

Advanced Methods in Biostatistics I

Lecture 5

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General linear model

- Recall we seek to develop least squares for the general linear model $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, where

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{10} & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1,p-1} \\ x_{20} & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2,p-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{n0} & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{n,p-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Design matrix

- Let \mathbf{X} be a design matrix, notationally its elements and column vectors are given by:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \dots & x_{1p} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \dots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_p].$$

- We are assuming that $n \geq p$ and \mathbf{X} is of full (column) rank.

Least squares

- Consider the ordinary least squares criteria:

$$f(\beta) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2$$

- We showed last time that it has the following solution:

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}.$$

- The vector of fitted values is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y}.$$

- Here the matrix \mathbf{H} is called the hat matrix.
- \mathbf{H} is idempotent and symmetric.

Residuals

- The vector of residuals is given by

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y}.$$

- $\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}$ is idempotent and symmetric.

Residuals

- Note that $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}$, making the residuals orthogonal to any vector, $\mathbf{X}\gamma$, in the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X} .
- Hence, if an intercept term is included in the model, the residuals must sum to 0.
- Specifically, since the residuals are orthogonal to any column of \mathbf{X} , $\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{J}_n = 0$.

Geometrical perspective

- Consider the column space of the design matrix,

$$\Gamma = \{\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p\}.$$

- This p -dimensional space belongs to \mathbb{R}^n .

Geometrical perspective

- Consider the vector $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- Multiplication by the matrix $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$ projects \mathbf{y} into Γ .
- That is,

$$\mathbf{y} \rightarrow \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

is the linear projection map between \mathbb{R}^n and Γ .

Geometrical perspective

- The vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is the point in Γ that is closest to \mathbf{y} and $\hat{\beta}$ is the specific linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{X} that yields $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$.
- The vector \mathbf{e} is the vector connecting \mathbf{y} and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, and is orthogonal to all elements in Γ , i.e. it lies in Γ^\perp .
- It represents the projection of \mathbf{y} onto Γ^\perp .

Geometrical perspective

- Note that if \mathbf{W} is any $p \times p$ invertible matrix, then the fitted values, $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ will be the same for the design matrix \mathbf{XW} .
- This holds because the spaces $\{\mathbf{X}\beta \mid \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p\}$ and $\{\mathbf{XW}\gamma \mid \gamma \in \mathbb{R}^p\}$ are the same, since if $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{X}\beta$ then $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{X}\gamma$ via the relationship $\gamma = \mathbf{W}\beta$.

Geometrical perspective

- Thus, any element of the first space lies in the second.
- The same argument implies in the other direction, thus the two spaces are the same.
- Any linear reorganization of the columns of \mathbf{X} results in the same column space and the same fitted values.

Full row rank case

- In the case where \mathbf{X} is $n \times n$ of full rank, then the columns of \mathbf{X} form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
- In this case, $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{y}$, since \mathbf{y} lives in the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X} .
- All this linear model accomplishes is a lossless linear reorganization of \mathbf{y} .

Full row rank case

- This is surprisingly useful, especially when the columns of \mathbf{X} are orthonormal ($\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}$).
- In this case, the function that takes the outcome vector and converts it to the coefficients is called a "transform".
- The most well known versions of transforms are Fourier and wavelet.

Another approach

- Next let's look at the problem from another perspective.
- Let $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{X}_1 \ \mathbf{X}_2]$ be two submatrices of dimension $n \times p_1$ and $n \times p_2$, respectively, and let $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\boldsymbol{\beta}'_1 \ \boldsymbol{\beta}'_2)'$.
- Consider minimizing:

$$\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}_1\boldsymbol{\beta}_1 - \mathbf{X}_2\boldsymbol{\beta}_2\|^2.$$

Another approach

- If we hold β_2 fixed, this would be minimized when

$$\hat{\beta}_1(\beta_2) = (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1 (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}_2 \beta_2).$$

- Plugging this result back into the least squares criteria we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}_1 \beta_1 - \mathbf{X}_2 \beta_2\|^2 \\ \leq \|(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X}_1 (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1) \mathbf{y} - (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X}_1 (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1) \mathbf{X}_2 \beta_2\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Another approach

- This is equivalent to the least squares problem where the response variable is the residual of \mathbf{y} having regressed out \mathbf{X}_1 , and the explanatory variables the residual matrix of \mathbf{X}_2 having regressed \mathbf{X}_1 out of every column.
- Our estimate of β_2 will be the regression of these two sets of residuals.

