

# Robust Hotelling's $T^2$ Statistic for Test a Hypothesis about Mean Population based on M-Estimator

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## *Abstract*

In this study, a robust estimator has been employed to replace the average vectors and correlation matrix in the traditional Hotelling's  $T^2$  statistic. This modification makes use of the M-estimator. In order to demonstrate the modified Hotelling's  $T^2$  statistic's advantage over the conventional Hotelling's  $T^2$  statistic with regard to anomalies, the behavior of the changed Hotelling's  $T^2$  statistic has indeed been compared to the standard Hotelling's  $T^2$  statistic and explained. Whenever the number of samples,  $n$ , and the dimensions,  $p$ , are minimal, the modified Hotelling's  $T^2$  statistic performs higher than the original Hotelling's  $T^2$ .

**Keywords:**M-estimator, Robust Estimation,  $T^2$  data from Hotelling's.

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## 1. Introduction

Statistical data one of techniques of multivariate statistical that is frequently was using to assess mean-related assumptions is Hotelling's  $T^2$  [1]. In honour of Norman Hotelling, which initially discovered its distribution of the sample, it is known as Hotelling's  $T^2$  [2,13]. The square of the unitary  $t$  is a multidimensional generalization known as Hotelling's  $T^2$ . Hotelling's  $T^2$  analyses different organizations across many regression models concurrently, in contrast to multivariate  $T^2$  [3].

Hotelling's  $T^2$  can be utilized in a variety of contexts. The Hotelling's  $T^2$  statistic, for instance, is employed to evaluate influence on all aspects between two data sets. The solitary Hotelling's  $T^2$  is evaluated in this study, and every one of the studied variables corresponds to a statistical trait. In addition, matched comparisons, repeating measurements, and Hotelling's  $T^2$  are utilized to evaluate

mean vector over two different samples [2]. Several implementations' specifics are provided in [2]. In addition, Hotelling's  $T^2$  are utilized for the flowchart [3].

The  $T^2$  efficiency of Hotelling's was already assessed in this research. Furthermore, Hotelling's  $T^2$  is susceptible to extremes [4], even a solitary extremely severe exception can significantly skew the results [5]. Several exceptions also create a "blurring effect," which lowers the effectiveness of the standard Hotelling's  $T^2$  [6]. It is well recognized that all data must be utilized to determine the mean vector  $\tilde{\lambda}$  and covariances  $\Psi$ . Therefore, the results of the mean vector  $\tilde{\lambda}$  and covariance  $\Psi$  will really be impacted by data with outliers. It might be difficult to keep away from such extremes in a multidimensional context.

incorporated in Hotelling's  $T^2$  in this research. Huber [8] became the first to present the M-estimator for estimate of a simple position variable. Maronna eventually created the M-estimation for multidimensional position and variable with effectiveness [9]. The M-breakdown estimator's point can only be greater than  $\frac{1}{(p+1)}$ . According to the breaking point, the M-estimation becomes more reactive as the dimensionality rises [10]. A strong replacement for Hotelling's  $T^2$  was already created utilizing this estimation in order to reduce the impact of outliers.

This investigation's goal is to assess how well  $T^2$  by Hotelling, both as written and as changed, performs. There will be two distinct ways to modify the model. The first involves replace the covariance  $\Psi$  with the M-estimator  $\Psi_M$ . the next one involves using M-estimator,  $\tilde{P}_M$  and  $\Psi_M$  in place of both means vectors  $\tilde{P}$  and covariance  $\Psi$ .

## 2. The Method

### 2.1 $T^2$ from the Historic Hotelling

Let  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$  be just a representative sample of a community  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ . the following is indeed the traditional Hotelling's  $T^2$  [2,15]

$$T^2 = k(\tilde{p} - \mu_0)^T \Psi^{-1} (\tilde{p} - \mu_0) \quad (2.1)$$

where,

$\tilde{p}$  is a mean samples matrix,  $\Psi^{-1}$  the antithesis of covariance matrices,  $k$  is sum of samples,

$\mu_0$  is a reasonable approximation for vectors of mean.

To determine whether or not  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  and  $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$  are true. The essential value of (2.1) established as (2.2)

$$CVF = \frac{(k-1)\delta}{(k-\delta)} F_{\delta, k-\delta}(\beta) \quad (2.2)$$

while  $\delta$  is the number of dimensions,  $k$  is the quantity of samples, and  $\beta$  is the kind I errors. If  $T^2$  exceeds the critical value within that situation,  $H_0$  will be rejected indicating that there are variations in the mean vector.

## 2.2 Hotelling's $T^2$ Has Been Selected Depending on M-Estimator.

Let  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$  be just a representative sample of a community  $N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ . Hence, using M-estimator [11], both mean and covariance matrices is provided as

$$P_M = \sum_{i=1}^k \xi_i P_i / k \quad (2.3)$$

and

$$\Psi_M = \frac{1}{\zeta k} \sum_{i=1}^k W_i^2 (P_i - \tilde{P})(P_i - \tilde{P})' \quad (2.4)$$

here  $\xi_i$  is a functional,  $\Psi$  is indeed a fair estimation of covariances and  $\zeta$  is picked. Essentially a downweight of a part of E data, the M-estimator. In a chi-squared distributed having  $\delta$  levels of freedom, consider  $\phi^2$  become the  $1 - E$  quantile. Set  $\xi_i = 1$  if  $\psi_i \leq \phi$  and  $\xi_i = \phi / \psi_i$  in any other cases.

$$\psi_i^2 = k(P_i - \tilde{P})\Psi^{-1}(P_i - \tilde{P})' \quad (2.5)$$

The modified mean and covariance matrices estimation that results from the squared Clustering relationships adjustment using revised estimations is then used to produce new revised forecasts. The process is repeated after equilibrium has been reached.

In this work, the standard Hotelling's  $T^2$  has also been changed using the M-estimator  $\Psi_M$ , in place of the covariance  $\Psi$ . A  $T^2$  of the upgraded Hotelling is provided via.

$$T_M^2 = k^2(p_i - \tilde{P})\Psi_M^{-1}(p_i - \tilde{P})' \quad (2.6)$$

here  $\tilde{P}$  denotes the sampling distribution vector, while  $\Psi_M^{-1}$  denotes the reverse covariance of M-estimator. While (2.6) examination is really the main objective, and examine additional adjusted Hotelling's  $T^2$ (2.7), where M-estimator was utilized to replace the sampling mean vector and covariance matrices.

$$T_{ME}^2 = k^2(p_i - \tilde{P}_M)\Psi_M^{-1}(p_i - \tilde{P}_M)' \quad (2.7)$$

while  $k$  represents isnumber of samples,  $\tilde{P}_M$  is just the M-mean estimator's vectors, and  $\Psi_M^{-1}$  is covariance of M-inverse estimator.

In addition to M-estimator, there are numerous additional reliable estimators. Applications are S-Estimators, the Minimal Volumes Ellipse, Constricted M-Estimators, and Minimal Covariance Predictor [11].

### 2.3 Designing a Model.

Because the dispersion of adjusted Hotelling's  $T^2$  is unknown, the prevalence of both standard and adjusted Hotelling's  $T^2$  has also been determined by modeling. From  $Np(0, \Delta)$  at the magnitude of type 1 error,  $\beta = 0.05$ , we created 10000 sets of data. For every measurement,  $\delta$ , and, the value is changed to 0, with 0 serving as the standard. Furthermore,  $\delta$  the degree of deviation, and are all set to one for every dimension. We compute  $T^2$  for traditional and adjusted Hotelling's  $T^2$  as provided by (2.1), (2.6), and utilizing these sets of data (2.7). The data types for  $\xi_i$  and are given. The equation determines how  $\xi_i$  functions; in this case, E has been set at 0.3. In order to make sure if  $\Psi$  is just a good estimate, a quantity of  $\zeta$  is selected. The findings' 95<sup>th</sup> settings with different will be utilized create the CVs. Additionally, we compare the CVs using Formula (2.4) with the Chi-Squared distributions. For every one of the values of  $k = 40, 70, 120, \text{ and } 300$  and  $\delta = 6, \text{ and } 7$ , the predicted CVs were determined. Table 1 summarizes the findings. Pollution levels were  $\Phi = 0, 0.1, \text{ and } 0.2$ . 10000 sets of data were produced and calculated for every given criterion.

This simulation's structure was tainted by employing a combination of conventional simulations.

$$(1 - 2\Phi)Np(\mu_0, \Delta_0) + 2\Phi Np(\mu_1, \Delta_1) \quad (2.8)$$

if  $\Phi$  is the percentage of extremes,  $\Delta_0$  and  $\mu_0$  represents the covariance matrix and mean vector that are unsoiled, also  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$  equals zero we obtain (2.9).

$$(1 - 2\Phi)Np(0, \Delta_0) + 2\Phi Np(0, \Delta_1) \quad (2.9)$$

Standard deviation of  $\Delta_0$  to every parameter  $\delta$ ,  $\sigma_0$  is used to create a value of 0, with  $\sigma_0$  specified by being 1. In contrast way,  $\Delta_1$  to every parameter  $\delta$ ,  $\sigma_1$  is used to determine the value of 1. The values for  $\sigma_1$  in this research are 6 and 7.

10000 simulations were used to evaluate the model using multiple sample quantities, quantity of parameters, and pollution levels. This model employs a kind 1 error of 0.05. The procedures in the model are as follows:

A collection was already produced.

Calculations (2.1), (2.6), and (2.2) were used to determine the values for  $T^2$ ,  $T_M^2$ , and  $T_{ME}^2$  (2.7).

3) Using Table 1, the quantities of  $T^2$ ,  $T_M^2$ , and  $T_{ME}^2$  larger than significance threshold were calculated.

