

# Inference about a Mean Vector

Univariate Case and  
Multivariate Case

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# Outline

- ▶ Goal
- ▶ Univariate Case
- ▶ Multivariate Case
  - ▶ Hotelling  $T^2$
  - ▶ Likelihood Ratio test
  - ▶ Comparison/relationship

## Goal

**Inference:** To make a valid conclusion about the means of a population based on a sample (information about the population).

When we have  $p$  correlated variables, they must be analyzed jointly.

Simultaneous analysis yields stronger tests, with better error control.

The tests covered in this set of notes are all of the form:

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$

where  $\mu_{p \times 1}$  vector of populations means and  $\mu_{0, p \times 1}$  is the some specified values under the null hypothesis.

## Univariate Case

We're interested in the mean of a population and we have a random sample of  $n$  observations from the population,

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$$

where (i.e., **Assumptions**):

- ▶ Observations are independent (i.e.,  $X_j$  is independent from  $X_{j'}$  for  $j \neq j'$ ).
- ▶ Observations are from the same population; that is,

$$E(X_j) = \mu \text{ for all } j$$

- ▶ If the sample size is "small", we'll also assume that

$$X_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

# Hypothesis & Test

- Hypothesis:

$$H_o : \mu = \mu_o \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_o$$

where  $\mu_o$  is some specified value. In this case,  $H_1$  is 2-sided alternative.

- Test Statistic:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_o}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

where  $\bar{X} = (1/n) \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$  and

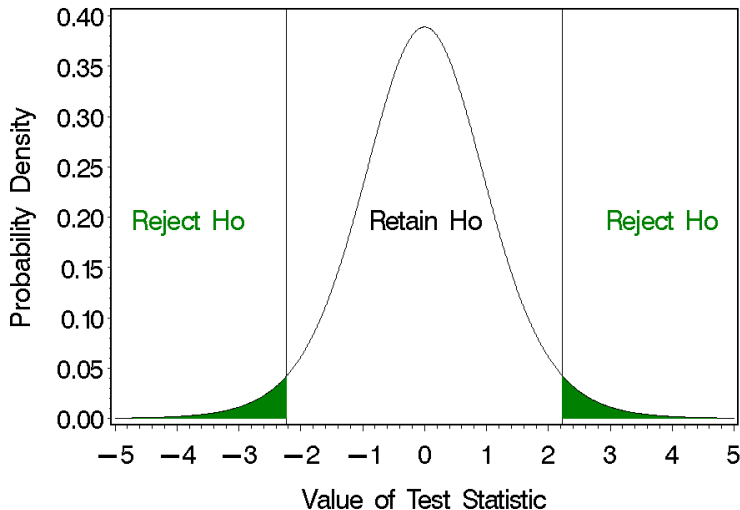
$$s = \sqrt{(1/(n-1)) \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2}$$

- **Sampling Distribution:** If  $H_o$  and assumptions are true, then the sampling distribution of  $t$  is **Student's - t** distribution with  $df = n - 1$ .
- **Decision:** Reject  $H_o$  when  $t$  is “large” (i.e., small  $p$ -value).

## Picture of Decision

Each green area =  $\alpha/2 = .025 \dots$

Students t—distribution with  $df=10$



## Confidence Interval

**Confidence Interval:** A region or range of plausible  $\mu$ 's (given observations/data). The set of all  $\mu$ 's such that

$$\left| \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_o}{s/\sqrt{n}} \right| \leq t_{n-1,(\alpha/2)}$$

where  $t_{n-1,(\alpha/2)}$  is the upper  $(\alpha/2)100\%$  percentile of Student's t-distribution with  $df = n - 1$ . ... OR

$$\left\{ \mu_o \text{ such that } \bar{x} - t_{n-1,(\alpha/2)} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu_o \leq \bar{x} + t_{n-1,(\alpha/2)} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$

