

# TA Session for Econometrics I 2025

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# Relationship Between Population and Sample

- **Population:** The entire set of individuals or observations under study.
  - Denoted as  $\mathcal{P}$ .
  - Parameters such as  $\mu$  (mean) and  $\sigma^2$  (variance) describe the population.
- **Sample:** A subset of the population used for analysis.
  - Denoted as  $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ .
  - Sample statistics (e.g.,  $\bar{X}$ ,  $s^2$ ) estimate population parameters.

# Sample Mean and Estimation

- **Sample Mean:** Given a sample  $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ , the sample mean is defined as:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i.$$

- **Estimator vs. Estimate:**

- **Estimator:** A function of the sample used to infer a population parameter.
  - Example:  $\bar{X}$  is an estimator of  $\mu$ .
- **Estimate:** A specific numerical value obtained from an estimator using observed data.
  - Example: If  $\bar{X} = 5.2$  from a given sample, 5.2 is the estimate of  $\mu$ .

- **Properties of Sample Mean:**

- $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu$  (Unbiasedness).
- $\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ .
- If  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ .

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# Law of Large Numbers

- The **Law of Large Numbers (LLN)** states that the sample mean  $\bar{X}_n$  converges to the population mean  $\mu$  as the sample size  $n$  increases.
- **Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN):**

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{P} \mu \quad (\text{Convergence in Probability})$$

- **Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN):**

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} \mu \quad (\text{Almost Sure Convergence})$$

- **Implication:**

- As  $n$  increases,  $\bar{X}_n$  gets closer to  $\mu$ .
- The larger the sample, the more accurate the estimate of  $\mu$ .
- Ensures stability of sample estimates over repeated sampling.

- As the sample size  $n$  increases, the variability of the sample mean  $\bar{X}_n$  decreases.
- The variance of the sample mean is given by:

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

which approaches 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

- Since the variance is close to zero, the sample mean converges to  $\mu$ , the population-level mean.



# Markov's and Chebyshev's Inequalities

- **Markov's Inequality:** For a non-negative random variable  $X$  and any  $a > 0$ ,

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{a}.$$

This provides an upper bound on the probability that  $X$  takes large values.

- **Chebyshev's Inequality:** For any random variable  $X$  with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , and for any  $k > 0$ ,

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

This shows that most values of  $X$  concentrate around the mean  $\mu$ .

- **Importance in the CLT Proof:**
  - Markov's inequality is a general tool for bounding probabilities of extreme values.
  - Chebyshev's inequality is used to show that sample means become tightly concentrated around  $\mu$ .
  - These inequalities help establish the convergence required for the Central Limit Theorem (CLT).

# Proof of Markov's Inequality

- **Proof:**

- Consider the indicator function  $I(X \geq a)$ , which is 1 if  $X \geq a$  and 0 otherwise.
- Since  $X \geq aI(X \geq a)$ , taking expectations gives:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \geq \mathbb{E}[aI(X \geq a)] = aP(X \geq a).$$

- Rearranging, we obtain:

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{a}.$$

- This inequality provides an upper bound on the probability that  $X$  takes large values based on its expected value.

# Proof of Chebyshev's Inequality

- **Proof:**

- Apply Markov's inequality to the non-negative random variable  $(X - \mu)^2$  with  $a = k^2 \sigma^2$ :

$$P((X - \mu)^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]}{k^2 \sigma^2}.$$

- Since  $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] = \sigma^2$ , we obtain:

$$P((X - \mu)^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{k^2 \sigma^2} = \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

- Noting that  $P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) = P((X - \mu)^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2)$ , we conclude:

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

- This inequality provides an upper bound on the probability that  $X$  deviates significantly from its mean in terms of its variance.

# Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)

**Statement:** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. random variables with mean  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$  and finite variance  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ . Then, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \geq \epsilon) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Proof using Chebyshev's Inequality:**

- The sample mean is defined as:

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

- Compute its expectation:

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}_n] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu.$$

- Compute its variance:

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

- Apply Chebyshev's inequality:

$$P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n)}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2}.$$

- As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the right-hand side  $\frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0$ , implying

$$P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \geq \epsilon) \rightarrow 0.$$

The sample mean  $\bar{X}_n$  converges to  $\mu$  in probability as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , proving the Weak Law of Large Numbers.

This result shows that, for any small positive number  $\epsilon$ , the probability that the sample mean differs from the population mean by more than  $\epsilon$  tends to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

# Sample Error and the Reliability of Sample Mean

- In reality, we cannot take an infinite sample size  $n$ . Some uncertainty always remains in our estimate.
- This remaining uncertainty is called the **sample error**.
- Despite this, the sample mean  $\bar{X}_n$  has a crucial property:

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}_n] = \mu$$

meaning that, on average, the sample mean equals the true mean (**unbiasedness**).

