# STAT2401: Analysis of Experiments Introduction & Review

Dr Darfiana Nur

Dept. of Math. & Stat.

February 27, 2024

#### Aims of this week

- Unit administration (using the LMS)
- Aim 1 Motivation Examples
- Aim 2 Background knowledge
- Aim 2.1 Quick Review 1: Random Variables, Normal
- Aim 2.2 Quick Review 2: Populations and Samples
- Aim 2.3 Quick Review 3: Distributions, Expectations and Variance (Normal distribution, Law of Large Numbers (LLN), Central Limit Theorem (CLT) and t distributions)
- Aim 2.4 Quick Review 4: Simple matrix algebra in R (independent reading, independent learning) [eg create an Rmd file, explore the R commands within the slides)

# Topics covered in this unit

- Simple Linear Regression (SLR) Model
- Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) Model
- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Model
- Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) Model
- Model Diagnostics
- Model Selection

References: Chapters 3 and 6, An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R (James ET AL, 2nd edition, 2023,

https://www.statlearning.com/); A Modern Approach to Regression with R (Sheather, 2009)

## What you need to know

Analyse data with R.

Please read the unit outline thoroughly.

The questions in the exam, assignments and tests are related to the implementation, including interpretation of the R-output

- two online tests (10% each) in Weeks 6 and 10; open Friday at 8am, due by the same day at 8pm; open-book
- two assignments (15% each), due in Week 7 (available in Week 4) and due in Week 11 (available in Week 7)
- final examination (50%): LMS examination that will be held during the examination period.
  - Depend on the circumstances, the examination might be conducted in a computer laboratory/BYOD setting as a face-to-face school-based exam, subject to available facilities (UniApps) or as MS Teams online on LMS.
  - Students will be informed about the detail of the examination in due course.
- we introduce theorems to explain the implementation and R-output
- proofs are not assessed in the exam or tests.

## **Statistical Learning**

- Statistical learning refers to a vast set of tools for understanding data.
- These tools can be classified as *supervised* or *unsupervised*.
- Supervised Statistical Learning involves building a statistical model for predicting, or estimating, an output based on one or more inputs.
   Problems of this nature occur in fields as diverse as business, medicine, astrophysics, and public policy.
- Linear regression is an approach for Supervised Statistical Learning.
- With Unsupervised Statistical Learning, there are inputs but no supervising output; nevertheless we can learn relationships and structure from such data.
- To provide an illustration of some applications of statistical learning, we briefly discuss two real-world data sets.

# Aim 1: Motivation Examples: Example 1 Wage Data

 In this application (which we refer to as the Wage data set), we examine a number of factors that relate to wages for a group of males from the Atlantic region of the United States.

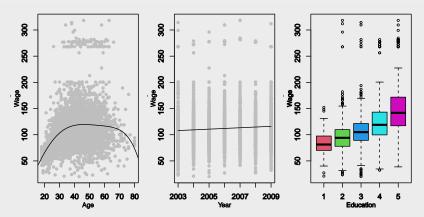
```
> load("Wage.RData")
> str(Wage)
'data.frame': 3000 obs. of 11 variables:
$ vear
             : int 2006 2004 2003 2003 2005 2008 2009 2008 2006 2004 ...
$ age
             : int 18 24 45 43 50 54 44 30 41 52 ...
$ maritl
             : Factor w/ 5 levels "1. Never Married",..: 1 1 2 2 4 2 2 1 1 2 .
             : Factor w/ 4 levels "1. White", "2. Black", ...: 1 1 1 3 1 1 4 3 2
$ race
$ education : Factor w/ 5 levels "1. < HS Grad",..: 1 4 3 4 2 4 3 3 3 2 ...</pre>
$ region
             : Factor w/ 9 levels "1. New England",..: 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 ...
$ jobclass
             : Factor w/ 2 levels "1. Industrial",..: 1 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 ...
$ health
             : Factor w/ 2 levels "1. <=Good", "2. >=Very Good": 1 2 1 2 1 2 2
$ health_ins: Factor w/ 2 levels "1. Yes","2. No": 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 ...
$ logwage
             : num 4.32 4.26 4.88 5.04 4.32 ...
$ wage
             : num 75 70.5 131 154.7 75 ...
```

