

LECTURE  
on  
Parametric and Non-Parametric Tests



Chi-Square test, ANOVA, Mann-Whitney,  
Kruskal Wallis and Kolmogorov-Smirnov

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# Nonparametrics and goodness of fit



- In *tests* we have done so far, the *null hypothesis* has always been a stochastic model with *a few parameters*.
  - T tests
  - Tests for regression coefficients
  - Test for autocorrelation
  - ...
- In nonparametric tests, the null hypothesis is not a parametric distribution, rather a much larger class of possible distributions

# Nonparametric statistics



- The null hypothesis is for example that the median of the distribution is zero
- A test statistic can be formulated, so that
  - it has a known distribution under this hypothesis
  - it has more extreme values under alternative hypotheses

# Nonparametric tests: features



- Nonparametric statistical tests can be used when the data being analysed is not a normal distribution
- Many nonparametric methods do not use the raw data and instead use the rank order of data for analysis
- Nonparametric methods can be used with small samples

# The sign test



- Assume the null hypothesis is that the median of the distribution is zero.
- Given a sample from the distribution, there should be roughly the same number of positive and negative values.
- More precisely, number of positive values should follow a binomial distribution with probability 0.5.
- When the sample is large, the binomial distribution can be approximated with a normal distribution

# Using the sign test: Example



- Patients are asked to value doctors they have visited on a scale from 1 to 10.
- 78 patients have both visited doctors A and B, and we would like to find out if patients generally like one of them better than the other. How?

# Wilcoxon signed rank test



- Here, the null hypothesis is a *symmetric distribution with zero median*. Do as follows:
  - Rank all values by their *absolute values*.
  - Let  $T_+$  be the sum of ranks of the positive values, and  $T_-$  corresponding for negative values
  - Let  $T$  be the minimum of  $T_+$  and  $T_-$
  - Under the null hypothesis,  $T$  has a known distribution.
- For large samples, the distribution can be approximated with a normal distribution

# Examples



- Often used on *paired data*.
- We want to compare primary health care costs for the patient in two countries: A number of people having lived in both countries are asked about the difference in costs per year. Use this data in test.
- In the previous example, if we assume all patients attach the same meaning to the valuations, we could use Wilcoxon signed rank test on the differences in valuations

# Wilcoxon rank sum test (or the Mann-Whitney U test)



- Here, we do NOT have paired data, but rather  $n_1$  values from group 1 and  $n_2$  values from group 2.
- We want to test whether the values in the groups are samples from different distributions:
  - Rank all values together
  - Let  $T$  be the sum of the ranks of the values from group 1.
  - Under the assumption that the values come from the same distribution, the distribution of  $T$  is known.
  - The expectation and variance under the null hypothesis are simple functions of  $n_1$  and  $n_2$ .

# Wilcoxon rank sum test (or the Mann-Whitney U test)



- For large samples, we can use a normal approximation for the distribution of  $T$ .
- The Mann-Whitney U test gives exactly the same results, but uses slightly different test statistic.

# Example



- We have observed values
  - Group X: 1.3, 2.1, 1.5, 4.3, 3.2
  - Group Y: 3.4, 4.9, 6.3, 7.1are the groups different?
- If we assume that the values in the groups are normally distributed, we can solve this using the T-test.
- Otherwise we can try the rank sum test:

# Example (cont.)

Rank

Group X



Group Y

1	1.3	
2	1.5	
3	2.1	
4	3.2	
5		3.4
6	4.3	
7		4.9
8		6.3
9		7.1

Wilcoxon: 16

Expected: 25

St. dev: 4.08

p-value: 0.032

Ranksum:

16

29

# Spearman rank correlation



- This can be applied when you have *two* observations per item, and you want to test whether the observations are related.
- Computing the sample correlation gives an indication.
- We can test whether the population correlation could be zero but test needs assumption of normality.

# Spearman rank correlation



- The Spearman rank correlation tests for association without any assumption on the association:
  - Rank the X-values, and rank the Y-values.
  - Compute ordinary sample correlation of the ranks: This is called the Spearman rank correlation.
  - Under the null hypothesis that X values and Y values are independent, it has a fixed, tabulated distribution (depending on number of observations)
- The ordinary sample correlation is sometimes called Pearson correlation to separate it from Spearman correlation.

