# Multivariate Linear Models 

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1. Introduction. Suppose that we have $n$ observations, each of which has $d$ components, which we can represent as the $n \times d$ matrix

$$
Y=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
Y_{11} & Y_{12} & \ldots & Y_{1 d}  \tag{1.1}\\
Y_{21} & Y_{22} & \ldots & Y_{2 d} \\
\ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
\ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
\ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
Y_{n 1} & Y_{n 2} & \ldots & Y_{n d}
\end{array}\right)
$$

For example, we may have (i) measurements of $d=5$ air pollutants (CO, NO, etc.) on $n=42$ widely-separated days, (ii) $d$ test scores for $n$ different students, (iii) best results for $d$ Olympic events for teams from $n$ different countries, or (iv) $d$ different physical measurements for $n$ individuals (human or animal) that we are trying to classify. In each case, the $i^{\text {th }}$ row corresponds to the $i^{\text {th }}$ multivariate observation, and the $j^{\text {th }}$ column corresponds to the $j^{\text {th }}$ variable measured.

As in the univariate $(d=1)$ case, we can also assume that we have $r$ covariates for each observation (day or student or country or individual). For air pollution, these might be wind strength and solar intensity $(r=2)$, age, sex, and income for students $(r=3)$, or species or country of origin for physical measurements. These are connected in the regression model

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i j}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} X_{i a} \beta_{a j}+e_{i j} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for the $j^{\text {th }}$ component of the $i^{\text {th }}$ individual, where $1 \leq a \leq p$ refers to covariates and $p=r+1$ if there is an intercept and $p=r$ otherwise. In most cases, the first column in $X$ corresponds to an intercept, so that $X_{i 1}=1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $\beta_{1 j}=\mu_{j}$ for $1 \leq j \leq d$.

A key assumption in the multivariate model (1.2) is that the measured covariate terms $X_{i a}$ are the same for all components of the observations $Y_{i j}$. For example, wind strength and solar intensity have the same numerical values for all pollutants, although the response to wind and solar intensity (measured by $\mu_{j}$ and $\beta_{a j}$ ) may differ. Similarly, the same student has the

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same age, sex, and income for all tests. In contrast, the parameters $\mu_{j}$ and $\beta_{a j}$ can depend on the individual components $j$.

The form of (1.2) means that the sum on the right-hand side of (1.2) has the form of a matrix product. Also, the fact that the $X_{i a}$ are the same for all $j$ also means that (1.2) has the form of $d$ parallel univariate regressions for the $d$ components with the same design matrix $X$.

The errors $e_{i j}$ in (1.2) are assumed to be jointly normal with mean zero in $R^{n d}$, where $1 \leq i \leq n$ for observations and $1 \leq j \leq d$ for components. The rows of $e_{i j}$ are assumed to be independent, since they correspond to different observations.

However, the columns of $e_{i j}$ are allowed to be correlated. In practice, the values of $Y_{i j}$ for a particular $i$ are often positively correlated over $j$. For example, if one pollutant is high after correcting for wind and solar intensity, then the other pollutants may be high as well. If a student does well on one test after correcting for age, sex, and income, then he or she is more likely to do well on the other tests as well.

In more detail, we assume that the errors $e_{i j}$ in (1.2) are mean-zero jointly normal random variables and satisfy

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{i j}, e_{k \ell}\right)=0, \quad i \neq k \\
& \operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{i j}, e_{i \ell}\right)=\Sigma_{j \ell} \tag{1.3}
\end{align*}
$$

for all $i, j, k, \ell$. The assumption of the same $d \times d$ covariance matrix $\Sigma$ for all $i$ replaces the assumption of a constant variance $\sigma^{2}$ for a univariate regression. To keep things simple, we assume that $\Sigma$ is positive definite (or invertible). An equivalent way of writing (1.3) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{i j}, e_{k \ell}\right)=\left(I_{n}\right)_{i k} \Sigma_{j \ell} \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $I_{n}$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.
To avoid pathologies, we will assume in the following that the $p \times p$ design matrix $X^{\prime} X$ is invertible and that $n \geq p+d$.
2. The Regression Model (1.2) in Terms of Matrices: As in the univariate case, we can write the regression (1.2)

$$
Y_{i j}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} X_{i a} \beta_{a j}+e_{i j}
$$

in matrix notation as

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y=X \beta+e \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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In (2.1), $Y$ is $n \times d, X$ is $n \times p$, and

$$
\beta=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
\beta_{11} & \beta_{12} & \ldots & \beta_{1 d} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\beta_{p 1} & \beta_{p 2} & \ldots & \beta_{p d}
\end{array}\right)
$$

is an $p \times d$ matrix. If $X_{i 1}$ is identically one, the first row of $\beta$ are the intercepts $\mu_{j}$. In general, the $a^{\text {th }}$ row of $\beta$ corresponds to the $a^{\text {th }}$ covariate (or intercept). The $j^{\text {th }}$ column of $\beta$ are the regression coefficients for the $j^{\text {th }}$ component of $Y_{i j}$.

For example, suppose that we measure $d=5$ air pollutants on $n=42$ different days. Each pollutant has $r=2$ parameters for response to wind strength and solar intensity. Adding an intercept term means $p=r+1=3$ coefficients and the parameter matrix $\beta$ is $3 \times 5$. In a particular numerical example, the estimated values of the parameters $\beta$ were

$$
\widehat{\beta}=\left(\begin{array}{rrrrr}
4.718 & 4.106 & 10.115 & 8.276 & 2.358  \tag{2.2}\\
-0.138 & -0.192 & -0.211 & -0.787 & 0.071 \\
0.012 & -0.006 & 0.021 & 0.095 & 0.003
\end{array}\right)
$$

Each column in (2.2) is the estimated parameter values $\beta$ for a particular component of $Y$. The first row $\left\{\beta_{1 j}\right\}$ contains all of the intercepts of the $d=5$ univariate regressions on wind strength and solar intensity. The second row $\left\{\beta_{2 j}\right\}$ are the coefficients for wind, which might scatter some pollutants but not others, and the third row $\left\{\beta_{3 j}\right\}$ are the coefficients for solar intensity.
3. Kronecker Products of Matrices. In a univariate regression $(d=1)$, the observations $Y$ and parameters $\beta$ in $Y=X \beta+e$ are column vectors. For a multivariate regression $(d>1), Y$ is a $n \times d$ matrix and $\beta$ is an $p \times d$ matrix. Sometimes it will be more convenient to treat the observations $Y$ as an $n d$-dimensional vector or $\beta$ as an $p d$-dimensional vector, where $n d=210$ and $p d=15$ if $n=42, d=5$, and $p=3$. If $d=1$, then $\operatorname{Cov}(Y)$ and $\operatorname{Cov}(e)$ are $n \times n$ matrices, but if $d>1$ they are not obviously defined as matrices, but would be $210 \times 210$ if they were defined.

We will use the subscript $L$ when we view $Y, \beta$, and $e$ as column vectors instead of matrices. Thus $Y$ and $e$ are $n \times d$ matrices, but $Y_{L}$ and $e_{L}$ will be $n d \times 1$ column vectors. Similarly, $\beta_{L}$ will be a $p d \times 1$ column vector. To be explicit, we assume that the matrix entries are stored in the column vector by rows. This means that the $I^{\text {th }}$ entry of the column vector $Y_{L}$ (for example) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(Y_{L}\right)_{I}=Y_{i j} \quad \text { for } \quad I=(i-1) d+j \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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Note that the relation $I=(i-1) d+j$ gives a one-one correspondence between pairs $(i, j)$ with $1 \leq j \leq d$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$ and indices $I$ with $1 \leq I \leq n d$. (Exercise: Prove this.)

The ordering in (3.1) is called lexicographic ordering of $(i, j)$, since it is the same as alphabetical ordering if $i, j$ were replaced by letters. In particular, if $n=2$ and $d=3$, then the $N=n d=6$ indices $i j$ are ordered 11, 12, 13, 21, 22, 23.

In the representation $I=(i-1) d+j$, the index $j$ is sometimes called the fast index and $i$ the slow index, since $j$ always changes when $I$ changes to $I+1$ but $i$ only changes when $I$ moves on to the next row, or after $j$ has completed a full cycle of values $1 \leq j \leq d$.

If the basic regression equation $Y=X \beta+e$ in (2.1) is written in terms of vectors, it should take the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{L}=X_{L} \beta_{L}+e_{L} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X_{L}$ is an $n d \times p d$ matrix that depends somehow on the $n \times p$ matrix $X$. The notions of Kronecker product or tensor product of vectors or matrices are a useful way to describe these larger matrices.
Definition. Let $A=\left\{A_{i j}\right\}$ be an $m_{1} \times n_{1}$ matrix and $B=\left\{B_{a b}\right\}$ an $m_{2} \times n_{2}$ matrix. Then, the tensor product or Kronecker product matrix of $A$ and $B$ is the $m_{1} m_{2} \times n_{1} n_{2}$ matrix $C=A \otimes B$ with components

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{i a, j b}=A_{i j} B_{a b} \quad(C=A \otimes B) \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $1 \leq i \leq m_{1}, 1 \leq j \leq m_{2}, 1 \leq a \leq m_{2}, 1 \leq b \leq n_{2}$, with the notation $i a=(i-1) * m_{2}+a$ and $j b=(j-1) * n_{2}+b$. More exactly, $C$ is the $m_{1} m_{2} \times n_{1} n_{2}$ matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{I J}=A_{i j} B_{a b} \quad \text { for } \quad I=(i-1) m_{2}+a, \quad J=(j-1) n_{2}+b \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $i, a$ in (3.3) are the slow indices (row indices) of $A$ and $B$ (respectively) while $j, b$ in (3.3) are the fast indices (or column indices).

