ESTIMATION — SOME EXAMPLES

1. The simple linear regression model

Recall that in this model, we have some non-random design points $x_1 < \cdots < x_n$ with $n \ge 3$, we observe some random variables Y_1, \ldots, Y_n , and the model says that for some real a and b and some ε_i i.i.d. $N(0, \sigma^2)$ for some unknown $\sigma > 0$, we have

(1)
$$Y_j = a + bx_j + \varepsilon_j, \quad j = 1, ..., n.$$

In y-on-x regression, one estimates a and b by minimizing

 $\sum_{j=1}^{n} (Y_j - a - bx_j)^2$. Gauss was apparently the first to show (in 1809) that maximum likelihood estimation, using the assumption on the ε_j , gives the same estimates of a and b. It also gives us a way of estimating σ^2 .

Theorem 1. (a) Maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters in the model (1) gives the same estimates of a and b as does y-on-x least squares regression.

(b) Let S be the minimum with respect to a and b of $\sum_{j=1}^{n} (Y_j - a - bx_j)^2$. Then the maximum likelihood estimate of σ^2 is S/n.

Proof. The model (1) gives that $\varepsilon_j = Y_j - a - bx_j$ are i.i.d. $N(0, \sigma^2)$, so for given x_j and Y_j the likelihood as a function of a, b, and σ^2 is

(2)
$$(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^{-n}\prod_{j=1}^{n}\exp\left(-\frac{(Y_j-a-bx_j)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
$$=(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^{-n}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{j=1}^{n}(Y_j-a-bx_j)^2\right)$$

For any fixed $\sigma > 0$, this is maximized by minimizing the sum in the exponent, proving part (a). By the assumption on the x_j we know that $s_x^2 > 0$, and that the estimates \hat{a} of a and \hat{b} of b satisfy $\overline{Y} = \hat{a} + \hat{b}\overline{x}$. The estimated slope \hat{b} equals

(3)
$$\widehat{b} = \operatorname{scov}(x, Y) / s_x^2.$$

The minimum value S is attained for this value of \hat{b} and $\hat{a} = \overline{Y} - \hat{b}\overline{x}$. For n = 2 we will definitely have S = 0 since for $x_1 < x_2$ there is a

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line through (x_j, Y_j) for j = 1 and 2, but for $n \ge 3$ as we assumed, it will be shown that S > 0. In the expression that was minimized with respect to b to evaluate b, if S = 0 we would have for $b = \hat{b}$

$$0 = (n-1)\left[s_Y^2 - \frac{2\operatorname{scov}(x,Y)^2}{s_x^2} + \frac{(\operatorname{scov}(x,Y))^2}{s_x^2}\right] = s_Y^2 - \frac{\operatorname{scov}(x,Y)^2}{s_x^2}.$$

It follows that

(4)
$$\operatorname{scov}(x,Y)^2 = s_x^2 s_Y^2.$$

For each j = 1, ..., n we have $Y_j = a + bx_j + \varepsilon_j$, and so $\overline{Y} = a + b\overline{x} + \overline{\varepsilon}$ and

(5)
$$Y_j - \overline{Y} = b(x_j - \overline{x}) + \varepsilon_j - \overline{\varepsilon}$$

For all three of the vectors $\xi = \{\xi_j\}_{j=1}^n$ being considered, $\xi = Y$, x, or ε , we have $\sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j - \overline{\xi} = 0$. $\{x_j - \overline{x}\}_{j=1}^n$ is a fixed vector, but $\{\varepsilon_j - \overline{\varepsilon}\}_{j=1}^n$ has a distribution all over the (n-1)-dimensional hyperplane

$$\mathbb{R}^n_0 := \{\{\eta_j\}_{j=1}^n : \sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j = 0\},\$$

where $n-1 \ge 2$ since $n \ge 3$.

We can view scov(x, Y) as the dot product of the fixed vector $\{x_j - \overline{x}\}_{j=1}^n$ and the random vector $\{Y_j - \overline{Y}\}_{j=1}^n$.

