

Review of Linear Algebra for Statistics

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Overview I

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Basic Matrix Operations

Special Types of Matrices

Matrix Inversion

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Simple Linear Regression

References

- We wrap up the math topics by reviewing some linear algebra concepts
- Linear algebra will become an important tool for you as a statistician
- You'll be using matrix operations most of the year, but the main necessity for linear algebra will come in STAT 200C.

Overview II

- Here are a few good references for reviewing undergraduate linear algebra in general
 - Introduction to Linear Algebra by Gilbert Strang
 - Gilbert Strang's Lectures on YouTube (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZK30402wf1c>)
 - Linear Algebra and it's Applications by David Lay
 - Linear Algebra by Friedberg, Insel, Spence (Upper division text)
- Graduate Level Linear Algebra References for Statistics
 - Matrix Algebra from a Statisticians Perspective by David Harville
 - Appendix of Linear Regression Analysis by George Seber and Alan Lee
 - Appendix of Applied Linear Regression by Sanford Weisberg

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- A familiarity with matrices will allow you to expand the types of statistics you can do.

- Consider the multivariate normal distribution
 $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)^T$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n |\Sigma|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

which is said to be “non-degenerate” when Σ is positive-definite.

- Additionally, \mathbf{x} is a real-valued n -dimensional column vector and $|\Sigma|$ is the determinant of Σ
- To investigate many of the properties of this distribution we'll need matrix algebra

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- We'll specifically use this distribution to explore linear regression
- Let Y be a random variable which has some mean μ which we measure under error ϵ , specifically

$$Y = \mu + \epsilon$$

- We will focus on linear models where

$$\mu = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}$$

where \mathbf{x} are explanatory variables and each β_j is unknown and to be estimated

Motivation III

- If we consider a random sample of n observations we will have

$$\begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{10} & x_{11} & \dots & x_{1,p-1} \\ x_{20} & x_{21} & \dots & x_{2,p-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{n0} & x_{n1} & \dots & x_{n,p-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- Or more simply written

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

- We will eventually show that $\mathbf{Y} \sim N_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.
- Matrix algebra will play a very important role throughout understanding linear algebra

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- A rectangular array of real numbers is called a matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

- A matrix with m rows and n columns is referred to as an $m \times n$ matrix
- Matrices will often be denoted by boldface letters \mathbf{X} .
- Additionally we can denote a matrix $\mathbf{X} = \{a_{ij}\}$

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- **Scalar Multiplication:** Consider a matrix \mathbf{A} and a scalar k , then

$$k\mathbf{A} = k\{a_{ij}\} = \{ka_{ij}\}$$

- **Matrix Addition:** Consider two matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} , if they are both of dimension $m \times n$ then we define addition between these two matrices. Specifically $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ is the $m \times n$ matrix $\{a_{ij} + b_{ij}\}$ for all pairs i, j .
 - Matrix addition is commutative and associative
 - Additionally matrices having the same number of rows and columns are said to be conformal for addition (or subtraction).

Basic Matrix Operations II

- Matrix Multiplication: Let $\mathbf{A} = \{a_{ij}\}$ represent an $m \times n$ matrix and $\mathbf{B} = \{b_{ij}\}$ a $p \times q$ matrix. When $n = p$ (when \mathbf{A} has the same number of columns as \mathbf{B} has rows), then the matrix product \mathbf{AB} is defined to be the $m \times q$ matrix whose ij^{th} element is

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \cdots + a_{in}b_{nj}$$

- The formation \mathbf{AB} is called the premultiplication of \mathbf{B} by \mathbf{A} or the postmultiplication of \mathbf{A} by \mathbf{B} .
- When $n \neq p$ then the matrix product \mathbf{AB} is undefined.
- Two $n \times n$ matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are said to commute if $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA}$

Basic Matrix Operations III

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- **Matrix Transpose:** The transpose of an $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} , to be denoted \mathbf{A}^T or \mathbf{A}' is the $n \times m$ matrix whose ij^{th} element is the ji^{th} element of \mathbf{A} .

