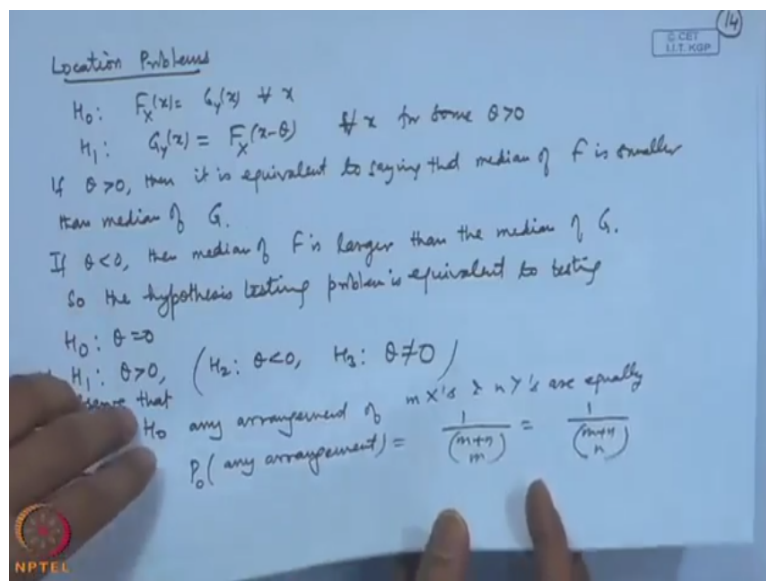


**Statistical Methods for Scientists and Engineers**  
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**Department of Mathematics**  
**Indian Institute of Technology - Kharagpur**

**Lecture - 37**  
**Non parametric Methods - X**

Friends in the last class, I had introduced various tests for the single sample location problems and then I had also introduced a 2 sample location problem. Let me recapitulate this thing.

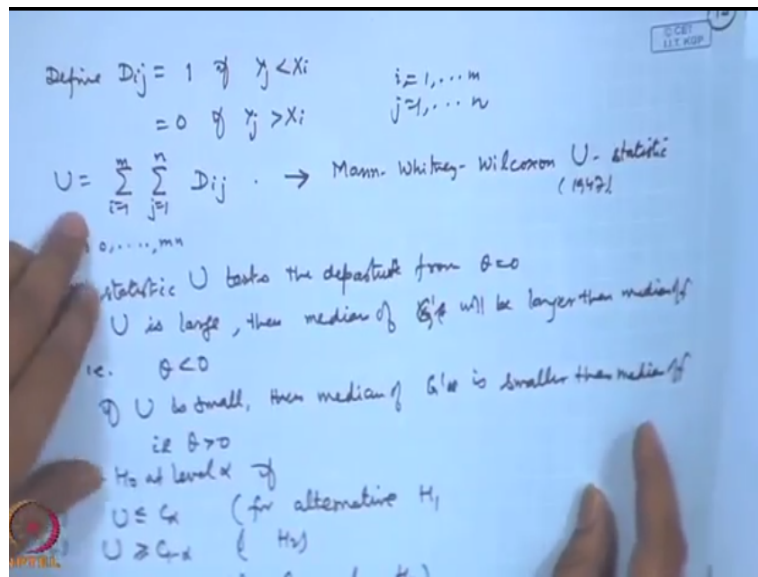
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We have 2 distributions  $F$  and  $G$  and so we want to basically check whether one of the distributions is a location shift from the other one. So if we consider say  $\theta > 0$   $\theta < 0$  or  $\theta \neq 0$ , it is meaning that the median of the distribution of  $F$  is either smaller than the median of  $G$  or it is larger than the median of  $G$  or it is simply  $\neq$  the median of  $G$ .

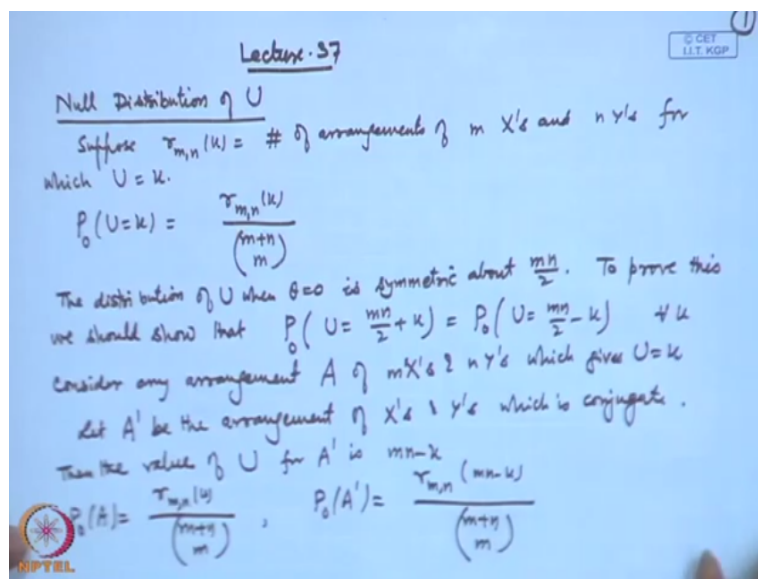
Now for this one we had proposed a 2 sample test based on the observations  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m$  from  $F$  distribution and  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$  based on the  $G$  distribution.

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So we had defined a Mann Whitney Wilcoxon U statistic, which is given by double summation  $D_{ij}$  where  $D_{ij}$  is 1 if  $Y_j < X_i$ , it is = 0 if  $Y_j > X_i$ . So if U is large then naturally it means that the median of G will be larger than the median of F. If U is small, so like that we propose the test here. Now we discuss the null distribution of U etc. So let us start the discussion on that.

