### **Tests for Multivariate Means**

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STAT 4690-Applied Multivariate Analysis

# Tests for one multivariate mean

### Review of univariate tests i

- Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  be independently distributed, and let  $\bar{X}$  and  $s^2$  be the sample mean and variance, respectively.
- When  $\sigma^2$  is known
  - $\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0,1)$ , or equivalently  $\left(\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$ .
  - $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval:  $(\bar{X}-z_{\alpha/2}(\sigma/\sqrt{n}),\bar{X}+z_{\alpha/2}(\sigma/\sqrt{n})).$
- When  $\sigma^2$  is unknown
  - $\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \sim t(n-1)$ , or equivalently  $\left(\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 \sim F(1,n-1)$ .
  - $100(1-\alpha)$ % confidence interval:  $(\bar{X}-t_{\alpha/2,n-1}(s/\sqrt{n}),\bar{X}+t_{\alpha/2,n-1}(s/\sqrt{n})).$

### Review of univariate tests ii

• In particular, if we want to test  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  when  $\sigma^2$  is unknown, then we reject the null hypothesis if

$$\left|\frac{\bar{X}-\mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}\right| > t_{\alpha/2,n-1}, \text{ or } \left(\frac{\bar{X}-\mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 > F_{\alpha}(1,n-1).$$

The multivariate tests for a single mean vector have direct analogues.

4

### **Test for a multivariate mean:** $\Sigma$ **known**

- Let  $\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_n \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$  be independent.
- We saw in the previous lecture that

$$\bar{\mathbf{Y}} \sim N_p\left(\mu, \frac{1}{n}\Sigma\right).$$

This means that

$$n(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu) \sim \chi^2(p).$$

• In particular, if we want to test  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  at level  $\alpha$ , then we reject the null hypothesis if

$$n(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu_0)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu_0) > \chi_{\alpha}^2(p).$$

# Example i

```
library(dslabs)
library(tidyverse)
dataset <- gapminder %>%
  filter(year == 2012,
         !is.na(infant mortality)) %>%
  select(infant mortality,
         life expectancy,
         fertility) %>%
  as.matrix()
```

# Example ii

```
# Assume we know Sigma
Sigma <- matrix(c(555, -170, 30, -170, 65, -10, 30, -10, 2), ncol = 3)

mu_hat <- colMeans(dataset)
mu_hat
```

```
## infant_mortality life_expectancy fertility
## 25.824157 71.308427 2.868933
```

# Example iii

## [1] TRUE

```
# Test mu = mu_0
mu_0 <- c(25, 50, 3)
test_statistic <- nrow(dataset) * t(mu_hat - mu_0) %*%
    solve(Sigma) %*% (mu_hat - mu_0)
drop(test_statistic) > qchisq(0.95, df = 3)
```

### Test for a multivariate mean: $\Sigma$ unknown i

 $\blacksquare$  Of course, we rarely (if ever) know  $\Sigma,$  and so we use its MLE

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{Y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}) (\mathbf{Y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})^T$$

or the sample covariance  $S_n$ .

• Therefore, to test  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  at level  $\alpha$ , then we reject the null hypothesis if

$$T^{2} = n(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu_{0})^{T} S_{n}^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu_{0}) > c,$$

for a suitably chosen constant c that depends on  $\alpha$ .

• **Note**: The test statistic  $T^2$  is known as *Hotelling's*  $T^2$ .

### Test for a multivariate mean: $\Sigma$ unknown ii

• It turns out that (under  $H_0$ )  $T^2$  has a simple distribution:

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

• In other words, we reject the null hypothesis at level lpha if

$$T^{2} > \frac{(n-1)p}{(n-p)} F_{\alpha}(p, n-p).$$

# **Example** (revisited)

```
n <- nrow(dataset); p <- ncol(dataset)</pre>
# Test mu = mu 0
mu 0 < -c(25, 50, 3)
test statistic <- n * t(mu hat - mu 0) %*%
  solve(cov(dataset)) %*% (mu hat - mu 0)
critical val <- (n - 1)*p*qf(0.95, df1 = p,
                              df2 = n - p)/(n-p)
drop(test statistic) > critical val
## [1] TRUE
```

