Confidence intervals, hypothesis testing, Monte Carlo, and generalized linear models

Roger Levy

9.S916: Statistical data analysis for scientific inference in cognitive science

16 April 2024

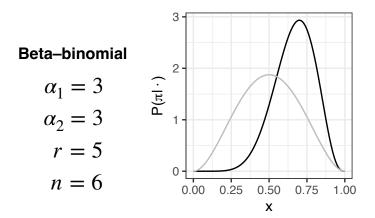
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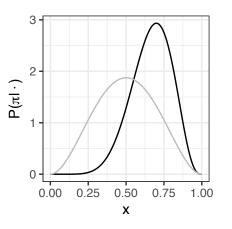
Point estimates we have seen thus far:

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$$\alpha_2 = 3$$

$$r = 5$$

$$n = 6$$



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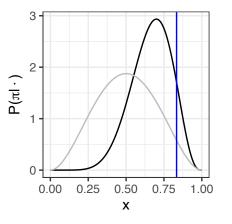
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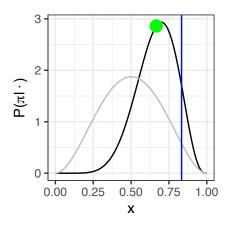
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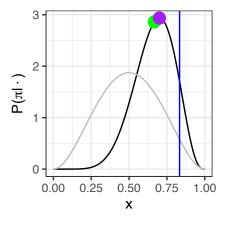
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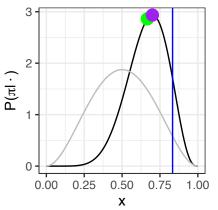
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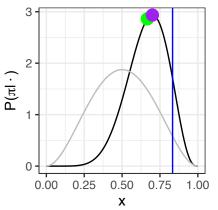
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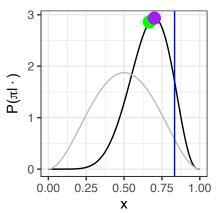
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- Credible intervals (Bayesian) and confidence intervals (frequentist) provide a bit more information about this uncertainty

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• A $(1-\alpha)$ Bayesian credible interval (CI) on parameter π is an interval containing $(1-\alpha)$ of the posterior mass

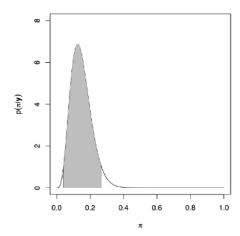
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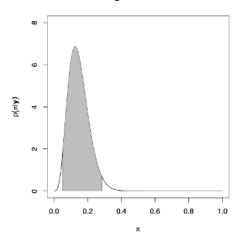
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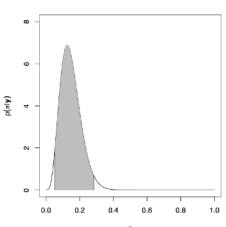


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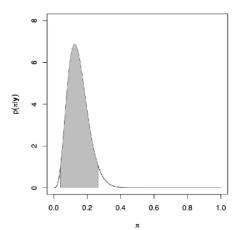


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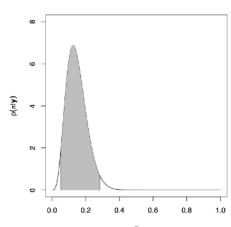
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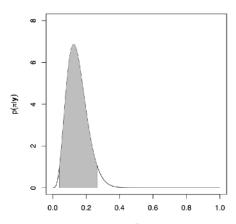


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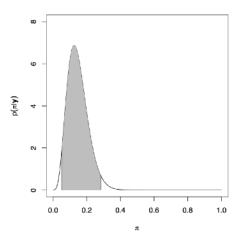
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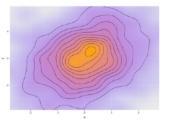
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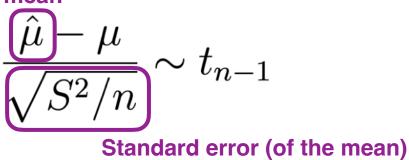
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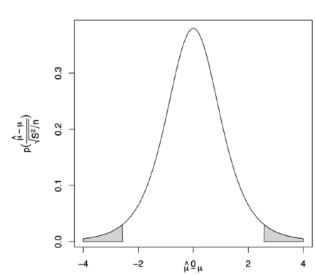
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Bayesian hypothesis testing

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Bayes Factor:
$$\frac{P(\boldsymbol{y}|H)}{P(\boldsymbol{y}|H')}$$

Interpreting Bayes Factors

$$K = \frac{P(\boldsymbol{y}|H)}{P(\boldsymbol{y}|H')}$$

log ₁₀ <i>K</i>	K	Strength of evidence	
0 to 1/2	1 to 3.2	Not worth more than a bare mention	
1/2 to 1	3.2 to 10	Substantial	
1 to 2	10 to 100	Strong	
> 2	> 100	Decisive	

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$$P(\mathbf{y}|H_1) = {6 \choose 4} \pi^4 (1-\pi)^2 = {6 \choose 4} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 = 0.23$$

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$$P(\mathbf{y}|H_3) = \int_{\pi} P(\mathbf{y}|\pi) P(\pi|H_3) d\pi = \int_0^1 \binom{6}{4} \pi^4 (1-\pi)^2 \frac{P(\pi|H_3)}{1} d\pi = \binom{6}{4} B(5,3) = 0.14$$

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$$\frac{P(\mathbf{y}|H_1)}{P(\mathbf{y}|H_3)} = \frac{0.23}{0.14}$$
$$= 1.64$$