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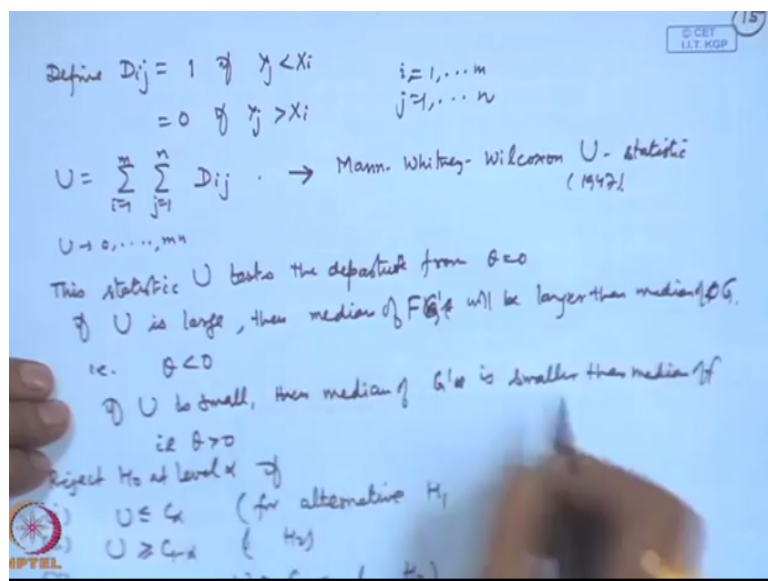


So we start with the null distribution of U. So suppose  $r_{m,n}(u)$  to be the number of arrangements of  $m$  X's and  $n$  Y's for which  $U = u$ . So U consider then it is =  $r_{m,n}(u)$  / the total number of choices  $\binom{m+n}{m}$  as we know that the values of  $u$  can be from 0 to  $mn$ . The first fact that we observe is that the distribution of U when  $\theta = 0$  is symmetric about the mean value that is  $mn/2$ .

To prove this, we should show that  $P(U = mn/2 + u) = P(U = mn/2 - u)$ , for all  $u$  it should be true. Now consider any arrangement and I name it as  $A$ , arrangement  $A$  of  $m$   $X$ 's and  $n$   $Y$ 's which gives  $U = u$ . Now we consider the conjugate arrangement of  $X$ 's and  $Y$ 's that means in which the positions of  $X$ 's are replaced by the position of the  $Y$ 's that means the roles of  $X$  and  $Y$ 's are interchanged.

I call that as the arrangement  $A$  prime. Let  $A$  prime be the arrangement of  $X$ 's and  $Y$ 's, which is conjugate. Then the value of  $U$  for  $A$  prime that will be  $mn - u$  because all the  $X$ 's have become  $Y$ 's and  $Y$ 's have become  $X$ 's, so if we look at this definition here.

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In this definition it will become reverse of that. So if you do that then this will become  $mn - u$ . Another point which we have seen that if  $U$  is large that means there are more number of  $X_i$ 's which are larger than the  $Y_j$ 's. Then the distribution of  $X$  will be larger than the distribution of the  $F$ , so I think I have written it the reverse here, median of  $F$  will be larger than the median of  $G$ . So we can make a correction in that way. Now if I consider  $P(A = r) = \frac{r! (m-n)!}{m!} C_m^n$ ,  $P(A \text{ prime} = r) = \frac{(m-r)! n!}{m!} C_m^n$ .

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$$P_0(U = \frac{mn}{2} - k) = \frac{r_{m,n}(\frac{mn}{2} - k)}{\binom{m+n}{m}}$$

$$= \frac{r_{m,n}(mn - \frac{mn}{2} + k)}{\binom{m+n}{m}} = \frac{r_{m,n}(\frac{mn}{2} + k)}{\binom{m+n}{m}} = P_0(U = \frac{mn}{2} + k)$$

We can develop a recursion formula for evaluating probabilities of U.

$$P_0(U_{m,n} = k) = \frac{m}{m+n} P_0(U_{m-1,n} = k-1) + \frac{n}{m+n} P_0(U_{m,n-1} = k)$$

Pf.  $P_0(U_{m,n} = k) = \frac{r_{m,n}(k)}{\binom{m+n}{m}} = \frac{r_{m-1,n}(k-1)}{\binom{m+n-1}{m}} + \frac{r_{m,n-1}(k)}{\binom{m+n-1}{m}}$

So  $P_0(U = mn/2 - u) = r_{m,n}(mn/2 - u) / \binom{m+n}{m}$ . Now that is  $= r_{m,n}(mn/2 + u) / \binom{m+n}{m}$  because here we have just interchanged them divided by  $\binom{m+n}{m} = r_{m,n}(mn/2 + u) / \binom{m+n}{m}$  = probability of  $U = mn/2 + u$ . So we have proved that the distribution of U is symmetric about  $mn/2$ . To derive the distribution of U actually in general if I have m and n values, then what is the probability of  $U = u$  as I have written it is  $r_{m,n}(u) / \binom{m+n}{m}$ .

So if I take any values of mn then it is quite complicated because  $\binom{m+n}{m}$  (07:44) the number of permutations will be very large. So we can develop a recursion formula for this. We can develop a recursion formula for evaluating probabilities for distribution of U that means if I consider  $P_0(U_{m,n})$  that means based on mn observations m observations from X and n observations from Y.

Then it is  $\frac{m}{m+n} P_0(U_{m-1,n} = u - n) + \frac{n}{m+n} P_0(U_{m,n-1} = u)$ . Let us look at the proof. If I consider  $P_0(U_{m,n} = u)$  that is  $r_{m,n}(u) / \binom{m+n}{m}$  that is  $r_{m-1,n}(u - n) / \binom{m+n-1}{m} + r_{m,n-1}(u) / \binom{m+n-1}{m}$  because if the last observation is X and it is the largest then the value will increase by n otherwise it will remain the same. So either it is  $u - n$  or it is  $u$  in the previous step.

So then that is = now this you can adjust as  $r_{m-1,n}(u - n) / \binom{m+n-1}{m} + r_{m,n-1}(u) / \binom{m+n-1}{m}$ .

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$$= \frac{m}{m+n} \cdot P_0(U_{m,n} = k-h) + \frac{n}{m+n} P_0(U_{m,n} = k).$$

Initially,  $P_0(U_{1,1} = 0) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $P_0(U_{1,1} = 1) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Mean and Variance of  $U$  under true value  $\theta$ .

Let  $P_\theta(Y_j < X_i) = \pi_1$ ,  $P_\theta(Y_j < X_i, Y_k < X_i, j \neq k) = \pi_1$ ,  
 $P_\theta(Y_j < X_i, Y_j < X_k, i \neq k) = \pi_2$ .

$$E_\theta(U) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n E_\theta(D_{ij}) = \sum \sum P(Y_j < X_i) = mn\pi_1$$

$$V_\theta(U) = V_\theta\left(\sum \sum D_{ij}\right) = \sum \sum V_\theta(D_{ij}) + \sum \sum \sum_{j \neq k} \text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{ik})$$

$$+ \sum \sum \sum_{i \neq k} \text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{kj}) + \sum \sum \sum_{i \neq k, j \neq l} \text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{kl})$$

So these 2 terms can be simplified and we get this =  $\frac{m}{m+n} P_0(U_{m-1, n} = k-h) + \frac{n}{m+n} P_0(U_{m, n-1} = k)$ .  $U_{m, n-1} = u$  and for evaluation for higher order thing, we look at what is  $U_{1,1}$ ?  $U_{1,1}$  can take 2 values 0 and 1, so it will be 0 with probability 1/2 and  $P_0(U_{1,1} = 1)$  that will be with probability 1/2. Now let us look at the mean and variance of the  $u$  statistic under general hypothesis that means when the true parameter value is  $\theta$ .

