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- statistics as estimators
- convergence
- properties of estimators
- sample mean and sample variance

Descriptive statistics

if x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N are drawn independently from the same population

 ${x_i}_{i=1,...,N}$ is a **random sample** and said to be independent, identically distributed (iid)

typical summary **statistics** used to describe the sample data

statistic	description	what to describe
mean	$(1/N)\sum_{i=1}^N x_i$	central tendency
median	middle ranked observation	central tendency
standard deviation	$\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i-\bar{x})^2}{N-1}}$	dispersion
skewness	$\frac{(1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_{i}-\bar{x})^{3}}{\mathrm{SD}^{3}}$	asymmetry of pdf
kurtosis	$\frac{(1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_{i}-\bar{x})^{4}}{\mathrm{SD}^{4}}$	amount of heavy tails

definition: a statistic is any function computed from the data in a sample

- $\bullet\,$ a statistic is a function of random values, so it is also an RV
- the probability distribution of a statistic is called a **sampling distribution**

example: a histogram of 1000 realizations of the sample mean of χ_1^2



the sample mean is calculated on $4\ {\rm observations}$

Estimation of parameters

Definition: an **estimator** is a rule for using data to estimate the model parameter

example: to estimate a population mean, one can use *sample mean* or *sample minimum*

- typically, one can compare an estimator with others from their properties
- such properties can be divided into
 - finite sample properties
 - asymptotic properties: when sample size is large

- statistics as estimators
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Convergence of deterministic sequences

Definition: a sequence of *deterministic* numbers $\{a_n : n = 1, 2, ...\}$ converges to a if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \text{ such that if } n > N \text{ then } |a_n - a| < \epsilon$$

and we write

$$a_n o a,$$
 as $n o \infty$

or

 $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = a$

Definition: a sequence a_n is **bounded** if there is some $M < \infty$ such that

 $|a_n| \le M$, for all n

otherwise, we say that a_n is **unbounded**

Convergence in Probability

Definition: a sequence of *random variables* $\{X_n : n = 1, 2, ...\}$ converges in probability to a random variable X if for all $\epsilon > 0$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0$$

and we write

$$X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$$

and say that X is the **probability limit (plim)** of $X_n : \operatorname{plim} X_n = X$

Definition: X_n is **bounded in probability** if for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $M_{\epsilon} < \infty$ and an integer N_{ϵ} such that

$$P(|X_n| \ge M_{\epsilon}) < \epsilon, \quad \forall n \ge N_{\epsilon}$$

example: X_n is a Bernoulli where $P(X_n = 0) = 1 - 1/n$ and $P(X_n = 1) = 1/n$

 $x \in \mathbf{R}^{20 \times 5}$, contains 20 samples of X_n where n = (1, 2, 3, 10, 100)

x =

1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
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1	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	0
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1	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0

x =

1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
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1	0	1	0	0
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1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0

 X_n converges in probability to 0

Rules for probability limits

if X_n and Y_n are RVs with $\operatorname{plim} X_n = x$ and $\operatorname{plim} Y_n = y$ then

- $\operatorname{plim}(X_n + Y_n) = x + y$ (sum rule)
- $\operatorname{plim} X_n Y_n = xy$ (product rule)
- $\operatorname{plim} X_n / Y_n = x / y$ if $y \neq 0$ (ratio rule)

(all the rules can be generalized to random matrices)

Convergence with Probability One

Definition: a random sequence X_n converges with probability one to a random variable X if

$$P\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} X_n = X\right) = 1$$

and denoted by $X_n \xrightarrow{as} X$

- aka **almost sure** or **strong consistency** for X
- almost sure implies convergence in probability (weak consistency for X)

Laws of Large Numbers

theorems for convergence in probability for the sequence of sample average

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

where X_i is a random variable

weak law of large numbers:

$$\bar{X}_N \xrightarrow{p} \mathbf{E}[\bar{X}_N]$$

if the X_i have common mean μ then this reduces to $\operatorname{plim} \bar{X}_N = \mu$

strong law of large numbers: the convergence is instead almost surely

$$\bar{X}_N \stackrel{as}{\to} \mathbf{E}[\bar{X}_N]$$



scattergram of 1000 realizations of the sample mean

- X_n is the sample mean and computed from n samples of 2-dimensional Gaussian with zero mean
- as n increases, the probability of that X_n 's are concentrated at zero is high

