

# Testing One Hypothesis Twice in Observational Studies

Paul R. Rosenbaum

Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania

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- With a little statistical theory, we can be somewhat-knowing and somewhat-wise.
- Add a little data, properly analyzed, and we can be almost as effective as that all-knowing, all-wise entity.

# Basis for this talk

- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2012), "Testing one hypothesis twice in observational studies," *Biometrika*, 99, 763-774.
- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2012), "An exact, adaptive test with superior design sensitivity in an observational study of treatments for ovarian cancer," *AOAS*, 6, 83-105.
- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2011), "A new U-statistic with superior design sensitivity in matched observational studies," *Biometrics*, 67, 1017-1027.
- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2010), "Design sensitivity and efficiency in observational studies," *JASA*, 105, 692-702.

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- **Issue:** Without randomization, treated and control groups may not be comparable. Adjust for observed covariates, perhaps by matching.
- **Problem:** Adjusting for observed covariates does not typically control unobserved covariates.
- **Sensitivity analysis:** Asks what an unobserved covariate would have to be like to alter the conclusions of a naïve analysis that presumes adjustments for observed covariates suffice. Cornfield et al. (1959).

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- **Design sensitivity is:** a number,  $\tilde{\Gamma}$ , such that, as the sample size increases, the study will eventually be insensitive to biases smaller than  $\tilde{\Gamma}$  and sensitive to biases larger than  $\tilde{\Gamma}$ .
- **In particular:** in large samples, the limiting power of a sensitivity analysis is determined by the design sensitivity.

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- Will present a family of U-statistics for matched pairs that includes Wilcoxon's signed rank statistic, but other members of this family have much higher power in a sensitivity analysis and higher design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma}$ .

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- That is, the best procedure assuming that an observational study is effectively a randomized experiment need not be the best procedure under more realistic assumptions
- Will present a family of U-statistics for matched pairs that includes Wilcoxon's signed rank statistic, but other members of this family have much higher power in a sensitivity analysis and higher design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma}$ .
- To make full use of this fact, one may have to use multiple tests of one hypothesis, correcting for multiple testing.

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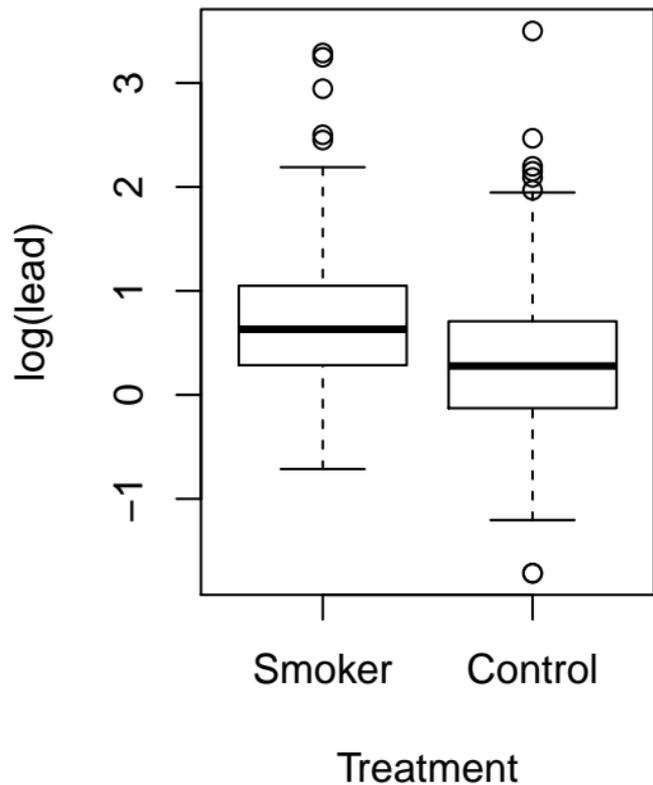
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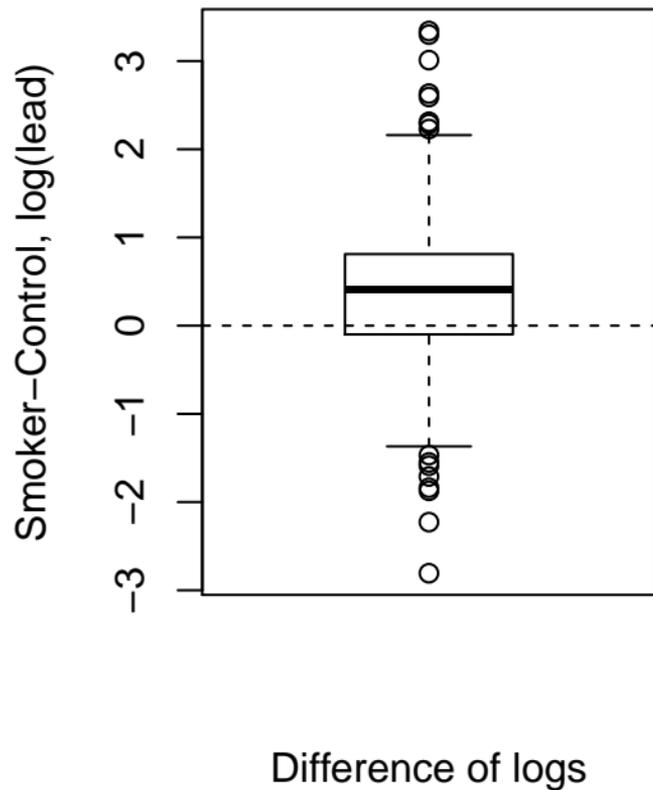
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- **Sensitivity to:** an unobserved covariate  $u_{ij}$ , possibly with  $u_{i1} \neq u_{i2}$ .

