Bootstrap Tests for the Joint Independence of Variables

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Abstract. Testing the joint independence of variables and equality of covariance matrix has long been an interesting issue in statistics inference. To overcome the sparseness of data points in high-dimensional space and deal with the general cases, we suggest several projection pursuit type statistics. Some results on the limiting distributions of the statistics are obtained. Some properties of Bootstrap approximation are investigated. Furthermore, for computational reasons an approximation for the statistics the based on Number theoretic method is applied. Several simulation experiments are performed.

1. Introduction

Suppose that \( n \) multivariate observations \( z_1, \ldots, z_n \) are collected, and that \( z_i = (z_i^{(1)}, \ldots, z_i^{(d)}) \), where \( z_i^{(j)} \), \( j = 1, \ldots, d \), are made up of \( p_j \) components respectively and \( \sum_{j=1}^{d} p_j = p \). A common issue is to test the joint independence of \( d \) sets of variables \( z_i^{(1)}, \ldots, z_i^{(d)} \). Several tests based on the empirical measure have been proposed. When \( p = 2 \) and \( p_1 = p_2 = 1 \), for instance, the chi-square test is available. In general case, Blum, Kiefer and Rosenblatt (1961) proposed a nonparametric distance test (B-K-R test). They suggested using

\[
D_n = \sqrt{n} \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(z_i \leq t) - \prod_{j=1}^{p} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(z_i^{(j)} \leq t^{(j)}) \right) \right|,
\]

where \( t = (t^{(1)}, \ldots, t^{(p)}) \) and \( z \leq t \) means that \( z^{(j)} \leq t^{(j)} \) for \( j = 1, \ldots, p \). Their test is under the assumption that the underlying distribution of \( z \) has a density function.

Clearly a similar version of B-K-R test can be applied to treat the problem of testing the joint independence of \( z^{(j)}, j = 1, \ldots, d \). However, when the dimension \( p \) is large, then sparseness problem of the sample points in high-dimensional space will be encountered unless the size of sample is gigantic. One can refer to Huber (1985) and references therewith. As projection pursuit technique is a very useful tool for overcoming such a problem of sparseness of sample points, our aim in
this paper is to develop some tests based on the empirical measure and projection
pursuit technique.

On the other hand, in order to determine the critical values, one need to know
the properties of the sampling or limiting distributions of the test statistics pro-
posed. Similar to B-K-R test, accurate expressions of the sampling and limiting
distributions of our test statistics depend on the underlying distribution of \( z \) and
are not tractable. In this paper, we use the bootstrap method introduced by Efron
(1979) to estimate the null distributions of the test statistics.

Furthermore, the exact critical value of the test statistics, similar to that of
B-K-R test, may be difficult to obtain because the test statistics proposed are the
supremum and integration of function based on sample over uncountable sets in
the Euclidean space, and may be hard to compute. Instead, one may have to
resort to compute the values over a finite number of search sets. As in Beran and
Miller (1986), a stochastic approximation can be used. We in this chapter also
suggest another approximation derived by Number-theoretic method (e.g. Fang
and Wang (1994)). This section is organized in such a way: Section 2 presents
the construction of the test statistics. The bootstrap approximation is discussed
in the same section. Number theoretic method is described in Section 3. Section
4 contains some simulation experiments and a real-life example to which the new
tests are applied. Section 5 are Tests of Elliptical symmetry of Distribution.

2 Construction of Tests and Bootstrap Approximations

2.1 Test statistics and their asymptotic properties

Let \( F(\cdot) \) be the distribution function of \( z \) and let \( F(\cdot)(t^{(j)}), j = 1, \ldots, d, \) be the
distribution function of \( z^{(j)} \). As is known, \( z^{(j)}, j = 1, \ldots, d, \) are jointly independent
if and only if \( F(\cdot) \equiv \prod_{j=1}^{d} F_{x}(\cdot) \). This is the basis of constructing B-K-R test.
In order to construct our tests via projection pursuit technique, we give another
version of necessary and sufficient condition of the joint independence of \( z^{(j)} \)'s.
Define

\[
S_{j} = \{ \mathbf{a}_{j} : ||\mathbf{a}_{j}|| = 1, \mathbf{a}_{j} \in R^{p_{j}} \}, \quad j = 1, \ldots, d,
\]

where the notation \( ||\cdot|| \) stands for the Euclidean norm in \( R^{p_{j}} \).

\textbf{Lemma 2.1.} \( z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(d)} \) are jointly independent of each other if and only if
\( a_{1}^{T}z^{(1)}, \ldots, a_{d}^{T}z^{(d)} \) are jointly independent of each other for all \( \mathbf{a}_{j} \in S_{j}, j = 1, \ldots, d. \)
Proof. The necessity is obvious. We now show the sufficiency. Let $\varphi_{a_{j}^{\tau}z^{(j)}}(h_{j})$ and $\varphi_{z^{(j)}}(h_{j})$ be, respectively, the characteristic functions of $a_{j}^{\tau}z^{(j)}$ and $z^{(j)}$. It is easy to see that $\varphi_{a_{j}^{\tau}z^{(j)}}(h_{j}) = \varphi_{z^{(j)}}(h_{j}a_{j})$ for $j = 1, \ldots, d$. Furthermore, let $\varphi_{a_{j}^{\tau}z^{(j)}}, \ldots, a_{d}^{\tau}z^{(d)}(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d})$ and $\varphi_{z^{(j)}}, \ldots, z^{(d)}(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d})$ be the characteristic functions of $(a_{1}^{\tau}z^{(1)}, \ldots, a_{d}^{\tau}z^{(d)})$ and $(z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(d)})$ respectively. We can also get that

$$
(2.2) \quad \varphi_{a_{1}^{\tau}z^{(1)}, \ldots, a_{d}^{\tau}z^{(d)}}(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d}) = \varphi_{z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(d)}}(h_{1}a_{1}, \ldots, h_{d}a_{d}).
$$