Convergence in Distribution

Definition: a random sequence of X_n converges in distribution to the continuous random variable X, denoted by $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_n(x) = F(x), \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{R}$$

where F_n is CDF of X_n and F is CDF of X

- example: $t_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ (t distribution converges to normal)
- it does not imply that X_n converges at all, e.g.,

$$P(X_n = 1) = 1/2 + 1/(n+1), \quad P(X_n = 2) = 1/2 - 1/(n+1)$$

• convergence in probability implies convergence in distribution

$$X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$$

Continuous Mapping Theorem

let g be a continuous function on set S such that $P(X \in S) = 1$

- if $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ then $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{p} g(X)$
- $\bullet \ \text{ if } X_n \overset{d}{\rightarrow} X \text{ then } g(X_n) \overset{d}{\rightarrow} g(X)$
- the probability limit can pass through a function if the function is continuous
- useful for determining the asymptotic distribution of test statistics

Slutsky's Theorem

- if $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} \alpha$ then
- $X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X + \alpha$
- $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} \alpha X$
- $X_n/Y_n \xrightarrow{d} X/\alpha$ provided that P(Y=0) = 0
- to find a distribution of the above operations of (X_n,Y_n) we don't need to find a joint distribution of (X_n,Y_n)
- also known as rules for limiting distributions

Product Limit Normal Rule

if
$$X_N \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(\mu, A)$$
 and $H_N \xrightarrow{p} H$ where $H \succ 0$ then

$$H_N X_N \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(H\mu, HAH^T)$$

example of usage: if we have shown that

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta} - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, B)$$

then for any $B_N \succ 0$ that is a consistent estimate for B, we have

$$B_N^{-1/2} \cdot \sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta} - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

Properties of Estimators

- asymptotic distribution
- unbiased
- consistency (asymptotic properties)
- efficiency (asymptotic properties)

Asymptotic Distribution of Estimators

suppose that

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, P)$$

then we say that

• in large samples $\hat{\theta}_N$ is \sqrt{N} -asymptotically normally distributed with

 $\hat{\theta}_N \stackrel{a}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\theta, N^{-1}P)$

- the asymptotic covariance of $\hat{\theta}_N$ is $N^{-1}P$, denoted by $\mathbf{Avar}[\hat{\theta}_N]$
- $\widehat{\mathbf{Avar}}[\hat{\theta}_N] = N^{-1}\hat{P}$ denotes the **estimate asymptotic variance matrix** of $\hat{\theta}_N$ where \hat{P} is a consistent estimate of P

('in large samples' means N is large enough for $\mathcal{N}(0, P)$ to be a good approximation but not so large that the covariance $N^{-1}P$ goes to zero)

Unbiased Estimators

an estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of θ is said to be **unbiased** if

$$\mathbf{E}[\hat{ heta}] = \mathbf{E}[heta]$$

example: X_i 's are i.i.d with mean μ and variance σ^2

• the expectation of \bar{X} is carried out by

$$\mathbf{E}[\bar{X}] = \mathbf{E}[(1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i] = (1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{E}[X_i] = (1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mu = \mu$$

• one can show that the sample variance satisfies $\mathbf{E}[s^2] = \sigma^2$

hence, the sample mean and the sample variance are unbiased estimators of μ and σ^2 respectively

Consistent Estimators

if a sequence of estimators $\hat{ heta}_N$ of heta, where N is the sample size, satisfies

 $\hat{\theta}_N \xrightarrow{p} \theta$ for all possible values of θ

then we say $\hat{\theta}_N$ is a **consistent estimator** of θ

- a consistent estimator converges in probability to the true value
- e.g. the sample mean $ar{X}_N = (1/N) \sum_i^N X_i$ is a consistent estimator of μ

$$P\left(|\bar{X}_N - \mu)| \ge \epsilon\right) = P\left[\frac{\sqrt{N}|\bar{X}_N - \mu|}{\sigma} \ge \sqrt{N}\epsilon/\sigma\right] = \left(1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{N}\epsilon}{\sigma}\right)\right) \to 0$$

as $N o \infty$ (we have assume X_i 's are i.i.d. Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

example: 100 realizations of the sample minimum of exponential RV



- for each sample size (N), the sample minimum is calculated on N values
- an exponential RV has the minimum at zero
- $\bullet\,$ as N grows, the probability of the sample minimum goes to 0 is approaching 1

