

Lecture 5 - Multivariate linear models

Data-based Statistical Decision Model

Outline

- Today we will consider:
 - 1 Foundations of matrix algebra.
 - 2 Special matrices.
 - 3 Dependence and inversion.
 - 4 Connection to regression and sums-of-squares.

Matrices

- A matrix **A** is a rectangular collection of scalars (numbers).
- **A** is a matrix of size $n \times p$ if it has n rows and p columns.

- $$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1(p-1)} & a_{1p} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2(p-1)} & a_{2p} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ a_{(n-1)1} & a_{(n-1)2} & \dots & a_{(n-1)(p-1)} & a_{(n-1)p} \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{n(p-1)} & a_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Often write as $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $j = 1, \dots, n$.

Examples of Matrices

- A sample 2×3 matrix: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 10 & 743 \end{bmatrix}$.
- A row vector is a $1 \times p$ matrix: $[1, 3, 5, 10]$.
- A column vector is a $n \times 1$ matrix: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$.
 - Usually “n-vector” refers to a column vector.
- A scalar can be thought of as a 1×1 matrix: $[190]$.
- A square matrix has $n = p$: $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 93 \\ 234 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$.

Some Matrix Operations

- Equality: Given two matrices **A** and **B**, we say **A** = **B** if
 - 1 Both **A** and **B** are $n \times p$
 - 2 and $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $j = 1, \dots, p$.
- Transpose: If **A** = $[a_{ij}]$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $j = 1, \dots, p$ then
 - **A'** = $[a_{ji}]$ for $j = 1, \dots, p$ and $i = 1, \dots, n$.
 - **A'** is a $p \times n$ matrix.
 - **A** = $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ then **A'** = $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$
 - Also written as **A**^T.
- There are three main arithmetic operations:
 - Matrix addition.
 - Scalar multiplication.
 - Matrix multiplication.

Matrix Addition and Scalar Multiplication

- If **A** and **B** are both $n \times p$, then
 - $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$ & $j = 1, \dots, p$
 - $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$
- For a scalar c : $c\mathbf{A} = [ca_{ij}]$.
 - $2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.
- Combine matrix addition and scalar multiplication to get matrix subtraction:
 - $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Matrix Multiplication

- Assume that \mathbf{A} is $n \times q$ and \mathbf{B} is $q \times p$.
- Matrix multiplication is defined as: $\mathbf{AB} = [\sum_{k=1}^q a_{ik} b_{kj}]$.
 - Let $a_{i\bullet} = [a_{i1}, \dots, a_{ip}]$ be the i^{th} row of \mathbf{A} .
 - Let $b_{\bullet j} = [b_{1j}, \dots, b_{qj}]'$ be the j^{th} column of \mathbf{B} .
 - $(ab)_{ij} = a_{i\bullet} b_{\bullet j}$
- \mathbf{AB} is a $n \times p$ matrix.
- Note that, in general, $\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$.
 - Can formulate both \mathbf{AB} and \mathbf{BA} only if they are square.

- $$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1*1 + 2*1 + 0*1 & 1*2 + 2*2 + 0*2 \\ 1*1 + 2*1 + 0*1 & 1*2 + 2*2 + 0*2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Diagonal Matrices and \mathbf{I}

- Symmetric Matrix: $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}'$
 - A symmetric matrix must be square.
- Diagonal Matrix: a square matrix such that $a_{ij} = 0$ when $i \neq j$.

- $\text{diag}(1, 20) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$

- Diagonal matrices are symmetric.

- Identity Matrix \mathbf{I} or \mathbf{I}_n : diagonal $n \times n$ matrix with $a_{ij} = 1$.

- $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} =$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 * a_{11} + 0 * a_{21} & 1 * a_{12} + 0 * a_{22} \\ 0 * a_{11} + 1 * a_{21} & 0 * a_{12} + 1 * a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$

- $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{I}_q = \mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{I}_q\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}$ when \mathbf{A} is $n \times q$ and \mathbf{B} is $q \times p$.