# Contingency tables



- The following data type is frequent: Each object (person, case,...) can be in one of two or more categories. The data is the *count* of number of objects in each category.
- Often, you measure *several* categories for each object. The resulting counts can then be put in a *contingency table*.

# Testing if probabilities are as specified



- Example: Have  $n$  objects been placed in  $K$  groups each with probability  $1/K$ ?
  - Expected count in group  $i$ :
  - Observed count in group  $i$ :
  - Test statistic:
  - Test statistic has approx.  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $K-1$  degrees of freedom under null hypothesis.

# Testing association in a contingency table

	A	B	C	TOTAL
X	23	14	19	$R_1=56$
Y	14	7	10	$R_2=31$
Z	9	5	54	$R_3=68$
TOTAL	$C_1=46$	$C_2=26$	$C_3=83$	155

n values in total

# Testing association in a contingency table

- If the assignment of values in the two categories is independent, the *expected* count in a cell can be computed from the marginal counts:  
$$E_{ij} = \frac{R_i C_j}{n}$$
- Actual observed count:  $O_{ij}$
- Test statistic: 
$$\sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^c \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$
- Under null hypothesis, it has  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $(r-1)(c-1)$  degrees of freedom

# Goodness-of-fit tests



- Sometimes, the null hypothesis is that the data comes from some parametric distribution, values are then categorized, and we have the counts from the categories.
- To test this hypothesis:
  - Estimate parameters from data.
  - Compute expected counts.
  - Compute the test statistic used for contingency tables.
  - This will now have a chi-squared distribution under the null hypothesis.

# Tests for normality



- Visual methods, like histograms and normality plots, are very useful.
- In addition, several statistical tests for normality exist:
  - Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (can test against other distributions too)
  - Bowman-Shelton test (tests skewness and kurtosis)

# Remarks on nonparametric statistics



- Tests with much more general null hypotheses, and so fewer *assumptions*
- Often a good choice when normality of the data cannot be assumed
- If you reject the null hypothesis with a nonparametric test, it is a robust conclusion
- However, with small amounts of data, you can often not get significant conclusions

# Mann-Whitney U test



- This is the nonparametric equivalent of the unpaired t-test
- It is applied when there are two independent samples randomly drawn from the population e.g. diabetic patients versus non-diabetics .
- The data has to be ordinal i.e. data that can be ranked (put into order from highest to lowest )
- It is recommended that the data should be  $>5$  and  $<20$  (for larger samples, use formula or statistical packages)
- The sample size in both population should be equal

# Uses of Mann-Whitney U test



- Mainly used to analyse the difference between the medians of two data sets.
- You want to know whether two sets of measurements genuinely differ.

# Calculation of Mann-Whitney U test



- To calculate the value of Mann-Whitney U test, we use the following formula:

$$U = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_2(n_2 + 1)}{2} - \sum_{i=n_1+1}^{n_2} R_i$$

Where:

U=Mann-Whitney U test

$N_1$  = sample size one

$N_2$ = Sample size two

$R_i$  = Rank of the sample size

The  $U$  test is included in most modern statistical packages which do the calculations

# Mann-Whitney U test



Mann Whitney U-test can be used to compare any two data sets that are not normally distributed .  
As long as the data is capable of being ranked, then the test can be applied.

# Analysis of variance



- Comparing more than two groups
- Up to now we have studied situations with
  - One observation per object
    - ✦ One group
    - ✦ Two groups
  - Two or more observations per object
- We will now study situations with one observation per object, and three or more groups of objects
- The most important question is as usual: Do the numbers in the groups come from the same population, or from different populations?

