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AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF SOME EFFECTS OF NON-NORMALITY  
ON BARTLETT'S TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE IN  
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

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AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF SOME EFFECTS OF NON-NORMALITY  
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## ABSTRACT

The principal component method of factor analysis is a specific probabilistic procedure and permits the construction of tests of significance for testing whether or not factor loadings differ significantly from zero. In addition, the method permits one to test for the number of common factors for a set of random variables.

Thus, if  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ , are  $p$  random variables which can be expressed as linear combinations of  $q$ ,  $q < p$ , common factors and  $p$  error factors, then a principal component model representing these variables is

$$(I) \quad x_i = \left( \sum_j f_{ij} u_j \right) + s_i, \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, p; j = 1, 2, \dots, q).$$

The symbols  $f_{ij}$  represent factor loadings,  $u_j$  represent common factor scores, and  $s_i$  represent error scores or residuals.

The problem of determining the statistical significance of the factors associated with the correlation matrix of a set of random variables was solved by Bartlett in 1950. The test suggested by Bartlett involves a mathematical consideration of the eigenvalues of the characteristic equation of the correlation matrix.

Existing literature reveals that some methods of factor analysis, for example Lawley's method of maximum likelihood and Whittle's method of least squares, work well when the common factor scores are taken from populations that are not normal. Further, the literature indicates that while the chi square test of completeness associated with Lawley's method of maximum likelihood is insensitive to the population from which the common factor scores were taken, the corresponding chi square test of Bartlett, used in principal component analysis for testing when a component analysis is complete, has not been subjected to a satisfactory test of robustness.

The specific problem investigated in this study may be stated as follows: when the method of principal component analysis is used to estimate factor loadings, what are some effects on Bartlett's test of significance when the common factor scores are taken from a population whose distribution diverges from a normal population. The non-normal populations from which common factor scores were taken for the present study were: 1) the positive half of a normal distribution with zero mean and unit variance, 2) a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom, and 3) a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom.

Although the results of this study, based on computer generated number populations are necessarily limited, they do strongly indicate that when the method of principal analysis is used, Bartlett's test of significance is relatively insensitive to departure from normality of the distribution of the common factor scores for large numbers of observations.

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#### DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my wife, Sara Ann, who has been and will always be my inspiration.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM

Factor analysis has become the generic term for a variety of procedures developed to examine whether the joint variation of  $p$  observable random variables can be described approximately in terms of the joint variation of a fewer number, say  $q$ ,  $q \leq p$ , of hypothetical variables called (principal) common factors (Cooley and Lohnes, 1962, p. 151). The procedure to be used in this study is called principal component analysis. Regardless of the method of analysis of the observable random variables, one problem is encountered in the analysis. The problem is when to stop factoring. While there are tests to determine when to stop factoring, the tests usually assume that the observable random variables are measurements taken from populations whose distributions are normally distributed. Bartlett's test is used in principal component analysis to determine when to stop factoring. This study reports results of an investigation of several factor analyses of random

variables whose distributions are not normal.

### Background for the Study

Principal component analysis. The general factor analysis model, according to Hemmerle (1967, pp. 146-147), may be denoted by

$$(I) \quad X = u + Ff + Ss,$$

where  $X$ ,  $u$ , and  $s$  are column vectors with  $p$  components,  $f$  is a column vector with  $k$ ,  $k < p$ , components,  $F$  is a  $p \times k$  matrix of constants, and  $S$  is a  $p \times p$  matrix of constants. The components of  $f$  are called factors and the components of  $F$  are called factor loadings. The matrix  $X$  is a  $p$ -dimensional observable random variable so standardized that each of its components has unit variance and zero mean. The restrictions imposed on the model given in (I) are:

a) the vector  $s$  is distributed independently of the vector  $f$ , and both have multivariate normal distributions;

b)  $E(s) = E(f) = 0$ ; and

c) the individual components of the vector  $f$  and of the vector  $s$  are distributed independently of each other. That is,  $E(ss^t) = I_k$  and  $E(ff^t) = I_p$ , where  $I_k$  and  $I_p$  are  $k \times k$  and  $p \times p$  identity matrices, respectively. The symbols  $s^t$  and  $f^t$  denote the transpose of  $s$  and  $f$ , respectively.

A special case of the model given in (I) was developed by Hotelling in 1933. The method associated with the model, called principal component analysis, is described by Hemmerle (1967, pp. 140-141) in the following way: given a set of random variables

$x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ , with the purpose of determining a normalized linear combination,  $u_1 = \sum_i f_{i1} x_i$ , of these variables, where  $\sum_i f_{i1}^2 = 1$  and  $u_1$  has maximum variance; further determining a second normalized linear combination,  $u_2 = \sum_i f_{i2} x_i$ , of the variables, where  $\sum_i f_{i2}^2 = 1$  and  $u_2$  has maximum variance and is uncorrelated with the first,  $u_1$ , (i.e.  $\text{cov}(u_1, u_2) = 0$ ); still further determining a third normalized linear combination with maximum variance that is uncorrelated with the first two, and so on, it follows that if the  $f_{ij}$ 's can be determined, then the original set of variables can be reduced to a smaller set,  $u_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, q$ ,  $q \leq p$ , for further analysis. In the present study only those  $q$  normalized linear combinations with large variances were studied and related to the original data, the variables  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ , not being studied independently. The variables  $u_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, q$ , are called principal components,  $u_1$  is called the first principal component,  $u_2$  is called the second principal component, and so on up to the  $q$ th principal component  $u_q$ .

Chakravarti, Laha, and Roy (1967, p. 435) point out that if the principal components,  $u_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, q$ , are interpreted as the common factors of the variables  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ , then one can write

$$(II) \quad x_i = \sum_j f_{ij} u_j + s_i,$$

where the  $f_{ij}$ 's are factor loadings. This, however, is somewhat different from the model given in (I) in that the components of  $s$  are not in general mutually uncorrelated.

In the context of model (II), principal component analysis

is strictly a mathematical operation designed to accomplish a maximization of

(III)  $\text{var}_j = \sum_i f_{ij}^2$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, q$ ), under the conditions

(IV)  $r_{jk} = \sum_i f_{ji} f_{ki}$ ; ( $j, k = 1, 2, \dots, p$ ),

where  $r_{jk} = r_{kj}$  and  $r_{jj}$  is called the communality of  $x_j$ . The conditions in (IV) imply that the correlations between the variables  $x_j$  and  $x_k$  can be approximated in the manner described, where the correlation coefficient is  $r_{jk}$ . This method assumes that the residuals,  $s_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ , are zero.

The method of Lagrange multipliers is used to maximize the functions given in (III). Cooley and Lohnes (1962, p. 158) show that this method leads to a determination of the factor loadings in principal component analysis. The factor loadings are derived by considering the matrix equation

(V)  $(R - t_i I) v_i = \underline{0}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ ,

where  $I$  is an identity matrix,  $\underline{0}$  is a zero vector, and  $R$  is the correlation matrix of the variables  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ . There are  $p$  nontrivial solutions of (V) in terms of  $v_i$ , and each  $v_i$  has components that are the factor loadings for converting the  $p$  scores of the variables  $x_i$  to one of the new uncorrelated factor scores. The symbol  $t_i$  is a constant for each value of  $i$ .

If  $v_i = \underline{0}$ , then  $v_i$  is a trivial solution of (V). Cooley and Lohnes (1962, p. 158) state that the nontrivial solutions are found by considering the determinantal equation

(VI)  $/ R - tI / = 0$ ,

where  $|R - tI|$  denotes the determinant of the matrix  $R - tI$  and  $t$  is a constant. The determinantal equation given in (VI) is called the characteristic equation of  $R$ . For a given root of the characteristic equation of  $R$ , the corresponding vector  $v_i$  can be obtained by substituting  $t_i$ , the given root, in (V).

Cooley and Lohnes (1962, p. 159) state that when the vectors  $v_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, p$ , are normalized [i.e. if  $v_j^t = (v_{1j}, v_{2j}, \dots, v_{pj})$ , then  $\sum_i v_{ij}^2 = 1$ ], the variance of each set of factors is  $t_i$ . The vector  $v_i$  produces the factor scores of maximum variance, the variance being the value of the largest root  $t_i$ . When principal component analysis is used, the normalized vectors  $v_i$  can serve as the factor loadings, at least when numerical values of one have been placed along the diagonal of  $R$ .

Bartlett's test of significance. One major characteristic possessed by the principal component method of analysis not present in some of the other procedures in factor analysis is that it is a specific probabilistic procedure and permits the construction of tests of significance for testing whether or not factor loadings differ significantly from zero (Solomon, 1960, p. 312). The method also permits one to test for the number of factors common to a set of random variables.

The problem of determining the statistical significance of the factors associated with the correlation matrix was solved by Bartlett (1950) by considering the significance of the roots  $t_i$  associated with the characteristic equation of the correlation matrix. According to Bartlett (1950, pp. 77-78), the test of

significance can be described in the following way: let  $t_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ , be the  $p$  roots, in descending order, of the determinantal equation given in (VI). If  $r$  is the total number of observations of the random variables given in (II), let  $n = r - 1$ ,  $n$  being the total number of degrees of freedom associated with the original observations. Bartlett (1950, p. 78) states that the entire correlation structure can be tested for significance by calculating the quantity

$$(VII) \quad \chi^2 = - [n - (1/6)(2p + 5)] \log_e /R/,$$

with  $\frac{1}{2}p(p - 1)$  degrees of freedom. If, after the extraction of the largest roots of the characteristic equation of  $R$  corresponding to the first factors removed, it is required to test for the significance of the factors remaining, the test statistic given in (VII) takes the form

$$(VIII) \quad \chi^2 = - [n - (1/6)(2p + 5) - (2/3)k] \log_e R_{p-k}, \text{ with } \frac{1}{2}p'(p' - 1) \text{ degrees of freedom, after } k \text{ roots, } t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k, \text{ have been determined, where } p' = p - k \text{ and}$$

$$(IX) \quad R_{p-k} = /R/ \left/ \left\{ t_1 t_2 \dots t_k \left[ \frac{p - t_1 - t_2 - \dots - t_k}{p - k} \right] \right\}^{p-k} \right.$$

The test statistics given in (VII) and (VIII) will be referred to as Bartlett's test of significance.

Bartlett (1951, p. 1) warns that after one or more significant components have been eliminated it is safer to take as the number of degrees of freedom

$\frac{1}{2}(p - k - 1)(p - k + 2)$  instead of  $\frac{1}{2}(p - k)(p - k - 1)$  as given in

in (VIII) above. The new value for the number of degrees of freedom would increase the estimate given in (VIII) above.

An example of a principal component analysis involving four tests and twenty observations of each test score was presented by Thomson (1951, pp. 124-126). In the final analysis, the first and the third eigenvalues of the correlation matrix were found significant while the second one was not significant. The example is mentioned here to point out that Bartlett's test of significance is valid only if the roots already removed are significant. As soon as one encounters a non-significant factor, the later factors are also non-significant. The last factor encountered in a component analysis is not dealt with. Bartlett (1950, p. 80) states,

Merely the correlation structure of the variables is being investigated in its relation to variance. For this reason no significance can ever be attached to the last root, for it would be equivalent to asking for the correlation structure of a single variable.

#### Review of the Literature

Effects of non-normality. Cattell (1952, p. 80) says that the discussion of the significance of real factor variance left in a correlation matrix after extraction of so many factors may well terminate with the general question of significance for any single (rotated or unrotated) factor. However, all of the tests of significance, for this problem and the related problem of when to stop factoring, require the assumption that the scores on the variables are normally distributed, although no such assumption is made for the computation of Pearson's product moment  $r$  or



for the essential processes of factor analysis itself.

Ferguson (1966) comments on the effects of non-normality on the computation of the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient in a discussion of the assumptions underlying this statistic. He says,

In calculating the correlation coefficient it need not be assumed that the distribution of the two variables is normal. Correlations can be computed for rectangular and other types of distributions. If the two variables have different shapes, however, this circumstance will impose constraints upon the correlation coefficient.

An investigation of some effects of non-normality on a particular statistic may well commence with a question of the effects of non-normality on the component statistics involved in the computation of the statistic in question. The three basic statistics involved in principal component analysis are 1) Pearson's correlation coefficient, 2) mean, and 3) variance.

Norton (1952), in an empirical investigation of some effects of non-normality on F-distributions, found that unless the departure from normality is very extreme, the departure will probably have no appreciable effect on the validity of the F-test. Scheffe (1959, p. 337) shows that in making inferences about means, the effects of violation of the normality assumption are slight. He also shows that in making inferences about variances, the effects of violation of the normality assumption are dangerous. The findings reported by Scheffe were in agreement with those reported by Norton.

