

Refresher Course in Calculus, Probability, and Statistics

Day 3: Probability

Introduction

“Life’s most important questions are, for the most part, nothing but probability problems.”

(Pierre-Simon Laplace)

“Doubt is not a pleasant condition, but certainty is absurd.”

(Voltaire)

- ➡ Most aspects of the world around us have an element of randomness or uncertainty:
 - Will it rain tomorrow?
 - Will I win the lottery next week?
 - Will I earn more than 6,000 CHF/month some day?
- ➡ Theory of probability provides mathematical tools for quantifying and describing this randomness and dealing with uncertainty.
- ➡ Probability is needed to understand regression analysis and econometrics
- ➡ References:
 - [\[BWA\]](#) chap. 2; [\[SWA\]](#) chap. 2; [\[HGL\]](#) chap. 1 + appendix B

Probability

Basic definitions

- ➔ **Trial:** event whose outcome is unknown (also called: experiment or observation)
 - Flipping a coin
 - Rolling a dice
- ➔ **Sample Space:** specification of all possible outcomes of a trial, denoted S
 - For flipping a coin the sample space is: $S = \{heads, tails\}$
 - For rolling a dice the sample space is: $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- ➔ **Outcome:** mutually exclusive potential results of a random process
- ➔ **Event:** specification of the outcome of one trial (single outcome or a set)
 - The event “heads in flipping a coin”: $A = \{heads\}$
 - The event “odd number in rolling a dice”: $B = \{1, 3, 5\}$
- ➔ **Mutual exclusivity:** events that cannot occur together are mutual exclusive (e.g. passing a test and not passing a test)
- ➔ **Independence:** the outcome of one trial has no relationship to the outcome of another trial

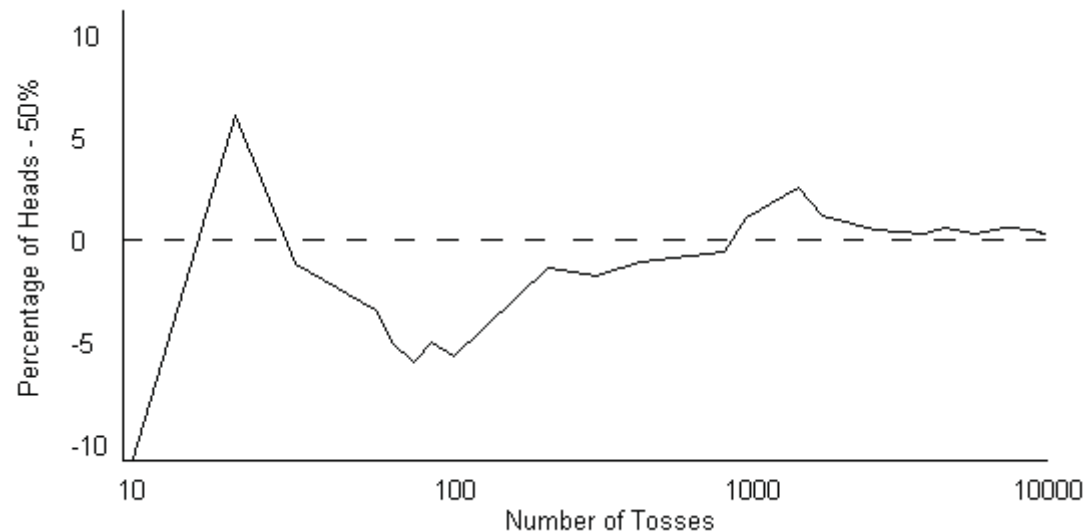
Probability

Basic definitions (continued)

➔ Relative frequency definition of probability:

If an experiment is repeated n times under essentially identical conditions and the event A occurs m times, then as n gets large the ratio $\frac{m}{n}$ approaches the probability of A .

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{m}{n}$$



Kerrich's experiment:
Tossing a coin 10,000
times

Probability

Properties

Event	Probability
A	$P(A) \in [0,1]$
not A	$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$
A or B	$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ if A and B are mutually exclusive $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
A and B	$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ if A and B are independent $P(A \cap B) = P(A B)P(B) = P(B A)P(A)$
A given B	$P(A B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B A)P(A)}{P(B)}$

Random Variables

- ➔ **Random variable** (or stochastic variable): variable whose values result from measurement of a random process
 - Numerical summary of a random process
 - Probabilities are associated with possible values of random variable

- ➔ Example of a random variable:
 - number of times word crashes while writing a term paper
 - number of times heads comes up when tossing a coin 10 times
 - length of time it takes a random student to understand Bayes's theorem

- ➔ Random variables can be:
 - **Discrete**: can take only a limited number of values (gender, toss of a coin, roll of a die, ...)
 - **Continuous**: can take any value in an interval (time, earnings, prices, ...)

Discrete Random Variables

Probability Density Function

➡ **Probability density function (*pdf*)**: summarizes probabilities of possible outcomes

➡ For discrete random variables, it's like a table contrasting all possible values of the variable with the probability that each value will occur

- o indicates the probability of each possible value occurring

- o (the value of) *pdf* of discrete random variable X , denoted $f(x)$, is the probability that X takes value x :

$$f(x) = P(X = x)$$

- o $0 \leq f(x) \leq 1$

- o If X takes n possible values $x_1, \dots, x_n$:

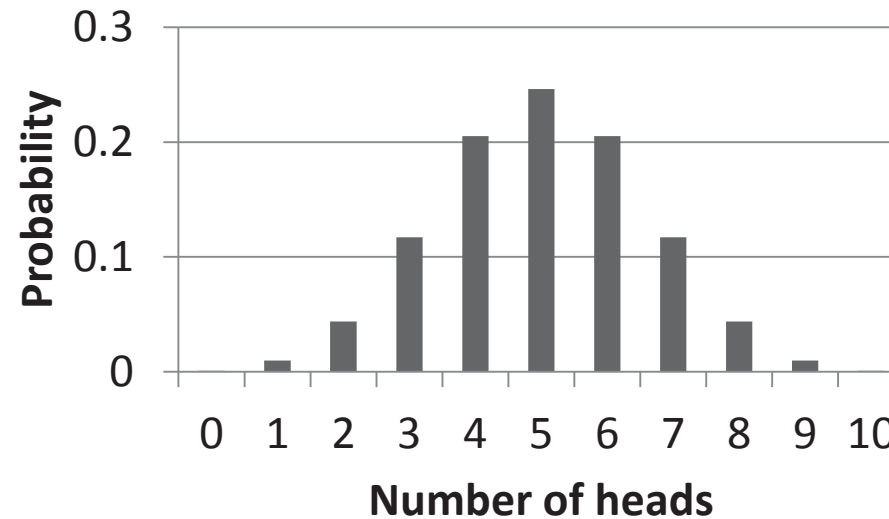
$$P(X = x_1) + \dots + P(X = x_n) = f(x_1) + \dots + f(x_n) = 1$$