### 679 x 2 Individuals



### 679 Pair Differences



# Notation

- There are  $l$  pairs,  $i = 1, \dots, l$ , of two subjects,  $j = 1, 2$ , one treated,  $Z_{ij} = 1$ , the other control,  $Z_{ij} = 0$ , with  $Z_{i1} + Z_{i2} = 1$ .  $\mathcal{Z}$  is the event  $Z_{i1} + Z_{i2} = 1$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, l$ .

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- Naïve analysis of an observational study assumes adjustments for  $\mathbf{x}$  suffice to remove bias.
- Sensitivity analysis asks: What  $u$  would have to be like to alter the conclusions of the naïve analysis?

- Neyman (1923) and Rubin (1974): Each subject  $ij$  has two potential responses,  $r_{Tij}$  if treated,  $Z_{ij} = 1$ , or  $r_{Cij}$  if control,  $Z_{ij} = 0$ ;

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- Write  $\mathcal{F} = \{(r_{Tij}, r_{Cij}, \mathbf{x}_{ij}, u_{ij}), i = 1, \dots, I, j = 1, 2\}$ .
- $H_0$  is false if the treatment has an additive effect,  $r_{Tij} - r_{Cij} = \tau$  for all  $ij$ ,  $\tau \neq 0$ . (Easily replaced by treatment typically has an additive effect,  $r_{Tij} - r_{Cij} = \tau + \xi_{ij}$  where the  $\xi_{ij}$  are mutually independent, independent of everything else, symmetric about 0.)

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$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= (Z_{i1} - Z_{i2}) (r_{Ci1} + Z_{i1}\tau - r_{Ci2} - Z_{i2}\tau) \\ &= \tau + \epsilon_i \text{ where } \epsilon_i = (Z_{i1} - Z_{i2}) (r_{Ci1} - r_{Ci2}) \end{aligned}$$

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- Looking ahead: A sensitivity analysis is an analysis of  $Y_1, \dots, Y_I$ . Efficiency, the power of a sensitivity analysis, the design sensitivity refer to a stochastic model that generated the  $Y_i$ , such as  $Y_i \sim_{iid} N(\tau, 1)$ .

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- The sign test has  $q_i = 1$  whenever  $|Y_i| > 0$ . Wilcoxon's signed rank test has  $q_i = \text{rank}(|Y_i|)$  if  $|Y_i| > 0$ .
- Randomization creates the null distribution  $\Pr(T | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z})$  of  $T$  under Fisher's  $H_0$  as the distribution of the sum of  $l$  independent random variables taking the values  $q_i$  or  $-q_i$  each with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  if  $q_i > 0$  or the value  $0$  with probability  $1$  if  $q_i = 0$ . E.g., the binomial distribution for the sign test or the usual reference distribution for Wilcoxon's test.

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- A simple model: In the population prior to matching, subjects have independent treatment assignments with unknown probabilities,  $\pi_{ij} = \Pr(Z_{ij} = 1 \mid \mathcal{F})$ , such that two subjects, say  $ij$  and  $ij'$ , with the same observed covariates,  $\mathbf{x}_{ij} = \mathbf{x}_{ij'}$ , may differ in their odds of treatment by at most a factor of  $\Gamma \geq 1$ ,

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma} \leq \frac{\pi_{ij} (1 - \pi_{ij'})}{\pi_{ij'} (1 - \pi_{ij})} \leq \Gamma \quad \text{whenever } \mathbf{x}_{ij} = \mathbf{x}_{ij'};$$

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- For each  $\Gamma \geq 1$ , obtain a range of possible inference quantities, point estimates, p-values, etc.

# Sensitivity analysis for a general signed rank statistic

- Let  $\overline{\overline{T}}$  be the sum of  $I$  independent random variables taking the value  $q_i$  with probability  $\Gamma / (1 + \Gamma)$  or 0 with probability  $1 / (1 + \Gamma)$ . Define  $\overline{T}$  similarly with  $\Gamma / (1 + \Gamma)$  and  $1 / (1 + \Gamma)$  interchanged.

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- **Bounds:** Under Fisher's  $H_0$  and the sensitivity model with a fixed  $\Gamma \geq 1$ :

$$\Pr(\overline{T} \geq k | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) \leq \Pr(T \geq k | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) \leq \Pr(\overline{\overline{T}} \geq k | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) \text{ for all } k,$$

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- Approximate bounds:** As  $I \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\Pr(\overline{\overline{T}} \geq k | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) \approx 1 - \Phi \left[ \frac{k - \{\Gamma / (1 + \Gamma)\} \sum_{i=1}^I q_i}{\sqrt{\{\Gamma / (1 + \Gamma)^2\} \sum_{i=1}^I q_i^2}} \right] \quad (1)$$

if  $(\sum_{i=1}^I q_i^2) / (\max_{1 \leq i \leq I} q_i^2) \rightarrow \infty$ . ( $\Phi(\cdot)$  is Normal cdf)

# The new U-statistic, described informally

- **Name:** Fix three integers,  $m$ ,  $\underline{m}$ ,  $\bar{m}$  with  $1 \leq \underline{m} \leq \bar{m} \leq m < I$ . Then  $(m, \underline{m}, \bar{m})$  is the name of one U-statistic.

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- **One good choice:**  $(8, 7, 8)$ . Look at 8 pairs. Find the two largest  $|Y_i|$ 's, and score 0, 1, or 2 depending upon whether neither, one or both  $Y_i$ 's are positive.