All we need to do is to prove that, showing the sufficiency,

$$
(2.3) \quad \varphi_{z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(d)}}(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d}) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \varphi_{z^{(j)}}(h_{j}).
$$

When $(a_{1}^{\tau}z^{(1)}, \ldots, a_{d}^{\tau}z^{(d)})$ are jointly independent for every group of $(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d})$, we then have

$$
(2.4) \quad \varphi_{a_{1}^{\tau}z^{(1)}, \ldots, a_{d}^{\tau}z^{(d)}}(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d}) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \varphi_{a_{j}^{\tau}z^{(j)}}(h_{j}).
$$

Based on the above discussion, we can derive that

$$
(2.5) \quad \varphi_{z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(d)}}(h_{1}a_{1}, \ldots, h_{d}a_{d}) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \varphi_{z^{(j)}}(h_{j}a_{j})
$$

holds for every group of $a_{j}, j = 1, \ldots, d$. Note that $h_{j}$ can be expressed as $||h_{j}|| \cdot h_{j}/||h_{j}||$ where $h_{j}/||h_{j}|| \in S_{j}$. Hence (2.3) is showed, which completes the proof.

Based on this fact, we can construct the tests for the joint independence of $z^{(j)}, j = 1, \ldots, d$. Denote by $F_{n\mathbf{a}_{j}}(t_{j})$ the empirical distribution determined by $a_{j}^{\tau}z_{1}^{(j)}, \ldots, a_{j}^{\tau}z_{n}^{(j)}$ and let $F_{n\mathbf{a}}(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{d})$ be the empirical distribution based on $a_{1}z_{1}, \ldots, az_{n}$, where $az = (a_{1}^{\tau}z_{1}^{(1)}, \ldots, a_{d}^{\tau}z_{d}^{(d)})$ and $\mathbf{a} = (a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d})$. Furthermore, let $t = (t_{1}, \ldots, t_{d})$ and $S = S_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes S_{d}$. A B-K-R type test statistic is

$$
(2.6) \quad KS_{n} = \sup_{\mathbf{a} \in S, t \in R^{d}} |K_{n}(\mathbf{a}, t)| = \sqrt{n} \sup_{\mathbf{a} \in S, t \in R^{d}} |F_{n\mathbf{a}}(t) - \prod_{j=1}^{d} F_{n\mathbf{a}_{j}}(t_{j})|.
$$

Two other test statistics are the following Cramer-Von Mises type tests;

$$
(2.7) \quad CVS_{n} = \sup_{\mathbf{a} \in S} \int_{R^{d}} (K_{n}(\mathbf{a}, t))^{2} \prod_{j=1}^{d} dF_{n\mathbf{a}_{j}}(t_{j}),
$$

and

$$
(2.8) \quad CV_{A_{n}} = \int_{S} \int_{R^{d}} (K_{n}(\mathbf{a}, t))^{2} \prod_{j=1}^{d} dF_{n\mathbf{a}_{j}}(t_{j}) \prod_{j=1}^{d} d\mu_{j}(a_{j}),
$$
where $\mu_f(\cdot)$ is the uniform distribution on $S_j$.

In view of the construction procedure above, the test statistics are based on the low-dimensional projection of high-dimensional data. This is available for overcoming the sparseness of data in high-dimensional space. One can refer to Huber (1985) for details.

In order to present the asymptotic behavior of the test statistics, we define several centered continuous Gaussian processes $W = \{W(\cdot, a, t) : a \in S, t \in R^d\}$ and $W_j = \{W_j(\cdot, a_j, t_j) : a_j \in S_j, t_j \in R^1\}, j = 1, \ldots, d$. These processes have the following properties:

1) each sample path of $W(\cdot, a, t)$ is bounded and uniformly continuous with respect to the metric induced by the $L^2(P)$-semi-norm on $\mathcal{F} = \{f = I(az \leq t) : a \in S, t \in R^d\}$;

2) the covariance function of $W(\cdot, a, t)$ is of the form

$$ E\{W(\cdot, a, t)W(\cdot, b, s)\} = \int I(az \leq t)I(bz \leq s)dP $$

(2.9)

$$ - \int I(az \leq t)dP \int I(bz \leq s)dP; $$

3) each sample path of $W_j(\cdot, a_j, t_j)$ is bounded and uniformly continuous with respect to the metric induced by the $L^2(P^{(j)})$-semi-norm on $\mathcal{F}_j = \{f = I(a_j^Tz^{(j)} \leq t_j) : a_j \in S_j, t_j \in R^1\}$;

4) the covariance function of $W_j(\cdot, a_j, t_j)$ is of the form

$$ E\{W_j(\cdot, a_j, t_j)W_j(\cdot, b_j, s_j)\} = \int I(a_j^Tz^{(j)} \leq t_j)I(b_j^Tz^{(j)} \leq s_j)dP^{(j)} $$

(2.10)

$$ - F_{a_j}(t_j)F_{b_j}(s_j); $$

where $P$ and $P^{(j)}$ are the probability measures of $z$ and $z^{(j)}$ respectively, and $F_{a_j}(t_j)$ stands for the distribution function of $a_j^Tz^{(j)}$.

We now present the asymptotic behavior of the test statistics defined in (2.6), (2.7) and (2.8). For the simplicity of notation, let

$$ \overline{W}(\cdot, a, t) = W(\cdot, a, t) - \sum_{j=1}^d \prod_{i \neq j} F_{a_i}(t_i)W_j(\cdot, a_j, t_j). $$

(2.11)

THEOREM 2.1. Suppose that all $F_{a_j}(t_j), j = 1, \ldots, d$, and $F_a(t)$, the distribution of $az$, are continuous with respect to $a$ and $t$. If $z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(d)}$ are jointly independent of each other, then

$$ KS_n \Rightarrow \sup_{a \in S, t \in R^d} |\overline{W}(\cdot, a, t)|, $$

(2.12)
\[(2.13) \quad CVS_{n} \Rightarrow \sup_{a \in S} \int_{R^{d}} (\overline{W}(\cdot, a, t))^{2} \prod_{j=1}^{d} dF_{a_{j}}(t_{j}), \]

and

\[(2.14) \quad CVA_{n} \Rightarrow \int_{S} \int_{R^{d}} (\overline{W}(\cdot, a, t))^{2} \prod_{j=1}^{d} dF_{a_{j}}(t_{j}) \prod_{j=1}^{d} d\mu_{j}(a_{j}), \]

where the notation \(\Rightarrow\) means the weak convergence. If the null hypothesis is false, then the above three statistics tend to infinity with probability one as \(n \to \infty\).

