

Chapter 3

Moments of a Distribution

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Expectation

We develop the expectation operator in terms of the Lebesgue integral.

- Recall that the Lebesgue measure $\lambda(\mathcal{A})$ for some set \mathcal{A} gives the length/area/volume of the set \mathcal{A} . If $\mathcal{A} = (3; 7)$, then $\lambda(\mathcal{A}) = |3 - 7| = 4$.
- The Lebesgue integral of f on $[a, b]$ is defined in terms of $\sum_i y_i \lambda(\mathcal{A}_i)$, where $0 = y_1 \leq y_2 \leq \dots \leq y_n$, $\mathcal{A}_i = \{x : y_i \leq f(x) < y_{i+1}\}$, and $\lambda(\mathcal{A}_i)$ is the Lebesgue measure of the set \mathcal{A}_i .
- The value of the Lebesgue integral is the limit as the y_i 's are pushed closer together. That is, we break the y -axis into a grid using $\{y_n\}$ and break the x -axis into the corresponding grid $\{\mathcal{A}_n\}$ where
$$\mathcal{A}_i = \{x : f(x) \in [y_i, y_{i+1})\}.$$

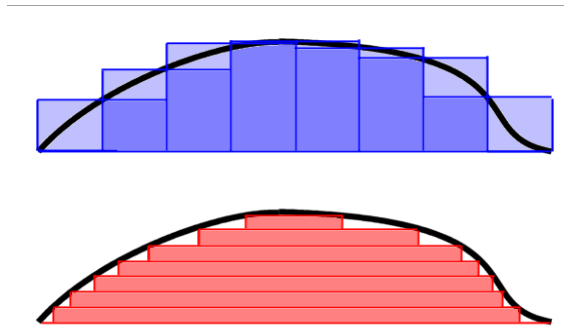
Taking expectations: Riemann vs Lebesgue

- Riemann's approach

Partition the base. Measure the height of the function at the center of each interval. Calculate the area of each interval. Add all intervals.

- Lebesgue approach

Divide the range of the function. Measure the length of each horizontal interval. Calculate the area of each interval. Add all intervals.



Taking expectations: Riemann vs Lebesgue

- A Borel function (RV) f is *integrable* if and only if $|f|$ is integrable.

- For convenience, we define the integral of a measurable function f from (Ω, Σ, μ) to $(\bar{\mathbb{R}}, \bar{\mathcal{B}})$, where $\bar{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$, $\bar{\mathcal{B}} = \sigma(\mathbb{B} \cup \{\{\infty\}, \{-\infty\}\})$.

Example: If $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and μ is the Lebesgue measure, then the Lebesgue integral of f over an interval $[a, b]$ is written as

$$\int_{[a,b]} f(x) \, dx = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx,$$

which agrees with the Riemann integral when the latter is well defined.

However, there are functions for which the Lebesgue integrals are defined but not the Riemann integrals.

- If $\mu = P$, in statistics, $\int X \, dP = EX = E[X]$ is called the *expectation* or *expected value* of X .

Expected Value

Consider our probability space (Ω, Σ, P) . Take an event (a set \mathcal{A} of $\omega \in \Omega$) and X , a RV, that assigns real numbers to each $\omega \in \mathcal{A}$.

- If we take an observation from \mathcal{A} without knowing which $\omega \in \mathcal{A}$ will be drawn, we may want to know what value of $X(\omega)$ we should *expect* to see.
- Each of the $\omega \in \mathcal{A}$ has been assigned a probability measure $P[\omega]$, which induces $P[x]$. Then, we use this to weight the values $X(\omega)$.
- P is a probability measure: The weights sum to 1. The weighted sum provides us with a weighted average of $X(\omega)$. If P gives the "correct" likelihood of ω being chosen, the weighted average of $X(\omega)$ $-E[X]$ tells us what values of $X(\omega)$ are expected.

Expected Value

- Now with the concept of the Lebesgue integral, we take the possible values $\{x_i\}$ and construct a grid on the y -axis, which gives a corresponding grid on the x -axis in \mathcal{A} , where

$$\mathcal{A}_i = \{\omega \in \mathcal{A}: X(\omega) \in [x_i, x_{i+1})\}.$$

Let the elements in the x -axis grid be \mathcal{A}_i . The weighted average is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i P[\mathcal{A}_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i P_X[X = x_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i f_X(x_i)$$

- As we shrink the grid towards 0, \mathcal{A} , becomes infinitesimal. Let $d\omega$ be the infinitesimal set \mathcal{A} . The Lebesgue integral becomes:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i P[\mathcal{A}_i] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x P[d\omega] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x P_X[X = x_i] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x_i) dx$$

The Expectation of X: E(X)

The expectation operator defines the mean (or population average) of a random variable or expression.

Definition

Let X denote a *discrete* RV with probability function $p(x)$ (probability density function $f(x)$ if X is *continuous*), then the expected value of X , $E(X)$ is defined to be:

$$E(X) = \sum_x xp(x) = \sum_i x_i p(x_i)$$

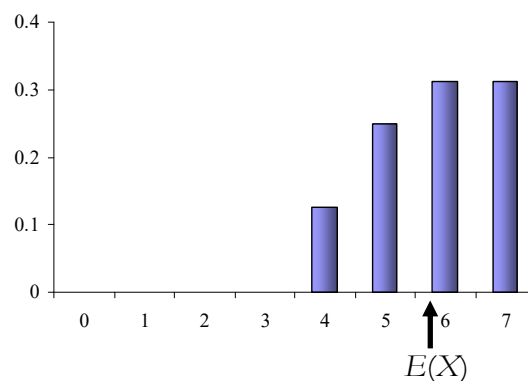
and if X is *continuous* with probability density function $f(x)$

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

Sometimes we use $E[\cdot]$ as $E_X[\cdot]$ to indicate that the expectation is being taken over $f_X(x)$ dx .

