

Lecture 11 | 12.05.2026

# Regression models

beyond linearity

# Linear regression models

## □ Normal linear regression model

- generic regression model  $Y = \mathbf{X}^\top \beta + \varepsilon$ , for  $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , and  $\sigma^2 > 0$
- random sample  $\{(Y_i, \mathbf{X}_i^\top)^\top; 1 = 1, \dots, n\}$  from the distribution  $F_{(Y, \mathbf{X})}$
- conditional distribution of  $Y|\mathbf{X}$  is normal, i.e.,  $Y|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{X}^\top \beta, \sigma^2)$
- marginal distribution of  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_{\mathbf{X}}$  does not depend on  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , nor  $\sigma^2 > 0$
- parameter estimates  $\hat{\beta}$  are BLUE and normally distributed (LSE/MLE)

## □ Linear regression model without normality

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- mean ( $E[Y|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}^\top \beta$ ) and variance ( $\text{Var}(Y|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2(\mathbf{X})$ ) specification
- conditional distribution of  $Y|\mathbf{X}$  is, otherwise, left unspecified (LSE only)
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Recall, that **linearity** + **normality** = "**lightness of being**" but linear regression models without the assumptions of normality introduce just a minor complication...

**Thus, the linearity property seems to be a way more crucial!**

(linearity of the predictor, linearity of the least squares, linearity of the expectation, linearity of the normal distribution, ...)

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## Beyond linearity ...

- ❑ In practice, however, **the truth is (almost) never linear!**  
(on the other hand, the linearity assumption is a convenient approximation)
- ❑ **What to do, when the linearity assumption fails?**  
(the answer usually depends on specific reasons why the linearity fails)
- ❑ **Note that there are a few levels of linearity in the model**  
(linearity of the predictor, linearity of the expectation, linearity of LS, ...)

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- ❑ **What to do, when the linearity assumption fails?**  
(the answer usually depends on specific reasons why the linearity fails)
- ❑ **Note that there are a few levels of linearity in the model**  
(linearity of the predictor, linearity of the expectation, linearity of LS, ...)
  - ❑ the data are too volatile (robust estimation approaches)
  - ❑ the data are too flexible (higher order approximations/splines)
  - ❑ the data are too irregular (piecewise approximation)
  - ❑ the data are too complex (additive models)
  - ❑ the nature of  $Y$  contradicts the linear model (GLM)
  - ❑ and many more reasons (and way more alternatives)

# Two common generalizations beyond linearity

## □ Linearity of the predictor

- linear predictor in terms of  $\mathbf{X}^\top \beta$ , where  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$  are unknown parameters
- the linear predictor is directly associated with the (theoretical) quantity of interest – the (conditional) expectation of  $Y$  (i.e.,  $E[Y|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}^\top \beta$ )
- however, this direct association may not be realistic in some situations
- $\implies$  **generalized linear models (GLM)** & **non-linear models (NLS)**

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- $\implies$  **generalized linear models (GLM) & non-linear models (NLS)**

## □ Linearity of the expectation

- the expectation  $EY = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x dF_Y(x)$  of some random variable  $Y \sim F_Y$  is a linear functional
- the expectation is also one of the most important characteristics of some unknown population (the distribution of the random variable)
- on the other hand, the expectation offers only a very limited information about the behavior of  $Y \sim F_Y$
- $\implies$  **quantile regression, expectile regression, or m-regression in general**

# 1. Generalized linear models (GLM)

So far, all regression models focussed on the response variable  $Y \in \mathbb{R}$  that was a priori assumed to be continuous and the conditional distribution of  $Y|\mathbf{X}$  was assumed to be normal or, at least, close to normal... with the expectation being  $E[Y|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}^T \beta$

In practical applications, however, the domain of  $Y$  can be somehow restricted...  
(but the linear predictor  $\mathbf{X}^T \beta$  is generally unrestricted, i.e.,  $\mathbf{X}^T \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ )

- $Y \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  (counts)
- $Y \in \{1, \dots, K\}$  for  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  (categories/label)
- $Y \in \{0, 1\}$  (true/false)
- ...

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Note that despite the fact that the domain of  $Y$  is restricted, the mean parameter of  $Y$  (the conditional mean of  $Y|\mathbf{X}$  respectively) is still assumed to be from some compact subset,  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}$ ... This becomes very useful in the following models...

