Probability

Hao

Probabilit

Events

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

andom Variable

Discrete RVs

Moments

Multivariate

Marginal and

distributions

Conditional

Normal and

related distributions

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling

References

Review of Probability ¹

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¹This section is based on Stock and Watson (2020), Chapter 2. \blacksquare \bullet \blacksquare \checkmark

Events

Joint Events Conditional and

Random Variables

Discrete RVs

Continuous R' Moments

Multivariat Distribution

conditional distributions

Independent

Conditional Expectation

Normal ar

Samplin

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

Probabilities and Outcomes

- ▶ An outcomes is a specific result:
 - ♦ Coin toss: either H or T.
 - ⋄ Roll of dice: 1,2...,6.
- ▶ The probability of an outcome is the proportion of the time that the outcome occurs in the long run.
 - Fair coin toss: 50 % chance of heads.
- ▶ The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes.
 - \diamond In a coin flip the sample space is $S = \{H, T\}$.
 - ♦ If two coins are flipped the sample space is
 S = {HH, HT, TH, TT}.
- ▶ An event is a subset of the sample space.
 - ♦ Roll a die $A = \{1, 2\}$.

Probabili

Events

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probabil

Random Variab

Discrete RVs

Continuou

Multivariate Distribution

Distribution

Marginal and

conditional distributions

Conditiona

Expectation

distributio

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Probability Function

Definition 1 (Probability Function)

A function \mathbb{P} which assigns a numerical value to events is called a probability function if it satisfies the following Axioms of Probability:

- 1. $P(A) \ge 0$.
- 2. $\mathbb{P}(S) = 1$.
- 3. If A_1, A_2, \ldots are disjoint then $\mathbb{P}|\bigcup_{j=1}^N A_j| = \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbb{P}(A_j)$.

References

Conditional Probability

Definition 2 (Conditional Probability)

If $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$, then the **conditional probability** of A given B is given by

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

 $\mathbb{P}(B)$ is the **marginal probability** of event B.

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) + \mathbb{P}(A^c \cap B).$$

robabilit

Events

Joint Events

Conditional and marginal probability

Discrete RV

Continuous R Moments

Multivariate Distribution

conditional distributions

Independenc

Conditiona Expectatio

Normal ar

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximatio

References

Joint Events

Take two events H and M.

- \triangleright let be H the event that an individual's monthly wage exceeds HKD 20000,
- \triangleright let M be the event that the individual has a master's degree.

Table: Joint Distribution

	Master degree	Non-master degree	Any education
High wage	0.19	0.12	0.31
Low wage	0.17	0.52	0.69
Any wage	0.36	0.64	1.00

Random Vari Discrete RVs

Continuous R Moments

Multivariate Distribution

Marginal an conditional distributions

Independence Conditional

Conditional Expectation

Normal an

Samplin

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

Conditional Probability - Example

The probability of earning a high wage conditional on high education is

 $\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{High wage}|\mathsf{Master degree})$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{High\ wage}\cap\mathsf{Master\ degree})$$

 $\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{High}\;\mathsf{wage}\cap\mathsf{Master}\;\mathsf{degree})+\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{Low}\;\mathsf{wage}\cap\mathsf{Master}\;\mathsf{degree})$

$$= \frac{0.19}{0.36} = 0.53.$$

Similarly, the probability of earning a high wage conditional on non-master degree is

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{High wage}|\mathsf{Non\text{-}master degree}) = \frac{0.12}{0.64} = 0.19.$$

Random Variabl

Discrete PVs

Continuous

Moments

Multivariat

Distributio

conditional distributions

Independent

Conditiona

Expectation

related distribution

Sampli

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

Independence

▶ The events A and B are independent if $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$ Some facts:

- When events are independent then joint probabilities can be calculated by multiplying individual probabilities.
- ▶ If A and B are disjoint then they cannot be independent.