So since it is dependent upon the probability of  $Y_j < X_i$  or when we have 2 then  $Y_j < X_i, Y_k < X_i$  or  $Y_j < X_i, Y_j < X_h$  so we have to give some notation to that. Let us consider say  $P_\theta(Y_j < X_i) = \pi_1$ ,  $P_\theta(Y_j < X_i, Y_k < X_i \text{ for } j \neq k) = \pi_1$ ,  $P_\theta(Y_j < X_i, Y_j < X_h \text{ for } i \neq h) = \pi_2$ . In this one  $j$  is same and here  $i$  is the same. So let us consider the expectation of  $U = \text{double summation expectation of } D_{ij} \text{ } i=1 \text{ to } m, j=1 \text{ to } n$ .

So  $D_{ij}$  will be 1 when  $Y_j < X_i$  this probability =  $\pi_1$  = simply  $mn\pi_1$ . Similarly, if I look at variance of  $U = \text{double summation variance of } D_{ij} + \text{covariance between } D_{ij} \text{ and } D_{ik}, j \neq k$  and then there will be other terms also like there will be terms covariance between  $D_{ij}$  and  $D_{kj}, i \neq k$ , covariance between  $D_{ij}$  and  $D_{kl}$ .

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$$V_{\theta}(U) = V_{\theta}\left(\sum \sum D_{ij}\right) = \sum \sum V_{\theta}(D_{ij}) + \sum \sum \sum_{j \neq k} \text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{ik}) + \sum \sum \sum_{i \neq h} \text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{ih}) + \sum \sum \sum \sum_{i \neq h, j \neq k} \text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{hk})$$

$$V_{\theta}(D_{ij}) = \pi(1-\pi)^2 + (1-\pi)\pi^2 = \pi(1-\pi)$$

So variance of  $D_{ij}$  that is becoming  $\pi \cdot 1 - \pi^2 + 1 - \pi \cdot \pi^2 = \pi \cdot 1 - \pi^2$ . Let us look at the various covariance terms here, this covariance, this covariance and so on.

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$$\text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{ik}) \quad j \neq k$$

$$= E_{\theta}(D_{ij} D_{ik}) - \pi^2 = P(Y_j < X_i, Y_k < X_i) - \pi^2 = \pi_1 - \pi^2$$

$$\text{Cov}(D_{ij}, D_{ih}) \quad i \neq h$$

$$= E_{\theta}(D_{ij} D_{ih}) - \pi^2 = P(Y_j < X_i, Y_j < X_h) - \pi^2 = \pi_2 - \pi^2$$

So  $V_{\theta}(U) = mn\pi^2(1-\pi) + mn(m-1)(\pi_1 - \pi^2) + m(m-1)(\pi_2 - \pi^2)$

Under  $H_0$ :  $\pi = P_0(Y_j < X_i) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^x dG(x) dF(y)$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dF(y) dF(x) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Covariance between  $D_{ij}$  and  $D_{ik}$  where  $j$  is  $\neq k$ . Then this is = expectation of  $D_{ij} D_{ik}$  - individual expectations that is expectation of  $D_{ij}$  \* expectation of  $D_{ik}$  that is  $\pi^2$ . Now this term is going to be 1 when you have  $Y_j < X_i$  and  $Y_k < X_i$  for  $j \neq k$  but this value we have assumed to be  $\pi$  so this is becoming  $\pi - \pi^2$ . Similarly, if I look at covariance between  $D_{ij}$  and  $D_{ih}$  term where  $i$  is  $\neq h$ .

Then this is equal to expectation of  $D_{ij} D_{ih}$  - expectation  $D_{ij}$  \* expectation  $D_{ih}$  both are  $\pi$  so this is becoming  $\pi^2$ . Now this value will be = 1 only if you have  $Y_j < X_i$  and  $Y_j < X_h$ . So

this value we have assumed to be  $\pi^2$ . So that is  $= \pi^2 - \pi^2$ . So now if we look at variance of U after substitution of all the terms here and of course this last one will be 0 why?

Because this is involving  $Y_j$  and  $X_i$  and this is involving  $Y_k$  and  $X_h$  since  $X_1, X_2, X_m, Y_1, Y_2, Y_n$  they are independent random variables. Therefore,  $D_{ij}$  and  $D_{hk}$  will be independent and therefore the covariance between them then will become 0. So then we are left with these terms and let us count how many terms will be coming. So the first one is the sum over all the values.

So that is  $= mn \pi^2 - \pi^2 + \text{how many terms are here that will} = mn$  in this one  $mn \cdot n - 1$  terms,  $\pi^2 - \pi^2 + mn \cdot m - 1 \pi^2 - \pi^2$ . Now let us also see what are these values under  $H_0$ ? Under  $H_0$  what happens to  $\pi$ ? That is probability of  $Y_j < X_i$  that will be simply  $= 1/2$  because this is becoming  $dG_y dF_x$   $-\infty$  to  $x$   $-\infty$  to  $\infty$ . Under  $H_0$  they are same  $dF_y dF_x$ .

So that is equal to simply in the first integral this will give me  $F_x$  and then  $F_x dF_x$  that will give  $F^2 x/2$  so that is  $= 1/2$ .

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Under  $H_0$ :  $\pi = P_0(Y_j < X_i) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^x dG(t) dF(x)$   
 $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^x dF(y) dF(x) = \frac{1}{2}$

$\pi_1 = P_0(Y_j < X_i, Y_k < X_i)$   
 $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(Y_j < x, Y_k < x) dF(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G^2(x) dF(x)$   
 $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F^2(x) dF(x) = \frac{1}{3}$

Similarly, we can evaluate  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  under  $H_0$ ,  $\pi_1 = \text{probability of } Y_j < X_i, Y_k < X_i$  where  $j \neq k$  so that is  $= \text{integral probability of } Y_j < x, Y_k < x dF_x$ . When  $x$  is fixed, then  $Y_j$  and  $Y_k$  become independent. So this can become equal to the product of these values and that is simply becoming  $G \cdot G dF_x$ . Now under  $H_0$ ,  $G=F$  so it is becoming  $F^2 dF_x$  and this is nothing but  $1/3$ .

Because this is becoming  $F^3/3$  so from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$  this will be evaluated to be  $1/3$ .