With reference to Lawley's method of maximum likelihood

for estimating factor loadings, Thomson (1951, p. 127) points out that it is assumed that both test scores and the factors, of which they are linear combinations, are normally distributed throughout the population of persons to be tested. He concludes, however, that although the assumption of normality has been a subject of some criticism, in practical situations it would seem that departure from strict normality is not serious.

Tests of significance. In factor analysis, there are two related problems regarding tests of significance, both of which assume a knowledge of confidence limits. The first problem is concerned with confidence limits for different loadings in a factor matrix used to determine whether or not a loading is significantly different from zero. The second problem is when to stop factoring (Henrysson, 1960, p. 137). Several methods have been suggested as approximate solutions for each one of these problems. However, the second problem was the one considered in this study.

Cattell (1952, pp. 296-304) and Thomson (1938, pp. 120-126) discuss some of the earlier methods of determining when to stop factoring. Mosier (1939) concluded that of the five plans he investigated, the "best" was to seek an indication that the standard deviations of residuals after the last factor was extracted had become less than the standard error of the mean correlation in the original correlation matrix. Even this method was found to be unsatisfactory in some respects.

Thurston (1938) describes a criterion developed by Ledyard Tucker for deciding when to stop factoring. In this method,

the sums of the absolute values of the resulting residuals, including the elements of the diagonal used just before and just after the extraction of a factor, must be less than  $(p - 1)/(p + 1)$ , where  $p$  is the number of tests or variables. Cattell (1952) points out that with this method it is possible to get false results, but that the empiricism of the test leads to some intuitive validity which makes it the most useful of the really quick tests.

Reyburn and Taylor (1939) introduced an alternate criterion to determine when to stop factoring. They advocated dividing the standard errors of each of the original correlation coefficients into the corresponding residual correlation coefficient. This was to be followed by plotting the distribution of these quotients and assuming that if the resulting distribution departs significantly from normality, more factors are still to be factored or extracted. A criticism of this method has been that one does not know how much departure from normality is required for significance.

Coombs (1941, pp. 267-277), assuming that the columns of a residual matrix are distributed according to the binomial distribution  $(a + b)^n/2^n$ , where  $a$  represents a positive entry in the residual matrix and  $b$  represents a negative entry in the residual matrix, suggests counting the number of negative signs left in the residual matrix after every attempt has been made to reduce the number of negative signs in the residual matrix. Cattell (1952) points out that this method of testing leads to the extraction of too few factors.

Holzinger and Harman (1941) mention a test due to Swine-

ford. Swineford suggests correlating the original correlation coefficients with the corresponding residual coefficients. If no significant relationship remains, then extraction is considered to be complete. Holzinger and Harman point out that not much research has been done on the effectiveness of this method.

A major criticism of the above methods is that not enough attention is given to the number of observations used in the analysis. McNemar (1942) developed such a criterion suggesting that one extract factors until the standard error of the residual correlation coefficients is less than  $1/\sqrt{N}$ , where  $N$  is the sample size. In McNemar's test the standard error of the residual correlation coefficients is  $\sigma_s/(1 - M_h)$ , where  $\sigma_s$  is the standard deviation of the residuals after  $s$  factors have been extracted and  $M_h$  is the mean communality for the  $s$  factors extracted.

Saunders' (1952) criterion for deciding when to stop factoring is developed from the same logical foundations as is the criterion proposed by McNemar. Saunders' method takes into account not only the number of observations, the reliabilities of the tests, and the number of variables, but also the number of factors extracted. Saunders' method has been applied to artificial data and has been found to give reasonably good results, but ones which are not always exact. Saunders also proposes a test of significance for any rotated or unrotated factor. This test, according to Saunders (1952), takes the form of a chi square test as follows:

$$(X) \quad \chi^2 = N(n - 1)/2n \left( \sum_{i=1}^k a_i^2 / u_i^2 \right)^2,$$

where  $a_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , are factor loadings,  $u_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ,

are measures of uniqueness,  $n$  is the number of variables, and  $N$  is the number of observations. The chi square variable above is assumed to have  $(n - k + 1)$  degrees of freedom, where  $k$  is the number of factors extracted.

Lawley (1940) introduced a criterion to be used for testing the significance of common factors when the method of maximum likelihood is used to estimate factor loadings. Harman (1960) commented on the statistic used by Lawley for factor analysis and the statistic used by Bartlett for principal component analysis. He says,

In making a comparison and distinction between component analysis and factor analysis, Bartlett (22, p. 81) notes that the total  $\chi^2$  corresponding to the significance of the unreduced correlation matrix is necessarily the same, and only because of the difference between factors extracted in the two analyses does the analysis of the total  $\chi^2$  into its respective components differ p. 382 .

Lawley's test of significance is fundamentally equivalent to the test given by Bartlett (1950), only Bartlett's test was given detailed consideration in this study.

There is no unique test of significance for deciding when to stop factoring. The procedure for determining when a factor analysis is complete depends upon the method of estimating factor loadings and the types of inferences to be drawn. Burt (1952) asserts that when principal component analysis is used to estimate the factor loadings, Bartlett's test is by far the best test of significance for deciding when a factor is significant. When the method of estimating factor loadings is that of maximum likelihood,

Lawley's method of maximum likelihood is the method to be employed to test the significance of factors (Henrysson, 1960, p. 137).

Whittle (1952) developed a method of estimating factor loadings using the method of least squares, and states that his method of estimating factor loadings is applicable even when the factor analytic model does not assume residuals and when the factor scores are not normally distributed (1952, pp. 223-225). Henrysson (1960, p. 138) has noted that this method leads to principal component solutions. The only requirement needed to estimate factor loadings using Whittle's method is that the factor scores, including the unique factor scores, are uncorrelated. If the researcher is sure that the factor scores are not normally distributed, Whittle's method may be the most reliable method of estimating factor loadings.

Experimental studies in factor analysis. From 1950 until 1960 there were several studies in factor analysis that began their analyses with a known factor structure. The observation scores used in these studies were usually taken from Wold (1948). These studies can be divided into two general groups: 1) studies in factor analysis concerned with the effectiveness of methods of estimating factor loadings and 2) studies in factor analysis concerned with some effects of violation of the normality assumption. The present study is one of the latter type.

Henrysson (1950, pp. 159-165) conducted an analysis of artificially constructed samples using Lawley's method of maximum likelihood. Henrysson's object was to see if Lawley's test of significance, formulated to be used with large samples, worked with

samples of 200 observations. Beginning with a known factor structure of nine variables with one common factor, Henrysson obtained results which were in good agreement with theory. From analyses of twelve samples, Henrysson concluded that all  $9 \times 9$  covariance matrices could be expressed in terms of one significant factor only, with nine specific factors. This conclusion accorded with the predetermined conditions in the artificially constructed samples.

Wold (1953, pp. 43-64) studied the effectiveness of Whittle's method of least squares for estimating factor loadings. The experiments conducted by Wold proceeded in two steps: 1) the construction of artificial samples in accordance with the theory developed by Whittle (1952) and 2) the estimation of the factor structure on the basis of the artificial samples constructed. Wold considered two general types of problems for analysis by the theory developed by Whittle. When the different variables have residuals of equal variances, Wold suggests an analysis of the covariance matrix. He asserts that the correlation matrix should be the object for analysis if the residual variances are proportional to the variances of the variables to be factor analyzed. The results of Wold's experiments, in which he attempted to estimate normalized loadings, supported Whittle's theory. In conclusion, Wold points out that the estimation procedure in factor analysis will not give valid results unless the sample size is so large (or the variances of the residuals so small) that the estimated eigenvalues or roots of the characteristic equation of the correlation matrix, correspond to the order of the true eigenvalues. Moreover, Wold supports his

his assertion by reporting an experiment that failed to give valid results because of this circumstance.

Wold (1953), using artificial samples, found that when the common factor scores were taken from the positive half of a normal distribution and when the residuals were based on independent random samples from a normal distribution, Whittle's method of least squares worked quite well and gave acceptable figures for loadings and for individual factor values. The findings of Wold helped to confirm the conjecture that Whittle's method is more general than either the model proposed by Lawley or the principal component model proposed by Hotelling in that Whittle's theory is distribution free and does not assume the normality assumption stated earlier in this study.

Lawley and Swanson (1954, pp. 75-79) investigated the effectiveness of the method of maximum likelihood for estimating factor loadings and the associated chi square test of significance in an investigation which was similar in design to that of Henrysson. They proceeded from an artificial construction of four hundred sets of observations, divided into sub-samples of fifty observations each. There were seven variables for analysis. This study was more general than the one by Henrysson in that two common factors, instead of one, were introduced into the known factor structure. Each one of the eight subsamples, except one, gave support that the known factor structure indeed had two common factors. In the one instance where support was not given, it was noticed that there was a significantly high correlation between two of the variables for



analysis in the residual matrix. On the whole, Lawley and Swanson concluded that the results obtained in their study were in reasonable agreement with the theory of estimating factor loadings by the method of maximum likelihood.

Lawley (1940) presented three methods of estimating factor loadings by the method of maximum likelihood. In a theoretical exposition by Anderson and Rubin (1956, pp. 130-145) it was shown that Lawley's method I works well even when the assumption of normality on the common factor scores is violated.

Fuller and Hemmerle (1966, pp. 225-266) investigated the robustness of the maximum likelihood estimation of the number of common factors necessary in factor analysis. In a comprehensive study based on two hundred observations, they found that the maximum likelihood method was insensitive to the common factors being non-normally distributed. Their investigation was similar to the study by Lawley and Swanson (1954) in that it was based on simulated populations. Starting with two common factors and five specific factors, Fuller and Hemmerle (1966) investigated the effectiveness of Lawley's estimate of the number of common factors by considering factor scores drawn from the following populations: Student's *t*-distribution, normal distribution, uniform distribution, and bimodal distribution. The method of analysis used in this study was Lawley's maximum likelihood method and the method of simulating populations was the method of Monte Carlo, wherein a game of chance technique is applied to solve certain problems. In the Monte Carlo method random sampling is applied to determine a solution to simulation

problems rather than solving the problem analytically or by another method (Martin, 1967, p. 31).

#### Need for the Study and Statement of the Problem

Advances in computer programming have facilitated estimation of factor loadings regardless of the method used for estimation, including principal component analysis which has become one of the popular methods for estimating factor loadings when using the computer.

Still, Burt (1952, p. 109) points out that a weakness inherent in most methods of factor analysis is the absence of any agreed upon procedure for testing significance of the factors discovered. A perusal of most standard textbooks and articles on factor analysis will reveal that tests of significance are either ignored or not considered in detail.

Since a researcher is not always in a position to test whether or not the population from which factor scores are taken is normally distributed, the implication of violating a normality requirement underlying a test of individual factor significance takes on considerable importance for factor analysts.

In regards to the extent that the normality assumption on the factor scores can be violated, Henrysson (1960, pp. 133-134) says,

... it has not yet been determined how strictly the requirement of normality must be satisfied in order for the test of significance to function satisfactorily. It should also be pointed out that the assumption of normality is necessary only for the test of significance but not for the principal component solution itself.

Harman (1960, pp. 382-383) states that while some latitude might be allowed, a variable which is known not to be normally distributed should not be included in a factor analysis. Further, he notes that in the mathematical development leading to the large sample chi square test of significance the variables are assumed to have multivariate normal distributions. Should the chi square test of significance not be sensitive to the type of population from which the factor scores are taken, then non-normal variables can be present without invalidating the test of significance.

While research has been conducted relative to the validity of some methods of testing factor significance, (for example, Whittle's method and Lawley's method of maximum likelihood) the same type of robustness research is needed for the method of principal component analysis and its associated test of significance.

The present study is designed to test the effectiveness of the method of principal component analysis and its associated test of significance when the common factor scores are not taken from normal distributions. Findings in the present study will add support or doubt to the effectiveness of this method of analysis. If no support is given in this area, then further questions can be raised about the effectiveness of Bartlett's test of significance when the common factor scores are not normally distributed.

The specific problem investigated in this study may be stated as follows: when the method of principal component analysis is used to estimate factor loadings, what are some effects on Bartlett's test of significance when the common factor scores are

taken from populations whose distributions diverge from normal populations? The null form of the hypotheses to be studied in this investigation are stated in Chapter II of this study, entitled method.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

#### Overview of the Methodology

In researching the question of the effects of non-normality on Bartlett's test for factor significance, twelve experiments were conducted in which the shapes of the artificially constructed number populations were systematically varied. Following this, samples from the respective populations, having known shapes and factor structures, were subjected to the principal component method of factor analysis. The results of these analyses were obtained using Bartlett's criterion, the null form of the experimental hypotheses being that Bartlett's test would yield results which did not differ significantly from the pre-determined factor structure of the number populations. A detailed statement of the procedure follows.

