Lecture Notes of Multivariate Statistical Analysis

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1 Introduction and Review of Linear Algebra/Optimization

There are some applications in multivariate statistics:

- 1. Investigating of the dependency among variables (Should you take this course? Are you good at math?)
- 2. Hypotheses testing (Can I achieve grade A?)
- 3. Dimensionality reduction (Do you want to join my group? Are you good at math/programming?)
- 4. Prediction (Can I receive an Phd offer?)
- 5. Clustering (Course category. Which Phd/master advisor shoud I select?)

课程	学生1	学生2	学生3	学生4	学生5	学生6
习近平新时代中国特色社会主义思想	B+	Α-	В	Α-	С	Α
马克思主义原理	Α	Α	В	B+	В	B+
形势与政策	Α-	Α-	Α	A-	B+	B+
数学分析	Α	Α	C+	A-	B-	B+
高等代数	Α-	Α	С	B+	C+	A-
最优化方法	Α	Α-	С	A-	C+	A-
多元统计分析	Α	?	D	?	?	Α-
程序设计	B+	Α	Α	A-	B+	B-
数据库及实现	B+	?	Α	B+	В	?
神经网络与深度学习	B+	Α-	Α-	A-	?	В
计算机视觉	B+	Α	Α	?	B-	B-
自然语言处理	B+	?	Α	A-	B+	B+

Figure 1: Grading of some students.

Notation of transpose: I do not like use A' to present the transpose of A.

- 1. In MATLAB, the notation \mathbf{A}' presents the conjugate transpose. I recommend use \mathbf{A}^{\top} to present the transpose and \mathbf{A}^{H} to present the conjugate transpose.
- 2. The prime usually presents derivative.

Property of trace: For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ and $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$, we have

$$tr(ABC) = tr(BCA) = tr(CAB).$$

However, we cannot write

$$tr(\mathbf{ABC}) = tr(\mathbf{ACB}),$$

since the product **CB** may be even undefined.

Inverse: For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ and $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$, we have

$$(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}$$

if **A** and **A** + **BCD** are non-singular. Take $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $\mathbf{C} = 1 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{u}^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d}$, then we have

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\top})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{u}(1 + \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{\top})^{-1}\mathbf{u}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{-1},$$

which takes $\mathcal{O}(d^2)$ flops for given \mathbf{A}^{-1} .

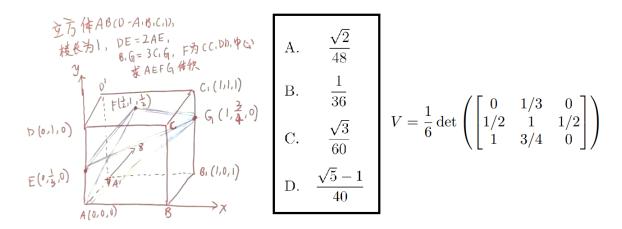


Figure 2: Understanding the meaning of determinant.

Theorem 1.1 (Property of Schur Complement). We consider the symmetric matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p+q) \times (p+q)}$$

with non-singular $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$ and let $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$, then

- 1. $\mathbf{M} \succ \mathbf{0} \iff \mathbf{D} \succ \mathbf{0} \text{ and } \mathbf{S} \succ \mathbf{0}$.
- 2. If $\mathbf{D} \succ \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{M} \succeq \mathbf{0} \iff \mathbf{S} \succeq \mathbf{0}$.

Proof. Part I: The condition $\mathbf{M} \succ \mathbf{0}$ means for any $\mathbf{x} = [0, \dots, 0, \mathbf{u}]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{p+q}$ with nonzero $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^q$, we have $\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x} > 0$, which implies

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}^\top & \mathbf{u}^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{u}^\top \mathbf{D} \mathbf{u} > 0.$$

Recall the decomposition

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{G}^\top \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{G} \quad \mathrm{where} \quad \mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is obviously that **G** is inevitable. For any nonzero $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{p+q}$, we have

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1}\mathbf{w} \neq \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{w}^{\top}(\mathbf{G}^{-1})^{\top}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{G}^{-1}\mathbf{w} > 0.$$

For $\mathbf{w} = [\mathbf{v}^\top, \mathbf{0}^\top]^\top$ with any $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^p$, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}^\top & \mathbf{0}^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} > 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{v} > 0.$$

Part II: Leave for homework.