Interpretation of E(X)

1. The expected value of X , $E(X)$, is the center of gravity of the probability distribution of X .
2. The expected value of X , $E(X)$, is the *long-run average value* of X . (To be discussed later: *Law of Large Numbers*)



Example: The Binomial distribution

Let X be a discrete random variable having the *Binomial distribution* -- i.e., X = the number of successes in n independent repetitions of a Bernoulli trial. Find the expected value of X , $E(X)$.

$$p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{x=0}^n x p(x) = \sum_{x=0}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= \sum_{x=1}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= \sum_{x=1}^n x \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \end{aligned}$$

Example: Solution

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{x=0}^n x p(x) = \sum_{x=0}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= \sum_{x=1}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= \sum_{x=1}^n x \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= \sum_{x=1}^n \frac{n!}{(x-1)!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= \frac{n!}{0!(n-1)!} p^1 (1-p)^{n-1} + \frac{n!}{1!(n-2)!} p^2 (1-p)^{n-2} + \\ &\quad \dots + \frac{n!}{(n-2)!1!} p^{n-1} (1-p) + \frac{n!}{(n-1)!0!} p^n \end{aligned}$$

Example: Solution

$$\begin{aligned}
&= np \left[\frac{(n-1)!}{0!(n-1)!} p^0 (1-p)^{n-1} + \frac{(n-1)!}{1!(n-2)!} p^1 (1-p)^{n-2} + \right. \\
&\quad \left. \dots + \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-2)!1!} p^{n-2} (1-p) + \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-1)!0!} p^{n-1} \right] \\
&= np \left[\binom{n-1}{0} p^0 (1-p)^{n-1} + \binom{n-1}{1} p^1 (1-p)^{n-2} + \right. \\
&\quad \left. \dots + \binom{n-1}{n-2} p^{n-2} (1-p) + \binom{n-1}{n-1} p^{n-1} \right] \\
&= np [p + (1-p)]^{n-1} = np [1]^{n-1} = np
\end{aligned}$$

Example: Exponential Distribution

Let X have an exponential distribution with parameter λ . The probability density function of X is:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The *expected value* of X is:

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

We will determine $\int x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$

using integration by parts $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$

Example: Exponential Distribution

We will determine $\int x\lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$ using *integration by parts*.

In this case $u = x$ and $dv = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$

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

Thus $\int x\lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = -xe^{-\lambda x} + \int e^{-\lambda x} dx = -xe^{-\lambda x} - \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x}$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_0^{\infty} x\lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = -xe^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} - \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} \\ &= (-0 + 0) - \left(0 - \frac{1}{\lambda}\right) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

Summary: If X has an exponential distribution with parameter λ , then:

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

Example: The Uniform Distribution

Suppose X has a uniform distribution from a to b .

Then:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & x < a, x > b \end{cases}$$

The *expected value* of X is:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx = \int_a^b x \frac{1}{b-a} dx \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{b-a} \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_a^b = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2(b-a)} = \frac{a+b}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Example: The Normal Distribution

Suppose X has a Normal distribution with parameters μ and σ .

Then:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

The *expected value* of X is:

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$$

Make the substitution:

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \quad dz = \frac{1}{\sigma} dx \quad \text{and} \quad x = \mu + z\sigma$$

Example: The Normal Distribution

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence} \quad E(X) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} (\mu + z\sigma) e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz \\ &= \mu \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ze^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ze^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz = 0$$

The second integral is an example of an odd function. Recall that an odd function gives:

$$f(-x) = -f(x). \quad \text{Then, } \int_{-a}^a f(x)dx = 0.$$

$$\text{Thus } E(X) = \mu$$

Example: The Gamma Distribution

Suppose X has a Gamma distribution with parameters α and λ .

Then:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Note:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx = 1 \quad \text{if } \lambda > 0, \alpha \geq 0.$$

This is a very useful formula when working with the Gamma distribution.

Example: The Gamma Distribution

The *expected value* of X is:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} x \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^{\infty} x^\alpha e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}{\lambda^{\alpha+1}} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{\alpha+1}}{\Gamma(\alpha+1)} x^\alpha e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\lambda} = \frac{\alpha\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\lambda} = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

This is now
equal to 1.

Example: The Gamma Distribution

Thus, if X has a Gamma (α, λ) distribution, the **expected value** of X is:

$$E(X) = \alpha / \lambda$$

Special Cases: (α, λ) distribution then the **expected value** of X is:

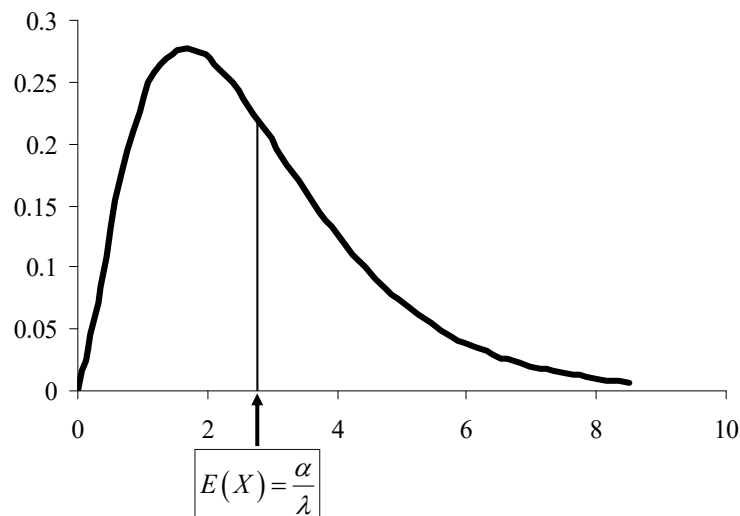
1. **Exponential** (λ) **distribution:** $\alpha = 1, \lambda$ arbitrary

