## E is the new P

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#### Neyman-Pearson



#### A Paradox of NP Hypothesis Testing

"[all of] mathematical statistics deals with problems relating to performance characteristics of rules of inductive behavior [ie decision rules] based on random experiments" - J. Neyman (1950)

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- ...when doing a level α-hypothesis test, it is common to mention p-value next to accept/reject decision
- ...but then, what are the decision-theoretic consequences of this? Can we use an observation  $p \ll \alpha$  to somehow get better decisions?

#### The Problem of



## The Paradox of NP Hypothesis Testing

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#### No simple, valid consequences can be given!

NP adherents (e.g. Lehmann, 1993) simply say p should be mentioned because it *provides more information*...

## The Paradox of NP Hypothesis Testing

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**Paradox:** NP says: statistics is about decision rules. Yet a standard practice in NP statistics has no decision-theoretic interpretation...

#### Fiercest critics are from within...

- p-values often "bashed" because they are interpreted as evidence against the null, whereas they have properties that any reasonable definition of evidence shouldn't have (Cox '58, likelihoodists, Bayesians...)
- here we provide Criticism from Within: even if (like me!) one likes the decision-theoretic NP framework, p-values are better replaced by something else which does have decision-theoretic consequences...

## E is the new P

- 1st claim: we should mention an E-value rather than a P-value next to our decision!
- Reason: E-values have valid frequentist post-hoc decision-theoretic implications – decision problem may be formulated after data observed, and may be data-dependent
- 2<sup>nd</sup> contribution: the E-posterior alternative to confidence interval/distribution that can deal with post-hoc loss functions as well
  - Iink to ISIPTA concepts...

#### But first: ...back to Wald (1939)

Reformulate NP testing in terms of losses/risks rather than errors/ error probabilities

- $L: \{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_0^+$
- $L(\theta, a)$  : loss incurred when  $H_{\theta}$  is true, and action a is taken



- *L*(0,1): Type-I loss
- *L*(1,0): Type-II loss



#### NP with losses rather than errors

- $L: \{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} \to \mathbb{R}_0^+; L(0,0) = L(1,1) = 0$
- We fix ℓ > 0 and restrict ourselves to decision rules
   δ: 𝒴 → {0,1} with Type-I risk bound:

$$\sup_{P \in H_0} \mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P}[L(0, \delta(Y))] \le \ell$$

(usually  $\ell = L(1,0)$ , cost of "maintaining status quo") Here's a  $\delta$  that achieves this based on p-value p(Y):  $\delta(y) = 1$  iff  $p(y) \cdot L(0,1) \leq \ell$ 

**Example**:  $\ell := 1$ ;  $L(0,1) = \alpha^{-1}$  (e.g. 20) Then  $\delta(y) = 1$  iff  $p(y) \cdot \alpha^{-1} \le 1$  (e.g. reject if  $p(Y) \le 0.05$ )

#### NP with losses rather than errors

- $L: \{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} \to \mathbb{R}_0^+; L(0,0) = L(1,1) = 0$
- We fix  $\ell > 0$  and restrict ourselves to decision rules  $\delta: \mathcal{Y} \to \{0,1\}$  with **Type-I risk bound**:

$$\sup_{P \in H_0} \mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P}[L(0, \delta(Y))] \le \ell$$

Set  $\delta(y) = 1$  iff  $p(y) \cdot L(0,1) \le \ell$ 

**Example**:  $\ell := 1$ ;  $L(0,1) = \alpha^{-1}$  (e.g. 20) Then  $\delta(y) = 1$  iff  $p(y) \cdot \alpha^{-1} \le 1$  (e.g. reject iff  $p(Y) \le 0.05$ )

Up till now we merely reformulated standard NP theory!

