# <span id="page-0-0"></span>The Multivariate Normal and the Choleski and Eigen Decompositions

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### 1. Introduction

A square matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  is symmetric if  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ .

A square, symmetric matrix is positive definite (pd) if

 $x'Ax > 0 \quad \forall x.$ 

Our basic example is a covariance matrix.

If  $X=(X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_p)'$  is a random (column) vector with  $E(X) = \mu = (\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_p)'$ , then the covariance of  $X$  is

$$
\Sigma = E((X - \mu)(X - \mu)') = [E((X_i - \mu_i)(X_j - \mu_j))]
$$

is symmetric.

Since

$$
Var(a'X) = a'\Sigma a
$$

 $\Sigma$  is positive definited unless some linear combination of the  $X_i$  has 0 variance.

Let's review two basic matrix decompositions for symmetric pd matrices and use them to review basic properties of the multivariate normal distribution.

We'll look at:

 $(i)$ 

The eigen decomposition.

 $(i)$ 

The Choleski decomposition.

Later we will also look at the Singular Value Decomposition.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>To develop the normal distribution based on matrix decompositions, we will need the change of variable formulas, univariate and multivariate.

Let's review these.

Let  $\Theta$  be a random variable with density  $p(\theta)$ .

In Bayesian statistics,  $\theta$  is often used for the parameter of the model so that  $p(\theta)$  is the prior distribution.

The general Bayesian model consists of:

 $f(y | \theta)$ ,  $p(\theta)$ .

Rather than think in terms of the parameter  $\theta$  we may want to consider a 1-1 reparmetrization

$$
\gamma=g(\theta),
$$

where  $g$  is 1 to 1.

What is  $p(\gamma)$  ??

### Univariate change of variable

$$
G \in \mathbb{R}
$$
\n
$$
dansiby \qquad \begin{cases} 6^{(6)} \\ 3 = q(6) \\ 7 = q(6) \\ 8 \end{cases} \quad G = h(8) \quad (h = q^{-1})
$$
\n
$$
\begin{cases} 9 \times (8) = P(6(8)) |h(8)| \\ 65 \times (8) = P(6(8)) |g(8)| \\ 67 \times (8) = P(6(8)) |g(8)| \end{cases}
$$

6

### Univariate change of variable

A simple way to see it.

$$
Y = q(\Theta) \quad , \quad \Theta = h(X)
$$
\nLet's assume h is monotonic  
\ninteracting  
\n
$$
h'(X) > 0 \quad \forall X
$$

$$
f'(x_0) = F'(x_0)
$$
  
\n
$$
F(x_0) = f'(x_0 + x_0)
$$
  
\n
$$
= f(x_0) \leq h(x_0)
$$
  
\n
$$
= f(x_0) \leq h(x_0)
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$$
= f(x_0)
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#### Example

Suppose  $Y \sim$  Bernoulli $(\theta)$  and  $p(\theta) = 1$ .

That is, we have the uniform prior on  $\theta \in (0,1)$ .

Suppose we want to work with the odds-ratio, instead of the probability.



#### Calculus intuition for univariate change of variable



#### Example, linear

Suppose  $X \sim p(x|\alpha)$ , where  $\alpha$  is a "shape" parameter. Let  $Y = a + bX$ .  $X = \frac{Y-a}{b}$  $\frac{d-1}{b}$ .  $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{b}$  $\frac{1}{b}$ .  $f(y | a, b, \alpha) = p(\frac{y - a}{l})$  $\frac{a}{b}$ ) $\frac{1}{b}$ b

#### example:

Details:

If 'scale' is omitted, it assumes the default value of '1'.