# Sensitivity analysis for the NHANES data about blood lead levels

- Compare sign test  $(1, 1, 1)$ , Wilcoxon test  $(2, 2, 2)$ , and the new U-statistic with  $(m, \underline{m}, \bar{m}) = (8, 7, 8)$  for  $I = 679$  smoker-nonsmoker pair differences  $Y_i$  in blood lead levels.

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$\Gamma$	1	2	2.5	3	3.5	3.8
• Sign test	0.0000	0.0083	0.5961	0.9918	1.0000	1.0000
• Wilcoxon	0.0000	0.0000	0.0004	0.0510	0.4224	0.7160
(8,7,8)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0009	0.0142	0.0444

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(20,14,20)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0008	0.0147	0.0493
(20,16,19)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0009	0.0116	0.0344

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$$T = \sum_{i=1}^l \operatorname{sgn}(Y_i) q_i \quad (2)$$

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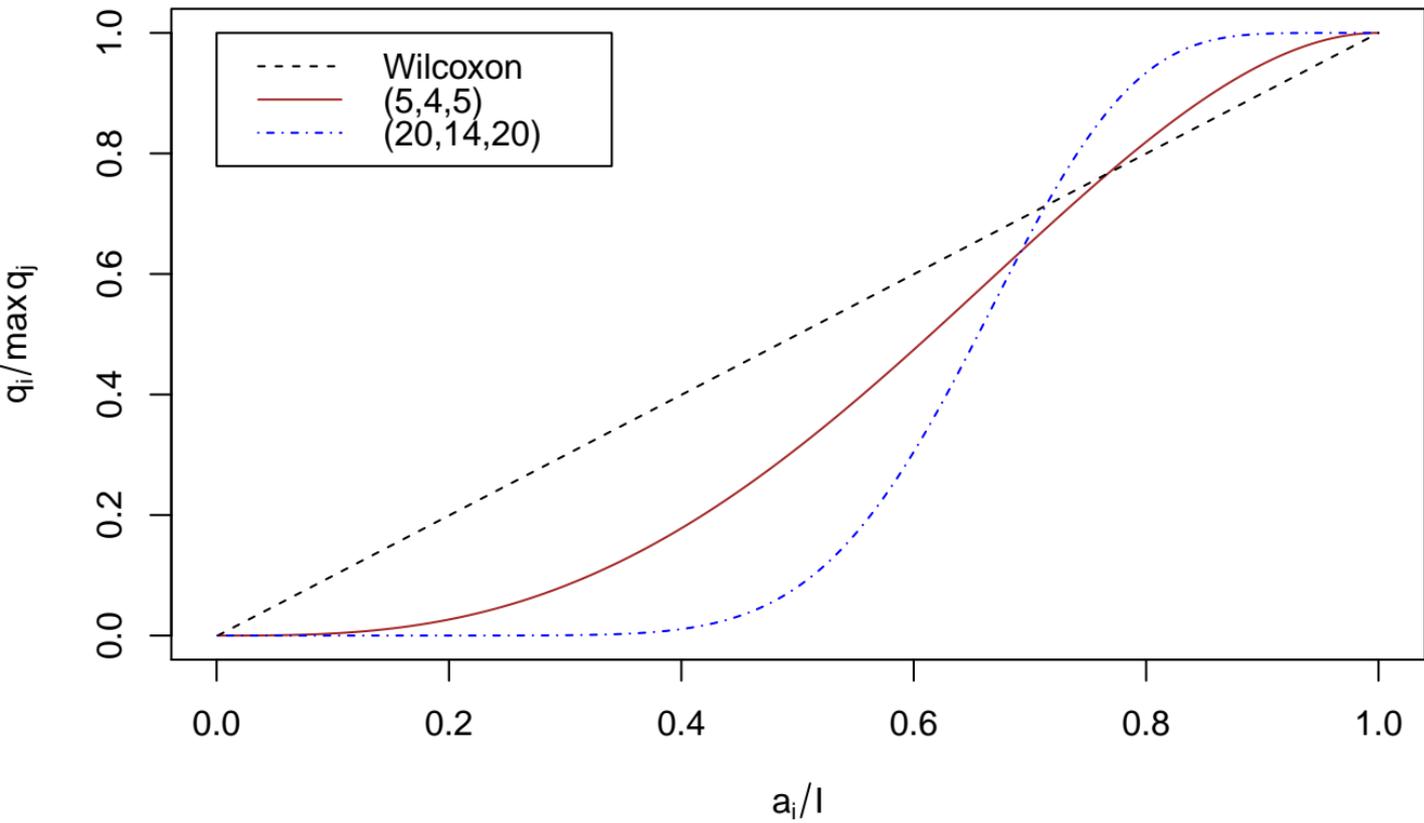
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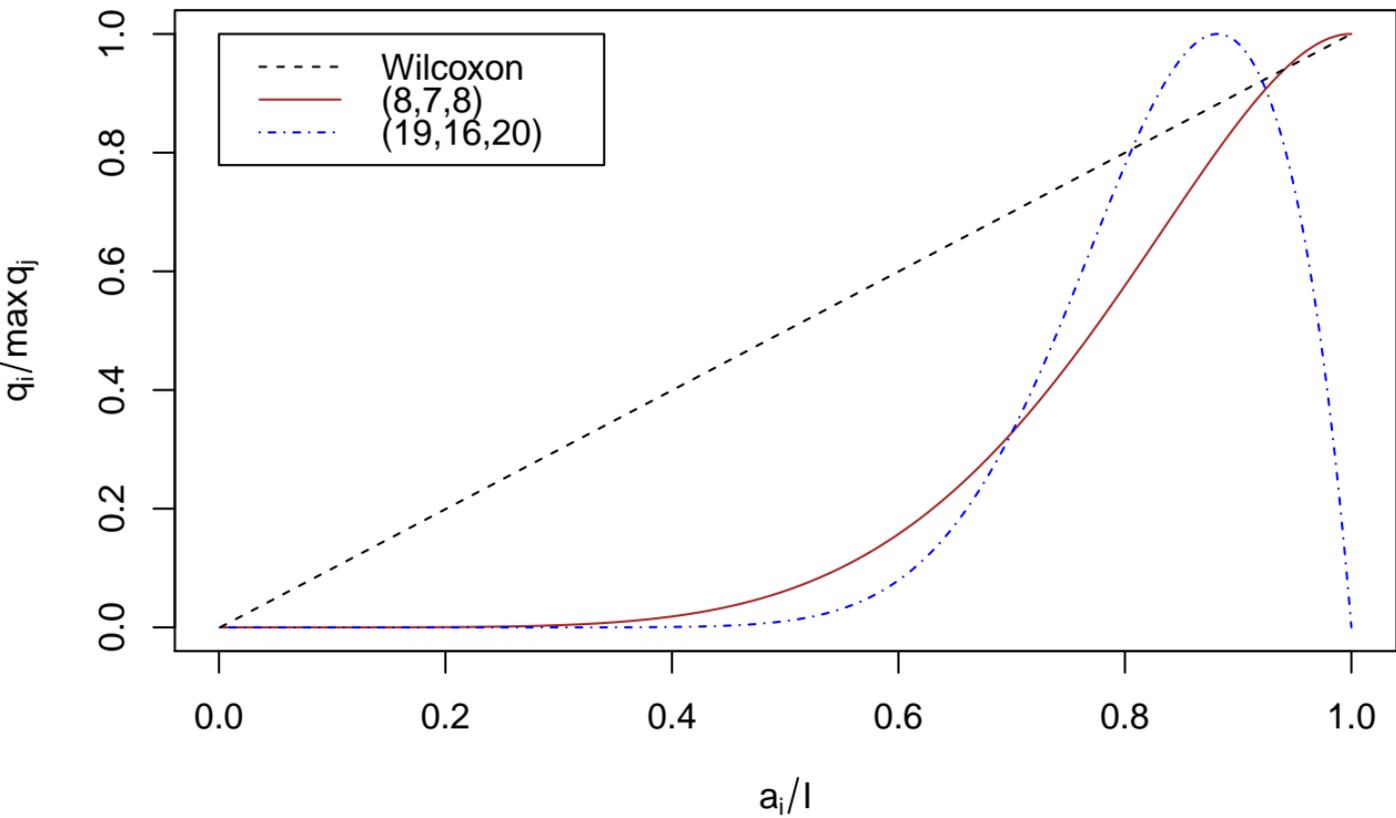
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- Will plot  $q_i / \max q_j$  against  $a_i / l$ .





