

Permutation Tests

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Outline of Notes

1) Introduction to Permutations

- What is a permutation?
- Permutations in R
- Inference via permutations

2) One-Sample Permutations

- Overview
- Monte Carlo procedure
- Examples

3) Two-Sample Permutations

- Overview
- Monte Carlo procedure
- Examples

4) Correlation Permutations

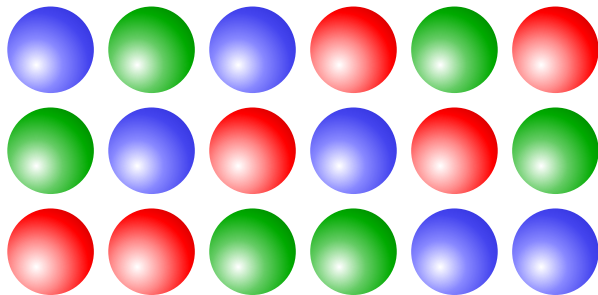
- Overview
- Monte Carlo procedure
- Examples

Introduction to Permutations

Permutation Defined

The word **permutation** refers to the arrangement of a set of objects into some specified order.

Each column is one possible permutation of the three colors:



From https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/4/4c/Permutations_RGB.svg

Permuting a Data Vector

Given a data vector of length $n = 3$, there are 6 possible permutations:

- $\mathbf{x}_{(1)} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$
- $\mathbf{x}_{(2)} = (x_1, x_3, x_2)$
- $\mathbf{x}_{(3)} = (x_2, x_1, x_3)$
- $\mathbf{x}_{(4)} = (x_2, x_3, x_1)$
- $\mathbf{x}_{(5)} = (x_3, x_1, x_2)$
- $\mathbf{x}_{(6)} = (x_3, x_2, x_1)$

More generally, there are $n!$ permutations for a vector of length n .

Generate All Possible Permutations

```
permutations <- function(n) {  
  if(n==1) {  
    return(matrix(1))  
  } else {  
    sp <- permutations(n-1)  
    p <- nrow(sp)  
    A <- matrix(nrow=n*p, ncol=n)  
    for(i in 1:n) {  
      A[(i-1)*p+1:p, ] <- cbind(i, sp+(sp>=i))  
    }  
    return(A)  
  }  
}
```

From <http://stackoverflow.com/questions/11095992/generating-all-distinct-permutations-of-a-list-in-r>

All Possible Permutations Examples

```
> permutations(2)
```

```
      [,1] [,2]  
[1,]    1    2  
[2,]    2    1
```

```
> permutations(3)
```

```
      [,1] [,2] [,3]  
[1,]    1    2    3  
[2,]    1    3    2  
[3,]    2    1    3  
[4,]    2    3    1  
[5,]    3    1    2  
[6,]    3    2    1
```


Generate a Random Permutation

```
> set.seed(1)
> n = 5
> x = seq(0,20,length=n)
> x
[1] 0 5 10 15 20
> x[sample.int(n)]
[1] 5 20 15 10 0
> x[sample.int(n)]
[1] 20 15 5 10 0
```

Note that the `sample.int` function returns a random permutation of the integers 1 to n , where n is the user-specified input.

Why are Permutations Useful for Statistics?

Classic statistical paradigm is:

- collect some data
- form null hypothesis H_0
- design test statistic
- derive sampling distribution of test statistic under H_0

In many cases, the null hypothesis is the **nil hypothesis**, i.e., no effect.

Under the nil hypothesis, all possible outcomes (permutations) are equally likely, so permutations relate to sampling distributions.

Achieved Significance Level

Suppose we have some test statistic $\hat{\theta} = s(\mathbf{x})$, and suppose that larger values of $\hat{\theta}$ provide more evidence against H_0 .

Given $\hat{\theta}$, the **achieved significance level** (ASL) of our test is

$$\text{ASL} = P(\hat{\theta}^* \geq \hat{\theta} \mid H_0 \text{ true})$$

which is the probability of observing a test statistic as or more extreme than $\hat{\theta}$ under the assumption that H_0 is true.

