

THE REGRESSION MODEL IN MATRIX FORM

We will consider the linear regression model in matrix form.

For simple linear regression, meaning one predictor, the model is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

This model includes the assumption that the ε_i 's are a sample from a population with mean zero and standard deviation σ . In most cases we also assume that this population is normally distributed.

The multiple linear regression model is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \dots + \beta_K x_{iK} + \varepsilon_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

This model includes the assumption about the ε_i 's stated just above.

This requires building up our symbols into vectors. Thus

$$\mathbf{Y}_{n \times 1} = \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ Y_3 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

captures the entire dependent variable in a single symbol. The “ $n \times 1$ ” part of the notation is just a shape reminder. These get dropped once the context is clear.

For simple linear regression, we will capture the independent variable through this $n \times 2$ matrix:

$$\mathbf{X}_{n \times 2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ 1 & x_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

The coefficient vector will be $\mathbf{\beta}_{2 \times 1} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$ and the noise vector will be $\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{n \times 1} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \varepsilon_3 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$.

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The simple linear regression model is written then as $\underset{n \times 1}{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{n \times 2}{\mathbf{X}} \underset{2 \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \underset{n \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$.

The product part, meaning $\underset{n \times 2}{\mathbf{X}} \underset{2 \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$, is found through the usual rule for matrix multiplication as

$$\underset{n \times 2}{\mathbf{X}} \underset{2 \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ 1 & x_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_3 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

We usually write the model without the shape reminders as $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. This is a shorthand notation for

$$\begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ Y_3 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \varepsilon_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 + \varepsilon_2 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_3 + \varepsilon_3 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n + \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

It is helpful that the multiple regression story with $K \geq 2$ predictors leads to the same model expression $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (just with different shapes). As a notational convenience, let $p = K + 1$. In the multiple regression case, we have

$$\underset{n \times p}{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1K} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2K} \\ 1 & x_{31} & x_{32} & \cdots & x_{3K} \\ 1 & x_{41} & x_{42} & \cdots & x_{4K} \\ 1 & x_{51} & x_{52} & \cdots & x_{5K} \\ 1 & x_{61} & x_{62} & \cdots & x_{6K} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \cdots & x_{nK} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \underset{p \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_K \end{pmatrix}$$

The detail shown here is to suggest that \mathbf{X} is a tall, skinny matrix. We formally require $n \geq p$.

In most applications, n is much, much larger than p . The ratio $\frac{n}{p}$ is often in the hundreds.

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If it happens that $\frac{n}{p}$ is as small as 5, we will worry that we don't have enough data (reflected in n) to estimate the number of parameters in $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ (reflected in p).

The multiple regression model is now $\underset{n \times 1}{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{n \times p}{\mathbf{X}} \underset{p \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \underset{n \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$, and this is a shorthand for

$$\begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ Y_3 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{11} + \beta_2 x_{12} + \beta_3 x_{13} + \cdots + \beta_K x_{1K} + \varepsilon_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{21} + \beta_2 x_{22} + \beta_3 x_{23} + \cdots + \beta_K x_{2K} + \varepsilon_2 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{31} + \beta_2 x_{32} + \beta_3 x_{33} + \cdots + \beta_K x_{3K} + \varepsilon_3 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{n1} + \beta_2 x_{n2} + \beta_3 x_{n3} + \cdots + \beta_K x_{nK} + \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

The model form $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is thus completely general.

The assumptions on the noise terms can be written as $E \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\text{Var } \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$. The \mathbf{I} here is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. That is,

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

The variance assumption can be written as $\text{Var } \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}$. You may see

this expressed as $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = \sigma^2 \delta_{ij}$, where

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

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We will call \mathbf{b} as the estimate for unknown parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$.

You will also find the notation $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ as the estimate.

Once we get \mathbf{b} , we can compute the *fitted* vector $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}$. This fitted value represents an ex-post guess at the expected value of \mathbf{Y} .

