# GENERALIZED DIAGONAL EXPONENT CONDITIONAL SYMMETRY MODELS FOR SQUARE CONTINGENCY TABLES WITH ORDERED CATEGORIES 

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#### Abstract

For square contingency tables with ordered categories, this paper proposes a generalized diagonal exponent conditional symmetry model which indicates that in addition to the structure of conditional symmetry of the probabilities with respect to the main diagonal of the table, the log-odds of adjacent two


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probabilities along subdiagonal of the table is the sum of polynomial of row value and polynomial of column value with same coefficients. This paper also gives the decomposition using the proposed model.

## 1. Introduction

Consider an $R \times R$ square contingency table with the same row and column classifications. Let $p_{i j}$ denote the probability that an observation will fall in the $i$-th row and $j$-th column of the table $(i=1, \ldots, R$; $j=1, \ldots, R$ ). The symmetry (S) model is defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\psi_{i j}(i=1, \ldots, R ; j=1, \ldots, R)
$$

where $\psi_{i j}=\psi_{j i}$; see Bowker [3]. This describes a structure of symmetry of the probabilities $\left\{p_{i j}\right\}$ with respect to the main diagonal of the table. McCullagh [11] considered the conditional symmetry (CS) model, defined by

$$
p_{i j}= \begin{cases}\gamma \psi_{i j} & (i<j) \\ \psi_{i j} & (i \geq j),\end{cases}
$$

where $\psi_{i j}=\psi_{j i}$. The CS model states that $p_{i j}(i<j)$ is $\gamma$ times higher than $p_{j i}$. A special case of the CS model obtained by putting $\gamma=1$ is the S model. The global symmetry (GS) model is defined by

$$
\sum_{i<j} \sum_{i j} p_{i j}=\sum_{i<j} p_{j i}
$$

see Read [12]. The GS model states that the probability that an observation will fall in one of the upper-right triangle cells above the main diagonal of the table is equal to the probability that it falls in one of the lower-left triangle cells below the main diagonal. Read [12] gave the theorem that the S model holds if and only if both the CS and GS models hold.

Caussinus [4] considered the quasi-symmetry (QS) model, defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\alpha_{i} \beta_{j} \psi_{i j}(i=1, \ldots, R ; j=1, \ldots, R)
$$

where $\psi_{i j}=\psi_{j i}$. A special case of the QS model with $\left\{\alpha_{i}=\beta_{i}\right\}$ is the S model. Iki et al. [8] considered the $k$-th diagonal exponent symmetry $(\operatorname{DES}(k))$ model, for a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\prod_{t=1}^{k} \delta_{t}^{i^{t}+j^{t}} d_{|j-i|} & (i \neq j),  \tag{1}\\
\psi_{i i} & (i=j)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Note that (1) with $k=1$ is the diagonal exponent symmetry (DES) model in Tomizawa [13]. The $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model states that, in addition to the structure of the S model, for fixed distance from the main diagonal of the table, the log-odds of $p_{i+1, j+1}$ to $p_{i j}$ is the sum of polynomial of row value $i$ and polynomial of column value $j$ with same coefficients along every subdiagonal of the table (especially, when $k=2$, the log-odds of them is a linear function of $i+j$ ). Note that the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model implies the S model. Iki et al. [8] also considered the $k$-th quasi-diagonal exponent symmetry $(\operatorname{QDES}(k))$ model, for a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\prod_{t=1}^{k} \alpha_{t}^{i^{t}} \beta_{t}^{j^{t}} d_{|j-i|} & (i \neq j),  \tag{2}\\
\psi_{i i} & (i=j) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Note that (2) with $\alpha_{t}=\beta_{t}(t=1, \ldots, k)$ is the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model, and (2) with $k=1$ is the quasi-diagonal exponent symmetry (QDES) model in Iki et al. [10]. Note that the $\operatorname{QDES}(k)$ model implies the QS model. Let $X$ and $Y$ denote the row and column variables, respectively. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, consider a model defined by $E\left(X^{t}\right)=E\left(Y^{t}\right)(t=1$,
$\ldots, k$ ). We shall refer to this model as the $k$-th marginal moment equality $(\operatorname{MME}(k))$ model. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, Iki et al. [8] gave the theorem that the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds if and only if both $\operatorname{QDES}(k)$ and $\operatorname{MME}(k)$ models hold.

