







# Session 1.1

## Session 1.1 Math Review

- Summation Notation
- Probability Prerequisites









Random variable, probability distribution function, mean (expected value) and variance, median

- $Var(X) = E((X - E(X))^2) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$
- $Cov(X, Y) = E((X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$
- $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$
- $Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$
- $Var(aX + bY) = a^2 Var(X) + b^2 Var(Y) + 2ab Cov(X, Y)$

- Normal (Gaussian) “Normal( $\mu, \sigma^2$ )”
- Chi-sq “ $\chi^2(v)$ ”
- Student-t “ $t(v)$ ”
- Snedecor’s F “ $F(u, v)$ ”

More concepts/results to come...



# Statistics Review

Statistics: Learning about a certain population using information from a (possibly small) sample from that population

e.g. Population of interest: Non-institutional employed civilians aged 16 and above in US in 2018

### Population Characteristics of Interest:

- 1 “Representative” Hourly Earnings
- 2 Variation in Hourly Earnings across Population
- 3 Relationship between Hourly Earnings and Years of Schooling (Next week)

Random sample of  $n$  individuals from this population

## Random Sample

- Data in earnings2019.csv

- 13 / 60



```
dat %>% select(-c(race, feduc, meduc)) %>% summary(dat)
```

15 / 60









# Bias

One commonly used criterion is **unbiasedness**:  $E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta$

**Sample mean is unbiased for true mean** (under our stated conditions):

$$\text{Proof: } E(\bar{Y}) = E\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(Y_i) = \frac{1}{n} n\mu = \mu$$

- You will not *systematically* over- or under-estimate the population mean.
- (Thought experiment) If, say, 200 people went to the population and each obtained a random sample of  $n$  individuals and calculated the sample mean. Each would obtain a different sample mean, but their sample means will be nicely centered around the true (unknown) population mean.



Fortunately, in this case, there is an obvious unbiased estimator:

$$\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{n}{n-1} \widetilde{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \quad (\text{sample variance})$$

We call  $\tilde{\sigma}^2$  the **biased sample variance**

(Why divide by  $n - 1$ ?)

- Only  $n - 1$  independent pieces of information in  $\{Y_i - \bar{Y}\}$  since  $\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}) = 0$
- Given  $\{Y_1 - \bar{Y}, \dots, Y_{i-1} - \bar{Y}, Y_{i+1} - \bar{Y}, \dots, Y_n - \bar{Y}\}$ , you can calculate  $Y_i - \bar{Y}$
- you used one “degree-of-freedom” when you used the data to calculate  $\bar{Y}$
- If  $\bar{Y}$  was obtained from a *different sample*, then you should divide by  $n$ , not  $n - 1$ , to get an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma^2$













Can do the same for s.e. of the mean and the median!

```
sample mean: 29.232 s.e.: 0.368 bootstrap s.e.: 0.357
sample var.: 670.651 s.e.: 13.487 bootstrap s.e.: 100.867
sample median.: 23 bootstrap s.e.: 0.314
```



# Efficiency

E.g.,

- sample mean is a linear unbiased estimator: weights  $w_i = 1/n$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , sums to one.

- $$\tilde{\mu}_1 = \frac{2}{n(n+1)}Y_1 + \dots + \frac{2i}{n(n+1)}Y_i + \dots + \frac{2n}{n(n+1)}Y_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2i}{n(n+1)}Y_i$$

$\tilde{\mu}_1$  is a linear estimator for  $\mu$ , and unbiased since weights sum to one

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2i}{n(n+1)} = \frac{2}{n(n+1)} \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{2}{n(n+1)} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = 1.$$

- $\tilde{\mu}_2 = y_n$  is a linear unbiased estimator

# Efficiency

Under assumed conditions, **sample mean has smallest variance among all linear unbiased estimators** “Best Linear Unbiased”

Proof: Let  $\tilde{\mu} = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i Y_i$  where  $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$ . Let  $w_i = \frac{1}{n} + v_i$ .

