Week 2: Random Variables

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Princeton

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 $^{^1}$ These slides are heavily influenced by Adam Glynn, Justin Grimmer and Jens Hainmueller. Many illustrations by Shay O'Brien.

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 - described uncertain outcomes with probability.

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Questions?

Notation guide

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- Using the slides (links, what's contained in a single deck etc.)

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- Any logistical hiccups?

- Random Variables and Distributions

 What is a Random Variable?
- Discrete Distributions
 - Continuous Distributions
- - Characteristics of Distributions
 - Central Tendency
 - Measures of Dispersion
- Conditional Distributions
- Fun with Averages
- 5 Fun with Sensitive Questions
- 6 Appendix: Why the Mean?
- Joint Distributions
 - Discrete Random Variable
 - Continuous Random Variable
- 8 Conditional Expectation
- 9 Properties
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 - Covariance and Correlation
 - Conditional Independence
- 10 Famous Distributions
- Fun With Spam

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We will do this by introducing a random variable X to be Barack Obama's position on the 2008 New Hampshire primary ballot.

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 - use the answers to infer the proportion upset by the fourth item.
- To do this we need to understand random variables

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we could define a random variable $X(\omega)$ to be the function that returns the number of heads for each element of Ω .

- $X(\{heads, heads\}) = 2$
- X({heads, tails}) = 1
- $X(\{tails, heads\}) = 1$
- $X(\{tails, tails\}) = 0$

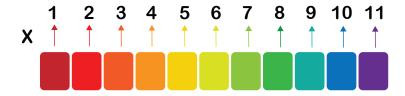
A Visual Example



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 Sometimes the sample space is already numeric so its more obvious (e.g. how long until the train arrives)

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- Why are they <u>random</u> variables? realizations of a stochastic process (i.e. randomness in the outcome, not the mapping)
- Is it really easier this way? It seems hard. yep. seriously. let's do an example!

Candidates:

- Joe Biden
- Hillary Clinton
- Chris Dodd
- John Edwards
- Mike Gravel
- Dennis Kucinich
- Barack Obama
- Bill Richardson

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 \\ 1 \end{cases}$$



A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H,I,J,K,**L**,M,N,O,P,Q,R,S,T,U,V,W,X,Y,Z

Candidates:

- Joe Biden
- Hillary Clinton
- Chris Dodd
- John Edwards
- Mike Gravel
- Dennis Kucinich
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$$X = \begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \end{cases}$$

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$$X = \begin{cases} 1\\2\\3 \end{cases}$$

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$$X = \begin{cases} 1\\2\\3\\4 \end{cases}$$



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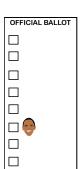
$$X = \begin{cases} 1\\2\\3\\4\\5 \end{cases}$$

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$$X = \begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{cases}$$



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$$X = \begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \end{cases}$$

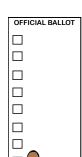


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$$X = \begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \end{cases}$$



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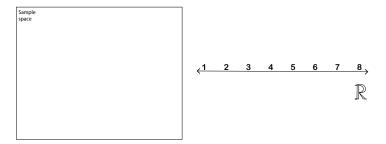
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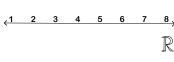
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- A probability mass function (pmf) and a cumulative distribution function (cdf) are two common ways to define the probability distribution for a discrete RV.

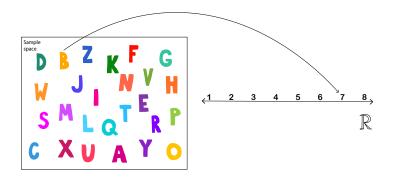
Discrete Distributions

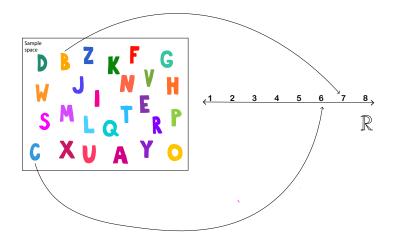
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- A common shorthand is to think of discrete RVs taking on distinct values.
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- Probability mass functions provide a compact way to represent information about how likely various outcomes are.

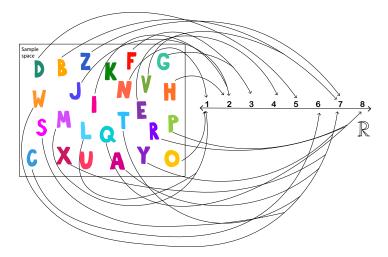












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$$\int 4/26 \quad x = 1$$



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$$4/26 x = 1$$
 $4/26 x = 2$

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$$= \begin{cases} 4/26 & x = 1\\ 4/26 & x = 2\\ 2/26 & x = 3 \end{cases}$$



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$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 4/26 & x = 1\\ 4/26 & x = 2\\ 2/26 & x = 3\\ 1/26 & x = 4 \end{cases}$$



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$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 4/26 & x = 1\\ 4/26 & x = 2\\ 2/26 & x = 3\\ 1/26 & x = 4\\ 1/26 & x = 5 \end{cases}$$

OFFICIAL BALLOT

A.B.C.D.E.F.G,H,I,J,K,L,M,N,O,P,Q,R,S,T,U,V,W,X,Y,Z

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A.B.C.D.E.F.G.H.I.J.K.L.M.N.O.P.Q.R.S.T.U.V.W.X.Y.Z

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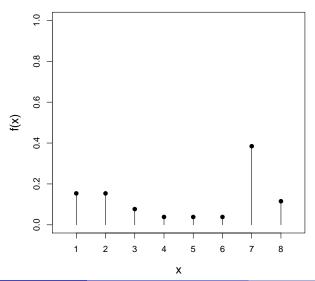
OFFICIAL BALLOT

Discrete Probability Mass Functions

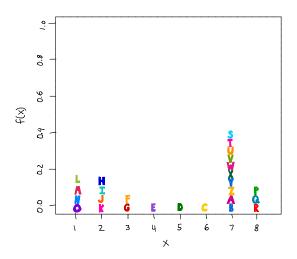
Discrete Probability Mass Functions

A <u>probability mass function</u> f(x) of a random variable X is a non-negative function that gives the probability that X = x and $\sum_{x} f(x) = 1$.

NH Obama Ballot Position PMF Plot



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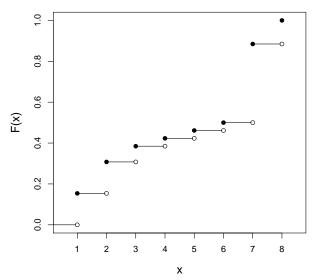


Discrete Cumulative Distribution Function

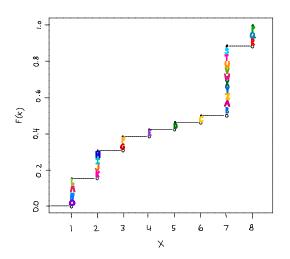
Discrete Cumulative Distribution Function

A <u>cumulative distribution function</u> F(x) of a random variable X is a non-decreasing function that gives the probability that $X \le x$.

NH Obama Ballot Position CDF Plot



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 We can summarize these distributions with one number (e.g. the probability of variables being 1)

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An empirical mass function $\hat{f}(x)$ of a variable X is a non-negative function that gives the frequency of the value x from data on X.

An empirical cumulative distribution function $\widehat{F}(x)$ of a variable X is a non-decreasing function that gives the frequency of values of X less than x.