A  $100(1 - \alpha)^{th}$  confidence interval or region for  $\mu$  is

$$\left( \bar{x} - t_{n-1,(\alpha/2)} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \quad \bar{x} + t_{n-1,(\alpha/2)} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

Before for sample is selected, the ends of the interval depend on random variables  $\bar{X}$ 's and  $s$ ; this is a random interval.  $100(1 - \alpha)^{th}$  percent of the time such intervals with contain the "true" mean  $\mu$

## Prepare for Jump to $p$ Dimensions

Square the test statistic  $t$ :

$$t^2 = \frac{(\bar{x} - \mu_o)^2}{s^2/n} = n(\bar{x} - \mu_o)(s^2)^{-1}(\bar{x} - \mu_o)$$

So  $t^2$  is a **squared statistical distance** between the sample mean  $\bar{x}$  and the hypothesized value  $\mu_o$ .

Remember that  $t_{df}^2 = \mathcal{F}_{1,df}$ ?

That is, the sampling distribution of

$$t^2 = n(\bar{x} - \mu_o)(s^2)^{-1}(\bar{x} - \mu_o) \sim \mathcal{F}_{1,n-1}.$$



## Multivariate Case: Hotelling's $T^2$

For the extension from the univariate to multivariate case, replace scalars with vectors and matrices:

$$T^2 = n(\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)' \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)$$

- ▶  $\bar{\mathbf{X}}_{p \times 1} = (1/n) \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{X}_j$
- ▶  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{o, (p \times 1)} = (\mu_{1o}, \mu_{2o}, \dots, \mu_{po})$
- ▶  $\mathbf{S}_{p \times p} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^n (\mathbf{X}_j - \bar{\mathbf{X}})(\mathbf{X}_j - \bar{\mathbf{X}})'$

$T^2$  is "Hotelling's  $T^2$ "

The sample distribution of  $T^2$

$$T^2 \sim \frac{(n-1)p}{n-p} \mathcal{F}_{p, (n-p)}$$

We can use this to test  $H_o : \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_o \dots$  **assuming** that observations are a random sample from  $\mathcal{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  *i.i.d.*

## Hotelling's $T^2$

Since

$$T^2 \sim \frac{(n-1)p}{n-p} \mathcal{F}_{p, (n-p)}$$

We can compute  $T^2$  and compare it to

$$\frac{(n-1)p}{n-p} \mathcal{F}_{p, (n-p)}(\alpha)$$

OR use the fact that

$$\frac{n-p}{(n-1)p} T^2 \sim \mathcal{F}_{p, (n-p)}$$

Compute  $T^2$  as

$$T^2 = n(\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o) \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)'$$

and the

$$p\text{-value} = \text{Prob} \left\{ \mathcal{F}_{p, (n-p)} \geq \frac{(n-p)}{(n-1)p} T^2 \right\}$$

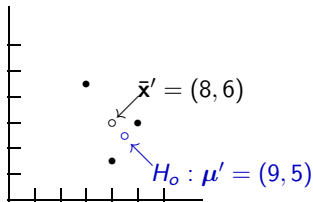
Reject  $H_o$  when  $p$ -value is small (i.e., when  $T^2$  is large).

## Example 1

$n = 3$  and  $p = 2$

$$\text{Data: } \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 9 \\ 10 & 6 \\ 8 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$H_o : \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} 9 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



Assuming data come from a multivariate normal distribution and independent observations,

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{S}^{-1} = \frac{1}{4(9) - (-3)(-3)} \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 1/9 \\ 1/9 & 4/27 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Example 1

$$\begin{aligned}T^2 &= n(\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)' \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o) \\&= 3((8-9), (6-5)) \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 1/9 \\ 1/9 & 4/27 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (8-9) \\ (6-5) \end{pmatrix} \\&= 3(-1, 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 1/9 \\ 1/9 & 4/27 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\&= 3(7/27) = 7/9\end{aligned}$$

Value we need for  $\alpha = .05$  is  $\mathcal{F}_{2,1}(.05) = 199.51$ .

$$\frac{(3-1)^2}{3-2} 199.51 = 4(199.51) = 798.04.$$

Since  $T^2 \sim \frac{(n-1)p}{(n-p)} \mathcal{F}_{p, n-p}$ , we can compare our  $T^2$  to 798.04.

