#### L-5

#### 1. Linear Model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log x + \beta_2 x^2 + \epsilon$$
 is a Linear Model 
$$Y = \frac{\beta_1 x}{\beta_0 + x} + \epsilon$$
 is a non-linear model

The 2nd one can't be expressed as a linear combination of known functions of x.

2. We are only dealing with models, which is not necessarily the truth.

"All models are wrong but some models are useful" – BOX (1976)

- 3. We do not claim a causal relation b/w X & Y. i.e. trying to predict Y based on X. Not claiming X causes Y or Y causes X.
- 4. Interpretation of the coefficient In univariate (p=1) regression, the interpretation is

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$$

 $\beta_0 \to \text{ expected value of Y when } x = 0.$ 

 $\beta_1 \to \text{avg change in Y for a unit change in X}.$ 

#### Multiple Regression

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon, \beta_1 > 0$$

If we disregard  $X_2$ , then the overall pattern of Y on  $X_1$  is decreasing.  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \epsilon, \beta_1 < 0$ .

In multiple regression, the interpretation of  $\beta_1$  is the avg change in Y for a unit change in  $X_1$ , when  $X_2$  is held constant. In general, the regression coefficient measures the change in response for a unit change in the corresponding predictor when all other predictors are held constant.

Collinearity A linear dependence b/w 2 or more predictors/columns of the design matrix. e.g.  $\mathbf{x_1} = 2\mathbf{x_2}$  or  $\mathbf{x_1} = \mathbf{x_2} + 2\mathbf{x_3}$ . At the population level, this makes the coeff  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  ill-defined.

$y = x_1 + x_2 + 6$	$(\beta_1 = 1, \beta_2 = 1)$
$y = 3x_2 + 6$	(0,3)
$y = -1.5x_2 + 6$	(-1.5, 0)

Infinitely many equations represent the same plane If  $\mathbf{x_1} = 2\mathbf{x_2}$  then  $(X^TX)$  can't be defined. At the estimate level:

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

As  $(X^TX)$  is not full rank,  $\det(X^TX) = 0$ . Even if the det is not zero but very small, this  $(X^TX)^{-1}$  becomes unstable conceptually. This is c/d near collinearity & we should try to avoid, we want to remove some of the columns, but which ones?

If the relation involves only 2 columns, then a pairwise plot e.g.  $(X_1, X_2)$ ,  $(X_1, X_3)$ ,  $(X_2, X_3)$  will reveal an exact straight line in one of the plots. Then drop any one of the variables in that plot. Even a very high correlation b/w X1,X3 dictates we drop one of them. What if  $x_1 = x_2 + 2x_3$ ? This can't be detected in a particular pairwise plot.

- The columns not in the linear relation will have small numbers in the corresponding diagonal of  $(X^TX)^{-1}$ . Retain those.
- From the subset that is not retained, remove elements one by one & check if the overall determinant stabilizes.

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#### L-6

- Collinearity is: Linear or approximate linear relationship b/w the predictor variables.
- Why is it a problem?:  $\hat{\beta}$  is unstable.
- How to detect:  $det(X^TX) \approx 0$ . i.e.  $\sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1}$  is very large.

Another problem of Multiple Regression: Interaction Nature of relationship b/w Y &  $X_1$  depends on the value of  $X_2$ . Our assumption is that every variable makes a distinct additive contribution to the response. Model with interaction term:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_{12} x_1 x_2 + \epsilon$$

Start with a bigger (more interaction) model. Test the hypothesis whether the interaction term is zero. If the hypothesis ( $H_0: \beta_{12} = 0$ ) is not rejected, then we can go ahead with the no interaction simpler model.

