A PERMUTATION TEST FOR THE STRUCTURE
OF A COVARIANCE MATRIX

By

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A PERMUTATION TEST FOR THE STRUCTURE
OF A COVARIANCE MATRIX

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Many statistical procedures, including repeated measures analysis, time-series, structural equation modeling, and factor analysis, require an assessment of the structure of the covariance matrix of the measurements. For example, consider a repeated measures experiment in which researchers are interested in the effect of various teaching strategies on reading. Throughout the course of the experiment, reading tests are given to children at various time periods and the multiple test scores are recorded for each student. Repeated measurements taken on subjects tend to be correlated; consequently, the assumption of independent observations required by a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) is violated. However, Huynh and Feldt (1970) showed that if the structure of the covariance matrix is of the same form as a type H matrix (described in Section 2.3), a univariate ANOVA can be used. If the covariance matrix is not type H, an alternate analysis must be employed. Therefore, it is necessary to determine the structure of the covariance matrix to know how to proceed with the analysis.

The classical parametric method of testing the hypothesis $\Sigma = \Sigma_0$, where $\Sigma_0$ is some hypothesized covariance structure, involves the use of a likelihood ratio test statistic that converges in distribution to a chi-squared random variable. This test has many limitations, including the need for very large sample sizes and the requirement of a random sample from a multivariate normal population. It is quite reasonable to think of
many situations in which at least one of these conditions is violated. For example, in educational and medical studies, researchers frequently rely on volunteers, violating the assumption of a random sample; in psychological studies, responses are often recorded on Likert scales, violating the assumption of multivariate normality; and in studies in which experimental units are rare or costly, researchers are restricted to very small sample sizes. In situations in which only some or none of these assumptions are met, researchers could benefit from a non-parametric testing procedure. In particular, permutation tests have no distributional assumptions, do not require random samples, and allow any sample size.

The objectives of this research are to develop a permutation testing procedure to test the null hypothesis, $\Sigma = \Sigma_0$, and to investigate the empirical type I error rates and power of this test against various alternative structures. In the following chapters, I will present the motivation for developing such a test. Specifically, in Chapter 2, I will describe the parametric procedures for testing the structure of a covariance matrix, including a discussion of their benefits and limitations; in Chapter 3, I will briefly discuss the use of bootstrapping for estimating or testing the covariance structure; in Chapter 4, I will review the general history and development of permutation tests, including a description of the differences between permutation tests and bootstrapping; in Chapter 5, I will propose a permutation test for the structure of a covariance matrix and will argue as to why such a test would be appropriate and necessary; in Chapter 6, I will describe the evaluation of the proposed test using simulations; in Chapter 7, I will summarize the overall conclusions; and finally, in Chapter 8, I will list some future research questions.
CHAPTER 2

PARAMETRIC TESTS FOR THE STRUCTURE OF A COVARIANCE MATRIX

The classical approach to testing the structure of a covariance matrix involves the use of a likelihood ratio test statistic. Let \( \mathbf{x}_i, \ i = 1, \ldots, n \), be \( p \)-component vectors distributed according to \( N_p(\mathbf{\mu}, \mathbf{\Sigma}) \), where \( \mathbf{\Sigma} \) is positive definite and \( n > p \). The likelihood ratio criterion for testing \( H_0 : \mathbf{\Sigma} = \mathbf{\Sigma}_0 \) versus \( H_a : \mathbf{\Sigma} \neq \mathbf{\Sigma}_0 \) can be found by computing the ratio of the likelihood maximized under the null hypothesis (i.e. with respect to \( \mathbf{\mu} \) and \( \mathbf{\Sigma}_0 \)) to the likelihood maximized under the alternative hypothesis (i.e. with respect to \( \mathbf{\mu} \) and an unrestricted positive definite \( \mathbf{\Sigma} \)). The likelihood function under the alternative hypothesis is given by

\[
L = (2\pi)^{-np/2} |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-n/2} \exp\left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{\mu})' \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{\mu}) \right]
\]

and the corresponding log likelihood function is

\[
\log L = -\frac{1}{2} np \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} n \log |\mathbf{\Sigma}| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{\mu})' \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{\mu}), \quad (2.0.1)
\]

where \( \log \) is assumed base \( e \). Since \( \log L \) is an increasing function of \( L \), the values that maximize (2.0.1) are equivalent to the values that maximize \( L \). To maximize (2.0.1) with respect to \( \mathbf{\mu} \) and \( \mathbf{\Sigma} \), consider the following lemma given by Anderson (2003).
Lemma 2.0.1. Let $x_i, i=1,...,n$, be $p$-component vectors, and let $\overline{x}$ be the corresponding sample mean vector. Then for any vector $b$

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - b)(x_i - b)' = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(x_i - \overline{x})' + n(\overline{x} - b)(\overline{x} - b)'.
\]

Applying the properties of the trace of a matrix (tr(•)) and lemma 2.0.1 to just the last term of (2.0.1) gives

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (x_i - \mu) = \text{tr} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (x_i - \mu) \right]
= \text{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)(x_i - \mu)' \right]
= \text{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(x_i - \overline{x})' \right] + \text{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} n(\overline{x} - \mu)(\overline{x} - \mu)' \right]
= \text{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(x_i - \overline{x})' \right] + n(\overline{x} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (\overline{x} - \mu).
\]

Therefore, (2.0.1) can be written as

\[
\log L = -\frac{1}{2} np \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} n \log(|\Sigma|)
- \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(x_i - \overline{x})' \right] - \frac{1}{2} n(\overline{x} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (\overline{x} - \mu). \tag{2.0.2}
\]

To maximize $\log L$ with respect to $\mu$, it is only necessary to consider the last term of (2.0.2). Since $\Sigma$ is positive definite, $\Sigma^{-1}$ is also positive definite. Therefore,

\[-\frac{1}{2} n(\overline{x} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (\overline{x} - \mu) \leq 0 \text{ and is maximized at 0 if and only if } \mu = \overline{x}.\]

Consequently, the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of $\mu$ is $\hat{\mu} = \overline{x}$. Substituting $\overline{x}$ for $\mu$, (2.0.2) simplifies to

\[
\log L = -\frac{1}{2} np \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} n \log(|\Sigma|) - \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left[ \Sigma^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(x_i - \overline{x})' \right]. \tag{2.0.3}
\]
To find the MLE of $\Sigma$, consider another lemma given by Anderson (2003).

**Lemma 2.0.2.** If $D$ is positive definite of order $p$, the maximum of

$$f(G) = -n \log \left| G \right| - \text{tr} \left( G^{-1} D \right)$$

with respect to positive definite matrices $G$ exists and occurs at $G = (1/n) D$.

To maximize (2.0.3) with respect to $\Sigma$ it is only necessary to consider the second and third terms. Applying lemma 2.0.2 to these terms gives the MLE of $\Sigma$,

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x}) (x_i - \bar{x})'.$$

These MLEs for $\mu$ and $\Sigma$ along with the MLEs found under various null hypotheses can be used to compute likelihood ratio statistics for parametrically testing the structure of a covariance matrix. Specific test statistics for various covariance structures are outlined in the sections to follow.

### 2.1 TESTS OF SPHERICITY

Consider first the test of sphericity proposed by Mauchly (1940). A $p$-variate population is called spherical if the variances of the variables are all equal and the pairwise correlations among the variables are all zero. Specifically, this is a test of the null hypothesis $\Sigma = \sigma^2 I$, where $I_{p}$ is the $p \times p$ identity matrix and $\sigma^2$ is the hypothesized common variance among the variables. This hypothesis applies to many univariate procedures, such as ANOVA, in which it is assumed that a set of random
variables are independent and have a common variance. To test this assumption, the likelihood ratio criterion given by

$$\lambda_s = \frac{\max_{\mu, \Sigma} L(\mu, \Sigma)}{\max_{\mu, \Sigma^{\prime}} L(\mu, \Sigma)}$$

can be computed. As shown previously, the MLE of $\mu$ does not depend on the specific form of $\Sigma$; therefore, the MLEs of $\mu$ and $\Sigma$, in both the numerator and denominator of $\lambda_s$, are given by

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})'.$$

To find the MLE of $\sigma^2$, consider the following. Under the null hypothesis, the log likelihood function is

$$\log L_s = -\frac{1}{2} np \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} np \log \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)'(x_i - \mu)$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.1.1)

and the partial derivative of (2.1.1) with respect to $\sigma^2$ is

$$\frac{\partial \log L_s}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{np}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)'(x_i - \mu). \hspace{1cm} (2.1.2)$$

Substituting $\bar{x}$ for $\mu$ and setting (2.1.2) equal to 0 gives the MLE of $\sigma^2$,

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{np} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})'(x_i - \bar{x}).$$

Then, the likelihood ratio criterion for testing $\Sigma_s = \sigma^2 I_p$ becomes

$$\lambda_s = \frac{(2\pi)^{-np/2} |\hat{\Sigma}|^{n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})'(\hat{\Sigma}^2 I_p)^{-1}(x_i - \bar{x}) \right] \hat{\Sigma}^{n/2}}{(2\pi)^{-np/2} |\hat{\Sigma}|^{n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})'\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}(x_i - \bar{x}) \right] (\hat{\Sigma}^2)^{np/2}}$$
since
\[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x}) = \text{tr} \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x}) \right] \]
\[= \text{tr} \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})' \right] \]
\[= \text{tr} \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \left(n \hat{\Sigma}\right) \right] \]
\[= -\frac{np}{2} \]
\[= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(n \sigma^2 \right) \]
\[= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \left(\hat{\sigma}^2 I\right)^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x}). \quad (2.1.3)\]

\[\lambda_{S}^{2/n} \] is often called the \(W\) statistic in the literature and is usually expressed as
\[W = \frac{\left| \hat{\Sigma} \right|}{\left(\hat{\sigma}^2\right)^p} = \left(\frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \hat{\sigma}_j\right)^p = \left(\frac{1}{p} \text{tr} (\hat{\Sigma})\right)^p \quad (2.1.4)\]

where \(\hat{\sigma}_j\) is the \(j^{th}\) diagonal element of \(\hat{\Sigma}\) which corresponds to the variance of the \(j^{th}\) variable.

To use \(W\) for hypothesis testing, it is necessary to know its distribution. Mauchly (1940) gave the exact distribution of \(W\) for \(p = 2\) and Consul (1967a) for \(p = 3, 4,\) and 6. Nagarsenker and Pillai (1973a, 1973b) derived the exact distribution of \(W\) in series form and have published tables of 1% and 5% critical values for various combinations of \(p\) and \(n\). However, due to the complexity of the exact distribution, the asymptotic distribution of \(W\) is most commonly used in practice. Similar to other likelihood ratio criteria, \(-n \log W\) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with
\[\frac{1}{2} p \left(p + 1\right) - 1 \quad (2.1.5)\]
degrees of freedom. This approximation works well for large sample sizes, but performs poorly for small sample sizes. Therefore, Anderson (2003), using a method derived by Box (1949), found a correction factor such that \(- (n - 1) C \log W\) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with the same degrees of freedom as above, where

\[
C = 1 - \frac{2p^2 + p + 2}{6p(n-1)}.
\]

(2.1.6)

Many authors have found, through Monte Carlo simulation, that Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity has poor power and is not robust to non-normality. Box (1954) developed a measure of the degree to which a covariance matrix is spherical. He called this measure \(\varepsilon\), given by

\[
\varepsilon = \frac{\left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} \lambda_j\right)^2}{p \sum_{j=1}^{p} \lambda_j^2},
\]

where \(\lambda_j, j = 1, \ldots, p\), are the eigenvalues of \(\Sigma\). If \(\Sigma\) is spherical, all of the eigenvalues are equal and \(\varepsilon = 1\). The further \(\Sigma\) departs from sphericity, the smaller the value of \(\varepsilon\) becomes until \(\varepsilon\) reaches its minimum at \(1/(p - 1)\). For \(p = 4\), Boik (1975) found that \(\varepsilon\) must be as low as 0.644 for \(n = 18\) and 0.828 for \(n = 36\) before the power of Mauchly’s test of sphericity is greater than 0.70. Cornell, et al. (1992) found similar results. For \(p = 3\), \(\varepsilon\) was 0.51 for \(n = 10\) and 0.77 for \(n = 30\) before the power exceeded 0.70; and for \(p = 5\), \(\varepsilon\) was 0.43 for \(n = 10\) and 0.5 for \(n = 30\) before the power exceeded 0.70. Therefore, it appears that this test does not have the ability to detect small departures
from sphericity, for which the univariate ANOVA $F$-tests are susceptible (Boik, 1981; Box, 1954; Geisser & Greenhouse, 1958).

Other studies have explored the effects of non-normality on Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity. Huynh & Mandeville (1979) simulated data from three different light-tailed distributions (the uniform distribution on (0,1), the convolution of two uniforms forming a triangular distribution, and the convolution of three uniforms forming a trapezoidal distribution) and five different heavy-tailed distributions (the distribution of the product of a uniform random variable and a standard normal random variable, the double exponential distribution, and three mixtures of two standard normal distributions). They found that Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity is conservative in terms of the type I error rate for light-tailed distributions; however, the type I error rates are much larger than the respective nominal rates for heavy-tailed distributions. Also, as the sample size increases, the test becomes more conservative for light-tailed distributions and less conservative for heavy-tailed distributions. Another study by Keselman, et al. (1980) presented simulated data from a chi-squared distribution with 3 degrees of freedom for which the type I error rate was 0.203, well above the nominal rate of 0.05.

One alternative parametric test of sphericity is the locally best invariant test developed by John (1971, 1972) and Sugiura (1972). The test statistic is

$$V = \frac{\text{tr}(\hat{\Sigma}^2)}{\left[ \text{tr}(\hat{\Sigma}) \right]^2}$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.1.7)

and Sugiura showed that

$$\frac{p^2n}{2} \left\{ V - \frac{1}{p} \right\}$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.1.8)
is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with $\frac{1}{2} p(p+1) - 1$ degrees of freedom. This test has slightly greater power than Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity, with the difference increasing as $p$ approaches $n$. However, this test still suffers from a lack of power to detect small departures from sphericity (Carter & Srivastava, 1983; Cornell et al., 1992).

In addition to Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity and the locally best invariant test, several other tests of sphericity exist. One such statistic developed by Krishnaiah and Waikar (1972) consists of the ratio of the largest to smallest eigenvalues of $\hat{\Sigma}$ and another family of test statistics is based on Roy’s union-intersection principle (Khatri, 1978; Srivastava & Khatri, 1979; Venables, 1976). In each case, however, the power is smaller than for Mauchly’s test of sphericity (Cornell et al., 1992). Therefore, the details of these tests will not be discussed here.

### 2.2 TEST OF COMPOUND SYMMETRY

Independence between variables is actually too restrictive an assumption for a valid univariate ANOVA. It has been shown that the compound symmetry covariance structure is sufficient (Box, 1950). This structure arises when the variances of the variables are all equal and the covariances (or pairwise correlations) of the variables are all equal. Wilks (1946) was the first to develop a test for compound symmetry structure. In matrix notation, this is a test of the null hypothesis $\Sigma_{CS} = \sigma^2 [(1-\rho)I_p + \rho 1_p 1_p^T]$, where $\sigma^2$ is the common variance, $\rho$ is the common pairwise correlation, $I_p$ is the $p \times p$ identity matrix, and $1_p$ is a $p \times 1$ vector of ones.
The derivation of this test is an extension of Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity.

The likelihood ratio criterion is given by

\[ \lambda_{CS} = \frac{\max_{\mu, \Sigma} L(\mu, \Sigma_{CS})}{\max_{\mu, \Sigma} L(\mu, \Sigma)} \]  

(2.2.1)

and the MLEs of \( \mu \) and \( \Sigma \) in both the numerator and denominator of \( \lambda_{CS} \) can be found as shown at the beginning of Chapter 2. That is,

\[ \hat{\mu} = \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})' \]

To find the MLEs of \( \sigma^2 \) and \( \rho \), it will be necessary to determine the inverse of the covariance matrix under the null hypothesis. Call this matrix \( \Sigma_{CS}^{-1} \). Wilks (1946) showed that

\[ \Sigma_{CS}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B & \cdots & B \\ B & A & \cdots & B \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ B & B & \cdots & A \end{bmatrix} \]

where

\[ A = \frac{1+(p-2)\rho}{\sigma^2(1-\rho)(1+(p-1)\rho)} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \frac{-\rho}{\sigma^2(1-\rho)(1+(p-1)\rho)}. \]

He also noted that \( \left| \Sigma_{CS} \right|^{-1} = (A - B)^{p-1}(A + (p-1)B). \) Therefore, the log likelihood, under the null hypothesis, becomes

\[ \log L_{CS} = -\frac{1}{2} np \log(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} n \log \left( (A - B)^{p-1}(A + (p-1)B) \right) \]

\[ -\frac{1}{2} \left[ A \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_{ij} - \mu_j)^2 + B \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j,k=1}^{p} (x_{ij} - \mu_j)(x_{ik} - \mu_k) \right] \]
where \( x_{ij} \) and \( \mu_j \) are the \( j^{th} \) elements of \( x \) and \( \mu \), respectively. The MLEs of \( A \) and \( B \) can be found by substituting \( \bar{x} \) for \( \mu \) and solving the system of equations given by

\[
\frac{\partial \log L_{CS}}{\partial A} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \log L_{CS}}{\partial B} = 0.
\]

This results in the following MLEs of \( A \) and \( B \),

\[
\hat{A} = \frac{1 + (p-2)r}{s^2 (1-r)(1+(p-1)r)} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{B} = \frac{-r}{s^2 (1-r)(1+(p-1)r)}
\]

where

\[
s_{jk} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j)(x_{ik} - \bar{x}_k), \quad r = \frac{\sum_{j,k=1}^{p} s_{jk}}{(p-1)\sum_{j=1}^{p} s_{jj}}, \quad \text{and} \quad s^2 = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} s_{jj}}{p}.
\]

Substituting these MLEs into (2.2.1) and applying a similar argument to that shown in (2.1.3) we obtain

\[
\lambda_{CS} = \frac{(2\pi)^{-p/2} \left[ (\hat{A} - \hat{B})^{p-1} (\hat{A} + (p-1)\hat{B}) \right]^{n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \hat{\Sigma}_{CS}^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x}) \right]}{(2\pi)^{-p/2} \left| \hat{\Sigma} \right|^{-n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x}) \right]}
\]

\[
= \left| \hat{\Sigma} \right|^{n/2} \left[ (\hat{A} - \hat{B})^{p-1} (\hat{A} + (p-1)\hat{B}) \right]^{n/2}
\]

\[
= \left| \hat{\Sigma} \right|^{n/2} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{s^2 (1-r)} \right)^{p-1} \left( \frac{1}{s^2 (1+(p-1)r)} \right) \right]^{n/2}
\]

\[
= \left[ \left( s^2 \right)^p (1-r)^{p-1} (1+(p-1)r) \right]^{-n/2}
\]

Wilks (1946) determined the exact distribution of \( \lambda_{CS}^{2/n} \) for \( p = 2 \) and 3.

However, the derivation of the exact distribution for larger values of \( p \) is too complex to
be of practical use. Therefore, the asymptotic distribution is more commonly used.

Specifically, \(-n \log \frac{\lambda_{CS}^2}{n}\) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with \(\frac{1}{2} p(p + 1) - 2\) degrees of freedom. As with other likelihood ratio tests, this is a good approximation for large sample sizes, but is very poor for small sample sizes.

Therefore, the corrected likelihood ratio test derived by Box (1950) is preferred. Box found that \(-(n - 1)C \log \frac{\lambda_{CS}^2}{n}\) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with the same degrees of freedom as above, where

\[
C = 1 - \frac{p(p + 1)^2 (2p - 3)}{6(n - 1)(p - 1)(p^2 + p - 4)}.
\]

2.3 TEST OF TYPE H STRUCTURE

Huynh and Feldt (1970) and Rouanet and Lepine (1970) showed independently that the conditions required for a valid univariate ANOVA are actually less stringent than the sphericity or compound symmetry conditions. Specifically, they found that if the covariance matrix is of the form

\[
\Sigma_{TH} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{ij} \\ \end{bmatrix}_{p \times p},
\]

(2.3.1)

where \(\sigma_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{ii} + \sigma_{jj}) - \gamma\) for \(i \neq j\) and some \(\gamma > 0\), then the mean square ratios in the univariate ANOVA have exact \(F\)-distributions. Huynh and Feldt called this covariance form a type H matrix. (Notice that when the variances are equal in a type H matrix, the covariance matrix has compound symmetry.) More recently, type H structure has come to be known as spherical. However, since both forms will be discussed separately in this
paper, the covariance structure of Section 2.1 will be referred to as spherical and that of this section will be referred to as type H.

Conveniently, Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity described in Section 2.1 can be used to test whether a covariance matrix has the type H structure (Kuehl, 2000). Let \( C \) be a \((p-1) \times p\) matrix whose rows are normalized orthogonal contrasts on the \( p \) repeated measures. If \( \Sigma \) is of type H then \( \Sigma \) can be expressed as \( \Sigma = A + A' + \gamma I_p \) where the elements in the \( i \)th row of \( A \) are equal to \( a_i = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_{ii} - \gamma) \). Then,

\[
\Sigma \Sigma' = CA C' + CA C' + \lambda CC'.
\]

Since each row of \( A \) consists of equivalent elements and \( C \) is orthogonal, it can be shown that \( AC' = CA' = 0 \) and \( CC' = I_{p-1} \). Therefore, \( \Sigma \Sigma' = \gamma I_{p-1} \) and Mauchly’s test of sphericity can be used to test \( H_0 : \Sigma \Sigma' = \gamma I_{p-1} \) versus \( H_a : \Sigma \Sigma' \neq \gamma I_{p-1} \). Substituting \( p - 1 \) for \( p \) and \( \hat{\Sigma} C' \) for \( \hat{\Sigma} \) in (2.1.4), (2.1.5), and (2.1.6), the test statistic is

\[
W = \left( \frac{1}{p-1} \text{tr}(\hat{\Sigma} C') \right)^{-p-1} \mathbb{E}(\hat{\Sigma} C')
\]

and \(-n \log W\) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with \( \frac{1}{2} p (p-1) - 1 \) degrees of freedom, or after applying a correction factor, \(- (n - 1) C \log W\) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with the same degrees of freedom as above, where

\[
C = 1 - \frac{2p^2 - 3p + 3}{6(p-1)(n-1)}.
\]  

(2.3.2)

Just as for the test of sphericity, there are alternative tests for type H covariance structure, including a locally best invariant test. Substituting \( p - 1 \) for \( p \) and \( \hat{\Sigma} C' \) for
\( \Sigma \) in (2.1.7) and (2.1.8) yields the corresponding test statistic and asymptotic distribution. Krishnaiah and Waikar’s (1972) test and the union-intersection tests described in Section 2.1 can also be adapted to test for type H structure. All of these tests, however, suffer from the same limitations as the tests of sphericity. They have poor power, especially to detect small departures from type H structure, and are not robust to non-normality.

### 2.4 TEST OF SERIAL CORRELATION

For designs, such as repeated-measures, in which one of the factors is time, observations closer together temporally tend to be more highly correlated than those farther apart. This covariance pattern is known as serial correlation, simplex, or autoregressive of order one and has the form

\[
\Sigma_{sc} = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2} \begin{bmatrix}
1 & \rho & \rho^2 & \cdots & \rho^{p-1} \\
\rho & 1 & \rho & \cdots & \rho^{p-2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\rho^{p-1} & \rho^{p-2} & \rho^{p-3} & \cdots & 1 
\end{bmatrix},
\]

(2.4.1)

where \( \sigma^2/(1-\rho^2) \) is the common variance of the \( p \) observations and \( \rho \) is the correlation between successive observations in time.

Hearne et al. (1983) developed a likelihood ratio test for the null hypothesis \( \Sigma = \Sigma_{sc} \). The derivation of this test is as follows. The likelihood ratio criterion is given by

\[
\lambda_{sc} = \frac{\max_{\mu, \Sigma_{sc}} L(\mu, \Sigma_{sc})}{\max_{\mu, \Sigma} L(\mu, \Sigma)}
\]

(2.4.2)
where the MLEs of $\mu$ and $\Sigma$ in both the numerator and denominator are

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})'$$

as shown at the beginning of Chapter 2. Before deriving the MLEs of $\sigma^2$ and $\rho$, note that it can be shown $|\Sigma_{SC}| = \sigma^2p/(1-\rho^2)$ and $\Sigma_{SC}^{-1} = (\rho^2C_1 - \rho C_2 + I_p)/\sigma^2$, where $p$, $\sigma^2$, and $\rho$ are as defined previously, $I_p$ is the $p \times p$ identity matrix and $C_1$ and $C_2$ are given by

$$C_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{p \times p} \quad \text{and} \quad C_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{p \times p}.$$ (2.4.3)

Using this notation and substituting $\bar{x}$ for $\mu$, the log-likelihood under the null hypothesis can be expressed as

$$\log L_{SC} = -\frac{1}{2} np \log (2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} n \log |\Sigma_0| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \Sigma_0^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x})$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} np \log (2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} n \log \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{(1-\rho^2)} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \left( \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\rho^2C_1 - \rho C_2 + I_p) \right) (x_i - \bar{x})$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} np \log (2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} np \log \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2} n \log (1-\rho^2) - \frac{\rho^2}{2\sigma^2} S_1 - \frac{\rho}{2\sigma^2} S_2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} S_3,$$

where $S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' C_1 (x_i - \bar{x})$, $S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' C_2 (x_i - \bar{x})$, and $S_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' (x_i - \bar{x})$. Taking the partial derivatives of $\log L_{SC}$ with respect to $\sigma^2$ and $\rho$ yields

$$\frac{\partial \log L_{SC}}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{np}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{\rho^2}{2\sigma^2} S_1 - \frac{\rho}{2\sigma^2} S_2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} S_3$$
and

\[
\frac{\partial \log L_{sc}}{\partial \rho} = -\frac{np}{1-\rho^2} - \frac{\rho}{\sigma^2} S_1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} S_2.
\]

Setting these derivatives equal to zero and solving simultaneously results in

\[
\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{np} \left( S_1 \hat{\rho}^2 - S_2 \hat{\rho} + S_3 \right) \tag{2.4.4}
\]

and

\[
-2S_1 (1-p) \hat{\rho}^3 + S_2 (2-p) \hat{\rho}^2 - 2(S_1p + S_3) \hat{\rho} + S_2p = 0. \tag{2.4.5}
\]

Note that the MLE of \( \sigma^2 \) is easy to obtain once the MLE of \( \rho \) has been determined; however, there are three possible solutions for \( \hat{\rho} \) to equation (2.4.5). To determine the appropriate solution consider the following. Call the left-hand side of (2.4.5) \( f(\hat{\rho}) \). Then,

\[
f(-1) = 2S_1 (1-p) + S_2 (2-p) + 2(S_1p + S_3) + S_2p = 2(S_1 + S_2 + S_3) > 0,
\]

and

\[
f(1) = -2S_1 (1-p) + S_2 (2-p) - 2(S_1p + S_3) + S_2p = -2(S_1 - S_2 + S_3) < 0.
\]

and, consequently, there must be at least one solution in the interval \((-1,1)\). If there is only one solution in \((-1,1)\) then that is the only reasonable solution since the MLE of the correlation between successive observations in time must be in \((-1,1)\). Now note that

\[
f(-\infty) = -\infty \quad \text{and} \quad f(\infty) = \infty.
\]

So, a general plot of \( f(\hat{\rho}) \) would appear as shown in Figure 2.4.1 below with one solution in each of \((-\infty,-1), (-1,1), \) and \((1,\infty)\). Therefore, there is one and only one solution in \((-1,1)\) which is the desired MLE of \( \rho \).
Figure 2.4.1. General Plot of $f(\hat{\rho})$.