For simplicity of the notations, we consider \(d = 2\). The general case can be proved in the same way.

**Proof of Theorem 2.1.** Using the modern theory of empirical processes, we can show

\[(2.15) \quad \sup_{a \in S, t \in R^{d}} |\sqrt{n}(F_{n}(t) - F(a, t))| \Rightarrow \sup_{a \in S, t \in R^{d}} |W(\cdot, a, t)|, \quad a.s. \]

and

\[(2.16) \quad \sup_{a_{j} \in S, t \in R^{1}} |\sqrt{n}(F_{n_{a_{j}}}(t_{j}) - F_{a_{j}}(t_{j}))| \Rightarrow \sup_{a_{j} \in S, t \in R^{1}} |W_{j}(\cdot, a_{j}, t_{j})|, \quad a.s. \]

where \(F_{a}(t)\) and \(F_{a_{j}}(t_{j})\) are the distribution functions of \(az = (a_{1}'z^{(1)}, a_{2}'z^{(2)})\) and of \(a_{j}'z^{(j)}\) respectively, \(F_{n}(t)\) and \(F_{n_{a_{j}}}(t_{j})\) are the corresponding empirical distributions, and \(W(\cdot, a, t)\) and \(W_{j}(\cdot, a_{j}, t_{j})\) are the centered continuous Gaussian processes defined in Section 2 associated with the covariance functions in (2.9) and (2.10) respectively. Note that

\[
F_{n_{a_{1}}}(t_{1})F_{n_{a_{2}}}(t_{2}) - (F_{n}(t) - F_{a_{1}}(t_{1})F_{a_{2}}(t_{2})) - F_{n_{a_{1}}}(t_{1})(F_{n_{a_{2}}}(t_{2}) - F_{a_{2}}(t_{2}))
\]

\[
- F_{n_{a_{2}}}(t_{2})(F_{n_{a_{1}}}(t_{1}) - F_{a_{1}}(t_{1}))
\]

\[
+ F_{n}(t) - F_{a_{1}}(t_{1})F_{a_{2}}(t_{2}).
\]

The formulas (2.12) — (2.14) are the direct consequence of (2.15) and (2.16) when the null hypothesis is true, namely, \(F_{n}(t) - F_{a_{1}}(t_{1})F_{a_{2}}(t_{2}) \equiv 0\). If the null is false, then \(\sqrt{n}\sup_{n, t} |F_{n}(t) - F_{a_{1}}(t_{1})F_{a_{2}}(t_{2})| \to \infty\). This leads that three statistics in (2.6) — (2.8) tend to infinity. The proof is finished.

**2.2 Bootstrap tests**
In previous subsection, we construct the test statistics and present the asymptotic behavior. A serious problem is that neither the sampling nor limiting distribution of the statistics is tractable because they depend on the underlying distribution of \( z \). This problem leads up to that the critical values may be difficult to be determined. We now apply the bootstrap tests to solve this problem.

Let \( z_{i*}^{(j)}, \ldots, z_{n*}^{(j)} \) be bootstrap samples drawn from the empirical marginal distribution \( F_{n}^{(j)}(\cdot) \) based on \( z_{1}^{(j)}, \ldots, z_{n}^{(j)} \), \( j = 1, \ldots, d \), and let \( z_{i*} = (z_{i*}^{(1)}, \ldots, z_{i*}^{(d)}) \), that is, \( z_{1*}, \ldots, z_{n*} \) is the bootstrap sample drawn from \( \prod_{j=1}^{d} F_{n}^{(j)}(\cdot) \). Similar to the definition of \( F_{na}(t) \) and \( F_{na_{j}}(t_{j}) \), let \( F_{na}^{*}(t) \) and \( F_{na_{j}}^{*}(t_{j}) \), \( j = 1, \ldots, d \), be the empirical distributions determined by \( \{az_{1*}, \ldots, az_{n*}\} \) and \( \{a_{j}^{*}z_{1*}^{(j)}, \ldots, a_{j}^{*}z_{n*}^{(j)}\} \) respectively. Define

\[
K_{n}^{*}(a, t|z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}) = \sqrt{n}(F_{na}^{*}(t) - \prod_{j=1}^{d} F_{na_{j}}^{*}(t_{j}))
\]

The bootstrap test statistics are defined by

\[
KS_{n}^{*}(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}) = \sup_{a \in S, t \in R^{d}} |K_{n}^{*}(a, t|z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n})|,
\]

\[
CVS_{n}^{*}(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}) = \sup_{a \in S} \int_{R^{d}} (K_{n}^{*}(a, t|z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}))^{2} \prod_{j=1}^{d} dF_{na_{j}}^{*}(t_{j}),
\]

and

\[
CVA_{n}^{*}(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}) = \int_{S} \int_{R^{d}} (K_{n}^{*}(a, t|z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}))^{2} \prod_{j=1}^{d} dF_{na_{j}}^{*}(t_{j}) \prod_{j=1}^{d} d\mu_{j}(a_{j}).
\]

The following theorem shows that the test statistics and their bootstrap versions have the same limit if the null hypothesis is true.

**Theorem 2.2.** If the null hypothesis holds, then, with probability one,

\[
KS_{n}^{*}(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}) \rightarrow \sup_{a \in S, t \in R^{d}} |\overline{W}(\cdot, a, t)|,
\]

\[
CVS_{n}^{*}(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}) \rightarrow \sup_{a \in S} \int_{R^{d}} (\overline{W}(\cdot, a, t))^{2} \prod_{j=1}^{d} dF_{a_{j}}(t_{j}),
\]
If the null hypothesis is false, the above three statistics still converge weakly to the maximum or integration functionals of certain Gaussian processes, with probability one.

