

# Regression Analysis

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# Chapter 1

## Preliminaries

### 1.1 Random Variables

We start with a review of basic concepts and definitions from probability.

**Definition 1.1.1** (Random Experiments). *A random experiment is a process with a sample space  $\mathcal{S}$  for which it is impossible to predict the outcome with certainty.*

Note that the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$  is the set of all possible outcomes from a random experiment.

**Definition 1.1.2** (Random Variable). *A random variable  $X$  is associated to a random experiment (or process) that is a function which maps the sample space to the real numbers, i.e  $X : \mathcal{S} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ . If the set*

$$X(\mathcal{S}) = \{X(s) : s \in \mathcal{S}\}$$

*is countable, then  $X$  is a discrete random variable, and if it is uncountable then  $X$  is a continuous random variable.*

**Definition 1.1.3** (Probability Functions). *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  be a probability space. A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a probability density function if*

1.  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$  in the sample space, and
2.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

*For discrete random variables, we use a probability mass function which follows the same properties with the integral replaced by a sum.*

**Theorem 1.1.1.** *Two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if their joint probability function  $f(x, y)$  is the product of their marginal distributions*

$$f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$$

### 1.1.1 Expectation, Variance, and Covariance

**Definition 1.1.4** (Expected Value). *The expectation (or expected value) of a random variable  $X$  is defined as*

$$E(X) = \mu = \int_A xf(x)dx$$

The expectation is the average value, or the value expected to be observed by performing an experiment a very large number of times. We denote the expected value by  $E(X) = \mu$  where  $\mu$  is known as the mean. Note that  $\bar{X}$  is the sample mean, which is the observed expected value from a population with mean  $\mu$  given by

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

where  $n$  is the sample size.

**Definition 1.1.5** (Variance). *The variance of a random variable  $X$  is given by*

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = E[(Y - E(Y))^2] = E(Y^2) - E(Y)^2$$

Note that the standard deviation  $\sigma$  is the square root of the variance  $\sigma^2$ .

**Definition 1.1.6** (Covariance). *The covariance of two random variables  $X, Y$  is defined by*

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))] = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

**Definition 1.1.7** (Correlation). *The correlation of two random variables  $\rho$  is defined by*

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X) \text{Var}(Y)}}$$

with  $\text{Var}(X) \text{Var}(Y) \neq 0$ .

When the correlation of two random variables is 0, we say that they are uncorrelated.

### 1.1.2 Properties

(i) The expectation is a linear operator, i.e

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i E(X_i)$$

(ii) The variance is not linear in the same way,

$$\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}(X_i) + \sum_{i \neq j} \text{Cov}(Y_i, Y_j)$$

(iii)  $\text{Cov}(X, X) = \text{Var}(X)$  and  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$ .

(iv) If  $X_i$  are uncorrelated, then

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i, \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i c_i \text{Var}(X_i)$$

(v)  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) < 0$  if and only if observations of  $X$  above its sample mean  $\bar{X}$  tend to accompany corresponding observations of  $Y$  below its sample mean  $\bar{Y}$  and vice-versa.

(vi)  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) > 0$  if and only if observations of  $X$  above  $\bar{X}$  tend to accompany corresponding observations of  $Y$  above  $\bar{Y}$  and vice-versa.

(vii)  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0 \implies X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated

(viii) If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then they are uncorrelated. The opposite is not true however.

(ix)  $|\rho(X, Y)| \leq 1$ .

(x)  $|\rho(X, Y)| = 1 \iff X = aY + b$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , in otherwords  $X$  is a linear combination of  $Y$ .

### 1.1.3 Random Vectors

**Definition 1.1.8** (Random Vectors). If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are random variables, then

$$\vec{X} = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{pmatrix}$$

is a random vector, and the expected value for  $\vec{X}$  is

$$E(\vec{X}) = \begin{pmatrix} E(X_1) \\ \vdots \\ E(X_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that  $X_i$ 's do not necessarily have the same distributions.

**Definition 1.1.9** (Variance-Covariance Matrix). The variance-covariance matrix of  $\vec{X}$  is the symmetric matrix

$$\text{Var}(\vec{X}) = [g_{ij}]$$

where the entries  $g_{ij}$  are

$$g_{ij} = \begin{cases} \text{Var}(X_i) & i = j \\ \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

In otherwords, the matrix looks like

$$\text{Var}(\vec{X}) = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Var}(X_1) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}(X_1, X_n) & \cdots & \text{Var}(X_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are indepedent with the same variance  $\sigma^2$ , then

$$\text{Var}(\vec{X}) = \sigma^2 I_n$$

where  $I_n$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

#### 1.1.4 Samples

In practice, we usually work with samples from the random variables, so we do not have the population mean  $\mu$  and population variance  $\sigma^2$ . Instead, we used unbiased estimators  $\bar{X}$  and  $s^2$  to estimate  $E(X) = \mu$  and  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$  respectively. Let  $\{X, Y\}_{i=1}^n$  be a sequence of random variables, then the sample means are given by

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad \bar{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

and the sample variance is

$$s_X^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2, \quad s_Y^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

Note that for the sample variance we divide by  $n-1$  because we have 1 less degree of freedom since to calculate the sample variance, we use the sample mean which also uses the  $n$  samples. The sample covariance is given by

$$s_{XY} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})$$

#### 1.1.5 Important Distributions

**Definition 1.1.10** (Cumulative Distribution Functions). *The cumulative distribution function (c.d.f) of a continuous random variable  $X$  is defined by*

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t)dt$$

where  $f(x)$  is the probabaility density function of  $X$ .