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

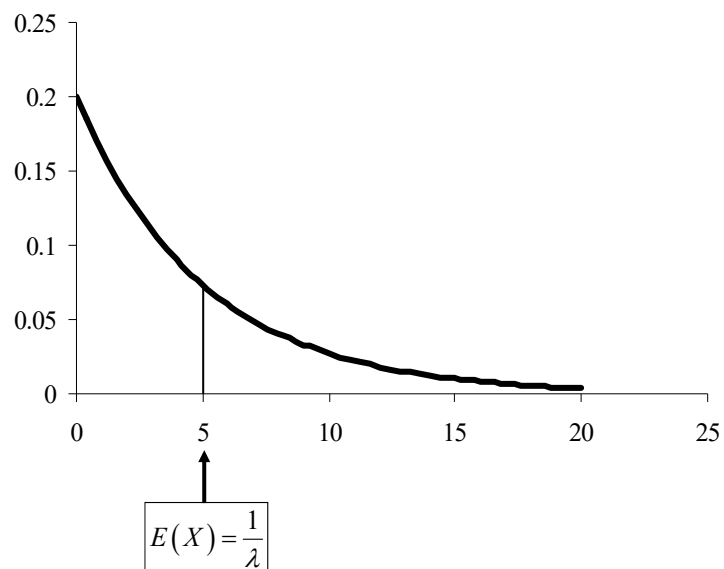
2. **Chi-square** (ν) **distribution:** $\alpha = \nu/2, \lambda = 1/2$.

$$E(X) = \frac{\nu/2}{1/2} = \nu$$

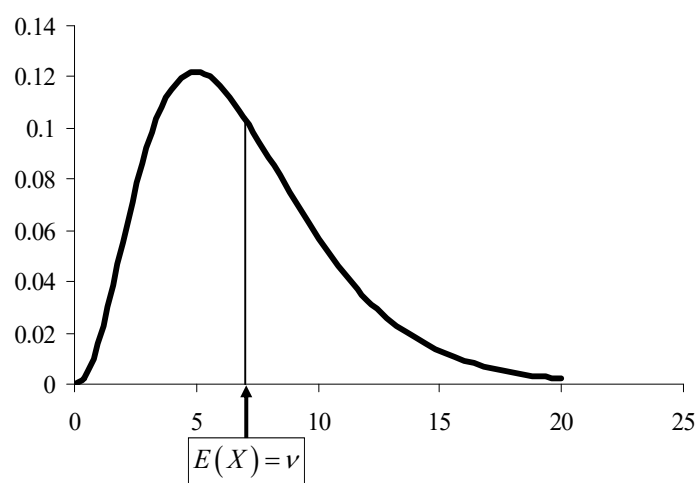
Example: The Gamma Distribution



Example: The Gamma Distribution - Exponential



Example: The Gamma Distribution - Chi-square



Expectation of a function of a RV

• Let X denote a *discrete* RV with probability function $p(x)$, then the expected value of $g(X)$, $E[g(X)]$, is defined to be:

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_x g(x) p(x) = \sum_i g(x_i) p(x_i)$$

and if X is *continuous* with probability density function $f(x)$

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx$$

Examples:

$$g(x) = (x - \mu)^2 \Rightarrow E[g(x)] = E[(x - \mu)^2]$$

$$g(x) = (x - \mu)^k \Rightarrow E[g(x)] = E[(x - \mu)^k]$$

Expectation of a function of a RV

Example: Suppose X has a uniform distribution from 0 to b . Then:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b} & 0 \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & x < 0, x > b \end{cases}$$

Find the *expected value* of $A = X^2$.

If X is the length of a side of a square (chosen at random from 0 to b) then A is the area of the square

$$E(X^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx = \int_a^b x^2 \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \left[\frac{1}{b} \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^b = \frac{b^3 - 0^3}{3(b)} = \frac{b^2}{3}$$

$= 1/3$ the maximum area of the square

Median: An alternative central measure

- A median is described as the numeric value separating the higher half of a sample, a population, or a probability distribution, from the lower half.

Definition: Median

The *median* of a random variable \mathbf{X} is the unique number m that satisfies the following inequalities:

$$P(\mathbf{X} \leq m) \geq 1/2 \quad \text{and} \quad P(\mathbf{X} \geq m) \geq 1/2.$$

For a continuous distribution, we have that m solves:

$$\int_{-\infty}^m f_X(x) dx = \int_m^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1/2$$

Median: An alternative central measure

- Calculation of medians is a popular technique in summary statistics and summarizing statistical data, since it is simple to understand and easy to calculate, while also giving a measure that is more robust in the presence of outlier values than is the mean.

An optimality property

A median is also a central point which minimizes the average of the absolute deviations. That is, a value of c that minimizes

$$E(|\mathbf{X} - c|)$$

is the median of the probability distribution of the random variable \mathbf{X} .

Example I: Median of the Exponential Distribution

Let X have an exponential distribution with parameter λ . The probability density function of X is:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The median m solves the following integral of X :

$$\int_m^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1/2$$

$$\int_m^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \lambda \int_m^{\infty} e^{-\lambda x} dx = -e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_m^{\infty} = e^{-\lambda m} = 1/2$$

That is, $m = \ln(2)/\lambda$.

Example II: Median of the Pareto Distribution

Let X follow a Pareto distribution with parameters α (scale) and x_s (shape, usually notated x_m). The pdf of X is:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\alpha x_s^\alpha}{x^{\alpha+1}} & \text{if } x \geq x_s > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The median m solves the following integral of X : $\int_m^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1/2$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_m^{\infty} \frac{\alpha x_s^\alpha}{x^{\alpha+1}} dx &= \alpha x_s^\alpha \int_m^{\infty} x^{-(\alpha+1)} dx = \alpha x_s^\alpha \frac{x^{-(\alpha+1)+1}}{-(\alpha+1)+1} + C \\ &= -x_s^\alpha x^{-\alpha} + C \Big|_m^{\infty} = x_s^\alpha m^{-\alpha} = 1/2 \Rightarrow m = x_s 2^{1/\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

Note: The Pareto distribution is used to describe the distribution of wealth.

Moments of a Random Variable

The moments of a random variable X are used to describe the behavior of the RV (discrete or continuous).

