

Bayesian statistics, simulation and software

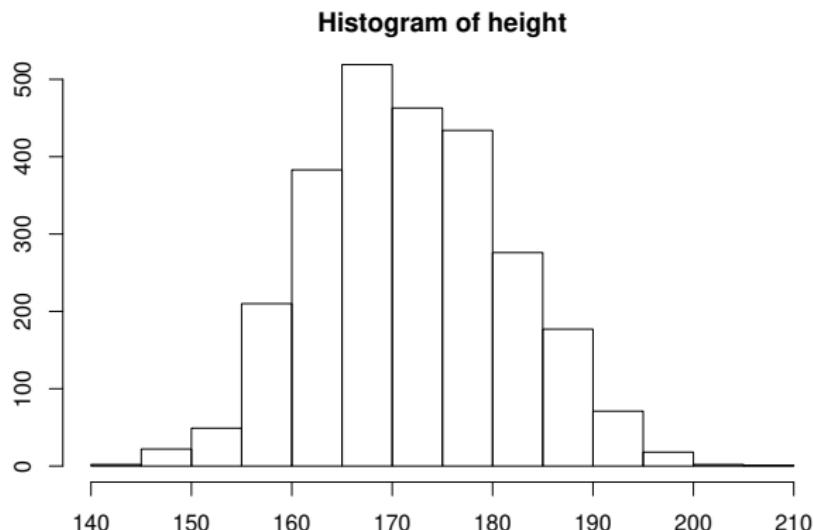
Module 4: Normal model, improper and conjugate priors

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Another example: normal sample with known precision

Heights of some Copenhageners in 1995:

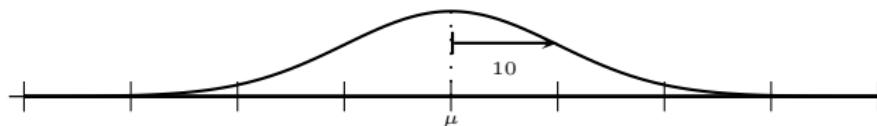


Assume: Heights are independent and normal: $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \tau^2)$,
 $i = 1, \dots, n$.

For now: Assume precision τ^2 is known.

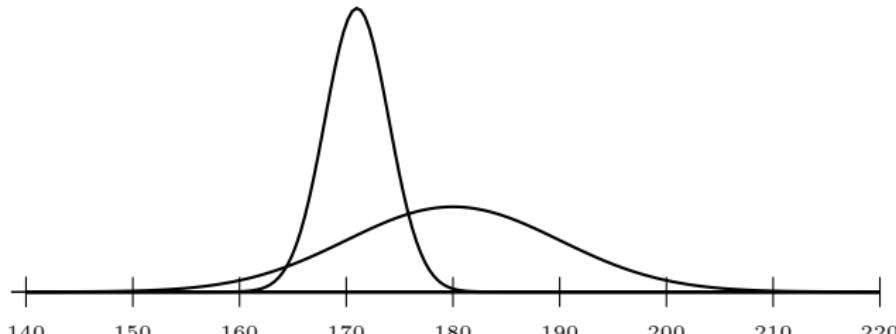
Bayesian idea: Illustration

Data model: $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, 0.01)$ (i.e. pop. sd = 10)



Prior: We believe that the population mean is most likely between 160 cm and 200 cm: $\pi(\mu) \sim \mathcal{N}(180, 0.01)$ (i.e. $160 \leq \mu \leq 200$ with prior probability 95%).

Posterior: After observing a number of heights, our knowledge about μ is updated/summarised by the posterior (is it mostly about females?):



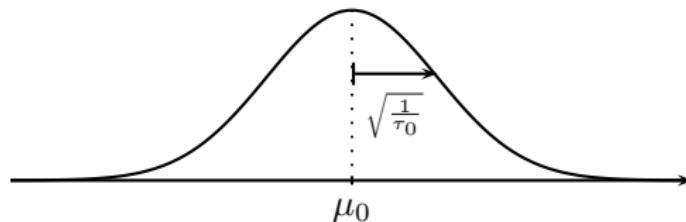
Normal example: One (!) observation

Data model: $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \tau)$

Assume: Precision τ known.

