Statistical Properties of LS Estimators

Lecture 3

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Statistical Properties of LS Estimators

Learning objectives

In this lecture we will:

- study properties of $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$ as an estimate of the true coefficient vector (β_0, β_1) .
- construct confidence/prediction intervals for (β_0, β_1) .

Notation Remark

- Uppercase letters are normally used for Random Variables, and lowercase letters for observed values of the random variables.
- Uppercase letter will be also reserved for matrices.
- In some occasions lowercase letter will also be used for random variables.



LS Estimators Properties

SLR Model

Model:
$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$
, $i = 1, ..., n$

Assumptions

The **errors** $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots, \varepsilon_n$ are assumed to

- have **mean zero**: $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_i) = 0$
- be **uncorrelated**: $Cov(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = 0$, $i \neq j$,
- be **homoscedastic**: $Var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ does not depend on *i*.
- ⇒ We can combine the last two and write it as

$$Cov(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = \sigma^2 \delta_{ij}$$

where $\delta_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$.

Assumptions on Y

Moments of (Y|X)

Based on the SLR model moment assumptions on the error terms, we have the following assumptions for the moments of Y conditioning on X:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\left(y_i|x_i\right) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i \\ \text{Var}\left(y_i|x_i\right) &= \sigma^2 \\ \text{Cov}\left(y_i, y_j|x_i, x_j\right) &= 0, \ i \neq j \end{split}$$

Remark:

When we evaluate expectation, only y_i 's are random and x_i 's are treated as known, non-random constants.

Unbiasedness of LS Estimators

Proposition

Both LS estimators $\hat{\beta}_1$, $\hat{\beta}_0$ are *unbiased*, i.e. $\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{\beta}_1\right) = \beta_1$, $\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{\beta}_0\right) = \beta_0$.

Proof for Slope

Recall that
$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x}) \cdot y_i}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
. So, we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{\beta}_{1}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x})y_{i}}{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}\right] = \frac{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x}) \cdot \mathbb{E}\left(y_{i}\right)}{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}, \quad \text{since the } x_{i}'s \text{ are known}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x}) \cdot \mathbb{E}\left(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}\right)}{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} = \sum_{i}c_{i}\left(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}\right), \text{ where } c_{i} = \frac{\left(x_{i} - \bar{x}\right)}{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}$$

$$= \beta_{0} \sum_{i}c_{i} + \beta_{1} \sum_{i}c_{i}x_{i} = \beta_{1}$$

where the last result is true since $\sum_i c_i = 0$, and $\sum_i c_i x_i = 1$.

Unbiasedness of LS Estimators

Proof for Intercept

Recall that $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$. So, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \mathbb{E}(\bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(\bar{y}) - \bar{x} \cdot \mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbb{E}(y_i) - \bar{x} \cdot \beta_1$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbb{E}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i) - \bar{x} \cdot \beta_1$$

$$= \beta_0 + \bar{x} \cdot \beta_1 - \bar{x} \cdot \beta_1 = \beta_0$$

MSE of LS Estimators

(*) Note that since both estimators are unbiased $\Rightarrow MSE = Variance$.

MSE for Slope

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}\left(\hat{\beta_1}\right) &= \text{Var}\left[\frac{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x}) y_i}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}\right] = \text{Var}\left(\sum_i c_i y_i\right) \text{ (c_i as before)} \\ &= \sum_i c_i^2 \cdot \text{Var}(y_i) = \sum_i c_i^2 \sigma^2 \text{ (from model assumption)} \\ &= \sigma^2 \cdot \left(\frac{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}\right)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{S_{xx}} \end{aligned}$$

MSE for Intercept

$$\mathsf{Var}\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}\right) = \mathsf{Var}\left(\bar{\mathtt{y}} - \hat{\beta}_{1}\bar{\mathtt{x}}\right) = \sigma^{2}\left(\frac{1}{\mathsf{n}} + \frac{\bar{\mathtt{x}}^{2}}{\mathsf{S}_{\mathsf{xx}}}\right)$$

Normal Error Regression Model

SLR Model

Model:
$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$
, $i = 1, ..., n$

Normality Assumption

Additionally, we assume that

$$arepsilon_i \sim^{iid} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

Equivalently, $y_i \sim^{iid} \mathcal{N}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i, \sigma^2)$. (Why?)