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$$\pi_2 = P_0(Y_j < X_i, Y_j < X_h) \quad i \neq h.$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_0(y < X_i, y < X_h) dG(y)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1-F(y))^2 dG(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1-F(y))^2 dF(y) = \frac{1}{3}.$$

So under  $H_0$

$$E_0(U) = \frac{mn}{2}$$

$$V_0(U) = \frac{mn}{4} + \frac{mn(n-1)}{12} + \frac{mn(m-1)}{12} = \frac{mn(m+n+1)}{12}.$$

Wilcoxon Statistic for Two Samples

Arrange  $X_1, \dots, X_m, Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  are one sample  $Z_1, \dots, Z_N$ ,  
 $N = m+n$ .  
 $Z_i = X_i, \quad i=1, \dots, m$   
 $= Y_{i-m}, \quad i=m+1, \dots, m+n=N.$

Similarly, if we look at  $\pi_2$  that is probability of  $Y_j < X_i, Y_j < X_h$  where  $i \neq h$ . Then that is  $= P_0(y < X_i, y < X_h) dG(y) = 1-F(y)$  of  $y$  whole square because when  $y$  is fixed  $X_i$  and  $X_h$  are independent. So this becomes probability of  $X_i > y$  that is  $1-F(y)$  and this becomes probability of  $X_h > y$  that is also  $1-F(y)$  so this becomes square  $dG(y)$ . So when  $G=F$  under the null hypothesis, then this is becoming  $1-F(y)$  square  $dF(y)$  that is  $= 1-F(y)$  cube/3.

So at  $+\infty$  this will become 0 and at  $-\infty$  it will become 1 so this is also  $= 1/3$ . So under the null hypothesis when  $F=G$ , the value of  $\pi_2$  is  $1/2$ , the value of  $\pi_1$  is  $1/3$ , the value of  $\pi_2$  is also  $= 1/3$  and we can look at the expressions here,  $1/3 - 1/4$  if I substitute the values here  $\pi_1 = 1/2$  then this becomes  $mn/4$ . This value will become  $1/3 - 1/4 = 1/12$ .

And here also it will become  $1/3 - 1/4$  this will become  $1/12$ , so we can simplify so under  $H_0$  expectation of  $U = mn/2$ , variance of  $U = mn/4 + mn \cdot n - 1/12 + mn \cdot m - 1/12$ . These can be simplified. This actually becomes  $= mn/m+n+1/12$ . So for various purposes this distribution of  $U$  can be utilized here. The general use of this 2 sample Mann Whitney Wilcoxon  $U$  statistic is to test the location.

That means whether the median of one of the distributions is larger than the median of the other or less or it is simply  $\neq$ . We have been able to derive the null distributions so it can be used for several purposes. Now let us consider a variation of this that is called simply the



Wilcoxon statistic for 2 samples. So first we do that we combine all the observations  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m$  and  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$  and we treat it as 1 sample.

Let us call it  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_N$ . Arrange  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m, Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$  as one sample say call it  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_N$  where  $N=m+n$  that means we are saying  $Z_i=X_i$  for  $i=1$  to  $m$  and it is  $= Y_{i-m}$  for  $i=m+1$  to  $m+n=N$  okay.

Now if the null hypothesis is true that means if the 2 distributions are the same then basically it becomes simply one random sample from the entire population  $F$ . Otherwise, there will be some discrepancy that means we are mixing some different kind of things.

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Let  $W$  be the sum of ranks of  $X_i$ 's in the combined sample.

We can define  $Z$

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^m R_i = \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \#(Y_j \text{'s} < X_i) + \#(X_j \text{'s} \leq X_i) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n D_{ij} + \frac{m(m+1)}{2} = U + \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$$

$$E_0(W) = mn\pi + \frac{m(m+1)}{2}, \quad V_0(W) = V_0(U)$$

$$E_0(W) = \frac{mn}{2} + \frac{m(m+1)}{2} = \frac{m(m+n+1)}{2}$$

Let  $W$  be the sum of ranks of  $X_i$ 's in the combined sample. So if we consider say  $W = \text{summation of } R_i \text{ } i=1 \text{ to } m$  okay. That is  $= \text{sigma number of } Y_j \text{'s which are } < X_i + \text{number of } X_j \text{'s which are } \leq X_i$  and this we are doing for all  $i=1$  to  $m$ . So if I sum this this is nothing but the  $D_{ij}$ 's  $i=1$  to  $m, j=1$  to  $n$  and the second term if you look at when I sum this, this is simply  $m \cdot m+1/2$ .

Because what we are doing, how many  $X_j$ 's are  $\leq$  1 particular  $X_i$  and this we are doing for every  $i$ , then this is nothing but the sum of all the ranks so it is becoming  $m \cdot m+1/2$ . So basically you are saying this Wilcoxon  $W$  statistic is  $U + m \cdot m+1/2$  so it is simply a shift from  $u$ . Therefore, this can also be used for testing the hypothesis here. So we can have in general expectation of this will become  $= mn \pi + m \cdot m+1/2$ .

The variance of  $W$  will be same as the variance of  $U$  because it is simply a location shift. Also the null expectation of this will become  $mn/2 + m^*m + 1/2 = m^*m + n + 1/2$ . So the use of Wilcoxon  $W$  is same as the use of Mann Whitney  $U$ . Both can be used interchangeably. In certain problems it is easier to calculate  $W$  rather than the  $U$ . Now I consider general simple linear rank statistic for the 2 sample problems.

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General Simple Linear Rank Statistics

Let  $Z_1, \dots, Z_N$  be  $N$  r.v.'s,  $c_1, \dots, c_N$  be  $N$  constants (called regression constants)

Let  $a(1), \dots, a(N)$  be scores (constants)

$R_i = R(Z_i) \quad i=1, \dots, N$

$S = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i a(R_i)$  is called simple linear rank statistic

In Wilcoxon Rank test  $Z_i = X_i, \quad i=1, \dots, m$   
 $\quad \quad \quad \quad \quad = Y_{i-m}, \quad i=m+1, \dots, m+n$

