

## 31 Lecture 31: April 20

### Last time

- Linear contrasts of means
- Sampling distribution of linear contrasts
- Multiple comparisons
- Sample size computations for one-way ANOVA

### Today

- Lack of fit test
- Theoretical background of linear models

### Additional reference

[Course notes](#) by Dr. Hua Zhou

“A Primer on Linear Models” by Dr. John F. Monahan

### Lack-of-fit test

Hiking example: completely randomized experiment involving alpine meadows in the White Mountains of New Hampshire.  $N = 20$  lanes of dimension  $0.5m \times 1.5m$  randomized to 5 trampling treatments:

$i$ : trt group	$x$ : Number of passes	$y_{ij}$ : Height (cm)			
1	0	20.7	15.9	17.8	17.6
2	25	12.9	13.4	12.7	9.0
3	75	11.8	12.6	11.4	12.1
4	200	7.6	9.5	9.9	9.0
5	500	7.8	9.0	8.5	6.7

Two models for mean plant height:

$$\text{SLR model: } \mu(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

$$\text{one-factor ANOVA model: } \mu_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i$$

When the  $t$  treatments have an interval scale, the SLR model, and all polynomials of degree  $p \leq t - 2$  (why?), are nested in one-factor ANOVA model with  $t$  treatment means.

*Answer:*

### F-ratio for lack-of-fit test

To test for lack-of-fit of a polynomial (reduced) model of degree  $p$ , use extra sum-of-squares  $F$ -ratio on  $t - 1 - p$  and  $N - t$  df:

$$F = \frac{SS[\text{lack of fit}]/(t - 1 - p)}{MS[\text{pure error}]}$$

where

$$MS[\text{pure error}] = MS[E]_{full}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} SS[\text{lack-of-fit}] &= SS[Trt] - SS[Reg]_{poly} \\ &= SS[E]_{poly} - SS[E]_{full} \end{aligned}$$

What is the  $SS[\text{lack of fit}]$  for the meadows data?

Next step: either go with the one-factor ANOVA model or specify some other model, such as quadratic.

### Linear Models in the matrix form

Recall the matrix form of the linear model

$$\underset{n \times 1}{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{n \times p}{\mathbf{X}} \underset{p \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \underset{n \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}$$

#### Simple linear regression model

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Multiple linear regression model

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \dots & x_{1,p-1} \\ 1 & x_{21} & \dots & x_{2,p-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \dots & x_{n,p-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

### One-way ANOVA model

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{11} \\ \vdots \\ y_{1,n_1} \\ y_{21} \\ \vdots \\ y_{2,n_2} \\ \vdots \\ y_{a,1} \\ \vdots \\ y_{a,n_a} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}_{n_1} & \mathbf{1}_{n_1} & & & \\ & \mathbf{1}_{n_2} & & & \\ & & \mathbf{1}_{n_2} & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \mathbf{1}_{n_a} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{11} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{1,n_1} \\ \epsilon_{21} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{2,n_2} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{a,1} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{a,n_a} \end{bmatrix}$$

**Two-way ANOVA model without interaction** Model  $y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \epsilon_{ijk}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, a$  ( $a$  levels in factor 1),  $j = 1, \dots, b$  ( $b$  levels in factor 2), and  $k = 1, \dots, n_{ij}$  ( $n_{ij}$  observations in the  $(i, j)$ -th cell). In total we have  $n = \sum_{i,j} n_{ij}$  observations and  $p = a + b + 1$  parameters. For simplicity, we consider the case without replicates, i.e.,  $n_{ij} = 1$  and only write out  $\mathbf{X}\beta$ . Note adding more replicates to each cell does *not* change the rank of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{X}\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}_b & \mathbf{1}_b & & & \mathbf{I}_b \\ \mathbf{1}_b & & \mathbf{1}_b & & \mathbf{I}_b \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{1}_b & & & & \mathbf{1}_b & \mathbf{I}_b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_a \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_b \end{bmatrix}$$

**Two-way ANOVA with interaction** Model  $y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_{ij} + \epsilon_{ijk}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, a$  ( $a$  levels in factor 1),  $j = 1, \dots, b$  ( $b$  levels in factor 2), and  $k = 1, \dots, n_{ij}$  ( $n_{ij}$  observations in the  $(i, j)$ -th cell). In total we have  $n = \sum_{i,j} n_{ij}$  observations and  $p = 1 + a + b + ab$  parameters. For simplicity, we consider the case without replicates, i.e.,  $n_{ij} = 1$  and only write out  $\mathbf{X}\beta$ .

