MATH 423/533: THE MAIN

THEORETICAL TOPICS

Notation

- sample size *n*, data index *i*
- number of predictors, p (p = 2 for simple linear regression)
- y_i : response for individual i
- $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})^\top (1 \times p)$ row vector
- **X** $(n \times p)$ matrix containing all predictors for all individuals i = 1, ..., n.
- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^\top (n \times 1)$ column vector
- Y_i and Y: random variables corresponding to responses

Linear model assumptions

For i = 1, ..., n,

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i}[Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i] = \mathbf{x}_i\beta = \sum_{j=1}^P \beta_j x_{ij}$$

and

$$Var_{Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i}[Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i] = \sigma^2$$

where

$$\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^\top$$

is the $(p \times 1)$ vector of regression coefficients, and $\sigma^2 > 0$ is the error variance.

We assume also that Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are independent given $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n$.

Linear model assumptions

In vector form

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}\beta \qquad (n \times 1)$$

and

$$Var_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n \qquad (n \times n).$$

This is equivalent to a model specification of

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

where

$$\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon|\mathbf{X}}[\epsilon|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{0}_n \qquad \qquad \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}_{\epsilon|\mathbf{X}}[\epsilon|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n.$$

The intercept

We usually consider including the 'special' predictor

$$x_{i0} \equiv 1$$
 $i = 1, \ldots, n$

and specify the model

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i}[Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i] = \mathbf{x}_i\beta = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} = \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j x_{ij}$$

This model has $p + 1 \beta$ parameters.

We will let *p* count the total number of predictors, including the intercept term.

Simple linear regression

We specify

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i}[Y_i|\mathbf{x}_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \ x_{i1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{x}_i \beta$$

with p = 2 parameters in the regression model.

This model posits a straight line relationship between x and y.

Least squares estimation in simple linear regression

On the basis of data (x_{i1}, y_i) , i = 1, ..., n, we choose the line of best fit according to the least squares principle. We estimate parameters $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1)^{\top}$ by $\widehat{\beta}$ where

$$\widehat{\beta} = \arg\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{i1})^2 = \arg\min_{\beta} S(\beta)$$

where we may also write, in vector form,

$$S(\beta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

We achieve the minimization by calculus.

The Normal Equations

We solve

$$\frac{\partial S(\beta)}{\partial \beta_0} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{i1}) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial S(\beta)}{\partial \beta_1} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1}(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{i1}) = 0$$

These two equations can be written

$$n\beta_0 + \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$
$$\beta_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1} + \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1} y_i$$

or, in matrix form

$$(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})\beta = \mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{y}$$

The Normal Equations

These equations are the 'Normal Equations'. If the symmetric $p \times p = 2 \times 2$ matrix

$$\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}$$

is non-singular, then we may write the solution

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

which yields a $p \times 1 = 2 \times 1$ vector of least squares estimates. Explicitly, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \widehat{\beta}_0 \\ \widehat{\beta}_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n & \sum x_{i1} \\ \sum x_{i1} & \sum x_{i1}^2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \sum y_i \\ \sum x_{i1}y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

Estimates

$$\begin{bmatrix} n & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}^{2} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{n \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}^{2} - \left\{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}\right\}^{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}^{2} & -\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1} \\ -\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1} & n \end{bmatrix}$$

We write

$$S_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}^{2} - \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1} \right\}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i1} - \overline{x}_{1})^{2}$$

$$S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1} y_{i} - \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} \right\} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} (x_{i1} - \overline{x}_{1})$$

Estimates (cont.)

Thus, after some algebra

$$\widehat{\beta}_0 = \overline{y} - \widehat{\beta}_1 \overline{x}_1$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_1 = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$$

Residuals and fitted values

Define for
$$i = 1, \ldots, n$$
,

$$e_i = y_i - (\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_{i1}) = y_i - \widehat{y}_i$$

- e_i ith residual
- \widehat{y}_i *i*th fitted value.

Statistical properties of least squares estimators

It is evident from the formula

$$\widehat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}$$

say, where

$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}$$

that the least squares estimates are merely linear combinations of the observed responses $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^{\top}$.

