Nonparametric Bayes DRP Notes

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Day 1 - 2/6/25

Definition. Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be a sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with common CDF F. The **empirical distribution** function is defined as

$$\hat{F}^n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{X_i \le x}.$$

Theorem (Law of Large Numbers).

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \hat{F}^n(x) \to F(x)$$

with probability 1.

Theorem (Central Limit Theorem).

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{n} \hat{F}^n(x) \to N(F(x), F(x)(1 - F(x)))$$

with probability 1.

Theorem (Glivenko-Cantelli Theorem).

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \hat{F}^n \to F$$

uniformly with probability 1.

$$P(\sup_{x} |\hat{F}^{n}(x) - F(x)| \to 0) = 1.$$

What is Probability?

Bayesian probability is a measure of the plausibility of an event given incomplete knowledge. Frequentist probability is a measure of the frequency of an event in a large number of trials. Both approaches can be applied to statistics.

Statistics

One truth μ , along with random data.

- Frequentists exclusively base their conclusions on repeated sampling.
- What if you can't smaple the data repeatedly? What is the probability that a team wins the Super Bowl in a given year?
- Bayesian argument the level of belief in an event.
- In statistics, we have our observations X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n which are fixed, and we repeatedly update μ .
- To summarize, frequentists view the data is random and the truth is fixed, Bayesians fix the data while the truth is random.

Our framework is as follows:

$$\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n \sim p(\theta) = p(x|\theta)$$

where our prior distribution is $p(\theta)$ and our likelihood function is $p(x|\theta)$. The posterior distribution is

$$p(\theta|x) \propto \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta)}{\int p(x|\theta)p(\theta) d\theta}.$$

If θ is a function, what is $p(\theta)$? If you can compute it, how do you compute $\int p(x|\theta)p(\theta) d\theta$?

Overview

- Theory

- 1. Exchangeability Our data is drawn from a conditional distribution, so we are really assuming that it is conditionally independent. $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are technically dependent! Di Finetti Theorem Conditionally iid \iff exchangeability.
- 2. Frequentist guarantees If we take the limit $n \to \infty$, we want to approach the truth. We can't know everything, so we need to know how close we are to the truth, even if the proof of this is finnicky.

- Computation

- 1. Conjugacy We can get around the integral $\int p(x|\theta)p(\theta) d\theta$ by choosing a prior that is conjugate to the likelihood function, which will save us from having to compute the integral analytically.
- 2. MCMC Markov Chain Monte Carlo We can sample from the posterior distribution using MCMC methods.

Day 2 - 2/13/25

We study single-parameter models. There are four models which we will consider: binomial, normal, Poisson, and exponential.

1. Binomial

We aim to estimate the population proportion from a sequence of Bernoulli trials (each data $y_1, \ldots, y_n \in \{0, 1\}$). Order does not matter (i.e. the data is **exchangeable**), so the model is defined by

$$p(y|\theta) = \text{Bin}(y|n,\theta) = \binom{n}{y} \theta^y (1-\theta)^{n-y}$$

where θ is the probability of success, n is the number of trials, and y is the number of successes $(y \le n)$.

Example (Probability of Female Birth). We define θ to be the proportion of female births. Hence, $1 - \theta$ is the proportion of male births. Let y be the number of female births among n recorded births.

We need a prior distribution for θ . For our purposes, $p(\theta) \sim \text{Unif}([0,1])$.

From this, through Bayes' Law and removing constant terms w.r.t. the parameter, we obtain the posterior distribution

$$p(\theta|y) \propto \theta^y (1-\theta)^{n-y}$$
.

However, in the case of a binomial distribution with uniform prior, we may explicitly calculate p(y).

Once we have calculated the posterior, in order to make predictions under the above conditions,

we have

$$\mathbb{P}(y_{n+1} = 1|y) = \int_0^1 \mathbb{P}(y_{n+1} = 1|\theta, y) p(\theta|y) d\theta$$
$$= \int_0^1 \theta \cdot p(\theta|y) d\theta$$
$$= \mathbb{E}(\theta|y)$$

The posterior incorporates information from the data, so it will be less variable than the prior. We formalize as the Tower Property:

$$\mathbb{E}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(\theta|y))$$

and

$$Var(\theta) = \mathbb{E}(Var(\theta|y)) + Var(\mathbb{E}(\theta|y)).$$

How might we interpret the prior distribution? How might we select it?

