Statistical Theory and Modeling (ST2601) Lecture 8 - Linear regression in vector form

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Overview

- Vectors and matrices minimal intro to linear algebra
- Linear regression in vector form
- Multivariate normal distribution

Goals of the lecture

■ Linear regression in vector form

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \qquad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$$

Least squares estimate of regression coefficients

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

Multivariate normal distribution $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ with pdf

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = |2\pi \mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- What's the deal with all the bold letters? Linear algebra.
- Worth the trip. Very useful for linear regression and more.

Vectors

Linear algebra: a vector is an object containing real numbers

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\3\\5\\3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Common default: a vector is a column vector.
- The transpose of a vector is a row vector

$$\mathbf{a}^{\top} = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 3 & 5 & 3 \end{array} \right)$$

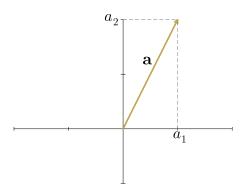
R:

```
> a = c(1,2,5,3)
> t(a) # transpose
```

Visualizing vectors in 2D

2D vector. Directed line (arrow) in \mathbb{R}^2 .

$$\mathbf{a} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_2 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \end{array}\right)$$



Visualizing vectors in 3D

3D vector. Directed line (arrow) in \mathbb{R}^3 .

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{a} = (3, 2, 2)^{\top}$$

$$a_{32}$$

$$a_{32}$$

$$a_{23}$$

$$a_{23}$$

$$a_{34}$$

$$a_{35}$$

$$a_{34}$$

$$a_{34}$$

$$a_{35}$$

$$a_{34}$$

$$a_{35}$$

$$a_{36}$$

$$a_{37}$$

$$a_{37$$

Vector addition and subtraction

Adding two vectors with the same number of elements

$$m{a} = \left(egin{array}{c} a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3 \end{array}
ight), \quad m{b} = \left(egin{array}{c} b_1 \ b_2 \ b_3 \end{array}
ight) \quad m{a} + m{b} = \left(egin{array}{c} a_1 + b_1 \ a_2 + b_2 \ a_3 + b_3 \end{array}
ight)$$

Substracting a vector from another vector

$$\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 - b_1 \\ a_2 - b_2 \\ a_3 - b_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Both these operations can be visualized geometrically.

Vector multiplication

■ In R a*b will do elementwise multiplication

$$m{a}*m{b}=\left(egin{array}{c} a_1b_1\ a_2b_2\ a_3b_3 \end{array}
ight)$$

■ In a%*%b will compute the **dot product**

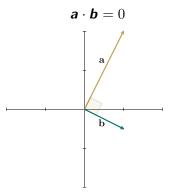
$$oldsymbol{a} \cdot oldsymbol{b} = oldsymbol{a}^ op oldsymbol{b} = \left(egin{array}{ccc} oldsymbol{a}_1 & oldsymbol{a}_2 & oldsymbol{a}_3 \end{array}
ight) \left(egin{array}{c} b_1 \ b_2 \ b_3 \end{array}
ight) = oldsymbol{a}_1 b_1 + oldsymbol{a}_2 b_2 + oldsymbol{a}_3 b_3$$

In general the dot product is

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i$$

Orthogonal vectors

Two vectors are orthogonal if their dot product is zero



Example in 3D:

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrices

A matrix is like a table, it has rows and columns

$$\mathbf{X} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

- This is a 2×3 matrix since it has 2 rows and 3 columns.
- View a $p \times q$ matrix as q column vector stacked horizontally

$$m{X} = \left(egin{array}{cccc} | & | & & | \ m{x}_1 & m{x}_2 & \cdots & m{x}_q \ | & | & & | \end{array}
ight)$$

Example: the following three vectors give the matrix above

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- > x1 = c(2,3); x2 = c(3,2); x3=c(1,0);
- > cbind(x1,x2,x3) # column bind. Also rbind exists

