# **PSTAT 126**

#### **Regression Analysis**

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Lecture 6 Multiple Linear Regression

# Multiple Linear Regression Models (MLR)

Consider the linear regression model with p predictors:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \ldots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i$$

For each  $i=1,\ldots,n$  we assume  $\epsilon_i \overset{i.i.d}{\sim} N(0,\sigma^2)$ . Thus  $y_i \overset{ind}{\sim} N(\mu_i,\sigma^2)$ . with  $\mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + ... + \beta_n x_{in}$ .

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# Multiple Linear Regression Models (MLR)

**Matrix Representation:** By stacking up all the observations, we can obtain the matrix representation of the MLR model:

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \dots & x_{1p} \\ 1 & x_{21} & \dots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \dots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

This implies  $\boldsymbol{y} \sim N_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I}_n)$ .

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#### **Estimation**

**LS** and ML Estimation of  $\beta$ : Provided  $X^TX$  is non-singular:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{LSE} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{MLE} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}$$

So that  $\hat{y} = X\hat{\beta} = Hy$ , with  $H = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$  the *Projection Matrix* or *Hat Matrix*, which corresponds to the orthogonal projection onto the column space of X.

Estimation of  $\sigma^2$ :

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}}{n - p^*} = \frac{SSR}{n - p^*}$$

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# Algebraic Properties of the Projection Matrix H

- $\boldsymbol{H}$  is symmetric:  $\boldsymbol{H}^T = \boldsymbol{H}$ .
- $\boldsymbol{H}$  is idempotent:  $\boldsymbol{H}^2 = \boldsymbol{H}$ .
- If X is a  $n \times p^*$  matrix with  $rank(X) = p^*$ , then  $rank(H) = p^*$ .
- X is invariant under H: HX = X
- The eigenvalues of H consist of  $p^*$  ones, and  $n-p^*$  zeros.

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### Algebraic Properties of the Projection Matrix H

Note that the residuals of the MLR model can be written as:

$$\hat{\epsilon} = y - \hat{y} = y - Hy = (I - H)y = My$$

- M = (I H) is symmetric:  $M^T = M$ .
- M is idempotent:  $M^2 = M$
- $rank(\mathbf{M}) = n p^*$ .
- The eigenvalues of M consist of  $n-p^*$  ones, and  $p^*$  zeros.
- $\hat{\epsilon}$  and X are orthogonal:  $\hat{\epsilon}^T X = 0$ . Under normality this is equivalent to statistical independence.
- ullet M and H are orthogonal: MH=0. This implies  $\hat{\epsilon}$  and  $\hat{eta}$  are independent (Under normality).

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# Inference on $oldsymbol{eta}$ and $\sigma^2$

• Distribution of  $\hat{\beta}$ :

$$E(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = E\left[ (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y} \right]$$

$$= (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T E(\boldsymbol{y}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

$$V(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = V\left[ (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y} \right]$$

$$= \left[ (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \right] V(\boldsymbol{y}) \left[ (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \right]^T = (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \sigma^2$$

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_j) = \sigma^2 \left[ \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X} \right]_{jj}^{-1} \qquad Cov(\hat{\beta}_i, \hat{\beta}_j) = \sigma^2 \left[ \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X} \right]_{ij}^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N_{p^*}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \sigma^2).$$

**Gauss-Markov Theorem:** $\hat{\beta}$  is the best linear unbiased estimate (BLUE) of  $\beta$ .

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# Inference on $\beta$ and $\sigma^2$

• **Distribution of**  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ . Note that:

$$\hat{\epsilon} = My = M(X\beta + \epsilon) = M\epsilon$$

#### Lemma

If A is a symmetric and idempotent  $n \times n$  real matrix and  $Z \sim N(0, I_n)$  is a random vector of n independent standard normal variables, then  $Z^TAZ$  has chi-squared(r) distribution, r being the trace of A.

