# **BML: MCMC**

http://github.com/rbardenet/bml-course

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What comes to your mind when you hear "Monte Carlo"?

# **Expected utility requires computing integrals**

## Minimizing the posterior expected loss

If  $A = \{a_g\}$  and we partition  $s = (s_{obs}, s_u)$ , then, given  $s_{obs}$ , we choose

$$g^{\star}(s_{\mathrm{obs}}) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{g \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{E}_{s_{\mathrm{u}}|s_{\mathrm{obs}}} L(a, s).$$

### The bottleneck is computing integrals w.r.t. the posterior

► E.g. for binary prediction with 0-1 loss

$$y^* \in \operatorname*{arg\;max}_{y \in \{0,1\}} \int p(y|x, heta) p( heta|x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) \mathrm{d} heta$$

or for estimation with squared loss

$$\theta^* = \int \theta p(\theta|y_{1:n}) d\theta.$$

# **Numerical integration**

Let  $\pi$  be a pdf w.r.t.  $d\theta$ .

# The problem of numerical integration

Find T nodes  $(\theta_t)$  and weights  $(w_t)$  so that

$$\int f(\theta)\pi(\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta \quad pprox \quad \sum_{t=1}^N w_t f(\theta_t), \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{C},$$

where C is a large class of functions.

### A constraint for Bayesians: $\pi$ is only known up to a constant

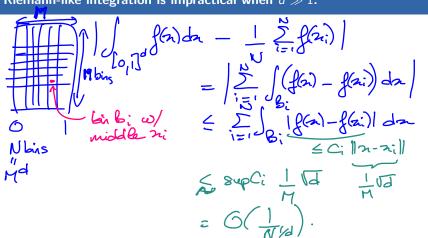
E.g. in estimation,

$$\pi(\theta) = p(\theta|y_{1:n}) \propto p(y_{1:n}|\theta)p(\theta) =: \pi_u(\theta).$$

Or in classification/regression,

$$\pi(\theta) = p(\theta|x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) \propto p(y_{1:n}|x_{1:n}, \theta)p(\theta) =: \pi_u(\theta).$$

Riemann-like integration is impractical when  $d \gg 1$ .



For modern developments, see quasi-Monte Carlo integration (Dick and Pilichshammer, 2010).

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#### The Monte Carlo principle

Find a distribution on  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_T$  and weights  $w_t$  such that

$$\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(f) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} w_t f(\theta_t) - \int f(\theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta$$

is small (with large probability, in quadratic mean, converges in law at some rate, etc.)

If you knew how to sample from  $\pi$ , you could take  $\theta_t \sim \pi$  i.i.d.,  $w_t = 1/T$ , and prove e.g.

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(f) \geqslant \alpha \frac{\sigma(f)}{\sqrt{T}}\right) \leqslant \frac{1}{\alpha^2}, \quad \forall \alpha,$$

as soon as  $\sigma(f)^2 := \mathbb{V}_{\pi}[f(\theta) - \int f(\theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta] < +\infty$ .

# Self-normalized importance sampling

- Let  $\pi_u(\theta) = Z\pi(\theta)$  be the unnormalized target pdf.
- ► Sample  $\theta_{1:T}$  i.i.d. from q, and take

$$w_t = \frac{\pi_u(\theta_t)}{q(\theta_t)} \times \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{\pi_u(\theta_t)}{q(\theta_t)}\right)^{-1}$$

so that  $\sum w_t = 1$ .

► Then

- ▶ One can show that  $\sqrt{T}\mathcal{E}_T(f) \to \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{NIS}^2(f))$ .
- ▶ Problem is that for reasonable choices of  $f, q, \pi, \log \sigma_{NIS}(f) \propto d$ .

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# (Mostly) friendly faces



**Figure:** A few MCMC pioneers: N. Metropolis, S. Ulam, A. Rosenbluth, W. K. Hastings

# Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC; (Robert and Casella, 2004))

► The idea is to take  $(\theta_t)$  to be an ergodic Markov chain with limiting distribution  $\pi$ , so that for  $f \in L^1(\pi)$ ,

In MCMC research, when a new Markov kernel comes out, we typically first prove a law of large numbers, and then a central limit theorem, i.e., that under weak conditions on  $\pi$  and f,

and that  $\sigma^2(f)$  can be estimated; see (Douc, Moulines, and Stoffer, 2014).

## A law of large numbers for Markov chains

Let  $(\theta_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a Markov chain on  $\Theta$ , with Markov kernel P. If

▶ There exists  $\pi$  s.t.

$$\int \mathrm{d}\pi(\theta) P(\theta,B) = \pi(B).$$

▶ For any A with  $\pi(A) > 0$ , for any  $\theta \in \Theta$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}_{\theta}\left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} 1_{\theta_t \in A} = +\infty\right) = 1,$$

then for any f such that  $\int |f| \mathrm{d}\pi < \infty$ , for any initial distribution  $\mu_0$  of  $\theta_0$ , almost surely

$$rac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^T f( heta_t) o \int f \mathrm{d}\pi.$$

See e.g. (Douc, Moulines, and Stoffer, 2014).

