Linear Models Lecture 1

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May 29, 2023

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Probability Rules Random Variables Expectation Variance Distributions Joint Dist. Covariance Conditional Prob. LIE Stats

Goals

- We will be modeling data.
 - Summarizing complex data with less complicated formula (data reduction).
 - Drawing inferences about causal processes.
 - Making predictions.
- To do so, we will either
 - Make direct assumptions about the way the data was generated.
 - Use statistical theory to approximate the way the data was generated.
- In both cases, we use random variables called 'statistics', their distributions and their relations.
- Today we review the mathematics of random variables, their distributions, and their summaries.

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Basic Ideas of Probability

Probability models random phenomenon with three ingredients:

- 1) **Sample space**: {all possible outcomes of a random process}
- 2) **Events**: {subsets of all possible outcomes of a random process}
- 3) **Probability Law**: a function $P(\cdot)$ which gives the relative chance of an event, a non-negative number.

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Founder of Axiomatic Probability



Kolmogorov (1933).

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Sample Spaces: All Things that Can Happen

Definition

The sample space is the set of all things that can occur. This set is often referred to by the symbol Ω or S.

Examples:

- 1) Discrete: The outcome of two dice
 - $-\Omega = \{ \bullet \bullet, \bullet \bullet, \ldots, \bullet \bullet \bullet \}$
- 2) Continuous: Value of a house
 - $\Omega = \{t : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- 3) Continuous: Survival of Monarch

-
$$Ω = {t : 0 ≤ t ≤ 120}$$

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Probability Law

- Probability: chance of event.
 - A function $P:\Omega\to[0,1]$
 - Describes relative likelihood of events.
- Given an event A, P(A) quantifies the chance it occurs.
- Let $E = \{x : x \in (a, b)\}$ be an event.

$$P(E) = \int_{x \in E} f_X(x) dx$$

where $f_X(x)$ is the *probability density function*, e.g.

- Normal distribution: dnorm(x, μ , sd)
 - t distribution: dt(x, df)
 - F distribution: df(x, df1, df2)
- Note: the probability of continuous events are only positive for *intervals*.

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Example: Candidate heights

■ What is the probability a male candidate would be at least 72 inches tall by chance?

$$\Omega = \{h : 20 \le h \le 108\}, \quad E = \{h : 72 \le h \le 108\}$$

■ Male heights are close to a normal distribution with mean (μ) 70 inches with a standard deviation (σ) of 3 inches.

$$f_H(h) = dnorm(h, \mu = 70, sd = 3)$$

$$P(E) = \int_{72}^{108} f_H(h)dh$$

= integrate(dnorm, lower = 72, upper = 108, mean = 70, sd = 3) = .252

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Aside on Calculating integrals

- In R there is a function pnorm(x) that calculates the integral of the normal distribution from $-\infty$ to x.
- We can then rewrite our problem in terms of these functions.

$$P(E) = \int_{72}^{108} f_H(h)dh$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{108} f_H(h)dh - \int_{-\infty}^{72} f_H(h)dh$$

$$= F(H \le 108) - F(H \le 72) \quad \text{where } F() \text{ is the anti-derivative of } f()$$

$$= pnorm(108, 70, 3) - pnorm(72, 70, 3)$$

$$= 1 - 0.747$$

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Example: Short and Tall

■ What is the probability a male candidate would either at least 72 inches tall or below 65 inches?

$$E_{1} = \{h : 72 \le h \le 108\}$$

$$E_{2} = \{h : 20 \le h \le 65\}$$

$$E = E_{1} \cup E_{2}$$

$$P(E) = P(E_{1} \cup E_{2}) = P(E_{1}) + P(E_{2}) - P(E_{1} \cap E_{2})$$

$$P(E_{1} \cup E_{2}) = \int_{20}^{65} f_{H}(h)dh + \int_{72}^{108} f_{H}(h)dh - 0$$

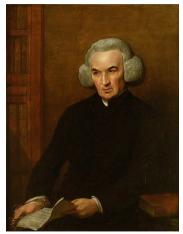
$$= [F(H \le 65) - F(H \le 20)] + 0.25$$

$$= [pnorm(65, 70, 3) - 0] + 0.25$$

$$= .048 + 0.25$$

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Formalizer of Bayes' Rule



Price (1784).

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Definition of Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of an event A given an event B is given by:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
 for all $P(B) \neq 0$

 $P(A \cap B)$ is called the joint probability.

We can rearrange this to form the "Multiplication Rule":

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$

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Examples of Conditional probability

If A is Trump runs again, and B is the event that Trump wins:

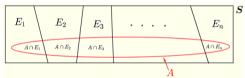
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B)}{P(B)} = 1$$

$$P(B|A^c) = \frac{P(B \cap A^c)}{P(A^c)} = \frac{0}{P(A^c)} = 0$$

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Law of Total Probability

- E_1 , E_2 are mutually exclusive if $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$
- If a given set of mutually exclusive events, $E_1, E_2, E_3 \dots E_n$, their union forms the sample space Ω we say $E_1, E_2, E_3 \dots E_n$ partitions the sample space.