Finally, after substituting these MLEs into (2.4.2) and applying an argument similar to (2.1.3), the likelihood ratio criterion becomes

$$
\lambda_{SC} = \frac{(2\pi)^{-np/2} \left( \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{1-p^2} \right)^{-n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \left( \frac{1}{a} (\hat{\rho}^2 C_1 - \hat{\rho} C_2 + I_p) \right) (x_i - \bar{x}) \right]}{(2\pi)^{-np/2} \hat{\Sigma}^{-n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x_i - \bar{x}) \right]} = \frac{\hat{\Sigma}^{-n/2}}{(\frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{1-p^2})^{n/2}}
$$

where $-n \log \lambda_{SC}^{2/n}$ is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with $
 \frac{1}{2} p(p+1) - 2$ degrees of freedom. A correction factor for this likelihood ratio test, similar to those for the tests of sphericity and compound symmetry, is not known to exist, and Hearne and Clark (1983) even go so far as to say that one is not tractable. Therefore, using simulation and simple linear regression, they derived an approximate correction factor given by $\hat{C} = \frac{1}{n} \left( -1.541 + 1.017n - 0.414p \right)$, where $-\hat{C}n \log \lambda_{SC}^{2/n}$ is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with the same degrees of freedom as above.
2.5 TEST OF INDEPENDENCE OF SETS OF VARIATES

In some situations it may be of interest to determine whether \( k \) groups of variables are mutually independent. Let \( \mathbf{x}_i, \; i = 1, \ldots, n, \) be partitioned into \( k \) subvectors with

\[ p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k \quad (\sum p_m = p) \]

components so that \( \mathbf{x}_i = (\mathbf{x}_i^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}_i^{(2)}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_i^{(k)})' \). Also, let \( \mathbf{\mu} \) and \( \Sigma \) be partitioned accordingly;

\[
\mathbf{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix}
\mu^{(1)} \\
\mu^{(2)} \\
\vdots \\
\mu^{(k)}
\end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix}
\Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} & \cdots & \Sigma_{1k} \\
\Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} & \cdots & \Sigma_{2k} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\Sigma_{k1} & \Sigma_{k2} & \cdots & \Sigma_{kk}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

where \( \Sigma_{ij} = \Sigma_{ji}' \). The null hypothesis of interest is that the subvectors \( \mathbf{x}_i^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}_i^{(2)}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_i^{(k)} \) are mutually independent. This is equivalent to testing \( \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{I}_0 \), where

\[
\mathbf{I}_0 = \begin{pmatrix}
0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \Sigma_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \Sigma_{kk}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Wilks (1935) is credited with developing a likelihood ratio criterion for testing this hypothesis. Consider the likelihood ratio criterion given by

\[
\lambda_T = \frac{\max_{\mu, \Sigma_0} L(\mu, \Sigma_0)}{\max_{\mu, \Sigma} L(\mu, \Sigma)}.
\]

As shown at the beginning of Chapter 2, the MLEs of \( \mathbf{\mu} \) and \( \Sigma \) in the numerator and denominator of \( \lambda_T \) are given by

\[
\hat{\mathbf{\mu}} = \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{x})(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{x})',
\]
where \( \bar{\mathbf{x}} \) is partitioned as \( \bar{\mathbf{x}} = (\bar{x}^{(1)}, \bar{x}^{(2)}, \ldots, \bar{x}^{(k)}) \). Under the null hypothesis, the likelihood function becomes

\[
L_I = \prod_{m=1}^{k} L_m \left( \mu^{(m)}, \Sigma_{mm} \right),
\]

where

\[
L_m \left( \mu^{(m)}, \Sigma_{mm} \right) = (2\pi)^{-np_n/2} |\Sigma_{mm}|^{-n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \mathbf{x}_i^{(m)} - \mu^{(m)} \right)' \Sigma_{mm}^{-1} \left( \mathbf{x}_i^{(m)} - \mu^{(m)} \right) \right].
\]

Maximizing \( L_I \) is equivalent to maximizing \( \prod_{m=1}^{k} L_m \left( \mu^{(m)}, \Sigma_{mm} \right) \) and, since the likelihood function is strictly non-negative,

\[
\max_{\mu, \Sigma_{mm}} \prod_{m=1}^{k} L_m \left( \mu^{(m)}, \Sigma_{mm} \right) = \prod_{m=1}^{k} \max_{\mu^{(m)}, \Sigma_{mm}} L_m \left( \mu^{(m)}, \Sigma_{mm} \right).
\]

Therefore, each \( L_m \left( \mu^{(m)}, \Sigma_{mm} \right) \) can be maximized separately. Thus, the MLEs of \( \mu^{(m)} \) and \( \Sigma_{mm} \) can be found as shown at the beginning of Chapter 2. That is,

\[
\hat{\mu}^{(m)} = \bar{x}^{(m)} \text{ and } \hat{\Sigma}_{mm} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \mathbf{x}_i^{(m)} - \bar{x}^{(m)} \right) \left( \mathbf{x}_i^{(m)} - \bar{x}^{(m)} \right)'.
\]

By a similar argument to (2.1.3), the likelihood ratio criterion then becomes

\[
\lambda_J = \prod_{m=1}^{k} \left[ (2\pi)^{-np_n/2} |\hat{\Sigma}_{mm}|^{-n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \mathbf{x}_i^{(m)} - \bar{x}^{(m)} \right)' \hat{\Sigma}_{mm}^{-1} \left( \mathbf{x}_i^{(m)} - \bar{x}^{(m)} \right) \right] \right]^{n/2} = \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{k} |\hat{\Sigma}_{mm}|^{-n/2}}{(2\pi)^{-np_n/2} |\Sigma|^n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \mathbf{x}_i - \bar{x} \right)' \hat{\Sigma}_{mm}^{-1} \left( \mathbf{x}_i - \bar{x} \right) \right].
\]

This can be further reduced by recognizing that each element of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) (and consequently each element of \( \hat{\Sigma}_{mm} \)) can be expressed as \( s_{ij} = r_{ij} \sqrt{s_{ii} s_{jj}} \), where \( s_{ij} \) and \( r_{ij} \) are the sample covariance and sample correlation, respectively, of the \( i^{th} \) and \( j^{th} \) variables. After
calculating the determinants and canceling like terms in the numerator and denominator, \( \lambda_j \) can be expressed entirely in terms of the sample correlation matrix, \( \hat{R} \), as

\[
\lambda_j = \frac{\left| \Sigma^{1/2} \right|}{\prod_{m=1}^{k} |\hat{\Sigma}_{mm}|^{n/2}} = \frac{\left| \hat{R}^{1/2} \right|}{\prod_{m=1}^{k} |\hat{R}_{mm}|^{n/2}}
\]

Wilks (1935), Wald and Brookner (1941), and Consul (1967b) have determined the exact distribution of \( \lambda_j \) for various values of \( k \) and \( p_m \) \( (m = 1, \ldots, k) \). However, the asymptotic distribution determined by Box (1949) is much more practical and is applicable to any combination of \( k \) and \( p_m \). Box (1949) found that \( -n \log \lambda_j^{2/n} \) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with

\[
\frac{1}{2} p(p+1) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m=1}^{k} p_m (p_m + 1) = \frac{1}{2} \left( p^2 - \sum_{m=1}^{k} p_m^3 \right)
\]

degrees of freedom. As with other likelihood ratio tests, this approximation is very poor for small sample sizes. Consequently, Box (1949) derived a correction factor such that \( -(n-1)C \log \lambda_j^{2/n} \) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with the same degrees of freedom as above where

\[
C = 1 - \frac{1}{2(n-1)} - \frac{p^3 - \sum_{m=1}^{k} p_m^3}{3(n-1) \left( p^2 - \sum_{m=1}^{k} p_m^2 \right)}.
\]

2.6 FACTOR ANALYSIS / STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING

Factor analysis is a multivariate procedure in which one tries to account for the covariances among the observed variables by a smaller number of underlying
hypothetical variables, called factors. Let \( x_i, i = 1, \ldots, n \), be \( p \)-component vectors of observations from a population with mean \( \mu \) and covariance matrix \( \Sigma \). The factor analysis model is given by \( x_i = \mu + \Lambda f + e \), where \( f \) is an \( m \times 1 \) \((m < p)\) vector of underlying factors, \( \Lambda \) is a \( p \times m \) matrix of factor loadings, and \( e \) is a \( p \times 1 \) vector of residuals. It is assumed that the underlying factors are independently and identically distributed with mean \( 0 \) and covariance matrix \( I \), that the residuals are independently distributed with mean \( 0 \) and covariance matrix \( \Psi \), and that \( f \) and \( e \) are independent. Therefore,

\[
\text{Cov}(x_i) = \text{Cov}(\mu + \Lambda f + e) \\
= \text{Cov}(\Lambda f) + \text{Cov}(e) \\
= \Lambda I \Lambda' + \Psi \\
= \Lambda \Lambda' + \Psi
\]

In most applications, factor analysis is performed on the centered data, \( x_i - \mu \), since \( \text{Cov}(x_i - \mu) = \text{Cov}(x_i) \). Therefore, for the remainder of this section, the \( p \)-component vector \( x_i \) will represent the centered data.

In factor analysis, the researcher hypothesizes an adequate number of underlying factors, then chooses one of many methods to estimate \( \Lambda \), based on the chosen number of factors. One such method of estimation is the maximum likelihood method. The advantage of using this procedure is, assuming the data come from a multivariate normal population, that it allows the computation of a likelihood ratio test statistic that can be used to test the goodness of fit of the chosen number of factors. This is a test of \( H_0 \): there are \( m \) underlying factors, or in matrix form, \( H_0 : \Sigma = \Lambda \Lambda' + \Psi \). The details of the
derivation of this likelihood ratio test statistic can be found in Lawley & Maxwell (1971).

Briefly, consider the likelihood ratio criterion given by

\[
\lambda_F = \max_{\mu, \Lambda, \Psi} L(\mu, \Sigma_F) = \frac{(2\pi)^{-np/2} |\hat{\Lambda} A' + \hat{\Psi}|^{-n/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} n \text{tr} \left( \hat{\Sigma} (\hat{\Lambda} A' + \hat{\Psi})^{-1} \right) \right\}}{(2\pi)^{-np/2} |\hat{\Sigma}|^{-n/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} n \text{tr} \left( \hat{\Sigma} \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \right) \right\}}
\]

where \( \hat{\Lambda}, \hat{\Psi}, \) and \( \hat{\Sigma} \) are the MLE’s of \( \Lambda, \Psi, \) and \( \Sigma, \) respectively. The MLE of \( \Sigma \) can be found as shown at the beginning of Chapter 2. Namely,

\[
\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})'.
\]

Typically, the MLE’s of \( \Lambda \) and \( \Psi \) are derived by maximizing the log-likelihood function with respect to \( \Lambda \) and \( \Psi. \) However, Lawley and Maxwell (1971) state that it is more convenient to minimize

\[
-2 \log \lambda_F^* = n \left[ \log |\Lambda A' + \Psi| + \text{tr} \left( S (\Lambda A' + \Psi)^{-1} \right) - \log |S| - p \right]
\]

where the * indicates that the unbiased sample covariance matrix, \( S, \) is used in place of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) in \( \lambda_F. \) Minimizing \( -2 \log \lambda_F^* \) instead of maximizing

\[
\log L_F = -\frac{1}{2} np \log(2\pi) -\frac{1}{2} n \log |\Lambda A' + \Psi| -\frac{1}{2} n \text{tr} \left( \hat{\Sigma} (\Lambda A' + \Psi)^{-1} \right)
\]

is acceptable since they differ by a constant, \( -\frac{1}{2} np \log(2\pi), \) and a function of the data, \( -\log |S| - p, \) and the remaining terms of \( \log L_F \) are just \(-1/2\) times the corresponding terms of \( -2 \log \lambda_F^*. \) The only other difference between \( \log L_F \) and \( -2 \log \lambda_F^* \) is in the use
of \( S \) in \(-2\log \hat{\lambda}\) rather than \( \hat{\Sigma} \). Since \( S = \frac{n}{n-1} \hat{\Sigma} \), these matrices will be essentially equivalent for large \( n \).

To find \( \hat{\Lambda} \) and \( \hat{\Psi} \) let \( \sigma_{ij} \) and \( \lambda_{ij} \) be the elements in the \( i \)th row and \( j \)th column of \( \Sigma \) and \( \Lambda \), respectively. Also, let \( \psi_i \) be the \( i \)th diagonal element of \( \Psi \). (The non-diagonal elements of \( \Psi \) are all zero, since the residuals are independently distributed.) Then,

\[
\sigma_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \lambda_{ik}^2 + \psi_i \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \lambda_{ik} \lambda_{jk}, \quad i \neq j,
\]

and the MLE’s of \( \Lambda \) and \( \Psi \) can be found by setting the following expressions equal to zero and solving simultaneously for \( \lambda_{ij} \) and \( \psi_i \):

\[
\frac{\partial \log L_F}{\partial \lambda_{ij}} = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left( \frac{\partial \log L_F}{\partial \sigma_{ij}} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_{ij}}{\partial \lambda_{ij}} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \log L_F}{\partial \psi_i} = \frac{\partial \log L_F}{\partial \sigma_{ii}} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_{ii}}{\partial \psi_i}.
\]

In most cases, these equations cannot be solved directly. Therefore, an iterative numerical procedure, such as Newton-Raphson, scoring, or steepest descent must be used to find the MLE’s.

To perform this likelihood ratio test, we must know how the test statistic is distributed. Lawley and Maxwell (1971) found that \(-2\log \lambda\) is asymptotically distributed as a chi-squared random variable with \( \frac{1}{2} \left[ (p - m)^2 - (p + m) \right] \) degrees of freedom. For many years, this likelihood ratio test was the primary criterion used to determine the goodness of fit of the hypothesized number of factors. However, in the early 1980’s researchers discovered through Monte Carlo simulation that in large
samples, good-fitting models were rejected too often, and in small samples the type I error rates were too large and power was very poor (Gerbing & Anderson, 1993).
CHAPTER 3
BOOTSTRAPPING

At least one non-parametric procedure has been applied to the problem of testing the structure of a covariance matrix. Specifically, bootstrapping has been used to estimate the distribution of the likelihood ratio test statistic used in structural equation modeling. Consider testing the hypothesis $H_0 : \Sigma = \Sigma(\theta)$, where $\Sigma(\theta)$ is the hypothesized covariance structure expressed as a function of the vector of parameters, $\theta$. To perform a bootstrap test, the resampling must be done from a bootstrap population with covariance structure specified by the null hypothesis. Therefore, the observed data must be transformed as follows before resampling (Bollen & Stine, 1993). Let $X$ be the $n \times p$ matrix of centered data, let $S = XX'/(n-1)$ denote the sample covariance matrix of $X$, and let $\hat{\Sigma} = \Sigma(\hat{\theta})$ be the estimated hypothesized covariance structure. Also, let $M^{1/2}$ denote the lower triangular matrix resulting from the Cholesky decomposition of a positive definite matrix $M$. Then, the sample covariance matrix of $Y = XS^{-1/2} \hat{\Sigma}^{1/2}$ is given by
\[
\frac{1}{n-1} \mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{Y} = \frac{1}{n-1} \left( \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \right) \left( \mathbf{S}^{-1/2} \right)' \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \mathbf{S}^{-1/2} \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \\
= \left( \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \right)' \left( \mathbf{S}^{-1/2} \right)' \mathbf{S} \mathbf{S}^{-1/2} \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \\
= \left( \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \right)' \left( \mathbf{S}^{1/2} \right)' \mathbf{S}^{1/2} \mathbf{S}^{-1/2} \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \\
= \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \hat{\mathbf{S}}^{1/2} \\
= \hat{\mathbf{S}}.
\]

Therefore, the transformed data matrix, \( \mathbf{Y} \), has sample covariance structure \( \hat{\mathbf{S}} \).

To find the bootstrap distribution of the likelihood ratio test statistic, resample the rows of the transformed data matrix, \( \mathbf{Y} \), with replacement, compute the sample covariance matrix \( \mathbf{S}^* \) of the resampled data, find the MLE’s of the parameters based on the resampled data, and compute the likelihood ratio test statistic for the resampled data. When the null hypothesis is true, the bootstrap distribution is approximately the same as the distribution of the likelihood ratio test statistic, and a \( p \)-value can be computed by dividing the number of bootstrap samples resulting in a test statistic value at least as large as the one resulting from the observed data by the total number of bootstrap samples.
Permutation tests have long been studied as alternatives to parametric procedures when the assumptions of such procedures are violated. The idea behind permutation tests is to generate the sampling distribution of a test statistic from the values obtained by calculating the test statistic for all possible permutations of the data under the null hypothesis. Consider a simple example given by Edgington (1995). Suppose five subjects are randomly assigned to two treatments, A and B, with the following results.

A: 18, 30, 54  B: 6, 12

We wish to test the null hypothesis of no difference in the treatment means. Assuming this null hypothesis is true, we would expect each subject to have the same result regardless of their treatment assignment. Therefore, under the null hypothesis, there are \( \binom{5}{3} = 10 \) possible arrangements of subjects to treatments, where \( \binom{n}{k} \) is the number of combinations of \( k \) items chosen from a total of \( n \) items. These arrangements, as well as the corresponding test statistic values, are displayed in Table 4.0.1. In this example, the test statistic is the absolute value of the pooled \( t \)-test statistic (displayed as \( |t| \) in Table 4.0.1).
Table 4.0.1. All Possible Permutations of the Observed Data

| Trt A    | Trt B    | $|t|$ |
|----------|----------|------|
| 18, 30, 54 | 6, 12    | 1.81 |
| 6, 12, 18 | 30, 54   | 3.00 |
| 6, 12, 30 | 18, 54   | 1.22 |
| 6, 12, 54 | 18, 30   | 0.00 |
| 6, 18, 30 | 12, 54   | 0.83 |
| 6, 18, 54 | 12, 30   | 0.25 |
| 6, 30, 54 | 12, 18   | 0.83 |
| 12, 18, 30| 6, 54    | 0.52 |
| 12, 18, 54| 6, 30    | 0.52 |
| 12, 30, 54| 6, 18    | 1.22 |

The distribution of the test statistic values calculated from each possible permutation of the data is the sampling distribution of the test statistic. Consequently, a $p$-value can be found by dividing the number of observations greater than or equal to the test statistic value obtained from the observed data, by the total number of permutations of the data under the null hypothesis. In this example, the $p$-value is $2/10 = 0.20$ since there are two values of $|t|$ that are greater than or equal to 1.81 (bolded numbers in Table 4.0.1), the value obtained from the observed data. Notice that the 1.81 corresponds to the most significant data configuration in which the value for treatment A is greater than that of treatment B and the 3.00 corresponds to the most significant data configuration in which the value for treatment A is less than that of treatment B. Therefore, a one-tailed $p$-value is $1/10 = 0.10$.

Fisher (1971) is often credited with developing the first permutation tests; however, Edgington (1995) claims that permutation tests based on the ranks of data have been used since the 1880’s. Even if Fisher was not the first to develop permutation tests
in general, he was the first to suggest permuting the raw data as opposed to the ranks of the data. He is also responsible for generating considerable interest in the merits of permutation tests, namely the lack of distributional assumptions required by parametric tests. Fisher (1971) writes, “The utility of such non-parametric (permutation) tests consists in their being able to supply confirmation whenever, rightly or, more often, wrongly, it is suspected that the simpler (parametric) tests have been appreciably injured by departures from normality” (p. 48). Fisher (1936) even goes on to write in a later article that conclusions from parametric tests “have no justification beyond the fact that they agree with those which could have been arrived at by this elementary method (permutation tests)” (p. 59).

Although Fisher (1971) showed that permutation tests eliminate the need for normality, it was another statistician, Pitman (1937a, 1937b, 1938), who recognized that permutation tests also eliminate the need for random samples. In these three papers, Pitman developed much of the theory of permutation tests and showed that random sampling is not necessary for a valid test. Rather, random assignment of experimental units to treatments is sufficient.

Given the benefits of permutation tests, one would assume that the majority of analyses would be performed utilizing these procedures. However, the ability to determine the test statistic value for all possible permutations of the observed data was virtually impossible (except for the smallest sample sizes) due to the lack of computer technology in Fisher’s and Pitman’s day. Consequently, permutation tests based on ranks continued to be developed, since these tests do not require the generation of a new
sampling distribution for each new set of observed data. Tables exhibiting critical values were readily available for such tests.

It took significant improvements in technology before interest in permutation tests based on raw data was renewed; however, the computing time required to generate all possible permutations of the data was, and still is, prohibitive except for the smallest sample sizes. Finally, in 1957, Dwass proposed “the almost obvious procedure of examining a ‘random sample’ of permutations and making the decision to accept or reject (the null hypothesis) on the basis of those permutations only” (p. 182). He called this new class of tests randomization tests and found that the power of these tests is ‘close’ to the power of the corresponding permutation tests. In his 1957 paper, Dwass restricts attention to the two sample case, but indicates that these randomization tests can be applied in more general situations.

In more recent years, Edgington (1995), Manly (1997), and Good (1994) have applied permutation and randomization tests to factorial designs, randomized block designs, and multivariate designs, among others. Several statisticians have even used permutation tests to test the equality of correlation or covariance matrices from multiple populations (Krzanowski, 1993; Shipley, 2000; Zhu, Ng, & Jing, 2003). However, neither permutation nor randomization tests have been applied to testing the structure of a covariance matrix.

As a side note, permutation tests are very similar to bootstrapping described in Chapter 3. The primary difference is that in bootstrapping the resampling is done with replacement, whereas in permutation tests the resampling is done without replacement. Because of this, permutation tests are exact and unbiased, whereas Good (1994) writes,
“The bootstrap is neither exact nor conservative. Generally, but not always, a nonparametric bootstrap is less powerful than a permutation test… If the observations are independent and from distributions with identical values of the parameter of interest, then the bootstrap is asymptotically exact” (p. 20).
Recognizing the benefits of permutation tests and the limitations of parametric procedures for testing the structure of a covariance matrix, it is the purpose of this research to develop a permutation test for the structure of a covariance matrix. To develop such a test, it must be established that the observations are exchangeable under the null hypothesis. Good (2002) gives a simple definition of exchangeability. He writes that observations are considered exchangeable if, “under the (null) hypothesis, the joint distribution of the observations is invariant under permutations of the subscripts” (p. 243). He then goes on to say

“It is easy to see that a set of i.i.d. variables is exchangeable. Or that the joint distribution of a set of normally distributed random variables whose covariance matrix is such that all diagonal elements have the same value $\sigma^2$ and all of the off-diagonal elements have the same value $\rho$ is invariant under permutations of the variable subscripts” (p. 244).

Good (2002) focuses on permuting variable subscripts rather than the actual observations so as to include permutation tests in which residuals are permuted, but these conditions for exchangeability also apply to cases in which the raw data are permuted. It will be argued in the following sections that all of the proposed permutation tests satisfy at least one of the criteria for exchangeability given by Good.
Before describing the permutation tests for the structure of a covariance matrix, note that covariance matrices are invariant to changes in location. Therefore, it will be assumed throughout this chapter that the variable means are all equal. If the variable means are unequal or it is unknown whether the means are equal, the raw data can easily be centered by calculating \( x_i - \mu \) or \( x_i - \bar{x} \) depending on whether \( \mu \) is assumed known or unknown, respectively. This centering is necessary to eliminate the effect of the mean vector when permuting the data. For example, consider a situation in which two variables are assumed to have equal variances, but one has a mean of 100 and the other a mean of 1. If the values were permuted between the variables, the assumption of equal variances would be violated since the relatively ‘large’ values of the first variable would be combined with the relatively ‘small’ values of the second. This problem, however, can be remedied without affecting the variance or covariance assumptions by centering the raw data as described above.

5.1 PERMUTATION TESTS OF SPHERICITY AND COMPOUND SYMMETRY

Consider first a permutation test for compound symmetry. Let \( x_i, i = 1, \ldots, n \), be equally distributed, \( p \)-variate vectors of observations taken on \( n \) subjects. We wish to test

\[ H_0: \Sigma = \Sigma_{cs} \]

where \( \Sigma \) is the covariance matrix of the distribution of \( x_i \),

\[ \Sigma_{cs} = \sigma^2 \left[ (1 - \rho) I_p + \rho \mathbf{1}_p \mathbf{1}_p' \right], \quad (5.1.1) \]

\( \sigma^2 \) is the common population variance, \( \rho \) is the common pairwise correlation, \( I_p \) is the \( p \times p \) identity matrix, and \( \mathbf{1}_p \) is a \( p \times 1 \) vector of ones. Under the null hypothesis, the variances are assumed equal and the pairwise correlations are assumed equal, but no
distributional assumptions have been made. To completely satisfy one of the conditions for exchangeability given previously, we would also need to assume joint normality.

However, the simulation results shown in Chapter 6 indicate that this assumption might be too strict. It does not appear necessary to assume joint normality, but rather that each of the marginal distributions is from the same family of distributions, i.e. all uniform, all exponential, etc. Consequently, the values within each vector \( \mathbf{x}_i \) can be permuted without altering the covariance matrix.

Before developing a test statistic, it is necessary to discuss the estimation of \( \sigma^2 \) and \( \rho \). Consider using the MLEs. Call these \( s^2 = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} s^2_j \) and

\[
r = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}p(p+1)} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \sum_{k=j+1}^{p} r_{jk},
\]

where \( s^2_j \) and \( r_{jk} \) are the usual MLEs of \( \sigma^2_j \) and \( \rho_{jk} \), respectively. Since covariance matrices are symmetric, one possible test statistic can be computed by summing the absolute differences between the elements on or above the diagonal of the covariance matrices obtained from each possible permutation and the elements on or above the diagonal of the covariance matrix estimated as described above.

In matrix notation this test statistic can be expressed as

\[
D = \mathbf{1}' \left( \frac{1}{p(p+1)} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \sum_{k=j+1}^{p} r_{jk} \right) \left( \frac{1}{p(p+1)} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \sum_{k=j+1}^{p} r_{jk} \right) \right)
\]

where \( \mathbf{1} \) is a vector of ones and \( \text{vec}(\mathbf{M}) \) is a vector of the elements on or above the diagonal of a matrix \( \mathbf{M} \). This test statistic is computed for each possible permutation of the data and the proportion of test statistic values greater than or equal to the one obtained from the observed data is the corresponding \( p \)-value. This test for compound symmetry can also be used to test for sphericity by setting \( r = 0 \).
Consider a very simple example of the proposed permutation test in which there are three measurements taken on each of three subjects resulting in the data and sample statistics shown in Table 5.1.1 below. We are interested in testing whether the covariance matrix has the compound symmetry structure. This is equivalent to testing $H_0 : \Sigma = \Sigma_{cs}$ versus $H_a : \Sigma \neq \Sigma_{cs}$, where $\Sigma_{cs}$ is of the form of (5.1.1) and $s^2$ and $r$ are the MLEs of $\sigma^2$ and $\rho$ given by

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} s_j^2 \approx \frac{1}{3} (1.416 + 1.389 + 0.436) \approx 1.080$$

and

$$r = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}p(p-1)} \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \sum_{k=j+1}^{p} r_{jk} \approx \frac{1}{3} (0.69 + 0.99 + 0.79) \approx 0.823 .$$

In this case, since $\mu$ is unknown, the data will be centered by subtracting $x_i - \bar{x}$ for each subject, $i$. This results in the centered data shown in Table 5.1.1. Notice that the sample variances and correlations are invariant to centering.

