Math tools

Note: Statistical Inference Oct 2024

Lecturer: Typed by: Zhuohua Shen

# Contents

1	Preliminary 1.1 Distributions	5 5
2	Statistical inference fundamentals 2.1 Statistical Models	7 8 8 8
3	3.1.2 The noncentral $\chi^2$ and F distribution	9 10 12 12
4	4.1 Linear regression for the full-rank model       1         4.1.1 Ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation       1         4.1.2 Weighted least square (WLS) estimation       1         4.1.3 LS theory of random-effect model       1         4.1.4 Normal linear model: MLE       1         4.1.5 Proofs       1         4.2 Ridge regression       1	13 13 15 16 16 17
5	Generalized Linear Models	19
6	Bayesian Inference	21
7	7.1 SEM models	23 23 25 25 26 27

4 CONTENTS

# Preliminary

## 1.1 Distributions

## 1.1.1 $\chi^2$ distribution

Let  $X \sim \chi_k^2$ , then if m > -k/2, the moment  $\mathbb{E}(X^m)$  exists and is equal to:

$$\mathbb{E}(X^m) = 2^m \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{k}{2} + m\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)}.$$
(1.1)

See [link] for the proof.

## Statistical inference fundamentals

References: most of the contents are from the undergraduate course STA3020 (by Prof. Jianfeng Mao in 2022-2023 T1, and Prof. Jianfeng Shi in 2023-2024 T2) and postgraduate course STAT5010 (by Kin Wai Keith Chan in 2024-2025 T1), with main textbook Casella and Berger [1]

#### 2.1 Statistical Models

See Chapter 3 of [1]. Suppose  $X_i \sim_{\text{iid}} \mathbb{P}_*$ , where  $\mathbb{P}_*$  refers to the unknown data generating process (DGPg), we find  $\widehat{\mathbb{P}} \approx \mathbb{P}_*$ . A statistical model is a set of distributions  $\mathscr{F} = \{\mathbb{P}_{\theta} : \theta \in \Theta\}$ , where  $\Theta$  is the parameter space. A parametric model is the model with  $\dim(\Theta) < \infty$ , while a nonparametric model satisfies  $\dim(\Theta) = \infty$ .

#### Exponential family

**Definition 2.1.1.** A k-dimensional exponential family (EF)  $\mathscr{F} = \{f_{\theta} : \theta \in \Theta\}$  is a model consisting of pdfs of the form

$$f_{\theta}(x) = c(\theta)h(x) \exp\left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k} \eta_j(\theta) T_j(x) \right\}$$
(2.1)

where  $c(\theta), h(x) \ge 0$ ,  $\Theta = \{\theta : c(\theta) \ge 0, \eta_j(\theta) \text{ being well defined for } 1 \le j \le k\}$ . Let  $\eta_j = \eta_j(\theta)$ , the canonical form is

$$f_{\eta}(x) = b(\eta)h(x) \exp\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{k} \eta_j T_j(x)\right\}, \qquad (2.2)$$

- k-dim natural exponential family (NEF):  $\mathscr{F}' = \{f_n : \eta \in \Xi\};$
- natural parameter  $\eta = (\eta_1, \dots, \eta_k)^{\top}$ ;
- natural parameter space:  $\Xi = \{ \eta \in \mathbb{R}^k : 0 < b(\eta) < \infty \};$
- the NEF  $\mathscr{F}'$  is of full rank if  $\Xi$  contains an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ ;
- the EF is a curved exponential family if  $p = \dim(\Theta) < k$ .

### Properties of EF:

- Let  $X \sim f_{\eta}$ , where  $\eta \in \Xi$  such that (i)  $f_{\eta}$  is of the form (2.2) with  $B(\eta) = -\log b(\eta)$ , and (ii)  $\Xi$  contains an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Then, for  $j, j' = 1, \ldots, k$ ,  $\mathbb{E}\{T_j(X)\} = \partial B(\eta)/\partial \eta_j$  and  $\mathbb{C}\text{ov}\{T_j(X), T_{j'}(X)\} = \partial^2 B(\eta)/(\partial \eta_j \partial \eta_{j'})$ .
- Stein's identity:

#### Location-scale family

**Definition 2.1.2.** Let f be a density.

- A location-scale family is given by  $\mathscr{F} = \{f_{\mu,\sigma} : \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{++}\}$ , where  $f_{\mu,\sigma}(x) = f\left((x-\mu)/\sigma\right)/\sigma$ .
- location parameter:  $\mu$ ; scale parameter:  $\sigma$ ; standard density: f;
- A location family is  $\mathscr{F} = \{f_{\mu,1} : \mu \in \mathbb{R}\}.$
- A scale family is  $\mathscr{F} = \{f_{0,\sigma} : \sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{++}\}$

Representation:  $X = \mu + \sigma Z$ ,  $Z \sim f_{0,1}(\cdot)$ .

- See some examples in Example 3.9, Keith's note 3, and Table 1 in Shi's note L1.
- Transform between location parameter and scale parameter by taking log.

#### Identifiable family

#### **Definition 2.1.3.** If $\forall \theta_1, \theta_2 \in \Theta$ that

$$\theta_1 \neq \theta_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_{\theta_1}(\cdot) \neq f_{\theta_2}(\cdot),$$

then  $\mathscr{F}$  is said to be an identifiable family, or equivalently  $\theta \in \Theta$  is identifiable.

A typical feature of non-identifiable EF is that  $p = \dim(\Theta) > k$ . Typically,

- p < k, curved (must).
- p = k, of full rank.
- p > k, non-identifiable.

## 2.2 Principles of Data Reduction

Statistics:  $T = T(X_{1:n})$ , a function of  $X_{1:n}$  and free of any unknown parameter.

#### 2.2.1 Sufficiency Principle

Sufficiency principle: If  $T = T(X_{1:n})$  is a "sufficient statistics" for  $\theta$ , then any inference on  $\theta$  will depend on  $X_{1:n}$  only through T.

#### Sufficient, minimal sufficient, ancillary, and complete statistics

**Definition 2.2.1.** Suppose  $X_{1:n} \sim_{iid} \mathbb{P}_{\theta}$ , where  $\theta \in \Theta$ . Let  $T = T(X_{1:n})$  be a statistic. Then T is sufficient (SS) for  $\theta$ 

- $\Leftrightarrow$  (def)  $[X_{1:n} \mid T = t]$  is free of  $\theta$  for each t.
- $\Leftrightarrow$  (technical lemma)  $T(x_{1:n}) = T(x'_{1:n})$  implies that  $f_{\theta}(x_{1:n})/f_{\theta}(x'_{1:n})$  is free of  $\theta$ .
- $\Leftrightarrow$  (Neyman-Fisher factorization theorem)  $\forall \theta \in \Theta, x_{1:n} \in \mathcal{X}^n, f_{\theta}(x_{1:n}) = A(t,\theta)B(x_{1:n}).$
- $\Leftrightarrow$  Define  $\Lambda(\theta', \theta'' \mid x_{1:n}) := f_{\theta'}(x_{1:n})/f_{\theta''}(x_{1:n})$ .  $\forall \theta', \theta'' \in \Theta$ ,  $\exists$  function  $C_{\theta', \theta''}$  such that  $\Lambda(\theta', \theta'' \mid x_{1:n}) = C_{\theta', \theta''}(t)$ , for all  $x_{1:n} \in \mathcal{X}^n$  where  $t = T(x_{1:n})$ .

T is minimal sufficient (MSS) for  $\theta$ 

- $\Leftrightarrow$  (def) (1) T is a SS for  $\theta$ ; (2) T = g(S) for any other SS S.
- $\Leftrightarrow$  (1) T is a SS for  $\theta$ ; (2)  $S(x_{1:n}) = S(x'_{1:n})$  implies  $T(x_{1:n}) = T(x'_{1:n})$  for any SS S.
- $\Leftrightarrow$  (Lehmann-Scheffé theorem)  $\forall x_{1:n}, x'_{1:n} \in \mathscr{X}^n, f_{\theta}(x_{1:n})/f_{\theta}(x'_{1:n})$  is free of  $\theta \Leftrightarrow T(x_{1:n}) = T(x'_{1:n})$ .
- $A = A(X_{1:n})$  is ancillary (ANS) if the distribution of A does not depend on  $\theta$ .
- T is complete (CS) if  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$ ,  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta} g(T) = 0$  implies  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$ ,  $\mathbb{P}_{\theta} \{ g(T) = 0 \} = 1$ .

#### **Properties**

- (Transformation) If T = r(T'), then (i) T is  $SS \Rightarrow T'$  is SS; (ii) T' is  $CS \Rightarrow T$  is CS; (iii) r is one-to-one, then if one is SS/MSS/CS, then the another is.
- (Basu's Lemma)  $X_i \sim_{iid} \mathbb{P}_{\theta}$ , A is ANS and T s CSS, then  $A \perp \!\!\! \perp T$ .
- (Bahadur's theorem)  $X_i \sim_{iid} \mathbb{P}_{\theta}$ , if an MSS exists, then any CSS is also an MSS.
  - Then if a CSS exists, then any MSS is also a CSS  $\Rightarrow$  CSS=MSS.
  - All or nothing: start with MSS T, check whether T is CS. (i) Yes, it is both CSS and MSS, then the set of MSS=CSS; (ii) No, there is no CSS at all.
- (Exp-family) If  $X_i \sim_{iid} f_{\eta}$  in (2.2), then  $T = (\sum_{i=1}^n T_1(X_i), \dots, \sum_{i=1}^n T_k(X_i))$  is a SS, called natural sufficient statistic. If  $\Xi$  contains an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  (i.e.,  $\mathscr{F}'$  is of full rank), then T is MSS and CSS.

