ST 437/537: Applied Multivariate and Longitudinal Data Analysis

Random Vectors and Multivariate Summary Statistics

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Review of univariate framework

Consider the iris data in R. For simplicity, let us only consider the setosa species and the Sepal.length variable. Consider the question

Estimate the mean sepal.length of the setosa flower.

Such a statistical problem has four main components.

- 1. **Population:** A group of individuals/objects/items of interst. In our example, population consists of *all* setosa flowers.
- Parameter: A summary of the population we want to know about.In our case, the parameter is the true mean of sepal length of all setosa flowers.
- 3. **Sample:** A subset of the population. Naturally, it is often impossible to observe data on the whole population due to time/resource constraints. Thus, we often collect data on a subset of the population.
 - In our example, the sample consists of 50 setosa flowers for which data were collected.
- 4. **Statistic:** A summary computed from a sample. We use these to *estimate* the unknown parameter.

In our case, we estimate the population mean by the sample mean.

The estimation framework relies on the concept of *random sample*. Specifically, we assume that

- The population mean (mean sepal length) is μ and the population variance is σ^2 .
- We collect a random sample X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n , where X_i denotes the sepal length of i-th flower.

Notice that X_1, \ldots, X_n are random variables (that is, we define these before we see the actual numbers). We assume that X_1, \ldots, X_n form a random sample.

Random sample

The random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n are called a random sample of size n if X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent and each X_i has the same distribution.

Thus we have

$$E(X_i) = \mu$$
 and $var(X_i) = \sigma^2$ for all i.

Since we want to know about the poulation mean μ , a natural way to estimate this is to use the sample mean

$$\bar{X} = (X_1 + \ldots + X_n)/n.$$

Specifically, we call \bar{X} an estimator of μ .

Estimator

An estimator is a formula/rule that one can apply to *any* possible sample. It does not depend on the parameter.

Now we consider the actual sample (observed numeric data) at hand. We have 50 observations (values taken from the iris dataset):

$$x_1 = 5.1, x_2 = 4.9, \dots, x_{50} = 5.$$

Thus the observed value of the sample mean for this sample is

$$\bar{x} = 5.006.$$

The specific value $\bar{x} = 5.006$ is called an **estimate** of μ .

Estimate

An estimate is a numeric value that is obtained by applying an estimator to a specific sample at hand.

Notice that we used lower case letters (e.g., x_i) to denote the observed data but upper case letters (e.g., X_i) to denote random varibles. We will use this convention throughout this course to differtiate between random variables and observed (numeric) values of the random variables in a particular sample.

Typically, along with the estimate, one also reports the standard error of the estimate.

Standard error

Standard error of an estimator is defined as

$$SE(Estimator) = \sqrt{var(Estimator)}.$$

In our case, the standard error of \bar{X} is computed as

$$SE(\bar{X}) = \sqrt{var(\bar{X})} = \sqrt{\sigma^2/n}.$$

Notice that $SE(\bar{X})$ depends on σ^2 , the unknown population variance. In practice, we estimate the population variance σ^2 by the observed *sample variance* s^2 . Thus the estimated standard error is

$$\widehat{SE}(\bar{X}) = \sqrt{s^2/n}.$$

In R, we can compute the estimate and its standard error as follows.

```
# Get the species
species <- iris$Species

# Only take the setosa flowers
setosa <- iris[species == "setosa", 1:4]

# Extract only sepal.length (the first column)
SL <- setosa[, 1]

# sample size
n <- length(SL)

# Sample mean
xbar.SL <- mean(SL)
xbar.SL</pre>
```

```
## [1] 5.006
```

```
# Sample variance
s2.SL <- var(SL)

# Standard error of xbar
SE <- sqrt(s2.SL/n)
SE</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.04984957
```

Random vector and sample mean

Let us now consider the multivariate problem:

Estimate the mean of all the four variables: Sepal.Length, Sepal.Width, Petal.Length, and Petal.Width for the setosa flowers.

