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# Explain the Math

## Mathematics

### 01. Fundamentals

Quadratic Equation:  $x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$  | Completing the Square:  $a \left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 + c - \frac{b^2}{4a}$

Combinations:  $nCk = \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$  | Permutations:  $nPk = \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$

*Set Notation*

$\mathbb{N}$ (natural)  $\subset \mathbb{Z}$ (integers)  $\subset \mathbb{Q}$ (rational)  $\subset \mathbb{R}$ (real)

$\mathbb{R}_+$ : positive real numbers ;  $\mathbb{R}_{++}$ : non-negative real numbers

$x \in S$  :  $x$  is an element of set  $S$  | Number of members in set  $S$ :  $|S|$  or  $\sum_{s \in S} 1$

$2^S$ : All subsets of  $S$

$X = \{s \in S \mid s \dots\}$  [i.e.  $X$  is the set of members  $S$  which satisfy property...]

**Cartesian product** of two sets  $(A \times B)$  is the set of all **ordered pairs**  $(a, b)$

$\mathbb{R}^2$ : set of real numbers  $(x, y)$  producing Cartesian graph

$[a, b) = \{x \mid a \leq x < b\}$

Image of a set  $S$  under  $f$ :  $f(S) = \{f(x) \mid x \in S\}$

### 02. Functions

$\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} [f(x)]$ : Graph( $f$ ) =  $\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$  which is  $\subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$

$\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} [f(x)]$  e.g. Graph( $f$ ) =  $\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid z = f(x, y)\}$

**Homogenous** of degree  $k$  if  $f(\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2 \dots) = \lambda^k f(x_1, x_2 \dots)$  for all  $\lambda > 0$  and  $(x_1, x_2 \dots) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

**Intermediate Value T.**: if  $f$  is continuous on  $[(a, b)]$  it'll take all values between  $f(a), f(b)$  [NE]

### 03. Sequence

Sequences with values in set  $A$  can be expressed as  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$

Convergence (to  $L$ ): "there exists  $K$  such that  $n > K \Rightarrow |a_n - L| < \epsilon$ "

(i.e. eventually all terms of the sequence are within the  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of  $L$ )

Hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  or  $a_n \rightarrow L$

Divergence (to  $+\infty$ ): "for any bound  $M > 0$  there exists  $K > 0$ , such that  $n > K \Rightarrow a_n > M$ "

### 04. Limits

" $a$  is a limit point of set  $S$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , the  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of  $a$  includes elements of  $S$

i.e. Numbers that are or are infinitely close to an element in  $S$  [NE]

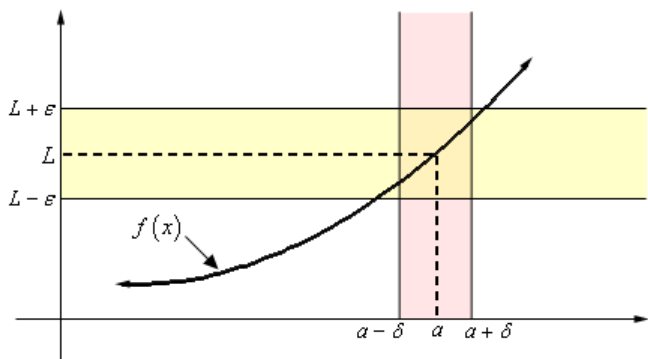
- **Bounded**: there exists a number  $N$  such that  $x < |N|$  for all  $x$  in  $S$
- **Closed**: all limit points in  $S$  are elements of  $S$  [NE]
- **Compact**: both closed and bounded

- Open: any point  $x$  in  $S$  there exist  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $(x + \epsilon, x - \epsilon) \subseteq S$  (i.e. all points in  $S$  are interior)

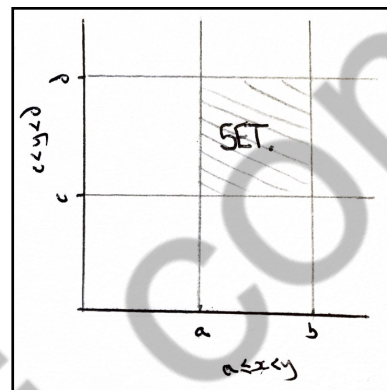
Sets have limit points, functions have limits:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ . If  $f(a)$  then continuous

$L$  is limit of  $f(x)$  if, as  $x$  approaches to  $a$ , "given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  s. t.  $\|x - a\| < \delta \Rightarrow$

$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ " (i.e. points close to  $a$  are mapped close to  $L$ ) [NE]



e.g.  $[a, b] \times (c, d)$  has  
limit points  $[a, b] \times [c, d]$



Tip: If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  results in  $\frac{0}{0}$  use Bernoulli's rule =  $\frac{\left(\frac{df(a)}{dx}\right)}{\left(\frac{dg(a)}{dx}\right)}$

## 05. Differentials

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x)^n \rightarrow n f'(x) f(x)^{n-1} \mid f(x) = x^n \text{ then } f^k(x) = \begin{cases} n(n-1) \dots (n-k+1)x^{n-k} & \text{if } 0 < k \leq n \\ 0 & \text{if } 0 < n < k \end{cases}$$

### Mathematical Intuition

#### What is differentiation?

- Not "instant rate of change" of  $f(x)$  [i.e.  $\frac{\text{rise}}{\text{run}}$  between two close points], that's an oxymoron
- Instead "best constant approx. around a given point" [i.e. slope of line tangent at a single point]
- So  $dx$  is not infinitely small or 0 but instead some value  $h$  that approaches 0:  $\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=a} =$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

Note: Ignore any terms including  $dx^{n>1}$  as they are even smaller than  $dx$ . Also, must be continuous

#### Where does the general rule come from?

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} x^n &= \frac{(x+dx)^n - x^n}{dx} = \frac{x^n + nx^{n-1}dx + [\text{terms inc } dx^{n>1}] - x^n}{dx} = \\ \frac{nx^{n-1}dx + [\text{terms inc } dx^{n>1}]}{dx} &= \frac{nx^{n-1}dx}{dx} = nx^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

#### Basic Algebra

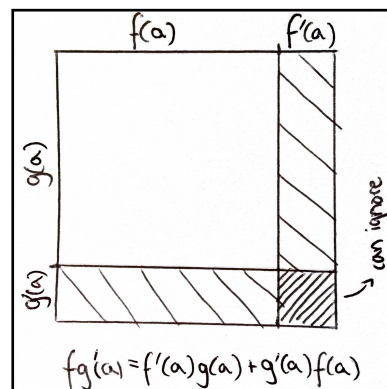
Sum Rule:  $(f + g)'(a) = f'(a) + g'(a)$

