國立交通大學

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碩士論文

對第一階段非線性剖面資料製程監控 之新穩健性方法

A New Robust Method Phase I Analysis for Monitoring of Nonlinear Profiles



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中華民國九十五年六月

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摘要

在很多實際情形, 製程或產品品質可以透過反應變數與一個以上解釋變數兩者 間的關係來表現更為合適, 而所蒐集的樣本資料點形成曲線形式,稱為剖面資料。 本篇論文探討監控第一階段非線性剖面資料的管制圖方法。

我們對第一階段剖面資料建立非線性迴歸模型,且為了改善偵測離群點的能力, 提出利用 Minimum Covariance Determinant (MCD) 穩健估計量及結合近年來生物統 計界盛行的 False Discovery Rate (FDR)方法來改良T²管制圖。

我們以大量模擬方法得到這兩種不同方法的製程偵測力,且將所提出的方法應用 在 Kang and Albin (2000)的人工蔗糖例子。結果顯示我們所提出的新方法表現得相當 良好,且也給了一些針對製程的各種偏移情形應使用何種方法做監控的建議。相信 未來許多產品考量的變數會越趨複雜,所以曲線型產品特性之評估也將受到重視, 而我們所提出的管制方法相信在對於相關產品上的監控可以達到一定的效果。

A New Robust Method for Phase I Monitoring of Nonlinear Profiles

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In this paper, we propose a control chart for process monitoring when the quality of a product is characterized by a nonlinear function (or profile). In the Phase I analysis of historical data, in order to improve the ability of detecting multiple outliers, we propose using a Hotelling T^2 chart based on Minimum Covariance Determinant (MCD) estimators, which are robust estimators of multivariate location and scale, in conjugation with the False Discovery Rate (FDR), which is a relatively new statistical procedure that bounds the number of mistakes made when performing multiple hypothesis tests. We apply the proposed method to a nonlinear profile example presented in Kang and Albin (2000). Simulation studies show that our methods are effective in detecting any reasonable number of outliers.

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1 Introduction

In most statistical process control (SPC) applications, it is assumed that the quality of a process or a product can be adequately represented by the distribution of a univariate quality characteristic or by the multivariate distribution of a vector consisting of several possibly correlated quality characteristics. In many practical situations, however, the quality of process or product is better characterized and summarized by a relationship between a response variable and one or more explanatory variables. Thus, for a sample, one observes a collection of data points that can be represented by a curve (or profile). In the literature, linear and nonlinear profiles are treated separately. Linear profiles are first fitted by a simple linear regression model and the estimated model parameters are used for process monitoring. In particular, most of studies conducted in monitoring linear profiles have been motivated by calibration applications. The monitoring of linear profiles is a broad topic and can be applied for a wide variety of applications. However, very little work has been done to address the monitoring of nonlinear profiles. Nonlinear profiles are often sampled and represented as high dimensional data vectors and analyzed by nonparametric regression methods, such as wavelets, splines, principle component analysis (PCA), and independent component analysis (ICA), as well as parametric methods, such us nonlinear regression analysis.

In Phase I analysis, historical observations are examined to determine whether the process was in control, to understand the variation in a process, and to estimate the incontrol parameters of the process. In contrast, the analysis of Phase II is to quickly detect shifts or changes. The vast majority of the research on control charting is on Phase II. For more discussions regarding the differences between analyses of Phase I and Phase II, one is referred to Mahmoud and Woodall (2004) and Sullivan (2002). We focus on Phase I analysis in this paper. This article investigates a strategy for Phase I analysis of nonlinear profile data. Based on the prescribed nonlinear regression model, a straightforward and classical method for process monitoring is to use a Hotelling T^2 statistic of the estimated regression parameters to construct a T^2 control chart for profiles. However, classic estimation methods will not yield appropriate control limits if there are unusual data points in the Phase I data. Robust estimation methods have a distinct advantage over classical methods in that the estimates are not unduly influenced by unusual data points. Consequently, they are more effective in detecting unusual data points, hence, the control limits constructed with these robust estimates would be more reliable. Unfortunately, robust estimation for multivariate data or profiles are not as straightforward nor as easily implemented.

Robust estimation methods have been widely used in the regression context but they have only recently been introduced to multivariate quality control applications. However, it is still not clear which robust estimators to use from previous studies (Wismowski, Simpson, and Montgomery (2002), Vargas (2003)). Some robust estimation methods, such as the minimum volume ellipsoid estimator (MVE) proposed initially by Riusseeuw (1984) and the minimum covariance determinant (MCD) estimater of Rousseuw and Van Driessen (1999), also proposed in Rousseeuw (1984), are well suited for detecting multivariate outliers or clusters of multivariate outliers because of their high breakdown points. The general idea of the breakdown point is "the smallest proportion of the observations which can render an estimator meaningless" (Rousseuw and Leroy (1987)). In other words, the breakdown point refers to the amount of "bad" data that can be present before the estimator is no longer accurate for the "good" data. The "good" data simply refers to the data that is in the majority and the "bad" data refers to the data in the minority. It is desirable to accurately determine which data are bad, if any.

In this paper we propose a new robust method for Phase I analysis of nonlinear

profile data. For monitoring the regression parameters simultaneously, we propose using a T^2 chart based on the MCD estimator in conjugation with the FDR procedure proposed by Benjamini and Hochberg (1995). The FDR procedure is a relatively new statistical procedure that bounds the number of mistakes by controlling a so-called False Discovery Rate (FDR) when performing multiple hypothesis tests. We give a brief overview of the robust estimation methods based on the MCD for Phase I application. We apply the proposed method to a nonlinear profile example given in Kang and Albin (2000).

The remaining of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives a literature review on the linear profile monitoring, nonlinear profile monitoring, and robust estimation in multivariate control charts. Section 3 presents the nonlinear regression for profiles, describes the T^2 statistic based on the MCD estimators, and sketches our example. Section 4 describes the proposed approach in details. Section 5 compares the performance of the proposed MCD/FDR method with an MCD-based control chart through a simulation study for multivariate normal data. Section 6 repeats the work in Section 5 for profile data. Section 7 concludes the paper with a brief summary and some discussions.

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2 Literature Review

In an increasing number of cases, the quality of a product or process cannot adequately be represented by the distribution of a univariate quality variable or the multivariate distribution of a vector of quality variables. Rather, a series of measurements are taken across some continuum, such as time or space, to create a profile. The profile determines the product quality at that sampling period. Woodall, Montgomery, and Gupta (2004) provided a good introduction to the concept of profile monitoring and examples of its application.

2.1 Linear Profiles

Assume that m random profile samples are available. For the jth random sample collected over time, we have the observations $(x_i, y_{ij}), j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$. For each sample, we assume that the linear regression model relating the independent variable X to the response Y is

$$y_{ij} = A_{0j} + A_{1j}x_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \ j = 1, 2, \dots, n \ and \ i = 1, 2, \dots, m,$$
 (2.1)

where ϵ_{ij} 's are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) normal random variables with mean zero and variance σ_j^2 . When the process is in statistical control, $A_{0j} = A_0$, $A_{1j} = A_1$, and $\sigma_j^2 = \sigma^2$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$. For simplicity, we assume that the X values are fixed and take the same set of values for each sample. But this assumption is not necessary. In Phase I analysis, the in-control values of the parameters, A_0 , A_1 , and σ^2 in (2.1), are unknown. To ensure an effective Phase II on-line monitoring of the process, we need to obtain good in-control regression parameter estimates in Phase I analysis.

Kang and Albin (2000) proposed two control chart methods for Phase II monitoring of linear profiles. Their first approach is a T^2 chart based on the successive vectors of the least squares estimates of the Y intercept and slope. The other approach treats the n deviations of the sample line from the in-control line as a rational subgroup and use a combination of the exponentially weighted moving average (EWMA) chart to monitor the average deviation and a range (R-) chart to monitor the variation of the deviations. Furthermore, Kang and Albin (2000) recommended their Phase II methods be used in Phase I with estimates substituted for the values of the unknown parameters. However, Kim et al. (2003) commented that this EWMA chart approach, is not appropriate in Phase I. The advantages of the EWMA chart regarding its statistical performance in Phase II to detect sustained shifts in a parameter do not apply in Phase I in which other types of shifts are often of interest. Also, quick detection is not an issue in Phase I because one is working with a fixed set of baseline data, all of which should be used in the analysis. Kang and Albin (2000) also presented two applications for which the product is characterized by a linear profile, including a semiconductor manufacturing application in which a linear calibration function is of interest.

Kim, Mahmoud, and Woodall (2003) proposed some alternative control charts for monitoring in Phase II. They recommended coding the X-values to make the least squares estimators of the Y-intercept and slope independent of each other so that the Y-intercept and slope can be monitored separately. They also recommended replacing the R chart of Kang and Albin (2000) by an EWMA chart for monitoring the process standard deviation σ . The first step of their Phase I method is to code the X values so that the average coded value is 0. Coding the X values in this way yields another form of the model (2.1), that is,

$$y_{ij} = B_{0j} + B_{1j}x'_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n \text{ and } i = 1, 2, \dots, m,$$
 (2.2)

where $B_{0j} = A_{0j} + A_{1j}\bar{x}$, $B_{1j} = A_{1j}$, and $x'_j = x_j - \bar{x}$. The second step of their method is to apply a separate EWMA control chart for each parameter in (2.2). A signal is produced as soon as any one of the three EWMA charts (for the Y-intercept, the slope, and the variation about the regression line) produces an out-of-control signal. This method provides easier interpretation of an out-of-control signal than most of other methods, because each parameter in the model is monitored using a separate control chart. This Phase II approach also leads to better average run length (ARL) performance. Furthermore, the authors also recommended applying their Phase II method in Phase I, with the three EWMA charts replaced by three Shewhart charts for monitoring the Y intercept, slope, and process standard deviation. However, they did not study the performance of this method.