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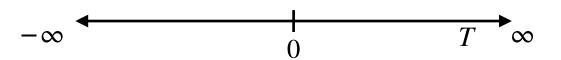
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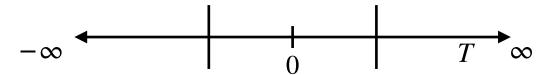


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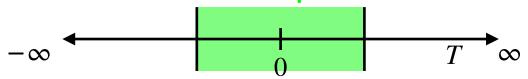


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$$H_0$$
 is... Accept H_0 Reject H_0

True Correct decision (prob. $1-\alpha$) Type I error (prob. α)

False Type II error (prob. β) Correct decision (prob. $1-\beta$)

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	Accept H_0	Reject H_0	Significance level
H_0 is	Correct decision (prob. $1 - \alpha$) Type II error (prob. β)	Type I error (pro Correct decision (

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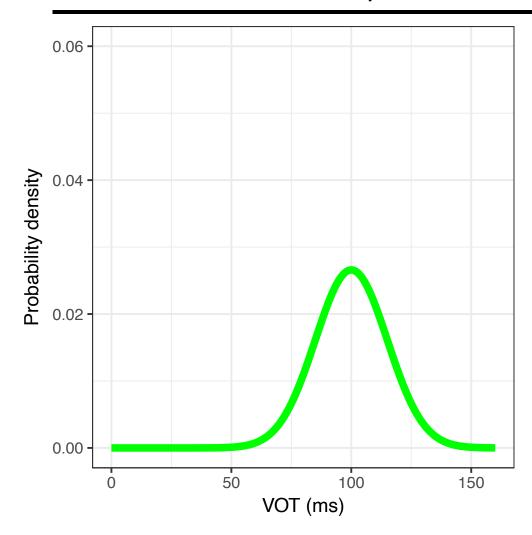
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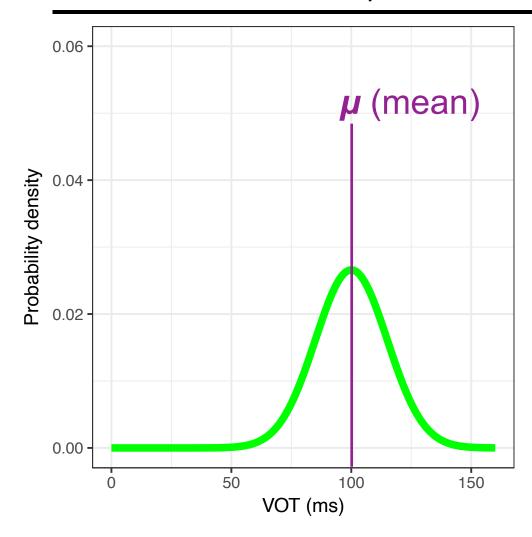
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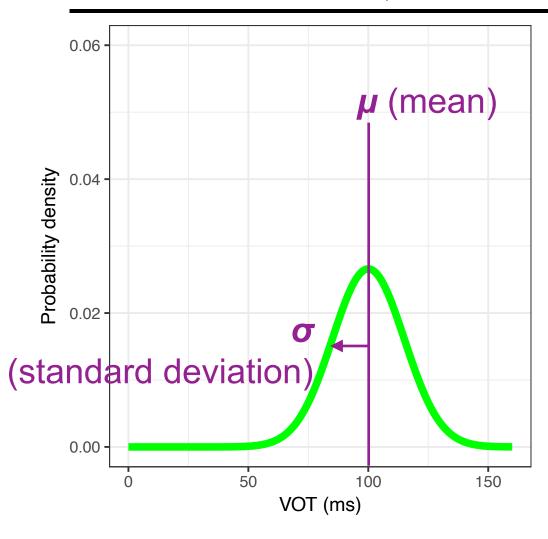
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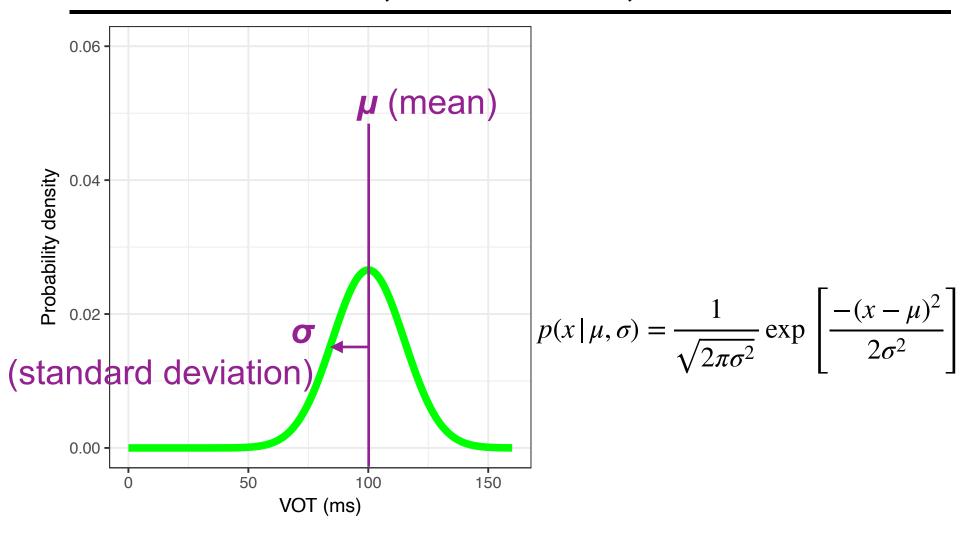