Product Rule:  $(fg)'(a) = f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a)$

Chain Rule:  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$  and  $(g \circ f)'(x) = g'(f(x)) \times f'(x)$

Inverse Product Rule:  $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(a) = \frac{f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a)}{[g(a)]^2}$

Constant Rule:  $(cf)'(a) = cf'(a)$



## 06. First Order Condition

"If  $f'(a) = 0$  then  $a$  is interior local maximum/minimum" [for single variable, for multi see p7 Hessian]

*Mathematical Intuition*

**Extreme Value Theorem:** function attains max and min i.e.

"if  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  there exist points  $c$  and  $d$  such that  $f(c) \leq x \leq f(d)$ "

If  $f(c)$  is min and interior then  $f(c + h) - f(c) \geq 0$  for  $h \neq 0$

$$\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} \geq 0 \text{ for } h > 0$$

$$\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} \leq 0 \text{ for } h < 0$$

Similar if  $f(d)$  is max

*Characteristics*

**Monotonicity** is if function's first derivative never changes sign (need not be continuous)

- Increasing:  $a > b$  implies  $f(a) > f(b)$  hence  $f'(x) > 0$
- Decreasing:  $a > b$  implies  $f(a) < f(b)$  hence  $f'(x) < 0$
- Non-Increasing:  $a > b$  implies  $f(a) \leq f(b)$  hence  $f'(x) \leq 0$
- Non-Decreasing:  $a > b$  implies  $f(a) \geq f(b)$  hence  $f'(x) \geq 0$
- Constant:  $f(a) = f(b)$  for interval  $(a, b)$  hence  $f'(x) = 0$

## 07. Second Order Condition

- If  $f'(a) = 0$  and  $f''(a) > 0$ ,  $a$  is a local minimum
- If  $f'(a) = 0$  and  $f''(a) < 0$ ,  $a$  is a local maximum
- Convex function:  $f(\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b) \leq \lambda f(a) + (1 - \lambda)f(b)$  hence  $f''(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$
- Concave function:  $f(\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b) \geq \lambda f(a) + (1 - \lambda)f(b)$  hence  $f''(x) \leq 0$  for all  $x$
- Strictly X function: removes the  $=$  sign from above. Will mean there is only one max/min
- Quasi X function:  $f(\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b) [\leq \max f(x) \text{ or } \geq \min f(x)]$   
[see p6 on Hessian for more]

These characteristics are conditional on...

- Continuous and twice differentiable functions
- **Convex domain** (for every  $x, y \in S$  and  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y$  is also in  $S$ )
- **Note:** Convex preferences are caused by quasi-concave utility functions!

## 08. Graph Sketching

*Sketching*  $y = f(x)$

[0] figure out the largest possible domain if not give [1] rewrite if top heavy or complete the square if it can't be factorised [2]  $x, y$  asymptotes [3] intersection with  $x, y$  axis [4]  $y, x \rightarrow \pm\infty$  [5]  $x$  near asymptotes (+or-) [6] where increasing and where decreasing [7] max, min if existent [8] where concave and where convex

Algebraic Approach: turn into quadratic with  $y$  being coefficient of  $x^n$ . Turning point when one solution ( $b^2 - 4ac = 0$ ), range when two ( $b^2 - 4ac > 0$ ).

*Sketching*  $y^2 = f(x)$

[1] sketch  $y = f(x)$  for reference [2] erase below  $x$  axis [3] transfer points on  $y = 0, 1$   $x = 0$  and value of turning points (sub in) [4] draw  $\infty \frac{dy}{dx}$  at  $x$  axis intersect unless  $f'(x) = 0$  [5] draw above reference for  $x < 1$  and below for  $x > 1$  [6] reflect in  $x$  axis. Asymptotes:  $y = a$  to  $y = \pm\sqrt{a}$ ;  $x = a$  stays  $x = a$

## 09. Multi-variable functions

*Typical examples*

$$\max \pi = pf(K^*(p, r, k), L^*(p, r, k)) - (rK^*(p, r, k) + wL^*(p, r, k)) \text{ s.t. } K, L \geq 0$$

$$B = \{x | p \cdot x \leq m \text{ and } x \geq 0\} \text{ Find } (a) \in B \text{ so that } u(a) \geq u(x)$$

*Vectors*

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n; \text{ Distance } \|a - b\| = \sqrt{(a_1 - b_1)^2 + \dots + (a_n - b_n)^2};$$

$$r\text{-neighbourhood} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | \|x - a\| < r\} = (a - r, a + r)$$

*Mathematical Intuition*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \text{ [Doesn't make any sense!]}$$

$$\text{Instead take partial derivative w.r.t variable } x_i \text{ i.e. } f_i = \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_i + h, \dots, x_n) - f(x)}{h} [= 0 \text{ for FOC}]$$

$$\text{Chain Rule: If } t \rightarrow f(x(t), y(t)) \text{ [i.e. can be expressed as single variable function], then } \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

## 10. Series

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n; \text{ Partial Sum} = S_n;$$

$$\text{Geometric Series: } a_n = a_0 c^n$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_0 c^i = \frac{a_0(1 - c^{n+1})}{1 - c} \text{ [if } c \neq 1]$$

- $a_n \rightarrow 0$  if  $|c| < 1$
- $a_n \rightarrow a$  if  $c = 1$
- $a_n$  diverges [fluctuates between  $a$  and  $-a$ ] if  $c = -1$
- $a_n$  diverges to  $\infty$  if  $c > 1$
- $a_n$  diverges with growing magnitude and flipping sign if  $c < -1$

## 11. Integration

$$\int f(x)^n \rightarrow \frac{1}{n+1} f(x)^{n+1}$$

*Mathematical Intuition* [NE]

$$\text{Let } f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ be continuous and } F: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ be defined as } F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

$$\text{Since continuous, } \int_a^b f(x) dx \text{ has max and min: } m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

$$m \leq \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M; \text{ any } m \leq x \leq M \text{ attainable i.e. } f(c) = \frac{1}{(b-a)} \int_a^b f(x) dx \text{ [Mean Value T. [NE]]}$$

$$F'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c) [\text{for some } c \in [x, x+h]] = f(x)$$

*Basic Properties*

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$$

$$\int k f(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx$$

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du \text{ [always use 'simpler' function for } u, \text{ unless } \ln x, \text{ then use it as } u \text{ regardless]}$$

