

Statistical Methods for Scientists and Engineers
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Lecture - 38
Nonparametric Methods - XI

We were discussing the theory of general linear rank statistics in the previous class and we have discussed the distributions, then we also talked about how to find out the asymptotic distribution of the general linear rank statistics. Now using that theory, we will derive the asymptotic distribution of Mann–Whitney U statistic and the Wilcoxon rank sum statistics for two sample problems. We will show that they are actually asymptotic normal.

So this is proved in the following theorem.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:53)

Lecture 38

Theorem: Suppose $m, n \rightarrow \infty \ni m/N \rightarrow \lambda$, $N=m+n$
 $0 < \lambda < 1$. Then $\frac{W - E(W)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(W)}}$ and $\frac{U - E(U)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(U)}}$ have limiting
 $N(0,1)$ distributions under $H_0: \theta = 0$.

Proof: Let $T_{ij} = 1$ if $y_j > x_i$
 $= 0$ if $y_j \leq x_i$

$U^* = \sum \sum T_{ij} = mn - U$, $E_0(T_{ij}) = \frac{1}{2}$

Let $W^* = \sum \sum (T_{ij} - \frac{1}{2})$

Then $E_0(W) = 0$ (under H_0)

$E_0\left\{T_{ij} - \frac{1}{2} \mid X_k = x\right\} = P(y_j > x_i \mid X_k = x) - \frac{1}{2}$

So we consider that m and n tend to infinity such that m/n goes to lambda. That means where $N=m+n$, that means basically what we are saying is that it is not that abnormally one of the sample sizes becomes very large. It will be that both of them will have a fixed ratio. So here, of course, your lambda will be between 0 and 1. Then the standardized Wilcoxon statistic and similarly the standardized Mann-Whitney statistic.

That is the W-expectation $W/\text{square root variance of } W$ and U-expectation $U/\text{square root variance of } U$. These 2 have limiting normal 0, 1 distributions under the null hypothesis that is $\theta=0$. To prove this, let us consider here the definitions of this. Let me rewrite this thing. Suppose I consider $T_{ij}=1$ if Y_j is $>X_i$ and it = 0 if Y_j is $\leq X_i$. So if I consider $U^*=\text{double summation } T_{ij}$, then actually it is $=mn-U$.

Because U was defined as the sum of σT_{ij} where T_{ij} was one when Y_j is $< X_i$, that means it is reverse of this. We are assuming that the ties are not occurring, then we will have expectation of $T_{ij}=1$ under the null hypothesis. That is when $\theta = 0$. Let us consider say W^* , which is based on T_{ij} . If we define this thing, then we will have expectation of W also = 0 under H not that is when $\theta = 0$.

Now let us consider the conditional expectation of $T_{ij}-1/2$ given that $X_k = X$ under the null hypothesis, then it is nothing but the probability of $Y_j > X_i$ given that $X_k = X-1/2$. So we can then write.

(Refer Slide Time: 04:05)

$$E\left\{T_{ij} - \frac{1}{2} \mid X_k = x\right\} = \begin{cases} 0 & \forall k \neq i \\ P(Y > x) - \frac{1}{2} & \forall k = i \end{cases}$$

and

$$E\left\{T_{ij} - \frac{1}{2} \mid Y_k = y\right\} = \begin{cases} 0 & \forall k \neq j \\ P(y > X) - \frac{1}{2} & \forall k = j \end{cases}$$

X and Y have the same distⁿ under H_0 i.e. F

$$E\left[\sum \sum (T_{ij} - \frac{1}{2}) \mid X_k = x\right] = n\left\{[1 - F(x)] - \frac{1}{2}\right\}$$

$$E\left\{\sum \sum (T_{ij} - \frac{1}{2}) \mid Y_k = y\right\} = m\left\{F(y) - \frac{1}{2}\right\}$$

The projection of W^* is

Expectation of $T_{ij}-1/2$ given $X_k=X$. This is = 0 if k is $\neq i$ and it is = probability of $Y > X-1/2$ if k is = i . Similarly, if I consider expectation of $T_{ij} -1/2$ given Y_k is $=Y$, then this is =0 if k is $\neq j$ and it is equal to probability of $Y > x-1/2$ if $k=j$. Now we are assuming that under the null hypothesis

that is $\theta = 0$, X and Y will have the same distribution under H_0 , that is F . So if we consider expectation of double summation $T_{ij} - 1/2$ given $X_k = X$.