Interest: The unknown mean μ .

Prior: The prior for μ is specified as $\mu \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \tau_0)$.



(Within 1 sd = $\sqrt{1/\tau_0}$ from μ_0 with prior probability 68%).)

Normal example: Data density

Data: One observation, $X = x$, from $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \tau)$:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x|\mu) &= \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\tau(x-\mu)^2\right) \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\tau x^2 - \frac{1}{2}\tau\mu^2 + \tau\mu x\right) \\ &\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\tau x^2 + \tau\mu x\right)\end{aligned}$$

where "proportional to" (\propto) refers to that we consider μ as fixed whilst x is the argument for this conditional density.

Notice the "pattern" inside the last exponential. If we instead pay attention to the likelihood, i.e. when we consider x as fixed, we get

$$L(\mu; x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\tau\mu^2 + \tau\mu x\right).$$

Normal example: Posterior density

Posterior \propto Likelihood \times Prior:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(\mu|x) &\propto L(\mu; x)\pi(\mu) \\&= L(\mu; x)\sqrt{\frac{\tau_0}{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\tau_0(\mu - \mu_0)^2\right) \\&\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\tau\mu^2 + \tau x\mu - \frac{1}{2}\tau_0\mu^2 + \tau_0\mu\mu_0\right) \\&= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\tau + \tau_0)\mu^2 + (\tau x + \tau_0\mu_0)\mu\right) \\&\sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{\tau x + \tau_0\mu_0}{\tau + \tau_0}, \tau + \tau_0\right).\end{aligned}$$

Notice: Both prior and posterior for μ are normal (conjugateness), and posterior precision = prior precision + likelihood precision.

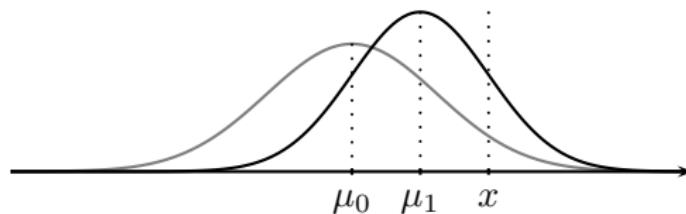
Normal example: Posterior mean & variance

The posterior: $\pi(\mu|x) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{\tau x + \tau_0 \mu_0}{\tau + \tau_0}, \tau + \tau_0\right)$.

Posterior expectation:

$$\mu_1 \equiv \mathbb{E}[\mu|x] = \frac{\tau x + \tau_0 \mu_0}{\tau + \tau_0} = \frac{\tau}{\tau + \tau_0} x + \frac{\tau_0}{\tau + \tau_0} \mu_0.$$

Weighted average of prior mean and observation x .



Posterior variance is smaller than prior variance:

$$\frac{1}{\tau_1} \equiv \text{Var}[\mu|x] = \frac{1}{\tau + \tau_0} < \frac{1}{\tau_0} = \text{Var}(\mu).$$

Posterior as prior — or updating beliefs

General setup: We are interested in parameter θ .

- Data model: $\pi(x|\theta)$.
- Prior: $\pi(\theta)$.
- Data: First observation $x_1 \sim \pi(x_1|\theta)$.
- Posterior: $\pi(\theta|x_1) \propto \pi(x_1|\theta)\pi(\theta)$.