Iki et al. [9] considered the diagonal exponent conditional symmetry (DECS) model, defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\delta^{i+j} d_{j-i} & (i \neq j),  \tag{3}\\
\psi_{i i} & (i=j),
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $d_{j-i}=\gamma d_{i-j}(i<j)$. Note that (3) with $\gamma=1$ is the DES model. This model states that in addition to the structure of the CS model, $p_{i+1, j+1}(i \neq j)$ is $\delta^{2}$ times higher than $p_{i j}$. Under the DECS model, we see the structure of $p_{i j} / p_{j i}=\gamma(i<j)$. Iki et al. [9] also considered the quasi-diagonal exponent conditional symmetry (QDECS) model, defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha^{i} \beta^{j} d_{j-i} & (i \neq j)  \tag{4}\\
\psi_{i i} & (i=j),
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $d_{j-i}=\gamma d_{i-j}(i<j)$. Note that (4) with $\alpha=\beta$ is the DECS model, and (4) with $\gamma=1$ is the QDES model. Under the QDECS model, we see the structure of $p_{i j} / p_{j i}=\gamma(\beta / \alpha)^{j-i}(i<j)$. Iki et al. [9] gave the theorems as follows:

Theorem 1. The DES model holds if and only if both the DECS and GS models hold.

Theorem 2. The DES model holds if and only if all the QDECS, GS, and MME(1) models hold.

Theorem 3. The DES model holds if and only if both the DECS and MME(1) models hold.

We are now interested in considering the generalization of the DECS and QDECS models and Theorems 1, 2, and 3. The present paper proposes a generalized DECS and QDECS models, and gives the decomposition of the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model. It also shows the orthogonality of the test statistics for decomposed models.

## 2. New Models

We consider a generalized DECS model, for a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\prod_{t=1}^{k} \delta_{t}^{i^{t}+j^{t}} d_{j-i} & (i \neq j), \\
\psi_{i i} & (i=j)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $d_{j-i}=\gamma d_{i-j}(i<j)$. We shall refer to this model as the $k$-th diagonal exponent conditional symmetry $(\operatorname{DECS}(k))$ model. Under the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ model, we see the structure of $p_{i j} / p_{j i}=\gamma(i<j)$. Note that the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ model implies the CS model. The DECS(1) model is equivalent to the DECS model. A special case of the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ model with $\gamma=1$ is the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model.

Moreover, consider a generalized QDECS model, for a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, defined by

$$
p_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\prod_{t=1}^{k} \alpha_{t}^{i^{t}} \beta_{t}^{j^{t}} d_{j-i} & (i \neq j), \\
\psi_{i i} & (i=j)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $d_{j-i}=\gamma d_{i-j}(i<j)$. We shall refer to this model as the $k$-th quasidiagonal exponent conditional symmetry ( $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$ ) model. Under the
$\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$ model, we see the structure of $p_{i j} / p_{j i}=\gamma \prod_{t=1}^{k}\left(\beta_{t} / \alpha_{t}\right)^{j^{t}-i^{t}}$ $(i<j)$. The $\operatorname{QDECS}(1)$ model is equivalent to the QDECS model. A special case of the $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$ model with $\alpha_{t}=\beta_{t}(t=1, \ldots, k)$ is the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ model. A special case with $\gamma=1$ is the $\operatorname{QDES}(k)$ model. Also, a special case with $\alpha_{t}=\beta_{t}(t=1, \ldots, k)$ and $\gamma=1$ is the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model.

In Figure 1, we show the relationships among models. In Figure 1, $A \rightarrow B$ indicates that model $A$ implies model $B$.


Figure 1. Relationships among models.

## 3. Decomposition and Orthogonality of Test Statistics

We obtain the decompositions of the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model as follows:
Theorem 4. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds if and only if both the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and GS, models hold.

