

ECON4150 - Introductory Econometrics

Lecture 2: Review of Statistics

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Stock and Watson Chapter 2-3

Lecture outline

- Simple random sampling
- Distribution of the sample average
- Large sample approximation to the distribution of the sample mean
 - Law of large numbers
 - central limit theorem
- Estimation of the population mean
 - unbiasedness
 - consistency
 - efficiency
- Hypothesis test concerning the population mean
- Confidence intervals for the population mean

Simple random sampling

Simple random sampling means that n objects are drawn randomly from a population and each object is equally likely to be drawn

Let Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n denote the 1st to the n th randomly drawn object.

Under simple random sampling:

- The marginal probability distribution of Y_i is the same for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and equals the population distribution of Y .
 - because Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n are drawn randomly from the same population.
- Y_1 is distributed independently from Y_2, \dots, Y_n
 - knowing the value of Y_i does not provide information on Y_j for $i \neq j$

When Y_1, \dots, Y_n are drawn from the same population and are independently distributed, they are said to be **i.i.d random variables**

Simple random sampling: Example

- Let G be the gender of an individual ($G = 1$ if female, $G = 0$ if male)
- G is a Bernoulli random variable with $E(G) = \mu_G = Pr(G = 1) = 0.5$
- Suppose we take the population register and randomly draw a sample of size n
 - The probability distribution of G_i is a Bernoulli distribution with mean 0.5
 - G_1 is distributed independently from G_2, \dots, G_n
- Suppose we draw a random sample of individuals entering the building of the physics department
 - This is not a sample obtained by simple random sampling and G_1, \dots, G_n are not i.i.d
 - Men are more likely to enter the building of the physics department!

The sampling distribution of the sample average

The **sample average** \bar{Y} of a randomly drawn sample is a random variable with a probability distribution called the **sampling distribution**.

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} (Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

Suppose Y_1, \dots, Y_n are i.i.d and the mean & variance of the population distribution of Y are respectively μ_Y & σ_Y^2

- The mean of \bar{Y} is

$$E(\bar{Y}) = E\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(Y_i) = \frac{1}{n} nE(Y) = \mu_Y$$

- The variance of \bar{Y} is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\bar{Y}) &= \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(Y_i) + 2 \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n \text{Cov}(Y_i, Y_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} n \text{Var}(Y) + 0 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sigma_Y^2 \end{aligned}$$

The sampling distribution of the sample average:example

- Let G be the gender of an individual ($G = 1$ if female, $G = 0$ if male)
- The mean of the population distribution of G is

$$E(G) = \mu_G = p = 0.5$$

- The variance of the population distribution of G is

$$\text{Var}(G) = \sigma_G^2 = p(1 - p) = 0.5(1 - 0.5) = 0.25$$

- The mean and variance of the average gender (proportion of women) \bar{G} in a random sample with $n = 10$ are

$$E(\bar{G}) = \mu_G = 0.5$$

$$\text{Var}(\bar{G}) = \frac{1}{n}\sigma_G^2 = \frac{1}{10}0.25 = 0.025$$

The finite sample distribution of the sample average

The **finite sample distribution** is the sampling distribution that exactly describes the distribution of \bar{Y} for any sample size n .

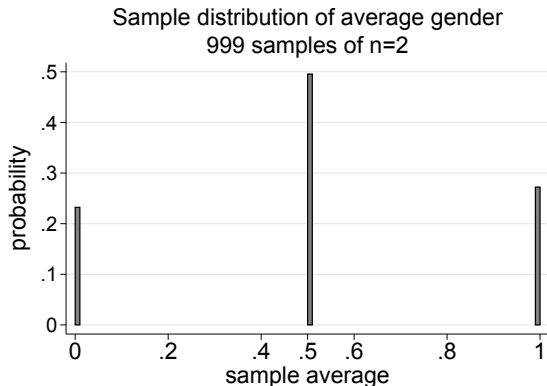
- In general the exact sampling distribution of \bar{Y} is complicated and depends on the population distribution of Y .
- A special case is when Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n are i.i.d draws from the $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$, because in this case

$$\bar{Y} \sim N\left(\mu_Y, \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}\right)$$

