

# IntroEcono

Assoc. Prof. Pongsa Pornchaiwiseskul, Ph.D.

รศ.ดร. พงศา พรชัยวิเศษกุล

คณะเศรษฐศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

e-Mail: Pongsa.P@chula.ac.th

Homepage: <http://pioneer.chula.ac.th/~ppongsa>

(c) Pongsa Pornchaiwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

1

## Uni-variate Statistics

- Types of Random Variables
- Description of RV's
  - using Probability Distributions
  - using Parameters
- Selected Probability Distributions

(c) Pongsa Pornchaiwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

2

## Values of Random Variables

- Quantitative, e.g., income, rainfalls
- Qualitative, e.g., color
- Semi-quantitative or semi-qualitative, e.g., course letter grade, income group
  - express order not magnitude

(c) Pongsa Pornchaiwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

3

## Types of Quantitative RV's

- Discrete RV
  - assume values that do not form a continuous range, e.g., number of attendants
  - Its possible values are not limited to only integers.
- Continuous RV's
  - assume a continue range of values, e.g., temperature

(c) Pongsa Pornchaiwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

4

# Probability Distributions

- Tools to describe the Uncertainty of a quantitative random variable
- Popular tools
  - Probability Mass Function (PMF)
  - Probability Density Function (pdf)
  - Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)
- Functions
  - Algebraic functions
  - Graphical functions

# Poisson Distribution (1)

$$X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$$

algebraic pmf of X 
$$p(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}$$

$$x=0,1,2,\dots$$

$\lambda$  = parameter

# Selected Probability Distributions

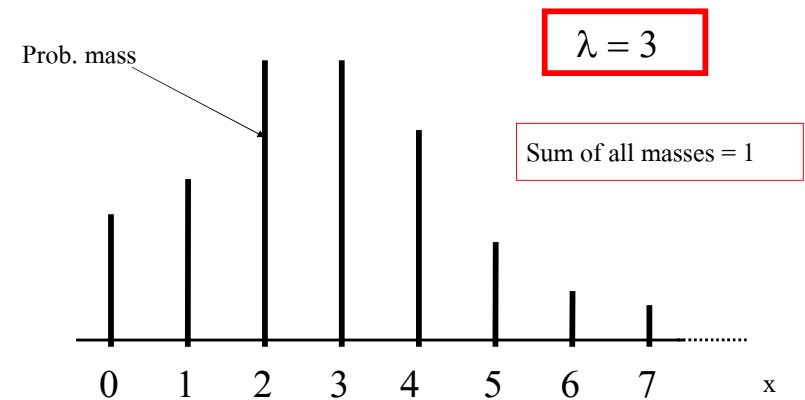
For Discrete RV's

- Binomial
- Poisson

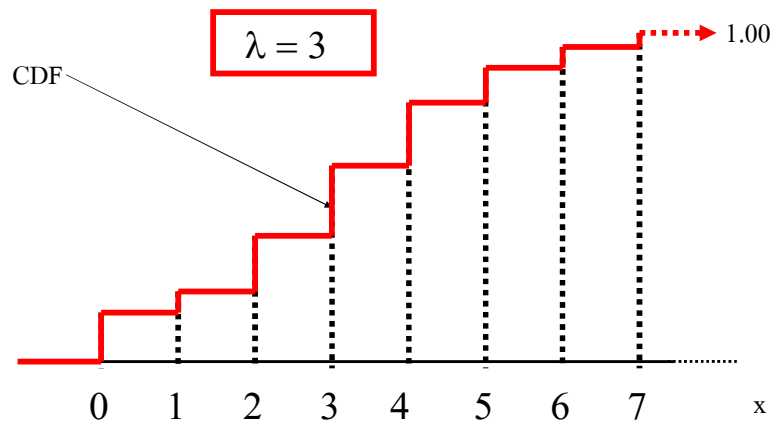
For Continuous RV's

- Normal and Standard Normal
- Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ )
- Student's t
- F distribution

# Poisson Distribution (2)



## Poisson Distribution (3)



(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

9

## Normal Distribution (2)

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

Algebraic pdf of X

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right)$$

$\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are real-valued parameters

(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

11

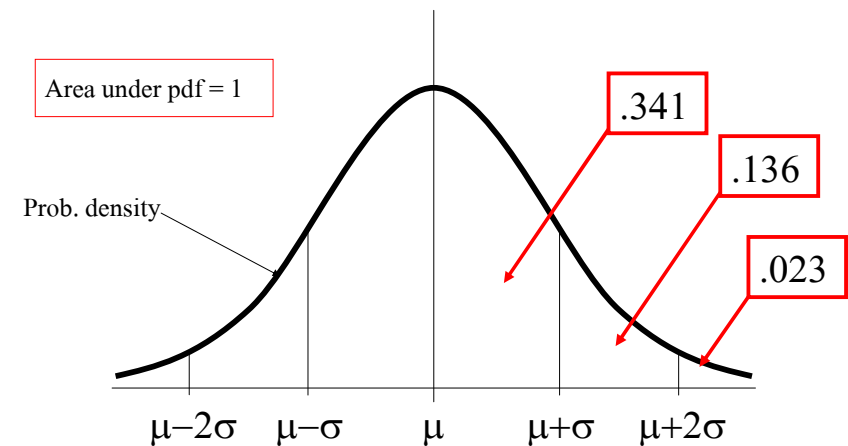
## Normal Distribution (1)

