# BayesCourse\_Assignment1

# GroupA-3

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# Problem 1

### Problem 1a

In this task, we assume a  $Beta(\alpha_0, \beta_0)$  prior for  $\theta$  which comes from  $y_1, ..., y_n | \theta \sim Bern(\theta)$ . We use Monte Carlo methods to estimate the posterior and standard deviation.

```
set.seed(42)
n = 20
s = 14
f = n-s
alpha0 = 2
beta0 = 2
# Use posterior formula
alpha post = alpha0+s
beta_post = beta0+f
# Set true value as benchmark
mean_true = alpha_post/(alpha_post+beta_post)
var_true = (alpha_post*beta_post)/(((alpha_post+beta_post)**2) *
sd_true = sqrt(var_true)
size = 10000
rtheta = rbeta(size,alpha_post,beta_post)
```

The code block above defined the parameters from Bernoulli model and beta prior. Due to beta prior is a conjugate prior, we can calculate the mean and variance by formula:

$$\mathbb{E}(\theta) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$
 
$$\mathbb{V}(\theta) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$$

We use rbeta() to simulate a group of data from true posterior. According to Figure 1, as the number of sample size increases, the estimation of postrior mean converges to the true posterior mean, approximately  $\mathbb{E}(X) = 0.6667$ . Figure 2 also displayed the same tendency, where the standard deviation is very close to  $\sigma = 0.0943$ 

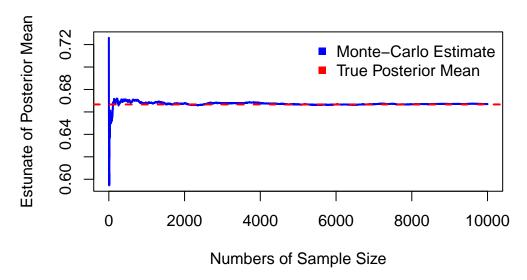


Figure 1: Convergence of True Posterior Mean by Monte-Carlo method

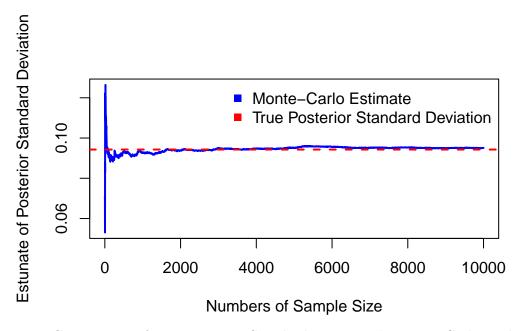


Figure 2: Convergence of True Posterior Standard Deviation by Monte-Carlo method

### Problem 1b)

In this task, we calculate the posterior probability  $Pr(\theta < 0.5|\mathbf{y})$  by simulation, and compare the exact value by pbeta(). The result shows that the simulated answer is 0.0478, and the exact value is 0.0466, simulated value is pretty close to exact one.

```
nDraws = 10000
set.seed(42)

prob_sim = mean(rbeta(nDraws,alpha_post,beta_post) <= 0.5)
prob_true = pbeta(0.5,alpha_post,beta_post)

# prob_sim = 0.0478
# prob_true 0.04656</pre>
```

### Problem 1c)

In this task, we simulate the posterior distribution of the log-odds  $\phi = log(\frac{\theta}{1-\theta})$ . the method qlogis() can compute the data with log-odds transformation, which is equivalent to transformed = log(theta/(1-theta)).

```
set.seed(42)
theta_original = rbeta(size,alpha_post,beta_post)
theta_trans = qlogis(theta_original)
hist(theta_trans,xlab="log-odds theta",main="",ylab="Density")
```

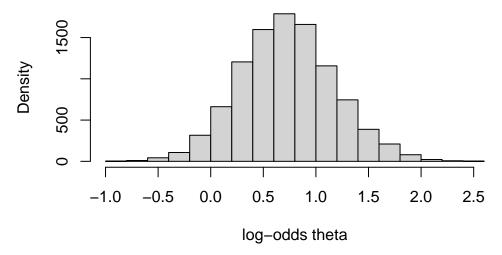


Figure 3: Histogram of log-odds theta

### Problem 2

In this task, we explore dataset ericsson on daily percentage returns on Ericsson stock. Figure 4 shows the distribution of standardized daily returns. Most values are centered around zero, but the distribution exhibits heavy tails, with occasional extreme negative returns.

