

Assignment 1

a)

True mean for beta distribution: **0.3488**

True standard deviation for beta distribution: **0.0511**

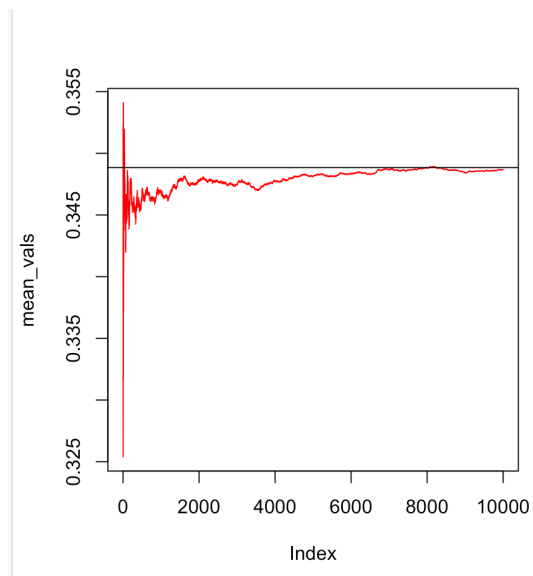


Figure 1.1: Mean per draw with true mean as line.

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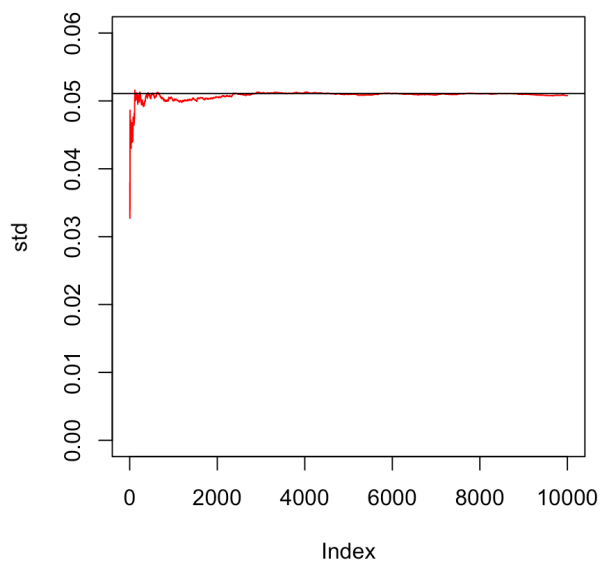


Figure 1.2: Standard deviation per draw with true standard deviation as line.

As we can see in figure 1.1 and figure 1.2, the mean and standard deviation converges towards the true values for large n 's.

Code: #Assignment 1

*#Let $y_1, \dots, y_n | \vartheta \sim \text{Bern}(\vartheta)$, and assume that you have obtained a sample
#with $s = 22$ successes in $n = 70$ trials. Assume a $\text{Beta}(a\theta, b\theta)$ prior for ϑ
and let $a\theta = b\theta = 8$.*

###Starting assignment###

###Variables###

s=22

n=70

a0=8

b0=8

#####

#Assignment 1

```
meanBeta <- function(a,b){  
  return(a/(a+b))
```

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```
}

varBeta <-function(a,b) {
  return(a*b/(((a+b)**2)*(a+b+1)))
}

BetaPlot <- function(a,b){
  xGrid <- seq(0.001, 0.999, by=0.001)
  prior = dbeta(xGrid, a, b)
  maxDensity <- max(prior) # Use to make the y-axis high enough
  plot(xGrid, prior, type = 'l', lwd = 3, col = "blue", xlim = c(0,1), ylim <- c(0, maxDensity), xlab = "theta",
       ylab = 'Density', main = 'Beta(a,b) density')
}

#a) Draw 10000 random values (nDraws = 10000) from the posterior  $\vartheta|y \sim \text{Beta}(a_0 + s, b_0 + f)$ , where  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ ,
#and verify graphically that the posterior mean  $E[\vartheta|y]$  and standard deviation  $SD[\vartheta|y]$  converges to the true values
#as the number of random draws grows large. [Hint: use rbeta() to draw random values and make graphs of the sample means
#and standard deviations of  $\vartheta$  as a function of the accumulating number of drawn values].

