

Objective Bayesian Methods for Estimation and Hypothesis Testing

S U M M A R Y

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METHODS

This chapter briefly describes some of the most often encountered methods in the literature for estimating and testing.

Point Estimation

From a frequentist perspective, the methods of maximum likelihood (MLE), moments, least squares and unbiased estimation are described. Some shortcomings of these methods are highlighted, as not existence or not uniqueness, lack of invariance, lack of definition in the boundaries of the parameter space and lack of dependance on sufficient statistics, among others.

From a Bayesian standpoint, the problem is described as a decision one, where the action space is the parameter space; and the Bayes estimator is that rule which minimises the posterior expected loss. To obtain an objective solution, the reference algorithm (Berger and Bernardo, 1992*a*; Bernardo, 1979*b*), to derive an objective prior, is adopted; but the absence of a similar technique to derive an objective loss function is pointed out. Furthermore, it is argued that invariance of the Bayes rule is a main feature for an objective estimator and that this property is not exhibited by the bulk of conventional Bayes estimators.

Hypothesis Testing

The frequentist Neyman and Pearson (1933) (NP) test size and the Fisherian p -value are described. Well known criticisms to both methodologies are stated; for instance, the important amount of information that NP method potentially leaves aside, the need of calibrating p -values accordingly to sample and dimension sizes, or the arbitrariness in the selection of a test statistic.

Conventional Bayes factors are argued to be the result of a specific decision theoretic setup, with a no-continuous prior and a $0 - K_i$ loss function; which need not to be objective.

Alternative solutions, such as fractional Bayes factors (FBF) (O'Hagan, 1997) and intrinsic Bayes factors (IBF) (Berger and Pericchi, 2001) are also described. Objections such as the FBF not being useful in no-regular problems, or the exposure of the IBF to the Jeffreys-Lindley-Bartlett paradox and its lack of dependance on sufficient statistics are mentioned.

INTRINSIC DISCREPANCY

Some measures of discrepancy between two probability densities are investigated in the first part of the chapter. In the second part we explore the properties of the *intrinsic losses* as introduced by Robert (1996). In the last part an objective *intrinsic discrepancy* (Bernardo and Rueda, 2002) is defined, its properties explored and it is advocated to be an objective loss, proper for point estimation and hypothesis testing problems.

Measures of divergence

In first place we follow the classification of Ali and Silvey (1966), and consider that a measure of divergence between two probability distributions, $p_i(\mathbf{x})$, $i = 1, 2$, should be based on the likelihood ratio $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = p_1(\mathbf{x})/p_2(\mathbf{x})$. Then, we study the following measures:

Kullback-Leibler divergence Also known as logarithmic divergence or directed divergence,

$$k(p_j | p_i) = \int p_i(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p_i(\mathbf{x})}{p_j(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x}.$$

If the distributions belong to a parametric family of models, indexed by a parameter: $p_1(\mathbf{x}) = \{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta\}$, $p_2(\mathbf{x}) = \{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_2, \boldsymbol{\psi} \in \Psi\}$, the KL divergence can be written as

$$k(\boldsymbol{\psi} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int_{\mathcal{X}_1} p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi})} d\mathbf{x}$$

$$k(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \boldsymbol{\psi}) = \int_{\mathcal{X}_2} p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi})}{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})} d\mathbf{x}.$$

The KL divergence is

- Positive and bounded from below; i.e. $k(p_j | p_i) \geq 0$ and $k(p_j | p_i) = 0$ iff $p_i(\mathbf{x}) = p_j(\mathbf{x})$, a.e.

- Additive for conditionally independent observations. If $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ are independent observations from either $p_i(\mathbf{x})$ or $p_j(\mathbf{x})$, then $k_x(p_j | p_i) = \sum_{l=1}^n k_{x_l}(p_j | p_i)$.
- Compatible with sufficient statistics. If $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t}(\mathbf{x})$ is a transformation of the original data, then $k_x(p_i | p_j) \geq k_t(p_i | p_j)$ with equality iff \mathbf{t} is sufficient.
- Invariant under one to one transformations. Let $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta\}$ be a model and let $\boldsymbol{\phi} = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ be a one-to-one transformation, then

$$k_x(\boldsymbol{\phi}_j | \boldsymbol{\phi}_i) = k_x(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_j) | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_i)).$$

\mathcal{J} -divergence This symmetrized version of the KL divergence,

$$\mathcal{J}(p_1, p_2) = \frac{1}{2} \int \left(p_1(\mathbf{x}) - p_2(\mathbf{x}) \right) \log \frac{p_1(\mathbf{x})}{p_2(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x},$$

was advocated by Jeffreys (1939/1961, p. 179) to derive objective priors, mainly because its invariance properties. Besides being symmetric, it shares all the properties of the KL divergence.