As an example, the covariance matrix (1.4) of the error terms in (3.2) can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{L}\right)=I_{n} \otimes \Sigma \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The next lemma shows how to represent the "super-matrix" $X_{L}$ in (3.2) in terms of tensor products.
Lemma 3.1. Let $A$ be an $m \times n$ matrix, $B$ a $n \times d$ matrix, and $W=A B$ the matrix product

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{i k}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i j} B_{j k} \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then for $W_{L}, B_{L}$ defined as in (3.1)

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{L}=\left(A \otimes I_{d}\right) B_{L} \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d$ is the second dimension for the $n \times d$ matrix $B$.
Proof. By (3.6)

$$
\begin{aligned}
W_{i k} & =\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i j} B_{j k}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} A_{i j} \delta_{k \ell} B_{j \ell} \\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{d}\left(A \otimes I_{d}\right)_{i k, j \ell} B_{j \ell}
\end{aligned}
$$

by (3.3), which implies (3.7).
By Lemma 3.1, the basic regression equation (2.1)

$$
Y_{i j}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} X_{i a} \beta_{a j}+e_{i j}
$$

can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{L}=\left(X \otimes I_{d}\right) \beta_{L}+e_{L} \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that $X_{L}=X \otimes I_{d}$ in (3.2).
With lexicographic ordering of the indices, the entries of

$$
C_{I J}=C_{i a, j b}=A_{i j} B_{a b}
$$

for fixed $I=(i-1) m_{2}+a$ and increasing $J=(j-1) n_{2}+b$ trace out the $a^{\text {th }}$ row of $B$ repeatedly for each value of $j$, with each row of $B$ values multiplied by $A_{i j}$.

This means that the matrix $C=A \otimes B$ can be written in block partitioned form as

$$
C=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{11} B & a_{12} B & \ldots & a_{1 n_{1}} B  \tag{3.9}\\
a_{21} B & a_{22} B & \ldots & a_{2 n_{2}} B \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
a_{m_{1} 1} B & a_{n_{1} 2} B & \ldots & a_{m_{1} n_{1}} B
\end{array}\right)
$$

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In particular by (3.5)

$$
\operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{L}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
\Sigma & 0 & \ldots & 0  \tag{3.10}\\
0 & \Sigma & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & \Sigma
\end{array}\right)
$$

We conclude this section by proving a number of basic properties of tensor products:

Lemma 3.2. Suppose that the matrix $A$ is $m_{1} \times n_{1}, B$ is $m_{2} \times n_{2}, D$ is a $n_{1} \times k_{1}$, and $E$ is $n_{2} \times k_{2}$, so that the matrices $A D$ and $B E$ are defined. Then
(i) Let $C=A \otimes B$ and $F=D \otimes E$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
C F=(A \otimes B)(D \otimes E)=A D \otimes B E \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

(ii) $I_{m} \otimes I_{n}=I_{m n}$ for all integers $m, n \geq 1$
(iii) The transpose $C^{\prime}=(A \otimes B)^{\prime}=A^{\prime} \otimes B^{\prime}$
(iv) Assume that $A$ and $B$ are invertible square matrices. Then $C=$ $A \otimes B$ is also invertible and

$$
\begin{equation*}
(A \otimes B)^{-1}=A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1} \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. (i) Write $C_{i a, j b}=A_{i j} B_{a b}$ and $F_{j b, k c}=D_{j k} E_{b c}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
(C F)_{i a, k c} & =\sum_{j b} C_{i a, j b} F_{j b, k c} \\
& =\sum_{j} \sum_{b} A_{i j} B_{a b} D_{j k} E_{b c}=(A D)_{i k}(B E)_{a c}
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies $C F=A D \otimes B E$.
(ii) By definition, $\left(I_{n} \otimes I_{m}\right)_{i a, j b}=\left(I_{n}\right)_{i j}\left(I_{m}\right)_{a b}=\delta_{i j} \delta_{a b}$, which equals one if $i=j$ and $a=b$ (or, equivalently, $i a=j b$ ), and is otherwise zero. This implies $I_{n} \otimes I_{m}=I_{m n}$.
(iii) By definition $(A \otimes B)_{i a, j b}=A_{i j} B_{a b}$. Hence

$$
(A \otimes B)_{i a, j b}^{\prime}=(A \otimes B)_{j b, i a}=A_{j i} B_{b a}=\left(A^{\prime}\right)_{i j}\left(B^{\prime}\right)_{a b}=\left(A^{\prime} \otimes B^{\prime}\right)_{i a, j b}
$$

and $(A \otimes B)^{\prime}=A^{\prime} \otimes B^{\prime}$.
(iv) By parts (i) and (ii),

$$
(A \otimes B)\left(A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1}\right)=A A^{-1} \otimes B B^{-1}=I_{n} \otimes I_{m}=I_{m n}
$$

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Thus $A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1}$ is a right inverse of $A \otimes B$ and hence is the unique inverse matrix.

The next lemma is an application of Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 that will be useful for the analysis of multivariate ANOVAs and regressions.

Lemma 3.3. Let $e=e_{i j}$ be an $n \times d$ random matrix whose rows are independent $N(0, \Sigma)$ for the same $d \times d$ covariance matrix $\Sigma$. (That is, $\operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{L}\right)=I_{n} \otimes \Sigma$ as in (3.5).) Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{i j}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} R_{i k} e_{k j} \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $R$ is an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix. Then $Z_{i j}$ has the same distribution as $e_{i j}$. That is, the rows of $Z_{i j}$ are independent $N(0, \Sigma)$.

Proof. Thus $Z=R e$ by (3.13), so that $Z_{L}=\left(R \otimes I_{d}\right) e_{L}$ by Lemma 3.1. Since $e_{L}$ is a joint normal vector and $R \otimes I_{d}$ is a $n d \times n d$ matrix, $Z_{L}$ is also joint normal, and it is sufficient to prove $\operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{L}\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{L}\right)=I_{n} \otimes \Sigma$. By (3.5), (3.13), and Lemma 3.2,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{L}\right) & =\operatorname{Cov}\left(\left(R \otimes I_{d}\right) e\right)=\left(R \otimes I_{d}\right)\left(I_{n} \otimes \Sigma\right)\left(R \otimes I_{d}\right)^{\prime} \\
& =R I_{n} R^{\prime} \otimes I_{d} \Sigma I_{d}=R R^{\prime} \otimes \Sigma=I_{n} \otimes \Sigma
\end{aligned}
$$

and $Z$ has the same distribution as $e$.
4. The MLE of the $\boldsymbol{p} \times \boldsymbol{d}$ matrix $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. The purpose of this section is to find the maximum likelihood estimator $\widehat{\beta}$ and its covariance matrix $\operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}_{L}\right)$. We first derive $\operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}_{L}\right)$ using its individual components and then show a shorter proof using tensor products.

In terms of components, the errors $e_{i j}$ in (2.1) are jointly normal, are independent for different $i$, and have covariance matrix $\Sigma$ in $j$ for fixed $i$. Thus the likelihood function of the $i^{\text {th }}$ observation $Y_{i}$ in the regression $Y=$ $X \beta+e$ in (2.1) (or equivalently of the $i^{\text {th }}$ row of the $n \times d$ matrix $Y$ ) is the multivariate normal density

$$
\begin{align*}
& L\left(\beta, \Sigma, Y_{i}\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2 \pi)^{d} \operatorname{det}(\Sigma)}} \exp \left(-S_{i} / 2\right) \quad \text { where }  \tag{4.1}\\
& S_{i}=\sum_{a=1}^{d} \sum_{b=1}^{d}\left(Y_{i a}-(X \beta)_{i a}\right) \Sigma_{a b}^{-1}\left(Y_{i b}-(X \beta)_{i b}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

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Since the rows of $e_{i j}$ are independent, the likelihood function of all $n$ observations $Y$ in (2.1) is the product

$$
\begin{align*}
& L(\beta, \Sigma, Y)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2 \pi)^{n d} \operatorname{det}(\Sigma)^{n}}} \exp (-S / 2) \quad \text { where }  \tag{4.2}\\
& S=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{a=1}^{d} \sum_{b=1}^{d}\left(Y_{i a}-(X \beta)_{i a}\right) \Sigma_{a b}^{-1}\left(Y_{i b}-(X \beta)_{i b}\right) \tag{4.3}
\end{align*}
$$

Finding the matrix MLE $\widehat{\beta}$ is equivalent to minimizing the triple sum $S$ in (4.3) as a function of $\beta$. Since $(X \beta)_{i a}=\sum_{j=1}^{r} X_{i j} \beta_{j a}$ in (4.3), setting $\left(\partial / \partial \beta_{k c}\right) S=0$ leads to the set of equations

$$
2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{b=1}^{d} X_{i k} \Sigma_{c b}^{-1}\left(Y_{i b}-(X \beta)_{i b}\right)=2 \sum_{b=1}^{d} \Sigma_{c b}^{-1}\left(\left(X^{\prime} Y\right)_{k b}-\left(X^{\prime} X \beta\right)_{k b}\right)=0
$$

for all $k$ and $c$. This is $\Sigma^{-1}\left(X^{\prime} X \beta-X^{\prime} Y\right)^{\prime}=0$ in matrix form. Premultiplying by $\Sigma$ leads to the matrix "normal equations"

$$
X^{\prime} X \beta=X^{\prime} Y \quad \text { or } \quad\left(X^{\prime} X \otimes I_{d}\right) \beta_{L}=\left(X^{\prime} \otimes I_{d}\right) Y_{L}
$$

by Lemma 3.1. If the $p \times p$ design matrix $X^{\prime} X$ is invertible, then the matrixvalued MLE of $\beta$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} Y \quad \text { or } \quad \widehat{\beta}_{L}=\left(\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} \otimes I_{d}\right) Y_{L} \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first formula in (4.4) is exactly the same formula as in the univariate case $(d=1)$, except that now $\widehat{\beta}$ is a $p \times d$ matrix. The columns of $\widehat{\beta}$ for individual components of $Y_{i j}$ are formed by applying the same $p \times n$ matrix $\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$ to each of the columns of $Y$.

