# Package 'bayestestR'

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<span id="page-0-0"></span>Type Package

Title Understand and Describe Bayesian Models and Posterior Distributions

Version 0.13.2

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Description Provides utilities to describe posterior

distributions and Bayesian models. It includes point-estimates such as Maximum A Posteriori (MAP), measures of dispersion (Highest Density Interval - HDI; Kruschke, 2015 [<doi:10.1016/C2012-0-00477-2>](https://doi.org/10.1016/C2012-0-00477-2)) and indices used for null-hypothesis testing (such as ROPE percentage, pd and Bayes factors). References: Makowski et al. (2021) [<doi:10.21105/joss.01541>](https://doi.org/10.21105/joss.01541).

# Depends  $R$  ( $>= 3.6$ )

- **Imports** insight  $(>= 0.19.8)$ , datawizard  $(>= 0.9.1)$ , graphics, methods, stats, utils
- Suggests BayesFactor (>= 0.9.12-4.4), bayesQR, bayesplot, BH, blavaan, bridgesampling, brms, curl, effectsize, emmeans, gamm4, ggdist, ggplot2, glmmTMB, httr, KernSmooth, knitr, lavaan, lme4, logspline (>= 2.1.21), MASS, mclust, mediation, modelbased, parameters, patchwork, performance, quadprog, posterior, RcppEigen, rmarkdown, rstan, rstanarm, see (>= 0.7.5), testthat, tweedie

### License GPL-3

URL <https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/>

BugReports <https://github.com/easystats/bayestestR/issues>

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# R topics documented:



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area\_under\_curve *Area under the Curve (AUC)*

# Description

Based on the DescTools AUC function. It can calculate the area under the curve with a naive algorithm or a more elaborated spline approach. The curve must be given by vectors of xy-coordinates. This function can handle unsorted x values (by sorting x) and ties for the x values (by ignoring duplicates).

#### Usage

```
area\_under\_curve(x, y, method = c("trapezoid", "step", "splitne"), ...)auc(x, y, method = c("trapezoid", "step", "splitne"), ...)
```
#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>Arguments



## See Also

DescTools

### Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
posterior <- distribution_normal(1000)
dens <- estimate_density(posterior)
dens <- dens[dens$x > 0, ]
x <- dens$x
y <- dens$y
area_under_curve(x, y, method = "trapezoid")
area\_under\_curve(x, y, method = "step")area\_under\_curve(x, y, method = "split"
```
as.data.frame.density *Coerce to a Data Frame*

# Description

Coerce to a Data Frame

#### Usage

## S3 method for class 'density' as.data.frame(x, ...)

# Arguments



<span id="page-4-0"></span>as.numeric.map\_estimate

*Convert to Numeric*

## Description

Convert to Numeric

# Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'map_estimate'
as.numeric(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'p_direction'
as.numeric(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'p_map'
as.numeric(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'p_significance'
as.numeric(x, \ldots)
```
#### Arguments

x object to be coerced or tested. ... further arguments passed to or from other methods.

bayesfactor *Bayes Factors (BF)*

#### Description

This function compte the Bayes factors (BFs) that are appropriate to the input. For vectors or single models, it will compute [BFs for single parameters\(\)](#page-12-1), or is hypothesis is specified, [BFs for](#page-18-1) [restricted models\(\)](#page-18-1). For multiple models, it will return the BF corresponding to [comparison](#page-8-1) [between models\(\)](#page-8-1) and if a model comparison is passed, it will compute the [inclusion BF\(\)](#page-6-1).

For a complete overview of these functions, read the [Bayes factor vignette.](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

# Usage

```
bayesfactor(
  ...,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,
 hypothesis = NULL,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  verbose = TRUE,
 denominator = 1,
 match_models = FALSE,
 prior_odds = NULL
\mathcal{L}
```
# Arguments



#### Value

Some type of Bayes factor, depending on the input. See [bayesfactor\\_parameters\(\)](#page-12-1), [bayesfactor\\_models\(\)](#page-8-1) or [bayesfactor\\_inclusion\(\)](#page-6-1)

# Note

There is also a  $plot()$ [-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

# Examples

library(bayestestR)

prior  $\le$  distribution\_normal(1000, mean = 0, sd = 1)

# <span id="page-6-0"></span>bayesfactor\_inclusion 7

```
posterior \le- distribution_normal(1000, mean = .5, sd = .3)
bayesfactor(posterior, prior = prior, verbose = FALSE)
# rstanarm models
# ---------------
model <- suppressWarnings(rstanarm::stan_lmer(extra ~ group + (1 | ID), data = sleep))
bayesfactor(model, verbose = FALSE)
# Frequentist models
# ---------------
m0 <- lm(extra ~ 1, data = sleep)
m1 <- lm(extra ~ group, data = sleep)
m2 \leq -\ln(\text{extra} \sim \text{group} + \text{ID}, \text{data} = \text{sleep})comparison <- bayesfactor(m0, m1, m2)
comparison
bayesfactor(comparison)
```
<span id="page-6-1"></span>bayesfactor\_inclusion *Inclusion Bayes Factors for testing predictors across Bayesian models*

# Description

The  $bf_{\star}$  function is an alias of the main function.

For more info, see [the Bayes factors vignette.](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

#### Usage

```
bayesfactor_inclusion(models, match_models = FALSE, prior_odds = NULL, ...)
```

```
bf_inclusion(models, match_models = FALSE, prior_odds = NULL, ...)
```
#### Arguments



#### Details

Inclusion Bayes factors answer the question: Are the observed data more probable under models with a particular effect, than they are under models without that particular effect? In other words, on average - are models with effect  $X$  more likely to have produced the observed data than models without effect  $X$ ?

Match Models: If match\_models=FALSE (default), Inclusion BFs are computed by comparing all models with a term against all models without that term. If TRUE, comparison is restricted to models that (1) do not include any interactions with the term of interest; (2) for interaction terms, averaging is done only across models that containe the main effect terms from which the interaction term is comprised.

# Value

a data frame containing the prior and posterior probabilities, and log(BF) for each effect (Use as.numeric() to extract the non-log Bayes factors; see examples).

#### Interpreting Bayes Factors

A Bayes factor greater than 1 can be interpreted as evidence against the null, at which one convention is that a Bayes factor greater than 3 can be considered as "substantial" evidence against the null (and vice versa, a Bayes factor smaller than 1/3 indicates substantial evidence in favor of the null-model) (Wetzels et al. 2011).

#### **Note**

Random effects in the lmer style are converted to interaction terms: i.e., (X|G) will become the terms  $1:G$  and  $X:G$ .

#### Author(s)

Mattan S. Ben-Shachar

#### References

- Hinne, M., Gronau, Q. F., van den Bergh, D., and Wagenmakers, E. (2019, March 25). A conceptual introduction to Bayesian Model Averaging. [doi:10.31234/osf.io/wgb64](https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/wgb64)
- Clyde, M. A., Ghosh, J., & Littman, M. L. (2011). Bayesian adaptive sampling for variable selection and model averaging. Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics, 20(1), 80- 101.
- Mathot, S. (2017). Bayes like a Baws: Interpreting Bayesian Repeated Measures in JASP. [Blog post.](https://www.cogsci.nl/blog/interpreting-bayesian-repeated-measures-in-jasp)

#### See Also

[weighted\\_posteriors\(\)](#page-108-1) for Bayesian parameter averaging.

#### <span id="page-8-0"></span>bayesfactor\_models 9

#### Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
# Using bayesfactor_models:
# ------------------------------
mo0 <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ 1, data = iris)
mo1 <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
mo2 <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species + Petal.Length, data = iris)
mo3 <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species * Petal.Length, data = iris)
BFmodels <- bayesfactor_models(mo1, mo2, mo3, denominator = mo0)
(bf_inc <- bayesfactor_inclusion(BFmodels))
as.numeric(bf_inc)
# BayesFactor
# -------------------------------
BF <- BayesFactor::generalTestBF(len ~ supp * dose, ToothGrowth, progress = FALSE)
bayesfactor_inclusion(BF)
# compare only matched models:
bayesfactor_inclusion(BF, match_models = TRUE)
```
<span id="page-8-1"></span>bayesfactor\_models *Bayes Factors (BF) for model comparison*

#### Description

This function computes or extracts Bayes factors from fitted models.

The  $bf_{\perp}$  function is an alias of the main function.

#### Usage

```
bayesfactor_models(\dots, denominator = 1, verbose = TRUE)
bf_modes(..., denominator = 1, verbose = TRUE)## Default S3 method:
bayesfactor_models(..., denominator = 1, verbose = TRUE)
## S3 method for class 'bayesfactor_models'
update(objject, subset = NULL, reference = NULL, ...)## S3 method for class 'bayesfactor_models'
as.matrix(x, \ldots)
```
#### Arguments



#### Details

If the passed models are supported by **insight** the DV of all models will be tested for equality (else this is assumed to be true), and the models' terms will be extracted (allowing for follow-up analysis with bayesfactor\_inclusion).

- For brmsfit or stanreg models, Bayes factors are computed using the **[bridgesampling](https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=bridgesampling)** package.
	- $-$  brmsfit models must have been fitted with save\_pars = save\_pars(all = TRUE).
	- stanreg models must have been fitted with a defined diagnostic\_file.
- For BFBayesFactor, bayesfactor\_models() is mostly a wraparound BayesFactor::extractBF().
- For all other model types, Bayes factors are computed using the BIC approximation. Note that BICs are extracted from using insight::get loglikelihood, see documentation there for options for dealing with transformed responses and REML estimation.

In order to correctly and precisely estimate Bayes factors, a rule of thumb are the 4 P's: Proper Priors and Plentiful Posteriors. How many? The number of posterior samples needed for testing is substantially larger than for estimation (the default of 4000 samples may not be enough in many cases). A conservative rule of thumb is to obtain 10 times more samples than would be required for estimation (*Gronau, Singmann, & Wagenmakers, 2017*). If less than 40,000 samples are detected, bayesfactor\_models() gives a warning.

See also [the Bayes factors vignette.](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

#### Value

A data frame containing the models' formulas (reconstructed fixed and random effects) and their log(BF)s (Use as.numeric() to extract the non-log Bayes factors; see examples), that prints nicely.

#### Interpreting Bayes Factors

A Bayes factor greater than 1 can be interpreted as evidence against the null, at which one convention is that a Bayes factor greater than 3 can be considered as "substantial" evidence against the null (and vice versa, a Bayes factor smaller than 1/3 indicates substantial evidence in favor of the null-model) (Wetzels et al. 2011).

#### Note

There is also a plot ()[-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

#### Author(s)

Mattan S. Ben-Shachar

#### References

- Gronau, Q. F., Singmann, H., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2017). Bridgesampling: An R package for estimating normalizing constants. arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.08162.
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- Wagenmakers, E. J. (2007). A practical solution to the pervasive problems of p values. Psychonomic bulletin & review, 14(5), 779-804.
- Wetzels, R., Matzke, D., Lee, M. D., Rouder, J. N., Iverson, G. J., and Wagenmakers, E.-J. (2011). Statistical Evidence in Experimental Psychology: An Empirical Comparison Using 855 t Tests. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6(3), 291–298. [doi:10.1177/1745691611406923](https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691611406923)

```
# With lm objects:
# ----------------
lm1 < - lm(mpg ~ 1, data = mtcars)lm2 < - lm(mpg ~ n, data = mtcars)lm3 \leq lm(mpg \sim hp + drat, data = mtcars)lm4 \leftarrow lm(mpg \sim hp * drat, data = mtcars)(BFM <- bayesfactor_models(lm1, lm2, lm3, lm4, denominator = 1))
# bayesfactor_models(lm2, lm3, lm4, denominator = lm1) # same result
# bayesfactor_models(lm1, lm2, lm3, lm4, denominator = lm1) # same result
update(BFM, reference = "bottom")
as.matrix(BFM)
as.numeric(BFM)
lm2b \leftarrow lm(sqrt(mpg) \sim hp, data = mtcars)
# Set check_response = TRUE for transformed responses
bayesfactor_models(lm2b, denominator = lm2, check_response = TRUE)
```

```
# With lmerMod objects:
# ---------------------
lmer1 <- lme4::lmer(Sepal.Length ~ Petal.Length + (1 | Species), data = iris)
lmer2 <- lme4::lmer(Sepal.Length ~ Petal.Length + (Petal.Length | Species), data = iris)
lmer3 <- lme4::lmer(
  Sepal.Length ~ Petal.Length + (Petal.Length | Species) + (1 | Petal.Width),
  data = iris
\lambdabayesfactor_models(lmer1, lmer2, lmer3,
  denominator = 1,
  estimator = "REML"
)
# rstanarm models
# ---------------------
# (note that a unique diagnostic_file MUST be specified in order to work)
stan_m0 <- suppressWarnings(rstanarm::stan_glm(Sepal.Length ~ 1,
 data = iris,
  family = gaussian(),
  diagnostic_file = file.path(tempdir(), "df0.csv")
))
stan_m1 <- suppressWarnings(rstanarm::stan_glm(Sepal.Length ~ Species,
  data = iris,
  family = gaussian(),
  diagnostic_file = file.path(tempdir(), "df1.csv")
))
stan_m2 <- suppressWarnings(rstanarm::stan_glm(Sepal.Length ~ Species + Petal.Length,
  data = iris,
  family = gaussian(),
  diagnostic_file = file.path(tempdir(), "df2.csv")
))
bayesfactor_models(stan_m1, stan_m2, denominator = stan_m0, verbose = FALSE)
# brms models
# --------------------
# (note the save_pars MUST be set to save_pars(all = TRUE) in order to work)
brm1 <- brms::brm(Sepal.Length ~ 1, data = iris, save_pars = save_pars(all = TRUE))
brm2 <- brms::brm(Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris, save_pars = save_pars(all = TRUE))
brm3 <- brms::brm(
  Sepal.Length ~ Species + Petal.Length,
  data = iris,
  save_pars = save_pars(all = TRUE)
\lambdabayesfactor_models(brm1, brm2, brm3, denominator = 1, verbose = FALSE)
# BayesFactor
# ---------------------------
data(puzzles)
```

```
BF <- BayesFactor::anovaBF(RT ~ shape * color + ID,
```

```
bayesfactor_parameters 13
```

```
data = puzzles,
 whichRandom = "ID", progress = FALSE
)
BF
bayesfactor_models(BF) # basically the same
```
<span id="page-12-1"></span>bayesfactor\_parameters

```
Bayes Factors (BF) for a Single Parameter
```
### Description

This method computes Bayes factors against the null (either a point or an interval), based on prior and posterior samples of a single parameter. This Bayes factor indicates the degree by which the mass of the posterior distribution has shifted further away from or closer to the null value(s) (relative to the prior distribution), thus indicating if the null value has become less or more likely given the observed data.

When the null is an interval, the Bayes factor is computed by comparing the prior and posterior odds of the parameter falling within or outside the null interval (Morey & Rouder, 2011; Liao et al., 2020); When the null is a point, a Savage-Dickey density ratio is computed, which is also an approximation of a Bayes factor comparing the marginal likelihoods of the model against a model in which the tested parameter has been restricted to the point null (Wagenmakers et al., 2010; Heck, 2019).

Note that the logspline package is used for estimating densities and probabilities, and must be installed for the function to work.

bayesfactor\_pointnull() and bayesfactor\_rope() are wrappers around bayesfactor\_parameters with different defaults for the null to be tested against (a point and a range, respectively). Aliases of the main functions are prefixed with  $bf_{\pm}$ , like  $bf_{\pm}$ parameters() or  $bf_{\pm}$ pointnull().

For more info, in particular on specifying correct priors for factors with more than 2 levels, see [the Bayes factors vignette.](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

#### Usage