Another approach

- This illustrates how the estimate of β_2 has been adjusted for \mathbf{X}_1 , both the outcome and the \mathbf{X}_2 predictors have been orthogonalized to the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X}_1 .
- This example helps our interpretation of the regression coefficients and how they are "adjust" for the other variables.

Another approach

- The estimate of β_2 represents the effect of the explanatory variables, \mathbf{X}_2 , while controlling for the effects of the other explanatory variables in the model, i.e. \mathbf{X}_1 .
- Ultimately the interpretation of a coefficient depends on which other variables are included in the model.
- An exception is when variables are orthogonal.

Recall the Swiss fertility data.

```
> y = swiss$Fertility
> X = as.matrix(swiss[, -1])
> dim(X)
[1] 47 5
> X1 = X[, 1:3]
> X2 = X[, 4:5]

> ytilde = (I - X1%%solve(t(X1)%%X1)%%t(X1))%%y
> X2tilde = (I - X1%%solve(t(X1)%%X1)%%t(X1))%%X2
> beta2 = solve(t(X2tilde)%%X2tilde)%%t(X2tilde)%%ytilde
> beta2

              [,1]
Catholic      0.1170662
Infant.Mortality 2.9836617

> beta1 = solve(t(X1)%%X1)%%t(X1)%%(y - X2%%beta2)
> beta1

              [,1]
Agriculture   0.1110005
Examination   0.4440591
Education     -0.7067362
```

