

# Stats paper proposal

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In this document I chart out several ideas for a next statistics paper. The following keywords are relevant: randomization tests, conditional randomization/permutation tests,  $e$ -values, multiple hypothesis testing, sample splitting, exchangeability, and online learning. I propose two main directions and a few tertiary directions. I also suggest a genomics application.

## Direction 1: A more general framework for randomization tests

### Motivation and background

Randomization tests are tests in which a statistic is recomputed over permuted, resampled, rotated, or otherwise transformed versions of the data to produce an empirical null distribution against which a statistic computed on the raw data is compared. Randomization tests are ubiquitous throughout all of statistics and science. For example, randomization tests routinely are used in neuroscience to perform nonparametric inference on GLMs (Winkler et al. 2014) and in genetics to test the association of SNPs (Johnson et al. 2010). See Dobriban 2021 for a recent review and unifying theoretical analysis of randomization tests. Despite their widespread popularity, randomization tests pose several practical challenges, especially in high-multiplicity settings: miscalibrated  $p$ -values can cause type-I error inflation; combining  $p$ -values across many hypothesis tests can result in excessively conservative or liberal discovery sets, especially when tests are dependent; and sample splitting – a procedure required by certain randomization tests, such as the recently-proposed, ML-based holdout randomization test (Tansey et al. 2021) – can result in non-reproducible  $p$ -values.

Building closely on the work of several authors (Wang and Ramdas 2020; Vovk 2020; Vovk and Wang 2021), we propose a simple new framework for randomization testing that helps to resolve these challenges. The framework leverages  $e$ -values, test statistics that by definition are nonnegative and have (at most) unit expectation under the null. We capture the standard,  $p$ -value based approach to randomization testing a special case of our framework. Although the theory applies broadly, we focus mostly on (marginal) permutation tests, conditional randomization tests, and conditional permutation tests as illustrative examples.

Let  $T^*$  be the test statistic computed on the raw data, and let  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_B$  be the test statistics recomputed on the permuted (or resampled, etc.) data. We assume for simplicity that there are no ties among the  $T_i$ s, although this assumption has minimal impact on the theory. Randomization tests satisfy the following key invariance property: the vector  $(T^*, T_1, T_2, \dots, T_B)$  is *exchangeable* under the null hypothesis, meaning that the cumulative distribution function of  $(T^*, T_1, T_2, \dots, T_B)$  is invariant to permutations. Exchangeability implies that the empirical  $p$ -value

$$p_B = \frac{1 + \sum_{i=1}^B \mathbb{I}(T^* \leq T_i)}{B + 1}$$

is valid, i.e.,  $p_B$  stochastically dominates the uniform distribution. The standard practice to reject the null hypothesis at level  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$  if  $p_B < \alpha$ . In high multiplicity settings a multiple hypothesis testing correction procedure (typically BH) is applied to produce a discovery set with nominal FDR control.

## Linear $e$ -values

We propose a more general framework for randomization testing based on  $e$ -values. For  $i \in \{1, \dots, B\}$ , let  $T_{(1)}, \dots, T_{(B)}$  be the order statistics of  $T_1, \dots, T_B$ . Define  $I_i = \mathbb{I}(T^* \leq T_{(i)})$ . For given constants  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_B \in \mathbb{R}$ , define the test statistic  $e$  by

$$e = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^B a_i I_i, \quad (1)$$

where  $e$  is a nonnegative random variable such that  $\mathbb{E}[e] = 1$  under the null hypothesis. We call  $e$  a “linear  $e$ -value” so as to distinguish it from other, more general  $e$ -values. We state two key propositions that enable us to construct linear  $e$ -values with ease. The first proposition derives the expectation of  $I_i$  under the null hypothesis by applying a well-known fact about the ranks of exchangeable variables (recorded in Kuchibhotla 2020).

**Proposition 1** For  $i \in \{1, \dots, B\}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[I_i] = i/(B+1)$ .

**Proof:** The vector  $(T^*, T_1, \dots, T_n)$  is exchangeable. Therefore, by Corollary 1 of (Kuchibhotla 2020),

$$\mathbb{P}[\text{rank}(T^*) \leq i] = \frac{i}{1+B},$$

where

$$\text{rank}(T^*) = |\{j \in \{1, \dots, B\} : T_j \leq T^*\}| + 1$$

is the rank of  $T^*$ . But  $\text{rank}(T^*) = i$  if and only if  $T^* \leq T_{(i)}$ . Therefore,  $\mathbb{P}(T^* \leq T_{(i)}) = i/(B+1)$ , implying the conclusion.  $\square$

The next proposition derives a simple expression for the  $r$ th power of the sum of the  $I_i$ s.