- For any matrix \mathbf{A} , $(\mathbf{A}')' = \mathbf{A}$
- For any two matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} which are conformal for addition

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})' = \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{B}'$$

- Finally any two matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} for which the product is defined,

$$(\mathbf{AB})' = \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{A}'$$

Vectors

- A matrix with only one column

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_m \end{pmatrix}$$

is called an m -dimensional column vector

- A matrix with only one row is called a row vector
- Vectors will often be denoted by lower case bold symbols \mathbf{x} .
- Clearly the transpose of an m -dimensional column vector is an m -dimensional row vector

Square Matrices

- One of the most important types of matrices in all of statistics is the square matrix
- A matrix having the same number of rows as it does columns is called a square matrix
- An $n \times n$ square matrix is said to have order n .

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The set of terms $\{a_{ii}\}$ are called the diagonal elements of the square matrix and the terms $\{a_{ij}\}, i \neq j$ are the off-diagonal terms

Symmetric Matrices

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- A matrix \mathbf{A} is said to be symmetric if $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A}$
- Thus a symmetric matrix is a square matrix where the ij^{th} element equals the ji^{th} element.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 4 & 0 \\ 4 & -10 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonal Matrix

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- A diagonal matrix is a square matrix whose off-diagonal elements are zero, that is

$$\begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- The effect of premultiplying an $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} by a $m \times m$ diagonal matrix \mathbf{D} , \mathbf{DA} is to multiply each element of the i^{th} row of \mathbf{A} by the element d_{ii} .

Identity Matrix

- Often the most useful diagonal matrix is the identity matrix \mathbf{I}_n where the subscript n denotes the dimension of the identity matrix ($n \times n$). That is,

$$\mathbf{I}_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

often the subscript n is dropped.

- An important property is

$$\mathbf{IA} = \mathbf{AI} = \mathbf{A}$$

Matrix Inversion I

- For any scalar c there is a number called the inverse of c , say d such that the product of $cd = 1$.
 - For example, if $c = 3$, then $d = 1/c = 1/3$, and the inverse of 3 is $1/3$.
- This can be extended to square matrices

Definition (Matrix Inverse)

An $n \times n$ square matrix \mathbf{A} is called invertible (also nonsingular and non-degenerate) if there exists an $n \times n$ square matrix \mathbf{B} such that

$$\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}_n$$

If this is the case, then the matrix \mathbf{B} is uniquely determined by \mathbf{A} and is called the inverse of \mathbf{A} denoted \mathbf{A}^{-1}

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- The collection of matrices that have an inverse are called full rank, invertible, or nonsingular.
- A square matrix that is not invertible, is of less than full rank or singular.
- The identity matrix is its own inverse $(\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_n$.

Inverting a 2×2 Matrix. I

- Consider the following matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

- the inverse of \mathbf{A} denoted \mathbf{A}^{-1} is

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

where the determinant of \mathbf{A} , $|\mathbf{A}| = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$

- By our previous definitions we should have that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$

Inverting a 2×2 Matrix. II

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} &= \frac{1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21} & -a_{11}a_{12} + a_{12}a_{21} \\ a_{21}a_{22} - a_{22}a_{21} & -a_{21}a_{12} + a_{22}a_{11} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- This satisfies our requirement

Orthogonality

- Two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} (of the same length), are orthogonal if

$$\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{b} = 0$$

- An $r \times c$ matrix \mathbf{Q} has orthonormal columns if its columns, viewed as a set $c \leq r$ different $r \times 1$ vectors, are orthogonal and in addition have length 1.
- This is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$$

- Additionally a square matrix \mathbf{A} is orthogonal if

$$\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{I}$$

so $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}'$.

