

Review of Probability Theory

Part B: Expectations

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Recap

In Part A of the probability theory review, we discussed probability distributions:

- ▷ CDFs and pdfs (or pmfs) *fully* characterize a random variable.
- ▷ Joint CDFs and joint pdfs (or pmfs) *fully* characterize relationships between random variables.

But we may not always require a *full* characterization. Often, we are content with knowing about key features of a random variable that *partly* characterize it or its relation to other random variables.

- ▷ Recall the returns to education example where we were interested in

$$E_U[\tau(U)|W = 1] = E_U[g(1, U) - g(0, U)|W = 1], \quad (1)$$

and not the conditional distribution of $\tau(U)$ given $W = 1$.

The key concept we will cover in this lecture are *expectations*.

1. Features of Probability Distributions

- ▷ Expectation
- ▷ Variance
- ▷ Covariance
- ▷ Correlation

2. Features of Conditional Probability Distributions

- ▷ Conditional Expectation
- ▷ Conditional Variance

3. Mean Independence

These notes benefit greatly from the exposition in Wasserman (2003).

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Definition 1 (Expected Value)

The *expected value* of a random variable X is defined as

$$E_X[X] = \begin{cases} \sum_{x \in \text{supp } X} x f_X(x), & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f_X(x) dx, & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

The expected value is a one-number summary of a random variable.

- ▷ X is a random variable but $E_X[X]$ is a number.
- ▷ Considered a measure of central tendency.

We say that the expectation of X *exists* if $E[|X|] < \infty$.

- ▷ In this course, we always (implicitly) assume that expectations exist.

Note: You may encounter various other names for the expectation, including “mean” or “first moment,” as well as alternative notations. For example, we may also express Equation (37) as a Riemann–Stieltjes integral: $E_X[X] = \int x dF(x)$.

Example 1

Consider tossing a fair coin twice. Let X be the number of heads. Then

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/4 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 1/2 & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 1/4 & \text{if } x = 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

and the expected number of heads is

$$E_X[X] = \quad (4)$$

Expectation (Contd.)

Example 2

Consider $X \sim U(a, b)$. Then

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & \forall x \in [a, b], \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

and we have

$$E_X[X] = \quad (6)$$

Law of the Unconscious Statistician

The next result is crucial when working with economic models involving random variables.

Theorem 1 (Law of the Unconscious Statistician)

Let X be a random variable and define $Y \equiv h(X)$ for some function h .
Then

$$E_Y[Y] = E_X[h(X)] = \begin{cases} \sum_{x \in \text{supp } X} h(x) f_X(x), & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) f_X(x) dx, & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Proof.

See Exercise 4 in Problem Set 1 for the discrete case. □

The theorem is remarkable because $h(X)$ defines a new random variable, yet, we do not need to go through the trouble of deriving its distribution. Instead, we may work with the distribution of X .

Note: The result gets its name from the fact that Equation (7) is often stated w/o the realization that it requires a proof and does not immediately follow from Definition 1.

Example 3

Let X be a continuous random variable. Consider $Y \equiv h(X)$ where $h(x) = \mathbb{1}\{x \in \mathcal{A}\}$ for some set $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{R}$. By Theorem 1, we have

$$E_Y[Y] = \int_{\mathcal{A}} f_X(x) dx \tag{8}$$

More generally, for any random variable X and set $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{R}$, it holds that

$$E_X[\mathbb{1}\{X \in \mathcal{A}\}] = P(X \in \mathcal{A}). \tag{9}$$

Expectations (Contd.)

Expectations are defined as sums and integrals and thus inherit their useful properties:

Theorem 2

Let X be a random variable. Then

$$E_X [a + bX] = a + bE_X[X], \quad (10)$$

$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

We prove the result for continuous X .

$$E_X[a + bX] = \quad (11)$$

Theorem 3

Let X_1, \dots, X_n be random variables. Then

$$E_{X_1, \dots, X_n} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n b_i X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i E_{X_i} [X_i], \quad (12)$$

$\forall b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

Left as a self-study exercise. (Hint: Prove this for continuous random variables by using linearity of integrals, as in the proof of Theorem 2, and the definition of marginal pdfs.) \square

Expectations (Contd.)

Theorem 4

Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent random variables. Then

$$E_{X_1, \dots, X_n} \left[\prod_{i=1}^n X_i \right] = \prod_{i=1}^n E_{X_i} [X_i]. \quad (13)$$

Proof.

We prove the result for continuous X .

$$E_{X_1, \dots, X_n} \left[\prod_{i=1}^n X_i \right] = \quad (14)$$

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Definition 2 (Variance & Standard Deviation)

The *variance* of a random variable X with $\mu_X \equiv E_X[X]$ is defined as

$$\text{Var}(X) = E_X \left[(X - \mu_X)^2 \right]. \quad (15)$$

The *standard deviation* of a random variable X is defined as

$$\text{sd}(X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}. \quad (16)$$

The variance (and standard deviation) are measures of dispersion.

