

# **Lecture 10: Multiple Testing**

# Goals

- Define the multiple testing problem and related concepts
- Methods for addressing multiple testing (FWER and FDR)
- Correcting for multiple testing in R

# Type I and II Errors

## Actual Situation “Truth”

Decision \	Actual Situation “Truth”	
	$H_0$ True	$H_0$ False
Do Not Reject $H_0$	Correct Decision $1 - \alpha$	Incorrect Decision Type II Error $\beta$
Reject $H_0$	Incorrect Decision Type I Error $\alpha$	Correct Decision $1 - \beta$

$$\alpha = P(\text{Type I Error}) \quad \beta = P(\text{Type II Error})$$

$$\text{power (검정력)} = P(\text{reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ False})$$

# Why Multiple Testing Matters

**Genomics = Lots of Data = Lots of Hypothesis Tests**

A typical microarray experiment might result in performing 10000 separate hypothesis tests. If we use a standard p-value cut-off of 0.05, we'd expect 500 genes to be deemed “significant” by chance.

# Why Multiple Testing Matters

- In general, if we perform  $m$  hypothesis tests, what is the probability of at least 1 false positive?

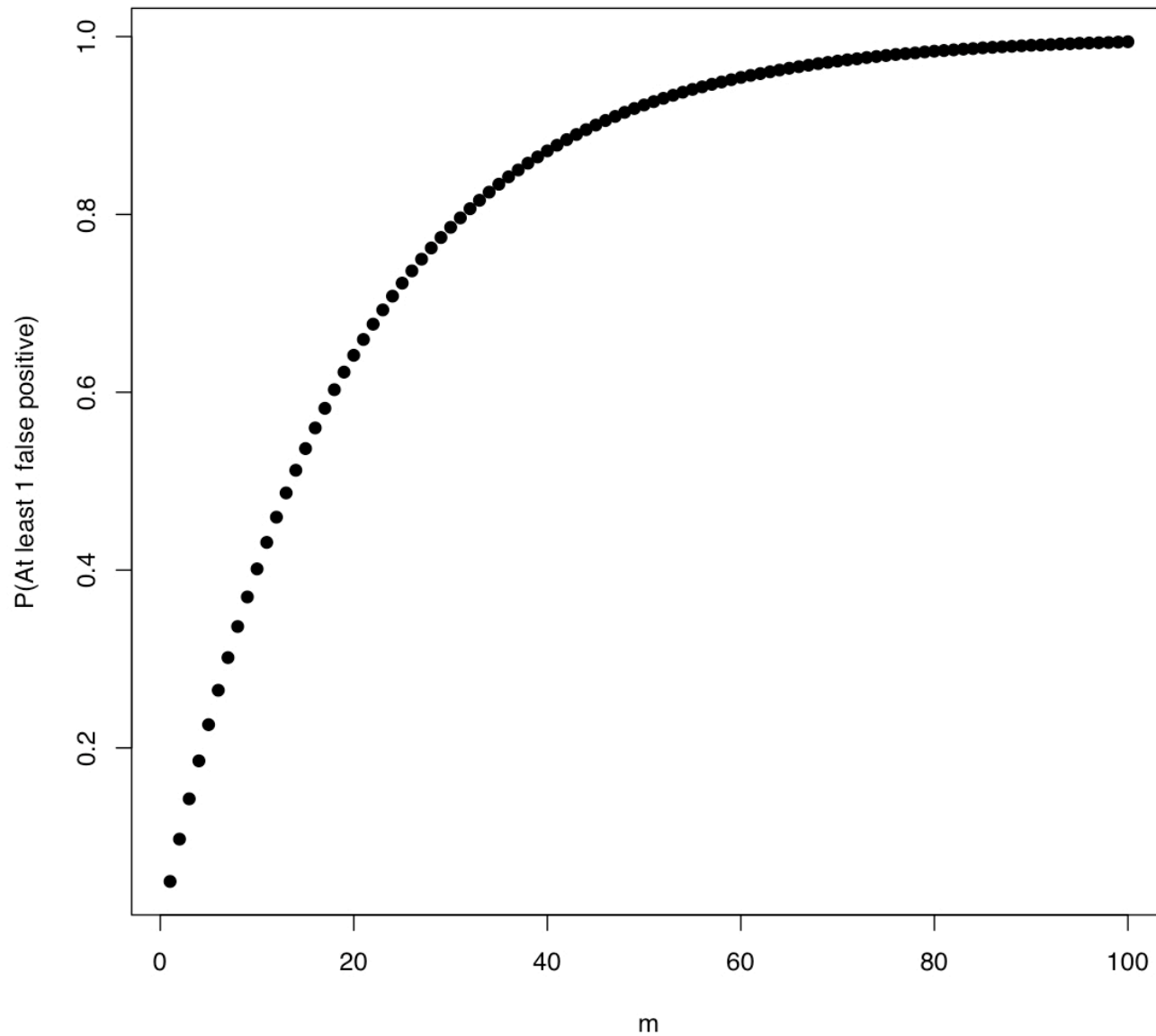
$$P(\text{Making an error}) = \alpha \quad 0.05$$

