# estimating the dimension of a linear model 

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A method for consistent estimation of the order of a linear model is derived in the paper. The procedure is analogous to modern criteria which are used in time series analysis. Some results of a simulation of polynomial regression are presented.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Consider a regression model

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i}+\ldots+\beta_{p} x_{i}^{p}+e_{i}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, N,
$$

where $\mathbf{e}=\left(e_{1}, \ldots, e_{N}\right)^{\prime} \sim N\left(0, \sigma^{2} I\right), x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}$ are given numbers and $\beta_{0}, \ldots, \beta_{p} . \sigma^{2}$ are unknown parameters such that $\beta_{p} \neq 0, \sigma^{2}>0$. The problem is to estimate the number $p+1$ of regression parameters $\beta_{0}, \ldots, \beta_{p}$, when the pairs $\left(Y_{1}, x_{1}\right), \ldots$ $\ldots,\left(Y_{N}, x_{N}\right)$ are given. Usually, only indirect methods for determining the number of parameters are used. Such procedures are based on a set of tests of significance concerning the estimates of $\beta_{0}, \ldots, \beta_{p}$. However, the application of a long series of tests is rather an art than an objective statistical method. The statisticians also considered the estimating of the order as a multiple decision problem (see Anderson [4], for example). But it seems that these results have not become popular.

Another idea was proposed by Mallows [6]. Consider a linear model with $p$ unknown regression parameters. If $p$ grows, the bias in determining mean value is reduced, whereas the variances of estimators of parameters are larger. Denote $s_{p}^{2}$ the unbiased estimator for $\sigma^{2}$ in the model with $p$ parameters and $\hat{\sigma}^{2}$ a suitable estimator for $\sigma^{2}$. Mallows advises to take the model which minimizes

$$
C_{p}=(N-p) s_{p}^{2} / \hat{\sigma}^{2}+2 p-N .
$$

Similar problems appear also in time series analysis. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{N}$ be a stationary
autoregressive process generated by

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{t}=a_{1} X_{t-1}+\ldots+a_{p} X_{t-p}+e_{t} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $e_{t}$ are again independent $N\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right)$ variables. The modern procedures for determining $p$ are based on following ideas.

Assume that $0 \leqq p \leqq K$, where $K$ is a given number. Denote $s_{k}^{2}$ an estimator of $\sigma^{2}$ in model (1) when $k$ parameters $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}$ are taken into account. Usually, $s_{k}^{2}$ is the maximum likelihood estimator of $\sigma^{2}$. For $N \rightarrow \infty$ one can expect that $s_{k}^{2}$ approaches to $\sigma^{2}$ if $k \geqq p$, whereas $s_{k}^{2}$ remains larger than $\sigma^{2}$ if $k<p$. Nevertheless, the random behaviour of $s_{k}^{2}$ does not allow to determine the beginning of the asymptotically constant part of the function $s_{k}^{2}, k=0,1, \ldots, K$. The same problems arise in the variate difference method (see Anderson [4]).

Introduce a function

$$
g_{N}(k)=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+q_{k, N}\right), \quad k=0,1, \ldots, K
$$

where $q_{k, N}$ penalizes the growing number $k$ of parameters in the model. Assume that $q_{k, N} \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$ for every fixed $k=0,1, \ldots, K$ and that $q_{k, N}$ is an increasing function of $k$, when $N$ is fixed. Then the inequality $g_{N}(k)>g_{N}(p)$ for $k<p$ will asymptotically hold and, for a properly chosen $q_{k, N}$, the values of $g_{N}(k)$ for $k>p$ will also be greater than $g_{N}(p)$. For this reason we can estimate $p$ by such a value $k=\hat{p}$, which minimizes the function $g_{N}(k), k=0,1, \ldots, K$. Many authors use $\ln g_{N}(k)=G_{N}(k)$ instead of $g_{N}(k)$. Then they have the function

$$
G_{N}(k)=\ln s_{k}^{2}+Q_{k . N}
$$

where $Q_{k, N}=\ln \left(1+q_{k, N}\right)$. For example, Akaike's FPE criterion [1] as well as his AIC criterion [2] lead to

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{N}(k)=\ln s_{k}^{2}+2 k N^{-1} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Schwarz [8] and Rissanen [7] derived the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{N}(k)=\ln s_{k}^{2}+k N^{-1} \ln N \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hannan and Quinn [5] proposed

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{N}(k)=\ln s_{k}^{2}+2 k c N^{-1} \ln \ln N \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c>1$ is a constant. It was proved that (2) does not give the consistent estimator of the order of model (1) (see Shibata [10]), while the procedures based on (3) and (4) are consistent.

