

# DATA130004: Homework 9

董晴园 14300680173

2017.12.24

1. Exercise 9.1: Repeat Example 9.1 for the target distribution Rayleigh( $\sigma = 2$ ). Compare the performance of the Metropolis-Hastings sampler for Example 9.1 and this problem. In particular, what differences are obvious from the plot corresponding to Figure 9.1?

```
f <- function(x, sigma) {  
  if (any(x < 0)) return (0)  
  stopifnot(sigma > 0)  
  return((x / sigma^2) * exp(-x^2 / (2*sigma^2)))  
}  
  
m <- 10000  
sigma <- 2  
x <- numeric(m)  
x[1] <- rchisq(1, df=1)  
k <- 0  
u <- runif(m)  
  
for (i in 2:m) {  
  xt <- x[i-1]  
  y <- rchisq(1, df = xt)  
  num <- f(y, sigma) * dchisq(xt, df = y)  
  den <- f(xt, sigma) * dchisq(y, df = xt)  
  if (u[i] <= num/den) x[i] <- y else {  
    x[i] <- xt  
    k <- k+1    #y is rejected  
  }  
}  
  
print(k)  
  
index <- 5000:5500  
y1 <- x[index]  
plot(index, y1, type="l", main="", ylab="x")
```

Here's the result:

```
> print(k)  
[1] 5257
```

The plot is showed in Figure 1. Comparing to Figure 2 (which is the result in Exercise 9.1), the obvious differences are:

- (a) More candidate points are rejected when  $\sigma = 2$ .
- (b) The overall variance of the chain is smaller when  $\sigma = 2$ .

