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- ¹ multibridge: An R Package To Evaluate Informed Hypotheses in Binomial and Multinomial
- 2 Models
- ³ Alexandra Sarafoglou¹, Frederik Aust¹, Maarten Marsman¹, Eric-Jan Wagenmakers¹, & Julia
- M. Haaf¹
- ¹ University of Amsterdam

Author Note

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- The authors made the following contributions. Alexandra Sarafoglou:
- 8 Conceptualization, Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Funding Acquisition, Methodology,
- 9 Project Administration, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing Original Draft
- Preparation, Writing Review & Editing; Frederik Aust: Conceptualization, Software,
- Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing Original Draft Preparation, Writing -
- Review & Editing; Maarten Marsman: Funding Acquisition, Conceptualization,
- 13 Methodology, Supervision, Validation, Writing Review & Editing; Eric-Jan Wagenmakers:
- Funding Acquisition, Methodology, Supervision, Validation, Writing Review & Editing;
- Julia M. Haaf: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Methodology, Software, Supervision,
- Validation, Writing Original Draft Preparation, Writing Review & Editing.

17 Abstract

multibridge through fully reproducible examples.

The multibridge package efficiently computes Bayes factors for binomial and multinomial models that feature inequality constraints, equality constraints, free parameters and mixtures between them. By using the bridge sampling algorithm to compute the Bayes factor, multibridge facilitates the fast and accurate comparison of large models with many constraints and models for which relatively little posterior mass falls in the restricted parameter space. The package was developed in the R programming language and is freely available from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN). This paper introduces the underlying methodology and illustrates how to use the implementations provided in

multibridge: An R Package To Evaluate Informed Hypotheses in Binomial and Multinomial
 Models

1 Introduction

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We present multibridge, an R package to evaluate informed hypotheses in 30 multinomial models and models featuring independent binomials using Bayesian inference. The package allows users to specify for both models informed hypotheses about the 32 underlying category proportions θ . For binomial and multinomial models the following informed hypotheses \mathcal{H}_r on $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ can be tested: (a) hypotheses that postulate equality constraints for (a subset of) parameters (e.g., $\theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3$) (b) hypotheses that postulate 35 inequality constraints (e.g., $\theta_1 < \theta_2 < \theta_3$ or $\theta_1 > \theta_2 > \theta_3$); (c) hypotheses that postulate 36 mixtures of inequality constraints and equality constraints (e.g., $\theta_1 < \theta_2 = \theta_3$); (d) 37 hypotheses that postulate mixtures of inequality constraints and free parameters (e.g., $\theta_1 < \theta_2, \theta_3$); (e) hypotheses that postulate mixtures of (a)–(d) (e.g., $\theta_1 < (\theta_2 = \theta_3), \theta_4$). The informed hypothesis is passed to multibridge conveniently using a string or character 40 vector. The user can choose whether the respective Bayes factor should compare the 41 informed hypothesis against the encompassing hypothesis \mathcal{H}_e that all category proportions 42 vary freely, or against the null hypothesis \mathcal{H}_0 that all category proportions are equal. The package is available from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) at https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=multibridge.

The most common way to analyze categorical variables is to conduct either binomial tests, multinomial tests, or chi-square goodness of fit tests. These tests compare the encompassing hypothesis to a null hypothesis that the underlying category proportions are exactly equal, or equal to fixed values. In some cases, it is possible to derive these fixed values from a theory. For instance, Benford's law makes exact predictions about the distribution of leading digits in empirical datasets (Benford, 1938; Newcomb, 1881). Often,

however, this comparison cannot adequately test the predictions researchers are interested in. For instance, the weak-order mixture model of decision-making (Regenwetter & Davis-Stober, 2012) predicts that individuals choice preferences are weakly ordered at all times, that is, if they prefer choice A over B and B over C then they would also prefer A over C (Regenwetter, Dana, & Davis-Stober, 2011). This model provides a precise prediction of behavior. Yet one cannot derive fixed values for the choice preferences from the theory of 57 weakly-ordered preference, making the comparison between \mathcal{H}_e and \mathcal{H}_0 an inadequate test. Instead, the model predictions need to be translated into an informed hypothesis that stipulates ordinal relations among the parameters. Then it is possible to adequately test whether the theory of weakly-ordered preference adequately describes participants choice behavior by comparing \mathcal{H}_r to \mathcal{H}_e . Theories can also generate more complex predictions, including ones that feature combinations of equality constraints, inequality constraints, and unconstrained category proportions. For instance, Nuijten, Hartgerink, Assen, Epskamp, and Wicherts (2016) hypothesized that articles published in social psychology journals would have higher error rates than articles published in other psychological journals while not expressing expectations about the error rate distribution among the latter. Here again it is not possible to apply standard tests, since we cannot derive fixed proportions from the stated hypothesis. Generally, by specifying informed hypotheses researchers and practitioners are able to "add theoretical expectations to the traditional alternative hypothesis" (Hoijtink, 70 Klugkist, & Boelen, 2008, p. 2) and thus test hypotheses that relate more closely to their 71 theories (Haaf, Klaassen, & Rouder, 2019; Rijkeboer & van den Hout, 2008).

In the Bayesian framework, researchers test the hypotheses of interest by means of Bayes factors (Jeffreys, 1935; Kass & Raftery, 1995). Bayes factors compare the relative evidence of two hypotheses in the light of the data. It is defined as the ratio of marginal likelihoods of the respective hypotheses. For instance, the Bayes factor for the informed

hypothesis versus encompassing hypothesis is defined as:

$$BF_{re} = \frac{\overbrace{p(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathcal{H}_r)}^{\text{Marginal likelihood}}}{\underbrace{p(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathcal{H}_e)}^{\text{Marginal likelihood}}},$$

where the subscript r denotes the informed hypothesis and e denotes the encompassing hypothesis. To compute Bayes factors for informed hypotheses several R packages are already available. For instance, the package **multinomineq** (Heck & Davis-Stober, 2019) evaluates 75 informed hypotheses for multinomial models as well as models that feature independent binomials. The package BFpack (Mulder et al., 2020) evaluates informed hypotheses for statistical models such as univariate and multivariate normal linear models, generalized 78 linear models, special cases of linear mixed models, survival models, and relational event 79 models. The package **BAIN** (Gu, Hoijtink, Mulder, & Rosseel, 2019) evaluates informed hypotheses for structural equation models. Outside of R, the Fortran 90 program **BIEMS** 81 (Mulder, Hoijtink, Leeuw, & others, 2012) evaluates informed hypotheses for multivariate 82 linear models such as MANOVA, repeated measures, and multivariate regression. All these packages rely on one of two implementations of the encompassing prior approach (Klugkist, Kato, & Hoijtink, 2005; Sedransk, Monahan, & Chiu, 1985) to approximate order 85 constrained Bayes factors: the unconditional encompassing method (Hoijtink, 2011; Hoijtink et al., 2008; Klugkist et al., 2005) and the conditional encompassing method (Gu, Mulder, Deković, & Hoijtink, 2014; Laudy, 2006; Mulder, 2014, 2016; Mulder et al., 2009). Even though the encompassing prior approach is currently the most common method to evaluate informed hypotheses, it has been critiqued for becoming increasingly unreliable and inefficient as the number of restrictions increases or the parameter space of the restricted model decreases (Sarafoglou et al., 2020).