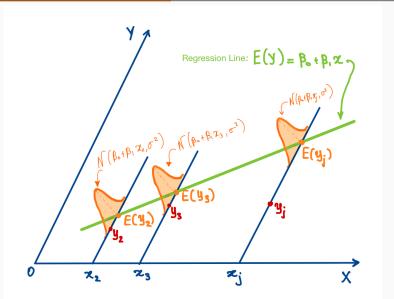
Normality Assumption

Recall that the error terms ε_i are *independent*, *normally distributed* with mean 0 and variance σ^2 . Based on that, we can prove the following properties for the y_i 's.

Properties of yi

- $\mathbb{E}(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$, since the ε_i 's have mean zero.
- y_i 's are independent, since ε_i 's are independent.
- $Var(y_i) = Var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$.
- y_i 's are a linear shift of the ε_i 's, so they are also normally distributed.
- The y_i 's are *jointly normal*, and so are linear combinations of the y_i 's, since the errors are normally distributed and uncorrelated/independen.

Normal Regression Model Illustration





Distribution of LS Estimators

- \hat{eta}_1 and \hat{eta}_0 are jointly normally distributed with

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_1) &= \beta_1 \quad \mathsf{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{\mathsf{S}_{\mathsf{XX}}} \\ \mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_0) &= \beta_0 \quad \mathsf{Var}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{\mathsf{n}} + \frac{\bar{\mathsf{x}}^2}{\mathsf{S}_{\mathsf{XX}}}\right) \\ \mathsf{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \ \hat{\beta}_0) &= -\sigma^2 \frac{\bar{\mathsf{X}}}{\mathsf{S}_{\mathsf{YX}}}. \end{split}$$

- $RSS = \sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \sim \sigma^2 \chi_{n-2}^2$ which implies that

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{RSS}{n-2}\right) = \frac{\sigma^2(n-2)}{n-2} = \sigma^2$$

- $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$ and RSS are *independent*.

Hypothesis Testing

Testing for the Slope

$$\begin{cases} H_0: \beta_1 = c \ (null) \\ H_\alpha: \beta_1 \neq c \ (alternative) \end{cases}$$

where c is an known constant.

- The test statistics is

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - c}{\sqrt{\mathsf{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1)}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - c}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$$

- The distribution of t under the null is T_{n-2} .
- The *p*-value is twice the area under the T_{n-2} distribution more extreme than the observed statistic t.

R ouputs the p-value for testing β_1 against 0, i.e. c=0.

Hypothesis Testing

Testing for the Intercept

$$\begin{cases} H_0: \beta_0 = c \ (null) \\ H_\alpha: \beta_0 \neq c \ (alternative) \end{cases}$$

- The test statistics is

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_0 - c}{\sqrt{\mathsf{Var}(\hat{\beta}_0)}}$$

- The distribution of t under the null is T_{n-2} .
- The *p*-value is twice the area under the T_{n-2} distribution more extreme than the observed statistic t.

R ouputs the p-value for testing β_0 against 0, i.e. c=0.

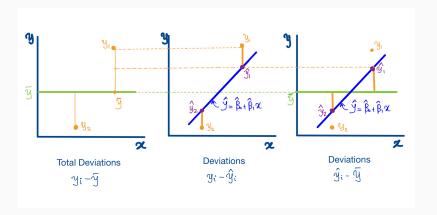
ANOVA Table & F-Test

Partitioning the Total Variation (Revisited)

Recall the decomposition of the Total Sum of Squares (TSS)

- $TSS = \sum_{i} (y_i \bar{y})^2$ is the measure of the total variation in ys: the greater TSS is, the more variation there is in the y values.
- $RSS = \sum_{i} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2$ measures the variation in the data using the stated regression model: the larger RSS is, the more y_i s vary around the estimated regression line.
- $FSS = \sum_{i} (\hat{y}_i \bar{y})^2$ measures how far the predicted center of each probability distribution is from the overall center of all y's together.

Partitioning the Total Variation (Revisited)



Breakdown of Degrees of Freedom

- $df_{TSS} = n 1$: one df is lost, because the sample mean is used to estimate the population mean.
- $df_{RSS} = n 2$: two df are lost, because the two parameters are estimated in obtaining the fitted values \hat{y} .
- $df_{FSS} = 1$: there are n deviations $\hat{y}_i \bar{y}$, but all the fitted values are associated with the same regression line.

$$df_{TSS} = df_{RSS} + df_{FSS}$$

Sum of Squares	Expression	df
TSS	$\sum_{i}(y_{i}-\bar{y})^{2}$	n – 1
FSS	$\sum_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$	1
RSS	$\sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$	n-2

ANOVA Table

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Regression (model)	FSS	1	$MSReg = \frac{FSS}{1}$	$F = \frac{MSReg}{MSE}$
Error	RSS	<i>n</i> – 2	$MSE = \frac{RSS}{n-2}$	
Total	TSS	n-1		

(*) The Mean Squares are *not* additive.

