# Ch 4. The Multivariate Normal Distribution



• Univariate normal density  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(x-\mu)}{\sigma}\right]^2} \qquad -\infty < x < \infty$$

- The term

$$\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 = (x-\mu)(\sigma^2)^{-1}(x-\mu)$$

measures the square of the distance from x to  $\mu$  in standard deviation units.

- This can be generalized for a  $p \times 1$  vector x of observations on several variables as

$$(x-\mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu),$$

where  $\mu$  represents the  $p \times 1$  vector of the expected value of the random vector X,

and  $\Sigma$  represents the  $p \times p$  variance-covariance matrix of X.

- Assume that the symmetric matrix  $\Sigma$  is positive definite.
- Multivariate normal density  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-(x-\mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)/2} - \infty < x_i < \infty, i = 1, \dots, p.$$



- Example 4.1. Bivariate Normal Density
  - $\mu_1 = E(X_1)$ ,  $\mu_2 = E(X_2)$ ,  $\sigma_{11} = Var(X_1)$ ,  $\sigma_{22} = Var(X_2)$ , and  $\rho_{12} = \sigma_{12} / (\sqrt{\sigma_{11}} \sqrt{\sigma_{22}}) = Corr(X_1, X_2)$ .

- Since 
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\Sigma^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{22} & -\sigma_{12} \\ -\sigma_{21} & \sigma_{11} \end{bmatrix}$ .

Since the correlation coefficient,  $\rho_{12}$ , is expressed as  $\rho_{12} = \sigma_{12} / \sqrt{\sigma_{11}} \sqrt{\sigma_{22}}$ ,

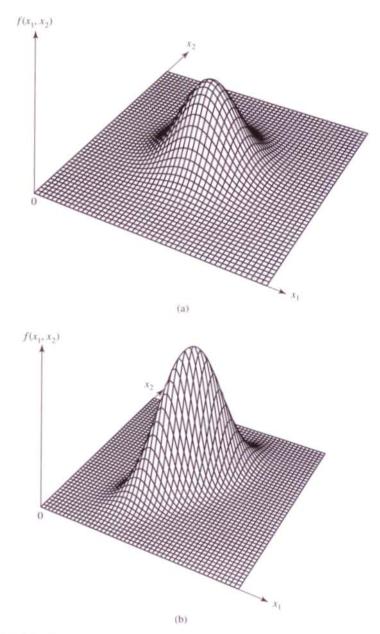
$$\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2 = \sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}(1 - \rho_{12}^2)$$

Then, the squared distance becomes

$$\begin{aligned} (x-\mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu) &= \left[ x_1 - \mu_1, x_2 - \mu_2 \right] \frac{1}{\sigma_{11} \sigma_{22} (1 - \rho_{12}^2)} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{22} & -\rho_{12} \sqrt{\sigma_{11}} \sqrt{\sigma_{22}} \\ -\rho_{12} \sqrt{\sigma_{11}} \sqrt{\sigma_{22}} & \sigma_{11} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \mu_1 \\ x_2 - \mu_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{\sigma_{22} (x_1 - \mu_1)^2 + \sigma_{11} (x_2 - \mu_2)^2 - 2\rho_{12} \sqrt{\sigma_{11}} \sqrt{\sigma_{22}} (x_1 - \mu_1) (x_2 - \mu_2)}{\sigma_{11} \sigma_{22} (1 - \rho_{12}^2)} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \rho_{12}^2} \left[ \left( \frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{x_2 - \mu_2}{\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}} \right)^2 - 2\rho_{12} \left( \frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}} \right) \left( \frac{x_2 - \mu_2}{\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}} \right) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

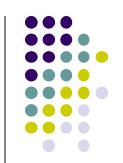
Therefore, the bivariate (p = 2) normal density is

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}(1-\rho_{12}^2)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho_{12}^2)} \left[ \left(\frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{x_2 - \mu_2}{\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}}\right)^2 - 2\rho_{12} \left(\frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}}\right) \left(\frac{x_2 - \mu_2}{\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}}\right) \right] \right\}.$$



**Figure 4.2** Two bivariate normal distributions. (a)  $\sigma_{11}=\sigma_{22}$  and  $\rho_{12}=0$ . (b)  $\sigma_{11}=\sigma_{22}$  and  $\rho_{12}=.75$ .





From the multivariate normal density,

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)},$$

it is clear that the paths of x values yielding a constant height for the density are ellipsoids.

- The multivariate normal density is constant on surfaces where the square of the distance  $(x-\mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)$  is constant. These paths are called contours:

#### Constant probability density contour

= {all x such that 
$$(x-\mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu) = c^2$$
}

= surface of an ellipsoid centered at  $\mu$ .

- The axes of each ellipsoid of constant density are in the direction of the eigenvectors of  $\Sigma^{-1}$ , and their lengths are proportional to the reciprocals of the square roots of the eigenvalues of  $\Sigma^{-1}$ .
- We can avoid the calculation of  $\Sigma^{-1}$  when determining the axes, since these ellipsoids are also determined by the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $\Sigma$ .