**Proof of Theorem 2.2.** First recall that the bootstrap sample \((z_{1*}, \ldots, z_{n*})\) is an i.i.d. sample from the distribution \(\prod_{j=1}^{2} P_{n}^{(j)}(\cdot)\), and the components of \(z_{i*}\) are conditionally independent of each other, given \(\{z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\}\), where \(P^{(j)}_{n}(\cdot)\) is the probability measure based on \((z_{1}^{(j)}, \ldots, z_{n}^{(j)})\). Note that

\[
F_{na_{j}}^{*}(t_{j}) - \prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{na_{j}}(t_{j}) = \{F_{na_{j}}^{*}(t_{j}) - \prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{na_{j}}(t_{j})\} - \{\prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{na_{j}}(t_{j}) - \prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{na_{j}}(t_{j})\}.
\]

Now we apply Corollary 2.7 of Giné and Zinn (1991, p.771) to obtain the asymptotic distribution of the first term in the right hand side of (2.24). To check the conditions there, first notice that \(\mathcal{F}\) is a measurable finitely uniformly pregaussian class (see Giné and Zinn (1991, p.761 and p.778)). Next, let \(\mathcal{F}' = \{f - g : f, g \in \mathcal{F}\}\), \((\mathcal{F}')^{2} = \{(f - g)^{2} : f, g \in \mathcal{F}\}\) and \(\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{F}' \cup (\mathcal{F}')^{2}\). Then it turns out that

\[
\sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} |\prod_{j=1}^{2} P^{(j)}_{n}(g) - \prod_{j=1}^{2} P^{(j)}(g)| \to 0, \quad a.s.
\]

where \(P^{(j)}(\cdot)\) is the associated probability measure of the distribution \(F_{z^{(j)}}(\cdot)\), since the metric entropy of \(\mathcal{G}\) (Giné and Zinn (1986, p.53)) is finite. Consequently it follows from Corollary 2.7 of Giné and Zinn (1991) that, with probability one,

\[
\sqrt{n}(F_{na}^{*}(t) - \prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{na_{j}}(t_{j})) \Rightarrow W^{*}(\cdot, a, t),
\]

where \(W^{*}(\cdot, a, t)\) is a Gaussian process with the zero mean and covariance kernel:

\[
E\{W^{*}(\cdot, a, t)W^{*}(\cdot, b, s)\} = \prod_{j=1}^{2} \int I(a_{j}'z^{(j)} \leq t_{j})I(b_{j}'z^{(j)} \leq s_{j}) dP^{(j)} - \prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{a_{j}}(t_{j}) \prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{b_{j}}(s_{j}),
\]

for \(a = (a_{1}, a_{2}), b = (b_{1}, b_{2})\) with \(a_{j}, b_{j} \in S_{j}\) and \(t = (t_{1}, t_{2}), s = (s_{1}, s_{2})\), with real numbers \(t_{j}'s\) and \(s_{j}'s\). Comparing this covariance kernel with the one of \(W\)
in (2.11), it is clear that, when the null hypothesis is true, \( W^* \) is just \( W \) in (2.11). Also note that the term inside the second curly parenthesis in (2.24) equals

\[
F_{na_1}^*(t_1)(F_{na_2}^*(t_2) - F_{na_2}(t_2)) + F_{na_2}(t_2)(F_{na_1}(t_1) - F_{na_1}(t_1)).
\]

Invoking again Corollary 2.7 of Giné and Zinn (1991) and checking the conditions there, we can derive that the bootstrap empirical process associated with \( F_{na_1}(t_1)F_{na_2}(t_2) \) converges weakly to a process associated with the second term in (2.11). Then when the null hypothesis is true, we have

\[
K_n(a, t|z_1, \ldots, z_n) = \sqrt{n}(F_n^*(t) - \prod_{j=1}^{2} F_{na_j}^*(t_j)) \Rightarrow W(\cdot, a, t).
\]

On the other hand, if the null is false, the bootstrap empirical process still converges weakly to \( W^*(\cdot, a, t) - \sum_{i=1}^{2} \prod_{i \neq j} F_{a_i}(t_i)W_j(\cdot, a_j, t_j) \). The formulas (2.21) — (2.23) are the direct consequence of (2.26), which completes the proof.

3 The Approximations for The Bootstrap Test

In view of the bootstrap test statistics, they are the supremum or the integration over the Euclidean space. For the computational reason, one may have to resort to compute \( K_n^*(a, t|z_1, \ldots, z_n) \) over a finite number of points. For given \( a_1^1, \ldots, a_m^i \in S_i, i = 1, \ldots, d \), we define

\[
KS_n^*(z_1, \ldots, z_n) = \max_{S^I} \sup_{t} |K_n^*(a, t|z_1, \ldots, z_n)|,
\]

\[
CV S_n^*(z_1, \ldots, z_n) = \max_{S^I} \int S^d (K_n^*(a, t|z_1, \ldots, z_n))^2 \prod_{i=1}^{d} dF_{na_i}(t_i),
\]

and

\[
CV A_n^*(z_1, \ldots, z_n) = \frac{1}{md} \sum_{S^-I} \int S^d (K_n^*(a, t|z_1, \ldots, z_n))^2 \prod_{i=1}^{d} dF_{na_i}(t_i),
\]

