

Lab 1: Basics of Testing

Welcome to the Data 102 lab!

The goals of this lab are to get familiar with concepts in decision theory. We will learn more about testing, p-values and FDR control.

The code you need to write is commented out with a message **"TODO: fill..."**. There is additional documentation for each part as you go along.

Collaboration Policy

Data science is a collaborative activity. While you may talk with others about the labs, we ask that you **write your solutions individually**. If you do discuss the assignments with others please **include their names** in the cell below.

Submission

To submit this assignment, rerun the notebook from scratch (by selecting Kernel > Restart & Run all), and then print as a pdf (File > download as > pdf) and submit it to Gradescope.

For full credit, this assignment should be completed and submitted before Friday, September 10, 2021 at 11:59 PM. PST

Collaborators

Write the names of your collaborators in this cell.

<Collaborator Name> <Collaborator e-mail>

Setup

Let's begin by importing the libraries we will use. You can find the documentation for the libraries here:

- matplotlib: <https://matplotlib.org/3.1.1/contents.html>
- numpy: <https://docs.scipy.org/doc/>
- pandas: <https://pandas.pydata.org/pandas-docs/stable/>
- seaborn: <https://seaborn.pydata.org/>

In [20]:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import seaborn as sns
import scipy.stats
from scipy.stats import norm

import hashlib
%matplotlib inline

sns.set(style="dark")
```

```
plt.style.use("ggplot")
```

```
def get_hash(num): # <- helper function for assessing correctness
    return hashlib.md5(str(num).encode()).hexdigest()
```

Question 1: Hypothesis testing, LRT, decision rules, P-values.

The first question looks at the basics of testing. You will have to put yourself in the shoes of a detective who is trying to use 'evidence' to find the 'truth'. Given a piece of evidence X your job will be to decide between two hypotheses. The two hypothesis you consider are:

The null hypothesis:

$$H_0 : X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

The alternative hypothesis:

$$H_1 : X \sim \mathcal{N}(2, 1)$$

Granted you don't know the truth, but you have to make a decision that maximizes the True Positive Probability and minimizes the False Positive Probability.

In this exercise you will look at:

- The intuitive relationship between Likelihood Ratio Test and decisions based on thresholding X .
- The performance of a level- α test.
- The distribution of p-values for samples from the null distribution as well as samples from the alternative.

Let's start by plotting the distributions of the null and alternative hypothesis.

In [21]:

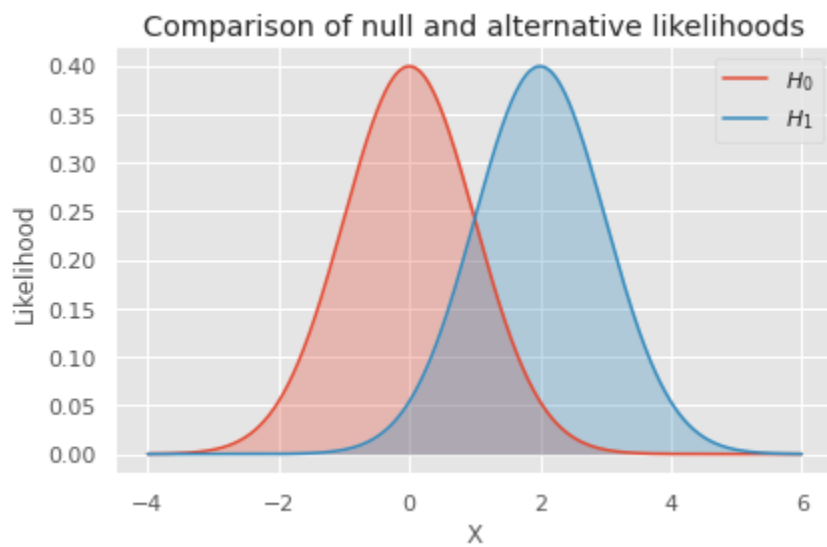
```
# NOTE: you just need to run this cell to plot the pdf; don't change this code.
def null_pdf(x):
    return norm.pdf(x, 0, 1)
def alt_pdf(x):
    return norm.pdf(x, 2, 1)

# Plot the distribution under the null and alternative
x_axis = np.arange(-4, 6, 0.001)

plt.plot(x_axis, null_pdf(x_axis), label = '$H_0$') # <- likelihood under the null
plt.fill_between(x_axis, null_pdf(x_axis), alpha = 0.3)

plt.plot(x_axis, alt_pdf(x_axis), label = '$H_1$') # <- likelihood alternative
plt.fill_between(x_axis, alt_pdf(x_axis), alpha = 0.3)

plt.xlabel("X")
plt.ylabel("Likelihood")
plt.title("Comparison of null and alternative likelihoods");
plt.legend()
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



By inspecting the image above we can see that if the data lies towards the right, then it seems more plausible that the alternative is true. For example $X \geq 1.64$ seems much less likely to belong to the null pdf than the alternative pdf.