The finite sample distribution of average gender \bar{G}

Suppose we draw 999 samples of $n = 2$:

Sample 1			Sample 2			Sample 3			Sample 999		
G_1	G_2	\bar{G}	G_1	G_2	\bar{G}	G_1	G_2	\bar{G}		G_1	G_2	\bar{G}
1	0	0.5	1	1	1	0	1	0.5		0	0	0



The asymptotic distribution of \bar{Y}

- Given that the exact sampling distribution of \bar{Y} is complicated
- and given that we generally use large samples in econometrics
- we will often use an approximation of the sample distribution that relies on the sample being large

The **asymptotic distribution** is the approximate sampling distribution of \bar{Y} if the sample size $n \rightarrow \infty$

We will use two concepts to approximate the large-sample distribution of the sample average

- The law of large numbers.
- The central limit theorem.

Law of Large Numbers

The Law of Large Numbers states that if

- $Y_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ are independently and identically distributed with $E(Y_i) = \mu_Y$
- and large outliers are unlikely; $Var(Y_i) = \sigma_Y^2 < \infty$

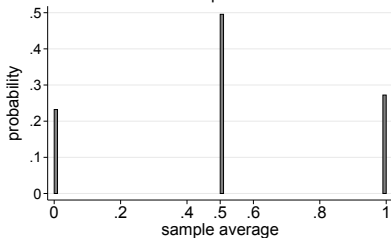
\bar{Y} will be near μ_Y with very high probability when n is very large ($n \rightarrow \infty$)

$$\bar{Y} \xrightarrow{p} \mu_Y$$

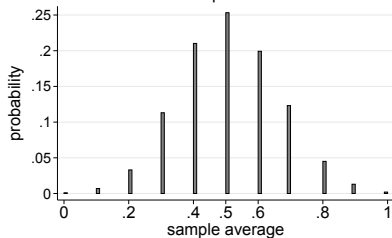
Law of Large Numbers

Example: Gender $G \sim \text{Bernoulli}(0.5, 0.25)$

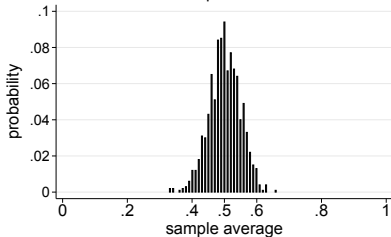
Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=2$



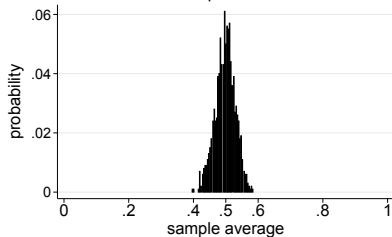
Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=10$



Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=100$



Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=250$



The Central Limit theorem

The Central Limit Theorem states that if

- $Y_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ are i.i.d. with $E(Y_i) = \mu_Y$
- and $\text{Var}(Y_i) = \sigma_Y^2$ with $0 < \sigma_Y^2 < \infty$

The distribution of the sample average is approximately normal if $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\bar{Y} \sim N\left(\mu_Y, \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}\right)$$

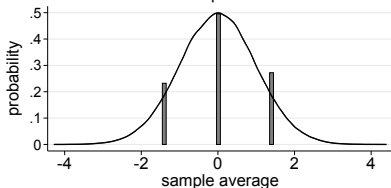
The distribution of the standardized sample average is approximately standard normal for $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_Y}{\sigma_Y^2} \sim N(0, 1)$$

The Central Limit theorem

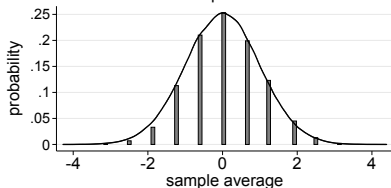
Example: Gender $G \sim \text{Bernoulli}(0.5, 0.25)$

Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=2$



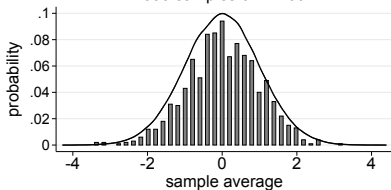
Finite sample distr. standardized sample average
Standard normal probability density

Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=10$



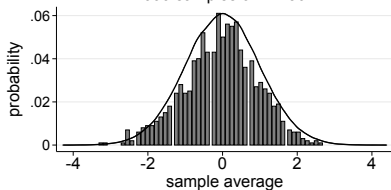
Finite sample distr. standardized sample average
Standard normal probability density

Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=100$



Finite sample distr. standardized sample average
Standard normal probability density

Sample distribution of average gender
999 samples of $n=250$



Finite sample distr. standardized sample average
Standard normal probability density

The Central Limit theorem

How good is the large-sample approximation?