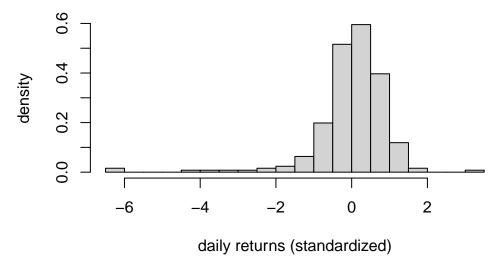


Figure 4: Histogram of standardized daily returns

### Problem 2a)

We computed the log-likelihood function over a series of candidate degrees of freedom  $\nu$  and plotted the curve. In Figure 5, we can notice that the log-likelihood curve reaches its maximum value around 7, which implies that the maximum likelihood estimate of the degree of freedon is  $\hat{\nu} \approx 7$ .

```
nu_potential = seq(0.5,60,by=0.1)
loglike = numeric(length(nu_potential))

for (i in seq_along(nu_potential)){
    loglike[i] = sum(dt(x,df=nu_potential[i],log=TRUE))
}

plot(nu_potential,loglike,type='l',xlab="potential nu
    values",ylab="log-likelihood",lwd=2)

nu_mle = nu_potential[which.max(loglike)]

# nu_mle = 7
abline(v=nu_mle,col="red",lty=2,lwd=2)
```

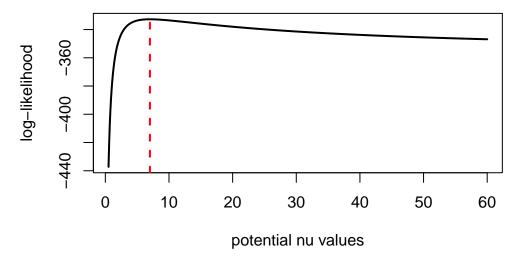


Figure 5: Curve of log-likelihood in potential degrees of freedom nu

### Problem 2b)

We plot the likelihood  $L(x_1,...,x_n|\nu)=\prod_i p(x_i|\nu)$  and plotted the curve. in Figure 6, the red line and blue line represent  $\nu=1$  and  $\nu=10$  respectively. The likelihood peaks around  $\nu\approx7$ . Clearly, L(1) (also called Cauchy Distribution) is obviously smaller than L(10), showing that the data are heavy-tailed, but not as extreme as a Cauchy distribution.

```
nu_potential = seq(0.5,60,by=0.1)
likelihood = numeric(length(nu_potential))
for (i in seq_along(likelihood)){
    likelihood[i] = prod(dt(x,df=nu_potential[i],log=FALSE))
}
plot(nu_potential,likelihood,type='l',xlab="Potential nu
    values",ylab="Likelihood",lwd=2)
abline(v=1,col="red",lty=2,lwd=2)
abline(v=10,col="blue",lty=2,lwd=2)
legend("topright",c("nu = 1","nu = 10"),col = c("red","blue"),lty=2,lwd=2)
```

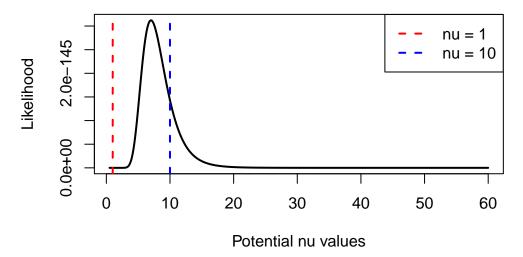


Figure 6: Curve of likelihood with respect to potential degrees of freedom nu

# Problem 2c)

In this step, we plot the logarithm of the posterior distribution for  $\nu$ , using

$$\log p(\nu \mid x_1, \dots, x_n) \propto \log p(x_1, \dots, x_n \mid \nu) + \log p(\nu),$$

we evaluate the log-likelihood over a series of candidate values of nu and add the log prior. Note that the prior is  $\nu \sim \text{Exponential}(0.25)$  with the rate parameterization. The resulting curve (Figure 7) shows that the log-posterior peaks around  $\nu \approx 7$ .

```
nu_potential = seq(0.5,60,by=0.1)
log_post= numeric(length(nu_potential))
for (i in seq_along(nu_potential)){
   nu = nu_potential[i]
   logprior = dexp(nu,rate=0.25,log=TRUE)
   loglike = sum(dt(x,df=nu,log=TRUE))
   log_post[i] = loglike +logprior
}
plot(nu_potential,log_post,type='l',xlab='nu values',ylab =
    'log-posterior',lwd=2)
```