Likelihood Ratio Test

In class we said that the optimal test is the Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT), which is the result of the celebrated Neyman-Pearson Lemma. It says that the optimal level α test is the one that rejects the null (aka makes a discovery, favors the alternative) whenever:

$$LR(x) := \frac{f_1(x)}{f_0(x)} \geq \eta$$

where η is chosen such that the false positive rate is equal to α .

But how does this result fit with the intuition that we should set a decision threshold based on the value of X directly?

This exercise will formalize that intuition:

Let's start by computing the ratio of the likelihoods. The likelihood of $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ is:

$$f_{\sigma, \mu}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Luckily `scipy` has a nifty function to compute the likelihood of gaussians `scipy.norm.pdf(x, mu, sigma)`

Part 1.a: Calculate likelihood ratios

Complete the function below that computes the likelihood ratio for any value `x`.

```
In [22]: # TODO: fill in the missing expression for the likelihood ratio in the function below
def calculate_likelihood_ratio(x):
    """
    Computes the likelihood ratio between the alternative and null hypothesis.

    Inputs:
```

x : value for which to compute the likelihood ratio

Outputs:

lr : the likelihood ratio at point x
""

```
L0 = null_pdf(x)
L1 = alt_pdf(x)
LR = L1 / L0
return LR
```

In [23]:

```
# Compute the likelihood ratio for X=1.64
X=1.64
LR = calculate_likelihood_ratio(X)
print(LR)
assert(get_hash(LR)== 'f9983e1a6585502f3006cb6d1c1edec3')
print("Test passed!")
```

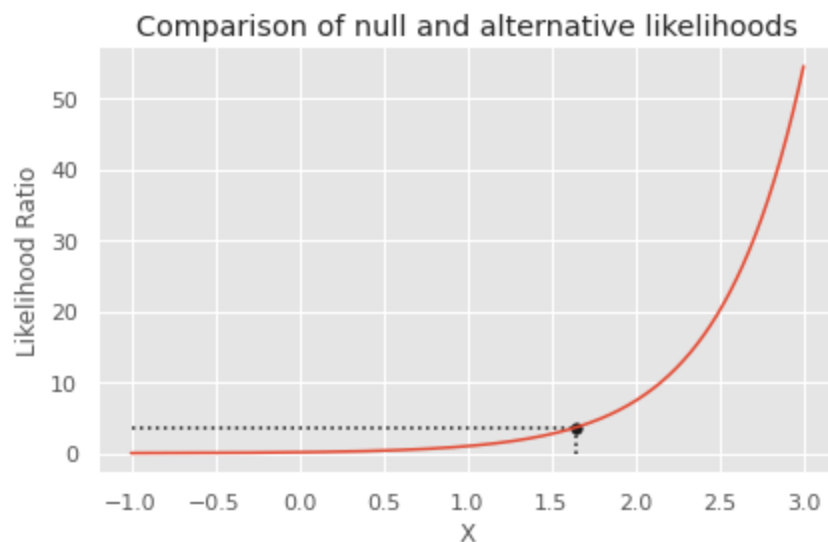
3.59663972556928

Test passed!

Let's plot the likelihood ratios for different values of X :