Probabilit

Events

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

ndom Variable

Discrete RVs

Continuo

Moments

Multivariat

Distribution

conditional distributions

distributions Independenc

Conditiona

Expectatio

related distribution

Sampling

Approximation to Sampling

References

Theorem 3 (Bayes Rule)

If $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$ and $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ then

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B|A)\mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B|A)\mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B|A^c)\mathbb{P}(A^c)}.$$

Probabili

Probabili

Events

Conditional and marginal probability

Discrete RVs Continuous RV

Multivariat

Marginal and conditional distributions

Conditional Expectation

Normal ar

Samplin

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling Distributions

References

Bayes Rule-Example I

Consider the PCR test for Covid-19:

- ▶ If actual infected: 0.9 positive, 0.1 negative.
- ▶ If not infected: 0.05 positive, 0.95 negative.
- ▶ 1 % population is infected.

What is the chance of being infected given the test is positive? Let A denote being infected, let B denote test result positive.

$$P(B|A) = 0.9, P(B|A^c) = 0.05, P(A) = 0.01.$$

$$\triangleright P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|A^c)P(A^c)} = \frac{0.05*0.9}{0.05*0.9 + 0.95*0.01} \approx 0.8256.$$

What is the chance of not infected given the test is negative?

$$P(A^c|B^c) = \frac{P(B^c|A^c)P(A^c)}{P(B^c|A)P(A) + P(B^c|A^c)P(A^c)} = \frac{0.95*0.99}{0.95*0.99 + 0.05*0.1} \approx 0.9947.$$

References

Random Variables

Definition 4 (Random variable)

A random variable is a real-valued outcome; a function from the sample space S to the real line \mathbb{R} .

For example, X is a mapping from the coin flip sample space to the real line, with T mapped to 0 and H mapped to 1.

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if H} \\ 0 & \text{if T.} \end{cases}$$

Properties of random variables.

- ▶ The expected value is the long-run average of the random variable.
- ▷ The standard deviation measures the spread of a probability distribution

robobili

Probabili

Joint Events Conditional and

Discrete RVs

Continuous

Moments F

Multivariate Distribution

conditional distributions

Conditional Expectation

Normal ar

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

Discrete Random Variables

- ▶ The set X is discrete if it has a finite or countably infinite number of elements.
- ▷ If there is a discrete set \mathcal{X} such that $\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{X}) = 1$ then X is a discrete random variable.
- ▶ The **probability mass function** of a random variable is $\pi(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$, the probability that X equals the value x.
- ▶ The probability distribution of a discrete random variable is the list of all possible values of the variable and the probability that each value will occur.

Discrete RVs

Continuous R

Multivariate

Distribution
Marginal and

conditional distributions

Conditional

Normal and related distributions

distributions

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

For a dsicrete variable X with the support of \mathcal{X} , the expectation is computed as

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \pi(x)x.$$

 $\triangleright X = 1$ with the probability of p and X = 0 with probability 1 - p. The expected value is $\mathbb{E}(X) = 1 * p + 0 * (1 - p) = p$.

The expectation of the function of X, g(X) is computed as

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \pi(x)g(x).$$

References

Cumulative distribution function

The **cumulative probability distribution**(*CDF*) is the probability that the random variable is less than or equal to a particular value,

$$F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x),$$

where the probability event is $X \leq x$.

Properties of a CDF If F(x) is a distribution function, then

- 1. F(x) is non-decreasing.
- $2. \lim_{x\to -\infty} F(x) = 0.$
- 3. $\lim_{x\to\infty} F(x) = 1.$
- 4. F(x) is right-continuous, $\lim_{x\downarrow x_0} F(x) = F(x_0)$.

Probabili

Event

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Random Variables

Discrete RVs

Continuous | Moments

Multivariate Distribution

Marginal and conditional distributions

Independenc

Expectatio

Normal ar

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

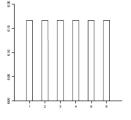
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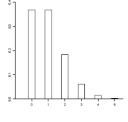
Example-Probability mass function

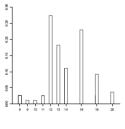
Some examples for discrete variables.