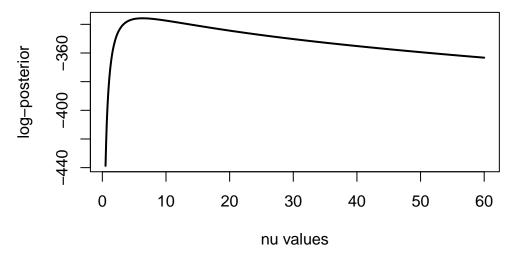


Figure 7: Curve of logarithm of the posterior distribution for nu

# Problem 2d)

In order to plot the posterior of distribution of nu, we firstly transform the log-posterior to unnormalized posterior as

$$p(\nu \mid x_1, \dots, x_n) \propto p(x_1, \dots, x_n \mid \nu) p(\nu)$$

Then, we need to normalize the posterior as a true probability density function:

$$p(\nu|x_1,...,x_n) = \frac{p(x_1,...,x_n|\nu)p(\nu)}{\int_0^\infty p(x_1,...,x_n|\nu)p(\nu)d\nu}$$

we can use Riemann approximation to calculate the integral:

$$p(\nu|x_1,...,x_n) \approx \frac{p(x_1,...,x_n|\nu_i)p(\nu_i)}{\sum_{j} p(x_1,...,x_n|\nu_j)p(\nu_j)\Delta\nu}$$

where  $\Delta \nu$  means the length of each step.

Figure 8 The blue line and orange line represents the posterior and prior respectively.

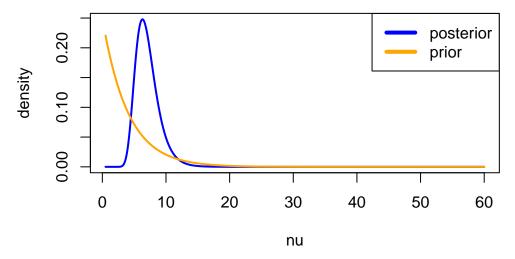


Figure 8: Posterior and Prior Distributions of the Degrees of Freedom nu

# Problem 2e)

The defination of Posterior mean is

$$\mathbb{E}\nu|x_1,...,x_n=\int_0^\infty\nu p(\nu|x_1,...,x_n)d\nu$$

where  $p(\nu|x_1,...,x_n)$  is normalized posterior distribution. We use Riemann sum, same as Problem 2d, to approximate the integral:

$$\mathbb{E}(\nu|x_1,...,x_n) \approx \sum_{i=1}^m \nu_i p(\nu_i|x_1,...,x_n) \Delta \nu$$

and the posterior mean of  $\nu = 7.0807$ 

```
post_mean = sum(nu_potential*posterior) * 0.1
```

#### Load packages

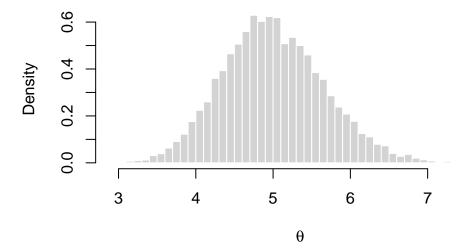
```
library(mvtnorm)  # package with multivariate normal density
library(latex2exp)  # latex maths in plots
```

# Problem 3a)

The Gamma prior is conjugate to possion model. We choose rate parameterization for gamma distribution. The posterior distribution is  $p(\theta|x_1,...x_n) \sim Gamma(\alpha+n\bar{x},\beta+n)$  where  $\alpha=7$ ,  $\beta=2$  from prior information.

```
## likelihood sample
sample_x = c(3, 5, 4, 3, 6, 8, 6, 1, 14, 3)
sample_x_size = length(sample_x)
sample_x_mean = mean(sample_x)
```