Theorem 5. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds if and only if all the $\operatorname{QDECS}(k), G S$, and $M M E(k)$ models hold.

Theorem 6. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds if and only if both the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and $M M E(1)$ models hold.

Proof of Theorem 4. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, if the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds, then the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and GS models hold. Assuming that both the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and GS models hold, then we shall show that the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds. Since the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and GS models hold, we see

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{s<t} \sum_{s t} p_{s<t} \sum_{s<t} p_{t s} & =\sum_{s<t} \sum_{l=1}\left(\prod_{l}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s^{l}+t^{l}}\right) d_{t-s}-\sum_{s<t}\left(\prod_{l=1}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s^{l}+t^{l}}\right) d_{s-t} \\
& =\sum_{s<t} \sum_{l=1}\left(\prod_{l}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s^{l}+t^{l}}\right) \gamma d_{s-t}-\sum_{s<t} \sum_{l=1}\left(\prod_{l}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s^{l}+t^{l}}\right) d_{s-t} \\
& =(\gamma-1) \sum_{s<t} \sum_{l=1}\left(\prod_{l}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s^{l}+t^{l}}\right) d_{s-t} \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, we obtain $\gamma=1$. Namely, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds. The proof is complicated.

Proof of Theorem 5. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, if the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds, then the $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$, GS, and $\operatorname{MME}(k)$ models hold. Assuming that all the $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$, GS, and $\operatorname{MME}(k)$ models hold, then we shall show that the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds. Let $\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}\right\}$ denote the cell probabilities which satisfy all the $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$, GS, and $\operatorname{MME}(k)$ models. Since the QDECS ( $k$ ) model holds, we see

$$
\log \widetilde{p}_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\log \gamma+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(i^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+j^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right)+\log d_{i-j} & (i<j),  \tag{5}\\
\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(i^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+j^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right)+\log d_{j-i} & (i>j), \\
\log \psi_{i i} & (i=j)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Let

$$
\pi_{i j}=\frac{d_{-|j-i|}}{c}(i \neq j) \quad \text { and } \quad \pi_{i i}=\frac{\psi_{i i}}{c}(i=j),
$$

with

$$
c=\sum_{\substack{i=1 \\(i \neq j)}}^{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R} d_{-|j-i|}+\sum_{i=1}^{R} \psi_{i i}
$$

We note that $\sum_{i=1}^{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R} \pi_{i j}=1$ with $0<\pi_{i j}<1$. Then, since $\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}\right\}$ satisfy the $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$, GS, and $\operatorname{MME}(k)$ models, we see

$$
\begin{gathered}
\log \left(\frac{\tilde{p}_{i j}}{\pi_{i j}}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\log c+\log \gamma+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(i^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+j^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right) & (i<j) \\
\log c+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(i^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+j^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right) & (i>j) \\
\log c & (i=j) \\
& \widetilde{\delta}_{U}=\widetilde{\delta}_{L} \quad \text { and } \quad \tilde{\mu}_{X}^{l}=\tilde{\mu}_{Y}^{l} \quad(l=1, \ldots, k),
\end{array},\right.
\end{gathered}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \widetilde{\delta}_{U}=\sum_{i=1}^{R-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{R} \tilde{p}_{i j}, \quad \widetilde{\delta}_{L}=\sum_{i=1}^{R-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{R} \tilde{p}_{j i} \\
& \tilde{\mu}_{X}^{l}=\sum_{i=1}^{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R} i^{l} \tilde{p}_{i j}, \quad \tilde{\mu}_{Y}^{l}=\sum_{i=1}^{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R} j^{l} \tilde{p}_{i j}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, we denote $\widetilde{\delta}_{U}\left(=\widetilde{\delta}_{L}\right)$ and $\tilde{\mu}_{X}^{l}\left(=\tilde{\mu}_{Y}^{l}\right)$ by $\delta_{0}$ and $\mu_{0}^{l}$, respectively. Namely,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widetilde{\delta}_{U}=\widetilde{\delta}_{L}=\delta_{0} \quad \text { and } \quad \tilde{\mu}_{X}^{l}=\tilde{\mu}_{Y}^{l}=\mu_{0}^{l}(l=1, \ldots, k) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider the arbitrary cell probabilities $\left\{p_{i j}\right\}$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{U}=\delta_{L}\left(=\delta_{0}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \mu_{X}^{l}=\mu_{Y}^{l}\left(=\mu_{0}^{l}\right)(l=1, \ldots, k) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\delta_{U}, \delta_{L},\left\{\mu_{X}^{l}\right\}$, and $\left\{\mu_{Y}^{l}\right\}$ denote $\tilde{\delta}_{U}, \tilde{\delta}_{L},\left\{\tilde{\mu}_{X}^{l}\right\}$, and $\left\{\tilde{\mu}_{Y}^{l}\right\}$ with $\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}\right\}$ replaced by $\left\{p_{i j}\right\}$, respectively. From the Equations (6), (7), and (8), we see

