STAT553 Summary

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1 Materials Before Exam1

1.1 Linear Models without the Normal Assumption

- 1. $\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$ minimizes $||Y X\beta||_2$, can be proved by using the fact that any β can be written as $(X^T X)^{-1} z$ for some z, and $(X^T X)^{-1}$ is positive semi-definite.
- 2. $Var(l^T Y) = l^T \Sigma l$, $Cov(AY) = A \Sigma A^T$
- 3. $\mathbb{E}(Y^T A Y) = \mu^T A \mu + \operatorname{tr}(A \Sigma)$
- 4. $\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y, \text{Var}(l^T \beta) = \sigma^2 l^T (X^T X)^{-1} l$
- 5. If the information matrix (X^TX) is non-singular iff $c^T\beta$ is linearly unbiasedly estimable for any c
- 6. $\sum e_i^2 = Y^T(I-P)Y$, $P = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$, rank $(P) = \text{tr}(P) = \text{tr}(I_p) = p$, so p eigenvalues of P are non-zero(1's) and n-p are zero. Because $PX_i = X_i$
- 7. PX = X, therefor $P\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1}$, since X has a column of 1's. We can infer $\sum e_i = 0$
- 8. $\mathbb{E}(e^T e) = \mathbb{E}[Y^T (I P)Y] = \sigma^2 \operatorname{tr}(I P) = (n p)\sigma^2$
- 9. The residuals are uncorrelated with the fitted values, i.e. $\sum e_i \hat{y}_i = 0$
- 10. Sample correlation of y and \hat{y} is $r = (\sum y_i \hat{y}_i \bar{y}^2)/(\sum (y_i \bar{y}_i)^2 \sum (\hat{y}_i \bar{y})^2) = \frac{SSR}{\sqrt{SSR*SST}} = \sqrt{SSR/SST} = R$

1.2 Linear Models with the Normal Assumption

- 1. Confidence Interval for $c^T\beta$. Note that $c^T\hat{\beta} = c^T(X^TX)^{-1}X^TY \sim \mathcal{N}(c^T\beta, \sigma^2c^T(X^TX)^{-1}c)$. Hence the $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval for $c^T\hat{\beta}$ is $c^T\beta \pm t_{\alpha,n-p}\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{c^T(X^TX)^{-1}c}$.
- 2. However, for the above conclusion, we need the independence of $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$. Since $\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$, and $SSE = Y^T (I P) Y$, they are independent $(Y^T A Y)$ and Y A Y are independent when $A \Sigma B^T = 0$.
- 3. Y^TAY and I^TY are independent iff Al = 0.

- 4. Let $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$, $\psi = (Y \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (Y \mu) \sim \chi_p^2$ by standardizing Y
- 5. Since $\hat{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\beta, \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1}, (\hat{\beta} \beta)^T \sigma^{-2}(X^TX)(\hat{\beta} \beta)^T) \sim \chi_p^2$, $P((\hat{\beta} \beta)^T \sigma^{-2}(X^TX)(\hat{\beta} \beta)^T \leq \chi_{p,\alpha}^2) = 1 \alpha$, which is an ellipsoid on β
- 6. If we replace σ^2 by $\hat{\sigma}^2$, under the normality assumption, $(\hat{\beta} \beta)^T (X^T X)(\hat{\beta} \beta)^T$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ are independent χ^2 . Hence $\frac{(\hat{\beta} \beta)^T (X^T X)(\hat{\beta} \beta)^T/p}{\hat{\sigma}^2/n p}$ their division follows $F_{p,n-p}$

1.3 Distributional Results on quadratic forms

- 1. Let $Y \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)$, $Q = (Y^T A Y)/\sigma^2$ is distributed as χ^2 iff A is idempotent, and the degree of freedom of Q is $\operatorname{rank}(A)$
- 2. Suppose $Y \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I), Q_1 = (Y^T A Y)/\sigma^2, Q_2 = (Y^T B Y)/\sigma^2$. Then Q_1, Q_2 are independent iff AB = 0
- 3. If $w \sim \chi^2(b)$, $u \sim \chi^2(a)$, a < b. Suppose $v = w u \ge 0$, Then $v \sim \chi^2(b-a)$ and v is independent of u
- 4. $Y^TY \sim \chi^2$, Y^TPY is also χ^2 when P is idempotent and symmetric. Then $Y^T(I-P)Y$ is also χ^2 and it is independent of Y^TPY . (Error is independent of estimation).

