Statistics Review I

EC 320: Introduction to Econometrics

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Math Review

Notation

Data on a variable X \mathbf{are}^* a sequence of n observations, indexed by i:

$$\{x_i:1,\ldots,n\}.$$

Example: $n =$	5
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i	x_i
1	8
2	9
3	4
4	7
5	2

- *i* indicates the row number.
- *n* is the number of rows.
- x_i is the value of X for row i.

^{*} Data = **plural** of datum.

The **summation operator** adds a sequence of numbers over an index:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \equiv x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n.$$

• "The sum of x_i from 1 to n."

Example: $n=4$

i	x_i
1	7
2	4
3	10
4	2

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 x_i = 7+4+10+2 \ = 23$$

Rule 1

For any constant c,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c = nc.$$

Example: n=4

i	c
1	2
2	2
3	2
4	2

$$egin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^4 2 &= 4 imes 2 \ &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

Rule 2

For any constant c,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n cx_i = c\sum_{i=1}^n x_i.$$

Example: $n=3$	Examp	ole : n	=3
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i	c	x_i
1	2	7
2	2	4
3	2	10

$$egin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^3 2x_i &= 2 imes 7 + 2 imes 4 + 2 imes 10 \ &= 14 + 8 + 20 \ &= 42 \end{aligned}$$
 $2\sum_{i=1}^3 x_i = 2(7 + 4 + 10)$

Rule 3

If $\{(x_i,y_i):1,\ldots,n\}$ is a set of n pairs, and a and b are constants, then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (ax_i + by_i) = a\sum_{i=1}^n x_i + b\sum_{i=1}^n y_i.$$

Example: n=2

i	a	x_i	b	y_i
1	2	7	1	4
2	2	4	1	2

$$egin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^2 (2x_i + y_i) &= 18 + 10 \ &= 28 \ 2 \sum_{i=1}^2 x_i + \sum_{i=1}^2 y_i &= 2 imes 11 + 6 \ &= 28 \end{aligned}$$

Caution

The sum of the ratios **is not** the ratio of the sums:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i/y_i
eq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i
ight) igg/\left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i
ight).$$

ullet If n=2, then $rac{x_1}{y_1}+rac{x_2}{y_2}
eq rac{x_1+x_2}{y_1+y_2}.$

The sum of squares **is not** the square of the sums:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2
eq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i
ight)^2.$$

ullet If n=2, then $x_1^2+x_2^2
eq (x_1+x_2)^2 = x_1^2+2x_1x_2+x_2^2.$

Probability Review

Random Variables

Experiment: Any procedure that is *infinitely repeatable* and has a *well-defined set of outcomes*.

- Flip a coin 10 times and record the number of heads.
- Roll two six-sided dice and record the sum.

Random Variable: A variable with *numerical values determined by an experiment or a random phenomenon.*

- Describes the sample space of an experiment.
- Sample space: The set of potential outcomes an experiment could generate, *e.g.*, the sum of two dice is an integer from 2 to 12.
- Event: A subset of the sample space or a combination of outcomes, *e.g.*, rolling a two or a four.

Random Variables

Notation: capital letters for random variables (e.g., X, Y, or Z) and lowercase letters for particular outcomes (e.g., x, y, or z).

Example 1: Flipping a coin.

- Two outcomes: heads or tails.
- ullet Quantify the outcomes: Define a random variable ${
 m Heads}$ such that ${
 m Heads}=1$ if heads and ${
 m Heads}=0$ if tails.

Example 2: Flipping a coin 10 times.

- Several outcomes: 10 heads and 0 tails, 9 heads and 1 tails, 8 heads and 2 tails, etc.
- The number of heads is a random variable: $\{\text{Heads}: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}.$

Discrete Random Variable: A random variable that takes a countable set of values.

A **Bernoulli** (or binary) random variable takes values of either 1 or 0.

- ullet Characterized by $\mathbb{P}(X=1)$, "the probability of success."
- ullet Probabilities sum to 1: $\mathbb{P}(X=1)+\mathbb{P}(X=0)=1.$
 - \circ For a "fair" coin, $\mathbb{P}(\mathrm{Heads}=1)=rac{1}{2} \implies \mathbb{P}(\mathrm{Heads}=0)=rac{1}{2}.$
- ullet More generally, if $\mathbb{P}(X=1)= heta$ for some $heta\in[0,1]$, then $\mathbb{P}(X=0)=1- heta.$
 - If the probability of passing this class is 75%, then the probability of not passing is 25%.