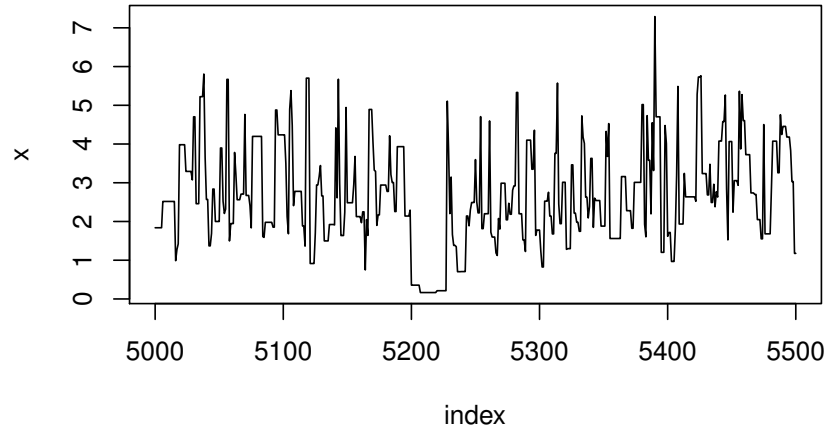


Figure 1: MH sampler for Rayleigh( $\sigma = 2$ ) from  $\chi^2(X_t)$

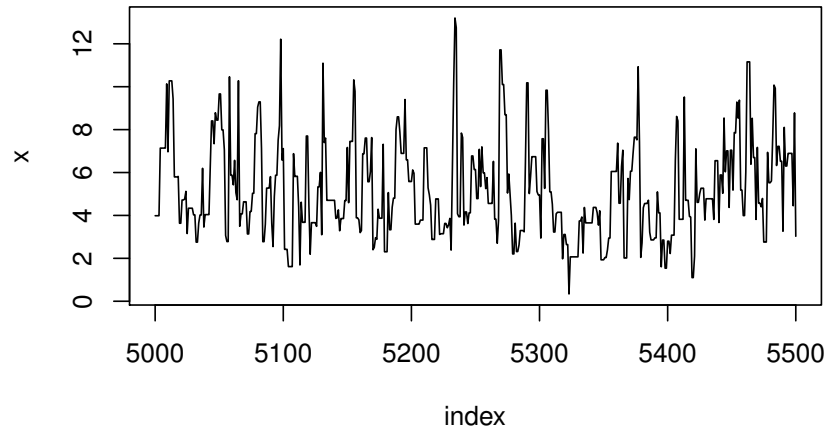


Figure 2: MH sampler for Rayleigh( $\sigma = 4$ ) from  $\chi^2(X_t)$

2. Exercise 9.2: Repeat Example 9.1 using the proposal distribution  $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(X_t, 1)$  (shape parameter  $X_t$  and rate parameter 1).

```
f <- function(x, sigma) {
  if (any(x < 0)) return (0)
  stopifnot(sigma > 0)
  return((x / sigma^2) * exp(-x^2 / (2*sigma^2)))
}

m <- 10000
sigma <- 4
x <- numeric(m)
x[1] <- rgamma(1, 1)
k <- 0
u <- runif(m)

for (i in 2:m) {
  xt <- x[i-1]
  y <- rgamma(1, xt)
  num <- f(y, sigma) * dgamma(xt, y)
  den <- f(xt, sigma) * dgamma(y, xt)
  if (u[i] <= num/den) x[i] <- y else {
    x[i] <- xt
    k <- k+1      #y is rejected
  }
}

print(k)

index <- 5000:5500
y1 <- x[index]
plot(index, y1, type="l", main="", ylab="x")
```

Here's the result:

```
> print(k)
[1] 3002
```

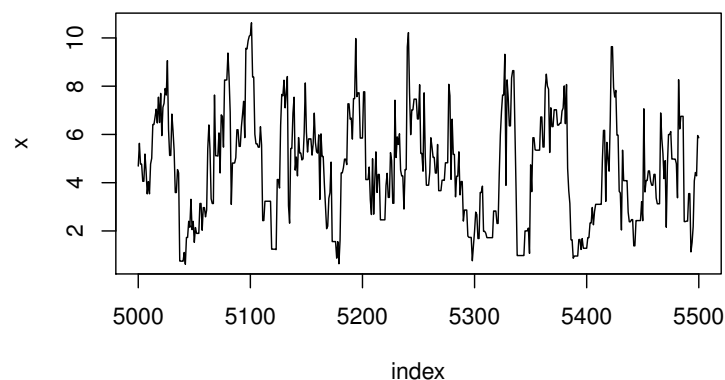


Figure 3: MH sampler for  $\text{Rayleigh}(\sigma = 4)$  from Gamma distribution

3. Exercise 9.3: Use the Metropolis-Hastings sampler to generate random variables from a standard Cauchy distribution. Discard the first 1000 of the chain, and compare the deciles of the generated observations with the deciles of the standard Cauchy distribution (see `qcauchy` or `qt` with `df=1`). Recall that a  $\text{Cauchy}(\theta, \eta)$  distribution has density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\theta\pi(1 + [(x - \eta)/\theta]^2)}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \theta > 0.$$

The standard Cauchy has the  $\text{Cauchy}(\theta = 1, \eta = 0)$  density. (Note that the standard Cauchy density is equal to the Student  $t$  density with one degree of freedom.)

For the proposal distribution, I use Normal distribution with  $\text{mean} = X_t$ ,  $\text{var} = 1$ . The implementation of the Metropolis-Hastings sampler is as follows:

```
# target density
f <- function(x, theta, eta) {
  stopifnot(theta > 0)
  return(1/(theta * pi * (1 + ((x-eta)/theta)^2)))
}
# MH sampler
m <- 10000
theta <- 1
eta <- 0
x <- numeric(m)
x[1] <- rnorm(1, 0, theta)
k <- 0
u <- runif(m)
for (i in 2:m) {
  xt <- x[i-1]
  y <- rnorm(1, xt, theta)
  num <- f(y, theta, eta) * dnorm(xt, y, theta)
  den <- f(xt, theta, eta) * dnorm(y, xt, theta)
  if (u[i] <= num/den) x[i] <- y else {
    x[i] <- xt
    k <- k+1
  }
}
print(k)
```

Here's the result:

```
> print(k)
[1] 2362
```

To get a plot of the truncated generated chain (see Figure 4):

```
index <- 5000:5500
y1 <- x[index]
plot(index, y1, type="l", main="", ylab="x")
```