$$P(\text{Not making an error}) = 1 - \alpha \quad 0.95$$

$$P(\text{Not making an error in } m \text{ tests}) = (1 - \alpha)^m \quad 0.95^{1000}$$

$$P(\text{Making at least 1 error in } m \text{ tests}) = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^m \quad \approx 1$$

# Probability of At Least 1 False Positive



# Counting Errors

Assume we are testing  $H^1, H^2, \dots, H^m$

$m_0$  = # of true hypotheses     $R$  = # of rejected hypotheses

	Null True	Alternative True	Total
Not Called Significant	$U$	$T$	$m - R$
Called Significant	$V$	$S$	$R$
	$m_0$	$m - m_0$	$m$

$V$  = # Type I errors [false positives]

# What Does Correcting for Multiple Testing Mean?

- When people say “adjusting p-values for the number of hypothesis tests performed” what they mean is **controlling the Type I error rate**
- Very active area of statistics - many different methods have been described
- Although these varied approaches have the same goal, they go about it in fundamentally different ways



# Different Approaches To Control Type I Errors

- **Per comparison error rate** (PCER): the expected value of the number of Type I errors over the number of hypotheses,

$$\text{PCER} = E(V)/m$$

- **Per-family error rate** (PFER): the expected number of Type I errors,

$$\text{PFE} = E(V).$$

- **Family-wise error rate**: the probability of at least one type I error

$$\text{FEWR} = P(V \geq 1)$$

- **False discovery rate** (FDR) is the expected proportion of Type I errors among the rejected hypotheses

$$\text{FDR} = E(V/R \mid R > 0)P(R > 0)$$

유의하다고 판정된(귀무가설 기각) 유전자 중  
위양성 유전자의 비율

- **Positive false discovery** rate (pFDR): the rate that discoveries are false

$$\text{pFDR} = E(V/R \mid R > 0)$$

# Digression: p-values

여담

- Implicit in all multiple testing procedures is the assumption that the distribution of p-values is “correct”
- This assumption often is not valid for genomics data where p-values are obtained by asymptotic theory
- Thus, resampling methods are often used to calculate p-values

# Permutations

1. Analyze the problem: think carefully about the null and alternative hypotheses
2. Choose a test statistic
3. Calculate the test statistic for the original labeling of the observations
4. Permute the labels and recalculate the test statistic
  - Do all permutations: Exact Test
  - Randomly selected subset: Monte Carlo Test
5. Calculate p-value by comparing where the observed test statistic value lies in the permuted distributed of test statistics

