

Notes from Problems Class 3.

We'll discuss the idea of (Jeffreys) - Lindley's Paradox.

Consider a null hypothesis  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ . Construct a mixed prior of the form

$$\pi(\theta) = p_0 \mathbb{I}_{(\theta_0)}(\theta) + (1 - p_0) \pi_1(\theta)$$

where  $p_0 = P(\theta = \theta_0)$  and  $\pi_1(\theta) = f_1(\theta | \theta \neq \theta_0)$

(prior density under  $H_1$ )

The posterior probability of  $\theta = \theta_0$  is

$$P(\theta = \theta_0 | x) = \frac{P(\theta = \theta_0) f_x(x | \theta = \theta_0)}{f(x)}$$

$$= \frac{P(\theta = \theta_0) f_x(x | \theta = \theta_0)}{P(\theta = \theta_0) f_x(x | \theta = \theta_0) + P(\theta \neq \theta_0) f_x(x | \theta \neq \theta_0)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P(\theta \neq \theta_0) f_x(x | \theta \neq \theta_0)}{P(\theta = \theta_0) f_x(x | \theta = \theta_0)}}$$

$$= [1 + y]^{-1} \text{ where } y = \frac{1 - p_0}{p_0} \frac{f_x(x | \theta \neq \theta_0)}{f_x(x | \theta = \theta_0)}$$

Ratio of likelihoods.

$$\left[ \text{Bayes factor: } \frac{P(\theta = \theta_0 | x)}{P(\theta \neq \theta_0 | x)} \bigg/ \frac{P(\theta = \theta_0)}{P(\theta \neq \theta_0)} = \frac{f_x(x | \theta = \theta_0)}{f_x(x | \theta \neq \theta_0)} \right]$$

$$\text{and } f_x(x | \theta \neq \theta_0) = \int_{\Theta} f_x(x | \theta, \theta \neq \theta_0) f_1(\theta | \theta \neq \theta_0) d\theta.$$

Example.

Consider  $H_0: \theta = 0$  and  $H_1: \theta \neq 0$ . Suppose that  $X|\theta \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2)$  for  $\sigma^2$  known and for  $\pi_1(\theta)$  let  $\theta \sim N(0, \sigma_0^2)$  where  $\sigma_0^2$  is known.

$$f_X(x|\theta=0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}x^2\right\}$$

$$f_X(x|\theta \neq 0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x|\theta, \theta \neq 0) \pi_1(\theta|\theta \neq 0) d\theta$$

$\uparrow N(\theta, \sigma^2)$                        $\leftarrow N(0, \sigma_0^2)$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\theta)^2\right\} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2}\theta^2\right\} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{(\sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2)^{-1/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{x^2}{2(\sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2)}\right\}$$

i.e.  $X|\theta \neq 0 \sim N(0, \sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2)$

[ In essence, we have  $\theta \sim N(0, \sigma_0^2)$ ,  $X|\theta \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2)$

$$\text{so } E(X) = E(E(X|\theta)) = E(\theta) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E(\text{Var}(X|\theta)) + \text{Var}(E(X|\theta)) \\ &= E(\sigma^2) + \text{Var}(\theta) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \frac{f_X(x|\theta \neq 0)}{f_X(x|\theta=0)} = \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)x^2\right\}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left\{+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_0^2 x^2}{(\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2)\sigma^2}\right\}$$

$$\text{Hence, } y = \frac{1-p_0}{p_0} \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2} \right)^{1/2} \text{emp} \left\{ \frac{\sigma_0^2 x^2}{2(\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2)\sigma^2} \right\}$$

In testing  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  versus  $H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$ . A diffuse prior of  $H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$  is sometimes proposed.

In this normal example, the prior information is contained in  $\sigma_0^2$ , the variance.

Consider  $\sigma_0^2 \rightarrow \infty$  then  $y \rightarrow 0$  and  $P(\theta = 0 | x) \rightarrow 1$  for all  $x$

- What this really says is that  $f_1(\theta | \theta = \theta_0) \propto 1$  doesn't work
- Can't just apply Bayes theorem when using an improper prior.

If I use a proper prior then  $\sigma_0^2$  is FINITE. In this case, as  $|x| \rightarrow \infty$   $y \rightarrow \infty$  and  $P(\theta \neq 0 | x) \rightarrow 1$ .

$$(P(\theta = 0 | x) = [1 + y]^{-1})$$

The Bayesian analysis behaves reasonably.

