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4M24 CW - High-Dimensional MCMC

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Abstract

This report outlines the result of the 4M24 coursework on high-dimensional Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC).

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1 Introduction

2 Simulation

a Sampling from a Gaussian Process

We begin with a Gaussian Process (GP) defined on a 2D domain $\mathbf{x} \in [0,1]^2$. The realisations from this process are denoted $\mathbf{u} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,C)$ where $C_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j)$ and k is the Squared Exponential (SE) covariance function with length parameter l:

$$k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}'||^2}{2l^2}\right) \tag{1}$$

If we specify the latent variables $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$, then we can compute C and hence fully specify the prior on u. We choose to place $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$ on a $D \times D$ grid with equal spacing, starting at (0,0) and ending at (1,1). Obviously, we require $N=D^2$.

We can now plot the *u*-surface atop this grid by ensuring that for each $i \in \{1...N\}$, u_i denotes the Z-position and x_i the X-Y-position. We can then investigate the effect of varying the length-scale parameter l. Three settings of l and the associated plots are given in figure 1 for D = 16.

We now proceed to make M random draws (denoted by the $M \times 1$ vector \mathbf{v}) from these samples \mathbf{u} with additive Gaussian noise $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$. The subsampling factor f is defined as f := N/M. The draws can be computed as follows:

$$v = Gu + \epsilon \tag{2}$$

Where G is an $M \times N$ matrix with a single one in each row in a random location (without repetition) and rest zeros. The result is that the observations \boldsymbol{v} are a jumbled subsample of \boldsymbol{u} with additive noise $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$. We can plot the data overlaid on the original prior samples by simply matching each entry of \boldsymbol{v} back to the coordinate it was selected from. The result is plotted on figure 2.

We observe $M = N/f = 16^2/4 = 64$ samples contained in the \boldsymbol{v} vector. These are equally likely to appear above or below the \boldsymbol{u} -surface as the noise has zero mean. The noise variance for each data-point is of similar magnitude to the variation in

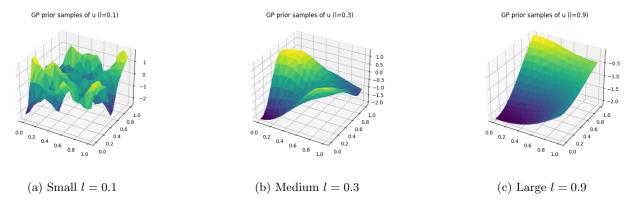


Figure 1: Samples from GP prior for varying length scales (D = 16)

Simulated data v overlaid onto u surface (I=0.3)

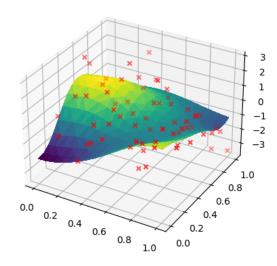


Figure 2: v (red crosses) overlaid on u-surface (f = 4, D = 16, l = 0.3)

the surface ($\sigma^2 = 1$) so some crosses appear relatively far away from the surface. Moreover, as the subsampling is random, the v-points appear at randomly chosen (but distinct) locations X-Y plane.

b Log probabilities and MCMC

We assume that we have realised a set of observations \boldsymbol{v} and it is now our job to determine probability distributions for \boldsymbol{u} based on this information. As a matter of notation, we define the prior function $\pi(\cdot) := p(\boldsymbol{u} = \cdot)$ and likelihood function $\mathbb{L}(\cdot) := \ln p(\boldsymbol{v}|\boldsymbol{u} = \cdot)$. Likewise, we define the posterior $\rho(\cdot) := p(\boldsymbol{u} = \cdot|\boldsymbol{v})$.

The log prior can be calculated simply, through manipulation of the Gaussian pdf:

$$\ln \pi(\boldsymbol{w}) = \ln \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{w}; 0, C)$$

$$= \ln \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} |C|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{w}^T C^{-1} \boldsymbol{w}\right)$$

$$= -\left(\frac{N}{2} \ln 2\pi + \frac{1}{2} \ln |C| + \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{w}^T C^{-1} \boldsymbol{w}\right)$$
(3)

Likewise, v|u is also a Gaussian such that $v|u \sim \mathcal{N}(Gu, I)$ (see equation 2). By comparison with the form of equation 3, we can jump straight to the log-likelihood, noting that $\ln |I| = 0$:

$$\ln \mathbb{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\left(\frac{M}{2}\ln 2\pi + \frac{1}{2}\left(\boldsymbol{v} - G\boldsymbol{w}\right)^{T}\left(\boldsymbol{v} - G\boldsymbol{w}\right)\right)$$
(4)

From these it is trivial to determine the log-posterior from Bayes' rule:

$$\rho(\boldsymbol{w}) \propto \pi(\boldsymbol{w}) \cdot \mathbb{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$$

$$\therefore \ln \rho(\boldsymbol{w}) = \ln \pi(\boldsymbol{w}) + \ln \mathbb{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) + \text{const}$$
 (5)

