

Hypothesis testing model

- One of $M - 2$ mutually exclusive hypotheses H_0, H_1, \dots, H_{M-1} is true
- \mathbf{X} is a random variable whose value we can observe, and use, to **decide** which of the hypotheses is true
- If H_i happens to be the true hypothesis, then the pmf of \mathbf{X} is $P_i(u)$
- We can think of $P_i(u)$ as $p_{\mathbf{X}|H_i}(u|H_i)$, the **conditional pmf** of \mathbf{X} given that H_i is true

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The decision rule

- We observe the value of \mathbf{X} and announce our **decision** as to which hypothesis we **believe** to be true
- This decision may or may not coincide with reality — our decision may be H_i when in fact H_j is the true hypothesis
- The **decision rule** (which we are **free to choose** as we wish) assigns a hypothesis (**the decision!**) to each possible value of \mathbf{X}

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The likelihood matrix L

- **Likelihood matrix L** has M rows (one for each hypothesis) and N columns (one for each value taken on by \mathbf{X})
- The entry in the i -th row and j -th column is $P_i(u_j)$, the (conditional) probability that $\mathbf{X} = u_j$ when H_i is the true hypothesis
- The sum of the entries in each row is 1
- The decision rule is specified by shading one entry in each column of L

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(Conditional) error probabilities

- The (conditional) probability of a **correct** decision given that H_i is true is the sum of the **shaded** squares on the i -th row
- The (conditional) probability of **error** given that H_i is true is the sum of the **unshaded** squares on the i -th row
- Many statisticians are very uncomfortable with calling these parameters **conditional probabilities**

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Maximum-likelihood decision rule

- The hypothesis for which the **probability** of the **observation** is the **maximum** is called the **maximum-likelihood (ML) decision** when that observation is made
- For each observation (value of \mathbf{X}), the ML decision rule **maximizes** the **likelihood** of the observation
- Operationally, the ML rule says: **shade** the **largest** entry in **each column** of L

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Probabilities of error for ML rule

- The ML decision rule is just one of many possible decision rules, and the various (conditional) probabilities of error can be computed as described before
- Exercise: The ML rule shades the largest entry in each column of L . But we can maximize the probability of a correct decision (when H_i is true) by choosing the **largest** entry in the **i -th row**. Why does this better rule not work?

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Average error probability

- The (conditional) probability of an error (event E) given that the hypothesis H_i is true is denoted $p_i(E) = P(E | H_i)$
- By the theorem of total probability,

$$P(E) = \sum_i P(E | H_i) \cdot P(H_i) = \sum_i p_i(E) \cdot p_i$$
 where $p_i = P(H_i)$ is the probability that the hypothesis H_i is true
- Many statisticians are very uncomfortable with the notion of probabilities being assigned to hypotheses

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Better to be right than to be wrong!

- Let $C = E^c$ be the event that a correct decision is made. Then,

$$P(C) = \sum_i P(C | H_i) \cdot P(H_i) = \sum_i (1 - p_i(E)) \cdot p_i$$
- $P(C | H_i)$, the probability of a correct decision when hypothesis H_i is true is just the sum of the shaded entries on the i-th row of the likelihood matrix L
- $P(C)$ and $P(E)$ are conveniently calculated via the joint probability matrix

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Likelihoods to joint probabilities

- The i-th row of the likelihood matrix L is just the conditional pmf of \mathbf{X} given that H_i is true (i.e. occurred)
- If we multiply the i-th row by $p_i = P(H_i)$, we get $P\{\{\mathbf{X} = u_j\} | H_i\}$, the probability that \mathbf{X} has value u_j and that H_i is true
- Carrying out this operation on all the rows of L gives the joint probability matrix J whose (i,j)-th entry is $P\{\{\mathbf{X} = u_j\} | H_i\}$

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Properties of joint prob. matrix J

- $J = KL$ where K is a diagonal matrix
- $K = \text{diag}[p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{M-1}]$
- J is a Venn diagram whose (i,j)-th entry is the joint probability $P\{\{\mathbf{X} = u_j\} | H_i\} = P_i(u_j)$
- The sum of all the entries in J is 1
- Since the row sums in L were 1, the row sums in J are just the p_i
- The column sums in J give us the unconditional pmf of \mathbf{X}

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Error probabilities from J

- For an arbitrary decision rule specified by shaded entries in L, the probability of a correct decision is the sum of all the shaded entries in J
- The probability of error is the sum of all the unshaded entries in J
- The multiplications by the p_i needed in the formula $P(E) = \sum_i p_i(E) \cdot p_i$ have all been taken care of while computing J from L

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Maximize P(C) by clever choice

- $P(C)$, the average probability of a correct decision, is the sum of the shaded entries in J
- There is one shaded entry in each column
- Which entries are to be shaded is up to us!
- We can maximize $P(C)$ (and thus minimize $P(E)$) by shading the largest entry in each column of J
- The corresponding decision rule is called a minimum-error-probability decision rule

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A Bayes is a Bayes is a Bayes ...