Probabilities

We describe a discrete random variable by listing its possible values with associated probabilities.

If X takes on k possible values $\{x_1,\ldots,x_k\}$, then the probabilities p_1,p_2,\ldots,p_k are defined by

$$p_j = \mathbb{P}(X=x_j), \quad j=1,2,\ldots,k,$$

where

$$p_j \in [0,1]$$

and

$$p_1+p_2+\cdots+p_k=1.$$

Probability density function

The **probability density function** (pdf) of X summarizes possible outcomes and associated probabilities:

$$f(x_j) = p_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \ldots, k.$$

Example

2020 Presidential election: 538 electoral votes at stake.

- $\{X:0,1,\ldots,538\}$ is the number of electoral votes won by the Democratic candidate.
- ullet Extremely unlikely that she will win 0 votes or all 538 votes: f(0)pprox 0 and f(538)pprox 0.
- Nonzero probability of winning an exact majority: f(270)>0.

Example

Basketball player goes to the foul line to shoot two free throws.

- *X* is the number of shots made (either 0, 1, or 2).
- ullet The pdf of X is f(0)=0.3, f(1)=0.4, f(2)=0.3.
- Note: the probabilities sum to 1.

Use the pdf to calculate the probability of the event that the player makes at least one shot, i.e., $\mathbb{P}(X \geq 1)$.

•
$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge 1) = \mathbb{P}(X = 1) + \mathbb{P}(X = 2) = 0.4 + 0.3 = 0.7.$$

Continuous Random Variable: A random variable that takes any real value with zero probability.

• Wait, what?! The variable takes so many values that we can't count all possibilities, so the probability of any one particular value is zero.

Measurement is discrete (*e.g.*, dollars and cents), but variables with many possible values are best treated as continuous.

• *e.g.*, electoral votes, height, wages, temperature, *etc.*

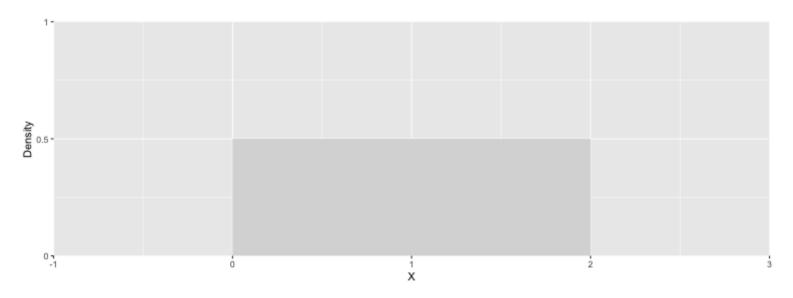
Probability density functions also describe continuous random variables.

- Difference: Interested in the probability of events within a *range* of values.
- *e.g.* What is the probability of more than 1 inch of rain tomorrow?

Uniform Distribution

The probability density function of a variable uniformly distributed between 0 and 2 is

$$f(x) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{1}{2} & ext{if } 0 \leq x \leq 2 \ 0 & ext{if } x < 0 ext{ or } x > 2 \end{array}
ight.$$

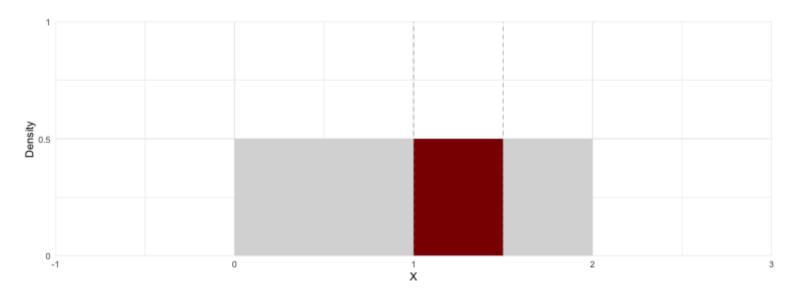


Uniform Distribution

By definition, the area under f(x) is equal to 1.

The shaded area illustrates the probability of the event $1 \le X \le 1.5$.

• $\mathbb{P}(1 \le X \le 1.5) = (1.5 - 1) \times 0.5 = 0.25$.



Normal Distribution

The "bell curve."

