

ECON2300

INTRODUCTORY ECONOMETRICS — SUMMARY

Topic 1: Intro + Reviewing what we know

Key takeaways:

• correlation \neq causation

• covariance = $\text{cov}(x, z)$
 $= E(x - u_x)(z - u_z)$
 $= \sigma_{xz}$

• \bar{y} = sample average

• correlation = $\text{corr}(x, z)$
 $= \frac{\text{cov}(x, z)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(x)\text{var}(z)}}$
 $= \frac{\sigma_{xz}}{\sigma_x \sigma_z}$

$\{-1 \leq r \leq 1\} \rightarrow = r_{xz}$

• Law of large numbers: $\bar{y} \xrightarrow[\text{increasing sample size}]{P} \mu_y$ (i.e. increasing the sample size makes \bar{y} approach population average)

• Central Limit Theorem (CLT): Increasing sample size will make \bar{y} (sample mean) more normally distributed.

Causal effects + statistical concepts

Economics suggests relationships, but never quantitative magnitudes of causal effects $\rightarrow \therefore$ in this course we want to find out

Causal effect: changing 'a' causes ___ change in 'b'

- we could use experiments to measure quantitatively
BUT they are hardly ever feasible (expensive, time consuming etc.)
- so we use observational data

Using observational data to estimate causal effects has difficulties:

- confounding effects
 - simultaneous causality
 - correlation \neq causation
- } we will unpack these later

Discrete: Probability of a specific value of Y (e.g. $\text{Pr}(Y=650)$)

Continuous: Probability of Y being between values (e.g. $\text{Pr}(640 \leq Y \leq 660)$)

Why use \bar{y} to estimate μ_y ?

- \bar{y} is least squares estimator of μ_y^*
- \bar{y} is unbiased: $E(\bar{y}) = \mu_y$
- \bar{y} is consistent: $\bar{y} \xrightarrow{P} \mu_y$
- \bar{y} has smaller σ than all other linear unbiased estimators

* Least squares estimation creates a linear regression to fit a set of data points such that the sum of the squared residuals (i.e. distance in terms of y between the data points and regression line) is minimised

Estimation, Hypothesis tests & Confidence Intervals

Statistical inference: using observational data to draw conclusions about the population.

↳ the first step to obtaining inferences about the population is **estimation**

Estimation: * Estimators include values such as \bar{y} (sample mean), y_i (1st observation), median, mode etc.

↳ We usually use \bar{y}

* using OLS to estimate slope

Hypothesis Testing:

- null hypothesis (H_0) always includes equals ($=, \leq, \geq$)
- alternative hypothesis (H_1) is an inequality ($\neq, >, <$)

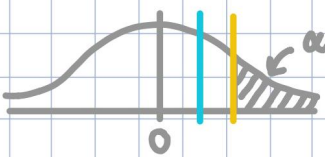
Steps: ① HYPOTHESIS

$H_0: E(y) = \mu_y$	$H_0: E(y) \leq \mu_y$	$H_0: E(y) \geq \mu_y$
$H_1: E(y) \neq \mu_y$	$H_1: E(y) > \mu_y$	$H_1: E(y) < \mu_y$
2 sided \rightarrow	1 sided $>$	1 sided $<$

② DECISION RULE

Reject H_0 if... $p < \alpha$ (p-value method)

$| \text{test statistic} | > | \text{critical value} |$ (t-test, z-test)



t_{crit} for α

t_{calc}

* 1 sided $>$

(in this case, $t_{\text{calc}} < t_{\text{crit}} \therefore$ don't reject H_0)

③ TEST STATISTIC (calculate)

test statistic = $\frac{\text{estimate} - \text{hypothesized value}}{\text{std. error of estimate}}$

(e.g. t_{calc})

④ DECISION

Either reject or fail to reject H_0

↳ Find critical value from table of critical values

⑤ CONCLUSION "At the ___ level of significance (LOS) there is [sufficient/insufficient] evidence to conclude that [statement about H_1]"

Confidence Interval: A 95% confidence interval for μ_y is an interval that contains the true value of μ_y in 95% of repeated samples.