Specifically in the simple linear regression

$$\widehat{\beta}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{n} - \overline{x}_1 c_i\right) y_i \qquad \widehat{\beta}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i y_i$$

where, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$,

$$c_i = \frac{x_{i1} - \overline{x}_1}{S_{rr}}.$$

Statistical properties of the estimators

In random variable form, we have the estimators

$$\widehat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Y}$$

and thus, under the model assumptions

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

and

$$Var_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$$

we can study distributional properties of the estimators.

Statistical properties of the estimators (cont.)

We have, using elementary properties of expectation and variance,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] = \beta \qquad (p \times 1)$$

$$\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^{2}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \qquad (p \times p)$$

with p = 2. Explicitly

$$Var_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{\beta}_{0}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^{2} \frac{\sum x_{i1}^{2}}{nS_{xx}} = \sigma^{2} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\overline{x}_{1})^{2}}{S_{xx}} \right)$$

$$Var_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{\beta}_{1}|\mathbf{X}] = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{S_{xx}}$$

Residuals and Fitted values

For the simple linear regression

1.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i = \mathbf{1}_n^{\top} \mathbf{e} = 0.$$

2.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}e_i = x_1^{\top} e = 0$$

3.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{y}_i.$$

$$4. \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{y}_i e_i = 0,$$

that is, the observed residual vector \mathbf{e} is orthogonal to the observed $n \times 1$ vectors

$$\underline{\mathbf{x}}_1 = (x_{11}, \dots, x_{n1})^{\top}$$
 and $\widehat{\mathbf{y}} = (\widehat{y}_1, \dots, \widehat{y}_n)^{\top}$.

Residuals and Fitted values (cont.)

These results arise as $\widehat{\beta}$ solves

$$\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\widehat{\beta}) = \mathbf{0}_{p}$$

and the results above follow immediately.

Estimating σ^2

Let

$$SS_{Res} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - n(\overline{y})^2 - \widehat{\beta}_1 S_{xy}$$
$$= SS_T - \widehat{\beta}_1 S_{xy}$$

say, where

$$SS_T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - n(\overline{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2$$

We study the statistical properties of the random variable

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \widehat{Y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \mathbf{x}_i \widehat{\beta})^2 = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta})^{\top} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta})$$

where

$$\widehat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{Y}$$

is the vector of least squares estimators.

But

$$\widehat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y}$$

say, where

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

is the 'hat matrix'.

We can show that H is symmetric, and that

$$\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}$$

so H is idempotent.

Now consider the simpler model where dependence on x_{i1} is omitted, and we merely have an intercept term. Predictions in this model use the $(n \times 1)$ matrix

$$\mathbf{X} = (1, 1, \dots, 1)^{\top} = \mathbf{1}_n$$

yielding the corresponding hat matrix

$$\mathbf{H}_1 = \mathbf{1}_n (\mathbf{1}_n^{\top} \mathbf{1}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{1}_n^{\top} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1}_n \mathbf{1}_n^{\top}$$

which is merely the $(n \times n)$ matrix with all elements equal to 1/n.

We have that

$$SS_{Res} = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\widehat{\beta})^{\top} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\widehat{\beta}) = \mathbf{Y}^{\top} (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}) \mathbf{Y}$$

where the $(n \times n)$ matrix $(I_n - H)$ is symmetric and idempotent.

Now, we have the sum of squares decomposition

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2$$

or

$$SS_T = SS_{Res} + SS_R$$

Similarly to the previous result we have

$$SS_T = \mathbf{Y}^{\top} (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_1) \mathbf{Y}$$

and

$$SS_R = \mathbf{Y}^{\top} (\mathbf{H} - \mathbf{H}_1) \mathbf{Y}$$

yielding the representation

$$\mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_1)\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{H} - \mathbf{H}_1)\mathbf{Y}$$

where the $(n \times n)$ matrices $(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_1)$ and $(\mathbf{H} - \mathbf{H}_1)$ are also symmetric and idempotent.