L_m -norm This measure,

$$L_m(p_1, p_2) = \int \left| p_1^{\frac{1}{m}}(\mathbf{x}) - p_2^{\frac{1}{m}}(\mathbf{x}) \right|^m d\mathbf{x},$$

was also considered by Jeffreys to derive objective priors. He also demonstrates (Jeffreys, 1939/1961, p. 180) that when $m = 2$, and under regularity conditions, $\mathcal{J}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta} + \Delta\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx 4 L_2(\boldsymbol{\theta}, +\Delta\boldsymbol{\theta})$. Unlike KL and \mathcal{J} divergences, $L_2(p_1, p_2)/2$ is a distance, also known as Hellinger distance, and Robert (1996) proposes it as an intrinsic loss.

Chernoff's divergence The Chernoff (1952) measure,

$$\mathcal{C}(p_1, p_2) = \max_{0 \leq t \leq 1} -\log \psi(t)$$

where

$$\psi(t) = \int p_1(\mathbf{x}) \left(\frac{p_2(\mathbf{x})}{p_1(\mathbf{x})} \right)^t d\mathbf{x},$$

and the related measure of Bhattacharyya (1943), that results when holding fixed $t = 1/2$, $\mathcal{B}(p_1, p_2) = -\log \psi(1/2)$, are additive for independent observations but Chernoff's measure requires them to be identically distributed.

In a similar fashion, Rényi (1965, 1976, p. 583) defines the *informational loss of order*

$\alpha > 0$, of substituting p_1 by p_2 , when p_1 is correct as

$$\mathcal{R}_\alpha(p_2 | p_1) = \begin{cases} (\alpha - 1)^{-1} \log \left[\int p_1(\mathbf{x}) \left(\frac{p_2(\mathbf{x})}{p_1(\mathbf{x})} \right)^\alpha d\mathbf{x} \right] & \alpha \neq 1 \\ k(p_2 | p_1) & \alpha = 1 \end{cases}.$$

Intrinsic losses

Robert (1996) argues for the need for an objective loss function that depends only on the sampling distribution $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$ and coins the concept of *intrinsic loss*, considering two candidates: the KL divergence and the Hellinger distance. Unlike the KL divergence, the Hellinger distance is symmetric and well defined even for no-regular models; however it is not additive for conditionally independent observations. These shortcomings are addressed in the next section.

Intrinsic discrepancy between two distributions

Following Bernardo and Rueda (2002),

Definition 2.1 (Intrinsic discrepancy).

The *intrinsic discrepancy*, $\delta(p_1, p_2)$, between two densities $p_1(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_1$ y $p_2(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_2$ is given by

$$\delta(p_1, p_2) = \min \left\{ k(p_2(\mathbf{x}) | p_1(\mathbf{x})), k(p_1(\mathbf{x}) | p_2(\mathbf{x})) \right\}.$$

If two families of densities,

$$M_1 \equiv \{p_1(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\phi}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_1(\boldsymbol{\phi}), \boldsymbol{\phi} \in \Phi\} \text{ and } M_2 \equiv \{p_2(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_2(\boldsymbol{\psi}), \boldsymbol{\psi} \in \Psi\},$$

are considered, the intrinsic discrepancy is

$$\delta^*(M_1, M_2) = \min_{\substack{\boldsymbol{\phi} \in \Phi \\ \boldsymbol{\psi} \in \Psi}} \delta(p_1(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\phi}), p_2(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi})).$$

Proposition 2.1 (Properties of the intrinsic discrepancy).

Let $\delta(p_1, p_2)$ as in Definition 2.1, then

- (i) The intrinsic discrepancy $\delta(p_1, p_2) \geq 0$, with equality iff $p_1(\mathbf{x}) = p_2(\mathbf{x})$ a.e.
- (ii) The intrinsic discrepancy is invariant under monotone transformations of the data. Hence, if $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})$ is a one-to-one monotone transformation, then $\delta_{\mathbf{y}}(p_1, p_2) = \delta_{\mathbf{x}}(p_1, p_2)$.