#### Proof techniques

- Prove T is not sufficient for  $\theta$ : show if  $\exists x_{1_n}, x'_{1:n} \in \mathcal{X}^n$  and  $\theta', \theta'' \in \Theta$ , such that  $T(x_{1:n}) = T(x'_{1:n})$  and  $\Lambda(\theta', \theta'' \mid x_{1:n}) \neq \Lambda(\theta', \theta'' \mid x'_{1:n})$ .
- $\bullet\,$  Prove A is an ANS: consider location-scale representation.
- Prove T is a CS: use definition or take  $d\mathbb{E}_{\theta}g(T)/d\theta = 0$ .
- Disprove T is CS:
  - Construct an ANS S(T) based on T, then  $\mathbb{E}S(T)$  is free of  $\theta$ , then  $g(T) = S(T) \mathbb{E}S(T)$  is free of  $\theta$  but  $g(T) \neq 0$  w.p.1.
  - (Cancel the 1st moment) Find two unbiased estiamtors for  $\theta$  as a function of T. E.g.,  $X_1, X_2 \sim_{\text{iid}} N(\theta, \theta^2)$ ,  $T = (X_1, X_2), g(T) = X_1 X_2 \sim N(0, 2\theta^2)$ .

 $Remark\ 2.2.2.$  • ANS A is useless on its own, but useful together with other information.

•  $\mathbb{P}(A(X) \mid \theta)$  is free of  $\theta$ , but for non-SS T,  $\mathbb{P}(A(X) \mid T(X))$  is not necessarily free of  $\theta$ .

### 2.2.2 Likelihood principle

## Multivariate Inference Fundamentals

#### Reference:

- Robb J. Muirhead Aspects of multivariate statistical theory [5].
- CUHK STAT4002 Applied Multivariate Analysis (2023 Spring), by Zhixiang Lin.
- CUHK STAT5030 Linear Models (2025 Spring), by Yuanyuan Lin.
- Peng Ding Linear Model and Extensions.
- Ronald Christensen Plane answers to complex questions: the theory of linear models [2].

### 3.1 Random vectors and distributions

```
Definition 3.1.1. Let \boldsymbol{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_p)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^p be a random vector,

• Mean \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mathbb{E}x_1, \dots, \mathbb{E}x_p)^{\top} = (\mu_j).

• Covariance matrix \mathbb{V}ar(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathbb{C}ov(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbb{E}[(\boldsymbol{x} - \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x})(\boldsymbol{x} - \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x})^{\top}] = \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} - \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x}\mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} = (\sigma_{ij}), \ \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \succeq \boldsymbol{0}.

• Correlation matrix R = D^{-1/2}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}D^{-1/2}, where D = \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_{11}, \dots, \sigma_{pp}). We have R_{ij} = \rho_{ij} = \sigma_{ij}/(\sqrt{\sigma_{ii}}\sqrt{\sigma_{jj}}).

• If \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^q random vector, then \mathbb{C}ov(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbb{E}[(\boldsymbol{x} - \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x})(\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{y})^{\top}] = \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{y}^{\top} - \mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x}\mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{y}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}.

If \boldsymbol{Z} = (z_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q} is a random matrix,
```

**Proposition 3.1.2.** Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$  be a random vector,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^p$  be vectors,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r_1 \times p}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{r_2 \times p}$  be matrices,

- $\mathbb{E} a^{\top} x = a^{\top} \mathbb{E} x$ ,  $\mathbb{V} \operatorname{ar}(a^{\top} x) = a^{\top} \Sigma a$ , and  $\mathbb{C} \operatorname{ov}(a^{\top} x, b^{\top} x) = a^{\top} \Sigma b$ .
- $\mathbb{E} A \boldsymbol{x} = A \mathbb{E} \boldsymbol{x}$ ,  $\mathbb{V} \operatorname{ar}(A \boldsymbol{x}) = A \Sigma A^{\top}$ , and  $\mathbb{C} \operatorname{ov}(A \boldsymbol{x}, B \boldsymbol{x}) = A \Sigma B^{\top}$ .
- If  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$ , where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times p}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^q$ , then  $\boldsymbol{\mu_y} = A\boldsymbol{\mu_x} + \mathbf{b}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma_y} = A\boldsymbol{\Sigma_x}A^{\top}$ .
- $\mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} A \boldsymbol{x}) = \operatorname{tr}(A \Sigma) + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} A \boldsymbol{\mu}.$

•  $\mathbb{E} \mathbf{Z} = (\mathbb{E} z_{ij}).$ 

Let  $\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$  be a random matrix,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ ,  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times n}$ , and  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  constants, then

- $\mathbb{E}(B\mathbf{Z}C+D) = B\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{Z})C+D.$
- The  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  is a covariance matrix (i.e.,  $\Sigma = \mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\boldsymbol{x})$  for some random vector  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ) iff  $\Sigma \succeq \mathbf{0}$ .
  - $-(\Leftarrow)$ : suppose  $r(\Sigma) = r \leq p$ , write full rank decomposition  $\Sigma = CC^{\top}$ ,  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times r}$ . Let  $\mathbf{y} \sim [\mathbf{0}_r, I_r]$ , then  $\mathbb{C}ov(C\mathbf{y}) = \Sigma$ .
- If  $\Sigma$  is not PD, then  $\exists \boldsymbol{a} \neq \boldsymbol{0}_p$  s.t.  $\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}(\boldsymbol{a}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x}) = 0$  so w.p.1.,  $\boldsymbol{a}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} = k$ , i.e.,  $\boldsymbol{x}$  lies in a hyperplane.

**Theorem 3.1.3.** If  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  random, then its distribution is uniquely determined by the distributions of  $\mathbf{a}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\forall \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .

The proof uses the fact that a distribution in  $\mathbb{R}^p$  is uniquely determined by its ch.f., see Theorem 1.2.2. [5].

**Definition 3.1.4.** Dataset contains p variables and n observations are represented by  $\boldsymbol{X} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_n)^\top$ , where the ith row  $\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})$  is the ith observation vector,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

- (Sample mean vector)  $\bar{x} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = (\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_p)^{\top}$ , where  $\bar{x}_j = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}$ .
- (Sum of squares and cross product (SSCP) matrix)  $A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \bar{x})(x_i \bar{x})^{\top}$ .
- (Sample covariance matrix)  $S = (n-1)^{-1}A$ .
- (Sample correlation matrix)  $\mathbf{R} = D^{-1/2} \mathbf{S} D^{-1/2}$ , where  $D^{-1/2} = \text{diag}(1/\sqrt{s_{11}}, \dots, 1/\sqrt{s_{pp}})$ .

•  $\bar{\boldsymbol{x}} = n^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{1}_n$ , and

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{A} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (oldsymbol{x}_i - oldsymbol{\mu}) (oldsymbol{x}_i - oldsymbol{\mu})^ op - n(ar{oldsymbol{x}} - oldsymbol{\mu}) (ar{oldsymbol{x}} - oldsymbol{\mu})^ op \ &= (oldsymbol{X} - oldsymbol{1}_n ar{oldsymbol{x}}^ op)^ op (oldsymbol{X} - oldsymbol{1}_n ar{oldsymbol{x}}^ op)^ op (oldsymbol{X} - oldsymbol{\mu})^ op oldsymbol{0}. \end{aligned}$$

•  $\mathbb{E}\bar{x} = \mu$ ,  $\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}(\bar{x}) = n^{-1}\Sigma$ ,  $\mathbb{E}A = (n-1)\Sigma$ , and  $\mathbb{E}S = \Sigma$ .

#### 3.1.1 Multivariate normal distribution

#### Original definition of multivariate normal

**Definition 3.1.5.** The random vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is said to have an p-variate normal distribution  $(\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{N}_p)$  if  $\forall \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , the distribution of  $a^{\top}x$  is univariate normal.

#### Fundamental properties

**Theorem 3.1.6.** Let  $x \sim N_p$ , we have

- 1. Both  $\mu = \mathbb{E}x$  and  $\Sigma = \mathbb{C}ov(x)$  exist and the distribution of x is determined by  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ . Write  $x \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ .
- 2. (Representation) Let  $\Sigma \succeq \mathbf{0}_{p \times p}$ ,  $r(\Sigma) = r \leq p$ , and  $u_{1:r} \sim_{iid} N(0,1)$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{u} \sim N_r(\mathbf{0}_r, I_r)$ , then if C is the full rank decomposition of  $\Sigma$  and  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , then  $\boldsymbol{x} = C\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{\mu} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ .
  - Let  $\Sigma = HDH^{\top}$  be the spectral decomposition, then  $\mathbf{x} = HD^{1/2}\mathbf{z} + \boldsymbol{\mu}$ , where  $\mathbf{z} \sim N_p(\mathbf{0}_p, I_p)$
- 3. If  $\mathbf{x} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ , then its ch.f.  $\phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t}) = \exp(i\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top}\mathbf{t} \mathbf{t}^{\top}\Sigma\mathbf{t}/2)$ .
- 4. (Density)  $\mathbf{x} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$  with  $\Sigma \succ \mathbf{0}$ , then  $\mathbf{x}$  has pdf

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)\right\}.$$
 (3.1)

Note that we guarantee the existence of  $N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  by means of the representation in point 2. By its density, we have MVN kernel: If

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) \propto \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}^{\top}A\boldsymbol{x} - 2\boldsymbol{x}^{\top}B)\right\} = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x} - A^{-1}B)^{\top}A(\boldsymbol{x} - A^{-1}B) - B^{\top}A^{-1}B\right\},$$

then  $x \sim N_p(A^{-1}B, A^{-1})$ .

#### Properties of multivariate normal

**Theorem 3.1.7.** If  $x \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ , then we have

- 1. (Linearity) Let  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times p}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^q$  nonrandom, and  $B \Sigma B^\top \succ \mathbf{0}$ , then  $B \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} \sim N_q (B \boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, B \Sigma B^\top)$ .
- 2. (Linear combinations) If  $\mathbf{x}_k \sim \mathrm{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k) \perp \text{ for } k = 1, \ldots, N$ , then for any fixed constants  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_N$ ,  $\sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_k \mathbf{x}_k \sim \mathrm{N}_p(\sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_k \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_k^2 \Sigma_k)$ .