Matrix-Vector multiplication

- \blacksquare **A** is an $m \times n$ matrix **A**
- **b** is an *n*-element vector
- Matrix-vector product: dot product of each row in **A** with **b**

$$\mathbf{A}_{(m \times n)} = \begin{pmatrix} - & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} & - \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} & - \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{b}_{(n \times 1)} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top}\mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top}\mathbf{b} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top}\mathbf{b} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix-Matrix multiplication

Matrix product of A and B: pairwise dot product of a row in A and a column in B

$$\mathbf{A}_{(m\times n)} = \begin{pmatrix} - & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} & - \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} & - \\ \vdots & & \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} & - \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{B}_{(n\times r)} = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} & & & & \\ & \mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{b}_{r} \\ & & & \end{vmatrix} & \\ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{r} \\ \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{r} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top}\mathbf{b}_{r} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix-Matrix multiplication

Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{pmatrix} (2 & 3) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & (2 & 3) \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ (3 & 2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & (3 & 2) \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \\
= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 0 = 2 & 2 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 1 = 7 \\ 3 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 0 = 3 & 3 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 1 = 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

- > A = matrix(c(2,3,3,2), 2, 2, byrow = TRUE)
- > B = matrix(c(1,2,0,1), 2, 2, byrow = TRUE)
- > A%*%B # A*B would do elementwise multiplication

Linear regression - one observation

One observation

$$y = \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p + \varepsilon$$

In vector form

$$y = \underbrace{\left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_1 & \cdots & x_p \end{array}\right)}_{\mathbf{x}^\top} \underbrace{\left(\begin{array}{c} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{array}\right)}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \varepsilon = \mathbf{x}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon$$

Add a one for the intercept

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & \cdots & x_p \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{pmatrix}$$

The ith observation

$$y_i = \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_i$$

Linear regression - all observations

The ith observation

$$y_i = \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_i$$

All $i = 1, \dots n$ observations stacked under each other

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \mathbf{x}_2^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

■ With matrix-vector multiplication

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \mathbf{x}_{2}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1}^{\top} \\ \mathbf{x}_{2}^{\top} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top} \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

X is the $n \times p$ covariate matrix with n observations as rows.

Linear regression

Linear regression in vector form

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Least squares estimate = maximum likelihood estimate

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

We now understand that

$$\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{1i}^{2} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{1i}x_{2i} & \cdots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{1i}x_{pi} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{1i}x_{2i} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{2i}^{2} & \cdots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{2i}x_{pi} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{1i}x_{pi} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{2i}x_{pi} & \cdots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{pi}^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{1i}y_{i} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{2i}y_{i} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{pi}y_{i} \end{pmatrix}$$

But what does $(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ mean? Inverse of a matrix?



Matrix inverse

The inverse of regular number x is x^{-1} which is defined by

$$x^{-1}x = xx^{-1} = \frac{x}{x} = 1$$

Inverse of $p \times p$ matrix **A** is denoted by \mathbf{A}^{-1} and defined by

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_{p}$$

where I_p is the $p \times p$ identity matrix

$$I_p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- > A = matrix(c(2,3,3,2), 2, 2, byrow = TRUE)
- > invA = solve(A)
- > invA %*% A # returns the identity matrix

Least squares estimate

Least squares minimizes the sum of squared residuals

$$Q(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$$

Find minimum of $Q(\beta_0, \beta_1)$ by solving system of equations

$$\frac{\partial Q(\beta_0, \beta_1)}{\partial \beta_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)(-1) = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial Q(\beta_0, \beta_1)}{\partial \beta_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)(-x_i) = 0$$

gives the so called normal equations

$$n\bar{y} = n\beta_0 + \beta_1 n\bar{x}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = \beta_0 n\bar{x} + \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

With solution

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \qquad \hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$$

Least squares estimate - vector form

Sum of squared residuals in vector notation

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta})^2 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})$$