Alternatively, we could compute  $p$ -value: compare  $.25(7/9) = 0.194$  to  $\mathcal{F}_{2,1}$  and we get  $p$ -value = .85.

Do not reject  $H_o$ . ( $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  are “close” in the figure).

## Example 2: WAIS and $n = 101$ elderly subjects

There are two variables, **verbal** and **performance** scores for  $n = 101$  elderly subjects aged 60–64 on the Wechsler Adult Intelligence test (WAIS).

Assume that the data are from a bivariate normal distribution with unknown mean vector  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  and unknown covariance matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ .

$$H_o : \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} 60 \\ 50 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{versus} \quad H_o : \boldsymbol{\mu} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 60 \\ 50 \end{pmatrix}$$

Sample mean vector and covariance matrix:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} 55.24 \\ 34.97 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} 210.54 & 126.99 \\ 126.99 & 119.68 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Example 2: WAIS and $n = 101$ elderly subjects

We need

$$\mathbf{S}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} .01319 & -.0140 \\ -.0140 & .02321 \end{pmatrix}$$

Compute test statistic:

$$\begin{aligned} T^2 &= n(\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \\ &= 101((55.24 - 60), (34.97 - 50)) \begin{pmatrix} .01319 & -.0140 \\ -.0140 & .02321 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 55.24 - 60 \\ 34.97 - 50 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= 357.43 \end{aligned}$$

So to test the hypothesis, compute

$$\frac{(n-p)}{(n-1)p} T^2 = \frac{(101-2)}{(101-1)2} 357.43 = 176.93$$

Under the null hypothesis, this is distributed as  $\mathcal{F}_{p,(n-p)}$ . Since  $\mathcal{F}_{2,99}(\alpha = .05) = 3.11$ , we reject the null hypothesis.

## Example 3: testing a multivariate mean vector with $T^2$ using the Sweat Data

Perspiration from 20 healthy females was analyzed. Three components,  $X_1$  = sweat rate,  $X_2$  = sodium content, and  $X_3$  = potassium content, were measured, and the results, which we call the sweat data, are presented in the following Table (next slide).

Test the hypothesis  $H_0 : \boldsymbol{\mu}' = [4, 50, 10]$  against  $H_1 : \boldsymbol{\mu}' \neq [4, 50, 10]$  at level of significance  $\alpha = .10$ .

## Example 3: Sweat Data

Individual	$X_1$ (Sweat rate)	$X_2$ (Sodium)	$X_3$ (Potassium)
1	3.7	48.5	9.3
2	5.7	65.1	8.0
3	3.8	47.2	10.9
4	3.2	53.2	12.0
5	3.1	55.5	9.7
6	4.6	36.1	7.9
7	2.4	24.8	14.0
8	7.2	33.1	7.6
9	6.7	47.4	8.5
10	5.4	54.1	11.3
11	3.9	36.9	12.7
12	4.5	58.8	12.3
13	3.5	27.8	9.8
14	4.5	40.2	8.4
15	1.5	13.5	10.1
16	8.5	56.4	7.1
17	4.5	71.6	8.2
18	6.5	52.8	10.9
19	4.1	44.1	11.2
20	5.5	40.9	9.4



## Back to the Univariate Case

Recall that for the univariate case

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_o}{s/\sqrt{n}} \quad \text{or} \quad t^2 = \frac{(\bar{X} - \mu_o)^2}{s^2/n} = n(\bar{X} - \mu_o)(s^2)^{-1}(\bar{X} - \mu_o)$$

Since  $\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, (1/n)\sigma^2)$ ,

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu_o) \sim \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{n}(\mu - \mu_o), \sigma^2)$$

This is a linear function of  $\bar{X}$ , which is a random variable.