# Confidence region for $\mu$ i

- Analogously to the univariate setting, it may be more informative to look at a confidence region:
  - The set of values  $\mu_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$  that are supported by the data, i.e. whose corresponding null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  would be rejected at level  $\alpha$ .
- Let  $c^2 = \frac{(n-1)p}{(n-p)} F_{\alpha}(p,n-p)$ . A  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence region for  $\mu$  is given by the ellipsoid around  $\bar{\mathbf{Y}}$  such that

$$n(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu)^T S_n^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu) < c^2, \quad \mu \in \mathbb{R}^p.$$

# Confidence region for $\mu$ ii

- We can describe the confidence region in terms of the eigendecomposition of  $S_n$ : let  $\lambda_1 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_p$  be its eigenvalues, and let  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$  be corresponding eigenvectors of unit length.
- $\blacksquare$  The confidence region is the ellipsoid centered around  $\overline{Y}$  with axes

$$\pm c\sqrt{\lambda_i}v_i.$$

# Visualizing confidence regions when p > 2 i

- When p > 2 we cannot easily plot the confidence regions.
  - Therefore, we first need to project onto an axis or onto the plane.
- Theorem: Let c>0 be a constant and A a  $p\times p$  positive definite matrix. For a given vector  $\mathbf{u}\neq 0$ , the projection of the ellipse  $\{\mathbf{y}^TA^{-1}\mathbf{y}\leq c^2\}$  onto  $\mathbf{u}$  is given by

$$c\frac{\sqrt{\mathbf{u}^T A \mathbf{u}}}{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}.$$

# Visualizing confidence regions when p > 2 ii

• If we take u to be the standard unit vectors, we get confidence intervals for each component of μ:

$$LB = \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{j} - \sqrt{\frac{(n-1)p}{(n-p)} F_{\alpha}(p, n-p)(s_{jj}^{2}/n)}$$

$$UB = \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{j} + \sqrt{\frac{(n-1)p}{(n-p)} F_{\alpha}(p, n-p)(s_{jj}^{2}/n)}.$$

# Example

```
n <- nrow(dataset); p <- ncol(dataset)</pre>
\# Test mu = mu \ O
mu 0 < -c(25, 50, 3)
test statistic <- n * t(mu hat - mu 0) %*%
  solve(cov(dataset)) %*% (mu hat - mu 0)
critical val \leftarrow (n - 1)*p*qf(0.95, df1 = p,
                               df2 = n - p)/(n-p)
sample cov <- diag(cov(dataset))</pre>
cbind(mu hat - sqrt(critical val*
                        sample cov/n),
      mu hat + sort(critical val*
```

# Visualizing confidence regions when p>2 (cont'd) i

■ Theorem: Let c>0 be a constant and A a  $p\times p$  positive definite matrix. For a given pair of perpendicular unit vectors  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$ , the projection of the ellipse  $\{\mathbf{y}^TA^{-1}\mathbf{y} \leq c^2\}$  onto the plane defined by  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$  is given by

$$\left\{ (U^T\mathbf{y})^T(U^TAU)^{-1}(U^T\mathbf{y}) \leq c^2 \right\},$$
 where  $U = (\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2).$ 

17

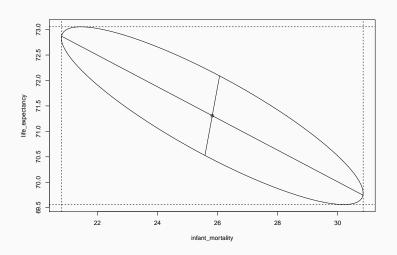
# Example (cont'd) i

# Example (cont'd) ii

# Example (cont'd) iii

```
# Eigendecomposition
decomp <- eigen(t(U) %*% cov(dataset) %*% U)
first <- sqrt(decomp$values[1]) *
  decomp$vectors[,1] * sqrt(critical_val)
second <- sqrt(decomp$values[2]) *
  decomp$vectors[,2] * sqrt(critical_val)</pre>
```