Divide and conquer: turn big problem into small problems:

Theorem

Law of Total Probability: Given such a partition, the probability of any event A is:

$$P(A) = P(A|E_1)P(E_1) + P(A|E_2)P(E_2) + ... + P(A|E_n)P(E_n)$$

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Proof of Law of Total Probability

Proof.

$$P(A) = P(A \cap \Omega)$$
 because $A \subseteq \Omega$
$$P(A) = P(A \cap (E_1 \cup E_2 \cup ... \cup E_n))$$
 E partitions Ω
$$P(A) = P((A \cap E_1) \cup (A \cap E_2) \cup ... \cup (A \cap E_n))$$
 Distributive Law
$$P(A) = P(A \cap E_1) + P(A \cap E_2) + ... + P(A \cap E_n)$$

$$E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$$

$$P(A) = P(A|E_1)P(E_1) + P(A|E_2)P(E_2) + ... + P(A|E_n)P(E_n)$$
 multiplication rule

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Independence

Definition

Suppose we have two events E_1 , E_2 . We say these events are independent if:

$$P(E_1 \cap E_2) = P(E_1)P(E_2)$$

- To discover the systematic component of the experiment, we need to make assumptions about what affects what.
- The most important assumption is the notion of independence.

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Independence and Information

Does one event provide information about another event?

Definition

If B does not change the probability that A occurs, A is independent of B.

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

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

Independence is symmetric: if F is independent of E, then E is independent of F

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Conditional Independence

Definition

Let E_1 and E_2 be two events. We will say that the events are conditionally independent given E_3 if

$$P(E_1 \cap E_2|E_3) = P(E_1|E_3)P(E_2|E_3)$$

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Amusement Park Example

- There is a strong correlation between child height and literacy (a spurious relationship).
- Suppose there is an Amusement Park popular with 1st graders (6-7 year olds).
- Can we rely on the children understanding this sign?



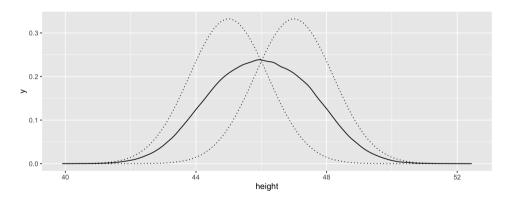
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Statistical Model of Height and Literacy

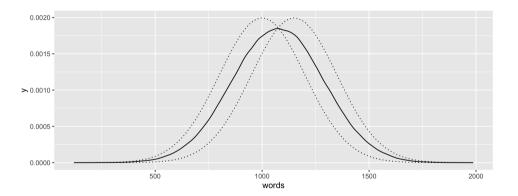
- x is the height of a child where $f(x) = N(\mu = 33 + z * 2, s = 1.2)$.
- *y* is # words the child knows $f(y) = N(\mu = 100 + z * 150, s = 200)$.
- lacksquare z is the child's age, where $f(z) = \begin{cases} 6 \text{ with probability } 1/2 \\ 7 \text{ with probability } 1/2 \end{cases}$
- The probability that a first grader can read the "you must be this tall sign" and is at least 48" tall:

$$P(A \cap B)$$
 where $A = \{x : x > 48\}, B = \{y : y > 1400\}$

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Using Law of Total Probability

$$A = \{x : x > 48\}$$

$$P(A) = P(A|Z = 6) * P(Z = 6) + P(A|Z = 7) * P(Z = 7)$$
 (Law of Total Probability)
$$= \left[\int_{48}^{\infty} \phi(x|45, 1.2) dx \right] * P(Z = 6) + \left[\int_{48}^{\infty} \phi(x|47, 1.2) dx \right] * P(Z = 7)$$

$$= (1 - pnorm(48, 45, 1.2)) * 1/2 + (1 - pnorm(48, 47, 1.2)) * 1/2$$

$$= 0.104$$

By similar reasoning, $B = \{y : y > 1400\}, P(B) = .06.$

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Using conditional independence

We know height and literacy are conditionally independent.