- ▶ For a fair dice toss, the support is $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, ..., 6\}$ with the probability mass function is $\pi(x) = \frac{1}{6}$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
- ▷ An example of infinite countable random variable is the Poisson distribution, the probability mass function is

$$\pi(x) = \frac{e^{-1}}{x!}, x = 0, 1, \dots$$









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Probabili

Event

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Discrete RVs

Continuous R

Multivariate

Marginal an

distributions Independence

Conditiona

Normal a

distributi

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

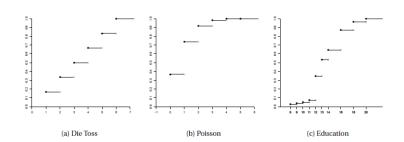
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Example-Probability function

Some examples for discrete variables.

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- ▷ An example of infinite countable random variable is the Poisson distribution, the probability mass function is

$$\pi(x) = \frac{e^{-1}}{x!}, x = 0, 1, \dots$$



Probabili

Events

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Continuous RVs

Moments

Distributio

conditional distribution

Independen Conditional

Expectation

distributi

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Continuous Random Variables

- The probability density function(p.d.f) area under the probability density function between any two points is the probability that the random variable falls between those two points.
 - \diamond the probability for a continous variable to take any value is 0.
 - definition is different from discrete random variables.
- ightharpoonup When F(x) is differentiable, the density function is $f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$.

Theorem 5 (Properties of density function)

A function f(x) is a density function if and only if

- $f(x) \ge 0 \forall x.$
- $\triangleright \int_0^\infty f(x)dx = 1.$

Continuous RVs

Example - Continuous Variables

▶ Uniform distribution. The CDF is

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

▶ Exponential distribution. The CDF is

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 - \exp(-x) & \text{if } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$$
. The PDF is
$$f(x) = \exp(-x), x \ge 0.$$

Reference

If X is a continuous random variable with the density function f(x), its expectation is defined as

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

when the integral is convergent.

The expectation of the function of X, g(X) is computed as

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx.$$

Some examples:

$$f(x) = 1 \text{ if } 0 \le x \le 1, \ \mathbb{E}(X) = \int_0^1 x f(x) = 0.5.$$

$$f(x) = \exp(-x) \text{ if } x \ge 0,$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_0^\infty x \exp(-x) dx = 1 \text{ (integration by part)}.$$

Moments

Mean, variance and Higher Moment

Suppose X is a random variable(either discrete or continous).

- \triangleright The **mean** of X is $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X)$.
- \triangleright The variance of X is $\sigma^2 = var(X) = \mathbb{E}((X \mathbb{E}(X))^2)$.
 - ♦ The **standard deviation** of X is the positive root of the variance. $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$.
- \triangleright The m-th moment of X is $\mu'_m=\mathbb{E}(X^m)$ and the m-th**central moment** of X is $\mu_m = \mathbb{E}((X - \mathbb{E}(X))^m)$.
 - \diamond The **skewness** of X is defined as *skewness* = $\frac{\mathbb{E}((X \mathbb{E}(X))^3)}{3}$. If the distribution is symmetric, the skewness is 0.
 - \diamond The **kurtosis** of X is defined as skewness = $\frac{\mathbb{E}((X \mathbb{E}(X))^4)}{\mathbb{E}(X)^4}$.

Probability

Hao

E....

Joint Events
Conditional and

Discrete RVs

Continuous RVs Moments

Multivariate Distributions

Marginal and conditional distributions

Independence

Conditional Expectation

Normal and related distributions

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

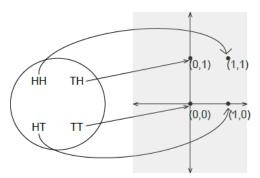
References

Bivariate random variables

A pair of **bivariate random variables** is a pair of numerical outcomes; a function from the sample space to \mathbb{R}^2 .

A pair of bivariate random variables are typically represented by a pair of uppercase Latin characters such as (X, Y). Specific values will be written by a pair of lower case characters, e.g. (x, y).

