

Lecture Notes

Statistics for Data Science

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1 On Cramér-Rao's bound and MLE

Consider the log-likelihood function:

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f_{\theta}(X_i)$$

The MLE principle estimates the unknown parameter(s), given the observations, as the θ which maximizes $\ell(\theta)$. The log-likelihood takes its maximum at the zero's of its derivative, which is called the *score function*:

$$S(\theta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X_i)$$

Such a function is relevant beyond the maximization problem. It describes how much a change in θ results into a change of the density, or, equivalently, how much much informative¹ are the observations in estimating a parameter θ .

Let us introduce the random variables $Y_i = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X_i)$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$. The score function can be written as $S(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$. Since X_1, \dots, X_n are i.i.d., by the propagation of independence, this is also true for $Y_1 = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X_1), \dots, Y_n = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X_n)$. The expectation of each Y_i 's is zero (use Leibniz integral rule):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[Y_i] &= \int \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(x) \right) f_{\theta}(x) dx = \int \frac{1}{f_{\theta}(x)} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f_{\theta}(x) \right) f_{\theta}(x) dx \\ &= \int \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f_{\theta}(x) dx = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \int f_{\theta}(x) dx = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} 1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by linearity of expectation, we have:

$$\mathbb{E}[S(\theta)] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[Y_i] = 0$$

We resort then to the variance of $S(\theta)$ as a summary of the information provided by the random sample. The variance of $S(\theta)$ is called the *Fisher information*, and it is the quantity:

$$I(\theta) = \text{Var}(S(\theta)) = \mathbb{E}[S(\theta)^2]$$

It turns out^{2,3} that:

$$\begin{aligned} I(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[S(\theta)^2] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right)\left(\sum_{j=1}^n Y_j\right)\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n Y_i Y_j\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2\right] + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n \mathbb{E}[Y_i] \mathbb{E}[Y_j] \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

¹Recall that information is measured as $-\log f_{\theta}(X)$, i.e., events with small probability bring more information.

²(1) follows since $\mathbb{E}[Y_i Y_j] = \mathbb{E}[Y_i] \mathbb{E}[Y_j]$ for independent Y_i, Y_j .

³(2) follows since $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = 0$.

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2\right] + 0 \tag{2}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X_i)\right)^2\right]$$

$$= n\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X)\right)^2\right] \tag{3}$$

where $X \sim f_{\theta}$. **Important:** some textbooks define $I(\theta)$ using a single random variable, i.e., as $\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X)\right)^2\right]$. In such cases, it must be multiplied by n whenever it is used. We can now link Fisher information to the Cramér-Rao inequality from [1, Remark 20.2]:

$$\text{Var}(T) \geq \frac{1}{n\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X)\right)^2\right]} \quad \text{for all } \theta,$$

by observing that, using (3), the right-hand side is the inverse of $I(\theta)$, i.e.:

$$\text{Var}(T) \geq \frac{1}{n\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X)\right)^2\right]} = \frac{1}{I(\theta)} \quad \text{for all } \theta.$$

Example

The textbook [1, pages 324-325] shows that the unbiased MLE estimator of the mean μ of a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is $\bar{X}_n = (X_1 + \dots + X_n)/n$. Let $X \sim \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$. The Fisher information is:

$$\begin{aligned} I(\theta) &= n\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \log f_{\mu}(X)\right)^2\right] \\ &= n\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma^2}\right)^2\right] \\ &= \frac{n}{\sigma^4} \mathbb{E}\left[(X - \mu)^2\right] \\ &= \frac{n}{\sigma^4} \text{Var}(X) = \frac{n}{\sigma^4} \sigma^2 = \frac{n}{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n)} \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows because for i.i.d. random variables $\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \sigma^2/n$. By taking the reciprocals:

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{1}{I(\theta)}$$

we have that the lower bound of the Cramér-Rao inequality is reached, hence \bar{X}_n is a MVUE (Minimum Variance Unbiased Estimator).