In [24]:

```
# The code below plots the LR for different values of X
# Once you've filled in `calculate_likelihood_ratio` run this cell and inspect the plot
x_axis = np.arange(-1, 3, 0.001)
plt.plot(x_axis, calculate_likelihood_ratio(x_axis))
plt.vlines(X, 0, LR, linestyle="dotted", color='k')
plt.hlines(LR, -1, X, linestyle="dotted", color='k')
plt.scatter(X, LR, 30, color='k')
plt.xlabel("X")
plt.ylabel("Likelihood Ratio")
plt.title("Comparison of null and alternative likelihoods");
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



The plot above illustrates that deciding based on LRT with $\eta = 3.6$ (the dotted horizontal line) is equivalent to deciding in the favor of the alternative whenever $X \geq 1.64$ (the dotted vertical line). The set $[1.64, +\infty)$ is called the **rejection region** of the test, because for all X values in the rejection region the test rejects the null in the favor of the alternative. This illustrates that our intuition was correct.

When thinking in terms of likelihood ratios it seems very tricky to compute the False Positive Rate (FPR), however in this case we can bypass that by testing based on the value of X .

The figure below illustrates pictorially the FPR when testing based on the threshold $X \geq 1.64$

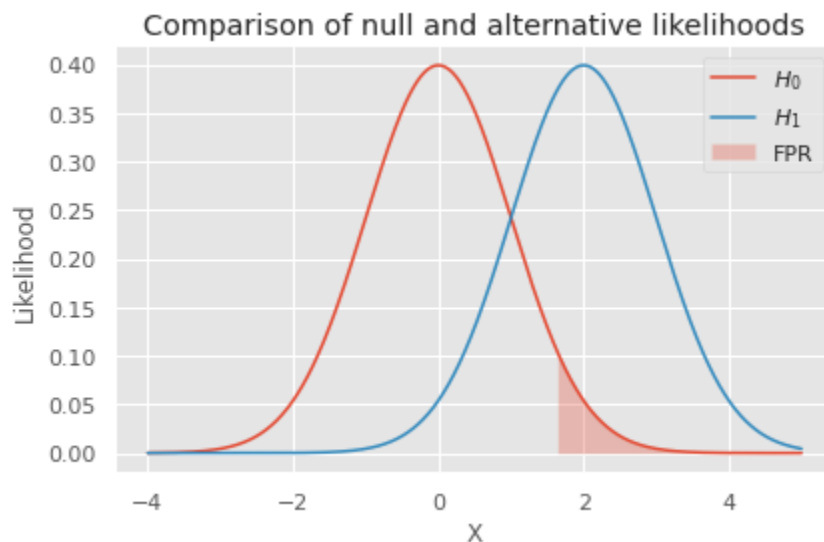
In [25]:

```
x_axis = np.arange(-4, 5, 0.001)

plt.plot(x_axis, null_pdf(x_axis), label = '$H_0$') # <- likelihood under the null
plt.plot(x_axis, alt_pdf(x_axis), label = '$H_1$') # <- likelihood alternative

rejection_region = np.arange(1.64, 5, 0.001) # <- truncate the true rejection region for plot
plt.fill_between(rejection_region, null_pdf(rejection_region), alpha = 0.3, label="FPR")

plt.xlabel("X")
plt.ylabel("Likelihood")
plt.title("Comparison of null and alternative likelihoods");
plt.legend()
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



Under the null hypothesis it is still possible to observe values in the tail of distribution. The probability of that happening is exactly FPR (and it is illustrated by the shaded area under the null curve). Assume that we are using the test that rejects for all $X \geq \tau$ (in the example above, $\tau = 1.64$). FPR can then be computed as:

$$FPR(\tau) = \mathbb{P}\{X > \tau | H_0 \text{ is true}\} = 1 - \mathbb{P}\{X < \tau | H_0 \text{ is true}\} = 1 - F(\tau)$$

where $F(\cdot)$ denotes the CDF of the null distributions, which in this case is the standard gaussian.

Part 1.b: Calculate the probability of False Positives

In the cell below calculate the FPR for this test.

Hint, the cdf of a standard normal might come in handy for this function: `scipy.stats.norm.cdf`

In [26]:

```
# TODO: fill in the missing expression for FPR
def calculate_fpr(tau):
    """
    Calculates the FPR for the test based on thresholding  $X \geq \tau$ .
    It assumes that the null distribution is the standard gaussian  $N(0,1)$ 

    Inputs:
        tau: test threshold
```

```

Outputs:
    fpr: false positive rate
    """
    fpr = 1 - norm.cdf(tau)

    return fpr

```

```

In [27]: # Once you've filled `calculate_fpr` you can run this to test for correctness
thresholds = [0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3]
fpr_vals = calculate_fpr(thresholds)
hash_list = ['d310cb367d993fb6fb584b198a2fd72c',
              '77d8304f0ac6b94895e8061eff588d52',
              'df26eb4f07782680a6d98b89313aad1',
              'e575e59c20eeeda5d6a29f5ed3e1e2c7',
              'f233728ef2007eef8f97f8432837fee']
assert all([get_hash(fpr) == hash_list[i] for (i, fpr) in enumerate(fpr_vals)])
print("Test passed!!!")

```

Test passed!!!

