

**TMA4267 Linear statistical models**  
**Recommended exercises 1 – solutions**



**Problem 1 Simple matrix calculations**

R code follows below.

$$\text{c) } \begin{pmatrix} x & y \end{pmatrix} A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 9x^2 - 4xy^2 + 6y^2 = 9\left(x^2 - \frac{4}{9}xy + \frac{4}{81}y^2\right) - \frac{4}{9}y^2 + 6y^2 = 9\left(x - \frac{2}{9}y\right)^2 + \frac{50}{9}y^2,$$

which is nonnegative (sum of two squares) and zero only for  $x = y = 0$ . This shows that  $A$  is positive definite.

d) Find eigenvalues by solving the equation  $\det(\lambda I - A)$  for  $\lambda$ . They are 5 and 10. Then find eigenvectors by finding nonzero solutions  $\mathbf{v}$  of  $(\lambda I - A)\mathbf{v}$  when  $\lambda = 5$  and when  $\lambda = 10$ . You may find  $(1 \ 2)^T$  and  $(2 \ -1)^T$  for 5 and 10, respectively.

e) The eigenvectors found above are orthogonal since they belong to distinct eigenvalues. Consider the matrix  $P$  having columns that are normalized versions of the eigenvectors, and the diagonal matrix  $\Lambda$  having eigenvalues on the diagonal (in the same order as the eigenvectors),

$$P = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then we know from linear algebra that  $P$  is orthogonal ( $PP^T = P^TP = I$ ) and that  $A = P\Lambda P^T$ .

f) To find  $A^{-1}$ , you may perform elementary row operations on the block matrix  $(A \ I)$  so you get a matrix of the form  $(I \ B)$ . Then  $B = A^{-1}$ . Alternatively, you can use the formula  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$  for  $2 \times 2$ -matrices.

g) That  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to an eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , means that  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ . This is equivalent to  $A^{-1}A\mathbf{v} = \lambda A^{-1}\mathbf{v}$ , that is,  $A^{-1}\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{\lambda}\mathbf{v}$ , which means that  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $A^{-1}$  corresponding to the eigenvalue  $1/\lambda$  of  $A^{-1}$ . So  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$  if and only if  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector of  $A^{-1}$  corresponding to  $1/\lambda$ .

In our case, the eigenvectors of  $A^{-1}$  are the same as for  $A$ , but corresponding to eigenvalues  $1/5$  and  $1/10$ .

- h)  $A$  can be a covariance matrix because it is symmetric and positive definite. We already know that covariance matrices are symmetric and positive semidefinite. We will see later in the course that for all positive definite symmetric matrices, there exists a multivariate normal distribution having that covariance matrix.
- i) Remember that the correlation coefficient of two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  is  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) / \sqrt{(\text{Var } X)(\text{Var } Y)}$ .
- j) Remember that  $E(A\mathbf{X}) = AE\mathbf{X}$  and that  $\text{Cov}(A\mathbf{X}) = A(\text{Cov } \mathbf{X})A^T$ . For the last case, remember that the  $ij$  entry of  $\text{Cov } Y$  is in general the covariance of the  $i$ th and  $j$ th component of  $\mathbf{Y}$ .