Using the result for the expectation of a quadratic form that if **V** is a *k*-dimensional random vector with

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{V}] = \mu \qquad \qquad \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}[\mathbf{V}] = \Sigma$$

then for $k \times k$ matrix **A**, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{V}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}] = \operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{A}\Sigma) + \mu^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mu$$

it follows that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}] = (n - p)\sigma^2$$

Hence an unbiased estimator of σ^2 is

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\text{SS}_{\text{Res}}}{n-p} = \text{MS}_{\text{Res}}$$

with p = 2.

Using similar methods

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[SS_R|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{H} - \mathbf{H}_1)\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = (p-1)\sigma^2 + \beta_1^2 S_{xx}$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[SS_T|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}^\top (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_1)\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = (n-1)\sigma^2 + \beta_1^2 S_{xx}$$

Standard errors for the estimators

We have that

$$\operatorname{Var}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

which is estimated by

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$
.

The standard errors of the estimators are estimated by the square roots of the diagonal elements of this matrix; denote them by

e.s.e
$$(\widehat{\beta}_j)$$
 $j = 0, 1.$

Hypothesis Testing

We can formulate hypothesis tests for the parameters provided we make the normality assumption

$$\epsilon | \mathbf{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{0}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n).$$

For j = 0, 1, to test

$$H_0 : \beta_i = 0$$

$$H_0 : \beta_j = 0$$
 vs $H_1 : \beta_j \neq 0$

we use the test statistic

$$t_j = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_j}{\text{e.s.e}(\widehat{\beta}_j)}.$$

Hypothesis Testing (cont.)

If H_0 is true, we have by standard distributional results that corresponding statistic

$$T_j \sim \text{Student}(n-p)$$

with p = 2. We reject H₀ at significance level α if

$$|t_j| > t_{\alpha/2,n-p}$$

where $t_{\alpha,\nu}$ is the $1-\alpha$ quantile of the Student-t distribution with ν degrees of freedom.

Confidence Intervals

A
$$(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$$
 confidence interval for β_j is

$$\widehat{\beta}_j \pm t_{\alpha/2,n-p} \times \text{e.s.e}(\widehat{\beta}_j) \qquad j = 0, 1.$$

Global Model Adequacy

The R^2 statistic is defined by

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_R}{SS_T} = 1 - \frac{SS_{Res}}{SS_T}$$

and is a measure of the global adequacy of x as a predictor of y.

The adjusted R^2 statistic is defined by

$$R_{\text{Adj}}^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{SS}_{\text{Res}}/(n-p)}{\text{SS}_{\text{T}}/(n-1)}$$

and is a measure that acknowledges that SS_{Res} decreases in expectation as p increases.

Local Model Adequacy

Residual plots are used to assess 'local' model adequacy.

If the model assumptions are correct, then the residual plots

- e_i vs i
- e_i vs x_{i1}
- e_i vs \widehat{y}_i

should be 'patternless' that is, should not exhibit systematic patterns in either mean-level or variability.

The residuals should form a horizontal 'band' around zero, with equal variability around zero everywhere.

Prediction

Predictions from the model at value of x are formed by using the estimated regression coefficients; at $x = x_{i1}$ observed in the sample, we have the prediction equal to the fitted value

$$\widehat{y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_{i1}.$$

In vector form, we have

$$\widehat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\widehat{\beta}.$$

At $x = x_1^{\text{new}}$, we have the prediction

$$\widehat{y}^{\text{new}} = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_1^{\text{new}}.$$

Confidence and Prediction Intervals

In the random variable form we have predictions

$$\widehat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y}$$

so that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}\beta$$

and

$$\mathbb{V}ar_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{H}$$

Therefore a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for the prediction at $x = x_{i1}$ is

$$\widehat{y}_i \pm t_{\alpha/2,n-p} \times \sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}^2 h_{ii}}$$

where h_{ii} is the (i, i)th diagonal element of **H**.

Confidence and Prediction Intervals (cont.)

