

ENSAI

ATPA Track  
Academic Year 2024–2025

# Methodological Project Report

*Selective Inference for Hierarchical Clustering*

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**Analyzed article:**

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*Selective Inference for Hierarchical Clustering*,  
Journal of the American Statistical Association,  
119(545), 332–342, 2024.

Submission date: February 13, 2026

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## **1 Introduction**

Introduction text...

## 2 Classical versus selective testing

### 2.1 Hypothesis testing and *p-values*

To do:

- Number (almost) all the equations.
- Use  $\mathcal{SU}$  everywhere instead of  $SU$  (search+replace).

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space,  $(E, \mathcal{E})$  a topological space and  $\mathcal{T}$  the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{E}$ . A *random variable* is a measurable function  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow (E, \mathcal{T})$ . The *(probability) distribution* of  $X$  is the mapping  $P : \mathcal{T} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that  $P(O) = (\mathbb{P} \circ X^{-1})(O)$  for all  $O \in \mathcal{T}$ . We say that  $P$  is *supported* on  $E$  and denote by  $\mathcal{M}_1(E)$  the set of all probability distributions supported on  $\mathcal{E}$ . From now on, we will set  $E = \mathbb{R}$  and simply write  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{M}$ .

**Definition 1** (Hypothesis, Definition 1.1 in [4]). *A hypothesis  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is a set of probability distributions in  $\mathcal{M}$ . A hypothesis is simple if it is a singleton, such as  $\{P\}$  or  $\{Q\}$ , and composite otherwise. The complementary set  $\mathcal{M} \setminus \mathcal{H}_0$  is called the alternative hypothesis of  $\mathcal{H}_0$ .*

**Definition 2** (Test). *A test for  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is a binary partition of the sample space, defined by a mapping:* **function**: *Mapping = application in french.*

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{\mathcal{H}_0} : \Omega &\rightarrow \{0, 1\} \\ \omega &\mapsto \pi_{\mathcal{H}_0}(\omega). \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

For  $\omega \in \Omega$ , we say that the test rejects  $\mathcal{H}_0$  based on  $\omega$  if  $\pi_{\mathcal{H}_0}(\omega) = 1$ , and does not reject  $\mathcal{H}_0$  based on  $\omega$  if  $\pi_{\mathcal{H}_0}(\omega) = 0$ .

In what follows **From now**, we will **adopt the more standard use the following notation**:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Reject } \mathcal{H}_0) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega : \pi_{\mathcal{H}_0}(\omega) = 1\}),$$

making the **The** dependence on  $\pi$  **is** implicit.

**Definition 3** (Type I error). *We say that a test controls the type I error at level  $\alpha$  if*

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Reject } \mathcal{H}_0) \leq \alpha, \quad \text{for } \alpha \in (0, 1).$$

We say that it controls the type I error exactly at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Reject } \mathcal{H}_0) = \alpha, \quad \text{for } \alpha \in (0, 1).$$

**Definition 4** (Stochastic dominance). *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be real-valued random variables. We say that  $Y$  stochastically dominates  $X$ , and write*

$$X \preceq_{\text{st}} Y,$$

*if*

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq u) \geq \mathbb{P}(Y \leq u), \quad \forall u \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Definition 5** (Super-uniform random variable). Let  $X$  be a real-valued random variable. We say that  $X$  is super-uniform on  $[0,1]$ , and write  $X \sim SU(0,1)$ , if  $X$  stochastically dominates a uniform random variable on  $[0,1]$ , that is, if

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq u) \leq u, \quad \forall u \in [0,1].$$

**Proposition 1.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be real-valued random variables, with cumulative distribution functions  $F_X$  and  $F_Y$ , respectively. If  $X \preceq_{\text{st}} Y$ , then  $F_X(Y) \sim SU(0,1)$ .

**Remark 1.** If  $X = Y$ , then  $F_X(X)$  is super-uniform on  $[0,1]$ . Moreover, if  $X$  has a continuous distribution function  $F_X$ , then

$$F_X(X) \sim \mathcal{U}(0,1).$$

**Definition 6** ( $p$ -value, Definition 1.1 in [4]). Let  $\mathcal{H}_0$  be a hypothesis. A  $p$ -value for  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is a super-uniform random variable under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ .

We often build tests using  $p$ -values as  $\pi = \mathbf{1}\{p \leq \alpha\}$ .

**Proposition 2.** Let  $\mathcal{H}_0$  be a hypothesis and,  $p$  a  $p$ -value for  $\mathcal{H}_0$ . Then, the test  $\pi = \mathbf{1}\{p \leq \alpha\}$  controls the type I error at level  $\alpha$ , for  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ .

**Definition 7** (Test statistic). A test statistic is a measurable function  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

From now on, we will consider the case of unilateral tests. In this setting, to define a test based on the information given by a real-valued random variable  $X$ ,  $p$ -values are often built in the form:

$$p(x) = \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(T(X) \geq T(x)) \tag{2}$$

where  $T$  is a test statistic and  $x$  a realization of  $X$ .

The  $p$ -value (2) follows a uniform distribution law. The french term *loi* doesn't translate well to law in this context... under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ . However, we have defined  $p$ -values as being super-uniform random variables under the null  $SU$ , which corresponds to a more general family of distributions. To adapt the classical form (2) of the  $p$ -value to that setting, we introduce and adopt the construction of the following proposition.

**Proposition 3.** Let  $T$  and  $T'$  be two test statistics. Let  $X$  be a random variable and  $x$  a realization of  $X$ . Define

$$p(x) = \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(T'(X) \geq T(x)).$$

If

$$T'(X) \preceq_{\text{st}} T(X) \quad \text{under } \mathcal{H}_0,$$

then  $p$  is a  $p$ -value for  $\mathcal{H}_0$ .

**Remark 2.** If  $T' = T$  and the cumulative distribution function  $F_T$  of  $T(X)$  is continuous under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ , then

$$p \stackrel{\mathcal{H}_0}{\approx} \mathcal{U}(0, 1).$$

In the classical setting, the null hypothesis is independent of the data. However, in many practical applications  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is chosen *after seeing the data*. In this framework setting to avoid repeating *setting*, the classical testing approaches built for type I error control are unsuitable. Instead, statistical guarantees need to be provided via *selective inference*. In particular, the theory of statistical testing of data-driven null hypotheses is known as *selective testing* [2]. The next section provides some examples that motivate this framework.

## 2.2 Examples motivating selective testing

### 2.2.1 Lasso

To determine whether an explanatory variable helps explain a response variable through a linear regression model, a common practice is to test whether its associated coefficient is significantly different from zero. In the context of classical linear regression, this falls within the framework of non-selective inference, because all coefficients are fixed *a priori*. In contrast, Lasso regression uses an  $\ell_1$ -penalty to perform variable selection cite the Lasso paper: <https://academic.oup.com/jrssb/article/58/1/267/7027929>. As only the coefficients selected by the Lasso can be tested, the null hypothesis depends on the outcome of the Lasso regression, and is therefore data-driven. This corresponds to a setting of selective inference, where the classical control of type I error fails.

To illustrate the unsuitability of non-selective inference, consider a centered Gaussian vector  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_8)$  and set the model. The response is modeled as

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \quad \beta = (3, 1.5, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0, 0)^\top.$$

We generated  $n = 100$  independent realizations of  $(X, Y)$  and implemented the Lasso algorithm, obtaining the regularization path presented in Figure 1(a). Then, we tested whether a randomly chosen coefficient selected by Lasso regression equals 0. Modify this sentence to say that we are only testing coefficients that are truly equal to zero. After repeating this pipeline  $M = 2000$  times, we obtained the empirical  $p$ -value distribution depicted in Figure 1(b). We clearly see that the  $p$ -values are not super-uniform, motivating the use of therefore a selective testing inference approach should be used instead of naive testing after selection.

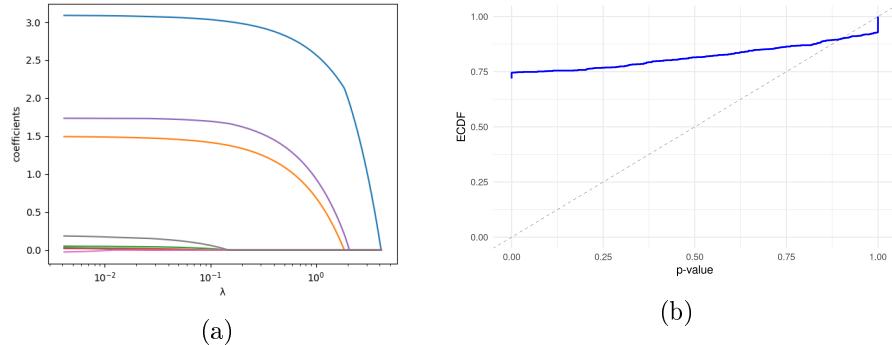


Figure 1: (a) Regularization path of the coefficients obtained using the Lasso algorithm. This is for a single realization of  $(X, Y)$ , right? Say it! Some coefficients are zero, and three converge toward the theoretical values  $(3, 1.5, 2)$ . (b) Empirical cumulative distribution function (ECDF) of the  $p$ -values obtained from testing whether a randomly chosen coefficient is null after selecting the coefficient by a Lasso regression. The ECDF was computed from  $M = 2000$  simulations.