$c_i = 1 \quad i=1, \dots, m$   
 $\quad \quad = 0 \quad i=m+1, \dots, m+n$

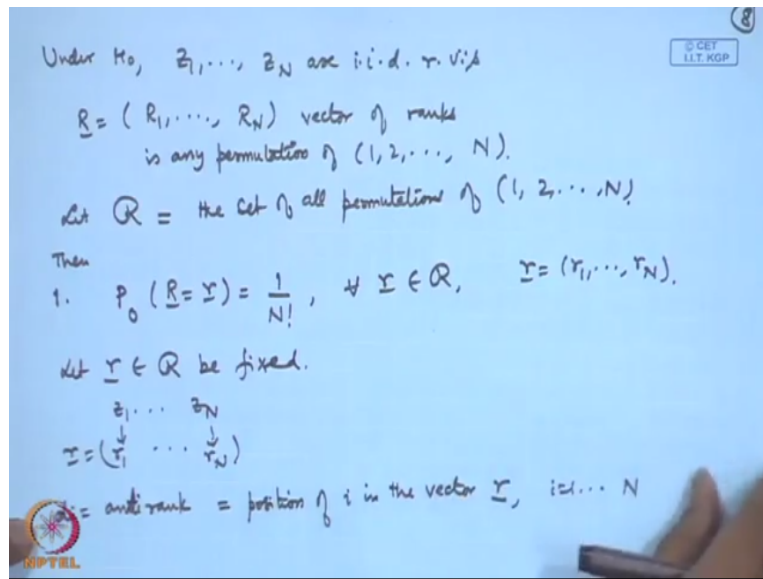
$a(i) = i, \quad i=1, \dots, N$

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Let  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_N$  be  $N$  random variables.  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_N$  be  $N$  constants. Here we call them regression constants and let us call  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N$  scores. So these are also some constants, but I call them scores so these have to be chosen. So now let us consider say  $R_i = \text{rank of } Z_i, i=1 \text{ to } N$ . So then  $S = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i a(R_i)$ . This is called simple linear rank statistic. See in Wilcoxon case, we have chosen  $Z_i$  to be  $X_i$  for  $i=1$  to  $m$  and it is  $= Y_{i-m}$  for  $i=m+1$  to  $m+n$  and  $c_i$  is 1 if  $i=1$  to  $m$  and it is  $= 0$  for  $i=m+1$  to  $m+n$  and  $a_i = i$  for  $i=1$  to  $N$ .

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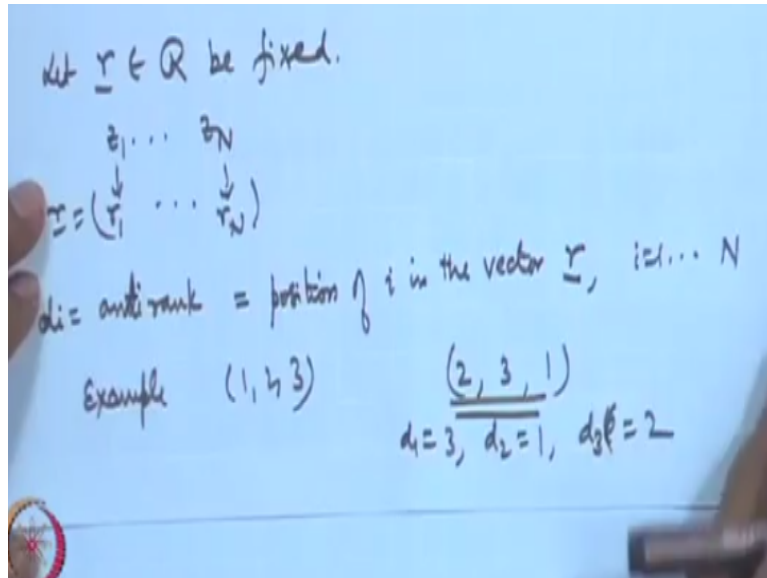


Let us also consider what happens under  $H_0$ . Under  $H_0$ , this  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_N$  they become independent and identically distributed random variables because they are coming from the same distribution if  $F=G$ . So if I consider  $R=R_1, R_2, R_N$  that is the vector of the ranks, so this is any permutation of numbers 1 to  $N$ . Let us consider say script  $\mathcal{R}$  the set of all permutations okay of the numbers 1 to  $N$ .

Then first result is that under the null hypothesis each of the permutation will be equally likely. Let us look at an elementary proof of this. If we consider say let us fix say some value  $R$  as a fixed value in the set of permutations. Now if I am considering say  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_N$  then corresponding to this we are having  $r_1, r_2, r_N$  these are the ranks here okay. Let us consider  $d_i$  to be the anti-rank so this is the new terminology that I am introducing here.

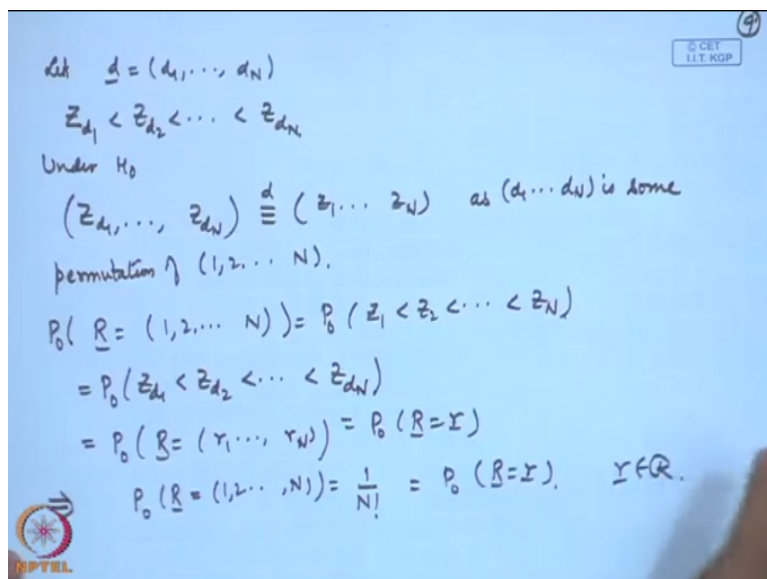
This is nothing but the position of  $i$  in the vector  $r$ ,  $i=1$  to  $N$ . See this is like this suppose I consider 3 numbers.

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Suppose I have say 1, 2, 3 okay and I consider say the arrangement of the ranks as say 2, 3, 1 suppose this is an arrangement here. Then what is the anti-rank here?  $d_1$  is 3,  $d_2=1$ , and  $d_3=2$ . These are the anti-ranks here.

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So let us write say  $\underline{d} = d_1, d_2, \dots, d_N$  that is the vector of the anti-ranks here. Then what we are saying is that  $Z_{d_1} < Z_{d_2} < \dots < Z_{d_N}$ . Now under  $H_0$ ,  $Z_{d_1}, Z_{d_2}, \dots, Z_{d_N}$  will have the same distribution as  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_N$  because this is simply one permutation of numbers 1 to N. It is some permutation of numbers 1 to N here. So if I consider say probability of say  $\underline{R} = 1$  to N then that is = probability that  $Z_1 < Z_2 < \dots < Z_N$ .

