Multiple testing

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Multiple testing problem

- With thousands of genes on a microarray we're not testing one hypothesis, but many hypotheses – one for each gene
- Analysis of 20,000 genes using commonly accepted significance level $\alpha=0.05$ will identify 1,000 differentially expressed genes simply by chance
- If probability of making an error in one test is 0.05, probability of making at least one error in ten tests is

$$(1 - (1 - 0.05)^{10}) = 0.40126$$

Naomi Altman & Martin Krzywinski "Points of significance: P values and the search for significance", Nat. Methods 2016, http://www.nature.com/nmeth/journal/v14/n1/full/nmeth.4120.html

Multiple Hypothesis Testing for differential expression detection

- The test statistics and hence the p-values are likely correlated due to co-regulation of the genes.
- Would like multiple testing procedures that take into account the dependence structure of the genes.
- This could be accomplished by estimating the joint null distribution of the unadjusted, unknown p-values.

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Permutation based methods

Permutation based adjusted p-values

- Under the H_0 , the joint distribution of the test statistics can be estimated by permuting the columns of the gene expression matrix
- Permuting entire columns creates a situation in which membership to the groups being compared is independent of gene expression but preserves the dependence structure between genes

Permutation based methods

- Permutation algorithm for the b^{th} permutation, b = 1, ..., B
- 1. Permute the *n* columns of the data matrix *X*
- 2. Compute test statistics $t_{j,b}$ for each hypothesis (gene, j = 1, ..., g)
- The permutation distribution of the test statistic T_j for hypothesis H_j is given by the empirical distribution of $t_{i,1}, \ldots, t_{i,B}$

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Permutation based methods

- For two-sided alternative hypotheses, the permutation p-value for hypothesis H_i is

$$p_j^* = \frac{\sum_{b=1}^B I(|t_{j,b}| \ge |t_j|)}{B}$$

where I(*) is the indicator function, equaling 1 if the condition in parentheses is true and 0 otherwise.

Permutation based methods

- Permutation method permits estimation of the joint null distribution of the unadjusted unknown p-values.
- Dependency structure between the genes is preserved.
- May suffer from a granularity problem (when two groups, should have 6 arrays in each group to use permutation based method).

 $\frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!}$ ways of forming two groups

Question: How many samples per group you need to get ~1,000 distinct permutations?

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Results of Multiple hypothesis testing

Assume we are testing H_1, H_2, \dots, H_m . m_0 - # of true null hypotheses

	Declared non-significant	Declared significant	
# True null hypothesis	U	Т	m - R
# Non-true null hypothesis	V	S	R
	m0	m-m0	

- · U, S True negatives/positives unobservable random variable
- · V False positives [Type I errors] unobservable random variable
- T False negatives [Type II errors] unobservable random variable
- · R All positives (# of rejected null hypotheses) observable

Error rates

False Discovery rate (FDR)

$$E\left[\frac{False\ Discoveries}{True\ Discoveries}\right]$$

Family wise error rate (FWER)

 $Pr(Number\ of\ False\ positives \ge 1)$

· Expected number of false positives

E[*Number of False positives*]

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Interpretation

Suppose 550 out of 10,000 genes are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

P-value < 0.05

• Expect 0.05 * 10,000 = 500 false positives

False Discovery Rate < 0.05

• Expect 0.05 * 550 = 27.5 false positives

Family Wise Error Rate < 0.05

• The probability of at least 1 false positive is ≤ 0.05

- Given p is the probability of error, 1-p is the probability of correct choice in one test
- $1 (1 p)^g$ is the probability of one error in g tests

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Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

- Given p is the probability of error, 1 p is the probability of correct choice in one test
- $1 (1 p)^g$ is the probability of one error in g tests

Sidak single step

- Testing g null hypotheses
- Reject any H_i with $p \le 1 \sqrt[g]{1 \alpha}$
- When testing 22,283 genes for differential expression, use the following cutoff:

$$1 - \frac{22.283}{1 - 0.05} = 0.000002302$$

Bonferroni procedure

- Testing *g* null hypothesis
- Reject any H_i with $p_i \le \alpha/g$
- \cdot 0.05/22,283 = 0.0000022