- Continuous
- Assume any real values from negative infinity to positive infinity
- Symmetric bell-shaped distribution
- Centered at its population mean
- Dispersion represents degree of uncertainty or randomness

(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

10

## Normal Distribution (3)



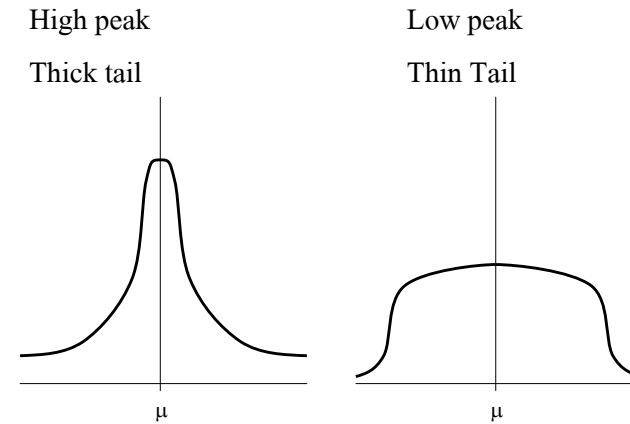
(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

12

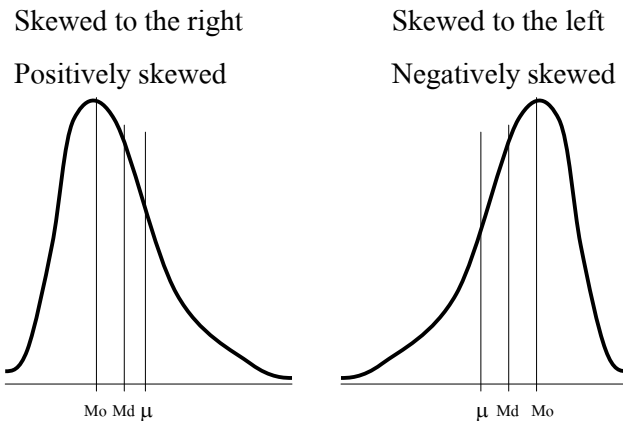
# Normal Distribution (4)

- Population Mean,  $\mu_X = \mu$
- Population Median,  $Md_X = \mu$
- Population Mode,  $Mo_X = \mu$
- Population variance,  $\sigma_X^2 = \sigma^2$
- Population Standard Deviation,  $\sigma_X = \sigma$
- Population Skewedness,  $S_X = 0$  (measure of asymmetry)
- Population Kurtosis,  $K_X = 3$  (measure of peakedness)

# Kurtosis



# Skewed Distribution



# Standard Normal (1)

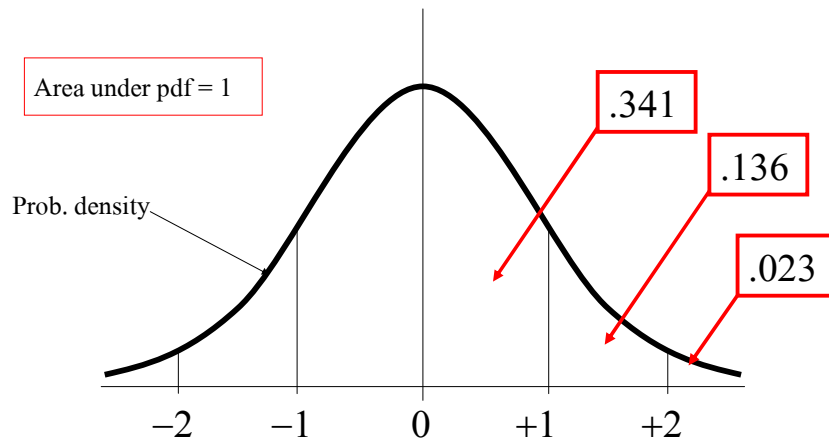
$$Z \sim N(0,1)$$

Algebraic pdf of Z

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}z^2\right)$$

No parameters

## Standard Normal (2)



(c) Pongsa Pornchariwesukul, Chulalongkorn University

17

## Chi-square (1)

$Z_1 \sim N(0,1),$   
 $Z_2 \sim N(0,1),$   
 $\dots,$   
 $Z_m \sim N(0,1)$

} independent Z

Define  $X = Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \dots + Z_m^2$

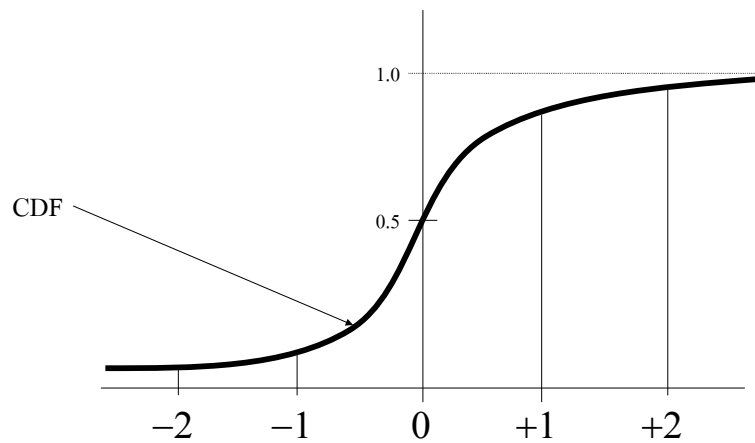
$$X \sim \chi^2(m)$$

m = positive integer degree of freedom parameter

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwesukul, Chulalongkorn University