```
bayesfactor_parameters(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
  direction = "two-sided",
  null = 0,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```

```
bayesfactor_pointnull(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}bayesfactor_rope(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = rope_range(posterior, verbose = FALSE),
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}bf_parameters(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}bf_pointnull(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}bf_rope(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = rope_range(posterior, verbose = FALSE),
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'numeric'
bayesfactor_parameters(
```

```
posterior,
 prior = NULL,
  direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
bayesfactor_parameters(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "location", "smooth_terms", "sigma", "zi",
    "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
bayesfactor_parameters(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "location", "smooth_terms", "sigma", "zi",
    "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'blavaan'
bayesfactor_parameters(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
bayesfactor_parameters(
```

```
posterior,
 prior = NULL,
  direction = "two-sided",
 null = 0,verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```
#### Arguments



# Details

This method is used to compute Bayes factors based on prior and posterior distributions.

One-sided & Dividing Tests (setting an order restriction): One sided tests (controlled by direction) are conducted by restricting the prior and posterior of the non-null values (the "alternative") to one side of the null only (Morey & Wagenmakers, 2014). For example, if we have a prior hypothesis that the parameter should be positive, the alternative will be restricted to the region to the right of the null (point or interval). For example, for a Bayes factor comparing the "null" of  $0$ -0.1 to the alternative >0.1, we would set bayesfactor\_parameters(null =  $c(0, 0)$  $(0.1)$ , direction = ">").

It is also possible to compute a Bayes factor for dividing hypotheses - that is, for a null and alternative that are complementary, opposing one-sided hypotheses (Morey  $\&$  Wagenmakers, 2014). For example, for a Bayes factor comparing the "null" of  $\leq 0$  to the alternative  $\geq 0$ , we would set bayesfactor\_parameters( $null = c(-Inf, 0)$ ).

#### Value

A data frame containing the (log) Bayes factor representing evidence *against* the null (Use as.numeric() to extract the non-log Bayes factors; see examples).

#### Setting the correct prior

For the computation of Bayes factors, the model priors must be proper priors (at the very least they should be *not flat*, and it is preferable that they be *informative*); As the priors for the alternative get wider, the likelihood of the null value(s) increases, to the extreme that for completely flat priors the null is infinitely more favorable than the alternative (this is called *the Jeffreys-Lindley-Bartlett paradox*). Thus, you should only ever try (or want) to compute a Bayes factor when you have an informed prior.

(Note that by default, brms::brm() uses flat priors for fixed-effects; See example below.)

It is important to provide the correct prior for meaningful results.

- When posterior is a numerical vector, prior should also be a numerical vector.
- When posterior is a data.frame, prior should also be a data.frame, with matching column order.
- When posterior is a stanreg, brmsfit or other supported Bayesian model:
	- prior can be set to NULL, in which case prior samples are drawn internally.
	- prior can also be a model equivalent to posterior but with samples from the priors *only*. See [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0).
	- Note: When posterior is a brmsfit\_multiple model, prior must be provided.
- When posterior is an emmGrid / emm\_list object:
	- prior should also be an emmGrid / emm\_list object equivalent to posterior but created with a model of priors samples *only*. See [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0).
	- prior can also be the original (posterior) *model*. If so, the function will try to update the emmGrid / emm\_list to use the [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0)d prior-model. (*This cannot be done for* brmsfit *models.*)
	- Note: When the emmGrid has undergone any transformations ("log", "response", etc.), or regriding, then prior must be an emmGrid object, as stated above.

#### Interpreting Bayes Factors

A Bayes factor greater than 1 can be interpreted as evidence against the null, at which one convention is that a Bayes factor greater than 3 can be considered as "substantial" evidence against the null (and vice versa, a Bayes factor smaller than 1/3 indicates substantial evidence in favor of the null-model) (Wetzels et al. 2011).

#### Note

There is also a plot()[-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

# Author(s)

Mattan S. Ben-Shachar

#### References

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- Wetzels, R., Matzke, D., Lee, M. D., Rouder, J. N., Iverson, G. J., and Wagenmakers, E.-J. (2011). Statistical Evidence in Experimental Psychology: An Empirical Comparison Using 855 t Tests. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6(3), 291–298. [doi:10.1177/1745691611406923](https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691611406923)

```
library(bayestestR)
prior \le distribution_normal(1000, mean = 0, sd = 1)
posterior <- distribution_normal(1000, mean = .5, sd = .3)
(BF_pars <- bayesfactor_parameters(posterior, prior, verbose = FALSE))
as.numeric(BF_pars)
# rstanarm models
# ---------------
contrasts(sleep$group) <- contr.equalprior_pairs # see vingette
stan_model <- suppressWarnings(stan_lmer(
 extra \sim group + (1 | ID),
 data = sleep,
 refresh = 0))
bayesfactor_parameters(stan_model, verbose = FALSE)
bayesfactor_parameters(stan_model, null = rope_range(stan_model))
# emmGrid objects
# ---------------
group_diff <- pairs(emmeans(stan_model, ~group, data = sleep))
bayesfactor_parameters(group_diff, prior = stan_model, verbose = FALSE)
# Or
# group_diff_prior <- pairs(emmeans(unupdate(stan_model), ~group))
# bayesfactor_parameters(group_diff, prior = group_diff_prior, verbose = FALSE)
```

```
# brms models
# -----------
## Not run:
contrasts(sleep$group) <- contr.equalprior_pairs # see vingette
my_custom_priors <-
  set\_prior("student_t(3, 0, 1)", \text{ class} = "b") +set\_prior("student_t(3, 0, 1)", class = "sd", group = "ID")
brms_model <- suppressWarnings(brm(extra ~ group + (1 | ID),
  data = sleep,
  prior = my_custom_priors,
  refresh = 0))
bayesfactor_parameters(brms_model, verbose = FALSE)
## End(Not run)
```
<span id="page-18-1"></span>bayesfactor\_restricted

```
Bayes Factors (BF) for Order Restricted Models
```
#### Description

This method computes Bayes factors for comparing a model with an order restrictions on its parameters with the fully unrestricted model. *Note that this method should only be used for confirmatory analyses*.

The bf\_\* function is an alias of the main function.

For more info, in particular on specifying correct priors for factors with more than 2 levels, see [the Bayes factors vignette.](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

# Usage

```
bayesfactor_restricted(
  posterior,
  hypothesis,
 prior = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```
bf\_restricted(posterior, hypothesis, prior = NULL, verbose = TRUE, ...)

```
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
bayesfactor_restricted(
 posterior,
 hypothesis,
 prior = NULL,
 verbose = TRUE,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
bayesfactor_restricted(
 posterior,
 hypothesis,
 prior = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'blavaan'
bayesfactor_restricted(
 posterior,
 hypothesis,
 prior = NULL,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'emmGrid'
bayesfactor_restricted(
 posterior,
 hypothesis,
 prior = NULL,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'bayesfactor_restricted'
as.logical(x, which = c("posterior", "prior"), ...)
```
# Arguments





#### Details

This method is used to compute Bayes factors for order-restricted models vs un-restricted models by setting an order restriction on the prior and posterior distributions (Morey & Wagenmakers, 2013).

(Though it is possible to use bayesfactor\_restricted() to test interval restrictions, it is more suitable for testing order restrictions; see examples).

#### Value

A data frame containing the (log) Bayes factor representing evidence *against* the un-restricted model (Use as.numeric() to extract the non-log Bayes factors; see examples). (A bool\_results attribute contains the results for each sample, indicating if they are included or not in the hypothesized restriction.)

#### Setting the correct prior

For the computation of Bayes factors, the model priors must be proper priors (at the very least they should be *not flat*, and it is preferable that they be *informative*); As the priors for the alternative get wider, the likelihood of the null value(s) increases, to the extreme that for completely flat priors the null is infinitely more favorable than the alternative (this is called *the Jeffreys-Lindley-Bartlett paradox*). Thus, you should only ever try (or want) to compute a Bayes factor when you have an informed prior.

(Note that by default, brms::brm() uses flat priors for fixed-effects; See example below.)

It is important to provide the correct prior for meaningful results.

- When posterior is a numerical vector, prior should also be a numerical vector.
- When posterior is a data.frame, prior should also be a data.frame, with matching column order.
- When posterior is a stanreg, brmsfit or other supported Bayesian model:
	- prior can be set to NULL, in which case prior samples are drawn internally.
	- prior can also be a model equivalent to posterior but with samples from the priors *only*. See [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0).
- Note: When posterior is a brmsfit\_multiple model, prior must be provided.
- When posterior is an emmGrid / emm\_list object:
	- prior should also be an emmGrid / emm\_list object equivalent to posterior but created with a model of priors samples *only*. See [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0).
	- prior can also be the original (posterior) *model*. If so, the function will try to update the emmGrid / emm\_list to use the [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0)d prior-model. (*This cannot be done for* brmsfit *models.*)
	- Note: When the emmGrid has undergone any transformations ("log", "response", etc.), or regriding, then prior must be an emmGrid object, as stated above.

#### Interpreting Bayes Factors

A Bayes factor greater than 1 can be interpreted as evidence against the null, at which one convention is that a Bayes factor greater than 3 can be considered as "substantial" evidence against the null (and vice versa, a Bayes factor smaller than 1/3 indicates substantial evidence in favor of the null-model) (Wetzels et al. 2011).

#### References

- Morey, R. D., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2014). Simple relation between Bayesian order-restricted and point-null hypothesis tests. Statistics & Probability Letters, 92, 121-124.
- Morey, R. D., & Rouder, J. N. (2011). Bayes factor approaches for testing interval null hypotheses. Psychological methods, 16(4), 406.
- Morey, R. D. (Jan, 2015). Multiple Comparisons with BayesFactor, Part 2 order restrictions. Retrieved from https://richarddmorey.org/category/order-restrictions/.

```
set.seed(444)
library(bayestestR)
prior <- data.frame(
  A = rnorm(500),
  B = rnorm(500),
  C = rnorm(500))
posterior <- data.frame(
  A = rnorm(500, .4, 0.7),
  B = rnorm(500, -0.2, 0.4),C = rnorm(500, 0, 0.5)\mathcal{L}hyps \leq c(
  "A > B & B > C","A > B & A > C",
  C > A''\mathcal{L}
```

```
(b <- bayesfactor_restricted(posterior, hypothesis = hyps, prior = prior))
bool <- as.logical(b, which = "posterior")
head(bool)
see::plots(
 plot(estimate_density(posterior)),
 # distribution **conditional** on the restrictions
 plot(estimate_density(posterior[bool[, hyps[1]], ])) + ggplot2::ggtitle(hyps[1]),
 plot(estimate_density(posterior[bool[, hyps[2]], ])) + ggplot2::ggtitle(hyps[2]),
 plot(estimate_density(posterior[bool[, hyps[3]], ])) + ggplot2::ggtitle(hyps[3]),
 guides = "collect"
)
# rstanarm models
# ---------------
data("mtcars")
fit_stan <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl + am,
 data = mtcars, refresh = 0)
hyps \leq c(
 "am > 0 & cyl < 0",
 "cyl < 0",
  "wt - cyl > 0"
\mathcal{L}bayesfactor_restricted(fit_stan, hypothesis = hyps)
# emmGrid objects
# ---------------
# replicating http://bayesfactor.blogspot.com/2015/01/multiple-comparisons-with-bayesfactor-2.html
data("disgust")
contrasts(disgust$condition) <- contr.equalprior_pairs # see vignette
fit_model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(score ~ condition, data = disgust, family = gaussian())
em_condition <- emmeans::emmeans(fit_model, ~condition, data = disgust)
hyps <- c("lemon < control & control < sulfur")
bayesfactor_restricted(em_condition, prior = fit_model, hypothesis = hyps)
# > # Bayes Factor (Order-Restriction)
# >
# > Hypothesis P(Prior) P(Posterior) BF
# > lemon < control & control < sulfur 0.17 0.75 4.49
# > --# > Bayes factors for the restricted model vs. the un-restricted model.
```
# <span id="page-23-1"></span><span id="page-23-0"></span>bci *Bias Corrected and Accelerated Interval (BCa)*

#### Description

Compute the Bias Corrected and Accelerated Interval (BCa) of posterior distributions.

#### Usage

```
bci(x, \ldots)bcai(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
bci(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
bci(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'MCMCglmm'
bci(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'sim.merMod'
bci(
 x,
 ci = 0.95,effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'sim'
bci(x, ci = 0.95, parameters = NULL, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'emmGrid'
bci(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
bci(
  x,
  ci = 0.95,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
```

```
"distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
bci(
  x,
  ci = 0.95,effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'BFBayesFactor'
bci(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
bci(x, ci = 0.95, use_iterations = FALSE, verbose = TRUE, \dots)
```
# Arguments



#### Details

Unlike equal-tailed intervals (see  $eti()$ ) that typically exclude 2.5% from each tail of the distribution and always include the median, the HDI is *not* equal-tailed and therefore always includes the mode(s) of posterior distributions. While this can be useful to better represent the credibility mass of a distribution, the HDI also has some limitations. See [spi\(\)](#page-106-1) for details.

The 95% or 89% [Credible Intervals \(CI\)](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/credible_interval.html) are two reasonable ranges to characterize the uncertainty related to the estimation (see [here](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/credible_interval.html) for a discussion about the differences between these two values).

The 89% intervals (ci = 0.89) are deemed to be more stable than, for instance, 95% intervals (*Kruschke, 2014*). An effective sample size of at least 10.000 is recommended if one wants to estimate 95% intervals with high precision (*Kruschke, 2014, p. 183ff*). Unfortunately, the default number of posterior samples for most Bayes packages (e.g., rstanarm or brms) is only 4.000 (thus, you might want to increase it when fitting your model). Moreover, 89 indicates the arbitrariness of interval limits - its only remarkable property is being the highest prime number that does not exceed the already unstable 95% threshold (*McElreath, 2015*).

However, 95% has some [advantages too.](https://easystats.github.io/blog/posts/bayestestr_95/) For instance, it shares (in the case of a normal posterior distribution) an intuitive relationship with the standard deviation and it conveys a more accurate image of the (artificial) bounds of the distribution. Also, because it is wider, it makes analyses more conservative (i.e., the probability of covering 0 is larger for the 95% CI than for lower ranges such as 89%), which is a good thing in the context of the reproducibility crisis.

A 95% equal-tailed interval (ETI) has 2.5% of the distribution on either side of its limits. It indicates the 2.5th percentile and the 97.5h percentile. In symmetric distributions, the two methods of computing credible intervals, the ETI and the [HDI,](#page-59-1) return similar results.

This is not the case for skewed distributions. Indeed, it is possible that parameter values in the ETI have lower credibility (are less probable) than parameter values outside the ETI. This property seems undesirable as a summary of the credible values in a distribution.

On the other hand, the ETI range does change when transformations are applied to the distribution (for instance, for a log odds scale to probabilities): the lower and higher bounds of the transformed distribution will correspond to the transformed lower and higher bounds of the original distribution. On the contrary, applying transformations to the distribution will change the resulting HDI.

#### Value

A data frame with following columns:

- Parameter The model parameter(s), if  $x$  is a model-object. If  $x$  is a vector, this column is missing.
- CI The probability of the credible interval.
- CI\_low, CI\_high The lower and upper credible interval limits for the parameters.

#### References

DiCiccio, T. J. and B. Efron. (1996). Bootstrap Confidence Intervals. Statistical Science. 11(3): 189–212. 10.1214/ss/1032280214

#### See Also

Other ci: [ci\(](#page-28-1)), [cwi\(](#page-35-1)), [eti\(](#page-56-1)), [hdi\(](#page-59-1)), [si\(](#page-99-1)), [spi\(](#page-106-1))

<span id="page-26-0"></span>bic\_to\_bf 27

#### Examples

```
posterior <- rnorm(1000)
bci(posterior)
bci(posterior, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
```


Convert BIC indices to Bayes Factors via the BIC-approximation *method.*

#### Description

The difference between two Bayesian information criterion (BIC) indices of two models can be used to approximate Bayes factors via:

$$
BF_{10} = e^{(BIC_0 - BIC_1)/2}
$$

# Usage

bic\_to\_bf(bic, denominator, log = FALSE)

### Arguments



#### Value

The Bayes Factors corresponding to the BIC values against the denominator.

