

Testing One Hypothesis Twice in Observational Studies

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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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- **Observational study:** Study of treatment effects when subjects are not randomized to treatment or control.
- **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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- 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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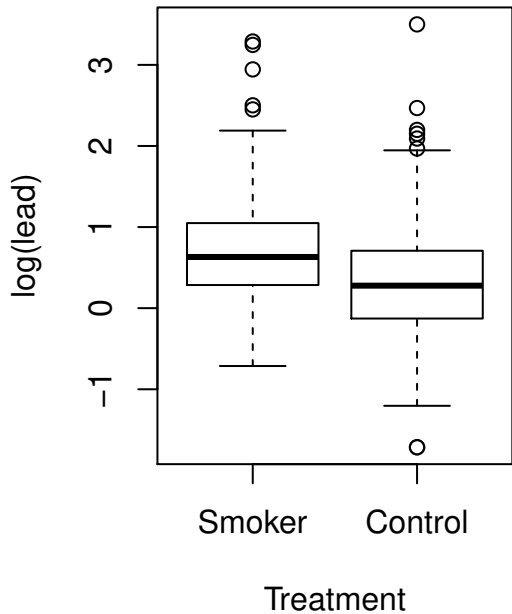
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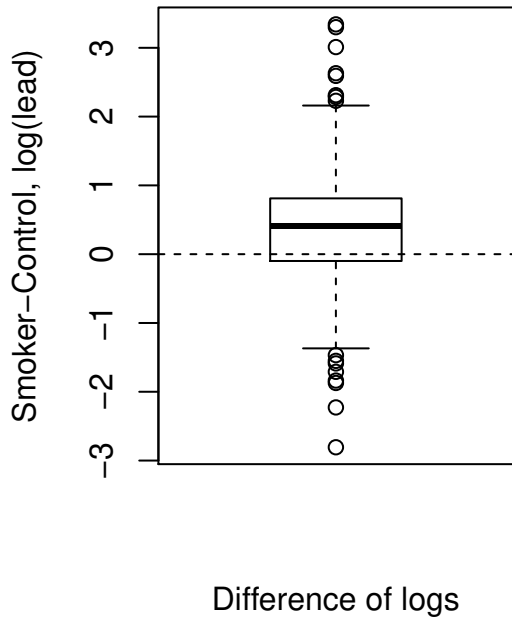
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- **Matched for:** Gender, age, race, education level, household income level, \mathbf{x}_{ij} , $\mathbf{x}_{i1} = \mathbf{x}_{i2}$.
- **Sensitivity to:** an unobserved covariate u_{ij} , possibly with $u_{i1} \neq u_{i2}$.

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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- Randomized paired experiment, Z_{i1} , $i = 1, \dots, l$, determined by l independent flips of a coin.
- 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?

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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 ξ_{ij} are mutually independent, independent of everything else, symmetric about 0.)

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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 \bar{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 \bar{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 $\Gamma \geq 1$:

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

with equality for $\Gamma = 1$. Bounds attained for particular π_{ij} .

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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

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- **General 1:** Look at every subset of m pairs. Sort the m pair differences Y_i into increasing order by their absolute values, $|Y_i|$.
- **General 2:** In this order, count the number of positive Y_i among those numbered $\underline{m}, \underline{m} + 1, \dots, \bar{m}$. Average over all $\binom{I}{m}$ subsets.

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- **General 2:** In this order, count the number of positive Y_i among those numbered $\underline{m}, \underline{m} + 1, \dots, \bar{m}$. Average over all $\binom{I}{m}$ subsets.
- **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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Γ	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

Additional sensitivity analyses for the NHANES data about blood lead levels

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(20,16,19)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0009	0.0116	0.0344