- Can you think of another name for ASL?

One-Sample Permutation Tests

One-Sample (or Paired Sample) Problem

For the one-sample location problem, we have n observations

- $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ if one-sample situation
- $Z_1, \dots, Z_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ with $Z_j = X_j - Y_j$ if paired-sample situation

We want to make inferences about location of the data

- Let F denote the population distribution
- Let θ denote the median of F
- Null hypothesis is $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$
- Three possible alternatives: $H_1 : \theta < \theta_0$, $H_1 : \theta > \theta_0$, $H_1 : \theta \neq \theta_0$,

Permutation Vector and Lemma (1-Sample)

Let $\mathbf{g} = (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n)$ denote the **permutation vector** denoting which observations are above θ_0 ($g_i = 1$) and which are below θ_0 ($g_i = -1$).

- There are 2^n different possible \mathbf{g} vectors (each g_i can be 1 or -1)
- If $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$ is true, then $P(X < \theta_0) = 0.5$ by definition

Permutation Lemma:

Under $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$, the vector \mathbf{g} has probability $1/2^n$ of equaling each of the 2^n different possible outcomes

Permutation Achieved Significance Level (1-Sample)

The **permutation ASL** is the permutation probability that $\hat{\theta}^*$ exceeds $\hat{\theta}$:

$$\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\theta}_b^* \geq \hat{\theta}\} / 2^n$$

where $\{\hat{\theta}_b^*\}_{b=1}^{2^n}$ is the set of all possible test statistics under H_0 .

Note that the above is for the two-sided alternative $H_0 : \theta \neq \theta_0$

- For $H_0 : \theta < \theta_0$, we have $\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\theta}_b^* \leq \hat{\theta}\} / 2^n$
- For $H_0 : \theta > \theta_0$, we have $\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\theta}_b^* \geq \hat{\theta}\} / 2^n$

Problem: when 2^n is large, forming $\hat{\theta}_b^*$ for all 2^n possible \mathbf{g} vectors is computationally expensive.

- Solution: use a Monte Carlo approach!

One-Sample Permutation Test (Monte Carlo)

Procedure for approximating ASL_{perm} using Monte Carlo approach:

- 1 Randomly sample B permutation vectors $\mathbf{g}_1^*, \dots, \mathbf{g}_B^*$
- 2 Evaluate the permutation replication $\hat{\theta}_b^* = s(\mathbf{g}_b^*, \mathbf{x})$ where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the observed vector of data
- 3 Approximate ASL_{perm} using

$$\widehat{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{|\hat{\theta}_b^*| \geq |\hat{\theta}|\} / B$$

This assumes that the statistic $\hat{\theta} = s(\mathbf{g}, \mathbf{x})$ is designed such that larger absolute values provide more evidence against H_0 .

Some Possible Statistics

We want to design some statistic $\hat{\theta}$ such that larger absolute values provide more evidence against H_0 .

If we assume that F is symmetric around θ_0 , then...

- θ_0 is both the median and mean of F under H_0
- Statistic 1: $\hat{\theta} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - \theta_0| g_i = \bar{x}$
- Statistic 2: $\hat{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i 1_{\{g_i=1\}} - \frac{n(n+1)}{4}$ where $R_i = \text{rank}(|x_i - \theta_0|)$

If we drop the symmetry assumption θ_0 , then...

