

# Bayesian hypothesis testing

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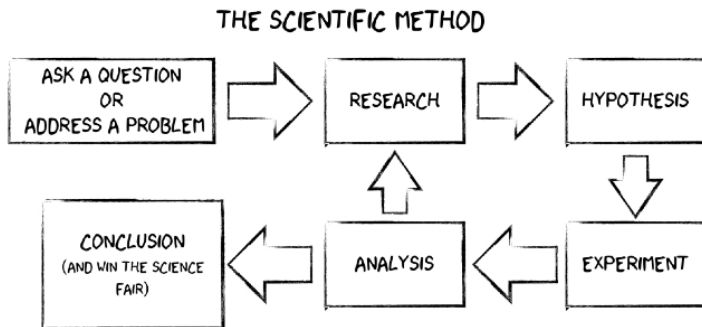
STAT 544 - Iowa State University

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# Outline

- Scientific method
  - Statistical hypothesis testing
  - Simple vs composite hypotheses
- Simple Bayesian hypothesis testing
  - All simple hypotheses
  - All composite hypotheses
- Propriety
  - Posterior
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- Bayesian hypothesis testing with mixed hypotheses (models)
  - Prior model probability
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    - **WARNING: do not use non-informative priors**
  - Posterior model probability

# Scientific method



<http://www.wired.com/wiredscience/2013/04/whats-wrong-with-the-scientific-method/>

# Statistical hypothesis testing

## Definition

A **simple hypothesis** specifies the value for all parameters while a **composite hypothesis** does not.

Let  $Y_i \stackrel{ind}{\sim} \text{Ber}(\theta)$  and

- $H_0 : \theta = 0.5$  (simple)
- $H_1 : \theta \neq 0.5$  (composite)

# Prior probabilities on simple hypotheses

What is your prior probability for the following hypotheses:

- a coin flip has exactly 0.5 probability of landing heads
- a fertilizer treatment has zero effect on plant growth
- inactivation of a mouse growth gene has zero effect on mouse hair color
- a butterfly flapping its wings in Australia has no effect on temperature in Ames
- guessing the color of a card drawn from a deck has probability 0.5

Many null hypotheses have zero probability *a priori*, so why bother performing the hypothesis test?

# Bayesian hypothesis testing with all simple hypotheses

Let  $Y \sim p(y|\theta)$  and  $H_j : \theta = \theta_j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, J$ . Treat this as a discrete prior on the  $\theta_j$ , i.e.

$$P(\theta = \theta_j) = p_j.$$

The posterior is then

$$P(\theta = \theta_j|y) = \frac{p_j p(y|\theta_j)}{\sum_{k=1}^J p_k p(y|\theta_k)} \propto p_j p(y|\theta_j).$$

For example, suppose  $Y_i \stackrel{ind}{\sim} \text{Ber}(\theta)$  and  $P(\theta = j/10) = 1/11$  for  $j = 0, \dots, 10$ . The posterior is

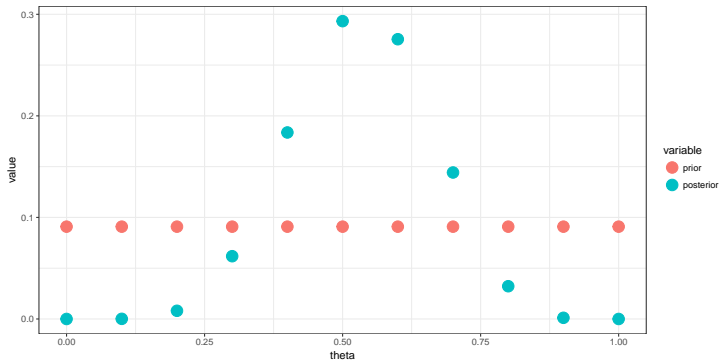
$$P(\theta = j/10|y) \propto \frac{1}{11} \prod_{i=1}^n (j/10)^{y_i} (1-j/10)^{1-y_i} = \frac{1}{11} (j/10)^{n\bar{y}} (1-j/10)^{n(1-\bar{y})}$$

If  $j = 0$  ( $j = 10$ ), any  $y_i = 1$  ( $y_i = 0$ ) will make the posterior probability zero.