Since  $w_i$  sum to one,  $v_i$  sum to zero. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\tilde{\mu}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{n} + v_i \right)^2 \text{Var}(Y_i) = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{2v_i}{n} + v_i^2 \right) \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \frac{2\sigma^2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n v_i + \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 \geq \text{Var}(\bar{Y}). \end{aligned}$$

Equality holds only if  $\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 = 0$ , i.e.,  $v_i = 0$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , i.e., when  $w_i = 1/n$

# MSE and the Bias-Variance Tradeoff

Choosing BLU estimators places priority on unbiasedness

Alternative measure of quality of estimator — Mean Square Estimator Error

$$\begin{aligned}MSE(\hat{\theta}) &= E((\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2) \\&= Var(\hat{\theta} - \theta) + (E(\hat{\theta} - \theta))^2 \\&= Var(\hat{\theta}) + (E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta)^2 \\&= \text{Estimator Variance} + (\text{Estimator Bias})^2\end{aligned}$$

Choosing estimator to minimize MSE allows for **bias-variance trade-off**

Can show that if  $Y_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $MSE(\widetilde{\sigma}^2) < MSE(\widehat{\sigma}^2)$  (exercise)

# Consistency

$$E(\bar{Y}) = \mu \text{ and } Var(\bar{Y}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , sample mean “converges” to  $\mu$

**Convergence in Probability** A sequence of random variables  $X_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , converges in probability to  $c$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(|X_n - c| \geq \epsilon) = 0.$$

We say  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$

An estimator is **consistent** if it converges in probability to what it is estimating

# Consistency

Under our stated assumptions, the sample mean is consistent for the population mean

**Khinchine's Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)** If  $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is iid with  $E(Y_i) = \mu < \infty$  for all  $i$ , then

$$\bar{Y}_n \xrightarrow{p} \mu$$

where  $\bar{Y}_n$  is the sample mean based on  $n$  observations.

- There are many “Laws of Large Numbers” each stating different conditions under which the sample mean is consistent
- “Weak” refers to the kind of probabilistic convergence used here (there are others)
- Bias and variance going to zero is actually “convergence in mean square”, but this implies convergence in probability

# Consistency (Simulation Example)

Suppose 200 people each took independent random samples of size  $n$  from population

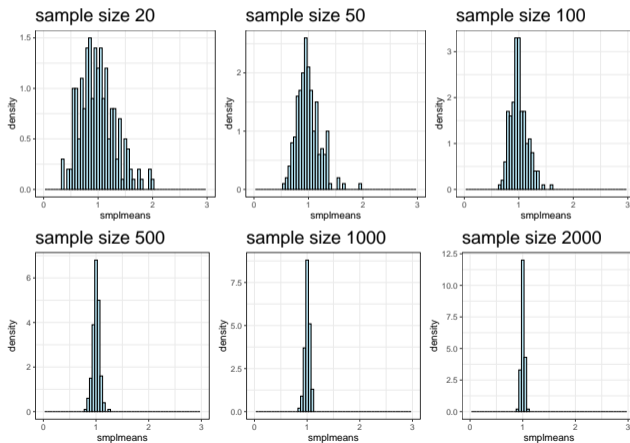
Suppose population is well-represented by Chi-Sq(1) distribution (mean = 1)

Plot distribution of sample mean for  $n = 20, 50, 100, 500, 1000, 2000$

```
set.seed(1701)
Persons <- 200
MaxSampleSize <- 2000
AllSamples <- rchisq(Persons*MaxSampleSize, df=1) %>% matrix(ncol=Persons)
smplsizes <- c(20, 50, 100, 500, 1000, 2000)
plots1 <- vector("list", length=6)
for (i in 1:length(smplsizes)){
  n <- smplsizes[i]
  means <- colMeans(AllSamples[1:n,])
  datmeans <- data.frame(smplmeans=means)
  plots1[[i]] <- ggplot(data=datmeans, aes(x=smplmeans)) +
    geom_histogram(aes(y=..density..), color="black", fill="lightblue", binwidth=0.05) +
    labs(title = paste("sample size", smplsizes[i])) + xlim(0,3) +
    theme_bw() + theme(plot.title = element_text(size=20))
}
```