Note adding more replicates to each cell does *not* change the rank of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}_b & \mathbf{1}_b & & & \mathbf{I}_b & \mathbf{I}_b & & \\ \mathbf{1}_b & & \mathbf{1}_b & & \mathbf{I}_b & & \mathbf{I}_b & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \vdots & & & \ddots \\ \mathbf{1}_b & & & & \mathbf{1}_b & \mathbf{I}_b & & \mathbf{I}_b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_a \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_b \\ \gamma_{11} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{ab} \end{bmatrix}$$

For all the above models, we have the most general assumption over the error term, i.e.  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$ .

**Mixed effects models** For mixed effects models, we generally have

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{e}$$

- $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  is a design matrix for fixed-effects  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^p$
- $\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}$  is a design matrix for random-effects  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^q$
- The most general assumption is  $\mathbf{e} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_n, \mathbf{R})$ ,  $\mathbf{u} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_q, \mathbf{G})$ , and  $\mathbf{e}$  is independent of  $\mathbf{u}$ .

In many applications,  $\mathbf{e} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$  and

$$\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{Z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Z}_m) \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_m \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{Z}_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{Z}_m \mathbf{u}_m,$$

where  $\mathbf{u}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_{q_i}, \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{I}_{q_i})$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^m q_i = q$ .  $\mathbf{e}$  and  $\mathbf{u}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , are jointly independent. Then the covariance of responses  $\mathbf{y}$

$$\mathbf{V}(\sigma^2, \sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_m^2) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} + \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{Z}_i^T$$

## Linear equations and generalized inverse

For the linear model

$$\underset{n \times 1}{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{n \times p}{\mathbf{X}} \underset{p \times 1}{\mathbf{b}} + \underset{n \times 1}{\mathbf{e}},$$

we obtain the least square estimator by minimize the objective function  $Q(\mathbf{b}) = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})^T(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})$ . By taking derivative with respect to  $\mathbf{b}$  and setting it to zero, we get

$$\left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \mathbf{b}}\right)^T = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial b_1}, \frac{\partial Q}{\partial b_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial Q}{\partial b_p}\right)^T = \left[\frac{\partial (\mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{Y} - 2\mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})}{\partial \mathbf{b}}\right]^T = -2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}$$

where we used the fact that for constant vector  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times 1}$ , constant matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times 1}$ , we have the two derivatives:

1.  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}^T$
2.  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T)$

By setting  $\left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \mathbf{b}}\right)^T = \mathbf{0}_{p \times 1}$ , we get the Normal equations

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

### Consistency

Assume  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

*Definition:* The linear system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$  is consistent if there exists an  $\mathbf{x}^*$  such that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{c}$ .

- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is square and  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  exists, then  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{c}$ .
- Proposition (g1): If  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$  is consistent, and if  $\mathbf{G}$  is any matrix such that  $\begin{matrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{A} \\ m \times n & n \times m & m \times n \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} \mathbf{A} \\ m \times n \end{matrix}$ , then  $\mathbf{x}^\psi = \mathbf{G}\mathbf{c}$  is a solution to  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$ .

*Proof:*

- A matrix  $\mathbf{G}$  satisfying  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{G}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$  is a generalized inverse of  $\mathbf{A}$  with notation  $\mathbf{A}^-$ .
- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is square and  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  exists, then  $\mathbf{A}^- = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$  is unique.

The set of all solutions to  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$

Suppose that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$  is consistent. Then  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is a solution to  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{c} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A})\mathbf{z}$  for some  $\mathbf{z}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^-$ .

*Proof:*

### Moore-Penrose inverse

Assume  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

- The Moore-Penrose inverse of  $\mathbf{A}$  is a matrix  $\mathbf{A}^+ \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  with the following properties
  1.  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$  (Generalized inverse,  $g_1$  inverse, or inner pseudo-inverse)
  2.  $\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}^+$ . (outer pseudo-inverse. Any  $g_1$  inverse that satisfies this condition is called a  $g_2$  inverse, or reflexive generalized inverse)

3.  $\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A}$  is symmetric
  4.  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+$  is symmetric
- $\mathbf{A}^+$  exists and is unique for any matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .
  - In practice, the Moore-Penrose inverse  $\mathbf{A}^+$  is easily computed from the singular value decomposition of  $\mathbf{A}$ .
  - $(\mathbf{A}^-)^T$  is a generalized inverse of  $\mathbf{A}^T$

General form of the least squares solution

Now we have derived the general form of the least squares solution with generalized inverse.