- Statistic 3: $\hat{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n 1_{\{g_i=1\}} - \frac{n}{2}$

One-Sample Permutation Test: R Function

An R function for performing one-sample permutation tests:

```
permlsamp <- function(x,myfun=mean,mu=0,nsamp=10000,  
                      alternative=c("two.sided","less","greater")){  
  x = x - mu  
  n = length(x)  
  theta.hat = myfun(x)  
  gmat = replicate(nsamp,sample(x=c(1,-1),size=n,replace=TRUE))  
  theta.mc = apply(gmat*abs(x),2,myfun)  
  if(alternative[1]=="less"){  
    aslperm = sum(theta.mc <= theta.hat) / nsamp  
  } else if(alternative[1]=="greater"){  
    aslperm = sum(theta.mc >= theta.hat) / nsamp  
  } else{  
    aslperm = sum(abs(theta.mc) >= abs(theta.hat)) / nsamp  
  }  
  list(theta.hat=theta.hat,theta.mc=theta.mc,asl=aslperm)  
}
```

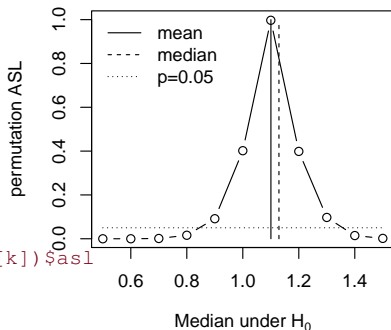
Example using Statistic 1 (sample mean)

```

> set.seed(1)
> n = 50
> x = rnorm(n,mean=1)
> mean(x)
[1] 1.100448
> se = (sd(x)/sqrt(n))
> cv = qt(.975,df=n-1)
> c(mean(x)-cv*se, mean(x)+cv*se)
[1] 0.8641687 1.3367278
> mseq = seq(0.5,1.5,by=0.1)
> pvals = rep(0,length(mseq))
> for(k in 1:length(mseq)){
+   pvals[k] = permsamp(x,mu=mseq[k])$as1
+ }

```

Statistic 1: Sample Mean

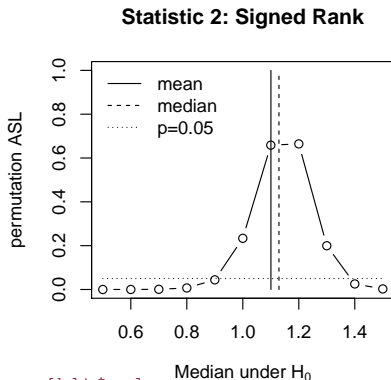


Example using Statistic 2 (signed rank)

```

> set.seed(1)
> n = 50
> x = rnorm(n,mean=1)
> mean(x)
[1] 1.100448
> median(x)
[1] 1.129104
> myfun <- function(x) {
+   n = length(x)
+   rx = rank(abs(x))
+   sum(rx[x>0]) - n*(n+1)/4
+ }
> mseq = seq(0.5, 1.5, by=0.1)
> pvals = rep(0, length(mseq))
> for(k in 1:length(mseq)) {
+   pvals[k] = permsamp(x, myfun, mu=mseq[k])$asl
+ }

```



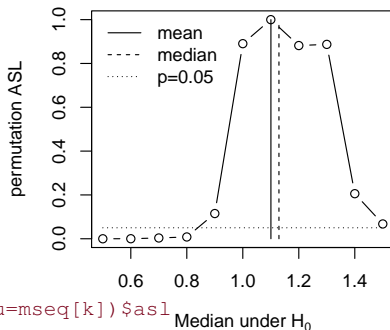
Example using Statistic 3 (sign)

```

> set.seed(1)
> n = 50
> x = rnorm(n,mean=1)
> mean(x)
[1] 1.100448
> median(x)
[1] 1.129104
> myfun <- function(x) {
+   n = length(x)
+   sum(x>0) - n/2
+ }
> mseq = seq(0.5, 1.5, by=0.1)
> pvals = rep(0, length(mseq))
> for(k in 1:length(mseq)) {
+   pvals[k] = permsamp(x, myfun, mu=mseq[k])$asl
+ }

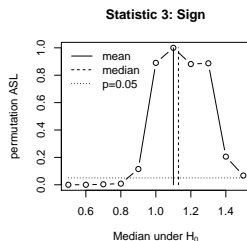
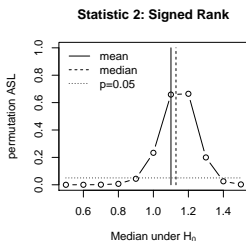
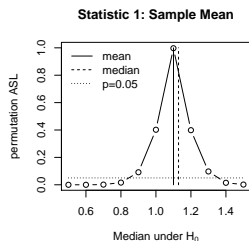
```

