

Jeffreys–Lindley Paradox

From Basic to Theoretical

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Paradoxes

Quine (1976) distinguished three types of paradoxes.

- ▶ Veridical paradoxes (surprising yet true)

Hilbert's hotel, Monty Hall problem, Simpson's paradox

- ▶ Falsidical paradoxes (seem sound but hinge on a mistake)

Zeno's paradoxes

- ▶ Antinomies (accepted principles yield contradiction)

Russell's paradox, temporal paradox, Ship of Theseus, Schrödinger's cat

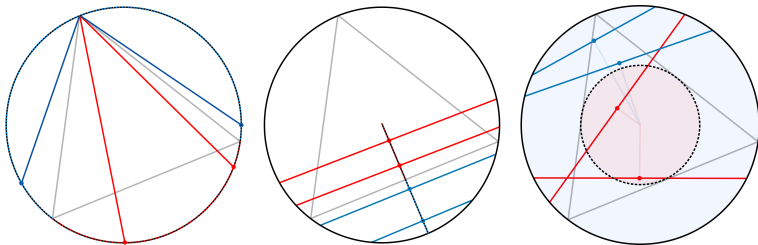
- ▷ *Better seen as dilemmas*

Fermi paradox, Newcomb's problem, trolley problem

A Falsidical Paradox

The Bertrand paradox and the maximum ignorance principle:

What is the probability that a random chord of a circle is longer than the side of an equilateral triangle inscribed within that circle?



Source: Wikipedia

$1/3$, $1/2$, and $1/4$ are all correct (or incorrect) depending on the question being asked (i.e., random endpoints, random radius, and random midpoint).

Two Views of Probability

Frequentist

- ▶ Probability is the long-run frequency.
- ▶ $p(y; \theta)$ is a sampling distribution:
a function of y with θ fixed.

It assumes repeated sampling from the population to estimate the true value of an underlying parameter.

$$\bar{Y}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Bayesian

- ▶ Probability reflects updated beliefs.
- ▶ $p(y | \theta)$ is a likelihood:
a function of θ with y fixed.

Assuming a proper prior and i.i.d. data, the posterior becomes more concentrated as the sample size increases.

$$p(\theta | y) \propto p(y | \theta) \cdot \pi(\theta)$$

A Veridical Paradox

The **Jeffreys–Lindley paradox** refers to the disagreement between the frequentist and Bayesian approaches to a hypothesis testing problem, $\mathcal{H}_0 : \boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ versus $\mathcal{H}_1 : \boldsymbol{\theta} \neq \boldsymbol{\theta}_0$.

A p -value may *reject* the null hypothesis, while the Bayes factor may *support* it, especially with a small effect size, diffuse prior, and large sample size.

$$p\text{-value} := \mathbb{P}(|T| \geq |t(\mathbf{y})|; \mathcal{H}_0) < .05 \quad (1)$$

$$BF_{01} := \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathcal{H}_0)}{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathcal{H}_1)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{H}_0 \mid \mathbf{y})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{H}_1 \mid \mathbf{y})} \bigg/ \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{H}_0)}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{H}_1)} \quad (2)$$

$$= \frac{\int p(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\psi}) \cdot \pi_0(\boldsymbol{\psi}) \, d\boldsymbol{\psi}}{\iint p(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\psi}) \cdot \pi_1(\boldsymbol{\psi} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) \cdot \pi_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \, d\boldsymbol{\psi} \, d\boldsymbol{\theta}} \quad (3)$$

$$= \frac{p(\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathcal{H}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 \mid \mathcal{H}_1)} > 3 \quad (4)$$

Example: $Y \sim B(n, \theta)$

[Source](#)[BayesFactor](#)

```
k <- 49581; N <- 98451; k/N # 0.5036109

binom.test(k, N)
# Exact binomial test
# -----
# data:  k and N
# number of successes = 49581, number of trials = 98451, p-value = 0.02365
# alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.5
# 95 percent confidence interval:
#  0.5004826 0.5067390
# sample estimates:
# probability of success
#                0.5036109

1 / BayesFactor::proportionBF(k, N, .5) # BF[01] = 1 / BF[10]
# Bayes factor analysis
# -----
# [1] Null, p=0.5 : 9.607493 ±0%
#
# Against denominator:
#  Alternative, p0 = 0.5, r = 0.5, p != p0
# ---
# Bayes factor type: BFproportion, logistic

dbeta(.5, k+1, N-k+1) / dbeta(.5, 1, 1) # 19.21139, Savage-Dickey density ratio
```

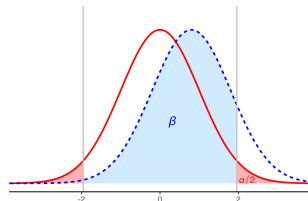
Hypothesis Testing

p -Value

- ▶ Absence of evidence
 \neq Evidence of absence

$$p\text{-value} \neq \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{H}_0)$$

- ▶ The frequentist finds that \mathcal{H}_0 is a poor explanation for the data (without reference to \mathcal{H}_1).



