Regression

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- Linear Regression
 - Least squares regression
 - Residuals
 - Confidence intervals for coefficients and variance
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 - Regression Diagnostics and Distribution Plots

Set-up



• Consider a set of measurements given by the response variable Y_i and with a corresponding set of predictor variables x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ip} . Hence the data set is

$$\{y_i, x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ip}\}_{i=1}^n$$
.

• Definition: A linear model is

$$\mathbb{E}\{\mathsf{Y}\}=\mathsf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta},$$

where $\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 & \dots & Y_n \end{pmatrix}^T$, is the <u>vector of observations</u>, \mathbf{X} is the known $n \times p$ design matrix and $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 & \dots & \beta_p \end{pmatrix}^T$ is the $p \times 1$ parameter vector.

• We are trying to quantify the systemic variation in Y due to $X\beta$.

Linear Regression



Example: polynomial regression. This can be written as

$$\mathbb{E}\{Y_i\} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \dots + \beta_p x_i^p,$$

where x_i is the *i*th predictor variable corresponding to Y_i .

For example we might fit a linear model of the form

$$\mathbb{E}\{Y_i\} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i1} + \beta_3 x_{i2} + \beta_4 x_{i1} x_{i2} + \beta_5 x_{i3}^2,$$

where x_{ki} is the value of the kth predictor for observation i.

Note that

$$E(Y_i) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x^{\beta_3},$$

is not a linear model.

- We will assume $p \le n$ (full rank).
- The rank of the matrix X is the dimension of the space spanned by the columns of X. Assume rank(X)=p.

Linear Regression



- We can also add further assumptions
 - Second-order assumptions (SOA) $var(Y) = \sigma^2 I_n$ where σ^2 is unknown. Thus $var(Y_i) = \sigma^2$ for all i and the Y_i s are uncorrelated.
 - Normal theory assumptions (NTA) The Y_i s are independently and normally distributed with common unknown variance σ^2 so

$$Y \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 I_n).$$

• NTA imples SOA but for now we will only assume the weaker SOA.

Linear Regression

• The linear model can be rewritten as

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
Y & = & X\beta + \epsilon \\
\begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ \cdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix} & = & \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{pmatrix} \\
& + \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

where $E(\epsilon) = 0$ and $var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2 I_n$.

 Minimise the difference between the observed values and the model fit to it.

Linear Regression

ullet Find \widehat{eta} that minimise the residual sum of squares (RSS), i.e. find

$$\widehat{\beta} = \arg\min_{\beta} (\epsilon^T \epsilon = \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2).$$

- Write $\theta = X\beta$. Then $\theta \in R(X) = \Theta$, (the vector space spanned by the columns of X).
- The lse is the $\widehat{\theta}$ that minimises $||\mathbf{Y} \theta||^2$, the square of the length of $\mathbf{Y} \theta$. This is minimised when $\mathbf{Y} \widehat{\theta}$ is perpendicular to Θ .
- v, is perpendicular to Θ if $X^T v = 0$. Thus

$$X^{T}(Y - \widehat{\theta}) = 0$$
 so $\widehat{\beta} = (X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T}Y$,

if X^TX is invertible.

Linear Regression

- Here, $\widehat{\beta}$ is the **ordinary least squares estimate** of β and is **unique**.
- Or:

$$\epsilon^{T} \epsilon = (Y - X\beta)^{T} (Y - X\beta)$$
$$= Y^{T} Y - 2\beta^{T} X^{T} Y + \beta^{T} X^{T} X\beta,$$

- $\beta^T X^T Y = Y^T X \beta$ (both are scalars).
- ullet Differentiating wrt eta and setting to zero we see that

$$-2X^TY + 2X^TX\beta = 0$$

$$\widehat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y,$$

as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (a^T \beta) = a, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (\beta^T A \beta) = 2A\beta.$$

Linear Regression

• $\widehat{\beta}$ is linear in Y, and $\widehat{\beta}$ is unbiased for β :

$$E(\widehat{\beta}) = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T E(Y)$$

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

• Let $A = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T$:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{V}\mathsf{ar}(\widehat{\beta}) &= \mathbb{V}\mathsf{ar}(\mathsf{AY}) \\ &= \mathsf{A} \ \mathbb{V}\mathsf{ar}(\mathsf{Y}) \ \mathsf{A}^T \\ &= \sigma^2 \mathsf{A} \mathsf{A}^T \\ &= \sigma^2 (\mathsf{X}^T \mathsf{X})^{-1} \mathsf{X}^T \mathsf{X} (\mathsf{X}^T \mathsf{X})^{-1} \\ &= \sigma^2 (\mathsf{X}^T \mathsf{X})^{-1}, \end{split}$$

as

$$Var(AY) = A Var(Y) A^T$$
.

