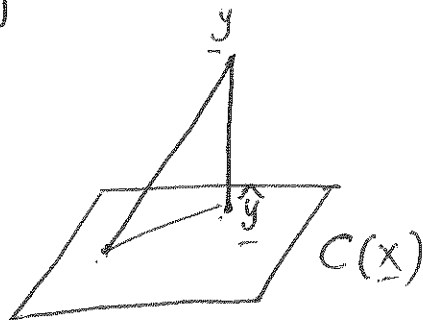


Recap:

Question: $(\underline{X}^T \underline{X}) \underline{\beta} = \underline{X}^T \underline{y}$

It can be unique if $(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})$ is invertible
and when $\underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ is not invertible, then this equation
has infinitely many solutions

Projection matrix:



Projection matrix \underline{P} for $C(\underline{X})$ has the property
that $\underline{P} \underline{v} = \underline{v}$ if $\underline{v} \in C(\underline{X})$ and $\underline{P} \underline{w} = \underline{0}$ if

$\underline{w} \in N(\underline{X}^T)$:

① ~~P~~ \underline{P} is symmetric

② \underline{P} is idempotent i.e. $\underline{P}^2 = \underline{P}$

If \underline{P} is the projection matrix onto the column
space of \underline{X} (i.e. $C(\underline{X})$) then $\underline{I} - \underline{P}$ is the
projection matrix onto $N(\underline{X}^T)$

Thm: $\text{rank}(\underline{P}) + \text{rank}(\underline{I} - \underline{P}) = n$

Pf: rank of a matrix = number of ~~non~~ nonzero
eigenvalues of a matrix.

trace of a matrix = sum of the diagonal entries
of a matrix

= sum of the eigenvalues of a
matrix.

\underline{P} is idempotent $\Rightarrow \underline{P}^2 = \underline{P}$

if λ_i is an eigenvalue with eigenvector \underline{v}_i

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then } \underline{P}^2 \underline{v}_i &= \underline{P} \underline{P} \underline{v}_i = \underline{P} \lambda_i \underline{v}_i & \underline{P} \underline{v}_i &= \lambda_i \underline{v}_i \\ &= \lambda_i \underline{P} \underline{v}_i & & \\ &= \lambda_i \lambda_i \underline{v}_i = \lambda_i^2 \underline{v}_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{P} \underline{v}_i = \lambda_i^2 \underline{v}_i$$

\Rightarrow if λ_i is an eigenvalue then λ_i^2 is also the same eigenvalue

$\Rightarrow \lambda_i = \lambda_i^2 \Rightarrow \lambda_i = 0$ or 1
eigenvalue of an idempotent matrix is either 0 or 1

rank of \underline{P} = number of nonzero eigenvalues
 $= \sum \lambda_i = \text{trace of } \underline{P}$

$$\text{rank}(\underline{P}) = \text{trace}(\underline{P})$$

If \underline{P} is idempotent i.e. $\underline{P}^2 = \underline{P}$ then

$$(\underline{I} - \underline{P})^2 = (\underline{I} - \underline{P})(\underline{I} - \underline{P}) = \underline{I} - 2\underline{P} + \underline{P}^2 = \underline{I} - 2\underline{P} + \underline{P} = \underline{I} - \underline{P}$$

$\Rightarrow \underline{I} - \underline{P}$ is also idempotent

$$\begin{aligned} \text{hence, } \text{rank}(\underline{P}) + \text{rank}(\underline{I} - \underline{P}) &= \text{trace}(\underline{P}) + \text{trace}(\underline{I} - \underline{P}) \\ &= \text{trace}(\underline{I}) = n \end{aligned}$$

Notice: $\underline{y} = \underline{P} \underline{y} + (\underline{I} - \underline{P}) \underline{y}$

where $\underline{P} \underline{y} \in C(\underline{X})$, $(\underline{I} - \underline{P}) \underline{y} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{X}^T)$

$$\begin{aligned} (\underline{P} \underline{y})^T (\underline{I} - \underline{P}) \underline{y} &= \underline{y}^T \underline{P}^T (\underline{I} - \underline{P}) \underline{y} = \underline{y}^T \underline{P} (\underline{I} - \underline{P}) \underline{y} \\ &= \underline{y}^T (\underline{P} - \underline{P}^2) \underline{y} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We know that there is some matrix \underline{P} which projects any vector onto the $C(\underline{X})$.

