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AUTHOR Draper, John F., Jr.

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#### ABSTRACT

The applicability of the Analysis of Variance, ANOVA, procedures to the analysis of dichotomous repeated measure data is described. The design models for which data were simulated in this investigation were chosen to represent simple cases of two experimental situations: situation one, in which subjects' responses to a single randomly selected set of three stimuli or items were evaluated dichotomously on four successive occasions, and situation two, in which subjects' responses are evaluated dichotomously on four successive occasions with respect to four separate randomly selected set of three stimuli or items. The two experimental situations are represented by "three way factorial" designs with random factors for subjects and items and a fixed factor for occasions; the first with subjects, items and occasions completely crossed and the second with items and occasions crossed with subjects, but with items nested within occasions. Results of the study are presented in 11 tables and 7 figures. (Author/DB)



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A MONTE CARLO INVESTIGATION OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE APPLIED TO NON-INDEPENDENT BERNOULLI VARIATES

Ву

John F. Draper, Jr. CTB/McGraw-Hill

Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association April, 1972

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The problem with which this paper will be concerned is the applicability of the Analysis of Variance, ANOVA, procedures to the analysis of dichotomous repeated measure data. Recall, that in the employment of ANOVA procedures it is assumed that the data can be reasonably modeled by a vector variate with multi-variate normal density and diagonal or patterned "compound symmetric" covariance matrix, that is with equal variances and equal covariances in diagonal blocks for subjects and zeros elsewhere, (Greenhouse and Geisser, 1959). Can these familiar procedures still be employed when the data can more reasonably be modeled by a vector variate with non-independent Bernoulli variates as elements? Other investigators, Mandeville (1970) and Seegar and Gabrielson (1968) have employed Monte Carlo methods in order to achieve a partial answer to the above question. Their results tend toward a cautious but affirmative answer with respect to the design models and model parameter configurations with which their simulations were concerned. The results reported in this paper are less sanguine. That is, however, not to say that the results reported in this paper are in disagreement with those of previous investigators, since the design models and model parameter configurations with which this paper is concerned are somewhat different. Bradley (1968) has indicated that the robustness of a parametric statistical test is idiosyncratic rather than general. For example, the F-test has been shown to be robust to heteroscedasiticity for balanced designs (equal cell n's), but generally not robust to heteroscedasiticity for unbalanced Casigns.

The design models for which data were simulated in this investigation were chosen to represent simple cases of two experimental situations, situation one, in which subjects responses to a single randomly selected set of three



stimuli or items were evaluated dichotomously on four successive occasions and situation two, in which subjects' responses are evaluated dichotomously on four successive occasions with respect to four separate randomly selected sets of three stimuli or items. Table 1 contrasts these two experimental situations.

Table 1. Contrast of experimental Situation 1 with Experimental Situation 2.

	Occasion	01	02	03	04
Situation 1	Item	<sup>1</sup> 1 <sup>1</sup> 2 <sup>1</sup> 3	<sup>I</sup> 1 <sup>I</sup> 2 <sup>I</sup> 3	<sup>1</sup> 1 <sup>1</sup> 2 <sup>1</sup> 3	<sup>1</sup> 1 <sup>1</sup> 2 <sup>1</sup> 3
	Occasion	01	02	03	04
Situation 2	Item	1 <sub>1</sub> 1 <sub>2</sub> 1 <sub>3</sub>	<sup>I</sup> 4 <sup>I</sup> 5 <sup>I</sup> 6	<sup>1</sup> 7 <sup>1</sup> 8 <sup>1</sup> 9	<sup>I</sup> 10 <sup>I</sup> 11 <sup>I</sup> 12

In terms of experimental design the two experimental situations can be represented by "three way factorial" designs with random factors for subjects and items and a fixed factor for occasions; the first with subjects, items and occasions completely crossed and the second with items and occasions crossed with subjects, but with items nested within occasions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Items were considered to represent a random source of variation, since experimenters often wish to generalize their results to some domain of items or stimuli, rather than to restrict their findings to only those items they actually employed.

These two experimental situations were considered to be of interest because experimenters often form occasion measures for subjects as the sum of dichotomous response evaluations to a series of items and then ignore items as a factor in their experimental design. And because it may be shown, (Draper, 1971), that for such experimental situations, there is a source of variation associated with items<sup>2</sup>, which if non-null will be confounded with the source of variation for occasions. A situation which holds whether or not, items are included as a factor in the experimental design and an ANOVA consistent with the design is employed for analysis and which also holds whether the dependent measures, or item scores, are dichotomous or have distributions which may be reasonably approximated by a normal probability density.

For situation one an examination of expected mean squares, suggested possible variance ratio tests for sources of variation due to subjects, occasions, items, subjects by occasions interaction, and items by occasions interaction.

Further, since the items by occasions interaction could be non-null and would thus be confounded with occasions, a Quasi-F variance ratio test for occasions (Satterthwaite, 1941) suggested itself. Similarly for situation two possible variance ratio tests were suggested for the sources of variation, subjects, occasions, items, and subjects by occasions interaction, where both a "regular" variance ratio test and a "Quasi-F" test were suggested to test for occasions effects. Calculations with respect to all the suggested tests were made on simulated data, but of major interest were those tests for occasions and the subjects by occasions interaction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>An item by occasion interaction effect in situation one or a main effect due to items in situation two.

It was considered of interest to vary the following model parameters over examples of the experimental situations to be investigated.

- 1) The base probability of one3, on item difficulty, in the data,
- 2) The number of subjects,
- 3) The degree of relative heterogenity of the subjects4,
- 4) The effect of items4,
- 5) The effect of occasions4,

and

6) The effect of subject by occasion interaction4.