#### References

Wagenmakers, E. J. (2007). A practical solution to the pervasive problems of p values. Psychonomic bulletin & review, 14(5), 779-804

```
bic1 <- BIC(lm(Sepal.Length ~ 1, data = iris))
bic2 <- BIC(lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris))
bic3 <- BIC(lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species + Petal.Length, data = iris))
bic4 <- BIC(lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species * Petal.Length, data = iris))
bic_to_bf(c(bic1, bic2, bic3, bic4), denominator = bic1)
```
<span id="page-27-0"></span>

#### Description

Performs a simple test to check whether the prior is informative to the posterior. This idea, and the accompanying heuristics, were discussed in [this blogpost.](https://statmodeling.stat.columbia.edu/2019/08/10/)

#### Usage

check\_prior(model, method = "gelman", simulate\_priors = TRUE, ...)

#### Arguments



#### Value

A data frame with two columns: The parameter names and the quality of the prior (which might be "informative", "uninformative") or "not determinable" if the prior distribution could not be determined).

#### References

https://statmodeling.stat.columbia.edu/2019/08/10/

```
library(bayestestR)
if (require("rstanarm")) {
  model \le stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + am, data = mtcars, chains = 1, refresh = 0)
  check_prior(model, method = "gelman")
  check_prior(model, method = "lakeland")
  # An extreme example where both methods diverge:
  model \leq - \text{stan\_glm}(mpg \sim wt,data = mtcars[1:3, ],
    prior = normal(-3.3, 1, FALSE),
    prior_intercept = normal(0, 1000, FALSE),
```

```
refresh = 0
 )
 check_prior(model, method = "gelman")
 check_prior(model, method = "lakeland")
 # can provide visual confirmation to the Lakeland method
 plot(si(model, verbose = FALSE))
}
```
#### <span id="page-28-1"></span>ci *Confidence/Credible/Compatibility Interval (CI)*

#### Description

Compute Confidence/Credible/Compatibility Intervals (CI) or Support Intervals (SI) for Bayesian and frequentist models. The Documentation is accessible for:

# Usage

```
\text{ci}(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
ci(x, ci = 0.95, method = "ETI", verbose = TRUE, BF = 1, ...)## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
ci(x, ci = 0.95, method = "ETI", verbose = TRUE, BF = 1, ...)## S3 method for class 'sim.merMod'
ci(
 x,
 ci = 0.95,method = "ETI",effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'sim'
ci(x, ci = 0.95, method = "ETI", parameters = NULL, verbose = TRUE, ...)## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
ci(
 x,
  ci = 0.95,
 method = "ETI",effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
```

```
"distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  BF = 1,...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
ci(
  x,
  ci = 0.95,method = "ETI",effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  BF = 1,...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'BFBayesFactor'
ci(x, ci = 0.95, method = "ETI", verbose = TRUE, BF = 1, ...)## S3 method for class 'MCMCglmm'
ci(x, ci = 0.95, method = "ETI", verbose = TRUE, ...)
```
#### Arguments



# Details

- [Bayesian models](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/credible_interval.html)
- [Frequentist models](https://easystats.github.io/parameters/reference/ci.default.html)

#### Value

A data frame with following columns:

- Parameter The model parameter(s), if x is a model-object. If x is a vector, this column is missing.
- CI The probability of the credible interval.
- CI\_low, CI\_high The lower and upper credible interval limits for the parameters.

#### Note

When it comes to interpretation, we recommend thinking of the CI in terms of an "uncertainty" or "compatibility" interval, the latter being defined as "Given any value in the interval and the background assumptions, the data should not seem very surprising" (*Gelman & Greenland 2019*).

There is also a  $plot()$ [-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

#### References

Gelman A, Greenland S. Are confidence intervals better termed "uncertainty intervals"? BMJ 2019;l5381. 10.1136/bmj.l5381

#### See Also

Other ci:  $bci()$  $bci()$ ,  $cwi()$  $cwi()$ ,  $eti()$  $eti()$ ,  $hdi()$  $hdi()$ ,  $si()$  $si()$ ,  $spi()$  $spi()$ 

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
posterior <- rnorm(1000)
ci(posterior, method = "ETI")
ci(posterior, method = "HDI")
df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(100)))
ci(df, method = "ETI", ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))ci(df, method = "HDI", ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))model <- suppressWarnings(
  stan_glm(mpg \sim wt, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
)
ci (model, method = "ETI", ci = c(0.80, 0.89))ci(model, method = "HDI", ci = c(0.80, 0.89))bf \leftarrow ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))
```

```
ci(bf, method = "ETI")ci(bf, method = "HDI")model <- emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars)
ci(model, method = "ETI")
ci(model, method = "HDI")
```
contr.equalprior *Contrast Matrices for Equal Marginal Priors in Bayesian Estimation*

#### Description

Build contrasts for factors with equal marginal priors on all levels. The 3 functions give the same orthogonal contrasts, but are scaled differently to allow different prior specifications (see 'Details'). Implementation from Singmann & Gronau's [bfrms](https://github.com/bayesstuff/bfrms/), following the description in Rouder, Morey, Speckman, & Province (2012, p. 363).

#### Usage

```
contr.equalprior(n, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
contr.equalprior_pairs(n, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
contr.equalprior_deviations(n, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
```
#### Arguments



# Details

When using [stats::contr.treatment](#page-0-0), each dummy variable is the difference between each level and the reference level. While this is useful if setting different priors for each coefficient, it should not be used if one is trying to set a general prior for differences between means, as it (as well as [stats::contr.sum](#page-0-0) and others) results in unequal marginal priors on the means the the difference between them.

```
library(brms)
```

```
data <- data.frame(
 group = factor(rep(LETTERS[1:4], each = 3)),y = rnorm(12)
```
<span id="page-31-0"></span>

```
\lambdacontrasts(data$group) # R's default contr.treatment
#> B C D
#> A 0 0 0
#> B 1 0 0
#> C 0 1 0
#> D 0 0 1
model_prior <- brm(
 y \sim group, data = data,
  sample_prior = "only",
  # Set the same priors on the 3 dummy variable
  # (Using an arbitrary scale)
 prior = set\_prior("normal(0, 10)", code = c("groupB", "groupC", "groupD")))
est <- emmeans::emmeans(model_prior, pairwise ~ group)
point_estimate(est, centr = "mean", disp = TRUE)
#> Point Estimate
#>
#> Parameter | Mean | SD
#> -------------------------
# > A | -0.01 | 6.35
# > B | -0.10 | 9.59
# > C | 0.11 | 9.55
# > D | -0.16 | 9.52
# > A - B | 0.10 | 9.94
# > A - C | -0.12 | 9.96
# > A - D | 0.15 | 9.87
# > B - C | -0.22 | 14.38
# > B - D | 0.05 | 14.14
# > C - D | 0.27 | 14.00
```
We can see that the priors for means aren't all the same (A having a more narrow prior), and likewise for the pairwise differences (priors for differences from A are more narrow).

The solution is to use one of the methods provided here, which *do* result in marginally equal priors on means differences between them. Though this will obscure the interpretation of parameters, setting equal priors on means and differences is important for they are useful for specifying equal priors on all means in a factor and their differences correct estimation of Bayes factors for contrasts and order restrictions of multi-level factors (where k>2). See info on specifying correct priors for factors with more than 2 levels in [the Bayes factors vignette.](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

NOTE: When setting priors on these dummy variables, always:

- 1. Use priors that are centered on 0! Other location/centered priors are meaningless!
- 2. Use identically-scaled priors on all the dummy variables of a single factor!

contr.equalprior returns the original orthogonal-normal contrasts as described in Rouder, Morey, Speckman, & Province (2012, p. 363). Setting contrasts = FALSE returns the  $I_n - \frac{1}{n}$  matrix.

```
contr.equalprior_pairs:
```
Useful for setting priors in terms of pairwise differences between means - the scales of the priors defines the prior distribution of the pair-wise differences between all pairwise differences (e.g., A  $- B$ ,  $B - C$ , etc.).

```
contrasts(data$group) <- contr.equalprior_pairs
contrasts(data$group)
\# [,1] [,2] [,3]
#> A 0.0000000 0.6123724 0.0000000
#> B -0.1893048 -0.2041241 0.5454329
#> C -0.3777063 -0.2041241 -0.4366592
#> D 0.5670111 -0.2041241 -0.1087736
model_prior <- brm(
  y \sim group, data = data,
  sample_prior = "only",
  # Set the same priors on the 3 dummy variable
  # (Using an arbitrary scale)
  prior = set\_prior("normal(0, 10)", code = c("group1", "group2", "group3")))
est <- emmeans(model_prior, pairwise ~ group)
point\_estimate(est, centr = "mean", disp = TRUE)#> Point Estimate
#>
#> Parameter | Mean | SD
#> -------------------------
# > A | -0.31 | 7.46
# > B | -0.24 | 7.47
# > C | -0.34 | 7.50
# D | -0.30 | 7.25
# > A - B | -0.08 | 10.00
# > A - C | 0.03 | 10.03
# > A - D | -0.01 | 9.85
\# > B - C | 0.10 | 10.28<br>\# > B - D | 0.06 | 9.94
             \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline \text{I} & \text{0.06} & \text{9.94} \hline \end{array}# > C - D | -0.04 | 10.18
```
All means have the same prior distribution, and the distribution of the differences matches the prior we set of "normal(0, 10)". Success!

contr.equalprior\_deviations:

Useful for setting priors in terms of the deviations of each mean from the grand mean - the scales of the priors defines the prior distribution of the distance (above, below) the mean of one of the levels might have from the overall mean. (See examples.)

### <span id="page-34-0"></span>Value

A matrix with n rows and k columns, with k=n-1 if contrasts is TRUE and k=n if contrasts is FALSE.

#### References

Rouder, J. N., Morey, R. D., Speckman, P. L., & Province, J. M. (2012). Default Bayes factors for ANOVA designs. *Journal of Mathematical Psychology*, 56(5), 356-374. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmp.2012.08.001

#### Examples

```
contr.equalprior(2) # Q_2 in Rouder et al. (2012, p. 363)
contr.equalprior(5) # equivalent to Q_5 in Rouder et al. (2012, p. 363)
## check decomposition
Q3 <- contr.equalprior(3)
Q3 %*% t(Q3) ## 2/3 on diagonal and -1/3 on off-diagonal elements
```
convert\_bayesian\_as\_frequentist *Convert (refit) a Bayesian model to frequentist*

#### Description

Refit Bayesian model as frequentist. Can be useful for comparisons.

#### Usage

```
convert_bayesian_as_frequentist(model, data = NULL, REML = TRUE)
```
bayesian\_as\_frequentist(model, data = NULL, REML = TRUE)

#### Arguments



```
# Rstanarm ----------------------
# Simple regressions
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(Sepal.Length ~ Species,
  data = iris, chains = 2, refresh = 0)
```

```
bayesian_as_frequentist(model)
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(vs ~ mpg,
  family = "binomial",
  data = mtcars, chains = 2, refresh = 0)
bayesian_as_frequentist(model)
# Mixed models
model <- rstanarm::stan_glmer(
  Sepal.Length ~ Petal.Length + (1 | Species),
  data = iris, chains = 2, refresh = 0)
bayesian_as_frequentist(model)
model <- rstanarm::stan_glmer(vs ~ mpg + (1 | cyl),
  family = "binomial",
  data = mtcars, chains = 2, refresh = 0)
bayesian_as_frequentist(model)
```
#### <span id="page-35-1"></span>cwi *Curvewise Intervals (CWI)*

#### Description

Compute the Curvewise interval (CWI) (also called the "simultaneous interval" or "joint interval") of posterior distributions using ggdist::curve\_interval(). Whereas the more typical "pointwise intervals" contain xx% of the posterior for a single parameter, joint/curvewise intervals contain xx% of the posterior distribution for all parameters.

# Usage

```
\text{cwi}(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
cwi(x, ci = 0.95, ...)
```
#### Arguments


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## Details

Applied model predictions, pointwise intervals contain xx% of the predicted response values conditional on specific predictor values. In contrast, curvewise intervals contain  $xx\%$  of the predicted response values across all predictor values. Put another way, curvewise intervals contain xx% of the full prediction lines from the model.

For more details, see the *ggdist* [documentation on curvewise intervals.](https://mjskay.github.io/ggdist/articles/lineribbon.html#curve-boxplots-aka-lineribbons-with-joint-intervals-or-curvewise-intervals-)

# Value

A data frame with following columns:

- Parameter The model parameter(s), if  $x$  is a model-object. If  $x$  is a vector, this column is missing.
- CI The probability of the credible interval.
- CI\_low, CI\_high The lower and upper credible interval limits for the parameters.

#### See Also

Other ci: [bci\(](#page-23-0)), [ci\(](#page-28-0)), [eti\(](#page-56-0)), [hdi\(](#page-59-0)), [si\(](#page-99-0)), [spi\(](#page-106-0))

## Examples

library(bayestestR)

```
if (require("ggplot2") && require("rstanarm") && require("ggdist")) {
 # Generate data =============================================
 k <- 11 # number of curves (iterations)
 n <- 201 # number of rows
 data \leq data.frame(x = seq(-15, 15, length.out = n))
 # Simulate iterations as new columns
 for (i in 1:k) \{data[paste0("iter", i)] \leftarrow dom(data$x, seq(-5, 5, length.out = k)[i], 3)}
 # Note: first, we need to transpose the data to have iters as rows
 iters <- datawizard::data_transpose(data[paste0("iter_", 1:k)])
 # Compute Median
 data$Median <- point_estimate(iters)[["Median"]]
 # Compute Credible Intervals ================================
 # Compute ETI (default type of CI)
 data[c("ETI_low", "ETI_high")] <- eti(iters, ci = 0.5)[c("CI_low", "CI_high")]
 # Compute CWI
 # ggdist::curve_interval(reshape_iterations(data), iter_value .width = 0.5)
```

```
# Visualization =============================================
 ggplot(data, aes(x = x, y = Median)) +geom_ribbon(aes(ymin = ETI_low, ymax = ETI_high), fill = "red", alpha = 0.3) +
   geom\_line(linear) = 1) +
   geom_line(
     data = reshape_iterations(data),
     aes(y = iter_value, group = iter-group),alpha = 0.3\lambda}
```
# density\_at *Density Probability at a Given Value*

#### Description

Compute the density value at a given point of a distribution (i.e., the value of the y axis of a value x of a distribution).

## Usage

```
density_at(posterior, x, precision = 2^{\wedge}10, method = "kernel", ...)
```
# Arguments



```
library(bayestestR)
posterior <- distribution_normal(n = 10)
density_at(posterior, 0)
density_at(posterior, c(0, 1))
```
## <span id="page-38-0"></span>Description

Compute indices relevant to describe and characterize the posterior distributions.

## Usage

```
describe_posterior(posterior, ...)
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
describe_posterior(
 posterior,
 centrality = "median",
 dispersion = FALSE,
 ci = 0.95,ci_method = "eti",
  test = c("p_direction", "rope"),rope_range = "default",
  rope_ci = 0.95,
 keep_iterations = FALSE,
 bf_prior = NULL,
 BF = 1,verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
describe_posterior(
 posterior,
 centrality = "median",
 dispersion = FALSE,
 ci = 0.95,ci method = "eti",
  test = c("p_direction", "rope"),rope_range = "default",
  rope_ci = 0.95,
  keep_iterations = FALSE,
 bf_prior = NULL,
  diagnostic = c("ESS", "Rhat"),
  priors = FALSE,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
 BF = 1,
```

```
verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\sum_{i=1}^{n}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
describe_posterior(
 posterior,
 centrality = "median",
 dispersion = FALSE,
 ci = 0.95,ci_method = "eti",
  test = c("p_direction", "rope"),rope_range = "default",
  rope_ci = 0.95,
  keep_iterations = FALSE,
  bf_prior = NULL,
 diagnostic = c("ESS", "Rhat"),
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all", "location",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
 BF = 1,priors = FALSE,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```
## Arguments





# Details

One or more components of point estimates (like posterior mean or median), intervals and tests can be omitted from the summary output by setting the related argument to NULL. For example, test = NULL and centrality = NULL would only return the HDI (or CI).