Statistic 3: Sign



Comparing the Statistics

Note that as our test statistic uses less information, it becomes more robust (good thing) at the cost of losing power (bad thing):



Two-Sample Permutation Tests

Two-Sample Problem

For the two-sample location problem, we have $N = m + n$ observations

- X_1, \dots, X_m are iid random sample from population 1
- Y_1, \dots, Y_n are iid random sample from population 2

We want to make inferences about difference in distributions

- Let F_1 and F_2 denote distributions of populations 1 and 2
- Null hypothesis is same distribution
 $\Leftrightarrow H_0 : F_1(z) = F_2(z)$ for all z
- Alternative hypothesis is different distribution
 $\Leftrightarrow H_1 : F_1(z) \neq F_2(z)$ for some z

Permutation Vector and Lemma (2-Sample)

Let $\mathbf{g} = (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_N)$ denote the **permutation vector** denoting which observation belongs to which group.

- Note that \mathbf{g} contains m X-group labels and n Y-group labels
- g_i denotes group membership of z_i , where z_i is i -th observation for combined sample of N observations
- There are $\binom{N}{n}$ different possible \mathbf{g} vectors

Permutation Lemma:

Under $H_0 : F_1(z) = F_2(z) \forall z$, the vector \mathbf{g} has probability $1/\binom{N}{n} = \frac{m!n!}{N!}$ of equaling each of the $\binom{N}{n} = \frac{N!}{m!n!}$ different possible outcomes

Permutation Achieved Significance Level (2-Sample)

The **permutation ASL** is the permutation probability that $\hat{\theta}^*$ exceeds $\hat{\theta}$:

$$\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\theta}_b^* \geq |\hat{\theta}|\} / \binom{N}{n}$$

where $\{\hat{\theta}_b^*\}_{b=1}^{\binom{N}{n}}$ is the set of all possible test statistics under H_0 .

Note that the above is for the two-sided alternative $H_0 : \theta \neq \theta_0$

- For $H_0 : \theta < \theta_0$, we have $\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\theta}_b^* \leq \hat{\theta}\} / \binom{N}{n}$
- For $H_0 : \theta > \theta_0$, we have $\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\theta}_b^* \geq \hat{\theta}\} / \binom{N}{n}$

Problem: when $\binom{N}{n}$ is large, forming $\hat{\theta}_b^*$ for all $\binom{N}{n}$ possible \mathbf{g} vectors is computationally expensive.

- Solution: use a Monte Carlo approach!

Two-Sample Permutation Test (Monte Carlo)

Procedure for approximating ASL_{perm} using Monte Carlo approach:

- 1 Randomly sample B permutation vectors $\mathbf{g}_1^*, \dots, \mathbf{g}_B^*$
- 2 Evaluate the permutation replication $\hat{\theta}_b^* = s(\mathbf{g}_b^*, \mathbf{z})$ where $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_N)$ is the observed vector of combined data
- 3 Approximate ASL_{perm} using

$$\widehat{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{|\hat{\theta}_b^*| \geq |\hat{\theta}|\} / B$$

This assumes that the statistic $\hat{\theta} = s(\mathbf{g}, \mathbf{z})$ is designed such that larger absolute values provide more evidence against H_0 .

