## MA120 INTRODUCTION TO PROBABILITY THEORY AND STATISTICS EXPECTED VALUES

Suppose N observation of a random variable consist of  $n_0$  zeroes,  $n_1$  ones,  $n_2$  twos,.... Then the sample mean, or average,  $\overline{x}$  can be written as

$$\overline{x} = \frac{0n_0 + 1n_1 + 2n_2 + \dots}{N}$$

$$= 0\left(\frac{n_0}{N}\right) + 1\left(\frac{n_1}{N}\right) + 2\left(\frac{n_2}{N}\right) + \dots$$

$$= 0p_0 + 1p_1 + 2p_2 + \dots = \sum_{x} xp_x$$

where  $p_x = \frac{n_x}{N}$ , the observed proportion of x's. Now let  $N \to \infty$ . Then  $p_x \top (x)$  for all x, so that

$$\overline{x} \longrightarrow_{N \to \infty} \sum_{x} x p(x).$$

**Example 1** The number of complaints received by a shop in a day follows the distribution with the probability function

Hence

$$E(X) = \sum_{x} xp(x) = 0\left(\frac{2}{20}\right) + 1\left(\frac{4}{20}\right) + 2\left(\frac{7}{20}\right) + \dots + 5\left(\frac{1}{20}\right) = \frac{43}{20} = 2.15.$$

**Example 2 - Bernoulli distribution** Suppose X follows the Bernoulli distribution with probability function

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} \pi, & x = 1, \\ 1 - \pi, & x - 0. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$E(X) = 1(\pi) + 0(1 - \pi) = \pi.$$

**Example 3 - Binomial distribution** If  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  is a sequence of Bernoulli trials and  $Y = X_1 + X_2 + ... X_n$ , then Y follows a binomial distribution with probability function

$$p_Y(y) = \binom{n}{y} \pi^y (1-\pi)^{n-y}, \ y = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Consequently,

$$E(Y) = \sum_{y=0}^{n} y \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{n-y}$$

$$= \sum_{y=1}^{n} y \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{n-y}$$

$$= n \sum_{y=1}^{n} \binom{n-1}{y-1} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{n-y}$$

$$= n \pi \sum_{y'=0}^{n'} \binom{n'}{y'} \pi^{y'} (1-\pi)^{n'-y'}, \text{ where } y' = y-1 \text{ and } n' = n-1,$$

$$= n \pi$$

**Expected value of** h(X) Suppose X is a random variable whose distribution we know but that we wish to know the expected value of h(X), an arbitrary function of X. It would seem that we need to first to derive the distribution of Y = h(X) and then find E(Y). However, this is not necessary. It can be proved that

$$E(Y) = E[h(X)] = \sum_{x} h(x)p_X(x).$$

As a result of the above, we have

$$E(aX + b) = \sum_{x} (ax + b)p(x) = a\sum_{x} xp(x) + b\sum_{x} p(x) = aE(X) + b,$$

where a and b are constants, and generally

$$E[ah(X) + b] = aE[h(X)] + b \text{ and } E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i h_i(X)\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i E[h_i(X)]$$

for arbitrary functions  $h_i(X)$ , i = 1, 2, ..., k and constants  $a_i, i = 1, 2, ..., k$ .

In example 3, we therefore have  $E\left(\frac{Y}{n}\right) = \pi$ .

## Moments Let

$$\mu_r' = E(X^r).$$

Then  $\mu'_r$  is called the rth moment of X (about the origin). In particular,  $\mu'_1 = E(X)$  is the mean of X and is usually denoted by  $\mu$ . It is the most important measure of location of a distribution.

Now let

$$\mu_r = E[(X - \mu)^r].$$

Then  $\mu_1$  is called the rth moment of X about the mean, or the rth central moment of X. Note that  $\mu_1 = 0$ . When r = 2, we have

$$\mu_2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = var(X),$$

the *variance* of X, which is often denoted by  $\sigma^2$ , and is a measure of spread of a distribution. Further,  $\sigma = \sqrt{\text{var}(X)} = \text{sd}(X)$  is called the *standard deviation* of X and is also a measure of spread but with the same dimension as X itself.

It is sometimes easier to calculate variance using the relation

$$var(X) = E[(X - \mu)^2] = E(X^2) - \mu^2.$$

For some distributions, however, the easiest second moment to calculate is S[X(X-1)] (known as the second factorial moment), from which we may obtain

$$var(X) = E[X(X - 1)] + \mu - \mu^{2}.$$

**Example 1** For the number of complaints received by the shop,

$$E(X^2) = 0^2 \left(\frac{2}{20}\right) + 1^2 \left(\frac{4}{20}\right) + 2^2 \left(\frac{7}{20}\right) + \dots + 5^2 \left(\frac{1}{20}\right) = \frac{125}{20} = \frac{25}{4}$$

so that

$$\operatorname{var}(X) = \frac{25}{4} - \left(\frac{43}{20}\right)^2 = \frac{651}{400} = 1.6275 \text{ and}$$
  

$$\operatorname{sd}(X) = \sqrt{1.6275} = 1.276$$

**Example 3** Here  $Y \sim b(n, \pi)$  so that

$$E[Y(Y-1)] = \sum_{y=0}^{n} y(y-1) \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{n-y}$$
$$= n(n-1) \sum_{y=2}^{n} \binom{n-2}{y-2} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{n-y} = n(n-1)\pi^{2}.$$

Hence

$$var(Y) = n(n-1)\pi^2 + n\pi - (n\pi)^2 = n\pi(1-\pi).$$

**Example 2** When in example 3, we have

$$var(X) = \pi(1 - \pi)$$

for the Bernoulli distribution.

Note that, in general,

$$var(aX + b) = E\{(aX + b) - [aE(X) + b]\}^{2}$$
$$= E\{a[X - E(X)]\}^{2} = a^{2}var(X).$$

So, in example 3,  $\operatorname{var}\left(\frac{Y}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \operatorname{var}(Y) = \frac{\pi(1-\pi)}{n}$ .

Higher moments The third central moment of X,  $\mu_3 = E[(X - \mu)^3]$ , or its standardised form  $\frac{\mu_3}{\frac{3}{2}}$ , is often considered to give a measure of skewness of a distribution. A symmetric distribution has  $\mu_3 = 0$ . If  $\mu_3 > 0$ , the distribution is said to be positively skewed and, if  $\mu_3 < 0$ , negatively skewed. Note however that, for a distribution to be symmetric, it is necessary for all its odd central moments to be zero.

The fourth central moments of X,  $\mu_4 = E[(X-\mu)^4]$ , or its standardised form  $\frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2}$ , is sometimes considered to give a measure of *kurtosis* (from the Greek for Bulging) or peakedness of a distribution. The standard, or normal, value is taken to be 3.