Permutation Test

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STAT 3150—Statistical Computing

- Explain the difference between bootstrap and permutation tests.
- Apply permutation tests to two-sample problems.

- When discussing bootstrap and jackknife, we constructed confidence intervals for our estimates.
- Confidence intervals can be used for *hypothesis testing*:
 - Check if value of population parameter under the null hypothesis is contained in the interval.
- **Permutation tests** are a whole family of resampling strategies that can be used specifically for hypothesis testing.
 - And there are generally more powerful than bootstrap.

- We will use the **chickwts** dataset (available in base **R**).
- Contains 71 observations: chick weight, and the type of feed use.

boxplot(chickwts\$weight ~ chickwts\$feed)

Motivating example—T test ii



chickwts\$feed

• We will focus on two types of feed: soybean and linseed

soy_vec <- chickwts\$weight[chickwts\$feed == "soybean"] lin_vec <- chickwts\$weight[chickwts\$feed == "linseed"]</pre>

c(length(soy_vec), length(lin_vec))

[1] 14 12

• We are interested in whether different feed leads to differences in weight.

Motivating example—T test iv

• One way to formalize this into a hypothesis test is to test whether the *mean weight* is the same for both groups:

$$H_0: \mu_S = \mu_L.$$

- Our estimators are the sample means for each group.
- In STAT 1150, we saw that we can use the t statistic to perform a t-test for two means.

By default, it assumes unequal variance
(fit <- t.test(soy_vec, lin_vec, var.equal = TRUE))</pre>

```
##
## Two Sample t-test
##
## data: soy_vec and lin_vec
## t = 1.3208, df = 24, p-value = 0.199
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in
means is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## -15.57282 70.92996
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
## 246.4286 218.7500
```

Motivating example—T test vi

- $\cdot\,$ We get a lot of information out of this:
 - The sample means are 246.4 and 218.8, respectively.
 - A 95% confidence interval for the mean difference is (-15.6, 70.9)
 - The p-value is 0.199
- Overall, we don't have enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.
- But what were the assumptions?

Motivating example—T test vii

- It's helpful to recall what's actually going on.
 - Compute the sample means $\hat{\mu}_S$ and $\hat{\mu}_L$.
 - Compute the pooled variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$.
 - Construct the t-statistic $t = \frac{\hat{\mu}_S \hat{\mu}_L}{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{n_S^{-1} + n_L^{-1}}}$.
- If the null hypothesis holds and if the weights are normally distributed with the same variance, then t follows a t distribution on $n_S + n_L 2$ degrees of freedom.

```
results <- replicate(B, {
    indices <- sample(n, n, replace = TRUE)
    data_b <- data[indices,]</pre>
```

```
soy_b <- data_b$weight[data_b$feed == "soybean"]
lin_b <- data_b$weight[data_b$feed == "linseed"]
mean(soy_b) - mean(lin_b)
})
```

```
# 95% confidence interval
mu_diff <- mean(soy_vec) - mean(lin_vec)
se_boot <- sd(results)
c(mu_diff - 1.96*se_boot, mu_diff + 1.96*se_boot)</pre>
```

[1] -12.38240 67.73955

- The bootstrap confidence interval is a bit narrower, but it still leads to the same conclusion.
- On the other hand, how can we compute a p-value?

Permutation tests i

• **Permutation tests** are a large family of resampling methods that can be used to test hypotheses of the form

$$H_0: F = G,$$

where F, G are the distribution functions of two different samples.

- You can see this as a *generalization* of the t-test in two ways:
 - We replace equality of means by equality of distributions.
 - We don't assume the data follows a normal distribution.

Permutation tests ii

- It can also be used to test for independence:
 - If we have two variables X, Y, with F_X, F_Y the marginal distributions and F_{XY} the joint distribution, independence is equivalent to $F_{XY} = F_X F_Y$.
- The main idea is as follows:
 - Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim F$ and $Y_1, \ldots, Y_m \sim G$.
 - If $H_0: F = G$ holds, then $X_1, \ldots, X_n, Y_1, \ldots, Y_m \sim F$.
 - Furthermore, any permutation of these n + m random variables is also a sample from F!
 - This gives us a way to "generate" data under the null hypothesis.

Permutation tests iii

Algorithm

Let N = n + m, and let $\hat{\theta}$ be the estimate for the original sample.

- 1. Permute the observations to get a sample Z_1, \ldots, Z_N .
- 2. Compute the estimate $\hat{\theta}^{(k)} = \hat{\theta}(Z_1, \dots, Z_N)$.
- 3. Repeat these two steps K times.
- 4. The permutation p-value is given by

$$\hat{p} = \frac{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K} I(\hat{\theta}^{(k)} \ge \hat{\theta})}{K+1}.$$

- The procedure is usually considered *approximate*, because we are not using all possible permutations.
 - In practice, 1000 permutations will give a good approximation for lpha=0.05.
- Assume that our estimator is the difference of means, like in the motivating example. To compute the permuted estimate $\hat{\theta}^{(k)}$, we compute the sample mean of the first n observations, the sample mean of the remaining m observations, and take the difference.
 - Remember: under the null hypothesis, group membership is meaningless!

