

# Bayesian Linear Models

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# Linear Regression

- Linear regression is, perhaps, *the* most widely used statistical modeling tool.
- It addresses the following question: How does a quantity of primary interest,  $y$ , vary as (depend upon) another quantity, or set of quantities,  $x$ ?
- The quantity  $y$  is called the *response* or *outcome variable*. Some people simply refer to it as the *dependent variable*.
- The variable(s)  $x$  are called *explanatory variables*, *covariates* or simply *independent variables*.
- In general, we are interested in the conditional distribution of  $y$ , given  $x$ , parametrized as  $p(y \mid \theta, x)$ .

- Typically, we have a set of *units* or *experimental subjects*  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .
- For each of these units we have measured an outcome  $y_i$  and a set of explanatory variables  $\mathbf{x}_i^\top = (1, x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})$ .
- The first element of  $\mathbf{x}_i^\top$  is often taken as 1 to signify the presence of an “intercept”.
- We collect the outcome and explanatory variables into an  $n \times 1$  vector and an  $n \times (p + 1)$  matrix:

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}; \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1p} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \dots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^\top \\ \mathbf{x}_2^\top \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n^\top \end{pmatrix}.$$

- The linear model is the most fundamental of all serious statistical models underpinning:
  - ANOVA:  $y_i$  is continuous,  $x_{ij}$ 's are *all* categorical
  - REGRESSION:  $y_i$  is continuous,  $x_{ij}$ 's are continuous
  - ANCOVA:  $y_i$  is continuous,  $x_{ij}$ 's are continuous for some  $j$  and categorical for others.

# Conjugate Bayesian Linear Regression

- A conjugate Bayesian linear model is given by:

$$y_i | \beta, \sigma^2, \mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu_i, \sigma^2); \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n;$$

$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} = \mathbf{x}_i^\top \beta; \quad \beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^\top;$$

$$\beta | \sigma^2 \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_\beta); \quad \sigma^2 \sim IG(a, b).$$

- Unknown parameters include the regression parameters and the variance, i.e.  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\beta, \sigma^2\}$ .
- We assume  $\mathbf{X}$  is observed without error and all inference is conditional on  $\mathbf{X}$ .
- The above model is often written in terms of the posterior density  $p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) \propto p(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{y})$ :

$$IG(\sigma^2 | a, b) \times N(\beta | \boldsymbol{\mu}_\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_\beta) \times \prod_{i=1}^n N(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i^\top \beta, \sigma^2).$$

# Conjugate Bayesian (General) Linear Regression

- A more general conjugate Bayesian linear model is given by:

$$\mathbf{y} \mid \beta, \sigma^2, \mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_y)$$

$$\beta \mid \sigma^2 \sim N(\mu_\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_\beta) ;$$

$$\sigma^2 \sim IG(a, b) .$$

- $\mathbf{V}_y$ ,  $\mathbf{V}_\beta$  and  $\mu_\beta$  are assumed fixed.
- Unknown parameters include the regression parameters and the variance, i.e.  $\theta = \{\beta, \sigma^2\}$ .
- We assume  $\mathbf{X}$  is observed without error and all inference is conditional on  $\mathbf{X}$ .
- The posterior density  $p(\theta \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto p(\theta, \mathbf{y})$ :

$$IG(\sigma^2 \mid a, b) \times N(\beta \mid \mu_\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_\beta) \times N(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_y)$$

- The model on the previous slide is a special case with  $\mathbf{V}_y = \mathbf{I}_n$  ( $n \times n$  identity matrix).

# Conjugate Bayesian (General) Linear Regression

- The joint posterior density can be written as

$$p(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{IG(\sigma^2 | a^*, b^*)}_{p(\sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})} \times \underbrace{N(\beta | \mathbf{M}\mathbf{m}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{M})}_{p(\beta | \sigma^2, \mathbf{y})},$$

where

$$a^* = a + \frac{n}{2}; \quad b^* = b + \frac{1}{2} \left( \mu_\beta^\top \mathbf{V}_\beta^{-1} \mu_\beta + \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{V}_y^{-1} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{m}^\top \mathbf{M} \mathbf{m} \right);$$

$$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{V}_\beta^{-1} \mu_\beta + \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{V}_y^{-1} \mathbf{y}; \quad \mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{V}_\beta^{-1} + \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{V}_y^{-1} \mathbf{X}.$$

- Exact posterior sampling from  $p(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$  will automatically yield samples from  $p(\beta | \mathbf{y})$  and  $p(\sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$ .
- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:
  1. Draw  $\sigma_{(j)}^2 \sim IG(a^*, b^*)$
  2. Draw  $\beta_{(j)} \sim N(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{m}, \sigma_{(j)}^2 \mathbf{M})$
- The above is sometimes referred to as *composition sampling*.