**Proposition 2** For  $r, B \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^B I_i \right)^r = \sum_{i=1}^B [(B-i+1)^r - (B-i)^r] I_i.$$

Equivalently, the  $r$ th power of the empirical right-sided  $p$ -value  $p_B := \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B I_i$  is

$$p_B^r = \sum_{i=1}^B [(1 - i/B + 1/B)^r - (1 - i/B)^r] I_i := \sum_{i=1}^B M(B, r, i) I_i.$$

Finally, for given  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  and coefficients  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_r \in \mathbb{R}$ , the  $r$ th degree polynomial  $\sum_{j=0}^r c_j (p_B - x_0)^j$  is given by

$$\sum_{j=0}^r c_j (p_B - x_0)^j = \left( a_0 + \sum_{j=1}^r a_j x_0^j \right) + \sum_{i=1}^B \left[ \sum_{j=1}^r \sum_{k=1}^j a_j x_0^{j-k} \binom{j}{k} M(B, k, i) \right] I_i.$$

In other words, the  $r$ th power of the sum of the  $I_i$ s is a simple linear combination of the  $I_i$ s, not a messy multinomial expression as one might initially expect. Equivalently, the  $r$ th power of the empirical right-sided  $p$ -value (i.e.,  $p_B = (1/B) \sum_{i=1}^B I_i$ ) is a simple linear combination of the  $I_i$ s. Finally, the  $r$ th degree polynomial of  $p_B$  centered at  $x_0$  with coefficients  $c_0, \dots, c_r$  is a straightforward extension of the above. This result, though simple, is to the best of our knowledge new.

## Constructing linear $e$ -values

Using the above propositions, we construct several example linear  $e$ -values.

**Example 1: Warmup.** Setting  $a_i = (B + 1)/i$  and  $c = 0$  in definition (1), we obtain

$$e = (B + 1) \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{I_i}{i}.$$

The variable  $e$  clearly is nonnegative. Moreover,

$$\mathbb{E}(e) = (B + 1) \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{i}{i(B + 1)} = 1.$$

Therefore,  $e$  is a linear  $e$ -value.

**Example 2:  $p$ -values as a special case.** We recover the standard randomization test  $p$ -value as a special case of the proposed framework (up to a translation).

**Example 3: Powerful linear  $e$ -values via  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrators.** We outline a general and flexible strategy for producing powerful linear  $e$ -values. Vovk and Wang introduced the notion of a  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrator, which is a function that transforms a  $p$ -value into an  $e$ -value (Vovk and Wang 2021). A  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrator  $f$  satisfies the following properties: (i)  $f$  is defined on  $[0, 1]$ ; (ii)  $f$  is nonnegative; (iii)  $f$  is decreasing; and (iv)  $f$  integrates to (at most) 1. Vovk and Wang furthermore defined the notion of an “admissible”  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrator, which roughly speaking is a calibrator that is “good” (or at least “not bad”), i.e. it yields powerful  $e$ -values. An admissible calibrator  $f$  satisfies the following additional properties: (i)  $f$  is left-continuous; (ii)  $f(0) = \infty$ ; and (iii)  $f$  integrates to *exactly* 1. To illustrate the above definitions, let  $f$  be an admissible  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrator, and let  $P \sim U(0, 1)$  be a uniformly distributed random variable with cumulative density function  $G(p) = p$ . We have by LOTUS that  $\mathbb{E}[f(P)] = \int_0^1 f(p) dG(p) = \int_0^1 f = 1$ .

Vovk, Wang, and Ramdas introduced several examples of  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrators. First, for given  $\kappa \in (0, 1)$ , define the function  $f_\kappa : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$  by  $f_\kappa(p) = \kappa p^{\kappa-1}$ . It is easy to check that  $f_\kappa$  satisfies the properties listed above and is therefore an admissible  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrator. Next, define  $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$  by

$$g(p) = \frac{1 - p + p \ln(p)}{p \log^2(p)}.$$

The function  $g$  also is an admissible  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrator, although this is a bit harder to check.