Three different values of the base probability of a one, .5, .2, and .1, suggested by results due to Lunney (1969), were investigated as were five values of the number of subjects 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12. The four levels of relative subject heterogenity, Levels 1, 2, 3, and 4, which were employed, correspond to four ratios of subject to error variance, 2:8, 3:7, 4:6 and 5:5 respectively. Combinations of these parameter values in combination with the values for effects due items, occasions and subject by occasion interaction resulted in 720 different model parameter configurations for which data were simulated. The data for the model parameter configurations were simulated as pseudo-random numbers with distributions which could reasonably be approximated by a normal probability density function and all ANOVA statistics calculated, then the data were dichotomized and the ANOVA calculations repeated. Determinations were then made as to which statistics fell to various α rejection regions and counters which had been initialized at zero were incremented by one where appropriate.

<sup>4</sup>Whether null or non-null.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>The base probability of a one will refer to the general probability of a one in the absence of possible main and interaction effects.

This process was repeated 999 times for each parameter configuration for a total of 1,000 simulations.

As an example of the type of analysis which was done on the frequency data obtained from the simulation runs consider the following. Table 2 contains frequencies in  $\alpha$  = .05, .025 and .01 rejection regions of variance ratio tests of occasion effects under conditions in which the occasion effects were null, items were crossed with occasions and there was no interaction between subjects and occasions. Table 2 is laid out as a six-dimensional array with three left margins and three upper margins. The left-most margin indicates the number of subjects employed with respect to a given simulation of data. Proceeding from left to right the next margin indicates the nature of the items, whether null in effect or non-null, and the right-most indicates the level of subject heterogeneity. The upper margins from top to bottom indicate: (1) the probability of a one with respect to a given simulation of data, (2) one thousand times nominal a or the expected frequency given a true F-variate, and (3) an indication of whether the 1,000 variance ratios with respect to a given cell of the table were calculated from the dependent variables when they were variates with approximate normal density (N) or from the subsequently dichotomized "normals" (D).

In order to test for trends in the data reported in tables, the margins were considered as fixed sources of variation and a multivariate analysis of variance, MANOVA, was performed on the frequency data three-tuples<sup>5</sup> within the table, employing the highest order interaction mean products as an estimate of error under the assumption that the highest order interaction is truly null<sup>6</sup>.

 $<sup>^6</sup>$ An assumption checked by  $\mathrm{X}^2$  tests separately on each interaction variance estimate.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>For  $\alpha = .05$ , .025, and .01.

An initial analysis of the data in each of the tables indicated that the frequencies for tests based on the dichotomous variates were in each case significantly different from the frequencies for tests based on the normal variates.

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A more detailed account of the results may be found in the hand out. However, without extensive reference to the results Figures 1. and 2. tell most of the story with respect to the "regular" variance ratio test of occasions under null occasion effect conditions. Note the interaction of the effects due to the number of subjects and the probability of a one in both figures. Note also the strong effect due to non-null items in Figure 2. The effect of the non-null items condition confirms the previously indicated confounding of a non-null items effect with occasions.

An examination of Tables 4. and 5. indicate something about the behavior of the Quasi-F test under null occasions effects. Note that its behavior is not particularly good, even when based on the "normal" data. Tables 6. through 9. contain the most startling results. Note that the Quasi-F tests based on normal variates responded in an appropriate manner to non-null occasion effects. However, the Quasi-F tests based on dichotomous data had significantly fewer frequencies in the  $\alpha$  rejection regions when the effect being tested was non-null than they did when the effect being tested was null! Thus it would appear that Quasi-F tests based on dichotomous data, such as that simulated in this study, are biased tests!

Tables 10. and 11. and Figures 6. and 7. are with respect to the variance ratio tests of subject by occasion interactions. Although the results concerning the Quasi-F were the most startling of the results of this study, the most disappointing results were those concerning the tests of subject by occasion

interactions. Examine in Figure 6. how the test becomes increasingly liberal with increases in the number of subjects under conditions where the probability of a one is not equal to .5.

In order to briefly examine the implications of this study, consider what the results might suggest to an experimenter who would like to do a repeated measures type of experiment and analyze his results with hypothesis testing in mind. First an experimenter who is considering doing a repeated measures type of experiment should consider the nature of the items or response evokers that will be employed in his experiment, examine them for possible confounding, and then employ a design and analysis which includes the items as a factor in it.

If an experimenter must have confounding in the analysis consistent with the design of his repeated measures experiment, he is in a somewhat difficult position with regard to analysis of variance testing of the source of variation with which confounding is present. For even if he can expect his dependent variables to have an approximately normal distribution, the results of this study suggest that the Quasi-F test will not have particularly good properties. If, on the other hand, the experimenter must evaluate responses in such a manner that his dependent variables are dichotomous, the Quasi-F test appears to be completely unacceptable.

On the other hand, if an experimenter finds that he can expect to have no confounding such as that mentioned above, but must have dichotomous dependent variables the results suggest, he can expect to appropriately employ the ordinary analysis of variance, variance ratio test for the occasion effect, if he employs enough subjects. The results also suggest that an experimenter should expect the power of analysis of variance tests based on dichotomous data to be between one third and one half the power he could expect if his dependent variables could be considered normal in distribution. The practical



suggestion implied by the results of this study is, that if the above experimenter must have dichotomous dependent variables he should employ a still larger number of subjects in order to obtain a reasonable power situation.

