

**PROPOSED SOLUTIONS
HOMEWORK 3
GRA6039 ECONOMETRICS WITH PROGRAMMING
AUTUMN 2020**

EMIL A. STOLTENBERG

Solutions to Ex. 1. The random variable X has the Poisson distribution with parameter $\theta > 0$. We write $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta)$. The pmf of this distribution is

$$f_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{x!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta), \quad \text{for } x \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\},$$

and $f(x) = 0$ elsewhere, with $\theta > 0$. **(a)** The expectation of X is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X] &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{x!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{x!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(x-1)!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x!} \theta^{x+1} \exp(-\theta) = \theta \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) = \theta, \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows because $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} (1/x!) \theta^x \exp(-\theta) = 1$ since $f_{\theta}(x)$ is a pmf.

(b) To find the variance of X we'll use that $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$, so we need to find $\mathbb{E}[X^2]$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X^2] &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x^2 f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x^2 \frac{1}{x!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{(x-1)!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} (x+1) \frac{1}{x!} \theta^{x+1} \exp(-\theta) = \theta \left\{ \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{x!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) + \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x!} \theta^x \exp(-\theta) \right\} \\ &= \theta \left\{ \mathbb{E}[X] + \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} f_{\theta}(x) \right\} = \theta(\theta + 1) = \theta^2 + \theta, \end{aligned}$$

then

$$\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 = \theta^2 + \theta - \theta^2 = \theta.$$

(b) Let X_1, \dots, X_n be i.i.d. Poisson with expectation $\theta > 0$. The log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned}\ell_n(\theta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log f_\theta(X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \{X_i \log(\theta) - \theta - \log(X_i!)\} \\ &= \log(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\theta - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i!).\end{aligned}$$

(c) The first derivative of $\ell_n(\theta)$ is

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \ell_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n,$$

and when we set this equal to zero and solve for θ we find the maximum likelihood estimator

$$\hat{\theta}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = \bar{X}_n.$$

(d) The expectation of $\hat{\theta}_n$ is (using Prop. 2.3 in the Lecture notes)

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}_n] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \theta = \frac{n}{n} \theta = \theta.$$

Since the X_1, \dots, X_n are independent, $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$ (see HW2, Ex. 3(e)), so

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n) &= \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) + \frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \theta = \frac{n}{n^2} \theta = \frac{\theta}{n}.\end{aligned}$$

This is easier to see if $n = 2$. Then (see HW2, Ex. 3(f))

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^2 X_i\right) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{X_1}{2} + \frac{X_2}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{4} \text{Var}(X_1) + \frac{1}{4} \text{Var}(X_2) + \frac{2}{4} \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2),$$

and $\text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0$ when X_1 and X_2 are independent. (e) Here is a Matlab script where we estimate θ

```
x = [2,3,4,1,4,1,1,0,0,2];
mean(x) % = 1.8
```

thus $\hat{\theta}_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \hat{\theta}_n(2, 3, 4, 1, 4, 1, 1, 0, 0, 2) = 1.8$, this is our estimate for θ . (f) Use the following Matlab code to make the histogram in Figure 1. Here we set $\theta = 2.34$ and $n = 1000$.

```
x = poissrnd(2.34,1,1000)
histogram(x,"Normalization","pdf")
```

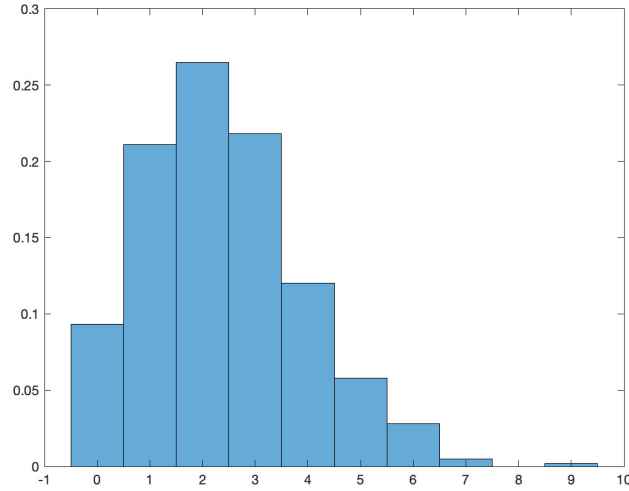


FIGURE 1. A density histogram of $n = 1000$ independent draws from a Poisson distribution with $\theta = 2.34$