Woodall and Mahmoud (2004) proposed a Phase I method based on the standard approach of testing collinearity using indicator variables for each profile in a multiple regression model. If the process appears unstable by an F test, then they recommended using individual control charts based on the sample slope and Y intercept to diagnose the source of the instability. The performances of several competing methods were compared for various sizes of shift in the regression parameters. They showed that the Phase I methods proposed by Brill (2001) and Mestek et al. (1994) are ineffective in detecting shifts of the process parameters due to the ways in which the vectors of estimators were pooled to estimate the variance-covariance matrix. In particular, they illustrated several of the Phase I methods using a calibration dataset given in Mestek et al. (1994).

There are more literature on linear profile monitoring and its application. For example, see Mestek, Pavlik, and Suchanek (1994), Stover and Brill (1998), Lawless, Mackay, and Robinson (1999), Wang and Tsung (2005), and Jensen, Birch, and Woodall (2006a).

2.2 Nonlinear Profiles

Profiles that cannot be adequately represented by a linear model are generally labeled as nonlinear profiles. As such, monitoring nonlinear profiles can be considered as a particular application of multivariate process control problems. Little research work has been done on monitoring nonlinear profiles.

Walker and Wright (2002) proposed a nonparametric approach to comparing profiles using additive models to represent the curves of interest in the monitoring of vertical density profiles (VDP) of particleboard, although they did not consider the time order of the profiles. Ding, Zeng, and Zhou (2006) proposed using nonparametric procedures to perform Phase I analysis for multivariate nonlinear profiles. The authors mentioned that the high dimensionality of profile data and data contamination present a challenge to the Phase I analysis of nonlinear profiles. The presented Phase I analysis procedure constitutes two major components: (i) a data reduction component that projects the original data into a subspace of lower dimension while preserving the data clustering structure (can be realized by the method of independent component analysis (ICA)) and (ii) a data separation technique that can detect single and multiple shifts as well as outliers in the data (can be realized by the change point detection algorithm described in Sullivan (2002)). Such models do not have a specific functional form and have no model parameters to estimate, but rather one employs smoothing techniques such as local polynomial regression or spline smoothing to model a profile. Nonparametric regression techniques provide great *flexibility* in modeling the response. One disadvantage of nonparametric smoothing methods is that the subject-specific interpretation of the estimated nonparametric curve may be more difficult, and may not lead the user to discover assignable causes for an out-of-control signal as easily as parametric regression methods.

Often, however, scientific theory or subject-matter knowledge leads to a natural nonlinear function that well describes the profiles. Hence, an alternative method is to model each profile by a nonlinear regression function. Assume that we have m profiles of data, each of which has k measurements. Let y_{ij} refer to the j^{th} measurement for the i^{th} profile. We can then fit a nonlinear regression model to each profile. A nonlinear profile of an item can be modeled by the nonlinear regression model given generally by

$$y_{ij} = f(\boldsymbol{x}_{ij}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_i) + \epsilon_{ij}, \ j = 1, 2, \dots, n \ and \ i = 1, 2, \dots, m,$$
 (2.3)

where \boldsymbol{x}_{ij} is the $k \times 1$ vector of regressors for the j^{th} observation of the i^{th} profile, ϵ_{ij} is the random error, $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$ is the $p \times 1$ vector of parameters for profile i, and $f(\cdot)$ is a function which is nonlinear in the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$. The random errors ϵ_{ij} are assumed to be *i.i.d.* normal random variables with mean zero and variance σ^2 . In many applications, there is only one regressor (k = 1), but there are multiple parameters to monitor (p > 1).

Williams, Woodall, and Birch (2003) studied the use of T^2 control charts to monitor the coefficients, β_i , of the nonlinear regression fits to the successive sets of profile data. They gave four general approaches to the formulation of the T^2 statistics and the determination of the associated upper control limits for Phase I applications. Assume that $\hat{\beta}_i$ are the parameter estimators of β_i , for $i = 1, \dots, m$. The four approaches are as in the following:

• Approach 1: Based on the sample covariance matrix.

$$T_{p,i}^{2} = (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}})' \boldsymbol{S}_{p}^{-1} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}), \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$
(2.4)

where $\overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i}$. and $\boldsymbol{S}_{p} = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}) (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}})'$.

Approach 2: Based on the successive-difference vector, v_i = β̂_{i+1}−β̂_i, i = 1,...,m−1, which was proposed originally by Hawkins and Merriam (1974) and later discussed by Holmes and Mergen (1993).

$$T_{D,i}^{2} = (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}})' \boldsymbol{S}_{D}^{-1} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}), \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$
(2.5)

where $S_D = \frac{1}{2(m-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} v_i v_i'$.

• Approach 3: Based on intra-profile pooling (IPP). Assume that $\hat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_i)$ are the estimators of the variance of $\hat{\beta}_i$, $Var(\hat{\beta}_i)$.

$$T_{IPP,i}^{2} = (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}})' \boldsymbol{S}_{IPP}^{-1} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \overline{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}), \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$
(2.6)

where $\boldsymbol{S}_{IPP} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i).$

• Approach 4: Based on the MVE estimators. Denote the MVE estimators of the coefficient vector and the covariance matrix by $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{mve}$ and \boldsymbol{S}_{mve} , respectively,

$$T_{mve,i}^2 = (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{mve})' \boldsymbol{S}_{mve}^{-1} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{mve}), \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$
(2.7)

The choice of methods primarily depends on the extent of the between-profile variation included in the common-cause variation for the application under study. The above-mentioned approaches were illustrated using the VDP profile data provided by Walker and Wright (2002). Williams, Woodall, and Ferry (2006) gave an application of nonlinear profile monitoring to dose-response data.

Jensen and Birch (2006) proposed using a nonlinear mixed model to model profiles in order to account for the correlation structure within a profile. They discussed situations where the nonlinear mixed model approach is superior to the nonlinear approach in detecting changes by simulation. They also proposed a method that supplements the approach of Williams, Woodall, and Birch (2003) with a nonlinear mixed model to improve the control chart procedure and demonstrated their method with the VDP data of Walker and Wright (2002).

2.3 Robust Estimation in Multivariate Control Chart

In most regression problems, the parameter estimators are correlated. Thus a popular procedure in the retrospective Phase I is the T^2 control chart, which is a tool to detect

multivariate outliers and shifts. To construct the T^2 chart, we need to estimate the mean vector and covariance matrix from a set of historical data. However, the presence of multiple outliers may go undetected due to their biasing effect on the estimators, which is known as the masking effect. Efforts to address this problem have focused on the robust estimation in the presence of multiple outliers, especially for the covariance matrix. A number of different researchers have studied the robust estimation in multivariate settings, for example, Rousseeuw (1984) and Rousseeuw and Leroy (1987).

The T^2 statistics based on the usual sample variance-covariance matrix estimator (denoted by T_{usu}^2) and the successive-difference variance-covariance matrix estimator (denoted by T_{dif}^2) are most commonly used for multivariate control charts. Sullivan and Woodall (1996) showed that T_{usu}^2 and T_{dif}^2 are not effective in detecting more than a very small number of outliers. Sullivan and Woodall (1996) and Vargas (2003) both showed that T_{dif}^2 is effective in detecting both sustained step and ramp shifts in the mean vector. Sullivan and Woodall (1996) found not only that T_{usu}^2 is less effective in detecting a shift in the mean vector, but also that the power to detect the shift decreases as the magnitude of the shift increases. They found that T_{usu}^2 has the effect of "pooling" the data all together such that a large step shift "inflates" the variance, thus making detection of the shift difficult.

Vargas (2003) and Jensen, Birch, and Woodall (2005) studied that the T^2 statistics based on high-breakdown estimators, such as the MVE and MCD methods of Rousseeuw (1984) (denoted respectively by T^2_{mve} and T^2_{mcd}), are excellent in detecting multiple outliers for Phase I. Jensen, Birch, and Woodall (2005) further investigated the more advantageous situations of the MVE and MCD estimators for certain combinations of the sample size and the number of outliers present for multivariate Phase I applications. The MVE estimator is preferred for smaller sample sizes and a smaller percentage of outliers while the MCD estimator is preferred for larger sample sizes and/or large percentages of outliers. The simulations and generated control limits presented there give useful guidelines about the situations for which the high-breakdown approach is most appropriate. Jensen, Birch, and Woodall (2005) discussed some properties of the MVE and MCD methods along with their computing algorithms.

The distributions of the exact MCD and MVE estimators of location and scale are not known in closed form. However, the asymptotic distributions of the MVE and MCD estimators can be derived. Davies (1992) showed that the exact MVE estimators of location and scale are consistent for the mean vector and covariance matrix respectively provided that the random error vectors are *i.i.d.* Similar results were given in Butler, Davies, and Jhun (1993) for the exact MCD estimators. However, the MCD estimators converge to their population counterparts at a rate of $n^{-1/2}$ while the MVE estimators converge at a slower rate of $n^{-1/3}$, thus the MCD estimators are more efficient. In addition, the distribution of the MCD estimator of location converges to a normal distribution, which is not necessarily the case for the MVE estimator of location. Thus, the asymptotic properties of the MCD estimators are superior to those of the MVE estimators. Davies (1997) and Butler, Davies, and Jhun (1993) also indicated that the asymptotic distributions of the T_{mve}^2 and T_{mcd}^2 statistics converge in distribution to a χ_p^2 distribution for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Hardin and Rocke (2005) provided an improved F approximation of the MCD estimator that gives accurate outlier rejection points for various sample sizes. So it may be useful to study the use of approximate control limits which are much simpler to obtain than those obtained via simulation. They believed that it is likely that large sample sizes are needed for the χ_p^2 approximation to be sufficiently accurate.