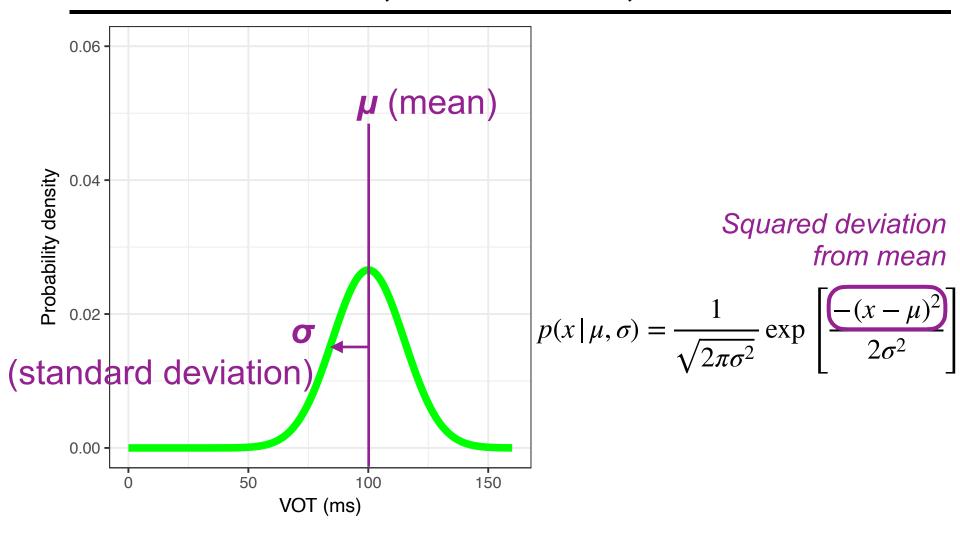
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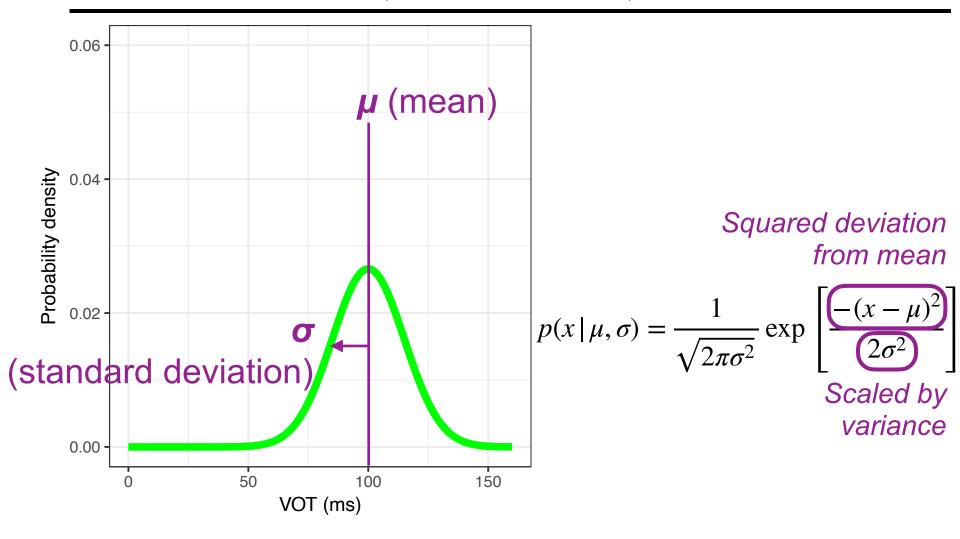


