Department of Electrical Engineering University of Arkansas



ELEG 5633 Estimation and Detection Linear Methods for Regression

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OUTLINE

- Linear regression models
- Accuracy assessment for coefficients
- Accuracy assessment for models
- Generalizations



• Linear regression model

- Assume there is a linear relationship between *X* and *Y*

$$X \longrightarrow f(\cdot) \longrightarrow Y$$
$$f(X) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p X_j \beta_j = [1, X^T]\beta$$

- Linear coefficients (unknown, length-*p* vector)

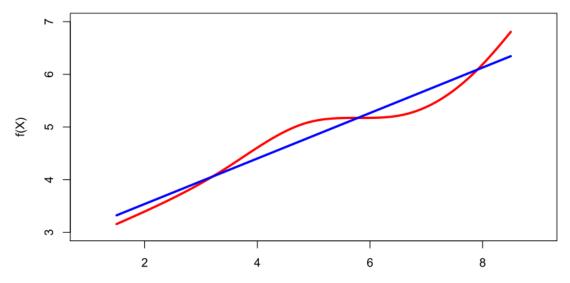
$$\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T$$

– Objective: estimate β by using training data



• Linear regression

- A highly simplified approach
- Assume the relationship between X and Y is linear
 - True relationships are never linear!
- Can be easily extended to non-linear cases through basis expansions or kernels.
- Extremely useful both conceptually and practically!





- Design metric: Residual sum of squares (RSS)
 - Given training data $\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \cdots, (x_n, y_n)\}$
 - We want to find $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T$ such that we can minimize the following metric:
 - Residual sum of squares (RSS)

$$\operatorname{RSS}(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{ij} \beta_j \right)^2$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y_i - [1, x_i^T] \beta \right)^2$$



• Residual sum of squares (RSS)

$$RSS(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y_i - [1, x_i^T] \beta \right)^2$$
$$= \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|_2^2$$
$$= (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

- Sample output vector: $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_n]^T$
- Data matrix: **X**
 - Size: *n* x (1+*p*)
 - The first column is a length-*n* all-one vector



• Least squares (LS)

- Find
$$\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T$$
 to minimize

$$RSS(\beta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

– Solution:

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \beta} = -2\mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) = 0$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

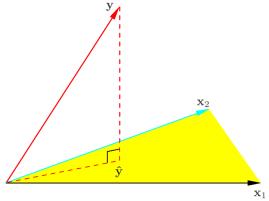
• X must be a tall matrix: n+1 > p



• Fitting values at the training inputs \mathbf{X}

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

- Hat matrix (put a hat on y) $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T$
- Geometric interpretation: project \mathbf{y} onto the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X}



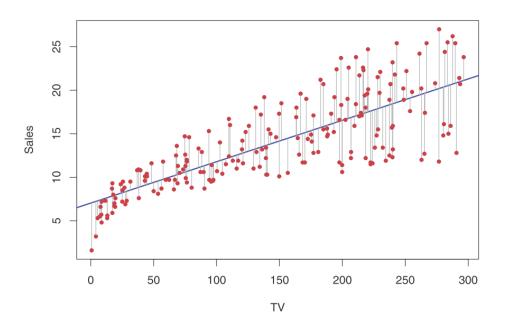
$$\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) = 0$$

• Predicted value at any arbitrary inputs (test inputs) x_0

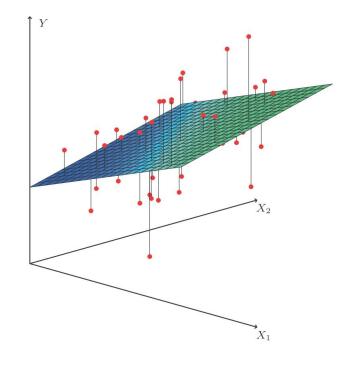
$$\hat{f}(x_0) = (1:x_0)^T \hat{\beta}$$