The hybrid algorithm of Rocke and Woodruff (1996) is a combination of the data partitioning methods of Woodruff and Rocke (1994), the FSA algorithm involving the MCD from Hawkins (1994), and M-estimation. This hybrid algorithm is very effective in detecting a larger percentage of outliers. Rousseeuw and Van Driessen (1999) proposed an algorithm, which they called the FAST-MCD, that is based on an iterative scheme and the MCD estimators. The FAST-MCD method is able to handle large data sets within a reasonable amount of time.

In Section 4, we give a brief overview of various robust estimation methods based on the MCD method for multivariate Phase I application. In addition to using the MCD estimators in the T^2 statistic, with an attempt to enhance the detecting power of the control chart, we use the FDR procedure proposed by Benjamini and Hochberg (1995) for determing outliers in the data set. The proposed scheme is compared with the MCD-based T^2 control chart in Sections 5 and 6.



3 Modeling Nonlinear Profiles

3.1 Nonlinear Regression Model

Assume that there are sample profiles in the historical data for Phase I analysis. For each sample *i* we observe the response variable y_{ij} and a set of predictor variables x_{ij} (k = 1), $j = 1, \dots, n, i = 1, \dots, m$. We present the nonlinear regression model (2.3) in matrix form as follows by placing the observations $\{(y_{ij}, x_{ij}), j = 1, \dots, n\}$ in rows. Let the response matrix be

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}'_{1} \\ \mathbf{y}'_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}'_{m} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} & \cdots & y_{1n} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} & \cdots & y_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{m1} & y_{m2} & \cdots & y_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.1)

and the covariate matrix be

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{x}'_{1} \\ \boldsymbol{x}'_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{x}'_{m} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{x}_{11} & \boldsymbol{x}_{12} & \dots & \boldsymbol{x}_{1n} \\ \boldsymbol{x}_{21} & \boldsymbol{x}_{22} & \dots & \boldsymbol{x}_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{x}_{m1} & \boldsymbol{x}_{m2} & \dots & \boldsymbol{x}_{mn} \end{bmatrix}.$$
(3.2)
$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta}'_{1} \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}'_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}'_{m} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{11} & \boldsymbol{\beta}_{12} & \dots & \boldsymbol{\beta}_{1p} \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_{21} & \boldsymbol{\beta}_{22} & \dots & \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_{m1} & \boldsymbol{\beta}_{m2} & \dots & \boldsymbol{\beta}_{mp} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.3)

Also,

is the parameter matrix, where β_i is the $p \times 1$ vector to be estimated for profile *i*, and

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{1}' \\ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{2}' \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{m}' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{11} & \epsilon_{12} & \dots & \epsilon_{1n} \\ \epsilon_{21} & \epsilon_{22} & \dots & \epsilon_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \epsilon_{m1} & \epsilon_{m2} & \dots & \epsilon_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.4)

is the random error matrix, where ϵ_{ij} are assumed to be *i.i.d* normal random variables with mean zero and variance σ^2 .

To simplicity notation, we rewrite the form in (2.3) by stacking the *n* observations within each profile as $\mathbf{y}_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \dots, y_{in})', \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}_i) = (f(x_{i1}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_i), f(x_{i2}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_i), \dots, f(x_{in}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_i))',$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i = (\epsilon_{i1}, \epsilon_{i2}, \dots, \epsilon_{in})'$. The vector form is then given by

$$\boldsymbol{y}_i = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}_i) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$
(3.5)

For the nonlinear regression model given in (3,5), we first must obtain the estimate of β_i for each profile. This is usually accomplished by employing the Gauss-Newton procedure and iterating until convergence to obtain the least squares estimates. Define the $n \times p$ matrix of the derivatives of $f(x_i, \beta_i)$ with respect to β_i as

$$\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i})(=\boldsymbol{F}_{i}) = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i},\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{i1},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{i1}} & \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{i1},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{i2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{i1},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{ip}} \\ \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{i2},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{i1}} & \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{i2},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{i2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{i2},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{ip}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{in},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{i1}} & \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{in},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{i2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_{in},\beta_{i})}{\partial \beta_{ip}} \end{bmatrix}.$$
(3.6)

Let $\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^{(a)}) = (f(x_{i1}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^{(a)}), f(x_{i2}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^{(a)}), \cdots, f(x_{in}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^{(a)}))'$, where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^{(a)}$ is the estimator of $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$ at iteration a, and let $\boldsymbol{F}_i^{(a)}$ be the matrix of derivatives given in (3.6) evaluated at $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^{(a)}$. Then an iterative solution for $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i$ is given by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i}^{(a+1)} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i}^{(a)} + (\hat{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i}^{\prime(a)} \hat{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i}^{(a)})^{-1} \hat{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i}^{\prime(a)} (\boldsymbol{y}_{i} - f(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i}^{(a)})).$$
(3.7)

See Myers (1990, Chapter 9) or Schabenberger and Pierce (2002, Chapter 5) for a concise discussion of nonlinear regression model estimation. A more detailed treatment can be found in Gallant (1987) or Seber and Wild (2003).

Unlike linear regression, the small-sample distribution of parameter estimators in nonlinear regression is unobtainable, even when the errors ϵ_{ij} are assumed to be *i.i.d.* normal random variables. Let $F(\hat{\beta}_i)(=\hat{F}_i)$ be the derivative matrix in (3.6) evaluated at the parameter vector estimate $\hat{\beta}_i$. Seber and Wild (2003, Chapter 12) gave the asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\beta}_i$ as well as the necessary assumptions and regularity conditions needed for it. Since the following assumptions and regularity conditions

- 1. The ϵ_{ij} are *i.i.d.* with mean zero and variance σ^2 .
- 2. For each i, $f(x_i, \beta_i^*)$ is a continuous function of β_i^* for $\beta_i^* \in B$, where B is a closed, bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^p .
- 3. β_i is an interior point of **B**. Let B^* be an open neighborhood of **B**.
- 4. The first and second derivatives, $\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^*)}{\partial \beta_{ir}^*}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^*)}{\partial \beta_{ir}^*\partial \beta_{is}^*}$ $(r, s = 1, 2, \dots, p)$, exist and are continuous for $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^*$ for all $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^* \in \boldsymbol{B}^*$.
- 5. $n^{-1} \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^*)' \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^*)$ converges to some matrix $\boldsymbol{\Omega}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^*)$ uniformly in $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^*$ for $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i^* \in \boldsymbol{B}^*$.
- 6. $n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\frac{\partial^{2} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i},\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i}^{*})}{\partial \beta_{ir}^{*}\partial \beta_{is}^{*}} \right]^{2}$ converges uniformly in $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i}^{*}$ for $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i}^{*} \in \boldsymbol{B}^{*}$. 7. $\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i} = \boldsymbol{\Omega}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i})$ is nonsingular. hold, the asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i}$ is given by $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i}) \longrightarrow N_{p}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^{2}\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i}^{-1}).$ (3.8)

Also $n^{-1} \hat{F}'_i \hat{F}_i$ is a strongly consistent estimator of Ω_i . For practical purposes, the distribution given by (3.8) can not be calculated since the matrix Ω_i is unknown. Instead, the following approximate asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\beta}_i$ is commonly used:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i \approx N_p(\boldsymbol{\beta}_i, \sigma^2 (\boldsymbol{F}_i' \boldsymbol{F}_i)^{-1}).$$
(3.9)

For the "in-control" case, we have $\beta_i = \beta$ for all m samples, where β is the in-control parameter vector. Accordingly, the Ω_i (and F_i) matrices are the same for all m profiles if all profiles have the same underlying function, f, the same x-values, and the same values of β_i . However, the \hat{F}_i matrices are not equal since the $\hat{\beta}_i$ values vary from profile to profile.

3.2 Constructing the T_{mcd}^2 Statistic

In order to develop the methodology for monitoring nonlinear profiles, we first consider the general framework of the Hotelling T^2 statistic. Given a sample of m independent observation vectors, \boldsymbol{w}_i $(i = 1, \dots, m)$, each of dimension p, and assuming that each of the \boldsymbol{w}_i vectors follows a multivariate normal distribution with common mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, the general form of the T^2 statistic is

$$T_i^2 = (\boldsymbol{w}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{w}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}), \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$
(3.10)

Because μ and Σ are not known, they are replaced with appropriate estimators in (3.10). We then can plot the T_i^2 statistics, $i = 1, \dots, m$, against i in a T^2 control chart, and outof-control signals will be given for any T_i^2 value exceeding the upper control limit (UCL) (Mason and Young (2002), Chapter 2).

In the nonlinear regression model (3.5), β_i is a $p \times 1$ vector of parameters that determines the curve $f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}_i)$. For the purpose of checking the assumption $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i = \boldsymbol{\beta}, i = 1, \dots, m$, we can utilize the T^2 statistic to assess the stability of the p parameters simultaneously. Note that we cannot monitor each parameter separately since the components of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i$ are usually correlated in nonlinear regression. We remark that statistics (2.4)-(2.7) are all in form of (3.10).

The robust version of the T^2 statistics considered in the paper are based on the MCD estimator. The main reason we choose the MCD method is because the MCD estimateors outperform the others in terms of statistical efficiency and computing speed. See, for example, Rouesseeuw and Driessen (1999), Rouesseeuw, Aelst, Driessen, and Agullo (2004), Jensen, Birch, and Woodall (2005), and Hardin and Rocke (2005). Another reason is that the MCD algorithm can deal with large sample sizes. The MCD-based T^2 statistic for the i^{th} profile is

$$T_{mcd,i}^{2} = (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{mcd})' \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd}^{-1} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{mcd}), \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$
(3.11)

where $\hat{\mu}_{mcd}$ is the MCD location estimator and S_{mcd} is the MCD estimator of the covariance matrix. In the next section we discuss the MCD estimators in more detail and describe how to calculate them.