Then that will become simply $\sum_{i=1}^m [1/2 - F(X_i)] + m \sum_{j=1}^n [F(Y_j) - 1/2]$. Now you see here that I will get this value when $k=i$ for all other values it will be $=0$. So how many times that will occur when $k=i$, that is how many X_i are there. There are n , so this will become $n * 1 - F(X) - 1/2$. So this I can write like this. Similarly, if I consider expectation of double summation $T_{ij} - 1/2$ given $Y_k = Y$, then this is $= m * F(Y) - 1/2$. You can see here, this is $X < Y$, so that is $F(Y)$ and here it is $Y > X$, so it is a CDF of Y that is F .

So it is $1 - \text{probability } Y \leq X$ that is $1 - F(X)$ here. Now the projection of W^* .

(Refer Slide Time: 06:54)

$$V_p = n \sum_{i=1}^m \left[\frac{1}{2} - F(X_i) \right] + m \sum_{j=1}^n \left[F(Y_j) - \frac{1}{2} \right]$$
 Consider $\frac{\sqrt{N}}{mn} V_p = \frac{\sqrt{N}}{m} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^m V_i + \frac{\sqrt{N}}{n} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n V_j^*$,
 where V_i and V_j^* are uniformly distributed on $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$,
 with mean 0 and variance $1/12$.
 So applying Central Limit Theorem on the two terms of the right hand side,
 $\frac{\sqrt{N}}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m V_i \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} Z_1$, where $Z_1 \sim N(0, \frac{1}{2})$.
 $V_n^* \rightarrow Z_2$ and V_n & V_n^* are indept., then the
 characteristic fn. of $V_n + V_n^*$ converges to ch. fn. of $Z_1 + Z_2$.

We are writing it as $V_p = n * \sum_{i=1}^m [1/2 - F(X_i)] + m * \sum_{j=1}^n [F(Y_j) - 1/2]$. So let us consider here square root $\sqrt{N}/mn V_p$ that is $= \sqrt{N}/m * \sum_{i=1}^m V_i + \sqrt{N}/n * \sum_{j=1}^n V_j^*$. What are these V_i and V_j^* , we are considering V_i and V_j^* , they are uniformly distributed on interval $-1/2$ to $1/2$. So they will have basically 0 mean and variance will become $1/12$. Now these are in the form of the summation.

So we can apply the central limit theorem on the 2 terms on the right hand side. Basically what I have done, I adjusted these terms here. See this particular term because of the probability, integral transform, this becomes uniform distribution on the interval 0 to 1, $F(Y_j)$ becomes

uniform distribution on the interval 0 to 1. So $1/2 - F(X_i)$ becomes uniform distribution on the interval $-1/2$ to $1/2$.

Similarly, $F(Y_j) - 1/2$ becomes uniform distribution on the interval $-1/2$ to $1/2$. So both of these are summations now and we apply the central limit theorem. So applying central limit theorem on the 2 terms of the right hand side, what will happen, we will get square root n/n sigma V_i , $i=1$ to n , this will converge to $1/\sqrt{\lambda} Z_1$ where Z_1 is following normal 0 ($1/12$) and in a similar way, if we consider V_n^* converging to Z_2 and V_n and V_n^* are independent.

Then the characteristic function of $V_n + V_n^*$ converges to characteristic function of $Z_1 + Z_2$. Basically what we get then here.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:43)

So

$$\frac{\sqrt{N}}{mn} V_p \xrightarrow{D} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} Z_1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\lambda}} Z_2$$

where Z_1 and Z_2 are independent $N(0, 1/12)$.

So

$$\frac{\sqrt{N}}{mn} V_p \xrightarrow{L} Z \sim N\left(0, \frac{1}{12\lambda(1-\lambda)}\right)$$

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{\sqrt{N}}{mn} V_p\right) \rightarrow \frac{1}{12\lambda(1-\lambda)}$$

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{\sqrt{N}}{mn} W^*\right) = \frac{N(N+1)}{12mn} \rightarrow \frac{1}{12\lambda(1-\lambda)}$$