## 12. (Constrained) Optimisation

$\max f(\mathbf{x})$  s.t. "constraint". By def.  $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$

Necessary but not sufficient condition for interior solutions [see p6 for more conditions i.e. **Hessian**]

*Lagrange*: Ensures a constraint binds

$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \lambda, m) = f(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda(\text{"constraint"})$  [ $\lambda$ -term is punishment for exceeding or reward for 'under'-ceding]

How do we determine  $\lambda$ ? By def.  $\mathcal{L}_i(\mathbf{x}^*, \lambda^*) = 0$  and  $\mathcal{L}_\lambda(\mathbf{x}^*, \lambda^*) = 0$ . Solve equations, compare solutions

$\lambda^*$  can be thought of as 'willingness to pay to violate constraint by one unit' (e.g. MU of income)

For multiple constraints [i.e.  $g^i(\mathbf{x})$ ]:  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = f(\mathbf{x}) - \sum_{i=0}^m \lambda_i g^i(\mathbf{x})$

*Envelope Theorem*

Let  $x^*$  depend on  $a$ , which is not a choice variable [i.e. exogenous]

$V(a) = f(x^*(a), a) = \max_x f(x, a)$  s.t.  $g(x, a) = 0$

i.e.  $V(a) = \mathcal{L}(x^*(a), \lambda^*(a), a) = f(x^*(a), a) - \lambda^* g(x^*(a), a)$

$$\frac{\partial V(a)}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^*}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*} \times \frac{\partial x^*}{\partial a} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} \Big|_{\lambda=\lambda^*} \times \frac{\partial \lambda^*}{\partial a} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a} \Big|_{x=x^*} \times \frac{\partial a}{\partial a}$$

Note: By FOC def.  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*} = 0$ ;  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} \Big|_{\lambda=\lambda^*} = 0$ ; also  $\frac{\partial a}{\partial a} = 1$

Hence simplifies to  $\frac{\partial V(a)}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a} \Big|_{x=x^*}^{\lambda=\lambda^*}$  where  $\mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, a) = f(x, a) - \lambda g(x, a)$

"Rate of change of the optimal value ( $V$ ) with respect to the parameter ( $a$ ) = rate of change of  $\mathcal{L}$  with respect to parameter evaluated at the optimal solution  $\left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a} \Big|_{*}\right)$ . No indirect effect!

## 13. Vectors/Matrices

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \mid \mathbf{e}^1 = (1, 0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \mid \mathbf{e}^2 = (0, 1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Addition: } \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ x_2 + y_2 \end{bmatrix} \mid \text{Scalar: } c \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} cx_1 \\ cx_2 \end{bmatrix} \mid \text{Product: } \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2$$

*Linear Transformations*

$$T(0) = 0$$

$$T(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = T(\mathbf{x}) + T(\mathbf{y})$$

$$T(c\mathbf{x}) = cT(\mathbf{x})$$

$$(T \circ U)(\mathbf{x}) = T(U(\mathbf{x}))$$

Note:  $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \mathbf{e}^1 + x_2 \mathbf{e}^2$  so  $T(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 T(\mathbf{e}^1) + x_2 T(\mathbf{e}^2)$

i.e. to describe  $T$  it is sufficient to describe what  $T$  maps each  $\mathbf{e}^i$  to

$$\text{e.g. Rotation } 90^\circ \text{ clockwise: } x_1 T(\mathbf{e}^1) + x_2 T(\mathbf{e}^2) = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Matrix Rules*

$$A(BC) = (AB)C \mid AB \neq BA \mid (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1} \mid (AB)_{ij} = A_{i1}B_{1j} + \dots + A_{in}B_{nj}$$

$$\text{Identity Matrix: } I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} [\text{where } AI = A] \mid \text{Transpose Matrix: } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{If } ax_1 + bx_2 = y_1 \text{ and } cx_1 + dx_2 = y_2 \text{ then } A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \times \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} [\text{if } \det(ad-bc) = 0 \text{ then } A \text{ is singular}]$$

### 3x3 Matrix

- Minor: 2x2 determinant when eliminating an element's row & column e.g.  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix}$
- Cofactor: Minor multiplied by the element's  $(-1)^{i+j}$ :  $\begin{pmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{pmatrix}$
- Determinant: Sum of a row/column when Cofactor is multiplied by its element
- Inverse: Find Cofactors of elements (do not  $\times$  elements); Transpose  $\begin{pmatrix} a & d & g \\ b & e & h \\ c & f & i \end{pmatrix}$ , divide by det

**Gaussian Elimination:** Apply row operations to  $\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \cdots & A_{1n} & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & \cdots & A_{nn} & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  until  $LS = I$  then  $RS = A^{-1}$

## 14. Hessian

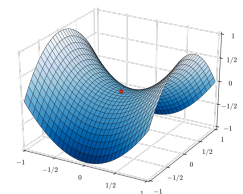
### Mathematical Intuition

Multi-variable functions  $f'(x^*, y^*) = 0$  insufficient condition for local min/max due to **saddle points**  
[See 16. Taylor Series]

- $F(x_1 + h_1, x_2 + h_2) \approx F(x_1, x_2) + F_1(x_1, x_2)h_1 + F_2(x_1, x_2)h_2 + \frac{1}{2}[F_{11}(x_1, x_2)h_1^2 + 2F_{12}(x_1, x_2)h_1h_2 + F_{22}(x_1, x_2)h_2^2]$
- $F(x_1 + h_1, x_2 + h_2) \approx F + \frac{1}{2}[F_{11}h_1^2 + 2F_{12}h_1h_2 + F_{22}h_2^2]$
- $F(x_1 + h_1, x_2 + h_2) - F \approx \frac{1}{2}[F_{11}h_1^2 + 2F_{12}h_1h_2 + F_{22}h_2^2]$
- $F(x_1 + h_1, x_2 + h_2) - F \approx H_{11}h_1^2 + 2H_{12}h_1h_2 + H_{22}h_2^2$
- $F(x_1 + h_1, x_2 + h_2) - F \approx \begin{bmatrix} h_1 & h_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} \\ H_{12} & H_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{bmatrix}$

To be definite, graph never crosses axis i.e. quadratic has no solutions

- $H_{11}h_1^2 + 2H_{12}h_1h_2 + H_{22}h_2^2$
- $H_{11}(h_1/h_2)^2 + 2H_{12}(h_1/h_2) + H_{22}$
- $b^2 - 4ac < 0 \Rightarrow 4H_{12}^2 - 4H_{11}H_{22} < 0 \Rightarrow H_{11}H_{22} - (H_{12})^2 > 0 \Rightarrow \det(H) > 0$