#### Description of the Experiment

Each experiment involved one hundred observations of each variable studied in the experiment. The twelve experiments were all carried out in essentially five major steps. The symbol  $N$  will be referred to in the rest of this study as the number of observations in each experiment and is equal to one hundred.

After obtaining one hundred observations of each variable to be studied in a given experiment, a correlation matrix was found for the variables. The dimensions of the correlation matrix was  $5 \times 5$ ,  $7 \times 7$ , or  $9 \times 9$  in case the number of variables were five, seven, or nine respectively. In addition to finding the correlation matrix, the means and standard deviations of the variables were also found. The correlation coefficients, means, and standard deviations were found by using subroutine Corre (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, pp. 32-33).

The second step in each experiment was to find the eigenvalues or latent roots and the corresponding eigen vectors of the correlation matrix. The method used to find the eigenvalues was the diagonalization procedure originated by Jacobi and adapted by Von Neumann for large computers (Ralston and Wilf, 1962, pp. 245-279; System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, pp. 164-166). This procedure is applicable only to symmetric matrices with real components. Since Bartlett's test of significance depends primarily on the eigenvalues in order to test for the significance of a factor, only eigenvalues were needed for the essential purposes of this study. However, additional information was obtained from the structure of the samples investigated in order to allow for a closer analysis of the theoretical structure of the variables and for future research.

Kaiser (1959) suggested that the number of common factors should be equal to the number of eigenvalues greater than one. He found this number to run from a sixth to a third of the total number

of variables. Kaiser stated that this was applicable only when the communalities of the variables were equal to one. Using the suggestion of Kaiser, only those eigenvalues were retained that were greater than one. These were selected using subroutine Trace (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 55). Trace was also used to find the cumulative percentage of eigenvalues greater than one. This terminated the third part of the experimentation.

The fourth step of each experiment involved finding the factor loadings. The loadings were found by multiplying the elements of each normalized eigen vector by the square root of the corresponding eigenvalue. The resulting loadings were elements of the unrotated factor matrix. This part of the computation was achieved by using subroutine Load (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 56).

The final major step of each experiment was to find the rotated factor matrix. The method used for rotation was the varimax method, originated by Kaiser (1959, pp. 413-420), and accomplished in this study by use of subroutine Varmx (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, pp. 56-57). If  $a_{ij}$  is used to denote the  $i$ th loading on the  $j$ th factor, then  $a_{ij}$  is normalized by dividing  $a_{ij}$  by the square root of the communality of the  $i$ th variable. Normalized loadings were obtained by this method. When the resulting structure consisted of  $p$  variables and  $q$  factors, an orthogonal rotation was performed on the  $p \times q$  factor matrix such that the variance of the squared normalized loadings was a maximum. That is,

such that

$$(I) \quad \sum_j \left\{ p \sum_i (a_{ij}^2 / h_i^2)^2 - \left[ \sum_i (a_{ij}^2 / h_i^2) \right]^2 \right\}$$

is a maximum. The symbol  $h_i$  in (I) above is the communality of the  $i$ th variable.

Following the above five steps the null hypotheses of each experiment were tested at the 0.01 level of significance.

#### Theoretical Description of the Number Populations

Suppose that  $z_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , and  $3$ , are independent normal random variables with zero means and unit variances and that  $e_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , are normal random variables with zero means and variances equal to one such that they are not mutually uncorrelated. Let the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , be defined in the following way:

$$x_{11} = 0.98489z_{11} + 0.17321e_{11}$$

$$x_{12} = 0.98995z_{12} + 0.14142e_{12}$$

$$x_{13} = 0.99499z_{13} + 0.10000e_{13}$$

$$x_{14} = 0.57446z_{11} + 0.50000z_{12} + 0.64031z_{13} + 0.10000e_{14}$$

$$x_{15} = 0.80000z_{11} + 0.43589z_{12} + 0.40000z_{13} + 0.10000e_{15}$$

$$x_{16} = 0.50000z_{11} + 0.60827z_{12} + 0.60000z_{13} + 0.14142e_{16}$$

$$x_{17} = 0.70000z_{11} + 0.60000z_{12} + 0.37417z_{13} + 0.10000e_{17}$$



$$x_{18} = 0.42426z_{11} + 0.90000z_{12} + 0.10000e_{18}$$

$$x_{19} = 0.59161z_{11} + 0.80000z_{13} + 0.10000e_{19}$$

Then the random variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , may be thought of as normally distributed variables depending on three common factors  $z_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , and 3, and upon residuals which are not mutually uncorrelated. Let the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , be defined in the following way:

$$x_{21} = x_{11}$$

$$x_{22} = x_{12}$$

$$x_{23} = 0.73485z_{11} + 0.67082z_{12} + 0.10000e_{14}$$

$$x_{24} = 0.65574z_{11} + 0.74162z_{12} + 0.14142e_{16}$$

$$x_{25} = 0.59161z_{11} - 0.80000z_{12} - 0.10000e_{17}$$

$$x_{26} = x_{18}$$

$$x_{27} = 0.74833z_{11} - 0.65574z_{12} + 0.10000e_{19}$$

Then the random variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , may be thought of as normally distributed random variables depending on the two common factors  $z_{11}$  and  $z_{12}$  and upon residuals which are not mutually uncorrelated. Let the random variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , be defined as follows:

$$x_{31} = 0.99499z_{11} + 0.10000e_{11}$$

$$x_{32} = 0.99499z_{11} + 0.10000e_{12}$$

$$x_{33} = 0.98489z_{11} + 0.17321e_{33}$$

$$x_{34} = 0.98995z_{11} + 0.14142e_{34}$$

$$x_{35} = -0.98995z_{11} + 0.14142e_{35}$$

Then the random variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , may be thought of as normally distributed random variables depending on one common factor  $z_{11}$  and upon residuals which are not mutually uncorrelated. The factor loadings for all of the above theoretical structures were chosen such that the communality of each variable was approximately one since this is a basic assumption for principal component analysis.

#### Construction of the Numerical Samples

Generation of uniform random variables on the unit interval. The populations described above were generated by the power residue method of generating uniform random numbers on the unit interval. Hamming (1962, pp. 384-388) states that this is the most commonly used method on a binary machine or computer and that the routine for generating uniform random numbers is as follows: Let  $y_0$  and  $t$  be given initially. If the machine is a  $k$ -digit binary machine, define recursively  $y_{n+1} \equiv ty_n$  (modulo the word length of the machine), where  $n$  ranges over the set of non-negative integers. The symbolic notation in number theory  $x \equiv a$  (modulo  $m$ ) means that the integer  $x - a$  is divisible by  $m$ . From this iteration process one multiplication per number was performed and the lower order digits of the product were taken as the next number in the

iteration. The consideration encountered in the construction of the samples in this phase of the study was what to choose for  $t$  and  $y_0$ . Hamming (1962, p. 385) shows that in order to take full advantage of the machine capacity and to assure a long period for the repeating sequence  $\{y_n\}$ ,  $y_0$  and  $t$  should be odd numbers and in addition  $y_0$  must be relatively prime to the word length of the machine. Subroutine Randu from (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 77) simulates uniform random numbers according to the above description. Using Subroutine Randu, the uniform random numbers were simulated for this study. It is suggested that the initial value of  $t$  should be of the form  $8p+3$ , where  $p$  is an integer. The value of  $t$  chosen for this study was 65539 (IBM Data Processing Techniques, 1959, p. 5).

The calculation of uniform random numbers is done by fixed point integer arithmetic, and division by the word length of the computer, retaining only the remainder, is implied by the (modulo the word length of the computer) reduction. In order to convert the retained remainder to a point on the unit interval an additional division by the word length of the computer is required. The modulus for the present study was chosen to be the word size of the computer for two reasons: reduction mod  $m$ , where  $m$  is the word size of the computer, involves only keeping the lower order bits and conversion to the unit interval involves merely assigning the binary point to the left of the number; therefore both divisions are avoided.

Generation of other random variables. A version of the central limit theorem asserts that the sum of identically distributed independent random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$ , is approximately distributed as a normal distribution with expectation  $kE(X_i)$  and variance  $kV(X_i)$ , where  $E(X_i)$  and  $V(X_i)$  denote the expectation and variance respectively of either of the random variables  $X_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$  (Lehman and Bailey, 1968, pp. 226-229). Lehman and Bailey also point out that by the central limit theorem, if  $Y$  is a random variable with expectation  $m$  and variance  $s$ , then the random variable  $Z = (Y - m) / \sqrt{s}$  is approximately normally distributed with expectation equal to zero and variance equal to one.

Populations having distributions with zero means and unit variances were constructed in the following way: since a uniformly distributed random variable on the unit interval has expectation equal to 0.5 and variance equal to  $1/12$ , if  $Y$  is the sum of  $k$  identically distributed independent uniform random variables on the unit interval, then the expectation of  $Y$  is  $0.5k$  and the variance of  $Y$  is  $k/12$ . Therefore, the random variable  $Z = (Y - 0.5k) / \sqrt{k/12}$  is approximately normally distributed with  $E(Z) = 0$  and  $V(Z) = 1.0$ . Elements from the population of the random variable  $Z$  were generated by first generating  $k$  uniformly distributed random variables on the unit interval as described above. According to Lehman and Bailey (1968, p. 227)  $k = 12$  is large enough for a good approximation to the normally distributed random variable  $Z$ . However, in the investigation considered here, Subroutine Gauss was refined with  $k = 48$  for a better approximation

of elements from the population of  $Z$ . Subroutine Gauss is a computer subroutine that generates normally distributed random numbers according to the procedure described above with  $k = 12$ . In the case where  $k = 48$ , then  $Z = 0.5(Y - 0.5k) = \frac{1}{2}(Y - 24)$ .

In order to generate random numbers from the population  $N(p,0,1)$ , a random variable distributed as the population of  $N(0,1)$  was generated first. From the population  $N(0,1)$  samples were selected according to the rule that for each element from the population of  $N(0,1)$  the absolute value of this element was taken to be a member of the population of  $N(p,0,1)$ .

Wold (1953, pp. 43-44) points out that the population  $N(p,0,1)$  obtained from  $N(0,1)$  has mean equal to  $\sqrt{2/\pi} = 0.798$  and standard deviation equal to  $\sqrt{(\pi - 2)/\pi} = 0.603$ . In order to convert the population  $N(p,0,1)$  to a population with zero mean and unit variance, each member of  $N(p,0,1)$  was multiplied by  $1/0.603$ . This gave rise to a population with unit variance and mean equal to  $1.3234$ . Then each member of the derived population was decreased by  $1.3234$ . This did not change the variance but it gave rise to a population with zero mean. The final population would be considered to diverge from normality because the population is not symmetrical. Although the standardized population obtained here is no longer distributed as  $N(p,0,1)$ , the same terminology will be used to designate this distribution.

Two other types of populations of random numbers were simulated for this study. One type of random numbers were taken from a population approximately distributed as chi square random

variable with three degrees of freedom and the other population was approximately distributed as t-distribution with five degrees of freedom. These populations were generated to investigate whether Bartlett's test was sensitive to skewness and the kurtosis of a distribution that is not normal. A chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom is considerably skewed and a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom has kurtosis greater than zero. These distributions were then considered to diverge from a normal distribution since the kurtosis for a normal distribution is zero and a normal distribution is not skewed.

In general if  $Z_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , are  $k$  samples of random numbers with unit standard normal distributions, then  $X = \sum_{i=1}^k Z_i^2$  is distributed as a chi square random variable with  $k$  degrees of freedom. A random variable distributed as a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom was generated by first simulating three unit standard normal random variables by the method described for generating a population distributed normally with zero mean and unit variance. Taking the sum of the squares of these unit standard normal random variables gave a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom.

The first three moments of a chi square distribution with  $k$  degrees of freedom are  $k$ ,  $2k$ , and  $8k$  (Kendall and Stuart, 1958, p. 370). If the  $r$ th moment of a distribution is denoted by  $u_r$ , then the first three moments of a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom are three, six, and twenty four, and the measure of skewness  $sk = \sqrt{u_3^2 / u_2^3}$  is then approximately 1.633.

After the chi square distribution was generated, the numbers were then scaled so that the variance of the skewed population was unity and its mean was zero. The variance of a chi square distribution is not changed if each chi square value is increased by the same constant value or decreased by the same constant value. Each chi square value was multiplied by  $C = 1/\sqrt{6}$ , yielding a population with mean equal to  $3/\sqrt{6}$  and variance equal to one. The constant  $A = -3/\sqrt{6}$  was then added to each chi square value, yielding a skewed population with zero mean and unit variance. The skewness  $sk$  remains invariant under a multiplicative or additive transformation, so  $sk$  is still approximately 1.633. Although the standardized distribution obtained here is no longer distributed as a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom, the same terminology will be used to designate this distribution.