So by projection theorem and the relation (2),

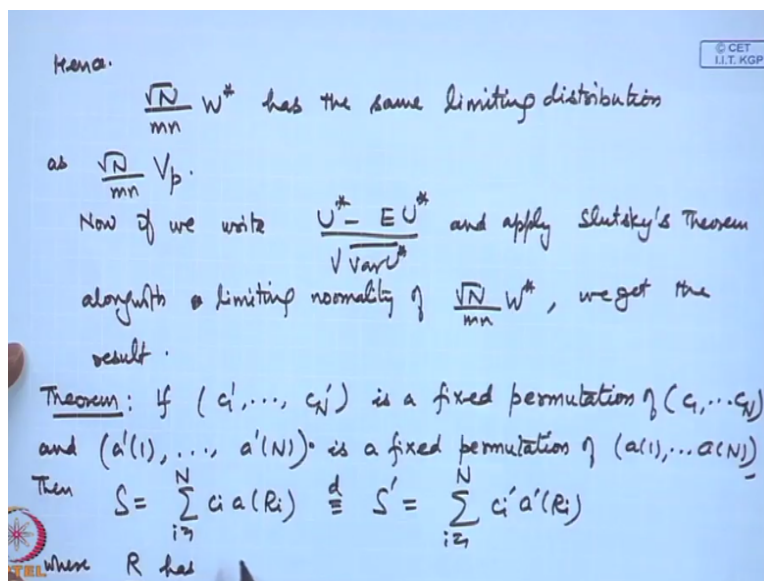
So root n/mn V_p , this will converge to, that means I am considering the sum hereafter adjustment here. So this is converging to $1/\sqrt{\lambda} Z_1$ and this is converging to $1/\sqrt{1-\lambda} Z_2$. So this coming to $1/\sqrt{\lambda} Z_1 + 1/\sqrt{1-\lambda} Z_2$ where Z_1 and Z_2 are independent normal 0 , $1/12$. So if we apply the linearity property of the normal distribution, we get that root n/mn V_p converges and distribution to Z , which follows normal 0 , $1/12 \lambda * 1 - \lambda$.

We can also talk about the asymptotic variance. So variance of square root n/mn V_p , this will converge to $1/12 \lambda * 1 - \lambda$ and variance of square root n/mn W^* that will also converge to that is $= n^*n + 1/12 mn$ that is also converging to same value. Because this was just a linear combination of this thing. So if we now use the projection theorem, which I gave in the last class, let me just repeat it here.

That expectation $V-W$ square is minimized by choosing P_i^*x as expectation of V given x_i and this is the projection and expectation of $V - V_p$ square = variance of the -variance of V_p . So we use this result here now. So by projection theorem and the relation 2 which I just now showed you, we get that expectation of root n/mn $W^* -$ root n/mn V_p . This goes to 0. So if we use the theorem, which I gave for the limit part.

That is if W_n is asymptotic distribution and expectation of $U_n - W_n$ square goes to 0, then U_n also has an asymptotic normal distribution. So if we use this.

(Refer Slide Time: 14:17)



Hence square root n/mn W^* has the same limiting distribution as root n/mn V_p . So now if we write U^* -expectation $U^*/$ square root variance of U^* and apply Slutsky's theorem along with limiting normality of square root n/mn W^* . We get the result. So thus we have obtained the asymptotic distribution of the Wilcoxon rank sum statistic and the Mann-Whitney U statistic and both are found to be asymptotically normal.

Now in the general linear rank statistics, we are writing the statistic of the form $\sum_{i=1}^n C_i A(R_i)$. Now in this one, we may consider some sort of permutation of the ranks or you can say permutation of the indices. Then what happens to the distribution. Our next result is regarding the distribution of the permuted form of this. So if C_1 prime, C_2 prime, C_n prime is fixed permutation of C_1, C_2, C_n .

A_1 prime and so on A_n prime, this is a fixed permutation of A_1, A_2, A_n , then $S = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i A(R_i)$ is having the same distribution as S prime = where the vector of ranks has uniform distribution over the set of all permutations of the numbers 1 to n . So this is on the testing result and it allows us to use the ranks in it. That means basically the way the data has been obtained, it will not matter when we consider the distribution of the linear rank statistics, which is based on that. Let me give the proof of this here.

(Refer Slide Time: 17:53)

Proof: $C_i' = C_{\alpha_i}$ for some $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathcal{R}$.
 \downarrow i -th value of c under permutation α .
 $A_i'(i) = A(\beta_i)$, for some $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n) \in \mathcal{R}$.
 Define $\phi: \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$
 $\phi(r) = \beta \circ r \circ \alpha^{-1} \rightarrow$ composition of permutations
 where α & β are fixed.
 Take any $r \in \mathcal{R}$, (fixed but arbitrary)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n C_i' A_i'(R_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n C_{\alpha_i} A(\beta_{r_i})$$

Since C_1 prime, C_2 prime, this is a permutation, so we can write C_1 prime as some C of α_i for some $\alpha = \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_n$ belonging to \mathcal{R} . Basically this means that it is the i -th value of C under permutation α . Similarly, we can consider A prime i as A of β_i . This is for some permutation β of the numbers 1 to n . Let us define a function from \mathcal{R} to \mathcal{R} as $\phi(r) = \beta \circ r \circ \alpha^{-1}$.

Here the alpha and beta are this. This is actually the composition of the permutations. So you can look at it like this, that R is a vector in R, that means it is permutation of the numbers 1 to n. On that we apply beta from the left end and alpha inverse from the right end. So here alpha and beta are fixed. As we have mentioned here that these are fixed permutations. So for fixed permutations, this result is being proved.