19

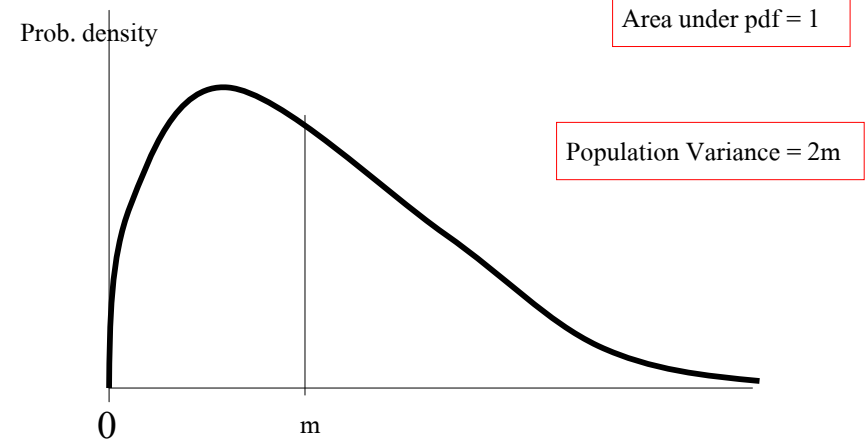
## Standard Normal (3)



(c) Pongsa Pornchariwesukul, Chulalongkorn University

18

## Chi-square (2)



(c) Pongsa Pornchariwesukul, Chulalongkorn University

20

## Student's $t$ (1)

Given  $Z \sim N(0,1)$   
 $X \sim \chi^2(m),$

Define  $T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{X/m}}$

$T \sim t(m)$

$m =$  positive integer degree of freedom parameter

## F-Distribution (1)

Given  $X_1 \sim \chi^2(m_1),$   
 $X_2 \sim \chi^2(m_2),$

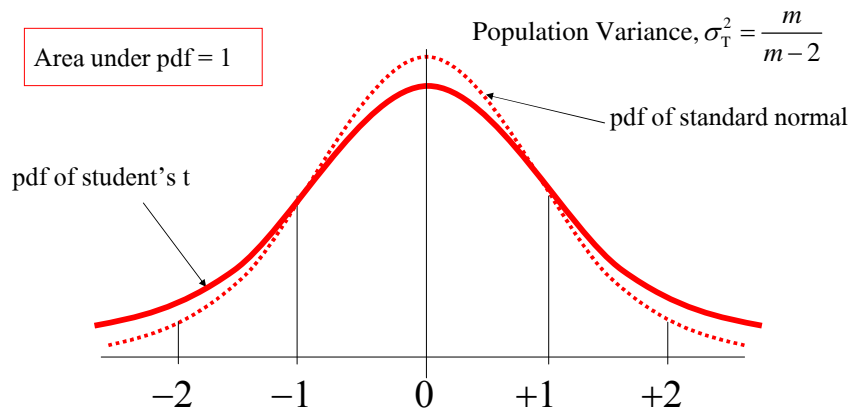
Define  $F = \frac{X_1/m_1}{X_2/m_2}$

$F \sim F(m_1, m_2)$

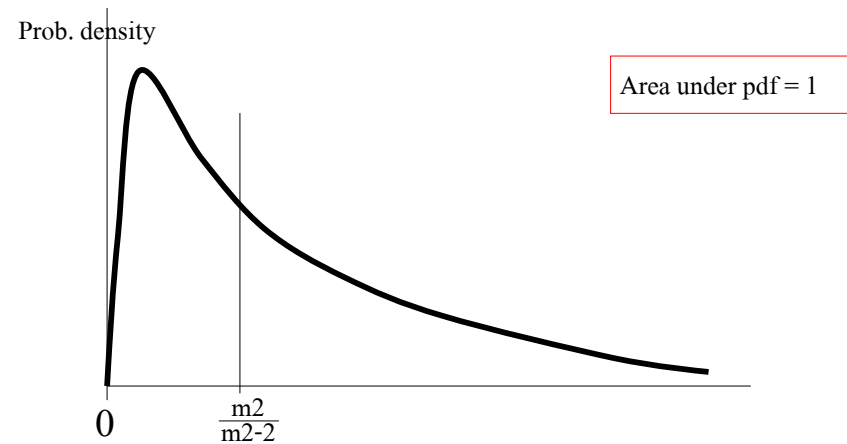
$m_1 =$  numerator degree of freedom parameter

$m_2 =$  denominator degree of freedom parameter

## Student's $t$ (2)



## F-Distribution (2)



# Estimation and Statistical Inference

- Cases
  - Unknown real probability distribution
  - Assume probability distribution function with unknown parameters
- Estimation accuracy

## Data Sampling

- Sampling/observing
  - sampling schemes
  - sample size or number of observations
- Presentation of a data sample
  - graph
  - Calculated statistics

## Graphing data

- to show the distribution
- type of graphs, e.g.,
  - histogram
  - line graphs
  - bar graphs
  - pie chart

## Calculated Statistics

- to estimate the unknown parameters
- Popular statistics
  - sample mean
  - sample variance
  - sample skewedness
  - sample kurtosis(peakedness or tail-thickness)

## Random Sampling (1)

- Realization of the previous observation will not influence the results of the next observations
- Sample of size  $n$

$$\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$$

## Sample Mean

- Estimator of population mean ( $\mu_X$ )

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

## Random Sampling (2)

- $X_i$ 's are random variables having identical probability distributions.
- $X_i$ 's are independent from each other.
- Values of  $X_i$  does not influence Values of  $X_j$  for  $i \neq j$

## Sample Variance

- Estimator of population variance ( $\sigma_X^2$ )

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

- Why  $n-1$  not  $n$ ?

