

STATS 03: Hypothesis Testing

Winter semester 2023/2024

# Statistical Inference

### What is Statistical Inference?

- Descriptive Statistics summarize data and identifies relationships and patterns.
- ▶ Interferential Statistics allow us to go beyond pure description and make conclusions to the population.
- ▶ **Statistical Inference** is the process of using data from a sample to learn about a larger population or process.
- Inference allows us to:
  - 1. Estimate **unknown quantities** (called *parameters*) that describe the population.
  - Test hypotheses to verify claims about the population or process.

### Statistical Inference

#### What is a parameter?

- A parameter is an unknown quantity that describes some aspect of a population or a process.
- Examples:
  - The proportion of cells expressing a specific gene under stress conditions.
  - ▶ The rate of mutation in a gene across generations.
  - Air temperature from rocket sound delay at New Year's.

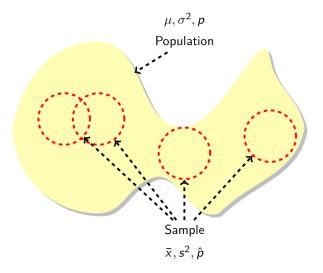
### Goals of Statistical Inference

We observe a sample and want to draw conclusions about the parameter  $\theta$  based on the sample.

- 1. Estimation: approximate determination of the parameter  $\theta$
- 2. Hypothesis testing: verifying claims about the parameter  $\theta$

# Populations and samples

Population parameters typically not observable



## Populations and samples

The population is the entire set of quantities we are interested in.

### Population $\rightarrow$ parameters

Numerical measures of this population are called parameters. Parameters are fixed but unknown.

Inference about the parameters is made by taking a subset of the population: a *sample*.

#### Sample $\rightarrow$ statistics

Numerical measures of the sample are called statistics. Statistics can vary from sample to sample but are known.

# Statistical modeling

- We repeat n times independently the experiment  $\mathcal{E}$ .
- ▶ The sample variable *X<sub>i</sub>* is a random variable that, with its distribution, describes the probability that a specific characteristic occurs in the ith drawing from the population.
- $\triangleright$   $x_i$  is a realization of  $X_i$ .

# Examples: sample mean and sample variance

#### Consider data

$$X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$$
.

▶ The sample mean is defined as

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

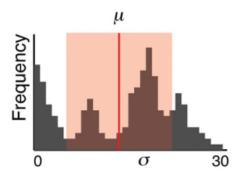
▶ The sample variance is defined as

$$s^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}$$

▶  $\bar{x}$  and  $s^2$  describe the distribution of data the same way as  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  describe probability distributions.

## Population parameters are estimated by sampling

True distribution of values between (0,30) in a population, with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ 



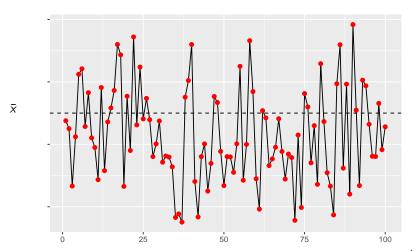
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# Random samples taken from the population

Samples		Sample means
$X_1 = [1, 19, 17, 20, 26]$ $X_2 = [8, 11, 16, 24, 25]$ $X_3 = [16, 17, 18, 20, 24]$	$\overset{\bar{X}}{}$	$ar{X}_1 = 14.6$ $ar{X}_2 = 16.8$ $ar{X}_3 = 19.0$
•••		

# Example

Repeat 100 times.



#

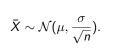
# Sampling distribution for $\bar{X}$

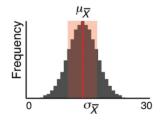
Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  be independent and identically distributed random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu < \infty$  and  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ .

Let  $\bar{X}$  be the sample mean calculated by

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i.$$

then the sampling distribution of  $\bar{X}$  is





The standard error of  $\bar{X}$  is the square-root of  $Var(\bar{X})$ :  $SE(\bar{X}) = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ .

### The central limit theorem

#### Theorem.

Let  $Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_n$  be independent and identically distributed random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \mu < \infty$  and  $\text{Var}(Y_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ . Define

$$U_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}, \quad \text{ where } \bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i.$$

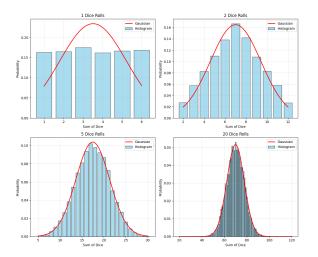
Then the distribution of  $U_n$  converges to the standard normal distribution function as  $n \to \infty$ . That is,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(U_n \le u) = \int_{-\infty}^u e^{-t^2/2} dt \quad \text{ for all } u.$$

3Blue1Brown: https://youtu.be/zeJD6dqJ5lo

### The central limit theorem

Example: Rolling *n* dice and sum up the result. Repeat m = 1000 times.



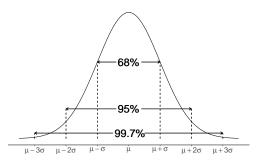
#### The central limit theorem

- Universality Across Distributions: Regardless of the original distribution, the sum or average of independent random variables tends toward a normal distribution.
- Foundation of Inferential Statistics: Enables confidence intervals, hypothesis testing, and regression by justifying the normality of sampling distributions.
- Predictability in Real-World Processes: Explains why natural phenomena (e.g., heights, measurement errors) often produce normal-like outcomes.
- Simplifies Complex Problems: Allows approximation of probabilities and outcomes using the normal distribution, even in non-normal scenarios.
- ► **Practical Applicability:** Works well with finite sample sizes, enabling predictions in polling, surveys, and experiments.

# Confidence interval

### Confidence interval

- When estimating a parameter  $\theta$  uncertainties regarding the accuracy of  $\theta$  occur, because of uncertainties of the sample, e.g. due to (finite) sampling.
- ▶ This uncertainties are expressed by a confidence interval [L, U], which includes the unknown parameter  $\theta$  of interest with probability  $1 \alpha$ .
- $ightharpoonup \alpha$  is the so-called significance level.



### Interval Estimates

- average over multiple samples
  - ▶ The sample mean X follows a normal distribution:

$$ar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right),$$

$$Z = \frac{ar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

confidence interval derivation:

$$1 - \alpha = \mathbb{P}\left(-z_{\alpha/2} \le \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \le z_{\alpha/2}\right).$$

Rearranging gives:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bar{X} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$

#### Interval estimates

Thus, the confidence interval for  $\mu$  is:

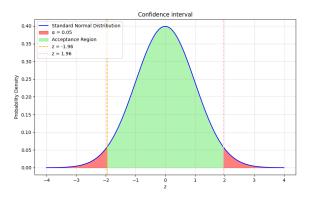
$$\mu \in \left[ \bar{X} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \, \bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right].$$

#### Statement of confidence interval for the mean

We are 95% confident that the mean of <variable> from <population> lies between <lower> and <upper> <units>.

### Illustration of Cls

For 
$$1-\alpha=.95$$
 we get  $z_\pm=\pm 1.96$  again by using  $\Phi(z)=\int_{-\infty}^z \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}}\,dt=\frac{\alpha}{2}.$ 



# Hypothesis test

# Introduction to Hypothesis Testing

#### What is Hypothesis Testing?

We test assumptions about data by evaluating whether the observed results are likely under a given hypothesis.

- Rolling a Die: I rolled a fair-looking die 20 times and got the following sequence: 1, 2, 6, 4, 6, 6, 3, 6, 5, 6, 2, 6, 6, 4, 6, 6, 5, 6, 1, 6. How likely is it that the die is biased towards 6?
- Drug Effectiveness: A new medication was tested on 100 patients. 65 showed improvement. Is the drug significantly better than random chance?
- Coin Toss: A coin was tossed 50 times, and it landed heads 40 times. Is the coin fair, or is it biased?
- Sports Performance: A basketball player makes 8 successful shots out of 10. Is the player performing better than average, or could this be due to luck?
- Website Click-Through Rates: Two versions of a website were tested. Version A had a click rate of 12%, and Version B had 15%. Is the difference in performance statistically significant?

**Key Question:** How likely are the observed results under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true?

# The Null Hypothesis

#### What is the Null Hypothesis $(H_0)$ ?

The Null Hypothesis is a starting assumption in hypothesis testing that there is **no effect**, **no difference**, or that things happen by **random chance**.

#### **Examples of Null Hypotheses:**

- Rolling a Die: The die is fair, with each side equally likely (p = 1/6).
- Drug Effectiveness: The drug has no effect (p = 0.5, same as random chance).
- Coin Toss: The coin is fair (p = 0.5).
- Sports Performance: The basketball player's success rate matches the league average.
- Website Click-Through Rates: The click rates of Version A and Version B are identical.

