### Econ 103 - Statistics for Economists

Chapter 3: Probability

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University of Pennsylvania

# R Project

### Motivation

 $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$  Apply the skills and tools you have learned

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- · Answer questions you are interested in

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- · Head-start on honors thesis?

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  - · Google trends, Twitter, financial data, macro data, ...

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- · Discussion of results
- Criticism of your findings. What are the biggest flaws in your analysis or in the underlying data?
- Suggestions for further analysis or extension to the project

#### When is it Due?

- October 12: Submit project idea and question or spoken with me about the project. Submit names of people in your group.
- November 16: (Optional) Submit rough draft for comments.
- December 7: Hand in project.

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- CEA blog posts on jobs and GDP and other publications (like the Economic Report of the President)
- FiveThirtyEight's report on gun deaths

Not looking for a Nobel-prize-winning discovery

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- You should learn something new
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- Be honest

## **Odd Questions**

Is the following likely true or false and why?

The counties with the **lowest** incidence of kidney cancer are mostly rural, sparsely populated, and located in traditionally Republican states in the Midwest, the South, and the East.

Is the following likely true or false and why?

The counties with the **lowest** incidence of kidney cancer are mostly rural, sparsely populated, and located in traditionally Republican states in the Midwest, the South, and the East.

- Less water or air pollution
- Lower stress
- · Healthier food

Is the following likely true or false and why?

The counties with the **highest** incidence of kidney cancer are mostly rural, sparsely populated, and located in traditionally Republican states in the Midwest, the South, and the East.

Is the following likely true or false and why?

The counties with the **highest** incidence of kidney cancer are mostly rural, sparsely populated, and located in traditionally Republican states in the Midwest, the South, and the East.

- Higher stress because of poverty
- Drink alcohol
- Higher tobacco use

Which statement is right?

1. Lower rate in rural counties

- 1. Lower rate in rural counties
- 2. Higher rate in rural counties

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- 3. Both

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- 3. Both
- 4. Neither

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#### How?

From Thinking Fast and Slow by Daniel Kahneman

Something is wrong, of course. The rural lifestyle cannot explain both very high and very low incidence of kidney cancer. The key factor is not that the counties were rural or predominately Republican. It is that rural counties have small populations.

Pia is thirty-one years old, single, outspoken, and smart. She was a philosophy major. When a student, she was an ardent supporter of Native American rights, and she picketed a department store that had no facilities for nursing mothers.

Rank the following statements in order from most probable to least probable.

- (a) Pia is a bank teller.
- (b) Pia is a bank teller and an active feminist.

#### The Conjunction Fallacy

When it is assumed that specific conditions are more probable than a single general one.

Think Venn diagrams (we'll see this formally later in the lecture)

#### "Odd Question" #3

In Lotto 6/49, a standard government-run lottery, you choose 6 out of 49 numbers (1 through 49). You win if these 6 are drawn. (The prize money is divided between all those who choose the lucky numbers. If no one wins, then most of the prize money is put back into next weeks lottery.)

Suppose your aunt offers you, *free*, a choice between two ticket in the lottery, with numbers as shown:

- I. You win if 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 are drawn.
- II. You win if 39, 36, 32, 21, 14, and 3 are drawn.

Do you prefer I, II, or are you indifferent between the two?

- (a) Prefer I
- (b) Prefer II
- (c) Indifferent

#### "Odd Question" # 4

To throw a total of 7 with a pair of dice, you have to get a 1 and a 6, or a 2 and a 5, or a 3 and a 4. To throw a total of 6 with a pair of dice, you have to get a 1 and a 5, or a 2 and a 4, or a 3 and another 3. With two fair dice, you would expect:

- (a) To throw 7 more frequently than 6.
- (b) To throw six more frequently than 7.
- (c) To throw 6 and 7 equally often.

### Probability

#### Remember!

#### Probability: Population $\rightarrow$ Sample

- Using information about the population to predict properties of a sample
- · Deductive: "safe" argument
  - All ducks waddle, swim, and quack. Donald is a duck.
     Donald must waddle, swim, and quack.