# Example: What to Permute?

- Gene expression matrix of  $m$  genes measured in 4 cases and 4 controls

Gene	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Control 1	Control 2	Control 3	Control 4
1	$X_{11}$	$X_{12}$	$X_{13}$	$X_{14}$	$X_{15}$	$X_{16}$	$X_{17}$	$X_{18}$
2	$X_{21}$	$X_{22}$	$X_{23}$	$X_{24}$	$X_{25}$	$X_{26}$	$X_{27}$	$X_{28}$
3	$X_{31}$	$X_{32}$	$X_{33}$	$X_{34}$	$X_{35}$	$X_{36}$	$X_{37}$	$X_{38}$
4	$X_{41}$	$X_{42}$	$X_{43}$	$X_{44}$	$X_{45}$	$X_{46}$	$X_{47}$	$X_{48}$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
$m$	$X_{m1}$	$X_{m2}$	$X_{m3}$	$X_{m4}$	$X_{m5}$	$X_{m6}$	$X_{m7}$	$X_{m8}$

# Back To Multiple Testing: FWER

- Many procedures have been developed to control the Family Wise Error Rate (the probability of at least one type I error):

$$P(V \geq 1)$$

- Two general types of FWER corrections:
  1. **Single step**: equivalent adjustments made to each p-value
  2. **Sequential**: adaptive adjustment made to each p-value

# ① Single Step Approach: Bonferroni

- Very simple method for ensuring that the overall Type I error rate of  $\alpha$  is maintained when performing  $m$  independent hypothesis tests

- Rejects any hypothesis with  $p\text{-value} \leq \alpha/m$ :

$$\tilde{p}_j = \min[mp_j, 1]$$

Bonferroni corrected  
p-value

- For example, if we want to have an experiment wide Type I error rate of 0.05 when we perform 10,000 hypothesis tests, we'd need a p-value of  $0.05/10000 = 5 \times 10^{-6}$  to declare significance

# Philosophical Objections to Bonferroni Corrections

**“Bonferroni adjustments are, at best, unnecessary and, at worst, deleterious to sound statistical inference” Perneger (1998)**

- Counter-intuitive: interpretation of finding depends on the number of other tests performed
- The general null hypothesis (that all the null hypotheses are true) is rarely of interest
- High probability of type 2 errors, i.e. of not rejecting the general null hypothesis when important effects exist
- simple, but conservative

## ② FWER: Sequential Adjustments

- Simplest sequential method is Holm's Method

- Order the unadjusted  $p$ -values such that  $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \dots \leq p_m$
- For control of the FWER at level  $\alpha$ , the step-down Holm adjusted  $p$ -values are

$$\tilde{p}_j = \min[(m - j + 1) \cdot p_j, 1]$$

- The point here is that we don't multiply every  $p_i$  by the same factor  $m$
- For example, when  $m = 10000$ :

$$\tilde{p}_1 = 10000 \cdot p_1, \tilde{p}_2 = 9999 \cdot p_2, \dots, \tilde{p}_m = 1 \cdot p_m$$



# Who Cares About Not Making ANY Type I Errors?

- FWER is appropriate when you want to guard against ANY false positives
- However, in many cases (particularly in genomics) we can live with a certain number of false positives
- In these cases, the more relevant quantity to control is the false discovery rate (FDR)

# False Discovery Rate

	Null True	Alternative True	Total
Not Called Significant	$U$	$T$	$m - R$
Called Significant	$V$	$S$	$R$
	$m_0$	$m - m_0$	$m$

$V$  = # Type I errors [false positives]

- False discovery rate (FDR) is designed to control the proportion of false positives **among the set of rejected hypotheses** ( $R$ )

# FDR vs FPR

	Null True	Alternative True	Total
Not Called Significant	$U$	$T$	$m - R$
Called Significant	$V$	$S$	$R$
	$m_0$	$m - m_0$	$m$

$$FDR = \frac{V^{\text{false positive}}}{R^{\text{total positive}}} \quad FPR = \frac{V}{m_0}$$

엄밀히 말하면,  $FDR = E[Q] = E\left[\frac{V}{R}\right]$   
 where  $\frac{V}{R}$  is defined to be 0 when  $R=0$ .