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- If the treatment had an effect and if there was no bias in treatment assignment,  $\Pr(Z_{ij} | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) = \frac{1}{2}$ , then we could not see this in the observed data. The best we can hope to say is that rejection of  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  is insensitive to small and moderate bias as measured by  $\Gamma$ . The power is the probability that we will be able to say this.

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- **Power is:** the probability that the upper bound on the  $P$ -value testing  $H_0$  will be less than or equal to  $\alpha$  at this  $\Gamma$  when the  $Y_i$  are sampled from some probability model in which there is an effect and no bias,  $\Pr(T | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) = \frac{1}{2}$ , e.g.,  $Y_i \sim_{iid} N(\tau, 1)$ .

# Simulated Power

- **Sampling situation:**  $Y_i = \tau + \epsilon_i$  where  $\epsilon_i$  is standard Normal, standard logistic or  $t$ -distributed with 4 degrees of freedom, and no unmeasured bias,  $\Pr(Z_{ij} = 1 \mid \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

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**Table:** Power of a one-sided 0.05 level sensitivity analysis with additive effect  $\tau$  conducted with  $\Gamma = 3$  and  $I = 250$  pairs. Errors are standard Normal, standard logistic or  $t$ -distributed with 4 degrees of freedom. The highest powers in a column are in **bold**.

Errors	Normal	Logistic	$t$ with 4 df
Statistic	$\tau = 1/2$	$\tau = 1$	$\tau = 1$
Wilcoxon	0.08	0.40	0.43
• (5,4,5)	0.34	0.67	<b>0.65</b>
(8,7,8)	<b>0.63</b>	<b>0.74</b>	0.57
(20,14,20)	0.53	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.65</b>
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- **Definition:** For a given sampling situation with a treatment effect and no unmeasured bias, and for a given test statistic, there is a number  $\tilde{\Gamma}$  such that, as  $I \rightarrow \infty$ , the power of an  $\alpha$ -level sensitivity analysis tends to 1 if performed with  $\Gamma < \tilde{\Gamma}$  and to 0 if  $\Gamma > \tilde{\Gamma}$ .

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- **Illustration:** For an additive effect of  $\tau = 1$  with errors from the  $t$ -distribution with 3 degrees of freedom, the Wilcoxon statistic has design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma} = 6.0$  while  $(m, \underline{m}, \bar{m}) = (5, 4, 5)$  has design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma} = 6.8$ .