where \( S^I = \{a = (a_1, \ldots, a_d) : a_i \in \{a_1^i, \ldots, a_m^i\} \in S_i ; i = 1, \ldots, d \} \). On the above definition, maximum and summation are taken over all different sets of \( S^I \). A stochastic approximation (cf. Beran and Miller (1986)) is, of course, a choice. That is, let \( a_1^1, \ldots, a_m^i, i = 1, \ldots, d \), be i.i.d. unit random vectors distributed uniformly on \( S_i \). We know that the uniformity of \( \{a_1^1, \ldots, a_m^i\} \) on \( S_i \) is important for this kind of approximation. We now suggest another method of choosing \( \{a_1^i, \ldots, a_m^i\} \).
the Number-theoretic method (NTM) (e.g. Hua and Wang (1981), or Fang and Wang (1994)). It is well known that the Kolmogorov distance for \( \{a^1_i, \ldots, a^m_i\} \) is evaluated as

\[
\sup_{\delta \in \Delta} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} I(a^k_i \in \delta) - \mu(\delta) = O_p(m^{-1/2}),
\]

where \( \Delta = \{\delta(\mathbf{v}) : \mathbf{v} \in [0,1]^{p_i-1}\} \) and \( \delta \) is a set of the form

\[
\delta(v_1, \ldots, v_{p_i-1}) = \{a_i = [\cos(f_1(u_1)), \sin(f_1(u_1)) \cos(f_2(u_2)), \ldots,
\]

\[
(\prod_{j=1}^{p_i-2} \sin(f_j(u_j))) \cos(2\pi u_{p_i-1}) : 0 \leq u_j \leq v_j \leq 1, \quad j = 1, \ldots, p_i - 1 \}
\]

and \( f_j(u) = F_j^{-1}(u) \), \( j = 1, \ldots, p_i - 2 \). Here \( F_j(y) \) is the distribution with the density function \( g_j(y) = c(j)(\sin y)^{p-j-1} \), where \( y \in [0, \pi] \) and \( c(j) \) being a normalized constant. In the sense of the Kolmogorov distance, \( \{\dot{a}^1_i, \ldots, \dot{a}^m_i\} \), chosen by Number-theoretic method will enjoy better uniformity on \( S_i \) than that of the above set of random vectors \( \{a^1_i, \ldots, a^m_i\} \), that is,

\[
\sup_{\delta \in \Delta} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} I(\dot{a}^k_i \in \delta) - \mu(\delta) = O(m^{-1}(\log m)^{p_i-1}).
\]

Recently, Fang and Wang (1994) gave a systematic study on application of NTM in Statistics and gave the corresponding algorithm that is so-called TFWW algorithm. They pick up the good lattice point (glp)method, one of NTM, to generate an NT-net on \([0,1]^{p_i-1}\) as follows: For given integer \( m \) larger than \( p_i - 1 \), choose an integer vector \( \mathbf{h} = (h_1, \ldots, h_{p_i-1}) \) satisfying \( 1 \leq h_j \leq m, \quad h_j \neq h_l \) for \( j \neq l \). Denote \( c_{kj} = \{(2kh_j - 1)/2m\} \) and \( c_k = (c_{k1}, \ldots, c_{k(p_i-1)})^T \) for \( k = 1, \ldots, m \) and \( j = 1, \ldots, p_i - 1 \), where \( \{x\} \) denotes the fraction part of \( x \). A choice of \( \mathbf{h} = (h_1, \ldots, h_{p_i-1}) \) can be found in the appendix of Hua and Wang (1981) or Fang and Wang (1993). We can use the TFWW algorithm to generate the desired points \( \{\dot{a}^1_i, \ldots, \dot{a}^m_i\} \) on \( S_i \) corresponding to \( \{c_1, \ldots, c_m\} \).

### 4 Simulations and an Example

To demonstrate the power of the proposed test for the joint independence of variables, we in this section apply it to several simulated data sets and a real-life example. In simulation experiments, we consider that \( z \) is 6-dimensional and both \( z^{(1)} \) and \( z^{(2)} \) are 3-dimensional, that is, \( z = (z^{(1)}, z^{(2)}) \). It is expected that our tests would be also powerful in higher dimensional cases. The first we consider
$z^{(1)} \sim U_3, z^{(2)} \sim U_3$ and $z^{(1)}$ and $z^{(2)}$ are independent, where $U_3$ is 3-dimensional distribution with i.i.d. marginal distributions each having the uniform distribution for $[0, 1]$. Several simulated data sets are generated from the multivariate normal distributions with different covariance matrices. For these distributions, the various sample sizes, say $n = 20$ and $n = 30$, are investigated. In each case, 5 and 7 projection directions are chosen by Number-theoretic method and 1000 replications are performed. In order to simulate the critical values under the significance level 1%, 5%, 10%, 500 bootstrap samples are generated for each replication. Let $N(0, V_6^{(i)})$ be the normal distribution with mean zero and covariance matrix $V_6^{(i)}$. The following $V_6^{(i)}$'s are considered, and $V_6^{(9)}$ and $V_6^{(10)}$ are concerned with the real example. The simulation results are summarized in the Tables 2.0, 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 below. In the tables, the notation “dir” stands for the number of projective directions.

$$V_6^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix},$$

$$V_6^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0.5 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0.5 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 1
\end{pmatrix},$$

$$V_6^{(3)} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 1
\end{pmatrix},$$

$$V_6^{(4)} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\
0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 \\
0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\
0 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\
0 & 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1
\end{pmatrix},$$
\[ \mathbf{v}_6^{(5)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \]

\[ \mathbf{v}_6^{(6)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \]

\[ \mathbf{v}_6^{(7)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.5^2 & 0.5^3 & 0.5^4 & 0.5^5 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5^2 & 0.5^3 & 0.5^4 \\ 0.5^2 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5^2 & 0.5^3 \\ 0.5^3 & 0.5^2 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.5^2 \\ 0.5^4 & 0.5^3 & 0.5^2 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5^5 & 0.5^4 & 0.5^3 & 0.5^2 & 0.5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \]

\[ \mathbf{v}_6^{(8)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 & 0.7 & 0.6 & 0.5 \\ 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 & 0.7 & 0.6 \\ 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 & 0.7 \\ 0.7 & 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 \\ 0.6 & 0.7 & 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 \\ 0.5 & 0.6 & 0.7 & 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \]