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R}\left(p_{i j}-\tilde{p}_{i j}\right) \log \left(\frac{\tilde{p}_{i j}}{\pi_{i j}}\right)=0 \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the Equation (9), we obtain

$$
K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)=K\left(\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)+K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\widetilde{p}_{i j}\right\}\right)
$$

where

$$
K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R} p_{i j} \log \left(\frac{p_{i j}}{\pi_{i j}}\right)
$$

and $K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)$ is the Kullback-Leibler information between $\left\{p_{i j}\right\}$ and $\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}$. Since $\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}$ being a function of $\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}\right\}$ is fixed, we see

$$
\min _{\left\{p_{i j}\right\}} K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)=K\left(\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)
$$

and then $\left\{\widetilde{p}_{i j}\right\}$ uniquely minimizes $K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)$ (see Bhapkar and Darroch [2]).

Let $\widetilde{p}_{i j}^{*}=\tilde{p}_{j i}(i=1, \ldots, R ; j=1, \ldots, R)$. Then

$$
\log \widetilde{p}_{i j}^{*}=\log \widetilde{p}_{j i}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(j^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+i^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right)+\log d_{i-j} & (i<j)  \tag{10}\\
\log \gamma+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(j^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+i^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right)+\log d_{j-i} & (i>j) \\
\log \psi_{i i} & (i=j)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Noting that $\left\{\pi_{i j}=\pi_{j i}\right\}$, we see

$$
\log \left(\frac{\tilde{p}_{i j}^{*}}{\pi_{i j}}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\log c+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(j^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+i^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right) & (i<j)  \tag{11}\\
\log c+\log \gamma+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(j^{l} \log \alpha_{l}+i^{l} \log \beta_{l}\right) & (i>j) \\
\log c & (i=j)
\end{array}\right.
$$

From Equations (7), (8), and (11), we see

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R}\left(p_{i j}-\widetilde{p}_{i j}^{*}\right) \log \left(\frac{\tilde{p}_{i j}^{*}}{\pi_{i j}}\right)=0 \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the Equation (12), we obtain

$$
K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)=K\left(\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}^{*}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)+K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}^{*}\right\}\right)
$$

Since $\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}$ being a function of $\left\{\widetilde{p}_{i j}^{*}\right\}$ is fixed, we see

$$
\min _{\left\{p_{i j}\right\}} K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)=K\left(\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}^{*}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)
$$

and then $\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}^{*}\right\}$ uniquely minimizes $K\left(\left\{p_{i j}\right\},\left\{\pi_{i j}\right\}\right)$. Therefore, we see $\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}=\widetilde{p}_{i j}^{*}\right\}$. Thus $\left\{\tilde{p}_{i j}=\widetilde{p}_{j i}\right\}$.