Example: Assessing Racial Prejudice

- We often want to ask sensitive questions which a survey respondent is unlikely to honestly answer
- A list experiment asks respondents how many items on a list they agree with
 - for example, what proportion of people would be upset by a black family moving in next door to them (Kuklinski et al 1997).
 - randomly split survey into two halves
 - first half ask how many of the following items upset you:
 - 1. the federal government increasing the tax on gasoline
 - 2. professional athletes getting million-dollar salaries
 - 3. large corporations polluting the environment.
 - second half, add a fourth item
 - 4. a black family moving in next door
 - use the answers to infer the proportion upset by the fourth item.
- To do this we need to understand random variables

Racial Prejudice Example (Kuklinski et al, 1997)

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X = # of angering items on the baseline list for Southerners:

X	0	1	2	3
f(x)	?	?	?	?
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$\widehat{F}(x)$	0.02	0.29	0.72	1.00

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Y = # of angering items on the treatment list for Southerners:

y	0	1	2	3	4
f(y)	?	?	?	?	?
$ \begin{array}{c} f(y) \\ \widehat{f}(y) \\ \widehat{F}(y) \end{array} $	0.02	0.20	0.40	0.28	0.10
$\widehat{F}(y)$	0.02	0.22	0.62	0.90	1.00

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- A probability density function (pdf) and a cumulative distribution function (cdf) are two common ways to define the distribution for a continuous RV.

Example: Age in the Racial Prejudice Example

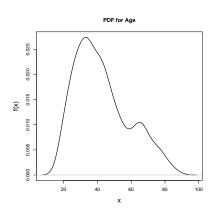
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Let X be the age of a randomly selected individual from the Kuklinski et al. (1997) data set.

Example: Age in the Racial Prejudice Example

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The probability distribution for this variable is well approximated by a probability density function.

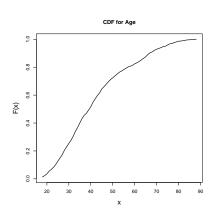


Continuous Cumulative Distribution Functions

Continuous Cumulative Distribution Functions

A cumulative distribution function F(x) of a random variable X is a non-decreasing function that gives the probability that $X \le x$. For a continuous RV, the cdf is continuous.

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(z) dz$$



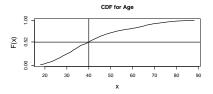
From PDFs to CDFs

From PDFs to CDFs

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(z)dz$$

$$.52 = P(X \le 40) = \int_{-\infty}^{40} f(z) dz$$



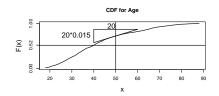


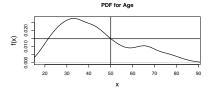
From CDFs to PDFs

From CDFs to PDFs

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

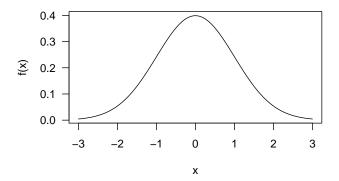
$$.015 = \frac{dF(50)}{dx}$$





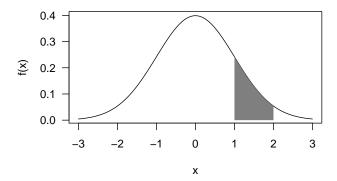
Subtleties of Continuous Densities

Remember- the height of the curve is not the probability of x occurring.



Subtleties of Continuous Densities

Remember- the height of the curve is not the probability of x occurring. To get the probability that X will fall in some region, you need the area under the curve.



- Random Variables and Distributions What is a Random Variable?
 - Discrete Distributions

 - Continuous Distributions
- Characteristics of Distributions
 - Central Tendency
 - Measures of Dispersion
- Conditional Distributions
- Fun with Averages
- Fun with Sensitive Questions
- Appendix: Why the Mean?
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The expected value of a random variable X is denoted by E[X] and is a measure of **central tendency** of X. Roughly speaking, an expected value is like a weighted average of all of the values weighted by probability of occurrence.

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Candidates:

Joe Biden

 $4/26 \times 1$

- Hillary ClintonChris Dodd
- John Edwards
- Mike Gravel
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 $\begin{array}{ccc} 4/26 & \times 1 \\ 4/26 & \times 2 \end{array}$



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Candidates:

•	Joe Biden	4/26	× 1
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•	John Edwards	1/26	\times 4
•	Mike Gravel	1/26	× 5

OFFICIAL BALLOT

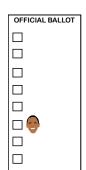
A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H,I,J,K,L,M,N,O,P,Q,R,S,T,U,V,W,X,Y,Z

Dennis KucinichBarack ObamaBill Richardson

Candidates:

I D. I

•	Joe Biden		4/26	\times 1
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•	Mike Gravel		1/26	× 5
•	Dennis Kucinich		1/26	× 6
•	Barack Obama	+		



A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H,I,J,K,L,M,N,O,P,Q,R,S,T,U,V,W,X,Y,Z

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OFFICIAL BALLOT	
Іп	

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4/26 $4/26 \times 2$ $2/26 \times 3$ $1/26 \times 4$ $1/26 \times 5$ 1/26 \times 6 $10/26 \times 7$ 3/26 $8 \times$

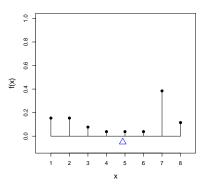
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Dennis Kucinich		1/26	\times 6
		10/26	\times 7
Barack Obama	+	3/26	$\times 8$
 Bill Richardson 			4.88

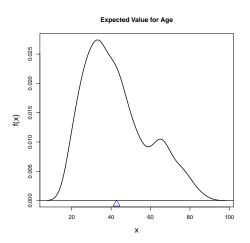
Interpreting Discrete Expected Value

The expected value for a discrete random variable is the balance point of the mass function.



Interpreting Continuous Expected Value

The expected value for a continuous random variable is the balance point of the density function.



• It is the probabilistic equivalent of the sample average (mean).

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Why the Expected Value (Balance Point)?

- It is the probabilistic equivalent of the sample average (mean).
- It is a reasonable measure for the "center" of the data.
- We have some intuition about balance points.
- It has some useful and convenient properties.



Let x_1, \ldots, x_N be our population. Then the population mean is the following

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$$\bar{x} = \sum_{\text{all } x_i} x_i f(x_i)$$
, where $f(x_i) = \frac{1}{N}$

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Suppose we have k random variables X_1, \ldots, X_k . If $E[X_i]$ exists for all $i = 1, \ldots, k$, then

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Suppose a and b are constants and X is a random variable. Then

$$E[b] = b$$

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

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Together properties 1 and 2 are linearity (and this is sometimes presented as Linearity of Expectations).

Law of the Unconscious Statistician: If g(X) is a function of a discrete random variable, then

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x} g(x) f_X(x),$$

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essentially the expected value of the transformation of the random variable is just the weighted average of the transformed outcomes.

We will come back to this later. But it means that we can can calculate the expected value of g(X) without explicitly knowing the distribution of g(X)!

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

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However,

- $E[g(X)] \neq g(E[X])$ unless $g(\cdot)$ is a linear function
- $E[XY] \neq E[X]E[Y]$ unless X and Y are independent

Racial Prejudice Example

X = # of angering items on the baseline list for Southerners:

X	0	1	2	3	Sum
$\widehat{f}(x)$	0.02	0.27	0.43	0.28	1.00
$\widehat{f}(x)$ $x \cdot \widehat{f}(x)$	0.00	0.27	0.86	0.84	1.97

Y = # of angering items on the treatment list for Southerners:

у	0	1	2	3	4	Sum
$\widehat{f}(y)$	0.03	0.20	0.40	0.28	0.10	1.00
$ \widehat{f}(y) \\ y \cdot \widehat{f}(y) $	0.00	0.20	0.80	0.84	0.40	2.24

Assume that Y = X + A, where for a randomly sampled respondent,

- Y = the number of total angering items
- \bullet X = the number of angering items on baseline list
- ullet A=1 if angered by a black family moving in next door
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Exercises for Later:

• Then we know that E[Y] - E[X] = E[A], but can you prove it?