To compare the deciles of the sample and theory:

```
b <- 1001      #discard the burnin sample
y <- x[b:m]
a <- seq(0, 1, 0.1)
QC <- qcauchy(a)
Q <- quantile(y, a)
cbind(Q, QC)
```

Here's the result:

	Q	QC
0%	-19.10049498	-Inf
10%	-2.47506340	-3.0776835
20%	-1.17297009	-1.3763819
30%	-0.61298864	-0.7265425
40%	-0.25396347	-0.3249197
50%	0.04512704	0.0000000
60%	0.32776135	0.3249197
70%	0.70005034	0.7265425
80%	1.26024047	1.3763819
90%	2.44678662	3.0776835
100%	16.55789425	Inf

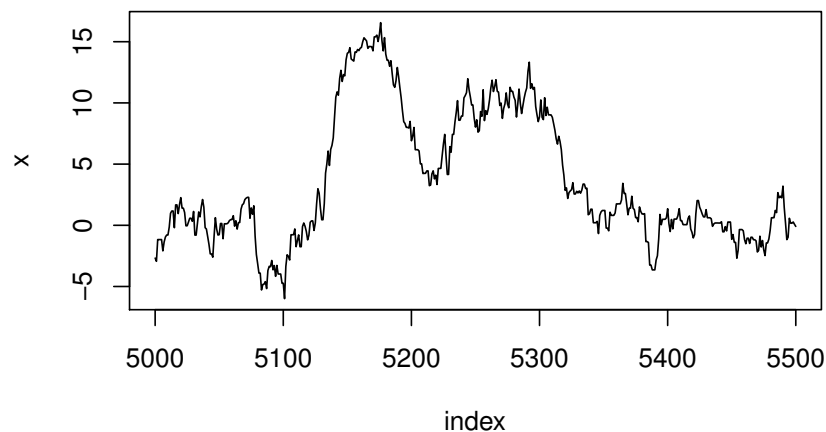


Figure 4: Part of a chain generated by a Metropolis-Hastings sampler of a Cauchy distribution

To see the QQ plot of quantile distribution (Figure 5) and the histogram of the sample distribution (Figure 6):

```
# qqplot & histogram
a <- ppoints(100)
QC <- qcauchy(a)
Q <- quantile(y, a)
qqplot(QC, Q, main="",
        xlab="Cauchy_Quantiles", ylab="Sample_Quantiles")
abline(0,1, col='red')
hist(y, breaks="scott", main="", xlab="", freq=FALSE)
lines(QC, f(QC, theta, eta))
```

- Exercise 9.7: Implement a Gibbs sampler to generate a bivariate normal chain  $(X_t, Y_t)$  with zero means, unit standard deviations, and correlation 0.9. Plot the generated sample after discarding a suitable burn-in sample. Fit a simple linear regression model  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$  to the sample and check the residuals of the model for normality and constant variance.

```
#initialize constants and parameters
N <- 5000 #length of chain
```