We have already fixed alpha and beta here. So now let us consider. Take any R belonging to R which is arbitrarily fixed. So S prime that is based on $i=1$ to $n = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i \alpha_i A \beta R_i$, $i=1$ to n . Why this is so, because A prime $i=A$ of beta i . So if I am writing R_i here, then this will become beta R_i here. So this I can now write as $\sum_{i=1}^n C_i A(\beta R_i)$ since I have changed alpha to i that means I have taken the inverse transformation for i, then this will become alpha i inverse, $i=1$ to n . So this has then become $= \sum_{i=1}^n C_i A(\phi_i)$ $i=1$ to n .

(Refer Slide Time: 21:35)

Hence $S' = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i a(\phi_{(i)}) = S$ with R replaced by $\phi(R)$. Hence $S \stackrel{d}{=} S'$

Corollary: $S = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i a(R_i) \stackrel{d}{=} S' = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i a(N-R_i+1)$

Theorem: Let R have uniform dist^n over \mathcal{R} . If either

$a(i) + a(N-i+1) = \text{const} = k$.

or $C_i + C_{N-i+1} = \text{const}$,

then $S = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i a(R_i)$ has a symmetric dist^n about $N/2$.

Proof: Case I: $a(i) + a(N-i+1) = \text{const} = k$
 $\Rightarrow \sum (a(i) + a(N-i+1)) = Nk$

Hence $S \text{ prime} = C_i A(\phi_i)$ $i=1$ to $n = S$ with R replaced by ϕR . Hence S will have the same distribution as $S \text{ prime}$. So we denote by this, S and $S \text{ prime}$ have the same distribution. Let us repeat the argument here. I am expressing $S \text{ prime}$, which is $\sum C_i \text{ prime}, A \text{ prime } R_i$ as here $C_i \text{ prime}$ has become C_i again and here $A \text{ prime } R_i$ becomes A of ϕ_i here. So you can say that ϕ_i is a 1 to 1 function. Because what is happening there is R .

R is transferred using beta and alpha inverse. So for a given R phi R is uniquely defined. If that is so, then basically the original combination will be preserved here for the distribution. That means whatever probability we are saying for that particular thing, it will remain the same. As a corollary if we consider like we are going 1 to n and then we take from the reverse side, so if we consider the permutations, which are counted from the left hand side, if you count from the right hand side, then the distribution must be the same.

So as a corollary we have the following result, that is the $\sum_{i=1}^n C_i A(R_i)$. This will have the same distribution as $S' = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i A(n-R_i+1)$. As a consequence, we can prove another important theorem. Let R have uniform distribution over R. That means we are considering each permutation is equally likely. If either $A_i + A_{n-i+1} = \text{a constant say } K$ or $C_i + C_{n-i+1}$ is a constant, then $S = \sum C_i A(R_i)$ has a symmetric distribution about $n \bar{A} \bar{C}$.

We will take both the cases. Firstly, when $A_i + A_{n-i+1}$ is a constant and secondly the case when $C_i + C_{n-i+1}$ is a constant. So $A_i + A_{n-i+1}$ that is a constant = K. This implies $\sum_{i=1}^n A_i + A_{n-i+1} = Nk$.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:51)

$$\Rightarrow 2\bar{a} = k \text{ or } \bar{a} = k/2.$$

$$\text{So } a(i) + a(N-i+1) = 2\bar{a} \quad \dots (1)$$

$$\text{So } S = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i a(R_i) \stackrel{d}{=} S' = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i a(N-R_i+1)$$

Consequently,

$$P_0(S = N\bar{a}\bar{c} + \delta) = P_0(S' = N\bar{a}\bar{c} + \delta)$$

$$= P_0\left(\sum C_i a(N-R_i+1) = N\bar{a}\bar{c} + \delta\right)$$

$$= P_0\left(\sum C_i (2\bar{a} - a(R_i)) = N\bar{a}\bar{c} + \delta\right)$$

$$= P_0\left(\sum C_i a(R_i) = N\bar{a}\bar{c} - \delta\right)$$

$$= P_0(S = N\bar{a}\bar{c} - \delta).$$

This implies $2 \bar{A} = K$ or $\bar{A} = K/2$. So $A_i + A_{n-i+1} = \text{twice } \bar{A}$. Let me call this relation #1. So $S = \sum C_i A(R_i)$, this is having the same distribution as S' , that is $S' = \sum C_i A(n-R_i+1)$. So as a consequence, let us consider the probability of $S = N \bar{A} \bar{C} + S$. That is

probability of S prime = $N \bar{A} \bar{C} + S$. That is probability of $\sum_{i=1}^N C_i A(n-R_i+1) = N \bar{A} \bar{C} + S$. This we can write as probability of $\sum_{i=1}^N C_i$.

