Statistical Inference Lecture Nine

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Overview of Lecture Nine

Previously, we introduced confidence procedures and the *p*-value.

- Confidence procedure: A random set $C(X) \subset \Theta$ is a level- (1α) confidence procedure exactly when $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X) | \theta) \geq 1 \alpha$.
- Family of confidence procedures: occurs when $C(X; \alpha)$ is a level- (1α) confidence procedure for every $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.
- A *p*-value p(X) is a statistic satisfying, for every $\alpha \in [0,1]$, $\mathbb{P}(p(X) \le \alpha \mid \theta) \le \alpha$. It is super-uniform.

In Lecture Nine we'll look at significance procedures and duality.

- $p: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a significance procedure for $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ exactly when p(X) is super-uniform under θ_0 .
- We'll show there is a duality between significance procedures and confidence procedures.
- We'll show how to construct a family of significance procedures and how to use simulation to compute the family.

• We now define a significance procedure. Note the similarities with the definitions of a confidence procedure which are not coincidental.

Definition (Significance procedure)

- **1** $p: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a significance procedure for $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ exactly when p(X) is super-uniform under θ_0 . If p(X) is uniform under θ_0 , then p is an exact significance procedure for θ_0 .
- ② For X = x, p(x) is a significance level or (observed) p-value for θ_0 exactly when p is a significance procedure for θ_0 .
- ③ $p: \mathcal{X} \times \Theta \to \mathbb{R}$ is a family of significance procedures exactly when $p(x; \theta_0)$ is a significance procedure for θ_0 for every $\theta_0 \in \Theta$.
 - We now show that there is a duality between significance procedures and confidence procedures.

Duality Theorem

 \bullet Let p be a family of significance procedures. Then

$$C(x; \alpha) := \{\theta \in \Theta : p(x; \theta) > \alpha\}$$

is a nesting family of confidence procedures.

② Conversely, let C be a nesting family of confidence procedures. Then

$$p(x; \theta_0) := \inf\{\alpha : \theta_0 \notin C(x; \alpha)\}$$

is a family of significance procedures.

If either is exact, then the other is exact as well.

Proof

• If p is a family of significance procedures then for any $\theta \in \Theta$,

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X; \alpha) \mid \theta) = \mathbb{P}(p(X; \theta) > \alpha \mid \theta) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(p(X; \theta) \leq \alpha \mid \theta).$$

Proof continued

- Now, as p is super-uniform for θ then $\mathbb{P}(p(X;\theta) \leq \alpha \mid \theta) \leq \alpha$. Thus, $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X;\alpha) \mid \theta) \geq 1 \alpha$. Hence, $C(X;\alpha)$ is a level- $(1-\alpha)$ confidence procedure.
- If $\alpha' > \alpha$ then if $\theta \in C(x; \alpha')$ we have $p(x; \theta) > \alpha' > \alpha$ and so $\theta \in C(x; \alpha)$ and so C is nesting.
- If p is exact then the inequalities can be replaced by equalities and so
 C is also exact.

We thus have 1.

Now, if C is a nesting family of confidence procedures then^a

$$\inf\{\alpha: \theta_0 \notin C(x; \alpha)\} \leq u \iff \theta_0 \notin C(x; u).$$

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^aHere we're finessing the issue of the boundary of C by assuming that if $\alpha^* := \inf\{\alpha : \theta_0 \notin C(x;\alpha)\}$ then $\theta_0 \notin C(x;\alpha^*)$.

Proof continued

• Let θ_0 and $u \in [0,1]$ be arbitrary. Then,

$$\mathbb{P}(p(X; \theta_0) \le u \mid \theta_0) = \mathbb{P}(\theta_0 \notin C(X; u) \mid \theta_0) \le u$$

as C(X; u) is a level-(1 - u) confidence procedure. Thus, p is super-uniform.

If C is exact, then the inequality is replaced by an equality, and hence
 p is exact as well.

Families of significance procedures

- We now consider a very general way to construct a family of significance procedures.
- We will then show how to use simulation to compute the family.