Definition: k^{th} Moment

Let X be a RV (discrete or continuous), then the k^{th} moment of X is:

$$\mu_k = E(X^k) = \begin{cases} \sum_x x^k p(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \end{cases}$$

- The first moment of X , $\mu = \mu_1 = E(X)$ is the center of gravity of the distribution of X .
- The higher moments give different information regarding the shape of the distribution of X .

Moments of a Random Variable

Definition: Central Moments

Let X be a RV (discrete or continuous). Then, the k^{th} central moment of X is defined to be:

$$\mu_k^0 = E[(X - \mu)^k] = \begin{cases} \sum_x (x - \mu)^k p(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^k f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \end{cases}$$

where $\mu = \mu_1 = E(X)$ = the first moment of X .

- The central moments describe how the probability distribution is distributed about the center of gravity, μ .

Moments of a Random Variable – 1st and 2nd

The first central moments is given by:

$$\mu_1^0 = E[X - \mu]$$

The second central moment depends on the *spread* of the probability distribution of X about μ . It is called the variance of X and is denoted by the symbol $\text{var}(X)$.

$$\mu_2^0 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ central moment.}$$

$$\sqrt{\mu_2^0} = \sqrt{E[(X - \mu)^2]} \text{ is called the } \textit{standard deviation} \text{ of } X \text{ and is denoted by the symbol } \sigma.$$

$$\text{var}(X) = \mu_2^0 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sigma^2$$

Moments of a Random Variable – Skewness

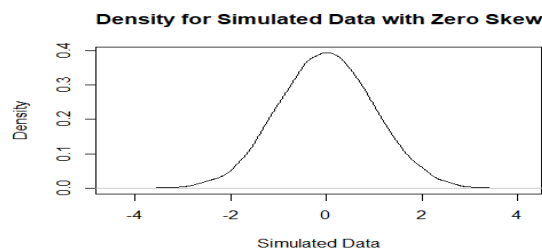
- The third central moment: $\mu_3^0 = E[(X - \mu)^3]$

μ_3^0 contains information about the *skewness* of a distribution.

- A popular measure of skewness: $\gamma_1 = \frac{\mu_3^0}{\sigma^3} = \frac{\mu_3^0}{(\mu_2^0)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$

- Distribution according to skewness:

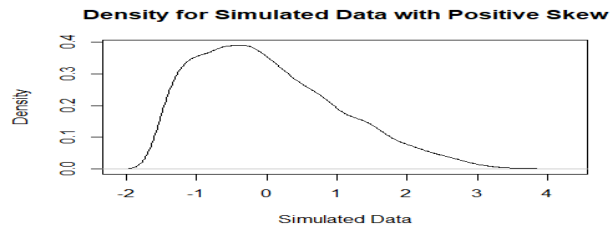
1) Symmetric distribution



$$\mu_3^0 = 0, \gamma_1 = 0$$

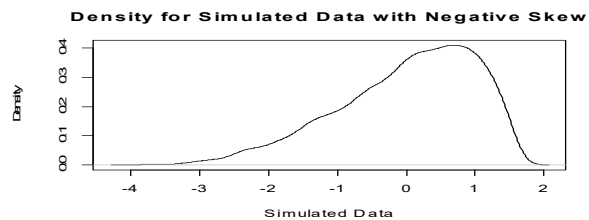
Moments of a Random Variable – Skewness

2) Positively skewed distribution



$$\mu_3^0 > 0, \gamma_1 > 0$$

3) Negatively skewed distribution



$$\mu_3^0 < 0, \gamma_1 < 0$$

Moments of a Random Variable – Skewness

- Skewness and Economics
 - Zero skew means symmetrical gains and losses.
 - Positive skew suggests many small losses and few rich returns.
 - Negative skew indicates lots of minor wins offset by rare major losses.
- In financial markets, stock returns at the firm level show positive skewness, but at stock returns at the aggregate (index) level show negative skewness.
- From horse race betting and from U.S. state lotteries there is evidence supporting the contention that gamblers are not necessarily risk-lovers but skewness-lovers: Long shots are overbet (positive skewness loved!).

Moments of a Random Variable – Kurtosis

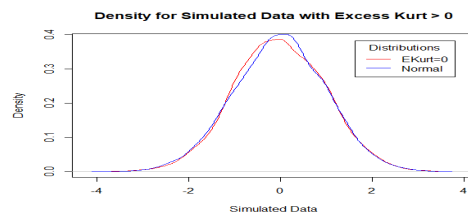
- The fourth central moment: $\mu_4^0 = E[(X - \mu)^4]$

μ_4^0 is a measure of the *shape* of a distribution. The property of shape measured by this moment is called *kurtosis*, usually estimated by $\kappa = \frac{\mu_4^0}{\sigma^4}$.

- The *measure of (excess) kurtosis*: $\gamma_2 = \frac{\mu_4^0}{\sigma^4} - 3 = \frac{\mu_4^0}{(\mu_2^0)^2} - 3$

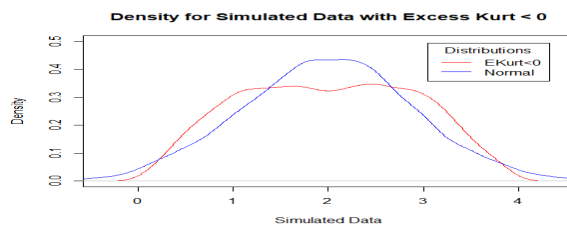
- Distributions:

1) Mesokurtic distribution ($\gamma_2 = 0$ or $\kappa=3$, like the normal distribution)

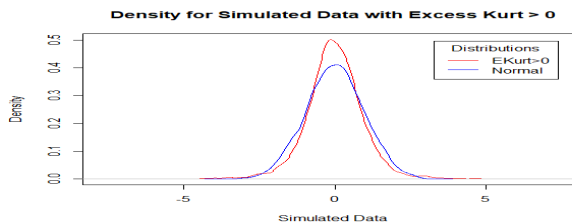


Moments of a Random Variable – Kurtosis

2) Platykurtic distribution ($\gamma_2 < 0$, μ_4^0 small in size)