The results of this study with respect to the test of the subject by. occasion interaction when based on dichotomous data, suggest that even a very large variance ratio statistic may not indicate that the null hypothesis is false if there are a large number of subjects and the probability of a one is not close to .5 (see again Figure 6). For a probability of a one close to .5, however, it would appear that the probability of a Type I error is only approximately 1.2 times the nominal  $\alpha$  level. Since the power of the test of the subject by occasion interaction based on dichotomous data with a .5 probability of a one was greater than half the power of the test based on normal data, the results suggest that when the probability of a one is close to .5 the test may be appropriately employed. If the probability of a one is not close to .5, however, the results suggest the above test may not be appropriately employed. As a practical suggestion, an experimenter who could expect possible subject by occasion interaction and who must have dichotomous dependent variables should endeavor to employ items or stimuli which will give him in general a .5 probability of a one in this data.

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TABLES AND FIGURES TO ACCOMPANY THE PAPER ENTITLED
"A MONTE CARLO INVESTIGATION OF THE ANALYSIS OF
VARIANCE APPLIED TO NON-INDEPENDENT BERNOULLI VARIATES"

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# APPENDIX



Table 1. Contrast of Experimental Situation 1 with Experimental Situation 2.

	Occasion	01	02	03	04
Situation 1	Item	1 <sub>1</sub> 1 <sub>2</sub> 1 <sub>3</sub>			
	Occasion	01	02	03	04
Situation 2	Item	I <sub>1</sub> I <sub>2</sub> I <sub>3</sub>	141516	1 <sub>7</sub> 1 <sub>8</sub> 1 <sub>9</sub>	<sup>1</sup> 10 <sup>1</sup> 11 <sup>1</sup> 12

# "Regular" Variance Ratio Test of Occasion Results

With respect only to the frequencies based on dichotomous variates in Table 2, it was concluded that there were significant main effects due to the probability of a one, Pr (1), and the number of subjects as well as an interaction between the two significant main effects. The significant interaction is represented in Figure 1. In the figure the two horizontal lines represent .95 probability limits 1 for mean frequencies such as those graphed, given an expected value of 50. Observing Figure 1, it appears that a favorable comparison of nominal and empirical probabilities of a Type I error occurred when the probability of a one was .5 and there were six or more subjects. Also a favorable comparison occurred when the probability of a one was .2 and there were ten or more subjects. However, when the probability of a one was .1 no favorable comparisons occurred, although the graph suggests that a favorable comparison might occur given more subjects.

Table 3 differs from Table 2 in only two aspects: (1) the values in the table were obtained by simulating data which could have arisen from situation 2 rather than situation 1, and (2) no frequencies appear with respect to tests based on normal variates.

From the analysis of the frequencies in Table 3, it was concluded that there were significant main effects due to: (1) the probability of a one, (2) the number of subjects, and (3) items null in effect versus items non-null in effect. There were also significant interactions between



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>See Appendix A

Table 2. The Empirical Frequencies, in \$\alpha \cdot 1000\$ Rejection Regions, of the Variance Ratio Test for Occasions, Based on Normal and Dichotomous Data, Items Crossed with Occasions, Interaction and Occasion Effects Both Null

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Table 3. The Empirical Frequencies, in 1000 Rejection Regions, of the Variance Ratio Test for Occasions, Based on the Dichotomous Data, Items Nested within Occasions, Interaction and Occasion Effects Both Null.

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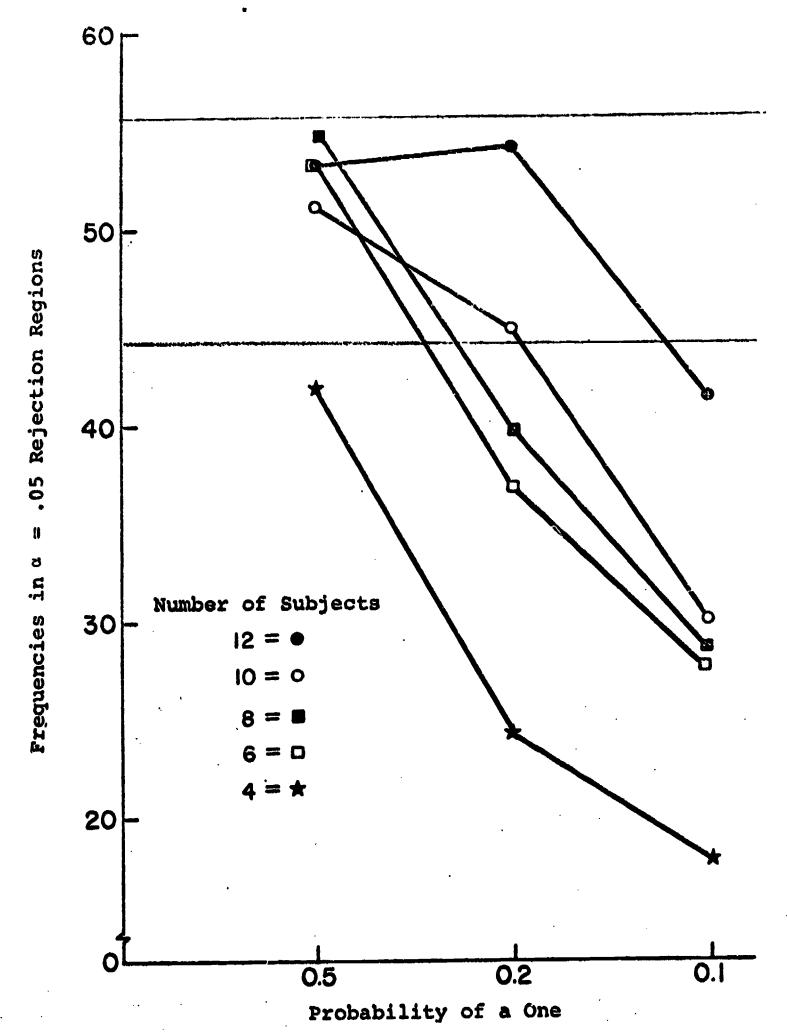