BetaPlot(a0,b0) #Pdf of prior

BetaPlot(a0+s,b0+n-s) #Pdf of posterior

meanPost = meanBeta(a0+s,b0+n-s) #Calculate the actual mean of the posterior
or
meanPost #actual is 0.3488

## [1] 0.3488372

varPost = varBeta(a0+s,b0+n-s) #Calculate the actual variance of the posterior
varPost #actual variance is 0.00261

## [1] 0.002610917

stdPost = sqrt(varPost) #Standard deviation of actual
stdPost #actual standard deviation is 0.0511

## [1] 0.05109714

Ndraws = 10000 #Number of samples to draw
samples = rbeta(Ndraws, shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Draws 10000 random samples from the posterior

mean_vals = rep(0,10000) #List to store mean
std = rep(0,10000) #List to store standard deviation
```

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```
for (i in 1:10000) {  
  mean = mean(samples[1:i])  
  mean_vals[i] = mean  
  std[i] = sd(samples[1:i])  
}  
  
plot(mean_vals, type="l", col="red") #Plotting accum. mean vals based on  
increased Ndraws  
abline(meanPost,0) #plotting tangent line of actual mean
```

```
plot(std, type="l", col="red", ylim=c(0,0.06)) #Plotting accum. standard d  
eviation based on increased Ndraws  
abline(stdPost,0) #plotting tangent line of actual std
```

#As seen in the plotted graphs, the mean and std dev converges towards the true values for big n:s

b)

True probability: **0.83**

Calculated probability: **0.8286**

We can see that the calculated and true probabilities are roughly the same, meaning that large data sets give good approximations.

Code:

*#b) Draw 10000 random values from the posterior to compute the posterior probability
#Pr($\theta > 0.3|y$) and compare with the exact value from the Beta posterior. [Hint: use pbeta()].*

```
threshold = 0.3  
true_probability = 1 - pbeta(threshold,shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Calculating the true probability of the posterior  
true_probability #True value is 0.83
```

```
## [1] 0.8285936
```

```
samples = rbeta(Ndraws, shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Drawing 10000 samples from the beta distribution  
p_greater = mean(samples > threshold) #Calculating the mean of all random samples greater than 0.3  
p_greater #Calculated value is 0.8286
```

```
## [1] 0.8349
```

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*#We can see that the probability is ~83% for both, indicating we get good
#approximations for large data sets of random samples*

c)

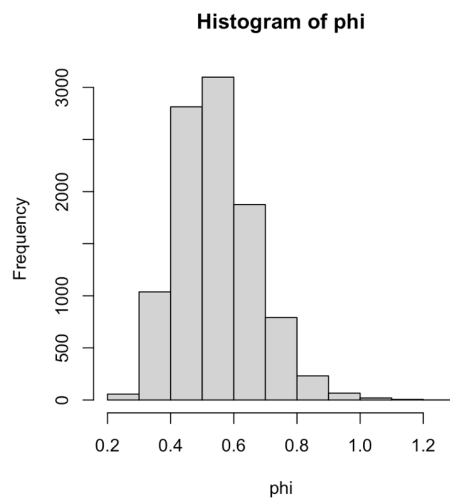


Figure 1.3: Histogram of phi values

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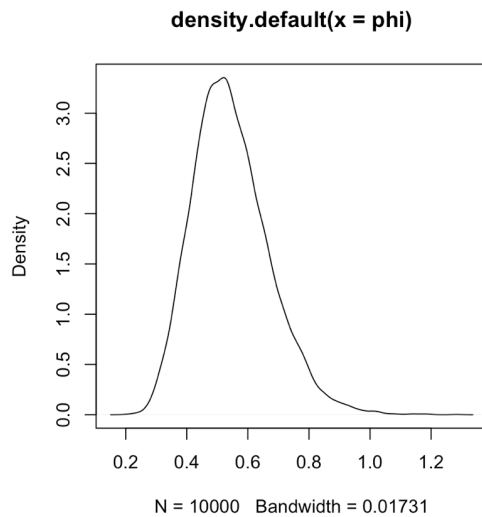


Figure 1.4: Plot of density for phi values

By comparing the graphs, we can see that the histogram and the density plot follows the same shape which was expected.

Code:

```
#c) Draw 10000 random values from the posterior of the odds  $\phi = \vartheta$  by using 1- $\vartheta$   
#the previous random draws from the Beta posterior for  $\vartheta$  and plot the posterior distribution of  $\phi$ .  
#[Hint: hist() and density() can be utilized].
```

```
samples = rbeta(Ndraws, shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Sample 10000 random samples  
phi = samples/(1-samples) #Calculate phi  
hist(phi) #Plot histogram
```

```
plot(density(phi)) #Plot density function
```

Assignment 2

a)

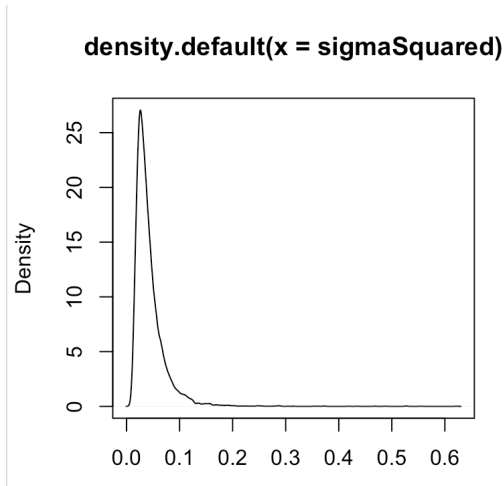


Figure 2.1: Density plot of the posterior for sigma squared.