That is = probability of  $Z_{d_1} < Z_{d_2} < \dots < Z_{d_N}$  because the distributions are the same. But this is nothing but the probability that  $\underline{R} = r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N$  that means what I am saying for any permutation

it is equal to the same probability that means each of them will have the equal probability  $1/N$  factorial. So this proves that the distribution of the ranks is discrete uniform distribution over all permutations.

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a blue background:

2.  $P_0(R_i = k) = \frac{1}{N}, k=1, \dots, N, i=1, \dots, N$   
 $\downarrow$   
 $= \sum_{\substack{I \in \mathcal{Q} \\ \text{for which } r_i = k}} P_0(R = I) = \frac{(N-1)!}{N!} = \frac{1}{N}.$

3.  $P_0(R_i = k, R_j = l, i \neq j) = \begin{cases} 0 & k=l \\ \frac{(N-2)!}{N!} = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} & k \neq l, k, l \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}. \end{cases}$

Let us consider  $f: \mathcal{Q} \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}$ ,  $f$  is one-one & onto.  
 Then  $f(R) = R^*$  has a discrete uniform dist.  
 $P_0(R^* = I) = P_0(f(R) = I) = P_0(R = f^{-1}(I)) = P_0(R = I) = \frac{1}{N!}, I \in \mathcal{Q}.$

Now we consider individual ranks also. That means I consider the  $i$ th rank, then of course this can be from 1 to  $N$  then we will prove that it is actually for  $k=1$  to  $N$  for  $i=1$  to  $N$ . For each of them it will take the same number of values with same probabilities. See how do I derive this? This is equal to the sum over  $r$  for which  $r_i=k$ . So how many such things will be there? It will be  $N-1$  factorial/because 1 rank I am fixing for the  $i$ th one and other  $N-1$  positions will interchange.

They can be permuted in  $N-1$  factorial ways so it is becoming simply  $= 1/N$ . Similarly, we can consider say probability of say  $R_i=k$  or  $j=l$  where  $i$  is  $\neq j$ . Then of course this is 0 if  $k=l$  I am dealing with the continuous distributions so I will not assume that the 2 values can be same because the 2 values will be same with probability 0.

Now if I am fixing 2 values then  $N-2$  factorial/ $N$  factorial  $= 1/N * N-1$  where  $k$  is  $\neq l$  and both  $k$  and  $l$  can vary from 1 to  $N$ . So the joint distribution of 2 ranks can also be obtained and that is also bivariate, you can say discrete uniform distribution. Let us consider say a function which is on 2 function from  $R$  to  $R$  and also one-one and onto. Then  $fR$  let me call it  $R^*$ .

So this is actually a vector here, so this has a discrete uniform distribution. That is if I consider then that is  $= P_0 fR=r$  that is probability of  $R=f$  inverse  $r$ =probability of  $R=r$

star=1/N factorial for r belonging to R. So we are able to talk about this basic distribution of the ranks of the observations when I consider the combined samples. So under the null hypothesis it is from the same distribution.

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$$S = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i a(R_i)$$

$$E_0(a(R_i)) = \sum_{k=1}^N a(k) P_0(R_i=k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N a(k) = \bar{a}$$

$$E_0(S) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \bar{a} = N \bar{a} \bar{c} \quad \bar{c} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c_i$$

$$V_0(a(R_i)) = \sum_{k=1}^N (a(k) - \bar{a})^2 P_0(R_i=k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N (a(k) - \bar{a})^2$$

$$\text{cov}_0(a(R_i), a(R_j)) = \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^N (a(k) - \bar{a})(a(l) - \bar{a}) P_0(R_i=k, R_j=l)$$

$$= \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \left\{ \sum_{l \neq k} (a(l) - \bar{a})(a(k) - \bar{a}) \right\}$$

Therefore, these statements are valid. Let us consider now  $S = \sum c_i a(R_i)$  that was our expression for the simple linear rank statistic. So if I consider expectation of a  $R_i = \sum a_h$  probability that  $R_i = h$ . This will be  $R_i = h$ , for  $h=1$  to  $N$  because  $R_i$  can take values 1 to  $N$  here. This probability is  $1/N$  so it is simply becoming  $1/N \sum a_h$ ,  $h=1$  to  $N$ . Let us denote this quantity by  $\bar{a}$  here.

So expectation of  $S$  that is becoming  $\sum c_i \bar{a}$ , which you can also write as  $N \bar{a} \bar{c}$  where  $\bar{c}$  is nothing but the mean of  $c_i$ 's  $i=1$  to  $N$  here. We can also consider the variance here, so firstly let us consider the variance of a  $R_i = \sum a_h - \bar{a}$  square probability of  $R_i = h$ ,  $h=1$  to  $N$ . So this is  $1/N$  so it is becoming  $1/N \sum (a_h - \bar{a})^2$ ,  $h=1$  to  $N$ . For  $i \neq j$ , let us consider the covariance between a  $R_i$  and a  $R_j$ .

That is equal to double summation  $\sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^N (a(k) - \bar{a})(a(l) - \bar{a})$  probability of  $R_i = h, R_j = k = 1/N * N-1$   $\sum_{l \neq k} (a(l) - \bar{a})(a(k) - \bar{a})$ ,  $h \neq k$ .

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$$\begin{aligned}
\text{cov}_0(a(R_i), a(R_j)) &= \sum \sum (a(h) - \bar{a})(a(k) - \bar{a}) \rho_0(R_i=h, R_j=k) \\
&= \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \left\{ \sum \sum_{h \neq k} (a(h) - \bar{a})(a(k) - \bar{a}) \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \left\{ \left( \sum (a(h) - \bar{a}) \right)^2 - \sum (a(h) - \bar{a})^2 \right\} \\
&= -\frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{h=1}^N (a(h) - \bar{a})^2
\end{aligned}$$

This we can write as  $1/N * N-1$ . This term we write as the square of the sum-sum of the squares that means it is  $= \text{sigma } a_h - \bar{a} \text{ whole square} - \text{sigma } a_h - \bar{a} \text{ square}$ . So this term becomes 0, so we are left with  $-1/N * N-1 \text{ sigma of } a_h - \bar{a} \text{ square, } h=1 \text{ to } N$ . So these 2 terms we can use in the variance of S and we will get here.