1, J, and 0

- $\mathbf{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 - Sometimes denoted as $\mathbf{1}_n$ when it is a n -vector.
 - $\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{1} = \sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n$.
 - $\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^n Y = n\bar{Y}$.
- \mathbf{J} is the matrix of ones.
 - Sometimes denoted as \mathbf{J}_{np} when it is a $n \times p$ matrix.
 - Sometimes denoted as \mathbf{J}_n when it is a $n \times n$ matrix.
 - $\mathbf{J}_n = \mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}'$
- $\mathbf{0}$ is the matrix of zeroes.
 - Sometimes denoted as $\mathbf{0}_{np}$ when it is a $n \times p$ matrix.
 - Sometimes denoted as $\mathbf{0}_n$ when it is a $n \times n$ matrix.

Why Are We Going Through This?

- $$\begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 + \mathbf{X}_1\beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \mathbf{X}_n\beta_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \mathbf{X}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}$$
- $$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \mathbf{X}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$
- Simple linear regression model becomes:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$$

- $\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}, \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \mathbf{X}_n \end{bmatrix}, \epsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$
- \mathbf{X} is called the design matrix.

Linear Dependence

- Consider the set $\{\mathbf{C}_1, \dots, \mathbf{C}_q\}$ of q column vectors of length n .
- We say that $\{\mathbf{C}_1, \dots, \mathbf{C}_q\}$ is linearly independent set of vectors when:
 - $\sum_j k_j \mathbf{C}_j = \mathbf{0}$ only when $k_j = 0$ for $j = 1, \dots, q$.
 - $\mathbf{C}_i \neq \sum_{j \neq i} k_j \mathbf{C}_j$ for all sets of scalars k_j .
- A set of vectors that is not independent is said to be linearly dependant.
- $k_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} + k_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + k_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$ when
 $k_1 = 1, k_2 = 1, k_3 = -2$
- Can have at most n linearly independent vectors of length n .

Rank of a Matrix

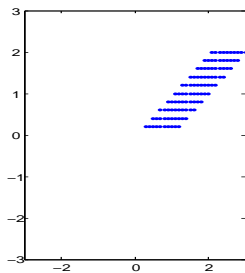
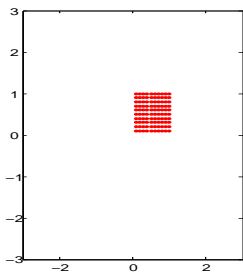
- Consider a $n \times p$ matrix \mathbf{A} as a collection of p column vectors $\mathbf{A}_{\bullet j}$.
- The rank of \mathbf{A} is the number of linearly independent columns.
- $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ has $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = 2$
- $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) \leq \min(n, p)$
- The rank is equivalently the number of linearly independent rows.

Matrices as Operators

- Let R^p be the space of p -vectors.
- Can think of the $n \times p$ matrix \mathbf{A} as a map between R^p and R^n .
 - $\mathbf{Ac} = \mathbf{b}$
- The image of \mathbf{A} is the collection of all n -vectors \mathbf{b} such that there is a p -vector \mathbf{c} where $\mathbf{Ac} = \mathbf{b}$.
 - Note that there might be some $\mathbf{b} \in R^n$ such that there is no \mathbf{c} where $\mathbf{Ac} = \mathbf{b}$.
 - $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for all c_1, c_2
- $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$ is the largest set of independent vectors that can be found in the image of \mathbf{A} .
 - Intuition: the “dimension” of the image of \mathbf{A} .

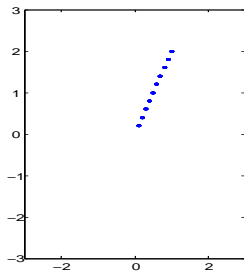
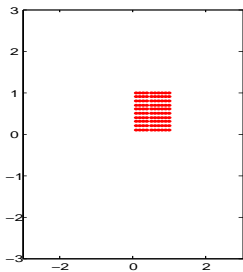
Examples

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = 2$$



Examples

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \text{rank}(\mathbf{B}) = 1$$

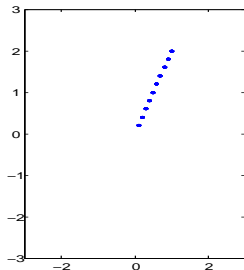
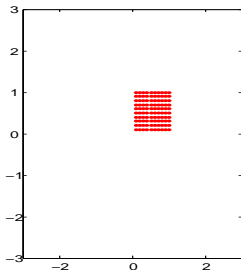