# **Gamma Posterior Simulation**



```
## get all draw over 8
theta_sample_over_8 = theta_sample > 8
## calculate prob of theta>8 by using event_size/sample_size
sum(theta_sample_over_8)/n_draw
```

#### [1] 0

```
# use gamma cdf to get prob of over 8
pgamma(8, alpha+sum(sample_x), beta+sample_x_size, lower.tail = FALSE)
```

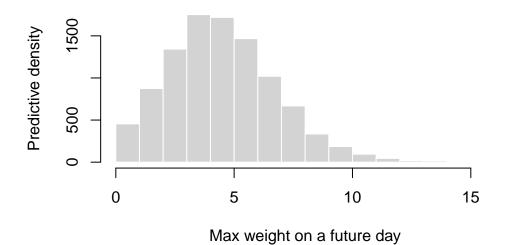
#### [1] 3.291869e-05

```
# check gamma pdf
# curve(dgamma(x, alpha+sum(sample_x), beta+sample_x_size), from=0, to=9,

$\to$ ylab="gamma pdf")
```

# Problem 3b)

# Predictive density max weight - single day



```
## get all draw over 8
temp = predDraws >= 8
## calculate prob of theta>=8 by using event_size/sample_size
mean(temp)
```

#### [1] 0.1369

```
# use gamma cdf to get prob of over 8
# negbinomial is discrete, cdf <= x, so using > 7
pnbinom(7, alpha+sum(sample_x), (beta+sample_x_size)/(beta+sample_x_size+1),

\( \to \) lower.tail = FALSE)
```

[1] 0.141594

# Problem 3c)

The utility function is a function of random varibable  $X_{11}$ . And  $a_{11}$  is treated as a constant.

$$U = \begin{cases} 10a_{11} & \text{if } X_{11} \ge a_{11}, \\ 10X_{11} - 7(a_{11} - X_{11}) & \text{if } X_{11} < a_{11} \end{cases}$$
 (1)

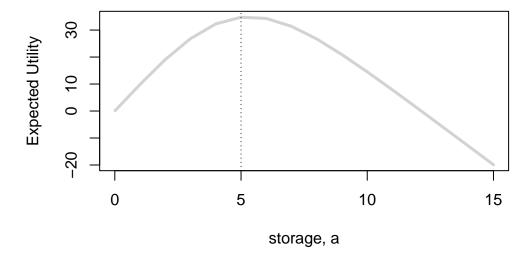
With simplification, it should be

$$U = \begin{cases} 10a_{11} & \text{if } X_{11} \ge a_{11} \\ 17X_{11} - 7a_{11} & \text{if } X_{11} < a_{11} \end{cases}$$
 (2)

The expected value of utility function is  $E(U) = 10a_{11} * Pr(X_{11} \ge a_{11}|a_{11}, x_1..., x_{10}) + E(17X_{11} - 7a_{11}|X_{11} < a_{11}) * Pr(X_{11} < a_{11}|a_{11}, x_1..., x_{10})$  It is required to find the maximal value of expected utility. The uncertainty comes from demand  $X_{11}$  and storage  $a_{11}$ . The predictive distribution of  $X_{11}$  is from simulation. And only using  $a_{11}$  as varibale and get the maximizer in expected utility.

```
aGrid = seq(0, 15, length = 1000)
EL = rep(length(aGrid))
for (i in 1:length(aGrid)){
    a = aGrid[i]
    p = mean(predDraws >= a)

EL[i] = 10*a*p +(17*mean(predDraws[predDraws<a])-7*a)*(1-p)
}
plot(aGrid, EL, xlab = "storage, a", ylab = "Expected Utility", type = "l",
    lwd = 3, col = "lightgray")
abline(v = aGrid[which.max(EL)], lty = "dotted")</pre>
```



```
maximizer = aGrid[which.max(EL)]
maximizer
```