3.3 Aspartame Example

We use the aspartame example presented in Kang and Albin (2000) to study the proposed method. We model each profile by a three-parameters nonlinear model as follows. Let xvalues be 0.56, 0.64, ..., 3.92 (n = 43) and all m samples have the same x values. When the process is in statistical control, the underlying model is

$$y_{ij} = f(x_j, \beta_i) + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(3.12)
$$= I_i + M_i e^{-N_i (x_j - 1)^2} + \epsilon_{ij}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, 43, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m,$$

where $\beta_i = \begin{pmatrix} I_i \\ M_i \\ N_i \end{pmatrix}$ has the mean vector $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 15 \\ 1.5 \end{pmatrix}$ and the covariance matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$,

and ϵ_{ij} are *i.i.d* normal random variables with mean zero and variance 1.

4 Methodologies

In this paper, we propose a profile monitoring scheme which involves first a preprocessing step of the nonlinear regression estimation, then use the parameter estimates to compute a robust T^2 statistic, and finally apply the FDR procedure to identify out-of-control samples. To avoid the estimation error get in the way of understanding the effectiveness of the outlieridentification steps, we only consider multivariate data instead of profile data in Sections 4 and 5.

4.1 The T^2_{mcd} Control Chart

Consider a dataset $\mathbf{Z}^{(m)} = {\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \dots, \mathbf{z}_m}$ of *p*-variate observations. Intuitively, by its name, an outlier should lie outside of the majority of the samples. To prevent outliers from skewing the estimators, the MCD estimator is computed from the closest samples of size *h*. To prevent outliers from skewing the estimators, the MCD method looks for a subset of $\mathbf{Z}^{(m)}$ with size *h*, say $\mathbf{Z}^{(h)}$, whose covariance matrix has the smallest determinant, where $[m/2] \leq h \leq m$. The MCD estimator of location is then the average of these *h* points, $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full} = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{j=1}^{h} \mathbf{z}_j$, and the MCD estimator of scale is the sample covariance matrix, defined by $\mathbf{S}_{full} = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{j=1}^{h} (\mathbf{z}_j - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full}) (\mathbf{z}_j - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full})'$.

The value of h is chosen in order to ensure that the h samples selected by the MCD method will not contain any outliers. Thus, we need only check the remaining m - h samples, called the outlying group by Hardin and Rocke (2005), to identify the outliers. Let $m_1 = m - h$. Then the m_1 outlying T_{mcd}^2 statistics are computed with $\hat{\mu}_{mcd}$ and S_{mcd} estimated from the h selected samples. Later, we also use the m_1 outlying T_{mcd}^2 statistics to calculate the corresponding p-values for the FDR method. Two common choices for h are $h = [(m + p + 1)/2] \approx m/2$, which yields the highest possible breakdown value, and $h \approx 3m/4$. We will compare these two choices in our simulation study.

Rousseeuw and Van Driessen (1999) proposed an improved algorithm called the FAST-MCD algorithm. Its basic ideas are an inequality involving order statistics and determinants, and techniques which they called *selective iteration* and *nested extensions*. For small datasets, the FAST-MCD algorithm typically finds the exact MCD, whereas for larger datasets it gives more accurate results than existing algorithms and is faster by orders of magnitude. Moreover, the FAST-MCD algorithm has been implemented and is available in MATLAB.

We study the following three types of the MCD estimators:

1. The original estimators:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{mcd1} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full}, \quad \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd1} = \boldsymbol{S}_{full}. \tag{4.1}$$

2. Since S_{full} is biased (Croux and Haesbroeck (1999) and Rousseeuw and Van Deiessen (1999)), consider the following bias-corrected estimators:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{mcd2} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full}, \quad \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd2} = \frac{d_{(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full}, \boldsymbol{S}_{full})}^{2(\gamma)}}{\chi_{p,\gamma}^2} \boldsymbol{S}_{full}, \quad (4.2)$$

where $d_{(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full},\boldsymbol{S}_{full})}^{2(\gamma)}$ is the γ^{th} sample quantile of $\{(\boldsymbol{z}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full})'\boldsymbol{S}_{full}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{z}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full}), i = 1, 2, \ldots, m\}$ and $\chi^2_{p,\gamma}$ is the γ^{th} quantile of the chi-square distribution with degree of freedom p. Note that $\gamma = h/m$ here. We remark that this de-biasing approach is implemented in MATLAB for the MCD method.

3. The MCD estimators defined by Croux and Haesbroeck (1999):

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{mcd3} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{full}, \quad \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd3} = c_{\gamma} \boldsymbol{S}_{full}, \tag{4.3}$$

where c_{γ} is a constant, which can be chosen in such a way that consistency will be obtained at the specified model $F_{\mu,\Sigma}$ with density $f_{\mu,\Sigma}(z) = \frac{g((z-\mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(z-\mu))}{\sqrt{(det(\Sigma))}}$. The

function g is assumed to be known and to have a negative derivative g', so that $F_{\mu,\Sigma}$ belongs to a parametric class of elliptically symmetric, unimodal distributions. They have shown that for this distribution the MCD-problem has a unique solution given by the ellipsoid $\mathbf{A}(F_{\mu,\Sigma}) = \{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{R}^p | (\mathbf{z} - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{z} - \mu) \leq q_\gamma \}$, where $\mathbf{Z} = F_{\mathbf{0},\mathbf{I}}$, $q_\gamma = G^{-1}(1-\gamma)$ and $G(t) = P_{F_{0,\mathbf{I}}}(\mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{Z} \leq t)$ to obtain c_γ . To obtain Fisher-consistency at this model, it suffices to set

$$c_{\gamma} = (1 - \gamma) \left[\frac{\pi^{p/2}}{\Gamma(p/2 + 1)} \int_{0}^{\sqrt{q_{\gamma}}} r^{p+1} g(r^2) dr \right]^{-1}.$$
 (4.4)

Table 1 gives several values of the constants c_{γ} for different values of p and γ at the normal model and also can be used in this paper.

The purpose of the constants c_{γ} is to make the MCD estimators consistent. In fact, the MCD method based on any of the MCD estimators that only differ by a constant behaves exactly the same in terms of selecting the subset of size h for the robustness purpose. Thus \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd3} has the same effect as \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd1} in detecting the outliers with our methods. We use the \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd1} and \boldsymbol{S}_{mcd2} for the simulation studies in the paper.

Jensen, Birch, and Woodall (2005) showed the distribution of T^2_{mcd} converges in distribution to a χ^2_p distribution as $m \to \infty$. However, the asymptotic convergence is very slow, and using $\chi^2_{p,\alpha}$ as the cutoff point will often lead to identifying too many points as outliers. In Sections 5, a comprehensive simulation study allows us to determine a suitable control limit for the T^2_{mcd} control chart.

4.2 The FDR Procedure

Considering Phase I analysis as a multiple testing problem, we can employ the FDR procedure to select outliers, with an attempt to have better detecting power.

The FDR, suggested by Benjamini and Hochberg (1995), is a new and different view

Table 1: Particular Values of c_{γ} at the Normal Model from Croux and Haesbroeck (1998)

γ	p = 2	p = 3	p = 5
0.5	3.259	2.457	1.912
0.75	1.859	1.609	1.412

Table 2: Possible outcomes from m hypothesis tests

	Accept null	Reject null	Total
Null true	$m_0 - R_0$	R_0	m_0
Alternative true	$m_1 - R_1$	R_1	m_1
Total	m-R	R	m

of how the errors in multiple testing could be considered. Table 2 summaries the numbers of four possible outcomes in m hypothesis tests.

The proportion of errors committed by falsely rejecting null hypotheses can be viewed through the random variable $Q = R_0/R$, i.e., the proportion of the rejected null hypotheses which are erroneously rejected. Naturally, define Q = 0 when $R_0 + R_1 = 0$, as no error of false rejection can be committed. Define the FDR to be E(Q), the expected proportion of erroneous rejections among all rejections.

The FDR procedure in Benjamini and Hochberg (1995) works as follows. Assume that, of the *m* hypotheses tested $\{H_1^0, H_2^0, \ldots, H_m^0\}$, m_0 are true null hypotheses, but the number and identity of which are unknown. The other m_1 hypotheses are false. Denote the corresponding *m* test statistics by $\{T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_m\}$ and their p-values under null hypothesis by $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_m\}$. Let $p_{(1)} \leq p_{(2)} \leq \ldots \leq p_{(m)}$ be the ordered observed p-value. Define $k = max\{i : p_{(i)} \leq \frac{i}{m}\alpha\}$. Reject the null hypotheses corresponding to the $p_{(1)}, \ldots, p_{(k)}$, if *k* exists. If no p-values satisfy this inequality, reject no hypothesis.

Benjamini and Hochberg (1995) proved that for independent test statistics and any

configuration of false null hypotheses, the above procedure controls the false discovery rate E(Q) at α . They also remarked that the independence of the test statistics corresponding to the false null hypotheses is not needed for the proof of the Theorem (See Benjamini and Hochberg (1995)).

Recall the MCD method has divided the m samples into a likely-in-control group of size h and an outlying group of size m - h that may contain all outliers. Thus, for practical implementation, we need only apply the FDR procedure to the group containing outliers. In the next section, we describe and compare two monitoring schemes, one based on the T_{mcd}^2 control chart and the other based on the FDR procedure.



5 Monitoring Schemes

To study and compare the FDR method and the T_{mcd}^2 control chart. We generate β_i directly from the multivariate normal distribution so that the estimation error of the nonlinear regression will not get in the way. For the profile monitoring, we leave it to Section 6.

All the computations are conducted in the MATLAB 7 environment, because the MCD method and the nonlinear regression have been incorporated into MATLAB 7.