In order to compute Bayes factors for informed hypotheses more reliably and efficiently,
Sarafoglou et al. (2020) recently proposed a bridge sampling routine (Bennett, 1976; Meng &

Wong, 1996). This routine is implemented in **multibridge** and is suitable to evaluate inequality constraints for multinomial and binomial models. When an informed hypothesis 96 includes mixtures of equality and inequality constraints, the core functions in multibridge 97 split the hypothesis to compute Bayes factors separately for equality constraints (for which 98 the Bayes factor has an analytic solution) and inequality constraints (for which the Bayes 99 factor is estimated using bridge sampling). This split results in the Bayes factor estimate 100 being more accurate and requiring less time to compute since parts of it are analytically 101 available. When calling the core functions of multibridge, that is mult bf informed and 102 binom bf informed, they return the Bayes factor estimate in favor of or against the 103 informed hypothesis (see Table 1 for a summary of the basic required arguments of the two 104 core functions). In addition, users can receive a visualization of the posterior parameter 105 estimates under the encompassing hypothesis using the plot-method, or get more detailed information on how the Bayes factor is composed using the summary-method. For hypotheses 107 that include mixtures between equality and inequality constrained hypotheses the 108 bayes factor method shows the conditional Bayes factor for the inequality constraints 109 given the equality constraints and a Bayes factor for the equality constraints. The general 110 workflow of **multibridge** is illustrated in Figure 1. Table 2 summarizes all S3 methods 111 currently available in multibridge. 112

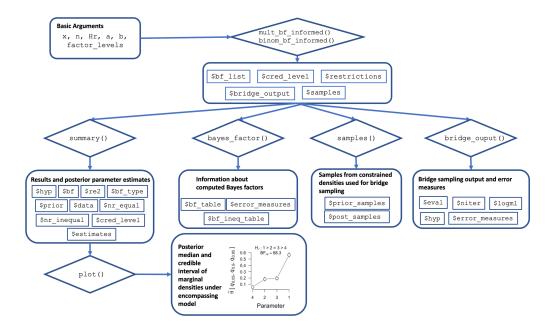


Figure 1. The **multibridge** workflow. The user specifies the data values (\mathbf{x} and \mathbf{n} for binomial models and \mathbf{x} for multinomial models, respectively), the informed hypothesis (\mathbf{Hr}), the α and β parameters of the binomial prior distributions (\mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b}) or the concentration parameters for the Dirichlet prior distribution (\mathbf{a}), respectively, and the category labels of the factor levels (factor_levels). The functions mult_bf_informed and binom_bf_informed then return an estimate for the Bayes factor of the informed hypothesis versus the encompassing or the null hypothesis. Based on these results different S3 methods can be used to get more detailed information on the individual components of the analysis (e.g., summary, bayes_factor), and parameter estimates of the encompassing distribution (\mathbf{plot}).

Table 1

To estimate the Bayes factor in favor for or against the specified informed hypothesis, the user provides the core functions mult_bf_informed and binom_bf_informed with the following basic required arguments listed below.

Argument	Description		
х	numeric. Vector with data (for multinomial models) or a vector of		
	counts of successes, or a two-dimensional table (or matrix) with 2		
	columns, giving the counts of successes and failures, respectively		
	(for binomial models).		
n	numeric. Vector with counts of trials. Must be the same length		
	as \mathbf{x} . Ignored if \mathbf{x} is a matrix or a table. Included only in		
	binom_bf_informed.		
Hr	string or character. String or vector with the user speci-		
	fied informed hypothesis. Users can either use the specified		
	factor_levels or numerical indices to refer to parameters.		
a	numeric. Vector with concentration parameters of Dirichlet distri-		
	bution (for multinomial models) or α parameters for independent		
	beta distributions (for binomial models). Must be the same length		
	as x. Default sets all parameters to 1.		
b	numeric. Vector with β parameters. Must be the same length		
	as x. Default sets all β parameters to 1. Included only in		
	binom_bf_informed.		
factor_levels	character. Vector with category labels. Must be the same length		
	as x.		

Table 2
S3 methods available in multibridge

Function Name(s)	S3 Method	Description	
mult_bf_informed,	print	Prints model specifications and descriptives.	
binom_bf_informed			
	summary	Prints and returns the Bayes factor and associated	
		hypotheses for the full model, and all equality and	
		inequality constraints.	
	plot	Plots the posterior median and credible interval	
		of the parameter estimates of the encompassing	
		model. Default sets credible interval to $95\%.$	
	bayes_factor	Contains all Bayes factors and log marginal likeli-	
		hood estimates for inequality constraints.	
	samples	Extracts prior and posterior samples from con-	
		strained densities (if bridge sampling was applied).	
	bridge_output	Extracts bridge sampling output and associated	
		error measures.	
	restriction_list	Extracts restriction list and associated informed	
		hypothesis.	
<pre>mult_bf_inequality,</pre>	print	Prints the bridge sampling estimate for the log	
binom_bf_inequality		marginal likelihood and the corresponding percent-	
		age error.	
	summary	Prints and returns the bridge sampling estimate	
		for the log marginal likelihood and associated error	
		terms.	

This paper showcases how the proposed bridge sampling routine by Sarafoglou et al. (2020)
can be applied in a user-friendly way with **multibridge**. In the remainder of this article, we
will describe the Bayes factor identity for informed hypotheses in binomial and multinomial
models, and briefly describe the bridge sampling method. Then, we illustrate the core
functions of **multibridge** package using two examples and end with a brief summary.

118 2 Methods

In this section we formalize multinomial models and models that feature independent binomial probabilities as we have implemented them in **multibridge**. In the multinomial model, we assume that the vector of observations \mathbf{x} in the K categories follows a multinomial distribution in which the parameters of interest, $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, represent the underlying category proportions. Since the K categories are dependent, the vector of probability parameters is constrained to sum to one, such that $\sum_{k=1}^{K} (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K) = 1$. Therefore, a suitable choice for a prior distribution for $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is the Dirichlet distribution with concentration parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$:

$$x_1, \dots, x_K \sim \text{Multinomial}(\sum_{k=1}^K x_k, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_K)$$
 (1)

$$\theta_1, \cdots, \theta_K \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_K),$$
 (2)

where α can be interpreted as vector of a priori category counts. The formalization of the 126 model for independent binomial probabilities is very similar since the multinomial model 127 above constitutes a generalization of the binomial model (for $K \geq 2$). In the binomial model, 128 we assume that the elements in the vector of successes \mathbf{x} and the elements in the vector of 129 total number of observations \mathbf{n} in the K categories follow independent binomial distributions. 130 As in the multinomial model, the parameter vector of the binomial success probabilities θ 131 contains the underlying category proportions, however, in this model we assume that 132 categories are independent which removes the sum-to-one constraint. Therefore, a suitable 133

choice for a prior distribution for θ is a vector of independent beta distributions with parameters α and β :

$$x_1 \cdots x_K \sim \prod_{k=1}^K \text{Binomial}(\theta_k, n_k)$$
 (3)

$$\theta_1 \cdots \theta_K \sim \prod_{k=1}^K \text{Beta}(\alpha_k, \beta_k),$$
 (4)

where α can be interpreted as vector of *a priori* successes that observations fall within the various categories and β can be interpreted as vector of *a priori* failures.