- Population interpretation the prior is a population of possible parameter values, from which the current was selected.
- State of knowledge interpretation the prior distribution represents our knowledge about the parameter. A greater variance means that we know more about the underlying distribution.

A prior distribution that is of the same form as the posterior is called **conjugate**.

Day 3 - 2/20/25

The key will always be

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}.$$

For today, we will be using

$$p(h|D) = \frac{p(D|h)p(h)}{p(D)}.$$

The prior represents our information about our posterior. In many cases, the prior is uniform, which means

$$p(h|D) \propto p(D|h)$$
.

The *probability* of an event is

$$\int_{x-\delta}^{x+\delta} f(y) \, dy,$$

while the *likelihood* is just f(x).

The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) is, given $(X_n)_{i=1}^N \sim p(\cdot|\theta)$, is the parameter

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(X_i | \theta)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \lim_{\delta \to 0} \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(Y \in X_i \pm \delta)}{\delta}$$

where $Y \sim p(\cdot, \theta)$. The steps are:

- -1. Determine the model $p(\cdot, \theta)$. We are picking a class of function, for which θ is a parameter.
- 0. Generate $(X_i)_{i=1}^N$ from our model.
- 1. For each $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, compute the likelihood of seeing $(X_i)_{i=1}^N$ using

$$\mathcal{L}(X,\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(X_i|\theta).$$

2. Choose the θ that maximizes \mathcal{L} .

The maximal a posteriori (MAP) estimator is the same, but we maximize the posterior distribution instead of the likelihood function:

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(\theta|D).$$

As we increase the amount of data we have to ∞ , the MAP estimator converges to the MLE. Intuitively, the posterior is proportional to the likelihood, and with more data, the likelihood term dominates the prior.

Example. Let N_1 be the number of heads, and N be the total number of tosses. Let a, b be hyperparameters. Then

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in [0,1]} \frac{\theta^{N_1 + a - 1} (1 - \theta)^{N - N_1 + b - 1}}{p(D)}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in [0,1]} (N_1 + a - 1) \log(\theta) + (N - N_1 + b - 1) \log(1 - \theta)$$

We set

$$\frac{\partial g(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0.$$

$$0 = \frac{N_1 + a - 1}{\theta} - \frac{N - N_1 + b - 1}{1 - \theta}$$

$$= (1 - \theta)(N_1 + a - 1) - \theta(N - N_1 + b - 1)$$

$$\theta(N + a + b - 2) = N_1 + a - 1$$

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \frac{N_1 + a - 1}{N + a + b - 2}.$$

We may also derive the MLE:

$$\hat{\theta}_{MLE} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in [0,1]} \theta^{N_1} (1 - \theta)^{N - N_1}$$

= $\operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in [0,1]} (N_1) \log(\theta) + (N - N_1) \log(1 - \theta)$

We set

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0.$$

We get

$$0 = \frac{N_1}{\theta} - \frac{N - N_1}{1 - \theta}$$

$$= (1 - \theta)N_1 - \theta(N - N_1)$$

$$\theta(N - N_1) = (1 - \theta)N_1$$

$$\theta(N) = N_1$$

$$\hat{\theta}_{MLE} = \frac{N_1}{N}.$$

Day 4 - 2/27/25

Dirichlet Multinomial Model

Goal: generalize the Beta Binomial model

Recall the Beta-Binomial model:

$$\begin{split} \theta &\sim \text{Beta}(\alpha,\beta) \\ X_i &\sim^{i.i.d.} \text{Binomial}(\theta) \, \forall \, i \in \{1:N\} \end{split}$$

Generative models, by the traditional definition, are a model for how the data is generated. For Beta-Binomial, we go top-down. We generate a θ drawn from our prior, and then generate X_i from the likelihood.

We can talk about the joint distribution,

$$p(\theta, (X_n)_{i=0}^N) = p_{\text{Beta}}(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^N \theta^{\mathbb{1}_{x_i=1}} (1-\theta)^{\mathbb{1}_{x_i=0}}.$$

We find the conditional distribution given the data from this.