- Moreover, by the **Weak Law of Large Numbers**, the sample mean converges in probability to the true mean as the sample size increases:

$$\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{p} \mu$$

This property is known as **consistency**.

- Thus, even with some sample error, the sample mean provides a reliable and consistent way to estimate an unknown population mean.

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# Big-O and Little-o Notation

Big-O ( $O$ ) and Little-o ( $o$ ) notation are used to describe the asymptotic behaviour of functions, particularly in algorithm analysis.

- **Big-O ( $O$ ) Notation:**

$$f(x) = O(g(x)) \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

means that  $f(x)$  grows at most as fast as  $g(x)$  for large values of  $x$ , up to a constant factor. This gives an upper bound on the growth of  $f(x)$ .

- **Example of Big-O:**

$$f(x) = 3x^2 + 5x, \quad g(x) = x^2$$

Since  $f(x) = 3x^2 + 5x$  is dominated by the  $x^2$  term for large  $x$ , we can say:

$$f(x) = O(x^2)$$

This means that for sufficiently large  $x$ ,  $f(x)$  grows at most as fast as  $x^2$ , up to a constant multiple.



- **Little-o ( $o$ ) Notation:**

$$f(x) = o(g(x)) \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

means that  $f(x)$  grows strictly slower than  $g(x)$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . In other words, the ratio  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  tends to 0 as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ .

- **Example of Little-o:**

$$f(x) = x, \quad g(x) = x^2$$

Here,  $f(x) = x$  grows strictly slower than  $g(x) = x^2$ . As  $x$  becomes large, the ratio  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x}$  tends to 0. Thus:

$$f(x) = o(x^2)$$

This means that  $x$  grows much slower than  $x^2$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ .

### Key Difference:

- Big-O provides an upper bound on growth (asymptotic upper bound).
- Little-o indicates that one function grows strictly slower than the other.

# Moment Generating Function (MGF)

**Definition:** The moment generating function (MGF) of a random variable  $X$  is defined as

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}], \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

## Properties:

- $M_X(0) = 1$ .
- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t)M_Y(t).$$

- The  $n$ th derivative at  $t = 0$  gives the  $n$ th moment:

$$M_X^{(n)}(0) = \mathbb{E}[X^n].$$

- If  $M_X(t)$  exists in an open interval around  $t = 0$ , it uniquely determines the distribution.

## Importance in CLT:

- Used to analyse the limiting behaviour of sums of i.i.d. random variables.
- Helps show that standardised sums converge to a normal distribution.
- Provides an alternative proof of the Central Limit Theorem.

# Central Limit Theorem via Moment Generating Function

**Setup:** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. random variables with mean  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$  and variance  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$ . Consider the standardised sum:

$$Z_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

**Step 1: Compute the MGF of  $Z_n$**

$$M_{Z_n}(t) = \mathbb{E} \left[ e^{tZ_n} \right].$$

Using independence and the MGF of each  $X_i$ ,

$$M_{Z_n}(t) = \left( M_Y \left( \frac{t}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \right)^n,$$

where  $Y_i = \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}$  has mean 0 and variance 1.

## Step 2: Expand the MGF using Taylor series

$$M_Y(t) = 1 + \frac{t^2}{2} + O(t^3).$$

Substituting  $t/\sqrt{n}$ :

$$M_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 1 + \frac{t^2}{2n} + O(n^{-3/2}).$$

Raising to the power  $n$ , we get

$$M_{Z_n}(t) = \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2n} + O(n^{-3/2})\right)^n.$$

Using  $(1+x)^n \approx e^{nx}$ , this converges to

$$M_{Z_n}(t) \rightarrow e^{t^2/2}, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Conclusion:** Since  $e^{t^2/2}$  is the MGF of  $N(0,1)$ , we conclude

$$Z_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{d} N(0,1).$$

In some proofs, the **characteristic function** is used instead of the moment generating function (MGF).

- The moment generating function (MGF) is defined as:

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}]$$

However, this function does not always exist for all values of  $t$ , making it unsuitable in some cases.

- The characteristic function is defined as:

$$\varphi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX}]$$

Unlike the MGF, the characteristic function always exists for any random variable because  $|e^{itX}| = 1$ .

- **Why use the characteristic function?**
  - It is always well-defined, even when the MGF does not exist.
  - It uniquely determines the distribution of a random variable.
  - It simplifies proofs, especially in limit theorems (e.g., Central Limit Theorem).