138 2.1 Bayes factor

In **multibridge** we use two different methods to compute Bayes factors: one method computes Bayes factors for equality constrained parameters and one method computes Bayes factors for inequality constrained parameters. Both methods will be outlined below. In cases where informed hypotheses feature mixtures between inequality and equality constraints, we compute the overall Bayes factor BF_{re} by multiplying the individual Bayes factors for both constraint types with each other. That is, the Bayes factor for mixtures factors into a Bayes factor for the equality constraints, and a conditional Bayes factor for the inequality constraints given the equality constraints (for the proof, see Sarafoglou et al., 2020).

2.1.1 The Bayes Factor For Equality Constraints. In multibridge the Bayes factor for the equality constraints can be computed analytically both for binomial and multinomial models using the functions binom_bf_equality and mult_bf_equality. For binomial models, assuming that the all binomial probabilities in a model are exactly equal, the Bayes factor is defined as:

$$BF_{0e} = \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{K} B(\alpha_k, \beta_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^{K} B(\alpha_k + x_k, \beta_k + n_k - x_k)} \times \frac{B(\alpha_+ + x_+ + 1, \beta_+ + n_+ - x_+ + 1)}{B(\alpha_+ + 1, \beta_+ + 1)},$$

where B(·) denotes the beta function and $\alpha_+ = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k$, $\beta_+ = \sum_{k=1}^K \beta_k$, $x_+ = \sum_{k=1}^K x_k$ and $n_+ = \sum_{k=1}^K n_k$. If all binomial probabilities in a model are assumed to be exactly equal and equal to a predicted value θ_0 , the Bayes factor is defined as:

$$BF_{0e} = \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{K} B(\alpha_k, \beta_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^{K} B(\alpha_k + x_k, \beta_k + n_k - x_k)} \times \theta_0^{x+} (1 - \theta_0)^{n_+ - x_+}.$$

Note that **multibridge** only supports the specification of one predicted value for all binomial probabilities. The package does not support the specification of different predicted values for different binomial probabilities. The reason for this is theoretical: we believe that such hypotheses are better tested using a hierarchical structure (thus modeling the binomial probabilities as dependent).

For multinomial models, assuming that all category probabilities in a model are equality constraint, the Bayes factor BF_{0e} is defined as:

$$BF_{0e} = \frac{B(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_K)}{B(\alpha_1 + x_1, \ldots, \alpha_K + x_K)} \times \frac{B(\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mathbf{x})}{B(\boldsymbol{\alpha})} \times \prod_{k=1}^K \theta_{0k}^{x_k},$$

where θ_{0k} represent the predicted category proportions. When all category proportions are assumed to be exactly equal all θ_{0k} are set to $\frac{1}{K}$. Otherwise, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ is replaced with the user-specified predicted values.

2.1.2 The Bayes Factor For Inequality Constraints. To approximate the
Bayes factor for informed hypotheses, Klugkist et al. (2005) derived an identity that defines
the Bayes factor BF_{re} as ratio of proportions of posterior and prior parameter space
consistent with the restriction. This identity forms the basis of the encompassing prior
approach. Recently, Sarafoglou et al. (2020) highlighted that these proportions can be
reinterpreted as the marginal likelihoods of the constrained posterior and constrained prior
distribution:

$$BF_{re} = \frac{\overbrace{p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathcal{H}_e)}^{\text{Marginal likelihood of constrained posterior distribution}}}{\underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathcal{H}_e)}_{\text{Marginal likelihood of constrained prior distribution}}}.$$
(5)

When we interpret the Bayes factor BF_{re} this way and we are able to sample from the 162 constrained densities, we can utilize numerical sampling methods such as bridge sampling to 163 estimate the Bayes factor. Crucially, when using bridge sampling, it does not matter how 164 small the constrained parameter space is in proportion to the encompassing density. This 165 gives the method a decisive advantage over the encompassing prior approach in terms of 166 accuracy and efficiency especially (1) when binomial and multinomial models with moderate 167 to high number of categories (i.e., K > 10) are evaluated and (2) when relatively little 168 posterior mass falls in the constrained parameter space. 169

The bridge sampling algorithm implemented in **multibridge** estimates one marginal 170 likelihood at the time (cf., Gronau et al., 2017; Overstall & Forster, 2010). Specifically, we subsequently estimate the marginal likelihood for the constrained prior distribution and the 172 marginal likelihood of the constrained posterior distribution. Here we describe how to 173 estimate the marginal likelihood for the constrained prior distribution, the steps presented 174 can then be applied accordingly to the posterior distribution. It should be noted that the 175 bridge sampling algorithm implemented in multibridge, constitutes an adapted version of 176 the algorithm implemented in the R package bridgesampling (Gronau, Singmann, & 177 Wagenmakers, 2020) that allows for the specification of informed hypotheses on probability 178 vectors. The bridge sampling identity for the marginal likelihood of the constrained prior 170 distribution is defined as: 180

¹In addition, our function to compute the relative mean square error for bridge sampling estimates in multibridge is based on the code of the error_measures-function from the bridgesampling package.

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathcal{H}_e) = \frac{\mathbb{E}_{g(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \left(p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathcal{H}_e) \mathbb{I}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r) h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right)}{\mathbb{E}_{\text{prior}} \left(g(\boldsymbol{\theta}) h(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right)}, \tag{6}$$

where the term $h(\theta)$ refers to the bridge function proposed by Meng and Wong (1996), $q(\theta)$ 181 refers to a so-called proposal distribution, and $p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathcal{H}_e)\mathbb{I}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r)$ is the part of the prior 182 parameter space under the encompassing hypothesis that is in accordance with the 183 constraint. To estimate the marginal likelihood, bridge sampling requires samples from the 184 target distribution, that is, the constrained Dirichlet distribution for multinomial models and 185 constrained beta distributions for binomial models, and samples from the proposal 186 distribution which in principle can be any distribution with a known marginal likelihood; in 187 multibridge the proposal distribution is the multivariate normal distribution. Samples 188 from the target distribution are generated using the Gibbs sampling algorithms proposed by 189 Damien and Walker (2001). For binomial models, we apply the suggested Gibbs sampling algorithm for constrained beta distributions. In the case of the multinomial models, we apply 191 an algorithm that simulates values from constrained Gamma distributions which are then 192 transformed into Dirichlet random variables. To sample efficiently from these distributions, 193 multibridge provides a C++ implementation of this algorithm. Samples from the proposal 194 distribution are generated using the standard rmvnorm-function from the R package 195 mvtnorm (Genz et al., 2020). 196

The efficiency of the bridge sampling method is optimal only if the target and proposal distribution operate on the same parameter space and have sufficient overlap. We therefore probit transform the samples of the constrained distributions to move the samples from the probability space to the entire real line. Subsequently, we use half of these draws to construct the proposal distribution using the method of moments. Details on the probit transformations are provided in the appendix.