Solutions to Ex. 2. The pdf of the Pareto distribution is

$$f_{\alpha}(x) = \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha+1}} \quad \text{for } x \in [x_{\min}, \infty), \quad (1)$$

and $f(x) = 0$ for $x < x_{\min}$, with $\alpha > 0$ and $x_{\min} > 0$. Until exercise (i) we'll assume that x_{\min} is a known number. **(a)** For $x < x_{\min}$, the cdf $F_{\alpha}(x) = 0$. For $x > x_{\min}$, the cdf is

$$F_{\alpha}(x) = \int_{x_{\min}}^x \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{y^{\alpha+1}} dy = - \left|_{x_{\min}}^x \frac{x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{y^{\alpha}} = -\frac{x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha}} + \frac{x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x_{\min}^{\alpha}} = 1 - \frac{x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha}}.$$

The cdf of the Pareto distribution is therefore,

$$F_{\alpha}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - (x_{\min}/x)^{\alpha}, & x \geq x_{\min}, \\ 0, & x < x_{\min}. \end{cases}$$

(b) Assume that $\alpha > 1$. The expectation if X is

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= \int_{x_{\min}}^{\infty} x \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha+1}} dx = \int_{x_{\min}}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha}} dx \\ &= - \left|_{x_{\min}}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{\alpha - 1} \frac{1}{x^{\alpha-1}} = \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{\alpha - 1} \frac{1}{x_{\min}^{\alpha-1}} = \frac{\alpha x_{\min}}{\alpha - 1}. \end{aligned}$$

When $\alpha < 1$, the expectation is infinite. **(c)** Assume that $\alpha > 2$. Again we use $\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$, and compute

$$\begin{aligned} E[X^2] &= \int_{x_{\min}}^{\infty} x^2 \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha+1}} dx = \int_{x_{\min}}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha-1}} dx \\ &= - \left|_{x_{\min}}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{\alpha - 2} \frac{1}{x^{\alpha-2}} = \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^{\alpha}}{\alpha - 2} \frac{1}{x_{\min}^{\alpha-2}} = \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^2}{\alpha - 2}. \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\text{Var}(X) = \text{E}[X^2] - (\text{E}[X])^2 = \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^2}{\alpha - 2} - \frac{\alpha^2 x_{\min}^2}{(\alpha - 1)^2} = \frac{\alpha x_{\min}^2}{(\alpha - 2)(\alpha - 1)^2}.$$

(d) Suppose that X_1, \dots, X_n are i.i.d. samples from the Pareto distribution. The log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_n(\alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log f_\alpha(X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \{\log(\alpha) + \alpha \log(x_{\min}) - (\alpha + 1) \log(X_i)\} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \{\log(\alpha) - \alpha \log(X_i/x_{\min}) - \log(X_i)\} \\ &= n \log(\alpha) - \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i/x_{\min}) - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i). \end{aligned}$$

(e) Differentiate $\ell_n(\alpha)$ with respect to α and set this equal to zero,

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha} \ell_n(\alpha) = \frac{n}{\alpha} - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i/x_{\min}) = 0.$$

Solve for α and we find the maximum likelihood estimator

$$\hat{\alpha}_n = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i/x_{\min})} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i/x_{\min})}.$$

(f) Here is a Matlab script where we use the estimator $\hat{\alpha}_n$ to estimate α

```
x = [0.58, 1.44, 1.03, 23.75, 0.59, 2.13, 3.39, 0.80, 1.28, 3.89];
xmin = 0.5;
1/mean(log(x/xmin))
```

Our estimate of α is 0.7825. (g) The inverse of the cdf F_α that we found in (a) is

$$F_\alpha^{-1}(u) = \frac{x_{\min}}{(1-u)^{1/\alpha}}.$$

(h) A natural way of estimating the 90th percentile $x_{0.9}$ of the wealth distribution in the population from which the data in (f) stem, is to plug the maximum likelihood estimator $\hat{\alpha}_n$ into $F_\alpha^{-1}(u)$, then

$$\hat{x}_{0.9} = F_{\hat{\alpha}_n}^{-1}(0.9) = \frac{x_{\min}}{(1-0.9)^{1/\hat{\alpha}_n}} = \frac{0.5}{(0.1)^{1/0.7825}} = 9.4826.$$

This means that according to our estimates the 10 percent most wealthy have a wealth of 9.48 millions or more.