Let's now compute the FPR for a test that rejects whenever $X \geq 1.64$

```

In [28]: # Calculate the false positive rate
X = 1.64
fpr = calculate_fpr(X)
print(fpr)

```

0.050502583474103746

Looks like we got really lucky!!! The threshold we choose has a FPR of $\sim 5\%$.

Part 1.c: Make a level- α decision rule

Complete the function below to create a decision rule that has $FPR = \alpha$. Given that we are working with Gaussian this test is exactly the Z-score test that you might have learned in previous classes.

Hint, the inverse cdf of a standard normal might come in handy for this function: `scipy.stats.norm.ppf`

```

In [29]: # TODO: complete this function
def make_decision(X, alpha):
    """
    Makes a decision whether to reject the null hypothesis for point X at level alpha

    Inputs:
        X: point at which to test
        alpha: desired FPR rate for the decision rule (also known as significance level)

    Outputs:
        decision: {0, 1} or {False, True}
        1/True: reject the null
        0/False: fail to reject the null
    """

    threshold = -scipy.stats.norm.ppf(alpha)
    decision = (X > threshold)
    return decision

```

```

In [30]: # Once you've filled `make_decision` run this to perform this test

```

```
# for a few values of X at different levels alpha
X_vals = np.array([0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3])
alphas = np.array([0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2])
for alpha in alphas:
    decisions = make_decision(X_vals, alpha)
    print(f'At FPR={alpha} the null hypothesis is rejected for these X values: {X_vals[decisions]}
```

```
At FPR=0.01 the null hypothesis is rejected for these X values: [3.]
At FPR=0.05 the null hypothesis is rejected for these X values: [2. 3.]
At FPR=0.1 the null hypothesis is rejected for these X values: [2. 3.]
At FPR=0.2 the null hypothesis is rejected for these X values: [1. 2. 3.]
```

In [31]:

```
# Running correctness tests: Do not modify
hashes = ['cfcd208495d565ef66e7dff9f98764da', 'c4ca4238a0b923820dcc509a6f75849b']
hashes_ids = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1]
import itertools
inputs = itertools.product(X_vals, alphas)
outputs = [int(make_decision(*input)) for input in inputs]
for (i, output) in enumerate(outputs):
    assert(get_hash(output)==hashes[hashes_ids[i]])
print("Test passed!!!")
```

Test passed!!!

Part 1.d: Compute P-values

Let's take a step back and look at what have we accomplished. We came up with a decision rule that rejects the null hypothesis for a piece of evidence X . The test is parametrized at a level α chosen a-priori to reflect our aversion to False Positives.

However, testing returns a binary output: *Reject* or *Fail to reject* (1 or 0). In the example above, at level $\alpha = 0.01$ we reject the null only for $X = 3$, however at level $\alpha = 0.05$ we reject the null for $X = 2$ as well. We have already seen that increasing the FPR increases the rejection region of the test. However you might wonder for $X = 2$, what is the smallest α level, such that the corresponding test rejects the null hypothesis in the favor of the alternative?

P-values try to answer exactly that question:

"Given a point X , and a family of tests parametrized by α , what is the smallest α for which the test rejects the null?"

$$p(X) = \min_{\alpha} : Decision_{\alpha}(X) = 1$$

Hence, P-values tell us something more than just a binary accept/reject answer. The P-value associated with the point X quantifies the *strength of the evidence in the favor of rejecting the null*. Small P-values suggest that the evidence is significant, while large P-values suggest that there is little evidence.

In the cell below write a function that computes the P-values, for a point X .

Hint: You already wrote that function in one of the previous exercises, it just had a different name.

In [32]:

```
# TODO: complete this function
def calculate_p_value(X):
    """
    Calculates the P-values for the point X

    Inputs:
```

```
X: data point
```

Outputs:

```
p_value: P(X)
"""
p_value = 1-norm.cdf(X)
return(p_value)
```

```
In [33]: # Once you've filled `calculate_p_value`, run this to compute P-Values for a few X samples
X_vals = np.array([0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3])
for X in X_vals:
    print(f'X = {X}, P(X) = {calculate_p_value(X)}')
```

```
X = 0.0, P(X) = 0.5
X = 0.5, P(X) = 0.3085375387259869
X = 1.0, P(X) = 0.15865525393145707
X = 2.0, P(X) = 0.02275013194817921
X = 3.0, P(X) = 0.0013498980316301035
```

```
In [34]: # Running correctness tests: Do not modify
p_vals = calculate_p_value(X_vals)
hash_list = ['d310cb367d993fb6fb584b198a2fd72c',
              '77d8304f0ac6b94895e8061eff588d52',
              'df26eb4f07782680a6d98b89313aad1',
              'e575e59c20eeeda5d6a29f5ed3e1e2c7',
              'f233728ef2007eef8f97f8432837fdee']
assert all([get_hash(pv) == hash_list[i] for (i, pv) in enumerate(p_vals)])
print("Test passed!!!")
```

Test passed!!!