## **Example 1: Wage Data**

• We wish to understand the association between an employee's age and education, as well as the calendar year, on his wage.

```
> par(mfrow=c(1,3))
> plot(wage~age,data=Wage)
> plot(wage~year,data=Wage)
```

> plot(wage education, data=Wage)



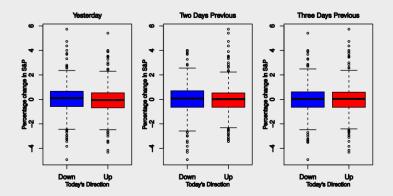
## **Example 1: Wage Data**

- The left-hand panel, the display of wage versus age
  - There is evidence that wage increases with age but then decreases again after approximately age 60. The line, which provides an estimate of the average wage for a given age, makes this trend clearer.
- The center and right-hand panels display wage as a function of both year and education,
  - year and education are associated with wage
  - Wages increase by approximately \$10,000, in a roughly linear (or straight-line) fashion, between 2003 and 2009, though this rise is very slight relative to the variability in the data.
  - Wages are also typically greater for individuals with higher education levels: men with the lowest education level (1) tend to have substantially lower wages than those with the highest education level (5).
- The most accurate prediction of a given man's wage will be obtained by combining his age, his education, and the year.

 We examine a stock market data set that contains the daily movements in the Standard & Poor's 500 (S&P) stock index over a 5-year period between 2001 and 2005. We refer to this as the Smarket data.

 The goal is to predict whether the index will increase or decrease on a given day using the past 5 days' percentage changes in the index.

```
> par(mfrow=c(1,3))
> plot(Lag1"Direction,data=Smarket)
> plot(Lag2"Direction,data=Smarket)
> plot(Lag3"Direction,data=Smarket)
```



- The left-hand panel displays two boxplots of the previous day's percentage changes in the stock index.
  - One for the 648 days for which the market increased on the subsequent day, and one for the 602 days for which the market decreased.
  - The two plots look almost identical, suggesting that there is no simple strategy for using yesterday's movement in the S&P to predict today's returns.
- The remaining panels, which display boxplots for the percentage changes 2 and 3 days previous to today
  - These plots indicate little association between past and present returns.
     Of course, this lack of pattern is to be expected:
  - in the presence of strong correlations between successive days' returns, one could adopt a simple trading strategy to generate profits from the market.

 Interestingly, there are hints of some weak trends in the data that suggest that, at least for this 5-year period, it is possible to correctly predict the direction of movement in the market approximately 60% of the time.

Actual						
Predict	$\mathbf{Down}$	Uр				
Down	35	35				
Uр	76	106				

```
> (36+106)/(36+106+76+35)
[1] 0.5612648
```

<sup>[1] 0.0012040</sup> 

<sup>&</sup>gt; 106/(106+76)

<sup>[1] 0.5824176</sup> 

# Aim 2: Background Knowledge

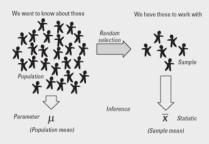
Most people doing this unit should be aware of the following:

- Random variables (In particular, Gaussian/Normal Random Variable) and their distributions
- Populations and samples
- Statistical inference based on the theorem of random variables including;
  - Distributions, expectations and variances
  - Law of large numbers
  - Central limit theorem
  - Tests of significance and confidence intervals

#### Aim 2.1 Random Variables

- A random variable is a quantity Y that depends on the outcome of an experiment.
- Traditionally written with a capital letter, e.g. Y
- Two major types of random variables are "discrete" and "continuous" Random variables.
- A discrete random variable has a probability mass function, pmf.
- A continuous random variable has a probability density function, pdf.
- Both discrete and continuous random variables have cumulative distribution functions, cdf.

# **Aim 2.2 Populations and Samples**



From www.cliffsnotes.com

#### Our interests are not limited to

- ullet Population mean  $\mu$
- Population variance  $\sigma^2$
- Population median

