

STAT 431 — Applied Bayesian Analysis — Course Notes

Linear Regression

Fall 2022

Introduction

Regression is modeling the mean dependence of a **response** variable Y on **predictors** X_1, \dots, X_p .

The response is generally called the **dependent variable** and predictors are **independent variables** (sometimes called **covariates**).

We observe

$$(Y_i, X_{i1}, \dots, X_{ip}), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

but usually only Y_i is regarded as random. The values X_{ij} are regarded as constants (fixed and known).

Simple Linear Regression

Simple linear regression assumes the mean of Y is a straight-line function of a predictor X :

$$E(Y \mid \beta_1, \beta_2) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X$$

where β_1 and β_2 are parameters: the **regression coefficients**.

[Graph:]

We model the observed pairs (Y_i, X_i) , $i = 1, \dots, n$ as

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + X_i\beta_2 + \varepsilon_i$$

where the mean-zero **errors** ε_i are usually assumed to be (conditionally) *iid* normal:

$$\varepsilon_i \mid \beta_1, \beta_2, \sigma^2 \sim iid \text{ Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$$

with **error variance** σ^2 as an additional parameter.

Thus,

$$Y_i \mid \beta_1, \beta_2, \sigma^2 \sim indep \text{ Normal}(\beta_1 + X_i\beta_2, \sigma^2)$$

and we need a prior

$$\pi(\beta_1, \beta_2, \sigma^2)$$

To study the most common types of regression priors and their posteriors, we need a **multivariate** generalization of the normal distribution ...

Multivariate Normal

For the $m \times 1$ **random vector**

$$\mathbf{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_m \end{bmatrix}$$

we write

$$\mathbf{Z} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \sim \text{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

for $m \times 1$ $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $m \times m$ symmetric invertible $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ when \mathbf{Z} has (joint) PDF

$$f(\mathbf{z} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{m/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{z}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{z}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}$$

It turns out that

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{Z}) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}(Z_1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{E}(Z_m) \end{bmatrix} = \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}) &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(Z_1) & \text{Cov}(Z_1, Z_2) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(Z_1, Z_m) \\ \text{Cov}(Z_2, Z_1) & \text{Var}(Z_2) & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}(Z_m, Z_1) & \cdots & \cdots & \text{Var}(Z_m) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \end{aligned}$$

It also turns out that the marginal distribution of each Z_i is normal, and the conditional distribution of each Z_i given all of the others is normal.

Also,

$$Z_i \mid \mu_i, \sigma^2 \sim \text{indep Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$$

if and only if

$$\mathbf{Z} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2 \sim \text{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_m)$$

where \mathbf{I}_m is the $m \times m$ identity matrix.

Linear Regression

A **linear regression** model assumes

$$E(Y_i \mid \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p) = \sum_{j=1}^p X_{ij} \beta_j \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

for **(regression) coefficients** β_1, \dots, β_p .

β_1 is usually an intercept:

$$X_{i1} \equiv 1 \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

(Simple linear regression is the special case $p = 2$.)

Letting

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & \cdots & X_{1p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ X_{n1} & \cdots & X_{np} \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{bmatrix}$$

we can write the linear regression as

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{Y} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

We will assume that $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is invertible (which makes $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ well-defined).

The usual normality assumption

$$Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^p X_{ij} \beta_j + \varepsilon_i$$

$$\varepsilon_i \mid \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p, \sigma^2 \sim iid \text{ Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$$

is then equivalent to

$$\mathbf{Y} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$$

We will need a prior $\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$.

Summary Statistics

The **(ordinary) least squares** estimator of β is

$$\hat{\beta}_{LS} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

and typical estimators of σ^2 include

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-p} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} \hat{\beta}_{LS})^T (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X} \hat{\beta}_{LS}) \quad (n > p)$$

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

Remark: $(\hat{\beta}_{LS}, s^2)$ (or $(\hat{\beta}_{LS}, \hat{\sigma}^2)$) is sufficient for (β, σ^2) .

Priors

We will consider these kinds of prior:

- ▶ Jeffreys'

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \propto \frac{1}{(\sigma^2)^{p/2+1}} \quad (\sigma^2 > 0)$$

- ▶ “standard” noninformative

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \propto \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \quad (\sigma^2 > 0)$$

- ▶ conditional multivariate normal (zero-centered)

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2 \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Omega})$$

Jeffreys' Prior

If $\hat{\sigma}^2 > 0$, the prior

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \propto \frac{1}{(\sigma^2)^{p/2+1}} \quad (\sigma^2 > 0)$$

leads to proper posterior

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2, \mathbf{y} \sim \text{Normal}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{LS}, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

$$\sigma^2 \mid \mathbf{y} \sim \text{InvGamma}\left(\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}\hat{\sigma}^2\right)$$

The marginal posterior distributions for the coefficients turn out to be

$$\beta_j \mid \mathbf{y} \sim t_n(\hat{\beta}_{LS,j}, \hat{\sigma}^2 c_{jj})$$

where c_{jj} is the j th diagonal element of $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$.

These can be used to form individual credible intervals and perform individual tests for the β_j s, but they will **not** match the usual confidence intervals and frequentist tests.

“Standard” Noninformative Prior

If $s^2 > 0$, the prior

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \propto \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \quad (\sigma^2 > 0)$$

leads to proper posterior

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2, \mathbf{y} \sim \text{Normal}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{LS}, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

$$\sigma^2 \mid \mathbf{y} \sim \text{InvGamma}\left(\frac{n-p}{2}, \frac{n-p}{2}s^2\right)$$

The marginal posterior distributions for the coefficients turn out to be

$$\beta_j \mid \mathbf{y} \sim t_{n-p}(\hat{\beta}_{LS,j}, s^2 c_{jj})$$

where c_{jj} is the j th diagonal element of $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$.

The credible intervals and tests obtained from this **do** turn out to match frequentist confidence intervals and tests.

Conditionally Normal Prior

Conditioning on σ^2 (as if it is fixed) and letting $p \times p$ symmetric matrix $\mathbf{\Omega}$ be invertible, the conditional prior

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2 \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{\Omega})$$

leads to conditional posterior

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2, \mathbf{y} \sim$$

$$\text{Normal}\left((\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{\Omega}^{-1})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{\Omega}^{-1})^{-1}\right)$$

(Further allowing $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ an arbitrary prior mean would make the multivariate normal semi-conjugate for $\boldsymbol{\beta}$.)

Remark: This does **not** require $n > p$ or invertible $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$.

The typical effect of such a proper prior is to “shrink” the coefficient estimates toward zero.

When the non-intercept predictors in \mathbf{X} have been standardized (by subtracting sample means and dividing by sample standard deviations) and we take

$$\boldsymbol{\Omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{11} & \\ & \mathbf{I}_{p-1}/\lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

there is a connection with *ridge regression* — see BSM, Sec. 4.2.2.

We can further give σ^2 some kind of prior, such as inverse gamma (to be conjugate) or

$$\pi(\sigma^2) \propto \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \quad (\sigma^2 > 0)$$

(to be noninformative).

Remarks

- ▶ Other kinds of priors are available that “shrink” the coefficients differently, based on the data.

If interested, see BSM, Sec. 4.2.3.

- ▶ Posterior prediction (at “new” predictor values) can be performed by simulation (BSM, Sec. 4.2.4) or sometimes with exact formulas.