In terms of components, (4.4) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\beta}_{a j}=\beta_{a j}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{a i} e_{i j}, \quad \text { where } \quad M=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then since $\operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{i a}, e_{k b}\right)=\delta_{i k} \Sigma_{a b}$ by (1.4)

$$
\operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}_{a j}, \widehat{\beta}_{b k}\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{a i} e_{i j}, \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} M_{b \ell} e_{\ell k}\right)
$$

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$$
\begin{align*}
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} M_{a i} M_{b \ell} \operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{i j}, e_{\ell k}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} M_{a i} M_{b \ell} \delta_{i \ell} \Sigma_{j k} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{a i} M_{b i} \Sigma_{j k}=\left(M M^{\prime}\right)_{a b} \Sigma_{j k} \\
& =\left(\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right)_{a b} \Sigma_{j k} \tag{4.6}
\end{align*}
$$

since $M M^{\prime}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Cov}(\widehat{\beta})=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} \otimes \Sigma \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can derive (4.7) more easily using tensor products. By (4.5)

$$
\widehat{\beta}_{L}=\beta_{L}+(M e)_{L}=\beta_{L}+\left(M \otimes I_{d}\right) e_{L}
$$

by Lemma 3.1, and hence (using the relation $\left.\operatorname{Cov}(A X)=A \operatorname{Cov}(X) A^{\prime}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}_{L}\right) & =\operatorname{Cov}\left(\left(M \otimes I_{d}\right) e_{L}\right)=\left(M \otimes I_{d}\right) \operatorname{Cov}\left(e_{L}\right)\left(M \otimes I_{d}\right)^{\prime} \\
& =\left(M \otimes I_{d}\right)\left(I_{n} \otimes \Sigma\right)\left(M^{\prime} \otimes I_{d}\right) \\
& =\left(M I_{n} M^{\prime}\right) \otimes\left(I_{d} \Sigma I_{d}\right)=M M^{\prime} \otimes \Sigma \\
& =\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} \otimes \Sigma
\end{aligned}
$$

by Lemma 3.2, since $M M^{\prime}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}$ as in (4.6).
5. The MLE of the $\boldsymbol{d} \times \boldsymbol{d}$ matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. The next result shows that the maximum likelihood estimator of the matrix $\Sigma$ is essentially the sample covariance matrix of the multivariate residuals, which is a natural generalization of the corresponding one-dimensional result.
Theorem 5.1. Assume $n \geq p+d$. Then, the maximum likelihood estimator of $\Sigma$ for the likelihood (4.2) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\Sigma}_{a b}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i a}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i a}\right)\left(Y_{i b}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i b}\right) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or equivalently

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\Sigma}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i}\right)\left(Y_{i}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i}\right)^{\prime} \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

That is, the maximum likelihood estimator $\widehat{\Sigma}$ of the $d \times d$ covariance matrix $\Sigma$ is the sample covariance matrix of the residuals of the multivariate regression $Y=X \beta+e$ in Section 1 with $n-1$ replaced by $n$.

Proof. Let $Q$ be the $d \times d$ matrix with entries

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{a b}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i a}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i a}\right)\left(Y_{i b}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i b}\right) \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the right-hand side of (5.1) multiplied by $n$. We show in Section 8 below that the matrix $Q$ in (5.3) is positive definite with probability one if $n \geq p+d$, which we assume. Then the object is to show $\widehat{\Sigma}=(1 / n) Q$.

By (4.2)-(4.3), the likelihood $L(\widehat{\beta}, \Sigma, Y)$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(\widehat{\beta}, \Sigma, Y)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2 \pi)^{n d} \operatorname{det}(\Sigma)^{n}}} \exp \left(-S_{\Sigma} / 2\right) \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where by (5.3)

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{\Sigma} & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{a=1}^{d} \sum_{b=1}^{d}\left(Y_{i a}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i a}\right) \Sigma_{a b}^{-1}\left(Y_{i b}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i b}\right) \\
& =\sum_{a=1}^{d} \sum_{b=1}^{d}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i a}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i a}\right) \Sigma_{a b}^{-1}\left(Y_{i b}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i b}\right)\right) \\
& =\sum_{a=1}^{d} \sum_{b=1}^{d} Q_{a b} \Sigma_{a b}^{-1}=\operatorname{tr}\left(Q \Sigma^{-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the likelihood can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(\widehat{\beta}, \Sigma, Y)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2 \pi)^{n d} \operatorname{det}(\Sigma)^{n}}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(Q \Sigma^{-1}\right)\right) \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

After taking logarithms and multiplying by 2 , the maximum of (5.5) over $d \times d$ positive definite matrices $\Sigma$ can be found by maximizing

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(\Sigma)=n \log \operatorname{det}\left(\Sigma^{-1}\right)-\operatorname{tr}\left(Q \Sigma^{-1}\right) \tag{5.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Define $A=Q^{1 / 2} \Sigma^{-1} Q^{1 / 2}$. Then $\Sigma^{-1}=Q^{-1 / 2} A Q^{-1 / 2}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi(\Sigma) & =n \log \operatorname{det}\left(Q^{-1 / 2} A Q^{-1 / 2}\right)-\operatorname{tr}\left(Q Q^{-1 / 2} A Q^{-1 / 2}\right) \\
& =n \log \operatorname{det}(A)-n \log \operatorname{det}\left(Q^{1 / 2}\right)^{2}-\operatorname{tr}\left(A Q^{-1 / 2} Q Q^{-1 / 2}\right) \\
& =-n \log \operatorname{det}(Q)+n \log \operatorname{det}(A)-\operatorname{tr}(A)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $Q$ in (5.3) is fixed. By the spectral theorem, $A=Q^{1 / 2} \Sigma^{-1} Q^{1 / 2}=$ $R D R^{\prime}$ where $D$ is diagonal and $R$ is orthogonal. Then $\operatorname{det}(A)=\operatorname{det}\left(R D R^{\prime}\right)=$ $\operatorname{det}(D)$ and $\operatorname{tr}(A)=\operatorname{tr}\left(R D R^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{tr}(D)$. Thus if $D=\operatorname{diag}\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{d}\right)$ are the eigenvalues of $A$,

$$
\phi(\Sigma)=-n \log \operatorname{det}(Q)+\sum_{i=1}^{d}\left(n \log \left(v_{i}\right)-v_{i}\right)
$$

The expression on the right above is maximized over either $A$ or $\Sigma$ when $v_{i}=n$ for all $i$. This implies $D=n I_{d}$ and $A=R D R^{\prime}=R n I_{d} R^{\prime}=n I_{d}$. Thus $\phi(\Sigma)$ and $L(\widehat{\beta}, \Sigma, Y)$ are maximized at

$$
\widehat{\Sigma}=Q^{1 / 2} A^{-1} Q^{1 / 2}=(1 / n) Q
$$

for $Q$ in (5.3). This completes the proof of Theorem 5.1.
6. Hypothesis Testing: A natural generalization of univariate tests for whether or not coefficients in the regression $Y=X \beta+e$ in (2.1) are nonzero is

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}(a): \beta_{a j}=0, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
H_{0}(a): \widetilde{\beta}_{a}=0
$$

where $\widetilde{\beta}_{a}$ is the $a^{\text {th }}$ row of the $p \times d$ matrix $\beta$. This is equivalent to saying that the $a^{\text {th }}$ covariate column in $X_{i a}$ does not affect any of the components of $Y=X \beta+e$, or the data matrix $\left\{Y_{i} \in R^{d}: 1 \leq i \leq n\right\}$ does not depend on the $a^{\text {th }}$ covariate.

A natural generalization of (6.1) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0, \quad h \text { is } p \times 1 \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $h$ is a $p \times 1$ column vector. This is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(h^{\prime} \beta\right)_{j}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} h_{a} \beta_{a j}=0, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

or $\sum_{a=1}^{p} h_{a} \widetilde{\beta}_{a}=0$. Equivalently, this says that the same linear relationship (6.3) holds for the coefficients $\beta_{a j}$ in the $d$ componentwise univariate
regressions $(1 \leq j \leq d)$ that are implicit in the multivariate regression $Y=X \beta+e$.

If $d=1$, the usual way to test $h^{\prime} \beta=\sum_{a=1}^{p} h_{a} \beta_{a}=0$ (or $\beta_{a}=0$ for a single value of $a$ ) is to use the identity

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left(h^{\prime} \widehat{\beta}\right)=h^{\prime} \operatorname{Cov}(\widehat{\beta}) h=\sigma^{2} h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h \quad(d=1)
$$

If $d=1$ and $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$, the one-dimensional test statistic

$$
\begin{align*}
& T=\frac{h^{\prime} \widehat{\beta}}{\sqrt{(\mathrm{MSE}) h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h}} \quad \text { where }  \tag{6.4}\\
& \text { MSE }=\frac{1}{n-p} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i}\right)^{2} \tag{6.5}
\end{align*}
$$

has a Student's $t$ distribution with $n-p$ degrees of freedom.
If $d>1$, then $h^{\prime} \beta=\sum_{a=1}^{p} h_{a} \widetilde{\beta}_{a}$ is a $1 \times d$ row vector, and a plausible generalization is to compare the $d \times d$ matrix

$$
\begin{align*}
H_{h} & =\left(h^{\prime} \widehat{\beta}\right)^{\prime}\left(h^{\prime} \widehat{\beta}\right) /\left(h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h\right)  \tag{6.6}\\
& =\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)^{\prime} /\left(h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h\right)
\end{align*}
$$

with the $d \times d$ residual error matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
E=(Y-X \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}(Y-X \widehat{\beta}) \tag{6.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with entries

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{a b}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i a}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i a}\right)\left(Y_{i b}-(X \widehat{\beta})_{i b}\right) \tag{6.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The matrix $E$ in (6.8) is sometimes called an SSCP matrix, for "Sum of Squares and Cross Products", to distinguish it from the "Sum of Squares of Errors" (or SSE) for univariate regressions.