# Consistency (Simulation Example)

```
(plots1[[1]] | plots1[[2]] | plots1[[3]]) / (plots1[[4]] | plots1[[5]] | plots1[[6]])
```



# Consistency

Also, we say that  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} Y_n$  if  $X_n - Y_n \xrightarrow{p} 0$

An important property of convergence in probability: if  $g(\cdot)$  is continuous, and  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ , then  $g(X_n) \rightarrow g(c)$

- Suppose we want to estimate  $\mu^2$ . A consistent estimator is  $\hat{\mu}^2 = \bar{Y}^2$

$$\bar{Y} \xrightarrow{p} \mu \Rightarrow \bar{Y}^2 \xrightarrow{p} \mu^2$$

# Consistency

Note that  $\bar{Y}^2$  is **not** an unbiased estimator of  $\mu^2$ , since

$$\bullet \text{ } Var(\bar{Y}) = E(\bar{Y}^2) - E(\bar{Y})^2 = E(\bar{Y}^2) - \mu^2 \Rightarrow E(\bar{Y}^2) = \mu^2 + Var(\bar{Y}) > \mu^2$$

## Jensen's Inequality:

- If  $g(\cdot)$  is convex, then  $E(g(X)) \geq g(E(X))$
- If  $g(\cdot)$  is concave, then  $E(g(X)) \leq g(E(X))$
- Equality holds if  $g(\cdot)$  is linear

e.g.  $g(x) = x^2$  is strictly convex

# Consistency

$$\widetilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 - \bar{Y}^2 \text{ is consistent for } \sigma^2$$

Proof:

- $Y_i$  iid with  $E(Y_i) = \mu$  and  $Var(Y_i) = \sigma^2 \Rightarrow Y_i^2$  iid with  $E(Y_i^2) = \sigma^2 + \mu^2$
- $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 \xrightarrow{p} \sigma^2 + \mu^2$  and  $\bar{Y}^2 \xrightarrow{p} \mu^2$
- Therefore  $\widetilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 - \bar{Y}^2 \xrightarrow{p} \sigma^2 + \mu^2 - \mu^2 = \sigma^2$

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \text{ is also consistent for } \sigma^2 \text{ since } \widehat{\sigma}^2 = \underbrace{\frac{n}{n-1}}_{\rightarrow 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty} \widetilde{\sigma}^2$$

# Hypothesis Testing (Two-Sided)

Suppose we want to test

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0 \text{ vs } H_A : \mu \neq \mu_0$$

Intuitive Idea:

- If  $\mu = \mu_0$  we expect  $\hat{\mu}$  to be “near”  $\mu_0$
- If  $\hat{\mu}$  is far from  $\mu_0$ , perhaps  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  is incorrect
- If  $\hat{\mu}$  is “too far” from  $\mu_0$ , take this as statistical evidence that  $\mu \neq \mu_0$

But how far is too far?

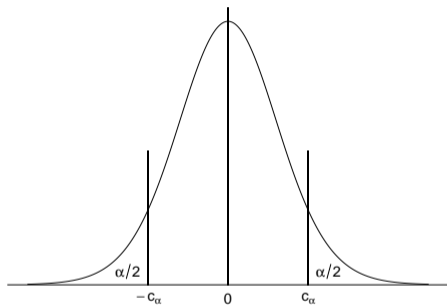
# Hypothesis Testing (Two-Sided)

Assume for the moment that  $Y_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu_0, \sigma^2)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu_0, \sigma^2) &\implies \bar{Y} \sim \text{Normal}\left(\mu_0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \\ &\implies \frac{(\bar{Y} - \mu_0)}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1) \\ &\implies \underbrace{\frac{(\bar{Y} - \mu_0)}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma^2}/n}}}_{\text{t-statistic}} \sim t(n-1) \end{aligned}$$