- If $Y_i \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ the approximation is perfect
- If Y_i is not normally distributed the quality of the approximation depends on how close n is to infinity
- For $n \geq 100$ the normal approximation to the distribution of \bar{Y} is typically very good for a wide variety of population distributions

Estimation

Estimators and estimates

An Estimator is a function of a sample of data *to be* drawn randomly from a population

- An estimator is a random variable because of randomness in drawing the sample

An Estimate is the numerical value of an estimator when it is actually computed using a specific sample.

Estimation of the population mean

Suppose we want to know the mean value of Y (μ_Y) in a population, for example

- The mean wage of college graduates.
- The mean level of education in Norway.
- The mean probability of passing the econometrics exam.

Suppose we draw a random sample of size n with Y_1, \dots, Y_n i.i.d

Possible estimators of μ_Y are:

- The sample average $\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$
- The first observation Y_1
- The weighted average: $\tilde{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2} Y_1 + \frac{3}{2} Y_2 + \dots + \frac{1}{2} Y_{n-1} + \frac{3}{2} Y_n \right)$

Estimation of the population mean

To determine which of the estimators, \bar{Y} , Y_1 or \tilde{Y} is the best estimator of μ_Y we consider 3 properties:

Let $\hat{\mu}_Y$ be an estimator of the population mean μ_Y .

Unbiasedness: The mean of the sampling distribution of $\hat{\mu}_Y$ equals μ_Y

$$E(\hat{\mu}_Y) = \mu_Y$$

Consistency: The probability that $\hat{\mu}_Y$ is within a very small interval of μ_Y approaches 1 if $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\hat{\mu}_Y \xrightarrow{p} \mu_Y$$

Efficiency: If the variance of the sampling distribution of $\hat{\mu}_Y$ is smaller than that of some other estimator $\tilde{\mu}_Y$, $\hat{\mu}_Y$ is more efficient

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\mu}_Y) < \text{Var}(\tilde{\mu}_Y)$$

Example

Suppose we are interested in the mean wages μ_w of individuals with a master degree

We draw the following sample ($n = 10$) by simple random sampling

i	W_i
1	47281.92
2	70781.94
3	55174.46
4	49096.05
5	67424.82
6	39252.85
7	78815.33
8	46750.78
9	46587.89
10	25015.71

The 3 estimators give the following estimates:

$$\bar{W} = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} W_i = 52618.18$$

$$W_1 = 47281.92$$

$$\tilde{W} = \frac{1}{10} \left(\frac{1}{2} W_1 + \frac{3}{2} W_2 + \dots + \frac{1}{2} W_9 + \frac{3}{2} W_{10} \right) = 49398.82.$$

Unbiasedness

All 3 proposed estimators are unbiased:

- As shown on slide 5: $E(\bar{Y}) = \mu_Y$

- Since Y_i are i.i.d. $E(Y_1) = E(Y) = \mu_Y$

- $$\begin{aligned}
 E(\tilde{Y}) &= E\left(\frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2}Y_1 + \frac{3}{2}Y_2 + \dots + \frac{1}{2}Y_{n-1} + \frac{3}{2}Y_n\right)\right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2}E(Y_1) + \frac{3}{2}E(Y_2) + \dots + \frac{1}{2}E(Y_{n-1}) + \frac{3}{2}E(Y_n)\right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \left[\left(\frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right) E(Y_i) + \left(\frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{2}\right) E(Y_i)\right] \\
 &\qquad\qquad\qquad E(Y_i) \qquad\qquad\qquad = \mu_Y
 \end{aligned}$$

