

**Note - eq 3.47** One line isn't so clear, but

$$\begin{aligned}
& (VD^2V^T + \lambda I)(VD^2V^T + \lambda I)^{-1} = I \\
\Rightarrow & (VD^2V^T + \lambda I)(VD^2V^T + \lambda I)^{-1}V = V \\
\Rightarrow & (D^2V^T + \lambda V^T)(VD^2V^T + \lambda I)^{-1}V = I \\
\Rightarrow & (D^2 + \lambda I)V^T(VD^2V^T + \lambda I)^{-1}V = I
\end{aligned}$$

and so

$$V^T(VD^2V^T + \lambda I)^{-1}V = (D^2 + \lambda I)^{-1}.$$

**3.1** Recall the method of using repeated simple linear regression to do multiple linear regression: We form an orthogonal spanning set  $z_1, \dots, z_p$  of the column space in such a way that  $z_1, \dots, z_k$  spans the span of the first  $k$  columns of  $X$ . We finally regress  $y$  onto  $z_p$  to obtain  $\hat{\beta}_p$ . But we can do more: If  $\gamma_j = \langle y, z_j \rangle$ , then  $\hat{y} = \sum_j \frac{\gamma_j}{\|z_j\|^2} z_j$  is the orthogonal projection onto the column space of  $X$  in the full rank case. What's more,  $\sum_{j < p} \frac{\gamma_j}{\|z_j\|^2} z_j$  is the result of using only the first  $p - 1$  features. Let  $r_p = y - \hat{y}$ . Recall that  $\hat{\beta}_p = \frac{\gamma_p}{\|z_p\|^2}$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{RSS}_0 &= \left\| y - \sum_{j < p} \frac{\gamma_j}{\|z_j\|^2} z_j \right\|^2 \\
&= \left\| r_p + \hat{\beta}_p z_p \right\|^2 \\
&= \|r_p\|^2 + \hat{\beta}_p^2 \|z_p\|^2 \\
\text{RSS}_1 &= \|y - \hat{y}\|^2 \\
&= \|r_p\|^2
\end{aligned}$$

So we can express the formula for the F-score

$$\begin{aligned}
F &= \frac{\text{RSS}_0 - \text{RSS}_1}{\text{RSS}_1 / (N - p - 1)} \\
&= \frac{\hat{\beta}_p^2 \|z_p\|^2}{\hat{\sigma}^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Now, write  $X = Z\Gamma$ , where  $Z$ 's columns are the  $z_i$ 's and  $\Gamma$  is upper triangular with diagonal entries 1. Then  $(X^T X)^{-1} = (\Gamma^T Z^T Z \Gamma)^{-1} = (\Gamma^T D \Gamma)^{-1}$ . Here,  $D$  is diagonal on  $(\|z_1\|^2, \dots, \|z_p\|^2)$ . Since we assume that  $X^T X$  is invertible, both  $\Gamma$  and  $D$  are, so  $(\Gamma^T D \Gamma)^{-1} = \Gamma^{-1} D^{-1} \Gamma^{-T}$ . Now, we can compute the

lower-right entry

$$\begin{aligned}
(\Gamma^{-1} D^{-1} \Gamma^{-T})_{pp} &= \sum_{ij} (\Gamma^{-1})_{ip} D_{ij}^{-1} (\Gamma^{-T})_{jp} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{1}{\|z_i\|^2} (\Gamma^{-1})_{ip} (\Gamma^{-T})_{ip} \\
&= \frac{1}{\|z_p\|^2} (\Gamma_{pp}^{-1})^2 \\
&= \frac{1}{\|z_p\|^2}
\end{aligned}$$

and so we finally find that the  $F$ -score can be written as

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_p^2}{\hat{\sigma}^2 d_p}$$

where  $d_p$  is the  $p$ th diagonal entry of  $(X^T X)^{-1}$ . By relabelling the features, we find that this also works for any of the features, and so the  $F$ -score is the square of the  $Z$ -score.