Theorem

Let $t: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a statistic. For each $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ define

$$p_t(x;\theta_0) := \mathbb{P}(t(X) \geq t(x) | \theta_0).$$

Then p_t is a family of significance procedures. If the distribution function of t(X) is continuous, then p_t is exact.

Proof (Casella and Berger, 2002)

Now

$$p_t(x; \theta_0) = \mathbb{P}(t(X) \ge t(x) | \theta_0) = \mathbb{P}(-t(X) \le -t(x) | \theta_0).$$

- Let F denote the distribution function of Y(X) = -t(X) then $p_t(x; \theta_0) = F(-t(x) | \theta_0)$.
- Assume that t(X) is continuous so that Y(X) = -t(X) is continuous. Using the Probability Integral Transform,

$$\mathbb{P}(p_t(X;\theta_0) \le \alpha \mid \theta_0) = \mathbb{P}(F(Y) \le \alpha \mid \theta_0)
= \mathbb{P}(Y \le F^{-1}(\alpha) \mid \theta_0) = F(F^{-1}(\alpha)) = \alpha.$$

Hence, p_t is uniform under θ_0 .

• It t(X) is not continuous then, via the Probability Integral Transform, $\mathbb{P}(F(Y) \leq \alpha \mid \theta_0) \leq \alpha$ and so $p_t(X; \theta_0)$ is super-uniform under θ_0 . \square

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- So there is a family of significance procedures for each possible function $t: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$.
- Clearly only a tiny fraction of these can be useful functions, and the rest must be useless.
- Some, like t(x) = c for some constant c, are always useless. Others, like $t(x) = \sin(x)$ might sometimes be a little bit useful, while others, like $t(x) = \sum_{i} x_{i}$ might be quite useful but it all depends on the circumstances.
- Some additional criteria are required to separate out good from poor choices of the test statistic t, when using the construction in the theorem.

The most pertinent criterion is:

• Select a test statistic for which t(X) which will tend to be larger for decision-relevant departures from θ_0 .

Example

For the likelihood ratio, $\lambda(x)$, small observed values of $\lambda(x)$ support departures from θ_0 . Thus, $t(X) = -2 \log \lambda(X)$, is a test statistic for which large values support departures from θ_0 .

- Large values of t(X) will correspond to small values of the *p*-value, supporting the hypothesis that H_1 is true.
- This criterion ensures that $p_t(X; \theta_0)$ will tend to be smaller under decision-relevant departures from θ_0 ; small p-values are more interesting, precisely because significance procedures are super-uniform under θ_0 .

Computing p-values

Only in very special cases will it be possible to find a closed-form expression for p_t from which we can compute the p-value $p_t(x; \theta_0)$.

Theorem (Adapted from Besag and Clifford, 1989)

For any finite sequence of scalar random variables X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_m , define the rank of X_0 in the sequence as

$$R := \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i \leq X_0\}}.$$

If X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_m are exchangeable^a then R has a discrete uniform distribution on the integers $\{0, 1, \ldots, m\}$, and (R+1)/(m+1) has a super-uniform distribution.

alf X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_m are exchangeable then their joint density function satisfies $f(x_0, \ldots, x_m) = f(x_{\pi(0)}, \ldots, x_{\pi(m)})$ for all permutations π defined on the set $\{0, \ldots, m\}$.

Proof

By exchangeability, X_0 has the same probability of having rank r as any of the other X_i s, for any r, and therefore

$$\mathbb{P}(R=r) = \frac{1}{m+1}$$

for $r \in \{0, 1, ..., m\}$ and zero otherwise, proving the first claim. For the second claim,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{R+1}{m+1} \leq u\right) = \mathbb{P}(R+1 \leq u(m+1)) = \mathbb{P}(R+1 \leq \lfloor u(m+1) \rfloor)$$

since R is an integer and $\lfloor x \rfloor$ denotes the largest integer no larger than x.

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Proof continued

Hence.