(i) Now suppose that x_{\min} is also unknown. Looking at the likelihood function,

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_n(\alpha, x_{\min}) &= n \log(\alpha) - \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i/x_{\min}) - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i) \\ &= n \log(\alpha) + n\alpha \log(x_{\min}) - (\alpha + 1) \sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i), \end{aligned}$$

we see that $\ell_n(\alpha, x_{\min})$ is increasing in x_{\min} . But since $X_i \geq x_{\min}$ for all i , x_{\min} cannot be bigger than the smallest X_i . Therefore, the maximum likelihood estimators become

$$\hat{x}_{\min} = \min_{i \leq n} X_i = \min\{X_1, \dots, X_n\},$$

$$\hat{\alpha}_n = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i/\hat{x}_{\min})}.$$

Solutions to Ex. 3. Suppose that Y_1, \dots, Y_n are i.i.d. random variables from the normal distribution with expectation μ and variance $\sigma^2 > 0$. In this exercise we take both μ and σ^2 to be unknown, and want to estimate these using the maximum likelihood estimator. Recall that the pdf of the normal distribution is

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

for $y \in (-\infty, \infty)$.

(a) The log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_n(\mu, \sigma^2) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(y_i; \mu, \sigma^2) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \log(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (Y_i - \mu)^2 - \log \sqrt{2\pi} \right\} \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} \log(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2 - n \log(\sqrt{2\pi}). \end{aligned}$$

(b) Differentiate with respect to μ and with respect to σ^2 , and set both partial derivatives equal to zero,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \ell_n(\mu, \sigma^2) &= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu) = 0, \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma^2} \ell_n(\mu, \sigma^2) &= -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

This is a system of two equations in two unknowns, the unknowns being μ and σ^2 . The solution gives the maximum likelihood estimators, they are

$$\hat{\mu}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = \bar{Y}_n, \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2.$$

(c) An unbiased estimator is an estimator whose expectation equals what it is an estimator for. That is, if $E[\hat{\mu}_n] = \mu$, then we call $\hat{\mu}_n$ unbiased for μ , or simply unbiased. Using Prop. 2.3 in the lecture notes we see that $\hat{\mu}_n$ is unbiased, because.

$$E[\hat{\mu}_n] = E\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E[Y_i] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu = \mu.$$

(d) To show that $\hat{\sigma}_n^2$ is biased for σ^2 , we must show that $E[\hat{\sigma}_n^2]$ does not equal σ^2 . To compute the expectation of $\hat{\sigma}_n^2$ let's first write

$$\hat{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 - \bar{Y}_n^2.$$

By Prop. 2.3 (linearity of the expectation) we have that

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[Y_i^2] - \mathbb{E}[\bar{Y}_n^2].$$

We can compute these two expectations using the $\text{Var}(Y) = \mathbb{E}[Y^2] - (\mathbb{E}[Y])^2$ formula. For each i

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i^2] = \text{Var}(Y_i) + (\mathbb{E}[Y_i])^2 = \sigma^2 + \mu^2.$$

Since the Y_1, \dots, Y_n are independent

$$\text{Var}(\bar{Y}_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

Therefore

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{Y}_n^2] = \text{Var}(\bar{Y}_n) + (\mathbb{E}[\bar{Y}_n])^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \mu^2.$$

Inserting this is our expression for $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2]$ we get