The posterior of the random draws of sigma squared is heavily cantered around 0.05 which is indicated in the density plot in figure 2.1.

Code:

```
###Starting assignment###
```

```
###Variables###
```

```
income = c(33,24,48,32,55,74,23,17)
```

```
my = 3.6
```

```
Ndraw = 10000
```

```
#####
```

```
#Calculating tao
```

```
taoFunc = function(y) {  
  return((sum(log(y)-my)**2)/length(y))  
}
```

```
#Function calculate sigma squared
```

```
sigmaSquaredFunc = function(chi_vals,tao,n) {  
  return(((n)*tao)/chi_vals)  
}
```

```
#a) Draw 10000 random values from the posterior of  $\sigma^2$  by assuming  $\mu = 3.6$   
and plot the posterior distribution.
```

```
tao = taoFunc(income) #Calculating tao value
```

```
n = length(income) #Defining number of data points
```

Commented [ES1]: Ska vara n-1 här?

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```
set.seed(12345)
chi_vals = rchisq(Ndraw, n) #Drawing 10000 random samples from chi-squared distribution
sigmaSquared = sigmaSquaredFunc(chi_vals, tao, n) #Calculating approximation for sigmaSquared

#Plotting the posterior distribution of simgasquared
plot(density(sigmaSquared))
```

Commented [ES2]: N-1 här också?

b)

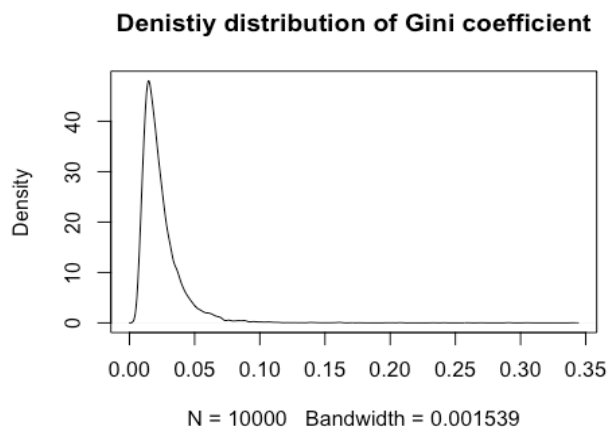


Figure 2.2: Density plot of gini coefficient.

The density plot of the gini coefficient is weighted towards values in between 0.00 and 0.05, indicating that the random draws of income are almost completely equal. This was expected as figure 2.1 indicated that most incomes landed in the same interval.

Commented [ES3]: Vi menar att std är liten och därför är det equal?

Code:

```
#b) The most common measure of income inequality is the Gini coefficient, G,
#where 0 ≤ G ≤ 1. G = 0 means a completely equal income distribution, whereas G = 1 means complete
#income inequality (see e.g. Wikipedia for more information about the Gini coefficient).
#It can be shown that G = 2Φ(σ/√2) - 1 when incomes follow a Log N (μ, σ²) distribution.
#Φ(z) is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) for the standard normal distribution with mean zero
#and unit variance. Use the posterior draws in a) to compute the posterior distribution of the Gini coefficient G
#for the current data set.
```


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```
G = 2*pnorm(sigmaSquared/sqrt(2))-1 #Calculating gini values  
plot(density(G), main="Denisti distribution of Gini coefficient") #Density  
distribution of Gini values
```

c)

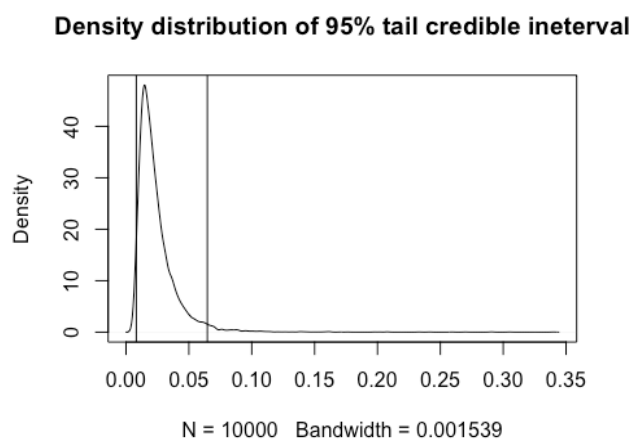


Figure 2.3: Equal tail distribution indicated with vertical line.