- The minimum-error-probability decision rule chooses the largest entry in each column of J
- The minimum-error-probability decision rule is also called
 - a Bayes' or Bayesian decision rule
 - a maximum a posteriori probability (MAP or MAPP) decision rule
 - minimum risk decision rule
 - minimum cost decision rule

The a posteriori probabilities

- Why is it called Bayes' rule?
- $p_{X|H_i}(u_j|H_i) = P\{X = u_j|H_i\}$ is the (i,j)-th entry in the likelihood matrix L
- Bayes' formula gives

$$P(H_i|X = u_j) = P\{X = u_j|H_i\} \cdot P(H_i) / P\{X = u_j\}$$

$$= p_{X|H_i}(u_j|H_i) \cdot P(H_i) / P\{X = u_j\}$$
- $p_{X|H_i}(u_j|H_i) \cdot P(H_i)$ is the (i,j)-th entry in J
- $P\{X = u_j\}$ is the j-th column sum in J

More on a posteriori probabilities

- Bayes' formula:

$$P(H_i|X = u_j) = P\{X = u_j|H_i\} \cdot P(H_i) / P\{X = u_j\}$$

$$= p_{X|H_i}(u_j|H_i) \cdot P(H_i) / P\{X = u_j\}$$
- $p_{X|H_i}(u_j|H_i) \cdot P(H_i)$ is the (i,j)-th entry in J
- $P\{X = u_j\}$ is the j-th column sum in J
- Divide each entry in J by its column sum to convert the joint probability matrix J into the a posteriori probability matrix

Example: Likelihood matrix

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|----------------|------|------|------|------|
| H ₀ | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| H ₁ | 0.12 | 0.24 | 0.64 | 0.0 |
| H ₂ | 0.16 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.64 |
| H ₃ | 0.0 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 |

- Suppose that $P(H_0) = 0.4 = P(H_3)$ and $P(H_1) = 0.1 = P(H_2)$

Example: Joint probability matrix

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | row sums |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----------|
| H ₀ | 0.08 | 0.12 | 0.08 | 0.12 | 0.4 |
| H ₁ | 0.012 | 0.024 | 0.064 | 0.00 | 0.1 |
| H ₂ | 0.016 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.064 | 0.1 |
| H ₃ | 0.00 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.16 | 0.4 |
| col sums | 0.108 | 0.274 | 0.274 | 0.344 | |

- $P(H_0) = 0.4 = P(H_3)$
- $P(H_1) = 0.1 = P(H_2)$

The a posteriori probability matrix

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| H ₀ | 0.741 | 0.438 | 0.292 | 0.349 |
| H ₁ | 0.111 | 0.088 | 0.234 | 0.000 |
| H ₂ | 0.148 | 0.036 | 0.036 | 0.186 |
| H ₃ | 0.000 | 0.438 | 0.438 | 0.465 |
| col sums | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Rev. Thomas Bayes' contributions

- Formula for finding $P(B|A)$ from $P(A|B)$
- The philosophical argument that in making decisions based on the observation that X had value u_j ,
 - one must look at **inverse probabilities** $P(H_i|X = u_j)$ (i.e. *a posteriori* probabilities) instead of the **likelihoods** $P(X = u_j|H_j)$
 - Decide in favor of the hypothesis with the largest *a posteriori* probability (MAP)

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The ECE 313 simplification

- The *a posteriori* probability matrix is found by dividing each entry in J , the joint probability matrix, by the corresponding column sum
- This does not change the **relative values** of the entries in the column — the largest entry in a column is still the same
- Don't bother computing the *a posteriori* probability matrix! Just work with J to find the Bayes' rule!

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Bayes' rule includes the ML rule...

- Bayes' decision rule depends on what the probabilities π_i of the hypotheses are
- Consider the special case $\pi_i = M^{-1}$ for all i , that is, all M hypotheses are equally likely
- Since J is found by multiplying the i -th row of L by $\pi_i (= M^{-1})$ for all i the largest entry in a column of J is in the same position as the largest entry in L
- Moral: ML decision rule = Bayes' decision rule for equally likely hypotheses

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How much is $2 + 2$?

- Many statisticians and philosophers dislike Bayesian decision rules intensely
- "There are lies, there are damned lies, and there are statistics, ... and then there are Bayes' decision rules"
- "The answer can be made to come out to whatever you want it to be!"
- "Your personal prejudices and beliefs get injected into the problem"

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Why is Bayes' decision rule hated?