For a prediction at $x = x_1^{\text{new}}$, we have that

$$\operatorname{Var}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{Y}^{\text{new}}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 x^{\text{new}} (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} (x^{\text{new}})^{\top} = \sigma^2 h^{\text{new}}$$

and a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for the prediction at $x = x_1^{\text{new}}$ is

$$\widehat{y}^{\text{new}} \pm t_{\alpha/2,n-p} imes \sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}^2 h^{\text{new}}}$$

Confidence and Prediction Intervals (cont.)

A prediction interval at $x = x_1^{\text{new}}$ incorporates the random variation that is present in the observations. Let

$$\widehat{Y}_{\mathrm{O}}^{\mathrm{new}} = \widehat{Y}^{\mathrm{new}} + \epsilon^{\mathrm{new}}$$

where ϵ^{new} is a zero mean, variance σ^2 random residual error, independent of all other random quantities. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{Y}_{\mathrm{O}}^{\mathrm{new}}|\mathbf{X}] &= \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\widehat{Y}^{\mathrm{new}}|\mathbf{X}] + \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\epsilon^{\mathrm{new}}|\mathbf{X}] \\ &= \sigma^{2}h^{\mathrm{new}} + \sigma^{2} \\ &= \sigma^{2}(1 + h^{\mathrm{new}}). \end{aligned}$$

Thus a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ **prediction interval** for the prediction at $x = x_1^{\text{new}}$ is

$$\widehat{y}^{ ext{new}} \pm t_{lpha/2,n-p} imes \sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}^2(1+b^{ ext{new}})}$$

The Analysis of Variance

The sums-of-squares decomposition

$$SS_T = SS_{Res} + SS_R$$

forms the basic component of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) as it describes how overall observed variability in response y (SS_T) is decomposed into

- a component corresponding to the residual errors (SS_{Res}) and
- a component corresponding to the regression (SS_R).

Under the assumption of Normality of residual errors,

$$\epsilon | \mathbf{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{0}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n),$$

and the hypothesis that $\beta_1 = 0$, we have the result that for the sums-of-squares random variables

$$\frac{\mathrm{SS}_{\mathrm{T}}}{\sigma^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{H}_{1})\mathbf{Y}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi_{n-1}^{2}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{SS}_{\mathrm{Res}}}{\sigma^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi_{n-p}^{2}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{SS}_{\mathrm{R}}}{\sigma^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{Y}^{\top}(\mathbf{H} - \mathbf{H}_{1})\mathbf{Y}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi_{p-1}^{2}$$

with SS_{Res} and SS_R independent.

Consequently we can show that under the hypothesis, the random variable

$$F = \frac{SS_{R}/(p-1)}{SS_{Res}/(n-p)}$$

has a Fisher-F distribution with p-1 and n-p degrees of freedom

$$F \sim \text{Fisher}(p-1, n-p).$$

We can construct a test of H_0 : $\beta_1=0$ based on this result: we reject H_0 at significance level α if

$$F > F_{\alpha,p-1,n-p}$$

where F_{α,ν_1,ν_2} is the $(1-\alpha)$ quantile of the Fisher-F distribution with ν_1 and ν_2 degrees of freedom

This test is equivalent to the test of H_0 : $\beta_1 = 0$ based on the *t*-statistic; we have that

$$t_1^2 = \left\{ \frac{\widehat{\beta}_1}{\text{e.s.e}(\widehat{\beta}_1)} \right\}^2 = F$$

and the two-tailed test based on t_1 is equivalent to the one-tailed test based on F.

The ANOVA table arranges the requires information in tabular form:

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Regression	SS_R	<i>p</i> – 1	$SS_R/(p-1)$	\overline{F}
Residual	SS_{Res}	n-p	$SS_{Res}/(n-p)$	
Total	SS_T	n - 1		

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Under the assumption of Normality of residual errors,

$$\epsilon | \mathbf{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{0}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n),$$

so that

$$\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}_n),$$

we may consider using a maximum likelihood (ML) procedure to estimate the model parameters (β, σ^2) .