In this case, our parameter of interest is the mean vector

$$oldsymbol{\mu} = \left(egin{array}{c} \mu_{SL} \\ \mu_{SW} \\ \mu_{PL} \\ \mu_{PW} \end{array}
ight),$$

where $\mu_{SL}=$ population mean of sepal length, $\mu_{SW}=$ population mean of sepal width, and so on. Thus the parameter is a 4×1 vector.

The data we observe each flower is also recorded as vectors. Specifically, we have a set of random vectors.

Random vector

The vector $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)^T$ is called a random vector if each element X_i is a random variable.

Specifically, we have a set of random vectors

$$X_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \text{sepal length of 1st flower} \\ \text{sepal width of 1st flower} \\ \text{petal length of 1st flower} \\ \text{petal width of 1st flower} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} SL_1 \\ SW_1 \\ PL_1 \\ PW_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

:

$$X_n = \begin{pmatrix} SL_n \\ SW_n \\ PL_n \\ PW_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Similar to the univariate case, the estimator of μ is the sample mean.

Sample mean

Given a set of random vectors X_1, \ldots, X_n , the sample mean is defined as

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \ldots + X_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i.$$

The observed data (numeric data for our particular sample) are

$$x_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 5.1 \\ 3.5 \\ 1.4 \\ 0.2 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, x_{50} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3.3 \\ 1.4 \\ 0.2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus the estimate of μ is

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n}(x_1 + \ldots + x_n).$$

xbar <- colMeans(setosa)
xbar</pre>

```
## Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width
## 5.006 3.428 1.462 0.246
```

How to quantify the variability in \bar{X} ? To understand this, we need to understand how to quantify the variability of a random vector.

Variance-covariance matrix

Suppose X_1 and X_2 are two scalar random variables. One way to measure the degree of (linear) relationship between X_1 and X_2 is to compute the *covariance* between them.

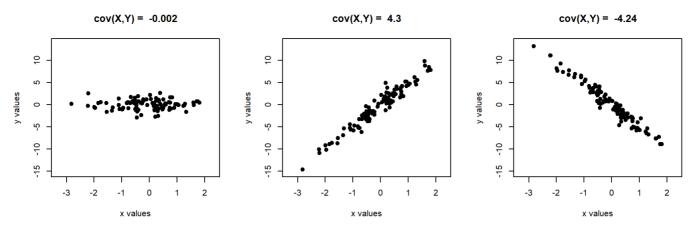
Covariance

We define the covariance between two random variables X_1 and X_2 as

$$cov(X_1, X_2) = E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)],$$

where $\mu_1 = E(X_1)$ and $\mu_2 = E(X_2)$.

Thus $cov(X_1, X_2)$ takes positive values if larger values of X_1 pair with larger values of X_2 , and takes negative if larger values of X_1 pair with smaller values of X_2 . Zero or "small" values of covariance indicate that there is no linear relationship (i.e., slope is zero) between X_1 and X_2 .



Notice that each if the random variable also has its own variance, that is, $var(X_1)$ and $V(X_2)$. Thus to get a complete picture of variability of X_1 and X_2 , we need to look at all these quantities:

$$var(X_1)$$
, $var(X_2)$, and $cov(X_1, X_2)$.

Thus, as the number of variables increases, the number of such quantities increases as well.

In the multivariate world, there is a nice way to summarize the variability of a set of random variables using matrices. To start, let us consider a random vector

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The "variability" of X can be summarized by the 2×2 matrix

$$\Sigma = cov(X) = \begin{pmatrix} var(X_1) & cov(X_1, X_2) \\ cov(X_2, X_1) & var(X_2) \end{pmatrix}.$$

This matrix is called the variance-covariance matrix of X.

Variance-covariance matrix

Suppose we have a $p \times 1$ random vector $X = X_1, \dots, X_p)^T$). The variance-covariance matrix of X is defined as

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = cov(\boldsymbol{X}) = E[(\boldsymbol{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\boldsymbol{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T] = \begin{pmatrix} var(X_1) & cov(X_1, X_2) & \dots & cov(X_1, X_p) \\ cov(X_2, X_1) & var(X_2) & \dots & cov(X_2, X_p) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ cov(X_p, X_1) & cov(X_p, X_2) & \dots & var(X_p) \end{pmatrix}$$

Typically, the population variance-covariance matrix is unknown. We can estimate Σ by the sample variance-covariance matrix, denoted by S.