What is the formula for \underline{P} ?

Def: A generalized inverse of an $m \times n$ matrix \underline{A} is any $n \times m$ matrix \underline{G} satisfying $\underline{A} \underline{G} \underline{A} = \underline{A}$. The notation \underline{A}^- is used to denote the generalized inverse of a matrix.

If $\textcircled{1}$ \underline{A} is invertible (i.e. \underline{A} has full rank and \underline{A} is a square matrix) then the inverse \underline{A}^{-1} is one of the generalized inverses.

~~Result~~ Note that a matrix can have infinitely many generalized inverses.

Result: Let \underline{A} be an $m \times n$ matrix with rank r .

If \underline{A} can be partitioned as below,

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{C}_{r \times r} & \underline{D}_{r \times (n-r)} \\ \underline{E}_{(m-r) \times r} & \underline{F}_{(m-r) \times (n-r)} \end{bmatrix} \text{ with } \text{rank}(\underline{A}) = \text{rank}(\underline{C}) = r$$

then one generalized inverse of \underline{A} is given by

$$\textcircled{2} \underline{A}^- = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{C}^{-1} & \underline{O}_{r \times (n-r)} \\ \underline{O}_{(m-r) \times r} & \underline{O}_{(m-r) \times (n-r)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: $\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

$\text{rank}(\underline{A}) = 2$, as the 3rd column is 2×3 twice the second column.

$$\underline{A} = \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\underline{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{D} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Formula says $\underline{A}^- = \left[\underline{C}^{-1} \ ; \ \underline{0} \right]$

$$\underline{C}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 0 & -1 \\ \hline 1 & 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$
 2×2

1st row = 2nd row + 3rd row

$\text{rank}(\underline{A}) = 2$

~~$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$~~

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\underline{H}_1 \quad \underline{A} \quad \underline{H}_1 \underline{A}$

$$\underline{H}_1 \underline{A} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

\underline{H}_2

$$\underline{H}_1 \underline{A} \underline{H}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{C}_{k \times k} & \underline{D}_{k \times (n-k)} \\ \underline{E}_{(m-k) \times k} & \underline{F}_{(m-k) \times (n-k)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now I can get the generalized inverse of \underline{A}

$$\text{by } \underline{A}^- = \underline{H}_1^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{C}^{-1} & \underline{0} \\ \underline{0} & \underline{0} \end{bmatrix} \underline{H}_2^{-1}$$

What are these matrices \underline{H}_1 and \underline{H}_2 .

$$\underline{H}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{I} \underline{x} = \underline{x}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{interchange 1st and 2nd column}]{} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{interchange 1st and 3rd column}]{} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{interchange 1st and 2nd row}]{} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{interchange 2nd and 3rd row}]{} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

these matrices are called permutation matrices as you permute rows and/or columns of an identity matrix.

Suppose \underline{X} is not full column rank.

If \underline{X} is full column rank $\Rightarrow \underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ is invertible

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

Suppose \underline{X} is not of full column rank

$\Rightarrow (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})$ is not invertible

but let $(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^-$ be the generalized inverse of $\underline{X}^T \underline{X}$.

Lemma: If \underline{G} and \underline{H} are generalized inverses of $\underline{X}^T \underline{X}$, then

$$(1) \underline{X} \underline{G} \underline{X}^T \underline{X} = \underline{X} \quad \underline{H} \underline{X}^T \underline{X} = \underline{X}$$

$$(2) \underline{X} \underline{G} \underline{X}^T = \underline{X} \underline{H} \underline{X}^T$$

claim: $(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^- \underline{X}^T$ is a generalized inverse of \underline{X} .

$\underline{X} (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^- \underline{X}^T \underline{X} = \underline{X} \Rightarrow (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^- \underline{X}^T$ is the generalized inverse of \underline{X} .

Then: $P = \underline{X} (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^- \underline{X}^T$ is the projection matrix onto $C(\underline{X})$.