• Result 4.1. If  $\Sigma$  is positive definite, so that  $\Sigma^{-1}$  exists, then

$$\Sigma e = \lambda e$$
 implies  $\Sigma^{-1}e = (1/\lambda)e$ 

so  $(\lambda, e)$  is an eigenvalue-eigenvector pair for  $\Sigma$  corresponding to the pair  $(1/\lambda, e)$  for  $\Sigma^{-1}$ . Also,  $\Sigma^{-1}$  is positive definite.



$$\Sigma^{-1} = \frac{1}{\lambda_1} e_1 e_1' + \frac{1}{\lambda_2} e_2 e_2' + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_p} e_p e_p'$$

$$- x'\Sigma^{-1}x = x'\left(\frac{1}{\lambda_{1}}e_{1}e'_{1} + \frac{1}{\lambda_{2}}e_{2}e'_{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_{p}}e_{p}e'_{p}\right)x$$

$$= x'\frac{1}{\lambda_{1}}e_{1}e'_{1}x + x'\frac{1}{\lambda_{2}}e_{2}e'_{2}x + \dots + x'\frac{1}{\lambda_{p}}e_{p}e'_{p}x$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda_{1}}x'e_{1}e'_{1}x + \frac{1}{\lambda_{2}}x'e_{2}e'_{2}x + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_{p}}x'e_{p}e'_{p}x$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda_1} (e_1' x)^2 + \frac{1}{\lambda_2} (e_2' x)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_p} (e_p' x)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda_1} y_1^2 + \frac{1}{\lambda_2} y_2^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_p} y_p^2$$

$$-\frac{1}{\lambda_1}y_1^2 + \frac{1}{\lambda_2}y_2^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_p}y_p^2 = c^2 \text{ indicates an ellipsoid in } y_1 = e_1'x, y_2 = e_2'x, \dots, y_p = e_p'x.$$





- With  $x = c\sqrt{\lambda_1}e_1$ ,

$$x'\Sigma^{-1}x = \frac{1}{\lambda_{1}}\left(c\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}e'_{1}e_{1}\right)^{2} + \frac{1}{\lambda_{2}}\left(c\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}e'_{2}e_{1}\right)^{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_{p}}\left(c\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}e'_{p}e_{1}\right)^{2} = c^{2}$$

gives the appropriate distance in the  $e_1$  direction.

- With  $x = c\sqrt{\lambda_2}e_2$ ,

$$x'\Sigma^{-1}x = \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \left( c\sqrt{\lambda_2} e_1' e_2 \right)^2 + \frac{1}{\lambda_2} \left( c\sqrt{\lambda_2} e_2' e_2 \right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{\lambda_p} \left( c\sqrt{\lambda_2} e_p' e_2 \right)^2 = c^2$$

gives the appropriate distance in the  $e_2$  direction.

:

- The points at distance c lie on an ellipsoid whose axes are given by the eigenvectors of  $\Sigma$  with lengths proportional to the square roots of the eigenvalues.

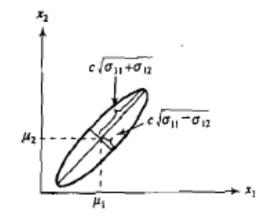


Contours of constant density for the *p*-dimensional normal distribution are ellipsoids defined by *x* such that

$$(x-\mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)=c^2.$$

These ellipsoids are centered at  $\mu$  and have axes  $\pm c\sqrt{\lambda_i}e_i$ , where  $\Sigma e_i = \lambda_i e_i$  for i = 1, 2, ..., p.

- Example 4.2. Contours of the bivariate normal density



**Figure 4.3** A constant-density contour for a bivariate normal distribution with  $\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22}$  and  $\sigma_{12} > 0$  (or  $\rho_{12} > 0$ ).



• The choice  $c^2 = \chi^2_p(\alpha)$ , where  $\chi^2_p(\alpha)$  is the upper  $(100\alpha)$ th percentile of a chi-square distribution with p degrees of freedom, leads to contours that contain  $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$  of the probability.

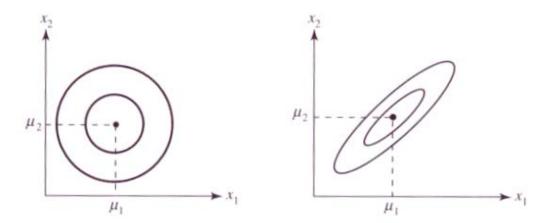
For a *p*-dimensional normal distribution, the solid ellipsoid of *x* values satisfying

$$(x-\mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu) \leq \chi_p^2(\alpha)$$

has probability 1-  $\alpha$ .

- See Figure 4.4 (p. 155).
- The *p*-variate normal density has a maximum value when the squared distance is zero that is, when  $x = \mu$ .
  - $\mu$  is the point of maximum density, or **mode**, as well as the expected value of X, **mean**.





**Figure 4.4** The 50% and 90% contours for the bivariate normal distributions in Figure 4.2.



- The following are true for a random vector *X* having a multivariate normal distribution:
  - 1. Linear combinations of the components of *X* are normally distributed.
  - 2. All subsets of the components of *X* have a (multivariate) normal distribution.
  - 3. Zero covariance implies that the corresponding components are independently distributed.
  - 4. The conditional distributions of the components are (multivariate) normal.



- Result 4.2. If X is distributed as  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ , then any linear combination of variables  $a'X = a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \cdots + a_pX_p$  is distributed as  $N(a'\mu, a'\Sigma a)$ . Also, if a'X is distributed as  $N(a'\mu, a'\Sigma a)$  for every a, then X must be  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ .
- Example 4.3. The distribution of a linear combination of the components of a normal random vector

Consider the linear combination a'X of a multivariate normal random vector determined by the choice a' = [1,0,...,0].



• Result 4.3. If X is distributed as  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ , the q linear combinations

$$A_{(q \times p)} X_{(p \times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} X_1 + \dots + a_{1p} X_p \\ a_{21} X_1 + \dots + a_{2p} X_p \\ \vdots \\ a_{q1} X_1 + \dots + a_{qp} X_p \end{bmatrix}$$

are distributed as  $N_q(A\mu, A\Sigma A')$ . Also,  $X_{(p\times 1)} + d_{(p\times 1)}$ , where d is a vector of constants, is distributed as  $N_p(\mu + d, \Sigma)$ .