**Key Idea:** Hypothesis testing evaluates how likely the observed data is under  $H_0$ . If unlikely, we reject  $H_0$ .

## Hypothesis Testing: Discrete vs. Continuous Variables

Discrete (mutation count, expression level,...)

- Binomial Test
- Chi-Square Test
- Fisher's Exact Test

Continuous (protein concentration, enzyme activity, ...)

- t-Test
- ANOVA
- Z-Test
- Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

# Example for continous data

Consider the weights in g of ten mice:

8.87	9.07	9.46	9.57	10.23	9.08	8.14	9.96	7.79	8.13

**Question:** Is  $\bar{x} = 9.03g$  significantly different from  $\mu_0 = 10g$ ,  $\sigma = 1g$ ?



## State the appropriate hypotheses

The appropriate hypotheses are

Null-hypothesis  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0 \implies H_0: \mu = 10$ 

Alternative hypothesis  $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0 \implies H_a: \mu \neq 10$ 

### **Alternatives**

two-sided test

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0 \implies H_0: \mu = 10$$
  
 $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0 \implies H_a: \mu \neq 10$ 

one-sided test

$$H_0: \mu \ge \mu_0 \implies H_0: \mu \ge 10$$
  
 $H_a: \mu < \mu_0 \implies H_a: \mu < 10$ 

one-sided test

$$H_0: \mu \le \mu_0 \implies H_0: \mu \le 10$$
  
 $H_a: \mu > \mu_0 \implies H_a: \mu > 10$ 

#### The 7-test statistics

For making inferences about the mean of a normal distribution with known variance:

the test statistic Z is calculated as

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}},$$

- where  $\mu_0$  is the value under  $H_0$  ( $\mu_0 = 10$ )
- ▶ If the null hypothesis is true what is  $\mathbb{E}[Z]$  and Var(Z)?

### Calculate the observed value of the test statistic

▶ We assume that the weights are normally distributed

$$X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma),$$

hence,

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu_0$$
 and  $\operatorname{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ .

 $\triangleright$  and since  $\sigma^2$  and n are known, we can rewrite

$$Z = rac{ar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \Longrightarrow Z = aar{X} + b$$
 $a = rac{\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}, \quad b = -rac{\mu_0 \sqrt{n}}{\sigma}.$ 

### Calculate the observed value of the test statistic

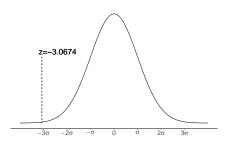
▶ For the mice experiment (i.e.  $\mu_0 = 10$ )

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - 10}{1/\sqrt{10}}$$

▶ The observed value of *Z* for the weight data is:

$$z = \frac{9.03 - 10}{1/\sqrt{10}} \approx -3.0674$$

This is more than  $3\sigma$  away and thus very unlikely!



### *p*-values

The *p*-value is the probability of observing the measured value or a more extreme value, assuming that the null hypothesis and the test statistic are correct.

For z- tests this probability can be calculated directly from the z- value.

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(Z \leq z_{-}) &= \int_{-\infty}^{z_{z}} \frac{e^{-x^{2}/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dx & \leftarrow \text{left handed p-value} \\ \mathbb{P}(Z \geq z_{+}) &= \int_{z_{+}}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-x^{2}/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dx & \leftarrow \text{right handed p-value} \end{split}$$

We found for our weight data  $z_{\pm} = \pm 3.0674$ .

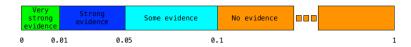
$$\mathbb{P}(Z \le -3.0674) + \mathbb{P}(Z \ge 3.0674) = 0.000430 \leftarrow \text{p-value}$$

#### Conclusion about H<sub>0</sub>?

# On the basis of the p-value, decide to retain or reject $H_0$

Let  $\alpha$  denote the significance level and p denote the p-value, then

- ▶ if  $p \ge \alpha$ : retain  $H_0$
- if  $p < \alpha$ : reject  $H_0$ .



# Using a critical value

Fix significance level lpha and compute the critical value  $z_{lpha/2}$  as

$$\mathbb{P}(Z \geq z_{\alpha/2}) = \alpha/2,$$

where  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .

The decision process is then:

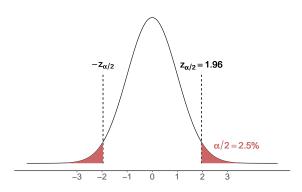
- if  $|z| > z_{\alpha/2}$ : reject  $H_0$ ,
- if  $|z| \leq z_{\alpha/2}$ : retain  $H_0$ ,

where z is the observed value of the test statistic.

### Null Distribution for z-Tests

Model: 
$$X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$$
,  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ 

Test Statistic: 
$$Z=rac{ar{\chi}-\mu_{f 0}}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\sim\mathcal{N}(0,1),$$
 and  $lpha=95\%$ 



Reject  $H_0$  if z lies within critical area (red)

# Using a confidence region

For a significance level of  $\alpha$ , a  $(1-\alpha)100\%$  confidence interval for the mean is calculated, denoted (L,U), and then the decision protocol is

- if  $\mu_0 \in (L, U)$ : retain  $H_0$ ,
- if  $\mu_0 \notin (L, U)$ : reject  $H_0$ ,

where  $\mu_0$  is the hypothesised value.

**Example:** Mice weight data for  $\alpha = 95\%$ 

$$\begin{aligned} 10g \notin & \left( \bar{x} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \\ = & \left( 9.03g - 1.96 \frac{1g}{\sqrt{10}}, \bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{1g}{\sqrt{10}} \right) = \left( 8.41g, 9.65g \right) \end{aligned}$$

#### Check the assumptions

► For inferring the mean of a normal distribution with known variance, the assumption is that the observation is a random sample from a normal distribution:

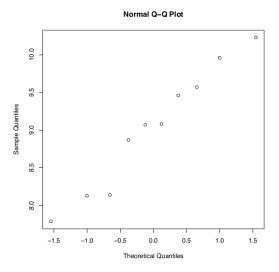
$$X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

For n > 30, we need the random variables  $X_i$ , i = 1, ..., n to be independent and identical distributed. (Central limit theorem)

#### Checking assumptions for mice data

- 1. Normality (Q-Q Plot)
- 2. Identically distributed
- 3. Known variance (external information)

#### Normal quantile plot for mice data



#### Sampling from same distribution

Split measured data into two parts: Randomly select  $n_1$  items and interpret them as part of treatment group 1. Do the same for the remaining items  $n_2 = n - n_1$ .

Now, we want to know if the means are identical.

• We are interested in the difference  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ .

#### Point estimate

lf

- ullet  $ar{X}_1$  is the sample mean of  $X_{1,i}$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,n_1$
- $ar{X}_2$  is the sample mean of  $X_{2,i}$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,n_2$  and for j=1,2,

$$\bar{X}_j = \frac{1}{n_j} \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} X_{j,i},$$

• then a point estimate of  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  is  $\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$ .

# Sample distribution

lf

$$X_{1,i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1), \quad i = 1, \dots, n_1,$$

and

$$X_{2,i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n_2,$$

• What is  $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2]$ ?

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2] = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

• What is  $Var(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)$ ?

$$\operatorname{Var}ig(ar{X}_1 - ar{X}_2ig) = rac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + rac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}$$

• What is the sampling distribution of  $\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$ ?

## Sample distribution

Since the  $X_{j,i}$  are all normally distributed, and  $\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$  is just a linear combination of the  $X_{j,i}$ ,

$$(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) \sim \mathcal{N}\Big(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}\Big).$$

For now, we will use the sample variances in place of the unknown population variances, meaning (for now) our test is only approximate.

## Hypothesis testing I (Two-sided Test)

The steps for hypothesis testing are as follows:

1. State the appropriate hypotheses

$$H_0: \quad \mu = \mu_0 \quad \text{(equivalently: } \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0\text{)}$$
  $H_a: \quad \mu \neq \mu_0 \quad \text{(equivalently: } \mu_1 - \mu_2 \neq 0\text{)}$ 

- 2. Choose the required significance level  $\alpha$
- 3. Check the assumptions:
  - 3.1 The group 1 data are a random sample from  $\mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$ .
  - 3.2 The group 2 data are a random sample from  $\mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$ .
  - 3.3 The two sets of observations are independent.

## Hypothesis testing II (Two-sided Test)

4. Calculate the observed value of the test statistic

$$z = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}.$$

Calculate the p-value
 If H<sub>0</sub> is true, then the test statistic z is (approximately) standard
 normally distributed,

$$z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

and the p-value is

$$\mathbb{P}(|Z| \geq |z|)$$

where z is the observed value of the test statistic.