- In bootstrap, it was important to *preserve* the correlation structure between different variables. With permutation tests, the goal is to *break* the association in order to mimic the null hypothesis.
- Permutations = Sampling without replacement.

K <- 1000 # Number of permutations</pre> combined_data <- c(soy_vec, lin_vec) # Combine data</pre> N <- length(combined data) results <- replicate(K, { perm_data <- combined_data[sample(N)] # Permute</pre> soy perm <- perm data[1:length(soy vec)] # Allocate</pre> lin_perm <- perm_data[(length(soy_vec) + 1):N]</pre> mean(sov perm) - mean(lin perm) })

```
theta_hat <- mean(soy_vec) - mean(lin_vec)
hist(results, 50)
abline(v = theta_hat, lty = 2, lwd = 2)</pre>
```

Example (cont'd) iii



Histogram of results

```
# Is this the right p-value?
mean(c(theta_hat, results) >= theta_hat)
```

[1] 0.0989011

What about this? mean(abs(c(theta_hat, results)) >= abs(theta_hat))

[1] 0.1928072

• We used the difference in sample means as our test statistic, but we can also use the t-statistic.

```
results2 <- replicate(K, {
   perm_data <- combined_data[sample(N)] # Permute
   soy_perm <- perm_data[1:length(soy_vec)] # Allocate
   lin_perm <- perm_data[(length(soy_vec) + 1):N]
   t.test(soy_perm, lin_perm)$statistic
})</pre>
```

t_hat <- t.test(soy_vec, lin_vec)\$statistic hist(results2, 50) abline(v = t_hat, lty = 2, lwd = 2)

Example (cont'd) vii

Histogram of results2



results2

```
# One-sided p-value
mean(c(t_hat, results2) >= t_hat)
```

[1] 0.1058941

Two-sided p-value
mean(abs(c(t_hat, results2)) >= abs(t_hat))

[1] 0.2247752

Other test statistics i

- We already saw above that we can use different test statistics for the same null hypothesis.
- On the other hand, you probably noticed that comparing means is probably not strict enough for $H_0: F = G$.
 - Distributions can be different but have the same mean.
- One way to more directly compare the full distribution is the *Kolmogorov-Smirnov* test statistic:

$$D = \max_{1 \le i \le N} \left| F_n(Z_i) - G_m(Z_i) \right|,$$

where F_n, G_m are the empirical CDFs of X_1, \ldots, X_n and Y_1, \ldots, Y_m , respectively.

- The asymptotic distribution of D under the null hypothesis is known, but difficult to compute.
- Permutation tests are a simple alternative.

```
results3 <- replicate(K, {
   perm_data <- combined_data[sample(N)] # Permute
   soy_perm <- perm_data[1:length(soy_vec)] # Allocate
   lin_perm <- perm_data[(length(soy_vec) + 1):N]
   ks.test(soy_perm, lin_perm)$statistic
})</pre>
```

```
D_hat <- ks.test(soy_vec, lin_vec)$statistic
hist(results3, 50)
abline(v = D hat, lty = 2, lwd = 2)</pre>
```

Example (cont'd) ii



```
# Only one-sided p-value
mean(c(D_hat, results3) >= D_hat)
```

[1] 0.4405594

• We will use the same dataset, but compare sunflower and linseed feeds.

sun_vec <- chickwts\$weight[chickwts\$feed=="sunflower"]
c(length(sun_vec), length(lin_vec))</pre>

[1] 12 12

```
K <- 1000 # Number of permutations
combined data <- c(sun vec, lin vec) # Combine data
N <- length(combined data)</pre>
results4 <- replicate(K, {</pre>
  perm_data <- combined_data[sample(N)] # Permute</pre>
  sun_perm <- perm_data[1:length(sun_vec)] # Allocate</pre>
  lin perm <- perm data[(length(sun vec) + 1):N]</pre>
  ks.test(sun perm, lin perm)$statistic
})
```

D_hat <- ks.test(sun_vec, lin_vec)\$statistic hist(results4, 50) abline(v = D_hat, lty = 2, lwd = 2)</pre>

Another example iv



Histogram of results4

results4

```
# Only one-sided p-value
mean(c(D_hat, results4) >= D_hat)
```

[1] 0.001998002

Final remarks

- This is our last module on resampling methods.
- We discussed jackknife, bootstrap and permutation tests.
 - Bootstrap and jackknife have similar goals, but bootstrap is almost always better.
 - Permutation tests are *specifically* for hypothesis testing.
- Permutation tests are usually more powerful than looking at bootstrap confidence intervals.
 - Meaning, the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it **doesn't** hold is higher with permutation tests.
- Different test statistics will give different results.
 - Monte Carlo simulations is helpful in understanding when we should choose a given test statistic.