The Gamma distribution with parameters 'shape' = a and 'scale' = s has density

$$
f(x) = 1/(s \hat{\ } a \text{ Gamma}(a)) \ x^*(a-1) \ e^*(x/s)
$$

for  $x \ge 0$ ,  $a \ge 0$  and  $s \ge 0$ . (Here Gamma(a) is the function implemented by R's 'gamma()' and defined in its help. Note that a = 0 corresponds to the trivial distribution with all mass at point 0.)

$$
f(x|a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} e^{-x}.
$$
  
\n
$$
Y = sX, \ \ X = Y/s, \ \ dx/dy = 1/s.
$$
  
\n
$$
f(y|s, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} (y/s)^{a-1} e^{-y/s} (1/s)
$$

#### Multivariate Change of Variable

 $9 \in 12^{k}$ <br> $8 = 9^{k}$ <br> $8 = h(8)$  $h'(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$  kxk  $\begin{aligned}\n\rho(y) &= \rho(h(y)) |h'(y)| + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \text{abs}_{\text{left value}} \\
\text{density of } \text{density of } \text{F} \text{ at } \text{a} \text{ at } \text{a$ 

Example, Linear,  $R^k \Rightarrow R^k$  $Z = (Z_1, Z_2, \ldots, Z_k)'.$  $\mu \in R^k$ ,  $A, \; k \times k$ , invertible.

$$
y = \mu + Az
$$
,  $z = A^{-1}(y - \mu)$ ,  $\frac{dz}{dy} = A^{-1}$ .  

$$
f(y) = f_z(A^{-1}(y - \mu)) |A^{-1}|.
$$

# <span id="page-15-0"></span>3. Orthogonal Matrices and Rotation

A matrix  $p \times p$  matrix P is orthogonal if

$$
P'P=PP'=I
$$

where  $I$  is the identity matrix.

This means all the rows and columns have euclidean length 1 and all the rows are orthogonal to each other and all the columns are orthogonal to each other.

 $P = [4, 4, -4]$  $-P^{T}P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  $\begin{array}{ccc} \n\vdots \\
\downarrow \\
\uparrow \\
\downarrow \\
\uparrow\n\end{array}$ 

The columns of P (or the rows) form an orthonormal basis for  $R^p$ .

 $x \in \mathbb{R}^{\rho}$  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ <br>  $x = PP^T x$ <br>  $P^T x = \begin{bmatrix} 4^T \\ 4^T \\ 4^T \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} 24, x^3 \\ 4^T x^2 \end{bmatrix}$ <br>  $x = 44, x^3 + 44$ <br>  $x = 44, x^2 + 44$ <br>  $x = 4$ <br>  $x = PP^{T}x = \sum \langle d_{i,1}x \rangle \Phi_{i}$ <br>=  $\sum \frac{\langle d_{i,1}x \rangle}{\langle d_{i,1}x \rangle} \Phi_{i}$  $44, x74,$ 

P may be viewed as a rotation.

$$
P \circ P^T
$$
 are rotations  
\n
$$
I(P \times I^T = (P_{\infty})^T (P_{\infty})
$$
  
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### <span id="page-19-0"></span>4. Multivariate Normal

In the univariate normal case it is useful to think a general  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  as a linear function of a standard normal:



What about the multivariate normal? Can we express it as a linear function of a "standard normal"?

$$
\frac{R^{2}}{2}=\begin{pmatrix}2\\ 2\\ 2\\ 2\\ 2\end{pmatrix}\qquad \begin{array}{l}2;\ \sim N(0,1)\\2;\ \sim N(0,T)\end{array}\qquad 2\sim N(0,T)
$$
\n
$$
E(2)=0 \text{ Var}(2)=T
$$
\n
$$
V=M+AZ \qquad A \text{ P\times P} \qquad |A| \neq 0
$$
\n
$$
E(N)=M+AE(2)=M \qquad |N(N|M)\geq 0
$$
\n
$$
W=N+AE(2)=M \qquad |N(N|M)\geq 0
$$
\n
$$
=A T A^{T} = A A^{T}
$$
\nLet Z=AA^{T}

The multivariate normal density from the change of variable and  $Y = \mu + AZ$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\mathcal{L}(4) &= \mathcal{L}(4) \mu \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + (\frac{1}{2}) \mu \mathcal{L} - (\frac{1}{2}) \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + (\frac{1}{2}) \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + (\frac{1}{2}) \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + (\frac{1}{2}) \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + (\frac{1}{2}) \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} - \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} + \frac{1}{2} \math
$$

But, can we choose A is such a way that it tell us a nice story about how the  $Z_i$  are combined to create a dependent structure embodied in a given Σ?