Now $\hat{b} = 0$ is equivalent by (3) and (4) to $s_Y^2 = 0$ and so to equality of all Y_j , but then by (5), $\{\varepsilon_j - \overline{\varepsilon}\}_{j=1}^n$ is a multiple of the fixed vector $\{x_j - \overline{x}\}_{j=1}^n$, which occurs with probability 0 (even though *b* is a random variable) since $n \geq 3$.

So with probability 1, $\hat{b} \neq 0$, $\operatorname{scov}(x, Y) \neq 0$ and $s_Y^2 > 0$. But then (4) implies that the two vectors $\{Y_j - \overline{Y}\}_{j=1}^n$ and $\{x_j - \overline{x}\}_{j=1}^n$ are proportional, which by (5) implies that so are $\{\varepsilon_j - \overline{\varepsilon}\}_{j=1}^n$ and $\{x_j - \overline{x}\}_{j=1}^n$, which occurs only with probability 0 since the latter is a fixed vector and the former is distributed over the n - 1-dimensional subspace \mathbb{R}_0^n . It follows that S > 0 with probability 1.

Then to maximize with respect to σ , since the (natural) logarithm is a strictly increasing, differentiable function, is equivalent to maximizing

(6)
$$-(n/2)\log(2\pi) - n\log(\sigma) - \frac{S}{2\sigma^2}.$$

We have $s_x > 0$ and with probability 1, $s_Y > 0$ and S > 0. So (6) goes to $-\infty$ as $\sigma \downarrow 0$. It also goes to $-\infty$ as $\sigma \uparrow +\infty$. So to find a maximum in the interior $0 < \sigma < +\infty$ we can differentiate (6) with respect to σ , giving $-n/\sigma + S/\sigma^3$, or $\sigma^2 = S/n$, proving (b).

2. Estimating parameters of gamma distributions

For $0 < \alpha < \infty$ and $0 < \lambda < \infty$ the $\Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$ distribution has the density

$$f_{\alpha,\lambda}(x) = \lambda^{\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} / \Gamma(\alpha)$$

for x > 0 and 0 for $x \le 0$, where the gamma function is defined by

$$\Gamma(a) = \int_0^\infty x^{a-1} e^{-x} dx.$$

Suppose we've observed $X_1, ..., X_n$ i.i.d. with a $\Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$ density and want to estimate the parameters α and λ . The likelihood function is

$$f(X,\alpha,\lambda) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \lambda^{\alpha} X_{j}^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda X_{j}} / \Gamma(\alpha) = \lambda^{n\alpha} T_{n}^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\lambda S_{n}) / \Gamma(\alpha)^{n}$$

where $T_n = \prod_{j=1}^n X_j$ and $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$. To maximize this is equivalent to maximizing its log, as $\log(\cdot)$ is an increasing function. The log is $LL(X, \alpha, \lambda)$ defined by

(7)
$$n\alpha \log(\lambda) + (\alpha - 1) \log(T_n) - \lambda S_n - n \log \Gamma(\alpha).$$

First, for any given $\alpha > 0$, let's look for a maximum with respect to λ . $LL(X, \alpha, \lambda) \to -\infty$ as $\lambda \downarrow 0$. The gamma distribution implies that all $X_j > 0$ with probability 1, and so $S_n > 0$, which implies that $LL(X, \alpha, \lambda) \to -\infty$ as $\lambda \to +\infty$. So we're looking for an interior maximum with respect to λ given α , for which we set

$$0 = \partial LL(X, \alpha, \lambda) / \partial \lambda = n\alpha / \lambda - S_n,$$

which gives $\alpha/\lambda = S_n/n = \overline{X}$, or $\lambda = \alpha/\overline{X}$. Note that the expectation of X_1 is α/λ , so setting this equal to \overline{X} is as in the method of moments.