## Sample Standard Deviation

- Estimator of population SD or  $\sigma_X$

$$s_X = \sqrt{s_X^2}$$

## Sample Kurtosis (Peakedness)

- Estimator of population peakedness

$$K = \left\{ \frac{n(n+1)}{(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s} \right)^4 \right\} - \frac{3(n-1)^2}{(n-2)(n-3)}$$

- Why?

## Sample Skewedness

- Estimator of population skewedness

$$S_k = \frac{n}{(n-1)(n-2)} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s_X} \right)^3$$

- Why?

## Sampling Distributions

- Probability of Calculated Statistics
- Note that they are random
- Assumptions
  - 1)  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$   
 $E(X) = \mu$   
 $V(X) = \sigma^2$
  - 2) Random sampling

## Distribution of $\bar{X}$

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

$$E(\bar{X}) = \mu$$

$$V(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2 / n$$

## Unbiased Estimators (1)

- Definition:  $\hat{\theta}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  if  $E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta$

- Note that  $\bar{X}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu$ .

That is,  $E(\bar{X}) = \mu$

## Distribution of $s_X^2$

$s_X^2 \sim$  non - standard

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

$$E(s_X^2) = \sigma^2$$

$$V(s_X^2) = \frac{2\sigma^4}{n-1}$$

## Unbiased Estimators (2)

- $s_X^2$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$
- Reason for dividing by  $(n-1)$  is to make the estimators unbiased.
- Same reason for the formulae of sample skewedness and peakedness

## Desired Properties of an Estimator

- Unbiasedness
- Efficiency or smallest possible variance
- If cannot find such an estimator, the next best is a **consistent** estimator
  - asymptotically unbiased, i.e., bias  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
  - asymptotically diminishing variance, i.e., variance  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

## Standardized $\bar{X}$ (1)

- Subtract with its mean and divide by its standard deviation

$$Z_{Cal} = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \sim N(0,1)$$

- Note that if  $\sigma$  is known,  $Z$  can be calculated given  $\mu$

## Estimator and Estimate

- Estimator is a formula to estimate a parameter
- Estimate is a calculated or observed value to be used as a proxy for the parameter

## Standardized $\bar{X}$ (2)

- Subtract with its mean and divide by its sample standard deviation

$$t_{Cal} = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s_X / \sqrt{n}} \sim t(n-1)$$

- Does not need to know  $\sigma$  to calculate  $t$ .
- Why?

## Standardized $\bar{X}$ (3)

$$t_{cal} = \frac{\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n-1) \frac{s_X^2}{\sigma^2}}{n-1}}} \sim t(n-1)$$

Note: see the creation of t-distributed variable

## Central Limit Theorem for $\bar{X}$ (2)

$Z_{cal}$  is approx. distributed as  
a standard normal

$t_{cal}$  is approx. t-distributed.

## Central Limit Theorem for $\bar{X}$ (1)

- Violation of normal distribution of X  
but still  $E(X) = \mu$   
 $V(X) = \sigma^2$
- $\bar{X}$  is approximately normal when  $n \rightarrow \infty$   
or  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)$  is asymptotically normal

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu) \overset{A}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

## Confidence Interval for $\mu$

Interval estimator for  $\mu$  (cf. Point estimator)

### Concept

Confidence Interval for  $\mu = \bar{X} \pm h$

where  $h$  = half-width of the confidence  
interval

# Factors Affecting $h$

Sample size ( $n$ ).  $h$  decreases as  $n$  increases.

Confidence Level.  $h$  increases as confidence level increases

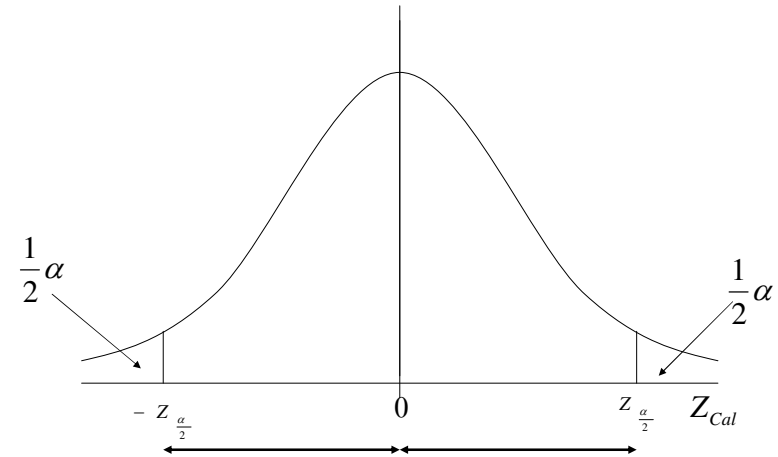
Note that

Confidence Level =  $(1 - \alpha)100\%$  where  $\alpha$  is the significance level (chosen by the one who estimates)