The aim of our paper is to derive by elementary means a similar method for consistent estimation of the order of a regression model and to present some results from simulated data.

## 2. PRELIMINARIES

In this section we introduce some general assertions which will be needed in the main part of the paper.

Theorem 1. Let $\xi$ be an $n$-dimensional random vector with $\mathbf{E} \xi=\mu, \operatorname{Var} \xi=\boldsymbol{V}$. Then we have for every $n \times n$ matrix $\boldsymbol{A}$

$$
\mathbf{E} \xi^{\prime} \boldsymbol{A} \xi=\operatorname{Tr} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{V}+\mu^{\prime} \boldsymbol{A} \mu
$$

If $\xi$ has a normal distribution, then the formula

$$
\operatorname{Var} \xi^{\prime} \boldsymbol{A} \xi=2 \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{A V})^{2}+4 \mu^{\prime} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{V} \boldsymbol{A} \mu
$$

holds.
Proof. See Searle [9], pp. 55-57.
Theorem 2. Let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}$ be a sample from a distribution with finite moments $\mu_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \mu_{2 h}^{\prime}$. Denote

Then

$$
N^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X} \xrightarrow{P} \mathbf{M}
$$

as $N \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof. The assertion is a consequence of the law of large numbers.
It happens also very often that $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}$ are equidistant points from a fixed interval $\langle a, b\rangle,-\infty<a<b<\infty$, such that $x_{1}=a, x_{N}=b$. If $N \rightarrow \infty$, then $N^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{M}$ again holds. This time the elements of matrix $\boldsymbol{M}$ are

$$
\mu_{j}^{\prime}=(b-a)^{-1} \int_{a}^{b} x^{j} \mathrm{~d} x
$$

i.e. the moments of the rectangular distribution on $\langle a, b\rangle$.

Theorem 3. Write

$$
\mathbf{X}=\left(\mathbf{X}_{1}, \mathbf{X}_{2}\right), \quad \boldsymbol{M}=\left|\begin{array}{ll}
\boldsymbol{M}_{11}, & \boldsymbol{M}_{12} \\
\boldsymbol{M}_{21}, & \boldsymbol{M}_{22}
\end{array}\right|,
$$

where $\boldsymbol{X}_{1}$ is a $N \times k$ block and $\boldsymbol{M}_{11}$ is a $k \times k$ block, $k \leqq h$. Let $\boldsymbol{M}$ be regular. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
N^{-1}\left[X_{2}^{\prime} X_{2}-X_{2}^{\prime} X_{1}\left(X_{1}^{\prime} X_{1}\right)^{-1} X_{1}^{\prime} X_{2}\right] \xrightarrow{P} M_{k}, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{M}_{k}=\boldsymbol{M}_{22}-\boldsymbol{M}_{21} \boldsymbol{M}_{11}^{-1} \boldsymbol{M}_{12}$ is a positive definite matrix.

Proof. Let $U$ be a random variable with moments $\mu_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \mu_{2 h}^{\prime}$. For any vector $\boldsymbol{c}=\left(c_{0}, \ldots, c_{h}\right)^{\prime}$ we have

$$
0 \leqq \mathrm{E}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{h} c_{j} U^{j}\right)^{2}=\sum_{j=0}^{h} \sum_{k=0}^{h} c_{j} c_{k} \mu_{j+k}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime} \mathbf{M c}
$$

Therefore, $\boldsymbol{M}$ is a positive semidefinite matrix. We assume $\boldsymbol{M}$ to be regular and so it is positive definite. Then $\boldsymbol{M}_{11}$ as well as $\boldsymbol{M}_{k}$ are also positive definite matrices (see Anděl [3], p. 65 for details). Relation (5) follows from the law of large numbers.