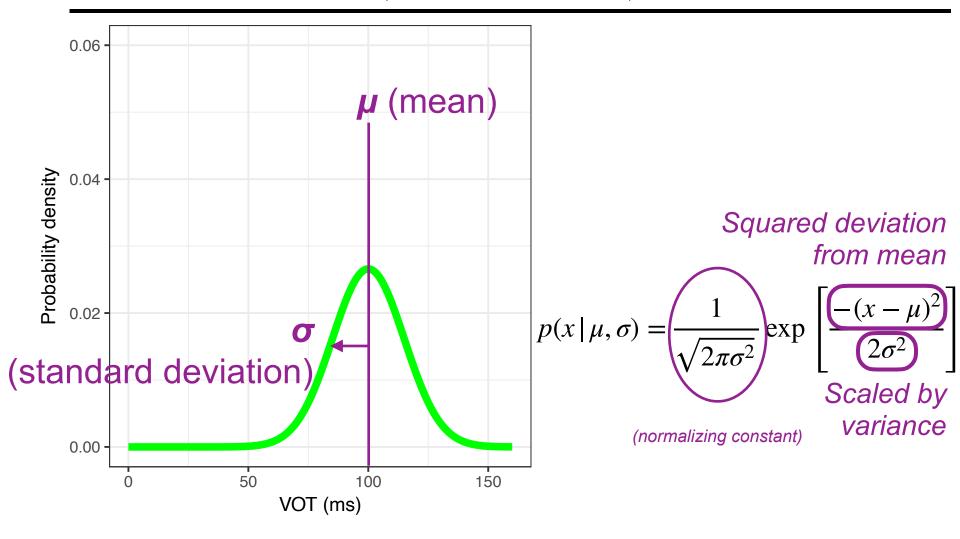


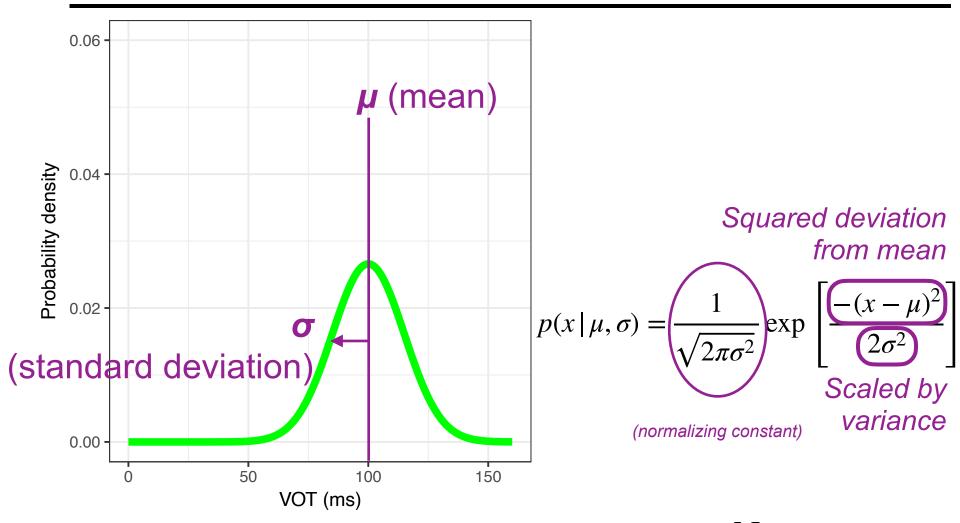






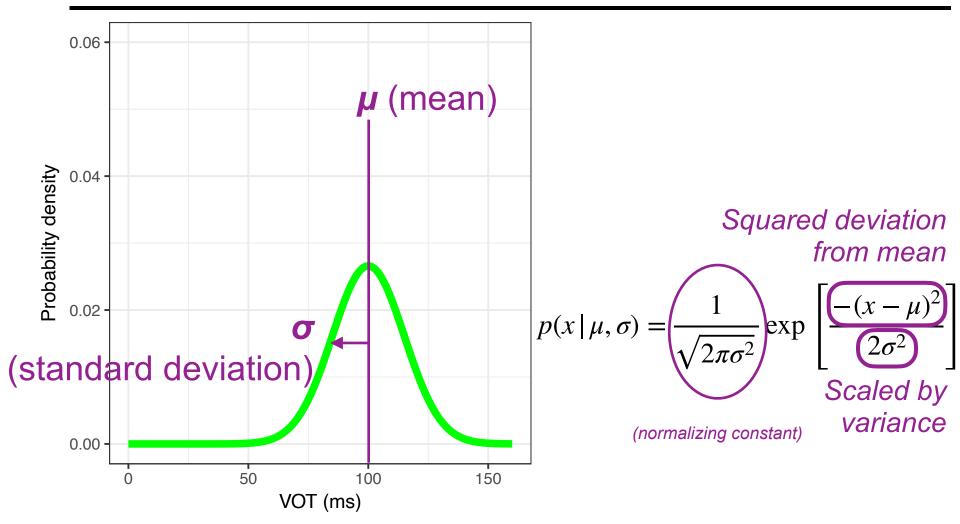






• Unbiased parameter estimates from a size-N sample:

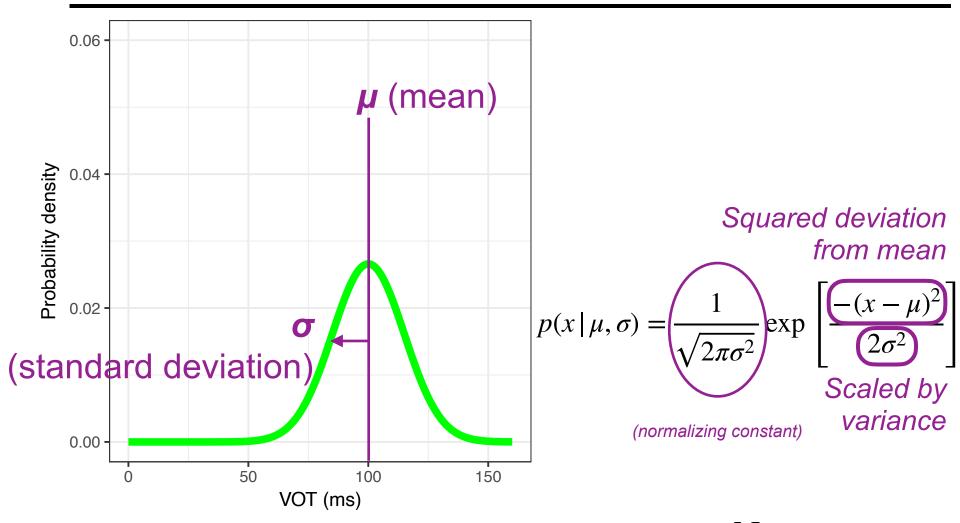
$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} \qquad \qquad \hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \triangleq$$



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$$\hat{\mathcal{U}} = \overline{\bar{x}}$$
 Sample mean $\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \triangleq$

The Gaussian, or normal, distribution



• Unbiased parameter estimates from a size-N sample:

$$\hat{\mu} = \overline{ar{x}}$$
 Sample mean

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \triangleq s$$
 Sample standard deviation

The *t*-test: three variants

- One sample (Student's) test: Does the underlying population mean of a sample differ from zero?
- Two-sample test (unpaired): do the underlying population means of two samples differ from one another?