6. On the basis of the p-value, decide to retain or reject  $H_0$ .

#### Confidence interval

A  $(1-\alpha)100\%$  confidence interval for  $\mu_1-\mu_2$  is (approximately)

$$\left(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 - z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}, \ \bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 + z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}\right),$$

#### where

- $z_{\alpha/2}$  is the critical value such that  $\mathbb{P}(|Z| \geq z_{\alpha/2}) = \alpha/2$ ,
  - where Z has a standard normal distribution.

## Randomly Splitting Mice Data

► **Group 1:** [9.46, 8.87, 9.57, 10.23, 9.08]

Mean: 9.44Variance: 0.27

► **Group 2:** [8.14, 9.07, 8.13, 7.79, 9.96]

Mean: 8.62Variance: 0.79

$$x_1 - \bar{x}_2 = 0.824$$

Confidence interval:

$$(-0.32, 1.97)$$

► Since 0 lies within the confidence interval, we cannot conclude that the means are significantly different.

# The Student's t-Test

# Inference for the population mean $\mu$ when the population variance is unknown

So far we assumed a normal distribution with known variance.

- Consider the problem when we have n observations from a normal distribution with unknown variance.
- Now, we would like to estimate and make inferences about the population mean.

## Point estimates for $\mu$ and $\sigma^2$

As before a point estimate for the population mean  $\mu$  is the sample mean  $\bar{X}$  calculated by

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i,$$

where  $X_i$ , i = 1, ..., n are the n observations.

► For the population variance, the sample variance can be used as a point estimate of the population variance, i.e.

$$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2},$$

can be used as a point estimate of  $\sigma^2$ .

#### T-distribution

Consider n independent observations  $X_i$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,n$ , from a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , i.e.,

$$X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma),$$

then the random variable, denoted T, calculated by

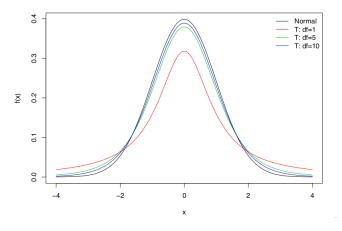
$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}.$$

#### where

- $ightharpoonup \bar{X}$  is the estimator for the mean, and
- S is the estimator for the standard deviation

has a T-distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom.

#### *T*-distribution



df: degrees of freedom

# Power analysis

# Retaining H<sub>0</sub>

If we retain  $H_0$  this can be because either

- $ightharpoonup H_0$  is true, or
- ▶ there is not enough evidence to show that  $H_0$  is false.

Therefore, we use the term retain but make no claims about the validity of  $H_0$ .

## Choose the required significance level $\alpha$

Hypothesis testing results in deciding to retain or reject the null hypothesis. This gives us four possibilities:

		Decision			
		retain $H_0$	reject $H_0$		
$\overline{H_0}$	true	correct $1-\alpha$	Type I error $\alpha$		
			(false positive)		
	false	Type II error <i>β</i>	correct		
		(false negative)	$1-\beta$		

The significance level of a hypothesis testing procedure is the probability of a Type I error.

The power of a test is given by  $1-\beta$ . The higher the power the better the test. Calculating  $\beta$  involves knowledge about the specific statistical quantities.

Power analysis

## The power of a statistical test

If we reject the null hypothesis if  $p \le \alpha$ , we reject true null hypothesis with probability  $\alpha$ .

But how likely are we to not reject the false null hypothesis?

To answer that, we must assume a specific alternative model

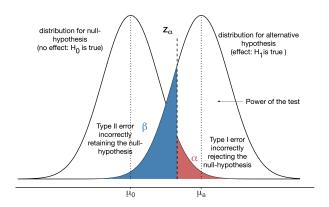
The false negative (or type-II error) rate at significance level  $\alpha$  is

$$\beta = \mathbb{P}(\{p \ge \alpha | \text{alternative hypothesis is true}\})$$

and the power against that alternative at level  $\alpha$  is  $1 - \beta$ .

p ≤ α rejects the null hypothesis, it does not prove the alternative to be true!