Lehman and Bailey (1968, p. 228) state that if  $Z$  is a unit standard normal random variable and  $X_n$  is a chi square variable with  $n$  degrees of freedom, then the random variable  $T = Z/\sqrt{(X_n/n)}$  is distributed approximately as a  $t$ -distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom. Kendall and Stuart (1958, p. 375) point out that the moments  $u_r$  of a  $t$ -distribution are known only for  $r < n$ . In order to be able to determine the kurtosis of the distribution, a  $t$ -distribution with five degrees of freedom was considered for investigation. The distribution was generated by generating a chi square distribution with five degrees of freedom by the procedure described above and also by generating a unit standard normal

distribution. Taking the quotient of the unit standard normal random variable with the square root of the chi square variable with five degrees of freedom divided by its number of degrees of freedom gave a distribution distributed approximately as a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom.

The moments  $u_r$  of a t-distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom exist only when  $r < n$ , and are zero when  $r$  is odd and

$$(II) \quad u_{2r} = n^r \frac{\int_0^{\infty} (r + \frac{1}{2}) \int_0^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2}n - r)}{\int_0^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2}) \int_0^{\infty} (\frac{1}{2}n)}$$

$r$  is a positive integer. The kurtosis measure  $ku = (u_4/u_2^2) - 3$  is then 6.0. The distribution is then leptokurtic since  $ku > 3$ . Scheffe (1959, pp. 331-334) points out that the skewness and the kurtosis of a population remain invariant under a multiplicative or an additive transformation.

After the t-distribution was generated, the numbers were then scaled so that the variance of the leptokurtic population was unity and its mean was zero. Each value of the distribution was multiplied by  $C = \sqrt{3/5}$ , yielding a population with zero mean and unit variance. The kurtosis was unchanged and therefore remained 6.0. Although the standardized distribution obtained here is no longer distributed as a chi distribution with five degrees of freedom, the same terminology will be used to designate this distribution.

In order to generate the random variables  $e_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , which are not mutually uncorrelated, a method used by



Fieller, Lewis, and Pearson (1955, pp. vii - viii) was used. The method used may be described briefly in the following way: if in a finite sample of the random variable  $e_{1i}$  which is a unit standard normal random variable, one denotes the  $j$ th member of the sample by  $e_{1i}^j$ , let  $x_{0j}$  denote the  $j$ th member of a sample taken from the population of a unit standard normal random variable, and let  $z_{ij}$  denote the  $j$ th member of the  $i$ th random rearrangement of the set of  $x_{0j}$ 's, then the  $j$ th member  $e_{1i}^j$  may be defined as

$$(II) \quad e_{1i}^j = r_i x_{0j} + \sqrt{1 - r_i^2} z_{ij}.$$

Fieller, Lewis, and Pearson (1955, p. xii) state that the pair of generated values given by the sample values  $e_{1t}^j$  and  $e_{1s}^j$  can be regarded as being taken from a bivariate normal distribution with correlation  $r_t r_s$ .

A refinement of subroutine Gauss was used to generate a sample of the random variables  $e_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ . This was achieved by generating a unit standard normal random variable and from this population a sample was taken representing the  $x_{0j}$  scores. A random rearrangement of this sample was obtained using random permutations taken from Moses and Oakford (1963, pp. 93-120). There was nine rearrangements of the set of  $x_{0j}$ 's generated. Using the set of  $x_{0j}$ 's and the sets of rearrangements of these values, (III) of this chapter was used to generate the random variables  $e_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ .

The two essential requirements for generating random numbers for the above populations were met by using the power residue

method. These requirements are that first, the values of a uniformly distributed random variable distributed on the unit interval be uniformly distributed over the interval regardless of the number of values computed; and secondly, that successive values of the random variable be independent. It is pointed out in (IBM Data Processing Techniques, Random Number Generation and Testing, 1959, p. 7) that the above requirements are met by the power residue method of generating random numbers.

A factor analysis usually commences with the covariance matrix of the underlying variables. With the scaling described above all factor scores were taken from populations having zero means and unit variances. In this case the covariance matrix and the correlation matrix of the underlying variables are equal and the correlation matrix is the appropriate matrix for analysis.

#### Statistical Tests and Null Hypotheses

Chakravarti, Laha, and Roy (1967, p. 436) give a formulation of the hypothesis usually tested in principal component analysis by Bartlett's test of significance. The hypothesis may be stated as follows: if  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_p$ , are all of the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of a  $p$ -variate normal population such that  $t_1 \geq t_2 \geq \dots \geq t_p$ , then it is not necessary to extract more than  $k$  factors if  $t_k > t_{k+1}$  but  $t_{k+1} = t_{k+2} = \dots = t_p$ . Several formulations of this hypothesis were tested with the populations described earlier. One should note that equality of the latter  $p - k$  eigenvalues means that the eigenvalues are equal in magnitude.

Experiment I. In experiment I the factor scores were taken from a population that was normally distributed with zero mean and unit variance. The variables that were factor analyzed were  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ . After finding the eigenvalues for the correlation matrix of these variables, Bartlett's test of significance was applied to test the following null hypotheses:

$H_0 - 1N$ . The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_0 - 2N$ . The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have two common factors.

$H_0 - 3N$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have three common factors.

Experiment II. In experiment II the factor scores were taken from a population that was distributed as the upper half of a unit standard normal population. The variables analyzed were the same as in experiment I. Bartlett's test was used to test the following null hypotheses:

$H_0 - 1N_p$ . The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_0 - 2N_p$ . The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have two common factors.

$H_0 - 3N_p$ . The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have three common factors.

Experiment III. In experiment III the population from which the common factor scores were taken was distributed approximately as a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom.

A factor analysis was performed on the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , and Bartlett's test was used to test the following null hypotheses:

$H_{01}$  - 1Cs. The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_{01}$  - 2Cs. The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have two common factors.

$H_{01}$  - 3Cs. The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have three common factors.

Experiment IV. Experiment IV was a factor analysis of the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a population that was distributed approximately as a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom. The following null hypotheses were tested with Bartlett's test:

$H_{01}$  - 1T. The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_{01}$  - 2T. The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have two common factors.

$H_{01}$  - 3T. The variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , do not have three common factors.

Experiment V. In experiment V an investigation was begun of the random variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ . A factor analysis was made of these variables, where the common factor scores were taken from a population that was approximately distributed as a normal distribution with zero mean and unit variance. The following null hypotheses were tested using Bartlett's test:

$H_{02} - 1N$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_{02} - 2N$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have two common factors.

Experiment VI. Experiment VI was a factor analysis of the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a population that was distributed approximately as the positive half of a unit standard normal population. Bartlett's test of significance was applied to test the following null hypotheses:

$H_{02} - 1Np$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_{02} - 2Np$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have two common factors.

Experiment VII. An investigation was made in experiment VII of the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a population that was distributed as a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom. The null hypotheses tested in experiment VII were as follows:

$H_{02} - 1Cs$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_{02} - 2Cs$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have two common factors.

Experiment VIII. The final investigation of the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , was carried out in experiment VIII. In this experiment the variables were considered to have factor scores

taken from a population that was distributed approximately as a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom. The following null hypotheses were tested:

$H_{02} - 1T$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have one common factor.

$H_{02} - 2T$ . The variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have two common factors.

Experiment IX. Experiment IX was a factor analysis of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a unit standard normal population. The following null hypothesis was tested:

$H_{03} - 1N$ . The variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not have one common factor.

Experiment X. Experiment X was a factor analysis of the random variables considered in experiment IX, where the common factor scores were taken from a population that was approximately distributed as the positive half of a normal distribution with zero mean and unit variance. The following null hypothesis was tested:

$H_{03} - 1Np$ . The variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not have one common factor.

Experiment XI. An investigation was made in experiment XI of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a population that was distributed approximately as a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis tested in this experiment was:

$H_{03} - 1Cs$ . The variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not

have one common factor.

Experiment XII. The final experiment of the present study was a factor analysis of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a population that was distributed approximately as a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom. The following null hypothesis was tested using Bartlett's test of significance:

$H_{03}$  - 1T. The variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not have one common factor.

The twenty four null hypotheses listed above were tested at the 0.01 level of significance. In the cases where a factor was found not to be significant in a given experiment, no comment was made for any factor extracted after the insignificant factor.

## CHAPTER III

### RESULTS

For each of the null hypotheses tested in which the Bartlett's chi square test was used, a two-tailed test was used. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi square value was taken to be as Bartlett suggested, that is,  $\frac{1}{2}(p - k - 1)(p - k + 1)$ , where  $p$  is the number of variables and  $k$  is the number of factors that have been extracted (1951, p. 1). The criterion value for all of the tables involving the chi square test of Bartlett was set at the 0.01 level of significance. The chi square values used most often in this study are given in Table 1 for reference. Therefore, a null hypothesis was rejected when the chi square test resulted in a value greater than the value given in Table 1, which shows critical chi square values for the 0.01 level with the appropriate degrees of freedom, i.e.,  $p$  (probability of chance occurrence) less than 0.01.

The critical values in Table 1 were taken from Owen (1962, p. 51). In the majority of the cases reported in this study, significance was obtained when the number of degrees of freedom was taken from Bartlett (1950, p. 78) or Bartlett (1951, p. 1).

Table 26 and Table 27, found at the end of this chapter, contain the means and standard deviations respectively for experiments



Table 1  
Chi-Square Values for the 0.01 Level of Significance\*

D.F.	Chi-square value
5	16.750
9	23.589
10	25.188
14	31.319
20	39.997
21	41.401
27	49.645
35	60.275
36	61.581

\*Chi-Square values given above are for a two-tailed test

I - XII. In Table 28, also found at the end of this chapter, are found the eigenvalues for the correlation matrices for the variables investigated in experiments I - XII.

### Experiment I

In experiment I a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $N(0,1)$ . The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be approximately zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix for these variables is given in Table 2.

In null hypothesis  $H_0-1N$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a normal population, do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 3 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected at the 0.01 level of significance. This conclusion is in agreement with what is known to be theoretically true.

In null hypothesis  $H_0-2N$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a normal population, do not have two common factors, Table 3, with  $k = 1$ , shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. The conclusion was to reject this null hypothesis. This is in agreement with the theoretical structure of the variables investigated in experiment I.

With  $k = 2$  the null hypothesis  $H_0-3N$  was tested. The null hypothesis states that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a normal population, do not have three common factors.

Table 2

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment I

1.0000	-0.0474	0.0118	0.6108	0.8310	0.5555	0.7149	0.3943	0.6178
	1.0000	-0.1620	0.3725	0.3135	0.5159	0.5183	0.8852	-0.1826
		1.0000	0.5892	0.3461	0.5232	0.3004	-0.1364	0.7801
			1.0000	0.9326	0.9753	0.9386	0.6249	0.8295
				1.0000	0.9104	0.9653	0.6646	0.7764
					1.0000	0.9501	0.7238	0.7347
						1.0000	0.8039	0.6661
							1.0000	0.1199
								1.0000

Table 3

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment I

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	36	-(95.1659)	-(25.4611)	2423.0317	$< 0.01$
1	35	-(94.4992)	-(19.8333)	1874.2319	$< 0.01$
2	27	-(93.8325)	-(14.9970)	1407.2026	$< 0.01$
3	20	-(93.1658)	-( 0.6180)	57.5798	$< 0.01$
4	14	-(92.4991)	-( 0.1388)	12.8420	$> 0.01$

Table 3 shows a chi square value that is significant at the 0.01 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. This was in agreement with what was known to be theoretically true.

### Experiment II

A principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $N(p, 0, 1)$ . The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 4.

The null hypothesis  $H_0 - 1Np$  states that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a population distributed as the positive half of a normal population with zero mean and unit variance, do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 5 shows a chi square value that is in the rejection region. Therefore,

Table 4

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment II

1.0000	-0.0380	0.2223	0.6631	0.8342	0.6014	0.7385	0.3966	0.7001
	1.0000	-0.0956	0.4144	0.3526	0.5401	0.5299	0.8892	-0.1088
		1.0000	0.6739	0.5080	0.6197	0.4422	0.0097	0.8403
			1.0000	0.9535	0.9795	0.9531	0.6765	0.8474
				1.0000	0.9301	0.9733	0.6932	0.8206
					1.0000	0.9565	0.7571	0.7669
						1.0000	0.8166	9.7197
							1.0000	0.2139
								1.0000

Table 5

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment II

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	36	-(95.1659)	-(26.5169)	2523.5049	$< 0.01$
1	35	-(94.4992)	-(20.0851)	1898.0254	$< 0.01$
2	37	-(93.8325)	-(14.7142)	1380.6702	$< 0.01$
3	20	-(93.1658)	-( 0.7574)	70.5596	$< 0.01$
4	14	-(92.4991)	-( 0.1470)	13.5981	$> 0.01$

the null hypothesis was rejected.

