# Applied Statistics Qualifying Exams Coaching

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### Contents

0 Applied 2022

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<sup>\*</sup>With lots of content credit given to previous applied quals coaches

### $\mathbf{0}$ Applied $\mathbf{2022}^1$

#### Problem 1: R-squared and PCA

Key ideas:

- Connections between principal components analysis and the singular value decomposition.
- Orthogonality of principal components and principal component directions.
- (a) We are given that  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  is standardized so that the columns have mean zero and variance one. We are also given that  $X = UDV^{\top}$  is the SVD of X. Let  $d_1 \geq d_2 \geq \cdots \geq d_p \geq 0$  be the diagonal entries of D. The columns of V are thus the principal component directions and  $\frac{1}{n}d_j^2 = \frac{1}{n}||Xv_j||_2^2$  is the variance of X in the jth principal component direction. The cumulative percent variance explained sequence is thus,

$$\rho_k = 100 \times \frac{\sum_{s=1}^k \frac{1}{n} d_s^2}{\sum_{s=1}^p \frac{1}{n} d_s^2} = 100 \times \frac{\sum_{s=1}^k d_s^2}{\sum_{s=1}^p d_s^2},$$

for k = 1, ..., p.

(b) We are given a response  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with mean zero and variance one. The fitted values are  $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We know that the fitted values  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  are orthogonal to the residuals  $\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$ . Thus,

$$\|\boldsymbol{y}\|_{2}^{2} = \|\boldsymbol{y} - \hat{\boldsymbol{y}} + \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}\|_{2}^{2} = \|\boldsymbol{y} - \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}\|_{2}^{2} + \|\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}\|_{2}^{2}$$

And so

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}y_{i}^{2} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2} + \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\hat{y}_{i}^{2}.$$

Since y has mean zero and variance one, this implies that

$$1 = MSE_0 = MSE + MSS.$$

And so,

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{MSE}}{\text{MSE}_0} = 1 - \text{MSE} = \text{MSS}.$$

(c) We now regress the jth column of X on the first k principal components of X. Let  $U_k = [u_1, \dots, u_k] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$  be the matrix containing the first k columns of U. Since  $U_k^{\top} U_k = I_k$ , the fitted values from regressing  $x_j$  on  $U_k$  are

$$\hat{oldsymbol{x}}_i = oldsymbol{U}_k (oldsymbol{U}_k^ op oldsymbol{U}_k)^{-1} oldsymbol{U}_k^ op oldsymbol{x}_i = oldsymbol{U}_k oldsymbol{U}_k^ op oldsymbol{x}_i.$$

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The average regression sum of squares is thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MSS}_j &= \frac{1}{n} \hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_j^\top \hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_j \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{x}_j^\top \boldsymbol{U}_k \boldsymbol{U}_k^\top \boldsymbol{U}_k \boldsymbol{U}_k^\top \boldsymbol{x}_j \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{x}_j^\top \boldsymbol{U}_k \boldsymbol{U}_k^\top \boldsymbol{x}_j. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $x_j$  is the jth column of X we  $x_j = Xe_j$  where  $e_j \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is the jth standard basis vector.

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{U}_k^ op oldsymbol{x}_j &= oldsymbol{U}_k oldsymbol{X} oldsymbol{e}_j \ &= oldsymbol{U}_k^ op oldsymbol{U} oldsymbol{V}^ op oldsymbol{e}_j. \end{aligned}$$

We know that  $U_k^{\top}U = [I_k, \mathbf{0}_{k \times (p-k)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times p}$  where  $\mathbf{0}_{k \times (p-k)}$  is a matrix of all zeros of size  $k \times (p-k)$ . It follows that

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{U}_k^ op oldsymbol{U} oldsymbol{V}^ op &= [oldsymbol{I}_k, oldsymbol{0}_{k imes(p-k)}] oldsymbol{D} oldsymbol{V}^ op \ &= oldsymbol{D}_k oldsymbol{V}_k^ op, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{D}_k = \operatorname{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$  and  $\mathbf{V}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times k}$  is equal to the first k rows of  $\mathbf{V}$ . Thus,