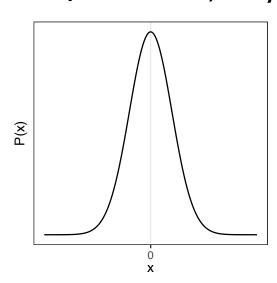
William Sealy Gosset, a.k.a. Student

 Two-sample test (paired): You have a sample of individuals from the population and take measurements from each member of the sample in two different conditions. Do the underlying population means in the two conditions differ from one another?

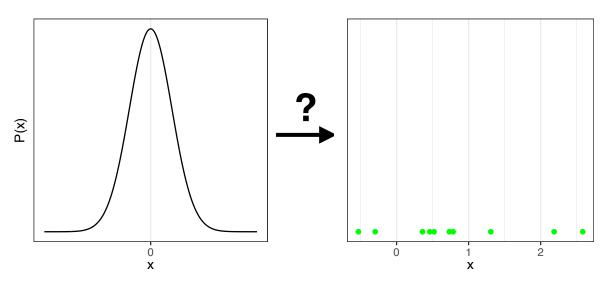
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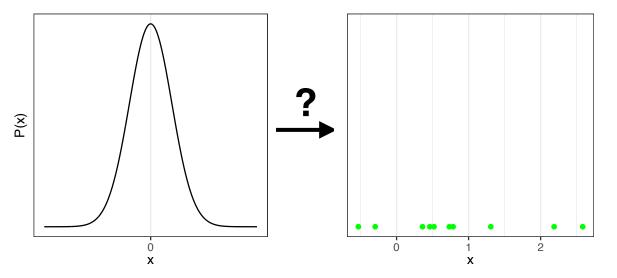
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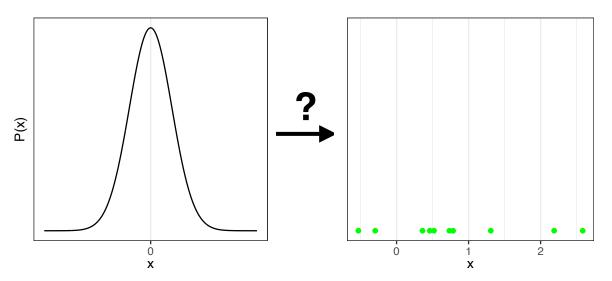


