Econ 210 - Statistics Review

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Samples

- Statistics involves attempting to learn characteristics of probability distributions using finite samples of data
- If X₁, X₂, ..., X_n are independent rv's with the same distribution, they are called
 Independent and Identically Distributed i.i.d.
- We're generally going to assume that our samples are drawn i.i.d. from our distribution of interest

Estimator

- Say we wish to estimate a parameter, θ
- An <u>Estimator</u> is a function that goes from a sample to a guess of our paramter:

$$\hat{\theta}_n = \hat{\theta}_n(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$$

Note that while θ is a number, θ̂_n is a function/rv until it is actually calculated for a specific sample (similar to a conditional expectation)

Estimator Example - Sample Mean

- Say we want to estimate the mean of rv X i.e. $\theta = E[X]$
- Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be i.i.d. $\sim X$
- **•** Natural estimator is the Sample Mean, often denoted \overline{X}_n

$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Properties of Estimators

- We will be interested in various properties of estimators in order to know when/if they are useful and how to interpret them
- Finite-sample properties are true for the estimator at any $\frac{n}{n}$
 - \blacksquare Large-sample properties hold approximately as $n o \infty$



Bias is one oft-discussed finite-sample property - says if the estimator is "correct" in expectation:

$$Bias[\hat{\theta}_n] = E[\hat{\theta}_n] - \theta$$

• If $Bias[\hat{\theta}_n] = 0$, then $\hat{\theta}_n$ is called <u>Unbiased</u>

Bias Example - Sample Mean

■ For X₁, X₂,..., X_n i.i.d. ~ X, the sample mean is an unbiased estimator for the population mean, E[X]:

$$Bias[\overline{X}_n] = E[\overline{X}_n] - E[X]$$
$$= E[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i] - E[X]$$
$$= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n E[X_i] - E[X]$$
$$= \frac{1}{n}nE[X] - E[X]$$
$$= 0$$

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Bias Example - Sample Variance

• $\hat{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X}_n)^2$ is sometimes called the *sample* variance

This estimator as is, is downward biased:

$$Bias[\hat{\sigma}_n^2] = E[\hat{\sigma}_n^2] - \sigma_X^2 < 0$$

Can "fix" this with a degrees of freedom adjustment:

$$\frac{n}{n-1}\hat{\sigma}_{n}^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(X_{i}-\overline{X}_{n})^{2}$$

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is an unbiased estimator of variance

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Variance of Estimators

- The Variance of an estimator, Var(\(\heta_n\)), is another important finite-sample property
- If we had two unbiased estimators, for instance, we'd generally prefer the one with a smaller variance - we'll be less likely to draw an estimate far away from the true value

Variance of Estimators Example - Sample Mean

• Can calculate the variance of \overline{X}_n for $X_1, ..., X_n$ i.i.d. $\sim X$

$$Var(\overline{X}_n) = Var(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i)$$

= $\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i)$ (Ind. of X_i)
= $\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X)$ ($X_i \sim X$)
= $\frac{1}{n} Var(X)$

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Sampling Distributions

- As $\hat{\theta}_n$ is itself a rv, it also has a probability distribution, which is called the Sampling Distribution
- This distribution is often hard to fully characterize, but there are exceptions...

Sampling Distribution Example - Normal Dist

- Say $X_1, ..., X_n$ are i.i.d. $\sim X$, where $X \sim N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$. Consider the sample mean
- \overline{X}_n is a linear combination of independent normals, so it itself is normal
- We also already derived the mean and variance of X_n, so we can say:

$$\overline{X}_n \sim N(\mu_X, \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n})$$

Consistency

- Consistency is a large-sample property saying that the estimator will "get close" to the parameter as the size of the sample, n, grows large
- Formally, an estimator is consistent if it converges in probability to the parameter

Convergence in Probability

• A sequence of random variables, X_n , <u>Converges in Probability</u> to another rv or scalar, X, if, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, as $n \to \infty$

$$P(|X_n-X|>\varepsilon)\to 0$$

- This is notated $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$
- So, $\hat{\theta}_n$ converges in probability to θ , and is a consistent estimator for θ , if

$$\hat{\theta}_n \xrightarrow{p} \theta$$

Weak Law of Large Numbers

The Weak Law of Large Numbers says that the sample mean is a consistent estimator for the expectation, aka

$$\overline{X}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} E[X]$$

■ This property requires that X₁, ..., X_n be i.i.d. ~ X and that E[X²] < ∞</p>

Chebychev's Inequality

The proof of the WLLN requires the use of <u>Chebychev's Inequality</u>, which states that for an rv X and $\overline{\varepsilon} > 0$, $P(|X| > \varepsilon) \le \frac{E[X^2]}{\varepsilon^2}$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{1}\{|X| > \varepsilon\} &\leq \frac{X^2}{\varepsilon^2} \\ E[\mathbb{1}\{|X| > \varepsilon\}] &\leq E[\frac{X^2}{\varepsilon^2}] \\ P(|X| > \varepsilon) &\leq \frac{E[X^2]}{\varepsilon^2} \end{split}$$