# Aim 2.3: Distributions, Expectations and Variances

- Let Y be a random variable.
- The cumulative distribution function of Y is  $F(y) = P(Y \le y)$
- When Y is continuous, and it takes values from  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , then
  - It has a pdf,  $f(y) = \frac{d}{dy}F(y)$
  - The expecated value (or expectation) is  $\mu = E(Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f(y) dy$
  - The variance is  $\sigma^2 = Var(Y) = E((Y \mu)^2) = E[Y^2] (E[Y])^2$  where  $E(Y^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^2 f(y) dy$
- When Y is discrete, and it take values from the set  $\{y_1, \ldots, y_m\}$ 
  - It has a pmf,  $P(Y = y_j)$ ,  $j = 1, \ldots, m$
  - The expecated value (or expectation) is  $\mu = E(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i P(Y = y_i)$
  - The variance is  $\sigma^2 = Var(Y) = E((Y \mu)^2) = E[Y^2] (E[Y])^2$  where  $E(Y^2) = \sum_{j=1}^m y_j^2 P(Y = y_j)$

# **Gaussian/Normal distribution**

• Let Y be a Normal $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  random variable. It has the density

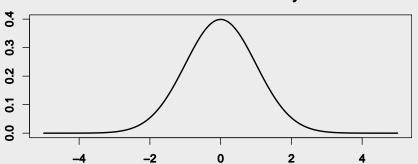
$$\phi(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(y-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right\}$$

- ullet Mean / Expected value / Expectation is  $\mu$
- Variance is  $\sigma^2$
- Standard Normal distribution has  $\mu=0$  and  $\sigma^2=1$

## **Normal density**

```
> y = seq(-5,5,0.01)
> mu = 0
> sigma2 = 1
> plot(y,dnorm(y,mu,sqrt(sigma2)),type="1",lwd=2,main="Standard Normal Density")
```

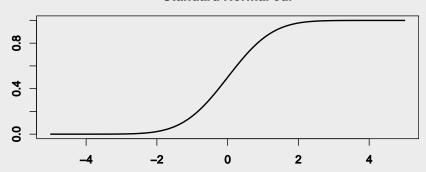
## **Standard Normal Density**



#### **Normal CDF**

```
> y = seq(-5,5,0.01)
> mu = 0
> sigma2 = 1
> plot(y,pnorm(y,mu,sqrt(sigma2)),type="l",lwd=2,main="Standard Normal cdf")
```

#### **Standard Normal cdf**



# **Quick Review: Standard Normal Table**

#### Numbers from the standard normal table

#### Standard Normal Probabilities

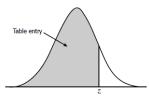


Table entry for z is the area under the standard normal curve to the left of z.

Z	.00	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09
0.0	.5000	.5040	.5080	.5120	.5160	.5199	.5239	.5279	.5319	.5359
0.1	.5398	.5438	.5478	.5517	.5557	.5596	.5636	.5675	.5714	.5753
0.2	.5793	.5832	.5871	.5910	.5948	.5987	.6026	.6064	.6103	.6141
0.3	.6179	.6217	.6255	.6293	.6331	.6368	.6406	.6443	.6480	.6517
0.4	.6554	.6591	.6628	.6664	.6700	.6736	.6772	.6808	.6844	.6879
0.5	.6915	.6950	.6985	.7019	.7054	.7088	.7123	.7157	.7190	.7224
0.6	.7257	.7291	.7324	.7357	.7389	.7422	.7454	.7486	.7517	.7549
0.7	.7580	.7611	.7642	.7673	.7704	.7734	.7764	.7794	.7823	.7852
0.8	.7881	.7910	.7939	.7967	.7995	.8023	.8051	.8078	.8106	.8133
0.9	.8159	.8186	.8212	.8238	.8264	.8289	.8315	.8340	.8365	.8389
1.0	.8413	.8438	.8461	.8485	.8508	.8531	.8554	.8577	.8599	.8621
1.1	.8643	.8665	.8686	.8708	.8729	.8749	.8770	.8790	.8810	.8830
1.2	.8849	.8869	.8888	.8907	.8925	.8944	.8962	.8980	.8997	.9015
1.3	.9032	.9049	.9066	.9082	.9099	.9115	.9131	.9147	.9162	.9177