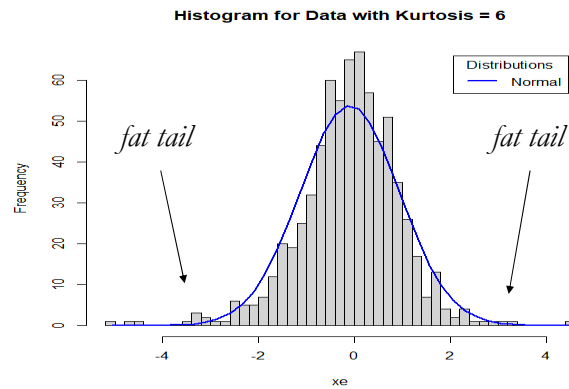


3) Leptokurtic distribution ($\gamma_2 > 0$, μ_4^0 large in size, usual shape)



Moments of a Random Variable – Kurtosis

- Typical financial returns series has $\gamma_2 > 0$. Below, I simulate a series with $\mu=0$, $\sigma=1$, $\gamma_1=0$ & kurtosis = 6 ($\gamma_2=3$), overlaid with a standard normal distribution. Fat tails are seen on both sides of the distribution.



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Moments of a Random Variable

Example: The uniform distribution from 0 to 1

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & x < 0, x > 1 \end{cases}$$

Finding the moments

$$\mu_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f(x) dx = \int_0^1 x^k 1 dx = \left[\frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{k+1}$$

Finding the central moments:

$$\mu_k^0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^k f(x) dx = \int_0^1 \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^k 1 dx$$

Moments of a Random Variable

Example (continuation): Finding the central moments (continuation)

$$\mu_k^0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^k f(x) dx = \int_0^1 \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^k 1 dx$$

making the substitution $w = x - \frac{1}{2}$

$$\mu_k^0 = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} w^k dw = \left[\frac{w^{k+1}}{k+1} \right]_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k+1} - \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k+1}}{k+1}$$

$$= \frac{1 - (-1)^{k+1}}{2^{k+1}(k+1)} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^k(k+1)} & \text{if } k \text{ even} \\ 0 & \text{if } k \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

Moments of a Random Variable

Hence $\mu_2^0 = \frac{1}{2^2(3)} = \frac{1}{12}, \mu_3^0 = 0, \mu_4^0 = \frac{1}{2^4(5)} = \frac{1}{80}$

Thus, $\text{var}(X) = \mu_2^0 = \frac{1}{12}$

The standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{\text{var}(X)} = \sqrt{\mu_2^0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}}$

The measure of skewness: $\gamma_1 = \frac{\mu_3^0}{\sigma^3} = 0$

The measure of kurtosis: $\gamma_2 = \frac{\mu_4^0}{\sigma^4} - 3 = \frac{1/80}{(\frac{1}{12})^2} - 3 = -1.2$

Alternative measures of dispersion

When the median is used as a central measure for a distribution, there are several choices for a measure of variability:

- The *range* —the length of the smallest interval containing the data
- The *interquartile range* -the difference between the 3rd and 1st quartiles.
- The *mean absolute deviation* – $(1/n) \sum_i |x_i - \text{central measure}(X)|$
- The *median absolute deviation* (MAD) – $\text{MAD} = m_1(|x_i - m(X)|)$

These measures are more robust (to outliers) estimators of scale than the sample variance or standard deviation.

They especially behave better with distributions without a mean or variance, such as the Cauchy distribution.

Review – Rules for Expectations

- We will derive the rules for the continuous case, with X has a pdf $f(x)$. Proof are similar for the discrete case. That is, we define $E[X]$ as

$$E[g(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx$$

- **Rule 1.** $E[c] = c$, where c is a constant.

Proof: $g(x) = c$

$$\text{Then, } E[g(X)] = E[c] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c f(x)dx = c \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = c$$

- **Rule 2.** $E[c + dX] = c + d E[X]$, where c & d are constants.

Proof: $g(x) = c + dX$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } E[g(X)] &= E[c + dX] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (c + dx) f(x)dx \\ &= c \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx + d \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x)dx \\ &= c + d E[X] \end{aligned}$$

Review – Rules for Expectations

- **Rule 3.** $\text{Var}[X] = \mu_2^0 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = E[X^2] - [E(X)]^2 = \mu_2 - \mu_1^2$

Proof: $g(x) = (x - \mu)^2$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[X] &= E[(X - \mu)^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x^2 - 2x\mu + \mu^2) f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 2x\mu f(x) dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mu^2 f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - 2\mu \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx + \mu^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx \\ &= E[X^2] - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2 = \mu_2 - \mu_1^2\end{aligned}$$

Rules for Expectations

- **Rule 4.** $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$

Proof:

$$\mu_{aX+b} = E[aX + b] = aE[X] + b = a\mu + b$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(aX + b) &= E\left[(aX + b - \mu_{aX+b})^2\right] \\ &= E\left[(aX + b - [a\mu + b])^2\right] \\ &= E\left[a^2 (X - \mu)^2\right] \\ &= a^2 E\left[(X - \mu)^2\right] = a^2 \text{var}(X)\end{aligned}$$

Rules for Expectations for Vectors & Matrices

- Let \mathbf{Z} be a random vector of k random variables: Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_k . We have a similar definition for \mathbf{W}

- Expected value of \mathbf{Z} :

$$E[\mathbf{Z}] = \begin{bmatrix} E[Z_1] \\ \vdots \\ E[Z_k] \end{bmatrix}$$

- Expected value of a linear function of random vectors. Let a & b be non-random scalars. Then:

$$E[a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{W}] = a E[\mathbf{Z}] + b E[\mathbf{W}]$$

- Variance of \mathbf{Z} : $\text{Var}[\mathbf{Z}] = E[\mathbf{Z} \mathbf{Z}'] - E[\mathbf{Z}] E[\mathbf{Z}]'$ ($k \times k$)