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Proof of WLLN

• Fix an
$$\varepsilon > 0$$

$$P(|\overline{X}_n - E[X]| > \varepsilon) \le \frac{E[|\overline{X}_n - E[X]|^2]}{\varepsilon^2} \quad \text{(Chebychev)}$$

$$\le \frac{Var(\overline{X}_n)}{\varepsilon^2}$$

$$\le \frac{Var(X)}{n\varepsilon^2} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow P(|\overline{X}_n - E[X]|) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} E[X]$$

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Continuous Mapping Theorem

• Suppose that, for sequences of rv's X_n and Y_n and scalars x and y, $X_n \xrightarrow{p} x$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} y$. For any function g that is continuous at (x, y):

$$g(X_n, Y_n) \stackrel{p}{\to} g(x, y)$$

 This is stated for two sequences of rv's, but is true for any finite number of rv's

CMT Example - Sample Variance

The sample variance (w/out the degrees of freedom adjustment) is not unbiased, but *is* consistent, under assumptions that X₁,..., X_n iid ~ X and E[X⁴] < 0
 Proof:

$$\hat{\sigma}_n^2 = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X}_n)^2$$

$$= rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \overline{X}_n^2$$

See Supplemental Note about sample variance for greater detail on this step

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CMT Example - Sample Variance (cont.)

WLLN implies that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{2} \xrightarrow{p} E[X^{2}]$$
$$\overline{X}_{n} \xrightarrow{p} E[X]$$

■ Then, we apply the CMT for g(x, y) = x - y² (cont. at any finite (x, y)) and say

$$\hat{\sigma}_n^2 \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} Var(X)$$

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Limiting Distributions

- Estimators have sampling distributions defined at any finite *n*. However, we said these are often difficult to characterize
- Sometimes, as n→∞, the sampling distributions of a sequence of θ_n (with ever increasing sample sizes) will start to resemble more familiar distributions. This is the Limiting Distribution of an estimator

Convergence in Distribution

Say that X_n is a sequence of rv's and that X is a continuous rv. Then, we say that X_n
 Converges in Distribution to X if

$$P(A_n \leq t)
ightarrow P(A \leq t) \ orall t$$

This is denoted $A_n \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} A$

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Central Limit Theorem

■ This definition leads us to an important result - the <u>Central Limit Theorem</u>. Let X₁, ..., X_n be iid ~ X and suppose that E[X²] < ∞. Then,</p>

$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - E[X]) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} N(0, Var[X])$$

Slutsky's Lemma

CLT is often used in conjunction with <u>Slutsky's Lemma</u> - for sequences of rv's X_n and Y_n, rv X, and scalar y, such that X_n ^d→ X and Y_n ^p→ y,
 (i) X_nY_n ^d→ Xy
 (ii) X_n + Y_n ^d→ X + y
 (iii) X_n/Y_n ^d→ X/y whenever y ≠ 0

CLT/Slutsky Example - Convergence to Std Normal

From CLT, we know that

$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - E[X]) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} N(0, \sigma_X^2)$$

We also know that

$$\hat{\sigma}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \sigma_X$$

Further assume that $\sigma_X > 0$. Then, by Slutskty

$$\frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}_n}\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - E[X]) \stackrel{d}{\to} \frac{1}{\sigma_X}N(0,\sigma_X^2)$$
$$\stackrel{d}{\to} N(0,1)$$

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Hypothesis Testing

- The above is the basic argument used in Hypothesis Testing
- For hypothesis testing, we need a:
 - Null Hypothesis (H₀): A statement about a parameter we "want" to disprove
 - Alternative Hypothesis (H₁): What we "want" to prove
 - Test statistic (T_n): Function of the data such that "large" values of T_n suggest H₀ is likely to be false
 - Critical value (c): Defines what we mean by large
 - Decision rule: Says we reject H_0 if and only if $T_n > c$

Hypothesis Testing Example - Two-Sided Test

For a *two-sided test* about the expectation of a rv, X:

- Null Hypothesis (H_0) : $E[X] = \mu_0$
- Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) : $E[X] \neq \mu_0$
- Test statistic (T_n):

$$T_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\hat{\sigma}_n^2} (|\overline{X_n} - \mu_0|)$$

The critical value and decision rule will be determined by our sensitivity to different kinds of errors...

