Lecture 12: Permutation tests II

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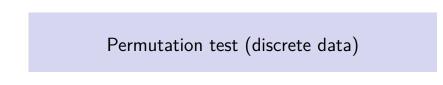


- ▶ One sample sign test, Wilcoxon signed rank test, large-sample approximation, median, Hodges-Lehman estimator, distribution-free confidence interval.
- Jackknife for bias and standard error of an estimator.
- Bootstrap samples, bootstrap replicates.
- Bootstrap standard error of an estimator.
- Bootstrap percentile confidence interval. Hypothesis testing with the bootstrap (one-sample problem.)
- Assessing the error in bootstrap estimates. ▶ Example: inference on ratio of heart attack rates in the
- aspirin-intake group to the placebo group. ▶ The exhaustive bootstrap distribution

- Discrete data problems (one-sample, two-sample proportion) tests, test of homogeneity, test of independence)
- ► Two-sample problems (location problem equal variance,
- unequal variance, exact test or Monte Carlo, large-sample approximation, H-L estimator, dispersion problem, general

 Permutation tests (permutation test for continuous data, different test statistic, accuracy of permutation tests)

distribution)



Example (The lady tasting tea)

- ► This example is from The Design of Experiments by Fisher (1935), chapter II link here.
- ▶ A British lady claimed that she can tell whether the tea or the milk was added first to a cup.
- ► Fisher proposed a randomized experiment.
- ► The null hypothesis is that the lady has no ability to taste the difference.

- Experiment:
 - ▶ The lady provided with 8 randomly ordered cups of tea.
 - ▶ In four cups, tea was added first.
 - In other four cups, milk was added first.
 - ▶ The lady has to select 4 cups prepared by one method.
 - The lady knew the method used for the experiment.
- ► Test statistic T = the number of successes in selecting the 4 cups (the number of cups of the given type successfully selected)
- ▶ What is the distribution of the test statistic T under H_0 ?

- ► The distribution of T under H₀ can be computed using the number of permutations because the judgement are equally likely.
- ▶ Using the combination formula, n = 8 and k = 4, there are $\binom{8}{4} = 70$ possible combinations.

# of success	Arrangement	# of permutations	
0	0000	$\binom{4}{0} \times \binom{4}{4} = 1$	
1	×000,0×00,00×0,000×	$\binom{4}{0} \times \binom{4}{4} = 1$ $\binom{4}{1} \times \binom{4}{3} = 16$	
2	xx00,x0x0,x00x,0xx0,0x0x,00xx	$\binom{4}{2} \times \binom{4}{2} = 36$	
3	xxx0,xx0x,x0xx,0xxx	$\binom{\cancel{4}}{\cancel{3}} \times \binom{\cancel{4}}{\cancel{1}} = 16$	
4	xxxx	$\binom{4}{4} \times \binom{4}{0} = 1$	

► The number of success *T* is distributed according to the hyper geometry distribution under the null hypothesis.

►
$$P(T = t) = \frac{\binom{4}{t}\binom{4}{4-t}}{\binom{8}{4}}.$$

3 2 0.514 ## 4 3 0.229 ## 5 4 0.014

```
library(dplyr)
t = 0:4
hypergeometry = (choose(4,t)*choose(4,4-t))/choose(8,4)
df = data.frame(t=t, p.t = round(hypergeometry, digits=3))

## t p.t
## 1 0 0.014
## 2 1 0.229
```

▶ The critical region for rejection of the null the lady has no ability to taste the difference at 5% significance level is the single case of 4 successes of 4 possible. That is, $T \ge 4$.

▶ If the lady distinguish all the cups correctly only was Fisher willing to reject the null hypothesis (with 8 cups) at .014 significance level.

▶ If *n* is large, we can use Monte Carlo method to approximate the p-value.

```
observed = c("milk", "milk", "milk", "milk", "tea",
    "tea", "tea", "tea")
t.0 = sum(observed[1:4]=="milk");t.0
```

```
## [1] 4
```

```
nperm = 10000
permutations = replicate(nperm, sample(8, replace = FALSE))
matches = apply(permutations, 2, function(i){
  sum(observed[i][1:4] == "milk")
 })
data.frame(t=t.
           p.t = round(hypergeometry, digits=3),
           monte = round(table(matches)/nperm, digits=3))
## t p.t monte.matches monte.Freq
```

▶ P-value is
$$P(T \ge t_0) = P(T \ge 4) = .014$$
 so reject the null hypothesis.

