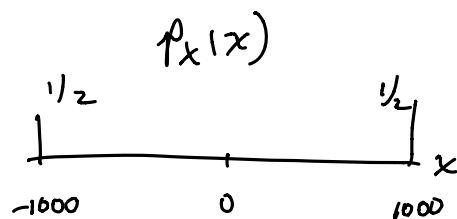
$$a) p_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x = +1 \\ 1/2 & x = -1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



$$m_x = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E(X^2) - m_x^2 = E(X^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (+1)^2 + \frac{1}{2} (-1)^2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$b) p_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x = +1000 \\ 1/2 & x = -1000 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



$$m_x = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E(X^2) - m_x^2 = E(X^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (+1000)^2 + \frac{1}{2} (-1000)^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$= 1,000,000$$

$$\text{STD}(X) = 1000$$

c) $X = \#$ heads in 3 tosses of a fair coin

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=0}^3 i \binom{3}{i} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{3-i}$$

$$= 0 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + 1 \left(\frac{3}{8}\right) + 2 \left(\frac{3}{8}\right) + 3 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) = \frac{12}{8} = 1.5$$

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

$$= \left[0^2 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + 1^2 \left(\frac{3}{8}\right) + 2^2 \left(\frac{3}{8}\right) + 3^2 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) \right] - \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{24}{8} - \frac{9}{4} = \frac{6}{8} = \frac{3}{4}$$

Properties of Variances

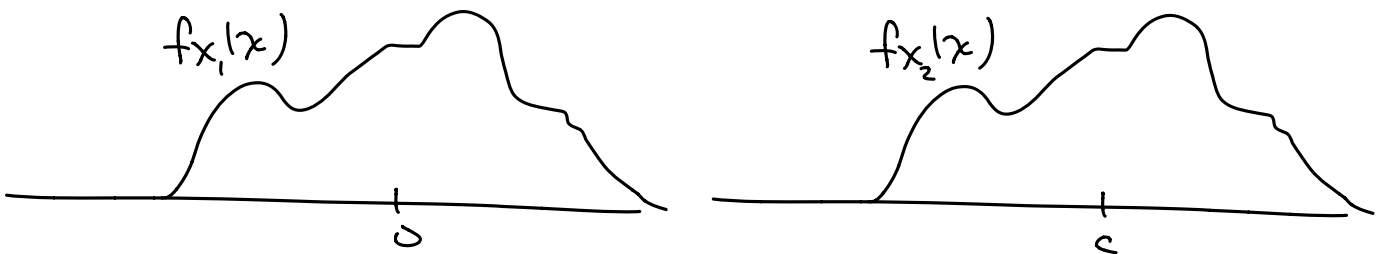
① $\text{Var}(X) \geq 0$ always

② $\text{Var}(X+c) = \text{Var}(X)$ if c is constant

proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X+c) &= E((X+c)^2) - E(X+c)^2 \\ &= E(X^2 + 2cX + c^2) - [E(X)^2 + 2cE(X) + c^2] \\ &= E(X^2) + 2cE(X) + c^2 - E(X)^2 - 2cE(X) - c^2 \\ &= E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = \text{Var}(X)\end{aligned}$$

This makes sense. Adding a constant doesn't change how much variation there is about the mean



③ $\text{Var}(cX) = c^2 \text{Var}(X)$ if c is a constant

proof:
$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(cX) &= E((cX)^2) - E(cX)^2 \\ &= E(c^2X^2) - c^2E(X)^2 = c^2 [E(X^2) - E(X)^2] \\ &= c^2 \text{Var}(X)\end{aligned}$$

④ $\text{Var}(c) = 0$ if c is a constant

Comparison of properties

mean	variance
$E(aX) = aE(X)$	$\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$
$E(X+Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$	$\text{Var}(X+Y) \neq \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$ (more on this later)
$E(X+a) = E(X) + a$ if a is constant	$\text{Var}(X+a) = \text{Var}(X)$ if a is constant
$X_{\min} \leq E(X) \leq X_{\max}$	$\text{Var}(X) \geq 0$