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A \cap B|Z = 6)P(Z = 6) + P(A \cap B|Z = 7)P(Z = 7)$$

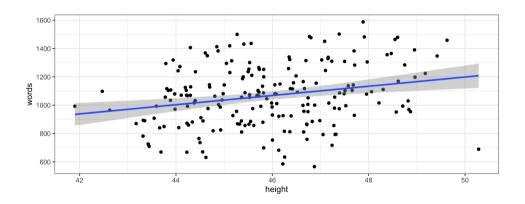
$$= P(A|Z = 6)P(B|Z = 6)P(Z = 6) + P(A|Z = 7)P(B|Z = 7)P(Z = 7)$$

$$= (1 - pnorm(48, 45, 1.2)) * (1 - pnorm(1400, 1000, 200)) * 1/2 +$$

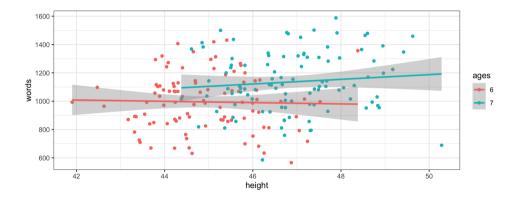
$$(1 - pnorm(48, 47, 1.2)) * (1 - pnorm(1400, 1150, 200)) * 1/2$$

$$= .01$$

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	DV: height	
	(1)	(2)
words	0.002*** (0.001)	0.0002 (0.0004)
ages		1.976*** (0.183)
Constant	44*** (0.552)	32.8*** (1.130)
Observations R ²	200 0.057	200 0.407

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Random Variables

Given a sample space Ω , and a probability law P:

Definition

A random variable is a function that assigns real numbers (usually) to events in a sample space Ω .

$$X(\omega):\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$$

Connecting random variables to probability

X assigns some numbers to events.

$$X(\omega):\Omega o \mathbb{R}$$

Remember, probability assigns a chance to an event.

$$P(\omega):\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$$

• What are the probabilities associated with $X(\omega)$?

Cumulative Distribution Function: F(x)

Random variables are characterized by cumulative distribution functions.

Definition

Cumulative Distribution function. For a continuous random variable X define its cumulative distribution function $F(\cdot)$ as,

$$F(x) = P(\omega : X(\omega) \le x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t)dt$$

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PDFs, CDFs, OLS



Gauss (1809)

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Probability Density Function: f(x)

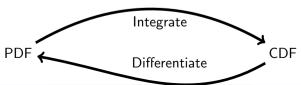
Definition

If X is a continuous random variable, the probability density function of X is the function $f_X(x)$ that satisfies

$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$$

$$= P(X \in (-\infty, x))$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{x} f_X(t)dt \quad x \in \mathbf{R}$$



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Example: continuous uniform

Definition

Y has a uniform distribution on the interval (a, b) if

$$f_Y(y) = egin{cases} rac{1}{b-a} & \textit{if } a \leq y \leq b \\ 0 & \textit{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$F_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b < y \\ \frac{y-a}{b-a} & \text{if } a < y < b \\ 0 & \text{if } y < a \end{cases}$$

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Example: Uniform

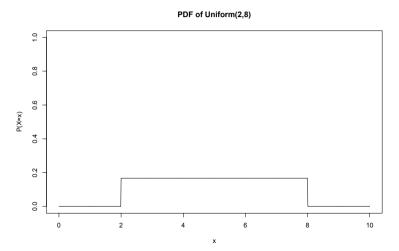
Example: Suppose that we are waiting for Comcast to show up and install our cable package. They say that they may arrive between 2:00 and 8:00. Without any further information, you may have no reason to suspect any particular time over any other.

$$X \sim U(2,8)$$

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Example: PDF of continuous uniform



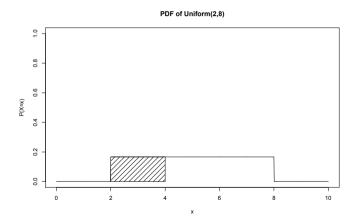
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Example: continuous uniform

What is the probability that the cable installation truck arrives before 4:00?

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Example: CDF of continuous uniform $(P(X \le 4))$



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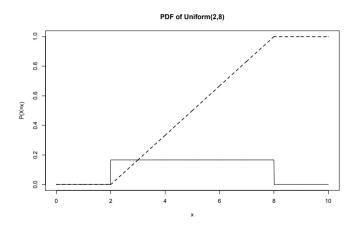
Example: continuous uniform

$$P(Y \le y) = \int_{x = -\infty}^{y} f(x)dx = \int_{x = -\infty}^{y} \frac{1}{b - a} dx = \int_{x = a}^{y} \frac{1}{b - a} dx$$
$$\frac{y}{b - a} - \frac{a}{b - a} = \frac{y - a}{b - a}$$
$$= \frac{4 - 2}{8 - 2}$$

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Probability Rules Random Variables Expectation Variance Distributions Joint Dist. Covariance Conditional Prob. LIE Stats

Example: continuous uniform



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Definition of Expectation

What can we expect from a trial?

The expectation is the **value** of random variable weighted by the **probability** of observing that outcome.