Make the axes labels, ticks and names bigger (they are hard to read).

### 2.2.2 Publication bias

Most published studies gain publication due to their demonstrated significance. Only studies presenting major results are published by scientists. Thus, there is a selection process. The previous sentences are not very clear. I propose a reformulation below:

In many areas of research, scientists tend to test for significance only when the associated effect is found to be substantial. In other words, testing is performed after a selection process that filters out small effects. In that setting, controlling type I error at a fixed level  $\alpha$  yields inflated false positive rates when considering the ensemble of all published studies. If  $Y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, 1)$  represents the effect size in a scientific study, whose significance is tested only if and only those with  $|Y_i| > 1$ , are published, denoted  $\hat{\mathcal{I}} = \{i : |Y_i| > 1\}$ , then a naive level  $\alpha$  test  $H_{0,i} : \mu_i = 0$  for  $i \in \hat{\mathcal{I}}$  is invalid. Indeed, Fithian [2] demonstrates that the false positive rate among all studies true nulls reaches approximately 0.16, far exceeding the nominal 0.05 level. Valid inference requires thresholding  $|Y_i|$  at 2.41 rather than 1.96, the 0.95 quantile of the standard normal, imposing a more stringent criterion.

### 2.2.3 Clustering

Another remarkable example of selective inference appears when evaluating the performance of clustering algorithms by testing for the equality of clus-

ter means. To illustrate the need of using appropriate tests in the context of selective inference, we simulated  $n = 1000$  samples of a one-dimensional Gaussian random variable. Each sample that was classified into  $K = 3$  groups using hierarchical agglomerative clustering and  $k$ -means. Then for each sample, the equality of cluster means was tested using a classical t-test, for two randomly selected clusters. If the test controlled the type I error in this setting, the resulting  $p$ -value would be super-uniformly distributed under the null hypothesis. However, the ‘clustering + post-selection testing’ procedure leads to a deviation from super-uniformity, as shown in Figure 2.

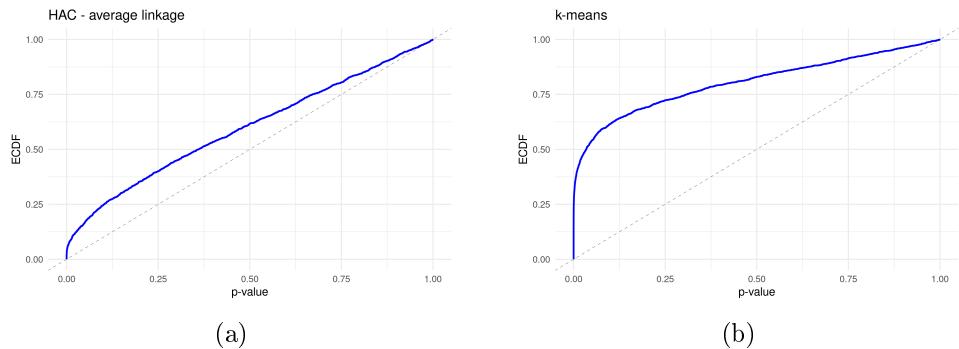


Figure 2: Empirical cumulative distribution functions of the  $p$ -values obtained after testing the from tests of equality of cluster means for between clusters after (a) hierarchical agglomerative clustering (HAC) and (b)  $k$ -means algorithms. The distribution functions were computed using  $M = 2000$  simulations from a univariate centered normal distribution.

Make labels, ticks and text in the plot bigger.

### 2.3 Addressing selective testing

Since the type I error is no longer controlled, alternative approaches are required. Accordingly, we present three methods as described by Yoav Benjamini [1].

#### 2.3.1 Simultaneous Inference

This approach controls the family-wise error rate across all hypotheses:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{At least 1 false positive among all hypotheses}) \leq \alpha.$$

This strategy proves highly conservative, ensuring that for every possible set of hypotheses, the probability of at least one false positive remains below  $\alpha$ .

### 2.3.2 Sample splitting

This approach consists in splitting the dataset into a training set  $X$  and a test set  $Y$ . The training set  $X$  is used to choose which hypotheses to test, denoted  $H_0(X)$ . Then, the tests are performed on the test set  $Y$ .