• Examples



p=1

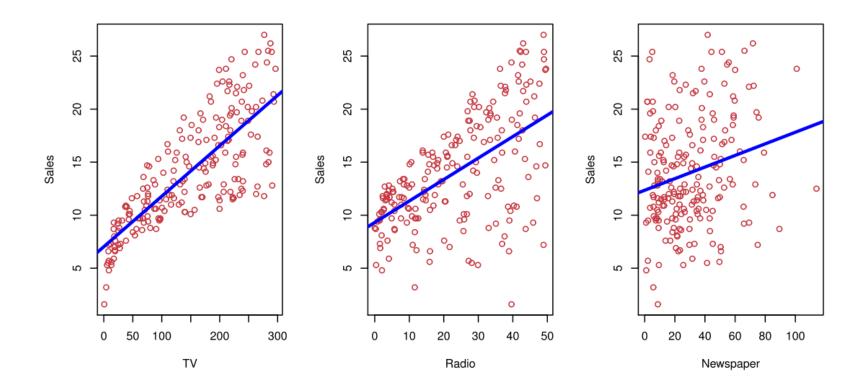


p=2



• Example: advertising data

- Sales as a function of advertising budget on different media





• Example:

- Questions we might ask:
 - Is there a relationship between advertising budget and sales?
 - How strong is the relationship between advertising budget and sales?
 - Which media contribute to sales?
 - How accurately can we predict future sales?
 - Is the relationship linear?
 - Is there synergy among the advertising media?
- To answer the above questions, we need to study $\hat{\beta}$
 - Are the values of some elements of $\hat{\beta}$ close to 0?
 - How confident are we about the estimated values of $\hat{\beta}$?



OUTLINE

- Linear regression models
- Accuracy assessment for coefficients
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- To facilitate analysis, assume the true model is linear
 - Model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p X_j \beta_j + \varepsilon = [1, X^T]\beta + \epsilon$$

- Noise:

$$\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

- Training data

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

- Estimated coefficients

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$



• **Distributions of** $\hat{\beta}$

$$\hat{\beta} = \beta + \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

– Mean

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}] = \beta$$

- Unbiased estimator
- Covariance matrix

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^T\right] = \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \sigma^2$$

 $-\hat{\beta}$ is a linear transformation of Gaussian random variable

$$\hat{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\beta, \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \sigma^2\right)$$



- Estimation of σ^2
 - σ^2 is unknown
 - To evaluate the accuracy, we need to estimate σ^2 by using the data
 - An unbiased estimator of σ^2

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N - p - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

• The scaling parameter $\frac{1}{N-p-1}$ is used to make sure the estimation is unbiased

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}^2] = \sigma^2$$



• Estimation of σ^2

- Proof that
$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma}^2] = \sigma^2$$

1. $\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}(\beta - \hat{\beta}) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = -\mathbf{X} \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\epsilon} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = (\mathbf{I}_N - \mathbf{H}) \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$
 $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X} \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}$

2.
$$\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})(\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})^T] = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{I}_N - \mathbf{H}) (\mathbf{I}_N - \mathbf{H})^T = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{I}_N - \mathbf{H})$$

 $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T = \mathbf{H}$

3.
$$\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}\|^2] = \sigma^2 \operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{I}_N - \mathbf{H}) = (N - p - 1)\sigma^2$$
$$\int_{\mathbf{T}} \mathbf{tr}(\mathbf{H}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{I}_{p+1}) = p + 1$$



• Standard error

- The covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ is $\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \sigma^2$
 - Denote the *j*-th diagonal element of $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \sigma^2$ as v_j
 - The variance of $\hat{\beta}_j$ is

$$\operatorname{var}(\hat{\beta}_j) = \sigma_{\hat{\beta}_j}^2 = \sigma^2 v_j$$

• The standard error of $\hat{\beta}_j$ is

$$\operatorname{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j) = \sigma_{\hat{\beta}_j} = \sigma_{\sqrt{v_j}} \approx \hat{\sigma}_{\sqrt{v_j}}$$



Confidence interval

- Since
$$\hat{\beta}_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_j, SE^2(\hat{\beta}_j))$$

– Then

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\beta_j \in [\hat{\beta}_j - 2\mathbf{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j), \hat{\beta}_j + 2\mathbf{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j])\right) \approx 0.95$$

- 95% confidence interval: the true value β_j falls in the following interval with a probability of 95%

$$\left[\hat{\beta}_j - 2\mathbf{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j), \hat{\beta}_j + 2\mathbf{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j)\right]$$