### Conditions

Iff **ve+ Definite** i.e.  $\begin{bmatrix} h & k \end{bmatrix} H \begin{bmatrix} h \\ k \end{bmatrix} > 0$  for all  $(h, k) \neq (0,0)$  (i.e.  $\det(H) > 0$  and  $H_{11}, H_{22} > 0$ ) then min

Iff **ve- Definite** i.e.  $\begin{bmatrix} h & k \end{bmatrix} H \begin{bmatrix} h \\ k \end{bmatrix} < 0$  for all  $(h, k) \neq (0,0)$  (i.e.  $\det(H) > 0$  and  $H_{11}, H_{22} < 0$ ) then max

Iff min then  $\begin{bmatrix} h & k \end{bmatrix} H \begin{bmatrix} h \\ k \end{bmatrix} \geq 0$  for all (i.e.  $\det(H) \geq 0$  and  $H_{11}, H_{22} > 0$ ) then **ve+ Semi-Definite**

Iff min then  $\begin{bmatrix} h & k \end{bmatrix} H \begin{bmatrix} h \\ k \end{bmatrix} \geq 0$  for all (i.e.  $\det(H) \geq 0$  and  $H_{11}, H_{22} < 0$ ) then **ve- Semi-Definite**

If  $\det(H) = 0$  then indeterminate; If  $\det(H) < 0$  (i.e.  $H_{11}, H_{22}$  opposite signs) then saddle point

$f$  is convex iff  $H$  is **ve+ Semi-Definite** for all  $(x^*, y^*)$  and strictly convex iff  $H$  is **ve+ Semi-Definite**

$f$  is concave iff  $H$  is **ve- Semi-Definite** for all  $(x^*, y^*)$  and strictly concave iff  $H$  is **ve- Semi-Definite**

## 15. Exam Application

### Rates of Change

- $Q(L) = f(a, b, L)$
- $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial L} = 0$  to get  $L^*$ . Don't know if max or min. Check with boundary solutions (or Hessian). Sub for  $Q^*$ .
- $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial a}$  [rate of change]  $\times 0. x$  [magnitude of change]. Note this is approximate as IRL  $L^*$  adjusts.



How do inputs  $(r, w)$  change factors of production  $(K^*, L^*)$ ?

0.  $\pi = \max p f(K, L) - (wL + rK)$
1. FOC:  $\pi_K = p f_K(K^*, L^*) - r = 0 \mid \pi_L = p f_L(K^*, L^*) - w = 0$
2. SOC:  $\frac{\partial \pi_K}{\partial w} = p f_{KK} \frac{\partial K^*}{\partial w} + p f_{KL} \frac{\partial L^*}{\partial w} = 0 \mid \frac{\partial \pi_L}{\partial w} = p f_{LL} \frac{\partial L^*}{\partial w} + p f_{KL} \frac{\partial K^*}{\partial w} - 1 = 0$
3. Matrix:  $\begin{bmatrix} f_{KK} & f_{KL} \\ f_{KL} & f_{LL} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial K^*}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial L^*}{\partial w} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{p} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial K^*}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial L^*}{\partial w} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{f_{KK}f_{LL} - f_{KL}^2} \begin{bmatrix} f_{LL} & -f_{KL} \\ -f_{KL} & f_{KK} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{p} \end{bmatrix}$
4. Evaluate:  $-f_{KL}$  shows if substitute or complement (i.e. if income or sub effect is stronger)  
[Note only has a solution for DRTS and this only unique if concave]

From cost function to production function

0.  $C(r, w, y) \Rightarrow \mathcal{L} = Kr + Lw - \lambda[f(K, L) - y]$
1. Via envelope theorem:  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial r} \Big|_{K^*, L^*, \lambda^*} = K^*$  and  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w} \Big|_{K^*, L^*, \lambda^*} = L^*$
2. Combine  $C_w = L^*$  and  $C_r = K^*$  cancelling  $r, w$  terms

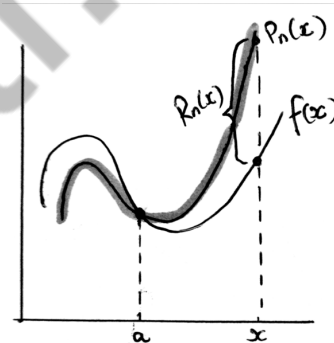
## 16. Taylor Series

$$f(x) [\text{centred @ } x = a] \approx P_n(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2$$

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) \leq \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(x - a)^{n+1} \text{ for some } c \in [a, x]$$

[Note  $f(a) = P_n(a)$ ; choose  $c$  to maximise]

Can check if over or underestimate by looking at sign of next Taylor terms



## 17. Difference Equations

Linear, First Order, Autonomous:  $x_t = bx_{t-1} + a$

$$x_t = b^t x_0 + \frac{1 - b^t}{1 - b} a = b^t \left( x_0 - \frac{a}{1 - b} \right) + \frac{a}{1 - b}$$

[deviation] + [steady state]

Steady state:  $x_t^* = x_m = x_{m-1}$ . Not necessary that a steady state will be reached or converged to

- If  $|b| < 1$ , converges to  $\frac{a}{1-b}$  [Note doesn't depend on  $x_0$ !]
- If  $b = 1$ , constant divergence [Note  $x_t = x_0 + ta$ ]
- If  $|b| > 1$  no convergence; If  $b = -1$  oscillates.

Growth Case

- Discrete Growth:  $A = P(1 + r_d)^t \Rightarrow \ln(P) + t \ln(1 + r_d) \approx \ln(P) + tr_d$  for small values
- Continuous Growth:  $A = Pe^{tr_c} \Rightarrow \ln(P) + tr_c$  [Discrete Growth approximates Continuous Growth!]