If $\underline{v} \in C(\underline{X}) \Rightarrow \underline{v} = \underline{X} \underline{a}$ for some \underline{a}

$$\Rightarrow \underline{P} \underline{v} = \underbrace{\underline{X} (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^- \underline{X}^T \underline{X}}_{\underline{X}} \underline{a} = \underline{X} \underline{a} \quad [\text{by (1) of Lemma}] = \underline{v}$$

$$\underline{w} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}^T) \Rightarrow \underline{x}^T \underline{w} = \underline{0}$$

$$\underline{P} \underline{w} = \underline{x} (\underline{x}^T \underline{x})^{-1} \underline{x}^T \underline{w} = \underline{0}$$

Thm: Let $\underline{A} \underline{x} = \underline{c}$ be a system of equations and let \underline{G} be the generalized inverse of \underline{A} . Then $\tilde{\underline{x}}$ is a solution to the system $\underline{A} \underline{x} = \underline{c}$ if and only if there exists a vector \underline{z} s.t. $\tilde{\underline{x}} = \underline{G} \underline{c} + (\underline{I} - \underline{G} \underline{A}) \underline{z}$

In our case $\underline{A} = (\underline{x}^T \underline{x})$ $\underline{x} = \underline{\beta}$, $\underline{c} = \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$
 class of all solutions to the NLS

$$= \left\{ (\underline{x}^T \underline{x})^{-1} \underline{x}^T \underline{y} + (\underline{I} - (\underline{x}^T \underline{x})^{-1} \underline{x}^T \underline{x}) \underline{z} \right\} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{for all} \\ (\underline{x}^T \underline{x})^{-1} \\ \text{and} \\ \text{for} \\ \text{all } \underline{z} \end{array} \right\}$$

If $\hat{\underline{\beta}}_1$ and $\hat{\underline{\beta}}_2$ are two solutions to the

$$\text{NLS} \Rightarrow \underline{x}^T \underline{x} \hat{\underline{\beta}}_1 = \underline{x}^T \underline{y} \quad \dots \quad \textcircled{1}$$

$$\underline{x}^T \underline{x} \hat{\underline{\beta}}_2 = \underline{x}^T \underline{y} \quad \dots \quad \textcircled{2}$$

subtracting $\textcircled{2}$ from $\textcircled{1}$, we get

$$\underline{x}^T \underline{x} (\hat{\underline{\beta}}_1 - \hat{\underline{\beta}}_2) = \underline{0} \Rightarrow (\hat{\underline{\beta}}_1 - \hat{\underline{\beta}}_2) \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}^T \underline{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\underline{x})$$

$$\text{if } \underline{c} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}^T \underline{x}) \Rightarrow \underline{x}^T \underline{x} \underline{c} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \underline{c}^T \underline{x}^T \underline{x} \underline{c} = \underline{0} \\ \Rightarrow \|\underline{x} \underline{c}\|^2 = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \underline{x} \underline{c} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \underline{c} \in \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}).$$

Thm: If $C(\underline{w}) \subset C(\underline{x})$ and P_x and P_w are the projection matrices onto $C(\underline{x})$ and $C(\underline{w})$ respectively, then $P_x - P_w$ is the projection matrix onto $C((I - P_w)\underline{x})$

Ex: ~~(1)~~ ~~(2)~~ $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + e_i, \quad i=1, 2, 3, 4.$
 $x_1=1, x_2=2, x_3=3, x_4=4$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{y}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{X}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{\beta}} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \\ e_4 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{e}}$$

Model 1

Suppose I do not use the predictor and I fit the response only with an intercept.

$$\underline{y} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{w}} \delta + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \\ e_4 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{e}}$$

Model 2

$C(\underline{w}) \subset C(\underline{x})$ What $P_w = \underline{w} (\underline{w}^T \underline{w})^{-1} \underline{w}^T$
 $= \underline{1}_{4 \times 1} (\underline{1}_{4 \times 1}^T \underline{1}_{4 \times 1})^{-1} \underline{1}_{4 \times 1}^T$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \underline{1}_{4 \times 1} \underline{1}_{4 \times 1}^T$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} J_{4 \times 4}$$

Recap: We described what is the projection matrix P . It turns out that the projection matrix onto the $C(\underline{X})$ is $P = \underline{X}(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}^T$ if $\underline{X}^T \underline{X}$ has an inverse, o.w. $P = \underline{X}(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^- \underline{X}^T$ where $(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^-$ is a generalized inverse of $\underline{X}^T \underline{X}$.

