SMIII lectures

Week 1

Linear Regression

Multiple Linear Regression

Notation

- We will use the convention of representing random variables by uppercase letters, e.g. Y, and realisations of random variables by the corresponding lowercase letters, e.g. y.
- In this course we will make extensive use of random vectors and occasional use of random matrices.
- Throughout, we will consider variables for which means and variances exist.

Random vectors

Definition 1.1

A random vector is a vector of random variables. For example,

$$oldsymbol{Y} = egin{pmatrix} Y_1 \ Y_2 \ dots \ Y_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

For the random vector Y we define the mean vector, η , by

$$\boldsymbol{\eta} = E(\boldsymbol{Y}) = \begin{pmatrix} E(Y_1) \\ E(Y_2) \\ \vdots \\ E(Y_n) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \eta_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

The variance matrix is defined by

$$Var(\mathbf{Y}) = \Sigma = [\sigma_{ij}]$$

where

$$\sigma_{ij} = \begin{cases} cov(Y_i, Y_j) & \text{for } i \neq j, \\ var(Y_i) & \text{for } i = j. \end{cases}$$

Random matrix

A random matrix can also be defined to be a matrix of random variables,

$$\mathbf{y} = [Y_{ij}]$$

and we will use the convention

$$E(\mathbf{y}) = [E(Y_{ij})].$$

Note that we will not need to define the variance structure for random matrices.

Linear transformations

Lemma 1.1

Suppose Y is a random vector with $E(Y) = \eta$ and $Var(Y) = \Sigma$ and let $A_{m \times n}$ and $b_{m \times 1}$ be fixed. Then

$$E(AY + b) = A\eta + b$$
 and $Var(AY + b) = A\Sigma A^{T}$.

If \mathcal{Y} is a random matrix and A is a fixed matrix then

$$E(A\mathbf{y}) = AE(\mathbf{y}).$$

Normal distribution

In this course, we will use the notation,

$$\boldsymbol{Y} \sim N_r(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

to indicate that the r-dimensional random vector Y has the r-dimensional multivariate normal distribution with mean vector μ and variance matrix Σ .

Normal distribution results

Lemma 1.2

If $Y \sim N_r(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ and $A_{k \times r}$ and $\boldsymbol{b}_{k \times 1}$ are fixed then

$$AY + b \sim N_k(A\mu + b, A\Sigma A^T).$$

If $Y \sim N_r(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ and $\boldsymbol{a}_{r \times 1}$ is fixed, then

$$\boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{Y} \sim N(\boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{a}).$$

Multiple regression

- The regression model is used to model the dependence between a predictor variable x and a response variable Y.
- In general, there may be several predictor variables x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_r and single response Y.
- In this case the *multiple regression* model may be used to model the simultaneous influence of the predictors.

2

Notation

Consider data,

$$(y_1, x_{11}, x_{12}, \dots, x_{1r})$$

 $(y_2, x_{21}, x_{22}, \dots, x_{2r})$
 \dots
 $(y_n, x_{n1}, x_{n2}, \dots, x_{nr})$

Multiple regression model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_r x_{ir} + e_i$$

where e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n are realisations of independent random variables $\mathcal{E}_1, \mathcal{E}_2, \dots, \mathcal{E}_n$ with

$$E(\mathcal{E}_i) = 0$$
 and $var(\mathcal{E}_i) = \sigma^2$.

Alternative forms

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_r x_{ir} + e_i$$

with e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n i.i.d. $N(0, \sigma^2)$ as an abbreviation for the random variable formulation given above.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_r x_{ir} + \mathcal{E}_i$$

Matrix Formulation

Let

$$\boldsymbol{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1r} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2r} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \dots & x_{nr} \end{pmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_r \end{pmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{E}_1 \\ \mathcal{E}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathcal{E}_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

The multiple regression model can then be formulated as

$$y = X\beta + e$$

or, in terms of random variables,

$$Y = X\beta + \mathcal{E}$$

with

$$E(\mathbf{\mathcal{E}}) = \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Var(\mathbf{\mathcal{E}}) = \sigma^2 I_{n \times n}$.

The additional assumption of normality is then formulated as

$$\mathcal{E} \sim N_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 I).$$

Linear Independence

Definition 1.2

A set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}$ is said to be linearly independent if

$$\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \ldots + \alpha_p \mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \ldots = \alpha_p = 0.$$

Otherwise it is said to be linearly dependent.

Remark

When v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_p are linearly dependent it means that one of the v_i 's is expressible as a linear combination of the remaining v's.

Identifiability

Consider the multiple regression model

$$y = X\beta + e$$
.

We require that the columns of X be linearly independent.