Unbiasedness vs Consistency

• unbiasedness needs not imply consistency, *e.g.*, consider i.i.d. sample X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n of X

$$\hat{\theta} \triangleq X_1, \qquad \mathbf{E}[\hat{\theta}] = \mathbf{E}[X_1] = \mathbf{E}[X] \quad (\text{unbiased})$$

but X_1 never converges to any value (not consistent)

- if the sequence does not converge to a value, then it is not consistent, regardless of whether the estimators in the sequence are biased or not
- consistency needs not imply unbiasedness, *e.g.*, $\hat{\theta}_1 \triangleq \hat{\theta}_N + \frac{1}{N}$ $\hat{\theta}_1$ is still consistent but not unbiased

Efficient Estimators

a consistent asympotitcally normal estimator $\hat{\theta}_N$ of θ is said to be **asympotically efficient** if it has an asymptotic covariance matrix equal to an **efficiency** lower bound

informally, we will have a theorem stating that for any unbiased estimators, it satisfies

 $\operatorname{Avar}[\hat{\theta}_N] \succeq C$

where ${\cal C}$ is an important lower bound, derived from the problem statement/assumptions

therefore, if an estimator of interest happens to satisfy

$$\mathbf{Avar}[\hat{\theta}_N] = C$$

then this estimator is **efficient** (since this is the best we can acheive)

Asymptotic distribution

- definition
- asymptotic efficiency
- the delta method
- asymptotic distribution of nonlinear function

Asymptotic distribution

definition: a distribution that is used to approximate the true finite samples distribution of a random variable

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, P)$$

we say that in *large samples* $\hat{\theta}_N$ is \sqrt{N} -asymptotically normally distributed with

 $\hat{\theta}_N \stackrel{a}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\theta, N^{-1}P)$

note that

- the asymptotic distribution is an approximation of the exact distribution
- example: X_1, \ldots, X_N are i.i.d. samples of exponential with parameter λ
- the exact distribution of $ar{X}_N$ is $(1/2\lambda N)\cdot \mathcal{X}^2(2N)$
- the asymptotic distribution is $\mathcal{N}(1/\lambda, 1/N\lambda^2)$

Asymptotic normality and efficiency

suppose that

 $\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, P)$

then we say

- $\hat{\theta}_N$ is asymptotically normal
- $\hat{\theta}_N$ is **asymptotically efficient** if the covariance matrix of any other consistent, asymptotically normally distributed estimate exceeds P/N by a non-negative definite matrix

The delta method

assumptions:

- $\sqrt{N}(x_n \mu) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
- g(x) and g'(x) are continuous
- $g'(\mu) \neq 0$ and does not involve N

then the delta theorem states that

$$\sqrt{N}(g(x_n) - g(\mu)) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2(g'(\mu)^2))$$

proof. use the linear Taylor approximation to write

$$\sqrt{N}(g(x_n) - g(\mu)) = g'(\zeta) \cdot \sqrt{N}(x_n - \mu), \quad x_n \le \zeta \le \mu$$

and then use the continuous mapping theorem and the product limit normal rule

Asymptotic distribution of nonlinear function

suppose that

- $\hat{\theta}_N \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is an estimator (vector) such that $\hat{\theta}_N \stackrel{a}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\theta, P/N)$
- $f(\theta) : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ is a *continuous* function with Jacobian $J(\theta) = \partial f(\theta) / \partial \theta$
- $f(\theta)$ is not a function of N

then $f(\hat{ heta}_N)$ is also asymptotically normally distributed with

$$f(\hat{\theta}_N) \stackrel{a}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(f(\theta), (1/N)J(\theta)PJ(\theta)^T)$$

where $\mathbf{Avar}(f(\hat{\theta}_N)) = (1/N)J(\theta)PJ(\theta)^T$ is the asymptotic covariance of $f(\hat{\theta}_N)$

the covariance is quadratically scaled by the Jacobian of f

Proof.