Table 5.1.1. Observed Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raw Data</th>
<th>Centered Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>-1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\bar{x}_1 = 5.23$  $\bar{x}_2 = 3.13$  $\bar{x}_3 = 1.07$

$s_1^2 = 1.416$  $s_2^2 = 1.389$  $s_3^2 = 0.436$

$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.69 & 0.99 \\ 0.69 & 1 & 0.79 \\ 0.99 & 0.79 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\bar{x}_1 = 0$  $\bar{x}_2 = 0$  $\bar{x}_3 = 0$

$s_1^2 = 1.416$  $s_2^2 = 1.389$  $s_3^2 = 0.436$

$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.69 & 0.99 \\ 0.69 & 1 & 0.79 \\ 0.99 & 0.79 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
In this example, there are \( p! = 3! = 6 \) possible permutations of each row, resulting in \( (p!)^n = 6^3 = 216 \) possible permutations of the observed data. Four of these permutations along with the corresponding test statistic values, \( D \), are displayed in Table 5.1.2 below. The bolded data shown in Table 5.1.2 are the observed data.

Table 5.1.2. Some Permutations of the Centered Observed Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1.17</th>
<th>1.67</th>
<th>0.73</th>
<th></th>
<th>0.73</th>
<th>1.67</th>
<th>1.17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1.63</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>-0.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ D = 1.761422 \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1.17</th>
<th>0.73</th>
<th>1.67</th>
<th></th>
<th>1.17</th>
<th>1.67</th>
<th>0.73</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.87</td>
<td>-1.63</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ D = 2.587289 \]

The \( p \)-value can be found by computing the proportion of test statistic values that are greater than or equal to the one obtained from the observed data. The distribution of the test statistic values is shown in Figure 5.1.1. The vertical line at 1.761422 represents the value of the test statistic resulting from the observed data. In this example, 96 of the 216 possible permutations result in test statistic values greater than or equal to 1.761422. Therefore, the \( p \)-value is \( 96/216 \approx 0.4444 \) and at any reasonable type I error rate there is not enough evidence to conclude that the covariance matrix does not have the compound symmetry structure.
5.2 PERMUTATION TEST OF TYPE H STRUCTURE

The type H covariance structure does not satisfy either of the criteria for exchangeability mentioned previously. Therefore, the transformation described in Section 2.3 can be applied to the data so that the permutation test for sphericity described in Section 5.1 can be used. Specifically, assume we wish to test $H_0 : \Sigma = \Sigma_{TH}$ versus $H_a : \Sigma \neq \Sigma_{TH}$, where $\Sigma_{TH}$ has the form of (2.3.1). Let $C$ be a $(p-1) \times p$ matrix of
normalized orthogonal contrasts on the $p$ repeated measures and let $\mathbf{Y}$ be an $n \times p$ matrix of centered data. Under $H_0$, $\text{Var}(\mathbf{Y}'C) = C\text{Var}(\mathbf{Y})C' = C\Sigma_{yy}C' = \gamma \mathbf{I}_{p-1}$ as shown in Section 2.3. Therefore, the permutation test for sphericity can be applied to the transformed data, $\mathbf{YC}'$.

As an example, return to the sample given in Table 5.1.1. This time we wish to test $H_0 : \Sigma = \Sigma_{yy}$. The matrix of normalized orthogonal contrasts is given by

$$
\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix}
-0.7071068 & 0.7071068 & 0 \\
-0.4082483 & -0.4082483 & 0.8164966
\end{bmatrix}.
$$

Post-multiplying the centered data shown in Table 5.1.1 by $\mathbf{C}'$ yields

$$
\mathbf{YC}' = \begin{bmatrix}
1.17 & 1.67 & 0.73 \\
-1.63 & -0.83 & -0.87 \\
0.47 & -0.83 & 0.13
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
-0.7071 & -0.4082 \\
0.7071 & -0.4082 \\
0 & 0.8165
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
0.3536 & -0.5634 \\
0.5657 & 0.2939 \\
-0.9192 & 0.2531
\end{bmatrix}.
$$

(5.2.1)

The MLE of the covariance matrix of this transformed data is then given by

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
0.4300 & -0.0885 \\
-0.0885 & 0.1559
\end{bmatrix}
$$

and the MLE of $\gamma \mathbf{I}_{p-1}$ is given by

$$
\gamma \mathbf{I}_{p-1} = \begin{bmatrix}
0.29295 & 0 \\
0 & 0.29295
\end{bmatrix}.
$$

The permutation test for sphericity is applied to the transformed data to test $H_0 : \mathbf{C}\Sigma \mathbf{C}' = \gamma \mathbf{I}_{p-1}$ versus $H_a : \mathbf{C}\Sigma \mathbf{C}' \neq \gamma \mathbf{I}_{p-1}$ by finding all possible within row permutations of the transformed data. The test statistic is then calculated by
A p-value can be found by determining the proportion of test statistic values greater than or equal to the one resulting from the original set of transformed data. For the transformed data shown in (5.2.1), there are only \((p!)^n = 2^3 = 8\) possible permutations of which all 8 result in test statistic values greater than or equal to 0.3626011, the test statistic value resulting from the original set of transformed data. Therefore, the p-value is \(8/8 = 1\) and at any reasonable type I error rate there is not enough evidence to conclude that the covariance matrix does not have the type H structure.

One drawback with this permutation test is that the transformed data matrix has only \(p-1\) as opposed to \(p\) columns as in the original data matrix. For large combinations of \(n\) and \(p\) this is not a problem. However, if the combination of \(n\) and \(p\) is small, as in the example shown above, there may be too few possible permutations for the permutation test to be meaningful or even useful at all.

5.3 PERMUTATION TEST OF ALL OTHER COVARIANCE STRUCTURES

Neither of the remaining covariance structures discussed in Chapter 2 (serial correlation and independence of sets of variates) satisfy either of the conditions for exchangeability described previously. Therefore, a data transformation is required to achieve exchangeability. The following theorem given by Graybill (1983), can be used to transform a data set with covariance matrix \(\Sigma\) to one with covariance matrix \(D\), where \(D\) is a diagonal matrix. Finally, one additional calculation, described in the following paragraphs, enables any test of the structure of a covariance matrix to be accomplished by a test for sphericity.
**Theorem 5.3.1.** Let \( A \) be any \( n \times n \) matrix. There exists an orthogonal matrix \( P \) such that
\[
P'AP = D,
\]
where \( D \) is a diagonal matrix, if and only if \( A \) is symmetric (p. 19).

Consider the linear model \( Y = X\beta + e \) where \( Y \) is an \( n \times p \) matrix of observations, \( X \) is a known matrix of constants, \( \beta \) is a matrix of unknown parameters, and \( e \) is a matrix of unknown errors such that \( Var(e) = \Sigma \) (and consequently, \( Var(Y) = \Sigma \)). Covariance matrices are symmetric; therefore, by Theorem 5.3.1, there exists an orthogonal matrix \( P \) such that \( P^T \Sigma P = D \), where \( D \) is a diagonal matrix.

Specifically, \( P \) consists of the eigenvectors of \( \Sigma \) and the eigenvalues of \( \Sigma \) are on the diagonal of \( D \). Then, post-multiplying the data matrix, \( Y \), by \( P \) yields,
\[
Var(YP) = P^TVar(Y)P = P^T\Sigma P = D.
\]
Therefore, any test of \( H_0 : \Sigma = \Sigma_0 \) is equivalent to testing \( H_0 : P^T \Sigma P = D \), where the columns of \( P \) are the eigenvectors of \( \Sigma_0 \). Then the previously described permutation test for sphericity can be performed on the post-multiplied data, \( YP \), after dividing each column of \( YP \) by the square root of the respective eigenvalue.

To illustrate this test, return to the sample of data given in Table 5.1.1. This time we are interested in testing \( H_0 : \Sigma = \Sigma_{sc} \), where \( \Sigma_{sc} \) has the serial correlation form shown in (2.4.1). The problem with testing for this structure is that even though the variances are assumed to be equal, the covariances are not. Therefore, neither of the previously described criteria for exchangeability is satisfied. Consequently, the centered data must be transformed by applying Theorem 5.3.1 before permuting.
transforming the data, consider the following preliminary calculations used to find the MLEs of $\sigma^2$ and $\rho$ in $\Sigma_{sc}$ as described in Section 2.4.

\[ S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' C_1 (x_i - \bar{x}) = 4.166667, \]

\[ S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' C_2 (x_i - \bar{x}) = 9.5, \]

and

\[ S_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' (x_i - \bar{x}) = 9.72 \]

where $C_1$ and $C_2$ are as shown in (2.4.3). Then, the MLE of $\rho$ can be found by substituting $S_1$, $S_2$, $S_3$, and $p = 3$ into (2.4.5) to get

\[ 16.666668 \hat{\rho}^3 - 9.5 \hat{\rho}^2 - 44.440002 \hat{\rho} + 28.5 = 0. \]

The only solution to this equation in the interval (-1, 1) is $\hat{\rho} = 0.6549899$. Substituting this value into (2.4.4) yields $\hat{\sigma}^2 = 0.5872383$. Therefore, under the null hypothesis the MLE of the covariance matrix is

\[ \hat{\Sigma}_{sc} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0284596 & 0.6736306 & 0.4412212 \\ 0.6736306 & 1.0284596 & 0.6736306 \\ 0.4412212 & 0.6736306 & 1.0284596 \end{bmatrix} \]

and the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of $\hat{\Sigma}_{sc}$ are

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 0.5535 & 0.7071 & 0.4400 \\ 0.6223 & 5.4400 \times 10^{-17} & -0.7828 \\ 0.5535 & -0.7071 & 0.4400 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 2.2269 & 0.5872 & 0.2712 \end{bmatrix}, \]

respectively. Post-multiplying the centered data matrix shown in Table 5.1.1 by the matrix of eigenvectors yields
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1.17 & 1.67 & 0.73 \\
-1.63 & -0.83 & -0.87 \\
0.47 & -0.83 & 0.13 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\cdot
\begin{bmatrix}
0.5535 & 0.7071 & 0.4400 \\
0.6223 & 5.4400 \times 10^{-17} & -0.7828 \\
0.5535 & -0.7071 & 0.4400 \\
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
2.0888 & 0.3064 & -0.4687 \\
-1.9024 & -0.5421 & -0.4477 \\
-0.1864 & 0.2357 & 0.9163 \\
\end{bmatrix};
\]

(5.3.1)

however, this data matrix still cannot be permuted since the variances of the variables, given by the eigenvalues, are not equivalent. Therefore, each column of this data matrix must be divided by the square root of its respective eigenvalue before the data can be permuted. Refer to the data matrix found by dividing each column of (5.3.1) by the square root of its respective eigenvalue. We will refer to this matrix as the matrix of transformed data. This matrix is given by

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1.3997 & 0.3999 & -0.9000 \\
-1.2748 & -0.7074 & -0.8596 \\
-0.1249 & 0.3076 & 1.7596 \\
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

(5.3.2)

We can now perform a test for sphericity on the matrix of transformed data. This is done by finding all possible permutations of the transformed data such that the data are permuted within each row, and calculating the test statistic given by

\[D = \mathbf{1}_p' \mathbf{x}_{p(p+1)} \left( \mathbf{\Sigma}_{perm} - \mathbf{I}_p \right) :\]

A p-value can be found by determining the proportion of test statistic values greater than or equal to the one resulting from the original set of transformed data. For the transformed data shown in (5.3.2), there are \((p!)^n = 6^3 = 216\) possible permutations of which only 6 result in test statistic values greater than or equal to 0.6095927 which is the value resulting from the original set of transformed data. Therefore, the p-value is \(6/216 \approx 0.0278\) and at \(\alpha = 0.05\) there is enough evidence to conclude that \(\mathbf{\Sigma}\) does not
have the serial correlation structure. This conclusion is expected since the sample correlation matrix shown in Table 5.1.1 does not suggest serial correlation. Figure 5.3.1 below shows the distribution of the test statistic for this set of data. The vertical line at 0.6095927 represents the test statistic value resulting from the original set of transformed data.

Figure 5.3.1. Distribution of the Test Statistic for Serial Correlation
CHAPTER 6
SIMULATIONS

One-thousand simulations were run using R version 2.3.1 for all combinations of $n$ ($= 5,10,25$) and $p$ ($= 3,5,10$). The R code for each test can be found in Appendix A.1. Due to the extremely large number of permutations required to perform the permutation tests described in Chapter 5 for any reasonable values of $n$ and $p$, randomization tests were primarily used in the simulations. Permutation tests were only run for the test of type H structure when $n = 5$ or 10 and $p = 3$ (see Section 6.3). Within each simulation, a $p$-variate data set was generated and the randomization test (RT) (or permutation test [PT] in the cases described above), likelihood ratio test (LRT), and corrected likelihood ratio test (CLRT) were all run for comparison. One-thousand random permutations of the centered and/or transformed data were sampled for each RT. The number of randomly selected permutations was chosen according to the suggestions of Manly (1997). For the LRTs, the asymptotic chi-squared distributions described in Chapter 2 were used to determine approximate 5% critical values.

Three different multivariate distributions (normal, uniform, and double exponential) were investigated. For the multivariate normal distribution, data were generated using the built-in R functions by specifying the desired covariance structure. For the multivariate double exponential distributions data were generated using a
procedure described in Vale and Maurelli (1983). For univariate data, this procedure first involves the generation of a random sample from a standard normal distribution. Each of these data values, $X$, is then substituted into the polynomial $Y = a + bX + cX^2 + dX^3$, where the constants $a$, $b$, $c$, and $d$ are determined by expressing the first four moments of the desired non-normal distribution in terms of the first four moments of the standard normal distribution and solving algebraically. Vale and Maurelli (1983) provide a system of equations that can be used to find these constants. In extending this to the multivariate case, there are issues with specifying the desired covariance structure. Initially, data can be generated from the $N_p(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$ distribution, however, once the polynomial transformation is applied, the resulting data no longer have the same covariance structure. Therefore, it is necessary to determine intermediate correlations to be used to generate the multivariate normal data that will result in multivariate double exponential data with the desired covariance structure. Again, Vale and Maurelli (1983) provide a system of equations that can be solved to determine these intermediate correlations.

There exists a more recent extension of the Vale and Maurelli (1983) procedure developed by Headrick (2002) in which the first six moments of the desired non-normal distribution are used instead of just the first four. Headrick (2002) argues that specifying two additional moments results in much more accurate non-normal distributions, but the inclusion of these additional moments places restrictions on the possible correlations that can be simulated. Specifically, once one of the correlations in the desired covariance matrix is specified, the remaining correlations cannot differ from the first too drastically, and the amount of difference changes for each desired distribution. For example, in trying to simulate three-variate uniform data with an unstructured covariance matrix, the
largest and smallest of the three correlations could not be varied by more than approximately 0.3. Differences larger than this resulted in intermediate correlations that were greater than one. This restriction is not a problem when generating data with a compound symmetry covariance structure; however, it severely limits the number of alternative covariance structures that can be explored when estimating power, especially as the number of variables is increased. Therefore, the method given by Vale and Maurelli (1983) was used to generate the multivariate double exponential data for the simulations in this chapter.

Although convenient for generating data from many multivariate distributions, the Vale and Maurelli (1983) procedure cannot be used to generate multivariate uniform data. This is due to the fact that this procedure restricts the lower bound of the kurtosis of the desired marginal distributions. Specifically, if the skewness of the desired marginal distribution is 0, the lower bound for kurtosis is -1.15132 (Headrick, 2002); whereas the kurtosis of the UNIF\((a,b)\) distribution is -1.2. Therefore, to generate the multivariate uniform data, a procedure described in Falk (1999) was used. This procedure consists of generating a random sample, \(x_i, i = 1, \ldots, n\), from the \(N_p(\mathbf{0}, \tilde{R})\) distribution where \(\tilde{R} = 2\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}R\right)\) and \(R\) is the desired correlation matrix. Then the standard normal CDF, \(\Phi\), is applied to the \(N_p(\mathbf{0}, \tilde{R})\) data so that \(\Phi(x_i)\) has a multivariate UNIF\((\mathbf{0}_p, \mathbf{1}_p)\) distribution with correlation matrix \(R\), where \(\mathbf{0}_p\) and \(\mathbf{1}_p\) are \(p \times 1\) vectors of zeros and ones, respectively, that represent the lower and upper bounds of the marginal uniform distributions. To achieve the desired variances, note that the variance of the univariate UNIF\((a,b)\) distribution is given by \(\sigma^2 = (b - a)^2 / 12\). Setting \(a = 0\) we have \(\sigma^2 = b^2 / 12\).
which implies that $b = \sigma \sqrt{12}$. Multiplying each column of the multivariate
UNIF($0_p, 1_p$) data by $b_j = \sigma_j \sqrt{12}$, $j = 1, \ldots, p$, with the desired standard deviation, $\sigma_j$, results in multivariate UNIF($0_p, b$) data with covariance matrix $\Sigma$, where

$$b = (b_1, \ldots, b_p)'$.

The type I error rate and power will be investigated for five different randomization tests: the tests of sphericity, compound symmetry, type H, serial correlation, and independence of sets of variates. The tests of sphericity and compound symmetry will be performed by permuting the raw data; the test of type H structure will be performed by first post-multiplying the data matrix by a matrix of normalized orthogonal contrasts and then running the randomization test for sphericity; and the tests of serial correlation and independence of sets of variates will be performed by first post-multiplying the data matrix by the eigenvectors of the estimated hypothesized covariance matrix, then dividing the columns of the resulting matrix by the square root of the respective eigenvalues, and finally running the randomization test for sphericity.

The values of the various parameters used to simulate the type I error rates for the different tests are as follows. For sphericity, the covariance structure is given by

$\Sigma_s = \sigma^2 I_p$ where $\sigma^2 = 1, 9, \text{ or } 25$; for Compound Symmetry, the covariance structure is given by

$$\Sigma_{CS} = \sigma^2 \left[ (1-\rho)I_p + \rho I_p I_p' \right]$$

(6.0.1)

where $\sigma^2 = 1, 9, \text{ or } 25$ and $\rho = 0.3, 0.6, \text{ or } 0.9$; for Type H, the covariance structure is given by
\[ \Sigma_{RH(p)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2}(2+d)-\gamma & \cdots & \frac{1}{2}(2+(p-1)d)-\gamma \\ \frac{1}{2}(2+d)-\gamma & 1+d & \cdots & \frac{1}{2}(2+pd)-\gamma \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{2}(2+(p-1)d)-\gamma & \frac{1}{2}(2+pd)-\gamma & \cdots & 1+(p-1)d \end{bmatrix} \] (6.0.2)

where \( d > 0 \) and \( \gamma > 0 \) (See Appendix A.2 for the exact parameter values and a description of how they were chosen.); for serial correlation, the covariance structure is given by

\[ \Sigma_{SC} = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho & \rho^2 & \cdots & \rho^{p-1} \\ \rho & 1 & \rho & \cdots & \rho^{p-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho^{p-1} & \rho^{p-2} & \rho^{p-3} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \] (6.0.3)

where \( \sigma^2 = 1, 9, \) or 25 and \( \rho = 0.3, 0.6, \) or 0.9; and for the test of independence of sets of variates, the covariance structure is given by

\[ \Sigma_{f} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \Sigma_{kk} \end{bmatrix} \]

where the number of variates in each of the \( \Sigma_{mm} \), \( m = 1, \ldots, k \), are \( (1, 2), (2, 3), (5, 5) \), or \( (3, 3, 4) \) depending on whether \( p = 3, 5, \) or 10; and \( \Sigma_{mm} \) has the compound symmetry structure with \( \sigma^2 = 1 \) and \( \rho = 0.2, 0.5, \) or 0.8. For example, for \( p = 5 \), number of variates \( (2, 3) \), and \( \rho = 0.2 \) the simulated covariance structure is

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0.2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0.2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0.2 & 0.2 \\
0 & 0 & 0.2 & 1 & 0.2 \\
0 & 0 & 0.2 & 0.2 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]
The various covariance structures used to investigate power are detailed in the sections to follow.

6.1 TEST OF SPHERICITY

Simulated type I error rates for the test of sphericity are displayed in Table 6.1.1. For normally distributed data, the CLRT performs better than the other two tests with respect to the simulated type I error rates. For uniform data, the CLRT underestimates the nominal type I error rate and for double exponential data the CLRT overestimates the nominal type I error rate. These results are consistent with those of Huynh and Mandeville (1979) who performed a simulation study of Mauchly’s (1940) test of sphericity and found that for light-tailed distributions the LRTs were conservative and for heavy-tailed distributions, the simulated type I error rates exceeded the nominal rate. This same pattern is slightly seen in the results of the RT, however, the simulated type I error rates of the RT appear to be converging to 0.05 as \( n \) increases, whereas the simulated type I error rates of the LRTs do not.

The simulated type I error rates for the RT seem to be unaffected by changes in the variance, however, they appear to increase as \( p \) increases. This latter pattern is also seen in the LRTs, but not as greatly as for the RT. One definite benefit of the RT is that it is applicable in situations for which the LRTs do not exist, specifically when \( p \geq n \). However, the simulated type I error rates for these cases are much too large.

Overall, the RT appears to be a viable alternative when the data are not normally distributed, but it is not beneficial in small sample situations or in cases where \( n \) is close to \( p \). Clearly, the RT is preferred over the LRTs for cases in which \( p \geq n \) for the simple
fact that a p-value exists for the RT when it does not for the LRTs. However, the simulated type I error rates are much too large to be of any practical use.

The CLRT does not appear to be a level $\alpha$ test in non-normal situations and clearly outperforms the LRT. Similarly, the RT does not appear to be a level $\alpha$ test when $p \geq n$. Therefore, all three tests will be largely ignored in these situations for the power discussions to follow. For completeness all three tests were included in the simulations.
Table 6.1.1. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Sphericity

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<th>( \sigma^2=25 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=1 )</th>
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<th>( \sigma^2=25 )</th>
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<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.169</td>
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<td>0.587</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>0.250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Value is contained within \( 0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{0.05(0.95)/1000} \)
Table 6.1.2 contains the simulated power of the test of sphericity versus non-homoscedasticity. Specifically, multivariate data were generated from distributions with covariance matrices having diagonal elements given by $1, 1 + d/(p-1), 1 + 2d/(p-1), \ldots, 1 + d$ and zero off diagonal elements, where $d=4, 8, \text{ or } 12$ represents the difference between the first and last (or smallest and largest) diagonal elements.

As expected, the power of both the RT and CLRT increases as $d$ and/or $n$ increases, and the power of both tests decreases as $p$ approaches $n$. For normally distributed data the power of the CLRT is greater than that for the RT in most cases, but the RT does seem to perform fairly well, achieving a power of at least 0.75 for five of the nine cases when $n=25$. The true benefit of the RT is seen in the non-normal cases. For these cases, it appears that the CLRT is outperforming the RT; however, recall from Table 6.1.1 that there is evidence that neither of the LRTs are $\alpha$-level tests for non-normal data. There does appear to be a distributional effect on the simulated power of the RT with the greatest power resulting from uniformly distributed data and the least from double exponential data in most cases. For uniform data, the RT achieves a power of at least 0.75 in all nine of the cases when $n=25$ and for double exponential data, in one of the nine cases.
Table 6.1.2. Simulated Power vs. Non-Homoscedasticity for the Test of Sphericity

a. Normal

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<td>0.513</td>
<td>0.614</td>
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<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>0.219</td>
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<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.746</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.967</td>
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<td>0.873</td>
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</tr>
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b. Uniform

<table>
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<td>0.282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
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<td>0.603</td>
<td>0.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.131</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.932</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>0.777</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
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<td>CLRT</td>
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c. Double Exponential

<table>
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<td>0.657</td>
<td>0.747</td>
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<td>0.221</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.236</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>0.360</td>
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<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td>0.880</td>
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<td>0.378</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>0.761</td>
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<td>RT</td>
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<td>0.665</td>
<td>0.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.843</td>
<td>0.984</td>
<td>0.996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>0.995</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Table 6.1.3 contains the simulated power for the test of sphericity versus non-zero
correlation. Data were generated from multivariate distributions with marginal variances
of 1 and pairwise correlations of $\rho = 0.3$, 0.6, or 0.9.

As seen in Table 6.1.3, the power of the RT for sphericity versus non-zero
correlation is very low, virtually indistinguishable from the simulated type I error rates
shown in Table 6.1.1. The CLRT, however, has much greater power. For $n=10$, the
CLRT has power greater than 0.9 when $\rho = 0.9$ and for $n=25$ when $\rho = 0.6$ or 0.9, but
the CLRT seems to have trouble detecting a correlation of $\rho = 0.3$ even for samples as
large as 25. The simulated power of the CLRT increases as $p$ increases. This pattern is
also evident for the RT, but the increase is not as extreme. The simulated power of the
RT appears to be unaffected by the increase in $\rho$, whereas the power of the CLRT clearly
increases as $\rho$ increases. Just as in Table 6.1.2, there appears to be a distributional effect
on the simulated power of the RT. However, in Table 6.1.3 the pattern is reversed with
the greatest power resulting from double exponential data and the least from uniform data
in most cases.
Table 6.1.3. Simulated Power vs. Non-Zero Correlation for the Test of Sphericity

a. Normal

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<th>RT  p=0.9</th>
<th>LRT  p=0.3</th>
<th>LRT  p=0.6</th>
<th>LRT  p=0.9</th>
<th>CLRT  p=0.3</th>
<th>CLRT  p=0.6</th>
<th>CLRT  p=0.9</th>
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<td>0.061</td>
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<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.101</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.119</td>
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<td>0.045</td>
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b. Uniform

<table>
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<th>LRT  p=0.9</th>
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c. Double Exponential

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<td>0.077</td>
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<td>0.933</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
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</table>
The simulated power of the test of sphericity versus the type H structure seen in (6.0.2) is displayed in Tables 6.1.4 through 6.1.6. See Appendix A.2 for a description of how and why the values of $d$ and $\gamma$ were chosen.

As expected the power of both the RT and CLRT increases as $d$ and/or $n$ increases, but there does not appear to be much of a change in the power of the tests as $\gamma$ increases. It is difficult to determine the effect of $p$ on the simulated power of the tests due to the fact that it was necessary to use radically different values of $d$ and $\gamma$ as $p$ increased (See Appendix A.2), but there are two cases with equal parameter values. These are when $d=0.1$, $\gamma=1$, and $p=5$ (Table 6.1.5) or $p=10$ (Table 6.1.5). From these two cases, it appears that the power of both the RT and CLRT increases as $p$ increases. The CLRT is more powerful than the RT in most cases, but recall that the CLRT is not an $\alpha$-level test for non-normal data (See Table 6.1.1). Even with normally distributed data, the RT appears to have a slight edge over the CLRT with respect to power when $d$, $n$, and $p$ are all small. Overall, the ability of the RT for sphericity to detect the type H structure is fairly good with simulated power values greater than 0.75 when $n=25$ in fifteen of the 27 cases for normal data, 21 of the 27 cases for uniform data, and nine of the 27 cases for double exponential data. Just as in previous tables there appears to be a distributional effect on the simulated power of the RT, but the pattern is again reversed from that seen in the previous table (Table 6.1.3) with the greatest power values resulting from uniform data and the lowest from double exponential data in most cases.
Table 6.1.4. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Sphericity \((p = 3)\)

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<td>(d=2)</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.453</td>
<td>0.674</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>0.993</td>
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b. Uniform

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<th>(\gamma=3)</th>
<th>(\gamma=4)</th>
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<td>RT</td>
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<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>0.183</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.580</td>
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c. Double Exponential

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Table 6.1.5. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Sphericity ($p = 5$)

a. Normal

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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>RT 0.110</td>
<td>0.207</td>
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b. Uniform

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c. Double Exponential

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Table 6.1.6. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Sphericity ($p=10$)

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b. Uniform

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<td>0.992</td>
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c. Double Exponential

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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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Table 6.1.7 contains the simulated power for the test of sphericity versus serial correlation shown in (6.0.3). Since the serial correlation structure has equal variances as does the sphericity structure, only one value was simulated for the marginal variances. Data were generated from multivariate distributions with marginal variances of 1 and serial correlations of $\rho = 0.3$, 0.6, or 0.9.