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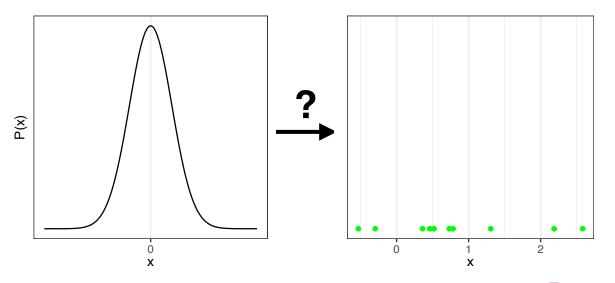
Test statistic:
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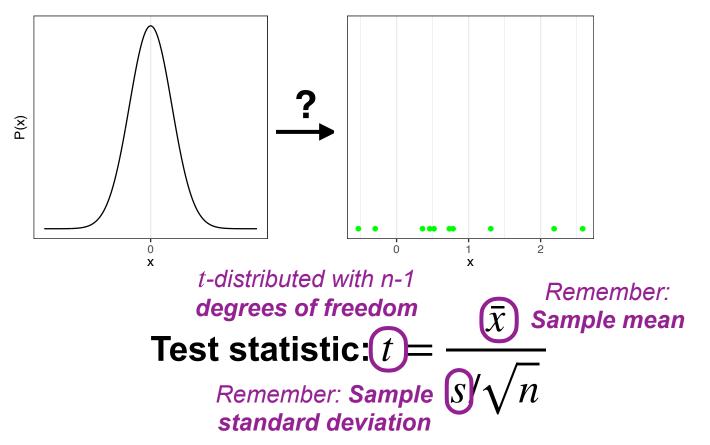
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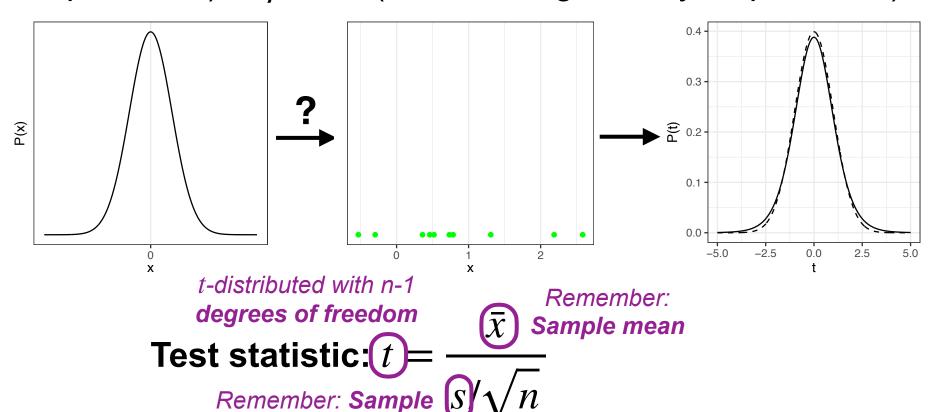
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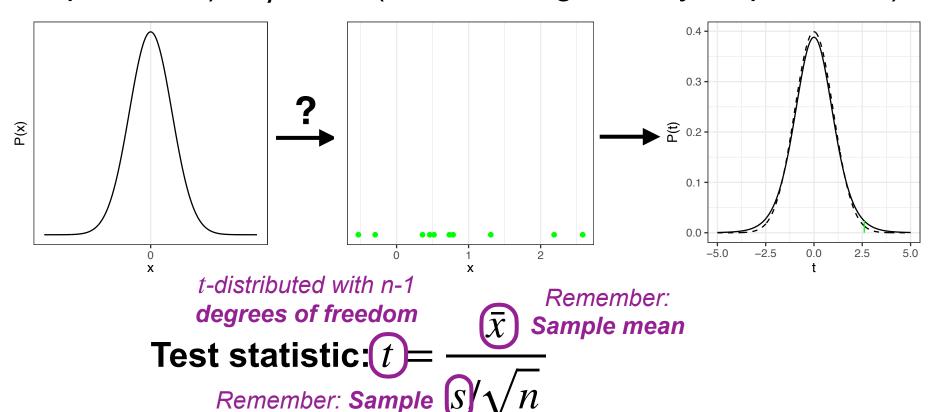
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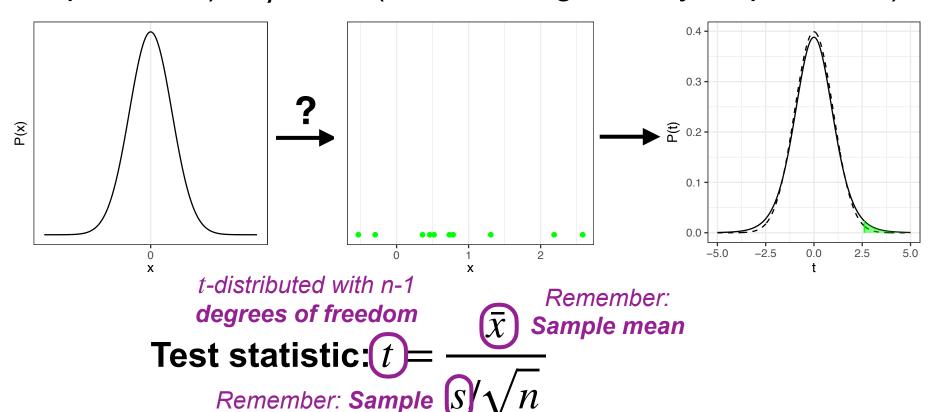
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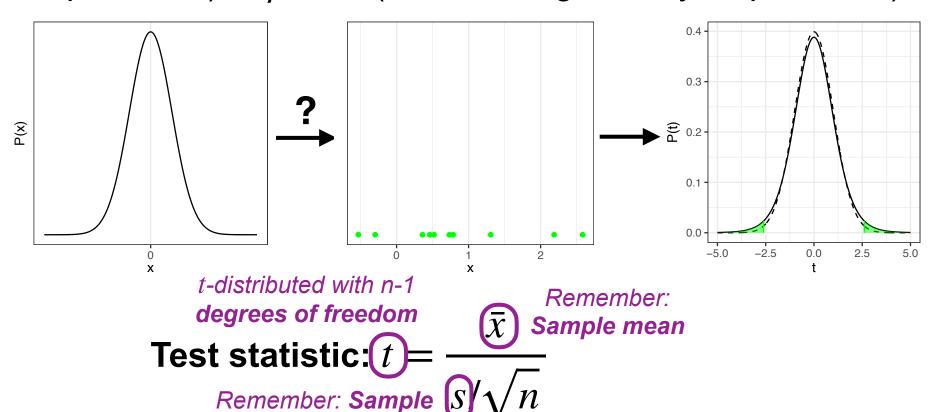
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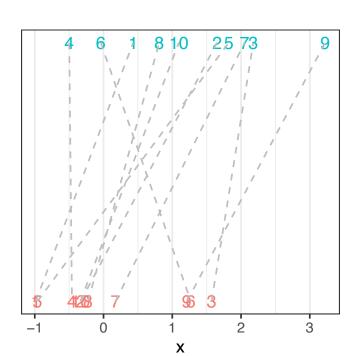
$$= \frac{\bar{x_1} - \bar{x_2}}{\sqrt{s_1^2/n_1 + s_2^2/n_2}}$$
t-distributed with a complex number of degrees of freedom whose formula can easily be looked up

