Functions of random variables

Suppose *X* is a random variable and *g* a function. Then we can form a new random variable Y := g(X). What is Eg(X)? In order to use the definition of expectations we need to first compute the distribution of g(X), and that can be time consuming. Then, we set

$$Eg(X) = \sum_{x} x P\{g(X) = x\}.$$

The following theorem shows a simpler way out.

Theorem 1 (Law of the unconscious statistician). Provided that g(X) has a well-defined expectation, we have

$$Eg(X) = \sum_{w} g(w) P\{X = w\}.$$

Proof. We know that

$$Eg(X) = \sum_{z} zP\{g(X) = z\} = \sum_{z} z \sum_{w:g(w)=z} P\{X = w\}$$
$$= \sum_{w} \sum_{z:g(w)=z} zP\{X = w\},$$

after reordering the sums. The preceding quantity is clearly equal to $\sum_{w} \sum_{z:g(w)=z} g(w) P\{X = w\}$. But for every *w* there is only one *z* such that g(w) = z. Therefore, $\sum_{z:g(w)=z} 1 = 1$. The theorem follows.

Example 1 (Moments). The *k*th *moment* of a random variable *X* is defined as $E(X^k)$, provided that the expectation is defined. Thanks to the law of

the unconscious statistician,

$$E(X^k) = \sum_a a^k P\{X = a\}.$$

For instance, suppose *X* denotes the number of dots rolled on a roll of a fair die. Then,

$$E(X^{k}) = \left(\frac{1}{6} \times 1\right) + \left(\frac{1}{6} \times 2^{k}\right) + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{6} \times 6^{k}\right).$$

Variance and standard deviation

When $E(X^2)$ and E(X) are defined, we can define the *variance* of a random variable X as

$$Var(X) := E(X^2) - (EX)^2.$$

Proposition 1. It is always the case that

$$|EX| \leq \sqrt{E(X^2)}$$
 (the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality).

In particular, EX is well defined and finite if $E(X^2) < \infty$. Moreover, if $E(X^2) < \infty$, then

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = E\left(|X - EX|^2\right).$$

The latter proposition shows that $Var(X) \ge 0$. Therefore, it makes sense to consider its square root: The *standard deviation* of X is defined as

$$SD(X) := \sqrt{Var(X)}.$$

Example 2. Suppose *X* denotes the number of dots rolled on a roll of a fair die. Then,

$$E(X^2) = \frac{1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + 6^2}{6} = \frac{91}{6}, \qquad E(X) = \frac{1 + \dots + 6}{6} = \frac{7}{2}.$$

Therefore,

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{91}{6} - \left(\frac{7}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{91}{6} - \frac{49}{4} = \frac{35}{12}.$$

And $SD(X) = \sqrt{35/12} \approx 1.71$.

Expectation of functions of more than one variable

Similar ideas as before lead us to the following: If (X, Y) is a random vector then for every function g of two variables,

$$Eg(X, Y) = \sum_{(a,b)} g(a, b) P\{X = a, Y = b\},\$$

provided that the sum is well defined.

Example 3 (Quick proof of the addition rule).

$$E(\alpha X + \beta Y) = \sum_{a,b} (\alpha a + \beta b) P\{X = a, Y = b\}$$

= $\alpha \sum_{(a,b)} P\{X = a, Y = b\} + \beta \sum_{(a,b)} P\{X = a, Y = b\}$

Because $\sum_{b} P\{X = a, Y = b\} = P\{X = a\}$ and $\sum_{a} P\{X = a, Y = b\} = P\{Y = b\}$ [marginals!], we find that $E(\alpha X + \beta Y) = \alpha E(X) + \beta E(Y)$, as before.