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

where

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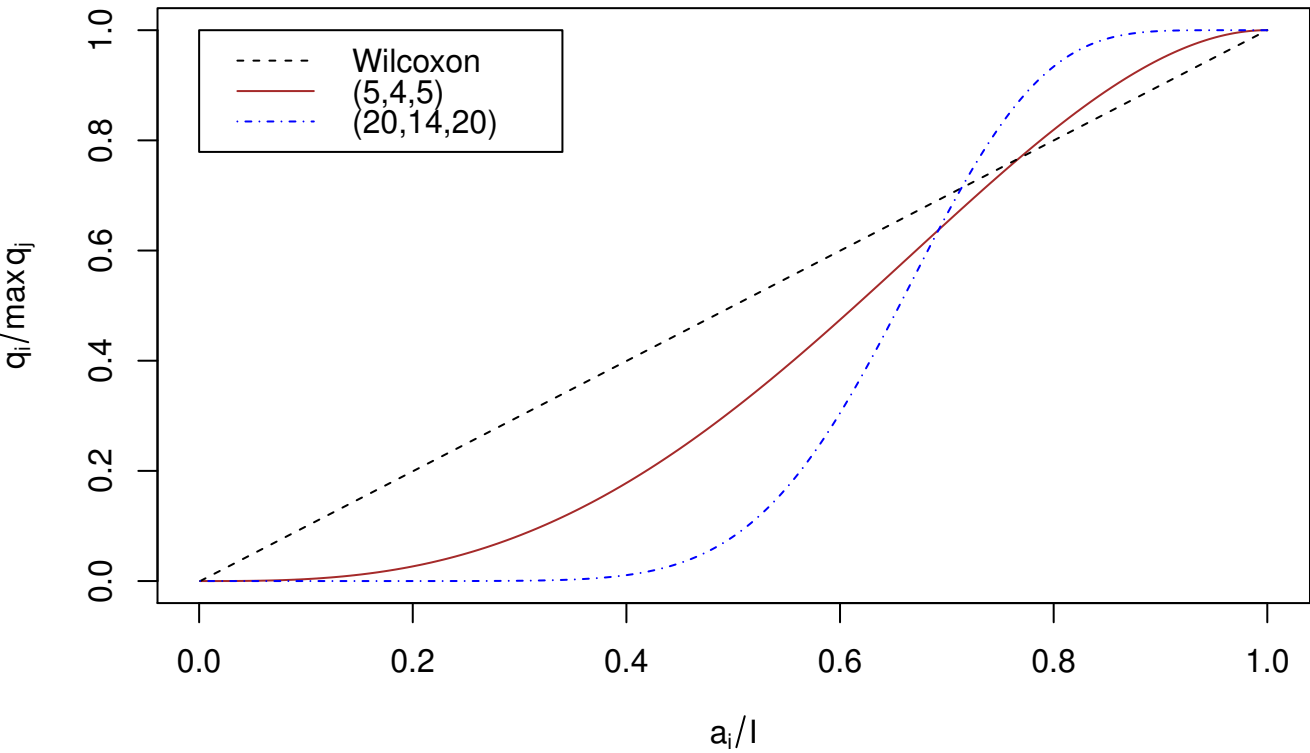