Let us remark that $\mathbf{M}$ is regular if and only if random variables $1, U, U^{2}, \ldots, U^{\prime \prime}$ are linearly independent a.s.
If $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}$ are equidistant points from $\langle a, b\rangle$, then an analogous assertion to Theorem 3 holds. The assumption that $\boldsymbol{M}$ is regular is fulfilled automatically.

## 3. LINEAR MODEL

Consider a linear model
(6)

$$
\mathbf{Y}=\boldsymbol{X} \beta+\mathbf{e},
$$

where $\boldsymbol{Y}=\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{N}\right)^{\prime}$ is a vector of observations, $\boldsymbol{X}$ is a given $N \times p$ matrix and $\mathbf{e}=\left(e_{1}, \ldots, e_{N}\right)^{\prime}$ is a vector of disturbances. Assume that the rank of the matrix $\boldsymbol{X}$ is $\mathrm{r}(\boldsymbol{X})=p$ and that $\mathbf{e} \sim N\left(0, \sigma^{2} I\right)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{Y} \sim N\left(\boldsymbol{X} \beta, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the least squares estimator $\boldsymbol{b}$ of $\beta$ is $\boldsymbol{b}=\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{Y}$. It is well known that

$$
\mathbf{b} \sim N\left[\beta, \sigma^{2}\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1}\right] .
$$

The unbiased estimator for $\sigma^{2}$ is

$$
s_{p}^{2}=(N-p)^{-1}(\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{X} \mathbf{b})^{\prime}(\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{X} \mathbf{b})
$$

and we shall use the fact that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(N-p) s_{p}^{2} / \sigma^{2} \sim \chi_{N-p}^{2} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Write $\boldsymbol{X}$ in the form $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}, \boldsymbol{X}_{2}\right)$, where $\boldsymbol{X}_{1}$ is a $N \times k$ block, $k<p$. Denote $\beta=\left(\beta^{1 \prime}, \beta^{2}\right)^{\prime}$, where $\beta^{1}$ has $k$ components. If we try to fit to $\mathbf{Y}$ a wrong model

$$
\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{X}_{1} \beta^{1}+\mathbf{e},
$$

then our estimator for $\beta^{1}$ is

$$
\mathbf{b}^{1}=\left(X_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{Y}
$$

and our estimator for $\sigma^{2}$ takes form

$$
s_{k}^{2}=(N-k)^{-1}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}-\mathbf{X}_{1} \mathbf{b}^{1}\right)^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}-\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{b}^{\mathbf{1}}\right) .
$$

From here we get $s_{k}^{2}=(N-k)^{-1} \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{A Y}$, where $\boldsymbol{A}=\boldsymbol{I}-\boldsymbol{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime}$. The matrix $\boldsymbol{A}$ is symmetric and idempotent. The same is true for $\boldsymbol{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime}$. From $\mathrm{r}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}\right)=k$ it follows that $\mathrm{r}\left[\boldsymbol{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime}\right]=k$ and then $\operatorname{Tr} \boldsymbol{A}=\mathrm{r}(\boldsymbol{A})=N-k$. Denote $\sigma_{k}^{2}=E s_{k}^{2}$. With respect to (7) we get from Theorem 1 that

$$
\begin{align*}
& \quad \sigma_{k}^{2}=\sigma^{2}+(N-k)^{-1} \beta^{\prime} \mathbf{X}^{\prime}\left[I-X_{1}\left(\mathbf{X}_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime}\right] \mathbf{X} \beta=  \tag{9}\\
& =\sigma^{2}+(N-k)^{-1} \beta^{2 \prime}\left[\mathbf{X}_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{2}-\boldsymbol{X}_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{2}\right] \beta^{2} .
\end{align*}
$$

