MATLAB

Lecture 7

- Random Numbers
- Many probabilistic processes rely on random numbers

MATLAB contains the common distributions built in wrand

draws from the uniform distribution from 0 to 1 Uniformly distributed pseudorandom numbers

Generate values from the uniform distribution on the interval [a, b].

```
r = a + (b-a).*rand(100,1);
```

Random Numbers

»randn

draws from the standard normal distribution (Gaussian)

»random

can give random numbers from many more distributions see doc random for help the docs also list other specific functions

>> randi(imax)

randi(imax) returns a random integer drawn from the discrete uniform distribution on 1:imax.

Random Numbers

The same sequence of numbers will not be generated unless the same starting point is used. This starting point is called the "seed". Each time you start Matlab, the random number generator is initialized to the same seed value. The current seed value can be seen using

s = rand('seed')

By setting a seed value, we ensure that the same results will be produced each time the script is executed. The seed can be set to a value (say, 1234) as follows:

rand('seed',1234)

Whenever analysing data, you have to compute statistics

```
»scores = 100*rand(1,100);
Number of built-in functions:
  mean, median, mode, ... etc
To group data into a histogram
»hist(scores,5:10:95);
makes a histogram with bins centered at 5, 15, 25...95
»N=histc(scores,0:10:100);
returns the number of occurrences between the specified bin edges0 to <10,
10 to <20...90 to <100.
```

you can plot these manually:

```
»bar(0:10:100,N,'r')
```

Let us simulate Brownian motion in 1 dimension.

Make a 10,000 element vector of zeros

Write a loop to keep track of the particle's position at each time

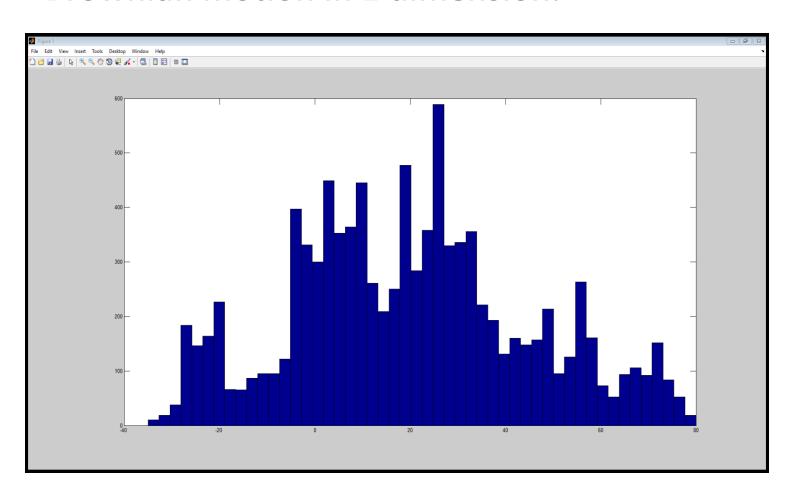
Start at 0. To get the new position, pick a random number, and if it's <0.5, go left; if it's >0.5, go right. Store each new position in the kth position in the vector

Plot a 50 bin histogram of the positions.

Brownian motion in 1 dimension.

```
x=zeros(10000,1);
for n=2:10000
  if rand<0.5
    x(n)=x(n-1)-1;
  else
    x(n)=x(n-1)+1;
  end
end
figure;
hist(x,50);
```

Brownian motion in 1 dimension.



The Normal Distribution

- The normal distribution-specific pdf function contains arguments that has three arguments: a particular x-value at which you seek the pdf value, the mean value of the distribution and the standard deviation of the distribution.
- For example, the Matlab command **normpdf(x,xmean,sigma)** returns the value of the probability density function, p(x), evaluated at the value of x of a normal probability distribution having a mean of xmean and a standard deviation of sigma.
- Specifically, typing the Matlab command normpdf(2,0,1) yields p(2) = 0:0540.
- A similar result can be obtained using the generic Matlab command pdf(norm,2,0,1)

The Normal Distribution

- The normal distribution cdf function also has similar arguments: a
 particular x-value at which you seek the cdf value, the mean value
 of the distribution and the standard deviation of the distribution.
- This is none other than the integral of the pdf function from 1 to x;
 P(x).
- So, typing the Matlab command normcdf(1,0,1) gives P (1) = 0:8413. This tells us that 84.13% of all normally-distributed values lie between 1 and one standard deviation above the mean.
- Typing cdf(norm,1,0,1) yields the same value.