Example 4 (Expectation of a product). If (X, Y) is a random vector, then

$$E(XY) = \sum_{(a,b)} abP\{X = a, Y = b\}.$$

If, in addition, *X* and *Y* are independent, then $P\{X = a, Y = b\} = P\{X = a\}P\{Y = b\}$, therefore as long as the following expectations are all defined and finite, then

$$E(XY) = \sum_{a} aP\{X = a\} \sum_{b} bP\{Y = b\} = E(X)E(Y)!$$

And more generally [still assuming independence],

$$E[g(X)h(Y)] = E[g(X)]E[h(Y)],$$

provided that the expectations are all defined and finite.

Proposition 2. Suppose (X, Y) is a random vector and $E(X^2)$ and $E(Y^2)$ are finite. Then,

$$\operatorname{Var}(X + Y) = \operatorname{Var}(X) + \operatorname{Var}(Y) + 2 \{ E(XY) - EX \cdot EY \}.$$

In particular, if X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent, then

$$\operatorname{Var}(X_1 + \dots + X_n) = \operatorname{Var}(X_1) + \dots + \operatorname{Var}(X_n).$$

Proof. Because $E(X^2)$ and $E(Y^2)$, the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality tells us that EX, EY, Var(X), and Var(Y) are all defined and finite. Therefore,

$$Var(X + Y) = E\left[(X + Y)^2\right] - \left[E(X + Y)\right]^2$$
$$= \left[E(X^2) + E(Y^2) + 2E(XY)\right] - \left[(EX)^2 + (EY)^2 + 2EX \cdot EY\right].$$

and this does the job since $E(X^2) - (EX)^2$ is the variance of X and $E(Y^2) - (EY)^2$ is the variance of Y. When X and Y are independent, $E(XY) = EX \cdot EY$, and the variance of X + Y simplifies to the sum of the individual variances of X and Y. In particular, if X_1 and X_2 are independent then $Var(X_1 + X_2) = Var(X_1) + Var(X_2)$. And the remainder of the proposition follows from this and induction [on n].

Example 5 (Variance of binomials). Let X have the binomial distribution with parameters n and p. We have seen that we can write X as

$$X = I_{A_1} + \dots + I_{A_n}$$

where the A_j 's are independent events with $P(A_j) = p$ each. And this is how we discovered the important identity,

$$E(X) = np.$$

Note that $I_{A_i}^2 = I_{A_j}$ [being a 0/1-valued object]. It follows that

$$\operatorname{Var}(I_{A_j}) = E\left(I_{A_j}^2\right) - \left(EI_{A_j}\right)^2 = E(I_{A_j}) - p^2 = p - p^2 = p(1-p) = pq.$$

Consequently,

$$Var(X) = npq$$
 and $SD(X) = \sqrt{npq}$

Direct computations of these are possible, but involved. For instance, in order to compute Var(X) directly we first can attempt to find $E(X^2)$. But that means that we have to evaluate

$$E(X^2) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} k^2 \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k},$$

which can be done but is tedious. On the other hand, the converse is easy [thanks to indicator functions]: $E(X^2) = Var(X) + (EX)^2 = npq + n^2p^2$.

Here is a final remark on standard deviations; it tells us how the standard deviation is changed under a linear change of variables:

Proposition 3. *If* α *and* β *are constants, then*

$$SD(\alpha X + \beta) = |\alpha|SD(X),$$

provided that $E(X^2) < \infty$.

Proof. Because $(\alpha X + \beta)^2 = \alpha^2 X^2 + \beta^2 + 2\alpha\beta X$, $E\left[(\alpha X + \beta)^2\right] = \alpha^2 E(X^2) + \beta^2 + 2\alpha\beta E(X)$.

And

$$\left[E(\alpha X+\beta)\right]^2 = \alpha^2 (EX)^2 + \beta^2 - 2\alpha\beta E(X).$$

Subtract the preceding 2 displays to find that

$$\operatorname{Var}(\alpha X + \beta) = \alpha^2 \operatorname{Var}(X).$$

The proposition follows upon applying a square root to both sides of the latter identity. $\hfill \Box$