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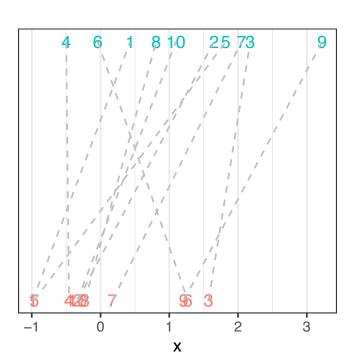
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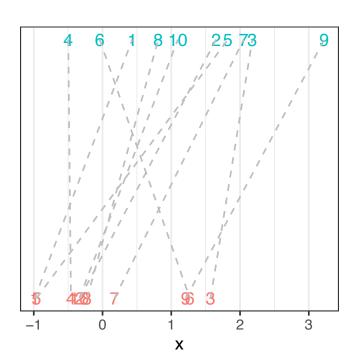
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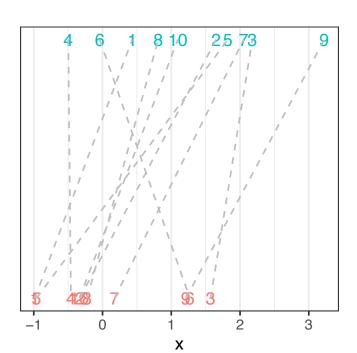
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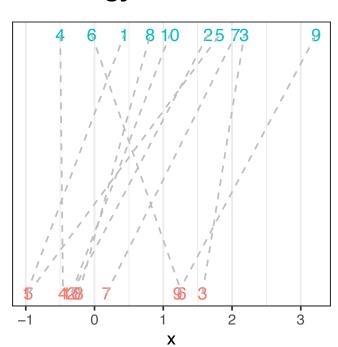
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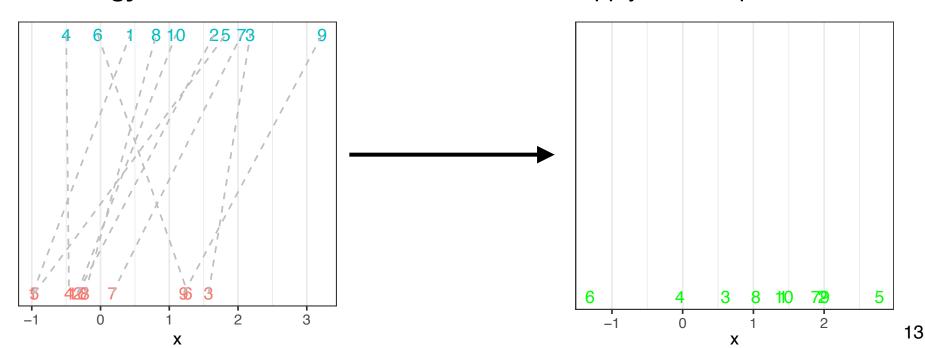
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Data likelihood under MLE of ${\cal H}_{\!A}$

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Data likelihood under MLE of $H_{\!\scriptscriptstyle A}$

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$$G^{2} = -2\log \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{30}}{\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{20} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{10}} \approx 3.4$$

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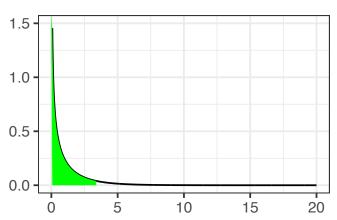
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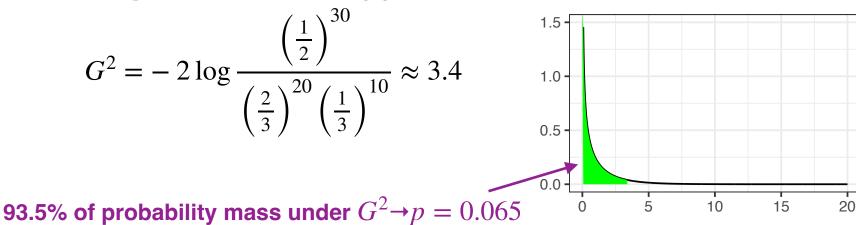
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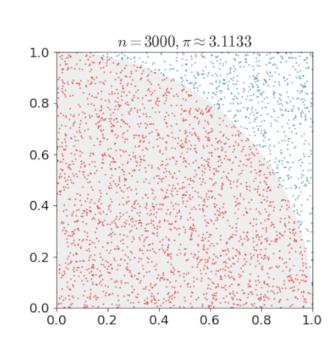
Simulation and approximate computation

Simulation and approximate computation

- All the statistical analysis that I've shown you so far has involved exact computation using analytic expressions
- This is facilitated by:
 - Strong assumptions regarding the data generating process (e.g., iid normal data for t-tests); and/or
 - Conjugate priors for Bayesian inference (e.g., Beta prior for Bernoulli/binomial data)
- But often, exact computation is not possible
- Solution: use more computationally intensive methods that don't rely on these strong assumptions. Examples:
 - Bootstrapped confidence intervals
 - Nonparametric statistical tests
 - Monte Carlo methods (today)

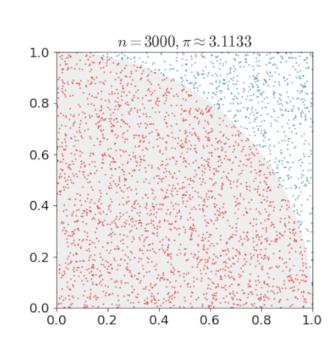
Monte Carlo methods, or "probabilistic simulation"

- Generally speaking:
 - 1. Define a domain of possible inputs
 - 2. Generate *n* iid random inputs from a probability distribution on the domain
 - 3. Perform a deterministic computation on each randomly generated input
 - 4. Aggregate the results of the deterministic computation
- As n grows larger, the simulated result approaches the true value



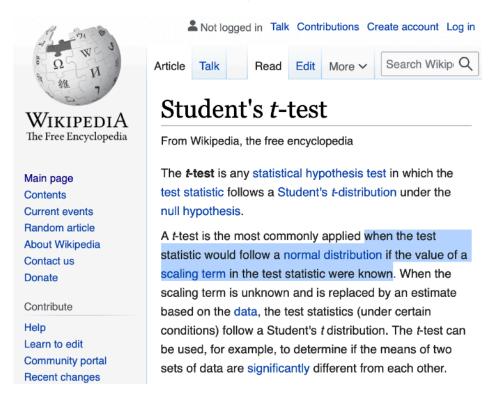
Monte Carlo methods, or "probabilistic simulation"