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Exercises for Later:

- Then we know that E[Y] E[X] = E[A], but can you prove it?
- Noting that A is a Bernoulli RV, how can we interpret E[A]?
- What properties and assumptions were necessary?

Variance

The expected value of a function g() of the random variable X, written g(X), is denoted by E[g(X)] and is a measure of central tendency of g(X).

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The expected value of a function g() of the random variable X, written g(X), is denoted by E[g(X)] and is a measure of central tendency of g(X).

The variance is a special case of this, and the variance of a random variable \boldsymbol{X} (a measure of its dispersion) is given by

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

It is the expectation of the squared distances from the mean.

For a discrete random variable X

$$V[X] = \sum_{\text{all } x} (x - E[X])^2 f_X(x)$$

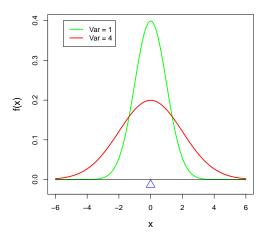
For a discrete random variable X

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For a continuous random variable X

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

Variance Measures the Spread of a Distribution



• It is a reasonable measure for the "spread" of a distribution.

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- The Normal distribution (bell shaped with thin tails) is completely determined by its expected value (location) and variance (spread).

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- The Normal distribution (bell shaped with thin tails) is completely determined by its expected value (location) and variance (spread).
- The square root of the variance is the standard deviation.
- The variance and standard deviation have some useful properties.

Suppose a and b are constants and X is a random variable. Then

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• The variance of a constant is zero.

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$$V[b] = 0$$

$$V[aX] = a^{2}V[X]$$

$$V[aX + b] = a^{2}V[X] + 0$$

Property 2 of Variance: Additivity for Independent Random Variables

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Variances of sums of independent RVs are sums of variances.

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Variances of sums of independent RVs are sums of variances.

Suppose we have k independent random variables X_1, \ldots, X_k . If $V[X_i]$ exists for all $i = 1, \ldots, k$, then

$$V\left[\sum_{i=1}^k X_i\right] = V[X_1] + \cdots + V[X_k]$$

NB: Technically independence is sufficient but not necessary.

Candidates:

Joe Biden

 $4/26 \times (1-4.88)^2$

- Hillary ClintonChris Dodd
- John Edwards
- Mike Gravel
- Dennis Kucinich
- Barack Obama
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+	,

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$$+ 3/26 \times (8 - 4.88)^{2}$$

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$$1/26 \times (6-4.88)^{2}$$

$$10/26 \times (7-4.88)^{2}$$

$$+ 3/26 \times (8-4.88)^{2}$$

Candidates:

- Joe Biden
- Hillary Clinton
- Chris Dodd
- John Edwards
- Mike Gravel
- Dennis Kucinich
- Barack Obama
- Bill Richardson

$$4/26 \times (1-4.88)^2$$

 $4/26 \times (2-4.88)^2$

$$2/26 \times (2-4.88)^2$$

$$1/26 \times (4-4.88)^2$$

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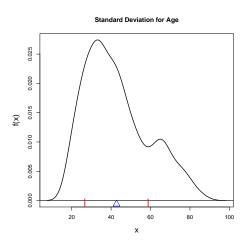
2.93

A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H,I,J,K,L,M,N,O,P,Q,R,S,T,U,V,W,X,Y,Z

Does variance matter for fairness?

Interpreting Continuous Standard Deviation

The standard deviation for a continuous random variable is a measure of the spread of the pdf.



Do we lose anything when we use the list experiment?

More on this next week when we talk about estimator properties!

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Example Conditional Distribution: Binary X, Discrete Y

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f(y,x))	<	
y	0	1	f(y)
0	π_{00}	π_{01}	$\pi_{00} + \pi_{01}$
1	π_{10}	π_{11}	$\pi_{00} + \pi_{01}$
2	π_{20}	π_{21}	$\pi_{00} + \pi_{01}$
3	π_{30}	π_{31}	$\pi_{00} + \pi_{01}$
4	π_{40}	$\pi_{ extsf{41}}$	$\pi_{00} + \pi_{01}$
f(x)	$\sum_{y=0}^4 \pi_{y0}$	$\sum_{y=0}^4 \pi_{y1}$	

Example Conditional Distribution: Binary X, Discrete Y

Although we cannot observe the responses for the entire population, we can imagine what they might look like as a joint distribution.

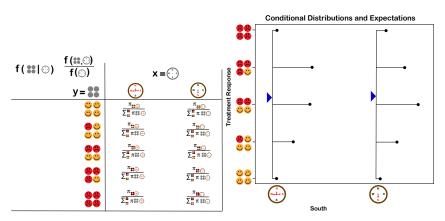
f (:: ,⊕)	>	$\zeta = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$	
у	N W ₄ → E S	W J E	f (**)
© ©	$\pi_{"}$	$\pi_{\overset{\circ}{\bullet}\overset{\circ}{\bullet}\overset{\circ}{\bullet}}$	π + π
8 0 00	$\pi_{\bullet \bullet}$	$\pi_{ \color{red} lack lack} $	π *** + π
88 00	$\pi_{ uu}$	$\pi_{\bullet \bullet \bullet}$	π + π
88 8 0	$\pi_{_{\cite{3}}}$	$\pi_{ {\color{red} ullet} {\color{gray} \circ} {\color{gray}$	π_{e} + π_{e}
88 88	$\pi_{ {\color{red} \bullet } $	$\pi_{\begin{subarray}{c} \bullet \ \bullet \ \bullet \ \end{array}}$	π + π
f(⊕)	$\sum_{33}^{33} \pi_{33}^{33} \oplus$	$\sum_{**}^{**} \pi ** \oplus$	

Discrete Conditional Distribution

Given the joint distribution, we can imagine what the conditional distribution and the conditional expectations would look like.

Discrete Conditional Distribution

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(More on conditional expectations on Wednesday)

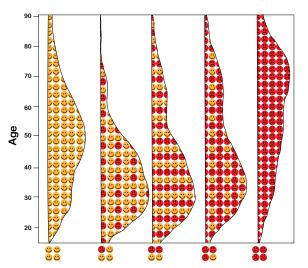
Example: Conditional Distribution with "Continuous" Y

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Suppose we define X= "number of angering items" and Y= "age" for a randomly selected respondent receiving the treatment list.

Example: Conditional Distribution with "Continuous" Y

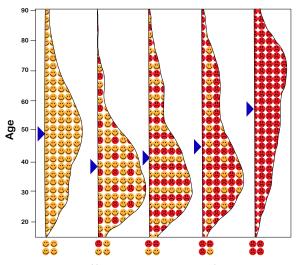
Suppose we define X = "number of angering items" and Y = "age" for a randomly selected respondent receiving the treatment list.