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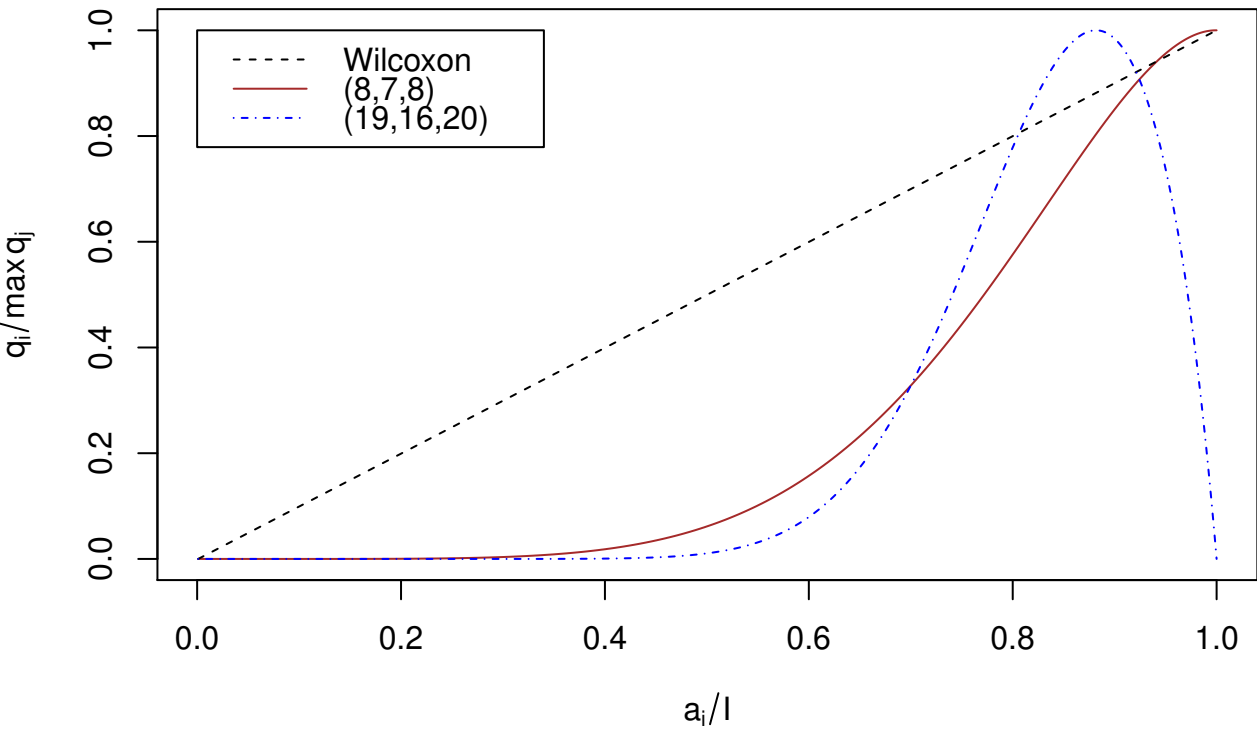
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- Will plot $q_i / \max q_j$ against a_i / l .