The numerator in Equation 6 evaluates the unnormalized density for the constrained

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prior distribution with samples from the proposal distribution. The denominator evaluates
the normalized proposal distribution with samples from the constrained prior distribution.
Using this identity, we receive the bridge sampling estimator for the marginal likelihood of
the constrained prior distribution by applying the iterative scheme proposed by Meng and
Wong (1996):

$$\hat{p}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathcal{H}_e)^{(t+1)} \approx \frac{\frac{1}{N_2} \sum_{m=1}^{N_2} \frac{\ell_{2,m}}{s_1 \ell_{2,m} + s_2 p(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_m \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathcal{H}_e)^{(t)}}}{\frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{n=1}^{N_1} \frac{1}{s_1 \ell_{1,n} + s_2 p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_n^* \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathcal{H}_e)^{(t)}}},$$

where N_1 denotes the number of samples drawn from the constrained distribution, that is, $\theta^* \sim p(\theta \mid \mathcal{H}_r), N_2 \text{ denotes the number of samples drawn from the proposal distribution, that}$ is $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sim g(\boldsymbol{\theta}), s_1 = \frac{N_1}{N_2 + N_1}$, and $s_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_2 + N_1}$. The quantities $\ell_{1,n}$ and $\ell_{2,m}$ are defined as follows:

$$\ell_{1,n} = \frac{q_{1,1}}{q_{1,2}} = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{\theta_n^*} \mid \mathcal{H}_e) \mathbb{I}(\boldsymbol{\theta_n^*} \in \mathcal{R}_r)}{g(\boldsymbol{\xi_n^*})},\tag{7}$$

$$\ell_{2,m} = \frac{q_{2,1}}{q_{2,2}} = \frac{p(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_m \mid \mathcal{H}_e) \mathbb{I}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_m \in \mathcal{R}_r)}{g(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_m)},\tag{8}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\xi}_n^* = \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{\theta}_n^* - 1}{\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{l}}\right)$, and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_m = ((\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{l})\Phi(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_m) + \mathbf{l}) |J|)$. The quantity $q_{1,1}$ refers to the evaluations of the constrained distribution for constrained samples and $q_{1,2}$ refers to the proposal distribution evaluated at the probit-transformed samples from the constrained distribution, respectively. The quantity $q_{2,1}$ refers to evaluations of the constrained distribution at the inverse probit-transformed samples from the proposal distribution and $q_{2,2}$ refers to the proposal evaluations for samples from the proposal, respectively. Note that the quantities $\ell_{1,n}$ and $\ell_{2,m}$ have been adjusted to account for the necessary parameter transformations to create overlap between the constrained distributions and the proposal

distribution. **multibridge** runs the iterative scheme until the tolerance criterion suggested by Gronau et al. (2017) is reached, that is:

$$\frac{\mid \hat{p}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathcal{H}_e)^{(t+1)} - \hat{p}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathcal{H}_e)^{(t)} \mid}{\hat{p}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{R}_r \mid \mathcal{H}_e)^{(t+1)}} \leq 10^{-10}.$$

The sampling from the target and proposal distribution, the transformations and computational steps are performed automatically within the core functions of **multibridge**. The user only needs to provide the functions with the data, a prior and a specification of the informed hypothesis. As part of the standard output of $\text{texttt}\{\text{binom_bf_informed}\}$ and $\text{texttt}\{\text{mult_bf_informed}\}$, the functions return the bridge sampling estimate for the log marginal likelihood of the target distribution, its associate relative mean square error, the number of iterations, and the quantities $q_{1,2}$, $q_{1,2}$, $q_{1,2}$, and $q_{1,2}$.

3 Usage and Examples

The **multibridge** package can be installed from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) at https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=multibridge:

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```
install.packages('multibridge')
library('multibridge')
```

A list of all currently available functions and data sets is given in Table 3. Additional examples are available as vignettes (see https://cran.r-project.org/package=multibridge, or vignette(package = "multibridge")). The two core functions of multibridge—the mult_bf_informed and the binom_bf_informed—can be illustrated schematically as follows:

```
mult_bf_informed(x, Hr, a factor_levels)
binom_bf_informed(x, n, Hr, a, b, factor_levels)
```

The basic required arguments for these functions are listed in Table 1. In the following,
we will outline two examples on how to use **multibridge** to compare an informed hypothesis
to a null or encompassing hypothesis. In addition, the first example shows how two informed
hypotheses can be compared to each other.

Table 3

Core functions available in multibridge

Function Name(s)	Description	
mult_bf_informed	Evaluates informed hypotheses on multinomial parameters.	
mult_bf_inequality	Estimates the marginal likelihood of a constrained prior or	
	posterior Dirichlet distribution.	
mult_bf_equality	Computes Bayes factor for equality constrained multinomial	
	parameters using the standard Bayesian multinomial test.	
mult_tsampling	Samples from constrained prior or posterior Dirichlet den-	
	sity.	
lifestresses, peas	Data sets associated with informed hypotheses in multino-	
	mial models.	
binom_bf_informed	Evaluates informed hypotheses on binomial parameters.	
binom_bf_inequality	Estimates the marginal likelihood of constrained prior or	
	posterior beta distributions.	
binom_bf_equality	Computes Bayes factor for equality constrained binomial	
	parameters.	
binom_tsampling	Samples from constrained prior or posterior beta densities.	
journals	Data set associated with informed hypotheses in binomial	
	models.	
generate_restriction_list	Encodes the informed hypothesis.	

3.1 Example 1: Applying A Benford Test to Greek Fiscal Data

The first digit phenomenon, otherwise known as Benford's law (Benford, 1938;

Newcomb, 1881) states that the expected proportion of leading digits in empirical data can

be formalized as follows: for any given leading digit $d, d = (1, \dots, 9)$ the expected proportion is approximately equal to

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_d} = \log_{10}((d+1)/d).$$

This means that in an empirical data set numbers with smaller leading digits are more common than numbers with larger leading digits. Specifically, a number has leading digit 1 237 in 30.1% of the cases, and leading digit 2 in 17.61% of the cases; leading digit 9 is the least 238 frequent digit with an expected proportion of only 4.58% (see Table 4 for an overview of the 239 expected proportions). Examples of empirical data for which this relationship holds include data on population sizes, death rates, baseball statistics, atomic weights of elements, and physical constants (Benford, 1938). In contrast, generated data, such as telephone numbers, do in general not obey Benford's law (Hill, 1995). Given that Benford's law applies to empirical data but not artificially generated data, a so-called Benford test can be used, for 244 instance, in fields like accounting and auditing to check for indications for poor data quality, 245 for instance, in fiscal statements (for an overview, see e.g., Durtschi, Hillison, & Pacini, 2004; 246 Nigrini, 2012; Nigrini & Mittermaier, 1997). Data that do not pass the Benford test, should 247 raise audit risk concerns, meaning that it is recommended that the data undergo additional 248 follow-up checks (Nigrini, 2019). 249

Below, we discuss three possible Bayesian adaptations of the Benford's test. In a first scenario we simply conduct a Bayesian multinomial test in which we test the point-null hypothesis \mathcal{H}_0 which predicts a Benford distribution against the encompassing hypothesis \mathcal{H}_e . In a second scenario we test the null hypothesis against an alternative hypothesis, denoted as \mathcal{H}_{r1} , which predicts a decreasing trend in the proportions of leading digits. The hypothesis \mathcal{H}_{r1} exerts considerably more constraints than \mathcal{H}_e and provides a more sensitive test if our primary goal is to test whether data comply with Benford's law or whether the data follow a similar but different trend. In a third scenario, where the main goal is to identify fabricated data, we could test the null hypothesis against a hypothesis which predicts a trend that is

characteristic for manipulated data. This hypothesis, which we denote as \mathcal{H}_{r2} , could be 259 derived from empirical research on fraud or be based on observed patterns from former fraud 260 cases. For instance, Hill (1988) instructed students to produce a series of random numbers; 261 in the resulting data the proportion of the leading digit 1 occurred most often and the digits 262 8 and 9 occurred least often which is consistent with the general pattern of Benford's law. 263 However, the proportion for the remaining leading digits were approximately equal. We do 264 want to note that the predicted distribution derived from Hill (1988) is not currently used as 265 a test to detect fraud. However, for the sake of simplicity, if we assume that this pattern could be an indication of fabricated auditing data, the Bayes factor would quantify the 267 evidence of whether the proportion of first digits resemble authentic or fabricated data.

Data and Hypothesis. The data we use to illustrate the computation of 269 Bayes factors were originally published by the European statistics agency "Eurostat" and 270 served as basis for reviewing the adherence to the Stability and Growth Pact of EU member 271 states. Rauch, Göttsche, Brähler, and Engel (2011) conducted a Benford test on data related 272 to budget deficit criteria, that is, public deficit, public dept and gross national products. The 273 data used for this example features the proportion of first digits from fiscal data from Greece 274 in the years between 1999 and 2010; a total of N = 1,497 numerical data were included in 275 the analysis. We choose this data, since the Greek government deficit and debt statistics states has been repeatedly criticized by the European Commission in this time span (European Commission, 2004, 2010). In particular, the commission has accused the Greek statistical authorities to have misreported deficit and debt statistics. For further details on 279 the data set see Rauch et al. (2011). The observed proportions are displayed in Table 4, the 280 figure displaying the observed versus the expected proportions are displayed in Figure 2. 281

Table 4

The Table shows the Observed Counts, Observed Proportions, and Expected Proportions of first digits in Greece governmental data. The total sample size was N=1,497 observations. Note that the observed proportions and counts deviate slightly from those reported in Rauch et al. (2011) (probably due to rounding errors).

Leading digit	Observed Counts	Observed Proportions	Expected Proportions:
			Benford's Law
1	509	0.340	0.301
2	353	0.236	0.176
3	177	0.118	0.125
4	114	0.076	0.097
5	77	0.051	0.079
6	77	0.051	0.067
7	53	0.035	0.058
8	73	0.049	0.051
9	64	0.043	0.046

In this example, the parameter vector of the multinomial model, $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K$, reflects the probabilities of a leading digit in the Greek fiscal data being a number from 1 to 9. Thus, we can formalize the discussed hypotheses as follows. The null hypothesis specifies that the proportions of first digits obeys Benford's law:

$$\mathcal{H}_0: \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 = (0.301, 0.176, 0.125, 0.097, 0.079, 0.067, 0.058, 0.051, 0.046).$$

Here, we are testing the null hypothesis against the following three alternative

hypotheses:

$$\mathcal{H}_e: \boldsymbol{\theta} \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}),$$

$$\mathcal{H}_{r1}: \theta_1 > \theta_2 > \theta_3 > \theta_4 > \theta_5 > \theta_6 > \theta_7 > \theta_8 > \theta_9,$$

$$\mathcal{H}_{r2}: \theta_1 > (\theta_2 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 = \theta_5 = \theta_6 = \theta_7) > (\theta_8, \ \theta_9).$$

We could also compare the three alternative hypothesis directly with each other. To do
so, we can make use of the transitivity property of the Bayes factor. For instance, if we
would like to compare \mathcal{H}_{r1} with \mathcal{H}_{r2} , we would first compute BF_{er1} and BF_{er2} and then yield BF_{r1r2} as follows:

$$BF_{r1r2} = \frac{BF_{er2}}{BF_{er1}}.$$

Method. We can compare \mathcal{H}_0 and \mathcal{H}_e by means of a Bayesian multinomial 290 test, that is, we stipulate equality constraints on the entire parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. The 291 corresponding Bayes factor is thus computationally straightforward; we can calculate BF_{0e} 292 by applying the function mult_bf_equality. To evaluate \mathcal{H}_0 , we only need to specify (1) a 293 vector with observed counts, (2) a vector with concentration parameters of the Dirichlet prior distribution, and (3) the vector of proportions expected under the null. We do not 295 want to incorporate any specific expectations about the distribution of leading digits in the Greek fiscal data. Hence, we set all concentration parameters to one which corresponds to a 297 uniform Dirichlet distribution. 298

```
# Observed counts
x <- c(509, 353, 177, 114, 77, 77, 53, 73, 64)
# Concentration parameters
a <- rep(1, 9)
# Expected proportions
p <- log10((1:9 + 1)/1:9)</pre>
```

```
# Execute the analysis
results_H0_He <- mult_bf_equality(x = x, a = a, p = p)
logBFe0 <- results_H0_He$bf$LogBFe0</pre>
```

Since the hypotheses \mathcal{H}_{r1} and \mathcal{H}_{r2} contain inequality constraints, we use the function mult_bf_informed to compute the Bayes factor of the informed hypotheses to the encompassing hypothesis. We then make use of the transitivity property of the Bayes factor to compare the alternative hypotheses to the null hypothesis. In this function, we need to specify (1) a vector with observed counts, (2) the informed hypothesis \mathcal{H}_{r1} or \mathcal{H}_{r2} (e.g., as character vector), (3) a vector with concentration parameters of the Dirichlet prior distribution, and (4) labels for the categories of interest (i.e., leading digits):

```
bayes_factor_table <- data.frame(

BFType = c('LogBFe0', 'LogBFr10', 'LogBFr20'),

LogBF = c(logBFe0, -logBFer1 + logBFe0, -logBFer2 + logBFe0))