# Discrete prior example

```
n = 13; y = rbinom(n,1,.45); sum(y)
```

```
[1] 7
```



# Bayesian hypothesis testing with all composite hypotheses

Let  $Y \sim p(y|\theta)$  and  $H_j : \theta \in (E_{j-1}, E_j]$  for  $j = 1, \dots, J$ . Just calculate the area under the curve, i.e.

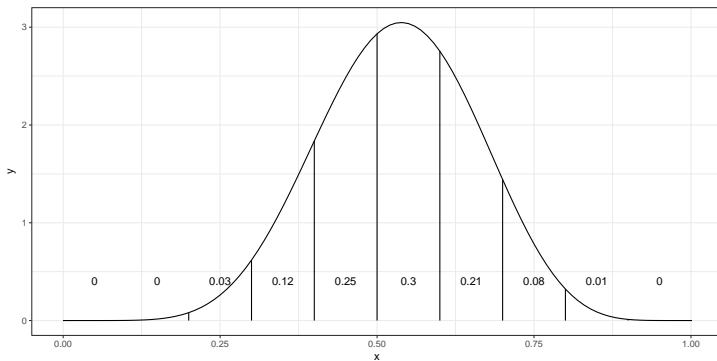
$$P(H_j|y) = \int_{E_{j-1}}^{E_j} p(\theta|y) d\theta$$

For example, suppose  $Y_i \stackrel{ind}{\sim} \text{Ber}(\theta)$  and  $E_j = j/10$  for  $j = 0, \dots, 10$ . Now, assume

$$\theta \sim \text{Be}(1, 1) \quad \text{and thus} \quad \theta|y \sim \text{Be}(1 + n\bar{y}, 1 + n[1 - \bar{y}]).$$



# Beta example



# Tonelli's Theorem (successor to Fubini's Theorem)

## Theorem

*Tonelli's Theorem states that if  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  are  $\sigma$ -finite measure spaces and  $f$  is non-negative and measurable, then*

$$\int_{\mathcal{X}} \int_{\mathcal{Y}} f(x, y) dy dx = \int_{\mathcal{Y}} \int_{\mathcal{X}} f(x, y) dx dy$$

*i.e. you can interchange the integrals (or sums).*

On the following slides, the use of this theorem will be indicated by TT.

# Proper priors with discrete data

## Theorem

*If the prior is proper and the data are discrete, then the posterior is always proper.*

## Proof.

Let  $p(\theta)$  be the prior and  $p(y|\theta)$  be the statistical model. Thus, we need to show that

$$p(y) = \int_{\Theta} p(y|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta < \infty \quad \forall y.$$

For discrete  $y$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} p(y) &\leq \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Y}} p(z) = \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Y}} \int_{\Theta} p(z|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta \stackrel{TT}{=} \int_{\Theta} \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Y}} p(z|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta \\ &= \int_{\Theta} p(\theta)d\theta = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the posterior is always proper if  $y$  is discrete and the prior is proper. □

# Proper priors with continuous data

## Theorem

*If the prior is proper and the data are continuous, then the posterior is almost always proper.*

## Proof.

Let  $p(\theta)$  be the prior and  $p(y|\theta)$  be the statistical model. Thus, we need to show that

$$p(y) = \int_{\Theta} p(y|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta < \infty \quad \text{for almost all } y.$$

For continuous  $y$ , we have

$$\int_{\mathcal{Y}} p(z)dz = \int_{\mathcal{Y}} \int_{\Theta} p(z|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta dz \stackrel{TT}{=} \int_{\Theta} \int_{\mathcal{Y}} p(z|\theta)dz p(\theta)d\theta = \int_{\Theta} p(\theta)d\theta = 1$$

thus  $p(y)$  is finite except on a set of measure zero, i.e.  $p(y)$  is almost always proper. □

# Proper prior predictive distributions

In the previous derivations, we showed that

$$\sum_{z \in \mathcal{Y}} p(z) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{\mathcal{Y}} p(z) dz = 1$$

for discrete and continuous data, respectively.

Thus, when the prior is proper, the prior predictive distribution is also proper.