The Normal Distribution

- The normal distribution "inv" function gives the inverse of the cdf function, i.e., it provides the value of x for the cdf value of P.
- Thus, typing the Matlab command norminv(0.9772,0,1) results in the value of 2. This says that 97.72% of all normally-distributed values lie below two standard deviations above the mean.
- There is not an equivalent generic Matlab inv command.

Student's t Distribution

- functions tpdf, tcdf and tinv are used for Student's t distribution.
- command tpdf(t,nu) returns the value of the probability density function, p(t; V), evaluated at the value of t of Student's t distribution having a nu degrees of freedom

- probplot(y) creates a normal probability plot comparing the distribution of the data in y to the normal distribution. The plot includes a reference line useful for judging whether the data follows a normal distribution.
- example
- probplot(dist,y) creates a probability plot for the distribution specified by dist, using the sample data in y.

Test Data for Normal Distribution Using probplot

 Generate sample data containing about 20% outliers in the tails. The left tail of the sample data contains 10 values randomly generated from an exponential distribution with parameter mu = 1. The right tail contains 10 values randomly generated from an exponential distribution with parameter mu = 5. The center of the sample data contains 80 values randomly generated from a standard normal distribution.

Test Data for Normal Distribution Using probplot

```
left_tail = -exprnd(1,10,1);
right_tail = exprnd(5,10,1);
center = randn(80,1);
data = [left_tail;center;right_tail];.
```

Test Data for Normal Distribution Using probplot

Create a probability plot to assess whether the sample data comes from a normal distribution. Plot a *t* location-scale curve on the same figure to compare with data.

Test Data for Normal Distribution Using probplot

```
figure;
probplot(data);
p = mle(data,'dist','tlo');
t = @(data,mu,sig,df)cdf('tlocationscale',data,mu,sig,df);
h = probplot(gca,t,p);
h.Color = 'r';
h.LineStyle = '-';
title('{\bf Probability Plot}')
legend('Normal','Data','t','Location','NW')
```

SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION:

- A bivariate scatterplot is a simple plot of x versus y between two variables.
- A bivariate scatterplot is a convenient first step to visualize the relationship between the two variables.
- Assume that we have two variables that are linearly related, except some Gaussian noise term with mean 0 and standard deviation 1
- y = 10x + 3 + noise
- Assuming that the variable x is a linearly spaced row vector of length 50, between 0 and 1, generate the y vector

SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION:

```
randn('seed',1) % specify a seed (optional)
n=50; % number of observations
x=linspace(0,1,n); % linearly spaced vector a length n
y= 10*x + 3 + randn(1,n);
plot(x,y,'.')
xlabel('x')
ylabel('y')
```

SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION:

In a bivariate scatterplot (x,y), the point with coordinates (mean(x),mean(y)), is known as the point of averages.

```
mx=mean(x);
my=mean(y);
hold on;
plot(mx,my, 'ro', 'markerfacecolor','r')
legend('data', 'point of averages')
```

SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION:

Covariance: Covariance between vectors x and y can be computed in "unbiased" and "biased" versions as