   The sample mean  $\bar{\mathbf{x}} \sim \mathrm{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma/N)$ .
- 3. (Subset) The marginal distribution of any subset of k < p components of x is k-variate normal.
- 4. (Marginal distribution) Partition

$$oldsymbol{x} = \left[egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{x}_1 \ oldsymbol{x}_2 \end{array}
ight], \quad oldsymbol{\mu} = \left[egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{\mu}_1 \ oldsymbol{\mu}_2 \end{array}
ight], \quad oldsymbol{\Sigma} = \left[egin{array}{cc} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{array}
ight], \quad oldsymbol{x}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^q, oldsymbol{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{p-q}, \Sigma_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{q imes (p-q)}.$$

Then  $x_1 \sim N_q(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \Sigma_{11}), \ \boldsymbol{x}_1 \perp \!\!\! \perp \boldsymbol{x}_2 \ \text{iff } \Sigma_{12} = \boldsymbol{0}.$ 

- 5. (Conditional distribution) Let  $\Sigma_{22}^-$  be a generalized inverse of  $\Sigma_{22}$  (i.e.,  $\Sigma_{22}\Sigma_{22}^-\Sigma_{22} = \Sigma_{22}$ ), then (a)  $\mathbf{x}_1 \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^-\mathbf{x}_2 \sim \mathrm{N}_q(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^-\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^-\Sigma_{21})$ , and  $\perp \mathbf{x}_2$ .
  - (b)  $[x_1 \mid x_2] \sim N_q(\mu_1 + \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^-(x_2 \mu_2), \Sigma_{11} \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^-\Sigma_{21}).$
- 6. (Cramér) If  $p \times 1$  random vectors  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \sim N_p$ , then both  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \sim N_p$ .
- 7. (MLE) of  $(\mu, \Sigma)$  is  $(\bar{x}, A/n)$ .
- 8. (Inverse of  $\Sigma$  and conditional independence) Denote  $\Sigma^{-1} = (\nu^{jk})_{1 \leq j,k \leq p}$ . Then  $\forall j \neq k, \ v^{jk} = 0 \Leftrightarrow x_j \perp \!\!\! \perp$  $x_k \mid \boldsymbol{x} \setminus \{x_j, x_k\}.$

For point 3, each component of a random vector is (marginally) normal does not imply that the vector has a multivariate normal distribution. Counterexample: let  $U_1, U_2, U_3 \sim_{iid} N(0, 1), Z \perp U_{1:3}$ . Define

$$X_1 = \frac{U_1 + ZU_3}{\sqrt{1 + Z^2}}, \quad X_2 = \frac{U_2 + ZU_3}{\sqrt{1 + Z^2}}.$$

Then  $[X_1|Z] \sim N(0,1)$ , free of Z, so  $X_1 \sim N(0,1)$ , and  $X_2 \sim N(0,1)$ . But  $(X_1,X_2)$  not normal. The converse is true if the components of x are all independent and normal, or if x consists of independent subvectors, each of which is normally distributed.

For the proof of point 5, we use the lemma: if  $\Sigma \succeq \mathbf{0}$ , then  $\ker(\Sigma_{22}) \subset \ker(\Sigma_{12})$ , and  $\operatorname{range}(\Sigma_{21}) \subset \operatorname{range}(\Sigma_{22})$ . So  $\exists B \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times (p-q)} \text{ satisfying } \Sigma_{12} = B\Sigma_{22}.$ 

#### Quadratic form of MVN

#### MGF

**Proposition 3.1.8.** If  $x \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ , A is symmetric and  $\sigma$  IS non-singular, then

$$M_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}}(t) = |I - 2t\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top}[I - (I - 2t\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{-1}]\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}\right\}.$$

#### Variance

**Proposition 3.1.9.** If  $x \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ , then

$$Var(\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} A \boldsymbol{x}) = 2tr(A \Sigma A \Sigma) + 4 \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} A \Sigma A \boldsymbol{\mu},$$

$$Cov(\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} A_1 \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} A_2 \boldsymbol{x}) = 2tr(A_1 \Sigma A_2 \Sigma) + 4 \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} A_1 \Sigma A_2 \boldsymbol{\mu}.$$

See Problem B 2.14 in Peng DING.

#### Independence of quadratic form

Theorem 3.1.10. Assume  $\boldsymbol{x} \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ .

1. For two symmetric matrix  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}^{\top} A \mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{x}^{\top} B \mathbf{x}$  iff

$$\Sigma A \Sigma B \Sigma = \mathbf{0}, \quad \Sigma A \Sigma B \boldsymbol{\mu} = \Sigma B \Sigma A \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} A \Sigma B \boldsymbol{\mu} = 0.$$

If  $\Sigma \succ \mathbf{0}$ , then iff  $A\Sigma B = \mathbf{0}$ .

2. If  $\Sigma \succ \mathbf{0}$ ,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  symmetric, and  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times p}$ , then  $\mathbf{x}^{\top} A \mathbf{x} \perp \!\!\! \perp B \mathbf{x}$  iff  $B \Sigma A = \mathbf{0}$ .

See Theorem B.11 in Peng DING, and Problem 1.22–1.23 in [5].

#### Quadratic form of $\Sigma$

**Theorem 3.1.11.** If  $x, x_{1:N} \sim_{iid} N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ , where  $\Sigma$  is nonsingular, then

- $\bullet \ (\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{\mu}) \sim \chi_p^2,$
- $\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{x} \sim \chi_p^2 (\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}),$
- partition

$$m{x} = egin{bmatrix} m{x}_1 \ m{x}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \ m{\mu} = egin{bmatrix} m{\mu}_1 \ m{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \ \Sigma = egin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad m{x}_1, m{\mu}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^k, \ \Sigma_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{k imes k}, \ then$$

$$Q = (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) - (\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^{\top} \Sigma_{11}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) \sim \chi_{p-k}^2.$$

- $N(\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_N \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_N \boldsymbol{\mu}) \sim \chi_n^2$
- the Mahalanobis distance  $d_i^2 = (\boldsymbol{x}_i \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_N)^{\top} \boldsymbol{S}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_i \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_N) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} \chi_p^2$

If  $r(\Sigma) = k \le p$ , then

1.

$$(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \Sigma^{-} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \sim \chi_{k}^{2},$$
  
 $(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \Sigma^{+} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \sim \chi_{k}^{2}.$ 

- 2. If  $\Sigma$  is idempotent with  $r(\Sigma) = k$ , then  $(\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{\mu}) \sim \chi_k^2$ .
  - If  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \operatorname{Col}(\Sigma)$ , then  $\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x} \sim \chi_k^2(\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\mu})$ .

#### Quadratic form of any matrices

Theorem 3.1.12. If  $x \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ ,

- 1. if  $\Sigma$  is nonsingular,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  is symmetric, then  $\mathbf{x}^{\top} B \mathbf{x} \sim \chi_k^2(\delta)$  iff  $B \Sigma$  is idempotent (equiv.,  $B \Sigma B = B$ ), in which case  $k = \mathbf{r}(B)$  and  $\delta = \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} B \boldsymbol{\mu}$ ;
- 2. for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} A \boldsymbol{x} \sim \chi^2_{r(A\Sigma)}(\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} A \boldsymbol{\mu})$  if

$$(1)\Sigma A\Sigma A\Sigma = \Sigma A\Sigma, \quad (2)\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} A\Sigma A\boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} A\boldsymbol{\mu}, \quad (3)\Sigma A\Sigma A\boldsymbol{\mu} = \Sigma A\boldsymbol{\mu};$$

- 3. let  $A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  be symmetric with rank  $k_i$  for i = 1, ..., m. Denote  $A = \sum_{i=1}^m A_i$ , which is symmetric with rank k. Then  $\mathbf{x}^\top A_i \mathbf{x} \sim \chi_{k_i}^2(\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top A_i \boldsymbol{\mu})$ ,  $\mathbf{x}^\top A_i \mathbf{x}$  are pairwise independent and  $\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} \sim \chi_k^2(\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top A \boldsymbol{\mu})$ , iff
  - (I) any two of the following are true: (a)  $A_i\Sigma$  idempotent,  $\forall i;$  (b)  $A_i\Sigma A_j=0, \ \forall i< j;$  and (c)  $A\Sigma$  idempotent; OR
  - (II) (c) is true and (d)  $k = \sum_{i=1}^{m} k_i$ ; **OR**
  - (III) (c) is true and (e)  $A_1\Sigma, \ldots, A_{m-1}\Sigma$  are idempotent and  $A_m\Sigma \succeq \mathbf{0}$ .
- 4. (Cochran's theorem)  $\mathbf{x} \sim N_p(\mathbf{0}_p, I_p)$  and  $A_i$  is symmetric of rank  $k_i$ , for i = 1, ..., m with  $\sum_{i=1}^m A_i = I_p$ , then  $\mathbf{x}^\top A_i \mathbf{x} \sim \chi_{k_i}^2$  independently iff  $\sum_{i=1}^m k_i = p$ .

## 3.1.2 The noncentral $\chi^2$ and F distribution

## 3.2 Asymptotic properties

### 3.2.1 Asymptotic distributions of sample means and covariance matrices

Refer to section 1.2.2, [5].

#### CLT for sample means

Theorem 3.2.1. Let  $x_{1:n} \sim_{iid} [\mu, \Sigma]$ , then

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n (\boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \xrightarrow{d} \mathrm{N}_p(\boldsymbol{0}_p, \Sigma).$$

### CLT for sample covariance matrices

Theorem 3.2.2. Let  $\mathbf{x}_{1:n} \sim_{\text{iid}} [\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma]$  with finite fourth moments, SSCP matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^{\top}$ , and  $\mathbf{S} = (n-1)^{-1} \mathbf{A}$ . Let  $V = \mathbb{C}\text{ov}[\text{vec}((\mathbf{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top})]$ , then

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}(\operatorname{vec}(\boldsymbol{A}) - n \cdot \operatorname{vec}(\Sigma)) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{d}} \operatorname{N}_{p^2}(\boldsymbol{0}, V),$$

$$\sqrt{n-1}(\operatorname{vec}(\boldsymbol{S}) - \operatorname{vec}(\Sigma)) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} \operatorname{N}_{p^2}(\boldsymbol{0}, V).$$

Note that  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{p^2 \times p^2}$  is singular as the LHS vectors above have repeated elements.