And here we change $A(n-R_i+1)$ as $2\bar{A} - A(R_i)$ using this relation here. Because $A_i + A(n-i+1) = 2\bar{A} = N \bar{A} \bar{C} + S$, so that is = probability of $\sum_{i=1}^N C_i A(R_i)$ and this becomes $N \bar{C}$, so twice $N \bar{A} \bar{C}$, this you bring to the left hand side, and you take this term to the right hand side. So you get $N \bar{A} \bar{C} - S$, which is same as probability of $S = N \bar{A} \bar{C} - S$. So this will prove that the distribution of S is symmetric about $N \bar{A} \bar{C}$.

So we have proved this theorem for the case when $A_i + A(n-i+1)$ is a constant. Now let us take the second case.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:27)

Case II: $C_i + C_{N-i+1} = k$
 $\Rightarrow C_i + C_{N-i+1} = 2\bar{C} \dots (2)$
 $S = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i A(R_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N C_{d_i} A(i) \stackrel{d}{=} S' = \sum_{i=1}^N C_{N-d_i+1} A(i)$
 where d_i is the anti-rank of i
 $P_0(S = N\bar{A}\bar{C} + \delta) = P_0\left(\sum_{i=1}^N C_{N-d_i+1} A(i) = N\bar{A}\bar{C} + \delta\right)$
 $= P_0\left(\sum_{i=1}^N (2\bar{C} - C_{d_i}) A(i) = N\bar{A}\bar{C} + \delta\right)$
 $= P_0\left(\sum_{i=1}^N C_{d_i} A(i) = N\bar{A}\bar{C} - \delta\right)$
 $= P_0\left(\sum_{i=1}^N C_i A(R_i) = N\bar{A}\bar{C} - \delta\right)$
 $= P_0(S = N\bar{A}\bar{C} - \delta)$

$C_i + C(n-i+1) = K$, which implies that $C_i + C(n-i+1) = 2\bar{C}$. This proof will be same because we can sum over all the values, we will get $2K$ and then since both the sums will be the same, therefore this is $= 2\bar{C}$ therefore $K=2\bar{C}$. So now let us consider $S = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i A(R_i)$. Now this we write as $\sum_{i=1}^N C_{d_i} A(i)$ where d_i is the anti-rank of i . Basically what we are doing is that if the i -th observation has rank R_i , so i will have the reverse d_i .

That is have changed R_i/i so what is the corresponding reverse value here, so that is called C_{d_i} . So this will then have the same distribution as $\sum_{i=1}^N C(n-d_i+1) A(i)$, $i=1$ to n . So if I consider

the probability of $S = N \bar{A} \bar{C} + S$, then it is = probability of $\sum C (n-d_i+1) A(i) = N \bar{A} \bar{C} + S =$ probability of $2\bar{C} - C d_i A(i)$, $i=1$ to n that is = $N \bar{A} \bar{C} + S =$ probability of $\sum C d_i A_i$, again this term you take to the other side.

So this becomes $N \bar{A} \bar{C} - S$ that is same as saying $\sum C_i A(R_i) = N \bar{A} \bar{C} - S$. So once again, you are proving that the distribution of S is symmetric about $N \bar{A} \bar{C}$. We can actually apply this result to various statistics and therefore they can be used for the testing problems in the 2 sample testing problems. Let me give some examples.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:00)

Examples: Van-der-Waerden Statistic

$$a(i) = \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{i}{N+1}\right)$$

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{R_i}{N+1}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{R_i}{N+1}\right)$$

$$E_0(X) = m \bar{a}$$

To determine \bar{a} , we use the fact that $a(i) + a(N-i+1) = \text{const}$

$$\Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{i}{N+1}\right) = x \Rightarrow \frac{i}{N+1} = \Phi(x) \Rightarrow 1 - \frac{i}{N+1} = 1 - \Phi(x) = \Phi(-x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{i}{N+1}\right) + \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{N-i+1}{N+1}\right) = 0 \quad -x = \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{N-i+1}{N+1}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{a} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow E_0(X) = 0$$

1 is called Van der Waerden statistic. Here the scores are taken as based on the CDF of the standard normal distribution, that is phi inverse $i/n+1$. So if we consider the statistic as $\sum C_i$ phi inverse $i (R_i/n+1)$, $i=1$ to n . So this will be = $\sum C_i$ because for $n+1$ up to n , this will be 0. This is $i=1$ to $m C_i$ phi inverse $R_i/n+1$. So expectation of x under the null hypothesis is = $m \bar{a}$. Actually you can determine \bar{A} here.

