How a little linear algebra can go a long way in the Math Stat course

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What my students (sort of) know coming in

In theory, my students know

- How to add/subtract vectors; scalar multiplication
- How to represent vectors in Cartesian coordinates (with strong preference for 2d and 3d)
- How to compute a dot product (perhaps matrix multiplication, too)
- The Pythagorean Theorem and how to compute the length (magnitude) of a vector
- $\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v} \iff \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$
 - Perhaps $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = |\mathbf{u}| \cdot |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta$
- How to compute projections using dot products
- The notion of a span

In practice, these need to be refreshed a bit for some of them, but they do not find this difficult. (I assign a reading and some problems and only discuss difficulties in class.) They get more fluent as we go along.

Additional Linear Algebra they need

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- 2. The review of basic linear algebra in an application area is *good for their linear algebra*
- 3. (A little) linear algebra provides an important perspective on statistics

Linear Algebra and Statistics (1)

Summary: The expected values and variances of linear combinations of independent normal random variables are easily computed.

Example: Suppose $X_1 \sim \text{Norm}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$, and $X_2 \sim \text{Norm}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$.

Then

- $E(aX_1 + bX_2) = a\mu_1 + b\mu_2$,
- $Var(aX_1 + bX_2) = a^2\sigma_1^2 + b^2\sigma_2^2$

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That is,

- $E(\langle a, b \rangle \cdot \langle X_1, X_2 \rangle) = \langle a, b \rangle \cdot \langle \mu_1, \mu_2 \rangle$
- $Var(\langle a, b \rangle \cdot \langle X_1, X_2 \rangle) = \langle a^2, b^2 \rangle \cdot \langle \sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2 \rangle$

Bonus: If the component distributions are normal, the linear combination is also normal.

Linear algebra provides notation and perspective (and makes it easier to increase diminesion).

Linear Algebra and Statistics (2)

If $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a constant vector and $\mathbf{X} = \langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle$ is a vector of independent random variables with means $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \langle \mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_n \rangle$ and standard deviations $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \langle \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n \rangle$, then

- 1. $E(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\mu}$
- 2. $Var(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{u}^2 \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2$

Summary: Linear combinations of independent [normal] random variables are [normal] random variables with means and variances that are easily computed.

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In particular, if $|\mathbf{u}|=1$, and $\mathbf{X}\stackrel{\mathsf{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{Norm}(\mu,\sigma)$, then

- 1. $E(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{X}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{1})\mu$
- 2. $Var(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{X}) = (\mathbf{u}^2 \cdot \mathbf{1})\sigma^2 = \sigma^2$
- 3. $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{X}$ is a normal random variable

And if, in addition, $\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{1}$, then

1.
$$E(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{X}) = 0$$

Summary: Linear combinations of independent [normal] random variables are [normal] random variables with means and variances that are easily computed. (Note: There are some important special cases.)

Linear Algebra and Statistics (3)

If \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 are constant vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , and \mathbf{X} is a vector of n independent random variables, then

$$\mathbf{u}_1 \perp \mathbf{u}_2 \Longleftrightarrow \mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}$$
 and $\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{X}$ are independent.

- Full proof requires *n*-dimensional change of variables (i.e., Jacobian)
- Proof that u₁ · X and u₂ · X are uncorrelated is easy application of covariance lemmas.

Looking at variance

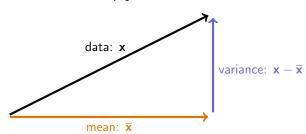
The definition of sample variance:

$$s^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \overline{x})^2}{n-1}$$

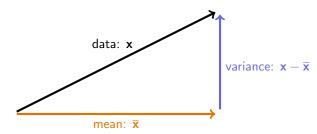
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$$\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \mathsf{proj}(\mathbf{x} o \mathbf{1})$$
 , so $\overline{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{x}$

$$(\mathbf{x} - \overline{\mathbf{x}}) \cdot \overline{\mathbf{x}} = \sum (x_i - \overline{x})\overline{x} = \overline{x} \sum (x_i - \overline{x}) = \overline{x}(n\overline{x} - n\overline{x}) = 0$$

Pythagorean decomposition of the variance vector

- $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{1}; \ \mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{1}/\sqrt{n}$
- $\mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$ chosen so that
 - ullet Unit length: For all i, $|{f u}_i|=1$
 - Orthogonal: Whenever $i \neq j$, $\mathbf{u}_i \perp \mathbf{u}_j$