Note that

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x)$$

## Normal Distribution

We denote a random variable  $X$  with normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  as  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , with c.d.f

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \Phi(x)$$

and p.d.f

$$f(x) = \Phi'(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right)$$

Note that we cannot calculate a formula for the c.d.f but compute values for it by evaluating the integral numerical for various values of  $\Phi(x)$ .

## Chi-Squared Distribution

We say a random variable  $X$  has a  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of random  $X \sim \chi^2(\nu)$ , with a p.d.f

$$f(x; \nu) = \frac{x^{\nu/2-1} e^{-x/2}}{2^{\nu/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)} I(y > 0)$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the gamma function. If we have  $X_i \sim \chi^2(\nu_i)$ , then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \chi^2\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \nu_i\right)$$

There is an important relationship between the chi-squared distribution and the normal distribution. Let  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ , that is  $Z$  follows a standard normal distribution, then  $Z^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$ .

## $t$ -Distribution

If  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ , and  $U \sim \chi^2(\nu)$  with  $Z$  and  $U$  independent, then

$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/\nu}} \sim t(\nu)$$

This is the  $t$ -distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom.

## $F$ -Distribution

If  $U_1 \sim \chi^2(\nu_1)$ , and  $U_2 \sim \chi^2(\nu_2)$  are independent, then

$$F = \frac{U_1/\nu_1}{U_2/\nu_2} \sim F(\nu_1, \nu_2)$$

which is known as the  $F$ -Distribution (or Fisher's distribution) with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom.

**Theorem 1.1.2.** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent normal random variables with mean  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n$  and variance  $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2$ , then

$$X_1 + \dots + X_n = N(\mu_1 + \dots + \mu_n, \sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2)$$

**Theorem 1.1.3** (Central Limit Theorem). Let  $\{X_i\}$  be a sequence of random variables with mean  $\mu$ , and variance  $\sigma^2$  and sample mean  $\bar{X}$ , then

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow N(0, 1)$$

Note that we can represent this in many equivalent ways, such as

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu) \rightarrow \sigma N(0, 1) = N(0, \sigma^2)$$

**Theorem 1.1.4.** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent normal random variables with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Let  $\bar{X}$  be the sample mean and  $s^2$  be the sample variance, then

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \sim t(n-1)$$

## 1.2 Multivariate Calculus

**Definition 1.2.1** (Gradient). Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function. if  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ , then the gradient of  $f$  is

$$\nabla f(\vec{X}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(\vec{X})}{\partial X_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(\vec{X})}{\partial X_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(\vec{X})}{\partial X_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

The gradient is a *linear operator*, so

$$\nabla(af + bg)(\vec{X}) = a\nabla f(\vec{X}) + b\nabla g(\vec{X})$$

## 1.3 Matrix Algebra

Let  $A \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$ , and  $\vec{X}$  be a random vector. Consider the linear transformation  $W = A\vec{X}$ . Then

$$E(W) = AE(\vec{X}), \text{ Var}(W) = A \text{Var}(\vec{X}) A^T$$

Furthermore, if  $\vec{X} \sim N(E(\vec{X}), \text{Var}(\vec{X}))$ , then

$$W \sim N(E(W), \text{Var}(W)) = N(AE(\vec{X}), A \text{Var}(\vec{X}) A^T)$$

Note that since  $\vec{X}$  is a random vector, it is  $n \times 1$ , and  $A$  is  $m \times n$ , so  $A\vec{X}$  is  $m \times 1$  and the variance-covariance matrix  $\text{Var}(A\vec{X})$  is square  $m \times m$ .



**Definition 1.3.1** (Trace). *If  $A \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$ , that is,  $A$  is a square matrix, then the trace of  $A$  is defined as*

$$\text{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} = a_{11} + a_{22} + \cdots + a_{nn}$$

The trace is a linear operator

$$\text{tr}(kA + B) = k \text{tr}(A) + \text{tr}(B)$$

and we also have that if  $AB$  and  $BA$  are square,

$$\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$$

**Definition 1.3.2** (Transpose). *The transpose of a matrix  $A$  denoted by  $A^T$  is obtained by interchanging its rows and its columns. Or in otherwords, simply reflecting the matrix along its primary diagonal.*

## Properties

If  $A \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$(i) \quad (A^T)^T = A$$

$$(ii) \quad k^T = k$$

$$(iii) \quad (kA + B)^T = kA^T + B^T$$

$$(iv) \quad (AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

## 1.4 Quadratic Forms