# Improper prior predictive distributions

## Theorem

*If  $p(\theta)$  is improper, then  $p(y) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$  is improper.*

## Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\int p(y)dy &= \int \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta dy \stackrel{TT}{=} \int p(\theta) \int p(y|\theta)dy d\theta \\ &= \int p(\theta)d\theta\end{aligned}$$

since  $p(\theta)$  is improper, so is  $p(y)$ . A similar result holds for discrete  $y$  replacing the integral with a sum. □

# Bayesian hypothesis testing

To evaluate the relative plausibility of a hypothesis (model), we use the posterior model probability:

$$p(H_j|y) = \frac{p(y|H_j)p(H_j)}{p(y)} = \frac{p(y|H_j)p(H_j)}{\sum_{k=1}^J p(y|H_k)p(H_k)} \propto p(y|H_j)p(H_j).$$

where  $p(H_j)$  is the prior model probability and

$$p(y|H_j) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta|H_j)d\theta$$

is the marginal likelihood under model  $H_j$  and  $p(\theta|H_j)$  is the prior for parameters  $\theta$  when model  $H_j$  is true.

# Marginal likelihood

The marginal likelihood calculation differs for simple vs composite hypotheses:

- Simple hypotheses can be considered to have a Dirac delta function for a prior, e.g. if  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$  then  $\theta|H_0 \sim \delta_{\theta_0}$ . Then the marginal likelihood is

$$p(y|H_0) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta|H_0)d\theta = p(y|\theta_0).$$

- Composite hypotheses have a continuous prior and thus

$$p(y|H_j) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta|H_j)d\theta.$$



## Two models

If we only have two models:  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ , then

$$p(H_0|y) = \frac{p(y|H_0)p(H_0)}{p(y|H_0)p(H_0) + p(y|H_1)p(H_1)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{p(y|H_1)}{p(y|H_0)} \frac{p(H_1)}{p(H_0)}}$$

where

$$\frac{p(H_1)}{p(H_0)} = \frac{p(H_1)}{1 - p(H_1)}$$

is the prior odds in favor of  $H_1$  and

$$BF(H_1 : H_0) = \frac{p(y|H_1)}{p(y|H_0)} = \frac{1}{BF(H_0 : H_1)}$$

is the Bayes Factor for model  $H_1$  relative to  $H_0$ .

# Binomial model

Consider a coin flipping experiment so that  $Y_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \text{Ber}(\theta)$  and the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \theta = 0.5$  versus the alternative  $H_1 : \theta \neq 0.5$  and  $\theta|H_1 \sim \text{Be}(a, b)$ .

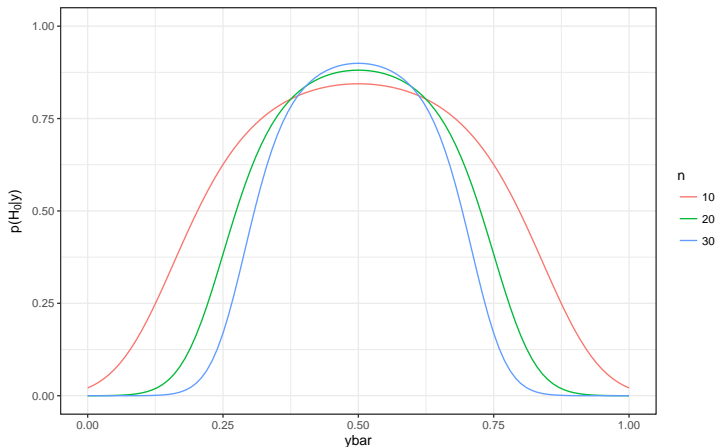
$$\begin{aligned}
 BF(H_0 : H_1) &= \frac{0.5^n}{\int_0^1 \theta^{n\bar{y}} (1-\theta)^{n(1-\bar{y})} \frac{\theta^{a-1} (1-\theta)^{b-1}}{\text{Beta}(a,b)} d\theta} \\
 &= \frac{0.5^n}{\frac{1}{\text{Beta}(a,b)} \int_0^1 \theta^{a+n\bar{y}-1} (1-\theta)^{b+n-n\bar{y}-1} d\theta} \\
 &= \frac{0.5^n}{\frac{\text{Beta}(a+n\bar{y}, b+n-n\bar{y})}{\text{Beta}(a,b)}} \\
 &= \frac{0.5^n \text{Beta}(a,b)}{\text{Beta}(a+n\bar{y}, b+n-n\bar{y})}
 \end{aligned}$$

and with  $p(H_0) = p(H_1)$  the posterior model probability is

$$P(H_0|y) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{BF(H_0:H_1)}}.$$

# Sample size and sample average

$P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 0.5$  and  $\theta|H_1 \sim Be(1, 1)$ :



## “Non-informative” prior

Recall that  $\theta \sim Be(a, b)$  has

- $a$  prior successes and
- $b$  prior failures.