1.4 Hypothesis Testing

- 1. Gauss Markov Thm I. $c^T \hat{\beta}$ is the best linear unbiased estimate (BLUE) of $c^T \beta$. i.e. $Var(l^T Y) \ge Var(c^T \hat{\beta})$ (By $c = X^T l$)
- 2. Gauss Markov Thm II. Let AY be any LUE of β , then $Cov(AY) \ge Cov(\hat{\beta})$ (linear ordering, by $A = (X^TX)^{-1} + B$ and BX = 0)
- 3. Test $c^T \beta = \gamma$, $t_c = (c^T \hat{\beta} \gamma) / \sqrt{\sigma^2 c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c} \sim t_{n-p}$
- 4. Suppose we want to simultaneously test $c_1^T \beta = \gamma_1, c_2^T \beta = \gamma_2, ..., c_k^T \beta = \gamma_k$, then the null is $H\beta = \gamma$, which is called a general linear hypothesis.
- 5. When testing $c^T \beta = \gamma$ Fit the full model and restricted model respectively, then get the RSS. Difference in RSS is $\frac{(c^T \beta \gamma)^2}{c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c}$
- 6. Similarly, the difference when testing $H\beta = \gamma$ is $M = (H\hat{\beta} \gamma)^T [H^T (X^T X)^{-1} H)]^{-1} (H\hat{\beta} \gamma)$, so $M/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2(k)$ and $\frac{M/k}{\hat{\sigma}^2/(n-p)} \sim F_{k,n-p}$
- 7. Prediction of new X_0 is $\hat{Y_0} = X_0^T \beta$, and $\hat{Y_0} Y_0 \sim N(0, \sigma^2 (1 + X_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} X_0))$

2 Materials Before Exam 2

2.1 Effect of Model Mis-specification on β

- 1. If the mean is mis-specified, $X = (X_1, X_2), \beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2)$, then
 - True Model: $Y = X\beta + \epsilon = X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + \epsilon$
 - Reduced Model: $Y = X_1\beta_1 + \epsilon$
 - $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta_1}) = \beta_1 + (X_1^T X_1)^{-1} X_1^T X_2 \beta_2$, bias is 0 if $X_1^T X_2 = 0$
 - $Cov_{Full}(\hat{\beta}_1) \ge Cov_{Reduced}(\hat{\beta}_1)$ (Matrix sense), because $(X^TX)_{11}^{-1} \ge (X_1^TX_1)^{-1}$
- 2. If the variance is mis-specified, $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 \Sigma)$, then
 - True Model: $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$

 - $\hat{\beta} = (X^T \Sigma^{-1} X)^{-1} X^T \Sigma^{-1} Y$, $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$
 - If we use I instead of Σ , the covariance would be larger. $Cov((X^TX)^{-1}X^TY) = \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1}X^T\Sigma X(X^TX)^{-1} \ge \sigma^2(X^T\Sigma X)^{-1}$ (Matrix sense)

2.2 Effect of Model Mis-specification on σ^2

- 1. If the mean is mis-specified, $X = (X_1, X_2), \beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2)$, then
 - $Y = X_1\beta_1 + \epsilon$. By mis-specifying the mean, we will overestimate σ^2 .

2.3 Asymptotics of $\hat{\beta}$

- 1. If the variance is mis-specified, $\Sigma \neq I$, then
 - The wrong estimate is $\hat{\beta}_R = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y \operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_R) = \sigma^2 (X^T X)^{-1} (X^T \Sigma X) (X^T X)^{-1}$
 - Take $\Sigma = Q^T \Delta Q$, and $\lambda_{max} = \text{largest eigenvalue of } \Sigma$, $\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_R) \leq \sigma^2 \lambda_{max} (X^T X)^{-1}$
 - Conclusion: If we use the wrong $\hat{\beta}_R = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$, then $\hat{\beta}_R$ is unbiased and consistent if $\lambda_{max}(\Sigma) = O(1)$ and $\lambda_{min}(X^T X) \to \infty$.