# The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

```
\mathrm{MH}(\pi_{\mathbf{u}}, q(\cdot|\cdot), \theta_0, T)
                      for t \leftarrow 1 to T
                                     \theta \leftarrow \theta_{t-1}
                                    \theta' \sim q(.|\theta), \ u \sim \mathcal{U}_{(0,1)},
                                  \alpha = 1 \wedge \frac{\pi(\theta')}{\pi(\theta)} \frac{q(\theta|\theta')}{q(\theta'|\theta)}.
     5
                               if u < \alpha,
     6
                                                  \theta_t \leftarrow \theta' \qquad \triangleright Accept
                                     else \theta_t \leftarrow \theta \triangleright Reject
                        return (\theta_t)_{t=1,...,N_{\text{iter}}}
```

#### The MH Markov kernel...

... is given by

$$P_{\mathsf{MH}}( heta, heta') = rac{lpha( heta, heta')q( heta'| heta)}{q( heta')|} + \delta_{ heta}( heta') \left[1-\int rac{lpha( heta,artheta)q(artheta| heta)}{q(artheta)|}
ight] \mathrm{d}artheta,$$

where

$$lpha( heta, heta') = 1 \wedge rac{\pi( heta')}{\pi( heta)} rac{q( heta| heta')}{q( heta'| heta)}.$$

#### MH leaves $\pi$ invariant and satisfies the LLN

- ▶ We first show detailed balance, i.e.,  $\pi(\theta)P(\theta, \theta') = \pi(\theta')P(\theta', \theta)$ .
- We deduce that P leaves  $\pi$  invariant.

## Theorem (Robert and Casella, 2004)

If  $\pi(A) > 0 \Rightarrow (\forall x) q(A|x) > 0$ , then  $P_{\text{MH}}$  satisfies the LLN.

### Some additional useful properties

▶ Note that if  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  leave  $\pi$  invariant, then so does

$$P_1P_2(\theta,\theta') = \int P_1(\theta,\vartheta)P_2(\vartheta,\theta')\mathrm{d}\vartheta.$$

► The MH error scales polynomially with the dimension; see blog post.

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# The random scan Gibbs sampler

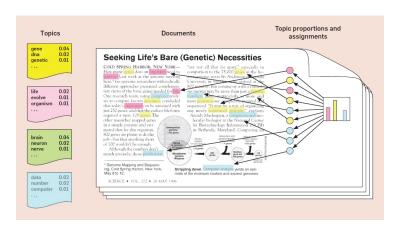
Consider MH with

$$q(\theta'|\theta) = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{k=1}^{d} \pi(\theta'_{k}|\theta_{\setminus k}) 1_{\theta'_{\setminus k} = \theta_{\setminus k}}, \quad \theta_{\setminus k} := (\theta_{1}, \dots, \theta_{k-1}, \theta_{k+1}, \dots, \theta_{d}).$$

▶ Then the probability of acceptance  $\alpha(\theta, \theta')$  is always 1.

- In practice, the systematic scan Gibbs sampler is more common, which consists in repeatedly: drawing  $\theta_1|\theta_{\backslash 1}$ , then  $\theta_2|\theta_{\backslash 2}$ , etc. always conditioning on the newest values available of each  $\theta_k$ .
- ▶ You can also partition  $\theta$  in arbitrary blocks.

#### An example: Latent Dirichlet allocation



# A Gibbs sampler for LDA 1/2

# A Gibbs sampler for LDA 2/2

# Collapsed Gibbs sampling for LDA

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#### An abstract variant of MH

▶ Let S be a linear involution of  $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ , such that  $\eta \circ S = \eta$  for some (possibly unnormalized) PDF  $\eta$ .

- Let further  $\Phi: \mathbb{R}^{2d} \to \mathbb{R}^{2d}$  be a  $C^1$ -diffeomorphism such that  $S \circ \Phi = \Phi^{-1} \circ S$ .
- Now let

$$\alpha(x) \triangleq 1 \wedge \frac{\eta(\Phi(x))}{\eta(x)} |\Phi'(x)|, \tag{1}$$

and consider the Markov kernel

$$P_{\mathsf{aHMC}}(x,A) = \alpha(x) 1_{\Phi(x) \in A} + (1 - \alpha(x)) 1_{S(x) \in A}.$$

# **Proposition**

 $P_{aHMC}$  leaves  $\eta$  invariant.