[1] 5

#### Problem 4

Given information:

```
temp = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * time + \beta_2 * time^2 + \epsilon, \ \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)
```

```
#install.packages("remotes")  # Uncomment this the first time
library(remotes)
#install_github("StatisticsSU/SUdatasets") # Uncomment this the first time
library(SUdatasets)
library(mvtnorm)
library(ggplot2)
head(tempLinkoping)
```

```
time temp
1 0.002732240 0.1
2 0.005464481 -4.5
3 0.008196721 -6.3
4 0.010928962 -9.6
5 0.013661202 -9.9
6 0.016393443 -17.1
```

#### summary(tempLinkoping)

```
time temp

Min. :0.002732 Min. :-17.100

1st Qu.:0.252049 1st Qu.: 1.925

Median :0.501366 Median : 6.900

Mean :0.501366 Mean : 7.524

3rd Qu.:0.750683 3rd Qu.: 14.575

Max. :1.000000 Max. : 23.100
```

```
cat("The dataset contains", length(tempLinkoping$time), "observations.")
```

The dataset contains 366 observations.

#### 4a) Determine a suitable prior distribution

Given prior information:

$$\beta|\sigma^2 \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma^2\Omega_0^{-1})$$

$$\sigma^2 \sim \text{inv} - \chi^2(\nu_0, \sigma_0^2)$$

The following figure shows the regression curves simulated from a beta prior with  $\mu_0(10, 100, -100)^T$ . From Figure 9, most of the temperatures variate above 0 degree which is higher than my belief of Linkoping's temperatures.

```
#beta prior ~ normal
mu0 = c(10, 100, -100)
sigma_matrix0 = 0.01*diag(3)
#sigma_sq prior ~ inv-x^2
nu0 = 3
sigma0_sq = 1
#store simulated betas, sigma^2 and temps
m = 200
time_grid =tempLinkoping$time
temp_vals = matrix(NA, nrow=m, ncol=length(time_grid))
# Simulator for the scaled inverse Chi-square distribution
rScaledInvChi2 <- function(n, v_0, sigma2_0){
  return((v_0*sigma2_0)/rchisq(n, df = v_0))
}
#simulated sigma_prior and beta_prior
set.seed(42)
sigma_sq_draws = rScaledInvChi2(m, v_0=nu0, sigma2_0 = sigma0_sq)
for (i in 1:m){
  sigma_sq_i = sigma_sq_draws[i]
  betas_i = rmvnorm(1, mean=mu0, sigma=(sigma_sq_i*solve(sigma_matrix0)))
  temp_vals[i,] = betas_i[1] + betas_i[2]*time_grid + betas_i[3]*time_grid^2
plot(
  NA, NA,
  xlim = c(0, 1),
  ylim = range(temp_vals),
  xlab = "Normalized Time",
  ylab = "Temperatures",
  main = "Simulated Regression Curves from Prior"
```

```
# Now overlay all the curves
for (i in 1:nrow(temp_vals)) {
   lines(time_grid, temp_vals[i, ], col = rgb(0, 0, 0, alpha = 0.3))
}
```