Hessian and higher order expansion: Taylor's expansion of $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ at $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{a}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{a})^{\top} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^{\top} \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{a}) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \text{higher order terms.}$$

For single variable case, we have

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^2 f'(a) + \frac{1}{6}(x-a)^3 f'(a).$$

For multivariate case, we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{a}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{a})^{\top} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}} \cdot (x_{i} - a_{i})(x_{j} - a_{j})$$
$$+ \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{3} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j} \partial x_{k}} \cdot (x_{i} - a_{i})(x_{j} - a_{j})(x_{k} - a_{k}).$$

Now we provide some results for optimization.

Theorem 1.2. If a function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, then it is convex if and only if

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \rangle$$

holds for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Theorem 1.3. If a function $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex and differentiable, then \mathbf{x}^* is the global minimizer of $f(\cdot)$ if and only if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$.

Proof. Suppose that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$. For any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, Theorem 1.2 means

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}^*) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^* \rangle = f(\mathbf{x}^*).$$

Suppose that \mathbf{x}^* is the global minimizer of $f(\cdot)$. For any $\lambda > 0$ and $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we have $f(\mathbf{x}^* + \lambda \mathbf{p}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}^*)$ that means

$$\frac{f(\mathbf{x}^* + \lambda \mathbf{p}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*)}{\lambda} \ge 0.$$

Taking $\lambda \to 0^+$, then

$$\lim_{\lambda \to 0^+} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}^* + \lambda \mathbf{p}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*)}{\lambda} = \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*), \mathbf{p} \rangle \ge 0.$$

Above results also holds for $\mathbf{p} \leq 0$. Hence, we conclude $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$.

Remark 1.1. Let $\mathbf{u}(\lambda) = \mathbf{x}^* + \lambda \mathbf{p}$ and $g(\lambda) = f(\mathbf{x}^* + \lambda \mathbf{p}) = f(\mathbf{u}(\lambda))$, then

$$\lim_{\lambda \to 0^+} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}^* + \lambda \mathbf{p}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*)}{\lambda} = g'(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial \lambda} \bigg|_{\lambda = 0} = \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*), \mathbf{p} \rangle.$$

Theorem 1.4. Suppose $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})$ is continuous in an open neighborhood of \mathbf{x}^* and that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$ and $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*) \succ \mathbf{0}$. Then \mathbf{x}^* is a strict local minimizer of $f(\cdot)$.

Theorem 1.5. Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the solution of minimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) \triangleq \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2.$$

is $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{y}$, where $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Proof. We can verify

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{b}$$
 and $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \succeq \mathbf{0}$,

which means $f(\mathbf{x})$ is convex. Hence, we only needs to solve the linear system

$$\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}.$$

If $\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}$ is full rank, we have

$$\mathbf{x}^* = (\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{b}.$$

Otherwise, we let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_l r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}$ be the condense SVD, where r is the rank of \mathbf{A} . We denote the solution of $\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$ be

$$\mathcal{X} = \left\{ \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0} \right\}$$

and denote

$$\mathcal{X}_1 = \left\{ \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{y}, \ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n \right\}.$$

We can verify that $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{X}_1$ satisfies $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathcal{X}$ as follows