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$$\begin{aligned}
V_0(S) &= \sum c_i^2 V_0(a(R_i)) + \sum \sum_{i \neq j} c_i c_j \text{cov}_0(a(R_i), a(R_j)) \\
&= \sum c_i^2 \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \sum (a(i) - \bar{a})^2 \right\} + \sum \sum_{i \neq j} c_i c_j \left\{ -\frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum (a(i) - \bar{a})^2 \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{(N-1)} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N c_i (c_i - \bar{c})^2 \right\} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N (a(i) - \bar{a})^2 \right\}
\end{aligned}$$

Applications to Two Sample Problems

$$c_i = \begin{cases} 1, & i=1, \dots, m \\ 0, & i=m+1, \dots, N \end{cases}$$

$$\bar{c} = \frac{m}{N}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^m a(R_i) = \bar{a}, \quad \bar{a} = \frac{m}{N}$$

$$\sum (c_i - \bar{c})^2 = m(1 - \bar{c})^2 + n\bar{c}^2 = \frac{mn^2}{N^2} + \frac{nm^2}{N^2} = \frac{mn}{N}$$

$$E_0(S) = N\bar{a} \cdot \frac{m}{N} = m\bar{a}, \quad V_0(S) = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \cdot mn \cdot \left\{ \sum (a(i) - \bar{a})^2 \right\}$$

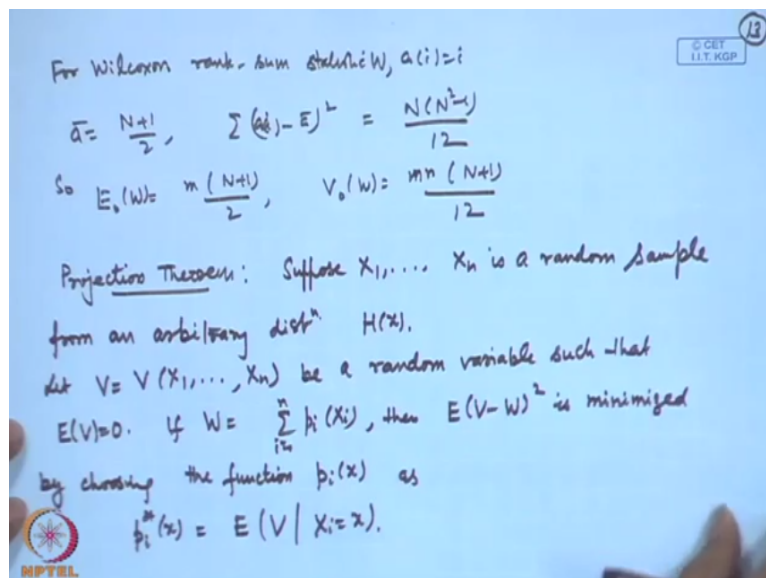
Variance of  $S = \text{sigma } c_i \text{ square variance of a } R_i + \text{double summation } c_i c_j \text{ covariance a } R_i \text{ a } R_j$ . The values of variance a  $R_i$  and covariance of a  $R_i$  and a  $R_j$  have just been calculated. So we substitute here so we get  $\text{sigma } c_i \text{ square}$  and this term is nothing but  $1/N \text{ sigma } a_i - \bar{a} \text{ square} + \text{double summation } i \neq j C_i C_j$  that is  $1/N * N-1 \text{ sigma } a_i - \bar{a} \text{ square}$ . So this is becoming  $1/N-1$ .

See this term I can take outside, so this will become simply sigma of ci-c bar square 1 to N\*sigma of ai-a bar square 1 to N. So in the general function that means if I consider general constants and that means regression constants and general score function we can derive the null mean and the null variance of the distribution of the linear rank statistics. As an application you can see to some of the 2 sample problems.

Let us consider some applications to 2 sample problems. Let us consider say ci=1 if i=1 to m and it is = 0 for i=m+1 to N. When S=sigma a of Ri 1 to m and c bar=m/N, so sigma of ci-c bar square 1 to N=m\*1-c bar square+n c bar square=mn square/N square+nm square/N square=mn/N. I can take out mn then this will become m+n that is N so N square cancels out to get U mn/N.

So under this if I consider expectation of S=N a bar m/N=m a bar and variance of S=1/N\*N-1 mn sigma ai-a bar whole square. For Wilcoxon rank-sum statistic ai=i so if I put that value here what I will get?

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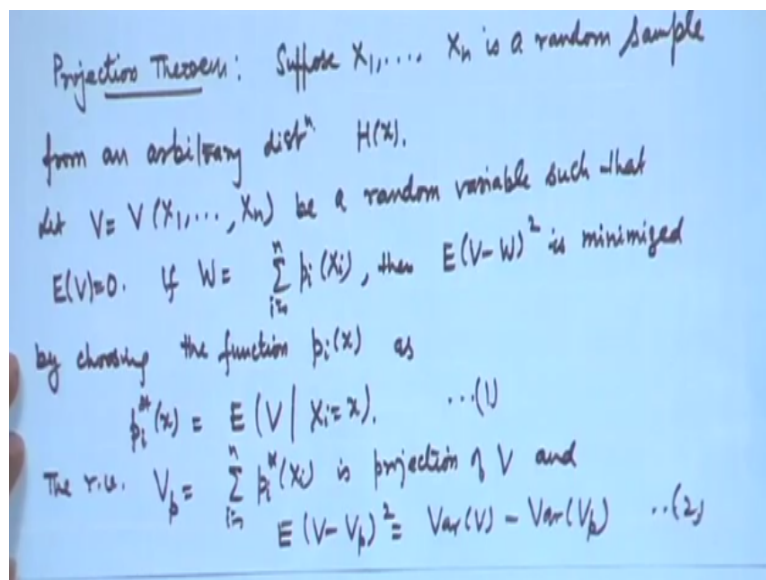
For Wilcoxon rank-sum statistics ai=i so a bar becomes N+1/2 and sigma ai-a bar that will become = N\*N square-1/12 that is the mean of the discrete uniform distribution and the variance of the discrete uniform distribution. So if I consider expectation of W=m\*N=1/2 and the variance=mn\*N+1/12. So if we compare with the values that I derived earlier, you can match here whether it is the same or not.



So if you look at here, this was  $= m \cdot m + n + 1/2$   $m+n=N$  so it is the same value. Variance of this was same as the variance of  $U$ , which was actually  $mn \cdot N + 1/12$  so here also you get  $mn \cdot N + 1/12$ . So you can see that this general structure helps us to perceive of various other new test statistics that can be utilized for various purposes in the testing problems. Next, we consider the concept of projection.

So we state a theorem here, we call it projection theorem. Suppose say  $X_1, X_2, X_n$  is a random sample from an arbitrary distribution  $H(x)$ . Let  $V = V$  of  $X_1, X_2, X_n$  be a random variable such that expectation of  $V=0$ . Now if  $W = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i X_i$  then expectation of  $V - W$  square is minimized by choosing the function  $p_i x$  as  $p_i \star x = \text{expectation of } V \text{ given } X_i = x$ .