It is important to note that, w is simply a dummy variable.

b.1 Gaussian Random Walk - Metropolis Hastings (GRW-MH)

Armed with the log-posterior (equation 5), observations \boldsymbol{v} and observation matrix G, we can now apply the Gaussian Random Walk Metropolis-Hastings algorithm to draw samples of \boldsymbol{u} from the posterior. We start with an initial estimate drawn from the prior $\boldsymbol{u}^{(0)} \sim p(\boldsymbol{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{u}; 0, C)$. For simplicity we use the symbol $\boldsymbol{\zeta}^*$ to denote a fresh sample drawn from the prior $\boldsymbol{\pi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, C)$. It is computed by applying a Cholesky decomposition to the covariance matrix C and multiplying a standard Gaussian vector $\boldsymbol{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$. As such:

$$\boldsymbol{\zeta^*} = C^{1/2} \boldsymbol{z} \tag{6}$$

To emphasise, every time ζ^* appears in an equation we draw a fresh sample according to equation 6. We then pick a symmetric proposal distribution to sequentially generate samples. Given a sample u^t we generate a proposal $w^{(t)}$ as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} \coloneqq \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} + \beta \boldsymbol{\zeta}^* \tag{7}$$

Where β is a hyperparameter that controls the step-size of each iteration. As our proposal distribution is symmetric, the acceptance probability $\alpha^{(t)} := \alpha(\boldsymbol{u}^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$ simplifies to the ratio of posteriors (with an upper bound of 1):

$$\alpha(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w}) := \min\left(\frac{\rho(\boldsymbol{w})}{\rho(\boldsymbol{u})}, 1\right)$$
 (8)

It may be more natural to deal in log of this value:

$$\ln \alpha^{(t)} = \min \left(\ln \rho(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) - \ln \rho(\boldsymbol{u}^{(t)}), 0 \right)$$
(9)

Naturally, we can sample a uniform random variable $U \sim \mathcal{U}(0,1)$ and compare to $\alpha^{(t)}$:

$$p(U < \alpha) = \alpha$$

$$\therefore p(\ln U < \ln \alpha) = \alpha$$
(10)

As such the algorithm goes as follows:

Algorithm 1 Gaussian Random Walk - Metropolis Hastings

```
\begin{array}{l} \boldsymbol{u}^{(0)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\zeta}^* \\ \text{for } t \in \{0, 1 \cdots T - 1\} \text{ do} \\ \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} + \beta \boldsymbol{\zeta}^* \\ \ln \alpha^{(t)} \leftarrow \min \left( \ln \rho(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) - \ln \rho(\boldsymbol{u}^{(t)}), 0 \right) \\ U^{(t)} \leftarrow \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1) \\ \text{if } \ln U^{(t)} \leq \ln \alpha^{(t)} \text{ then} \\ \boldsymbol{u}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} \\ \text{else} \\ \boldsymbol{u}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} \\ \text{end if} \\ \text{end for} \end{array} \right. \\ \triangleright \text{Proposal rejected}
```

As our algorithm depends only on the difference of the posteriors, there is no need to compute the constant term. This massively speeds up computation.

Algorithm 2 preconditioned Crank-Nicholsons

```
\begin{array}{l} \boldsymbol{u}^{(0)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\zeta}^* \\ \textbf{for } t \in \{0, 1 \cdots T - 1\} \ \textbf{do} \\ \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} \leftarrow \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} + \beta \boldsymbol{\zeta}^* \\ \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} \leftarrow \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} + \beta \boldsymbol{\zeta}^* \\ \ln \alpha^{(t)} \leftarrow \min \left( \ln \mathbb{L}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) - \ln \mathbb{L}(\boldsymbol{u}^{(t)}), 0 \right) \\ U^{(t)} \leftarrow \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1) \\ \textbf{if } \ln U^{(t)} \leq \ln \alpha^{(t)} \ \textbf{then} \\ \boldsymbol{u}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} \\ \textbf{else} \\ \boldsymbol{u}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} \\ \textbf{end if} \\ \textbf{end for} \end{array} \right. \\ \triangleright \text{Proposal rejected}
```

b.2 preconditioned Crank-Nicholson (pCN)

Preconditioned Crank-Nicholson is rather similar, except we choose a subtly different proposal distribution:

$$\boldsymbol{\omega}^{(t)} \coloneqq \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \boldsymbol{u}^{(t)} + \beta \boldsymbol{\zeta}^* \tag{11}$$

This changes the form of our acceptance probability subtly by exchanging the posterior ρ for the likelihood \mathbb{L} . The rest of the algorithm is broadly unchanged:

One advantage is that we do not need to compute the prior probability for each proposal, speeding up computation.

- c Probit classification
- d Length scale inference
- 3 Spatial Data
- a Poisson Likelihood
- b Monte Carlo Estimation

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