bayes_factor_table</pre>
```

```
306 ## BFType LogBF
307 ## 1 LogBFe0 17.6715
308 ## 2 LogBFr10 25.0883
309 ## 3 LogBFr20 -154.5685
```

As the evidence is extreme in all three cases, we report all Bayes factors on the log 310 scale. Comparing the null hypothesis that the proportion of first digits in the Greek fiscal 311 follow a Benford distribution to the three alternatives, we can make the following statements. 312 The first Bayes factor $log(BF_{e0})$ suggests extreme evidence in favor of the hypothesis that the first digits vary freely; $log(BF_{e0}) = 17.67$. The second Bayes factor $log(BF_{r10})$ suggests 314 extreme evidence in favor of the hypothesis that the first digits follow a decreasing trend, 315 $\log(\mathrm{BF}_{r10}) = 25.09$. The third Bayes factor $\log(\mathrm{BF}_{r20})$ suggests extreme evidence against the 316 hypothesis that the first digits follow a fraudulent pattern with $\log(BF_{r20}) = -154.57$. When 317 we compare the informed hypotheses directly with each other, the data show most evidence 318 for a decreasing trend ($log(BF_{r1r2}) = 180$). 319

To summarize, the preferred hypothesis is \mathcal{H}_{r1} that postulates an decreasing trend.

The second best performing hypothesis is the encompassing hypothesis \mathcal{H}_e , followed by \mathcal{H}_0 that postulates a Benford distribution. The worst performing hypothesis is \mathcal{H}_{r2} , the

hypothesis that the data are fabricated. Hence, the result suggests that the leading digits in

the fiscal statistics do not follow a Benford distribution but they also do not seem to be

fabricated. Therefore, it might be reasonable to assume that the data have poor overall

quality. Further follow-up checks of these numbers could provide information on whether

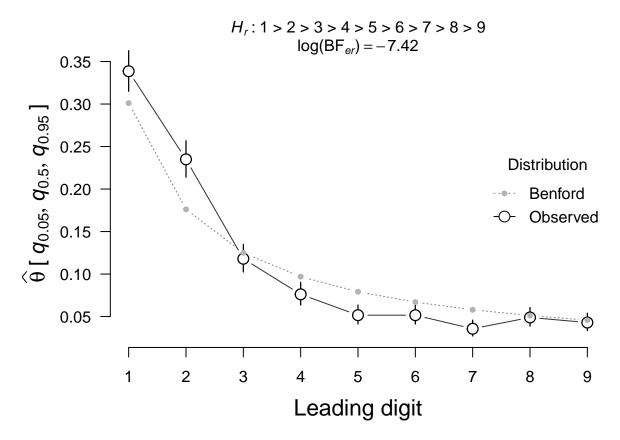


Figure 2. Proportions of leading digits observed in the fiscal statistics from Greece in comparison to the proportions expected according to Benford's law. The black-rimmed dots indicate the the posterior median estimates and corresponding 95% credible intervals based on the encompassing model. The grey filled dots indicate the proportions predicted by Benford's law. Only three out of nine estimates cover the expected proportions. This plot was created using the plot-S3-method for summary.bmult objects.

financial statements were actually materially misstated, for instance, by rounding up or down numbers, avoiding certain thresholds and so on (Nigrini, 2019).

9 3.2 Example 2: Prevalence of Statistical Reporting Errors

In any scientific article that uses null hypothesis significance testing, there is a chance 330 that the reported test statistic and degrees of freedom do not match the reported p-value. In 331 most cases this is because researchers copy the relevant test statistics by hand into their 332 articles and there are no automatic checks to detect mistakes. Therefore, Epskamp and 333 Nuijten (2014) developed the R package statcheck, which only requires the PDF of a given 334 scientific article to detect these reporting errors automatically and efficiently. This package 335 allowed Nuijten et al. (2016) to estimate the prevalence of statistical reporting errors in the 336 field of psychology. In total, the authors investigated a sample of 30,717 articles (which 337 translates to over a quarter of a million p-values) published in eight major psychological 338 journals between 1985 to 2013: Developmental Psychology (DP), the Frontiers in Psychology 330 (FP), the Journal of Applied Psychology (JAP), the Journal of Consulting and Clinical 340 Psychology (JCCP), Journal of Experimental Psychology: General (JEPG), the Journal of Personality and Social Psychology (JPSP), the Public Library of Science (PLoS), Psychological Science (PS).

Besides the overall prevalence of statistical reporting errors across these journals, the
authors were interested whether there is a higher prevalence for reporting inconsistencies in
certain subfields in psychology compared to others. In this context, the possibility was raised
that there exists a relationship between the prevalence for reporting inconsistencies and
questionable research practices. Specifically, the authors argued that besides honest mistakes
when transferring the test statistics into the manuscript, statistical reporting errors occur
when authors misreport p-values, for instance, by incorrectly rounding them down to or
below 0.05. Based on this assumption, Nuijten et al. (2016) predicted that the proportion of

statistical reporting errors should be highest in articles published in the *Journal of*Personality and Social Psychology (JPSP), compared to other journals, because compared to

other areas of psychology researchers in social psychology most frequently deemed

questionable research practices defensible and applicable to their research (John,

Loewenstein, & Prelec, 2012).

357 **3.2.1 Data and Hypothesis.** Here, we reuse the original data published by
358 Nuijten et al. (2016), which we also distribute with the package **multibridge** under the
359 name journals.

data(journals)

The hypothesis of interest, \mathcal{H}_r , formulated by Nuijten et al. (2016) states that the 360 prevalence for statistical reporting errors for articles published in social psychology journals 361 (i.e., JPSP) is higher than for articles published in other journals. Note that Nuijten et al. 362 (2016) did not make use of inferential statistics since their sample included the entire 363 population of articles from the eight flagship journals in psychology from 1985 to 2013. For 364 demonstration purposes, however, we will test the informed hypothesis stated by the authors. 365 We will test \mathcal{H}_r against the the null hypothesis \mathcal{H}_0 that all journals have the same prevalence 366 for statistical reporting errors. In this example, the parameter vector of the binomial success 367 probabilities, θ , reflects the probabilities that articles using null hypothesis significance 368 testing (NHST) will have at least one statistical reporting error across journals. Thus, we 369 can formalize the discussed hypotheses as follows: 370

$$\mathcal{H}_r: (\theta_{\mathrm{DP}}, \theta_{\mathrm{FP}}, \theta_{\mathrm{JAP}}, \theta_{\mathrm{JCCP}}, \theta_{\mathrm{JEPG}}, \theta_{\mathrm{PLoS}}, \theta_{\mathrm{PS}}) < \theta_{\mathrm{JPSP}}$$

$$\mathcal{H}_0: \theta_{\mathrm{DP}} = \theta_{\mathrm{FP}} = \cdots = \theta_{\mathrm{JPSP}}.$$

Method. To compute the Bayes factor BF_{0r} we need to specify (1) a vector 3.2.2371 with observed successes (i.e., number of articles that contain a statistical reporting error), 372 and (2) a vector containing the total number of observations, (3) the informed hypothesis, 373 (4) a vector with prior parameter α_i for each binomial proportion, (5) a vector with prior 374 parameter β_i for each binomial proportion, and (6) the category labels (i.e., journal names). 375 Since we have no specific expectations about the distribution of statistical reporting errors in 376 any given journal, we set all parameters α_i and β_i to one which corresponds to uniform beta 377 distributions. With this information, we can now conduct the analysis with the function 378 binom_bf_informed. 379

```
# Since percentages are rounded to two decimal values, we round the
# articles with an error to obtain integer values
x <- round(journals$articles with NHST *
              (journals$perc articles with errors/100))
# Total number of articles
n <- journals$articles with NHST
# Prior specification
# We assign a uniform beta distribution to each binomial proportion
a \leftarrow rep(1, 8)
b \leftarrow rep(1, 8)
# Specifying the informed Hypothesis
Hr <- c('JAP , PS , JCCP , PLOS , DP , FP , JEPG < JPSP')</pre>
# Category labels
journal_names <- journals$journal</pre>
```

```
BFr0 <- summary(results_H0_Hr)$bf

BFe0 <- results_H0_Hr$bf_list$bf0_table[['BFe0']]