Conditional Expectation Function (CEF)

Conditional Expectation Function (CEF)

The conditional expectations form a CEF: E[Y|X=x]=h(x)



How many on treatment list

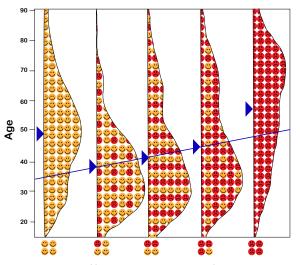
Linear CEF Assumption

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Often we will assume that the CEF is linear: $E[Y|X=x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$

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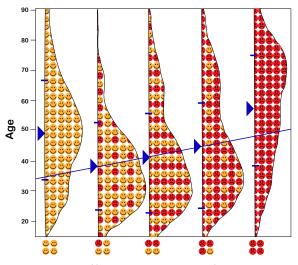


How many on treatment list

Conditional Variance and Standard Deviation

Conditional Variance and Standard Deviation

Similarly, we can assess the conditional standard deviation

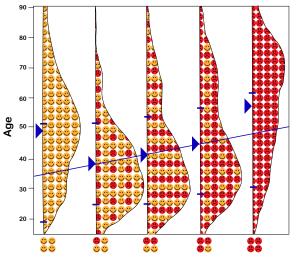


How many on treatment list

Linear CEF and Constant Variance Assumptions

Linear CEF and Constant Variance Assumptions

Often, we assume that variance is the same for all values of x.



How many on treatment list

Because the CEF is defined merely in terms of the larger population and not in terms of a causal effect (e.g., the causal effect of "number of angering items" on Age), we will utilize a descriptive interpretation of β_0 and β_1 .

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- For this example, β_0 is the expected age for an individual that is angered by zero items
- β_1 is the expected difference in age between two individuals that have a one unit difference in the number of angering items.

 Random variables and probability distributions provide useful infrastructure for everything we will do this year.

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- Expected value and variance are two useful characteristics of the probability distributions associated with random variables.

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- Expected value and variance are two useful characteristics of the probability distributions associated with random variables.
- These concepts can be extended by conditioning on other variables.
- Next class we will cover joint distributions and conditional expectations in more depth.

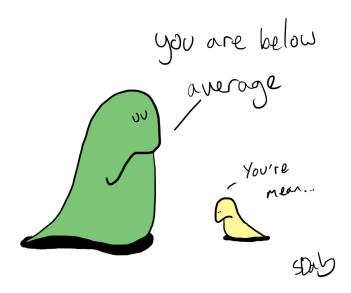
Fun with

Fun with Averages

Fun with Averages



Central Tendency



The Story of Averages



Measurements

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	<u> </u>	Zantani ing Sida Santani	<u>and the second second</u>	I		<u></u>
MESURES	NOMBRE	момвле	PROBABILITÉ	RANG	RANG	PROBABILITÉ	момвае
de la	d'hammes,	PROPOBYIONSEL.	d'oprès	dans	d'après le	d'après	D [*] OBSERVATIONS
. POITRINE,	d Bulleates,	PROPORTION SEC.	L'GESERVATION.	LA TAPER.	CALCUL.	14 TABLE.	calculé.
Pouces.							
55	3	5	0,5000		İ	0,5000	7
54	18	51	0,4995	52	50	0,4993	29
35	81	141	0,4964	42,5	42,5	0,4964	110
36	185	322	0,4823	33,5	34,5	0,4854	523
57	420	732	0,4501	26,0	26,5	0,4551	732
58	749	1305	0,3769	18,0	18,5	0,5799	1333
39	1073	1867	0,2464	10,5	10,5	0,2466	1838
			0,0597	2,5	2,5	0,0628	,
40	1079	1882	0,1285	5,5	5,5	0,1359	1987
41	934	1628	0,2913	15	13,5	0,5034	1675
42	658	1148	0,4061	21	21,5	0,4130	1096
45	370	645	0,4706	30	29,5	0,4690	560
44	92	160	0,4866	55	57,5	0,4911	221
45	50	87	0,4955	41	45,5	0,4980	69
46	21	38	0,4991	49,5	53,5	0,4996	16
47	4	7	0,4998	56	61,8	0,4999	3
48	1	2	0,5000			0,5000	1
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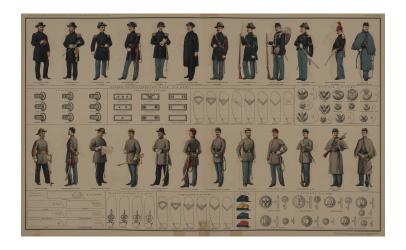
Social Physics

Social Physics

The determination of the average man is not merely a matter of speculative curiosity; it may be of the most important service to the science of man and the social system. It ought necessarily to precede every other inquiry into social physics, since it is, as it were, the basis. The average man, indeed, is in a nation what the centre of gravity is in a body; it is by having that central point in view that we arrive at the apprehension of all the phenomena of equilibrium and motion

- Quetelet

The Military Takes to the Idea



The Problem with Averages



The Average Man



The Face of the Average Man





Graeme Blair (slides that follow from Graeme)

Cannot ask direct questions when there are **incentives to conceal** sensitive responses

Cannot ask direct questions when there are **incentives to conceal sensitive responses**

Social pressure

Cannot ask direct questions when there are **incentives to conceal** sensitive responses

- Social pressure
- Physical retaliation

Cannot ask direct questions when there are **incentives to conceal** sensitive responses

- Social pressure
- Physical retaliation
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Develop trust with respondents, ask directly

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Survey experimental methods

- Endorsement experiment Evaluation bias
- 2 List experiment Aggregation

Develop trust with respondents, ask directly

Survey experimental methods

- Endorsement experiment Evaluation bias
- 2 List experiment Aggregation
- Randomized response Random noise

Bias in Direct Questions on Vote Buying

Estimated rate of vote buying from direct survey item 2.4%

Gonzalez-Ocantos et al. 2011, AJPS

Question text: "they gave you a gift or did you a favor"

Bias in Direct Questions on Vote Buying

Estimated rate of vote buying from direct survey item

2.4%

Estimate using list experiment

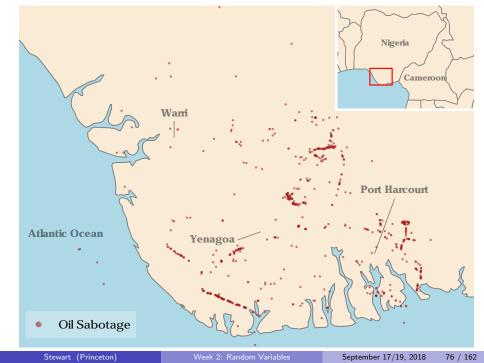
24.3%

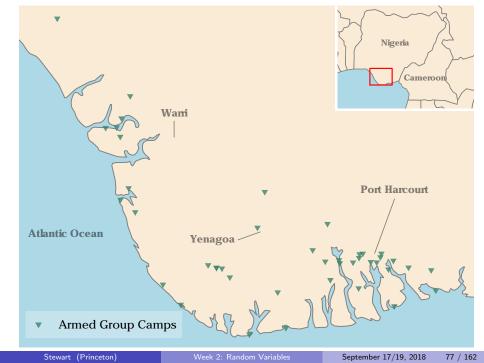
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Question text: "they gave you a gift or did you a favor"

• Survey of 2,448 civilians in the Niger Delta

- Survey of 2,448 civilians in the Niger Delta
- Randomly sampled 204 communities near oil interruption sites and camps of armed groups





- Survey of 2,448 civilians in the Niger Delta
- Random sample of 204 communities near and far from oil interruption sites and armed group camps

- Survey of 2,448 civilians in the Niger Delta
- Random sample of 204 communities near and far from oil interruption sites and armed group camps
- Interviewed 12 people per community
 Random walk pattern to select households; Kish grid within household

Funded by the International Growth Centre

Outcome

"Did you share information with **militants** about their enemies in the community, state counterinsurgency forces, or oil facility activities?"

