

Methods of Empirical Finance

Seminar (UE)

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(Non)Parametric Statistical Tests Methods of Empirical Finance

Parametric vs. Non-parametric tests

Parametric:

- based on *parametric* families of *probability distributions*
- rely on assumptions that the data are drawn from a given prob. distribution (e.g. the underlying population is normally distributed)

Non-parametric:

- *distribution-free* test statistics
- do not rely on assumptions about the data's prob. distribution



Parametric vs. Non-parametric tests

When should I use a parametric test?

When should I use a *non*-parametric test?

• scale/level of measurement ?

non-metric (nominal, ordinal) vs. metric (interval, ratio) data

• the distribution of the data ?

normally distributed vs. non-normally distributed



Parametric vs. Non-parametric tests

We mostly use ...

... **parametric** test statistics if ...

- the level of measurement is *metric* (interval or ratio),
- the population is *normally distributed*,
- the sample size is *large*

... non-parametric test statistics if ...

- the level of measurement is *non-metric* (nominal or ordinal),
- the population is *non-normally distributed*,
- the sample size is *small*



As the appropriate test statistic depends on the data's level of measure, its (assumed) distribution, as well as its sample size, ...

... it makes sense to always get an overview about the data first,

... and — if you want to use parametric test statistics, in particular —, to test for normality of your data





Some useful functions for distributions in *R*

For normal distributions:

dnorm(x=0, mean=0, sd=1) # prob. density function (pd

[1] 0.3989423

x <- seq(-4, 4, length=100)
y <- dnorm(x)
plot(x, y)</pre>





Some useful functions for distributions in *R*

pnorm(74,	mean=70,	sd=2)	#	cumulative	density	functio

[1] 0.9772499

y <- pnorm(x)
plot(x, y)</pre>





Some useful functions for distributions in *R*

e.g. find the Z-score of the 99th quantile of the standard normal distribution
qnorm(.99, mean=0, sd=1) # (inverse cumulative density function (cdf))

[1] 2.326348

rnorm(5, mean = 10, sd = 2) # generates normally distributed random variables

[1] 10.858815 7.864668 6.219411 10.179098 7.397888

See here, for example.

Similarly, these functions are available for most other popular probability distributions.



'Descriptive': Histograms and normal density







'Descriptive': QQ plots

qqnorm(data\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD, frame = FALSE)
qqline(data\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD, col = ubluelight, lwd = 2)







Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness-of-Fit Test

tests whether the empirical distribution function of the sample and the cumulative distribution function of some reference distribution are equal in location and shape

- nature of independent variable(s): no independent variables, 1 population
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval

• hypothesis:

- $\circ \ H_0: F(x) = F_0(x) \text{ for all values of } x$
- $\circ \hspace{0.2cm} H_1 {:} \hspace{0.1cm} F(x)
 eq F_0(x) \hspace{0.1cm} ext{or} \hspace{0.1cm} F(x) > F_0(x) \hspace{0.1cm} ext{or} \hspace{0.1cm} F(x) < F_0(x)$



Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness-of-Fit Test — Example

• Test whether the variable CHG_PCT_YTD is normally distributed

```
##
## One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
##
## data: data$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD
## D = 0.075887, p-value = 0.006166
## alternative hypothesis: two-sided
```



Shapiro-Wilk Test

tests whether a sample x_1, \ldots, x_n is drawn from a normally distributed population

- **nature of independent variable(s):** no independent variables, 1 population
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval

• hypothesis:

- $\circ \ H_0: F(x) = F_0(x) \text{ for all values of } x$
- $\circ \hspace{0.2cm} H_1 {:} \hspace{0.1cm} F(x)
 eq F_0(x) \hspace{0.1cm} ext{or} \hspace{0.1cm} F(x) > F_0(x) \hspace{0.1cm} ext{or} \hspace{0.1cm} F(x) < F_0(x)$



Shapiro-Wilk Test — Example

• Test whether the variable CHG_PCT_YTD is normally distributed

shapiro.test(data\$CHG_NET_YTD)

```
##
## Shapiro-Wilk normality test
##
## data: data$CHG_NET_YTD
## W = 0.37452, p-value < 2.2e-16</pre>
```





χ^2 Goodness of Fit Test

tests whether the observed proportions for a categorical variable of a single population differ significantly from hypothesized (expected) proportions

- nature of independent variable(s): no independent variables, 1 population
- scale of dependent variable: categorical/nominal
- hypothesis:
 - $\circ \hspace{0.1 in} H_0 ext{:} \hspace{0.1 in} p_i = p_{i,0} orall i \in [1, \ldots, k]$
 - $\circ H_1: p_i
 eq p_{i,0} orall i \in [1,\ldots,k]$ ('The observed proportions ($p_{i,0}$) differ from hypothesized (expected) proportions (p_i).')