We now consider  $n$  observations so  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , and that then are iid.

Perform analogous calculations but with  $x \mapsto \bar{x}$  gives:

$$\sigma^2 \mapsto \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$y_n = \frac{1-p_0}{p_0} \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2} \right)^{1/2} \text{emp} \left\{ \frac{\sigma_0^2 n^2 \bar{x}^2}{2(n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2)\sigma^2} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1-p_0}{p_0} \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2} \right)^{1/2} \text{emp} \left\{ \frac{\sigma_0^2}{2(n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2)} \left( \frac{n^2 \bar{x}^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1-p_0}{p_0} \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2} \right)^{1/2} \text{emp} \left\{ \frac{n\sigma_0^2}{2(n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2)} \left( \frac{\sqrt{n} \bar{x}}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right\}$$

$z = \frac{\sqrt{n} \bar{x}}{\sigma}$

If  $\bar{x} > 0$  then as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $y_n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $P(\theta = 0 | \bar{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + y_n}$

$\rightarrow 0$ . This is the expected outcome. With enough data and  $\bar{x} > 0$  I can identify precisely whether  $\theta = 0$ .

$$p(\bar{x}; \theta_0) = P(|\bar{X}| \geq \bar{x} | \theta_0) \quad (\theta_0 = 0 \text{ here})$$

Under  $H_0$ ,  $\frac{\sqrt{n}\bar{X}}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$  so if  $z = \frac{|\bar{x}|}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > 1.96$  we

would reject  $H_0$  at the 5% significance level (for a two-sided test).

We now think about keeping  $z$  fixed as we increase our number of observations. Then we see that  $y \rightarrow 0$  and hence  $P(\theta = 0 | \bar{x}) \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for any  $z$ .

This is the main idea of the seeming paradox:

For a normal model  $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$  with known variance  $\sigma^2$   
 $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  versus  $H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$

Assume  $P(\theta \in H_0) > 0$  and any regular prior on  $\{\theta \neq \theta_0\}$  then for any  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , can find a sample size  $N(\alpha)$  and iid data  $x$  such that:

①. The sample mean  $\bar{x}$  is different from  $\theta_0$  at level  $\alpha$   
(Classical model would reject  $H_0$ )

$$\textcircled{2}. P(\theta = \theta_0 | X) \geq 1 - \alpha$$

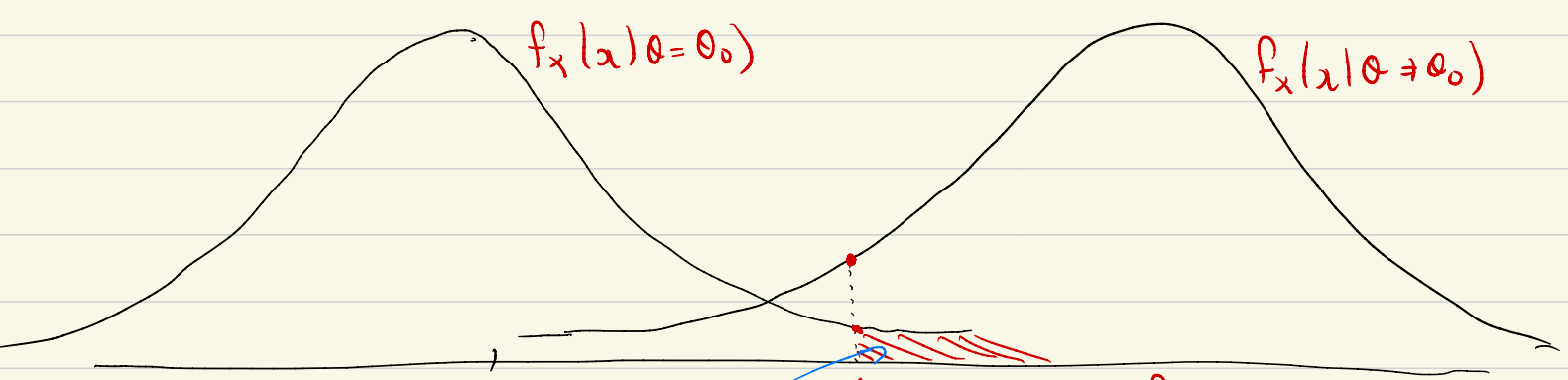
(Bayesian model supports  $H_0$  rather than  $H_1$ .)