For the Dirichlet-Multinomial model, we have, for $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k) \in \mathbb{R}_+^k$, we have

$$\theta = (\theta)_{i=1}^k \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha)$$
$$X_i \sim^{i.i.d.} \text{Cat}(\theta) \, \forall \, i \in \{1:N\}$$

where

$$Dirichlet(\alpha) \propto \prod_{c=1}^{k} \theta_c^{\alpha_c - 1}$$

and

$$Cat(\theta) = \begin{cases} x_i = c & \text{with prob. } \theta_c \text{ where } c \in \{1 : K\} \end{cases}$$

We demand $\sum_{c=1}^{k} \theta_c = 1$. We call the

$$S_k = \left\{ \theta \in \mathbb{R}^k_+ : \sum_{c=1}^k \theta_c = 1 \right\}$$

the k-dimensional simplex. Every point on the simplex is a probability distribution.

Then, the Dirichlet distribution is a distribution over distributions, since it is a distribution over the simplex.

Example. The Dirichlet distribution, for k = 2, is

$$\begin{aligned} p_{\mathrm{Dir}(\alpha,\beta)} &\propto \theta_1^{\alpha-1} \theta_2^{\beta-1} \\ &= \theta_1^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta_2)^{\beta-1} \\ &\propto p_{\mathrm{Beta}(\alpha,\beta)}(\theta_1) \end{aligned}$$

Then, altogether, the posterior is

$$p(\theta|D) \propto p(\theta)p(D|\theta)$$

$$\propto \prod_{c=1}^{k} \theta_c^{\alpha_c - 1} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(X_i|\theta)$$

$$= \prod_{c=1}^{k} \theta_c^{\alpha_c - 1} \prod_{i=1}^{N} \theta_c^{\mathbb{I}_{x_i = c}} \quad \text{over all } c$$

$$= \prod_{c=1}^{k} \theta_c^{\alpha_c + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}_{x_i = c} - 1}$$

$$= \text{Dirichlet} \left((\alpha_c + \text{num of } c\text{'s})_{c=1}^k \right)$$

$$= \text{Dirichlet} \left(\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}_{x_i = c} \right)$$

Now, we seek to find

$$\begin{split} \hat{\theta}_{MAP} &= \arg\max_{\theta} p(\theta|D) \\ &\propto \arg\max_{\theta} \prod_{c=1}^{k} \theta_{c}^{\alpha_{c}-1+\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_{i}=c}} \\ &= \arg\max_{\theta} \sum_{c=1}^{k} \left(\alpha_{c}-1+\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_{i}=c}\right) \log(\theta_{c}) \qquad \left(\text{with constraint } \sum_{c=1}^{k} \theta_{c}=1\right). \end{split}$$

We use Lagrange multipliers:

$$L(\theta, \lambda) = \sum_{c=1}^{k} \left(\alpha_c - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_i = c}\right) \log(\theta_c) + \lambda \left(1 - \sum_{c=1}^{k} \theta_c\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial L(\theta, \lambda)}{\partial \theta_c} = \frac{\alpha_c - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_i = c}}{\theta_c} - \lambda = 0$$

$$\theta_c = 0 = \frac{\alpha_c - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_i = c}}{\lambda}$$

$$\sum_{c=1}^{k} \theta_c 1 = \sum_{c=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha_c - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_i = c}}{\lambda}$$

$$\lambda = \sum_{c=1}^{k} \left(\alpha_c - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_i = c}\right)$$

$$\theta_c^{\text{MAP}} = \frac{\alpha_c - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_i = c}}{\sum_{\gamma=1}^{k} \left(\alpha_{\gamma} - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{x_i = \gamma}\right)}.$$

Example. A lifetime X of a machine is modeled by an exponential distribution with unknown parameter θ . The likelihood is

$$p(x|\theta) = \theta e^{-\theta x}$$
 for $x \ge 0, \theta > 0$.