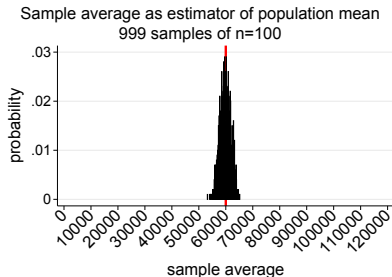
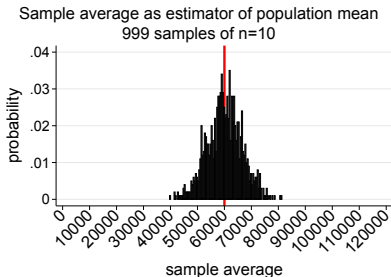
Consistency

Example: mean wages of individuals with a master degree with $\mu_W = 60\,000$

By the law of large numbers

$$\bar{W} \xrightarrow{P} \mu_W$$

which implies that the probability that \bar{W} is within a very small interval of μ_W approaches 1 if $n \rightarrow \infty$

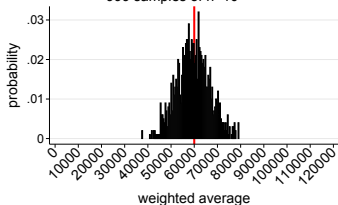


Consistency

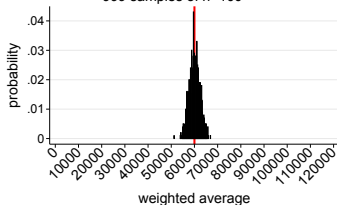
Example: mean wages of individuals with a master degree with $\mu_W = 60\,000$

$\widetilde{W} = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2} W_1 + \frac{3}{2} W_2 + \dots + \frac{1}{2} W_{n-1} + \frac{3}{2} W_n \right)$ is also consistent

Weighted average as estimator of population mean
999 samples of $n=10$

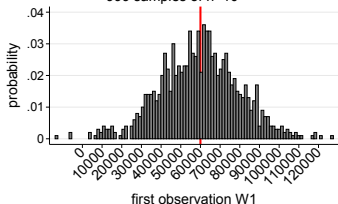


Weighted average as estimator of population mean
999 samples of $n=100$

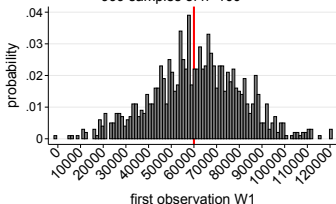


However W_1 is not a consistent estimator of μ_W :

First observation W_1 as estimator of population mean
999 samples of $n=10$



First observation W_1 as estimator of population mean
999 samples of $n=100$



Efficiency

Efficiency entails a comparison of estimators on the basis of their variance

- The variance of \bar{Y} equals

$$\text{Var}(\bar{Y}) = \frac{1}{n}\sigma_Y^2$$

- The variance of Y_1 equals

$$\text{Var}(Y_1) = \text{Var}(Y) = \sigma_Y^2$$

- The variance of \tilde{Y} equals

$$\text{Var}(\tilde{Y}) = 1.25\frac{1}{n}\sigma_Y^2$$

For any $n \geq 2$ \bar{Y} is more efficient than Y_1 and \tilde{Y}

BLUE: Best Linear Unbiased Estimator

- \bar{Y} is not only more efficient than Y_1 and \tilde{Y} , but it is more efficient than any unbiased estimator of μ_Y that is a weighted average of Y_1, \dots, Y_n

\bar{Y} is the **Best Linear Unbiased Estimator (BLUE)** it is the most efficient estimator of μ_Y among all unbiased estimators that are weighted averages of Y_1, \dots, Y_n

- Let $\hat{\mu}_Y$ be an unbiased estimator of μ_Y

$$\hat{\mu}_Y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i \quad \text{with } a_1, \dots, a_n \text{ nonrandom constants}$$

then \bar{Y} is more efficient than $\hat{\mu}_Y$, that is

$$\text{Var}(\bar{Y}) < \text{Var}(\hat{\mu}_Y)$$

Hypothesis tests concerning the population mean

Hypothesis tests concerning the population mean

Consider the following questions:

- Is the mean monthly wage of college graduates equal to NOK 60 000?
- Is the mean level of education in Norway equal to 12 years?
- Is the mean probability of passing the econometrics exam equal to 1?