Problems with using list or endorsement experiments

Too sensitive for list experiment

Often difficult to define "control" condition in endorsement experiment for behaviors

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Too sensitive for list experiment

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Alternative: Randomized response technique

How? Introducing random noise

• Roll the dice in private

- Roll the dice in private
- If you roll a 1, tell me "no"

- Roll the dice in private
- If you roll a 1, tell me "no"
- If you roll a 6, tell me "yes"

- Roll the dice in private
- If you roll a 1, tell me "no"
- If you roll a 6, tell me "yes"
- Otherwise, answer: "Did you share information with armed groups"

Used fair dice, and actually rolled it.

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- 1 Used fair dice, and actually rolled it.
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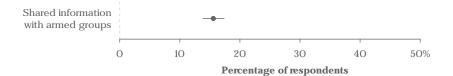
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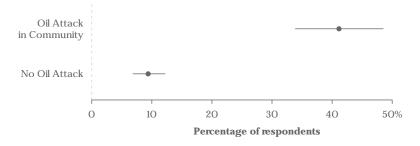
Proportion yes to sensitive item

=3/2 · (Proportion answered yes -1/6)

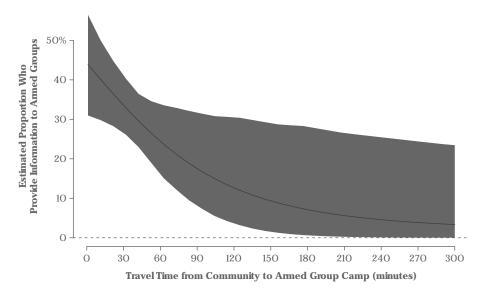
1. Civilians share information regularly with armed groups



2. Civilians near oil interruptions dominate collaboration



3. Civilians near armed group camps dominate collaboration



Software

• rr package in R for randomized response

Blair with Yang-Yang Zhou and Kosuke Imai

• list package in R for list experiments

Blair with Kosuke Imai

endorse package in R for endorsement experiments

Yuki Shiraito and Kosuke Imai

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Expected Value as Mean Square Error Minimizer

→ Back

Suppose we want to pick a single number (c) that summarizes a random variable X. What we mean by summarizes determines the best choice of c.

Generally speaking we want a summary that is in the "center" of the data, i.e. that is as close as possible to all possible datapoints. Again though, the choice turns on what we mean by close.

Let's say we want to minimize:

- Mean Squared Error: $E(X-c)^2$ This leads to choosing the mean of X: μ
- Mean Absolute Error: E[|X c|]This leads to choosing the median of X: m

Let's prove the first result (see Blitzstein and Hwang 2014 Theorem 6.1.4 on pg 245 for this proof and the proof on mean absolute error).

Proof of Mean as Mean Square Error Minimizer

Let X be a random variable with mean μ . We want to show that the value of c that minimizes the mean squared error $E(X-c)^2$ is the mean, μ (Blitzstein and Hwang Theorem 6.1.4).

We will prove the following identity below:

$$E(X - c)^{2} = Var(X) + (\mu - c)^{2}$$
 (1)

We are trying to choose c to minimize this term. The choice cannot affect Var(X). Setting $c=\mu$ sets $(\mu-c)^2=0$ and any other choice makes $(\mu-c)^2>0$. Therefore (assuming the identity holds), $c=\mu$ minimizes Eq 1.

Now to prove the identity:

$$Var(X) = Var(X - c)$$
 (Prop 1 of Variance)
$$= E(X - c)^2 - (E[X - c])^2$$
 (Defin of Variance)
$$= E(X - c)^2 - (\mu - c)^2$$
 (Linearity of Exp)
$$Var(X) + (\mu - c)^2 = E(X - c)^2$$

References

- Kuklinski et al. 1997 "Racial prejudice and attitudes toward affirmative action" American Journal of Political Science
- Glynn 2013 "What can we learn with statistical truth serum? Design and analysis of the list experiment"
- All the Blair papers above.

Last Week

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 - described uncertain outcomes with probability.

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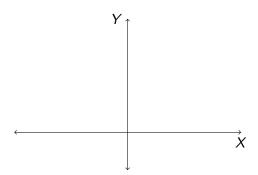
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 - ▶ in regression we think about how the distribution of one variable changes under different values of another variable
 - e.g. does running more negative ads decrease election turnout?
- The joint distribution of two (or more) variables describes the pairs of observations that we are more or less likely to see.

• Consider two r.v.s now, X and Y, each on the real line, \mathbb{R} .

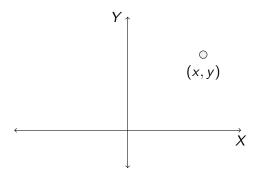
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- ullet The pair form a two-dimensional space, or $\mathbb{R} imes \mathbb{R}$
- One realization of the r.v. is a point in that space



• Imagine we are throwing darts on a two-dimensional board: the joint distribution tells us where the darts are more likely to land.

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- Random Variables and Distributions
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Definition

For two discrete random variables X and Y the joint PMF $P_{X,Y}(x,y)$ gives the probability that X=x and Y=y for all x and y:

$$P_{X,Y}(x,y) = \Pr(X = x \text{ and } Y = y)$$

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Restrictions:

• $P_{X,Y}(x,y) \ge 0$ and $\sum_{x} \sum_{y} P_{X,Y}(x,y) = 1$.

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Should the U.S. allow more immigrants to come and live here?

		X: Education					
		less HS	HS	College	BA		
Y: Support	oppose	0.07	0.22	0.18	0.15		
	oppose neutral	0.02	0.06	0.05	0.05		
	favor	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.11		

Definition

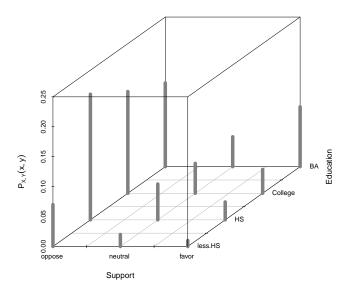
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With discrete r.v.s this is very similar to thinking about a cross-tab, with frequencies/ probabilities in the cells instead of raw numbers.



From Joint to Marginal PMF

Given the joint PMF $P_{X,Y}(x,y)$ can we recover the marginal PMF $P_Y(y)$ (distribution over a single variable)?

		X: Education					
		less HS	HS	College	ВА		
	oppose	0.07	0.21	0.17	0.14		
Y: Support	neutral	0.02	0.06	0.05	0.05		
	favor	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.10		

From Joint to Marginal PMF

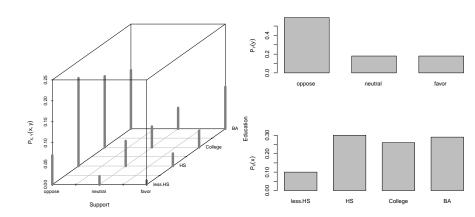
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		X: Education						
		less HS	HS	College	BA	$P_Y(y)$		
	oppose	0.07	0.21	0.17	0.14	0.62		
Y: Support	oppose neutral	0.02	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.19		
	favor	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.10	0.19		

To obtain $P_Y(y)$ we marginalize the joint probability function $P_{X,Y}(x,y)$ over X:

$$P_Y(y) = \sum_{x} P_{X,Y}(x,y) = \sum_{x} \Pr(X = x, Y = y)$$

Joint and Marginal Probability Mass Functions



Begin with discrete case.