We also know that

$$(n-1)s^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2 \sim \sigma^2 \chi_{(n-1)}^2$$

because

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2}{\sigma^2} = \sum_{j=1}^n Z_j^2 \sim \chi_{(n-1)}^2$$

## Back to the Univariate Case continued

So

$$s^2 = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2}{n - 1} = \frac{\text{chi-square random variable}}{\text{degrees of freedom}}$$

Putting this all together, we find

$$t^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \text{normal} \\ \text{random} \\ \text{variable} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \text{chi-square random variable} \\ \hline \text{degree of freedom} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \text{normal} \\ \text{random} \\ \text{variable} \end{pmatrix}$$

Now we'll go through the same thing but with the multivariate case. . .

## The Multivariate Case

$$T^2 = \sqrt{n}(\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)'(\mathbf{S})^{-1}\sqrt{n}(\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)$$

Since  $\bar{\mathbf{X}} \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, (1/n)\boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  and  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)$  is a linear combination of  $\bar{\mathbf{X}}$ ,

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o) \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\sqrt{n}(\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o), \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{S} &= \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (\mathbf{X}_j - \bar{\mathbf{X}})(\mathbf{X}_j - \bar{\mathbf{X}})'}{(n-1)} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{Z}_j \mathbf{Z}_j'}{(n-1)} \\ &= \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{Wishart random matrix with df} = n-1 \\ \hline \text{degrees of freedom} \end{array} \right)\end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{Z}_j \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  i.i.d. . . . if  $H_o$  is true.

## The Multivariate Case continued

Recall that a Wishart distribution is a matrix generalization of the chi-square distribution.

The sampling distribution of  $(n - 1)\mathbf{S}$  is Wishart where

$$\mathbf{W}_m(\cdot|\mathbf{\Sigma}) = \sum_{j=1}^m \mathbf{z}_j \mathbf{z}_j'$$

where  $\mathbf{z}_j \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$  *i.i.d.*.

So,

$$T^2 = \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{multiavirate} \\ \text{normal} \\ \text{random} \\ \text{vector} \end{array} \right) \left( \frac{\text{Wishart random matrix}}{\text{degress of freedom}} \right)^{-1} \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{multiavirate} \\ \text{normal} \\ \text{random} \\ \text{vector} \end{array} \right)$$

## Invariance of $T^2$

$T^2$  is invariant with respect to change of location (i.e., mean) or scale (i.e. covariance matrix); that is, a  $T^2$  is invariant by linear transformation.

Rather than  $\mathbf{X}_{p \times 1}$ , we may want to consider

$$\mathbf{Y}_{p \times 1} = \underbrace{\mathbf{C}_{p \times p}}_{\text{scale}} \mathbf{X}_{p \times 1} + \underbrace{\mathbf{d}_{p \times 1}}_{\text{location}}$$

where  $\mathbf{C}$  is non-singular (or equivalently  $|\mathbf{C}| > 0$ , or  $\mathbf{C}$  has  $p$  linearly independent rows (columns), or  $\mathbf{C}^{-1}$  exists).

$$v\mu_y = \mathbf{C}\mu_x + \mathbf{d} \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_y = \mathbf{C}\Sigma_x\mathbf{C}'$$

The  $T^2$  for the  $Y$ -data is exactly the same as the  $T^2$  for the  $X$ -data (see text for proof).

This result is true for the univariate  $t$ -test.