From the lemma we can prove that  $\frac{\hat{\epsilon}^T\hat{\epsilon}}{\sigma^2}\sim\chi^2_{(n-p^*)}$  since:

$$\frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^T\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}}{\sigma^2} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^T \boldsymbol{M}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}{\sigma^2}$$

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#### Species Example

```
Beta.hat<- solve(crossprod(X))%*%(t(X)%*%y);t(Beta.hat)
       Intercept Area Elevation Scruz
                                                 Adjacent
## [1,] 7,075377 -0,02397793 0,3195734 -0,2393552 -0,07484842
sigma.hat <- sqrt(sum(fit1$residuals^2)/(fit1$df.residual)); sigma.hat
## [1] 59.74333
XtX.inverse <- solve(crossprod(X)); XtX.inverse</pre>
     Intercept Area Elevation Scruz Adjacent
## Intercept 9.849524e-02 3.879513e-05 -1.589754e-04 -4.059337e-04 2.421334e-05
## Area
         3.879513e-05 1.296222e-07 -2.439943e-07 1.163061e-07 4.003452e-08
## Elevation -1.589754e-04 -2.439943e-07 7.323822e-07 -1.457015e-07 -1.471043e-07
## Scruz -4.059337e-04 1.163061e-07 -1.457015e-07 7.594187e-06 -1.368476e-08
## Adjacent 2.421334e-05 4.003452e-08 -1.471043e-07 -1.368476e-08 7.747375e-08
Beta.hat.SE <- sigma.hat*sqrt(diag(XtX.inverse)); Beta.hat.SE
                   Area Elevation
    Intercept
                                         Scruz
                                                 Adjacent
```