Definition

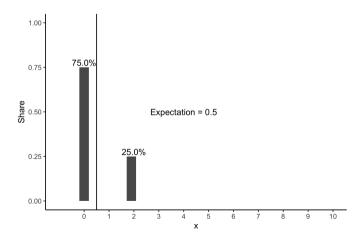
Expected Value: define the expected value of a function X as,

$$E[X] = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} xp(x)$$
 when x is discrete
$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$$
 when x is continuous

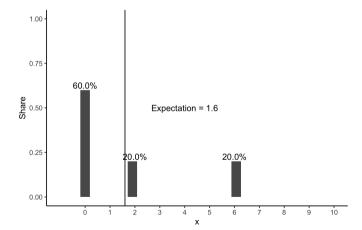
In words: for all values of x with p(x) greater than zero, take the sum/integral of values times weights.

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$$E(X) = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} x * p(x) = 0 * .75 + 2 * .25 = \frac{1}{2}$$

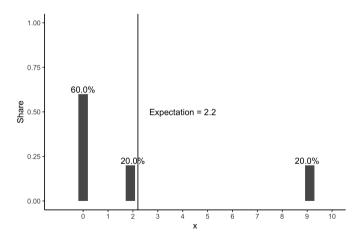


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$$E(X) = \sum_{x:p(x)>0} x * p(x) = 0 * .6 + 2 * .2 + 9 * .2 = 2.2$$



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Expectation Properties

$$E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$

$$E[a] = a$$

$$E[aX] = aE[X]$$

$$E[E[X]] = E[X]$$

$$E[XY] \neq E[X] \times E[Y]$$

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Properties of the Expectation

$$E[a] = a$$

Proof: Suppose Y is a random variable such that Y = a with probability 1 and Y = 0 otherwise:

$$E[Y] = \sum_{y:p(y)>0} yp(y)$$

= $ap(Y = a) + 0 * p(Y = 0)$
= $a * 1 + 0$
= a

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Justification of Expectation

If we want to predict y with no other information, and our prediction is called π , one standard for prediction is to minimize the mean-square error:

$$M = \int (y - \pi)^2 f(y) dy$$

$$= E[(y - \pi)^2]$$

$$= E[y^2 - 2\pi y + \pi^2]$$

$$= E[y^2] - E[2\pi y] + E[\pi^2]$$

$$= E[y^2] - 2\pi E[y] + \pi^2$$

Using calculus to minimize:

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial \pi} = -2E[y] + 2\pi$$
$$\pi = E[y]$$

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Suppose $X \sim Uniform(3,5)$. What is E[X]?

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

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{3} x0dx + \int_{3}^{5} x\frac{1}{5-3}dx + \int_{5}^{\infty} x0dx$$

$$= 0 + \frac{x^{2}}{4}|_{3}^{5} + 0$$

$$= 0 + 5^{2}/4 - 3^{2}/4 + 0$$

$$= 4$$

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Corollary

Suppose X is a continuous random variable. Then,

$$E[aX + b] = aE[X] + b$$

Proof.

$$E[aX + b] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (ax + b)f(x)dx$$
$$= a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx + b \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx$$
$$= aE[X] + b \times 1$$



Second Moment: Variance

Expected value is a measure of central tendency.

What about spread? Variance

- For each value, we might measure distance from center
 - Distance, squared $d(x, E[x])^2 = (x E[x])^2$
- Then we might take weighted average of these distances by taking an expectation.

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Two formulas for Variance

$$E[(X - E[X])^{2}] = \sum_{x} (x - E[X])^{2} p(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x} (x^{2} - E[X]x - xE[X] + E[X]^{2}) p(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x} (x^{2} - 2E[X]x + E[X]^{2}) p(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x} x^{2} p(x) - \sum_{x} 2xE[X]p(x) + \sum_{x} E[X]^{2} p(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x} x^{2} p(x) - 2E[X] \sum_{x} xp(x) + \sum_{x} E[X]^{2} p(x)$$

$$= E[X^{2}] - 2E[X]^{2} + E[X]^{2}$$

$$= E[X^{2}] - E[X]^{2} = Var(X)$$

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Definition of Variance

Definition

The variance of a random variable X, var(X), is

$$var(X) = E[(X - E[X])^{2}]$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])^{2} f(x) dx$$

$$= E[X^{2}] - E[X]^{2}$$

- We will define the standard deviation of X, $sd(X) = \sqrt{var(X)}$
- $var(X) \geq 0$.
- We use σ^2 to indicate variance.

