Lecture 2: Linear Regression

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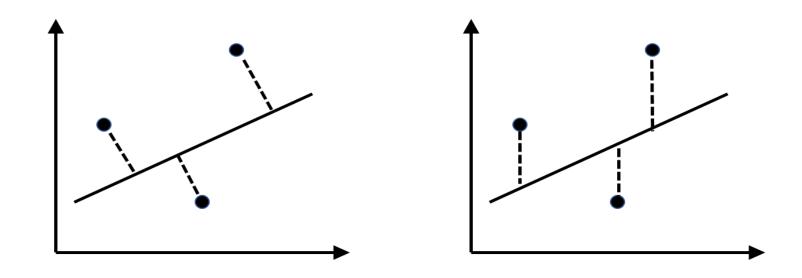
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The linear regression model

A simple example: $f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$, $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2)$

- The linear relationship remains the same for all the values of x (a global pattern).
- The model suggests a fundamental unpredictability of y, if y is generated by a combination of the signal (the f(x)) and the noise (ϵ).
- **R-squared:** $\frac{\sigma_y^2 \sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\sigma_y^2}$.
- The noise is usually modeled as gaussian distribution, but this assumption could be relaxed.

Parameter estimation



Two principles to fit a linear regression model: (left) perpendicular offsets; (right) vertical offsets.

In the historic development of linear regression, the paradigm of vertical offsets gained popularity which led to the least-squares estimation

Derivation of the least-squares estimation

- Suppose that we have collected N data points, denoted as, (x_n, y_n) for n = 1, 2, ..., N.
- The sum of the squared of the vertical derivations of the observed data points from the line is:

$$l(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} [y_n - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n)]^2.$$

• To estimate β_0 and β_1 is to minimize this least-square loss function $l(\beta_0, \beta_1)$.

A simple example

Table 2.2: An exemplary dataset

X	1	3	3	5	5	6	8	9
Y	2	3	5	4	6	5	7	8

The R-code to verify your calculation:

```
## Simple example of regression with one predictor
data = data.frame(rbind(c(1,2),c(3,3),c(3,5),c(5,4),c(5,6),c(6,5),c(8,7),c(9,8)))
colnames(data) = c("Y","X")
str(data)
lm.YX <- lm(Y ~ X, data = data)
summary(lm.YX)</pre>
```

Extension to multiple linear regression

- There are more than one predictor: $y = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i x_i + \varepsilon$
- In matrix form: $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$,

where
$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{p1} \\ 1 & x_{12} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{p2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1N} & x_{2N} & \cdots & x_{pN} \end{bmatrix}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{bmatrix}$,

and
$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_N \end{bmatrix}$$
.

Derivation of the least-squares estimation

To estimate β , we can derive the optimization formulation in matrix form as:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}).$$

Take the gradient of the objective function and set it to be zero:

$$\frac{\partial (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = 0.$$

This leads to the least square estimator of β as

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}.$$

Notice the resemblance between $\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$ with $\beta_1 = \frac{cov(x,y)}{var(x)}!$

Hypothesis testing of regression parameters

- It is important to recognize that, since y is a random vector and induce uncertainty, $\hat{\beta}$ is a random vector as well.
- The mean of $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, as

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

• The covariance matrix of $\widehat{m{\beta}}$ can be readily derived as

$$cov(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2}(\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X})^{-1}.$$

• Thus, it is readily available to derive the hypothesis testing procedure for any regression parameter.

R lab

- Download the markdown code from course website
- Conduct the experiments
- Interpret the results
- Repeat the analysis on other datasets