From Equations (5) and (10), for $i<j$, we see

$$
\begin{align*}
\log \left(\frac{\widetilde{p}_{i j}}{\widetilde{p}_{j i}}\right) & =\log \gamma+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(\left(i^{l}-j^{l}\right) \log \alpha_{l}+\left(j^{l}-i^{l}\right) \log \beta_{l}\right) \\
& =\log \gamma+\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(\left(j^{l}-i^{l}\right) \log \frac{\beta_{l}}{\alpha_{l}}\right) \\
& =0 . \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{align*}
\log \left(\frac{\widetilde{p}_{i, j+1}}{\widetilde{p}_{j+1, i}}\right)-\log \left(\frac{\widetilde{p}_{i j}}{\widetilde{p}_{j i}}\right) & =\sum_{l=1}^{k}\left(\left\{(j+1)^{l}-j^{l}\right\} \log \frac{\beta_{l}}{\alpha_{l}}\right) \\
& =0 . \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

From Equation (14), we obtain $\alpha_{l}=\beta_{l}(l=1, \ldots, k)$, and from Equation (13), we obtain $\gamma=1$. Namely, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds. The proof is completed.

Proof of Theorem 6. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, if the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds, then the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and MME(1) models hold. Assuming that both the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and MME(1) models hold, then we shall show that the $\mathrm{DES}(k)$ model holds. The MME(1) model is also expressed as

$$
\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u p_{s, s+u}=\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u p_{s+u, s} .
$$

Since the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and MME(1) models hold, we see

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} & \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u p_{s, s+u}-\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u p_{s+u, s} \\
& =\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u\left(\prod_{l=1}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s_{l}^{l}+(s+u)^{l}}\right) d_{(s+u)-s}-\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u\left(\prod_{l=1}^{k} \delta_{l}^{(s+u)^{l}+s^{l}}\right) d_{s-(s+u)} \\
& =\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u\left(\prod_{l=1}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s^{l}+(s+u)^{l}}\right) \gamma d_{-u}-\sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u\left(\prod_{l=1}^{k} \delta_{l}^{(s+u)^{l}+s^{l}}\right) d_{-u} \\
& =(\gamma-1) \sum_{u=1}^{R-1} \sum_{s=1}^{R-u} u\left(\prod_{l=1}^{k} \delta_{l}^{s^{l}+(s+u)^{l}}\right) d_{-u} \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, we obtain $\gamma=1$. Namely, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds. The proof is complicated.

Consider the model that has the structure of both the GS and $\operatorname{MME}(k)$ models. We shall refer to this model as the GSMME $(k)$ model. From Theorem 5, we can obtain the following the corollary:

Corollary 1. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model holds if and only if both the $Q D E C S(k)$ and $G S M M E(k)$ models hold.

Let $n_{i j}$ denote the observed frequency in the $(i, j)$-th cell of the table $(i=1, \ldots, R ; j=1, \ldots, R)$ with $n=\sum \sum n_{i j}$, and let $m_{i j}$ denote the corresponding expected frequency. Assume that $\left\{n_{i j}\right\}$ have a multinomial distribution. The maximum likelihood estimates (MLEs) of $\left\{m_{i j}\right\}$ under the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$ models could be obtained by using iterative procedures; for example, see Darroch and Ratcliff [5] and Agresti ([1], p. 242). The MLEs of $\left\{m_{i j}\right\}$ under the $\operatorname{MME}(k)$ and $\operatorname{GSMME}(k)$ models could be obtained by using Newton-Raphson method to the log-likelihood equations. Let $G^{2}(M)$ denote the likelihood ratio chi-squared statistic for testing goodness-of-fit of model $M$. The numbers of degrees of freedom for the $\operatorname{DECS}(k), \operatorname{QDECS}(k), \operatorname{MME}(k)$, and $\operatorname{GSMME}(k)$ models are $R^{2}-2 R-k, R^{2}-2 R-2 k, k$, and $k+1$, respectively.

The orthogonality (asymptotic separability or independence) of the test statistics for goodness-of-fit of two models is discussed by, e.g., Darroch and Silvey [6] and Read [12]. We obtain the theorems as follows:

Theorem 7. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, the test statistic $G^{2}(D E S(k))$ is asymptotically equivalent to the sum of $G^{2}(D E C S(k))$ and $G^{2}(G S)$.

Theorem 8. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, the test statistic $G^{2}(\operatorname{DES}(k))$ is asymptotically equivalent to the sum of $G^{2}(\operatorname{QDECS}(k))$ and $G^{2}(\operatorname{GSMME}(k))$.