• by mean-value theorem, $\exists \tilde{\theta} = \alpha \theta + (1 - \alpha) \hat{\theta}_N$ with $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ we can write

$$\sqrt{N}[f(\hat{\theta}_N) - f(\theta)] = J(\tilde{\theta})\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta)$$

• if $\hat{\theta}_N \xrightarrow{p} \theta$ then $\tilde{\theta} \xrightarrow{p} \theta$ because $\tilde{\theta}$ lies between $\hat{\theta}_N$ and θ and therefore

$$P(\|\hat{\theta}_N - \theta\| \le \epsilon) \le P(\|\tilde{\theta} - \theta\| \le \epsilon) \le 1$$

- by continuity assumption on J then $J(\tilde{\theta}) \xrightarrow{p} J(\theta)$
- apply the product limit normal rule

- statistics as estimators
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Sampling statistics

- useful inequalities
- central limit theorem
- sample mean and sample variance

Markov and Chebyshev Inequalities

Markov inequality

let X be a *nonnegative* RV with mean $\mathbf{E}[X]$

$$P(X \ge a) \le \frac{\mathbf{E}[X]}{a}, \quad a > 0$$

Chebyshev inequality

let X be an RV with mean μ and variance σ^2

$$P\left(|X-\mu| \geq a\right) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{a^2}$$

Sample mean

let X be an RV with $\mathbf{E}[X] = \mu$ (unknown)

 X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N denote N independent, repeated measurements of X

 X_j 's are independent, identically distributed (i.i.d.) RVs

the sample mean of the sequences is used to estimate E[X]:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} X_j$$

two statistical quantities for characterizing the sample mean's properties:

- $\mathbf{E}[\bar{X}]$: we say \bar{X} is unbiased if $\mathbf{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu$
- $\mathbf{var}(\bar{X})$: we examine this value when N is large

the sample mean is an **unbiased estimator** for μ :

$$\mathbf{E}[\bar{X}] = \mathbf{E}\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}X_j\right] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}\mathbf{E}[X_j] = \mu$$

suppose $\mathbf{var}(X) = \sigma^2$ (true variance)

since X_j 's are i.i.d, the variance of \bar{X} is

$$\mathbf{var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \mathbf{var}(X_j) = \frac{N\sigma^2}{N^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$$

hence, the variance of the sample mean approaches zero as the number of samples increases

Weak Law of Large Numbers

let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N be a sequence of i.i.d. RVs with finite mean $\mathbf{E}[X] = \mu$ and variance σ^2

for any
$$\epsilon > 0$$
,
$$\lim_{N \to \infty} P[\ |\bar{X} - \mu| < \epsilon \] = 1$$

- \bullet for large enough N, the sample mean will be close to the true mean with high probability
- *Proof.* apply Chebyshev inequality:

$$P[|\bar{X} - \mu| \ge \epsilon] \le \frac{\sigma^2}{N\epsilon^2} \implies P[|\bar{X} - \mu| < \epsilon] \ge 1 - \frac{\sigma^2}{N\epsilon^2}$$



scattergram of 1000 realizations of the sample mean

- \bar{X} 's are computed from 2-dimensional Gaussian with zero mean
- $\bullet\,$ as N increases, the probability of \bar{X} 's are concentrated at zero is high

Strong Law of Large Numbers

let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N be a sequence of iid RVs with finite mean $\mathbf{E}[X] = \mu$ and finite variance, then

$$P[\lim_{N \to \infty} \bar{X} = \mu] = 1$$

- \bar{X}_k is the sequence of sample mean computed using X_1 through X_k
- with probability 1, every sequence of sample mean calculations will eventually approach and stay close to ${f E}[X]=\mu$
- the strong law implies the weak law

Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N be a sequence of i.i.d. RVs with

finite mean $\mathbf{E}[X] = \mu$ and finite variance σ^2

let S_N be the sum of the first N RVs in the sequences:

 $S_N = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_N$

and define

$$Z_N = \frac{S_N - N\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{N}}$$

then

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} P(Z_N \le z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^z e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

as N becomes large, the CDF of normalized S_n approaches Gaussian distribution

Proof of Central Limit Theorem

first note that

$$Z_N = \frac{S_N - N\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{N}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=1}^N (X_k - \mu)$$

the characteristic function of Z_N is given by

$$\Phi_{Z_N}(\omega) = \mathbf{E}[e^{i\omega Z_N}] = \mathbf{E}\left[\exp\frac{i\omega}{\sigma\sqrt{N}}\sum_{k=1}^N (X_k - \mu)\right]$$
$$= \mathbf{E}\left[\prod_{k=1}^N e^{i\omega(X_k - \mu)/\sigma\sqrt{N}}\right]$$
$$= \left(\mathbf{E}[e^{i\omega(X - \mu)/\sigma\sqrt{N}}]\right)^N$$