Power of sensitivity analysis

- 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 α is insensitive to small and moderate bias as measured by Γ . 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 α at this Γ 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 ϵ_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 τ 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	0.65
(8,7,8)	0.63	0.74	0.57
(20,14,20)	0.53	0.74	0.65
(20,16,19)	0.52	0.69	0.61

- **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 α -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 $\tilde{\Gamma} = 6.8$.

Design sensitivity

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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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- **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 τ . 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)	5.1	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	5.6	10.1	7.8

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

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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 Γ .

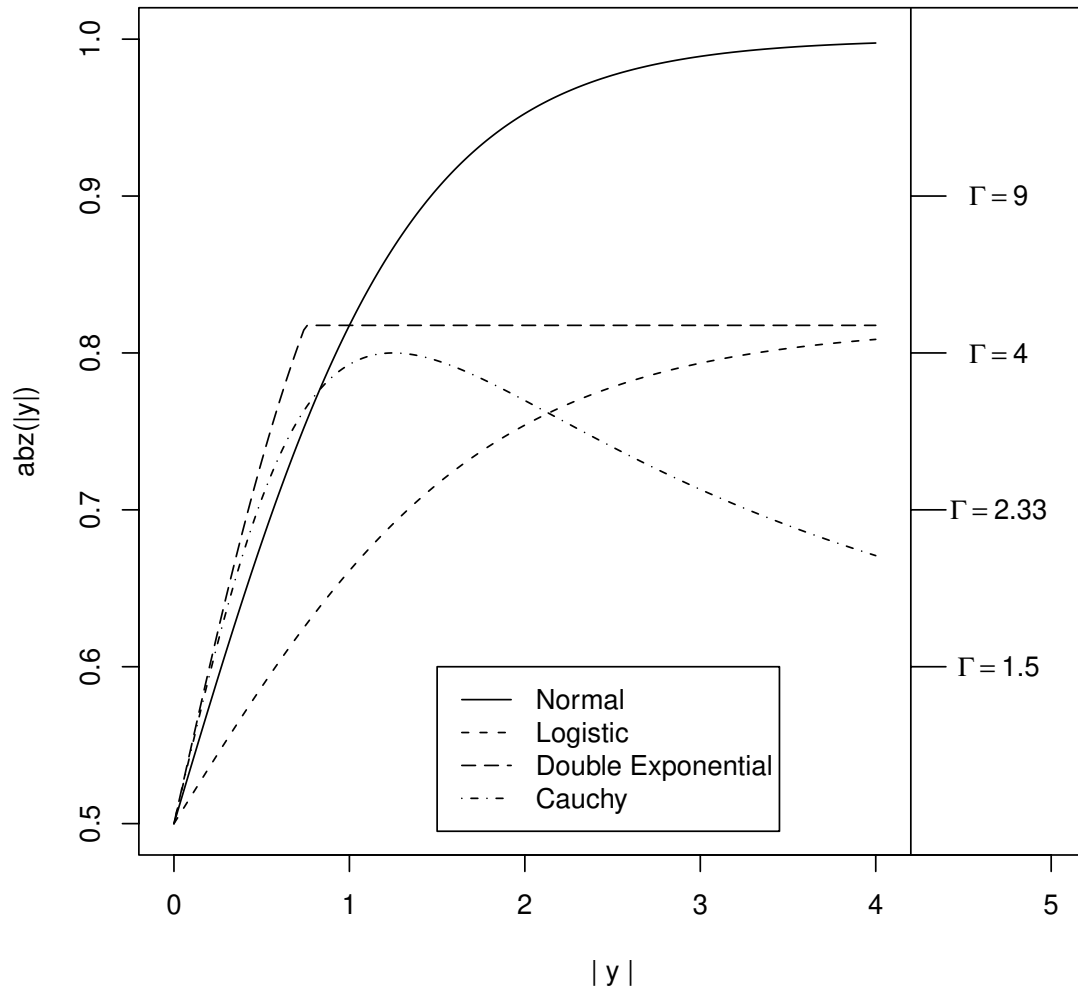


Figure 2: Conditionally given various values of $|Y_i|$, the figure shows the probability of a positive treatment-minus-control difference, $Y_i > 0$, for an additive treatment effect $\tau = \frac{3}{4}$ in the standard forms of four distributions.

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- Nonetheless, the heuristic graph suggest little weight should be given to small $|Y_i|$.
- 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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- **The U-statistic:** is Stephenson's statistic for $(m, \underline{m}, \bar{m}) = (m, m, m)$. 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 Γ) 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 Γ . This is ok, but we can do much better.

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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 Γ .

Γ	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 Γ .

Γ	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 $q'_i \geq 0$.
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- 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 $I \rightarrow \infty$, the joint distribution of $\overline{\overline{T}}$ and $\overline{\overline{T}'}$ tends to a bivariate Normal distribution.

The maximum of two standardized deviates

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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 $(\bar{\bar{T}}, \bar{\bar{T}}')$ are jointly stochastically larger than (T, T') , so

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

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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 Γ , 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 ρ . 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 Γ , 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 ρ .

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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- **Weighted combination of several outcomes:** In a sensitivity analysis, $\Gamma > 1$, with $K = 8$ outcomes, a $10/90$ split of 1000 pairs to determine a weighted combination of outcomes outperformed (i) use of the Bonferroni inequality (except when only one outcome was affected, and then the difference was small), (ii) a fixed weighting (except when the fixed weighting of $K = 8$ outcomes coincided with the optimal weighting).

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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.

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where, as before, $\epsilon_i = (Z_{i1} - Z_{i2}) (r_{Ci1} - r_{Ci2})$,

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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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- A U-statistic (Hoeffding 1948) has the form

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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

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

- **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).

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

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

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

- **Stephenson's statistic:** If $m = \bar{m} = \underline{m} \geq 1$, then

$$h(\mathbf{Y}_I) = \text{sgn}(Y_{[I,m]}) \text{ and } T \text{ is Stephenson's (1981) statistic.}$$

Excellent power when only a subset of treated subjects respond to treatment; see Conover and Salsburg (1988) and Rosenbaum (2007; 2010a, §16).