- (a) Show that the MLE is $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{\bar{x}}$, where $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$.
- (b) Suppose we observe $X_1 = 5, X_2 = 6, X_3 = 4$ (the lifetimes (in years) of 3 different iid machines). What is the MLE given this data?
- (c) Assume that an expert believes θ should have a prior distribution that is also exponential

$$p(\theta) = \operatorname{Exp}(\theta|\lambda)$$

Choose the prior parameter, call it $\hat{\lambda}$, such that $\mathbb{E}[\theta] = 1/3$. Hint: recall that the Gamma distribution has the form

$$Ga(\theta|a,b) \propto \theta^{a-1}e^{-\theta b}$$

and its mean is a/b.

- (d) What is the posterior, $p(\theta|\mathcal{D}, \hat{\lambda})$?
- (e) Is the exponential prior conjugate to the exponential likelihood?
- (f) What is the posterior mean, $\mathbb{E}\left[\theta|\mathcal{D},\hat{\lambda}\right]$?
- (g) Explain why the MLE and posterior mean differ. Which is more reasonable in this example?
- (a) *Proof.* Since

$$p(x|\theta) = \theta e^{-\theta x},$$

we have

$$\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i | \theta)$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^{N} \theta e^{-\theta x_i}$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log(\theta) - \theta x_i \log e$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} N \log(\theta) - \theta \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i.$$

Setting the derivative to zero, we find

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} N \log(\theta) - \theta \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i = \frac{N}{\theta} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$
$$\frac{n}{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$
$$\theta = \frac{N}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i}$$
$$\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{\bar{x}}.$$

(b) Solution.

Naive Bayes Classifier

We are trying to predict the labels y given data \mathbf{x} .

Example (Spam filtering). Let \mathcal{X} be the symbols you can type. Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ where d is the length of the email. Let $y \in \{0,1\}$ where 1 indicates spam.

Goal: Given $D = \{(\mathbf{x}^i, y^i)\}_{i=1}^N$, we want to predict y^{N+1} given \mathbf{x}^{N+1} . In statistical terms, this is $p(y^{N+1}|D,\mathbf{x}^{N+1})$

We invoke Naive Bayes. Let

$$\pi \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$$

$$y \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi)$$

$$\mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{x}|y)$$

$$\approx \prod_{i=1}^{d} p(x_i|y, \theta) \qquad \text{(where } \theta \text{ is a hyperparameter)}$$
where $x_i \sim \text{Cat}(\theta|y)$

$$\theta \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\eta)$$

Day 5 - 3/6/25

Naive Bayes Classifier (Cont.)

Naive Bayes is a generative model. We would like to know how the data is generated.

Again, we have
$$D = {\mathbf{x}^i, y^i}_{i=1}^N$$
, where each $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_D)$ and $y \in {1, \dots, C}$.

We have that $y \sim \text{Dir}(\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_C))$ where the Dirichlet distribution is $\text{Dir}(\pi \in S_d) \propto \prod_{i=1}^d \theta_i^{\pi_i-1} \propto p(\theta)$ where S_d is the d-dimensional simplex and θ is a point on the simplex.

The parameter of our frequentist model is

$$\theta = \{\pi \in S_D, (\theta_{jc})\}\$$

where

$$y \sim \pi$$

$$x_{j}|y = c \sim p(x; \theta_{jc}) \,\forall \, j \in \{1 : D\}, \,\forall \, c \in \{1 : C\} \quad \text{(Condition on both feature and label)}$$

$$*p(x, y = c; \theta) = \pi_{c} \prod_{j=1}^{D} p(x_{j}; \theta_{jc}) \quad \text{(Joint distribution)}$$

Given some data D as defined above, we can guess the parameters (assuming Bernoulli):

$$\begin{split} \hat{\pi}_c &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbbm{1}_{y^i=c}}{N} & \frac{\text{Num of class } c\text{'s in } D}{N} \\ \hat{\theta}_{jc} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbbm{1}_{y^i=c} \mathbbm{1}_{x^i_j=1}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbbm{1}_{y^i=c}} & \frac{\text{Num of yeses in the } j\text{th feature } D \text{ of class } c}{\text{Num of } j\text{th features in class } c} \text{ if } p(x_j; \theta_{jc}) = \text{Ber}(\theta_{jc}) \end{split}$$

Here, we assumed some god-given parameters, and we want to choose estimators that are asymptotically close to the true parameters.