In null hypothesis  $H_0-2Np$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a population distributed as the positive half of a unit standard normal population, do not have two common factors. Table 5 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. The null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.01 level of significance.

### Experiment III

In experiment III a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom (a non-symmetric and skewed population). The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be approximately zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of the variables is given in Table 6.

Table 6

## Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment III

1.0000	0.0304	-0.1678	0.4769	0.7661	0.4260	0.6609	0.4382	0.5071
	1.0000	0.1000	0.6004	0.4982	0.6962	0.6580	0.9000	0.0851
		1.0000	0.6005	0.3174	0.5672	0.3050	-0.0007	0.7506
			1.0000	0.9188	0.9816	0.9366	0.7300	0.8337
				1.0000	0.8950	0.9733	0.7624	0.7793
					1.0000	0.9354	0.7883	0.7619
						1.0000	0.8648	0.6972
							1.0000	0.2775
								1.0000

The null hypothesis  $H_{01}$ -1Cs states that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom, do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 7 shows a chi square value that is statistically

Table 7

## Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment III

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	36	-(95.1659)	-(26.3122)	2504.0278	$< 0.01$
1	35	-(94.4992)	-(19.5044)	1843.1553	$< 0.01$
2	27	-(93.8325)	-(15.7694)	1479.6812	$< 0.01$
3	20	-(93.1658)	-( 0.8843)	82.3863	$< 0.01$
4	14	-(92.4991)	-( 0.1200)	11.0988	$> 0.01$

significant at the 0.01 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

In null hypothesis  $H_{01}$ -3Cs it is stated that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom, do not have three common factors. With  $k = 2$ , Table 7 shows a chi square value that is significant at the 0.01 level of significance. The conclusion was to reject the null hypothesis.

## Experiment IV

A principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , where the common factor scores were taken



from  $t_{(5)}$ , a leptokurtic population. The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be approximately equal to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 8.

The null hypothesis  $H_{01}^{-1T}$  states that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a  $t$ -distribution with five degrees of freedom, do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 9 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. The conclusion was to reject the null hypothesis at the 0.01 level of significance.

The null hypothesis  $H_{01}^{-2T}$  states that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a  $t$ -distribution with five degrees of freedom, do not have two common factors. With  $k = 1$ , Table 9 shows a chi square value that is large enough to reject this null hypothesis at the 0.01 level of significance.

In null hypothesis  $H_{01}^{-3T}$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{1i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , based on a  $t$ -distribution with five degrees of freedom, do not have three common factors. With  $k = 2$ , Table 9 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.01 level of significance.

#### Experiment V

In experiment V a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $N(0,1)$ . The means and standard deviations

Table 8

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment IV

1.0000	-0.0973	-0.1130	0.6358	0.8531	0.5642	0.7775	0.5109	0.6866
	1.0000	0.0741	0.4207	0.2928	0.5571	0.4360	0.7915	-0.0449
		1.0000	0.5287	0.2556	0.5045	0.2646	-0.0022	0.6302
			1.0000	0.9338	0.9776	0.9511	0.7517	0.8731
				1.0000	0.9009	0.9821	0.7699	0.8438
					1.0000	0.9401	0.8181	0.7910
						1.0000	0.8501	0.7902
							1.0000	0.3828
								1.0000

Table 9

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment IV

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	36	-(95.1659)	-(26.0958)	2483.4280	< 0.01
1	35	-(94.4992)	-(20.6911)	1955.2966	< 0.01
2	27	-(93.8325)	-(16.3806)	1537.0281	< 0.01
3	20	-(93.1658)	-( 0.6713)	62.5467	< 0.01
4	14	-(92.4991)	-( 0.1294)	11.9702	> 0.01

of these variables were found to be approximately equal to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 10.

Table 10

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment V

1.0000	-0.0474	0.7345	0.6689	0.6298	0.3943	0.7677
	1.0000	0.6180	0.6977	-0.7950	0.8852	-0.6669
		1.0000	0.9839	-0.0331	0.9000	0.1518
			1.0000	-0.1374	0.9365	0.0519
				1.0000	-0.4435	0.9734
					1.0000	-0.2687
						1.0000

In null hypothesis  $H_{02}$  -1N it is stated that the variables

$x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , based on a unit standard normal population, do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 11 shows a chi

Table 11

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment V

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	21	-(95.8327)	-(20.8619)	1999.2527	$< 0.01$
1	20	-(95.1660)	-(18.2134)	1733.2939	$< 0.01$
2	14	-(94.4993)	-( 0.4577)	43.2537	$< 0.01$
3	9	-(93.8326)	-( 0.0905)	8.4925	$> 0.01$

square value that is statistically significant. The conclusion was to reject this null hypothesis at the 0.01 level of significance.

In null hypothesis  $H_{02}$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , based on a unit standard normal population, do not have two common factors. With  $k = 1$ , Table 11 shows a chi square value that is in the rejection region. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Experiment VI

In experiment VI a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $N(p, 0, 1)$ . The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be approximately equal to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 12.

Table 12

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment VI

1.0000	-0.0380	0.7138	0.6454	0.6069	0.3966	0.7570
	1.0000	-0.6496	0.7266	-0.8066	0.8892	-0.6719
		1.0000	0.9840	-0.0928	0.9142	0.1058
			1.0000	-0.1970	0.9472	0.0042
				1.0000	-0.4673	0.9707
					1.0000	-0.2816
						1.0000

In null hypothesis  $H_{02}$ -LNP it is stated that the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , based on a population distributed as the positive half of a unit standard normal population, do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 13 shows a chi square

Table 13

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment VI

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	21	-(95.8327)	-(20.9959)	1999.2527	$< 0.01$
1	20	-(95.1660)	-(18.1941)	1731.4600	$< 0.01$
2	14	-(94.4993)	-( 0.4519)	42.7062	$< 0.01$
3	9	-(93.8326)	-( 0.0731)	6.8580	$> 0.01$

value that is statistically significant. The null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.01 level of significance.

In null hypothesis  $H_{02} - 2Np$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , based on a population distributed as the positive half of a unit standard normal population, do not have two common factors. With  $k = 1$ , the chi square value found in Table 13 is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.01 level of significance.

#### Experiment VII

In experiment VII a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom. The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be equal approximately to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 14.

Table 14

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment VII

1.0000	0.0304	0.7291	0.6718	0.5523	0.4382	0.7306
	1.0000	0.6848	0.7500	-0.8060	0.9000	-0.6507
		1.0000	0.9861	-0.1380	0.9238	0.0882
			1.0000	-0.2288	0.9511	-0.0009
				1.0000	-0.4864	0.9648
					1.0000	-0.2762
						1.0000

In null hypothesis  $H_{02}$ -1Cs it is stated that the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , based on a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom, do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 15 shows a chi square value that is statistically

Table 15

## Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment VII

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e (R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	21	-(95.8327)	-(20.0838)	1924.6816	$< 0.01$
1	20	-(95.1660)	-(16.7294)	1592.0728	$< 0.01$
2	14	-(94.4993)	-( 0.4996)	47.2119	$< 0.01$
3	9	-(93.8326)	-( 0.0565)	5.3007	$> 0.01$

significant at the 0.01 level of significance. The conclusion was to reject the null hypothesis.

In null hypothesis  $H_{02}$ -2Cs it is stated that the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have two common factors. Table 15, with  $k = 1$ , shows a chi square value that is statistically significant at the 0.01 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.01 level of significance.

## Experiment VIII

A principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $t_{(5)}$ , a leptokurtic distribution. The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be approximately equal

to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of the variables is given in Table 16.

Table 16

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment VIII

1.0000	-0.0973	0.8204	0.7572	0.7275	0.5109	0.8462
	1.0000	0.4660	0.5642	-0.7433	0.7915	-0.6039
		1.0000	0.9847	0.2309	0.8994	0.4080
			1.0000	0.1189	0.9388	0.3047
				1.0000	-0.1972	0.9747
					1.0000	-0.0098
						1.0000

In null hypothesis  $H_{02}$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , the chi square value in Table 17 is large enough to support the

Table 17

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment VIII

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	21	-(95.8327)	-(21.3959)	2050.4241	$< 0.01$
1	20	-(95.1660)	-(18.3177)	1743.2178	$< 0.01$
2	14	-(94.4993)	-( 0.4887)	46.1862	$< 0.01$
3	9	-(93.8326)	-( 0.0684)	6.4187	$> 0.01$



conclusion to reject this null hypothesis at the 0.01 level of significance.

In null hypothesis  $H_{02}-2T$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{2i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$ , do not have two common factors. With  $k = 1$ , Table 17 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.01 level of significance.

### Experiment IX

In experiment IX a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $N(0,1)$ . The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be approximately equal to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 18.

Table 18

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment IX

1.0000	-0.9872	0.9901	0.9905	-0.9813
	1.0000	-0.9785	-0.9841	0.9937
		1.0000	0.9819	-0.9697
			1.0000	-0.9788
				1.0000

In null hypothesis  $H_{03}-1N$  it is stated that the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ ,

Table 19 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant

Table 19

## Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment IX

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e (R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	10	-(96.4995)	-(16.0649)	1550.2512	< 0.01

at the 0.01 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

## Experiment X

In experiment X a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $N(p, 0, 1)$ . The means and standard deviations were found to be approximately equal to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 20.

Table 20

## Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment X

1.0000	-0.9871	0.9912	0.9905	-0.9812
	1.0000	-0.9802	-0.9841	0.9937
		1.0000	0.9832	-0.9716
			1.0000	-0.9788
				1.0000

In null hypothesis  $H_{03}$ -1NP it is stated that the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 21 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected at the 0.01 level of significance.

Table 21

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment X

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	10	-(96.4995)	-(16.1886)	1562.1899	$< 0.01$

#### Experiment XI

A principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , where the common factor scores were taken from a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom. The means and standard deviations of these variables were found to be equal approximately to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 22.

The null hypothesis  $H_{03}$ -1Cs states that the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not have one common factor. With  $k = 0$ , Table 23 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. Therefore, the conclusion was to reject the null hypothesis at the 0.01 level of significance.

Table 22

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment XI

1.0000	-0.9870	0.9902	0.9902	-0.9808
	1.0000	-0.9785	-0.9837	0.9937
		1.0000	0.9819	-0.9697
			1.0000	-0.9780
				1.0000

Table 23

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment XI

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e (R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	10	-(96.4995)	-(14.7069)	1419.2073	$< 0.01$

## Experiment XII

In experiment XII a principal component analysis was made of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , where the common factor scores were taken from  $t_{(5)}$ . The means and standard deviations of the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , were found to be approximately equal to zero and one respectively. The upper triangular portion of the correlation matrix of these variables is given in Table 24.

In null hypothesis  $H_{03}$ -1T it is stated that the variables  $x_{3i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ , do not have one common factor. With

Table 24

Correlation Matrix for the Variables in Experiment XII

1.0000	-0.9922	0.9938	0.9940	-0.9885
	1.0000	-0.9867	-0.9903	0.9962
		1.0000	0.9887	-0.9812
			1.0000	-0.9869
				1.0000

$k = 0$ , Table 25 shows a chi square value that is statistically significant. Therefore, the conclusion was to reject this null hypothesis at the 0.01 level of significance.