## Likelihood Ratio

- ▶ Another approach to testing null hypothesis about mean vector  $\mu$  (as well as other multivariate tests in general).
- ▶ It's equivalent to Hotelling's  $T^2$  for  $H_o : \mu = \mu_o$  or  $H_o : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ .
- ▶ It's more general than  $T^2$  in that it can be used to test other hypotheses (e.g., those regarding  $\Sigma$ ) and in different circumstances.
- ▶ Foreshadow: When testing more than 1 or 2 mean vectors, there are lots of different test statistics (about 5 common ones).
- ▶  $T^2$  and likelihood ratio tests are based on different underlying principles.

## Underlying Principles

$T^2$  is based on the union-intersection principle, which takes a multivariate hypothesis and turns it into a univariate problem by considering linear combinations of variables. i.e.,

$$T^2 = \mathbf{a}'(\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \mu_o)$$

is a linear combination.

We select the combination vector  $\mathbf{a}$  that lead to the largest possible value of  $T^2$ . (We'll talk more about this later). The emphasis is on the “direction of maximal difference”.

The likelihood ratio test the emphasis is on overall difference.

**Plan:** First talk about the basic idea behind Likelihood ratio tests and then we'll apply it to the specific problem of testing  $\mu = \mu_o$ .

## Basic idea of Likelihood Ratio Tests

- ▶  $\Theta_o$  = a set of unknown parameters under  $H_o$  (e.g.,  $\Sigma$ ).
- ▶  $\Theta$  = the set of unknown parameters under the alternative hypothesis (model), which is more general (e.g.,  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ ).
- ▶  $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$  is the likelihood function. It is a function of parameters that indicates “how likely  $\Theta$  (or  $\Theta_o$ ) is given the data”.
- ▶  $\mathcal{L}(\Theta) \geq \mathcal{L}(\Theta_o)$ .
  - ▶ The more general model/hypothesis is always more (or equally) likely than the more restrictive model/hypothesis.

The Likelihood Ratio Statistic is

$$\Lambda = \frac{\max \mathcal{L}(\Theta_o)}{\max \mathcal{L}(\Theta)} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{ll} \bar{\mathbf{X}} = \hat{\mu} & \text{MLE of mean} \\ \mathbf{S}_n = \hat{\Sigma} & \text{MLE of covariance matrix} \end{array}$$

If  $\Lambda$  is “small”, then the data are not likely to have occurred under  $H_o \rightarrow$  **Reject  $H_o$** .

If  $\Lambda$  is “large”, then the data are likely to have occurred under  $H_o \rightarrow$  **Retain  $H_o$** .



## Likelihood Ratio Test for Mean Vector

Let  $\mathbf{X}_j \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  and *i.i.d.*

$$\Lambda = \frac{\max_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} [\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_o, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})]}{\max_{\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}} [\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})]}$$

where

- ▶  $\max_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$  = the maximum of  $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$  over all possible  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ 's.
- ▶  $\max_{\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$  = the maximum of  $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$  over all possible  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ 's &  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ 's.

$$\Lambda = \left( \frac{|\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}|}{|\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_o|} \right)^{n/2}$$

where

- ▶  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \text{MLE of } \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (1/n) \sum_{j=1}^n (\mathbf{X}_j - \bar{\mathbf{X}})(\mathbf{X}_j - \bar{\mathbf{X}})' = \mathbf{S}_n$
- ▶  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_o = \text{MLE of } \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \text{ assuming that } \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_o$   
 $= (1/n) \sum_{j=1}^n (\mathbf{X}_j - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)(\mathbf{X}_j - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)'$

## Likelihood Ratio Test for Mean Vector

$$\Lambda = \left( \frac{|\hat{\Sigma}|}{|\hat{\Sigma}_o|} \right)^{n/2}$$

$\Lambda = (\text{ratio of two generalized sample variances})^{n/2}$

- ▶ If  $\mu_o$  is really “far” from  $\mu$ , then  $|\hat{\Sigma}_o|$  will be much larger than  $|\hat{\Sigma}|$ , which uses a “good” estimator of  $\mu$  (i.e.,  $\bar{\mathbf{X}}$ ).
- ▶ The likelihood ratio statistic  $\Lambda$  is called “**Wilk's Lambda**” for the special case of testing hypotheses about mean vectors.
- ▶ For large samples (i.e., large  $n$ ),

$$-2 \ln(\Lambda) \sim \chi_p^2,$$

which can be used to test  $H_o : \mu = \mu_o$

## Degrees of Freedom for LR Test

We need to consider the number of parameter estimates under each hypothesis:

The alternative hypothesis ( “full model” ) ,

$$\Theta = \{\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}\} \longrightarrow p \text{ means} + \frac{p(p-1)}{2} \text{ covariances}$$

The null hypothesis,

$$\Theta_o = \{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\} \longrightarrow \frac{p(p-1)}{2} \text{ covariances}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{degrees of freedom} = df &= \text{difference between number of parameters} \\ &\quad \text{estimated under each hypothesis} \\ &= p \end{aligned}$$

If the  $H_o$  is true and all assumptions valid, then for large samples,  
 $-2 \ln(\Lambda) \sim \chi_p^2$ .

## Example 4: four psychological tests

$n = 64$ ,  $p = 4$ ,  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}' = (14.15, 14.91, 21.92, 22.34)$ ,

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} 10.388 & 7.793 & 15.298 & 5.3740 \\ 7.793 & 16.658 & 13.707 & 6.1756 \\ 15.298 & 13.707 & 57.058 & 15.932 \\ 5.374 & 6.176 & 15.932 & 22.134 \end{pmatrix} \quad \& \quad \det(\mathbf{S}) = 61952.085$$

Test:  $H_o : \boldsymbol{\mu}' = (20, 20, 20, 20)$  versus  $H_o : \boldsymbol{\mu}' \neq (20, 20, 20, 20)$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_o = \frac{1}{n}(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1}\boldsymbol{\mu}'_o)'(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1}\boldsymbol{\mu}'_o) = \begin{pmatrix} 44.375 & 37.438 & 3.828 & -8.406 \\ 37.438 & 42.344 & 3.703 & -5.859 \\ 3.828 & 3.703 & 59.859 & 20.187 \\ -8.406 & -5.859 & 20.187 & 27.281 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_o) = 518123.8$ .

**Wilk's Lambda** is  $\Lambda = (61952.085/518123.8)^{64/2} = 3.047E - 30$ , and

Comparing  $-2 \ln(\Lambda) = 135.92659$  to a  $\chi^2_4$  gives  $p$ -value  $\ll .01$ .

## Comparison of $T^2$ & Likelihood Ratio

Hotelling's  $T^2$  and Wilk's Lambda are functionally related.

Let  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$  be a random sample from a  $\mathcal{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  population, then the test of  $H_o : \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_o$  versus  $H_A : \boldsymbol{\mu} \neq \boldsymbol{\mu}_o$  based on  $T^2$  is equivalent to the test based on  $\Lambda$ .

The relationship is given by

$$(\Lambda)^{2/n} = \left(1 + \frac{T^2}{(n-1)}\right)^{-1}$$

So,

$$\Lambda = \left(1 + \frac{T^2}{(n-1)}\right)^{-n/2} \quad \text{and} \quad T^2 = (n-1)\Lambda^{-2/n} - (n-1)$$

Since they are inversely related,

- ▶ We reject  $H_o$  for “large”  $T^2$
- ▶ We reject  $H_o$  for “small”  $\Lambda$ .

## Example 4.1: Comparison of $T^2$ & Likelihood Ratio

Using our 4 psychological test data, we found that

$$(\Lambda) = 3.047E - 30$$

If we compute Hotelling's  $T^2$  for these data we find that

$$T^2 = 463.88783$$

$$\Lambda = \left(1 + \frac{463.88783}{(64 - 1)}\right)^{-64/2} = 3.047E - 30$$

and

$$T^2 = (64 - 1)(3.047E - 30)^{-2/64} - (64 - 1)$$