## 18. Differential Equations

**Differential Equation:** Relates function to its derivatives

Separable:  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = y'(t) = F'(y)G'(t) \Rightarrow \int F'(y)\partial y = \int G'(t)\partial t \Rightarrow F(y) = G(t) + C$

Linear, First Order, Autonomous:  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = y'(t) = by(t) + a \Rightarrow y(t) = Ae^{bt} - \frac{a}{b}$  [solve for  $t = 0$  to find  $A$ ]



- General Solution:  $y(t) = Ae^{bt} - \frac{a}{b}$
- Let  $z(t) = y_1(t) - y_2(t)$ . Note Complementary solution  $z'(t) = bz(t)$
- Stationary Solution:  $y^P$  s.t.  $y^{P'}(t) = 0$  for all  $t$ . Hence in form  $by^P + a = 0 \Rightarrow y^P = -\frac{a}{b}$
- Stable Solution:  $y^P = -\frac{a}{b}$  if unique and always converged to as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . Requires  $b < 0$

*Worked Example*

0.  $q^D = a_0 - a_1 p(t)$ ;  $q^S = b_0 - b_1 p(t)$ ;  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \lambda(q^D - q^S)$
1. Equilibrium when  $q^D = q^S \Rightarrow a_0 - a_1 p^* = b_0 - b_1 p^* \Rightarrow p^* = \frac{a_0 - b_0}{a_1 - b_1}$  [Particular solution]
2.  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \lambda\{[a_0 - b_0] - [a_1 - b_1]p(t)\} = \lambda[a_1 - b_1][p^* - p(t)] = c[p^* - p(t)] \Rightarrow \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + cp(t) = cp^*$
3.  $p = p^* + Ae^{-ct}$  [General solution]

# Statistics

## 01. Fundamentals

Sample statistics are not population statistics | Correlation does not imply causation

- **Frequentists:** observed  $f$  represent  $p$  of future outcomes:  $\hat{p} = \frac{\#correct}{\#total}$
- **Bayes-ists:**  $prior + new\ data \Rightarrow improved\ belief$ :  $\hat{p} = P(A|prior) = \frac{P(prior|A)P(A)}{P(prior)}$

$P(X[\text{outcome of random variable}] = x[\text{a number in sample space}])$

**Measures of Central Tendency:** Arithmetic mean  $\left(\frac{\sum x_i}{n}\right)$ ; Geometric mean  $(\sqrt[n]{x_1 \dots x_n})$ ; median; mode

**Measures of Dispersion:** range  $(L - S)$ ; IQR  $(Q_3 - Q_1)$ ; var (see 04. Moments); skewness =  $\frac{\frac{1}{n}\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^3}{\sigma^3}$   
[how grouped]; kurtosis =  $\frac{\frac{1}{n}\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^4}{\sigma^4}$  [how peaked]

**Measures of Relationships:** co-var  $Cov = E([X - E(X)][Y - E(Y)]) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) = \sigma_{XY}$ , for sample =  $\frac{1}{n-1}\sum([x_i - \mu_x][y_i - \mu_y])$  or  $\iint (x_i - \mu_x)(y_i - \mu_y) f(x, y) dx dy$  [Note: = 0 if independent];

correlation  $r = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(x)Var(y)}}$  for sample =  $\frac{S_{XY}}{S_X S_Y}$  where  $S_{XY} = \frac{1}{n-1}\sum([X - \bar{X}][Y - \bar{Y}])$

## 02. Single Probability (and Distribution)

- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  [if mutually exclusive  $\cap = 0$ ]
- $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$  [if independent also =  $P(A)P(B)$ ]
- Hence  $P(B|A)$  [i.e.  $P(B)$  given  $A$ ] =  $\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)}$

Use last term for P(T1-error) questions e.g.  $P(\text{ve}^+ \text{ test} | \text{disease}) = 0.99$ ,  $P(\text{disease}) = 0.01$

$$P(\text{not disease} | \text{ve}^+ \text{ test}) = \frac{P(\text{ve}^+ \text{ test} | \text{disease})P(\text{disease})}{P(\text{ve}^+ \text{ test})} = \frac{0.99 \times 0.11}{0.99 \times 0.11 + 0.99 \times 0.11} = 0.5$$

- **Permutations** (i.e. order relevant) =  $nPr = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!} = \frac{\#objects!}{\#repeats!}$
- **Combinations** (i.e. order irrelevant) =  $nCr = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$

- **Probability Density Function:** gives  $p$  for a continuous random variable:  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(u) du$
- **Probability Mass Function:** gives  $p$  for a discrete random variable:  $P(X = x) = f(x)$
- **Cumulative Distribution Function:**  $F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du$  [ $p \rightarrow 1$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ]

Note:  $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(x) dx$  is incoherent! Must be  $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du$

### Types of PMFs

- **Uniform:**  $P(X = x|N) = \frac{1}{N}$
- **Bernoulli:**  $P(X = x|p) = p^x(1-p)^{1-x}$  [ $x = 0, 1$ ]
- **Poisson:**  $P(X = x|\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!}$  [ $x = 0, \dots, n$ ]
- **Geometric:**  $P(X = x|n) = p^x(1-p)^{n-x}$  [ " " ]
- **Bino:**  $P(X = x|n, p) = \binom{n}{x} p^x(1-p)^{1-n}$  [ " " ]

### Types of PDFs

- **Uniform:**  $f(x|a, b) = \frac{1}{b-a}$  [ $a \leq x \leq b$ ]
- **Exponential:**  $f(x|\beta) = \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}}$  [ $x \geq 0, \beta > 0$ ]
- **Normal:**  $f(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \text{see tables}$

### 03. Joint Probability

$P(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$  [if independent =  $P(X = x)P(Y = y)$ ]  
Can be PMassF (discrete) or PDensityF (continuous)

- Joint:  $P(X = X_j, Y = Y_k) = p_{jk}$
- Marginal:  $P(X = X_j) = \sum_{k=1}^K p_{jk}$  or  $\int_{\text{lower } y}^{\text{upper } y} f_{XY}(x, y) dy$
- Conditional:  $P(Y|X = X_j) = \frac{p_{jk}}{\sum_{k=1}^K p_{jk}}$  or  $\frac{f_{XY}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}$

		$Y_k$			$\sum_{j=1}^J p_{jk}$
		1	2	3	
$X_j$	1	0.2	0.1	0.05	0.35
	2	0.05	0.2	0.05	0.3
	3	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.35
$\sum_{k=1}^K p_{jk}$		0.3	0.4	0.3	1.0

Note: Converting back depends. If IID observations, then j-PDF =  $f(x, y) = f(x)f(y)$  and j-PMF =  $P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$ . If not, much more complicated

### 04. Moments

	population	sample	discrete	continuous
$E(x)$	$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum(X)$	$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X$	$\frac{1}{N} \sum xP(X = x)$	$\int xf(x) dx$
$Var(x)$	$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum(X - \mu)^2$ $= \frac{1}{N} \sum(X^2) - \mu^2$	$\bar{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum(X - \bar{x})^2$ $= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum(X^2) - \bar{x}^2$	$\frac{1}{N} \sum x^2 P(X = x)$	$\int x^2 f(x) - \mu^2 dx$

Notes:  $E(x)$  always a number;  $\neq \bar{x}$  [ $E(x)$  value constant, sample mean changes if repeated]

#### Basic Rules

$E(a) = a$	$Var(a) = 0$
$E(bX) = bE(X)$	$Var(bX) = b^2 Var(X)$
$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$	$Var(aX + bY) = a^2 Var(X) + b^2 Var(Y) + 2abCov(X, Y)$

[Note:  $Cov = 0$  if independent]

### 05. Sampling

Observation: known value [i.e. real number] of variable ( $X_1 = x_1$ )

Sample: collection of variables from pop. ( $X_1, \dots, X_n$ ), if IID then random. Hence, it has a distribution...