• Result 4.4. All subsets of X are normally distributed. If we respectively partition X, its mean vector  $\mu$ , and its covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  as

$$X_{(p \times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ \frac{(q \times 1)}{X_2} \\ \frac{((p-q) \times 1)}{X_2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \frac{(q \times 1)}{\mu_2} \\ \frac{((p-q) \times 1)}{X_2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and } \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\Sigma_{11}}{(q \times q)} & \frac{\Sigma_{21}}{((p-q) \times q)} \\ \frac{\Sigma_{21}}{(((p-q) \times q))} & \frac{\Sigma_{22}}{(((p-q) \times (p-q)))} \end{bmatrix}$$

then  $X_1$  is distributed as  $N_q(\mu_1, \Sigma_{11})$ .



- Example 4.5. The distribution of a subset of a normal random vector
  - If X is distributed as  $N_5(\mu, \Sigma)$ , find the distribution of  $\begin{bmatrix} X_2 \\ X_4 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Set 
$$X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} X_2 \\ X_4 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\mu_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_2 \\ \mu_4 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\Sigma_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{24} \\ \sigma_{24} & \sigma_{44} \end{bmatrix}$ .

Then, 
$$\begin{bmatrix} X_2 \\ X_4 \\ X_1 \\ X_3 \\ X_5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_2 \\ \mu_4 \\ \mu_1 \\ \mu_3 \\ \mu_5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{24} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{23} & \sigma_{25} \\ \sigma_{24} & \sigma_{44} & \sigma_{14} & \sigma_{34} & \sigma_{45} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{14} & \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{13} & \sigma_{15} \\ \sigma_{23} & \sigma_{34} & \sigma_{13} & \sigma_{33} & \sigma_{35} \\ \sigma_{25} & \sigma_{45} & \sigma_{15} & \sigma_{35} & \sigma_{55} \end{bmatrix},$$

so, we have the distribution

$$N_2(\mu_1, \Sigma_{11}) = N_2 \begin{bmatrix} \mu_2 \\ \mu_4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{24} \\ \sigma_{24} & \sigma_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$
.



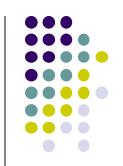
- Result 4.5.
  - (a) If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent, then  $Cov(X_1, X_2) = \mathbf{0}$ , a  $q_1 \times q_2$  matrix of zeros.
  - (b) If  $\left[\frac{X_1}{X_2}\right]$  is  $N_{q_1+q_2}\left(\left[\frac{\mu_1}{\mu_2}\right], \left[\frac{\Sigma_{11}}{\Sigma_{21}}\middle|\frac{\Sigma_{12}}{\Sigma_{22}}\right]\right)$ , then  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent if and only if  $\Sigma_{12}=0$ .
  - (c) If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent and are distributed as  $N_{q_1}(\mu_1, \Sigma_{11})$  and  $N_{q_2}(\mu_2, \Sigma_{22})$ , respectively, then

$$\left[\frac{X_1}{X_2}\right]$$
 has the multivariate normal distribution  $N_{q_1+q_2}\left(\left[\frac{\mu_1}{\mu_2}\right],\left[\frac{\Sigma_{11}}{0}\left|\frac{0}{\Sigma_{22}}\right]\right)$ .

• Example 4.6. The equivalence of zero covariance and independence for normal variables

- Let *X* be 
$$N_3(\mu, \Sigma)$$
 with  $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Are  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  independent? What about  $(X_1, X_2)$  and  $X_3$ ?



#### • Result 4.6.

Let 
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 be distributed as  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$  with  $\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ ,

and  $|\Sigma_{22}| > 0$ . Then the conditional distribution of  $X_1$ , given that  $X_2 = x_2$ , is normal and has

Mean = 
$$\mu_1 + \Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} (x_2 - \mu_2)$$

and

Covariance = 
$$\Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}\Sigma_{21}$$
.

Note that the covariance does not depend on the value of  $x_2$  of the conditioning variable.



Example 4.7. The conditional density of a bivariate normal distribution The conditional density of  $X_1$ , given that  $X_2 = x_2$ , is defined by

$$f(x_1|x_2) = \{\text{conditional density of } X_1 \text{ given that } X_2 = x_2\} = \frac{f(x_1, x_2)}{f(x_2)},$$

where  $f(x_2)$  is the marginal distribution of  $X_2$ . If  $f(x_1, x_2)$  is the bivariate normal density, show that  $f(x_1|x_2)$  is

$$N\left(\mu_1 + \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sigma_{22}}(x_2 - \mu_2), \sigma_{11} - \frac{\sigma_{12}^2}{\sigma_{22}}\right).$$

Proof

Note that  $\sigma_{11} - \frac{\sigma_{12}^2}{\sigma_{22}} = \sigma_{11}(1 - \rho_{12}^2)$ . The two terms involving  $X_1 - \mu_1$  in the exponent of the bivariate normal density becomes, apart from the multiplicative constant  $-\frac{1}{2}(1 - \rho_{12}^2)$ ,

$$\frac{\left(x_{1}-\mu_{1}\right)^{2}}{\sigma_{11}}-2\rho_{12}\frac{\left(x_{1}-\mu_{1}\right)\left(x_{2}-\mu_{2}\right)}{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}}=\frac{1}{\sigma_{11}}\left[x_{1}-\mu_{1}-\rho_{12}\frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}}\left(x_{2}-\mu_{2}\right)\right]^{2}-\frac{\rho_{12}^{2}}{\sigma_{22}}\left(x_{2}-\mu_{2}\right)^{2}.$$

on

• Example 4.7. The conditional density of a bivariate normal distribution *Proof* (continued)