The likelihood function for data y is

$$L(\beta, \sigma^2) = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2}\right)^{n/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)\right\}$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (cont.)

The log-likelihood is

$$\ell(\beta, \sigma^2) = -\frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) + \text{constant}$$
$$= -\frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} S(\beta) + \text{constant}.$$

We seek to maximize this function with respect to β and σ^2 .

It is evident that, in terms of β , the maximum value of $\ell(\beta, \sigma^2)$ is attained (for any σ^2) when $S(\beta)$ is minimized. Thus the maximum likelihood estimate of β is identical to the least squares estimate.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (cont.)

To maximize over σ^2 , note that

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\beta, \sigma^2)}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} S(\beta).$$

Equating to zero, and setting $\beta = \widehat{\beta}$, we have the solution

$$\widehat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} S(\widehat{\beta}) = \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\widehat{\beta})^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\widehat{\beta})$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2$$

$$= \frac{SS_{\text{Res}}}{n}.$$

Random *X* and Correlation

We may decide to treat the predictor x as a random variable, and make a bivariate Normal distribution assumption for the data pairs $(x_i, y_i), i = 1, ..., n$.

We specify that

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} X \\ Y \end{array}\right] \sim \text{Normal}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} \sigma_X^2 & \sigma_{XY} \\ \sigma_{XY} & \sigma_Y^2 \end{array}\right]\right)$$

or

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} X \\ Y \end{array}\right] \sim \operatorname{Normal}\left(\mu, \Sigma\right)$$

Random *X* and Correlation (cont.)

Writing

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

the joint density is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y \sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1 - \rho^2)}\right\}$$
$$\left[\left(\frac{x - \mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right)^2 - \frac{2\rho(x - \mu_X)(y - \mu_Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} + \left(\frac{y - \mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)^2\right]$$

- σ_{XY} is the covariance parameter
- ρ is the correlation parameter.

Random *X* and Correlation (cont.)

We may factorize the joint density

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_{Y|X}(y|x)f_X(x)$$

where

$$X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$$

and

$$Y|X = x \sim \text{Normal}\left(\mu_Y + \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X^2}(x - \mu_X), \sigma_Y^2 - \frac{\sigma_{XY}^2}{\sigma_X^2}\right)$$

or equivalently

$$Y|X = x \sim \text{Normal}\left(\mu_Y + \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}(x - \mu_X), \sigma_Y^2(1 - \rho^2)\right)$$

Random *X* and Correlation (cont.)

Equating the conditional expectation of Y given X = x

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y|X}[Y|x] = \mu_Y + \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}(x - \mu_X)$$

with a simple linear regression

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y|X}[Y|x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

we identify

$$\beta_0 = \mu_Y - \mu_X \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}$$

$$\beta_1 = \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_Y}$$

Sample correlation

The sample correlation is

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} = \frac{S_{xy}}{\sqrt{S_{xx}SS_T}}$$

so that

$$\widehat{\beta}_1 = \left(\frac{SS_T}{S_{xx}}\right)^{1/2} r$$

and

$$r^2 = \frac{SS_R}{SS_T} = R^2.$$

Multiple Linear Regression

The simple linear regression model extends to include multiple predictors

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}\beta$$

in a straightforward way.

- Least squares estimation, inference, testing prediction etc. proceeds in precisely the same way.
- Model checking using residuals and R^2 also proceeds as for simple linear regression.
- *F*-testing procedures for assessing the utility of including all the predictors proceed as before, and there is a natural extension to the use of ANOVA tables in regression.

Hypothesis Testing

However, now we may also consider individual *t*-tests for the coefficients, from a single fit. Furthermore we may consider simultaneous tests for collections of parameters using the *F*-test.