- ▷ Characterize the spread of the distribution of X around its mean.

From Equation (15), it follows that

$$\text{Var}(X) = \quad (17)$$

Example 4

Consider tossing a fair coin twice as in Example 1. Let X be the number of heads and recall $E_X[X] = 1$. We have

$$\text{Var}(X) =$$

(18)

Variance (Contd.)

Corollary 1

Let X be a random variable. Then

$$\text{Var}(a + bX) = b^2 \text{Var}(X), \quad (19)$$

$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

We have

$$\text{Var}(a + bX) =$$

(20)

Variance (Contd.)

Example 5

Let $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. Then

$$E_X[X] = \tag{21}$$

and

$$\text{Var}(X) = \tag{22}$$

Example 6

Let $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then $E_X[X] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$.

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Covariance

So far, we have discussed two important features of a random variable: its mean and its variance.

We now turn to features that characterize the joint distribution of random variables, and begin with a measure of joint dispersion: the covariance.

Definition 3 (Covariance)

The *covariance* of two random variable X and Y with $\mu_X \equiv E_X[X]$ and $\mu_Y \equiv E_Y[Y]$ is defined as

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E_{X,Y} [(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]. \quad (23)$$

From Equation (23) it follows that

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \quad (24)$$

Example 7

Consider random variables X and Y with joint pmf given by

	$Y = 0$	$Y = 1$	Total
$X = 0$	$1/5$	$1/10$	$3/10$
$X = 1$	$3/10$	$2/5$	$7/10$
Total	$5/10$	$5/10$	1

We have $E_X[X] = 7/10$ and $E_Y[Y] = 1/2$, and

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) =$$

(25)

Covariance (Contd.)

Corollary 2

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \Rightarrow \text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0. \quad (26)$$

The converse does not hold in general.

Proof.

We have

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \quad (27)$$

See Exercise 7c) in Problem Set 1 for a counterexample of the converse.

Covariance (Contd.)

Corollary 3

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$\text{Cov}(a + bX, Y) = b\text{Cov}(X, Y), \quad (28)$$

$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

We have

$$\text{Cov}(a + bX, Y) = \quad (29)$$

Corollary 4

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y). \quad (30)$$

Proof.

We have

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \quad (31)$$



Corollary 5

Let X_1, \dots, X_n be a collection of independent random variables. Then

$$\text{Var} \left(\sum_i^n X_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i). \quad (32)$$

Proof.

We have

$$\text{Var} \left(\sum_i^n X_i \right) = \quad (33)$$

Theorem 5 (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality)

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$\text{Cov}^2(X, Y) \leq \text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y). \quad (34)$$

Proof.

Covariance (Contd.)



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Correlation

Notice the units of $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ are the units of X times Y .

- ▷ Makes comparisons challenging to interpreted.
- ▷ Motivates normalization by the units of X times Y .

This leads to a measure of linear dependence: the correlation.

Definition 4 (Correlation)

The *correlation* of two random variables X and Y is defined as

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\text{sd}(X)\text{sd}(Y)}. \quad (35)$$

Note: $\text{corr}(X, Y)$ is considered a measure of linear dependence because

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) \in \{-1, 1\} \Leftrightarrow \exists a, b \in \mathbb{R} : Y = a + bX.$$

We don't make use of this result in this course and thus state it here w/o proof.

Correlation (Contd.)

A consequence of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is the following result:

Corollary 6

Let X and Y be random variables. We have

$$-1 \leq \text{corr}(X, Y) \leq 1. \quad (36)$$

Proof.



Example 8

Reconsider the random variables X and Y of Example 7. We have

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) =$$

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3. Mean Independence

Conditional Expectation

We now introduce the concept of *conditional* expectations.

- ▷ Characterize features of a random variable when there is information on another random variable.

Definition 5 (Conditional Expectation)

The *conditional expectation* of X given $Y = y$ is defined as

$$E_{X|Y}[X|Y = y] = \begin{cases} \sum_{x \in \text{supp } X} x f_{X|Y}(x|y), & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx, & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

Notice that this is simply Definition 1 where we have replaced the pdf (or pmf) of X with the conditional pdf (or pmf) of X given $Y = y$.

Note: $E_{X|Y}[X|Y = y]$ is a number, however, $E_{X|Y}[X|Y]$ is a random variable. In econometrics, $E_{X|Y}[X|Y]$ is often called the *conditional expectation function (CEF)*.