Discrete Random Variables

Probability Density Function: Example

➡ *pdf* for number of heads out of 10 coin tosses:

	Outcome (number of heads)										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$f(x)$	0.001	0.0098	0.0439	0.1172	0.2051	0.2461	0.2051	0.1172	0.0439	0.0098	0.001



Discrete Random Variables

Probability Density Function: Example (continued)

➡ *pdf* for number of heads out of 10 coin tosses (continued):

	Outcome (number of heads)										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$f(x)$	0.0010	0.0098	0.0439	0.1172	0.2051	0.2461	0.2051	0.1172	0.0439	0.0098	0.0010

➡ Probability of an event (or compound event) can be computed from *pdf*

- o Probability of event “exactly 7 heads”:

$$P(X = 7) = 0.1172 = 11.72\%$$

- o Probability of compound event “even number of heads”

$$\begin{aligned} &P(X = 0) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 4) + P(X = 6) + P(X = 8) + P(X = 10) \\ &= 0.0010 + 0.0439 + 0.2051 + 0.2051 + 0.0439 + 0.0010 = 0.5 = 50\% \end{aligned}$$

- o Probability of compound event “no more than 3 heads”:

$$\begin{aligned} &P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 3) \\ &= 0.001 + 0.0098 + 0.0439 + 0.1172 = 0.1719 = 17.19\% \end{aligned}$$

Discrete Random Variables

Cumulative Density Function

➡ **Cumulative distribution function (*cdf*)**: alternative way to represent probabilities

➡ *cdf* of random variable X , denoted $F(x)$, is the probability that X is less than or equal to x :

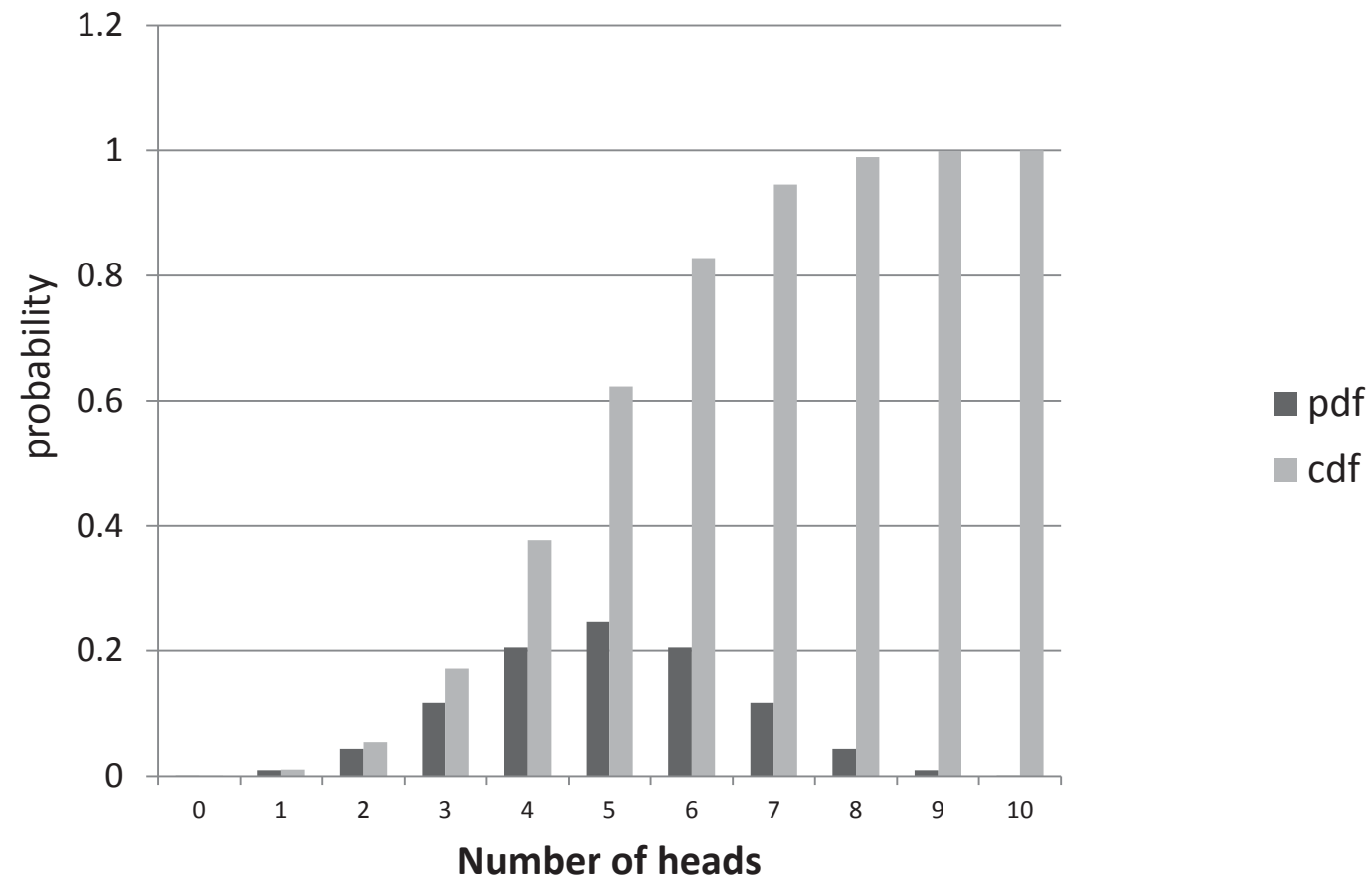
$$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