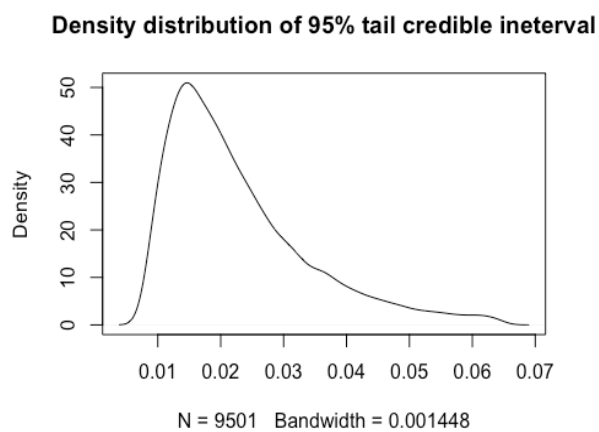


Figure 2.4: Density plot with removed tails.

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The plot in figure 2.3 indicates that by using an equal tail interval, we risk removing some of the parts where we have the most density (since the data are heavily weighted on the left side).

Code:

```
#c) Use the posterior draws from b) to compute a 95% equal tail credible interval for G.
#A 95% equal tail credible interval (a,b) cuts off 2.5% percent of the posterior probability mass to the
#left of a, and 2.5% to the right of b.

sorted_G = sort(G) #Sorting values in G
min = length(G)*0.025 #Calculating lower bound
max = length(G)*0.975 #Calculating upper bound
filt_G = sorted_G[min:max] #Filtering out tails
plot(density(G), main="Density distribution of 95% tail credible interval")
abline(v=sorted_G[min]) #Lower end of credible interval
abline(v=sorted_G[max]) #Upper end of credible interval

plot(density(filt_G), main="Density distribution of 95% tail credible interval") #Plot with only values in credible interval
```

d)

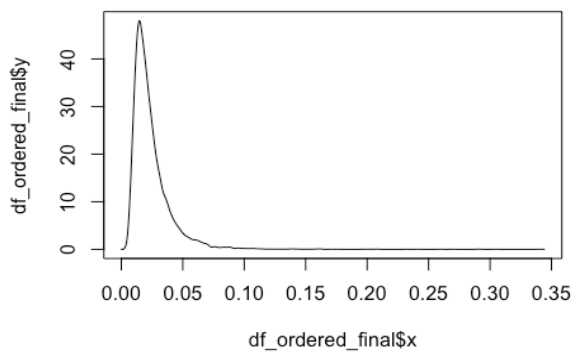


Figure 2.5: HPDI plot of gini data

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Since we remove the 5% with the lowest density, we retain the shape which was expected.
The difference between figure 2.3 and figure 2.5 clearly illustrates the effects of equal tail interval compared to HPDI.

Code:

```
#d) Use the posterior draws from b) to compute a 95% Highest Posterior Density Interval (HPDI) for G.  
#Compare the two intervals in (c) and (d). [Hint: do a kernel density estimate of the posterior of G using the  
#density function in R with default settings, and use that kernel density estimate to compute the HPDI.  
#Note that you need to order/sort the estimated density values to obtain the HPDI.].
```

```
density_vals = density(G) #Using density function to load info for Gini coefficients density  
df = data.frame(x=density_vals$x, y=density_vals$y) #Storing coordinates and indexes in a data frame  
df_ordered=df[order(df$y),] #Sorting the data frame in ascending order  
df_ordered$index=seq(1,length(density_vals$x),1) #Creating index to keep track of x & y coordinates from G's density  
ind_to_remove = round(length(df$x)*0.05) #Calculating how many indexes to remove to get the 95% HPDI
```

```
library(dplyr)
```

```
df_ordered_filt = df_ordered %>% slice(-c(1:ind_to_remove)) #Removing lowest y values  
df_ordered_final = df_ordered_filt[order(df_ordered_filt$x),] #Filtering in order of x values  
plot(df_ordered_final$x, df_ordered_final$y, type="l") #Plotting result
```

Assignment 3

a)

$F(\kappa)$ was derived by starting in $p(\kappa|y, my)$, which is proportional to $p(y|\kappa, my) \cdot p(\kappa)$. This can in turn be calculated with the given information in the assignment.