Analogously,

$$
\begin{gather*}
\operatorname{Var} s_{k}^{2}=2(N-k)^{-1} \sigma^{4}+  \tag{10}\\
+4(N-k)^{-2} \sigma^{2} \beta^{2}\left[\boldsymbol{X}_{2}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{2}-\boldsymbol{X}_{2}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{2}\right] \beta^{2} .
\end{gather*}
$$

Now, consider an overfitted model with $k>p$ parameters

$$
\mathbf{Y}=\boldsymbol{z}_{\gamma}+\mathbf{e},
$$

where $\boldsymbol{Z}=\left(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{X}_{3}\right)$ and $\gamma=\left(\beta^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$. Obviously, $\boldsymbol{X}_{3}$ is a $N \times(k-p)$ matrix and $\lambda$ has $k-p$ components. Let $\mathrm{r}(\boldsymbol{Z})=k$. Then $\boldsymbol{g}=\left(\boldsymbol{Z}^{\prime} \mathbf{Z}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{Z}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}$ is an unbiased estimator for $\gamma$ and if we put

$$
s_{k}^{2}=(N-k)^{-1}(\boldsymbol{Y}-\boldsymbol{Z} \boldsymbol{g})^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{Y}-\boldsymbol{Z} \boldsymbol{g})
$$

then $s_{k}^{2}$ is an unbiased estimator for $\sigma^{2}$. Again, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
(N-k) s_{k}^{2} / \sigma^{2} \sim \gamma_{N-k}^{2} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is quite analogous to (8).
Theorem 4. Assume that there exist such positive definite matrices $\boldsymbol{M}_{0}, \boldsymbol{M}_{1}, \ldots$ ..., $\boldsymbol{M}_{p-1}$ that

$$
N^{-1}\left[\boldsymbol{X}_{2}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{2}-\boldsymbol{X}_{2}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{2}\right] \rightarrow \boldsymbol{M}_{k}
$$

for $k=0,1, \ldots, p-1$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$. Define a function

$$
A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+q_{k, N}\right), \quad k=0,1, \ldots, K,
$$

where $q_{k, N}=k w_{N}$ and $w_{N} \rightarrow 0, N^{1 / 2} w_{N} \rightarrow \infty$ for $N \rightarrow \infty$. Then

$$
\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p} \text { for } k=0,1, \ldots, p-1, p+1, \ldots, K\right) \rightarrow 1
$$

if $N \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof. Denote
(12) $\quad \delta_{k}=\lim _{N \rightarrow \infty}(N-k)^{-1} \beta^{2 \prime}\left[\boldsymbol{X}_{2}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{2}-\mathbf{X}_{2}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{2}\right] \beta^{2}$,
$k=0,1, \ldots, p-1$. Because we assume that the order of our model is exactly $p$, we have $\beta^{2} \neq 0$ and thus $\delta_{0}, \ldots, \delta_{p-1}$ exist and are positive. Formulas (9) and (10) imply

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma_{k}^{2} \rightarrow \sigma^{2}+\delta_{k}, \quad \operatorname{Var} s_{k}^{2}=O\left(N^{-1}\right), \quad k=0,1, \ldots, p-1 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Formulas (8) and (11) give
(14)

$$
\sigma_{k}^{2}=\sigma^{2}, \quad \operatorname{Var} s_{k}^{2}=2(N-k)^{-1} \sigma^{4}, \quad k=p, p+1, \ldots, K .
$$

Denote

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \eta_{k}=\left(s_{p}^{2}-\sigma^{2}\right)\left(1+q_{p, N}\right)-\left(s_{k}^{2}-\sigma_{k}^{2}\right)\left(1+q_{k, N}\right), \\
& \varepsilon_{k}=\sigma_{k}^{2}\left(1+q_{k, N}\right)-\sigma^{2}\left(1+q_{p, N}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $k \neq p$. Then

$$
\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p}\right)=\mathrm{P}\left(n_{k}<\varepsilon_{k}\right)
$$

