pfsl14(15).tex Lecture 14. 16.11.2015

2. Quadratic forms in normal variates

In deriving the normal equations, we minimised the total sum of squares

$$SS := (y - A\beta)^T (y - A\beta)$$

w.r.t. β . The minimum value is called the sum of squares for error,

$$SSE := (y - A\hat{\beta})^T (y - A\hat{\beta}).$$

From the normal equations (NE) and the definition of the projection matrix P,

$$A\beta = Py.$$

 So

$$SSE = (y - Py)^{T}(y - Py) = y^{T}y - y^{T}Py - y^{T}Py + y^{T}P^{T}Py = y^{T}(I - P)y,$$

using $P^T = P$ and $P^2 = P$, and a little matrix algebra (see e.g. [BF], 3.4) gives also

$$SSE = (y - A\beta)^T (I - P)(y - A\beta).$$

The sum of squares for regression is

$$SSR := (\hat{b} - \beta)^T C(\hat{\beta} - \beta).$$

Again, a little matrix algebra (see e.g. [BF], 3.4) gives

$$SSR = (y - A\beta)^T P(y - A\beta).$$

So

$$SS = SSR + SSE :$$
$$(y - A\beta)^T (y - A\beta) = (y - A\beta)^T P(y - A\beta) + (y - A\beta)^T (I - P)(y - A\beta); (SSD)$$

either of both of these are called the sum-of-squares decomposition. Now from the model equations (ME), $y - A\beta = \epsilon$ is a random *n*-vector whose components are iid $N(0, \sigma^2)$. So (SSD) decomposes a quadratic form in normal variates $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n)^T$ with matrix *I* into the sum of two quadratic forms with matrices *P* and I - P. Now by *Craig's theorem* ([KS1], (15.55)) such quadratic forms with matrices A, B are independent iff AB = 0. But since

$$P(I - P) = P - P^{2} = P - P = 0,$$

this shows that SSR and SSE are independent. Thus (SSD) decomposes the total sum of squares into a sum of *independent* sums of squares – the main tool used in regression.

We recall some results from Linear Algebra (see e.g. [BF] Ch. 3 and the references cited there). We need the *trace* trace(A) of a square matrix $A = (a_{ij})$, defined as the sum of its diagonal elements:

$$trace(A) = \sum a_{ii}.$$

(i) A real symmetric matrix A can be diagonalised by an orthogonal transformation O to a diagonal matrix D:

$$O^T A O = D.$$

(ii) For A idempotent (a projection), its eigenvalues are 0 or 1.

(iii) For A idempotent, its trace is its rank.

So if we have a quadratic form $x^T P x$ with P a projection of rank r and x an n-vector $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^T$ with x_i iid $N(0, \sigma^2)$, we can diagonalise by an orthogonal transformation y = Ox to a sum of squares of r normals (wlog the first r):

$$x^T P x = y_1^2 + \ldots + y_r^2, \qquad y_i \text{ iid } N(0, \sigma^2).$$

So by definition of the chi-square distribution,

$$x^T P x \sim \sigma^2 \chi^2(r).$$

Sums of Projections

Suppose that P_1, \ldots, P_k are symmetric projection matrices with sum the identity:

$$I = P_1 + \ldots + P_k.$$

Take the trace of both sides: the $n \times n$ identity matrix I has trace n. Each P_i has trace its rank n_i , so as trace is additive

$$n=n_1+\ldots+n_k.$$

Then squaring,

$$I = I^{2} = \sum_{i} P_{i}^{2} + \sum_{i < j} P_{i} P_{j} = \sum_{i} P_{i} + \sum_{i < j} P_{i} P_{j}.$$

Taking the trace,

$$n = \sum n_i + \sum_{i < j} trace(P_i P_j) = n + \sum_{i < j} trace(P_i P_j) :$$
$$\sum_{i < j} trace(P_i P_j) = 0.$$

Now

$$trace(P_iP_j) = trace(P_i^2P_j^2) \quad (P_i, P_j \text{ projections})$$

= $trace((P_jP_i).(P_iP_j)) \quad (trace(AB) = trace(BA))$
= $trace((P_iP_j)^T.(P_iP_j)) \quad ((AB)^T = B^TA^T; P_i, P_j \text{ symmetric})$
 $\geq 0,$

since for a matrix M

$$\begin{aligned} trace(M^T M) &= \sum_i (M^T M)_{ii} \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j (M^T)_{ij} (M)_{ji} \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j m_{ij}^2 \\ &\geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

So we have a sum of non-negative terms being zero. So each term must be zero. That is, the square of each element of P_iP_j must be zero. So each element of P_iP_j is zero, so matrix P_iP_j is zero:

$$P_i P_j = 0 \qquad (i \neq j).$$

This is the condition that the *linear forms* P_1x, \ldots, P_kx be independent (below). Since the P_ix are independent, so are the $(P_ix)^T(P_ix) = x^T P_i^T P_i x$, i.e. $x^T P_i x$ as P_i is symmetric and idempotent. That is, the *quadratic forms* $x^T P_1 x, \ldots, x^T P_k \vec{x}$ are also independent.

We now have

$$x^T x = x^T P_1 x + \ldots + x^T P_k x.$$

The left is $\sigma^2 \chi^2(n)$; the *i*th term on the right is $\sigma^2 \chi^2(n_i)$.

We summarise our conclusions.

Theorem (Chi-Square Decomposition Theorem). If

$$I=P_1+\ldots+P_k,$$

with each P_i a symmetric projection matrix with rank n_i , then (i) the ranks sum:

$$n=n_1+\ldots+n_k;$$

(ii) each quadratic form $Q_i := x^T P_i x$ is chi-squared:

$$Q_i \sim \sigma^2 \chi^2(n_i);$$

(iii) the Q_i are mutually independent.

This fundamental result gives all the distribution theory commonly needed for the Linear Model (for which see e.g. [BF]). In particular, since Fdistributions are defined in terms of distributions of independent chi-squares, it explains why we constantly encounter F-statistics, and why all the tests of hypotheses that we encounter will be F-tests. This is so throughout the Linear Model – Multiple Regression, as here, Analysis of Variance, Analysis of Covariance and more advanced topics.

Note. The result above generalises beyond our context of projections. With the projections P_i replaced by symmetric matrices A_i of rank n_i with sum I, the corresponding result (Cochran's Theorem, 1934, also known as the Fisher-Cochran theorem) is that (i), (ii) and (iii) are *equivalent*. The proof is harder (one needs to work with *quadratic* forms, where we were able to work with *linear* forms). For monograph treatments, see e.g. Rao [R], sections 1c.1 and 3b.4 and Kendall & Stuart [KS1], sections 15.16 - 15.21.

3. The multivariate normal (Gaussian) distribution

In *n* dimensions, for a random *n*-vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)^T$, one needs

(i) a mean vector $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)^T$ with $\mu_i = EX_i, \ \mu = E[X];$

(ii) a covariance matrix $\Sigma = (\sigma_{ij})$, with $\sigma_{ij} = cov(X_i, X_j)$: $\Sigma = cov(X)$.

First, note how mean vectors and covariance matrices transform under linear changes of variable:

Proposition. If Y = AX + b, with Y, b m-vectors, A an $m \times n$ matrix and X an n-vector, (i) the mean vectors are related by $E[Y] = AE[X] + b = A\mu + b$; (ii) the covariance matrices are related by $\Sigma_Y = A\Sigma_X A^T$.