Inverse

- Let \mathbf{A} be a $n \times n$ matrix.
- The inverse of \mathbf{A} is the $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} where:
 - $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$
 - $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$
- If $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b}$ then $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}$.
- A matrix only has an inverse if it has “full rank”.
 - $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$
- If \mathbf{A}^{-1} does not exist, \mathbf{A} is call singular.
- Inverse of a diagonal matrix $\text{diag}(a_{11}, \dots, a_{nn})$ is $\text{diag}(a_{11}^{-1}, \dots, a_{nn}^{-1})$

Examples

- $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\text{rank}(\mathbf{B}) = 1$
- Several red points are mapped onto a single blue point.
- Image will not cover all of \mathbb{R}^2



Inverse for 2×2 Matrices

- $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = D^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$ where $D = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$
- D is called the determinant.
- $D = 0$ for singular matrices.
- $$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{a_{22}}{D} & \frac{-a_{12}}{D} \\ \frac{-a_{21}}{D} & \frac{a_{11}}{D} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}}{D} & \frac{-a_{11}a_{12} + a_{12}a_{11}}{D} \\ \frac{a_{21}a_{22} - a_{22}a_{21}}{D} & \frac{-a_{12}a_{21} + a_{11}a_{22}}{D} \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties Used in Sums of Squares

- If $\mathbf{c} = [c_1 \dots c_n]'$ then
 - $\mathbf{c}'\mathbf{c} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2$.
 - Sums of squares can be written as the product of the transpose of a column vector with itself.
- $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} n & \sum X_i \\ \sum X_i & \sum X_i^2 \end{bmatrix}$
 - Will see this in the normal equations.
 - $D = n \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2$.
 - When is this singular?
- $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} & \frac{-\bar{X}}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ \frac{-\bar{X}}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} & \frac{1}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \end{bmatrix}$

Sum of Squares in Matrix Notation

Recall the simple linear regression model

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - X_i\beta_1)^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 \\ &= \epsilon' \epsilon \\ &= (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) \\ &= \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y} - \beta'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{X}\beta + \beta'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta \\ &= \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y} - 2\beta'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} + \beta'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta\end{aligned}$$

Differentiation of linear and quadratic forms

- Consider $a'x = \sum a_i x_i$ and $x'Ax = \sum_{ij} a_{ij} x_i x_j$.
- $\frac{\delta(a'x)}{\delta x_i} = a_i$ and $\frac{\delta(x'Ax)}{\delta x_i} = \left(\sum_j a_{ij} x_j\right) + \left(\sum_k a_{ki} x_k\right)$
- Let $f(x)$ be some function of the P -vector x . Define the derivative of x as the P -vector with i th entry $\frac{\delta f(x)}{\delta x_i}$
- $\frac{\delta(a'x)}{\delta x} = a$ and $\frac{\delta(x'Ax)}{\delta x} = (A + A') x$

Normal Equations in Matrix Notation

$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y_i &= nb_0 + b_1 \sum X_i \\ \sum X_i Y_i &= b_0 \sum X_i + b_1 \sum X_i^2\end{aligned}$$

- Equivalent to: $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}$
 - $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Have the solution:
 - $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$
 - $\mathbf{H} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'$ is called the hat matrix.

Rewriting the Simple Linear Regression Model

- 1 The distribution of X is unspecified, possibly even deterministic;
- 2 $Y | X = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$, where ϵ is a noise variable;
- 3 ϵ has mean 0, a constant variance σ^2 ,
- 4 ϵ is uncorrelated with X and uncorrelated across observations.

With Hints for Multiple Regression

- $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

- $Y_i = [1 \ X_i] \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \epsilon_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

- $Y_i = [1 \ X_{i1} \ \dots \ X_{i(p-1)}] \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{bmatrix} + \epsilon_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

(Take $p = 2$. It's just the simple linear regression.)