Variance Corollary

Corollary

$$Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$$

Proof: Define
$$Y = aX + b$$
. We know that $Var(Y) = E[(Y - E[Y])^2]$.
$$= E[((aX + b) - E[aX + b])^2]$$

$$= E[((aX + b) - (aE[X] + b))^2]$$

$$= E[(aX - aE[X])^2]$$

$$= E[(a^2X^2 - 2a^2XE[X] + a^2E[X]^2)]$$

$$= a^2E[X^2] - 2a^2E[X]^2 + a^2E[X]^2$$

$$= a^2(E[X^2] - E[X]^2)$$

$$= a^2Var(X)$$

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Often the sample (co)variance appears in an alternative form:

$$\widehat{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i^2 - \bar{x}x_i - x_i\bar{x} + \bar{x}\bar{x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i^2 - \bar{x}\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i - \bar{x}\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \bar{x}\bar{x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i^2 - \bar{x}\frac{1}{N} N\bar{x} - \bar{x}\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i + \bar{x}\bar{x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i^2 - \bar{x}\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i$$

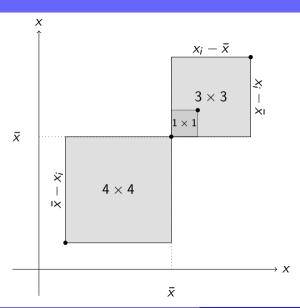
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})x_i$$

$$(\bar{x}\bar{x} \text{ cancel})$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})x_i$$

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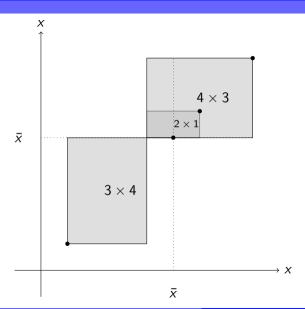


$$\widehat{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})$$

$$= \frac{(-4*-4) + (1*1) + (3*3)}{4}$$

$$= \frac{26}{4}$$

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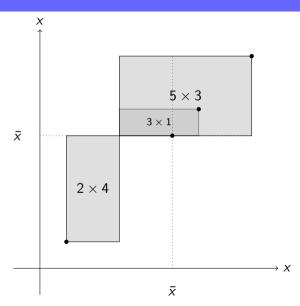


$$\widehat{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - (\bar{x} - 1))$$

$$= \frac{(-4 * -3) + (1 * 2) + (3 * 4)}{4}$$

$$= \frac{26}{4}$$

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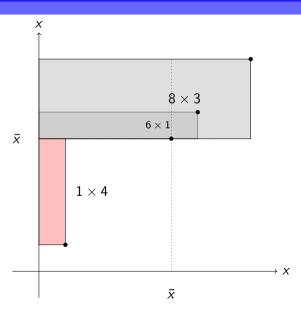


$$\widehat{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - (\bar{x} - 2))$$

$$= \frac{(-4 * -2) + (1 * 3) + (3 * 5)}{4}$$

$$= \frac{26}{4}$$

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$$\widehat{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - (\bar{x} - \bar{x}))$$

$$\widehat{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i)$$

$$= \frac{(-4 * 1) + (1 * 6) + (3 * 8)}{4}$$

$$= \frac{26}{4}$$

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Example of Variance: Uniform

 $X \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)$. What is Var(X)?

$$E[X^{2}] = \int_{0}^{1} X^{2} \frac{1}{1 - 0} dx = \frac{X^{3}}{3} \Big|_{0}^{1}$$
$$= \frac{1}{3}$$
$$E[X]^{2} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}$$

$$Var(X) = E[X^{2}] - E[X]^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{12}$$

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Named Distributions: Normal

Definition

Suppose X is a random variable with $X \in \mathbf{R}$ and probability density function

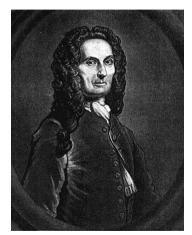
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Then X is a normally distributed random variable with parameters μ and σ^2 . Equivalently, we'll write

$$X \sim Normal(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

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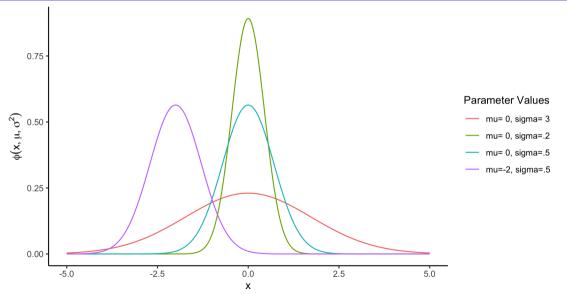
Discoverer of Normal Distribution



De Moivre (1711)

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Named Distributions: χ^2

Definition

Suppose X is a continuous random variable with $X \geq 0$, with PDF

$$f(x) = g(n/2)x^{n/2-1}e^{-x/2}$$

Then we will say X is a χ^2 distribution with n degrees of freedom. Equivalently,

$$X \sim \chi^2(n)$$

 $X = \sum_{i=1}^{N} Z^2$, where $Z \sim N(0,1)$

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Chi-Squares, p-values, histograms



Pearson (1901)

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Student's t-Distribution

Definition

Suppose $Z \sim Normal(0,1)$ and $U \sim \chi^2(n)$. Define the random variable Y as,

$$Y = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{U}{n}}}$$

If Z and U are independent then $Y \sim t(n)$, with PDF

$$f(x) = h(n) \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{-\frac{n+1}{2}}$$

We will use the t-distribution extensively for test-statistics

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Using the t-Distribution

Suppose we take N iid draws,

$$X \sim \mathsf{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

Define our data set $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$ Calculate:

$$egin{aligned} ar{x} &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} rac{x_i}{N} \ s^2 &= rac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - ar{x})^2 \ t &= rac{ar{x} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{N}} \ t &\sim \mathit{Student's} \ t(N-1) \end{aligned}$$

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Example

10 measurements from a normally distributed x to test whether $\mu = 80$.