Exercise

Show the following equivalent formulation:

$$I(\theta) = -n\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(X)\right]$$

2 Least Square Estimators in Simple Linear Regression

Consider the least square estimators:

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}\bar{x}_n \quad \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)(Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)}{SXX} \quad (4)$$

where $SXX = \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)^2$. Since $\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n) = 0$, we can rewrite $\hat{\beta}$ as:

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)Y_i - \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)\bar{Y}_n}{SXX} = \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)Y_i}{SXX} \quad (5)$$

2.1 Expectation

$\hat{\beta}$ is an unbiased estimator:

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{\beta}] &= \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)E[Y_i]}{SXX} \\ &= \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)(\alpha + \beta x_i)}{SXX} \\ &= \frac{\beta \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)x_i}{SXX} = \beta \end{aligned}$$

where the last step follows since $\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)x_i = \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)x_i - \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)\bar{x} = SXX$. See the textbook [1, page 331] for a proof that $\hat{\alpha}$ is also unbiased, and [1, Exercise 22.12] for a different proof for $\hat{\beta}$.

2.2 Variance and Standard Errors of the Coefficients

We calculate:

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)^2 \text{Var}(Y_i)}{SXX^2} = \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)^2}{SXX^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{SXX} \quad (6)$$

and:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{\alpha}) &= \text{Var}(\bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}\bar{x}_n) \\ &= \text{Var}(\bar{Y}_n) + \bar{x}_n^2 \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) - 2\bar{x}_n \text{Cov}(\bar{Y}_n, \hat{\beta}) \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \bar{x}_n^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{SXX} - 0 = \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}_n^2}{SXX} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

The covariance in the formula is zero because (recall that Y_1, \dots, Y_n are independent):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\bar{Y}_n, \hat{\beta}) &= \text{Cov}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_1^n Y_i, \frac{\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)Y_i}{SXX}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{nSXX} \text{Cov}\left(\sum_1^n Y_i, \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)Y_i\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{nSXX} \sum_1^n \text{Cov}(Y_i, (x_i - \bar{x}_n)Y_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{nSXX} \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n) \text{Var}(Y_i) = \frac{\sigma^2 \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)}{nSXX} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The *standard errors* of the coefficient estimators are defined as the estimates of the standard deviations (see (6) and (7)):

$$se(\hat{\alpha}) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}_n^2}{SXX}\right)} \quad se(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{SXX}} \quad (8)$$

where:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_1^n (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2 \quad (9)$$

is the (unbiased) estimate of σ^2 (see [1, page 332]).

2.3 Variance-Covariance Matrix

The variance-covariance matrix is:

$$\begin{pmatrix} Var(\hat{\alpha}) & Cov(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) \\ Cov(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\alpha}) & Var(\hat{\beta}) \end{pmatrix}$$

where the unknown value σ^2 is replaced with the estimate $\hat{\sigma}^2$ from (9). The standard errors can be obtained from the square roots of the diagonal elements⁴ The matrix is symmetric, as covariance is symmetric. Moreover, we calculate:

$$\begin{aligned} Cov(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) &= Cov(\bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}\bar{x}_n, \hat{\beta}) \\ &= Cov(\bar{Y}_n, \hat{\beta}) - \bar{x}_n Cov(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\beta}) \\ &= -\bar{x}_n Var(\hat{\beta}) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

2.4 Variance and Standard Errors of Fitted Values

For a given value of the explanatory variable, say x_0 , the estimator $\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_0$ has expectation $E[\hat{Y}] = E[\hat{\alpha}] + E[\hat{\beta}]x_0 = \alpha + \beta x_0$. Hence, \hat{Y} is unbiased and $\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_0$ is then the best estimate for the fitted value. We can compute the variance of \hat{Y} as:

$$\begin{aligned} Var(\hat{Y}) &= Var(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_0) \\ &= Var(\hat{\alpha}) + x_0^2 Var(\hat{\beta}) + 2x_0 Cov(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) \\ &= Var(\hat{\alpha}) + (x_0^2 - 2x_0\bar{x}_n) Var(\hat{\beta}) \\ &= \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}_n^2}{SXX}\right) + \frac{(x_0^2 - 2x_0\bar{x}_n)\sigma^2}{SXX} \\ &= \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{x}_n - x_0)^2}{SXX}\right) \end{aligned}$$

where $Cov(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$ has been simplified based on (10). The *standard error* of the fitted value is then the estimate:

$$se(\hat{y}) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{x}_n - x_0)^2}{SXX}\right)} \quad (11)$$

⁴In R, with the expression `sqrt(diag(vcov(fit)))` where `fit` is the linear model.