## 18.74981844 0.02150944 0.05112795 0.16463800 0.01662902

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Species ~ Area + Elevation + +Scruz + Adjacent,
      data = gala)
##
## Residuals:
       Min
               1Q Median
                                         Max
## -111.637 -34.930 -7.864 33.432 182.524
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 7.07538 18.74982 0.377 0.709093
## Area
           -0.02398 0.02151 -1.115 0.275554
## Elevation 0.31957 0.05113 6.250 1.54e-06 ***
            -0.23936 0.16464 -1.454 0.158434
## Scruz
## Adjacent -0.07485 0.01663 -4.501 0.000136 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 59.74 on 25 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.7658, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7284
## F-statistic: 20.44 on 4 and 25 DF, p-value: 1.39e-07
```

#### **Model Performance**

- Goodness of fit.
- 2 Estimators Quality.
- Usefulness of predictors.
- Prediction accuracy.

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#### Goodness of fit

• Residual Standard Error (RSE)  $\hat{\sigma}$ 

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}}{n - p^*}}$$

The smaller  $\hat{\sigma}$  the better. But, how small?

Determination coefficient  $R^2$ 

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}} = 1 - \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{\mathbf{y}^{T} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y}^{T} \mathbf{M}_{1} \mathbf{y}}$$

Where  $\boldsymbol{M}_1 = (\boldsymbol{I} - \mathbf{1}(\mathbf{1}^T\mathbf{1})^{-1}\mathbf{1}^T)$ 

It can be proved that:

$$R^2 = cor(\boldsymbol{y}, \hat{\boldsymbol{y}})$$

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### Hypothesis tests for a set of predictors

We want to assess the usefulness of the predictors in the prediction of the response. For instance, let's suppose we want to test whether there is at least one predictor useful in the prediction of the response:

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \ldots = \beta_p = 0$$
  $H_1: \beta_j \neq 0$  for at least one  $j \in 1, \ldots, p$ .

This can be tested by comparing the full model:  $y = X\beta + \epsilon$  to the null model:  $y = \mu + \epsilon$ .

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#### **General Hypothesis Test**

Consider two models  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ , such that  $c(M_1) \subset c(M_2)$ . Where c(M) denotes the column space spanned by the predictors matrix of model M. This means that predictors included in model  $M_1$  is a subset of predictors included in  $M_2$ . How to decide which model is better?

- If there is not much difference in how well both models fit the data, we go with the *smaller* model  $M_1$ .
- If the *larger* model  $M_2$  fits better because of the additional variables, we go with model  $M_2$ .

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#### **General Hypothesis Test**

We have learned that we can evaluate the performance of a model by calculating the SSR. Small values of SSR will imply a better fit of the model. For  $c(M_1) \subset c(M_2)$  it is always true that:

$$SSR_{M_2} \leq SSR_{M_1}$$

Let's consider the difference  $SSR_{M_1} - SSR_{M_2}$ . If this difference is small, there is not substantial difference between the fit of the larger model and the smaller model. Thus, we go with  $M_1$ . If this difference is significant, the fit of the smaller model is substantially worse than the fit of the large model. Therefore, we go with model  $M_2$ .

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#### F-Test

We want to test the hypothesis:

$$H_0: SSR_{M_1} = SSR_{M_2} \qquad H_1: SSR_{M_1} > SSR_{M_2}$$

We consider the F-Statistic:

$$\begin{split} F &= \frac{(SSR_{M_1} - SSR_{M_2})/(df_{M_1} - df_{M_2})}{SSR_{M_2}/df_{M_2}} \\ &= \frac{\boldsymbol{y}^T (\boldsymbol{H}_2 - \boldsymbol{H}_1) \boldsymbol{y}/(df_{M_1} - df_{M_2})}{\boldsymbol{y}^T (\boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{H}_2) \boldsymbol{y}/df_{M_2}} \sim F_{(df_{M_1} - df_{M_2}, df_{M_2})} \end{split}$$

With  $m{H}_1$  and  $m{H}_2$  the projection matrices for models  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  respectively.  $F \sim F_{(df_{M_1}-df_{M_2},df_{M_2})}$ , since  $\frac{m{y}^T(m{H}_2-m{H}_1)m{y}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{df_{M_1}-df_{M_2}}$  and  $\frac{m{y}^T(m{I}-m{H}_2)m{y}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{df_{M_2}}$ 

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#### Case 1: Global F-Test

The global F-test:

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \ldots = \beta_p = 0 \qquad H_1: \beta_j \neq 0 \text{ for at least one } \\ j \in 1, \ldots, p$$

Which is equivalent to:

 ${\cal H}_0:{\cal M}_0$  and  ${\cal M}_F$  fit the data similarly well ,  ${\cal H}_1:{\cal M}_F$  fits the data better

Where  $M_0$  is the null model (with no predictors):  $y = \mu + \epsilon$ , and  $M_F$  is the full model (with p predictors):  $y = X\beta + \epsilon$ .

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#### Case 1: Global F-Test

Total Sum of Squares:

$$SSR_{M_0} = \mathbf{y}^T (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_0) \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$
, with  $df = n - 1$ .

Residual Sum of Squares:

$$SSR_{M_F} = \boldsymbol{y}^T (\boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{H}_F) \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$
, with  $df = n - p^*$ .

Regression Sum of Squares:

$$\Rightarrow SSR_{M_0} - SSR_{M_F} = \boldsymbol{y}^T (\boldsymbol{H}_F - \boldsymbol{H}_0) \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$$
, with  $df = p$ .

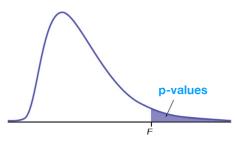
Recall 
$$H_0 = \boldsymbol{X}_0(\boldsymbol{X}_0^T\boldsymbol{X}_0)^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}_0^T = \mathbf{1}(\mathbf{1}^T\mathbf{1})^{-1}\mathbf{1}^T$$
 and  $H_F = \boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T$ .

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#### Case 1: Global F-Test

For a significance level  $\alpha$ , we reject  $H_0$  if  $F>F_{(1-\alpha;df_{M_1}-df_{M_2},df_{M_2})}$  or equivalently, if  $p-value<\alpha$ .

Recall: p-value: Probability of obtaining tests results as least as extreme as the observed results.



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### Case 2: F-test for a pair of predictors

$$H_0: \beta_l = \beta_k = 0$$
  $H_1: \beta_l \neq 0 \lor \beta_k \neq 0$ 

Which is equivalent to:

 ${\cal H}_0: {\cal M}_1$  and  ${\cal M}_F$  fit the data similarly well ,  ${\cal H}_1: {\cal M}_1$  fits the data better

Where  $M_1$  is the model that does not include predictors  $X_l$  nor  $X_k$  and  $M_F$  is the full model (with p predictors).

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# Case 2: F-test for a pair of predictors

$$SSR_{M_1} = \mathbf{y}^T (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_1) \mathbf{y}$$
, with  $df = n - (p^* - 2) = n - p + 1$ .  
 $SSR_{M_F} = \mathbf{y}^T (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}_F) \mathbf{y}$ , with  $df = n - p^* = n - p - 1$ .  
 $\Rightarrow SSR_{M_1} - SSR_{M_F} = \mathbf{y}^T (\mathbf{H}_F - \mathbf{H}_1) \mathbf{y}$ , with  $df = 2$ .

Recall  $H_1 = X_1(X_1^T X_1)^{-1} X_1^T$ , with  $X_1$  the matrix without predictors  $X_l$  and  $X_k$  and  $H_F = \boldsymbol{X} (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T$ .

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# **Species Example:** $\hat{\sigma}$ and $R^2$

## [1] 0.7658462