# ANOVA



- If you have three groups, could plausibly do pairwise comparisons. But if you have 10 groups? Too many pairwise comparisons: You would get too many false positives!
- You would really like to compare a null hypothesis of all equal, against some difference
- ANOVA: ANalysis Of VAriance

# One-way ANOVA: Example



- Assume "treatment results" from 13 patients visiting one of three doctors are given:
  - Doctor A: 24,26,31,27
  - Doctor B: 29,31,30,36,33
  - Doctor C: 29,27,34,26
- $H_0$ : The treatment results are from the same population of results
- $H_1$ : They are from different populations

# Comparing the groups



- Averages within groups:
  - Doctor A: 27
  - Doctor B: 31.8
  - Doctor C: 29
- Total average: 
$$\frac{4 \cdot 27 + 5 \cdot 31.8 + 4 \cdot 29}{4 + 5 + 4} = 29.46$$
- Variance around the mean matters for comparison.
- We must compare the variance within the groups to the variance between the group means.

# Variance within and between groups



- Sum of squares within groups:

$$SSW = (24 - 27)^2 + (26 - 27)^2 + \dots + (29 - 31.8)^2 + \dots = 94.8$$

- Compare it with sum of squares between groups:

$$\begin{aligned}SSG &= (27 - 29.46)^2 + (27 - 29.46)^2 + \dots + (31.8 - 29.46)^2 + \dots \\ &= 4(27 - 29.46)^2 + 5(31.8 - 29.46)^2 + 4(29 - 29.46)^2 = 52.43\end{aligned}$$

- Comparing these, we also need to take into account the number of observations and sizes of groups

# Adjusting for group sizes



- Divide by the number of degrees of freedom

$$MSW = \frac{SSW}{n - K}$$

Both are estimates of population variance of error under  $H_0$

$$MSG = \frac{SSG}{K - 1}$$

n: number of observations  
K: number of groups

- Test statistic:  $\frac{MSG}{MSW}$  reject  $H_0$  if this is large

# Test statistic thresholds



- If populations are **normal**, with the **same variance**, then we can show that **under the null hypothesis**,

$$\frac{MSG}{MSW} \sim F_{K-1, n-K}$$

The F distribution, with  
K-1 and n-K degrees of  
freedom

- Reject at confidence level  $\alpha$  if

$$\frac{MSG}{MSW} > F_{K-1, n-K, \alpha}$$

Find this value in a table

# Continuing example



$$MSW = \frac{SSW}{n - K} = \frac{94.8}{13 - 3} = 9.48$$

$$MSG = \frac{SSG}{K - 1} = \frac{52.43}{3 - 1} = 26.2$$

$$\frac{MSG}{MSW} = \frac{26.2}{9.48} = 2.76$$

$$F_{3-1, 13-3, 0.05} = 4.10$$

Thus we can NOT reject the null hypothesis in our case.

# ANOVA table



Source of variation	Sum of squares	Deg. of freedom	Mean squares	F ratio
Between groups	SSG	K-1	MSG	$\frac{MSG}{MSW}$
Within groups	SSW	n-K	MSW	
Total	SST	n-1		

$$SST = (24 - 29.46)^2 + (26 - 29.46)^2 + \dots + (26 - 29.46)^2$$

**NOTE:**

$$SSG + SSW = SST$$

# One-way ANOVA in SPSS



## ANOVA

VAR 00001

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	52,431	2	26,215	2,765	,111
Within Groups	94,800	10	9,480		
Total	147,231	12			

Use "Analyze => Compare Means => One-way ANOVA

Last column: The p-value: The smallest value of  $\alpha$  at which the null hypothesis is rejected.

# The Kruskal-Wallis test



- ANOVA is based on the *assumption of normality*
- There is a non-parametric alternative not relying this assumption:
  - Looking at all observations together, rank them
  - Let  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_K$  be the sums of ranks of each group
  - If some  $R$ 's are much larger than others, it indicates the numbers in different groups come from different populations

# The Kruskal-Wallis test



- The test statistic is

$$W = \frac{12}{n(n+1)} \sum_{i=1}^K \frac{R_i^2}{n_i} - 3(n+1)$$

- Under the null hypothesis, this has an approximate  $\chi^2_{K-1}$  distribution.
- The approximation is OK when each group contains at least 5 observations.