Example 9

Suppose $X \sim U(0, 1)$ and $Y|X \sim U(X, 1)$. Then

$$E_{Y|X}[Y|X] =$$

and

$$E_{Y|X}[Y|X = x] =$$

Notice that $E_{Y|X}[Y|X] \sim U\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$ but $E_{Y|X}[Y|X = x]$ is a number.

Corollary 7

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$E_{Y|X} [X + XY|X] = X + XE_{Y|X} [Y|X]. \quad (38)$$

Similarly, for all functions h_1 , h_2 , and g ,

$$E_{Y|X} [h_1(X) + h_2(X)g(Y)|X] = h_1(X) + h_2(X)E_{Y|X} [g(Y)|X]. \quad (39)$$

Proof.

We prove Equation (38) for continuous Y .

$$E_{Y|X} [X + XY|X] =$$



Law of Iterated Expectations

Theorem 6 (Law of Iterated Expectations; LIE)

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$E_Y[Y] = E_X [E_{Y|X}[Y|X]] . \quad (40)$$

Proof.

We prove the result for continuous X and Y .

$$E_X [E_{Y|X}[Y|X]] =$$



Law of Iterated Expectations (Contd.)

Example 10 (A Real-Life Simpson's Paradox)

An actual example from my university studies: Let Y denote the final course score, X_g denote gender, and X_o country of origin. We may have

$$E_{Y|X_g}[Y|X_g = m] > E_{Y|X_g}[Y|X_g = f],$$

even though we also have

$$E_{Y|X_g, X_o}[Y|X_g = m, X_o = a] < E_{Y|X_g, X_o}[Y|X_g = f, X_o = a],$$

and

$$E_{Y|X_g, X_o}[Y|X_g = m, X_o = b] < E_{Y|X_g, X_o}[Y|X_g = f, X_o = b].$$

How is this possible? The LIE gives

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Conditional Variance

Another useful feature of Y given X is its conditional variance.

- ▷ Measures dispersion of Y given X .

Definition 6 (Conditional Variance)

The *conditional variance* of Y given X is defined as

$$\text{Var}(Y|X) = E_{Y|X} [(Y - \mu_{Y|X})^2|X], \quad (41)$$

where $\mu_{Y|X} \equiv E_{Y|X} [Y|X]$.

Example 11

Consider the returns to education example from Lecture 1.

- ▷ $\text{Var}(Y|W = 1)$ is the variance of hourly wages of college graduates.
- ▷ $\text{Var}(Y|W = 0)$ is the variance of hourly wages of non-graduates.

Intuitively, which do you think is greater? Why?

Law of Total Variance

Corollary 8 (Law of Total Variance; LTV)

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$\text{Var}(Y) = E_X [\text{Var}(Y|X)] + \text{Var} (E_{Y|X}[Y|X]). \quad (42)$$

Proof.

We have

$$E_X [\text{Var}(Y|X)] + \text{Var} (E_{Y|X}[Y|X]) =$$



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3. **Mean Independence**

Mean Independence

Recall that independence of random variables places a strong restriction on their joint distribution.

We now turn to a weaker restriction: *mean* independence.

Definition 7 (Mean Independence)

Y is said to be *mean independent* of X if

$$E_{Y|X}[Y|X] = E_Y[Y]. \quad (43)$$

Exercise 6 in Problem set 1 shows that we can interpret $E_{Y|X}[Y|X]$ as the best predictor of Y given X under the L^2 -loss.

- ▷ Mean-independence of Y with respect to X implies that X has no predictive value for Y under the L^2 -loss.
- ▷ Independence of Y and X implies that X has no predictive value for Y under *any* loss.

Mean Independence (Contd.)

The next results states that mean independence is a weaker restriction on the joint distribution than independence.

Corollary 9

Let X and Y be random variables. Then

$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \Rightarrow E_{Y|X}[Y|X] = E_Y[Y]. \quad (44)$$

The converse does not hold in general.

Proof.

See Exercise 7a) in Problem set 1 for a proof when X and Y are continuous. See Exercise 7c) for a counterexample of the converse. \square

Summary

This concludes our review of probability theory!

- ▷ Part A discussed distributions of random variables.
- ▷ Part B discussed features of distributions of random variables.

We are now fully equipped to revisit Task 1 (Definition) and Task 2 (Identification) from Lecture 1.

- ▷ Patience: We will do so in Lecture 6 & 7.

Even better: We are equipped for identification analysis under assumptions other than Random Assignment.

- ▷ Know everything to show identification under the Selection on Observables or the Instrumental Variables assumptions.
- ▷ Important because Random Assignment wasn't plausible in the returns to education example.

But there are *three* distinct tasks in the analysis of causal questions.

- ▷ In the next lecture, we begin the review of statistics.
- ▷ This is preparation for Task 3 (Estimation).

References

Wasserman, L. (2003). *All of statistics*. Springer.