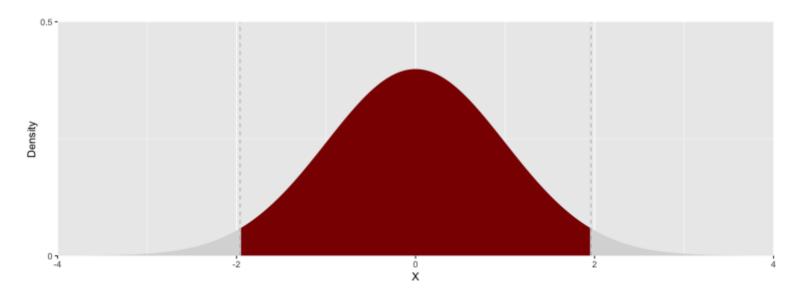
- Symmetric: mean and median occur at the same point (*i.e.*, no skew).
- Low-probability events in tails; high-probability events near center.



Normal Distribution

The shaded area illustrates the probability of the event $-2 \le X \le 2$.

- "Find area under curve" = use integral calculus (or, in practice, R).
- $\mathbb{P}(-2 \leq X \leq 2) \approx 0.95$.



A density function describes an entire distribution, but sometimes we just want a summary.

The **expected value** describes the *central tendency* of distribution in a single number.

• *Central tendency* = typical value.

Definition (Discrete)

The expected value of a discrete random variable X is the weighted average of its k values $\{x_1, \ldots, x_k\}$ and their associated probabilities:

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(X) &= x_1 \, \mathbb{P}(x_1) + x_2 \, \mathbb{P}(x_2) + \dots + x_k \, \mathbb{P}(x_k) \ &= \sum_{j=1}^k x_j \, \mathbb{P}(x_j). \end{aligned}$$

• Also known as the population mean.

Example

Rolling a six-sided die once can take values $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, each with equal probability. What is the expected value of a roll?

$$\mathbb{E}(\text{Roll}) = 1 \times \frac{1}{6} + 2 \times \frac{1}{6} + 3 \times \frac{1}{6} + 4 \times \frac{1}{6} + 5 \times \frac{1}{6} + 6 \times \frac{1}{6} = 3.5.$$

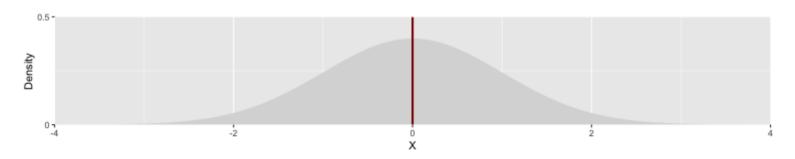
• Note: The expected value can be a number that isn't a possible outcome of X.

Definition (Continuous)

If X is a continuous random variable and f(x) is its probability density function, then the expected value of X is

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

- **Note:** x represents the particular values of X.
- Same idea as the discrete definition: describes the population mean.



Rule 1

For any constant c, $\mathbb{E}(c)=c$.

Not-so-exciting examples

$$\mathbb{E}(5)=5$$
.

$$\mathbb{E}(1)=1.$$

$$\mathbb{E}(4700) = 4700.$$

Rule 2

For any constants a and b, $\mathbb{E}(aX+b)=a\,\mathbb{E}(X)+b.$

Example

Suppose X is the high temperature in degrees Celsius in Eugene during August. The long-run average is $\mathbb{E}(X)=28$. If Y is the temperature in degrees Fahrenheit, then $Y=32+\frac{9}{5}X$. What is $\mathbb{E}(Y)$?

•
$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = 32 + \frac{9}{5}\mathbb{E}(X) = 32 + \frac{9}{5} \times 28 = 82.4.$$

Rule 3

If $\{a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_n\}$ are constants and $\{X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_n\}$ are random variables, then

$$\mathbb{E}(a_1X_1+a_2X_2+\cdots+a_nX_n)=a_1\,\mathbb{E}(X_1)+a_2\,\mathbb{E}(X_2)+\cdots+a_n\,\mathbb{E}(X_n).$$

In English, the expected value of the sum = the sum of expected values.

Rule 3

The expected value of the sum = the sum of expected values.

Example

Suppose that a coffee shop sells X_1 small, X_2 medium, and X_3 large caffeinated beverages in a day. The quantities sold are random with expected values $\mathbb{E}(X_1)=43$, $\mathbb{E}(X_2)=56$, and $\mathbb{E}(X_3)=21$. The prices of small, medium, and large beverages are 1.75, 2.50, and 3.25 dollars. What is expected revenue?