3 Confidence Intervals for Simple Linear Regression

In this section, we make the *normality assumption* that $U_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ in the simple linear regression model [1, page 257]:

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + U_i$$

A fortiori, we have $Y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha + \beta x_i, \sigma^2)$.

3.1 Confidence Intervals of the Coefficients

By (5), the estimator $\hat{\beta}$ is a linear combination of the Y_i 's, hence it has normal distribution as well. By Sections 1.1 and 1.2, it must be that:

$$\hat{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta, \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}))$$

where the variance $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta})$ given in (6) is unknown because σ^2 is unknown. The studentized statistics:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\beta})}} \sim t(n-2) \quad (12)$$

has a t-student distribution with $n-2$ degrees of freedom ($n-2$ because 2 parameters are already estimated). The proof of this fact can be found in [2, page 45]. Hence:

$$P\left(-t_{n-2,0.025} \leq \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\beta})}} \leq t_{n-2,0.025}\right) = 0.95$$

where $t_{n-2,0.025}$ is the critical value of $t(n-2)$ at 0.025. Hence, a 95% confidence interval is:

$$\hat{\beta} \pm t_{n-2,0.025} se(\hat{\beta})$$

where $se(\hat{\beta})$ is the standard error of $\hat{\beta}$ from (8). By following the same reasoning, we obtain the confidence intervals for α :

$$\hat{\alpha} \pm t_{n-2,0.025} se(\hat{\alpha})$$

where $se(\hat{\alpha})$ is the standard error of $\hat{\alpha}$ from (8).

3.2 Confidence and Prediction Intervals of the Fitted Values

Analogously to the previous subsection, for a fitted value $\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_0$, a 95% *confidence interval* is:

$$\hat{y} \pm t_{n-2,0.025} se(\hat{Y})$$

where $se(\hat{y})$ is from (11). In particular, this interval concerns *the expectation of fitted values* at x_0 . For example, we could conclude that the mean of predicted values at x_0 is between $\hat{y} - t_{n-2,0.025} se(\hat{y})$ and $\hat{y} + t_{n-2,0.025} se(\hat{y})$. For a given single prediction, we must also account for the variance of the error term U in:

$$\hat{V} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_0 + U$$

Let us assume that $U \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$. By reasoning as in Section 1.3, it can be shown that $\text{Var}(\hat{V}) = \sigma^2\left(1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{x}_n - x_0)^2}{SXX}\right)$, and then by defining:

$$se(\hat{v}) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{x}_n - x_0)^2}{SXX}\right)}$$

we have that the *prediction interval* is:

$$\hat{y} \pm t_{n-2,0.025}se(\hat{v})$$

In this case, we could conclude that the specific predicted value at x_0 is on between $\hat{y} - t_{n-2,0.025}se(\hat{v})$ and $\hat{y} + t_{n-2,0.025}se(\hat{v})$.

3.3 Hypothesis Testing

Consider now the two-tailed test of hypothesis:

$$H_0 : \beta = 0 \quad H_1 : \beta \neq 0$$

The p-value of observing $|\hat{\beta}|$ or a greater value under the null hypothesis, can be calculated from (12) as:

$$p = P(|T| > |t|) = 2 \cdot P\left(T > \left| \frac{\hat{\beta} - 0}{se(\hat{\beta})} \right|\right)$$

for $T \sim t(n-2)$. Hence, H_0 can be rejected in favor of H_1 at significance level of 0.05, i.e. $p < 0.05$, if $|t| > t_{n-2,0.025}$. A similar approach applies to the intercept.

4 Statistical Decision Theory

This section will be added later on.

References

- [1] F.M. Dekking, C. Kraaikamp, H.P. Lopuhaä, and L.E. Meester. *A Modern Introduction to Probability and Statistics*. Springer, 2005.
- [2] M. H. Kutner, C. J. Nachtsheim, J. Neter, and Li W. *Applied Linear Statistical Models*. 5th edition, 2005.