

Nonparametric tests

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- One-Sample Test
 - Sign Test
 - Signed Rank Test
- Two-Sample Test
 - Wilcoxon Rank-Sum Test
 - Permutation Test

Nonparametric one and two-sample tests

If data do not come from a normal population (and if the sample is not large), we cannot use a t-test. One useful approach to creating test statistics is through the use of *rank statistics*.

Resampling methods provide alternative approaches for testing simple hypotheses and obtaining confidence intervals. For example, the t approach can be used with a permutation test to test $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ versus any of the alternatives, *regardless of whether the data are normal or not*. This is covered in Section 16.9 (pp. 712–716).

Non-parametric methods

- Many non-parametric methods convert raw values to ranks and then analyze ranks
- In case of ties, mid-rank are used, e.g. if the raw data were 105 120 120 121 → ranks would be 1 2.5 2.5 4

Parametric Test	Nonparametric Counterpart
1-sample t	Sign test, Wilcoxon signed-rank
2-sample t	Wilcoxon 2-sample rank-sum (Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon Test)
k -sample ANOVA	Kruskal-Wallis
Pearson r	Spearman ρ

Sign test for one population

The sign test assumes the data come from from a continuous distribution with model

$$Y_i = \eta + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

- η is the population median and ϵ_i follow an unknown, continuous distribution.
- Want to test $H_0 : \eta = \eta_0$ where η_0 is known versus one of the three common alternatives: $H_a : \eta < \eta_0$, $H_a : \eta \neq \eta_0$, or $H_a : \eta > \eta_0$.

Sign test

- Test statistic is $B^* = \sum_{i=1}^n I\{y_i > \eta_0\}$, the number of y_1, \dots, y_n larger than η_0 .

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- Under H_0 , $B^* \sim \text{bin}(n, 0.5)$.
- Reject H_0 if B^* is “unusual” relative to this binomial distribution.

Question: How would you form a “large sample” test statistic from B^* ? You would not need to do that here, but this is common with more complex test statistics with non-standard distributions.

Example: eye relief data

- Data are time in minutes that a drug takes to relieve $n = 20$ irritated eyes, measured redness.
- Rao (1998) page 178.
- $H_a : \eta = 5$ versus $H_a : \eta \neq 5$

Data:

0.4 4.6 2.2 1.2 4.5 5.7 8.0 2.1 4.8 3.0
8.8 11.4 1.3 1.4 2.1 1.3 12.5 2.4 4.6 2.8

The P -value

P -value is: the probability of observing a result as or more extreme than you observed (in the direction toward the alternative hypothesis) by chance alone assuming H_0 is true.

Type of hypothesis test

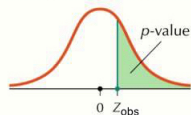
p -Value is tail area associated with Z_{obs}

Right-tailed test

$H_0: \mu \leq \mu_0$ versus $H_a: \mu > \mu_0$

$p\text{-value} = P(Z \geq Z_{\text{obs}})$

Area to right of Z_{obs}

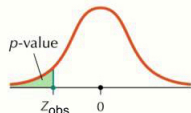


Left-tailed test

$H_0: \mu \geq \mu_0$ versus $H_a: \mu < \mu_0$

$p\text{-value} = P(Z \leq Z_{\text{obs}})$

Area to left of Z_{obs}



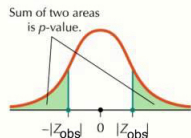
Two-tailed test

$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ versus $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0$

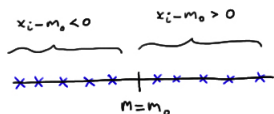
$p\text{-value} = P(Z \geq |Z_{\text{obs}}|) + P(Z \leq -|Z_{\text{obs}}|)$

$= 2 \cdot P(Z \geq |Z_{\text{obs}}|)$

Sum of the two tail areas.

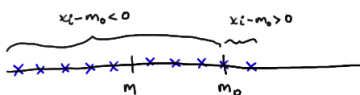
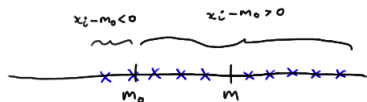


P-value for The Sign Test



$$B^+ = \sum I(y > m_0), \quad B^- = \sum I(y \leq m_0)$$

$$H_0 : m = m_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad H_a : m > m_0 \quad H_0 : m = m_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad H_a : m < m_0$$



$$P\text{-value} = P(B^- \leq B_{obs}^-)$$

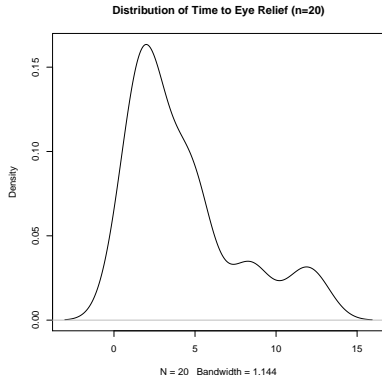
$$P\text{-value} = P(B^+ \leq B_{obs}^+)$$

$$H_0 : m = m_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad H_a : m \neq m_0$$

$$P\text{-value} = 2 * P[B_{\min} \leq \min(B_{obs}^+, B_{obs}^-)]$$

R code

```
eye<-c(0.4, 4.6, 2.2, 1.2, 4.5, 5.7, 8.0, 2.1,  
4.8, 3.0, 8.8, 11.4, 1.3, 1.4, 2.1, 1.3, 12.5,  
2.4, 4.6, 2.8)  
plot(density(eye))  
  
B<-sum(eye >= 5)  
binom.test(B, length(eye), 0.5, alternative="less")
```