Assume we have a second observation $x_2 \sim \pi(x_2|\theta)$ which is (conditional) independent of x_1 given θ . Then the **new posterior** is

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(\theta|x_1, x_2) &\propto \pi(x_1, x_2|\theta)\pi(\theta) \\ &= \pi(x_1|\theta)\pi(x_2|\theta)\pi(\theta) \\ &\propto \underbrace{\pi(x_2|\theta)}_{likelihood} \underbrace{\pi(\theta|x_1)}_{new\ prior}\end{aligned}$$

Notice: The posterior after observing x_1 is the prior before observing x_2 .

Independent normal case

Posterior mean and precision after one observation x_1 :

$$\mu_1 = \frac{x_1\tau + \mu_0\tau_0}{\tau + \tau_0} \quad \text{and} \quad \tau_1 = \tau + \tau_0.$$

Next, μ_1 and τ_1 are prior mean and precision before observing x_2 .

Then posterior mean and precision after observing (conditionally independent) x_1 and x_2 are

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_2 &= \mathbb{E}[\mu|x_1, x_2] = \frac{x_2\tau + \mu_1\tau_1}{\tau + \tau_1} \\ &= \frac{x_2\tau + x_1\tau + \mu_0\tau_0}{\tau + \tau + \tau_0} = \frac{(x_1 + x_2)\tau + \mu_0\tau_0}{2\tau + \tau_0}, \\ \tau_2 &= \mathbb{V}\text{ar}[\mu|x_1, x_2] = \tau + \tau_1 = 2\tau + \tau_0.\end{aligned}$$

This can easily be generalised...

Many independent normal observations

Assume:

- $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \tau)$.
- $\tau > 0$ is known.
- Prior $\pi(\mu) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \tau_0)$.

The posterior is then

$$\pi(\mu|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{\tau \sum_i x_i + \tau_0 \mu_0}{n\tau + \tau_0}, n\tau + \tau_0\right).$$

Conjugate priors

In this example: Both prior and posterior were normal distributions! This is very convenient — and we say that the prior and posterior distributions are *conjugate* distributions.

Definition: Conjugate priors

Let $\pi(x|\theta)$ be the data model. A class Π of prior distributions for θ is said to be **conjugate** for $\pi(x|\theta)$ if

$$\pi(\theta|x) \propto \pi(x|\theta)\pi(\theta) \in \Pi$$

whenever $\pi(\theta) \in \Pi$. That is, the prior and posterior are in the same class of distributions.

Notice: Π should be a class of “tractable” distributions for this to be useful.

Posterior mean: Sanity check

The posterior is

$$\pi(\mu|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{\tau \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \tau_0 \mu_0}{n\tau + \tau_0}, n\tau + \tau_0\right).$$

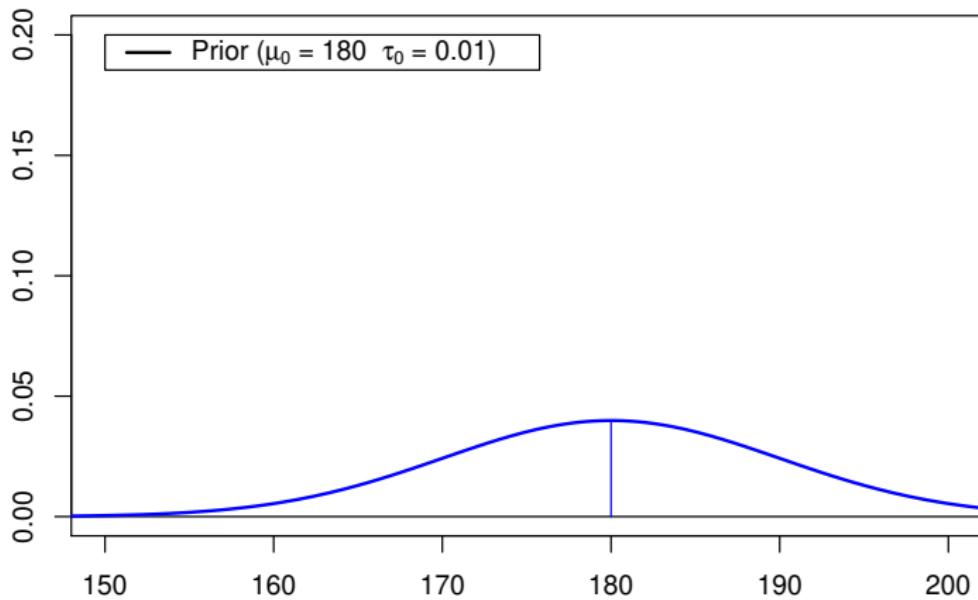
Does the posterior mean make sense? Yes, because