As expected, the power of the CLRT increases as $\rho$ increases, but there does not appear to be any relationship between the power of the RT and the value of $\rho$. On the other hand, the power of both tests increases as $p$ and/or $n$ increases. Overall, the power of the RT is very poor, beating the power of the CLRT in only two cases (normal, $n=10$, $p=5$, $\rho=0.3$ and uniform, $n=5$, $p=3$, $\rho=0.3$), but in both cases the power is much too low (0.122 and 0.076, respectively). Again, there appears to be a distributional effect on the power of the RT, but the pattern is again reversed from the previous tables (Tables 6.1.4 through 6.1.6). This time the greatest power values result from double exponential data and the lowest from uniform data in most cases.
Table 6.1.7. Simulated Power vs. Serial Correlation for the Test of Sphericity ($\sigma^2 = 1$)

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<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.117</td>
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<td>0.618</td>
<td>0.999</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.071</td>
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b. Uniform

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c. Double Exponential

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<td>0.070</td>
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<td>0.138</td>
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<td>0.069</td>
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<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.088</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.576</td>
<td>0.997</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.697</td>
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</table>
6.2 TEST OF COMPOUND SYMMETRY

The simulated type I error rates for the test of compound symmetry are displayed in Tables 6.2.1 through 6.2.3. Varying $\sigma^2$ and/or $\rho$ does not seem to have much, if any, affect on the simulated type I error rates of any of the tests of compound symmetry. For normally distributed data the CLRT clearly performs better than either of the other tests with respect to the simulated type I error rates; however, for uniform data this test is too conservative and for double exponential data it results in rates that are much too large. This is the same pattern seen in the simulated type I error rates for the test of sphericity (Table 6.1.1). There also appears to be a distributional effect on the simulated type I error rates of the RT for compound symmetry. Specifically, these rates are generally highest for the double exponential data and lowest for uniform data. Unlike the LRTs, however, the simulated type I error rates of the RT appear to be converging to the nominal rate as $n$ increases.

Just as for the test of sphericity, the RT exists in cases for which the LRTs do not. That is when $p \geq n$. However, the simulated type I error rates in these situations are much too large, especially when $p=10$ and $n=5$ (Table 6.2.3). The simulated type I error rates of the LRTs seem to increase as $p$ increases, but this pattern is not seen in the type I error rates of the RT for compound symmetry as it was in the RT for sphericity.

For normally distributed data, the CLRT is clearly the best choice with respect to type I error rates. However, in non-normal situations, the RT performs very well, especially as $n$ increases. Seeing that the LRTs are not level $\alpha$ tests for non-normally distributed data and the RT is not a level $\alpha$ test when $p \geq n$, these tests will be primarily
excluded in these situations in the following power discussions. They were included in
the simulations, however, for completeness.

Table 6.2.1. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Compound Symmetry ($p = 3$)

a. Normal

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<th>$\rho=0.9$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>0.374</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.345</td>
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<td>0.059*</td>
<td>0.062*</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.058*</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td>0.053*</td>
<td>0.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.055*</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.061*</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>0.126</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.063*</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.059*</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
<td>0.057*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>RT</td>
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<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.048*</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td>0.054*</td>
<td>0.063*</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td>0.054*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.077</td>
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<td>0.049*</td>
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<td>0.045*</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.052*</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
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b. Uniform

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<td>0.080</td>
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<td>0.058*</td>
<td>0.042*</td>
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<td>0.060*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>RT</td>
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<td>0.074</td>
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<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.063*</td>
<td>0.060*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.090</td>
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<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.030</td>
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<td>0.058*</td>
<td>0.040*</td>
<td>0.037*</td>
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<td>0.050*</td>
<td>0.054*</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.028</td>
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c. Double Exponential

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<td>0.053*</td>
<td>0.044*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.198</td>
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*Value is contained within $0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)}/1000$
Table 6.2.2. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Compound Symmetry (p = 5)

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<td>CLRT NA NA NA NA NA NA NA NA NA</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CLRT 0.057* 0.064 0.056* 0.053* 0.068 0.076 0.069 0.057* 0.065</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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b. Uniform

<table>
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<th>( \sigma^2 = 9 )</th>
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<td>( \rho = 0.9 )</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT NA NA NA NA NA NA NA NA NA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CLRT 0.038* 0.049* 0.094 0.031 0.042* 0.085 0.038* 0.052* 0.096</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>RT 0.048* 0.058* 0.050* 0.066 0.061* 0.047* 0.065 0.059* 0.054*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LRT 0.054* 0.076 0.150 0.049* 0.073 0.127 0.045* 0.071 0.131</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT 0.023 0.037* 0.081 0.024 0.036 0.069 0.021 0.035 0.072</td>
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</table>

c. Double Exponential

<table>
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<th>( \sigma^2 = 9 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2 = 25 )</th>
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*Value is contained within \( 0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)/1000} \)
Table 6.2.3. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Compound Symmetry ($p = 10$)

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b. Uniform

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*Value is contained within $0.05 \pm 1.96\sqrt{0.05(0.95)/1000}$
The simulated power of the test of compound symmetry versus the type H structure is shown in Tables 6.2.4 through 6.2.6. For these simulations, data were generated from distributions having type H covariance structures as shown in (6.0.2). See Appendix A.2 for a description of how and why the values of $d$ and $\gamma$ were chosen.

As expected, the power of all three tests increases as $d$ and/or $n$ increases, but there doesn’t seem to be much effect, if any, on the power of the tests as $\gamma$ increases. It is difficult to determine the effect of increasing $p$ on the power of the tests since very different parameter values were simulated for the different values of $p$ (See Appendix A.2). However, there are two cases for which the parameter values are equal. These are when $d=0.1$, $\gamma=1$, and $p=5$ (Table 6.2.5) or $p=10$ (Table 6.2.10). From these two cases, it appears that the power of both the RT and CLRT increases as $p$ increases.

For normally distributed data there are many cases when the RT is more powerful than the CLRT. Specifically, for 25 of the 54 total cases, the power of the RT is greater than or equal to the power of the CLRT. These are typically when $d$ is small and $n$ is close to $p$. Overall, the power of the RT exceeds 0.75 in 54 of the 81 cases when $n=25$.

Again, there appears to be a slight distributional effect on the power of the RT with the greatest power values usually resulting from uniformly distributed data and the lowest from double exponential data. This relationship is the opposite of that seen in Tables 6.2.1 through 6.2.3.
Table 6.2.4. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Compound Symmetry (p = 3)

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Table 6.2.5. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Compound Symmetry ($p = 5$)

### a. Normal

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<td>RT: 0.223 0.288 0.382</td>
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<td>LRT: NA NA NA</td>
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<td>CLRT: NA NA NA</td>
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<td>RT: 0.109 0.335 0.629</td>
<td>RT: 0.174 0.409 0.634</td>
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<tr>
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<td>LRT: 0.322 0.527 0.977</td>
<td>LRT: 0.334 0.602 0.987</td>
<td>LRT: 0.480 0.691 0.995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CLRT: 0.085 0.230 0.826</td>
<td>CLRT: 0.149 0.294 0.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>RT: 0.128 0.804 0.995</td>
<td>RT: 0.288 0.883 0.995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>LRT: 0.155 0.709 1.000</td>
<td>LRT: 0.201 0.865 1.000</td>
<td>LRT: 0.568 0.954 1.000</td>
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<td>CLRT: 0.083 0.563 1.000</td>
<td>CLRT: 0.103 0.753 1.000</td>
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### b. Uniform

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<td>CLRT: NA NA NA</td>
<td>CLRT: NA NA NA</td>
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<td>LRT: 0.415 0.678 0.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CLRT: 0.043 0.135 0.839</td>
<td>CLRT: 0.048 0.176 0.878</td>
<td>CLRT: 0.099 0.241 0.953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
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<td>RT: 0.134 0.956 1.000</td>
<td>RT: 0.416 0.976 1.000</td>
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<tr>
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<td>LRT: 0.122 0.843 1.000</td>
<td>LRT: 0.487 0.959 1.000</td>
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<tr>
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<td>CLRT: 0.042 0.499 1.000</td>
<td>CLRT: 0.067 0.726 1.000</td>
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### c. Double Exponential

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<td>LRT: NA NA NA</td>
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<td>CLRT: NA NA NA</td>
<td>CLRT: NA NA NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
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<td>RT: 0.140 0.314 0.511</td>
<td>RT: 0.178 0.370 0.531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>LRT: 0.493 0.686 0.994</td>
<td>LRT: 0.505 0.753 0.996</td>
<td>LRT: 0.613 0.799 0.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT: 0.148 0.291 0.892</td>
<td>CLRT: 0.164 0.367 0.917</td>
<td>CLRT: 0.250 0.448 0.963</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
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Table 6.2.6. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Compound Symmetry ($p = 10$)

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<th>$d=0.19$</th>
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<th>$d=0.15$</th>
<th>$d=0.21$</th>
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<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>0.418</td>
<td>0.437</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>RT 0.277</td>
<td>0.369</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>0.286</td>
<td>0.386</td>
<td>0.507</td>
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<tr>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.810</td>
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<td>0.947</td>
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b. Uniform

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<tr>
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<td>0.323</td>
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<td>0.400</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.725</td>
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<td>0.999</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>0.929</td>
<td>0.997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.860</td>
<td>0.997</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.863</td>
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c. Double Exponential

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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.261</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>0.436</td>
<td>0.276</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.469</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.379</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.807</td>
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Table 6.2.7 displays the simulated power of the test of compound symmetry versus the serial correlation structure shown in (6.0.3). Data were generated from distributions having the serial correlation covariance structure with \( \sigma^2 = 1 \) and \( \rho = 0.3, 0.6, \) or \( 0.9. \) Only one value of \( \sigma^2 \) was simulated since both the compound symmetry and serial correlation structures have equal variances.

As expected, the power of the CLRT increases as \( \rho \) increases. However, the power of the RT is greatest when \( \rho = 0.6 \) in all but three cases (uniform, \( n=5, p=3; \) double exponential, \( n=5, p=3; \) and double exponential, \( n=5, p=10). \) The power of both tests increases as \( p \) increases. This is anticipated since as \( p \) increases there are more observations for which to estimate \( \rho. \)

For normally distributed data, the RT is more powerful than the CLRT in seven of the 27 cases. Most of these cases (five of the seven) are when \( n=5 \) or 10 and \( p=3. \) Even though the RT is more powerful in these situations, the power is still not very high, only reaching 0.398 in the most powerful case (\( n=25, p=10, \rho = 0.3 \)). In fact, neither the CLRT nor RT are very powerful except when \( n=25, p=10, \) and \( \rho = 0.6 \) or 0.9.
Table 6.2.7. Simulated Power vs. Serial Correlation for the Test of Compound Symmetry

($\sigma^2 = 1$)

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<td>0.106</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.093</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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b. Uniform

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<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
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c. Double Exponential

<table>
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<td>RT</td>
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<tr>
<td>RT</td>
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<td>0.073</td>
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<td>0.597</td>
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</table>
6.3 TEST OF TYPE H

The simulated type I error rates of the test of type H are shown in Tables 6.3.1 through 6.3.3. Recall from Section 2.3 that the data transformation required for the test of type H results in an \( n \times (p-1) \) data matrix. Therefore, the number of permutations required to perform a permutation test (PT) for \( n=5 \) or 10 and \( p=3 \) are \((2!)^5 = 32\) and \((2!)^{10} = 1024\), respectively. Since neither of these situations requires a very large number of permutations, PTs rather than RTs were performed in these cases.

The simulated type I error rates of the PT are very low for \( n=5 \) and \( p=3 \), but due to the small number of possible permutations, the only p-values less than 0.05 are 0/32=0 and 1/32=0.03125. Therefore, we would expect lower type I error rates in these cases. The simulated type I error rates of the CLRT and PT/RT seem to be unaffected by increases in either \( d \) or \( \gamma \). However, they appear to increase as \( n \) approaches \( p \) and as \( n \) exceeds \( p \) in the case of the PT/RT.

Just as with previous tests, the CLRT performs very well with respect to type I error rates for normally distributed data, but the CLRT is too conservative for uniformly distributed data and the simulated type I error rates are too high for double exponential data. This pattern is also seen with the PT/RT, but unlike the CLRT, the type I error rates for the PT/RT seem to be converging to 0.05 as \( n \) increases. Also similar to previous tests, the RT exists in cases when the CLRT does not, specifically when \( p \geq n \), but the type I error rates of the RT are much too high in these cases for the RT to be of any practical use. Due to the inability of the CLRT and the RT to maintain the nominal type I error rate in these cases, these tests will be excluded for these cases in the power
discussions to follow, but the simulation results have been included in the tables for completeness.

Table 6.3.1. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Type H (p = 3)

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<td>0.014</td>
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<td>0.020</td>
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<td>0.045*</td>
<td>0.054*</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.057*</td>
<td>0.047*</td>
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<td>0.047*</td>
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<td>0.050*</td>
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<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.121</td>
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</table>

*Value is contained within 0.05 ± 1.96(0.05)(0.95)/1000
✞Permutation tests rather than randomization tests were run for n=5, 10 and p=3
Table 6.3.2. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Type H (\( p = 5 \))

### a. Normal

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<th>( \gamma=1.25 )</th>
<th>( \gamma=1.5 )</th>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.087</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.062*</td>
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<td>25</td>
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<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.073</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LRT</td>
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<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.097</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.059*</td>
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### b. Uniform

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>0.131</td>
</tr>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.070</td>
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<td>0.058*</td>
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### c. Double Exponential

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<td>NA</td>
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*Value is contained within \( 0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)}/1000 \)
Table 6.3.3. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Type H (p = 10)

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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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b. Uniform

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c. Double Exponential

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*Value is contained within 0.05 ± 1.96\sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)/1000}.
The simulated power of the test of type H versus the serial correlation structure is displayed in Tables 6.3.4 through 6.3.6. For these simulations, data were generated from distributions with the serial correlation covariance structure given by (6.0.3) with $\sigma^2 = 1, 9, \text{or } 25$ and $\rho = 0.3, 0.6, \text{or } 0.9$. Again, PTs rather than RTs were performed when $n=5$ or 10 and $p=3$.

The power of both the CLRT and PT/RT increases as $\rho$ increases, but seems to be unaffected by an increase in $\sigma^2$. The power of both tests decreases as $p$ approaches $n$. Overall the power of both tests is fairly low with the CLRT achieving a power greater than 0.75 in ten of the 27 normally distributed cases and the PT/RT achieving a power greater than 0.75 in only sixteen of the 81 cases regardless of the distribution. All of these cases are when $n=25$ and $\rho = 0.6$ or 0.9. For normally distributed data, the PT/RT is more powerful than the CLRT in only four of the 27 cases. All of these are when $n=10$ and $p=3$. However, the power of the PT/RT in these cases is extremely low even though greater than the power of the CLRT.
Table 6.3.4. Simulated Power vs. Serial Correlation for the Test of Type H \((\rho = 3)\)

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<td>0.011</td>
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<td>LRT 0.193</td>
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<td>0.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT 0.064</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.071</td>
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<td>0.075</td>
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b. Uniform

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<tr>
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c. Double Exponential

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\(\dagger\)Permutation tests rather than randomization tests were run for \(n=5, 10\) and \(\rho=3\)
Table 6.3.5. Simulated Power vs. Serial Correlation for the Test of Type H \((p = 5)\)

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c. Double Exponential

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Table 6.3.6. Simulated Power vs. Serial Correlation for the Test of Type H ($p = 10$)

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### b. Uniform

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<td>0.989</td>
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</table>

### c. Double Exponential

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>$\sigma^2=1$</th>
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<th>$\sigma^2=9$</th>
<th></th>
<th>$\sigma^2=25$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>p=0.9</td>
<td>p=0.6</td>
<td>p=0.9</td>
<td>p=0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.607</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>0.577</td>
<td>0.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.301</td>
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<td>0.651</td>
<td>0.293</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>LRT</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>0.332</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td>0.900</td>
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<td>LRT</td>
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<td>1.000</td>
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<td>1.000</td>
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<td>0.997</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>0.994</td>
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</table>
6.4 TEST OF SERIAL CORRELATION

The simulated type I error rates of the test of serial correlation are shown in Tables 6.4.1 through 6.4.3. There does not seem to be any relationship between \( \sigma^2 \) and the simulated type I error rates of either of the tests. There does, however, appear to be a relationship between \( \rho \) and the simulated type I error rates of the RT. Specifically, the type I error rates for this test seem to decrease as \( \rho \) increases, especially for small \( n \) and/or \( p \). As with previous tests, the RT exists when \( p \geq n \), but the CLRT does not. However, the simulated type I error rates of the RT in these cases is much too high for the test to be of any practical use.

The CLRT performs very well with respect to the type I error rates with normally distributed data. However, for uniform data the CLRT is too conservative and for double exponential data the simulated type I error rates of the CLRT are much too high. This is the same relationship seen in all of the tests previously described in this chapter. This pattern is also seen in the RT, but the simulated type I error rates for this test are generally much lower than those of the CLRT for \( p=3 \), and increase and even exceed the type I error rates of the CLRT as \( p \) approaches \( n \).

The simulated type I error rates of all of the RTs in this chapter increase slightly as \( p \) approaches \( n \); however, this is the first of the tests for which the type I error rates seem to be converging to a value less than 0.05 as \( n \) increases and \( p=3 \). This may be due to the biased nature of the MLEs of \( \sigma^2 \) and \( \rho \) since this is the first of the RTs for which the relationship between the true value of \( \rho \) and the bias of \( \rho \) is not linear. For example, in the test of sphericity the MLEs are the usual biased sample variances, and the multiplicative bias correction factor for these MLEs is just \( n/(n-1) \). Applying this
correction factor simply results in a horizontal shift of the entire sampling distribution. Therefore, the p-values remain unchanged. In the case of serially correlated data, the relationship between the bias of the MLE of $\rho$ and the true value of $\rho$ appears to be quadratic, not linear (See Appendix A.3). Due to this quadratic relationship, applying a correction factor would not result in just a horizontal shift of the sampling distribution.

The RT of serial correlation is also the first of the RTs to which the data transformation involving the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the MLE of the covariance matrix is applied. The bias of the MLEs could possibly be affecting the eigenvectors and eigenvalues in such a way that the simulated type I error rates are either too low or too high. Applying a bias correction factor to the MLE of $\rho$ could improve the simulated type I error rates; however, Magee (1989) and Cheang and Reinsel (2000) indicate that in a time-series or regression setting, a closed form of the bias correction factor for $\rho$ does not exist, but it is possible to simulate a bias correction factor similar to the one derived by Hearne and Clark (1983) to correct the LRT. See Appendix A.3 for the derivation of a simulated bias correction factor for $\rho$ and some preliminary simulation results of the RT for serial correlation using this correction factor.
Table 6.4.1. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Serial Correlation \( (p = 3) \)

a. Normal

<table>
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<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=1 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=9 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=25 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.053*</td>
<td>0.037*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>0.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.058*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.042*</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
<td>0.057*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.050*</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
<td>0.055*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Uniform

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=1 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=9 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=25 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.053*</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
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<td>0.294</td>
<td>0.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.038*</td>
<td>0.059*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.038*</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. Double Exponential

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=1 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=9 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2=25 )</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.057*</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.473</td>
<td>0.424</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.053*</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.024</td>
</tr>
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<td>LRT</td>
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<td>0.261</td>
<td>0.295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>0.126</td>
<td>0.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.053*</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
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<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>0.202</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Value is contained within \( 0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)}/1000 \)
Table 6.4.2. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Serial Correlation \( (p = 5) \)

a. Normal

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccccc}
\hline
\text{ } & \sigma^2=1 & \sigma^2=9 & \sigma^2=25 \\
\hline
\text{n} & \text{RT} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} \\
\hline
5 & RT & 0.145 & 0.133 & 0.118 & 0.144 & 0.147 & 0.136 & 0.158 & 0.123 & 0.125 \\
 & LRT & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
 & CLRT & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
10 & RT & 0.076 & 0.051* & 0.061* & 0.082 & 0.078 & 0.055* & 0.062* & 0.050* & 0.053* \\
 & LRT & 0.298 & 0.290 & 0.309 & 0.308 & 0.310 & 0.274 & 0.313 & 0.289 & 0.312 \\
 & CLRT & 0.039* & 0.040* & 0.047* & 0.055* & 0.049* & 0.043* & 0.031 & 0.039* & 0.045 \\
25 & RT & 0.033 & 0.039* & 0.030 & 0.043* & 0.037* & 0.029 & 0.048* & 0.044* & 0.034 \\
 & LRT & 0.105 & 0.100 & 0.101 & 0.091 & 0.096 & 0.097 & 0.094 & 0.108 & 0.114 \\
 & CLRT & 0.052* & 0.048* & 0.043* & 0.042* & 0.054* & 0.047* & 0.044* & 0.054* & 0.058* \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

b. Uniform

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccccc}
\hline
\text{ } & \sigma^2=1 & \sigma^2=9 & \sigma^2=25 \\
\hline
\text{n} & \text{RT} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} \\
\hline
5 & RT & 0.116 & 0.121 & 0.112 & 0.116 & 0.124 & 0.106 & 0.118 & 0.112 & 0.109 \\
 & LRT & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
 & CLRT & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
10 & RT & 0.070 & 0.053* & 0.040* & 0.072 & 0.063* & 0.052* & 0.045* & 0.046 & 0.051* \\
 & LRT & 0.210 & 0.246 & 0.330 & 0.230 & 0.246 & 0.319 & 0.192 & 0.237 & 0.292 \\
 & CLRT & 0.032 & 0.020 & 0.057* & 0.026 & 0.030 & 0.043* & 0.019 & 0.023 & 0.045* \\
25 & RT & 0.036 & 0.039* & 0.023 & 0.045* & 0.048* & 0.024 & 0.037* & 0.034 & 0.024 \\
 & LRT & 0.047* & 0.072 & 0.104 & 0.049* & 0.070 & 0.115 & 0.052* & 0.068 & 0.105 \\
 & CLRT & 0.018 & 0.034 & 0.049* & 0.017 & 0.025 & 0.056* & 0.023 & 0.031 & 0.057* \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

c. Double Exponential

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccccc}
\hline
\text{ } & \sigma^2=1 & \sigma^2=9 & \sigma^2=25 \\
\hline
\text{n} & \text{RT} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} & \text{p=0.3} & \text{p=0.6} & \text{p=0.9} \\
\hline
5 & RT & 0.187 & 0.179 & 0.195 & 0.175 & 0.187 & 0.171 & 0.175 & 0.203 & 0.171 \\
 & LRT & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
 & CLRT & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
10 & RT & 0.094 & 0.106 & 0.098 & 0.092 & 0.085 & 0.094 & 0.095 & 0.090 & 0.083 \\
 & LRT & 0.467 & 0.473 & 0.546 & 0.456 & 0.477 & 0.493 & 0.431 & 0.490 & 0.503 \\
 & CLRT & 0.114 & 0.104 & 0.145 & 0.106 & 0.119 & 0.135 & 0.118 & 0.117 & 0.128 \\
25 & RT & 0.056* & 0.061* & 0.053* & 0.063* & 0.066 & 0.035 & 0.066 & 0.047* & 0.047* \\
 & LRT & 0.328 & 0.357 & 0.390 & 0.312 & 0.366 & 0.393 & 0.311 & 0.331 & 0.357 \\
 & CLRT & 0.193 & 0.240 & 0.268 & 0.197 & 0.238 & 0.271 & 0.205 & 0.211 & 0.248 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

*Value is contained within \( 0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)}/1000 \)

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Table 6.4.3. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Serial Correlation ($p = 10$)

<table>
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<td>$\rho=0.9$</td>
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<td>$\rho=0.6$</td>
<td>$\rho=0.9$</td>
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<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRRT</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.039*</td>
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<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>0.617</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>0.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRRT</td>
<td>0.211</td>
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<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.258</td>
<td>0.351</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Value is contained within $0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)}/1000$
The simulated power of the test of serial correlation versus compound symmetry is displayed in Table 6.4.4. For these simulations data were generated from multivariate distributions with the compound symmetry structure given by (6.0.1) with \( \sigma^2 = 1 \) and \( \rho = 0.3, 0.6, \) or \( 0.9. \) Since both the serial correlation and compound symmetry structures have equal variances, only one value of \( \sigma^2 \) was simulated.

As expected, the power of both the RT and CLRT increases as \( \rho \) and/or \( \rho \) increases. Generally, the CLRT appears to be more powerful than the RT with normally distributed data, but recall from Tables 6.4.1 through 6.4.3 that the RT does not appear to be a level \( \alpha \) test, especially when \( \rho = 3 \) or 10. The RT is more powerful than the CLRT in five of the eighteen cases with normally distributed data. All but one of these cases is when \( \rho = 0.3. \) Neither the RT nor the CLRT seems to be very powerful, with the RT achieving a power of at least 0.75 in only two cases with normally distributed data and the CLRT in only three cases.
Table 6.4.4. Simulated Power vs. Compound Symmetry for the Test of Serial Correlation

(\(\sigma^2 = 1\))

a. Normal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>(p=3)</th>
<th>(p=5)</th>
<th>(p=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>RT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.253</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Uniform

<table>
<thead>
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<th>(p=5)</th>
<th>(p=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>LRT</td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>RT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.177</td>
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</table>

c. Double Exponential

<table>
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<th>(p=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>RT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td>0.243</td>
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</table>
The simulated power of the test of serial correlation versus the type H structure is shown in Tables 6.4.5 through 6.4.7. For these simulations, multivariate data were generated from the type H structure given by (6.0.2). See Appendix A.2 for a list of the parameter values chosen and a description of how they were derived.

The simulated power of both the RT and CLRT increases as \( d \) increases and decreases as \( D \) increases. It is difficult to determine the effect of increasing \( p \) on the power, but from the two cases for which the values of \( d \) and \( \gamma \) are equal \((p=5, \gamma=1, d=0.1\) from Table 6.4.6 and \( p=10, \gamma=1, d=0.1\) from Table 6.4.7) it appears that the power increases greatly as \( p \) increases. This is reasonable since as \( p \) increases there are more observations from which to estimate \( \rho \).