# The power of a statistical test



- variance increases the power decreases (fatter curves)
- number of samples increase the power increases (thinner curves)

## Power analysis

- 1. Pick specific alternative
- 2. Find distribution  $D_{alt}$  of test statistic under  $H_a$
- 3. Pick significance level  $\alpha$
- 4. Find acceptance region A, i.e., values of test statistic where  $p \ge \alpha$
- 5. Intersect  $D_{alt}$  with A to find the false negative rate

$$\beta = \mathbb{P}(\{p \geq \alpha | \text{alternative model is true}\})$$

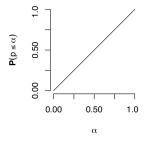
6. The power of the test against the alternative model is  $1-\beta$ . This is tedious!  $G^*$ Power implements this for many common tests http://www.gpower.hhu.de/

# The multiple testing problem

#### Multiple Tests

#### *p*-value distribution:

If we test a true null hypothesis, the p-value distribution is uniform



This means that for n=1000 and  $\alpha=0.05$ , about  $0.05\times 1000=50$  tests will show significant results purely by chance, regardless of the shape of the null-distribution.

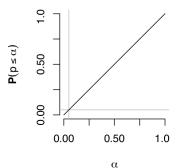
Example: scRNA-seq expression levels

	Control				Treatment			
	cell 1		cell n	mean	cell 1	• • • •	cell n	mean
gene 1	c <sub>11</sub>		C <sub>1n</sub>	<u>c</u> 1	t <sub>11</sub>		$t_{1n}$	$\overline{t_1}$
:			٠				٠	
gene m	C <sub>m1</sub>	• • •	$c_{mn}$	$\overline{c_m}$	$t_{m1}$		$t_{mn}$	$\overline{t_m}$

Q: Which genes show significant differences in average expression levels?

Probability that at least one *p*-value in *m* (independent) tests is  $\leq \alpha$ ?

$$\mathbb{P}(p_1 \leq \alpha) = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^1$$

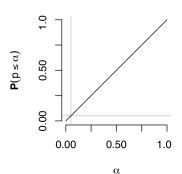


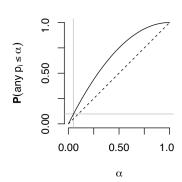
University of Vienna

Probability that at least one *p*-value in *m* (independent) tests is  $\leq \alpha$ ?

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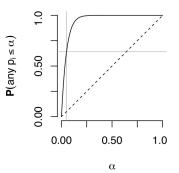
$$\mathbb{P}(p_1 \leq \alpha \text{ or } p_2 \leq \alpha) = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^2$$





Probability that at least one *p*-value in *m* (independent) tests is  $\leq \alpha$ ?

$$\mathbb{P}(p_1 \le \alpha \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } p_{20} \le \alpha) = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^{20}$$



Probability that at least one *p*-value in *m* (independent) tests is  $\leq \alpha$ ?

$$\mathbb{P}(p_1 \le \alpha \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } p_{20} \le \alpha) = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^{20}$$

Example: testing 20 drugs with none of them having an effect. The null-hypothesis is true for all.

For each drug we have a Type I error of  $\alpha = 0.05$  which is the probability of incorrectly rejecting  $H_0$ .

Considering all 20 drugs the probability of at least one false positive is

$$1 - (1 - \alpha)^{20} = 1 - (1 - 0.95)^{20} \approx 0.64$$

#### The multiple testing problem

The probability of making at least one Type I error increases with the number of tests!

If we test m hypotheses, we call the probability

$$\mathbb{P}(p_1 \leq \alpha \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } p_m \leq \alpha)$$

(assuming the hypotheses are true) the family-wise error rate. (FWER)

- = Probability of making one or more false discovery
  - ▶ Without correction, FWER  $> \alpha$  if m > 1

To ensure FWER  $\leq \alpha$ , we adjust (correct) the individual *p*-values. (or equivalently, we adjust the individual  $\alpha$ 's)

#### Methods to control the FWER

Assume:  $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \cdots \leq p_m$  with  $H_0(1), \ldots, H_0(m)$ .

#### Method of Bonferroni

▶ Reject  $H_0(i)$  if  $p_i < \frac{\alpha}{m}$  for i = 1, ..., m

#### Method of Holm-Bonferroni

▶ Sort p-values in ascending order  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_m$  and compare them to  $p_k < \frac{\alpha}{m-k+1} \Rightarrow$  Reject  $H_0$  for the smallest p-values until one fails the condition.

#### Method of Benjamini-Hochberg

▶ Sort p-values in ascending order  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_m$ . Find the largest p-value such that  $p_k \leq \frac{k}{m} \alpha \Rightarrow \text{Reject all } H_0 \text{ for } p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$ .