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^* - \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{b} \\ = & \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\left(\mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{A})\mathbf{y}\right) - \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{b} \\ = & \mathbf{A}^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} - \mathbf{I})\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{A}\right)\mathbf{y} \\ = & \mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top}(\mathbf{U}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}\mathbf{V}_{r}^{\top}\mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top} - \mathbf{I})\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top}\mathbf{U}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}\mathbf{V}_{r}^{\top}\left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top}\mathbf{U}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}\mathbf{V}_{r}^{\top}\right)\mathbf{y} \\ = & \mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top}(\mathbf{U}_{r}\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top} - \mathbf{I})\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}^{2}\mathbf{V}_{r}^{\top}\left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{V}_{r}\mathbf{V}_{r}^{\top}\right)\mathbf{y} \\ = & \mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}(\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top} - \mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top})\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{V}_{r}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{r}^{2}\left(\mathbf{V}_{r}^{\top} - \mathbf{V}_{r}^{\top}\right)\mathbf{y} \\ = & \mathbf{0}. \end{split}$$

Hence, we have $\mathcal{X}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{X}$.

For any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$, we have

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{b} &= \mathbf{0} \\ \iff & \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r^2 \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r \mathbf{U}_r^{\top}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0} \\ \iff & \mathbf{\Sigma}_r^2 \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{\Sigma}_r \mathbf{U}_r^{\top}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0} \\ \iff & \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{\Sigma}_r^{-1} \mathbf{U}_r^{\top}\mathbf{b} \\ \iff & \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r^{-1} \mathbf{U}_r^{\top}\mathbf{b} \\ \iff & \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{b} \\ \iff & \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{A})\mathbf{x}. \end{split}$$

Then $\mathbf{x} \in \{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}) \mathbf{x}\} \subseteq \mathcal{X}_1$, which means $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{X}_1$. Hence, we have $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_1$.

Remark 1.2. We consider gradient descent method. Taking fixed stepsize $\eta > 0$, we have

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_t - \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathbf{x}_t - \eta (\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{b}),$$

which takes $\mathcal{O}(mn)$ flops for each iteration, while the closed form solution requires $\mathcal{O}(mn^2)$.

Rank	Player	PTS	TRB	AST	STL	BLK	FG%
1	Nikola Jokić	27.1	13.8	7.9	1.5	0.9	0.583
2	Joel Embiid	30.6	11.7	4.2	1.1	1.5	0.499
3	Giannis Antetokounmpo	29.9	11.6	5.8	1.1	1.4	0.553

Figure 3: MVP ranking of NBA season 2022-2023.

Let
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 27.1 & 13.8 & 7.9 & 1.5 & 0.9 & 0.583 \\ 30.6 & 11.7 & 4.2 & 1.1 & 1.5 & 0.499 \\ 29.9 & 11.6 & 5.8 & 1.1 & 1.4 & 0.553 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 6} \text{ and } \mathbf{b} = [1, 2, 3]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}. \text{ We want to find } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{6}$$

to predict the MVP rank for a player with statistic $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^6$ by $\mathbf{a}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$. Note that rank $(\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A}) < 6$, then

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} = [0.3754, -1.0710, 0.7275, -0.1729, 0.1051, 0.0407].$$

The feature of Luka is $\mathbf{a} = [28.4, 9.1, 8.7, 1.2, 0.6, 0.634]$. We achieve $\mathbf{a}^{\top}\mathbf{x} = 7.1260$.

2 Random Vectors and Matrices

Theorem 2.1. Let **X** and **Y** be random matrices off the same dimension, and let **A** and **B** be conformable matrices of constants. Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[X + Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$
 and $\mathbb{E}[AXB] = A\mathbb{E}[X]B$

Proof. It follows the univariate properties of expectation $\mathbb{E}[x_1 + x_2] = \mathbb{E}[x_1] + \mathbb{E}[x_2]$ and $\mathbb{E}[c_1x_1] = c_1\mathbb{E}[x_1]$ for random variables x, y and constant c. It implies

$$\mathbb{E}[c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n] = c_1\mathbb{E}[x_1] + \dots + c_n\mathbb{E}[x_n].$$

Let $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{XB}$, then

$$(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{AY}])_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{AY})_{ij}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k} a_{ik} y_{kj}\right] = \sum_{k} a_{ik} \mathbb{E}[y_{kj}] = \sum_{k} a_{ik} (\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}])_{kj},$$

which means $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{AY}] = \mathbf{A}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}]$ (that is $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{AXB}] = \mathbf{A}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{XB}]$). Similarly, we have

$$(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}])_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B})_{ij}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k} x_{ik} b_{kj}\right] = \sum_{k} \mathbb{E}[x_{ik}] b_{kj} = \sum_{k} (\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}])_{ik} b_{kj},$$

which means $\mathbb{E}[XB] = \mathbb{E}[X]B$. Thus, we achieve $\mathbb{E}[AXB] = A\mathbb{E}[XB] = A\mathbb{E}[X]B$.