5.1 Control Limit

If the sample size of the Phase I data is large that we may simply construct the control limits by the asymptotic distribution of T_{mcd}^2 . However, the sample size is usually not large enough and the exact distributions are not available, so we will construct the control limits by Monte Carlo simulation. For this purpose, without loss of generality, we can assume that the in-control distribution of $\hat{\beta}_i$ is the standard multivariate normal distribution $N_p(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. Generate 200,000 sets of random samples of size m from $N_p(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. Apply the MCD method to each set of m samples, compute the T_{mcd}^2 statistic for each sample in the set and record the maximum value attained. For controlling the overall false-alarm rate of the dataset at, say, 5% level, set the control limit at the 95th percentile of the 200,000 maximum values.

Due to the invariance of the T_{mcd}^2 statistic, the control limit constructed as above can be applicable for any value of μ and Σ . The MCD estimators, S_{mcd1} and S_{mcd2} , described in Subsection 4.1 are considered. As an example, Table 3 gives the T_{mcd}^2 control limits for p = 3, m = 30, 50, 100, and h = 0.75m, 0.5m.

h	m	S_{mcd1}	S_{mcd2}
	30	45.8104	112.5561
0.75m	50	27.2573	66.9208
	100	17.0788	41.9627
	30	27.5203	44.2802
0.5m	50	20.3215	32.2496
	100	16.2190	26.0964

Table 3: T_{mcd}^2 Control Limits for p = 3 when the overall false-alarm rate is set at 0.05 level.

Table 4: The overall false-alarm rate of the FDR method and the T_{mcd}^2 control chart (estimated with 10,000 replications).

		S_{mcd1}		S_m	ncd2			
h	m	FDR	T_{mcd}^2	FDR	T_{mcd}^2			
	30	0.0493	0.0522	0.0474	0.512			
0.75m	50	0.0484	0.0497	0.0493	0.486			
	100	0.0550	0.0563	0.0517	0.0533			
	30	0.0428	0.0503	0.0413	0.0485			
0.5m	50	0.0420	0.0463	0.0409	0.0503			
	100	0.0447	0.0492	0.0473	0.0485			
		100	1122					

Table 4 gives the estimated overall false-alarm rates for the two control schemes based on 10,000 replications. Note that these values are fairly close to the nominal value 0.05, except for the values of the FDR method under h = 0.5m where the FDR method produces fewer false alarms than it is designed to. Thus, h = 0.5m is not recommended for the FDR method. Using \mathbf{S}_{mcd1} or \mathbf{S}_{mcd2} does not show much difference. We choose \mathbf{S}_{mcd2} for the subsequent simulations in this study simply because the computer program is conveniently available in MATLAB.

5.2 Data Generation

For our simulation study, we consider the case of p = 3 in correspondence with the nonlinear regression model that we use for the aspartame example. Once the control limits is set, generate m random samples from the 3-variate normal distribution,

$$\boldsymbol{\beta_i} \sim N_3(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}), \ i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, m.$$

Among the *m* samples, *k* random samples are generated from the out-of-control distribution, while the other (m-k) samples are generated from the in-control distribution. The in-control distribution is a multivariate normal with $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = I$. The out-of-control distribution has the same variance-covariance matrix but the mean vector is from $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ to $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$. The size of the shift can be quantified by the non-centrality parameter (ncp) defined by

$$(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}).$$
 (5.1)

Consider k = 1, 3, 5, 7, and 10 outliers. The k outliers are assigned to the $(3 \times i)^{th}$ sample for i from 1 to k. For example, when k = 3, we put outliers at the $3^{th}, 6^{th}, 9^{th}$ samples.

We generate 10,000 sets of m random samples for each combination of k = 1, 3, 5, 7, 10and m = 30, 50, 100.

5.3 P-value of the Sample

For each combination of k and m as given above, 200,000 datasets are generated from the in-control distribution $N_p(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. Each set of data is divided into the likely-in-control group of m_0 samples and the outlying group of m_1 samples. Since we only check the m_1 samples in the outlying group selected by the MCD method for outlier screening in Phase I analysis, it is more natural to pool the $m_1 \times 200,000$ samples to approximate the population of the T_{mcd}^2 statistic. Since the p-value of any observed T_{mcd}^2 statistic is simply the probability that the random variable T_{mcd}^2 exceeds the observed T_{mcd}^2 value, the p-value of any observed T_{mcd}^2 is estimated by the proportion of the $m_1 \times 200,000 \ T_{mcd}^2$ values greater than the observed T_{mcd}^2 .

5.4 The Signal Probability

In order to evaluate the performance of the methods, an extensive simulation study is conducted. The evaluation criterion commonly used in the literature is the signal probabilities , which is defined as the probability that at least a sample signals out-of-control among the *m* samples. That is, the signal probability is defined as $P(R \ge 1)$. As shown in Sullivan and Woodall (1996), the larger the value of the non-centrality parameter (ncp) is, the more extreme the outliers are. To estimate the signal probability, for each control scheme, we generate 10,000 independent datasets of *m* random samples for each situation considered. The proportion of the datasets that have at least one T^2_{mcd} statistic greater than the control limit. Similarly, the signal probability of the FDR approach is estimated by the proportion of the datasets that have at least one sample rejected by the FDR procedure.

5.5 False-Rejection Rate and Correct-Rejection Rate

One of the goals of Phase I monitoring is to identify in-control samples so that the estimated control limits are sufficiently accurate for Phase II monitoring. However, the signal probability cannot distinguish a control scheme that can detect more outliers or commit less false alarms from other schemes. Let R_1 be the number of the outliers detected in the k outliers and R_0 be the number of the falsely rejected samples in the m-k in-control samples. Define the false-rejection rate by

$$FRR = E(\frac{R_0}{m-k}) \tag{5.2}$$

and the correct-rejection rate by

$$CRR = E(\frac{R_1}{k}). \tag{5.3}$$

Note that FRR is similar to the Type I error probability and CRR is similar to the power of the hypothesis testing.

We estimate the FRR and CRR by averaging their sample counterparts of the simulated 10,000 datasets.

5.6 Results

Table 5 gives the results for all combinations of m, k and ncp. " FRR_{FDR} ", " CRR_{FDR} ", and " SP_{FDR} " denotes respectively the estimates of FRR, CRR, and the signal probability of the FDR method. If the values are obtained with the T^2_{mcd} control chart, replace the subscript "FDR" by "UCL". " Δ " denotes the difference of the values between the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} control chart.

From Table 5, when there are outliers, we see that the detecting power (CRR) of the FDR procedure is better than that of the T^2_{mcd} control chart, while the false-alarm proportion (FRR) of the FDR procedure is slightly larger than that of the T^2_{mcd} control chart. When there are no outliers, the false-alarm proportion of the FDR procedure is smaller than that of the T^2_{mcd} control chart.

The simulation results with β_i generated directly from the multivariate normal distribution are given in Table 6 for m=30, 50, 100 under p = 3 and ncp = 49. We find the FDR method is better than the T_{mcd}^2 control chart in terms of the CRR value and the signal probability, and the advantage increases as the number outliers increases, especially for the CRR value. The CRR values for k = 1, 3, 5, 7, 10 are shown in Figures 2-4, in which the differences are evident. In the figures, the symbols " + " and "*" denote 0.75m and 0.5m, respectively, and the solid line is for the FDR method and the dotted line is for the T_{mcd}^2 control chart.

From the simulation results, we also find that when choosing h = 0.75m to calculate the T_{mcd}^2 statistics, the control schemes not only are more powerful (CRR) but also have fewer false alarms (FRR) than when choosing h = 0.5m. But when the number of outliers is larger than 0.75m, choosing 0.75m is worse than choosing 0.5m because the MCD estimators are contaminated by outliers. For example, from Figure 2, the CRR value of 0.75m is worse than that of 0.5m when the number of outliers k is larger than 7.



6 Profile Monitoring – Aspartame Example

6.1 A Simulation Study

In this section, to study the effectiveness of two methods with profiles, we analyze the hypothetical aspartame example with model (3.12) given in Subsection 3.3. Figure 1 shows four aspartame profiles generated from model (3.12). The in-control mean vector and the covariance matrix of β_i in the model (3.12) is

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i} \sim N_{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 15 \\ 1.5 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{I}^{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{M}^{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{N}^{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}).$$

Based on model (3.12), we generate the m - k in-control profiles with β_i from the in-control multivariate normal distribution. The k out-control profiles are generated from the out-of-control multivariate normal distribution, where the mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is shifted to consider the $\boldsymbol{\mu}_I$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_M$ or $\boldsymbol{\mu}_N$. Consider $\boldsymbol{\mu}_I = (1 + 5\sigma_I, 15, 1.5)'$ with ncp = 25 or $(1 + 7\sigma_I, 15, 1.5)'$ with ncp = 49, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_M = (1, 15 + 5\sigma_M, 1.5)'$ with ncp = 25 or $(1, 15 + 7\sigma_M, 1.5)'$ with ncp = 49, and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_N = (1, 15, 1.5 + 5\sigma_N)'$ with ncp = 25 or $(1, 15, 1.5 + 7\sigma_N)'$ with ncp = 49.

Our strategy is first to estimate for each profile data the parameter vector in the nonlinear regression model (3.12) with MATLAB. Second, we use the FDR method and the T_{mcd}^2 control chart to monitor the estimates as discussed in the last section. We choose an overall false-alarm probability $\alpha = 0.05$, for which the control limits have been provided in Section 5.1.