- Suppose there are more than 2 actions. The more extreme an action, the larger Type-I loss and the higher Type-II gain:
- $L: \{0,1\} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}_0^+$  with  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is loss function such that L(0,a) increasing in a, and L(1,a) decreasing in a



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- Intuitive extension of *p*-value based decision rule:
   set δ(y) to largest *a* such that p(y) · L(0, a) ≤ ℓ

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Ex.: L(0,0) = 0, L(0,1) = 20, L(0,2) = 100, L(0,3) = 500  $L(1,0) > L(1,1) > L(1,2) > L(1,3), \ell = 1$ If p uniform under  $H_0$  then Type-I risk is:  $E_{P_0}[L(0,\delta(Y))] = (\frac{1}{20} - \frac{1}{100}) \cdot 20 + (\frac{1}{100} - \frac{1}{500}) \cdot 100 + \frac{1}{500} \cdot 500 = 2.6$ 

- $L: \{0,1\} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}_0^+, L(0,a)$  increasing, L(1,a) decreasing
- Intuitive extension of *p*-value based decision rule: set δ(y) to largest a such that p(y) · L(0, a) ≤ ℓ (\*)
   This does not give desired Type-I risk ≤ ℓ guarantee
   ...and it is not easy to 'repair' the rule (\*)

- $L: \{0,1\} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}_0^+$  is a loss function such that L(0,a) increasing in a, and L(1,a) decreasing in a
- Intuitive extension of *p*-value based decision rule: set δ(y) to largest *a* such that p(y) · L(0, a) ≤ ℓ (\*)
  This does not give desired Type-I risk ≤ ℓ guarantee
  ...and it is not easy to 'repair' the rule (\*)
  Clue #1 of this Talk: if we instead use decision rule set δ(y) to largest *a* such that S<sup>-1</sup>(y) · L(0, a) ≤ ℓ
  where S(y) is any E-value, then we always have the Type-I risk guarantee.

#### but it gets worse: Post-Hoc Decision Tasks

- Now suppose loss function  $L_b$  only determined after Y is observed. It may depend, in unknown ways, on Y:
- i.e. there is a collection  $\{L_b: \{0,1\} \times \mathcal{A}_b \to \mathbb{R}_0^+: b \in \mathcal{B}\}$  $\forall b \in \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{A}_b \subset \mathbb{R}, L_b(0, a)$  increasing,  $L_b(1, a)$  decreasing
- We are presented with  $L_B$  where *B* is a RV, and are asked to play  $a \in \mathcal{A}_B$ . Intuitive *p*-value based  $\delta$  is still  $\delta_B(y) = \text{largest } a \in \mathcal{A}_B \text{ such that } p(y) \cdot L_B(0, a) \leq \ell$

doesn't give desired Type-I risk bound, even if  $|A_B| = 2$ 

#### **Post-Hoc Decision Tasks**

Type-I risk now defined as

$$\sup_{P_0 \in H_0, Q} \mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P_0, B \sim Q|Y} \left[ L_B(0, \delta_B(Y)) \right]$$

...where supremum is over **all** conditional distributions Q that map each Y = y to distribution on  $\mathcal{B}$ 

Ex.: 
$$\mathcal{B} = \{1,2,3\}, \mathcal{A}_b = \{0,b\},$$
  
 $L_b(0,0) = 0, L_1(0,1) = 20, L_2(0,2) = 100, L_3(0,3) = 500$   
 $B(Y) = \text{largest } b \text{ such that } p(Y) \cdot L_b(0,b) \le 1$ 

(Type-I risk of our p-value based  $\delta$  with this *B* is 3)

#### First it gets worse: Post-Hoc Decision Tasks

- There is some collection  $\{L_b: \{0,1\} \times \mathcal{A}_b \to \mathbb{R}_0^+: b \in \mathcal{B}\}$ with  $\forall b \in \mathcal{B}, L_b(0, a)$  increasing,  $L_b(1, a)$  decreasing
- We are presented with  $L_B$ ;  $\mathcal{A}_B$  $\delta_B(y) = \text{largest } a \in \mathcal{A}_B \text{ such that } p(Y) \cdot L_B(0, a) \leq \ell$

doesn't give desired Type-I risk bound

...but again, replacing p by an inverse e-value does give the Type-I guarantee

## Why care about post-hoc data-dependent decision problems?

Scientific results go on record, for later use.

... sometimes years later, when e.g. costs of mass-producing a medication have decreased dramatically...