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So this random variable which is obtained as  $V_p$ , the random variable  $V_p$  that is defined as  $\sum p_i \star X_i$ , this is called projection of  $V$  and expectation of  $V - V_p$  square = variance of  $V$  - variance of  $V_p$ . Let me name these relations as 1 and 2 here okay. Let us look at this. What we are saying is that we have the function  $W = \sum p_i X_i$ , so this is minimized when we consider the conditional expectation of  $V$  with respect to  $X_i$ .

And then when we do this for every  $X_i$  then if we sum it then it is called the projection of  $V$  okay.

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Proof: By adding and subtracting  $V_p$

$$E(V-W)^2 = E(V-V_p)^2 + E(V_p-W)^2 + 2E(V-V_p)(V_p-W)$$

$$E(V-V_p)(V_p-W) = E \sum_{i=1}^n (\beta_i^*(x_i) - \beta_i(x_i)) (V-V_p)$$

$$= \sum E E [(\beta_i^*(x_i) - \beta_i(x_i)) (V-V_p) | x_i]$$

$$= \sum E (\beta_i^*(x_i) - \beta_i(x_i)) \underbrace{E(V-V_p | x_i)}_0 \dots (3)$$

$$E(V-V_p | x_i) = E(V - \beta_i^*(x_i) - \sum_{j \neq i} \beta_j^*(x_j) | x_i) \rightarrow 0$$

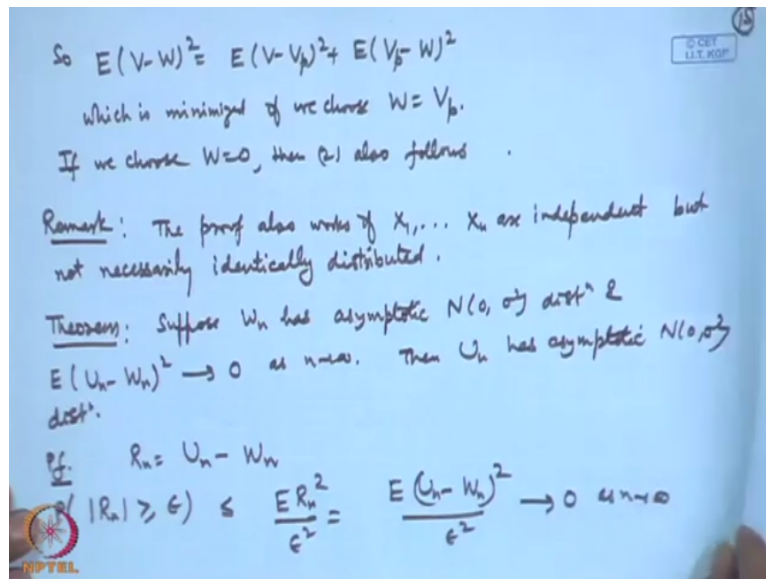
$$E(\beta_j^*(x_j) | x_i) = E \beta_j^*(x_j) = \underbrace{E}_{\downarrow 0} E(V | x_j) = E(V) = 0$$

Let us look at the proof of this here. By adding and subtracting  $V_p$ , so expectation of  $V-W$  square that is = expectation of  $V-V_p$  square+expectation of  $V_p-W$  square+twice expectation  $V-V_p V_p-W$ . So if I look at the expectation of  $V-V_p * V_p-W$ =expectation of sigma pi star  $X_i - \beta_i X_i * V-V_p$  for  $i=1$  to  $n$ . Now this we can write as the summation expectation of expectation pi star  $X_i - \beta_i X_i * V-V_p$  given  $X_i$ .

So this becomes = expectation of pi star  $X_i - \beta_i X_i$ , this term can be separated out, expectation of  $V-V_p$  given  $X_i$ . Now if we consider expectation of  $V-V_p$  given  $X_i$ =expectation of  $V - \beta_i X_i - \sum_{j \neq i} \beta_j X_j$  given  $X_i$ . Now if we look at the definition 1 here, then this is actually = 0 so this part is 0 and so this part becomes 0 and if I look at this term, expectation of  $\beta_j X_j$  given  $X_i$  then what it is equal to?

Expectation of  $\beta_j X_j$  because  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  are independent so it is equal to expectation of expectation  $V$  given  $X_j$  that is expectation of  $V$  that is = 0 because I am assuming  $V$  to be random variable such that expectation  $V$  is 0, so this term si also 0. So basically this entire term is becoming actually = 0, this term is becoming 0 so this term is entirely becoming = 0.

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So what we are getting is that expectation of  $V-W$  square is nothing but expectation of  $V-V_p$  square+expectation of  $V_p-W$  square. That means it is the expectations of the 2 positive terms not negative terms. So this is minimized if we choose  $W=V_p$  here. If we choose  $W=0$  then the expression 2 also follows. So this completes the proof of this projection theorem. As a remark, let me mention here.

The proof also works if  $X_1, X_2, X_n$  are independent, but not necessarily identically distributed. So in some applications this theorem can be used because when  $X_i$ 's are coming independently but they are not having the same distribution then also this concept of projection can be used here. So we have the following theorem, which is following from here.

Suppose  $W_n$  has asymptotic normal  $0, \sigma^2$  distribution and expectation of  $U_n - W_n$  square this goes to 0 as  $n$  tends to infinity. Then,  $U_n$  has asymptotic normal  $0, \sigma^2$  distribution. For proving let us define  $R_n = U_n - W_n$ , so probability of  $R_n \geq \epsilon$  that is  $\leq$  expectation of  $R_n$  square/ $\epsilon$  square=expectation of  $U_n - W_n$  square/ $\epsilon$  square. This goes to 0 as  $n$  tends to infinity.

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Theorem: Suppose  $W_n$  has asymptotic  $N(0, \sigma^2)$  dist.  
 $E(U_n - W_n)^2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Then  $U_n$  has asymptotic  $N(0, \sigma^2)$  dist.

Pf.  $R_n = U_n - W_n$   
 $P(|R_n| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{E R_n^2}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{E(U_n - W_n)^2}{\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$   
 $\therefore R_n \xrightarrow{p} 0 \Rightarrow R_n + W_n \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$

So this proves that  $R_n$  goes to 0 in probability. So now you add it here, this implies  $R_n + W_n$  that will converge in distribution to normal 0, sigma square. Using these properties, I will be deriving the asymptotic distributions of the Mann Whitney U statistic and the Wilcoxon rank-sum statistics in the next lecture, so that I will be covering in the next lecture.