If $d=1$, then $H_{h} / E=t^{2} /(n-p)$ for $t$ in (6.4), which has distribution $F_{1, n-p} /(n-p)$ if $h^{\prime} \beta=0$.

If $d>1$, the fact that $H_{h} / E$ is the ratio of the matrices (6.6) and (6.7) is made even more awkward by the fact that the three matrices

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{h} E^{-1} \quad E^{-1} H_{h} \quad E^{-1 / 2} H_{h} E^{-1 / 2} \tag{6.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

are in general different. However, the eigenvalues of the three matrices in (6.9) are exactly the same. This follows because all three matrices have the same characteristic polynomial (for example for $E^{-1} H_{h}$ )

$$
\begin{align*}
f(\lambda) & =\operatorname{det}\left(\left(E^{-1} H_{h}\right)-\lambda I\right)=\operatorname{det}\left(E^{-1}\left(H_{h}-\lambda E\right)\right) \\
& =\operatorname{det}\left(H_{h}-\lambda E\right) / \operatorname{det}(E) \tag{6.10}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that the matrix $H_{h}$ in (6.6) has $\operatorname{rank}\left(H_{h}\right)=1$, since $H_{h}$ is the outer product $H_{h}=w w^{\prime}$ for $w=\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right) / \sqrt{h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h}$. In addition
Lemma 6.1. For $w=\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right) / \sqrt{h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h}$ as above,
(i) The three matrices in (6.9) have the same unique nonzero eigenvalue

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=w^{\prime} E^{-1} w=\frac{\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)^{\prime} E^{-1} \widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h}{h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h} \tag{6.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

(ii) The matrices $A_{1}=H_{h} E^{-1}, A_{2}=E^{-1} H_{h}$, and $A_{3}=E^{-1 / 2} H_{h} E^{-1 / 2}$ have eigenvectors $w_{1}=w, w_{2}=E^{-1} w$, and $w_{3}=E^{-1 / 2} w$, respectively, for $\lambda_{1}$, and
(iii) If $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$ and $n \geq p+d$, the eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ has the distribution

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=w^{\prime} E^{-1} w \approx \frac{d}{n-p-d+1} F_{d, n-p-d-1} \tag{6.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the hypothesis $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$ has a test based on a $F$ distribution for a test statistic that is essentially $\lambda_{1}$. We defer the proof of part (iii) to Sections 8 and 10.

Proof. First, I claim that a $d \times d$ matrix $A$ has $\operatorname{rank}(A)=1$ if and only if $A=u v^{\prime}$ is the outer product of two non-zero vectors $u, v \in R^{d}$. (Exercise: Prove this.)

If $A=u v^{\prime}$ for $u, v \neq 0$ and $A x=\lambda x$ for $x, \lambda \neq 0$, then $A x=u\left(v^{\prime} x\right)=$ $\lambda x$. Since $\lambda x \neq 0$, we must have $v^{\prime} x \neq 0$ and $x=c u$ for some $c \neq 0$, which implies $u c\left(v^{\prime} u\right)=\lambda c u$ and $\lambda=v^{\prime} u$. The choice $c=1$ (and hence $x=u$ ) corresponds to the normalization $v^{\prime} x=\lambda$.

Assume $H_{h}=w w^{\prime}$ as above. Then $A_{1}=H_{h} E^{-1}=w w^{\prime} E^{-1}=$ $w\left(E^{-1} w\right)^{\prime}$. Thus $w_{1}=w$ is an eigenvector for eigenvalue $\lambda=w^{\prime} E^{-1} w$. Similarly, $A_{2}=E^{-1} H_{h}=\left(E^{-1} w\right) w^{\prime}$ has eigenvector $w_{2}=E^{-1} w$ and the same eigenvalue. The argument for $A_{3}$ is similar.

For the special case of $H_{0}(a): \beta_{a j}=0$ in (6.1), the eigenvalue is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}(a)=\widehat{\beta}_{a} E^{-1} \widehat{\beta}_{a}^{\prime} /\left(\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right)_{a a} \tag{6.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

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where $\widehat{\beta}_{a}$ is the $a^{\text {th }}$ row of $\widehat{\beta}$ and $E$ is the SSCP matrix in (6.8). Note that the matrix $X$ appears in the statistics $\lambda_{1}$ in (6.11) and (6.13) only as the scalar constant $h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h$, exactly as in the univariate case.

We will derive the exact distribution of $\lambda_{1}$ given $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$ in Sections 8 and 10 below. Before proceeding, let's show how a simple multivariate twosample problem leads to the same test statistic (6.13).
7. A Multivariate Two-Sample $\boldsymbol{t}$-Test: Suppose that we have two independent $d$-dimensional vector-valued samples

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\left(Z_{1}\right)_{1},\left(Z_{1}\right)_{2}, \ldots,\left(Z_{1}\right)_{n_{1}} & \text { where } & \left(Z_{1}\right)_{i} \approx N\left(\mu_{1}, \Sigma\right)  \tag{7.1}\\
\left(Z_{2}\right)_{1},\left(Z_{2}\right)_{2}, \ldots,\left(Z_{2}\right)_{n_{2}} & \text { where } & \left(Z_{2}\right)_{j} \approx N\left(\mu_{2}, \Sigma\right)
\end{array}
$$

with the same covariance matrix $\Sigma$ and that we want to test $H_{0}: \mu_{1}=\mu_{2}$.
Examples of (7.1) would be two sets of $d$-dimensional pollution profiles for two different cities, $d$ tests for two sets of students, Olympic results for two sets of athletes from two different countries, or $d$ physical measurements on two sets of human skulls.

Note that this is exactly the same setup as in the classical two-sample $t$-test. The only difference is that the observations $Z_{i j}$ in (7.1) are vectorvalued with the same unknown $d \times d$ covariance matrix $\Sigma$, as opposed to being univariate normal with the same unknown variance $\sigma^{2}$.

We could analyze the data in (7.1) by carrying out $d$ different two-sample $t$-tests on the $d$ components of $Z_{i j}$. However, this can definitely lead to misleading results if the random vectors $Z_{i j}$ have a significant vector difference that is not aligned with one of the coordinates axes. An appropriate test of (7.1) would take this possibility into account.

If $d=1$, the standard classical test of $H_{0}: \mu_{1}=\mu_{2}$ is based on the statistic

$$
\begin{align*}
& T=\sqrt{\frac{n_{1} n_{2}}{n_{1}+n_{2}}}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right) / \sqrt{s^{2}} \quad \text { where }  \tag{7.2}\\
& s^{2}=\frac{1}{n_{1}+n_{2}-2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{i}}\left(Z_{i j}-\bar{Z}_{i}\right)^{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Here $s^{2}$ is the pooled variance estimator of $\sigma^{2}$. If $\mu_{1}=\mu_{2}$, then $T$ has a Student's $t$ distribution with $n_{1}+n_{2}-2$ degrees of freedom. If $\mu_{1} \neq \mu_{2}$, then $T$ has a noncentral Student's $t$ distribution with $n_{1}+n_{2}-2$ degrees of freedom.

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A generalization of $T$ for $d>1$ due to Hotelling (1931) is

$$
\begin{align*}
& T^{2}=\frac{n_{1} n_{2}}{n_{1}+n_{2}}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right)^{\prime} S^{-1}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right) \quad \text { where }  \tag{7.3}\\
& S=\frac{1}{n_{1}+n_{2}-2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{i}}\left(Z_{i j}-\bar{Z}_{i}\right)\left(Z_{i j}-\bar{Z}_{i}\right)^{\prime}
\end{align*}
$$

Here $S$ is called the pooled sample covariance estimator of the matrix $\Sigma$. The statistic $T^{2}$ in (7.3) is called the Hotelling $T^{2}$-statistic for the two-sample multivariate problem (7.1).

The data in (7.1) can be put in the form of a multivariate regression $Y=X \beta+e$ by rewriting the data $\left(Z_{1}\right)_{i},\left(Z_{2}\right)_{j}$ in (7.1) as a $\left(n_{1}+n_{2}\right) \times d$ matrix $Y$ with entries

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
Y_{i j}=\left(Z_{1}\right)_{i j}, & 1 \leq i \leq n_{1}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d \\
Y_{i j}=\left(Z_{2}\right)_{i-n_{1}, j}, & n_{1}+1 \leq i \leq n, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d
\end{array}
$$

for $n=n_{1}+n_{2}$. The model (7.1) is then equivalent to

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
Y_{i j}=\left(\mu_{1}\right)_{j}+e_{i j}, & 1 \leq i \leq n_{1}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d \\
Y_{i j}=\left(\mu_{2}\right)_{j}+e_{i j}, & n_{1}+1 \leq i \leq n, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d
\end{array}
$$

where the rows $e_{i}$ of the $n \times d$ matrix $e$ are independent random normal vectors with distribution $N(0, \Sigma)$. This can be written in matrix form as

$$
Y=X \beta+e \quad \text { for } \quad X=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0  \tag{7.4}\\
1 & 0 \\
\cdots & \\
0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 \\
\ldots
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \beta=\binom{\mu_{1}}{\mu_{2}}
$$

where $\mu_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ are now viewed as row vectors. Here $X$ is an $n \times 2$ matrix with $n_{1}$ rows equal to ( 10 ) followed by $n_{2}$ rows equal to ( 01 ). Notice that this is a no-intercept regression. With only slightly more effort, we could also have transformed the problem into a regression in which the first column corresponds to an intercept.

If $h=(1-1)^{\prime}$, then $h^{\prime} \beta=\mu_{1}-\mu_{2}$ in (7.4) and $H_{0}: \mu_{1}=\mu_{2}$ is equivalent to $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$. We now apply (6.2) through (6.13) in Section 6. For $X, \beta$, and $Y$ in (7.4),

$$
X^{\prime} X=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
n_{1} & 0  \tag{7.5}\\
0 & n_{2}
\end{array}\right), \quad \widehat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} Y=\left(\frac{\bar{Z}_{1}}{\bar{Z}_{2}}\right)
$$

where $\bar{Z}_{a}=\left(1 / n_{a}\right) \sum_{i=1}^{n_{a}} Z_{a i}$ are the two sample means in (7.1), now viewed as row vectors. In particular, $\widehat{\beta}_{a}=\bar{Z}_{a}$ for $a=1,2$ for the two rows of the $2 \times d$ matrix $\widehat{\beta}$. Similarly

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h=\left(\bar{Z}_{1} \bar{Z}_{2}\right)^{\prime}\binom{1}{-1}=\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right)^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \\
& h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & -1
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 / n_{1} & 0 \\
0 & 1 / n_{2}
\end{array}\right)\binom{1}{-1}=\frac{1}{n_{1}}+\frac{1}{n_{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ in (6.11) is now

$$
\begin{align*}
\lambda_{1} & =\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)^{\prime} E^{-1}\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right) /\left(h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h\right) \\
& =\frac{n_{1} n_{2}}{n_{1}+n_{2}}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right)^{\prime} E^{-1}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right) \tag{7.6}
\end{align*}
$$

where $E=(Y-X \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}(Y-X \widehat{\beta})$ is the residual error matrix in (6.7)-(6.8) for $n=n_{1}+n_{2}$, with $\bar{Z}_{a}$ now viewed as column vectors. By (7.4), the matrix of fitted values is

$$
(X \widehat{\beta})_{i j}= \begin{cases}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}\right)_{j} & 1 \leq i \leq n_{1}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d \\ \left(\bar{Z}_{2}\right)_{j} & n_{1}+1 \leq i \leq n, \quad 1 \leq j \leq d\end{cases}
$$

so that the residual error matrix (6.8) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
E=\sum_{i=1}^{n_{1}}\left(Z_{1 i}-\bar{Z}_{1}\right)\left(Z_{1 i}-\bar{Z}_{1}\right)^{\prime}+\sum_{i=1}^{n_{2}}\left(Z_{2 i}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right)\left(Z_{2 i}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right)^{\prime} \tag{7.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the pooled covariance matrix $S$ in the two-sample Hotelling $T^{2}$ statistic in (7.3) is $S=E /\left(n_{1}+n_{2}-2\right)$ for $E$ in (7.6), and the eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ in (7.6) can be written

$$
\begin{align*}
\lambda_{1} & =\frac{n_{1} n_{2}}{n_{1}+n_{2}}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right)^{\prime} E^{-1}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{n_{1}+n_{2}-2} T^{2} \tag{7.8}
\end{align*}
$$

where $T^{2}$ is the two-sample Hotelling $T^{2}$ statistic in (7.3).

## 8. The Distribution of $\lambda_{1}$ for "rank one" tests $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$ :

The test procedure of Section 6 compares the $d \times d$ rank-one matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{h}=\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)^{\prime} /\left(h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h\right) \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the $d \times d$ residual error matrix

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$$
\begin{equation*}
E=(Y-X \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}(Y-X \widehat{\beta}) \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We show below that the matrix $E$ is invertible with probability one if $n \geq p+d$. By Lemma 6.1 in Section 6, the three matrices $H_{h} E^{-1}, E^{-1} H_{h}$, and $E^{-1 / 2} H_{h} E^{-1 / 2}$ have the single nonzero eigenvalue

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)^{\prime} E^{-1} \widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h /\left(h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h\right) \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We next derive a representation of the distribution of the test statistic $\lambda_{1}$ in (8.3) given $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$. By (7.6), this will also give us the distribution of the two-sample Hotelling $T^{2}$ statistic (7.3).

Theorem 8.1. We can write $E$ in (8.2) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
E=\sum_{i=1}^{n-p} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime} \tag{8.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{n-p}$ are independent $N(0, \Sigma)$. If $\beta^{\prime} h=0$, the eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ in (8.3) can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=Z_{0}^{\prime}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-p} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} Z_{0} \tag{8.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z_{0}, Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{n-p}$ are independent $N(0, \Sigma)$.
Remarks. (1) It follows from (8.4) that the $d \times d$ matrix $E$ is invertible with probability one if and only if $n \geq p+d$. (Exercise: Prove this.)
(2) By Lemma 9.2 in Section 9 below, the distribution in (8.5) does not depend on $\Sigma$.
Proof of Theorem 8.1. Since $\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)_{j}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} h_{a} \widehat{\beta}_{a j}$, it follows from (4.6) that

$$
\left.\operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)_{j k}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} \sum_{b=1}^{p} h_{a} h_{b} \operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}_{a j}, \widehat{\beta}_{b k}\right)=\sum_{a=1}^{p} \sum_{b=1}^{p} h_{a} h_{b}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1}\right)_{a b} \Sigma_{j k}
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h\right)=\left(h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h\right) \Sigma
$$

Thus the column vector $\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h$ has the multivariate normal distribution

$$
\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h \approx N\left(\beta^{\prime} h,\left(h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h\right) \Sigma\right)
$$

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and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{0}=\left(\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h-\beta^{\prime} h\right) / \sqrt{h^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} h} \approx N(0, \Sigma) \tag{8.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $h^{\prime} \beta=0$, it follows that the eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ in (8.3) can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=Z_{0}^{\prime} E^{-1} Z_{0} \tag{8.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $E=(Y-X \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}(Y-X \widehat{\beta})$ is the residual error matrix.
The next step is to find the distribution of the residual error matrix $E$. The fitted value matrix satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
X \widehat{\beta}=X\left(\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} Y\right)=X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}(X \beta+e)=X \beta+K e \tag{8.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K=X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$ is $n \times n$ and $K=K^{2}=K^{\prime}$. It follows from the spectral theorem that

$$
K=R^{\prime} D R, \quad D=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I_{k} & 0  \tag{8.9}\\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $R$ is an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix and $k$ is the number of nonzero eigenvalues of $K$. Since $\operatorname{tr}(K)=\operatorname{tr}\left(R^{\prime} D R\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(D R R^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{tr}(D)=k$ and $\operatorname{tr}(K)=\operatorname{tr}\left(X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} X\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(I_{p}\right)=p$, it follows that $k=p$.

Let $Z=R e$ for the $n \times n$ matrix $R$ in (8.9), so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{i j}=\sum_{a=1}^{n} R_{i a} e_{a j}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq d \tag{8.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the same $n \times n$ matrix $R$ is applied to each column of $e$. It follows from Lemma 3.3 in Section 3 that the matrix $Z$ has the same distribution as $e$. In particular, the $n$ rows of $Z$ are independent random vectors with distribution $Z_{i} \approx N(0, \Sigma)$.

By (8.8) and (8.9), the fitted values matrix is

$$
X \widehat{\beta}=X \beta+K e=X \beta+R^{\prime} D R e=X \beta+\left(R^{\prime} D\right) Z
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
\widehat{\beta} & =\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} X \widehat{\beta} \\
& =\beta+\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}\left(R^{\prime} D\right) Z=\beta+A(D Z) \tag{8.11}
\end{align*}
$$

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where $A=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} R^{\prime}$. By (8.8), the residual values matrix $Y-X \widehat{\beta}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y-X \widehat{\beta} & =(X \beta+e)-(X \beta+K e) \\
& =\left(I_{n}-K\right) e=R^{\prime}\left(I_{n}-D\right) R e=R^{\prime}\left(I_{n}-D\right) Z
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
E & =(Y-X \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}(Y-X \widehat{\beta}) \\
& =Z^{\prime}\left(I_{n}-D\right)^{\prime} R R^{\prime}\left(I_{n}-D\right) Z=Z^{\prime}\left(I_{n}-D\right) Z \tag{8.12}
\end{align*}
$$

If we write $\widehat{\beta}$ and $E$ in terms of their components,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \widehat{\beta}_{a j}=\beta_{a j}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{a i} \sum_{k=1}^{n} D_{i k} Z_{k j}=\beta_{a j}+\sum_{i=1}^{p} A_{a i} Z_{i j} \text { and } \\
& E_{a b}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_{i a} \sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(I_{n}-D\right)_{i k} Z_{k b}=\sum_{i=p+1}^{n} Z_{i a} Z_{i b} \tag{8.13}
\end{align*}
$$

This means that $\widehat{\beta}$ and $\widehat{\beta}^{\prime} h$ depend on only the first $p$ rows of $Z$, while $E$ depends only on the last $n-p$ rows of $Z$. In particular, (i) $\widehat{\beta}$ and $E$ are independent and (ii) $E=\sum_{i=p+1}^{n} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}$ where $Z_{i}$ is the $i^{\text {th }}$ row of $Z$ viewed as a column vector.

Since $Z_{0}$ in (8.6) is a linear function of $\widehat{\beta}$, it follows from (8.13) that $Z_{0}, Z_{p+1}, \ldots, Z_{n}$ are independent random vectors. The relations (8.6), (8.7), and (8.13) complete the proof of Theorem 8.1.
9. Wishart and Hotelling $\boldsymbol{T}^{\mathbf{2}}$ Distributions: A $d \times d$ random matrix $W$ is said to have a Wishart distribution with parameters $\Sigma$, $d$, and $m$ (abbreviated $W \approx W(d, m, \Sigma)$ ) if $W$ has the same distribution as the random $d \times d$ matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}{ }^{\prime} \quad \text { where } \quad Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{m} \text { are independent } N(0, \Sigma) \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, the Wishart distribution is a distribution of random positive semidefinite $d \times d$ matrices, rather than of a single univariate random variable. The random matrix (9.1) can be shown to be positive definite and invertible (with probability one) if and only if $m \geq d$.

We can sum up many of the results in Sections 2-8 in the following theorem.

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Theorem 9.1. Consider the multivariate regression

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y=X \beta+e, \quad e_{L} \approx N\left(0, I_{n} \otimes \Sigma\right) \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Y$ is $n \times d, X$ is an $n \times p$ matrix of rank $p, \beta$ is $p \times d$, and $A_{L}$ for a matrix $A$ means the column vector of the matrix entries of $A$ written in lexicographic order. Let $\widehat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} Y$ be the MLE of $\beta$ (Section 4). Then
(i) $\widehat{\beta}_{L} \approx N\left(\beta_{L},\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} \otimes \Sigma\right)$
(ii) $E=(Y-X \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}(Y-X \widehat{\beta}) \approx W(d, n-p, \Sigma)$
(iii) $\widehat{\beta}$ and $E$ are independent.

Proof. Part (i): See (4.7) or (4.12). Parts (ii,iii): See Section 8 .
It follows from (7.4) that the residual error matrix in the multivariate two-sample problem (7.1) also satisfies $E \approx W\left(d, n_{1}+n_{2}-2, \Sigma\right)$.

The Wishart distribution is a multivariate generalization of the chisquare distribution, but also depends on the matrix $\Sigma$. For simplicity, let $W(d, m)=W\left(d, m, I_{d}\right)$ denote the Wishart distribution with $\Sigma=I_{d}$. Then

Lemma 9.1. In terms of distributions, for any $p \times d$ matrix $A$,
(i) $W(d, m, \Sigma) \approx \Sigma^{1 / 2} W(d, m) \Sigma^{1 / 2}$
(ii) $A W(d, m, \Sigma) A^{\prime} \approx W\left(r, m, A \Sigma A^{\prime}\right)$

Proof. If $W=\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}$ where $Z_{i}$ are independent $N(0, \Sigma)$, then

$$
A W A^{\prime}=A \sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime} A^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(A Z_{i}\right)\left(A Z_{i}\right)^{\prime}
$$

Since $\operatorname{Cov}\left(A Z_{i}\right)=A \operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{i}\right) A^{\prime}=A \Sigma A^{\prime}$ and $A$ is $p \times d$, it follows that $A W A^{\prime}$ is Wishart $W\left(r, m, A \Sigma A^{\prime}\right)$. It follows from the same argument that if $W=\sum_{i=1}^{m} N_{i} N_{i}^{\prime}$ for independent $N_{i} \approx N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$ and $A=\Sigma^{1 / 2}$, then $A W A \approx W(d, m, \Sigma)$.

A random variable $T$ is said to have a Hotelling's $T^{2}$ distribution with parameters $(d, m)$ (abbreviated $T \approx T^{2}(d, m)$ ) if $T$ has the distribution

$$
\begin{equation*}
T \approx Y^{\prime} S^{-1} Y, \quad S=\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime} \tag{9.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Y, Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{m}$ are $m+1$ independent $N(0, \Sigma)$ for some positive definite matrix $\Sigma$, or equivalently if

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$$
\begin{equation*}
T \approx Y^{\prime}\left(\frac{1}{m} W(d, m, \Sigma)\right)^{-1} Y, \quad Y \approx N(0, \Sigma) \tag{9.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Y$ is independent of $W(d, m, \Sigma)$.
Lemma 9.2. The distribution $T \approx T^{2}(d, m)$ in (9.3) does not depend on $\Sigma$.
Proof. By (9.4) and Lemma 9.1,

$$
S \approx \frac{1}{m} W(d, m, \Sigma) \approx \Sigma^{1 / 2}\left(\frac{1}{m} W(d, m)\right) \Sigma^{1 / 2}
$$

and hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
T & \approx Y^{\prime} S^{-1} Y \approx\left(\Sigma^{1 / 2} N_{0}\right)^{\prime}\left(\Sigma^{-1 / 2} S_{N}^{-1} \Sigma^{-1 / 2}\right) \Sigma^{1 / 2} N_{0} \\
& \approx N_{0}^{\prime} S_{N}^{-1} N_{0}, \quad S_{N}=\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} N_{i} N_{i}^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $N_{0}, N_{1}, \ldots, N_{m}$ are independent $N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$. It follows that the distribution of $T^{2}(d, m)$ does not depend on $\Sigma$, so that we can assume $\Sigma=I_{d}$ in the definitions (9.3) and (9.4).

The second part of Theorem 8.1 can be stated in a second theorem.
Theorem 9.2. For the multivariate regression (9.2), consider the test statistic $\lambda_{1}$ in (8.3) for the hypothesis $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$ for an arbitrary $p \times 1$ column vector $h$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1} \approx \frac{T^{2}(d, n-p)}{n-p} \tag{9.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a Hotelling $T^{2}$ distribution divided by $n-p$. In particular, the null distribution for $\lambda_{1}$ for the test $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$ is a scaled Hotelling $T^{2}$ distribution.

We prove in the next section that Hotelling $T^{2}(d, n)$ distributions are $F$-distributions with

$$
\begin{equation*}
T \approx T^{2}(d, m) \approx \frac{d m}{m-d+1} F_{d, m-d+1} \tag{9.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $m \geq d$. In particular $T^{2}(d, m) \approx d^{2} F_{d, 1}$ if $m=d$. If $m<d$, the matrices (9.1) are not invertible (with probability one) and (9.3) and (9.4) cannot be defined. If $m=n-p \geq d$, the eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ in (9.5) satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1} \approx \frac{T^{2}(d, n-p)}{n-p} \approx \frac{d}{n-p-d+1} F_{d, n-p-d+1} \approx \frac{V_{1}}{V_{2}} \tag{9.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ are independent chi-square random variables with $d$ and $n-p-d+1$ degrees of freedom, respectively.

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Examples of (9.6) for Tests $\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathbf{0}} \boldsymbol{:} \boldsymbol{h}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\beta}=\mathbf{0}$ : By (8.1)-(8.3) and Theorem 8.1, the sole nonzero eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ of the three random matrices $E^{-1} H_{h}$, $H_{h} E^{-1}$, and $E^{-1 / 2} H_{h} E^{-1 / 2}$ in (6.9) has the distribution (9.7) if $h^{\prime} \beta=0$, $h \neq 0$, and $n-p \geq d$.

Similarly, the two-sample Hotelling $T^{2}$ statistic in (7.3) has the distribution

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{2} & =\frac{n_{1} n_{2}}{n_{1}+n_{2}}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right)^{\prime} S^{-1}\left(\bar{Z}_{1}-\bar{Z}_{2}\right) \\
& \approx\left(n_{1}+n_{2}-2\right) \lambda_{1} \\
& \approx T^{2}\left(d, n_{1}+n_{2}-2\right) \approx \frac{d\left(n_{1}+n_{2}-2\right)}{n_{1}+n_{2}-d-1} F_{d, n_{1}+n_{2}-d-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

by (7.8), since $n=n_{1}+n_{2}$ and $r=2$ for $\lambda_{1}$ in (7.6) or (7.8), and (9.7).
Exercise 9.1: Suppose that $h^{\prime} \beta \neq 0$ in (8.1)-(8.3). Show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=Z_{0}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-r} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} Z_{0}^{\prime} \tag{9.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z_{0}, Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{n-r}$ are normally-distributed independent random vectors, $Z_{0}$ is $N\left(\gamma, I_{d}\right)$ for some $\gamma \neq 0$, and $Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{r}$ are $N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$. Find $\gamma$ in terms of $h, \beta$, and $\Sigma$.
10. The Distribution of $\boldsymbol{T}^{\mathbf{2}}(\boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{m})$ : The purpose of this section is to prove that Hotelling distributions are $F$-distributions. Recall that a random variable $T$ is said to have a Hotelling $T^{2}(d, m)$ distribution if it has the same distribution as

$$
\begin{equation*}
T \approx Z_{0}^{\prime}\left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} Z_{0} \tag{10.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z_{0}, Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{m}$ are $m+1$ independent $d$-dimensional standard normal vectors (that is, $Z_{i} \approx N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$ ) and $m \geq d$. Then
Theorem 10.1. If $T \approx T^{2}(d, m)$ as in (10.1) for $m \geq d$, then $T$ has the $F$ distribution

$$
\begin{equation*}
T=T^{2}(d, m) \approx \frac{d m}{m-d+1} F_{d, m-d+1} \tag{10.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary 10.1. Given $H_{0}: \beta^{\prime} h=0$ and $n \geq p+d$, the quantity $\lambda_{1}$ in Theorem 8.1 has the $F$ distribution

$$
\lambda_{1} \approx \frac{T^{2}(d, n-p)}{n-p} \approx \frac{d}{n-p-d+1} F_{d, n-p-d+1}
$$

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Remark. Note that (10.2) is equivalent to saying

$$
\begin{equation*}
T=T^{2}(d, m) \approx m \frac{V_{1}}{V_{2}} \tag{10.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{1} \approx \chi_{d}^{2}, V_{2} \approx \chi_{m-d+1}^{2}$, and $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ are independent.
We begin with the statements and proofs of two lemmas:
Lemma 10.1. Assume that $Q$ and $X$ are two arbitrary random variables with a joint density $f(q, x)$. (Either or both of $Q$ and $X$ may be vector valued.) Suppose that the conditional distribution of $Q$ given $X=x$ does not depend on $x$, which we can write as

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{Q \mid X}(q \mid x)=f_{Q \mid X}(q) \tag{10.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x$. Then
(i) $f_{Q \mid X}(q)=f_{Q}(q)$ is the same as the marginal distribution of $Q$ and
(ii) $Q$ and $X$ are independent.

Proof of Lemma 10.1. The joint density $f(q, x)$ for any two random variables $Q$ and $X$ can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(q, x)=f_{X}(x) f_{Q \mid X}(q \mid x) \tag{10.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f_{X}(x)$ is the marginal density of $X$ and $f_{Q \mid X}(q \mid x)$ is the conditional density of $Q$ given $X=x$. By (10.4), the marginal distribution of $Q$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{Q}(q) & =\int_{X} f(q, x) d x=\int_{X} f_{X}(x) f_{Q \mid X}(q \mid x) d x \\
& =\int_{X} f_{X}(x) d x f_{Q \mid X}(q)=f_{Q \mid X}(q)
\end{aligned}
$$

so that the marginal density $f_{Q}(q)$ is the same as the conditional density (10.4). Thus $f_{Q \mid X}(q \mid x) d x=f_{Q \mid X}(q)=f_{Q}(q)$ and by (10.5)

$$
f(q, x)=f_{X}(x) f_{Q}(q)
$$

This implies that $Q$ and $X$ are independent, which completes the proof of Lemma 10.1.

Lemma 10.2. Let $A$ be an invertible $d \times d$ matrix that we write (along with its inverse) in partitioned form as

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{11} & A_{12} \\
A_{21} & A_{22}
\end{array}\right), \quad B=A^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
B_{11} & B_{12} \\
B_{21} & B_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $A_{11}$ and $B_{11}$ are $d_{1} \times d_{1}$ matrices for $d=d_{1}+d_{2}, d_{1}, d_{2}>0$. It follows that $A_{12}, B_{12}$ are $d_{1} \times d_{2}$ matrices, $A_{21}, B_{21}$ are $d_{2} \times d_{1}$, and $A_{22}, B_{22}$ are $d_{2} \times d_{2}$. Assume that $A_{22}$ is invertible. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{11}=\left(A_{11}-A_{12} A_{22}^{-1} A_{21}\right)^{-1} \tag{10.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of Lemma 10.2. This is a generalization of Cramér's rule for $2 \times 2$ real matrices to $2 \times 2$ partitioned matrices. By definition

$$
\begin{aligned}
A B & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{11} & A_{12} \\
A_{21} & A_{22}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
B_{11} & B_{12} \\
B_{21} & B_{22}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I_{d_{1}} & 0 \\
0 & I_{d_{2}}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{11} B_{11}+A_{12} B_{21} & A_{11} B_{12}+A_{12} B_{22} \\
A_{21} B_{11}+A_{22} B_{21} & A_{21} B_{12}+A_{22} B_{22}
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $A_{11} B_{11}+A_{12} B_{21}=I_{d_{1}}$ and $A_{21} B_{11}+A_{22} B_{21}=0$. The second relation implies $A_{22} B_{21}=-A_{21} B_{11}$ and hence $B_{21}=-A_{22}^{-1} A_{21} B_{11}$. The first relation then becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{11} B_{11}+A_{12} B_{21}=A_{11} B_{11}-A_{12} A_{22}^{-1} A_{21} B_{11} \\
& =\left(A_{11}-A_{12} A_{22}^{-1} A_{21}\right) B_{11}=I_{d_{1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $A_{11}-A_{12} A_{22}^{-1} A_{21}$ is invertible and (10.6) holds.
Lemma 10.2 has an interesting corollary, for which we give an alternative proof:

Corollary 10.1. Assume $X \approx N(\mu, \Sigma)$ is a normally-distributed random vector that we write in partitioned form

$$
X=\binom{Y}{Z} \quad \mu=\binom{a}{b} \quad \Sigma=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\
\Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

If $\Sigma_{22}$ is invertible, then the conditional distribution

$$
\begin{equation*}
\{Y \mid Z=z\} \approx N\left(a+\Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1}(z-b), \Sigma_{11}-\Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} \Sigma_{21}\right) \tag{10.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of Corollary 10.1. Write $Y=Y-C Z+C Z$ for a matrix $C$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Cov}(Y-C X, C X) & =\operatorname{Cov}(Y, C Z)-\operatorname{Cov}(C Z, C Z) \\
& =\operatorname{Cov}(Y, Z) C^{\prime}-C \operatorname{Cov}(Z, Z) C^{\prime} \\
& =\left(\Sigma_{12}-C \Sigma_{22}\right) C^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Set $C=\Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1}$. Then $\operatorname{Cov}(Y-C Z, C Z)=0$, which implies that $Y-C Z$ and $C Z$ are independent. In turn, this implies

$$
\begin{align*}
\{Y \mid Z=z\} & \approx\{Y-C Z+C Z \mid Z=z\}  \tag{10.8}\\
& \approx(Y-C Z)+C z
\end{align*}
$$

Thus the conditional distribution $\{Y \mid Z=z\}$ is normal with

$$
E(Y \mid Z=z)=E(Y-C Z)+C z=a-C b+C z=a+C(z-b)
$$

and by (10.8)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Cov}(Y \mid Z=z)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y-C Z)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y-C Z, Y-C Z) \\
& \quad=\operatorname{Cov}(Y)-C \operatorname{Cov}(Z, Y)-\operatorname{Cov}(Y, Z) C^{\prime}+C \operatorname{Cov}(Z, Z) C^{\prime} \\
& \quad=\Sigma_{11}-C \Sigma_{21}-\Sigma_{12} C^{\prime}+C \Sigma_{22} C^{\prime} \\
& \quad=\Sigma_{11}-\Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} \Sigma_{21}
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof of the corollary.
We are now ready to begin the proof of Theorem 10.1.
Proof of Theorem 10.1. Let $W=\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i}^{\prime} Z_{i}$ where $Z_{0}, Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{m}$ are independent $N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$. The main step is to show that the conditional distribution of $Z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} Z_{0}$ given $Z_{0}=z_{0}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{Z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} Z_{0} \mid Z_{0}=z_{0}\right\} \approx\left(z_{0}^{\prime} z_{0}\right) / V_{2} \tag{10.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{2} \approx \chi^{2}(m-d+1)$.
Proof that (10.9) implies Theorem 10.1. Since $Z_{0}$ and $W$ are independent, the relation (10.9) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\left.\frac{Z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} Z_{0}}{Z_{0}^{\prime} Z_{0}} \right\rvert\, Z_{0}=z_{0}\right\} \approx 1 / V_{2}, \quad V_{2} \approx \chi^{2}(n-d+1) \tag{10.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that the right-hand side of $(10.10)$ does not depend on $z_{0}$. This implies by Lemma 10.1 that
(i) The unconditioned $Q=\left(Z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} Z_{0}\right) /\left(Z_{0}^{\prime} Z_{0}\right)$ has the same distribution (10.10) and
(ii) $Q=\left(Z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} Z_{0}\right) /\left(Z_{0}^{\prime} Z_{0}\right)$ is independent of $Z_{0}$.

Since $T=m\left(Z_{0}^{\prime} Z_{0}\right) Q$, this implies

$$
T=m\left(Z_{0}^{\prime} Z_{0}\right) Q \approx m V_{1} \frac{1}{V_{2}} \approx m \frac{V_{1}}{V_{2}}
$$

where $V_{1}=Z_{0}^{\prime} Z_{0} \approx \chi_{d}^{2}$ is independent of $Q=1 / V_{2}$. This implies (10.3) and hence (10.2), which completes the proof of Theorem 10.1 given (10.9). It only remains to prove (10.9).

Proof of (10.9). Since $Z_{0}$ and $W$ are independent, the distribution

$$
\left\{Z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} Z_{0} \mid Z_{0}=z_{0}\right\} \approx z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} z_{0}
$$

Let $B$ be a $d \times d$ orthogonal matrix. Since $Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{m}$ are independent $N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$, it follows that $B Z_{1}, \ldots, B Z_{m}$ are also independent $N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} z_{0} & =z_{0}^{\prime}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} z_{0} \approx z_{0}^{\prime}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(B Z_{i}\right)\left(B Z_{i}\right)^{\prime}\right)^{-1} z_{0} \\
& =z_{0}^{\prime}\left(B \sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime} B^{\prime}\right)^{-1} z_{0}=z_{0}^{\prime} B\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} B^{\prime} z_{0} \\
& =\left(B^{\prime} z_{0}\right)^{\prime} W^{-1}\left(B^{\prime} z_{0}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $B$ can depend on $z_{0}$, we can choose $B$ so that $B^{\prime} z_{0}=\left(\sqrt{z_{0}^{\prime} z_{0}}\right) e_{1}$ where $e_{1}$ is the first coordinate vector in $R^{d}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} z_{0} \approx\left(B^{\prime} z_{0}\right)^{\prime} W^{-1}\left(B^{\prime} z_{0}\right)=\left(z_{0}^{\prime} z_{0}\right)\left(W^{-1}\right)_{11} \tag{10.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the last expression above means the $(1,1)$ entry of the $d \times d$ random matrix $W^{-1}$.

Write $W$ in the partitioned form

$$
W=\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
W_{11} & W_{12}  \tag{10.12}\\
W_{21} & W_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $W_{11}$ is $1 \times 1, W_{12}$ is a $1 \times r$ for $r=d-1, W_{21}=W_{12}^{\prime}$ is $r \times 1$, and $W_{22}$ is $r \times r$. Lemma 10.2 above then implies

$$
\left(W^{-1}\right)_{11}=\left(W_{11}-W_{12} W_{22}^{-1} W_{21}\right)^{-1}
$$

Since $W_{11}$ and $W_{12} W_{22}^{-1} W_{21}$ are $1 \times 1$ (that is, are numbers), (10.11) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
z_{0}^{\prime} W^{-1} z_{0} \approx \frac{z_{0}^{\prime} z_{0}}{W_{11}-W_{12} W_{22}^{-1} W_{21}} \tag{10.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

To prove (10.9), it is now sufficient to prove

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{11}-W_{12} W_{22}^{-1} W_{21} \approx \chi_{m-d+1}^{2} \tag{10.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multivariate Linear Models
Since $W=\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i} Z_{i}^{\prime}$ where $Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{m}$ are independent $N\left(0, I_{d}\right)$, we can write $W_{a b}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i a} Z_{i b}$ where $Z_{i a}$ are univariate independent standard normal random variables for $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq a \leq d$.

For definiteness, let $Y_{i}=Z_{i 1}(1 \leq i \leq m)$ be the first column of $Z$ and let $X$ be the $n \times r$ random matrix $X_{i a}=Z_{i, a+1}$ for $1 \leq a \leq r=d-1$ defined by the remaining columns. Then for $1 \leq a \leq r$ and $1 \leq b \leq r$

$$
\begin{aligned}
W_{11} & =\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i 1} Z_{i 1}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_{i}^{2}=Y^{\prime} Y \\
\left(W_{12}\right)_{a} & =\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i 1} Z_{i, a+1}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_{i} X_{i a}=\left(Y^{\prime} X\right)_{i a} \\
\left(W_{22}\right)_{a b} & =\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i, a+1} Z_{i, b+1}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)_{a b}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $W_{21}=W_{12}^{\prime}=X^{\prime} Y$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{11}-W_{12} W_{22}^{-1} W_{21}=Y^{\prime} Y-Y^{\prime} X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} Y=Y^{\prime}\left(I_{m}-K\right) Y \tag{10.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K=X\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}$ is independent of $Y$.
Conditional on $X=x \in R^{r}, K$ is an $m \times m$ orthogonal projection matrix with $\operatorname{rank}(K)=r=d-1$. Similarly $\operatorname{rank}\left(I_{m}-K\right)=m-r=$ $m-d+1$. Since $Y_{i}$ are independent $N(0,1)$ for $1 \leq i \leq m, Y^{\prime} Y \approx \chi_{m}^{2}$ and $Y^{\prime}\left(I_{m}-K\right) Y \approx \chi_{m-r}^{2}=\chi_{m-d+1}^{2}$ conditional on $X=x$. Since the latter distribution does not depend on $x$, it follows from a second application of Lemma 10.1 that the unconditional distribution of $Y^{\prime}\left(I_{m}-K\right) Y$ in (10.15) is also $\chi_{m-d+1}^{2}$.

This implies (10.14), which by (10.13) implies (10.9) and completes the proof of Theorem 10.1.
11. A Higher-Rank Version of $\boldsymbol{H}_{0}: \boldsymbol{h}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\beta}=0$ : A natural generalization of tests of the form $H_{0}: h^{\prime} \beta=0$ for the regression $Y=X \beta+e$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}: A \beta=0 \tag{11.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A$ is a $q \times p$ matrix with $\operatorname{rank}(A)=q$. Since $A \beta$ is $q \times d$, equation (11.1) is shorthand for $q$ different relations of the form $h^{\prime} \beta=0$ for $p \times 1$ column vectors $h$. If $q=1$, then $A$ is $1 \times p$, so that $A=h^{\prime}$ for a $p \times 1$ column vector $h$.

An example of (11.1) would be three independent vector-valued samples

$$
\begin{align*}
&\left(Z_{1}\right)_{1},\left(Z_{1}\right)_{2}, \ldots,\left(Z_{1}\right)_{n_{1}} \text { where } \\
&\left.\left(Z_{2}\right)_{1},\left(Z_{2}\right)_{i}\right), \ldots,\left(Z_{2}\right)_{n_{2}} \text { where } \quad\left(Z_{2}, \Sigma\right)  \tag{11.2}\\
&\left(Z_{3}\right)_{1},\left(Z_{3}\right)_{2}, \ldots,\left(Z_{3}\right)_{n_{3}} \text { where } \\
&\left(Z_{3}\right)_{k} \approx N\left(\mu_{3}, \Sigma\right)
\end{align*}
$$

with $H_{0}: \mu_{1}=\mu_{2}=\mu_{3}$. The one-way layout (11.2) can be put in the form $Y=X \beta+e$ as in (7.4) where now $X$ is $n \times 3, \beta=\left(\mu 1 \mu_{2} \mu_{3}\right)^{\prime}$, and $n=n_{1}+n_{2}+n_{3}$. In this case, $H_{0}: \mu_{1}=\mu_{2}=\mu_{3}$ is equivalent to

$$
A \beta=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & -1 & 0  \tag{11.3}\\
1 & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}
\mu_{1} \\
\mu_{2} \\
\mu_{3}
\end{array}\right)=\binom{\mu_{1}-\mu_{2}}{\mu_{1}-\mu_{3}}=\binom{0}{0}
$$

which is $H_{0}: A \beta=0$ for a $2 \times 3$ matrix $A$.
In the univariate case $(d=1)$, one can show that if $H_{0}: A \beta=0$ holds and MSE is defined by (6.5), then

$$
\begin{equation*}
F=(A \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}\left(A\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} A^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(A \widehat{\beta}) / M S E \tag{11.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a $F$-distribution with $(q, n-p)$ degrees of freedom.
Exercise 11.1: Show that, if $d=1$ and $A$ is $q \times p$, the matrix dimensions in (11.4) work out so that (11.4) exists as a number.

Exercise 11.2: Prove or disprove: If $d=1$ and the one-way layout (11.2) is written as $Y=X \beta+e$ for $\beta=\left(\begin{array}{lll}\mu_{1} & \mu_{2} & \mu_{3}\end{array}\right)^{\prime}$ analogously to (7.4) for $A$ in (11.3), then $F$ in (11.4) is the same as the classical one-way ANOVA test statistic.

Multivariate ANOVA and Regression Tests: A multivariate ( $d>1$ ) version of the test $H_{0}: A \beta=0$ for rank $q>1$ can be based on comparing the $d \times d$ matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{A}=(A \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}\left(A\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} A^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(A \widehat{\beta}) \tag{11.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the $d \times d$ residual error matrix

$$
E=(Y-X \widehat{\beta})^{\prime}(Y-X \widehat{\beta})
$$

as before. Since $A$ is $q \times p$ and $\widehat{\beta}$ is $p \times d$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Cov}\left((A \widehat{\beta})_{L}\right) & =\operatorname{Cov}\left(\left(A \otimes I_{p}\right) \widehat{\beta}_{L}\right)=\left(A \otimes I_{p}\right) \operatorname{Cov}\left(\widehat{\beta}_{L}\right)\left(A^{\prime} \otimes I_{p}\right) \\
& =\left(A \otimes I_{p}\right)\left(\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} \otimes \Sigma\right)\left(A^{\prime} \otimes I_{p}\right)=\left(A\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} A^{\prime}\right) \otimes \Sigma
\end{aligned}
$$

as in (3.9). If $d=1$, then $H_{A}$ and $E$ are numbers and $H_{A} / E$ has an $F$ distribution given $A \beta=0$. As in the rank-one case ( $q=1$ ), the multivariate $(d>1)$ analog is more complicated, since $H_{A}$ and $E$ are $d \times d$ matrices and the three matrices

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{-1} H_{A} \quad H_{A} E^{-1} \quad E^{-1 / 2} H_{A} E^{-1 / 2} \tag{11.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

are generally different. However, as in (6.9)-(6.10), the eigenvalues of the three matrices (11.6) are the same. Since $E^{-1}$ is invertible, the number of nonzero eigenvalues is the same as the rank of $H_{A}$, which can be shown to be the same as $q=\operatorname{rank}(A)$ if $\beta \neq 0$.

If $q=\operatorname{rank}(A)=1$, the three matrices (11.6) have a unique nonzero eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$, which has the $F$-distribution (9.7) if $h^{\prime} \beta=0$.

If $q>1$, the matrices (11.6) are generally not of rank one and have more than one nonzero eigenvalue. Since the third matrix in (11.6) is positive semidefinite, we can assume $\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \ldots \geq \lambda_{d} \geq 0$. Tests of $A \beta=0$ that do not depend on which matrix is chosen in (11.6) can be based on expressions that depend on different functions of the eigenvalues $\lambda_{i}$.

The four most-common tests of $H_{0}: A \beta=0$ for $q>1$ and the corresponding functions of $\lambda_{i}$ are:

1. Wilk's Lambda: $\quad \Lambda=\operatorname{det}(E) / \operatorname{det}\left(H_{L}+E\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{d} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i}+1}$
2. Pillai's Trace: $\quad S_{1}=\operatorname{tr}\left(H_{L}\left(H_{L}+E\right)^{-1}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \frac{\lambda_{i}}{\lambda_{i}+1}$
3. Hotelling-Lawley Trace: $S_{2}=\operatorname{tr}\left(H_{L} E^{-1}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_{i}$
4. Roy's Greatest Root: $S_{3}=\lambda_{1}$

The last test is named after the Indian statistician S. N. Roy, so that Roy is not a first name. Wilk's Lambda is essentially the likelihood ratio test statistic for $H_{0}: L \beta=0$.

If $q=\operatorname{rank}(L)=1$, then only one eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}>0$, and that eigenvalue has the $F$-distribution (9.8) if $h^{\prime} \beta=0$. In that case, the four tests above are equivalent and have identical P -values.

If $q=\operatorname{rank}(L)>1$, the four tests use different approximations of their test statistics in terms of $F$ distributions and give different $P$-values. In this case, the four tests can be viewed as tests of $H_{0}: L \beta=0$ against different alternatives.

The standard test for Roy's Greatest Root is a little different than the others in that the approximation only gives a lower bound for the true $P$-value. That is, one concludes $P \geq 0.01$ (for example) and not that $P$ is approximately 0.01 , as is the case for the other three tests. In fact, it often happens that the P -value for Roy's Greatest Root is significantly smaller than the others, which could then be significantly misleading.

See the SAS documentation for references and more details, and in particular for references for approximations of the four P -values.

## References.

1. Anderson, T. W. (2003) An introduction to multivariate statistical analysis, 3rd edn. John Wiley and Sons, New York.