- (iii) *The intrinsic discrepancy is additive for conditionally independent observations. Hence, if $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a random sample from either $p_1(\mathbf{x})$ or $p_2(\mathbf{x})$, then $\delta_n(p_1, p_2) = n \delta_x(p_1, p_2)$.*
- (iv) *If both densities are members of a parametric family, $p(\mathbf{x} | \varphi)$, such that $p_1(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x} | \varphi_1)$ and $p_2(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x} | \varphi_2)$; then, the intrinsic discrepancy, $\delta(p_1, p_2) = \delta(\varphi_1, \varphi_2)$, is invariant under one-to-one re-parameterizations. Thus, if $\psi = \psi(\varphi)$ is one-to-one, then $\delta(p(\mathbf{x} | \psi_1), p(\mathbf{x} | \psi_2)) = \delta(\varphi(\psi_1), \varphi(\psi_2))$.*
- (v) *The intrinsic discrepancy is a measure of the minimum amount of information –in nits– which the observation $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ is expected to provide in order to discriminate between the models $p_1(\mathbf{x})$ and $p_2(\mathbf{x})$.*
- (vi) *The intrinsic discrepancy is symmetric; i.e. $\delta(p_1, p_2) = \delta(p_2, p_1)$.*
- (vii) *The intrinsic discrepancy is defined for densities with nested supports. Precisely, $\delta(p_i, p_j) = k(p_j | p_i)$ if $\mathcal{X}_i \subset \mathcal{X}_j$.*

Intrinsic discrepancy loss

The intrinsic discrepancy is proposed as an appropriate objective loss function for point estimation and hypothesis testing.

Definition 2.2 (Intrinsic discrepancy loss).

Assume that an adequate description of the probabilistic behaviour of the random quantity \mathbf{x} , is given by the model, $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$. The intrinsic discrepancy (loss) of substituting the whole model with the restricted one, obtained when $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0$, is the intrinsic discrepancy between $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ and the family of densities $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$, i.e.

$$\delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0).$$

Where

$$\delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0) = \min \left\{ k(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), k(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0) \right\},$$

is the minimum of the directed divergences.

Proposition 2.2 (Properties of the intrinsic discrepancy).

Consider the model $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$ and assume that $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is the parameter of interest. The intrinsic discrepancy, $\delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$ is

- (i) *Invariant under one-to-one transformations of the data; i.e. if $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})$ is a monotone transformation, then $\delta_{\mathbf{y}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_0; \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \delta_{\mathbf{x}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_0; \boldsymbol{\lambda})$.*
- (ii) *Compatible with sufficient statistics. If $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t}(\mathbf{x})$ is sufficient for $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$, then $\delta_{\mathbf{t}}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \delta_{\mathbf{x}}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$.*
- (iii) *Additive in the sense that if data $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ are conditionally independent, then $\delta_{\mathbf{x}}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \sum \delta_{x_i}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$. Moreover, if \mathbf{x} are iid., then $\delta_{\mathbf{x}}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = n \delta_{x_i}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$.*
- (iv) *Invariant under the choice of the nuisance. In fact, if $\boldsymbol{\omega} = \boldsymbol{\omega}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ is a monotone re-parametrization of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$, then $\delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\omega}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{\omega}); \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$.*

Some results are derived to aid in the computation of the intrinsic discrepancy

Proposition 2.3 (Intrinsic discrepancy in a regular model).

Let $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$ be a probability model that meets the regularity conditions. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) &= \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0) \\ &= \min \left\{ \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} k(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0), \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} k(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Corolary 2.1.

Let $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$ be a probabilistic model from the exponential family. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) &= \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0) \\ &= \min \left\{ \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} k(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0), \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} k(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} k(\boldsymbol{\psi}_j | \boldsymbol{\psi}_i) &= \int p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi}_i) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi}_i)}{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\psi}_j)} d\mathbf{x} \\ &= M(\boldsymbol{\psi}_i) - M(\boldsymbol{\psi}_j) + (\boldsymbol{\psi}_j^t - \boldsymbol{\psi}_i^t) \nabla M(\boldsymbol{\psi}_i), \end{aligned}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\psi}_k = \{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_k\}$, $k = 0, 1$, $M(\boldsymbol{\psi}) = \log a(\boldsymbol{\psi})$ and $\nabla M(\boldsymbol{\psi}) = \partial M(\boldsymbol{\psi}) / \partial \boldsymbol{\psi}$.