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{U}_k^{ op} \hat{oldsymbol{x}}_j &= oldsymbol{D}_k oldsymbol{V}_k^{ op} oldsymbol{e}_j \ &= \sum_{s=1}^k d_s \left( oldsymbol{v}_s^{ op} oldsymbol{e}_j 
ight) oldsymbol{e}_s \ &= \sum_{s=1}^k d_s v_{sj} oldsymbol{e}_s \end{aligned}$$

where  $v_{sj}$  is the entry of V in row s and column j. We thus have

$$MSS_{j} = \frac{1}{n} \| \boldsymbol{U}_{k}^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_{j} \|_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^{k} d_{s} v_{sj} \boldsymbol{e}_{s} \|_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^{k} d_{s}^{2} v_{sj}^{2}.$$

Since  $x_j$  has mean zero and variance one, we are in the setting of part (b) and hence

$$R_j^2 = \text{MSS}_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^k d_s^2 v_{sj}^2.$$

(d) Note that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{p} MSS_{j} = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^{k} d_{s}^{2} v_{sj}^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{s=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n} d_{s}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} v_{sj}^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{s=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n} d_{s}^{2} ||v_{s}||_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^{k} d_{s}^{2},$$

since all rows of V have norm one. We know that each column of X has variance one and mean zero. Thus,

$$p = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{j}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \operatorname{tr} \left( \boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{j} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \operatorname{tr} \left( \boldsymbol{x}_{j} \boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{\top} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{p} \boldsymbol{x}_{j} \boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{\top} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} \left( \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} \left( \boldsymbol{U} \boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{V}^{\top} \boldsymbol{V} \boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{U}^{\top} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} \left( \boldsymbol{D}^{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{s=1}^{p} d_{s}^{2}.$$

Thus,

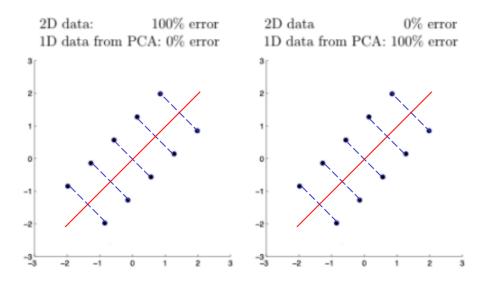
$$\frac{100}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} \text{MSS}_{j} = \frac{100}{np} \sum_{s=1}^{k} d_{s}^{2} = 100 \times \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{k} d_{s}^{2}}{\sum_{s=1}^{p} d_{s}^{2}} = \rho_{k}.$$

So  $\frac{100}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \text{MSS}_j$  is exactly the cumulative percent variance explained sequence.

#### Problem 2: LOO CV, PCA and 1NN

Key ideas:

- "Eyeballing" principal component directions.
- Working out nearest neighbor classifiers.
- 1. We are asked to draw a line corresponding to the first principal component. This does not have to be exact, but we can see that a roughly 45 degree line gives the direction with the most variance. Here the principal component direction is represented as a red solid line. In both plots I have also included dashed lines showing the projection onto the first principal direction.



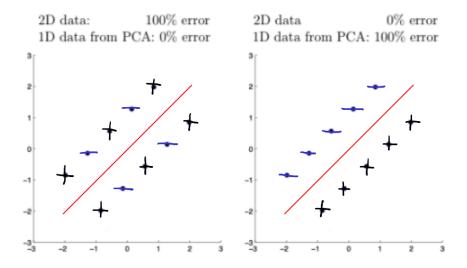
- 2. Looking at the previous figure we can make two observations.
  - Using the 2D data, the nearest neighbor of a point is one of the adjacent points on the line of points parallel to the PCA direction. For example, for the point at roughly (-, 1, -2), the nearest neighbor is the point at roughly (0, -1.25).
  - Using the projected 1D data from PCA, the nearest neighbor of a point is the point across the PCA direction. This because these points get projected onto the same value when we perform PCA. For example, for the point at roughly (-1, -2), the 1D projected nearest neighbor is the point at roughly (-2, -1).

To have 100% error on the 2D data we want an alternating sequence of "+"'s and "-"'s along the two lines of points parallel to the PCA direction. If we use

the same sequence of "+"'s and "-"'s on both lines of points, then we will also have 0% error when using the 1D data. This is because the 1D-nearest neighbor points will have the same labels.

To have 0% error on the 2D data we want adjacent points on the two lines to all have the same label. If we label only line of points with "+"'s and the other with "-"'s, then the 1D data will also have 100% error. This is because the 1D nearest neighbors will have the opposite labels.

In summary, the labelling below has the specified error rates.



## References