Overall, the CLRT is much more powerful than the RT, with the RT having greater power in only five of the 54 cases with normally distributed data, all of which are when \( d \) is small and \( p=5 \) or 10. The discrepancy between the powers of the RT and CLRT is especially evident when \( p=3 \). In these cases, the RT never achieves a power greater than 0.523 with normally distributed data, but recall again from Tables 6.4.1 through 6.4.3 that the RT is conservative for \( p=3 \). Therefore, lower power values would be expected in these cases.
Table 6.4.5. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Serial Correlation (p = 3)

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<th>d=3</th>
<th>d=4</th>
<th>d=3</th>
<th>d=4</th>
<th>d=5</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>0.869</td>
<td>0.659</td>
<td>0.737</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>0.826</td>
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<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>0.488</td>
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<td>0.240</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.220</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.151</td>
<td>0.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.460</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>0.835</td>
<td>0.929</td>
<td>0.996</td>
<td>0.984</td>
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<td>0.986</td>
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b. Uniform

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<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.090</td>
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c. Double Exponential

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Table 6.4.6. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Serial Correlation ($p = 5$)

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<td>NA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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b. Uniform

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<td>NA</td>
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c. Double Exponential

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<td>0.131</td>
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Table 6.4.7. Simulated Power vs. Type H for the Test of Serial Correlation (\( p = 10 \))

a. Normal

<table>
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<th>( d = 0.1 )</th>
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<th>( d = 0.17 )</th>
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<th>( d = 0.1 )</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>0.657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LRT</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
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<td>0.655</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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<td>25</td>
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<td>0.998</td>
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b. Uniform

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<th>( d = 0.19 )</th>
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</tr>
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<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.976</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>0.967</td>
<td>0.979</td>
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<td>0.953</td>
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c. Double Exponential

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<th>( d = 0.1 )</th>
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<td>0.723</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>NA</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1.000</td>
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<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.989</td>
<td>0.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>CLRT</td>
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<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>0.999</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td>0.986</td>
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</table>
6.5 TEST OF INDEPENDENCE OF SETS OF VARIATES

The simulated type I error rates of the test of independence of sets of variates is displayed in Table 6.5.1. For the RT of independence, the data transformation described in Section 5.3 was initially used, but this transformation resulted in type I error rates that were much too low, equal to zero in most cases. The test was almost never rejecting the null hypothesis. After examining the data transformation and subsequent permutations step-by-step, it was determined that the data transformation should be performed on the estimated correlation matrix rather than the estimated covariance matrix. This is reasonable since when performing the test of independence, the variances are irrelevant. It is only necessary to examine the correlations. To illustrate this, consider the centered sample data matrix shown below.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0.47 & -0.57 & -0.49 \\
-0.44 & -0.02 & 0.05 \\
0.86 & -0.35 & 0.02 \\
-0.68 & 0.96 & 0.39 \\
-0.21 & -0.02 & 0.03
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Before centering, the data were generated from a \( \mathcal{N}_3(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_f) \) distribution where

\[
\mathbf{\Sigma}_f = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0.5 \\
0 & 0.5 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Transforming the data as described in Section 5.3 results in the following transformed data matrix.
The estimated covariance matrix based on this transformed data is given by

\[
\hat{\Sigma}_j = \begin{bmatrix}
1.00 & -0.78 & 0.00 \\
-0.78 & 1.00 & 0.25 \\
0.00 & 0.25 & 1.00
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

In fact, the estimated covariance matrix of any set of transformed data for the test of independence will have only ones on the diagonal. When computing the test statistic for the observed data, the identity matrix is subtracted from \(\hat{\Sigma}_j\); therefore, only the correlations contribute to the magnitude of the test statistic value. Now consider a possible permutation of this transformed data set given by

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0.81 & -1.51 & -1.26 \\
0.46 & -0.76 & 0.01 \\
-0.52 & 1.50 & 1.42 \\
1.77 & -0.65 & -1.18 \\
0.27 & -0.37 & -0.01
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

The estimated covariance matrix of this permuted set is

\[
\hat{\Sigma}_{perm} = \begin{bmatrix}
0.56 & -0.52 & -0.66 \\
-0.52 & 1.00 & 0.88 \\
-0.66 & 0.88 & 0.96
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

Notice now that the values on the diagonal are no longer all ones, but it is still the identity matrix that will be subtracted from \(\hat{\Sigma}_{perm}\) to compute the test statistic. Since the diagonal values are not all ones, the test statistic values computed from the permuted data will
almost always be greater than the test statistic value resulting from the observed data. This results in p-values very close (and often equal) to one and consequently type I error rates very close (and often equal) to zero. Using the estimated correlation matrices rather than the estimated covariance matrices throughout the procedure eliminates this problem and results in much more reasonable (although still conservative) type I error rates. These are shown in Table 6.5.1.

One additional problem arose while running the simulations for the test of independence. When testing whether the first five variates are independent of the last five variates with $n=5$ and $p=10$, the eigenvalues of the simulated data sets were frequently non-positive. Recall that the data transformation described in Section 5.3 requires that, after post-multiplying the centered data by the matrix of eigenvectors, each column be divided by the square root of the respective eigenvalue. Therefore, the eigenvalues must be positive. Rather than entirely excluding the test of independence between the first five and last five variates, all generated data sets that resulted in non-positive eigenvalues were thrown out and the simulations continued until 1000 valid data sets were randomly selected. A counter was included in the code to keep track of how many data sets were sampled, both valid and invalid. The mean number of data sets sampled was 3949.06 with a standard error of 27.87 ($n=18$). A table displaying the number of simulated data sets for each case is shown in Appendix A.4.

The CLRT for independence appears to be the best of the CLRTs discussed in this dissertation with respect to the simulated type I error rates. In fact, the simulated type I error rates are within the 95% confidence bounds of 0.05 in all but eight of the 63 cases. Also unlike the other CLRTs discussed, the CLRT for independence does not appear to
be affected by the underlying distribution. It performs equally well for all three
distributions. The RT appears to maintain the nominal type I error rate for \( p=3 \), but
becomes more conservative as \( p \) increases. The RT also appears to be affected by the
distribution, with the highest type I error rates usually resulting from the double
exponential data and the lowest from the uniform data. The only cases for which the RT
is more beneficial than the CLRT is when \( p \geq n \), but only for the fact that the CLRT does
not exist in these cases. Even though the RT exists in these situations it is still much too
conservative.
Table 6.5.1. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Independence of Sets of Variates

a. Normal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>(1, 2)</th>
<th>(2, 3)</th>
<th>(5, 5)</th>
<th>(3, 3, 4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.046*</td>
<td>0.039*</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.052*</td>
<td>0.052*</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.038*</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.126</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.050*</td>
<td>0.053*</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.047*</td>
<td>0.063*</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Value is contained within $0.05 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{(0.05)(0.95)/1000}$

†More than 1000 data sets were generated for these simulations due to non-positive eigenvalues. Data sets resulting in non-positive eigenvalues were discarded.

b. Uniform

<table>
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<th>(3, 3, 4)</th>
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<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>0.315</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.041*</td>
<td>0.050*</td>
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<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.039*</td>
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<td>0.124</td>
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<td>0.054*</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.046*</td>
<td>0.055*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.037*</td>
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<td>0.055*</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.052*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.060*</td>
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<td>0.053*</td>
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</table>

c. Double Exponential

<table>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.050*</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td>0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.050*</td>
<td>0.052*</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td>0.055*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.047*</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.063*</td>
<td>0.057*</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.055*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The power of the test of independence of sets of variates was investigated by simulating multivariate data sets with covariance structure given by

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\Sigma_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \Sigma_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \Sigma_{kk}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

(6.5.1)

where \( \Sigma_{mm} \), \( m = 1, \ldots, k \), has the compound symmetry structure with \( \sigma^2 = 1 \) and \( \rho = 0.5 \). The values of \( \theta \) were chosen so that the covariance structure shown in (6.5.1) would be positive definite. For example, consider the covariance structure given by

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0.5 & \theta & \theta & \theta \\
0.5 & 1 & \theta & \theta & \theta \\
\theta & \theta & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\
\theta & \theta & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\
\theta & \theta & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

(6.5.2)

The determinant of (6.5.2) is \( 0.375 - 0.750^2 \), which must be greater than zero if (6.5.2) is to be positive definite. Solving this inequality yields a range of values for \( \theta \) given by \((-0.7071, 0.7071)\). Therefore, \( \theta=0.2, 0.45, \) and \( 0.7 \) were the values chosen to investigate the power of the test of independence for this structure. No \( \theta \) values less than 0.2 were chosen for any of the power simulations, and the largest \( \theta \) value, to the nearest tenth, within the allowable range of \( \theta \) values was chosen in each case. The simulated power of the test of independence is displayed in Table 6.5.2.

The simulated power of the RT is very poor, never exceeding 0.444 (Uniform, (1,2), \( n=25 \), \( \theta=0.8 \)), but this is somewhat expected given how conservative the test is, as seen in Table 6.5.1. The power of the CLRT is much higher, but only exceeds 0.85 for large \( \theta \). The CLRT still appears to be robust to non-normality; whereas the RT does not,
with the highest power values usually occurring for double exponential data and the lowest for uniform data. This discrepancy is especially evident when $p \geq n$. 
Table 6.5.2. Simulated Power vs. Non-Independence for the Test of Independence of Sets of Variates

a. Normal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>(1, 2)</th>
<th>(2, 3)</th>
<th>(5, 5)</th>
<th>(3, 3, 4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RT</td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.323</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>0.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.980</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.356</td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.848</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Uniform

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>(1, 2)</th>
<th>(2, 3)</th>
<th>(5, 5)</th>
<th>(3, 3, 4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RT</td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.337</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>0.467</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.130</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.996</td>
<td>0.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td>0.986</td>
<td>0.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.361</td>
<td>0.444</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.861</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.823</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More than 1000 data sets were generated for these simulations due to non-positive eigenvalues. Data sets resulting in non-positive eigenvalues were discarded.

c. Double Exponential

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>(1, 2)</th>
<th>(2, 3)</th>
<th>(5, 5)</th>
<th>(3, 3, 4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RT</td>
<td>LRT</td>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.464</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.452</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.378</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>0.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td>0.985</td>
<td>0.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>0.443</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.835</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSIONS

For all of the covariance structures discussed in Chapter 6, the RT has one definite advantage over the CLRT; the RT exists when \( p \geq n \) in which case the CLRT does not. And although the simulated type I error rates of the RT were usually much too high in these cases, it is still an advantage that the RT exists at all when \( p \geq n \). Due to the existence of the RT in these cases, perhaps a corrected RT, similar to the CLRT, can be derived to improve the simulated type I error rates.

For all of the tests except the test of independence of sets of variates, the RT has another advantage over the CLRT in that the data distribution does not have as extreme an effect on the simulated type I error rates and power of the RT as it does on the CLRT. As discussed in Chapter 6, there does appear to be some distributional effect on the RT; however, the effect is very small in most cases and much less than for the CLRT in all cases. The CLRT for independence performs very well with respect to the simulated type I error rates for any underlying distribution, even for very small sample sizes; therefore, there does not appear to be any distributional advantage of the RT over the CLRT for testing for this structure.

The RTs for sphericity, compound symmetry, and type H all appear to be \( \alpha \)-level tests, but they tend to have very low power versus certain alternative structures. The RT for sphericity has poor power versus non-zero correlation and serial correlation; the RT
for compound symmetry has poor power versus serial correlation; and the RT for type H has poor power versus serial correlation when \( p \) is small. Notice that in each of these cases the null covariance structures differ from the alternative covariance structures by only correlations. Consequently, the test statistic used in the RT appears to be good at detecting differences in the variances, but has a difficult time detecting differences in only the correlations.

The RT does not appear to be an \( \alpha \)-level test when testing for serial correlation or independence of sets of variates. From the results shown in Appendix A.3, it appears that the simulated type I error rates of the RT of serial correlation can be improved by eliminating the bias in the MLEs of \( \rho \) and \( \sigma^2 \), but this hypothesis needs to be investigated further. The RT of independence, on the other hand, really does not warrant further investigation due to the strong performance of the CLRT of independence.

Although improvements to the RT need to be made when testing for several of the covariance structures discussed in this dissertation, the simulations have shown some promise. Overall, the RT appears to be a legitimate alternative to the CLRT when \( p \geq n \), or the data are not normally distributed when testing for spericity, compound symmetry, type H, or serial correlation. Recall also, from Chapter 4, that RTs do not require random sampling. Random assignment of experimental units to treatments will suffice. Therefore, there are several situations for which an RT for the structure of a covariance matrix can be beneficial.
CHAPTER 8
FUTURE WORK

There are several additional problems related to this material that I would like to explore. The most obvious of these is to apply this test to covariance structures that I have not already studied, specifically factor analysis and structural equation modeling among others. I have already completed the literature review for these procedures, but I foresee several difficulties in writing the code to perform these tests. First, there isn’t a specific structure in factor analysis/structural equation modeling. The structure is driven by the data and the researcher’s intuition about the number of underlying factors. Therefore, the code will need to be altered for each structure. Second, the MLEs must be found numerically which could add a considerable amount of computing time. Finally, there is the issue of determining exactly what models to test since there is no specific structure. Other structures, such as those used in time series, should not require much additional work other than researching the likelihood ratio tests for these structures, changing the R code slightly, and running additional simulations.

I am also interested in determining the effect of changing the test statistic used for the RT. Currently, the RT is based on the absolute differences between the variances and covariances. I would like to do a Monte Carlo study using a test statistic based on the squared differences between the variances and covariances. I anticipate that this will
have no significant effect on the simulated type I error rates and power of the RT, but it is worth exploring. I have also noticed that the RT is better at detecting differences in the variances than differences in the correlations. After thinking about the formula for covariance, which is a function of the variances and correlation, I realized that in using the test statistic based on the differences in the variances and covariances, I was essentially ‘counting’ the differences in the variances twice. Therefore, I think the test statistic could be improved by using the difference in the variances and correlations rather than the differences in the variances and covariances.

There are also several closely related problems that arose during the development of the permutation test for the structure of a covariance matrix. In writing the code for the simulations, I had some difficulty finding adequate algorithms for generating multivariate random samples with specified covariance structures from non-normal distributions. As a result, I ended up using two different procedures, one for each of the non-normal distributions studied. Neither of these procedures was user friendly or accurate with respect to the desired covariance structure, especially in small samples. The current procedures are based on transforming independent normally distributed univariate data sets to achieve a multivariate non-normal data set with a desired covariance structure. Virtually all statistical software packages have built-in functions for generating data from many univariate non-normal distributions. I think a new procedure may be possible by applying a data transformation to univariate non-normal data generated using the built-in functions.

I have also noticed some unusual results for the RT of serial correlation. I think these unusual results are related to the biased nature of the MLEs that were used (See
Appendix A.3). Consequently, I would like to see what would happen to the simulated
type I error rates and power if unbiased estimates are used instead. For the serial
correlation, there are two parameters that must be estimated, $\rho$ and $\sigma^2$, and the MLE of
$\sigma^2$ is actually a function of the MLE of $\rho$. Through simulation I have determined that
there is a simple multiplicative correction factor for the MLE of $\sigma^2$ if the estimate of $\rho$
is unbiased (See Appendix A.3); however, there does not exist a closed form of the bias
of the MLE of $\rho$ and based on simulations there appears to be a quadratic relationship
between the bias of the MLE of $\rho$ and the true value of $\rho$. I am interested in
determining a bias correction factor for the MLE of $\rho$ and using these unbiased estimates
to see if the simulated type I error rates and power of the permutation test of serial
correlation would improve.


Pitman, E.J.G. (1938). Significance tests which may be applied to samples from any populations. III. The analysis of variance test. *Biometrika, 29*, 322-335.

Shipley, B. (2000). A permutation procedure for testing the equality of pattern
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Wald, A. & Brookner, R.J. (1941). On the distribution of Wilks’ statistic for testing the
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Wilks, S.S. (1935). On the independence of *k* sets of normally distributed statistical

Wilks, S.S. (1946). Sample criteria for testing equality of means, equality of variances,
and equality of covariances in a normal multivariate distribution. *The Annals of

APPENDIX

A.1 R CODE

The following code was written for R version 2.3.1 and was used to run the simulations described in Chapter 6.

A.1.1 RANDOMIZATION TEST OF SPHERICITY

## Test of Sphericity ##

library(MASS)

# Function to perform the test of sphericity with multivariate normal data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; struc="S", "NH", "CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
spher.norm<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist="norm"
  p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
  df<-.5*p*(p+1)-1
  crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
  C<-1-(2*p^2+p+2)/(6*p*(n-1))
  perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
  if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
      dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
      cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
      est.var<mean(diag(cov.dat))
      # Likelihood Ratio Test
      L.S<det(cov.dat)/(1/p*sum(diag(cov.dat)))^p
      if (-n*log(L.S) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
      # Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
      if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.S) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
      # Randomization Test
      est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p)
      ts.dat<-0
      for (j in 1:p) {
        ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
      }
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
  cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
  ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  }
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Sphericity", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}
else {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
    cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    est.var<-mean(diag(cov.dat))
    #Randomization Test
    est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p)
    ts.dat<-0
    for (j in 1:p) {
      ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
    }
  }
  means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
  cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
  ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  }
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Sphericity", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}

#Function to perform the test of sphericity with multivariate uniform data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; struc="S", "NH", "CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
spher.unif<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist="unif"
p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
df<-.5*p*(p+1)-1

112
crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
C<-1-(2*p^2+p+2)/(6*p*(n-1))
perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
count.rt<-0
count.lr<-0
count.lrc<-0
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in i:p) {
    corr.mat[i,j]<-2*sin((pi/6)*(cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*
                      cov.mat[j,j])))
    corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
  }
}
if (n>p) {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
    dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*t(unif01.dat))
    cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    est.var<mean(diag(cov.dat))
    #Likelihood Ratio Test
    L.S<-det(cov.dat)/(1/p*sum(diag(cov.dat)))^p
    if (-n*log(L.S) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
    #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
    if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.S) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
    #Randomization Test
    est.cov.mat<est.var*diag(p)
    ts.dat<-0
    for (j in 1:p) {
      ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
    }
    means.dat<colMeans(dat)
    c.dat<dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
    count.temp<-0
    for (j in 1:1000) {
      perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
      cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
      ts.perm<-0
      for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
      }
      if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
    }
    if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
  }
  p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
  write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Sphericity", 9,
        TRUE, "+\n")
}
else {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
    dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*t(unif01.dat))
    cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    est.var<mean(diag(cov.dat))
    #Randomization Test
    est.cov.mat<est.var*diag(p)
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
  ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
  cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
  ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Sphericity", 9,
      TRUE, "\t")
}

#Function to perform the test of sphericity with multivariate double
#exponential data.  Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated
covariance matrix; struc="S", "NH", "CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 &
par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix;
#K=number of simulations
spher.de<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<"de"
p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
b<-0.7824
d<-0.0679
c1<-b^2+6*b*d+9*d^2
c2<-6*d^2
df<-.5*p*(p+1)-1
crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
C<1-(2*p^2+p+2)/(6*p*(n-1))
corr.mat<-matrix(NA, n, p)
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in i:p) {
    corr.mat[i,j]<-cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*cov.mat[j,j])
corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
  }
}
corr.int<-corr.mat
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
  for (k in (j+1):p) {
    corr.int[j,k]<-Re(polyroot(c(-corr.mat[j,k],c1,0,c2))[1])
corr.int[k,j]<-corr.int[j,k]
  }
}
if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        norm.dat<-mvtnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
        dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat)) * t(b*norm.dat + d*norm.dat^3))
        cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
        est.var<mean(diag(cov.dat))
        #Likelihood Ratio Test
        L.S<det(cov.dat)/(1/p*sum(diag(cov.dat)))^p
        if (-n*log(L.S) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
        #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
        if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.S) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
        #Randomization Test
        est.cov.mat<est.var*diag(p)
        ts.dat<-0
        for (j in 1:p) {
            ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
        }
        means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
        c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
        count.temp<-0
        for (j in 1:1000) {
            perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
            cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
            ts.perm<-0
            for (k in 1:p) {
                ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
            }
            if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
        }
        if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
    }
    p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
    write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Sphericity", 9,
          TRUE, "\t")
} else {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        norm.dat<-mvtnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
        dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat)) * t(b*norm.dat + d*norm.dat^3))
        cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
        est.var<mean(diag(cov.dat))
        #Randomization Test
        est.cov.mat<est.var*diag(p)
        ts.dat<-0
        for (j in 1:p) {
            ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
        }
        means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
        c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
        count.temp<-0
        for (j in 1:1000) {
            perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
            cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
            ts.perm<-0
            for (k in 1:p) {
                ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
            }
        }
    }
}
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}  
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}  
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")  
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Sphericity", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}  
K<-1000
#Type I Error
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
    for (var in c(1, 9, 25)) {
      cov.mat<-var*diag(p)
      spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "S", var, 0, K)
      spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "S", var, 0, K)
      spher.de(n, cov.mat, "S", var, 0, K)
    }
  }
}
#Power vs. Non-Homoscedasticity
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
    for (var.diff in c(4, 8, 12)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(c(matrix(seq(1, 1+var.diff, by=var.diff/(p-1)), 1, p)))
      spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "NH", var.diff, 0, K)
      spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "NH", var.diff, 0, K)
      spher.de(n, cov.mat, "NH", var.diff, 0, K)
    }
  }
}
#Power vs. Non-Zero Correlation
var<-1
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
    for (rho in c(0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
      cov.mat<-var* ((1-rho)*diag(p)+matrix(rho,p,p))
      spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
      spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
      spher.de(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
    }
  }
}
#Power vs. Type H
p<-3
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (lambda in c(2, 3, 4)) {
    for (diff in c(lambda-1, lambda, lambda+1)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
    }
  }
}
spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
}

p<-5
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (lambda in c(1.25, 1.5)) {
    for (diff in c(2*lambda/5-.4, 2*lambda/5, 2*lambda/5+.4)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    }
  }
  lambda<-1
  for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
    for (diff in c(0.1, 0.4, 0.8)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    }
  }
  p<-10
  for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
    for (lambda in c(0.5, 0.75, 1)) {
      for (diff in c(1, .1+(2*lambda+1)/50, .1+(2*lambda+1)/25)) {
        cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
        for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
          for (j in (i+1):p) {
            cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
            cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
          }
        }
        spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
spher.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      }
    }
  }
  #Power vs. Serial Correlation
  sigma<-1
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
    for (rho in c(0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
      cov.mat<-((sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*diag(p)
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-((sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*rho^(j-i)
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      spher.norm(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
      spher.unif(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
      spher.de(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
    }
  }
}

A.1.2 RANDOMIZATION TEST OF COMPOUND SYMMETRY

## Test of Compound Symmetry ##

library(MASS)

#Function to perform the test of compound symmetry with multivariate
#normal data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance
#matrix; struc="CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter
#values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
compsym.norm<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<"norm"
  p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
  df<-.5*p*(p+1)-2
  crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
  C<-1-(p*(p+1)^2*(2*p-3))/(6*(n-1)*(p-1)*(p^2+p-4))
  perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
  if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
      dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
      cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
      est.var<-mean(diag(cov.dat))
      est.corr<-mean(cov.dat[cov.dat!=diag(cov.dat)])/est.var
      #Likelihood Ratio Test
      L.CS<-det(cov.dat)/(est.var^p*(1-est.corr)^(p-1)*((1+(p-1)*
        est.corr)))
      if (-n*log(L.CS) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
      #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
      if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.CS) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
      #Randomization Test
      est.cov.mat<-est.var*((1-est.corr)*diag(p)+matrix(est.corr, p, p))
      ts.dat<-0
      for (j in 1:p) {
        ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p])))
      }
    }
  }
}
means.dat <- colMeans(dat)
c.dat <- dat - matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp <- 0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm <- t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
  cov.perm <- (n-1)/n*var(perm)
  ts.perm <- 0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm <- ts.perm + sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p] - est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp <- count.temp + 1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt <- count.rt + 1
p.values <- c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Compound Symmetry", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}
else {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    dat <- mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
    cov.dat <- (n-1)/n*var(dat)
    est.var <- mean(diag(cov.dat))
    est.corr <- mean(cov.dat[cov.dat != diag(cov.dat)])/est.var
    # Randomization Test
    est.cov.mat <- est.var*((1-est.corr)*diag(p) + matrix(est.corr, p, p))
    ts.dat <- 0
    for (j in 1:p) {
      ts.dat <- ts.dat + sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p] - est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
    }
    means.dat <- colMeans(dat)
    c.dat <- dat - matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp <- 0
    for (j in 1:1000) {
      perm <- t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
      cov.perm <- (n-1)/n*var(perm)
      ts.perm <- 0
      for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm <- ts.perm + sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p] - est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
      }
      if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp <- count.temp + 1
    }
    if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt <- count.rt + 1
  }
p.values <- c(count.rt/K, NA, NA)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Compound Symmetry", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}

# Function to perform the test of compound symmetry with multivariate uniform data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; struc="CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
compsym.unif <- function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
}
dist<"unif"
p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
df<-.5*p*(p+1)-2
crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
C<-1-(p*(p+1)^2*(2*p-3))/(6*(n-1)*(p-1)*(p^2+p-4))
perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in i:p) {
    corr.mat[i,j]<-2*sin((pi/6)*(cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*
corr.mat[j,j])))
    corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
  }
}
if (n>p) {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*t(unif01.dat))
cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
est.var<mean(diag(cov.dat))
est.corr<mean(cov.dat[cov.dat!=diag(cov.dat)])/est.var
#Likelihood Ratio Test
L.CS<-det(cov.dat)/(est.var^p*(1-est.corr)^(p-1)*(1+(p-1)*
est.corr))
if (-n*log(L.CS) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
#Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.CS) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
#Randomization Test
est.cov.mat<-est.var*((1-est.corr)*diag(p)+matrix(est.corr, p,
p))
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
  ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p])))
}
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p])))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
}
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Compound
Symmetry", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}
else {
  for (i in 1:K) {

unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*t(unif01.dat))
cov.dat<-(-n-1)/n*var(dat)
est.var<-(n-1)/n*var(cov.dat)
est.corr<-(mean(cov.dat[cov.dat!=diag(cov.dat)]))/est.var

#Randomization Test
est.cov.mat<-(est.var*((1-est.corr)*diag(p)+matrix(est.corr, p, p))
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
  ts.dat<-(ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-(dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp<0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
  cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
  ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-(ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p])))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-(count.rt/K, NA, NA)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Compound Symmetry", 9, TRUE, "\t")