## Exact sampling from joint posterior distributions

- Suppose we wish to draw samples from a joint posterior:

$$p(\theta_1, \theta_2 | \mathbf{y}) = p(\theta_1 | \mathbf{y}) \times p(\theta_2 | \theta_1, \mathbf{y}) .$$

- In conjugate models, it is often easy to draw samples from  $p(\theta_1 | \mathbf{y})$  and from  $p(\theta_2 | \theta_1, \mathbf{y})$ .
- We can draw  $N$  samples from  $p(\theta_1, \theta_2 | \mathbf{y})$  as follows.
- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:
  1. Draw  $\theta_{1(j)} \sim p(\theta_1 | \mathbf{y})$
  2. Draw  $\theta_{2(j)} \sim p(\theta_2 | \theta_{1(j)}, \mathbf{y})$
- Remarkably, the  $\theta_{2(j)}$ 's drawn above have marginal distribution  $p(\theta_2 | \mathbf{y})$  (see, Gelfand and Smith 1990).
- “Automatic Marginalization” we draw samples  $p(\theta_1, \theta_2 | \mathbf{y})$  and automatically get samples from  $p(\theta_1 | \mathbf{y})$  and  $p(\theta_2 | \mathbf{y})$ .



# Bayesian predictions from linear regression

- Let  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$  denote an  $m \times 1$  vector of outcomes we seek to predict based upon predictors  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ .
- We seek the posterior predictive density:

$$p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \mathbf{y}) = \int p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{y}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}.$$

- Posterior predictive inference: sample from  $p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \mathbf{y})$ .
- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:
  1. Draw  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{(j)} \sim p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y})$
  2. Draw  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{(j)} \sim p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_{(j)}, \mathbf{y})$

## Bayesian predictions from linear regression (cont'd)

- For legitimate probabilistic predictions (forecasting), the conditional distribution  $p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{y})$  must be well-defined.
- For example, consider the case with  $\mathbf{V}_y = \mathbf{I}_n$ . Specify the linear model:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{y}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} \end{bmatrix} ; \quad \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \sigma^2 \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_n & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{I}_m \end{bmatrix} \right) .$$

- Easy to derive the conditional density:

$$p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{y}) = p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = N(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_m)$$

- Posterior predictive density:

$$p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \mathbf{y}) = \int N(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_m) p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}) d\boldsymbol{\beta} d\sigma^2 .$$

- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:

1. Draw  $\{\boldsymbol{\beta}_{(j)}, \sigma_{(j)}^2\} \sim p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$

2. Draw  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{(j)} \sim N(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{(j)}, \sigma_{(j)}^2 \mathbf{I}_m)$

# Bayesian predictions from general linear regression

- For example, consider the case with general  $\mathbf{V}_y$ . Specify:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{y}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \end{bmatrix} \beta + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon \\ \tilde{\epsilon} \end{bmatrix} ; \quad \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon \\ \tilde{\epsilon} \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \sigma^2 \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}_y & \mathbf{V}_{y\tilde{y}} \\ \mathbf{V}_{y\tilde{y}}^\top & \mathbf{V}_{\tilde{y}} \end{bmatrix} \right) .$$

- Derive the conditional density

$$p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \theta, \mathbf{y}) = N(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\tilde{y}|y}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_{\tilde{y}|y}) :$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\tilde{y}|y} = \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\beta + \mathbf{V}_{y\tilde{y}}^\top \mathbf{V}_y^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) ; \quad \mathbf{V}_{\tilde{y}|y} = \mathbf{V}_{\tilde{y}} - \mathbf{V}_{y\tilde{y}}^\top \mathbf{V}_y^{-1} \mathbf{V}_{y\tilde{y}} .$$

- Posterior predictive density:

$$p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \mathbf{y}) = \int N(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\tilde{y}|y}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_{\tilde{y}|y}) p(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}) d\beta d\sigma^2 .$$

- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:

1. Draw  $\{\beta_{(j)}, \sigma_{(j)}^2\} \sim p(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$

2. Compute  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\tilde{y}|y}$  using  $\beta_{(j)}$  and draw  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{(j)} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\tilde{y}|y}, \sigma_{(j)}^2 \mathbf{V}_{\tilde{y}})$

# Application to Bayesian Geostatistics

- Consider the spatial regression model

$$y(s_i) = \mathbf{x}^\top(s_i)\beta + w(s_i) + \epsilon(s_i),$$

where  $w(s_i)$ 's are spatial random effects and  $\epsilon(s_i)$ 's are unstructured errors ("white noise").