Sample covariance matrix

Given a random sample X_1, \ldots, X_n , we compute the sample covariance S as

$$S = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \bar{X})(X_i - \bar{X})^T.$$

In R, we can compute S directly by using the formula above or using the cov() function. In our specific example, we can compute S as below (rounded to 4 decimal).

```
S <- cov(setosa)
round(S, 4)
```

```
##
                Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width
## Sepal.Length
                                   0.0992
                      0.1242
                                                0.0164
                                                             0.0103
## Sepal.Width
                      0.0992
                                   0.1437
                                                0.0117
                                                             0.0093
## Petal.Length
                      0.0164
                                   0.0117
                                                0.0302
                                                             0.0061
## Petal.Width
                      0.0103
                                   0.0093
                                                0.0061
                                                             0.0111
```

Much like the univariate case, we can compute

$$cov(\bar{X}) = \Sigma/n,$$

and we can estimate this quantity by replacing Σ by its estimator S, that is,

$$\widehat{cov}(\overline{X}) = S/n.$$

In our example, we estimate $cov(\bar{X})$ as follows.

```
# Sample size (number of setosa flowers)
n <- nrow(setosa)
# S/n, rounded to 5 digits
round(S/n, 5)</pre>
```

```
Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width
                     0.00248
## Sepal.Length
                                  0.00198
                                               0.00033
                                                           0.00021
## Sepal.Width
                     0.00198
                                  0.00287
                                               0.00023
                                                           0.00019
## Petal.Length
                     0.00033
                                  0.00023
                                               0.00060
                                                           0.00012
## Petal.Width
                     0.00021
                                  0.00019
                                               0.00012
                                                           0.00022
```

Linear combination of variables

General result: If Y is a random vector with mean vector μ and variance covariance matrix Σ_Y , and A is a matrix, then

$$E(AY) = A\mu$$
 and $cov(AY) = A\Sigma_Y A^T$.

This result does *not* depend of the distribution of *Y*.

Application: Often we want to compute differences between means of several variables. For example, suppose we want to know how different sepal width, petal length and petal width are from sepal length on average. Specifically, we want to estimate

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mu_{SW} - \mu_{SL} \\ \mu_{PL} - \mu_{SL} \\ \mu_{PW} - \mu_{SL} \end{pmatrix}.$$

These are typically called contrasts.

Recall that our original parameter is the mean vector

$$oldsymbol{\mu} = \left(egin{array}{c} \mu_{SL} \ \mu_{SW} \ \mu_{PL} \ \mu_{PW} \end{array}
ight).$$

Thus the vector of contrasts can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{SL} \\ \mu_{SW} \\ \mu_{PL} \\ \mu_{PW} \end{pmatrix} = A\mu$$

Since \bar{X} is an estimator of μ , we can simply replace μ in the quantity above by \bar{X} , and say that

 $Aar{X}$ is an estimator of $A\mu$.

We can compute the variance-covariance matrix of this estimator as

$$cov(A\bar{X}) = Acov(\bar{X})A^T = A(\Sigma/n)A^T.$$

Since Σ is unknown, we can replace Σ by S:

$$\widehat{cov(A\bar{X})} = A(S/n)A^T.$$

In our example, we demonstrate these results as follows.