$\bar{X}_n \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$  [latter term requires full IID to be gained from def. of  $Var(\bar{X})$ ]

Note:  $\mu$  is the population mean ( $= \frac{1}{N} \sum X_N$ );  $\bar{X}$  is the sample mean ( $= \frac{1}{n} \sum X_n$ )

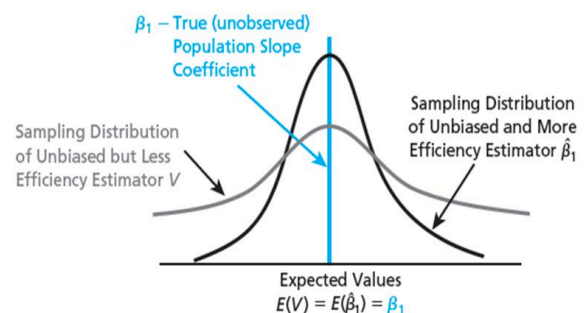
$\bar{X}$ [variable]  $\neq \mu$ [number] but  $E(\bar{X})$ [number] =  $\mu$ [number] if IID;

IRL issues: confidentiality, lying, non-response, attrition, survivorship bias (i.e. sampling on outcome)

### 06. Estimators

$\hat{\theta}$ [estimator] is good if unbiased, efficient, and random

- $bias(\hat{\theta}) = E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta$ . The lower, the less biased.  
If bias is consistent term, you can multiply it away  
Exam Q: Does  $E(\hat{\theta}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx$   
Asymptotic unbiased: as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $E(\hat{\theta}) \rightarrow \theta$
- Mean Squared Error =  $E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2] = Var(\hat{\theta}) + bias(\hat{\theta})^2$ . The lower, the more efficient.



Common Estimators

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i \text{ [sample mean; unbiased]}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = s^2 \text{ [sample variance; biased] so adjust to...}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = S_{n-1}^2 = \frac{n}{n-1} s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \text{ [unbiased]}$$

A note on notation

$\sigma^2$ = pop Var	$\mu$ = pop E
$\hat{\sigma}^2$ = pop Var est.	$\hat{\mu}$ = pop E est.
$\bar{\sigma}^2$ = sample dist. Var	$\bar{\mu}$ = sample dist. E
$S^2$ = sample Var [bias]	$\bar{X}$ = sample E
$\bar{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{n}} \approx \frac{S_{n-1}^2}{\sqrt{n}}$	

**07. Standard Error & CI**

**Confidence Intervals:** range of values so  $P(LC < X < UC) = p$ . Use standardisation to easier calculate.  
Two tailed: need to divide significance level accordingly [use common sense]

Mean

$$P(\bar{x} - SE < \mu < \bar{x} + SE) = p \text{ [where SE is Standard Error at some Confidence Level]}$$

Note that  $P(X < x) = P(Z < z) = \phi(z)$  where  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ;  $Z \sim N(0,1)$ ;  $z = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$  [ $n = 1$  for single obser!]

- If  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  then  $\bar{X} \sim N(\bar{\mu} = \mu, \bar{\sigma}^2 = (\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})^2)$ . Use  $z = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$  with relevant substitutions to get  $\bar{x} \pm SE$ 
  - can sub in  $\hat{\mu}$  (i.e.  $\bar{x}$ ) as it just 'shifts' everything
  - can't sub in  $\hat{\sigma}$  (i.e.  $S_{n-1}^2$ ) as it affects interval width (unless  $n$  is sufficiently large)
    - Use  $t$ -distribution instead of Normal to account for this
    - $df = \text{"IID observations"} - \text{"est. parameters for } \hat{\sigma} = n - 1$  [usually have to est.  $\hat{\mu}$ ]
- If  $X \sim ?$  () or testing sample dist. apply CLT if  $n$  is sufficiently large so that  $\bar{X} \sim N(\bar{\mu} = \mu, \bar{\sigma}^2 = (\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})^2)$ 
  - can sub in  $\hat{\mu}$  as it just 'shifts' everything
  - can sub in  $\hat{\sigma}$  (i.e.  $S_{n-1}^2$ ) as  $n$  has to be sufficiently large to have applied CLT!
- If comparing two samples use  $z = \frac{\bar{x}_a - \bar{x}_b}{\sqrt{\frac{s_a^2}{n_a} + \frac{s_b^2}{n_b}}} \sim (0,1)$

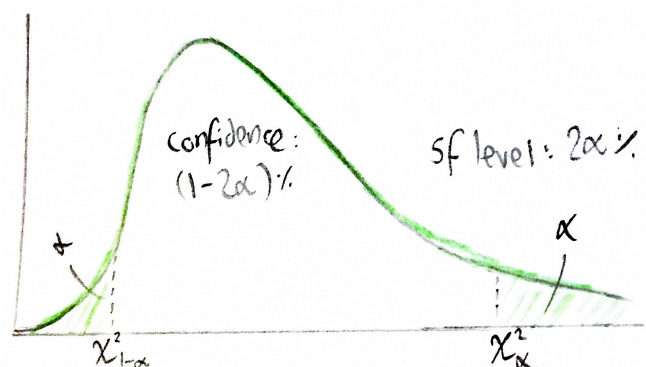
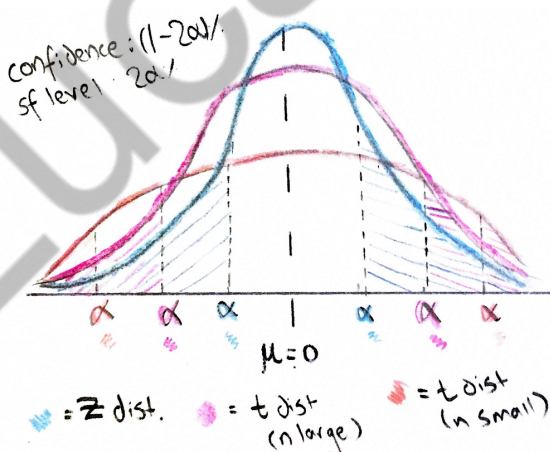
Variance

If  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  then  $\frac{(n-1)S_{n-1}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$  [i.e. chi-squared (asymmetric!) with  $n - 1$  d.o.f.]