Here if we consider the property of the standard normal CDF here that is to determine \bar{A} , we use the fact that $A(i) + A(n-i+1)$ that is constant. If I write say phi inverse $i/n+1 =$ some x , then this will mean that $i/n+1 =$ phi of x , this will mean that $1-i/n+1=1-\text{phi of } x = \text{phi of } (-x)$. So you will get $-x = \text{phi inverse of } n-i+1/n+1$. So what do you get then. $\text{Phi inverse } i/n+1 + \text{phi inverse } n-i+1/n+1 = 0$. That means this constant is actually becoming = 0.

This means that your A bar is 0 and therefore you will have expectation of x under the null hypothesis that is also 0. That is mA bar. We can also write the expression for the variance of x that is $\frac{m}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{i+1}$. This kind of statistics are quite useful for Gupta 2 sample testing problems. Let me also introduce the scale problem here and the 2-sample scale problem.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:28)

Let X_1, \dots, X_m be a random sample from $F_X(x)$
 $\& Y_1, \dots, Y_n$ be another independent random sample from $G_Y(x)$.

$H_0: G_Y(x) = F_X(x) \neq x$
 $\text{vs } H_1: G_Y(x) = F_X(\theta x) \neq x, \theta \neq 1, \theta > 0$

$v(Y) = \int x^2 dG_Y(x) = \int x^2 dF_X(\theta x) = \frac{1}{\theta^2} \int y^2 dF_X(y) = \frac{v(X)}{\theta^2}$.

So $\theta > 1 \Leftrightarrow v(X) > v(Y)$
 $\theta < 1 \Leftrightarrow v(X) < v(Y)$

$H_0: \theta = 1$ alternatives $\rightarrow H_1: \theta < 1, H_2: \theta > 1, H_3: \theta \neq 1$.

So we have a random sample, let X_1, X_2, X_m be a random sample from the CDF, $F(x)$ and Y_1, Y_2, Y_n be another independent random sample. This is from $G_Y(x)$. So our null hypothesis is whether the 2 distributions are identical and alternatives that this is θx for all x where $\theta \neq 1$. So this is basically the scale model because I have introduced a scale parameter here. So when you have $\theta = 1$, then the 2 will be same, so that is the null hypothesis.

We may also consider it in terms of the variability. So if we consider say $X^2 dG_Y = X^2 dF_X$ $\theta x = 1/\theta^2 y^2 dF_X$, so that is $= V_X/\theta^2$. So $\theta > 1$ will imply that $V_X > V_Y$ and $\theta < 1$ will imply that $V_X < V_Y$. In some sense, we can say that this testing problem is equivalent to testing, which distribution has more variability. That is the distribution of x or the distribution of y .

So basically we can consider this null hypothesis, and alternatives will be $\theta < 1$ that means whether the variability of X is less than the variability of the distribution of Y or $\theta > 1$ that means whether the variability of X is more than the variability of Y or simply say that the variability of X is different from the variability of Y. So all the 3 alternatives can be considered here. So some of the 2 sample statistics that are introduced for the scale problem, they are as follows. Let me give few of them.

(Refer Slide Time: 38:37)

Certain Two Sample Statistics for Scale Problems.

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

Mood Test Statistic : $a(i) = \left(i - \frac{N+1}{2}\right)^2$

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(R_i - \frac{N+1}{2}\right)^2$$

$$E_0(M) = \frac{m(N^2-1)}{12}, \quad N\bar{a} = \frac{N(N^2-1)}{12}$$

$$V_0(M) = \frac{mn}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\left(i - \frac{N+1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{N^2-1}{12} \right]^2$$

M small \Leftrightarrow less variability of x 's $\Rightarrow \theta < 1$.

M large \Leftrightarrow more variability of x 's $\Rightarrow \theta > 1$.

Certain 2 sample statistics for scale problems. So here I am taking $C_i=1$ for $i=1$ to n and $=0$ for $i=n+1$ to n . So when we are mixing the 2 samples, I am assigning the value 1 and in the second 1, I am assigning the value 0. So 1 is Mood test statistic. In Mood test statistic, we take the scores as $i-N+1/2$ square. You can easily understand what does it represent here. It will represent that how much difference each value basically when we put AR_i .

So $N+1/2$ is the mean rank here. So how much each rank is different from this 1. So this is a major of variability of the ranks and therefore if I consider by statistics based on that. For example, if I write the Mood statistic as $\sigma R_i - N+1/2$ square, $i=1$ to m . So basically this is the rank of X_i in the sample, so if the ranks are closer to the mean value of all the, that means the sample is well mixed up that is x 's and y 's are well mixed up and therefore it will mean that θ is closer to 1.