➡ *cdf* for number of heads out of 10 tosses:

	Outcome (number of heads)										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$f(x)$	0.001	0.0098	0.0439	0.1172	0.2051	0.2461	0.2051	0.1172	0.0439	0.0098	0.001
$F(x)$	0.001	0.0108	0.0547	0.1719	0.3770	0.6231	0.8282	0.9454	0.9893	0.9990	1

Discrete Random Variables

Cumulative Density Function (continued):



Discrete Random Variables

Special Case: Binary Variables

- ➔ Important special case of discrete random variable: random variable that can take only two possible values (0 or 1)
 - Such variables are called binary variables, indicator variables, or dummy variables, dichotomous variables
- ➔ Probability distribution of binary random variable: **Binomial** or **Bernoulli distribution**
 - Sequence of independent Bernoulli trials n with constant probability of success at each trial p . We are interested in the total number of successes x .
- ➔ Example: In the 4th quarter of 1988 in Massachusetts, USA, 60 new borns tested positive for HIV antibodies.



- What are the chances that 30 children will be infected?
- What are the chances that 30+ are infected?
- Possible model: binomial with $p = 0.25$ and $n = 60$.

Jakob Bernoulli,
1655-1705

Discrete Random Variables

Special Case: Binary Variables (continued)

Binomial coefficient

- ➔ The Binomial distribution:

$$P(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} = \frac{n!}{x! (n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

where x is the number of successes, p probability of success, and n number of trials (p and n are parameters of the model).

- ➔ Probability that 30 newborns will be HIV-positive:

$$P(30) = \binom{60}{30} 0.25^{30} (1-0.25)^{60-30} = \frac{60!}{30!(30)!} \cdot 0.25^{30} \cdot 0.75^{30} \approx 0.00018 = 0.018\%$$

- ➔ So the probability that 30 or more of the newborns will be HIV-positive:

$$P(x \geq 30) = 1 - P(x < 30) = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^{29} P(x = i) \approx 0.00027 = 0.027\%$$

- ➔ A good visualization of the logic of the binomial distribution is the quincunx:
<http://www.mathsisfun.com/data/quincunx.html>

Discrete Random Variables

Expected Value

➡ **Mathematical expectation:** mean of random variable (long run average value of random variable over many repeated trials or occurrences)

➡ Expected value of discrete random variable X , taking values $x_1, \dots, x_n$:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) = \mu_X &= x_1 P(X = x_1) + \dots + x_n P(X = x_n) \\ &= x_1 f(x_1) + \dots + x_n f(x_n) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i f(x_i) = \sum_x x f(x) \end{aligned}$$

○ weighted average of the possible outcomes (weights = probabilities)

➡ For binary variables: $E(B) = 1 \times p + 0 \times (1 - p) = p$

○ For the binomial distribution with n trials: $E(B) = \mu_B = np$

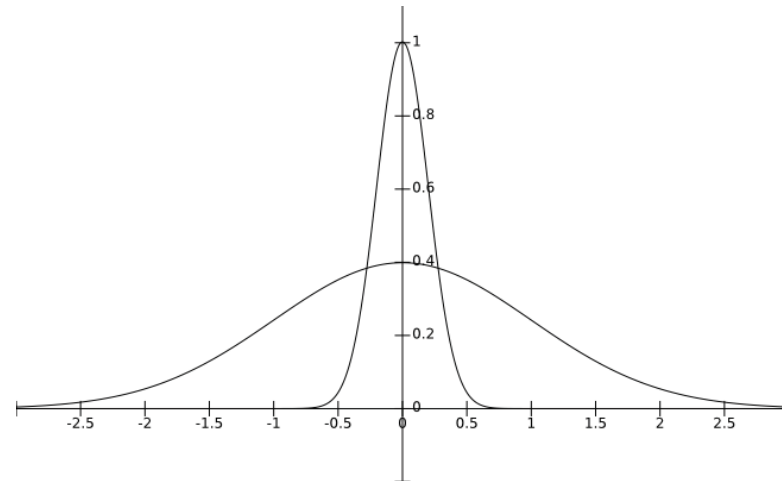
➡ For linear combinations: $E(aX + bY + c) = aE(X) + bE(Y) + c$

Discrete Random Variables

Variance and Standard Deviation

- ➔ Variance and standard deviation measure dispersion or “spread” of probability distribution

- o Larger variance and standard deviation $\Rightarrow$ more “spread out” values



- ➔ **Variance** of discrete random variable X :

$$\text{var}(X) = \sigma_X^2 = E[(X - \mu_X)^2] = E(X^2) - \mu_X^2$$

- ➔ For a binary variable: $\text{var}(B) = p(1 - p)$

- ➔ For the binomial distribution with n trials: $\text{var}(B) = np(1 - p)$

- ➔ For linear combinations: $\text{var}(aX + bY + c) = a^2\text{var}(X) + b^2\text{var}(Y) + 2ab \cdot \text{cov}(X, Y) = a^2\sigma_X^2 + b^2\sigma_Y^2 + 2ab\sigma_{XY}$

Discrete Random Variables

Variance and Standard Deviation (continued)

➔ Standard deviation:

$$\sigma_X = \sqrt{\text{var}(X)} = \sqrt{\sigma_X^2}$$

- o Same units of measure as the random variable

➔ For our example with the new borns:

- o How many should we expect to be HIV-positive?

$$E(B) = \mu_B = np = 60 \times 0.25 = 15$$

- o Apply an empirical rule that 2/3 of a (symmetric) distribution is covered in a range of $\mu_B \pm \sigma_X$ and 95% is covered by $\mu_B \pm 2\sigma_X$

$$\sigma_B = \sqrt{\text{var}(B)} = \sqrt{np(1-p)} = \sqrt{60 \times 0.25(1-0.25)} = \sqrt{11.25} \approx 3.3541$$

- o $15 \pm 3.3541 = (11.65, 18.35) \approx [11, 19]$
- o $15 \pm 6.7082 = (8.29, 21.71) \approx [8, 22]$
- o Note: in our case the distribution is not perfectly symmetric
 - o More exact intervals are $[11.56, 18.99]$ and $[8.83, 22.72]$