Figure: Tossing two coins



Probabili

Events

Joint Events Conditional and marginal probability

Discrete RVs

Continuous R¹ Moments

Multivariate Distributions

conditional distributions

Independent

Expectatio

related distribut

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Joint distribution functions

The **joint distribution function(Joint CDF)** of (X, Y) is defined as $F(x, y) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x, Y \le y) = \mathbb{P}(\{X \le x\} \cap \{Y \le y\}).$

- ▶ A pair of random variables is **discrete** if there is a discrete set $(P) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ such that $\mathbb{P}((X, Y) \in \mathscr{P}) = 1$.
 - ♦ The set \mathcal{P} is the support of (X, Y) and consists of a set of points in \mathbb{R}^2 .
 - ♦ The **joint probability mass function** is defined as $p(x, y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)$.
- ▷ The pair (X, Y) has a continuous distribution if the joint distribution function F(x, y) is **continuous** in (x, y).
 - \diamond When F(x,y) is continuous and differentiable its **joint density** (joint PDF) f(x,y) equals $f(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2 F(x,y)}{\partial x \partial y}$.

robabilit

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Joint Events
Conditional and

Random Variable

Discrete RVs

Moments

Multivariate Distributions

Marginal and conditional distributions

distributions

Conditional

Expectation

related distributions

distribution

Large-Sample

References

The **expected value** of real-valued g(X, Y) is

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X,Y)) = \sum_{(x,y)\in\mathbb{R}^2, \pi(x,y)>0} g(x,y)\pi(x,y),$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X,Y)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x,y) f(x,y) dx dy.$$

References

The marginal distribution (marginal CDF) of X is

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x, Y \le \infty) = \lim_{y \to \infty} F(x, y).$$

▶ In the continuous case,

$$F_X(x) = \lim_{y \to \infty} \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f(u, v) du dv = \int_{-\infty}^\infty \int_{-\infty}^x f(u, v) du dv.$$

The marginal densities (marginal PDF) of X is the derivative of the marginal CDF of X,

$$f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{x}f(u,v)dudv = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}f(x,y)dy.$$

robabili

Joint Events Conditional and

Discrete RVs

Continuous F Moments

Multivariate Distribution

Marginal and conditional distributions

Conditional

Normal ar

distribut

Samplin

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Conditional distributions I

The conditional cumulative distributions:

 \triangleright The **conditional distribution function** of Y given X = x is

$$F_{Y|X}(y|x) = \mathbb{P}(Y \le y|X = x)$$

for any x such that $\mathbb{P}(X = x) > 0$, If X has a discrete distribution.

 \triangleright For continous X, Y, the **conditional distribution** of Y given X = x is

$$F_{Y|X}(y|x) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \mathbb{P}(Y \le y|x - \epsilon \le X \le x + \epsilon).$$

The conditional density:

▶ For continuous variable (X, Y), the conditional density function (conditional PDF) is defined by $f_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{d}{dy} f_{Y|X}(y|x)$.

Probabili

Joint Events

Conditional and marginal probability

Discrete RVs
Continuous R

Multivariate Distribution

distributio

Independence

Conditional Expectation

Normal an

distribution

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

ightharpoonup Recall that two events A and B are independent if the probability that they both occur equals the product of their probabilities, thus $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$.

- ▷ Consider the events $A = \{X \le x\}$ and $B = \{Y \le y\}$.
- ▶ The probability that they both occur is $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x, Y \le y) = F(x, y).$
- $F(x,y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y) \text{ then } \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B).$
- ▶ The random variables X and Y are **statistically independent** if for all x, y, $F(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y)$.
- ▷ If X, Y have differentiable density function, X, Y are statistically independent if $f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$.
- ▶ The discrete random variables X and Y are **statistically** independent if for all $x, y, \pi(x, y) = \pi_X(x)\pi_Y(y)$.