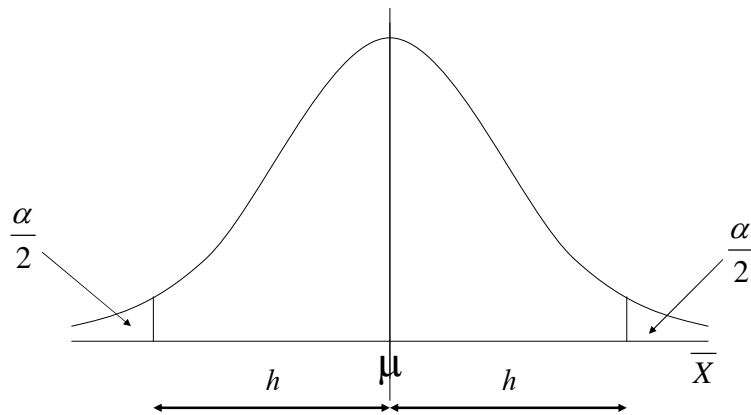
Standard confidence levels are 90%, 95% and 99%

Standard values of  $\alpha$  are 0.10, 0.05 and 0.01

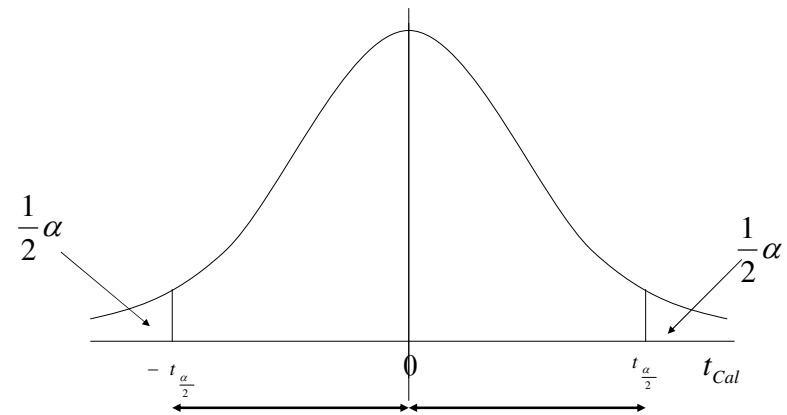
# How to choose $h$ (2) if $\sigma$ is known



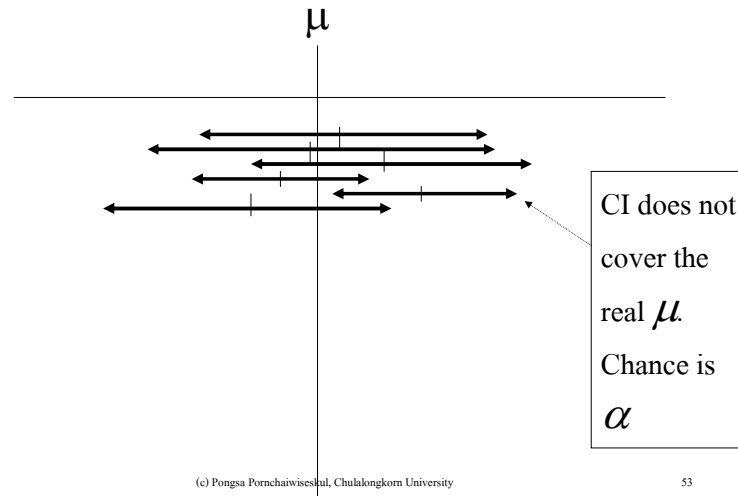
# How to choose $h$ (1)



# How to choose $h$ (3) if $\sigma$ is unknown

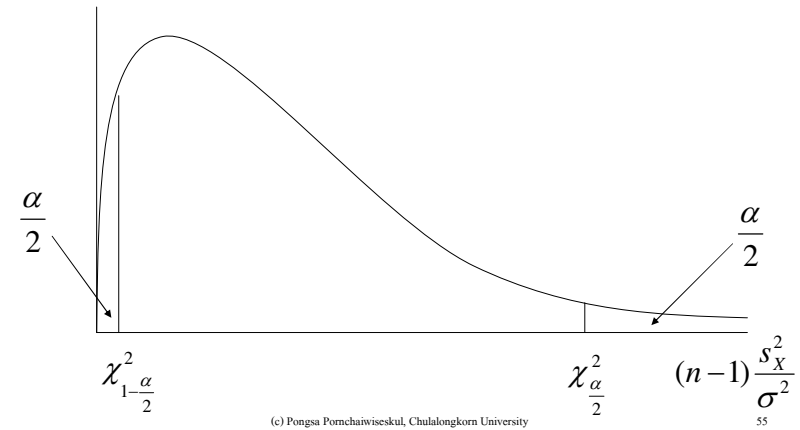


# Interpretation of CI



53

# How to choose $L, U$ (1)



55

# Confidence Interval for $\sigma^2$

Interval estimator for  $\sigma^2$  (cf. Point estimator)

## Define

Confidence Interval for  $\sigma^2 = \{L, U\}$

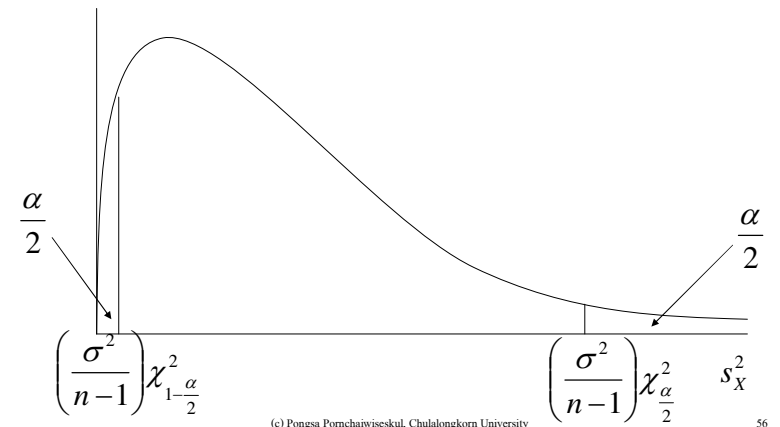
where  $L$  = lower limit of the confidence interval