# **Quick Review: Standard Normal Table**

#### Numbers from the standard normal table

4.4	0402	.9207	.9222	.9236	.9251	.9265	.9279	.9292	.9306	.9319
1.4	.9192									
1.5	.9332	.9345	.9357	.9370	.9382	.9394	.9406	.9418	.9429	.9441
1.6	.9452	.9463	.9474	.9484	.9495	.9505	.9515	.9525	.9535	.9545
1.7	.9554	.9564	.9573	.9582	.9591	.9599	.9608	.9616	.9625	.9633
1.8	.9641	.9649	.9656	.9664	.9671	.9678	.9686	.9693	.9699	.9706
1.9	.9713	.9719	.9726	.9732	.9738	.9744	.9750	.9756	.9761	.9767
2.0	.9772	.9778	.9783	.9788	.9793	.9798	.9803	.9808	.9812	.9817
2.1	.9821	.9826	.9830	.9834	.9838	.9842	.9846	.9850	.9854	.9857
2.2	.9861	.9864	.9868	.9871	.9875	.9878	.9881	.9884	.9887	.9890
2.3	.9893	.9896	.9898	.9901	.9904	.9906	.9909	.9911	.9913	.9916
2.4	.9918	.9920	.9922	.9925	.9927	.9929	.9931	.9932	.9934	.9936
2.5	.9938	.9940	.9941	.9943	.9945	.9946	.9948	.9949	.9951	.9952
2.6	.9953	.9955	.9956	.9957	.9959	.9960	.9961	.9962	.9963	.9964
2.7	.9965	.9966	.9967	.9968	.9969	.9970	.9971	.9972	.9973	.9974
2.8	.9974	.9975	.9976	.9977	.9977	.9978	.9979	.9979	.9980	.9981
2.9	.9981	.9982	.9982	.9983	.9984	.9984	.9985	.9985	.9986	.9986
3.0	.9987	.9987	.9987	.9988	.9988	.9989	.9989	.9989	.9990	.9990
3.1	.9990	.9991	.9991	.9991	.9992	.9992	.9992	.9992	.9993	.9993
3.2	.9993	.9993	.9994	.9994	.9994	.9994	.9994	.9995	.9995	.9995
3.3	.9995	.9995	.9995	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9996	.9997
3.4	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9997	.9998

# Quick Review: Using R

Numbers from the standard normal table

$$> qnorm(1-0.05/2,0,1)$$

[1] 1.959964

qnorm is the inverse function of cdf, known as the quantile function. Here Z is a standard normal random variable

$$P(Z \le 1.959964) = 1 - 0.05/2 = 0.975$$

> pnorm(1.959964,0,1)

[1] 0.975

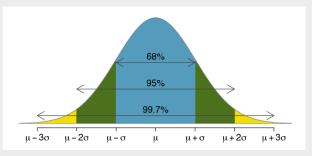
pnorm is the cdf. We have

$$P(Z > 1.959964) = 0.05/2$$
  
 $P(-1.959964 \le Z \le 1.959964) = 1 - 0.05 = 95\%$ 

When we draw a standard normal random number, 95% chance that the number would be in the interval (-1.959964, 1.959964) or (-1.96, 1.96).

# **Quick Review: Normal probability**

In general, if Y is a Normal $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  random variable



By transformation,  $Z = \frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma}$  is a standard normal random variable:

$$P(-1.96 \le Z \le 1.96) = 1 - 0.05 = 95\%$$
  
 $P(-2 \le Z \le 2) \approx 1 - 0.05 = 95\%$   
 $P(-2 \le \frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma} \le 2) \approx 1 - 0.05 = 95\%$   
 $P(\mu - 2\sigma \le Y \le \mu + 2\sigma) \approx 1 - 0.05 = 95\%$ 

# Quick Review: Law of Large Numbers (LLN)

## Law of large numbers

- Let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  be a random sample of size n
- All  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  are independent
- They all have the same mean (or expected value) and variance

$$\mu = E[Y_1] = \cdots = E[Y_n]$$
  
 $\sigma^2 = Var(Y_1) = \cdots = Var(Y_n)$ 

- The average is  $\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Y_j$
- ullet  $ar{Y}$  is a random variable and  $\mu$  is a constant
- When  $n \to \infty$ , then  $\bar{Y} \to \mu$

## **Quick Review: LLN**

Example: Sample from Normal(1,1) distribution of different sizes, 10, 100, 1000, 10000, we compute the average of the sample (noted that the population mean is 1)

```
> mean(rnorm(10,1,1))
[1] 1.074626
> mean(rnorm(100,1,1))
[1] 1.043359
> mean(rnorm(1000,1,1))
[1] 1.020245
> mean(rnorm(10000,1,1))
```