Theorem 2.2. Let $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1, \dots, x_p \end{bmatrix}^{\top}$ be a random vector and we denote $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}]$. Then we have

$$\mathrm{Cov}[\mathbf{x}] = \mathbb{E}\big[\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^\top\big] - \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top.$$

Proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{x}] &= & \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \right] \\ &= & \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{x}^{\top} - \mathbf{x} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} + \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} \right] \\ &= & \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \right] - \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \right] - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} \right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} \right] \\ &= & \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \right] - \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x}^{\top} \right] - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x} \right] \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} + \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} \\ &= & \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \right] - \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} + \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} \\ &= & \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \right] - \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top}, \end{aligned}$$

where the third and fourth lines use Theorem 2.1.

Remark 2.1. For single random variable x, we have

$$Var[x] = \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}[x])^2] = \mathbb{E}[x^2] - (\mathbb{E}[x])^2.$$

Theorem 2.3. Let $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{f}$, where \mathbf{D} is an $n \times p$ constant matrix, \mathbf{x} is a p-dimensional random vector and \mathbf{f} is a n-dimensional constant vector, then

$$\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{y}] = \mathbf{D}\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{x}]\mathbf{D}^{\top}.$$

Proof. We have

$$\begin{split} &\operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{y}) \\ =& \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{y} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}])(\mathbf{y} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}])^{\top} \right] \\ =& \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{f} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{D}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}] + \mathbf{f}])(\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{f} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{D}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}] + \mathbf{f}])^{\top} \right] \\ =& \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{D}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])(\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{D}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])^{\top}] \\ =& \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])^{\top}\mathbf{D}^{\top}] \\ =& \mathbf{D}\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])^{\top}]\mathbf{D}^{\top} \\ =& \mathbf{D}\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{x}]\mathbf{D}^{\top}. \end{split}$$

Example 2.1. Let $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^{\top}$ be a random vector with

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}] = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad and \quad \operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{x}] = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let $\mathbf{z} = [z_1, z_2]$ such that $z_1 = x_1 - x_2$ and $z_2 = x_1 + x_2$.

- 1. Find the $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{z}]$ and $Cov[\mathbf{z}]$.
- 2. Find the condition that leads to z_1 and z_2 be uncorrelated.

Solution: We can write

$$\mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}.$$

Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{z}] = \mathbf{C}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 - \mu_2 \\ \mu_1 + \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$Cov[\mathbf{z}] = \mathbf{C}Cov[\mathbf{z}]\mathbf{C}^{\top}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} - \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{11} + \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} - \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{21} + \sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} - 2\sigma_{12} + \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{11} - \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{11} + 2\sigma_{12} + \sigma_{22}. \end{bmatrix}$$

If $\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22}$, then variables z_1 and z_2 are uncorrelated.

Remark 2.2. The random vector with diagonal covariance matrix is easy to deal with. Note that the transform based on C does not loss any information since C is full rank.