- Statistic 1: $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x} - \bar{y}$
- Statistic 2: $\hat{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^N R_i 1_{\{g_i=1\}} - \frac{m(N+1)}{2}$ where $R_i = \text{rank}(|z_i - \theta_0|)$
- Statistic 3: $\hat{\theta} = \log(\hat{\sigma}_x^2 / \hat{\sigma}_y^2)$

Two-Sample Permutation Test: R Function

An R function for performing two-sample permutation tests:

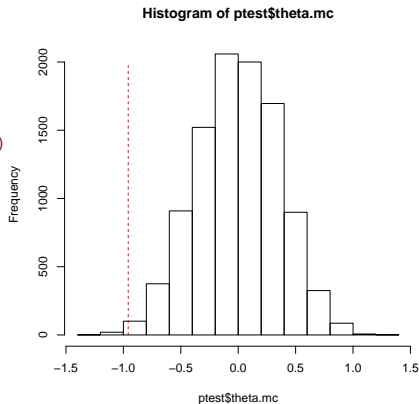
```
meandif <- function(x,y) mean(x) - mean(y)
perm2samp <- function(x,y,myfun=meandif,nsamp=10000,
                      alternative=c("two.sided","less","greater")){
  theta.hat = myfun(x,y)
  m = length(x)
  n = length(y)
  N = m + n
  z = c(x,y)
  gmat = replicate(nsamp,sample.int(N,m))
  theta.mc = apply(gmat,2,function(g,z){myfun(z[g],z[-g])},z=z)
  if(alternative[1]=="less"){
    aslperm = sum(theta.mc <= theta.hat) / nsamp
  } else if(alternative[1]=="greater"){
    aslperm = sum(theta.mc >= theta.hat) / nsamp
  } else{
    aslperm = sum(abs(theta.mc) >= abs(theta.hat)) / nsamp
  }
  list(theta.hat=theta.hat,theta.mc=theta.mc,asl=aslperm)
}
```

Example using Statistic 1 (mean difference)

```

> set.seed(1)
> x = rnorm(15)
> y = rnorm(20, mean=1)
> choose(35, 15)
[1] 3247943160
> myfun=function(x, y) mean(x) - mean(y)
> myfun(x, y)
[1] -0.9578472
> mean(x) - mean(y)
[1] -0.9578472
> ptest = tsperm(x, y, myfun)
> ptest$theta.hat
[1] -0.9578472
> ptest$asl
[1] 0.0042
> hist(ptest$theta.mc)
> lines(rep(ptest$theta.hat, 2), c(0, 2000), col="red", lty=2)

```

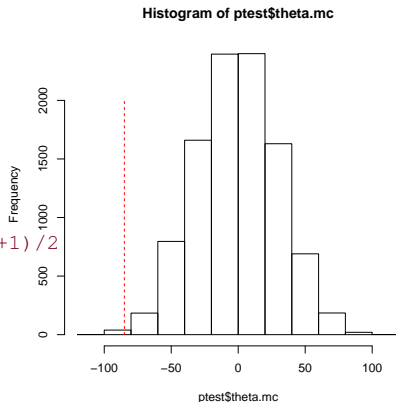


Example using Statistic 2 (rank sum)

```

> set.seed(1)
> x = rnorm(15)
> y = rnorm(20, mean=1)
> choose(35, 15)
[1] 3247943160
> myfun = function(x, y) {
+   m = length(x)
+   n = length(y)
+   rx = rank(c(x, y))
+   sum(rx[seq(along=x)]) - m*(m+n+1)/2
+ }
> myfun(x, y)
[1] -85
> ptest = perm2samp(x, y, myfun)
> ptest$theta.hat
[1] -85
> ptest$asl
[1] 0.0039
> hist(ptest$theta.mc)
> lines(rep(ptest$theta.hat, 2), c(0, 2000), col="red", lty=2)