- $$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & \dots & X_{1(p-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- $$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$$

- $$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & \dots & X_{1(p-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{bmatrix}, \epsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$$

- \mathbf{X} is $n \times 2$
- \mathbf{X}' is $2 \times n$
- $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ is 2×2

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ X_{11} & \dots & X_{n1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ X_{1(p-1)} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & \dots & X_{1(p-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1*1 + \dots + 1*1 & 1*X_1 + \dots + 1*X_n \\ X_1*1 + \dots + X_n*1 & X_1*X_1 + \dots + X_nX_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} n & \sum X_i \\ \sum X_i & \sum X_i^2 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Least Squares

- We take the least squares estimates b_0, b_1 that minimize $Q(b_0, b_1) = n \times \text{In-Sample MSE}(b_0, b_1)$

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \sum (Y_i - b_0 - X_i b_1)^2 \\ &= [Y_1 - b_0 - X_1 b_1, \dots, Y_n - b_0 - X_n b_1] \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 - b_0 - X_1 b_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n - b_0 - X_n b_1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{XB})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{XB}) \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_{p-1} \end{bmatrix}$

The Normal Equations

- Differentiating Q with respect to b_0 and b_1 finds the minimizers of Q through the normal equations:

$$nb_0 + b_1 \sum X_i = \sum Y_i$$

$$b_0 \sum X_i + b_1 \sum X_i^2 = \sum X_i Y_i$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} n & \sum X_i \\ \sum X_i & \sum X_i^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_{p-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ X_{11} & \dots & X_{n1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ X_{1(p-1)} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

Fitted Values

- $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{m}(X_i)$ is the fitted value of the regression curve at X_i
 - Expected value of an observation at X_i
- $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + X_i \hat{\beta}_1$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

- $\hat{Y}_i = [1, X_i] \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\beta}_{p-1} \end{bmatrix}$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{Y}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{Y}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & \dots & X_{1(p-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\beta}_{p-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y}$$

- where $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$ is called the hat matrix.

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$$

- $\mathbf{H} = [h_{ij}]$ for $i, j = 1, \dots, n$ where $h_{ij} = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})(x_j - \bar{x})}{\sum (x_k - \bar{x})^2}$
- \mathbf{H} is symmetric: $\mathbf{H}' = \mathbf{H}$
- \mathbf{H} is idempotent: $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}$
- Rank of \mathbf{H} is 2.
- \mathbf{H} is also called influence matrix.

Vector Valued Random Variables

- Consider the vector of random variables $\mathbf{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_n \end{bmatrix}$.
- Assume that
 - $E(Z_i) = \mu_i$ $\text{Var}(Z_i) = \sigma_i^2$ $\text{Cov}(Z_i, Z_j) = \sigma_{ij}$
- We write

- $E(\mathbf{Z}) = \mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}) = \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \dots & \sigma_{1j} & \dots & \sigma_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \sigma_{j1} & \dots & \sigma_j^2 & \dots & \sigma_{jn} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \sigma_{n1} & \dots & \sigma_{nj} & \dots & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Random Vectors

- Let \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} be $n \times p$ matrices and \mathbf{Z} a p -vector of random variables.
 - $E(\mathbf{Z}) = \mu$
 - $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}) = \Sigma$
- $E(\mathbf{AZ} + \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{A}E(\mathbf{Z}) + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}\mu + \mathbf{B}$
- $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{AZ} + \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{A}\text{Cov}(\mathbf{Z})\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A}\Sigma\mathbf{A}'$.
- If Z_1, \dots, Z_p are normal, then we write $\mathbf{Z} \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$.
- The p -variate normal distribution has pdf

$$f(\mathbf{Z}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{Y} - \mu) \right]$$

Distribution of \mathbf{Y} and \mathbf{B}

- Recall: $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$.
 - $\epsilon \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$
 - $\mathbf{Y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$
- Recall: $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{B} &\sim N\left((\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta, (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \left[\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right] \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\right) \\ &\sim N\left((\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) \beta, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\right) \\ &\sim N\left(\beta, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\right)\end{aligned}$$

- $$\text{Var}(\mathbf{B}) = \sigma^2 \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum (x_k - \bar{X})^2} & \frac{-\bar{X}}{\sum (x_k - \bar{X})^2} \\ \frac{-\bar{X}}{\sum (x_k - \bar{X})^2} & \frac{1}{\sum (x_k - \bar{X})^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Distribution of $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$

- Recall: $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y}$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{Y}} &\sim N\left(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{X}\beta, \mathbf{H}\left[\sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right]\mathbf{H}'\right) \\ &\sim N\left(\mathbf{X}\left(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}\right) \\ &\sim N\left(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2\mathbf{H}\right)\end{aligned}$$