Given Σ, there is more than one way to choose A such that  $\Sigma = AA^T$ !!!!

#### Choleski Decomposition

Given symmetric, positive definite  $\Sigma$  we can always write  $\Sigma = AA^T$ where A is lower triangular.

In  $R^2$  we have:

$$
Y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}
$$
  

$$
Y_1 = \mu_1 + a_{11} \ge 1
$$
  

$$
Y_2 = \mu_2 + a_{21} \ge 1 + a_{22} \ge 2
$$
  

$$
\ge 1, \ge 2 \quad \text{iid } N(0,1)
$$

#### Eigen Decomposition

Also called the spectral decomposition.

We can always write a symmetric positive definite  $\Sigma = PDP<sup>T</sup>$ .

$$
\sum = PDP^{T}
$$
\nP: orthogonal  
\nD: orthogonal  
\nD: diagonal  
\n
$$
\hat{P} = (d_1, d_2, \ldots d_p)
$$
\n
$$
\sum P = PD = \sum d_i = d_i\varphi_i
$$

The columns of P are the eigen vectors of  $\Sigma$  and the diagnonal elements are the corresponding eigen values. 23 The geometric picture is:



?worth a thousand words?

Note:

A symmetric, pd.

$$
A = PDP'
$$

(i)  $|A| = |P|^2 |D| = |D| = \prod d_{ii}$ (ii)  $tr(A) = tr(DP'P) = tr(D) = \sum d_{ii}$  Note:

$$
A = PDP'
$$
  

$$
D^{\frac{1}{2}} = diag(d_{ii}^{\frac{1}{2}}).
$$
  

$$
A = PD^{\frac{1}{2}}D^{\frac{1}{2}}P' = PD^{\frac{1}{2}}P'PD^{\frac{1}{2}}P'
$$

Let  $A^{\frac{1}{2}} = PD^{\frac{1}{2}}P'$ . So,  $A = A^{\frac{1}{2}} A^{\frac{1}{2}}.$ 

 $A^{\textstyle{\frac{1}{2}}}$  is called the symmetric pd square root of  $A$ .

# <span id="page-28-0"></span>5. The Choleski Decomposition

Not only is the Choleski decomposition very powerful, you can figure out basic things about it very simply!!

Simple and powerful, my favorite!!

Computing the Choleski:

Choleski:

A symmetric, positive definite  $\rightarrow \exists$  lower triangular L such that

 $A = I I'$ 

To compute L, you can recursively solve the system of equations give by

$$
LL'=A
$$

The simple  $2 \times 2$  case:

$$
L = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \qquad A = \begin{bmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{21} \\ Q_{21} & Q_{22} \end{bmatrix}
$$
  
\n
$$
LL^{T} = A
$$
  
\n
$$
LL^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & L_{21} \\ 0 & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11}^{2} & L_{11}L_{21} \\ L_{21} & L_{21} + L_{22} \end{bmatrix}
$$
  
\n
$$
L_{11} = \sqrt{Q_{11}}
$$
  
\n
$$
L_{21} = Q_{21} / L_{11}
$$
  
\n
$$
L_{22} = (Q_{22} - L_{21})^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

In general we have:

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
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\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac
$$

Notice that the top 2  $\times$  2 corner is just like the simple 2  $\times$  2 case!

After that we can do solve for  $L$  by interating over the rows, and doing each row by iterating over the columns.

Assume we know all the rows of L for rows  $1, 2, \ldots, (j-1)$ .