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# Linear models with a flavour of nonlinearity

- In a **standard linear model**, the conditional mean is modelled as

$$E[Y|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{X}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}, \quad \text{for } \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p$$

while the variance structure  $\text{Var}[Y|\mathbf{X}]$  is modeled separately from the mean structure (e.g.,  $\text{Var}[Y|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2\mathbb{I}$ )

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- In a **generalized linear model**, the conditional mean is modelled as

$$g(E[Y|\mathbf{X}]) = \mathbf{X}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}, \quad \text{for } \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p$$

for some **non-linear link function**  $g : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (typically continuous, smooth, twice differentiable, but nonlinear)

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for some **non-linear link function**  $g : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (typically continuous, smooth, twice differentiable, but nonlinear)

- Moreover, the variance structure typically depends on the mean structure

$$\text{Var}[Y|\mathbf{X}] = v(E[Y|\mathbf{X}])$$

where  $v : \mathbb{M} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  is some known (variance) function

# Example 1: Logistic regression

## □ Logistic regression

- the response variable  $Y \in \mathbb{R}$  takes only two possible values,  $Y \in \{0, 1\}$
- the conditional distribution of  $Y|\mathbf{X}$  is alternative, with  $p_{\mathbf{x}} = E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$
- the conditional mean  $\mu_{\mathbf{x}} = E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$  is modeled with the linear predictor  $\mathbf{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$  using the logit link function  $g(x) = \log[x/(1-x)]$
- the model assumes the mean structure

$$\text{logit}(\mu_{\mathbf{x}}) = \log \frac{E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]}{1 - E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]} = \log \frac{P[Y = 1|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]}{1 - P[Y = 1|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]} = \mathbf{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

- the model assumes the variance structure which depends on the mean  $\mu_{\mathbf{x}}$

$$\text{Var}[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = v(\mu_{\mathbf{x}}) = \mu_{\mathbf{x}}(1 - \mu_{\mathbf{x}})$$

- the model is typically interpreted in terms of multiplicative comparisons, the odds ratios respectively (or logarithms of the odds ratios)  
*(note the difference between a probability, an odd, and the odds ratio)*

## Example 2: Poisson regression

### □ Poisson regression

- the response variable  $Y \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  represents integer counts (including 0)
- the conditional distribution of  $Y|\mathbf{X}$  is Poisson, with  $\lambda_{\mathbf{x}} = E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$
- the conditional mean  $\lambda_{\mathbf{x}} = E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$  is modeled with the **linear predictor**  $\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$  using the **log link function**  $g(x) = \log x$
- the model assumes the mean structure

$$\log(\lambda_{\mathbf{x}}) = \log E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

- the model assumes the variance structure which depends on the mean  $\lambda_{\mathbf{x}} > 0$  and some additional **dispersion** parameter  $\phi > 0$

$$\text{Var}[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = v(\lambda_{\mathbf{x}})\phi = \phi \lambda_{\mathbf{x}}$$

- the model is interpreted in terms of multiplicative comparisons and the parameters are interpreted in terms of the proportional changes of the conditional expectations of two sub-populations

## Example 3: Special cases – back to normality

In general, the exponential family of distributions, expressed in terms of densities as

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f(y); f(y) = (\theta y - \psi(y))/\phi + c(y, \phi), \text{ for } \theta \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ and } \phi > 0\},$$

contains also the normal distribution (beside many others: the alternative distribution, the binomial distribution, the Poisson distribution, exponential, etc.)

### ❑ Classical linear regression model

- ❑ continuous response  $Y \in \mathbb{R}$
- ❑ identity link function  $g(x) = x$
- ❑ constant variance function  $v(x) = 1$  and  $\phi = \sigma^2$

### ❑ Multinomial regression model

### ❑ Exponential data model

### ❑ ...

## 2. Nonlinear regression models

- In linear models and generalized linear models as well, the conditional mean is modeled (using a proper link function) as a linear combination of the response variables and the subset of unknown parameters...
- if the class of available models is not reach enough (and we still prefer a parametric model structure) then **nonlinear regression models** can serve a good alternative (sometimes computationally demanding)...
- the idea of nonlinear models is to use a general parametric (but nonlinear) regression function  $f : \mathbb{R}^{p \times q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that

$$E[Y|\mathbf{X}] = f(\mathbf{X}, \beta),$$

where  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^q$  (generally for  $p \neq q$ )

- Note that the nonlinear element (the nonlinear function  $f$ ) is now introduced on the right side of the regression model formula and typically it is not assumed that  $f$  should be regular (or continuous, etc.)

# Nonlinear regression: Some examples

There are, of course, plenty of different models with various analytical structure and different regularity properties—smoothness, continuity. Typical nonlinear models are, for instance, various population models...

## □ Exponential growth model

$$f(x, \beta, \alpha) = \alpha \exp\{X\beta\}$$

→ for some parameters  $a > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$ ;

## □ Logistic growth model

$$f(X, \beta, \alpha, K) = \frac{K}{1 + be^{-X\beta}};$$

→ for some parameters  $\alpha, \beta, K > 0$ ;

## □ Gompertz growth model

$$f(X, \beta, \alpha, K) = K \cdot \exp\{-\beta e^{-\alpha t}\};$$

→ for some parameters  $\alpha, \beta, K > 0$ ;

# Solutions for nonlinear regression models

- ❑ Note that all three nonlinear models above can not be solved by using classical method of the least squares...  
*(i.e., no explicit solution can be directly derived)*
- ❑ Thus, different computation strategies must be used to obtain the model solution—the estimates for the unknown parameters  $\alpha, \beta, K > 0$
- ❑ Such computational methods may involve:
  - ❑ reparametrization into a linear model and applying least squares
  - ❑ model approximation and least squares
  - ❑ various iterative solutions
- ❑ Note, that as far as the unknown regression function is unspecified, the corresponding minimization problem may not even be convex!

