

STAT 425

Multiple Linear Regression. Part 2

Properties of the Least-Square estimates

- In MLR the LS estimate $\hat{\beta}$ is a random vector, since it is a function of \mathbf{y}
- For hypothesis testing we want to find the probability distribution of $\hat{\beta}$
- We will review the definitions of the mean and variance of a random vector first, and how to calculate mean and variances of affine transformations of this random vector.

Review: Mean and Variances of Random Vectors

Mean of a Random Vector

Let \mathbf{Z} a random vector of size $m \times 1$, with components Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_m . The mean of \mathbf{Z} is equal to vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ defined as:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = E[\mathbf{Z}] = \begin{pmatrix} E[Z_1] \\ E[Z_2] \\ \dots \\ E[Z_m] \end{pmatrix}$$

Variance of a Random Vector

The Variance of a random vector \mathbf{Z} is a matrix (the Variance-Covariance matrix). This matrix is symmetric of size $m \times m$ with component (i, j) equal to the $Cov(Z_i, Z_j)$

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma_{m \times m} &= Cov(\mathbf{Z}) = E[(\mathbf{Z} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{Z} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^t] \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} Var(Z_1) & \dots & Cov(Z_1, Z_m) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ Cov(Z_m, Z_1) & \dots & Var(Z_m) \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Mean and Covariance matrix of an affine transformation

Assume an affine transformation of the form:

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{a}_{n \times 1} + \mathbf{B}_{n \times m} \mathbf{Z}_{m \times 1}$$

$$E[\mathbf{W}] = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\mu}, \quad Cov(\mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{B}^t$$

In particular consider a transformation of the form:

$$W = \mathbf{v}^t \mathbf{Z} = v_1 Z_1 + v_2 Z_2 + \dots + v_m Z_m$$

$$E[W] = \mathbf{v}^t \boldsymbol{\mu} = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i \mu_i$$

$$Var(W) = \mathbf{v}^t \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i^2 Var(Z_i) + 2 \sum_{i < j} v_i v_j Cov(Z_i, Z_j)$$

Mean and Covariance of the LS estimates

We use the assumption: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{e}$ with

$$E[\mathbf{e}] = \mathbf{0}, \quad \text{Cov}(\mathbf{e}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$$

Using these assumptions we get:

$$E[\mathbf{y}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \quad \text{Cov}(\mathbf{y}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$$

Under these assumptions we also get:

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}] &= E[(\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{y}] \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t E[\mathbf{y}] \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta} \end{aligned}$$

We have shown that the LS estimate is **unbiased**.

Mean and Covariance of the LS estimates (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}) &= (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t \text{Cov}(\mathbf{y}) [(\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t]^t \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t \sigma^2 \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \\ &= \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1};\end{aligned}$$

Using the previous results we can also show:

$$E[\hat{\mathbf{y}}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \quad Cov(\hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{H}$$

$$E[\mathbf{r}] = \mathbf{0}, \quad Cov(\mathbf{r}) = \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})$$

$$E[\hat{\sigma}^2] = \frac{1}{n-p} E[\mathbf{r}^t \mathbf{r}] = \frac{1}{n-p} \sigma^2 (n-p) = \sigma^2$$

1

¹It can be shown that $\frac{\mathbf{r}^t \mathbf{r}}{\sigma^2} = \frac{RSS}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-p}^2$

- $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ are unbiased estimators of β and σ^2 respectively
- We can plug-in the variance estimator $\hat{\sigma}^2$ to get the covariance of $\hat{\beta}$
- The **standard errors** of the $\hat{\beta}_i$ are the square roots of the elements of the diagonal of the covariance matrix $Cov(\hat{\beta}) = \hat{\sigma}^2(\mathbf{X}^t\mathbf{X})^{-1}$. For example:

$$se(\hat{\beta}_1) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{[(\mathbf{X}^t\mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{11}}$$

The Gauss-Markov Theorem

The main reason why we use LS estimation is because of the **Gauss-Markov theorem**. If the errors are uncorrelated, have equal variance and mean equal to zero, the LS estimators have a very nice property: they have the lowest variance within the class of linear estimators.

- Suppose we are interested in estimating a linear combination of β of the form:

$$\theta = \mathbf{c}^t \beta = \sum_{j=1}^p c_j \beta_j$$

For example, estimating any element of β and estimating the mean response at a new value x^* are all special cases of this setup.

The Gauss-Markov Theorem (Cont.)

- Naturally, we can form an estimate of θ by plugging in the LS estimate $\hat{\beta}$ in the equation for θ :

$$\hat{\theta}_{LS} = \mathbf{c}^t \hat{\beta} = \mathbf{c}^t (\mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^t \mathbf{y}$$

This is a **linear**² and **unbiased estimator** of θ . Its mean square error can be calculated as:

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}_{LS}) = E[\hat{\theta}_{LS} - \theta]^2 = Var(\hat{\theta}_{LS})$$

²It is a linear combination of the n data points y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n

Gauss-Markov theorem (Cont.)

- Suppose there is another estimate of θ , which is also linear and unbiased. The following Theorem states that $\hat{\theta}_{LS}$ is always better in the sense that its MSE is always smaller (or at least, not bigger)
- **Gauss-Markov Theorem:** The estimator $\hat{\theta}_{LS} = \mathbf{c}^t \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is the **BLUE** (best linear unbiased estimator) of the parameter $\mathbf{c}^t \boldsymbol{\beta}$ for any vector $\mathbf{c} \in \Re^p$.

Proof: Please see Supplemental Material.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Recall the normal assumptions for the regression model:

$$y_i = \mathbf{x}_i^t \boldsymbol{\beta} + e_i \quad (i = 1, \dots, n)$$

with $e_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. This implies:

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{N}_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

We can show that the likelihood function can be written as:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}) \propto \frac{RSS^{-\frac{n}{2}}}{n}$$

The value of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ that maximizes the Likelihood function is the Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE) of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. This estimator is equal to the LS estimate of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$.

Distributions of the Least-Squares estimates

Recall the assumption for the linear regression model:

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{N}_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I})$$

Any affine transformation of \mathbf{y} will also have a Normal distribution³. We can use the identities to calculate the mean and variance of an affine transformation of a random vector to get the following results:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^t\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^t\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^t\mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{N}_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2\mathbf{H})$$

$$\mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{N}_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}))$$

³They will also have a **joint** Normal distribution

Note that for the fitted values $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ and the estimated residuals $\hat{\mathbf{e}} = \mathbf{r}$ we can calculate the mean and covariance matrices as follows:

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

$$Cov(\hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \mathbf{H}\sigma^2\mathbf{H}^t = \sigma^2\mathbf{H}$$

$$E[\mathbf{r}] = (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$Cov(\mathbf{r}) = (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})^t = \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})$$

- Although \mathbf{r} is a vector of dimension n , it always lies in a subspace of dimension $(n - p)$.
- \mathbf{r} behaves like a random vector with a distribution $\mathbf{N}_{n-p}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n-p})$, so we have:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}\|^2}{n - p} \sim \sigma^2 \frac{\chi_{n-p}^2}{n - p}$$

- It can be show that $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ and \mathbf{r} are uncorrelated since they are in orthogonal spaces. Since they have a joint normal distribution, they are independent.⁴

⁴Note that if two random variables are uncorrelated, they are not necessarily independent, unless they have a joint Normal distribution