2.4 Ridge Estimate

- 1. $\hat{\beta} = (X^TX + \lambda I)^{-1}X^TY = (I + \lambda(X^TX)^{-1})^{-1}\hat{\beta}$ is called the ridge estimate of β .
- 2. $Cov(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) = \sigma^2(I + \lambda(X^TX)^{-1})(X^TX)^{-1}(I + \lambda(X^TX)^{-1})$

- 3. There is a bias-variance tradeoff between the ridge estimate and OLS estimate $\hat{\beta}$
- 4. Bayes Estimate of β . $Y \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 I), \beta \sim N(0, \frac{1}{\lambda}I)$, then $\beta | Y \sim N((X^TX + \lambda I)^{-1}X^TY, \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda \sigma^2 + 1}I)$
- 5. $\mathbb{E}_{\beta}(Y^TY) = \beta^T X^T X \beta + n\sigma^2, \mathbb{E}(Y^TY) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \operatorname{tr}(X^T X) + n\sigma^2$
- 6. The empirical Bayes estimate for $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ is $\frac{Y^TY n\sigma^2}{\operatorname{tr}(X^TX)} \approx \frac{Y^TY RSS}{\operatorname{tr}(X^TX)} = \frac{Y^TPY}{\operatorname{tr}(X^TX)}$
- 7. With this choice of λ , $\beta_{\lambda} = (X^TX + \frac{\operatorname{tr}(X^TX)}{Y^TPY}I)^{-1}X^TY$.
- 8. Suppose now $X^TX = nI$, $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} = (1 + \frac{p}{n\hat{\beta}^T\hat{\beta}})^{-1}\hat{\beta}$. This is the Stein estimate of β in the linear regression model for the orthogonal case.
- 9. $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T Y = P^T (\Lambda + \lambda I)^{-1} P X^T Y$
- 10. $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) = (\sum_{i=1}^{p} \frac{s_i^2}{s_i^2 + \lambda} u_i u_i^T) \beta \approx (\sum_{i=1}^{p} (1 \frac{\lambda}{s_i^2} u_i u_i^T) \beta + o(|\lambda|), \mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) \beta = -\lambda (X^T X)^{-1} \beta + o(\lambda).$
- 11. The case of unknown Σ , we use the model $Y \sim N(X\beta, \Sigma)$, $Y = X\beta + z_1\alpha_1 + z_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + z_r\alpha_r + \epsilon$, $Cov(\alpha_i, \alpha_j) = 0$, $Cov(\alpha_i) = \sigma^2 I$. There exists some matrix A such that $AY \sim N(0, A\Sigma A^T)$

2.5 Approximation Theory

- 1. For any normed linear space, $A \subset B$ is a finite dimensional subspace, then given $f \in B$, there exists a best approximation to f from A
- 2. To ensure the uniqueness of best approximation, make A a strictly convex set or the norm a strictly convex norm.
- 3. A is called strictly convex if for $x, y \in A, 0 < \lambda < 1, \lambda x + (1 \lambda)y \in A^o$ (interior of A)
- 4. Example: find a best linear polynomial approximation to a function f. The best approximation has an interesting property that $||f \hat{f}||_{\infty} = |f(0) \hat{f}(0)|, |f(1) \hat{f}(1)|, |f(x_0) \hat{f}(x_0)|$ for some x_0 and they alternate in sign
- 5. If the norm is strictly convex and A is a finite-dimensional subspace, then any $f \in B$ has a unique best approximation from A.
- 6. Hilbert space is a vector space with the property that every Cauchy sequence in B has a limit that belongs to B.
- 7. Let $f \in B$, then an \hat{f} on A is a best approximation to f from A iff $\langle f \hat{f}, g \rangle = 0, \forall g \in A$.
- 8. How to find the best linear approximate \hat{f} : $\hat{f} = \sum_{j} \frac{\langle f, \phi_j \rangle}{\|\phi_j\|_2^2} \phi_j$.
- 9. Let \hat{f} be the best approximate to f, X be a linear operator. $||f X(f)|| \le ||f \hat{f}||(1 + ||X||)$