From Table 5, we observe that the FRR values are very small for both monitoring schemes, which indicates that both methods seldom reject in-control samples. To save space, the FRR values of the simulation results are omitted. Table 6 compares the FDR method with T_{mcd}^2 control chart in terms of CRR and the signal probability for the case in which β_i ,

i = 1, 2, ..., m are generated directly from the multivariate normal distribution. We present in Tables 7-12 the CRR values and the signal probabilities of the FDR method and the T_{mcd}^2 control chart for all combinations of k = 1, 3, 5, 7, 10 and m = 30, 50, 100 with three shifted mean vectors, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_I$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_M$, and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_N$ (two shift sizes each), respectively.

6.2 Results

Comparing the results in Tables 10-12 (ncp = 49) with that in Table 6, we observe that the CRR values with β_i estimated from profiles are both larger than the values with β_i generated directly from the multivariate normal distribution. This indicates that the methods become more sensitive in rejecting samples, i.e., higher detecting power but higher false-alarm rate as well. This may be caused by the estimation error incurred in the non-linear regression.

From Tables 6-12, we see that the power of the FDR method are uniformly better than that of the T_{mcd}^2 control chart in terms of the CRR or SP values. Also, we recommend choosing h = 0.75m to estimate S_{mcd} for the T_{mcd}^2 statistics as long as the percentage of the outliers is less than 25%. We also observe that the advantage of using the FDR procedure increases as the number of the outliers k outliers increases (with the restriction that k should not exceed the (1 - k/m) level).

Figures 5-22 summarize the CRR results for the various combinations of h, m, k, and the shifted mean vectors $\boldsymbol{\mu}_I$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_M$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_N$, with which we can compare the performance of the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} control chart easily. They also show that the difference between the two monitoring schemes are eminent.

7 Conclusions

Profile monitoring is a rich and promising area of research. In this paper, we propose a monitoring scheme for nonlinear profiles based on a robust T^2 statistic and the FDR procedure. We consider a nonlinear regression model for profiles with random parameter vector β_i . First, we use the nonlinear regression procedure implemented in MATLAB to estimate the parameter vector of the model for each profile. Then, the estimated parameter vectors can be monitored using the T^2_{mcd} control chart, a robust T^2 chart. To improve the detecting power, the FDR procedure can be employed. Simulation studies show that the proposed FDR scheme outperforms the T^2_{mcd} control chart.

The estimator vector β_i follows approximately a multivariate normal distribution. So, skipping the nonlinear regression estimation step, we first study the performance of the T_{mcd}^2 control chart and the FDR procedure with β_i generated directly from a multivariate normal distribution. We investigate the effects of m, h, k, and ncp on the performance of the methods. The effects of m and ncp is as expected in the intuitive sense. As expected, the advantage of the FDR procedure increases as k increases, except that k can not exceed the number of samples in the outlying group designed in the MCD procedure. As to h, choosing 0.75m is better than choosing 0.5m with the FDR method and the T_{mcd}^2 control chart, when the dataset contains less than 25% outliers, h = 0.75m may be a good compromise between the breakdown value and the statistical efficiency.

As to profile monitoring, we apply the monitoring schemes to a hypothetical example mimicing the aspartame example given Kang and Albin (2000). We shift the nonlinear parameter mean vectors to $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{I}$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{M}$, and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{N}$ with various shift sizes. The conclusions about the proposed methods are similar to that for monitoring multivariate quality characteristic as described above. We also compare the $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{i}$ estimated from profiles to the parameter vector β_i generated directly from the multivariate normal distribution with the same monitoring schemes proposed in this paper. The monitoring schemes tend to reject more samples when β_i is estimated by nonlinear regression.

This study extends the framework of statistical process control to more applications. The idea of controlling the False Discovery Rate can be used in the Phase I control chart or any applications involving multiple tests. We believe it can be useful in many applications.



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	(k, ncp)	(0,0)	(3,9)	(3,25)	(3, 49)	(5,9)	(5,25)	(5, 49)
	m =	30						
(0.75m)	FRR_{FDR}	0.0022	0.0010	0.0009	0.0011	0.0006	0.0003	0.0002
	FRR_{UCL}	0.0080	0.0007	0.0003	0.0002	0.0005	0.0001	0.0001
	CRR_{FDR}	0.0000	0.0618	0.3901	0.8512	0.0224	0.2277	0.9107
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0000	0.0529	0.3090	0.7568	0.0016	0.1708	0.8461
(0.5m)	FRR_{FDR}	0.0025	0.0018	0.0019	0.0017	0.0011	0.0008	0.0012
	FRR_{UCL}	0.0143	0.0011	0.0006	0.0005	0.0008	0.0002	0.0002
	CRR_{FDR}	0.0000	0.0398	0.2072	0.4983	0.0241	0.1680	0.5759
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0000	0.0356	0.1734	0.4286	0.0175	0.1135	0.4970
	m =	50						
(0.75m)	FRR_{FDR}	0.0012	0.0008	0.0009	0.0015	0.0004	0.0007	0.0012
	FRR_{UCL}	0.0072	0.0005	0.0002	0.0003	0.0003	0.0001	0.0002
	CRR_{FDR}	0.0000	0.0809	0.5414	0.9475	0.0486	0.5213	0.9643
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0000	0.0704	0.4481	0.8929	0.0371	0.3635	0.8815
(0.5m)	FRR_{FDR}	0.0014	0.0012	0.0013	0.0017	0.0007	0.0011	0.0017
	FRR_{UCL}	0.0141	0.0007	0.0005	0.0005	0.0004	0.0003	0.0003
	CRR_{FDR}	0.0000	0.0463	0.2754	0.6376	0.0359	0.2798	0.6838
	CRR_{FDR}	0.0000	0.0423	0.2339	0.5616	0.0280	0.1985	0.5220
	m = 1	100						
(0.75m)	FRR_{FDR}	0.0006	0.0006	0.0012	0.0012	0.0004	0.0011	0.0016
	FRR_{UCL}	0.0070	0.0004	0.0003	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002	0.0002
	CRR_{FDR}	0.0000	0.1013	0.6745	0.9863	0.0807	0.7003	0.9915
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0000	0.0875	0.5844	0.9675	0.0649	0.5466	0.9649
(0.5m)	DRR_{FDR}	0.0007	0.0008	0.0011	0.0014	0.0006	0.0011	0.0017
	FRR_{UCL}	0.0138	0.0005	0.0004	0.0004	0.0003	0.0003	0.0003
	CRR_{FDR}	0.0000	0.0555	0.3864	0.8198	0.0510	0.4073	0.8675
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0000	0.0496	0.3320	0.7473	0.0403	0.3091	0.7498

Table 5: Estimated false-rejection rate(FRR) and correct-rejection rate (CRR) of the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} control chart for various values of m, h, k, and ncp.

		m = 30		m = 50		m = 100	
$k \backslash h$		0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m
1	CRR_{FDR}	0.8198	0.4646	0.9178	0.5846	0.9760	0.7598
	CRR_{UCL}	0.8284	0.4930	0.9218	0.6034	0.9760	0.7716
	ΔCRR	(-0.0086)	(-0.0274)	(-0.0040)	(-0.0188)	(0.0000)	(-0.0004)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8218	0.4720	0.9188	0.5896	0.9768	0.7666
	SP_{UCL}	0.8316	0.5026	0.9234	0.6122	0.9772	0.7820
	ΔSP	(-0.0098)	(-0.0306)	(-0.0046)	(-0.0226)	(-0.0004)	(-0.0154)
3	CRR_{FDR}	0.8512	0.4983	0.9475	0.6376	0.9863	0.8198
	CRR_{UCL}	0.7658	0.4286	0.7658	0.5616	0.9675	0.7473
	ΔCRR	(0.0540)	(0.0697)	(0.0546)	(0.0960)	(0.0188)	(0.0725)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9201	0.5784	0.9859	0.7373	0.9993	0.9146
	SP_{UCL}	0.9118	0.5815	0.9832	0.7368	0.9993	0.5815
	ΔSP	(-0.0031)	(0.0027)	(0.0005)	(0.0000)	(0.0012)	
5	CRR_{FDR}	0.8017	0.4787	0.9566	0.6861	0.9915	0.8675
	CRR_{UCL}	0.6034	0.3415	0.8604	0.5390	0.9649	0.7498
	ΔCRR	(0.1983)	(0.1372)	(0.0962)	(0.1471)	(0.0266)	(0.1177)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8965	0.5730	0.9920	0.8045	1.0000	0.9569
	SP_{UCL}	0.8590	0.5550	0.9890	0.7892	0.8590	0.9134
	$\Delta SP \ \Delta SP$	(0.0345)	(0.0180)	(0.0030)	(0.0153)	(0.0000)	(0.0090)
7	CRR_{FDR}	0.5479	0.4141	0.9468	0.6733	0.9919	0.8981
	CRR_{UCL}	0.2807	0.2743	0.7949	0.4769	0.9507	0.7129
	ΔCRR	(0.2672)	(0.1768)	(0.1519)	(0.1964)	(0.0412)	(0.1624)
	SP_{FDR}	0.6766	0.4976	0.9912	0.7912	1.0000	0.9658
	SP_{UCL}	0.5916	0.4572	0.9852	0.7652	1.0000	0.9546
	ΔSP	(0.0850)	(0.0404)	(0.0060)	(0.0260)	(0.0000)	(0.0112)
10	CRR_{FDR}	0.0020	0.2651	0.8930	0.6480	0.9918	0.8981
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0017	0.0918	0.5942	0.3914	0.9320	0.6922
	ΔCRR	(0.0003)	(0.1733)	(0.2992)	(0.2566)	()0.0598	(0.2059)
	SP_{FDR}	0.0344	0.3318	0.9760	0.7640	1.0000	0.9752
	SP_{UCL}	0.0372	0.2608	0.9466	0.7140	1.0000	0.9604
	ΔSP	(0.0028)	(0.0710)	(0.0294)	(0.0500)	(0.0000)	(0.0148)