Table 25

Chi Square Analysis of Common Factors in Experiment XII

k	D.F.	Coef(k)	$\log_e(R_{p-k})$	Chi Square	p
0	10	-(96.4995)	-(15.8255)	1527.1533	$< 0.01$

Table 26  
Means for the Variables in Experiments I-XII

Experiment	Means								
	X <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	X <sub>4</sub>	X <sub>5</sub>	X <sub>6</sub>	X <sub>7</sub>	X <sub>8</sub>	X <sub>9</sub>
1	-0.0904	-0.0601	-0.1177	-0.1514	-0.1399	-0.1486	-0.1371	-0.0855	-0.1450
2	0.0186	-0.0495	-0.1108	-0.0779	-0.0438	-0.0825	-0.0505	-0.0288	-0.0738
3	-0.1487	-0.0316	0.0858	-0.0400	-0.0929	-0.0379	-0.0847	-0.0846	-0.0163
4	0.0708	-0.1062	-0.0877	-0.0613	-0.0172	-0.0770	-0.0391	-0.0579	-0.0240
5	-0.0904	-0.0601	-0.1010	-0.1004	-0.0029	-0.0855	-0.0327		
6	0.0186	-0.0495	-0.0124	-0.0198	0.0540	-0.0288	0.0431		
7	-0.1487	-0.0316	-0.1252	-0.1178	-0.0610	-0.0846	-0.0959		
8	0.0708	-0.1062	-0.0119	-0.0276	0.1312	-0.0579	0.1203		
9	-0.0878	0.0774	-0.0903	-0.0889	0.0760				
10	0.0223	-0.0328	0.0187	0.0207	-0.0336				
11	-0.1468	0.1363	-0.1486	-0.1476	0.1346				
12	0.0750	-0.0855	0.0709	0.0731	-0.0860				

Table 27  
Standard Deviations for the Variables in Experiments I-XII

Experiment	Standard Deviations								
	$X_1$	$X_2$	$X_3$	$X_4$	$X_5$	$X_6$	$X_7$	$X_8$	$X_9$
1	1.0414	0.9660	0.9474	0.9116	0.9523	0.9132	0.9246	0.9524	0.9729
2	1.0317	1.0232	0.9243	1.0207	1.0448	1.0025	1.0178	1.0098	1.0614
3	0.8418	0.9947	1.0845	1.0417	0.9581	1.0634	0.9768	0.9706	1.0243
4	1.0025	1.1054	1.0324	0.9675	0.9635	0.9564	0.9675	1.0612	1.0124
5	1.0414	0.9660	0.9649	0.9822	1.0498	0.9524	1.0485		
6	1.0317	1.0232	1.0054	1.0042	1.0510	1.0098	1.0521		
7	0.8418	0.9947	0.9236	0.9401	0.9280	0.9706	0.8909		
8	1.0025	1.1054	0.9950	0.9849	1.1264	1.0612	1.1104		
9	1.0357	1.0189	1.0330	1.0313	1.0208				
10	1.0313	1.0266	1.0656	1.0316	1.0222				
11	0.8442	0.8648	0.8639	0.8497	0.8824				
12	0.9999	0.9933	1.0047	1.0028	0.9999				

Table 28

## Eigenvalues of Correlation Matrices in Experiments I-XII

Experiment	Eigenvalues								
	$t_1$	$t_2$	$t_3$	$t_4$	$t_5$	$t_6$	$t_7$	$t_8$	$t_9$
1	5.8237	2.0767	1.0369	0.0216	0.0114	0.0091	0.0073	0.0072	0.0059
2	6.1467	1.9435	0.8541	0.0207	0.0099	0.0077	0.0062	0.0060	0.0050
3	6.2853	1.5982	1.0581	0.0233	0.0097	0.0074	0.0065	0.0061	0.0052
4	5.7270	2.0435	1.1735	0.0201	0.0098	0.0078	0.0069	0.0064	0.0050
5	3.9280	3.0204	0.0194	0.0105	0.0080	0.0077	0.0058		
6	4.0166	2.9332	0.0191	0.0099	0.0078	0.0074	0.0059		
7	4.3110	2.6278	0.0243	0.0114	0.0095	0.0088	0.0072		
8	4.1685	2.7847	0.0183	0.0088	0.0076	0.0066	0.0055		
9	4.9343	0.0374	0.0164	0.0065	0.0053				
10	4.9366	0.0360	0.0158	0.0063	0.0053				
11	4.9076	0.0522	0.0236	0.0095	0.0072				
12	4.0303	0.0397	0.0173	0.0070	0.0057				



## CHAPTER IV

### DISCUSSION

According to Kaiser (1959), in principal component analysis, the number of common factors needed for a complete factor analysis is equal to the number of eigenvalues of the correlation matrix that are greater than or equal to one. The results of this study support that assumption. In each experiment, except experiment II, Table 28 shows that the number of eigenvalues greater than or equal to one is equal to the number of common factors assumed initially in the given experiment.

In each experiment, except those in which one common factor was assumed, Bartlett's test of significance showed that there was one significant common factor more than was assumed initially. That is, in those cases where two and three common factors were assumed to exist among the variables, Bartlett's test showed the presence of exactly three and four common factors respectively. Since it was assumed initially in each experiment that each variable had an error factor or a residual present and since the percentage of variance explained by the additional factor was small, the additional factor may be assumed to be due to error. In those experiments for which one common factor was assumed, correlation coefficients among the variables were extremely high. No correlation

coefficient was less than 0.9.

### Delimitations of the Study

The empirical investigation reported in the present study were limited in the following ways:

- 1) Only artificial samples were used. Measurements were random variates simulated on an IBM 360 computer.
- 2) The number of common factors for a set of observable random variables was limited to one, two, or three common factors.
- 3) The study was concerned with statistical significance and not with practical significance.
- 4) The populations from which the common factor scores were taken were limited to one of the following types:
  - a) A t-distribution with five degrees of freedom
  - b) The population that is distributed as the positive half of a unit standard normal distribution
  - c) A chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom
  - d) A normal distribution with zero mean and unit variance
- 5) Only Bartlett's test of significance was used to test for the significance of the number of factors.
- 6) The procedure for computation of factor loadings was limited to the method of principal component analysis.

### Suggestions for Further Research

With the above list of delimitations, it is clear that

this investigation holds no final answers to the question of how robust Bartlett's test of significance is in principal component analysis. More research is needed for cases where the number of observations is less than one hundred and for the cases where the number of observations is greater than one hundred. The study by Fuller and Hemmerle (1966) may hold some of the answers for the latter case. In that experiment, they showed that Lawley's chi square test, when used to test whether or not a factor analysis is complete in maximum likelihood factor analysis, was insensitive to the type of population from which common factor scores were taken. The number of observations in their study was two hundred.

One of the initial assumptions of the method of principal component analysis is that the communality of the variables is a numerical value of one, or at least that numerical values of one are used along the diagonal of the correlation matrix of the variables that are to be factor analyzed. Although this assumption was made in the present study, further research is needed in cases where the communality of each variable is not approximately one, since in most practical situations this is not the case.

Bartlett (1950) points out that his justification for testing the significance of factors in principal component analysis is not as complete as one would desire. The justification would be more realistic, according to Bartlett, if the researcher were considering the analysis of test scores known to have true equal variances, but standardized to unity only for the mean variance. In this case Bartlett's test could be given more justification,

but would involve a variation in the number of degrees of freedom. Bartlett further notes that pending a more detailed investigation, some doubt remains as to whether or not the reduction in degrees of freedom that ensues from the individual standardization of the tests is automatically felt in the residual factor components (an assumption implicit in the proposed test), or is mainly absorbed by the larger roots of the characteristic equation of the correlation matrix.

The chi square analyses reported here showed significance of the factors extracted to be unquestionable for the first one or two factors extracted. It was for the factors later extracted that significance was not as positive. It appears that research on later-extracted factors, based on chi square distributions would provide some further data on Bartlett's test in addition to that presented in the present investigation. If sampling distributions for the Bartlett chi square statistic were obtained for the cases where the factor scores were normally distributed, distributed as the positive half of a unit standard normal distribution, distributed as a chi distribution with three degrees of freedom, and distributed as a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom, then one could use some statistical test to determine whether or not the sampling distributions were taken from the same population. The Kruskal and Wallis multi-sample test for identical populations would be an appropriate test.

The investigation reported here was concerned, in each of the cases where one, two, and three common factors were assumed

initially, with only one theoretical model. Another apparent limitation of the present study is that stronger inferences could be made if models were varied. This was one of the important features of the study by Fuller and Hemmerle (1966).

With regard to the number of observations needed to make inferences about the significance of the factors extracted in a factor analysis, Burt (1952) points out that previous investigations in factor analysis suggest that generally speaking, when the number of variables is from ten to twenty, at least twenty observations are needed to establish one factor, fifty observations are needed to establish two factors, one hundred observations are needed to establish three factors, and between two hundred and four hundred observations are needed to establish four factors. Burt further suggests that it is not usually wise to try to extract more than four factors with any single battery of tests or in any single research. Ultimately, research on the robustness of Bartlett's test must include an estimate of the number of observations needed to establish the number of observations needed to establish any number of factors. Research in this area is needed.

Finally, no mention is made in any of the articles in the literature reported in this study of any tests made on artificial data to see if the variables are linear combinations of the factors. This is an essential assumption on the model for factor analysis in general and principal component analysis in particular. Research is needed to determine whether or not the failure of Bartlett's test of significance being sensitive to the population from which

the common factor scores are taken is due to the variables not being linear combinations of the common factors.

The above mentioned areas of needed research in the area of tests of significance are merely a few of the ones mentioned in the literature. Tests of significance in factor analysis are quite nebulous and no general agreement seems to exist as to how one should establish the significance of a factor extracted in a given analysis.

#### Implications for Theory and Practice

Theoretically, in Bartlett's test of significance, the statistics given in (VII) and (VIII) of chapter one are approximately distributed as a chi square variable, if the number of observations is large. Bartlett (1950, pp. 82-83) proves this assertion on the basis of the factor scores and hence the variables being distributed normally. The results of this study point out that the test derived by Bartlett may not be distribution free and may depend, without exception, on the normality assumption.

The researcher is not always able to determine whether the variables, common factors, or specific factors come from populations that are normally distributed. The research reported here and in similar related research give evidence that the researcher should not make inferences using Bartlett's test of significance unless he is sure that the normality assumption is sufficiently satisfied. Therefore, practically speaking the test derived by Bartlett should be used with caution.

Solomon (1960, p. 310) states that the structure of the model for principal component analysis is the same as the general factor analysis model except that, at least at first, one does not distinguish between common and specific factors. The assumption in a model proposed by Henrysson (1950, p. 125) for example, is the existence of error factors caused by errors of measurements. Therefore, no inferences should be made about the presence of specific factors on the basis of Bartlett's test and the method of principal component analysis. Such inferences should be made on the basis of other information inherent in the data for analysis.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The basis of factor analysis is that if two random variables or activities involve a common factor or element, then there will be a correlation between them. If one gives two psychological tests, for example, to a group of people, then the correlation between these tests will be a function of the extent to which the tests are calling on common abilities (Adcock, 1954, p. 19).

The principal component model assumes, among other assumptions given earlier, that the populations from which the common factor scores are taken are normally distributed. This implies that the random variables or activities possessing these common factors are also normally distributed.

Bartlett's test of significance is formulated to indicate the significance of the factors not yet extracted. Since only the correlation structure of the variables is being investigated in its relation to variance, no significance can ever be attached to the factor corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue of the correlation matrix of the variables, for this would be equivalent to asking for the correlation structure of a single variable (Bartlett, 1950, p 80).

The experiments performed in the present study were



designed to study some effects on Bartlett's test of significance when the common factor scores were not taken from populations that were normally distributed. The populations considered were 1) a t-distribution with five degrees of freedom ( $t_{(5)}$ ), 2) a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom ( $\chi_{(3)}$ ), and 3) a population distributed as the positive half of a unit standard normal variable ( $N(p,0,1)$ ). The populations were artificially simulated on an IBM 360 computer using concepts of power residues. The number of observations for each experiment was one hundred, the number of variables was five, seven, or nine, and the dimensions of the correlation matrices investigated were  $5 \times 5$ ,  $7 \times 7$ , and  $9 \times 9$ .

There were three models considered for analysis. In one model there were five random variables, where one common factor was assumed to exist among the variables. A second model involved seven random variables, where two common factors were assumed to exist among the variables. The third model considered consisted of nine random variables, where three common factors were assumed to exist among the variables. For each variable, in a given model, the existence of an error factor was assumed initially. Bartlett's test of significance was used to test the significance of factors extracted in the following cases:

- 1) the common factor scores were taken from  $N(0,1)$
- 2) the common factor scores were taken from  $t_{(5)}$
- 3) the common factor scores were taken from  $N(p,0,1)$
- 4) the common factor scores were taken from a chi square distribution with three degrees of freedom.

The error factors in each experiment were assumed to be taken from  $N(0,1)$ .

### Conclusions

Although the results of this study are necessarily limited, they do strongly indicate that when the method of principal component analysis is used, Bartlett's test of significance is relatively insensitive to departure from normality of the distribution of the common factor scores for large numbers of observations.

The results of the present study point out that the number of common factors in principal component analysis is approximately equal to the number of eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of the variables that are factor analyzed. This approximation of the number of common factors is a good initial guess of the number of common factors. Further inferences about the number of common factors can be made with Bartlett's test of significance if the researcher is sure that the variables are normally distributed.

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## APPENDIX I

### DEFINITION OF TERMS AND MEANING OF SYMBOLS

## Definition of Terms

Bartlett's Test of Significance. The chi square statistics given in (VII) and (VIII) of Chapter I.

Common Factor. A factor involved in more than one variable of a given set of variables (Harman, 1960, p. 12).

Common Factor Score. A numerical value taken on by a common factor.

Communality. The total variance of a variable due to factors which the variable has in common with other variables in a set of variables (Cattell, 1952, p. 423).

Corre. A computer scientific subroutine that computes means, standard deviations, sums of cross-products of deviations from means, and Pearson product moment correlation coefficients. (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 164).