Wilcoxon signed rank test

- Again, test $H_0 : \eta = \eta_0$. However, this method *assumes a symmetric pdf* around the median η .
- Test statistic built from *ranks* of $\{|y_1 - \eta_0|, |y_2 - \eta_0|, \dots, |y_n - \eta_0|\}$, denoted R_1, \dots, R_n .
- The signed rank for observation i is

$$R_i^+ = \begin{cases} R_i & y_i > \eta_0 \\ 0 & y_i \leq \eta_0 \end{cases}.$$

- The “signed rank” statistic is $W^+ = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^+$.
- If W^+ is large, this is evidence that $\eta > \eta_0$.
- If W^+ is small, this is evidence that $\eta < \eta_0$.

Signed Rank Test

i	X_i	$X_i - 5$	$ X_i - 5 $	Rank (R_i)	Signed Rank	Z_i
1	0.40	-4.60	4.60	18.0	-18.0	0
2	4.60	-0.40	0.40	2.5	-2.5	0
3	2.20	-2.80	2.80	9.0	-9.0	0
4	1.20	-3.80	3.80	16.0	-16.0	0
5	4.50	-0.50	0.50	4.0	-4.0	0
6	5.70	0.70	0.70	5.0	5.0	1
7	8.00	3.00	3.00	12.0	12.0	1
8	2.10	-2.90	2.90	10.5	-10.5	0
9	4.80	-0.20	0.20	1.0	-1.0	0
10	3.00	-2.00	2.00	6.0	-6.0	0
11	8.80	3.80	3.80	17.0	17.0	1
12	11.40	6.40	6.40	19.0	19.0	1
13	1.30	-3.70	3.70	14.5	-14.5	0
14	1.40	-3.60	3.60	13.0	-13.0	0
15	2.10	-2.90	2.90	10.5	-10.5	0
16	1.30	-3.70	3.70	14.5	-14.5	0
17	12.50	7.50	7.50	20.0	20.0	1
18	2.40	-2.60	2.60	8.0	-8.0	0
19	4.60	-0.40	0.40	2.5	-2.5	0
20	2.80	-2.20	2.20	7.0	-7.0	0

$$W = \sum Z_i R_i$$

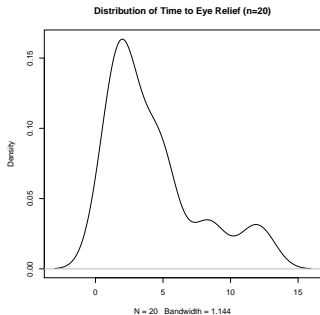
Discussion

	t-test	Signed Rank	Sign
Assumptions	Large sample or normal	Symmetric	None
Statistical Power	+++	++	+

- Both the sign test and the signed-rank test can be used with paired data (e.g. we could test whether the median difference is zero).
- **When to use what?** Use t-test when data are approximately normal, or in large sample sizes. Use **sign test** when data are **highly skewed**, etc. Use **signed rank test** when data are approximately **symmetric** but non-normal (e.g. **heavy or light-tailed**, **multimodal yet symmetric**, etc.)

Note: The sign test and signed-rank test are more flexible than the t-test because they require less strict assumptions, but the t-test has more power when the data are approximately normal.

Eye relief



Which of the three tests (t-test, sign, signed rank) is most appropriate?

Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxin test (pp. 795–796)

The Mann-Whitney test assumes

$$Y_{11}, \dots, Y_{1n_1} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F_1 \text{ independent } Y_{21}, \dots, Y_{2n_2} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F_2,$$

where F_1 is the cdf of data from the first group and F_2 is the cdf of data from the second group. The null hypothesis is $H_0 : F_1 = F_2$, i.e. that the distributions of data in the two groups are identical.

The alternative is commonly taken to be $H_1 : F_1 \neq F_2$.
One-sided tests can also be performed.

Building the test statistic

The Mann-Whitney test is intuitive. The data are

$$y_{11}, y_{12}, \dots, y_{1n_1} \text{ and } y_{21}, y_{22}, \dots, y_{2n_2}.$$

For each observation j in the first group count the number of observations in the second group c_j that are smaller; ties result in adding 0.5 to the count.

Assuming H_0 is true, on average half the observations in group 2 would be above Y_{1j} and half would be below if they come from the same distribution. That is $E(c_j) = 0.5n_2$.

The sum of these guys is $U = \sum_{j=1}^{n_1} c_j$ and has mean $E(U) = 0.5n_1n_2$. The variance is a bit harder to derive, but is $\text{Var}(U) = n_1n_2(n_1 + n_2 + 1)/12$.