Linear Dependence and Rank I

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- Consider an $n \times p$ matrix \mathbf{X} with columns given by the vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p$ (we only consider the case when $p \leq n$.)
- We say that $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p$ are linearly dependent if we can find multipliers a_1, \dots, a_p not all equal to 0, such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^p a_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

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- If no such multipliers exist, then we say the vectors are linearly independent, and the matrix is full-rank.
- In general the rank of a matrix is the maximum number of \mathbf{x}_i which form a linearly independent set.
- The matrix $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ is a $p \times p$ matrix.
 - If \mathbf{X} has rank p , so does $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$.
- Full Rank matrices always have an inverse
- Square matrices less than full rank never have an inverse

More Properties of Matrices I

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Definition (Positive-Semidefinite Matrix)

A symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} is said to be positive-semidefinite (p.s.d) if and only if

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

for all \mathbf{x}

Definition (Positive-Definite Matrix)

A symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} is said to be positive-definite (p.d.) if

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} > 0$$

for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Note that a matrix that is p.d. is also p.s.d.

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Definition (Idempotent Matrices)

A matrix \mathbf{P} is idempotent if $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P}$. A symmetric idempotent matrix is called a projection matrix.

Trace of a Matrix

- An important operation on square matrices is called the trace.
- While not blatantly obvious at the moment, the trace of a square is encountered throughout statistics and therefore we'll define it

Definition (trace)

The trace of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} = \{a_{ij}\}$ of order n is defined to be the sum of the n diagonal elements of \mathbf{A} and is said to be the symbol $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A})$. Thus

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = a_{11} + a_{22} + \cdots + a_{nn}$$

Vector Differentiation

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- Finally we introduce Differentiation for Vectors

- If $\frac{d}{d\beta} = \left(\frac{d}{d\beta_i} \right)$, then

- 1 Consider the vector \mathbf{a} ,

$$\frac{d(\beta' \mathbf{a})}{d\beta} = \mathbf{a}$$

- 2 If \mathbf{A} is a symmetric matrix, then

$$\frac{d(\beta' \mathbf{A} \beta)}{d\beta} = 2\mathbf{A}\beta$$

Simple Linear Regression I

- Consider a random sample of n observations such

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i,1} + \epsilon_i$$

where $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ and independent observations.

- Here the x_i are observed and known and we would like to estimate the parameter β .
- We can rewrite into matrix notation for the n observations

$$\begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} \\ 1 & x_{21} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

or

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

Simple Linear Regression II

- One method that can be used to estimate β is through the method of least squares
- The idea is to find the vector β which minimizes the squared errors

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_i^n \epsilon_i^2 &= \epsilon' \epsilon \\ &= (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)\end{aligned}$$

- That is

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \min_{\beta} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

Simple Linear Regression III

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Let's expand this function

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ &= \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y} - 2\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} + \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\end{aligned}$$

where the above holds since $\boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ which is a scalar.

Simple Linear Regression IV

Now

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{d\beta}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) &= \frac{d}{d\beta}(\mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y} - 2\beta'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} + \beta'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta) \\ &= -2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} + 2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta\end{aligned}$$

We can set this equal to zero and thus

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\beta$$

Now provided the inverse of $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$ exists we have.

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

Simple Linear Regression V

Let us consider $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$, its inverse will exist only if it is full rank and/or nonsingular.

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} n & \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i & \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The determinant is $\det(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) = n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2$

Simple Linear Regression VI

Consider if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{1} = (1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1)^T$, Then

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}) &= n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2 \\ &= n^2 - n^2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We also see that

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} n & n \\ n & n \end{pmatrix}$$

which is not full rank. Thus one condition for inversion is that $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{1}$

Simple Linear Regression VII

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Continuing we can solve for $\hat{\beta}$, by our formula for 2×2 inversions we have

$$(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \frac{1}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 & -\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \\ -\sum_{i=1}^n x_i & n \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \end{pmatrix}$$

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Without going into all fun of calculating this for you guys, it can be shown that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} \\ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

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