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- **Example:** If  $I = 100,000$  differences  $Y_i = \tau + \epsilon_i$  are sampled from this distribution, the upper bound on the  $P$ -value from Wilcoxon's statistic is 0.016 at  $\Gamma = 5.8$  and 0.997 at  $\Gamma = 6.1$ , consistent with  $\tilde{\Gamma} = 6.0$ . If  $(m, \underline{m}, \bar{m}) = (5, 4, 5)$  is used instead, the  $P$ -value bound is 0.0028 for  $\Gamma = 6.5$  and 0.98 for  $\Gamma = 6.9$ , consistent with  $\tilde{\Gamma} = 6.8$ .

# Formula for the design sensitivity of the U-statistic

- **Will assume:**  $Y_i$  are *iid* from some distribution  $F(\cdot)$  and there is no unobserved bias,  $\Pr(Z_{ij} | \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z}) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

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- **Proposition:** Under these assumptions, the design sensitivity of the U-statistic  $(m, \underline{m}, \bar{m})$  is:

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- **Cases:** If  $\theta = \bar{m} - \underline{m} + 1$  then  $\tilde{\Gamma} = \infty$ . If  $\tilde{\Gamma} < 1$ , then the power tends to zero as  $l \rightarrow \infty$  for all  $\Gamma \geq 1$ )

# Table of Design Sensitivities

**Table:** Design sensitivities  $\tilde{\Gamma}$  with additive effect  $\tau$ . Errors are standard Normal, standard logistic or  $t$ -distributed with 3 or 4 degrees of freedom. The largest  $\tilde{\Gamma}$ 's in a column are in **bold**.

Errors Statistic	Normal $\tau = 1/2$	Logistic $\tau = 1$	$t$ with 4 df $\tau = 1$	$t$ with 3 df $\tau = 1$
Wilcoxon	3.2	3.9	6.8	6.0
(5,4,5)	3.9	4.7	8.4	6.8
(8,7,8)	<b>5.1</b>	5.5	9.1	6.8
(8,6,7)	3.5	4.5	9.0	7.7
(20,14,20)	4.6	5.3	9.4	7.3
(20,16,19)	4.9	<b>5.6</b>	<b>10.1</b>	<b>7.8</b>

# Heuristic Graph I: Where is the evidence that distinguishes effects from unmeasured biases?

- Suppose that the  $Y_i$ 's are not biased, so each  $Y_i$  is telling us about the effects of the treatment. (Of course, we would not know this from the data.)

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- What  $|Y_i|$  would you pick?

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- If  $\text{abz}(y) > \Gamma / (1 + \Gamma)$ , then at  $|Y_i| = y$ , positive  $Y_i$  occur with a frequency  $\text{abz}(y)$  that is too high to be attributed to a bias of magnitude  $\Gamma$ .

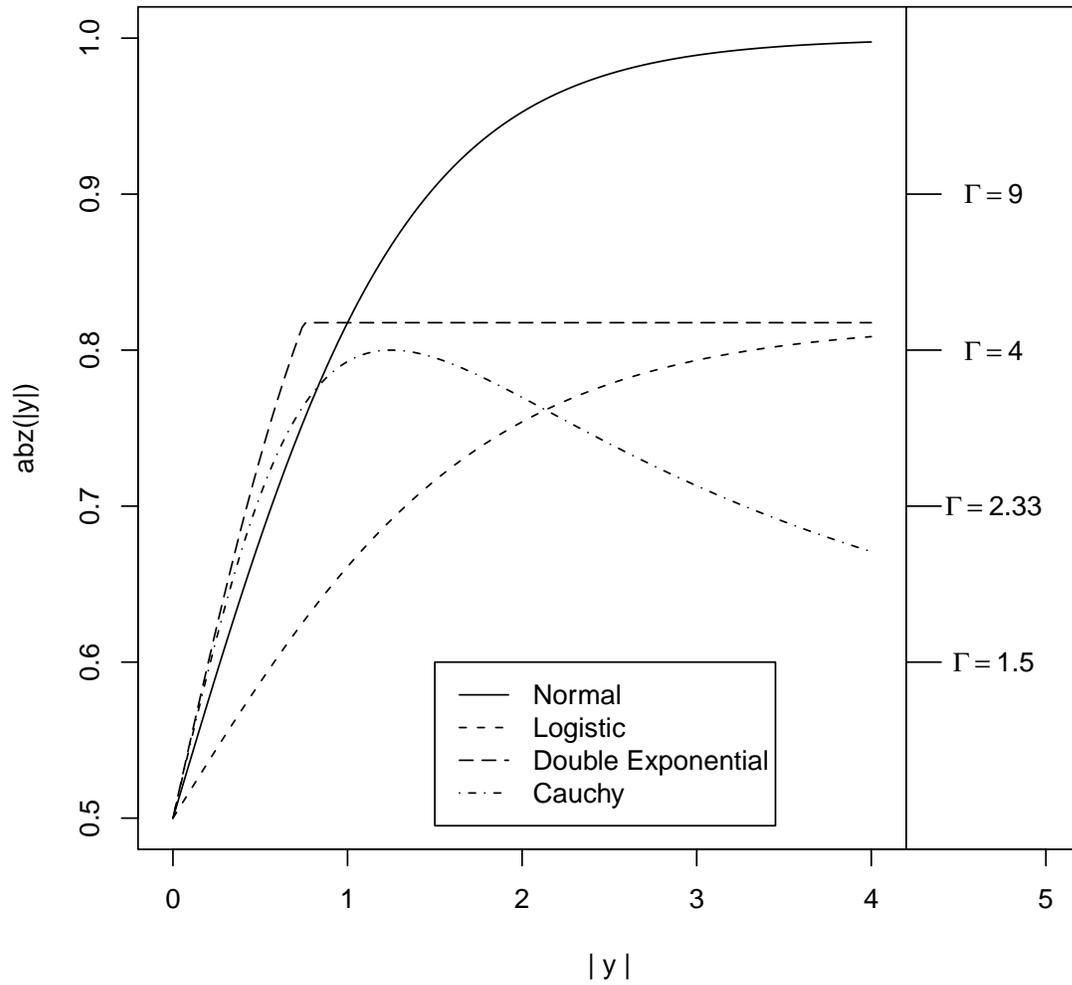


Figure 2: Conditionally given various values of  $|Y_i|$ , the figure shows the probability of a positive treatment-minus-control difference,  $Y_i > 0$ , for an additive treatment effect  $\tau = \frac{3}{4}$  in the standard forms of four distributions.