Because 
$$\rho_{12} = \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}}$$
, or  $\rho_{12} \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}} = \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sigma_{22}}$ , the complete exponent is
$$-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho_{12}^2)} \left( \frac{(x_1-\mu_1)^2}{\sigma_{11}} - 2\rho_{12} \frac{(x_1-\mu_1)(x_2-\mu_2)}{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}} + \frac{(x_2-\mu_2)^2}{\sigma_{22}} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma_{11}(1-\rho_{12}^2)} \left[ x_1 - \mu_1 - \rho_{12} \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}} (x_2 - \mu_2) \right]^2 - \frac{1}{2(1-\rho_{12}^2)} \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_{22}} - \frac{\rho_{12}^2}{\sigma_{22}} \right) (x_2 - \mu_2)^2$$

$$1 \qquad \left[ \sigma_{12} \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_{22}} - \frac{1}{\sigma_{22}} \right) \right]^2 - \frac{1}{2(1-\rho_{12}^2)} \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_{22}} - \frac{\rho_{12}^2}{\sigma_{22}} \right) (x_2 - \mu_2)^2$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma_{11}(1-\rho_{12}^2)} \left[ x_1 - \mu_1 - \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sigma_{22}} (x_2 - \mu_2) \right]^2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{\sigma_{22}}$$

The constant term  $2\pi\sqrt{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}(1-\rho_{12}^2)}$  also factors as

$$\sqrt{2\pi}\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}\sqrt{2\pi}\sqrt{\sigma_{11}(1-\rho_{12}^2)}$$
.

Dividing the joint density of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  by the marginal density

$$f(x_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}} e^{-\frac{(x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_{22}}},$$

and canceling terms yields the conditional density

$$f(x_1|x_2) = \frac{f(x_1, x_2)}{f(x_2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sqrt{\sigma_{11}(1-\rho_{12}^2)}} e^{\frac{\left[x_1 - \mu_1 - \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sigma_{22}}(x_2 - \mu_2)\right]}{2\sigma_{11}(1-\rho_{12}^2)}} - \infty < x_1 < \infty.$$



• Example 4.7. The conditional density of a bivariate normal distribution *Proof* (continued)

Thus the conditional distribution of  $X_1$ , given that  $X_2 = x_2$ , is

$$N\left(\mu_1 + \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sigma_{22}}(x_2 - \mu_2), \sigma_{11} - \frac{\sigma_{12}^2}{\sigma_{22}}\right).$$

Now,

$$\Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} \Sigma_{21} = \sigma_{11} - \frac{\sigma_{12}^2}{\sigma_{22}} = \sigma_{11} \left( 1 - \rho_{12}^2 \right) \text{ and } \Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} = \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sigma_{22}}, \text{ agreeing with Result 4.6.}$$

- Result 4.7. Let X be distributed as  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$  with  $|\Sigma| > 0$ . Then (a)  $(X \mu) \Sigma^{-1}(X \mu)$  is distributed as  $\chi^2_p$ , where  $\chi^2_p$  denotes the chi-square distribution with p degrees of freedom.
  - (b) The  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$  distribution assigns probability  $1 \alpha$  to the solid ellipsoid  $\{x : (x \mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x \mu) \le \chi_p^2(\alpha)\}$ , where  $\chi_p^2$  denotes the upper  $(100\alpha)$ th percentile of the  $\chi_p^2$  distribution.

Proof of (a).

 $\chi_p^2$  is defined as the distribution of the sum  $Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \cdots + Z_p^2$ , where  $Z_1, Z_2, \cdots, Z_p$  are independent N(0,1) random variables.

By the spectral decomposition,  $\Sigma^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_i}\right) e_i e_i'$ , where  $\Sigma e_i = \lambda_i e_i$ , so  $\Sigma^{-1} e_i = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_i}\right) e_i$ .

Consequently, 
$$(X - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(X - \mu) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_{i}}\right) (X - \mu)' e_{i} e'_{i}(X - \mu) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_{i}}\right) (e'_{i}(X - \mu))^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{p} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \right) e_i'(X - \mu) \right]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{p} Z_i^2, \text{ for instance.}$$



Result 4.7.

Result 4.7.

Proof. (continued)

Now, 
$$Z = A(X - \mu)$$
, where  $Z_{(p \times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ Z_2 \\ \vdots \\ Z_p \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $A_{(p \times p)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}} e_1' \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_2}} e_2' \\ \vdots \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_p}} e_p' \end{bmatrix}$ 

and X -  $\mu$  is distributed as  $N_p(0, \Sigma)$ . Therefore, by Result 4.3,  $Z = A(X - \mu)$  is distributed as  $N_p(0, A\Sigma A')$ , where

$$A_{(p \times p)(p \times p)(p \times p)} A'_{(p \times p)(p \times p)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}} e'_1 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_2}} e'_2 \\ \vdots \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_n}} e'_p \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i e_i e'_i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}} e_1 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_2}} e_2 & \cdots & \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_p}} e_p \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} e'_1 \\ \sqrt{\lambda_2} e'_2 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{\lambda_p} e'_p \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}} e_1 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_2}} e_2 & \cdots & \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_p}} e_p \end{bmatrix} = I.$$



#### • <u>Result 4.7</u>.

Proof. (continued)

By Result 4.5,  $Z_1$ ,  $Z_2$ , ...,  $Z_p$  are *independent* standard normal variables. Therefore,  $(X - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu)$  has a  $\chi^2_p$  distribution.

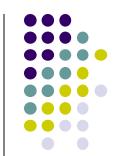
Proof of (b)

Note that  $P[(X - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu) \le c^2]$  is the probability assigned to the ellipsoid  $(X - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu) \le c^2$  by the density  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ .

From (a), since  $P\left[\left(X-\mu\right)'\Sigma^{-1}\left(X-\mu\right) \leq \chi_p^2(\alpha)\right] = 1-\alpha$ , and (b) holds.



- Interpretation of statistical distance
  - When X is distributed as  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ ,  $(X \mu)^{'} \Sigma^{-1} (X \mu)$  is the squared statistical distance from X to the population mean vector  $\mu$ .
  - If one component has a much larger variance than another, it will contribute less to the squared distance.
  - Two highly correlated random variables will contribute less than two variables that are nearly uncorrelated.
  - The use of the inverse of the covariance matrix (1) standardizes all of the variables and (2) eliminates the effects of correlation.
  - From the proof of Result 4.7,  $(X \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (X \mu) = Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \dots + Z_p^2$ . In terms of  $\Sigma^{-1/2}$ ,  $Z = \Sigma^{-1/2} (X \mu)$  has a  $N_p(0, I_p)$  distribution, and  $(X \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (X \mu) = (X \mu)' \Sigma^{-1/2} \Sigma^{-1/2} (X \mu) = Z'Z = Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \dots + Z_p^2$ .
  - The squared statistical distance is calculated as if the random vector *X* were transformed to *p* independent standard normal random variables and then the usual squared distance, the sum of the squares of the variables, were applied.



• Result 4.8. Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be mutually independent with  $X_j$  distributed as  $N_p(\mu_j, \Sigma)$ . (Note that each  $X_j$  has the same covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ ). Then

$$V_1 = c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + \dots + c_n X_n$$

is distributed as 
$$N_p \left( \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \mu_j, \left( \sum_{j=1}^n c_j^2 \right) \Sigma \right)$$
.

Moreover,  $V_1$  and  $V_2 = b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + ... + b_n X_n$  are jointly multivariate normal with covariance matrix

$$egin{aligned} \left[ \left( \sum_{j=1}^n c_j^2 
ight) & \left( b'c 
ight) \Sigma \ \left( b'c 
ight) & \left( \sum_{j=1}^n b_j^2 
ight) \Sigma \end{aligned} 
ight]. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are independent if  $b'c = \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_j b_j = 0$ .

# 4.3. Sampling from a Multivariate Normal Distribution and Maximum Likelihood Estimation



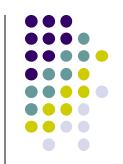
- The  $p \times 1$  vectors  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  represent a random sample from a multivariate normal population with mean vector  $\mu$  and covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ .
  - The joint density function of all the observations is the product of the marginal normal densities:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Joint density} \\ \text{of } X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \end{cases} = \prod_{j=1}^n \left\{ \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x_j - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x_j - \mu)} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{np}{2}} |\Sigma|^{\frac{n}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(x_j - \mu)}.$$

- This function of  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$  for the fixed set of observations  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  is called the **likelihood**.
- Maximum likelihood estimation selects a value of population parameters that maximize the joint density evaluated at the observations.
  - The maximizing parameter values are called **maximum likelihood estimates**.

# 4.3. Sampling from a Multivariate Normal Distribution and Maximum Likelihood Estimation



- Result 4.9. Let A be a  $k \times k$  symmetric matrix and x be a  $k \times 1$  vector. Then (a)  $x'Ax = \operatorname{tr}(x'Ax) = \operatorname{tr}(Axx')$ 
  - (b)  $\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i$ , where the  $\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues of A.
- The exponent in the joint normal density can be simplified as

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{j} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (x_{j} - \mu) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{tr} \left[ (x_{j} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (x_{j} - \mu) \right] = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} (x_{j} - \mu)(x_{j} - \mu)' \right] = \operatorname{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{j} - \mu)(x_{j} - \mu)' \right) \right] = \operatorname{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{j} - \overline{x})(x_{j} - \overline{x})' + n(\overline{x} - \mu)(\overline{x} - \mu)' \right) \right].$$

The likelihood function

$$L(\mu, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{np}{2}} |\Sigma|^{-\frac{n}{2}} e^{\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}\left[\sum^{-1}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n}(x_{j}-\overline{x})(x_{j}-\overline{x})+n(\overline{x}-\mu)(\overline{x}-\mu)'\right)\right]\right\}}$$

• Result 4.10. Given a  $p \times p$  symmetric positive definite matrix B and a scalar b > 0, it follows that



$$\frac{1}{\left|\Sigma\right|^{b}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}\left(\Sigma^{-1}B\right)} \leq \frac{1}{\left|B\right|^{b}}\left(2b\right)^{pb}e^{-bp}$$

for all positive definite  $\Sigma$ , with equality holding only for  $\Sigma = (1/2b)B$ .

Proof.

Let  $B^{1/2}$  be the symmetric square root of B, so  $B^{1/2}B^{1/2} = B$ ,  $B^{1/2}B^{-1/2} = I$ , and  $B^{-1/2}B^{-1/2} = B^{-1}$ . Then,  $\operatorname{tr}(\Sigma^{-1}B) = \operatorname{tr}(\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}B^{1/2}) = \operatorname{tr}[(\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2})B^{1/2}] = \operatorname{tr}[B^{1/2}(\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2})]$ .

Let  $\eta$  be an eigenvalue of  $B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}$ . This matrix is positive definite because  $y'B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}y = (B^{1/2}y)'\Sigma^{-1}(B^{1/2}y) > 0$  if  $B^{1/2}y \neq 0$  or, equivalently,  $y \neq 0$ . Thus, the eigenvalues  $\eta_i$  of  $B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}$  are positive.