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]

## [1,] -1 1 0 0

## [2,] -1 0 1 0

## [3,] -1 0 0 1
```

```
# Estimate A\mu by A X-bar
A %*% xbar
```

```
## [,1]
## [1,] -1.578
## [2,] -3.544
## [3,] -4.760
```

```
# Estimate the variance-covariance matrix
A %*% (S/n) %*% t(A)
```

```
## [1,] 0.0013901224 0.0004075102 0.000480000

## [2,] 0.0004075102 0.0024339592 0.002072653

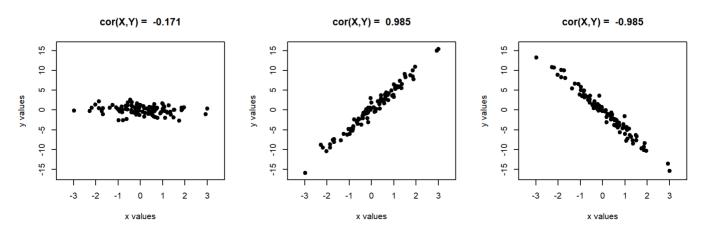
## [3,] 0.0004800000 0.0020726531 0.002293878
```

Correlation

A disadvantage of covariance is that it is unbounded, and depends on the unit of measurement. A better measure of linear relationship between two random variables X_1 and X_2 is the correlation coefficient:

$$cor(X_1, X_2) = \frac{cov(X_1, X_2)}{\sqrt{var(X_1)}\sqrt{var(X_2)}}.$$

Correlation coefficient is bounded between -1 and 1. Large positive values indicate a strong positive relationship, and vice versa. Small values indicate absence of no linear relationship.



Now suppose we have a random vector $\boldsymbol{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_p)^T$. The correlation matrix of \boldsymbol{X} is

$$cor(X) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & cor(X_1, X_2) & \dots & cor(X_1, X_p) \\ cor(X_2, X_1) & 1 & \dots & cor(X_2, X_p) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ cor(X_p, X_1) & cor(X_p, X_2) & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Note that the diagonal entries are 1 since $cor(X_i, X_i) = 1$.

Typically, cor(X) is unknown and can be estimated using the sample by the sample correlation matrix R.

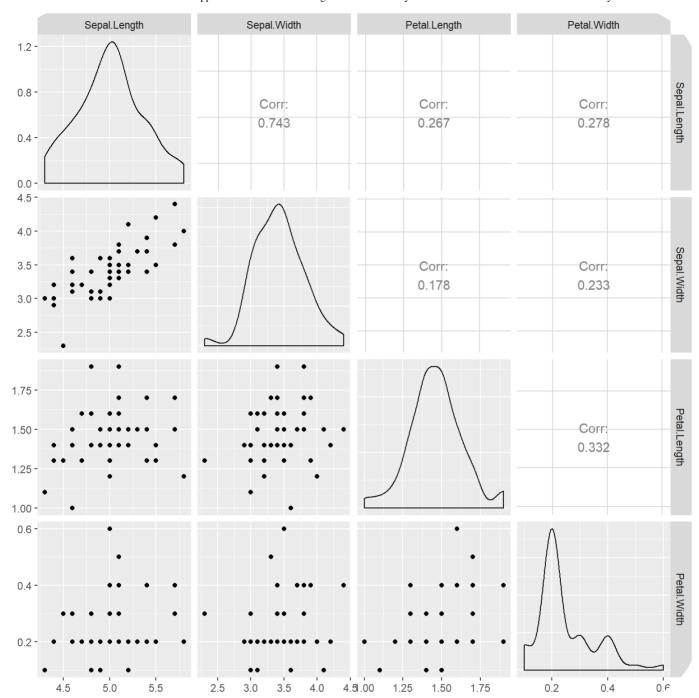
Given sample data, we can use the cor() function to compute R.

```
# Sample correlation matrix
R <- cor(setosa)
R

## Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width
## Sepal.Length 1.0000000 0.7425467 0.2671758 0.2780984
## Sepal.Width 0.7425467 1.0000000 0.1777000 0.2327520
## Petal.Length 0.2671758 0.1777000 1.0000000 0.3316300
## Petal.Width 0.2780984 0.2327520 0.3316300 1.0000000
```

Notice that Sepal.Length and Sepal.width have high correlation compared to other pairs. We can visualize this phenomenon by using a "pairs-plot".

```
library(ggplot2)
library(GGally)
ggpairs(setosa)
```



We will learn about various plotting techniques in a later chapter.

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