Normality assumption and the geometry of least squares

$$Y = X\beta + \epsilon$$

Minimizing  $\sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 = ||\epsilon||^2$ .  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $X\beta$  is a plane in the n-dimensional space. The distance is minimized when we project a perpendicular/normal from the point y to the plane. The normal equation is:

$$X^{T} \epsilon = 0$$
$$X^{T} (Y - X\beta) = 0$$
$$X^{T} Y = X^{T} X\beta$$

### Inference on Linear Regression

Assumptions:  $E[\epsilon] = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2 I_n$ . Assume  $\epsilon_i$  has a normal dist.

$$\epsilon \sim N_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 I_n)$$

Likelihood:

$$L(\beta, \sigma^2 | Y_1, ..., Y_n) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sigma^n} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \epsilon^T \epsilon\right\}$$
$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sigma^n} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (Y - X\beta)^T (Y - X\beta)\right\}$$

Log-likelihood:

$$l(\beta, \sigma^{2}|Y_{1}, ..., Y_{n}) = -\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\log(\sigma^{2}) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}}(Y - X\beta)^{T}(Y - X\beta)$$

For  $\beta$ , maximizing likelihood is equivalent to minimizing  $(Y - X\beta)^T (Y - X\beta)$ . This is also the least squares criterion. Under normality,  $\hat{\beta}_{LS}$  is same as  $\hat{\beta}_{MLE}$ .

For  $\sigma^2$ :

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n/2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2(\sigma^2)^2} (Y - X\beta)^T (Y - X\beta) = 0$$
$$\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} (Y - X\hat{\beta})^T (Y - X\hat{\beta}) = \frac{1}{n} SSR$$

We were using  $\frac{1}{n-(p+1)}SSR$  for  $\sigma^2$  This is unbiased.

# Distribution of Estimators and ANOVA in Linear Regression

### 1 Expectation of SSR

We begin with

$$\begin{split} Y - X \hat{\beta} &= Y - X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y \\ &= X \beta + \epsilon - X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (X \beta + \epsilon) \\ &= X \beta + \epsilon - X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T X \beta - X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon \\ &= \epsilon - X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon. \end{split}$$

Define

$$A = I - X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T.$$

Then

$$Y - X\hat{\beta} = A\epsilon.$$

Here, A is symmetric  $(A^T = A)$  and idempotent  $(A^2 = A)$ .

If  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)$ , then

$$A\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 A).$$

[Quadratic Form Distribution] If  $U \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_k)$  and A is a symmetric, idempotent matrix of rank k, then

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} U^T A U \sim \chi_k^2.$$

Let  $u = Y - X\hat{\beta}$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2}u^Tu = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}(Y - X\hat{\beta})^T(Y - X\hat{\beta}) = \frac{SSR}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_k^2.$$

The rank of A is

$$k = (A) = (I_n) - (X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T)$$
  
=  $n - ((X^T X)^{-1} X^T X) = n - (I_{p+1}) = n - (p+1).$ 

Since  $[\chi_k^2] = k$ ,

$$\left[\frac{SSR}{\sigma^2}\right] = n - (p+1) \quad \Rightarrow \quad [SSR] = \sigma^2 \left(n - (p+1)\right).$$

An unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$  is

$$s^2 = \frac{SSR}{n - (p+1)}.$$

## 2 Distribution of $\hat{\beta}$

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$
$$= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (X\beta + \epsilon)$$
$$= \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon.$$

Let  $A = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T$ . Then  $A\epsilon$  is normal with

$$[A\epsilon] = 0, \quad (A\epsilon) = \sigma^2 (X^T X)^{-1}.$$

Hence,

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N_{p+1}(\beta, \sigma^2(X^T X)^{-1}).$$

In particular,

$$\hat{\beta}_i \sim N(\beta_i, \sigma^2((X^T X)^{-1})_{ii}).$$

[Independence]  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $s^2$  are independent.