So let's plug $\lambda = \alpha / \overline{X}$ into (7), giving

$$n\alpha \log(\alpha/\overline{X}) + (\alpha - 1)\log(T_n) - (\alpha/\overline{X})S_n - n\log\Gamma(\alpha)$$

(8)
$$= n\alpha[\log(\alpha) - \log(\overline{X})] + (\alpha - 1)\log(T_n) - n\alpha - n\log\Gamma(\alpha).$$

This quantity goes to $-\infty$ as $\alpha \to +\infty$ because $\log(\Gamma(\alpha))$ via a Stirling formula for the gamma function is asymptotic to $(\alpha - \frac{1}{2}) \log(\alpha)$, so terms $\pm n\alpha \log(\alpha)$ cancel and leave $-n\alpha$ as the dominant term.

As $\alpha \downarrow 0$ we can see how $\Gamma(\alpha)$ behaves as follows. We have the recurrence formula $\Gamma(\alpha+1) \equiv \alpha \Gamma(\alpha)$ which one gets by integrating by parts in the definition of gamma function. We have $\Gamma(1) = 0! = 1$, and the gamma function is continuous in a neighborhood of 1. Thus as $\alpha \downarrow 0$, $\alpha \Gamma(\alpha) = \Gamma(\alpha+1)$ converges to 1, and

$$\log(\Gamma(\alpha)) + \log(\alpha) = \log(\Gamma(\alpha) - \log(1/\alpha) \to 0,$$

so $\log(\Gamma(\alpha)) \to +\infty$, and (8) goes to $-\infty$. So to look for an interior maximum, differentiating (8) with respect to α gives

$$n[\log(\alpha) - \log(\overline{X})] + n + \log(T_n) - n - n\Gamma'(\alpha)/\Gamma(\alpha)$$
$$= n[\log(\alpha) - \log(\overline{X})] + \log(T_n) - n\Gamma'(\alpha)/\Gamma(\alpha).$$

Setting this equal to 0 doesn't give a nice closed-form solution. The function $\Gamma'(\alpha)/\Gamma(\alpha)$ is called digamma(α). R has this function, but still, it takes some numerical search work to find the maximum of (8).

So it's much easier to estimate α and λ by the method of moments.

3. A DISASTER FOR UNBIASED ESTIMATION

Suppose one can observe a positive integer-valued random variable X which has a Poisson(λ) distribution conditional on X > 0. This might be the number of radioactive decay particles of a certain type emitted by a sample of matter. If the number was 0, it could be either that the sample is not radioactive, or that it is, but the number X happened to be 0. So there could be interest in estimating $e^{-\lambda}$, the probability of 0 for a Poisson(λ) distribution.

It will be shown that given X = k for $k \ge 1$, there is a unique unbiased estimator of $e^{-\lambda}$, and it is $(-1)^{k+1}$.

Let $T_k = T(k)$ be the value of an unbiased estimator of $e^{-\lambda}$ when X = k for $k \ge 1$. We have

$$\Pr(X = k | X > 0) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k! (1 - e^{-\lambda})}.$$

Thus unbiasedness says

$$e^{-\lambda} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} T_k \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k! (1 - e^{-\lambda})},$$

or equivalently

$$1 - e^{-\lambda} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} T_k \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}.$$

If two power series represent the same function, their coefficients must be equal. So the Taylor series of $e^{-\lambda}$ gives $(-1)^{k+1} = T_k$ for all $k \ge 1$. This is an absurd estimator. A reasonable estimator of $e^{-\lambda}$ should give a number between 0 and 1 which is small when X is large. So unbiasedness may not be a good way to choose an estimator.

4. Notes on history

Stigler (1974) wrote a historical paper on regression (even polynomial regression), and gives a reference to Gauss (1809). Stigler, himself a statistician, has published a number of other works on history of statistics.

REFERENCES

Gauss, Carl Friedrich (1809). Theorie motus corporum coelestium. Translated as Theory of motion of Heavenly Bodies Moving About the Sun in Conic Sections. Repr. 1963, Dover, New York.

Stigler, Stephen M. (1974). Gergonne's 1815 paper on the design and analysis of polynomial regression experiments. *Historia Mathematica* **1**, 431-447.