• We split $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{X}^{(1)} \ \mathbf{X}^{(2)}]$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta} = [\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(1)} \ \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(2)}]$ and consider the model

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon = \mathbf{X}^{(1)}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(1)} + \mathbf{X}^{(2)}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(2)} + \epsilon.$$

• We compare a simpler model with a more complex model, where the simpler model is obtained by hypothesizing that some β s are zero, that is

Full Model :
$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$$

Reduced Model :
$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}^{(1)} \beta^{(1)} + \epsilon$$

that is, under the reduced model we assume $\beta^{(2)} = 0_r$.

In general the parameter estimates arising from the two models will be **different**; that is

• $\beta^{(1)}$ estimates from the Full model will in general not be equal to $\beta^{(1)}$ estimates from the Reduced model, as in the Full model

$$\widehat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{\beta}^{(1)} \\ \widehat{\beta}^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{(1)} & \{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{(2)} \\ \{\mathbf{X}^{(2)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{(1)} & \{\mathbf{X}^{(2)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{(2)} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{y} \\ \{\mathbf{X}^{(2)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

and in the reduced model

$$\widehat{\beta}^{(1)} = (\{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{(1)})^{-1}\{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{y}.$$

We modify the earlier sums of squares decomposition

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\widehat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2$$

$$SS_T = SS_{Res} + SS_R$$

to

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{y}_i^2$$

$$\overline{SS}_T = SS_{Res} + \overline{SS}_R$$

Note that

$$SS_{\mathrm{T}} = \overline{SS}_{\mathrm{T}} - n\{\overline{y}\}^2$$

and

$$SS_{R} = \overline{SS}_{R} - n\{\overline{y}\}^{2}.$$

If $\overline{SS}_R(\beta)$ and $\overline{SS}_R(\beta^{(1)})$ denote the regression sums of squares from the Full and Reduced models respectively, the *extra sum of squares* due to $\beta^{(2)}$ in the presence of $\beta^{(1)}$ is

$$\overline{SS}_R(\beta^{(2)}|\beta^{(1)}) = \overline{SS}_R(\beta) - \overline{SS}_R(\beta^{(1)}).$$

This facilitates the *F*-test of the null hypothesis

$$H_0: \beta^{(2)} = O_r$$

that is, that the Reduced model is an adequate simplification of the Full model.

We perform a partial F-test using

$$F = \frac{(\overline{\mathsf{SS}}_{\mathsf{R}}(\beta^{(2)}|\beta^{(1)}))/r}{\mathsf{MS}_{\mathsf{Res}}(\beta)} = \frac{(\mathsf{SS}_{\mathsf{Res}}(\beta^{(1)}) - \mathsf{SS}_{\mathsf{Res}}(\beta))/r}{\mathsf{SS}_{\mathsf{Res}}(\beta)/(n-p)}$$

which is distributed as

$$Fisher(r, n - p)$$

if H_0 is true.

The test may be used sequentially: for example, if parameter $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3)^{\top}$, then we have

$$\overline{SS}_R(\beta_0,\beta_1,\beta_2,\beta_3) = \overline{SS}_R(\beta_0) + \overline{SS}_R(\beta_1|\beta_0) + \overline{SS}_R(\beta_2|\beta_0,\beta_1) + \overline{SS}_R(\beta_3|\beta_0,\beta_1,\beta_2)$$

and also

$$\overline{SS}_R(\beta_1,\beta_2,\beta_3|\beta_0) = \overline{SS}_R(\beta_1|\beta_0) + \overline{SS}_R(\beta_2|\beta_0,\beta_1) + \overline{SS}_R(\beta_3|\beta_0,\beta_1,\beta_2)$$

We also have

$$\overline{SS}_{R}(\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3 | \beta_0) \equiv SS_{R}(\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3).$$

This latter decomposition allows us to test

- whether X_1 is worth including in the model, then
- whether X_2 is worth including, when X_1 is already included, then
- whether X_3 is worth including, when X_1 and X_2 are already included.