Proof of Theorem 7. For a fixed $k(k=1, \ldots, R-1)$, the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ model is expressed as
$\log p_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}\gamma^{*}+(i+j) \beta_{1}^{*}+\left(i^{2}+j^{2}\right) \beta_{2}^{*}+\cdots+\left(i^{k}+j^{k}\right) \beta_{k}^{*}+d_{i-j}^{*} & (i<j), \\ (i+j) \beta_{1}^{*}+\left(i^{2}+j^{2}\right) \beta_{2}^{*}+\cdots+\left(i^{k}+j^{k}\right) \beta_{k}^{*}+d_{j-i}^{*} & (i>j), \\ \psi_{i i}^{*} & (i=j),\end{array}\right.$

$$
\begin{equation*}
(i=1, \ldots, R ; j=1, \ldots, R) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
p & =\left(p_{11}, \ldots, p_{1 R}, p_{21}, \ldots, p_{2 R}, \ldots, p_{R 1}, \ldots, p_{R R}\right)^{t} \\
\beta & =\left(\gamma^{*}, \beta_{1}^{*}, \beta_{2}^{*}, \ldots, \beta_{k}^{*}, \phi\right)^{t}
\end{aligned}
$$

where " $t$ " denotes the transpose, and

$$
\phi=\left(d_{-1}^{*}, d_{-2}^{*}, \ldots, d_{-(R-1)}^{*}, \psi_{11}^{*}, \psi_{22}^{*}, \ldots, \psi_{R R}^{*}\right)
$$

is the $1 \times(2 R-1)$ vector. The $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ model is expressed as

$$
\log p=X \beta=\left(X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{k}, X_{k+1}\right) \beta
$$

where $X$ is the $R^{2} \times L$ matrix with $L=2 R+k, X_{0}=\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{R}\right)^{t}$, $X_{l}=J_{R}^{l} \otimes 1_{R}+1_{R} \otimes J_{R}^{l}(l=1, \ldots, k)$, and $X_{k+1}$ is the $R^{2} \times(2 R-1)$ matrix of 1 or 0 elements determined from (15); and where $v_{p}$ is the $1 \times R$ vector of 0 for the first $p$ elements or 1 for the others, $1_{s}$ is the $s \times 1$ vector of 1 elements, $J_{R}^{l}=\left(1^{l}, \ldots, R^{l}\right)^{t}$ and $\otimes$ denotes the Kronecker product. The matrix $X$ has full column rank. The rank of $X$ is $L$. In a similar manner to Haber [7], we denote the linear space spanned by the columns of the matrix $X$ by $S(X)$ with the dimension $L$.

Let $U$ be an $R^{2} \times l_{1}$, where $l_{1}=R^{2}-L=R^{2}-2 R-k$, full column rank matrix such that $S(U)$ is the orthogonal complement of $S(X)$. Thus, $U^{t} X=O_{l_{1}, L}$, where $O_{s, t}$ is the $s \times t$ zero matrix. Therefore, the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ model is expressed as

$$
H_{1}(p)=0_{l_{1}},
$$

where $0_{s}$ is the $s \times 1$ zero vector, and $H_{1}(p)=U^{t} \log p$. The GS model is expressed as

$$
H_{2}(p)=0_{l_{2}}
$$

where $l_{2}=1$, and $H_{2}(p)=W p$, with

$$
W=\left(X_{0}-\left(1_{R^{2}}-X_{0}-\sum_{k=1}^{R} w_{k}\right)\right)^{t},
$$

being the $1 \times R^{2}$ matrix; and where $w_{i}(i=1, \ldots, R)$ is the $R^{2} \times 1$ vector, being the corresponding column vectors in $X_{k+1}$ shouldering $\psi_{i i}^{*}$. Note that $X_{k+1} 1_{2 R-1}=1_{R^{2}}$. Thus $W^{t}$ belongs to $S(X)$. Hence $W U=O_{l_{2}, l_{1}}$. From Theorem 1, the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model is expressed as