These questions involve the population mean taking on a specific value $\mu_{Y,0}$

Answering these questions implies using data to compare a null hypothesis

$$H_0 : E(Y) = \mu_{Y,0}$$

to an alternative hypothesis, which is often the following two sided hypothesis

$$H_1 : E(Y) \neq \mu_{Y,0}$$

Hypothesis tests concerning the population mean

p-value

Suppose we have a sample of n i.i.d observations and compute the sample average \bar{Y}

The sample average can differ from $\mu_{Y,0}$ for two reasons

- 1 The population mean μ_Y is not equal to $\mu_{Y,0}$ (H_0 not true)
- 2 Due to random sampling $\bar{Y} \neq \mu_Y = \mu_{Y,0}$ (H_0 true)

To quantify the second reason we define the p-value

The p-value is the probability of drawing a sample with \bar{Y} at least as far from $\mu_{Y,0}$ given that the null hypothesis is true.

Hypothesis tests concerning the population mean

p-value

$$p - \text{value} = Pr_{H_0} \left[|\bar{Y} - \mu_{Y,0}| > |\bar{Y}^{act} - \mu_{Y,0}| \right]$$

To compute the p-value we need to know the sampling distribution of \bar{Y}

- Sampling distribution of \bar{Y} is complicated for small n
- With large n the central limit theorem states that

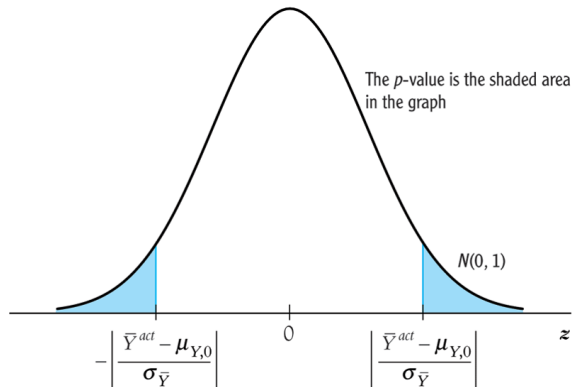
$$\bar{Y} \sim N \left(\mu_Y, \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n} \right)$$

- This implies that if the null hypothesis is true:

$$\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_{Y,0}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

Computing the p-value when σ_Y is known

$$p\text{-value} = Pr_{H_0} \left[\left| \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_{Y,0}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}}} \right| > \left| \frac{\bar{Y}^{act} - \mu_{Y,0}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}}} \right| \right] = 2\Phi \left(- \left| \frac{\bar{Y}^{act} - \mu_{Y,0}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}}} \right| \right)$$



- For large n , p -value = the probability that Z falls outside $\left| \frac{\bar{Y}^{act} - \mu_{Y,0}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}}} \right|$

Estimating the standard deviation of \bar{Y}

- In practice $\sigma_{\bar{Y}}^2$ is usually unknown and must be estimated

The sample variance $s_{\bar{Y}}^2$ is the estimator of $\sigma_{\bar{Y}}^2 = E[(Y_i - \mu_Y)^2]$

$$s_{\bar{Y}}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

- division by $n - 1$ because we “replace” μ_Y by \bar{Y} which uses up 1 degree of freedom
- if Y_1, \dots, Y_n are i.i.d. and $E(Y^4) < \infty$, $s_{\bar{Y}}^2 \xrightarrow{P} \sigma_{\bar{Y}}^2$
(Law of Large Numbers)

The sample standard deviation $s_Y = \sqrt{s_{\bar{Y}}^2}$ is the estimator of σ_Y

