

# STAT 420: Methods of Applied Statistics

## Multiple Linear Regression

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Ruoqing Zhu, Ph.D. <[rqzhu@illinois.edu](mailto:rqzhu@illinois.edu)>

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University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign  
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# Multiple Linear Regression

- Usually a linear regression is perform a number of predictor:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \cdots + \beta_p X_p + \epsilon.$$

- The techniques that we used earlier on simple linear regression can still be applied, but the calculation becomes very tedious.
- We have to setup  $p + 1$  equations (taking derivatives of the SSE) and jointly solve for the optimizer.
- We are going to introduce a matrix representation of the solution that makes things easier.
- The distribution of the estimator will also be derived, which makes hypothesis testing possible.

# Matrix representation

- The data that we have (from  $n$  such experiments) can be summarized into the following matrices:

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}_{n \times 1} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ 1 & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{pmatrix}_{n \times (p+1)}$$

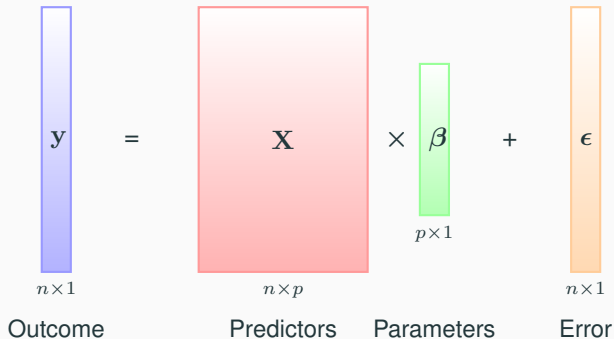
- The parameter vector  $\beta$  that we are interested has  $p + 1$  entries:

$$\beta_{(p+1) \times 1} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^\top$$

- The linear regression can be represented as

$$\mathbf{y}_{n \times 1} = \mathbf{X}_{n \times p} \beta_{p \times 1} + \epsilon_{n \times 1}$$

# Matrix representation



The diagram illustrates the matrix representation of a linear regression model. It features four main components arranged horizontally, separated by mathematical operators. On the left is a blue vertical rectangle labeled  $y$  with dimensions  $n \times 1$  below it and the word 'Outcome' below that. To its right is an equals sign. Next is a large red rectangle labeled  $X$  with dimensions  $n \times p$  below it and the word 'Predictors' below that. To its right is a multiplication symbol. Next is a green vertical rectangle labeled  $\beta$  with dimensions  $p \times 1$  below it and the word 'Parameters' below that. To its right is a plus sign. Finally, on the far right, is an orange vertical rectangle labeled  $\epsilon$  with dimensions  $n \times 1$  below it and the word 'Error' below that.

$$\begin{matrix} y \\ n \times 1 \\ \text{Outcome} \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} X \\ n \times p \\ \text{Predictors} \end{matrix} \times \begin{matrix} \beta \\ p \times 1 \\ \text{Parameters} \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} \epsilon \\ n \times 1 \\ \text{Error} \end{matrix}$$

## To clarify some notations

	Random Variable	Realization	Estimation
Outcome	$Y$	$y$	$\hat{y}, \bar{y}$
Outcome of $n$ samples	$\mathbf{Y}$	$\mathbf{y}$	$\hat{\mathbf{y}}$
Predictor	$X, X_1, \dots, X_p,$	$x, x_i, x_{ij}$	
Predictor of $n$ samples		$\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{x}_j$	
Coefficients			$\hat{\beta}$
Error	$\epsilon$		
Error of $n$ samples	$\epsilon$		$\mathbf{e}$

- We can still calculate the sum of squared errors (SSE), based on any proposed  $\beta$  estimation

$$\begin{aligned}\text{SSE} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^T \hat{\beta})^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}\|_2^2,\end{aligned}$$

where  $x_i$  is the  $i$ th row of the design matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ , and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  is called the  $\ell_2$ -norm (Euclidean norm):

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2} = \sqrt{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}, \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mathbf{a}\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}$$

- We need to minimize the SSE

# Matrix representation

- Again, we take derivative of the SSE and obtain a  $p + 1$  dimensional vector

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \text{SSE}}{\partial \beta} &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - x_i^\top \hat{\beta}) \\ &= 2 \left( \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \hat{\beta} \right).\end{aligned}$$

- Setting the above to be 0, we have  $p + 1$  equations represented in the matrix form:

$$\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \hat{\beta},$$

which is called the **normal equations**.

- Validate that this is exactly the equations we had for the simple linear regression ( $p = 1$  case). What is the design matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ ?
- **How to solve this?**

- In most of the cases  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is a **positive definite** matrix, this means we can multiple  $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}$  on both sides of the normal equations and obtain

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} &= (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \\ \implies (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} &= \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\end{aligned}$$

which gives us the solution.

- Why  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is usually positive definite? What if it is not? — The column vectors of  $\mathbf{X}$  will be linearly dependent. This causes trouble...



## Example

ID	Intercept	$X_1$	$X_2$	$Y$
1	1	0	1	11
2	1	11	5	15
3	1	11	4	13
4	1	7	3	14
5	1	4	1	0
6	1	10	4	19
7	1	5	4	16
8	1	8	2	8

- Setup the design matrix and response vector
- Perform MLR using solutions to the normal equation.

