



Overview of some Basic Statistical Concepts

Presentation 2



Random variables

- A variable whose value is determined by the outcome of a chance experiment is called a **random variable** (r.v.).
- Random variables are usually denoted by the capital letters X , Y , Z , and so on, and the values taken by them are denoted by small letters x , y , z , and so on.



Random variables

- A random variable may be either **discrete** or **continuous**. A discrete r.v. takes on only a finite (or countably infinite) number of values.
- For example, in throwing two dice, each numbered 1 to 6, if we define the random variable X as the sum of the numbers showing on the dice, then X will take one of these values: 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, or 12. Hence it is a discrete random variable.



Random variables

- A continuous r.v., on the other hand, is one that can take on any value in some interval of values.

Random variables

- Let X be a discrete r.v. taking distinct values $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots$. Then the function

$$f(x) = P(X = x_i) \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

is called the **discrete probability density function** (PDF) of X , where $P(X = x_i)$ means the probability that the discrete r.v. X takes the value of x_i .



Expected values

- Usually we use definite values like mathematical expectation and variance to describe random variables.
- These values are determined by the Mathematical expectation operator $E(X)$.

Expected values

- In the case of discrete r.v. that takes values of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n with probability p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n we define:
- The Variance is a measure for scattering of the r.v. values around the mathematical expectation

$$\mu_X = E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i X_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) = \sigma_X^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^N p_i [X_i - E(X)]^2 = \\ &= E[X - E(X)]^2 \end{aligned}$$

Expected values

- If ***a*** and ***b*** are constants, *X* is a r.v., we can define the following important properties of the mathematical expectation operator:

$$E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$$

$$E[(aX)^2] = a^2 E(X^2)$$

$$Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$$

Joint probability distributions

- Let denote the probability two r.v. to take definite values simultaneously with \mathbf{p}_{ij} .
- Important characteristics of the joint distributions are covariance and correlation.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))] = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N p_{ij} (X_i - E(X))(Y_j - E(Y)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

Joint probability distributions

- There are some important properties of the mathematical expectation operator in respect of the joint distribution of r.v.

$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X + Y) &= \\ &= \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y) \end{aligned}$$



Independence and correlation

- In some cases the values that r.v. X takes does not depend on the values, that takes r.v. Y .
- We call such r.v. **independent r.v.**

Independence and correlation

If X and Y are independent, $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$

If X and Y are independent, $Cov(X, Y) = 0$

If X and Y are independent, $Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)$

- The independence predetermine the lack of correlation, but the opposite is not true.
- The covariance is a measure for linear dependence between two r.v.
- Examples 1,2



Estimation

- In the case of incomplete information (we have just a sample, not the whole population), we can calculate only approximate values of the r.v. characteristics, called estimators.
- The important thing is these estimators to be as close to the real values as possible.



Estimation

- As the estimators vary in accordance with the samples, we may consider them as a r.v.
- For the estimators we can define: probability distribution, mathematical expectation, variance, covariance etc.

Estimation (Example 3)

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

$$\hat{\sigma}_X^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

$$\overline{Cov}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})$$

$$\hat{\rho}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}}$$

Estimators properties

- **Unbiasedness.** An estimator is said to be an unbiased estimator if the expected value of the estimator is equal to the *true value* of the parameter.

$$Bias = E(\hat{\beta}) - \beta = 0$$

Estimators properties

- **Minimum Variance.** An estimator is said to be a minimum-variance estimator if its variance is smaller than or at most equal to the variance of any other estimator of that parameter.
- **Best Unbiased, or Efficient, Estimator.** If we have *unbiased* estimator and its variance is smaller than or at most equal to the variance of any other unbiased estimator, then we have **minimum-variance unbiased, or best unbiased, or efficient,** estimator.

Estimators properties

- **Minimum Mean-Square-Error (MSE) Estimator.** The MSE of an estimator is defined as:

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}) = E(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$$

- There is a tradeoff involved—to obtain minimum variance you may have to accept some bias.

Estimators properties

- **Consistency:** Asymptotic property – the value of the estimator approaches the real value with the increase of the sample size

$$\Pr|\beta - \hat{\beta}| < \delta \rightarrow 1, \text{ for all } \delta > 0, \text{ when } N \rightarrow \infty$$

Probability distributions

- The Normal distribution depends on two parameters: mathematical expectation and variance.

$$p(X = X_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_X^2}} e^{\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_X^2}(X_i - \mu_X)^2\right]}$$

$$\Pr(\mu_X - 1.96\sigma_X < X_i < \mu_X + 1.96\sigma_X) \approx .95$$

$$\Pr(\mu_X - 2.57\sigma_X < X_i < \mu_X + 2.57\sigma_X) \approx .99$$



Probability distributions

- Chi-square distribution: sum of the squares of N standard normal r.v.
- N determines the degrees of freedom of the distribution
- Is used for hypothesis testing about the variances of r.v. or estimators.

Probability distributions

- t distribution is used when, the variance of a r.v. **is unknown**.
- Let X is standard normally distributed r.v. and Z is chi-square r.v. with N degrees of freedom. Then we may define t distributed r.v. with N d.f. (Example 4).

$$\frac{X}{\sqrt{Z / N}} \approx t_N$$

Probability distributions

- Sometimes it is necessary to test hypotheses about two r.v. F distribution is one of the appropriate distributions in that respect. It has two parameters: the first is connected to the number of estimated parameters and the second is related to the degrees of freedom of the data.
- If X and Z are Chi-square r.v. with N_1 and N_2 degrees of freedom, the r.v. $(X/N_1)/(Z/N_2)$ is with F distribution with N_1 and N_2 degrees of freedom.



Hypothesis testing and confidence intervals

- The hypotheses that we test in Econometrics usually concern the parameters of the regression models.
- The confidence intervals give some probabilistic guarantee about the obtained results.
- Every time the real value of the parameter belongs or not to the c.i., but after repeated sampling we have on average belonging with the predefined confidence level.

Example 5 – mean

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

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma_X^2}{N}$$

$$\Pr(\bar{X} - \delta \leq \mu_X \leq \bar{X} + \delta) = 1 - \alpha,$$

(α is called level of significance)

$$\Pr(\bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma_x}{\sqrt{N}} \leq \mu_x \leq \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma_x}{\sqrt{N}}) = .95$$