$U$  = upper limit of the confidence interval

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwesukul, Chulalongkorn University

54

# How to choose $L, U$ (2)



56

## How to choose $L, U$ (3)

Note that

$$\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n-1}\right)\chi_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2 < s_X^2 < \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n-1}\right)\chi_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2$$

Take inverse

$$\left(\frac{n-1}{\sigma^2}\right)\frac{1}{\chi_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2} > \frac{1}{s_X^2} > \left(\frac{n-1}{\sigma^2}\right)\frac{1}{\chi_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2}$$

(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

## How to choose $L, U$ (5)

$(1-\alpha)100\%$  Confidence Interval for

$$\sigma^2 = \left\{ (n-1)\frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2}, (n-1)\frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2} \right\}$$

(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

59

## How to choose $L, U$ (4)

Multiply with  $\sigma^2 s_X^2$

$$(n-1)\frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2} > \sigma^2 > (n-1)\frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2}$$

Flip over

$$(n-1)\frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2} < \sigma^2 < (n-1)\frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2}$$

(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

58

## One-sided Confidence Interval for $\sigma^2$

### Concept

Note that  $\sigma^2 \geq 0$  always.

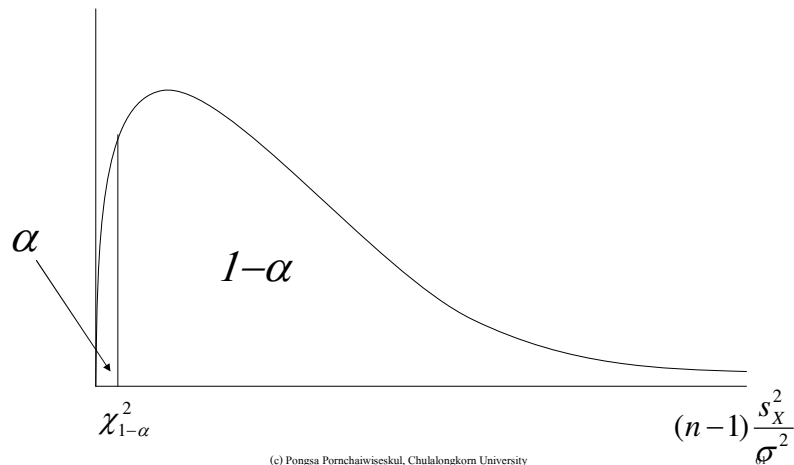
In general, we are more concerned about the upper side of the limit.

One-sided Confidence Interval for  $\sigma^2 = \{0, U\}$

(c) Pongsa Pornchariweskul, Chulalongkorn University

60

## How to choose $U$ for One-sided CI (1)



## How to choose $U$ for One-sided CI (3)

(1- $\alpha$ )100% One-sided Confidence Interval for

$$\sigma^2 = \left\{ 0, (n-1) \frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{1-\alpha}^2} \right\}$$

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

63

## How to choose $U$ for One-sided CI (2)

For (1- $\alpha$ )100% chance that

$$\chi_{1-\alpha}^2 < (n-1) \frac{s_X^2}{\sigma^2}$$

$$0 < \sigma^2 < (n-1) \frac{s_X^2}{\chi_{1-\alpha}^2}$$

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

62

## The Other One-sided Confidence Interval for $\sigma^2$

$$= \{L, \infty\}$$

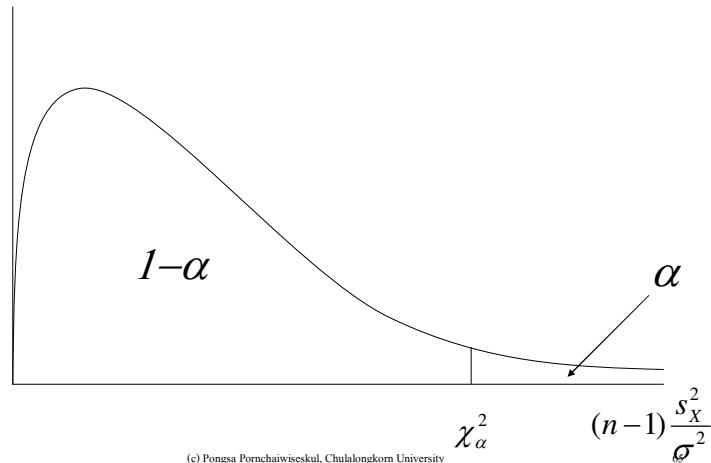
$$= \left\{ (n-1) \frac{s_X^2}{\chi_\alpha^2}, \infty \right\}$$

If we are worried about the lower limit of the confidence interval. How to choose L?

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

64

# How to choose $L$ for One-sided CI



## Two-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (1)

- $\bar{X}$  is an estimator(RV) of  $\mu$
- Its observed or calculated value (estimate) could be different from the hypothesized value of  $\mu$  even though  $H_0$  is true.
- If its observed value is not too far from the hypothesized value, then, we can accept that  $H_0$  is true.

## Hypothesis Testing for $\mu$

Prior info. suggests the null hypothesis  $H_0$  or a hypothesized value of  $\mu$

$$H_0 : \mu = 10$$

$$H_1 : \mu \neq 10$$

$H_0$  is true until a strong enough evidence (observed data) suggests that  $H_0$  is unlikely or, alternatively,  $H_1$  is true.