```

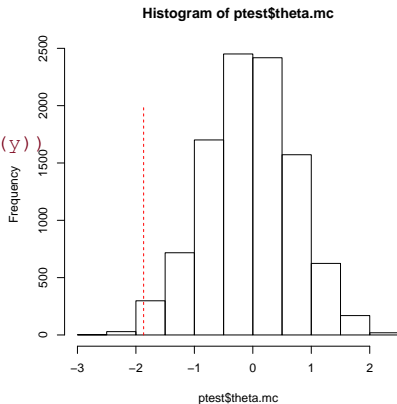


Example using Statistic 3 (log variance ratio)

```

> set.seed(1)
> x = rnorm(15)
> y = rnorm(20, sd=3)
> choose(35, 15)
[1] 3247943160
> myfun=function(x,y) log(var(x)/var(y))
> myfun(x,y)
[1] -1.867756
> log(var(x)/var(y))
[1] -1.867756
> ptest = tsperm(x,y,myfun)
> ptest$theta.hat
[1] -1.867756
> ptest$asl
[1] 0.01
> hist(ptest$theta.mc)
> lines(rep(ptest$theta.hat, 2), c(0, 2000), col="red", lty=2)

```



Correlation Permutation Tests

Association/Correlation Problem

Suppose we have paired data $(X_i, Y_i) \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, where F is some bivariate distribution.

Question: are X and Y statistically associated with one another?

- X and Y are independent if and only if $F_{XY}(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y)$
- If X and Y are correlated/associated, they are dependent
- Null hypothesis is $H_0 : \rho = 0$ where $\rho = \text{cor}(X, Y)$
- Different definitions of ρ measure different types of association

How can we use a permutation test to answer this question?

Permutation Vector and Lemma (Correlation)

Let $\mathbf{g} = (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n)$ denote the **permutation vector** which contains the integers $\{1, \dots, n\}$ in some order.

- There are $n!$ different possible \mathbf{g} vectors (orderings of y_i)
- If $H_0 : \rho = 0$ is true, then reordering of y_i doesn't affect correlation

Permutation Lemma:

Under $H_0 : \rho = 0$, the vector \mathbf{g} has probability $1/n!$ of equaling each of the $n!$ different possible outcomes

Permutation Achieved Significance Level (Correlation)

The **permutation ASL** is the permutation probability that $\hat{\rho}^*$ exceeds $\hat{\rho}$:

$$\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{|\hat{\rho}_b^*| \geq |\hat{\rho}|\} / n!$$

where $\{\hat{\rho}_b^*\}_{b=1}^{n!}$ is the set of all possible test statistics under H_0 .

Note that the above is for the two-sided alternative $H_0 : \rho \neq 0$

- For $H_0 : \rho < 0$, we have $\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\rho}_b^* \leq \hat{\rho}\} / n!$
- For $H_0 : \rho > 0$, we have $\text{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{\hat{\rho}_b^* \geq \hat{\rho}\} / n!$

Problem: when $n!$ is large, forming $\hat{\theta}_b^*$ for all $n!$ possible \mathbf{g} vectors is computationally expensive.

- Solution: use a Monte Carlo approach!

Correlation Permutation Test (Monte Carlo)

Procedure for approximating ASL_{perm} using Monte Carlo approach:

- 1 Randomly sample B permutation vectors $\mathbf{g}_1^*, \dots, \mathbf{g}_B^*$
- 2 Evaluate the permutation replication $\hat{\rho}_b^* = \text{cor}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_b)$ where \mathbf{x} is the observed vector and \mathbf{y}_b is b -th permuted copy of \mathbf{y}
- 3 Approximate ASL_{perm} using

$$\widehat{ASL}_{\text{perm}} = \#\{|\hat{\rho}_b^*| \geq |\hat{\rho}|\} / B$$

This assumes that the correlation statistic $\hat{\rho} = \text{cor}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is designed such that larger absolute values provide more evidence against H_0 .