$$
H_{3}(p)=0_{l_{3}},
$$

where $l_{3}=l_{1}+l_{2}=R^{2}-2 R-k+1$, and $H_{3}=\left(H_{1}^{t}, H_{2}\right)^{t}$.
Let $h_{s}(p)(s=1,2,3)$ denote the $l_{s} \times R^{2}$ matrix of partial derivative of $H_{s}(p)$ with respect to $p$, i.e., $h_{s}(p)=\partial H_{s}(p) / \partial p^{t}$. Let $\Sigma(p)=$ $\operatorname{diag}(p)-p p^{t}$, where $\operatorname{diag}(p)$ denotes a diagonal matrix with $i$-th component of $p$ as $i$-th diagonal component. Let $\hat{p}$ denote $p$ with $\left\{p_{i j}\right\}$ replaced by $\left\{\hat{p}_{i j}=n_{i j} / n\right\}$. Then $\sqrt{n}(\hat{p}-p)$ has asymptotically a
normal distribution with mean $0_{R^{2}}$ and covariance matrix $\sum(p)$. Using the delta method, $\sqrt{n}\left(H_{3}(\hat{p})-H_{3}(p)\right)$ has asymptotically a normal distribution with mean $0_{l_{3}}$ and covariance matrix

$$
h_{3}(p) \sum(p) h_{3}(p)^{t}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
h_{1}(p) \sum(p) h_{1}(p)^{t} & h_{1}(p) \sum(p) h_{2}(p)^{t} \\
h_{2}(p) \sum(p) h_{1}(p)^{t} & h_{2}(p) \sum(p) h_{2}(p)^{t}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since $h_{1}(p) p=U^{t} 1_{R^{2}}=0_{l_{1}}, h_{1}(p) \operatorname{diag}(p)=U^{t}$ and $h_{2}(p)=W$, we see

$$
h_{1}(p) \sum(p) h_{2}(p)^{t}=U^{t} W^{t}=O_{l_{1}, l_{2}}
$$

Thus, we obtain $\Delta_{3}(p)=\Delta_{1}(p)+\Delta_{2}(p)$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{s}(p)=H_{s}(p)^{t}\left[h_{s}(p) \sum(p) h_{s}(p)^{t}\right]^{-1} H_{s}(p) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Under each $H_{s}(p)=0_{l_{s}}(s=1,2,3)$, the Wald statistic $W_{s}=n \Delta_{s}(\hat{p})$ has asymptotically a chi-squared distribution with $l_{s}$ degrees of freedom. From Equation (16), we see that $W_{3}=W_{1}+W_{2}$. From the asymptotic equivalence of the Wald statistic and likelihood ratio statistic, we obtain Theorem 7.

We shall omit the proof of Theorem 8 because it is obtained in a similar way to the proof of Theorem 7.

## 4. Concluding Remarks

We have proposed the $\operatorname{DECS}(k)$ and $\operatorname{QDECS}(k)$ models, and given the three kinds of decompositions of the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model. These decompositions may be useful for seeing the reason for the poor fit of the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model when the $\operatorname{DES}(k)$ model fits the data poorly.

We point out that $G^{2}(\operatorname{DES}(k))$ is not asymptotically equivalent to the sum of $G^{2}(Q D E C S(k)), G^{2}(G S)$ and $G^{2}(\operatorname{MME}(k))$ because the sum of $G^{2}(G S)$ and $G^{2}(M M E(k))$ is not asymptotically equivalent to $G^{2}(G S M M E(k))$, however, the $G^{2}(\operatorname{DES}(k))$ is asymptotically equivalent to the sum of $G^{2}(Q D E C S(k))$ and $G^{2}(\operatorname{GSMME}(k))$ (see Theorem 8).

We note that the $\operatorname{DECS}(R-1)$ model implies the CS model, and the difference between the numbers of degrees of freedom for the $\operatorname{DECS}(R-1)$ and the CS model is $(R-1)(R-4) / 2$. The $\operatorname{DECS}(R-1)$ model is equivalent to the CS model when $R=4$.

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