We get different conclusions depending upon the school we take.

Small  $n$ .

$$H_0: \theta = 0$$

$$H_1: \theta = 1$$

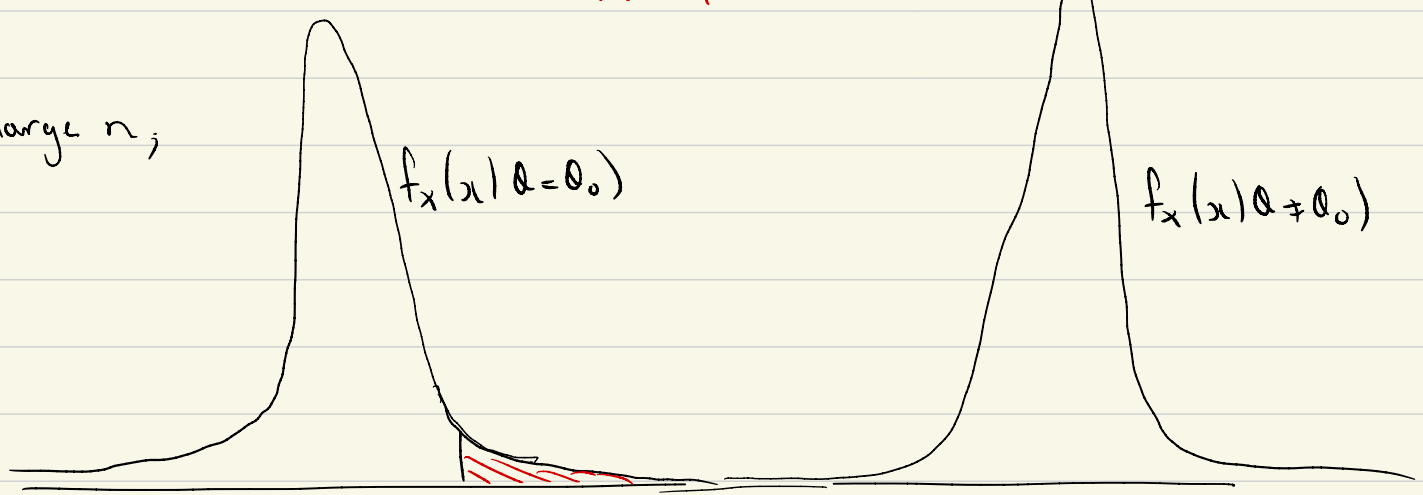


p-value.  
This doesn't account for  $H_1$ .

$$y_n = \frac{1-p_0}{p_0} \frac{f_x(x|\theta \neq \theta_0)}{f_x(x|\theta = \theta_0)} \geq \frac{1-p_0}{p_0}$$

Calculation of  $P(\theta = \theta_0 | x)$  involves the likelihood ratio of the other values of  $\theta$

For large  $n$ ,



$$\text{In this case } y_n = \frac{1-p_0}{p_0} \frac{f_x(x|\theta \neq \theta_0)}{f_x(x|\theta = \theta_0)} \leq \frac{1-p_0}{p_0}$$

The classical and the Bayesian approach ask different questions.

- If I reject  $H_0$  using a p-value, so a small p-value, then  $H_0$  is a poor explanation for the observation
- Bayesian approach:  $H_0$  is a better explanation for the data  $x$  than  $H_1$ .

What information do I need to compute the probability that say the null hypothesis is true when I have a p-value?

Suppose  $p(x; H_0) \leq \alpha$ , what can I say about my posterior probability?

$$P(H_0 | p(X; H_0) \leq \alpha) = \frac{P(p(X; H_0) \leq \alpha | H_0) P(H_0)}{P(p(X; H_0) \leq \alpha)}$$

$$\leq \frac{\alpha P(H_0)}{P(p(X; H_0) \leq \alpha)} \quad (\text{by uniformity of the p-value})$$

NA, 
$$P(p(X; H_0) \leq \alpha) = P(p(X; H_0) \leq \alpha | H_0) P(H_0) + P(p(X; H_0) \leq \alpha | H_1) P(H_1)$$

I need to know the distribution of the p-value under the alternate hypothesis.