Transform of Variables Let the density of x_1, \ldots, x_p be $f(x_1, \ldots, x_p)$. Consider the p real-valued functions $\mathbf{u} : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}^p$ such that $\mathbf{u} = [u_1(\mathbf{x}), \ldots, u_p(\mathbf{x})]^\top$ with

$$y_i = u_i(x_1, \dots, x_p), \qquad i = 1, \dots, p.$$

Assume the transformation \mathbf{u} from the space of \mathbf{x} to the space of \mathbf{y} is one-to-one, then the inverse transformation is \mathbf{u}^{-1} such that $\mathbf{u}^{-1} = [u_1^{-1}(\mathbf{y}), \dots, u_p^{-1}(\mathbf{y})]^{\top}$ with

$$x_i = u_i^{-1}(y_1, \dots, y_p), \qquad i = 1, \dots, p.$$

Let the density of $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, \dots, y_p]^{\top}$ be $g(\mathbf{y})$. Then we have

$$\int_{\mathbf{u}(\Omega)} g(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} = \int_{\Omega} g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})) |\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}))| d\mathbf{x}, \tag{1}$$

and

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})) \operatorname{abs}(|\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})|), \tag{2}$$

where the Jacobin matrix is

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_p} \\ \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial u_p}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial u_p}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial u_p}{\partial x_p} \end{bmatrix}.$$

A roughly proof for above results:

• Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ and $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathbb{R}^p$ be a measurable set. We define

$$\mathbf{A}\mathcal{S} = {\mathbf{A}\mathbf{s} : \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}}.$$

then we can show $m(\mathbf{A}\mathcal{S}) = |\det(\mathbf{A})|m(\mathcal{S})$. Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^{\top}$ where \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} are orthogonal and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is diagonal with nonnegative entries. Multiplying by \mathbf{V}^{\top} doesn't change the measure of \mathcal{S} . Multiplying by $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ scales along each axis, so the measure gets multiplied by $|\det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})| = |\det(\mathbf{A})|$. Multiplying by \mathbf{U} doesn't change the measure.

• We consider the probability of \mathbf{x} in Ω and \mathbf{y} in $\mathbf{u}(\Omega)$; and partition Ω into $\cup_i \Omega_i$. Then

$$\int_{\mathbf{u}(\Omega)} g(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}$$

$$\approx \sum_{i} g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_{i})) m(\mathbf{u}(\Omega_{i}))$$

$$\approx \sum_{i} g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_{i})) m(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) + \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_{i})(\Omega_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{i}))$$

$$= \sum_{i} g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_{i})) m(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_{i})\Omega_{i})$$

$$= \sum_{i} g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_{i})) |\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_{i}))| m(\Omega_{i})$$

$$\approx \int_{\Omega} g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})) |\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}))| d\mathbf{x}.$$

• Consider notation Ω such that

$$\int_{\Omega} = \int_{x_1}^{x_1'} \cdots \int_{x_p}^{x_p'}$$

where $x_1 \leq x_1', x_2 \leq x_2', \dots, x_p \leq x_p'$. Then the notation $\mathbf{u}(\Omega)$ in the integral should consider the order

$$\int_{\mathbf{u}(\Omega)} = \int_{\min\{u_1(x_1), u_1(x_1')\}}^{\max\{u_1(x_1), u_1(x_1')\}} \cdots \int_{\min\{u_p(x_p), u_p(x_p')\}}^{\max\{u_p(x_p), u_p(x_p')\}}$$

By using even tinier subsets Ω_i , the approximation would be even better so we see by a limiting argument that we actually obtain (1). On the other hand, we have (f is density functions of **x** on Ω ; g is density function of **y** on $\mathbf{u}(\Omega)$; $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$ means **x** and $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$ are one-to-one mapping).

$$\int_{\Omega} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\mathbf{u}(\Omega)} g(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} = \int_{\Omega} g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})) \operatorname{abs}(|\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})|) d\mathbf{x}.$$

Since it holds for any Ω , then

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}))$$
abs $(|\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})|)$.