■ Set gradient vector equal to zero

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} Q(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = -2 \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \boldsymbol{0}$$

gives the normal equations

$$\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{y}$$

■ Multiply both sides with the matrix inverse of $X^T X$

$$\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{y}$$

gives the least squares solution

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

Gradients

- Bivariate function z = f(x, y).
- Partial derivative in x: change in x, holding y constant

$$f_X(x,y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x,y)$$

Partial derivative in y: change in y, holding x constant

$$f_{y}(x,y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x,y)$$

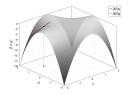
Gradient is the vector of partial derivatives

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}f_{x}(x,y)\\f_{y}(x,y)\end{array}\right)$$

General $f(x_1, \ldots, x_p)$ or $f(\mathbf{x})$. Gradient is p-dim vector

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f(x) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_p} f(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

Gradients



Determinant of a square matrix

Let **A** be a 2×2 matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{array}\right)$$

■ The **determinant** is the number

$$|\mathbf{A}| = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

- Better intuition soon on why the determinant is important.
- Formulas for larger matrices are complicated. Use a computer.
- > A = matrix(c(2,3,3,2), 2, 2)
- > det(A) # returns -5

Bivariate normal distribution

X and Y follow a bivariate normal distribution

$$(X, Y) \sim N(\mu_x, \mu_y, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \rho)$$

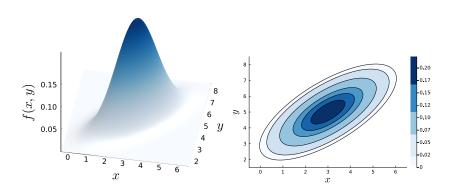
with joint pdf

$$f(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \times \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_x}{\sigma_x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y-\mu_y}{\sigma_y}\right)^2 - 2\rho\left(\frac{x-\mu_x}{\sigma_x}\right)\left(\frac{y-\mu_y}{\sigma_y}\right)\right]\right)$$

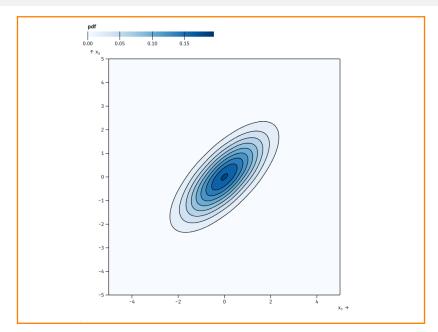
Parameters:

- $\blacktriangleright \mu_{x}$ the mean of X
- $\blacktriangleright \mu_{y}$ the mean of Y
- \triangleright σ_{x} the standard deviation of X
- \triangleright σ_v the standard deviation of Y
- \triangleright ρ the correlation between X and Y

Bivariate normal distribution



Bivariate normal - widget



Properties bivariate normal distribution

Let X and Y follow a bivariate normal distribution

$$(X, Y) \sim N(\mu_x, \mu_y, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \rho)$$

■ The marginal density for X is also normal

$$X \sim N(\mu_{x}, \sigma_{x}^{2})$$

with the same parameters as those in the bivariate normal.

■ The marginal density for Y is also normal

$$Y \sim N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$$

Conditional densities $f_{Y|X}(y)$ and $f_{X|Y}(x)$ are normal, see wikipedia, if you are curious.

Multivariate normal distribution

 $\mathbf{x} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)^{\top}$ and follows a multivariate normal distribution

$$m{x} \sim N(m{\mu}, m{\Sigma})$$

with joint pdf

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2}} |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- Clash in notation: small bold letters for random vectors.
- Parameters when p=2:
 - ► Mean vector

$$\mu = \left(\begin{array}{c} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{array} \right)$$

Covariance matrix

$$oldsymbol{\Sigma} = \left(egin{array}{cc} \sigma_1^2 &
ho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \
ho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{array}
ight)$$

Multivariate normal distribution

Determinant measures total variance

$$|\mathbf{\Sigma}| = \sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2 (1 - \rho^2)$$

- No correlation: $|\Sigma| = \sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2$
- ightharpoonup Strong positive correlation: $|\Sigma|$ small
- ightharpoonup Strong negative correlation: $|\Sigma|$ small
- The quadratic form

$$(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

is the vector version of a squared standardized variable

$$\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2$$