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- What you should do with large  $|Y_i|$  depends on the distribution  $G$  which you typically do not know.

# Stephenson's test: useful when only some people respond to treatment

- **A Lehmann alternative:** Control responses  $r_{Cij} \sim F(\cdot)$ , treated responses as  $r_{Tij} \sim (1 - \lambda) F(\cdot) + \lambda \{F(\cdot)\}^m$ , so only a fraction  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$  respond to treatment.

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- **Stephenson (1981):** Based on other considerations, Stephenson had proposed use of ranks that are essentially the same for large  $I$ , and have the advantage of permitting a confidence interval for the magnitude of effect; see Rosenbaum (2007).

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- **A Lehmann alternative:** Control responses  $r_{Cij} \sim F(\cdot)$ , treated responses as  $r_{Tij} \sim (1 - \lambda) F(\cdot) + \lambda \{F(\cdot)\}^m$ , so only a fraction  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$  respond to treatment.
- **Conover and Salsburg (1988):** Found the locally most powerful rank test for this problem as  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ .
- **Stephenson (1981):** Based on other considerations, Stephenson had proposed use of ranks that are essentially the same for large  $I$ , and have the advantage of permitting a confidence interval for the magnitude of effect; see Rosenbaum (2007).
- **The U-statistic:** is Stephenson's statistic for  $(m, \underline{m}, \overline{m}) = (m, m, m)$ . That is, look at the sign of  $Y_i$  for the one pair of  $m$  with the largest  $|Y_i|$ .

# Testing one hypothesis twice

- **How should one select  $(m, \underline{m}, \overline{m})$ ?** Have seen that the sign test  $(1, 1, 1)$  and Wilcoxon's test  $(2, 2, 2)$  are poor choices for  $\Gamma > 1$ . Some good choices are  $(m, \underline{m}, \overline{m}) = (8, 7, 8)$  and  $(20, 14, 20)$  for general use, and  $(20, 16, 19)$  for thicker tails with larger samples  $I$ .

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- **Testing one hypothesis twice:** Use more than one test statistic and correct for multiple testing.
- **Bonferroni:** Obviously, one could perform two tests (i.e., two sensitivity analyses at  $\Gamma$ ) of the same null hypothesis of no treatment effect  $H_0$ , rejecting  $H_0$  if the smaller of the two (upper bounds on)  $P$ -values is at most  $\alpha = 0.025$ . This would control the chance of falsely rejecting  $H_0$  at  $\alpha = 0.05$  in the presence of a bias of at most  $\Gamma$ . This is ok, but we can do much better.

# Two ways to work with the joint sensitivity distribution

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- **Large sample approximation null sensitivity distribution:** For many statistics, a large sample multivariate Normal approximation to the joint sensitivity distribution is available for each  $\Gamma \geq 1$ . (Rosenbaum 2012 Biometrika).

# Choice of test statistic affects reported sensitivity to bias

**Table:** Five tests of no effect, using Wilcoxon's test on lead levels, (8,7,8) and (8,6,7) on lead levels and on logs of lead levels. Tabled are upper bound on the one-sided  $P$ -value testing no treatment effect for the given value of  $\Gamma$ .

$\Gamma$	Wilcoxon	U-statistic		U-statistic on logs	
		(8,7,8)	(8,6,7)	(8,7,8)	(8,6,7)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.5	0.016	0.026	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.8	0.147	0.119	0.015	0.000	0.001
3	—	—	0.050	0.001	0.004
3.4	—	—	—	0.009	0.041
3.6	—	—	—	0.022	0.095

# Testing one hypothesis four times, correcting for multiple testing

**Table:** Testing one hypothesis four times, correcting for multiple testing. The combined test uses both U-statistics on both lead levels and logs of lead levels. Tabled are upper bound on the one-sided  $P$ -value testing no treatment effect for the given value of  $\Gamma$ .

$\Gamma$	Testing 4-times	U-statistic		U-statistic on logs	
		(8,7,8)	(8,6,7)	(8,7,8)	(8,6,7)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.5	0.000	0.026	0.000	0.000	0.000
2.8	0.000	0.119	0.015	0.000	0.001
3	0.003	–	0.050	0.001	0.004
3.4	0.022	–	–	0.009	0.041
3.6	0.049	–	–	0.022	0.095

## Two test statistics and their respective bounds

- Suppose there are two tests of  $H_0$  using the same  $Y_i$  but different scores,  $T = \sum_{i=1}^I \text{sgn}(Y_i) q_i$  and  $T' = \sum_{i=1}^I \text{sgn}(Y_i) q'_i$ , where  $q_i \geq 0$  and  $q'_i \geq 0$ .

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- It is important here that  $T$  and  $T'$  both receive a nonnegative contribution whenever  $\operatorname{sgn}(Y_i) = 1$  or  $Y_i \geq 0$ .