 $j^{th}$  row of  $L$  times first column of  $L'$ :

$$
L_{j1} L_{11} = a_{j1} \rightarrow L_{j1} = a_{j1}/L_{11}.
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
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\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1
$$

 $j^{th}$  row of L times second column of L':

$$
L_{j1}L_{21}+L_{j2}L_{22}=a_{j2}\rightarrow L_{j2}=(a_{j2}-L_{j1}L_{21})/L_{22}
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
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\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac
$$

 $j^{th}$  row of L times  $i^{th}$  column of L',  $(j > i)$ :

$$
\sum_{k=1}^i L_{jk} L_{ik} = a_{ji} \rightarrow L_{ji} = (a_{ji} - \sum_{k=1}^{(i-1)} L_{jk} L_{ik})/L_{ii}
$$

and, finally,

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \
$$

 $j^{th}$  row of L times  $j^{th}$  column of L',  $(j > i)$ :

$$
\sum_{k=1}^j L_{jk}^2 = a_{jj} \rightarrow L_{jj} = (a_{jj} - \sum_{k=1}^{(j-1)} L_{jk}^2)^{1/2}
$$

Other basic properties:

(i)

For L It (lower triangular),  $L^{-1}$  is It and fast to compute.

(ii) The system

$$
Lx = b
$$

is quickly recursively solved.

(iii)

If  $A$  is symmetric, pd, then the system

$$
Ax = b
$$

can be solved by

$$
A = LL' \rightarrow LL'x = b \rightarrow L'x = L^{-1}b
$$

Let  $y = L^{-1}b$  and solve for y using  $Ly = b$ .

Then solve for x using  $L'x = y$ .

As previously noted:

Solve: 
$$
x^T \times b = x^T y
$$
  
\n $x = QR$ :  $x^T \times b = R^T R$   
\n $x^T \times b = R^T R$   
\n $x^T \times b = R^T R$   
\n $x^T y = R^T Q^T y$   
\nSolve:  $R^T R b = Q^T Q^T y$   
\n $R b = Q^T y$ 

See Murphy, page section 7.5.2. QR is  $O(np^2)$ .

<span id="page-38-0"></span>We'll use the Choleski decomposition to derive fundamental properties of the multivariate normal distribution.

- $\blacktriangleright$  (a) The marginal from a multivariate normal.
- $\triangleright$  (b) For normals, uncorrelated  $\Rightarrow$  independent.
- $\triangleright$  (c) The conditional from a multivariate normal.
- $\blacktriangleright$  (d) Linear of normal is normal.

We partition a normal vector into  $X$  and  $Y$ .

$$
\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \sim N \begin{bmatrix} \mu_{x} \\ \mu_{y} \end{bmatrix} , \begin{bmatrix} z_{xx} & z_{xy} \\ \overline{z}_{yy} & \overline{z}_{yy} \end{bmatrix} )
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix} \overline{y} \\ \overline{z}_{yx} & \overline{z}_{yy} \end{bmatrix} \ge N
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix} \overline{z}_{yx} & \overline{z}_{yy} \\ \overline{z}_{yy} & \overline{z}_{yy} \end{bmatrix}
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix} \overline{z}_{yx} & \overline{z}_{yy} \\ \overline{z}_{yy} & \overline{z}_{yy} \end{bmatrix}
$$

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We take the choleski root of Σ.

$$
\sum = \begin{bmatrix} Z_{xx} & Z_{xy} \\ Z_{yx} & Z_{yy} \end{bmatrix}
$$
  

$$
\sum = \begin{bmatrix} L & D \\ D & L \end{bmatrix} \qquad L \text{ lower triangular}
$$
  

$$
\sum = \begin{bmatrix} L & D \\ D & L \end{bmatrix} \qquad L \text{ lower triangular}
$$

We have  $(X, Y)'$  in terms of the choleski. We have  $\Sigma$  in terms of the choleski.