#Function to perform the test of compound symmetry with multivariate double exponential data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; struc="CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
compsym.de<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
dist="de"
p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
b<-.7824
d<-0.0679
c1<-b^2+6*b*d+9*d^2
c2<-6*d^2
df<-.5*p*(p+1)-2
crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
C<-(p*(p+1)^2*(2*p-3))/(6*(n-1)*(p-1)*(p^2+p-4))
perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
count.rt<-0
count.lr<-0
count.lrc<-0
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in 1:p) {
    corr.mat[i,j]<-cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*cov.mat[j,j])
    corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
  }
}
corr.int<-corr.mat
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
  for (k in (j+1):p) {
    corr.int[j,k]<-Re(polyroot(c(-corr.mat[j,k],c1,0,c2))[1])
    corr.int[k,j]<-corr.int[j,k]
  }
}
if (n>p) {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
    dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
    cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    est.var<-(mean(diag(cov.dat)))
    est.corr<-(mean(cov.dat[cov.dat!=diag(cov.dat)]))/est.var
    L.CS<-(det(cov.dat)/(est.var^p*(1-est.corr)^p-1*(1+(p-1)*est.corr))
    if (-n*log(L.CS) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
    #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
    if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.CS) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
    #Randomization Test
    est.cov.mat<-est.var*((1-est.corr)*diag(p)+matrix(est.corr, p, p))
    ts.dat<-0
    for (j in 1:p) {
      ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
    }
    means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
    c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
    count.temp<-0
    for (j in 1:1000) {
      perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
      cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
      ts.perm<-0
      for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
      }
      if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
    }
    if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
  }
  p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
  write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Compound Symmetry", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}
else {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
    dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
    cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    est.var<-(mean(diag(cov.dat))
    est.corr<-(mean(cov.dat[cov.dat!=diag(cov.dat)]))/est.var
    #Randomization Test
    est.cov.mat<-est.var*((1-est.corr)*diag(p)+matrix(est.corr, p, p))
    ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
    ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
    cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
    ts.perm<-0
    for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, NA, NA)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Compound Symmetry", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}
K<-1000
#Type I error
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
    for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
        for (var in c(1, 9, 25)) {
            for (rho in c(0, 0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
                cov.mat<-var*((1-rho)*diag(p)+matrix(rho,p,p))
                compsym.norm(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
                compsym.unif(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
                compsym.de(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
            }
        }
    }
}
#Power vs. Type H
p<-3
for (n in c(5, 10)) {
    for (lambda in c(2, 3, ,4)) {
        for (diff in c(lambda-1, lambda, lambda+1)) {
            cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
            for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
                for (j in (i+1):p) {
                    cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
                    cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
                }
            }
            compsym.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
            compsym.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
            compsym.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
        }
    }
}
p<-5
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
    for (lambda in c(1.25, 1.5)) {
for (diff in c(2*lambda/5-.4, 2*lambda/5, 2*lambda/5+.4)) {
cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
  for (j in (i+1):p) {
    cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
    cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
  }
}
compsym.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
compsym.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
compsym.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
}
}
lambda<-1
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (diff in c(0.1, 0.4, 0.8)) {
    cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
    for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
      for (j in (i+1):p) {
        cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
        cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
      }
    }
    compsym.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    compsym.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    compsym.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
  }
}
p<-10
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (lambda in c(0.5, 0.75, 1)) {
    for (diff in c(.1, .1+(2*lambda+1)/50, .1+(2*lambda+1)/25)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(5, (p-1)*diff+5, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*rho^(j-i)
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      compsym.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      compsym.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      compsym.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    }
  }
}
#Power vs. Serial Correlation
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
    for (sigma in c(1, 3, 5)) {
      for (rho in c(0.2, 0.5, 0.8)) {
        cov.mat<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*diag(p)
        for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
          for (j in (i+1):p) {
            cov.mat[i,j]<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*rho^(j-i)
            cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
          }
        }
      }
    }
  }
}
A.1.3 PERMUTATION TEST OF TYPE H

## Permutation Test of Type H ##

```r
library(MASS)

typeH.perm<-function(dist, n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  p<-3
  helm<-t(contr.helmert(p))
  const<-1/sqrt(rowSums(helm^2))
  C.mat<-const*helm
  df<--.5*p*(p-1)-1
  crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
  C<-1-(2*p^2-3*p+3)/(6*(p-1)*(n-1))
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
  if (dist=="norm") {
    for (i in 1:K) {
      dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
      cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
      #Likelihood Ratio Test
      L.TH<-det(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))/(1/(p-1)*
               sum(diag(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))))^(p-1)
      if (-n*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
      #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
      if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
      #Permutation Test
      trans.dat<-dat %*% t(C.mat)
      cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
      est.var<-mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
      est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p-1)
      ts.dat<-sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[1,1:2]-est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))+
                 abs(cov.trans.dat[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
      means.dat<-colMeans(trans.dat)
      c.dat<-trans.dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
      count.temp<-0
      perm<-matrix(c(1,2,2,1), 2)
      perm.dat<-matrix(NA, n, p-1)
      count.temp<-0
```

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if (n==5) {
    for (j1 in 1:2) {
        for (j2 in 1:2) {
            for (j3 in 1:2) {
                for (j4 in 1:2) {
                    for (j5 in 1:2) {
                        perm.dat[1,]<-c(c.dat[1,perm[j1,1]],
                                        c.dat[1,perm[j1,2]])
                        perm.dat[2,]<-c(c.dat[2,perm[j2,1]],
                                        c.dat[2,perm[j2,2]])
                        perm.dat[3,]<-c(c.dat[3,perm[j3,1]],
                                        c.dat[3,perm[j3,2]])
                        perm.dat[4,]<-c(c.dat[4,perm[j4,1]],
                                        c.dat[4,perm[j4,2]])
                        perm.dat[5,]<-c(c.dat[5,perm[j5,1]],
                                        c.dat[5,perm[j5,2]])
                        cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm.dat)
                        ts.perm<-sum(abs(cov.perm[1,1:2]-est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))
                        +abs(cov.perm[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
                        if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
if (count.temp/32 < 0.05) count.pt<-count.pt+1
}
else {
    for (j1 in 1:2) {
        for (j2 in 1:2) {
            for (j3 in 1:2) {
                for (j4 in 1:2) {
                    for (j5 in 1:2) {
                        for (j6 in 1:2) {
                            for (j7 in 1:2) {
                                for (j8 in 1:2) {
                                    for (j9 in 1:2) {
                                        for (j10 in 1:2) {
                                            perm.dat[1,]<-c(c.dat[1,perm[j1,1]],
                                                            c.dat[1,perm[j1,2]])
                                            perm.dat[2,]<-c(c.dat[2,perm[j2,1]],
                                                            c.dat[2,perm[j2,2]])
                                            perm.dat[3,]<-c(c.dat[3,perm[j3,1]],
                                                            c.dat[3,perm[j3,2]])
                                            perm.dat[4,]<-c(c.dat[4,perm[j4,1]],
                                                            c.dat[4,perm[j4,2]])
                                            perm.dat[5,]<-c(c.dat[5,perm[j5,1]],
                                                            c.dat[5,perm[j5,2]])
                                            perm.dat[6,]<-c(c.dat[6,perm[j6,1]],
                                                            c.dat[6,perm[j6,2]])
                                            perm.dat[7,]<-c(c.dat[7,perm[j7,1]],
                                                            c.dat[7,perm[j7,2]])
                                            perm.dat[8,]<-c(c.dat[8,perm[j8,1]],
                                                            c.dat[8,perm[j8,2]])
                                            perm.dat[9,]<-c(c.dat[9,perm[j9,1]],
                                                            c.dat[9,perm[j9,2]])
                                            perm.dat[10,]<-c(c.dat[10,perm[j10,1]],
                                                            c.dat[10,perm[j10,2]])
                                        }
                                    }
                                }
                            }
                        }
                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
c.dat[10, perm[j10,2])
cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm.dat)
ts.perm<-sum(abs(cov.perm[1,1:2]-
est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))+
abs(cov.perm[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
#Likelihood Ratio Test
L.TH<-det(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))/(1/(p-1)*
sum(diag(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))))^(p-1)
if (-n*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
#Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
#Permutation Test
trans.dat<-dat %*% t(C.mat)
est.var<-mean(diag(cov.dat))
est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p-1)
ts.dat<-sum(abs(cov.dat[1,1:2]-est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))+
abs(cov.dat[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
means.dat<-colMeans(trans.dat)
c.dat<-trans.dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(c.dat)
t.perm<-matrix(c(1,2,2,1), 2)
perm.dat<-matrix(NA, n, p-1)
count.temp<-0
if (n==5) {
for (j1 in 1:2) {
for (j2 in 1:2) {
for (j3 in 1:2) {

for (j4 in 1:2) {
    for (j5 in 1:2) {
        perm.dat[1,]<-c(c.dat[1,perm[j1,1]],
            c.dat[1,perm[j1,2]])
        perm.dat[2,]<-c(c.dat[2,perm[j2,1]],
            c.dat[2,perm[j2,2]])
        perm.dat[3,]<-c(c.dat[3,perm[j3,1]],
            c.dat[3,perm[j3,2]])
        perm.dat[4,]<-c(c.dat[4,perm[j4,1]],
            c.dat[4,perm[j4,2]])
        perm.dat[5,]<-c(c.dat[5,perm[j5,1]],
            c.dat[5,perm[j5,2]])
        cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm.dat)
        ts.perm<-sum(abs(cov.perm[1,1:2]-est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))
            +abs(cov.perm[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
        if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
    }
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
else {
    for (j1 in 1:2) {
        for (j2 in 1:2) {
            for (j3 in 1:2) {
                for (j4 in 1:2) {
                    for (j5 in 1:2) {
                        for (j6 in 1:2) {
                            for (j7 in 1:2) {
                                for (j8 in 1:2) {
                                    for (j9 in 1:2) {
                                        for (j10 in 1:2) {
                                            perm.dat[1,]<-c(c.dat[1,perm[j1,1]],
                                                c.dat[1,perm[j1,2]])
                                            perm.dat[2,]<-c(c.dat[2,perm[j2,1]],
                                                c.dat[2,perm[j2,2]])
                                            perm.dat[3,]<-c(c.dat[3,perm[j3,1]],
                                                c.dat[3,perm[j3,2]])
                                            perm.dat[4,]<-c(c.dat[4,perm[j4,1]],
                                                c.dat[4,perm[j4,2]])
                                            perm.dat[5,]<-c(c.dat[5,perm[j5,1]],
                                                c.dat[5,perm[j5,2]])
                                            perm.dat[6,]<-c(c.dat[6,perm[j6,1]],
                                                c.dat[6,perm[j6,2]])
                                            perm.dat[7,]<-c(c.dat[7,perm[j7,1]],
                                                c.dat[7,perm[j7,2]])
                                            perm.dat[8,]<-c(c.dat[8,perm[j8,1]],
                                                c.dat[8,perm[j8,2]])
                                            perm.dat[9,]<-c(c.dat[9,perm[j9,1]],
                                                c.dat[9,perm[j9,2]])
                                            perm.dat[10,]<-c(c.dat[10,perm[j10,1]],
                                                c.dat[10,perm[j10,2]])
                                            cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm.dat)
                                            ts.perm<-sum(abs(cov.perm[1,1:2]-
                                                est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))+
                                            +abs(cov.perm[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
                                            if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
                                        }
                                    }
                                }
                            }
                        }
                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
if (count.temp/32 < 0.05) count.pt<-count.pt+1
}
abs(cov.perm[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
if (count.temp/1024 < 0.05) count.pt<-count.pt+1
}
}
if (dist=="de") {
b<-0.7824
d<-0.0679
c1<-b^2+6*b*d+9*d^2
c2<-6*d^2
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
    for (j in i:p) {
        corr.mat[i,j]<-cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*cov.mat[j,j])
        corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
    }
}
corr.int<-corr.mat
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (k in (j+1):p) {
        corr.int[j,k]<-Re(polyroot(c(-corr.mat[j,k],c1,0,c2))[1])
        corr.int[k,j]<-corr.int[j,k]
    }
}
for (i in 1:K) {
    norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
    dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
    cov.dat<-(-n-1)/n*var(dat)
#Likelihood Ratio Test
    L.TH<-det(C.mat %% cov.dat %% t(C.mat))/(1/(p-1)*
               sum(diag(C.mat %% cov.dat %% t(C.mat))))^(p-1)
    if (-n*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
#Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
    if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
#Permutation Test
    trans.dat<-dat %% t(C.mat)
    cov.trans.dat<-(-n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
est.var<-mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p-1)
ts.dat<-sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[1,1:2]-est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))+
        abs(cov.trans.dat[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
    means.dat<-colMeans(trans.dat)
c.dat<-trans.dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
count.temp<0
count.temp<-0
perm<-matrix(c(1,2,2,1), 2)
perm.dat<-matrix(NA, n, p-1)  
count.temp<-0  
if (n==5) {
  for (j1 in 1:2) {
    for (j2 in 1:2) {
      for (j3 in 1:2) {
        for (j4 in 1:2) {
          for (j5 in 1:2) {
            perm.dat[1,]<-c(c.dat[1,perm[j1,1]],
                            c.dat[1,perm[j1,2]])
            perm.dat[2,]<-c(c.dat[2,perm[j2,1]],
                            c.dat[2,perm[j2,2]])
            perm.dat[3,]<-c(c.dat[3,perm[j3,1]],
                            c.dat[3,perm[j3,2]])
            perm.dat[4,]<-c(c.dat[4,perm[j4,1]],
                            c.dat[4,perm[j4,2]])
            perm.dat[5,]<-c(c.dat[5,perm[j5,1]],
                            c.dat[5,perm[j5,2]])
            cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm.dat)
            ts.perm<-sum(abs(cov.perm[1,1:2]-est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))
                        +abs(cov.perm[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
            if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
          }
        }
      }
    }
  }
  if (count.temp/32 < 0.05) count.pt<-count.pt+1
}  
else {
  for (j1 in 1:2) {
    for (j2 in 1:2) {
      for (j3 in 1:2) {
        for (j4 in 1:2) {
          for (j5 in 1:2) {
            for (j6 in 1:2) {
              for (j7 in 1:2) {
                for (j8 in 1:2) {
                  for (j9 in 1:2) {
                    for (j10 in 1:2) {
                      perm.dat[1,]<-c(c.dat[1,perm[j1,1]],
                                      c.dat[1,perm[j1,2]])
                      perm.dat[2,]<-c(c.dat[2,perm[j2,1]],
                                      c.dat[2,perm[j2,2]])
                      perm.dat[3,]<-c(c.dat[3,perm[j3,1]],
                                      c.dat[3,perm[j3,2]])
                      perm.dat[4,]<-c(c.dat[4,perm[j4,1]],
                                      c.dat[4,perm[j4,2]])
                      perm.dat[5,]<-c(c.dat[5,perm[j5,1]],
                                      c.dat[5,perm[j5,2]])
                      perm.dat[6,]<-c(c.dat[6,perm[j6,1]],
                                      c.dat[6,perm[j6,2]])
                      perm.dat[7,]<-c(c.dat[7,perm[j7,1]],
                                      c.dat[7,perm[j7,2]])
                      perm.dat[8,]<-c(c.dat[8,perm[j8,1]],
                                      c.dat[8,perm[j8,2]])
                      perm.dat[9,]<-c(c.dat[9,perm[j9,1]],
                                      c.dat[9,perm[j9,2]])
                      
                      
                    }
                  }
                }
              }
            }
          }
        }
      }
    }
  }
}
c.dat[9,perm[j9,2]])
perm.dat[10,]<-c(c.dat[10,perm[j10,1]],
c.dat[10,perm[j10,2]])
cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm.dat)
ts.perm<-sum(abs(cov.perm[1,1:2]-
est.cov.mat[1,1:2]))+
abs(cov.perm[2,2]-est.cov.mat[2,2])
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
if (count.temp/1024 < 0.05) count.pt<-count.pt+1
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
}
p.values<-c(count.pt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Type H", 9, TRUE,
"\t")
K<-1000
#Type I Error
for (n in c(5, 10)) {
  for (lambda in c(2, 3, 4)) {
    for (diff in c(lambda-1, lambda, lambda+1)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      typeH.perm("norm", n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      typeH.perm("unif", n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      typeH.perm("de", n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    }
  }
}
#Power vs. Serial Correlation
p<-3
for (n in c(5, 10)) {
  for (sigma in c(1, 3, 5)) {
    for (rho in c(0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
      cov.mat<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*diag(p)
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*rho^(j-i)
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
    }
  }
}
A.1.4 RANDOMIZATION TEST OF TYPE H STRUCTURE

## Randomization Test of Type H ##

library(MASS)

#Function to perform the test of type H with multivariate normal data.
#Inputs are n-sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix;
#struc="TH" or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to
generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations

typeH.norm<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<"norm"
  p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
  helm<-t(contr.helmert(p))
  const<1/sqrt(rowSums(helm^2))
  C.mat<-const*helm
  df<-.5*p*(p-1)
  crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
  C<-1-(2*p^2-3*p+3)/(6*(p-1)*(n-1))
  perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
  if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
      dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
      cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
      #Likelihood Ratio Test
      L.TH<-det(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))/(1/(p-1)*
      sum(diag(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))))^(p-1)
      if (-n*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
      #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
      if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
      #Randomization Test
      trans.dat<-dat %*% t(C.mat)
      cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
      est.var<mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
      est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p-1)
      ts.dat<-0
      for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
        ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:(p-1)]-
        est.cov.mat[j,j:(p-1)]))
      }
      means.dat<-colMeans(trans.dat)
      c.dat<-trans.dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
      count.temp<-0
      for (j in 1:1000) {
        perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
      }
    }
  }
  }
  }
  }
  typeH.perm("norm", n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
  typeH.perm("unif", n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
  typeH.perm("de", n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
cov.perm<-((n-1)/n)*var(perm)

for (k in 1:(p-1)) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:(p-1)])
                          -est.cov.mat[k,k:(p-1)]))
}

if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1

if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1

p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)

write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Type H", 9, TRUE, "\t")

else {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        dat<-mvnrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
        trans.dat<-dat %*% t(C.mat)
        cov.trans.dat<-((n-1)/n)*var(trans.dat)
        est.var<-mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
        est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p-1)
        ts.dat<-0
        for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
            ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:(p-1)])
                              -est.cov.mat[j,j:(p-1)]))
        }
        means.dat<-colMeans(trans.dat)
        c.dat<-trans.dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
        count.temp<-0
        for (j in 1:1000) {
            perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
            cov.perm<-((n-1)/n)*var(perm)
            ts.perm<-0
            for (k in 1:(p-1)) {
                ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:(p-1)])
                                    -est.cov.mat[k,k:(p-1)]))
            }
            if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
            if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
        }
        p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
        write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Type H", 9, TRUE, "\t")
    }
}

# Function to perform the test of type H with multivariate uniform data.
# Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; 
# struc="TH" or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to 
# generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations 
# typeH.unif<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) { 
# dist="unif"
# p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
# helm<-t(contr.helmert(p))
# const<-1/sqrt(rowSums(helm^2))
}
C.mat <- const * helm

df <- -0.5 * p * (p-1) - 1

crit <- qchisq(.95, df)

C <- 1 - (2 * p^2 - 3 * p + 3) / (6 * (p-1) * (n-1))

for (i in 1:p) {
    for (j in i:p) {
        corr.mat[i,j] <- -2 * sin((pi/6) * (cov.mat[i,j] / sqrt(cov.mat[i,i] * cov.mat[j,j])))
    }
}

if (n > p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        unif01.dat <- pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
        dat <- t(sqrt(12 * diag(cov.mat)) * t(unif01.dat))
        cov.dat <- (n-1)/n * var(dat)

        # Likelihood Ratio Test
        L.TH <- det(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat)) / (1/(p-1) * sum(diag(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))))^(p-1)
        if (-n * log(L.TH) > crit) count.lr <- count.lr + 1

        # Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
        if (-C * (n-1) * log(L.TH) > crit) count.lrc <- count.lrc + 1

        # Randomization Test
        trans.dat <- dat %*% t(C.mat)
        cov.trans.dat <- (n-1)/n * var(trans.dat)
        est.var <- mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
        est.cov.mat <- est.var * diag(p-1)
        ts.dat <- 0
        for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
            ts.dat <- ts.dat + sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:(p-1)] - est.cov.mat[j,j:(p-1)]))
        }
        means.dat <- colMeans(trans.dat)
        c.dat <- trans.dat - matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
        count.temp <- 0
        for (j in 1:1000) {
            perm <- t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
            cov.perm <- (n-1)/n * var(perm)
            ts.perm <- 0
            for (k in 1:(p-1)) {
                ts.perm <- ts.perm + sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:(p-1)] - est.cov.mat[k,k:(p-1)]))
            }
            if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp <- count.temp + 1
        }
        if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt <- count.rt + 1
    }
}

p.values <- c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(p.values, "Type H", 9, TRUE, "\t")
for (i in 1:K) {
  unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
  dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*t(unif01.dat))
  #Randomization Test
  trans.dat<-dat %*% t(C.mat)
  cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
  est.var<-mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
  est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p-1)
  ts.dat<-0
  for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:(p-1)]-
                        est.cov.mat[j,j:(p-1)]))
  }
  means.dat<-colMeans(trans.dat)
  c.dat<-trans.dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
  count.temp<-0
  for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
    cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
    ts.perm<-0
    for (k in 1:(p-1)) {
      ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:(p-1)]-
                            est.cov.mat[k,k:(p-1)]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  }
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Type H", 9,
      TRUE, "\t")
}

#Function to perform the test of type H with multivariate double
#exponential data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated
#covariance matrix; struc="TH" or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter
#values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
typeH.de<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<"de"
  p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
  helm<-t(contr.helmert(p))
  const<-1/sqrt(rowSums(helm^2))
  C.mat<const*helm
  b<-0.7824
  d<-0.0679
  c1<-b^2+6*b*d+9*d^2
  c2<-6*d^2
  df<-.5*p*(p-1)-1
  crit<qchisq(.95, df)
  C<-(2*p^2-3*p+3)/(6*(p-1)*(n-1))
  perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
  corr.mat<-cov.mat
  for (i in 1:p) {
    for (j in 1:p) {
for (j in 1:p) {
    corr.mat[i,j]<-cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*cov.mat[j,j])
    corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
}
}
corr.int<-corr.mat
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (k in (j+1):p) {
        corr.int[j,k]<-Re(polyroot(c(-corr.mat[j,k],c1,0,c2))[1])
        corr.int[k,j]<-corr.int[j,k]
    }
}
if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
        dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
        cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
        #Likelihood Ratio Test
        L.TH<-det(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))/(1/(p-1)*
                    sum(diag(C.mat %*% cov.dat %*% t(C.mat))))^(p-1)
        if (-n*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
        #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
        if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.TH) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
        #Randomization Test
        trans.dat<-dat %*% t(C.mat)
        cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
        est.var<-mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
        est.cov.mat<-est.var*diag(p-1)
        ts.dat<-0
        for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
            ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:(p-1)]-
                                 est.cov.mat[j,j:(p-1)]))
        }
        means.dat<-colMeans(trans.dat)
        c.dat<-trans.dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
        count.temp<-0
        for (j in 1:1000) {
            perm<-t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
            cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
            ts.perm<-0
            for (k in 1:(p-1)) {
                ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:(p-1)]-
                                       est.cov.mat[k,k:(p-1)]))
            }
            if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
        }
        if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
    }
    p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
    write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Type H", 9, TRUE, "\t")
} else {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.int)
        dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
        #Randomization Test
trans.dat <- dat %*% t(C.mat)
cov.trans.dat <- (n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
est.var <- mean(diag(cov.trans.dat))
est.cov.mat <- est.var * diag(p-1)
ts.dat <- 0
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    ts.dat <- ts.dat + sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:(p-1)] - est.cov.mat[j,j:(p-1)]))
}
means.dat <- colMeans(trans.dat)
c.dat <- trans.dat - matrix(means.dat, n, p-1, byrow=T)
count.temp <- 0
for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm <- t(apply(c.dat, 1, sample))
cov.perm <- (n-1)/n*var(perm)
ts.perm <- 0
    for (k in 1:(p-1)) {
        ts.perm <- ts.perm + sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:(p-1)] - est.cov.mat[k,k:(p-1)]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp <- count.temp + 1
    if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt <- count.rt + 1
}
p.values <- c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Type H", 9, TRUE, \t)
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (diff in c(0.1, 0.4, 0.8)) {
    cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
    for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
      for (j in (i+1):p) {
        cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
        cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
      }
    }
    typeH.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    typeH.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    typeH.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
  }
}

p<-10
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (lambda in c(0.5, 0.75, 1)) {
    for (diff in c(.1, .1+(2*lambda+1)/50, .1+(2*lambda+1)/25)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      typeH.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      typeH.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      typeH.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    }
  }
}

# Power vs. Serial Correlation
n<-25
p<-3
for (sigma in c(1, 3, 5)) {
  for (rho in c(0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
    cov.mat<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*diag(p)
    for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
      for (j in (i+1):p) {
        cov.mat[i,j]<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*rho^(j-i)
        cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
      }
    }
    typeH.norm(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
    typeH.unif(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
    typeH.de(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
  }
}

for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
A.1.5 RANDOMIZATION TEST OF SERIAL CORRELATION

## Test of Serial Correlation ##

library(MASS)

#Function to perform the test of serial correlation with multivariate normal data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; struc="CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations

sercorr.norm<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<="norm"
  p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
  df<-.5*p*(p+1)-2
  crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
  C<-1/n*(-1.541+1.017*n-0.414*p)
  perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
  C1<-diag(p)
  C1[1,1]<-C1[1,1]-1
  C1[p,p]<-C1[p,p]-1
  C2<-matrix(0, p, p)
  for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    C2[j,j+1]<-1
    C2[j+1,j]<-1
  }
  if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
      dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
      cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
      x.bar<-t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
      c.dat<-dat-x.bar
      S1<-0
      S2<-0
      S3<-0
for (j in 1:n) {
    S1<-S1+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C1%*%c.dat[j,]
    S2<-S2+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C2%*%c.dat[j,]
    S3<-S3+t(c.dat[j,])%*%c.dat[j,]
}

func<-function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+S2*p
rho.hat<-uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root

sig2.hat<-as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat^2-S2*rho.hat+S3))

#Likelihood Ratio Test
L.SC<-det(cov.dat)/(sig2.hat^p/(1-rho.hat^2))
if (-n*log(L.SC) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
#Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
if (-C*n*log(L.SC) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
#Randomization Test
est.cov.mat<-sig2.hat/(1-rho.hat^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (k in (j+1):p) {
        est.cov.mat[j,k]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]*rho.hat^(k-j)
        est.cov.mat[k,j]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]
    }
}
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
est.cov.mat<-diag(p)
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
    ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:p]-
est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
ts.perm<-0
    for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-
est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial Correlation", 9, TRUE, ":")
S2<-0
S3<-0
for (j in 1:n) {
  S1<-S1+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C1%*%c.dat[j,]
  S2<-S2+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C2%*%c.dat[j,]
  S3<-S3+t(c.dat[j,])%*%c.dat[j,]
}

func<-function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-
  2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+S2*p
rho.hat<-uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
sig2.hat<-as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat^2-S2*rho.hat+S3))

#Randomization Test
est.cov.mat<-sig2.hat/(1-rho.hat^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
  for (k in (j+1):p) {
    est.cov.mat[j,k]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]*rho.hat^(k-j)
    est.cov.mat[k,j]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]
  }
}
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
  trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
est.cov.mat<-diag(p)
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
  ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:p]-
est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial
Correlation", 9, TRUE, " \t")
}