- $\text{Var}\left(\hat{Y}_i\right) = \sigma^2 h_{ii} = \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sum (x_k - \bar{X})^2}\right)$

Residuals

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{e} &= \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}} \\ &= \mathbf{IY} - \mathbf{HY} \\ &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}E(\mathbf{e}) &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})E(\mathbf{Y}) \\ &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{XY} \\ &= \left(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\right)\mathbf{Y} \\ &= (\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X})\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{0}\end{aligned}$$

Covariance Structure of the Residuals

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(\mathbf{e}) &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})' (\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) \\ &= \sigma^2 [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H} - \mathbf{H}' + \mathbf{H}'\mathbf{H}] \\ &= \sigma^2 [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}]\end{aligned}$$

- $\text{Var}(e_i) = \sigma^2 \left[1 - \frac{1}{n} - \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_k - \bar{x})^2} \right]$
- $\text{Cov}(e_i, e_j) = -\sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})(x_j - \bar{x})}{\sum (x_k - \bar{x})^2} \right]$ when $i \neq j$
- Notice that as $n \rightarrow \infty$:
 - $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$
 - $\frac{(x_i - \bar{x})(x_j - \bar{x})}{\sum (x_k - \bar{x})^2} \rightarrow 0$
- This means that:
 - $\text{Var}(e_i) \rightarrow \sigma^2$
 - $\text{Cov}(e_i, e_j) \rightarrow 0$

Regression With Two Variable

- Assume that we have:
 - $i = 1, \dots, n$ observations.
 - Responses Y_i .
 - First Covariates X_{i1} .
 - Second Covariates X_{i2} .
- $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \epsilon_i$
 - $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ and ϵ_i and ϵ_j are independent when $i \neq j$.
- First order linear regression model with two predictors.
- $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2}$
 - Regression function is now a function of two variables: $f(X_1, X_2)$.

Assumptions

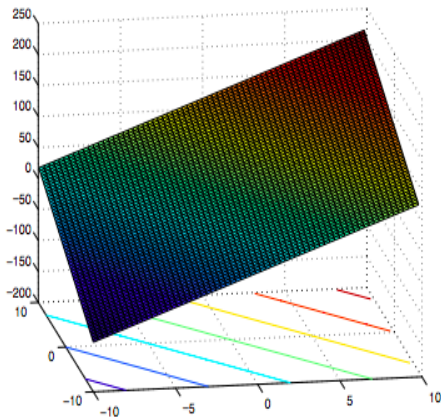
The first-order linear regression model assumes that:

- ① $E(Y_i)$ is linear in both X_{i1} and X_{i2} .
 - The regression function is a plane.
 - The regression function is linear in both X_{i1} and X_{i2} .
 - The association between Y and X_1 does not depend on X_2 .
- ② The error terms have the same variance.
- ③ The error terms are independent.
- ④ The error terms are normal.

A regression surface

$$Y = m(X) + \epsilon,$$

where $m(X) = m(X_1, X_2) = 50 + 10X_1 + 7X_2$.



Interpretation

- $E(Y_i | X_{i1} = C_1, X_{i2} = C_2) = \beta_0 + C_1\beta_1 + C_2\beta_2$
- $E(Y_i | X_{i1} = C_1 + 1, X_{i2} = C_2) = \beta_0 + (C_1 + 1)\beta_1 + C_2\beta_2$
- $E(Y_i | X_{i1} = C_1 + 1, X_{i2} = C_2) - E(Y_i | X_{i1} = C_1, X_{i2} = C_2) = \beta_1$
 - This holds regardless of what C_2 is.
 - β_1 is the expected increase in Y for any fixed level of X_2 from an increase in one unit of X_1 .
 - Assuming that X_1 and X_2 have an additive effect on Y or that they do not interact.
 - Often called the association between Y and X_1 controlling for X_2 .

Regression With Many Variables

- Assume that we are interested in the relationship between the $(p - 1)$ variables X_1, \dots, X_{p-1} and Y .
- Can form the first order linear regression model with $(p - 1)$ predictors.