Obviously, $\mathrm{E} \eta_{k}=0$. For $k<p$ we have $\varepsilon_{k} \rightarrow \delta_{k}$ for $N \rightarrow \infty$. Denote $\delta^{*}=$ $=\min \left(\delta_{0}, \ldots, \delta_{p-1}\right)$. There exists such $N_{k}$ that for $N \geqq N_{k}$ the inequality $\varepsilon_{k}>$ $>\delta^{*} / 2>0$ holds. For $k>p$ we see that $\varepsilon_{k}=\sigma^{2}\left(q_{k, N}-q_{p, N}\right)>0$. Consider $N \geqq$ $\geqq N^{*}=\max \left(N_{0}, \ldots, N_{p-1}\right)$. Using Tchebyschev inequality we obtain

$$
\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p}\right) \geqq \mathrm{P}\left(\left|\eta_{k}\right|<\varepsilon_{k}\right) \geqq 1-\varepsilon_{k}^{-2} \operatorname{Var} \eta_{k}
$$

Since for any two random variables $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}$ with finite second moments we have

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left(\xi_{1} \pm \xi_{2}\right) \leqq 2 \operatorname{Var} \xi_{1}+2 \operatorname{Var} \check{\zeta}_{2}
$$

we can write
(15) $\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p}\right) \geqq 1-2 \varepsilon_{k}^{-2}\left[\left(1+q_{p, N}\right)^{2} \operatorname{Var} s_{p}^{2}+\left(1+q_{k, N}\right)^{2} \operatorname{Var} s_{k}^{2}\right]$.

If $k<p$, then $\varepsilon_{k}>\delta^{*} / 2$. From (13) and (14) we have $\operatorname{Var} s_{k}^{2}=O\left(N^{-1}\right)$, $\operatorname{Var} s_{p}^{2}=$ $=O\left(N^{-1}\right)$, and thus formula (15) implies $\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p}\right) \rightarrow 1$.

If $k>p$, then using (14) we get from (15)

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p}\right) \geqq \\
\geqq 1-4\left(q_{k, N}-q_{p, N}\right)^{-2}\left[(N-p)^{-1}\left(1+q_{p, N}\right)^{2}+(N-k)^{-1}\left(1+q_{k, N}\right)^{2}\right] .
\end{gathered}
$$

Inserting $q_{k, N}=k w_{N}$ we obtain $\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p}\right) \rightarrow 1$.
The assertion that $\mathrm{P}\left(A_{k}>A_{p}\right.$ simultaneously for all $\left.k \neq p\right) \rightarrow 1$ follows from Bonferroni inequality.

Theorem 3 shows that the condition $\delta_{k}>0$ is fulfilled under quite general assumptions. The existence of positive limits of (12) for $k=0,1, \ldots, K$ can be proved also for other situations when $x_{i}$ are chosen in a systematic way. It can be seen from the proof of Theorem 4, that the assertion remains true even under weaker conditions, namely if $\operatorname{Var} s_{k}^{2}=O\left(N^{-1}\right)$ and if for the smallest eigenvalue $\lambda_{N}$ of the matrix

$$
N^{-1}\left[X_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{2}-\boldsymbol{X}_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{1}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}_{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}_{2}\right]
$$

the relation

$$
\liminf _{N \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{N}>0
$$

holds for all $k=0,1, \ldots, p-1$.

Theorem 4 shows that the variable $k=\hat{p}$ which minimizes the function $A_{k}$ is a consistent estimator of the order of the given linear model. It remains to choose the function $q_{k, N}$. We can take

$$
q_{k, N}=c k / N^{\alpha}
$$

where $c>0$ and $\alpha \in\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ are constants. In a simulation study (see Section 4) quite satisfactory results were obtained for $c=1, \alpha=0.25$.

Let us consider in detail a special case of model (6), the classical linear regression

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i}+e_{i}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, N
$$

Denote

$$
\bar{x}=N^{-1} \sum x_{i}, \quad s_{x}^{2}=(N-1)^{-1} \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2} .
$$