## Two test statistics and their respective bounds

- Suppose there are two tests of  $H_0$  using the same  $Y_i$  but different scores,  $T = \sum_{i=1}^l \operatorname{sgn}(Y_i) q_i$  and  $T' = \sum_{i=1}^l \operatorname{sgn}(Y_i) q'_i$ , where  $q_i \geq 0$  and  $q'_i \geq 0$ .
- It is important here that  $T$  and  $T'$  both receive a nonnegative contribution whenever  $\operatorname{sgn}(Y_i) = 1$  or  $Y_i \geq 0$ .
- In the sensitivity analysis, there are now two upper bound random variables,  $\overline{\overline{T}}$  and  $\overline{\overline{T}'}$ , which are each the sum of  $l$  independent random variables, both taking the value 0 with probability  $1/(1 + \Gamma)$  or else the values  $q_i$  and  $q'_i$  with probability  $\Gamma/(1 + \Gamma)$ .

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- Under mild conditions on the scores,  $q_i$  and  $q'_i$ , as  $l \rightarrow \infty$ , the joint distribution of  $\overline{\overline{T}}$  and  $\overline{\overline{T}'}$  tends to a bivariate Normal distribution.

# The maximum of two standardized deviates

- To repeat, there are two tests of  $H_0$  using the same  $Y_i$  but different scores,  $T = \sum_{i=1}^I \text{sgn}(Y_i) q_i$  and  $T' = \sum_{i=1}^I \text{sgn}(Y_i) q'_i$ , where  $q_i \geq 0$  and  $q'_i \geq 0$ .

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- So we need a bound on the distribution of this quantity.

## The respective bounds provide the joint bound

- The bounding statistics  $(\overline{\overline{T}}, \overline{\overline{T}'})$  are jointly stochastically larger than  $(T, T')$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \left\{ \max \left( \frac{\overline{\overline{T}} - \mu_{\Gamma}}{\omega_{\Gamma}}, \frac{\overline{\overline{T}'} - \mu'_{\Gamma}}{\omega'_{\Gamma}} \right) \geq k \mid \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z} \right\} & (4) \\ & \geq \Pr \left\{ \max \left( \frac{T - \mu_{\Gamma}}{\omega_{\Gamma}}, \frac{T' - \mu'_{\Gamma}}{\omega'_{\Gamma}} \right) \geq k \mid \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{Z} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

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- For all  $\Gamma \geq 1$ , the correlation between  $\overline{\overline{T}}$  and  $\overline{\overline{T}'}$  is the same, not dependent on  $\Gamma$ , namely  $\rho = \sum_{i=1}^l q_i q'_i / \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^l q_i^2 \sum_{i=1}^l q_i'^2}$ .

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- Consider a bivariate Normal distribution with expectations 0, variances 1, and correlation  $\rho$ . Let  $1 - Y_{\rho}(k)$  be the probability that both coordinates of this distribution are less than  $k$ . (In R, calculate  $Y_{\rho}(k)$  using the `mvtnorm` package.) Then as  $l \rightarrow \infty$  for given  $\Gamma$ , the left side of (4) tends to  $Y_{\rho}(k)$ .

# Design sensitivity of the joint procedure

## Lemma

If  $T$  has design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma}$  and  $T'$  has design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma}'$ , then

$$\max \left( \frac{T - \mu_{\Gamma}}{\omega_{\Gamma}}, \frac{T' - \mu'_{\Gamma}}{\omega'_{\Gamma}} \right)$$

has design sensitivity  $\max(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\Gamma}')$ .

- This is consistent with what we saw in the example. The corrected multiple test was almost as insensitive to unmeasured bias as the best of four individual procedures.

# Proof of the lemma

## Lemma

*If  $T$  has design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma}$  and  $T'$  has design sensitivity  $\tilde{\Gamma}'$ , then testing twice has design sensitivity  $\max(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\Gamma}')$ .*

## Proof.

If  $\tilde{\Gamma} \geq \tilde{\Gamma}'$ , then the power of the test based on  $T$  is tending to 1 for any nonzero level in a sensitivity analysis with  $\Gamma < \tilde{\Gamma}$ , so for sufficiently large  $I$ , with arbitrarily high probability, the deviate  $(T - \mu_\Gamma) / \omega_\Gamma$  will be greater than  $k$  such that  $Y_\rho(k) = \alpha$ , so the multiple test procedure will reject  $H_0$ . Analogously, for  $\Gamma > \tilde{\Gamma}$ , the power based on  $T$  and  $T'$  is tending to 0. So the design sensitivity is  $\tilde{\Gamma} = \max(\tilde{\Gamma}, \tilde{\Gamma}')$ . The proof for  $\tilde{\Gamma} \leq \tilde{\Gamma}'$  is parallel. □

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- The paper considered 12 test statistics (different tests, different scores, using lead levels or logs of lead levels, weighting or not by the amount smoked). Correction for all 12 tests is almost as insensitive as using the best test.
- The median of the pairwise correlations among the 12 upper bounds was 0.82. With such high correlations, the correction using the joint distribution is much less severe than is the Bonferroni inequality.

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**Table:** Nominal or reported level using the Bonferroni inequality to correct for multiple testing when the true size is 0.05 with an  $L$ -dimensional Normal random variable with equal correlations  $\rho$ .