↳ i.e... set of values of μ_y NOT rejected by a hypothesis test with a 5% LOS.

$$\mu: \bar{x} \pm z_{\text{crit}} \left(\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \quad \mu: \bar{x} \pm t_{\text{crit}} \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \quad p: \hat{p} \pm z_{\text{crit}} (\delta_{\hat{p}}) \rightarrow \delta_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}}$$

"based on the sample, [popn. parameter] is estimated with [LOC]% confidence to be between ___ and ___."

Topic 2: Linear Regression with one regressor

Key Takeaways: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$

- β_0 = intercept
- β_1 = slope
- u_i = regression error (omitted factors)

* 'hat' (^) shows it is an estimator

R^2 : fraction of variance of Y explained by X (percentage, unitless)

($0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$)

Entity Demand OLS regression:

$$\tilde{y}_{it} = \beta_1 \tilde{x}_{it} + \tilde{u}_{it} \quad \text{where } \tilde{x} \text{ denotes } x \text{ minus avg. value of } x (\bar{x}) \\ \text{i.e. } y - \bar{y} = \beta_1 (x - \bar{x}) + (u - \bar{u})$$

LSA #1: $E(u_{it} | X_{i1}, \dots, X_{iT}, \alpha_i) = 0$

u_{it} has mean zero, given the entity fixed effect (α) and entire history of X 's

- extension of previous LSA #1
- no omitted lagged effects
- no feedback from u to future X

LSA #2: $(X_{i1}, \dots, X_{iT}, u_{i1}, \dots, u_{iT})$ are i.i.d.

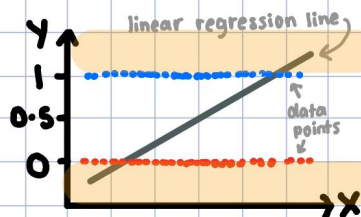
- satisfied if entities are randomly sampled from population using SRS
- does NOT require observations to be i.i.d. (random) for the same entity over time - that would be unrealistic!
(e.g. high beer tax this year means probably high next year too - correlation)
- * $\text{COV}(u_t, u_{t+1})$ is often plausibly non-zero

Topic 9: Regression with a binary dependent variable

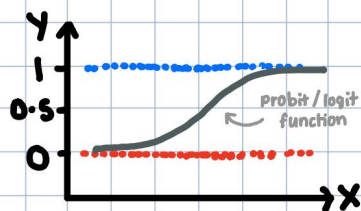
Key takeaways:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + u \rightarrow Y = \text{binary (i.e. = 0 or 1)}$$

↳ can still use OLS regression as long as conditional mean independence is satisfied!



$\beta_1 = \Delta$ predicted probability that $Y=1$, for unit ΔX
BUT issue with using linear model is that we receive probabilities outside the 0-100% range (can't interpret)
 \therefore we use Probit or logit! ($0 \leq \text{Pr}(Y=1|x) \leq 1$)



Probit: $\text{Pr}(Y=1|x) = \Phi(z)$ where... $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$
• use normal distribution z table to find probability

Logit: $\text{Pr}(Y=1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$ ← Just plug z in to the equation to find probability!

Measures of fit for probit + logit:

- R^2 and \bar{R}^2 doesn't make sense for binary Y (data points aren't ON regression line)
 \therefore instead we use...

1. Fraction correctly predicted

fraction of Y for which predicted prob = $> 50\%$. when actual $Y=1$ (or $< 50\%$ when $Y=0$)

2. Pseudo R^2

improvement in value of log-likelihood, relative to having no X 's

Want to maximise ↗

In linear probability model, predicted value of Y is interpreted as predicted probability that $Y=1$...

- If LSA #1 holds, $E(Y|x) = \text{Pr}(Y=1|x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$
- OLS is valid, given LSA's hold, and yields unbiased

For linear, probit or logit models... we can still use P-values in the same way

- ALSO, if χ^2 is large, it indicates statistical significance