# Example (cont'd) iv



### Simultaneous Confidence Statements i

- Let  $w \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . We are interested in constructing confidence intervals for  $w^T \mu$  that are simultaneously valid (i.e. right coverage probability) for all w.
- Note that  $w^T \bar{\mathbf{Y}}$  and  $w^T S_n w$  are both scalars.
- If we were only interested in a particular w, we could use the following confidence interval:

$$\left(w^T \bar{\mathbf{Y}} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \sqrt{w^T S_n w/n}\right).$$

### Simultaneous Confidence Statements ii

 $\bullet$  Or equivalently, the confidence interval contains the set of values  $w^T\mu$  for which

$$t^{2}(w) = \frac{n(w^{T}\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - w^{T}\mu)^{2}}{w^{T}S_{n}w} = \frac{n(w^{T}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu))^{2}}{w^{T}S_{n}w} \le F_{\alpha}(1, n-1).$$

Strategy: Maximise over all w:

$$\max_{w} t^{2}(w) = \max_{w} \frac{n(w^{T}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu))^{2}}{w^{T} S_{n} w}.$$

### Simultaneous Confidence Statements iii

Using the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$(w^{T}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu))^{2} = (w^{T}S^{1/2}S^{-1/2}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu))^{2}$$

$$= ((S^{1/2}w)^{T}(S^{-1/2}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu)))^{2}$$

$$\leq (w^{T}S_{n}w)((\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu)^{T}S_{n}^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu)).$$

• Dividing both sides by  $w^T S_n w/n$ , we get

$$t^{2}(w) \leq n(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu)^{T} S_{n}^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu).$$

### Simultaneous Confidence Statements iv

• Since the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality also implies that the inequality is an *equality* if and only if w is proportional to  $S_n^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}}-\mu)$ , it means the upper bound is attained and therefore

$$\max_{w} t^{2}(w) = n(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu)^{T} S_{n}^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu).$$

• The right-hand side is Hotteling's  $T^2$ , and therefore we know that

$$\max_{w} t^{2}(w) \sim \frac{(n-1)p}{(n-p)} F(p, n-p).$$

### Simultaneous Confidence Statements v

• **Theorem**: Simultaneously for all  $w \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , the interval

$$\left(w^T \bar{\mathbf{Y}} \pm \sqrt{\frac{(n-1)p}{n(n-p)} F_{\alpha}(p,n-p) w^T S_n w}\right).$$

will contain  $w^T \mu$  with probability  $1 - \alpha$ .

 ${\color{red} \bullet}$  Corrolary: If we take w to be the standard basis vectors, we recover the projection results from earlier.

### **Further comments**

- If we take  $w=(0,\ldots,0,1,0,\ldots,0,-1,0,\ldots,0)$ , we can also derive confidence statements about mean differences  $\mu_i-\mu_k$ .
- In general, simultaneous confidence statements are good for exploratory analyses, i.e. when we test many different contrasts.
- However, this much generality comes at a cost: the resulting confidence intervals are quite large.
  - Since we typically only care about a finite number of hypotheses, there are more efficient ways to account for the exploratory nature of the tests.

### Bonferroni correction i

- Assume that we are interested in m null hypotheses  $H_{0i}: w_i^T \mu = \mu_{0i}$ , at confidence level  $\alpha_i$ , for  $i = 1, \ldots, m$ .
- We can show that

$$P(\text{all }H_{0i} \text{ are true}) = 1 - P(\text{at least one }H_{0i} \text{ is false})$$
 
$$\geq 1 - \sum_{i=1}^m P(H_{0i} \text{ is false})$$
 
$$= 1 - \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i.$$

### Bonferroni correction ii

• Therefore, if we want to control the overall error rate at  $\alpha$ , we can take

$$\alpha_i = \alpha/m$$
, for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ .

• If we take  $w_i$  to be the *i*-th standard basis vector, we get simultaneous confidence intervals for all p components of  $\mu$ :

$$\left(\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_i \pm t_{\alpha/2p,n-1}(\sqrt{s_{ii}^2/n})\right).$$

### Example i

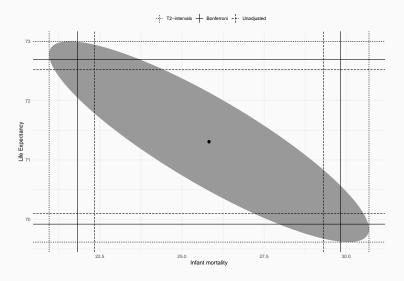
```
# Let's focus on only two variables
dataset <- gapminder %>%
  filter(year == 2012,
         !is.na(infant mortality)) %>%
  select(infant mortality,
         life expectancy) %>%
  as.matrix()
n <- nrow(dataset); p <- ncol(dataset)</pre>
```

# Example ii

```
alpha <- 0.05
mu hat <- colMeans(dataset)</pre>
sample cov <- diag(cov(dataset))</pre>
# Simultaneous CIs
critical val <-(n-1)*p*qf(1-0.5*alpha, df1 = p,
                              df2 = n - p)/(n-p)
simul ci <- cbind(mu hat - sqrt(critical val*
                                    sample cov/n),
                  mu hat + sqrt(critical val*
                                    sample cov/n))
```

# Example iii

```
simul ci
                            \lceil .1 \rceil \qquad \lceil .2 \rceil
##
## infant mortality 20.95439 30.69392
## life expectancy 69.61504 73.00181
univ ci
##
                            [,1] \qquad [,2]
## infant mortality 22.33295 29.31537
## life expectancy 70.09441 72.52244
bonf ci
                            [,1] \qquad [,2]
##
## infant mortality 21.82491 29.8234
## life expectancy 69.91775 72.6991
```



# **Summary**

- So which one should you use?
  - Use the confidence region when you're interested in a single multivariate hypothesis test.
  - Use the simultaneous (i.e.  $T^2$ ) intervals when testing a large number of contrasts.
  - Use the Bonferroni correction when testing a small number of contrasts (e.g. each component of  $\mu$ ).
  - (Almost) **never** use the unadjusted intervals.
- We can check the coverage probabilities of each approach using a simulation study:
  - https://www.maxturgeon.ca/f19stat4690/simulation\_coverage\_probability.R

### Likelihood Ratio Test i

- There is another important approach to performing hypothesis testing:
  - Likelihood Ratio Test.
- General strategy:
  - 1. Maximise likelihood under the null hypothesis:  $L_0$
  - 2. Maximise likelihood over the whole parameter space:  $L_1$
  - 3. Since the value of the parameters under the null hypothesis is in the parameter space, we have  $L_1 \ge L_0$ .
  - 4. Reject the null hypothesis if the ratio  $\Lambda = L_0/L_1$  is small.

### Likelihood Ratio Test ii

In our setting, recall that the likelihood is given by

$$L(\mu, \Sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^p |\Sigma|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mu)\right) \right).$$

Over the whole parameter space, it is maximised at

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{\mathbf{Y}}, \quad \hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{Y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}) (\mathbf{Y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})^T.$$

• Under the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ , the only free parameter is  $\Sigma$ , and  $L(\mu_0, \Sigma)$  is maximised at

$$\hat{\Sigma}_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{Y}_i - \mu_0) (\mathbf{Y}_i - \mu_0)^T.$$

### Likelihood Ratio Test iii

With some linear algbera, you can check that

$$L(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma}) = \frac{\exp(-np/2)}{(2\pi)^{np/2} |\hat{\Sigma}|^{n/2}}$$
$$L(\mu_0, \hat{\Sigma}_0) = \frac{\exp(-np/2)}{(2\pi)^{np/2} |\hat{\Sigma}_0|^{n/2}}.$$

Therefore, the likelihood ratio is given by

$$\Lambda = \frac{L(\mu_0, \hat{\Sigma}_0)}{L(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma})} = \left(\frac{|\hat{\Sigma}|}{|\hat{\Sigma}_0|}\right)^{n/2}.$$

### Likelihood Ratio Test iv

- The equivalent statistic  $\Lambda^{2/n} = |\hat{\Sigma}|/|\hat{\Sigma}_0|$  is called *Wilks'* lambda.
- What is the sampling distribution of  $\Lambda$  under the null hypothesis? It turns out that

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

where  $T^2$  is Hotelling's statistic.

- Therefore the two tests are equivalent.
- But note that  $\Lambda^{2/n}$  involves computing two determinants, whereas  $T^2$  involves inverting a matrix.