Proof

To see why this is necessary, suppose the columns were linearly dependent. Then we could find a non-zero vector

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r)^T$$

such that

$$X\alpha = 0.$$

If a non-zero vector α satisfies $X\alpha = 0$, then β would not be uniquely identified since we would have

$$X\beta = X(\beta + \alpha).$$

On the other hand, if the columns of X are linearly independent, we have

$$X\alpha = 0 \Leftrightarrow \alpha = 0$$

so β is uniquely identified.

Linear least squares

Definition 1.3

The least squares estimate, $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is the vector that minimises the sum of squares

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\boldsymbol{y} - X\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2.$$

The variance σ^2 is estimated by

$$s_e^2 = \frac{1}{n-p} \sum_{i=1}^n \{ y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_r x_{ir}) \}^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{n-p} \| \mathbf{y} - X \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|^2.$$

where p = r + 1 is the number of columns of X.

Theorem 1.1

If the columns of X are linearly independent then the least squares estimates are given uniquely by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \boldsymbol{y}.$$

Fitted values

The vector of fitted values is defined by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\eta}} = X\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T\boldsymbol{y} = P\boldsymbol{y}$$

where $P = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$.

Alternative notation

- Alternative notation: $H = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$.
- For reasons to be discussed later, the $n \times n$ matrix P is called an orthogonal projection matrix.
- The elementary statistical properties of $\hat{\beta}$ and s_e^2 are summarised in the following theorem.

Theorem 1.2

Suppose

$$Y = X\beta + \mathcal{E}$$

where

$$E(\mathcal{E}) = \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Var(\mathcal{E}) = \sigma^2 I$.

•
$$E(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \boldsymbol{\beta}$$
.

•
$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2(X^T X)^{-1}$$

•
$$E(s_e^2) = \sigma^2$$
.

Proof

Proof of $E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$.

$$E(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = E((X^T X)^{-1} X^T \boldsymbol{Y})$$
$$= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T E(\boldsymbol{Y})$$
$$= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T X \boldsymbol{\beta}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Proof of $Var(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1}$.

$$Var(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = Var((X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T}\boldsymbol{Y})$$

$$= (X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T} Var(\boldsymbol{Y})\{(X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T}\}^{T}$$

$$= (X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T}\sigma^{2}IX(X^{T}X)^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T}X(X^{T}X)^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(X^{T}X)^{-1}$$

Proof of $E(s_e^2) = \sigma^2$.

Observe first that if $P = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$, then

•
$$P^2 = P^T = P$$
:

•
$$(I-P)^2 = (I-P)^T = I-P;$$

• If
$$\eta = E(Y) = X\beta$$
 then $(I - P)\eta = 0$.

Next, observe

$$(n-p)s_e^2 = \|\mathbf{Y} - X\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\|^2$$

$$= \|(I - X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T)\mathbf{Y}\|^2$$

$$= \|(I - P)\mathbf{Y}\|^2$$

$$= \|(I - P)(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})\|^2$$

$$= \{(I - P)(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})\}^T\{(I - P)(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})\}$$

$$= (\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})^T(I - P)^T(I - P)(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})$$

$$= (\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})^T(I - P)(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}\{(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})^T(I - P)(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})\}$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}\{(I - P)(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\eta})^T\}.$$

Hence,

$$E((n-p)s_e^2) = E(\operatorname{tr}\{(I-P)(Y-\eta)(Y-\eta)^T\})$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}\{(I-P)E((Y-\eta)(Y-\eta)^T)\}$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}\{(I-P)\sigma^2I\}$$

$$= \sigma^2\operatorname{tr}\{I-P\}$$

$$= \sigma^2\{\operatorname{tr}(I) - \operatorname{tr}(P)\}.$$

Finally, observe tr(I) = n and

$$\operatorname{tr}(P) = \operatorname{tr}\{X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T\} = \operatorname{tr}\{(X^TX)^{-1}X^TX\} = \operatorname{tr}(I_{p \times p}) = p$$

so that

$$E\left((n-p)s_e^2\right)=(n-p)\sigma^2$$
 and hence $E\left(s_e^2\right)=\sigma^2$

as required.

Theorem 1.3

Suppose

$$Y = X\beta + \mathcal{E}$$

where

$$E(\mathcal{E}) = \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Var(\mathcal{E}) = \sigma^2 I$.

If $\mathcal{E} \sim N_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 I)$, then:

•
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1})$$
.

$$\begin{split} \bullet & \ \hat{\pmb{\beta}} \sim N_p(\pmb{\beta}, \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1}). \\ \bullet & \ \frac{(n-p)s_e^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-p}^2 \ \text{independently of} \ \hat{\pmb{\beta}}. \end{split}$$

Proof

Proof of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1})$

This result follows from Lemma 1.2 and Theorem 1.2 Part 1 and Part 2.

The proof of $\frac{(n-p)s_e^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-p}^2$ is omitted.