

# Probability and Statistics Review

## Econometrics discussion section 1

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# Housekeeping

- Introductions: name, major, thoughts about econometrics
- For now, office hour in Brody Cafe, Tuesdays, 3-4PM
  - May change to Wyman Park 601A
  - Timing poll: [bit.ly/metricsOH](https://bit.ly/metricsOH)
- What will we do in sections?
  - Cover important topics
  - Practice problems
  - Stata practice
  - Slides and resources in GitHub repo: [github.com/JohnRGreen/EconometricsSpring25](https://github.com/JohnRGreen/EconometricsSpring25)
- Sign in for attendance each week

# Recap

What have we covered so far?

- Review of probability and statistics (Stock & Watson chapters 2 and 3)
- Random variables and their first 2 moments
- Marginal, joint and conditional distributions
- Independence
- Covariance and correlation
- Law of Iterated Expectations

# Recap

Still to come (probably):

- Normal, Fisher (F),  $\chi^2$  distributions
- LLN and CLT
- Estimators and their properties: consistency, unbiasedness, normal approximation
- One variable t-test
- Two variable t-test

# Random variables

- A random variable is a *function* from a space of possible outcomes to (usually) some subset of real numbers.
- May be discrete or continuous
- Roll two dice and add up the numbers (discrete)
  - Sample space is all the possible rolls of the two dice (how many?)
  - Outcome space is all the possible sums of those rolls (how many?)
  - The sum is a random variable
- Height of a person (continuous, but bounded)
  - Sample space is all people; might think about characterizing them by some covariates such as weight, age, etc.
  - Outcome space is all possible heights (what would this be?)
- Thinking about probability is different for discrete and continuous cases

		FIRST DICE					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
SECOND DICE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

# Mean

- The first moment of a random variable is its mean, aka average or expected value
- What is the mean value of the result from rolling one die?
- What is the mean value of the sum of rolling both dice?

# Mean

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- What is the mean value of the result from rolling one die?
  - $E[X] = \frac{1}{6} \times 1 + \frac{1}{6} \times 2 + \frac{1}{6} \times 3 + \frac{1}{6} \times 4 + \frac{1}{6} \times 5 + \frac{1}{6} \times 6 = 3.5$
- What is the mean value of the sum of rolling both dice?
  - $E[X] =$   
 $\frac{1}{36} \times 2 + \frac{2}{36} \times 3 + \frac{3}{36} \times 4 + \frac{4}{36} \times 5 + \frac{5}{36} \times 6 + \frac{6}{36} \times 7 + \frac{5}{36} \times 8 + \frac{4}{36} \times 9 + \frac{3}{36} \times 10 + \frac{2}{36} \times 11 + \frac{1}{36} \times 12 = 7$
  - (Could also write out using  $\frac{1}{36}$  weight everywhere but easier to consolidate terms)



# Variance

- The second moment of a random variable is its variance
  - Think of this as the mean distance from the mean: it measures the spread of our data
  - $\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - E[X])^2]$
  - Why do we need to square the spread?
- What is the variance of rolling one die?
- What is the variance of the sum of rolling both dice?

# Variance

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  - Why do we need to square the spread?
- What is the variance of rolling one die?
  - $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{6} \times (1 - 3.5)^2 + \frac{1}{6} \times (2 - 3.5)^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{6} \times (6 - 3.5)^2 = \frac{35}{12} \approx 2.92$
- Similar idea for the sum of 2 dice.
- Often we will work with the *standard deviation* which is the square of the variance since the units are more interpretable.

# Higher moments

- Third moment is *skewness* and tells us how symmetric our distribution is
  - What is the skewness of our example?
- Fourth moment is the *kurtosis* which measures the mass of the tails
  - Gives us an idea of the likelihood of large values

# Covariance

- The covariance of two random variables tells us the strength of their *linear* (careful!) relationship
- If two random variables are independent, covariance is 0 (though the reverse is not true)
  - What is the covariance in our example?
- Often we will look at the *correlation* instead of the covariance,  $\frac{\text{cov}(X,Y)}{(\text{var}(X)\text{var}(Y))^{1/2}}$ 
  - Unlike covariance, correlation is scaled between -1 and 1 and so is easily interpretable

## Rules on joint distributions

- If two variables are independent,  $P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x) * P(Y = y)$
- Conditional probability:  $P(X = x|Y = y) = \frac{P(X=x, Y=y)}{P(Y=y)}$ 
  - What happens if the events are independent?
- Law of iterated expectations says the mean of  $Y$  can be written as a weighted average of the mean of  $Y|X$ :  $E[Y] = E[E[Y|X = x]]$ 
  - $E[Y] = \sum_x E[Y|X = x]P(X = x)$  in discrete case
  - $E[Y] = \int_x E[Y|X = x]f_X(x)dx$  for continuous case
- Other topics in textbook: Bayes' law, law of total probability, etc.