Whereas the more variability will imply that m is large. So we can consider here, expectation of $M = MN$ square-1/12, \bar{N}_a will be equal to N^2 square-1/12, and variance of $N = mn/N^2$, I am not giving the derivations here. But this can be done in a easy way, M small is equivalent to less variability of x 's that is $\theta < 1$, and M large will imply that more variability, that is $\theta > 1$. So this can be used for testing, the test of hypothesis here.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:00)

Freund - Ansari - Bradley - David - Barton Statistic

$$a(i) = \left| i - \frac{N+1}{2} \right| \rightarrow \text{Ansari - Bradley.}$$

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^m \left| R_i - \frac{N+1}{2} \right|$$

When N is odd say $N = 2M - 1$.

$$N\bar{a} = \sum_{i=1}^N \left| i - \frac{N+1}{2} \right| = \sum_{i=1}^{2M-1} |i - M|$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{M-1} (M-i) + \sum_{i=M+1}^{2M-1} (i-M)$$

$$= M(M-1) - \frac{M(M-1)}{2} + \frac{M(M-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{N+1}{2} \cdot \frac{N-1}{2} = \frac{N^2-1}{4}$$

We can also consider another statistic which is named by several authors actually Freund, Ansari, Bradley, David, Barton. So if you look at this Mood statistic, here it is taking the square deviation here, so from the square deviation we take the absolute deviation, then we get this statistics. So these are all very natural choices for their core functions here. So Ansari, Bradley is given by $\sum_{i=1}^m R_i - N+1/2$, $i = 1$ to m .

Actually there are several variations of this that means whether you take directly like this or so. So this one is actually Ansari, Bradley choice. Let us take the case when N is odd, that means $N=2M-1$ kind of thing. If that is so, then \bar{N}_a , that is $\sum_{i=1}^m |i - N+1/2|$, that is becoming $\sum_{i=1}^m |i - M|$, that is $\sum_{i=1}^{M-1} (M-i) + \sum_{i=M+1}^{2M-1} (i-M)$. So $i=1$ to $m-1$, and this is from $M+1$ to $2M-1$, corresponding to $i=m$ this term becomes 0.

So if you look at this, this is becoming $M^2 - M/2$ and this will also give the similar thing $-M^2 + M/2 + \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} j$. So this actually gets cancelled out, so you simply get $M^2 - M/2$, which is $N+1/2 \cdot N-1/2$, that is $N^2 - 1/4$ here. So if \bar{N}_a is this one, then we are able to get the value.

(Refer Slide Time: 44:52)

So $E_0(A) = \frac{m(N^2-1)}{4N}$ (N is odd).

When N is even, say $N=2M$,

$$N\bar{a} = \sum_{i=1}^{2M} \left| i - \frac{2M+1}{2} \right| = \sum_{i=1}^M \left(\frac{2M+1}{2} - i \right) + \sum_{i=M+1}^{2M} \left(i - \frac{2M+1}{2} \right)$$

$$= M\left(M + \frac{1}{2}\right) - \sum_{i=1}^M i + \sum_{j=1}^M j - \frac{M}{2} = M^2 = \frac{N^2}{4}, \quad \theta$$

$$\bar{a} = \frac{N}{4}.$$

So $E_0(A) = \frac{mN}{4}$ (N is even).

$V_0(A)$ can be calculated in a similar manner.

Large A indicates $\theta > 1$

Expectation A that is $= mN \text{ square} - 1/4N$, of course this I have done for N odd. If N is even, say $N=2M$, in that case you consider $N\bar{a}$ that is $= \sum_{i=1}^{2M} |i - N/2|$, that is $N/2$, $i=1$ to $2M$. So again we split in to 2 parts $i=1$ to N , then this is $= 2M+1/2 - i + \sum_{i=M+1}^{2M} (i - 2M+1/2)$. Once again we can easily simplify these terms, it becomes $M \cdot M + 1/2 - \sum_{i=1}^M i + \sum_{j=1}^M j - M/2$, that is M^2 , that is $N^2/4$.

So \bar{a} is then $= N/4$, so expectation of A in this case becomes $= mN/4$. So variance of A can be calculated, once again if actually the interpretation of this is same as the Mood test statistics, because if A is large it will mean that there is more variability in the X data, that is $\theta > 1$, so basically we say that large A indicates $\theta > 1$, small A indicates $\theta < 1$. Now some variation of this form is given here, see you are considering the absolute derivation here. So and we are taking direct sum here.