Commented [ES4]: Vad menas

Commented [ESSR4]: Varför blir resultatet annorlunda?

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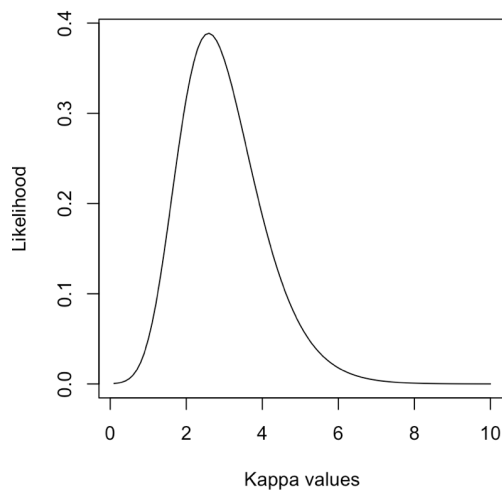


Figure 3.1: Likelihood function for posterior of kappa plotted for kappa values.

Code:

```
#Assignment 3

#This exercise is concerned with directional data. The point is to show you that the posterior distribution
#for somewhat weird models can be obtained by plotting it over a grid of  $\nu$  values.
#The data points are observed wind directions at a given location on ten different days.
#The data are recorded in degrees: (20, 314, 285, 40, 308, 314, 299, 296, 303, 326),
#where North is located at zero degrees (see Figure 1 on the next page, where the angles are measured clockwise).
#To fit with Wikipedia's description of probability distributions for circular data we convert
#the data into radians  $-\pi \leq y \leq \pi$ . The 10 observations in radians are (-2.79, 2.33, 1.83, -2.44, 2.23, 2.33, 2.07, 2.02, 2.14, 2.54).
#Assume that these data points conditional on  $(\mu, \kappa)$  are independent observations from the following von Mises distribution:

#where  $I_0(\kappa)$  is the modified Bessel function of the first kind of order zero [see ?besselI in R].
#The parameter  $\mu$  ( $-\pi \leq \mu \leq \pi$ ) is the mean direction and  $\kappa > 0$  is called the concentration parameter.
#Large  $\kappa$  gives a small variance around  $\mu$ , and vice versa. Assume that  $\mu$  is
```

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```
known to be 2.4. Let  $\kappa \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda = 0.5)$ 
#a priori, where  $\lambda$  is the rate parameter of the exponential distribution (
so that the mean is  $1/\lambda$ ).

###Starting assignment###

#a) Derive the expression for what the posterior  $p(\kappa|y, \mu)$  is proportional
to. Hence, derive the function  $f(\kappa)$  such
#that  $p(\kappa|y, \mu) \propto f(\kappa)$ . Then, plot the posterior distribution of  $\kappa$  for th
e wind direction data over a one grid of  $\kappa$ 
#values. [Hint: you need to normalize the posterior distribution of  $\kappa$  so t
hat it integrates to one.]

#Derive the posterior  $p(\kappa|y, \mu)$  is proportional to  $p(y|\kappa, \mu) * p(\kappa|\mu)$  is pr
oportional to  $p(y|\kappa, \mu) * p(\kappa)$ 
# $p(\kappa|\mu)$  is proportional to  $p(\kappa)$  since  $\kappa$  is independent of  $\mu$ 

#Data and know parameters
degrees = c(-2.79, 2.33, 1.83, -2.44, 2.23, 2.33, 2.07, 2.02, 2.14, 2.54) #Directio
ns in radians
my = 2.4 #Given  $\mu$  value
lambda = 0.5 #Given  $\lambda$  value

#Function for von Mises distribution
vonMises = function(kappa, y, my) {
  likelihood = 1
  for (data in y) {
    likelihood = likelihood * exp(kappa * cos(data - my)) / (2 * pi * besseli(kappa, 0))
  }
  return(likelihood)
}

#Function for exponential distribution
exponential = function(tetha, data) {
  return(tetha * exp(-tetha * data))
}

kappa = seq(0.1, 10, 0.1) #Kappa values to be used in distribution
VMProbs = rep(0, length(kappa)) #List to store probs from von Mis.
expProbs = rep(0, length(kappa)) #List to store probs from exp. distr

#Loop to generate all probs from given distribution
for(i in 1:length(kappa)) {
  VMProbs[i] = vonMises(kappa[i], degrees, my)
  expProbs[i] = exponential(lambda, kappa[i])
}

posterior = expProbs * VMProbs #Calculating posterior
postIntegral = sum(posterior * 0.1) #Calculating the integral for the poster
ior
normPosterior = posterior / postIntegral #Normalizing the posterior to integ
rate to 1
```

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```
plot(kappa,normPosterior, type="l", xlab="Kappa values", ylab="Likelihood"  
) #Plotting the normalized posterior
```

b)

In figure 3.1 we can see that the approximate posterior mode of kappa is when kappa is between 2 & 4. A good graphical estimation of the mode of kappa would be kappa ~2.8.