# **Simulated Regression Curves from Prior**

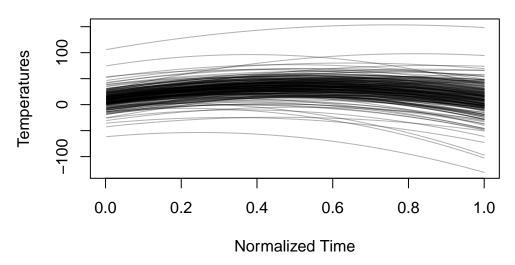


Figure 9: Simulated Regression Curves from Prior

The original prior information is much higher than my belief. Figure 10 is the regression curves plot with updated prior information  $\mu_0(5,70,-70)^T$ , it clearly shows that half of the simulated temperature curves variate below 0 degree which satisfies my beliefs of temperature variation in Linkoping.

```
#beta prior ~ normal updated
mu0 = c(5,70,-70)
Omega_matrix0 = 0.01*diag(3)

#sigma_sq prior ~ inv-x^2
nu0 = 3
sigma0_sq = 1

#store simulated betas, sigma^2 and temps
m = 200
```

```
time_grid = seq(0, 1, length.out=366)
temp_vals = matrix(NA, nrow=m, ncol=length(time_grid))
# Simulator for the scaled inverse Chi-square distribution
rScaledInvChi2 <- function(n, v_0, sigma2_0){
 return((v_0*sigma2_0)/rchisq(n, df = v_0))
}
#simulated sigma_prior and beta_prior
set.seed(42)
sigma_sq_draws = rScaledInvChi2(m, v_0=nu0, sigma2_0 = sigma0_sq)
for (i in 1:m){
  sigma_sq_i = sigma_sq_draws[i]
 betas_i = rmvnorm(1, mean=mu0, sigma=(sigma_sq_i*solve(Omega_matrix0)))
 temp_vals[i, ] = betas_i[1] + betas_i[2]*time_grid + betas_i[3]*time_grid^2
}
plot(
 NA, NA,
 xlim = c(0, 1),
 ylim = range(temp_vals),
 xlab = "Normalized Time",
 ylab = "Temperatures",
 main = "Simulated Regression Curves from Updated Prior"
# Now overlay all the curves
for (i in 1:nrow(temp_vals)) {
 lines(time_grid, temp_vals[i, ], col = rgb(0, 0, 0, alpha = 0.3))
}
```

# **Simulated Regression Curves from Updated Prior**

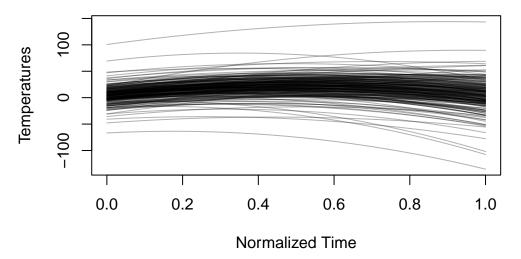


Figure 10: Simulated Regression Curves from Updated Prior

### 4b) Simulating from the posterior

From the given information, a Gaussian linear regression with a conjugate prior will have a posterior with the same distribution family. The following is the joint posterior information.

$$\begin{split} \beta \mid \sigma^2, y \sim N(\mu_n, \sigma^2 \Omega_n^{-1}) \\ \sigma^2 \mid y \sim Inv - \chi^2(\nu_n, \sigma_n^2) \\ \Omega_n = X^T X + \Omega_0 \end{split}$$

$$\mu_n = \Omega_n^{-1}(X^Ty + \Omega_0\mu_0)$$
 
$$\nu_v = \nu_0 + n$$

$$\sigma_n^2 = (\nu_0\sigma_0^2 + y^Ty + \mu_0^T\Omega_0\mu_0 - \mu_n^T\Omega_n\mu_n)/\nu_n$$

The parameters information from prior and likelihood/model are given, we can compute the posterior parameters using the following code.

```
#settings before simulation
time = tempLinkoping$time
X = cbind(1, time, time^2)
y = tempLinkoping$temp
n = length(y)
#beta prior ~ normal updated
mu0 = c(5,70,-70)
 Omega0 = 0.01*diag(3)
 #sigma_sq prior ~ Inv-x^2
nu0 = 3
 sigma0_sq = 1
 #posterior settings
 Omega_n = t(X) \%*\% X + OmegaO
mu_n = solve(Omega_n) %*% (t(X) %*% y + OmegaO %*% muO)
nu_n = nu0 + n
 sigma_n_sq = (nu0*sigma0_sq + t(y)%*%y + t(mu0)%*%Omega0%*%mu0 - t(y)%*%omega0%*%mu0 - t(y)%mu0 - t(y)%*%mu0 - t(y)%*%mu0 - t(y)

    t(mu_n)%*%Omega_n%*%mu_n) / nu_n
```

After computing the posterior parameters, we can simulate samples from the posterior of  $\sigma^2$ . Then, the simulated samples of  $\sigma^2$  can be plugged into  $\beta \mid \sigma^2$  's posterior distribution, which is multivariate normal. Finally, we can draw samples from  $\beta$  's posterior distribution and visualize the marginal posteriors of each parameter using histograms as shown in Figure 11.