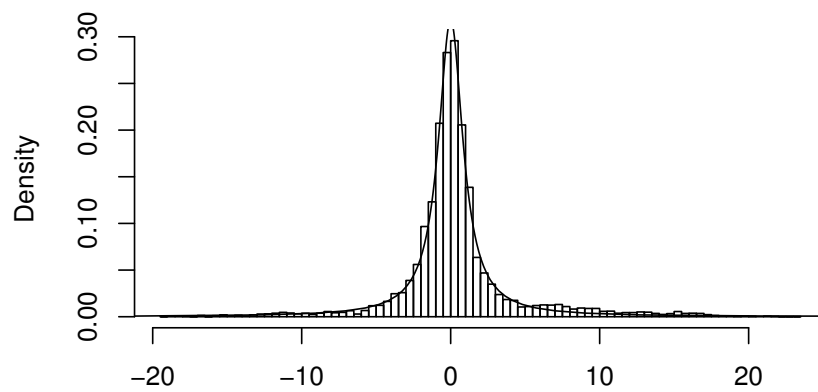


Figure 5: Histogram with target Cauchy density

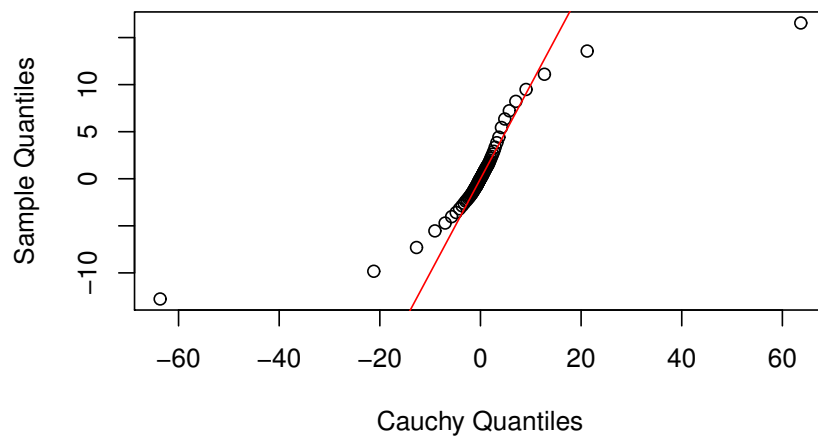


Figure 6: QQ plot for a MH chain in Exercise 9.3

```

burn<- 1000          #burn-in length
X <- matrix(0, N, 2)  #the chain, a bivariate sample

rho <- .9            #correlation
mu1 <- mu2 <- 0
sigma1 <- sigma2 <- 1
s1 <- sqrt(1-rho^2)*sigma1
s2 <- sqrt(1-rho^2)*sigma2

# generate the chain
X[1, ] <- c(mu1, mu2)      #initialize

for (i in 2:N) {
  x2 <- X[i-1, 2]
  m1 <- mu1 + rho * (x2 - mu2) * sigma1/sigma2
  X[i, 1] <- rnorm(1, m1, s1)
  x1 <- X[i, 1]
  m2 <- mu2 + rho * (x1 - mu1) * sigma2/sigma1
  X[i, 2] <- rnorm(1, m2, s2)
}

b <- burn + 1
x <- X[b:N, ]

```

The corresponding plot of the generated sample after discarding the first 1000 burn-in samples is showed in Figure 7.

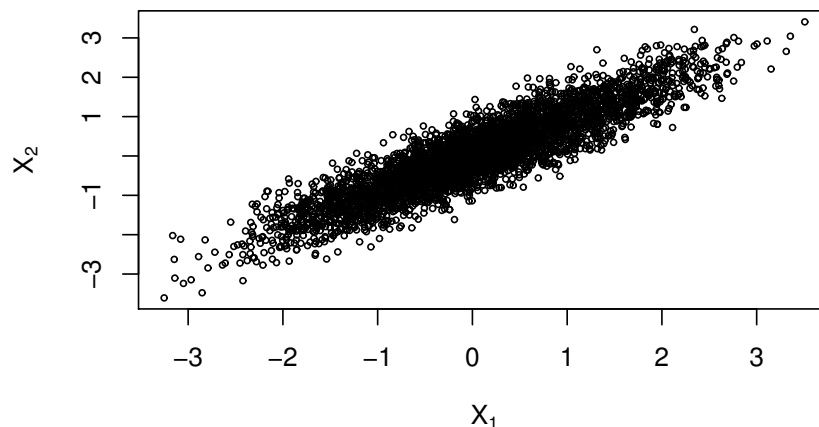


Figure 7: Plot of the generated sample from Exercise 9.7

Using linear regression model to check the residuals:

```

reg.mod <- lm(x[,2] ~ x[,1])
resi <- reg.mod$residuals
c <- seq(min(resi), max(resi), 0.01)
hist(resi, breaks="scott", main="", xlab="", freq=FALSE)
lines(c, dnorm(c, mean = mean(resi), sd = sqrt(var(resi))))

```

As indicated in Figure 8, the distribution of the residuals fit in well with a normal distribution, where  $\text{mean} = \text{mean}(\text{resi}) = 1.133425\text{e-}18$ ,  $\text{variance} = \text{var}(\text{resi}) = 0.1943319$ .