Although relatively simple to implement, this method raises several issues. First, statistical guarantees on the tests hold only if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, which is rarely the case in practice. In addition, comparing cluster means on the observations in  $Y$  requires assigning each test point to one of the clusters obtained from the clustering performed on  $X$ , a step that compromises validity. As discussed in [3], this strategy does not yield valid post-clustering inference in general.

### 2.3.3 Conditional Inference

This approach constitutes the most extensively studied framework for post-clustering inference. It controls the false positive rate conditional on hypothesis selection:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Reject } H_0(X) \mid H_0 \text{ selected}) \leq \alpha.$$

In the remainder of the article, we employ this method to develop a statistical procedure for testing equality of cluster means following a clustering algorithm.

Why new page?

### 3 Post clustering inference

As we are focusing on one article, I think it is better if we start right away with their approach. Here we can add a sentence saying that this article was the first to propose a feasible solution to post-clustering inference, and that we focus on the setting and approach introduced by the authors. Later in the discussion, we will mention its limitations and speak about other articles.

#### 3.1 Gao *et al.*'s approach

Use bold for matrix notation but not for matrix coefficients:  $\mathbf{X} = (X_{ij})_{ij}$ . For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^p$  don't use bold either, write  $\bar{\mu}_G$  or  $\bar{X}_G$ , to be consistent with Gao *et al.*'s notation.

Let  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  be the design matrix. A cluster is an element of a partition of the samples. We note  $C$  a clustering algorithm and  $C_1 \in C(\mathbf{X})$  a cluster obtained by the algorithm  $C$  on  $\mathbf{X}$ .

We note  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_{ij})_{ij}$  such as  $\mu_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[X_{ij}]$ , with  $X_{ij}$  the element in row  $i$  and column  $j$  of the matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ . For a subset  $G$  of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , we note  $\bar{\mu}_G = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{i \in G} \mu_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $\bar{X}_G = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{i \in G} X_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .

Here, introduce the vector  $\nu$  and the compact notation  $\nu^T \mathbf{X}$ ,  $\nu^T \boldsymbol{\mu}$ .

**Definition 8** (Null Hypothesis).

$$H_0^{\{C_1, C_2\}} : \bar{\mu}_{C_1} = \bar{\mu}_{C_2} \quad (\text{H0})$$

The previous equation is not really a definition. Say it rather in the text, also helping the reader understand the flow: 'The goal is to test for the equality of cluster means, that is, testing the following null hypothesis:' and then add the equation (with a number).

**Definition 9** (Type I selective error for clustering). *We say that a test controls the type I selective error for clustering at level  $\alpha$  if*

$$\mathbb{P}_{H_0^{\{C_1, C_2\}}}(\text{Reject } H_0^{\{C_1, C_2\}} \mid C_1, C_2 \in C(\mathbf{X})) \leq \alpha, \quad \alpha \in (0, 1).$$

*We say that it controls exactly the type I selective error for clustering at level  $\alpha$  if*

$$\mathbb{P}_{H_0^{\{C_1, C_2\}}}(\text{Reject } H_0^{\{C_1, C_2\}} \mid C_1, C_2 \in C(\mathbf{X})) = \alpha, \quad \alpha \in (0, 1).$$

I think we should introduce the model here. The idea should be something like: To define a  $p$ -value that controls the selective type I error, model assumptions need to be imposed on  $\mathbf{X}$ . The authors in [3] adopt the following matrix normal model:

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{MN}_{n \times p}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbb{I}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbb{I}_p), \quad (3)$$

which means that the lines of  $\mathbf{X}$  are independent  $p$ -dimensional random vectors distributed as  $\mathcal{N}_p(\mu_i, \sigma^2 \mathbb{I}_p)$ , for every line  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . Note that this model imposes an independence assumption between the features (columns) of  $\mathbf{X}$ . Then, we mention the  $p$ -value as you did below:

To run a proper test, we need to control this error at level  $\alpha$ . IdeallyIn the ideal so french..., we would like to define a p-value as followsfollowing:

$$p_{ideal}(x) = \mathbb{P}_{H_0^{C_1, C_2}}(T(\mathbf{X}) \geq T(x) \mid C_1, C_2 \in C(\mathbf{X})),$$

with  $T$  being a test statistic.