- In many instances, it is difficult to assign probabilities to hypotheses
- Example: Almost all U.S. military radars have never **ever** "painted" an actual enemy target. What is π_i in this case?
- In many instances where facts are hard to come by, the probabilities of hypotheses are based on beliefs
- "Your personal prejudices and beliefs get injected into the problem"

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Counterattack of the Bayesians

- Bayesian statisticians claim that the non-Bayesian people are using Bayesian statistics but refusing to admit the fact
- Non-Bayesians are **implicitly** assuming that the hypotheses are equally likely when they formulate the ML decision rule
- The non-Bayesians are also injecting their (unstated) belief that the hypotheses are equally likely when they make the implicit assumption

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2 + 2 = 5 for large values of 2 ...

- Consider the likelihood matrix and joint probability matrices shown below

| | L | |
|----------------|-----|-----|
| H ₀ | 0.4 | 0.6 |
| H ₁ | 0.2 | 0.8 |

| | J | |
|----------------|-----|-----|
| H ₀ | 0.4 | 0.6 |
| H ₁ | 0.2 | 0.8 |

- If $\frac{p_{11}}{p_{01}} > 8/6$, that is, if $\frac{p_{10}}{p_{00}} > 4/7$, H₁ will never be chosen by the MAP rule
- If $\frac{p_{11}}{p_{01}} < 1/2$, that is, if $\frac{p_{10}}{p_{00}} < 1/3$, H₀ will never be chosen by the MAP rule

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...and 2 + 2 = 5 for small values of 5

- Except when some entries in L are zero, it is always possible to find **some** probability assignment for the hypotheses such that the MAP rule chooses only one hypothesis
- In contrast, the ML rule cannot always choose only one hypothesis
- No row in L **dominates** another row (that is, every entry on the i-th row cannot be larger than the corresponding entry on the j-th row) Why ever not?

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Who's right and who's wrong?

- The Bayesian approach is very valuable **if used carefully and thoughtfully**
- The Bayesian approach can be abused very easily, and used to provide support for any theory that one wants to make up!
- The Bayesian approach should not be discarded out of hand as useless
- Kitchen knives are very useful tools but they can be very dangerous too!

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Statisticians do it with ...

- The approach to decision theory taken in ECE 313 will puzzle most statisticians
- Statisticians use somewhat different terminology and somewhat different methods to derive the results that we obtained so easily via the L and J matrices
- False alarm = Type I error
False dismissal = Type II error

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... the likelihood ratio

- We shall consider the simple case of two hypotheses H₀ and H₁ with corresponding pmfs p₀(u) and p₁(u) for the observation **X**
- If **X** is observed to have the value u_i, then the likelihood ratio has value
$$\frac{p_1(u_i)}{p_0(u_i)}$$
- As the name implies, is the **ratio** of the **likelihoods** p₁(u_i) and p₀(u_i) of the **X** value

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Thoughts about

- The **value** of the likelihood ratio depends on the observation, that is, the observed value of the random variable **X**
- The likelihood ratio can be viewed as a **random variable** that happens to be a **function** of the random variable **X**
- Statisticians say that the likelihood ratio summarizes everything that we need to know about the decision problem

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The likelihood ratio test (LRT)

- Decision rules can be stated in terms of a “test” on the likelihood ratio
- Example: For a binary hypothesis testing problem, L has two rows. The i -th column has two entries $p_0(u_i)$ and $p_1(u_i)$, and the ML rule decides in favor of the larger
- Statisticians say that we are comparing the likelihood ratio to 1, and choosing H_0 or H_1 according as < 1 or > 1

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The ML rule as an LRT

- The ML decision rule is stated in terms of an LRT via the following picture
- If u_i is the observed value of \mathbf{X} , then compute the value of the likelihood ratio $= p_1(u_i)/p_0(u_i)$
- This says choose H_1 if > 1 and choose H_0 if < 1

$$\begin{matrix} H_1 \\ \geq \\ 1 \\ \leq \\ H_0 \end{matrix}$$

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More on the LRT

- The LRT “choose H_0 if < 1 ; choose H_1 if > 1 ” is called a **threshold** test on the likelihood ratio because we are comparing to the **threshold** 1 and choosing H_1 if exceeds the threshold
- The MAP decision rule is also a threshold test on the likelihood ratio!

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The MAP rule as an LRT

- The MAP decision rule is stated in terms of an LRT via the following picture
- If u_i is the observed value of \mathbf{X} , then compute the value of the likelihood ratio $= p_1(u_i)/p_0(u_i)$
- This says choose H_1 if $> \rho' / 1$ and choose H_0 if $< \rho' / 1$

$$\begin{matrix} H_1 \\ \geq \\ \rho' / 1 \\ \leq \\ H_0 \end{matrix}$$

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Does the MAP rule make sense?