Table 6: Comparing the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} Control Chart with ncp = 49 when β follows the multivariate normal distribution.

		m = 30		m = 50		m = 100	
k h		0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m
1	CRR_{FDR}	0.7455	0.5877	0.8605	0.7778	0.9473	0.9365
	CRR_{UCL}	0.7473	0.5833	0.8468	0.7308	0.9170	0.8748
	ΔCRR	(0.0112)	(0.0044)	(0.0147)	(0.0470)	(0.0303)	(0.0617)
	SP_{FDR}	0.7578	0.6450	0.8785	0.8430	0.9755	0.9490
	SP_{UCL}	0.7655	0.6640	0.8775	0.8435	0.9763	0.9445
	ΔSP	(-0.0077)	(-0.0190)	(0.0010)	(-0.0005)	(0.0000)	(0.0005)
3	CRR_{FDR}	0.7623	0.6055	0.8986	0.8163	0.9521	0.9507
	CRR_{UCL}	0.6564	0.5255	0.8205	0.7077	0.9001	0.8632
	ΔCRR	(0.1079)	(0.0800)	(0.0781)	(0.1086)	(0.0520)	(0.0875)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8990	0.7540	0.9878	0.9406	0.9988	0.9972
	SP_{UCL}	0.8896	0.7624	0.9842	0.9354	0.9988	0.9958
	ΔSP	(0.0094)	(-0.0076)	(0.0036)	(0.0052)	(0.0000)	(0.0014)
5	CRR_{FDR}	0.7002	0.5782	0.9086	0.8267	0.9613	0.9634
	CRR_{UCL}	0.5056	0.4434	0.7782	0.6720	0.8922	0.8587
	ΔCRR	(0.1951)	(0.1348)	(0.1244)	(0.1547)	(0.0691)	(0.1047)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8866	0.7482	0.9952	0.9590	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.8630	0.7404	0.9918	0.9506	1.0000	0.9999
	ΔSP	(0.0236)	(0.0078)	(0.0034)	(0.0084)	(0.0000)	(0.0001)
7	CRR_{FDR}	0.4639	0.5319	0.8865	0.8294	0.9697	0.9610
	CRR_{UCL}	0.2538	0.3416	0.7067	0.6350	0.8932	0.8535
	ΔCRR	(0.2101)	(0.1903)	(0.1798)	(0.1944)	(0.0765)	(0.1075)
	SP_{FDR}	0.6882	0.7132	0.9922	0.9684	0.9998	0.9992
	SP_{UCL}	0.6428	0.6852	0.9870	0.9576	0.9996	0.9990
	ΔSP	(0.0454)	(0.0180)	(0.0052)	(0.0108)	(0.0002)	(0.0002)
10	CRR_{FDR}	0.0102	0.3820	0.8192	0.8225	0.9621	0.9475
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0084	0.1772	0.5380	0.5666	0.8236	0.8175
	ΔCRR	(0.0016)	(0.2048)	(0.2812)	(0.2559)	(0.1385)	(0.1330)
	SP_{FDR}	0.1389	0.5870	0.9738	0.9663	0.9998	0.9995
	SP_{UCL}	0.1440	0.5433	0.9600	0.9470	0.9998	0.9990
	ΔSP	(-0.0051)	(0.0437)	(0.0138)	(0.0193)	(0.0000)	(0.0005)

Table 7: Comparing the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} control chart with I shift (ncp = 25) for aspartame example.

		m = 30		m = 50		m = 100	
k h		0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m
1	CRR_{FDR}	0.6785	0.5605	0.8217	0.7562	0.9385	0.9340
	CRR_{UCL}	0.6757	0.5563	0.8055	0.7067	0.8942	0.8602
	$\Delta_C RR$	(0.0028)	(0.0042)	(0.0162)	(0.0495)	(0.0443)	(0.0738)
	SP_{FDR}	0.7003	0.6165	0.8462	0.8237	0.9375	0.9683
	SP_{UCL}	0.7053	0.6400	0.8458	0.8260	0.9327	0.9597
	ΔSP	(-0.0050)	(-0.0235)	(0.0004)	(-0.0023)	(0.0048)	(0.0086)
3	CRR_{FDR}	0.6785	0.5623	0.8468	0.7758	0.9469	0.9376
	CRR_{UCL}	0.5717	0.4813	0.7622	0.6699	0.8779	0.8510
	$\Delta_C RR$	(0.1068)	(0.0910)	(0.0846)	(0.1056)	(0.0690)	(0.0875)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8305	0.7123	0.9633	0.9140	0.9985	0.9982
	SP_{UCL}	0.8203	0.7143	0.9573	0.9100	0.9982	0.9940
	ΔSP	(0.0102)	(-0.0002)	(0.0070)	(0.0040)	(0.0003)	(0.0042)
5	CRR_{FDR}	0.6099	0.5522	0.8559	0.7960	0.9656	0.9563
	CRR_{UCL}	0.4304	0.4130	0.7105	0.6499	0.8657	0.8496
	$\Delta_C RR$	(0.1795)	(0.1392)	(0.1454)	(0.1461)	(0.0999)	(0.1087)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8075	0.7272	0.9778	0.9375	1.0000	0.9988
	SP_{UCL}	0.7788	0.7188	0.9705	0.9233	1.0000	0.9978
	ΔSP	(0.0287)	(0.0084)	(0.0070)	(0.0040)	(0.0003)	(0.0042)
7	CRR_{FDR}	0.3170	0.4708	0.8220	0.7861	0.9587	0.9464
	CRR_{UCL}	0.1677	0.3018	0.6214	0.5496	0.8456	0.8350
	$\Delta_C RR$	(0.1503)	(0.1690)	(0.2006)	(0.1915)	(0.1008)	(0.1114)
	SP_{FDR}	0.5327	0.6613	0.9732	0.9355	0.9998	0.9995
	SP_{UCL}	0.4938	0.6452	0.9613	0.9233	0.9988	0.9990
	ΔSP	(0.0389)	(0.0161)	(0.0119)	(0.0122)	(0.0005)	(0.0010)
10	CRR_{FDR}	0.0102	0.3125	0.7821	0.7133	0.9578	0.9463
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0008	0.1409	0.5376	0.5276	0.8171	0.8087
	$\Delta_C RR$	(0.0092)	(0.1716)	(0.2475)	(0.2607)	(0.1407)	(0.1376)
	SP_{FDR}	0.1368	0.5327	0.9420	0.9325	1.0000	0.9990
	SP_{UCL}	0.1388	0.4955	0.9275	0.9058	1.000	0.9982
	ΔSP	(-0.0020)	(0.0372)	(0.0145)	(0.0267)	(0.0000)	(0.0008)

Table 8: Comparing the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} control chart with M shift (ncp = 25) for aspartame example.

		m = 30		m = 50		m = 100	
k h		0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m
1	CRR_{FDR}	0.6813	0.5630	0.8350	0.7755	0.9325	0.9193
	CRR_{UCL}	0.6810	0.5565	0.8275	0.7208	0.9008	0.8658
	ΔCRR	(0.0003)	(0.0065)	(0.0075)	(0.0547)	(0.0317)	(0.0535)
	SP_{FDR}	0.7015	0.6150	0.8562	0.8403	0.9683	0.9383
	SP_{UCL}	0.7110	0.6378	0.8575	0.8395	0.9633	0.9340
	ΔSP	(-0.0095)	(-0.0228)	(-0.0013)	(0.0008)	(0.0050)	(0.0043)
3	CRR_{FDR}	0.6898	0.5807	0.8552	0.7818	0.9567	0.9487
	CRR_{UCL}	0.5849	0.5008	0.7640	0.6785	0.8808	0.8553
	ΔCRR	(0.1049)	(0.0779)	(0.0912)	(0.1033)	(0.0759)	(0.0934)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8393	0.7298	0.9655	0.9223	0.9968	0.9970
	SP_{UCL}	0.8337	0.7530	0.9607	0.9150	0.9962	0.9940
	ΔSP	(0.0057)	(-0.0052)	(0.0048)	(0.0073)	(0.0005)	(0.0003)
5	CRR_{FDR}	0.5988	0.5403	0.8497	0.7865	0.9557	0.9518
	CRR_{UCL}	0.4233	0.4057	0.7058	0.6374	0.8526	0.8477
	ΔCRR	(0.1755)	(0.1346)	(0.1439)	(0.1491)	(0.0932)	(0.1041)
	SP_{FDR}	0.8023	0.7138	0.9782	0.9385	0.9992	0.9992
	SP_{UCL}	0.7748	0.7105	0.9708	0.9307	0.9985	0.9985
	ΔSP	(0.0275)	(0.0033)	(0.0074)	(0.0078)	(0.0007)	(0.0007)
7	CRR_{FDR}	0.3235	0.4855	0.8349	0.8049	0.9600	0.9510
	CRR_{UCL}	0.1689	0.3126	0.6345	0.6202	0.8507	0.8406
	ΔCRR	(0.1546)	(0.1729)	(0.2004)	(0.1847)	(0.1093)	(0.1104)
	SP_{FDR}	0.5435	0.6667	0.9808	0.9840	0.9998	0.9982
	SP_{UCL}	0.5058	0.6438	0.9695	0.9327	0.9989	0.9982
	ΔSP	(0.0377)	(0.0219)	(0.0113)	(0.0513)	(0.0009)	(0.0000)
10	CRR_{FDR}	0.0087	0.3182	0.7766	0.7060	0.9633	0.9486
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0074	0.1424	0.5365	0.4218	0.8263	0.8193
	ΔCRR	(0.0073)	0.01758	(0.5401)	(0.2842)	(0.1370)	(0.1293)
	SP_{FDR}	0.1290	0.5335	0.9363	0.9285	0.9998	0.9998
	SP_{UCL}	0.1340	0.4948	0.9173	0.8992	0.9995	0.9992
	ΔSP	(-0.0050)	(0.0387)	(0.0190)	(0.0293)	(0.0003)	(0.0006)

