(1) Euclidean length: square root of the inner product with itself In 2D plane that is the distance between two vectors

$$||x|| = (x'x)^{1/2} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

 $a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1,n}x_n = b_1$

Representing equations

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2,n}x_n = b_2$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{n,n}x_n = b_n$$

These equations can be written in the more compact, matrix no

$$Ax = b$$

As a numerical example, suppose $b = \{9,7,5,3\}$ and A is a 4×4 matrix of random values that were generated uniformly between 0 and 1.

(2x)Solving linear equations in R

(3) Inverse of a 3x3 matrix

The inverse of the $3 \times 3\,$ matrix

$$m{B} = \left(egin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \ d & e & f \ g & h & i \end{array}
ight)$$

is given by

$$oldsymbol{B}^{-1} = rac{1}{\mathrm{Det}(oldsymbol{B})} \left(egin{array}{ccc} A & B & C \\ D & E & F \\ G & H & I \end{array}
ight) \,,$$

where Det(B) is the determinant given in (4.6) and

$$\begin{array}{lll} A=ei-fh & B=ch-bi & C=bf-ce \\ D=fg-di & E=ai-cg & F=cd-af \\ G=dh-eg & H=bg-ah & I=ae-bd \end{array}$$

Just to check, we can multiply the matrix ${\bf x}$ by its inverse:

[,2]

```
> x %*% solve(x)
```

[1,] 1.000000e+00 -6.661338e-16 1.110223e-16 4.163336e-17 -1.110223e-16 [2,] 1.665335e-16 1.000000e+00 5.551115e-17 2.775558e-17 0.000000e+00 [3,] 0.000000e+00 -2.220446e-16 1.000000e+00 1.387779e-16 -1.110223e-16

[,3]

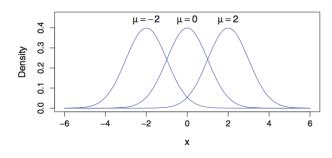
[3,] 0.000000+00 -2.22046e-16 1.000000+00 1.387779e-16 -1.110223e-16 [4,] 1.110223e-16 -2.20446e-16 0.0000000+00 1.0000000+00 -1.110223e-16 [5,] -5.551115e-17 1.110223e-16 1.110223e-16 -1.387779e-17 1.000000+00

Due to numerical error, identity matrix have non-zero value

An $n \times n$ matrix will have n eigenvalues. Just as a polynomial may have multiple roots, some of the eigenvalues may be repeated, corresponding to multiple roots⁴ of $p(\lambda) = 0$. A polynomial may have complex roots, and the eigenvalues may be complex numbers. Complex numbers are expressible as $\alpha + \beta i$ where $i^2 = -1$. Complex roots will appear as complex conjugates. That is, if $\alpha + \beta i$ is a complex root of a polynomial with real-valued coefficients, then $\alpha - \beta i$ will also be a root of this polynomial.

The density function of the *standard normal distribution* is

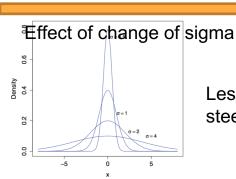
$$\phi(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp(-x^2/2)$$
.



Normal distribution density function

This more general and useful form of the distribution of $Z = \mu + \sigma X$ defined for $\sigma > 0$ has density function

$$\phi(z \mid \mu, \sigma) = \sigma^{-1} (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\{-(z - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2\}.$$
 (5.2)



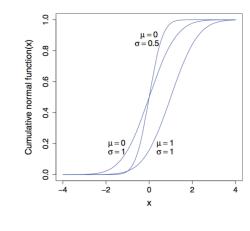
Lesser value of sigma is steeper

Cumulative distribution

$$\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \phi(t) \, \mathrm{d}t$$

denote the cumulative probability up to the value x. The tail areas are symmetric so that

$$\Phi(-x) = 1 - \Phi(x)$$



The cumulative normal distribution function (5.3) for means μ and standard deviations σ as given

We would expect that these ordered, standardized values to obey theoretical, expected sample values should be spread out $\Phi(x_1) = 1/(n+1)$, $\Phi(x_2) = 2/(n+1)$, $\Phi(x_n) = n/(n+1)$. (5.6) evenly with all n observations having equal cumulative

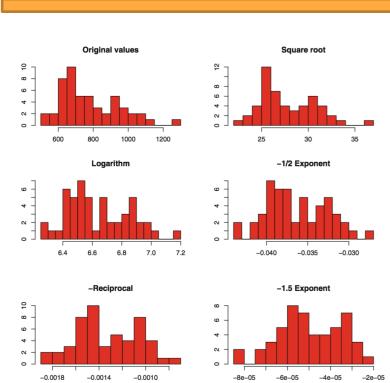


Figure 5.5: Histograms of the median apartment rents in Table 1.1. The data has been transformed using the power transformation (5.5)

 $\widehat{x}_1 = \Phi^{-1}(1/(n+1)), \quad \widehat{x}_2 = \Phi^{-1}(2/(n+1)), \quad \dots \quad \widehat{x}_n = \Phi^{-1}(n/(n+1)).$ (5.7)

in the sample. Specifically, the expected quantiles for the QQ plot are

Evaluation of qq plot for normal and transformed values