- The ML rule is the MAP rule for $\rho_0 = \rho_1$
- The ML rule accepts H_1 if > 1
- If $\rho_0 > \rho_1$, the MAP rule accepts H_1 only if $> \rho' / 1$ where we know that $\rho' / 1 > 1$
- When H_1 is less likely than H_0 , the MAP rule insists that it will **accept** H_1 only if there is **strong evidence** in favor of H_1
- A value barely larger than 1 is not enough: it better be “much larger”

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Decision regions

- Error probabilities are obtained quite easily via L and J
- Purely in terms of symbols, let the set of all possible values taken on by \mathbf{X} be partitioned into sets \mathcal{X}_0 and \mathcal{X}_1
- The **decision regions** \mathcal{X}_0 and \mathcal{X}_1 specify the decision rule
- If the observed value of \mathbf{X} is in \mathcal{X}_i , then decide that H_i is true

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Error probabilities

- $p_0(E) = P(E|H_0) = P\{X \in \mathcal{X}_0 | H_0\}$
- $p_0(E) = P(E|H_0) = \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u)$ where the subscript on the summation sign means that the summation is over the set \mathcal{X}_0
- Similarly, $p_1(E) = P(E|H_1) = \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u)$
- $P(E) = p_0(E) + p_1(E)$
 $= \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u) + \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u)$

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Average error probability

- $P(E) = p_0(E) + p_1(E)$
 $= \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u) + \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u)$
- Now add and subtract $\sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u)$ to get
 $P(E) = \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u) + \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u)$
 $+ \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u) - \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u)$
 $= \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} [p_1(u) - p_0(u)] + \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u)$
- In this sum, the first term is fixed, but we can affect the total by careful choice of \mathcal{X}_0

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Minimum error probability

- $P(E) = \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} [p_1(u) - p_0(u)] + \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u)$ where the sum is over the set \mathcal{X}_0
- The choice of the set \mathcal{X}_0 is up to us
- How can we choose \mathcal{X}_0 to minimize $P(E)$?
- If we include in \mathcal{X}_0 every value (and only those values) of X for which
 $p_1(u) - p_0(u) < 0$
then the sum is as negative as possible

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Minimum error probability rule

- The set \mathcal{X}_0 is chosen to include every value (and only those values) of X for which
 $p_1(u) - p_0(u) < 0$
- This is equivalent to saying that we decide in favor of H_0 exactly when the likelihood ratio $\frac{p_1(u)}{p_0(u)}$ is smaller than $\frac{p_0(u)}{p_1(u)}$
- This provides an alternative derivation of the minimum error probability decision rule

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Costs and risks

- $C_{i,j}$ is the cost if we decide that hypothesis H_j is true when in fact hypothesis H_i is true
- $C_{i,i}$ could be negative (indicating a reward) or it could be positive (representing the fixed costs associated with experiment)
- Assumption: $C_{i,j} > C_{i,i}$
- Costs are also called risks
- Can costs be determined?

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The average risk or cost

- Over a large number of trials, we incur different costs on different trials
- The average cost or the expected value of the cost depends on the choice of the decision regions \mathcal{X}_0 and \mathcal{X}_1
- Average cost
 $= \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u) C_{1,0} + \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u) C_{0,1}$
 $+ \sum_{\mathcal{X}_0} p_0(u) C_{0,0} + \sum_{\mathcal{X}_1} p_1(u) C_{1,1}$

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Minimum average risk or cost

- Average cost

$$= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 p_0(u) C_{1,0} + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 p_1(u) C_{0,1} + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 p_0(u) C_{0,0} + \int_0^1 \int_0^1 p_1(u) C_{1,1}$$
- Same trick of adding and subtracting gives that the **average cost** can be **minimized** by **comparing** the likelihood ratio to the **threshold** $(C_{1,0} - C_{0,0}) / (C_{0,1} - C_{1,1})$
- If $C_{1,0} = C_{0,1}$ and $C_{0,0} = C_{1,1}$, we get the MAP rule!

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Bayes' risk or cost

- The average cost or risk of the minimum cost rule is called the **Bayes' risk**
- We will not discuss costs any further (or require you to understand them on exams)
- For $M \geq 3$ hypotheses, the calculations are messier — see the Lecture Notes from Fall 1997 on the class web page for some details if you are interested

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Summary

- We have discussed the minimum error probability decision rule (a.k.a. MAP or maximum a posteriori probability or Bayes' rule) at some length
- We introduced the notion of the likelihood ratio and the likelihood ratio test
- The ML decision rule and MAP decision rule are **threshold tests** on
- The minimum-cost rule is also a threshold test on

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