Theorem 2.4. Let $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$ be p-dimensional random vector and they are independent. Denote

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{\alpha} \quad and \quad \hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) (\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^{\top}.$$

If $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_1] = \cdots = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_N] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{x}_1] = \cdots = \operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{x}_N] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}] = \boldsymbol{\mu}, \quad \operatorname{Cov}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}] = \frac{1}{N} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \quad and \quad \mathbb{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}] = \frac{N-1}{N} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}.$$

Proof. **Part I:** We have

$$\mathbb{E}[ar{\mathbf{x}}] = \mathbb{E}\left[rac{1}{N}\sum_{lpha=1}^{N}\mathbf{x}_{lpha}
ight] = rac{1}{N}\sum_{lpha=1}^{N}\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x}_{lpha}
ight] = oldsymbol{\mu}$$

and

$$\operatorname{Cov}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\right)\left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\right)^{\top}\right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{N^{2}}\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)\left(\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)^{\top}\right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{N^{2}}\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}\sum_{\beta=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top}\right].$$

Since random vectors \mathbf{x}_{α} and \mathbf{x}_{β} are independent when $\alpha \neq \beta$, the covariance of $x_{\alpha i}$ and $x_{\alpha j}$ is zero, that is

$$\mathbb{E}[(x_{\alpha i} - \mu_i)(x_{\beta j} - \mu_j)] = 0,$$

which is just the (i,j)-th entry of $\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}-\boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_{\beta}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top}]$. Hence, we have

$$\operatorname{Cov}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}] = \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) (\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \right] = \frac{1}{N} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}.$$

Part II: Applying Theorem 2.2 on \mathbf{x}_{α} , we have

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \mathrm{Cov}[\mathbf{x}_{lpha}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x}_{lpha}\mathbf{x}_{lpha}^{ op}\right] - \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{ op}$$

Applying Part I and Theorem 2.2 on $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$, we have

$$\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{\Sigma} = \mathrm{Cov}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}] = \mathrm{Cov}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}] - \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top}.$$

Hence, we obtain

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\big[\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}\big] = & \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha} - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^{\top}\right] \\ = & \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}\left(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}^{\top} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}^{\top} - \mathbf{x}_{\alpha}\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{\top} + \bar{\mathbf{x}}\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}\right)\right] \\ = & \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N}\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}^{\top} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}\right] \\ = & \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}^{\top}\right] - \mathbb{E}\left[\bar{\mathbf{x}}\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{\top}\right] \\ = & \mathbf{\Sigma} + \mu\mu^{\top} - \left(\frac{1}{n}\mathbf{\Sigma} + \mu\mu^{\top}\right) \\ = & \frac{N-1}{N}\mathbf{\Sigma}. \end{split}$$

Consider minimization problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{q}^\top \mathbf{x},$$

where $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive semi-definite and $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We have

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}_t) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t), \mathbf{x}_{t+1} - \mathbf{x}_t \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|\mathbf{x}_{t+1} - \mathbf{x}_t\|_2^2$$

$$\leq f(\mathbf{x}_t) - \left(\eta - \frac{L\eta^2}{2}\right) \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)\|_2^2$$

$$\leq f(\mathbf{x}_t) - \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)\|_2^2,$$
(3)

where $L = \lambda_1(\mathbf{M})$ and $\eta = 1/L$. There exists $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{b}$. Then we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}^{\top} \mathbf{x} - \left(\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^{*\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^* - \mathbf{b}^{\top} \mathbf{x}^* \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{*\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \left(\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^{*\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^* - \mathbf{x}^{*\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^* \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{*\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^{*\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^*$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)^{\top} \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)$$

and

$$\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)^{\top} \mathbf{A}^2 (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*).$$

Taking $\mu = \lambda_k(\mathbf{A})$, where $\lambda_k(\mathbf{A})$ is the smallest nonzero eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} . Then it holds that $\mu \mathbf{A} \leq \mathbf{A}^2$ and

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \le \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2.$$

$$(4)$$

Combining (3) and (4), we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \le f(\mathbf{x}_t) - \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)\|_2^2 \le f(\mathbf{x}_t) - \frac{\eta}{2} \cdot 2\mu (f(\mathbf{x}_t) - f(\mathbf{x}^*)),$$

which implies

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \le f(\mathbf{x}_t) - \eta \mu (f(\mathbf{x}_t) - f(\mathbf{x}^*)) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L}\right) (f(\mathbf{x}_t) - f(\mathbf{x}^*)).$$