For the *Bayesian* model, we have hyperparameter

$$H = \{ \alpha \in S_C, \beta_{jc}^1, \beta_{jc}^2 \}$$

where

$$\pi \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha)$$

$$y \sim \pi$$

$$\theta_{jc} \sim \text{Beta}(\beta_{jc}^{1}, \beta_{jc}^{2}) \,\forall j \in \{1 : D\}, \,\forall c \in \{1 : C\}$$

$$x_{j}|y = c \sim \text{Ber}(\theta_{jc})$$

$$*p(x, y = c|\pi, \theta) = \pi_{c} \prod_{j=1}^{D} p(x_{j}|\theta_{jc}) = \pi_{c} \prod_{j=1}^{D} \theta_{jc}^{\mathbb{I}_{x_{j}=1}} (1 - \theta_{jc})^{\mathbb{I}_{x_{j}=0}}$$

Our MAP estimator is then

$$p(\pi|D)$$
 (posterior on π)
 $p(\theta_{jc}|D)$ (posterior on θ_{jc})
 $p(y=c|\mathbf{x},D) \propto p(x|y,D)p(y|D)dx$ (posterior predictive)

Day 6 - 3/13/25

Latent Variable Models

In these models, we have a discrete latent state,

$$z_i \in \{1, \ldots, K\}.$$

We can use a discrete prior, say $p(z_i) = \operatorname{Cat}(\pi)$. For the likelihood, we can use

$$p(x_i|z_i=k)=p_k(x_i),$$

where p_k is the base distribution for some k. This is the mixture model, given as

$$p(x_i|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k p_k(x_i|\theta).$$

Then, π can be thought of as a set of weights that normalize the sum $\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k(x|\theta)$.

Now, Gaussian mixture models are models in which each $p_k(x_i|\theta) = \mathcal{N}(x_i|\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$.

We also have Multinomial mixture models, given by

$$p(x_i|z_i = k, \theta) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \text{Ber}(x_{ij}|\mu_{jk}) = \prod_{j=1}^{D} \mu_{jk}^{x_{ij}} (1 - \mu_{jk})^{1 - x_{ij}}.$$

Clustering

We would like to use mixture models to cluster data. We would like to find which cluster is "responsible" for each data point. That is,

$$r_{ik} = p(z_i = k | x_i, \theta) = \frac{p(z_i = k | \theta) p(x_i | z_i = k, \theta)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} p(z_i = k | \theta) p(x_i | z_i = k, \theta)}.$$

Note: Finding the correct K is reserved for nonparametric Bayes, for now we say that it is God-given.

We solve this by the **Expectation-Maximization** algorithm. We start with some θ , and then we iterate:

- 1. **E-step:** We compute r_{ik} for all i, k.
- 2. M-step: We update θ by maximizing the likelihood given the r_{ik} values.

Intuitively, the E-step is computing which mean is the best for each datum, and the M-step is updating the means to be the best for the data.

Remark 0.1. As an aside, the data is generated as such:

$$\pi \sim \mathrm{Dir}(\alpha)$$
 $z_i \sim \mathrm{Cat}(\pi)$
 $(\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \sim \mathrm{Conjugate\ of\ Normal}$
 $x_i | z_i = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

How do we actually sample from the posterior? We use MCMC methods.

Let S denote the state space. Let $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be a Markov chain with transition kernel P. That is, it satisfies

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | X_n, \dots, X_1) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | X_n) = P_{X_n, j}.$$

Theorem. If $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is aperiodic and irreducible, then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(X \in A \subseteq \mathcal{S}) = \pi(A)$$

where
$$A = \{x_i : i = 1, ..., m\}$$
 and $\pi(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \pi(i)$.

The goal of MCMC is, given some π , can we construct a Markov Chain $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ such that π is the stationary distribution of the chain?

The answer is yes, under minimal technical conditions.