## Linear Models

Reference:

- 1. CUHK STAT5030 Linear Models (2025 Spring), by Yuanyuan Lin.
- 2. CUHKSZ STA3001 Linear Models (2022 Fall), by Zhou Zhou.
- 3. Peng Ding Linear Model and Extensions.

#### 4.1 Linear regression for the full-rank model

#### Full-rank linear model (fixed design X)

Definition 4.1.1.

$$Y_n = X_{n \times p} \beta_p + \varepsilon_n, \quad r(X) = p,$$
 (4.1)

where (Y, X) is a pair of response, X is fixed and determistic,  $\beta$  is a vector of covariates, and  $\varepsilon$  is unobservable error term.

$$oldsymbol{Y} = egin{pmatrix} y_1 \ y_2 \ dots \ y_n \end{pmatrix}, \,\, oldsymbol{X} = egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{x}_1^ op \ oldsymbol{x}_2^ op \ dots \ oldsymbol{x}_n^ op \end{pmatrix} = oldsymbol{(X_1} \quad \dots \quad oldsymbol{X}_p) \,.$$

#### 4.1.1 Ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation

The *least squares estimate* (*LSE*) minimizes

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \ L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta})^2 = (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}),$$

which satisfies

(FONC) 
$$\partial L(\boldsymbol{\beta})/\partial \boldsymbol{\beta} = -2\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{Y} + 2\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{0}_{p},$$

 $(Normal\ equation) \qquad oldsymbol{X}^ op oldsymbol{Y} = oldsymbol{X}^ op oldsymbol{X} \hat{oldsymbol{eta}}.$ 

As  $X^{\top}X$  has full rank,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{Y} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\top} \right)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} y_{i} \right). \tag{4.2}$$

We decompose

$$m{Y} = \hat{m{Y}} + \hat{m{arepsilon}}, \quad ext{(fitted vector)} \,\,\, \hat{m{Y}} = m{X}\hat{m{eta}}, \quad ext{(residual)} \,\,\, \hat{m{arepsilon}} = m{Y} - \hat{m{Y}} = m{Y} - m{X}\hat{m{eta}}$$

**Proposition 4.1.2.** The OLS problem is to find the vector in Col(X) that is the closest to Y. So  $\hat{Y}$  is the projection of  $Y \in Col(X)$  onto Col(X), and the residual  $\hat{\varepsilon} \perp Col(X)$  algebraically.

- 1.  $X_i^{\top} \hat{\varepsilon} = 0 \iff X^{\top} \hat{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{0}_p \iff X^{\top} (Y \hat{Y}) = \mathbf{0}_p$ .
- 2. \$\hat{Y}^\top\hat{\varepsilon}\$ = 0, the Pythagorean Theorem implies that \$||Y||^2 = ||\hat{Y}||^2 + ||\hat{\varepsilon}||^2\$.
   3. If \$\boldsymbol{X}\$ contains \$\mathbf{1}\_n\$, then \$\mathbf{1}\_n^\top\hat{\varepsilon}\$ = 0 \$\Rightarrow\$ n^{-1} \$\sum\_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}\_i\$ = 0.
   4. \$\foldsymbol{b}\$ ∈ \$\mathbb{R}^p\$, \$(\boldsymbol{X}\hat{\beta} \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{b})^\top\hat{\varepsilon}\$ = 0, we have the following decomposition

$$\|Y - Xb\|^2 = \|Y - X\hat{\beta}\|^2 + \|X(\hat{\beta} - b)\|^2$$

which implies that  $\|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}\|^2 \ge \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\|^2$  with equality holding iff  $\mathbf{b} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ .

Let  $H = X(X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top} = (h_{ij})_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$  be the so-called *hat matrix*.

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = (I_n - \boldsymbol{H})\boldsymbol{Y}, \qquad \hat{\boldsymbol{Y}} = \boldsymbol{H}\boldsymbol{Y}, \qquad \hat{y}_i = h_{ii}y_i + \sum_{j \neq i} h_{ij}y_j.$$

 $h_{ii}$  is called the leverage score.

#### Properties of hat matrix H

#### Proposition 4.1.3.

- 1. H is symmetric idempotent (projection matrix), so HX = X,  $(I_n H)X = \mathbf{0}_n$ , and r(H) = p.
- 2.  $I_n \mathbf{H}$  is symmetric idempotent, so  $tr(I_n \mathbf{H}) = n p$ .
- 3.  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{\top}\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \boldsymbol{Y}^{\top}(I_n \boldsymbol{H})\boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{Y}^{\top}\boldsymbol{Y} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{Y} = \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Y}\boldsymbol{Y}^{\top}(I_n \boldsymbol{H})).$

If  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{1}_n, \mathbf{X}_1)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (p+1)}$ , then

1.  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{1}_n = \mathbf{1}_n \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n h_{ij} = 1, \ \forall i = 1, \dots, n.$ 

#### Gauss-Markov model

#### Gauss-Markov model assumption

**Assumption 4.1.4.** For the linear model in Definition 4.1.1, we assume

$$\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon) = \mathbf{0}_n, \qquad \mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2 I_n.$$
 (4.3)

The unknown parameters are  $(\beta, \sigma^2)$ .

The mean-zero condition is an identifiability condition for the intercept component of  $\beta$ .

#### Statistical properties of LSE

**Proposition 4.1.5.** Under Assumption 4.1.4, for the LSE  $\hat{\beta}$  in (4.2), we have

- 1. (Unbiased estimate)  $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$ .
- 2.  $\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}$ .
- 3.  $\hat{Y}$  and  $\hat{\varepsilon}$  are uncorrelated:

$$\mathbb{E}\begin{pmatrix} \hat{\boldsymbol{Y}} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \mathbf{0}_n \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}\begin{pmatrix} \hat{\boldsymbol{Y}} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \end{pmatrix} = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{H} & \mathbf{0}_{n \times n} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n \times n} & I_n - \boldsymbol{H} \end{pmatrix}$$

- $\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{y}_i, \hat{y}_j) = \sigma^2 h_{ij}$  and  $\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\varepsilon}_i, \hat{\varepsilon}_j) = -\sigma^2 h_{ij}$  for  $i \neq j$ .
- 4. Let the residual error sum of squares(RSS)/sum of squares due to error(SSE) be

$$SSE = RSS = \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\varepsilon}_{i}^{2}, \tag{4.4}$$

then

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\varepsilon}_i) = \sigma^2 (1 - h_{ii}), \quad \mathbb{E}(\hat{\sigma}^2) := \mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n - \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{X})}\right\} = \sigma^2. \tag{4.5}$$

#### Gauss-Markov theorem

**Theorem 4.1.6.** Under Assumption 4.1.4, the LSE  $\hat{\beta}$  for  $\beta$  is the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) in the sense that

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \succ \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$$

for  $\forall \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  satisfying: (C1)  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = A\boldsymbol{Y}$  for some  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$  not depending on  $\boldsymbol{Y}$ ; and (C2)  $\mathbb{E}\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta}$  for any  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ . In the process of the proof, we have that for all such  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ ,

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}-\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}},\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})=\mathbf{0}_p,\qquad \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}-\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})=\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}})-\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}).$$

It implies that

$$oldsymbol{c}^{ op} \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}) oldsymbol{c} \geq oldsymbol{c}^{ op} \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}) oldsymbol{c} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(oldsymbol{c}^{ op} \hat{oldsymbol{eta}}) \geq \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(oldsymbol{c}^{ op}_j), \ j=1,\ldots,p.$$

#### Model with intercept

Consider the linear model in Definition 4.1.1 with intercept

$$Y = X \underset{k+1}{\beta} + \varepsilon, \tag{4.6}$$

where  $\boldsymbol{X} = (\boldsymbol{1}_n, \boldsymbol{X}_c), \, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top} = (\beta_0, \boldsymbol{b}^{\top}), \text{ and } \boldsymbol{b}^{\top} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k). \text{ Let } \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}_c^{\top} = (\bar{x}_{.1}, \dots, \bar{x}_{.k}). \text{ Note that } \boldsymbol{1}_n^{\top} \boldsymbol{Y} = n \bar{y}, \qquad \boldsymbol{1}_n^{\top} \boldsymbol{X}_c = n \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}_c^{\top}.$ 

#### Properties of LSE with intercept

Proposition 4.1.7. For the LSE  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\top} = (\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\boldsymbol{b}}^{\top})$  in (4.2), we have let  $\boldsymbol{Z} = \boldsymbol{X}_c - \mathbf{1}_n \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}_c^{\top}$   $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}_c^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1}_n^{\top} \boldsymbol{Y} - \bar{\boldsymbol{X}}_c^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{b}},$   $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}} = (\boldsymbol{Z}^{\top} \boldsymbol{Z})^{-1} \boldsymbol{Z}^{\top} \boldsymbol{Y}.$ 

#### 4.1.2 Weighted least square (WLS) estimation

#### WLS assumption

**Assumption 4.1.8.** For the linear model in Definition 4.1.1, we assume

$$\mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \mathbf{0}_n, \qquad \mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \Sigma,$$
 (4.7)

where  $\Sigma \succ \mathbf{0}$  is known.