# Benjamini and Hochberg FDR

- To control FDR at level  $\delta$ :
  1. Order the unadjusted p-values:  $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \dots \leq p_m$
  2. Then find the test with the highest rank,  $j$ , for which the p value,  $p_j$ , is less than or equal to  $(j/m) \times \delta$
  3. Declare the tests of rank 1, 2, ...,  $j$  as significant

$$p(j) \leq \delta \frac{j}{m}$$

## B&H FDR Example

Controlling the FDR at  $\delta = 0.05$

Rank (j)	P-value	$(j/m) \times \delta$	Reject $H_0$ ?
1	0.0008 <	0.005	1
2	0.009 <	0.010	1
3	0.165 >	0.015	0
4	0.205	0.020	0
5	0.396	0.025	0
6	0.450	0.030	0
7	0.641	0.035	0
8	0.781	0.040	0
9	0.900	0.045	0
10	0.993	0.050	0

## Storey's positive FDR (pFDR)

$$\text{BH : } FDR = E\left[\frac{V}{R} \mid R > 0\right]P(R > 0)$$

$$\text{Storey : } pFDR = E\left[\frac{V}{R} \mid R > 0\right]$$

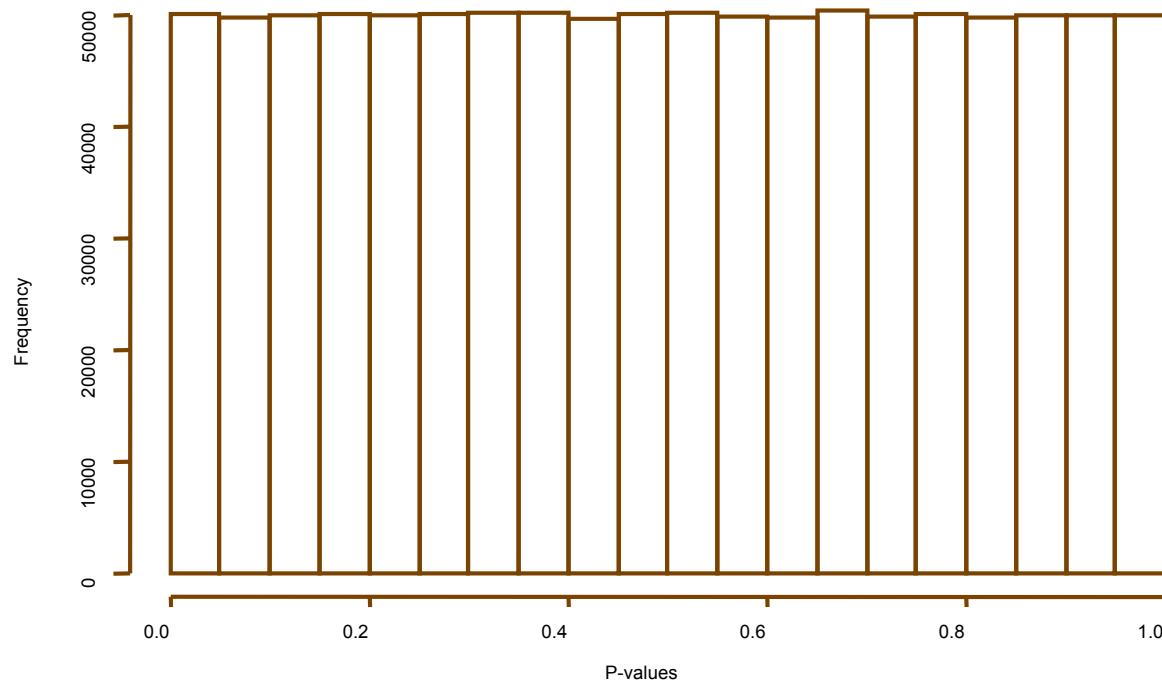
- Since  $P(R > 0)$  is  $\sim 1$  in most genomics experiments FDR and pFDR are very similar
- Omitting  $P(R > 0)$  facilitated development of a measure of significance in terms of the FDR for each hypothesis