Appendix

Code assignment 1:

#Assignment 1

*#Let $y_1, \dots, y_n | \theta \sim \text{Bern}(\theta)$, and assume that you have obtained a sample
#with $s = 22$ successes in $n = 70$ trials. Assume a $\text{Beta}(a\theta, b\theta)$ prior for θ
and let $a\theta = b\theta = 8$.*

###Starting assignment###

###Variables###

s=22

n=70

a0=8

b0=8

#####

#Assignment 1

```
meanBeta <- function(a,b){  
  return(a/(a+b))  
}
```

```
varBeta <-function(a,b) {  
  return(a*b/(((a+b)**2)*(a+b+1)))  
}
```

```
BetaPlot <- function(a,b){  
  xGrid <- seq(0.001, 0.999, by=0.001)  
  prior = dbeta(xGrid, a, b)  
  maxDensity <- max(prior) # Use to make the y-axis high enough  
  plot(xGrid, prior, type = 'l', lwd = 3, col = "blue", xlim <- c(0,1), ylim  
  <- c(0, maxDensity), xlab = "theta",  
  ylab = 'Density', main = 'Beta(a,b) density')  
}
```

#a) Draw 10000 random values (nDraws = 10000) from the posterior $\theta | y \sim \text{Beta}(a\theta + s, b\theta + f)$, where $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$,

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*#and verify graphically that the posterior mean $E[\vartheta|y]$ and standard deviation $SD[\vartheta|y]$ converges to the true values
#as the number of random draws grows large. [Hint: use `rbeta()` to draw random values and make graphs of the sample means
#and standard deviations of ϑ as a function of the accumulating number of drawn values].*

```
BetaPlot(a0,b0) #Pdf of prior
```

```
BetaPlot(a0+s,b0+n-s) #Pdf of posterior
```

```
meanPost = meanBeta(a0+s,b0+n-s) #Calculate the actual mean of the posterior
or
meanPost #actual is 0.3488
## [1] 0.3488372

varPost = varBeta(a0+s,b0+n-s) #Calculate the actual variance of the posterior
varPost #actual variance is 0.00261
## [1] 0.002610917

stdPost = sqrt(varPost) #Standard deviation of actual
stdPost #actual standard deviation is 0.0511
## [1] 0.05109714

Ndraws = 10000 #Number of samples to draw
samples = rbeta(Ndraws, shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Draws 10000 random samples from the posterior

mean_vals = rep(0,10000) #List to store mean
std = rep(0,10000) #List to store standard deviation

for (i in 1:10000) {
  mean = mean(samples[1:i])
  mean_vals[i] = mean
  std[i] = sd(samples[1:i])
}

plot(mean_vals, type="l", col="red") #Plotting accum. mean vals based on increased Ndraws
abline(meanPost,0) #plotting tangent line of actual mean

plot(std, type="l", col="red", ylim=c(0,0.06)) #Plotting accum. standard deviation based on increased Ndraws
abline(stdPost,0) #plotting tangent line of actual std
```

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#As seen in the plotted graphs, the mean and std dev converges towards the true values for big n:s

*#b) Draw 10000 random values from the posterior to compute the posterior probability
#Pr($\vartheta > 0.3|y$) and compare with the exact value from the Beta posterior. [Hint: use pbeta()].*

```
threshold = 0.3
true_probability = 1 - pbeta(threshold, shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Calculating the true probability of the posterior
true_probability #True value is 0.83
```

```
## [1] 0.8285936
```

```
samples = rbeta(Ndraws, shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Drawing 10000 samples from the beta distribution
p_greater = mean(samples > threshold) #Calculating the mean of all random samples greater than 0.3
p_greater #Calculated value is 0.8286
```

```
## [1] 0.8349
```

#We can see that the probability is ~83% for both, indicating we get good approximations for large data sets of random samples

*#c) Draw 10000 random values from the posterior of the odds $\phi = \vartheta$ by using 1- ϑ
#the previous random draws from the Beta posterior for ϑ and plot the posterior distribution of ϕ .
#[Hint: hist() and density() can be utilized].*

```
samples = rbeta(Ndraws, shape1=a0+s, shape2=b0+n-s) #Sample 10000 random samples
phi = samples/(1-samples) #Calculate phi
hist(phi) #Plot histogram
```

```
plot(density(phi)) #Plot density function
```