Under some conditions, the intrinsic discrepancy is convex.

Proposition 2.4 (Convexity of the intrinsic discrepancy).

Let $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta\}$ be a probability model. The intrinsic discrepancy, $\delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$, is convex iff the log-likelihood ratio is convex in $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

Finally, recalling that in a decision problem the parameter of interest is that which enters the loss function, define (Bernardo and Rueda, 2002)

Definition 2.3 (Intrinsic statistic).

Let $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$ be a parametric model that adequately describes the probabilistic behaviour of the random quantity \mathbf{x} and let $\delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$ as in Definition 2.2. We say that $d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \mathbf{x})$ is the *posterior expected intrinsic discrepancy* or *intrinsic statistic* if

$$d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \mathbf{x}) = \int_{\Lambda} \int_{\Theta} \delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \pi_{\delta^*}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} | \mathbf{x}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} d\boldsymbol{\lambda},$$

where $\pi_{\delta^*}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} | \mathbf{x})$ is the reference posterior for the parameters of the model $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ when $\delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$ is the parameter of interest.

INTRINSIC ESTIMATION AND HYPOTHESIS TESTING

In this chapter the intrinsic statistic is applied to the problems of point estimation and hypothesis testing. The entailed definitions of the intrinsic estimator (Bernardo and Juárez, 2003) and the Bayesian reference criterion (Bernardo, 1999) are presented and their properties analysed. Both concepts are implemented in a number of basic statistical models.

Intrinsic estimation

The intrinsic statistic, $d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \mathbf{x})$, is a measure (in natural informational units) of the strength of the evidence (conveyed by the data) against using $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ as a proxy for $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$. Evidently, the best proxy is attained at the value which yields the minimum loss; thus is natural to define (Bernardo and Juárez, 2003).

Definition 3.1 (Intrinsic estimator).

Let $\mathcal{M} \equiv \{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$ be a parametric model which adequately describes the probabilistic behaviour of the random quantity \mathbf{x} . We call the *intrinsic estimator*, $\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}^*(\mathbf{x})$, of the parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ to that value that minimises the intrinsic statistic. Thence,

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}^*(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \min_{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \in \Theta} d(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}} | \mathbf{x}).$$

The intrinsic estimator is well defined, regardless of the parameter vector dimension, and, it exists and is unique under mild conditions, pertaining the convexity of the intrinsic discrepancy.

Proposition 3.1 (Uniqueness of the intrinsic estimator).

The intrinsic estimator, $\theta^*(\mathbf{x})$, exists and is unique if the parameter space is strictly convex.

Furthermore, the intrinsic estimator possess a number of nice properties.

Proposition 3.2 (Properties of the intrinsic estimator).

Derived from the intrinsic statistic, the intrinsic estimator

- (i) Is Invariant under monotone transformations
- (ii) Is compatible with sufficient statistics
- (iii) Is invariant under the choice of the nuisance parameter.
- (iv) Is invariant under monotone transformations of the data.

As expected, under regularity conditions, the intrinsic estimator and the MLE are asymptotically equivalent.

Proposition 3.3 (Asymptotic behaviour of the intrinsic estimator).

Consider a random sample, $\mathbf{z} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$, from a parametric regular model,

$$\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^k, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}.$$

Then, the MLE, $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$, is an asymptotic approximation to the intrinsic estimator; i.e. for sufficiently large n , $\boldsymbol{\theta}^* \approx \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$.

Intrinsic testing

The intrinsic statistic (Bernardo and Rueda, 2002) is a measure –in nits– of the expected posterior amount of information required to recover the model, which has been assumed correct, from its closest approximation within the class of models, $M_0 \equiv \{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$; it is a measure of the strength of the evidence provided by the data against M_0 . It is a test statistic for the (null) hypothesis $H_0 \equiv \{\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0\}$. Thus, H_0 must be rejected iff $d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \mathbf{x}) > d^*$, for some threshold value d^* .

Definition 3.2 (Bayesian reference criterion).