Ex: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + e_i, \quad i=1, 2, 3, 4.$

$x_1=1, x_2=2, x_3=3, x_4=4.$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{X}} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \\ e_4 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \text{Model 1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{W}} \beta + \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{e}_1 \\ \tilde{e}_2 \\ \tilde{e}_3 \\ \tilde{e}_4 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \text{Model 2}$$

$P_{\underline{W}} = \frac{1}{4} \underline{J}_{4 \times 4}$. What is the predicted response based on Model 2?

prediction w.r.t. Model 2 is $P_{\underline{W}} \underline{y}$

$$\underline{P}_{\underline{W}} \underline{y} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.5 \\ 1.5 \\ 1.5 \\ 1.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let us look at Model 1

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \\ e_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_X = \underline{X} (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}^T = \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 4 & 1 & -2 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

the predicted responses based on Model 1 is

$$P_X \underline{y} = \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 4 & 1 & -2 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{7y_1 + 4y_2 + y_3 - 2y_4}{10} \\ \frac{4y_1 + 3y_2 + 2y_3 + y_4}{10} \\ \frac{y_1 + 2y_2 + 3y_3 + 4y_4}{10} \\ \frac{-2y_1 + y_2 + 4y_3 + 7y_4}{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X} \underline{\beta} + \underline{e} \longrightarrow \text{Model 1}$$

$$\underline{y} = \underline{W} \underline{\gamma} + \underline{\tilde{e}} \longrightarrow \text{Model 2}$$

Qn: When will the predicted responses from two models will be the same?

Ans: $C(\underline{W}) = C(\underline{X})$ then $P_X \underline{y} = P_W \underline{y}$

In that case the two models are known to be equivalent and we call one model as the reparametrization of the other model.

Def: Two linear models $\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{e}$, where \underline{X} is an $n \times p$ design matrix and $\underline{y} = \underline{W}\underline{\gamma} + \underline{\tilde{e}}$ where \underline{W} is an $n \times t$ matrix are equivalent iff

$C(\underline{X}) = C(\underline{W})$. If this holds, then

$$\textcircled{1} \underline{P}_X = \underline{P}_W \quad \textcircled{2} \underline{\hat{y}} = \underline{P}_X \underline{y} = \underline{P}_W \underline{y} \quad \textcircled{3} \underline{\hat{e}} = (\underline{I} - \underline{P}_X) \underline{y} = (\underline{I} - \underline{P}_W) \underline{y}$$

Example: 1 way ANOVA.

$$y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + e_{ij}, \quad i=1, 2, 3; \quad j=1, \dots, n \rightarrow \text{Model 1}$$

$$y_{ij} = \theta_i + \tilde{e}_{ij}, \quad i=1, 2, 3; \quad j=1, \dots, n \rightarrow \text{Model 2}$$

Model 1:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_{11} \\ y_{12} \\ \vdots \\ y_{1n} \\ y_{21} \\ \vdots \\ y_{2n} \\ y_{31} \\ \vdots \\ y_{3n} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n & \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{1}_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{X}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{\beta}} + \underline{e}$$

Model 2:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_{11} \\ y_{1n} \\ y_{21} \\ \vdots \\ y_{2n} \\ y_{31} \\ \vdots \\ y_{3n} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{0}_n & \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{0}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{1}_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{W}} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \theta_3 \end{pmatrix} + \underline{\tilde{e}}$$

Is $C(\underline{x}) = C(\underline{w})$?

$C(\underline{x}) = C(\underline{w})$ as they have the last three columns identical. The first column in \underline{x} can be written as a sum of the last three columns.

~~⊖~~ $\underline{P}_x = \underline{P}_w$ and thus the predicted responses will also be the same.

$\mu + \alpha_i = \delta_i \rightarrow$ this reparameterization gives Model 2 from Model 1.

Ex: $i=1, 2; j=1, \dots, n$.

Model 1: $y_{ij} = \beta_0^{(i)} + \beta_1^{(i)} x_{ij} + e_{ij}$

there are two groups of students, $i=1, 2$.

In ~~for~~ each group we are including n students and we observe their heights and weights.

x_{ij} = weight of the j th student in the i th group.

y_{ij} = height of the j th student in the i th group.

regression coefficients are specific to the group

$i=1, 2$.