We propose a general procedure for constructing linear  $e$ -values using  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrators. The  $j$ th derivative of the  $p$ -to- $e$  calibrator  $f_\kappa$  is

$$f_\kappa^{(j)}(p) = \prod_{i=0}^j (i - j) p^{\kappa-j-1}.$$

**Advantages to the proposed framework, connections to existing approaches**

**Direction 2: A class of fast and powerful test statistics for the conditional randomization (permutation) test**

## 1 Other considerations

## 2 Questions

- Can we generalize theorem 1 to exchangeable random variables? It is a bit subtle:  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$  are exchangeable, but  $Y_i$  and  $T_i$  are *not*.

## References

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# Appendices

## Proposition 1 proof

## Proposition 2 proof

Define the set  $C(r, B)$  by

$$C(r, B) := \left\{ (k_1, \dots, k_B) \in \{0, \dots, r\}^B : \sum_{i=1}^B k_i = r \right\},$$

i.e.,  $C(r, B)$  is the set of length- $B$  tuples of integers from 0 to  $r$  such that the elements of the tuple sum to  $r$ . Next, let the function  $\tau : C(r, B) \rightarrow \{1, \dots, B\}$  be defined by

$$\tau(k_1, \dots, k_B) = \min \{i \in \{1, \dots, B\} : k_i \geq 1\},$$

i.e.,  $\tau(k_1, \dots, k_B)$  is the position of the minimal nonzero element of a  $(k_1, \dots, k_B)$ . Finally, let  $\tau^{-1}$  be the pre-image of  $\tau$ . It is easy to see that, for  $i \in \{1, \dots, B\}$ ,

$$\tau^{-1}(i) = \{(0, \dots, 0, k_i, k_{i+1}, \dots, k_B) \in C(r, B) : k_i \geq 1\}.$$

In other words,  $\tau^{-1}(i)$  is the set of tuples whose first nonzero entry is the  $i$ th entry.

Before proceeding, we establish an important property of the  $I_i$ s. If at least one of the  $k_i$ s is nonzero, we have that

$$\prod_{i=1}^B I_i^{k_i} = I_{\tau(k_1, \dots, k_B)}. \quad (2)$$

This equality holds for the following reason. Assume without loss of generality that there are  $N \in \{1, \dots, B\}$  nonzero  $k_i$ s. Let  $\sigma : \{1, \dots, N\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, B\}$  give the position of the  $i$ th nonzero  $k_i$  (so that  $\sigma(1)$  is the position of the first nonzero  $k_i$ ,  $\sigma(2)$  is the position of the second, etc.). We can write

$$\prod_{i=1}^B I_i^{k_i} = \prod_{i=1}^N I_{\sigma(i)}^{k_{\sigma(i)}}, \quad (3)$$

i.e., we can remove all  $I_i$ s that are raised to the power of zero. Because the  $I_i$ s are Bernoulli random variables, we have that  $I_{\sigma(i)}^{k_{\sigma(i)}} = I_{\sigma(i)}$ . Next, recall that  $I_{\sigma(i)} = \mathbb{I}(T^* \leq T_{\sigma(i)})$ , where  $T_{\sigma(1)} < T_{\sigma(2)} < \dots < T_{\sigma(n)}$ . If  $T^* \leq T_{\sigma(i)}$ , then by transitivity,  $T^* \leq T_{\sigma(2)} < \dots < T_{\sigma(n)}$ , implying  $I_{\sigma(i)} = 1$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ . Therefore,  $I_{\sigma(1)} = 1 = I_{\sigma(1)} \dots I_{\sigma(n)}$ . On the other hand, if  $T^* > T_{\sigma(i)}$  then  $T_{\sigma(1)} = 0$ , implying  $I_{\sigma(1)} = 0 = I_{\sigma(1)} \dots I_{\sigma(n)}$ . Combining these cases, we conclude that  $I_{\sigma(1)} = I_{\sigma(1)} \dots I_{\sigma(B)}$ . Equation 3 therefore reduces to

$$\prod_{i=1}^N I_{\sigma(i)}^{k_{\sigma(i)}} = I_{\sigma(1)}. \quad (4)$$

Finally, because  $\sigma(1)$  is the position of the first nonzero  $k_i$ , we have that  $\sigma(1) = \tau(k_1, \dots, k_B)$ . Combining this fact with (3) and (4) yields the conclusion (2).