# **Quick Review; Central Limit Theorem (CLT)**

#### Central Limit Theorem

- Let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  be a random sample of size n
- All  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  are independent
- They all have the same mean (or expected value) and variance

$$\mu = E[Y_1] = \cdots = E[Y_n]$$
  
 $\sigma^2 = Var(Y_1) = \cdots = Var(Y_n)$ 

- The average is  $\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Y_j$
- $\bar{Y}$  is a random variable and both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are constants
- When  $n \to \infty$ , then the distribution of  $\frac{\bar{Y} \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}} \to$  the distribution of Z where Z is a standard normal random variable. Usually we write  $\frac{\bar{Y} \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}} \to Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$
- Both  $\frac{\bar{Y} \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}}$  and Z are random variables

## **Quick Review**

Example: Sample  $Y_1,\ldots,Y_n$  from (continuous) Uniform(0,1) distribution of size n. The mean and variance are  $\mu=1/2$  and  $\sigma^2=1/12$ . We compute the average  $\bar{Y}$  and compute the standardized value, that is  $\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}}$ . Here we take n=10.

> (mean(runif(10,0,1))-1/2)/sqrt(1/12/10)

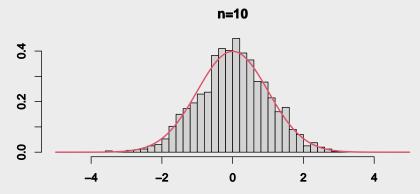
[1] -0.3924983

We can't plot it to make comparsion with standard normal density since we have only one value. We need replications.

### **Quick Review**

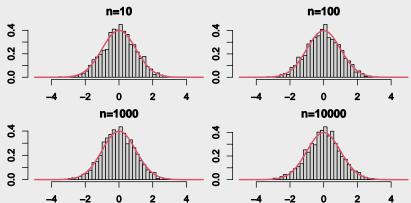
# Example: We repeat this 2000 times so that we can plot the histogram

```
> Standardized.Y = rep(0,2000)
> for (j in 1:2000) {
+    Standardized.Y[j] = (mean(runif(10,0,1))-1/2)/sqrt(1/12/10)
+    }
> hist(Standardized.Y,freq=FALSE,main="n=10",breaks=seq(-5,5,0.2))
> lines(seq(-5,5,0.01),dnorm(seq(-5,5,0.01),0,1),type="1",lwd=2,col=2)
```



# **Quick Review**

Example: We also take n = 100, n = 1000, and n = 10000



Use of t-distribution

Consider the case that  $\sigma^2$  is unknown. Suppose that  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  is a random sample from Normal $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  where both  $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  are unknown. We need to estimate  $\sigma^2$  using the sample variance

$$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (Y_{j} - \bar{Y})^{2}$$

The following statistic has t-distribution with degree of freedom n-1

$$T = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{S^2}{n}}}$$

Note that a statistic is a numerical quantity calculated from data.

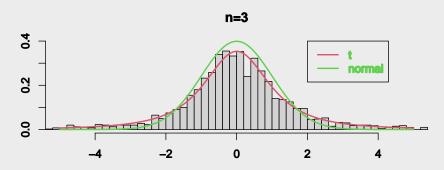
Example: Let  $Y_1$ ,  $Y_2$ ,  $Y_3$  be the random sample from the Normal(1,1) distribution. The mean and variance are  $\mu=1$  and  $\sigma^2=1$ . We compute the average  $\bar{Y}$  and  $\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sqrt{\frac{S^2}{3}}}$ .

```
> Y = rnorm(3,1,1)
> (mean(Y)-1)/sqrt(var(Y)/3)
[1] -0.3815971
```

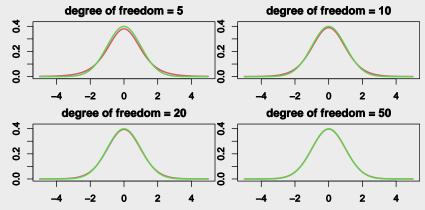
Again, we can't plot it to make comparison with a t-density since we have only one value. We need replications.

Note that rnorm generates random samples from Normal distribution. The first argument is the size, second argument is the mean and the third argument is the standard error. Entering ?rnorm in the R console would give you the details. var(Y) calculates the sample variance of the data vector Y.