Independence

 \triangleright If X, Y are independent and continuously distributed, then

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f(y),$$

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = f(x).$$

 \triangleright If X and Y are independent then for any functions, $g:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$ and $h: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbb{E}|g(X)| < \infty$ and $\mathbb{E}|h(Y)| < \infty$, then

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)h(Y)) = \mathbb{E}_X(g(X))\mathbb{E}_Y(h(Y)).$$

Random Variable

Discrete PVs

Continuous

.

Multivariate

Marginal and

distribution

Independence

Conditional

Expectation

related

distribution

Large-Sample Approximatio

References

Covariance and correlation I

 \triangleright If X and Y have finite variances, the **covariance** between X and Y is

$$cov(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}(X - \mathbb{E}(X))(Y - \mathbb{E}(Y))) = \mathbb{E}(XY) - \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y).$$

▶ The **correlation** between *X* and *Y* is

$$corr(X, Y) = \frac{cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{var(X)var(Y)}}.$$

Discrete RVs

Continuous R Moments

Distribution

Marginal and conditional

Independence

Conditions

Expectation

Normal an

distribut

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Covariance and correlation II

- ▷ If X and Y are independent with finite variances, then X and Y are uncorrelated.
 - \diamond The reverse is not true. For example, suppose that $X \sim U[-1,1]$. Since it is symmetrically distributed about 0 we see that $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[X^3] = 0$. Set $Y = X^2$. Then $cov(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}[X^3] \mathbb{E}[X^2]\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$. Thus X and Y are uncorrelated yet are fully dependent!
- ▷ If X and Y have finite variances, var(X + Y) = var(X) + var(Y) + 2cov(X, Y).
- \triangleright If X and Y are independent, var(X + Y) = var(X) + var(Y).

conditional distributions

Conditional

Expectation

related distribut

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Conditional Expectation

Just as the expectation is the central tendency of a distribution, the conditional expectation is the central tendency of a conditional distribution.

The conditional expectation(conditional mean) of Y given X = x is the expected value of the conditional distribution $F_{Y|X}(y|x)$ and is written as $\mathbb{E}(Y|X=x)$.

▶ For discrete random variables, it is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|X=x) = \frac{\sum_{y} y \pi(x,y)}{\pi_X(x)}.$$

▶ For continuous random variables, it is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X=x] = \frac{\int_{y} y f(x,y)}{f_{X}(x)}.$$

Probabilit

Probabili

Joint Events Conditional and

Random Variable

Discrete RVs

Moments

Multivariat

Distribution

conditional

Independen

Conditional

Expectation

related

C

Large-Sample Approximation

Distributions

References

Law of Iterated Expectations I

- ▷ Consider $m(X) = \mathbb{E}[Y|X]$ a transformation of X.
- \triangleright We can take expectation with respect to m(X)

Theorem 6 (Law of Iterated Expectations(LIE)) If $\mathbb{E}[Y] < \infty$, then $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Y|X]] = \mathbb{E}[Y]$.

Probabilit

Joint Events

Conditional and marginal probability

Discrete RVs Continuous RV

Multivariate Distribution

Marginal and conditional distributions

Independence

Expectation

Normal and related distributions

Samplin

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Definition 7 (Standard Normal Dist.)

A random variable Z has the **standard normal distribution**, write $Z \sim N(0,1)$, if it has the density

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{x^2}{2}), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Note the standard normal density is typically written as $\phi(x)$. The CDF does not have closed form but is written as $\Phi(x)$. If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $\sigma > 0$ then X has the density

$$f(x|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

andom Variable

Discrete RVs

Moments

Multivariat

Distribution

Marginal and conditional

distributions

Conditional

Expectation

Normal and related distributions

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

Multivariate Normal I

Let Z_1, \ldots, Z_m be i.i.d N(0,1). The joint density is the product of the marginal densities:

$$f(x_1, ..., x_m) = f(x_1) ... f(x_m)$$

= $\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{m/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^2\right)$.