Inserting into above formulas we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sigma_{0}^{2}=\sigma^{2}+\left(\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} \bar{x}\right)^{2}+(N-1) N^{-1} \beta_{1}^{2} s_{x}^{2} \\
& \sigma_{1}^{2}=\sigma^{2}+\beta_{1}^{2} s_{x}^{2} \\
\operatorname{Var} s_{0}^{2}= & 2 N^{-1} \sigma^{4}+4 N^{-1} \sigma^{2}\left[\left(\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} \bar{x}\right)^{2}+N^{-1}(N-1) \beta_{1}^{2} s_{x}^{2}\right] \\
\operatorname{Var} s_{1}^{2}= & 4(N-1)^{-1} \beta_{1}^{2} \sigma^{2} s_{x}^{2}+2(N-1)^{-1} \sigma^{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

We have

$$
\sigma_{0}^{2}-\sigma_{1}^{2}=\left(\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} \bar{x}\right)^{2}-N^{-1} \beta_{1}^{2} s_{x}^{2}
$$

If $\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} \bar{x}=0$, then $\sigma_{0}^{2}<\sigma_{1}^{2}$. It demonstrates a little surprising fact that $\sigma_{k}^{2}$ may not be decreasing for $k \doteq 0,1, \ldots, p-1$.

## 4. A SIMULATION STUDY

A realization of the model

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=2-x_{i}-2 x_{i}^{2}+x_{i}^{3}+e_{i} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$


for $x_{i}=-1 \cdot 5(0 \cdot 1) 1 \cdot 5$ with the corresponding theoretical regression function is shown in Fig. 1. The variables $e_{i}$ are pseudorandom normal numbers with sample mean 0.032 and sample variance 0.408 . The values of $s_{k}^{2}$ and $A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-0.25}\right)$ are given in Table 1 and in Figures 2 and 3. Fig. 3 clearly shows a minimum for $k=4$ parameters. The estimated function is

$$
y=1.915-1.302 x-1.866 x^{2}+1.224 x^{3}
$$

and the corresponding unbiased estimate for $\sigma^{2}$ is $s_{4}^{2}=0 \cdot 444$.

Table 1.

| $k$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $s_{k}^{2}$ | 2.997 | 2.892 | 2.813 | 0.946 | 0.444 | 0.451 | 0.469 | 0.436 | 0.443 |
| $A_{k}$ | 2.997 | 4.118 | 5.197 | 2.149 | 1.197 | 1.407 | 1.662 | 1.729 | 1.945 |



Fig. 2.


Fig. 3.

Other results concerning model (16) are collected in Tables 2-5. Each row corresponds to 100 simulations. $N$ is the number of equidistant points from $\langle-1.5,1.5\rangle$. The first point is $-1 \cdot 5$, the last one is $1 \cdot 5$. We used functions $A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+c k N^{-\alpha}\right)$ and $A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+c k N^{-\alpha} \ln N\right)$ with $c>0, \alpha \in(0,0 \cdot 5)$.

Tables 2 a and 2 b show that in the case of model (16) for $N=31$ and $\sigma=0.65$ the results do not depend too much on $\alpha$.

If we take $c=1, \alpha=0.25$ and $N=31$ or $N=61$, then we can see from Tables 3a, 3b, 4a and 4b that for small $\sigma$ both functions $A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-0.25}\right)$ and $A_{k}=$ $=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-0.25} \ln N\right)$ give similar results, whereas for large $\sigma$ the former is substantially better than the latter.

Table 2a. $\quad N=31, \sigma=0 \cdot 65, A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-\alpha}\right)$

|  | $\hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\alpha$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.05 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 94 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| 0.15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 3 | 2 | 0 |
| 0.25 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 3 | 2 | 0 |
| 0.35 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 94 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| 0.45 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 91 | 5 | 3 | 1 |

Table 2b. $N=31, \sigma=0.65, A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-\alpha} \ln N\right)$

|  | $\hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\alpha$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.05 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 95 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.15 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 95 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.25 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 95 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.35 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 93 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| 0.45 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 94 | 3 | 1 | 0 |