$H_1$  is also referred to as the Alternative hypothesis

## Two-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (2)

How far from the hypothesized value is

$\bar{X}$  before  $H_0$  will be rejected?

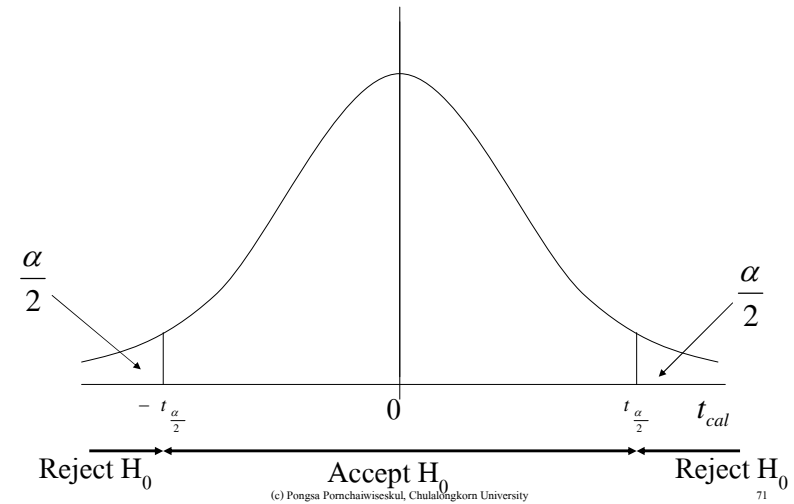
### Criterion

Set the probability of Type I Error equal to the Significant Level ( $\alpha$ )

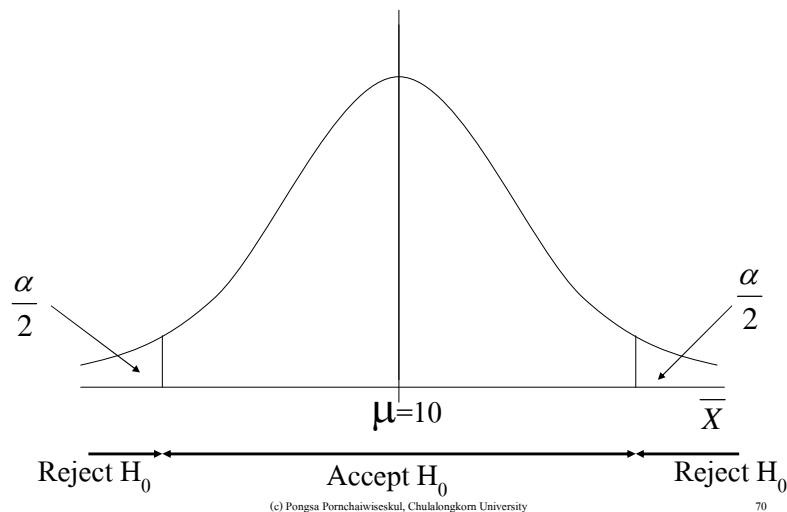
## Type I Error

- Type I Error is the event that  $H_0$  has been rejected while it is, in fact, true.
- Low  $\alpha$  suggests that the evidence must be very strong before we decide to reject  $H_0$ .
- Remember?
  - significant level is chosen by the tester.
  - standard level of significance

## Two-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (4)



## Two-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (3)



## Two-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (5)

Calculate  $t_{cal} = \frac{\bar{X} - 10}{s_x / \sqrt{n}}$   
Criterion compare  $t_{cal}$  with t-value from t-table

$$|t_{cal}| \leq t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \implies \text{accept } H_0$$

$$|t_{cal}| > t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \implies \text{reject } H_0$$

## One-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (1)

Also called One-tailed

Prior info. suggests that no need to be worried about the other tail(say,  $\mu < 10$ ).

Example

$$H_0: \mu = 10$$

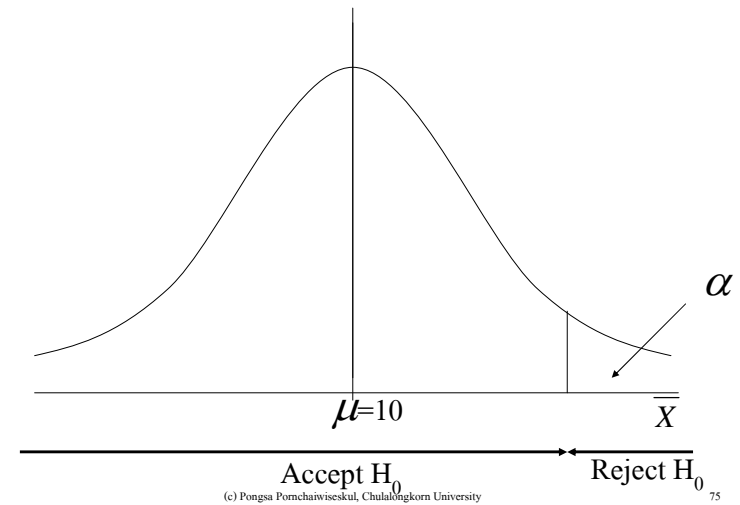
$$H_1: \mu > 10$$

Do a right-tailed test

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwesukul, Chulalongkorn University