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Marginalizing over y to get p(x) is then,

$$p(x_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(x_j|y_i)p(y_i)$$

A Table

	Y = 0	Y = 1	
X = 0		p(0, 1)	$p_X(0)$
X = 1	p(1,0)	p(1,1)	$p_X(1)$
	$p_{Y}(0)$	p _Y (1)	

A Table

$$\rho_X(0) = \rho(0|y=0)\rho(y=0) + \rho(0|y=1)\rho(y=1)
= \frac{0.01}{0.26} \times 0.26 + \frac{0.05}{0.74} \times 0.74
= 0.06$$

A Table

$$p_X(1) = p(1|y=0)p(y=0) + p(1|y=1)p(y=1)$$

$$= \frac{0.25}{0.26} \times 0.26 + \frac{0.69}{0.74} \times 0.74$$

$$= 0.94$$

Definition

The conditional PMF of Y given X, $P_{Y|X}(y|x)$, is the PMF of Y when X is known to be at a particular value X = x:

$$P_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{\Pr(X = x \text{ and } Y = y)}{\Pr(X = x)} = \frac{P_{X,Y}(x,y)}{P_X(x)}$$

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Key relationships:

- $P_{X,Y}(x,y) = P_{Y|X}(y|x)P_X(x)$ (multiplicative rule)
- $P_{Y|X}(y|x) = P_{X|Y}(x|y)P_Y(y)/P_X(x)$ (Bayes' rule)

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Conditional PMFs are just like ordinary PMFs, but refer to a universe where the "conditioning event" (X = x) is known to have occurred.

Conditional distributions are key in statistical modeling because they inform us how the distribution of Y varies across different levels of X.

From Joint to Conditional: $P_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{P_{X,Y}(x,y)}{P_X(x)}$

Table: Joint PMF $P_{X,Y}(x,y)$ and Marginal PMFs $P_X(x), P_Y(y)$

		Education						
	$P_{X,Y}(x,y)$	less HS	HS	College	BA	$P_Y(y)$		
	oppose	0.07	0.22	0.18	0.15	0.62		
Support	neutral	0.02	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.19		
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	$P_X(x)$	0.11	0.32	0.27	0.31	1.00		

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	$P_X(x)$	0.11	0.32	0.27	0.31	1.00		

Table: Conditional PMF $P_{Y|X}(y|x)$

		Education					
	$P_{Y X}(y x)$	less HS	HS	College	BA		
	oppose	0.70	0.70	0.65	0.48	0.62	
Support	neutral	0.20	0.20	0.19	0.17	0.19	
	favor	0.10	0.10	0.15	0.34	0.19	
		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	

Joint and Conditional Probability Mass Functions

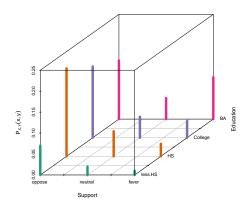


Figure: Joint

Joint and Conditional Probability Mass Functions

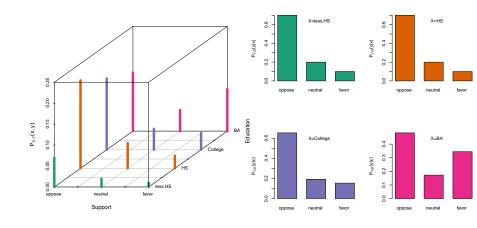


Figure: Joint

Figure: Conditional

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The multiplicative rule:

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where

• $f_{Y|X}(y|x)$: Conditional PDF of Y given X = x

• $f_X(x)$: Marginal PDF of X

Restrictions:

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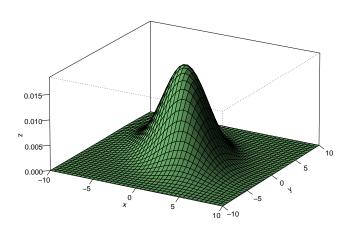
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Restrictions:

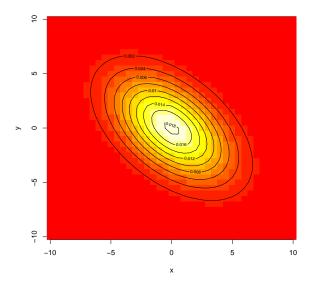
• $\int_X \int_Y f_{X,Y}(x,y) dy dx = 1$

3D Plot of a Joint Probability Density Function





Contour Plot of a Joint Probability Density Function



From Joint to Marginal PDF

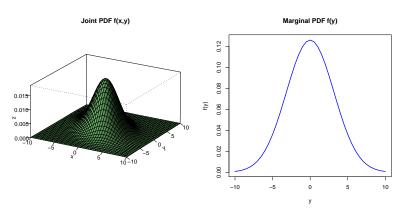
How can we obtain $f_Y(y)$ from $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$?

From Joint to Marginal PDF

How can we obtain $f_Y(y)$ from $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$?

We marginalize the joint probability function $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$ over X:

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



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- Typically, we summarize the conditional distributions with a few parameters such as the conditional mean of E[Y|X=x] and the conditional variance V[Y|X=x]
- Moreover, we are often interested in estimating E[Y|X], i.e. the conditional expectation function that describes how the conditional mean of Y varies across all possible values of X (we sometimes call this the population regression function)

Conditional Expectation

Definition (Conditional Expectation (Discrete))

Let Y and X be discrete random variables. The conditional expectation of Y given X=x is defined as:

$$E[Y|X = x] = \sum_{y} y \Pr(Y = y|X = x) = \sum_{y} y P_{Y|X}(y|x)$$

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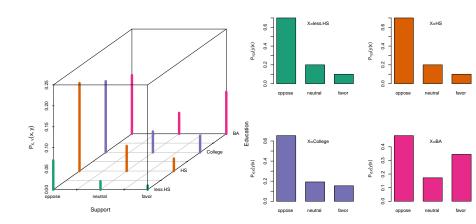
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Definition (Conditional Expectation (Continuous))

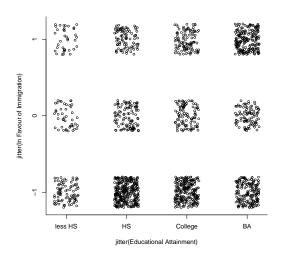
Let Y and X be continuous random variables. The conditional expectation of Y given X=x is given by:

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

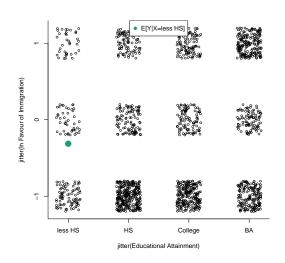
Joint and Conditional Probability Mass Functions



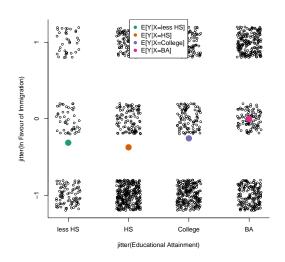
Conditional PMF $P_{Y|X}(y|x)$



Conditional Expectation E[Y|X=1]



Conditional Expectation Function E[Y|X]



Law of Iterated Expectations

Theorem (Law of Iterated Expectations)

For two random variables X and Y,

$$E[Y] = E[E[Y|X]] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\substack{\text{all } x \\ -\infty}} E[Y|X = x] \cdot P_X(x) & \text{(discrete } X) \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E[Y|X = x] \cdot f_X(x) dx & \text{(continuous } X) \end{cases}$$

Note that the outer expectation is taken with respect to the distribution of X.