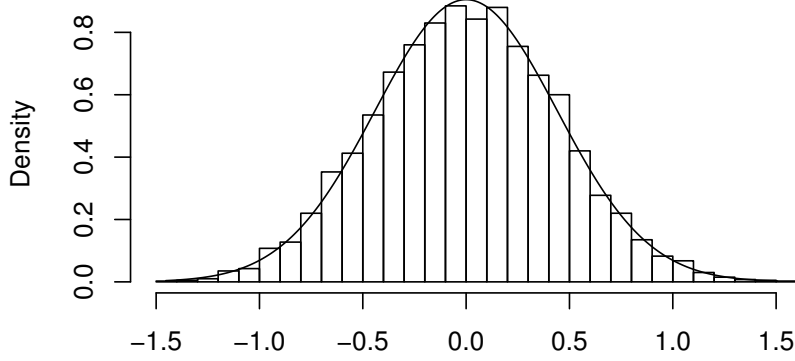


Figure 8: Histogram of the residuals of the simple regression model in Exercise 9.7

5. In Bayesian inference, if the posterior distributions  $p(\theta|x)$  are in the same family as the prior probability distribution  $\pi(\theta)$ , the prior and posterior are then called conjugate distributions, and the prior is called a conjugate prior for the likelihood function. Let  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^\top$  consist of  $n$  i.i.d. random samples. Prove the following well-known conjugate results by specifying the posterior distribution type and parameters.

- (a) When the variance parameter is known, the Gaussian family is conjugate to itself (or self-conjugate) with respect to a Gaussian likelihood function. That is, if the likelihood function is Gaussian, choosing a Gaussian prior over the mean will ensure that the posterior distribution is also Gaussian.

Assume that the likelihood function follows  $N(\theta, \sigma_\theta^2)$ , and the prior distribution follows  $N(\mu_\theta, \sigma_\theta^2)$ , denoted as

$$f(x|\theta, \sigma_x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}}$$

$$\pi(\theta|\mu_\theta, \sigma_\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_\theta^2}} e^{-\frac{(\theta-\mu_\theta)^2}{2\sigma_\theta^2}}.$$

In Bayesian inference, the posterior distribution can be computed as

$$p(\theta|x) \propto \pi(\theta)f(x|\theta).$$

Thus, the posterior distribution of  $\theta$  in this case is

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta|x, \mu_\theta, \sigma_\theta, \sigma_x) &\propto e^{-\frac{(\theta-\mu_\theta)^2}{2\sigma_\theta^2} + \frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} \\ &\propto e^{-\frac{(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\theta^2)\theta^2 - 2(\sigma_x^2\mu_\theta + \sigma_\theta^2 x)\theta + \sigma_x^2\mu_\theta^2 + \sigma_\theta^2 x^2}{2\sigma_\theta^2\sigma_x^2}} \\ &\propto e^{-\frac{\left(\theta - \frac{\sigma_x^2\mu_\theta + \sigma_\theta^2 x}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\theta^2}\right)^2}{2\frac{\sigma_x^2\sigma_\theta^2}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\theta^2}}}. \end{aligned}$$



As proved before, the posterior distribution of  $\theta$  follows  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , where

$$\mu = \frac{\sigma_x^2 \mu_\theta + \sigma_\theta^2 x}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\theta^2},$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma_x^2 \sigma_\theta^2}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\theta^2}.$$

- (b) Gamma distribution is the conjugate prior for the rate parameter of Poisson distribution. That is, given data are generated according to  $\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ , specify a  $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$  prior for  $\lambda$ , then the posterior distribution  $p(\lambda|x)$  is still Gamma.

Given that

$$f(x|\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda}$$

$$\pi(\lambda) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \lambda^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta\lambda},$$

The posterior distribution of  $\lambda$

$$p(\lambda|x, \alpha, \beta) \propto \lambda^{x+\alpha-1} e^{-(\alpha+1)\lambda}$$

$$\sim \text{Gamma}(x + \alpha, \alpha + 1).$$