Figure 1. The interaction of the probability of a one and the number of subjects, with respect to the data in Table 2., data for the "regular" occasions test.

the probability of a one and items null vs. non-null and between the number of subjects and items null vs. non-null. Both of these interactions were represented on one graph, Figure 2. The horizontal lines in Figure 2 are .95 probability limits about 50, for means such as those graphed. An inspection of Figure 2 indicates that a favorable comparison of nominal  $\alpha$  and empirical probabilities of a Type I error occurred when items were null in effect and the probability of a one was .5. Also a favorable comparison occurred when the items were null, the probability of a one was .2 and there were 10 or more subjects. In the absence of the above conditions, however, only unfavorable comparisons resulted.

The marginal mean vectors<sup>2</sup> for items null in effect was [40, 18, 6] and for items non-null it was [133, 78, 42]. The large mean frequencies for items under non-null conditions confirm the contention that non-null item effects are confounded with occasions and will cause the regular variance ratio test for occasions to have too many Type I errors.

In order to examine the behavior of the "regular" variance ratio test for occasions effects under non-null occasion conditions, an index of relative power was formed. The relative power of the test statistic<sup>3</sup> based on dichomous data was defined to be, the frequency of the test statistic based on normal non-null data which fell into an a rejection region divided into the frequency in the same rejection region of that same statistic based on the same data after it had been subsequently dichotomized. Relative power values were obtained for the non-null occasion effect analogs of all

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Ordered for frequencies in  $\alpha = [.05, .025, .01]$  rejection regions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>For each design model and parameter configuration.

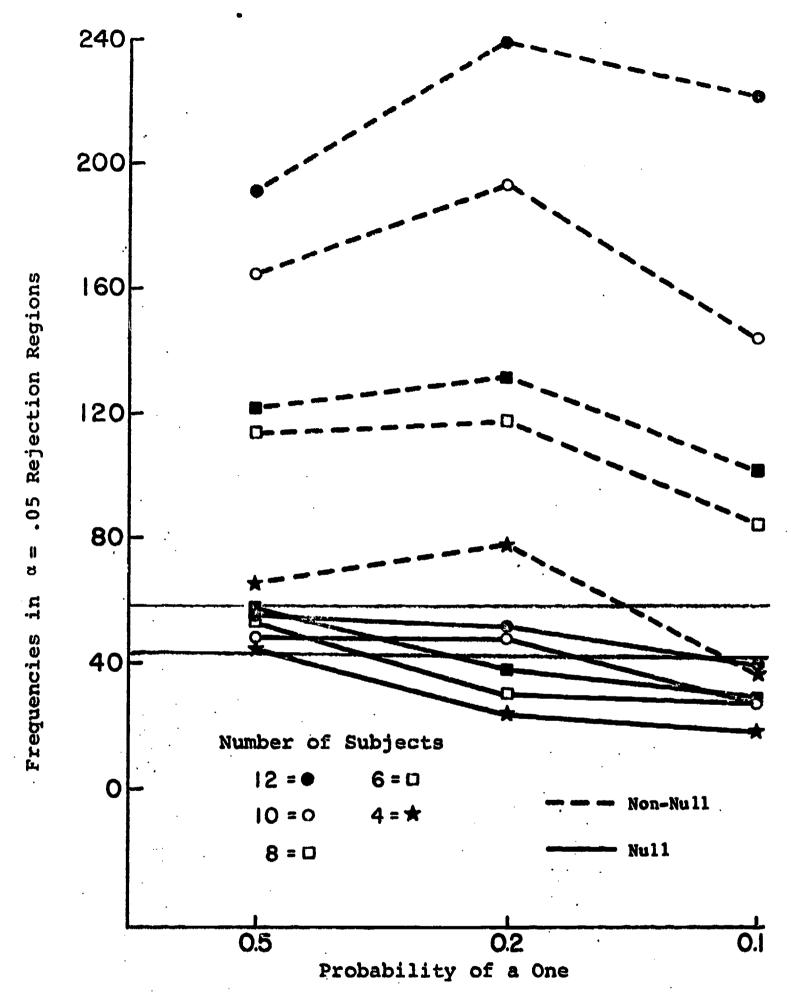


Figure 2. The interaction of the probability of a one, the number of subjects, and items null vs. non-null, with respect to the data in Table 3., data for the "regular" occasions test.

of the parameter configurations indicated in Table 2. These data were put to an arc-sin transformation and then analyzed by means of a MANOVA. This analysis indicated three significant main effects and no interactions. The significant effects were (1) the probability of a one, Pr (1), (2) the number of subjects, and (3) the level of subject heterogeneity. The overall mean vector of relative power variables was [.45, .38, .32], which indicates that the relative power of the variance ratio test for occasions effects decreased as the nominal  $\alpha$  level decreased from .05, to .025, to .01. An ANOVA revealed no interaction between nominal  $\alpha$  level and other sources of variation.

For probabilities of a one equal to .5, .2, and .1 the mean relative powers for  $\alpha = .05$  were .58, .49, and .28 respectively. For numbers of subjects 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12, the means were .39, .41, .43, .50, and .54. For the four levels of subject heterogeneity 1, 2, 3, and 4 the means were .52, .46, .43, and .41 respectively.