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i(p-1)} + \epsilon_i \\ &= \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \beta_j X_{ij} + \epsilon_i \end{aligned}$$

- $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i(p-1)}$
 - Assumes that the expected value of Y is linear in all of the predictors.
 - Forms a hyperplane.
- β_j is the expected increase in Y for an increase in X_j by one unit while holding all other predictors fixed.
 - Assumes that the relationship between X_j and Y_i does not change as the other predictors change.

Multiple Regression In Matrix Notation

- For $i = 1, \dots, n$

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i(p-1)} + \epsilon_i$$

$$= [1, X_{i1}, \dots, X_{i(p-1)}] \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- $$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & \dots & X_{1(p-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$
- Notice that \mathbf{X} is $n \times p$.
 - This is why we use the notation that there are $(p-1)$ predictors.

Special Types of Predictors

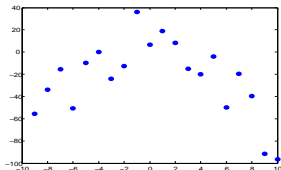
- The predictor variables do not have to be $(p - 1)$ unrelated quantitative variables.
- Will now just mention some special types. Will go into greater detail for each type individually later in the semester.
 - 1 Qualitative Variables: Sex, Race, Car Maker
 - 2 Polynomial Regression: $X_{i2} = X_{i1}^2$
 - 3 Transformations: X_{i1} is the $\log(\text{dosage})$ of a drug
 - Analogous to transformation in simple linear regression.
 - 4 Interaction Terms: $X_{i3} = X_{i1} X_{i2}$

Qualitative Variables

- A qualitative variable does not correspond to a particular numeric value.
- Assume we want to know the relationships between age and sex on yearly salary among Philadelphians between the ages of 18-62.
- Let X_{i1} =(age in years) and Y_i =(yearly salary)
- Let $X_{i2} = 1$ for male and 0 for female.
- Assume the model: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2}$.
- $E(Y_i | c \text{ years old, Male}) = \beta_0 + c\beta_1 + \beta_2$
- $E(Y_i | c \text{ years old, Female}) = \beta_0 + c\beta_1$
- $\beta_2 = E(Y_i | c \text{ years old, Male}) - E(Y_i | c \text{ years old, Female})$
- β_2 is the difference in expect salary between males and females at any given age.

Polynomial Regression

- What if Y_i and X_i have a parabolic relationship rather than a linear.

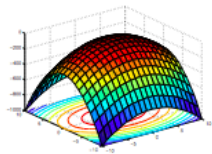
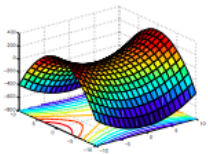
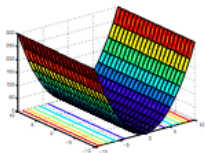
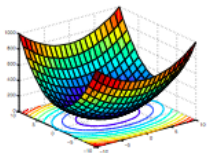


- By visual inspection, we think $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 X_i^2$
- Let $X_{i1} = X_i$ and $X_{i2} = X_i^2$.
- Fit $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \epsilon_i$.

Interaction Effects

- Recall the example where we want to look at the effects of age and sex on yearly salary among Philadelphians between the ages of 18-62.
- Fit $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2}$.
- β_1 is the expected increase in salary associated with an increase in one year of age for both males and females.
- What if we expect that that amount of extra money earned by a man next year is larger than the amount of money earned by a female next year?
 - The effect of X_{i1} differs for different values of X_{i2} .
 - The variables interact.
- Let $X_{i3} = X_{i1} X_{i2}$ and fit $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3}$
- β_1 is the expected increase in salary for a female associated with an increase in one year of age.
- $\beta_1 + \beta_3$ is the expected increase in salary for a male associated with an increase in one year of age.

