

Displays for Statistics 5401/8401

Lecture 6

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Class Web Page

<http://www.stat.umn.edu/~kb/classes/5401>

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Multivariate population mean vector

Suppose $\mathbf{X} = [X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p]'$ is a random vector (X_1, \dots, X_p are p jointly distributed random variables).

The **population mean vector** (true mean, expectation) of \mathbf{X} is

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_X = E[\mathbf{X}] = [\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_p]',$$

$$\mu_j = E[X_j], j = 1, \dots, p$$

$\boldsymbol{\mu}_X$ has the same dimensions as \mathbf{X} ($p \times 1$).

Note:

$\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ is the vector of univariate sample means

$\boldsymbol{\mu}_X$ is the vector of the univariate population means.

The population mean or expectation of a random matrix $\mathbf{Y} = [y_{ij}]$ is the matrix

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_Y = [\mu_{y_{ij}}] = [E[y_{ij}]].$$

It can be useful to equate a n by p matrix, say $\mathbf{X} = [X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p]$, to the np by 1 vector

$$\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \dots \\ X_p \end{bmatrix}, np \times 1$$

Clearly

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{vec}(\mathbf{X})} = \text{vec}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_X)$$

that is the matrix is "unravalled" or unrolled column by column. This is what $\text{vector}(\mathbf{x})$ creates when \mathbf{x} is a matrix.

Population variance matrix

Vocabulary

The **population covariance** between X_j and X_k , $j \neq k$, is

- $\sigma_{jk} \equiv E[(X_j - \mu_j)(X_k - \mu_k)].$

Properties

- $\sigma_{jk} = \sigma_{kj}$ (symmetry)
- $\sigma_{jk} > 0 \Leftrightarrow$ positive association
- $\sigma_{jk} < 0 \Leftrightarrow$ negative association

The **population variance** is

- $\sigma_j^2 = \sigma_{jj} = E[(X_j - \mu_j)^2] \geq 0$
- $|\sigma_{jk}| \leq \sqrt{\{\sigma_{jj} \sigma_{kk}\}}, \sigma_{jk}^2 \leq \sigma_{jj}^2 \sigma_{kk}^2$
- $-1 \leq \rho_{jk} \leq 1, \rho_{jk} = \sigma_{jk} / \sqrt{\{\sigma_{jj} \sigma_{kk}\}}$
 $= \text{cov}[X_j, X_k] / \{\text{SD}[X_j] \text{SD}[X_k]\}, \text{SD}[X_j] = \sqrt{\sigma_{jj}}$

ρ_{jk} is the population (true) correlation between X_j and X_k .

The population covariance matrix or **variance matrix** of $\mathbf{X} = [X_1, \dots, X_p]'$ is the $p \times p$ matrix

$$V[\mathbf{x}] = \Sigma = \Sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} & \dots & \sigma_{1p} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} & \dots & \sigma_{2p} \\ \sigma_{13} & \sigma_{23} & \sigma_{33} & \dots & \sigma_{3p} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \sigma_{1p} & \sigma_{2p} & \sigma_{3p} & \dots & \sigma_{pp} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Σ is symmetric ($\Sigma' = \Sigma$)
- The *diagonal elements* σ_{jj} of Σ are *variances* (σ_j^2)
- The *off-diagonal* σ_{jk} , $j \neq k$ are *covariances*.
- When $\mathbf{a} = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p]'$ is constant so $\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination, with variance $V[\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{a}'\Sigma\mathbf{a} \geq 0$. Hence Σ is positive semi-definite

Population correlation matrix

The *population (Pearson) correlation* between X_j and X_k is

$$\rho_{jk} \equiv \sigma_{jk} / \sqrt{(\sigma_{jj} \sigma_{kk})} = \rho_{kj} = \text{cov}[Z_j, Z_k].$$

Standardized X_j is $Z_j = (X_j - \mu_j) / \sqrt{\sigma_{jj}}$.

Note: $\rho_{jk} = 0 \iff \sigma_{jk} = 0$

The symmetric p by p matrix

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho_{12} & \rho_{13} & \dots & \rho_{1p} \\ \rho_{12} & 1 & \rho_{23} & \dots & \rho_{2p} \\ \rho_{13} & \rho_{23} & 1 & \dots & \rho_{3p} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \rho_{1p} & \rho_{2p} & \rho_{3p} & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{D}^{-1}\Sigma\mathbf{D}^{-1}$$

is the *population correlation matrix*

- $\mathbf{D} = \text{diag}[\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}, \sqrt{\sigma_{22}}, \dots, \sqrt{\sigma_{pp}}]$
- $\mathbf{D}^{-1} = \text{diag}[1/\sqrt{\sigma_{11}}, 1/\sqrt{\sigma_{22}}, \dots, 1/\sqrt{\sigma_{pp}}]$.