**Conclusion:** While MGFs are useful when they exist, characteristic functions provide a more general and robust approach in many theoretical proofs.

# Characteristic Function

**Definition:** The characteristic function  $\phi_X(t)$  of a random variable  $X$  is given by

$$\phi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX}], \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

## Properties:

- $\phi_X(0) = 1$ .
- $|\phi_X(t)| \leq 1$  for all  $t$ .
- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then

$$\phi_{X+Y}(t) = \phi_X(t)\phi_Y(t).$$

- If  $X$  has mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then for small  $t$ ,

$$\phi_X(t) \approx 1 + it\mu - \frac{t^2\sigma^2}{2} + o(t^2).$$

- The characteristic function uniquely determines the probability distribution.

## Importance in CLT:

- Used to analyse the limiting distribution of standardised sums.
- Provides an elegant proof of the Central Limit Theorem.

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# Sampling Distribution of Sample Variance

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be an i.i.d. sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . The sample variance is defined as:

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

where  $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  is the sample mean.

- $S^2$  is an unbiased estimator of the population variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- The distribution of  $S^2$  depends on the population distribution.
- If  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then:

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$$

follows a chi-square distribution with  $n-1$  degrees of freedom.

# Expectation and Variance of Sample Variance

**Expectation of  $S^2$ :**

$$\mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2$$

This shows that  $S^2$  is an **unbiased estimator** of  $\sigma^2$ .

**Variance of  $S^2$ :**

$$\text{Var}(S^2) = \frac{2\sigma^4}{n-1}$$

- As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\text{Var}(S^2) \rightarrow 0$ , meaning  $S^2$  becomes more concentrated around  $\sigma^2$ .
- The larger the sample size, the more precise the estimate.

# Why Divide by $n - 1$ Instead of $n$ ?

**Sample variance is defined as:**

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

If we divide by  $n$ , the resulting estimator is biased, meaning:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right] = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2 \neq \sigma^2$$

**Reason:**

- The sample mean  $\bar{X}$  is an estimate of  $\mu$ , not the true mean.
- This introduces one constraint: once  $n - 1$  values are chosen, the last one is determined.
- This reduces the effective degrees of freedom from  $n$  to  $n - 1$ .

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 - n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2$$

$$X_i - \bar{X} = (X_i - \mu) - (\bar{X} - \mu)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n ((X_i - \mu) - (\bar{X} - \mu))^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 - 2(\bar{X} - \mu) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) + \sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{X} - \mu)^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) = n(\bar{X} - \mu)$$

$$-2(\bar{X} - \mu) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) = -2(\bar{X} - \mu) \cdot n(\bar{X} - \mu) = -2n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{X} - \mu)^2 = n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 - 2n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2 + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 - n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2\end{aligned}$$

# Consistency of Sample Variance

**Definition of Consistency:** An estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is consistent for  $\theta$  if:

$$\hat{\theta}_n \xrightarrow{P} \theta \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

That is,  $\hat{\theta}_n$  converges to  $\theta$  in probability.

**Consistency of  $S^2$ :**

- Since  $\mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2$  and  $\text{Var}(S^2) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,
- By Chebyshev's inequality:

$$P(|S^2 - \sigma^2| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(S^2)}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{2\sigma^4}{(n-1)\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0$$

- Therefore,  $S^2$  is a consistent estimator of  $\sigma^2$ .

**Conclusion:**

- $S^2$  is both an **unbiased** and **consistent** estimator of  $\sigma^2$ .
- As the sample size increases, the estimation accuracy improves.

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# Sample Variance under Normal Distribution

- Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d. from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .
- The sample variance is defined as:

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2.$$

- We examine the distribution of  $S^2$  and its relation to the chi-square and t-distributions.



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# Chi-Square Distribution of Squared Deviations

- Define the sum of squared deviations from the population mean:

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2.$$

- Since  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , it follows that:

$$W \sim \chi^2(n).$$

- However, in practice, we do not know  $\mu$  and use  $\bar{X}$  instead.

# Sample Variance and Chi-Square Distribution

- Using  $\bar{X}$ , define:

$$W' = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{\sigma} \right)^2.$$

- It can be shown that:

$$W' \sim \chi^2(n-1).$$

- Hence, the sample variance satisfies:

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1).$$

- Define the standardized sample mean:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}.$$

- Since  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ , it follows that  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .
- The t-statistic is defined as:

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}.$$

- Using the previous result, we obtain:

$$T \sim t(n - 1).$$