**2** I would expect that the pointwise confidence intervals would be narrower. Here is a heuristic argument: Suppose that  $\beta_1, \beta_2$  are normally distributed with mean 0 and covariance  $I$ . Then one choice of a 95% confidence set is a circle with radius  $R_{95} = \log(20) \approx 3$  about the origin. On the other hand, a 95% confidence set for just  $\beta_0$  is an interval of radius about 1.64, so the 2D set will have much more extreme values of  $\beta_0$ . In particular, the band for  $x_0 = 0$  will be much wider for the 2D confidence region. Another way to see it: If I generate samples for each point individually, I will implicitly be drawing samples from many, many more functions when I make the final plot, and so will have a narrower gap.

Simulations in the associated notebook.

**3.3.a** The variance of  $c^T y$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{Var}\left(\sum_i c_i y_i\right) \\
&= \sum_{ij} c_i c_j \text{Cov}(y_i, y_j) \\
&= \sum_i c_i^2 \sigma^2 \\
&= \sigma^2 \|c\|^2
\end{aligned}$$

while the fact that the estimator is unbiased is expressed exactly by the equation  $(X^T c)^T \beta = \alpha^T \beta$ . Now, I'm going to make a small assumption. We know that the estimator is not supposed to depend on  $\beta$ , which is unobservable, and I'm

going to interpret this mathematically by taking  $(X^T c)^T \beta = \alpha^T \beta$  to hold for *all*  $\beta$ . (This is certainly true of the OLS estimator, and it seems that an estimator that did not satisfy this property would be rather useless.)

Write  $c = kX(X^T X)^{-1}\alpha + v$  for some constant  $k$  and some  $v$  orthogonal to  $X(X^T X)^{-1}\alpha$ , we find  $X^T c = k\alpha + X^T v$  and taking  $\beta = (X^T X)^{-1}\alpha$  gives

$$\begin{aligned}\beta^T(X^T c) &= ((X^T X)^{-1}\alpha)^T(k\alpha + X^T v) \\ &= k\alpha^T(X^T X)^{-1}\alpha + \alpha^T(X^T X)^{-1}X^T v \\ &= k\alpha^T(X^T X)^{-1}\alpha\end{aligned}$$

on one hand, and on the other we know that

$$\begin{aligned}\beta^T(X^T c) &= \beta^T \alpha \\ &= \alpha^T(X^T X)^{-1}\alpha\end{aligned}$$

and so  $k = 1$ . This means that

$$\sigma^2\|c\|^2 = \sigma^2\|X(X^T X)^{-1}\alpha\|^2 + \sigma^2\|v\|^2 \geq \sigma^2\alpha^T(X^T X)^{-1}\alpha,$$

which is the variance of the OLS estimator for  $\alpha^T \beta$ .

**3.3.b** A matrix  $A$  is positive-semidefinite iff  $x^T A x \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $a^T(\tilde{V} - \hat{V})a = a^T \tilde{V} a - a^T \hat{V} a$ . Since  $\tilde{V}, \hat{V}$  are the covariance matrices of  $\tilde{\beta}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$ , respectively, we find that

$$\begin{aligned}a^T \tilde{V} a &= \text{Var}(a^T \tilde{\beta}) \\ a^T \hat{V} a &= \text{Var}(a^T \hat{\beta}).\end{aligned}$$

So by the above result,  $\tilde{V} - \hat{V}$  is positive semidefinite.

**3.4** In the full-rank case, a single pass of the Graham-Schmidt procedure expresses  $X = QR$  where  $Q$  is orthogonal and  $R$  is square and upper triangular with 1's along the diagonal. The formula

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

becomes

$$\begin{aligned}(R^T Q^T Q R)^{-1} R^T Q^T y & \\ &= (R^T R)^{-1} R^T Q^T y \\ &= R^{-1} R^{-T} R^T Q^T y \\ &= R^{-1} Q^T y\end{aligned}$$

We can compute  $R^{-1}$  during the Gram-Schmidt process as follows: Let  $Q_k, R_k$  denote the matrices formed by taking the first  $k$  columns of  $Q, R$ . We will also store the matrix  $R_k^{-1}$ . Given this data, the next step in the Gram-Schmidt process yields  $Q_{k+1}, R_{k+1}$ . We update  $R_{k+1}^{-1}$  as follows: If

$$R_{k+1} = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} R_k & Z \\ \hline 0 & a_k \end{array} \right),$$

then

$$R_{k+1}^{-1} = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} R_k^{-1} & -a_k R_k^{-1} Z \\ \hline 0 & a_k^{-1} \end{array} \right)$$

So we can store the coefficients of  $\hat{\beta}$  in a list that is updated with each newly discovered column of  $R^{-1}$  and row of  $Q^T$ .