#### e-variables/e-values: General Definition

An **e-variable** is a **nonnegative** function S = S(Y) such that for **all**  $P_0 \in H_0$ , we have

# $\mathbf{E}_{P_0}\left[S(Y)\right] \le 1$

## **Meet The E-Team:**



Aaditya Ramdas & co., CMU (2018-)





Johanna Ziegel, & co. Bern (2021-)

Glenn Shafer & Volodya Vovk (1993, 2011,2019-)

Johannes Ruf, LSE (2020-)







G., Wouter Koolen and the CWI Team (2019-)

Ruodu Wang, U. Waterloo (2020-)

## **Meet The E-Team:**

#### Aaditya Ramdas & co., CMU (2018-)

E-variables have been proposed as alternative for p-values

- that can deal more easily with optional continuation, stopping and combining of studies
- that have a clearer interpretation (in terms of betting)
- that are mathematically easier to handle in multipletesting problems.

...cf. first SAVI meeting last June in the Netherlands...

#### Today I provide quite a different motivation.



G., Wouter Koolen and the CWI Team (2019-)

U. Waterloo (2020-)

1-)

ng,

#### **1st Interpretation: p-value after all**

- Proposition: Let S be an e-variable. Then S<sup>-1</sup>(Y) is a conservative p-value, i.e. p-value with wiggle room:
- for all  $P \in H_0$ , all  $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ ,

$$P\left(\frac{1}{S(Y)} \le \alpha\right) \le \alpha$$



Proof: just Markov's inequality!

$$P\left(S(Y) \ge \alpha^{-1}\right) \le \frac{\mathbf{E}[S(Y)]}{\alpha^{-1}} \le \alpha$$

#### "Safe" Tests (G. et al, '21)

- The test against  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  based on e-variable *S* is defined as the test which rejects  $H_0$  if  $S(Y) \ge \frac{1}{\alpha}$
- Since  $S^{-1}$  is a conservative *p*-value...
- ....the test which rejects  $H_0$  iff  $S(Y) \ge 20$ , i.e.  $S^{-1}(Y) \le 0.05$ , has **Type-I Error** Bound of 0.05



• Bayes factor hypothesis testing (Jeffreys '39) with simple  $H_0 = \{P_0\}$  vs  $H_1 = \{p_{\theta} | \theta \in \Theta_1\}$ : Evidence in favour of  $H_1$  measured by Bayes factor:

$$S = \frac{p_{W_1}(Y)}{p_0(Y)} \quad \text{where} \quad p_{W_1}(Y) := \int_{\theta \in \Theta_1} p_{\theta}(Y) dW_1(\theta)$$

Bayes factor hypothesis testing (Jeffreys '39)
 with simple H<sub>0</sub> = {P<sub>0</sub>} vs H<sub>1</sub> = { p<sub>θ</sub> | θ ∈ Θ<sub>1</sub>} :
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$$\mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P_0}[S(Y)] = \int p_0(y) \cdot \frac{p_{W_1}(y)}{p_0(y)} dy = \int p_{W_1}(y) dy = 1$$

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No matter what prior  $W_1$  we choose, Bayes Factor for simple  $H_0$  is an E-variable



Side-Remark: even if  $H_0$  is composite or nonparametric, nontrivial E-variables invariably exist but relation to likelihood/ Bayes factors is much trickier.

The paper 'Safe Testing' (G. et al. '21) is entirely devoted to composite nulls

$$\mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P_0}[S(Y)] = \int p_0(y) \cdot \frac{p_{W_1}(y)}{p_0(y)} dy = \int p_{W_1}(y) dy = 1$$

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#### Back to the post-hoc losses

**GNP Lemma (G. '22), Part I**: for every *Generalized* NP problem, and every E-variable *S*, the **Type-I risk** of the **maximal** *S*-based decision rule

 $\delta_b(y) = \text{largest } a \in \mathcal{A}_b \text{ such that } S^{-1}(y) \cdot L_b(0, a) \leq \ell$  is bounded by  $\ell$ .

Generalized NP means: Type I risk defined as

$$\sup_{P_0 \in H_0, Q} \mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P_0, B \sim Q|Y} \left[ L_B(0, \delta_B(Y)) \right]$$

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#### Back to the post-hoc losses

**GNP Lemma (G. '22), Part I**: for every generalized NP problem, and every E-variable *S*, the **Type-I risk** of the maximal *S*-based decision rule

 $\delta_b(y) = \text{largest } a \in \mathcal{A}_b \text{ such that } S^{-1}(y) \cdot L_b(0, a) \leq \ell$  is bounded by  $\ell$  .