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Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

Bonferroni procedure

- Testing g null hypothesis
- Reject any H_i with $p_i \leq \alpha/g$
- \cdot 0.05/22,283 = 0.0000022
- Controls the FWER to be $\leq \alpha$ and to be equal to α if all hypotheses are true.
- As the number of hypotheses increases, the average power for an individual hypothesis decreases
- Very conservative; no attempt to incorporate dependence between tests

Holm step-down procedure

- 1. Order the p-values and hypotheses $P_1 \ge ... \ge P_g$ corresponding to $H_1, ..., H_g$
- 2. Let i = 1
- 3. If $P_{g-i+1} > \alpha/(g-i+1)$ then accept all remaining hypotheses H_{g-i+1} and STOP
- 4. If $P_{g-i+1} \le \alpha/(g-i+1)$ then reject H_{g-i+1} and increment i, then return to step 3.

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Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

Sidak step down

- 1. Order the p-values and hypotheses $P_1 \ge ... \ge P_g$ corresponding to $H_1, ..., H_g$
- 2. Let i = 1
- 3. If $P_{g-i+1}>1-\sqrt[g-i+1]{1-\alpha}$ then accept all remaining hypotheses H_{g-i+1} and STOP
- 4. If $P_{g-i+1} \le 1 \sqrt[g-i+1]{1-\alpha}$ then reject H_{g-i+1} and increment i, then return to step 3.

Hochberg step up

- 1. Order the p-values and hypotheses $P_1 \ge ... \ge P_g$ corresponding to $H_1, ..., H_g$
- 2. Let i = 1
- 3. If $P_i \leq \alpha/i$ then reject all remaining hypotheses H_i, \dots, H_g and STOP
- 4. If $P_i > \alpha/i$ then accept H_i and increment i, then return to step 3.

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Multiple Hypothesis Testing: Simes method

- A modified Bonferroni procedure, $p_{Simes} \leq \frac{j*\alpha}{n}$, where j = 1, 2, ..., n.
- Simes, R. J. "An Improved Bonferroni Procedure for Multiple Tests of Significance." Biometrika 73 (1986): 751–54. doi:10.1093/biomet/73.3.751.

Considerations for controlling the FWER

- Control over FWER is only appropriate in situations where the intent is to identify only a small number of genes that are truly different.
- Otherwise, the severe loss in power in controlling FWER is not justified.

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Considerations for controlling the FWER

- Approaches that set out to control the FWER seek to control the probability of at least one false positive regardless of the number of hypotheses being tested.
- When the number of hypotheses N is very large, this may be too strict = too many missed findings.

False discovery rates: FDR

- It may be more appropriate to emphasize the proportion of false positives among the differentially expressed genes.
- The expectation of this proportion is the false discovery rate (FDR) (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995)

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False discovery rate

Benjamini and Hochberg 1995

Definition: FDR is the proportion of false positives among all positives

$$FDR = E\left[\frac{V}{V+S}\right] = E\left[\frac{V}{R}\right]$$

- Select the desired proportion q, e.g., 0.1 (10%)
- Rank the p-values $p_1 \le p_2 \le ... \le p_m$.
- Find the largest rank i such that $p_i \leq \frac{i}{m} * q$
- Reject null hypotheses corresponding to p_1, \ldots, p_i

False positive vs. False discovery rates

False positive rate is the rate at which truly null genes are called significant

$$FPR \approx \frac{false\ positives}{truly\ null} = \frac{V}{m_0}$$

False discovery rate is the rate at which significant genes are truly null

$$FDR \approx \frac{false\ positives}{called\ significant} = \frac{V}{R}$$

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False Discovery Rates

Two procedures for controlling FDR:

- Fix the acceptable FDR level σ a priori, then find a data-dependent threshold so that the $FDR \geq \sigma$. (Benjamini & Hochberg)
- Fix the threshold rule and then form an estimate of the FDR whose expectation is ≥ the FDR rule over the significance region. (Storey)