The differences in mean relative power show clear trends. As the probability of a one becomes smaller so does the relative power, which is the opposite of the trend which might have been expected, since the degree of non-null effect in the simulated data was selected to counter the effect of decreased variance corresponding to a decreased probability of a one. Thus the power of tests based on the dichotomous variates should not have changed across levels of a probability of a one, whereas the power of the test based on normals should have and did decrease across levels of a probability of a one (and decreasing non-null effects). The results indicate however, that the power of tests based on the dichotomous variates fell off more rapidly across levels of the probability of a one than did the power of tests based on the normals. The explanation of the above may

be that as the probability of a one becomes smaller the point of dichotomization is such that more of the "information" carried in the normals is
lost. Another clear trend is that as the number of subjects increases, the
relative power does so as well. The trend with respect to the number of
subjects is most likely a function of the effect of the central limit theorem.
The third trend indicates a loss in relative power with an increase in
subject heterogeneity, a trend for which this investigator has at present
no explanation.

### Quasi-F Test of Occasion Results

The most startling result of this study concerned the empirical testing the application of the Quasi-F test of occasion on dichotomous data.

Tables 4 and 5 contain the frequencies in  $\alpha$  = .05, .025, and .01 rejection regions of the Quasi-F ratio test statistics for tests of occasion effects when the data were simulated under null occasion effect conditions and null subject by occasion interaction effect conditions. That is Tables 4 and 5 are the Quasi-F analogs to Tables 2 and 3.

Again the data in which were with respect to normal variates were significantly different from the data in Table 4 which were with respect to dichotomous variates.

The analysis of the data with respect to the dichotomous variates indicated significant effects due to: (1) the probability of a one, Pr (1) (2) the number of subjects, the interaction of (1) and (2), and the interaction of (1) and items null vs non-null respectively. The above two significant interactions are represented in Figures 3 and 4 respectively.



Table 4. The Empirical Frequencies, in %•1000 Rejection Regions, of the Quasi-F for Cccasions, Based on Normal and Dichotomous Data, Items Crossed with Occasions, Interaction and Occasion Effects Both Null.

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Table 5. The Empirical Frequencies, in <1000 Rejection Regions, of the Quasi-F for Occasions, Based on Dichotomous Data, Items Nested within Occasions, Interaction and Occasion Effects Both Null.

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Both figures indicate that the empirical probability of a Type I error is not in general close to .05. Figure 3 indicates that although the frequency in the rejection region is less affected by the probability of a one as the number of subjects increases, the tests become rather liberal. Figure 4 is self explanatory.

The analysis of the data in Table 4 with respect to the normal variates was interesting in that it tends to contradict earlier findings. The analysis indicated a strong significant effect due to the number of subjects and indicates a general downward trend in the empirical probability of a Type I error with an increase in number of subjects.

The data in Table 5 were analyzed by means of a multivariate analysis of variance and significant effects were found with respect to: (1) the probability of a one, (2) the number of subjects, (3) items null vs. non-null, and the interaction of (1) and (2). The significant interaction is represented in Figure 5 which is somewhat similar to Figure 3 and which in general lends itself to the same interpretation.

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Tables 6 and 7 contain frequencies in  $\alpha$  = .05, .025, and .01 rejection regions of the Quasi-F test statistics for tests of occasion effects when the data were simulated under non-null occasion effect conditions. The results in Tables 6 and 7 are most startling for it is apparent that although the Quasi-F tests based on normal variates responded in an appropriate manner to non-null effects that the Quasi-F tests based on dichotomous variates did not. The Quasi-F test based on dichotomous variates had significantly fewer frequencies in rejection regions when the effect it was testing was non-null than it did when the effect it was testing was null, and in all of the cases investigated the empirical power of the Quasi-F test was consistently less than the nominal  $\alpha$  level!

Table 6. The Empirical Frequencies, in the ~\*1000 Rejection Region, of the Quasi-F for Occasions, Based on Normal and Dichotomous Data, Items Crossed with Occasions, Occasion Effects Non-mull, Interaction Null.

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Table 7. The Empirical Frequencies, in \$\alpha \cdot 1000\$ Rejection Regions, of the Quasi-F for Occasions, Based on Dichotomous Data, Items Nested within Occasions, Occasion Effects Non-mull, Interaction Null.

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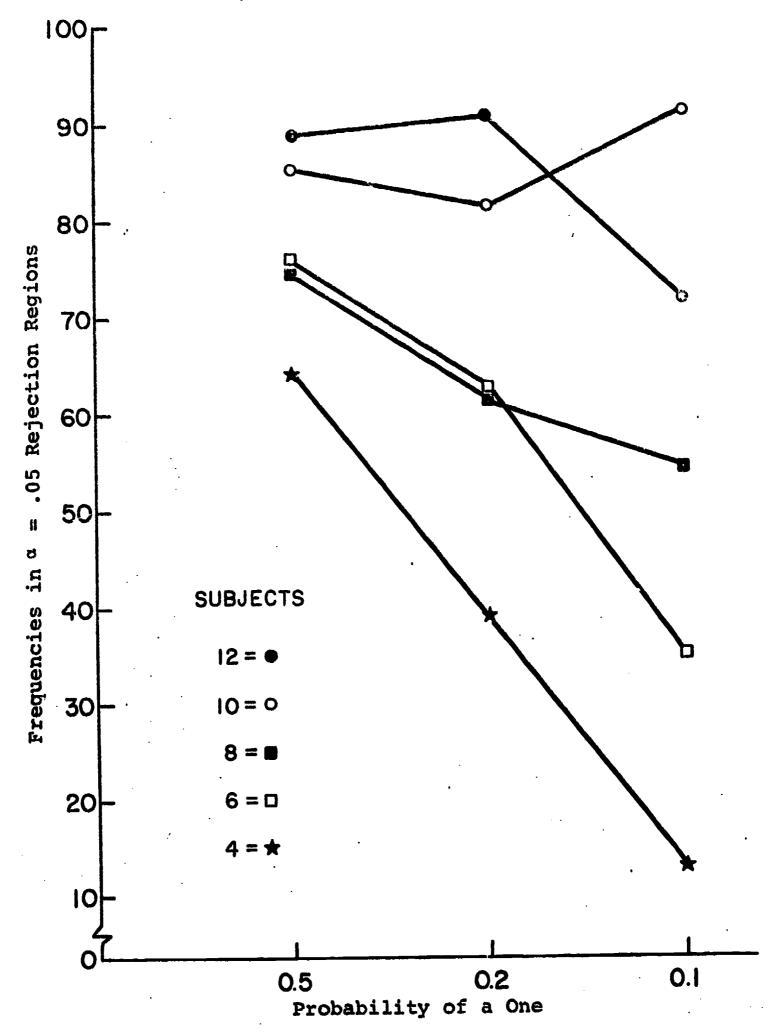