Bayes Factor

- ▶ Model selection
 \neq Model comparison

*All models are wrong,
but some are useful* (Box, 1976).

- ▶ The Bayesian finds that \mathcal{H}_0 is a relatively better explanation for the data than \mathcal{H}_1 .

Evidence is relative.

What if a model is misspecified?

Conversely, the Bayes factor may favor \mathcal{H}_1 , while the p -value may fail to reject \mathcal{H}_0 .
(Wei, Nathoo, & Masson, 2025).

- Clustered data

e.g., the weight of the j th piglet in the randomly selected litter i

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{M}_1: & y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \epsilon_{ij} \\ \text{versus } \mathcal{M}_0: & y_{ij} = \mu + \epsilon_{ij} \end{array} \quad \leftarrow \mathcal{P}$$

- One-way within-subject data

e.g., the response time of the i th participant for the j th Stroop task

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{M}_1: & y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + t_j + \epsilon_{ij} \\ \text{versus } \mathcal{M}_0: & y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \epsilon_{ij} \end{array} \quad \leftarrow \mathcal{B}$$

Same mixed model
but different designs

Lindley (1957) and Bartlett (1957)

Bayesian z -test.

Data: $Y_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma^2)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

$\mathcal{H}_0 : \theta = \theta_0$ versus $\mathcal{H}_1 : \theta \neq \theta_0$

Prior: $\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta_0, \sigma^2)$

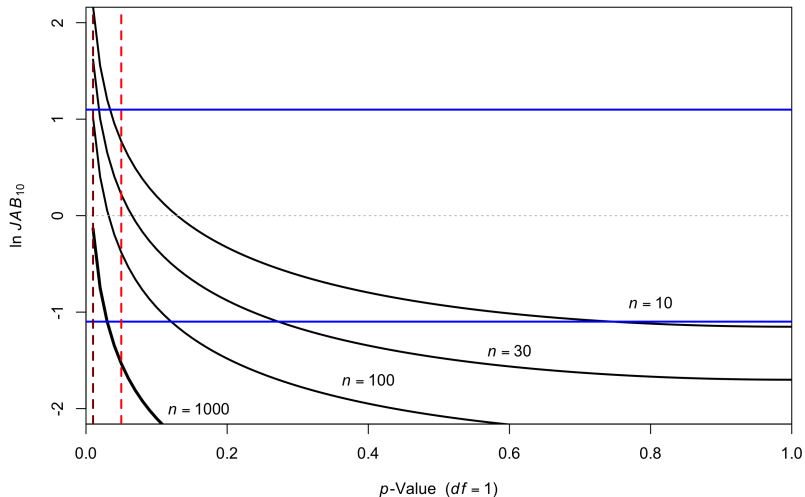
$$BF_{01} = (1 + n)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{n}{1 + n} \cdot z^2 \right\} \xrightarrow{P} \infty \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty, \quad (5)$$

assuming a fixed $z^2 = n(\bar{Y}_n - \theta_0)^2 / \sigma^2$.

Jeffreys (1936)

Assume a unit-information prior in the Wald test.

$$JAB_{01} = \sqrt{n} \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} W \right\} \quad (6)$$



Jeffreys–Zellner–Siow Bayes Factor

Bayesian one-sample t -test.

Data: $Y_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\sigma\delta, \sigma^2)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

$\mathcal{H}_0 : \delta = 0$ versus $\mathcal{H}_1 : \delta \neq 0$

Priors: $\pi(\sigma) \propto 1/\sigma$ and $\delta \sim \text{Cauchy}(0, h)$

$$\begin{aligned} JZS-BF_{10} \\ = (2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}} h \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu}\right)^{\frac{\nu+1}{2}} \int_0^\infty (1 + ng)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{(1 + ng)\nu}\right)^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}} g^{-\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\frac{h^2}{2g}} dg, \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where $\nu = n - 1$ and (default) $h = \sqrt{2}/2$.

Question: Since p -values and Bayes factors are equated, does this imply that we can set a threshold for p -values that ‘accepts’ the null hypothesis?

Takeaways

Basic intuition

In essence, the apparent disagreement between the methods is not a disagreement at all, but rather two different statements about how the hypotheses relate to the data.

Theoretical results

$$BF_{01} \gtrsim -e \cdot p \ln p \quad \text{for } p < 1/e$$

$$JAB_{01} = \sqrt{n} \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} W \right\}$$

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Thank you.

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