Kandom Variable

Continuous F

Multivariate Distribution

Marginal and conditional distributions

Independenc Conditional

Normal and

Normal and related distributions

Samplin

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Multivariate Normal II

Let $\mathbf{Z} = [Z_1, \dots, Z_m]^{\top}$ be an m-component random vector following standard normal distribution $\mathbf{Z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I}_m)$ and $\mathbf{X} = \mu + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Z}$ for $q \times m$ matrix \mathbf{B} , then \mathbf{X} has the **multivariate normal distribution**, written as $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$, where $\Sigma = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^{\top}$. The PDF of \mathbf{X} is given by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{q/2} (\det \Sigma)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)}{2}\right).$$

References

Multivariate Normal III

Properties of multivariate normal distributions.

- 1. Any linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_m is normally distributed.
- 2. The marginal distribution of each random variable is normal.
- 3. If the covariance of X_1 and X_2 is 0, then X_1 and X_2 are independent. The reverse is true.
- 4. If X_1 and X_2 are normally distributed with the joint density of $f(x_1, x_2)$, then the marginal expectation of X_1 given X_2 is a linear function of X_2 : $\mathbb{E}[X_1|X_2=x_2]=a+bx_2$.

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Discrete RVs Continuous R

Multivariate

Marginal and conditional distributions

Conditional

Normal and related distributions

Samplin

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

χ -squared, t and F distribution

- ▶ The chi-squared distribution is the distribution of the sum of m squared independent standard normal distributed variables.
- ▶ Let $\mathbf{Z} \sim N(0, \mathbf{I}_m)$ be multivariate standard normal, then $\mathbf{Z}^{\top}\mathbf{Z} \sim \chi_m^2$.
- ightarrow If $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathit{N}(0, \Sigma)$ with Σ positive definite, then $\mathbf{X}^{ op} \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{X} \sim \chi_{\mathit{m}}^2$.
- ightarrow Let $Q_m\sim\chi_m^2$ and $Q_r\sim\chi_r^2$ be independent. Then $rac{Q_m/m}{Q_r/r}\sim F_{m,r}$.
- ▶ Let $Z \sim N(0,1)$ and $Q_m \sim \chi_m^2$ be independent, then $\frac{Z}{\sqrt{Q_m/m}}$ follows the t-distribution with m degree of freedom, t_m .

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Joint Events Conditional and

ndom Variable

Discrete RVs

Continuous R

Multivariat

Marginal and

distribution

Independen

Expectation Expectation

related distribution

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

Almost all the statistical and econometric procedures used in this text involve averages or weighted averages of a sample of data.

- ▶ Characterizing the distributions of sample averages.
- ▶ The act of random sampling is a random variable, its distribution is **sampling distribution**.

Events

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Random Variables

Continuous

Moments

Multivariate Distribution

Marginal and conditional distributions

distributions Independence

Conditional Expectation

related distribution

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

Sampling II

- 1. **Simple random sampling**. e.g. A commuting student record daily traffic time.
- 2. **i.i.d. draws**. e.g. Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are randomly drawn from the same population.

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Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Random Variab

Discrete RVs Continuous R

Multivariate

Marginal and conditional distributions

Independence

Conditiona Expectatio

Samplin

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling Distributions

References

Definition 8 (independent and identically distributed(i.i.d))

The collection of random vectors $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ are **independent and identically distributed(i.i.d)** if they are mutually independent with identical marginal distributions.

- ▷ A collection of random vectors $\{X_1, ..., X_n\}$ is a **random** sample from the population F if X_i are i.i.d with distribution F.
- ▶ The distribution F is called the population distribution. We refer to the distribution as the data generating process(DGP).
- \triangleright The **sample size** n is the number of individuals in the sample.

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Events

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Random Variable

Discrete RVs

Continuous

Moments

Multivariat Distribution

Marginal an

distributions

Independent

Conditiona

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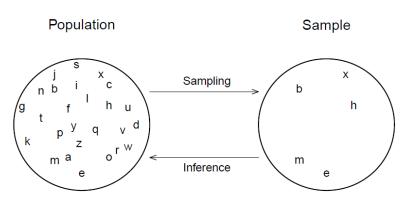
Sampling

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

References

i.i.d II

Figure: Sampling and Inference



Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling

Distributions

There are two approaches to characterizing sampling distributions:

- 1. the exact approach derives: the exact distribution or finite-sample distribution of Y.
- 2. the approximate approach uses approximations to the sampling distribution that rely on the sample size being large, often called the asymptotic distribution.