Having established this lemma, we can evaluate the  $r$ th power of the sum of the  $I_i$ s. The multinomial theorem states that

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \sum_{i=1}^B I_i \right)^r &= \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_B): k_1 + \dots + k_B = r} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_B} \prod_{i=1}^B I_i^{k_i} \\ &= \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_B): k_1 + \dots + k_B = r} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_B} I_{\tau(k_1, \dots, k_B)}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where the second equality follows from (2). The final term in (5) is simply a linear combination of the  $I_i$ s. We therefore can factor out the terms in the sum corresponding to  $I_i$  for each  $i$ , yielding

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_B): k_1 + \dots + k_B = r} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_B} I_{\tau(k_1, \dots, k_B)} &= \sum_{i=1}^B \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_B) \in \tau^{-1}(i)} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_B} I_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^B I_i \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_B) \in \tau^{-1}(i)} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_B}. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

We evaluate the inner sum (6), which is the coefficient corresponding to  $I_i$  in the linear combination. We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_B) \in \tau^{-1}(i)} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_B} &= \sum_{(0, \dots, 0, k_i, \dots, k_B): k_i \geq 1, k_i + \dots + k_B = r} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_B} \\ &= \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_{B-i+1}): k_1 \geq 1, k_1 + \dots + k_{B-i+1} = r} \binom{r}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{B-i+1}} = \sum_{j=1}^r \sum_{l_1 + \dots + l_{B-i} = r-j} \binom{r}{j, l_1, \dots, l_{B-i}} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^r \sum_{l_1 + \dots + l_{B-i} = r-j} \frac{r!}{j! l_1! \dots l_{B-i}!} = \sum_{j=1}^r \sum_{l_1 + \dots + l_{B-i} = r-j} \frac{r(r-1) \dots (r-j+1)(r-j)!}{j! l_1! \dots l_{B-i}!} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^r \sum_{l_1 + \dots + l_{B-i} = r-j} \frac{r!}{(r-j)! j!} \binom{r-j}{l_1, \dots, l_{B-i}} = \sum_{j=1}^r \frac{r!}{(r-j)! j!} \sum_{l_1, \dots, l_{B-i}} \binom{r-j}{l_1, \dots, l_{B-i}} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^r \binom{r}{j} (B-i)^{r-j} = \sum_{j=1}^r \binom{r}{j} (B-i)^{r-j} 1^j = \sum_{j=0}^r \binom{r}{j} (B-i)^{r-j} 1^j - 1 (B-i)^r \\ &= (B-i+1)^r - (B-i)^r. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Combining (5), (6), and (7), we conclude that

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^B I_i \right)^r = \sum_{i=1}^B [(B-i+1)^r - (B-i)^r] I_i.$$

Next, setting  $p_B = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B I_i$ , we obtain

$$p_B^r = \left( \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B I_i \right)^r = \sum_{i=1}^B [(1 - i/B + 1/B)^r - (1 - i/B)^r] I_i = \sum_{i=1}^B M(B, r, i) I_i.$$

We next consider the  $r$ th degree polynomial of  $p_B^r$ . First, for  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} (p_B - x_0)^r &= \sum_{k=0}^j \binom{j}{k} p_B^k x_0^{j-k} = x_0^j + \sum_{k=1}^j \binom{j}{k} p_B^k x_0^{j-k} \\ &= x_0^j + \sum_{k=1}^j \binom{j}{k} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^B M(B, k, i) I_i \right] x_0^{j-k} = x_0^j + \sum_{i=1}^B \left[ \sum_{k=1}^j x_0^{j-k} \binom{j}{k} M(B, k, i) \right] I_i. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, let  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_r \in \mathbb{R}$  be polynomial coefficients. We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=0}^r c_j (p_B - x_0)^j &= c_0 + \sum_{j=1}^r c_j (p_B - x_0)^j = c_0 + \sum_{l=1}^r c_l \left[ x_0^l + \sum_{i=1}^B \left[ \sum_{k=1}^l x_0^{l-k} \binom{l}{k} M(B, k, i) \right] I_i \right] \\ &= \left( c_0 + \sum_{j=1}^r c_j x_0^j \right) + \sum_{i=1}^B \left[ \sum_{j=1}^r \sum_{k=1}^j c_j x_0^{j-k} \binom{j}{k} M(B, k, i) \right] I_i, \end{aligned}$$

completing the proof.