Part 1.e: Distribution of p-values

Now, we are going to imagine that we have a bunch of samples (each drawn either from the null distribution or the alternative distribution). We want to predict whether each sample was generated from H_0 or H_1 by looking at its p-value. As a reminder, the two hypothesis to consider are:

The null hypothesis:

$$H_0 : X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

The alternative hypothesis:

$$H_1 : X \sim \mathcal{N}(2, 1)$$

Assume there are $n = 10000$ draws, approximatively 80% of which are nulls (Reality = 0).

```
In [35]: # NOTE: you just need to run this cell to instantiate variables; don't change this code.

rs = np.random.RandomState(0)
n = 10000

# roughly 80% of the data comes from the null distribution
# true_values is an n-dimensional array of indicators, where "1" means that x is from the
true_values = rs.binomial(1, 0.2, n)

# null distribution is N(0, 1) and alternative distribution is N(2, 1)
x_obs = rs.randn(n) + 2*true_values

sns.distplot(x_obs[np.where(true_values == 0)], label="samples from null $H_0$ distributi")
```

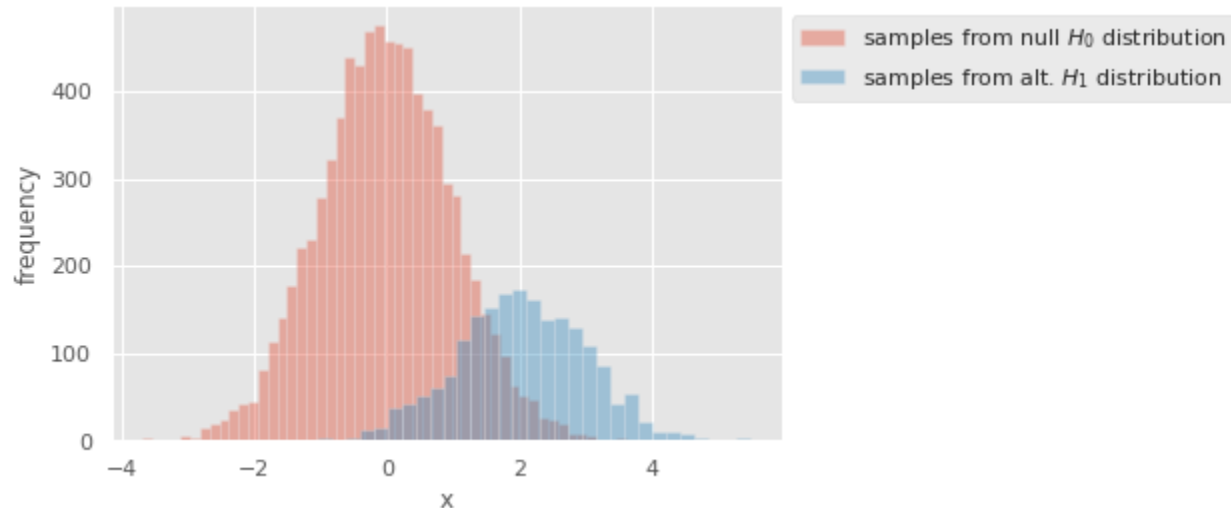


```
sns.distplot(x_obs[np.where(true_values == 1)], label="samples from alt.  $H_1$  distribution")

plt.xlabel("x")
plt.ylabel("frequency")
plt.legend(bbox_to_anchor=(1,1));
```

/opt/conda/lib/python3.9/site-packages/seaborn/distributions.py:2619: FutureWarning: `distplot` is a deprecated function and will be removed in a future version. Please adapt your code to use either `displot` (a figure-level function with similar flexibility) or `histplot` (an axes-level function for histograms).