#### Remember!

#### Probability: Population → Sample

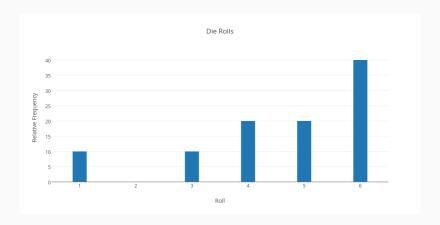
- Using information about the population to predict properties of a sample
- · Deductive: "safe" argument
  - All ducks waddle, swim, and quack. Donald is a duck.
     Donald must waddle, swim, and quack.
- It turns out that we're really bad at this

#### Our Definition of Probability for this Course

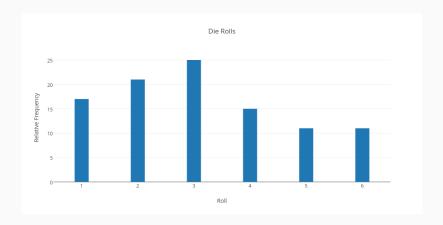
Probability: The long-run relative frequency

That is, relative frequencies settle down to probabilities if we carry out an experiment over, and over, and over...

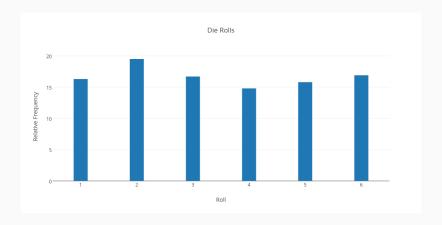
#### 10 Die Rolls



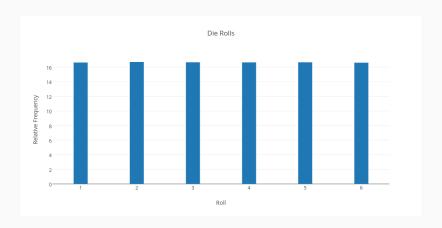
#### 100 Die Rolls



#### 1,000 Die Rolls



#### 1,000,000 Die Rolls



#### What do you think of this argument?

- The probability of flipping heads is 1/2: if we flip a coin many times, about half of the time it will come up heads.
- The last ten throws in a row the coin has come up heads.
- The coin is bound to come up tails next time it would be very rare to get 11 heads in a row.

#### The Gambler's Fallacy

Relative frequencies settle down to probabilities, but this does not mean that the trials are dependent.

Dependent: "Memory" of previous trials

Independent: No "memory" of previous trials

#### **Another Argument**

Lucie visits Albert. As she enters, he rolls four dice and shouts "Hooray!" for he has just rolled four sixes. Lucie: "I bet you've been rolling the dice for a long time to get that result!" Now, Lucie may have many reasons for saying this – perhaps Albert is a lunatic dice-roller. But simply on the evidence that he has just rolled four sixes, is her conclusion reasonable?

#### The Inverse Gambler's Fallacy

#### This is true:

Albert is more likely to get four sixes if he rolls many times than if he rolls only once.

#### However:

Regardless of how long Albert has been rolling, the probability that he gets four sixes on the particular roll that Lucie observes is unchanged.

The outcome of that roll doesn't tell us anything about whether he has rolled the dice before, just like six heads in a row doesn't mean we're "due" for a tails.

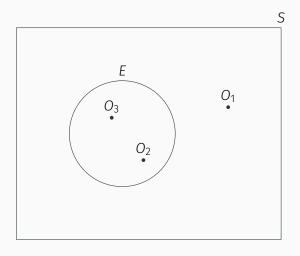
#### **Definitions**

- Random Experiment: An experiment whose outcomes are random.
- Basic Outcomes: Possible outcomes (mutually exclusive) of random experiment.
- Sample Space (S): Set of all basic outcomes of a random experiment.
- Event (E): A subset of the sample space. In set notation we write  $E \subseteq S$ .