# Example: previous data



Doctor A	Doctor B	Doctor C
24 (rank 1)	29 (rank 6.5)	29 (rank 6.5)
26 (rank 2.5)	31 (rank 9.5)	27 (rank 4.5)
31 (rank 9.5)	30 (rank 8)	34 (rank 12)
27 (rank 4.5)	36 (rank 13)	26 (rank 2.5)
	33 (rank 11)	
$R_1=17.5$	$R_2=48$	$R_3=25.5$

(We really have too few observations for this test!)

# Kruskal-Wallis in SPSS



- Use "Analyze=>Nonparametric tests=>K independent samples"
- For our data, we get

**Ranks**

	VAR00002	N	Mean Rank
VAR00001	1	4	4,38
	2	5	9,60
	3	4	6,38
	Total	13	

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	VAR 00001
Chi-Square	4,195
df	2
Asy mp. Sig.	,123

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: VAR00002

# When to use what method



- In situations where we have one observation per object, and want to compare two or more groups:
  - Use non-parametric tests if you have enough data
    - ✦ For two groups: Mann-Whitney U-test (Wilcoxon rank sum)
    - ✦ For three or more groups use Kruskal-Wallis
  - If data analysis indicate assumption of normally distributed independent errors is OK
    - ✦ For two groups use t-test (equal or unequal variances assumed)
    - ✦ For three or more groups use ANOVA

# When to use what method



- When you in addition to the main observation have some observations that can be used to pair or block objects, and want to compare groups, and assumption of normally distributed independent errors is OK:
  - For two groups, use paired-data t-test
  - For three or more groups, we can use two-way ANOVA

# Two-way ANOVA (without interaction)



- In two-way ANOVA, data fall into categories in two different ways: Each observation can be placed in a table.
- Example: Both doctor and type of treatment should influence outcome.
- Sometimes we are interested in studying both categories, sometimes the second category is used only to reduce unexplained variance. Then it is called a *blocking variable*

# Sums of squares for two-way ANOVA



- Assume  $K$  categories,  $H$  blocks, and assume one observation  $x_{ij}$  for each category  $i$  and each block  $j$  block, so we have  $n=KH$  observations.
  - Mean for category  $i$ :  $\bar{x}_{i\cdot}$
  - Mean for block  $j$ :  $\bar{x}_{\cdot j}$
  - Overall mean:  $\bar{x}$

# Sums of squares for two-way ANOVA



$$SSG = H \sum_{i=1}^K (\bar{x}_{i\cdot} - \bar{x})^2$$

$$SSB = K \sum_{j=1}^H (\bar{x}_{\cdot j} - \bar{x})^2$$

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^H (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{i\cdot} - \bar{x}_{\cdot j} + \bar{x})^2$$

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^H (x_{ij} - \bar{x})^2$$

$$SSG + SSB + SSE = SST$$

# ANOVA table for two-way data



Source of variation	Sums of squares	Deg. of freedom	Mean squares	F ratio
Between groups	SSG	K-1	MSG= SSG/(K-1)	MSG/MSE
Between blocks	SSB	H-1	MSB= SSB/(H-1)	MSB/MSE
Error	SSE	(K-1)(H-1)	MSE= SSE/(K-1)(H-1)	
Total	SST	n-1		

Test for between groups effect: compare  $\frac{MSG}{MSE}$  to  $F_{K-1, (K-1)(H-1)}$

Test for between blocks effect: compare  $\frac{MSB}{MSE}$  to  $F_{H-1, (K-1)(H-1)}$

# Two-way ANOVA (with interaction)



- The setup above assumes that the blocking variable influences outcomes in the same way in all categories (and vice versa)
- We can check if there is interaction between the blocking variable and the categories by extending the model with an interaction term

# Sums of squares for two-way ANOVA (with interaction)

- Assume K categories, H blocks, and assume L observations  $x_{ij1}, x_{ij2}, \dots, x_{ijL}$  for each category i and each block j block, so we have  $n=KHL$  observations.
  - Mean for category i:  $\bar{x}_{i..}$
  - Mean for block j:  $\bar{x}_{.j.}$
  - Mean for cell ij:  $\bar{x}_{ij.}$
  - Overall mean:  $\bar{x}$