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_n := \mathbb{E}[\mu|x_1, \dots, x_n] &= \frac{\tau \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \tau_0 \mu_0}{n\tau + \tau_0} \\ &= \frac{\tau n \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \tau_0 \mu_0}{n\tau + \tau_0} \\ &= \frac{n\tau}{n\tau + \tau_0} \bar{x} + \frac{\tau_0}{n\tau + \tau_0} \mu_0\end{aligned}$$

is a weighted average of sample average $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ and prior mean μ_0 , so that for n large, $\mu_n \approx \bar{x}$, and so the choice of μ_0 and τ_0 is of little importance.

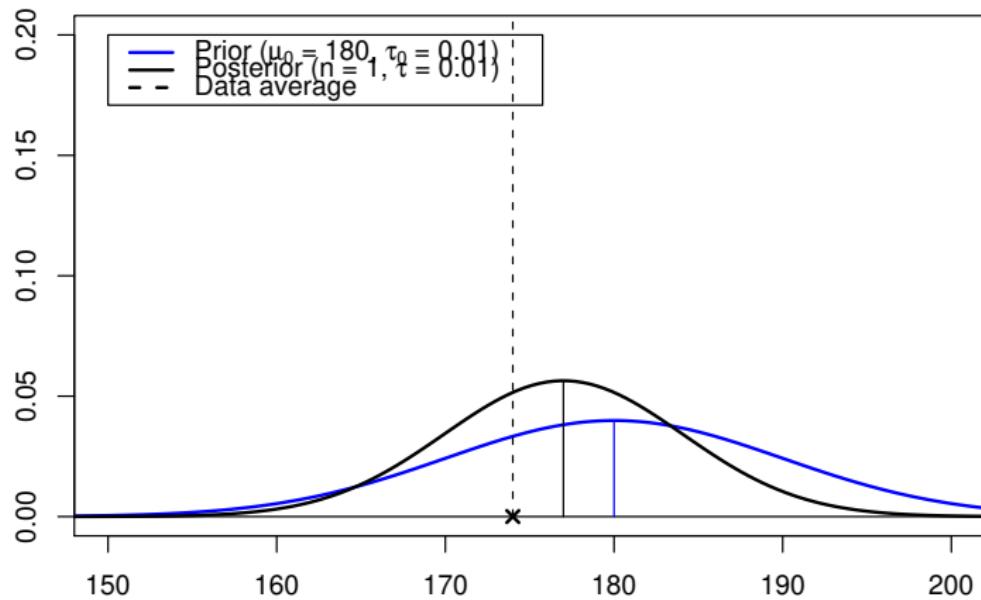
NB: precision/knowledge $\tau_n = n\tau + \tau_0$ is ever more precise as n increases.