Table 9: Comparing the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} control chart with N shift (ncp = 25) for aspartame example.

		m = 30		m = 50		m = 100	
k h		0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m
1	CRR_{FDR}	0.9755	0.8630	0.9968	0.9675	0.9995	0.9990
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9752	0.8622	0.9958	0.9533	0.9995	0.9972
	ΔCRR	(0.0003)	(0.0008)	(0.0010)	(0.0142)	(0.0000)	(0.0018)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9762	0.8792	0.9972	0.9715	0.9995	0.9990
	SP_{UCL}	0.9780	0.8938	0.9978	0.9722	0.9995	0.9992
	ΔSP	(-0.0018)	(-0.0146)	(-0.0006)	(-0.0007)	(0.0000)	(-0.0002)
3	CRR_{FDR}	0.9868	0.8911	0.9978	0.9852	0.9998	0.9993
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9584	0.8262	0.9943	0.9492	0.9991	0.9949
	ΔCRR	(0.0284)	(0.0649)	(0.0035)	(0.0360)	(0.0007)	(0.0049)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9981	0.9447	1.0000	0.9970	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.9965	0.9407	1.0000	0.9952	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0016)	(0.0040)	(0.0000)	(0.0018)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
5	CRR_{FDR}	0.9810	0.9003	0.9912	0.9986	0.9999	0.9997
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9212	0.7778	0.9849	0.9414	0.9987	0.99940
	ΔCRR	(0.0629)	(0.1225)	(0.0073)	(0.0572)	(0.0012)	(0.0057)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9982	0.9530	1.0000	0.9988	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.9972	0.9413	1.0000	0.9970	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0010)	(0.0117)	(0.0000)	(0.0018)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
7	CRR_{FDR}	0.9317	0.8945	0.9988	0.9911	0.9999	0.9997
	CRR_{UCL}	0.7476	0.7710	0.9838	0.9366	0.9984	0.9941
	ΔCRR	(0.1841)	(0.1235)	(0.0149)	(0.00545)	(0.0015)	(0.0056)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9768	0.9505	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.9650	0.9267	1.0000	0.9985	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0118)	(0.0238)	(0.0000)	(0.0015)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
10	CRR_{FDR}	0.0095	0.8418	0.9969	0.9927	0.9998	0.9998
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0073	0.5283	0.9548	0.9142	0.9978	0.9925
	ΔCRR	(0.0022)	(0.3135)	(0.0421)	(0.0785)	(0.0020)	(0.0073)
	SP_{FDR}	0.1455	0.9080	1.0000	0.9992	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.1480	0.8590	1.0000	0.9975	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(-0.0025)	(0.0490)	(0.0000)	(0.0017)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)

Table 10: Comparing the FDR method and the T_{mcd}^2 control chart with I shift (ncp = 49) for aspartame example.

		m = 30		m = 50		m = 100	
$k \backslash h$		0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m
1	CRR_{FDR}	0.9610	0.8253	0.9900	0.9565	0.9988	0.9965
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9597	0.8225	0.9890	0.9397	0.9981	0.9910
	ΔCRR	(0.0013)	(0.0028)	(0.0010)	(0.0168)	(0.0007)	(0.0055)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9630	0.8435	0.9905	0.9678	0.9990	0.9978
	SP_{UCL}	0.9625	0.8492	0.9908	0.9665	0.9985	0.9975
	ΔSP	(-0.0005)	(-0.0157)	(-0.0003)	(-0.0013)	(0.0005)	(0.0003)
3	CRR_{FDR}	0.9687	0.8571	0.9965	0.9760	0.9991	0.9991
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9263	0.7853	0.9871	0.9330	0.9976	0.9915
	ΔCRR	(0.0424)	(0.0718)	(0.0094)	(0.0430)	(0.0015)	(0.0076)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9915	0.9155	1.0000	0.9960	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.9885	0.9173	1.0000	0.9940	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0030)	(0.0137)	(0.0000)	(0.0020)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
5	CRR_{FDR}	0.9842	0.9025	0.9970	0.9776	0.9996	0.9993
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9230	0.7823	0.9804	0.9182	0.9972	0.9915
	ΔCRR	(0.0612)	(0.1242)	(0.0166)	(0.0594)	(0.0024)	(0.0078)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9985	0.9597	1.0000	0.9960	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.9972	0.9460	1.0000	0.9940	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0013)	(0.0137)	(0.0000)	(0.0023)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
7	CRR_{FDR}	0.8481	0.8480	0.9965	0.9831	0.9995	0.9997
	CRR_{UCL}	0.6061	0.6564	0.9665	0.9168	0.9971	0.9903
	ΔCRR	(0.2465)	(0.1916)	(0.0300)	(0.0663)	(0.0026)	(0.0093)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9310	0.9173	1.0000	0.9965	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.8958	0.8900	1.0000	0.9952	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0352)	(0.0273)	(0.0000)	(0.0013)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
10	CRR_{FDR}	0.0104	0.7636	0.9969	0.9936	0.9995	0.9997
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0081	0.4535	0.9526	0.9133	0.9950	0.9890
	ΔCRR	(0.0023)	(0.3081)	(0.0443)	(0.08030)	(0.0047)	(0.0107)
	SP_{FDR}	0.1440	0.8510	1.0000	0.9995	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.1447	0.7865	0.9998	0.9995	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(-0.0007)	(0.06445)	(0.0002)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)

Table 11: Comparing the FDR method and the T^2_{mcd} control chart with M shift (ncp = 49) for aspartame example.

		m = 30		m = 50		m = 100	
k h		0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m	0.75m	0.5m
1	CRR_{FDR}	0.9527	0.8265	0.9935	0.9605	0.9998	0.9990
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9527	0.8253	0.9932	0.9405	0.9995	0.9918
	ΔCRR	(0.0000)	(0.0012)	(0.0003)	(0.0200)	(0.0003)	(0.0012)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9547	0.8460	0.9940	0.9705	0.9990	0.9992
	SP_{UCL}	0.9565	0.8582	0.9945	0.9708	0.9990	0.9980
	ΔSP	(-0.0018)	(-0.0118)	(-0.0005)	(-0.0003)	(0.0000)	(0.0012)
3	CRR_{FDR}	0.9705	0.8594	0.9958	0.9730	0.9994	0.9993
	CRR_{UCL}	0.9267	0.7900	0.9842	0.9310	0.9985	0.9928
	ΔCRR	(0.0438)	(0.694)	(0.0116)	(0.0420)	(0.0009)	(0.0065)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9912	0.9190	1.0000	0.9935	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.9898	0.9157	0.9998	0.9912	1.000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0014)	(0.0033)	(0.0002)	(0.0023)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
5	CRR_{FDR}	0.9607	0.8583	0.9957	0.9831	0.9997	0.9995
	CRR_{UCL}	0.8616	0.7300	0.9822	0.9248	0.9978	0.9919
	ΔCRR	(0.0991)	(0.1283)	(0.0148)	(0.0570)	(0.0019)	(0.0076)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9918	0.9253	1.0000	0.9980	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.9855	0.9123	1.0000	0.9965	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0063)	(0.0130)	(0.0000)	(0.0015)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
7	CRR_{FDR}	0.8475	0.8488	0.9957	0.9831	0.9996	0.9994
	CRR_{UCL}	0.6040	0.6581	0.9642	0.9062	0.9966	0.9910
	ΔCRR	(0.2435)	(0.3109)	(0.0315)	(0.0769)	(0.0030)	(0.0084)
	SP_{FDR}	0.9297	0.9163	1.0000	0.9980	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.8955	0.8952	1.0000	0.9962	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(0.0342)	(0.0211)	(0.0000)	(0.0018)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
10	CRR_{FDR}	0.0103	0.7650	0.9902	0.9829	0.9997	0.9997
	CRR_{UCL}	0.0082	0.4541	0.9007	0.8848	0.9950	0.9893
	ΔCRR	(0.0021)	(0.3109)	(0.0895)	(0.0981)	(0.0047)	(0.0104)
	SP_{FDR}	0.1435	0.8510	0.9998	0.9985	1.0000	1.0000
	SP_{UCL}	0.1475	0.7830	0.9988	0.9962	1.0000	1.0000
	ΔSP	(-0.0040)	(0.0680)	(0.0010)	(0.0023)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)

Table 12: Comparing the FDR method and the T_{mcd}^2 control chart with N shift (ncp = 49) for aspartame example.



Figure 1: Four hypothetical profiles of aspartame example.



Figure 2: The correct-rejection rate when β_i are generated from a multivariate normal distribution with m = 30 and ncp = 49.



Figure 3: The correct-rejection rate when β_i are generated from a multivariate normal nistribution with m = 50 and ncp = 49.



Figure 4: The correct-rejection rate when β_i are generated from a multivariate normal distribution with m = 100 and ncp = 49.



Figure 5: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 30, I shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 6: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 50, I shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 7: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 100, I shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 8: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 30, M shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 9: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 50, M shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 10: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 100, M shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 11: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 30, N shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 12: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 50, N shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 13: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 100, N shift, and ncp = 49.



Figure 14: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 30, I shift, and ncp = 25.



Figure 15: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 50, I shift, and ncp = 25.



Figure 16: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 100, I shift, and ncp = 25.



Figure 17: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 30, M shift, and ncp = 25.



Figure 18: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 50, M shift, and ncp = 25.



Figure 19: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 100, M shift, and ncp = 25.



Figure 20: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 30, N shift, and ncp = 25.



Figure 21: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 50, N shift, and ncp = 25



Figure 22: The correct-rejection rate for the aspartame example with m = 100, N shift, and ncp = 25.