# Sums of squares for two-way ANOVA (with interaction)



$$SSG = HL \sum_{i=1}^K (\bar{x}_{i..} - \bar{x})^2$$

$$SSB = KL \sum_{j=1}^H (\bar{x}_{.j.} - \bar{x})^2$$

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^H \sum_{l=1}^L (x_{ijl} - \bar{x}_{ij.})^2$$

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^H \sum_{l=1}^L (x_{ijl} - \bar{x})^2$$

$$SSI = L \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^H (x_{ij.} - \bar{x}_{i..} - \bar{x}_{.j.} + \bar{x})^2$$

$$SSG + SSB + SSI + SSE = SST$$

# ANOVA table for two-way data (with interaction)

Source of variation	Sums of squares	Deg. of freedom	Mean squares	F ratio
Between groups	SSG	K-1	MSG= SSG/(K-1)	MSG/MSE
Between blocks	SSB	H-1	MSB= SSB/(H-1)	MSB/MSE
Interaction	SSI	(K-1)(H-1)	MSI= SSI/(K-1)(H-1)	MSI/MSE
Error	SSE	KH(L-1)	MSE= SSE/KH(L-1)	
Total	SST	n-1		

Test for interaction: compare MSI/MSE with

$$F_{(K-1)(H-1), KH(L-1)}$$

Test for block effect: compare MSB/MSE with

$$F_{H-1, KH(L-1)}$$

Test for group effect: compare MSG/MSE with

$$F_{K-1, KH(L-1)}$$

# Notes on ANOVA



- All analysis of variance (ANOVA) methods are based on the assumptions of normally distributed and independent errors
- The same problems can be described using the regression framework. We get exactly the same tests and results!
- There are many extensions beyond those mentioned

# The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test



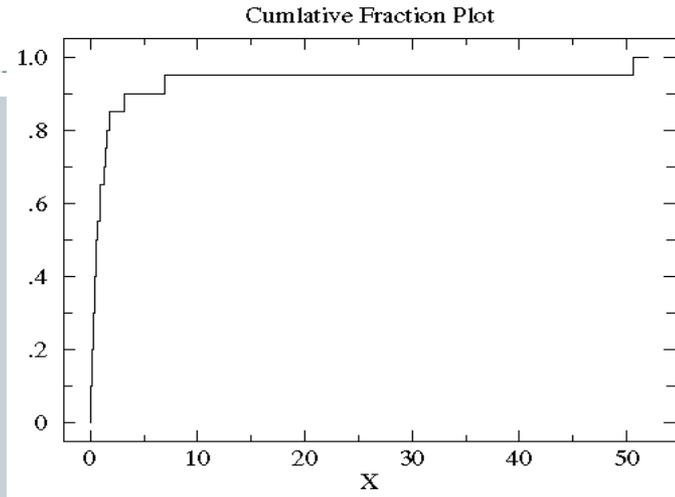
- **Introduction:** The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is a statistical test for equality of continuous probability distributions. It can either compare a sample with a reference probability distribution or it can directly compare two sample datasets. The first is referred to as the one-sample K-S test and serves as a goodness of fit test and the second as the two-sample K-S test.<sup>1</sup> The basis of the test is that it relates the distance between the cumulative fraction functions of the two samples as a number,  $D$ , which is then compared to the critical- $D$  value for that data distribution.<sup>4</sup> If  $D$  is greater than critical- $D$ , then it can be concluded that the distributions are indeed different, otherwise there is not enough evidence to prove difference between the two datasets.<sup>5</sup> A  $P$ -value can also be calculated from the  $D$ -value and the sample size of the two data sets; this value answers the question of what is the probability that the  $D$ -value would be that large or larger if two samples were randomly sampled from identical populations as was observed?<sup>4</sup>