Type 1 and Type 2 Errors

- Type 1 Error Rejecting H_0 when it is true
- **Type 2 Error Not rejecting** H_0 when it is false
- We usually can't say with certainty whether H₀ is true or false, but we can say things about the probabilities of Type 1 and 2 errors

Critical Values

We set the critical value so as to determine the probability of Type 1 Error - thus, c is such that, under the assumption that H₀ is true:

$$P(T_n > c) \approx \alpha$$

for $\alpha \in (0,1)$ that is chosen by the researcher

• α , the likelihood of falsely rejecting the null, is called the Significance Level

Critical Values Example - Two-Sided Test

• $H_0: E[X] = \mu_0, H_1: E[X] \neq \mu_0$. Assume that $0 < \sigma_X^2 < \infty$. We want the significance level α - ie we want:

$$P(T_n > c) = P(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\hat{\sigma}_n}(|\overline{X_n} - \mu_0|) > c) = \alpha$$

• Under the assumption that $E[X] = \mu_0$, this implies

$$P(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\hat{\sigma}_n}(|\overline{X_n} - E[X]|) > c) = \alpha$$

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Critical Values Example - Two-Sided Test (cont.)

Earlier, we showed that the left-hand size converges in distribution to a standard normal. Using this:

$$egin{aligned} & P(rac{\sqrt{n}}{\hat{\sigma}_n}(|\overline{X_n}-E[X]|)>c) pprox 1-\Phi(c)+\Phi(-c) \ &= 2(1-\Phi(c)) \ & (ext{Symmetry of normal}) \end{aligned}$$

 Thus, we can get the appropriate critical value in terms of our pre-chosen significance level:

$$egin{aligned} 2(1-\Phi(c))&=lpha\ &\Rightarrow c=\Phi^{-1}(1-rac{lpha}{2}) \end{aligned}$$

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P-Values

- The <u>P-value</u> (p̂_n) is a continuous measure that tells us the smallest value of α under which we would reject the test
- Note that rejecting at a smaller significance level means that we would reject at any higher significance level - if we reject at α', we'll reject at any α" > α'

P-Values Example - Two-Sided Test

The two-sided hypothesis test we developed will reject at the significance level α if:

$$T_n > \Phi(1 - \frac{lpha}{2})$$

 $\Rightarrow lpha > 2(1 - \Phi(T_n))$

• We reject if the above statement is true, so we reject at any significance level greater than $2(1 - \Phi(T_n))$. Thus,

$$\hat{p}_n = 2(1 - \Phi(T_n))$$

Confidence Sets

■ A <u>Confidence Set</u>, $C_n = C_n(X_1, ..., X_n)$, is a set of values constructed such there is a pre-specified probability of our parameter falling within the set:

$$P(\theta \in C_n) \approx 1 - \alpha$$

where α is selected by the researcher

Confidence Sets Example - Two-Sided Test

- Imagine performing hypothesis test of H₀: E[X] = μ₀ at significance level α for every possible value μ₀ and putting every non-rejected value in C_n. When we test H₀: E[X] = E[X] there is an α probability of rejection. Thus, there is a 1 − α chance that we don't reject the true value, and E[X] ∈ C_n
- We know we reject H_0 for a given μ_0 if:

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\hat{\sigma}_n}(|\overline{X_n}-\mu_0|) > \Phi^{-1}(1-\frac{\alpha}{2})$$

Confidence Sets Example - Two-Sided Test (cont.)

Thus, we fail to reject when:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\hat{\sigma}_n} (|\overline{X_n} - \mu_0|) &\leq \Phi^{-1} (1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}) \\ |\overline{X_n} - \mu_0| &\leq \frac{\hat{\sigma}_n}{\sqrt{n}} \Phi^{-1} (1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}) \\ &\Rightarrow C_n = [\overline{X_n} \pm \frac{\hat{\sigma}_n}{\sqrt{n}} \Phi^{-1} (1 - \frac{\alpha}{2})] \\ &\Rightarrow P(E[X] \in C_n) \approx 1 - \alpha \end{split}$$

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