# What's a q-value?

- q-value is defined as the minimum FDR that can be attained when calling that “feature” significant (i.e., expected proportion of false positives incurred when calling that feature significant)
- The estimated q-value is a function of the p-value for that test and the distribution of the entire set of p-values from the family of tests being considered (Storey and Tibshiriani 2003)
- Thus, in an array study testing for differential expression, if gene X has a q-value of 0.013 it means that 1.3% of genes that show p-values at least as small as gene X are false positives

# Estimating The Proportion of Truly Null Tests

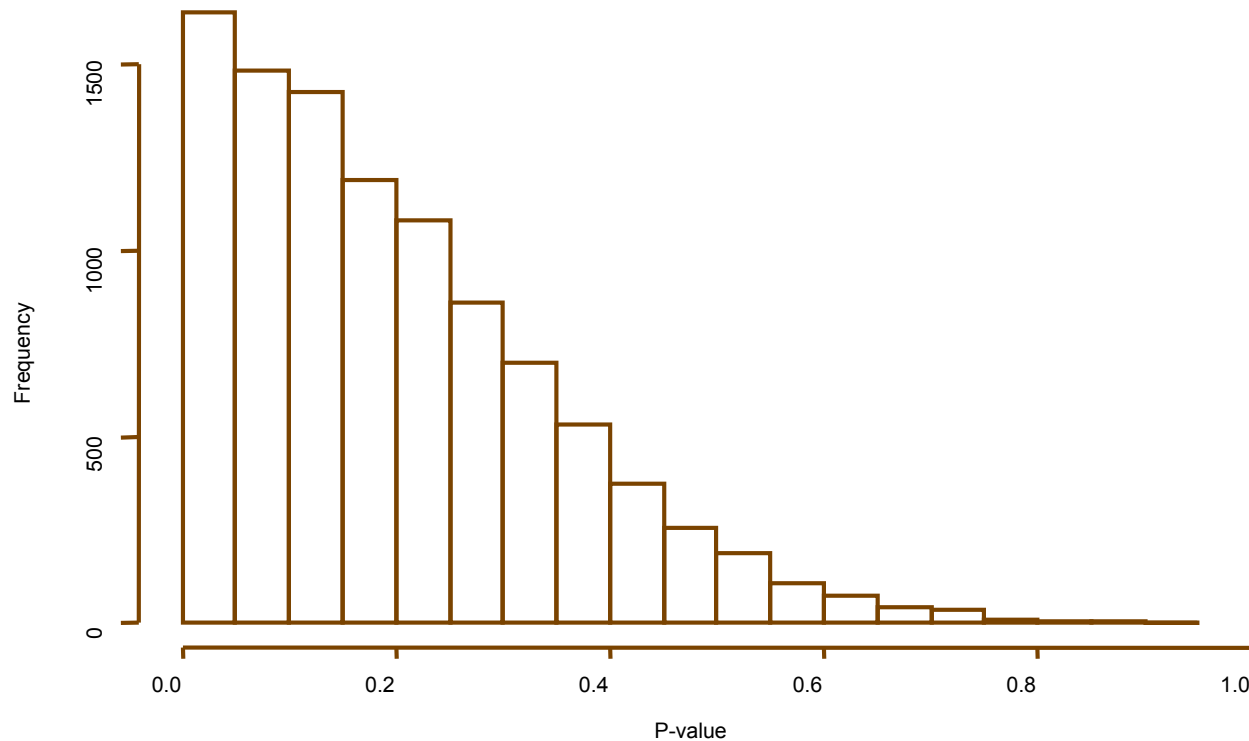
- Under the null hypothesis p-values are expected to be uniformly distributed between 0 and 1