Now we mention the choice of  $T$ . Say that in [3] they set  $T(\mathbf{X}) = \|\nu^T \mathbf{X}\|_2$  because we know its distribution under the null, which is  $\mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{0}_p, \|\nu\|_2^2 \sigma^2 \mathbb{I}_p)$ , explaining why. Then, continue:

However,  $p_{ideal}$  cannot be evaluated in practice as it depends on parameters that are unknown [3]. Whenever you make a statement that you don't really justify, cite the source. ToThus, to address this issue, the authors in [3] propose we need to add technical events to the conditioning set, considering the following quantity: and consider:  $p(x) = \mathbb{P}_{H_0^{C_1, C_2}}(T(\mathbf{X}) \geq T(x) \mid C_1, C_2 \in C(\mathbf{X}), E[\mathbf{X}])$ . Here add the  $p$ -value defined by Gao, that is, Equation 8 in [3]. as a  $p$ -value for  $(H_0)$ .

Now we have defined the model, the hypothesis to test and the candidate  $p$ -value. The goal now is to prove that the candidate  $p$ -value (i) can be computed under an analytically tractable form and (ii) controls the selective type I error for clustering. Now, we say that to prove all that we first need a technical lemma that we state now (the Lemma about the independence that we proved). Add the lemma here and its proof to the appendix.

## A Proofs

### A.1 Proofs of Section 2

*Proof of Proposition 1.* Let  $G_X$  denote the generalized inverse (quantile function) of  $F_X$ , defined for  $u \in [0, 1]$  as

$$G_X(u) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} : F_X(x) \geq u\}.$$

By definition of the generalized inverse,

$$\{F_X(Y) \leq u\} = \{Y < G_X(u)\}.$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}(F_X(Y) \leq u) = \mathbb{P}(Y < G_X(u)) = F_Y(G_X(u)^-),$$

where  $G_X(u)^-$  denotes the left limit at  $G_X(u)$ .

Since  $X \preceq_{\text{st}} Y$ , we have  $F_Y \leq F_X$  pointwise, and thus

$$F_Y(G_X(u)^-) \leq F_X(G_X(u)^-).$$

By the defining property of the generalized inverse,

$$F_X(G_X(u)^-) \leq u.$$

Combining these inequalities yields

$$\mathbb{P}(F_X(Y) \leq u) \leq u, \quad \forall u \in [0, 1],$$

which proves that  $F_X(Y)$  is super-uniform. □

*Proof of Remark 1.* By the proposition 1, we have that  $F_X(X) \sim SU(0, 1)$ . If  $F_X$  is continuous, then  $F_X(G_X(u)) = u$  for all  $u \in [0, 1]$ , and hence

$$\mathbb{P}(F_X(X) \leq u) = F_X(G_X(u)) = u, \quad \forall u \in [0, 1],$$

which concludes the proof. □

*Proof of Proposition 2.* By definition of the rejection rule,

$$\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(\text{Reject } \mathcal{H}_0) = \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(p \leq \alpha).$$

Since  $p$  is a  $p$ -value for  $\mathcal{H}_0$ , it is super-uniform under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ , hence

$$\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(p \leq \alpha) \leq \alpha.$$

This establishes control of the type I error at level  $\alpha$ . □

*Proof of Proposition 3.* Let  $F_{T'(X)}$  denote the distribution function of  $T'(X)$  under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ . By Proposition 1, the stochastic dominance  $T'(X) \preceq_{\text{st}} T(X)$  implies that

$$F_{T'(X)}(T(X)) \sim \text{SU}(0, 1).$$

By definition,

$$p(x) = \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(T'(X) \geq T(x)) = 1 - F_{T'(X)}(T(x)).$$

Let  $u \in [0, 1]$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(p(X) \leq u) &= \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(1 - F_{T'(X)}(T(X)) \leq u) \\ &= \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(F_{T'(X)}(T(X)) \geq 1 - u) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(F_{T'(X)}(T(X)) \leq 1 - u). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $F_{T'(X)}(T(X))$  is super-uniform,

$$\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(F_{T'(X)}(T(X)) \leq 1 - u) \leq 1 - u,$$

and therefore

$$\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(p(X) \leq u) \leq u.$$

Thus,  $p$  is super-uniform under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ , and hence a  $p$ -value.  $\square$

*Proof of Remark 2.* When  $T' = T$

$$p(X) = \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(T(X') \geq T(X)) = 1 - F_T(T(X)),$$

By Remark 1, if  $F_T$  is continuous,

$$F_T(T(X)) \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1).$$

Consequently, for any  $u \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(p(X) \leq u) &= \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(1 - F_T(T(X)) \leq u) \\ &= \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(F_T(T(X)) \geq 1 - u) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{H}_0}(F_T(T(X)) \leq 1 - u) \\ &= 1 - (1 - u) \\ &= u. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $p$  is uniformly distributed on  $[0, 1]$  under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ .  $\square$

## A.2 Proofs of Section 3

## References

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