Discrete Random Variables

Other Measures of the Shape of a Distribution

➡ **Skewness** measures lack of symmetry:

$$Skewness = \frac{E[(X - \mu_X)^3]}{\sigma_X^3}$$

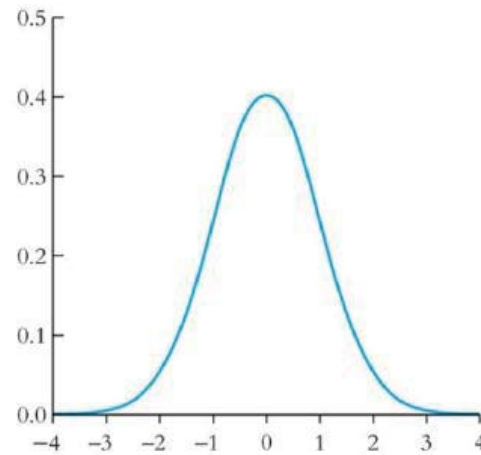
- o $S = 0$: symmetric, $S < 0$: left-skewed (long left tail), $S > 0$: right-skewed (long right tail)
- o Skewness is unitless

➡ **Kurtosis** measures how much mass in the tails of distribution:

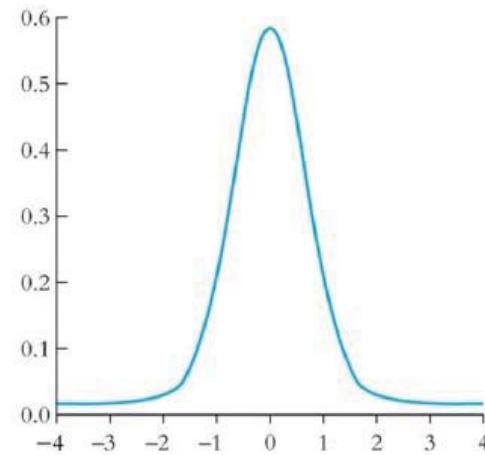
$$Kurtosis = \frac{E[(X - \mu_X)^4]}{\sigma_X^4}$$

- o How much of the variance of X comes from extreme values (called: outliers)
- o Benchmark value is 3 (normal distribution); $K - 3$ called "*excess kurtosis*"
 - o $K = 3$: mesokurtic, $K > 3$: leptokurtic, $K < 3$: platykurtic
- o Kurtosis is unitless and cannot be negative

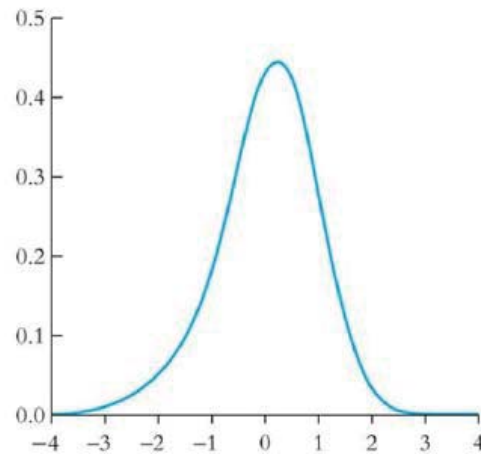
Four Distributions with Different Skewness and Kurtosis



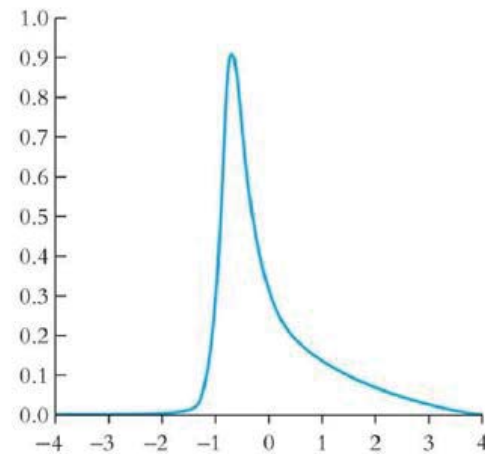
(a) Skewness = 0, kurtosis = 3



(b) Skewness = 0, kurtosis = 20



(c) Skewness = -0.1, kurtosis = 5



(d) Skewness = 0.6, kurtosis = 5

Stock & Watson
(2007): 68

Several Discrete Random Variables

Joint and Marginal Distributions

⇒ **Joint probability** that $X = x$ and $Y = y$ (joint *pdf* of X and Y)

$$f(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

○ Sum of all joint probabilities: $\sum_x \sum_y f(x, y) = 1$

⇒ **Marginal probability distribution** of random variable X :

$$f_X(x) = \sum_y f(x, y) \quad \text{for each value of } X$$

- Just another name for its probability distribution
- Computed from joint distribution of X and Y by adding up probabilities of all possible outcomes for which X takes on a specific value

Several Discrete Random Variables

Conditional Distribution

➡ **Conditional pdf**: probability that random variable Y takes value y *given that* $X = x$:

$$P(Y = y|X = x) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(X = x)}$$
$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)}$$

➡ Statistical independence:

$$P(Y = y|X = x) = P(Y = y)$$

$$f(y|x) = f(y) = f_Y(y)$$

Several Discrete Random Variables

Example

- Joint distribution of computer crashes and operating system

Operating system	$M = 0$	$M = 1$	$M = 2$	$M = 3$	$M = 4$	Total
Windows ($OS = 0$)	0.531	0.08	0.05	0.029	0.01	0.7
Linux ($OS = 1$)	0.269	0.02	0.01	0.001	0.00	0.3
Total	0.80	0.10	0.06	0.03	0.01	1.00

- Probability that computer will not crash at all and be running on Linux:
 - o Joint probability: $P(M = 0, OS = 1) = 0.269 = 26.9\%$
- Probability any random computer is running on Windows:
 - o Marginal probability: $P(OS = 0) = \sum_{i=0}^4 P(M = x_i, OS = 0) = 0.7 = 70\%$
- Probability that a computer that doesn't crash when running on Linux:
 - o Conditional probability: $P(M = 0|OS = 1) = \frac{P(OS=1, M=0)}{P(OS=1)} = \frac{0.269}{0.3} \approx 0.8967 = 89.67\%$
- Expectation of probability of no crash with Linux given statistical independence:
 - o $P(M = 0|OS = 1) = P(M = 0) = 0.80$