Code assignment 2:

#Assignment 2

*#Assume that you have asked 8 randomly selected persons about their monthly income
#(in thousands Swedish Krona) and obtained the following eight observation*

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```
s: 33, 24, 48, 32, 55, 74, 23, and 17.
#A common model for non-negative continuous variables is the Log-normal distribution.
#The Log-normal distribution  $\text{LogN}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  has density function

#where  $y > 0$ ,  $-\infty < \mu < \infty$  and  $\sigma^2 > 0$ . The Log-normal distribution is related
#to the normal distribution as follows: if  $y \sim \text{LogN}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  then  $\log y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .
#2iid 2 2 Let  $y_1, \dots, y_n | \mu, \sigma \sim \text{LogN}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\mu = 3.6$  is assumed to be known but  $\sigma$ 
#is unknown with non-informative prior  $p(\sigma^2) \propto 1/\sigma^2$ . The posterior for  $\sigma^2$ 
#is the  $\text{Inv-}\chi^2(n, \tau^2)$  distribution, where

###Starting assignment###

###Variables###
income = c(33,24,48,32,55,74,23,17)
my = 3.6
Ndraw = 10000
#####

#Calculating tao
taoFunc = function(y) {
  return((sum(log(y)-my)**2)/length(y))
}

#Function calculate sigma squared
sigmaSquaredFunc = function(chi_vals, tao, n) {
  return(((n)*tao)/chi_vals)
}

#a) Draw 10000 random values from the posterior of  $\sigma^2$  by assuming  $\mu = 3.6$ 
and plot the posterior distribution.

tao = taoFunc(income) #Calculating tao value
n = length(income) #Defining number of data points
set.seed(12345)
chi_vals = rchisq(Ndraw,n) #Drawing 10000 random samples from chi-squared
distribution
sigmaSquared = sigmaSquaredFunc(chi_vals, tao, n) #Calculating approximation
for sigmaSquared

#Plotting the posterior distribution of sigma squared
plot(density(sigmaSquared))
```

```
#b) The most common measure of income inequality is the Gini coefficient,  $G$ ,
#where  $0 \leq G \leq 1$ .  $G = 0$  means a completely equal income distribution, whereas  $G = 1$  means complete
#income inequality (see e.g. Wikipedia for more information about the Gini
```

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```
coefficient).  
#It can be shown that  $G = 2\Phi(\sigma/\sqrt{2}) - 1$  when incomes follow a Log N ( $\mu, \sigma^2$ )  
distribution.  
# $\Phi(z)$  is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) for the standard normal  
distribution with mean zero  
#and unit variance. Use the posterior draws in a) to compute the posterior  
distribution of the Gini coefficient  $G$   
#for the current data set.
```

```
G = 2*pnorm(sigmaSquared/sqrt(2))-1 #Calculating gini values  
plot(density(G), main="Density distribution of Gini coefficient") #Density  
distribution of Gini values
```

```
#Centered around low values (~0.03) which shows equal distribution?
```

```
#c) Use the posterior draws from b) to compute a 95% equal tail credible  
interval for  $G$ .  
#A 95% equal tail credible interval (a,b) cuts off 2.5% percent of the post  
erior probability mass to the  
#left of a, and 2.5% to the right of b.
```

```
sorted_G = sort(G) #Sorting values in G  
min = length(G)*0.025 #Calculating lower bound  
max = length(G)*0.975 #Calculating upper bound  
filt_G = sorted_G[min:max] #Filtering out tails  
plot(density(G), main="Density distribution of 95% tail credible interval")  
abline(v=sorted_G[min]) #Lower end of credible interval  
abline(v=sorted_G[max]) #Upper end of credible interval  
plot(density(filt_G), main="Density distribution of 95% tail credible interval")  
#Plot with only values in credible interval
```

```
#d) Use the posterior draws from b) to compute a 95% Highest Posterior Den  
sity Interval (HPDI) for  $G$ .  
#Compare the two intervals in (c) and (d). [Hint: do a kernel density esti  
mate of the posterior of  $G$  using the  
#density function in R with default settings, and use that kernel density  
estimate to compute the HPDI.  
#Note that you need to order/sort the estimated density values to obtain t  
he HPDI.].
```

```
density_vals = density(G) #Using density function to load info for Gini co  
efficient's density  
df = data.frame(x=density_vals$x, y=density_vals$y) #Storing coordinates a  
nd indexes in a data frame  
df_ordered=df[order(df$y),] #Sorting the data frame in ascending order  
df_ordered$index=seq(1,length(density_vals$x),1) #Creating index to keep t
```