• Z-score

- Used to test whether $\beta_j = 0$
 - That is, whether there is relationship between X_j and Y
- Hypothesis testing:

$$H_0: \beta_j = 0 \qquad \qquad H_1: \beta_j \neq 0$$

– Z-score

$$z_j = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j}{\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{v_j}}$$

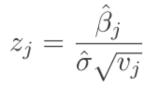
• If $\beta_j = 0$, then $z_j \sim t_{N-p-1}$ - *t*-distribution with N - p - 1 degrees of freedom

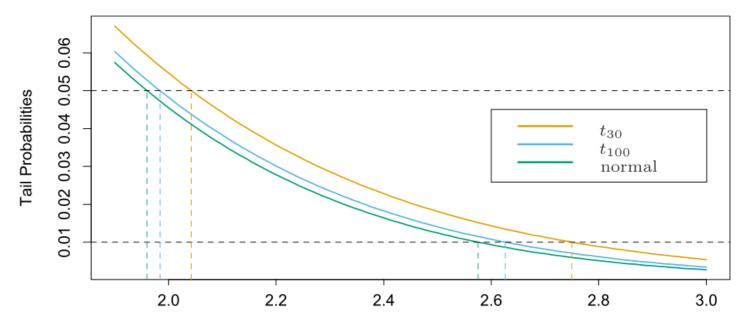
- The probability that z_j is large is very small

– A larger Z-score means $H_1: \beta_j \neq 0$



• Z-score





– E.g. if $z_j \sim t_{100}$ and $z_j=2$, then

 $\mathbf{P}(\beta_j = 0) < 5\%$

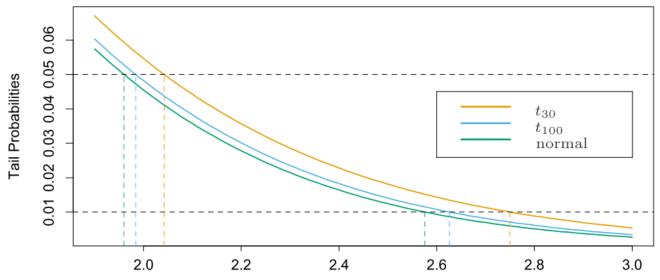


• *p*-value

- The probability that
$$\beta_j = 0$$

$$p = \mathbf{P}(\beta_j = 0) = p(t_{N-p-1} \ge z_j)$$

- E.g. if
$$z_j \sim t_{100}$$
 and $z_j = 2$, then $p = \mathbf{P}(\beta_j = 0) = p(t_{N-p-1} \ge z_j)$





• F Statistic

- Check the importance of a group of variables
 - Z-score or p-value checks the importance of one variable
- Assume we have p_1 variables, we can perform linear regression and get RSS_1
- To test the importance of a group of $p_1 p_0$ variables,
 - set them to 0
 - perform linear regression with respect to the remaining p_0 variables, we have RSS_0
- F statistic

$$F = \frac{(\text{RSS}_0 - \text{RSS}_1)/(p_1 - p_0)}{\text{RSS}_1/(N - p_1 - 1)}$$



• *F* statistic

$$F = \frac{(\text{RSS}_0 - \text{RSS}_1)/(p_1 - p_0)}{\text{RSS}_1/(N - p_1 - 1)}$$

- If the group of variables have no relationship with *Y*, then $RSS_1 = RSS_0 \rightarrow F = 0$
- A larger *F* means the group of variables are more important.
- When $p_1 p_0 = 1$, that is, dropping a single variable
 - the *F* statistic is the same as *z*-score
- Under the null hypothesis (those dropped variables are not important)
 - F statistic follow $F_{p_1-p_0,N-p_1-1}$ distribution
 - *p*-value (the probability of null hypothesis)

$$p = P(H_0) = P(F_{p_1-p_0,N-p_1-1} > F)$$



• Example

—	Advertising data			Z score		
-		Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value	
-	Intercept	2.939	0.3119	9.42	< 0.0001	
	TV	0.046	0.0014	32.81	< 0.0001	
	radio	0.189	0.0086	21.89	< 0.0001	
_	newspaper	-0.001	0.0059	-0.18	0.8599	