- $\mathbf{w} = (w(\mathbf{s}_1), w(\mathbf{s}_2), \dots, w(\mathbf{s}_n))^\top \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{R}(\phi))$
- $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = (\epsilon(\mathbf{s}_1), \epsilon(\mathbf{s}_2), \dots, \epsilon(\mathbf{s}_n))^\top \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$
- Integrating out random effects leads to a Bayesian model:

$$IG(\sigma^2 \mid a, b) \times N(\beta \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_\beta) \times N(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_y)$$

where  $\mathbf{V}_y = \mathbf{R}(\phi) + \alpha \mathbf{I}_n$  and  $\alpha = \tau^2 / \sigma^2$ .

- Fixing  $\phi$  and  $\alpha$  (e.g., from variogram or other EDA) yields a conjugate Bayesian model.
- Exact posterior sampling is easily achieved as before!

# Inference on spatial random effects

- Rewrite the model in terms of  $\mathbf{w}$  as:

$$IG(\sigma^2 \mid a, b) \times N(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_\beta) \times N(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{R}(\phi)) \\ \times N(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{w}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}_n) .$$

- Posterior distribution of spatial random effects  $\mathbf{w}$ :

$$p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{y}) = \int N(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{M}\mathbf{m}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{M}) \times p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mid \mathbf{y}) d\boldsymbol{\beta} d\sigma^2 ,$$

where  $\mathbf{m} = (1/\alpha)(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$  and  $\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\phi) + (1/\alpha)\mathbf{I}_n$ .

- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:
  1. Draw  $\{\boldsymbol{\beta}_{(j)}, \sigma_{(j)}^2\} \sim p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mid \mathbf{y})$
  2. Compute  $\mathbf{m}$  from  $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{(j)}$  and draw  $\mathbf{w}_{(j)} \sim N(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{m}, \sigma_{(j)}^2 \mathbf{M})$

# Inference on the process

- Posterior distribution of  $w(\mathbf{s}_0)$  at new location  $\mathbf{s}_0$ :

$$p(w(\mathbf{s}_0) | \mathbf{y}) = \int N(w(\mathbf{s}_0) | \mu_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w}, \sigma_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w}^2) \times p(\sigma^2, \mathbf{w} | \mathbf{y}) d\sigma^2 d\mathbf{w} ,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w} &= \mathbf{r}^\top(\mathbf{s}_0; \phi) \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\phi) \mathbf{w} ; \\ \sigma_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w}^2 &= \sigma^2 \{1 - \mathbf{r}^\top(\mathbf{s}_0; \phi) \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\phi) \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{s}_0, \phi)\}\end{aligned}$$

- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:
  - Compute  $\mu_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w}$  and  $\sigma_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w}^2$  from  $\mathbf{w}_{(j)}$  and  $\sigma_{(j)}^2$ .
  - Draw  $w_{(j)}(\mathbf{s}_0) \sim N(\mu_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w}, \sigma_{w(\mathbf{s}_0)|w}^2)$ .

## Bayesian “kriging” or prediction

- Posterior predictive distribution at new location  $\mathbf{s}_0$  is  $p(y(\mathbf{s}_0) | \mathbf{y})$ :

$$\int N(y(\mathbf{s}_0) | \mathbf{x}^\top(\mathbf{s}_0)\boldsymbol{\beta} + w(\mathbf{s}_0), \alpha\sigma^2) \times p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2, \mathbf{w} | \mathbf{y}) d\boldsymbol{\beta} d\sigma^2 d\mathbf{w} ,$$

- For each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$  do the following:
  1. Draw  $y_{(j)}(\mathbf{s}_0) \sim N(\mathbf{x}^\top(\mathbf{s}_0)\boldsymbol{\beta}_{(j)} + w_{(j)}(\mathbf{s}_0), \alpha\sigma_{(j)}^2)$ .