A bit more general regression surface



Least Squares Estimation

- We need to estimate $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_{p-1}$.
- Will use the least squares estimates b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{p-1} that minimize:

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(Y_i - b_0 - \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} X_{ik} b_k \right)^2 \\ &= (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \end{aligned}$$

Finding b_0, \dots, b_{p-1}

- Differentiating, we find the p equations:
 - $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial b_0} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left(Y_i - b_0 - \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} X_{ik} b_k \right)$
 - For $j = 1, \dots, (p-1)$:
$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial b_j} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij} \left(Y_i - b_0 - \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} X_{ik} b_k \right)$$
- Setting these equal to zero, we get the normal equations:
 - $n b_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} b_k \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_{ik} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$
 - For $j = 1, \dots, (p-1)$:
$$b_0 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij} \right) + \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} b_k \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij} X_{ik} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n n X_{ij} Y_i$$

Solving the normal equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} n & \sum X_{i1} & \cdots & \sum X_{i(p-1)} \\ \sum X_{i1} & \sum X_{i1}^2 & \cdots & \sum X_{i1} X_{i(p-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \sum X_{in} & \sum X_{i1} X_{i(p-1)} & \cdots & \sum X_{i(p-1)}^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_{p-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ X_{11} & \cdots & X_{n1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ X_{1(p-1)} & \cdots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$
- $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$
- $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y}$ where $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'$

When Does **B** Exist?

- If **A** has rank r , then **A'****A** also has rank r .

- **X** is $n \times p$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & \dots & X_{1(p-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & \dots & X_{n(p-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

- For $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ to exist, **X** must have rank p .
- $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ won't exist if a predictor is a linear combination of other predictors.
 - Called colinearity.
 - There are more than one solution of **B**.
- All of the information contained in one predictor can be obtained from the other $(p - 2)$ predictors.
- In (old) practice there is never perfect co-linearity.
 - A predictor can be close enough to a linear combination of the others so that the computer cannot invert $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})$.

When collinearity can happen?

- If $n < p$, the data are collinear.
- If one of the predictor variables is constant, the data are collinear.
- If two of the predictor variables are proportional to each other, the data are collinear.
- If two of the predictor variables are otherwise linearly related, the data are collinear.

Estimation of σ^2

- Similar to simple linear regression, we use the MSE to estimate σ^2 .

$$\begin{aligned}SSE &= \sum (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 \\&= (\mathbf{IY} - \mathbf{HY})' (\mathbf{IY} - \mathbf{HY}) \\&= \mathbf{Y}' [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}]' [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}] \mathbf{Y} \\&= \mathbf{Y}' [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}] \mathbf{Y}\end{aligned}$$

- \mathbf{H} has rank p so $\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}$ has rank $n - p$.
- df of SSE is $n - p$
 - Intuition: we have n independent observations but must estimate the p parameters b_0, \dots, b_{p-1} .
- $MSE = SSE / (n - p)$

Inference for \mathbf{B}

- Assuming *Gaussianity*, we can use the distributions of the studentized statistics to get t -based inference for b_j .
- Must first find the standard error of b_j .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(\mathbf{B}) &= \text{Var}\left([\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}]^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}\right) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\text{Var}(\mathbf{Y})\mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) \\ &= \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) \\ &= \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

- We estimate the standard error of b_j as

$$s(b_j) = \sqrt{MSE (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})_{jj}^{-1}}$$

t-test for b_j

- Can form a studentized t-statistic:

$$\frac{b_j - \beta_j}{s(b_j)} \sim t_{n-p}$$

- We now have a t -distribution with $n - p$ degrees of freedom.
- Can invert to get two sided $1 - \alpha\%$ confidence intervals:

$$b_j \pm t_{n-p}(1 - \alpha/2) s(b_j), j=0, \dots, (p-1)$$

- Can perform a level α t -test of $H_0 : \beta_j = C$ vs $H_a : \beta_j \neq C$ by rejecting H_0 when

$$|(b_j - C) / s(b_j)| > t_{n-p}(1 - \alpha/2)$$

Bonferroni for B

- The confidence intervals $b_j \pm t_{n-p}(1 - \alpha/2)$ only hold if we want to look at one j .
- If we want to draw inference for more than one coefficient (or all $p-1$ of them), we will have an inflated type I error rate.
- Example: we are doing a study to explore factors associated with high school truancy. We regress number of school days missed per year on the 10 variables: age, weight, family income, distance to school, teacher's age, size of school, grade, participation in sports, ability to read music, average hrs of tv watched per day
 - Would test if there is an association between days missed and the 10 covariate by testing if $\beta_j = 0$ for $j = 1, \dots, 10$.
- Can use Bonferroni.
- The simultaneous level α Bonferroni confidence intervals for g coefficients are

$$b_j \pm t_{n-p}(1 - \alpha/2g)$$