Figure 3. The interaction of the probability of a one and the number of subjects, with respect to the data in Table 4., data for the quasi-F test of occasions.

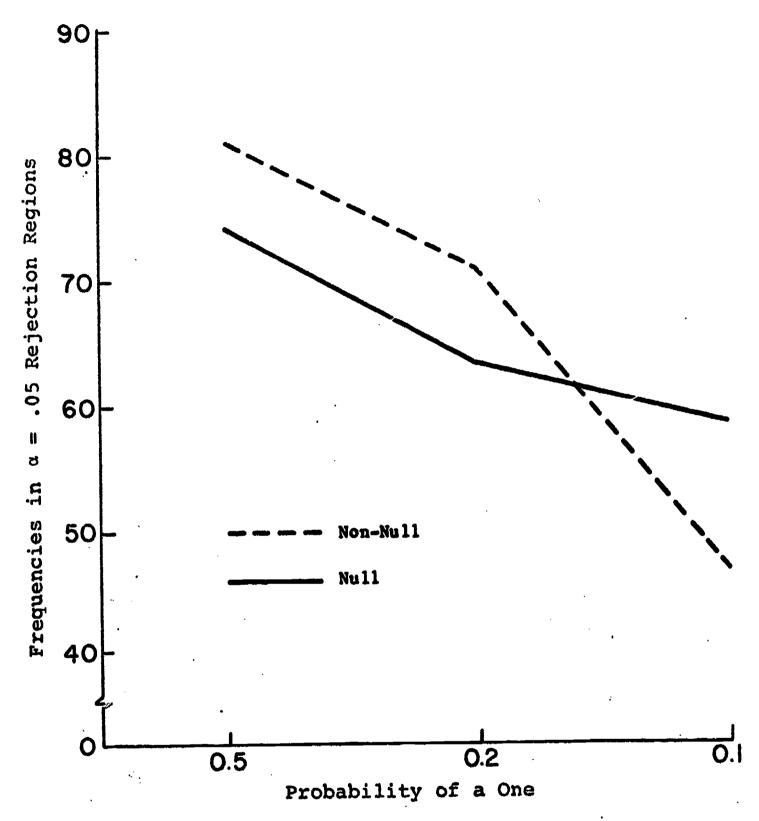


Figure 4. The interaction of the probability of a one and items null vs. non-null, with respect to the data in Table 4., data for the quasi-F test of occasions.

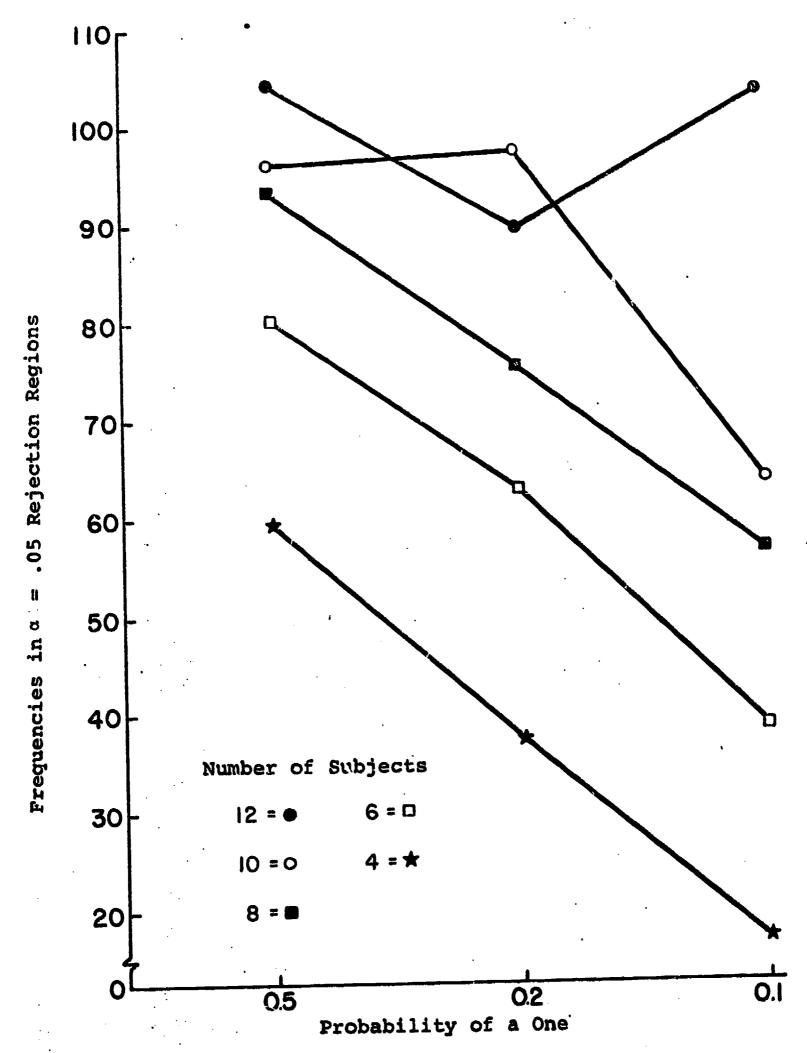


Figure 5. The interaction of the probability of a one and the number of subjects, with respect to the data in Table 5., data on the quasi-F test of occasions.