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\mathbb{E}(1.75X_1 + 2.50X_2 + 3.35X_n) = 1.75 \,\mathbb{E}(X_1) + 2.50 \,\mathbb{E}(X_2) + 3.25 \,\mathbb{E}(X_3)
= 1.75(43) + 2.50(56) + 3.25(21)
= 283.5
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Caution

Previously, we found that the expected value of rolling a six-sided die is $\mathbb{E}(\mathrm{Roll}) = 3.5$.

ullet If we square this number, we get $\left[\mathbb{E}(\mathrm{Roll})
ight]^2=12.25.$

Is
$$\left[\mathbb{E}(\mathrm{Roll})\right]^2$$
 the same as $\mathbb{E}\left(\mathrm{Roll}^2\right)$?

No!

$$\mathbb{E}\Big(\mathrm{Roll}^2\Big) = 1^2 imes rac{1}{6} + 2^2 imes rac{1}{6} + 3^2 imes rac{1}{6} + 4^2 imes rac{1}{6} + 5^2 imes rac{1}{6} + 6^2 imes rac{1}{6} \ pprox 15.167 \
eq 12.25.$$

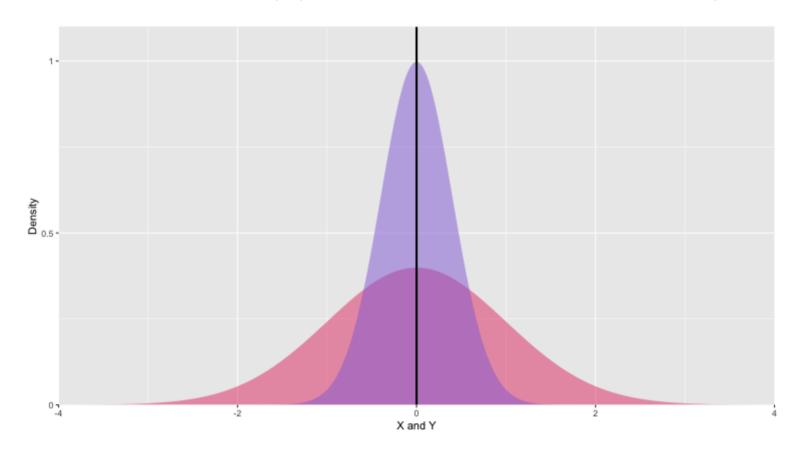
Caution

Except in special cases, the transformation of an expected value **is not** the expected value of a transformed random variable.

For some function $g(\cdot)$, it is typically the case that

$$g(\mathbb{E}(X)) \neq \mathbb{E}(g(X)).$$

Random variables X and Y share the same population mean, but are distributed differently.



How tightly is a random variable distributed about its mean?

- Let $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X)$.
- Describe the distance of X from its population mean μ as the squared difference: $(X-\mu)^2$.

Variance tells us how far X deviates from μ , on average:

$$\mathrm{Var}(X) \equiv \mathbb{E}ig((X-\mu)^2ig) = \sigma^2$$

• σ^2 is shorthand for variance.

Rule 1

 $\operatorname{Var}(X) = 0 \iff X$ is a constant.

- If a random variable never deviates from its mean, then it has zero variance.
- If a random variable is always equal to its mean, then it's a (not-so-random) constant.

Rule 2

For any constants a and b, $\mathrm{Var}(aX+b)=a^2\,\mathrm{Var}(X)$.

Example

Suppose X is the high temperature in degrees Celsius in Eugene during August. If Y is the temperature in degrees Fahrenheit, then $Y=32+\frac{9}{5}X$. What is $\overline{\mathrm{Var}(Y)}$?

•
$$Var(Y) = (\frac{9}{5})^2 Var(X) = \frac{81}{25} Var(X)$$
.

Standard Deviation

Standard deviation is the positive square root of the variance:

$$\operatorname{sd}(X) = +\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X)} = \sigma$$

• σ is shorthand for standard deviation.

Standard Deviation

Rule 1

For any constant c, $\mathrm{sd}(c) = 0$.

Rule 2

For any constants a and b, $\mathrm{sd}(aX+b)=|a|\,\mathrm{sd}(X)$.

Standardizing a Random Variable

When we're working with a random variable X with an unfamiliar scale, it is useful to **standardize** it by defining a new variable Z:

$$Z\equiv rac{X-\mu}{\sigma}.$$

Z has mean 0 and standard deviation 1. How?