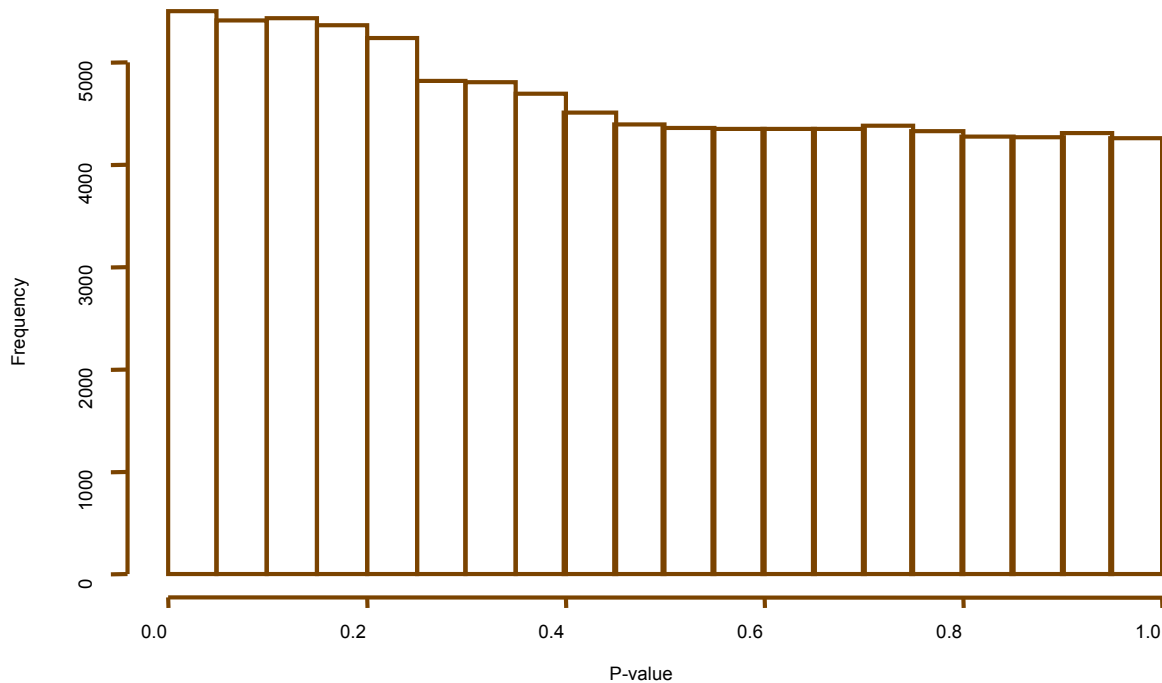
# Estimating The Proportion of Truly Null Tests

- Under the alternative hypothesis p-values are skewed towards 0



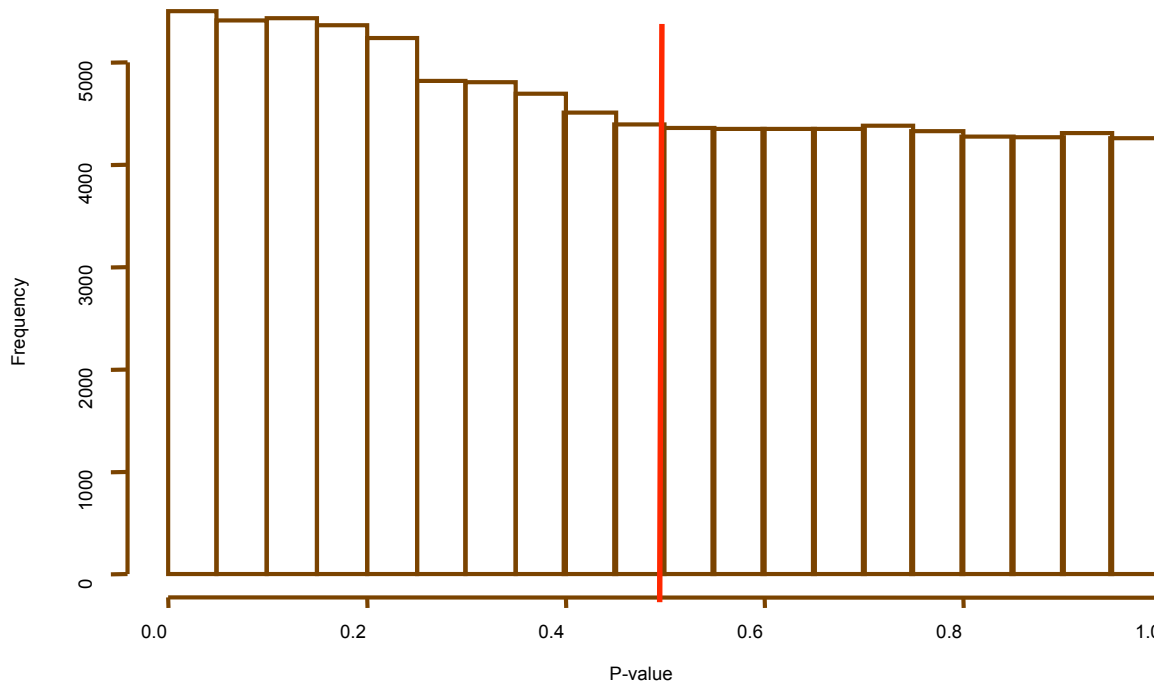
# Estimating The Proportion of Truly Null Tests