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma^2 + \mu^2) - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} - \mu^2 = \sigma^2 - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2,$$

which shows that $\hat{\sigma}_n^2$ is biased. **(e)** We now construct an estimator that is unbiased for σ^2 . Since $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2] = (n-1)\sigma^2/n$, we see that the estimator

$$\tilde{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{n}{n-1} \hat{\sigma}_n^2,$$

is unbiased, because

$$\mathbb{E}[\tilde{\sigma}_n^2] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{n}{n-1} \hat{\sigma}_n^2\right] = \frac{n}{n-1} \mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2] = \frac{n}{n-1} \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2 = \sigma^2.$$

Notice that in this exercise we only used that the Y_1, \dots, Y_n we i.i.d. with expectation μ and variance σ^2 . We did not use that they are normally distributed. Our derivation of the estimator $\tilde{\sigma}_n^2$ is the reason for the empirical variance of a sample X_1, \dots, X_n being defined as

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

The $n-1$ in the denominator makes s_X^2 unbiased for the true variance!

Solutions to Ex. 4. Assume that a test for Covid-19 is such that it gives the correct result in 99 percent of the cases when a person is infected, and the correct result in 96 percent of the cases when a person is not infected (these are called the *specificity* and *sensitivity* of a test, respectively). Assume also that 34 out of 100 000 people in Oslo are infected with Covid-19. Of all the people in Oslo, a person is chosen at random and tested.

(a) Let ‘+’ indicate positive test, and ‘sick’ indicate that the person is truly infected. Then Bayes rule gives

$$\Pr(\text{sick} \mid +) = \frac{\Pr(+ \mid \text{sick})\Pr(\text{sick})}{\Pr(+)}.$$

There are two possibilities: a person is either sick or not sick, the law of total probability therefore gives,

$$\Pr(+)=\Pr(+|\text{sick})\Pr(\text{sick})+\Pr(+|\text{not sick})\Pr(\text{not sick}),$$

so that

$$\Pr(\text{sick}|+)=\frac{\Pr(+|\text{sick})\Pr(\text{sick})}{\Pr(+|\text{sick})\Pr(\text{sick})+\Pr(+|\text{not sick})\Pr(\text{not sick})}.$$

The numbers given in the text are $\Pr(+|\text{sick})=0.99$ (the specificity of the test), $\Pr(+|\text{not sick})=0.04$ (which is 1 minus the sensitivity of the test), and $\Pr(\text{sick})=34/10^5$, so that $\Pr(\text{not sick})=1-34/10^5=99966/10^5$. Then

$$\Pr(\text{sick}|+)=\frac{0.99\times\frac{34}{10^5}}{0.99\times\frac{34}{10^5}+0.04\times\frac{99966}{10^5}}=\frac{0.99\times 34}{0.99\times 34+0.04\times 99966}=0.00835.$$

(b) Run the this Matlab script a few times to estimate $\Pr(\text{sick}|+)=0.00835$ on simulated data.

```
sims = 10^5;
sick = binornd(1,34/10^5,1,sims);
positive = zeros(1,sims);
for i = 1:sims
    if sick(i) == 1
        positive(i) = binornd(1,0.99,1,1);
    else
        positive(i) = binornd(1,0.04,1,1);
    end
end
pr_hat = mean(sick.*positive)/mean(positive);
pr = 0.99*34/(0.99*34 + 0.04*99966);
```

```
fprintf("%f should be close to %f\n",[pr_hat,pr])
```

(c) In the ‘real Oslo’, why does your answer from (a) not mean that a person who tests positive is most probably healthy? The most important reason for this is that the people who get’s tested are *not* randomly selected. They have symptoms. Thus, in the population of people who actually gets tested, the probability $\Pr(\text{sick})$ is much higher than $34/10^5$. This, in turn makes the probability $\Pr(\text{sick}|+)$ much higher than what we found in (a). Also, but less important, the numbers for the sensitivity and specificity of the test are just numbers I made up. Perhaps the test is better than what we postulated in this exercise?

Here is an article (in Norwegian) about the sensitivity and specificity of tests for Covid-19. <https://www.faktisk.no/artikler/r8q/er-14-av-15-positive-koronaprover-falske>

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS, BI NORWEGIAN BUSINESS SCHOOL

Email address: emil.a.stoltenberg@bi.no