The data in Table 6 with respect to normal variates has an overall mean vector of [407, 300, 195] which is significantly less than the mean vector of analogous power data based on the regular variate ratio test.

Table 8 is a rearrangement of data which has been previously presented.

The arrangement of data in Table 8 was established to allow easy contrast of data with respect to regular F and Quasi-F tests based on normal and dichotomous variates under null and non-null repeated measures conditions.

Table 9 is laid out in the same manner as Table 8 and includes some new data, that with respect to normal variates under situation 2.

# Results of the Test of the Subject by Occasion Interactions

Tables 10 and 11 present frequencies in  $\alpha$  = .05, .025, and .01 rejection regions for variance ratio tests of subject by occasion interaction effects, when the data were simulated under null occasion and null subject by occasion interaction effect conditions. The frequency data in Table 10 are with respect to situation 1 and the frequency data in Table 11 with respect to situation 2.

Again MANOVA indicated a significant difference between the data in Table 10 based on normal variates and the data in Table 10 based on dichotomous data.

The multivariate analysis of the data in Table 10 based on dichotomous variates indicated significant effects due to: (1) the probability of a one, (2) the number of subjects, (3) items fixed vs. random, (4) the level of subject heterogeneity, the interaction (1) and (2) and the interaction of (1) and (3). The two interactions are displayed graphically in Figures 6 and 7.

Inspection of Figure 6 indicates that a favorable comparison of empirical probability of a Type I error to nominal occurred only for 6 subjects and a



Table 8. The Empirical Frequencies, in \$\alpha\$=1000 Rejection Regions, of the Variance Ratio Test and Quasi-F for Occasions, Based on Normal and Dichotomous Data, Items Crossed with Occasions, Twelve Subjects.

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Table 9. The Empirical Frequencies, in ex1000 Rejection Regions, of the Variance Ratio Test and Quasi-F for Occasions, Based on the Normal and Dichotomous Data, Items Nested within Occasions, Twelve Subjects.

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Table 10. The Empirical Frequencies, in del000 Rejection Regions, of the Variance Ratio Test for the Subjects by Occasions Interaction, Based on the Normal and Dichotomous Data, Items Crossed with Occasions, Interaction and Occasions Effects Both Null.

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Table 11. The Empirical Frequencies, in <1000 Rejection Regions, of the Variance Ratio Test for the Subjects by Occasions Interaction, Based on the Normal and Dichotomous Data, Items Nested within Occasions, Interaction and Occasions Effects Both Null.

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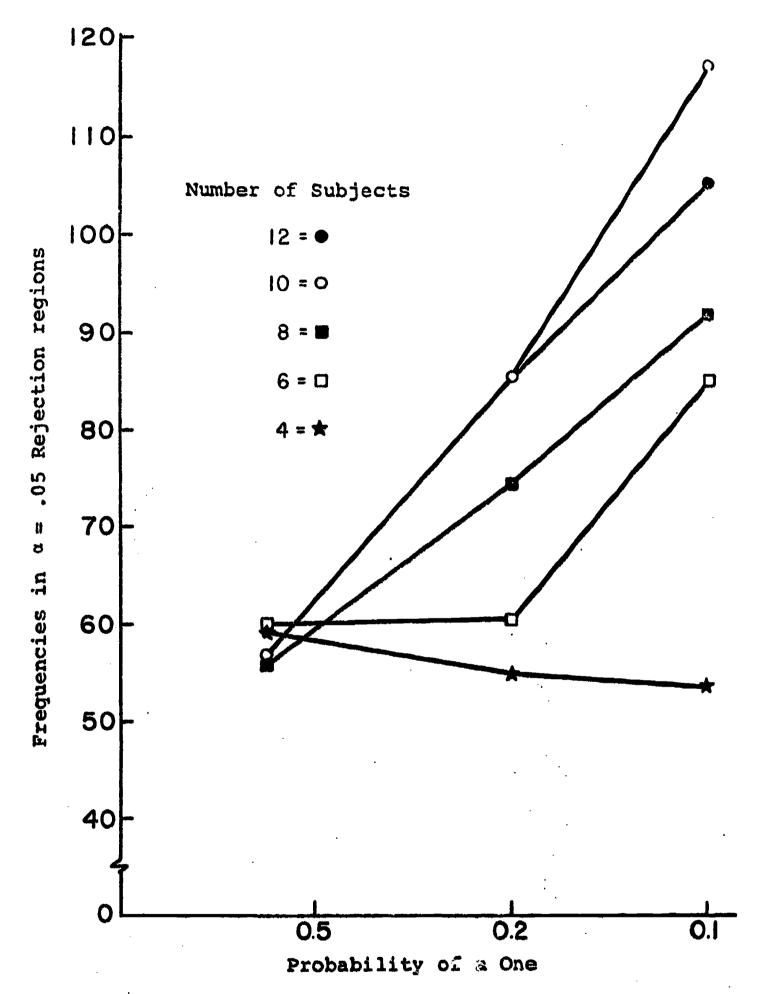


Figure 6. The interaction of the probability of a one and the number of subjects, with respect to the data in Table 10., data on the test of subjects by occasions interaction.

probability of a one equal to .5, and for 4 subjects and a probability of a one equal to .2 or .1. For all other conditions the test is too liberal. Figure 7 is self explanatory.