\[ \mathbf{v}_6^{(9)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.486 & 0.678 & 0.366 & 0.448 & 0.486 \\ 0.486 & 1 & 0.857 & 0.636 & 0.403 & 0.417 \\ 0.678 & 0.857 & 1 & 0.681 & 0.520 & 0.558 \\ 0.366 & 0.636 & 0.681 & 1 & 0.345 & 0.367 \\ 0.448 & 0.403 & 0.520 & 0.345 & 1 & 0.820 \\ 0.486 & 0.417 & 0.558 & 0.367 & 0.820 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \]

\[ \mathbf{v}_6^{(10)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.737 & 0.676 & 0.476 & 0.483 & 0.540 \\ 0.737 & 1 & 0.627 & 0.339 & 0.392 & 0.446 \\ 0.676 & 0.627 & 1 & 0.441 & 0.447 & 0.440 \\ 0.476 & 0.339 & 0.441 & 1 & 0.452 & 0.535 \\ 0.483 & 0.392 & 0.447 & 0.452 & 1 & 0.663 \\ 0.540 & 0.446 & 0.440 & 0.535 & 0.663 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \]
TABLE 2.1 Proportion of rejecting $H_0$ ( $\text{dir} = 5$, $n = 20$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>distribution</th>
<th>$KS_n$</th>
<th>$CV_n$</th>
<th>$CVA_n$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(1)})$</td>
<td>0.012; 0.062; 0.128</td>
<td>0.004; 0.044; 0.110</td>
<td>0.004; 0.052; 0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(2)})$</td>
<td>0.012; 0.063; 0.126</td>
<td>0.006; 0.045; 0.114</td>
<td>0.005; 0.057; 0.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(3)})$</td>
<td>0.013; 0.066; 0.135</td>
<td>0.006; 0.047; 0.112</td>
<td>0.005; 0.059; 0.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(4)})$</td>
<td>0.205; 0.464; 0.629</td>
<td>0.165; 0.490; 0.649</td>
<td>0.196; 0.526; 0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(5)})$</td>
<td>0.237; 0.539; 0.681</td>
<td>0.217; 0.551; 0.713</td>
<td>0.263; 0.579; 0.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(6)})$</td>
<td>0.252; 0.569; 0.710</td>
<td>0.236; 0.584; 0.742</td>
<td>0.271; 0.593; 0.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(7)})$</td>
<td>0.035; 0.146; 0.254</td>
<td>0.016; 0.085; 0.186</td>
<td>0.013; 0.090; 0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(8)})$</td>
<td>0.650; 0.867; 0.930</td>
<td>0.712; 0.925; 0.963</td>
<td>0.691; 0.930; 0.969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(9)})$</td>
<td>0.274; 0.616; 0.736</td>
<td>0.260; 0.602; 0.767</td>
<td>0.257; 0.595; 0.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(10)})$</td>
<td>0.179; 0.489; 0.604</td>
<td>0.165; 0.442; 0.600</td>
<td>0.184; 0.468; 0.626</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 2.2 Proportion of rejecting $H_0$ ( $\text{dir} = 5$, $n = 20$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>distribution</th>
<th>$KS_n$</th>
<th>$CV_n$</th>
<th>$CVA_n$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_3$ and $U_3$</td>
<td>0.012; 0.063; 0.115</td>
<td>0.010; 0.037; 0.108</td>
<td>0.012; 0.047; 0.097</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 2.3 Proportion of rejecting $H_0$ ( $\text{dir} = 5$, $n = 30$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>distribution</th>
<th>$KS_n$</th>
<th>$CV_n$</th>
<th>$CVA_n$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(1)})$</td>
<td>0.010; 0.059; 0.118</td>
<td>0.009; 0.044; 0.099</td>
<td>0.003; 0.049; 0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(2)})$</td>
<td>0.011; 0.061; 0.117</td>
<td>0.008; 0.048; 0.104</td>
<td>0.008; 0.051; 0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(3)})$</td>
<td>0.012; 0.068; 0.126</td>
<td>0.011; 0.054; 0.125</td>
<td>0.010; 0.059; 0.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(4)})$</td>
<td>0.372; 0.645; 0.779</td>
<td>0.397; 0.742; 0.866</td>
<td>0.431; 0.753; 0.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(5)})$</td>
<td>0.479; 0.676; 0.810</td>
<td>0.412; 0.750; 0.881</td>
<td>0.447; 0.783; 0.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(6)})$</td>
<td>0.528; 0.818; 0.871</td>
<td>0.564; 0.841; 0.908</td>
<td>0.536; 0.815; 0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(7)})$</td>
<td>0.038; 0.156; 0.264</td>
<td>0.030; 0.128; 0.236</td>
<td>0.020; 0.118; 0.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(8)})$</td>
<td>0.892; 0.986; 0.992</td>
<td>0.970; 0.994; 1.000</td>
<td>0.974; 0.994; 1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(9)})$</td>
<td>0.530; 0.828; 0.912</td>
<td>0.606; 0.865; 0.956</td>
<td>0.581; 0.850; 0.932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N(0, V_6^{(10)})$</td>
<td>0.398; 0.671; 0.794</td>
<td>0.341; 0.670; 0.828</td>
<td>0.462; 0.731; 0.826</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In view of the Tables 2.1, 2.3, and 2.4, we can find that the performances of the tests proposed are encouraging. At first, the tests hold their level very well. For the cases of $\mathbf{V}_6^{(3)}$, the powers are poor because two vectors, $\{z_1, z_2, z_3\}$ and $\{z_4, z_5, z_6\}$ have very weak correlation. As the correlation between two sets of variables increases according as $\mathbf{V}_6^{(4)}$ through $\mathbf{V}_6^{(6)}$, we enjoy higher power. Another finding is that, a little bit surprise, the performance of $KS_n$ is the worst among three tests. In intuition, it would be the most powerful. On the contrary, $CVA_n$ seems to be the most recommendable test among the tests here. For the case of $\mathbf{V}_6^{(7)}$, the situation is similar to the weak correlation cases. For $\mathbf{V}_6^{(8)}$, the power is good. On the other hand, the tests have, in natural, higher power with larger size of sample. However it will involve heavy computational work-load. The cases where the covariance matrices are $\mathbf{V}_6^{(9)}$ and $\mathbf{V}_6^{(10)}$, concern with a real-life example in which the new tests are employed. The data set pertains to the derivation of standardization of dress of Chinese men in 1976, and is taken from Fang, Yuan and Bentler (1992). There are 12 measurements of the body, including $z_1$: above the waist, $z_2$: under the waist, $z_3$: height, $y_1$: arm length, $y_2$: the front waist length, $y_3$: the back waist length. We now want to know whether or not $z_1 = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and $z_2 = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$ are independent. Applying the new tests to this example, the conclusion "rejected" is obtained. Similarly, put $z_4$: bust, $z_5$: waist, $z_6$: buttocks, $y_4$: shoulder length, $y_5$: the front part of chest, $y_6$: the back part of chest, and $z_3 = (x_4, x_5, x_6)$, $z_4 = (y_4, y_5, y_6)$ . All three bootstrap tests reject the null
hypothesis which is that $z_3$ and $z_4$ are independent. Clearly, the above mentioned two results correspond to objective reality.