Linear Regression

• Gauss-Markov Theorem Among all unbiased linear estimates of β for a full rank linear model satisfying SOA, any linear combination of the least squares estimator $\widehat{\beta}$ has the smaller or equal variance to that of any other, e.g. $\mathbb{V}ar\{a^T\widehat{\beta}\} \leq \mathbb{V}ar\{a^T\widetilde{\beta}\}$

Proof Write another estimator $\tilde{\beta}={\sf BY}$ (linearity). We can calculate the expectation of this estimator to be

$$\mathbb{E}\{\tilde{\beta}\} = \mathsf{B}\,\mathbb{E}\{\mathsf{Y}\}$$
$$= \mathsf{B}\mathsf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta}. \tag{1}$$

This implies that BX = I. We define

$$C = B - (X^T X)^{-1} X^T$$
 (2)

$$\tilde{\beta} = (C + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T) Y = \hat{\beta} + CY.$$
 (3)

and CX = 0 to preserve unbiasedness.

Linear Regression

• For any constant vector a we note

$$\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}\left\{\operatorname{a}^{T}\widetilde{\beta}\right\} = \mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}\left\{\operatorname{a}^{T}\left\{\widehat{\beta} + \operatorname{CY}\right\}\right\} \\
= \operatorname{a}^{T}\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}\left\{\widehat{\beta}\right\}\operatorname{a} + \operatorname{a}^{T}\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}\left\{\operatorname{CY}\right\}\operatorname{a} + 2\mathbb{C}\operatorname{ov}\left\{\operatorname{a}^{T}\widehat{\beta}, \operatorname{a}^{T}\operatorname{CY}\right\}. \tag{4}$$

We now only need to show that the covariance term is zero. As

$$\operatorname{Cov}\{a^{T}\widehat{\beta}, a^{T}CY\} = a^{T}(X^{T}X)^{-1}X^{T}\operatorname{Cov}\{Y, Y\}C^{T}a$$

$$= 0,$$
(5)

and so the result follows.



Simple Linear Regression

Let

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_i + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

 \bullet $Y^T = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n), \beta^T = (\beta_1, \beta_2)$ and

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Assume SOA and NO x_is are equal

$$X^{T}X = \begin{pmatrix} n & n\overline{x} \\ n\overline{x} & \sum x_{i}^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(X^{T}X)^{-1} = \frac{1}{n\sum x_{i}^{2} - n^{2}\overline{x}^{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \sum x_{i}^{2} & -n\overline{x} \\ -n\overline{x} & n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X^{T}Y = \begin{pmatrix} n\overline{Y} \\ \sum x_{i}Y_{i} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Simple Linear Regression

Now we can find $\widehat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$, hence

$$\begin{pmatrix} \widehat{\beta}_{1} \\ \widehat{\beta}_{2} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sum x_{i}^{2} - n\overline{x}^{2}} \times \begin{pmatrix} \overline{Y} \sum x_{i}^{2} - \overline{x} \sum x_{i} Y_{i} \\ \sum x_{i} Y_{i} - n\overline{x} \overline{Y} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_{2} = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}} = \frac{\sum (x_{i} - \overline{x})(Y_{i} - \overline{Y})}{\sum (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2}}$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_{1} = \overline{Y} - \widehat{\beta}_{2} \overline{x}.$$

$$\mathbb{V}ar(\widehat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{nS_{xx}} \begin{pmatrix} \sum x_{i}^{2} - n\overline{x} \\ -n\overline{x} & n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Simple Linear Regression

- If $\bar{x} = 0$ everything becomes easy: the covariance matrix is diagonal and $\hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}$.
- To get a diagonal covariance we adopting the alternative linear model

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2(x_i - \bar{x}) + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n.$$

Then we find that $\hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}, \ \hat{\beta}_2 = \mathcal{S}_{xy}/\mathcal{S}_{xx}$ and

$$var(\widehat{\beta}) = \begin{pmatrix} n^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & S_{xx}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

This idea could be generalised to orthogonal polynomials.

Linear Regression

• Let $\widehat{Y} = X\widehat{\beta}$. We found $\widehat{\beta}$ by minimising the RSS (Residual Sum of Squares),

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} &= & \min_{\beta} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^T \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \\ &= & (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta})^T (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta}) \\ &= & \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{Y} - 2 \widehat{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} + \widehat{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta} \\ &= & \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{Y} - \widehat{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} \\ &+ \widehat{\beta}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta} - \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}) \\ &= & (\mathbf{Y}^T - \widehat{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T) \mathbf{Y} \\ &= & \mathbf{Y}^T (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta}) \\ &= & \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{Y} - \widehat{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \widehat{\beta}. \end{split}$$

Linear Regression

Also the RSS is given by

$$RSS = e^{T}e = Y^{T}Y - \widehat{Y}^{T}\widehat{Y},$$

the difference between the squares of the observed and fitted Y values.