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Note that the outer expectation is taken with respect to the distribution of X.

Example: Y (support) and $X \in \{1,0\}$ (gender). Then, the LIE tells us:



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• E[c(X)|X] = c(X) for any function c(X).

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- E[c(X)|X] = c(X) for any function c(X).
 - ▶ Basically, any function of X is a constant with regard to the conditional expectation. If we know X, then we also know X^2 , for instance.
- ② If $E[Y^2]<\infty$ and $E[g(X)^2]<\infty$ for some function g, then $E[(Y-E[Y|X])^2|X]\leq E[(Y-g(X))^2|X]$ and $E[(Y-E[Y|X])^2]\leq E[(Y-g(X))^2]$

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 - ▶ Basically, any function of X is a constant with regard to the conditional expectation. If we know X, then we also know X^2 , for instance.
- ② If $E[Y^2] < \infty$ and $E[g(X)^2] < \infty$ for some function g, then $E[(Y E[Y|X])^2|X] \le E[(Y g(X))^2|X]$ and $E[(Y E[Y|X])^2] \le E[(Y g(X))^2]$

The second property is quite important. It says that the conditional expectation is the function of X that minimizes the squared prediction error for Y across any possible function of X.

Conditional expectation gives us information about the central tendency of a random variable given another random variable.

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We also want to know the conditional variance to understand our uncertainty about the conditional distribution.

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Remember, the conditional distribution of Y|X is basically like any other probability distribution, so we are going to want to summarize the center and spread.

Definition

The conditional variance of Y given X = x is defined as:

$$V[Y|X=x] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\substack{\text{all } y \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y - E[Y|X=x])^2 f_{Y|X}(y|x) \text{ (discrete } Y)} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y - E[Y|X=x])^2 f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy \text{ (continuous } Y) \end{cases}$$

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A useful rule related to conditional variance is the law of total variance:

$$\underbrace{V[Y]}_{\text{Total variance}} = \underbrace{E[V[Y|X]]}_{\text{Average of Group Variances}} + \underbrace{V[E[Y|X]]}_{\text{Variance in Group Averages}}$$

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$$V[Y|X=x] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\substack{\text{all } y}} (y - E[Y|X=x])^2 P_{Y|X}(y|x) & \text{(discrete } Y) \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y - E[Y|X=x])^2 f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy & \text{(continuous } Y) \end{cases}$$

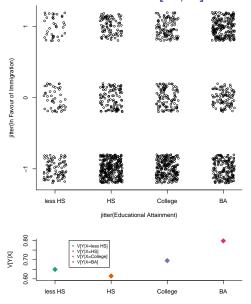
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Example: Y (support) and $X \in \{1,0\}$ (gender). The LTV says that the total variance in support can be decomposed into two parts:

- On average, how much support varies within gender groups (within variance)
- 4 How much average support varies between gender groups (between variance)

Conditional Variance Function V[Y|X]



Important Subtleties

• It is important to distinguish between what is random/stochastic and what is constant. However, this can be tricky at first.

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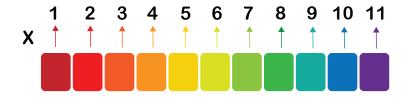
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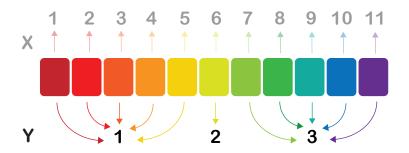
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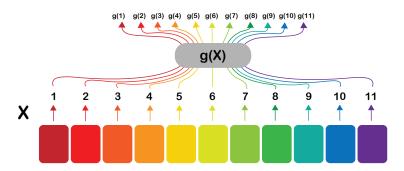
Let's look at this in pictures. (If you want to know more: Blitzstein and Hwang pg 392-393 is great.)

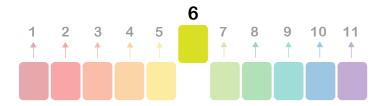


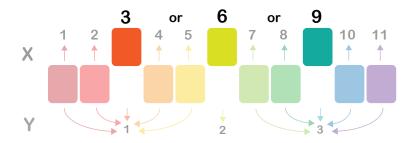




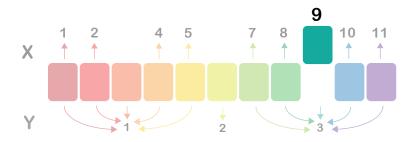




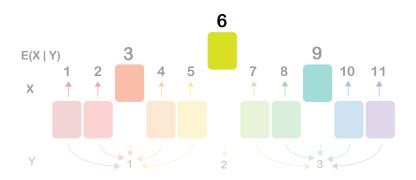








$$E[X|Y=3]$$



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

- Random Variables and Distributions

 What is a Random Variable?
- Discrete Distributions
- Continuous Distributions
- Characteristics of Distributions
 - Central Tendency
 - Measures of Dispersion
- Conditional Distributions
- 4 Fun with Averages
- 5 Fun with Sensitive Questions
- 6 Appendix: Why the Mean?
- Joint Distributions
 - Discrete Random Variable
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- 8 Conditional Expectation
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 - Independence
 - Covariance and Correlation
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Independence

Definition (Independence of Random Variables)

Two random variables Y and X are independent if

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for all x and y. We write this as $Y \perp \!\!\! \perp X$.

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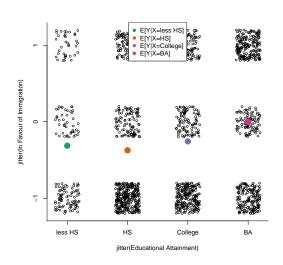
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We can prove the continuous case by following the same steps, with \sum replaced by \int .

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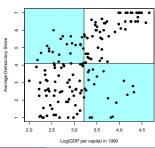
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- Points in upper right and lower left quadrants (relative to the means) add to the covariance.
- Points in the upper left and lower right quadrants subtract from the covariance.



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What is Cov[X, Y]?

$$Cov[X, Y] = E[XX^2] - E[X]E[X^2] = E[X^3] - E[X]E[X^2]$$

= $E[X] - E[X]E[X^2] = 0 - 0 \cdot E[X^2] = 0.$

Therefore, $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y \implies Cov[X, Y] = 0$, but not vice versa.



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Proof: Plug in to the definition of variance and expand (try it yourself!)

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The correlation between two random variables X and Y is defined as

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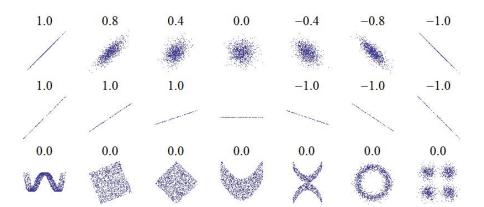
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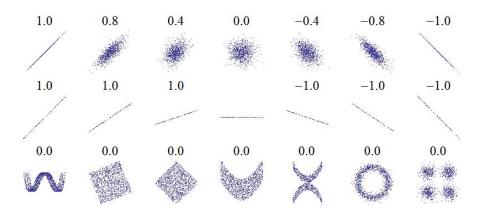
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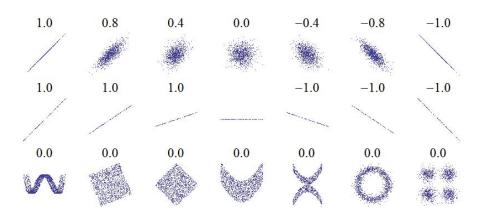
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- Always satisfies: $-1 \le Cor[X, Y] \le 1$.