The weighted least squares estimator (WLSE) or generalized least squares estimator (GLSE) is defined as the minimizer

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\mathrm{arg\,min}} \ S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \equiv (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}),$$

which satisfies

$$(\text{FONC}) \qquad \partial S(\boldsymbol{\beta})/\partial \boldsymbol{\beta} = -2\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{Y} + 2\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{0}_{p},$$

$$(Normal\ equation) \qquad \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{X} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{WLS}}.$$

As  $\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}$  has full rank since  $\boldsymbol{X}$  and  $\Sigma^{-1}$  have full rank,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{WLS}} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{Y}, \qquad \mathbb{E} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{WLS}} = \boldsymbol{\beta}. \tag{4.8}$$

Remark 4.1.9. 1. Another aspect to motivate the WLS: Since  $\Sigma \succ \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\Sigma^{-1/2}$  exists and thus

$$\underbrace{\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{Y}}_{\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}} = \underbrace{\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{X}}_{\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \underbrace{\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}} ., \qquad \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{WLS}} = (\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\top} \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}})^{-1} \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{Y}}. \tag{4.9}$$

Now  $\mathbb{E}(\tilde{\epsilon}) = \mathbf{0}_n$  and  $\mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\tilde{\epsilon}) = I_n$  satisfy Assumption 4.1.4 of the OLS.

2. Theorem 4.1.6 states that the LSE with  $\Sigma = I_n$  has the smallest covariance matrix under the Gauss-Markov model.

#### WLS version of Gauss-Markov theorem

Corollary 4.1.10. Under Assumption 4.1.8, the WLSE  $\hat{\beta}^{\text{WLS}}$  for  $\beta$  is the BLUE:

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \succeq \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}})$$

for  $\forall \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  satisfying: (C1)  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = A\boldsymbol{Y}$  for some  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$  not depending on  $\boldsymbol{Y}$ ; and (C2)  $\mathbb{E}\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta}$  for any  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ . For all such  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ ,

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}}) = \mathbf{0}_{p}, \qquad \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}}) = \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) - \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}}).$$

Remark 4.1.11. Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , by similar technique, the BLUE of  $t^{\top}\beta$  is  $t^{\top}\hat{\beta}^{\text{WLS}}$ , i.e., for any  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^p$  satisfies  $\mathbb{E}(\lambda^{\top}Y) = t^{\top}\beta$ , we have

$$\mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\top}\boldsymbol{Y}) \geq \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(\boldsymbol{t}^{\top}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}}) = \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(\boldsymbol{t}^{\top}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{Y}).$$

#### 4.1.3 LS theory of random-effect model

#### Full-rank linear model (random effect)

Definition 4.1.12.

$$Y = X_{n \times k} b + e, \tag{4.10}$$

where  $\{Y_i, b_i, e_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are iid copies of (Y, b, e), and  $\mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{b} = \boldsymbol{\theta}$  and  $\mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\boldsymbol{b}) = \boldsymbol{F}$ ,  $baq \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and  $\boldsymbol{F} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$  PD. Also assume

$$\mathbb{E}(e \mid b) = 0$$
,  $\mathbb{C}ov(e \mid b) = V$ .

We want to find the BLUE of  $\boldsymbol{p}^{\top}\boldsymbol{b}$  where  $\boldsymbol{p} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is given.

$$\mathbb{E} oldsymbol{Y} = \mathbb{E} \{ \mathbb{E}(oldsymbol{Y} \mid oldsymbol{b}) \} = oldsymbol{X} oldsymbol{ heta},$$
  $\mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(oldsymbol{Y}) = \mathbb{E} \{ \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(oldsymbol{Y} \mid oldsymbol{b}) \} + \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar} \{ \mathbb{E}(oldsymbol{Y} \mid oldsymbol{b}) \} = oldsymbol{V} + oldsymbol{X} oldsymbol{F} oldsymbol{X}^{ op} oldsymbol{b} ] = oldsymbol{X} oldsymbol{F} oldsymbol{b} \} + \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}[\mathbb{E}(oldsymbol{Y} \mid oldsymbol{b}), oldsymbol{p}^{ op} oldsymbol{b}] = oldsymbol{X} oldsymbol{F} oldsymbol{p}.$ 

#### 4.1.4 Normal linear model: MLE

#### Normal linear model

**Assumption 4.1.13.** For the linear model in Definition 4.1.1, we assume  $\varepsilon \sim N_n(\mathbf{0}_n, \sigma^2 I_n)$ . The unknown parameters are  $(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$ .

By Assumption 4.1.13, we have

$$Y \sim N_n(X\beta, \sigma^2 I_n) \iff y_i \sim_{iid} N(\mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2), i = 1, \dots, n.$$

The likelihood function is

$$L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top}(\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right\}.$$

By setting

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \boldsymbol{0}_p, \qquad \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^\top (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0,$$

the MLE of  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  and  $\sigma^2$  are

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{MLE}} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{Y}, \qquad \hat{\sigma}^{\text{2MLE}} = \frac{1}{n} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{MLE}})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{MLE}}) = \frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{Y}^{\top} (I_n - \boldsymbol{H}) \boldsymbol{Y}, \tag{4.11}$$

that is, LSE is the MLE. Note that  $\hat{\sigma}^{\text{2MLE}}$  is biased for finite n.

#### Properties under normal assumption

### Proposition 4.1.14.

- 1.  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{MLE}} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \sigma^2).$
- 2. The MLE/LSE  $\hat{\beta}$  and SSE (4.4) are independent.
- 3. Recall the variance estimator  $\hat{\sigma} = SSE/(n r(X))$  in (4.5), we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{SSE}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{n-\mathrm{r}(\boldsymbol{X})}, \quad or \quad \frac{(n-\mathrm{r}(\boldsymbol{X}))\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{n-\mathrm{r}(\boldsymbol{X})}.$$

•  $\mathbb{E}\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{2\sigma^2}{n-p}} \frac{\Gamma((n-p+1)/2)}{\Gamma((n-p)/2)}$ , and  $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\sigma}^{-2}) = \frac{n-p}{2\sigma^2} \frac{\Gamma((n-p-2)/2)}{\Gamma((n-p)/2)}$ .

#### 4.1.5 **Proofs**

Proof of Proposition 4.1.5

Proof. 1.

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \mathbb{E}((\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{Y}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{Y}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

2.

$$\operatorname{\mathbb{C}ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \operatorname{\mathbb{C}ov}((\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{Y}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\operatorname{\mathbb{C}ov}(\boldsymbol{Y})\boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}$$
$$= \sigma^{2}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}I_{n}\boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1} = \sigma^{2}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}.$$

3.

$$\mathbb{E}\begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{Y}} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H} \\ I_n - \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{Y}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H} \\ I_n - \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ (I_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \mathbf{0}_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\mathbb{C}\text{ov}\begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{Y}} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H} \\ I_n - \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\mathbf{Y}) \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H}^\top & (I_n - \mathbf{H})^\top \end{pmatrix} = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H} \\ I_n - \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H} & I_n - \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H}^2 & \mathbf{H}(I_n - \mathbf{H}) \\ (I_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{H} & (I_n - \mathbf{H})^2 \end{pmatrix} = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & I_n - \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix},$$

4. By item 3,  $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\varepsilon}_i) = \sigma^2(1 - h_{ii})$ , hence  $\mathbb{E}(RSS) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma^2(1 - h_{ii}) = \sigma^2\{n - \text{tr}(H)\} = \sigma^2(n-p)$ . Alternatively, we can directly show

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{\top}\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}) = \mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{Y}^{\top}(I_n - \boldsymbol{H})\boldsymbol{Y}) = \operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{I}_n - \boldsymbol{H})\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) + \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}(I_n - \boldsymbol{H})\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \sigma^2\operatorname{tr}(I_n - \boldsymbol{H}) = \sigma^2(n - p).$$

4.2. RIDGE REGRESSION

Proof of Theorem 4.1.6

*Proof.* We must verify that the OLS estimator itself satisfies (C1) and (C2). We have  $\hat{\beta} = \hat{A}Y$  with  $\hat{A} = (X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}$ , and it is unbiased by Proposition 4.1.5.

First, the unbiasedness requirement implies that

$$\mathbb{E}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \boldsymbol{\beta} \implies \mathbb{E}(A\boldsymbol{Y}) = A\mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{Y}) = A\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta} \implies A\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta}, \quad \forall \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

So  $AX = I_p$  must hold. In particular, the OLS estimator satisfies  $\hat{A}X = (X^{\top}X)^{-1}X^{\top}X = I_p$ . Second, we can decompose the covariance of  $\tilde{\beta}$  as

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) &= \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \\ &= \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) + \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) + \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) + \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}). \end{split}$$

The last two terms are in fact zero. By symmetry, we only need to show that the third term is zero:

$$\mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \mathbb{C}\text{ov}\{\hat{A}\boldsymbol{Y}, (A - \hat{A})\boldsymbol{Y}\} = \sigma^{2}\hat{A}(A - \hat{A})^{\top} 
= \sigma^{2}(\hat{A}A^{\top} - \hat{A}\hat{A}^{\top}) 
= \sigma^{2}\left\{(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}A^{\top} - (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\right\} 
= \sigma^{2}\left\{(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}I_{p} - (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\right\} = \mathbf{0}_{p}.$$

The above covariance decomposition simplifies to

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) + \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}),$$

which implies

$$\mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) - \mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \succeq \mathbf{0}.$$

Proof of Corollary 4.1.10

*Proof.* The WLSE satisfies conditions (C1)–(C2). We write WLS in the form of OLS (4.9) such that  $\hat{\beta}^{\text{WLS}} = (\tilde{X}^{\top}\tilde{X})^{-1}\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}$ . Then by Theorem 4.1.6,

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}') \succeq \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}})$$

for all  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}'$  satisfying: (1)  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}' = \tilde{A}\tilde{\boldsymbol{Y}}$  for some  $\tilde{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$  not depending on  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{Y}}$ ; and (2)  $\mathbb{E}\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}' = \boldsymbol{\beta}$ . Suppose  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  satisfies: (C1)  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = A\boldsymbol{Y}$  for some  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$  not depending on  $\boldsymbol{Y}$ ; and (C2)  $\mathbb{E}\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta}$ . Then  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (A\Sigma^{1/2})\Sigma^{-1/2}\boldsymbol{Y} = (A\Sigma^{1/2})\tilde{\boldsymbol{Y}}$ , i.e. satisfying (1); and (2) is satisfied by definition. So

$$\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \succeq \mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathrm{WLS}}).$$

Proof of Proposition 4.1.14

*Proof.* Item 1 is obvious. Item 2 applies Theorem 3.1.10. Item 3 uses Theorem 3.1.12 to show the  $\chi^2$  distribution and (1.1) to show the moments.