**Proof**: for all  $P \in H_0$ , arbitrary conditional distributions Q for random variable B, we have:

 $\mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P_0, B \sim Q|Y} \left[ L_B(0, \delta_B(Y)) \right]$ 

 $\leq \mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P_0} \left[ \sup_{b \in \mathcal{B}} L_b(0, \delta_b(Y)) \right] \leq \mathbf{E}_{Y \sim P_0} \left[ S(Y) \ell \right] \leq 1 \cdot \ell.$ 

#### **A Complete Class-Like Theorem**

**GNP Lemma**, Part I : for every generalized NP problem, and every E-variable *S* for which it exists, the **Type-I risk** of the maximal *S*-based decision rule

 $\delta_b(y) = \text{largest } a \in \mathcal{A}_b \text{ such that } S^{-1}(y) \cdot L_b(0, a) \leq \ell$  is bounded by  $\ell$ .

Part II, about Type-II risk: under reasonable regularity conditions, every  $\delta$  that has Type-I risk bound  $\leq \ell$  and that is "**Type-II risk admissible**" is a maximal *S*-based decision rule relative to some E-variable *S* 

### The **BIND** Assumption

- If for each b ∈ B the Type-I loss functions L<sub>b</sub>(0,·) can take on only two values {0, c<sub>b</sub>} and B is probabilistically independent of Y then we get valid Type-I risk bounds with p- rather than E-vals. after all
- Thus, we might say that classical NP testing works under a **BIND** (Binary+Independence) assumption...



#### Second Contribution: The E-Posterior

- BIND assumption also underlies the valid use of confidence intervals, confidence distributions and 'matching' Objective Bayes posteriors.
- It often cannot be justified...and then we should replace the confidence distribution by something more conservative...: the E-Posterior

#### E-posteriors...

- ...have been implicitly used for several years, to provide anytime-valid confidence intervals
- i.e. to define confidence sequences that are valid under optional stopping, but still for fixed α!
  - p-values  $\Rightarrow$  standard Cis
  - e-values  $\Rightarrow$  e-Cls

#### E-posteriors...

- ...have been implicitly used for several years, to provide anytime-valid confidence intervals
- i.e. to define confidence sequences that are valid under optional stopping, but still for fixed α!

Instead we use them

- to make risk-based confidence statements (a bit like data-dependent α) ...
- (make predictions and uncertainty assessments for general loss functions (like the Bayes posterior))

#### **The E-Posterior**

- Let  $\{P_{\theta}: \theta \in \Theta\}$  represent a statistical model, and let  $\{S_{\theta}: \theta \in \Theta\}$  be an e-collection
- i.e. each  $S_{\theta}$  is E-variable for null hypothesis  $\{P_{\theta}\}$
- E-Posterior relative to S defined simply as

$$\overline{P}(\theta \mid y) \coloneqq S_{\theta}^{-1}(Y)$$

Prime example: each  $S_{\theta}$  is Bayes factor,

 $S_{\theta} = \frac{p_{W}(Y)}{p_{\theta}(Y)} = \frac{\int p_{\theta}(Y) w(\theta) d\theta}{p_{\theta}(Y)} \text{ so that } \overline{P}(\theta|y) = \frac{w(\theta|y)}{w(\theta)}$ In this special case a.k.a. Savage-Dickey ratio

#### **The E-Posterior**

Prime example: each  $S_{\theta}$  is Bayes factor,

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**Example:** normal location family  $Y \sim N(\theta, 1), w(\theta)$  normal with mean 0, variance 1

$$\overline{P}(\theta|y) = \sqrt{n+1} \cdot e^{-\frac{n}{2}(\theta - \widehat{\theta})^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{n}{n+1} \widehat{\theta}^2}$$

 luckiness term depending on how well data aligns with prior

- Actions are intervals.
- Loss:  $L_B(\theta, [\theta_L, \theta_R]) = B \cdot 1_{\theta \notin [\theta_L, \theta_R]}$

(linear importance weighting ; could also do non-linear, but not in this talk!)