Probabilit

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Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Discrete RVs

Continuous R' Moments

Multivariate Distribution

conditional distributions

Conditional Expectation

Normal and

distribution

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling Distributions

References

Two useful tools when the sample size is large: **the law of large numbers** and the **central limit theorem**.

- ▶ The law of large numbers says that when the sample size is large, \bar{Y} will be close to μ_Y with very high probability.
- ▶ The central limit theorem says that when the sample size is large, the sampling distribution of the standardized sample average, $(\bar{Y} \mu_Y)/\sigma_{\bar{Y}}$, is approximately normal.

Probabili

Event

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probabili

Random Variable

Continuous R Moments

Multivariate Distribution

Marginal and conditional distributions

Conditional

Expectation

distribut

Sampling

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling Distributions

References

- \triangleright The sample average, \bar{Y} , varies from one randomly chosen sample to the next and thus is a random variable with a sampling distribution. If Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are i.i.d., then
- \triangleright the sampling distribution of Y has mean μ_Y and variance $\sigma_{\bar{Y}}^2 = \sigma_Y^2/n.$
- by the central limit theorem says that the standardized version of \bar{Y} , $(\bar{Y} \mu_Y)/\sigma_{\bar{Y}}$, has a standard normal distribution N(0,1) distribution. when n is large.

Probability

Events

Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probability

Random Variable

Discrete RVs

Manage

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Distribution

Marginal an

distributions

Independen

Expectation

related

distribution

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling

Distributions
References

▷ A sequence of random variables $Z_n \in \mathbb{R}$ converges in **probability** to c as $n \to \infty$, denoted by $Z_n \to_p c$ or $plim_{n\to\infty}Z_n = c$, if for all $\delta > 0$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}(|Z_n-c|\leq\delta)=1.$$

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling Distributions

Theorem 9 (Weak Law of Large Numbers(WLLN))

If X_i are i.i.d. and $\mathbb{E}(X) < \infty$, then as $n \to \infty$,

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \to_p \mathbb{E}(X).$$

An estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of a parameter θ is **consistent** if $\hat{\theta} \to_p \theta$ as $n \to \infty$.

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Probabilit

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Joint Events
Conditional and

Random Variable

Discrete R

Momente

Multivariat

Distribution

conditional

distribution

Conditions

Expectatio

Normal an

distribution

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling Distributions

References

Continuous Mapping Theorem

Theorem 10 (Continuous Mapping Theorem)

If $Z_n \to_p c$ as $n \to \infty$ and $h(\cdot)$ is continuous at c then $h(Z_n) \to_p h(c)$ as $n \to \infty$.

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling Distributions

Theorem 11 (Central Limit Theorem(CLT))

If X_i are i.i.d. and $\mathbb{E}(X^2) < \infty$ then as $n \to \infty$

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-\mu)\to_d N(0,\sigma^2),$$

where $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X)$ and $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]$.

Probabilit

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Joint Events

Conditional and
marginal probabilit

Random Variable

Discrete RVs

Continuou

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Distribution

Marginal and conditional

distributions

Independent

Conditional

Expectation

distribution

Sampli

Large-Sample Approximations to Sampling Distributions

References

Theorem 12 (Slutsky's Theorem)

If $Z_n \rightarrow_d Z$ and $c_n \rightarrow_p c$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then

1.
$$Z_n + c_n \rightarrow_d Z + c$$

2.
$$Z_n c_n \rightarrow_d Z_c$$

3.
$$\frac{Z_n}{c_n} \rightarrow_d \frac{Z}{c}$$
 if $c \neq 0$.

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Joint Events
Conditional and

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Discrete RVs

Moments

Multivariat

Distribution

conditional distributions

Independenc

Conditional Expectation

Normal and related

distribution

Large-Sample Approximation to Sampling

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