BFre <- results_H0_Hr$bf_list$bfr_table[['BFre']]

bayes_factor_table <- data.frame(

    BFType = c('BFe0', 'BFr0', 'BFre'),

    BF = c(BFe0, BFr0, BFre))

bayes_factor_table</pre>
```

```
380 ## BFType BF
381 ## 1 BFe0 7.381395e+67
382 ## 2 BFr0 5.483500e+68
383 ## 3 BFre 7.428873e+00
```

The Bayes factor BF_{r0} suggests extreme evidence for the informed hypothesis that the social psychology journal JPSP has the highest prevalence for statistical reporting errors compared to the null hypothesis that the statistical reporting errors are equal across journals; $log(BF_{r0}) = 158.28$. When taking a closer look at the Bayes factors, we also see that the data suggest that the null hypothesis that the statistical reporting errors are equal across journals is highly unlikely compared to the encompassing hypothesis, $log(BF_{e0}) = 156.27$. In addition, the results suggest that the data are 7.43 more likely under the informed hypothesis than under the hypothesis that the ordering of the journals can vary freely.

In order to get a clearer picture about the ordering of the journals, we can investigate
the posterior estimates under the encompassing model as the next step. The posterior
median and 95% credible interval are returned by the summary-method and can be plotted,
Figure 3.

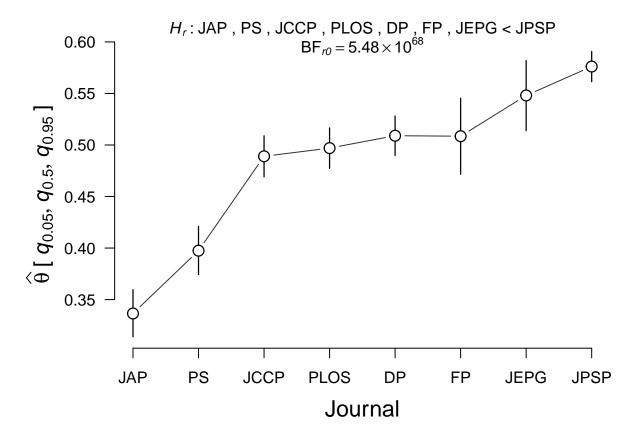


Figure 3. The figure displays for each journal the posterior estimates for the prevalence that an article includes a statistical reporting error and the corresponding 95% credible intervals based on the encompassing model. It appears that all journals show a relatively similar prevalence for statistical reporting errors, with the exception of the Journal of Applied Psychology (JAP) and Psychological Science (PS), whose prevalence is much lower. This plot was created using the plot-S3-method for summary.bmult objects.

To summarize, we collected extreme evidence for the hypothesis stated by Nuijten et al.

(2016) that the prevalence of statistical reporting errors for articles published in a social

psychology journal (i.e., JPSP) is higher than for articles published in other journals.

However, this result should be interpreted with caution. It seems that the result is above all an indication that the null hypothesis is highly misspecified and that the prevalence for a statistical reporting error varies greatly from journal to journal. Evidence that JPSP stands out and has a higher prevalence than the other journals is relatively small; the data provided only moderate evidence against the encompassing hypotheses.

4 Summary

404

The R package multibridge facilitates the estimation of Bayes factors for informed 405 hypotheses in binomial and multinomial models. Compared to existing packages, this new 406 package efficiently estimates Bayes factors for models with large number of categories which 407 occur frequently in empirical studies. This efficient and reliable estimation is made possible 408 by a recently developed bridge sampling routine (Sarafoglou et al., 2020). The package offers 409 researchers and practitioners the opportunity to specify informed hypotheses that relate 410 closely to their theories. Specifically, informed hypotheses that feature equality constraints, 411 inequality constraints, and free parameters as well as mixtures between them are supported. 412 Moreover, users can also choose whether the informative hypothesis should be tested against 413 an encompassing hypothesis that lets all parameters vary freely or the null hypothesis that 414 states that category proportions are exactly equal. 415

Beyond the core functions currently implemented in **multibridge**, there are several natural extensions we aim to include in future versions of this package. For instance, one extension is to facilitate the specification of hierarchical binomial and multinomial models which would allow users to analyze data where responses are nested within participants. Hierarchical multinomial models can be found, for instance, in source memory research where participants need to select a previously studied item from a list of multiple stimuli (e.g., Arnold, Heck, Bröder, Meiser, & Boywitt, 2019). In addition, we aim to enable the specification of informed hypotheses that are more complex, including hypotheses on the size

ratios of the parameters of interest or the difference between category proportions such that informed hypotheses can also be specified on odds ratios.

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426

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Appendix

Transforming An Ordered Probability Vector To The Real Line

Since we choose the multivariate normal as proposal distribution, the mapping between the proposal and target distribution requires us to move θ to the real line. Crucially, the 535 transformation needs to retain the ordering of the parameters, that is, it needs to take into 536 account the lower bound l_k and the upper bound u_k of each θ_k . To achieve this goal, 537 multibridge uses a probit transformation as proposed in Sarafoglou et al. (2020) which 538 subsequently transforms the elements in θ moving from its lowest to its highest value. In the 539 binomial model, we move all elements in θ to the real line and thus construct a new vector 540 $y \in \mathbb{R}^K$. For multinomial models it follows from the sum-to-one constraint that the vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ 541 is completely determined by its first K-1 elements, where θ_K is defined as $1-\sum_{k=1}^K \theta_k$. 542 Hence, for multinomial models we will only consider the first K-1 elements of θ and we 543 will transform them to K-1 elements of a new vector $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}$.

Let ϕ denote the density of a normal variable with a mean of zero and a variance of one, Φ denote its cumulative density function, and Φ^{-1} denote the inverse cumulative density function. Then for each element θ_k , the transformation is

$$\xi_k = \Phi^{-1} \left(\frac{\theta_k - l_k}{u_k - l_k} \right),\,$$

The inverse transformation is given by

$$\theta_k = (u_k - l_k)\Phi(\xi_k) + l_k.$$

To perform the transformations, we thus need to determine the lower bound l_k and the upper bound u_k of each θ_k . Assuming $\theta_{k-1} < \theta_k$ for $k \in \{1 \cdots, K\}$ the lower bound for any element in $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is defined as

$$l_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 1\\ \theta_{k-1} & \text{if } 1 < k < K. \end{cases}$$

This definition holds for both binomial models and multinomial models. Differences in these two models appear only when determining the upper bound for each parameter. For binomial models, the upper bound for each θ_k is simply 1. For multinomial models, however, due to the sum-to-one constraint the upper bounds depend on the values of smaller elements as well as on the number of remaining larger elements in θ . To be able to determine the upper bounds, we represent θ as unit-length stick which we subsequently divide into Kelements (Frigyik, Kapila, & Gupta, 2010; Stan Development Team, 2020). By using this so-called stick-breaking method we can define the upper bound for any θ_k as follows:

$$u_k = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{K} & \text{if } k = 1\\ \frac{1 - \sum_{i < k} \theta_i}{EBS} & \text{if } 1 < k < K, \end{cases}$$
 (9)

where $1 - \sum_{i < k} \theta_i$ represents the length of the remaining stick, that is, the proportion of the unit-length stick that has not yet been accounted for in the transformation. The elements in the remaining stick are denoted as ERS, and are computed as follows:

$$ERS = K - 1 + k$$
.

The transformations outlined above are suitable only for ordered probability vectors, that is, for informed hypotheses in binomial and multinomial models that only feature inequality constraints. However, when informed hypotheses also feature equality constrained parameters, as well as parameters that are free to vary we need to modify the formula. Specifically, to determine the lower bounds for each parameter, we need to take into account

