• Two-sided tests about θ have the form:

$$H_0: \theta = c \text{ vs. } H_a: \theta \neq c$$

for some constant c.

- We cannot test this using a continuous prior on θ, because that would result in a prior probability P[θ ∈ Θ₀] =0 and thus a posterior probability P[θ ∈ Θ₀|x] =0 for any data set x.
- ► We could place a prior probability mass on the point θ = c, but many Bayesians are uncomfortable with this since the value of this point mass is impossible to judge and is likely to greatly affect the posterior.

Two-Sided Tests

- One solution: Pick a small value ε > 0 such that if θ is within ε of c, it is considered "practically indistinguishable" from c.
- ► Then let $\Theta_0 = [c \epsilon, c + \epsilon]$ and find the posterior probability that $\theta \in \Theta_0$.
- ► Example 1 again: Testing $H_0: \theta = 0.10$ vs. $H_a: \theta \neq 0.10$. Letting $\epsilon = 0.003$, then $\Theta_0 = [0.097, 0.103]$ and

$$P[heta \in \Theta_0 | \mathbf{y}] = \int\limits_{.097}^{.103} \pi(heta | \mathbf{y}) \, \mathrm{d} heta = .033$$

from R.

Another solution (mimicking classical approach): Derive a 100(1 – α)% (two-sided) HPD credible interval for θ. Reject H₀: θ = c "at level α" if and only if c falls outside this credible interval.

- Note: Bayesian decision theory attempts to specify the cost of a wrong decision to conclude H₀ or H_a through a loss function.
- We might evaluate the *Bayes risk* of some decision rule, i.e., its expected loss with respect to the posterior distribution of *θ*.

- The Bayes Factor provides a way to formally compare two competing models, say M₁ and M₂.
- It is similar to testing a "full model" vs. "reduced model" (with, e.g., a likelihood ratio test) in classical statistics.
- However, with the Bayes Factor, one model does not have to be nested within the other.
- Given a data set x, we compare models

 $M_1: f_1(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_1) \text{ and } M_2: f_2(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_2)$

We may specify prior distributions p₁(θ₁) and p₂(θ₂) that lead to prior probabilities for each model p(M₁) and p(M₂). By Bayes' Law, the **posterior odds** in favor of Model 1 versus Model 2 is:

$$\frac{\pi(M_1|\mathbf{x})}{\pi(M_2|\mathbf{x})} = \frac{\int_{\Theta_1} \frac{p(M_1)f_1(\mathbf{x}|\theta_1)p_1(\theta_1) d\theta_1}{p(\mathbf{x})}}{\int_{\Theta_2} \frac{p(M_2)f_2(\mathbf{x}|\theta_2)p_2(\theta_2) d\theta_2}{p(\mathbf{x})}}$$
$$= \frac{p(M_1)}{p(M_2)} \cdot \frac{\int_{\Theta_1} f_1(\mathbf{x}|\theta_1)p_1(\theta_1) d\theta_1}{\int_{\Theta_2} f_2(\mathbf{x}|\theta_2)p_2(\theta_2) d\theta_2}$$
$$= [\text{prior odds}] \times [\text{Bayes Factor } B(\mathbf{x})]$$

Rearranging, the Bayes Factor is:

$$B(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\pi(M_1|\mathbf{x})}{\pi(M_2|\mathbf{x})} \times \frac{p(M_2)}{p(M_1)}$$
$$= \frac{\pi(M_1|\mathbf{x})/\pi(M_2|\mathbf{x})}{p(M_1)/p(M_2)}$$

(the ratio of the posterior odds for M_1 to the prior odds for M_1).

- ► Note: If the prior model probabilities are equal, i.e., p(M₁) = p(M₂), then the Bayes Factor equals the posterior odds for M₁.
- ► Note: If p(M₁) = p(M₂) and the parameter spaces Θ₁ and Θ₂ are the same, then the Bayes Factor reduces to a likelihood ratio.

Note that:

$$B(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\pi(M_1|\mathbf{x})}{\pi(M_2|\mathbf{x})} \times \frac{p(M_2)}{p(M_1)} = \frac{\frac{\pi(M_1,\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})p(M_1)}}{\frac{\pi(M_2,\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})p(M_2)}}$$
$$= \frac{\frac{\pi(M_1,\mathbf{x})}{p(M_1)}}{\frac{\pi(M_2,\mathbf{x})}{p(M_2)}} = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}|M_1)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}|M_2)}$$

- Clearly a Bayes Factor much greater than 1 supports Model 1 over Model 2.
- Jeffreys proposed the following rules, if Model 1 represents a null model:

Result Conclusion

 $B(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1
ightarrow$ Model 1 supported

 $0.316 \leq B(\mathbf{x}) < 1
ightarrow$ Minimal evidence against Model 1

(Note $0.316 = 10^{-1/2}$)

 $0.1 \le B(\mathbf{x}) < 0.316 \rightarrow$ Substantial evidence against Model 1 $0.01 \le B(\mathbf{x}) < 0.1 \rightarrow$ Strong evidence against Model 1 $B(\mathbf{x}) < 0.01 \rightarrow$ Decisive evidence against Model 1

Clearly these labels are fairly arbitrary.