73

## One-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (3)



75

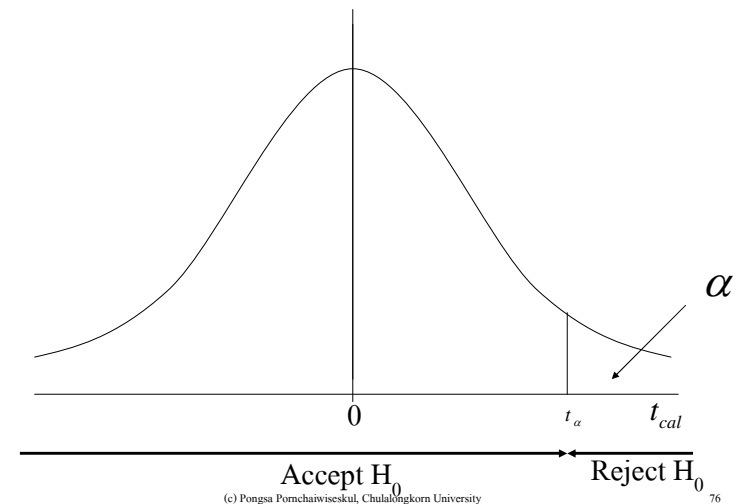
## One-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (2)

- Even if the observed/calculated value is less than or equal to the hypothesized value of  $\mu$ , there is no good reason to choose  $\mu > 10$  over  $\mu = 10$
- Only if the observed value is larger than the hypothesized value by a large enough margin, then, we can reject  $H_0$ .

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwesukul, Chulalongkorn University

74

## One-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (4)



76

## One-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (5)

Calculate  $t_{cal} = \frac{\bar{X} - 10}{s_x / \sqrt{n}}$   
Criterion compare  $t_{cal}$  with t-value

from t-table

$$t_{cal} \leq t_{\alpha} \implies \text{accept } H_0$$

$$t_{cal} > t_{\alpha} \implies \text{reject } H_0$$

## Left-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (2)

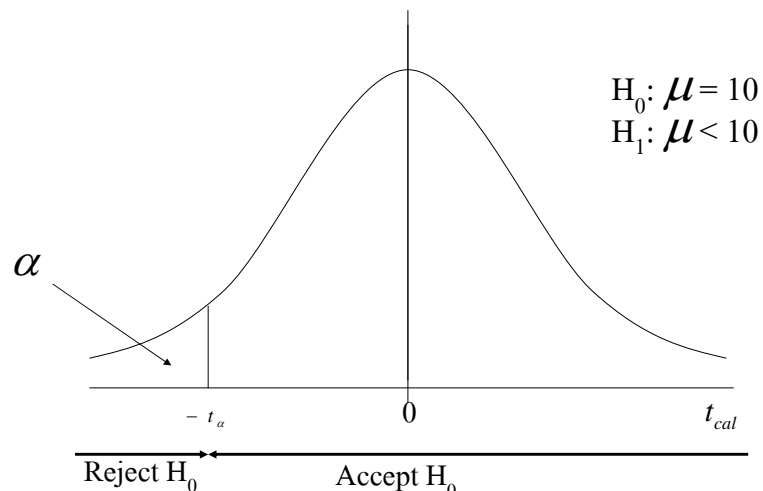
Calculate  $t_{cal} = \frac{\bar{X} - 10}{s_x / \sqrt{n}}$   
Criterion compare  $t_{cal}$  with t-value

from t-table

$$t_{cal} \geq -t_{\alpha} \implies \text{accept } H_0$$

$$t_{cal} < -t_{\alpha} \implies \text{reject } H_0$$

## Left-sided Hypo. Testing for $\mu$ (1)



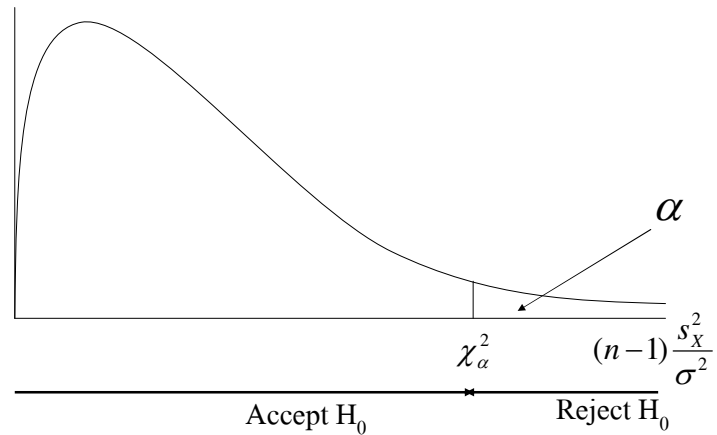
## Hypothesis Testing for $\sigma^2$ (1)

Variance is always non-negative. Right-sided test is most interesting since we are more concerned about too high variance, i.e.,

$$H_0: \sigma^2 = 16$$

$$H_1: \sigma^2 > 16$$

## Hypothesis Testing for $\sigma^2$ (2)



(c) Pongsa Pornchariwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

81

## Hypothesis Testing for $\sigma^2$ (3)

Calculate  $\chi_{cal}^2 = (n-1) \frac{s_x^2}{16}$

Criterion compare  $\chi_{cal}^2$  with  $\chi^2$ -value  
from  $\chi^2$ -table

$$\chi_{cal}^2 \leq \chi_\alpha^2 \implies \text{accept } H_0$$

$$\chi_{cal}^2 > \chi_\alpha^2 \implies \text{reject } H_0$$

(c) Pongsa Pornchariwiseskul, Chulalongkorn University

82