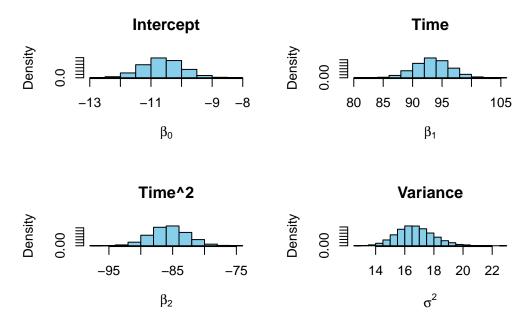


Figure 11: Marginal Distribution of Parameters

Since the marginal posterior distributions of coefficients  $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_3)$  are known, the posterior distribution of the regression function can be computed by plugging the simulated  $\beta$  posterior draws into the regression model:

$$f(time) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * time + \beta_2 * time^2$$

After the posterior distribution of the regression function is known, we can simply compute the posterior median and the equal-tail 95% confidence interval for the regression at each time point. Figure 12 contains the data point from Linkoping dataset and a posterior median curve of the regression function with equal-tail 95% confidence interval.

```
# Predictive curves
time_grid = tempLinkoping$time
X_grid = cbind(1, time, time^2)
# X_grid: 366x3, beta_post_draws: 10000x3, transpose to 3x10000
f_post = X_grid %*% t(beta_post_draws)
f_median = apply(f_post, 1, median)
f_lower <- apply(f_post, 1, quantile, probs = 0.025)</pre>
f_upper <- apply(f_post, 1, quantile, probs = 0.975)</pre>
# Base R plot version of predictive regression curve
# Set up base plot
plot(time_grid, f_median, type = "l", lwd = 2, col = "red",
     ylim = range(c(f_lower, f_upper, y)),
     xlab = "Normalized Time", ylab = "Temperature",
     main = "Posterior Median of Regression Curve with 95% C.I")
# Add credible interval (ribbon)
polygon(c(time_grid, rev(time_grid)),
        c(f_lower, rev(f_upper)),
        col = rgb(70/255, 130/255, 180/255, 0.4), border = NA)
# Add observed data points
points(time, y, pch = 20, col = "gray40")
# Optionally add median line again (drawn over ribbon)
lines(time_grid, f_median, col = "red", lwd = 2)
```

# Posterior Median of Regression Curve with 95% C.I

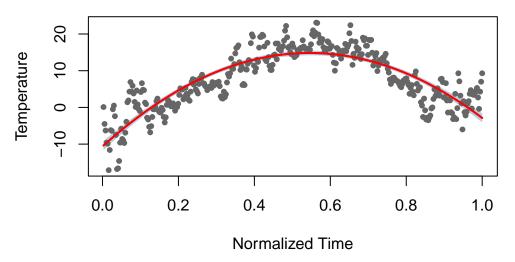


Figure 12: Posterior Median of Regression Curve with 95% C.I

From the posterior median of the regression curve, we can clearly confirm that the 95% confidence interval band does not contain all the observed data point, because the confidence interval band only reflect the uncertainty of the posterior median regression function without the noise term  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ . Therefore, it is not necessary for the confidence interval band of the regression function to include every data points.

#### 4c) Locating the day with the highest expected temperature

Given the highest expected temperature at each time point  $x_{max}$ :

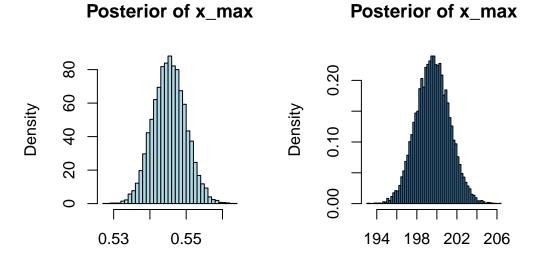
$$x_{max} = -\frac{\beta_1}{2\beta_2}$$

Since the posterior distribution of  $\beta$  is known from previous problem, we can use the samples from the distribution to compute the values of  $x_{max}$  at each time point, and the values can be visualized through a histogram as shown in Figure 13.

```
beta1_post_samples = beta_post_draws[, 2]
beta2_post_samples = beta_post_draws[, 3]

x_max = -beta1_post_samples / (2*beta2_post_samples)

par(mfrow=c(1, 2))
```



Time With Highest Expected Temper: Day With Highest Expected Tempers

Figure 13: Posterior of x\_max