Result 4.9(b) then gives

$$tr(\Sigma^{-1}B) = tr(B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \eta_{i} \text{ and } |B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}| = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \eta_{i}.$$

$$Then |B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}| = |B^{1/2}||\Sigma^{-1}||B^{1/2}|| = |\Sigma^{-1}||B^{1/2}||B^{1/2}|| = |\Sigma^{-1}||B|| = \frac{1}{|\Sigma|}|B|$$

$$or \frac{1}{|\Sigma|} = \frac{|B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}|}{|B|} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{p} \eta_{i}}{|B|}.$$



• Result 4.10. *Proof.* (continued)

Combining the results for the trace and the determinant yields

$$\frac{1}{\left|\Sigma\right|^{b}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}\left(\Sigma^{-1}B\right)} = \frac{\left(\prod_{i=1}^{p}\eta_{i}\right)^{b}}{\left|B\right|^{b}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{p}\eta_{i}} = \frac{1}{\left|B\right|^{b}}\prod_{i=1}^{p}\eta_{i}^{b}e^{-\frac{\eta_{i}}{2}}.$$

The function  $\eta^b e^{-\eta/2}$  has a maximum, with respect to  $\eta$ , of  $(2b)^b e^{-b}$ , occurring at  $\eta = 2b$ . The choice  $\eta_i = 2b$ , for each i, therefore gives

$$\frac{1}{\left|\Sigma\right|^{b}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}\left(\Sigma^{-1}B\right)} \leq \frac{1}{\left|B\right|^{b}}\left(2b\right)^{pb}e^{-bp}.$$

The upper bound is uniquely attained when  $\Sigma = (1/2b)B$ , since, for this choice,

$$B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2} = B^{1/2}(2b)B^{-1}B^{1/2} = (2b)I_{(p\times p)}$$

and 
$$tr(\Sigma^{-1}B) = tr(B^{1/2}\Sigma^{-1}B^{1/2}) = tr((2b)I) = 2bp$$
.

Moreover,

$$\frac{1}{|\Sigma|} = \frac{\left|B^{1/2} \Sigma^{-1} B^{1/2}\right|}{|B|} = \frac{\left|(2b)I\right|}{|B|} = \frac{(2b)^p}{|B|}.$$

Straightforward substitution for  $tr[\Sigma^{-1}B]$  and  $1/|\Sigma|^b$  yields the bound asserted.

• Result 4.11. Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be a random sample from a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and covariance  $\Sigma$ . Then

$$\hat{\mu} = \overline{X}$$
 and  $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_j - \overline{X})(X_j - \overline{X})' = \frac{(n-1)}{n} S$ 

are the **maximum likelihood estimators** of  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ , respectively. Their observed values,  $\overline{x}$  and  $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}(x_{j}-\overline{x})(x_{j}-\overline{x})'$ , are called the **maximum** likelihood estimates of  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ .

Proof.

The exponent in the likelihood function, apart from the multiplicative factor -1/2, is

$$tr\left[\Sigma^{-1}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n}\left(x_{j}-\overline{x}\right)\left(x_{j}-\overline{x}\right)'\right)\right]+n(\overline{x}-\mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(\overline{x}-\mu).$$

By Result 4.1,  $\Sigma^{-1}$  is positive definite, so the distance  $(\bar{x} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{x} - \mu) > 0$  unless  $\mu = \bar{x}$ . Thus, the likelihood is maximized with respect to  $\mu$  at  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$ . It remains to maximize

$$L(\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{np}{2}} |\Sigma|^{\frac{n}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}tr\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \overline{x})(x_j - \overline{x})^{\frac{n}{2}}\right]}$$

over  $\Sigma$ .



• Result 4.11. *Proof.* (continued)

By Result 4.10 with 
$$b = n/2$$
 and  $B = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \overline{x})(x_j - \overline{x})'$ , the maximum occurs at  $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \overline{x})(x_j - \overline{x})'$ , as stated.

The maximum likelihood estimators are random quantities. They are obtained by replacing the observations  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  in the expressions for  $\hat{\mu}$  and  $\hat{\Sigma}$  with the corresponding random vectors,  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ .



- The maximum likelihood estimator  $\overline{X}$  is a random vector and the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\Sigma}$  is a random matrix.
  - The maximum likelihood estimates are their particular values for the given data set.
  - The maximum of the likelihood is

$$L(\hat{\mu},\hat{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{np/2}} e^{-np/2} \frac{1}{\left|\hat{\Sigma}\right|^{n/2}}$$

or since 
$$|\hat{\Sigma}| = [(n-1)/n]^p |S|$$
,

$$L(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma}) = \text{constant} \times (\text{generalized variance})^{-n/2}$$

- The generalized variance determines the "peakedness" of the likelihood function, and consequently, is a natural measure of variability when the parent population is multivariate normal.



#### Invariance property

- $\hat{\theta}$ : the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\theta$
- The maximum likelihood estimate of  $h(\theta)$ , a function of  $\theta$ , is given by  $h(\hat{\theta})$ .

#### - Example.

- 1. The maximum likelihood estimator of  $\mu' \Sigma^{-1} \mu$  is  $\hat{\mu}' \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \hat{\mu}$ , where  $\hat{\mu} = \overline{X}$  and  $\hat{\Sigma} = ((n-1)/n)S$  are the maximum likelihood estimators of  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ , respectively.
- 2. The maximum likelihood estimator of  $\sqrt{\sigma_{ii}}$  is  $\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_{ii}}$ , where

$$\hat{\sigma}_{ii} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( X_{ij} - \overline{X}_{i} \right)^{2}$$

is the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\sigma_{ii} = Var(X_i)$ .

#### **Sufficient Statistics**

- For a random sample,  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ , from a multivariate normal population with mean  $\mu$  and covariance  $\Sigma$ ,  $\overline{X}$  and S are *sufficient statistics*.
  - The joint density depends on the whole set of observations  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  only through the sample mean  $\overline{x}$  and the sum-of-squares-and-cross-product matrix  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_j \overline{X})(X_j \overline{X})' = (n-1)S$ .