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$$\mathbf{X} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{proj}(\mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{u}_{i}) = \underbrace{\operatorname{proj}(\mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{u}_{1})}_{\overline{\mathbf{X}}} + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \operatorname{proj}(\mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{u}_{i})$$
$$|\mathbf{X} - \overline{\mathbf{X}}|^{2} = \sum_{i=2}^{n} |\operatorname{proj}(\mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{u}_{i})|^{2} = \sum_{i=2}^{n} \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{u}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{X}}_{\operatorname{Norm}(0, \sigma)}\right)^{2}$$

Pythagorean decomposition of the variance vector

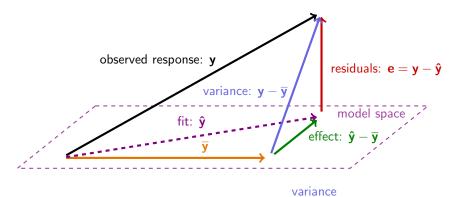
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So
$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \text{Chisq}(n-1)$$
, and $\mathsf{E}(S^2) = \sigma^2$. $\leftarrow n-1$ explained

What does a linear model look like?

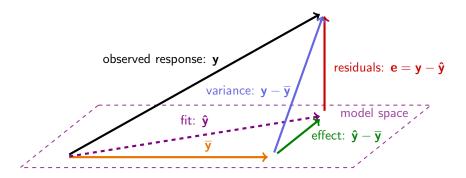
Pythagorean decomposition of \mathbf{y}



 \mathbb{R}^n spanned by orthogonal vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p, \mathbf{v}_{p+1}, \dots \mathbf{v}_n$ model space

What does a linear model look like?

Pythagorean decomposition of y



Least Squares: Minimizing $\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = |\mathbf{e}|^2$.

Model Utility Test

 H_0 : all regression coefficients are 0.

ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) approach: decompose the variance vector

$$\mathbf{y} - \overline{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} - \overline{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{e}$$

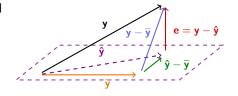
Does $\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \overline{\mathbf{y}}$ do better than random?

If H_0 is true, length of each red and green component is $Norm(0, \sigma)^2$

The test statistic

$$F = \frac{|\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \overline{\mathbf{y}}|^2 / dfm}{|\mathbf{e}|^2 / dfe} = \frac{MSM}{MSE}$$

should be about 1 when H_0 is true; larger when false.



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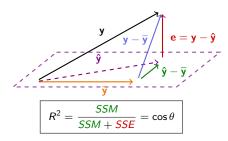
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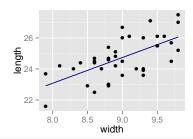
Model Utility Test

25.8 1.1e-05

Simple Model

width =
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1$$
length + ε

But method works the same way for complex models, too.



```
> model <- lm(width ~ length, KidsFeet)
```

> anova(model)

Analysis of Variance Table

Response: width

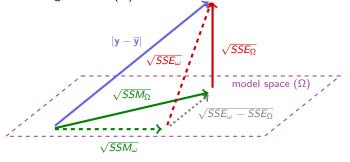
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)

length 1 4.06 4.06 Residuals 37 5.81 0.16

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Model Comparison Tests

Nested Models: Model space of smaller model (ω) is a subspace of model space of the larger model (Ω) .



 H_0 : all parameters in the larger model only are 0. If H_0 is true, then dashed model is correct and dotted gray vector is red.

$$F = \frac{MSM}{MSF} \sim \mathsf{F}(\mathsf{dim}(\Omega) - \mathsf{dim}(\omega), n - \mathsf{dim}(\Omega))$$

Does Sex Matter?

```
> Omega <- lm(width ~ length + sex, data = KidsFeet)
> omega <- lm(width ~ length, data = KidsFeet)
```

```
Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: width ~ length
Model 2: width ~ length + sex
Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
1 37 5.81
2 36 5.33 1 0.479 3.23 0.081
```

> anova(omega, Omega)

```
sex - B - G

g26
24
22
8.0
8.5
9.0
9.5
width
```

```
> coef(summary(Omega))

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 3.6412 1.2506 2.912 6.139e-03
length 0.2210 0.0497 4.447 8.015e-05
sexG -0.2325 0.1293 -1.798 8.055e-02
```

Does Age Matter?

```
> Omega <- lm(width ~ length + age, data = KidsFeet)
> omega <- lm(width ~ length, data = KidsFeet)</pre>
```

```
> anova(omega, Omega)

Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: width ~ length
Model 2: width ~ length + age
Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
1 37 5.81
2 36 5.73 1 0.0829 0.52 0.47
```

```
age
11.111.411.712.012.3

4.22

8.0 8.5 9.0 9.5

width
```

```
> coef(summary(Omega))

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.2855 2.49981 0.5142 6.102e-01
length 0.2331 0.05327 4.3746 9.967e-05
age 0.1667 0.23085 0.7219 4.750e-01
```

To sum up . . .

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References



