

Multiple testing

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Multiple testing problem

- With thousands of genes, 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.

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

Permutation based methods

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

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

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
- The permutation p-value cannot be smaller than $1/(B + 1)$, meaning that a large number of permutations are needed

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

Increasing permutation efficiency: Adaptive scheme

- Run permutations until a given number X (typically, 100) of null correlations stronger than the observed one are found
- Limit permutations to no more than Y (typically, 100,000) permutations in total
- The adjusted p-value is calculated as

$$p_{adj} = \frac{\min(I, X) + 1}{\min(B, Y) + 1}$$

- Still unable to provide adjusted p-values below $1/(M + 1)$

Increasing permutation efficiency: beta approximation

- Order statistics of independent uniformly distributed random variables are beta-distributed
- The permutation p-values are also beta-distributed (Dudbridge and Koeleman, 2004)
- Perform Y permutations, estimate the parameters of beta distribution using maximum likelihood
- Approximate permutation p-value from the best p-value obtained during Y permutations

Ongen, Halit, Alfonso Buil, Andrew Anand Brown, Emmanouil T. Dermitzakis, and Olivier Delaneau. "Fast and Efficient QTL Mapper for Thousands of Molecular Phenotypes." *Bioinformatics* (Oxford, England) 32, no. 10 (May 15, 2016): 1479–85. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv722>.

Results of Multiple hypothesis testing

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

	Declared non-significant	Declared significant
# True null hypothesis	U	T
# Non-true null hypothesis	V	S
	m_0	$m - m_0$

- **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)

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

- Family wise error rate (FWER)

$$\Pr(\text{Number of False positives} \geq 1)$$

- Expected number of false positives

$$E[\text{Number of False positives}]$$

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

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

Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

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Sidak single step

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

$$1 - \sqrt[22,283]{1 - 0.05} = 0.000002302$$

Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

Bonferroni procedure

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

Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

Bonferroni procedure

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

Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

Holm step-down procedure

- 1 Order the p-values and hypotheses $P_1 \geq \dots \geq P_g$ corresponding to H_1, \dots, 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 $P_{g-i+1} \leq \alpha/(g - i + 1)$ then reject H_{g-i+1} and increment i , then return to step 3.

Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

Sidak step down

- 1 Order the p-values and hypotheses $P_1 \geq \dots \geq P_g$ corresponding to H_1, \dots, 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 $P_{g-i+1} \leq 1 - \sqrt[g-i+1]{1 - \alpha}$ then reject H_{g-i+1} and increment i , then return to step 3.

Multiple Hypothesis Testing: FWER

Hochberg step up

- 1 Order the p-values and hypotheses $P_1 \geq \dots \geq P_g$ corresponding to H_1, \dots, 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.

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.

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)

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 $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \dots \leq p_m$.
- Find the largest rank i such that $p_i \leq \frac{i}{m} * q$
- Reject null hypotheses corresponding to p_1, \dots, p_i

False positive vs. False discovery rates

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

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

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

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

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 \geq the FDR rule over the significance region. (Storey)

Storey's positive FDR (pFDR)

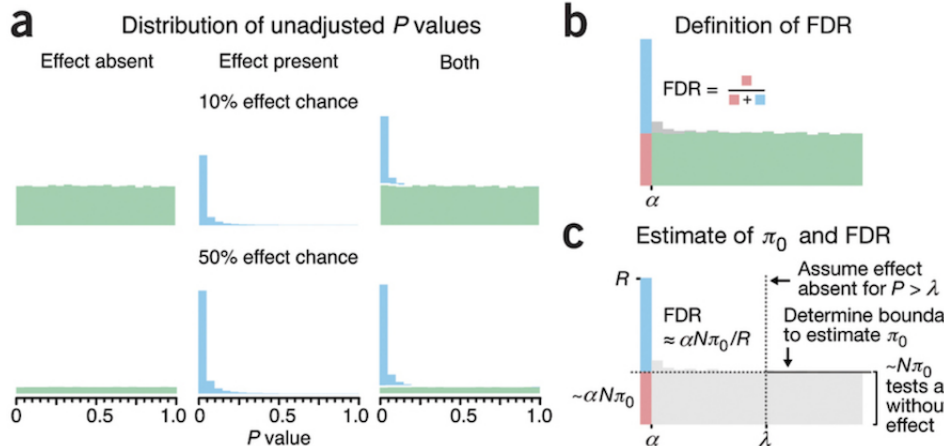
$$BH : FDR = E \left[\frac{V}{R} | R > 0 \right] p(R > 0)$$

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

- 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

- 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

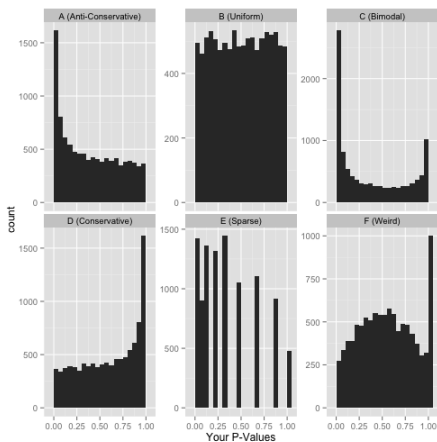


Martin Krzywinski & Naomi Altman "Points of significance: Comparing samples—part II" *Nature Methods* 2016
<http://www.nature.com/nmeth/journal/v11/n4/full/nmeth.2900.html>

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 p-values at least as small as gene X are false positives

Check p-value distribution!



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

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 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.

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

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.