# Hypothesis Testing (Two-Sided)



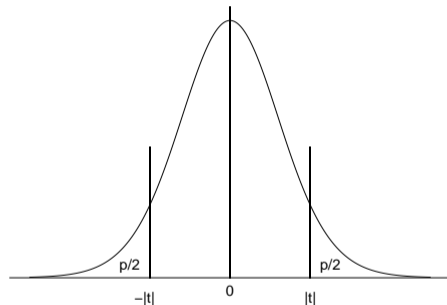
Reject  $H_0$  if  $t > c_\alpha$  or  $t < -c_\alpha$ , where  $c_\alpha$  is such that  $\alpha = 0.01, 0.05, 0.10$   
i.e., reject if  $\Pr(|t| > c_\alpha) < \alpha$  given  $\mu = \mu_0$  (Prob of rejecting correct null)

# Hypothesis Testing (Two-Sided)

```
NVal <- c(20, 50, 100, 200, 400)
alphaVal <- c(0.01, 0.05, 0.1)
Critval <- matrix(rep(0,length(NVal)*length(alphaVal)), ncol = length(NVal))
colnames(Critval) <- paste0("N=",NVal)
rownames(Critval) <- paste0("alpha=",alphaVal)
for (i in 1:length(alphaVal)){
  for (j in 1:length(NVal)){
    Critval[i, j] = qt(1-alphaVal[i]/2, df=NVal[j]-1)
  }
}
round(Critval,3)
```

	N=20	N=50	N=100	N=200	N=400
alpha=0.01	2.861	2.680	2.626	2.601	2.588
alpha=0.05	2.093	2.010	1.984	1.972	1.966
alpha=0.1	1.729	1.677	1.660	1.653	1.649

# Hypothesis Testing (Two-Sided)



Equivalently, reject  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  if “p-value”  $\Pr(|t| > c_\alpha)$  is less than  $\alpha$

$$\sqrt{N}(\bar{Y} - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$$



```
(plots2[[1]] | plots2[[2]] | plots2[[3]]) / (plots2[[4]] | plots2[[5]] | plots2[[6]])
```



## Hypothesis Testing (Two-Sided)

- “ $\xrightarrow{d}$ ” means **convergence in distribution**
- when  $n$  is large, pdf of LHS is approximately the pdf of the Standard Normal
- Can also be shown that

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{Y} - \mu)}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma^2}}} = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma^2}/n}} \xrightarrow{d} \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

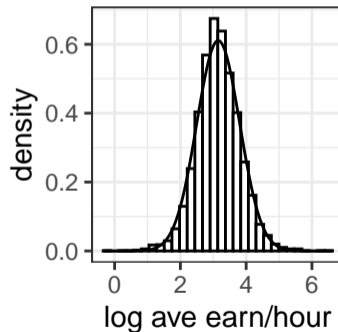
You can replace  $\widehat{\sigma^2}$  with  $\widetilde{\sigma^2}$  or any other consistent estimator of  $\sigma^2$

When  $n$  is large, can make the approximation  $t \overset{a}{\sim} \text{Normal}(0, 1)$ , where  $\overset{a}{\sim}$  means “approximately distributed”, even when  $Y_i$  is not Normally distributed



51 / 60

Should we have worked with  $\log(\text{earn})$  instead of  $\text{earn}$ ?











- Course Arrangements
  - Webpages, reading material, software
  - Grading system



## Course Arrangements (Evaluation)

- **Individual Assignments 50%**

- Short Weekly Review Questions (20%), graded based on submission, feedback via detailed answer sheet
- Three longer assignments (30%), graded in detail.

- **Exam 40%**

- Closed book, calculators allowed, **no cheat sheet**

- **Class and Forum Participation 10%**

- ask/answer questions in class
- ask/answer questions on forum page
- post typos and errors on forum page

