

# Problem Set 6

Due Wed. November 6, 10 am

## Comments

- This covers material in Units 8 and 9.
- It's due at 10 am (Pacific) on November 6, both submitted as a PDF to Gradescope as well as committed to your GitHub repository.
- Please see PS1 for formatting and attribution requirements.
- Note that it is fine to hand-write solutions to the non-coding questions, but make sure your writing is neat and insert any hand-written parts **in order** into your final submission.

## Problems

1. In class we said that in the exponent of the 8 byte floating point representation,  $e \in \{0, \dots, 2047\}$ , since  $e$  is represented with 11 bytes ( $2^{11} = 2048$ ). So that would suggest that the largest and smallest magnitude numbers (ignoring the influence of the 52 bit in the mantissa) are  $2^{1024}$  and  $2^{-1023}$ .

- a. However,  $2^{1024}$  overflows. Create a numpy `float64` number larger than  $10^{308}$  that overflows and is represented as `inf`. What is its bit-wise representation? Why does it now make sense that we can't work with  $2^{1024}$  as a regular number?

Note that there is still a bit of a mystery here in that it doesn't appear that the sequence 0 followed by 63 1s (or simply 64 1s) is used in any way, even though those would be a natural candidate to represent `inf` (and `-inf`). Extra credit for investigating and figuring out why that is (it might be difficult to determine and I don't know the answer myself).

- b. What is the bitwise repr of  $2^{-1022}$ ? Given that, what would the bit-wise repr of  $2^{-1023}$  be (work this out conceptually, not by trying to use  $2^{-1023}$  in Python)? What number does that bitwise representation actually represent?

I asked that you not try to use  $2^{-1023}$  in Python. Doing that and exploring what is going on is part (c).

- c. Extra credit: By trial and error, find the base 10 representation of the smallest positive number that can be represented in Python. Hint: it's rather smaller than  $1 \times 10^{-308}$ . Explain how it can be that we can store a number smaller than  $1 \times 2^{-1022}$ , which is the value of the smallest positive number that we saw above. Start by looking at the bit-wise representation of  $1 \times 2^{-1023}$  and see it is not the same as what you worked out in part (b).

Given the actual bit-wise representation of  $1 \times 2^{-1023}$ , show the progression of numbers smaller than that that can be represented exactly and show the smallest number that can be represented in Python written in both base 2 and base 10.

Hint: you'll be working with numbers that are not normalized (i.e., denormalized); numbers that do not have 1 as the fixed number before the radix point in the floating point representation we discussed in Unit 8.

2. Consider the following estimates of the variance of a set of numbers. The results depend on whether the magnitude of the numbers is large or small. You can assume that for a vector  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $\text{var}(w)$  is calculated as  $\sum_{i=1}^n (w_i - \bar{w})^2 / (n - 1)$ .

```
import numpy as np
rng = np.random.default_rng(seed = 1)
def dg(x, form = '.20f'):
    print(format(x, form))

z = rng.normal(size = 100)
x = z + 1e12
## Calculate the empirical variances
dg(np.var(z))
dg(np.var(x))
```

0.72514887009499828796

0.72514631554484365594

Explain why these two estimates agree to only a small number of decimal places and which of the two is the more accurate answer, when mathematically the variance of  $\mathbf{z}$  and the variance of  $\mathbf{x}$  are exactly the same (since  $\mathbf{x}$  is just the addition of a constant to  $\mathbf{z}$ ). How many digits of accuracy do you expect in the less accurate of the two?

3. Consider the following, in which we run into problems when trying to calculate on a computer. Suppose I want to calculate a predictive density for new data (e.g., in a model comparison in a Bayesian context):

$$f(y^*|y, x) = \int f(y^*|y, x, \theta) \pi(\theta|y, x) d\theta = E_{\theta|y, x} f(y^*|y, x, \theta).$$

Here  $\pi(\theta|y, x)$  is the posterior distribution (the distribution of the parameter,  $\theta$ , given the data,  $y$ , and predictors,  $x$ ). All of  $\theta$ ,  $y$ , and  $x$  will generally be vectors.

If we have a set of samples for  $\theta$  from the posterior distribution,  $\theta_j \sim \pi(\theta|y, x)$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$ , we can estimate that quantity for a vector of conditionally IID observations using a Monte Carlo estimate of the expectation:

$$f(y^*|y, x) \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i^*|y, x, \theta_j).$$

- a. Explain why I should calculate the product in the equation above on the log scale. What is likely to happen if I just try to calculate it directly?

- b. Here's a re-expression, using the log scale for the inner quantity,

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \exp \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(y_i^* | y, x, \theta_j),$$

which can be re-expressed as

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \exp(v_j)$$

where

$$v_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(y_i^* | y, x, \theta_j).$$

What is likely to happen when I try to exponentiate  $v_j$ ?

- c. Consider the log predictive density,

$$\log f(y^* | y, x) \approx \log \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \exp(v_j) \right).$$

Figure out how you could calculate this log predictive density without running into the issues discussed in parts (a) and (b).

Hint: recall that with the logistic regression example in class, we scaled the problematic expression to remove the numerical problem. Here you can do something similar with the  $\exp(v_j)$  terms, though at the end of the day you'll only be able to calculate the log of the predictive density and not the predictive density itself.

#### 4. Experimenting with importance sampling.

- a. Use importance sampling to estimate the mean (i.e.,  $\phi = E_f X$ ) of a truncated  $t$  distribution with 3 degrees of freedom, truncated such that  $X < -4$ . Have your sampling density be a normal distribution centered at -4 and then truncated so you only sample values less than -4 (this is called a half-normal distribution). You should be able to do this without discarding any samples (how?). Use  $m = 10000$  samples. Create histograms of the weights  $f(x)/g(x)$  and the summand  $h(x)f(x)/g(x)$  to get a sense for whether  $\text{Var}(\hat{\phi})$  is large. Note if there are any extreme weights that would have a very strong influence on  $\hat{\phi}$ . Estimate  $\text{Var}(\hat{\phi})$ . Hint: remember that your  $f(x)$  needs to be appropriately normalized or you need to adjust the weights per the class notes. For comparison, based on using numerical integration, which is feasible in this simple one-dimensional case but increasingly infeasible in higher dimensions, the mean is -6.216.
- b. Now use importance sampling to estimate the mean of the same truncated  $t$  distribution with 3 degrees of freedom, truncated such that  $X < -4$ , but have your sampling density be a  $t$  distribution, with 1 degree of freedom (not 3), centered at -4 and truncated so you only sample values less than -4. Again you shouldn't have to discard any samples. Respond to the same questions as above in part (a). In addition, compute a 95% (simulation) uncertainty interval for your estimate, using the Monte Carlo simulation error,  $\sqrt{\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\phi})}$ .