#### 3 t-distribution of the Coefficients

Using

$$\frac{N(0,1)}{\sqrt{\chi_k^2/k}} \sim t_k,$$

and under  $H_0: \beta_i = \beta_{i0}$ ,

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_i - \beta_{i0}}{\sigma \sqrt{((X^T X)^{-1})/(n - (p+1))}} \sim N(0, 1),$$
$$\frac{SSR}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(n - (p+1))s^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{n - (p+1)}.$$

Then

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i - \beta_{i0}}{s\sqrt{((X^T X)^{-1})/(n - (p+1))}} \sim t_{n-(p+1)}.$$

## 4 Simple Linear Regression (p = 1)

Slope

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{s/\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \sim t_{n-2}.$$
$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2.$$

Intercept

$$\begin{split} t &= \frac{\hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_{0,a}}{s\sqrt{\frac{\sum x_i^2}{n\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}} \sim t_{n-2}.\\ \hat{\beta}_0 &\pm t_{(n-2),\alpha/2} \cdot s\sqrt{\frac{\sum x_i^2}{n\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \end{split}$$

gives a  $(1 - \alpha)\%$  CI for  $\beta_0$ .

Confidence Interval for  $\beta_1$ 

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{(n-2),\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}.$$

# 5 Proof of Independence of $\hat{\beta}$ and $s^2$

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta = A\epsilon,$$
  

$$U = B\epsilon, \quad B = I - X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T.$$

They are independent if

$$(A\epsilon, B\epsilon) = A(\epsilon) B^T = 0.$$

$$\begin{split} A(\sigma^2 I)B^T &= \sigma^2 (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (I - X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T) \\ &= \sigma^2 \big[ (X^T X)^{-1} X^T - (X^T X)^{-1} X^T X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T \big] \\ &= 0. \end{split}$$

Since they are jointly normal, this implies independence.

## 6 ANOVA Table for Simple Linear Regression (p = 1)

Source	SS	df	MS	$\mathbf{F}$
Regression	$SS_{Reg}$	p	$\frac{SS_{Reg}}{p}$	$\frac{MS_{Reg}}{MS_R}$
Residual (Error)	SSR	n-(p+1)	$\frac{SSR}{n - (p+1)}$	
Total	SST	n-1		

$$SST = \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2, \quad SSR = \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2.$$

Under  $H_0: \beta_1 = \cdots = \beta_p = 0$ :

$$\frac{SS_{Reg}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_p^2, \qquad \frac{SSR}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-(p+1)}^2.$$

These are independent, so

$$F = \frac{SS_{Reg}/p}{SSR/(n - (p+1))} \sim F_{p,n-(p+1)}.$$

## 7 Fisher-Cochran Theorem (Matrix Form)

$$\begin{split} \epsilon^T \epsilon &= \epsilon^T \left(\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^T \right) \epsilon + \epsilon^T \big(I - X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \big) \epsilon \\ &+ \epsilon^T \left(X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^T \right) \epsilon. \end{split}$$

$$SST = \epsilon^T B^{(1)} \epsilon + \epsilon^T B^{(2)} \epsilon + \epsilon^T B^{(3)} \epsilon.$$

where  $B^{(1)}, B^{(2)}, B^{(3)}$  are symmetric and idempotent.

$${\rm rank}(B^{(1)})=1, \quad {\rm rank}(B^{(2)})=n-(p+1), \quad {\rm rank}(B^{(3)})=p.$$

Sum of ranks:

$$1 + n - (p+1) + p = n$$
.

By Cochran's theorem, the quadratic forms are independent  $\chi^2$  variables.

#### 8 t-test vs F-test

For p=1, testing  $H_0:\beta_1=0$  via t-test or ANOVA F-test gives the same result:

$$F = t^2$$
.

For  $p \ge 2$ , the F-test checks joint significance:

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_p = 0,$$

while the t-test checks individual effects.

### 9 Prediction

For a new point  $x_0$ , the point prediction is

$$\hat{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}_0^T \hat{\beta} = \mathbf{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y.$$

$$[\hat{y}_0] = \mathbf{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} X^T X \beta = \mathbf{x}_0^T \beta,$$

$$(\hat{y}_0) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \mathbf{x}_0.$$

$$\hat{y}_0 \sim N(\mathbf{x}_0^T \beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \mathbf{x}_0).$$

Figure 1: Scatter plot with fitted regression line and confidence/prediction intervals at  $x_0$ .