# References

- Makowski, D., Ben-Shachar, M. S., Chen, S. H. A., and Lüdecke, D. (2019). *Indices of Effect Existence and Significance in the Bayesian Framework*. Frontiers in Psychology 2019;10:2767. [doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767)
- [Region of Practical Equivalence \(ROPE\)](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/region_of_practical_equivalence.html)
- [Bayes factors](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

# Examples

library(bayestestR)

```
if (require("logspline")) {
 x < - rnorm(1000)
 describe_posterior(x, verbose = FALSE)
 describe_posterior(x,
   centrality = "all",
   dispersion = TRUE,
   test = "all",verbose = FALSE
 \lambdadescribe_posterior(x, ci = c(0.80, 0.90), verbose = FALSE)
 df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(100)))
 describe_posterior(df, verbose = FALSE)
 describe_posterior(
   df,
   centrality = "all",
   dispersion = TRUE,
   test = "all",verbose = FALSE
 )
 describe_posterior(df, ci = c(0.80, 0.90), verbose = FALSE)
 df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(20)))
 head(reshape_iterations(
   describe_posterior(df, keep_iterations = TRUE, verbose = FALSE)
 ))
}
# rstanarm models
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("rstanarm") && require("emmeans")) {
 model <- suppressWarnings(
   stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
 )
 describe_posterior(model)
 describe_posterior(model, centrality = "all", dispersion = TRUE, test = "all")
 describe_posterior(model, ci = c(0.80, 0.90))
 # emmeans estimates
 # -----------------------------------------------
 describe_posterior(emtrends(model, ~1, "wt"))
}
# BayesFactor objects
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("BayesFactor")) {
 bf \leftarrow ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))describe_posterior(bf)
 describe_posterior(bf, centrality = "all", dispersion = TRUE, test = "all")
 describe_posterior(bf, ci = c(0.80, 0.90))
}
```
describe\_prior *Describe Priors*

# Description

Returns a summary of the priors used in the model.

# Usage

```
describe_prior(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
describe_prior(
 model,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all", "location",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
)
```
# Arguments



```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
# rstanarm models
```

```
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("rstanarm")) {
 model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
  describe_prior(model)
}
```

```
# brms models
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("brms")) {
  model \leq brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
  describe_prior(model)
}
# BayesFactor objects
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("BayesFactor")) {
  bf \leftarrow ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))describe_prior(bf)
}
```
diagnostic\_draws *Diagnostic values for each iteration*

# Description

Returns the accumulated log-posterior, the average Metropolis acceptance rate, divergent transitions, treedepth rather than terminated its evolution normally.

#### Usage

```
diagnostic_draws(posterior, ...)
```
## Arguments



```
set.seed(333)
if (require("brms", quietly = TRUE)) {
 model <- suppressWarnings(brm(mpg ~ wt * cyl * vs,
   data = mtcars,
   iter = 100, control = list(adapt_delta = 0.80),
   refresh = <math>0</math>))
 diagnostic_draws(model)
}
```
# Description

Extract diagnostic metrics (Effective Sample Size (ESS), Rhat and Monte Carlo Standard Error MCSE).

## Usage

```
diagnostic_posterior(posterior, ...)
## Default S3 method:
diagnostic_posterior(posterior, diagnostic = c("ESS", "Rhat"), ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
diagnostic_posterior(
 posterior,
 diagnostic = "all",
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
diagnostic_posterior(
 posterior,
 diagnostic = "all".
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```
## Arguments





#### Details

Effective Sample (ESS) should be as large as possible, although for most applications, an effective sample size greater than 1000 is sufficient for stable estimates (*Bürkner, 2017*). The ESS corresponds to the number of independent samples with the same estimation power as the N autocorrelated samples. It is is a measure of "how much independent information there is in autocorrelated chains" (*Kruschke 2015, p182-3*).

Rhat should be the closest to 1. It should not be larger than 1.1 (*Gelman and Rubin, 1992*) or 1.01 (*Vehtari et al., 2019*). The split Rhat statistic quantifies the consistency of an ensemble of Markov chains.

Monte Carlo Standard Error (MCSE) is another measure of accuracy of the chains. It is defined as standard deviation of the chains divided by their effective sample size (the formula for mcse() is from Kruschke 2015, p. 187). The MCSE "provides a quantitative suggestion of how big the estimation noise is".

#### References

- Gelman, A., & Rubin, D. B. (1992). Inference from iterative simulation using multiple sequences. Statistical science, 7(4), 457-472.
- Vehtari, A., Gelman, A., Simpson, D., Carpenter, B., and Bürkner, P. C. (2019). Ranknormalization, folding, and localization: An improved Rhat for assessing convergence of MCMC. arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.08008.
- Kruschke, J. (2014). Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press.

```
# rstanarm models
# -----------------------------------------------
model <- suppressWarnings(
 rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
)
diagnostic_posterior(model)
# brms models
# -----------------------------------------------
model \le brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
diagnostic_posterior(model)
```
disgust *Moral Disgust Judgment*

## Description

A sample (simulated) dataset, used in tests and some examples.

## Format

A data frame with 500 rows and 5 variables:

- score Score on the questionnaire, which ranges from 0 to 50 with higher scores representing harsher moral judgment
- condition one of three conditions, differing by the odor present in the room: a pleasant scent associated with cleanliness (lemon), a disgusting scent (sulfur), and a control condition in which no unusual odor is present

```
data("disgust")
head(disgust, n = 5)
#> score condition
#> 1 13 control
#> 2 26 control
#> 3 30 control
#> 4 23 control
#> 5 34 control
```
## Author(s)

Richard D. Morey

distribution *Empirical Distributions*

#### Description

Generate a sequence of n-quantiles, i.e., a sample of size n with a near-perfect distribution.

#### Usage

distribution(type = "normal",  $\ldots$ )

distribution\_custom(n, type = "norm",  $\ldots$ , random = FALSE) distribution\_beta(n, shape1, shape2, ncp = 0, random =  $FALSE$ , ...) distribution\_binomial(n, size = 1, prob = 0.5, random =  $FALSE, ...)$ distribution\_binom(n, size = 1, prob = 0.5, random =  $FALSE, ...$ ) distribution\_cauchy(n, location =  $0$ , scale = 1, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_chisquared(n, df, ncp =  $\theta$ , random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_chisq(n, df, ncp =  $0$ , random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_gamma(n, shape, scale = 1, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_mixture\_normal(n, mean =  $c(-3, 3)$ , sd = 1, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_normal(n, mean =  $0$ , sd = 1, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_gaussian(n, mean =  $0$ , sd = 1, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_nbinom(n, size, prob, mu, phi, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_poisson(n, lambda = 1, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_student(n, df, ncp, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_t(n, df, ncp, random =  $FALSE, ...)$ distribution\_student\_t(n, df, ncp, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_tweedie(n, xi = NULL, mu, phi, power = NULL, random = FALSE, ...) distribution\_uniform(n, min = 0, max = 1, random = FALSE,  $\ldots$ ) rnorm\_perfect(n, mean =  $0$ , sd = 1)

# Arguments



effective\_sample 49



## Details

When random = FALSE, these function return  $q*(\text{ppoints}(n), \ldots)$ .

# Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
x \leftarrow distribution(n = 10)
plot(density(x))
x \le - distribution(type = "gamma", n = 100, shape = 2)
plot(density(x))
```
effective\_sample *Effective Sample Size (ESS)*

# Description

This function returns the effective sample size (ESS).

# Usage

```
effective_sample(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
effective_sample(
 model,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
effective_sample(
  model,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```
## Arguments



## Details

Effective Sample (ESS) should be as large as possible, altough for most applications, an effective sample size greater than 1,000 is sufficient for stable estimates (Bürkner, 2017). The ESS corresponds to the number of independent samples with the same estimation power as the N autocorrelated samples. It is is a measure of "how much independent information there is in autocorrelated chains" (*Kruschke 2015, p182-3*).

## Value

A data frame with two columns: Parameter name and effective sample size (ESS).

# equivalence\_test 51

#### References

- Kruschke, J. (2014). Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press.
- Bürkner, P. C. (2017). brms: An R package for Bayesian multilevel models using Stan. Journal of Statistical Software, 80(1), 1-28

## Examples

```
library(rstanarm)
model <- suppressWarnings(
  stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
)
effective_sample(model)
```
equivalence\_test *Test for Practical Equivalence*

## Description

Perform a Test for Practical Equivalence for Bayesian and frequentist models.

## Usage

```
equivalence_test(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
equivalence_test(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
equivalence_test(x, range = "default", ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
equivalence_test(
 x,
 range = "default",
 ci = 0.95,effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
equivalence_test(
 x,
 range = "default",
 ci = 0.95,effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```
# Arguments



# Details

Documentation is accessible for:

- [Bayesian models](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/reference/equivalence_test.html)
- [Frequentist models](https://easystats.github.io/parameters/reference/equivalence_test.lm.html)

For Bayesian models, the Test for Practical Equivalence is based on the *"HDI+ROPE decision rule"* (Kruschke, 2014, 2018) to check whether parameter values should be accepted or rejected

against an explicitly formulated "null hypothesis" (i.e., a ROPE). In other words, it checks the percentage of the 89% [HDI](#page-59-0) that is the null region (the ROPE). If this percentage is sufficiently low, the null hypothesis is rejected. If this percentage is sufficiently high, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Using the [ROPE](#page-88-0) and the [HDI,](#page-59-0) Kruschke (2018) suggests using the percentage of the 95% (or 89%, considered more stable) HDI that falls within the ROPE as a decision rule. If the HDI is completely outside the ROPE, the "null hypothesis" for this parameter is "rejected". If the ROPE completely covers the HDI, i.e., all most credible values of a parameter are inside the region of practical equivalence, the null hypothesis is accepted. Else, it's undecided whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis. If the full ROPE is used (i.e., 100% of the HDI), then the null hypothesis is rejected or accepted if the percentage of the posterior within the ROPE is smaller than to 2.5% or greater than 97.5%. Desirable results are low proportions inside the ROPE (the closer to zero the better).

Some attention is required for finding suitable values for the ROPE limits (argument range). See 'Details' in [rope\\_range\(\)](#page-92-0) for further information.

## Multicollinearity: Non-independent covariates

When parameters show strong correlations, i.e. when covariates are not independent, the joint parameter distributions may shift towards or away from the ROPE. In such cases, the test for practical equivalence may have inappropriate results. Collinearity invalidates ROPE and hypothesis testing based on univariate marginals, as the probabilities are conditional on independence. Most problematic are the results of the "undecided" parameters, which may either move further towards "rejection" or away from it (Kruschke 2014, 340f).

equivalence\_test() performs a simple check for pairwise correlations between parameters, but as there can be collinearity between more than two variables, a first step to check the assumptions of this hypothesis testing is to look at different pair plots. An even more sophisticated check is the projection predictive variable selection (Piironen and Vehtari 2017).

## Value

A data frame with following columns:

- Parameter The model parameter(s), if  $x$  is a model-object. If  $x$  is a vector, this column is missing.
- CI The probability of the HDI.
- ROPE\_low, ROPE\_high The limits of the ROPE. These values are identical for all parameters.
- ROPE\_Percentage The proportion of the HDI that lies inside the ROPE.
- ROPE\_Equivalence The "test result", as character. Either "rejected", "accepted" or "undecided".
- HDI\_low , HDI\_high The lower and upper HDI limits for the parameters.

#### Note

There is a print()-method with a digits-argument to control the amount of digits in the output, and there is a plot()[-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) to visualize the results from the equivalence-test (for models only).

#### References

- Kruschke, J. K. (2018). Rejecting or accepting parameter values in Bayesian estimation. Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 1(2), 270-280. [doi:10.1177/](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245918771304) [2515245918771304](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245918771304)
- Kruschke, J. K. (2014). Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press
- Piironen, J., & Vehtari, A. (2017). Comparison of Bayesian predictive methods for model selection. Statistics and Computing, 27(3), 711–735. [doi:10.1007/s112220169649y](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11222-016-9649-y)

#### Examples

library(bayestestR)

```
equivalence_test(x = rnorm(1000, 0, 0.01), range = c(-0.1, 0.1))
equivalence_test(x = rnorm(1000, 0, 1), range = c(-0.1, 0.1))
equivalence_test(x = rnorm(1000, 1, 0.01), range = c(-0.1, 0.1))
equivalence_test(x = rnorm(1000, 1, 1), ci = c(.50, .99))
# print more digits
test \leq equivalence_test(x = rnorm(1000, 1, 1), ci = c(.50, .99))
print(test, digits = 4)
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
equivalence_test(model)
# plot result
test <- equivalence_test(model)
plot(test)
equivalence_test(emmeans::emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars))
model \leq brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
equivalence_test(model)
bf \leq BayesFactor:: ttestBF(x = \text{norm}(100, 1, 1))
# equivalence_test(bf)
```
<span id="page-53-0"></span>estimate\_density *Density Estimation*

#### Description

This function is a wrapper over different methods of density estimation. By default, it uses the base R density with by default uses a different smoothing bandwidth ("SJ") from the legacy default implemented the base R density function ("nrd0"). However, Deng and Wickham suggest that method = "KernSmooth" is the fastest and the most accurate.

# estimate\_density 55

# Usage

```
estimate_density(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
estimate_density(
 x,
 method = "kernel",
 precision = 2^10,
 extend = FALSE,
 extend\_scale = 0.1,bw = "SJ",ci = NULL,select = NULL,
 at = NULL,group_by = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```
# Arguments



# Note

There is also a  $plot()$ [-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

#### References

Deng, H., & Wickham, H. (2011). Density estimation in R. Electronic publication.

```
library(bayestestR)
set.seed(1)
x \le - rnorm(250, mean = 1)
# Basic usage
density_kernel <- estimate_density(x) # default method is "kernel"
hist(x, prob = TRUE)lines(density_kernel$x, density_kernel$y, col = "black", lwd = 2)
lines(density_kernel$x, density_kernel$CI_low, col = "gray", lty = 2)
lines(density_kernel$x, density_kernel$CI_high, col = "gray", lty = 2)
legend("topright",
  legend = c("Estimate", "95% CI"),
  col = c("black", "gray"), lwd = 2, lty = c(1, 2))
# Other Methods
density_logspline <- estimate_density(x, method = "logspline")
density_KernSmooth <- estimate_density(x, method = "KernSmooth")
density_mixture \leq estimate_density(x, method = "mixture")
hist(x, prob = TRUE)lines(density_kernel$x, density_kernel$y, col = "black", lwd = 2)
lines(density_logspline$x, density_logspline$y, col = "red", lwd = 2)
lines(density_KernSmooth$x, density_KernSmooth$y, col = "blue", lwd = 2)
lines(density_mixture$x, density_mixture$y, col = "green", lwd = 2)
# Extension
density\_extended \leq - estimate\_density(x, extend = TRUE)density_default <- estimate_density(x, extend = FALSE)
hist(x, prob = TRUE)lines(density_extended$x, density_extended$y, col = "red", lwd = 3)
lines(density_default$x, density_default$y, col = "black", lwd = 3)
# Multiple columns
head(estimate_density(iris))
head(estimate_density(iris, select = "Sepal.Width"))
# Grouped data
head(estimate_density(iris, at = "Species"))
head(estimate_density(iris$Petal.Width, at = iris$Species))
# rstanarm models
# -----------------------------------------------
```

```
library(rstanarm)
model <- suppressWarnings(
  stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
)
head(estimate_density(model))
library(emmeans)
head(estimate_density(emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars)))
# brms models
# -----------------------------------------------
library(brms)
model \leq brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
estimate_density(model)
```
<span id="page-56-0"></span>eti *Equal-Tailed Interval (ETI)*

## Description

Compute the Equal-Tailed Interval (ETI) of posterior distributions using the quantiles method. The probability of being below this interval is equal to the probability of being above it. The ETI can be used in the context of uncertainty characterisation of posterior distributions as Credible Interval (CI).

## Usage

```
eti(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
eti(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
eti(
  x,
 ci = 0.95,effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
eti(
```