5. Application: Test of Elliptical symmetry of Distribution

5.1. Introduction

It is well known that the class of elliptically symmetric distributions (elliptical distribution for short) has played important roles in statistical theory and applications. Many kinds of distributions belong to this class. For example, multivariate normal, $t$-distributions. A random vector $z$ has a $p$-dimensional elliptical distribution if there exist a non-singular matrix $\Sigma$ and a constant vector $\mu$ such that

$$\Gamma \Sigma^{-1/2} (z - \mu) \overset{d}{=} \Sigma^{-1/2} (z - \mu)$$

for every orthogonal matrix $\Gamma$, where the notation $\overset{d}{=} \Sigma^{-1/2} (z - \mu)$ means that two sides of the equality have the same distribution. We call $\Sigma$ and $\mu$ the shape matrix and location vector of distribution respectively. In order to describe conveniently the following problem, we denote

$$\mathcal{F}_0 = \{ P : (5.1) \text{ holds for both known shape matrix and location vector} \};$$

Without loss of generality, we consider $\Sigma$ and $\mu$, in $\mathcal{F}_0$, are identical matrix and zero vector respectively. Thus given a high-dimensional distribution $P(\cdot)$, one is often required to test the following hypothesis:

$$(5.2)\quad H_0 : P(\cdot) \in \mathcal{F}_0 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : P(\cdot) \not\in \mathcal{F}_0,$$

Throughout this paper, the boldface symbols will represent vector or matrix if no special mentioning. In the following the notation $\| \cdot \|$ stands for the Euclidean norm. Naturally if $x$ is real-valued, $|x|$ is the absolute value of $x$. In order to present in the next section the proposed tests we now introduce two properties of a spherical distribution which will be the basis for constructing tests.

**Lemma 5.1.** $z$ has a $p$-dimensional spherical distribution if and only if

$|z|$ and $z|x|^{-1}$ are independent and $z|x|^{-1}$ is uniformly distributed on $S^{p-1} = \{ a : a \in R^p, |a| = 1 \}$.

For convenience, we present a necessary and sufficient condition for Lemma 5.1.
LEMMA 5.2. That both $|z|$ and $z|z|^{-1}$ are independent each other, and $z|z|^{-1}$ is uniformly distributed on $S^{p-1}$ if and only if for every $a \in S^{p-1}$, $|z|$ and $a^\tau z|x|^{-1}$ are independent, and $a^\tau z|x|^{-1}$'s have the same distribution $A(\cdot)$ with the density function

$$f(y) = \frac{\Gamma(p/2)}{\Gamma((p-1)/2)\pi^{1/2}}(1-y^2)^{(p-3)/2}, \quad -1 \leq y \leq 1.$$  

Lemma 5.2 is a direct consequence of the well known result (e.g. see Watson (1983) or Fang, Kotz and Ng, 1990, Theorem 2.2.5).

5.2. The Construction of the Statistics

Suppose that we have collected the i.i.d. $p$-dimensional sample $\{z_1, \cdots, z_n\}$. Denote by $P_n$ the empirical measure based on $\{z_1, \cdots, z_n\}$. For convenience $P_n f$ will stand for the expectation value $\int f dP_n$ for function $f$ on $\mathbb{R}^p$, and $I(C)$ will mean the indicator function of set $C$.

Consider PP-sample, $a^\tau z_1, \cdots, a^\tau z_n$, where $a \in S^{p-1}$. By making the use of Lemma 5.2, one can apply the following statistics for (5.2).

$$\tilde{W} = \{W_p(a, t, s) : (a, t, s) \in S^{p-1} \times \mathbb{R}^2\}$$

be a $L^2(P)$-norm continuous, centered Gaussian process with covariance
function
\[
R((a, t, s), (b, t_1, s_1)) = E\{\overline{W}_p(a, t, s) \overline{W}_p(b, t_1, s_1)\}
\]
\[
= PI(|x| \leq t)I(|x| \leq t_1)I(a^\tau x |x||^{-1} \leq s)I(b^\tau x |x||^{-1} \leq s_1)
\]
and sample paths being uniformly bounded, where \(H(\cdot)\) is the distribution of \(|x|\). Denote by \(B\) the Brownian bridge.