Soultion using lm.

```
> summary(lm(y ~ X - 1))$coef
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
Agriculture	0.1110005	0.07423536	1.495250	1.423257e-01
Examination	0.4440591	0.31435258	1.412615	1.651367e-01
Education	-0.7067362	0.25008979	-2.825930	7.186594e-03
Catholic	0.1170662	0.04859619	2.408958	2.046207e-02
Infant.Mortality	2.9836617	0.31682721	9.417315	6.528210e-12

Mean centering

- Before continuing, it is useful to note that the mean centered version of \mathbf{y} , $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{J}_n \bar{y}$ can be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\mathbf{y}} &= \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{J}_n \bar{y} \\ &= \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{J}_n (\mathbf{J}_n' \mathbf{J}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{J}_n' \mathbf{y} \\ &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{J}_n (\mathbf{J}_n' \mathbf{J}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{J}_n') \mathbf{y}.\end{aligned}$$

Mean centering

- In other words, multiplication by the matrix $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{J}_n(\mathbf{J}_n'\mathbf{J}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{J}_n')$ centers vectors.
- This can be very useful for centering matrices as well.
- For example, if \mathbf{X} is an $n \times p$ matrix then the matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{J}_n(\mathbf{J}_n'\mathbf{J}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{J}_n')\mathbf{X}$ is the matrix with every column mean centered.

Partitioning the variability

- Using this result, we now seek to partition the variation in the data into various components.
- For convenience, let us define two projection matrices:

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

and

$$\mathbf{H}_J = \mathbf{J}_n(\mathbf{J}_n'\mathbf{J}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{J}_n'.$$

Total sums of squares

- Let us define the total sum of squares as

$$SS_{Tot} = ||\mathbf{y} - \bar{y}\mathbf{J}_n||^2 = \mathbf{y}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_J)\mathbf{y}.$$

- This is an unscaled measure of the total variability in the data.

Residual & Regression sums of squares

- Similarly, given a design matrix, \mathbf{X} , we can define the residual sums of squares as

$$SS_{Res} = \|\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}\|^2 = \mathbf{y}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_X)\mathbf{y}$$

and the regression sums of squares as

$$SS_{Reg} = \|\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{J}_n \bar{y}\|^2 = \mathbf{y}'(\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J)\mathbf{y}.$$

Regression sums of squares

- To show the later result first note that $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_X)\mathbf{J}_n = \mathbf{0}$ since \mathbf{X} contains an intercept.
- Thus, it holds that $\mathbf{H}_X\mathbf{J}_n = \mathbf{J}_n$ and $\mathbf{H}_X\mathbf{H}_J = \mathbf{H}_J$ and $\mathbf{H}_J = \mathbf{H}_J\mathbf{H}_X$.
- Also, note that \mathbf{H}_X is symmetric and idempotent.

Regression sums of squares

- Now we can perform the following manipulation

$$\begin{aligned} ||\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{J}_n \bar{\mathbf{y}}||^2 &= ||\mathbf{H}_X \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{J}_n (\mathbf{J}_n' \mathbf{J}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{J}_n' \mathbf{y}||^2 \\ &= ||\mathbf{H}_X \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}_J \mathbf{y}||^2 \\ &= \mathbf{y}' (\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J)' (\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J) \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{y}' (\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J) (\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J) \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{y}' (\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J \mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_X \mathbf{H}_J + \mathbf{H}_J) \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{y}' (\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J) \mathbf{y}. \end{aligned}$$

Partitioning the variability

- Using this identity we can now show that

$$\begin{aligned}SS_{Tot} &= \mathbf{y}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_J)\mathbf{y} \\&= \mathbf{y}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_X + \mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J)\mathbf{y} \\&= \mathbf{y}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_X)\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}'(\mathbf{H}_X - \mathbf{H}_J)\mathbf{y} \\&= SS_{Res} + SS_{Reg}\end{aligned}$$

- Thus the total sum of squares partition into the residual and regression sums of squares.

- Using this result, we can now define the coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{Reg}}{SS_{Tot}} = 1 - \frac{SS_{Res}}{SS_{Tot}}.$$

- This represents the proportion of the total variability explained by our model.
- This is guaranteed to be between 0 and 1.
- High values imply that the explanatory variables are useful in explaining the response and low values imply that the explanatory variables are not useful.

Problems with R^2

- Note that SS_{Tot} only depends on the response variable and not on the model formulation.
- Hence, it is equal for all regression models.
- Adding additional explanatory variables to a multiple regression model can only lower SS_{Reg} .

Problems with R^2

- Thus, including additional explanatory variables will always lead to an increase in the value of R^2 .
- Since R^2 can be made large by including more (and sometimes unimportant) explanatory variables, it is sometimes modified to adjust for the number of variables included in the model.
- This allows us to balance model parsimony with explanatory power.

Mean squares

- The ratio of the sum of squares to the 'degrees of freedom' (corresponding to the dimensions of the respective subspaces) gives the mean squares:

$$MS_{Tot} = \frac{SS_{Tot}}{n - 1}$$

$$MS_{Res} = \frac{SS_{Res}}{n - p}$$

$$MS_{Reg} = \frac{SS_{Reg}}{p - 1}$$

Adjusted R^2

- The adjusted coefficient of multiple determination, uses the mean squares instead of the sums of square, i.e.

$$R_a^2 = 1 - \frac{MS_{Res}}{MS_{Tot}} = 1 - \left(\frac{n-1}{n-p} \right) \frac{SS_{Res}}{SS_{Tot}}.$$

- Since the term includes the number of model parameters, p , it penalizes for model complexity.

R code

```
> fit = lm(y ~ X)
> summary(fit)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = y ~ X)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-15.2743	-5.2617	0.5032	4.1198	15.3213

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	66.91518	10.70604	6.250	1.91e-07	***
XAgriculture	-0.17211	0.07030	-2.448	0.01873	*
XExamination	-0.25801	0.25388	-1.016	0.31546	
XEducation	-0.87094	0.18303	-4.758	2.43e-05	***
XCatholic	0.10412	0.03526	2.953	0.00519	**
XInfant.Mortality	1.07705	0.38172	2.822	0.00734	**

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 7.165 on 41 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7067, Adjusted R-squared: 0.671

F-statistic: 19.76 on 5 and 41 DF, p-value: 5.594e-10

Computing the sums of square.

```
> anova(fit)
Analysis of Variance Table

Response: y
          Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value    Pr(>F)
X           5 5072.9  1014.58   19.761 5.594e-10 ***
Residuals  41 2105.0    51.34
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

> SSreg = anova(fit)[1,2]
> SSres = anova(fit)[2,2]
> SStot = SSres + SSreg

> 1-SSres/SStot
[1] 0.706735
```