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{R+1}{m+1} \le u\right) = \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor u(m+1)\rfloor - 1} \mathbb{P}(R=r) \qquad (1)$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor u(m+1)\rfloor - 1} \frac{1}{m+1}$$

$$= \frac{\lfloor u(m+1)\rfloor}{m+1} \le u,$$

$$= \frac{\lfloor u(m+1)\rfloor}{m+1} \leq u_n$$

as required where equation (2) follows from (1) by exchangeability.

- We utilise this result to compute the *p*-value $p_t(x; \theta_0)$ corresponding to the test statistic t(X) at θ_0 .
- Fix the test statistic t(x) and define $T_i = t(X_i)$ where X_1, \ldots, X_m are independent and identically distributed random variables with density $f_X(\cdot | \theta_0)$.
- Typically, we may have to use simulation to obtain the sample and we'll need to specify θ_0 for this.
- Notice that $t(X), T_1, \ldots, T_m$ are exchangeable and thus $-t(X), -T_1, \ldots, -T_m$ are exchangeable.
- Let

$$R_t(x; \theta_0) := \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}_{\{-T_i \le -t(x)\}} = \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}_{\{T_i \ge t(x)\}},$$

then the previous theorem implies that

$$P_t(x; \theta_0) := \frac{R_t(x; \theta_0) + 1}{m + 1}$$

has a super-uniform distribution under $X \sim f_X(\cdot \mid \theta_0)$.

- Note that $\mathbb{P}(T \geq t(x) | \theta_0) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{1}_{\{T > t(x)\}})$.
- Hence, the Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN) implies that

$$\lim_{m \to \infty} P_t(x; \theta_0) = \lim_{m \to \infty} \frac{R_t(x; \theta_0) + 1}{m + 1}$$

$$= \lim_{m \to \infty} \frac{R_t(x; \theta_0)}{m}$$

$$= \lim_{m \to \infty} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}_{\{T_i \ge t(x)\}}}{m}$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(T \ge t(x) | \theta_0) = p_t(x; \theta_0).$$

- Therefore, not only is $P_t(x; \theta_0)$ super-uniform under θ_0 , so that P_t is a family of significance procedures for every m, but the limiting value of $P_t(x; \theta_0)$ as m becomes large is $p_t(x; \theta_0)$.
- In summary, if you can simulate from your model under θ_0 then you can produce a p-value for any test statistic t, namely $P_t(x;\theta_0)$, and if you can simulate cheaply, so that the number of simulations m is large, then $P_t(x;\theta_0) \approx p_t(x;\theta_0)$.

- However, this simulation-based approach is not well-adapted to constructing confidence sets.
- Let C_t be the family of confidence procedures induced by p_t using duality.
- With one set of m simulations, we can answer "Is $\theta_0 \in C_t(x;\alpha)$?"
 - ► These simulations give a value $P_t(x; \theta_0)$ which is either larger or not larger than α .
 - ▶ If $P_t(x; \theta_0) > \alpha$ then $\theta_0 \in C_t(x; \alpha)$, and otherwise it is not.
- However, this is not an effective way to enumerate all of the points in $C_t(x; \alpha)$ since we would need to do m simulations for each point in Θ .

Concluding remarks

- It is a very common observation, made repeatedly over the last 50 years see, for example, Rubin (1984), that clients think more like Bayesians than classicists.
- For example, $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X; \alpha) | \theta) \ge 1 \alpha$ is often interpreted as a probability over θ for the observed $C(x; \alpha)$.
- Classical statisticians thus have to wrestle with the issue that their clients will likely misinterpret their results.
- This can be potentially disastrous for *p*-values.
 - A p-value $p(x; \theta_0)$ refers only to θ_0 , making no reference at all to other hypotheses about θ .
 - A posterior probability $\pi(\theta_0 \mid x)$ contrasts θ_0 with the other values in Θ which θ might have taken.
 - ► The two outcomes can be radically different, as first captured in Lindley's paradox (Lindley, 1957).