$$
\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu x \\ \mu y \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} L_1 & 0 \\ 0 & L_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2z \end{bmatrix}
$$
  
\n
$$
x = \mu x + L_1 z
$$
  
\n
$$
y = \mu y + Rz + L_2 z
$$
  
\n
$$
y = \mu y + Rz + L_2 z
$$
  
\n
$$
L_1 = \begin{bmatrix} L_1 & 0 \\ 0 & L_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} L_1^T & R_1^T \\ 0 & L_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L_1 L_1^T & R_1 \overline{A} + L_2 L_2^T \\ R L_1^T & R_1 \overline{A} + L_2 L_2^T \end{bmatrix}
$$
  
\n
$$
= \begin{bmatrix} 2 \times x & 2 \times y \\ 2 \times x & 2 \times y \end{bmatrix}
$$

(a) Marginal of  $X$ , (b) uncorrelated implies independence.

$$
(a) X = \mu x + L_{1}Z
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow X \sim N(\mu x, L_{1}L_{1}) = N(\mu x, Z_{xx})
$$
\n
$$
(b) Z_{xy} = 0 \Rightarrow Az = 0
$$
\n
$$
Y = \mu x + L_{1}Z
$$
\n
$$
Y = \mu y + L_{2}Z
$$
\n
$$
Z_{xy} = 0 \Rightarrow X \perp Y
$$

(c) 
$$
Y|X = x
$$
.  
\n(c)  $Y - \mu_{Y} = \mu_{Z_1} + \mu_{Z_2}$   
\n $Y - \mu_{Y} = \mu_{Z_1} + \mu_{Z_2}$   
\n $Y - \mu_{Y} = \mu_{Z_1} + \mu_{X_2} + \mu_{Z_2}$   
\n $Y - \mu_{Y} = \mu_{Z_1} + \mu_{X_2}$ 

$$
\forall (X=x \sim N(\mu_{Y}+AY_{i}^{-1}(x-\mu_{X}x),L_{2}L_{2}^{\tau}))
$$

Solve for x coefficients in terms of  $\Sigma$ .

 $A\overline{L} = \sum_{y}$  $ALI_{L,L}^{\top} = \sum_{Y} x$  $ALI \Sigma x x = \Sigma y x$  $AL_i = \sum_{y} x \sum_{x}^{-1}$ 

 $Y \mid X = x$ .

$$
y = \mu_{y} + \sum_{x} \sum_{x} x^{2} (x - \mu_{x}) + E
$$
  

$$
E = L_{2} Z_{2} \quad \underline{\mu} \quad X
$$

 $\Sigma_{yy} = \Sigma_{yx} \Sigma_{xx}^{-1} \Sigma_{xx} \Sigma_{xx}^{-1} \Sigma_{xy} + \text{Var}(E)$  $Var(E) = \sum_{y} y - \sum_{x} x \sum_{x} y^{x}$ 

 $\sqrt{11x=x-N(\mu_{1}+2\pi\sum x^{2}(x-\mu_{2}))}\n  
\n
$$
\sum_{y=1}^{n} \sum_{y=1}^{n} (x-\mu_{3})
$$$ 

#### An important special case:



So, if  $(X, Y)$  are multivariate normal,  $X \in R^p$ ,  $Y \in R$ , then,

$$
Y|X=x \sim N(\mu_{Y} + \nabla_{Y}X \overline{Z}_{XX}^{-1}(x-\mu_{X}),
$$
\n
$$
\sigma_{Y}^{2} = \nabla_{Y}X \overline{Z}_{XX}^{-1} \nabla_{XY})
$$
\n
$$
\beta = \sum_{x} \overline{X}_{X}^{-1} \nabla_{X}Y
$$
\n
$$
\sigma_{Y}^{2} = \sigma_{Y}^{2} - \sigma_{Y}X \sum_{x} \overline{X}_{X}^{-1} \sigma_{X}Y
$$
\n
$$
\sigma_{Y}^{2} = \sigma_{Y}^{2} - \sigma_{Y}X \sum_{x} \overline{X}_{X}^{-1} \sigma_{X}Y
$$
\n
$$
\gamma(\mu_{Y} + (2C - \mu_{X}) \beta, \sigma_{Y}^{2})
$$