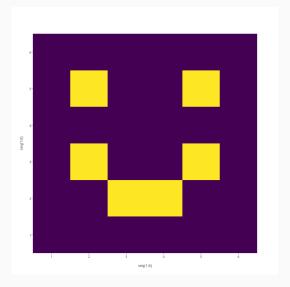
#### Examples

- Experiment: Tossing a pair of dice.
- Basic Outcome: An ordered pair (a, b) where  $a, b \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , e.g. (2, 5)
- Sample Space: S = All ordered pairs (a, b) where  $a, b \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- Event:  $E = \{(2,5), (5,5), (2,3), (3,2), (4,2), (5,3)\}$

#### Visual Representation



#### Our Example

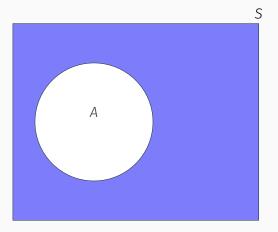


# Probability is Defined on Sets, and Events are Sets

#### Dice Problem

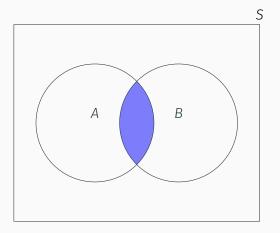
## Set Theory

#### Complement of an Event: $A^c = \text{not } A$



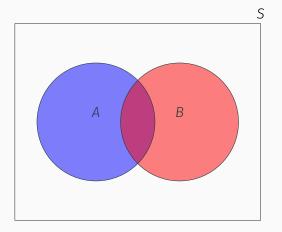
**Figure 1:** The complement  $A^c$  of an event  $A \subseteq S$  is the collection of all basic outcomes from S not contained in A.

#### Intersection of Events: $A \cap B = A$ and B



**Figure 2:** The intersection  $A \cap B$  of two events  $A, B \subseteq S$  is the collection of all basic outcomes from S contained in both A and B

#### Union of Events: $A \cup B = A$ or B



**Figure 3:** The union  $A \cup B$  of two events  $A, B \subseteq S$  is the collection of all basic outcomes from S contained in A, B or both.

#### **Quick Set Theory Result**

What is the formula for  $A \cup B$ ?

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$$A \cup B = A + B - (A \cap B)$$

#### Mutually Exclusive and Collectively Exhaustive

#### **Mutually Exclusive Events**

A collection of events  $E_1, E_2, E_3, ...$  is mutually exclusive if  $E_i \cap E_j$  of any two different events is empty (formally  $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$  for any  $i \neq j$ ).

#### **Collectively Exhaustive Events**

A collection of events  $E_1, E_2, E_3, ...$  is collectively exhaustive if, taken together, they contain all of the basic outcomes in S (formally  $E_1 \cup E_2 \cup ... = S$ ).

#### **Implications**

#### **Mutually Exclusive Events**

If one of the events occurs, then none of the others did.

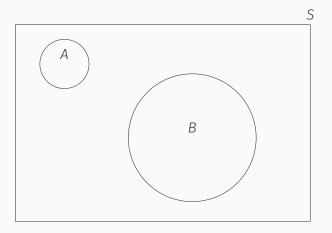
#### **Collectively Exhaustive Events**

One of these events must occur.

Can you come up with examples of

- Mutually exclusive events that are not collectively exhaustive?
- Collectively exhaustive events that are not mutually exclusive?

#### Mutually Exclusive but not Collectively Exhaustive



**Figure 4:** Although A and B don't overlap, they also don't cover S.

#### Collectively Exhaustive but not Mutually Exclusive

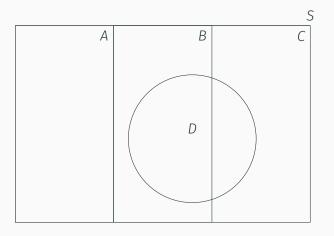


Figure 5: Together A, B, C and D cover S, but D overlaps with B and C.

#### Collectively Exhaustive and Mutually Exclusive

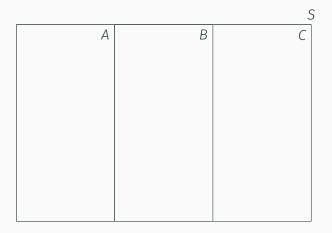


Figure 6: A, B, and C cover S and don't overlap.