Table 3a. $\quad N=31, A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-0.25}\right)$

|  | $\hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\sigma$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 3 | 2 | 0 |
| 0.25 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 3 | 2 | 0 |
| 0.50 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 87 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 0.75 | 0 | 0 | 28 | 68 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| 1.00 | 6 | 0 | 50 | 43 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1.25 | 21 | 0 | 47 | 29 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 1.50 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 3b. $\quad N=31, A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-0.25} \ln N\right)$

|  | $\hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\sigma$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.25 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 98 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.50 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 98 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.75 | 0 | 0 | 17 | 82 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1.00 | 8 | 0 | 40 | 50 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.25 | 41 | 0 | 36 | 23 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.50 | 72 | 0 | 19 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 |


| Table 4a. | $N=61, A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-20.5}\right)$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | $\hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| $\sigma$ |  | $7+$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.25 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.50 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.75 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 99 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.00 | 0 | 0 | 18 | 82 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.25 | 0 | 0 | 52 | 48 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.50 | 9 | 0 | 65 | 26 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 4b. $N=61, A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-0.25} \ln N\right)$

|  | $\hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ | 1 | $7+$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.25 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.50 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.75 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 94 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.00 | 5 | 0 | 42 | 53 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.25 | 60 | 0 | 28 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1.50 | 89 | 0 | 8 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 5 summarizes some results with varying $c$. Again, the dependence on $c$ does not seem to be very strong - only the value $c=0 \cdot 5$ leads to a larger number of overfitted models.

Table 5. $N=31, \sigma=0.65, A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k c N^{-0.25}\right)$

| $\boldsymbol{c}$ | $\hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $7+$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 91 | 5 | 3 | 1 |
| 1.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 3 | 2 | 0 |
| 1.5 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 95 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| 2.0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 94 | 3 | 1 | 0 |

The dependence of the estimates on the choice of a model was investigated for the following models:
I. $Y_{i}=0 \cdot 2+0 \cdot 5 x_{i}+0 \cdot 2 x_{i}^{2}+e_{i}$;
II. $Y_{i}=0.2+0.5 x_{i}+0.5 x_{i}^{2}+e_{i}$;
III. $Y_{i}=0.2+0.5 x_{i}+1.0 x_{i}^{2}+e_{i}$;
IV. $Y_{i}=0 \cdot 2+1 \cdot 0 x_{i}+0 \cdot 2 x_{i}^{2}+e_{i}$.

Here $e_{i} \sim N\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right)$. The corresponding regression functions for $1 \leqq x \leqq 6$ are given in Fig. 4. The points $x_{i}=1 \cdot 0(0 \cdot 1) 5 \cdot 9$ were taken (i.e., $N=50$ ). The results of


Fig. 4.
simulation are for $A_{k}=s_{k}^{2}\left(1+k N^{-0.25} \ln N\right)$ in Tables $6 \mathrm{a}-6 \mathrm{c}$. Each row corresponds to 30 simulations. Models I. and IV. led to the same table for $\sigma \leqq 2 \cdot 0$.

| Table 6a. Mo | els | and | IV. |  | Model II. |  |  |  |  | Model III. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sigma \quad \hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4+ | $\Sigma_{\sigma} \hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4+ | $\sigma \backslash \hat{p}$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4+ |
| 0.1 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | $0 \cdot 4$ | 0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 1.0 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 0 |
| $0 \cdot 2$ | 0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 0.6 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | $2 \cdot 0$ | 0 | 5 | 25 | 0 |
| 0.4 | 0 | 5 | 25 | 0 | 0.8 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 3.0 | 0 | 20 | 10 | 0 |
| 0.5 | 0 | 16 | 14 | 0 | 1.0 | 0 | 5 | 25 | 0 | 4.0 | 0 | 27 | 3 | 0 |
| 0.6 | 0 | 20 | 10 | 0 | 1.2 | 0 | 12 | 18 | 0 | 5.0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.7 | 0 | 24 | 6 | 0 | 1.5 | 0 | 20 | 10 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.8 | 0 | 27 | 3 | 0 | 1.7 | 0 | 23 | 7 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0.9 | 0 | 29 | 1 | 0 | 2.0 | 0 | 27 | 3 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1.0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 0 | 3.0 | 0 |  | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2.0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 0 | 4.0 | 0 | 30 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |

The table confirms our expectation, namely, that the order of the regression function can be better estimated even for greater $\sigma$, if the coefficient by $x^{2}$ is larger.
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