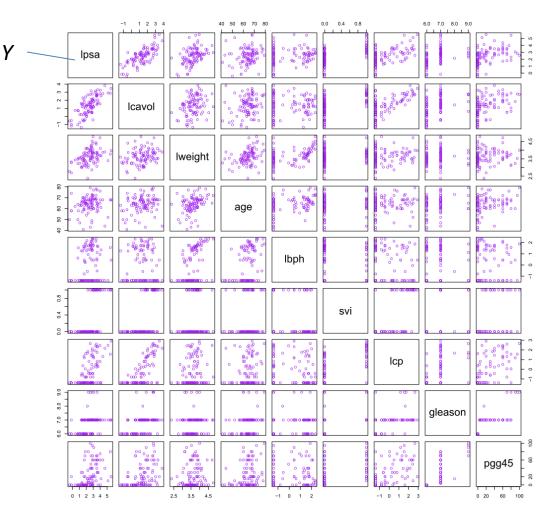
	TV	radio	newspaper	sales
TV	1.0000	0.0548	0.0567	0.7822
radio		1.0000	0.3541	0.5762
newspaper			1.0000	0.2283
sales				1.0000

$$\operatorname{Cor}(X,Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2}}$$



• Example

- Prostate cancer (scatter plot matrix)





• Example

- Prostate cancer data

Term	Coefficient	Std. Error	Z Score
Intercept	2.46	0.09	27.60
lcavol	0.68	0.13	5.37
lweight	0.26	0.10	2.75
age	-0.14	0.10	-1.40
lbph	0.21	0.10	2.06
svi	0.31	0.12	2.47
lcp	-0.29	0.15	-1.87
gleason	-0.02	0.15	-0.15
pgg45	0.27	0.15	1.74

- If we drop age, lcp, gleason, pgg45, then

$$F = \frac{(32.81 - 29.43)/(9 - 5)}{29.43/(67 - 9)} = 1.67$$

• p-value :

$$\Pr(F_{4,58} > 1.67) = 0.17$$

UNIVERSITY OF Not significant

• Summary:

Standard error

$$\operatorname{SE}(\hat{\beta}_j) = \sigma_{\hat{\beta}_j} = \sigma_{\sqrt{v_j}} \approx \hat{\sigma}_{\sqrt{v_j}}$$

- 95% Confidence interval $\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_j - 2SE(\hat{\beta}_j), \hat{\beta}_j + 2SE(\hat{\beta}_j) \end{bmatrix}$
- Z-score and p-value

$$z_j = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j}{\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{v_j}} \qquad \qquad p = \mathbf{P}(\beta_j = 0) = p(t_{N-p-1} \ge z_j)$$

- F statistic and p-value

$$F = \frac{(\text{RSS}_0 - \text{RSS}_1)/(p_1 - p_0)}{\text{RSS}_1/(N - p_1 - 1)} \qquad p = \mathbf{P}(H_0) = \mathbf{P}(F_{p_1 - p_0, N - p_1 - 1} > F)$$



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ACCURACY ASSESSMENT: MODEL

• Residual standard error (RSE)

- Use to assesse how good the model fits the data
- It is a normalized RSS

$$RSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n - p - 1}} RSS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n - p - 1}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i^2)$$

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i^2)$$



ACCURACY ASSESSMENT: MODEL

• R^2 Statistic

- Between 0 and 1 (1: perfect fit)
- Independent of the scale of *Y*
 - RSE depends on the scale of *Y* (a larger *Y* will have a larger RSE)

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

- TSS: total sum of squares

TSS =
$$\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$
 RSS = $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i^2)$

– For linear model, the R^2 variable equals to the squared correlation coefficient between Y and \hat{Y}

$$R^2 = \operatorname{Cor}(Y, \hat{Y})^2$$



ACCURACY ASSESSMENT: MODEL

• Example

- Advertising data
- Use (TV, radio, newspaper) to predict sales

 $R^2 = 0.8972$

- Use (TV, radio) to predict sales

$$R^2 = 0.89719$$



OUTLINE

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GENERALIZATIONS

Classifications

- Logistic regression
- Support vector machines (SVM)

• Non-linearity

- Kernel smoothing
- Splines
- Generalized additive models (GAM)
- Nearest neighbors (NN)

• Shrinkage methods (Regularized fitting)

- Ridge regression
- Lasso

• Interactions

- Tree-based methods
- Bagging
- Random forests
- boosting

