14.31/14.310 Lecture 9

Ok, back to probability now.

Where were we? Ah, yes, talking about moments of distributions, expectation, in particular.

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Well, we can obviously figure out how Y is distributed——we know how to do that——and then use that distribution to compute, say, E(Y).

There may be an easier way——it can be shown that $E(Y) = E(g(X)) = \int y f_{Y}(y) dy = \int g(x) f_{X}(x) dx$

Classic example/paradox in probability theory, but one where economists come out looking particularly good.

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= Z, = ...

No one would be willing to pay me an infinite amount to play this game.

I would guess that I wouldn't have any takers at $^{5}20$, and that's a lot less than infinity.

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Economists know that people have diminishing marginal utility of money. In other words, their valuation of additional money decreases as the amount of money they have increases.

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So this is only a paradox unless you know a little bit of economics.

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Really, what if the X's aren't independent? Yes, really, they don't have to be independent.

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- 5. E(XY) = E(X)E(Y) if X,Y independent

Probability---another moment: variance

In addition to describing the location, or center, of a distribution of a random variable, we often would like to describe how spread out it is. There's a moment for that, variance.

 $Var(X) = E[(X-\mu)^2]$

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Note that variance is an expectation, so many of its properties will follow from that.

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In other words, shift a distribution and its variance doesn't change. Shrink or spread out a distribution and its variance changes by the square of the multiplicative factor.

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Ah, here we actually need independence.

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This last property can provide a handy way to compute variance.

Probability---standard deviation

Often it's convenient for the measure of dispersion to have the same units as the random variable. For this reason, we define <u>standard deviation</u>.

$$SD(X) = \sigma = \sqrt{Var(X)} = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$$

Probability---variance of a function

Since variance is an expectation, we can apply the results of expectation of a function of a random variable to get variance of a function of a random variable.

So if
$$Y = r(X)$$
,

$$Var(Y) = E(Y^{2}) - E(Y)^{2} = E(r(X)^{2}) - E(r(X))^{2}$$

$$= \int r(x)^{2} f_{x}(x) dx - \left[\int r(x) f_{x}(x) dx\right]^{2}$$

Probability---conditional expectation

A <u>conditional expectation</u> is the expectation of a conditional distribution. In other words,

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

Note that E(Y|X) is a function of X, and, therefore, a random variable. E(Y|X=x) is just a number.

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Thm E(E(YIX)) = E(Y) "Law of Iterated Expectations"

Probability---conditional variance

The definition of <u>conditional variance</u> follows from that of variance and conditional expectation.

Thm Var(E(YX)) + E(Var(YX)) = Var(Y)
"Law of Total Variance"

Probability---two laws

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May seem a little mysterious, not clear how they're useful.

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How do we get this? Compute the expectation of a Bernoulli random variable and add it up in times

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E(S) = E(E(S|N)) = E(Np) = .2E(N) = .4

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Var(S) = Var(E(SIN)) + E(Var(SIN))

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$$.2^2 \text{Var}(N) + .2(1-.2)E(N) = .4$$

We now have moments to describe the location, or center, of a distribution of a random variable and how spread out that distribution is. We are often interested in the relationship between random variables, and we have a moment of joint distributions to describe one aspect of that relationship, covariance.

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And we have a standardized version, correlation.

$$\rho(X,Y) = E[(X-\mu_X)(Y-\mu_Y)]/Var(x)VVar(Y)$$

We say that XqY are "positively correlated" if $\rho > 0$. We say that XqY are "negatively correlated" if $\rho < 0$. We say that XqY are "uncorrelated" if $\rho = 0$.

Probability—properties of covariance 1. Cov(X,X) = Var(X)

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- 7. |p(X,Y)| <= 1
- 8. $|p(X,Y)| = 1 \text{ iff } Y = aX + b, a \neq 0$

We have two random variables, XqY.

EX =
$$\mu_X$$
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EY = μ_Y , VarY = σ_Y^2
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If $|p_{XY}| < 1$, then we can write $Y = x + \beta X + V$.

V is another random variable, but what can we say about it?

What we can say about V depends on how we define of & B.

Let
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Then, $V = Y - \alpha - \beta X$ has the following properties: E(V) = 0 and Cov(X,V) = 0. (You can show this easily using properties of expectation, variance, and covariance that we've seen.)

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We then call $\alpha \in \beta$ "regression coefficients," and think of $\alpha + \beta X$ as the part of Y "explained by" X and V as the "unexplained" part.

Two inequalities involving moments of distributions and tail probabilities often come in handy:

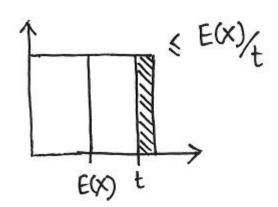
Markov Inequality

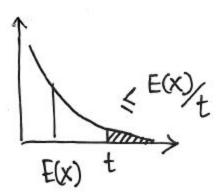
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Chebyshev Inequality

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