A multivariate analysis of the data in Table 11 indicated the same trends and significant effects that were found in Table 10.

Relative power variables were formed for both Table 10 and Table 11 and separate multivariate analyses of variance were performed on the relative power variables for both tables. In both analyses significant effects were found due to: (1) the probability of a one, (2) the number of subjects, the interaction of (1) and (2), the interaction of (1) and items fixed vs. random, and the interaction of (1) and the level of subject heterogeneity. In addition the analysis of the relative power variables from Table 11 disclosed a significant main effect due to items fixed vs. random.

In general it may be observed that higher relative powers correspond to greater "liberalness" in the test of a true null hypothesis. Thus the general increases in relative power observed across levels of a probability of a one .5 to .2 to .1 are in some sense specious.

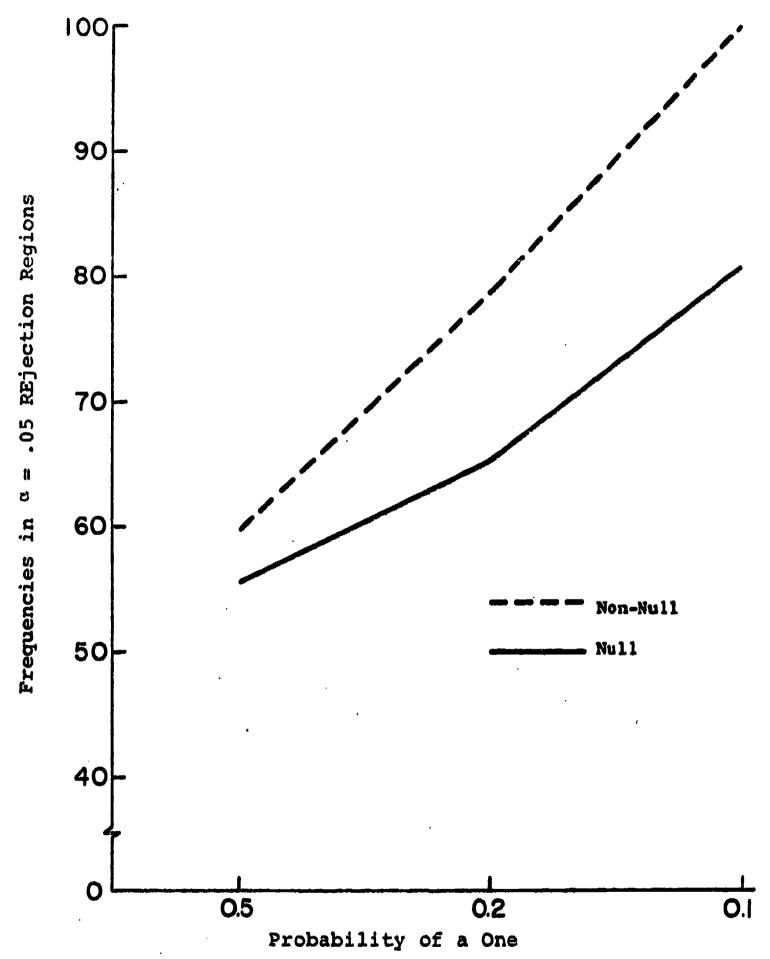


Figure 7. The interaction of the probability of a one and items null vs. non-null, with respect to the data in Table 10., data on the test of subjects by occasions interaction.

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#### APPENDIX A

If 1,000 samples are simulated so that a null hypothesis is true and so that the assumptions of an ANOVA are met, the number of F-statistics testing the above hypothesis which have values which exceed the  $F_{1-\alpha}$  quantile of a corresponding F-distribution will be approximately 1,000 $\alpha$ . If 1,000 samples of data are simulated so that a null hypothesis is not true and so that the assumptions of an ANOVA are met, the number of F-statistics testing the above hypothesis which have values which exceed the  $F_{1-\alpha}$  quantile of a corresponding F-distribution will be approximately 1,000 times the nominal power (1- $\beta$ ) for the situation simulated.

Let X, be defined according to the rule

$$X_i = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} 1, & F_i > F_{1-\alpha} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

where  $F_i$  is the F-variate calculated on the  $i^{th}$  sample,  $i=1,2,\ldots,1,000$ , and  $F_{1-\alpha}$  is the 1- $\alpha$  quantile of the corresponding F-distribution. The variate  $X_i$  is then an indicator variable, which takes on the value one when  $F_i$  is in the  $\alpha$  rejection region and which takes on the value zero when  $F_i$  does not occur in the rejection region. Note that the frequency of  $F_i$ 's which fall in the  $\alpha$  rejection region,

f, may be represented by the expression  $f = \begin{bmatrix} 1000 \\ \Sigma \\ i=1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Observe that f is a binominal variate with parameters  $p = \alpha$  and n = 1000. The variance of f is then np(1-p) or for n = 1000 and  $\alpha = .05$ , the var (f) = 47.5. Therefore by employing the normal approximation a, .95 probability interval may be formed about the expected value of f, E(f) =  $1000 \alpha_s$  which for  $\alpha = .05$  is Pr(36.5 < f < 63.5) = .95.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>An F-distribution with the same degrees of freedom as the variance ratio for the test.