0

0.014

1 0.233 2 0.512

3 0.226 4 0.014

1 0 0.014

2 1 0.229

3 2 0.514 ## 4 3 0.229

5 4 0.014

▶ If we increase the number of cups to 16

observed = c("tea", "milk", "milk", "milk", "tea", "tea". "tea". "milk". "tea".

permutations = replicate(nperm, sample(16,

"milk"."tea"."tea". "tea". "milk", "milk", "milk")

matches = apply(permutations, 2,

sum(observed[i][1:8] == "milk")

nperm = 10000

replace = FALSE))

function(i){

})

```
data.frame(monte = round(table(matches)/nperm,
  digits=3))
```

```
##
     monte.matches monte.Freq
## 1
                           0.000
                   0
                           0.005
## 2
## 3
                           0.061
                   3
                           0.235
##
                           0.384
## 5
                   4
                   5
                           0.244
##
## 7
                   6
                           0.065
## 8
                           0.006
## 9
                   8
                           0.000
```

If the lady tasted 16 cups, it would be possible to reject H₀ without requiring perfect judgement.

Fisher's exact test (recall from lecture on discrete data problem)

Discrete data problem.

	Truth			
		Milk	Tea	
ness	Milk	4	0	4
gre	Tea	0	4	4

T...........

- ► Testing of two probabilities/testing association of two discrete variables when the marginals are fixed.
- The exact p-value is computed using the hyper geometry distribution (Fisher).

```
df = data.frame(milk=c(4,0), tea = c(0,4))
fisher.test(df, alternative = "greater")
```

Reject H₀.

##

Inf

```
df = data.frame(milk=c(3,1), tea = c(1,3))
fisher.test(df, alternative = "greater")
```

```
##
##
    Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data
##
## data: df
## p-value = 0.2429
## alternative hypothesis: true odds ratio is greater than
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.3135693
                    Tnf
## sample estimates:
## odds ratio
```

▶ Do not reject H₀.

6.408309



Exchangeability

- A sufficient condition for permutation test is exchangeable of observations.
 - ▶ Consider random sample $X_1, \dots X_n$.
 - If their joint distribution are equal under permutations Π

$$P_{X_1,\cdots X_n}\left(x_1,\cdots,x_n\right)=P_{X_{\Pi(1)},\cdots X_{\Pi(n)}}\left(x_{\Pi(1)},\cdots,x_{\Pi(n)}\right),$$

then $X_1, \dots X_n$ is exchangeable.

- ▶ This is a weaker assumption than independence of observations.
- ▶ An infinite sequence X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots is said to be exchangeable if for all $n = 2, 3, \dots$,

$$X_1, \cdots X_n \stackrel{d}{=} X_{\Pi(1)}, \cdots, X_{\Pi(n)}$$

for all $\Pi \in S(n)$, where S(n) is the group of permutations of $\{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$.

Example (Exchangeability)

- Independent and identically distributed observations are exchangeable.
 - ▶ If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and identically distributed, they are exchangeable, but not conversely.
- Samples without replacement from a finite population are exchangeable:
 - An urn contains b black balls, r red balls, y yellow balls, and so forth
 - A series of balls are extracted from the urn.
 - After the i-th extraction, the color of the ball X_i is noted and k balls of the same color are added to the urn, where k can be any integer, positive, negative, or zero.
 - ▶ The set of random events $\{X_i\}$ form an exchangeable sequence, but not independent.

Example (Exchangeability)

$$\mathbf{X} = [X_1, \cdots, X_n]^T \sim \mathsf{MVN}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}), \ \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma} & \boldsymbol{\rho} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\rho} \\ \vdots & & & \\ \boldsymbol{\rho} & \boldsymbol{\rho} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X}$$

is exchangeable, MVN stands for multivariate normal distribution.