Storey's positive FDR (pFDR)

$$BH: FDR = E\left[\frac{V}{R}|R>0\right]p(R>0)$$

Storey:
$$pFDR = E\left[\frac{V}{R}|R>0\right]$$

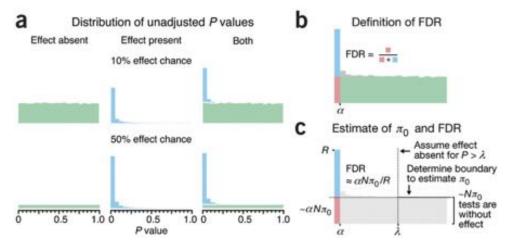
- Since P(R > 0) is ~ 1 in most genomics experiments, FDR and pFDR are very similar
- Omitting P(R > 0) facilitated development of a measure of significance in terms of the FDR for each hypothesis

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Q-value

- Storey & Tibshirani, "Statistical significance for genomewide studies", PNAS, 2003 http://www.pnas.org/content/100/16/9440.full
- Empirically derived uses the p-value distribution
- Storey's method first estimates the fraction of comparisons for which the null is true, π_0 , counting the number of P values larger than a cutoff λ (such as 0.5) relative to $(1 \lambda) * N$ (such as N/2), the count expected when the distribution is uniform
- Multiply the Benjamini & Hochberg FDR by π_0 , thus less conservative

Q-value



Martin Krzywinski & Naomi Altman "Points of significance: Comparing samples—part II" *Nature Methods* 2016

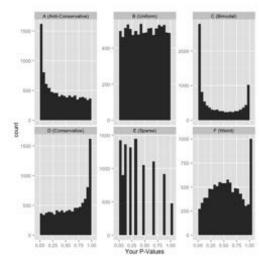
http://www.nature.com/nmeth/journal/v11/n4/full/nmeth.2900.html

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Q-value

- q-value is defined as the minimum FDR that can be attained when calling a "feature" significant (i.e., expected proportion of false positives incurred when calling that feature significant)
- The estimated q-value is a function of the p-value for that test and the distribution of the entire set of p-values from the family of tests being considered
- Thus, in an array study testing for differential expression, if gene X
 has a q-value of 0.013 it means that 1.3% of genes that show
 pvalues at least as small as gene X are false positives

Check p-value distribution!



http://varianceexplained.org/statistics/interpreting-pvalue-histogram/

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Increase power - Filtering

Three filtering methods

- · Mean filtering
- · Variance filtering
- · Threshold filtering

All three filtering methods reduce the number of hypothesis tests to be performed.

Mean Filtering

- · Removes the genes with low mean gene signal values
- The genes with mean signal less than a fixed cut-off value ${\it C}$ are filtered out.
- The cut-off *C* is chosen based on background noise level.
- Removes non-expressed genes or genes with low signal values at background noise level.

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Mean Filtering

Issues

- Ignores the treatment effect by comparing single mean expression value to a cut-off value.
- Differentially expressed genes with moderate expression in one group and low expression in the other group filtered out.

Variance Filtering

- Removes the genes with low variances across samples
- Genes are sorted in ascending order based on their sample variance estimates and the first *X* percent of genes are filtered out.
- The cut-off percentage *X* is arbitrarily determined by the investigator.
- · Removes genes at different expression levels

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Variance Filtering

Issues

- Gene-specific variance estimates are unreliable in small sample size studies
- Non-expressed genes with higher variances being retained for the analysis and consequently higher number of false positives.
- Differentially expressed genes with low variances estimates being filtered out and a lower number of true positives.
- Uses total gene variance rather than between/within group variance

Threshold Filtering

- Threshold Filtering Method aims to filter out only non- expressed genes.
- For sample size up to 5 per group, genes are filtered out only if one or no samples (across groups) have a signal greater than the background cut-off value.
- For sample size greater than 5 per group, genes are filtered out only if 20% or less samples in each group have signal values greater than the background cut-off value.

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