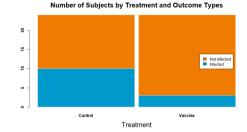
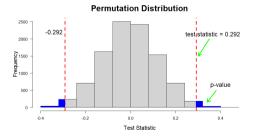


# Another Case Study of Permutation Testing





### Outline

1 The Framework of Permutation Testing

2 Another Case Study of Permutation Testing

3 Summary

# Learning Objectives

#### In this video, we will

- Summarise the framework of permutation testing.
- Apply it to another case study.

# The Framework of Permutation Testing

# The Framework of Permutation Testing

- 1 State the *Null Hypothesis* and the *Alternative Hypothesis*.
- 2 Pick the Level of Significance.
- 3 Choose the Test Statistic and generate the permutation distribution of the test statistic, by simulating multiple permutations.
- 4 Calculate the *p-value* and compare it with the level of significance.
- 5 Interpret the decision.
- 6 Check the assumption.

# The Difference between Permutation Testing and Classical Hypothesis Testing

- The main difference betweeen the two approaches lies in the sampling distribution of the test statistic.
- For classical hypothesis testing:
  - ► We need to use the appropriate test statistic such that the theoretical sampling distribution, under the null hypothesis, is known explicitly.
- For permutation testing:
  - ▶ We can choose almost any test statistic.
  - ▶ The sampling distribution of the test statistic under the null hypothesis is generated via simulations.
  - In fact, we repeatedly generate new permutations of the sample data, and calculate the test statistic for each of them.

# Another Case Study of Permutation Testing

# Case Study: Whether the new vaccine is effective?

#### Story

Suppose a researcher wished to assess if the treatment, a newly developed Covid vaccine, is effective. 48 healthy subjects were randomly assigned into two groups of equal sizes, the "Vaccine" group and the "Control" group, respectively.

#### Aim of the Study

To determine whether the treatment variable, receiving the vaccine or not, is associated with the outcome variable, the infection status.



### Inspect the Dataset

• Let us read in the dataset and check the first few observations.

```
df2 <- read.csv('data/vaccination.csv')
head(df2)</pre>
```

	treatment	outcome
1	Vaccine	Not Infected
2	Vaccine	Not Infected
3	Vaccine	Not Infected
4	Vaccine	Not Infected
5	Vaccine	Infected
6	Vaccine	Not Infected

- Two categorical variables:
  - ► "treatment" indicates whether the subject is in the vaccine group, or the control group.
  - ▶ "outcome" shows the infection status of the subject.

# Inspect the Dataset

Cont'd

```
str(df2)
'data.frame': 48 obs. of 2 variables:
$ treatment: chr "Vaccine" "Vaccine" "Vaccine" ...
```

\$ outcome : chr "Not Infected" "Not Infected" "Not Infected" ...

- The two categorical variables are recorded as the "character" type, namely, each value is just a label, with no order between them.
- We also prepare the variables.

```
treatment <- df2$treatment
outcome <- df2$outcome</pre>
```

# "table()" Function

• To study the association between the two categorical variables, we can use the base R function, "table()", to generate the contingency table.

```
table1 <- table(df2)
table1</pre>
```

#### out.come

treatment Infected Not Infected
Control 10 14
Vaccine 3 21

 The test statistic can be defined as the difference of two proportions, by using the proportion of infections within the control group minus that of the vaccine group.

```
original <- table1[1,1]/sum(table1[1,]) - table1[2,1]/sum(table1[2,])
original</pre>
```

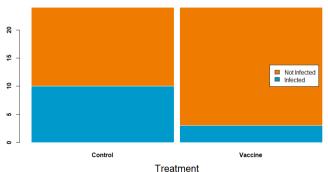
[1] 0.2916667

• "original" records the test statistic from the original sample, which is 0.292.

### **Barplot**

 To visualise the above difference, we can use the barplot function to generate the stacked bar plot, as follows.

#### Number of Subjects by Treatment and Outcome Types



# Permutation Testing

- 1 State the two hypotheses.
  - ightharpoonup H<sub>0</sub>: The population proportions of infected subjects among the two groups are the same.
  - ightharpoonup  $H_1$ : The population proportions of infected subjects among the two groups are different.
- 2 Pick the level of significance,  $\alpha$ , as 0.05.
- 3 Define the *Test Statistic* as the difference of the two groups' proportions. Next, we will generate the permutation distribution of the test statistic, by simulating multiple permutations.