Step 1: Calculate the sample mean,

$$\bar{x} = \frac{83 + 93 + 147 + 102 + 104 + 151 + 114 + 62 + 79 + 87}{10} = 102.2$$

Step 2: Calculate the sample standard deviation,

$$s^2 = \frac{\left(-19.2^2 + -9.2^2 + 44.8^2 - 0.2^2 + 1.8^2 + 48.8^2 + 11.8^2 - 40.2^2 - 23.2^2 - 15.2^2\right)}{9} = 818.8$$

Step 3: Calculate test statistic,

$$t = \frac{102.2 - H_0}{\frac{\sqrt{818.8}}{\sqrt{10}}}, \quad \frac{102.2 - 80}{\frac{\sqrt{818.8}}{\sqrt{10}}} = 2.4533$$

Step 4: Calculate p-value,

$$2*(1-pt(2.4533,9))=.0365$$

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Joint PDFs

If we want to know the probability of a set of joint events $(x, y) \in A$

$$P((X,Y) \in A) = \int_{y \in A} \int_{x \in A} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dxdy$$

We can also calculate the PDFs of X and Y individually (these are the marginal distributions):

$$f_X(x) = \int_y f_{X,Y}(x,y)dy, \qquad f_Y(y) = \int_x f_{X,Y}(x,y)dx$$

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Example of Joint Probability Density: Roof

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = x + y$$
, for $x, y \in [0,1]$

the marginal densities $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$ are

$$f_X(x) = \int_0^1 (x+y)dy = xy + \frac{y^2}{2}|_0^1 = x + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$f_Y(y) = \int_0^1 (x+y)dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + yx|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} + y$$

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Example of Joint Probability Density: Quarter Circle

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = 3/2$$
 for $x^2 \le y \le 1$ and $0 \le x \le 1$

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy = \int_{x^2}^{1} \frac{3}{2} dy$$
$$= \frac{3}{2} y \Big|_{x^2}^{1} = \frac{3}{2} (1 - x^2)$$
$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx = \int_{0}^{\sqrt{y}} \frac{3}{2} dx$$
$$= \frac{3}{2} x \Big|_{0}^{\sqrt{y}} = \frac{3}{2} \sqrt{y}$$

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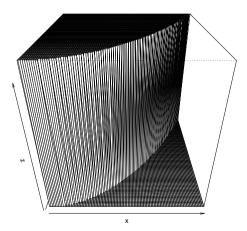
Plotting the Quarter Circle Distribution

```
x <- seq(0, 1, 0.01)

y <- seq(0, 1, 0.01)

z <- outer(x, y, function(x, y){ ifelse(y> <math>x^2, 2/3,0)})

persp(x, y, z)
```



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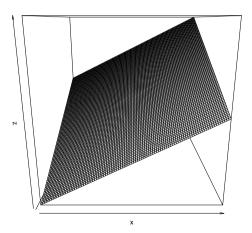
Plotting the Roof Distribution f(x, y) = x + y

```
x <- seq(0, 1, 0.01)

y <- seq(0, 1, 0.01)

z <- outer(x, y, function(x, y){ x + y })

persp(x, y, z)
```



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Covariance

Definition

For jointly continuous random variables X and Y define, the covariance of X and Y as,

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]$$

$$= E[XY - E[X]Y - E[Y]X + E[X]E[Y]]$$

$$= E[XY] - 2E[X]E[Y] + E[E[X]E[Y]]$$

$$= E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

Note,
$$E[XY] = \int_{X} \int_{Y} xyf(x, y) dydx$$

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Correlation

Definition

Define the correlation of X and Y as,

$$Cor(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$

Covariance facts

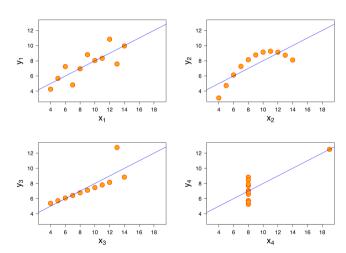
Variance is the covariance of a random variable with itself.

$$Cov(X,X) = E[XX] - E[X]E[X]$$
$$= E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