- Actions are intervals.
- Loss:  $L_B(\theta, [\theta_L, \theta_R]) = B \cdot 1_{\theta \notin [\theta_L, \theta_R]}$
- Decision rule  $CI_B(Y) = [\hat{\theta}_{L,B}(Y), \hat{\theta}_{R,B}(Y)]$  is called a **risk-confidence interval** if for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ :  $E_{P_{\theta}}[L_B(\theta, CI_B(Y))] \leq \ell$

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- If  $\ell = 1$  and *B* would be constant > 1 then this would simply be a 1 1/B standard confidence interval
- $B = 20 \Rightarrow 95\%$  CI

- Actions are intervals.
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- If  $\ell = 1$  and *B* would be constant > 1 then this would simply be a 1 1/B standard confidence interval
- *B* indicates 'how bad it is to be wrong'.
- Again we allow it to depend on data!
- CI' is **better** than CI if it is "always" narrower

#### **Post-Hoc Trouble**

Goal: design best (narrowest) confidence interval st for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ : risk( $\theta$ ) :=  $\mathbf{E}_{P_{\theta}}[L_B(\theta, [\hat{\theta}_{L,B}, \hat{\theta}_{R,B}])] \leq 1$ 

- If *B* were constant we'd simply pick  $1 B^{-1}$  standard CI
- In normal location family, this is  $[\hat{\theta} A/\sqrt{n}, \hat{\theta} + A/\sqrt{n}]$  with e.g. if B = 20 then A = 1.96 (95% CI)
- If we treat confidence distributions or O'Bayes posteriors as subjective posteriors, then we condition on *B* and would output the same thing

...may again fail **dramatically** if *B* is determined post-hoc

#### **Post-Hoc Trouble**

We **expect**  $risk(\theta)$  of this procedure bounded by  $\ell$ But if in reality *B* can depend on data in unknown ways, actual  $risk(\theta)$  may be much larger, **even**  $\infty$ (see paper)

#### **Post-Hoc Fun**

• Loss:  $L_B(\theta, [\theta_L, \theta_R]) = B \cdot 1_{\theta \notin [\theta_L, \theta_R]}$ 

**e-posterior approach**: for any *Y*, pick  $CI_B(Y)$  such that  $\max_{\theta} \overline{P}(\theta|Y) \cdot L_B(\theta, CI_B(Y)) \leq \ell$ (and then of course, the smallest such  $CI_B(Y)$ )

risk( $\theta$ ) of this procedure is indeed bounded by  $\ell$ , for all  $\theta$ , as long as  $\overline{P}(\theta \mid Y)$  is a valid e-posterior

#### **The Capped E-Posterior**

- We call the importance *B* **nontrivial**, if  $B > \ell$  (if presented with trivial *B*, simply output empty interval!)
- For any nontrivial B, CI<sub>B</sub>(Y) = [θ̂<sub>L,B</sub>, θ̂<sub>R,B</sub>] satisfies constraint
  max P̄(θ|Y) · B · 1<sub>θ∉CIB(Y)</sub> ≤ ℓ
  only if P̄(θ|Y) ≤ 1 for all θ ∉ [θ̂<sub>L,B</sub>, θ̂<sub>R,B</sub>]

...but this means that we may replace the E-posterior by its capped version:  $\overline{P}^{CAP}(\theta \mid y) = \min\{1, \overline{P}(\theta \mid Y)\}$ 

#### **Post-Hoc Fun**

• Loss:  $L_B(\theta, [\theta_L, \theta_R]) = B \cdot 1_{\theta \notin [\theta_L, \theta_R]}$ 

capped e-posterior approach: for any *Y*, pick  $CI_B(Y)$  s.t.  $\max_{\theta} \overline{P}^{CAP}(\theta|Y) \cdot L_B(\theta, CI_B(Y)) \leq \ell$ (and then of course, the smallest such  $CI_B(Y)$ )

risk( $\theta$ ) of this procedure is indeed bounded by  $\ell$ , for all  $\theta$ , as long as  $\overline{P}(\theta \mid Y)$  is a valid e-posterior

#### normal location, $\widehat{\theta} = 1, n = 100$



with cleverly chosen e-vars, the E-posterior 95% confidence is  $\hat{\theta} \pm 2.72/\sqrt{n}$ , i.e. a factor 1.4 wider than the standard NP CI/Bayesian credible interval. This is the best we can do.