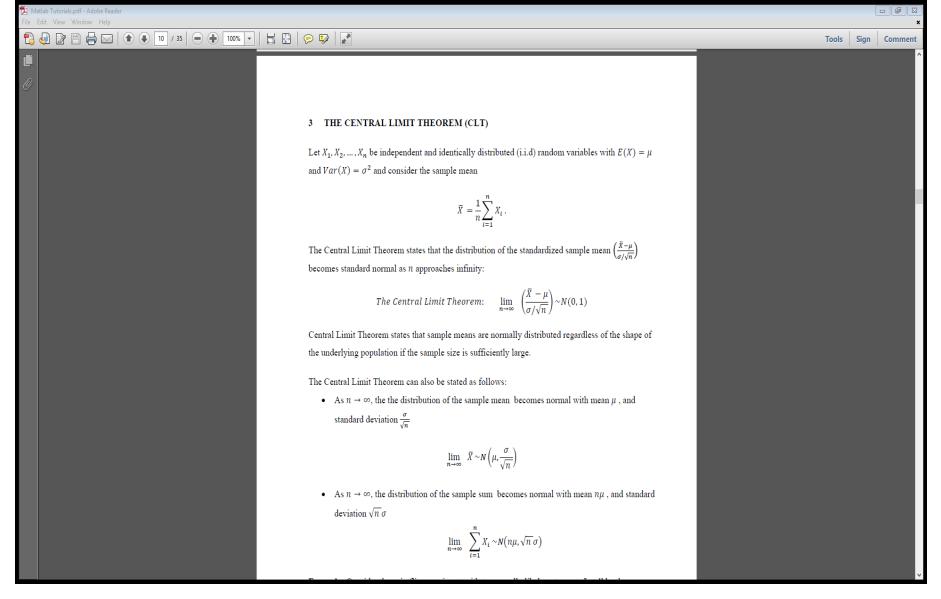
```
c= mean((x-mx).*(y-my)) % covariance (biased)
n=length(x);
cs= c*n/(n-1) % sample covariance(unbiased)
```

SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION:

Correlation coefficient: The correlation coefficient between two variables is a measure of the linear relationship between them. The correlation coefficient between two vectors can be found using the average of the product of the z-scores of x and y. The "biased" version is

```
zx=zscore(x,1)
zy=zscore(y,1)
r=mean(zx.*zy)
Correlation coefficient can also be computed from the covariance, as follows:
sx=std(x,1);
sy=std(y,1);
r=c/(sx*sy)
```

The "unbiased" version (sample correlation coefficient) is computed the same way, except that the flag "1" is replaced by "0".



- Central Limit Theorem
- Demonstration with coins

```
ncoin = [1 3 5 10 20 50];
nroll=10000; % number of rolls
for i=1:length(ncoin),
ni=ncoin(i);
x=randi([0,1],ni,nroll); % coin flip: Head = 1 Tail =0
y=sum(x,1); % sample sum.
edges=min(y):max(y);
af=histc(y,edges); %absolute
rf=af/nroll; % relative
% plot figure
subplot(3,2,i)
stem(edges,rf,'filled')
title(['Number of Coins: n = ',num2str(ni)]);
xlabel('sample sum');
vlabel('rel. freq.');
end
```

Suppose we think there is a relationship

$$y = \alpha + \beta x$$

The Ordinarly Least Square (OLS) problem

$$\min_{\hat{\alpha},\hat{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} x_i)^2$$

First order conditions (FOCs) are

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} x_i) = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} x_i) x_i = 0$$

(ロ) (部) (差) (差) 差 から(*)

Basic econometrics: the solution is

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \bar{y}) (x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{x}$$

where

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i$$

We can write the original problem

$$\min_{\hat{\alpha},\hat{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2$$

in matrix form

$$\min_{b} (y - Xb)' (y - Xb)$$

with solution

$$b = \left(X'X\right)^{-1}X'y$$

where

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1, & y_2, & ..., & y_N \end{bmatrix}'$$
 $X = \begin{bmatrix} 1, & 1, & ..., & 1 \\ x_1, & x_2, & ..., & x_N \end{bmatrix}'$

and

$$b = \left[\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta} \right]'$$

Solve in different ways, but we need data. We generate artificial economic data

```
function GenerateData(alpha,beta,N)

x=[1:1:N]';

y=alpha + beta * x + randn(N,1);

save data x y;

figure(1);

plot(x,y,'b',x,alpha+x*beta,':r')
```