Since A, A<sup>c</sup> are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive:

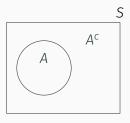


Figure 7:  $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$ ,  $A \cup A^c = S$ 

Since A, A<sup>c</sup> are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive:

$$P(A \cup A^{c}) = P(A) + P(A^{c}) =$$

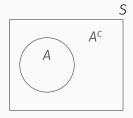


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Since A, A<sup>c</sup> are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive:

$$P(A \cup A^{c}) = P(A) + P(A^{c}) = P(S) = 1$$

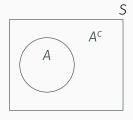


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Rearranging:

$$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$$

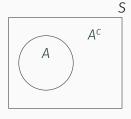


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## **Axioms of Probability**

We assign every event A in the sample space S a real number P(A) called the probability of A such that:

Axiom 1 
$$0 \le P(A) \le 1$$
  
Axiom 2  $P(S) = 1$   
Axiom 3 If  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  are mutually exclusive events, then  $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) + \dots$ 

## Another Important Rule – Equivalent Events

If A and B are Logically Equivalent, then P(A) = P(B).

In other words, if A and B contain exactly the same basic outcomes, then P(A) = P(B).

Although this seems obvious it's important to keep in mind, especially later in the course...

## The Logical Consequence Rule

If B Logically Entails A, then  $P(B) \leq P(A)$ 

In other words,  $B \subseteq A \Rightarrow P(B) \leq P(A)$ 

Why is this so?

If  $B \subseteq A$ , then all the basic outcomes in B are also in A.

# Proof of Logical Consequence Rule (Optional)

Since  $B \subseteq A$ , we have  $B = A \cap B$  and  $A = B \cup (A \cap B^c)$ . Combining these,

$$A = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap B^{c})$$

Now since  $(A \cap B) \cap (A \cap B^c) = \emptyset$ ,

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

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

$$\geq P(B)$$

because  $0 \le P(A \cap B^c) \le 1$ .

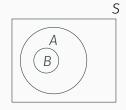


Figure 8:  $B = A \cap B$ , and  $A = B \cup (A \cap B^c)$ 

Permutations and Combinations

## "Classical" Probability

When all of the basic outcomes are equally likely, calculating the probability of an event is simply a matter of counting – count up all the basic outcomes that make up the event, and divide by the total number of basic outcomes.

## Recall from High School Math:

#### Multiplication Rule for Counting

 $n_1$  ways to make first decision,  $n_2$  ways to make second, ...,  $n_k$  ways to make kth  $\Rightarrow n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_k$  total ways to decide.

## Corollary – Number of Possible Orderings

$$k \times (k-1) \times (k-2) \times \cdots \times 2 \times 1 = k!$$

#### Permutations – Order *n* people in *k* slots

$$P_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$
 (Order Matters)

Combinations – Choose committee of k from group of n

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$
, where  $0! = 1$  (Order Doesn't Matter)

# Coin Flipping, Cards, Tennis, and Obama

Conditional Probability

## Conditional Probability – Reduced Sample Space

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
, provided  $P(B) > 0$ 

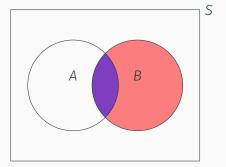


Figure 9: B becomes the "new sample space" so we need to re-scale by P(B) to keep probabilities between zero and one.

#### Who's on the other side?

Let *F* be the event that Obama is on the front of the card of the card we draw and *B* be the event that he is on the back.