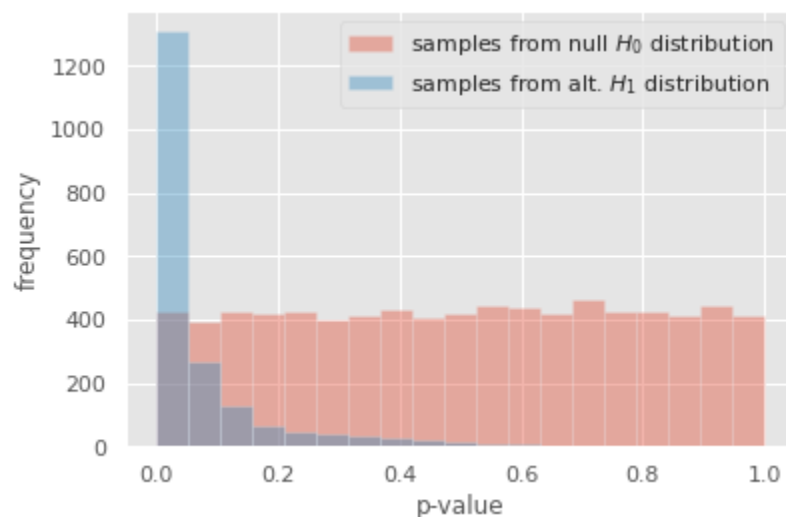
warnings.warn(msg, FutureWarning)



In [36]:

```
# NOTE: you just need to run this cell and understand what it does; no code to modify or v
# calculate the p-values for each individual hypothesis
p_values = calculate_p_value(x_obs)

bins = np.linspace(0,1,num=20)
sns.distplot(p_values[np.where(true_values == 0)], label="samples from null  $H_0$  distrib")
sns.distplot(p_values[np.where(true_values == 1)], label="samples from alt.  $H_1$  distrib")
plt.legend(bbox_to_anchor=(1,1))
plt.xlabel("p-value")
plt.ylabel("frequency");
```



What do you notice?

TODO : fill in (≤ 2 sentences) of your observations. Your answer should connect what you see in the graph with the ideas we've been talking about in class.

.From the graph above we can clearly see that the samples from null distribution is evenly distributed, whereas the samples from alternative distribution is skewed to the right with the peak at 0. . .

Question 2: Multiple Testing - Procedures to control false discovery rate.

In the previous example we looked primarily at controlling row-wise quantities. And specifically we came up with a decision rules that controls the false positive rate to a desired level α .

Now we are switching perspectives and are thiking about a column-wise quantity. Our goal is to control the probability of false discoveries in this decision-making process for multiple hypothesis testing.

We will use three methods for making discoveries:

1. Naive thresholding (ignoring that multiple testing is happening)
2. Using Bonferroni correction to account for multiple testing
3. The Benjamini-Hochberg procedure for multiple testing

For each method, we will assess the decisions made on a simulated data set.

Part 2.a: Fill in the following functions regarding confusion matrices.

These functions will be important for reporting your results in a standardized way; later code assumes that you have implemented them so start here.

In [37]:

```
# TODO: complete this function
def report_results(predicted_discoveries, truth):
    """
    Produces a dictionary with counts for the true positives, true negatives,
    false negatives, and false positives from the input `predicted_discoveries`
    and `truth` arrays.

    Inputs:
        predicted_discoveries: array of 0/1 values where 1 indicates a "discovery".
        truth: array of 0/1 values where 1 indicates a draw from the alternative.

    Outputs: a dictionary of TN, TP, FN, and FP counts.
    """

    # populate the following dictionary with counts (NOT rates)
    # TODO: fill in each of these counts
    TP_count = np.sum((predicted_discoveries == 1) & (truth == 1))
    TN_count = np.sum((predicted_discoveries == 0) & (truth == 0))
    FP_count = np.sum((predicted_discoveries == 1) & (truth == 0))
    FN_count = np.sum((predicted_discoveries == 0) & (truth == 1))

    results_dictionary = {"TN_count": TN_count,
                          "TP_count": TP_count,
                          "FN_count": FN_count,
                          "FP_count": FP_count,
                          }
```

```
# this function is defined for you in the cell below
print_confusion_matrix(results_dictionary)
return results_dictionary
```

In [38]:

```
# TODO: complete this function
def print_false_discovery_fraction(results_dictionary):
    false_predicted_discoveries = results_dictionary['FP_count']
    total_predicted_discoveries = results_dictionary['TP_count'] + results_dictionary['FP_count']

    # TODO: fill in - compute the false discovery fraction from the `results` dictionary
    false_discovery_frac = false_predicted_discoveries / total_predicted_discoveries

    print(f"total discoveries: {total_predicted_discoveries}")
    print(f"fraction of discoveries which were actually FALSE: {false_discovery_frac:.3f}")
    return total_predicted_discoveries, false_discovery_frac
```