Eigen. A computer scientific subroutine that computes the eigenvalues and eigen vectors of a real symmetric matrix (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 164).

Factor. A hypothetical construct (Harman, 1960, p. 12).

Gauss. A computer scientific subroutine that computes a normally distributed random number with a given variance and a given mean (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 77).

Load. A computer scientific subroutine that computes a factor matrix (loadings) from eigenvalues and associated eigen vectors (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 56).

Principal Component Analysis. A method of factor analysis used to reduce the dimensionality of a problem in terms of the

number of variables to be analyzed. Also a method of factor analysis used to classify the initial variables of a problem into sets such that variables within a given set have certain characteristics in common (Hemmerle, 1967, p. 140).

Random Variable. A symbol  $X$  standing for any of a range of number events, each having a probability  $p(X)$  (Hays, 1964, p. 109).

Randu. A computer scientific subroutine that computes a uniformly distributed random number between zero and one (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 77).

Residual. A factor common to a variable due to error (Henrysson, 1950, p. 125).

Specific Factor. A factor involved in a single variable of a given set of variables (Harman, 1960, p. 12).

Trace. A computer scientific subroutine that computes the cumulative percentage of eigenvalues greater than or equal to a constant (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 55).

Unit Standard Normal Random Variable. A random variable whose range of values are taken from a normal population with zero mean and unit variance.

Varmx. A computer scientific subroutine that performs orthogonal rotations on a factor matrix (System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package, 1968, p. 56).

#### Meaning of Symbols

$N(u,v)$ . A population that is normally distributed with

mean  $u$  and variance  $v$ .

$t_{(n)}$ . A population that is distributed as a  $t$ -distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom.

$N(p, u, v)$ . A population that is distributed as the positive half of  $N(u, v)$ .

$K$ . The number of factors extracted.

$\text{Coef}(k)$ . The coefficient of  $\log_e(R_{p-k})$  given in (VIII) of Chapter I.

$E(X)$ . The expected value of a random variable  $X$ .

$V(X)$ . The variance of a random variable  $V$ .

$X_i$ . The  $i$ th variable considered in a given experiment.

$t_i$ . The  $i$ th eigenvalue of a set of eigenvalues of a correlation matrix, where the eigenvalues have been arranged in descending order.

$sk$ . The measure of the skewness of a distribution.

$ku$ . The measure of the kurtosis of a distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(n + \tfrac{1}{2}) &= (1.3.5\dots(n-1)) \sqrt{\pi}/2^n \\ \Gamma[(n+1)/2] &= (1.3.5\dots(n-1)) \sqrt{\pi}/2^{\frac{1}{2}n} \\ \Gamma(\tfrac{1}{2}) &= \sqrt{\pi} \end{aligned}$$

$\chi^2_{(n)}$ . A population that is distributed as a chi square distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom.

$\sum_i$ . Summation as  $i$  ranges from 1 to  $p$ .

$\sum_j$ . Summation as  $j$  ranges from 1 to  $q$ .

$\{y_n\}$ . The sequence  $y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots$

APPENDIX II

COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR FACTOR ANALYSIS

USED IN THIS STUDY

```
//FACTO      JOB ED010301,POLLARD,MSGLEVEL=1
// EXEC FORTGCLG,PARM,FORT='BCD'
//FORT.SYSIN DD *
```

```
      SUBROUTINE JOYCE(IX,S,AM,V)
C      THIS SUBROUTINE IS A REFINEMENT OF GAUSS WHERE K = 48
      A = 0.0
      DO 50 I =1,48
      CALL RANDU(IX,IY,Y)
      IX = IY
50  A = A + Y
      BAY = A - 24.0
      V = (BAY/2.0)*S + AM
      RETURN
      END
      SUBROUTINE DATA(M,D)
      DIMENSION D(1)
54  FORMAT(12F6.0)
C      READ AN OBSERVATION FROM INPUT DEVICE
      READ(5,54) (D(I),I=1,M)
      RETURN
      END
      DIMENSION BB(9),D(9),S(9),T(9),XBAR(9),R(45),V(81),TV(51),
1RHO(9),FACT(9),CHI(4),RPK(4),NDF(4),NNDF(4),BETA(4),TAU(9),
C      ADD THESE DIMENSION CARDS FOR N = 100
      2TMAIN(100),INDEX(100),E(100,9),PM(100,9),X(100,9),XX(100,7),
      3XXX(100,5),COEF(4),ANN(100),USER(100),A(100)
      DIMENSION ALPHA(4)
      DIMENSION SFACT(5),TEMP(5)
C      PROJECT NORMAL
C      RESEARCH IN FACTOR ANALYSIS
C      STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM IS AS FOLLOWS.
C      WHAT ARE SOME EFFECTS OF NON-NORMALITY ON BARTLETT'S TEST OF
C      SIGNIFICANCE WHEN COMMON FACTOR SCORES ARE NOT NORMAL IN
C      PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS
C      PERMUTATION 1 FROM PAGE 93 BLOCK 1 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES
```

```
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
JOYCE
DATA
DATA
DATA
DATA
DATA
DATA
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
FACTO
```

C	PERMUTATION 2 FROM PAGE 93 BLOCK 7 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	PERMUTATION 3 FROM PAGE 95 BLOCK 1 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	PERMUTATION 4 FROM PAGE 97 BLOCK 1 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	PERMUTATION 5 FROM PAGE 97 BLOCK 7 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	PERMUTATION 6 FROM PAGE 99 BLOCK 8 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	PERMUTATION 7 FROM PAGE 98 BLOCK 8 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	PERMUTATION 8 FROM PAGE 98 BLOCK 1 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	PERMUTATION 9 FROM PAGE 99 BLOCK 8 MOSES AND OAKFORD TABLES	FACTO
C	BEGIN GENERATION OF FACTOR SCORES	FACTO
C	GENERATE SPECIFIC FACTOR SCORES	FACTO
C	NS3 IS THE INPUT IX FOR GAUSS	FACTO
C	NS2 IS THE NO. OF COMMON FACTORS	FACTO
C	NS1 IS THE NO. OF VARIABLES-SAME AS M	FACTO
1075	FORMAT(1H , 'ACCEPT AT UREF 0.05 LEVEL',I3,E20.8)	FACTO
1076	FORMAT(1H , 'REJECT AT UREF 0.05 LEVEL' ,I3,E20.8)	FACTO
1077	FORMAT(1H , 'ACCEPT AT UREF 0.01 LEVEL',I3,E20.8)	FACTO
1078	FORMAT(1H , 'REJECT AT UREF 0.01 LEVEL',I3,E20.8)	FACTO
1175	FORMAT(1H , 'ACCEPT AT REF 0.05 LEVEL',I3,E20.8)	FACTO
1176	FORMAT(1H , 'REJECT AT REF 0.05 LEVEL',I3,E20.8)	FACTO
1178	FORMAT (1H , 'REJECT AT REF 0.01 LEVEL',I3,E20.8)	FACTO
971	FORMAT(10H AAAAAAAAAA,E20.10,4I3)	FACTO
972	FORMAT(1H , ' ITER = ', I3)	FACTO
1177	FORMAT(1H , 'ACCEPT AT REF 0.01 LEVEL',I3,E20.8)	FACTO
	NS3 = 65537	FACTO
	IX =NS3	FACTO
	SX=1.0	FACTO
	AM=0.0	FACTO
	N=100	FACTO
	DO 200 ID=1,N	FACTO
	CALL JOYCE(IX,SX,AM,VX)	FACTO
	TMAIN(ID) = VX	FACTO
200	CONTINUE	FACTO
	RHO(1) = 0.8	FACTO
	RHO(2) =0.75	FACTO
	RHO(3) =0.54	FACTO



	RHO(4) = 0.39	FACTO
	RHO(5) = 0.65	FACTO
	RHO(6) = 0.7	FACTO
	RHO(7) = 0.5	FACTO
	RHO(8) = 0.4	FACTO
	RHO(9) = 0.49	FACTO
C	MM IS THE INITIAL VALUE OF M	FACTO
	MM=9	FACTO
	DO 206 J=1,MM	FACTO
202	READ(5,201) (INDEX(L), L=1,N)	FACTO
	DO 205 I=1,N	FACTO
201	FORMAT(10I5)	FACTO
	JF=INDEX(I)	FACTO
	PM(I,J) = TMAIN(JF)	FACTO
	E(I,J) = RHO(J)*TMAIN(I)+SQRT(1.0 - RHO(J)**2)*PM(I,J)	FACTO
205	CONTINUE	FACTO
206	CONTINUE	FACTO
C	GENERATE COMMON FACTOR SCORES	FACTO
	IX = 65537	
	INDIA = 4	FACTO
	DO 9031 NIX = 1,INDIA	FACTO
	IF(NIX - 1) 109,8212,8220	FACTO
8220	IF(NIX - 2) 109,8214,8221	FACTO
8221	IF(NIX - 3) 109,8216,8222	FACTO
8222	IF(NIX - 4) 109,8218,109	FACTO
8212	SX = 1.0	FACTO
	DO 8210 IP = 1,N	FACTO
	NS2 = 3	FACTO
	DO 211 I=1,NS2	FACTO
	CALL JOYCE(IX,SX,AM,VX)	FACTO
	FACT(I)=VX	FACTO
211	CONTINUE	FACTO
	X(IP,1)=0.98489*FACT(1) +0.17321*E(IP,1)	FACTO
	X(IP,2)=0.98995*FACT(2) + 0.14142*E(IP,2)	FACTO
	X(IP,3)=0.99499*FACT(3) + 0.10000*E(IP,3)	FACTO











1057	WRITE(6,1077) NDF,CHIO	FACTO
	GO TO 1059	FACTO
1058	WRITE(6,1078) NDF,CHIO	FACTO
1059	GO TO 8888	FACTO
9004	READ(5,71) PR,PR1,N,M,CON	FACTO
	IO=1	FACTO
	NS2=2	FACTO
	NSM2=3	FACTO
	NDF(1) = 15	FACTO
	NDF(2) = 10	FACTO
	NDF(3) = 6	FACTO
	CALL CORRE(N,M,IO,XX,XBAR,S,V,R,D,BB,T)	FACTO
	GO TO 34	FACTO
4001	NDF=21	FACTO
	IF(CHIO - 32.671) 1061,1061,1062	FACTO
1061	WRITE(6,1075) NDF,CHIO	FACTO
	GO TO 1063	FACTO
1062	WRITE(6,1076) NDF,CHIO	FACTO
1063	IF(CHIO - 38.932) 1071,1071,1072	FACTO
1071	WRITE(6,1077) NDF,CHIO	FACTO
	GO TO 1973	FACTO
1072	WRITE(6,1078) NDF,CHIO	FACTO
1973	GO TO 8888	FACTO
9006	READ(5,71) PR,PR1,N,M,CON	FACTO
	IO=1	FACTO
	NS2=3	FACTO
	NSM2=4	FACTO
	NDF(1) = 28	FACTO
	NDF(2) = 21	FACTO
	NDF(3) = 15	FACTO
	NDF(4) = 10	FACTO
	CALL CORRE(N,M,IO,X,XBAR,S,V,R,D,BB,T)	FACTO
	GO TO 34	FACTO
701	NDF=36	FACTO
	IF(CHIO - 50.998) 8501,8501,8502	FACTO

8501	WRITE(6,1075) NDFT,CHIO	FACTO
	GO TO 8505	FACTO
8502	WRITE(6,1076) NDFT,CHIO	FACTO
8505	IF(CHIO - 58.619) 8503,8503,8504	FACTO
8503	WRITE(6,1077) NDFT,CHIO	FACTO
	GO TO 8506	FACTO
8504	WRITE(6,1078) NDFT,CHIO	FACTO
8506	GO TO 8888	FACTO
C	BEGIN FACTO	FACTO
C	REGIN FACTO	FACTO
	71 FORMAT(A4,A2,I5,I2,F6.0)	FACTO
C	PRINT MEANS	FACTO
	34 WRITE(6,35) (XBAR(J),J=1,M)	FACTO
	35 FORMAT(//6H MEANS/(3E20.8))	FACTO
C	PRINT STANDARD DEVIATIONS	FACTO
	WRITE(6,43) (S(J),J=1,M)	FACTO
	43 FORMAT(//20H STANDARD DEVIATIONS/(3E20.8 ))	FACTO
	WRITE(6,45)	FACTO
	45 FORMAT (//25H CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS)	FACTO
	DO 120 I=1,M	FACTO
	DO 110 J=1,M	FACTO
203	IF (I-J) 102,104,104	FACTO
102	L=I+(J-J-J)/2	FACTO
	GO TO 110	FACTO
104	L=J+(I-I-I)/2	FACTO
110	D(J)=R(L)	FACTO
992	FORMAT(I2,9F8.5)	FACTO
120	WRITE(6,50) I,(D(J),J=1,M)	FACTO
50	FORMAT(//4H ROW,I3/(11F12.5))	FACTO
	MV=0	FACTO
	CALL EIGEN(R,V,M,MV)	FACTO
C	BEGIN TESTS OF NULL HYPOTHESES	FACTO
C	BEGIN TESTS OF NULL HYPOTHESES	FACTO
	DO 1029 I=1,M	FACTO
	L = I + (I*I - I)/2	FACTO