# Generalized nonlinear models

- ❑ **Advanced, but still possible....**

$$g(E[Y|\mathbf{X}]) = f(\mathbf{X}, \beta)$$

where two additional sources of nonlinearity are introduced at the same time—the nonlinear link function  $g$  and the nonlinear predictor function  $f$

- ❑ **Some challenges**

- ❑ mostly, the interpretation of  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$  is not straightforward/possible
- ❑ due to nonlinearity, various computational issues (solution instability)
- ❑ difficult statistical inference typically performed by simulations

### 3. Regression models beyond expectation

#### □ Least squares

In an ordinary linear regression model (without the normality assumption) the likelihood can not be obtained and the estimates for  $\beta' \in \mathbb{R}^p$  are obtained by minimizing least squares

$$\hat{\beta} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\text{Argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^\top \beta)^2$$

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#### □ Maximum likelihood

In a normal linear regression model (under the normality assumption) the full likelihood for  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $\sigma > 0$  can be formulated and the estimates are obtained by maximizing the likelihood function

$$\hat{\beta} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p; \sigma^2 > 0}{\text{Argmax}} (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-N/2} \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^\top \beta)^2 \right\}$$

# Theoretical and empirical expectation

- For some real random variable  $X \sim F_X$  (and the density  $f$  with respect to the Lebesgue or count measure) and some measurable function  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  we can obtain the expectation (if the integral exists) as

$$Eh(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)dF_X(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)f(x)dx$$

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- For the random sample  $X_1, \dots, X_N$  drawn from the same distribution as the distribution of  $X \sim F_X$  we can construct the empirical distribution function  $F_N$  and the empirical counterpart for  $Eh(X)$  (i.e., the empirical estimate)

$$\widehat{Eh(X)} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)dF_N(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N h(X_i)$$

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- The quantity (parameter)  $\mu_h = Eh(X)$  is sometimes called the **theoretical functional of the distribution**  $F_X$  while the quantity  $\widehat{\mu}_h = \widehat{Eh(X)}$  is called the **(empirical) functional of the empirical distribution**  $F_N$  (of course, different functions can be used in place of  $h$ )

## Some common choices of the function $h$

- The expectation (theoretical quantity  $EX$ ) and the average (empirical quantity  $\bar{X}_N$ ) can be both obtained by a minimization problem with the choice of  $h(x) = (x - a)^2$  where
  - $EX = \operatorname{Argmin}_{a \in \mathbb{R}} E(X - a)^2 = \operatorname{Argmin}_{a \in \mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} (x - a)^2 dF_X(x)$
  - $\bar{X}_N = \widehat{EX} = \operatorname{Argmin}_{a \in \mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} (x - a)^2 dF_N(x) = \operatorname{Argmin}_{a \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - a)^2$

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- Note that in both cases we actually formulate the **least squares problem** (theoretical and empirical) and the solution is the theoretical mean and the empirical average (i.e., the estimate for the mean)  
**This principle can be generalized even further—for the regression concepts and different forms of the function  $h$**

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**This principle can be generalized even further—for the regression concepts and different forms of the function  $h$**

- Typical choices for  $h$  include: median regression for  $h(x) = |x|$ ; quantile regression for  $h_{\tau}(x) = \tau(x - \mathbb{I}_{\{x < 0\}})$ ; expectile regression for  $h_{\tau}(x) = |\tau - \mathbb{I}_{\{x < 0\}}|x^2$ ; robust regression for  $h(x) = \rho(x)$ ;

# Basic properties of the regression variants

## □ Median regression

- more robust than the standard least squares regression
- for symmetric error distributions the median corresponds with the mean
- easy and straightforward interpretation of the estimated parameters

## □ Quantile regression

- generalization of the median regression (obtained as a special case)
- provides a complex insight about the conditional distribution of  $Y|X$
- relatively easy interpretation but not that much popular in practice

## □ Expectile regression

- generalization of the least squares (which are obtained for  $\tau = 0.5$ )
- expectiles form elastic and coherent risk measures (unlike quantiles)
- relatively difficult interpretation but very popular in risk theory

## □ Robust regression

- generalization of the regression for outliers and heavy-tailed distributions
- least squares for  $\rho(x) = X^2$ ; median regression for  $\rho(x) = |x|$ ; maximum likelihood for  $\rho(x) = -\log(x)$
- other choices are common in practice as well (e.g., Huber function, Tukey function, Andrew's function, ...)

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## Exam terms – Summer Term 2026

- ❑ **Tuesday, 19.05.2026** (starting at 10:40 in K11)
- ❑ **Thursday, 21.05.2026** (starting at 12:20 in K11)
- ❑ **Tuesday, 26.05.2026** (starting at 10:40 in K11)
- ❑ **Thursday, 28.05.2026** (starting at 9:00 in K11)
- ❑ **Friday, 19.06.2026** (starting at 14:00 in K11)
  
- ❑ At least one other exam term in **September 202ž**