Computing the p-value using $SE(\bar{Y}) = \hat{\sigma}_{\bar{Y}}$

The standard error $SE(\bar{Y})$ is an estimator of $\sigma_{\bar{Y}}$

$$SE(\bar{Y}) = \frac{s_Y}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- Because s_Y^2 is a consistent estimator of σ_Y^2 , we can (for large n) replace $\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}}$ by $SE(\bar{Y}) = \frac{s_Y}{\sqrt{n}}$
- This implies that when σ_Y^2 is unknown and Y_1, \dots, Y_n are i.i.d. the p-value is computed as

$$p - value = 2\Phi \left(- \left| \frac{\bar{Y}^{act} - \mu_{Y,0}}{SE(\bar{Y})} \right| \right)$$

The t-statistic and its large-sample distribution

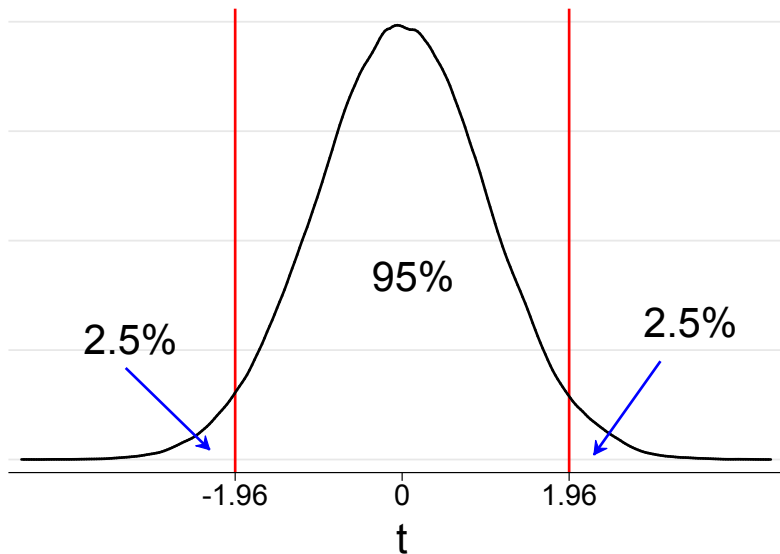
- The standardized sample average $(\bar{Y}^{act} - \mu_{Y,0}) / SE(\bar{Y})$ plays a central role in testing statistical hypothesis
- It has a special name, the **t-statistic**

$$t = \left| \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_{Y,0}}{SE(\bar{Y})} \right|$$

- t is approximately $N(0, 1)$ distributed for large n
- The p-value can be computed as

$$p - value = 2\Phi(-|t^{act}|)$$

The t-statistic and its large-sample distribution



Type I and type II errors and the significance level

There are 2 types of mistakes when conducting a hypothesis test

Type I error refers to the mistake of rejecting H_0 when it is true

Type II error refers to the mistake of not rejecting H_0 when it is false

- In hypothesis testing we usually fix the probability of a type I error

The **significance level** α is the probability of rejecting H_0 when it is true

- Most often used significance level is 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$)

Since area in tails of $N(0, 1)$ outside ± 1.96 is 5%:

- We reject H_0 if p-value is smaller than 0.05.
- We reject H_0 if $|t^{act}| > 1.96$

4 steps in testing a hypothesis about the population mean

$$H_0 : E(Y) = \mu_{Y,0} \quad H_1 : E(Y) \neq \mu_{Y,0}$$

Step 1: Compute the sample average \bar{Y}

Step 2: Compute the standard error of \bar{Y}

$$SE(\bar{Y}) = \frac{s_Y}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Step 3: Compute the t-statistic

$$t^{act} = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_{Y,0}}{SE(\bar{Y})}$$

Step 4: Reject the null hypothesis at a 5% significance level if

- $|t^{act}| > 1.96$
- or if *p-value* < 0.05

Hypothesis tests concerning the population mean

Example: The mean wage of individuals with a master degree

Suppose we would like to test

$$H_0 : E(W) = 60000 \quad H_1 : E(W) \neq 60000$$

using a sample of 250 individuals with a master degree

$$\text{Step 1: } \bar{W} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n W_i = 61977.12$$

$$\text{Step 2: } SE(\bar{W}) = \frac{s_W}{\sqrt{n}} = 1334.19$$

$$\text{Step 3: } t^{act} = \frac{\bar{W} - \mu_{W,0}}{SE(\bar{W})} = \frac{61977.12 - 60000}{1334.19} = 1.48$$

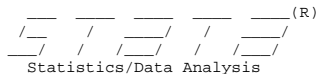
Step 4: Since we use a 5% significance level, we do not reject H_0 because $|t^{act}| = 1.48 < 1.96$

Note: We do never accept the null hypothesis!