	TAU(I) = R(L)	FACTO
1029	CONTINUE	FACTO
	DETR=1.0	FACTO
	DO 1091 I=1,M	FACTO
	DETR=TAU(I)*DETR	FACTO
1091	CONTINUE	FACTO
	WRITE(6,990)DETR,(TAU(I),I=1,M)	FACTO
990	FORMAT(4E20.10/4E20.10/4E20.10)	FACTO
	TSUM=0.0	FACTO
	DO 1092 I=1,M	FACTO
	TSUM=TSUM + TAU(I)	FACTO
1092	CONTINUE	FACTO
	DO 1094 I=1,NSM2	FACTO
	BETA(I) = 0.0	FACTO
	ALPHA(I) = 1.0	FACTO
1094	CONTINUE	FACTO
	DO 1093 K=1,NSM2	FACTO
C	NSM2 = NS2 + 1	FACTO
	DO 1095 J = 1,K	FACTO
	BETA(K) = BETA(K) + TAU(J)	FACTO
	ALPHA(K) = ALPHA(K) * TAU(J)	FACTO
1095	CONTINUE	FACTO
	GAMMA = DETR / ALPHA(K)	FACTO
	DELTA = M - BETA(K)	FACTO
	NEXPN = M - K	FACTO
	RPK(K) = GAMMA*(NEXPN/DELTA)**NEXPN	FACTO
1093	CONTINUE	FACTO
C	RPK(I) = R( P - I)	FACTO
	CHIO = -((N-1.0)-(0.1667)*(2.0*M + 5.0))*ALOG(DETR)	FACTO
	NDFT = 0.5*M*(M-1)	FACTO
	WRITE(7,971) CHIO,NDFT,NIX,NUM,ITER	FACTO
	DO 1098 I=1,NSM2	FACTO
	COEF(I) =( (N-1.0) - (0.1667)*(2.0*M + 5.0)-(0.6667)*(I))	FACTO
	CHI(I) = -COEF(I)*ALOG(RPK(I))	FACTO
	NDF(I) = (0.5)*(M-I)*(M-(I+1.0))	FACTO

	NNDF(I) = (0.5)*(M - (I+1.0))*(M-I+2.0)	FACTO
	WRITE(7,971) CHI(I),NNDF(I),NIX,NUM,ITER	FACTO
C	IF THE FOLLOWING CARD IS REMOVED RPK(I)'S ARE PRINTED AS OUTPUT	FACTO
	RPK(I) = ALOG(RPK(I))	FACTO
1098	CONTINUE	FACTO
983	FORMAT(24H CHI(I),NNDF(I),I=1,NSM2)	FACTO
991	FORMAT(E20.10,I3)	FACTO
982	FORMAT(16H RPK(I),I=1,NSM2)	FACTO
981	FORMAT(17H COEF(I),I=1,NSM2)	FACTO
	CON=1.0	FACTO
	CALL TRACE(M,R,CON,K,D)	FACTO
C	PRINT EIGEN VALUES	FACTO
	DO 130 I=1,K	FACTO
	L=I+(I*I-I)/2	FACTO
130	S(I)=R(L)	FACTO
	WRITE (6,91) ( S(J),J=1,K)	FACTO
91	FORMAT(///12H EIGENVALUES/(10E14.9))	FACTO
C	PRINT CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE OF EIGEN VALUES	FACTO
	WRITE(6,92) ( D(J),J=1,K)	FACTO
92	FORMAT(///37H CUMULATIVE PERCENTSGE OF EIGENVALUES/(10F12.5))	FACTO
C	PRINT EIGENVECTORS	FACTO
	WRITE(6,93)	FACTO
93	FORMAT(13H EIGENVECTORS)	FACTO
	L=0	FACTO
	DO 150 J=1,K	FACTO
	DO 140 I=1,M	FACTO
	L=L+1	FACTO
140	D(I)=V(L)	FACTO
150	WRITE(6,94) J, (D(I),I=1,M)	FACTO
94	FORMAT(//7H VECTOR,I3/(10F12.5))	FACTO
	CALL LOAD(M,K,R,V)	FACTO
C	PRINT FACTOR MATRIX	FACTO
	WRITE(6,95)K	FACTO
95	FORMAT(///16H FACTOR MATRIX (,I3,9H FACTORS))	FACTO
	DO 180 I=1,M	FACTO

```

DO 170 J=1,K
L=M*(J-1)+I
170 D(J)=V(L)
180 WRITE(6,96)I,(D(J),J=1,K)
96 FORMAT(/9H VARIABLE,I3/(10F12.5))
IF(K-1) 185,185,188
185 WRITE(6,97)K
97 FORMAT(/5H ONLY,I2,30H FACTORS RETAINED, NO ROTATION )
188 CALL VARMX(M,K,V,NC,TV,BB,T,D)
PRINT VARIANCES
NV=NC+1
WRITE(6,98)
98 FORMAT(/10H ITERATION,7X, 9HVARIANCES/8H CYCLE )
DO 190 I=1,NV
NC=I-1
190 WRITE(6,99)NC,TV(I)
99 FORMAT(I6,F20.6)
PRINT ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX
WRITE(6,81)K
81 FORMAT(/24H ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX (,I3,9H FACTORS))
DO 220 I=1,M
DO 210 J=1,K
L=M*(J-1)+I
210 S(J)=V(L)
220 WRITE(6,82)I,(S(J),J=1,K)
82 FORMAT(/9H VARIABLE,I3,(10F12.5))
PRINT COMMUNALITIES
WRITE(6,83)
83 FORMAT(/23H CHECK ON COMMUNALITIES//9H VARIABLE,7X,8HORIGINAL,
112X,5HFINAL,10X,10HDIFFERENCE)
DO 230 I=1,M
230 WRITE(6,88)I,BB(I),T(I),D(I)
88 FORMAT(I6,3F18.5)
1501 IF(NSM2 - 2) 1502,2000,1502
1502 IF(NSM2 - 3) 1503,3000,1503

```



2019 IF(I-1) 2020,3081,2020	FACTO
2020 IF (I-2) 2021,3091,2021	FACTO
2021 IF( I - 3 ) 109,3555,109	FACTO
3081 IF(INT-15) 109,2082,109	FACTO
2082 IF(CHI(I) - 24.996) 2083,2083,2084	FACTO
2083 WRITE(6,1075) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
GO TO 5991	FACTO
2084 WRITE(6,1076) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
5991 IF(CHI(I) - 30.578) 2773 ,2773,2774	FACTO
2773 WRITE(6,1077) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
GO TO 2271	FACTO
2774 WRITE(6,1078) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
2771 GO TO 2040	FACTO
3091 IF(INT-10 ) 109,2092,109	FACTO
2092 IF(CHI(I) - 18.307) 2093,2093,2094	FACTO
2093 WRITE(6,1075) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
GO TO 2781	FACTO
2094 WRITE(6,1076) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
2781 IF(CHI(I)-23.209) 2073,2073,2074	FACTO
2073 WRITE(6,1077) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
GO TO 2071	FACTO
2074 WRITE(6,1078) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
2071 GO TO 2040	FACTO
3555 IF(INT - 6) 109,3002,109	FACTO
3002 IF(CHI(I)-12.592) 3003,3003,3004	FACTO
3003 WRITE(6,1075) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
GO TO 3454	FACTO
3004 WRITE(6,1076) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
3454 IF(CHI(I)-16.812) 2473,2473,2475	FACTO
2473 WRITE(6,1077) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
GO TO 2471	FACTO
2475 WRITE(6,1078) NDF(I),CHI(I)	FACTO
2471 GO TO 2040	FACTO
4000 DO 3050 I=1,NSM2	FACTO
INT=NDF(I)	FACTO

[illegible]

[illegible]

//GO.SYSIN DD \*

3	92	64	82	40	95	20	28	62	43
25	8	23	41	85	7	81	54	6	39
59	79	70	18	71	55	66	15	72	75
96	34	24	93	51	63	77	94	45	98
27	31	32	91	21	73	68	50	26	90
42	61	60	14	17	12	99	69	11	97
19	84	44	56	49	80	58	83	88	76
53	52	5	47	16	29	57	2	10	67
78	33	48	86	37	35	89	38	87	65
13	46	36	1	100	74	30	4	22	9
42	30	28	59	4	76	44	87	58	13
97	27	23	47	98	72	33	94	21	1
45	55	3	35	39	38	66	84	70	69

81	24	34	46	77	99	86	96	7	91
2	50	5	17	10	92	57	95	52	32
49	85	40	14	79	29	19	65	60	83
89	88	37	48	90	12	8	6	62	20
45	25	11	22	56	80	9	26	93	36
78	51	82	15	61	63	54	100	68	31
64	53	67	41	74	16	18	73	43	71
39	10	34	46	84	5	47	85	70	4
76	11	74	66	19	100	13	48	62	72
57	44	94	90	77	38	80	60	36	54
31	2	21	53	92	17	15	67	25	83
71	41	56	42	26	37	27	86	18	14
65	75	28	61	59	8	43	89	73	55
96	68	82	79	50	51	87	29	64	95
58	69	91	35	7	45	9	22	20	30
32	81	33	52	99	88	24	63	40	6
1	23	98	97	3	93	78	12	49	16
94	12	99	73	79	30	25	4	6	55
56	64	74	78	95	13	28	62	1	24
70	57	47	7	9	26	31	82	10	45
41	15	71	27	40	39	85	34	49	61
65	87	67	72	88	29	18	54	8	63
60	48	84	58	66	96	97	22	77	52
36	2	14	23	68	91	69	32	50	33
3	92	81	86	5	83	75	93	46	90
20	21	17	11	19	80	44	51	100	89
76	59	35	42	98	37	38	53	16	43
63	78	20	16	97	7	71	46	13	57
54	5	11	85	45	33	44	37	61	10
53	42	32	100	88	69	55	25	64	93
18	52	9	95	24	90	98	68	31	8
66	60	28	15	29	75	40	38	47	79
43	14	92	81	2	41	19	89	59	83
30	12	67	51	87	27	49	48	74	91
72	56	21	6	99	62	65	77	70	58



35	76	1	50	36	34	73	17	86	22
82	94	26	80	4	84	23	96	3	39
21	41	74	99	67	89	47	62	98	52
19	55	95	2	7	29	90	17	59	56
53	24	87	12	97	68	42	94	48	28
60	3	92	66	88	23	38	78	84	35
26	81	37	82	77	25	91	54	44	61
13	27	40	49	20	36	75	80	33	58
72	5	83	73	79	50	39	30	85	65
69	14	1	8	10	15	9	76	6	57
51	45	70	93	32	100	18	63	86	31
71	64	11	96	16	4	43	34	22	46
14	95	60	73	2	22	77	45	42	21
25	87	10	68	47	40	13	56	51	36
26	18	86	3	17	65	67	20	91	44
33	50	9	1	7	57	52	96	30	35
4	76	90	62	37	28	99	70	55	34
11	46	84	83	89	6	79	8	48	71
38	66	32	97	53	88	100	98	43	69
92	74	19	82	78	31	23	93	41	72
27	54	94	5	63	49	61	59	85	15
24	80	81	12	29	64	75	39	16	58
36	63	78	18	26	68	24	1	96	4
98	25	91	82	27	43	37	42	28	19
95	55	87	66	61	65	67	88	16	47
14	41	23	89	62	92	94	21	79	44
39	3	93	72	31	56	69	76	48	90
7	13	50	60	74	12	70	35	80	49
46	54	22	5	77	32	81	73	34	33
52	51	75	57	29	99	45	100	20	71
38	10	17	58	9	8	59	6	92	53
15	40	86	85	83	30	64	11	2	84
5	9	34	74	53	59	29	38	65	61
93	20	88	19	78	33	87	14	60	41
40	24	52	43	81	92	58	15	99	22

35	76	1	50	36	34	73	17	86	22
54	44	84	90	47	73	50	28	97	49
10	25	98	95	23	77	89	67	66	35
68	4	39	72	57	31	76	70	64	51
86	42	94	56	27	8	69	26	82	62
85	100	1	30	6	36	21	11	2	16
12	91	96	71	37	45	18	79	3	48
7	46	80	17	75	55	13	83	63	32

FACT0 00100050001.0  
 FACT0 00100070001.0  
 FACT0 00100090001.0  
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