Model 2:
$$d_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i=1 \text{ (for group 1)} \\ 1 & \text{if } i=2 \text{ (group 2)} \end{cases}$$

$$y_{ij} = \delta_0 + \delta_1 x_{ij} + \delta_2 d_{ij} + \delta_3 d_{ij} x_{ij} + \tilde{e}_{ij}$$

⊙ This regression model (Model 2) takes the following forms for groups 1 and 2

For group 1,
$$y_{ij} = \delta_0 + \delta_1 x_{ij} + \tilde{e}_{ij}$$

For group 2,
$$y_{ij} = (\delta_0 + \delta_2) + (\delta_1 + \delta_3) x_{ij} + \tilde{e}_{ij}$$

If I fit Model 1 and Model 2 to the same data, do I get the same predicted responses?
Or are they equivalent?

Model 1:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_{11} \\ \vdots \\ y_{1n} \\ y_{21} \\ \vdots \\ y_{2n} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & x_{1n} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & x_{21} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & x_{2n} \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{X}} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0^{(1)} \\ \beta_1^{(1)} \\ \beta_0^{(2)} \\ \beta_1^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} + \underline{e}$$

Model 2:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_{11} \\ \vdots \\ y_{1n} \\ y_{21} \\ \vdots \\ y_{2n} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & x_{1n} & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & x_{21} & 1 & x_{21} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{2n} & 1 & x_{2n} \end{bmatrix}}_{\underline{W}} \begin{pmatrix} \delta_0 \\ \delta_1 \\ \delta_2 \\ \delta_3 \end{pmatrix} + \underline{e}$$

1st column in \underline{w} = 1st column in \underline{x} + 3rd column in \underline{x}

2nd column in \underline{w} = 2nd column in \underline{x} + 4th column in \underline{x}

the last two columns in \underline{x} and \underline{w} are same.

$$\Rightarrow C(\underline{x}) = C(\underline{w})$$

these two models are reparametrizations of each other.

Now recall NLS $\underline{x}^T \underline{x} \underline{\beta} = \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$

it has a unique soln. when $K(\underline{x}) = p$ [where \odot \underline{x} is $n \times p$ matrix]

when $K(\underline{x}) < p$ it has infinitely many solutions.

~~If an equation~~ If the NLS has multiple solutions then we can't precisely estimate the parameter $\underline{\beta}$ from the data in the sense that the parameter is not identifiable.

~~Identifiability~~ Identifiability: The parameterization $\underline{\beta}$ is identifiable if for any $\underline{\beta}_1, \underline{\beta}_2$,

$$\underline{x} \underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{x} \underline{\beta}_2 \Rightarrow \underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{\beta}_2$$

$$E[\underline{y}] = \underline{x} \underline{\beta}$$

Knowing $E[\underline{y}] = \underline{x} \underline{\beta}$ means knowing $\underline{\beta}$.

A difference in the parameter values should imply \odot

a difference in the mean.

$$y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + e_{ij} \quad E[e_{ij}] = 0 \quad \begin{matrix} i=1, 2, 3 \\ j=1, \dots, n \end{matrix}$$

$$E[y_{ij}] = \mu + \alpha_i = (\mu + c) + (\alpha_i - c)$$

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X} \underline{\beta} + \underline{e}, \quad \underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{1}_n & \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n \\ \underline{1}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{0}_n & \underline{1}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{\beta}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \mu + c \\ \alpha_1 - c \\ \alpha_2 - c \\ \alpha_3 - c \end{pmatrix} \quad \underline{\beta}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{parameter } \underline{\beta}.$$

$\underline{X} \underline{\beta}_2 = \underline{X} \underline{\beta}_1$ although $\underline{\beta}_1 \neq \underline{\beta}_2$. This ~~model~~ is not identifiable.

Ex! Consider a linear model $\kappa(\underline{x}) = \underline{\beta}$

If $\underline{X} \underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{X} \underline{\beta}_2$. Premultiply both sides by

$$(\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}^T \Rightarrow (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}^T \underline{X} \underline{\beta}_1 = (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}^T \underline{X} \underline{\beta}_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{\beta}_2$$

When $\kappa(\underline{x}) = \underline{\beta}$ then $\underline{\beta}$ becomes identifiable.

Def! A vector valued function $g(\underline{\beta})$ is identifiable if $\underline{X} \underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{X} \underline{\beta}_2 \Rightarrow g(\underline{\beta}_1) = g(\underline{\beta}_2)$.

Our specific focus lies on the identifiability of linear functions $g(\underline{\beta}) = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$.

thus $\underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$ is identifiable if

$$\underline{X} \underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{X} \underline{\beta}_2 \text{ implies } \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}_1 = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}_2$$

from any model the functions of the parameters which are reasonable to estimate are the identifiable functions.