- ullet First, some simple trickery: Z=aX+b, where $a\equiv rac{1}{\sigma}$ and $b\equiv -rac{\mu}{\sigma}$.
- $\mathbb{E}(Z) = a \mathbb{E}(X) + b = \mu \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{\mu}{\sigma} = 0.$
- $\operatorname{Var}(Z) = a^2 \operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sigma^2 = 1.$

Covariance

Idea: Characterize the relationship between two random variables X and Y.

Definition:
$$\mathrm{Cov}(X,Y) \equiv \mathbb{E}[(X-\mu_X)(Y-\mu_Y)] = \sigma_{xy}.$$

- ullet Positive correlation: When $\sigma_{xy}>0$, then X is above its mean when Y is above its mean, *on average*.
- ullet Negative correlation: When $\sigma_{xy} < 0$, then X is below its mean when Y is above its mean, *on average*.

Covariance

Rule 1

If X and Y are independent, then Cov(X,Y)=0.

- Statistical independence: If X and Y are independent, then $\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X)\,\mathbb{E}(Y)$.
- Cov(X,Y) = 0 means that X and Y are *uncorrelated*.

Caution: $\mathrm{Cov}(X,Y)=0$ does not imply that X and Y are independent.

Covariance

Rule 2

For any constants a, b, c, and d, $\mathrm{Cov}(aX+b,cY+d)=ac\,\mathrm{Cov}(X,Y)$

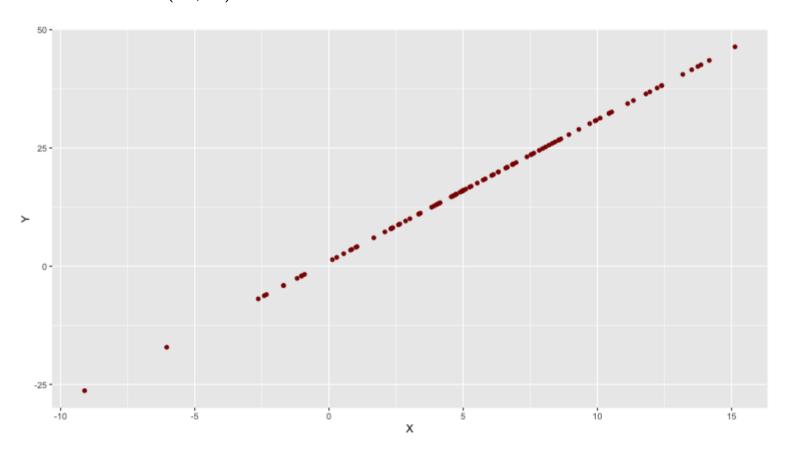
A problem with covariance is that it is sensitive to units of measurement.

The **correlation coefficient** solves this problem by rescaling the covariance:

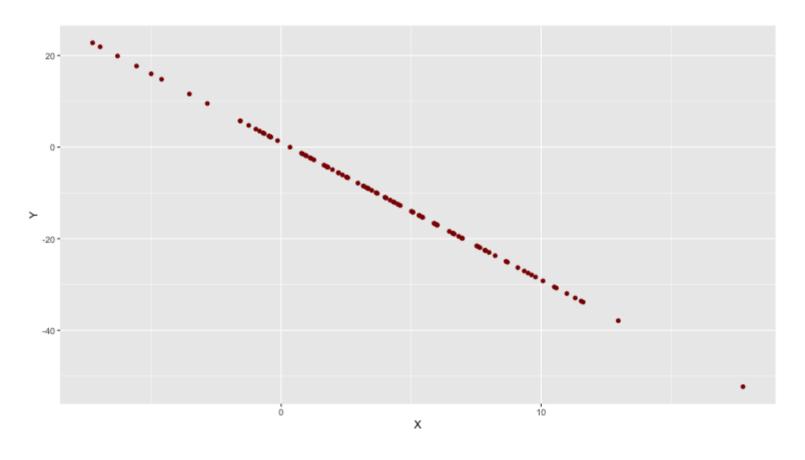
$$\operatorname{Corr}(X,Y) \equiv rac{\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)}{\operatorname{sd}(X) imes \operatorname{sd}(Y)} = rac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}.$$

- Also denoted as ρ_{XY} .
- $-1 \leq \operatorname{Corr}(X, Y) \leq 1$
- Invariant to scale: if I double Y, Corr(X, Y) will not change.