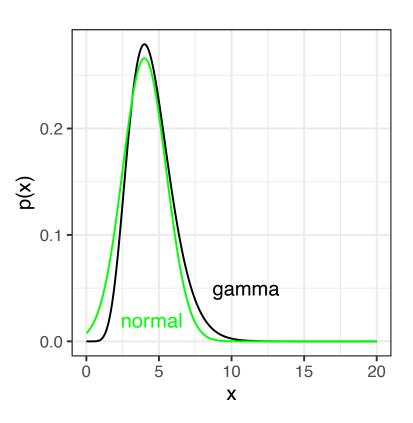
- Generally speaking:
 - 1. Define a domain of possible inputs
 - 2. Generate *n* iid random inputs from a probability distribution on the domain
 - 3. Perform a deterministic computation on each randomly generated input
 - 4. Aggregate the results of the deterministic computation
- As n grows larger, the simulated result approaches the true value



Simple example of Monte Carlo

 Suppose I want to do a two-sample t-test but my data aren't normally distributed





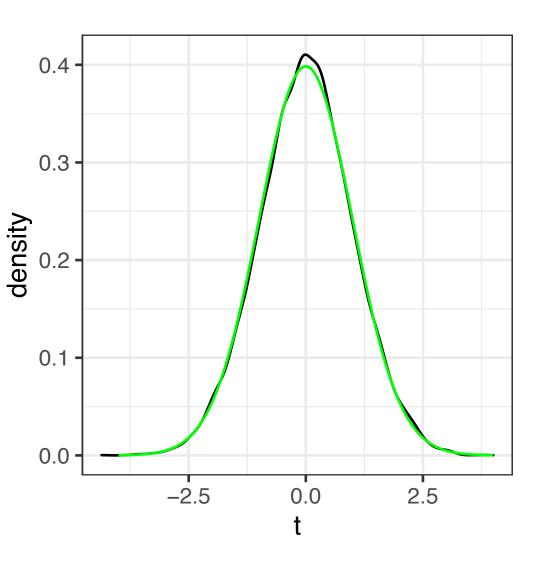
How bad will this be for my t-test????

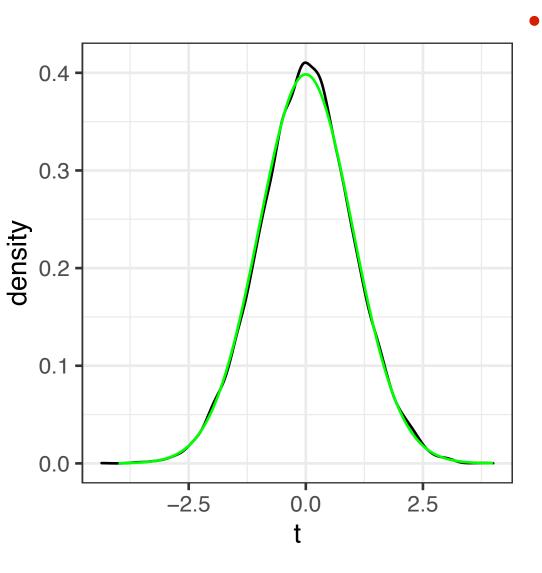
```
library(ggplot2)
 2
    library(tidyverse)
 3
 4
    # Manually compute Student t-statistic
 5 \cdot f \leftarrow function(seed, N=100, shape=9, scale=0.5)
      set.seed(seed)
 6
      y1 <- rgamma(N, shape=shape, scale=scale)
 8
      y2 <- rgamma(N, shape=shape, scale=scale)
      s_p \leftarrow sqrt((var(y1) + var(y2)) / 2)
      t_{statistic} \leftarrow (mean(y1) - mean(y2)) / (s_p*sqrt(2/N))
10
      return(t_statistic)
11
12 - }
13
14
    N <- 100
15
    Ts <- sapply(1:10000,f)
16
17
    t_reference \leftarrow tibble(x=seq(-4,4,by=0.01),t=dt(x,df=2*(N-1)))
18
19
    qaplot(data=tibble(t=Ts),aes(x=t)) +
20
      geom_density() +
21
      geom_line(data=t_reference,aes(x=x,y=t),color="green",linetype="dashed")
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                                                                Reproducibility!
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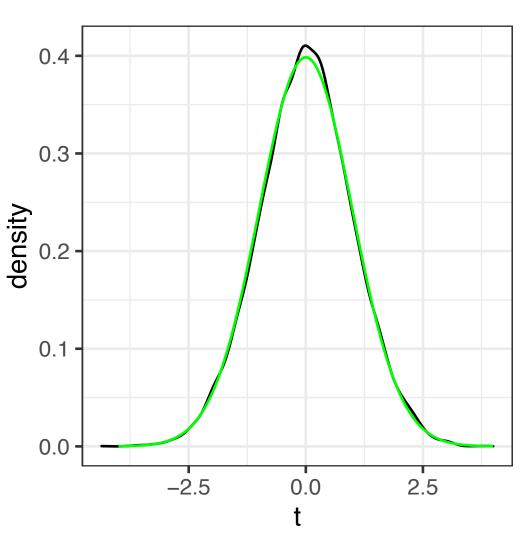
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                            Monte Carlo simulation
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10
11
      return(t_statistic)
12 - }
13
                            Monte Carlo simulation
14
    N < -100
15
   Ts <- sapply(1:10000,f)
                                           Compare against Student's t distribution
16
    (t_reference <- tibble(x=seq(-4,4,by=0.01),t=dt(x,df=2*(N-1)))
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 The t distribution is still a pretty good approximation of the distribution of the t statistic, even when the underlying distribution is gamma!



- The t distribution is still a pretty good approximation of the distribution of the t statistic, even when the underlying distribution is gamma!
- This exemplifies what is meant when people say that the t test is robust to deviations from normality