

Lecture 4. 24.1.2011

Proof. Write $\mathbf{Y} := \Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{X}$ ($\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ exists as $\Sigma > \mathbf{0}$, by above). Then \mathbf{Y} has covariance matrix $\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}\Sigma(\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}})^T$. Since $\Sigma = \Sigma^T$ and $\Sigma = \Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}$, \mathbf{Y} has covariance matrix \mathbf{I} (the components Y_i of \mathbf{Y} are uncorrelated).

Change variables as above, with $\mathbf{y} = \Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{x} = \Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{y}$. The Jacobian is (taking $\mathbf{A} = \Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}$) $J = \partial\mathbf{x}/\partial\mathbf{y} = \det(\Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}) = (\det\Sigma)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ by the product theorem for determinants. Substituting, the integrand is

$$\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)^T\Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)\right\} = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{y}-\Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}(\Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mu))^T\sigma^{-1}(\sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{y}-\sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}(\sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mu))\right\}.$$

Writing $\nu := \sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mu$, this is

$$\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\nu)^T\sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\sigma^{-1}\sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}(\mathbf{y}-\nu)\right\} = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\nu)^T(\mathbf{y}-\nu)\right\}.$$

So by the change of density formula, \mathbf{Y} has density

$$g(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}n}|\sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \cdot |\sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\nu)^T(\mathbf{y}-\nu)\right\}.$$

This factorises as

$$\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(y_i - \nu_i)^2\right\}.$$

So the components Y_i of \mathbf{Y} are independent $N(\nu_i, 1)$. So \mathbf{Y} is multinormal, $N(\nu, I)$.

(i) Taking $A = B = \mathbf{R}^n$, $\int_{\mathbf{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} g(\mathbf{y})d\mathbf{y} = 1$ as g is a probability density, as above. So f is also a probability density (non-negative and integrates to 1).

(ii) $\mathbf{X} = \sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{Y}$ is a linear transformation of \mathbf{Y} , and \mathbf{Y} is multivariate normal, $N(\nu, I)$. So \mathbf{X} is multivariate normal.

(iii) $E\mathbf{X} = \sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}E\mathbf{Y} = \sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\nu = \sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\cdot\sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mu = \mu$, $\text{cov}\mathbf{X} = \sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\text{cov}\mathbf{Y}(\sigma^{\frac{1}{2}})^T = \sigma^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{I}\sigma^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sigma$. So \mathbf{X} is multinormal $N(\mu, \sigma)$. So its MGF is

$$M(\mathbf{t}) = \exp\{\mathbf{t}^T\mu + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{t}^T\sigma\mathbf{t}\}. \quad //$$

Independence of Linear Forms

Given a normally distributed random vector $\mathbf{x} \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ and a matrix

A , one may form the *linear form* $A\mathbf{x}$. One often encounters several of these together, and needs their joint distribution – in particular, to know when these are independent.

THEOREM 3. Linear forms $A\mathbf{x}$ and $B\mathbf{x}$ with $\mathbf{x} \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ are independent iff

$$A\Sigma B^T = 0.$$

In particular, if A, B are symmetric and $\Sigma = \sigma^2 I$, they are independent iff

$$AB = 0.$$

Proof. The joint MGF is

$$M(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) := E \exp\{\mathbf{u}^T A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}^T B\mathbf{x}\} = E \exp\{(A^T \mathbf{u} + B^T \mathbf{v})^T \mathbf{x}\}.$$

This is the MGF of \mathbf{x} at argument $\mathbf{t} = A^T \mathbf{u} + B^T \mathbf{v}$, so

$$M(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \exp\{(\mathbf{u}^T A + \mathbf{v}^T B)\mu + \frac{1}{2}[\mathbf{u}^T A \Sigma A^T \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{u}^T A \Sigma B^T \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}^T B \Sigma A^T \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}^T B \Sigma B^T \mathbf{v}]\}.$$

This factorises into a product of a function of \mathbf{u} and a function of \mathbf{v} iff the two cross-terms in \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} vanish, that is, iff $A\Sigma B^T = 0$ and $B\Sigma A^T = 0$; by symmetry of Σ , the two are equivalent.