```
fit1<- lm( Species ~ Area+Elevation+ + Scruz+ Adjacent, data=gala)
RSE<- sqrt(sum(fit1$residuals^2)/fit1$df.residual); RSE ## With Formula
## [1] 59.74333
sigma(fit1) ##With lm function
## [1] 59.74333
v.hat<- fit1$fitted.values
R2<- cor(y.hat,y)^2;R2 ## With Formula
## [1] 0.7658462
summary(fit1)$r.squared ##With 1m function
```

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### Species Example: Global F-Test

```
\begin{split} H_0: \beta_{Area} = \beta_{Elevation} = \beta_{Scruz} = \beta_{Adjacent} = 0 & H_1: \beta_j \neq 0 \text{ for at least one } j \in \{Area, Elevation, Scruz, Adjacent\} \end{split}
```

```
fullmodel <- lm (Species ~ Area+Elevation+ Scruz+ Adjacent, data=gala)
nullmodel <- lm(Species~1, data=gala)
anova1 <- anova(nullmodel, fullmodel); anova1
## Analysis of Variance Table
##
## Model 1: Species ~ 1
## Model 2: Species ~ Area + Elevation + Scruz + Adjacent
    Res.Df
##
              RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
## 1
        29 381081
## 2 25 89232 4 291850 20.442 1.39e-07 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' 1
pval <- 1-pf (anova1$F[2],4,25); pval
```

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## [1] 1.389845e-07

### Species Example: F-test for a pair of predictors

```
H_0: \beta_{Area} = \beta_{Scruz} = 0 H_1: \beta_{Area} \neq 0 \lor \beta_{Scruz} \neq 0
```

fullmodel <- lm (Species ~ Area+Elevation+ Scruz+ Adjacent, data=gala)

```
Model1 <- lm(Species~Elevation+ Adjacent, data=gala)
anova2<-anova(Model1, fullmodel);anova2

## Analysis of Variance Table
##
## Model 1: Species ~ Elevation + Adjacent
## Model 2: Species ~ Area + Elevation + Scruz + Adjacent
## Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
## 1 27 100003
## 2 25 89232 2 10771 1.5089 0.2406
pval<- 1-pf(anova2$F[2],2,25);pval</pre>
```

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## [1] 0.2406149