So that the conditional distribution of  $Y | X = x$  has the form of the standard multiple regression model with iid homoscedastic normal errors.

$$
\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{j=
$$

$$
B = \sum x x x^{x-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
B = \sum x x x^{x-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
B = \sum x x x^{x-1}
$$

 $\Rightarrow Y = Bx + E \quad E \perp X.$ 

$$
Y \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)
$$
  
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \alpha + \beta Y \sim N(a \cdot B\mu, B \Sigma B')
$$
  
\n
$$
X = \alpha + \beta \left[\mu + A2\right] , A A^{T} = \Sigma
$$
  
\n
$$
= \alpha + \beta \left[\mu + A2\right] , B A^{T} = \Sigma
$$
  
\n
$$
= \alpha + \beta \mu + \beta A \Sigma , (BA)(B A^{T}) = B A A^{T} B^{T}
$$
  
\n
$$
\sim N(\alpha + \beta \mu, B \Sigma B^{T})
$$

## <span id="page-50-0"></span>7. Simulating a Multivariate Normal

Suppose we wish to draw  $Y \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ .

Let 
$$
Z = (Z_1, Z_2, ..., Z_p)'
$$
,  $Z_j \sim N(0, 1)$ , *iid*.

Then let,

$$
Y = \mu + AZ
$$

where,

$$
\Sigma = A A^\prime
$$

If  $A$  is cholesky, multiplication  $A Z$  is fast.

# <span id="page-51-0"></span>8. Likelihood, Sufficiency, and MLE

Let's use our spectral decomposition to learn about the multivariate normal likelihood.

Let,

$$
X_i \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma), \quad \text{iid}, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, n.
$$

$$
X_i=(X_{i1},X_{i2},\ldots,X_{ip})'
$$

Recall that for a parametric model,

$$
f(y | \theta), \ \theta \in \theta,
$$

given data, y, the maximum likelihood estimator is obtained by finding the  $\theta$  that makes what you have seen most likely:

$$
\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\text{argmax}}\;f(y \mid \theta)
$$

In practice we often maximize the log of the likelihood or minimize the negative of the log likelihood.

### Example:

Bernavilli MLE  $Y_i \sim Bern(P) \{i \in [0, 1]\}$  $p(y,y,y) = \frac{1}{N} p(y-y) = \frac{1}{N} p(y-y) = 1$ =  $b_{\kappa}$   $(1-b)_{\nu-\kappa}$   $\kappa = \pi (1:27)$  $log p = k log p + (n - k) log C1 - p)$ FOC:  $k = \frac{(n-k)}{2} = 0$  =  $(n-k) p = k(1-p)$  $\overline{P}$  =  $P$   $\overline{(-P)}$  =  $\frac{P}{P}$ 

FOC: "first order condition",  $f' = 0$ . So, the observed sample frequency is the MLE!

In our problem we will observe  $X_i = x_i$  for  $X_i \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ , iid,  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ .

note:

x a p dimensional column vector. A  $p \times p$ .

$$
x'Ax = tr(x'Ax) = tr(Axx'),
$$

where tr is the trace.