Rules for Expectations for Vectors & Matrices

- Variance of linear function of \mathbf{Z} :

$$\text{Var}[a + b\mathbf{Z}] = b^2 \text{Var}[\mathbf{Z}]$$

- Variance of linear function of \mathbf{Z} , with a conformable non-random matrix \mathbf{A} :

$$\text{Var}[\mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z}] = \mathbf{A} \text{Var}[\mathbf{Z}] \mathbf{A}'$$

- Expected value of a quadratic form $\mathbf{Z}' \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z}$:

$$E[\mathbf{Z}' \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z}] = E[\mathbf{Z}]' \mathbf{A} E[\mathbf{Z}] - \text{trace}(\mathbf{A} \text{Var}[\mathbf{Z}]) \quad (1 \times 1)$$

Derivation: Use properties of trace and expectations:

$$\begin{aligned} E[\mathbf{Z}' \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z}] &= E[\text{tr}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{Z}')] = \text{tr}(E[\mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{Z}']) \\ &= \text{tr}(\mathbf{A} E[\mathbf{Z} \mathbf{Z}']) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{A} (\text{Var}[\mathbf{Z}] + E[\mathbf{Z}] E[\mathbf{Z}]')) \\ &= \text{tr}(\mathbf{A} \text{Var}[\mathbf{Z}]) + \text{tr}(E[\mathbf{Z}]' \mathbf{A} E[\mathbf{Z}]) \\ &= \text{tr}(\mathbf{A} \text{Var}[\mathbf{Z}]) + E[\mathbf{Z}]' \mathbf{A} E[\mathbf{Z}] \end{aligned}$$



Moment generating functions

The expectation of a function $g(X)$ is given by:

$$E[g(X)] = \begin{cases} \sum_x g(x) p(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \end{cases}$$

Definition: Moment Generating Function (MGF)

Let X denote a random variable. Then, the *moment generating function* of X , $m_X(t)$, is defined by:

$$m_X(t) = E[e^{tX}] = \begin{cases} \sum_x e^{tx} p(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \end{cases}$$

MGF: Examples

1. The Binomial distribution (parameters p, n)

$$p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

The MGF of X , $m_X(t)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= E[e^{tX}] = \sum_x e^{tx} p(x) \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^n e^{tx} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} (e^t p)^x (1-p)^{n-x} = \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} a^x b^{n-x} \\ &= (a+b)^n = (e^t p + 1-p)^n \end{aligned}$$

MGF: Examples

2. The Poisson distribution (parameter λ)

$$p(x) = \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

The MGF of X , $m_X(t)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= E[e^{tX}] = \sum_x e^{tx} p(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{tx} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda} \\ &= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda e^t)^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda e^t} \quad \text{using } e^u = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{u^x}{x!} \\ &= e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)} \end{aligned}$$

MGF: Examples

3. The Exponential distribution (parameter λ)

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The MGF of X , $m_X(t)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= E[e^{tX}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} e^{tx} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \lambda e^{(t-\lambda)x} dx = \left[\lambda \frac{e^{(t-\lambda)x}}{t-\lambda} \right]_0^{\infty} \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} & t < \lambda \\ \text{undefined} & t \geq \lambda \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

MGF: Examples

4. The Standard Normal distribution ($\mu = 0$, $\sigma = 1$)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

The MGF of X , $m_X(t)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= E[e^{tX}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2-2tx}{2}} dx \end{aligned}$$

MGF: Examples

We will now use the fact that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a}} e^{-\frac{(x-b)^2}{2a^2}} dx = 1 \quad \text{for all } a > 0, b$$

We have
completed
the square

$$m_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2-2tx}{2}} dx = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2-2tx+t^2}{2}} dx$$

$$= e^{\frac{t^2}{2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-t)^2}{2}} dx = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$$

↑

This is 1

MGF: Examples

4. The Gamma distribution (parameters α, λ)

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The MGF of X , $m_X(t)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= E[e^{tX}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{tx} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} dx \end{aligned}$$

MGF: Examples

We use the fact

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} e^{-bx} dx = 1 \quad \text{for all } a > 0, b > 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{(\lambda-t)^\alpha} \underbrace{\int_0^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda-t)^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} dx}_{\text{Equal to 1}} = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^\alpha \end{aligned}$$

The Chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom ν ($\alpha = \nu/2, \lambda = 1/2$):

$$m_X(t) = (1 - 2t)^{-\frac{\nu}{2}}$$

MGF: Properties

1. $m_X(0) = 1$

$$m_X(t) = E(e^{tX}), \quad \text{hence } m_X(0) = E(e^{0 \cdot X}) = E(1) = 1$$

Note: The MGFs of the following distributions satisfy the property

$$m_X(0) = 1$$

i) Binomial Dist'n $m_X(t) = (e^t p + 1 - p)^n$

ii) Poisson Dist'n $m_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$

iii) Exponential Dist'n $m_X(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)$

iv) Std Normal Dist'n $m_X(t) = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$

v) Gamma Dist'n $m_X(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^\alpha$

MGF: Properties

$$2. \quad \mu_X(t) = 1 + \mu_1 t + \frac{\mu_2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\mu_3 t^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{k!} + \cdots$$

We use the expansion of the exponential function:

$$e^u = 1 + u + \frac{u^2}{2!} + \frac{u^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{u^k}{k!} + \cdots$$

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= E(e^{tX}) \\ &= E\left\{1 + tX + \frac{t^2 X^2}{2!} + \frac{t^3 X^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{t^k X^k}{k!} + \cdots\right\} \\ &= 1 + tE[X] + \frac{t^2 E[X^2]}{2!} + \frac{t^3 E[X^3]}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{t^k E[X^k]}{k!} + \cdots \\ &= 1 + \mu_1 t + \frac{\mu_2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\mu_3 t^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{k!} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