#Function to perform the test of serial correlation with multivariate
#uniform data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance
#matrix; struc="CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter
#values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
sercorr.unif<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<-"unif"
p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
```r
df<-.5*p*(p+1)-2
crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
C<-1/n*(-1.541+1.017*n-0.414*p)
perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
count.rt<-0
count.lr<-0
count.lrc<-0
C1<-diag(p)
C1[1,1]<-C1[1,1]-1
C1[p,p]<-C1[p,p]-1
C2<-matrix(0, p, p)
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
  C2[j,j+1]<-1
  C2[j+1,j]<-1
}
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in i:p) {
    corr.mat[i,j]<-2*sin((pi/6)*(cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*
corr.mat[j,j])))
  }
}
if (n>p) {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
    dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*t(unif01.dat))
    cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    x.bar<-t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
    c.dat<-dat-x.bar
    S1<-0
    S2<-0
    S3<-0
    for (j in 1:n) {
      S1<-S1+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C1%*%c.dat[j,]
      S2<-S2+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C2%*%c.dat[j,]
      S3<-S3+t(c.dat[j,])%*%c.dat[j,]
    }
    func<-function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-
2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+2*p*rho.hat+S2*p
    rho.hat<-uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
    sig2.hat<-as.numeric(1/(n*p))*(S1*rho.hat^2-S2*rho.hat+S3))
#Likelihood Ratio Test
L.SC<-det(cov.dat)/(sig2.hat^p/(1-rho.hat^2))
if (-n*log(L.SC) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
#Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
if (-C*n*log(L.SC) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
#Randomization Test
est.cov.mat<-sig2.hat/(1-rho.hat^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
  for (k in (j+1):p) {
    est.cov.mat[j,k]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]*rho.hat^(k-j)
    est.cov.mat[k,j]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]
  }
}
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
```
trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
est.cov.mat<-diag(p)
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
    ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:p]-
est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
ts.perm<-0
    for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
    if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial
correlation", 9, TRUE, "\t")
else {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*(unif01.dat))
x.bar<-t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
c.dat<-dat-x.bar
S1<-0
S2<-0
S3<-0
for (j in 1:n) {
    S1<-S1+t(c.dat[j,j])**C1**c.dat[j,j]
S2<-S2+t(c.dat[j,j])**C2**c.dat[j,j]
S3<-S3+t(c.dat[j,j])**c.dat[j,j]
}
func<-function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+S2*p
rho.hat<-uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
sig2.hat<-as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat^2-S2*rho.hat+S3))
#Randomization Test
est.cov.mat<-sig2.hat/(1-rho.hat^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (k in (j+1):p) {
        est.cov.mat[j,k]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]*rho.hat^(k-j)
est.cov.mat[k,j]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]
    }
}
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
trans.dat[,j] <- trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
cov.trans.dat <- (n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
est.cov.mat <- diag(p)
ts.dat <- 0
for (j in 1:p) {
}
count.temp <- 0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm <- t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
cov.perm <- (n-1)/n*var(perm)
ts.perm <- 0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm <- ts.perm + sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p] - est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp <- count.temp + 1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt <- count.rt + 1
p.values <- c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial Correlation", 9, TRUE, 	)
}

# Function to perform the test of serial correlation with multivariate double exponential data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; struc="CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
sercorr.de <- function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
  dist <- "de"
p <- dim(cov.mat)[1]
b <- -0.7824
d <- 0.0679
c1 <- b^2 + 6*b*d + 9*d^2
c2 <- 6*d^2
df <- -5*p*(p+1)^2 - 2
crit <- qchisq(.95, df)
C <- 1/n*(-1.541 + 1.017*n - 0.414*p)
perm <- matrix(NA, n, p)
corr.mat <- cov.mat
  for (i in 1:p) {
    for (j in i:p) {
      corr.mat[i,j] <- corr.mat[i,j] - 1
      corr.mat[j,i] <- corr.mat[j,i] - 1
    }
  }
corr.mat <- cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in i:p) {

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corr.mat[i,j] <- cov.mat[i,j] / sqrt(cov.mat[i,i] * cov.mat[j,j])
corr.mat[j,i] <- corr.mat[i,j]
}
corr.int <- corr.mat
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
  for (k in (j+1):p) {
    corr.int[j,k] <- Re(polyroot(c(-(corr.mat[j,k], c1, 0, c2)))[1])
    corr.int[k,j] <- corr.int[j,k]
  }
}
if (n > p) {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    norm.dat <- mvnrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
    dat <- t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat)) * t(b * norm.dat + d * norm.dat^3))
    cov.dat <- (n-1) / n * var(dat)
    x.bar <- t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
    c.dat <- dat - x.bar
    S1 <- 0
    S2 <- 0
    S3 <- 0
    for (j in 1:n) {
      S1 <- S1 + t(c.dat[j,]) %*% C1 %*% c.dat[j,]
      S2 <- S2 + t(c.dat[j,]) %*% C2 %*% c.dat[j,]
      S3 <- S3 + t(c.dat[j,]) %*% c.dat[j,]
    }
    func <- function(rho.hat) -2 * S1 * (1-p) * rho.hat^3 + S2 * (2-p) * rho.hat^2 - 2 * (S1 * p + S3) * rho.hat + S2 * p
    rho.hat <- uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
    sig2.hat <- as.numeric(1 / (n * p) * (S1 * rho.hat^2 - S2 * rho.hat + S3))
  }
  L.SC <- det(cov.dat) / (sig2.hat^p / (1 - rho.hat^2))
  if (-n * log(L.SC) > crit) count.lr <- count.lr + 1
  # Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
  if (-C * n * log(L.SC) > crit) count.lrc <- count.lrc + 1
  # Randomization Test
  est.cov.mat <- sig2.hat / (1 - rho.hat^2) * matrix(1, p, p)
  for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (k in (j+1):p) {
      est.cov.mat[j,k] <- est.cov.mat[j,k] * rho.hat^(k-j)
      est.cov.mat[k,j] <- est.cov.mat[j,k]
    }
  }
eigen.vec <- eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
  eigen.val <- eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
  trans.dat <- c.dat %*% eigen.vec
  for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[,j] <- trans.dat[,j] / sqrt(eigen.val[j])
  }
cov.trans.dat <- (n-1) / n * var(trans.dat)
est.cov.mat <- diag(p)
ts.dat <- 0
  for (j in 1:p) {
  }
count.temp <- 0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
  cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
  ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial Correlation", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}
else {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
    dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
    x.bar<-t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
    c.dat<-dat-x.bar
    S1<-0
    S2<-0
    S3<-0
    for (j in 1:n) {
      S1<-S1+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C1%*%c.dat[j,]
      S2<-S2+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C2%*%c.dat[j,]
      S3<-S3+t(c.dat[j,])%*%c.dat[j,]
    }
    func<-function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+2*p
    rho.hat<-uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
    sig2.hat<-as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat^2-S2*rho.hat+S3))

    #Randomization Test
    est.cov.mat<-sig2.hat/(1-rho.hat^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
    for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
      for (k in (j+1):p) {
        est.cov.mat[j,k]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]*rho.hat^(k-j)
        est.cov.mat[k,j]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]
      }
    }
    eigen.vec<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
    eigen.val<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
    trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
    for (j in 1:p) {
      trans.dat[j,]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
    }
    cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
    est.cov.mat<-diag(p)
    ts.dat<-0
    for (j in 1:p) {
      ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:p]-est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
    }
  }
  count.temp<-0
  for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
  }
cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
ts.perm<-0
for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
} 
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial
  Correlation", 9, TRUE, "\t")

K<-1000
#Type I Error
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
    for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
        for (sigma in c(1, 3, 5)) {
            for (rho in c(0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
                cov.mat<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*diag(p)
                for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
                    for (j in (i+1):p) {
                        cov.mat[i,j]<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*rho^(j-i)
                        cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
                    }
                }
                sercorr.norm(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
                sercorr.unif(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
                sercorr.de(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
            }
        }
    }
}
#Power vs. Compound Symmetry
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
    for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
        for (var in c(1, 9, 25)) {
            for (rho in c(0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
                cov.mat<var*((1-rho)*diag(p)+matrix(rho,p,p))
                sercorr.norm(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
                sercorr.unif(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
                sercorr.de(n, cov.mat, "CS", var, rho, K)
            }
        }
    }
}
#Power vs. Type H
p<-3
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
    for (lambda in c(2, 3, 4)) {
        for (diff in c(lambda-1, lambda, lambda+1)) {
            cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
            for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
                for (j in (i+1):p) {
                    cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
                    cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
p<-5
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (lambda in c(1.25, 1.5)) {
    for (diff in c(2*lambda/5-.4, 2*lambda/5, 2*lambda/5+.4)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      sercorr.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      sercorr.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      sercorr.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    }
  }
}
}

lambda<-1
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (diff in c(0.1, 0.4, 0.8)) {
    cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
    for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
      for (j in (i+1):p) {
        cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
        cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
      }
    }
    sercorr.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    sercorr.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    sercorr.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
  }
}
}

p<-10
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (lambda in c(0.5, 0.75, 1)) {
    for (diff in c(.1, .1+(2*lambda+1)/50, .1+(2*lambda+1)/25)) {
      cov.mat<-diag(seq(1, (p-1)*diff+1, by=diff))
      for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
        for (j in (i+1):p) {
          cov.mat[i,j]<-0.5*(cov.mat[i,i]+cov.mat[j,j])-lambda
          cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
        }
      }
      sercorr.norm(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      sercorr.unif(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
      sercorr.de(n, cov.mat, "TH", lambda, diff, K)
    }
  }
}
A.1.6 RANDOMIZATION TEST OF INDEPENDENCE OF SETS OF VARIATES

### Randomization test of independence of sets of variates ###

```r
library(MASS)

# Function to perform the test of independence of sets of variates with # multivariate normal data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated # covariance matrix; ind.vec=vector of the number of variates in each # group; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the # covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
indep.norm<-function(n, cov.mat, ind.vec, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<-'norm'
  p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
  m<-length(ind.vec)
  df<-.5*(p^2-sum(ind.vec^2))
  crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
  C<-1-1/(2*(n-1))-(p^3-sum(ind.vec^3))/(3*(n-1)*(p^2-sum(ind.vec^2)))
  perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
  if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
      dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
      cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
      # Likelihood Ratio Test
      prod.cov<-1
      start<-1
      end<-ind.vec[1]
      for (j in 1:m) {
        if (end-start==0) prod.cov<-prod.cov*(n-1)/n*var(dat[,start])
        else prod.cov<-prod.cov*det((n-1)/n*var(dat[,start:end]))
        start<-end+1
        end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
      }
      L.I<-det(cov.dat)/prod.cov
      if (-n*log(L.I) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
      # Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
      if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.I) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
      # Randomization Test
      est.corr.mat<-cov2cor(cov.dat)
      start<-1
      end<-ind.vec[1]
      for (j in 1:(m-1)) {
        est.corr.mat[start:end,(end+1):p]<-0
        est.corr.mat[(end+1):p,start:end]<-0
        start<-end+1
        end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
      }
      eigen.vec<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
      eigen.val<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
      means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
      c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
      trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
      for (j in 1:p) {
        }  
    }
  }
}
```
trans.dat[,j] <- trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
corr.trans.dat <- cor(trans.dat)
est.corr.mat <- diag(p)
ts.dat <- 0
for (j in 1:p) {
}
count.temp <- 0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm <- t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
corr.perm <- cor(perm)
ts.perm <- 0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm <- ts.perm + sum(abs(corr.perm[k,k:p] - est.corr.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp <- count.temp + 1
} if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt <- count.rt + 1
p.values <- c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Independence", length(ind.vec)+8, TRUE, "\t")
else {
  for (i in 1:K) {
    dat <- mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
cov.dat <- (n-1)/n*var(dat)
#Randomization Test
est.corr.mat <- cov2cor(cov.dat)
start <- 1
end <- ind.vec[1]
for (j in 1:(m-1)) {
  est.corr.mat[start:end, (end+1):p] <- 0
  est.corr.mat[(end+1):p, start:end] <- 0
  start <- end + 1
  end <- end + ind.vec[j + 1]
}
eigen.vec <- eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
eigen.val <- eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
means.dat <- colMeans(dat)
c.dat <- dat - matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
trans.dat <- c.dat *%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
  trans.dat[,j] <- trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
corr.trans.dat <- cor(trans.dat)
est.corr.mat <- diag(p)
ts.dat <- 0
for (j in 1:p) {
}
count.temp <- 0
for (j in 1:1000) {
perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
corr.perm<-cor(perm)
ts.perm<-0
for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(corr.perm[k,k:p]-
est.corr.mat[k,k:p]))
}
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Independence",
    length(ind.vec)+8, TRUE, "\t")

# Function to perform the test of independence of sets variates with
# multivariate uniform data. Inputs are n=sample size;
# cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; ind.vec=vector of the number of
# variates in each group; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to
# generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
indep.unif<-function(n, cov.mat, ind.vec, par1, par2, K) {
    dist<="unif"
    p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
m<-length(ind.vec)
df<-.5*(p^2-sum(ind.vec^2))
crit<qchisq(.95, df)
C<-1-1/(2*(n-1))-(p^3-sum(ind.vec^3))/(3*(n-1)*(p^2-sum(ind.vec^2)))
perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
count.rt<-0
count.lr<-0
count.lrc<-0
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
    for (j in 1:p) {
        corr.mat[i,j]<-2*sin((pi/6)*(cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*
cov.mat[j,j]))))
        corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
    }
}
if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        unif01.dat<-pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
dat<-t(sqrt(12*diag(cov.mat))*t(unif01.dat))
cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    # Likelihood Ratio Test
    prod.cov<-1
    start<-1
    end<ind.vec[1]
    for (j in 1:m) {
        if (end-start==0) prod.cov<-prod.cov*(n-1)/n*var(dat[,start])
        else prod.cov<-prod.cov*det((n-1)/n*var(dat[,start:end]))
            start<-end+1
        end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
    }
    L.I<-det(cov.dat)/prod.cov
if (-n*log(L.I) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1  
#Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.I) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1  
#Randomization Test
est.corr.mat<-cov2cor(cov.dat)
start<-1
end<-ind.vec[1]
for (j in 1:(m-1)) {
    est.corr.mat[start:end,(end+1):p]<-0
    est.corr.mat[(end+1):p,start:end]<-0
    start<-end+1
    end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
}
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
corr.trans.dat<-cor(trans.dat)
est.corr.mat<-diag(p)
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
    ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(corr.trans.dat[j,j:p]-
est.corr.mat[j,j:p]))
}
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
corr.perm<-cor(perm)
ts.perm<-0
    for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(corr.perm[k,k:p]-
est.corr.mat[k,k:p]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Independence",
      length(ind.vec)+8, TRUE, 	)
start<-end+1
end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
}
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
  trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
corr.trans.dat<-cor(trans.dat)
est.corr.mat<-diag(p)
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
  ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(corr.trans.dat[j,j:p]-
est.corr.mat[j,j:p]))
}
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
corr.perm<-cor(perm)
ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(corr.perm[k,k:p]-
est.corr.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Independence", length(ind.vec)+8, TRUE, "\t")
}

#Function to perform the test of independence of sets of variates with #multivariate double exponential data. Inputs are n=sample size; #cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; ind.vec=vector of the number of #variates in each group; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to #generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations indep.de<-function(n, cov.mat, ind.vec, par1, par2, K) {
dist<="de"
p<dim(cov.mat)[1]
b<-0.7824
d<-0.0679
c1<-b^2+6*b*d+9*d^2
c2<-6*d^2
m<-length(ind.vec)
df<-0.5*(p^2-sum(ind.vec^2))
crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
C<-1-1/(2*(n-1)-(p^3-sum(ind.vec^3))/(3*(n-1)*(p^2-sum(ind.vec^2))))
perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
count.rt<-0
count.lr<-0
count.lrc<-0
corr.mat<-cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
    for (j in i:p) {
        corr.mat[i,j]<-cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*cov.mat[j,j])
        corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
    }
}
corr.int<-corr.mat
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (k in (j+1):p) {
        corr.int[j,k]<-Re(polyroot(c(-corr.mat[j,k],c1,0,c2))[[1]])
        corr.int[k,j]<-corr.int[j,k]
    }
}
if (n>p) {
    for (i in 1:K) {
        norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
        dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
        cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
        #Likelihood Ratio Test
        prod.cov<-1
        start<-1
        end<-ind.vec[1]
        for (j in 1:m) {
            if (end-start==0) prod.cov<-prod.cov*((n-1)/n*var(dat[,start]))
            else prod.cov<-prod.cov*det((n-1)/n*var(dat[,start:end]))
            start<-end+1
            end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
        }
        L.I<-det(cov.dat)/prod.cov
        if (-n*log(L.I) > crit) count.lr<-count.lr+1
        #Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
        if (-C*(n-1)*log(L.I) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
        #Randomization Test
        est.corr.mat<-cov2cor(cov.dat)
        start<-1
        end<-ind.vec[1]
        for (j in 1:(m-1)) {
            est.corr.mat[start:end,(end+1):p]<-0
            est.corr.mat[(end+1):p,start:end]<-0
            start<-end+1
            end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
        }
        eigen.vec<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
        eigen.val<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
        means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
        c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
        trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
        for (j in 1:p) {
            trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
        }
        corr.trans.dat<-cor(trans.dat)
        est.corr.mat<-diag(p)
        ts.dat<-0
        for (j in 1:p) {
            ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(corr.trans.dat[j,j:p]-
                                est.corr.mat[j,j:p]))
        }
    }
}
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count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
  corr.perm<-cor(perm)
  ts.perm<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(corr.perm[k,k:p] -
      est.corr.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, count.lr/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Independence",
  length(ind.vec)+8, TRUE, "\t")
}
else {
  for (i in 1:i) {
    norm.dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
    dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
    cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
    # Randomization Test
    est.corr.mat<-cov2cor(cov.dat)
    start<-1
    end<-ind.vec[1]
    for (j in 1:(m-1)) {
      est.corr.mat[start:end,(end+1):p]<-0
      est.corr.mat[(end+1):p,start:end]<-0
      start<-end+1
      end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
    }
    eigen.vec<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
    eigen.val<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
    means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
    c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
    trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
    for (j in 1:p) {
      trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
    }
    corr.trans.dat<-cor(trans.dat)
    est.corr.mat<-diag(p)
    ts.dat<-0
    for (j in 1:p) {
      ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(corr.trans.dat[j,j:p] -
        est.corr.mat[j,j:p]))
    }
    count.temp<-0
    for (j in 1:1000) {
      perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
      corr.perm<-cor(perm)
      ts.perm<-0
      for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(corr.perm[k,k:p] -
          est.corr.mat[k,k:p]))
      }
    }
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
} if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
} p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA") write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Independence", length(ind.vec)+8, TRUE, "\t")
} K<-1000
# Type I Error
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (rho in c(0.2, 0.5, 0.8)) {
    cov.mat<matrix(c(1,0,0,0,1,rho,0,rho,1),3)
    indep.norm(n, cov.mat, c(1,2), rho, 0, K)
    indep.unif(n, cov.mat, c(1,2), rho, 0, K)
    indep.de(n, cov.mat, c(1,2), rho, 0, K)
    cov.mat<matrix(c(1,rho,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,
A.1.7 RANDOMIZATION TEST OF INDEPENDENCE OF SETS OF VARIATES

FOR n=5 AND (5, 5)

## Randomization test of independence for n=5 and (5,5) ##

library(MASS)

# Function to perform the test of independence of sets of variates with # multivariate normal data, n=5, and (5,5). Inputs are n=sample size; # cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; ind.vec=vector of the number of # variates in each group; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to # generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations

indepss.norm<-function(n, cov.mat, ind.vec, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<"norm"
  p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
  m<-length(ind.vec)
  perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
  count.rt<-0
  count.lr<-0
  count.lrc<-0
i<-0
q<-0
while (i<K) {
  q<-q+1
  dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
  cov.dat<-(-n-1)/n*var(dat)
  #Randomization Test
  est.corr.mat<-cov2cor(cov.dat)
  start<-1
  end<-ind.vec[1]
  for (j in 1:(m-1)) {
    est.corr.mat[start:end,(end+1):p]<-0
    est.corr.mat[(end+1):p,start:end]<-0
    start<-end+1
    end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
  }
  eigen.vec<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
  eigen.val<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
  if (sum(eigen.val<=0)>0) next
  else i<-i+1
  means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
  c.dat<-dat-means.dat
  trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
  for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
  }
  corr.trans.dat<--cor(trans.dat)
  est.corr.mat<-diag(p)
  ts.dat<-0
  for (j in 1:p) {
    ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(corr.trans.dat[,j:p]-
      est.corr.mat[,j:p]))
  }
  count.temp<-0
  for (j in 1:1000) {
    perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
    corr.perm<--cor(perm)
    ts.perm<-0
    for (k in 1:p) {
      ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(corr.perm[,k:p]-est.corr.mat[,k:p]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  }
  if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, q, p.values),
  "IndependenceSS", length(ind.vec)+9, TRUE, \\
  "\t")
}

#Function to perform the test of independence of sets variates with
#multivariate uniform data, n=5, and (5,5).  Inputs are n=sample size;
#cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; ind.vec=vector of the number of
#variates in each group; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to
#generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
indepss.unif<-function(n, cov.mat, ind.vec, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<-"unif"
p <- dim(cov.mat)[1]
m <- length(ind.vec)
perm <- matrix(NA, n, p)
count.rt <- 0
count.lr <- 0
count.lrc <- 0
i <- 0
q <- 0
corr.mat <- cov.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in i:p) {
    corr.mat[i, j] <- 2 * sin((pi/6) * (cov.mat[i, j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i, i] * cov.mat[j, j])))
    corr.mat[j, i] <- corr.mat[i, j]
  }
}
while (i < K) {
  q <- q + 1
  unif01.dat <- pnorm(mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.mat))
dat <- t(sqrt(12 * diag(cov.mat)) * t(unif01.dat))
cov.dat <- (n - 1)/n * var(dat)
  # Randomization Test
  est.corr.mat <- cov2cor(cov.dat)
  start <- 1
  end <- ind.vec[1]
  for (j in 1:(m - 1)) {
    est.corr.mat[start:end, (end + 1):p] <- 0
    est.corr.mat[(end + 1):p, start:end] <- 0
    start <- end + 1
    end <- end + ind.vec[j + 1]
  }
eigen.vec <- eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
eigen.val <- eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
  if (sum(eigen.val <= 0) > 0) next
  else i <- i + 1
means.dat <- colMeans(dat)
c.dat <- dat - matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow = T)
trans.dat <- c.dat %*% eigen.vec
  for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[, j] <- trans.dat[, j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
  }
corr.trans.dat <- cor(trans.dat)
est.corr.mat <- diag(p)
ts.dat <- 0
for (j in 1:p) {
}
count.temp <- 0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm <- t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
corr.perm <- cor(perm)
ts.perm <- 0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm <- ts.perm + sum(abs(corr.perm[k, k:p] - est.corr.mat[k, k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp <- count.temp + 1
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}

p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, q, p.values),
"IndependenceSS", length(ind.vec)+9, TRUE, "\t")
}

#Function to perform the test of independence of sets of variates with
#multivariate double exponential data, n=5, and (5,5). Inputs are
#n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; ind.vec=vector of
#the number of variates in each group; par1 & par2=the two parameter
#values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
indepss.de<-function(n, cov.mat, ind.vec, par1, par2, K) {
  dist<="de"
p<-dim(cov.mat)[1]
b<-0.7824
d<-0.0679
c1<-b^2+6*b*d+9*d^2
c2<-6*d^2
m<-length(ind.vec)
perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
corr.mat<-cov.mat
corr.int<-corr.mat
for (i in 1:p) {
  for (j in i:p) {
    corr.mat[i,j]<-cov.mat[i,j]/sqrt(cov.mat[i,i]*cov.mat[j,j])
    corr.mat[j,i]<-corr.mat[i,j]
  }
}
while (i<K) {
  q<-q+1
  norm.dat<-rmvnorm(n, vector("integer", p), corr.int)
  dat<-t(sqrt(diag(cov.mat))*t(b*norm.dat+d*norm.dat^3))
  cov.dat<-((n-1)/n)*var(dat)
  #Randomization Test
  est.corr.mat<-cov2cor(cov.dat)
  start<-1
  end<-ind.vec[1]
  for (j in 1:(m-1)) {
    est.corr.mat[start:end, (end+1):p]<-0
    est.corr.mat[(end+1):p, start:end]<-0
    start<-end+1
    end<-end+ind.vec[j+1]
  }
  eigen.vec<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.corr.mat)$values
if (sum(eigen.val<=0)>0) next
else i<-i+1
means.dat<-colMeans(dat)
c.dat<-dat-matrix(means.dat, n, p, byrow=T)
trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
}
corr.trans.dat<-cor(trans.dat)
est.corr.mat<-diag(p)
ts.dat<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
    ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(corr.trans.dat[j,j:p] -
        est.corr.mat[j,j:p]))
}
count.temp<-0
for (j in 1:1000) { 
    perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
corr.perm<-cor(perm)
ts.perm<-0
    for (k in 1:p) {
        ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(corr.perm[k,k:p] - est.corr.mat[k,k:p]))
    }
    if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt/K, "NA", "NA")
write(c(ind.vec, dist, n, p, par1, par2, q, p.values),
    "IndependenceSS", length(ind.vec)+9, TRUE, "\t")
K<-1000
#Type I Error
for (rho in c(0.2, 0.5, 0.8) { 
    cov.mat<-matrix(c(1, rho, rho, rho, rho, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, rho, 1, rho, rho, rho, rho, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, rho, rho, 1, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, 1, r
        ho, rho, rho, rho, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, 1, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, 1),
            10)
indepss.norm(5, cov.mat, c(5,5), rho, 0, K)
indepss.unif(5, cov.mat, c(5,5), rho, 0, K)
indepss.de(5, cov.mat, c(5,5), rho, 0, K)
}
#Power
for (rho in c(0.2, 0.35, 0.5)) { 
    cov.mat<-matrix(c(1, .5, .5, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, r
        ho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, r
        ho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, 1, .5, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5,
            1, .5, rho, rho, rho, rho, .5, .5, .5, 1, 10)
indepss.norm(5, cov.mat, c(5,5), .5, rho, K)
indepss.unif(5, cov.mat, c(5,5), .5, rho, K)
indepss.de(5, cov.mat, c(5,5), .5, rho, K)
}
A.2 COMBINATIONS OF $d$ AND $\gamma$ USED IN THE TYPE H SIMULATIONS

For the type H covariance matrix shown in (6.0.2), only certain combinations of $d$ and $\gamma$ result in positive definite matrices. To determine these cases, recall that the determinant of a positive definite matrix must be greater than zero. Therefore, for $p = 3$,

$$ \left| \Sigma_{TH(3)} \right| = -\frac{3}{2} \gamma d^2 + 3 \gamma^2 d + \left( 3 \gamma^2 - 2 \gamma^3 \right) > 0. $$

This is just a quadratic inequality in $d$. Therefore, applying the quadratic formula yields upper and lower bounds for $d$ given by

$$ d = \frac{-3 \gamma^2 \pm \sqrt{9 \gamma^4 - 4 \left( -\frac{3}{2} \gamma \right) \left( 3 \gamma^2 - 2 \gamma^3 \right)}}{2 \left( -\frac{3}{2} \gamma \right)} = \gamma \pm \sqrt{3} \gamma (6 - \gamma). $$

From these bounds for $d$ we can determine corresponding bounds for $\gamma$. Specifically, in order for $d$ to be defined, $\gamma$ must satisfy $-3 \gamma (\gamma - 6) \geq 0$, which implies that $0 < \gamma < 6$ with the left inequality due to the fact that $\gamma > 0$ as defined in (6.0.2) and the right inequality due to the fact that $\left| \Sigma_{TH(3)} \right| > 0$. The region of possible combinations of $d$ and $\gamma$ is shown in Figure B.1 below. Three values of $\gamma$ were chosen near the middle of the range of possible $\gamma$ values so that the range of $d$ could be varied as much as possible. Additionally, in (6.0.2) $d$ is defined to be greater than zero. Therefore, for $\gamma \leq 1.5$ the range of possible $d$ values is restricted further.