Hence  $P\left(\frac{(n-1)S_{n-1}^2}{\sigma^2} < \chi_{\alpha, n-1}^2\right) = \alpha$  which rearranges to  $P\left(\frac{(n-1)S_{n-1}^2}{\chi_{\alpha, n-1}^2} < \sigma^2\right) = \alpha$

Proportion

- If  $X \sim B(n, p)$  and  $np, n(1-p)$  are large (i.e.  $> 10$ ) can approx.  $X \sim N(np, npq)$ ; divide by  $n$  [so we get a proportion not number]
- Hence,  $z = \frac{x - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{n}}}$  [sub in  $\hat{p}$  i.e.  $\bar{p}$  for  $x$ ]



If  $H_0$  is in Critical region (i.e.  $|H_0| > t_{crit}$ ), as shown by  $\alpha$  it's rejected

## 08. Hypothesis Tests

(1) Define  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ ; (2) Assume  $H_0$  is true; (3) Define rejection rule; (4) Test and draw conclusion

Need to know distribution | Acceptance region + Critical region = 1 | two-tailed tests has sig level  $\div 2$  |  
 $\Rightarrow$  Use standardization, with  $\hat{x}$  replacing  $x$  [i.e. sample data] and  $\hat{\sigma}$  replacing  $\sigma$ ; see diagram above

About the mean: Use  $\hat{\mu}$  (and  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ ) to see if  $\mu_0 = \mu$ : Reject if  $\left| \frac{\hat{\mu} - \mu_0}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{n}}} \right| > t_{crit}$  [normal or t tables]

"At the  $\alpha\%$  sig. level, the X-tailed hypothesis level is  $[< \text{or } > t_{crit}]$ , hence [do or don't] reject  $H_0$ "

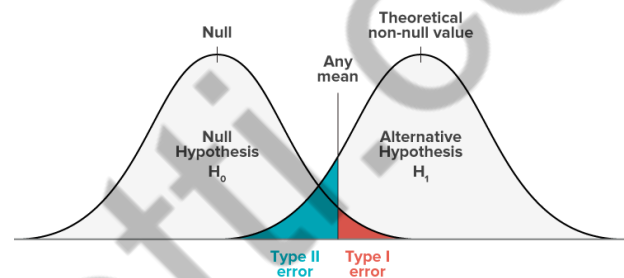
About the variance: Use  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  to see if  $\sigma_0 = \sigma$ : Reject if  $\left| \frac{(n-1)S_{n-1}^2}{\sigma^2} \right| > t_{crit}$  [chi-squared tables]

About proportions: Use  $\hat{p}$  to see if  $p_0 = p$ . If assume normal [continuity correction].

If not... Reject if  $\left| \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{N}}} \right| > t_{crit}$  [normal tables]

Errors

	$H_0$ true	$H_0$ false
Don't reject $H_0$	No error	Type II error
Reject $H_0$	Type I error	No error



$H_0$ : specific claim about population |  $H_1$ : alternative

$P(TI) = P(\text{reject } H_0 | H_0 \text{ false}) = \alpha$  [i.e. sig. level]

power =  $1 - P(TII) = 1 - [\text{'Acceptance Range' of } H_0 \text{ in } H_1 \text{ distribution}] = P(\text{reject } H_0 | H_1 \text{ true})$

## 09. OLS Regression: Basics

Correlation:  $X$  causes  $Y$ ; units matter | Regression:  $X$  related to  $Y$ ; units free

$Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + \mu_i$  can be estimated with  $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} X_i$

Residual:  $e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$  with standard deviation  $\sqrt{\frac{\sum(e_i)^2}{n-1}}$

Standardize:  $X_i \rightarrow \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s_X} = \tilde{X}$  [Note: now  $\tilde{\beta} = r$ ]

## 10. OLS Regression: Deriving $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}$

Want to minimise residuals i.e. (i)  $\sum(Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i)$ ; (ii)  $\sum|Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i|$ ; (iii)  $\sum(Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i)^2$

(i) Offsetting effect, infinite number of solutions

(ii) Not differentiable, harder to observe stat properties

(iii) Weight extremes more but... unique solution, will also equilibrate others. Use this

$$\min_{\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}} SSR = \sum(e_i)^2 = \sum(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 = \sum(Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i)^2$$

$$\bullet \frac{\partial SSR}{\partial \alpha} = \frac{\partial SSR}{\partial e_i} \times \frac{\partial e_i}{\partial \alpha} = 2 \sum(e_i) \times -1 = 0$$

$$\bullet \sum(e_i) = 0$$

$$\bullet \sum(Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i) = 0$$

$$\bullet n\bar{Y} - n\hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}n\bar{X} = 0$$

$$\bullet \bar{Y} - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X} = 0$$

$$\bullet \bar{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}\bar{X}$$

$$\bullet \frac{\partial SSR}{\partial \beta} = \frac{\partial SSR}{\partial e_i} \times \frac{\partial e_i}{\partial \beta} = 2 \sum(e_i) \times -\sum(X_i) = 0$$

$$\bullet \sum(e_i X_i) = 0$$

$$\bullet \sum(X_i Y_i - \hat{\alpha} X_i - \hat{\beta} X_i^2) = 0$$

$$\bullet \sum(X_i Y_i) = \hat{\alpha} \sum(X_i) + \hat{\beta} \sum(X_i^2)$$

$$\bullet \sum(X_i Y_i) = (\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X}) \sum(X_i) + \hat{\beta} \sum(X_i^2)$$

$$\bullet \sum(X_i Y_i) = \bar{Y} \sum(X_i) - \hat{\beta}\bar{X} \sum(X_i) + \hat{\beta} \sum(X_i^2)$$

$$\bullet \sum(X_i Y_i) - \bar{Y} \sum(X_i) = \hat{\beta} [\sum(X_i^2) - \sum(X_i)]$$

$$\bullet \sum(X_i Y_i) - n\bar{X}\bar{Y} = \hat{\beta} [\sum(X_i^2) - n\bar{X}^2]$$

$$\bullet \hat{\beta} = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x^2} \text{ [Intuition: slope } = r \frac{s_y}{s_x} = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x s_y} \times \frac{s_y}{s_x} = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x^2}]$$