**3.5** The original ridge objective is

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2.$$

Rearranging it, we get

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \left( y_i - [\beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \bar{x}_j \beta_j] + \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j) \beta_j \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$$

So the minimum  $\hat{\beta}_\lambda^{ridge}$  to this will give a minimum to

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \left( y_i - \beta_0^c + \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j) \beta_j^c \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p (\beta_j^c)^2,$$

where we simply set  $\beta_0^c := \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \bar{x}_j \beta_j$  and  $\beta_j^c := \hat{\beta}_j$  if  $j \geq 1$ . The lasso condition is exactly the same. In both cases, the objective function is differentiable with respect to  $\beta_0$ , and the derivative in the lasso and ridge case is

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - \beta_0^c + \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j) \beta_j^c) \\ &= N\bar{y} - N\beta_0^c, \end{aligned}$$

and so  $\beta_0^c = \bar{y}$  at the minimum in each case.

**3.6** Let  $f_B$  be  $N(0, \tau I)$ . Then

$$f_{B|Y}(\beta|y) = \frac{f_{BY}(\beta, y)}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{f_{Y|B}(y|\beta) f_B(\beta)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

We are working under the assumption that  $y$  is Gaussian noise added onto  $X\beta$ , so

$$f_{Y|B}(y|\beta) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma)^{\frac{p}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|y - X\beta\|^2},$$

while

$$f_B(\beta) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\tau)^{\frac{p}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\tau^2} \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2}.$$

and so

$$f_{Y|B}(y|\beta)f_B(\beta) = \frac{1}{2\pi(\tau\sigma)^{\frac{p}{2}}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2} \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{\|\beta\|^2}{\tau^2} \right) \right\}.$$

Since this is quadratic in  $\beta$ , we find that this posterior distribution is also Gaussian, so the median and mode match. We'll find the value by taking differentiating with respect to  $\beta_K$ :

$$f_{Y|B}(y|\beta)f_B(\beta) \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_i (y_i - \sum_j x_{ij}\beta_j)(x_{iK}) - \frac{1}{\tau^2} \beta_K \right]$$

Setting this equal to zero for each component gives the vector equation

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} X^T (y - X\beta) = \frac{1}{\tau^2} \beta,$$

and solving that yields

$$\beta = (X^T X + \frac{\sigma^2}{\tau^2} I)^{-1} X^T y,$$

which is the ridge regression solution for which  $\lambda = \frac{\sigma^2}{\tau^2}$ .

**3.7\*\*\*** I'm not sure what this problem is asking about. If it's the same scenario as the previous problem, we reuse that work to find that the posterior density is

$$\frac{C}{2\pi(\tau\sigma)^{\frac{p}{2}}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2} \left( \frac{\|y - X\beta\|^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{\|\beta\|^2}{\tau^2} \right) \right\},$$

with  $C$  chosen to make the expression integrate to 1 as a function of  $y$ . We take the log and get something that's proportional to the desired quantity, but with an extra constant added.

**3.8** Let  $\mathbf{1}, X_1, \dots, X_p$  denote the columns of the unnormalized matrix  $X$ . The matrix  $Q$  in the QR-decomposition can be found via the Gram-Schmidt process. Since the first column of  $X$  is all 1's, the GS process starts by making the first column of  $Q$   $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\mathbf{1}$ . The other columns are orthogonalized with respect to this vector:

$$X_i \mapsto \tilde{X}_i = X_i - \langle X_i, \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\mathbf{1} \rangle \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\mathbf{1} = X_i - \overline{X_i}\mathbf{1}.$$

Since the remaining columns of  $Q$  are formed by finding an orthonormal basis of the span of these vectors, which are none other than  $\tilde{X}$ 's columns, and the columns of the matrix  $U$  also form an orthogonal basis of that span, we know that the span of  $Q_2$  is the same as the span of  $U$ .

When will the two match? If they match, we can express  $\tilde{X} = Q_2 R_2$  and also  $\tilde{X} = U D V^T$ . Assuming  $Q_2 = U$ , multiplying both of these expressions by  $U^T$  will yield  $R_2 = D V^T$ , which means that  $V = R_2^T D^{-1}$  is a lower triangular orthonormal matrix, which means it's diagonal with entries  $\pm 1$ . This, in turn, means that  $R_2 = V D$  is diagonal, hence the columns of  $\tilde{X}$  are already orthogonal and simply need to be rescaled to become orthonormal.