Def - An estimator $t(\underline{y})$ is an unbiased estimator for the function $\underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$ iff

$$E[t(\underline{y})] = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta} \text{ for all } \underline{\beta}.$$

An estimator $t(\underline{y})$ is a linear estimator in \underline{y} iff $t(\underline{y}) = c + \underline{a}^T \underline{y}$ for some constants

$$c, a_1, \dots, a_n, \quad \underline{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

A function $\underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$ is linearly estimable iff there exists a linear unbiased estimator for $\underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$.

$\underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$ is linearly estimable

$$\Rightarrow \exists \text{ some } c + \underline{a}^T \underline{y} \text{ s.t. } E[c + \underline{a}^T \underline{y}] = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta} \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

for all $\underline{\beta}$

think of the linear model

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X} \underline{\beta} + \underline{e} \text{ and assume } E[\underline{e}] = \underline{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow E[\underline{y}] = \underline{X} \underline{\beta}$$

(*) implies $E[c + a^T \underline{y}] = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta} \quad \forall \underline{\beta}$

$\Rightarrow c + \underline{a}^T \underline{x} \underline{\beta} = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta} \quad \forall \underline{\beta}$

$\Rightarrow c = 0$ and $\underline{a}^T \underline{x} = \underline{\lambda}^T \Rightarrow \underline{\lambda} = \underline{x}^T \underline{a}$

$\Rightarrow \underline{\lambda} \in C(\underline{x}^T)$

A linear function $\underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$ is linearly estimable if $\underline{\lambda} \in C(\underline{x}^T)$.

Ex: $i=1, 2, 3; \quad j=1, \dots, n_i, \quad n_1=3, n_2=2, n_3=1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{11} \\ y_{12} \\ y_{13} \\ y_{21} \\ y_{22} \\ y_{31} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} e_{11} \\ e_{12} \\ e_{13} \\ e_{21} \\ e_{22} \\ e_{31} \end{pmatrix}$$

$y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + e_{ij}$ ~~$i=1$~~ $i=1, n_1=3$
 $i=2, n_2=2$
 $i=3, n_3=1$

whether the following functions are linearly estimable

1. α_1 2. $\alpha_1 - \alpha_2$ 3. $\mu + \alpha_1$ 4. $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - 2\alpha_3$.

$$\underline{X}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

you can check that the basis of $C(\underline{x}^T)$

~~is~~ ~~is~~ in $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.

$$a_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow a_3 = 0$, $a_2 = 0$ the second equation gives $a_1 = 0$.
indeed they are linearly independent.

$$\alpha_1 = (0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0) \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{\beta}} = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta} \quad \underline{\lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's check if $\underline{\lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in C(\underline{x}^T)$.

If $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ belongs to the $C(\underline{x}^T)$ then it must be written as a linear combination of the basis of $C(\underline{x}^T)$

$$a_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \exists a_1, a_2, a_3.$$

the last equation $\Rightarrow a_3 = 0$,

second to last equation $\Rightarrow a_2 = 0$

first equation $\Rightarrow a_1 + a_2 + a_3 = 0 \Rightarrow a_1 = 0$

~~is~~ second equation $a_1 = 1$

(back ①)

Hence, $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \notin C(\underline{x}^T) \Rightarrow \alpha_1$ is not linearly estimable.

$$2. \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 = (0 \ 1 \ -1 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} = \underline{\lambda}^T \underline{\beta}$$

$$\underline{\lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{my job is to see if}$$

$$\underline{\lambda} \in C(\underline{x}^T)$$

$$\text{let } \underline{\lambda} \in C(\underline{x}^T) \Rightarrow \exists a_1, a_2, a_3$$

$$a_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{last equation} \Rightarrow a_3 = 0$$

$$\text{second to last equation} \Rightarrow a_2 = -1$$

$$\text{second equation} \Rightarrow a_1 = 1$$

first eqn. $\Rightarrow a_1 + a_2 + a_3 = 0$ which has been satisfied as $a_1 = 1$ and $a_2 = -1, a_3 = 0$

$\Rightarrow \underline{\lambda} \in C(\underline{x}^T) \Rightarrow \alpha_1 - \alpha_2$ is linearly estimable

back ②