(Refer Slide Time: 47:30)

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^m \left\{ \frac{N+1}{2} - |R_i - \frac{N+1}{2}| \right\}$$

$$= \frac{m(N+1)}{2} - A$$

Small F indicates $\theta > 1$, large F indicates $\theta < 1$.

$$E_0(F) = \frac{m(N+1)}{2} - E_0(A)$$

David-Barton: $a(i) = |i - \frac{N+1}{2}| + \left[\frac{N+2}{2} \right] - \frac{N+1}{2}$

$$B = \sum_{i=1}^m a(R_i) = m \left[\frac{N+2}{2} \right] - F$$

We may also consider the reverse form $a_i = N+1/2 -$ as you can see the logic behind it, that this is just a little variation from this. This form is actually called Freund-Ansari form. So this function let me write $i=1$ to m , $N+1/2 - R_i - N+1/2$, so that is $= m * N+1/2 -$ basically Ansari-Bradley. So it is just the reverse 1. So small F indicates $\theta > 1$, and large F indicates $\theta < 1$. Expectation of F will be $m * N+1/2 -$ expectation of A, and the expectation term, I already calculated here when N is odd then it is $m * N \text{ square} - 1/4N$, and when N is even it is $= mN/4$.

There is yet another variation of this which is David-Barton variation. You can consider a_i as this is the Ansari Bradley choice, but you shift it little bit, that means basically it is just adjustment of the even and odd values. So basically, $B = \text{sigma } a \text{ of } R_i, i=1 \text{ to } m$, that is $= m * N+2/2 -$ the Freund Ansari choice, that is this choice here, because if I take this - this - in the bracket, then this will become the Freund Ansari choice. Therefore, once again we can obtain, this is also the $N+2/2 - m * N+1/2 +$ Ansari Bradley choice.

(Refer Slide Time: 50:24)

Large value of B indicates $\theta > 1$.

Siegel-Tukey:
$$a(i) = \begin{cases} 2i, & i \text{ is even} \\ 2i-1, & i \text{ is odd,} \end{cases} \quad 1 \leq i \leq \frac{N}{2}$$

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

$$\begin{cases} 2(N-i+1), & i \text{ is even} \\ 2(N-i+1)-1, & i \text{ is odd.} \end{cases} \quad \frac{N}{2} < i \leq N.$$

Small values of S indicate $\theta > 1$.
 Mood, Freund-Ansari, Ansari-Bradley, David Barton Statistics are more sensitive to one sided hyp. $\theta > 1$, or $\theta < 1$ etc.
 But Siegel Tukey is more sensitive for $\theta \neq 1$.

So here large value of B indicates that theta is > 1 , and of course small B will indicate theta is < 1 . Then there is Siegel Tukey choice. In Siegel Tukey choice, we take a_i to be $= 2i$ if i is even, it is $=$ twice $i-1$, if i is odd, for $1 \leq i \leq N/2$. And it is $= 2 * N - i + 1$, if i is even, and it is $=$ twice $N - i + 1 - 1$ if i is odd, $N/2 < i \leq N$. And $S = \sum a(R_i)$, this is the small m here. Small values of S indicate that theta is > 1 .

We have one final comment here, that this mood, Freund- Ansari, Ansari-Bradley and David- Barton, these statistics they are more sensitive to 1 sided hypothesis, that is theta > 1 , or theta < 1 . But the Siegel- Tukey, this is more sensitive for theta $\neq 1$.

(Refer Slide Time: 53:00)

Klotz - Normal Score Statistic

$$a(i) = \left[\Phi^{-1} \left(\frac{i}{N+1} \right) \right]^2$$

$$K = \sum_{i=1}^m \left[\Phi^{-1} \left(\frac{R_i}{N+1} \right) \right]^2$$

Let me briefly mention one more here, that is called the Klotz normal score. In this 1 we define $\phi^{-1}(i/N+1)$ whole square. You can compare it with the 1 which I gave earlier, that was $\phi^{-1}(i/N+1)$, Van Der Waerden statistics. In this 1 we had $\phi^{-1}(i/N+1)$ and here you can see this is = $\phi^{-1}(i/N+1)$ whole square here. So the Klotz statistics is given by $\phi^{-1}(R_i/N+1)$ whole square, $i=1$ to N .

I am not getting to much into detail of the working out of this of course it is slightly more complicated than the Van Der Waerden statistics, because if I take this one I am getting the sum X^2+1-X whole square, so that is not a constant here. So this will require some working out to get the outcome of this. In the next class, I will discuss about the (()) (54:21) 2-sample test, I will discuss the null distribution of this and we will also introduce the concept of the consistency of the statistical test.

You might have seen that when we considered the parametric tests, so in the parametric test we discuss about the power of the test and we considered the type 1 error and type 2 error. But when we consider the 2-sample test since we are not having the form of the distribution so we are not using you can say most powerful, that the usual Neyman-Pearson theory is not being applied here.

And therefore the test functions are based on these linear ranking statistics and the exact distribution are quite complicated. So we consider the asymptotic properties of these things. So in the next lecture, I will be discussing about the asymptotic properties of the test here. Firstly, I will discuss about the (()) (55:25) and then we will discuss about other asymptotic properties.