for each element θ_k the number of equality constrained parameters that are collapsed within this element (denoted as e_k):

$$l_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 1\\ \frac{\theta_{k-1}}{e_{k-1}} \times e_k & \text{if } 1 < k < K. \end{cases}$$
 (10)

The upper bound for parameters in the binomial models still remains 1. To determine the upper bound for multinomial models we must, additionally for each element θ_k , take into account the number of free parameters that share common upper and lower bounds (denoted with f_k). The upper bound is then defined as:

$$u_{k} = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - (f_{k} \times l_{k})}{K} & \text{if } k = 1\\ \frac{1 - \sum_{i < k} \theta_{i} - (f_{k} \times l_{k})}{ERS} \times e_{k} & \text{if } 1 < k < K \text{ and } u_{k} \ge \max(\theta_{i < k}),\\ \frac{1 - \sum_{i < k} \theta_{i} - (f_{k} \times l_{k})}{ERS} - \max(\theta_{i < k}) \times e_{k} & \text{if } 1 < k < K \text{ and } u_{k} < \max(\theta_{i < k}). \end{cases}$$

$$(11)$$

The elements in the remaining stick are then computed as follows

$$ERS = e_k + \sum_{j>k} e_j \times f_j.$$

The rationale behind these modifications will be described in more detail in the following
sections. In multibridge, information that is relevant for the transformation of the
parameter vectors is stored in the generated restriction_list which is returned by the
main functions binom_bf_informed and mult_bf_informed but can also be generated
separately with the function generate_restriction_list. This restriction list features the
sublist inequality_constraints which encodes the number of equality constraints

collapsed in each parameter in nr_mult_equal. Similarly the number of free parameters
that share common bounds are encoded under nr_mult_free.

6.0.0.1 Equality Constrained Parameters. In cases where informed hypotheses feature a mix of equality and inequality constrained parameters, we compute the corresponding Bayes factor BF_{re} , by multiplying the individual Bayes factors for both constrait types with each other:

$$BF_{re} = BF_{1e} \times BF_{2e} \mid BF_{1e},$$

where the subscript 1 denotes the hypothesis that only features equality constraints and the subscript 2 denotes the hypothesis that only features inequality constraints. To receive $BF_{2e} \mid BF_{1e}$, we collapse in the constrained prior and posterior distributions all equality constrained parameters into one category which has implications on the performed transformations.

When transforming the samples from these distributions, we need to account for the fact that the inequality constraints imposed under the original parameter values might not hold for the collapsed parameters. Consider, for instance, a multinomial model in which we specify the following informed hypothesis

$$\mathcal{H}_r: \theta_1 < \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 < \theta_5 < \theta_6$$

where samples from the encompassing distribution take the values (0.05, 0.15, 0.15, 0.15, 0.23, 0.27). For these parameter values the inequality constraints hold since 0.05 is smaller than 0.15, 0.23 and 0.27. However, the same constraint does not hold when we collapse the categories θ_2 , θ_3 , and θ_4 into θ_* . That is, the collapsed parameter $\theta_* = 0.15 + 0.15 + 0.15 = 0.45$ is now larger than 0.23 and 0.27. In general, to determine the lower bound for a given parameter θ_k we thus need to take into account both the number of collapsed categories in the preceding parameter e_{k-1} as well as the number of collapsed

categories in the current parameter e_k . In the example above, this means that to determine the lower bound for θ_* we multiply the preceding value θ_1 by three, such that the lower bound is $0.05 \times 3 = 0.15$. In addition, to determine the lower bound of θ_5 we divide the preceding value θ_* by three, that is, 0.6/3 = 0.2. In general, lower bounds for the parameters need to be adjusted as follows:

$$l_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 1\\ \frac{\theta_{k-1}}{e_{k-1}} \times e_k & \text{if } 1 < k < K, \end{cases}$$
 (12)

where e_{k-1} and e_k refer to the number of equality constrained parameters that are collapsed in θ_{k-1} and θ_k , respectively. Similarly, to determine the upper bound for a given parameter value, we need to multiple the upper bound the number of equality constrained parameters within the current constraint:

$$u_k = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{ERS} \times e_k & \text{if } k = 1\\ \frac{1 - \sum_{i < k} \theta_i}{ERS} \times e_k & \text{if } 1 < k < K, \end{cases}$$
 (13)

where $1 - \sum_{i < k} \theta_i$ represents the length of the remaining stick and the number of elements in the remaining stick are computed as follows: $ERS = \sum_{k}^{K} e_k$. For the example above, the upper bound for θ_* is $\frac{1 - 0.05}{5} \times 3 = 0.57$. The upper bound for θ_5 is then $\frac{(1 - 0.05 - 0.45)}{2} \times 1 = 0.25.$

6.0.0.2 Corrections for Free Parameters. Different adjustments are required
for a sequence of inequality constrained parameters that share upper and lower bounds.

Consider, for instance, a multinomial model in which we specify the informed hypothesis

$$\mathcal{H}_r: \theta_1 \leq \theta_2, \theta_3 \leq \theta_4.$$

This hypothesis specifies that θ_2 and θ_3 have the shared lower bound θ_1 and the shared upper bound 1, however, θ_2 can be larger than θ_3 or vice versa. To integrate these cases within the stick-breaking approach one must account for these potential changes of order. For these cases, the lower bounds for the parameters remain unchanged. To determine the upper bounds, we need to subtract for each θ_k from the length of the remaining stick the lower bounds of all parameters that share common bounds with θ_k and that have not yet been accounted for in the transformation:

$$u_k = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - (f_k \times l_k)}{K} & \text{if } k = 1\\ \frac{1 - \sum_{i < k} \theta_i - (f_k \times l_k)}{ERS} & \text{if } 1 < k < K, \end{cases}$$

$$(14)$$

where f_k represents the number of free parameters that share common upper and lower bounds with θ_k and that have been not yet been accounted for. Here, the number of elements in the remaining stick is defined as the number of all parameters that are larger than θ_k : $ERS = 1 + \sum_{j>k} f_j$. To illustrate this correction, assume that samples from the encompassing distribution take the values (0.15, 0.3, 0.2, 0.35). The upper bound for θ_1 is simply $^1/_4$. For θ_2 , we need to take into account that θ_2 and θ_3 share upper and lower bounds. Thus, to compute the upper bound for θ_2 , we subtract from the length of the remaining stick the lower bound of θ_3 : $\frac{1 - 0.15 - (0.15 \times 1)}{2} = 0.35$.

that was already accounted for in the stick) is larger than the upper bound of the current parameter. For instance, in our example the upper bound for θ_3 would be $\frac{1-0.15-0.3}{2}=0.275$, but the preceding free parameter is 0.3. However, if θ_3 would actually take on the value 0.275, then θ_4 would have to be 0.275 as well, which would violate the constraint (i.e., $0.15 \le 0.3, 0.275 \ne 0.275$). In these cases, the upper bound needs to be corrected downwards. To do this, we subtract the difference between the largest preceding

A further correction is required, if a preceding free parameter (i.e., a free parameter

free parameter in the sequence with the current upper bound. Thus, if $u_k < \max(\theta_{i < k})$, the upper bound becomes:

$$u_k = u_k - (\max(\theta_{i < k}) - u_k) \tag{15}$$

$$= 2 \times u_k - \max(\theta_{i < k}). \tag{16}$$

For our example the corrected upper bound for θ_3 would become $2 \times 0.275 - 0.3 = 0.25$ which secures the proper ordering for the remainder of the parameters: if θ_3 would take on the value 0.25, θ_4 would be 0.3 which would be in accordance with the constraint, that is, $0.15 \le 0.3, 0.25 \le 0.3$.

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