MGF: Properties

$$3. \quad m_X^{(k)}(0) = \left. \frac{d^k}{dt^k} m_X(t) \right|_{t=0} = \mu_k$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= 1 + \mu_1 t + \frac{\mu_2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\mu_3 t^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{k!} + \cdots \\ m'_X(t) &= \mu_1 + \frac{\mu_2}{2!} 2t + \frac{\mu_3}{3!} 3t^2 + \cdots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{k!} (k-1)t^{k-1} + \cdots \\ &= \mu_1 + \frac{\mu_2}{1!} t + \frac{\mu_3}{2!} t^2 + \cdots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{(k-1)!} t^{k-1} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } m'_X(0) = \mu_1$$

$$m''_X(t) = \mu_2 + \frac{\mu_3}{1!} t + \frac{\mu_4}{2!} t^2 + \cdots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{(k-2)!} t^{k-2} + \cdots$$

$$\text{and } m''_X(0) = \mu_2$$

$$\text{continuing we find } m_X^{(k)}(0) = \mu_k$$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Binomial

Property 3 is very useful in determining the moments of a RV X .

Examples:

i) Binomial Dist'n $m_X(t) = (e^t p + 1 - p)^n$

$$m'_X(t) = n(e^t p + 1 - p)^{n-1} (pe^t)$$

$$m'_X(0) = n(e^0 p + 1 - p)^{n-1} (pe^0) = np = \mu_1 = \mu$$

$$m''_X(t) = np \left[(n-1)(e^t p + 1 - p)^{n-2} (e^t p) e^t + (e^t p + 1 - p)^{n-1} e^t \right]$$

$$= npe^t (e^t p + 1 - p)^{n-2} \left[(n-1)(e^t p) + (e^t p + 1 - p) \right]$$

$$= npe^t (e^t p + 1 - p)^{n-2} [ne^t p + 1 - p]$$

$$m''_X(0) = np[np + 1 - p] = np[np + q] = n^2 p^2 + npq = \mu_2$$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Poisson

ii) Poisson Dist'n $m_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$

$$m'_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)} [\lambda e^t] = \lambda e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + t}$$

$$m''_X(t) = \lambda e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + t} [\lambda e^t + 1] = \lambda^2 e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + 2t} + \lambda e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + t}$$

$$m'''_X(t) = \lambda^2 e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + 2t} [\lambda e^t + 2] + \lambda e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + t} [\lambda e^t + 1]$$

$$= \lambda^2 e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + 2t} [\lambda e^t + 3] + \lambda e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + t}$$

$$= \lambda^3 e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + 3t} + 3\lambda^2 e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + 2t} + \lambda e^{\lambda(e^t - 1) + t}$$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Poisson

To find the moments we set $t = 0$.

$$\mu_1 = m'_X(0) = \lambda e^{\lambda(e^0 - 1) + 0} = \lambda$$

$$\mu_2 = m''_X(0) = \lambda^2 e^{\lambda(e^0 - 1) + 0} + \lambda e^{\lambda(e^0 - 1) + 0} = \lambda^2 + \lambda$$

$$\mu_3 = m'''_X(0) = \lambda^3 e^0 + 3\lambda^2 e^{0t} + \lambda e^0 = \lambda^3 + 3\lambda^2 + \lambda$$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Exponential

iii) Exponential Dist'n $m_X(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)$

$$m'_X(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right) = \lambda \frac{d(\lambda - t)^{-1}}{dt}$$

$$= \lambda (-1)(\lambda - t)^{-2} (-1) = \lambda (\lambda - t)^{-2}$$

$$m''_X(t) = \lambda (-2)(\lambda - t)^{-3} (-1) = 2\lambda (\lambda - t)^{-3}$$

$$m'''_X(t) = 2\lambda (-3)(\lambda - t)^{-4} (-1) = 2(3)\lambda (\lambda - t)^{-4}$$

$$m_X^{(4)}(t) = 2(3)\lambda (-4)(\lambda - t)^{-5} (-1) = (4!)\lambda (\lambda - t)^{-5}$$

$$m_X^{(k)}(t) = (k!)\lambda (\lambda - t)^{-k-1}$$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Exponential

Thus,

$$\mu_1 = \mu = m'_X(0) = \lambda(\lambda)^{-2} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\mu_2 = m''_X(0) = 2\lambda(\lambda)^{-3} = \frac{2}{\lambda^2}$$

$$\mu_k = m^{(k)}_X(0) = (k!) \lambda(\lambda)^{-k-1} = \frac{k!}{\lambda^k}$$

We can calculate the following popular descriptive statistics:

- $\sigma^2 = \mu_2 - \mu^2 = (2/\lambda^2) - (1/\lambda)^2 = (1/\lambda)^2$
- $\gamma_1 = \mu_3 / \sigma^3 = (2/\lambda^3) / [(1/\lambda)^2]^{3/2} = 2$
- $\gamma_2 = \mu_4 / \sigma^4 - 3 = (9/\lambda^4) / [(1/\lambda)^4] - 3 = 6$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Exponential

Note: The moments for the exponential distribution can be calculated in an alternative way. This is done by expanding $m_X(t)$ in powers of t and equating the coefficients of t^k to the coefficients in:

$$\mu_X(t) = 1 + \mu_1 t + \frac{\mu_2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\mu_3 t^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{k!} + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} m_X(t) &= \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} = \frac{1}{1 - t/\lambda} = \frac{1}{1 - u} = 1 + u + u^2 + u^3 + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{t}{\lambda} + \frac{t^2}{\lambda^2} + \frac{t^3}{\lambda^3} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Equating the coefficients of t^k we get:

$$\frac{\mu_k}{k!} = \frac{1}{\lambda^k} \quad \text{or} \quad \mu_k = \frac{k!}{\lambda^k}$$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Normal

iv) Standard normal distribution $m_X(t) = \exp(t^2/2)$

We use the expansion of e^u .

$$e^u = 1 + u + \frac{u^2}{2!} + \frac{u^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{u^k}{k!} + \dots$$

$$e^u = 1 + \left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right) + \frac{\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right)^2}{2!} + \frac{\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right)^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right)^k}{k!} + \dots$$

$$e^u = 1 + \frac{1}{2}t^2 + \frac{1}{2^2 2!}t^4 + \frac{1}{2^3 3!}t^6 + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k k!}t^{2k} + \dots$$

We now equate the coefficients t^k in:

$$m_X(t) = 1 + \mu_1 t + \frac{\mu_2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\mu_3 t^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\mu_k t^k}{k!} + \dots + \frac{\mu_{2k} t^{2k}}{(2k)!} + \dots$$

MGF: Applying Property 3 – Normal

If k is odd: $\mu_k = 0$.