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```
rack of x & y coordinates from G's density
ind_to_remove = round(length(df$x)*0.05) #Calculating how many indexes to
remove to get the 95% HPDI

library(dplyr)

df_ordered_filt = df_ordered %>% slice(-c(1:ind_to_remove)) #Removing Lowe
st y values
df_ordered_final = df_ordered_filt[order(df_ordered_filt$x),] #Filtering i
n order of x values
plot(df_ordered_final$x, df_ordered_final$y, type="l") #Plotting result
```

Code assignment 3:

```
#Assignment 3

#This exercise is concerned with directional data. The point is to show yo
u that the posterior distribution
#for somewhat weird models can be obtained by plotting it over a grid of v
alues.
#The data points are observed wind directions at a given location on ten d
ifferent days.
#The data are recorded in degrees: (20, 314, 285, 40, 308, 314, 299, 296,
303, 326),
#where North is located at zero degrees (see Figure 1 on the next page, wh
ere the angles are measured clockwise).
#To fit with Wikipedia's description of probability distributions for circu
lar data we convert
#the data into radians  $-\pi \leq y \leq \pi$ . The 10 observations in
#radians are (-2.79, 2.33, 1.83, -2.44, 2.23, 2.33, 2.07, 2.02, 2.14, 2.54
).
#Assume that these data points conditional on  $(\mu, \kappa)$  are
#independent observations from the following von Mises distribution:

#where  $I_0(\kappa)$  is the modified Bessel function of the first kind of order zero
[see ?besselI in R].
#The parameter  $\mu$  ( $-\pi \leq \mu \leq \pi$ ) is the mean direction and  $\kappa > 0$  is called th
e concentration parameter.
#Large  $\kappa$  gives a small variance around  $\mu$ , and vice versa. Assume that  $\mu$  is
known to be 2.4. Let  $\kappa \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda = 0.5)$ 
#a priori, where  $\lambda$  is the rate parameter of the exponential distribution (
so that the mean is  $1/\lambda$ ).

###Starting assignment###

#a) Derive the expression for what the posterior  $p(\kappa|y, \mu)$  is proportional
to. Hence, derive the function  $f(\kappa)$  such
```

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```
#that  $p(\kappa|y, \mu) \propto f(\kappa)$ . Then, plot the posterior distribution of  $\kappa$  for the wind direction data over a fine grid of  $\kappa$  values. [Hint: you need to normalize the posterior distribution of  $\kappa$  so that it integrates to one.]
```

```
#Derive the posterior  $p(\kappa|y, my)$  is proportional to  $p(y|\kappa, my)*p(\kappa|my)$  is proportional to  $p(y|\kappa, my)*p(\kappa)$   
# $p(\kappa|my)$  is proportional to  $p(\kappa)$  since  $\kappa$  is independent of  $my$ 
```

```
#Data and known parameters  
degrees = c(-2.79, 2.33, 1.83, -2.44, 2.23, 2.33, 2.07, 2.02, 2.14, 2.54) #Directions in radians  
my = 2.4 #Given my value  
lambda = 0.5 #Given lambda value
```

```
#Function for von Mises distribution  
vonMises = function(kappa, y, my) {  
  likelihood = 1  
  for (data in y) {  
    likelihood = likelihood*exp(kappa*cos(data-my))/(2*pi*besselI(kappa,0))  
  }  
  return(likelihood)  
}
```

```
#Function for exponential distribution  
exponential = function(tetha, data) {  
  return(tetha*exp(-tetha*data))  
}
```

```
kappa = seq(0.1, 10, 0.1) #Kappa values to be used in distribution  
VMPProbs = rep(0, length(kappa)) #List to store probs from von Mises.  
expProbs = rep(0, length(kappa)) #List to store probs from exp. distr
```

```
#Loop to generate all probs from given distribution  
for(i in 1:length(kappa)) {  
  VMPProbs[i] = vonMises(kappa[i], degrees, my)  
  expProbs[i] = exponential(lambda, kappa[i])  
}
```

```
posterior = expProbs*VMPProbs #Calculating posterior  
postIntegral = sum(posterior*0.1) #Calculating the integral for the posterior  
normPosterior = posterior/postIntegral #Normalizing the posterior to integrate to 1  
plot(kappa, normPosterior, type="l", xlab="Kappa values", ylab="Likelihood") #Plotting the normalized posterior
```

```
#b) #Find the (approximate) posterior mode of  $\kappa$  from the information in a)
```

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#As seen in the plot, the approximate posterior mode for kappa is when kappa is between 2 & 4

#A good estimation judging by the graph seems to be around ~2.8