Correlation measures the linear relationship between two random variables

$$E(XY) = \sigma_{XY} + \mu_X \mu_Y$$
$$E(X^2) = \sigma_X^2 + \mu_X^2$$

Correlation = .816



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Correlation and Covariance

Suppose
$$X = Y$$

$$Cor(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$
$$= \frac{Var(X)}{Var(X)}$$
$$= 1$$

Suppose
$$X = -Y$$

$$Cor(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$
$$= \frac{-Var(X)}{Var(X)}$$
$$= -1$$

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Example covariance X, Y: f(x, y) = X + Y

Suppose X and Y have joint probability distribution x + y for $x, y \in [0, 1]$.

$$E[XY] = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy(x+y)dxdy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2y + y^2x)dxdy$$

$$= \int_0^1 (\frac{x^3y}{3} + \frac{y^2x^2}{2}|_0^1)dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 (\frac{y}{3} + \frac{y^2}{2})dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$E[X] = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x(x+y)dxdy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \frac{x^3}{3} + y\frac{x^2}{2}|_0^1 dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 (\frac{1}{3} + \frac{y}{2})dy$$

$$= \frac{y}{3} + \frac{y^2}{4}|_0^1$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{7}{12}$$

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Example: X + Y

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} - \frac{7}{12} * \frac{7}{12}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} - \frac{49}{144} = -\frac{1}{144}$$

$$Cor(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$
$$= \frac{-\frac{1}{144}}{\frac{11}{144}}$$
$$= \frac{-1}{11}$$

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Conditional Probability Distribution Function

Definition

Suppose X and Y are random variables with joint PDF f(x, y). Then define the conditional probability distribution f(x|y) as

$$f(x|y) = \frac{f(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}$$
$$f(x|y)f_Y(y) = f(x,y)$$

Examples of Conditional Distributions (roof)

Roof Distribution:

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

 $f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_{Y}(y)} = \frac{x+y}{\frac{1}{2}+y}$

Quarter circle distribution:

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = 3/2$$
 for $y^2 \le x \le 1$ and $0 < y < 1$
 $f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_{Y}(y)} = \frac{3/2}{\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{y}}$

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Conditional Expectation

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \int y \cdot f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy$$

 $\mathbb{E}(Y|X)$ is the *best* way to predict Y given X.

Example of Conditional Expectation

$$E(Y|X) = \int_0^1 y f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy$$

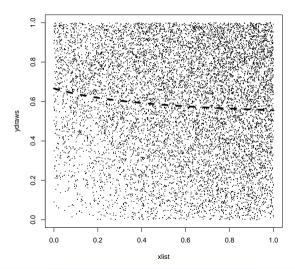
$$= \int_0^1 y \left(\frac{x+y}{\frac{1}{2}+x}\right) dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{x+\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^1 y(x+y) dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{x+\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{y^2 x}{2} + \frac{y^3}{3}\right) \Big|_0^1$$

$$= \frac{2+3x}{3+6x}$$

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Height (X) and Age (Z): Covariance

We said the height of a child is distributed $f(x) = N(\mu = 33 + z * 2, s = 1.2)$. Recall f(x, z) = f(x|z)f(z) and that f(x) = f(x|z = 6).5 + f(x|z = 7).5Cov(x, z) = E[xz] - E[x]E[z] from definition $= \sum \int xzf(x,z)dx - \int xf(x)\sum zf(z)$ $= (\int x * 6f(x|z=6)f(z=6)dx + \int x * 7f(x|z=7)f(z=7)dx) - 46 * 6.5$ $= (\int x * 6f(x|z=6).5dx + \int x * 7f(x|z=7).5dx) - 46 * 6.5$ $= 3 * \int xf(x|z=6)dx + 3.5 * \int xf(x|z=7)dx) - 46 * 6.5$ = (3*45+3.5*47) - 46*6.5 = 299.5 - 299= 0.5

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Height (X) and Age (Z): Covariance

Given

$$f(x) = N(\mu = 33 + z * 2, s = 1.2)$$

 $Var(Z) = p * (1 - p) = .25$

Then

$$\frac{Cov(x,z)}{var(z)} = .5/.25 = 2$$

$$E(X|Z) = 33 + z * 2$$

Height (X) and Age (Z): Variances

$$\sigma^2 + E(X)^2 = E(X^2)$$

Correlation requires Var(X):

$$f(x) = .5 * N(45, 1.2) + .5 * N(47, 1.2)$$
 by assumption.
$$E(x) = \sum p_i E[x_i]$$
 when we have a mixture of distributions with weights $p(X) = \sum p_i E[x_i^2] - [\sum p_i E[x_i]]^2$
$$Var(x) = .5 * E(X_1^2) + .5 * E(X_2^2) - (.5 * E(X_1) + .5 * E(X_1))^2$$

$$Var(x) = .5 * (\sigma_1^2 + E(X_1)^2) + .5 * (\sigma_2^2 + E(X_2)^2) - (.5 * E(X_1) + .5 * E(X_2))^2$$

$$Var(x) = .5 * (1.2^2 + 45^2) + .5 * (1.2^2 + 47^2) - (.5 * 45 + .5 * 47)^2$$

$$Var(x) = 2.44$$

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Height (X) and Age (Z): Correlation

The correlation:

$$Cor(x, z) = \frac{Cov(x, z)}{\sqrt{Var(x)Var(z)}}$$

$$Cor(x, z) = \frac{.5}{\sqrt{2.44 * .25}}$$

$$Cor(x, z) = 0.64$$

Note, we saw the regression coefficient: Cov(x,z)/Var(z)=2.