4. ESTIMATION THEORY FOR THE MULTIVARIATE NORMAL.

Given a sample x_1, \dots, x_n from the multivariate normal $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$, form the *sample mean* (vector)

$$\bar{x} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i,$$

as in the one-dimensional case, and the *sample covariance matrix*

$$S := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^T (x_i - \bar{x}).$$

The likelihood for a sample of size n is

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

so the likelihood for a sample of size n is

$$L = (2\pi)^{-np/2} |\Sigma|^{-n/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_1^n (x_i - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_i - \mu)\right\}.$$

Writing

$$x_i - \mu = (x_i - \bar{x}) - (\mu - \bar{x}),$$

$$\sum_1^n (x_i - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_i - \mu) = \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x})^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x}) + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{x} - \mu)$$

(the cross-terms cancel as $\sum (x_i - \bar{x}) = 0$). The summand in the first term on the right is a scalar, so is its own trace. Since $\text{trace}(AB) = \text{trace}(BA)$ and $\text{trace}(A + B) = \text{trace}(B + A)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{trace}\left(\sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x})^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x})\right) &= \text{trace}\left(\Sigma^{-1} \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x})^T (x_i - \bar{x})\right) \\ &= \text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} \cdot nS) = n \text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} S). \end{aligned}$$

Combining,

$$L = (2\pi)^{-np/2} |\Sigma|^{-n/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} n \text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} S) - \frac{1}{n} n(\bar{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{x} - \mu)\right\}.$$

This involves the data only through \bar{x} and S . We expect the sample mean \bar{x} to be informative about the population mean μ and the sample covariance matrix S to be informative about the population covariance matrix Σ . In fact \bar{x} , S are fully informative about μ , Σ , in a sense that can be made precise using the theory of *sufficient statistics* (for which we must refer to a good book on statistical inference – see e.g. Casella and Berger [CB], Ch. 6, or III.5 below). These natural estimators are in fact the maximum likelihood estimators (Introductory Lectures in Statistics):

Theorem. For the multivariate normal $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$, \bar{x} and S are the maximum likelihood estimators for μ , Σ .

Proof. Write $V = (v_{ij}) := \Sigma^{-1}$. By above, the likelihood is

$$L = \text{const.} |V|^{n/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} n \text{trace}(VS) - \frac{1}{2} n(\bar{x} - \mu)^T V (\bar{x} - \mu)\right\},$$

so the log-likelihood is

$$\ell = c + \frac{1}{2}n \log |V| - \frac{1}{2}n \operatorname{trace}(VS) - \frac{1}{2}n(\bar{x} - \mu)^T V(\bar{x} - \mu).$$

The MLE $\hat{\mu}$ for μ is \bar{x} , as this reduces the last term (the only one involving μ) to its minimum value, 0. For a square matrix $A = (a_{ij})$, its determinant is

$$|A| = \sum_j a_{ij} A_{ij}$$

for each i , or

$$|A| = \sum_j a_{ij} A_{ij}$$

for each j , expanding by the i th row or j th column, where A_{ij} is the *cofactor* (signed minor) of a_{ij} . From either,

$$\partial|A|/\partial a_{ij} = A_{ij},$$

so

$$\partial \log |A| / \partial a_{ij} = A_{ij} / |A| = (A^{-1})_{ji},$$

the (j, i) element of A^{-1} , recalling the formula for the matrix inverse (or $(A^{-1})_{ij}$ if A is symmetric). Also, if B is symmetric,

$$\operatorname{trace}(AB) = \sum_i \sum_j a_{ij} b_{ji} = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} b_{ij},$$

so

$$\partial \operatorname{trace}(AB) / \partial a_{ij} = b_{ij}.$$

Using these, and writing $S = (s_{ij})$,

$$\partial \log |V| / \partial v_{ij} = (V^{-1})_{ij} = (\Sigma)_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} \quad (V := \Sigma^{-1}),$$

$$\partial \operatorname{trace}(VS) / \partial v_{ij} = s_{ij}.$$

So

$$\partial \ell / \partial v_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}n(\sigma_{ij} - s_{ij}),$$

which is 0 for all i and j iff $\Sigma = S$. This says that S is the MLE for Σ , as required. //