Hypothesis tests concerning the population mean

Example: The mean wage of individuals with a master degree

This is how to do the test in Stata:



```
. ttest wage=60000
```

One-sample t test

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
wage	250	61977.12	1334.189	21095.37	59349.39	64604.85

```

mean = mean( wage )
Ho: mean = 60000
t = 1.4819
degrees of freedom = 249

```

```

Ha: mean < 60000
Pr(T < t) = 0.9302

Ha: mean != 60000
Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.1396

Ha: mean > 60000
Pr(T > t) = 0.0698

```

Hypothesis test with a one-sided alternative

- Sometimes the alternative hypothesis is that the mean exceeds $\mu_{Y,0}$

$$H_0 : E(Y) = \mu_{Y,0} \quad H_1 : E(Y) > \mu_{Y,0}$$

- In this case the p-value is the area under $N(0, 1)$ to the right of the t-statistic

$$p - value = Pr_{H_0} (t > t^{act}) = 1 - \Phi (t^{act})$$

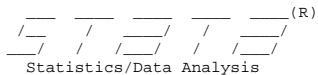
- With a significance level of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$) we reject H_0 if $t^{act} > 1.64$
- If the alternative hypothesis is $H_1 : E(Y) < \mu_{Y,0}$

$$p - value = Pr_{H_0} (t < t^{act}) = 1 - \Phi (-t^{act})$$

and we reject H_0 if $t^{act} < -1.64 / p - value < 0.05$

Hypothesis test with a one-sided alternative

Example: The mean wage of individuals with a master degree



```
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```

One-sample t test

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Ho: mean = 60000
t = 1.4819
degrees of freedom = 249
```

```
Ha: mean < 60000
Pr(T < t) = 0.9302
```

```
Ha: mean != 60000
Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.1396
```

```
Ha: mean > 60000
Pr(T > t) = 0.0698
```

Confidence intervals for the population mean

- Suppose we would do a two-sides hypothesis test for many different values of $\mu_{Y,0}$
- On the basis of this we can construct a set of values which are not rejected at a 5% significance level
- If we were able to test all possible values of $\mu_{Y,0}$ we could construct a 95% confidence interval

A **95% confidence interval** is an interval that contains the true value of μ_Y in 95% of all possible random samples.

- Instead of doing infinitely many hypothesis tests we can compute the 95% confidence interval as

$$\left\{ \bar{Y} - 1.96 \cdot SE(\bar{Y}) \quad , \quad \bar{Y} + 1.96 \cdot SE(\bar{Y}) \right\}$$

- Intuition: a value of $\mu_{Y,0}$ smaller than $\bar{Y} - 1.96 \cdot SE(\bar{Y})$ or bigger than $\bar{Y} + 1.96 \cdot SE(\bar{Y})$ will be rejected at $\alpha = 0.05$

Confidence intervals for the population mean

Example: The mean wage of individuals with a master degree

When the sample size n is large:

$$95\% \text{ confidence interval for } \mu_Y = \left\{ \bar{Y} \pm 1.96 \cdot SE(\bar{Y}) \right\}$$

$$90\% \text{ confidence interval for } \mu_Y = \left\{ \bar{Y} \pm 1.64 \cdot SE(\bar{Y}) \right\}$$

$$99\% \text{ confidence interval for } \mu_Y = \left\{ \bar{Y} \pm 2.58 \cdot SE(\bar{Y}) \right\}$$

Using the sample of 250 individuals with a master degree:

95% conf. int. for μ_W is

$$\{61977.12 \pm 1.96 \cdot 1334.19\} = \{59349.39, 64604.85\}$$

90% conf. int. for μ_W is

$$\{61977.12 \pm 1.64 \cdot 1334.19\} = \{59774.38, 64179.86\}$$

99% conf. int. for μ_W is

$$\{61977.12 \pm 2.58 \cdot 1334.19\} = \{58513.94, 65440.30\}$$