# Example 1

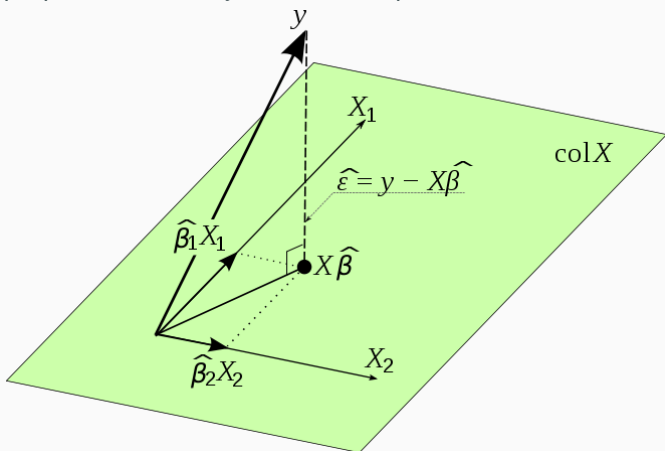
```
1 > # set up the design matrix:
2 > X1 = c(0, 11, 11, 7, 4, 10, 5, 8)
3 > X2 = c(1, 5, 4, 3, 1, 4, 4, 2)
4 >
5 > X = cbind("Intercept" = 1, X1, X2)
6 >
7 > y = as.matrix(c(11, 15, 13, 14, 0, 19, 16, 8))
8
9 > # the final solution of beta
10 > solve(t(X) %*% X) %*% t(X) %*% y
11      [,1]
12 Intercept 3.7
13 X1      -0.7
14 X2       4.4
```

# Example 1

```
1 > # check it with lm(), by default, the intercept term will be
   included
2 >
3 > lm(y ~ X1 + X2)
4
5 Call:
6 lm(formula = y ~ X1 + X2)
7
8 Coefficients:
9 (Intercept)      X1      X2
10          3.7    -0.7     4.4
```

# Geometric interpretation

- Linear regression can be viewed as projecting the vector  $y$  onto a hyperplane defined by the column space of  $X$



# Geometric interpretation

- The column vectors of  $\mathbf{X}$  are

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{21} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n1} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_{12} \\ x_{22} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n2} \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} x_{np} \\ x_{np} \\ \vdots \\ x_{np} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Any element in the column space  $\text{col}(\mathbf{X})$  of  $\mathbf{X}$  can be expressed as their linear combinations:

$$\beta_0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \beta_1 \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{21} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n1} \end{pmatrix} + \beta_2 \begin{pmatrix} x_{12} \\ x_{22} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n2} \end{pmatrix} + \dots + \beta_p \begin{pmatrix} x_{np} \\ x_{np} \\ \vdots \\ x_{np} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

- Among all these kind of linear combinations (search through the entire column space of  $\mathbf{X}$ , namely  $\text{col}(\mathbf{X})$ ), find the one closest to  $\mathbf{y}$ .
- How to define “closest”? — Euclidean distance, the  $\ell_2$  norm.
- This is the same as **projecting** the vector  $\mathbf{y}$  onto the space  $\text{col}(\mathbf{X})$  (shown in the previous plot).
- The projection is  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ , and the remaining part  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$  will be orthogonal to the space  $\text{col}(\mathbf{X})$ .
- There are some easy ways to calculate this project.

## Special case: orthogonal design matrix

- Usually it is difficult to calculate the inverse matrix ( $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ ), however, there is a special case when  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  is an diagonal matrix, i.e., only the diagonal elements are non-zero.
- This happens when the columns of  $\mathbf{X}$  are orthogonal to each other.
- An example:

Intercept	$X_1$	$X_2$	$Y$
1	1	1	1
1	1	-1	2
1	-1	1	3
1	-1	-1	4

- Calculate the regression coefficients **by hand**.

## Hand calculation of the $\hat{\beta}$

- We first get  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ , which is a diagonal matrix

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The inverse of that is just taking the inverse of each element:

$$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/4 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Multiple that to the  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$ , we have

$$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2.5 \\ -1 \\ -0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

- However, you can check that this is a **perfect fit**, meaning that  $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{y}$  exactly, which not good...



# Geometric interpretation

- Let  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top$  be a projection matrix referred to as the “hat” matrix

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y}$$

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y}$$

- $\mathbf{H}$  is idempotent:  $\mathbf{H}$  is symmetric and  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}$

## Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{H}^\top &= (\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top)^\top \\ &= \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top = \mathbf{H} \\ \mathbf{H}\mathbf{H} &= \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \\ &= \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top = \mathbf{H}\end{aligned}$$



## Example

- Load the `cheddar` data, model `taste` using all three covaraites (with intercept): Acetic, H2S and Lactic.
- Calculate the following quantities to perform MLR:
  - $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ , and check if it is positive definite
  - The parameter estimates  $\hat{\beta}$
  - $\mathbf{H}$ , calculate SSE and  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ , what is the degrees of freedom?
  - The coefficient of determination  $R^2$

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- If a researcher wants to use at most 2 covariates, which is the best model?

A: Acetic + H2S;    B: H2S + Lactic;    C: Acetic + Lactic

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- **Question:** Will MLR with  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  always outperforms the model using  $X_1$  only?

# The sum of squares

- Recall that  $SST = SSR + SSE$

$$SST = \|\mathbf{y} - \bar{y}\mathbf{1}\|_2^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}SSE &= \|(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y}\|_2^2 = \mathbf{y}^\top (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})^\top (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{y}^\top (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) \mathbf{y}\end{aligned}$$

$$SSR = \|\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \bar{y}\mathbf{1}\|_2^2$$

- $\mathbf{1}$  is a vector of length  $n$ , with each element being 1.
- $SST$  resides in  $n - 1$  dimensions;  $SSE$  in  $n - p - 1$  dimensions;  $SSR$  in  $p$  dimensions.
- Careful:** Sometimes people count the intercept as one of the  $p$  dimensions, we didn't.