R code:

```
## a) construct A

A <- matrix(c(9,-2,-2, 6), ncol = 2)
A

## b) symmetric?

t(A)
t(A) == A
# yes t(A)=A

## c) positive definite

# t(x) %*% A %*% x > 0 for all x
# just showing how this is calculated
x <- matrix(c(1, 2), ncol = 1)
t(x) %*% A %*% x

## d)

ev <- eigen(A)
names(ev)
ev$values
# yes, positive eigenvalues

# normalized eigenvectors?
```

```
ev$vector  
  
# first eigenvector, length  
sum(ev$vector[, 1] ^ 2)  
# or  
t(ev$vector[, 1]) %% ev$vector[, 1]  
# second  
t(ev$vector[, 2]) %% ev$vector[, 2]  
  
## e) orthogonal diagonalization  
  
P <- ev$vector  
lambda <- diag(ev$value)  
  
P %% lambda %% t(P)  
  
## f) inverse  
  
Ainv <- solve(A)  
Ainv  
# or using the diagonalization (also see g)  
lambdainv <- diag(1 / ev$value)  
P %% lambdainv %% t(P)  
  
## g)  
  
eigen(Ainv)$value  
diag(lambdainv) # the same, but different order (by coincidence)  
eigen(Ainv)$vector  
eigen(A)$vector # the same, but different order and sign  
  
## h) since A is symmetric positive definite, it can be a covariance matrix  
  
## i) correlation matrix  
  
varvec <- diag(A) # variances  
invsdmat <- diag(1 / sqrt(varvec))  
  
# divide ij entry by sd of ith and by sd of jth component of vector  
corrmat <- invsdmat %% A %% invsdmat  
corrmat
```

```
# builtin
cov2cor(A)

## j)

# X has mean mu and covariance matrix A
mu <- matrix(c(3, 1), ncol = 1)
B <- matrix(c(1, 1, 1, 2), ncol = 2)
d <- matrix(c(1, 2), nrow = 1)

# E and Cov for s=BX
# mean of s
B %*% mu
# cov(s) is B A B^T
B %*% A %*% t(B)

# E and Cov for d X
# mean is
d %*% mu
# cov(t) is
d %*% A %*% t(d)

# E and Cov for v rbind X and 3X
# mean of 3X is 3mu
# cov of 3X is 9 covX
# mean
rbind(mu, 3 * mu) # concatenation
# cov v is a matrix with four blocks
# block1 is cov of X
block1 <- A
# block 2 is cov of X and 3X=3 covX
block2 <- 3 * A
# block 3 is block 2 transposed
block3 <- t(block2)
# block4 is Cov(3X)=9A
block4 <- 9 * A

covv <- cbind(rbind(block1, block2), rbind(block3, block4))
covv
```

**Problem 2** Mean and covariance of linear combinations

Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}.$$

We use the formulas  $E(A\mathbf{X}) = AE\bar{\mathbf{X}}$  and  $\text{Cov}(A\mathbf{X}) = A(\text{Cov } \mathbf{X})A^T$ :

$$E(A\mathbf{X}) = AE\bar{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\text{Cov}(A\mathbf{X}) = A(\text{Cov } \mathbf{X})A^T = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} I \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Note that  $A$  is *idempotent*, that is,  $A^2 = A$ .**Problem 3** Covariance formulaWe use the formulas  $E(\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y}) = E\mathbf{X} + E\mathbf{Y}$ ,  $E(A\mathbf{X}B) = A(E\mathbf{X})B$  and  $E(\mathbf{X}^T) = (E\mathbf{X})^T$ . Remember that  $E\mathbf{V}$  and  $E\mathbf{W}$  are just constant vectors.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{W}) &= E((\mathbf{V} - E\mathbf{V})(\mathbf{W} - E\mathbf{W})^T) \\ &= E(\mathbf{V}\mathbf{W}^T - (E\mathbf{V})\mathbf{W}^T - \mathbf{V}(E\mathbf{W})^T + (E\mathbf{V})(E\mathbf{W})^T) \\ &= E(\mathbf{V}\mathbf{W}^T) - (E\mathbf{V})E(\mathbf{W}^T) - E(\mathbf{V})(E\mathbf{W})^T + (E\mathbf{V})(E\mathbf{W})^T \\ &= E(\mathbf{V}\mathbf{W}^T) - (E\mathbf{V})E(\mathbf{W})^T. \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 4** The square root matrix and the Mahalanobis transform

- a) First,  $\Sigma$  is symmetric, since its  $ij$  entry,  $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$ , is equal to its  $ji$  entry,  $\text{Cov}(X_j, X_i)$ , where  $X_i$  denotes the  $i$ th component of  $\mathbf{X}$ . Next, let  $\mathbf{z}$  be a vector of the same length as  $\mathbf{X}$ . Then (by the formula  $\text{Cov}(A\mathbf{X}) = A(\text{Cov } \mathbf{X})A^T$ ),  $\mathbf{z}^T \Sigma \mathbf{z} = \text{Cov}(\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{X}) = \text{Var}(\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{X}) \geq 0$  (the covariance matrix  $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{X})$  is  $1 \times 1$  and contains only  $\text{Var}(\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{X})$ , and variances are always nonnegative).

- b) Since  $\Sigma$  is positive definite,  $\mathbf{z}^T \Sigma \mathbf{z} > 0$  for all vectors  $\mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Choose  $\mathbf{z} = P \mathbf{e}_j$ , where  $\mathbf{e}_j$  is the vector having 1 as its  $j$ th component and all other components 0. Then  $\mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , since  $P$  is nonsingular, and  $0 < \mathbf{z}^T \Sigma \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{e}_j^T P^T \Sigma P \mathbf{e}_j = \mathbf{e}_j^T \Lambda \mathbf{e}_j = \lambda_j$ , the  $j$ th diagonal entry of  $\Lambda$ . Since the eigenvalues of  $\Sigma$  are the diagonal entries of  $\Lambda$ , we have shown that all eigenvalues are positive.

(Note that the opposite is also true: If all eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are positive, then the matrix is positive definite:  $\mathbf{z}^T \Sigma \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}^T P \Lambda P^T \mathbf{z} = \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_j b_j^2$ , where  $P^T \mathbf{z} = (b_1 \cdots b_p)^T$ . The sum at the right is zero only if all  $b_j = 0$ , that is,  $P^T \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{0}$ , which, since  $P$  is nonsingular, implies  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{0}$ .)

$\Sigma$  is invertible, since none of the eigenvalues are zero (they are all positive).

Assume that  $\mathbf{p}$  is an eigenvector of  $\Sigma^{-1}$ , corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , that is,  $\Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{p} = \lambda \mathbf{p}$ . Then  $\mathbf{p} = \Sigma \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{p} = \lambda \Sigma \mathbf{p}$ ,  $\Sigma \mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{p}$ , showing that  $\mathbf{p}$  is an eigenvector of  $\Sigma$  corresponding to the eigenvalue  $1/\lambda$ . Alternatively,  $\Sigma = P \Lambda P^T$  is equivalent to  $\Sigma^{-1} = P \Lambda^{-1} P^T$ . In both diagonalizations, eigenvectors are the columns of  $P$ , and the corresponding eigenvalues the diagonal of  $\Lambda$  or  $\Lambda^{-1}$ . So the eigenvalues of  $\Sigma^{-1}$  are reciprocals of those of  $\Sigma$  and vice versa. An eigenvector of one of the matrices corresponding to  $\lambda$  is an eigenvector of the other corresponding to  $1/\lambda$ .

- c) (Note that  $\Lambda^{-1/2}$  is a diagonal matrix having the reciprocals of the diagonal entries of  $\Lambda^{1/2}$  on the diagonal.)

$$(\Sigma^{1/2})^T = (P \Lambda^{1/2} P^T)^T = (P^T)^T (\Lambda^{1/2})^T P^T = P \Lambda^{1/2} P^T = \Sigma^{1/2},$$

showing that  $\Sigma^{1/2}$  is symmetric. Below we show that  $\Sigma^{-1/2}$  is the inverse of  $\Sigma^{1/2}$ , and in general, the inverse of a symmetric matrix is symmetric. So also  $\Sigma^{-1/2}$  is symmetric.

Remember that  $P^T P = I$ , since  $P$  is orthogonal.

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma^{1/2} \Sigma^{1/2} &= P \Lambda^{1/2} P^T P \Lambda^{1/2} P^T = P \Lambda^{1/2} \Lambda^{1/2} P^T = P \Lambda P^T = \Sigma, \\ \Sigma^{-1/2} \Sigma^{-1/2} &= P \Lambda^{-1/2} P^T P \Lambda^{-1/2} P^T = P \Lambda^{-1/2} \Lambda^{-1/2} P^T = P \Lambda^{-1} P^T = \Sigma^{-1}, \text{ and} \\ \Sigma^{1/2} \Sigma^{-1/2} &= P \Lambda^{1/2} P^T P \Lambda^{-1/2} P^T = P \Lambda^{1/2} \Lambda^{-1/2} P^T = P P^T = I. \end{aligned}$$

- d) We use the formulas  $E(A\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{b}) = AE\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{b}$  and  $\text{Cov}(A\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{b}) = A(\text{Cov } \mathbf{X})A^T$ :

$$\begin{aligned} E\mathbf{Y} &= E(\Sigma^{-1/2}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})) = \Sigma^{-1/2} E(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \Sigma^{-1/2} (E\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \Sigma^{-1/2} (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \mathbf{0}, \\ \text{Cov } \mathbf{Y} &= \text{Cov}(\Sigma^{-1/2}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})) = \Sigma^{-1/2} \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\Sigma^{-1/2})^T \\ &= \Sigma^{-1/2} \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X})(\Sigma^{-1/2})^T = \Sigma^{-1/2} \Sigma \Sigma^{-1/2} = \Sigma^{-1/2} \Sigma^{1/2} \Sigma^{1/2} \Sigma^{-1/2} = I \end{aligned}$$

( $(\Sigma^{-1/2})^T = \Sigma^{-1/2}$  since the inverse,  $\Sigma^{-1/2}$ , of the symmetric matrix  $\Sigma^{1/2}$  is symmetric.)