When $\Sigma = \text{diag}[\sigma_{11}, \sigma_{22}, \dots, \sigma_{pp}]$ is diagonal,

- $\rho_{ij} = 0$, $i \neq j$
- $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}_p = \text{diag}[1, 1, \dots, 1]$.

I hope I don't need to say this:

It is important to distinguish these **population** variances and covariances from the **sample** variances and covariances

- $s_{jj} = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)^2 / (n-1)$ is not the same as σ_{jj}
- $s_{jk} = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)(X_{ik} - \bar{X}_k) / (n-1)$ is not the same as σ_{jk}

and to distinguish the *population* variance matrix Σ from the *sample* variance matrix \mathbf{S} .

You never test a null hypothesis about the value of $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ or \mathbf{S} .

To state that a test statistic tests the null hypothesis $H_0: \bar{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{0}$ is *nonsense*. Probably what is meant is $H_0: \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}$.

Univariate normal Distribution

X is $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ means X is normal with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Its density is

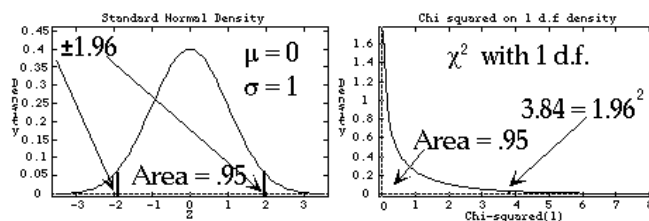
$$f(x, \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \right]} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}$$

where $z = (x-\mu)/\sigma$ (*standardized x*).

Facts:

- z is standard normal $N(0, 1^2)$
- $z^2 = \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}$ is χ_1^2 (chi-squared, 1 DF)

Densities of Z and χ_1^2



The total area under each curve is 1.

The area under the χ_1^2 curve to the left of $3.84 = 1.96^2$ is

$$P(\chi_1^2 \leq 3.84) = P(|z| \leq 1.96) = .95$$

Multivariate normal distribution

Notation

$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p]'$ is $N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$,

- $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ $p \times 1$ vector
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ $p \times p$ *positive definite symmetric* matrix.

Density of $N_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ random vector \mathbf{x} :

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}[(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})]}}{(2\pi)^{p/2}\sqrt{\det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})}} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}Q(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})}}{(2\pi)^{p/2}\sqrt{\det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})}}$$

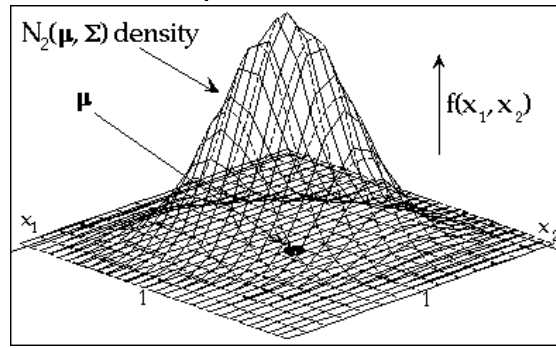
Multivariate Normal Facts

- $E[\mathbf{x}] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$ p parameters
- $V[\mathbf{x}] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ $p(p+1)/2$ parameters, p variances, $(p-1)/2$ covariances
- $Q(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \equiv (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \text{trace}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})') \sim \chi_p^2$

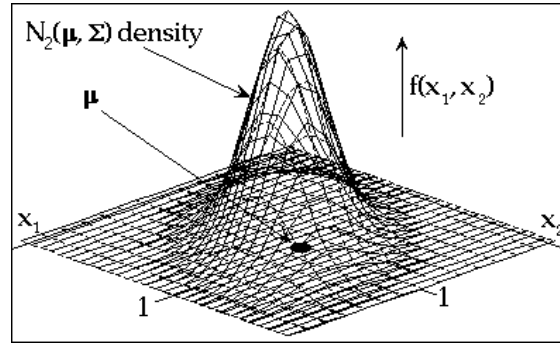
When $p = 1$ ($N(\mu, \sigma^2)$)

- $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mu, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sigma^2$
- $(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = ((x - \mu)/\sigma)^2 = \chi_1^2$

Shape of bivariate density



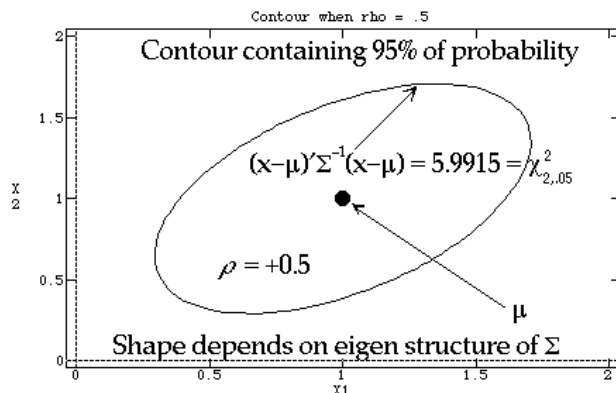
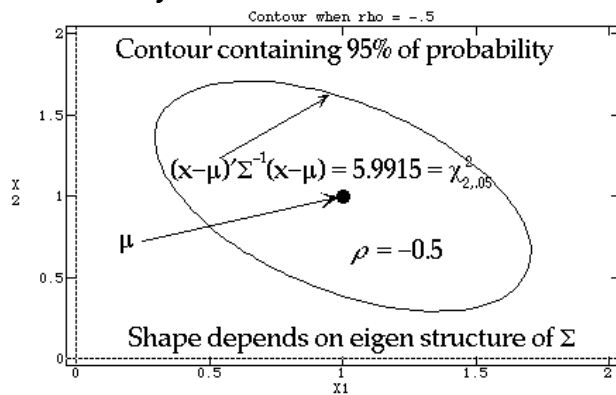
$\boldsymbol{\mu} = [1, 1]'$
 $\sqrt{\sigma_{11}} = .3$
 $\sqrt{\sigma_{22}} = .3$
 $\rho_{12} = -0.5$
 Centered at $\boldsymbol{\mu}$



$\boldsymbol{\mu} = [1, 1]'$
 $\sqrt{\sigma_{11}} = .3$
 $\sqrt{\sigma_{22}} = .3$
 $\rho_{12} = +0.5$
 Centered at $\boldsymbol{\mu}$

- The mode (maximum) is at $\boldsymbol{\mu}$
- Every contour (level curve) is an ellipse centered at $\boldsymbol{\mu}$

All contours (level curves) are ellipses centered at $\boldsymbol{\mu} = [1, 1]'$ like these:



Standard Multivariate Normal

When \mathbf{z} is $N_p(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_p)$, its density is

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{z}}}{(2\pi)^{p/2}} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^p z_i^2}}{(2\pi)^{p/2}} = \frac{e^{-\frac{z_1^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{e^{-\frac{z_2^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \dots \frac{e^{-\frac{z_p^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

That is

- $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_p = 0$
- $\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22} = \dots = \sigma_{pp} = 1$
- $\sigma_{ij} = 0, i \neq j \Rightarrow \rho_{ij} = 0$
- The z_i 's are independent $N_1(0, 1^2)$ because

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = f(z_1) \times f(z_2) \times \dots \times f(z_p)$$

- $Q(\mathbf{z} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_z, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z) = (\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{0})'\mathbf{I}_p^{-1}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{0}) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq p} z_i^2$ is distributed as χ_p^2 by a standard univariate result.

Properties of Multivariate Normal

The following properties are basically mathematical theorems. They are important in part because they provide a basis assessing or testing multivariate normality. If a sample of data appears not to satisfy one of these properties, it is evidence the sample is not from a multivariate normal population.

1. All *marginal* distributions are normal.

- Each x_i , ignoring other x 's, is $N_1(\mu_i, \sigma_{ii})$
- Any subset of variables, ignoring other x 's, is *multivariate* normal.

Application: If a univariate sample consisting of the values of x_j does not appear to come from a normal population, then the multivariate data is probably not multivariate normal.

2. All *conditional* distributions are normal.

- Distribution of $p_2 \times 1$ \mathbf{x}_2 given $p_1 \times 1$ \mathbf{x}_1 is $N_{p_2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2 \cdot 1}'(\mathbf{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1), \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22 \cdot 1})$,

That is,

$$E[\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1] = \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2 \cdot 1}'(\mathbf{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1), \quad p_2 \text{ by } 1$$

$$V[\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22 \cdot 1}, \quad p_2 \text{ by } p_2$$

- This is a *linear* regression of \mathbf{x}_2 on \mathbf{x}_1

Application: if the dependence of one variable, say x_j , on another, say x_k , is not linear, then \mathbf{X} is probably not multivariate normal.

- $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{2 \cdot 1} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}$, $p_1 \times p_2$ is a *matrix* of *population regression coefficients*.

Specifically, when $\mathbf{x}' = [\mathbf{x}_1', \mathbf{x}_2']$, where \mathbf{x}_1 is a p_1 by 1 vector, \mathbf{x}_2 is a p_2 by 1 vector than you can partition $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}$:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}' & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \end{matrix}$$

Where

- $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$ is $p_1 \times 1$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2$ is $p_2 \times 1$
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}$ is $p_1 \times p_1$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}$ is $p_2 \times p_2$
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}$ is $p_1 \times p_2$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}'$ is $p_2 \times p_1$

This property states

$$\mathbf{x}_1 \text{ is } N_{p_1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}), \quad \mathbf{x}_2 \text{ is } N_{p_2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22})$$

- $V[\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22 \cdot 1}$ does not depend on \mathbf{x}_1 .
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22 \cdot 1} \equiv \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2 \cdot 1}' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2 \cdot 1}$
 $= V[\mathbf{x}_2 - E[\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1]]$
 $= V[\mathbf{x}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2 \cdot 1}'(\mathbf{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)]$

That is,

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22 \cdot 1} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}$$

is the variance matrix of the *residuals* $= \mathbf{x}_2 - E[\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1]$.

Application: If regression diagnostics in a linear regression of one variable on the others indicate non-constant variance, that indicates the data do not come from a multivariate normal population.

Bivariate case

When $p = 2$ and $p_1 = p_2 = 1$, these are

- $\beta_{2 \cdot 1} = \sigma_{12} / \sigma_{11}$ (simple linear regression)
- $\sigma_{22 \cdot 1} = \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2 / \sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22} - \beta_{2 \cdot 1}^2 \sigma_{11}$
 $= (1 - \rho_{12}^2) \sigma_{22}$

3. Linear combinations are normal

- $\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{x} = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq p} a_i x_i$ is $N_1(\mathbf{a}'\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{a}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{a})$
- $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{a}'_1\mathbf{x}, \dots, \mathbf{a}'_q\mathbf{x}]'$ is $N_q(\mathbf{A}'\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{A}'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A})$ when $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_q]$ is p by q whose columns define linear combinations.

Example: If $\{d_i\}$, $d_i = x_{i2} - x_{i1}$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ does not appear to be normal, then \mathbf{x} is probably not multivariate normal.

4. The distribution of

$$Q(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})$$

is χ_p^2 .

Except for a factor of $1/2$, $Q(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ is the exponent in the density.

Standardization

When Y is a *univariate* random variable, an important re-expression of Y is as a *standardized random variable (z-score)*

$$Z = (Y - \mu_Y)/\sigma_Y$$

Z has mean 0 and standard deviation 1:

$$\mu_z = 0, \sigma_z = 1$$

Example:

When $\bar{Y} =$ test statistic or estimator (e.g. \bar{x}) with *hypothesized* mean $\mu_Y = \mu_0$, often 0, and *standard error* σ_Y .

Then $Z = (\bar{Y} - \mu_0)/\sigma_Y$ is a Z-statistic for testing $H_0: \mu_Y = \mu_0$

You can often replace an unknown σ_Y by an *estimator* $\hat{\sigma}_Y$ and standardize to get the test statistic

$$t = (\bar{Y} - \mu_0)/\hat{\sigma}_Y$$

5. Zero covariance or correlation implies independence

When $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} \end{bmatrix}$,

that is, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} = \text{Cov}[\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2] = \mathbf{0}$, then \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 are *independent*.

In particular, when $\sigma_{ij} = 0$, x_i and x_j are independent

Since $\rho_{ij} = 0 \iff \sigma_{ij} = 0$, uncorrelated x_i and x_j are independent.

- When Y is (approximately) $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$, Z is (approximately) $N(0,1^2)$ and $Z^2 = (Y - \mu_Y)^2/\sigma_Y^2$ or $t^2 = (Y - \mu_Y)^2/\hat{\sigma}_Y^2$ is (approximately) χ_1^2 (χ^2 on 1 d.f.).
- When Y is exactly $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ and $\hat{\sigma}_Y^2$ is an independent estimate of σ_Y^2 such that $\hat{\sigma}_Y^2/\sigma_Y^2 = \chi_{f_e}^2/f_e$, then t is distributed as $t_{f_e} =$ **Student's t** on f_e degrees of freedom and $t^2 = (Y - \mu_Y)^2/\hat{\sigma}_Y^2$ is distributed as F_{1, f_e} .

Note: $E[\chi_f^2] = f$, so $E[\chi_f^2/f] = 1$

Notation: I consistently use the *notation*

$f_e =$ **error degrees of freedom**

Later I will use the notation

$f_h =$ **hypothesis degrees of freedom**

These notations are not used in the text.

Familiar example

$Y = \bar{X}$ and you are testing $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$.

Then $\sigma_Y = \sigma_{\bar{X}} = \sigma_X/\sqrt{n}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_Y = \hat{\sigma}_{\bar{X}} = s/\sqrt{n}$ and

$$Z = (\bar{X} - \mu_0)/(\sigma/\sqrt{n})$$

$$t = (\bar{X} - \mu_0)/(s/\sqrt{n})$$

When \bar{x} is computed from a random sample:

- In large samples, $Z \sim N(0, 1^2)$ and $Z^2 \sim \chi_1^2$
- When X is normal $t \sim t_{n-1}$ and $t^2 \sim F_{1,n-1}^2$

It's harder to find a matrix A such that

$$Z = A'(Y - \mu_Y)$$

has variance matrix I_p .

However, when you have such an A ,

$$Z = A'(Y - \mu_Y)$$

is a standardized version of Y .

Or, if $C = A^{-1}$,

$$Z = (C')^{-1}(Y - \mu_Y)$$

is a standardized version of Y .

Multivariate standardization

A multivariate vector Z is *standardized* when

- $\mu_Z = 0$
- $V[Z] = I_p = \text{diag}[1,1,\dots,1]$.

When Y is an multivariate random vector, then for *any* $p \times p$ matrix $A = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p]$,
 $E[A'(Y - \mu_Y)] = A'E[Y - \mu_Y] = A'0 = 0$.


So it's easy to transform Y to a form with mean 0 .

Matrix Square Roots

Vocabulary:

Let B be a *positive semi-definite* $p \times p$ *symmetric* matrix. Then, when the $p \times p$ matrix C satisfies $C'C = B$, we say C is a **matrix square root** of B .

- C is not unique; you can choose C to be

symmetric, triangular  or ,

or none of these.

```

Cmd> b # previously entered matrix
(1,1)      16      12
(2,1)      12      10

Cmd> upper <- cholesky(b); upper # Upper triangular
(1,1)       4       3
(2,1)       0       1

Cmd> upper' %% upper # Check: upper' upper = b
(1,1)      16      12
(2,1)      12      10

Cmd> matsqrt(b) # does same as cholesky()
(1,1)       4       3
(2,1)       0       1

Cmd> lower <- matsqrt(b,lower:T); lower # lower triangular sqrt
(1,1)      1.2649      0      4/sqrt(10)      0
(2,1)      3.7947      3.1623      12/sqrt(10)      10/sqrt(10)

Cmd> lower' %% lower # Check: lower' lower = b
(1,1)      16      12
(2,1)      12      10
    
```

```

Cmd> sym <- matsqrt(b,symmetric:T); sym #symmetric sqrt
(1,1)      3.43      2.058
(2,1)      2.058      2.401

Cmd> sym' %*% sym # or sym %*% sym because sym is symmetric
(1,1)      16        12
(2,1)      12        10

```

You can get still other square roots by swapping the rows:

```

Cmd> asym <- sym[vector(2,1),]; asym #not symmetric, triangular
(1,1)      2.058      2.401
(2,1)      3.43       2.058

Cmd> asym' %*% asym
(1,1)      16        12
(2,1)      12        10

```

Vocabulary

When C is *upper triangular*, $C'C = B$ is the ***Cholesky Decomposition*** of B .

MacAnova

When b is a symmetric matrix,

```
Cmd> c <- cholesky(b)
```

computes the upper triangular square root of b .