# Example: We repeat this 2000 times so that we can plot the histogram



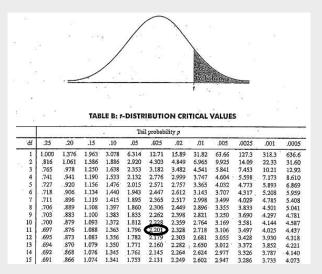
Comparisons (Normal vs t)



Green: normal; Red: t

When degree of freedom  $\rightarrow \infty$ , t  $\rightarrow$  normal

#### Numbers from the t-Table



#### Numbers from the t-Table

```
> qt(1-0.05/2,11)
[1] 2.200985
```

 $T_{11}$  is a random variable of the t-distribution with degree of freedom 11

$$P(T_{11} \le 2.200985) = 1 - 0.05/2 = 0.975$$

[1] 0.975

We have

$$P(T_{11} > 2.200985) = 0.05/2$$
  
 $P(-2.200985 \le T_{11} \le 2.200985) = 1 - 0.05 = 95\%$ 

The random number would be in the interval (-2.201, 2.201) with 95% chance.

## Aim 2.4 Quick Review 4: Simple Matrix Algebra

• Two matrices **A** and **B** are equal if they are of the same order and each pair of corresponding elements are equal, i.e.,  $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$  for

```
i = 1, 2, ..., m and j = 1, 2, ..., n.
> A = matrix(c(1,2,3,4),2,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,]
       3 4
> B = matrix(c(1,2,3,4),2,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A==B
     [,1] [,2]
[1.] TRUE TRUE
[2.] TRUE TRUE
> all(A==B)
[1] TRUE
> C = matrix(c(1,2,3,400),2,2,byrow=TRUE)
> all(A==C)
[1] FALSE
```

• A matrix with all elements 0 is denoted by  $\mathbf{0}$ , i.e., if  $a_{ij} = 0$  for i = 1, 2, ..., m and j = 1, 2, ..., n, then  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$ .

• A square matrix **A** with all elements not on the diagonal equal to 0 is a diagonal matrix, i.e., if  $a_{ij} = 0$  for all  $i \neq j$  (and  $a_{ii} \neq 0$  for at least one i).

A diagonal matrix with all diagonal elements 1 (and all others not on the diagonal 0) is denoted by I<sub>n</sub> or simply I, i.e., if a<sub>ii</sub> = 1 for i = 1, 2..., n, a<sub>ij</sub> = 0 for for all i ≠ j for i = 1, 2..., n, then A = I<sub>n</sub> = I. It is referred to as the identity matrix

$$\mathbf{I}_{n} = \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# • identity matrices, I<sub>3</sub>:

```
> I = matrix(c(1,0,0,0,1,0,0,0,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> I
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
       1
            0
[2,]
[3,] 0
            0
14:
   = matrix(c(1,0,0,0,0,1,0,0,0,0,1,0,0,0,0,1),4,4,byrow=TRUE)
> I
     [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,]
            0
[2,]
            1
                 0
       0
[3,]
            0
                       0
[4,]
            0
```

- If **A** is  $n \times m$  and  $I_n$  is  $n \times n$  identity matrix, then  $A = I_n A$ .
- If **A** is  $n \times m$  and  $I_m$  is  $m \times m$  identity matrix, then  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}I_m$ .

```
> I3 = matrix(c(1,0,0,0,1,0,0,0,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> I2 = matrix(c(1,0,0,1),2,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A = matrix(c(3,3,4,5,6,7),3,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
            3
[2,]
            5
[3,]
> A%*%I2
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       3
[2,]
            5
[3,]
> I3%*%A
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       3
            3
            5
[2,]
[3,]
```

• If **A** is  $n \times n$  and  $I_n$  is  $n \times n$  identity matrix, then  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}I_n = I_n \mathbf{A}$ .

```
> I = matrix(c(1,0,0,0,1,0,0,0,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> A = matrix(c(3,3,4,5,6,7,3,6,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> A
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
            3
[2,] 5
          6
[3,]
> A%*%I
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
       3
            3
[2,]
[3,]
       3
> I%*%A
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
       3
            3
[2,]
       5
            6
[3,]
```

• If **A** is a square matrix then  $diag(\mathbf{A})$  is the (column) vector of the diagonal elements of **A**, i.e.,the vector  $(a_{ii})$ .

$$\mathbf{A} = \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{array} \right]$$

then

$$\operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{A}) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times 1}$$