Note: If the $X^{(1)}$ and $X^{(2)}$ blocks are orthogonal

$$\{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}\}^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{(2)} = \mathbf{0}_{p-r,r}$$

then

- β estimates from Full and Reduced model are equal;
- we have the identity

$$\overline{SS}_R(\beta^{(1)}|\beta^{(2)}) = \overline{SS}_R(\beta^{(1)}).$$

The General Linear Hypothesis

The general linear hypothesis specifies a more general type of constraint on the model, namely

$$H_0: \mathbf{A}\beta = \mathbf{0}$$

for some $(m \times p)$ matrix **A**. If the hypothesis places r linearly independent constraints on β to make the Reduced model, and if

$$SS_H = SS_{Res}(Reduced) - SS_{Res}(Full)$$

then the test statistic

$$F = \frac{SS_{H}/r}{SS_{Res}(Full)/(n-p)}$$

is distributed as Fisher(r, n - p) if H₀ is true.

Multiple Testing

When testing each of the β s in turn using *t*-tests, we should account for multiple testing by controlling the *familywise Type I error rate* using *multiple testing corrections*:

• Bonferroni correction.

Confidence Elipsoids

Confidence ellipsoids allow for simultaneous confidence statements to be made about multiple β parameters; the region

$$\mathbf{b} \ : \ \frac{(\widehat{\beta} - \mathbf{b})^{\top} (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}) (\widehat{\beta} - \mathbf{b})}{p \mathsf{MS}_{\mathsf{Res}}(\beta)} \le F_{\alpha, p, n - p}$$

defines a region in \mathbb{R}^p that exhibits $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence.

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity corresponds to dependence/correlation amongst the predictors:

- can lead to inflation of the variance of estimators if present;
- can be measured by variance inflation factors;
- equivalent to R^2 measures constructed for the predictors;
- can be computed from the correlation matrix from the predictors.

Special Types of Predictors

- polynomial terms;
- factor predictors: discrete predictors measured on a nominal (non-numerical) scale;
- interactions: an interaction is a modification of the effect of one predictor in the presence of another.
- higher-order interactions.

Special Types of Predictors (cont.)

Important issues include

- how to represent factor predictors using indicator functions;
- how to count parameters;
- the interpretation of interactions;
- removing the intercept.

Model Selection Strategies

Our goal is to find the simplest possible model that adequately explains the observed response data.

- Forward selection;
- Backward elimination;
- Stepwise elimination;

Model Selection Criteria

- R²-based methods;
- largest R_{Adj}^2 equivalent to minimum MS_{Res};
- Mallows's C_p ;
- AIC;
- BIC;

Why the best model matters

- Over-simplified model: if the chosen model omits important predictors, then
 - the resulting estimates will be biased, have lower variance, and can have higher mean-squared error, depending on the magnitude of the effect of the omitted predictors;
 - the estimate of σ^2 will be too high;
 - predictions will have higher mean squared error.

If the omitted predictors are orthogonal to the included ones, then the bias is removed.

Why the best model matters (cont.)

- Over-complex model: if the chosen model includes unnecessary predictors, then
 - the resulting estimates will be unbiased, have higher variance, and higher mean-squared error;
 - the estimate of σ^2 will be unbiased;
 - predictions will have bias, higher variance and higher mean squared error.

Assessing the model fit

- PRESS residuals/statistic;
- leave-one-out/deletion residuals;
- leverage;
- influence in estimation and prediction;
- outliers;
- influence diagnostics.

Generalizing Least Squares

We may relax the variance assumption

$$Var_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$$

to

$$Var_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}$$

where **V** is a square, symmetric, non-singular matrix. This allows for

- unequal variances in the conditional response distribution;
- correlation amongst the residual errors ϵ .

This leads to the amended least squares objective function

$$(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^{\top} \mathbf{V}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

Generalizing Least Squares (cont.)

This leads to the estimates

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{\top} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

and the properties of the estimators, predictions etc. follow in a straightforward fashion.

A special case is weighted least squares, where

$$\mathbf{V} = \operatorname{diag}(1/w_1, 1/w_2, \dots, 1/w_n)$$

which accommodates unequal variances.

Transforming the response

We may use transformations of the response y_i to a different form to make the linear regression model assumptions more appropriate:

- log;
- square root;
- Box-Cox transform.