Thus, in some sense  $a, b \rightarrow 0$  puts minimal prior data into the analysis.

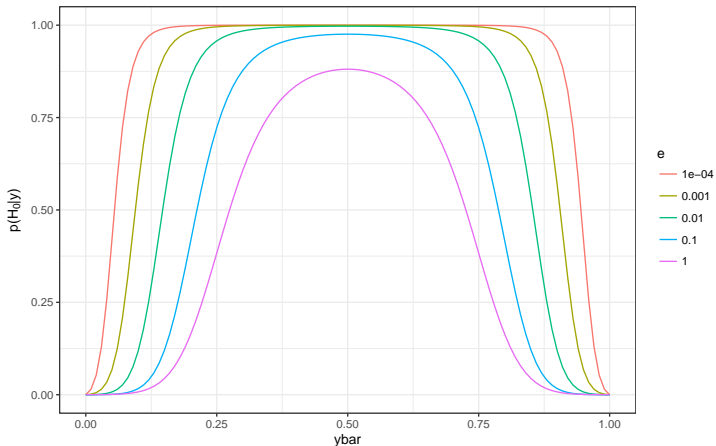
If  $\theta|H_1 \sim Be(e, e)$ , then

$$BF(H_0 : H_1) = \frac{0.5^n Be(e, e)}{Be(e + n\bar{y}, b + n - n\bar{y})} \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow 0} \infty \quad \text{for any } \bar{y} \in (0, 1)$$

since  $Be(e, e) \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow 0} \infty$ .

# Limit of proper prior

$P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 0.5$  and  $\theta|H_1 \sim Be(e, e)$ :



## Normal example

Consider the model  $Y \stackrel{ind}{\sim} N(\theta, 1)$  and the hypothesis test

- $H_0 : \theta = 0$  versus
- $H_1 : \theta \neq 0$  with prior  $\theta|H_1 \sim N(0, C)$ .

The predictive distribution under  $H_1$  is

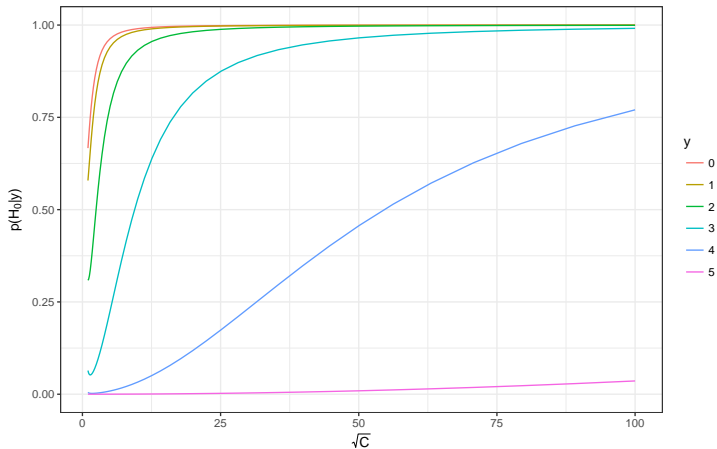
$$p(y|H_1) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta|H_1)d\theta = N(y; 0, 1 + C)$$

and the Bayes factor is

$$BF(H_0 : H_1) = \frac{N(y; 0, 1)}{N(y; 0, 1 + C)}.$$

The Bayes factor will increase as  $C \rightarrow \infty$  for any  $y$  and this only gets worse if you use an improper prior.

# Normal example



# Summary

- Treat hypothesis testing as parameter estimation
  - All simple hypotheses: discrete prior
  - All composite hypotheses: continuous prior
- Formal Bayesian hypothesis testing (simple and composite hypotheses)
  - Specify prior model probabilities
  - Specify parameter priors for composite hypotheses  
**WARNING: Do not use non-informative priors!**
  - Calculate Bayes Factors or posterior model probabilities



# Scientific method updated

*All models are wrong, but some are useful.*

George Box 1987