In [39]:

```
def print_confusion_matrix(res_dict):
    # This is a helper function to print the confusion matrix. You don't need to modify this
    results_df = pd.DataFrame(data = {"Decision = 0": [res_dict['TN_count'], res_dict['FN_count']],
                                     "Decision = 1": [res_dict['FP_count'], res_dict['TP_count']],
                              index=["Truth = 0", "Truth = 1"])

    print(results_df)
```

Part 2.b: Naive thresholding

Here we will investigate the result of using the threshold $\alpha = 0.05$ to test each hypothesis independently, ignoring that we are in a multiple testing scenario.

Fill in the code for the function below to test each hypothesis at significance level α .

Hint this is very similar to the `make_decision` function you wrote in Problem 1. There the input to the test was the sample value X , however here the input is P-value: $p(X)$.

In [40]:

```
# TODO: calculate decisions based on thresholding
def naive_alpha_threshold(p_values, alpha):
    """
    Returns decisions on p-values using naive (uncorrected) thresholding.

    Inputs:
        p_values: array of p-values
        alpha: threshold (significance level)

    Returns:
        decisions: binary array of same length as p-values, where `decisions[i]` is 1
        if `p_values[i]` is deemed significant at level `alpha`, and 0 otherwise
    """

    decisions = p_values <= alpha
    return decisions
```

In [41]:

```
# Once you've filled in `naive_alpha_threshold`, run this cell to print the results.
# set alpha
alpha = 0.05

# Using the p-values from Part 1.e, we compute the decision according to the naive function
naive_decisions = naive_alpha_threshold(p_values, alpha)
```

```

results = report_results(naive_decisions, true_values)
print()
print_false_discovery_fraction(results)
print()

```

	Decision = 0	Decision = 1
Truth = 0	7628	400
Truth = 1	679	1293

```

total discoveries: 1693
fraction of discoveries which were actually FALSE: 0.236

```

Part 2.c: Bonferroni Correction

Here we will investigate the result of using Bonferroni-corrected p-values to declare discoveries. First, implement the Bonferroni procedure in the function below.

Recall that for testing n hypotheses with family-wise error rate (FWER) $\leq \alpha$, the resulting procedure is to test each hypothesis with significance $\frac{\alpha}{n}$.

```

In [42]: # TODO: calculate the decisions based on the bonferroni correction procedure.
def bonferroni(p_values, alpha_total):
    """
    Returns decisions on p-values using the Bonferroni correction.

    Inputs:
        p_values: array of p-values
        alpha_total: desired family-wise error rate (FWER = P(at least one false discovery))

    Returns:
        decisions: binary array of same length as p-values, where `decisions[i]` is 1
        if `p_values[i]` is deemed significant, and 0 otherwise
    """

    decisions = (p_values <= (alpha_total / len(p_values)))
    return decisions

```

```

In [43]: # Once you've filled in `bonferroni`, run this cell to print the results.
bonferroni_decisions = bonferroni(p_values, alpha)

results = report_results(bonferroni_decisions, true_values)
print()
print_false_discovery_fraction(results)
print()

```

	Decision = 0	Decision = 1
Truth = 0	8028	0
Truth = 1	1957	15

```

total discoveries: 15
fraction of discoveries which were actually FALSE: 0.000

```

Part 2.d: Benjamini-Hochberg

Now we will investigate the result of implementing Benjamini-Hochberg procedure for multiple hypothesis testing. First, implement the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure in the function below.

Recall that for testing n hypotheses with false discovery rate (FDR) $\leq \alpha$, the resulting procedure is to find the largest k such that the k^{th} -largest of the n p-values is less than or equal to $k \frac{\alpha}{n}$:

$$P_{(k)} \leq k \frac{\alpha}{n}$$

We then declare a discovery for all p-values with value less than or equal to this k^{th} p-value.

In [57]:

```
# TODO: calculate decisions based on Benjamini-Hochberg procedure
def benjamini_hochberg(p_values, alpha):
    """
    Returns decisions on p-values using Benjamini-Hochberg.

    Inputs:
        p_values: array of p-values
        alpha: desired FDR (FDR = E[# false positives / # positives])

    Returns:
        decisions: binary array of same length as p-values, where `decisions[i]` is 1
        if `p_values[i]` is deemed significant, and 0 otherwise
    """

    p_sorted = np.sort(p_values)
    for i in range(len(p_values))[::-1]:
        if p_sorted[i] <= (i+1) * alpha / len(p_values):
            break;

    decisions = p_values <= p_sorted[i]
    return decisions
```

Now, asses the result of applying the Benjamini Hochberg procedure to the simulated data.