F-Test

An alternative way to test for the model parameters is using the F test:

$$\begin{cases} H_0: \beta_1 = 0 \\ H_\alpha: \beta_1 \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

- Under H_0 , the F-test statistic is

$$F = \frac{MSReg}{MSE} = \frac{FSS}{RSS/(n-2)} \sim F_{1,n-2}$$

It can be shown that the F-test statistic is equal to the square of the
t-test statistic and their p-values are the same. So, this test is equivalent
to the t-test before.

Estimation and Prediction

Estimation & Prediction at a New Case

The LS line can be used to obtain values of the response (Y^*) for given values of the predictor $(X = x^*)$. There are two variants of this problem¹:

- 1. Estimation: We want to estimate the mean response at x*. This is equivalent to estimate: $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x^*$
- 2. Prediction of an outcome of random variable Y^* at a given value x^* , where

$$Y^* \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x^*, \sigma^2)$$

The fitted value (or point estimate) for estimation and prediction are the same: $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x^*$. However the accuracy for estimation and the one for prediction are different.

 $^{^{1}}$ Estimation looks to get information from the data about a fixed but parameter, while prediction looks to get information about a random variable

Estimation of the Mean Response

- Accuracy of the estimation is measured by the expected value of the squared difference between the point estimate and the target.
- For estimation the target is $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x^*$:

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1}x^{*} - \beta_{0} - \beta_{1}x^{*}\right)^{2}$$

$$= \operatorname{Var}\left(\hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1}x^{*}\right)$$

$$= \operatorname{Var}\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}\right) + (x^{*})^{2}\operatorname{Var}\left(\hat{\beta}_{1}\right) + 2x^{*}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}, \hat{\beta}_{1}\right)$$

$$= \sigma^{2}\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^{*} - \bar{x})^{2}}{\sum_{i}(x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}\right)$$

$$= \sigma^{2}\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^{*} - \bar{x})^{2}}{S_{xx}}\right)$$

2

²Recall that all our calculations are done conditionally on x*

Confidence Interval for $\mathbb{E}(Y^*)$

- A confidence interval is always reported for a parameter. An $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ Confidence Interval for the *Mean Response* when $x = x_*$ is given by

$$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x^* \pm T_{n-2}(\alpha/2) \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}}}$$



- For prediction the target is $Y^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x^* + e^*$, where $e^* \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. This new error e^* is independent of the previous n data points, i.e. is independent of $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$

$$\begin{split} & \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1}x^{*} - Y^{*})^{2}] \\ & = \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1}x^{*} - \beta_{0} - \beta_{1}x^{*} - e^{*})^{2}] \\ & = \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1}x^{*} - \beta_{0} - \beta_{1}x^{*})^{2}] + \mathbb{E}[(e^{*})^{2}] \\ & = \sigma^{2}\left(1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^{*} - \bar{x})^{2}}{S_{XX}}\right) \end{split}$$



Prediction Interval

- A prediction interval is reported for the value of a random variable, for example, Y^* . An $(1-\alpha)100\%$ Prediction Interval for \hat{Y}^* when $x=x^*$ is given by

$$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x^* \pm T_{n-2}(\alpha/2) \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}}}$$



Remarks

- Based upon the $Var(\hat{Y}^*)$, the prediction interval is wider than the interval used to estimate the mean response at fixed $x = x^*$.
- So far, we have assumed that the x-levels are known constants. So, all the previous results hold if:
 - 1. f(y|x) are independent and normally distributed with mean $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ and variance σ^2 conditionally on x.
 - 2. x are independent with distribution $g(x_i)$ that does not depend on β_0 , β_1 , or σ^2 .



Association/Correlation vs Causation

 The statement "X causes Y" means that changing the value of X will change the distribution of Y. When X causes Y, X and Y will be associated, but the reverse is not, in general, true.

Association does not necessarily imply causation.

- If the data are from a randomized study, then the causal interpretation is correct.
- If the data are from a observational study, then the association interpretation is correct.