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

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$$P(B|F) = \frac{P(B \cap F)}{P(F)} = \frac{1/3}{1/2} = 2/3$$

## Conditional Versions of Probability Axioms

- 1.  $0 \le P(A|B) \le 1$
- 2. P(B|B) = 1
- 3. If  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \ldots$  are mutually exclusive events, then  $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \cdots | B) = P(A_1 | B) + P(A_2 | B) + P(A_3 | B) \ldots$

#### Conditional Versions of Other Probability Rules

- $P(A|B) = 1 P(A^c|B)$
- $A_1$  logically equivalent to  $A_2 \iff P(A_1|B) = P(A_2|B)$
- $\cdot A_1 \subseteq A_2 \implies P(A_1|B) \leq P(A_2|B)$
- $P(A_1 \cup A_2|B) = P(A_1|B) + P(A_2|B) P(A_1 \cap A_2|B)$

However:  $P(A|B) \neq P(B|A)$  and  $P(A|B^c) \neq 1 - P(A|B)$ !

#### The Multiplication Rule

Rearrange the definition of conditional probability:

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#### Interpreting Independence

Knowledge that *B* has occurred tells nothing about whether *A* will.

## Will Having 5 Children Guarantee a Boy?

A couple plans to have five children. Assuming that each birth is independent and male and female children are equally likely, what is the probability that they have at least one boy?

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$$P(\text{at least 1 boy}) = 1 - P(\text{no boys})$$
  
= 1 - 1/32 = 31/32 = 0.97

## The Birthday Problem

What is the least number of persons required if the probability exceeds 1/2 that two or more of them have the same birthday? (Year of birth need not match.)

[Hint: Use the Complement Rule.]

## The Law of Total Probability

If  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_k$  are mutually exclusive, collectively exhaustive events and A is another event, then

$$P(A) = P(A|E_1)P(E_1) + P(A|E_2)P(E_2) + \ldots + P(A|E_k)P(E_k)$$

## Example of Law of Total Probability

#### Define the following events:

- F = Obama on front of card
- A = Draw card with two Gagas
- B = Draw card with two Obamas
- C = Draw card with BOTH Obama and Gaga

$$P(F) = P(F|A)P(A) + P(F|B)P(B) + P(F|C)P(C)$$

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= 0 \times 1/3 + 1 \times 1/3 + 1/2 \times 1/3  
= 1/2

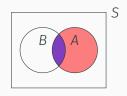


Figure 10:  $A = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap B^c),$  $(A \cap B) \cap (A \cap B^c) = \emptyset$ 

Since  $A \cap B$  and  $A \cap B^c$  are mutually exclusive and their union equals A,

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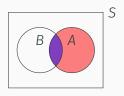


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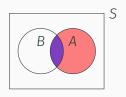


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Combining,

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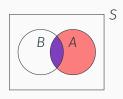


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## How do prediction markets work?

THIS CERTIFICATE ENTITLES THE BEARER TO \$1 IF TRUMP WINS THE 2016 US PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

## Buyers - Purchase Right to Collect

Trump very likely to win  $\Rightarrow$  buy for close to \$1. Trump very unlikely to win  $\Rightarrow$  buy for close to \$0.

## Sellers - Sell Obligation to Pay

Trump very likely to win  $\Rightarrow$  sell for close to \$1. Trump very unlikely to win  $\Rightarrow$  sell for close to \$0.

#### Probabilities from Beliefs

Market price of contract encodes market participants' beliefs in the form of probability:

Price/Payout ≈ Subjective Probability

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#### Statistical Arbitrage

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Last I checked a \$1 contract on Trump winning was going for \$0.30 on **predictit.org** 

# A Simple Example of Statistical Arbitrage

#### November 5th, 2012

- \$2.30 for contract paying \$10 if Romney wins on BetFair
- \$6.58 for contract paying \$10 if Obama wins on InTrade

#### **Implied Probabilities**

• BetFair:  $P(Romney) \approx 0.23$ 

• InTrade:  $P(Obama) \approx 0.66$ 

#### What's Wrong with This?

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Violates complement rule! P(Obama) = 1 - P(Romney) but the implied probabilities here don't sum up to one!

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#### **Arbitrage Strategy**

Buy Equal Numbers of Each

- Cost = \$2.30 + \$6.58 = \$8.88 per pair
- · Payout if Romney Wins: \$10
- · Payout if Obama Wins: \$10
- Guaranteed Profit: \$10 \$8.88 = \$1.12 per pair