(using the fact that X_k 's are iid)

expanding the exponential expression gives

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[e^{\mathrm{i}\omega(X-\mu)/\sigma\sqrt{N}}] &= \mathbf{E}\left[1 + \frac{\mathrm{i}\omega}{\sigma\sqrt{N}}(X-\mu) + \frac{(\mathrm{i}\omega)^2}{2!N\sigma^2}(X-\mu)^2 + \dots\right] \\ &\approx 1 - \frac{\omega^2}{2N} \end{split}$$

(the higher order term can be neglected as N becomes large)

then we obtain

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{Z_N}(\omega) &\to \left(1 - \frac{\omega^2}{2N}\right)^N \\ &\to e^{-\omega^2/2}, \quad \text{as } N \to \infty \end{split}$$

Multivariate CLT

Lindeberg-Levy Theorem: let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N be an i.i.d. sequence of random vectors with $\mathbf{E}[X_i] = \mu$ and $\mathbf{cov}(X_i) = \Sigma$ such that the second moment of each component in X_i is finite

define $\bar{X}_N = (1/N) \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$

CLT says that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \mathbf{E}[X_i]) = \sqrt{N} (\bar{X}_N - \mu) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$$

more conditions involved if X_i 's are NOT i.i.d.

Multivariate CLT

Lindeberg-Feller Theorem: let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N be samples of random vectors with $\mathbf{E}[X_i] = \mu_i$ and $\mathbf{cov}(X_i) = C_i$ such that all mixed third moments are finite

moreover, assume that for every i

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} C_i \right)^{-1} C_i = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad C = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} C_i$$

exists and is positive definite

define $\bar{X}_N = (1/N) \sum_{i=1} X_i$ and $\bar{\mu}_N = (1/N) \sum_{i=1} \mu_i$

then CLT says that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \mu_i) = \sqrt{N}(\bar{X}_N - \bar{\mu}) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, C)$$

Distribution of \bar{X}

let X_1,\ldots,X_N be a sample from a population with mean μ and variance σ^2

let $\bar{X} = (1/N) \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i$ be the sample mean

- if X_i is **normal**, then \bar{X} is also **normal** with mean μ and variance σ^2/N
- from the central limit theorem, the sample mean is **approximately normal** when N is large where

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}}$$

has *approximately* a **standard normal** distribution

Sample Variance

let X_1, \ldots, X_N be a sample from a population with mean μ and variance σ^2

the statistic s^2 , defined by

$$s^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2}}{N - 1}$$

is called the **sample variance**

- $s = \sqrt{s^2}$ is called the sample standard deviation
- using $(N-1)s^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i^2 N\bar{X}^2$, we have

 $\mathbf{E}[s^2] = \sigma^2$ (equal to population variance)

Joint distribution of sample mean and variance

let X_1, \ldots, X_N be a sample from a **normal** popolution, we obtain the identity

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sigma^2} + \left[\frac{\sqrt{N}(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma} \right]^2$$

- $\bullet~{\rm LHS}$ is a chi-square of N degrees of freedom
- $\bullet\,$ the second term on RHS is a chi-square with 1 degree of freedom
- the sum of two independent chi-squares with N and M DFs is a chi-square with N+M
- it would seem that the first term on RHS is a chi-square with N-1 degree of freedoms

Theorem: if X_1, \ldots, X_N is a sample from a **normal** population with mean μ and variance σ^2

- $ar{X}$ is normal with mean μ and variance σ^2/N
- $(N-1)s^2/\sigma^2$ is chi-square with N-1 degrees of freedom
- \bar{X} and s^2 are independent

Corollary: let *s* be the sample standard deviation

$$\frac{\sqrt{N}(\bar{X}-\mu)}{s} \sim t_{N-1}$$

followed from

$$\frac{\sqrt{N}(\bar{X}-\mu)}{s} = \frac{\sqrt{N}(\bar{X}-\mu)/\sigma}{\sqrt{s^2/\sigma^2}} \triangleq \frac{\text{standard normal}}{\text{chi-square with } N-1 \text{ DF}}$$

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