 The residuals of the model are given by the difference between the observed and fitted values so that

$$e = Y - \widehat{Y}$$

$$= Y - X\widehat{\beta}$$

$$= \{I_n - X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T\}Y$$

$$= (I_n - P)Y,$$

• $P = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$ is known as the "hat" matrix and relates the fitted and observed responses as $\widehat{Y} = PY$.

Linear Regression

- The hat matrix has a number of known properties:
 - 1. P is a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix
 - 2. P is idempotent so that $P^2 = P$
 - 3. The rank of Pis the same as rank X(i.e. both of rank p). From this note rank $(I_n P) = n rank(P) = n p$ and that $(I_n P)$ is also idempotent as

$$(I_n - P)^2 = I_n^2 - 2P + P^2 = I_n - P,$$

as $P^2 = P$.

• Firstly we find the E(e) = 0 as

$$E(e) = (I_n - P)E(Y) = (I_n - P)X\beta = 0,$$

as

$$PX = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^TX$$
$$= X$$

Linear Regression

- More is known about the residuals:
 - Theorem The residual sum of squares is an unbiased estimator of $(n-p)\sigma^2$.
- Thus we know that

$$\hat{\sigma}^{2} = \frac{RSS}{n-p}$$

$$= \frac{(Y - X\hat{\beta})^{T}(Y - X\hat{\beta})}{n-p}$$

$$= \frac{Y^{T}Y - \hat{Y}^{T}\hat{Y}}{n-p},$$

is an unbiased estimator of σ^2 .



Linear Regression

Note that

$$\mathbb{E}\{RSS\} = \mathbb{E}\{Y^TY - \widehat{Y}^T \widehat{Y}\}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\{\{(I - P)Y\}^T \{(I - P)Y\}\}\}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\{\text{trace}\{(I - P)Y\}\{(I - P)Y\}^T\}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\{\text{trace}\{(I - P)YY^T \{(I - P)\}^T\}\}$$

$$= \sigma^2 \text{trace}(I - P)$$

$$= \sigma^2 \{n - p\}.$$

The result thus follows.

Maximum likelihood approach

- Let Y $\sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 I_n)$, i.e. NTA.
- The log-likelihood of the data is

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

- maximising L with respect to β is equivalent to minimising $(Y X\beta)^T (Y X\beta)$
- The maximum likelihood estimate to σ^2 is RSS/n.

Maximum likelihood approach



With NTA:

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N(\beta, \sigma^{2}(X^{T}X)^{-1})$$

$$V = \frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi^{2}_{n-p}$$

• $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ are independent.

Theorem 15 If $A = \{a_{ij}\} = (X^TX)^{-1}$ (so $var(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2 A$), then under NTA, the following are $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence intervals for the β_i s and σ^2 :

1.
$$(\hat{\beta}_j - t_{1-\alpha/2}\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{a_{jj}}, \hat{\beta}_j + t_{1-\alpha/2}\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{a_{jj}})$$

2. $\left(\frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2}}, \frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{\alpha/2}}\right)$

Maximum likelihood approach



With NTA:

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N(\beta, \sigma^{2}(X^{T}X)^{-1})$$

$$V = \frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi^{2}_{n-p}$$

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2. $\left(\frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2}}, \frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{\alpha/2}}\right)$

Residuals



Let

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

but that the analyst incorrectly assumes that

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \epsilon_i$$

Then

$$E\{e_{i}\} = E\left\{Y_{i} - \hat{\beta}_{0}\right\}$$

$$= E\left\{Y_{i} - \frac{1}{n}\sum Y_{i}\right\}$$

$$= \frac{n-1}{n}(\beta_{1}x_{i}) + \frac{1}{n}\sum_{j\neq i}(\beta_{1}x_{j})$$

$$= \beta_{1}(x_{i} - \bar{x})$$
(6)

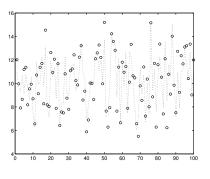


Figure:

Here $Y_i = 10 + 2x_i + 3\epsilon_i$. This is not apparent from the plot, of Y_i (dots) and $E_{Y|\beta,\sigma^2}(Y_i)$ (dotted line).

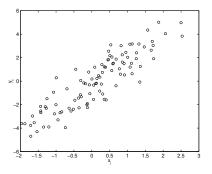


Figure:

Looking at a plot of the residuals against the explanatory variable gives a different opinion.