Several Discrete Random Variables

Conditional Expectation

- ➡ Conditional expectation (also called: conditional mean) of Y given $X = x$, if Y can take on k values $y_1, \dots, y_k$:

$$E(Y|X = x) = \sum_{i=1}^k y_i P(Y = y_i|X = x) = \sum_y y f(y|x)$$

- o Example: How many crashes do I expect when working with

- o Linux computer: $E(M|OS = 1) = \sum_{i=0}^4 m_i P(M = m_i|OS = 1) = 0 \cdot$

$$\frac{0.269}{0.3} + 1 \cdot \frac{0.02}{0.3} + 2 \cdot \frac{0.01}{0.3} + 3 \cdot \frac{0.001}{0.3} + 4 \cdot \frac{0.00}{0.3} \approx 0.143$$

- o Windows computer: $E(M|OS = 0) = \sum_{i=0}^4 m_i P(M = m_i|OS = 0) =$

$$0 \cdot \frac{0.531}{0.7} + 1 \cdot \frac{0.08}{0.7} + 2 \cdot \frac{0.05}{0.7} + 3 \cdot \frac{0.029}{0.7} + 4 \cdot \frac{0.01}{0.7} \approx 0.439$$

Several Discrete Random Variables

Conditional Variance

➡ Conditional variance (variance of Y given a value for X):

$$\text{var}(Y|X = x) = \sum_{i=1}^k [y_i - E(Y|X = x)]^2 P(Y = y_i|X = x)$$

o Example: Conditional variance of crashes when working with:

- Linux computer:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(M|OS = 1) &= \sum_{i=1}^4 \{[m_i - E(M|OS = 1)]^2 P(M = m_i|OS = 1)\} \\ &= (0 - 0.143)^2 \cdot \frac{0.269}{0.3} + (1 - 0.143)^2 \cdot \frac{0.02}{0.3} + (2 - 0.143)^2 \cdot \frac{0.01}{0.3} \\ &\quad + (3 - 0.143)^2 \cdot \frac{0.001}{0.3} + (4 - 0.143)^2 \cdot \frac{0.00}{0.3} \approx 0.209\end{aligned}$$

- Windows computer:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(M|OS = 1) &= \sum_{i=0}^4 \{[m_i - E(M|OS = 1)]^2 P(M = m_i|OS = 1)\} \\ &\approx 0.809\end{aligned}$$

Several Discrete Random Variables

Covariance and Correlation

⇒ Covariance between X and Y :

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \sigma_{XY} = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = E(XY) - \mu_X\mu_Y$$

- $\sigma_{XY} > 0$: positive association (when $X > \mu_X$ then $Y > \mu_Y$ and when $X < \mu_X$ then $Y < \mu_Y$)
- $\sigma_{XY} < 0$: negative association
- $\sigma_{XY} = 0$: neither negative nor positive association

⇒ Correlation between X and Y :

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \rho = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(X)}\sqrt{\text{var}(Y)}} = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X\sigma_Y}$$

- Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient
- unitless measure
- $-1 \leq \rho \leq 1$



Karl Pearson,
1857-1936

Continuous Random Variables

- ➔ Continuous random variables can take any value in an interval
 - GDP, interest rates, income, stock market indices, exchange rates, ... are (treated as) continuous variables
- ➔ Because they can take uncountable many values, probability that any single value occurs is zero
 - For example: if X is tomorrow's *EUR|CHF* exchange rate, $P(X = 1.240) = 0$
- ➔ For continuous variables, probability statements are meaningful when we consider outcomes within intervals
 - For example: if X is tomorrow's *EUR|CHF* exchange rate, $P(X = 1.240) \geq 0$ (because 1.2400 is usually considered an interval, e.g. $[1.2395, 1.2404[$)

Continuous Random Variables

Probability Density Function

➔ **Probability density function (*pdf*)** summarizes the probability for a continuous variable