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Definition (Conditional Independence of Random Variables)

Random variables Y and X are conditionally independent given Z iff

$$f_{X,Y|Z}(x,y|z) = f_{Y|Z}(y|z) \cdot f_{X|Z}(x|z)$$

for all x, y, and z. This is often written as $Y \perp \!\!\! \perp \!\!\! \perp X \mid Z$.

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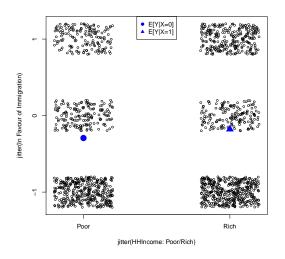
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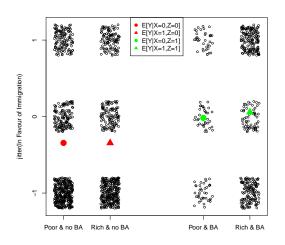
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Example: X = wealth, Y = support for immigration, Z = education.



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Distributions

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- When we can work with an existing set of distributions, it makes calculations simpler

- We like random variables because they take complex real world phenomena and represent them with a common mathematical infrastructure
- We can work with arbitrary pmf/pdfs but we will often work with particular families of distributions
 - members of the same family have similar forms determined by parameters
 - ▶ the parameters determine the shape of the distribution
- When we can work with an existing set of distributions, it makes calculations simpler
- Examples: Bernoulli, Binomial, Gamma, Normal, Poisson, t-distribution



Bernoulli Random Variable

Definition

Suppose X is a random variable, with $X \in \{0,1\}$ and $P(X=1)=\pi$. Then we will say that X is Bernoulli random variable,

$$p(X = x) = \pi^{x} (1 - \pi)^{1-x}$$

for $x \in \{0,1\}$ and p(X = x) = 0 otherwise. We will (equivalently) say that

$$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi)$$

 \sim means equality in distribution (not values!). Often $X \sim$ Bernoulli (π) would be read 'X is distributed Bernoulli with parameter π '

$$E[X] = 1 \times P(X = 1) + 0 \times P(X = 0)$$

= $\pi + 0(1 - \pi) = \pi$

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 ${
m var}(X) = \pi(1-\pi)$ Importantly, we can also just look this up!

Normal/Gaussian Random Variables

Definition

Suppose X is a random variable with $X \in \mathbb{R}$ and density

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

Then X is a normally distributed random variable with parameters μ and σ^2 .

Equivalently, we'll write

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

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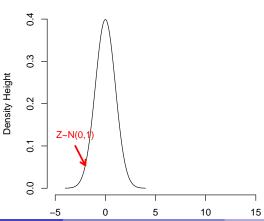
Proposition

Scale/Location. If $Z \sim N(0,1)$, then X = aZ + b is,

$$X \sim Normal(b, a^2)$$

Intuition

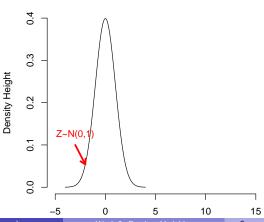
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Intuition

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$$Y = 2Z + 6$$

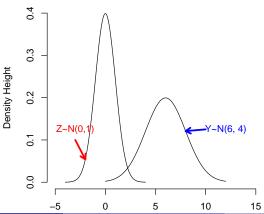


Intuition

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Y = 2Z + 6

 $Y \sim \mathsf{Normal}(6,4)$



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Proof: $Z \sim N(0,1)$ and Y = aZ + b, then $Y \sim N(b, a^2)$

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Multivariate Normal

Definition

Suppose $\boldsymbol{X}=(X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_N)$ is a vector of random variables. If \boldsymbol{X} has pdf

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{-N/2} \det(\mathbf{\Sigma})^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\mathbf{\Sigma}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

Then we will say \boldsymbol{X} has a Multivariate Normal Distribution,

X ~ Multivariate Normal(μ , Σ)

Consider the (bivariate) special case where $\mu=(0,0)$ and

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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→ product of univariate standard normally distributed random variables

Properties of the Multivariate Normal Distribution

Suppose
$$\boldsymbol{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N)$$

$$E[X] = \mu$$

 $cov(X) = \Sigma$

So that,

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{var}(X_1) & \operatorname{cov}(X_1, X_2) & \dots & \operatorname{cov}(X_1, X_N) \\ \operatorname{cov}(X_2, X_1) & \operatorname{var}(X_2) & \dots & \operatorname{cov}(X_2, X_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \operatorname{cov}(X_N, X_1) & \operatorname{cov}(X_N, X_2) & \dots & \operatorname{var}(X_N) \end{pmatrix}$$

Nearly every distribution we will discuss is in the exponential family. An exponential family distribution has the density of the following form:

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Example: Poisson(μ):

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$$\implies \theta = \log \mu$$
, $\phi = 1$, $a(\phi) = \phi$, $b(\theta) = \exp(\theta)$, and $c = -\log y!$

Many other examples, including: Normal, Bernoulli/binomial, Gamma, multinomial, exponential, negative binomial, beta, uniform, chi-squared, etc.

This slide and the following based on material from Teppei Yamamoto

• Mean is a function of θ and given by

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- In the Poisson model, $\theta_i = \log \mu_i$, $a(\phi) = 1$ and $b(\theta_i) = \exp(\theta_i)$ $\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(Y_i) = \frac{db(\theta_i)}{d\theta_i} = \exp(\theta_i) = \mu_i \text{ and } \mathbb{V}(Y_i) = \frac{d^2b(\theta_i)}{d\theta_i^2} = \exp(\theta_i) = \mu_i$

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- Joint and conditional distributions capture the relationship between random variables.
- There is a common set of famous distributions such as the Normal distribution.

This week:

- Monday:
 - summarize one random variable using expectation and variance
 - show how to condition on a variable
- Wednesday:
 - properties of joint distributions
 - conditional expectations
 - covariance, correlation, independence

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New reading:

- Aronow and Miller Chapter 3.1-3.2.6, 3.4.1
- Optional: Fox Chapter 3: Examining Data

- Random Variables and Distributions

 What is a Random Variable?
- Discrete Distributions
 - Continuous Distributions
- Characteristics of Distributions
 - Central Tendency
 - Measures of Dispersion
- Conditional Distributions
- 4 Fun with Averages
- 5 Fun with Sensitive Questions
- 6 Appendix: Why the Mean?
- Joint Distributions
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Fun With Spam



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 Learn a function that maps from space of (possible) documents to categories

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- Learn a function that maps from space of (possible) documents to categories
- Use documents with known categories to estimate function

Suppose we have an email i, (i = 1, ..., N) which we represent as a count of J words

$$\boldsymbol{x}_i = (x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{Ji})$$

Set of K categories. Category k (k = 1, ..., K)

$$\{C_1,C_2,\ldots,C_K\}$$

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- Then apply model to new data, classify those observations

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Baseline Proportion
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This is called a Naïve Bayes classifier.

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Simple intuition about Naïve Bayes:

- Learn what documents in class j look like
- Find class k that document i is most similar to

Scoring the algorithm is easy.

$$p(C_k|\mathbf{x}_i) \propto p(C_k) \prod_{j=1}^J p(x_{i,j}|C_k)^{x_{ij}}$$

which is simply the probability of the class multiplied by the product of the probabilities for the words that are observed in the test document.

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- More on estimators next week!