Conversely, if the columns of  $\tilde{X}$  are orthogonal, then scaling each of them to have unit norm gives an orthonormal matrix  $U$ . Letting  $D$  be the diagonal matrix whose entries are the lengths of the columns of  $\tilde{X}$ , we have  $\tilde{X} = U D$  is both the QR and SVD decomposition of  $\tilde{X}$ , so the first matrix in each decomposition is the same.

**3.9** Recall that if  $X_1 = QR$  is the QR-decomposition, then the predictions are given by  $\hat{y} = Q Q^T y$ . Letting  $Q_1, \dots, Q_q$  denote the columns of  $Q$ , we find

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}_i &= \sum_{ab} Q_{ia} Q_{ab}^T y_b \\ &= \sum_a Q_{ia} \langle Q_a, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

so

$$\hat{y} = \sum_a Q_a \langle Q_a, y \rangle.$$

Now, suppose we wish to consider the effect of adding a new column vector to  $X_1$ . The new Q-matrix in the QR-decomposition of  $X_1$  with this new column is found by simply doing another stage of the Gram-Schmidt process. That is, if  $C_j$  is the column vector corresponding to the feature  $j$  to be added, the new column in the QR-decomp will be found by taking

$$\bar{Q}_j = C_j - \sum_{a=1}^q Q_a \langle Q_a, C_j \rangle,$$

and then  $Q_j = \frac{\bar{Q}_j}{\|\bar{Q}_j\|}$ . The new prediction will then become

$$\hat{y}^{(j)} = Q_j \langle Q_j, y \rangle + \sum_a Q_a \langle Q_a, y \rangle$$

which gives an RSS of

$$\begin{aligned}\|\hat{y}^{(j)} - y\|^2 &= \|Q_j \langle Q_j, y \rangle + \hat{y} - y\|^2 \\ &= \|Q_j \langle Q_j, r + \hat{y} \rangle - r\|^2 \\ &= \|Q_j \langle Q_j, r \rangle - r\|^2,\end{aligned}$$

where the last line follows because  $\hat{y}$  is in the span of  $Q_1, \dots, Q_q$ , which are orthogonal to  $Q_j$ .

This means that to find the feature that reduces the RSS the most, we simply have to do the following for each new feature:

- Calculate the orthogonal projection of  $C_j$  onto the span of  $Q_1, \dots, Q_q$  and normalize it to obtain the vector  $Q_j$ .
- Calculate the square norm of the residual of  $r$  projected onto  $Q_j$

Then choose the feature giving the smallest value for the second step.

**Remark** Looking online at some discussions of forward stepwise regression, many say that they pick the feature that has the highest t-score or F-score. Recall that exercise 1 shows the square of the t-score is the F-score, and the F-score is defined by

$$F = \left( \frac{\text{RSS}_{\text{small}}}{\text{RSS}_{\text{small}+1}} - 1 \right) (N - (q + 1)),$$

and so maximizing this or the t-score is equivalent to minimizing the new RSS.

**3.10** Since exercise 1 establishes the square of the  $z$ -score is the  $F$ -score for one feature and

$$F = \left( \frac{\text{RSS}_{\text{small}} - \text{RSS}_{\text{big}}}{\text{RSS}_{\text{big}}} \right) (N - p),$$

we find that the feature with the smallest  $F$ -score will have the least impact on RSS.

**3.11** We have the following matrices of the given dimensions:

- $Y$  -  $N \times K$
- $X$  -  $N \times p$
- $B$  -  $p \times K$
- $\Sigma$  -  $K \times K$

and we want to minimize the quantity

$$\sum_i (y_i - f(x_i)) \Sigma^{-1} (y_i - f(x_i))^T,$$

where  $y_i$  and  $x_i$  are the  $i$ th rows of  $Y$  and  $X$ , respectively. If  $A$  is a matrix, let  $A_{*b}$  and  $A_{a*}$  denote the  $b$ th column and  $a$ th row. We have  $f(x_i) = (XB)_{i*} =$