## Second example

- New example:
  - Roll the first dice
  - If first roll  $\geq 4$  then we roll the second die and observe its value
  - If first roll  $\leq 3$  then the second value is simply set to 1
- What is the joint probability distribution?
- What is the covariance of the 2 rolls?
- What is the correlation?
- What is the marginal distribution of the two r.v.? What is the first moment of each?

		FIRST DICE						Marginal:
		1	2	3	4	5	6	
SECOND DICE	1	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.58
	2	0	0	0	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.08
	3	0	0	0	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.08
	4	0	0	0	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.08
	5	0	0	0	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.08
	6	0	0	0	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.08
Marginal:		0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	

## Second example

- New example:
  - Roll the first dice
  - If first roll  $\geq 4$  then we roll the second die and observe its value
  - If first roll  $\leq 3$  then the second value is simply set to 1
- What is the marginal distribution of the two r.v.? What are the first two moments of each?  $E[X_1] = 3.5$ ,  $var(X_1) = 2.92$ ,  $E[X_2] = 2.25$ ,  $var(X_2) = 3.02$
- What is the covariance of the 2 rolls?  $cov(X_1, X_2) = 1.875$
- What is the correlation?  $corr(X_1, X_2) = \rho_{X_1, X_2} = 0.63$



# Normal distribution

- Two parameters: mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ 
  - $\mu$  tells us about the location of the distribution (where is it centered?)
  - $\sigma$  tells us about the shape of the distribution (what is the spread? what do the tails look like?)
- We can *standardize* a normal random variable  $X$ :
  - $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$  so  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$
  - Careful to divide by standard deviation and not by variance!
- This will be helpful in hypothesis testing because we can consider how unlikely a given value  $z$  is to be drawn from a  $N(0,1)$  distribution

# Estimation

- So far we have been in the world of probability theory, dealing with random variables and their distributions
- *Statistics* is all about using actual data to make inferences about the world, and so we will often try to find *estimators* for probabilistic objects
- For example, we will often be interested in estimating the mean (average, first moment) of a distribution

# Estimation

- Example: wait time for a coffee at Brody Cafe
- A natural estimator for the population mean is the sample mean:
  - Take a survey of people as they walk out of Brody and ask how long they waited
  - Average the responses
- Sample mean  $\bar{Y}$  is a random variable since we taking a random sample and thus  $\bar{Y}$  has a sampling distribution
  - What can we say about it?

# Unbiased

- First,  $\bar{Y}$  is an **unbiased** estimator of  $\mu_Y$ :

$$E[\bar{Y}] = \mu_Y$$

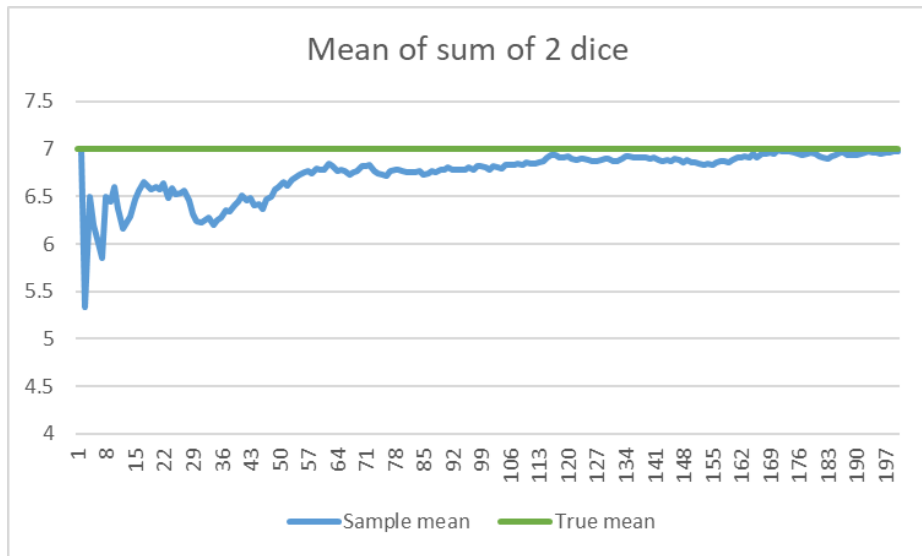
- In expectation, we get the thing we want!