The estimate \mathbf{b} is found so that the fitted vector $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ is close to the actual data vector \mathbf{Y} . Closeness is defined in the least squares sense, meaning that we want to minimize the criterion Q , where

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(Y_i - (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})_{i^{\text{th}} \text{ entry}} \right)^2$$

This can be done by differentiating this quantity $p = K + 1$ times, once with respect to b_0 , once with respect to b_1, \dots , and once with respect to b_K . This is routine in simple regression ($K = 1$), and it's possible with a lot of messy work in general.

It happens that Q is the squared length of the vector difference $\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}$. This means that we can write

$$Q = \underbrace{(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})}_{1 \times n}' \underbrace{(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})}_{n \times 1}$$

This represents Q as a 1×1 matrix, and so we can think of Q as an ordinary number.

There are several ways to find the \mathbf{b} that minimizes Q . The simple solution we'll show here (alas) requires knowing the answer and working backward.

Define the matrix $\mathbf{H} = \underbrace{\mathbf{X}}_{n \times p} \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X}}_{p \times n \ n \times p} \right)^{-1} \underbrace{\mathbf{X}'}_{p \times n}$. We will call \mathbf{H} as the “hat matrix,” and it has some important uses. There are several technical comments about \mathbf{H} :

- (1) Finding \mathbf{H} requires the ability to get $\left(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1}_{p \times n \ n \times p}$. This matrix inversion is possible if and only if \mathbf{X} has full rank p . Things get very interesting when \mathbf{X} *almost* has full rank p ; that's a longer story for another time.
- (2) The matrix \mathbf{H} is *idempotent*. The defining condition for idempotence is this:
The matrix \mathbf{C} is idempotent $\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{C}\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C}$.
Only square matrices can be idempotent.
Since \mathbf{H} is square (It's $n \times n$), it can be checked for idempotence. You will indeed find that $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}$.

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- (3) The i^{th} diagonal entry, that in position (i, i) , will be identified for later use as the i^{th} leverage value. The notation is usually h_i , but you'll also see h_{ii} .

Now write \mathbf{Y} in the form $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}$.

Now let's develop Q . This will require using the fact that \mathbf{H} is symmetric, meaning $\mathbf{H}' = \mathbf{H}$. This will also require using the transpose of a matrix product. Specifically, the property will be $(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})' = \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}'$.

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}) \\ &= (\{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}\} - \mathbf{Xb})' (\{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}\} - \mathbf{Xb}) \\ &= (\{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y})' (\{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}) \\ &= \{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\}' \{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\} \\ &\quad + \{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\}' (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y} \\ &\quad + ((\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y})' \{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\} \\ &\quad + ((\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y})' (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y} \end{aligned}$$

The second and third summands above are zero, as a consequence of
 $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}$.

$$= \{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\}' \{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\} + ((\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y})' (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}$$

If this is to be minimized over choices of \mathbf{b} , then the minimization can only be done with regard to the first summand $\{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\}' \{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}\}$. It is possible to make the vector $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}$ equal to $\mathbf{0}$ by selecting $\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$. This is very easy to see, as $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$.

This $\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$ is known as the *least squares* estimate of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$.

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For the simple linear regression case $K = 1$, the estimate $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{pmatrix}$ can be found with relative

ease. The slope estimate is $b_1 = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$, where $S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i Y_i - n \bar{x} \bar{Y}$

and where $S_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n (\bar{x})^2$.

For the multiple regression case $K \geq 2$, the calculation involves the inversion of the $p \times p$ matrix $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$. This task is best left to computer software.

There is a computational trick, called “mean-centering,” that converts the problem to a simpler one of inverting a $K \times K$ matrix.

The matrix notation will allow the proof of two very helpful facts:

- * $E \mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\beta}$. This means that \mathbf{b} is an unbiased estimate of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. This is a good thing, but there are circumstances in which biased estimates will work a little bit better.
- * $\text{Var } \mathbf{b} = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1}$. This identifies the variances and covariances of the estimated coefficients. It's critical to note that the separate entries of \mathbf{b} are not statistically independent.