4) The frequency of kind 1 error was employed to measure the effectiveness of  $T^2$ ,  $T_{ME}^2$ , and  $T_M^2$ .

### 3. The Discussions

Table 1 displays the parameter estimates for the modeled and typical distributions. Table 2 –3 displays the results of the original and adjusted Hotelling's  $T^2$ , for several examples.

**Table 1 shows typical and calculated parameter estimates**

$\delta$	$kT_N^2$	$T_M^2$	$T_{ME}^2$	$CV_F$	$\chi_\delta^2$	
6	40	6.7436	6.7520	6.7921	6.5297	6.23
	70	7.1525	7.5603	7.6281	7.5328	6.23
	120	7.6926	7.7642	7.8704	7.6391	6.23
	300	7.7182	7.8265	7.8739	7.5799	6.23
7	40	8.8072	8.7634	8.7765	8.6072	8.47
	70	9.0223	9.2965	9.3107	9.2866	8.47
	120	9.5926	9.4651	9.6290	9.4824	8.47
	300	9.7267	9.6026	9.2716	9.3691	8.47
8	40	12.3852	11.8105	11.9214	11.7368	12.69

	70	12.7754	12.4626	12.7429	12.4022	12.69
	120	13.8628	12.8921	12.9210	12.7819	12.69
	300	13.2865	13.0178	13.4821	13.2782	12.69

**Table 2** False detection rate for the original and adjusted versions of Hotelling's  $T^2$  for  $\delta = 6$  and  $\beta = 0.05$ .

$K$	$\Phi$	$\sigma$	$T_N^2$	$T_M^2$	$T_{ME}^2$
40	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.066	0.041	0.065
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.042	0.076	0.055
		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.051	0.139	0.063
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.037	0.152	0.046
		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.048	0.287	0.055
70	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.061	0.088	0.069
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.058	0.176	0.066
		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.034	0.292	0.044
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.053	0.217	0.064
		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.036	0.283	0.047
120	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.061	0.068	0.066
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.058	0.127	0.068
		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.046	0.185	0.057
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.055	0.199	0.063
		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.038	0.218	0.046
300	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.044	0.077	0.054
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.061	0.158	0.070

		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.057	0.168	0.063
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.044	0.171	0.051
		(8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.045	0.219	0.058

**Table 3** False detection rate for the original and adjusted versions of Hotelling's  $T^2$  for  $\delta = 7$  and  $\beta = 0.05$ .

$K$	$\Phi$	$\sigma$	$T_N^2$	$T_M^2$	$T_{ME}^2$
40	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.052	0.048	0.050
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.047	0.128	0.057
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.063	0.179	0.070
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.041	0.183	0.054
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.038	0.215	0.051
70	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.049	0.046	0.048
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.062	0.169	0.074
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.051	0.211	0.069
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.046	0.236	0.054
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.039	0.247	0.045
120	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.057	0.053	0.055
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.064	0.158	0.081
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.047	0.179	0.058
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.041	0.226	0.056
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.049	0.267	0.051
300	0	(4,4,4,4,4,4,4)	0.051	0.050	0.049
	0.3	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.060	0.174	0.074
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.054	0.205	0.068
	0.5	(6,6,6,6,6,6,6)	0.048	0.228	0.061
		(8,8,8,8,8,8,8)	0.051	0.231	0.066

The most crucial details is that, as table 1-3 illustrates, the percentage of false alarms of  $T_N^2$  tends to fall even as value of outliers rises. In contrast side, as the quantity of outliers rises, the percentage of false alarms of  $T_{ME}^2$  tends to rise, as demonstrated in Tables 1-3. The outcome is acceptable if  $T_N^2$  and  $T_{ME}^2$  produce same findings, which are  $H_0$  rejection or failure. Initially, it is due to consistency of results, and secondly, due to the achievements' pattern, which shows that  $T_N^2$  tends to underperform and  $T_{ME}^2$  tends to overstate. Therefore, the numerical simulations can be utilized as a guide by looking at the population dimension and size if the results vary between one another. It is advised to employ yet a reliable estimator.

#### 4. The Conclusion

According to those results,  $T_{ME}^2$  often performs better than  $T_N^2$  if  $n$  is tiny.  $T_N^2$ , therefore, performs better than  $T_{ME}^2$  as  $k$  grows. The efficiency of  $T_{ME}^2$  degrades in comparison to  $T_N^2$  as  $p$  rises. As a result,  $T_{ME}^2$  performed best for  $k$  and  $\delta$  are modest, the quantity of samples.  $T_N^2$  is a preferable option if the dimensions  $\delta$  or the quantity of samples  $k$  are bigger. To improve  $T_M^2$  performance a tweak is required. It is advised to just assess  $T_M^2$  effectiveness when  $\tilde{\Psi}$  is somewhat near to  $\tilde{\Psi}_M$ .

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