► In the case when there are only two possible models, M₁ and M₂, then given the Bayes Factor B(x), we can calculate the posterior probability of Model 1 as:

$$P(M_{1}|\mathbf{x}) = 1 - P(M_{2}|\mathbf{x}) = 1 - \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|M_{2})P(M_{2})}{P(\mathbf{x})}$$
$$= 1 - \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|M_{1})}{B(\mathbf{x})} \frac{P(M_{2})}{P(\mathbf{x})}$$
$$\Rightarrow P(M_{1}|\mathbf{x}) = 1 - \left\{\frac{1}{B(\mathbf{x})} \frac{P(M_{2})}{P(M_{1})}\right\} P(M_{1}|\mathbf{x})$$
$$\Rightarrow 1 = \left[1 + \left\{\frac{1}{B(\mathbf{x})} \frac{P(M_{2})}{P(M_{1})}\right\}\right] P(M_{1}|\mathbf{x})$$
$$\Rightarrow P(M_{1}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \left\{\frac{1}{B(\mathbf{x})} \frac{P(M_{2})}{P(M_{1})}\right\}}$$

Example: Comparing Two Means

Example 2(a): Comparing Two Means (Bayes Factor Approach)

- Data: Blood pressure reduction was measured for 11 patients who took calcium supplements and for 10 patients who took a placebo.
- We model the data with normal distributions having common variance:

Calcium data :
$$X_{1j} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(\mu_1, \sigma^2), \ j = 1, \dots, 11$$

Placebo data : $X_{2j} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(\mu_2, \sigma^2), \ j = 1, \dots, 10$

Consider the two-sided test for whether the mean BP reduction differs for the two groups:

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \text{ vs. } H_a: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$

We will place a prior on the difference of standardized means

$$\Delta = \frac{\mu_1 - \mu_2}{\sigma}$$

with specified prior mean μ_{Δ} and variance σ_{Δ}^2 .

Consider the classical two-sample t-statistic

$$T = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}}/\sqrt{n^*},$$

where
$$n^* = \left(rac{1}{n_1} + rac{1}{n_2}
ight)^{-1}$$

Example: Comparing Two Means

- H_0 and H_a define two specific models for the distribution of T.
- ► Under H₀, T ~ (central) t with (n₁ + n₂ 2) degrees of freedom.
- Under H_a , $T \sim$ noncentral t.
- With this prior, the Bayes Factor for H_0 over H_a is:

$$B(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{t_{n_1+n_2-2}(t^*, 0, 1)}{t_{n_1+n_2-2}(t^*, \mu_\Delta \sqrt{n^*}, 1+n^*\sigma_\Delta^2)}$$

where t^* is the observed *t*-statistic.

See R example to get $B(\mathbf{x})$ and $P[H_0|\mathbf{x}]$.

Example 2(a): Comparing Two Means (Gibbs Sampling Approach)

Same data set, but suppose our interest is in testing whether the calcium yields a **better** BP reduction than the placebo:

$$H_0: \mu_1 \leq \mu_2$$
 vs. $H_a: \mu_1 > \mu_2$

We set up the sampling model:

$$X_{1j} = \mu + \tau + \epsilon_{1j}, j = 1, \dots, 11$$

 $X_{2j} = \mu - \tau + \epsilon_{2j}, j = 1, \dots, 10$

where $\epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$. • Thus $\mu_1 = \mu + \tau$ and $\mu_2 = \mu - \tau$. We can assume independent priors for μ , τ , and σ^2 :

$$egin{aligned} & \mu \sim \textit{N}(\mu_{\mu}, \sigma_{\mu}^2) \ & au \sim \textit{N}(\mu_{ au}, \sigma_{ au}^2) \ & \sigma^2 \sim \textit{IG}(
u_1/2,
u_1
u_2/2) \end{aligned}$$

Then it can be shown that the full conditional distributions are:

$$\begin{split} \mu | \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \tau, \sigma^2 &\sim \text{Normal} \\ \tau | \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mu, \sigma^2 &\sim \text{Normal} \\ \sigma^2 | \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mu, \tau &\sim IG \end{split}$$

where the appropriate parameters are given in the R code.

- R example: Gibbs Sampler can obtain approximate posterior distributions for μ and (especially of interest) for τ.
- Note $P[\mu_1 > \mu_2 | \mathbf{x}] = P[\tau > 0 | \mathbf{x}].$
- We can also find the **posterior predictive** probability $P[X_1 > X_2]$.