In [58]:

```
# Once you've filled in `benjamini_hochberg`, run this cell to print the results.
bh_decisions = benjamini_hochberg(p_values, alpha)

bh_results = report_results(bh_decisions, true_values)
print()

print_false_discovery_fraction(bh_results)
```

	Decision = 0	Decision = 1
Truth = 0	8011	17
Truth = 1	1581	391

```
total discoveries: 408
fraction of discoveries which were actually FALSE: 0.042
(408, 0.041666666666666664)
```

Out[58]:

Part 2.e: Conclusions

Finally, write a short (≤ 4 sentences) summary comparing the three different methods from this problem.

TODO: fill in your comparison.

The naive method makes the most discoveries, but at the same time makes the most false discoveries .The Bonferroni method makes very little discoveries but pretty much guarantees that all the discoveries we make is correct .The Benjamini-Hochberg is a balanced approach of the above two , making enough discoveries while making sure the amount of mistakes is within acceptable range

Final tests

If all the tests below pass you can assume you have successfully completed the testable parts of the lab. Don't worry about understanding the code below; just make sure no asserts fail.

In [60]:

```
def assert_discoveries(results,
                       true_vales,
                       true_positives_hash,
                       false_positives_hash,
                       true_negatives_hash,
                       false_negatives_hash,
                       false_discovery_frac_hash):

    def get_hash(num):
        return hashlib.md5(str(num).encode()).hexdigest()
    res_dict = report_results(results, true_values)

    assert(get_hash(res_dict['TP_count']) == true_positives_hash)
    assert(get_hash(res_dict['FP_count']) == false_positives_hash)
    assert(get_hash(res_dict['TN_count']) == true_negatives_hash)
    assert(get_hash(res_dict['FN_count']) == false_negatives_hash)
    _, false_discovery_frac = print_false_discovery_fraction(res_dict)
    assert(get_hash(false_discovery_frac) == false_discovery_frac_hash)
    print()

assert_discoveries(naive_decisions,
                   true_values,
                   true_positives_hash="7c82fab8c8f89124e2ce92984e04fb40",
                   false_positives_hash="18d8042386b79e2c279fd162df0205c8",
                   true_negatives_hash="7bb16972da003e87724f048d76b7e0e1",
                   false_negatives_hash="ca9c267dad0305d1a6308d2a0cf1c39c",
                   false_discovery_frac_hash="87600af3ad8560db2ef1ec43fc0e9877")

assert_discoveries(bonferroni_decisions,
                   true_values,
                   true_positives_hash="9bf31c7ff062936a96d3c8bd1f8f2ff3",
                   false_positives_hash="cfcd208495d565ef66e7dff9f98764da",
                   true_negatives_hash="f8e918489f1e0a81ff11312f4d0630c1",
                   false_negatives_hash="277a78fc05c8864a170e9a56ceeabc4c",
                   false_discovery_frac_hash="30565a8911a6bb487e3745c0ea3c8224")

assert_discoveries(bh_decisions,
                   true_values,
                   true_positives_hash="5a4b25aaed25c2ee1b74de72dc03c14e",
                   false_positives_hash="70efdf2ec9b086079795c442636b55fb",
                   true_negatives_hash="e1226495c14f1a62ae17aa76c1f0d457",
                   false_negatives_hash="88a199611ac2b85bd3f76e8ee7e55650",
                   false_discovery_frac_hash="eac9ed4c22d75c17b5211c4c2468bd52")

print("All tests passed! You are awesome!!!")
```

	Decision = 0	Decision = 1
Truth = 0	7628	400
Truth = 1	679	1293

total discoveries: 1693
fraction of discoveries which were actually FALSE: 0.236

	Decision = 0	Decision = 1
Truth = 0	8028	0
Truth = 1	1957	15

total discoveries: 15
fraction of discoveries which were actually FALSE: 0.000

```

                Decision = 0  Decision = 1
Truth = 0          8011          17
Truth = 1          1581          391
total discoveries: 408
fraction of discoveries which were actually FALSE: 0.042
```

All tests passed! You are awesome!!!

In []:

In []:

In []:

In []: