

GENIOMHE

# Multivariate Statistics

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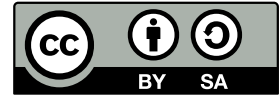
*by* Samuel Ortion

*Prof.:* Cyril Dalmasso

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# Contents


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# 1 Introduction

 **Definition 1:** Long Term Nonprocessor (LTNP)

Patient who will remain a long time in good health condition, even with a large viral load (cf. HIV).

 **Example 1:** Genotype: Qualitative or Quantitative?

$$\text{SNP} : \begin{cases} \text{AA} \\ \text{AB} \\ \text{BB} \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix},$$

thus we might consider genotype either as a qualitative variable or quantitative variable.

When the variable are quantitative, we use regression, whereas for qualitative variables, we use an analysis of variance.

# Part I

# 1.1 Generalized Linear Model

$$g(\mathbb{E}(Y)) = X\beta$$

with  $g$  being

- Logistic regression:  $g(v) = \log\left(\frac{v}{1-v}\right)$ , for instance for boolean values,
- Poisson regression:  $g(v) = \log(v)$ , for instance for discrete variables.

## 1.1.1 Penalized Regression

When the number of variables is large, e.g, when the number of explanatory variable is above the number of observations, if  $p \gg n$  ( $p$ : the number of explanatory variable,  $n$  is the number of observations), we cannot estimate the parameters. In order to estimate the parameters, we can use penalties (additional terms).

Lasso regression, Elastic Net, etc.

## 1.1.2 Simple Linear Model

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \varepsilon$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & X_1 \\ 1 & X_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

## 1.1.3 Assumptions

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## 1.1.4 Statistical Analysis Workflow

**Step 1.** Graphical representation;

**Step 2.** ...

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon,$$

is noted equivalently as

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} \\ 1 & x_{31} & x_{32} \\ 1 & x_{41} & x_{42} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \varepsilon_3 \\ \varepsilon_4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

# 1.2 Parameter Estimation

## 1.2.1 Simple Linear Regression

## 1.2.2 General Case

If  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is invertible, the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y} \tag{1.1}$$

## 1.2.3 Ordinary Least Square Algorithm

We want to minimize the distance between  $\mathbf{X}\beta$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$ :

$$\min\|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2$$

(See ??).

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}\beta = \text{proj}^{(1,\mathbf{X})}\mathbf{Y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall v \in w, v\mathbf{y} = v\text{proj}^w(y)$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall i :$$

$$\mathbf{X}_i\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}_i\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} \quad \text{where } \hat{\beta} \text{ is the estimator of } \beta$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})\hat{\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y}$$

This formula comes from the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{Y}$  on the subspace define by the explanatory variables  $\mathbf{X}$

$\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}$  is the closest point to  $\mathbf{Y}$  in the subspace generated by  $\mathbf{X}$ .

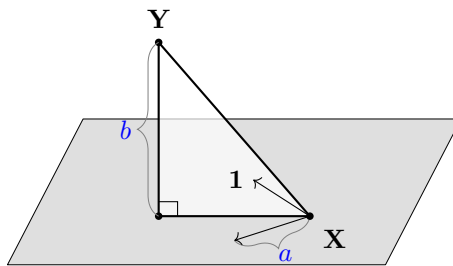
If  $H$  is the projection matrix of the subspace generated by  $\mathbf{X}$ ,  $H\mathbf{Y}$  is the projection on  $\mathbf{Y}$  on this subspace, that corresponds to  $\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}$ .

# 1.3 Coefficient of Determination: $R^2$

 **Definition 2:**  $R^2$

$$0 \leq R^2 = \frac{\|\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}\mathbf{1}\|^2}{\|\mathbf{Y} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}\mathbf{1}\|^2} = 1 - \frac{\|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}\|^2}{\|\mathbf{Y} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}\mathbf{1}\|^2} \leq 1$$

proportion of variation of  $\mathbf{Y}$  explained by the model.



**Figure 1.1** Illustration of project of  $\mathbf{Y}$  on plan generated by the base described by  $\mathbf{X}$ .  $a$  corresponds to  $\|\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}\|^2$  and  $b$  corresponds to  $\|\mathbf{Y} - \hat{\beta}\mathbf{X}\|^2$

# 2 Elements of Linear Algebra

## **i** Remark 1: vector

Let  $u$  a vector, we will use interchangeably the following notations:  $u$  and  $\vec{u}$

$$\text{Let } u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } v = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

## **$\pi$** Definition 3: Scalar Product (Dot Product)

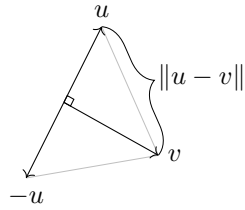
$$\begin{aligned} \langle u, v \rangle &= (u_1, \dots, u_n) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n \end{aligned}$$

We may use  $\langle u, v \rangle$  or  $u \cdot v$  notations.

### Dot product properties

- $\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle$
- $\langle (u + v), w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle$
- $\langle u, v \rangle$
- $\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle = \|\vec{u}\| \times \|\vec{v}\| \times \cos(\widehat{\vec{u}, \vec{v}})$





**Figure 2.1** Illustration for the scalar product of two orthogonal vectors.

**$\pi$  Definition 4: Norm**

Length of the vector.

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$$

$$\|u, v\| > 0$$

**$\pi$  Definition 5: Distance**

$$\text{dist}(u, v) = \|u - v\|$$

**$\pi$  Definition 6: Orthogonality**

**$i$  Remark 2**

$$(\text{dist}(u, v))^2 = \|u - v\|^2,$$

and

$$\langle v - u, v - u \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle v - u, v - u \rangle &= \langle v, v \rangle + \langle u, u \rangle - 2\langle u, v \rangle \\ &= \|v\|^2 + \|u\|^2 \\ &= -2\langle u, v \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|u - v\|^2 &= \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 - 2\langle u, v \rangle \\ \|u + v\|^2 &= \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 + 2\langle u, v \rangle \end{aligned}$$

**$\pi$  Proposition 1: Scalar product of orthogonal vectors**

$$u \perp v \Leftrightarrow \langle u, v \rangle = 0$$

Indeed.  $\|u - v\|^2 = \|u + v\|^2$ , as illustrated in ??.

$$\Leftrightarrow -2\langle u, v \rangle = 2\langle u, v \rangle$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 4\langle u, v \rangle = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \langle u, v \rangle = 0$$

□

### $\pi$ Theorem 1

Pythagorean theorem If  $u \perp v$ , then  $\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$ .

### $\pi$ Definition 7: Orthogonal Projection

Let  $y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \cdot \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $w$  a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$   $\mathcal{Y}$  can be written as the orthogonal projection of  $y$  on  $w$ :

$$\mathcal{Y} = \text{proj}^w(y) + z,$$

where

$$\begin{cases} z \in w^\perp \\ \text{proj}^w(y) \in w \end{cases}$$

There is only one vector  $\mathcal{Y}$  that ?

The scalar product between  $z$  and (?) is zero.

**Property 1.**  $\text{proj}^w(y)$  is the closest vector to  $y$  that belongs to  $w$ .

### $\pi$ Definition 8: Matrix

A matrix is an application, that is, a function that transform a thing into another, it is a linear function.

### Example 2: Matrix application

Let  $A$  be a matrix:

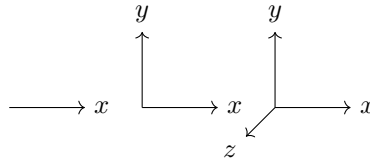
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} ax_1 + bx_2 \\ cx_1 + dx_2 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$




**Figure 2.2** Coordinate systems

 Example 2 continued

Similarly,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ e & f & g & h \\ i & j & k & l \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = (ax_1 + bx_2 + cx_3 \dots)$$

The number of columns has to be the same as the dimension of the vector to which the matrix is applied.

 **Definition 9:** Tranpose of a Matrix

Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $A^T = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$