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#### The 'Best' E-Posterior

$$\overline{P}_{\text{Savage-Dickey}}(\theta|y) = \frac{p_{\theta}(y)}{\int p_{\theta}(y) \, dW(\theta)}$$
$$\overline{P}_{\text{clever}}(\theta|y) \coloneqq \frac{p_{\theta}(y)}{\int p_{\theta}(y) \, dW_{\sim \theta}(\theta)}$$

normal location: 
$$\overline{P}_{\text{best}}(\theta \mid y) \coloneqq \frac{p_{\theta}(y)}{\frac{1}{2}p_{\theta}-(y)+\frac{1}{2}p_{\theta}+(y)}$$

with 
$$\theta^-, \theta^+$$
 such that  $D(\theta || \theta^-) = D(\theta || \theta^+) = \frac{\log \frac{2}{\alpha^*}}{n}$ 

#### **Questions for ISIPTA**

- What is relation between capped e-posterior and
  - Martin-Liu inferential models?

(I think the capped posterior is one – with a substantially stronger notion of validity)

- Possibility distributions/contour functions?
- If there is a relation, can it be used to derive an eposterior calculus!?

#### **Another Isipta Issue**

- Let  $\overline{P}(\theta \mid y)$  be Savage-Dickey e-posterior for prior W
- Bayes posterior risk assessment for general losses:

 $\mathbf{E}_{\theta \sim W|Y} \left[ L_B(\theta, \delta_B(Y)) \right] = \mathbf{E}_{\theta \sim W} \left[ \overline{P}(\theta \mid Y) \cdot L_B(\theta, \delta_B(Y)) \right]$ 

- E-posterior risk assessment for general losses:  $\max_{\theta} \bar{P}(\theta|Y) L_B(\theta, \delta_B(Y)) = \max_{W'} \mathbf{E}_{\theta \sim W'} \left[ \bar{P}(\theta|Y) \cdot L_B(\theta, \delta_B(Y)) \right]$
- Do something inbetween, with sets of priors!?!?!?

#### **The Quasi-Conditional Paradigm**

With E-posteriors, decision task can depend on data in arbitrary & unknown ways

• can be chosen 'conditional on data', just like in Bayes

...but one evaluates procedures unconditionally, in expectation under the unknown true distribution

- Fully frequentist
- If prior chosen badly, e-posterior becomes wide rather than wrong

We call this a quasi-conditional approach. Inspired by, but quite different from, conditionalist frequentist inference as developed by (mainly) Kiefer and Berger

#### **Role of Prior in E-Posterior**

#### **Role of Prior in Bayes**

## Read more about this **Quasi-Conditional** Paradigm?

- G. Beyond Neyman-Pearson <a href="http://arxiv.org/abs/2205.00901">http://arxiv.org/abs/2205.00901</a>
- G., De Heide, Koolen. *Safe Testing,* Arxiv '19/'21

#### **E-Variables and the NP Lemma**

Suppose  $H_0 = \{P_0\}, H_1 = \{P_1\}$  are simple.

The test based on LR E-variable  $S^{lr} = p_1(Y)/p_0(Y)$ looks a bit like, but is *not* the maximum power NP test. Safe Test: reject if  $S(Y) \ge 1/\alpha$  **more conservative** NP: reject if  $S(Y) \ge B$  with B s.t.  $P_0(S(Y) \ge B) = \alpha$ 

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Yet:  

$$S^{\operatorname{np}(\alpha)}(Y) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p(Y) > \alpha \\ \alpha^{-1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

...is also an E-variable:  $E_{P_0}[S^{np(\alpha)}] \le \alpha \cdot \alpha^{-1} = 1$  and its corresponding test **coincides** with the NP test

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...is also an E-variable:  $E_{P_0}[S^{np(\alpha)}] \leq \alpha \cdot \alpha^{-1} = 1$  and its corresponding test **coincides** with the NP test ...coincidentally this shows that nothing lost by using E instead of p: we can mimick all of NP testing theory