- Combined distribution is a mixture of p-values from the null and alternative hypotheses



# Estimating The Proportion of Truly Null Tests

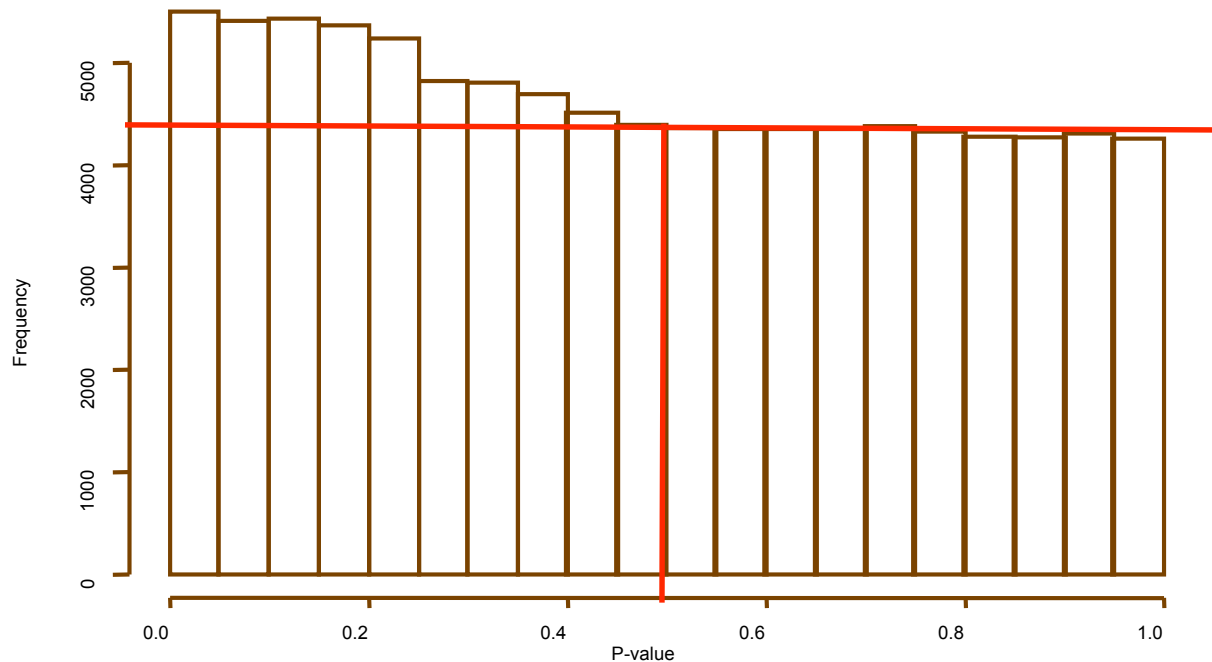
- For p-values greater than say 0.5, we can assume they mostly represent observations from the null hypothesis



# Definition of $\pi_0$

- $\hat{\pi}_0$  is the proportion of truly null tests:

$$\hat{\pi}_0(\lambda) = \frac{\#\{p_i > \lambda; i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}}{m(1 - \lambda)}$$



- $1 - \hat{\pi}_0$  is the proportion of truly alternative tests (very useful!)