## 4.2 Ridge regression

### 4.3 LASSO

# Generalized Linear Models

# Bayesian Inference

# Structural Equation Model (SEM)

#### Reference:

- CUHK STAT5020 Topics in multivariate analysis (2025 Spring), by Xin Yuan SONG.
- Sik-Yum Lee and Xin-Yuan Song Basic and advanced Bayesian structural equation modeling: With applications in the medical and behavioral sciences [4].

#### 7.1 SEM models

**Goal**: to examine the relationships among the variables of interest.

**Approach**: group observed variables to form *latent variables* (a combination of several observed variables).

- Reduce the number of variables compared to direct regression.
- As highly correlated observed variables are grouped into latent variables, the problem induced by multicollinearity is alleviated.
- It gives better assessments on the interrelationships of latent constructs.

#### Linear SEMs

**Definition 7.1.1.** Assume that the observed variables  $y_p \sim_{\text{iid}} N_p$  with mean  $\mu_p$ . Let  $\omega_q$  be latent variables.  $\omega_q = (\eta_{q_1}^\top, \xi_{q_2}^\top)^\top$ , where  $\eta_{q_1}$  is the key outcome latent variables, and  $\xi_{q_2}$  is the explanatory latent variables. Define

(Measurement equation (MeaEq)) 
$$y_p = \mu_p + \Lambda_{p \times q} \omega_q + \epsilon_p,$$
(Structural equation (StEq)) 
$$\eta_{q_1} = \Gamma_{q_1 \times q_2} \xi_{q_2} + \delta_{q_1},$$
(7.1)

where  $\Lambda$  is the unknown factor loading matrix,  $\Gamma$  is the unknown matrix of regression coeffcients, and  $\epsilon$  and  $\delta$  are measurement (residual) errors.

The basic SEM is formulated by two components:

- 1. (MeaEq) Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model groups the highly correlated observed variables into latent variables. We know the information/structure of  $\Lambda$  (e.g., know  $y_1, y_2$  are only affected by  $\eta$  and  $y_3, y_4$  are affected by  $\xi$ ).
  - Exploratory factor analysis (EFA): we have y and just know they have lower-dimensional structure, but don't know the structure of  $\Lambda$  and q.

It regresses y on a smaller number of latent variables.

2. (StEq) A regression type model, in which  $\eta$  is regressed on  $\xi$ .

#### Standard linear SEMs

**Assumption 7.1.2.** For i = 1, ..., n,

- (A1)  $\epsilon_i \sim_{\text{iid}} N[\mathbf{0}_p, \mathbf{\Psi}_{\epsilon}]$ , where  $\mathbf{\Psi}_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  is diagonal.
- (A2)  $\xi_i \sim_{\text{iid}} N[\mathbf{0}_{q_2}, \Phi]$ , where  $\Phi$  is a general (we can evaluate the correlations of the latent variables).
- (A3)  $\delta_i \sim_{\text{iid}} N[\mathbf{0}_{q_1}, \mathbf{\Psi}_{\delta}]$ , where  $\mathbf{\Psi}_{\delta}$  is diagonal.
- (A4)  $\delta_i \perp \!\!\! \perp \xi_i$ , and  $\epsilon_i \perp \!\!\! \perp \omega_i, \delta_i$ .

These assumptions imply that

Identifiability issue: The measurement equation is identified if  $\forall \theta_1, \theta_2$ , MeaEq( $\theta_1$ ) = MeaEq( $\theta_2$ ) implies  $\theta_1 = \theta_2$ . The structural equation is identified if  $\forall \theta_1, \theta_2$ , StEq( $\theta_1$ ) = StEq( $\theta_2$ ) implies  $\theta_1 = \theta_2$ . The SEM is identified if both of its MeaEq and StEq are identified. For example, consider (7.1) MeaEq:

$$y = \mu + (\Lambda M)(M^{-1}\omega) + \epsilon = \mu + \Lambda^*\omega^* + \epsilon, \quad \omega^* \sim \mathrm{N}(\mathbf{0}_a, M^{-1}\mathbb{C}\mathrm{ov}(\omega)M^{-\top}).$$

We have to impose restrictions on  $\Lambda$  and/or  $\mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\omega)$  such that the only nonsingular  $M = I_q$ .

• A simple and common method is using a  $\Lambda$  with the non-overlapping structure, e.g.,

where 1's are fixed to introduce a scale to latent variables.

• We can also allow  $\lambda_{11}$ ,  $\lambda_{52}$ , and/or  $\lambda_{83}$  to be unknowns, and fix diag( $\mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\boldsymbol{\omega})$ ) =  $I_q$ , such that  $\mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\boldsymbol{\omega})$  is a correlation matrix. But it is not convenient for identifying an SEM with StEq, and induces complication in the Bayesian analysis.

**Example 7.1.3.** Study the kidney disease of type 2 diabetic patients. We observe: plasma creatine (PCr), urinary albumin creatinine ratio (ACR), systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), body mass index (BMI), waist hip ratio (WHR), glycated hemoglobin (HbAlc), fasting plasma glucose (FPG). Group

- {PCr, ACR}: 'kidney disease (KD)'
- {SBP, DBP}: 'blood pressure (BP)'
- {BMI, WHR}: 'obesity (OB)'
- {HbA1c, FPG}: 'glycemic control (GC)'

 $\boldsymbol{y} = (PCr, ACR, SBP, DBP, BMI, WHR)^{\top}, \ \boldsymbol{\omega} = (KD, BP, OB)^{\top}, \ \boldsymbol{\eta} = KD, \ \boldsymbol{\xi} = (BP, OB)^{\top}, \ p = 6, \ q = 3, q_1 = 1, q_2 = 2.$  Then

$$\text{(MeaEq)} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} \text{PCr} \\ \text{ACR} \\ \text{SBP} \\ \text{DBP} \\ \text{BMI} \\ \text{WHR} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \mu_3 \\ \mu_4 \\ \mu_5 \\ \mu_6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ \lambda_{21} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{32} & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{42} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_{53} \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_{63} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{KD} \\ \text{BP} \\ \text{OB} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \epsilon_3 \\ \epsilon_4 \\ \epsilon_5 \\ \epsilon_6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We know that KD is only linked with PCr and ACR.

(StEq) 
$$KD = \gamma_1 BP + \gamma_2 OB + \delta.$$

Suppose we wish to study the effects of  $\xi$  on  $\eta = (KD, \eta_A)^{\top}$ ,  $q_1 = 2$ ,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathrm{KD} \\ \eta_A \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \pi & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathrm{KD} \\ \eta_A \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 \\ \gamma_3 & \gamma_4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathrm{BP} \\ \mathrm{OB} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \delta \\ \delta_A \end{pmatrix}.$$

#### More SEM models

**Definition 7.1.4.** Extensions of StEq:

- Basic StEq:  $\eta_{q_1} = \Gamma_{q_1 \times q_2} \boldsymbol{\xi}_{q_2} + \boldsymbol{\delta}_{q_1}$ .
- An extension:

$$oldsymbol{\eta}_{q_1} = oldsymbol{\Pi}_{q_1 imes q_1}oldsymbol{\eta}_{q_1} + oldsymbol{\Gamma}_{q_1 imes q_2}oldsymbol{\xi}_{q_2} + oldsymbol{\delta}_{q_1},$$

where  $\Pi$  is a matrix of unknown coefficients such that  $I_{q_1} - \Pi$  is nonsingular and the diagonal elements of  $\Pi$  are zero.

• Add fixed known covariates d:

$$m{\eta}_{q_1} = m{B}_{q_1 imes r_2} m{d}_{r_2} + m{\Pi}_{q_1 imes q_1} m{\eta}_{q_1} + m{\Gamma}_{q_1 imes q_2} m{\xi}_{q_2} + m{\delta}_{q_1}.$$

• Add nonlinear structure:

$$\eta_{q_1} = B_{q_1 \times r_2} d_{r_2} + \Pi_{q_1 \times q_1} \eta_{q_1} + \Gamma_{q_1 \times t} F_t(\xi_{q_2}) + \delta_{q_1}, \tag{7.2}$$

where  $F(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = (f_1(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \dots, f_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}))^{\top}$  with nonzero, known, and linearly independent differentiable functions  $f_1, \dots, f_t, t \geq q_2$ . To identity StEq, structures like  $F_1(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = (\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_1^2, \xi_1^2)^{\top}$  and  $F_2(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = (\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_1 \xi_2, 0)^{\top}$  are not allowed.

• Combine d and F:

$$\eta_{q_1} = \Pi_{q_1 \times q_1} \eta_{q_1} + \Lambda_{\omega, q_1 \times t} G_t(d, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \delta_{q_1}, \tag{7.3}$$

where  $G(d\boldsymbol{\xi}) = (g_1(\boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi}), \dots, g_t(\boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi}))^{\top}$  is a vector-valued function with nonzero, known, and linearly independent differentiable functions. (7.2) can be obtained by letting  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} = (\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma})$  and  $G(\boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = (\boldsymbol{d}^{\top}, \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\xi})^{\top})^{\top}$ . An Extension of MeaEq:

• Add fixed known covariates c (If  $\mu_p$  is included, then  $c = [1, c_2]^{\top}$ .)

$$\boldsymbol{y}_p = \boldsymbol{A}_{p \times r_1} \boldsymbol{c}_{r_1} + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{p \times q} \boldsymbol{\omega}_q + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_p. \tag{7.4}$$

Let  $\Lambda_k^{\top}$  be the kth row of  $\Lambda$ , and  $\Lambda_k^{\top} = (\Lambda_{kn}^{\top}, \Lambda_{k\xi}^{\top})$  be a partition correspondings to the partition of  $\omega = (\eta^{\top}, \xi^{\top})^{\top}$ .