$x_i B$ . Taking the partial derivative with respect to  $B_{ab}$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_i (y_i - x_i B) \Sigma^{-1} (- (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{X_{ia}}_{\text{index } b}, 0, \dots, 0)^T) \\
& + (- (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{X_{ia}}_{\text{index } b}, 0, \dots, 0) \Sigma^{-1} (y_i - x_i B)^T) \\
& = - \sum_i (y_i - x_i B) (\Sigma^{-1})_{*b} X_{ia} + X_{ia} (\Sigma^{-1})_{b*} (y_i - x_i B)^T \\
& = - \left( \sum_i (y_i - x_i B) X_{ia} \right) (\Sigma^{-1})_{*b} - (\Sigma^{-1})_{b*} \left( \sum_i X_{ia} (y_i - x_i B)^T \right) \\
& = - \left( X_{*a}^T (Y - XB) \right) (\Sigma^{-1})_{*b} - (\Sigma^{-1})_{b*} \left( (Y - XB)^T X_{*a} \right) \\
& = - 2 X_{*a}^T (Y - XB) (\Sigma^{-1})_{*b}
\end{aligned}$$

If this quantity is zero for all  $a, b$ , then

$$0 = X^T (Y - XB) \Sigma^{-1},$$

and we may cancel  $\Sigma$  and solve as usual to find the solution  $B = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$ .

Furthermore, the value of  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial B_{ab} \partial B_{st}}$  is  $2(X^T X)_{as} (\Sigma^{-1})_{bt}$ . Hence if  $B = \sum_{cd} B_{cd} E_{cd}$  is a test “vector”, we find that  $v^T H v$  has the value

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{abst} B_{ab} 2(X^T X)_{as} (\Sigma^{-1})_{bt} B_{st} \\
& = 2 \sum_{as} (X^T X)_{as} \sum_{bt} B_{ab} (\Sigma^{-1})_{bt} B_{st} \\
& = 2 \text{trace}(X^T X (B^T \Sigma^{-1} B)) \\
& = 2 \text{trace}(X B^T \Sigma^{-1} B X^T) \\
& = 2 \sum_a \sum_{ij} (X B^T)_{ai} (\Sigma^{-1})_{ij} (B X^T)_{ja} \\
& > 0,
\end{aligned}$$

since  $\Sigma^{-1}$  is positive definite.

As for what happens when  $\Sigma$  is not constant, let's take the following simple case: we have observations  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$  forming data matrix  $X$  and observation matrix  $Y$ . We then run another round of observations on the same inputs to obtain  $(x_1, y'_1), \dots, (x_N, y'_N)$ , yielding  $X, Y'$ . On the first round of observations, we had  $\Sigma_1$  for the error correlations, and  $\Sigma_2$  on the second round. We find that the condition for the partial derivatives to vanish is

$$0 = X^T (Y - XB) \Sigma_1^{-1} + X^T (Y' - XB) \Sigma_2^{-1},$$

which we can solve to obtain



$$B = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (Y \Sigma_1^{-1} + Y' \Sigma_2^{-1}) (\Sigma_1^{-1} + \Sigma_2^{-1})^{-1}.$$

Meanwhile, the formula from the first part of the problem uses a data matrix with two copies of  $X$  stacked on top of each other and gives

$$B = (2X^T X)^{-1} X^T (Y + Y'),$$

and so the two will match iff (after clearing the leading  $X^T X$  term and multiplying by  $\Sigma_1^{-1} + \Sigma_2^{-1}$ )

$$\frac{1}{2} X^T (Y + Y') (\Sigma_1^{-1} + \Sigma_2^{-1}) = X^T (Y \Sigma_1^{-1} + Y' \Sigma_2^{-1}),$$

which is equivalent to

$$X^T (Y' \Sigma_1^{-1} + Y \Sigma_2^{-1}) = X^T (Y \Sigma_1^{-1} + Y' \Sigma_2^{-1}).$$

For a concrete example, we take

$$\Sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$X = [1]$$

$$Y = [1 \quad 0], Y' = [0 \quad 1],$$

and the two sides of the equation are  $[1 \quad 2]$  and  $[1 \quad 3]$ . Indeed, the coefficients that ignore  $\Sigma$  give  $B = [\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2}]$ , simply averaging the observations, but taking the varying  $\Sigma$  into account gives  $B = [\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{3}{5}]$ , a result that puts more weight on the observation with smaller variance.