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^-\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} + [\mathbf{I}_p - (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^-\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}]\mathbf{q}$$

where  $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is arbitrary.

## Positive (semi)definite matrix

Assume  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is symmetric (i.e.  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T$ )

- A real symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is positive semi-definite (or nonnegative definite, or p.s.d.) if  $\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$ . Notation  $\mathbf{A} \geq_{p.s.d.} \mathbf{0}$
- E.g., the Gramian matrix  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is p.s.d.
- We write  $\mathbf{A} \geq_{p.s.d.} \mathbf{B}$  means  $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} \geq_{p.s.d.} \mathbf{0}$
- Cholesky decomposition. Each positive semidefinite matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  can be factorized as  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T$  for some lower triangular matrix  $\mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  with nonnegative diagonal entries.
- $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is positive semidefinite if and only if  $\mathbf{A}$  is a covariance matrix of a random vector.

*Proof:*

## Estimable function

Assume the linear mean model:  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}$ ,  $E(\mathbf{e}) = \mathbf{0}$ . One main interest is estimation of the underlying parameter  $\mathbf{b}$ . Can  $\mathbf{b}$  be estimated or what functions of  $\mathbf{b}$  can be estimated?

- A parametric function  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}$ ,  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$  is said to be (linearly) estimable if there exists an affinely unbiased estimator of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}$  for all  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . That is there exist constants  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  such that  $E(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}$  for all  $\mathbf{b}$ .
- Theorem: Assuming the linear mean model, the parametric function  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}$  is (linearly) estimable if and only if  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}) \subset \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{X}^T)$ , or equivalently  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}) \subset \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ .  
 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}$  is estimable  $\iff$  the row space of  $\mathbf{A}$  is contained in the row space of  $\mathbf{X}$   $\iff$

the null space of  $\mathbf{X}$  is contained in the null space of  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ .”

*Proof:*

- $\lambda^T \mathbf{b}$  is linearly estimable if and only if  $\lambda^T \mathbf{b}$  is a linear combination of the components in  $\mu_Y = E(\mathbf{Y})$
- Corollary:  $\mathbf{Xb}$  is estimable.  
“Expected value of any observation  $E(y_i)$  and their linear combinations are estimable.”
- Corollary: If  $\mathbf{X}$  has full column rank, then any linear combinations of  $\mathbf{b}$  are estimable.
- If  $\mathbf{\Lambda b}$  is (linearly) estimable, then its *least squares estimator*  $\mathbf{\Lambda \hat{b}}$  is invariant to the choice of the least squares solution  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ .

*Proof:*

- The least squares estimator  $\mathbf{\Lambda \hat{b}}$  is a linearly unbiased estimator of  $\mathbf{\Lambda b}$ . *Proof:*

### Estimability example: One-way ANOVA model

Consider the following example with one-way ANOVA model.

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \epsilon_{ij} \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \quad j = 1, 2$$

In matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} \\ Y_{21} \\ Y_{31} \\ Y_{12} \\ Y_{22} \\ Y_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{11} \\ \epsilon_{21} \\ \epsilon_{31} \\ \epsilon_{12} \\ \epsilon_{22} \\ \epsilon_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: replication doesn't help with estimability. What functions of  $\lambda^T \mathbf{b}$  are estimable?

*Solutions:*

### Idempotent matrix

Assume  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ .

- A matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is idempotent if and only if  $\mathbf{A}^2 (= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A}$ .
- Any idempotent matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is a generalized inverse of itself.
- The only idempotent matrix of full rank is  $\mathbf{I}$ .

*Proof.* Interpretation: all idempotent matrices are singular except for the identity matrix.

- $\mathbf{A}$  is idempotent if and only if  $\mathbf{A}^T$  is idempotent if and only if  $\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{A}$  is idempotent.
- For a general matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , the matrices  $\mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-$  are idempotent and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) &= \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-) \\ \text{rank}(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A}) &= n - \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) \\ \text{rank}(\mathbf{I}_m - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^-) &= m - \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}). \end{aligned}$$