```
x,
 ci = 0.95,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
eti(x, ci = 0.95, use\_iterations = FALSE, verbose = TRUE, ...)
```
## Arguments



## Details

Unlike equal-tailed intervals (see  $eti()$ ) that typically exclude 2.5% from each tail of the distribution and always include the median, the HDI is *not* equal-tailed and therefore always includes the  $mode(s)$  of posterior distributions. While this can be useful to better represent the credibility mass of a distribution, the HDI also has some limitations. See [spi\(\)](#page-106-0) for details.

The 95% or 89% [Credible Intervals \(CI\)](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/credible_interval.html) are two reasonable ranges to characterize the uncertainty related to the estimation (see [here](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/credible_interval.html) for a discussion about the differences between these two values).

The 89% intervals (ci = 0.89) are deemed to be more stable than, for instance, 95% intervals (*Kruschke, 2014*). An effective sample size of at least 10.000 is recommended if one wants to estimate

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95% intervals with high precision (*Kruschke, 2014, p. 183ff*). Unfortunately, the default number of posterior samples for most Bayes packages (e.g., rstanarm or brms) is only 4.000 (thus, you might want to increase it when fitting your model). Moreover, 89 indicates the arbitrariness of interval limits - its only remarkable property is being the highest prime number that does not exceed the already unstable 95% threshold (*McElreath, 2015*).

However, 95% has some [advantages too.](https://easystats.github.io/blog/posts/bayestestr_95/) For instance, it shares (in the case of a normal posterior distribution) an intuitive relationship with the standard deviation and it conveys a more accurate image of the (artificial) bounds of the distribution. Also, because it is wider, it makes analyses more conservative (i.e., the probability of covering 0 is larger for the 95% CI than for lower ranges such as 89%), which is a good thing in the context of the reproducibility crisis.

A 95% equal-tailed interval (ETI) has 2.5% of the distribution on either side of its limits. It indicates the 2.5th percentile and the 97.5h percentile. In symmetric distributions, the two methods of computing credible intervals, the ETI and the [HDI,](#page-59-0) return similar results.

This is not the case for skewed distributions. Indeed, it is possible that parameter values in the ETI have lower credibility (are less probable) than parameter values outside the ETI. This property seems undesirable as a summary of the credible values in a distribution.

On the other hand, the ETI range does change when transformations are applied to the distribution (for instance, for a log odds scale to probabilities): the lower and higher bounds of the transformed distribution will correspond to the transformed lower and higher bounds of the original distribution. On the contrary, applying transformations to the distribution will change the resulting HDI.

#### Value

A data frame with following columns:

- Parameter The model parameter(s), if  $x$  is a model-object. If  $x$  is a vector, this column is missing.
- CI The probability of the credible interval.
- CI\_low, CI\_high The lower and upper credible interval limits for the parameters.

## See Also

Other ci:  $bci(), ci(), cwi(), hdi(), si(), spi()$  $bci(), ci(), cwi(), hdi(), si(), spi()$ 

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
posterior <- rnorm(1000)
eti(posterior)
eti(posterior, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(100)))
eti(df)
eti(df, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
model <- suppressWarnings(
 rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
```

```
)
eti(model)
eti(model, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
eti(emmeans::emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars))
model \leq brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
eti(model)
eti(model, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
bf <- BayesFactor::ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))
eti(bf)
eti(bf, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
```
<span id="page-59-0"></span>hdi *Highest Density Interval (HDI)*

## Description

Compute the Highest Density Interval (HDI) of posterior distributions. All points within this interval have a higher probability density than points outside the interval. The HDI can be used in the context of uncertainty characterisation of posterior distributions as Credible Interval (CI).

### Usage

```
hdi(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
hdi(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
hdi(x, ci = 0.95, verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
hdi(
  x,
  ci = 0.95,effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
```

```
hdi(
  x,
  ci = 0.95,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
hdi(x, ci = 0.95, use_iterations = FALSE, verbose = TRUE, ...)
```
## Arguments



# Details

Unlike equal-tailed intervals (see eti()) that typically exclude 2.5% from each tail of the distribution and always include the median, the HDI is *not* equal-tailed and therefore always includes the mode(s) of posterior distributions. While this can be useful to better represent the credibility mass of a distribution, the HDI also has some limitations. See [spi\(\)](#page-106-0) for details.

The 95% or 89% [Credible Intervals \(CI\)](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/credible_interval.html) are two reasonable ranges to characterize the uncertainty related to the estimation (see [here](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/credible_interval.html) for a discussion about the differences between these two values). The 89% intervals ( $ci = 0.89$ ) are deemed to be more stable than, for instance, 95% intervals (*Kr*-

*uschke, 2014*). An effective sample size of at least 10.000 is recommended if one wants to estimate

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95% intervals with high precision (*Kruschke, 2014, p. 183ff*). Unfortunately, the default number of posterior samples for most Bayes packages (e.g., rstanarm or brms) is only 4.000 (thus, you might want to increase it when fitting your model). Moreover, 89 indicates the arbitrariness of interval limits - its only remarkable property is being the highest prime number that does not exceed the already unstable 95% threshold (*McElreath, 2015*).

However, 95% has some [advantages too.](https://easystats.github.io/blog/posts/bayestestr_95/) For instance, it shares (in the case of a normal posterior distribution) an intuitive relationship with the standard deviation and it conveys a more accurate image of the (artificial) bounds of the distribution. Also, because it is wider, it makes analyses more conservative (i.e., the probability of covering 0 is larger for the 95% CI than for lower ranges such as 89%), which is a good thing in the context of the reproducibility crisis.

A 95% equal-tailed interval (ETI) has 2.5% of the distribution on either side of its limits. It indicates the 2.5th percentile and the 97.5h percentile. In symmetric distributions, the two methods of computing credible intervals, the ETI and the [HDI,](#page-59-0) return similar results.

This is not the case for skewed distributions. Indeed, it is possible that parameter values in the ETI have lower credibility (are less probable) than parameter values outside the ETI. This property seems undesirable as a summary of the credible values in a distribution.

On the other hand, the ETI range does change when transformations are applied to the distribution (for instance, for a log odds scale to probabilities): the lower and higher bounds of the transformed distribution will correspond to the transformed lower and higher bounds of the original distribution. On the contrary, applying transformations to the distribution will change the resulting HDI.

#### Value

A data frame with following columns:

- Parameter The model parameter(s), if x is a model-object. If x is a vector, this column is missing.
- CI The probability of the credible interval.
- CI\_low, CI\_high The lower and upper credible interval limits for the parameters.

# Note

There is also a plot()[-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the **see**[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

## Author(s)

Credits go to ggdistribute and **[HDInterval](https://github.com/mikemeredith/HDInterval)**.

## References

- Kruschke, J. (2014). Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press.
- McElreath, R. (2015). Statistical rethinking: A Bayesian course with examples in R and Stan. Chapman and Hall/CRC.

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## See Also

Other interval functions, such as [hdi\(\)](#page-59-0), [eti\(\)](#page-56-0), [bci\(\)](#page-23-0), [spi\(\)](#page-106-0), [si\(\)](#page-99-0), [cwi\(\)](#page-35-0). Other ci:  $bci(), ci(), cwi(), eti(), si(), spi()$  $bci(), ci(), cwi(), eti(), si(), spi()$ 

#### Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
posterior <- rnorm(1000)
hdi(posterior, ci = 0.89)
hdi(posterior, ci = c(0.80, 0.90, 0.95))
bayestestR::hdi(iris[1:4])
bayestestR::hdi(iris[1:4], ci = c(0.80, 0.90, 0.95))
model <- suppressWarnings(
  rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
\lambdabayestestR::hdi(model)
bayestestR::hdi(model, ci = c(0.80, 0.90, 0.95))
bayestestR::hdi(emmeans::emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars))
model \leq brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
bayestestR::hdi(model)
bayestestR::hdi(model, ci = c(0.80, 0.90, 0.95))
bf <- BayesFactor::ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))
bayestestR::hdi(bf)
bayestestR::hdi(bf, ci = c(0.80, 0.90, 0.95))
```
<span id="page-62-0"></span>map\_estimate *Maximum A Posteriori probability estimate (MAP)*

#### Description

Find the Highest Maximum A Posteriori probability estimate (MAP) of a posterior, i.e., the value associated with the highest probability density (the "peak" of the posterior distribution). In other words, it is an estimation of the *mode* for continuous parameters. Note that this function relies on [estimate\\_density\(\)](#page-53-0), which by default uses a different smoothing bandwidth ("SJ") compared to the legacy default implemented the base R [density\(\)](#page-0-0) function ("nrd0").

## Usage

```
map_estimate(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
map_estimate(x, precision = 2^{\wedge}10, method = "kernel", ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
map_estimate(
 x,
 precision = 2^10,
 method = "kernel",
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
map_estimate(
 x,
 precision = 2^10,
 method = "kernel",
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
map_estimate(x, precision = 2^10, method = "kernel", ...)
## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
map_estimate(
 x,
 precision = 2^10,
 method = "kernel",
 use_iterations = FALSE,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```
## Arguments

x Vector representing a posterior distribution, or a data frame of such vectors. Can also be a Bayesian model. bayestestR supports a wide range of models (see, for example, methods("hdi")) and not all of those are documented in the 'Usage' section, because methods for other classes mostly resemble the arguments of the



### Value

A numeric value if x is a vector. If x is a model-object, returns a data frame with following columns:

- Parameter: The model parameter(s), if x is a model-object. If x is a vector, this column is missing.
- MAP\_Estimate: The MAP estimate for the posterior or each model parameter.

```
library(bayestestR)
posterior <- rnorm(10000)
map_estimate(posterior)
```

```
plot(density(posterior))
abline(v = as.numeric(map_estimate(posterior)), col = "red")
```

```
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
map_estimate(model)
```

```
model \leq brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
map_estimate(model)
```
## Description

This function returns the Monte Carlo Standard Error (MCSE).

## Usage

```
mcse(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
mcse(
  model,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```
## Arguments



## Details

Monte Carlo Standard Error (MCSE) is another measure of accuracy of the chains. It is defined as standard deviation of the chains divided by their effective sample size (the formula for mcse() is from Kruschke 2015, p. 187). The MCSE "provides a quantitative suggestion of how big the estimation noise is".

#### References

Kruschke, J. (2014). Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press.

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#### $\blacksquare$  mediation 67

# Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
model <- suppressWarnings(
  rstanarm::stan\_glm(mpg ~wt + am, data = mtcars, chains = 1, refresh = 0))
mcse(model)
```
mediation *Summary of Bayesian multivariate-response mediation-models*

# Description

mediation() is a short summary for multivariate-response mediation-models, i.e. this function computes average direct and average causal mediation effects of multivariate response models.

#### Usage

```
mediation(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
mediation(
 model,
 treatment,
 mediator,
 response = NULL,
  centrality = "median",
 ci = 0.95,method = "ETI",...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'stanmvreg'
mediation(
 model,
  treatment,
 mediator,
  response = NULL,
  centrality = "median",
  ci = 0.95,method = "ETI",...
\mathcal{L}
```
## **Arguments**



## Details

mediation() returns a data frame with information on the *direct effect* (mean value of posterior samples from treatment of the outcome model), *mediator effect* (mean value of posterior samples from mediator of the outcome model), *indirect effect* (mean value of the multiplication of the posterior samples from mediator of the outcome model and the posterior samples from treatment of the mediation model) and the total effect (mean value of sums of posterior samples used for the direct and indirect effect). The *proportion mediated* is the indirect effect divided by the total effect.

For all values, the 89% credible intervals are calculated by default. Use ci to calculate a different interval.

The arguments treatment and mediator do not necessarily need to be specified. If missing, mediation() tries to find the treatment and mediator variable automatically. If this does not work, specify these variables.

The direct effect is also called *average direct effect* (ADE), the indirect effect is also called *average causal mediation effects* (ACME). See also *Tingley et al. 2014* and *Imai et al. 2010*.

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#### Value

A data frame with direct, indirect, mediator and total effect of a multivariate-response mediationmodel, as well as the proportion mediated. The effect sizes are median values of the posterior samples (use centrality for other centrality indices).

#### Note

There is an as.data.frame() method that returns the posterior samples of the effects, which can be used for further processing in the different bayestestR package.

#### References

- Imai, K., Keele, L. and Tingley, D. (2010) A General Approach to Causal Mediation Analysis, Psychological Methods, Vol. 15, No. 4 (December), pp. 309-334.
- Tingley, D., Yamamoto, T., Hirose, K., Imai, K. and Keele, L. (2014). mediation: R package for Causal Mediation Analysis, Journal of Statistical Software, Vol. 59, No. 5, pp. 1-38.

#### See Also

The **mediation** package for a causal mediation analysis in the frequentist framework.

```
library(mediation)
library(brms)
library(rstanarm)
# load sample data
data(jobs)
set.seed(123)
# linear models, for mediation analysis
b1 <- lm(job_seek ~ treat + econ_hard + sex + age, data = jobs)
b2 \leq Im(depress2 \sim treat + job\_seek + econ\_hard + sex + age, data = jobs)# mediation analysis, for comparison with Stan models
m1 <- mediate(b1, b2, sims = 1000, treat = "treat", mediator = "job_seek")
# Fit Bayesian mediation model in brms
f1 <- bf(job\_seek \sim treat + econ_hard + sex + age)
f2 \le -\text{bf}(depress2 \sim \text{treat} + \text{job\_seek} + \text{econ\_hard} + \text{sex} + \text{age})m2 \le - \text{brm}(f1 + f2 + \text{set\_rescor}(FALSE), \text{data = jobs}, \text{refresh = 0})# Fit Bayesian mediation model in rstanarm
m3 <- suppressWarnings(stan_mvmer(
  list(
    job\_seek \sim treat + econ_hard + sex + age + (1 | occp),
    depress2 \sim treat + job_seek + econ_hard + sex + age + (1 | occp)
  \lambda.
  data = jobs,
```

```
refresh = 0))
summary(m1)
mediation(m2, centrality = "mean", ci = 0.95)
mediation(m3, centrality = "mean", ci = 0.95)
```
model\_to\_priors *Convert model's posteriors to priors (EXPERIMENTAL)*

# Description

Convert model's posteriors to (normal) priors.

# Usage

model\_to\_priors(model, scale\_multiply = 3, ...)

#### Arguments



```
# brms models
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("brms")) {
 formula <- brms::brmsformula(mpg ~ wt + cyl, center = FALSE)
 model <- brms::brm(formula, data = mtcars, refresh = 0)
 priors <- model_to_priors(model)
 priors <- brms::validate_prior(priors, formula, data = mtcars)
 priors
 model2 <- brms::brm(formula, data = mtcars, prior = priors, refresh = 0)
}
```
## Description

A method to calculate the overlap coefficient between two empirical distributions (that can be used as a measure of similarity between two samples).

## Usage

```
overlap(
  x,
 y,
 method_density = "kernel",
 method_auc = "trapezoid",
 precision = 2^{\wedge}10,
 extend = TRUE,extend\_scale = 0.1,
  ...
)
```
# Arguments



# Examples

library(bayestestR)

```
x <- distribution_normal(1000, 2, 0.5)
y <- distribution_normal(1000, 0, 1)
overlap(x, y)
plot(overlap(x, y))
```
# Description

Enables a conversion between Probability of Direction (pd) and p-value.

## Usage

```
pd_to_p(pd, direction = "two-sided", verbose = TRUE, ...)p_to_p d(p, direction = "two-sided", ...)convert\_p_to\_pd(p, direction = "two-sided", ...)convert\_pd_to_p(pd, direction = "two-sided", verbose = TRUE, ...)
```
# Arguments



# Details

Conversion is done using the following equation (see Makowski et al., 2019):

When direction = "two-sided" -

$$
p = 2 \times (1 - p_d)
$$

When direction = "one-sided" -

$$
p=1-p_d
$$

Note that this conversion is only valid when the lowest possible values of pd is 0.5 - i.e., when the posterior represents continuous parameter space (see  $p\_direction$ ). If any  $pd < 0.5$  are detected, they are converted to a p of 1, and a warning is given.
# point\_estimate 73

#### References

Makowski, D., Ben-Shachar, M. S., Chen, S. H. A., and Lüdecke, D. (2019). *Indices of Effect Existence and Significance in the Bayesian Framework*. Frontiers in Psychology 2019;10:2767. [doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767)

## Examples

 $pd_to_p(pd = 0.95)$  $pd_to_p(pd = 0.95, direction = "one-sided")$ 

<span id="page-72-0"></span>point\_estimate *Point-estimates of posterior distributions*

# Description

Compute various point-estimates, such as the mean, the median or the MAP, to describe posterior distributions.