- A simple transformation will ensure that observations are exchangeable.
 - Suppose X comes from a population with mean μ and distribution $F(t \mu)$.
 - Y comes from a population with mean ν and distribution $F(t-\nu)$ and independent of X.
 - ▶ Define $X' = X \mu$ and $Y' = Y \nu$.
 - \triangleright X' and Y' are exchangeable.

Example (Exchangeability)

▶ Flip a coin 20 times and we know there is 17 heads and 3 tails. If the outcome of 20 flips is exchangeable, then, we don't think of the positions that the 3 tails can occupy as being special.

Exchangeability and de Finetti's Theorem

- ▶ de Finetti's theorem involves exchangeable 0-1 binary random variables X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots
- ▶ de Finetti shows that a binary sequence X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots is exchangeable if and only if there exists a distribution function F on [0,1] such that for all n,

$$p(x_1,\cdots,x_n)=\int_0^1\theta^{s_n}(1-\theta)^{n-s_n}dF(\theta),$$

where $s_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$.

- ▶ de Finetti (1931) shows that all exchangeable binary sequences are mixtures of Bernoulli sequences.
- **•** Bernoulli distribution is obtained by conditioning with θ :

$$P(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta) = \theta^{s_n} (1 - \theta)^{n-s_n}.$$

▶ $X_1, \dots, X_n | \theta \text{ IID} \Rightarrow X_1, \dots, X_n \text{ is exchangeable for all } n.$

Exchangeability and de Finetti's Theorem

- ▶ Hewitt and Savage (1955) generalized de Finetti's theorem to any infinite exchangeable sequences.
- ▶ Diaconis and Freedman (1980) generalized de Finetti's theorem to finite exchangeable sequences.



Example (For modern data)

- Permutation test for autism brain imaging data (Seiler 2016): link here.
- ▶ Reference: (Nichols and Holmes 2002)(https: //onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/hbm.1058).
 - Multiple testing: p-value adjustment using permutation method (Westfall, Young, and others 1993).

Example (neuroimaging experiments)

- Preprocessed neuroimaging data from the Autism Brain Imaging Data Exchange (ABIDE). The data is openly available on the ABIDE website (Craddock et al. 2013).
 - ▶ ABIDE is a collaboration of 16 international imaging sites.
 - Neuroimaging data from 539 individuals suffering from Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and 573 typical controls.
 - ► In this analysis, we subset 40 participants (all acquired at Stanford).
 - Measured cortical thickness voxel-by-voxel.

Example (neuroimaging experiments)

- Test voxelwise distribution of cortical thickness in autism population and healthy controls.
 - ► Two-sample problem (voxelwise).
 - Use Wilcoxon rank sum test (voxelwise).
 - If we report all significant voxel at significance level of $\alpha=.05$, we will report many random results.
- Adjust p-values for multiple testing using permutation approach.

Example (neuroimaging experiments)

- Single threshold test (Nichols and Holmes 2002; Westfall, Young, and others 1993)
 - ▶ Test statistic for testing each voxel: mean difference statistic T^k , where k denotes the k-th voxel.
 - For each possible i-th resampling, compute t_i^{max}, maximum of voxel statistic.
 - t_i^{max} gives the permutation distribution for T^{max} .
 - ▶ Define the critical threshold is the (C+1) largest member of the permutation distribution for T^{max} , where $C = [\alpha N]$, that is αN rounded down. For example, $C = [.05 \times 40] = 2$ and the threshold is $T^{\text{max}}_{(3)}$, the third largest member.
 - Voxels with statistics exceeding this threshold $T^k \geq T_{(3)}^{\text{max}}$ exhibit evidence against the corresponding voxel hypotheses at level $\alpha = .05$.
 - Corrected P-value for each voxel is the proportion of the permutation distribution for the maximal statistic that is greater than or equal to voxel statistic.
 - ▶ adjusted p-value^k = $\frac{\#\{T^{\max} \ge T^k\}}{\#\text{permutations}}$.

Summary

- A sufficient condition for permutation test is exchangeable of observations.
- ▶ If the observations are not exchangeable, then some permutations are more likely than others.
- When doing permutation tests, in order to control the probability of type I error, one must establish that the observations are exchangeable under H₀.
- Permutation approaches can be used for adjusting p-values in multiple testing problems.

References

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