where $H_n = S_n - (\bar{X} - \mu)(\bar{X} - \mu)^T$. Thus, $q_n(\mu)$ can be readily computed without solving the nonlinear equation (5) as for the full empirical likelihood. The least-squares empirical likelihood ratio is a first-order approximation to the full empirical likelihood ratio, and $q_n(\mu) \rightarrow \chi_p^2$ in distribution when p is fixed.

The least-squares empirical likelihood is less affected by higher dimension. In particular, if $k \ge 3$ in (4), then

$$(2p)^{-1/2} \{q_n(\mu) - p\} \to N(0, 1)$$
(12)

in distribution as $n \to \infty$ when $p = o(n^{2/3})$, which improves the rate given by Theorem 3 for the full empirical likelihood ratio $w_n(\mu)$.

To appreciate (12), we note from (11) that

$$q_n(\mu) = n(\bar{X} - \mu)^{\mathsf{T}} \Sigma^{-1} (\bar{X} - \mu) + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^{\mathsf{T}} (H_n^{-1} - \Sigma^{-1}) (\bar{X} - \mu).$$
(13)

Then, following a similar line to the proof of Lemma 6,

$$n(\bar{X}-\mu)^{\mathrm{T}}(H_n^{-1}-\Sigma^{-1})(\bar{X}-\mu)=O_p(p^2/n)=o_p(p^{1/2}).$$

As the first term on the right-hand side of (13) is asymptotically normal with mean p and variance 2p as conveyed in (10), (12) is valid.

If we confine ourselves to specific distributions, faster rates for p can be established. For example, if the data are normally distributed, the least-squares empirical likelihood ratio is the Hotelling- T^2 statistic, which is shown in Bai & Saranadasa (1996) to be asymptotically normal if $p/n \rightarrow c \in [0, 1)$.

We report results from a simulation study designed to evaluate the asymptotic normality of the empirical likelihood ratio. The $p \times 1$ independent and identically distributed data vectors $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ were generated from a moving average model.

$ \begin{array}{c} x_1 = x_{11} + y \cdot z_{15} \\ \vdots \\ z_p = z_{1p} + p \cdot z_{1p_1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{2p} = z_{2p} + p \cdot z_{2p_1} \\ \end{array} \right) (x_{11} = x_{2p_2} + p \cdot z_{2p_2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{2p} = z_{2p_2} + p \cdot z_{2p_1} \\ \end{array}) \cdots $	$X_{ij} = Z_{ij} + \rho Z_{ij+1}$	$(i=1,\ldots,n,$	$j=1,\ldots,p$),	2 2 = (Zi, Zi) (p41)xh
where for each <i>i</i>	the innovations $\{Z_{ij}\}^{p+1}$	were independe	ent random variabl	es with zero mean

4.

where, for each *i*, the innovations $\{Z_{ij}\}_{j=1}^{p-1}$ were independent random variables with zero mean and unit variance. We considered two distributions for the innovation Z_{ij} . One is the standard normal distribution, and the other is a standardized version of a Pareto distribution with distribution function $(1 - x^{-4.5})I(x \ge 1)$. We standardized the Pareto random variables so that they had zero mean and unit variance. As the Pareto distribution has only four finite moments, we had k = 1 in (4), whereas $k = \infty$ for the normally distributed innovations. In both distributions, X_i is a multivariate random vector with zero mean and covariance $\Sigma = (\sigma_{ij})_{p \times p}$, where $\sigma_{ii} = 1, \sigma_{ii\pm 1} = \rho$ and $\sigma_{ij} = 0$ for |i - j| > 1. We set ρ to be 0.5 throughout the simulation. (',) + (`,) +

To make p and n increase simultaneously, we considered two growth rates for p with respect to n: (i) $p = c_1 n^{0.4}$ and (ii) $p = c_2 n^{0.24}$. We chose the sample size n = 200, 400 and 800. By assigning $c_1 = 3$, 4 and 5 in the faster growth rate setting (i), we obtained three dimensions for each sample size, which were p = 25, 33 and 43 for n = 200; p = 33, 44 and 58 for n = 400; and p = 42, 55 and 72 for n = 800, respectively. For the slower growth rate setting (ii), to maintain a certain amount of increase between successive dimensions when n was increased, we assigned larger $c_2 = 4$, 6 and 8, which led to p = 14, 17 and 20 for n = 200; p = 21, 25 and 30 for n = 400; and p = 29, 34 and 40 for n = 800, respectively.

We carried out 500 simulations for each of the (p, n)-combinations and for each of the two innovation distributions. Figure 1 displays Q-Q plots of standardized empirical likelihood ratio