Then,  $\overline{x}$  and (n-1)S (or S) are sufficient statistics.

- This is generally not true for nonnormal populations. If the data cannot be regarded as multivariate normal, techniques that depend solely on  $\bar{x}$  and S may be ignoring other useful sample information.

#### **4.4.** The Sampling Distribution of $\overline{X}$ and S



- In the univariate case (p = 1),  $\overline{X}$  is normal with mean  $\mu =$  (population mean) and variance  $\frac{1}{n}\sigma^2 = \frac{\text{population variance}}{\text{sample size}}$ .
- For the multivariate case  $(p \ge 2)$ ,  $\overline{X}$  has a normal distribution with mean vector  $\mu$  and covariance matrix  $(1/n)\Sigma$ .
- In the univariate case, recall  $(n-1)s^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j \overline{X})^2$  is distributed as  $\sigma^2$  times a chi-square variable having n-1 degrees of freedom (d.f.).
  - This chi-square is the distribution of a sum of squares of independent standard normal random variables.
  - $(n-1)s^2$  is distributed as  $\sigma^2(Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_{n-1}^2) = (\sigma Z_1)^2 + \dots + (\sigma Z_{n-1})^2$ .
  - The individual terms  $\sigma Z_i$  are independently distributed as  $N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

#### **4.4.** The Sampling Distribution of $\overline{X}$ and S



 The sampling distribution of the sample covariance matrix is called the Wishart distribution:

$$W_m(\cdot|\Sigma)$$
 = Wishart distribution with  $m$  d.f.

= distribution of 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} Z_j Z'_j$$
,

where the  $Z_j$  are each independently distributed as  $N_p(0, \Sigma)$ .

- Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be a random sample of size n from a p-variate normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ . Then
  - 1. X is distributed as  $N_p(\mu, (1/n)\Sigma)$ .
  - 2. (n-1)S is distributed as a Wishart random matrix with n-1 d.f.
  - 3.  $\overline{X}$  and S are independent.
  - Because  $\Sigma$  is unknown, the distribution of  $\overline{X}$  cannot be used directly to make inference about  $\mu$ . However, S provides independent information about  $\Sigma$ , and the distribution of S does not depend on  $\mu$ .

#### **4.4.** The Sampling Distribution of $\overline{X}$ and S

- Properties of the Wishart Distribution
  - 1. If  $A_1$  is distributed as  $W_{m_1}(A_1|\Sigma)$  independently of  $A_2$ , which is distributed as  $W_{m_2}(A_2|\Sigma)$ , then  $A_1 + A_2$  is distributed as  $W_{m_1+m_2}(A_1 + A_2|\Sigma)$ . That is, the degrees of freedom add.
  - 2. If A is distributed as  $W_m(A|\Sigma)$ , then CAC' is distributed as  $W_m(CAC'|C\Sigma C')$ .
- The probability density function of the Wishart distribution at the positive definite matrix *A* is

$$w_{n-1}(A|\Sigma) = \frac{|A|^{(n-p-2)/2} e^{-\operatorname{tr}[A\Sigma^{-1}]/2}}{2^{p(n-1)/2} \pi^{p(p-1)/4} |\Sigma|^{(n-1)/2} \prod_{i=1}^{p} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-i))},$$

where  $\Gamma(\cdot)$  is the gamma function.

• Suppose the quantity X is determined by a large number of independent causes  $V_1, V_2, ..., V_n$ , where the random variable  $V_i$  representing the causes have approximately the same variability. If X is the sum

$$X = V_1 + V_2 + \dots + V_n,$$

then the central limit theorem applies, and conclude that X has a distribution that is nearly normal. This is true for virtually any parent distribution of the  $V_i$ 's, provided that n is large enough.

- The univariate central limit theorem also tells us that the sampling distribution of the sample mean,  $\overline{X}$ , for a large sample size is nearly normal, whatever the form of the underlying population distribution is.
- Certain multivariate statistics, like  $\overline{X}$  and S, have large sample properties analogous to their univariate counterparts.

• Result 4.12 (Law of large numbers). Let  $Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_n$  be independent observations from a population with mean  $E(Y_i) = \mu$ . Then

$$\overline{Y} = \frac{Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n}{Y_n}$$

converges in probability to  $\mu$  as n increases without bound. That is, for any prescribed accuracy  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $P[-\varepsilon < \overline{Y} - \mu < \varepsilon]$  approaches unity as  $n \to \infty$ .

- The law of large numbers says that each  $\overline{X}_i$  converges in probability to  $\mu_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., p. Therefore,  $\overline{X}$  converges in probability to  $\mu$ .
- Similarly, since each sample covarianace  $s_{ik}$  converges in probability to  $\sigma_{ik}$ , i, k = 1, 2, ..., p, S (or  $\hat{\Sigma} = S_n$ ) converges in probability to  $\Sigma$ , since

$$(n-1)s_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_{ji} - \overline{X}_{i})(X_{jk} - \overline{X}_{k}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_{ji} - \mu_{i} + \mu_{i} - \overline{X}_{i})(X_{jk} - \mu_{k} + \mu_{k} - \overline{X}_{k})$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_{ji} - \mu_{i})(X_{jk} - \mu_{k}) + n(\overline{X}_{i} - \mu_{i})(\overline{X}_{k} - \mu_{k})$$

and the first term converges to  $\sigma_{ik}$  and the second term converges to zero, by applying the law of large numbers.