Large sample inference

Something akin to the CLT tells us

$$Z_0 = \frac{U - E(U)}{\sqrt{n_1 n_2 (n_1 + n_2 + 1) / 12}} \sim N(0, 1),$$

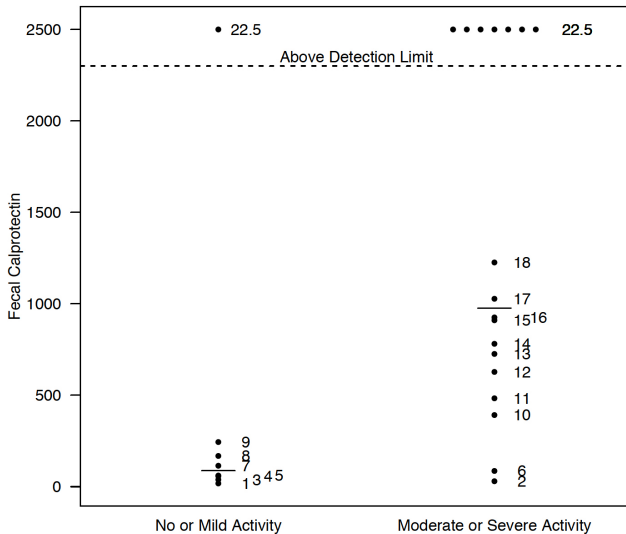
when H_0 is true. Seeing a U far away from what we expect under the null gives evidence that H_0 is false; U is then standardized as usual (subtract off then mean we expect under the null and standardize by an estimate of the standard deviation of U).

A p -value can be computed as usual as well as a CI.

Note: This test essentially boils down to replacing the observed values with their ranks and carrying out a simple pooled t-test!

Example: Fecal calprotectin

- Fecal calprotectin being evaluated as a possible biomarker of disease severity
- Calprotectin measured in 26 subjects, 8 observed to have no/mild activity by endoscopy
- Calprotectin has upper detection limit at 2500 units
 - A type of missing data, but need to keep in analysis



2-Sample Example (Continued)

- Study Question: Are calprotectin levels different in participants with no or mild activity compared to subjects with moderate or severe activity?
- Statement of the null hypothesis

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- Study Question: Are calprotectin levels different in participants with no or mild activity compared to subjects with moderate or severe activity?
- Statement of the null hypothesis
 - H_0 : Populations with no/mild activity have the same distribution of calprotectin as populations with moderate/severe activity ($F_{no/mild} = F_{moderate/severe}$)

2-Sample Example (Continued)

- R output

```
Wilcoxon rank sum test
data: calpro by endo2
W = 23.5, p-value = 0.006257
alternative hypothesis: true location shift is n
```

- A common interpretation: People with moderate/severe activity have higher **median** fecal calprotectin levels than people with no/mild activity ($p = 0.006$).

Bootstrap

- General method, not just for medians
- Non-parametric, does not assume symmetry
- Iterative method that repeatedly samples from the original data
- Algorithm:
 - 1 sample **with replacement** from sample 1 and sample 2
 - 2 Calculate the difference in medians, save result
 - 3 Repeat Steps 1 and 2, $B=1000$ times
- A (naive) 95% CI is given by the 2.5th and 97.5th quantile of 1000 bootstrap median differences.

Permutation

Null distribution: Distribution of the test statistic when the null hypothesis is true.

Idea: generate the null distribution by random shuffling group label.

$$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

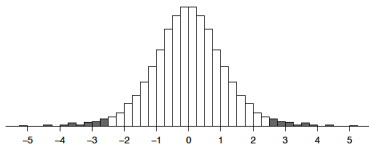
Observed Data

Group	g1	g1	g1	g2	g2	g2
Value	-1.928	-0.047	-1.572	-0.33	1.003	-0.305

Permuted Data

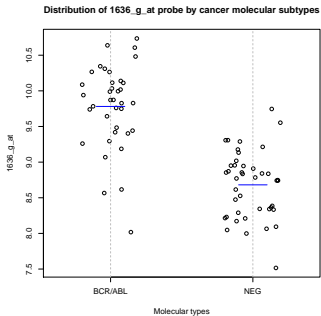
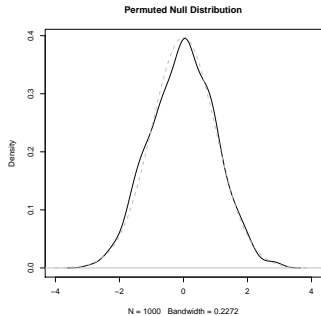
Group*	g2*	g2*	g1*	g2*	g1*	g1*
Value	-1.928	-0.047	-1.572	-0.33	1.003	-0.305

Randomly assign the group labels $\rightarrow T^*$



$$P\text{-value} = \Pr(|T^*| \geq |T_{\text{obs}}|)$$

Permutation Test



Permutation Test is A Good Friend

Good: Do not assume distribution for the test statistic

Bad: Computational intense (longer computation time)

Reference: Mewhort et al. Randomization tests and the unequal-N/unequal-variance problem (2009). Behavior Research Methods: 41: 664