We will show that:

$$r_{x,z} * \frac{s_x}{s_z} = b_1$$

$$0.64 * \frac{\sqrt{2.44}}{\sqrt{0.25}} = 2$$

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Independence and Covariance

Proposition

Suppose X and Y are independent. Then

$$Cov(X, Y) = 0$$

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Independence and Covariance

Proof.

Suppose X and Y are independent.

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

Calculating E[XY]

$$E[XY] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xyf(x, y)dxdy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xyf_X(x)f_Y(y)dxdy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf_X(x)dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yf_Y(y)dy$$

$$= E[X]E[Y]$$

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Iterated Expectations (LIE)

Proposition

Suppose X and Y are random variables. Then

$$E[X] = E[E[X|Y]]$$

- Inner Expectation is $E[X|Y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx$.
- Outer expectation is over y.
- This is analogous to the law of total probability.

Iterated Expectations

Proof.

$$E[E[X|Y]] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x|y) f_{Y}(y) dx dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x|y) f_{Y}(y) dy dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) dy dx$$

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

$$= E[X]$$

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LIE Example: Proxy Fighting

- Suppose the US is seeking a local ally, but these come in three equally probable kinds, "tough", "average" and "weak".
- The US would be willing to give \$11,000 per fighter if the group is strong, \$10,000 if the group is average, and \$0 if they are weak.
 - $E[price_{USA}] = E[E[price_{USA}|type]] = \sum_{type} E[price_{USA}|type] * p(type)$
 - $E[price_{USA}] = \frac{1}{3} * (11k) + \frac{1}{3} * (10k) + \frac{1}{3} * (0) = 7,000$
- The strong group will fight if they are paid \$10,000, the average group will fight if they are paid \$6,000, and the weak group would fight for \$50.
 - $E[price_{proxy}] = E[E[price_{proxy}|type]] = \sum_{type} E[price_{proxy}|type] * p(type)$
 - $E[price_{proxy}] = \frac{1}{3} * (10k) + \frac{1}{3} * (6k) + \frac{1}{3} * (50) = 5,350$
- If neither group knows their type, then they will be able to sell their services.

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LIE Example: Adverse Selection

- Suppose that the proxy knows their type but the US does not.
- If the US offers its average valuation of 7,000, it is only taken by the average and weak types.
- But, if tough proxies will not offer their services, the US would pay at most:

$$E[price_{USA}] = \frac{1}{2}10,000 + \frac{1}{2}0 = 5,000$$

■ So even the average group will not fight.

Next Steps

- Read and work through "Estimators1", "Estimators2", "Estimators3.pdf"
- Finish working through "Proofsadvice.pdf"

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Law of Total Variance

Suppose X and Y are random variables. Then

$$var[X] = E[var[X|Y]] + var(E[X|Y])$$

The first term is the average of the variation for each value of Y.The second term is the variation across the averages within each value of Y.

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Estimators

- We observe realizations from a vector of random variables $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2 \dots x_n)$.
- When we construct a function z(x) of observed data, they are called 'statistics'.
- If that function is used to infer the value of a parameter of a distribution, it is called an 'estimator'.
- All estimators are random variables with distributions.
 - $\bar{x}(x) = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$ is the sample mean and estimates the true mean (μ) .
 - $s^2(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sum (x_i \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$ is the sample variance and estimates the true variance (σ^2) .
- lacktriangle An estimator $\hat{ heta}$ is evaluated by its expectation and variance.
 - Is $E(\hat{\theta}) \theta = 0$? If so, it is called unbiased.
 - Is $var(\hat{\theta}) \leq var(\tilde{\theta})$, where $\tilde{\theta}$ is any other unbiased estimator? If so, it is called efficient.
 - How does $\hat{\theta}_n$ behave as n gets arbitrarily large? Next time.

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Preview: Sample Mean is unbiased

If $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2 \dots x_n)$ are a iid random sample drawn from some distribution with mean μ , and we calculate $\bar{x}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$, we can show that $E[\bar{x}] - \mu = 0$:

$$E[\bar{x}(\mathbf{x})] = E\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} E[x_i]\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mu\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} [N\mu]$$

$$= \mu$$

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