### Multiple linear regression: Inference, Part I

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#### Introduction

- In our last lecture, we discussed how to estimate the regression coefficients
- Our goal today is to start addressing the question: how accurate are those estimates?
- In particular, we will be deriving the expectation and variance of our estimates, and some related concepts

Our assumptions for today

• The results we will derive today are based on the following central assumption: Suppose that

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \tag{1}$$

where **X** is a fixed  $n \times p$  matrix of full column rank and  $\epsilon$  is an  $n \times 1$  vector of random errors  $\{\epsilon_i\}$  which are identically and independently distributed with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma^2$ • In other words,

$$E(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}) = \mathbf{0}$$
$$Var(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$$

• For the rest of this lecture, I will refer to the above set of assumptions by saying something along the lines of "Suppose that (1) holds"

#### Expectation and variance of linear and quadratic forms

- For today's derivations, we will need to calculate the expectation and variance of linear and quadratic forms
- Letting A denote a matrix of constants and x a random vector with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\Sigma$ ,

$$E(\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{\mu}$$
$$Var(\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A}$$
$$E(\mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}^{T}\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + tr(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

#### The trace

• The operator tr (defined for any square matrix) refers to the *trace* of a matrix, defined as the sum of its diagonal elements:

$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i} A_{ii}$$

• Some basic facts about traces:

$$tr(\mathbf{AB}) = tr(\mathbf{BA})$$
$$tr(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = tr(\mathbf{A}) + tr(\mathbf{B})$$
$$tr(c\mathbf{A}) = c tr(\mathbf{A})$$

• A further fact about traces that is not at all obvious but nonetheless useful is that if a matrix A is idempotent, then tr(A) = rank(A)

# $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$ is unbiased

- With these facts in mind, we are ready to prove that
- Theorem: Suppose that (1) holds. Then

 $\mathrm{E}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \boldsymbol{\beta}$ 

*i.e.*, estimating the regression coefficients by minimizing the residual sum of squares produces an unbiased estimator

 An important caveat here is this holds only if the model is correct; if the model is not correct (for example, it does not adjust for an important confounder), then estimates can be badly biased

## The variance of $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$

- The other important component in assessing an estimator's accuracy is its variance
- **Theorem:** Suppose that (1) holds.

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

 Note that the result is a symmetric p × p matrix with Var(β<sub>j</sub>) on the diagonals and Cov(β<sub>j</sub>, β<sub>k</sub>) in the off-diagonal elements

## Helpful facts

- Observe, however, that we can't actually calculate this variance (yet), because we don't know  $\sigma^2$
- Before we go about deriving an unbiased estimator for σ<sup>2</sup>, let's prove the following simple results which will help simplify our calculations:

 $\mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y}$  **H** and **I** - **H** are symmetric **H** and **I** - **H** are idempotent  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} \text{ and } \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}^T$  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0}$ 

• I will also state the following without proof:  $\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}) = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{H})$ ; *i.e.*, if **X** is full rank, all of those matrices have rank p

Trying to estimate  $\sigma^2$ 

 $\bullet\,$  In principle, we could estimate  $\sigma^2$  by

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum \epsilon_i^2$$

but of course the  $\{\epsilon_i\}$  are not observable

• We could use

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum r_i^2,$$

but since our model was specifically chosen so as to reduce the residual sum of squares, this turns out to underestimate  $\sigma^2$ 

• Consider instead the following estimator:

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

• Theorem: Suppose that (1) holds. Then

$$\mathcal{E}(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \sigma^2$$

• Note that this estimator reduces to the usual unbiased estimators of variance and pooled variance in the one-sample and pooled two-sample cases, with n-p as the degrees of freedom

## Estimating the variance and standard error of $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$

• A reasonable estimator for the variance of  $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$  is therefore

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \hat{\sigma}^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

• Furthermore, we can obtain standard errors by taking the square root of the diagonal elements

Decomposition of variance

• One final interesting result for today is that one can decompose the sample variance of *y* into two parts:

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(y) = \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\hat{\mu}) + \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(r)$$

where  $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}$  means the usual sample variance ({ $y_i$ }, { $\hat{\mu}_i$ }, and { $r_i$ } are all observable)

• Or equivalently,

$$TSS = MSS + RSS$$

where

- $TSS = \text{Total sum of squares, } \sum (y_i \bar{y})^2$
- $MSS = \text{Model sum of squares, } \sum (\hat{\mu}_i \bar{\mu})^2$
- $RSS = \text{Residual sum of squares}, \sum r_i^2$

The coefficient of determination

- A useful way of summarizing how good our explanatory variables are at explaining *y*, then, is to look at the proportional reduction in variability that our model achieves
- This quantity is referred to as the *coefficient of determination* and is denoted  $R^2$ :

$$R^{2} = \frac{MSS}{TSS}$$
$$= 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}$$

• Remark: In the case of simple linear regression,  $R^2$  is the square of r, the correlation coefficient

## What if $\mathbf{X}$ is random?

- ${\ensuremath{\,\circ}}$  We've treating  ${\bf X}$  as fixed for mathematical convenience
- When X is random (as it would be in an observational study), what changes (besides the fact that you'd have to add "given X" to all the expectations and variances)
- It turns out that all of the results still hold, if each of the random variables that make up X are independent of the random error  $\epsilon$
- So once again, a confounder will cause problems, as it will introduce correlation between the explanatory variables and the error, and this could cause all manner of biases
- Remark: The random variables that make up **X** do not have to be independent of each other, just independent of the random error

#### What we don't need

- So we must keep in mind the major, crucial assumption we've made today: that the model we fit is actually true and that X, if it is random, must be uncorrelated with the random error
- However, it's also worth pointing out a big assumption that we didn't make: we did not assume a distribution for Y or  $\epsilon$