Heights in Copenhagen: Prior



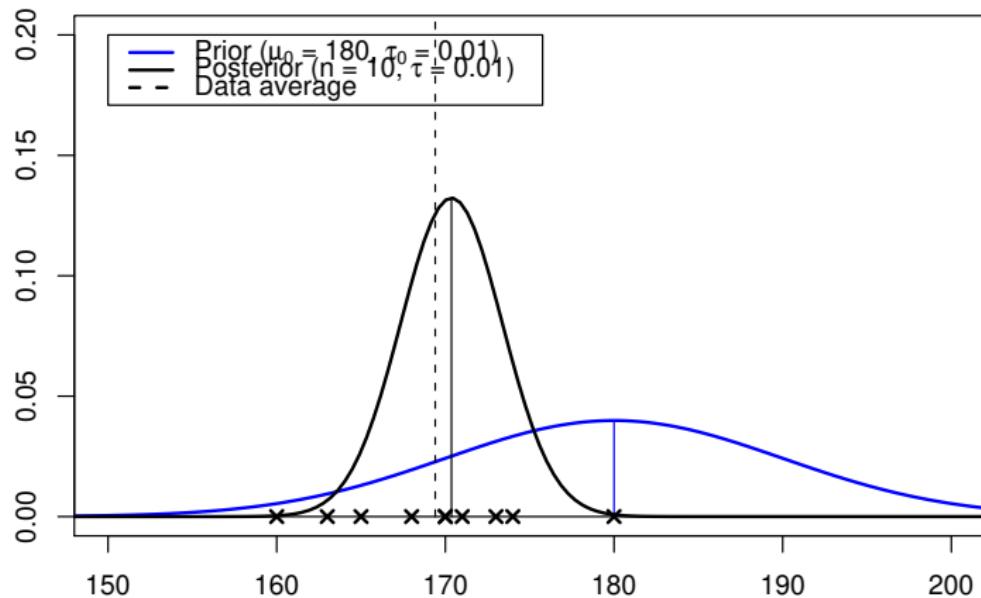
Heights in Copenhagen: Posterior

One observation



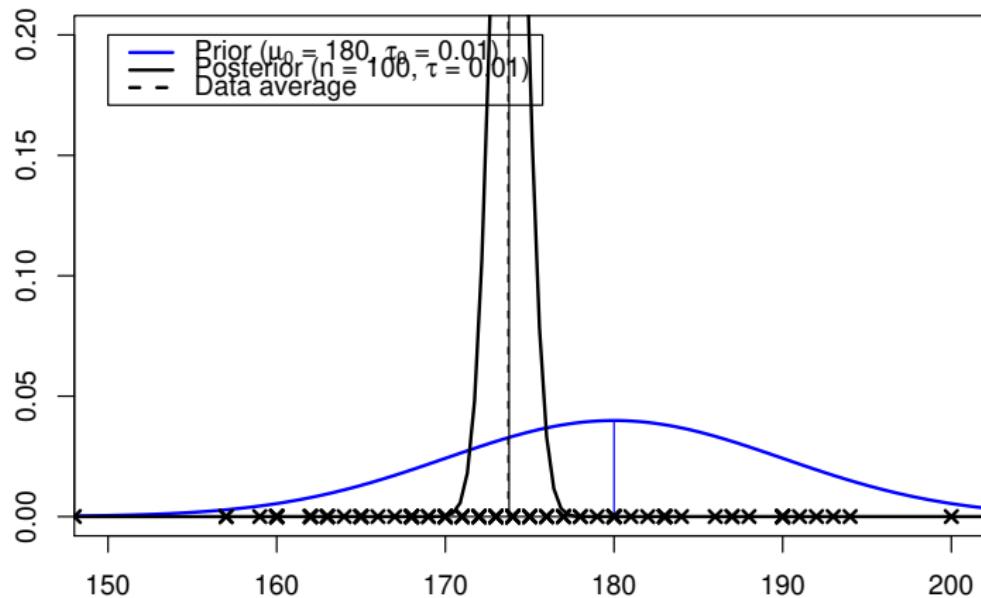
Heights in Copenhagen: Posterior

Ten observations



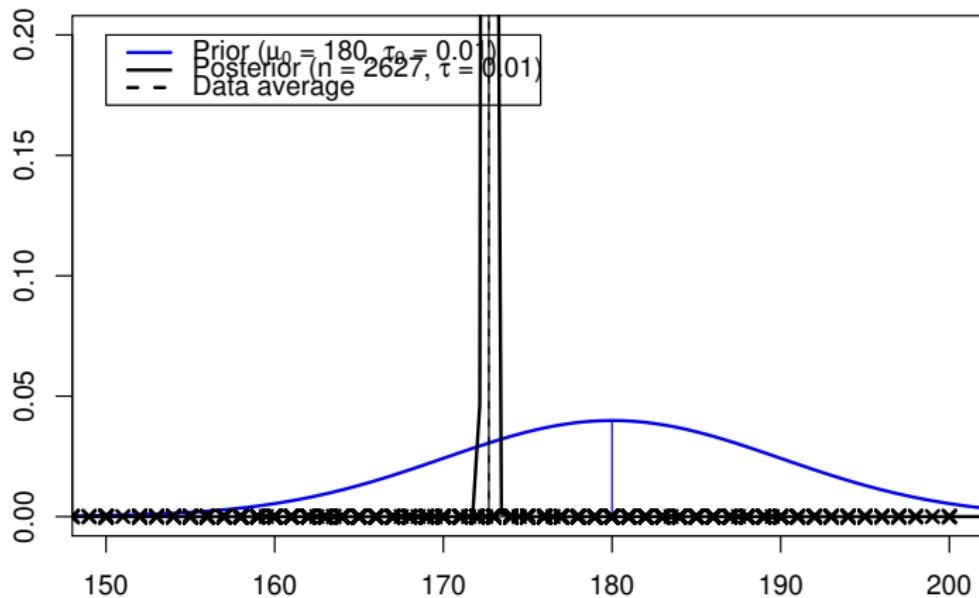
Heights in Copenhagen: Posterior

100 observations



Heights in Copenhagen: Posterior

2627 observations



How to summarise the posterior $\pi(\theta|x)$?

The posterior is usually summarised using one or more of the following:

- Plot of posterior density $\pi(\theta|x)$. See previous slides.
- Posterior mean and variance/precision.
- Credible intervals. See next slide.
- Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate

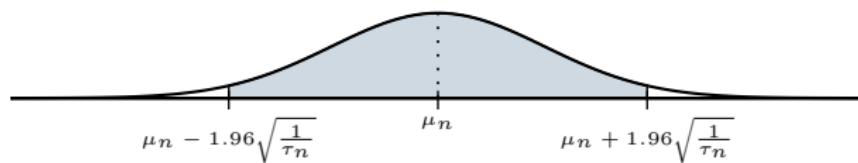
$$MAP(\theta) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \pi(\theta|x).$$

Credible intervals

Methods for defining a suitable (e.g.) 95% credible interval/region for a one-dimensional (sub-)parameter θ include:

- Highest posterior density region (HPDR): Choosing the narrowest region(!) which contains θ with 95% posterior probability.
- Central posterior interval (CPI): The interval given by the 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles of the posterior distribution for θ .
- In case of the normal example, $\mu|x_1, \dots, x_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_n, \tau_n)$, so the 95% HPDR (= CPI) for μ is

$$\mu_n \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{1}{\tau_n}}.$$



Compared to classical confidence interval

The classical 95% confidence interval for μ is

$$\bar{x} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{1}{n\tau}}.$$

For CPI: Approximately the same if n is large!

Or, assuming the prior precision is $\tau_0 = 0$, i.e. an infinite prior variance (an improper prior, but the posterior is well-defined/limiting case), then

$$\mu_n = \bar{x}, \quad \tau_n = n\tau,$$

i.e. the same as the classical confidence interval
— but different interpretations!!

Improper prior

If we have no prior knowledge, we may (perhaps) be tempted to use a “flat” prior, i.e.

$$\pi(\theta) \propto k \quad (\text{a positive constant}).$$

If $\theta \in \mathbf{R}$, this is an example of an improper prior, because

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \pi(\theta) d\theta \propto \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} k = \infty.$$

Perhaps problematic but may not be considered to be an issue if posterior is proper, i.e. if

$$\int \pi(\theta|x) d\theta \propto \int \pi(x|\theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta < \infty.$$

Notice: If $\pi(\theta) \propto 1$, then

MAP estimator = maximum likelihood estimator.