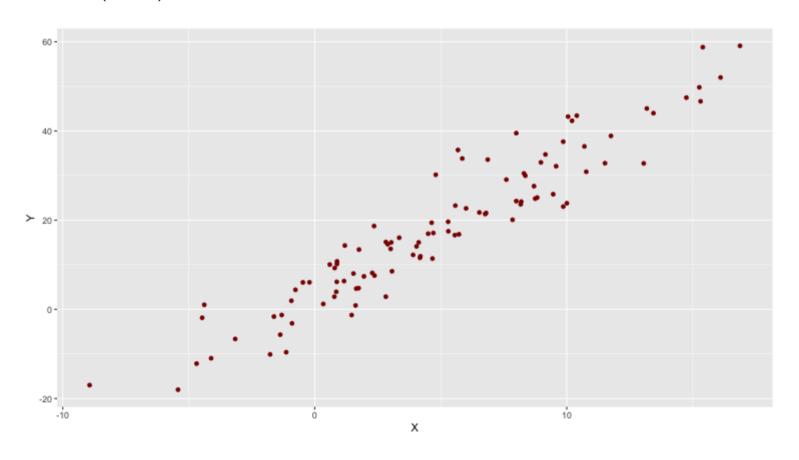
Perfect positive correlation: Corr(X, Y) = 1.



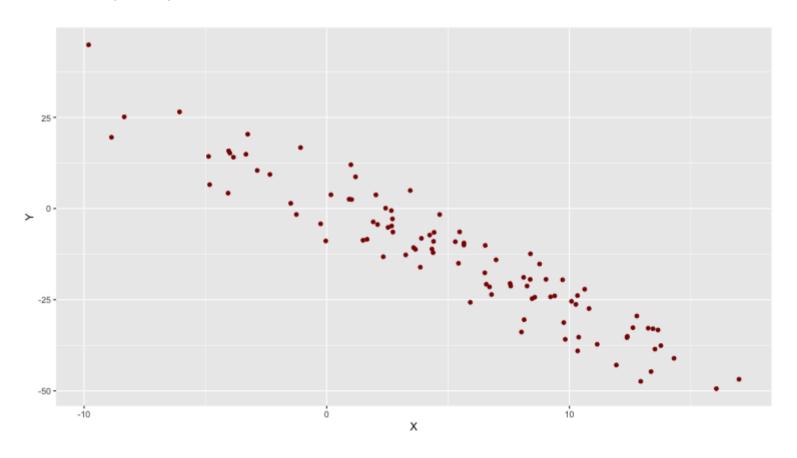
Perfect negative correlation: Corr(X, Y) = -1.



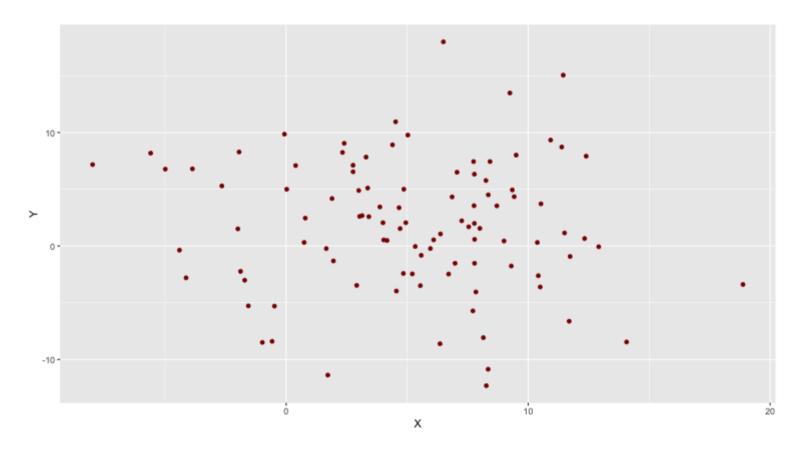
Positive correlation: Corr(X, Y) > 0.



Negative correlation: $\operatorname{Corr}(X,Y) < 0$.



No correlation: Corr(X, Y) = 0.



Variance, Revisited

Variance Rule 3

For constants a and b,

$$\operatorname{Var}(aX+bY)=a^2\operatorname{Var}(X)+b^2\operatorname{Var}(Y)+2ab\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y).$$

- ullet If X and Y are uncorrelated, then $\mathrm{Var}(X+Y)=\mathrm{Var}(X)+\mathrm{Var}(Y)$
- ullet If X and Y are uncorrelated, then $\mathrm{Var}(X-Y)=\mathrm{Var}(X)+\mathrm{Var}(Y)$