# VALUES OF DATA SET 1 AND DATA SET 2

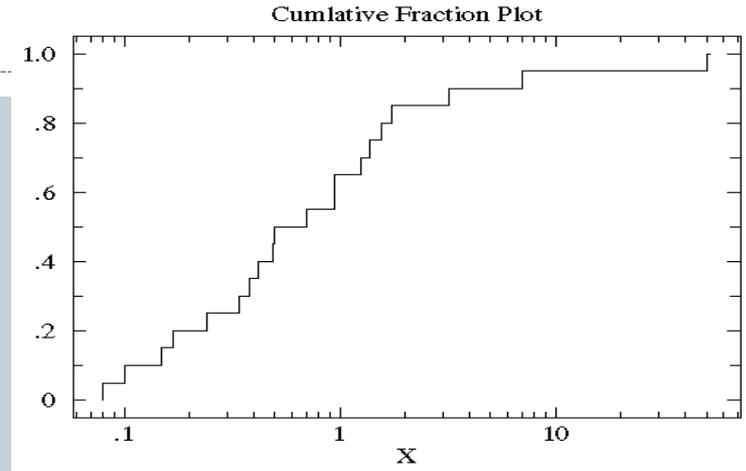


dataset 1	frequency	proportion	cum. Prop.		dataset 2	frequency	proportion	cum. Prop.		D
	20	0.16129032	0.16129032			4	0.03225806	0.03225806		0.12903226
	30	0.24193548	0.40322581			27	0.21774194	0.25		0.15322581
	13	0.10483871	0.50806452			28	0.22580645	0.47580645		0.03225806
	20	0.16129032	0.66935484			18	0.14516129	0.62096774		0.0483871
	41	0.33064516	1			47	0.37903226	1		0
	124					124				
									critD	0.12213161

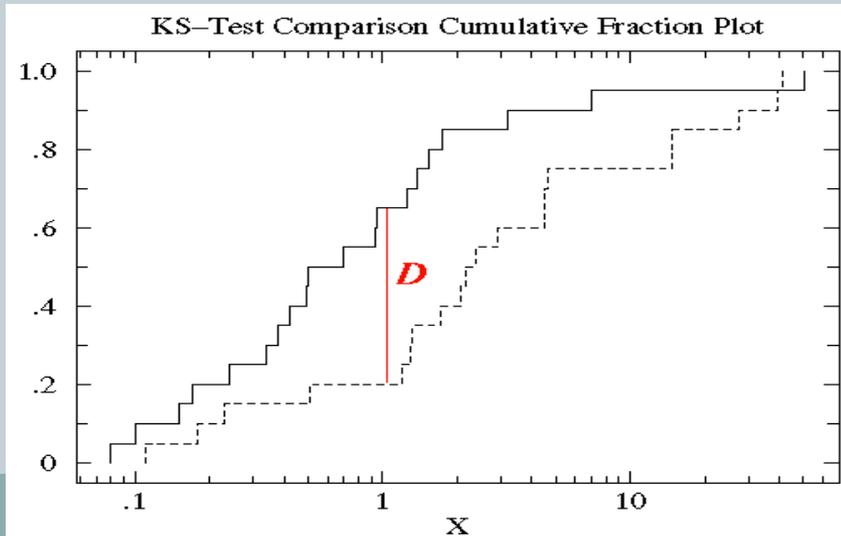
# KS comparison



Example of a non-normal empirical distribution function



Example of the log-transformed empirical distribution function from Figure 1



Example of calculated D-value for a 2-sample K-S test

# Procedure:



- 1. Order data sets from smallest to largest.
- 2. For each value in the data sets, calculate the percent of data strictly smaller than that value.
- 3. Plot all calculated percent values as steps on a cumulative fraction function, one for each data set if it is a two-sample K-S test.
- 4. If steps are bunched close to one another on one side of the graph, you can take the log of all data points and plot the distribution function based on that instead. For log, all data points must be nonzero and nonnegative.
- 5. Calculate the maximum vertical distance between the two functions to acquire the D-value. This value along with the corresponding P-value states whether data sets differ significantly.

# Strengths of the K-S test:



- 1. It is nonparametric.
- 2. D-value result will not change if X values are transformed to logs or reciprocals or any other transformation.
- 3. No restriction on sample size.
- 4. The D-value is easy to compute and the graph can be understood easily.
- 5. One sample K-S test can serve as a goodness-of-fit test and can link data and theory.

## Drawbacks:



1. The K-S test is less sensitive when the differences between curves is greatest at the beginning or the end of the distributions. It works best when EDFs deviate the most near the center of the distribution.
2. The K-S test cannot be applied in two or more dimensions because it is a EDF based test.



THANK YOU