**Theorem 5.1.** Suppose that the distribution of \(|x|\) is continuous. Then under \(H_0\) in (5.2)
\[
(5.7) \quad \tilde{K}_n \rightarrow \tilde{K} = \sup_{b, t, s} |\overline{W}_p(b, t, s) - B(t)A(s)|,
\]
\[
(5.8) \quad \tilde{V}_n \rightarrow \tilde{V} = \iint (\overline{W}_p(b, t, s) - B(t)A(s))^2 dH(t) dA(s) d\mu(b).
\]

**5.4. Bootstrap Approximation**

According to those results presented in subsection 5.3, we see that the distributions and the asymptotic distributions of the statistics depend on the unknown distribution \(P\), which is the population distribution of sample, and are not tractable. Hence bootstrap approximations of the statistics are available for choosing critical values of the tests. Since we are here testing for the spherical symmetry of a distribution, a procedure for resampling data is suggested below. Let \(U_1, \cdots, U_n\) come from the uniform distribution on the unit sphere which can be generated by computer and \(y_i = |x_i| w_i\). Let \(G_n\) be the empirical distribution based on \(y_i\)'s and \(y_i^*\) come from \(G_n\) as the bootstrapping sample. Denote \(P_n^*\) empirical measure based on \(\{y_1^*, \cdots, y_n^*\}\). The bootstrap approximations of the proposed statistics are as follows.

\[
\tilde{K}_n^*(x_1, \cdots, x_n) = \sup_{a, t, s} \sqrt{n} |\tilde{K}_n^*(a, t, s, x_1, \cdots, x_n)|
\]
\[
\quad = \sup_{a, t, s} \sqrt{n} |P_n^* I(|y^*| \leq t)I(a^\tau y^* |y^*| \leq s) - G_n I(|y| \leq t) \cdot I(a^\tau U \leq s) - (P_n^* I(|y^*| \leq t)A(s) - G_n I(|y| \leq t)A(s))|.
\]

\[
\tilde{V}_n^*(x_1, \cdots, x_n) = n \iint (\tilde{K}_n^*(a, t, s, x_1, \cdots, x_n))^2 dG_n(t) dA(s) d\mu(a).
\]

In practical implementation, for each set of \(\{U_1, \cdots, U_n\}\) generated by computer, generate \(B\) groups of \(\{y_1^*, \cdots, y_n^*\}\). Calculate, respectively, \(B\) values of \(\tilde{K}_n^*\) and \(\tilde{V}_n^*\).
and then get the corresponding $(1 - \alpha)$-quantile values, $\tilde{K}_{\alpha}^*$ and $\tilde{V}_{\alpha}^*$ say. Repeat this procedure $c$ times to get $\{\tilde{K}_{\alpha 1}^*, \cdots, \tilde{K}_{\alpha c}^*\}$ and $\{\tilde{V}_{\alpha 1}^*, \cdots, \tilde{V}_{\alpha c}^*\}$. Finally, use the sample means $M\tilde{K}_{\alpha}^* = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{j=1}^{c} \tilde{K}_{\alpha j}^*$ and $M\tilde{V}_{\alpha}^* = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{j=1}^{c} \tilde{V}_{\alpha j}^*$ as the critical values. By making the use of result of Gine and Zinn (1990), we can easily derive the following result.

**Theorem 5.2.** Under the same conditions imposed in Theorem 5.1, $\tilde{K}_{n}^*(x_1, \cdots, x_n)$ and $\tilde{V}_{n}^*(x_1, \cdots, x_n)$ have, in the almost sure sense, the same asymptotic distributions as those of $\tilde{K}_{n}$ and $\tilde{V}_{n}$ respectively.

**5.5 Simulations**

Further insight into the applicability of four statistics, we conduct some simulations using the sample from 3-dimensional distributions. The samples are generated by Monte Carlo method. The $l_n$ points $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{a}_{l_n}\}$ on $S^2$ are chosen by Number-theoretic method. We here, choose the sample size $n = 100$ and $l_n = 21$. The simulation experiments are performed for the tests $\tilde{K}_n$ and $\tilde{V}_n$ concerning the hypothesis (5.2). The critical values of tests are obtained by the bootstrap approximation. For each case, 500 replications of bootstrap samples are independently generated for determining the critical values. Furthermore, the basic experiment was replicated 1000 times for each case. The proportion of the statistic values exceeded the 95th percentile of the bootstrap statistic values in all cases studied here were recorded.

Since computation is intensive, we here only conduct simulation experiments concerning 3-dimensional cases. It is expected that the proposed tests should be powerful for higher dimensions and for more alternatives.

The simulated results are listed in the tables below. The data sets are generated from the following different distributions, where

1. $N_l$: the standard normal distribution $N(0, I_{l})$.

2. $T_3$: the multivariate $t$-distribution in $R^3$ with the density function

$$c_3(1 + \frac{\mathbf{z}' \mathbf{z}}{10})^{-(10+3/2)}$$

where $c_3$ is the normalizing constant.

3. $E_{l}$: $l$–dimensional distribution with iid marginal distributions each having the standard exponential distribution.
4. $\chi^2_l$: $l$-dimensional distribution with iid marginal distributions each having the chi-square distribution with degrees two of freedom.

5. $U_3$: the uniform distribution on the 3-dimensional unit sphere surface.

6. $B_3$: the beta distribution with parameters 3 and 1 respectively.

Furthermore, $FG$ means that this distribution has two independent marginal distributions $F$ and $G$. For example, $\chi^2_2 B_1$ means that the distribution has the independent marginal distributions $\chi^2_2$ and $B_1$ respectively.

For the hypothesis (5.2), we consider that the location vectors $\mu$ and the shape matrices $A$ are known in the investigated distributions below. Hence we can make a transformation to get zero location and identical shape matrix. The simulation results are presented in the Table 5.1.

TABLE 5.1 Proportion of Rejecting the Null Hypothesis (5.2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>$N_3$</th>
<th>$T_3$</th>
<th>$U_3$</th>
<th>$\chi^2_2 B_1$</th>
<th>$\chi^2_3$</th>
<th>$E_3$</th>
<th>$B_3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$K_n$</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_n$</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In view of the tables, we can see that the proportion of rejecting the null are encouraging for the investigated cases here. On the other hand, the Cramer-von Mises type tests have the better power than the Kolmogorov type tests. On the other hand, in practical use, there is a problem how many projection directions are chosen. This deserves further study.

Acknowledgements

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References