- Result 4.13. (The central limit theorem). Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be independent observations from any population with mean vector  $\mu$  and finite covariance  $\Sigma$ . Then  $\sqrt{n}(\overline{X} \mu)$  has an approximate  $N_p(0, \Sigma)$  distribution for large sample sizes. Here n should also be large relative to p.
- The approximation provided by the central limit theorem applies to discrete, as well as continuous, multivariate populations.
  - $\overline{X}$  is exactly normally distributed when the underlying population is normal. Therefore, the central limit theorem approximation would be quite good for moderate n when the parent population is nearly normal.
- $n(\overline{X} \mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(\overline{X} \mu)$  has a  $\chi^2_p$  distribution when  $\overline{X}$  is distributed as  $N_p(\mu, (1/n)\Sigma)$ , or, equivalently, when  $\sqrt{n}(\overline{X} \mu)$  has an  $N_p(0, \Sigma)$  distribution. The  $\chi^2_p$  distribution is *approximately* the sampling distribution of  $n(\overline{X} \mu)' \Sigma^{-1}(\overline{X} \mu)$  when  $\overline{X}$  is approximately normally distributed. Replacing  $\Sigma^{-1}$  by  $S^{-1}$  does not seriously affect this approximation for n large and much greater than p.



• Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be independent observations from a population with mean  $\mu$  and finite (nonsingular) covariance  $\Sigma$ . Then

$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X} - \mu)$$
 is approximately  $N_p(0, \Sigma)$ 

and

$$n(\overline{X} - \mu)' S^{-1}(\overline{X} - \mu)$$
 is approximately  $\chi^2_p$  for  $n - p$  large.

#### 4.6 Assessing the Assumption of Normality

• Many statistical techniques assume that each vector observation  $X_j$  comes from a multivariate normal distribution.



#### • Evaluating the Normality of the Univariate Marginal Distributions

- Dot diagram for smaller n and histograms for n > 25 help reveal situations where one tail of a univariate distribution is much longer than the other.
- Can check further by counting the number of observations in certain interval based on a univariate normal distribution.
- Q-Q plots can be used to assess the assumption of normality.
- The Q-Q plot
  - 1. Order the original observations to get  $x_{(1)}, x_{(2)}, ..., x_{(n)}$  and their corresponding probability values (1 0.5)/n, (2 0.5)/n, ..., (n 0.5)/n;
  - 2. Calculate the standard normal quantiles  $q_{(1)}, q_{(2)}, \ldots, q_{(n)}$ ,

$$P[Z \le q_{(j)}] = \int_{-\infty}^{q_{(j)}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz = \frac{j - 0.5}{n};$$

- 3. Plot the pairs of observations  $(q_{(1)}, x_{(1)}), (q_{(2)}, x_{(2)}), ..., (q_{(n)}, x_{(n)})$ , and examine the "straightness" of the outcome.
- If data arise from a normal population, the pairs  $(q_{(j)}, x_{(j)})$  will be approximately linearly related.

#### 4.6 Assessing the Assumption of Normality

• The straightness of the Q-Q plot can be measured by calculating the correlation coefficient of the points in the plot:

$$r_{Q} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{(j)} - \overline{x}) (q_{(j)} - \overline{q})}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{(j)} - \overline{x})^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (q_{(j)} - \overline{q})^{2}}}.$$

#### 4.6 Assessing the Assumption of Normality

#### • Evaluating the Multivariate Normality

- A somewhat more formal method for judging the joint normality of a data set is based on the squared generalized distances

$$d_{j}^{2} = (x_{j} - \overline{x})' S^{-1}(x_{j} - \overline{x}), \quad j = 1, 2, ..., n,$$

where  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  are the sample observations.

- When the parent population is multivariate normal and both n and n-p are greater than 25 or 30, each of the squared distances  $d_1^2, d_2^2, \ldots, d_n^2$  should behave like a chi-square random variable.
- The chi-square plot
  - 1. Order the squared distances  $d_1^2, d_2^2, \dots, d_n^2$  from smallest to largest as  $d_{(1)}^2, d_{(2)}^2, \dots, d_{(n)}^2$ .
  - 2. Graph the pairs  $(q_{c,p}((j-0.5)/n), d_{(j)}^2)$ , where  $q_{c,p}((j-0.5)/n)$  is the 100(j-0.5)/n quantile of the chi-square distribution with p degrees of freedom.
  - The plot should resemble a straight line through the origin having slope 1.

#### 4.7 Detecting Outliers and Cleaning Data

- Steps for detecting outliers
  - 1. Make a dot plot for each variable.
  - 2. Make a scatter plot for each pair of variables.
  - 3. Calculate the standardized values

$$z_{jk} = \frac{\left(x_{jk} - \overline{x}_{k}\right)}{\sqrt{s_{kk}}}$$

for j = 1, 2, ..., n and for each column k = 1, 2, ..., p. Examine these standardized values for large or small values.

4. Calculate the generalized squared distances  $(x_j - \overline{x})' S^{-1}(x_j - \overline{x})$ . Examine these distances for unusually large values. In a chi-square plot, these would be the points farthest from the origin.



#### 4.8 Transformations to Near Normality

• If normality is not a viable assumption, one alternative is to make nonnormal data more "normal looking" by considering **transformations** of the data.



- Normal-theory analysis can then be carried out with the suitably transformed data.
- Helpful Transformations To Near Normality

Original Scale	Transformed Scale
Counts, y	$\sqrt{y}$
Proportions, $\hat{p}$	$\operatorname{logit}(\hat{p}) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{\hat{p}}{1 - \hat{p}} \right)$
Correlations, r	Fisher's $z(r) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{1+r}{1-r} \right)$

Box-Cox Transformations

$$x^{(\lambda)} = \begin{cases} \frac{x^{\lambda} - 1}{\lambda} & \lambda \neq 0\\ \log x & \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$

- With multivariate observations, a power transformation must be selected for each of the variables.