Similarly, for $p = 5$ and 10,

$$ \left| \Sigma_{TH(5)} \right| = -\frac{25}{2} \gamma^3 d^2 + 10 \gamma^4 d + \left( 5 \gamma^4 - 4 \gamma^5 \right) > 0 $$

and
\[ |\Sigma_{TH(10)}| = -\frac{855}{4} \gamma^8 d^2 + 45 \gamma^9 d + \left(10 \gamma^9 - 9 \gamma^{10}\right) > 0. \]

Applying the quadratic formula to these two inequalities yields

\[
d = \frac{5}{3} \gamma \pm \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{2 \gamma (5 - 2 \gamma)} \quad \text{for} \quad p = 5
\]

and

\[
d = \frac{5}{33} \gamma \pm \frac{2}{165} \sqrt{6 \gamma (55 - 36 \gamma)} \quad \text{for} \quad p = 10
\]

resulting in \( \gamma \) ranges of \( 0 < \gamma < \frac{5}{2} \) and \( 0 < \gamma < \frac{55}{36} \), respectively. The regions of possible combinations of \( d \) and \( \gamma \) are shown in Figure B.1 and the chosen values used in the simulations are displayed in Table B.1. No values of \( d \) less than 0.1 were chosen.
Figure A.2.1. Regions of Possible Combinations of \( d \) and \( \gamma \)

(a. \( p = 3 \))

(b. \( p = 5 \))

(c. \( p = 10 \))
Table A.2.1. Combinations of $d$ and $\gamma$ Used in the Simulations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>possible $\gamma$</th>
<th>chosen $\gamma$</th>
<th>possible $d$</th>
<th>chosen $d$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$(0,6)$</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>$(0.367,3.633)$</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>$(1.268,4.732)$</td>
<td>2, 3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>$(2.367,5.633)$</td>
<td>3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>$(0,\frac{5}{2})$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>$(0,0.890)$</td>
<td>0.1, 0.4, 0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>$(0,1)$</td>
<td>0.1, 0.5, 0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>$(0.110,1.090)$</td>
<td>0.2, 0.6, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>$(0,\frac{55}{36})$</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>$(0,0.182)$</td>
<td>0.1, 0.13, 0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>$(0,0.218)$</td>
<td>0.1, 0.14, 0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>$(0,0.239)$</td>
<td>0.1, 0.15, 0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A.3 BIAS CORRECTION FOR THE SERIAL CORRELATION PARAMETERS

As seen in Section 6.4, the simulated type I error rates of the RT of serial correlation are much too low for \( p=3 \) and too high for \( p=10 \). They also seem to decrease as \( \rho \) increases, especially when \( p \) is small. (See Tables 6.4.1 through 6.4.3 for the simulated type I error rates.) It is hypothesized that the behavior of the simulated type I error rates may be due to the biased nature of \( \hat{\rho} \), the MLE of \( \rho \). Specifically, it appears that the relationship between the bias of \( \hat{\rho} \) and \( \rho \) is not linear. To illustrate this, 10,000 simulations were run for all combinations of \( n=5, 10, 25 \) and \( p=3, 5, 10 \). In each, a \( N_p(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_{sc}) \) data set was generated where \( \Sigma_{sc} \) has the serial correlation structure shown in (2.4.1) with \( \sigma^2=1, 9, 25, 49, 81 \) and \( \rho=0.1, 0.2, 0.3, \ldots, 0.9 \). The means of the 10,000 values of \( \hat{\rho} \) and \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \), the MLE of \( \sigma^2 \), were computed and recorded in a data set. To estimate the bias of \( \hat{\rho} \), the means were then averaged over the various values of \( \sigma^2 \). Likewise, to estimate \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \), the means were averaged over the various values of \( \rho \). Figure A.3.1 graphically displays the results of these simulations.

From these graphs it appears that the bias of \( \hat{\rho} \) is at least quadratically related to the true value of \( \rho \); whereas, the bias of \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \) is linearly related to the true value of \( \sigma^2 \). There is also an effect of both \( n \) and \( p \) on the bias of both estimators with the bias of both approaching zero as either \( n \) or \( p \) increases. One additional observation is that the MLEs are consistently underestimating, on average, the true values of the parameters.
Figure A.3.1. Bias of the MLEs of $\rho$ and $\sigma^2$.

a. Bias of $\hat{\rho}$ vs. $\rho$

b. Bias of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ vs. $\sigma^2$
Before addressing the bias correction of \( \hat{\rho} \), first consider the bias correction of \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \). Recall from Section 2.4 that \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \) is a function of \( \hat{\rho} \), so it is reasonable to assume that correcting the bias of \( \hat{\rho} \) will reduce the bias of \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \). To investigate this hypothesis, an additional calculation was included in the previously described simulations to compute \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \) as a function of \( \rho \) rather than a function of \( \hat{\rho} \). Call this new estimator \( \hat{\sigma}^2^* \). Figure A.3.2a displays the bias of \( \hat{\sigma}^2^* \) versus \( \sigma^2 \). This graph is very similar to the one shown in Figure A.3.1b, but it appears that correcting the bias of \( \hat{\rho} \) has eliminated the effect of \( \rho \) on the bias of \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \). Taking this one step further, \( \sigma^2 \) is a part of the common variance of the serial correlation structure shown in (2.4.1), and the function for \( \hat{\sigma}^2 \) given by (2.4.4) has a divisor of \( n \), just as the typical MLE for the variance has. Consequently, the usual multiplicative bias correction factor for the MLE of the population variance given by \( n/(n-1) \) was applied to the simulated values of \( \hat{\sigma}^2^* \). These results are graphically displayed in Figure A.3.2b. Notice that the bias is now much closer to zero and seems to randomly fluctuate around zero indicating that the expected value of \( (n/(n-1))\hat{\sigma}^2 \) is zero and consequently \( (n/(n-1))\hat{\sigma}^2^* \) appears to be an unbiased estimator of \( \sigma^2 \).
Figure A.3.2. Bias of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and $\frac{n}{n-1}\hat{\sigma}^2$.

a. Bias of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ vs. $\sigma^2$

b. Bias of $\frac{n}{n-1}\hat{\sigma}^2$ vs. $\sigma^2$
This bias correction factor for $\hat{\sigma}^2$ can be derived mathematically as follows, provided a few assumptions that will be detailed throughout the derivation. First recall that

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{np}(S_1 \hat{\rho}^2 - S_2 \hat{\rho} + S_3)$$

where

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' C_1 (x_i - \bar{x}), S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' C_2 (x_i - \bar{x}),$$

and $S_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})' (x_i - \bar{x})$

and $C_1$ and $C_2$ are given by (2.4.3). Then, $S_1$, $S_2$, and $S_3$ can be expressed in summation notation as

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=2}^{n} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j)^2, S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} 2(x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j)(x_{i(j+1)} - \bar{x}_{j+1}),$$

and $S_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j)^2$.

To find the bias of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ it will be necessary to find $E(\hat{\sigma}^2)$. To do this, first consider the expected values of $S_1$, $S_2$, and $S_3$. It can be shown that

$$E(S_1) = \frac{(n-1)(p-2)\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2}, E(S_2) = \frac{2(n-1)(p-1)\rho\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2},$$

and $E(S_3) = \frac{(n-1)p\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2}$.

Therefore, assuming $S_1$ and $\hat{\rho}^2$ are independent, $S_2$ and $\hat{\rho}$ are independent, $\hat{\rho}^2$ is unbiased for $\rho^2$, and $\hat{\rho}$ is unbiased for $\rho$,

$$E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \frac{1}{np} \left( E(S_1) \rho^2 - E(S_2) \rho + E(S_3) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{np} \left( \frac{(n-1)(p-2)\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2} \rho^2 - \frac{2(n-1)(p-1)\rho\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2} \rho + \frac{(n-1)p\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2.$$
Therefore, under these assumptions, \((n/(n-1))\hat{\sigma}^2\) is an unbiased estimator of \(\sigma^2\).

One of the assumptions made in the previous derivation is that \(\hat{\rho}\) is unbiased for \(\rho\), but clearly, from Figure A.3.1a, \(\hat{\rho}\) is not unbiased for \(\rho\) and, as stated in Section 6.4, a bias correction factor for \(\hat{\rho}\) (at least in a time-series or regression setting) is not tractable. Therefore, an attempt was made to simulate a bias correction factor for \(\hat{\rho}\) in a manner similar to that of Hearne and Clark (1983) who derived a correction factor for the LRT of serial correlation (See Section 2.4). Let \(K\) be a multiplicative bias correction factor for \(\hat{\rho}\), such that \(KE(\hat{\rho}) = \rho\) or \(K = \rho/E(\hat{\rho})\). The same simulated values used to construct Figures A.3.1 and A.3.2 were used to determine \(\hat{K}\), a simulated function for \(K\). First, \(K\) was computed for each simulation as the quotient of \(\hat{\rho}\) and \(E(\hat{\rho})\), where \(E(\hat{\rho})\) was found by averaging 10,000 simulated values of \(\hat{\rho}\) for each combination of \(n, p, \rho, \text{and } \sigma^2\). Since in real situations \(\rho\) and \(\sigma^2\) would be unknown, \(n\) and \(p\) are the only variables that can be included in the function for \(\hat{K}\). Therefore, the simulated values of \(K\) were averaged over the various combinations of \(n\) and \(p\). Forty-five values of \(K\) were included in each average. Call these averages \(\bar{K}\). The values of \(n, p, \text{and } \bar{K}\) are displayed in Table A.3.1. Multiple linear regression was then used to estimate a function for \(K\).
Table A.3.1. Simulated Values of $\overline{K}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$\overline{K}$</th>
<th>$\overline{nK}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1413</td>
<td>5.7067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.0840</td>
<td>5.4200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.0440</td>
<td>5.2200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.0592</td>
<td>10.5919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.0355</td>
<td>10.3549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.0194</td>
<td>10.1942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.0207</td>
<td>25.5175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.0127</td>
<td>25.3186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.0074</td>
<td>25.1844</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To determine what variables to include in the regression, consider the scatterplots shown in Figure A.3.3. These scatterplots were constructed from the data shown in Table A.3.1. Certainly, the scatterplots indicate that there is a relationship between $n$ and $\overline{K}$, and $p$ and $\overline{K}$, but the relationship is non-linear in both cases. Taking a clue from Hearne and Clark (1983), scatterplots were also constructed with $\overline{nK}$ as the response variable. As expected, the relationship between $n$ and $\overline{nK}$ is definitely linear, but what is interesting is the relationship between $p$ and $\overline{nK}$. As seen in Figure A.3.3d, this relationship is much closer to linear than that of $p$ and $\overline{K}$ (at least for each value of $n$ evaluated separately), but there still appears to be a quadratic trend. Therefore, multiple linear regression of $\overline{nK}$ on $n$, $p$, and $p^2$ was performed. The resulting equation was

$$nK = 1.217977 + 0.995200n - 0.220336p + 0.012489p^2$$

where $n$ (p-value=$2.578 \times 10^{-13}$), $p$ (p-value=0.0033), and $p^2$ (p-value=0.0102) were all found to be significantly related to $\overline{nK}$ and the adjusted $R^2$ value was approximately 0.99998. Dividing $nK$ by $n$ then gives an estimated multiplicative bias correction factor
for $\hat{\rho}$. Notice that this correction factor will converge to approximately one (0.995200 to be exact) as $n$ goes to infinity.

Figure A.3.3. Scatterplots of $\bar{K}$ and $\bar{nK}$

a. Scatterplot of $\bar{K}$ vs. $n$

b. Scatterplot of $\bar{K}$ vs. $p$

c. Scatterplot of $\bar{nK}$ vs. $n$

d. Scatterplot of $\bar{nK}$ vs. $p$

To see if applying these correction factors improves the simulated type I error rates of the RT of serial correlation, simulations were again run similar to those described in Section 6.4, but this time including the RT using unbiased estimates of the parameters (URT), the RT using the MLEs of the parameters (RT), and the CLRT. One problem was encountered in performing these simulations. For large $\rho$, it was often the case that $\hat{\rho}$ was close enough to one, that $\hat{K}\hat{\rho}$ exceeded one. This was especially true for small samples. Consequently, an additional statement was placed in the R code so that when
this occurred, \( \hat{K} \hat{\rho} \) would be assigned a value of 0.99. The results of these simulations for normally distributed data and \( p = 3 \) are displayed in Table A.3.2.

Table A.3.2. Simulated Type I Error Rates for the Test of Serial Correlation with Normally Distributed Data and \( p = 3 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2 = 1 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2 = 9 )</th>
<th>( \sigma^2 = 25 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( \rho = 0.3 )</td>
<td>( \rho = 0.6 )</td>
<td>( \rho = 0.9 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URT</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.051*</td>
<td>0.048*</td>
<td>0.047*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URT</td>
<td>0.045*</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.043*</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.055*</td>
<td>0.041*</td>
<td>0.048*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URT</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.044*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRT</td>
<td>0.050*</td>
<td>0.058*</td>
<td>0.052*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Value is contained within \( 0.05 \pm 1.96(0.05)(0.95)/1000 \)

Reducing the bias in the MLEs of the parameters appears to have slightly improved the simulated type I error rates of the RT for serial correlation, especially for small \( n \). From Table A.3.2, the simulated type I error rates of the URT are greater than or equal to those of the RT in all but one case (\( n = 25, \sigma^2 = 25, \rho = 0.3 \)), and the type I error rates do not appear to decrease as much as \( \rho \) increases (at least from 0.3 to 0.6). One unusual pattern, however, is that the simulated type I error rates for \( \rho = 0.9 \) are much higher than those for the smaller \( \rho \) values. This is most likely due to the correction that was used to eliminate the possibility of getting an estimated correlation greater than one. Clearly, the bias correction factor for \( \rho \) needs to be improved, but there is some evidence, although minimal, that reducing the bias improves the simulated type I error rates.
The following R code was used to simulate the bias of $\hat{\rho}$, $\hat{\sigma}^2$, and $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$.

```r
library(MASS)

# Function to simulate the bias in the parameters of the serial correlation structure. Inputs are n=sample size, p=number of repeated measures, rho & sigma=population parameters.

bias <- function(n, p, rho, sigma) {
  cov.mat <- sigma^2/(1-rho^2) * diag(p)
  for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (j in (i+1):p) {
      cov.mat[i,j] <- sigma^2/(1-rho^2) * rho^(j-i)
      cov.mat[j,i] <- cov.mat[i,j]
    }
  }
  C1 <- diag(p)
  C1[1,1] <- C1[1,1] - 1
  C1[p,p] <- C1[p,p] - 1
  C2 <- matrix(0, p, p)
  for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    C2[j,j+1] <- 1
    C2[j+1,j] <- 1
  }
  rho.hat <- matrix(NA, 10000)
  sig2a.hat <- matrix(NA, 10000)
  sig2b.hat <- matrix(NA, 10000)
  for (i in 1:10000) {
    dat <- mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
    x.bar <- t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
    c.dat <- dat - x.bar
    S1 <- 0
    S2 <- 0
    S3 <- 0
    for (j in 1:n) {
      S1 <- S1 + t(c.dat[j,]) %*% C1 %*% c.dat[j,]
      S2 <- S2 + t(c.dat[j,]) %*% C2 %*% c.dat[j,]
      S3 <- S3 + t(c.dat[j,]) %*% c.dat[j,]
    }
    func <- function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+S2*p
    rho.hat[i] <- uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
    sig2a.hat[i] <- as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat[i]^2-S2*rho.hat[i]+S3))
    sig2b.hat[i] <- as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho^2-S2*rho+S3))
  }
  mean.rho.hat <- mean(rho.hat)
  var.rho.hat <- var(rho.hat)
  mean.sig2a.hat <- mean(sig2a.hat)
  var.sig2a.hat <- var(sig2a.hat)
  mean.sig2b.hat <- mean(sig2b.hat)
  var.sig2b.hat <- var(sig2b.hat)
  write(c(n, p, rho, sigma, mean.rho.hat, var.rho.hat, mean.sig2a.hat, var.sig2a.hat, mean.sig2b.hat, var.sig2b.hat), "Bias", 10, TRUE, "\t")
}

for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
}
```

for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
    for (rho in c(0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9)) {
        for (sigma in c(1, 3, 5, 7, 9)) {
            bias(n, p, rho, sigma)
        }
    }
}

The following R code was used to simulate the type I error rates of the URT, RT, and LRT of serial correlation.

```r
## Unbiased Randomization Test of Serial Correlation ##
library(MASS)

#Function to perform the test of serial correlation with multivariate normal data. Inputs are n=sample size; cov.mat=simulated covariance matrix; struc="CS", "TH", or "SC"; par1 & par2=the two parameter values used to generate the covariance matrix; K=number of simulations
sercorr.norm<-function(n, cov.mat, struc, par1, par2, K) {
    dist<="norm"
    p<dim(cov.mat)[1]
    df<-.5*p*(p+1)-2
    C<-1/n*(-1.541+1.017*n-0.414*p)
    Q<-1/n*(1.217977+0.995200*n-0.220336*p+0.012489*p^2)
    crit<-qchisq(.95, df)
    perm<-matrix(NA, n, p)
    count.rt<-0
    count.rt.ub<-0
    count.lrc<-0
    C1<-diag(p)
    C1[1,1]<-C1[1,1]-1
    C1[p,p]<-C1[p,p]-1
    C2<-matrix(0, p, p)
    for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
        C2[j,j+1]<-1
        C2[j+1,j]<-1
    }
    if (n>p) {
        for (i in 1:K) {
            dat<-mvrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
            cov.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(dat)
            x.bar<-t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
            c.dat<-dat-x.bar
            S1<-0
            S2<-0
            S3<-0
            for (j in 1:n) {
                S1<-S1+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C1%*%c.dat[j,]
                S2<-S2+t(c.dat[j,])%*%C2%*%c.dat[j,]
                S3<-S3+t(c.dat[j,])%*%c.dat[j,]
            }
        }
    }
}```
func<-function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+S2*p
rho.hat<-uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
sig2.hat<-as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat^2-S2*rho.hat+S3))
#Corrected Likelihood Ratio Test
L.SC<-det(cov.dat)/(sig2.hat^p/(1-rho.hat^2))
if (-C*n*log(L.SC) > crit) count.lrc<-count.lrc+1
#Randomization Test
rho.hat.ub<-Q*rho.hat
if (rho.hat.ub>=1) rho.hat.ub<-0.99
sig2.hat.ub<-n/(n-1)*as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat.ub^2-S2*rho.hat.ub+S3))
est.cov.mat<-sig2.hat/(1-rho.hat^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
est.cov.mat.ub<-sig2.hat.ub/(1-rho.hat.ub^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
  for (k in (j+1):p) {
    est.cov.mat[j,k]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]*rho.hat^(k-j)
est.cov.mat[k,j]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]
est.cov.mat.ub[j,k]<-est.cov.mat.ub[j,k]*rho.hat.ub^(k-j)
est.cov.mat.ub[k,j]<-est.cov.mat.ub[j,k]
  }
}
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
eigen.val<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
eigen.vec.ub<-eigen(est.cov.mat.ub)$vectors
eigen.val.ub<-eigen(est.cov.mat.ub)$values
tran.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
tran.dat.ub<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec.ub
for (j in 1:p) {
  tran.dat[j,j]<-tran.dat[j,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
  tran.dat.ub[j,j]<-tran.dat.ub[j,j]/sqrt(eigen.val.ub[j])
}
cov.tran.dat<--(n-1)/n*var(tran.dat)
cov.tran.dat.ub<-var(tran.dat.ub)
est.cov.mat<-diag(p)
t.dat<-0
t.dat.ub<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
  t.dat<-t.dat+sum(abs(cov.tran.dat[j,j:p]-
est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
  t.dat.ub<-t.dat.ub+sum(abs(cov.tran.dat.ub[j,j:p]-
est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}
count.temp<-0
count.temp.ub<-0
for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(tran.dat, 1, sample))
  perm.ub<-t(apply(tran.dat.ub, 1, sample))
cov.perm<--(n-1)/n*var(perm)
cov.perm.ub<-var(perm.ub)
t.perm<-0
t.perm.ub<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    t.perm<-t.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
    t.perm.ub<-t.perm.ub+sum(abs(cov.perm.ub[k,k:p]-
est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
if (ts.perm.ub >= ts.dat.ub) count.temp.ub<-count.temp.ub+1
}
if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
if (count.temp.ub/1000 < 0.05) count.rt.ub<-count.rt.ub+1
}
p.values<-c(count.rt.ub/K, count.rt/K, count.lrc/K)
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial Correlation", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}
else {
for (i in 1:K) {
  dat<-mvnrnorm(n, vector("integer", p), cov.mat)
  x.bar<-t(matrix(colMeans(dat), p, n))
  c.dat<-dat-x.bar
  S1<-0
  S2<-0
  S3<-0
  for (j in 1:n) {
    S1<-S1+t(c.dat[j,]%*%C1%*%c.dat[j,]
    S2<-S2+t(c.dat[j,]%*%C2%*%c.dat[j,]
    S3<-S3+t(c.dat[j,]%*%c.dat[j,]
  }
  func<-function(rho.hat) -2*S1*(1-p)*rho.hat^3+S2*(2-p)*rho.hat^2-2*(S1*p+S3)*rho.hat+S2*p
  rho.hat<-uniroot(func, low=-1, up=1)$root
  sig2.hat<-as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat^2-S2*rho.hat+S3))
  #Randomization Test
  rho.hat.ub<-Q*rho.hat
  if (rho.hat.ub>=1) rho.hat.ub<-0.99
  sig2.hat.ub<-n/(n-1)*as.numeric(1/(n*p)*(S1*rho.hat.ub^2-S2*rho.hat.ub+S3))
  est.cov.mat<-sig2.hat/(1-rho.hat^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
  est.cov.mat.ub<-sig2.hat.ub/(1-rho.hat.ub^2)*matrix(1, p, p)
  for (j in 1:(p-1)) {
    for (k in (j+1):p) {
      est.cov.mat[j,k]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]*rho.hat^(k-j)
      est.cov.mat[k,j]<-est.cov.mat[j,k]
      est.cov.mat.ub[j,k]<-est.cov.mat.ub[j,k]*rho.hat.ub^(k-j)
      est.cov.mat.ub[k,j]<-est.cov.mat.ub[j,k]
    }
  }
eigen.vec<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$vectors
  eigen.val<-eigen(est.cov.mat)$values
  eigen.vec.ub<-eigen(est.cov.mat.ub)$vectors
  eigen.val.ub<-eigen(est.cov.mat.ub)$values
  trans.dat<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec
  trans.dat.ub<-c.dat%*%eigen.vec.ub
  for (j in 1:p) {
    trans.dat[,j]<-trans.dat[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val[j])
    trans.dat.ub[,j]<-trans.dat.ub[,j]/sqrt(eigen.val.ub[j])
  }
cov.trans.dat<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
  cov.trans.dat.ub<-(n-1)/n*var(trans.dat)
  est.cov.mat<-diag(p)
  ts.dat<-0
  ts.dat.ub<-0
for (j in 1:p) {
  ts.dat<-ts.dat+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat[j,j:p]-
est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
  ts.dat.ub<-ts.dat.ub+sum(abs(cov.trans.dat.ub[j,j:p]-
est.cov.mat[j,j:p]))
}

count.temp<-0
count.temp.ub<-0

for (j in 1:1000) {
  perm<-t(apply(trans.dat, 1, sample))
  perm.ub<-t(apply(trans.dat.ub, 1, sample))
  cov.perm<-(n-1)/n*var(perm)
  cov.perm.ub<-var(perm.ub)
  ts.perm<-0
  ts.perm.ub<-0
  for (k in 1:p) {
    ts.perm<-ts.perm+sum(abs(cov.perm[k,k:p]-est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
    ts.perm.ub<-ts.perm.ub+sum(abs(cov.perm.ub[k,k:p]-
est.cov.mat[k,k:p]))
  }
  if (ts.perm >= ts.dat) count.temp<-count.temp+1
  if (ts.perm.ub >= ts.dat.ub) count.temp.ub<-count.temp.ub+1
}

if (count.temp/1000 < 0.05) count.rt<-count.rt+1
if (count.temp.ub/1000 < 0.05) count.rt.ub<-count.rt.ub+1

p.values<-c(count.rt.ub/K, count.rt/K, "NA")
write(c(struc, dist, n, p, par1, par2, p.values), "Serial
Correlation", 9, TRUE, "\t")
}

K<-1000
#Type I Error
p<-3
for (n in c(5, 10, 25)) {
  for (p in c(3, 5, 10)) {
    for (sigma in c(1, 3, 5)) {
      for (rho in c(0.3, 0.6, 0.9)) {
        cov.mat<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*diag(p)
        for (i in 1:(p-1)) {
          for (j in (i+1):p) {
            cov.mat[i,j]<-(sigma^2/(1-rho^2))*rho^(j-i)
            cov.mat[j,i]<-cov.mat[i,j]
          }
        }
        sercorr.norm(n, cov.mat, "SC", sigma, rho, K)
      }
    }
  }
}
A.4 NUMBER OF SIMULATED DATA SETS FOR THE TEST OF INDEPENDENCE OF SETS OF VARIATES FOR n=5 AND (5,5)

Table A.4.1 displays the total number of data sets simulated for each case of the test of independence of sets of variates for \( n=5 \) and \( p=10 \) where the first five variates are tested for independence from the last five.

Table A.4.1. Number of Data Sets Simulated for the Test of Independence of Sets of Variates for \( n=5 \) and (5,5).

a. Type I Error

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>( \rho=0.2 )</th>
<th>( \rho=0.5 )</th>
<th>( \rho=0.8 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>3867</td>
<td>3758</td>
<td>3968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniform</td>
<td>3816</td>
<td>4053</td>
<td>3909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.E.</td>
<td>4046</td>
<td>3836</td>
<td>3802</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>( \rho=0.2 )</th>
<th>( \rho=0.35 )</th>
<th>( \rho=0.5 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>4162</td>
<td>4084</td>
<td>3920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniform</td>
<td>3968</td>
<td>3930</td>
<td>4148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.E.</td>
<td>3863</td>
<td>4034</td>
<td>3919</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VITA

Tracy Lynne Morris

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: A PERMUTATION TEST FOR THE STRUCTURE OF A COVARIANCE MATRIX

Major Field: Statistics

Biographical:

Education: Received a Bachelor of Science degree in Mathematics from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May 1994; received a Master of Science degree in Applied Mathematical Sciences from the University of Central Oklahoma, Edmond, Oklahoma in May 2001. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Statistics at Oklahoma State University in May 2007.

Experience: Employed as a mathematics teacher at Stillwater High School, Stillwater, Oklahoma from 1994 to 1997. Employed as a mathematics teacher at Casady School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma from 1997 to 2002. Employed as a graduate teaching associate in the Department of Statistics, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma from 2002 to 2006. Employed as a graduate research associate in the Department of Statistics, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma from 2006 to 2007.

Professional Memberships: American Statistical Association, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
Title of Study: A PERMUTATION TEST FOR THE STRUCTURE OF A COVARIANCE MATRIX

Major Field: Statistics

Scope and Method of Study: Many statistical procedures, such as repeated measures analysis, time-series, structural equation modeling, and factor analysis, require an assessment of the structure of the underlying covariance matrix. The classical parametric method of testing such a hypothesis involves the use of a likelihood ratio test (LRT). These tests have many limitations, including the need for very large sample sizes and the requirement of a random sample from a multivariate normal population. The LRT is also undefined for cases in which the sample size is not greater than the number of repeated measures. In such situations, researchers could benefit from a non-parametric testing procedure. In particular, permutation tests have no distributional assumptions and do not require random samples of any particular size. This research involves the development and analysis of a permutation/randomization test for the structure of a covariance matrix. Samples of various sizes and number of measures on each subject were simulated from multiple distributions. In each case, the type I error rates and power were examined.

Findings and Conclusions: When testing for sphericity, compound symmetry, type H structure, and serial correlation, the LRT clearly performs best with regard to type I error rates for normally distributed data, but for uniform data, it is too conservative, and for double exponential data, it results in extremely large type I error rates. The randomization test, however, is consistent regardless of the data distribution and performs better than the LRT, in most cases, for non-normally distributed data. In most situations, the LRT is more powerful than the randomization test, but the power of the randomization test is comparable to that of the LRT in many situations.

ADVISOR’S APPROVAL: Dr. Mark Payton