For StEq (7.2) with  $r_2 = 0$  and MeaEq (7.1),

$$\mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbf{0}_{q_2}, \quad \mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = [(I_{q_1} - \boldsymbol{\Pi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}] \mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\xi})),$$
$$\mathbb{E}(y_k) = \mu_k + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{k\boldsymbol{\eta}}^{\top} [(I_{q_1} - \boldsymbol{\Pi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}] \mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\xi})).$$

For StEq (7.3) and MeaEq (7.4), let  $A_k^{\top}$  be the kth row of A,

$$\mathbb{E}(y_k) = \boldsymbol{A}_k^{\top} \boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{k\boldsymbol{n}}^{\top} \mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \boldsymbol{A}_k^{\top} \boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{k\boldsymbol{n}}^{\top} [(I_{q_1} - \boldsymbol{\Pi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}}] \mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi})).$$

#### Issues of developing a comprehensive SEM:

- 1. Make sure the sample size of y is large enough to achieve accurate statistical results.
- 2. If the size of the proposed SEM and the number of parameters are large, we may encounter diffculties in achieving convergence of the related computing algorithm for obtaining statistical results.
- 3. So far, the most general SEM is MeaEq (7.4) and StEq (7.3):

$$y = Ac + \Lambda\omega + \epsilon, \qquad \eta = \Pi\eta + \Lambda_\omega G(d, \xi) + \delta.$$

It has limitations. As  $G(d, \xi)$  does not involve any  $\eta_k$  in  $\eta$ , nonlinear terms related to  $\eta_k$  cannot be used to predict the other  $\eta_{k'}$ 's, i.e.,  $\eta_k$  cannot be accommodated in  $G(d, \xi)$  and nonlinear effects of  $\eta_k$  on  $\eta_{k'}$  cannot be assessed.

## 7.2 Bayesian methods for estimating SEM

<u>Motivation</u>: A traditional method is the *covariance structure approach*, which focuses on fitting the covariance structure under the proposed model to the sample covariance matrix S.

• In many complex situations, deriving the explicit covariance structure  $\Sigma = \mathbb{C}\text{ov}(\boldsymbol{y})$  or obtaining an appropriate  $\boldsymbol{S}$  is difficult (e.g., when  $\exists$  missing data).

Advarntages of Bayesian estimates (BE):  $\log \mathbb{P}(\theta \mid Y) = \log \mathbb{P}(Y \mid \theta) + \log \mathbb{P}(\theta) + \text{const}$ 

- 1. Methods are based on the first moment properties of y which are simpler than the second moment properties of S. Hence, it has potential to be applied to more complex situations.
- 2. It estimates  $\omega$  directly, which cannot be obtained with classical methods.
- 3. As  $n \to \infty$ ,  $\log \mathbb{P}(Y \mid \theta)$  could dominate  $\log \mathbb{P}(\theta)$ , hence the BE have the same optimal properties as the MLE.
- 4. It allows the use of genuine prior information for producing better results. With small or moderate sample sizes,  $\mathbb{P}(\theta)$  plays a more substantial role in BE than  $\mathbb{P}(Y \mid \theta)$ , and is useful for achieving better results.
- 5. It provides more easily assessable statistics for goodness-of-fit and model comparison, and also other useful statistics such as the posterior mean and percentiles. (Don't need to derive the asymptotic distributions.)
- 6. It can give more reliable results for small samples.

#### 7.2.1 Priors for SEM

#### Informative prior:

#### Conjugate prior for SEMs

**Assumption 7.2.1.** In developing the Bayesian methods for analyzing SEMs, we usually assign fixed known values to the hyperparameters in the conjugate prior distributions. Consider

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{y}_i &= oldsymbol{\mu} + oldsymbol{\Lambda} oldsymbol{\omega}_i + oldsymbol{\epsilon}_i, \ oldsymbol{\eta}_i &= oldsymbol{B} oldsymbol{d}_i + oldsymbol{\Pi} oldsymbol{\eta}_i + oldsymbol{\Gamma} F(oldsymbol{\xi}_i) + oldsymbol{\delta}_i = oldsymbol{\Lambda} oldsymbol{\omega} G(oldsymbol{\omega}_i) + oldsymbol{\delta}_i, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Lambda_{\omega} = (\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{\Pi}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}) \in \mathbb{R}^{q_1 \times (r_2 + q_1 + t)}$ , and  $\boldsymbol{G}(\omega_i) = (\boldsymbol{d}_i^{\top}, \boldsymbol{\eta}_i^{\top}, \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i)^{\top})^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_2 + q_1 + t}$ . Assumption 7.1.2 is satisfied.  $\boldsymbol{\xi}_i \sim_{\text{iid}} N[\mathbf{0}_{q_2}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}]$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i \sim_{\text{iid}} N[\mathbf{0}_p, \boldsymbol{\Psi}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} = \text{diag}(\psi_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k})]$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\delta}_i \sim_{\text{iid}} N[\mathbf{0}_{q_1}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}_{\boldsymbol{\delta}} = \text{diag}(\psi_{\boldsymbol{\delta}k})]$ .

• Prior (conjugate) for  $\theta_{\boldsymbol{\nu}} = (\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}})$ : let  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k^{\top}$  be the kth row of  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ ,

$$\psi_{\epsilon k} \sim \text{IG}(\alpha_{0\epsilon k}, \beta_{0\epsilon k}), \quad [\mathbf{\Lambda}_k \mid \psi_{\epsilon k}] \sim N_q(\mathbf{\Lambda}_{0k}, \psi_{\epsilon k} \mathbf{H}_{0\mathbf{y}k}), \ k = 1, \dots, p, \\
\boldsymbol{\mu} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0).$$

• Prior (conjugate) for  $\theta_{\omega} = (\Lambda_{\omega}, \Psi_{\delta}, \Phi)$ : let  $\Lambda_{\omega k}^{\top}$  be the kth row of  $\Lambda_{\omega}, \Psi_{\delta}$ ,

$$\Phi \sim IW_{q_2}(\mathbf{R}_0^{-1}, \rho_0), \text{ or } \Phi^{-1} \sim W_{q_2}(\mathbf{R}_0, \rho_0) 
\psi_{\delta k} \sim IG(\alpha_{0\delta k}, \beta_{0\delta k}), \quad [\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\omega k} \mid \psi_{\delta k}] \sim N_{r_2+q_1+t}(\mathbf{\Lambda}_{0\omega k}, \psi_{\delta k} \mathbf{H}_{0\omega k}), \quad k = 1, \dots, q_1.$$

• Assume the prior  $\theta_y \perp \!\!\! \perp \theta_\omega$ .

Hyperparameter selection: If we have good prior information about a parameter, select the prior distribution with a small variance. E.g.,

• if  $\Lambda_k \approx \Lambda_{0k}$ , then  $H_{0yk} = 0.5I_q$ . If not, select the prior with a larger variance;

- since  $\epsilon_{ik} \sim N(0, \psi_{\epsilon k})$ , if the variation is small,  $\psi_{\epsilon k}$  is small, then choose small  $\mathbb{E}(\psi_{\epsilon k}) = \beta_{0\epsilon k}/(\alpha_{0\epsilon k} 1)$  and  $\mathbb{V}ar(\psi_{\epsilon k}) = \beta_{0\epsilon k}^2/\{(\alpha_{0\epsilon k} 1)^2(\alpha_{0\epsilon k} 2)\};$
- if  $\Phi \approx \Phi_0$ , since  $\mathbb{E}(\Phi) = R_0^{-1}/(\rho_0 q_2 1)$ , choose  $R_0^{-1} = (\rho_0 q_2 1)\Phi_0$ .

Noninformative prior (Jeffrey): If information is not available and the sample size is small,

$$\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) \propto \mathbb{P}(\psi_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}1}, \cdots, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}p}) \propto \prod_{k=1}^{p} \psi_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k}^{-1}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}_{\boldsymbol{\delta}}) \propto \mathbb{P}(\psi_{\boldsymbol{\delta}1}, \cdots, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\delta}q_1}) \propto \prod_{k=1}^{q_1} \psi_{\boldsymbol{\delta}k}^{-1},$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Phi}) \propto |\boldsymbol{\Phi}|^{-(q_2+1)/2}.$$

If the sample size is large, can use a portion of the data to estimate  $\Lambda_{0k}$ ,  $\Lambda_{0\omega k}$  and  $\Phi_0$  with noninformative priors. If the sample size is moderate, can use the same data twice.