χ^2 Goodness of Fit Test — Example

- We use the data from sp500_data.csv.
- Test whether the proportion of companies in the S&P 500 with a female CEO is different from 20%.

```
females <- sum(data$FEMALE_CEO_OR_EQUIVALENT, na.rm=TRUE)
total <- sum(!is.na(data$FEMALE_CEO_OR_EQUIVALENT))
x <- c(total - females, females)
x
## [1] 479 23</pre>
```

chisq.test(x, p = c(0.8, 0.2))

```
##
## Chi-squared test for given probabilities
##
## data: x
## X-squared = 74.586, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16</pre>
```



One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test

tests whether the population from which the data were sampled is symmetric or not about the default value

- **nature of independent variable(s):** no independent variables, 1 population
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval



One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test — Example

• Test *whether the median yearly net change in prices is different from 0.* I.e., whether the population from which the data were sampled is centered around 0.

wilcox.test(data\$CHG_NET_YTD, mu = 0)

##
Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction
##
data: data\$CHG_NET_YTD
V = 115647, p-value < 2.2e-16
alternative hypothesis: true location is not equal to 0</pre>



One-Sample t-Test

evaluates whether the sample mean (μ) of a test variable significantly differs from a constant test value μ_0

- nature of independent variable(s): no independent variables, 1 population
- scale of dependent variable: interval or ratio
- hypothesis:
 - $\circ \ H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$
 - \circ H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ or $\mu > \mu_0$ or $\mu < \mu_0$ ('The sample mean μ significantly differs from the constant test value μ_0 .')

• assumptions:

- $\circ\;$ the observations in the sample are independent of each other
- $\circ~$ the observations follow a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2

One-Sample t-Test — Example

• Test whether the mean yearly net change in prices is different from 0.

```
summary(data$CHG_NET_YTD)
      Min. 1st Qu. Median
                              Mean 3rd Ou.
                                                            NA's
##
                                                   Max.
## -146.950
              5.395 15.170
                               28.076 33.490 1215.650
                                                               6
t.test(data$CHG_NET_YTD, mu = 0)
##
##
      One Sample t-test
##
## data: data$CHG_NET_YTD
## t = 9.1499, df = 498, p-value < 2.2e-16
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 22.04771 34.10538
## sample estimates:
## mean of x
## 28.07655
```

But: Do our assumptions hold? Is the data normally distributed?





Pearson's χ^2 Test for r imes c tables

tests whether there is a relationship between two categorical variables (or tests whether or not the r samples are homogeneous regarding the proportion of observations in each of the c categories; χ^2 test for homogeneity)

- nature of independent variable(s): 1 independent variables with 2 levels (independent groups)
- scale of dependent variable: categorical/nominal

• hypothesis:

- $H_0: O_{ij} = E_{ij}$ for all cells
- $H_1: O_{ij} \neq E_{ij}$ for at least one cell



Pearson's χ^2 Test for r imes c tables — Example

• Test whether there is a relationship between the company's industry group and the percentage of women on its board.

chisq.test(data\$INDUSTRY_GROUP, data\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD)

##
Pearson's Chi-squared test
##
data: data\$INDUSTRY_GROUP and data\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD
X-squared = 2532.7, df = 2419, p-value = 0.05262



Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test (Mann-Whitney *U*-test)

tests whether two independent samples are drawn from the same population

- **nature of independent variable(s):** 1 independent variables with 2 levels (independent groups)
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval



Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test — Example

• Test whether the percentage of women on the board of financial companies are drawn from the same distribution as the pct. of women on board of industrial companies.



Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

tests whether two samples are drawn from the same distribution, or, more precisely, whether two independent empirical distributions are equal in location and shape

- **nature of independent variable(s):** 1 independent variables with 2 levels (independent groups)
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval



Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

• Test whether the percentage of women on the board of financial companies are drawn from the same distribution as the pct. of women on board of industrial companies or — more precisely — whether the the empirical distributions are equal in location and shape.

financial <- data %>% filter(INDUSTRY_SECTOR == "Financial") %>% .\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD
industrial <- data %>% filter(INDUSTRY_SECTOR == "Industrial") %>% .\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD

ks.test(financial, industrial)

```
##
## Two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
##
## data: financial and industrial
## D = 0.23232, p-value = 0.02783
## alternative hypothesis: two-sided
```



Independent Sample *t*-Test

evaluates whether the sample means (μ_1 and μ_2) of two independent variables significantly differ

- nature of independent variable(s): 1 independent variables with 2 levels (independent groups)
- scale of dependent variable: interval or ratio
- hypothesis:
 - $\circ \hspace{0.2cm} H_{0} \textbf{:} \hspace{0.1cm} \mu_{1} = \mu_{2}$
 - $\circ \hspace{0.2cm} H_1$: $\mu_1
 eq \mu_2 \hspace{0.2cm}$ or $\mu_1 > \mu_2 \hspace{0.2cm}$ or $\mu_1 < \mu_2$

• assumptions:

- all observations from both groups are independent of each other
- $\circ~$ the observations follow a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2
- the two independent samples have the same standard deviation, otherwise Welch's approximation should be applied

Independent Sample *t*-Test — Example

• Test whether the mean percentage of woman is different in financial companies compared to industrial companies.

```
financial <- data %>% filter(INDUSTRY_SECTOR == "Financial") %>% .$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD
industrial <- data %>% filter(INDUSTRY_SECTOR == "Industrial") %>% .$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD
```

```
t.test(financial, industrial, var.equal=TRUE)
```

```
##
## Two Sample t-test
##
## data: financial and industrial
## t = 2.0421, df = 163, p-value = 0.04275
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.07825703 4.65716398
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
## 25.40932 23.04161
```



Independent Sample *t*-Test — Example

• What if the two samples have different σ s?

t.test(financial, industrial, var.equal=FALSE)

```
##
## Welch Two Sample t-test
##
## data: financial and industrial
## t = 2.0669, df = 145.08, p-value = 0.04052
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.1036396 4.6317814
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
## 25.40932 23.04161
```





Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test

tests whether two *dependent* samples represent two different populations or whether the two *dependent* samples are drawn from the same population

- **nature of independent variable(s):** 1 independent variables with 2 levels (*dependent* groups)
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval
- assumptions:
 - $\circ\;$ the data are paired and come from the same population
 - each pair is chosen randomly and independently



Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test — Example

• Test whether the percentage of women on the board of financial companies in 2019 are drawn from the same distribution as the pct. of women on board of financial companies in 2014.

wilcox.test()



Dependent *t*-Test for Paired Samples

evaluates whether the sample means (μ_1 and μ_2) of two *independent* samples differ significantly

- **nature of independent variable(s):** 1 independent variables with 2 levels (*dependent* groups)
- scale of dependent variable: interval or ratio
- hypothesis:
 - $\circ \ H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$
 - $\circ \hspace{0.2cm} H_1 : \mu
 eq \mu_0 ext{ or } \mu > \mu_0 ext{ or } \mu < \mu_0$

• assumptions:

- $\circ~$ the observations follow a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2
- the two samples have the same standard deviation (homogeneity of variance)

Dependent *t*-Test for Paired Samples

• Test whether the mean percentage of women on the board of financial companies in 2019 is different to the mean pct. of women on board of financial companies in 2014.

t.test()



$n\mbox{-Sample Generalizations:}$ more than 2 groups



Kruskal-Wallis Test

tests whether two or more independent samples originate from the same distribution, i.e., extends the Mann-Whitney *U*-test when there are *more than two groups* (for two groups, both statistics are identical)

- nature of independent variable(s): 1 independent variables with two or more levels (independent groups)
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval



Kruskal-Wallis Test — Example

• Test whether the percentage of women on the board of companies from different industry sectors are drawn from the same distribution.

##
Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test
##
data: PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD by INDUSTRY_SECTOR
Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 9.3157, df = 8, p-value = 0.3164



Jonkheere-Terpstra Test (Jonkheere's trend test)

tests whether three or more independent samples originate from the same distribution, (just as the Kruskal-Wallis test) but with an *ordered* alternative hypothesis

- nature of independent variable(s): 1 independent variables with three or more levels (independent groups)
- scale of dependent variable: ordinal or interval
- hypothesis:
 - $\circ \ H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \ldots = \theta_k$
 - $\circ \ H_1: \theta_1 \leq \theta_2 \leq \ldots \leq \theta_k$

• assumptions and limitations:

- $\circ~$ all observations from all k groups are independent of each other
- hypothesized ordering of groups' rank-sums required

Jonkheere-Terpstra Test — Example

• Test whether the percentage of women on the board of companies from financial companies is larger than the percentage in industrial companies, which is then larger than the respective percentage in basic materials companies.

##
Jonckheere-Terpstra test
##
data:
JT = 4237, p-value = 0.1625
alternative hypothesis: two.sided





Consider the following hypothetical problem:

• Ten subjects have been randomly assigned to one of two treatment conditions (A or B) and an outcome variable (score) has been recorded.

Treatment A	Treatment B		
40	57		
57	64		
45	55		
55	62		
58	65		

- First, let's use a parametric approach to compare Treatment A and Treatment B. \rightarrow *t*-test:
 - assume normal distributions, independent groups, and equal variances

a <- c(40, 57, 45, 55, 58) b <- c(57, 64, 55, 62, 65) t.test(a, b, var.equal = TRUE)

```
##
## Two Sample t-test
##
## data: a and b
## t = -2.345, df = 8, p-value = 0.04705
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal t
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## -19.0405455 -0.1594545
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
## 51.0 60.6
```

A permutation test takes a different approach: If the two treatments are truly equivalent, the label (Treatment A or Treatment B) assigned to an observed score is arbitrary.

- 1. Calculate the observed t-statistic, as in the parametric approach; call this t0.
- 2. Place all 10 scores in a single group.
- 3. Randomly assign five scores to Treatment A and five scores to Treatment B.
- 4. Calculate and record the new observed t-statistic.
- 5. Repeat steps 3–4 for every possible way of assigning five scores to Treatment A and five scores to Treatment B. There are 252 such possible arrangements.
- 6. Arrange the 252 t-statistics in ascending order. This is the empirical distribution, based on (or conditioned on) the sample data.
- 7. If t0 falls outside the middle 95 percent of the empirical distribution, reject the null hypothesis that the population means for the two treatment groups are equal at the 0.05 level of significance.



- In both the permutation and the parametric approach, the exact same *t*-statistic is calculated.
- In the permutation approach, however, the statistic is compared not to a theoretical distribution (e.g. an assumed normal distribution) but to an *empirical distribution* created from *permutations of the observed data*.
- If this empirical distribution contains *all possible permutations* of the data, the permutation test is called an 'exact' test.
- If there are too many possible permutations to compute the test statistic in appropriate time, we cause (Monte Carlo) *simulations*.



In *R*, we can use the coin package to run permutation tests as alternatives for a number of tests.

```
library(coin)
## Loading required package: survival
E.g.
df <- data.frame(value = c(a, b), treatment = c(rep("A", 5), rep("B", 5)))
oneway_test(value ~ treatment, data = df)
##
## Asymptotic Two-Sample Fisher-Pitman Permutation Test
##
## data: value by treatment (A, B)
## Z = -1.9147, p-value = 0.05553
## alternative hypothesis: true mu is not equal to 0</pre>
```

See here, for example.



(Non)parametric Correlation Measures

- Parametric: Pearson's ρ
- Non-parametric:
 - $\circ~$ Spearman rank correlation ρ : i.e., the Pearson correlation coefficient between the ranked variables
 - $\circ\,$ Kendall's τ : similar to Spearman's ρ ; measures ordinal association between two measured quantities

The argumentations for using non-parametric *or* parametric correlation measures are very similar to the ones for using non_parametric or parametric test statistics.

Things to consider are: level of measurement, assumptions about the distribution, assumptions about a linear or non-linear relationship, etc.



(Non)parametric Correlation Measures

Pearson's ρ

Linear relation between PCT__WOMEN_ON_BOARD and EQY_BETA?

cor(data\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD, data\$EQY_BETA, use="complete.obs")

[1] -0.08745765

For confidence intervals and a significance test, use cor.test().





(Non)parametric Correlation Measures

Spearman rank correlation

cor(data\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD, data\$EQY_BETA, use="complete.obs", method="spearman")

[1] -0.08065364

Kendall's au

cor(data\$PCT_WOMEN_ON_BOARD, data\$EQY_BETA, use="complete.obs", method="kendall")

[1] -0.05475672

See here (Wikipedia) for comparisons between Spearman and Pearson correlations.



Your turn

- Load the data in sp500_data.csv again
- Think about interesting questions and formulate hypotheses you could test with these data
- Test your hypothesis(-es) using appropriate tests
- Can you reject the *H*₀?
- How do you interpret your results?
- Comment on upcoming issues regarding the statistical power, multiple hyptheses, normality assumptions, etc.