Day 7 - 3/20/25

Markov Chains

Let Ω be some finite set. Then $X = \{X_t\}_{t=1}^{\infty}$ is a Markov chain if

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = x_{t+1} | X_t = x_t, \dots, X_1 = x_1) = \mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = x_{t+1} | X_n = x_n).$$

We call a probability distribution $\pi \in P(\Omega)$ is a stationary distribution if

$$X_0 \sim \pi \implies X_1 \sim \pi.$$

That is,

$$\mathbb{P}(X_0 = i) = \pi(i) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = i) = \sum_{j \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(X_1 = i | X_0 = j) \mathbb{P}(X_0 = j)$$
$$= \sum_{j \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(X_1 = i | X_0 = j) \pi(j).$$

Question: (Existence) When does X have a stationary distribution?

Question: (Convergence) When does $X_t \to \pi$ in distribution? That is, when does $\lim_{t\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(X_t = i) = \pi(i)$.

Answer: (Existence) If X is positive recurrent, i.e. for

$$\tau_i = \inf\{t > 0 : X_t \text{ returns to } i\}$$

then

$$\mathbb{E}[\tau_i] < \infty \,\forall \, i.$$

That is, the expected time to return is finite.

Answer: (Convergence)

Time Reversal

Proposition. Time-reversed Markov chains are Markovian. That is, if X is a Markov chain, then

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t-1} = i | X_t, X_{t+1}, \dots, X_T) = \mathbb{P}(X_{t-1} = i | X_t).$$

Proof.

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t-1} = i | X_t, X_{t+1}, \dots, X_T) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_t = x_t, \dots, X_T = x_T | X_{t-1} = i) \mathbb{P}(X_{t-1} = i)}{\sum_{y \in \Omega}}$$

$$Exercise.$$

If $X_0 \sim \pi$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(X_0 = i | X_1 = j) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(x_1 = j | X_0 = i) \mathbb{P}(X_0 = i)}{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = j)}$$
$$= \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = j | X_0 = i) \pi(i)}{\pi(j)}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_0 = i | X_1 = j)\pi(j) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = j | X_0 = i)\pi(i).$$

Let us say that $\mathbb{P}(X_0 = i | X_1 = j) = p_{ji}^{\leftarrow}$ and $\mathbb{P}(X_1 = j | X_0 = i) = p_{ij}^{\rightarrow}$. Then, we have

$$\pi(j)p_{ii}^{\leftarrow} = \pi(i)p_{ij}^{\rightarrow}.$$

If we demand that $p^{\rightarrow} = p^{\leftarrow}$, then we have a condition called *detailed balance* which is that

$$\pi(j)p_{ji} = \pi(i)p_{ij}.$$

Gibbs Sampling

Previously we were given a Markov chain and we wanted to find the stationary distribution. Now, we are given a stationary distribution and we wish to find a Markov chain X such that $X_t \to \pi$.

Let a graph G=(V,E), with \mathcal{S} as the set of states each vertex can take. Let $\Omega=\mathcal{S}^V$ be the total set of states the system can be in. Let

$$x_{-v} = (x_1, \dots, x_{v-1}, v_{v+1}, \dots, x_{|V})$$

Definition. Given $\pi \in P(\Omega)$, define X to be:

Algorithm 1 Glauber Dynamics

$$X_t = x \in \Omega$$

Sample
$$v \sim \text{Unif}\{1, 2, \dots, |V|\}$$

Sample
$$X_{t+1} \sim \gamma_{x,v}$$
 where $\gamma_{x,v}(y) = \pi(y|y_{-v} = x_{-v}) = \pi(y_v|y_{-v} = x_{-v}) = \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x_{-v})}$

Example (Sampling from a Gaussian). Let $\pi(x) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$ where $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. Say that $\mathcal{S} = \mathbb{R}$, and G is a complete graph. Then

- 1. $X_0 = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$.
- 2. Pick i from 1:d uniformly.
- 3. Let $Z \sim \mathbb{N}(0, \Sigma)$ Call $X_t = x$.

$$y \sim \mathbb{P}(Z_i = y | Z_{-i} = x_{-i}).$$

(This is sampling from a univariate distribution which we can do by the Inverse CDF method)

- 4. $X_t = (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, y, x_{x+1}, \dots, x_d)$
- 5. $\lim_{t\to\infty} X_t = \pi$.

Implement 24.2.3.