# Law of Large Numbers

- Second,  $\bar{Y}$  is a **consistent** estimator of  $\mu_Y$
- Mathematically, this means that for any number  $\epsilon$  we choose, we know that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{Y} - \mu_Y| > \epsilon) = 0$$

- In plain English: the larger our sample size, the better our guess for  $\mu_Y$
- As our sample gets infinitely large, we get infinitesimally close
- This follows from the **Law of Large Numbers**



# Efficiency

- Lastly, we can think about the *efficiency* of the estimator: what is its variance?
- In this case,  $\text{var}(\bar{Y}) = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}$
- In other words, the variance decreases as the sample gets larger, at a rate of  $\frac{1}{n}$
- We can use this to compare the efficiency of two estimators, for example if we had another estimator with variance  $\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sqrt{n}}$  we can say that the sample mean is more efficient

Now let's look at the most remarkable result about the sample mean.

# Central Limit Theorem

- The central limit theorem tells us that  $\bar{Y}$  is *asymptotically normal*:

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{Y} - \mu_Y) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma_Y^2)$$

- In other words, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\bar{Y}$  follows a normal distribution,  $\bar{Y} \sim N(\mu_Y, \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n})$
- This means we can use the normal distribution to make inferences about sample mean
- To make it easy, we can standardize the sample mean:  $Z = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_Y}{\sigma_Y / \sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$
- We will use the sample variance as an estimator for the population variance, just like we do for mean (but we will need to correct a small bias)



# Hypothesis testing

- We can use the normal approximation to perform a *hypothesis test*
  - One-sided or two-sided
- Intuition: assuming the true mean is some value  $\mu_{Y,0}$ , how likely is it that we would observe the sample mean  $\bar{Y}$ ?
  - If it is “very” unlikely, we will reject the null
  - If it is “reasonably likely” then we fail to reject the null
- p-value: probability of a test statistic at least as unlikely as the one you observe (under the null)

## Some other terminology

- **Type-1 error**: reject a true null hypothesis
  - **Size** is probability of a type-1 error
- **Type-2 error**: fail to reject a false hypothesis
  - **Power** is probability of a type-2 error
- Which of these two mistakes is worse?
- What is the relationship between the size and the power?

### Significance Level ( $\alpha$ ) and Power ( $1-\beta$ )

	$H_0$ is True	$H_0$ is False
Test Rejects $H_0$	$\alpha$	$1-\beta$
Test Doesn't Reject $H_0$	$1-\alpha$	$\beta$

# Calculating p-value

- So, the **p-value** tells us how unlikely the null hypothesis is:
  - $P_{H_0}(|\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_{Y,0}}{\sigma_Y/\sqrt{n}}| \geq |\frac{\bar{Y}_{data} - \mu_{Y,0}}{\sigma_Y/\sqrt{n}}|)$
  - RHS is just a number! LHS is RV with known distribution under null
  - CLT tells us this **t-statistic** is  $N(0,1)$  so probability in tails is easy to look up
- If observed t-statistic is very large or very small, then p-value is very small and we reject the null
  - If the null had been true, it is very unlikely that we would have observed the t-statistic

## Using pre-set significance level

- Alternatively, we can decide that we want to do a test at a given significance  $\alpha$  and find the value such that the sum in the tails (or tail) is  $\alpha$
- Eg if  $\alpha = 0.05$ , then our cutoff points are  $(-1.96, 1.96)$
- If our t-statistic is outside of these bounds, we reject the null because it was very unlikely
- This is always less-informative than a p-value; but may be more rigorous to pre-set our rejection region
- We can also construct a confidence interval for  $\mu_X$  based on our data, eg  $\bar{X} \pm 1.96 \frac{\sigma_X}{\sqrt{n}}$ 
  - This is the set of all possible  $\mu_X$  values which would not be rejected by a two-sided t-test with  $\alpha = 0.05$

# Hypothesis about difference in means

- What if we want to perform a hypothesis on the difference in means between two random variables?
- Simple: combine them to one!
  - $X_3 = \bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$
  - This is just a difference of two normal random variables so we can use the normal approximation, t-statistic is just  $\frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}$
- What if we want to test hypothesis that the difference is 2?