#### 7.2.2 Bayesian estimation using MCMC

Model: Linear SEM with fixed covariates without intercept:

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{y}_i &= oldsymbol{\Lambda} oldsymbol{\omega}_i + oldsymbol{\epsilon}_i, \ oldsymbol{\eta}_i &= oldsymbol{B} oldsymbol{d}_i + oldsymbol{\Pi} oldsymbol{\eta}_i + oldsymbol{\Gamma} oldsymbol{\xi}_i + oldsymbol{\delta}_i, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Lambda_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} = (\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{\Pi}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}) \in \mathbb{R}^{q_1 \times (r_2 + q_1 + q_2)}$ , and  $\boldsymbol{v}_i = (\boldsymbol{d}_i^{\top}, \boldsymbol{\eta}_i^{\top}, \boldsymbol{\xi}_i^{\top})^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_2 + q_1 + q_2}$ . That is, assume  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{0}_p$  and  $\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_i) - \boldsymbol{\xi}_i$ . Denote data  $\boldsymbol{Y} = (\boldsymbol{y}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{y}_n) = (\boldsymbol{Y}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{Y}_p)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}, \ \boldsymbol{V} = (\boldsymbol{v}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{v}_n) = (\boldsymbol{V}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{V}_{r_2 + q_1 + q_2})^{\top}, \ \boldsymbol{\Xi}_k = (\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1k}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\eta}_{nk})^{\top}$  for  $k = 1, \dots, q_1$ , matrix of latent variables  $\boldsymbol{\Omega} = (\boldsymbol{\omega}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\omega}_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times n}, \ \boldsymbol{\Omega}_1 = (\boldsymbol{\eta}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\eta}_n), \ \boldsymbol{\Omega}_2 = (\boldsymbol{\xi}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\xi}_n)$ , and

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = (oldsymbol{\Lambda}, oldsymbol{B}, oldsymbol{\Pi}, oldsymbol{\Gamma}, oldsymbol{\Phi}, oldsymbol{\Psi}_{oldsymbol{\epsilon}}, oldsymbol{\Psi}_{oldsymbol{\epsilon}}, oldsymbol{\Phi}_{oldsymbol{\omega}}, oldsymbol{\Delta}_{oldsymbol{\omega}}, oldsymbol{\Phi}_{oldsymbol{\omega}}, oldsymbol{\Phi}_{oldsymbol{$$

**Proposition 7.2.2.** The above model has the following posterior distributions:

1. Conditional distribution  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega \mid Y, \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(\omega_i \mid y_i, \theta) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(\omega_i \mid \theta) \mathbb{P}(y_i \mid \omega_i, \theta)$ , where

$$egin{aligned} [oldsymbol{\omega}_i \mid oldsymbol{ heta}] &\sim \mathrm{N}_q(oldsymbol{\mu}_{oldsymbol{\omega}_i}, oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{oldsymbol{\omega}}), & [oldsymbol{y}_i \mid oldsymbol{\omega}_i, oldsymbol{ heta}] &\sim \mathrm{N}_q(oldsymbol{\Sigma}^{*-1}(oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{oldsymbol{\omega}}^{-1} oldsymbol{\mu}_{oldsymbol{\omega}_i} + oldsymbol{\Lambda}^{ op} oldsymbol{\Psi}_{oldsymbol{\epsilon}}^{-1} oldsymbol{y}_i), oldsymbol{\Sigma}^{*-1}) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{\Pi}_0 &= I_{q_1} - oldsymbol{\Pi}, \;\; oldsymbol{\mu}_{oldsymbol{\omega}_i} &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Pi}_0^{-1} B oldsymbol{d}_i \ oldsymbol{0}_{q_2} \end{pmatrix}, \;\; oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{oldsymbol{\omega}} &= egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{\Pi}_0^{-1} (oldsymbol{\Gamma} oldsymbol{\Phi} oldsymbol{\Gamma}^{\top} + oldsymbol{\Psi}_{oldsymbol{\delta}}) oldsymbol{\Pi}_0^{-\top} & oldsymbol{\Pi}_0^{-1} oldsymbol{\Gamma} oldsymbol{\Phi} \\ oldsymbol{\Sigma}^* &= oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{oldsymbol{\omega}}^{-1} + oldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\top} oldsymbol{\Psi}_{oldsymbol{\delta}}^{-1} oldsymbol{\Lambda}. \end{aligned}$$

2. Assume all elements of  $\Lambda_k$  and  $\Lambda_{\omega}$  are unknown, conditional distribution  $\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\Omega}) = \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta_y} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\Omega})\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta_\omega} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\Omega})$ , where we can show  $[\Lambda_k, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\Omega}] \perp \boldsymbol{I}$  and  $[\Lambda_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k}, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\delta}k} \mid \boldsymbol{\Omega}] \perp \boldsymbol{I}$ , and

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{ heta_y} \mid oldsymbol{Y}, oldsymbol{\Omega}) & \propto \prod_{k=1}^p \mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{\Lambda}_k, \psi_{oldsymbol{\epsilon}k} \mid oldsymbol{Y}, oldsymbol{\Omega}), \ \mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{ heta_\omega} \mid oldsymbol{Y}, oldsymbol{\Omega}) & \propto \left[\prod_{k=1}^{q_1} \mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{oldsymbol{\omega}k}, \psi_{oldsymbol{\delta}k} \mid oldsymbol{\Omega})
ight] \mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{\Phi} \mid oldsymbol{\Omega}_2) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{k}, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k}^{-1} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\Omega}) \propto \mathrm{N}_{q}(\boldsymbol{a}_{k}, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k}\boldsymbol{A}_{k}) \cdot \mathrm{Ga}(n/2 + \alpha_{0\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k}, \beta_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k}),$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k}, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\delta}k}^{-1} \mid \boldsymbol{\Omega}) \propto \mathrm{N}_{r_{2}+q_{1}+q_{2}}(\boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k}, \psi_{\boldsymbol{\delta}k}\boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k}) \cdot \mathrm{Ga}(n/2 + \alpha_{0\boldsymbol{\delta}k}, \beta_{\boldsymbol{\delta}k}),$$

$$[\boldsymbol{\Phi} \mid \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{2}] \sim \mathrm{IW}_{q_{2}}[(\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{2}\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{2}^{\top} + \boldsymbol{R}_{0}^{-1}), n + \rho_{0}].$$

where

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{A}_k &= (\boldsymbol{H}_{0yk}^{-1} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\Omega}^\top)^{-1}, \ \boldsymbol{a}_k = \boldsymbol{A}_k (\boldsymbol{H}_{0yk}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{0k} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \boldsymbol{Y}_k), \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k} &= \boldsymbol{\beta}_{0\boldsymbol{\epsilon}k} + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{Y}_k^\top \boldsymbol{Y}_k - \boldsymbol{a}_k^\top \boldsymbol{A}_k^{-1} \boldsymbol{a}_k + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{0k}^\top \boldsymbol{H}_{0yk}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{0k}), \\ \boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k} &= (\boldsymbol{H}_{0\boldsymbol{\omega}k}^{-1} + \boldsymbol{V}_k \boldsymbol{V}_k^\top)^{-1}, \ \boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k} = \boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k} (\boldsymbol{H}_{0\boldsymbol{\omega}k}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{0\boldsymbol{\omega}k} + \boldsymbol{V}_k \boldsymbol{\Xi}_k), \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\boldsymbol{\delta}k} &= \boldsymbol{\beta}_{0\boldsymbol{\delta}k} + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\Xi}_k^\top \boldsymbol{\Xi}_k - \boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k}^\top \boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k}^{-1} \boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}k} + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{0\boldsymbol{\omega}k}^\top \boldsymbol{H}_{0\boldsymbol{\omega}k}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{0\boldsymbol{\omega}k}). \end{split}$$

Remark 7.2.3. For general nonlinear SEMs with MeaEq (7.4) and StEq (7.3), we can defind  $\boldsymbol{u} = [\boldsymbol{c}^{\top}, \boldsymbol{\omega}^{\top}]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_1+q}$  and use similar procedure to derive the full conditional distributions. But by the nonlinear structure  $\boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{\omega})$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Omega} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$  may not have closed form like normal, while  $\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\Omega})$  is not affected and keeps normal-Gamma. To handle fixed parameters, see Appendix 3.3 in [4] and Sec 4.3.1 and Appendix 4.3 in [3]. Also see STAT5020 HW1 Q3.

### 7.3 Bayesian model comparison

## 7.4 Hierarchical and Multisample Data

#### Two-level nonlinear SEM with mixed type variables

**Definition 7.4.1.** Consider a collection of *p*-variate random vectors  $u_{gi}$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,N_g$ , nested within groups  $g=1,\ldots,G$ .

(Within-groups) 
$$\boldsymbol{u}_{gi} = \boldsymbol{v}_g + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{1g}\boldsymbol{\omega}_{1gi} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{1gi}, \quad g = 1, \dots, G, \quad i = 1, \dots, N_g,$$
  
(Between-groups)  $\boldsymbol{v}_g = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_2\boldsymbol{\omega}_{2g} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{2g}, \quad g = 1, \dots, G$ 

where  $\mathbf{\Lambda}_{1g} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q_1}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{1gi} \in \mathbb{R}^{q_1}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{1gi} \in \mathbb{R}^p \sim \mathrm{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}_{1g})$  independent of  $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{1gi}$ , where  $\boldsymbol{\Psi}_{1g}$  is diagonal. Then

$$\mathbf{u}_{gi} = \mu + \mathbf{\Lambda}_2 \omega_{2g} + \epsilon_{2g} + \mathbf{\Lambda}_{1g} \omega_{1gi} + \epsilon_{1gi}.$$

The SEM is

$$\begin{split} & \eta_{1gi} = \Pi_{1g} \eta_{1gi} + \Gamma_{1g} \mathbf{F}_{1}(\xi_{1gi}) + \delta_{1gi}, \\ & \eta_{2g} = \Pi_{2} \eta_{2g} + \Gamma_{2} \mathbf{F}_{2}(\xi_{2g}) + \delta_{2g}, \end{split}$$

# **Bibliography**

- [1] G. Casella and R. L. Berger. Statistical inference, volume 2. Duxbury Pacific Grove, CA, 2002. 2, 2.1
- [2] R. Christensen et al. Plane answers to complex questions, volume 35. Springer, 2002. 3
- [3] S.-Y. Lee. Structural equation modeling: A Bayesian approach. John Wiley & Sons, 2007. 7.2.3
- [4] S.-Y. Lee and X.-Y. Song. Basic and advanced Bayesian structural equation modeling: With applications in the medical and behavioral sciences. John Wiley & Sons, 2012. 7, 7.2.3
- [5] R. J. Muirhead. Aspects of multivariate statistical theory. John Wiley & Sons, 1982. 3, 3.1, 3.1.1, 3.2.1