# Hamiltonian dynamics is the source of inspiration

# Hamilton's equations of motion

Consider a physical system described by Hamiltonian H(q, p) in phase space  $(q, p) \in \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ . Then the trajectories are prescribed by

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \qquad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}.$$
 (2)

- ▶ Given an initial point (q, p), solve (2) and denote the corresponding position in  $\mathbb{R}^{2d}$  at time t > 0 by  $\Phi_t(q, p)$ .
- ▶ (2) implies that  $t \mapsto H(\Phi_t(q, p))$  is constant.
- As an example, consider  $H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2}q^2 + \frac{1}{2}p^2$ .

# Numerical approximations of the Hamiltonian flow

- One idea would be to put some monotone function of the target in the Hamiltonian, such as  $H(q, p) = -\log \pi(q) + \frac{1}{2}p^T Mp$ .
- We know approximations of the Hamiltonian flow, such as the leapfrog (aka velocity Verlet) integrator. It is defined as  $\psi_h^n = \psi_h \circ \dots \psi_h$ , where  $(p', q') = \psi_h(p, q)$  is

$$egin{aligned} 
ho_{1/2} &= 
ho + rac{h}{2} 
abla \log \pi(q) \ q' &= q + h M^{-1} 
ho_{1/2} \ p' &= 
ho_{1/2} + rac{h}{2} 
abla \log \pi(q'); \end{aligned}$$

# **Proposition**

The leapfrog integrator satisfies  $S \circ \psi_h^n = (\psi_h^n)^{-1} \circ S$  for S(q,p) = (q,-p), and  $|\det(\psi_h^n)'(q,p)| = 1$ .

# Hamiltonian Monte Carlo mimics a physical system

- Let  $\log \widetilde{\pi}(q, p) = \log \pi(q) + \frac{1}{2} p^T M(q) p$ .
- Consider the Markov kernel P((q,p),(q',p')) given by the product of  $p' \sim \mathcal{N}(0,M(q)^{-1})$

and

$$P_{aHMC}(x, A) = \alpha(x) 1_{\psi_h^n(x) \in A} + (1 - \alpha(x)) 1_{S(x) \in A}, \text{ where } x = (p, q).$$

where

$$\alpha(x) \triangleq 1 \wedge \frac{\widetilde{\pi}(\psi_h^n(x))}{\widetilde{\pi}(x)} | (\psi_h^n)'(x) ) |, \tag{3}$$

Then P leaves  $\pi$  invariant.

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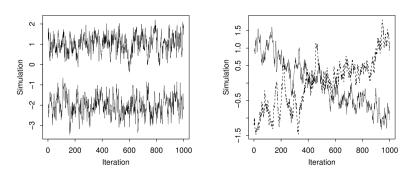


Figure: Taken from (Gelman et al., 2013)

We need to monitor both cross-chain and within-chain behavior.

# **Comparing** *P* **chains with overdispersed starting points**

- ▶ The behaviour of the *P* traces should become similar.
- Always make visual sanity checks!
- Scalar estimates should converge to the same value.
- We can also compare the variance of a scalar estimate within- and across chains

## The Gelman-Rubin diagnostic

- ▶ Choose an f of interest, e.g.  $f(\theta) = \theta_1$ .
- ► Compute  $W := \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=1}^{P} \left[ \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\bar{f}_{tp} \bar{f}_{\cdot p})^2 \right]$ .
- ► Then check whether

$$\hat{R} = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{T-1}{T}W + \frac{1}{T}B}{W}} \in [1, 1.1].$$

► See (Vats and Knudson, 2021) for an insightful discussion.

# More convergence diagnostics

## Single-chain diagnostics

- ▶ The idea is to compare different chunks of a single chain.
- ▶ At stationarity, large chunks should be statistically indistinguishable.
- ► The Geweke diagnostic tests this similarity (Geweke, 1992)

# Effective sample size

- Autocorrelation in each chain is what increases the variance of scalar estimands, compared to i.i.d. draws from  $\pi$ .
- ▶ We can estimate this autocorrelation, and build an estimator for PT times the ratio of the two variances  $\widehat{ESS} \in [1, PT]$ , called, the *effective sample size*; see Section 11.5 of (Gelman et al., 2013).
- ▶ Vats and Knudson, 2021 note that

$$\hat{R} \approx \sqrt{1 + P/\widehat{ESS}},$$

so  $\hat{R}=1.1$  only corresponds to  $\widehat{\textit{ESS}}=5P$  .

#### Take-home message

- MCMC approximates the integrals in the expected utility framework.
- ► Try to leverage the problem's structure to design your kernels.
- Otherwise, try standard kernels like HMC.
- Always monitor convergence.
- HMC with NUTS is the default choice in most probabilistic programming frameworks.
- MCMC is a rich research topic. Some keywords: Wang-Landau Langevin, equi-energy, hit-and-run, bouncy particle sampler.
- Besides Markov chains, checkout sequential Monte Carlo samplers (Del Moral, Doucet, and Jasra, 2006).
- Deterministic methods are also investigated: quasi-Monte Carlo methods (Dick and Pilichshammer, 2010) have the best convergence rates as soon as the integrand is smooth.

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