- Could use any reasonable correlation measure
- Popular choices include Pearson, Spearman, and Kendall

Correlation Permutation Test: R Function

An R function for performing correlation permutation tests:

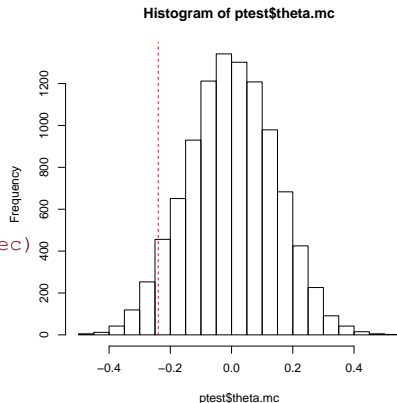
```
permcor <- function(x,y,method="pearson",nsamp=10000,  
                   alternative=c("two.sided","less","greater")){  
  n = length(x)  
  if(n!=length(y)) stop("lengths of x and y must match")  
  theta.hat = cor(x,y,method=method)  
  gmat = replicate(nsamp,sample.int(n))  
  theta.mc = apply(gmat,2,function(g)cor(x,y[g],method=method))  
  if(alternative[1]=="less"){  
    aslperm = sum(theta.mc <= theta.hat) / nsamp  
  } else if(alternative[1]=="greater"){  
    aslperm = sum(theta.mc >= theta.hat) / nsamp  
  } else{  
    aslperm = sum(abs(theta.mc) >= abs(theta.hat)) / nsamp  
  }  
  list(theta.hat=theta.hat,theta.mc=theta.mc,asl=aslperm)  
}
```

Example using Statistic 1 (Pearson)

```

> set.seed(1)
> n = 50
> x = rnorm(n)
> y = rnorm(n)
> rho = -0.2
> Amat = matrix(c(1, rho, rho, 1), 2, 2)
> Aeig = eigen(Amat, symmetric=TRUE)
> evec = Aeig$vec
> evalsqrt = diag(Aeig$val^0.5)
> Asqrt = evec %*% evalsqrt %*% t(evec)
> z = cbind(x, y) %*% Asqrt
> x = z[,1]
> y = z[,2]
> ptest = permcor(x, y)
> ptest$asl
[1] 0.0966
> hist(ptest$theta.mc)
> lines(rep(ptest$theta.hat, 2), c(0, 2000), col="red", lty=2)

```

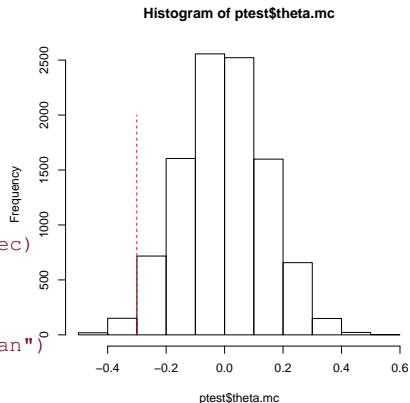


Example using Statistic 2 (Spearman)

```

> set.seed(1)
> n = 50
> x = rnorm(n)
> y = rnorm(n)
> rho = -0.2
> Amat = matrix(c(1, rho, rho, 1), 2, 2)
> Aeig = eigen(Amat, symmetric=TRUE)
> evec = Aeig$vec
> evalsqrt = diag(Aeig$val^0.5)
> Asqrt = evec %*% evalsqrt %*% t(evec)
> z = cbind(x, y) %*% Asqrt
> x = z[,1]
> y = z[,2]
> ptest = permcor(x, y, method="spearman")
> ptest$asl
[1] 0.0338
> hist(ptest$theta.mc)
> lines(rep(ptest$theta.hat, 2), c(0, 2000), col="red", lty=2)

```



Example using Statistic 3 (Kendall)

```

> set.seed(1)
> n = 50
> x = rnorm(n)
> y = rnorm(n)
> rho = -0.2
> Amat = matrix(c(1, rho, rho, 1), 2, 2)
> Aeig = eigen(Amat, symmetric=TRUE)
> evec = Aeig$vec
> evalsqrt = diag(Aeig$val^0.5)
> Asqrt = evec %*% evalsqrt %*% t(evec)
> z = cbind(x, y) %*% Asqrt
> x = z[,1]
> y = z[,2]
> ptest = permcor(x, y, method="kendall")
> ptest$asl
[1] 0.0247
> hist(ptest$theta.mc)
> lines(rep(ptest$theta.hat, 2), c(0, 2000), col="red", lty=2)

```