Use Matrix notation

```
function [alphaHat, betaHat] = OLS1 load data; N = length(x) X = [ones(N,1) x]; b = X \setminus y; \%b = (X'*X) \setminus (X'*y); \%b = inv(X'*X)^*(X'*y); alphaHat = b(1); betaHat = b(2);
```

Use summations and means

```
function [alphaHat, betaHat] = OLS2 load data; N = length(x); \\ meanX = sum(x)/N; \\ meanY = sum(y)/N; \\ betaHat = sum((x-meanX).*(y-meanY))./sum((x-meanX).^2); \\ alphaHat = mean(y) - betaHat * mean(x);
```

We derived FOCs, and then found an analytical solution to the system of two equations. Now we solve it numerically We need a function which defines the system of FOCs:

```
function out = focs(in)
global x y
alphaHat = in(1);
betaHat = in(2);
out(1) = sum(y-alphaHat-betaHat.*x);
out(2) = sum((y-alphaHat-betaHat.*x).*x);
```

```
So, we find solution to the system of FOCs
function [alphaHat, betaHat] = OLS3
global x y
load data;
[sol, fval] = fsolve('focs',[2 1], optimset('TolFun',1.e-10));
error = sum(fval.^2);
if (error > sqrt(1.e-10))
disp('sol is not a zero!');
end
alphaHat = sol(1);
betaHat = sol(2);
```

Finally, we solve the original problem: minimisation of quadratic objective SSE (sum of squared errors)

$$\min_{\hat{\alpha},\hat{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} x_i)^2$$

```
function out = SSE(in)
global x y
alphaHat = in(1);
betaHat = in(2);
out = sum( ( y- alphaHat - betaHat .* x ).^2 );
```

```
function [alphaHat, betaHat] = OLS4 global \times y load data; [sol, fval] = fminsearch('SSE',[1 .5], optimset('TolFun',1.e-15,'display','final')); alphaHat = sol(1); betaHat = sol(2);
```

```
Main file: calls all of them in turn alpha = 0.5; beta = 1.3; N = 100; GenerateData(alpha,beta,N); [alphaHat1, betaHat1] = OLS1 [alphaHat2, betaHat2] = OLS2 [alphaHat3, betaHat3] = OLS3 [alphaHat4, betaHat4] = OLS4
```

```
We have used alpha = 0.5; beta = 2; N = 10; x=[1:1:N]'; y=alpha + beta * x + randn(N,1); save data x y; figure(1); plot(x,y,'b',x,alpha+x*beta,':r') plot(x,y,'b',x,alpha+x*beta,':r','LineWidth',3) % width of line
```

2 / 8

```
hold on keeps the figure and allows to plot over existing lines: plot(x,y,'b','LineWidth',2) hold on; plot(x,alpha+x*beta,':r','LineWidth',1) hold off; legend('data','fitted data'); xlabel('x'); ylabel('y'); text(5, 1,'add text here') title('Ordinary Least Square Regression')
```

```
figure(2) subplot(1,2,1); plot(x,y,'b',x,alpha+x*beta,':r','LineWidth',3) subplot(1,2,2); plot(x,y,'b',x,alpha+x*beta,':r') figure(3) subplot(2,2,1); plot(x,y,'b',x,alpha+x*beta,':r','LineWidth',3) subplot(2,2,2); plot(x,y,'b',x,alpha+x*beta,':r') subplot(2,2,3); plot(x,y,'b-',x,alpha+x*beta,':m') subplot(2,2,4); plot(x,y,'g:',x,alpha+x*beta,'y-.','LineWidth',6)
```

```
phi = 3:
c = [0.1:0.1:5];
n = [0.0:0.1:1];
[C,N] = meshgrid(c,n);
U = log(C) - N.^{(1+phi)/(1+phi)};
figure(4)
subplot(1,2,1); surf(C,N,U);
colormap('HSV');
xlabel('consumption'); ylabel('labour'); zlabel('utility')
subplot(1,2,2)
contour(C,N,U,'ShowText','on'); xlabel('consumption');
ylabel('labour');
```

5 / 8