#### Usage

```
point_estimate(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
point_estimate(x, centrality = "all", dispersion = FALSE, threshold = 0.1, ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
point_estimate(
 x,
  centrality = "all",
 dispersion = FALSE,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
point_estimate(
 x,
 centrality = "all",
 dispersion = FALSE,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  ...
```

```
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'BFBayesFactor'
point\_estimate(x, centrality = "all", dispersion = FALSE, ...)## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
point_estimate(
  x,
  centrality = "all",
  dispersion = FALSE,
  use_iterations = FALSE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```


## point\_estimate 75

#### Note

There is also a  $plot()$ [-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

## References

Makowski, D., Ben-Shachar, M. S., Chen, S. H. A., and Lüdecke, D. (2019). *Indices of Effect Existence and Significance in the Bayesian Framework*. Frontiers in Psychology 2019;10:2767. [doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767)

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
point_estimate(rnorm(1000))
point_estimate(rnorm(1000), centrality = "all", dispersion = TRUE)
point_estimate(rnorm(1000), centrality = c("median", "MAP"))
df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(100)))
point_estimate(df, centrality = "all", dispersion = TRUE)
point_estimate(df, centrality = c("median", "MAP"))
# rstanarm models
# -----------------------------------------------
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
point_estimate(model, centrality = "all", dispersion = TRUE)
point_estimate(model, centrality = c("median", "MAP"))
# emmeans estimates
# -----------------------------------------------
point_estimate(
  emmeans::emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars),
  centrality = c("median", "MAP")
)
# brms models
# -----------------------------------------------
model <- brms::brm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
point_estimate(model, centrality = "all", dispersion = TRUE)
point_estimate(model, centrality = c("median", "MAP"))
# BayesFactor objects
# -----------------------------------------------
bf <- BayesFactor::ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))
point_estimate(bf, centrality = "all", dispersion = TRUE)
point_estimate(bf, centrality = c("median", "MAP"))
```
#### Description

Compute the Probability of Direction (pd, also known as the Maximum Probability of Effect - *MPE*). This can be interpreted as the probability that a parameter (described by its posterior distribution) is strictly positive or negative (whichever is the most probable). Although differently expressed, this index is fairly similar (*i.e.*, is strongly correlated) to the frequentist p-value (see details).

#### Usage

```
p_direction(x, ...)
pd(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
p\_direction(x, method = "direct", null = 0, ...)## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
p\_direction(x, method = "direct", null = 0, ...)## S3 method for class 'MCMCglmm'
p\_direction(x, method = "direct", null = 0, ...)## S3 method for class 'emmGrid'
p\_direction(x, method = "direct", null = 0, ...)## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
p_direction(
  x,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
 method = "direct",
  null = 0,...
)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
p_direction(
  x,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
```
# p\_direction 77

```
method = "direct",null = 0,...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'BFBayesFactor'
p\_direction(x, method = "direct", null = 0, ...)## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
p_direction(
 x,
 method = "direct",
 null = 0,use_iterations = FALSE,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```
# Arguments



# Details

# What is the *pd*?:

The Probability of Direction (pd) is an index of effect existence, representing the certainty with which an effect goes in a particular direction (i.e., is positive or negative / has a sign), typically ranging from 0.5 to 1 (but see next section for cases where it can range between 0 and 1). Beyond its simplicity of interpretation, understanding and computation, this index also presents other interesting properties:

- Like other posterior-based indices, *pd* is solely based on the posterior distributions and does not require any additional information from the data or the model (e.g., such as priors, as in the case of Bayes factors).
- It is robust to the scale of both the response variable and the predictors.
- It is strongly correlated with the frequentist p-value, and can thus be used to draw parallels and give some reference to readers non-familiar with Bayesian statistics (Makowski et al., 2019).

## Relationship with the p-value:

In most cases, it seems that the *pd* has a direct correspondence with the frequentist one-sided *p*-value through the formula (for two-sided *p*):

$$
p = 2 \times (1 - p_d)
$$

Thus, a two-sided p-value of respectively .1, .05, .01 and .001 would correspond approximately to a *pd* of 95%, 97.5%, 99.5% and 99.95%. See [pd\\_to\\_p\(\)](#page-71-0) for details.

## Possible Range of Values:

The largest value *pd* can take is 1 - the posterior is strictly directional. However, the smallest value *pd* can take depends on the parameter space represented by the posterior.

For a continuous parameter space, exact values of 0 (or any point null value) are not possible, and so 100% of the posterior has *some* sign, some positive, some negative. Therefore, the smallest the *pd* can be is 0.5 - with an equal posterior mass of positive and negative values. Values close to 0.5 *cannot* be used to support the null hypothesis (that the parameter does *not* have a direction) is a similar why to how large p-values cannot be used to support the null hypothesis (see  $pd_to_p()$ ; Makowski et al., 2019).

For a discrete parameter space or a parameter space that is a mixture between discrete and continuous spaces, exact values of 0 (or any point null value) *are* possible! Therefore, the smallest the *pd* can be is 0 - with 100% of the posterior mass on 0. Thus values close to 0 can be used to support the null hypothesis (see van den Bergh et al., 2021).

Examples of posteriors representing discrete parameter space:

- When a parameter can only take discrete values.
- When a mixture prior/posterior is used (such as the spike-and-slab prior; see van den Bergh et al., 2021).
- When conducting Bayesian model averaging (e.g., [weighted\\_posteriors\(\)](#page-108-0) or brms::posterior\_average).

## Methods of computation:

The *pd* is defined as:

$$
p_d = max(Pr(\hat{\theta} < \theta_{null}), Pr(\hat{\theta} > \theta_{null}))
$$

## p\_direction 79

The most simple and direct way to compute the *pd* is to compute the proportion of positive (or larger than null) posterior samples, the proportion of negative (or smaller than null) posterior samples, and take the larger of the two. This "simple" method is the most straightforward, but its precision is directly tied to the number of posterior draws.

The second approach relies on [density estimation:](#page-53-0) It starts by estimating the continuous-smooth density function (for which many methods are available), and then computing the [area under](#page-2-0) [the curve](#page-2-0) (AUC) of the density curve on either side of null and taking the maximum between them. Note the this approach assumes a continuous density function, and so when the posterior represents a (partially) discrete parameter space, only the direct method *must* be used (see above).

## Value

Values between 0.5 and 1 *or* between 0 and 1 (see above) corresponding to the probability of direction (pd).

#### Note

There is also a  $plot()$ [-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

## References

- Makowski, D., Ben-Shachar, M. S., Chen, S. A., & Lüdecke, D. (2019). Indices of effect existence and significance in the Bayesian framework. Frontiers in psychology, 10, 2767. [doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767)
- van den Bergh, D., Haaf, J. M., Ly, A., Rouder, J. N., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2021). A cautionary note on estimating effect size. Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 4(1). [doi:10.1177/2515245921992035](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245921992035)

#### See Also

[pd\\_to\\_p\(\)](#page-71-0) to convert between Probability of Direction (pd) and p-value.

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
# Simulate a posterior distribution of mean 1 and SD 1
# ----------------------------------------------------
posterior \leq rnorm(1000, mean = 1, sd = 1)
p_direction(posterior)
p_direction(posterior, method = "kernel")
# Simulate a dataframe of posterior distributions
# -----------------------------------------------
df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(100)))
p_direction(df)
p_direction(df, method = "kernel")
```

```
# rstanarm models
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("rstanarm")) {
  model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl,
   data = mtcars,
   chains = 2, refresh = 0)
  p_direction(model)
  p_direction(model, method = "kernel")
}
# emmeans
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("emmeans")) {
  p_direction(emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars))
}
# brms models
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("brms")) {
  model <- brms::brm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
  p_direction(model)
  p_direction(model, method = "kernel")
}
# BayesFactor objects
# -----------------------------------------------
if (require("BayesFactor")) {
  bf <- ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))
  p_direction(bf)
  p_direction(bf, method = "kernel")
}
```
p\_map *Bayesian p-value based on the density at the Maximum A Posteriori (MAP)*

## Description

Compute a Bayesian equivalent of the *p*-value, related to the odds that a parameter (described by its posterior distribution) has against the null hypothesis (*h0*) using Mills' (2014, 2017) *Objective Bayesian Hypothesis Testing* framework. It corresponds to the density value at the null (e.g., 0) divided by the density at the Maximum A Posteriori (MAP).

#### Usage

 $p_map(x, \ldots)$  $p\_pointnull(x, ...)$ 

```
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
p_map(x, null = 0, precision = 2^10, method = "kernel", ...)## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
p_map(
  x,
  null = 0,
 precision = 2^10,
 method = "kernel",
 use_iterations = FALSE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
p_map(
  x,
  null = 0,
  precision = 2^{\wedge}10,
  method = "kernel",
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
p_map(
  x,
 null = 0,precision = 2^{\wedge}10,
 method = "kernel",
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  ...
\lambda
```




# Details

Note that this method is sensitive to the density estimation method (see the section in the examples below).

## Strengths and Limitations:

Strengths: Straightforward computation. Objective property of the posterior distribution.

Limitations: Limited information favoring the null hypothesis. Relates on density approximation. Indirect relationship between mathematical definition and interpretation. Only suitable for weak / very diffused priors.

# References

- Makowski D, Ben-Shachar MS, Chen SHA, Lüdecke D (2019) Indices of Effect Existence and Significance in the Bayesian Framework. Frontiers in Psychology 2019;10:2767. [doi:10.3389/](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767) [fpsyg.2019.02767](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767)
- Mills, J. A. (2018). Objective Bayesian Precise Hypothesis Testing. University of Cincinnati.

# See Also

# [Jeff Mill's talk](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ip8Ci5KUVRc)

# Examples

library(bayestestR)

```
p_map(rnorm(1000, 0, 1))
p_map(rnorm(1000, 10, 1))
```

```
model <- suppressWarnings(
  rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
)
p_map(model)
p_map(suppressWarnings(
  emmeans::emtrends(model, ~1, "wt", data = mtcars)
))
model < - brms::brm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)p_map(model)
bf \leq BayesFactor::ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))
p_map(bf)
# ---------------------------------------
# Robustness to density estimation method
set.seed(333)
data <- data.frame()
for (iteration in 1:250) {
  x <- rnorm(1000, 1, 1)
  result <- data.frame(
   Kernel = as.numeric(p_map(x, method = "kernel")),
   KernSmooth = as.numeric(p_map(x, method = "KernSmooth")),
    log spline = as.numeric(p_map(x, method = "log spline")))
  data <- rbind(data, result)
}
data$KernSmooth <- data$Kernel - data$KernSmooth
data$logspline <- data$Kernel - data$logspline
summary(data$KernSmooth)
summary(data$logspline)
boxplot(data[c("KernSmooth", "logspline")])
```
p\_rope *Probability of being in the ROPE*

## Description

Compute the proportion of the whole posterior distribution that doesn't lie within a region of practical equivalence (ROPE). It is equivalent to running  $\text{rope}(\ldots, \text{ci} = 1)$ .

#### Usage

 $p_{\text{rope}}(x, \ldots)$ 

```
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
p\_rope(x, range = "default", verbose = TRUE, ...)## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
p_rope(
  x,
  range = "default",
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = verbose,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
p_rope(
  x,
  range = "default",
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = verbose,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```


# p\_significance 85

## Examples

library(bayestestR)

```
p_{\text{rope}}(x = \text{norm}(1000, 0, 0.01), \text{range} = c(-0.1, 0.1))p\_rope(x = mtcars, range = c(-0.1, 0.1))
```
<span id="page-84-0"></span>p\_significance *Practical Significance (ps)*

#### Description

Compute the probability of Practical Significance (ps), which can be conceptualized as a unidirectional equivalence test. It returns the probability that effect is above a given threshold corresponding to a negligible effect in the median's direction. Mathematically, it is defined as the proportion of the posterior distribution of the median sign above the threshold.

## Usage

```
p_significance(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
p_significance(x, threshold = "default", ...)
## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
p_significance(
  x,
  threshold = "default",
  use_iterations = FALSE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
p_significance(
  x,
  threshold = "default",
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
p_significance(
 x,
```
# 86 p\_significance p\_significance

```
threshold = "default",
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```
# Arguments



# Details

 $p$ <sub>significance</sub>() returns the proportion of a probability distribution  $(x)$  that is outside a certain range (the negligible effect, or ROPE, see argument threshold). If there are values of the distribution both below and above the ROPE, p\_significance() returns the higher probability of a value being outside the ROPE. Typically, this value should be larger than 0.5 to indicate practical significance. However, if the range of the negligible effect is rather large compared to the range of the probability distribution x, p\_significance() will be less than 0.5, which indicates no clear practical significance.

## Value

Values between 0 and 1 corresponding to the probability of practical significance (ps).

## Note

There is also a plot()[-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

#### $p\_to\_bf$  87

# Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
# Simulate a posterior distribution of mean 1 and SD 1
# ----------------------------------------------------
posterior \le rnorm(1000, mean = 1, sd = 1)
p_significance(posterior)
# Simulate a dataframe of posterior distributions
# -----------------------------------------------
df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(100)))
p_significance(df)
# rstanarm models
# -----------------------------------------------
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl,
  data = mtcars,
  chains = 2, refresh = 0)
p_significance(model)
```
#### p\_to\_bf *Convert p-values to (pseudo) Bayes Factors*

## Description

Convert p-values to (pseudo) Bayes Factors. This transformation has been suggested by Wagenmakers (2022), but is based on a vast amount of assumptions. It might therefore be not reliable. Use at your own risks. For more accurate approximate Bayes factors, use [bic\\_to\\_bf\(\)](#page-26-0) instead.

# Usage

```
p_to_bf(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
p_to_bf(x, log = FALSE, n_obs = NULL, ...)## Default S3 method:
p_to_bf(x, log = FALSE, ...)
```




# Value

A data frame with the p-values and pseudo-Bayes factors (against the null).

#### References

• Wagenmakers, E.J. (2022). Approximate objective Bayes factors from p-values and sample size: The 3p(sqrt(n)) rule. Preprint available on ArXiv: https://psyarxiv.com/egydq

## See Also

[bic\\_to\\_bf\(\)](#page-26-0) for more accurate approximate Bayes factors.

```
data(iris)
model <- lm(Petal.Length ~ Sepal.Length + Species, data = iris)
p_to_bf(model)
# Examples that demonstrate comparison between
# BIC-approximated and pseudo BF
# --------------------------------------------
m0 \leq Im(mpg \sim 1, mtcars)m1 <- lm(mpg \sim am, mtcars)m2 \leq Im(mpg \sim factor(cyl), mtcars)
# In this first example, BIC-approximated BF and
# pseudo-BF based on p-values are close...
# BIC-approximated BF, m1 against null model
bic_to_bf(BIC(m1), denominator = BIC(m0))
# pseudo-BF based on p-values - dropping intercept
p_to_bf(m1)[-1, ]
# The second example shows that results from pseudo-BF are less accurate
# and should be handled wit caution!
bic_to_bf(BIC(m2), denominator = BIC(m0))
p_to_bf(anova(m2), n_obs = nrow(mtcars))
```
reshape\_iterations *Reshape estimations with multiple iterations (draws) to long format*

## Description

Reshape a wide data.frame of iterations (such as posterior draws or bootsrapped samples) as columns to long format. Instead of having all iterations as columns (e.g., iter\_1, iter\_2, ...), will return 3 columns with the  $\setminus\neq$  index (the previous index of the row), the  $\setminus\neq$  group (the iteration number) and the \\*\_value (the value of said iteration).

#### Usage

```
reshape_iterations(x, prefix = c("draw", "iter", "iteration", "sim"))
reshape_draws(x, prefix = c("draw", "iter", "iteration", "sim"))
```
#### Arguments



## Value

Data frame of reshaped draws in long format.

#### Examples

```
if (require("rstanarm")) {
 model \le stan_glm(mpg \sim am, data = mtcars, refresh = 0)
 draws <- insight::get_predicted(model)
 long_format <- reshape_iterations(draws)
 head(long_format)
}
```
rope *Region of Practical Equivalence (ROPE)*

## Description

Compute the proportion of the HDI (default to the 89% HDI) of a posterior distribution that lies within a region of practical equivalence.

# Usage

```
rope(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
rope(x, range = "default", ci = 0.95, ci_method = "ETI", verbose = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
rope(
 x,
 range = "default",
 ci = 0.95,
 ci_method = "ETI",
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
 parameters = NULL,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
rope(
 x,
 range = "default",
 ci = 0.95,ci_method = "ETI",
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\mathcal{L}
```


rope 91



## ROPE

Statistically, the probability of a posterior distribution of being different from 0 does not make much sense (the probability of a single value null hypothesis in a continuous distribution is 0). Therefore, the idea underlining ROPE is to let the user define an area around the null value enclosing values that are *equivalent to the null* value for practical purposes (*Kruschke 2010, 2011, 2014*).

Kruschke (2018) suggests that such null value could be set, by default, to the -0.1 to 0.1 range of a standardized parameter (negligible effect size according to Cohen, 1988). This could be generalized: For instance, for linear models, the ROPE could be set as  $0 +/- 1 \times sd(y)$ . This ROPE range can be automatically computed for models using the [rope\\_range](#page-92-0) function.

Kruschke (2010, 2011, 2014) suggests using the proportion of the 95% (or 89%, considered more stable) [HDI](#page-59-0) that falls within the ROPE as an index for "null-hypothesis" testing (as understood under the Bayesian framework, see [equivalence\\_test\(\)](#page-50-0)).

#### Sensitivity to parameter's scale

It is important to consider the unit (i.e., the scale) of the predictors when using an index based on the ROPE, as the correct interpretation of the ROPE as representing a region of practical equivalence to zero is dependent on the scale of the predictors. Indeed, the percentage in ROPE depend on the unit of its parameter. In other words, as the ROPE represents a fixed portion of the response's scale, its proximity with a coefficient depends on the scale of the coefficient itself.

#### Multicollinearity - Non-independent covariates

When parameters show strong correlations, *i.e.* when covariates are not independent, the joint parameter distributions may shift towards or away from the ROPE. Collinearity invalidates ROPE and hypothesis testing based on univariate marginals, as the probabilities are conditional on independence. Most problematic are parameters that only have partial overlap with the ROPE region. In case of collinearity, the (joint) distributions of these parameters may either get an increased or decreased ROPE, which means that inferences based on rope() are inappropriate (*Kruschke 2014, 340f*).

rope() performs a simple check for pairwise correlations between parameters, but as there can be collinearity between more than two variables, a first step to check the assumptions of this hypothesis testing is to look at different pair plots. An even more sophisticated check is the projection predictive variable selection (*Piironen and Vehtari 2017*).

#### Strengths and Limitations

Strengths: Provides information related to the practical relevance of the effects.

Limitations: A ROPE range needs to be arbitrarily defined. Sensitive to the scale (the unit) of the predictors. Not sensitive to highly significant effects.

## Note

There is also a plot()[-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the see[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

#### References

- Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences.
- Kruschke, J. K. (2010). What to believe: Bayesian methods for data analysis. Trends in cognitive sciences, 14(7), 293-300. [doi:10.1016/j.tics.2010.05.001.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2010.05.001)
- Kruschke, J. K. (2011). Bayesian assessment of null values via parameter estimation and model comparison. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6(3), 299-312. [doi:10.1177/](https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691611406925) [1745691611406925.](https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691611406925)
- Kruschke, J. K. (2014). Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press. [doi:10.1177/2515245918771304.](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245918771304)
- Kruschke, J. K. (2018). Rejecting or accepting parameter values in Bayesian estimation. Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 1(2), 270-280. [doi:10.1177/](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245918771304) [2515245918771304.](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245918771304)
- Makowski D, Ben-Shachar MS, Chen SHA, Lüdecke D (2019) Indices of Effect Existence and Significance in the Bayesian Framework. Frontiers in Psychology 2019;10:2767. [doi:10.3389/](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767) [fpsyg.2019.02767](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767)
- Piironen, J., & Vehtari, A. (2017). Comparison of Bayesian predictive methods for model selection. Statistics and Computing, 27(3), 711–735. [doi:10.1007/s112220169649y](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11222-016-9649-y)

## Examples

library(bayestestR)

```
rope(x = rnorm(1000, 0, 0.01), range = c(-0.1, 0.1))rope(x = rnorm(1000, 0, 1), range = c(-0.1, 0.1))rope(x = rnorm(1000, 1, 0.01), range = c(-0.1, 0.1))rope(x = rnorm(1000, 1, 1), ci = c(0.90, 0.95))library(rstanarm)
model <- suppressWarnings(
 stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
)
rope(model)
rope(model, ci = c(0.90, 0.95))library(emmeans)
rope(emtrends(mod 1, "u't"), ci = c(0.90, 0.95))
```
# rope\_range 93

```
library(brms)
model \leq brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
rope(model)
rope(model, ci = c(0.90, 0.95))library(brms)
model <- brm(
  bf(mvbind(mpg, disp) ~ wt + cyl) + set\_rescor(rescor = TRUE),data = mtcars
\lambdarope(model)
rope(model, ci = c(0.90, 0.95))
library(BayesFactor)
bf \leftarrow ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))rope(bf)
rope(bf, ci = c(0.90, 0.95))
```
<span id="page-92-0"></span>rope\_range *Find Default Equivalence (ROPE) Region Bounds*

## Description

This function attempts at automatically finding suitable "default" values for the Region Of Practical Equivalence (ROPE).

#### Usage

```
rope_range(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
rope\_range(x, verbose = TRUE, ...)
```
#### Arguments



## Details

*Kruschke (2018)* suggests that the region of practical equivalence could be set, by default, to a range from -0.1 to 0.1 of a standardized parameter (negligible effect size according to *Cohen, 1988*).

- For linear models (lm), this can be generalised to  $[-0.1 * SD_y, 0.1 * SD_y]$ .
- For logistic models, the parameters expressed in log odds ratio can be converted to standard-For **iogistic models**, the parameters expressed in log odds ratio can be converted ized difference through the formula  $\pi/\sqrt{3}$ , resulting in a range of  $\neg$ 0.18 to 0.18.
- For other models with **binary outcome**, it is strongly recommended to manually specify the rope argument. Currently, the same default is applied that for logistic models.
- For models from count data, the residual variance is used. This is a rather experimental threshold and is probably often similar to -0.1, 0.1, but should be used with care!
- For t-tests, the standard deviation of the response is used, similarly to linear models (see above).
- For correlations,  $-0.05$ , 0.05 is used, i.e., half the value of a negligible correlation as suggested by Cohen's (1988) rules of thumb.
- For all other models,  $-0.1$ , 0.1 is used to determine the ROPE limits, but it is strongly advised to specify it manually.

#### References

Kruschke, J. K. (2018). Rejecting or accepting parameter values in Bayesian estimation. Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 1(2), 270-280. [doi:10.1177/2515245918771304.](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245918771304)

```
model <- suppressWarnings(rstanarm::stan_glm(
  mpg \sim wt + gear,
  data = mtcars,
  chains = 2,
  iter = 200,
  refresh = \theta))
rope_range(model)
model <- suppressWarnings(
  rstanarm::stan_glm(vs ~ mpg, data = mtcars, family = "binomial", refresh = \emptyset)
\lambdarope_range(model)
model \leq brms::brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
rope_range(model)
model <- BayesFactor::ttestBF(mtcars[mtcars$vs == 1, "mpg"], mtcars[mtcars$vs == 0, "mpg"])
rope_range(model)
model <- lmBF(mpg ~ vs, data = mtcars)
rope_range(model)
```
## Description

Computes the sensitivity to priors specification. This represents the proportion of change in some indices when the model is fitted with an antagonistic prior (a prior of same shape located on the opposite of the effect).

#### Usage

```
sensitivity_to_prior(model, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
sensitivity_to_prior(model, index = "Median", magnitude = 10, ...)
```
## Arguments



# See Also

DescTools

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
# rstanarm models
# -----------------------------------------------
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt, data = mtcars)
sensitivity_to_prior(model)
model <- rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
sensitivity_to_prior(model, index = c("Median", "MAP"))
```
## <span id="page-95-0"></span>Description

The SEXIT is a new framework to describe Bayesian effects, guiding which indices to use. Accordingly, the sexit() function returns the minimal (and optimal) required information to describe models' parameters under a Bayesian framework. It includes the following indices:

- Centrality: the median of the posterior distribution. In probabilistic terms, there is 50% of probability that the effect is higher and lower. See [point\\_estimate\(\)](#page-72-0).
- Uncertainty: the 95% Highest Density Interval (HDI). In probabilistic terms, there is 95% of probability that the effect is within this confidence interval. See [ci\(\)](#page-28-0).
- Existence: The probability of direction allows to quantify the certainty by which an effect is positive or negative. It is a critical index to show that an effect of some manipulation is not harmful (for instance in clinical studies) or to assess the direction of a link. See [p\\_direction\(\)](#page-75-0).
- Significance: Once existence is demonstrated with high certainty, we can assess whether the effect is of sufficient size to be considered as significant (i.e., not negligible). This is a useful index to determine which effects are actually important and worthy of discussion in a given process. See [p\\_significance\(\)](#page-84-0).
- Size: Finally, this index gives an idea about the strength of an effect. However, beware, as studies have shown that a big effect size can be also suggestive of low statistical power (see details section).

## Usage

```
sexit(x, significant = "default", large = "default", ci = 0.95, ...)
```


## Details

Rationale: The assessment of "significance" (in its broadest meaning) is a pervasive issue in science, and its historical index, the p-value, has been strongly criticized and deemed to have played an important role in the replicability crisis. In reaction, more and more scientists have tuned to Bayesian methods, offering an alternative set of tools to answer their questions. However, the Bayesian framework offers a wide variety of possible indices related to "significance", and the debate has been raging about which index is the best, and which one to report.

This situation can lead to the mindless reporting of all possible indices (with the hopes that with that the reader will be satisfied), but often without having the writer understanding and interpreting them. It is indeed complicated to juggle between many indices with complicated definitions and subtle differences.

SEXIT aims at offering a practical framework for Bayesian effects reporting, in which the focus is put on intuitiveness, explicitness and usefulness of the indices' interpretation. To that end, we suggest a system of description of parameters that would be intuitive, easy to learn and apply, mathematically accurate and useful for taking decision.

Once the thresholds for significance (i.e., the ROPE) and the one for a "large" effect are explicitly defined, the SEXIT framework does not make any interpretation, i.e., it does not label the effects, but just sequentially gives 3 probabilities (of direction, of significance and of being large, respectively) as-is on top of the characteristics of the posterior (using the median and HDI for centrality and uncertainty description). Thus, it provides a lot of information about the posterior distribution (through the mass of different 'sections' of the posterior) in a clear and meaningful way.

Threshold selection: One of the most important thing about the SEXIT framework is that it relies on two "arbitrary" thresholds (i.e., that have no absolute meaning). They are the ones related to effect size (an inherently subjective notion), namely the thresholds for significant and large effects. They are set, by default, to  $\theta$ .  $\theta$ 5 and  $\theta$ . 3 of the standard deviation of the outcome variable (tiny and large effect sizes for correlations according to Funder and Ozer, 2019). However, these defaults were chosen by lack of a better option, and might not be adapted to your case. Thus, they are to be handled with care, and the chosen thresholds should always be explicitly reported and justified.

- For linear models (lm), this can be generalised to  $[0.05*SD_y]$  and  $[0.3*SD_y]$  for significant and large effects, respectively.
- For logistic models, the parameters expressed in log odds ratio can be converted to standard-For **iogistic models**, the parameters expressed in log odds ratio can be converted to ized difference through the formula  $\pi/\sqrt{3}$ , resulting a threshold of 0.09 and 0.54.
- For other models with **binary outcome**, it is strongly recommended to manually specify the rope argument. Currently, the same default is applied that for logistic models.
- For models from count data, the residual variance is used. This is a rather experimental threshold and is probably often similar to 0.05 and 0.3, but should be used with care!
- For t-tests, the standard deviation of the response is used, similarly to linear models (see above).
- For **correlations**, 0.05 and 0.3 are used.
- For all other models, 0.05 and 0.3 are used, but it is strongly advised to specify it manually.

Examples: The three values for existence, significance and size provide a useful description of the posterior distribution of the effects. Some possible scenarios include:

• The probability of existence is low, but the probability of being large is high: it suggests that the posterior is very wide (covering large territories on both side of 0). The statistical power might be too low, which should warrant any confident conclusion.

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- The probability of existence and significance is high, but the probability of being large is very small: it suggests that the effect is, with high confidence, not large (the posterior is mostly contained between the significance and the large thresholds).
- The 3 indices are very low: this suggests that the effect is null with high confidence (the posterior is closely centred around 0).

## Value

A dataframe and text as attribute.

## References

- Makowski, D., Ben-Shachar, M. S., & Lüdecke, D. (2019). bayestestR: Describing Effects and their Uncertainty, Existence and Significance within the Bayesian Framework. Journal of Open Source Software, 4(40), 1541. [doi:10.21105/joss.01541](https://doi.org/10.21105/joss.01541)
- Makowski D, Ben-Shachar MS, Chen SHA, Lüdecke D (2019) Indices of Effect Existence and Significance in the Bayesian Framework. Frontiers in Psychology 2019;10:2767. [doi:10.3389/](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767) [fpsyg.2019.02767](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02767)

## Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
s <- sexit(rnorm(1000, -1, 1))
s
print(s, summary = TRUE)
s <- sexit(iris)
s
print(s, summary = TRUE)
if (require("rstanarm")) {
 model <- suppressWarnings(rstanarm::stan_glm(mpg ~ wt * cyl,
   data = mtcars,
    iter = 400, refresh = 0))
 s <- sexit(model)
 s
 print(s, summary = TRUE)
}
```
## <span id="page-97-0"></span>sexit\_thresholds *Find Effect Size Thresholds*

# sexit\_thresholds 99

#### Description

This function attempts at automatically finding suitable default values for a "significant" (i.e., nonnegligible) and "large" effect. This is to be used with care, and the chosen threshold should always be explicitly reported and justified. See the detail section in [sexit\(\)](#page-95-0) for more information.

### Usage

```
sexit_thresholds(x, ...)
```
# Arguments



## References

Kruschke, J. K. (2018). Rejecting or accepting parameter values in Bayesian estimation. Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 1(2), 270-280. [doi:10.1177/2515245918771304.](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245918771304)

```
sexit_thresholds(rnorm(1000))
if (require("rstanarm")) {
 model <- suppressWarnings(stan_glm(
   mpg \sim wt + gear,
   data = mtcars,
   chains = 2,
   iter = 200,
   refresh = 0
 ))
 sexit_thresholds(model)
 model <- suppressWarnings(
    stan_glm(vs ~ mpg, data = mtcars, family = "binomial", refresh = 0)
 \lambdasexit_thresholds(model)
}
if (require("brms")) {
 model \leq brm(mpg \sim wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
 sexit_thresholds(model)
}
if (require("BayesFactor")) {
 bf \le ttestBF(x = rnorm(100, 1, 1))
 sexit_thresholds(bf)
}
```
#### Description

A support interval contains only the values of the parameter that predict the observed data better than average, by some degree  $k$ ; these are values of the parameter that are associated with an updating factor greater or equal than *k*. From the perspective of the Savage-Dickey Bayes factor, testing against a point null hypothesis for any value within the support interval will yield a Bayes factor smaller than *1/k*.

#### Usage

```
si(posterior, ...)
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
si(posterior, prior = NULL, BF = 1, verbose = TRUE, ...)## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
si(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 BF = 1,verbose = TRUE,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "conditional", "all", "smooth_terms", "sigma", "auxiliary",
    "distributional"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
si(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 BF = 1,
 verbose = TRUE,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "conditional", "all", "smooth_terms", "sigma", "auxiliary",
    "distributional"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'blavaan'
si(
 posterior,
```

```
prior = NULL,
 BF = 1,verbose = TRUE,
 effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
 component = c("location", "conditional", "all", "smooth_terms", "sigma", "auxiliary",
    "distributional"),
 parameters = NULL,
  ...
\mathcal{L}## S3 method for class 'emmGrid'
si(posterior, prior = NULL, BF = 1, verbose = TRUE, ...)## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
si(
 posterior,
 prior = NULL,
 BF = 1,use_iterations = FALSE,
 verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
```

```
si(posterior, prior = NULL, BF = 1, verbose = TRUE, ...)
```


#### Details

# For more info, in particular on specifying correct priors for factors with more than 2 levels, see [the Bayes factors vignette.](https://easystats.github.io/bayestestR/articles/bayes_factors.html)

This method is used to compute support intervals based on prior and posterior distributions. For the computation of support intervals, the model priors must be proper priors (at the very least they should be *not flat*, and it is preferable that they be *informative* - note that by default, brms::brm() uses flat priors for fixed-effects; see example below).

#### Value

A data frame containing the lower and upper bounds of the SI.

Note that if the level of requested support is higher than observed in the data, the interval will be  $[NA, NA]$ .

# Choosing a value of BF

The choice of BF (the level of support) depends on what we want our interval to represent:

- A  $BF = 1$  contains values whose credibility is not decreased by observing the data.
- A BF > 1 contains values who received more impressive support from the data.
- A BF < 1 contains values whose credibility has *not* been impressively decreased by observing the data. Testing against values outside this interval will produce a Bayes factor larger than 1/BF in support of the alternative. E.g., if an SI ( $BF = 1/3$ ) excludes 0, the Bayes factor against the point-null will be larger than 3.

#### Setting the correct prior

For the computation of Bayes factors, the model priors must be proper priors (at the very least they should be *not flat*, and it is preferable that they be *informative*); As the priors for the alternative get wider, the likelihood of the null value(s) increases, to the extreme that for completely flat priors the null is infinitely more favorable than the alternative (this is called *the Jeffreys-Lindley-Bartlett paradox*). Thus, you should only ever try (or want) to compute a Bayes factor when you have an informed prior.

(Note that by default, brms::brm() uses flat priors for fixed-effects; See example below.)

It is important to provide the correct prior for meaningful results.

- When posterior is a numerical vector, prior should also be a numerical vector.
- When posterior is a data.frame, prior should also be a data.frame, with matching column order.
- When posterior is a stanreg, brmsfit or other supported Bayesian model:
	- prior can be set to NULL, in which case prior samples are drawn internally.
	- prior can also be a model equivalent to posterior but with samples from the priors *only*. See [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0).
	- Note: When posterior is a brmsfit\_multiple model, prior must be provided.
- When posterior is an emmGrid / emm\_list object:

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- prior should also be an emmGrid / emm\_list object equivalent to posterior but created with a model of priors samples *only*. See [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0).
- prior can also be the original (posterior) *model*. If so, the function will try to update the emmGrid / emm\_list to use the [unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0)d prior-model. (*This cannot be done for* brmsfit *models.*)
- Note: When the emmGrid has undergone any transformations ("log", "response", etc.), or regriding, then prior must be an emmGrid object, as stated above.

## Note

There is also a plot()[-method](https://easystats.github.io/see/articles/bayestestR.html) implemented in the **see**[-package.](https://easystats.github.io/see/)

#### References

Wagenmakers, E., Gronau, Q. F., Dablander, F., & Etz, A. (2018, November 22). The Support Interval. [doi:10.31234/osf.io/zwnxb](https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/zwnxb)

## See Also

Other ci: [bci\(](#page-23-0)), [ci\(](#page-28-0)), [cwi\(](#page-35-0)), [eti\(](#page-56-0)), [hdi\(](#page-59-0)), [spi\(](#page-106-0))

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
prior \leq distribution_normal(1000, mean = 0, sd = 1)
posterior \leq distribution_normal(1000, mean = 0.5, sd = 0.3)
si(posterior, prior, verbose = FALSE)
# rstanarm models
# ---------------
library(rstanarm)
contrasts(sleep$group) <- contr.equalprior_pairs # see vignette
stan_model <- stan_lmer(extra ~ group + (1 | ID), data = sleep)
si(stan_model, verbose = FALSE)
si(stan_model, BF = 3, verbose = FALSE)
# emmGrid objects
# ---------------
library(emmeans)
group_diff <- pairs(emmeans(stan_model, ~group))
si(group_diff, prior = stan_model, verbose = FALSE)
# brms models
# -----------
library(brms)
contrasts(sleep$group) <- contr.equalprior_pairs # see vingette
my_custom_priors <-
  set\_prior("student_t(3, 0, 1)", class = "b") +
```

```
set\_prior("student_t(3, 0, 1)", class = "sd", group = "ID")
brms_model <- suppressWarnings(brm(extra ~ group + (1 | ID),
  data = sleep,
 prior = my_custom_priors,
  refresh = 0))
si(brms_model, verbose = FALSE)
```
simulate\_correlation *Data Simulation*

## Description

Simulate data with specific characteristics.

## Usage

```
simulate_correlation(n = 100, r = 0.5, mean = 0, sd = 1, names = NULL, ...)
```
simulate\_ttest( $n = 100$ ,  $d = 0.5$ , names = NULL, ...)

simulate\_difference( $n = 100$ ,  $d = 0.5$ , names = NULL, ...)

#### Arguments



```
# Correlation --------------------------------
data \le simulate_correlation(r = 0.5)
plot(data$V1, data$V2)
cor.test(data$V1, data$V2)
summary(lm(V2 \sim V1, data = data))
# Specify mean and SD
data <- simulate_correlation(r = 0.5, n = 50, mean = c(0, 1), sd = c(0.7, 1.7))
```
# simulate\_prior 105

```
cor.test(data$V1, data$V2)
round(c(mean(data$V1), sd(data$V1)), 1)
round(c(mean(data$V2), sd(data$V2)), 1)
summary(lm(V2 \sim V1, data = data))
# Generate multiple variables
cor_matrix <- matrix(
  c(
   1.0, 0.2, 0.4,
   0.2, 1.0, 0.3,
   0.4, 0.3, 1.0
  ),
  nrow = 3)
data \le simulate_correlation(r = cor_mmatrix, names = c("y", "x1", "x2"))cor(data)
summary(lm(y \sim x1, data = data))
# t-test --------------------------------
data \le simulate_ttest(n = 30, d = 0.3)
plot(data$V1, data$V0)
round(c(mean(data$V1), sd(data$V1)), 1)
diff(t.test(data$V1 ~ data$V0)$estimate)
summary(lm(V1 ~ v0, data = data))
summary(glm(V0 ~ V1, data = data, family = "binomial"))
# Difference --------------------------------
data <- simulate_difference(n = 30, d = 0.3)
plot(data$V1, data$V0)
round(c(mean(data$V1), sd(data$V1)), 1)
diff(t.test(data$V1 ~ data$V0)$estimate)
summary(lm(V1 \sim V0, data = data))
summary(glm(V0 \sim V1, data = data, family = "binomial"))
```
simulate\_prior *Returns Priors of a Model as Empirical Distributions*

#### Description

Transforms priors information to actual distributions.

#### Usage

 $simulate\_prior(model, n = 1000, ...)$ 



# See Also

[unupdate\(\)](#page-0-0) for directly sampling from the prior distribution (useful for complex priors and designs).

## Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
if (require("rstanarm")) {
  model <- suppressWarnings(
    stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + am, data = mtcars, chains = 1, refresh = 0)
  \mathcal{L}simulate_prior(model)
}
```
simulate\_simpson *Simpson's paradox dataset simulation*

# Description

Simpson's paradox, or the Yule-Simpson effect, is a phenomenon in probability and statistics, in which a trend appears in several different groups of data but disappears or reverses when these groups are combined.

## Usage

```
simulate_simpson(
 n = 100,
  r = 0.5,
  groups = 3,
  difference = 1,
  group_prefix = "G_")
```
## Arguments



# Value

A dataset.

# Examples

```
data \le simulate_simpson(n = 10, groups = 5, r = 0.5)
if (require("ggplot2")) {
 ggplot(data, aes(x = V1, y = V2)) +
   geom_point(aes(color = Group)) +
   geom\_smooth(aes(color = Group), method = "lm") +geom_smooth(method = "lm")
}
```
<span id="page-106-0"></span>

## spi *Shortest Probability Interval (SPI)*

# Description

Compute the Shortest Probability Interval (SPI) of posterior distributions. The SPI is a more computationally stable HDI. The implementation is based on the algorithm from the SPIn package.

# Usage

```
\text{spin}(x, \ldots)## S3 method for class 'numeric'
\text{spin}(x, \text{ci} = 0.95, \text{ verbose} = \text{TRUE}, \dots)## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
spi(
 x,
  ci = 0.95,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("location", "all", "conditional", "smooth_terms", "sigma",
    "distributional", "auxiliary"),
  parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
\lambda## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
spi(
  x,
 ci = 0.95,effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'get_predicted'
\text{spin}(x, \text{ci} = 0.95, \text{use}_iterations = FALSE, verbose = TRUE, ...)
```
# Arguments



## Details

The SPI is an alternative method to the HDI  $(hdi())$  $(hdi())$  $(hdi())$  to quantify uncertainty of (posterior) distributions. The SPI is said to be more stable than the HDI, because, the *"HDI can be noisy (that is, have a high Monte Carlo error)"* (Liu et al. 2015). Furthermore, the HDI is sensitive to additional assumptions, in particular assumptions related to the different estimation methods, which can make the HDI less accurate or reliable.

# Value

A data frame with following columns:

- Parameter The model parameter(s), if  $x$  is a model-object. If  $x$  is a vector, this column is missing.
- CI The probability of the credible interval.
- CI\_low, CI\_high The lower and upper credible interval limits for the parameters.
## <span id="page-108-0"></span>Note

The code to compute the SPI was adapted from the SPIn package, and slightly modified to be more robust for Stan models. Thus, credits go to Ying Liu for the original SPI algorithm and R implementation.

# References

Liu, Y., Gelman, A., & Zheng, T. (2015). Simulation-efficient shortest probability intervals. Statistics and Computing, 25(4), 809–819. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11222-015-9563-8

#### See Also

```
Other ci: bci(ci(cwi(eti(hdi(si()
```
#### Examples

```
library(bayestestR)
```

```
posterior <- rnorm(1000)
spi(posterior)
spi(posterior, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
df <- data.frame(replicate(4, rnorm(100)))
spi(df)
spi(df, ci = c(0.80, 0.89, 0.95))
library(rstanarm)
model <- suppressWarnings(
  stan_glm(mpg \sim wt + gear, data = mtcars, chains = 2, iter = 200, refresh = 0)
)
spi(model)
```
weighted\_posteriors *Generate posterior distributions weighted across models*

#### Description

Extract posterior samples of parameters, weighted across models. Weighting is done by comparing posterior model probabilities, via [bayesfactor\\_models\(\)](#page-8-0).

#### Usage

```
weighted_posteriors(..., prior_odds = NULL, missing = 0, verbose = TRUE)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
```

```
weighted_posteriors(..., prior\_odds = NULL, missing = 0, verbose = TRUE)
## S3 method for class 'stanreg'
weighted_posteriors(
  ...,
 prior_odds = NULL,
 missing = 0,
 verbose = TRUE,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL
\mathcal{E}## S3 method for class 'brmsfit'
weighted_posteriors(
  ...,
 prior_odds = NULL,
 missing = 0,
 verbose = TRUE,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL
)
## S3 method for class 'blavaan'
weighted_posteriors(
  ...,
 prior_odds = NULL,
 missing = 0,
 verbose = TRUE,
  effects = c("fixed", "random", "all"),
  component = c("conditional", "zi", "zero_inflated", "all"),
 parameters = NULL
\lambda## S3 method for class 'BFBayesFactor'
weighted_posteriors(
  ...,
 prior_odds = NULL,
 missing = 0,
 verbose = TRUE,
  iterations = 4000
)
```
#### Arguments

... Fitted models (see details), all fit on the same data, or a single BFBayesFactor object.

<span id="page-110-0"></span>

# Details

Note that across models some parameters might play different roles. For example, the parameter A plays a different role in the model  $Y \sim A + B$  (where it is a main effect) than it does in the model  $Y \sim A + B + A:B$  (where it is a simple effect). In many cases centering of predictors (mean subtracting for continuous variables, and effects coding via contr.sum or orthonormal coding via [contr.equalprior\\_pairs](#page-31-0) for factors) can reduce this issue. In any case you should be mindful of this issue.

See [bayesfactor\\_models\(\)](#page-8-0) details for more info on passed models.

Note that for BayesFactor models, posterior samples cannot be generated from intercept only models.

This function is similar in function to brms::posterior\_average.

#### Value

A data frame with posterior distributions (weighted across models) .

## Note

For BayesFactor  $\leq 0.9.12 - 4.3$ , in some instances there might be some problems of duplicate columns of random effects in the resulting data frame.

# References

- Clyde, M., Desimone, H., & Parmigiani, G. (1996). Prediction via orthogonalized model mixing. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 91(435), 1197-1208.
- Hinne, M., Gronau, Q. F., van den Bergh, D., and Wagenmakers, E. (2019, March 25). A conceptual introduction to Bayesian Model Averaging. [doi:10.31234/osf.io/wgb64](https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/wgb64)
- <span id="page-111-0"></span>• Rouder, J. N., Haaf, J. M., & Vandekerckhove, J. (2018). Bayesian inference for psychology, part IV: Parameter estimation and Bayes factors. Psychonomic bulletin & review, 25(1), 102- 113.
- van den Bergh, D., Haaf, J. M., Ly, A., Rouder, J. N., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2019). A cautionary note on estimating effect size.

#### See Also

[bayesfactor\\_inclusion\(\)](#page-6-0) for Bayesian model averaging.

### Examples

```
if (require("rstanarm") && require("see") && interactive()) {
 stan_m0 <- suppressWarnings(stan_glm(extra ~ 1,
   data = sleep,
   family = gaussian(),
   refresh = 0,
   diagnostic_file = file.path(tempdir(), "df0.csv")
 ))
 stan_m1 <- suppressWarnings(stan_glm(extra ~ group,
   data = sleep,
   family = gaussian(),
   refresh = 0,
   diagnostic_file = file.path(tempdir(), "df1.csv")
 ))
 res <- weighted_posteriors(stan_m0, stan_m1, verbose = FALSE)
 plot(eti(res))
}
## With BayesFactor
if (require("BayesFactor")) {
 extra_sleep \leq ttestBF(formula = extra \sim group, data = sleep)
 wp <- weighted_posteriors(extra_sleep, verbose = FALSE)
 describe_posterior(extra_sleep, test = NULL, verbose = FALSE)
 # also considers the null
 describe_posterior(wp$delta, test = NULL, verbose = FALSE)
}
## weighted prediction distributions via data.frames
if (require("rstanarm") && interactive()) {
 m0 <- suppressWarnings(stan_glm(
   mpg \sim 1,
   data = mtcars,
   family = gaussian(),
   diagnostic_file = file.path(tempdir(), "df0.csv"),
```

```
refresh = 0))
 m1 <- suppressWarnings(stan_glm(
   mpg \sim carb,
   data = mtcars,
   family = gaussian(),
   diagnostic_file = file.path(tempdir(), "df1.csv"),
   refresh = 0))
 # Predictions:
 pred_m0 <- data.frame(posterior_predict(m0))
 pred_m1 <- data.frame(posterior_predict(m1))
 BFmods <- bayesfactor_models(m0, m1, verbose = FALSE)
 wp <- weighted_posteriors(
   pred_m0, pred_m1,
   prior_odds = as.numeric(BFmods)[2],
   verbose = FALSE
 \lambda# look at first 5 prediction intervals
 hdi(pred_m0[1:5])
 hdi(pred_m1[1:5])
 hdi(wp[1:5]) # between, but closer to pred_m1
}
```
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