### square matrix

```
> A = matrix(c(1,2,3,4,1,4,3,2,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> A
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
      1 2 3
[2,] 4 1
[3,] 3 2
> diag(A)
[1] 1 1 1
> matrix(diag(A),3,1,byrow=TRUE)
    [,1]
[1,]
[2,]
[3,]
```

• If a is a vector, diag(a) is the diagonal matrix with the elements of a along the diagonal and 0s elsewhere. Let

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$diag(a) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times n}$$

## • diag

```
> a = matrix(c(1,2,3),3,1,byrow=TRUE)
> a
     [,1]
[1,]
[2,]
[3,]
> diag(c(a))
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
       1
[1,]
            0
[2,]
            2
                 0
[3,]
       0
            0
```

 diag(diag(X)) is a square matrix formed by setting all off-diagonal elements of A to 0.

$$diag(diag(\mathbf{A})) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times n}$$

Some texts will call diag(A) this matrix but the form diag(diag(A)) here conforms with R syntax.

## • double diag

```
> A = matrix(c(1,2,3,4,1,4,3,2,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> A
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
         2 3
[2,] 4 1 4
[3,] 3 2 1
[3,] 3
> diag(diag(A))
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
       1
            0
[2,]
         1
                0
[3,]
            0
       0
```

• The trace of a square matrix is the sum of all the diagonal elements of the matrix, i.e.,  $tr(\mathbf{A}) = trace(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$ . Note that  $tr(\mathbf{I}_n) = n$ .

```
> A = matrix(c(6,2,3,4,2,4,3,2,7),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> A
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 6 2 3
[2,] 4 2 4
[3,] 3 2 7
> sum(diag(A))
[1] 15
> B = matrix(c(1,0,0,0,1,0,0,0,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> B
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 1 0
[2,]
[3,] 0 0
> sum(diag(B))
[1] 3
```

 Addition and subtraction of matrices of the same order are performed element by element (just as with vectors):

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times n} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \cdots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times n}$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} + b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & a_{m2} + b_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times n}$$

### Addition and Subtraction

```
> A = matrix(c(6,2,3,4,2,4),3,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A
    [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       6
[2,]
            4
[3,]
> B = matrix(c(1,4,2,4,2,3),3,2,byrow=TRUE)
> B
    [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,]
[3,] 2
> A+B
    [,1] [,2]
[1,]
          6
[2,]
[3,]
```

If A and B are matrices then we can multiply A by B (to get AB)
 only if the number of columns of A equals the number of rows of B:

$$\mathbf{AB} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times n} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1q} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2q} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \cdots & b_{nq} \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times q}$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{1k}b_{k1} & \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{1k}b_{k2} & \cdots & \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{1k}b_{kq} \\ \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{2k}b_{k1} & \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{2k}b_{k2} & \cdots & \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{2k}b_{kq} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{mk}b_{k1} & \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{mk}b_{k2} & \cdots & \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{mk}b_{kq} \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times q}$$

the element of **AB** at (ij) cell is given by  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}$ 

## Multiplication

```
> A = matrix(c(1,2,3,4,1,4),3,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A
    [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       1
            2
[2,]
            4
[3,] 1
            4
> B = matrix(c(1,2,1,4,3,4),2,3,byrow=TRUE)
> B
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
            2
[2,]
> A%*%B
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
            8
       9
                 9
[2,] 19 18 19
[3,] 17
         14
                17
> B%*%A
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       8 14
[2,]
      17
           36
```

• If A is  $m \times n$  and B is  $n \times q$ , then (AB)' is  $q \times m$  and (AB)' = B'A'

```
> A = matrix(c(6,2,3,4,2,4),3,2,byrow=TRUE)
> B = matrix(c(2,5,1,3,5,3,1,4),2,4,byrow=TRUE)
> t(A%*%B)
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 22 26
               24
[2,] 36 27
               22
[3,] 8 7 6
[4,] 26
          25
               22
> t(B)%*%t(A)
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
     22
         26
               24
[2,]
      36 27
               22
[3,]
     8
         7
              6
[4,]
     26
          25
               22
```

• If **A** is  $m \times n$  then the products  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'$  and  $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}$  are both defined resulting in  $m \times m$  and  $n \times n$  square matrices respectively. Both are symmetric because, for example,  $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'$ 

```
> A = matrix(c(6,2,3,4,2,4),3,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A
    [,1] [,2]
[1,] 6 2
[2,] 3 4
[3,] 2 4
> t(A)%*%A
    [,1] [,2]
[1.]
     49 32
[2,] 32 36
> t(t(A)%*%A)
    [,1] [,2]
[1,]
     49 32
[2,] 32
          36
```