$L$	Bonferroni's Nominal Level		
	$\rho = 0$	$\rho = 0.8$	$\rho = 0.9$
2	0.051	0.065	0.072
4	0.051	0.086	0.108
6	0.051	0.103	0.137
10	0.051	0.131	0.189

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## Sample splitting, continued

- **Selecting one of several outcomes:** In a sensitivity analysis,  $\Gamma > 1$ , with  $K = 2, 4, 8,$  or  $16$  possible outcomes, a  $10/90$  split of  $I = 1000$  pairs outperforms use of the Bonferroni inequality (although both attain the best design sensitivity). (That is, the sensitivity analysis has higher power).

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- **Testing twice:** In exchange for a small correction for multiple testing, one obtains the design sensitivity of the best of several tests.

## Typically additive effects are similar to additive effects

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- If the treatment typically has an additive effect,  $r_{Tij} - r_{Cij} = \tau + \xi_{ij}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= (Z_{i1} - Z_{i2}) (r_{Ci1} + Z_{i1}\tau + Z_{i1}\xi_{i1} - r_{Ci2} - Z_{i2}\tau) \\ &= \tau + \epsilon'_i \text{ where } \epsilon'_i = \epsilon_i + \xi'_i \end{aligned}$$

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$$\text{and now } \tilde{\zeta}'_i = (Z_{i1}\tilde{\zeta}_{i1} - Z_{i2}\tilde{\zeta}_{i2}).$$

- Because  $\tilde{\zeta}_{ij}$  is independent of everything else and symmetric about 0,  $\tilde{\zeta}'_i = (Z_{i1}\tilde{\zeta}_{i1} - Z_{i2}\tilde{\zeta}_{i2})$  has the same distribution as  $\tilde{\zeta}_{ij}$ , is symmetric about 0, and is independent of the  $Z_{ij}$ .

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$$\text{and now } \xi'_i = (Z_{i1}\xi_{i1} - Z_{i2}\xi_{i2}).$$

- Because  $\xi_{ij}$  is independent of everything else and symmetric about 0,  $\xi'_i = (Z_{i1}\xi_{i1} - Z_{i2}\xi_{i2})$  has the same distribution as  $\xi_{ij}$ , is symmetric about 0, and is independent of the  $Z_{ij}$ .
- If  $H_{\tau_0} : \tau = \tau_0$  were true in a randomized experiment, then  $Y_i - \tau_0 = \epsilon'_i$  would be independent of  $Z_{ij}$  and symmetric about 0, and this is the basis for inference about the (typical) effect  $\tau$ .

## Typically additive effects are similar to additive effects

- Treatment typically has an additive effect,  $r_{Tij} - r_{Cij} = \tau + \xi_{ij}$  where the  $\xi_{ij}$  are mutually independent, independent of everything else, symmetric about 0.
- If the treatment typically has an additive effect,  $r_{Tij} - r_{Cij} = \tau + \xi_{ij}$ , then

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# The new U-statistic

- Fix three integers,  $m, \underline{m}, \bar{m}$  with  $1 \leq \underline{m} \leq \bar{m} \leq m < I$ . Let  $\mathcal{K}$  be the set containing the  $\binom{I}{m}$  sequences  $\mathcal{I} = \langle i_1, \dots, i_m \rangle$  of  $m$  distinct integers  $1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_m \leq I$ , and write  $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{I}} = \langle Y_{i_1}, \dots, Y_{i_m} \rangle$ .

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$$T = \binom{I}{m}^{-1} \sum_{\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{K}} h(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{I}})$$

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- In the new u-statistic,  $h(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{I}})$  is the number of positive differences among  $Y_{[\mathcal{I},\underline{m}]}, \dots, Y_{[\mathcal{I},\bar{m}]}$ , so  $h(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{I}})$  is an integer in  $\{0, 1, \dots, \bar{m} - \underline{m} + 1\}$ .

# Familiar instances of the new U-statistic

- To repeat:  $0 < \left| Y_{[\mathcal{I},1]} \right| < \dots < \left| Y_{[\mathcal{I},m]} \right|$ ,  $h(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{I}})$  is the number of positive differences among  $Y_{[\mathcal{I},m]}, \dots, Y_{[\mathcal{I},\bar{m}]}$ ,

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- **Sign test:** if  $m = \bar{m} = \underline{m} = 1$ , then

$h(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{I}}) = \text{sgn}(Y_{i_1}) = \text{sgn}(Y_{[\mathcal{I},1]})$  and  $T$  is the sign statistic.

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- **Wilcoxon's signed rank:** If  $m = \bar{m} = \underline{m} = 2$ , then

$h(\mathbf{Y}_{\mathcal{I}}) = \text{sgn}(Y_{[\mathcal{I},2]})$ , and  $T$  is the u-statistic that closely approximates Wilcoxon's signed rank statistic (Lehmann 1975, p. 337).

# Familiar instances of the new U-statistic

- To repeat:  $0 < \left| Y_{[I,1]} \right| < \dots < \left| Y_{[I,m]} \right|$ ,  $h(\mathbf{Y}_I)$  is the number of positive differences among  $Y_{[I,m]}, \dots, Y_{[I,\bar{m}]}$ ,  
$$T = \binom{l}{m}^{-1} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{K}} h(\mathbf{Y}_I)$$
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 $h(\mathbf{Y}_I) = \text{sgn}(Y_{[I,2]})$ , and  $T$  is the u-statistic that closely approximates Wilcoxon's signed rank statistic (Lehmann 1975, p. 337).
- **Stephenson's statistic:** If  $m = \bar{m} = \underline{m} \geq 1$ , then  
 $h(\mathbf{Y}_I) = \text{sgn}(Y_{[I,m]})$  and  $T$  is Stephenson's (1981) statistic.  
Excellent power when only a subset of treated subjects respond to treatment; see Conover and Salsburg (1988) and Rosenbaum (2007; 2010a, §16).