Normal example: Unknown precision, known mean

- **Data model:** $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \tau)$:

$$\pi(x|\tau) = \left(\frac{\tau}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\tau \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right).$$

- **Prior:** Gamma distribution: $\pi(\tau) \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$, that is

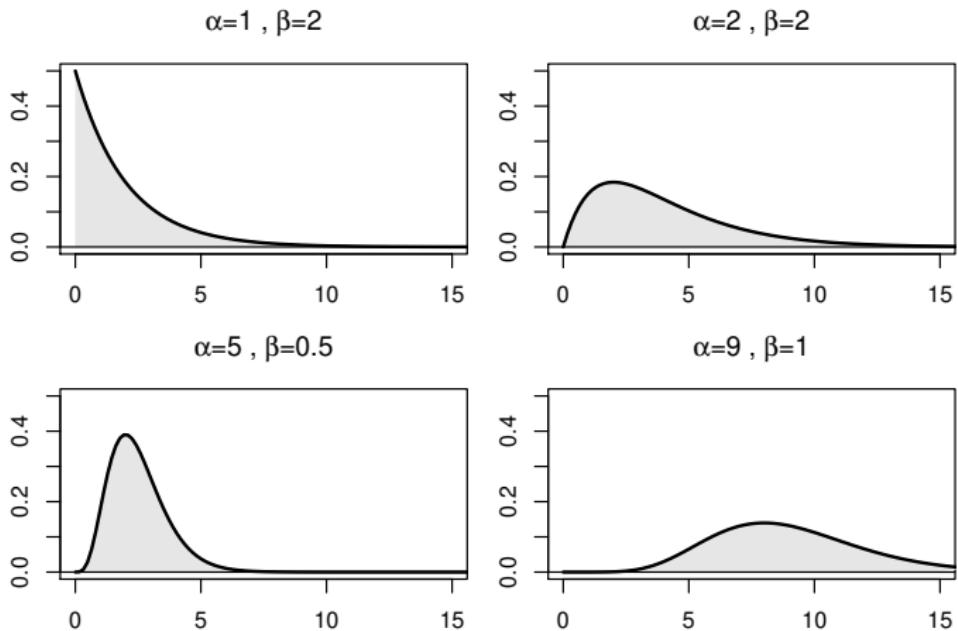
$$\pi(\tau) = \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \tau^{\alpha-1} \exp\left(-\frac{\tau}{\beta}\right), \quad \tau > 0.$$

Properties:

$$\mathbb{E}[\tau] = \alpha\beta, \quad \mathbb{V}\text{ar}[\tau] = \alpha\beta^2.$$

Shape parameter $\alpha > 0$ and scale parameter $\beta > 0$ (see next slide).

Gamma distribution



Normal example: Posterior precision

- **Data model:** $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \tau)$:
- **Prior:** $\pi(\tau) \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$.
- **Posterior:** An easy calculation gives

$$\pi(\tau|x) \sim \text{Gamma}\left(\frac{n}{2} + \alpha, \left\{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 + \frac{1}{\beta}\right\}^{-1}\right).$$

Posterior mean and variance:

$$\mathbb{E}[\tau|x] = \frac{\frac{n}{2} + \alpha}{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 + \frac{1}{\beta}}, \quad \text{Var}[\tau|x] = \frac{\frac{n}{2} + \alpha}{\left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 + \frac{1}{\beta}\right)^2}.$$

For large n ,

$$\mathbb{E}[\tau|x] \approx \frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}^2} \quad \text{where } \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

is the maximum likelihood estimate of the variance.

Known mean: Priors and posteriors