• If both A and B are  $m \times m$  then tr(A + B) = tr(A) + tr(B).

```
> A = matrix(c(6,2,1,3,4,2,4,5,2),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> A
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
         2 1
[2,]
[3,]
> B = matrix(c(4,2,4,5,6,2,3,2,1),3,3,byrow=TRUE)
> B
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
       4 2
[2,]
[3,]
       3
> sum(diag(A+B))
[1] 23
> sum(diag(A))+sum(diag(B))
[1] 23
```

• If **A** and **B** are both  $m \times n$  and then tr(A'B) = tr(AB') = tr(B'A) = tr(BA').> A = matrix(c(6,2,3,4,2,4),3,2,byrow=TRUE)> B = matrix(c(4,2,4,6,2,3),3,2,byrow=TRUE)> sum(diag(t(A)%\*%B)) [1] 80 > sum(diag(A%\*%t(B))) [1] 80 > sum(diag(t(B)%\*%A)) [1] 80 > sum(diag(B%\*%t(A)))

[1] 80

• If A is  $m \times n$  then tr(AA') = tr(A'A).

• If the columns of **A** are  $a_j$  for j = 1, ..., n

$$\mathbf{A} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times n} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times n}$$

then  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}' = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{a}_j \mathbf{a}_j'$ . Moreover,

$$\mathbf{A}' = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times m} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a'_1 \\ a'_2 \\ \vdots \\ a'_n \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times m}$$

A'A is known as the cross-product of A.

#### Columns of a matrix

```
> A = matrix(c(6,2,3,4,2,4),3,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A%*%t(A)
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 40 26
                20
[2,] 26 25 22
[3,] 20 22
                20
> a1 = A[,1,drop=FALSE]
> a2 = A[,2,drop=FALSE]
> a1%*%t(a1)+a2%*%t(a2)
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
    40
         26
                20
[2,]
      26 25
                22
[3,]
      20
           22
                20
```

• If **A** is an  $n \times n$  matrix and **B** is also an  $n \times n$  matrix such that  $AB = BA = I_n$ , the  $n \times n$  identity matrix, then **B** is the inverse of **A** and is denoted by  $A^{-1}$ .

```
> A = matrix(c(6,4,4,6),2,2,byrow=TRUE)
> A
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,] 4
> iA = solve(A)
> iA
     [.1] [.2]
[1,] 0.3 -0.2
[2,] -0.2 0.3
> A%*%iA
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1
[2,]
> iA%*%A
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,]
```

• Solving the following system of equations for (x, y)

$$3x + 2y = 16$$
$$4x + 7y = 23$$

this can be rewritten as

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 2} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 16 \\ 23 \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 1} \Rightarrow \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 2}^{-1} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 16 \\ 23 \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 1}$$

[2.] 0.3846154

- We are going compute the expected value of sample variance using matrix notation.
- Let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  be independent Normal $(0, \sigma^2)$  random variables.
- Let

$$\mathbf{Y} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times 1}, \mathbf{1} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times 1}$$

The sum of squares is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i^2 - n \overline{Y}^2 = \mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{1} (\mathbf{1}' \mathbf{1})^{-1} \mathbf{1}' \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Y}$$

where 
$$D = I_n - 1(1'1)^{-1}1'$$

The expected value of the sum of squares is given by

$$E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Y_{i}-\overline{Y})^{2}\right] = E[\mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{DY}] = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}d_{ij}E[Y_{i}Y_{j}]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n}d_{ii}E[Y_{i}^{2}] + \sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j\neq i}d_{ij}E[Y_{i}]E[Y_{j}]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n}d_{ii}E[Y_{i}^{2}] = \sigma^{2}\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{D})$$

Here

$$tr(D) = tr(I_n - 1(1'1)^{-1}1') = tr(I_n) - tr(1(1'1)^{-1}1')$$
  
= tr(I\_n) - tr(1'1(1'1)^{-1}) = tr(I\_n) - tr(I\_1) = n - 1

So it is clear that  $E\left[\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^n(Y_i-\overline{Y})^2\right]=\sigma^2$