• We define the following function as one round of simulation.

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- The function includes two actions:
  - 1 To use the sample function to generate one permutation sample by reassigning the order of the treatment variable. We will also refer to it as "*permutation by treatment*".
  - 2 To calculate the test statistic. We first get the contingency table of the permutation sample, and then calculate the difference of the two proportions.

# Use the "replicate()" Function to Run Multiple Simulations

 Next, we use the replicate function to generate multiple permutation samples, and collect the test statistics.

```
test2 <- replicate(10000, permutation.test2(treatment, outcome))</pre>
```

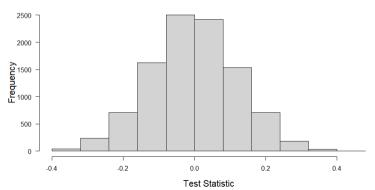
- The function, "permutation.test2", outputs one test statistic value at each time.
- The vector, test2, will collate all the 10,000 test statistic values.

#### Generate the Permutation Distribution

• We use the hist function to generate the histogram of 10,000 test statistics, which approximates the permutation distribution under the null hypothesis.

```
hist(test2, breaks = seq(-0.4, 0.5, by = 0.08),
main="Permutation Distribution", xlab='Test Statistic')
```

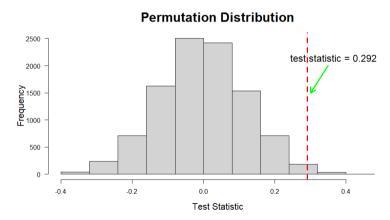
#### **Permutation Distribution**



#### Generate the Permutation Distribution

#### Cont'd

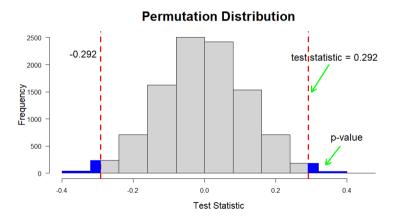
- 4 Calculate the p-value and compare it with the level of significance.
- We mark the original sample statistic, 0.292, in the chart.



#### Generate the Permutation Distribution

#### Cont'd

- 4 Calculate the p-value and compare it with the level of significance.
- We mark the original sample statistic, 0.292, in the chart.



# Calculate the p-value

• We use the same R code to calculate the two-tailed p-value.

```
pvalue <- mean(abs(test2) >= abs(original))
pvalue
```

Γ1] 0.0492

- The p-value implies that 492 out of the 10,000 simulated permutation samples have a difference of the proportions that is at least 29.2%.
- $\bullet$  As 0.0492 < 0.05, we decide to reject the null hypothesis, and conclude that there is an association between receiving the vaccine and the infection status.

# Permutation Testing

#### Cont'd

- 5 Interpret the decision.
  - ▶ It is beneficial to receive the new vaccine, which shall lead to a lower infection risk.
  - As the p-value is extremely close to 0.05, domain expertise and other criteria should be considered before rolling out the vaccine.
  - ► For instance, it could be worth investigating whether the difference in proportions is consistently significant for each age-group.
- 6 Check the assumption, exchangeability.
  - It is automatically satisfied since the treatments were randomly allocated to these study participants.

Although we used the difference in proportions here, we could use some other test statistic as well.

► For example, the ratio of proportions, or the odds ratio.

# Calculate the p-value in a Chi-squared Test

- We can also conduct a *chi-squared test* to verify the association between two categorical variables.
- It can be implemented in the following way.

```
chisq.test(df2$treatment, df2$outcome)
```

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

```
data: df2$treatment and df2$outcome
X-squared = 3.7978, df = 1, p-value = 0.05132
```

- Yates' continuity correction is needed when the contingency table is 2 by 2, or when the expected frequency values of some cells are below 10.
- The p-value, 0.051, is slightly larger than the one derived from the permutation test.

# Summary

## Summary

#### We have:

- Summarised the framework of permutation testing.
- Applied it to another example in R.

- One limitation of hypothesis tests is that the interpretation of a p-value is purely dichotomous.
- In our example, for instance, the p-values from the two different approaches actually lead to opposite conclusions.

#### In the next video,

We will introduce an alternative approach, confidence intervals.

#### References



Mine Çetinkaya-Rundel and Johanna Hardin (2021) Introduction to Modern Statistics