$$
p(x_{1},x_{2},...x_{n}) =
$$
\n
$$
\prod_{i=1}^{n} (a_{\pi})^{-p/2} |z|^{-\frac{1}{2}} exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x_{i}-\mu)^{T} \Sigma^{1}(x_{i}-\mu)\}
$$
\n
$$
= (a_{\pi})^{-\frac{np}{2}} |z|^{-\frac{p}{2}} exp\{-\frac{1}{2} \Sigma(x_{i}-\mu)^{T} \Sigma^{1}(x_{i}-\mu)\}
$$
\n
$$
= (a_{\pi})^{-\frac{np}{2}} |z|^{-\frac{p}{2}} exp\{-\frac{1}{2} \Sigma(x_{i}-\mu)^{T} \Sigma^{1}(x_{i}-\mu)\}
$$
\n
$$
= (a_{\pi})^{-\frac{np}{2}} |z|^{-\frac{p}{2}} exp\{-\frac{1}{2} \Sigma(x_{i}-\mu)^{T} \Sigma^{1}(x_{i}-\mu)\}
$$

Note:

\n
$$
\begin{aligned}\n\overline{\mathbf{y}} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum \chi_{i} : \sum_{i=2}^{n} (\chi_{i} - \overline{\chi}) \\
&= \pi \overline{\chi} - n \overline{\chi} = 0. \\
\sum (\chi_{i} - \mu)(\chi_{i} - \mu)^{T} \\
&= \sum ((\chi_{i} - \overline{\chi}) - (\mu - \overline{\chi})) \left( \int_{0}^{T} \chi_{i} - \overline{\chi} \right)^{T} \\
&= \sum (\chi_{i} - \overline{\chi})(\chi_{i} - \overline{\chi})^{T} + n (\mu - \overline{\chi})(\mu - \overline{\chi})^{T} \\
&+ \text{Cross terms} \left( \int_{0}^{T} \chi_{i} - \overline{\chi} \right) &= (\mu - \overline{\chi}) \sum (\chi_{i} - \overline{\chi})^{T} = 0\n\end{aligned}
$$

$$
A=\sum_i(x_i-\bar{x})(x_i-\bar{x})'
$$

$$
tr\left(\Sigma^{-1}\Sigma(X;-\mu)(X;-\mu)^{T}\right)
$$
\n
$$
= tr\left(\Sigma^{-1}(A+n(X-\mu)(X-\mu)^{T})\right)
$$
\n
$$
= tr\Sigma^{-1}A + ln tr\Sigma^{-1}(X-\mu)(X-\mu)^{T}
$$
\n
$$
= tr\Sigma^{-1}A + ln \left(\overline{X}-\mu\right)^{T}\Sigma^{-1}(\overline{X}-\mu)
$$

### Sufficiency:

Give data, functions of the data are *sufficient* is they are all we need to compute the likelihood.

Clearly, for iid MVN data,

 $\bar{x}$  and A

are sufficient.

 $p + \frac{p(p+1)}{2}$  $\frac{1}{2}$  quantities instead of the *n*  $p$  data.

### What is A?

The  $k, j$  element of  $A$  is:

$$
A_{jk}=\sum_{i=1}^n(x_{ij}-\bar{x}_j)(x_{ik}-\bar{x}_k)
$$

The sample covariance between  $X_i$  and  $X_k$  is

$$
\mathsf{s}_{jk} = \frac{\mathsf{A}_{jk}}{(n-1)}
$$

The sample variance of  $X_j$  is

$$
s_{jj}=\frac{A_{jj}}{(n-1)}
$$

### MLE:

$$
L \propto |\Sigma|^{-n/2} \exp(tr(-\frac{1}{2}\Sigma^{-1}A)) \exp(-\frac{n}{2}(\bar{x} - \mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(\bar{x} - \mu))
$$
  
Clearly, for any  $\Sigma$ , maximum over  $\mu$  is attained at

$$
\hat{\mu}=\bar{\mathsf{x}}
$$

Notation:  $etr(A) = exp(tr(A)).$ 

$$
L(\hat{\mu}, \Sigma) \sim | \Sigma |^{-\frac{n}{2}} \text{etr}[-\frac{1}{2}\Sigma^{n}A]
$$
\n
$$
A = T T'
$$
;  $\Gamma = T' \Sigma^{-1} T$ \n
$$
|\Gamma| = \frac{|\Gamma|^{2}}{|\Sigma|}
$$
\n
$$
L(\hat{\mu}, \Gamma) \sim |\Gamma|^{2} \text{etr}[-\frac{n}{2} \Gamma]
$$
\n
$$
\gamma_{i} : \text{costs of } \frac{\Gamma}{n} = -\frac{n}{2} \gamma_{i}
$$
\n
$$
L \propto \prod_{i} \gamma_{i}^{\frac{n}{2}} e^{-\frac{n}{2} \gamma_{i}}
$$