➔ Let X be a continuous random variable with *pdf* $f(x)$

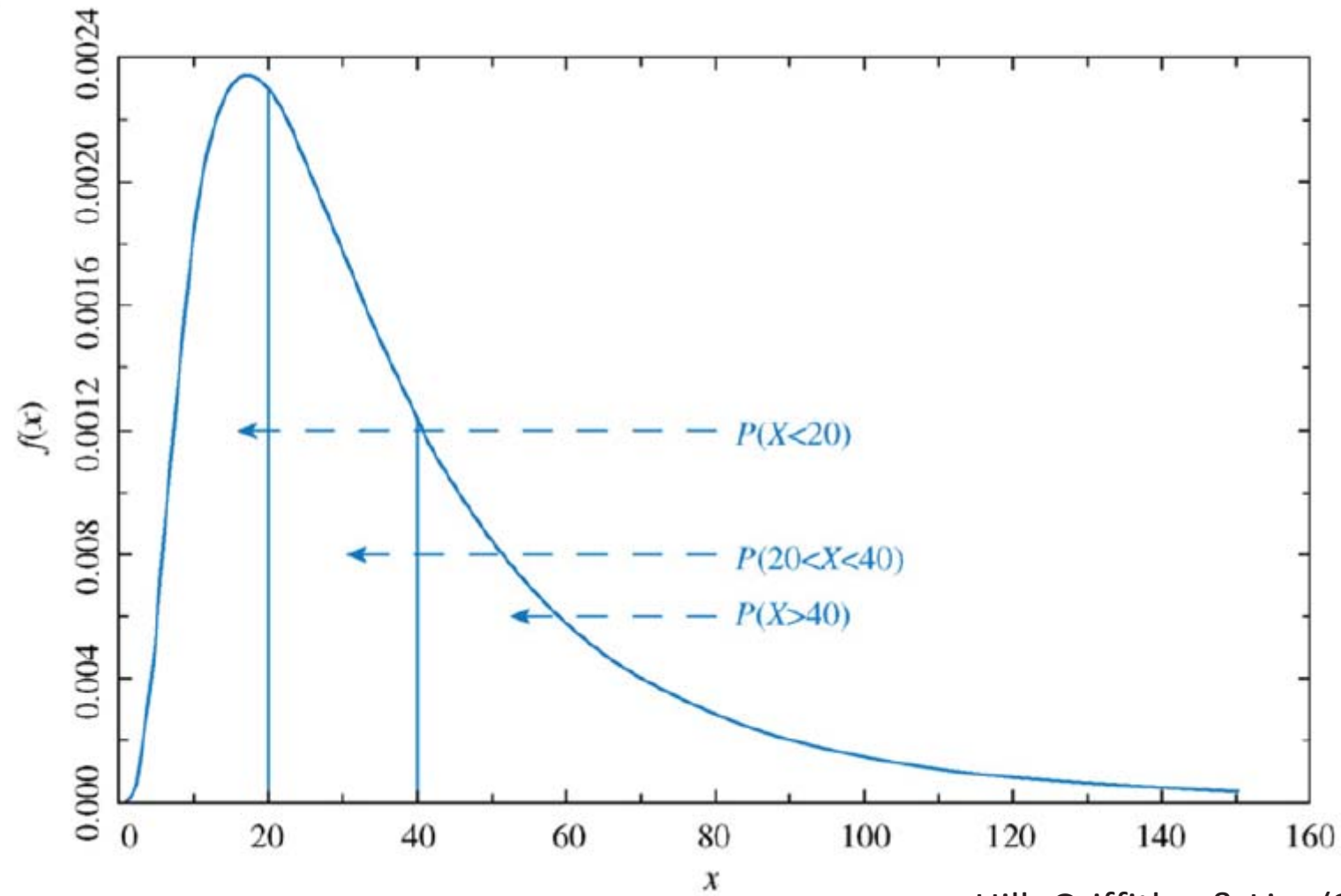
o $f(x) \geq 0$

o $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

o $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$

Probability that X falls in the interval $[a, b]$ = the area under $f(x)$ between these points

pdf of a Continuous Random Variable



Hill, Griffiths, & Lim (2008)

Continuous Random Variables

Cumulative Density Function

- ➔ **Cumulative probability distribution (*cdf*)** defined as for discrete variable: probability that random variable is less than or equal to a specific value

$$P(X \leq a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx = F(a)$$

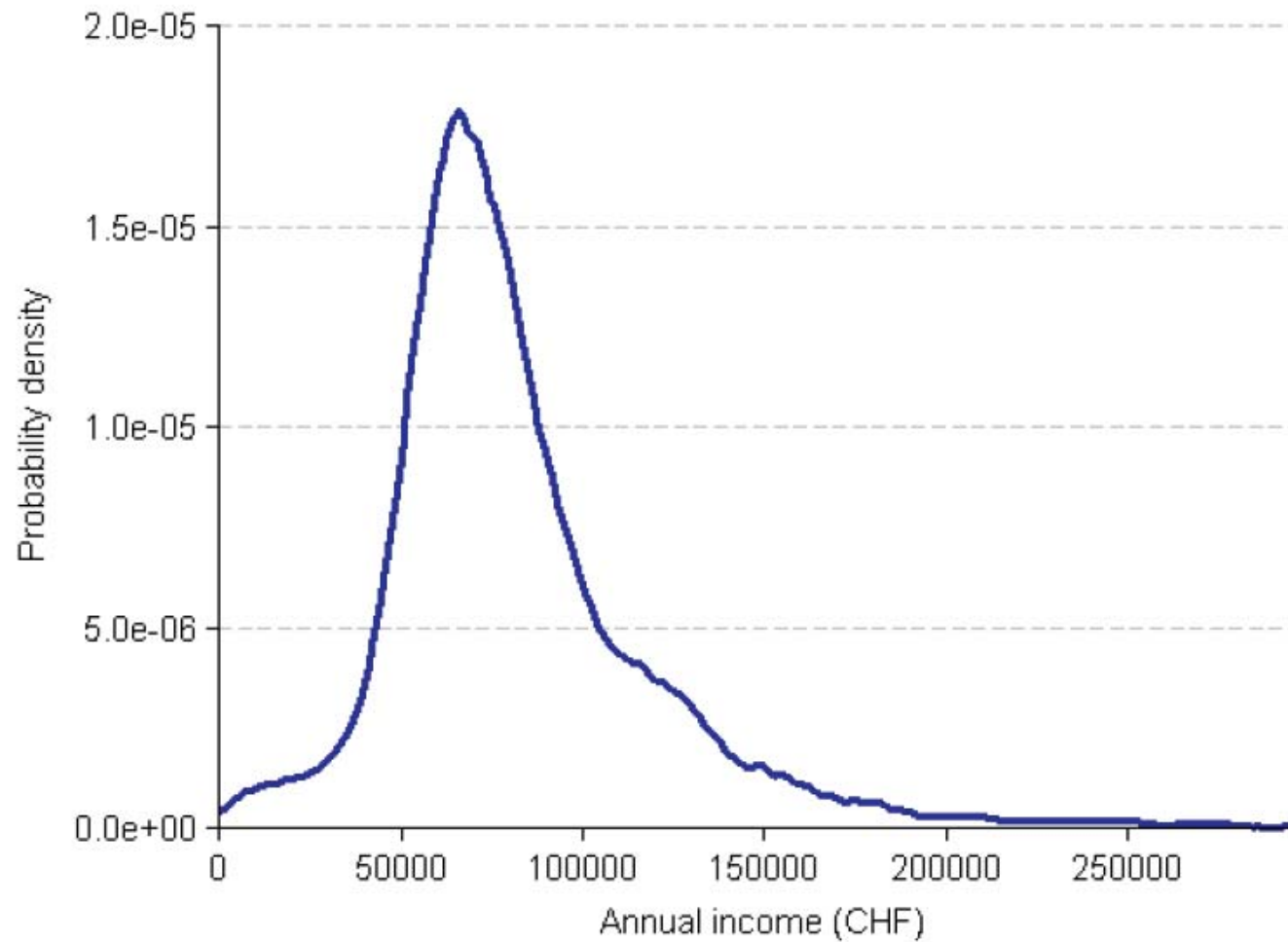
- ➔ *cdf* obtained by integrating *pdf*

- ➔ Hence, Possible to obtain *pdf* by differentiating *cdf*:

$$f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx} = F'(x)$$

An Empirical *pdf*

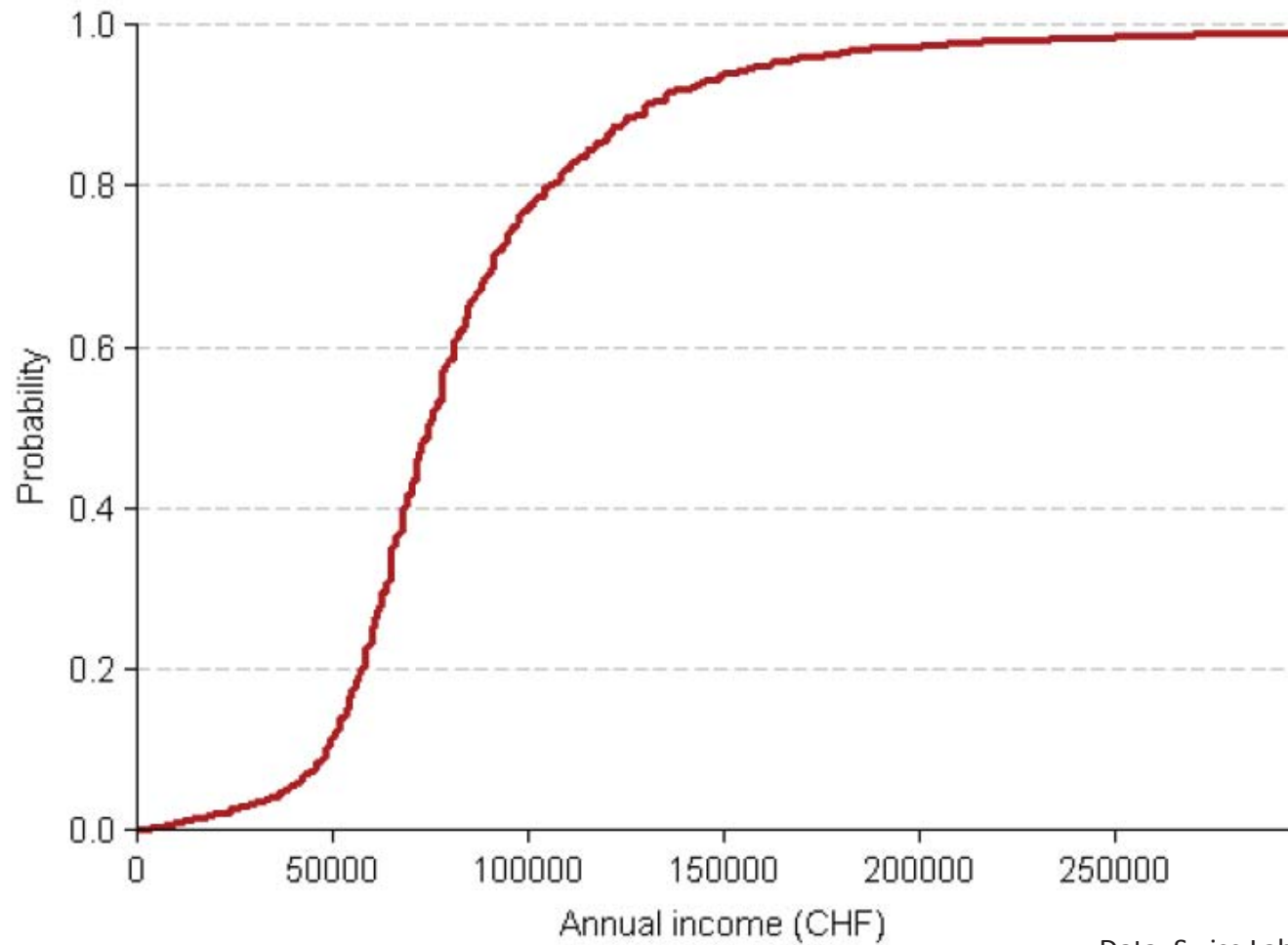
Male Workers' Income in Switzerland



Data: Swiss Labor Force Survey 2008

An Empirical *cdf*

Male Workers' Income in Switzerland



Data: Swiss Labor Force Survey 2008

Continuous Random Variables

Expectation and Variance

⇒ Expectation:

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

- Compared to discrete case, integral simply replaces summation
- Interpretation: average value of X for an infinite number of repetitions

⇒ Variance:

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

Several Continuous Random Variables

Joint, Marginal, and Conditional Probability Distributions

- ➔ Joint probability density function $f(x, y)$ is a surface and probabilities are volumes under the surface
- ➔ Probability that X is between a and b and at the same time Y is between c and d :

$$P(a \leq X \leq b, c \leq Y \leq d) = \int_{x=a}^b \int_{y=c}^d f(x, y) dx dy$$

- ➔ Marginal probability density function for Y :

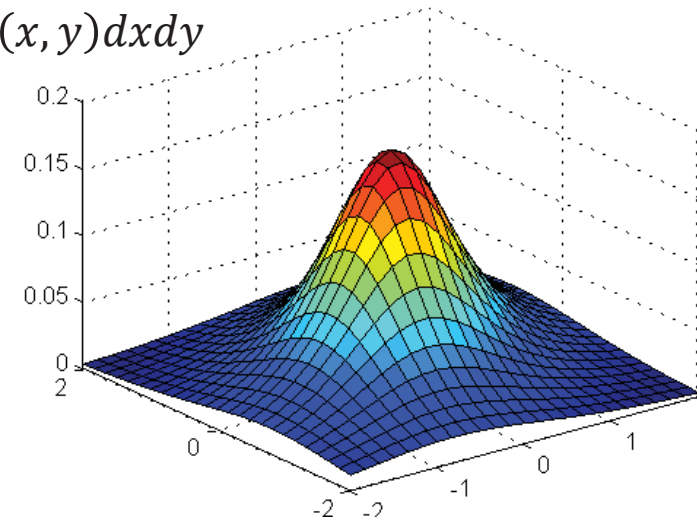
$$f(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx$$

- ➔ Conditional probability density function:

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

- Unlike the discrete case $f(x|y)$ is not a probability but a density function that can be used to compute probabilities:

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



Normal Distribution

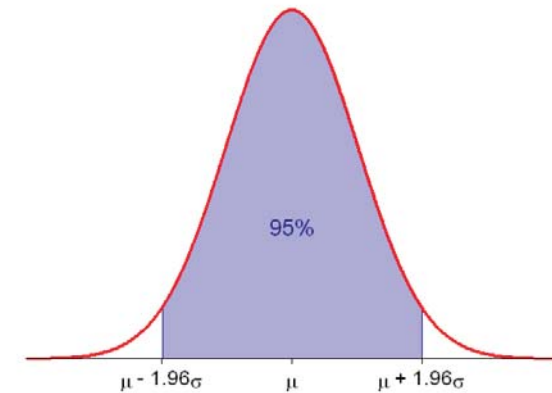
➔ **Normal distribution (or Gaussian distribution):** continuous probability distribution with bell-shaped *pdf*

➔ Normally distributed random variable X with mean μ and variance σ^2 symbolized:

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

➔ *pdf* of X :

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



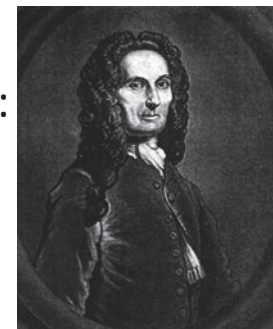
➔ Standard normal distribution: $Z \sim N(0,1)$

○ Computer softwares and tables provide values of standard normal *cdf*, usually denoted $\Phi(z) = P(Z \leq z)$

○ **Standardization** to compute probabilities for variable $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$:

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Abraham de Moivre,
1667-1754



Normal Distribution (continued)

Calculating probabilities

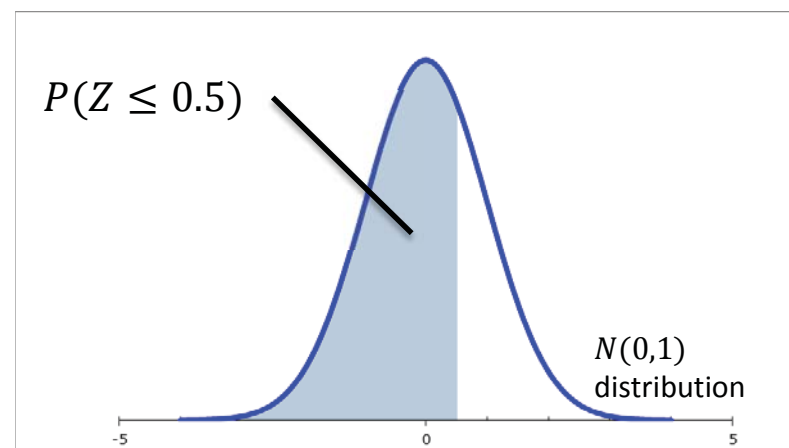
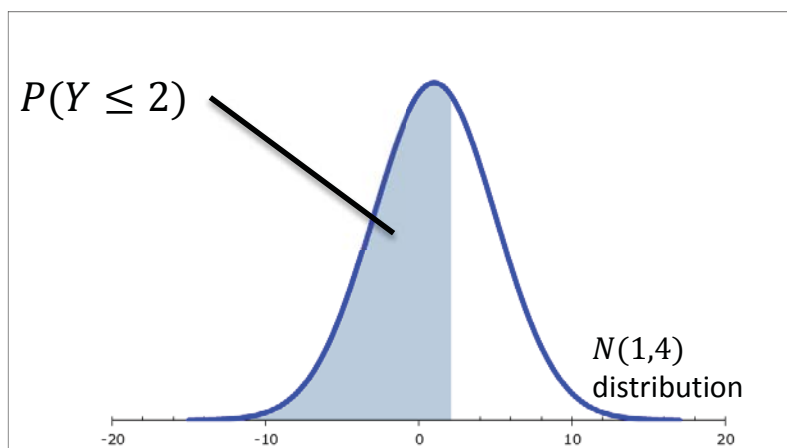
➡ What is the probability that $Y \leq 2$ if $Y \sim N(1,4)$

o Step 1: z-standardize to get z-score

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{2 - 1}{2} = 0.5$$

o Step 2: compare z-score to distribution table

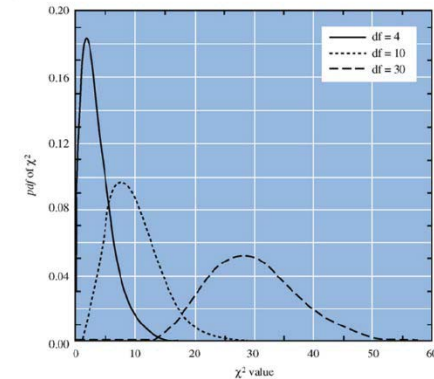
$$P\left(\frac{Y - 1}{2} \leq 0.5\right) = \phi(0.5) = 0.691$$



Other important distributions

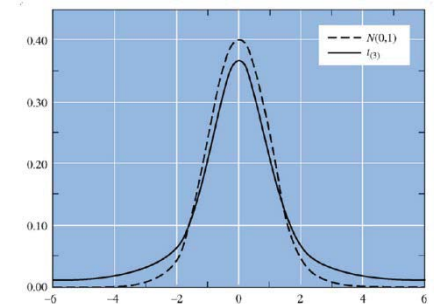
⇒ Chi-square distribution

- o $V = Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \dots + Z_m^2 \sim \chi_{(m)}^2$ with m degrees of freedom
- o where $Z_i \sim N(0,1)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and Z_i are independent
 - As $m \rightarrow \infty$, $\chi_{(m)}^2 \rightarrow Z \sim N(0,1)$ and $\chi_{(1)}^2 = Z_1^2$



⇒ Student t-distribution

- o $t = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{V}{m}}} \sim t_{(m)}$ with m degrees of freedom
- o where $Z \sim N(0,1)$ and $V \sim \chi_{(m)}^2$
 - As $m \rightarrow \infty$, $t_{(m)} \rightarrow Z \sim N(0,1)$



⇒ F-distribution

- o $F = \frac{\frac{V_m}{m}}{\frac{V_n}{n}} = \frac{\chi_m^2}{m} \cdot \frac{n}{\chi_n^2} \sim F_{(m,n)}$ with m, n degrees of freedom
- o Relationship to Chi-square distribution: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F = \frac{\chi_m^2}{m}$