Assume that the parametric model, $M \equiv \{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$, is an adequate description of the probabilistic behaviour of the random quantity \mathbf{x} , and consider the value $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ amongst those which continue being possible after observing \mathbf{x} . To decide if $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ can be used as an acceptable proxy for $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$, use the Bayesian reference criterion (BRC)

i) Calculate the intrinsic discrepancy,

$$\delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \min_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_0 \in \Lambda} \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_0).$$

ii) Calculate the intrinsic statistic,

$$d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \boldsymbol{x}) = \iint \delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \pi_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} | \boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{\lambda} d\boldsymbol{\theta};$$

where $\pi_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} | \boldsymbol{x})$, is the reference posterior when $\delta(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$ is the parameter of interest.

iii) If a formal decision is required, reject $H_0 \equiv \{\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0\}$ iff $d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \boldsymbol{x}) > d^*$, form some threshold value d^* ; which, for scientific communication might be reported as: $d^* \approx 1$, no evidence against H_0 ; $d^* \approx 2.5$, mild evidence against H_0 ; and $d^* > 5$, data provide strong evidence against the null.

Intrinsic hypothesis testing inherits the properties of the intrinsic statistic.

Proposition 3.4 (Properties of the intrinsic statistic).

Inherited from the properties of the intrinsic discrepancy and the reference posterior, the intrinsic statistic, $d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \boldsymbol{x})$, is:

- (i) *Invariant under monotone transformations of the parameter of interest,*
- (ii) *Compatible with sufficient statistics.*
- (iii) *Invariant under the choice of the nuisance parameter.*
- (iv) *Invariant under monotone transformations of the data.*

A simple, powerful approximation to the intrinsic statistic is derived, for regular models.

Proposition 3.5 (Asymptotical approximation under regularity conditions).

Let $\{p(\boldsymbol{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta \subset \mathfrak{R}, \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \Lambda\}$ be a parametric model such that the (marginal) posterior distribution of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is regular. If the intrinsic discrepancy, $\delta^(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \delta^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$, then the intrinsic statistic can be well approximated by*

$$d(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 | \boldsymbol{x}) \approx \delta^*(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + \frac{1}{2},$$

where $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is the mode of the asymptotic posterior of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

The second part of the chapter is devoted to the implementation of these concepts and results to a list of models of extensive use in the literature.

EVALUATION AND COMPARISONS

From a subjectivistic standpoint, a Bayes rule is derived for the specific problem at hand and is optimal for it; thus a comparison among different Bayes rules, unless directed towards a sensibility analysis, is senseless. From an objective viewpoint, however, as the Bayes rule is derived for a generic use, with no specific aim in mind, comparison between alternatives is sensible. In this chapter comparisons with frequentist and Bayesian alternatives and evaluation under homogenous conditions are performed.

Point estimation

Under mild conditions, the intrinsic estimator is admissible (under intrinsic discrepancy loss)

Corolary 4.1.

Consider the continuous parametric model, $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta\}$ and assume that the parameter space, $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^p$, is convex. Then, the intrinsic estimator is admissible.

In particular, if $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$ belongs to the exponential family, the intrinsic estimator, $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$, is admissible.

In the other hand, under regularity conditions the risk of the intrinsic estimator is asymptotically constant.

Proposition 4.1 (Asymptotic risk under regularity conditions).

Suppose that $\boldsymbol{\theta}^(\mathbf{x})$ is the intrinsic estimator of the parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, which indexes the regular model $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta\}$. Under these conditions, the risk of the intrinsic estimator, under intrinsic discrepancy loss, $R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^*}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, is asymptotically constant and equal to 1/2.*

Hypothesis testing

Unlike point estimation, frequentist and Bayesian solutions to precise hypothesis testing usually differ. Indeed, p -values can be criticised for *i*) an arbitrary selection of the test statistic; *ii*) not being a measure of the evidence against the null; *iii*) having arbitrary threshold values; *iv*) overestimating the significance; *v*) potentially lead to controversial answers and *vi*) not being a general procedure.

Nevertheless, it is possible to reach some agreement between the BRC and the test derived from the generalised likelihood ratio.

Proposition 4.2 (Asymptotic equivalence of the BRC).

Consider the regular model $\{p(\mathbf{x} | \theta), \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}, \theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}\}$, and assume the programme of Definition 3.2 is used to test the (null) hypothesis $H_0 \equiv \{\theta = \theta_0\}$. Then, asymptotically H_0 will be rejected with a p -value of α iff $\alpha = 2\Phi(\sqrt{2d^ - 1})$, where $\Phi(z)$ is the area to the right of z under a standard normal curve.*

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