Let 
$$
a = \frac{n}{2}
$$
  
\nmay  $a^a = \frac{a^a}{2}$   
\n $\frac{a}{3}$  and  $a^a = \frac{a^a}{2}$   
\n $\frac{a}{3}$  and  $a^a = \frac{a^a}{2}$   
\nFor: first order  $\frac{a}{3}$  and  $\frac{a}{3}$   
\n $\frac{a}{3} = a \Rightarrow a^* = 1$ .

 $30 \quad \frac{1}{10} = P \pm P^{T} = \pm \frac{1}{10}$  $\hat{\Gamma} = n \overline{\perp}$ Nou we simply solve for 2  $\stackrel{\wedge}{\Gamma} = \tau' \stackrel{\wedge}{\Sigma} \stackrel{\wedge}{\Gamma} = \pi \overline{\bot}$  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}$  $= n A^{-1}$  $\sum^{\prime}$  =  $\frac{A}{B}$ 

# <span id="page-64-0"></span>9. Checking for Normality Suppose  $Y \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ .

$$
\Sigma = PD^{\frac{1}{2}}D^{\frac{1}{2}}P'.
$$

$$
\Sigma^{-1} = PD^{-\frac{1}{2}}D^{-\frac{1}{2}}P'.
$$

Then

$$
Y=\mu+PD^{\frac{1}{2}}Z, Z\sim N(0, I).
$$

So,

$$
Z=D^{-\frac{1}{2}}P'(Y-\mu).
$$

$$
Z'Z = (Y - \mu)'PD^{-\frac{1}{2}}D^{-\frac{1}{2}}P'(Y - \mu) = (Y - \mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(Y - \mu).
$$

So,

$$
(Y - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (Y - \mu) = Z' Z = \sum Z_i^2 \sim \chi_p^2.
$$

So if  $Y_i \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ , *iid*, then

$$
D_i=(Y_i-\hat{\mu})'\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}(Y_i-\hat{\mu})\approx \chi_p^2, \ \ \text{iid}
$$

So you can check to see if the  $D_i$  look right.

I usually use a qqplot.

### <span id="page-66-0"></span>10. Weighted Regression

Review Linear Case Usual:  $\sqrt{2 \times \beta + \epsilon}$   $\epsilon$  and  $\sigma^2 E$ Consider: Y=XB+E ErNlo, 2)  $\Sigma = LL^{T}$  cholook:  $L_{\omega}$   $\Delta$  lower triangular.  $\Sigma^{-1} = (L^{r})^{-1} L^{-1} = (L^{-1})^{T} L^{-1}$  $\tilde{\xi} = L^{-1} \xi \quad \xi (\tilde{\xi}) = 0 \quad \text{Var}(\tilde{\xi}) = L^{-1} \left[ L L \bar{J} \right] (L^{-1})^T$  $=(\Gamma^{-1}D)(L^{T}(L^{T})^{-})=I.$  $L^{-1}Y = L^{-1} \times B + L^{-1}E$  $\tilde{y} = \tilde{x} \beta + \tilde{\epsilon} \quad \tilde{\epsilon} \sim N(0, \epsilon)$  $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{x}^T \hat{x})^T \hat{x}^T \hat{y} = (\hat{x}^T \hat{y})^T \hat{y}^T \hat{x}^T \hat{y}^T \hat{$ =  $(X^T\Sigma^{-1}X)^{-1}X^T\Sigma^{-1}Y$