For even $2k$:
$$\frac{\mu_{2k}}{(2k)!} = \frac{1}{2^k k!}$$

or
$$\mu_{2k} = \frac{(2k)!}{2^k k!}$$

Thus
$$\mu_1 = 0, \mu_2 = \frac{2!}{2} = 1, \mu_3 = 0, \mu_4 = \frac{4!}{2^2 (2!)} = 3$$

The log of Moment Generating Functions

Let $l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t)$ = the log of the MGF.

Then $l_X(0) = \ln m_X(0) = \ln 1 = 0$

$$l'_X(t) = \frac{1}{m_X(t)} m'_X(t) = \frac{m'_X(t)}{m_X(t)} \quad l'_X(0) = \frac{m'_X(0)}{m_X(0)} = \mu_1 = \mu$$

$$l''_X(t) = \frac{m''_X(t)m_X(t) - [m'_X(t)]^2}{[m_X(t)]^2}$$

$$l''_X(0) = \frac{m''_X(0)m_X(0) - [m'_X(0)]^2}{[m_X(0)]^2} = \mu_2 - [\mu_1]^2 = \sigma^2$$

The Log of Moment Generating Functions

Thus $l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t)$ is very useful for calculating the mean and variance of a random variable

1. $l'_X(0) = \mu$
2. $l''_X(0) = \sigma^2$

Log of MGF: Examples – Binomial

1. The Binomial distribution (parameters p, n)

$$m_X(t) = (e^t p + 1 - p)^n = (e^t p + q)^n$$

$$l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t) = n \ln(e^t p + q)$$

$$l'_X(t) = n \frac{1}{e^t p + q} e^t p \quad \mu = l'_X(0) = n \frac{1}{p + q} p = np$$

$$l''_X(t) = n \frac{e^t p(e^t p + q) - e^t p(e^t p)}{(e^t p + q)^2}$$

$$\sigma^2 = l''_X(0) = n \frac{p(p + q) - p(p)}{(p + q)^2} = npq$$

Log of MGF: Examples – Poisson

2. The Poisson distribution (parameter λ)

$$m_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$$

$$l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t) = \lambda(e^t - 1)$$

$$l'_X(t) = \lambda e^t \quad \mu = l'_X(0) = \lambda$$

$$l''_X(t) = \lambda e^t \quad \sigma^2 = l''_X(0) = \lambda$$

Log of MGF: Examples – Exponential

3. The Exponential distribution (parameter λ)

$$m_X(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} & t < \lambda \\ \text{undefined} & t \geq \lambda \end{cases}$$

$$l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t) = \ln \lambda - \ln(\lambda - t) \quad \text{if } t < \lambda$$

$$l'_X(t) = \frac{1}{\lambda - t} = (\lambda - t)^{-1}$$

$$l''_X(t) = -1(\lambda - t)^{-2}(-1) = \frac{1}{(\lambda - t)^2}$$

Thus $\mu = l'_X(0) = \frac{1}{\lambda}$ and $\sigma^2 = l''_X(0) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$

Log of MGF: Examples – Normal

4. The Standard Normal distribution ($\mu = 0, \sigma = 1$)

$$m_X(t) = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$$

$$l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t) = \frac{t^2}{2}$$

$$l'_X(t) = t, \quad l''_X(t) = 1$$

Thus $\mu = l'_X(0) = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = l''_X(0) = 1$

Log of MGF: Examples – Gamma

5. The Gamma distribution (parameters α, λ)

$$m_X(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^\alpha$$

$$l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t) = \alpha [\ln \lambda - \ln(\lambda - t)]$$

$$l'_X(t) = \alpha \left[\frac{1}{\lambda - t} \right] = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda - t}$$

$$l''_X(t) = \alpha(-1)(\lambda - t)^{-2}(-1) = \frac{\alpha}{(\lambda - t)^2}$$

Hence $\mu = l'_X(0) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda}$ and $\sigma^2 = l''_X(0) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2}$

Log of MGF: Examples – Chi-squared

6. The Chi-square distribution (degrees of freedom ν)

$$m_X(t) = (1 - 2t)^{-\frac{\nu}{2}}$$

$$l_X(t) = \ln m_X(t) = -\frac{\nu}{2} \ln(1 - 2t)$$

$$l'_X(t) = -\frac{\nu}{2} \frac{1}{1 - 2t} (-2) = \frac{\nu}{1 - 2t}$$

$$l''_X(t) = \nu(-1)(1 - 2t)^{-2}(-2) = \frac{2\nu}{(1 - 2t)^2}$$

Hence $\mu = l'_X(0) = \nu$ and $\sigma^2 = l''_X(0) = 2\nu$

Characteristic functions

Definition: Characteristic Function

Let X denote a random variable. Then, the *characteristic function* of X , $\varphi_X(t)$ is defined by:

$$\varphi_X(t) = E(e^{itx})$$

Since $e^{itx} = \cos(xt) + i \sin(xt)$ and $\|e^{itx}\| \leq 1$, then $\varphi_X(t)$ is defined for all t . Thus, the characteristic function always exists, but the MGF need not exist.

Relation to the MGF: $\varphi_X(t) = m_{iX}(t) = m_X(it)$

Calculation of moments: $\frac{\partial^k \varphi_X(t)}{\partial t^k} \Big|_{t=0} = i^k \mu_k$