## 11. OLS Regression: Proof that $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}$ are unbiased

- Let deviation of mean be  $X_i^* = X_i - \bar{X}$  where  $\sum(X_i^*) = 0$
- Note that  $\sum(X_i^* X) = \sum(X_i^* [X_i^* + \bar{X}]) = \sum(X_i^*)^2 + \bar{X} \sum(X_i^*) = \sum(X_i^*)^2$
- Hence  $\hat{\beta} = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_x^2} = \frac{\sum([X_i - \bar{X}][Y_i - \bar{Y}])}{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2} \times \frac{n-1}{n-1} = \frac{\sum(X_i^* Y_i) - \bar{Y} \sum(X_i^*)}{\sum(X_i^*)^2} = \frac{\sum(X_i^* Y_i)}{\sum(X_i^*)^2} = \frac{\sum(X_i^* [\alpha + \beta X_i + \mu_i])}{\sum(X_i^*)^2} = \beta + \frac{\sum(X_i^* \mu_i)}{\sum(X_i^*)^2}$
- $E(\hat{\beta}) = E(\beta) + E\left(\frac{\sum(X_i^* \mu_i)}{\sum(X_i^*)^2}\right) = E(\beta) + \frac{E(\mu_i) \sum(X_i^*)}{\sum(X_i^*)^2} = E(\beta)$  [Unbiased!]
- $E(\hat{\alpha}) = E(\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X}) = \bar{Y} - \bar{X} E(\hat{\beta}) = \alpha + \beta \bar{X} - \beta \bar{X} = \alpha$  [Unbiased!]

Distribution of  $\hat{\beta} \sim N[E(\beta), V(\beta)]$  can be used to set up Hypothesis test:  $z_{\text{ort}} = \frac{(b - \beta_{H_0})}{V(\hat{\beta})}$

$$V(\hat{\beta}) = V\left(\beta + \frac{\sum(X_i^* \mu_i)}{\sum(X_i^*)^2}\right) = V\left(\frac{\sum(X_i^* \mu_i)}{\sum(X_i^*)^2}\right) = \frac{1}{[\sum(X_i^*)^2]^2} V(\sum(X_i^* \mu_i)) = \frac{1}{\sum(X_i^*)^2} V(\mu_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{\left[\frac{\sum(e_i^2)}{n-2}\right]}{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

## 12. OLS Regression: Extras

### Transformation/Function-Forms

Non-Linear:

- Linear:  $E(Y|X) = \alpha + \beta X$  ( $\beta = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$  Elastic: constant unit between  $Y$  and  $X$ )
- Non-1  $E(\ln Y | X) = \alpha + \beta X$  ( $\beta = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \frac{1}{y}$  is Semi-elastic: constant unit between  $\ln Y$  and  $X$ )
- Non-2  $E(\ln Y | \ln X) = \alpha + \beta \ln X$  ( $\beta = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \frac{x}{y}$  is Semi-elastic: constant unit between  $\ln Y$  and  $\ln X$ )

### Conditional Expectation Function: $E(Y|X_1, X_2)$

- Normally  $E(\hat{Y}_i) = a = \bar{Y}$ . Now  $E(\hat{Y}_i) = a_K = \bar{Y} | (X_1, X_2)$  where  $K$  is distinct combination of  $X$
- $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_2$
- Using  $\frac{\partial SSR}{\partial \hat{\beta}_i} = 0$  get  $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y}_i - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2$

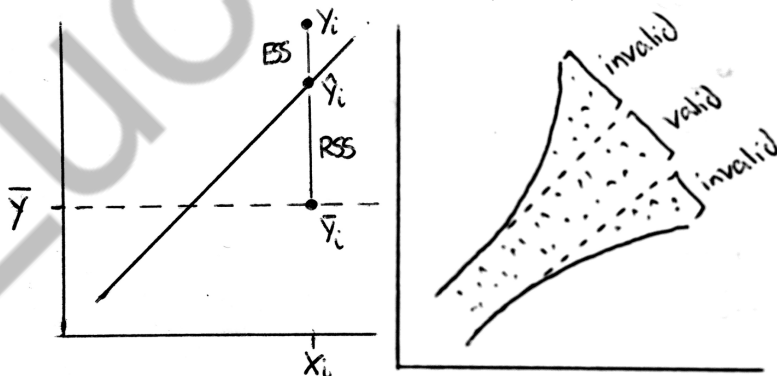
### Dummy Variable: $X_i = 0, 1$

- E.g.  $E(\text{wage} | [\text{edu}, \text{sex}]) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{edu} + \hat{\beta}_2 \text{sex}$
- Where  $\hat{\beta}_2 = E(\text{wage} | [\text{edu}, \text{fem}]) - E(\text{wage} | [\text{edu}, \text{mal}])$  [Note: same slope, different intercept]

### R-Squared

$R^2 = \frac{RSS}{TSS} = \%$  of variation explained by regression model

- TSS: Total Sum of Squares:  $\sum(Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum(Y_i^*)^2$ . Can be broken down to...
- RSS: Regression Sum of Squares:  $\sum(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$  | ESS: Error Sum of Squares:  $\sum(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 = \sum e_i^2$



### 13. OLS Regression: Assumptions

- If upheld least square estimate is BLUE (Best Linear Unbiased Estimator i.e. least sample variance)
- A1. Linear Functional Form:  $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + \mu_i$  NOT  $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i^2 + \mu_i$  or  $Y_i = \alpha + \alpha\beta X_i + \mu_i$
- A2.  $X_i$ s are Non-stochastic with variation in  $X$ : [i] Sample variation in  $X_i$  (i.e. not same value) and [ii]  $X_i$ s are fixed in repeated sampling and  $Y_i$ s randomly drawn (i.e. treat  $X_i$ s as constant)
- A3. Zero conditional mean of error:  $E(\mu_i|X_i) = E(\mu_i)X_i = 0$
- A4. Homoskedastic errors: constant conditional variance: Errors ( $\mu_i$ ) don't increase as  $X_i$  increases:  
 $Var(\mu_i|X_i) = \sigma^2 = E(\mu^2|X) - [E(\mu|X)]^2 = E(\mu^2|X)$
- A5. Independent  $Y$ s: No correlation in errors (e.g. square foot and square meters)