# Non-conjugate models: The Gibbs Sampler

- Let  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)$  be the parameters in our model.
- Initialize with starting values  $\theta^{(0)} = (\theta_1^{(0)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(0)})$
- For  $j = 1, \dots, N$ , update successively using the *full conditional* distributions:

$$\theta_1^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_1^{(j)} | \theta_2^{(j-1)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{y})$$

$$\theta_2^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_2^{(j)} | \theta_1^{(j)}, \theta_3^{(j-1)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{y})$$

$\vdots$

(the generic  $k^{th}$  element)

$$\theta_k^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_k^{(j)} | \theta_1^{(j)}, \dots, \theta_{k-1}^{(j)}, \theta_{k+1}^{(j-1)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{y})$$

$\vdots$

$$\theta_p^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_p^{(j)} | \theta_1^{(j)}, \dots, \theta_{p-1}^{(j)}, \mathbf{y})$$



- In principle, the Gibbs sampler will work for extremely complex hierarchical models. The only issue is sampling from the full conditionals. They may not be amenable to easy sampling – when these are not in closed form. A more general and extremely powerful - and often easier to code - algorithm is the Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithm.
- This algorithm also constructs a Markov chain, but does not necessarily care about full conditionals.
- Popular approach: Embed Metropolis steps within Gibbs to draw from full conditionals that are not accessible to directly generate from.

# The Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

- The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm: Start with a initial value for  $\theta = \theta^{(0)}$ . Select a *candidate* or *proposal* distribution from which to propose a value of  $\theta$  at the  $j$ -th iteration:  $\theta^{(j)} \sim q(\theta^{(j-1)}, \nu)$ . For example,  $q(\theta^{(j-1)}, \nu) = N(\theta^{(j-1)}, \nu)$  with  $\nu$  fixed.

- Compute

$$r = \frac{p(\theta^* | y) q(\theta^{(j-1)} | \theta^*, \nu)}{p(\theta^{(j-1)} | y) q(\theta^* | \theta^{(j-1)}, \nu)}$$

- If  $r \geq 1$  then set  $\theta^{(j)} = \theta^*$ . If  $r \leq 1$  then draw  $U \sim (0, 1)$ . If  $U \leq r$  then  $\theta^{(j)} = \theta^*$ . Otherwise,  $\theta^{(j)} = \theta^{(j-1)}$ .
- Repeat for  $j = 1, \dots, N$ . This yields  $\theta^{(1)}, \dots, \theta^{(N)}$ , which, after a burn-in period, will be samples from the true posterior distribution. It is important to monitor the acceptance ratio  $r$  of the sampler through the iterations. Rough recommendations: for vector updates  $r \approx 20\%$ ., for scalar updates  $r \approx 40\%$ . This can be controlled by “tuning”  $\nu$ .
- Popular approach: Embed Metropolis steps within Gibbs to draw from full conditionals that are not accessible to directly generate from.

- Example: For the linear model, our parameters are  $(\beta, \sigma^2)$ . We write  $\theta = (\beta, \log(\sigma^2))$  and, at the  $j$ -th iteration, propose  $\theta^* \sim N(\theta^{(j-1)}, \Sigma)$ . The log transformation on  $\sigma^2$  ensures that all components of  $\theta$  have support on the entire real line and can have meaningful proposed values from the multivariate normal. But we need to transform our prior to  $p(\beta, \log(\sigma^2))$ .
- Let  $z = \log(\sigma^2)$  and assume  $p(\beta, z) = p(\beta)p(z)$ . Let us derive  $p(z)$ .  
**REMEMBER:** we need to adjust for the jacobian. Then  $p(z) = p(\sigma^2)|d\sigma^2/dz| = p(e^z)e^z$ . The jacobian here is  $e^z = \sigma^2$ .
- Let  $p(\beta) = 1$  and an  $p(\sigma^2) = IG(\sigma^2 | a, b)$ . Then log-posterior is:

$$-(a + n/2 + 1)z + z - \frac{1}{e^z} \left\{ b + \frac{1}{2}(Y - X\beta)^T(Y - X\beta) \right\}.$$

- A symmetric proposal distribution, say  $q(\theta^* | \theta^{(j-1)}, \Sigma) = N(\theta^{(j-1)}, \Sigma)$ , cancels out in  $r$ . In practice it is better to compute  $\log(r)$ :  
 $\log(r) = \log(p(\theta^* | y) - \log(p(\theta^{(j-1)} | y))$ . For the proposal,  $N(\theta^{(j-1)}, \Sigma)$ ,  $\Sigma$  is a  $d \times d$  variance-covariance matrix, and  $d = \dim(\theta) = p + 1$ .
- If  $\log r \geq 0$  then set  $\theta^{(j)} = \theta^*$ . If  $\log r \leq 0$  then draw  $U \sim (0, 1)$ . If  $U \leq r$  (or  $\log U \leq \log r$ ) then  $\theta^{(j)} = \theta^*$ . Otherwise,  $\theta^{(j)} = \theta^{(j-1)}$ .
- Repeat the above procedure for  $j = 1, \dots, N$  to obtain samples  $\theta^{(1)}, \dots, \theta^{(N)}$ .